

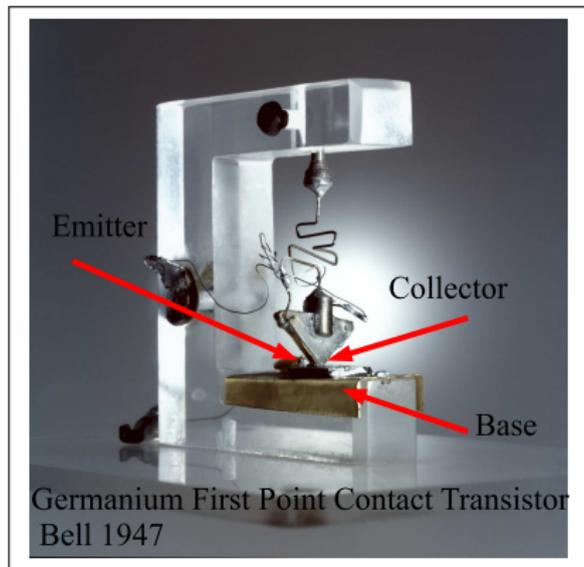
# From Charge Currents to Spin Currents — ESM Brno 2019

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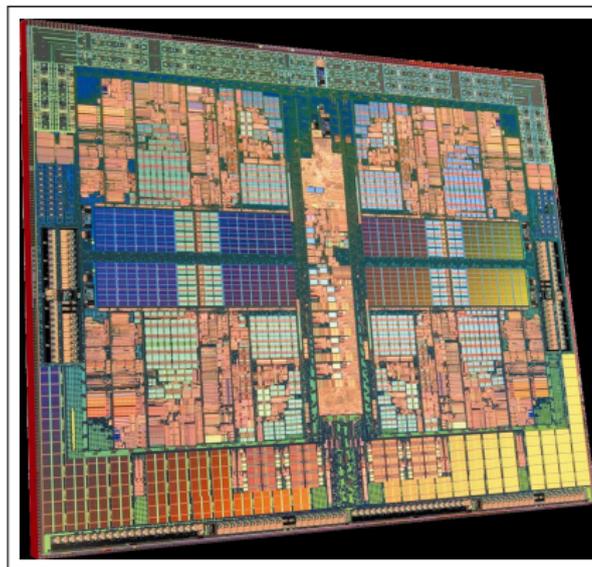
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18 septembre 2019





Modern electronics was created in 1947 when the **transistor** was invented in Bell laboratories by Bardeen, Shockley and Brattain (Nobel prize 1955).



45 nm transistors  
800 million transistors  
3.5 Ghz  
125 Watt

Recent **microprocessors** contain more than a billion transistors, transistor channel length decreasing from 45 nm to 32 nm to 22 nm, now 14 nm / 10 nm technology, next is 7 nm ... **3 nm limit?**

Semiconductor based electronics does not take the **electron spin** into account (only x2 in calculations).

When the spin of the electron is explicitly taken into account, it becomes an **extra degree of freedom**

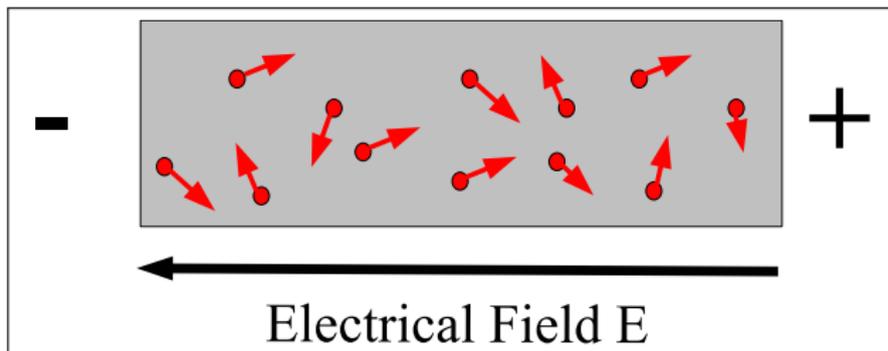
Charge transport + spin = **magnetic electronics** = **spintronics**

Spin transport without charge transport = **Spin currents**

- Classical transport
- Magnetotransport
- Spin currents

# Drude's model

In a conducting material (silicon, copper) :



Carrier charge :  $q$  (Coulomb)

Carrier density :  $n$  (/m<sup>3</sup>)

**Current density** :  $\vec{j} = qn\vec{v}$  (A/m<sup>2</sup>)

Applying an **electric field** :  $\vec{E}$  (Volt/m)

No collisions  $\rightarrow$  constant acceleration !

The carriers are accelerated between collisions  
which **redistribute** the momenta

Average time between Collisions :  $\tau$  (s)

Momentum acquired during  $\tau$  is  $qE\tau$

Average momentum of carriers  $p = qE\tau$

classical mechanics  $\vec{p} = m\vec{v} = q\vec{E}\tau$

So the **drift velocity**  $\vec{v} = \frac{q\vec{E}\tau}{m}$

The current  $\vec{j} = qn\vec{v} = \frac{q^2 n \tau}{m} \vec{E}$

The current is proportional to the applied electric field

$$\vec{j} = \sigma \vec{E} \quad \text{Ohm's law}$$

$$\vec{j} = \sigma \vec{E}$$

$\sigma$  is the **conductivity** (in Siemens per meter (S/m))

Its inverse  $\rho = 1/\sigma$  is the **resistivity** in Ohm.meter( $\Omega.m$ )

$$\sigma = \frac{q^2 n \tau}{m}$$

High conductivity means :

**large density** of carriers

**long collision** time

**small carrier mass**

it does **not** depend on the **sign** of the charge

$$\vec{j} = \sigma \vec{E} = q \cdot n \cdot \vec{v}$$

One defines the **mobility**  $\mu$  :  $\vec{v} = \mu \vec{E}$

$$\mu = \frac{\sigma}{nq} = \frac{q\tau}{m} (\text{m}^2/\text{Vs})$$

The classical image of the carriers is rapidly unable to explain transport phenomena

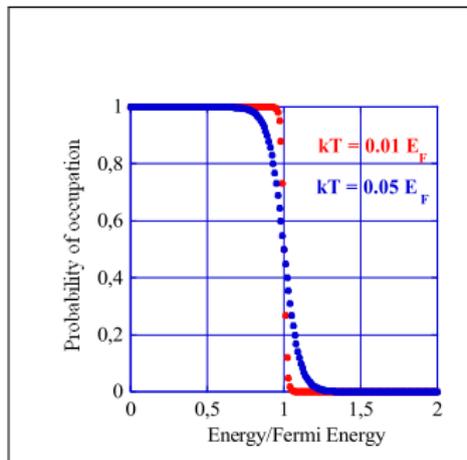
- gap, bands (insulators / semiconductors / metals)
- (effective) mass different from electron mass (high mobility semicond., heavy fermions)
- spin

Electron is a fermion and there are correlation effects (not free electrons). It is more correct to use **quantum mechanics** in these **solid state** materials (and it becomes a bit more complicated !)

Electrons are **fermions** so they follow **Pauli principle** and abide by the **Fermi-Dirac statistics**

$$f(E) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{\frac{E-E_F}{kT}}}$$

# Fermi-Dirac statistics



$E_F = 2-5$  eV and  $kT = 25$  meV at 300 K

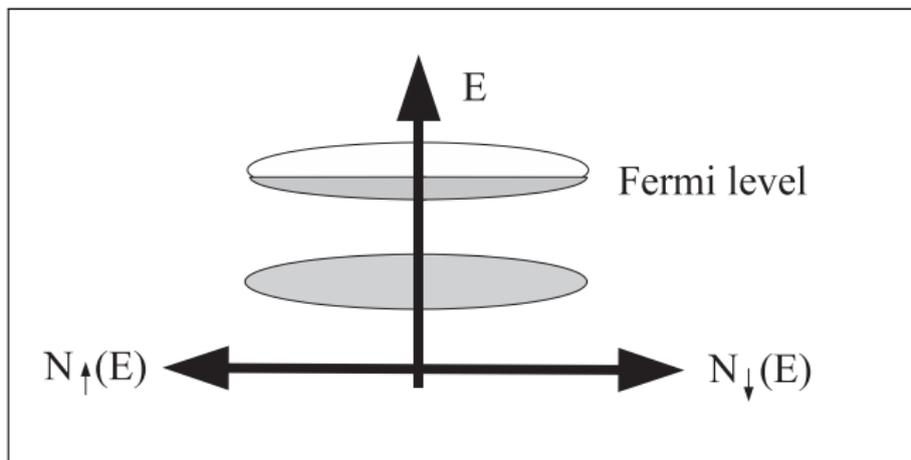
so  $kT$  is 1%  $E_F$

Only electrons in the energy range  $E_F - kT$ ,  $E_F + kT$  participate to transport.

