

***I-V* characteristics and differential conductance fluctuations of Au nanowires**

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Electronic transport properties of the Au nanostructure are investigated using both experimental and theoretical analysis. Experimentally, stable Au nanowires were created using a mechanically controllable break junction in air, and simultaneous current-voltage (*I-V*) and differential conductance $\delta I/\delta V$ data were measured. The atomic device scale structures are mechanically very stable up to bias voltage $V_b \sim 0.6$ V and have a lifetime of a few minutes. Facilitated by a shape function data analysis technique which finger prints electronic properties of the atomic device, our data show clearly differential conductance fluctuations with an amplitude $> 1\%$ at room temperature and a nonlinear *I-V* characteristics. To understand the transport features of these atomic scale conductors, we carried out *ab initio* calculations on various Au atomic wires. The theoretical results demonstrate that transport properties of these systems crucially depend on the electronic properties of the scattering region, the leads, and most importantly the interaction of the scattering region with the leads. For ideal, clean Au contacts, the theoretical results indicate a linear *I-V* behavior for bias voltage $V_b < 0.5$ V. When sulfur impurities exist at the contact junction, nonlinear *I-V* curves emerge due to a tunneling barrier established in the presence of the S atom. The most striking observation is that even a single S atom can cause a qualitative change of the *I-V* curve from linear to nonlinear. A quantitatively favorable comparison between experimental data and theoretical results is obtained. We also report other results concerning quantum transport through Au atomic contacts.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Electron transport through atomic nanocontacts has been an active research area for a decade both experimentally and theoretically. The scientific interest of these systems is largely driven by their peculiar electronic and transport behavior. Atomic nanocontacts are structures with low atomic coordination number and, as a result, can behave very differently from their bulk counterpart. From a practical point of view, understanding the electronic and structural properties of the atomic nanocontacts is an important step towards nanodevice fabrication and characterization. The first set of experiments on nanocontacts focused on their zero-bias conductance (G) using scanning tunneling microscopy (STM),¹⁻¹⁷ mechanically controllable break junctions,¹⁸⁻²⁴ and relay contacts (RC's).^{25,26} In these experiments a narrow constriction with a few atoms at the cross section is formed. As the electrodes are pulled apart, G is measured and found to change discontinuously forming plateaus with values close to nG_0 , where n is an integer and $G_0 = 2e^2/h \approx 1/12.9K\Omega$ is the conductance quanta. Pioneering experiments^{9,10} clearly showed the correlation between conductance jumps and mechanical properties in the nanocontacts. These results confirmed earlier predictions²⁷ that the conductance variations are due to abrupt changes of nanostructure cross section as a function of wire elongation. Extensive theoretical investigations on nanostructures have been published recently to analyze these systems. One major focus of theory is to calculate the zero-bias conductance through a ballistic quantum point contact. These calculations start by assuming various contact²⁸⁻³⁹ geometries, or by using more realistic atomic positions derived from molecular-dynamics simulations. The potential of the constriction and/or interaction Hamiltonian is then constructed⁴⁰⁻⁵² from which the zero-bias transport co-

efficients are evaluated. While different levels of approximations were employed in these theoretical analysis, density-functional theory based *ab initio* analysis have also been reported,^{33,36,53} which provide self-consistent calculations of atomic nanocontacts.

While zero-bias transport coefficients have received a great deal of attention, one must go beyond this limit to understand the full nonlinear current-voltage (*I-V*) characteristics of the nanocontacts, as this information is essential for the understanding of real device operation. For example, due to the small cross section of these systems, they are exposed to substantial current density $\sim 10^8$ A/cm², which may result in atomic rearrangement. It is also expected that electron-electron ($e-e$) interaction is enhanced due to the strong lateral confinement possibly leading to Luttinger-liquid behavior for the *quasi-one-dimensional* atomic wires. Separating these different effects is experimentally challenging due to the many variables that can affect the results. This is probably the origin of the existing controversy in explaining the experimentally observed nonlinear *I-V* curves of the atomic scale wires.⁵⁴⁻⁵⁷ From a theoretical point of view, this is also a challenging problem: so far only two computationally accurate techniques exist, which can treat systems with *open boundaries* out of equilibrium due to external bias.^{33,58,59} In the approach of Taylor *et. al.*,^{58,59} realistic atomic leads can be treated and the problem is solved self-consistently within the local-density approximation. Therefore, the leads, the device (scattering region), and their couplings are incorporated without any preconditioned parameters.

To further shed light on the physics of quantum transport at molecular scale, we report in this paper our investigation on transport properties of Au nanostructures both experimentally and theoretically. Experimentally, we created stable Au

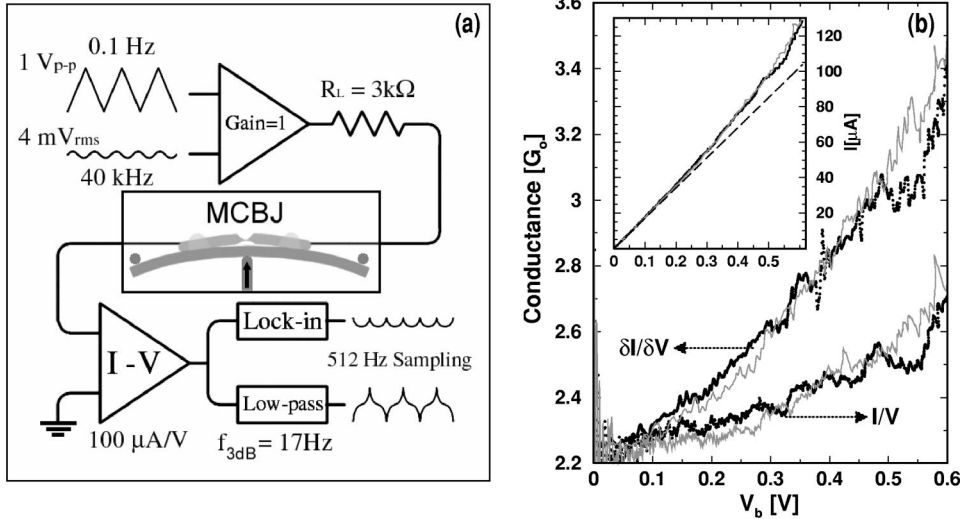


FIG. 1. (a) Schematic of the experimental setup with a mechanical controllable break junction (MCBJ) shown at the center with Au wires attached. (b) Dc conductance I/V (lower) and differential conductance $\delta I/\delta V$ (upper) plotted vs V , inset shows the $I-V$ curve. The dashed line, with slope $\approx 2.2G_0$, corresponds to linear behavior and helps to recognize nonlinearity. These experimental results are measured over a 5-voltage sweep from positive (dark) to negative (gray) bias.

nanowires using the mechanically controllable break junction technique in air, and we simultaneously measure the $I-V$ curve and the differential conductance $\delta I/\delta V$. We found that our atomic scale Au nanocontacts are mechanically very stable up to bias voltage $V_b \sim 0.6$ V and have a lifetime of a few minutes, which is adequate for our measurements. As we are interested in features due to electronic degrees of freedom of the nanocontacts, careful data analysis is needed because transport data can be affected by many factors. By defining the *shape function* $S = (\delta I/\delta V)(V/I)$, which finger prints electronic properties of the atomic device, our data clearly shows differential conductance fluctuations with an amplitude $>1\%$ at room temperature and nonlinear $I-V$ characteristics. To understand these transport features, we carried out *ab initio* calculations on various Au atomic wires bonded with atomic Au electrodes using the first-principles technique of Refs. 58 and 59. Our calculations show that pure and perfect Au nanocontacts do not give the nonlinear $I-V$ curves as measured in the experiments. However when sulfur impurities are present near the wire-electrode contact region, the nonlinear $I-V$ curves emerge due to the tunneling barrier provided by the impurity atoms. The most striking observation is that even a single S atom can cause a qualitative change of the $I-V$ curve from linear to nonlinear. A quantitatively favorable comparison between experimental data and theory results is then obtained. Our theoretical investigation suggests that transport through Au atomic wires is strongly affected by the properties of the wire-electrode contacts.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In the following section, experimental measurement and results are presented. Section III presents the theoretical results while Sec. IV discusses the transmission coefficients in more detail. We also discuss and compare previous works with ours in Sec. V, followed by a conclusion.

II. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

Atomic scale gold contacts were formed with a mechanically controllable break junction in air at room temperature. Once suitably stable atomic junctions were formed, a slowly

varying bias voltage was applied (typically a 0.1 Hz triangle wave, $2V_{p-p}$) along with a small modulation voltage [typically 40 kHz, $4 \times 10^{-3} V_{rms}$] across the contact and a load resistor of 3 k Ω . Current I and differential conductance $\delta I/\delta V$ were measured simultaneously with an $I-V$ preamplifier and a lock-in amplifier. The experimental setup is shown in Fig. 1(a). A typical measurement through a stable Au nanocontact is presented in Fig. 1(b). We show our data for the differential conductance and the dc conductance ($G = I/V$). In the inset of Fig. 1(b), we also display a typical $I-V$ measurement. These data were taken over the course of a 5-s voltage sweep from positive (dark lines) to negative (gray lines) bias voltage V . Both polarities share a common overall shape, but seem to vary significantly in the details of their conductance behavior. However, for each polarity, one notices that there seem to be similar details present in the dc and differential conductance.

An important issue in order to understand these results is the separation of effects due to atomic rearrangement in the nanostructure from electronic properties. We address this problem by writing, very generally,

$$I(X, V) \equiv g(X)f(X, V), \quad (1)$$

where the variable X symbolizes the effects of atomic structure and all other nonvoltage parameters including thermal fluctuations. This parameter X does not implicitly depend on V , but may be affected by the history of the measurement (i.e., how V is ramped) and current-driven electromigration. Hence X is not a proper function of V . The function $f(X, V)$ gives the normalized functional form of the voltage dependence of current, and is defined such that in the zero-bias limit $V \rightarrow 0$, $f(X, V) = V$. Therefore the function $g(X)$, defined by Eq. (1), becomes the conductance at $V \rightarrow 0$. At a finite $V \neq 0$, $g(X)$ is simply a coefficient (to be discussed below). We further define a new quantity called the “shape function” (S),

$$S \equiv \frac{\delta I}{\delta V} \frac{V}{I}. \quad (2)$$

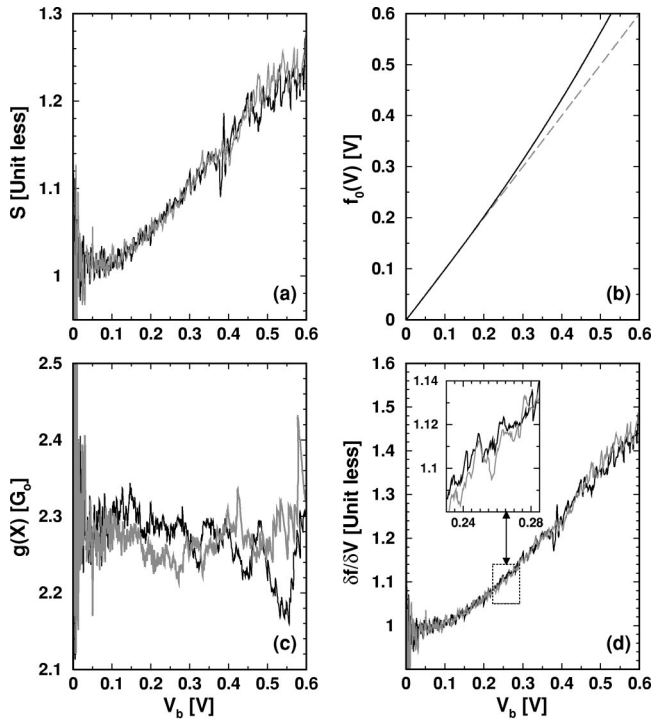


FIG. 2. (a) The shape function $[S, \text{Eq. (2)}]$ vs V calculated from the data shown in Fig. 1(b). (b) Normalized functional form of the voltage $f_0(V)$ with a linear dashed line shown to help view the onset of nonlinearity. (c) Unbiased conductance $g(X)$ vs V . (d) Normalized conductance $\delta f / \delta V$ vs V , with the inset corresponding to a magnified section of the same data to show more clearly fine details. In all graphs, dark (gray) lines correspond to positive (negative) bias.

Figure 2(a) plots S corresponding to the data of Fig. 1(b), for both positive and negative bias voltages. The similarity between the curves of the shape functions for both polarities, including fine details, is in striking contrast to the easily distinguishable conductance plots of Fig. 1(b). By its definition [Eq. (2)], S depends only on f , the functional form of $I(X, V)$, and is independent of $g(X)$.⁶⁰ This fact and the usefulness of the shape function S can be seen by considering the following “Gedanken experiment.” Let us assume that we measured simultaneously I and $\delta I / \delta V$ through a variable, ohmic potentiometer as a function of the applied voltage. Suppose there were drastic changes in the temperature during the measurement, and some troublemaker turned the knob of the variable potentiometer without telling anyone. Both these uncontrollable parameters (random thermal fluctuations and unknown knob turning) are contained in variable X . Glancing at the measurements of $I(X, V)$ and $\delta I / \delta V$ alone, one might wrongly conclude that the potentiometer was exhibiting a nonlinear behavior. However, a plot of S would show that $S(V) = 1$ [from Eq. (2)], which would allow us to deduce that the I - V curve was actually linear and thus in fact ohmic. One would also conclude that the origin of the apparently nonlinear behavior was due to a change in the function $g(X)$, rather than due to a true nonlinearity in voltage.

Using this example, we would also like to stress a subtle but important point: our shape function analysis distin-

guishes between a quantity being a function of V and a quantity being merely voltage driven. For instance, the change in temperature of the atomic contact, and thus $g(X)$, can depend on the *history* of how we ramp up the bias voltage from zero to a finite value V at which the $I(X, V)$ is measured: one could increase V so slowly that it does not destroy thermal equilibrium, or the troublemaker could monitor the applied dc voltage while turning the knob so that changes in $g(X)$ were correlated with V . Despite the fact that both of these *voltage-driven* processes would be related to V and lead to repeatable $I(X, V)$ versus V curves, neither would be mistakenly attributed to a functional dependence of V by our analysis. This is a pure mathematical consequence of the definition of $g(X)$ and the fact that X is not a proper function of V for these voltage-driven events, which depend on the process history. Any functional dependence on V is included in $f(X, V)$ by definition.

Returning to the experimental results shown in Fig. 2(a), we note the overlap of the two curves of S for positive and negative bias voltages.⁶⁰ This points to a similar functional form for both bias polarities. Because of this, we deduce that for this case $f(X, -V) \approx f(X, +V)$. However, the ramping for positive and negative bias voltages is quite different, this is why $f(X, V)$ should weakly depend on X (especially at bias voltage $V_b < 0.47$ V). We can therefore write $f(X, V) \approx f_0(V) \propto \exp(\int S/V dV)$ and function $g(X) = I(X, V)/f_0(V)$. Hence, as an experimental voltage sweep typically takes 5 sec, time dependent atomic rearrangements (changes in X) manifest themselves as stochastic variations of $g(X)$. Other details of this data analysis technique and further discussion on the shape function are not within the scope of this paper and can be found elsewhere.⁶¹

The normalized functional form of the voltage dependence of $f_0(V)$ for the measured data is shown in Fig. 2(b). We note that the curves for both polarities appear on top of each other and they are indistinguishable. However, as expected, the “troublemaker” in our Gedanken experiment shows up as fluctuations in $g(X)$ shown in Fig. 2(c), indicated by the fluctuations and by the fact that positive and negative biases give different traces of $g(X)$. We emphasize that during the course of our bias sweep from initial bias voltage to some bias value $V = V_1$, the atomic structure has been fluctuating and changed from what we started with to something unknown. But if we could find the instantaneous structure at the moment of the measurement and freeze it to make a new contact and remeasure the I - V curve, $g(X)$ would be the conductance of the new contact at $V \rightarrow 0$. In other words, Fig. 2(c) shows a parametric plot of what $g(X)$ would be at $V \rightarrow 0$ at the point in time when this voltage was measured experimentally; hence $g(X)$ could also be viewed as a function of time in this figure. Our analysis shows that the fluctuations of $g(X)$ are less than 5% peak-peak over the course of the experiment. We attribute this to changes in the atomic configuration of the junction. We have also discovered that the power spectrum of $g(X)$ exhibits a primarily $1/f$ behavior. This is also found for measurements using voltage biases as low as 0.05 V. Further analysis on $g(X)$ including its average value, the standard deviation, and spec-

tral distribution at different values of V [see Fig. 2(c)] may provide useful information on the accuracy of the approximation $f(X, V) \approx f_0(V)$.

