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## Asymmetric metal-insulator transition in disordered ferromagnetic films

R. Misra, A.F. Hebard $^{\ast}$  and K.A. Muttalib

Department of Physics, University of Florida, Gainesville FL 32611-8440

P. Wölfle

Institute for Condensed Matter Theory and Institute for Nanotechnology, Karlsruhe Institute of Technology, D-76128 Karlsruhe, Germany

We present experimental data and a theoretical interpretation of the conductance near the metalinsulator transition in thin ferromagnetic Gd films of thickness  $b \approx 2$  - 10 nm. A large phase relaxation rate caused by scattering of quasiparticles off spin wave excitations renders the dephasing length  $L_{\phi} \leq b$  in the range of sheet resistances considered, so that the effective dimension is d =3. The conductivity data at different stages of disorder obey a fractional power-law temperature dependence and collapse onto two scaling curves for the metallic and insulating regimes, indicating an asymmetric metal-insulator transition with two distinctly different critical exponents; the best fit is obtained for a dynamical exponent  $z \approx 2.5$  and a correlation (localization) length critical exponent  $\nu_{-} \approx 1.4$  ( $\nu_{+} \approx 0.8$ ) on the metallic (insulating) side.

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The metal-insulator (M-I) transition in disordered conductors [1] has been one of the most extensively studied cases of a quantum phase transition, both experimentally and theoretically. In its simplest form it describes noninteracting electrons in a disordered potential, where the disorder can be controlled experimentally in a variety of ways, e.g by systematic doping. One of the most dramatic predictions of the scaling theory [1] is the absence of true metallic behavior in systems with dimension  $d \leq 2$ as verified in numerous experiments [2]. The other prediction is the existence of a critical point in d > 2 where the conductivity in the metallic phase goes to zero continuously with increasing disorder, in contrast to having a minimum metallic conductivity [3]. Electron-electron interactions are known to modify the behavior near a M-I transition in a significant way [4], including the possibility of a metallic state in d = 2 [5].

Near the transition, the behavior is characterized by power laws with critical exponents. For example, the dc conductivity  $\sigma(\lambda)$ , with  $\lambda$  being a measure of disorder, follows a power law  $\sigma \sim t^s$ , where  $t = (1 - \lambda/\lambda_c)$  denotes the distance to the critical point at critical disorder  $\lambda_c$ , and s is the conductivity exponent. The dynamical conductivity at the critical point, on the other hand, is characterized by the dynamical exponent z as  $\sigma(\omega; \lambda_c) \sim$  $\omega^{1/z}$ . The correlation length on the metallic side ( $\lambda < \lambda_c$ ) diverges at the critical point as  $\xi \sim t^{-\nu_{-}}$  and the localization length  $(\lambda > \lambda_c)$  diverges as  $\xi \sim |t|^{-\nu_+}$ . In d = 3dimensions the relation  $s = \nu_{-}$  holds. The exponents in d = 3 have yet to be calculated in a reliable way. While the critical exponents  $\nu_+$  and  $\nu_-$  may in principle be different, all theoretical and experimental works so far have either assumed or observed  $\nu_{+} = \nu_{-}$ . In contrast, we report here that for ferromagnetic thin films, the two exponents are distinctly different, describing a very unusual asymmetric transition.

As for any quantum phase transition, the critical exponents can not be measured experimentally at the T = 0 critical point but must be inferred from finite T measurements. Therefore, the emphasis has been to obtain the conductivity as a function of T, as close to T = 0 as possible. Despite intense efforts over several decades [6], it turned out to be rather difficult to access the critical regime in a reliable way. While all such experiments confirm the continuous nature of the transition, the values of the critical exponents remain controversial. Published experimental values of s and z vary from  $s \approx 0.5$  [7],  $s \approx 1$  [8, 9] to  $s \approx 1.6$  and from  $z \approx 2$  [10] to  $z \approx 2.94$  [11]. For the Anderson localization transition (omitting interaction effects), numerical studies find  $s \approx 1.6$  [12] while theoretical studies find z = 3 [13].

