

Electronic Thermal Conductance of Graphene via Electrical Noise

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ABSTRACT

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THIS IS THE DEDICATION.

Acknowledgments

I COULD NOT HAVE DONE IT WITHOUT, the help and support of

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Introduction

outline the basic idea and strict requirements of measuring temperature in 2D systems. Need something non-invasive, layer distinguishing, and electron/phonon distinguishing. Radiation thermometry meets all these requirements. Johnson noise is analogous to this

*In theory, theory and practice are the same thing, but in
practice...*

Adam Savage

1

Johnson noise thermometry

GIVEN ANY PROCESS IN WHICH AN APPLIED FORCE GENERATES HEAT, the reverse process must also exist and, as such, thermal fluctuations will be create fluctuations in that force. The idea that the same physics governing the dissipation of a object moving through some environment is responsible for the apparent random motion of that object was originally described by Einstein in the context

of pollen grains [?]. The generalized fluctuation-dissipation theorem [53] quantifies this statement for linear systems* by relating the power spectral density $S_P(\omega)$ to the real part of the generalized impedance $Z(\omega)$ [15].

$$S_P(\omega) \propto k_B T \Re[Z(\omega)] \quad (1.1)$$

Nearly a quarter of a century later, Nyquist [80] related Einsteins description of Brownian motion to the electrical noise measured by Johnson [? 46]. Although all the key components were in place it would take until 1946 for the first noise thermometer to be built [27]. The general idea is to measure the noise spectrum emitted by a device and thus determine its electronic temperature. Johnson noise thermometry (JNT) is analogous to radiation thermometry where the blackbody spectrum of an object is used to determine its temperature — in fact, both rely upon modified versions of eq 1.1

1.1 THERMAL NOISE IN RESISTORS

Johnson noise, often referred to as Johnson-Nyquist noise, was first measured in 1927 [?]. Johnson found the fluctuations in the squared voltage across a resistor was linearly proportional to both the resistance and the temperature and independent of the conductor being measured. The following year, Nyquist derived the form of this noise from thermodynamic arguments; consider two identical resistors in thermal equilibrium at a temperature T connected such that any noise emitted by one is absorbed by the other, as shown in fig. 1.1. As we are in equilibrium we know the power being

*Here a linear system is one where the force acting on a particle is proportional to its velocity $F/v = constant$

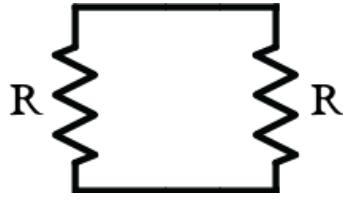


Figure 1.1: Schematic of Nyquist's famous thought experiment. Two resistors in thermal equilibrium are connected end to end and allowed to transfer energy between them via thermal current fluctuations.

absorbed per unit frequency must be $k_B T$. If we represent the Johnson noise of the first resistor as a series voltage source we know the power dissipated in the second resistor per unit frequency must be $I^2 R = V_{JN}^2 / 4R$ as the total resistance of the circuit is $2R$. Setting this equal to $k_B T$ leads us to Nyquist's famous result.

$$S_V = 4Rk_B T \quad (1.2)$$

This derivation holds regardless of the conductor, be it an electrolytic solution or a piece of graphene in a quantum Hall state. However, there is a glaring problem with extending this formula to high frequency; similar to the UV-catastrophe in black-body radiation, Nyquist's formula extends to infinite energies as it lacks a high frequency cutoff. This is fixed by quantum mechanics resulting in a cutoff in the noise spectrum centered at $\hbar\omega = k_B T$.

$$S_V = 4\hbar\omega \Re(Z) \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{\exp(\hbar\omega/k_B T) - 1} \right] \quad (1.3)$$

This high frequency cutoff was seen experimentally by Schoelkopf, et al. [90] and is only of practical import at high frequencies ($> 1 \text{ GHz}$) and low temperatures ($< 1 \text{ K}$).

1.2 RESISTOR NETWORKS: THE JOHNSON NOISE TEMPERATURE

AS NOISE IS A RANDOM PROCESS, adding multiple resistors together into a network is not a simple matter of adding their voltages and/or currents but instead their mean squared voltages $\langle V^2 \rangle$ and/or mean squared current $\langle I^2 \rangle$. This is a property of Gaussian distributed noise: adding together two Gaussian distributions, each with mean 0 and variance σ , with result in another Gaussian distribution with mean 0 and variance $2\sigma^*$.

To find the noise emitted by two resistors in series with resistance R_1 and R_2 and temperature T_1 and T_2 , we add their mean squared voltages.

$$\langle V^2 \rangle = 4k_B(R_1T_1 + R_2T_2)\Delta f \quad (1.4)$$

While in the case of the same two resistors in parallel we must add their mean squared currents.

$$\langle I^2 \rangle = 4k_B \left(\frac{T_1}{R_1} + \frac{T_2}{R_2} \right) \Delta f \quad (1.5)$$

This process can be extended to any network of discrete, two-terminal resistors.

An effective “Johnson noise temperature” for a given resistor network can be defined as the tem-

*This is why mean squared error is often a useful metric. If errors are unbiased and Gaussian distributed then summing their variance is appropriate

perature, T_{JN} , such that the total noise emitted between two given terminals of the network is:

$$\langle V^2 \rangle = 4k_B R \Delta f * T_{JN} \quad (1.6)$$

where R is the two-terminal resistance. For an arbitrary network with many terminals, T_{JN} will differ depending upon which two-terminals the noise is measured between. For resistors in series we can see from eqn. 1.4

$$\langle V^2 \rangle = 4k_B R \left(\frac{R_1}{R} T_1 + \frac{R_2}{R} T_2 \right) \Delta f \quad (1.7)$$

and thus we can define the Johnson noise temperature for this network as:

$$T_{JN}^{series} = \sum_i \frac{R_i}{R} T_i \quad (1.8)$$

Similarly from eqn.1.5 we see that for resistors in parallel

$$\langle V^2 \rangle = \langle I^2 \rangle \times R^2 = 4k_B R \Delta f \left(\frac{R}{R_1} T_1 + \frac{R}{R_2} * T_2 \right) \quad (1.9)$$

$$T_{JN}^{parallel} = \sum_i \frac{R}{R_i} T_i \quad (1.10)$$

These equations are unified by considering the relationship between the power dissipated in a particular resistor \dot{Q}_i from a voltage across the two terminals of the network (or equally a current across the network) compared to the total power dissipated over the entire network \dot{Q}_0 . For the

resistors in series $\dot{Q}_i/\dot{Q}_0 = R_i/R$ and for resistors in parallel $\dot{Q}_i/\dot{Q}_0 = R/R_i$. Thus in both cases:

$$T_{JN} = \sum_i \frac{\dot{Q}_i}{\dot{Q}_0} T_i \quad (\text{I.II})$$

In fact this is quite general and holds for any combination of resistors. It stems from the statement: The voltage created on any given two terminals of a resistor network due to the power fluctuations of a given element are exactly given by the power dissipated in that element due to a voltage on those terminals.

In the continuous limit, eqn. I.II can be used to find the noise emitted by a device with a spatially non-uniform temperature profile $T(\vec{r})$ by solving for the spatial power dissipation profile $\dot{q}(\vec{r})$.

$$T_{JN} = \frac{\int \dot{q}(\vec{r}) * T(\vec{r}) d\vec{r}}{\int \dot{q}(\vec{r}) d\vec{r}} \quad (\text{I.II})$$

where \vec{r} is over the spatial dimensions of the device. Eqn. I.II is the main result of this section.

I.3 JOHNSON NOISE IN RF CIRCUITS

When measuring Johnson noise at high frequency, it can be useful to reformulate the problem into the language of microwave circuits. The Nyquist theorem, eqn. I.2, can be rewritten to describe the average power, $\langle P \rangle$, absorbed by an amplifier coupled to the device with reflection coefficient Γ^2 :

$$\langle P \rangle = k_B T \Delta f (1 - \Gamma^2) \quad (\text{I.III})$$

and

$$\Gamma = \frac{Z - Z_0}{Z + Z_0} \quad (1.14)$$

where Z is the complex impedance of the device and Z_0 is the impedance of the measurement circuit — typically 50Ω . In this form it is quite easy to see the thermodynamic origins of the Nyquist equation; A device at temperature T radiates a power of $k_B T$ per unit frequency, then some of that power is absorbed by the measurement circuit, and some is reflected back to the sample. All the resistance dependence of the noise power is captured by Γ^* . With this new formulation the importance of minimizing Γ become apparent. For effective high frequency Johnson noise thermometry we must match the impedance of the device to the measurement circuit. For devices with two-terminal resistances far from 50Ω , it is beneficial to add impedance matching circuits to transform the device to match Z_0 — in practice resistances less than $\sim 10 \Omega$ or greater than $\sim 250 \Omega$ benefit from matching circuits. As can be seen from eqn. 1.13, the larger the measurement bandwidth Δf the larger noise signal. In practice, measurement bandwidths are often limited by either the impedance matching circuitry or the amplifier bandwidth; operating at higher frequencies increases typically increases both these limiting bandwidths.

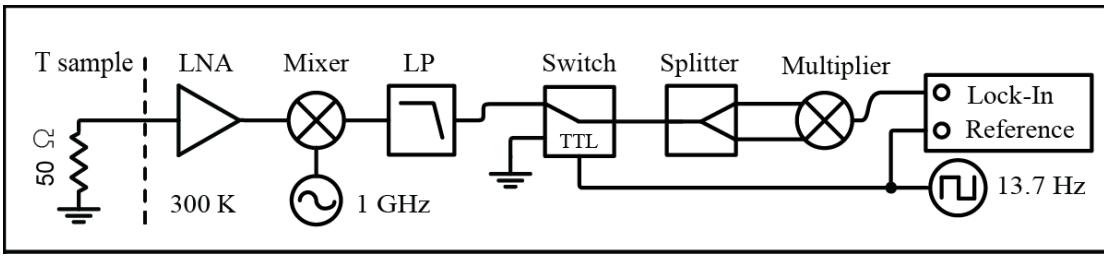


Figure 1.2: High level schematic of a typical Johnson noise thermometry measurement circuit. Noise from an impedance matched sample is amplified and a measurement bandwidth is selected using a homodyne mixer and low-pass filter. The noise power is then measured with a power diode or linear multiplier. A microwave switch acts as a chopper and the signal is measured using a lock-in amplifier.

1.4 AN AUTOCORRELATION RF NOISE THERMOMETER

Fig. ?? shows an example of a typical, Dicke style, radiometer used to measure the temperature of a $50\ \Omega$ sample. Radiation from the resistor is coupled into a transmission line terminated in a low noise amplifier (LNA). A typical noise spectrum directly from the output of the LNA is shown in fig. 1.3. The signal-to-noise ratio of a noise measurement is mostly determined by the front-end LNA [83] so care should be taken in selecting the right amplifier. The SiGe LNA (Caltech CITLF₃) used throughout the majority of this thesis has a room temperature noise figure, in the frequency range of 0.01 to 2 GHz, of about 0.64 dB, corresponding to an intrinsic noise temperature of 46 K.

Even though Johnson noise has a flat “white” spectrum, it is important to filter out unwanted $1/f$ low frequency fluctuations ($\lesssim 10\ kHz$) as well as high frequency noise produced where the amplifier gain begins to roll off. This can be done using high- and low- pass filters (producing a spectrum similar shown in fig. 1.4, or with a homodyne mixer and low-pass filter combo (as shown

*this is also a nice proof for why Γ in any 2 port device must be symmetric, $\Gamma_{12} = \Gamma_{21}$. If this was not true, we could place the device between two resistors in thermal equilibrium and one would heat the other. Two-port devices which report asymmetric coefficients often include internal terminated third ports.

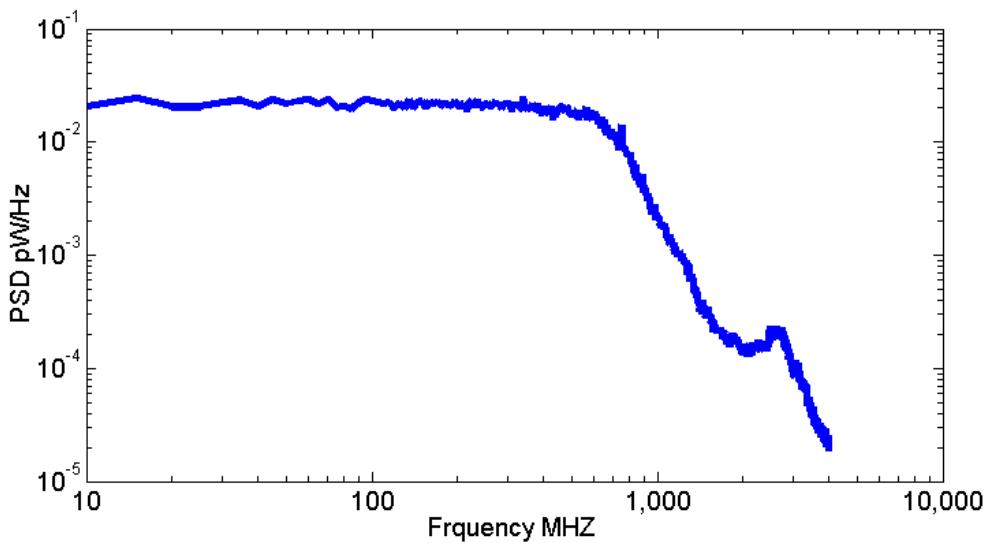


Figure 1.3: a typical spectrum directly from the output of a low noise amplifier (Miteq AU-1291 ~ 65 dB gain ~ 100 K noise temperature) with the input terminated with a 50Ω resistor. The spectrum is flat until the amplifier gain begins to roll off above 500 MHz. The amplitude of the “white” spectrum is proportional to the resistor temperature added to the amplifier noise temperature.

in fig. ??.

Once amplified and cleaned, the total noise power can be measured in a few ways: a spectrum analyzer or digital Fourier transform can read the spectrum directly, a linear multiplier can square the signal and the mean voltage can be measured, or a high frequency power diode and low pass filter combo can convert the power to a DC voltage. Each technique has its own advantages/disadvantages and in a typical experiment multiple techniques are used. When presented with a new device or noise setup a spectrum analyzer is often the first measurement to be done; it provides the most in-depth look into the noise of the system and readily shows problem areas such as narrowband noise, parasitic resonances, and/or amplifier performance. After initial setup, however, spectral detail becomes less important and measurements speeds can be significantly enhanced by moving to an all

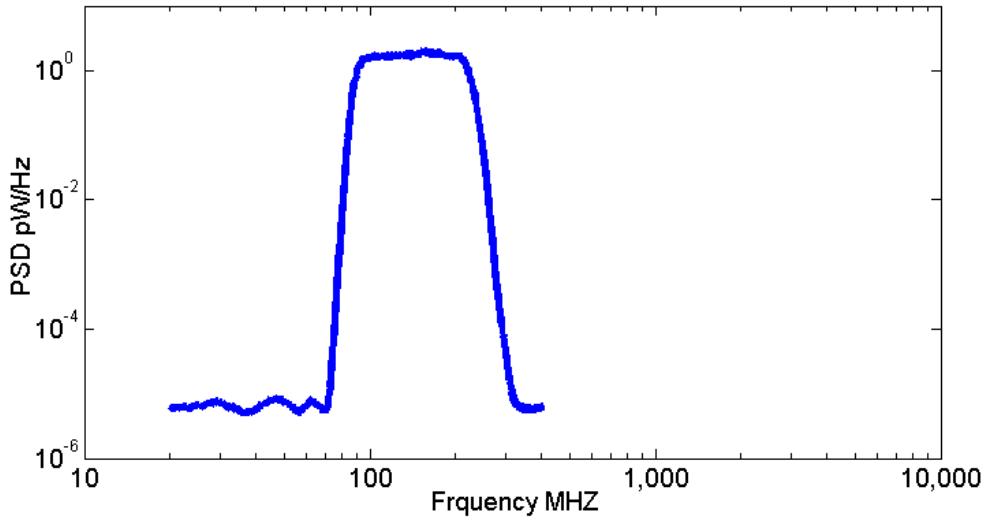


Figure 1.4: a typical Johnson noise spectrum after amplification and filtering using SMA high- and low-pass filters (mini-circuits SLP and SHP series). This square band can then integrated to find the total noise power and thus the temperature of the resistor.

analog setup.

A linear multiplier (as shown in the schematic fig. 1.2) can be combined with an RF power splitter and a DC voltmeter to directly measure $\langle V^2 \rangle$. Operating from DC to 2 GHz, the multiplier, Analog Devices ADL5931, serves as a square law detector with 30 dB dynamic range. A JNT using a multiplier is fast and has the added capability of measuring the autocorrelation function, $\langle V(t)V(t - \tau) \rangle$, by simply adding a delay, τ , to one arm of the splitter. While more complicated to setup, once operational a multiplier is a good combination of speed and versatility.

The simplest of the three power detectors discussed here is an RF power diode/low-pass filter combo (e.g. Pasternach PE8000-50). These detectors input an RF signal and output a DC voltage as shown in fig. 1.5. The output capacitance of these detectors can be quite large so if a thermal mod-

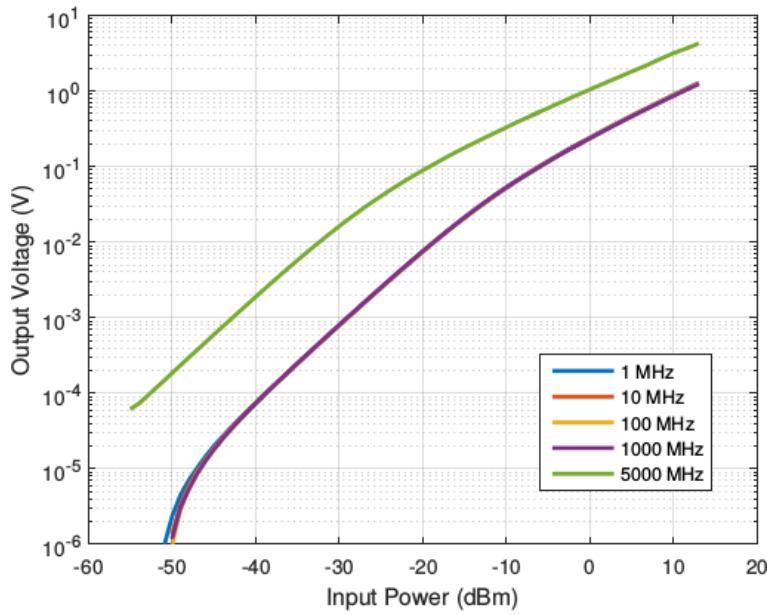


Figure 1.5: Calibration curves for the Pasternach PE8000-50 power detector. A monochromatic signal of known power is supplied using a microwave source (Stanford Research Systems) and the output is measured using a Voltmeter (Keithley 2400). The detector has a flat frequency response up to 1 GHz and shows linear behavior from -45 dBm to -25 dBm (30 dB dynamic range)

ulation faster than a few 100 Hz is required care must be taken in choosing an appropriate model.

Nevertheless, this is the detector used most commonly in the second half of this thesis due to its wide dynamic range (30 dB), small sample package, and ease of use.

Once the noise power is converted to a dc voltage it can be read by a common Voltmeter. To increase the sensitivity it is useful to modulate the noise power. When measuring mesoscopic samples this can be done by modulating the electron temperature via Joule heating. However, in the case of a macroscopic resistor, a microwave switch is places after amplification and acts as a chopper. The resulting signal can then be measured using a lock-in amplifier.

