

## Fluctuations in the Temperature Dependence of the Resistance of a One-Dimensional System

D. P. DiVincenzo

*Department of Physics and Laboratory for Research on the Structure of Matter,  
University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19104*

and

M. Ya. Azbel<sup>(a)</sup>

*IBM T. J. Watson Research Center, Yorktown Heights, New York 10598  
(Received 22 April 1983)*

New effects are predicted to occur in the resistance of a one-dimensional system when the inelastic scattering time becomes longer than the transit time of a carrier through the system. While the mean behavior of  $R(T)$  is the same as in the multiple-hopping regime, the fluctuations in  $R(T)$  change dramatically, depending logarithmically on the length. The behavior of  $R(T)$  can give a detailed reconstruction of the microscopic eigenstates of the system.

PACS numbers: 72.10.Fk, 71.55.Jv, 72.15.Cz

It is now well established that the resistance  $R$  of a one-dimensional system at  $T=0$  displays large fluctuations even between macroscopically identical samples.<sup>1,2</sup>  $R(T=0)$ , a macroscopic observable, is strongly influenced by microscopic fluctuations in the random potential of the resistor. Mathematically this unusual behavior is typically manifested by the relation<sup>1</sup>

$$2\langle \ln R \rangle = \ln \langle R \rangle. \quad (1)$$

(Angular brackets denote the average over an ensemble of samples.) An ordinary random variable  $Q$  with small fluctuations obeys quite a different relation:

$$\langle \ln Q \rangle = \ln \langle Q \rangle. \quad (2)$$

It may be expected that for  $T \neq 0$ , thermal averaging effects, which are implicit in multiple-hopping descriptions of conductance, cause the more severe fluctuations in  $R$  to be removed, so that the random variable  $R(T)$  would satisfy Eq. (2) rather than Eq. (1).<sup>3</sup> This expectation is likely to be true if the inelastic scattering time is much shorter than the elastic transit time of the carrier through the one-dimensional conductor:  $\tau_{\text{in}} \ll L/v$ , where  $v$  is the carrier velocity and  $L$  is the length of the sample.

In this Letter we explore the properties of  $R(T)$  under the opposite condition,  $\tau_{\text{in}} \gg L/v$ . While it appears that no experiment is presently capable of reaching this regime,<sup>4</sup> it seems likely that it will be explored in the future. This condition should be satisfied at very low temperatures:  $T \ll T_0 / [\ln(L/a)]^2 \equiv \tilde{T}$ ,<sup>5</sup> where  $a$  is the dimension of a trap and  $T_0$  is the characteristic temperature in the Mott law<sup>6</sup>:

$$R(T) \propto \exp[(T_0/T)^{1/2}]. \quad (3)$$

We find that the mean behavior of  $R(T)$  at these low temperatures continues to obey Eq. (3). However, the two regimes differ in the physical origin of this behavior and in the magnitude of fluctuations which  $R(T)$  displays. In the elastic conductance regime, we find  $\varphi \equiv (L/L_0)^2 (T/T_0) [(L_0/L) \ln(R) - 1]$  to exhibit very unusual *logarithmic* (in  $L$ ) relative fluctuations:

$$\delta \ln \varphi \sim \{2 \ln[(L/L_0)(T/T_0)^{1/2}]\}^{-1}.$$

( $L_0$  is the localization length.) If  $T \gg \tilde{T}$ , these fluctuations are more conventional:  $\delta \ln \varphi \sim v \tau_{\text{in}} / L$ . We will show that  $R(T)$  for  $T \ll \tilde{T}$  continues to obey an equation similar to (1), and that these macroscopic fluctuations in the measurable quantity  $R(T)$  can provide detailed information about the microscopic, quantum mechanical properties of the resistor.

It has been shown that at  $T=0$ , the conductance of a disordered one-dimensional system  $G=1/R$ , or equivalently (through Landauer's formula<sup>7</sup>) the transmission coefficient  $t$  contains huge resonances which occur at those energies coinciding with an eigenvalue  $\epsilon_n$  of the random system.<sup>8,9</sup> The strength of these resonances is determined by the real-space distance  $\Lambda_n$  between the position of this (localized) eigenstate and the midpoint of the resistor. In particular, the width of these transmission resonances is  $\delta \epsilon_n \propto \exp(-2 \times |\frac{1}{2}L - \Lambda_n|/L_0)$  and the resonance transmission  $t_{\text{max}} (= G_{\text{max}}) \cong \exp(-4\Lambda_n/L_0)$ : away from the resonance  $t \cong \exp(-2L/L_0)$ , exponentially smaller than  $t_{\text{max}}$ .

