Dynamic scaling for 2D superconductors, Josephson junction arrays and superfluids

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The value of the dynamic critical exponent $z$ is studied for two-dimensional superconducting, superfluid, and Josephson Junction array systems in zero magnetic field via the Fisher-Fisher-Huse dynamic scaling. We find $z \simeq 5.6 \pm 0.3$, a relatively large value indicative of non-diffusive dynamics. Universality of the scaling function is tested and confirmed for the thinnest samples. We discuss the validity of the dynamic scaling analysis as well as the previous studies of the Kosterlitz-Thouless-Berezinskii transition in these systems, the results of which seem to be consistent with simple diffusion ($z = 2$). Further studies are discussed and encouraged.

I. INTRODUCTION

The dynamics of two-dimensional (2D) zero-field systems have been studied continually over the last few decades usually in the context of the Kosterlitz-Thouless-Berezinskii (KT B) transition. The dynamic critical exponent $z$ characterizes the critical behavior of the dynamics of a transition. Despite the ongoing studies of KT B dynamics, the value of $z$ is usually not questioned to be anything but the value that describes simple diffusion: $z = 2$. This paper, through an analysis of various transport data sets from systems including superconductors (SC’s), superfluids (SF’s), and Josephson Junction Arrays (JJA’s) using the dynamic scaling of Fisher, Fisher and Huse presents ample evidence that the value of $z$ in these systems is much higher: $z \simeq 5.6$. The purpose of this paper is to convince the reader that despite the many previous reports consistent with $z = 2$, the question of the value of $z$ is still an open one. Perhaps the single element that distinguishes this analysis from past analyses is that $z$ is not taken a priori to have a value 2. In the dynamic scaling analysis, varying $z$ to optimize the description of the data is standard.

This paper is organized as follows. We begin in this section with a general description of the KT B transition, previous scaling attempts of $I$-$V$ data, and previous findings of anomalous vortex diffusion. In Section I, we will discuss the various length scales whose competition results in the interesting critical behavior of this transition. In Section II, we present scaling results on SC’s, JJA’s, and SF’s and also check for universality of the scaled data. We discuss the validity of the dynamic scaling approach as well as that of the conventional approach in Section III. We summarize the paper in Section IV.
II. THE KTB TRANSITION IN 2D SUPERCONDUCTING SYSTEMS: BACKGROUND

In this paper, we propose an interpretation of transport data on superconductors, superfluids and Josephson Junction arrays that is very different than that which has been accepted for the last twenty years. In order to judge the two approaches, a thorough understanding of the KTB transition and critical behavior as well as the approaches used to study them is needed. In this section, we will review this background, directing our discussion primarily at superconducting systems. (For discussion on JJA’s or superfluids, see the reviews listed below.) We will discuss the various relevant length scales, the criteria for a phase transition, and the approaches one can take to study the KTB dynamic critical behavior. We don’t intend our review to be comprehensive and refer the reader to any of the many excellent reviews.

A. Length Scales

The competition of the length scales in the system determines the critical behavior of the KTB transition. For this reason it is important to review each of them.

One can subdivide the length scales of the system into two categories: intrinsic and extrinsic. By extrinsic, we mean those length scales that are determined by an applied current or magnetic field.

Intrinsic

The intrinsic length scales include the vortex correlation length \( \xi(T) \), the 2D penetration depth \( \lambda_{2D} = 2\lambda^2/d \) (where \( \lambda \) is the London penetration depth and \( d \) is the sample thickness), and sample size.

There are three important aspects of the correlation length that we discuss here. The first is its distinctive temperature dependence for temperatures above the transition temperature \( T_{KTB} \):

\[
\xi_+(T) \propto \exp\left[\sqrt{b/(T/T_{KTB} - 1)}\right] \tag{1}
\]

where \( b \) is a non-universal constant. This unique temperature dependence is in contrast to the common power-law dependence one finds, for example, in Ginzburg-Landau theory.

The second aspect is the behavior of \( \xi_-(T) \) below \( T_{KTB} \). Because the susceptibility below the transition temperature is infinite, Kosterlitz originally defined \( \xi_-(T) \) to be infinite. Based on the critical behavior of the dielectric constant, Ambegaokar et al. (AHNS) defined a finite diverging correlation length for \( T < T_{KTB} \). The two results do not contradict one another since they have different meaning. The AHNS correlation length for \( T < T_{KTB} \) can be thought of as the size of the largest vortex pairs. Ambegaokar et al. estimate that the \( \xi_-(T) \) has a smaller magnitude than \( \xi_+(T) \):

\[
\xi_-(T) \propto \exp\left[\sqrt{b/2\pi(1 - T/T_{KTB})}\right] \tag{2}
\]

In this paper, we will take \( \xi_-(T) \) to represent the size of the largest pairs.

The third aspect of the correlation length that is important in this paper is its behavior in an applied current \( I \). The effect of an applied current is to unbind vortex pairs down to zero temperature and therefore to destroy the phase transition. As a result, the correlation length
no longer diverges for finite $I$ at $T_{KTB}$ and has the following behavior:

$$\xi_{\pm}(T, I) \propto \frac{T}{f[I_{\pm}(T, I = 0)/T]}$$

(3)

where $f$ is a non-singular function.

The next two intrinsic length scales are associated with finite size effects and give a single vortex a finite “bare” energy. The first, which does not apply to superfluid helium, is the 2D penetration depth $\lambda_{2D} = 2\xi^2/d$. At distances less than this length from the vortex core, the superfluid velocity goes as $1/r$. Beyond this length, the superfluid velocity decreases as $1/r^2$. In a “perfect” ($d = 0$) superconductor, $\lambda_{2D} = \infty$ and the superconductor behaves as a superfluid would. The second finite size length is sample size, which is the smaller of the sample width $W$ and length $L$. (Typically $W \ll L$.) The energy of a free vortex is,

$$E_{FV} = \frac{q^2}{2} \ln(L_{fs}/\xi_0) + E_c$$

(4)

where $\xi_0$ is the size of the vortex core and the finite size

$$L_{fs} = \min[\lambda_{2D}, W].$$

(5)

The vortex interaction strength $q^2$ and the core energy $E_c$ depend on the system (SC, SF, of JJAs). A finite energy for a single vortex means that there will be free vortices below the transition temperature, which in turn precludes a true phase transition as we will discuss in the next section.

B. Existence of the phase transition?

Because of $\lambda_{2D}$, Kosterlitz and Thouless originally wrote that this critical behavior would not apply to superconductors. It was later realized that in practice, $\lambda_{2D}$ can be larger than the system size and so superconducting films should not behave much differently than superfluid films. Whether $\lambda_{2D}$ is larger than the system size or vice versa, there will be a finite density of free vortices below the transition temperature. The density of free vortices will be

$$n_F \propto L_{fs}^2/(2k_BT).$$

(6)

where $q^2$ here is the renormalized vortex interaction strength and, again, $L_{fs} = \min[\lambda_{2D}, W]$. Note that system size and $\lambda_{2D}$ enter Eq. (6) in the same manner, implying that one cannot tune the ratio of $\lambda_{2D}$ to $W$ to observe the transition. This is contrary to a perception in the literature that the transition can be observed if $\lambda_{2D} > W$. This begs the question of why one should see critical behavior at all if there is no true phase transition in finite size systems. The answer of course is that critical behavior can be seen if there is a diverging length. This occurs in the KTB system, provided that $\xi_{\pm}(T) < L_{fs}$.

C. Approaches to studying KTB dynamics in superconductors

A variety of approaches can be used to study KTB dynamic behavior. Here we review the two main approaches used to study the dynamics of superconducting and JJA films and that therefore determine a value for the dynamic critical exponent $z$. Brief mention of the methods used for superfluid helium systems will be made in Sections IIIC and IVB2. There are other approaches for investigating KTB behavior that don’t uniquely determine a value for $z$; we will not review here but we will
discuss them in Section IV in the context of previous evidence that $z = 2$.

In this section, we will first review the conventional results and its derivation. We will then generalize these formula to a general value of $z$. The dynamic scaling analysis will then be introduced and finally, the connections between the two approaches will be discussed.

1. Conventional approach

In the first, more “conventional” approach, the current-voltage ($I$-$V$) isotherms are measured and analyzed in terms of their $I \to 0$ limit:

$$V/I \propto I^{\alpha(T) - 1}. \quad (9)$$

The signature of a KTB transition is a jump from non-linear behavior below the transition temperature to ohmic above the $T_{KTB}$:

$$V/I = R(T) \propto \exp[-2\sqrt{b/(T/T_{KTB} - 1)}]. \quad (10)$$

where $b$ is a non-universal constant. Minnhagen has generalized this to take into account the underlying superfluid. See Eq. (23). In particular, the exponent $\alpha(T)$ will decrease linearly with increasing temperature until the transition temperature is reached at which point $\alpha(T)$ will, in the $I \to 0$ limit, jump from 3 to 1 because of the “universal jump” in the superfluid density. Indeed, the condition $\alpha(T = T_{KTB}) = 3$ is commonly used to determine the transition temperature.

Eq. (10) is derived by determining $R(T, I)$ above and below $T_{KTB}$ and using $V = IR(T, I)$. This derivation is well documented but we will highlight the key points. To find $R(T, I)$, the density of free vortices $n_f$ must be determined.

Below the transition temperature, free vortices in the limit of a weak current are produced by thermal activation over the barrier in $E(r_c)$ as mentioned above [below Eq. (8)]. This is done using the kinetic equation for the rate of change in the number of free vortices:

$$dn_f/dt = \Gamma(T, I) - n_f^2. \quad (11)$$

As mentioned above, $\Gamma(T, I)$ is the rate at which vortex pairs are unbound [\Gamma(T, I) \propto \exp(-E(r_c)/k_BT)]. The second term in Eq. (11) takes into account free vortices combining to form pairs. In steady state,

$$n_f = \Gamma(T, I)^{1/2} \propto I^{q^2/(2k_BT)}, \quad (12)$$

Above the transition temperature,

$$n_f \propto \xi_+^{-2}, \quad (13)$$

since $\xi_+$ is the average distance between free vortices.