We can test the noise circuit shown in fig. 1.2 by attaching the sample resistor to a coldfinger and

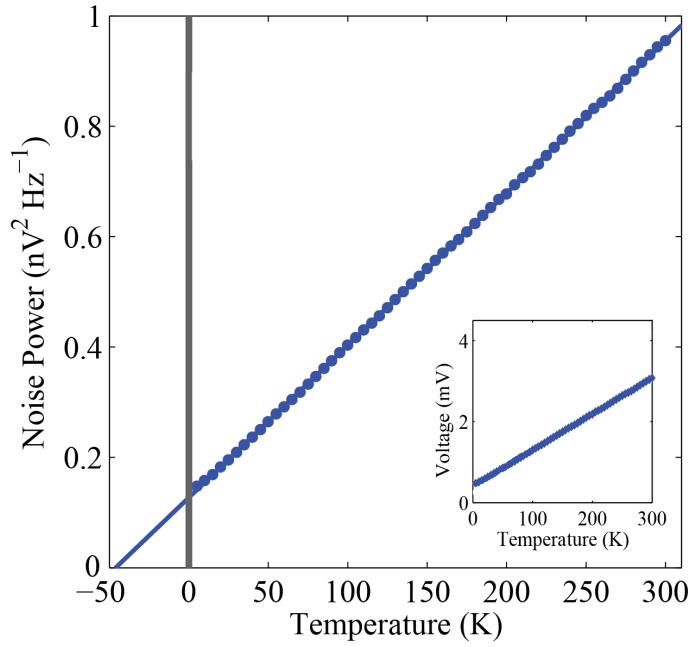


Figure 1.6: Johnson noise of a $50\ \Omega$ resistor measured by the circuit shown in fig. 1.2. Inset show the lock-in amplifier output. The signal is converted to noise power by the Nyquist equation. The solid line is a linear fit with an offset of 68 K due to amplifier noise

varying the temperature from 3 K to 300 K. The results are shown in fig. 1.26. As the sample temperature is lowered, the noise reduces linearly as expected from eqn. 1.13. However, if we extrapolate the data to zero temperature, we see residual noise; this offset is due to all the other (temperature independent) noise sources in the system — primarily the front-end amplifier. It is useful to quantify this offset in units of Kelvin and is called the “effective noise temperature”. Here we find an effective noise temperature of 68 K using a room temperature amplifier. More details on this circuit can be found in ref. [20]

1.5 UNCERTAINTY IN NOISE MEASUREMENTS

EVEN NOISE HAS NOISE. There are 2 main areas of uncertainty in a noise measurements: The first comes from the fact that noise is stochastic and deals with how well you know the variance of a Gaussian after measuring some amount of time. If the measurements you take are discrete and uncorrelated then we get the usual $1/\sqrt{n}$, but what to do if we are measuring a continuous signal? It turns out this is an old problem which stems back to the 1940 and measurements of noise on telephone lines [?]. In 1944 Rice showed the effective number of uncorrelated measurements is given by the product of the measurement time τ and the effective noise bandwidth* Δf . This surprising fact that the wider the measurement bandwidth the lower the uncertainty is counter to many experiments where high Q filters are desired to lower the background noise; nevertheless, it can be seen experimentally, as shown in fig. [?]

The second source of uncertainty comes from external noise sources such as amplifiers and boils down to the question: of the noise you measure, what amount comes from the sample? Quantitatively, this can be thought of as a constant offset to the sample temperature and is called the system noise temperature T_n [†]. In an autocorrelated noise measurement, T_n can be estimated as the offset of a linear fit to the noise power vs sample temperature, as shown in fig. 1.26. This offset is primarily

*The effective noise bandwidth is defined as the width of a perfect square band that passes the same noise power as the true filter function.

[†]It should be noted that the system noise temperature can be quite different from an amplifiers intrinsic noise temperature which often assumes a perfectly matched input impedance. See the section “effective noise temperature” for more details

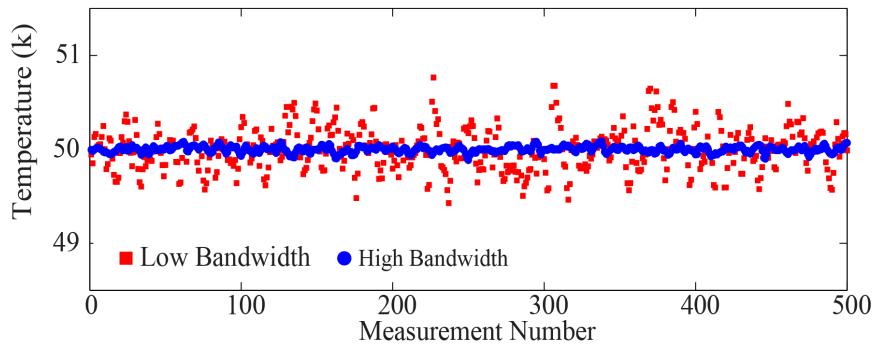


Figure 1.7: 500 repeated Johnson noise measurements of a 50Ω resistor at 50 K using two different measurement bandwidths. The high bandwidth data has smaller statistical fluctuations than the low bandwidth data.

due to noise in the front-end amplifier but also depends on the sample impedance matching and the bandwidth being measured.

Combining these two sources of error we arrive at the famous Dicke radiometer formula [27]:

$$\delta T = \frac{T + T_n}{\sqrt{\tau \Delta f}} \quad (1.15)$$

We can directly compare eqn. 1.15 to experiments by repeating a measurement many times and studying how it fluctuates about the mean. Fig. 1.8 compares two histograms, both containing 20,000 autocorrelation measurements at 50 K with 50 ms integration time but using two different bandwidths: 28 and 328 MHz. A sensitivity of 5.5 mK (110 ppm) in 1 second of integration time was achieved using 328 MHz bandwidth on a 50 K signal

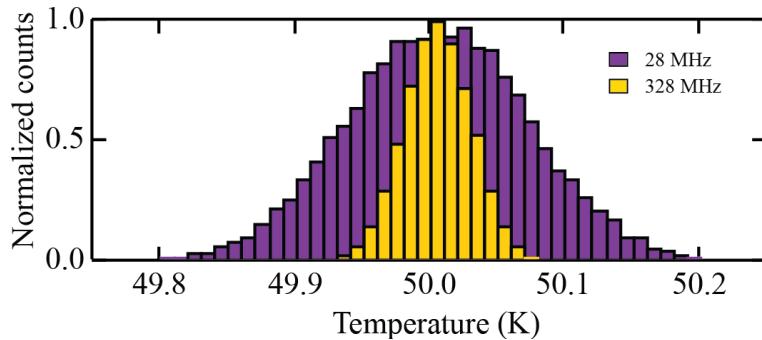


Figure 1.8: Histograms of 20,000 auto-correlation temperature measurements for 28 and 328 MHz bandwidth using 50 ms integration time. Histogram peaks are normalized to 1 for clarity. All data is taken on a 50 K resistive load.

1.6 IMPEDANCE MATCHING

LIFE DOES NOT ALWAYS GIVE YOU 50Ω SAMPLES. Eqn. 1.13 illustrates the importance of minimizing the impedance mismatch between the sample and the measurement circuitry – typically 50Ω . The central principle is to use non-dissipative components to transform the total impedance to $Z(\omega) = 50 + 0i \Omega$ at some frequency $\omega = 2\pi \times f$. Impedance matching mesoscopic devices has a unique set of challenges: electrostatic gates and high magnetic fields can cause device impedances to change by multiple orders of magnitude, cryogenic temperatures require the use of only thermally stable components, and large magnetic fields restrict the use of ferrite inductors.

1.6.1 LC TANK CIRCUITS

A common way to achieve matching is to use a simple LC circuit. These transformation circuits, known as a tank circuits, can be arranged in several ways but the configuration most useful to these

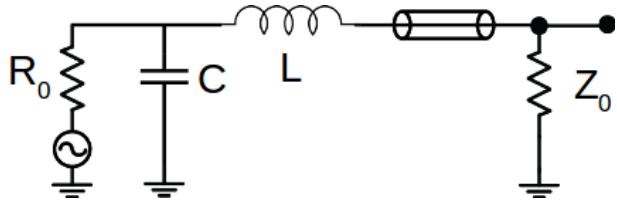


Figure 1.9: Schematic of an LC tank circuit setup in a low-pass configuration used to transform a sample resistance R_0 to match the characteristic impedance of a measurement circuit Z_0 .

experiments is that of a low-pass filter — i.e a shunt capacitor followed by a series inductor as shown in fig. [?]. The impedance of such a circuit is given by:

$$Z(\omega) = (R_0^{-1} + i\omega C)^{-1} + i\omega L \quad (1.16)$$

where L and C are the series inductance and shunt capacitance values, respectively. Proper matching requires solving eqn. 1.16 under the condition:

$$Z(\omega_0) = 50 + 0i \Omega \quad (1.17)$$

where ω_0 is the center of the measurement band. Fig. 1.10 shows a plot of the real and imaginary components of eqn. 1.16 with $R_0 = 1 k\Omega$. For the right choice of C and L , the imaginary part of the complex impedance crosses 0 when the real part is 50Ω . Combining eqn. 1.16 and eqn. 1.17 for a given R_0 , ω_0 and Z_0 give us the needed inductance and capacitance values.

$$L = \sqrt{\frac{R_0 Z_0}{\omega_0^2}} \quad C = \frac{1}{\sqrt{R_0 Z_0 \omega_0^2}} \quad (1.18)$$

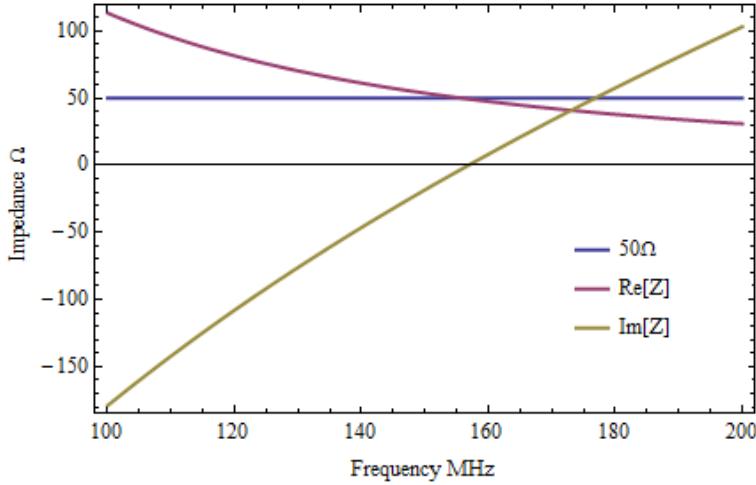


Figure 1.10: The real and imaginary impedance of an LC tank circuit (eqn. 1.16) with $R_0 = 1 \text{ k}\Omega$, $C = 4.5 \text{ pF}$, and $L = 220 \text{ nH}$. The imaginary component cross zero as the real component is 50Ω .

While in theory adding a precise induction and capacitance onto a device is straight forward, in practice real devices can have a not insignificant amount of stray capacitance*. To account for this we can use a variable capacitor and tune the matching circuit to each device. One simple, temperature independent, magnetic field compatible capacitor that can be easily tuned is a set of twisted pair wires. Fig. 1.11 and fig. ?? show an example of a matching circuit using a twisted pair capacitor before and after tuning, respectively.

A vector network analyzer (VNA) is used to measure the sample reflectance $\Gamma = S_{11}^2$ to ensure the sample is properly matched. Fig. 1.12 shows how the reflectance changes for a $1 \text{ k}\Omega$ sample impedance and 220 nH series inductance as the capacitance is tuned. When properly tuned we measure a large dip in S_{11} signifying the sample is well coupled to the 50Ω VNA.

*stray inductance is also possible (particularly if long wire bonds are necessary) but are usually negligible for the resistance and frequency ranges in this thesis

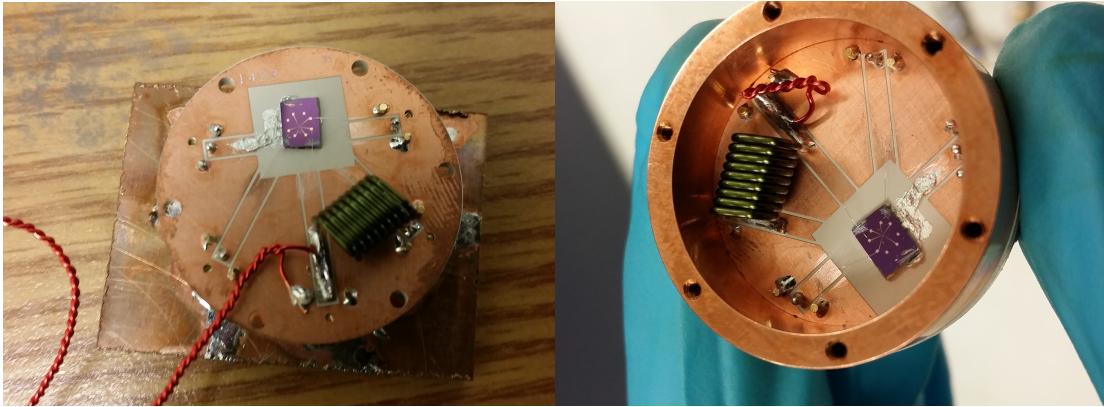


Figure 1.11: Images of an impedance matching circuit before (left) and after (right) capacitance tuning. A long piece of twisted pair wire shunts the sample and an inductor (Coilcraft RF Air Core) is placed in series. To tune the capacitance, the twisted pair wire is cut shorter and shorter while the reflectance is monitored.

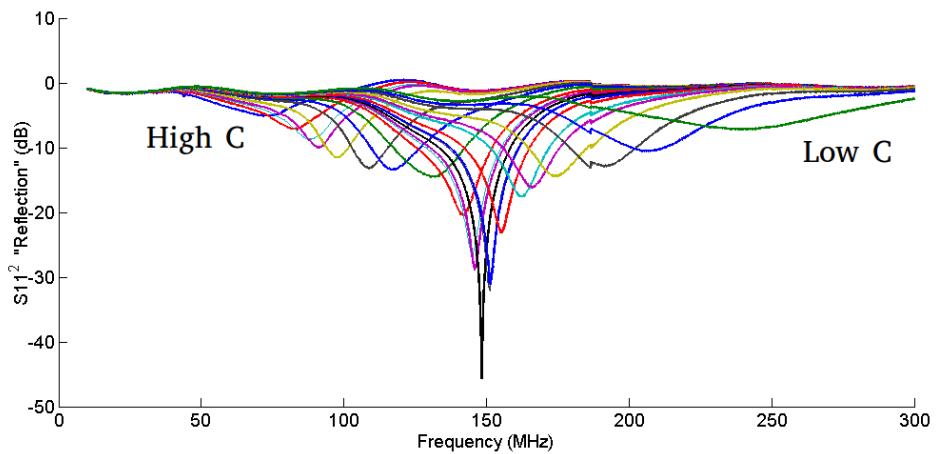


Figure 1.12: Reflectance curves while tuning a matching circuit for $R_0 = 1 \text{ k}\Omega$ and $L = 200 \text{ nH}$. The rightmost curve (green) corresponds to the lowest capacitance and the leftmost curve (blue) corresponds to the highest. Each curve is the result of cutting off a section of twisted pair wire.

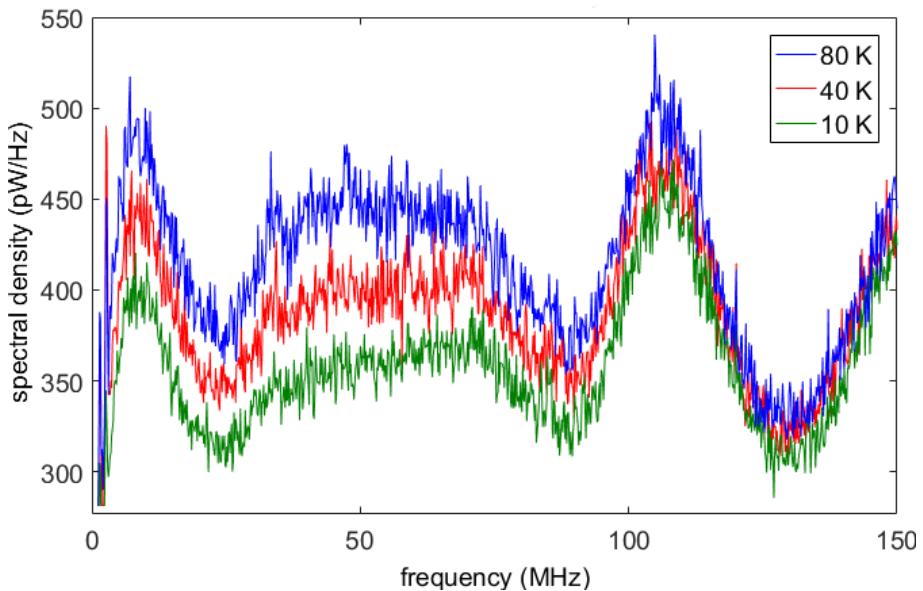


Figure 1.13: Amplified noise spectrum from a device, impedance matched using an LC tank circuit, at various temperatures. The background noise is no longer flat as the amplifier is not properly terminated at all frequencies. As the device temperature is raised, the spectral density increases non-uniformly as different frequencies couple differently to the circuitry as determined by eqn. 1.13

After matching, the noise spectral density emitted into the measurement circuitry is no longer flat but instead shaped by Γ in accordance to eqn. 1.13. This point becomes clear when looking at the noise spectra emitted by an impedance matched sample at various temperatures — as shown in Fig. 1.13; two features out prominently: first, the background noise is no longer flat but has structure and, second, the increase in noise as the sample temperature is raised is not the same at all frequencies. The result is that we are no longer free to select just any measurement bandwidth but must carefully choose filters suited to the reflection profile.

In most mesoscopic measurements, the resistance of the device under test varies throughout the experiment; whether electrostatic gates modulate the carrier density, strong magnetic fields drive the system toward quantum hall, or cryogenic temperatures modify the conductivity, matching net-

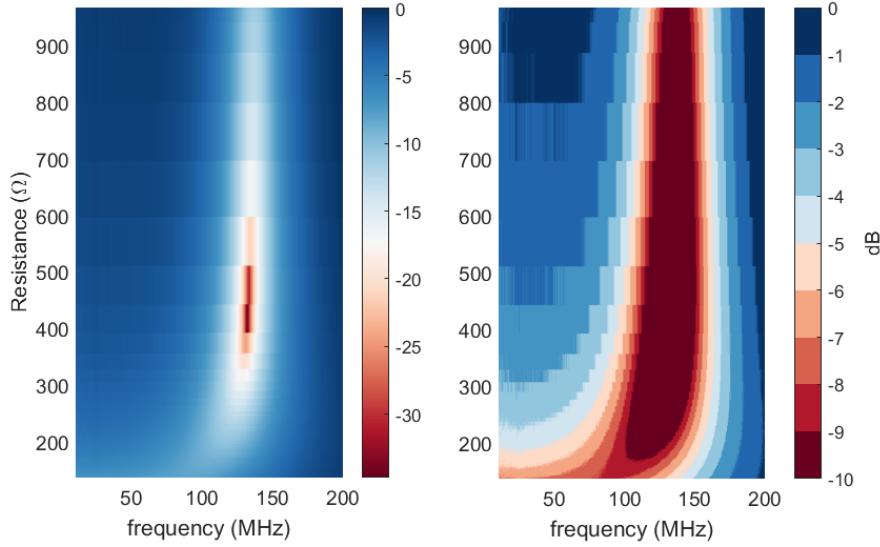


Figure 1.14: Reflection coefficient $|S_{11}|^2$ for a single stage LC matching network as a function of device resistance. The left plot shows the full data set with a maximum coupling efficiency of more than 30 dB. The right plot shows the same data with the color scale adjusted to highlight 1 dB changes up to a maximum of 10 dB (corresponding to 90% coupling efficiency). All data taken from a graphene device at low temperature using an electrostatic gate.

works should operate over a wide dynamic range of input impedances. The response of a single stage LC matching network coupled to a variable resistance device* is shown in fig. 1.14. The device is optimally matched around 450Ω but maintains more than 10 dB coupling between 200Ω and $1 k\Omega$. As the resistance drops, we see the appearance of the trivial solution to eqn. 1.16 of $R_0 = 50 \Omega$ and $\omega = 0$.