(Out of equilibrium (non thermal) transport is possible in extreme cases : one talks about hot electron injection)

# Band structure

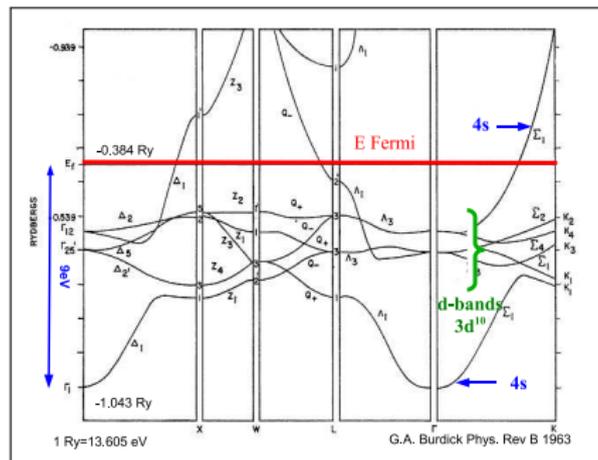
Electron transport happens in a more or less **periodic atomic lattice**



Such a band structure leads to a first definition of metals and insulators

**Metals** have a **finite density of states** at the Fermi level

For **insulators**, the Fermi energy is in a band gap, so **no carriers** at 0 Kelvin



Cu band structure.  $\text{Cu} = [\text{Ar}]3d^{10}4s^1$

The effect of interactions can be represented by free electrons with an **effective mass**.

$$E = E_0 + \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m^*} \text{ i.e. } m^* = \frac{\hbar^2}{\frac{\partial^2 E}{\partial k^2}}$$

4s electrons are **light** (free, delocalised),  
 3d electrons are **heavier** (more localised)

The classical electron has a velocity  $\frac{mv^2}{2} = \frac{3}{2}kT$   
for Cu it gives  $v=1.1 \cdot 10^5$  m/s

Since the kinetic energy is not anymore  $kT$  but  $E_F$ ,

$$E = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m} = E_F$$

a quantum electron has a velocity  $v_F = \frac{\hbar k_F}{m} = 10^6$  m/s

The distance between scattering events is the mean free path  $\lambda$

For Cu at 300 K :  $v_F = 10^6$  m/s and  $\tau = 2 \cdot 10^{-14}$ s gives  $\lambda = 20$  nm

Electrons should be treated as **interacting particles** :

- not the free electron mass but an **effective mass**

Density should be taken from **band structure** calculations

Carriers could be **holes**

Drude → **Semi-classical model**

$$\sigma = \frac{q^2 n(E_F) \tau}{m^*}$$

$$\lambda = v\tau$$

According to the value  $\rightarrow$  :

$\lambda \approx$  lattice parameter  $a$  : **electron localisation** (insulation character)

$\rightarrow$  hopping transport (thermally activated)

$a < \lambda <$  sample size : **diffusive regime**

$\lambda >$  sample size : **ballistic behaviour** (full quantum treatment required, including contacts)

$\lambda$  can be limited by the sample surface contribution : Fuchs  
Sondheimer correction for finite size.

**Thin films resistivity is larger than bulk resistivity**

Several microscopic scattering events may happen in a conductor :

Assuming the **scattering rates** are **independent** one gets :

Matthiesen rule :  $\frac{1}{\tau} = \sum \frac{1}{\tau_i}$

Microscopic **relaxation mechanisms**

In a periodic potential, a plane wave is a solution : the conductivity is infinite

But the sample is never periodic

**Temperature-independent scattering** :

defects, impurities

**Temperature-dependent scattering** :

lattice excitations (phonons)

magnetic excitations (spin waves = magnons)

electron-electron collisions

Scattering can be **elastic** (E conserved) or **inelastic**

The relaxation time for wavevector  $\vec{k}$  is different from the relaxation time for spin

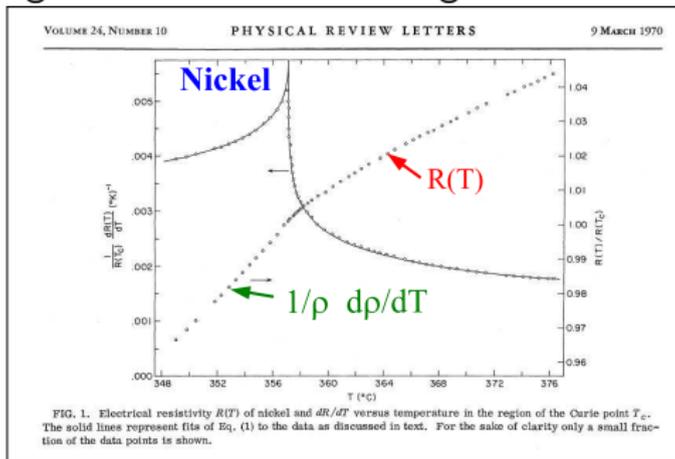
→ spin-flip and non spin-flip relaxation times

# Magnetic contribution

For magnetic materials, magnetic excitations also cause scattering spin waves are similar to lattice vibrations but :

$$E = \hbar\omega = Dq^2 \text{ for spin waves and } E = \hbar\omega = Aq \text{ for phonons}$$

Example : At the Curie temperature, ferromagnetic order disappears. Magnetic fluctuations diverge.



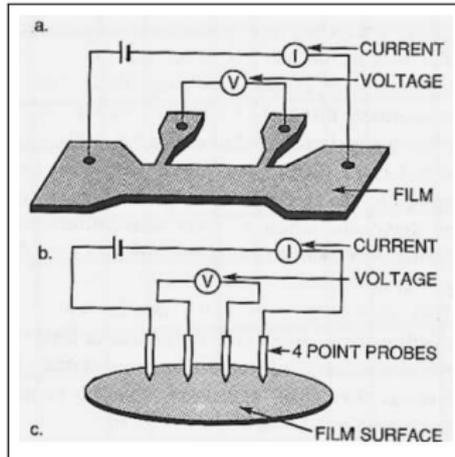
Material	Cu	Ni	Au	Pt
Resistivity ( $10^{-8}\Omega.m$ )	1.7	7	2.2	10

Ni  $3d^94s^1$  = Cu minus 1 electron

Pt  $5d^96s^1$

Au  $5d^{10}4s^1$

# Resistance measurement



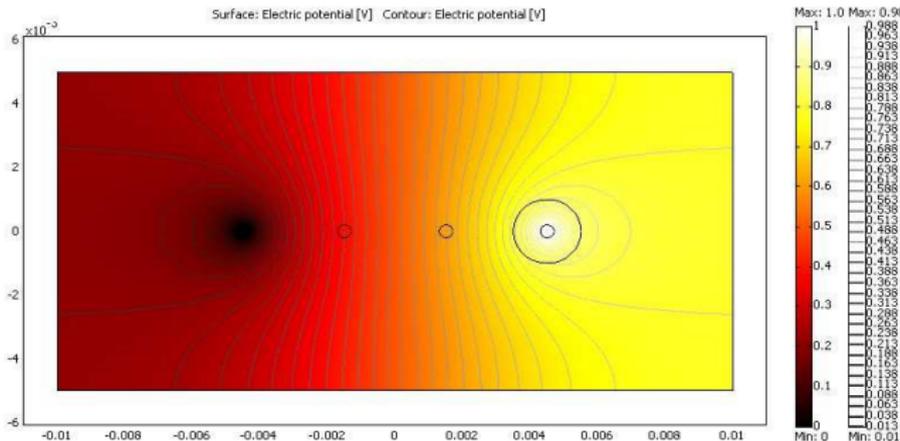
4 wire measurement of resistance

$$R = \rho \frac{\text{length}}{\text{width} \cdot \text{thickness}}$$

2 wire measurement includes the **cable** resistance and the **contact** resistance