If  $\tau_{\text{in}} \gg L/v$ , then the conductance for  $T \neq 0$  may be obtained immediately from  $t(T=0)$ :

$$G(T \neq 0) = \int (-\partial n_F / \partial \epsilon) t(\epsilon) d\epsilon. \quad (4)$$

Here  $n_F$  is the Fermi distribution. The physical restriction implied by Eq. (4) is that the current carrier must pass through the entire sample in a single, quantum mechanical tunneling event. The temperature dependence of  $G(T)$  is thus due solely to the Fermi distribution which is established in the metallic conductor attached to the ends of the resistor. Therefore the tunneling,

$$\left(-\frac{\partial n_F}{\partial \epsilon}\right) \delta \epsilon_n t_{\max}^n \propto \exp\left(-\frac{L}{L_0}\right) \exp\left[-\frac{|\epsilon_n - \epsilon_F|}{T} - \frac{2\Lambda_n}{L_0}\right]. \quad (5)$$

The exponent in Eq. (5) is a competition between the Fermi function factor and the strength of the transmission. For one particular  $\epsilon_n$  this expression will be greatest; because it appears as an exponent, this maximum value will completely dominate Eq. (4), and a very good approximation for  $G(T)$  is<sup>9</sup>

$$G(T) = \exp\left(\frac{-L}{L_0}\right) \exp\left[\max_n \left(-\frac{|\epsilon_n - \epsilon_F|}{T} - \frac{2\Lambda_n}{L_0}\right)\right]. \quad (6)$$

A convenient approximation which simplifies the analysis below is the replacement of  $|\epsilon_n - \epsilon_F|$ , the distance of the  $n$ th farthest level from the Fermi level, by  $n\Delta\tilde{\epsilon}$ , where the average distance between eigenvalues  $\Delta\tilde{\epsilon} \approx 1/L\rho_s(\epsilon)$ , with  $\rho_s(\epsilon)$  the electronic density of states. This approximation is quite good for  $n \gg 1$ , which is the regime of interest. We can also put the second part of Eq. (6) in a convenient dimensionless form. The statistical homogeneity of the random system guarantees that the distances  $\Lambda_n$  are uniformly distributed between 0 and  $L/2$ . (We have confirmed this property of  $\Lambda_n$  by detailed numerical study.<sup>10</sup>) This suggests defining a new scaled variable  $\kappa_n \cong (2/L)\Lambda_n$ , so that  $\kappa_n$  is a uniformly distributed random variable between 0 and 1. With these Eq. (6) becomes

$$G(T) = \exp\left(-\frac{L}{L_0}\right) \exp\left[\max_n \left(\frac{-n}{\rho_s L T} - \frac{L}{L_0} \kappa_n\right)\right]. \quad (7)$$

This may be put in a compact form:

$$G(T) = e^{-C} \exp[-(C/M)\varphi(M)], \quad (8a)$$

$$\varphi(M) \equiv \min_n (n + M\kappa_n). \quad (8b)$$

Here  $C \equiv L/L_0$  and  $M \cong \rho_s L^2 T/L_0 = (L^2/L_0^2)T/T_0$ .

Equation (7) provides an accurate approximation for Eq. (4) so long as  $C^2 \gg M \gg C$ . This equation is quite amenable to both accurate numerical

which is restricted to occur at the Fermi level  $\epsilon_F$  at  $T=0$ , is permitted in a range of energies  $\sim T$  around  $\epsilon_F$  for  $T \neq 0$ .

Since  $t(\epsilon)$  is exponentially larger at eigenstate resonances than elsewhere, the only significant contributions to the integral in Eq. (4) will come from the eigenvalues  $\epsilon_n$ . The contribution of the  $n$ th level from the Fermi level will be