1.6.2 MULTI-STAGE MATCHING

Some experiments, such as the magneto-thermal transport studies discussed in chapter 7, require devices to vary in resistance over multiple orders of magnitude. Single stage LC networks are insuf-

*in this case an graphene device with an electrostatic gate

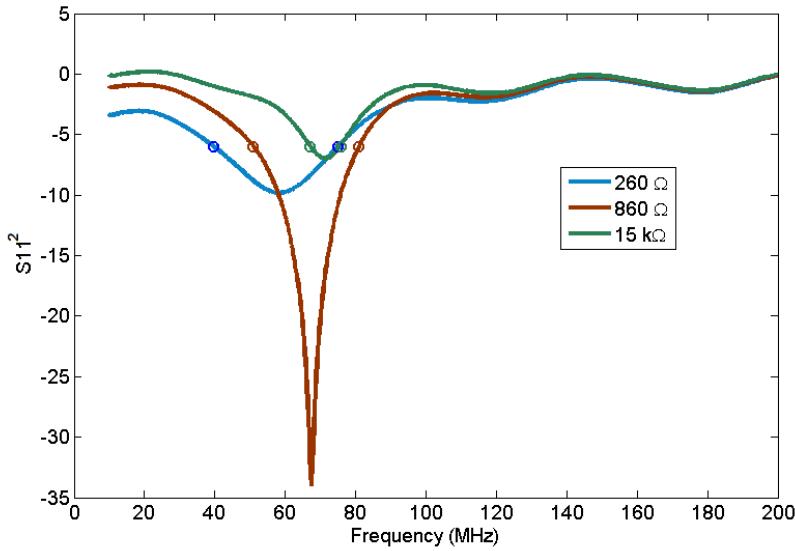


Figure 1.15: Reflection measurements of a single stage LC tank circuit coupled to a graphene device at different resistances. At high resistances the coupling drops off and reflection is high.

ficient to cover this wide range. Fig. [?] shows the loss of coupling in a single stage LC tank circuit at high device resistances. In this situation, multiple LC stages can be used to increase the dynamic range.

Multi-stage LC networks allow you to match a wider area of the resistance-frequency space by giving you multiple solutions to the equation $Z(\omega) = Z_0^*$. An example schematic of a two-stage LC tank circuit is shown in fig. 1.16. The resulting impedance takes the form:

$$Z(\omega) = \left\{ \left[(R_0^{-1} + i\omega C_1)^{-1} + i\omega L_1 \right]^{-1} + i\omega C_2 \right\}^{-1} + i\omega L_2 \quad (1.19)$$

*This is a well known solution to a similar problem in audio recording. Multi-stage impedance transforms are used to capture the full audio range [?].

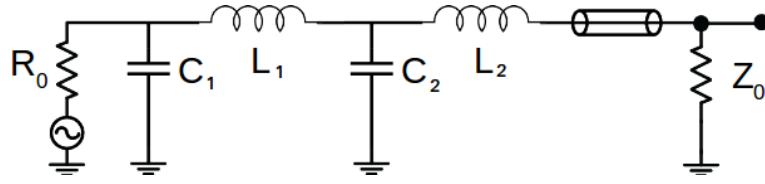


Figure 1.16: Schematic of a double-stage LC matching network. The device resistance R_0 is transformed to match the characteristic impedance of the measurement circuit Z_0 using two LC tank circuits. This results in a wider matching bandwidth and/or larger dynamic range depending on the values of the reactive elements.

Eqn. 1.19, under the constraint defined by eqn. 1.17, can have multiple solutions for the same set

of inputs. This makes it possible to increase the matching bandwidth for the same dynamic range.

Fig. 1.17 plots the real and imaginary components of eqn. 1.19 for a specific choice of inductances and capacitances designed to cross $50 + 0i \Omega$ at two nearby frequencies for the same device resistance.

It can be shown for a fixed resistance that the maximum bandwidth occurs when the impedance is dropped by geometric factor [83] — i.e each stage transforms the impedance by the same factor. For an N stage network of the form shown in fig. 1.16, the i th inductance and capacitance are given by a generalized form of eqn. 1.18.

$$L_i = \frac{\left(R_0^{2N-2i+1} Z_0^{2i-1}\right)^{1/2N}}{\omega_0} \quad C_i = \frac{\left(R_0^{2N-2i+1} Z_0^{2i-1}\right)^{-1/2N}}{\omega_0} \quad (1.20)$$

Applying eqn. 1.20 to a two-stage LC network with a graphene device we can increase the matched bandwidth to $\sim 150 MHz$, as shown in fig. 1.18.

However, if instead we want to match to larger range of resistances, we can move one of these zeros to a higher resistance. This increases the dynamic range of the matching circuit at the expense of bandwidth. For example, by lowering the first capacitance of the network shown in fig. 1.18, we

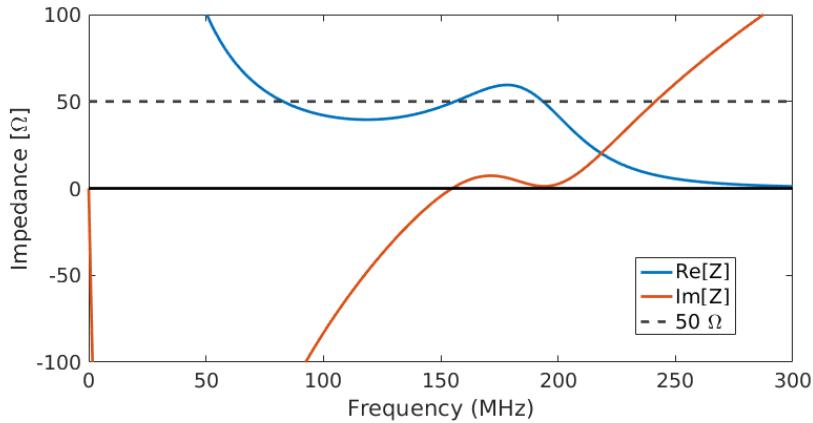


Figure 1.17: Real and imaginary components of eqn. 1.19 for $R = 1000\Omega$, $C_1 = 1.9\text{ pF}$, $L_1 = 430\text{ nH}$, $C_2 = 8.6\text{ pF}$, and $L_1 = 96\text{ nH}$. The impedance goes to $50 + 0i\Omega$ at two nearby frequencies.

move the high frequency solution from $\sim 1\text{ k}\Omega$ to $\sim 4\text{ k}\Omega$, increasing the dynamic range to include quantum hall resistances, as shown in fig. 1.19.

The more stages added the wider the matched area in resistance-frequency space but also the more sensitive to stray capacitance the circuit becomes. In practice, devices with a 300 nm SiO_2 back-gate dielectric often have $3 - 6\text{ pF}$ stray capacitance; this can be reduced to less than 1 pF with the use of insulating substrates and local top-gates, or by increasing the back-gate dielectric to $1\text{ }\mu\text{m}$. Reducing the stray reactance also addressed the another challenge that comes with multiple matching stages — it is no longer trivial to tune the circuit using gimmick*. For these more complicated networks, surface mount ceramic capacitors can be soldered direct to the sample package, as shown in fig. 1.20, and adjustments can be made by careful removal and replacement†

*the twisted pair wire is one form of a gimmick meant to fine tune the circuit capacitance

†making sure not to only the locally to avoid damaging the sample.

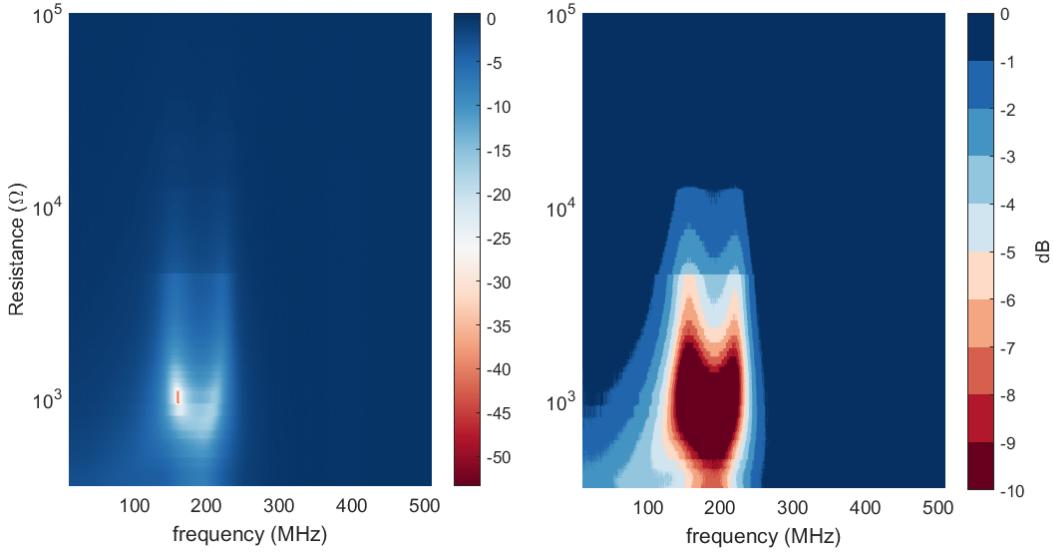


Figure 1.18: Reflection coefficient $|S_{11}|^2$ for a double stage LC matching network as a function of device resistance for reactive components following eqn. 1.20. The left plot shows the full data. The right plot shows the same data with the color scale adjusted to highlight 1 dB changes up to a maximum of 10 dB. The attached graphene device is optimally coupled at $\sim 1 \text{ k}\Omega$ and has an effective noise bandwidth of $\sim 150 \text{ MHz}$.

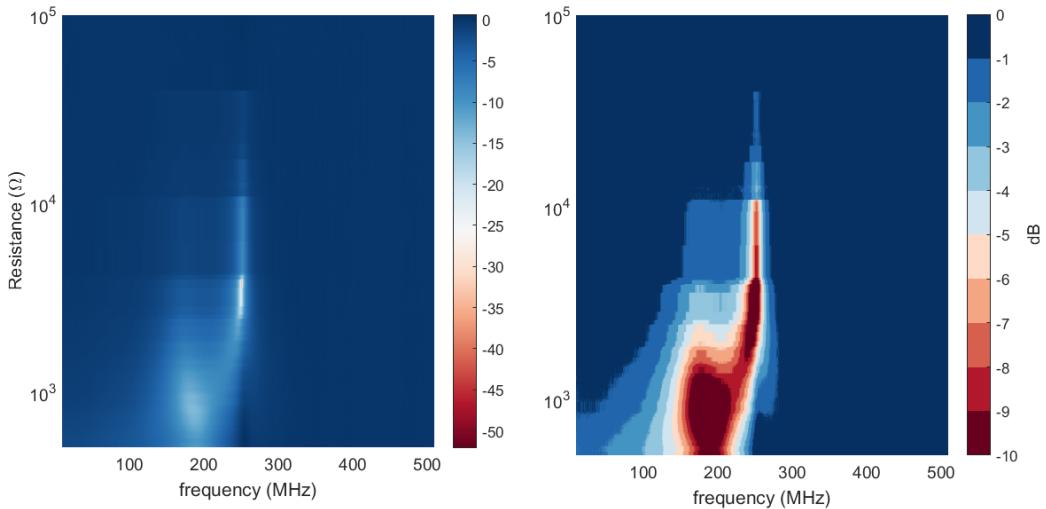


Figure 1.19: Reflection coefficient $|S_{11}|^2$ for the same double stage LC matching network shown in fig. 1.18 as a function of device resistance with the first stage capacitance lowered. This moves the high frequency zero to a higher resistance; effectively increasing the dynamic range at the cost of bandwidth. This technique enables the continuous measurement of graphene devices from zero field into the quantum Hall regime

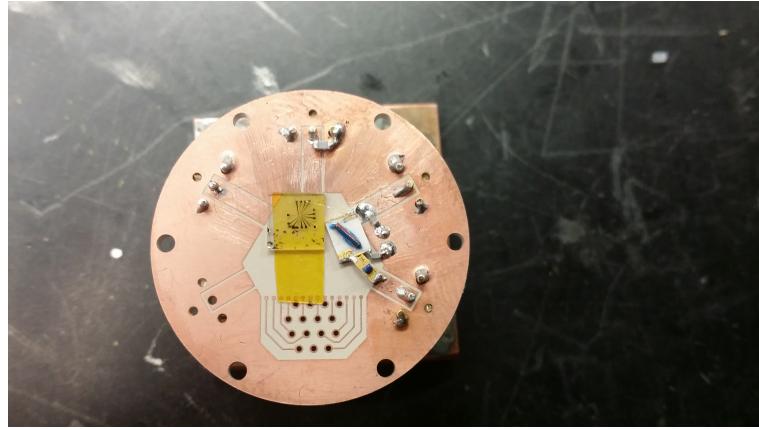


Figure 1.20: Image of a two-stage LC matching network soldered directly to a custom cryogenic sample package and wire-bonded to a graphene device. Inductive elements have gold leads allowing direct wire-bonding. The sample is placed on an insulating sapphire substrate with a local top-gate to reduce the stray capacitance.

1.7 EFFECTIVE NOISE TEMPERATURE

A FACTOR OF TWO IN SIGNAL TO NOISE CAN BE THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN GRADUATING IN TWO YEARS OR EIGHT. From the dicke radiometer formula, Eqn. 1.15, the measurement time scales as the effective noise temperature squared. Each component of the measurement circuit should be chosen with this in mind and, as such, its important to understand how each element affects the system as a whole.

The effective noise temperature, T_n , is the temperature at which your sample emits the same noise power as the sum of all the “unwanted” noise in your system — i.e. your signal to noise ratio is given by T/T_n , where T is the sample temperature. Quantifying noise in this way lets us write the

output voltage of our circuit, V_{out} , (which is proportional to the integrated noise power) as:

$$V_{out} = \mathcal{G}(\Gamma)(T + T_n(\Gamma)) \quad (1.21)$$

where Γ is reflection coefficient between the sample and the amplifier and \mathcal{G} is the generalized gain factor set by the LNA amplification together with the insertion loss of the microwave components integrated over the bandwidth defined by the external filters. In general, both \mathcal{G} and T_n are functions of Γ . All defining characteristics of a given measurement circuit can be swept into T_n and \mathcal{G} . In principle these factors must be measured but reasonable estimates can aid in the circuit design.

It is useful to distinguish the difference between the system's intrinsic noise temperature T_n^0 and the system's effective noise temperature T_n . T_n^0 corresponds to the noise emitted by the circuit relative to the Johnson noise of a perfectly matched resistor, while T_n is relative to the sample being measured — i.e. T_n^0 can be reported on a device's specification sheet while T_n is a function of the sample under test and can therefore change with experimental parameters such as electrostatic gate voltage and external field. In general T_n is always equal to or higher than T_n^0 .

While T_n^0 is primarily determined by the front-end amplifier, every component, i , with a finite intrinsic noise T_i^n contributes an amount inversely proportional to the gain before that component, G_i . For example, if a circuit has three amplification stages with gains G_1 , G_2 , and G_3 and intrinsic

noise temperatures T_1^n , T_2^n , and T_3^n , respectively, the total system intrinsic noise value is given by:

$$T_n^0 = T_1^n + \frac{T_2^n}{G_1} + \frac{T_3^n}{G_1 G_2} \quad (1.22)$$

or in general

$$T_n^0 = \sum_i \frac{T_i^n}{\prod_{j < i} G_j} \quad (1.23)$$

hence, if the front-end amplifier has a gain of 30 dB, the noise from second amplifier is effectively reduced by a factor of 1,000.

Estimating T_n from T_n^0 requires knowing the matching function characterized by Γ . If Γ is frequency independent then $T_n \approx T_n^0 / (1 - \Gamma)$. For arbitrary $\Gamma(\omega)$ you can integrate over the bandwidth defined by external filters Δf ^{*}.

$$T_n \approx \frac{1}{\Delta f} \int_{\Delta f} \frac{T_n^0}{1 - \Gamma(\omega)} d\omega \quad (1.24)$$

The above formulation is approximate as it assumes the system's intrinsic noise can be described entirely by a single parameter T_n^0 — a good assumption if the sample is properly matched. In general, active components require two parameters fully capture the noise behavior. A common technique is to model the circuit with an effective series voltage noise and parallel current noise, as shown in fig. 1.21. However, an equivalent description, which is often more useful in microwave ex-

*Eqn. 1.24 approximates the external filter function as a perfect square filter of bandwidth Δf . For the full calculation you must include the full filter function.

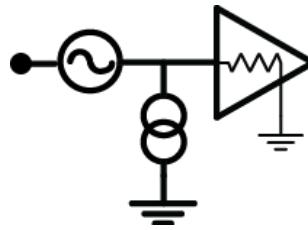


Figure 1.21: schematic of a common noise model for active elements. A random voltage source is added in series with the signal and a random current source is added in parallel.

periments, is that of a forward traveling noise power, $T_{n,for}^0$, a reverse traveling noise power $T_{n,rev}^0$, and some correlation between them [?]. In the case of perfect matching, $\Gamma \rightarrow 0$, $T_{n,rev}^0$ is completely absorbed. However for finite Γ we can write the amplified noise as:

$$\langle P \rangle = G \left(T(1 - \Gamma) + T_{n,rev}^0 \Gamma + T_{n,for}^0 \right) \quad (1.25)$$

Rewriting this in the form of eqn. 1.21 and solving for T_n and \mathcal{G} yields.

$$T_n(\Gamma) = \frac{\Gamma}{1 - \Gamma} T_{n,rev}^0 + \frac{1}{1 - \Gamma} T_{n,for}^0 \quad (1.26)$$

and

$$\mathcal{G}(\Gamma) = \frac{G}{1 - \Gamma} \quad (1.27)$$

While eqn. 1.26 is what determines uncertainty, and therefore the speed of the measurement, an interesting side effect of eqn. 1.25 is that when the sample temperature is equal to $T_{n,rev}^0$, the total output noise has no dependence on Γ ; no matter what resistance is being measured, the output noise power is the same! Fig. 1.22 show the total noise power, eqn. 1.25, as a function of sample re-

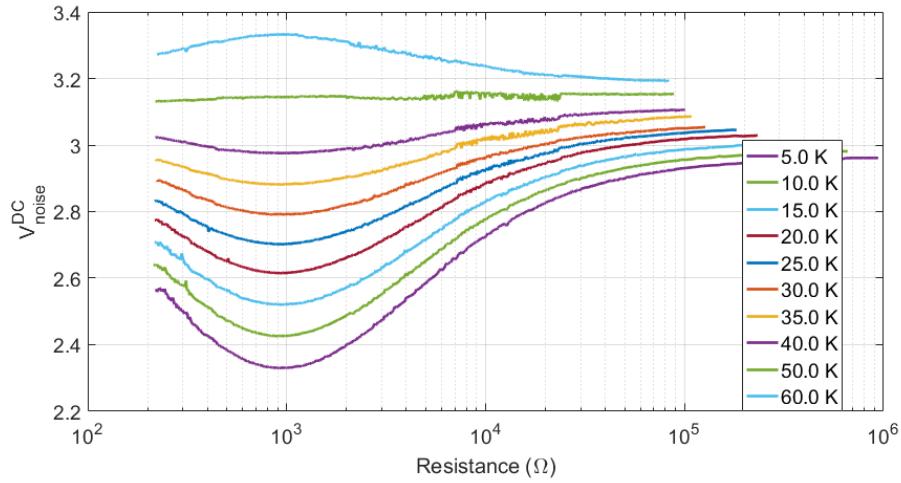


Figure 1.22: Voltage proportional to the total integrated noise power as a function of input sample resistance for different sample temperatures. The matching circuit is optimally matched (Γ is minimized) at $\sim 10^3 \Omega$. At low temperature, the total noise decreases as Γ decreases, while at high temperature, the opposite is true. At $T \approx 50 K$ the noise power is constant regardless of the input impedance in accordance with eqn.1.25 and $T_{n,rev}^0 \approx 50 K$.

sistance at several temperatures. The sample is optimally matched at $\sim 10^3 \Omega$. In accordance with eqn.1.25, at low sample temperature the noise decreases as Γ decreases while at high temperature the noise increases as the sample approaches optimal matching. The spacing between curves is proportional to the generalized gain, $\mathcal{G}(\Gamma)$, which is maximized when Γ is minimized.

1.8 CALIBRATION

CIRCUIT LOSSES AND COUPLINGS ARE DIFFICULT TO CALCULATE A PRIORI, and while T_n can be modulated away in a differential measurement, the generalize gain $\mathcal{G}(\Gamma)$ must be calibrated. If the

output voltage is written in the form of eqn. 1.21 then \mathcal{G} is given by:

$$\mathcal{G}(\Gamma) = \left. \frac{dV_{out}}{dT} \right|_{\Gamma} \quad (1.28)$$

The challenge is fixing Γ . If the device under test has a fixed resistance then calibration can be done by recording V_{out} for a few select bath temperatures. \mathcal{G} is then given by the slope of a linear fit to $V_{out}(T)$. The inset of fig. 1.26 shows $V_{out}(T)$ which was used to calibrate \mathcal{G} yielding the main panel. However, most mesoscopic devices do not have a fixed resistance and thus more care must be taken in calibrating $\mathcal{G}(\Gamma)$.

