

## Proliferation of metallic domains caused by inhomogeneous heating near the electrically driven transition in VO<sub>2</sub> nanobeams

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We discuss the mechanisms behind the electrically driven insulator-metal transition in single-crystalline VO<sub>2</sub> nanobeams. Our dc and ac transport measurements and the versatile harmonic analysis method employed show that nonuniform Joule heating causes electronic inhomogeneities to develop within the nanobeam and is responsible for driving the transition in VO<sub>2</sub>. A Poole-Frenkel-like purely electric-field-induced transition is found to be absent, and the role of percolation near and away from the electrically driven transition in VO<sub>2</sub> is also identified. The results and the harmonic analysis can be generalized to many strongly correlated materials that exhibit electrically driven transitions.

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### I. INTRODUCTION

Vanadium dioxide (VO<sub>2</sub>) is a well-studied, strongly correlated material that shows a sharp insulator-to-metal transition (IMT) with  $T_C \sim 342$  K [1], accompanied by orders-of-magnitude changes in both its electrical resistivity and optical transmission. Although the IMT in VO<sub>2</sub> has been studied for decades, the nature of the transition is still debated and it is believed to exhibit signatures of both Mott correlation and Peierls distortion [2–4]. In addition to being thermally driven, the IMT in VO<sub>2</sub> can also be triggered by voltage, light, and strain, which makes it a material of interest for future technological applications such as ultrafast switches, optical devices, Mott field-effect transistors, etc. [5,6]. The electrically driven resistive switching is a complicated and dynamical process wherein various factors such as Joule heating, electric field, percolation, oxygen vacancies, and strain can each have an influence on the properties [7–20]. Recent work on realizing electrical switching devices using strongly correlated materials have discussed the importance of Joule heating near the transition [7–10] as opposed to a purely electric-field-induced transition [11,15–19]. Recently, the Poole-Frenkel effect (an electric-field-induced effect) [21,22] was observed as a precursor to Joule-heating-dominated switching in a related material, V<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> [20].

In the present work, we have studied, by dc and ac transport measurements, the possible underlying mechanisms behind the electrically driven IMT in individual nanobeam devices of single-crystalline VO<sub>2</sub>. Our results are summarized as follows: extremely abrupt IMT was observed at electric fields 2 orders of magnitude smaller than estimated by a purely Poole-Frenkel-type transition. The calculated average temperatures of the nanobeams at the IMT, based on our method, were lower than  $T_C$ , implicating nonuniform current paths leading to electronic inhomogeneity as possible suspects in driving the IMT. To verify the roles of individual mechanisms, a harmonic analysis method of the ac transport data was carried out, and the

results show that Joule heating plays an important role near the transition and that the Poole-Frenkel effect is strikingly absent. In particular, our measurements provide experimental evidence that electronic inhomogeneities exist within the sample and these are verified by both dc and ac transport measurements. Finally, it appears that the transport behavior of insulating VO<sub>2</sub> nanobeams far below the critical voltage is similar to a random resistor network and shows signatures of Joule-heating-induced percolation. However, deviation from percolation behavior is observed as the threshold voltage for IMT is approached.

### II. MATERIAL AND DEVICES

The VO<sub>2</sub> nanobeams used in the study were grown by a stepwise hydrothermal process, and the details about the synthesis and structural characterization can be found elsewhere [23]. A scanning electron microscopy (SEM) image of monoclinic, single-crystalline VO<sub>2</sub> nanobeams is presented in Fig. 1(a); SEM and energy-dispersive x-ray (not shown here) characterization shows that the nanobeams have lengths up to tens of micrometers and rectangular cross sections, and are free from inadvertent dopant inclusions during synthesis [23]. Electrical devices were made from single-crystalline, individual nanobeams sprayed onto Si/SiO<sub>2</sub> substrates, and hence these devices are free from any inherent strain arising from chemical coupling to the substrate. Electrodes were defined through a standard photolithographic process, and the metal contacts (Cr/Au) were deposited by electron-beam evaporation. Figure 1(b) shows an optical micrograph of a device with a separation of 5 μm between two adjacent contacts, and all the devices measured had the same contact geometry. Figure 1(c) presents the resistance ( $R$ ) of a single nanobeam device as a function of temperature ( $T$ ): the device undergoes a sharp insulator-to-metal transition at around 342 K, with orders-of-magnitude change in the resistance at  $T_C$  [23]. Hysteretic behavior is observed upon cooling to the insulating phase with the switching occurring at 333 K. The insulating side of the  $R$ - $T$  trace is fitted to  $R = R_0 e^{\left(\frac{E_B}{k_B T}\right)}$ ,