The final step in determining Eqs. (9) and (10) is to relate $R(T, I)$ to $n_f$.

Substituting Eq. (12) and Eq. (13) into Eq. (14) and using $V = IR(T, I)$ one arrives at Eqs. (9) and (10) respectively. Kadin et al. have made extensions of this work to finite current. Many workers in the field however take Eq. (9) to be valid over wide ranges of $I$.

Eq. (14) is based on the Bardeen-Stephen flux-flow formula (as stated by subsequent authors). For subsequent discussion, it will be useful to outline the derivation of this equation, whose starting point is the electrodynamic Josephson relation,

$$V = [h/2e]d\Delta\phi/dt, \quad (15)$$

where $\Delta\phi$ is the change in the phase of the superconducting order parameter across the width of the sample. $d\Delta\phi/dt$ is proportional to the number of vortices that cross the width of the sample per unit time,

$$|d\Delta\phi/dt| = 2\pi L n_f |v_D|, \quad (16)$$

where $v_D$ is the vortex drift velocity. Finally, one assumes

$$v_D = \mu \pi h I/e A, \quad (17)$$

where $\mu$ is the vortex mobility and $e$ is the electron charge. Because the vortex mobility is taken to be local and therefore independent of $n_f$, Eqs. (15)-(17) result in Eq. (14): $R \equiv V/I \propto n_f$.

The linear relationship between $R(T)$ and $n_f$ in Eq. (14) presumes single vortex diffusion. If one were to allow more complicated dynamic or critical behavior, then Eq. (14) must be modified. The general expression for $R(T)$ in the critical region depends upon the dynamic exponent $z$:

$$R \propto n_f^{-z/2}. \quad (18)$$

Of course the two expressions are identical for $z = 2$. Using Eq. (14) in place of $R \propto n_f$ in the conventional derivation one would find that $\alpha(T)$ will jump from $z + 1$ to 1 in the $I \to 0$ limit and that

$$R(T) \propto \exp[-z\sqrt{b/(T/T_{KTB} - 1)}]. \quad (19)$$

We will discuss the ramifications of using $z \neq 2$ in Section II.C.3.

2. Dynamic scaling approach

Dynamical scaling is motivated by the observation of critical slowing down near a continuous transition. This phenomenon is well established for the KTB transition, and is marked by the divergence of the relaxation time scale, $\tau$. The dynamic scaling hypothesis asserts that critical slowing down is related crucially to the divergence of the static correlation length, $\tau \propto \xi^z$. 

$$R \propto n_f. \quad (14)$$
In general, many types of dynamics may be associated with a particular static universality class, and these should fall into distinct dynamical universality classes.\footnote{For two-dimensional systems, including SC’s, SE’s, and JJA’s, the conventional KTB dynamical theory is consistent with model A universal dynamics and $z = 2$. For bulk superconductors however, the correct dynamical universality class is presently unclear, and seems not to belong to model A.\footnote{We expect that dynamical scaling will be compatible: (i) both theories predict that the critical isotherm ($T = T_{KTB}$) should be a power-law $V \propto I^{z+1}$ [i.e., $\alpha(T_{KTB}) = z + 1$], (ii) for $T < T_{KTB}$, both theories agree that the voltage remains a power-law of the current (iii) for $T > T_{KTB}$, both theories give $\alpha(T) = 1$, with $R(T)$ defined as in Eq. (13).}}

In light of this situation, it is important to test the conventional theory by performing a scaling analysis, in which the dynamical exponent, $z$, and the scaling functions are a priori unspecified. $z$ is then determined by collapsing different data sets onto a single curve. Although conventional KTB dynamical theories do not support such a general approach, a scaling ansatz has recently been proposed by Fisher, Fisher, and Huse\footnote{FFH for superconducting critical phenomena. This successful ansatz has been applied to a wide variety of systems and transitions, including simulations of KTB dynamics.\footnote{We expect that dynamical scaling will be compatible: (i) both theories predict that the critical isotherm ($T = T_{KTB}$) should be a power-law $V \propto I^{z+1}$ [i.e., $\alpha(T_{KTB}) = z + 1$], (ii) for $T < T_{KTB}$, both theories agree that the voltage remains a power-law of the current (iii) for $T > T_{KTB}$, both theories give $\alpha(T) = 1$, with $R(T)$ defined as in Eq. (13).}}

In the FFH theory, for 2D superconductors, the $I$-$V$ curves should scale as

$$V = I\xi^{-z}\chi_{\pm}(I\xi/T),$$

where $\chi_{\pm}(x)$ is the scaling function for temperatures above (below) $T_{KTB}$. The two important asymptotic behaviors of $\chi(x)$ are $\lim_{x \to 0} \chi_{\pm}(x) = \text{const.}$ (ohmic limit), and $\lim_{x \to \infty} \chi_{\pm}(x) \propto x^z$ (critical isotherm). The universal jump appears as the difference in (log-log) slopes between the two asymptotic limits of $\chi_{\pm}(x)$, as we will discuss below.

It is convenient to rewrite the Eq. (20) as

$$I^{1/z}T\left(\frac{I}{V}\right)^{1/z} = \xi_{\pm}(I\xi/T)$$

where $\xi_{\pm}(x) = x/\chi_{\pm}^{1/z}(x)$. The advantage of Eq. (21) over Eq. (20) is that one can better judge the scaling, because only the $x$-scale is stretched in Eq. (21). In Eq. (20), both the $x$-scale and $y$-scale are stretched making it harder to judge a collapse of the scaled data. (Compare Fig. 4 of Ref. 12 with Figs. 11-14 here.)

3. Connections between the two approaches

While not apparent at first glance, the connections between the dynamic scaling approach and the conventional approach become clear when one considers the following. First, one must keep in mind that the conventional approach, as described in Section [II 1 C 2], is valid only in the limit $I \to 0$ while the dynamic scaling approach is valid for finite currents. Secondly, the relationship of one to the other should be considered for an arbitrary value of $z$. [For the generalization of the conventional theory to an arbitrary value of $z$, see the discussion around Eqs. (18) and (19).]

Taking these considerations into account and looking at the asymptotic limit $I \to 0$ of the dynamic scaling function, one finds that the two approaches are indeed compatible: (i) both theories predict that the critical isotherm ($T = T_{KTB}$) should be a power-law $V \propto I^{z+1}$ [i.e., $\alpha(T_{KTB}) = z + 1$], (ii) for $T < T_{KTB}$, both theories agree that the voltage remains a power-law of the current (iii) for $T > T_{KTB}$, both theories give $\alpha(T) = 1$, with $R(T)$ defined as in Eq. (13).

III. SCALING RESULTS

In this section we will apply the scaling theory [Eq. (21)] of Fisher, Fisher, and Huse\footnote{We expect that dynamical scaling will be compatible: (i) both theories predict that the critical isotherm ($T = T_{KTB}$) should be a power-law $V \propto I^{z+1}$ [i.e., $\alpha(T_{KTB}) = z + 1$], (ii) for $T < T_{KTB}$, both theories agree that the voltage remains a power-law of the current (iii) for $T > T_{KTB}$, both theories give $\alpha(T) = 1$, with $R(T)$ defined as in Eq. (13).} to transport data from superconductors, Josephson Junction arrays, and superfluids. The universality of the scaled data will then be checked. Preliminary results on both high-temperature superconductors (HTSC’s) and low-temperature (conventional) superconductors (LTSC’s) were presented in Ref. 13 where it was concluded that $z \approx 5.7 \pm 0.3$.

A preliminary estimate for the value of $z$ indicates that $z > 2$ for these systems. The critical $I$-$V$ isotherm ($T = T_{KTB}$) is easily identified on a log-log plot by the fact that it is straight (i.e., $\alpha(T_{KTB})$ is independent of current). The slope of this isotherm $[\alpha(T_{KTB}) = z + 1]$ gives an estimate for $z$. A visual check for this condition on the $I$-$V$ data of Repaci et al.\footnote{We expect that dynamical scaling will be compatible: (i) both theories predict that the critical isotherm ($T = T_{KTB}$) should be a power-law $V \propto I^{z+1}$ [i.e., $\alpha(T_{KTB}) = z + 1$], (ii) for $T < T_{KTB}$, both theories agree that the voltage remains a power-law of the current (iii) for $T > T_{KTB}$, both theories give $\alpha(T) = 1$, with $R(T)$ defined as in Eq. (13).} Matsuda et al.,\footnote{We expect that dynamical scaling will be compatible: (i) both theories predict that the critical isotherm ($T = T_{KTB}$) should be a power-law $V \propto I^{z+1}$ [i.e., $\alpha(T_{KTB}) = z + 1$], (ii) for $T < T_{KTB}$, both theories agree that the voltage remains a power-law of the current (iii) for $T > T_{KTB}$, both theories give $\alpha(T) = 1$, with $R(T)$ defined as in Eq. (13).} or any of the others clearly shows that, indeed, $z > 2$. With this initial evidence, we move on to a more rigorous scaling analysis of the data.

To perform the scaling analysis, $\xi_{\pm}(T)$ in Eq. (21) must be specified. This can be done for superconductors and Josephson junction array by exploiting the ohmic limit of Eq. (21): $R(T) \propto \xi_{\pm}^z$. (For superfluids, the thermal conductance $K$ is used in place of the resistance: $K \propto \xi_{\pm}^z$.) For $\xi_\pm$, we will assume that the vortex correlation length is symmetric about the transition (modulus some pre-factor) in this section. We will explore the validity of this assumption in Sec. [IV A].

Note that in the dynamic scaling theory, there are no requirements for the temperature dependence of $\xi_{\pm}(T)$. In this work, we will assume that the KTB form, $\xi(T) \propto \exp[\sqrt{b/(T/T_{KTB} - 1)}]$, provides the most efficient parameterization of the correlation length. It is through this assumption that the explicit connection with KTB theory is made. Any other temperature dependence for $R(T)$ could be used to check the scaling collapse, which would leave the type of transition more ambiguous.