The exact method of calibration will depend on the device characteristics and the size of the parameter space being measured. If impedance of the device is sensitive to external parameters but only has a weak dependence on temperature — i.e. $|dV_{out}/dT|$ is small and $V_{out}(T)$ is locally linear on a reasonable experimental scale — then calibration can be done by taking local derivatives of $V_{out}(T)$ everywhere in the parameter space. While this method is straight forward to implement, it has several glaring drawbacks. Firstly, the time required to find local derivatives for the entire parameter space scales exponentially in the number of parameters. Secondly, it requires knowing the exact parameters that will be measured ahead of time; if during the course of an experiment the parameter space must be expanded or higher resolution is required, calibration must be done again.

A more robust method is to simultaneously measure both V_{out} and Γ and then numerically solve for dV_{out}/dT for fixed Γ . What's more, if the right reactive elements are used for impedance matching, Γ become a function of only the resistance and fixing Γ is equivalent to fixing R . Fig. 1.22

shows V_{out} as a function of device resistance for various temperatures. It is important to note that each temperature curve is a collection of many different parameter sweeps that all collapse onto one smooth curve — i.e. it does not matter if the sample is $13\text{ }k\Omega$ due to electrostatic gating at zero magnetic field, or due to the quantum Hall effect, the emitted noise is the same. If we attempt to fix external parameters and raise the temperature the output voltage nonlinear, but if instead we fix two-terminal resistance we arrive at fig. 1.23. Linear fits to each line then give \mathcal{G} as the slope and T_n as the offset*. For the data shown in fig. 1.23, the gain and noise temperature is shown in fig. ??; as expected the gain is maximized and the noise temperature is minimized at $R \sim 1\text{ }k\Omega$ where the sample is optimally matched. This particular data was taken from a two-stage matching network coupled to a graphene device and shows a dynamic range of ~ 3 orders of magnitude in device resistance.

1.9 CROSS-CORRELATED NOISE THERMOMETRY

A CHALLENGE IN NOISE MEASUREMENTS is isolating the noise you want to measure from the noise you don't. Dissipation between the resistive load and the LNA, such as coaxial attenuation and contact resistance, can contaminate thermal transport measurements [105?]. Johnson noise from the sample is added to the unwanted Johnson noise from these lossy components. Cross-correlation techniques can mitigate this problem by amplifying the Johnson noise signal of interest indepen-

*negative T_n is where the linear fit intercepts the horizontal axis; also given by the offset divided by the slope

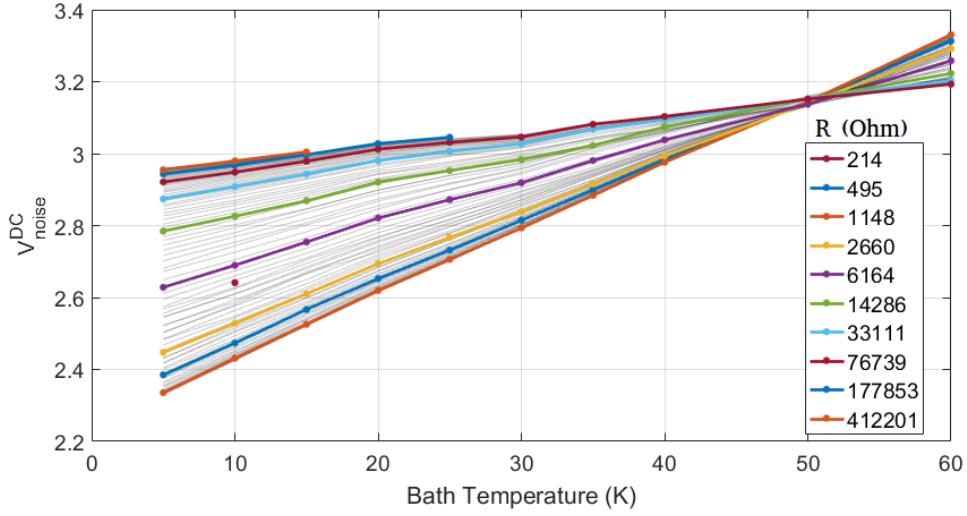


Figure 1.23: Output voltage proportional integrated noise given by eqn. 1.21 as a function of device temperature fixing resistance. The slope of each line gives the generalized gain $\mathcal{G}(R)$ while the extrapolated offset (divided by \mathcal{G}) is $T_n(R)$. The external parameters that result in a given resistance are generally different for different bath temperatures.

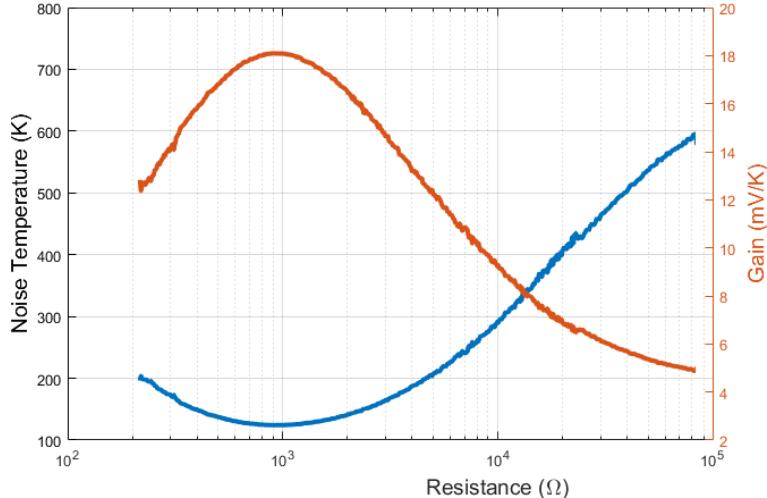


Figure 1.24: Generalized gain and effective noise temperature extracted from data shown in fig. 1.23. The circuit is designed to optimally match an input resistance of $\sim 1 k\Omega$. As expected from eqn. 1.26 and 1.27, the gain is maximized and the noise temperature is minimized when the device is effectively coupled – i.e. Γ is minimized. This two-stage LC tank circuit shows effective coupling over 3 orders of magnitude of input resistance.

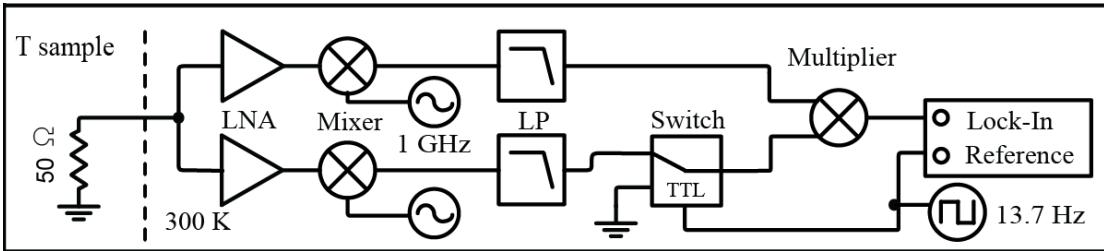


Figure 1.25: High level schematic of a typical Johnson noise thermometry cross-correlation measurement circuit. Noise from an impedance matched sample is sent into two independent measurement lines. Each line is then amplified, a measurement bandwidth is selected, and combined using a linear multiplier. A microwave switch acts as a chopper and the signal is integrated using a lock-in amplifier.

dently via two separate measurement lines [? ? ? ? ?] and discarding uncorrelated noise between the two channels. The output voltage of such a scheme can be written as:

$$V_{out} \propto \langle (V_{JN} + V_{n1}) \times (V_{JN} + V_{n2}) \rangle \quad (1.29)$$

$$V_{out} \propto \langle V_{JN}^2 \rangle + \langle V_{JN} V_{n1} \rangle + \langle V_{JN} V_{n2} \rangle + \langle V_{n1} V_{n2} \rangle \quad (1.30)$$

where V_{JN} is the instantaneous Johnson noise voltage and V_{n1} and V_{n2} are the instantaneous voltage noise on the two channels. If all noise sources are uncorrelated then only the first term in eqn. 1.30 is non zero and $V_{out} \propto \langle V_{JN}^2 \rangle$. Previously, cross-correlation measurements were limited to frequencies below a few MHz due to the practical implementation of multipliers and digital processing speeds [? ? ? ?]. However, the 2 GHz analog multiplier (Analog Devices ADL5931) and LNA, combined with the lock-in amplifier modulation scheme described in fig. 1.25, measure the correlated noise between the two channels, rejecting a large portion of the uncorrelated amplifier noise. The results are shown alongside an autocorrelation measurement (fig. 1.2) for comparison in fig. ??; the

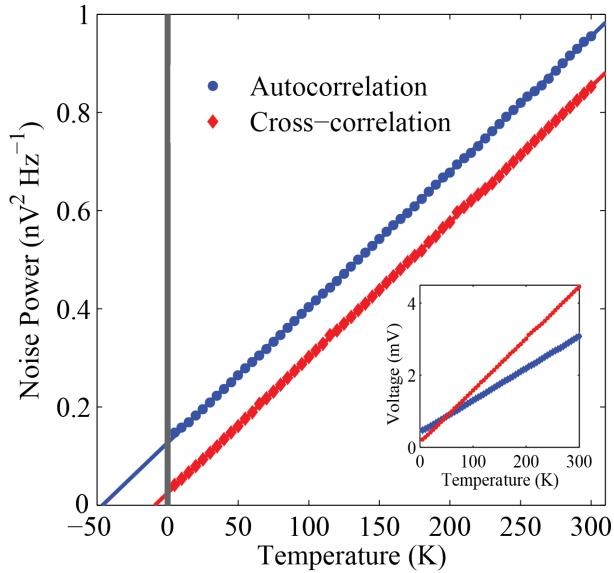


Figure 1.26: Auto- and cross-correlation Johnson noise measurements of a $50\ \Omega$ resistor measured by the circuit shown in fig. 1.2 and 1.25, respectively. Inset shows the raw output voltage. The signal is converted to noise power by the Nyquist equation. The solid lines are linear fits, where the auto- and cross-correlation data exhibit an offset of $68\ K$ and $2.6\ K$, respectively, due to amplifier noise

offset due to amplifier noise was reduced from $68\ K$ to $2.6\ K$.

Although the offset in the data is reduced by cross-correlation, the measurement time required to achieve a given precision is not reduced*. The time required to effectively average out the uncorrelated noise is still proportional to the amplifiers noise temperature. To be precise, T_n is given by the geometric mean of individual amplifiers noise temperatures.

$$T_n = \sqrt{T_1^n T_2^n} \quad (1.31)$$

where T_i^n is the noise temperature of the i th amplifier. Using two LNAs with similar specifications

*Cross-correlation can improve the accuracy of an experiment but not the precision

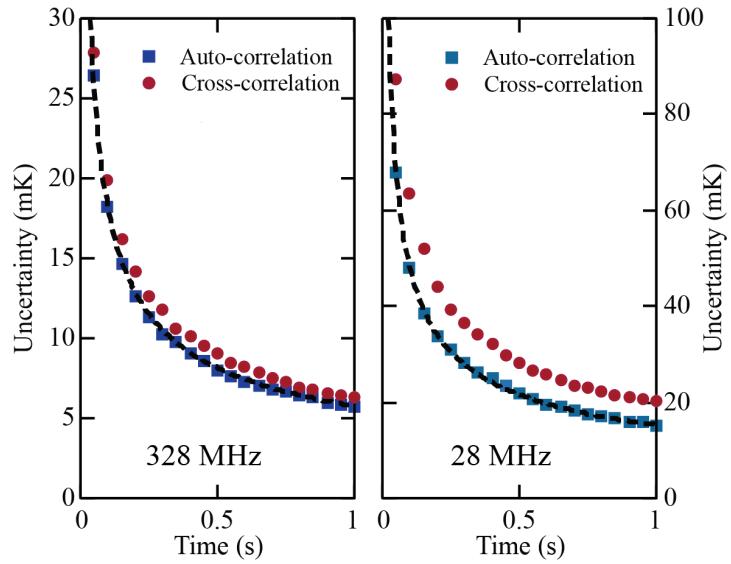


Figure 1.27: Standard deviation of 1000 auto- and cross-correlation temperature measurements as a function of integration time for 328 MHz (left) and 28 MHz (right). In all cases, uncertainty follows the Dicke relation, eqn. 1.15, scaling as $\sqrt{\tau}$ and $\sqrt{\Delta f}$. Data is taken from a 50Ω resistor

eqn. 1.31 reduces to the Dicke formula, eqn. 1.15. Fig. 1.27 shows the standard deviation of 1000 temperature measurements as a function of integration time. Both auto- and cross-correlation measurements follow the Dicke formula with similar magnitude and uncertainty scaling as $\sqrt{\tau}$ and $\sqrt{\Delta f}$.

1.9.1 MULTI-TERMINAL CROSS-CORRELATION

Cross-correlation can be used to reduce the effects of contact and lead resistance with the use of multi-terminal devices. However, as discussed in section 1.2, the noise measured on different pairs of terminals sample different areas of the device. For example, the four-terminal device drawn in fig. 1.28 will give very different results depending on which terminal are paired — cross-correlation



Figure 1.28: Cartoon of a four-terminal device. If the voltage between terminals A and D is cross-correlated to the voltage between terminals B and C, the result will be more sensitive to the temperature of the device than pairing A-B and C-D

between V_{AD} and V_{BC} will be more sensitive to the device temperature than cross-correlation of V_{AB} and V_{CD} . The exact amount of overlap between the noise on any pair of terminals can be found via the method described in section 1.2.

This is some random quote to start off the chapter.

Firstname lastname

2

Electronic cooling mechanisms in graphene

CHARGE CARRIERS IN CONDUCTORS exchange energy with the environment in many ways. If an electronic system is directly heated — whether it be by Joule heating, optical pumping, and any other direct energy transfer — the mechanisms with which the system cools can be quite diverse.

In mesoscopic samples there are typically three cooling mechanisms one has to consider. First, if

the material is electrically connected to a thermal bath, such as macroscopic electrodes, then hot electrons can diffuse out and cold electrons can diffuse in; this diffusion is often referred to as Wiedemann-Franz cooling and is the dominate thermal transport mechanism in metals at low temperature [4?]. Secondly, hot electrons can transfer energy directly to the lattice by coupling to acoustic and optical phonon modes in the graphene itself or the nearby substrate [?]. Thirdly, electrons are charged and can therefore radiatively cool; this radiation is often in the form of Johnson noise and, although often negligible even at cryogenic temperature, can be the dominate cooling mechanism in ultra-sensitive bolometers [? ?].

2.1 WIEDEMANN-FRANZ

IF A MATERIAL HOSTS MOBILE CHARGE CARRIERS, at a fixed temperature, each quasiparticle can transport a quantized amount of thermal energy and a quantized charge through the system; it then stands to reason the electronic thermal conductance must be related to the electrical conductivity. First observed at room temperature in 1853 by Wiedemann and Franz [?], the thermal conductivity, κ , of metals is directly proportional to the electrical conductivity, σ , at room temperature. Twenty years later, Lorenz expanded upon the idea and showed the ratio of the thermal conductivity to the product of the electrical conductivity and temperature, T , was a constant [?], \mathcal{L} .

$$\frac{\kappa}{\sigma T} = \mathcal{L} \quad (2.1)$$

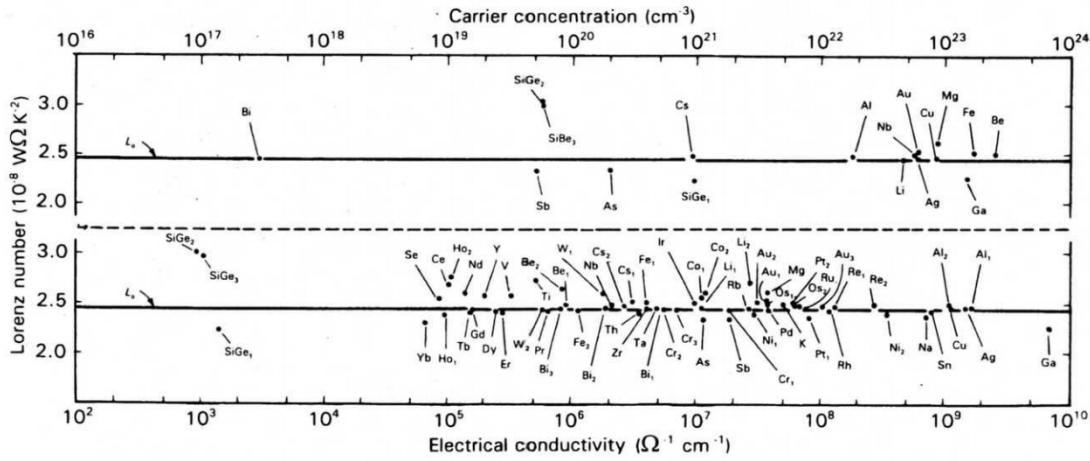


Figure 2.1: Experimental Lorenz number of elemental metals and degenerate semiconductors at low temperature. Taken from ref [54]. reprinted with permission, Springer, license number 4067330556225

Eqn. 2.1 is now known as the Wiedemann-Franz law (WFL) where \mathcal{L} is the Lorenz ratio. Data showing experimentally measured Lorenz numbers for various metals and semi conductors as a function of conductivity and carrier concentration is shown in fig. 2.1. The quantitative value for \mathcal{L} can be approximated under the Drude model [4] but it was not until Sommerfeld in 1927 that a full derivation using Fermi-Dirac statistics was presented [?]. Under the assumptions of a degenerate Fermi gas and only elastic collisions, the theoretical value of the Lorenz number was shown to be:

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_0 \equiv \frac{\pi^2 k_B^2}{3 e^2} \approx 2.44 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W}\Omega/\text{K}^2 \quad (2.2)$$

The requirement that quasiparticles only scatter elastically leads the value of \mathcal{L} to deviate from \mathcal{L}_0 in the presence of strong electron-electron scattering and inelastic electron-phonon scattering. WF conduction can be suppressed with the use of superconducting leads [?].

2.1.1 LINEARIZATION

To understand the behavior of devices under low energy excitations, it is useful to linearize the WFL.

In the linear response regime the temperature variations across a device are small compared to the absolute temperature scale of the problem, T_b . For a uniform two-dimension device connecting two thermal baths with temperatures $T_b \pm \Delta T/2$, the steady state thermal power transported via the WFL is given by:

$$\dot{Q}_{WF} = \left(\frac{W\sigma}{L} \right) \mathcal{L}T_b \Delta T = \frac{\mathcal{L}T_b}{R} \Delta T \quad (2.3)$$

where W and L are the sample width and length, respectively, and R is the two-terminal electrical resistance

2.1.2 HOT-ELECTRON SHOT NOISE

A common way to develop a temperature gradient is via Joule heating where the electron temperature is raised with reference to the cold electrodes held at T_b . In the case of only WF conduction — i.e. no alternative cooling pathways such as phonons — the temperature rise in the high current regime scales linear in the current producing noise very similar to the shot noise seen in vacuum tubes. This well known effect is termed “hot-electron shot noise” [? 12?] and can be seen as the limit of the WFL with $T_e \gg T_b$.

$$\dot{Q} \approx \frac{\alpha}{R} T_e^2 \quad (2.4)$$

where α is a constant related to the temperature profile in the device. If we set the power dissipated to be proportional to the current squared, such that $\dot{Q} = I^2 R$, we find:

$$\langle T_e \rangle \approx \frac{R}{\sqrt{\alpha L}} I \quad (2.5)$$

Solving for the temperature profile and the noise produced, eqn. 2.5 reduces to [?]:

$$S_I = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{4} 2e I \quad (2.6)$$

Eqn.2.6 has the same form as shot noise with Fano factor of $\sqrt{3}/4$.

2.2 ELECTRON-PHONON COUPLING

At higher temperatures, the cooling of hot electrons is dominated by coupling to acoustic and optical phonons in the hexagonal lattice as well as the nearby substrate [102, 9]. In many experiments involving optical heating or Joule heating, a quasi-equilibrium can be formed where the electron temperature and the lattice temperature can be different. In the particular case of monolayer graphene this is especially true as the high phonon conductivity and relatively weak electron-phonon coupling can result in a lattice temperature that is well sunk to the thermal bath, T_b , but an elevated electron temperature, T_e . The interaction between this relativistic fermionic and bosonic system in graphene is quite rich with even the power law for the temperature dependence varying depending on the Fermi level, device disorder, and bias voltage. A general form for the heat transfer between

the two systems can written as:

$$\dot{Q}_{e-ph} = A \Sigma_{e-ph} \left(T_e^\delta - T_b^\delta \right) \quad (2.7)$$

where A is the area of the device, Σ_{e-ph} is a coupling constant, and δ is the power law exponent. Depending on the mechanism δ is typically 3 [97, 17] in disordered samples, or 4 – 5 in clean devices [102, 9]. These relatively high power laws result in phonons dominating at high temperature but becoming negligible when cold.