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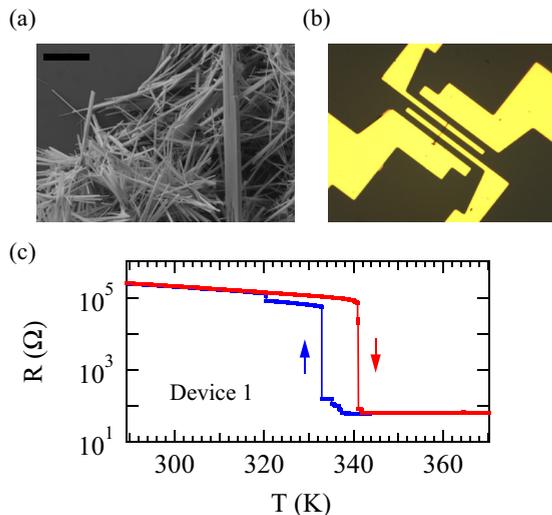


FIG. 1. (Color online) (a) An SEM image of as-synthesized monoclinic, single-crystalline VO<sub>2</sub> nanobeams. Scale bar = 5 μm. (b) Optical micrograph of a typical device showing gold contacts to an individual VO<sub>2</sub> nanobeam. (c) Resistance ( $R$ ) vs temperature ( $T$ ) plot of a single nanobeam device showing the IMT at  $T_C = 342$  K while heating.

where  $E_a$  is the activation energy ( $0.30 \pm 0.03$  eV in our devices).

### III. RESISTIVE SWITCHING UNDER dc FIELD

Having observed the transport behavior in the thermally driven case, next we turn our attention to the electrically driven case. The  $I$ - $V$  measurement was done with a standard resistor (670 Ω) in series with the VO<sub>2</sub> device. Figure 2(a) shows the current ( $I$ ) as a function of source voltage ( $V$ ) at various set temperatures ( $T_S$ ) measured during the heating part of the  $R$ - $T$  cycle. Initially, the current increases smoothly but nonlinearly with increasing voltage. At the critical voltage ( $V_{C\uparrow}$ ) the current jumps by orders of magnitude, signaling the switch to a highly conducting state. As the bias voltage is lowered from the high conducting state, the device returns to the insulating state wherein a large drop in current at  $V_{C\downarrow}$  is preceded by smaller drops. The  $V_{C\uparrow}$  values in our devices range from 1.2 to 2.0 V, corresponding to electric fields of

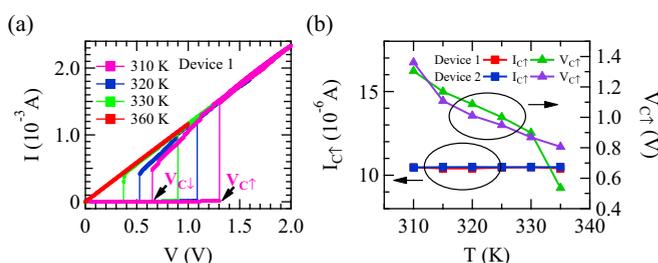


FIG. 2. (Color online) (a) Current as a function of source voltage showing switching at  $V_{C\uparrow}$  while sweeping the voltage up (measured with a series resistance of 670 Ω). (b)  $I_{C\uparrow}$  (left axis) and  $V_{C\uparrow}$  (right axis) as a function of temperature.  $I_{C\uparrow}$  is constant at all set temperatures, whereas  $V_{C\uparrow}$  decreases with increase in  $T_S$