We determine $R(T)$ in two ways where possible. The first method is to extract it from the ohmic part of the $I$-$V$ curves and the second method is to digitize the $R(T)$ data. The two results are then compared to one another.
In the case of discrepancies, the $R(T)$ determined from the $I$-$V$ is used since thermal equilibrium is more likely in that case. Another advantage of using $R(T)$ determined from the $I$-$V$ is that one is assured that the $R(T)$ is ohmic. The disadvantage of course is that fewer data points are available for this $R(T)$. It should also be noted that we fit $R(T)$ only over the temperature range over which we have $I$-$V$ isotherms.

The fitting parameters for Eq. (21) are $z$ (universal), $T_{KTB}$ and $b$ (non-universal). Three requirements must be fulfilled self-consistently in our scaling procedure: (i) $V \propto I^{\alpha+1}$, along the critical isotherm $T = T_{KTB}$; (ii) $R(T) \propto \xi^{-2}$, in the high temperature range; and (iii) scaling collapse of the $I$-$V$ isotherms, according to Eq. (21). Condition (i), which says that the $I$-$V$ curves are straight on a log-log scale at $T_{KTB}$, is used first to estimate a value of $T_{KTB}$ and $z$. That value of $T_{KTB}$ is then used in (ii) to fit the ohmic resistance data to obtain an expression for $\xi(T)$. Finally, condition (iii) is checked. Because there may be a couple isotherms that appear to be straight on the log-log scale, this process is repeated, in the manner of Shaw et al., for the acceptable range of $T_{KTB}$'s to satisfy all three conditions.

In some of the data sets that we examined, $I$-$V$ curves crossed over to an ohmic region at large $I$. This behavior is not due to the critical behavior of the vortices but rather to a breakdown of the underlying superfluid. For that reason, we have omitted such data from our analysis.

Note that in the following, we have displayed all the scaling results (except for a few noted exceptions) without first making a judgment of the quality of the data. As a result, the quality of the scaling also varies. Nonetheless, we stress that each scaling result displayed here has been optimized for the best collapse and not for a value of $z$ in agreement with the other samples. This makes the result that all of the collapses occur for roughly the same value of $z$ all the more striking. Furthermore, we believe that there is a strong correlation between the quality of the raw $I$-$V$ data and the scaled data. But we leave this for the reader to judge.

**A. Superconducting films**

Fig. 1 shows the scaling of three separate data sets to Eq. (21), (previously reported in Ref. 13, but plotted on a different scale here.) The first data set (marked a in Fig. 1) covers a temperature range [30.06 K:46.09 K] and is from a YBCO/PrBa$_2$Cu$_3$O$_{7-\delta}$ multi-layer in which the YBCO layers have a thickness of 24 Å and are reported to be nearly electrically isolated from one another by PrBa$_2$Cu$_3$O$_{7-\delta}$ (PBCO) barrier layers. The scaling procedure leads to the results $T_{KTB} = 32.0$ K, $b = 14.0$, and $z = 5.6 \pm 0.3$ where the resistance was fit over the range [43.5 K:47.0 K]. (See Figure 2.) Curve $b$ in Fig. 1 is the scaled $I$-$V$ data from Ref. 13 taken on a 12 Å thick YBCO mono-layer and includes isotherms ranging in temperatures from 10K to 40K. The resistance was fit over the range 25K to 34.5K yielding, along with the other two criteria, the following parameter values: $T_{KTB} = 17.6$ K, $b = 7.79$, and $z = 5.9 \pm 0.3$. The scaled data set denoted by $c$ in Fig. 1 covering the temperature range [2.6 K:3.4 K] corresponds to a conventional, 100 Å thick, superconducting sample (Hg-Xe alloy). The parameters which led to this collapse are $T_{KTB} = 3.04$ K, $b = 3.44$, and $z = 5.6 \pm 0.3$. The resistance was fit over the temperature range [3.3 K:3.4 K]. While this collapse is not as complete as those of the others in this figure, we emphasize that the best collapse was obtained for the reported value of $z$.

![Figure 1](image_url)

**FIG. 1.** The $I$-$V$ curves from thin superconducting films scaled with Eq. (21): (a) 24 Å thick YBCO layers in a multi-layer structure from S. Vadlamannati et al. (b) 24 Å thick YBCO mono-layer from Repaci et al. and (c) 100 Å thick Hg/Xe film from Kadin et al. (Data sets (b) and (c) have been shifted arbitrarily.) The lower branch of these plots correspond to $T > T_{KTB}$. The limits of this branch are ohmic in the weak current limit to $V \propto I^{\alpha+1}$ in the high current limit. It is these limits that represent the jump in the exponent $\alpha$.

A few features of the scaled data in Fig. 1 should be pointed out. First, the upper branch corresponds to temperatures below the transition temperature and the lower branch to temperatures above the transition temperature. Secondly, an ohmic $I$-$V$ relationship here is represented by a slope 1 on the log-log scale. One can see in each of the three curves in this figure (and the scaled data in the following figures,) the lower ($T > T_{KTB}$) branch is ohmic at low values of the scaling variable $x$ (typically low currents) and curves over and approaches a horizontal line as $x$ is increased. The horizontal line corresponds to the $I$-$V$ relation, $V \propto I^{\alpha+1}$. 

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For this paper, we have extended this analysis to two more 2D superconducting films. The collapse is shown in Fig. 2. The curve marked a in that figure is from a mono-layer of YBCO sandwiched between two PBCO layers of different thicknesses and covers isotherms ranging from 16.32K to 41.31K. For the parameters, we find $T_{KTB} = 18.3 \, K$, $b = 31.04$, and $z = 5.3 \pm 0.5$. The value of $T_{KTB}$ is similar to that of the YBCO mono-layer of Ref. 3 but the value of $b$ is nearly 4 times larger. Curve b in Fig. 2 is from $I-V$ data on 150 A thick In/InO composite film from Ref. 16. The $I-V$ isotherms cover a temperature range [3.010 K:3.182 K]. Here, the resistance data determined from the $I-V$ curves covered only a limited range and did not match well the $R(T)$ data from Fig. 3 of that paper. For these reasons, the scaling criteria (ii) was not fully met. Nevertheless, the scaling collapse occurred for a value of $z$ near that of the other samples: $T_{KTB} = 2.97 \, K$, $b = 10.21$, and $z = 5.2 \pm 0.5$.

We also applied this scaling analysis to a thicker (1500 $\pm$ 500 A) Bi$_2$Sr$_2$CaCu$_2$O$_{8+\delta}$ crystal. For such a thick crystal of a layered material, one would expect a crossover to 3D behavior near the critical temperature and a failure of the 2D scaling and perhaps a breakdown in the scaling. We however did not see any breakdown in the scaling for this sample. Indeed, as shown in curve c of Fig. 3, we found a good collapse of the data with the 2D scaling form with $z = 5.6 \pm 0.3$, $T_{KTB} = 78.87 \, K$, and $b = 0.20$. (See also Fig. 2 of Ref. 13.) A difference between this scaled data and the others was found when we looked at universality. We examine this issue in Section III D and discuss the reason why a thicker crystal may scale in the same way as the thinner samples in Section IV A 3.

A scaling analysis of the Hebard and Fiory $I-V$ data on a In/InO film was not possible since the temperatures of their isotherms were not published.

B. Josephson junction arrays

$I-V$ characteristics of Josephson junction arrays are expected to be similar to that of superconducting films. In this section, we apply Eq. (21) to data from two JJA systems. A primary difference for these systems is that their resistance is not described by Eq. (19) because the temperature is renormalized and depends upon the temperature-dependent critical current $i_c(T)$. In the data that we analyze below, we did not have access to $i_c(T)$ and so we could not determine if $R(T)$ followed the KTB behavior for JJA’s. Nonetheless, following the discussion at the beginning of this Section (II), we will use the Eq. (19) to check for a collapse of the data according to Eq. (21). As a result, the value of $b$ will not have the significance it had in Section II A.

![Graph](image-url)

**FIG. 2.** The scaled $I-V$ curves of (a) Ref. 13 on a YBCO mono-layer; (b) Ref. 16 on a In/InO 150 A thick composite film; and (c) Ref. 17 from a 1000 A thick BSCCO crystal. (Data set (b) and (c) has been shifted arbitrarily.) The collapse of curves (a) and (b) in this figure are not as complete as that of curve (c) or curves (a) and (b) of Figure 1. Yet, the collapse could not be improved using other values of $z$.

![Graph](image-url)

**FIG. 3.** The scaled $I-V$ curves from Josephson junction arrays: (a) YBCO/Ag weak links from Ref. 19; (b) Nb-Ag-Nb proximity-coupled junctions from Ref. 22; and (c) Nb/Nb arrays of Ref. 23. (Data sets (b) and (c) has been shifted arbitrarily.)

Curve a in Fig. 3 is scaled $I-V$ data from an high-temperature superconducting Josephson junction array (YBCO/Ag) where the parameters used were $T_{KTB} = 74.3 \, K$, $z = 5.8 \pm 0.4$ and $b = 0.72$. The resistance was fit over the temperature range: [78K:90 K]. One can see that the collapse is very good except for the isotherms furthest below $T_{KTB}$. This breakdown could be because those isotherms are out of the critical region. An attempt to optimize the $T \ll T_{KTB}$ collapse by letting the corre-
loration length be asymmetric in accordance with Eq. (2) was unsuccessful.