2.2.1 LINEARIZATION

To find the linear response behavior ($\Delta T \ll T_b$) we can Taylor expand to first order for $T_e \approx T_b$ to find:

$$\dot{Q}_{e-ph} \approx A \delta \Sigma_{e-ph} T_b^{\delta-1} \Delta T \quad (2.8)$$

Eqn. 2.8 can be compared to eqn. 2.3. First we see that while both cooling mechanisms scale as the device width, they have inverse dependences on the device length and as such the bath temperature at which one mechanism will dominate over the other is geometry dependent.

The literature on electron-phonon coupling in graphene is vast [? ? ? ?]. I present here a simplified review of the main mechanisms relevant to the experiments presented here.

2.2.2 BLOCH-GRÜNEISEN TEMPERATURE

In most three-dimensional metals, where the Fermi surface is large, the characteristic temperature scale for phonon dynamics is given by the Debye temperature. However, in semiconductors and semimetals the Fermi surface can be substantially smaller than the Brillouin zone and a second temperature scale governs the scattering of electrons and phonons. The Bloch-Grüneisen temperature, T_{BG} , is the temperature at which the most energetic phonons have a typical momentum equal to the Fermi momentum[? ?].

$$T_{BG} = 2\hbar v_s k_F / k_B \quad (2.9)$$

Above this temperature, momentum conservation dictates that only a fraction of the available phonon modes can scatter electrons; the largest momentum change an electron can experience is $2k_F$ — a complete backscatter — and as such, only phonons with momentum equal to or less than $2k_F$ can participate in scattering processes. This has been shown in *GaAs* based 2D electron systems [?] and in graphene [29] where T_{BG} can be controlled by tuning the Fermi level using an electrostatic gate.

2.2.3 ACOUSTIC PHONONS

In typical metals at low temperature, the dominate phonon modes in the system are acoustic [4]*.

In graphene, however, energy transfer between electrons and these acoustic phonons (AP) is limited

*The optical phonon branch has finite energy at $k = 0$ and thus at low enough temperatures these modes are frozen out

by the mismatch between the Fermi velocity, v_F , and the sound speed in the material, v_s . Energy and momentum conservation limit the energy each phonon collision can remove from the electronic system resulting a maximal energy transfer of $2\hbar v_s k_F$. Nevertheless, experiments have shown that the electronic cooling in many graphene devices at low temperatures can be dominated by AP scattering [32, 8, 36].

Theoretical predictions for the power law δ and the coupling constant Σ_{e-ph} have been shown to depend upon the device temperature and the amount of disorder. In the dirty limit, the energy and momentum conservation discussed above can be circumvented by disorder-assisted collisions called “supercollisions” resulting in a power law $\delta = 3$ [97]. In the clean limit at low temperature, Kubakaddi [52] showed $\delta = 4$ with a coupling constant:

$$\Sigma_{e-ap} = \frac{\pi^2 \mathcal{D}^2 |\mu| k_B^4}{15 \rho \hbar^5 v_F^3 v_s^3} \quad (2.10)$$

where \mathcal{D} is the deformation potential, μ is the chemical potential, and ρ is the mass density of the lattice. Eqn. 2.10 was reproduced by Viljas et al. [102] and extended to high temperature where it was found δ approaches 5. The transition from these two regimes is shown in fig. 2.2.

2.2.4 OPTICAL PHONONS

Although the energies associated with optical phonons in graphene are quite large compared to the thermal energies in typical experiments, each collision can remove a significant amount of energy from the electronic system. Bistritzer et al. [9] showed that at sufficiently high temperatures even

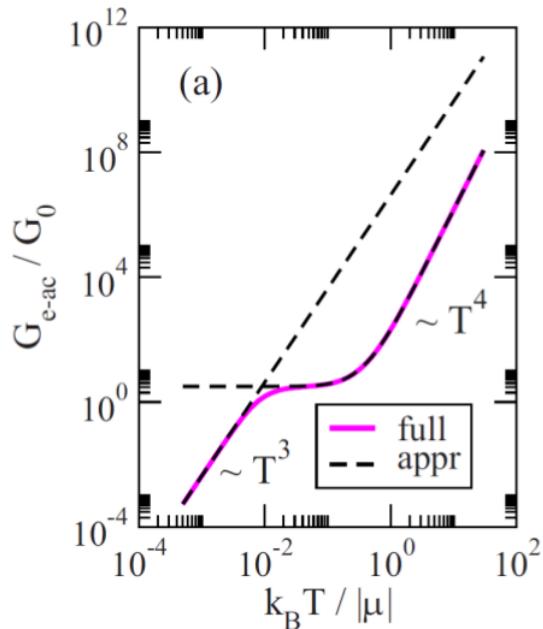


Figure 2.2: Reprinted figure with permission from ref. [102] by the American Physical Society license number: 4077361227141.

the $\sim 200 \text{ meV}$ intrinsic can dominate electronic cooling in suspended samples. For encapsulated devices, remote phonons in the boron-nitride have been shown to have a surprisingly significant effect both theoretically [102, 9?] and experimentally [?]. At higher temperature ($\gtrsim 270 \text{ K}$), Sohier et al. [?] showed that despite the relatively low occupancy, graphene intrinsic optical phonons can have a more pronounced effect on the electrical resistance than acoustic phonons.

2.3 PHOTON COOLING

For a device coupled to a microwave circuit, energy is radiated via photons over the measurement bandwidth [? ?]. This is equivalent to 1D blackbody radiation and is the noise which is measured in Johnson noise thermometry. The power transferred is given by eqn. 1.13 which is negligible com-

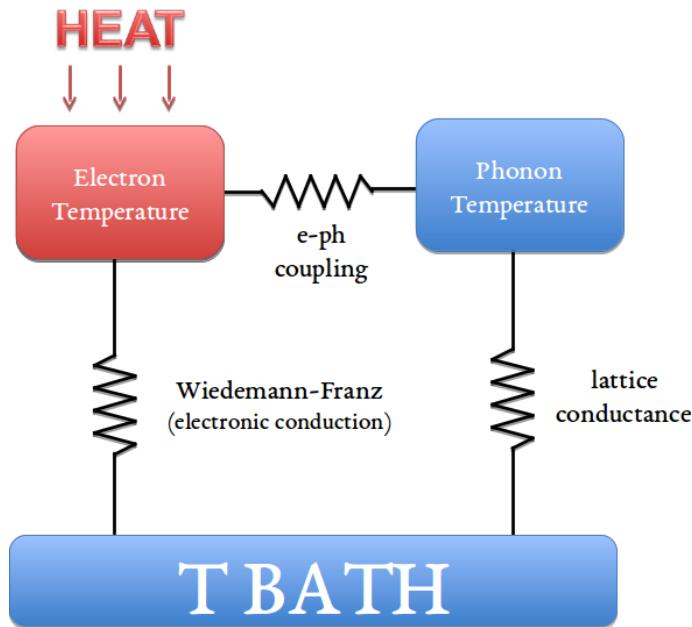


Figure 2.3: A thermal model of the electronic cooling pathways in graphene. Heat injected into the electronic system can flow directly to the bath via Wiedemann-Franz conduction, or to the lattice via electron-phonon coupling. The lattice and the bath are connected via the lattice conductivity which is large in graphene.

pared to Wiedemann-Franz and phonon cooling for the temperatures and bandwidths covered in this thesis. However, for devices at low temperature with superconducting leads this can become a significant source of thermalization [?].

2.4 THERMAL NETWORK

In general, when heat is injected into the electronic system of graphene, each of the mechanisms described above plays a role in thermalizing the system to an external bath. For the devices and experimental parameters used in this thesis, a simplified thermal model can be used, illustrated in fig. 2.3. The electronic system is connected to the bath by two parallel cooling paths: a diffusion channel and

a lattice channel. The diffusion channel is governed by the electronic thermal conductivity, while the lattice channel contains both an electron-phonon coupling term and the lattice conductivity of graphene. In practice the lattice conductance is typically many orders of magnitude larger than the electron-phonon conductance* resulting in the lattice being well sunk to the bath [20, 32, 91]. The temperature dependence of the two channels follow different power laws resulting in the low temperature behavior being governed by diffusive conduction while cooling at high temperature is dominated by the lattice channel.

*The ratio of the lattice conductance to the electron-phonon conductance is geometry dependent. In long samples the phonon conductance may bottleneck the lattice cooling channel.

3

Thermal conductance via electrical noise

A common technique in studying the various cooling pathways in a mesoscopic sample is to inject a pulse of energy into the system and monitor the time dependent electron temperature as the system returns to equilibrium. However, these "pump-probe" experiments suffer from a few difficulties: Firstly, they yield a thermal time constant which is a convolution of the various heat capacities and thermal conductances in the problem. Secondly, the large temperature rise needed to resolve the

thermal decay makes it difficult to study the linear response of low energy excitations. A steady state experiment avoids these difficulties and enables the measurement of thermal conductance in linear response at the expense of time-resolution.

In a steady state thermal experiment, a constant heating power, \dot{Q} , is injected into the electronic system and the electron temperature rise, ΔT , is measured. For the experiments in this thesis, this is accomplished via Joule heating in a two terminal geometry while monitoring the change in Johnson noise temperature, T_{JN} — as discussed in chapter 1.2. We can define the ratio of the applied power to the rise of Johnson noise temperature as a thermal conductance:

$$G_{\text{th}} = \frac{\dot{Q}}{\Delta T_{JN}} \quad (3.1)$$

It's important to note that G_{th} is not the traditional thermal conductance which describes the total heat power flowing through a material in response to a spatial temperature gradient; it is instead a generalized thermal conductance describing the heat power transferred between the electronic system and the bath under Joule heating. To extract meaningful microscopic parameters from G_{th} it is necessary model how the heat is entering and leaving the system as a function of these parameters. For the devices and experimental parameters presented here, the simplified thermal model shown in fig. 3.1 can be used to extract information about the electronic thermal conductivity and the electron-phonon coupling.

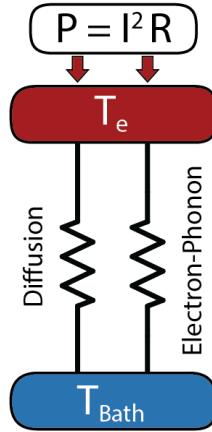


Figure 3.1: Simplified thermal diagram of the electronic cooling pathways in graphene relevant for the experimental conditions presented here. A current induces a heating power into the electronic system which conducts to the bath via two parallel pathways: diffusion and coupling to phonons.

3.1 RECTANGULAR DEVICE

For a simple two-terminal rectangular device, the temperature measured by Johnson noise — as given by Eqn. 1.12 with spatially uniform \dot{q} — is simply the spatially averaged temperature. Therefore, the total heat dissipated in linear response is then given by:

$$I^2 R = \dot{Q} = \kappa \left(\frac{W}{L} \right) \beta \Delta T_{JN} + WL \Sigma_{e-ph} \delta T_b^{\delta-1} \Delta T_{JN} \quad (3.2)$$

where W and L are the sample width and length, respectively, T_b is the bath temperature, κ is the electronic thermal conductivity, Σ_{e-ph} and δ are the electron-phonon parameters described in ch. 2.2, and ΔT_{JN} is the Johnson noise temperature minus the bath temperature. The geometric factor β depends on the shape of the electronic temperature profile which is affected by the relative

strength of the two cooling terms in Eqn. 3.2 and must be calculated.

3.1.1 ELECTRONIC CONDUCTION ONLY

In the absence of phonons, the temperature profile, and therefore β , can be solved analytically. For simplicity we assume that the graphene sample is homogeneous, that the approximately uniform electrical current is given by

$$J = -\sigma \frac{dV}{dx} - \alpha \frac{dT}{dx} \quad (3.3)$$

and that the heat current is given by

$$\dot{q} = -\alpha T \frac{dV}{dx} - \bar{\kappa} \frac{dT}{dx} \quad (3.4)$$

where

$$\bar{\kappa} \equiv \kappa + \frac{T\alpha^2}{\sigma} = \kappa(1 + ZT). \quad (3.5)$$

In the latter equation, ZT is the thermoelectric coefficient of merit. In the limit of negligible thermo electric effects $\bar{\kappa} \approx \kappa$.

dT/dx is the temperature gradient in the sample, and $-dV/dx$ is the electric field in the sample. α/σ is the Seebeck coefficient. If the Joule heating is current biased, the response of graphene is dominated only by the changes in voltage V and temperature T to a uniform current density J , which is applied externally, thus:

$$0 = \frac{dJ}{dx} \quad (3.6)$$

In the linear response regime, the Joule power, \mathcal{P} , is given by $\mathbf{J} \times \mathbf{E}$ and thus the continuity equation for the heat current in 1D becomes:

$$\mathcal{P} = \frac{\mathbf{J}^2}{\sigma} = \frac{d\dot{q}}{dx} \quad (3.7)$$

combining the above equations we obtain

$$\mathcal{P} = -\kappa \frac{d^2T}{dx^2} \quad (3.8)$$

assuming that κ is approximately homogeneous throughout the sample.

The contacts serve as thermal baths and thus are held at the same temperature T_b . Writing

$$T(x) = T_b + \Delta T(x) \quad (3.9)$$

solving Eqn. 3.1.1 using this form for the solution with the boundary conditions $\Delta T(0) = \Delta T(L) = 0$ we find a parabolic temperature profile:

$$\Delta T(x) = \frac{\mathcal{P}}{2\kappa} x(L-x) \quad (3.10)$$

The average temperature change in the sample, which is directly measured through Johnson noise thermometry, is

$$\Delta T_{JN} = \langle \Delta T \rangle = \int_0^L \frac{dx}{L} \Delta T(x) = \frac{\mathcal{P}L^2}{12\kappa} \quad (3.11)$$

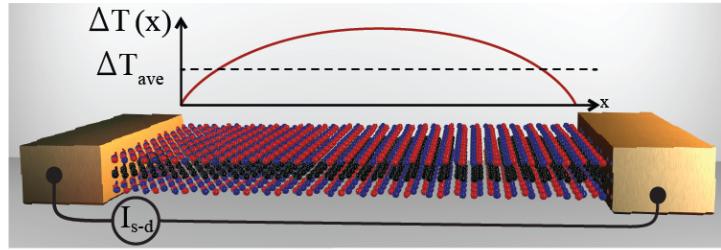


Figure 3.2: Cartoon illustrating the non-uniform temperature profile within the graphene-hBN stack during Joule heating in the diffusion-limited regime.

plugging in the power per unit length \mathcal{P} in terms of σ and the external voltage V_0 ,

$$\Delta T_{JN} = \frac{V_0^2 \sigma}{12 \kappa} \quad (3.12)$$

This non-uniform temperature profile is illustrated in Fig. 3.2.

Combining eqs. 3.2 and 3.11 in the limit of no electron-phonon coupling we obtain the relation between the experimentally measured G_{th} and the microscopic quantity of interest κ as

$$G_{\text{th}} \equiv \frac{\dot{Q}}{\Delta T_{JN}} = \frac{12W}{L} \kappa \quad (3.13)$$

All the information about the heating profile is contained in the factor of 12. — i.e for a two-terminal rectangular geometry under Joule heating $\beta = 12$. If the electronic conductance follows the Wiedemann-Franz law, such that $\kappa = \mathcal{L}\sigma T_b$, then Eqn. 3.13 becomes

$$G_{\text{th}} = \frac{12W\mathcal{L}\sigma T_b}{L} = \frac{12\mathcal{L}T_b}{R} \quad (3.14)$$

where R is the directly measurable, two-terminal electrical resistance.

3.1.2 PHONON COOLING ONLY

The limit of electron-phonon dominated cooling can be modeled by phonons effectively removing an isotropic amount of heat per unit area; the balance between this and Joule heating leads to a uniform temperature profile,

$$\Delta T(x) = T_0 = \Delta T_{JN} \quad (3.15)$$

The heat balance equation — Eqn. 3.2 with a Joule heating source — then becomes

$$I^2 R = WL \Sigma_{e-ph} \delta T_b^{\delta-1} \Delta T_{JN} \quad (3.16)$$

and thus the microscopic parameters governing electron-phonon coupling are related to the experimentally measured thermal conductance by

$$G_{th} = WL \Sigma_{e-ph} \delta T_b^{\delta-1} \quad (3.17)$$

3.2 WEDGE DEVICES

Unlike the simple rectangle where the Johnson noise temperature was simply the mean temperature, for more complicated geometries we have to compute what effective temperature we will measure in a noise experiment given the temperature profile. An instructive example of a more complicated

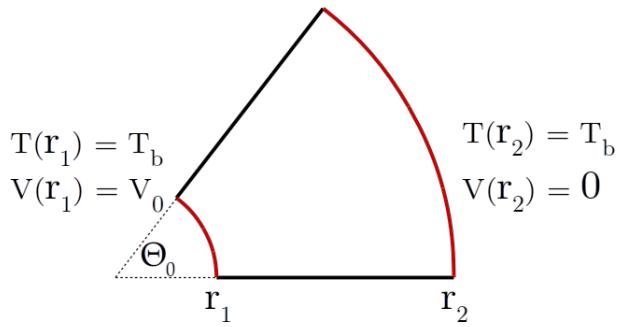


Figure 3.3: Sketch of a wedge shaped device and boundary conditions for Joule heating. Red boundaries represent contacts where temperature is fixed at T_b . A voltage V_0 is placed on the contact at $r = r_1$ while the second contact at $r = r_2$ is held at ground. Cylindrical symmetry leaves heat and charge currents independent of angle \square .

geometry which can also be solved analytically is a semicircular wedge as shown in fig. 3.3. The continuity equations for heat and charge current in cylindrical coordinates yield

$$J(r) = -\frac{V_0 \sigma}{\ln(r_1/r_2)} \frac{1}{r} \hat{r} \quad (3.18)$$

and

$$\frac{J^2}{\sigma} = \nabla \cdot \dot{q} = \kappa \frac{d^2 T}{dr^2} + \frac{\kappa}{r} \frac{dT}{dr} \quad (3.19)$$

Combining Eqns. 3.18 and 3.19 and solving using the thermal boundary conditions of fixed temperature at the contacts, the temperature profile is given by:

$$\Delta T(r) = \frac{V_0^2 \sigma}{2\kappa \ln(r_1/r_2)^2} \ln\left(\frac{r}{r_1}\right) \ln\left(\frac{r}{r_2}\right) \quad (3.20)$$

The mean temperature and the Johnson noise temperature can be calculated by integrating Eqn. 3.20 yielding,

$$\langle \Delta T \rangle = \int_{r_1}^{r_2} T(r) r dr \Big/ \int_{r_1}^{r_2} r dr = \frac{V_0^2 \sigma}{4 \kappa \ln(r_2/r_1)} \left[\frac{r_1^1 + r_2^2}{r_1^1 + r_2^2} - \ln(r_2/r_1) \right] \quad (3.21)$$

$$\Delta T_{JN} = \int_{r_1}^{r_2} \dot{q}(r) T(r) r dr \Big/ \int_{r_1}^{r_2} \dot{q}(r) r dr = \frac{V_0^2 \sigma}{12 \kappa} \quad (3.22)$$

The difference between the spatially averaged temperature and ΔT_{JN} illustrates the power of combining Joule heating with Johnson noise thermometry — the spatial distribution heat is injected into the system is the same as the spatial weighting function for Johnson noise measurements.

Rewriting Eqn. 3.22 in terms of G_{th} assuming the Wiedemann-Franz law we arrive at the same form as Eqn. 3.14,

$$G_{\text{th}} = \frac{12 \mathcal{L} T_b}{R} \quad (3.23)$$

All geometric dependence is contained in the experimentally measurable two-terminal resistance R and we find, similar to the rectangular geometry, $\beta = 12$.