In Fig. 2(d) we plot the *normalized* differential conductance, $\delta f/\delta V$. Examining the curves in Fig. 2(d), we can see the same subtle fluctuations in $\delta f/\delta V$ as those found in S [Fig. 2(a)]. Both plots show broad and fine details that are uncorrelated to the fluctuations of $g(X)$ [Fig. 2(c)]. These plots reveal that it is the fluctuations of $g(X)$ that dominate the fluctuation features in the measured $I(X, V)$ and $\delta I/\delta V$.

Over different voltage ranges (0.2–0.35 V, 0.1–0.35 V, 0.1–0.5 V), $\delta f/\delta V$ has a high correlation⁶² of 0.99 between both polarities. After subtracting the overall shape, the correlations reduced to 0.64, 0.58, and 0.56, respectively. Over these same ranges, $g(X)$ had a weaker correlation (–0.5, 0.25, and –0.2, respectively) between both polarities, which changed drastically, even fluctuating in sign, depending on the voltage range. In addition to comparing the correlation values, we have also calculated the correlations by shifting the voltage of one polarity with respect to the other by ± 10 mV (the scale of the fine details) in increments of 1 mV. Over all three ranges, the correlation for $\delta f/\delta V$ had a local maximum for a 0-V shift, with and without the overall shape subtraction. No correlation extrema were found in the case of $g(X)$. This quantifies how similar the details in both polarities of $\delta f/\delta V$ are to each other, in contrast to the more easily distinguishable curves for $g(X)$. We thus conclude that the “wiggles” observed in $\delta f/\delta V$ are electronic in nature and they are not as strongly influenced by X as the function $g(X)$, i.e., $f(X, V) \approx f_0(V)$ is a reasonable approximation for the system we considered. We caution, however, that this may not be the case for other structures and a careful analysis of this approximation is required.

The wiggles [magnified in the inset of Fig. 2(d)] of $\delta f/\delta V$ may actually be much more pronounced than indicated in these plots. They are smeared out by unavoidable experimental constraints. Since we must add a modulation signal to make our lock-in measurement of $\delta I/\delta V$, we end up averaging over a range of V . This leads to a broadening and decrease in amplitude of these fine details.^{61,63} This unavoidable averaging artifact keeps us from making a more precise measurement of the shape, amplitude, and voltage characteristics of this fine structure, but the true features should be sharper and more pronounced than they are measured to be. From our data, we observe wiggles on the voltage scale < 10 mV and with amplitude $\sim 1\%$ of the signal. The width of these fluctuations is comparable to the modulation voltage, $(4 \times 10^{-3})V_{rms} \sim (10 \times 10^{-3})V_{p-p}$; hence, it is possible to have features on a voltage scale < 10 mV with an amplitude that is orders of magnitude larger than these 1% fluctuations.

If one were to merely examine our $I(V)$ measurements, similar results have been observed in air and at low temperatures with RC (Refs. 25 and 56), and STM configurations.^{57,64} The fine details exposed by the analysis presented above have not been discussed in the literature as they tend to be hidden by the fluctuations in the unbiased conductance $g(X)$ [see Fig. 2(c)]. The data presented here

represents the behavior of one junction. However, we emphasize that the general features presented in Fig. 2 are experimentally found to be independent of the zero-bias conductance $g(V=0)$ for values between $(1-10)G_0$. The fine details of $\delta f/\delta V$ are reproducible for a given stable junction, but the specific details change for different junctions. Although there seems to be a voltage scale associated with these details (< 10 mV), Fourier analysis does not indicate any strong periodicity. It should be noted that we have imposed a selection rule on the junction type by studying device configurations that are stable on the time scale of minutes. We have also observed junctions that exhibit linear behavior ($S=1$) as have others.^{25,56,57} These junctions, however, are not stable over this long time scale. In comparison to their nonlinear counterparts, linear junctions have larger fluctuations in $g(X)$.

In the following we will discuss the possible physical origin of the observed $I(V)$ characteristics. In this aspect we will investigate the electronic effects rather than the structural parameters, which will be assumed static. This will allow us to gain valuable insight into the voltage-dependent conduction properties of nanoscale electrical contacts. We will thus compare our modeling to the normalized functional form of the current, $f_0(V)$, shown in Fig. 2(b), rather than the original $I-V$ curve presented in the inset of Fig. 1(b). We will also provide an explanation for the origin of the fluctuations in the normalized differential conductance shown in Fig. 2(d) as well as the effects of temperature and modulation signal on their amplitude.

III. *AB INITIO* ANALYSIS OF THE $I-V$ CHARACTERISTICS

To provide a possible theoretical understanding of the experimental data presented above, we have calculated the $I-V$ characteristics of Au nanocontacts self consistently by combining the density-functional theory and the Keldysh non-equilibrium Green's functions. The method is based on the newly developed *ab initio* approach for treating open electronic systems under finite bias. For technical details of this method we refer interested readers to the original papers.^{58,59} Very briefly, our analysis uses an s, p, d real-space linear combination of atomic orbital basis set^{58,59,65} and the atomic cores are defined by the standard nonlocal norm conserving pseudopotential.^{66–68} The density matrix of the device is constructed via Keldysh nonequilibrium Green's functions, and the external bias V_b provides the electrostatic boundary conditions for the Hartree potential, which is solved in a three-dimensional real-space grid. Once the density matrix is obtained, the Kohn-Sham effective potential $V_{eff}(\mathbf{r}; V_b)$, which includes contributions from the Hartree, exchange, correlation, potentials and the atomic core, is calculated. This process is iterated until numerical convergence of the self-consistent density matrix is achieved. In this way, we obtain the bias dependent self-consistent effective potential $V_{eff}(\mathbf{r}; V_b)$, from which we calculate^{58,59} the transmission coefficient $T(E, V_b) \equiv T(E, [V_{eff}(\mathbf{r}, V_b)])$, where E is the scattering electron energy and T is a function of bias V_b through its functional dependence on $V_{eff}(\mathbf{r}; V_b)$.

In our analysis, the scattering states are defined for energy ranges between the left and right chemical potentials μ_L and μ_R , respectively. To solve for these states, at a given energy E , we solve an inverse energy-band-structure problem.⁵⁹ We then group all states as left and right propagating states depending on their group velocity. For a scattering state coming from the left lead, $\Psi^{K_n^L}$ should start as a right propagating state $\Phi_L^{K_n^L}$, and it gets reflected back as a left propagating state $\phi_L^{K_m^L}$ with reflection coefficient $r^{K_m^L, K_n^L}$ in the left lead, and transmitted into the right lead as a right propagating state $\phi_R^{K_m^R}$ with transmission coefficient $t^{K_m^R, K_n^L}$. In the calculation, the scattering states are represented as a linear combination of atomic orbitals inside the device region. This allows us to write, for example, a left scattering state as

$$\Psi^{K_n^L} = \begin{cases} \Phi_L^{k_n^L} + \phi_L^{K_m^L} r^{K_m^L, K_n^L} & \text{inside left lead} \\ \psi_d^{K_n^L} & \text{inside device} \\ \phi_R^{K_m^R} t^{K_m^R, K_n^L} & \text{inside right lead.} \end{cases}$$

A scattering state in the right lead can be written in a similar fashion. For a symmetric two-probe device, the total transmission from the left lead is identical to that from the right lead.⁶⁹ To calculate the total current inside the device at a given bias voltage V_b applied to the right lead, we use

$$I(V_b) = \frac{2e}{h} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dE T(E, V_b) [f_L(E, \mu_L = \mu_0) - f_R(E, \mu_R = \mu_0 + eV_b)], \quad (3)$$

where f_L , f_R is the Fermi function on the left (right) lead evaluated at temperature $T=0$ K unless otherwise stated. In addition to predicting the overall transport properties of a device, our formalism enables us to study transmission through *each* incoming Bloch state of the leads separately, therefore allowing us to separate effects due to the leads and due to the scattering region. We have used this formalism to calculate I - V characteristics of structurally different Au nanocontacts and compared them with the experimental results on the normalized functional form of the current, which is described above. However, structural analysis on these systems, $g(X)$, goes beyond the scope of this work. This requires *ab initio* molecular-dynamics simulations with open boundaries under nonequilibrium conditions due to the external bias. While these calculations could be performed by determining the force on each atom in the device scattering region, it is computationally prohibitive due to the large simulation time required to reach equilibrium.