The scaled data denoted by curve b in Fig. 3 is from a Nb-Ag-Nb proximity-coupled junction array. (We used the “100%” data from Ref. 54.) The parameters which produced the best fit are \( T_{KTB} = 6.84 \text{ K}, z = 5.8 \pm 0.3 \) and \( b = 0.32 \) and the resistance fit was over the temperature range: [7.3K:7.8 K]. The scaled I-V’s covered the range: [6.9K:7.8 K]. One can see that he 6.9K data set which does not scale well for currents. We believe that this is not a real effect since all of that non-collapsing data has a voltage \( V < 10^{-9} \text{V} \) and does not parallel the behavior of the other data in that range. The data do scale well for \( V > 10^{-9} \text{V} \). Harris et al.23 have previously checked the dynamic scaling of this data and concluded that \( z = 2 \). We believe that they would have reached the same result as found here had they allowed \( z \) to vary to optimize the scaling and had they used Eq. (21) instead of Eq. (20).

Curve c in Fig. 3 is the scaled I-V data from a Nb/Nb Josephson junction array.24 The parameters used to optimize this were \( T_{KTB} = 0.51 \text{ K}, z = 5.5 \pm 0.5 \) and \( b = 5.7 \), where \( \tau = k_B T / (\hbar / 2 e) \omega_0(T) \). A collapse of the scaled data could be obtained over a relatively large range of \( z \) and \( T_{KTB} \). We attribute this to the fact that the I-V’s isotherm only covered 2-3 decades of voltage and that there were no isotherms for temperatures below \( T_{KTB} \). The resistance was fit over the range \( \tau = \left[ 0.3:1.3 \right] \).

In a conventional analysis, Abraham et al.21 reported a jump in the I-V exponent \( \alpha \) of 3 to 1 for PdBi/Cu arrays, a result which implies \( z = 2 \). As far as we could tell, that data was not published and so was not available for our analysis. We tried to apply Eq. (21) to sample 6-18-81 of Ref. 52 but no definitive conclusions were reached due to the fact that the I-V isotherms only covered 2-3 decades of voltage and a limited temperature range.

C. Superfluid \(^4\text{He} \) films

For superfluid \(^4\text{He} \) films, the analog of electrical conductance and I-V curves are thermal conductance and \( \dot{Q} - \Delta T \) curves, where \( \dot{Q} \) is power through the film and \( \Delta T \) is the temperature gradient across the film. These measurements are done by injecting heat at one end of a thin superfluid film adsorbed on a surface (e.g. mylar). Because of dissipation from vortex pairs, there is a temperature gradient across the film that is measured and is the analog of the voltage in the superconducting measurements. In reality, \( \dot{Q} \) is not the heat through the film but rather represents \(^4\text{He} \) mass flow from the cool end of the film to the warm end, which occurs to replenish the \(^4\text{He} \) which evaporates from the warmer end at a quicker rate than from the other end. This is thoroughly discussed in Ref. 53.

As we shall shortly see, these results do show that \( z \simeq 5.6 \). However, we are careful to point out that the results we are about to present can only be said to be consistent with such a value of \( z \) but cannot be taken to be evidence that \( z \simeq 5.6 \) for two reasons. First, there is no reliable thermal conductance \( K \) data in the “ohmic” limit (i.e., \( T > T_{K_{TB}} \) zero power \( \dot{Q} \) limit.) Furthermore, one has to account for the conductance of the gas \( K_g \) surrounding the film which can only be approximated to within a factor of two. These two points allow us more freedom to obtain the optimal scaling. Nonetheless, the best scaling does yield a \( z \) which is similar to that of superconductors and Josephson junction arrays.

The collapsed data in Fig. 4 marked curve a is from Ref. 53. Instead of varying the temperature, those authors varied film thickness \( d \) which in turn varies the transition temperature. The independent variable then is \( d \) and not \( T \) and so the correlation length depends upon \( |d - d_c| \) instead of \( |T - T_{K_{TB}}| \) where \( d_c \) is the thickness whose \( T_{K_{TB}} \) corresponds to the temperature of the experiment. (See Eq. (17) of Ref. 53.) By adjusting \( d \), they were able to obtain \( \dot{Q} - \Delta T \) data for both above and below the transition temperature. The parameters that we obtained were \( d_c = \) 5.4, \( z = 5.4 \pm 0.4 \), and \( K_g = 8.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ W/K} \). We assumed that \( K_g \) was a constant over the parameter space that the \( \dot{Q} - \Delta T \) curves covered and estimated it based on the small \( d \) behavior of \( K \). This placed some limits on this quantity but we were still able to vary it by a factor of two. We found that the scaling collapse was relatively insensitive to the value of \( K_g \) because most of the power was flowing through the film. As one can see, the scaling starts to break down for thicknesses (\( d \sim 9 \) layers) much larger than \( d_c \).

![FIG. 4. The scaled \( \dot{Q} - \Delta T \) curves from superfluid \(^4\text{He} \) films of (a) Ref. 53 and (b) Ref. 54. (Data set (b) has been shifted arbitrarily.)](image-url)
The collapse was found to be consistent with the results we have presented in this paper: \( d_c = 5.2 \), \( z = 5.6 \pm 0.5 \), and \( K_y = 5.0 \times 10^{-4} \) W/K. Like the JJA data of Ref. 48, the error bars here are large because the data extends only over a couple orders of magnitude.

### D. Universality

One of the fundamental properties of critical behavior and scaling is universality: the idea that the same function \( \varepsilon(x) \) in Eq. (21) and the same value of \( z \) describes all of the data independent of the system or material. For the \( T > T_{KTB} \) branch, we found universality for nearly all of our scaled data. For the \( T < T_{KTB} \) branch, on the other hand, the same function \( \varepsilon(x) \) described the data sets of the thinnest 2D samples but not that of the layered materials, e.g., the superfluid Helium. We explore these issues in this section.

In Figure 5, the HTSC data from the YBCO monolayer, the LTSC data from the Hg/Xe thin film, and the YBCO JJA data are plotted together. Because the scaling functions are dimensionless, we multiply the \( x \) and \( y \) axes by non-universal constants which enter the scaling theory to account for the sample dependence. In order to test universality, all the data sets must be scaled with the same value of \( z \). So we have adjusted each data set within the error bars of the parameters so that each has \( z = 5.6 \). As one can see, the collapse is very good, and bolsters the evidence that this data scales and that the data sets have extensive \( T < T_{KTB} \) branches and because they come from two different systems: JJA’s and SC’s.

![Figure 5](image)

**FIG. 5.** The JJA data of Fig. 3a, the YBCO SC data of Fig. 4, and the Hg/Xe SC data of Fig. 1b plotted together. The scaled data sets have been shifted to show universality of the scaling function.

In Figure 6, we plot all of the SC, JJA, and SF data that we have presented here in a single plot to test universality. As in the previous figure, we adjusted each data set within the error bars so that \( z = 5.6 \). We also removed some of the individual scaled isotherms that did not scale well with the other scaled isotherms from the same sample. This includes two of the isotherms from the Matsuda et al. data (the second and third from the right in data set (a) of Fig. 5), parts of two of the data sets from data set (b) of Fig. 3 (second and third from the right), and part of one data set from Harris et al. (the rightmost set labeled (b) in Fig. 5). One can see clearly that the \( T > T_{KTB} \) data scales well and strongly suggests universality for this temperature regime. The Garland and Lee data is the weakest of these since its lowest temperature isotherm does not lie on the other scaled data as we have pointed out in this figure.

![Figure 6](image)

**FIG. 6.** The data from all of the data sets plotted together. The \( T > T_{KTB} \) data collapse very well suggesting universality of the scaling function for that temperature regime. The \( T < T_{KTB} \) data also scale well if three data sets, belonging to layered materials (labeled Ammirata and Vadlamannati) and superfluid Helium (labeled Maps), are neglected. This is discussed in the text. The Garland and Lee data scaled well except for the anomalous isotherm just above \( T_{KTB} \), labeled Garland.

Universality was not found for all of the \( T < T_{KTB} \) data. Besides the data plotted in Figure 6, there are only a few data sets that have significant \( T < T_{KTB} \) branches: the HTSC BSCCO thin crystal of Ref. 43, the \( ^4 \)He data of Ref. 45, and the YBCO multi-layer data of Ref. 46. (We have labeled each of these data sets in Fig. 5.) The low temperature branches of these data sets...
fail to collapse with the other data. It is likely that the BSCCO and YBCO multi-layer data fail to collapse in this temperature range due to their layered structure. We will discuss this point in Section IV A 3. As to why the $T < T_{KTB}$ helium scaled data do not collapse with the other data, a possible explanation is that the approximate determination of $\xi(T)$ was inaccurate. (Recall the lack of “ohmic” conductivity data for the superfluid measurements.) We recommend further studies of such data to more accurately determine $\xi(T)$ and to check the universality. In short, we cannot conclude whether the data to more accurately determine $\xi(T)$ is nearly three times the expected value for these systems. Indeed there are many reports on superconductors, superfluids, and Josephson junction arrays.

We believe that it should be asymmetric. [See Eq. (2).] Surprisingly, where there was data for both above and below the transition temperature, the scaling did not seem to suffer from this assumption. This is particularly so for the data on the superconductors. One notices that for the data of Refs. 28, 24, and 43, the scaling works well for both branches. (See Figures 1 and 2.)

When we allowed the correlation length to be asymmetric by allowing for different values of $b$ below $T_{KTB}$ ($b_-$), and above $T_{KTB}$ ($b_+$), significantly better scaling could not be achieved, possibly indicating that $\xi$ is symmetric, in accordance with the scaling of the numerical results of Land and Teitel 44. There were of course a few exceptions 24,52 but in neither case was prediction $b_+ = 2\pi b_-$ verified. In fact, in these two cases, $b_-$ tended to be larger than $b_+$. For the superfluid $^4$He data of Ref. 43 we found $b_+ \sim 3b_-$. We do not view this result as conclusive because of the afore-mentioned problems with determining $\xi(T)$ for helium and we suggest further study of this topic.

In our fitting of the resistance $R(T)$ to determine $\xi_\pm(T)$, we were sometimes able to fit the resistance to the Kosterlitz form over an extended temperature range. A notable example is the YBCO mono-layer data where we fit the resistance from 25 K to 35 K. The upper limit of this fit is twice the $T_{KTB}$ which is remarkable since true KTB critical behavior is expected to be valid over a very narrow temperature range. In our results for superconductors, we found $b_+ = 2\pi b_-$ verified. In fact, in these two cases, $b_-$ tended to be larger than $b_+$. For the superfluid $^4$He data of Ref. 43 we found $b_+ \sim 3b_-$. We do not view this result as conclusive because of the afore-mentioned problems with determining $\xi(T)$ for helium and we suggest further study of this topic.