0.24–0.40 V/μm at 310 K. These values are 2 orders of magnitude smaller than the critical field values expected from a purely electric-field-induced IMT in VO<sub>2</sub> [24,25]. It can be seen in Fig. 2(a) that the abruptness of the IMT diminishes with increasing  $T_S$  [26], and the jump size and the hysteresis widths were largest at 310 K. Figure 2(b) shows the behavior of the critical current ( $I_{C\uparrow}$ ) and critical voltage ( $V_{C\uparrow}$ ) from two devices at various temperatures. The  $I_{C\uparrow}$  at the onset of IMT was found to be constant from 335 to 310 K, whereas  $V_{C\uparrow}$  was found to be decreasing with increasing  $T_S$ , and similar behavior has been observed previously [16,17,19,24,26,27].

### IV. EFFECTS OF JOULE HEATING

To understand the microscopic mechanisms relevant near the electrically driven switching, we proceed by assuming Joule heating to be the only cause for the nonlinearity of the  $I$ - $V$  characteristics prior the onset of the IMT in Fig. 2(a). We then assume a  $I$ - $V$  relationship,  $v = i[R_B + R_0 e^{\frac{E_a}{k_B(T_S + \Delta T)}}]$ , based on the thermally activated behavior of resistance and taking the current density and temperature distribution to be uniform across the nanobeam ( $R_B$  is a series resistance of 670 Ω). In this picture, the nonlinear behavior in the  $I$ - $V$  characteristics is only due to a change in the temperature and hence Ohm's law is not violated. The  $I$ - $V$  relation includes the contribution  $\Delta T$  due to Joule heating and can be further simplified using Taylor series approximation to  $i \approx \frac{v}{R_B + R_S e^{\frac{-E_a}{k_B T_0}}}$  (see Appendix A). It is clear from the above that the  $I$ - $V$  characteristics would be linear when Joule heating is insignificant, and hence  $\Delta T$  will be negligibly small. On the other hand, introduction of Joule heating introduces nonlinear behavior in the  $I$ - $V$  characteristics. An average temperature raise ( $\Delta T$ ) from the Joule heating effect using this picture can be estimated as  $\Delta T = -T_0 \ln[\frac{1}{R_S}(\frac{v}{i} - R_B)]$ , where  $R_S$  is resistance measured at 0.05 V (linear and ohmic regime) at set temperature  $T_S$  and  $T_0 = k_B T_S^2 / E_a$ . This method is useful in estimating the temperature raise without going in to the microscopic details of power dissipation and heat diffusion.

Figure 3(a) shows the calculated average temperature in the nanobeam until the onset of IMT. When the set temperatures of the nanobeam were 330 and 335 K, the average temperatures of the nanobeams were close to  $T_C$  at  $V_{C\uparrow}$ . However, the average temperature of the nanobeam was far from  $T_C$  at  $V_{C\uparrow}$ , when  $I$ - $V$  characteristics were measured at lower temperatures. The temperature profile inside the nanobeam due to Joule heating likely depends on experimental conditions such as  $T_S$ , electric field, device geometry, the thermal coupling to the substrate, electrodes, and the dimensions of the nanobeam [28]. Since the estimation of  $\Delta T$  in the nanobeam is based on the assumption that the device has uniform current density and homogeneous temperature distribution, the deviation of the average calculated temperature from  $T_C$  at the IMT is seemingly due to the nonuniform conduction that can arise from the coexistence of metallic and insulating domains.