Theoretically, the scale dependent conductivity at finite T is obtained from  $\sigma(\omega)$  by replacing  $\omega$  by T. The critical dynamical scaling is found even away from the critical point in the regime defined by frequencies  $\omega \ge \omega_{\xi} = \frac{1}{\tau} (\xi/l)^{-z}$ . Here l and  $\tau$  are the mean free path and the momentum relaxation time, respectively. Near the quantum critical point,  $\sigma(\omega)$  obeys the scaling law,

$$\sigma(\omega;\lambda) = \xi^{-1} G(\pm 1, \xi \omega^{1/z}), \quad t \ge 0.$$
(1)

At the critical point, when  $\xi \to \infty$ , it follows that  $G(\pm 1, \xi \omega^{1/z}) \sim \xi \omega^{1/z}$ . Using the sheet resistance  $R_0$  as the disorder parameter controlled in experiment and  $R_c$  denoting the critical resistance so that  $\xi \propto |R_0 - R_c|^{-\nu_{\pm}}$  where  $\nu_{\pm}$  is either  $\nu_+$  or  $\nu_-$  depending on whether  $R_0$  is larger or smaller than  $R_c$ , and replacing  $\omega$  by T, the conductivity should obey the scaling law,

$$|\epsilon|^{-\nu_{\pm}}\sigma(T;R_0) = G(\pm 1, |\epsilon|^{-\nu_{\pm}}T^{1/z}); \quad \epsilon \equiv R_0 - R_c.$$
 (2)

Below we will see that for thin ferromagnetic Gd films, the exponent  $\nu_{\pm}$  is distinctly different on the two sides

-0.01(1)

= 0.622 (9)= 0.390 (3)

8 910

7

3

. ъ×́

1

4

56

of the transition, i.e.  $\nu_{+} \neq \nu_{-}$ . Such measurements on ferromagnetic films have not been carried out in the past because samples are highly air-sensitive; we use a specialized apparatus in which the sample can be transferred without exposure to air from the high vacuum deposition chamber to an adjoining low-temperature cryostat and electrically reconnected for transport measurements.

We study the conductivity near the M-I transition in a thin-film geometry where it is possible to increase the disorder directly by varying the film deposition rate, the thickness and by annealing [14]. The resulting sheet resistance is the single important parameter controlling the distance to the critical point. Two series of thin films of Gd (series 1 and series 2) were grown by r.f. magnetron sputtering through a shadow mask onto sapphire substrates held at T = 130 K. The current and voltage leads of the deposited sample overlapped with predeposited palladium contacts, thus allowing reliable electrical connection with low contact resistance for in situ measurements of the electrical properties. Immediately after deposition the samples were transferred to the cryostat and held at  $T = 77 \,\mathrm{K}$  or below where the samples are stable. If the temperature is temporarily raised back to the deposition temperature (130 K), annealing marked by a slow irreversible increase in resistance occurs.

To parameterize the amount of disorder in a given film[15, 16], we use the longitudinal sheet resistance  $R_0 \equiv R_{xx}(T = 5K)$ . In our experiments  $R_0$  spans the range 4  $k\Omega < R_0 < 70 \ k\Omega$ , which for most of the samples guarantees that the conductivity at all temperatures is fully determined by strongly localized quantum wave packets. For thicker films at lower disorder strength (450  $\Omega < R_0 < 2840 \ \Omega$ ), quantum corrections due to weak localization and spin-wave mediated electron-electron interactions have been observed and interpreted[16].

Controlled thermal annealing allows us to advantageously tune a single sample through successive stages of increased disorder. Our series 1 samples comprise 5 separate depositions with two of the samples undergoing 12 successive anneals thus giving a total of 17 measurements at different stages of disorder. Our series 2 samples comprise a single sample undergoing 15 successive anneals for a total of 16 measurements spanning the critical region. The resistance was measured using four-terminal dc techniques and excellent reproducibility between the series 1 and series 2 samples was found.