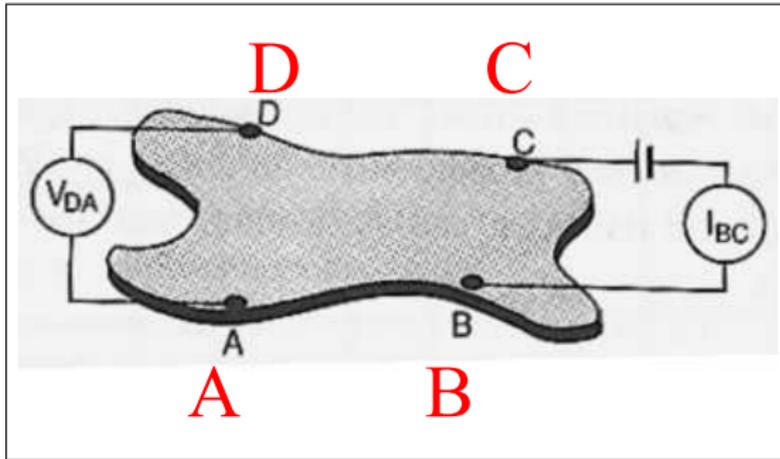
# Resistance measurement

1:2 aspect ratio Sample  
0.3 separation between contacts



Calculated Resistance is 15% larger than  
the simple formula  $R=\rho l/s$

# Van der Pauw Geometry



if the resistivity is homogeneous  
if the sample is simply connex  
if the 4 contacts are small and on the edge

$$e^{-\frac{\pi R_1}{R_{\square}}} + e^{-\frac{\pi R_2}{R_{\square}}} = 1$$

$R_{\square} = \frac{\rho}{\text{thickness}}$   $R_{\square}$  is the resistance per square or **sheet resistance**

## Magneto-transport

Electron trajectories under an applied magnetic field will become helicoidal

classical Lorentz force :  $\vec{f} = q\vec{E} + q\vec{v} \wedge \vec{B}$

longer trajectories to go from A to B  $\rightarrow$  increased resistivity

Metals obey **Kohler's scaling** :

$$\frac{\Delta\rho}{\rho} = f(\omega_c\tau)$$

and  $\omega_c = \frac{qB}{m}$  (cyclotron pulsation) so  $\frac{\Delta\rho}{\rho} = f\left(\frac{B}{\rho_0}\right)$

$\rho_0$  is the resistivity at  $B=0$

large effect when the resistivity is small (single crystal at low T)

**cyclotron magnetoresistance**

It is most often a  $B^2$  law and  $\frac{\delta\rho}{\rho} = 0.1\%$  in 1 Tesla at usual metals at room temperature

## The cyclotron MR and thermometry : Pt sensor

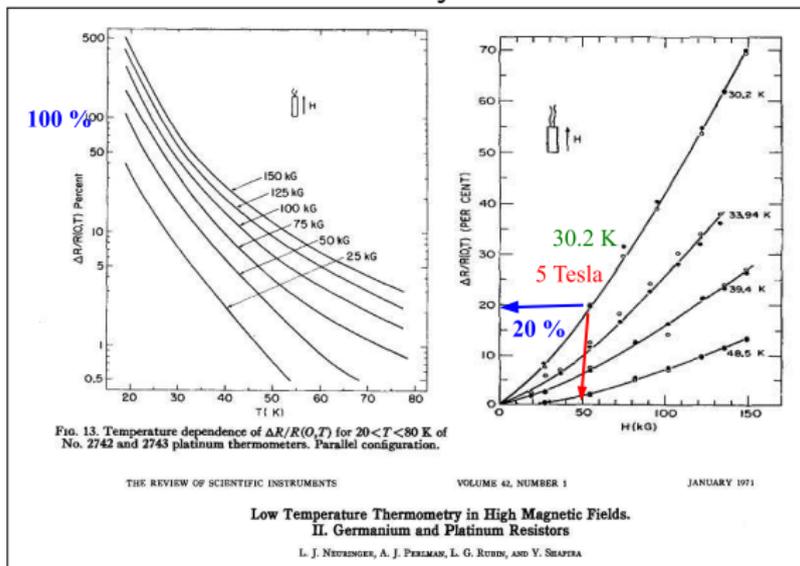


FIG. 13. Temperature dependence of  $\Delta R/R(O,T)$  for  $20 < T < 80$  K of No. 2742 and 2743 platinum thermometers. Parallel configuration.

At low temp, magnetoresistance has to be taken into account

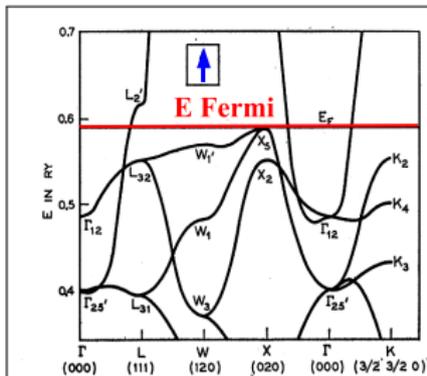


FIG. 6. The  $\uparrow$  spin band structure of Ni in model (c).

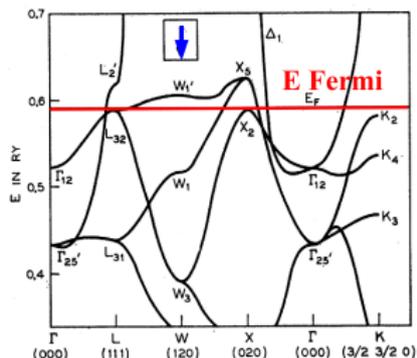


FIG. 7. The  $\downarrow$  spin band structure of Ni in model (c).

J.C. Phillips Phys. Rev. B 1964

PHYSICAL REVIEW

VOLUME 133, NUMBER 4A

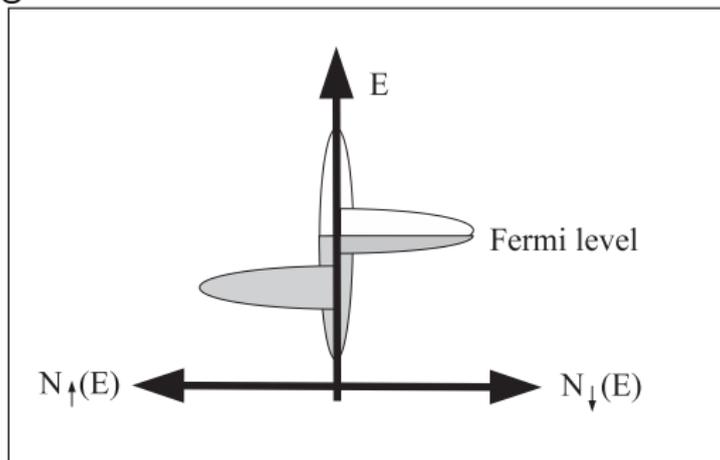
17 FEBRUARY 1964

## Fermi Surface of Ferromagnetic Nickel\*

J. C. PHILLIPS†

*Department of Physics and Institute for the Study of Metals, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois*