Furthermore, a part or all of the nanobeam need not reach  $T_C$  in order for a macroscopic observation of the IMT in transport measurements. Other contributing factors such as local disorder and/or microscopic strain distributions may serve as nucleation sites for domains and switching can

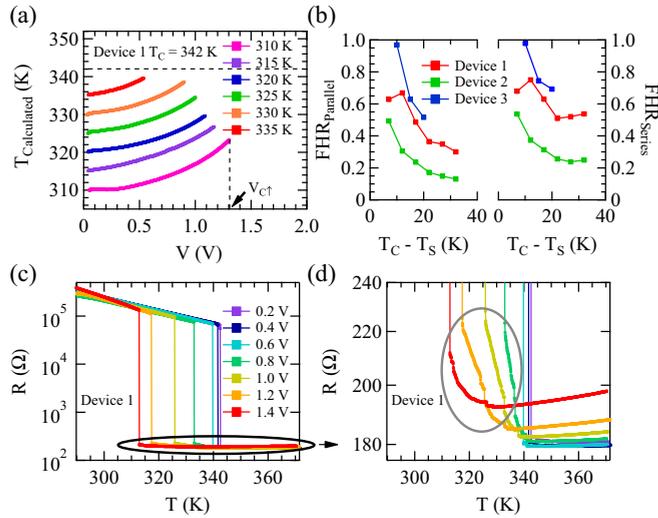


FIG. 3. (Color online) (a) Average calculated temperature at several  $T_S$  values (below  $T_C$ ) leading up to  $V_{C\uparrow}$ . (b) Fraction of hot region (FHR) based on parallel (left axis) and series (right axis) hot and ambient regions as a function of  $(T_C - T_S)$ . (c)  $R$ - $T$  traces measured (without a series resistance) at various voltage bias values for device 1. (d) Enlarged portion of (c); gray oval highlights the insulating-like behavior, even after the switching.

occur. However, a strong case can be made for nonuniform temperature distribution within the nanobeam, since the average temperature increase ( $\Delta T$ ) due to thermal heating was less than the temperature needed ( $T_C - T_S$ ) to reach  $T_C$ . In  $\text{VO}_2$ , metallic and insulating domains are known to exist in parallel as well as in series combinations along the length of the nanobeam [27,29–32]. Using a simplistic method that assumes a parallel and series combination of a hot and ambient region, we have estimated the fraction of the Joule-heating-induced hot region (FHR) in the nanobeam at the onset of IMT.  $\text{FHR}_{\text{parallel}}$  is given by a ratio of the areas of the cross section of the hot region and the total cross-sectional area, whereas  $\text{FHR}_{\text{series}}$  is the ratio of the lengths of the hot region to the total length (see Appendix B). The idea is to estimate the temperature evolution for the two extreme cases (parallel and series) that can possibly be present, though in a real sample a mixture of both can be expected.

The left and right axes of Fig. 3(b) show FHR for the parallel and series cases, respectively, as a function of the temperature raise needed ( $T_C - T_S$ ) to drive IMT. It shows that the extent of hot regions induced due to Joule heating in the nanobeam decreases with the decrease in  $T_S$  for both parallel and series cases for all three devices. However, the temperature dependence of FHR for the devices is different, possibly due to the random domain evolution. In addition, even within an individual nanobeam, the domain evolution need not be the same during repeated  $I$ - $V$  measurements. The nonmonotonic behavior of FHR from device 1 simply suggests a random domain evolution between various runs. It is a complex problem to quantify the actual microscopic evolution through an electrical transport measurement and is beyond the scope of this work. If a conducting channel indeed is formed, the nanobeam will not be completely in metallic phase above

the switching and some remnant insulating regions are likely to be present. To verify this scenario, we have measured  $R$ - $T$  (without a series resistance) at various voltage bias values starting from 50 mV to 1.4 V [Fig. 3(c)].  $T_C$  is found to decrease with an increase in voltage bias due to the Joule heating effect. It is interesting to note from Fig. 3(d) that the resistance continued to decrease with temperature even after the large drop, signaling remnant insulating behavior beyond switching and is suggestive of a nonuniform electronic phase within the nanobeam. A small increase in resistance with temperature at high bias can be seen in the metallic phase due to Joule heating.