and analytical study of the statistical properties of  $G(T)$ , or equivalently of  $\varphi(M)$ . As a first step, the mean value of  $\varphi(M)$  may be estimated by quite a simple argument: Among the first  $n$  samples of  $\kappa_n$ , it is likely that the smallest value of  $\kappa_n$  will be  $\kappa_n \sim 1/n$ . Equation (8b) may be rewritten  $\langle \varphi(M) \rangle \sim \min_n (n + M/n)$ , which gives  $n_{\min} \sim \sqrt{M}$ ,  $\langle \varphi(M) \rangle \sim \sqrt{M}$ . Without loss of generality,  $\varphi(M)$  can be written as  $\varphi(M) = \alpha(M)M^{1/2}$ , where  $\alpha$  is of order unity. While  $\alpha$  depends on  $M$  for any particular resistor, an approximate statistical analysis of Eq. (8b) indicates that in an ensemble of samples,  $\alpha$  is statistically independent of  $M$  if  $M \gg 1$ . This analysis gives the probability density function of  $\alpha$  to be

$$A(\alpha) = \alpha \exp(-\alpha^2/2). \quad (9)$$

Thus  $\langle \varphi(M) \rangle = \langle \alpha \rangle M^{1/2} = (\pi/2)^{1/2} M^{1/2}$ . Combining (9) with (8a) gives us information about the mean conductance:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \ln G(T) \rangle &= -C - \frac{C}{M} \langle \varphi(M) \rangle \\ &= \frac{-L}{L_0} \left(\frac{1}{\rho_s L_0}\right)^{1/2} \langle \alpha \rangle T^{-1/2}. \end{aligned} \quad (10)$$

This temperature dependence is the same as in Mott's variable-range hopping<sup>6</sup>; the behavior of the mean of  $G$  is incapable of distinguishing the two models, despite their radically different physical origins.

We have confirmed numerically the above approximate analytical results for the present model. The top panel of Fig. 1 shows  $\ln \langle \varphi(M) \rangle$  vs  $\ln M$  computed by generating uniform random numbers for  $\kappa_n$  in Eq. (8b), with averaging performed over 2000 different samples. For comparison, the statistical prediction of  $\ln \langle \varphi \rangle$  above is plotted as a dotted line on Fig. 1. The agreement between direct numerical simulation and our approximate analytical theory is clearly ex-

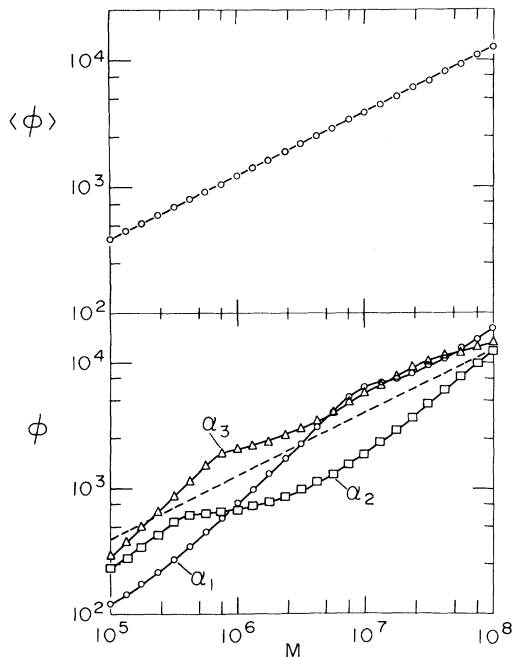


FIG. 1. Top panel: Open circles show  $\langle \phi \rangle$  vs  $M$  on a logarithmic scale. Average is computed over 2000 samples. Dotted line is the prediction of an approximate statistical theory for  $\langle \phi \rangle$ . Bottom panel:  $\phi$  vs  $M$  for three different samples  $\alpha_1$  (circles),  $\alpha_2$  (squares), and  $\alpha_3$  (triangles). Note the substantial fluctuations about the mean behavior  $\langle \phi \rangle$  (dotted line). A study of the full 2000-sample ensemble confirms that these fluctuations are of order of unity and independent of  $M$ . This directly leads to the logarithmic dependence of the fluctuations on  $L$  (see text).

cellent, and the above analysis of the mean behavior of  $\phi(M)$  is confirmed.