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In the literature, it is commonly stated that $b$ is material dependent but that $b = O(1)$. In our results for superconductors, we found $b$ to roughly $O(10)$ but as small as 3.44 and 0.2, thereby varying by an order of magnitude or two. We also found that its value could vary within materials. For example, the value of $b$ for the 2 YBCO mono-layer systems examined in Section III A varied by a factor of 4.4, which is concerning. However, we do not think it is troubling that the $b$ varied from material to material by an order of magnitude. The systems considered here are diverse from one another. For example, the electron density can vary significantly from the conventional superconductors to the HTSC’s. Another interpretation is that the value of $b$ is a phenomenological one and not equivalent to its true asymptotic critical value.

### IV. DISCUSSION

The main result of Section III is that $z \sim 5.6$ for superconductors, superfluids, and Josephson junction arrays. The large value of $z$ is nearly three times the expected value for these systems. Indeed there are many reports for superconductors and Josephson junction arrays that the $I$-$V$ exponent $\alpha$ jumps from 3 to 1 at the transition temperature, a result that is consistent with $z = 2$. In this section, we explore the discrepancy between the approaches by discussing the validity of each.

#### A. Dynamic Scaling

Dynamic scaling is a powerful technique which has proved particularly useful in investigating the nature of the $H$-$T$ phase diagram in the high-temperature superconductors. Yet, one must be careful with the results obtained with a scaling analysis because this technique is not without its weaknesses. For example, in Section III B, universality of the scaled data was examined and, while universality was found for the $T > T_{KTB}$ data and some of the $T < T_{KTB}$ data, it did not hold for all of the latter. In this Section, we will examine other aspects of the dynamic scaling analysis presented here and its validity.

#### 1. Vortex correlation length

There are various aspects of assumptions that we made regarding the vortex correlation length that may detract from the dynamic scaling analysis. Here we make considerations on its symmetry, the value of the non-universal constant $b$, and the expected range of the validity of the temperature dependence.

Throughout Section III B it was assumed that the vortex correlation length was symmetric about the transition temperature even though Ambegaokar et al. predict that it should be asymmetric. [See Eq. (3).] Surprisingly, where there was data for both above and below the transition temperature, the scaling did not seem to suffer from this assumption. This is particularly so for the data on the superconductors. One notices that for the data of Refs. 28, 24, and 43, the scaling works well for both branches. (See Figures 1 and 2.)
1 in the $I \to 0$ limit. Yet evidence of this is not observed in any of the samples. We believe this is because previous measurements have not gone to weak enough currents to observe this behavior. For example, based on the scaling curve of the YBCO mono-layer data in Fig. 1b where $T_{KTB} = 17.6$ K, one can see that the scaling curve is ohmic for $x \lesssim 10^{-5}$. ($x$ is the scaling variable.) This means that the 18 K isotherm would not become ohmic until the current $I \lesssim 10^{-11}$ A. Clearly, voltage sensitivity is far from detecting that crossover. In fact, that $T > T_c$ branch of the scaled data.

three dimensional effects

We have examined two samples which could be viewed as layered. (The first layered sample that we examined was the YBCO/PBSCO multi-layer system of Ref. 44 where the two unit-cell thick YBCO layers were believed to be electrically isolated. The second sample was the 1000 Å thick BSCCO crystal.) In layered superconductors, three dimensional (3D) behavior is expected in a small region of the current-temperature phase diagram near $T_{KTB}$. One could then ask why such samples would scale in the same way as the much thinner samples and why 3D effects are not manifest.

To discuss the 3D effects, two new lengths are introduced. The first is related to the energy of the vortex pair. This length is the Josephson length $\lambda_J = \gamma s$, which incorporates the effects due to Josephson coupling between the layers. ($\gamma$ is the anisotropy ratio for layered superconductors and is equivalent to the ratio of the coherence length in the $ab$ planes to the coherence length in the $c$ direction: $\gamma \equiv \xi_{ab}/\xi_c$. $s$ is the distance between layers.) For separations less than $\lambda_J$, the vortices interact with the 2D (logarithmic) potential. For larger separations however, the potential becomes linear due to the Josephson coupling between the layers. (The Josephson coupling also introduces a term to the interaction energy for lengths less than $\lambda_J$, but that term is very small compared to the 2D logarithmic one.)

The second length is the $c$-axis vortex correlation length $\xi_c^c$ (to be distinguished from the $c$-axis superconducting coherence length) and characterizes how far along the $z$ direction the vortices are correlated. This length can also be viewed in terms of the length-scale dependent layer decoupling length $\ell_{3D/2D} = \gamma \xi_c^c$ (defined for $T > T_c$) since it determines the extent over which the 3D effects are important in the in-plane direction. Because of vortex screening, the Josephson interaction is screened out beyond lengths $\ell_{3D/2D}$, making the interaction 2D at large separations for $T > T_c$. $\ell_{3D/2D}$ becomes small quickly above the transition temperature.

Because of these two competing lengths, 3D behavior is expected only over a small range of the $I$-$T$ phase space. On the temperature axis, this region is limited by $s < \xi_c^c(T) < D$, where $D$ is the thickness of the sample. On the $I$ axis, the 3D region is limited to intermediate currents: $\lambda_J < r_c < \ell_{3D/2D}$. Above $T_{KTB}$, the renormalized $\gamma$ (and hence $\lambda_J$) grows quickly while $\ell_{3D/2D}$, because of the temperature dependence of $\xi_c^c$, decreases rapidly, further limiting the 3D behavior. This leaves only a small window in which 3D near $T_{KTB}$ effects can be observed.

Returning our attention to the layered samples that we examined here, it is plausible that 3D effects are being seen. After all, it is primarily the layered superconductors of Refs. 44 and 43 that don’t obey universality. For the multi-layer sample, the $T > T_{KTB}$ scaled data fails to collapse with the other curves (see Fig. 4) for the isotherms nearest $T_{KTB}$. That this sample could have 3D behavior is not in contradiction with the reports of those authors that their layers are electrically isolated since magnetic coupling extends over larger distances. For the BSCCO sample of Ref. 44 whose $T < T_{KTB}$ data does not collapse with the others in Fig. 4, we have done the following calculation based on our above discussion to try to estimate where 3D effects should be seen. Since $\gamma \simeq 160$ for BSCCO 2212, 3D effects should start to occur for currents $\lesssim 1.2$ mA (where $r_c \gtrsim \lambda_J$) and persist up to the current associated with the minimum of $L_{fs}$ ($\sim 2.4$ mA) or the decoupling length, very near $T_{KTB}$. Based on these rough estimates, which do not incorporate renormalization effects, it seems unlikely that 3D effects could be observed in these samples for $T > T_{KTB}$. For the $T < T_{KTB}$ branch, it is more likely that the deviation from the universal curve is due to the thickness of that crystal since it is well known that the 3D region is much larger below the transition temperature than above.

B. Validity of “conventional” results

In the previous Section (IV A), we have addressed the validity of the dynamic scaling, whose results indicate that $z \simeq 5.6$. Since this contradicts the evidence from the
conventional approach that \( z = 2 \), we now address those results. We do not claim that each paper is incorrect in their claims of \( z = 2 \) but we do hope to convince the reader that the question of the value of \( z \) is still an open one.

The conventional results fall into roughly two classes, dc and ac. The dc measurements are the most common and include the determination of \( \alpha \) from the I-V measurements. dc magneto-resistance measurements have also been used but less frequently. The ac measurements include the torsion oscillator \(^4\)He measurements of Bishop and Reppy\(^2\) and the ac inductance measurements of Fiory, Hebard, and Glaiberson\(^2\). Clearly, we cannot address each paper that reports evidence for \( z = 2 \) and so we will discuss them in broad terms using particular examples where appropriate.

### 1. I-V and \( R(T) \) dc Measurements

Most of the papers that report evidence for a KTB transition or KTB behavior make their determinations based only on \( \alpha(T) \) and \( R(T) \) measurements. (There are a few notable exceptions to this that we discuss below.)\(^9\) We suggest here that such an approach cannot be taken as evidence of KTB behavior and \( z = 2 \) but only as being consistent with \( z = 2 \) within the conventional approach.

We begin with a brief description of this method. From the I-V data, a value of \( T_{KTB} \) is determined from the condition, \( \alpha(T = T_{KTB}) = 3 \), (which, of course, assumes \( z = 2 \)). It is then that this value of the transition temperature is consistent with the \( R(T) \) data and the Minnhagen\(^3\) form of the resistance:

\[
R(T) = A \exp[-2\sqrt{b(T_{00} - T_{KTB})/(T - T_{KTB})}], \quad (22)
\]

or the traditional form for \( R(T) \) [Eq. (14).] The mean field temperature \( T_{00} \) and constant \( A \), in addition to \( b \) amount to three fitting parameters. (If Eq. (10) is used, then there are only two fitting parameters.) A further check that is sometimes used is to verify that \( \alpha(T) \) decreases quickly above \( T_{KTB} \).

There are several reasons for why this approach can be a misleading check of \( z = 2 \). The first and most important is that determining where \( \alpha(T) = 3 \) is difficult. It is well known that the predicted jump in the I-V exponent \( \alpha(T) \) exists only in the \( I \to 0 \) limit\(^3\),\(^\)\(^3\),\(^\)\(^3\),\(^\)\(^3\) and that, for temperatures above the transition temperature, the value of \( \alpha(I, T) \) can vary quickly from a value of 1 to a value of \( z + 1 \) as a function of current. Hence, one must be sure that the value of reported \( \alpha(T) \) will not dip to a lower value at currents whose voltages are below the voltage sensitivity.