A. Perfect Au nanocontacts

In a first attempt to model our experiments, we calculated the I - V characteristics of four Au atoms (or a molecule) in contact with Au(100) leads. The structure of the atomic device is illustrated in Fig. 3(a). The scattering region is bonded by two semi-infinite Au leads, which extend to elec-

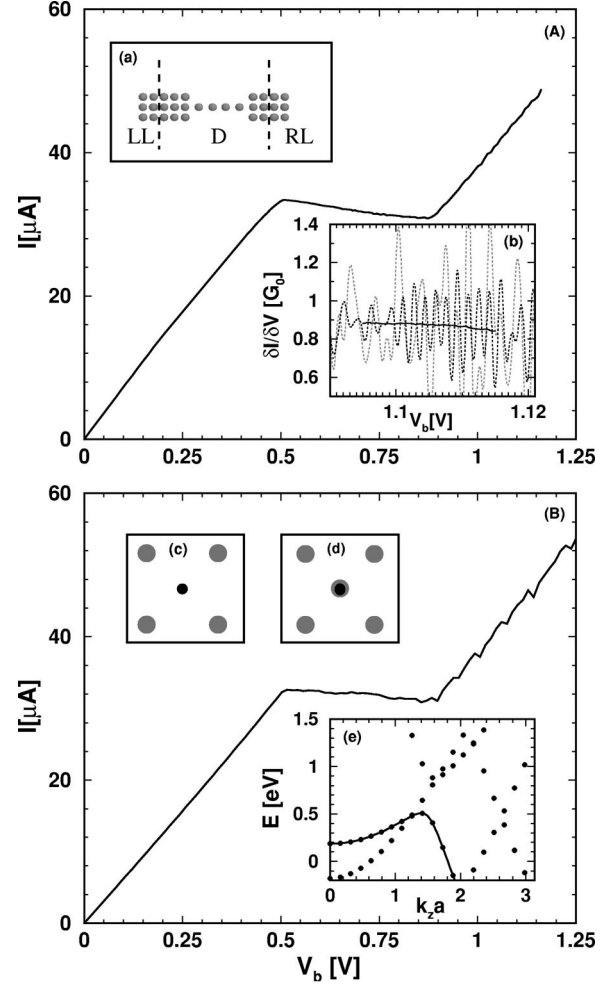


FIG. 3. I - V characteristics of Au contacts with hollow site registry (a) and top-site registry (b); with zero-bias conductance $0.94G_0$ and $0.8G_0$ for (a) and (b), respectively. The structure of the device is illustrated in (a), where LL, D, and RL correspond to left lead, effective device, and right lead, respectively. The hollow site is shown in (c) and top site in (d), where chain atoms are illustrated by dark circles. Inset (e) shows the band structure of the lead along the transport direction, the conducting band is shown by a solid line. Inset (b) shows differential conductance fluctuations of the Hollow site as a gray dotted line, dark dotted line, and dark continuous line for $T=0$ K, $T=300$ K and for $T=300$ K with $4 \times 10^{-3} V_{rms}$ modulation voltage taken into account, respectively.

tron reservoirs at $\pm\infty$, where bias voltage is applied and current is collected. The device scattering region, indicated by D, is described by three Au layers from the left lead, four Au atoms in a chain, and *two* layers of Au from the right lead. We have also increased the two Au layers on the right side of the chain to four to ensure that convergence is reached with respect to the screening length. In this structure, the registry of the atomic chain with respect to the lead surface layer can be different. The most common structures that we analyze in this work are the hollow site, where the atomic chain faces the vacant position in the lead layer as shown in the upper left inset of Fig. 3(b), and the top site, where the atomic chain and an atom from the lead surface layer face

each other as illustrated in the upper right inset of this figure. We note that long and thin gold necks have directly been observed experimentally.⁵⁰

Our calculations show that in all cases charge transfer between the Au chain and the leads is not important, being only $\sim 0.07-0.1$ electrons per atom to the Au chain at different bias voltages. This corresponds to less than 1% difference in electron population per atom and, therefore, does not play any significant role in the $I-V$ characteristics of Au contacts. This is in contrast to a binary atomic system such as carbon chains between Al(100) leads.⁷⁰ In addition, solving for the energy eigenvalues of the four-atom chain gives a highest occupied molecular-orbital–lowest unoccupied molecular-orbital gap of 0.68 eV, indicating that the molecule eigenstates should only have a secondary effect on the transport properties. Therefore, the major effect on the $I-V$ characteristics is due to the character of electronic states in the leads and their couplings to the molecule at the chain-lead interface.

In Fig. 3(a), we show the results for a system with atoms in the hollow site. At small bias V_b , we note that current is a linear function of V_b with a slope $G \approx 0.94G_0$. The linear function suggests that $T(E, V) = T_0$ with a weak voltage dependence. In this regard, our self-consistent calculation gives a result apparently similar to previous theoretical work²⁸⁻⁵² in the low-bias regime. However, we will show later, by addressing the origin of this “perfect linearity,” that the physical picture of a bias-independent transmission coefficient is not valid even for such a simple chain. We also note that the linear $I-V$ characteristics observed in these systems do not agree with our experimental data.

A major feature of Fig. 3(a) is the huge plateau at $V_b = 0.5 \text{ V} - 0.9 \text{ V}$, as well as the fine structures (or sometimes negative differential resistance) observed for larger voltages. In the lower inset of Fig. 3(b), we show the band structure of the Au(100) lead along the z direction (transport direction). Even though at a given energy E there are many electronic states that are potential candidates for transporting current, our investigation found that for $E < 0.5 \text{ eV}$ there is only *one state* that is actually conducting (presented by a continuous line in the inset). Once this state is terminated at $E \approx 0.5 \text{ eV}$, the current is saturated resulting in a large plateau until new conducting states emerge at higher bias voltages. For $E > 0.9 \text{ V}$, transport properties are more complex since more states contribute to transmission. Under these circumstances, band crossing occurs more frequently, and $T(E, V_b)$ changes over small ranges of bias leading to the small structures seen in the $I-V$ characteristics of perfect Au contacts. In fact these variations in $T(E, V_b)$ are the origin of the fluctuations in the normalized differential conductance shown in Fig. 2(d). They thus need to be attributed to the effects of the leads’ band structure. In the lower inset of Fig. 3(a), we plot the theoretical $\delta I / \delta V$. The magnitude of these conductance fluctuations is of the order of 60% at zero temperature, which is much larger than the experimental finding. However, these fluctuations are reduced to 15% if the current is calculated using Eq. (3) at a temperature $T = 300 \text{ K}$ (the temperature of our experiments). In addition, the fluctuations further decrease to $\sim 1\%$ when current is averaged over the

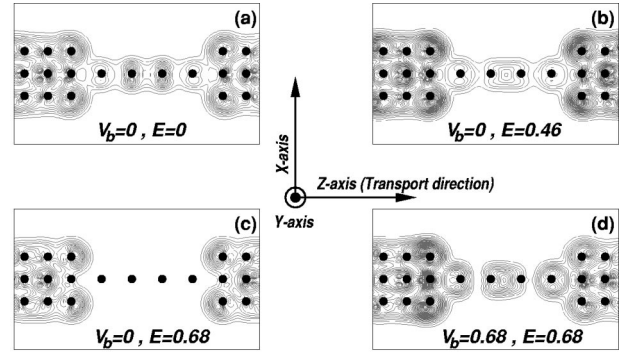


FIG. 4. Contour plots of surface charge density at particular bias voltage V_b (V) and energy E (eV) indicated on each figure. We use the same scale for all graphs to compare the conductance probability for each configuration. Dark circles correspond to atom positions along the constriction for guidance.

experimental modulation voltage range of 4 mV, completely consistent with our experimental results of Fig. 2(d).