We now argue why the films are effectively three dimensional. As discussed in Ref. [16], the phase relaxation rate  $\tau_{\varphi}$  in ferromagnetic films is dominated by the scattering off spin wave excitations. For a spin-wave gap  $\Delta \ll \hbar/\tau_{\varphi}$  as observed in Gd [17], the rate is given by [18]  $\hbar/\tau_{\varphi} = \left[\frac{nJ^2}{\pi^2\hbar} \frac{D}{D^2 + (A/\hbar)^2} \frac{T}{\sqrt{A}}\right]^{2/3}$  in d = 3. Here *n* is the electron density,  $\bar{J} \approx nJ \approx 80$  meV is the exchange energy [19] and  $A \approx \bar{J}/k_F^2$  is the spin wave stiffness. The *T*-



dependent diffusion coefficient D may be obtained from the resistivity by  $D = 1/(Rbe^2N_0)$ , where  $N_0$  is the 3ddensity of states and b is the film thickness. The dimensionality of the system is d = 3 if the temperature dependent dephasing length[2]  $L_{\varphi}(T) = \sqrt{D\tau_{\varphi}} \ll b$ . Near the critical point, we use  $R(T) = R_0 \times (T_0/T)^p$  where  $T_0 = 5$  K, and  $R_0 \approx 1/L_0 = 25.81k\Omega$  where  $L_0 = e^2/h$ . Using b = 2 nm and estimates for Fermi wave vector  $k_F$ and  $N_0$  from Ref. [19], we obtain  $L_{\varphi} \approx 1 \times (T/T_0)^{(5p-2)/6}$ nm. We will see later that experimentally  $p \approx 0.4$ , which makes  $L_{\varphi}$  essentially T-independent. Three dimensionality is assured since the dephasing length of a disordered ferromagnetic system is much shorter than that of a nonmagnetic system.

In Fig. 1 we show raw data for longitudinal conductivity  $\sigma_{xx}$  (normalized by  $L_0$ ) as a function of T, for all our samples characterized by their sheet resistance  $R_0$  in the range 15  $k\Omega < R_0 < 31 \ k\Omega$ . Within this range (fifteen samples), all data can be fit by an expression of the form

$$\sigma(T; R_0)/L_0 = A + BT^p.$$
(3)

The typical high precision of the fits is also shown in Fig. 1 for the sample (solid circles, red fitting line) with fitting values A = -0.01(1), B = 0.622(9) and p = 0.390(5). We emphasize that for all the curves shown, Eq. (3) remains a very good fit with p around 0.4 and relative residual deviations for all data points within the range  $\pm 0.01$ . We also note that Eq. (3) is not a statement of scaling but is rather a heuristic ansatz employed to categorize the data.

Since Eq. (3) is a very good fit for all samples, we



 $R_0 (K\Omega)$ 

0

21.54

22.67

23.77

25.01

26.11

28.90

30.83

40 50 60

Fi

15.59

16.56

17.01

18.30

18.57

19.08

19.68

20.63

30

20

Temperature (K)



FIG. 2: W as a function of T, showing the existence of a critical separatrix (A = 0) with  $R_0 = 22.67 \ k\Omega$ , separating the metallic (A > 0) and the insulating (A < 0) samples.