(Beyond the problem of probing the weak current limit, actually detecting the jump can be very difficult because, in the presence of finite size effects, small magnetic fields, and disorder, the jump gets rounded considerably, due to the many competing length scales. Note that most papers\(^6\),\(^6\),\(^6\),\(^6\),\(^6\) do not report a jump in the I-V exponent.)

The second problem with this approach is that, most of the time, a misleading criterion is used to determine \( \alpha(T) \). Because it is seldom (if ever) the situation that one knows that the value of \( \alpha(T) \) determined for a particular isotherm represents the weak current limit, one should examine \( \alpha(T) \) for a given length scale (or common current), as originally suggested by Kadin \textit{et al.}\(^2\). Here, one looks for a change in the behavior of this quantity near the transition temperature. This approach is usually not followed rigorously however. Instead of using a common current, investigators will determine \( \alpha(T) \) for a common voltage range. This has the effect of biasing the results because, as one looks at higher temperature isotherms at common voltages, one is looking at lower currents. This means that \( \alpha(T) \) will have decreased not only due to temperature but also due to longer length scales. Therefore, any report rapid decreases of \( \alpha(T) \) may be an artifact of examining the isotherms at a constant voltage. (There are also cases where not even a common voltage range is used; rather, the parts of the isotherms that deliver the desired rapid change in \( \alpha(T) \) are studied.)

Thirdly, once a value of \( T_{KTB} \) is obtained for where \( \alpha = 3 \), the number of fitting parameters in Eq. (22) used to verify the self consistency is large (three) and the temperature range over which one fits the \( R(T) \) data is limited. So we contend that the conditions for checking \( z = 2 \) in this approach are not stringent enough to be considered as evidence.

Finally, we note the inherent problem with this approach mentioned above that \( z \) is not allowed to vary in order to optimize the analysis. As an example, in Ref.\(^6\) a jump in the I-V characteristics is reported for the YBCO/Ag weak link JJA. (See Fig. 2 inset in Ref.\(^6\) or Figs. 5-7 and 5-8 in Ref.\(^6\).) The sharp jump in Ref.\(^6\) was obtained by fitting the ohmic part of the curves at a temperature just above where the I-V has \( \alpha = 3 \). In this case, no fit of \( R(T) \) was done to check the value of \( T_{KTB} \) for consistency. Also, one cannot rule out that, if those authors had another decade or two of voltage sensitivity, isotherms at temperatures lower than their \( T_{KTB} \) would also become ohmic at lower currents. Further, as is clear from the scaling analysis shown in Figs.\(^3\) and \(^3\), this data is consistent with \( z = 5.6 \). As a second example of this, we look at the YBCO mono-layer data of Ref.\(^3\). By inspecting Fig. 4 of the reference, it is clear that some of the isotherms below their reported \( T_{KTB} \) could manifest ohmic behavior if more decades of voltage sensitivity were possible. An inspection of the I-V data of Ref.\(^3\) (Fig. 2) yields a similar conclusion. It is unlikely that the reported value of \( \alpha = 3 \) at \( T = T_{KTB} = 40.1 \) is the asymptotic value of that quantity at low currents. [The voltage sensitivity for that data also occurs at a larger value (\( \sim 10^{-7} V \)) than that of other measurements (\( \sim 10^{-9} V \)].]

To summarize, I-V along with \( R(T) \) measurements do
provide self-consistent results for $\alpha(T = T_{KTB}) = 3$ (and thus $z = 2$), but cannot be taken as proof that $z = 2$. This is because the flexibility in determining $T_{KTB}$ and the three fitting parameters used in Eq. (22) to fit the smooth, monotonic $R(T)$ data do not pose tight enough constraints.

2. Kinetic inductance on SC’s, magneto-resistance, and $^4$Helium torsion experiments

We now turn to other measurements used to study dynamics in the SC, SF, or JJA systems.

As mentioned above, there are a few notable papers that went beyond measuring only $I-V$ and $R(T)$ curves. The most comprehensive study was done by Fiory, Hebard and Glaberson, who looked at kinetic inductance and magnetoresistance in addition to the usual $I-V$ and $R(T)$ measurements on In/InO systems. The thoroughness of their approach is commendable. While their results seem to be consistent with $z = 2$, they are not without their inconsistencies and cannot necessarily be taken as definitive evidence for $z = 2$.

Fiory et al. were able to determine the vortex interaction strength $q^2$ in two ways for a rectangular strip sample of In/InO. In their $ac$ impedance measurements used to determine the kinetic inductance, the frequencies are small (160 Hz) and so they are probing only statics. In that case the kinetic inductance does not depend upon the density of free vortices $n_f$ but only the superfluid density. In that case, $q^2$ is directly determined. In their $I-V$ measurements, a dynamic value of $q^2$ is determined. They find that the values of $q^2$ from the two measurements agree over a limited temperature range ($\sim 30$ mK), which would be consistent with a value of $z = 2$. (See Fig. 9 of Ref. [33]). However, this result should be viewed cautiously since the two measurements disagree for most of the region $T < T_{KTB}$. Further, the four-probe contact method that they used to measure the data for the comparison of the values of $q^2$ is less accurate and less sensitive than the two-coil contactless method that they used on circular sample from the same film. Moreover, their measurements of samples from the same film revealed variations in $T_c$ that suggest that sample inhomogeneities may be significant.

To further test the value of $T_{KTB}$ for the In/InO films, Fiory et al. measured the magneto-resistance $R(H)$. According to the theory of Minnhagen, $R(H)$ should be linear in $H$ at $T_{KTB}$ but sub-linear above it and faster than linear below it. Their data at $T = 1.782$ K do show a region which is nearly linear ($R \propto H^{1.07}$) over roughly two decades. This temperature for crossover is roughly consistent with their $T_{KTB} = 1.782$ K determined from $\alpha(T = T_{KTB}) = 3$ criteria. As mentioned above, the roughly linear area is over only two decades and the samples do have a degree of inhomogeneity to them. Further, it is likely that surface barriers should be taken into account.

Garland and Lee have also used magneto-resistance data in addition to the $I-V$ and $R(T)$ measurements on In/InO films. Based on their Minnhagen criteria for $R(H)$ they determine $T_{KTB} = 3.123$ K. At this temperature, they find that $\alpha(T)$ drops from a value of roughly four to one. One will also notice that their $I-V$ at $T_{KTB}$ is not a pure power law as required by the dynamic scaling and that their $T < T_{KTB}$ isotherms all have a positive curvature. They attribute this behavior to field-induced vortices. It is clear from Fig. 7 in their paper that the field plays a role for fields at least as low as 5 mG. Yet, in keeping with the discussion on finite size effects in Section 4, it is our view that the crossover to ohmic $I-V$ in their Fig. 5 should occur at a roughly common value of the current. This is because the magnetic length scale should not change significantly over the 100 mK that their $I-V$ isotherms cover below their claimed $T_{KTB}$. This is not observed in that data. Choosing $T_{KTB}$ at a lower temperature seems to be a better explanation, especially when one considers the good collapse of their data in the dynamic scaling analysis as seen in Figure 4.

$^4$Helium torsion experiments were among the first evidence for the Kosterlitz-Thouless-Berezinskii transition. Nevertheless, while we agree that these measurement are indicative of KTB behavior (i.e., vortex pair unbinding), we do not believe that they indicate $z = 2$. In the case of $^4$Helium torsion experiments, Bishop and Reppy measured the period shift and $Q$ value of an Andronikashvili cell. The former is proportional to the real part of the dielectric constant $\epsilon$ and the latter to the imaginary part of that quantity. It is the latter that has the predominant dependence on the free vortex density $n_f$. [See their Eq. (A2) or Eqs. (3.17) and (3.18) in Ref. [33]] They implicitly assume $z = 2$ in writing $\text{Im}(\epsilon) \propto n_f$. We point out that their method cannot distinguish a value of $z$ but only the product $b z$. A value of $z$ other than 2 would still make the values of their fitting parameters reasonable. The noise spectrum measurements of Shaw et al. are another good example of a measurement that is not able to determine the value of $z$ but only the product $b z$. Hence these measurements cannot be taken as evidence for $z = 2$.

C. Comparison of Conventional Approach with Dynamic scaling

To further examine the validity of the finding $z \approx 5.6 \pm 0.3$ obtained from the Fisher-Fisher-Huse scaling, we will examine a data set using the conventional approach with an arbitrary value of $z$. We have chosen the YBCO mono-layer data of Ref. [34] for several reasons. First, their data covers by far the largest current, voltage, and temperature range of any data set in the literature. Second, those authors have pointed out that there data does not satisfy the “conventional” criteria for KTB behavior: the $I-V$ exponent does not vary rapidly
from 3 to 1 near the transition temperature. Finally, they suggested finite size effects to explain the lack of KTB behavior and performed a largely qualitative analysis.

In this section, we will use a quantitative analysis to show that finite size effects cannot account for the observed behavior in that data (Sec. IV C 3). We will then perform a conventional analysis of the I-V exponent to look for evidence of $z \simeq 5.9$ (Sec. IV C 2).

1. Finite size effects

Repaci et al. have suggested that their YBCO mono-layer data has been shown here to scale so well with $z = 5.9$ can be explained in a “conventional” manner by finite size effects, following similar suggestions regarding low current ohmic behavior of others. We investigate that possibility in this subsection, making an explicit comparison between the dynamic scaling analysis and the conventional approach. As the reader will see, we find no evidence of finite size effects in any of the data that we examine.

This subsection is organized as follows. After a discussion of the principle differences between the two scenarios, we look for evidence of finite size effects in the I-V data from the YBCO mono-layer data first using the conventional picture and then in the dynamic scaling analysis.

Theory

The primary difference between the finite size explanation and the dynamic scaling explanation of that data is the following: the former ascribes finite-size induced, low current ohmic behavior to I-V isotherms with temperatures $T < T_{KB}$: in the dynamic scaling explanation the low current ohmic behavior is associated with $T > T_{KB}$ isotherms. The issue of course is the placement of the transition temperature. Because the scaling analysis indicates that $\alpha(T_{KB}) \simeq 6.8$ and the conventional analysis assumes $\alpha(T_{KB}) = 3$, $T_{KB}$ will be at a lower temperature in the scaling analysis scenario.