The effect of site registry is studied by placing the end atom of the Au chain at the top site of the leads. In this situation the chain atoms are facing one atom of the lead surface layers. This analysis is quite important, because it was shown^{46,47} that atoms at the junction change registry from hollow to top sites resulting in bundle formation just before the nanostructure breaks. The $I-V$ characteristics of these systems [shown in Fig. 3(b)] are similar to the previous results, therefore no change is observed in the transport properties for the top-site registry.

To further investigate the huge and peculiar plateau occurring at $V_b = 0.5 \text{ V} - 0.9 \text{ V}$, we have plotted in Fig. 4 the charge density at a given energy E , $\rho(E, x, z) = \int dy \rho(E, x, y, z)$. We see clearly that at zero bias, $V_b = 0 \text{ V}$, the device property turns from a perfect conductor at $E = 0 \text{ eV}$ [Fig. 4(a)] to an insulator at $E = 0.68 \text{ eV}$ [Fig. 4(c)] due to the termination of the conducting state. Here we interpret the charge concentration as the effective bonding strength, or conductance probability. Applying a bias voltage to the system drives it out of equilibrium, and at $V_b = 0.68 \text{ V}$ and $E = 0.68 \text{ eV}$, the charge in the molecule redistributes, but the bonding is still very weak as shown in Fig. 4(d), with some molecular regions having *zero charge* and resulting in the large plateau observed in our $I-V$ curve of Figs. 3(a,b). This effectively demonstrates the importance of both the energy and the voltage dependence of the transmission coefficient $T(E, V)$. This point will be discussed in more detail in Sec. V. A further point to notice is the difference of zero-bias conductance $G \approx 0.8G_0$ for the top-site device and $G \approx 0.94G_0$ for the hollow-site device. This difference is due to a change in the coupling between the chain end atoms and the surface of the leads. To ensure the same nearest-neighbor separation distance for both cases, we end up with four nearest neighbors for the hollow-site registry and only one nearest neighbor for the top-site registry. Under these circumstances, the hollow site has a better coupling to the chain and hence a larger conductance.

A pure and perfect Au nanocontact, as studied in this section, shows rich and interesting transport properties. It also

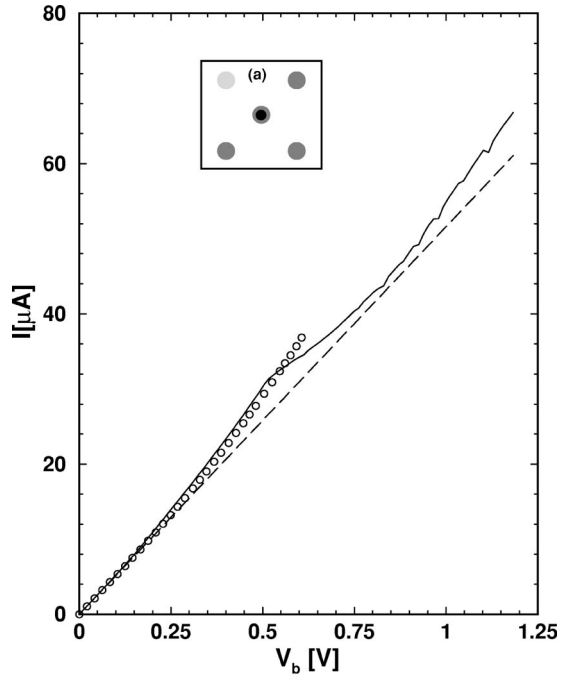


FIG. 5. I - V characteristics of Au contact doped with S impurity (solid line). The dashed line has a slope $\approx 0.67G_0$ and is shown to help view the onset of nonlinearity; circles correspond to the experimental results obtained from $f_0(V)$ [Fig. 2(b)] and multiplied by the zero-bias conductance $0.67G_0$. The inset (a), shows the atoms registry, where dark circles show the atomic chain, gray ones are Au atoms in the leads' surface, and light gray is the S atom.

gives a good understanding of the origin of the observed differential conductance fluctuations as due to coupling of the Au chain to the leads' band structure. However, it has a linear I - V curve at small $V_b < 0.5$ V, rather than the experimentally observed nonlinear I - V characteristics. How can a nanocontact produce a nonlinear I - V curve such as that of Fig. 1(b)? The simplest possibility to observe such a phenomenon is to have a tunneling barrier at the molecule-lead junction whose effect gradually collapses as a function of an increasing bias voltage.⁷¹ While a tunneling barrier can be established by several means, we will investigate a model where it is a result of impurities. Indeed, recent experimental findings indicate that perfectly linear I - V characteristics were reproducibly found in gold-gold nanocontacts in ultrahigh vacuum,⁵⁷ while nonlinear effects emerge when the experiment was performed in the air. This suggests that impurities play an important factor.

B. Au nanocontacts with S impurity

To simulate the effect of an impurity at the contact, we have replaced one of the Au atoms at the interface layer with a sulfur atom. This is presented in the inset of Fig. 5. The choice of sulfur is motivated by the fact that in our experimental labs, sulfur is a non-negligible airborne pollutant (diesel exhausts); sulfur atoms bond actively with Au. We also note that the bandwidth of sulfur, ~ 10 eV, is much higher than that of Au (~ 1 eV), thus a tunneling barrier is expected to be provided by the presence of S atoms. In this

system, charge transfer to the atomic chain is still small, and thus inadequate in explaining the experimentally observed I - V characteristics. We note that the S atom suffers from an electron deficiency $\sim 4\%$. Also due to the presence of the S atom, the coupling of the electronic states in the leads to the device scattering region is quite different as compared to the monatomic gold structure. When the S atom is present, our calculations found that all Bloch states are coupled to the scattering region, with the highest transmitting mode still being that corresponding to the conducting mode of the monatomic gold system.

The I - V characteristics of the S doped Au nanocontacts is shown in Fig. 5. We note that the I - V curve for voltages up to 0.5 V is very similar to the experimental values with nonlinearity onset at *nonzero* bias voltage. We also note that the huge current plateau of the pure Au device has now diminished because more states contribute to electronic transport. To compare these results with the experimental measurement, we have used the normalized functional form of the voltage, $f_0(V)$ shown in Fig 2(b), and multiplied it by the simulated zero-bias conductance ($0.67G_0$). The result is shown as open circles in Fig. 5. The qualitative and quantitative agreement between the theoretical and experimental results is rather encouraging. In fact, this is the first time that experimental nonlinear I - V characteristics could be compared so well and so directly with *ab initio* self-consistent calculations. It is also a very surprising result because a single S impurity can qualitatively alter transport in these nanocontacts from linear to nonlinear.

The I - V curve, in Fig. 5, still shows the small features similar to those found in pure and perfect Au contacts (presented in Fig. 3). These fine details of the calculated I - V curve would result in differential conductance fluctuations similar to those shown in the experimental data of Fig. 2(d) and the pure Au device of Fig. 3(b). However, these fine features as calculated are wider and occur at higher bias voltages than the experimentally observed ones. The former can be attributed to the zero temperature we used in our calculation. The absence of these fine features at smaller voltages is attributed to the small size of the leads used in our theoretical modeling: close to E_F there are just a few states so that abrupt variation of $T(E, V_b)$ at smaller V_b is less probable, resulting in a smoother I - V curve at low V_b .

To understand other possible factors that can affect I - V characteristics of nanocontacts we have studied the effect of a larger number of S impurities, disorder, and their combined effects. The results of these calculations are presented in the following section.