In a ferromagnetic metal



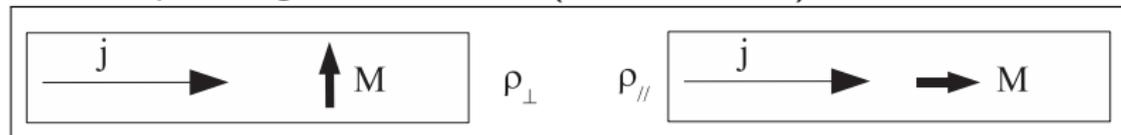
density of state, effective mass, mean free path ...

become **spin-dependent**

$3d^{\uparrow}$ ,  $3d^{\downarrow}$  (heavy),  $4s^{\uparrow}$   $4s^{\downarrow}$  (light) electrons

**s-d scattering**

## Anisotropic Magnetoresistance (volume effect)

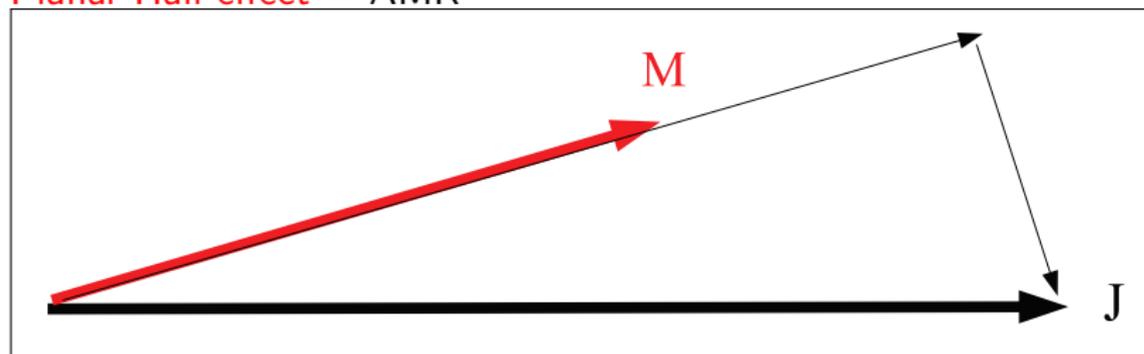


$$\rho = \rho_{\perp} + (\rho_{\parallel} - \rho_{\perp}) \cos^2(\mathbf{k}, \mathbf{M}) \quad (1)$$

Value : a few percents in FeNi

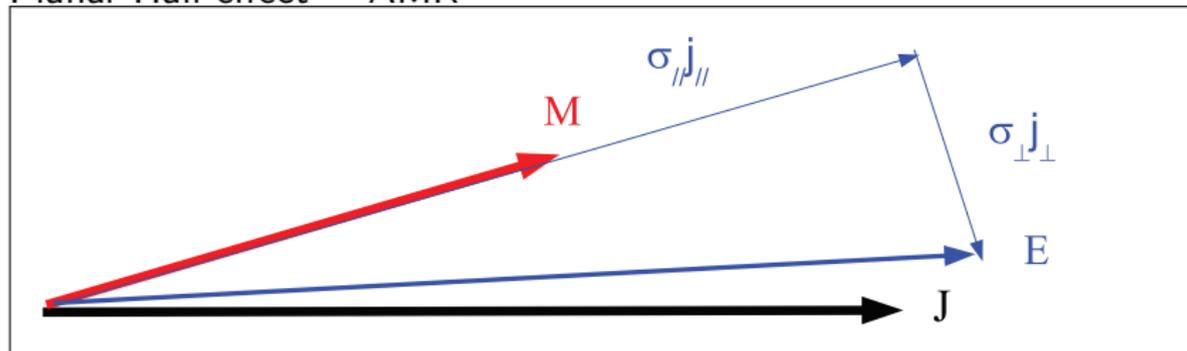
# Anisotropic Magnetoresistance

Planar Hall effect = AMR



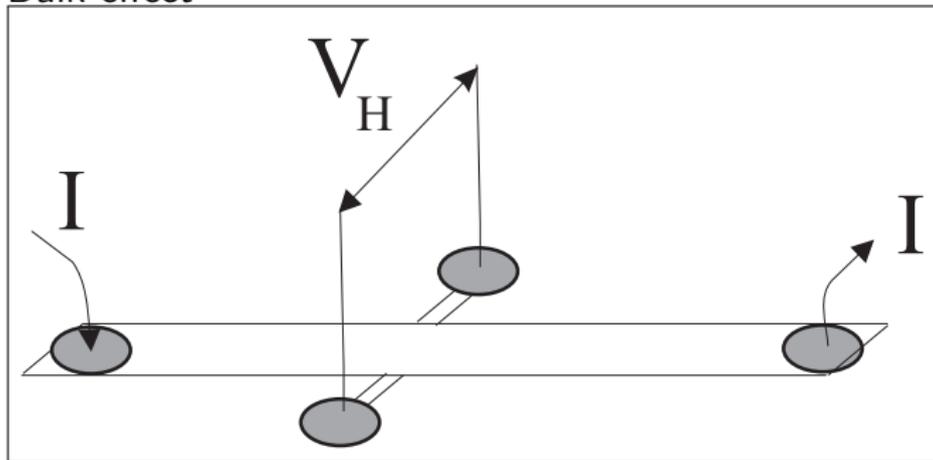
# Anisotropic Magnetoresistance

Planar Hall effect = AMR



There is a transverse E-field  $\Rightarrow$  similar to Hall

Bulk effect



$$\vec{f} = q\vec{E} + q\vec{v} \wedge \vec{B}$$

Normal(ordinary) Hall effect  $V_H = R_H I B_z$

$$R_H = \frac{1}{n \cdot q}$$

If you know  $n$  : magnetic field sensor

If you know  $B_z$  : doping characterisation

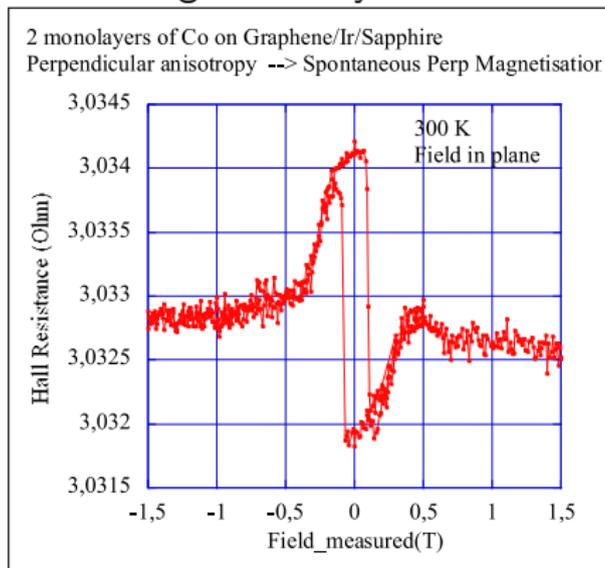
In a ferromagnetic sample, a new contribution to Hall effect appears

**Extraordinary** Hall effect  $V_H = R_e I M_z$

due to spin-orbit coupling, scattering of carriers on magnetic moments is not left-right symmetric

Usually,  $R_e$  increases with  $\rho$  (diffusive) :  $R_e = \alpha\rho^1 + \beta\rho^2$   
(intrinsic(Fermi Surface), skew scattering, side-jump mechanisms)

EHE can be used as a magnetometry tool



2 monolayers of Cobalt

4158 Appl. Phys. Lett., Vol. 80, No. 22, 3 June 2002

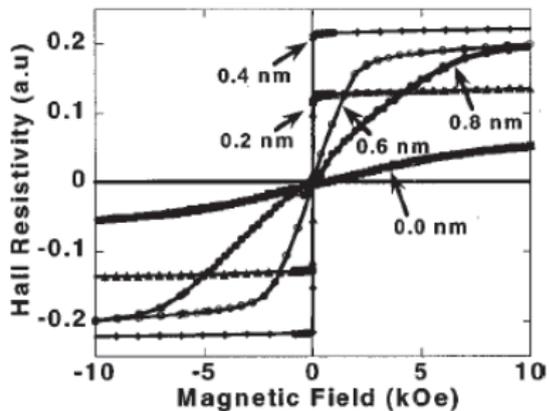
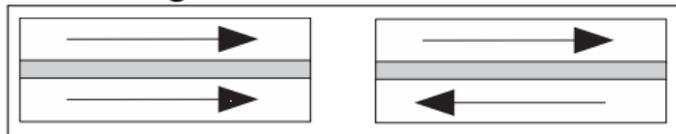


FIG. 1. Extraordinary Hall effect as a function of applied field for a series of samples of the composition Pt 3 nm/Co<sub>90</sub>Fe<sub>10</sub> 0.6 nm/Al  $t_{Al}$  with  $0 < t_{Al} < 1.2$  nm. Samples were naturally oxidized in air for 24 h.