3.3 ARBITRARY GEOMETRIES: UNIVERSALITY OF β

Above we have derived two analytic examples where β was shown to 12. In fact, it can be shown that $\beta = 12$ is universally true in the linear response regime regardless of the geometry of the device or the form of the conductivity tensors, $\hat{\sigma}$ and $\hat{\kappa}$, provided the following conditions are met:

- i. The device has only two electrical terminals which serve as thermal heat sinks

2. Electron cool is provided only by Wiedemann-Franz diffusion
3. $\hat{\sigma}$ and $\hat{\kappa}$ are spatially uniform

The following derivation is adapted from a work done by Dr. Brian Skinner, MIT, altered from clarity and brevity:

Without loss of generality, we can imagine a unit voltage applied across an arbitrary two terminal device, so that the electric potential $\phi(r)$ has $\phi = 1$ at the source electrode and $\phi = 0$ at the drain. For a generic conductivity tensor $\hat{\sigma}$ (which may be affected by magnetic field) the electric current $\vec{J}(r)$ is

$$\vec{J}(r) = -\hat{\sigma} \vec{\nabla} \phi. \quad (3.24)$$

Thus, the continuity equation $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{J} = 0$ becomes

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \hat{\sigma} \vec{\nabla} \phi = 0 \quad (3.25)$$

This equation, together with the boundary conditions, defines the electric potential. The boundaries at non-contact edges are assumed to be reflecting, so that $(\vec{\nabla} \phi) \cdot \hat{n} = 0$, where \hat{n} is a unit normal vector to the boundary.

The electron temperature $T(r)$, defined relative to the base temperature T_b , obeys the heat diffusion equation

$$\dot{q}(r) = -\vec{\nabla} \cdot (\hat{\kappa} \vec{\nabla} T), \quad (3.26)$$

if there are no extraneous sources of heat dissipation, such as electron-phonon coupling, then the

steady state condition will set \dot{q} equal to the dissipated Joule heating power per unit area. The Joule power is given by $\vec{J} \cdot \vec{E}$, or

$$\dot{q}(r) = (\hat{\sigma} \vec{\nabla} \phi) \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \phi) \quad (3.27)$$

If we assume the generalized Wiedemann-Franz relation in the linear response regime, $\hat{\kappa} = \hat{\sigma} \mathcal{L} T_b$, we arrive at the following relation governing the temperature:

$$(\hat{\sigma} \vec{\nabla} \phi) \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \phi) = -\mathcal{L} T_b \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\hat{\sigma} \vec{\nabla} T). \quad (3.28)$$

Together with the boundary conditions, this equation defines the temperature profile $T(r)$. We assume that the contacts are good heat sinks, so that $T = 0$ at both contacts, and that no heat is lost at the boundary of the sample: $(\vec{\nabla} T) \cdot \hat{n} = 0$.

Eqn. 3.28 makes clear that there is a close relation between the temperature profile and the electric potential. It can be shown that Eqn. 3.28 and the boundary conditions are satisfied by the ansatz,

$$T(r) = \frac{1}{2 \mathcal{L} T_b} \phi(r)(1 - \phi(r)). \quad (3.29)$$

From Eqn. 3.29 we can calculate the Johnson noise temperature via Eqn. 1.12:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta T_{JN} &= \int d^2 r \dot{q}(r) T(r) / \dot{Q} \\ &= \frac{R}{2 \mathcal{L} T_b} \int d^2 r \phi(r) [1 - \phi(r)] [\hat{\sigma} \vec{\nabla} \phi(r)] \cdot [\vec{\nabla} \phi(r)] \end{aligned} \quad (3.30)$$

Here we have used $\dot{Q} = V^2/R = 1/R$ (assuming our voltage units). Combining Eqn. 3.29 and 3.30 we can right ΔT_{JN} in terms of only the temperature profile:

$$\begin{aligned} &= \mathcal{L}T_b R \int d^2r T(r) \vec{\nabla} \cdot (\hat{\sigma} \vec{\nabla} T) \\ &= \mathcal{L}T_b R \int d^2r (\vec{\nabla} T(r)) \cdot (\hat{\sigma} \vec{\nabla} T(r)). \end{aligned} \quad (3.31)$$

Eqn. 3.31 was found using integration by parts, and noting that either T or $\vec{\nabla} T$ vanishes at the boundaries of the sample.

The geometric factor β is defined by

$$\frac{1}{\beta} \equiv \frac{\Delta T_{JN} \mathcal{L} T_b}{\dot{Q} R}. \quad (3.32)$$

Plugging in Eqn. 3.30

$$\frac{1}{\beta} = \frac{1}{2 \dot{Q}} \int d^2r \phi(1-\phi) (\hat{\sigma} \vec{\nabla} \phi) \cdot (\vec{\nabla} \phi). \quad (3.33)$$

On the other hand, inserting Eqn. 3.29 into eqn. 3.31 and rearranging gives

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{\beta} &= \frac{1}{4 \dot{Q}} \int d^2r [\vec{\nabla}(\phi(1-\phi))] \cdot [\hat{\sigma} \vec{\nabla}(\phi(1-\phi))] \\ &= \frac{1}{4 \dot{Q}} \int d^2r (1-2\phi)^2 (\vec{\nabla} \phi) \cdot (\hat{\sigma} \vec{\nabla} \phi) \\ &= \frac{1}{4 \dot{Q}} \left[\int d^2r (\vec{\nabla} \phi) \cdot (\hat{\sigma} \vec{\nabla} \phi) - \int d^2r 4\phi(1-\phi) (\vec{\nabla} \phi) \cdot (\hat{\sigma} \vec{\nabla} \phi) \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (3.34)$$

The second term in Eqn. 3.34 is identical to the right hand side of Eqn. 3.33 multiplied by 2, and it is therefore equal to $2/\beta$. Thus:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{1}{\beta} &= \frac{1}{4 \dot{Q}} \int d^2r (\vec{\nabla}\phi) \cdot (\hat{\sigma} \vec{\nabla}\phi) \\
 &= \frac{1}{12 \dot{Q}} \int d^2r (\vec{\nabla}\phi) \cdot (\hat{\sigma} \vec{\nabla}\phi) \\
 &= \frac{1}{12 \dot{Q}} \int d^2r \dot{q}(r)
 \end{aligned} \tag{3.35}$$

The final step in Eqn. 3.35 comes from realizing the integrand is simply the Joule heating power given in eqn. 3.27, and thus

$$\beta = 12 \tag{3.36}$$

3.4 EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

To sensitively measure ΔT_{JN} , the autocorrelation Johnson noise thermometry circuit described in chapter 1 can be modified to allow a DC current to Joule heat the sample. Fig. 3.4 show a simplified

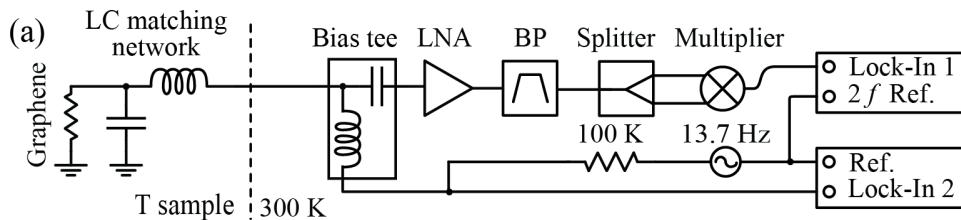


Figure 3.4: Simplified schematic of thermal conductance measurement setup. A low frequency Joule heating current is pass through the sample using a lock-in amplifier and and corresponding temperature is measured using Johnson noise thermometry. The noise signal is measured as the second harmonic of the heating current as $\Delta T \sim I^2$

schematic of a thermal conductance measurement setup. A low frequency ($f \sim 13 \text{ Hz}$) current is generated by a lock-in amplifier* at frequency $\omega = 2\pi f$ and passed through the sample[†] using a bias tee. If the current is given by:

$$I(t) = I_0 \sin(\omega t) \quad (3.37)$$

the total heating power dissipated in the device is

$$\dot{Q}(t) = I_0^2 R \sin^2(\omega t) \quad (3.38)$$

and the corresponding temperature rise in Johnson noise temperature is

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta T_{JN}(t) &= \frac{I_0 R}{G_{\text{th}}} \sin^2(\omega t) \\ &= \frac{I_0 R}{2 G_{\text{th}}} (1 - \cos(2\omega t)) \end{aligned} \quad (3.39)$$

The 2ω component of the corresponding noise signal is then measured by a second lock-in synced to the second harmonic of the Joule heating current (phase shifted by $\pi/2$) as shown in Fig. 3.4.

Fig. 3.5 shows how the electronic temperature mesoscopic device responds to a heating current. As expected for the linear response regime, the temperature rise follows an I^2 heating curve with curvature governed by the generalized thermal conductance. The thermal conductivity, κ , can be extracted in the low temperature regime using the factor $\beta = 12$ derived in section 3.1 — a example

*This lock-in is also used to measure the two-terminal resistance R

[†]It is because of this need to pass a DC current through the matching network and into the sample that the LC tanks used are setup in a low-pass configuration

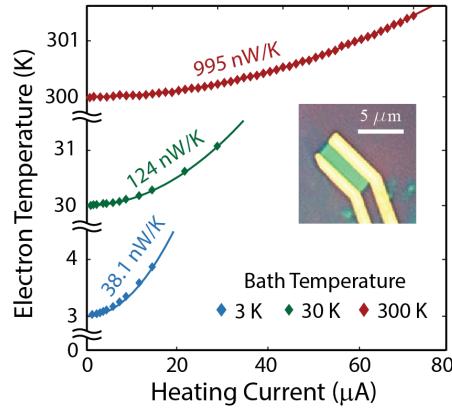


Figure 3.5: Electron temperature of a two-terminal graphene device (inset) as a function of a Joule heating current for three different bath temperatures. The temperatures follow an I^2 heating law with the curvature determined by the generalized thermal conductance G_{th} which increases with the bath temperature. Here electron temperature is defined as the Johnson noise temperature as discussed in section 3.1

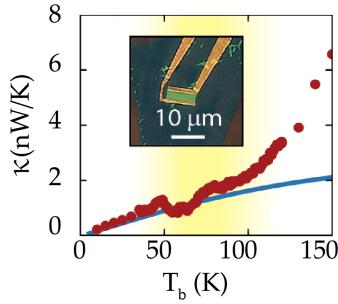


Figure 3.6: Thermal conductivity extracted from G_{th} measured using the circuit shown in Fig. 3.4 assuming $\beta = 12$. At low temperature κ can accurately be extracted from G_{th} and the measured thermal conductivity follows the Wiedemann-Franz law (solid blue line). At higher temperatures phonons spoil the assumptions needed for $\beta = 12$ and prevent the accurate measurement of κ

of which is shown in comparison to the Wiedemann-Franz law in Fig. 3.6. At low temperature the assumptions required to show $\beta = 12$ are met and the measured thermal conductivity follows the Wiedemann-Franz law. At high temperature phonons spoil assumption 2 in section 3.3 and κ can no longer be accurately extracted from G_{th} .

4

Thermal conductance in high density graphene

In the high density, low temperature regime ($\mu \gg k_B T$), graphene has a well defined Fermi surface and the assumptions in Sommerfeld's derivation of the Lorentz ratio hold.

4.1 DEVICE CHARACTERISTICS

4.2 LOW TEMPERATURE WIEDEMANN-FRANZ

4.3 HIGH TEMPERATURE ELECTRON-PHONON

quote

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5

The Dirac fluid

Understanding the dynamics of many interacting particles is a formidable task in physics, complicated by many coupled degrees of freedom. For electronic transport in matter, strong interactions can lead to a breakdown of the Fermi liquid (FL) paradigm of coherent quasiparticles scattering off of impurities. In such situations, the complex microscopic dynamics can be coarse-grained to a hydrodynamic description of momentum, energy, and charge transport on long length and time

scales [48]. Hydrodynamics has been successfully applied to a diverse array of interacting quantum systems, from high mobility electrons in conductors [47], to cold atoms [16] and quark-gluon plasmas [93]. As has been argued for strongly interacting massless Dirac fermions in graphene at the charge-neutrality point (CNP) [74, 33, 3, 76], hydrodynamic effects are expected to greatly modify transport coefficients as compared to their FL counterparts.

Many-body physics in graphene is interesting due to electron-hole symmetry and a linear dispersion relation at the CNP [79, 111]. In particular, the Fermi surface vanishes, leading to ineffective screening [94] and the formation of a strongly-interacting quasi-relativistic electron-hole plasma, known as a Dirac fluid [92]. The Dirac fluid shares many features with quantum critical systems [49]: most importantly, the electron-electron scattering time is fast [64, 14, 98, 45], and well suited to a hydrodynamic description. A number of exotic properties have been predicted including nearly perfect (inviscid) flow [75] and a diverging thermal conductivity resulting in the breakdown of the Wiedemann-Franz law [73, 33].

Away from the CNP, graphene has a sharp Fermi surface and the standard Fermi liquid (FL) phenomenology holds. By tuning the chemical potential, we may measure thermal and electrical conductivity in both the Dirac fluid (DF) and the FL in the same sample. In a FL, the relaxation of heat and charge currents is closely related as they are carried by the same quasiparticles. The Wiedemann-Franz (WF) law [4] states that the electronic contribution to a metal's thermal conductivity κ_e is proportional to its electrical conductivity σ and temperature T , such that the Lorenz ratio \mathcal{L} satisfies

$$\mathcal{L} \equiv \frac{\kappa_e}{\sigma T} = \frac{\pi^2}{3} \left(\frac{k_B}{e} \right)^2 \equiv \mathcal{L}_0 \quad (5.1)$$

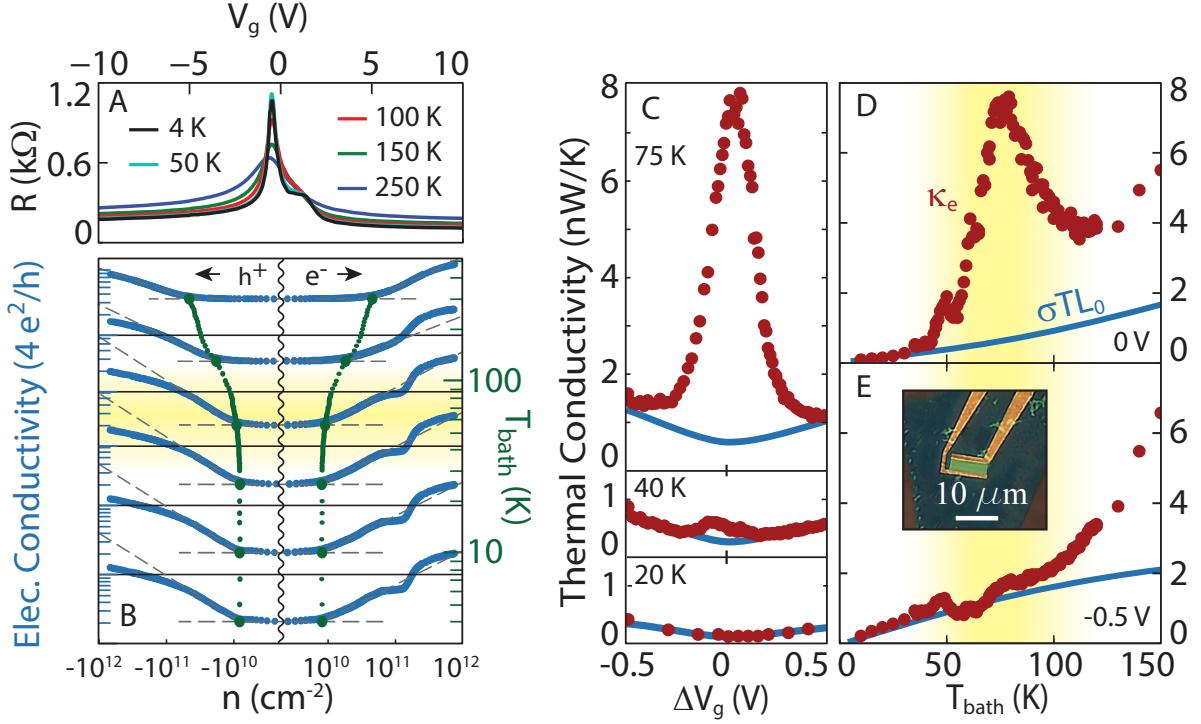


Figure 5.1: Temperature and density dependent electrical and thermal conductivity. (A) Resistance versus gate voltage at various temperatures. (B) Electrical conductivity (blue) as a function of the charge density set by the back gate for different bath temperatures. The residual carrier density at the neutrality point (green) is estimated by the intersection of the minimum conductivity with a linear fit to $\log(\sigma)$ away from neutrality (dashed grey lines). Curves have been offset vertically such that the minimum density (green) aligns with the temperature axis to the right. Solid black lines correspond to $4e^2/h$. At low temperature, the minimum density is limited by disorder (charge puddles). However, above $T_{\text{dis}} \sim 40$ K, a crossover marked in the half-tone background, thermal excitations begin to dominate and the sample enters the non-degenerate regime near the neutrality point. (C-D) Thermal conductivity (red points) as a function of (C) gate voltage and (D) bath temperature compared to the Wiedemann-Franz law, $\sigma T \mathcal{L}_0$ (blue lines). At low temperature and/or high doping ($|\mu| \gg k_B T$), we find the WF law to hold. This is a non-trivial check on the quality of our measurement. In the non-degenerate regime ($|\mu| < k_B T$) the thermal conductivity is enhanced and the WF law is violated. Above $T_{\text{el-ph}} \sim 80$ K, electron-phonon coupling becomes appreciable and begins to dominate thermal transport at all measured gate voltages. All data from this figure is taken from sample S2 (inset 1E).

where e is the electron charge, k_B is the Boltzmann constant, and \mathcal{L}_0 is the Sommerfeld value derived from FL theory. \mathcal{L}_0 depends only on fundamental constants, and not on specific details of the system such as carrier density or effective mass. As a robust prediction of FL theory, the WF law has been verified in numerous metals [4]. However, in recent years, an increasing number of non-trivial violations of the WF law have been reported in strongly interacting systems such as Luttinger liquids [103], metallic ferromagnets [95], heavy fermion metals [81], and underdoped cuprates [40], all related to the emergence of non-Fermi liquid behavior.

The WF law is expected to be violated at the CNP in a DF due to the strong Coulomb interactions between thermally excited charge carriers. An electric field drives electrons and holes in opposite directions; collisions between them introduce a frictional dissipation, resulting in a finite conductivity even in the absence of disorder [34]. In contrast, a temperature gradient causes electrons and holes to move in the same direction inducing an energy current, which grows unimpeded by inter-particle collisions (Fig. 5.3D inset). The thermal conductivity is therefore limited only by the rate at which momentum is relaxed due to residual impurities.

Realization of the Dirac fluid in graphene requires that the thermal energy be larger than the local chemical potential $\mu(r)$, defined at position r : $k_B T \gtrsim |\mu(r)|$. Impurities cause spatial variations in the local chemical potential, and even when the sample is globally neutral, it is locally doped to form electron-hole puddles with finite $\mu(r)$ [1, 68, 110, 107]. Formation of the DF is further complicated by phonon scattering at high temperature which can relax momentum by creating additional inelastic scattering channels. This high temperature limit occurs when the electron-phonon scattering rate becomes comparable to the electron-electron scattering rate. These two temperatures set the

experimental window in which the DF and the breakdown of the WF law can be observed.

To minimize disorder, the monolayer graphene samples used in this report are encapsulated in hexagonal boron nitride (hBN) [25]. All devices used in this study are two-terminal to keep a well-defined temperature profile [31] with contacts fabricated using the one-dimensional edge technique [104] in order to minimize contact resistance. We employ a back gate voltage V_g applied to the silicon substrate to tune the charge carrier density $n = n_e - n_h$, where n_e and n_h are the electron and hole density, respectively (see supplementary materials (SM)). All measurements are performed in a cryostat controlling the temperature T_{bath} . Fig. 5.1A shows the resistance R versus V_g measured at various fixed temperatures for a representative device (see SM for all samples). From this, we estimate the electrical conductivity σ (Fig. 5.1B) using the known sample dimensions. At the CNP, the residual charge carrier density n_{\min} can be estimated by extrapolating a linear fit of $\log(\sigma)$ as a function of $\log(n)$ out to the minimum conductivity [19]. At the lowest temperatures we find n_{\min} saturates to $\sim 8 \times 10^9 \text{ cm}^{-2}$. We note that the extraction of n_{\min} by this method overestimates the charge puddle energy, consistent with previous reports [25]. Above the disorder energy scale $T_{\text{dis}} \sim 40 \text{ K}$, n_{\min} increases as T_{bath} is raised, suggesting thermal excitations begin to dominate and the sample enters the non-degenerate regime near the CNP.