can use the three fitting parameters for each sample set to directly calculate reduced activation energy W(T)plots[9] for all fifteen samples as is done in Fig. 2, where  $W(T) \equiv T[d \ln \sigma(T)/dT] = pBT^p/(A + BT^p)$ . We note that since  $W \sim p(1 - A/BT^p)$  for  $A \ll BT^p$ , the plots clearly show one flat (*T*-independent, A = 0) separatrix that separates samples which tend to a metallic limit (W decreasing with decreasing T, A > 0) from samples which tend to an insulating limit (W increasing with decreasing T, A < 0). We identify the separatrix as the sample fitted in Fig. 1, with A = -0.01(1). Thus this particular sample happens to be close enough to criticality (pure power law) so that we can confidently make the identification  $R_c = 22.67 \ k\Omega$  (which is of order unity in units of  $h/e^2$ ). As a bonus, using the scaling law, we can also immediately infer from the fitting value of the critical sample, p = 0.390(5), a critical dynamical exponent  $z = 1/p \approx 2.5$ . Having a sample almost exactly at the critical point allows us to obtain both the critical disorder  $R_c$  and the dynamical exponent z = 1/p directly and unambiguously without the need for interpolation.

Our determination of p = 0.390(5) and  $R_c = 22.67 \ k\Omega$ at criticality with unprecedented precision allows us to analyze the data in an unbiased way by using a scaling plot of the scaling function G defined in Eq. (2) without using Eq. (3) at all. We take different values of the critical exponents  $\nu_+$  and  $\nu_-$  to see how well the data points collapse onto single curves on both sides of the transition. The best data collapse is found for  $\nu_{-} = 1.38 \ (\nu_{+} =$ (0.77) on the metallic (insulating) side. The two panels of Fig. 3 show how well the temperature-dependent data for each of the samples indicated in the legends collapse onto linear scaling curves for the two best fit values of  $\nu_{+}$  and  $\nu_{-}$ . For convenience, we have normalized the axes of each panel to unity using the highest temperature value of the conductivity of the samples  $R_0 = 21.54 \ k\Omega$  $(R_0 = 23.77 \ k\Omega)$  closest to criticality on the metallic (insulating) side of the transition.

In the insets to the two panels of Fig. 3, we show the

dependence of Chi-square  $(\chi^2)$  on  $\nu_ (\nu_+)$  in the metallic (insulating) regime. The  $\chi^2$  calculation is performed using statistical weights proportional to the inverse of the ordinate values, thereby increasing the sensitivity of  $\chi^2$ to the data sets close to the origin and hence further away from criticality. The minima of  $\chi^2$  are clearly defined for p = 0.390(5) at  $\nu_- = 1.38(11)$  ( $\nu_+ = 0.77(11)$ ) in the metallic (insulating) regime. Accordingly, the conductivity exponent s in 3d has been experimentally determined to have the value  $s = \nu_- = 1.38(11)$ .

It is remarkable that the scaling functions are very well described by straight lines in the regime considered. Thus the conductivity on the metallic side in the temperature regime considered can be represented by an expression reminiscent of Eq. (3) with, however, fixed coefficients  $B, p = 1/z, \ \sigma(T; R_0)/L_0 = BT^{1/z} + D_{\pm}|\epsilon|^{\nu_{\pm}}, \ \text{and dis-}$ order independent coefficients  $D_{\pm}$  determined from the intercepts of the linear fits in Fig. 3. More generally,  $\sigma(T; R_0)$  and its derivatives are continuous functions of  $R_0$  across the transition point at any finite temperature. This means that writing the scaling law Eq. (2)as  $\sigma(T; R_0)/L_0 = T^{1/z} [B + \tilde{G}_{\pm}(|\epsilon|^{-\nu_{\pm}} T^{1/z})]$ , all derivatives of  $\widetilde{G}_{\pm}(y)$  should vanish in the limit  $y \to \infty$ , i.e.  $\widetilde{G}_{\pm}(y)$  must have an essential singularity at  $y \to \infty$ . A possible form consistent with the data would be  $G_{+}(y) =$  $(D_+/y) \exp(-ay)$ , where a is a constant. Given that we conclude that all our data are in the regime  $ay \ll 1$ .