C. Contacts with several impurities and disorder

Including more S impurities at the contact enhances the tunneling barrier and may give rise to a smaller current with a larger nonlinear behavior. The result of replacing two Au atoms at the interface by S atoms is plotted in Fig. 6(a). Indeed, as expected the I - V curve for this system shows a larger nonlinear character. The nonlinearity starts at $V_b \sim 0.17$ eV. It is actually more nonlinear than that of the experimental data; this is mainly due to the high concentra-

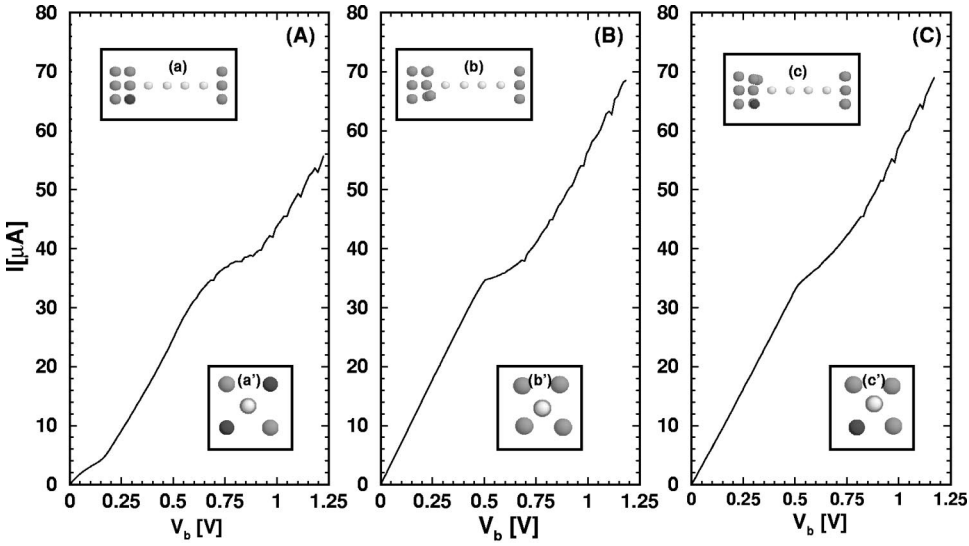


FIG. 6. I - V characteristics of Au contacts with two S impurities (a), a disordered interface (b), and a disordered interface with one S impurity (c). The insets illustrate the corresponding structures, with S represented as a dark circle; Au atoms in the lead and the chain are shown with gray and light gray circles, respectively. (a), (b), and (c) have zero-bias conductances of $0.55G_0$, $0.915G_0$, and $0.833G_0$, respectively.

tion of S at the interface. Therefore, an experiment that dopes an Au contact with more S impurity should show an enhancement of the I - V nonlinearity. This also gives a possible explanation of why experimentally the nonlinear I - V fitting parameters are not universal:^{54,55} they dramatically depend on the contact structure as well as the impurity concentration.

Studying the effect of disorder in nanocontacts is another important problem. To investigate this effect, we have randomized the contact layer in the left lead of a pure Au nanocontact, as shown in the inset of Fig. 6(b). The distribution of disorder leads to a smaller distance between the contact layer and the Au chain, resulting in a better coupling. The current through this device is larger than that of the ideal contact and is shown in Fig. 6(b). For this device, the slope of the current at zero bias is $G \sim 0.915G_0$, and it slightly increases to $G \sim 0.92G_0$ at $V_b \sim 0.2$ V. The I - V curve shows very weak nonlinear characteristics. This suggests that disorder alone may create a tunneling barrier, which is overcome through the application of a bias voltage. However, to observe the effect, there need to be conducting states in the scattering region. For our pure Au device, only *one single state* is conducting and the maximum zero-bias conductance is $G = G_0$. Therefore, at $G \sim 0.915G_0$, the conducting channel is already open to near its maximum at zero bias, hence it cannot be further enhanced in any significant way by applying a bias. The results in Fig. 6(b) show that disorder is an important factor that allows more Bloch states in the leads to couple with the scattering region and contribute to transport properties. This is clearly seen when we notice that the huge current plateau observed in Fig. 3 essentially vanishes in disordered device.

Combining the effect of disorder and S impurity is also crucial. The latter enhances the tunneling barrier and the former may enhance the coupling of the device to the leads. We have used the disordered structure studied in the last paragraph and replaced one of the Au atoms at the contact layer with an S atom, as shown in the insets of Fig. 6(c). The zero-bias conductance for this device is $G \sim 0.833G_0$. This number is larger than that with only a tunneling barrier (ideal

contact with S impurity), but is smaller than that with only a disordered contact (which has better coupling). The final conductance is due to a competition between both effects. The I - V curve for this device is presented in Fig. 6(c), it shows very weak nonlinear I - V characteristics: analysis of our data show that the slope reaches $G \sim 0.85G_0$ at $V_b \sim 0.18$ V. Therefore, there is still a weak nonlinear behavior, but it is small due to the fast saturation of conducting channel in the device.

From these results we can conclude that the I - V characteristics of an atomic junction is a complex phenomenon in which the leads, eigenstates of the scattering region, as well as impurity and disorder play major roles. In particular, a tunneling barrier created by impurities can result in nonlinear I - V behavior of the nanodevice. However, to be able to observe this effect, conducting channels in the device need to be present, otherwise transmission saturation is reached at small voltages and a linear I - V characteristics is seen. Formally, it is the transmission coefficient $T(E, V_b)$ that is of crucial importance when analyzing the effect of the eigenstates of the leads and the device, as well as the lead-device coupling.

In the following section we determine the behavior of $T(E, V_b)$ and we will address the following questions: Is the voltage independence of $T(E, V_b)$ an adequate picture? Which $T(E, V_b)$ behavior would result in nonlinear I - V characteristics? Can the major characteristics of $I(V_b)$ be qualitatively estimated from simple arguments or does one always need to perform an extensive *ab initio* simulation?

IV. BEHAVIOR OF TRANSMISSION COEFFICIENT $T(E, V_B)$

For all the Au nanocontacts we have investigated theoretically, $T(E, V_b=0)$ increases as a function of E (for $E < 0.2$ eV). A typical behavior is shown in Fig. 7(a) by a dashed line for an ideal top site, pure and perfect Au device. From this curve, it is clear that there is transmission enhancement as a function of E , which should result in a nonlinear I - V curve if $T(E, V_b \neq 0)$ behaves in the same way. In the

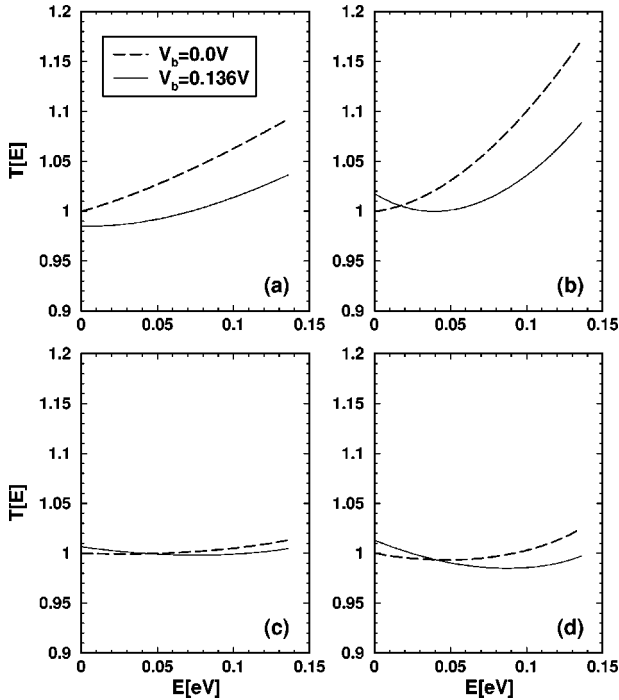


FIG. 7. Scaled transmission coefficient $T(E)$ at $V_b=0$ (dashed line) and $V_b=0.136$ V (solid line) for ideal contact structure at the top site (a), one S impurity structure (b), disordered interface (c), and disordered interface with one S impurity (d). The scaling factor is $T(E=0, V_b=0)$.

same graph we have also plotted $T(E, V_b=0.136$ V). One can observe that the general energy dependence of E is still the same, namely, increasing, but there is a global shift of the curve downward. Therefore, an increase in the transmission coefficient as a function of E is compensated by its decrease due to increased bias voltage. The total effect on the current is to produce a *linear* I - V curve as shown in Fig. 3(b). We also note that this complete compensation between E and V_b is not universal and can be different from one system to another. In fact, even for the same device it can behave differently at different energy ranges. This results in different features in the I - V curves such as plateaus, wiggles, etc. as we have discussed previously.