The electronic thermal conductivity is measured using high sensitivity Johnson noise thermometry (JNT) [31, 20]. We apply a small bias current through the sample that injects a joule heating power P directly into the electronic system, inducing a small temperature difference $\Delta T \equiv T_e - T_{\text{bath}}$ between the graphene electrons and the bath. The electron temperature T_e is monitored independent of the lattice temperature through the Johnson noise power emitted at 100 MHz with a

20 MHz bandwidth defined by an LC matching network. We designed our JNT to be operated over a wide temperature range 3–300 K [20]. With a precision of ~ 10 mK, we measure small deviations of T_e from T_{bath} , i.e. $\Delta T \ll T_{\text{bath}}$. In this limit, the temperature of the graphene lattice is well thermalized to the bath [31] and our JNT setup allows us to sensitively measure the electronic cooling pathways in graphene. At low enough temperatures, electron and lattice interactions are weak [20, 32], and most of the Joule heat generated in graphene escapes via direct diffusion to the contacts (SM). As temperature increases, electron-phonon scattering becomes appreciable and thermal transport becomes limited by the electron-phonon coupling strength [32, 7, 70]. The onset temperature of appreciable electron-phonon scattering, $T_{\text{el-ph}}$, depends on the sample disorder and device geometry: $T_{\text{el-ph}} \sim 80$ K [32, 20? , 55] for our samples. Below this temperature, the electronic contribution of the thermal conductivity can be obtained from P and ΔT using the device dimensions (SM).

Fig. 5.iC plots $\kappa_e(V_g)$ alongside the simultaneously measured $\sigma(V_g)$ at various fixed bath temperatures. Here, for a direct quantitative comparison based on the WF law, we plot the scaled electrical conductivity as $\sigma T \mathcal{L}_0$ in the same units as κ_e . At low temperatures, $T < T_{\text{dis}} \sim 40$ K, where the puddle induced density fluctuations dominates, we find $\kappa_e \approx \sigma T \mathcal{L}_0$, monotonically increasing as a function of carrier density with a minimum at the neutrality point, confirming the WF law in the disordered regime. As T increases ($T > T_{\text{dis}}$), however, the measured κ_e begins to deviate from the FL theory. We note that this violation of the WF law only appears close to the CNP, with the measured thermal conductivity maximized at $n = 0$ (Fig. 5.iD). The deviation is the largest at 75 K, where κ_e is over an order of magnitude larger than the value expected for a FL. This non-FL behav-

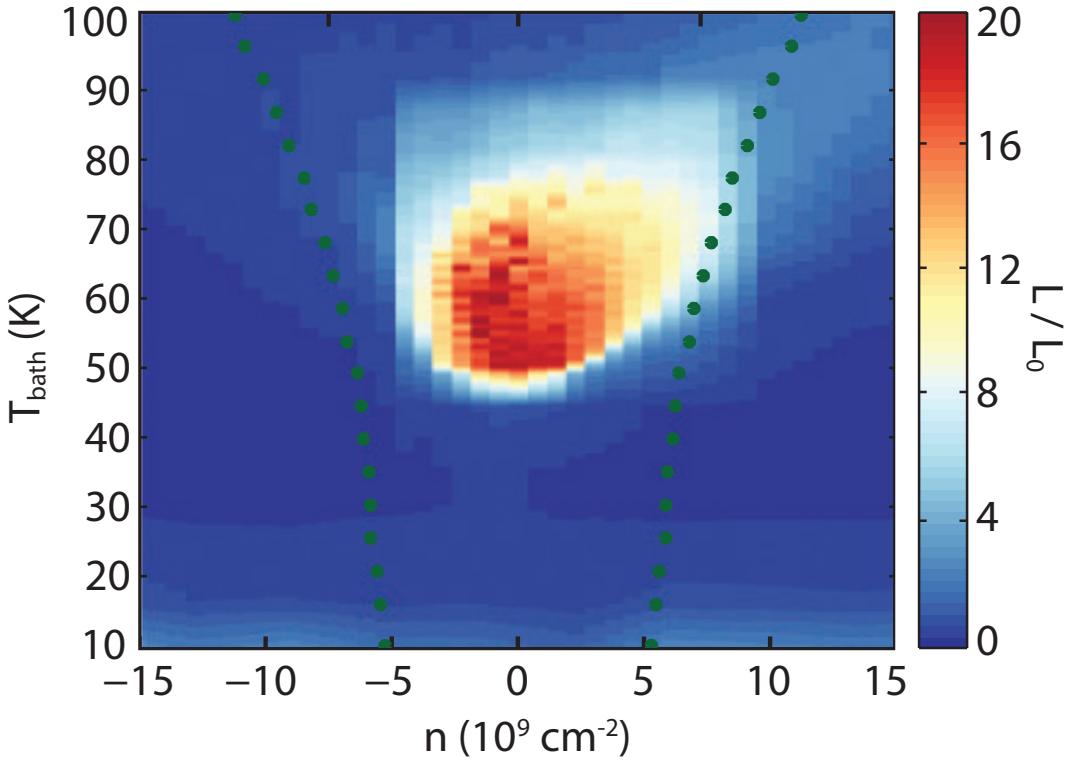


Figure 5.2: Breakdown of the Wiedemann-Franz law in the Dirac fluid regime. The Lorenz ratio is shown as a function of the charge carrier density and bath temperature. Near the CNP and for temperatures above the disorder (charge puddle) regime but below the onset of electron-phonon coupling, the Lorenz ratio is measured to be an order of magnitude greater than the Fermi liquid value of 1 (blue). The WF law is observed to hold outside of the Dirac fluid regime. All data from this figure is taken from sample S1.

ior quickly disappears as $|n|$ increases; κ_e returns to the FL value and restores the WF law. In fact, away from the CNP, the WF law holds for a wide temperature range, consistent with previous reports [20? , 32]. For this FL regime, we verify the WF law up to $T_{\text{el-ph}} \sim 80$ K. Finally, in the high temperature regime $T > T_{\text{el-ph}}$, the additional electron-phonon cooling pathway causes the measured thermal conductivity to be larger than κ_e . We find that near the CNP κ_e tends to decrease just before $T_{\text{el-ph}}$, restricting the maximal observable violation of the WF law.

Our observation of the breakdown of the WF law in graphene is consistent with the emergence of the DF. Fig. 5.2 shows the full density and temperature dependence of the experimentally measured Lorenz ratio in order to highlight the presence of the DF. The blue colored region denotes $\mathcal{L} \sim \mathcal{L}_0$, suggesting the carriers in graphene exhibit FL behavior. The WF law is violated in the DF (yellow-red) with a peak Lorenz ratio 22 times larger than \mathcal{L}_0 . The green dotted line shows the corresponding $n_{\min}(T)$ for this sample; the DF is found within this regime, indicating the coexistence of thermally populated electrons and holes. We find that disorder and phonon scattering bound the temperature range of the Dirac fluid, $T_{\text{dis}} < T < T_{\text{el-ph}}$.

We investigate the effect of impurities on hydrodynamic transport by comparing the results obtained from samples with varying disorder. Fig. 5.3A shows n_{\min} as a function of temperature for three samples used in this study. $n_{\min}(T = 0)$ is estimated as 5, 8, and $10 \times 10^9 \text{ cm}^{-2}$ in samples S₁, S₂, and S₃, respectively. All devices show qualitatively similar Dirac fluid behavior; the largest value of $\mathcal{L}/\mathcal{L}_0$ measured in the Dirac fluid regime is 22, 12 and 3 in samples S₁, S₂, and S₃, respectively (Fig. 5.3B). For a direct comparison, we show $\mathcal{L}(n)$ for all three samples at the same temperature (60 K) in Fig. 5.3C. We find that cleaner samples not only have a more pronounced peak but also a narrower density dependence, as predicted [73, 33].

More quantitative analysis of $\mathcal{L}(n)$ in our experiment can be done by employing a quasi-relativistic hydrodynamic theory of the DF incorporating the effects of weak impurity scattering [39, 73, 33]

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{\mathcal{L}_{\text{DF}}}{(1 + (n/n_0)^2)^2} \quad (5.2)$$

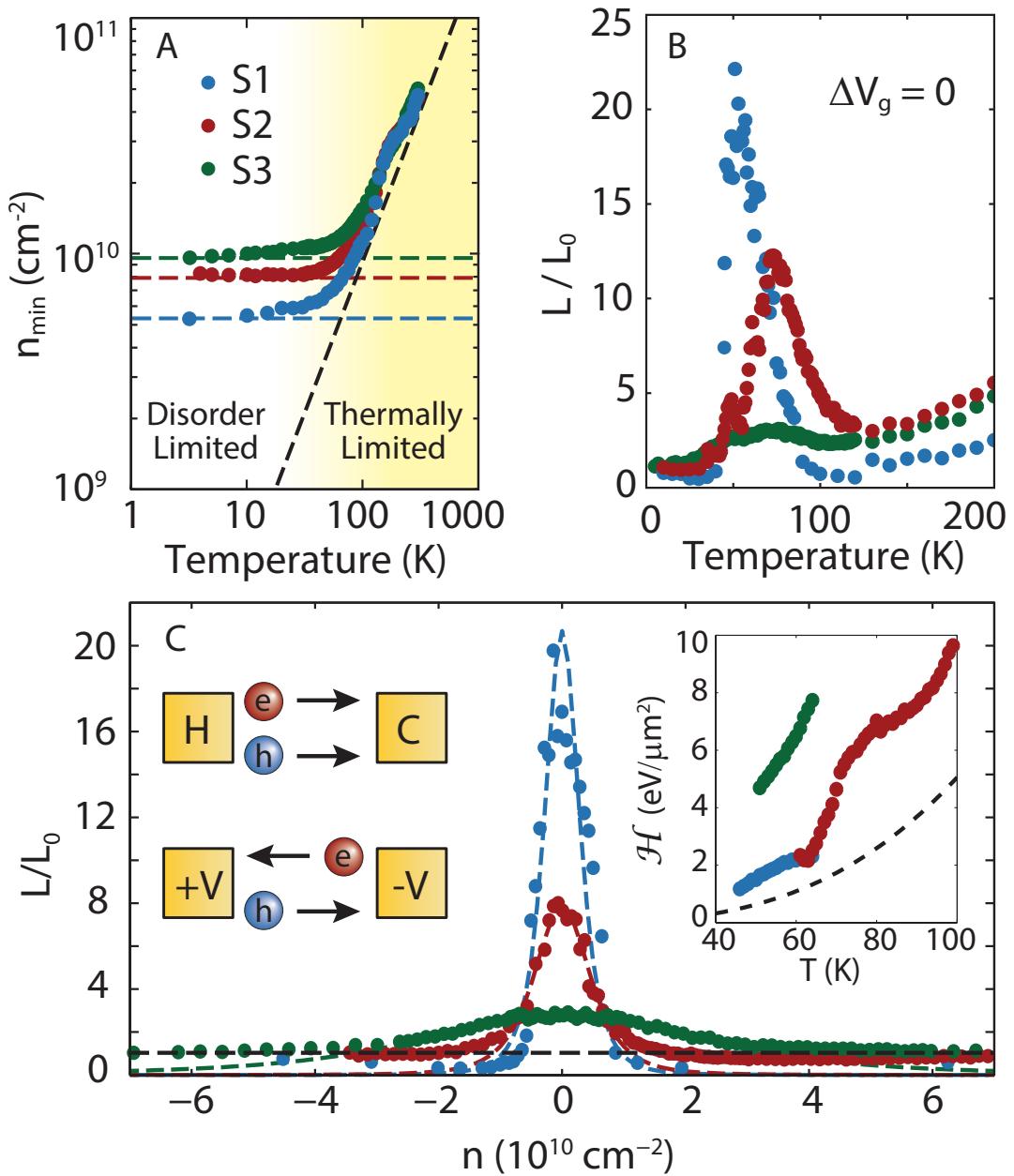


Figure 5.3: Disorder in the Dirac fluid. (A) Minimum carrier density as a function of temperature for all three samples. At low temperature each sample is limited by disorder. At high temperature all samples become limited by thermal excitations. Dashed lines are a guide to the eye. (B) The Lorentz ratio of all three samples as a function of bath temperature. The largest WF violation is seen in the cleanest sample. (C) The gate dependence of the Lorentz ratio is well fit to hydrodynamic theory of Ref. [73, 33]. Fits of all three samples are shown at 60 K. All samples return to the Fermi liquid value (black dashed line) at high density. Inset shows the fitted enthalpy density as a function of temperature and the theoretical value in clean graphene (black dashed line). Schematic inset illustrates the difference between heat and charge current in the neutral Dirac plasma.

where

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{DF}} = \frac{\mathcal{H}v_{\text{F}}l_m}{T^2\sigma_{\min}} \quad \text{and} \quad n_0^2 = \frac{\mathcal{H}\sigma_{\min}}{e^2v_{\text{F}}l_m}. \quad (5.3)$$

Here v_{F} is the Fermi velocity in graphene, σ_{\min} is the electrical conductivity at the CNP, \mathcal{H} is the fluid enthalpy density, and l_m is the momentum relaxation length from impurities. Two parameters in Eqn. 5.2 are undetermined for any given sample: l_m and \mathcal{H} . For simplicity, we assume we are well within the DF limit where l_m and \mathcal{H} are approximately independent of n . We fit the experimentally measured $\mathcal{L}(n)$ to Eqn. 5.2 for all temperatures and densities in the Dirac fluid regime to obtain l_m and \mathcal{H} for each sample. Fig. 5.3C shows three representative fits to Eqn. 5.2 taken at 60 K. l_m is estimated to be 1.5, 0.6, and 0.034 μm for samples S1, S2, and S3, respectively. For the system to be well described by hydrodynamics, l_m should be long compared to the electron-electron scattering length of $\sim 0.1 \mu\text{m}$ expected for the Dirac fluid at 60 K [75]. This is consistent with the pronounced signatures of hydrodynamics in S1 and S2, but not in S3, where only a glimpse of the DF appears in this more disordered sample. Our analysis also allows us to estimate the thermodynamic quantity $\mathcal{H}(T)$ for the DF. The Fig. 5.3C inset shows the fitted enthalpy density as a function of temperature compared to that expected in clean graphene (dashed line) [75], excluding renormalization of the Fermi velocity. In the cleanest sample \mathcal{H} varies from 1.1-2.3 eV/ μm^2 for $T_{\text{dis}} < T < T_{\text{el-ph}}$. This enthalpy density corresponds to ~ 20 meV or $\sim 4k_{\text{B}}T$ per charge carrier — about a factor of 2 larger than the model calculation without disorder [75].

To fully incorporate the effects of disorder, a hydrodynamic theory treating inhomogeneity non-perturbatively is necessary [60, 61]. The enthalpy densities reported here are larger than the the-

oretical estimation obtained for disorder free graphene, consistent with the picture that chemical potential fluctuations prevent the sample from reaching the Dirac point. While we find thermal conductivity well described by Ref. [73, 33], electrical conductivity increases slower than expected away from the CNP, a result consistent with hydrodynamic transport in a viscous fluid with charge puddles [61].

In a hydrodynamic system, the ratio of shear viscosity η to entropy density s is an indicator of the strength of the interactions between constituent particles. It is suggested that the DF can behave as a nearly perfect fluid [75]: η/s approaches a conjecture by Kovtun-Son-Starinets: $(\eta/s)/(\hbar/k_B) \gtrsim 1/4\pi$ for a strongly interacting system [51]. A non-perturbative hydrodynamic framework can be employed to estimate η , as we discuss elsewhere [61]. A direct measurement of η is of great interest.

We have experimentally discovered the breakdown of the WF law and provided evidence for the hydrodynamic behavior of the Dirac fermions in graphene. This provides an experimentally realizable Dirac fluid and opens the way for future studies of strongly interacting relativistic many-body systems. Beyond a diverging thermal conductivity and an ultra-low viscosity, other peculiar phenomena are expected to arise in this plasma. The massless nature of the Dirac fermions is expected to result in a large kinematic viscosity, despite a small shear viscosity η . Observable hydrodynamic effects have also been predicted to extend into the FL regime [85]. The study of magnetotransport in the DF will lead to further tests of hydrodynamics [73, 39].

5.1 SAMPLE FABRICATION

Single layer graphene is encapsulated in hexagonal boron nitride on an n-doped silicon wafer with 285 nm SiO₂ [104] and is subsequently annealed in vacuum for 15 minutes at 350 °C. It is then etched using reactive-ion-etching (RIE) to define the width of the device. A second etch mask is then lithographically defined to overlap with the sample edge, leaving the rest of the sample rectangular shaped with the desired aspect ratio. After the RIE is performed, the same etch mask is used as the metal deposition mask, upon which Cr/Pd/Au (1.5 nm / 5 nm / 200 nm) is deposited. The resulting Ohmic contacts show low contact resistances and small PN junction effects due to their minimum overlap with device edge.

5.2 OPTIMIZING SAMPLES FOR HIGH FREQUENCY THERMAL CONDUCTIVITY MEASUREMENTS

To measure the electronic thermal conductivity κ_e of graphene using high frequency Johnson noise the sample design should be made with three additional considerations: stray chip capacitance, resistance of the lead wires, and sample dimensions that enhance electron diffusion cooling over phonon coupling.

Johnson noise thermometry (JNT) relies on measuring the total noise power emitted in a specified frequency band and relating that to the electronic temperature on the device; to maximize the sensitivity, high frequency and wide bandwidth measurements should be made [20]. In the tem-

	S ₁	S ₂	S ₃
length (μm)	3	3	4
width (μm)	9	9	10.5
mobility ($10^5 \text{ cm}^2 \cdot \text{V}^{-1} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}$)	3	2.5	0.8
n_{\min} (10^9 cm^{-2})	5	8	10

Table 5.1: Basic properties of our three samples.

perature range discussed here, the upper frequency limit for JNT is typically set by the amount of stray capacitance from the graphene, lead wires, and contact pads to the Si back gate. This is minimized by using short, narrow lead wires and small ($50 \mu\text{m} \times 50 \mu\text{m}$) bonding pads resulting in an estimated 4 pF stray capacitance.

The amount of Johnson noise emitted between any two terminals is proportional to the mean electronic temperature between them where each point in space is weighted by its local resistance. Therefore, to maximize the signal coming from the graphene, contact resistance should be kept at a minimum. To compensate for the narrow lead wires, we deposit a thicker layer (200 nm) of gold resulting in an estimated total contact resistance of $< 80 \Omega$.

Lastly, to effectively extract κ_e from the total electronic thermal conductance G_{th} we want to enhance the electron diffusion cooling pathway with respect to the electron-phonon cooling pathway (see below). This can be accomplished by keeping the length of the sample short as the total power coupled into the lattice scales as the area of the device while diffusion cooling scales as $1/R$. In addition, the device should be made wide to minimize the effects of disordered edges. We find these high aspect ratio samples ($\sim 3:1$) are ideal for our measurements and serve the additional purpose of lowering the total sample resistance allowing us to impedance match over a wider bandwidth.

5.3 DEVICE CHARACTERIZATION

In this study we measure three graphene devices encapsulated in hexagonal boron nitride (hBN), whose basic properties are detailed in Table 5.1. All devices are two-terminal with mobility estimated as

$$\mu \approx \frac{L}{neRW}, \quad (5.4)$$

where L and W are the sample length and width respectively, e is the electron charge, and n is the charge carrier density. The gate capacitance per unit area $C_g \approx 0.11 \text{ fF}/\mu\text{m}^2$ is estimated considering the 285 nm SiO₂ and ~ 20 nm hBN dielectrics. From this we estimate the charge density

$$n = \frac{C_g(V_g - V_d)}{e} \quad (5.5)$$

where V_d is the gate voltage corresponding to the charge neutrality point (CNP) estimated by the location of the maximum of the curve $R(V_g)$. Fig. 5.4 shows the resistance of all samples as a function of gate voltage.

5.4 JOHNSON NOISE THERMOMETRY

The full Johnson noise thermometry (JNT) setup used in this study is outlined in detail in [20].

Here, we only give a brief synopsis for completeness.