## V. RESISTIVE SWITCHING UNDER ac FIELD

In order to further identify the role of Joule heating on the onset of electrically driven IMT, we focused on understanding the nonlinearity of the  $I$ - $V$  characteristics up to  $V_{C\uparrow}$  by employing a harmonic analysis of the ac signal across the device. Typically, any nonlinear  $I$ - $V$  relation can be expressed as a power series  $I = \sum_{i=0}^n k_i V^i$ , where coefficient  $k_i$  is related to the power of an individual harmonic [33,34]. The magnitude of  $k_i$  can be estimated by measuring harmonics present in the ac voltage. The methods of harmonic detection and their comparison have been employed previously to understand the effect of second harmonic in microwave characteristics of Schottky barrier diodes to understand percolation and breakdown in semicontinuous metal films, and to measure the thermal conductivity of various systems [28,33–40]. In our case, if the resistance of the device is a Poole-Frenkel-like function of the electric field, which is analogous to the Schottky effect [21,22], then the second harmonic along with all other harmonics should be present in the ac electrical signal [33,34]. Based on a Taylor series approximation, the magnitude of an electric-field-generated second harmonic is expected to be the strongest after the fundamental frequency. On the other hand, if Joule heating plays a dominant role, then power and temperature will oscillate with  $2f$  ( $f$  = bias frequency), which will lead to the resistance oscillation, giving rise to the presence of a third harmonic in the ac signal across the device [28,35–39]. The third harmonic generated by Joule heating will be the strongest after the fundamental frequency, and hence the harmonic analysis of the signal across the device can potentially provide clues about the relevant mechanisms.

Figure 4(a) shows the response in the frequency domain recorded (using an HP spectrum analyzer) from a device in the insulating state ( $T = 325$  K) in series with a resistance of  $670 \Omega$ . In the insulating phase (with device resistance much larger than  $670 \Omega$ ) most of the source voltage will drop across the device [Fig. 4(a)]. The inset of Fig. 4(a) shows overlapping signals of the source (black trace) and the device voltage (red trace). The device voltage was smooth, free of any jumps, and follows the source signal. A peak at the third harmonic of the applied bias frequency was observed, and its magnitude increased with increasing bias voltage; however, no discernible peak at the second harmonic was observed. This clearly shows that effect of electric field expected from a Poole-Frenkel-like mechanism is insignificant on the observed transport behavior near the IMT. For comparison, Fig. 4(b) shows the frequency

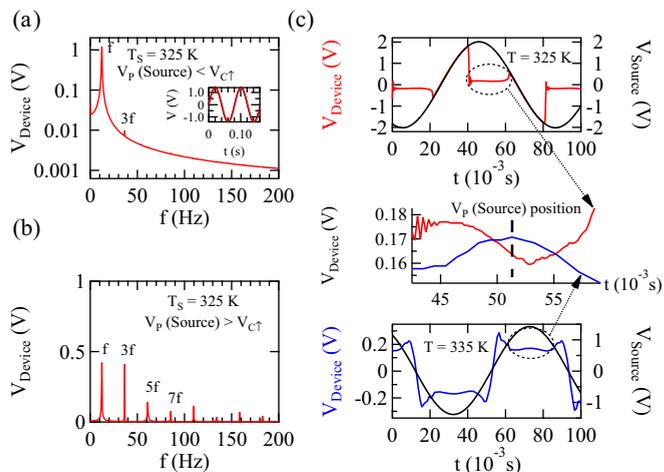


FIG. 4. (Color online) (a, b) The response of a device in the frequency domain at  $V_p(\text{Source}) < V_{C\uparrow}$  and  $V_p(\text{Source}) > V_{C\uparrow}$ , respectively, using a source frequency of 12.3433 Hz. The inset of (a) shows the response of the device as a function of time before switching; the black trace shows source voltage whereas the red trace shows the device voltage. (c) ac signal across the device in time domain at 325 and 335 K; middle panel shows the device responses in the high-conducting phase.

response of a device when the peak value of the source is higher than  $V_{C\uparrow}$ . In this case, the device oscillates between low and high conducting states, leading to the generation of several odd harmonics. It is interesting to note that  $\text{VO}_2$  has the potential to be used as a material for harmonic generation, as even the magnitude of the 19th harmonic after switching was found to be 1/10th of the magnitude of the fundamental frequency.