## Giant magnetoresistance



- CIP  (current in plane)
- CPP  (current perpendicular to plane)

lengthscales :

current-in-plane : mean free path

current-perpendicular to plane : spin diffusion length

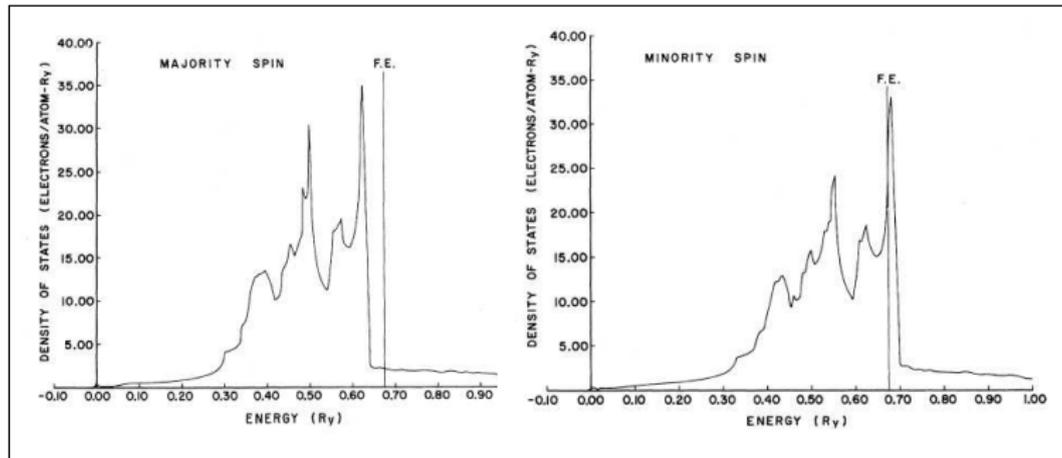
Mott 1930

If **spin flip** can be **neglected**, the total current is **the sum** of the current carried by **↑** and **↓**

The material is equivalent to 2 resistors in parallel

$$\frac{1}{\rho} = \frac{1}{\rho_{\uparrow}} + \frac{1}{\rho_{\downarrow}}$$

# Two-current model



The 4s electrons are lighter than the 3d ones

The 4s electrons are mainly responsible for carrying the charge current

In a **strong ferromagnet** like Ni, at  $E_F$  there are  $4s_{\uparrow}$  and  $4s_{\downarrow}$  electrons and only  $3d_{\downarrow}$  ones.

No possibility for  $4s_{\uparrow}$ - $3d_{\uparrow}$  scattering

Mean free path  $\lambda_{\uparrow}$  is longer than mean free path  $\lambda_{\downarrow}$

Mean free path  $\lambda_{\uparrow}$  is longer than mean free path  $\lambda_{\downarrow}$

Example : Cobalt :  $\lambda_{\uparrow}=10$  nm and  $\lambda_{\downarrow}=1$  nm

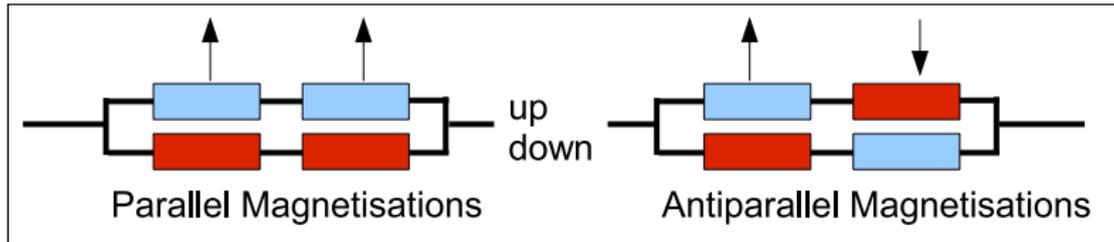
Introducing  $\alpha = \frac{\rho_{\uparrow}}{\rho_{\downarrow}}$  the **bulk resistivity asymmetry**

## Majority/minority carriers

In a magnetic multilayer, the magnetisation may vary (antiparallel configuration)

A spin  $\uparrow$  electron may be majority carrier in one layer and minority carrier in the next one.

# GMR Resistor model



$$\rho_{parallel} = \frac{2\rho_{\uparrow}\rho_{\downarrow}}{\rho_{\uparrow}+\rho_{\downarrow}} \text{ and } \rho_{antiparallel} = \frac{\rho_{\uparrow}+\rho_{\downarrow}}{2}$$

**Improvements** : Boltzmann equation (spin-dependent) with Spin dependent reflection/transmission/diffusion **at each interface**

Ingredients for Valet-Fert model (PRB 1993)

Spin-dependent electrochemical potential  $\mu_{\uparrow}$

Spin-dependent currents  $\vec{j}_{\uparrow} = \frac{-\sigma_{\uparrow} \partial \mu_{\uparrow}}{e \partial z}$

In a bulk :  $\mu = \mu_{\uparrow} = \mu_{\downarrow} = E_F + q \cdot \text{Potential}$

Charge and Spin currents can be defined

$$\vec{j}_{\uparrow} + \vec{j}_{\downarrow} = \vec{j}(\text{charge current})$$

$$\vec{j}_{\uparrow} - \vec{j}_{\downarrow} = \vec{j}(\text{spin current})$$

Interface ferromagnetic - non magnetic metal : Need for spin-flip

In a non magnetic metal most scattering events do not **flip** the spin of the electrons

Scattering on a magnetic impurities or absorption/emission of a magnetic excitation (magnon) can flip the spin.

**Spin-flip** scattering is an inelastic event

⇒ vanishingly small at low temperature, not common at higher  $T$  (1 event out of 1000 in a non magnetic metal), 5 nm in a ferromagnetic metal

$$D \frac{\partial^2 \Delta\mu_i}{\partial x^2} = \frac{\Delta\mu_i}{\tau_{sf}}$$

at the interface between 2 conductors, the spin polarisation of the current cannot change discontinuously.

$$l_{sf} = \sqrt{\frac{v_F \tau_{sf} \lambda}{3}}$$

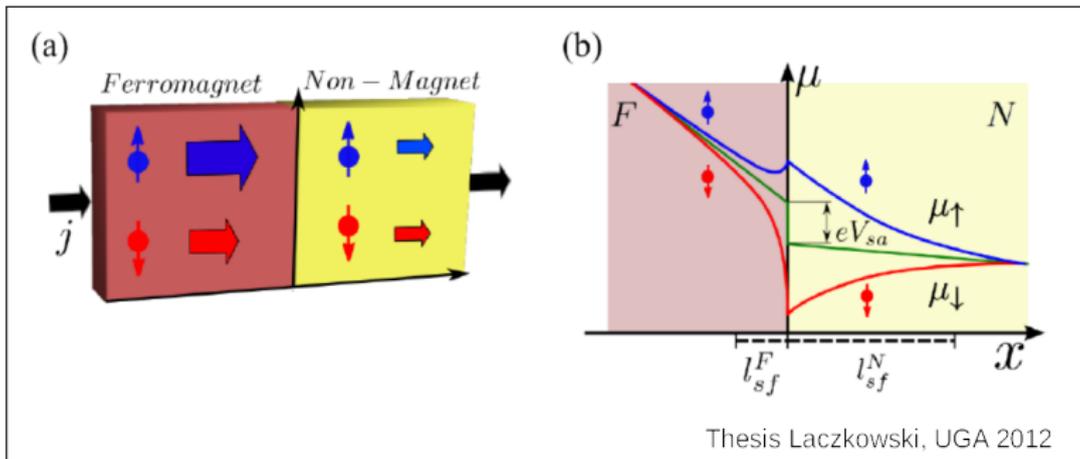
( $l_{sf} = \sqrt{\frac{N}{3}} \lambda$  **random walk** and  $\tau_{sf} = N \cdot \tau$ )