We first examine the nature of the ohmic to non-ohmic crossover in the finite-size-effect scenario. Recall that with finite size effects, there is always a density of free vortices. [See Eq. [3].] This means that at small currents where one is probing large length scales, the free vortices will dominate the resistance and the I-V characteristics will be ohmic. As one probes smaller length scales by increasing the current ($r_c \ll L_{fs}$), current-induced vortex unbinding will start to dominate the resistance and the I-V curves will become non-ohmic. Because either the system size or the 2D penetration depth can be on the order of 1-10 microns, one would expect finite size effects to have an influence.

We will now use the conventional picture to make the above discussion more quantitative for $T < T_{KB}$. We will show that the I-V curves are ohmic when $r_c \gg L_{fs}$ and non-ohmic when $r_c \ll L_{fs}$. With finite size effects, the energy of a vortex pair is generalized from Eq. [2] to a potential that is logarithmic for $R \ll L_{fs}$ and approaching a constant for $R \gg L_{fs}$. To approximate this behavior, we use

$$E(R) = q^2[\ln(R/\xi_0) - \ln(R/L_{fs} + 1)] - JR/\xi_0 + 2Ec$$

(23)

where $q^2 = \pi n_s^2 \hbar^2 / 2m$ and $J = \pi h \xi_0 d/eA$ is a current with dimensions of energy. It is the second term on the right hand side of the equation that causes the zero current ($J = 0$) pair energy to approach a constant as $1/R$ for $R > L_{fs}$. With this term, $E(R)$ no longer peaks at $r_c$. Rather, it peaks at

$$r_c^f_s = -\frac{L_{fs}}{2} + \sqrt{\frac{L_{fs}^2}{4} + \frac{L_{fs} \xi_0 q^2}{J}}$$

(24)

There are two limits to this equation. The large current limit $J \gg q^2 \xi_0 / L_{fs}$ can be rewritten as $r_c \ll L_{fs}$ while the small current limit can be expressed, $r_c \gg L_{fs}$. In the large current limit where one is probing small lengths, $r_c^f_s$ approaches $r_c$ while at small currents ($J \ll q^2 \xi_0 / L_{fs}$), $r_c^f_s = \sqrt{L_{fs} \xi_0 q^2 / J}$. Remember that it is the value of $E(R)$ at $r_c^f_s$ (i.e., the height of the barrier) that determines the density of free vortices. In one limit ($r_c \ll L_{fs}$),

$$E(r_c^f_s) = q^2[\ln(q^2 / J) - 1]$$

(25)

On the other hand,

$$E(r_c^f_s) = q^2 \ln(L_{fs}/\xi_0)$$

(26)

for $r_c \gg L_{fs}$. So, for $T < T_{KB}$, the I-V’s are ohmic at small currents since $E(r_c^f_s)$ does not depend on current. At large currents, $E(r_c^f_s)$ depends upon the current in the traditional way, and one finds the usual I-V relationship: $V \propto I^q$. The ohmic to non-ohmic crossover occurs when

$I \sim 4k_B T_{KB} W e / \pi \xi_0 L_{fs}$ (i.e., $r_c \sim L_{fs}$)

The $T > T_{KB}$ effect of finite size on the transport behavior is a little more subtle than the low temperature effect because another competing length scale is involved. Even in the absence of finite size effects for this temperature range, the I-V curves cross over from thermally dominated ohmic behavior at small $I$ to current-induced non-ohmic behavior at large $I$. The current at which this crossover occurs depends upon the size of the largest vortex pairs, $\xi_+(T)$, a quantity which is strongly temperature dependent. With finite size effects, since all currents that probe lengths greater than $L_{fs}$ are ohmic, $L_{fs}$ competes with $\xi_+(T)$ yielding the following conditions: when $r_c \gg \min[L_{fs}, \xi_+]$ there is ohmic behavior and non-ohmic when $r_c \ll \min[L_{fs}, \xi_+]$. An important term in our discussion is “premature-ohmic” behavior, which denotes ohmic behavior at currents for which there would not be ohmic behavior in the absence of finite size effects. It occurs when $L_{fs} \ll \xi_+(T)$ (and when the temperature is sufficiently close to $T_{KB}$.)
It is the temperature dependence of these conditions (as well as the magnitude of the crossover current) that mark the signature of finite size effects for $T > T_{KTB}$. For $T \gtrsim T_{KTB}$, $\xi_+(T)$ is large and exceeds $L_{fs}$ so that the value of the current at which the isotherms cross from one behavior to another will depend upon $L_{fs}$ and not the size of the largest pairs. In this case, the crossover current will depend only weakly on temperature. As $\xi_+(T)$ becomes smaller than $L_{fs}$ at temperatures further above the transition, it is $\xi_+(T)$ that sets the current scale for the ohmic to non-ohmic crossover. So the crossover current becomes strongly temperature dependent.

**Conventional check of finite size effects**

As mentioned above possible candidate for observing finite size effects is the mono-layer YBCO data of Ref. [34] because the $\lambda_D \approx 40 \mu m$. To determine the value of the current at which “premature-ohmic” behavior should occur for this data, we use $r_c = L_{fs} = 40 \mu m$ to solve for the current. Using $W = 200 \mu m$, we find $I_{crossover} \simeq 2.4 \mu A$, a value much smaller than the observed crossover current: $\sim 100 \mu A$ for $T \simeq 28K$. This would seem to indicate that $\lambda_D$ is not responsible for the ohmic to non-ohmic crossover in these materials. A renormalization group study [30] confirms that this remains the case after renormalization effects of $L_{fs}$ are accounted for. This is because the condition for observing the finite size effects is $r_c > L_{fs}$. Under renormalization, $L_{fs}$ shrinks quickly but $r_c$ shrinks even more quickly [31].

The length scale that corresponds to the approximate crossover current for the Repaci et al. mono-layer data for temperatures around 28K is $1 \mu m$. Because neither a field-induced vortex length or a pinning (disorder) length could correspond to this value, it seems unlikely that the behavior observed in Ref. [34] is due to finite size effects.

Not only is the magnitude of the crossover current inconsistent with finite size effect but so also is the temperature dependence of this quantity. If it were $L_{fs}$ and not $\xi_+$ which determined the ohmic to non-ohmic crossover, the data would not collapse so well in the dynamic analysis since the temperature dependence of these two quantities are so different.

Another signature for finite size effects in the conventional picture is that the resistance will have an arrheniuous temperature dependence: $R(T) = A_N \exp[B/K_BT]$ where $B$ is related to the energy of a free vortex and $A_N$ is a constant. [See Eq. (3).] We have fit this formula to the data, as shown in Fig. 8 (dotted line), but do not get a satisfactory result. Finally, a finite size analysis of Repaci et al. mono-layer data would indicate a $T_{KTB}$ in excess of 30K following the subsequent work of Herbert et al. This is contrary to the mutual inductance data of Gasparov et al. on YBCO mono-layer films which probes the temperature at which the largest pairs unbind. (Remember, the size of the largest pairs is expected to decrease as $\xi_+(T)$ above $T_{KTB}$.) They find that vortex pairs of size $\sim 0.018 \mu m$ unbind at a temperature of roughly 47.0K, vortex pairs of size $\sim 0.78 \mu m$ unbind at a temperature of roughly 27.8K, and vortex pairs of size $\sim 1.58 \mu m$ unbind at a temperature of roughly 25.5K. This trend is consistent with the value of $T_{KTB}$ that we find (17.6K) for the YBCO monolayer data of Ref. [34] using a dynamic scaling analysis.

**Dynamic scaling check of finite size effects**

The signature of finite size effects in the dynamic scaling depends upon the temperature. For $T < T_{KTB}$, the scaled data should peak off the scaling curve to go ohmic (slope 1 in Figs. 4 and 5) for currents less than $4k_BT_{KTB}We/\pi \hbar L_{fs}$. For temperatures above the transition temperature, one would observe finite size effects only if $L_{fs}$ were shorter than the size of the largest vortex pairs. And in that case, the scaled data would break from the scaling curve to become "premature-ohmic" at $I = 4k_BT_{KTB}We/\pi \hbar L_{fs}$. This is not observed in any of the scaled data in this paper. Such behavior was observed however for the BSCCO data of Ref. [34]. (See Fig. 2 there.) In that case however, it seems more likely that this behavior is not due to finite size effects but to voltage sensitivity. The crossover to the premature-ohmic behavior occurs more rapidly than one would expect for finite size effects and also occurs at roughly the same voltage, which is near the voltage sensitivity limit.

**Finite size effect discussion**

As mentioned above, there is not a “true” thermodynamic phase transition in superconductors because of the finite penetration depth. One could then ask why there is a critical isotherm at all. For example, in the Repaci et al. data, the 17K isotherm is straight over nearly 9 decades of voltage. The answer to this is that the correlation length at finite current does not become infinite (and is not longer than $L_{fs}$) even though it is very close to $T_c$. This is apparent from Eq. (3) where it is seen that the correlation length decreases as the reciprocal of current. It is only when $\xi(I,T) \simeq L_{fs}$ that one would begin to see deviations in the critical isotherm.

To summarize this section, we find no evidence of finite size effects in any of the data that we examine. In principle however, finite size effects are inherent to superconductors and will manifest themselves if the probing current is small enough. It is our opinion that none of the data sets that we examined went to currents small enough to detect finite size effects.