The presence of a conducting channel as postulated in the previous section can also be verified by comparing the time domain signals of the source with the signals across the device at different  $T_S$ . Figure 4(c) shows that at 325 K, in the high-conducting state, the device voltage shows transient oscillations after switching and does not track the source, indicating electronic inhomogeneity and possible coexistence of the insulating and metallic regions. However, the device voltage does indeed follow the source in the high conducting state at 335 K, pointing to the presence of a single phase within the nanobeam.

## VI. PERCOLATION BEHAVIOR NEAR THE SWITCHING

Once the presence of electronic inhomogeneity is established, the natural next step is to look for signatures of Joule-heating-induced percolation in the transport measurements. It has been previously shown that the third harmonic of the ac signal from the device can be thought of as the fourth moment of the current distribution and can provide information about percolation due to local Joule heating, similar to information obtained from  $1/f$  noise measurements [35,36,38,39]. According to this model [35,36,38,39], the third harmonic coefficient ( $B_{3f}$ ) scales as  $B_{3f} \propto R^{2+w}$ , where  $B_{3f} = V_{3f}/I_0^3$  and  $w$  is the critical exponent.  $B_{3f}$  will be linearly proportional to  $R^2$  in the case when there is no change in the current distribution

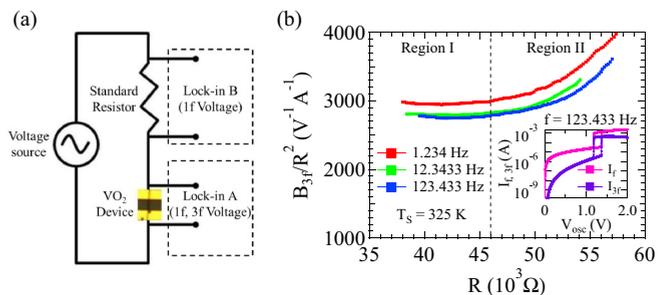


FIG. 5. (Color online) (a) Schematic of the ac measurement setup. (b)  $B_{3f}/R^2$  vs  $R$  at various source frequencies. The nanobeam behaves as a random resistor network ( $w = 1.2-1.5$ ) at low bias (region II), and deviation from the behavior is evident in the high-bias region (region I) where exponent  $w = 0$ . The inset shows the behavior of the first and third harmonics of the device current.

in the system. For a random resistor network,  $B_{3f}$  scales with resistance ( $R$ ), and critical exponent ( $w$ ) values between 0.8 and 1.05 have been observed in earlier experiments [35].

If our  $\text{VO}_2$  device has a random distribution of insulating and metallic domains, then  $w$  should have a value similar to that of a random resistor network. If there is no percolation due to Joule heating or no change in the connectivity between domains then  $w$  will be zero. Figure 5(a) shows a schematic representation of the experimental setup where lock-in A was used to measure  $V_{1f}$  and  $V_{3f}$  across the  $\text{VO}_2$  device and lock-in B was used to deduce current from the voltage across a standard resistor ( $670 \Omega$ ). When the  $I-V$  values were measured ( $\text{VO}_2$  device in series with a resistance of  $670 \Omega$ ) using lock-in amplifiers, both the first and the third harmonics were simultaneously recorded while sweeping the source voltage. [The inset of Fig. 5(b) shows the  $I-V$  characteristics of the first and third harmonics.] The  $R$  of the  $\text{VO}_2$  was extracted from  $V_{1f, \text{Device}}/I_{1f}$ , assuming that the nonlinearity in the  $I-V$  values is only due to the Joule heating effect. Figure 5(b) shows the evolution of a scaled third harmonic coefficient ( $B_{3f}/R^2$ ) as a function of device resistance in the insulating phase. We have roughly marked the behavior into two regions. In region I (low-resistance region, closer to the transition), the nanobeam does not behave as a classical random resistor network, as can be seen from the negligible slope of the traces indicating no changes in connectivity or relative current distribution across the nanobeam. However, in the second region (high-resistance region, away from the transition) the behavior of ( $B_{3f}/R^2$ ) resembles that of a random resistor network (with  $w=1.2-1.5$ ), which may be thought of as a signature of local percolation between metallic domains. At bias values far below  $V_{C\uparrow}$ , a random network of resistors is discernible based on the value of the critical exponent deduced from the measurements shown in Fig. 5(b); however, subsequently, the percolation pathways are replaced by plausible conducting channels that are likely defined by avalanche-type cascading processes [7,41,42]. Upon these interconnections having been defined, random percolative behavior is no longer observed, as can be seen in region I in Fig. 5(b). These analyses show that local Joule-heating-induced percolation does indeed play a role at bias values far below  $V_{C\uparrow}$  and acts as a precursor