The lower panel of Fig. 1 shows  $\ln \phi$  vs  $\ln M$  for three particular samples among the 2000 studied. These curves clearly display the distinction between the present model and Mott's variable-range hopping, for instead of converging to the mean for large  $T$  (large  $M$ ) as it would in the Mott theory,  $\ln \phi$  displays fluctuations around the mean which are of order of unity and are independent of  $M$ . This directly implies the very unusual logarithmic behavior of the fluctuations mentioned above:  $\Delta \ln \phi / \ln \langle \phi \rangle \sim 1 / \ln M$ . We have confirmed this observation quantitatively by explicitly computing the rms fluctuations of  $\phi$ ,  $\gamma \equiv [ \langle (\phi - \langle \phi \rangle)^2 \rangle ]^{1/2}$ , over the same 2000 samples. Using Eq. (9) we expect  $\gamma = [(4 - \pi) / 2]^{1/2} M^{1/2}$ ; our numerical simulations confirm this result quite precisely, as Fig. 2 shows. Thus we demonstrate that even  $\phi \propto \ln G$  is not a typical well-behaved random variable with power-

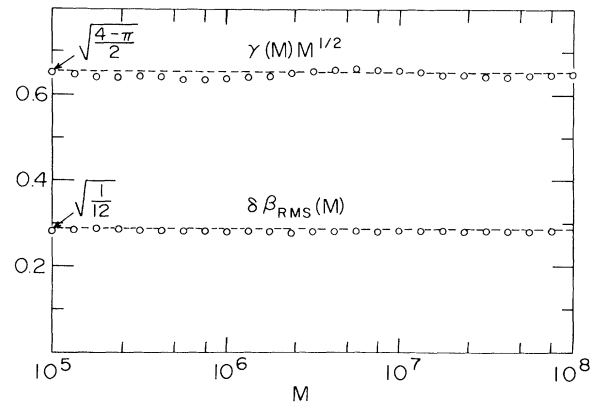


FIG. 2. Upper curve:  $\gamma(M)M^{1/2}$  vs  $M$ .  $\gamma$  is the rms fluctuation of  $\phi$ . Circles are from a numerical average over 2000 samples; the dotted line at  $[(4 - \pi) / 2]^{1/2}$  is the result of a statistical theory. Lower curve:  $\delta \beta_{\text{RMS}}$ , the rms fluctuations of  $\beta$ , the "local power of  $T$ ," vs  $M$ , computed over 2000 samples. The circles approach the dotted curve at  $1 / (12)^{1/2}$ , which is the exact result if  $\beta$  is uniformly distributed.

law decay of fluctuations with  $L$ , but rather has a much slower logarithmic decay. Accordingly,  $R(T \neq 0)$  displays the same sort of large fluctuations as are generally believed to occur in  $R(T = 0)$ . In fact, by using Eq. (9) we can show that  $R(T \neq 0)$  satisfies an equation similar to (1):  $(1 + C/M) \langle \ln R \rangle = \ln \langle R \rangle$ . That is, for very low  $T$ , i.e.,  $M \sim C$ ,  $R(T)$  displays the same sort of fluctuations as  $R(T = 0)$ . As  $T$  (or  $M$ ) is increased, the fluctuations in  $R$  gradually decrease and this equation approaches Eq. (2).

We wish to demonstrate one explicit way in which a real experiment should be capable of distinguishing between the present model and the multiple-hopping picture of conduction, despite the fact that the two give identical predictions for the average behavior of  $G(T)$ . Consider the quantity

$$\beta \equiv \frac{\Delta \ln \phi(T)}{\Delta \ln T} \equiv \frac{\ln \phi(T + \Delta T) - \ln \phi(T)}{\ln(T + \Delta T) - \ln T} .$$

$\beta$ , the logarithmic derivative of  $\ln \phi$  computed by a finite difference, measures the "local power of  $T$ " in the law  $G(T) \propto \exp[-(T_0/T)^\beta]$ . In the usual variable-range hopping model this derivative will give the mean value of the exponent,  $\frac{1}{2}$ , with very little uncertainty. We predict that as  $\Delta T / T \rightarrow 0$ , the distribution of  $\beta(T)$ , rather than being peaked around  $\frac{1}{2}$ , is equally likely to be any value between 0 and 1! Thus the rms fluctuations of  $\beta$ ,  $\delta \beta_{\text{rms}} = [ \langle (\beta - \langle \beta \rangle)^2 \rangle ]^{1/2}$ , rather than being near 0, should approach  $1 / (12)^{1/2}$ . We

have computed  $\beta$  numerically for 2000 samples using  $\Delta T/T \cong 30\%$ . Even for this rather large relative temperature difference which is easily attainable experimentally, the fluctuations in  $\beta$  are found to be almost precisely  $1/(12)^{1/2}$  (see Fig. 2), confirming the above analytical result. A well-resolved experiment should be capable of measuring  $\beta(T)$  and observing these fluctuations.