2. Conventional Approach

We now examine the Repaci et al. data with a conventional approach. In Figure 3 we plot the $I$-$V$ exponent ($V \propto I^{\alpha(T)}$) at a fixed current ($I = 0.7mA$) as determined from the $d[\log V]/d[\log I]$ data in Figure 3 of Ref. [34]. (The error bars were determined from that figure and from fits to the $I$-$V$ curves, and are only shown for the near-linear region. The $\alpha(T < 17K)$ data also came from power-law fits to the digitized $I$-$V$ data from Fig. 2 of that reference.) As one can see, there are no features at $\alpha \sim 3$ that would suggest a phase transition, as originally
pointed out by those authors. An interpretation of this data is difficult. A possible feature is a crossover from near-linear behavior of \( \alpha(T) \) to nonlinear behavior near the value of \( T_{KTB} \) (17.6K), obtained from the dynamic scaling behavior. Further, the value of \( \alpha \) observed at this temperature produces an estimate for \( z \) (\( \simeq 7 \)) that is similar to that obtained from the scaling procedure. One can see that the \( T > T_{KTB} \) behavior is concave up, contrary to the analytical work of Ref. 28, but more consistent with the simulational work of Refs. 72.

The values of \( T_{KTB} \) and \( T_{c0} \) determined from the standard analysis of \( \alpha(T) \) with arbitrary \( z \) are less definitive because one is not assuming a value of \( \alpha(T_{KTB}) \). To be consistent with the value of \( T_{KTB} \) determined from the scaling analysis, we have chosen \( T_{KTB} = 17.6K \). The subsequent value of \( T_{c0} \) determined from a linear fit to the \( \alpha(T < 17.6K) \) is \( T_{c0} = 24.8K \). (See Figure 3.) \( z \) was found to be \( 6 \pm 0.2 \), consistent with the dynamic scaling value. The renormalized dielectric constant also has a reasonable value: \( \epsilon_{c} = 1.59 \).

One possible explanation for the absence of a clear jump in the exponent \( \alpha(T) \) in Figure 3 is the relatively short length scale it represents. In order to obtain well-defined and stable \( \alpha(T) \) values (at the same reference current for all of the isotherms), it was necessary to choose a relatively large value for the reference current. This current value corresponds to the length scale 1400\( \AA \) (\( \ll L_{fs} \)), which is distant from the desired \( I \rightarrow 0 \) limit.

![FIG. 7. \( \alpha(T) \) data at a fixed current (\( I = 0.7mA \)) for an YBCO mono-layer taken from the \( d[\log V]/d[\log I] \) data in Figure 3 of Ref. 34. Also plotted are a linear fit to the data less than the transition temperature and the lines \( \alpha(T) = 7.1 \) and \( \alpha(T) = 1.0 \) used to determine the parameters \( T_{c0}, z, \) and \( \epsilon_{c} \). [INSET: \( \alpha(T) \) data at a fixed current (\( I \sim 4.0mA \)) for the BSCCO film of Ref. 43.]

The primary degrees of freedom associated with the KTB phase transition are vortices. The dynamic behavior should therefore be dissipative. Specifically, it has been argued that superconducting dynamics in zero field may be purely relaxational (model A\( \downarrow \)) for any dimension, with a diffusive exponent, \( z \leq 2 \). This interpretation is consistent with the conventional treatment.

FIG. 8. The resistance data of Ref. 3 and fits to Eq. (19) (dashed line) and Eq. (8) (dotted line). The latter equation, based on assumptions of finite size effects, does not adequately describe the data.

The final step in the conventional approach is to examine \( R(T) \). Eq. (19) was used in place of Eq. (22) to fit the data since many of the isotherms are obtained in the regime \( T > T_{c0} = 24.8K \), where Eq. (22) is not valid. The dashed line in Figure 8 is the fit using the parameters that optimized the scaling for Fig. 1: \( T_{KTB} = 17.6K, b = 7.79, \) and \( z = 5.9 \pm 0.3 \). Clearly, the data is more consistent with KTB critical behavior than finite size effects discussed in the previous section.

We repeat this analysis for the BSCCO sample (1000\( \AA \) thick) of Ref. 43. The \( \alpha(T) \) determined for a constant current is shown in the inset of Fig. 8. As one can see, this data is more noisy and covers a much smaller temperature range than that in Fig. 7, thereby precluding a complete conventional analysis. So, while the value of \( \alpha \) at \( T_{KTB} = 78.87k \) is consistent with that determined from the dynamic scaling analysis (6.6) and \( \alpha \) seems to change behavior at that temperature, one could not claim these observations as evidence for \( \alpha(T_{KTB}) = 6.6 \). However, an important observation can be made by comparing this inset to the inset of Fig. 1 of Ref. 43, which shows \( \alpha(T) \) determined from the same data, but for a constant voltage. As one can see, \( \alpha(T) \) decreases much more rapidly for a constant voltage than for a constant current, reinforcing our claim in Sec. IV B that a rapid decrease in \( \alpha(T) \) could be an artifact of using the constant voltage \( \alpha(T) \) data.

D. Theoretical Considerations
of KTB dynamics. However, the present scaling analysis of $I$-$V$ and $Q$-$\Delta T$ data from SC’s, JJA’s, and SF’s indicates that $z \approx 5.6$, a result consistent with sub-diffusive dynamics. Here we mention some possible explanations for this large value of the dynamic exponent.

Pinning is known to play a crucial role in the large values of $z$ ($\approx 5.6$) observed in vortex glass phenomena in experiments and Monte Carlo simulations in high temperature superconductors. However, we do not believe that pinning can explain the surprising values of $z$ obtained in the present 2D analysis, at zero field. The reason is that our result, $z \approx 5.6$ is obtained from very different systems: superconductors, JJA’s, and superfluids. For superfluids, in particular, pinning effects should be negligible. A pinning explanation therefore appears inconsistent with the universal nature of $z$.

Collective excitations, such as vortex density waves, may mediate the observed dynamic behavior. This is more likely to be true if the vortices cannot exit the sample easily, because of surface barriers. We can determine the dynamical critical exponent for this behavior as follows. Based upon the Coulomb gas analogy, the vortex plasma frequency is given by $\omega \propto \sqrt{n}$, where $n \approx \xi^{-d}$ is the vortex density. Using $r \propto \xi^2$, we find $z = 1.5$ in three dimensions and $z = 1.0$ in two dimensions. Vortex plasmons therefore cannot explain the large values of $z$.

Another possibility is that the suppositions leading to Eq. (17) are incorrect. To arrive at that equation, only two forces are included, a viscous force and the Lorentz force. Perhaps, with the inclusion of other forces (e.g. surface barrier forces) an explanation for $z = 5.6$ can be found.

We believe the most likely explanation for large values of $z$ lies in correlated vortex motion, described as “partner transfer” or “collaborative dissociation”. These suggest mechanisms whereby bound vortex pairs do not simply dissociate into free vortices. Instead, the process is mediated by neighboring vortex pairs, in terms of consecutive recombination–dissociation events. Further work is required to confirm this model.

V. SUMMARY

As stated in the introductory paragraph, the dynamic scaling approach presented here is different than most previous studies of dynamics in 2D SC’s, JJA’s, and SF’s in that this approach allows one to vary $z$ to optimize the analysis. In the “conventional” approach, the value of $z$ is implicitly taken to be two. By using the dynamic scaling analysis and allowing the value of $z$ to vary, we have presented evidence which suggests non-diffusive behavior.

Via a dynamic scaling analysis of transport data from SC’s, JJA’s, and SF’s, we find $z \approx 5.6 \pm 0.3$, contrary to the value assumed but not tested in previous reports. This analysis seems convincing in that the collapse is excellent in many data sets and the value of $z$ is robust from system to system and material to material.

The results of the dynamic scaling analysis also go against the many studies consistent with $z = 2$. We have included in this work a discussion of those “conventional” approaches to studying the dynamics of the KTB transition. Like the dynamic scaling analysis, we find that this approach also has its drawbacks. Perhaps the most important is that the experiments do not yet have the sensitivity to actually observe the predicted jump in the $I$-$V$’s in the $I \to 0$ limit which we estimated to be at $10^{-14}$A for a particular sample. Another drawback is that these approaches do not vary $z$ to optimize the fits. Furthermore, the most common method of “verifying” KTB behavior (which is to obtain $T_{KT B}$ from the condition $\alpha(T_{KT B}) = 3$ and then to do a three parameter fit to Eq. [22]) does not impose constraints tight enough to prove $z = 2$. Our analysis of the evidence for $z = 2$ raises the following questions:

- Why has no scaling of zero-field $I$-$V$ data with $z = 2$ been realized;
- Why do critical isotherms have a much larger value of $\alpha$ than the value consistent with $z = 2$;
- If finite size effects are present, why does the ohmic to non-ohmic crossover not coincide with $r_e = L_{fs}$.

We also compared directly the conventional approach and the dynamic scaling approach for data from a particular sample: the YBCO mono-layer data of Ref. [34]. In that reference, those authors found that the conventional approach can not explain their data. In Section [VC], we found that an incorporation of the finite size effects into the conventional approach is also not consistent with their data. Further in Section [VC], we saw that a conventional analysis of the $I$-$V$ exponent was consistent with $z \approx 5.6$. A dynamic scaling analysis of their data however resulted in a beautiful collapse, as shown in Fig. [4].

The primary purpose of this paper is to convey that the question of the value of $z$ in these systems is still an open one, despite the conventional wisdom that $z = 2$. We believe that more study is needed. In particular, more data on all systems, especially JJA and SF is needed and over wider temperatures and current regions (or $Q$ regions for SF’s). The impressive data of Repaci et al. sets a good standard. Not only should dynamic scaling analysis be tried on this data but so too should comprehensive “conventional” studies like those of Fiory, Hebard and Glaberson. (By “comprehensive”, we mean going beyond just the usual $\alpha(T_{KT B}) = 3$ and $R(T)$ measurements.) Of special importance would be a measurement of $q^2$ using static kinetic inductance data (in the appropriate frequency range) and the dynamic $I$-$V$ exponent $\alpha$. If the conventional theories are valid after generalization to a general $z$, then $\alpha - 1 = (z/2)q^2$. (Fiory et al. did do such a measurement but found agreement only
over 30nK.) Allowing the value of $z$ in the conventional theory would also be a useful exercise.

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