to the avalanche-type Joule heating processes, leading to an extremely abrupt IMT in VO<sub>2</sub>.

## VII. CONCLUSIONS

The electric fields at the onset of IMT in our devices are 2 orders of magnitude smaller than the critical electric field estimates based on purely electric-field-induced switching in VO<sub>2</sub>. The calculated average temperatures of the nanobeams based on our method are lower than  $T_C$ , implicating nonuniform current paths leading to electronic inhomogeneity as possible suspects. Furthermore, harmonic analysis of the ac electrical signals from the device shows that Joule heating plays a significant role as compared to the electric field in underpinning the electrically driven IMT in VO<sub>2</sub>. It appears that the transport behavior of insulating VO<sub>2</sub> nanobeams is similar to a random resistor network behavior at bias values far below the  $V_{C\uparrow}$ . The occurrence of avalanche-type events closer to  $V_{C\uparrow}$  likely induces the formation of conducting channels that alter conduction through the nanobeams, thereby precluding further need for percolation. Our measurements provide evidence that electronic inhomogeneities exist below the IMT in VO<sub>2</sub> and further show the importance of understanding the microscopic mechanisms relevant near phase transitions in correlated oxide nanostructures. The harmonic analysis method employed to understand the role of Joule heating is a versatile technique and can potentially be applied to understand the nature of electrically driven phase transitions in oxide nanostructures that are technologically important.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

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## APPENDIX A

The resistance of VO<sub>2</sub> nanobeams in the insulating phase shows a thermally activated behavior [see Fig. 1 (c)]. Therefore the device resistance at any set temperature  $T_S$  is  $R_S = R_0 e^{\frac{E_a}{k_B T_S}}$ , where  $E_a$  is the activation energy and  $k_B$  is Boltzmann's constant. However, a significant amount of Joule heating is expected to raise the average temperature of the nanobeam from  $T_S$ . If it is assumed that uniform current density and uniform temperature raise  $\Delta T$  in the nanobeam, then the resistance of the device will be  $R'_S = R_0 e^{\frac{E_a}{k_B(T_S + \Delta T)}}$ . Using a Taylor series approximation and ignoring higher-order terms such as  $\Delta T \ll T_S$ ,  $R'_S \approx R_0 e^{\frac{E_a}{k_B T_S} (1 - \Delta T/T_S)}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} R'_S &= R_0 e^{\frac{E_a}{k_B T_S}} e^{-\frac{E_a \Delta T}{k_B T_S^2}} \\ &= R_S e^{-\left(\frac{\Delta T}{T_0}\right)}, \end{aligned}$$

where  $R_S = R_0 e^{\frac{E_a}{k_B T_S}}$  and  $T_0 = k_B T_S^2 / E_a$ .

## APPENDIX B

The fraction of hot region (FHR) in the nanobeam formed due to Joule heating were estimated at the onset of IMT for two different cases where hot and ambient regions can coexist in parallel or in a series combination. The ambient regions are assumed to remain at temperature  $T_S$ , whereas the hot region reaches  $T_C$  but is still insulating and is at the verge of IMT. The average temperature of the nanobeam is taken to be  $T_{Calculated}$ . For the parallel case, both the hot and ambient regions are taken to have equal lengths but different cross-sectional areas, and the areas of cross section of individual regions were assumed to be uniform along the length. Similarly, for the series case, both the regions are taken to have equal and uniform areas of cross section but have different lengths.