As pointed out in Ref. [6], reasons for the earlier experiments not agreeing with one another have been traced to difficulties in having a system allowing sufficient access into the critical region and possessing a well defined critical point. In contrast, the current work is done on a system where the critical point can be clearly identified, and the critical region is experimentally accessible. Note that the number of data sets (14 total) around  $R_c$  to be kept in the scaling analysis of Fig. 3 were determined by comparing the  $\chi^2$  fits for different number of data points kept. A minimum in  $\chi^2$  was obtained for data points restricted to the range  $15k\Omega - 31k\Omega$ . We can also theoretically estimate the width of the critical region from the boundary frequency,  $\omega_{\xi} = \frac{1}{\tau} (\xi/l)^{-z} \sim \frac{1}{\tau} (|R_0 - R_c|/R_c)^{\tilde{z}}$ , where  $\tilde{z}$  is equal to  $\nu_{-}z \ (\nu_{+}z)$  on the metallic (insulating) side. At  $T \sim 20K$  and using  $1/\tau \sim 10^3 K$ , this gives  $|R_0 - R_c|/R_c \sim 0.4 ~(\sim 0.2)$  on the metallic (insulating) side, corresponding to a critical region in the range 15  $k\Omega - 28 k\Omega$ . This is a sufficiently large experimentally accessible region that allows us to obtain the critical exponents quite reliably.

Our finding of the two distinctly different values for the critical exponents  $\nu_{-}$  and  $\nu_{+}$  in the metallic and insulating phase, respectively, is unexpected [20]. The quality of the data and of the fit to the scaling function shows that the difference of  $\nu_{+}$  and  $\nu_{-}$  can not be explained by uncertainties in the measurement or deviations from the scaling form. Different critical exponents of the correla-



FIG. 3: Collapse of the data for different values of  $R_0$  according to the scaling relation given by Eq. (2) for  $\nu_- = 1.38$  on the metallic side (top panel) and  $\nu_+ = 0.77$  on the insulating side (bottom panel). Here  $T_0 = 5 K$  is a reference temperature. The insets of each panel show the dependence of  $\chi^2$  on  $\nu_-$  and  $\nu_+$  for the values of p = 1/z listed in the legends. The best-fit values occur at p = 0.390(5) with well-defined minima at  $\nu_- = 1.38(11)$  and  $\nu_+ = 0.77(11)$ .

tion length on both sides of the transition may indicate a different structure of critical modes, signaling that the critical dynamics is different on both sides of the transition. In our scaling analysis we assumed one parameter scaling on both sides of the transition, which then leads to different values of the critical exponent  $\nu$ . A conceivable alternative interpretation is that the scaling changes character, say on the localized side, such that  $\sigma \sim \xi^{-r}$ , with  $r \sim 0.77/1.38 \sim 1/2$ , and  $\nu_{-} = \nu_{+}$ . In other words, one could use either the same length scale on both sides of the transition with different exponents, or different scales on the two sides with the same exponent. A change in scaling may be related to charge screening properties that are essentially different in a metal (finite screening length) and in an insulator (infinite screening length). In the ferromagnetic state the screening properties may be modified as well.

To summarize, we have studied the metal-insulator transition in thin ferromagnetic disordered films in an effectively three-dimensional regime experimentally and theoretically. We concentrate on the critical regime, for which the dynamical scaling behavior at the critical point is known to be  $\sigma(\omega) \propto \omega^{1/z}$ . At finite T the relevant frequencies  $\omega$  are given by T. A sample with pure power law dependence  $\sigma(T) \propto T^p$  allows us to determine directly and unambiguously the critical resistance  $R_c = 22.67 \ k\Omega$ as well as the dynamical exponent  $z \equiv 1/p \approx 2.5$ . A full scaling analysis of the data from a reasonably accessible regime around the critical point  $(\pm 30\%)$  allows to determine the critical exponent of the correlation length as  $\nu_{-} = 1.38(11)$  on the metallic side and the localization length exponent  $\nu_{+} = 0.77(11)$  on the insulating side. This requires the scaling function to have an essential singularity at  $R_0 = R_c$  even at finite temperature. The two distinctly different exponents indicate a highly unusual asymmetric quantum phase transition.

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\* Corresponding author: afh@phys.ufl.edu

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