Close to the interface (lengthscale  $l_{sf}$ ), an out-of-equilibrium spin population exists

**spin accumulation** effect

**spin injection** from a ferromagnetic electrode to a metal or a semiconductor (Conductivity Mismatch Problem)

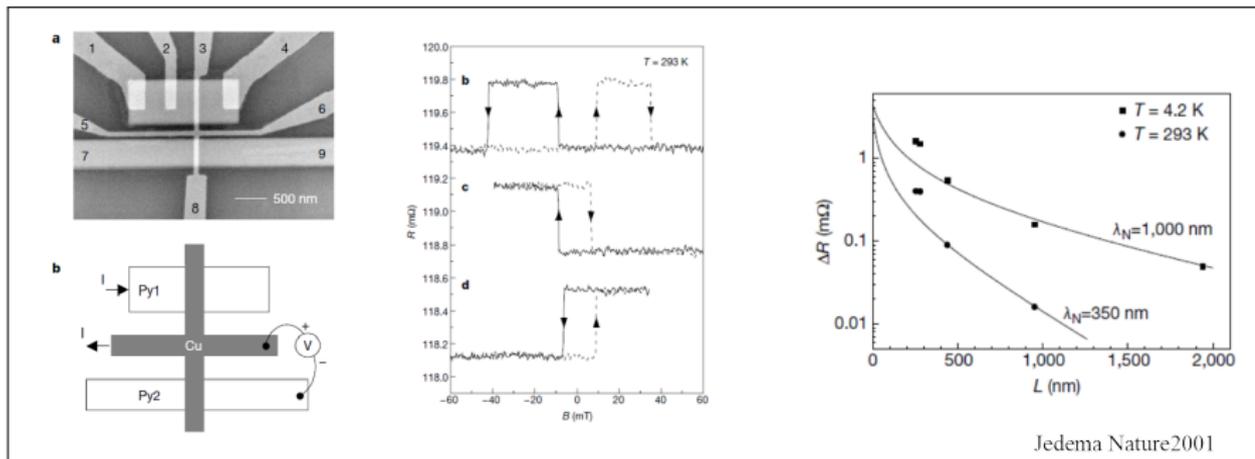
# Spin Accumulation



Spin current is injected  
Relaxation happens on a **spin diffusion length**

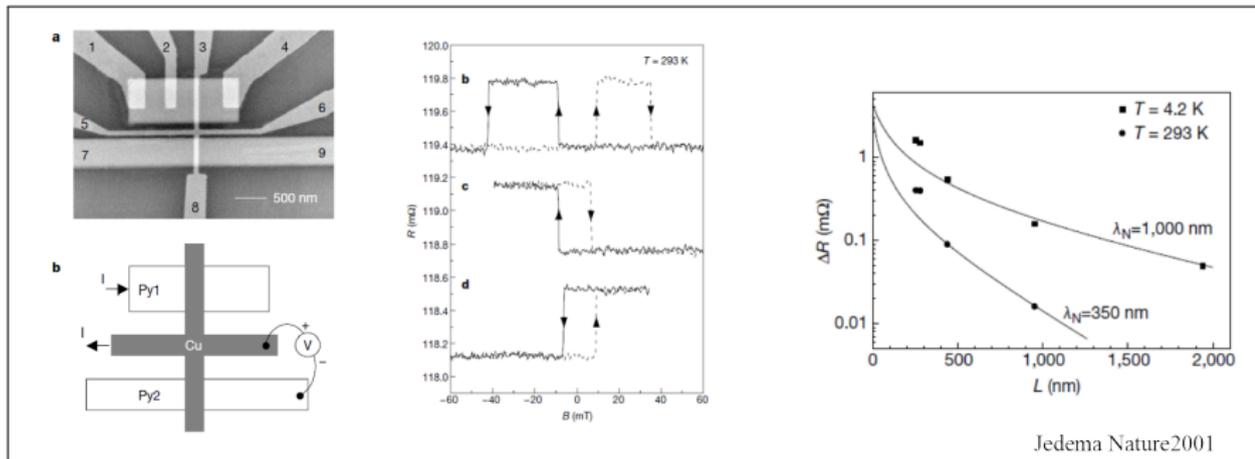
- spin accumulation without charge current
- Spin Hall effect
- Spin pumping
- Rashba-Edelstein mechanism
- Temperature gradient (Spin Seebeck geometry)

# Pure Spin Current : Non local Spin Valve



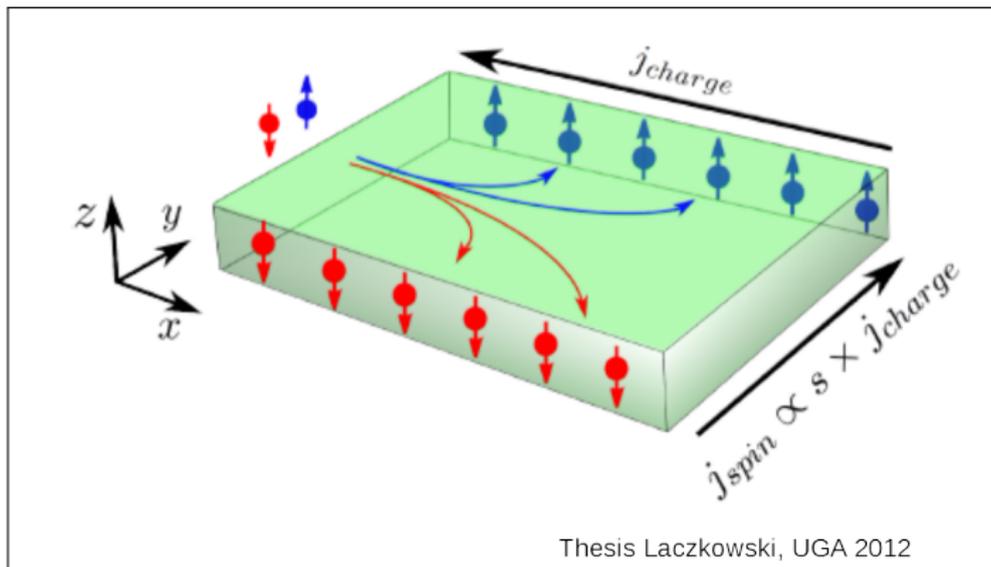
Spin  $\uparrow$  Current is injected into Copper

# Non local Spin Valve : Spin current detection



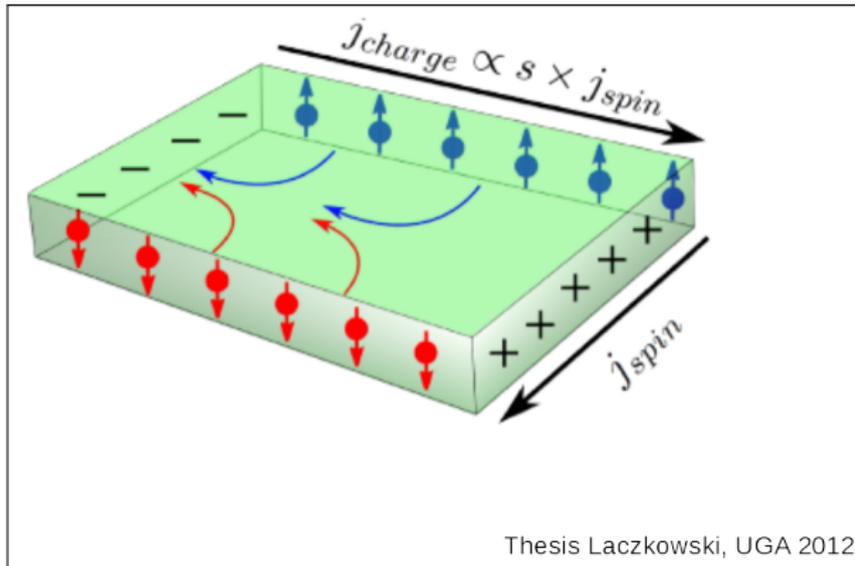
Py Fermi level aligns on the  $\uparrow$  or  $\downarrow$  chemical potential in Cu.  
MR-like signal