A similar analysis is done on a device with a S impurity. The results are shown in Fig. 7(b). For this device it is clear that the effect of E on transmission at $V_b=0$ is more pronounced. This is evidence that tunneling is an important factor. In addition to this, we note that applying a bias voltage to the system causes a decrease in the transmission coefficient, but it is not a global decrease. In particular, a bias voltage of $V_b=0.136$ V actually increases transmission at small energies as shown in Fig. 7(b). Therefore, the combined effect of E and V_b does not cancel and it gives rise to nonlinear I - V characteristics as seen in Fig. 5. According to this analysis, one can easily predict some aspects of the I - V curves just by studying the transmission coefficient $T(E, V_b)$ at two different bias voltages. Obviously, this helps to predict $I(V_b)$ characteristics with much less computational effort.

In Figs. 7(c,d), we do a similar analysis on a device with disorder and a device with a disorder plus impurity, respec-

tively. Due to the conductance channel saturation effect in the scattering region, the transmission coefficient has a very weak energy dependence (roughly constant). This behavior also emerges in the I - V curve, which shows a very weak nonlinear behavior. We conclude that the roughly linear I - V curves of Figs. 3(b) and 6(b,c) are due to very different origins. In the latter case it is due to the channel saturation effect in the scattering region, whereas in the former it is due to a compensation between the effects of increasing energy and bias voltage on $T(E, V_b)$.

V. DISCUSSIONS

We have already shown in the preceding sections that transport at the molecular level is a complex phenomenon. To understand these systems, careful experimental work that separates electronic effects from structural relaxations, as well as detailed calculations that include the effects of the molecule, leads, and their coupling are required. In this section we discuss and compare our findings with previously published theoretical concepts and experimental results.

Experimental work reported by Costa-Krämer *et al.*^{54,55} have shown clear nonlinear I - V characteristics in Au nanocontacts starting at bias $V_b=0.1$ V, and its origin was attributed to strong e - e interactions. To rule out the impurity effect, the authors⁵⁴ have used scanning electron microscopy to analyze contacts of diameter ~ 300 nm. They also used energy dispersive x-ray analysis and determined a contamination concentration below detection sensitivity. Experimental cleanliness checks performed for the large nanocontacts (~ 300 nm), however, cannot be extrapolated to junctions of few atoms in size due to the exquisite chemical sensitivity as demonstrated by our model. In other experiments⁵⁶ with Au relays, it was observed that the conductance quantization histogram survived for even larger bias ($1 \times G_o$ peak persists for $V_b \sim 1.8$ V). These data show clearly that in such an experiment nonlinear I - V behavior cannot occur at low bias ($V_b \approx 0.1$ V). We believe that these junctions were formed between atomically clean gold contacts. These experiments were performed by forming and breaking the contacts very quickly (approximately in microseconds), thus removing the impurity atoms from the Au junction even if they existed.⁷² Recently, elegant experimental work by Hansen *et al.*⁵⁷ found that contaminated Au nanostructures show nonlinear I - V characteristics, whereas experiments done with a clean tip sample in UHV show perfect linearity for $V_b < 0.7$ V. The nature of the contamination was not determined.

A fundamental question that is to be addressed in this section is transport through an impurity (or a tunneling barrier at the contact), the most likely physical picture that can explain the observed nonlinear I - V characteristics. In the following we compare and discuss some of the concepts described in the literature relevant to this issue.

Free-electron models have been used to describe the behavior of nanostructures under external bias.^{31,39} In these systems, depending on the potential profile across the device and the external bias voltage drop, various I - V characteristics can be extracted. In passing, we note that these calculations neglected the voltage dependent coupling $T(E, V_b)$

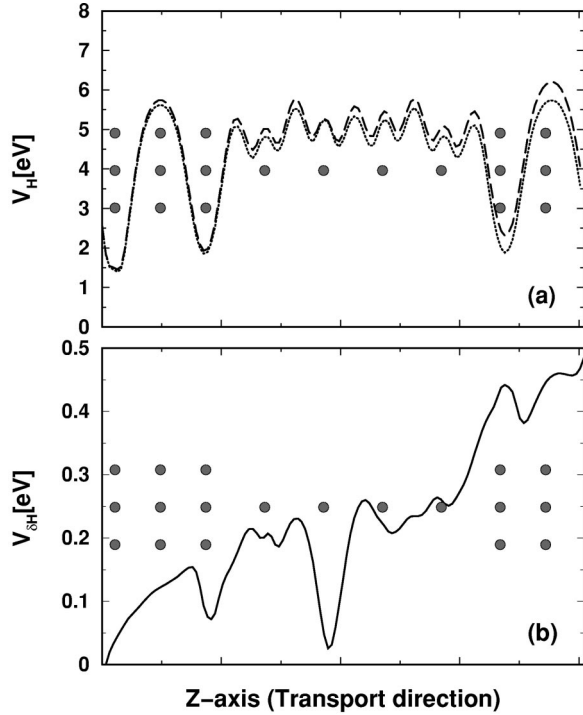


FIG. 8. (a) Average Hartree potential (V_H) across the central cross section ($\sim 9 \text{ \AA}^2$) of the ideal contact at the top site: dotted line at zero bias and dashed line at $V_b = 0.5 \text{ V}$ and (b) their difference showing that most of the potential drops symmetrically at the interfaces. Black circles correspond to atom positions along the constriction for guidance.

(discussed in Fig. 7). This is obviously a major drawback for calculations at the molecular level, as shown by our analysis. However, a voltage drop at the contacts is still a reasonable approximation. In Fig. 8, we plot the Hartree potential across the four-Au-atom chain. It is clearly seen that the potential drops mostly at the interfaces. However, assuming a uniform potential across the constriction is not adequate due to the atomic structure and the small variation of charge transfer as a function of bias voltage.

A self-consistent tight-binding (TB) model has also been implemented to find the conduction dependence of each eigenchannel in the Au nanocontact as a function of the bias voltage.⁷³ In these calculations, the TB parameters are calculated from a bulk system and the charge neutrality of each atom of the nanocontact is enforced in order to carry out the self-consistent calculations. Although it is not clear if the TB parameters determined from bulk structures are directly transferable to nanocontacts with atoms of low coordination number, especially when put under a bias potential, our *ab initio* results show that charge neutrality is a valid approximation for Au devices without impurities since charge transfer is quite small. In self-consistent tight-binding models, charge neutrality is accomplished by locally adjusting the chemical potential. For a zero-bias calculation and nanocontacts with three atoms, Ref. 73 shows that a local potential $\sim 3 \text{ eV}$ needs to be added to the central atom to achieve charge neutrality. This seems to be a large value for Hamiltonian correction. Therefore, we suggest that for pure Au

nanostructures, zero-bias *ab initio* calculations should be done to extract the TB parameters (rather than from bulk). These can then be used more safely with charge neutrality constraints to deduce I - V characteristics of nanocontacts. Since we have seen only small effects of the bias voltage on the atomic charge transfer for a S doped Au structure in our *ab initio* calculations, we suggest that for this particular structure it is possible to deduce the charge distribution and the TB parameters from zero-bias calculations. Using these TB interaction parameters and the zero-bias charge at each atom as a constraint, the I - V characteristics of these structures can then be solved self-consistently. The results are less accurate compared to a full *ab initio* calculation, but they should give better results than using the conventional TB parameters derived from bulk systems.