These variations in  $\varphi(T)$  imply that there are strong differences between  $G(T)$  measured for different samples. Consequently, the *macroscopic* measurement of  $G(T)$  contains information about the *microscopic* details of the resistor being studied. This is brought out by Fig. 1 in  $\ln \varphi$  vs  $\ln M$  for several samples. Observe that in the range of  $M \sim 10^7$ , the slope of the curve marked  $\alpha_2$  is larger than the average, that is,  $\beta(M) \approx 1$ . From Eq. (7) we can see that this implies that there is an extraordinarily low concentration of strong eigenstate resonances in the region  $n \sim (10^7)^{1/2}$  around  $\epsilon_F$ . Conversely,  $\beta(M) \approx 0$ , as occurs for  $M \sim 10^6$  on sample  $\alpha_2$ , implies strong resonances at the energies corresponding to  $n \sim (10^6)^{1/2}$ . Generally speaking, the measurement of  $\beta(M)$  over a large range of  $M$  should provide rather detailed information about the zero-temperature eigenstate spectrum.

Finally, it is interesting to reconsider the case  $\tau_{in} \ll L/v$ , in which the existing multiple-hopping model may be thought to be correct. In the language of the present model, the "hops" are still identified with eigenstate tunneling; the distance of the tunneling, instead of being over the whole length of the sample  $L$ , is over the length  $v\tau_{in}$ . This is somewhat different from Mott's variable-range hopping, in which the hop distance depends on  $L_0$ , the localization length. Since the carrier will perform a random walk of hops through the sample, the number of hops needed to travel the entire sample in the present model will be  $N = (L/v\tau_{in})^2$ . Since each hop is in-

dependent, the conductance is determined by a summing over  $N$  independent expressions of the form of Eq. (6) with  $L$  replaced by  $v\tau_{in}$ . This implies that the mean results for  $G(T)$  given above for  $\tau_{in} \gg L/v$  will remain true for  $\tau_{in} \ll L/v$ , but that all fluctuations will be reduced by the factor  $1/\sqrt{N} = v\tau_{in}/L$ . So as expected, when inelastic scattering is important, almost all of the zero-temperature fluctuations are suppressed.

This work was supported in part by the National Science Foundation—Materials Research Laboratory program under Grant No. 79-23647.

(a) On leave of absence from Tel-Aviv University, Ramat-Aviv, Tel-Aviv, Israel.

<sup>1</sup>P. W. Anderson, D. J. Thouless, E. Abrahams, and D. S. Fisher, *Phys. Rev. B* **22**, 3519 (1980); B. S. Andereck and E. Abrahams, *J. Phys. C* **13**, L383 (1980); see also E. N. Economou and C. M. Soukoulis, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **46**, 618 (1981); C. M. Soukoulis and E. N. Economou, *Solid State Commun.* **37**, 409 (1981).

<sup>2</sup>E. Abrahams and M. J. Stephen, *J. Phys. C* **13**, L377 (1980).

<sup>3</sup>A. D. Stone and J. D. Joannopoulos, *Phys. Rev. B* **25**, 1431 (1982).

<sup>4</sup>See, e.g., A. B. Fowler, A. Hartstein, and R. A. Webb, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **48**, 196 (1982).

<sup>5</sup>This expression may be obtained directly from the equations leading to the multiple-hopping law for conductivity; see N. F. Mott and E. A. Davis, *Electronic Processes in Non-Crystalline Materials* (Oxford Univ. Press, Oxford, 1971), p. 40.

<sup>6</sup>For extremely large  $L$ ,  $\ln[R(T)] \propto T^{-1}$  [see e.g., J. Kurkajarui, *Phys. Rev. B* **8**, 922 (1973)]. However, in the range of  $L$ 's of interest to us, Eq. (3) is correct. See N. F. Mott, *Philos. Mag.* **19**, 835 (1969); V. K. S. Shante, C. M. Varma, and A. N. Bloch, *Phys. Rev. B* **8**, 4885 (1973); W. Brinig, G. H. Dohler, and H. Heyszenau, *Philos. Mag.* **27**, 1093 (1973).

<sup>7</sup>R. Landauer, *Philos. Mag.* **21**, 863 (1970).

<sup>8</sup>M. Ya. Azbel and Paul Soven, *Phys. Rev. B* **27**, 831 (1983).

<sup>9</sup>M. Ya. Azbel, *Solid State Commun.* **45**, 527 (1983).

<sup>10</sup>M. Ya. Azbel and D. P. DiVincenzo, to be published.