# Spin Hall Effect



Charge current, Spin current, Spin are perp.  
Large Effect in large spin-orbit heavy metals (Pt)

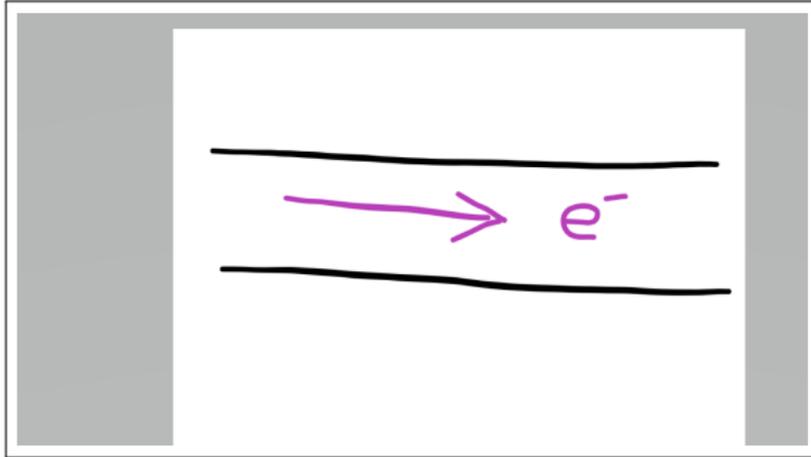
# Inverse Spin Hall Effect



A charge current is generated by a flow of spins.

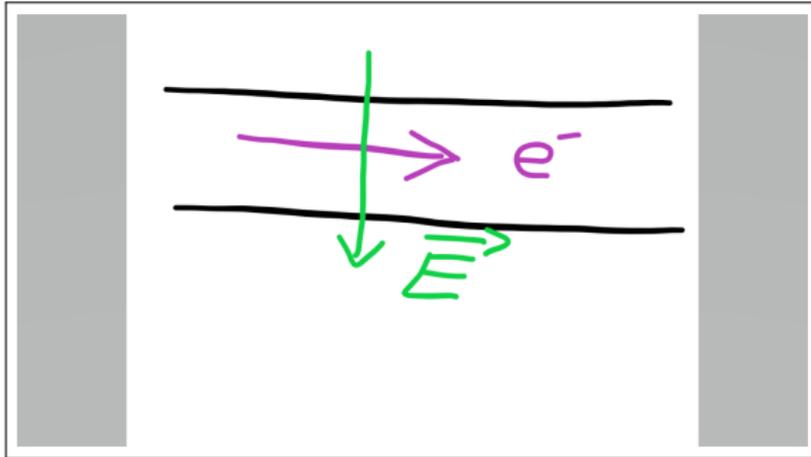


## Generating a Spin Polarisation



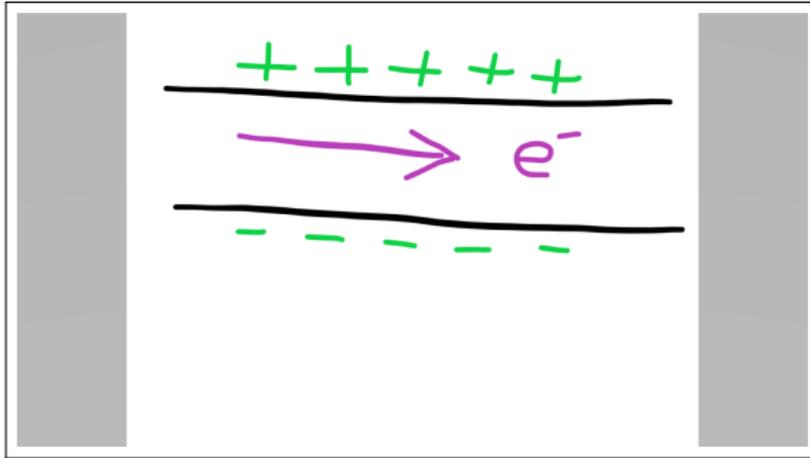
Conduction electron with moment  $\vec{k}$  in an ultrathin film with Electric field at interface.

# Rashba at Interface



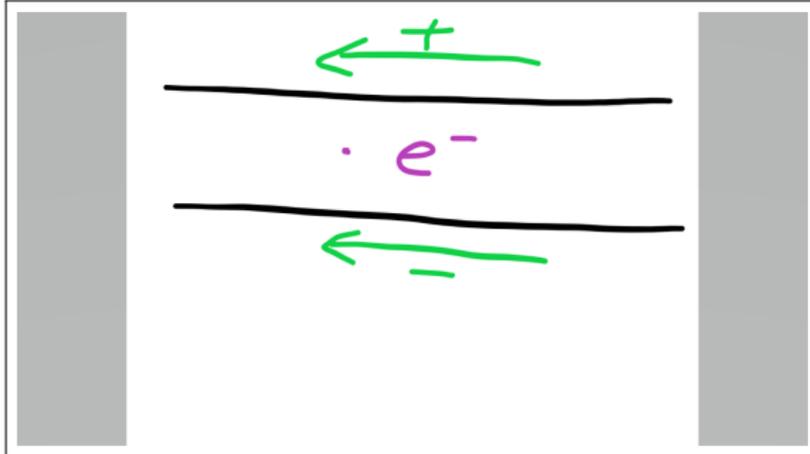
Electric Field at one interface

# Rashba at Interface



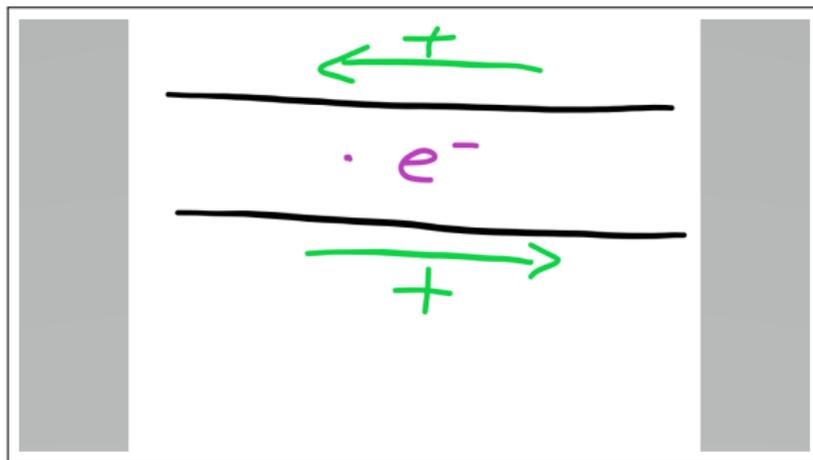
As if both interfaces are charged

# Rashba at Interface

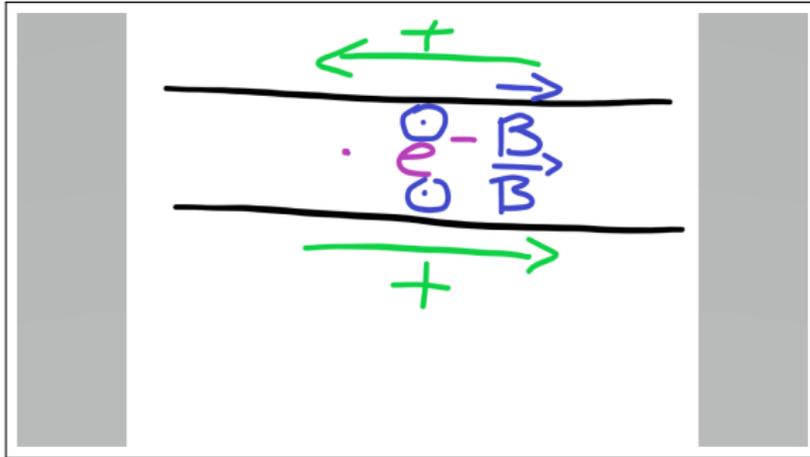


In the frame of the electron, it is at rest.  
The interface charges are moving.