There are other important theoretical calculations going beyond the single-particle picture. Since the device constriction is narrow, e - e interaction can be strong and non-Fermi-liquid behavior might have to be taken into account. However, it was shown by Maslov and Stone⁷⁴ that for these systems the resistance is due to contact and thus the results are independent from the Luttinger-liquid behavior in the constriction. Therefore, in these calculations⁷⁴ transmission is found to be identical to noninteracting particles. An important, single-particle transmission assumption is incorporated in this model.⁷⁴ However, at nonzero temperature or/and bias voltage, a finite number of particles are injected into the nanostructure resulting in backscattering effects. These lead to charge accumulation at the interface, creating an extra potential in addition to the original constriction potential. This additional potential is both Hartree (V_H) and exchange correlation (V_{xc}) in nature, and it is the reason for the so-called resistance dipole.⁷⁵ Due to this additional potential contribution, it was shown⁷⁶ that for one-dimensional (1D) systems the transmission coefficient is renormalized. It was further proposed that this charging effect can even close a conducting channel that is 90% transmissive.⁵⁵ This channel is gradually opened as V_b is increased for a complete transmission at $V_b \sim 0.35 \text{ V}$, thereby inducing a nonlinear I - V curve. From a theory point of view, the picture of charging induced nonlinear I - V characteristics should overcome two further difficulties: that the renormalized transmission depends on an interaction parameter α , which cannot yet be determined for atomic wires; and that previous calculations solved a 1D case with no effect of V_b on the transmission $T(E, V_b)$. In the rest of this section, we follow the interesting idea of the charging effect and analyze it in greater detail to understand if this effect, which leads to channel closing^{54,55} can give rise to nonlinear I - V curves of atomic devices. To start, we follow the work of Yue *et al.*⁷⁶ by assuming a strong interaction and write the renormalized transmission coefficient as^{55,76}

$$T^R(E) = \frac{T_0(E/D_0)^{2\alpha}}{R_0 + T_0(E/D_0)^{2\alpha}}, \quad (4)$$

where, T_0 and R_0 are the transmission and reflection coefficients of the noninteracting model such that $T_0 + R_0 = 1$, and α is a parameter to describe e - e interaction in the constric-

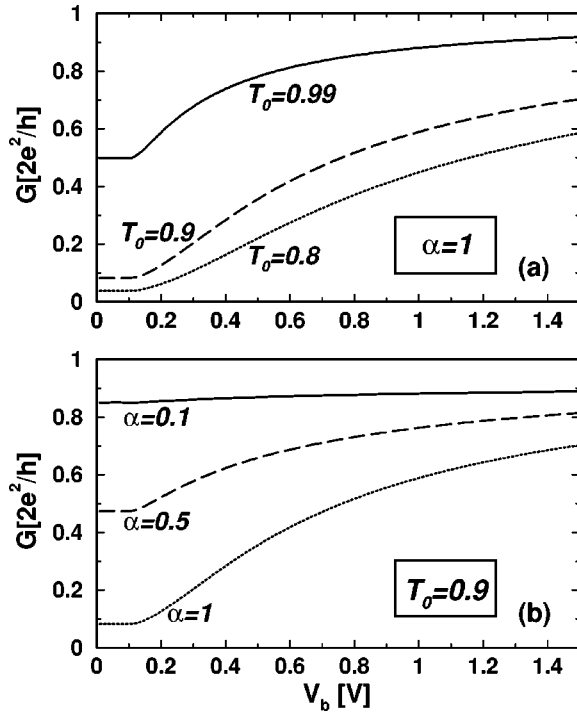


FIG. 9. Conductance calculated from renormalized transmission due to backscattering as a function of bias voltage (a) for $T_0 = 0.99$, 0.9, and 0.8 corresponding to solid, dashed, and dotted lines, respectively, with interaction parameter $\alpha = 1.0$ and (b) for $T_0 = 0.9$ and interaction parameter $\alpha = 0.1$, 0.5, and 1.0 corresponding to solid, dashed, and dotted lines, respectively.

tion. The parameter D_0 is the energy range near E_F , which contributes to renormalizing T_0 and is determined⁷⁶ by $D_0 = \hbar v_F / W$, where v_F is the Fermi velocity of the system (10^8 cm/s for Au) and W the width of the nanoconstriction,⁵⁵ $W \sim 10\text{--}20$ Å. Therefore, we find that for these devices $D_0 \sim 1.0$ eV. From Eq. (4), we compute the current $I(V_b)$ at zero temperature by integrating $T^R(E)$ from zero to eV_b , assuming no bias dependence of $T^R(E)$. The conductance is then deduced by $G = I(V_b)/V_b$. We note that due to the finite length effect of the constriction,⁵⁵ $L \sim 100$ Å, the renormalization effect is cut off for bias voltages $V_b < V_s$, where $V_s = 2\pi\hbar v_F / L \sim 0.1D_0$. Within this approach and using the free parameters as specified, we have plotted in Fig. 9(a) the conductance of a single channel as a function of bias voltage V_b . Qualitatively, the results show that G increases with V_b due to the channel opening. However, quantitatively they do not give a complete channel opening at the experimental value of $V_b \sim 0.35$ V (as suggested in Ref. 55), if the channel is less than 10% transmissive at $V_b = 0$. In fact, we found that a bias of 2 V is needed to overcome the charging potential barrier, thereby the nonlinearity in I - V curve can only set in at much larger voltages. We also note that since the extra charge due to backscattering is accumulated at the interface, which has a larger cross section, we expect that DFT and the local-density approximation to V_{xc} should work well. Our self-consistent calculations, with all the charge transfer and rearrangements accounted for, have already partially included the back-

scattering effects. Our results show that it is possible to partially close a channel $\sim 60\%$, but not completely. Our experimental data, which shows zero-bias conductance of $\sim 2.2G_0$, indicate that at least one channel is 20% transmissive and that channels are *only partially closed*, consistent with our theoretical work. Therefore, we can conclude at this point that the physical picture of electron interactions to completely close and open a channel as a function of V_b , while interesting, cannot explain our experimental data.

To further address the importance of backscattering effects,⁷⁶ especially for our devices with realistic atomic leads, we have investigated the dependence on the interaction parameter α in Eq. (4). Tuning this parameter can dramatically change the renormalized transmission coefficient as a function of V_b as shown in Fig. 9(b). Therefore we have a wide range of this parameter for fitting our experimental data. However, if we change the Au nanocontact by only a single sulfur atom, we should not expect a very different e - e interaction parameter α , thereby this would predict an I - V curve not too different from that without the sulfur. This suggests that strong interaction alone would not predict strong sensitivity of the I - V curve dependence on small amount of impurities, in contradiction with experimental results.^{56,57} Transmission renormalization is important in 1D scattering problems where there is no charge in the leads. For realistic atomic leads, the backscattered charge is a small fraction of the original one, and its effect should be well screened. With all these considerations, we believe it is unlikely that the dynamically established charging effect alone is large enough to cause the observed I - V nonlinearity for Au nanocontacts. Finally, we note that any tunneling barrier⁷¹ could be responsible for the experimental nonlinear I - V data reported here. Although we explored the possibility, from theory, that the barrier is induced by a single S atom (or other impurity atoms, with S being the more likely one due to its affinity to Au), more comprehensive experiments are needed to firmly establish the origin of the tunneling barrier.

VI. CONCLUSION

In this paper, we discuss the electronic transport properties of Au nanocontacts from both experimental and theoretical studies. Our experimental data analysis enables us to separate electronic effects from structural relaxations, allowing a better comparison to theoretical modeling of these nanodevices. Our theoretical work shows that transport properties at the molecular scale need to be analyzed at the systems level: leads, the molecule, and their interactions have to be studied simultaneously. The self-consistently determined transmission coefficient $T(E, V_b)$ is shown to vary as a function of E and V_b . This gives rise to differential conductance fluctuations of the order of 1% at temperature 300 K taking into account the experimental averaging process. These fluctuations are attributed mainly to the effects of the lead band structure. Most striking, however, is the possibility that a single impurity atom at the contact region can alter I - V curves qualitatively in these devices: pure and perfect Au

nanocontacts do not give the observed nonlinearity, while a sulfur doped device does. Importantly, we have shown that the measured nonlinear I - V characteristics of Au nanowires can be quantitatively modeled by impurity effects that create a tunneling barrier at the nanostructure junction. However, other effects such as heating and charging can still be present, but we believe that their role is secondary. This analysis clearly points to the vital importance for understand-

ing contacts in nanoelectronic devices, and, perhaps, to exploit it for the benefit of device operation.

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