For the parallel case,  $FHR_{Parallel}$  is a ratio of the area of the cross sections of the hot region  $A_h$  and the total cross-sectional area ( $A$ ) of the nanobeam,  $FHR_{Parallel} = A_h/A$ . Thermal activation behavior in resistivity can be written as  $\rho = \rho_0 e^{\frac{E_a}{k_B T}}$ , and using the Taylor series approximation and ignoring higher-order terms, the resistivity at temperature ( $T_S + \Delta T$ ) can be written as  $\rho'_S = \rho_S e^{-\left(\frac{\Delta T}{T_0}\right)}$ , where  $\Delta T$  is a temperature raise due to Joule heating. Now the resistance of a channel at the ambient temperature  $T_S$  is  $R_a = \frac{\rho_S l}{A_a}$ , where  $R_a$  is the resistance of the channel,  $l$  is the separation between gold contacts (channel length), and  $A_a$  is the area of cross section of the ambient region. The resistance of the hot region at  $T_C$  will be  $R_h = \frac{\rho_S l}{A_h} e^{-\left(\frac{T_C - T_S}{T_0}\right)}$ . Now, the average temperature of the nanobeam was  $T_{Calculated} = T_S + \Delta T$ . Therefore the total resistance of the nanobeam would be  $R = \frac{\rho_S l}{A} e^{-\left(\frac{\Delta T}{T_0}\right)}$ . Assuming that the hot and ambient channels exist parallel ( $R = R_{Parallel}$ ) with each other, then the average resistance can be written as  $\frac{1}{R_{Parallel}} = \frac{1}{R_h} + \frac{1}{R_a}$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{A}{\rho_S l e^{-\left(\frac{\Delta T}{T_0}\right)}} &= \frac{A_h}{\rho_S l e^{-\left(\frac{T_C - T_S}{T_0}\right)}} + \frac{A_a}{\rho_S l} \\ FHR_{Parallel} &= \left[ \frac{1 - e^{-\frac{\Delta T}{T_0}}}{e^{-\frac{\Delta T}{T_0}}} * \frac{e^{-\left(\frac{T_C - T_S}{T_0}\right)}}{1 - e^{-\left(\frac{T_C - T_S}{T_0}\right)}} \right]. \end{aligned}$$

For the series case,  $FHR_{Series}$  is defined to be the ratio of the lengths of the hot region  $l_h$  and the total length ( $l$ ) of the nanobeam,  $FHR_{Series} = l_h/l$ . The resistance of a region at ambient temperature  $T_S$  can be written as  $R_a = \frac{\rho_S l_a}{A}$ , where  $R_a$  is the resistance of the channel,  $l_a$  is the length of the ambient region, and  $A$  is area of cross section of the nanobeam. The resistance of the hot region at  $T_C$  will be  $R_h = \frac{\rho_S l_h}{A} e^{-\left(\frac{T_C - T_S}{T_0}\right)}$ . Then the average temperature of the nanobeam is  $T_{Calculated} = T_S + \Delta T$ . Therefore the total resistance of the nanobeam would be  $R = \frac{\rho_S l}{A} e^{-\left(\frac{\Delta T}{T_0}\right)}$ . Assuming that the hot and ambient regions exist in series ( $R = R_{Series}$ ), the total resistance can be written as  $R_{Series} = R_h + R_a$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\rho_S l}{A} e^{-\left(\frac{\Delta T}{T_0}\right)} &= \frac{\rho_S l_h}{A} e^{-\left(\frac{T_C - T_S}{T_0}\right)} + \frac{\rho_S l_a}{A} \\ FHR_{Series} &= \left[ \frac{e^{-\frac{\Delta T}{T_0}} - 1}{e^{-\left(\frac{T_C - T_S}{T_0}\right)} - 1} \right]. \end{aligned}$$

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