# Rashba at Interface

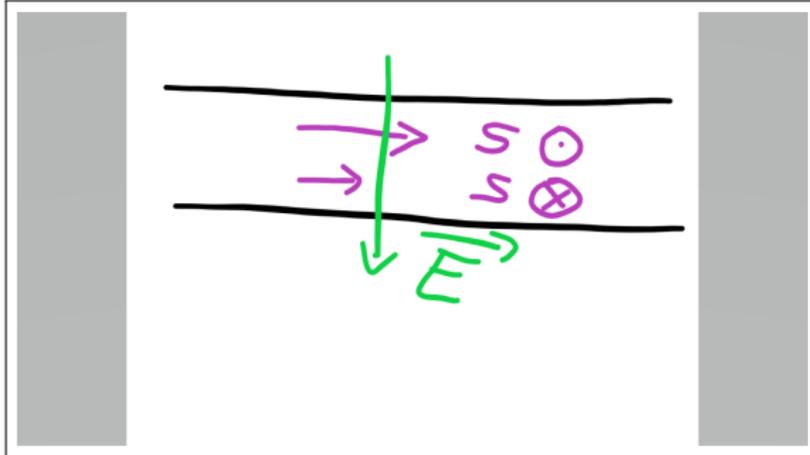


As if 2 currents at the interfaces



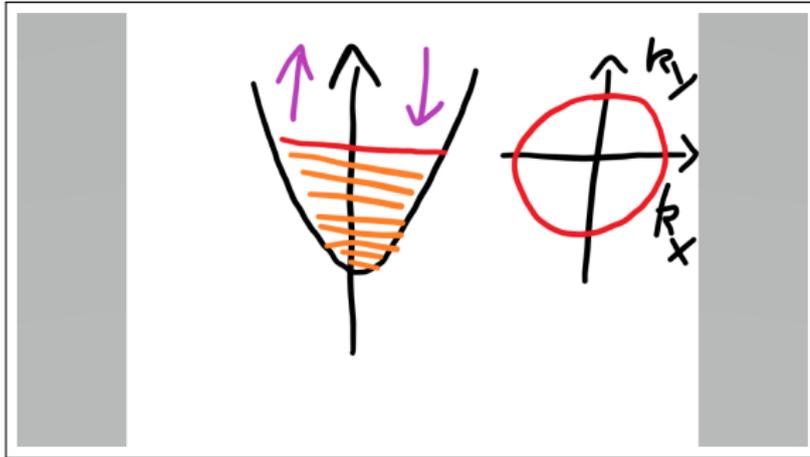
These currents create an in-plane effective magnetic field

# Rashba at Interface



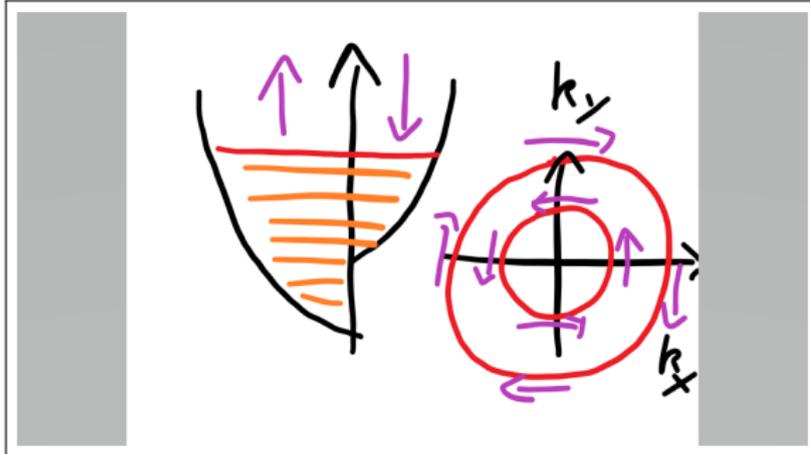
The transverse spin degeneracy is lifted  
The original current is spin polarised

# Rashba at Interface

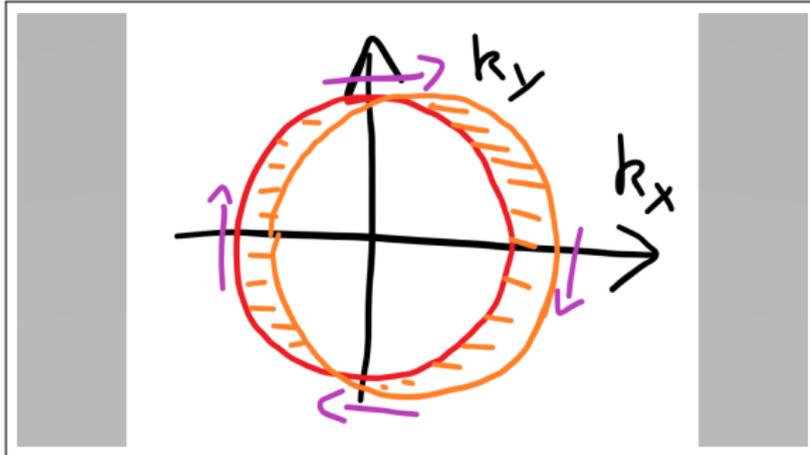


Without magnetic field the current is not polarised in-plane

# Rashba at Interface

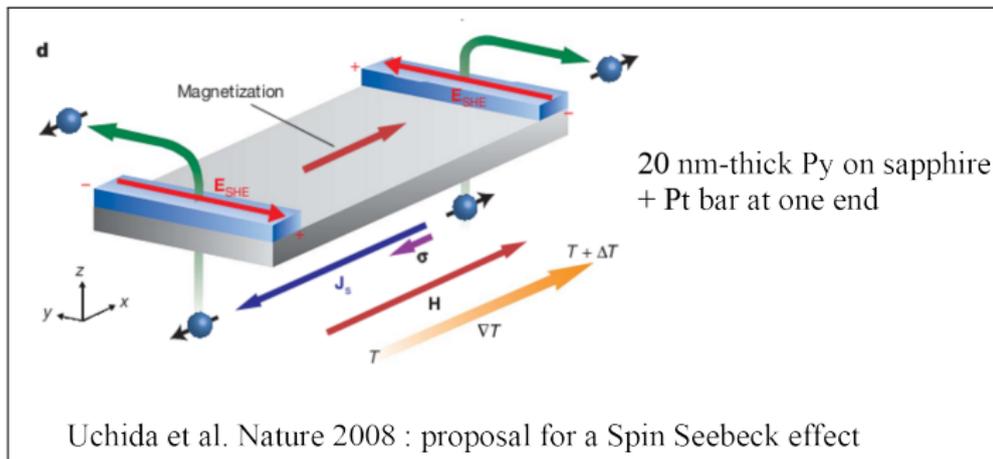


With Rashba field, the current becomes spin-polarised.  
The spin polarisation is transverse to  $\vec{k}$ .



Rashba-Edelstein mechanism : converts a charge current into a spin current

# Spin Seebeck



Temperature gradient + Magnetisation are collinear  
Diffusion of spin (ISHE detection)

Book :

Spin Current (editors S. Maekawa, S.O. Valenzuela, E. Saitoh and T. Kimura) (Oxford Science Publications, OUP)  
(edition 2 , 2017)