The electronic transport within a dissipative device can be determined by the high frequency

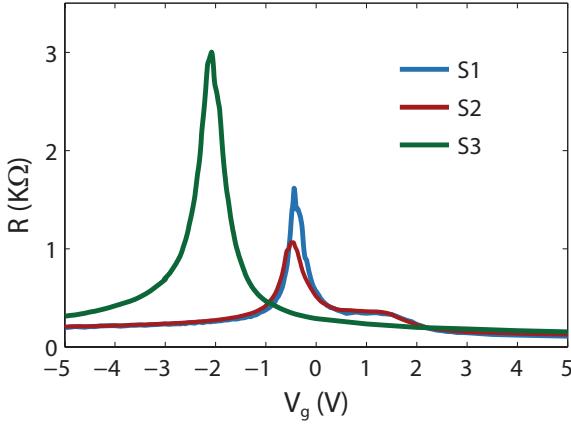


Figure 5.4: 2-terminal resistance R vs. back gate voltage for the 3 samples used in this report.

noise power collected by a low noise amplifier as

$$\langle V^2 \rangle = k_B T_e \times \text{Re}(Z) \Delta f \left[1 - \left(\frac{Z - Z_0}{Z + Z_0} \right)^2 \right] \quad (5.6)$$

where Z is the complex impedance of the device under test, Z_0 is the impedance of the measure circuit (typically 50Ω) and Δf is the bandwidth. From this formula, we can see two critical components of JNT: impedance matching over a wide bandwidth and low noise amplification.

Graphene devices have a typical channel resistance on the order of $h/4e^2 \sim 6 \text{ k}\Omega$ near the CNP. To compensate for this, we use an inductor-capacitor (LC) tank circuit mounted directly on the sample package to impedance match the graphene to the 50Ω measurement network. Fig. 5.5 shows the reflectance coefficient $\mathcal{R} = |S_{11}|^2$ for a typical graphene device after impedance matching. The bandwidth and measurement frequency of our JNT is set by the Q-factor and LC time of this matching network.

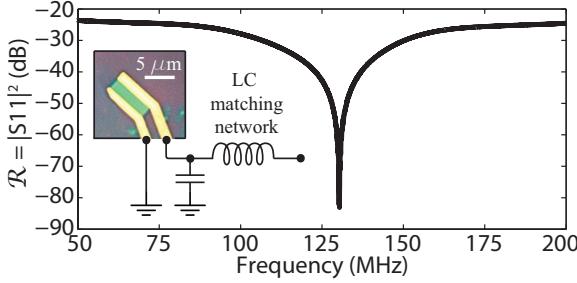


Figure 5.5: Reflectance $R = |S_{11}|^2$ for a graphene device impedance matched to 50Ω near 125 MHz.

At 10 K, the power emitted by a resistor in a 1 Hz bandwidth is $\sim 10^{-22}$ W or -190 dBm. To amplify this signal we use a SiGe low noise amplifier (Caltech CITLF₃) with a room temperature noise figure of about 0.64 dB in our measurement bandwidth, corresponding to a noise temperature of about 46 K. We operate the amplifier at room temperature, outside of the cryostat, to ensure it is unaffected by the 3–300 K temperature ramp used for thermal conduction measurements. After amplification, a homodyne mixer and low pass filter define the measurement bandwidth and the power is found by an analog RF multiplier operating up to 2 GHz (Analog Devices ADL5931). The result is a voltage proportional to the Johnson noise power which – after calibration – measures the electron temperature in the graphene device.

Calibration of our JNT device must be done on every sample as each device has a unique $R(T, V_g)$ and therefore couples differently to the amplifier. The graphene device being measured is placed on a cold finger in a cryostat with varying temperature T_{bath} . With no excitation current in the graphene, we collect the JNT signal $V_s(T, V_g)$ for all temperatures and gate voltage needed in the study, as shown in Fig. 5.6. The linear temperature slope at each point gives a gain factor $g(T, V_g) = \partial V_s / \partial T$.

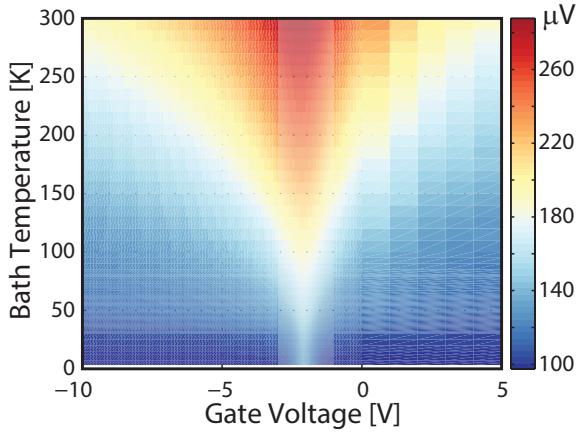


Figure 5.6: Output voltage V_s from the JNT measuring a graphene device with no excitation current. This is used to calibrate the JNT to a given sample.

5.5 MEASURING ELECTRONIC THERMAL CONDUCTANCE

The procedure used to measure electronic thermal conductance is outlined in [20, 31, 89]. A small sinusoidal current $I(\omega)$ is run through the graphene sample, causing a Joule heating power $P(2\omega)$ to be injected directly into the electronic system. This causes a small temperature difference $\Delta T(2\omega)$ between the electronic temperature and the bath, described by Fourier's law:

$$P = G_{\text{th}} \Delta T. \quad (5.7)$$

Here G_{th} is the total thermal conductance between the electronic system and the bath. The component of Johnson noise at frequency 2ω is measured by a lock-in amplifier and then converted to a temperature difference ΔT using the gain $g(T, V_g)$ described in the previous section. Fig. 5.7 shows T_e as a function of heating current I for a graphene device at three different bath temperatures: 3, 30

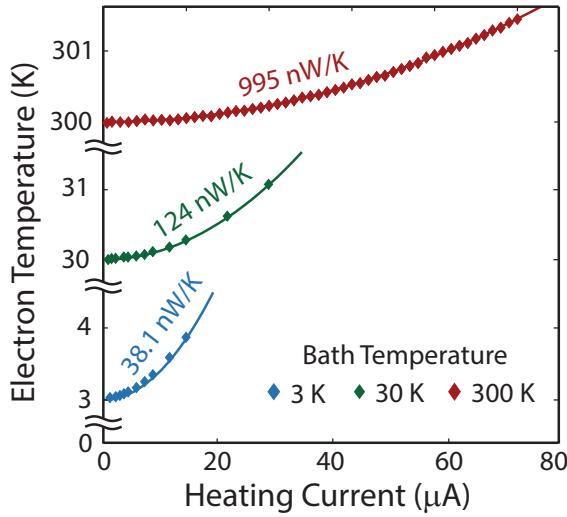


Figure 5.7: The electronic temperature in an encapsulated graphene device as a function of heating current for three different bath temperatures. $T_e = T_{\text{bath}} + I^2 R / G_{\text{th}}$. The total thermal conductance between the electronic system and the bath is found through Fourier's Law (solid lines).

and 300 K.

5.6 THERMAL MODEL OF GRAPHENE ELECTRONS

In the regime presented here, G_{th} is dominated by two electronic cooling pathways. Hot electrons can diffuse directly out to the contacts (G_{diff}), or they can couple to phonons ($G_{\text{el-ph}}$):

$$G \approx G_{\text{diff}} + G_{\text{el-ph}}. \quad (5.8)$$

In a typical metal, electron diffusion is described by the WF law which is linear in T_e . The electron-phonon cooling pathway has two components: first, the electrons must transfer heat to the lattice via electron-phonon coupling, and then the lattice must conduct the heat to the bath. Consistent

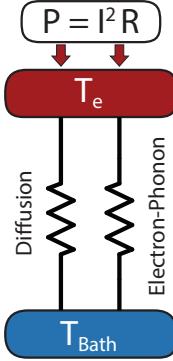


Figure 5.8: Simplified thermal diagram of the electronic cooling pathways in graphene relevant for our experimental conditions. A current induces a heating power into the electronic system which conducts to the bath via two parallel pathways: diffusion and coupling to phonons.

with previous experimental studies on graphene [20, 32, 108, 55], we find $G_{\text{el-ph}}$ is bottlenecked by the weak electron-phonon coupling and hence the lattice is well thermalized to the bath. Fig. 5.8 shows the simplified thermal diagram of the electronic cooling pathways in graphene, relevant to our experiment.

At low temperature, G_{th} is dominated by G_{diff} , while at high temperature it is dominated by $G_{\text{el-ph}}$. Fig. 5.9 shows an illustration of this effect in one of our devices.

5.7 MEASURING THERMAL CONDUCTIVITY

In the diffusion-limited regime, we extract the electronic thermal conductivity κ_e as follows. This is detailed in [31] and we review the basic calculation for clarity. The total power dissipated, P , is given by

$$P = \frac{J^2}{\sigma} LW = \mathcal{P} LW \quad (5.9)$$

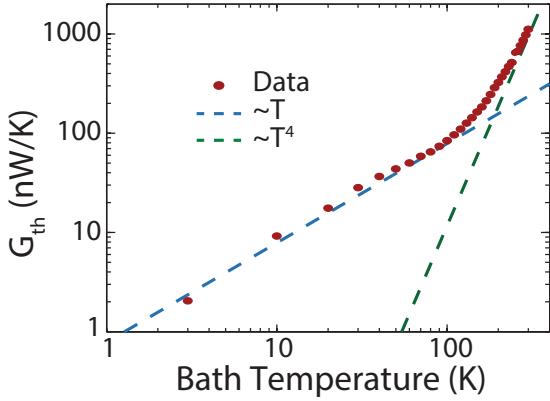


Figure 5.9: The total thermal conductance of a graphene device in the high density regime, illustrating how G_{th} is dominated by either $G_{\text{diff}} \sim T$, as predicted by the WF law, or $G_{\text{el-ph}} \sim T^4$.

where L is the length of the sample in the direction of current flow, W is the width in the perpendicular direction and \mathcal{P} is the local power dissipated. Because this calculation is done in linear response, and the external heat baths on either side of the sample are at the same temperature, the contributions to power dissipated $\sim \kappa(\Delta T)^2$ do not enter so long as $\Delta T \sim J^2$ is small. This is an appropriate assumption in the regime of linear response, where J is treated as a perturbatively small parameter. Fig. 5.7 shows our experiment is in this regime.

Let us now determine the change in the temperature profile. For simplicity we assume that the graphene sample is homogeneous, that the approximately uniform electrical current is given by

$$J = -\sigma \frac{dV}{dx} - \alpha \frac{dT}{dx}, \quad (5.10)$$

and that the heat current is given by

$$Q = -\alpha T \frac{dV}{dx} - \bar{\kappa}_e \frac{dT}{dx}, \quad (5.11)$$

where

$$\bar{\kappa}_e \equiv \kappa_e + \frac{T\alpha^2}{\sigma} = \kappa_e(1 + ZT). \quad (5.12)$$

In the latter equation, ZT is the thermoelectric coefficient of merit. As $\alpha \approx 0$ at the CNP, we expect $ZT \approx 0$, and that $\bar{\kappa}_e \approx \kappa_e$.

dT/dx is the temperature gradient in the sample, and $-dV/dx$ is the electric field in the sample. α/σ is the Seebeck coefficient. We assume that the response of graphene is dominated only by the changes in voltage V and temperature T to a uniform current density J , which is applied externally. We also assume that deviations from constant V and T are small, so that the linear response theory is valid. Joule heating leads to the following equations:

$$0 = \frac{dJ}{dx}, \quad (5.13a)$$

$$\mathcal{P} = \frac{J^2}{\sigma} = \frac{dQ}{dx}, \quad (5.13b)$$

which can be combined to obtain

$$\mathcal{P} = -\kappa_e \frac{d^2T}{dx^2}, \quad (5.14)$$

assuming that κ_e is approximately homogeneous throughout the sample.

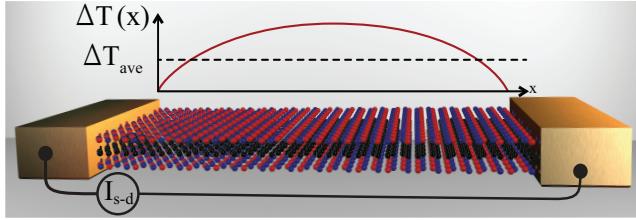


Figure 5.10: Cartoon illustrating the non-uniform temperature profile within the graphene-hBN stack during Joule heating in the diffusion-limited regime.

The contacts in our experiment are held at the same temperature T . Thus, writing

$$T(x) = T_e + \Delta T(x), \quad (5.15)$$

we find that

$$\Delta T(x) = \frac{\mathcal{P}}{2\kappa_e} x(L - x). \quad (5.16)$$

The average temperature change in the sample, which is directly measured through JNT, is

$$\langle \Delta T \rangle = \int_0^L \frac{dx}{L} \Delta T(x) = \frac{\mathcal{P}L^2}{12\kappa_e}. \quad (5.17)$$

This non-uniform temperature profile is illustrated in Fig. 5.10. Combining Eqs. 5.7, 5.9 and 5.17 we obtain

$$G_{th} = \frac{12L}{W} \kappa_e. \quad (5.18)$$

As we have pointed out in the main text, our samples are not perfectly homogeneous, but have local fluctuations in the charge density. Nevertheless, we do recover the WF law in the FL regime,

suggesting that our measurement of G_{th} – and thus κ_e – using JNT, along with the above formalism, is valid.

6

Hydrodynamic framework

Below we present the original text of [?]. Reprinted with permission from A. Lucas, J. Crossno, K. C. Fong, P. Kim and S. Sachdev, “Hydrodynamic transport in quantum critical fluids and in the Dirac fluid in graphene”, Physical Review B93 075426 (2016). Copyright (2016) by the American Physical Society

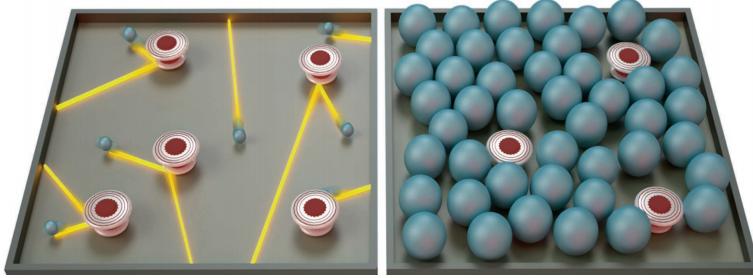


Figure 6.1: caption

6.1 INTRODUCTION

Over a half century ago, the theory of electronic transport in “standard” metals such as iron and copper was developed. The key pillar of this approach is the validity of Fermi liquid theory, which states that the interacting electrons in solids form nearly free-streaming quasiparticles [82]. At finite temperature, these quasiparticles form a weakly interacting quantum gas which is well described by quantum kinetic theory. The transport properties of these quantum gases are by now very well understood. A particularly important property of Fermi liquids is the Wiedemann-Franz law, which states that*

$$\mathcal{L} \equiv \frac{\kappa}{\sigma T} = \frac{\pi^2 k_B^2}{3 e^2} \equiv \mathcal{L}_{WF}. \quad (6.1)$$

Here κ is the electronic contribution to thermal conductivity, σ is the electrical conductivity, T is the temperature, and \mathcal{L} is the Lorenz ratio. Implicit in the above equation is that the dominant interactions are between impurities or phonons and quasiparticles, and in most metals this is true: the interaction time between quasiparticles is typically 10^4 times longer than the interaction times

*Below we have assumed that the charge of the quasiparticles is $\pm e$, with e the charge of the electron – this is essentially always the case.

between quasiparticles and impurities or phonons [4].

Also over a half century ago, a study of the consequences of hydrodynamic behavior on correlation functions and transport in interacting quantum systems was initiated [48]. Hydrodynamics is a framework for understanding the collective motion of the quasiparticles in a solid, or any other interacting quantum or classical system, so long as the microscopic degrees of freedom reach thermal equilibrium locally. In a solid, this interaction time must be the fastest time scale in the problem to see hydrodynamic behavior, but since quasiparticles in a Fermi liquid interact with each other only very weakly, observing hydrodynamics in electron fluids is notoriously hard. Even in the purest metals where hydrodynamic behavior can be observed, such as in GaAs [47? ?], the resulting fluid is often a Fermi liquid. The resulting dynamics is the fluid dynamics of (quantum) gases. More recent theoretical work on hydrodynamics in Fermi liquids includes [2, 71, 99, 84, 100, 56], and recent experimental work includes [6, 72].

Fermi liquid theory is known to fail in a variety of experimentally realized metals in two or more spatial dimensions – most famous among these is the strange metal phase of the cuprate superconductors [67, 18, 49] which does not have quasiparticle excitations. A slightly more theoretically controlled and better understood example of a state of quantum matter without quasiparticles is the quasi-relativistic Dirac fluid in the semimetal graphene. The Dirac fluid, which effectively lives in two spatial dimensions, has also been argued to be strongly interacting at experimentally achievable temperatures [92, 74, 34, 57] due to ineffective Coulomb screening [94]. Although it is separated from the Fermi liquid by a crossover, and not a (thermal) phase transition, its proximity to a (simple) zero temperature quantum critical point at charge neutrality means that the phenomenology

of the Dirac fluid is expected to differ strongly from Fermi liquid theory. Due to the high spatial dimensionality,* the development of a predictive quantitative theory of these systems is notoriously hard. A major theme in recent work has been quantum criticality [22, 88], which opens up the possibility for borrowing powerful techniques from high energy physics, but even in this case very little is known about experimentally relevant regime of finite temperature and density. One of the only remaining techniques for understanding these systems is hydrodynamics, as many features of hydrodynamics are universal and model independent, and the strongly interacting quantum physics is captured entirely by the coefficients in otherwise classical differential equations. Such fluids are quantum analogues of classical liquids such as water, which are strongly interacting (albeit with negligible quantum entanglement) insofar as they do not admit a controllable description via kinetic theory. Furthermore, it has been shown [39] that strongly interacting quantum critical fluids have a somewhat different hydrodynamic description than the canonical Fermi liquids described above, and this can lead to very different hydrodynamic properties, including in transport [39, 74, 34, 73, 75, 33, 24], as we will review in this paper.

Using novel techniques to measure thermal transport [31, 32, 20], the Dirac fluid has finally been observed in monolayer graphene, and evidence for its hydrodynamic behavior has emerged [21], as we will detail. However, existing theories of hydrodynamic transport are not consistent with the simultaneous density dependence in experimentally measured thermal and electrical conductivities. In this paper, we improve upon the hydrodynamic theory of [39], describe carefully effects of finite

*Quantum dynamics in one dimension, which is often integrable, is described using very different techniques and has qualitatively distinct features.

density, and develop a non-perturbative relativistic hydrodynamic theory of transport in electron fluids near a quantum critical point. Under certain assumptions about the equations of state of the Dirac fluid, our theory is quantitatively consistent with experimental observations. The techniques we employ are included in the framework of [60], which developed a hydrodynamic description of transport in relativistic fluids with long wavelength disorder in the chemical potential. [60] was itself inspired by recent progress employing the AdS/CFT correspondence to understand quantum critical transport in strange metals [11, 24, 5, 63, 59, 23, 10, 28, 37], but as we will discuss, this theory is also well suited to describe the physics of graphene.

6.1.1 SUMMARY OF RESULTS

The recent experiment [21] reported order-of-magnitude violations of the Wiedemann-Franz law. The results were compared with the standard theory of hydrodynamic transport in quantum critical systems [39], which predicts that

$$\sigma(n) = \sigma_Q + \frac{e^2 v_F^2 n^2 \tau}{\mathcal{H}}, \quad (6.2a)$$

$$\kappa(n) = \frac{v_F^2 \mathcal{H} \tau}{T} \frac{\sigma_Q}{\sigma(n)}, \quad (6.2b)$$

where e is the electron charge, s is the entropy density, n is the charge density (in units of length $^{-2}$), \mathcal{H} is the enthalpy density, τ is a momentum relaxation time, and σ_Q is a quantum critical effect, whose existence is a new effect in the hydrodynamic gradient expansion of a relativistic fluid. Note that up to σ_Q , $\sigma(n)$ is simply described by Drude physics. The Lorenz ratio then takes the general

form

$$\mathcal{L}(n) = \frac{\mathcal{L}_{\text{DF}}}{(1 + (n/n_0)^2)^2}, \quad (6.3)$$

where

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{DF}} = \frac{v_{\text{F}}^2 \mathcal{H} \tau}{T^2 \sigma_{\text{Q}}}, \quad (6.4a)$$

$$n_0^2 = \frac{\mathcal{H} \sigma_{\text{Q}}}{e^2 v_{\text{F}}^2 \tau}. \quad (6.4b)$$

$\mathcal{L}(n)$ can be parametrically larger than \mathcal{L}_{WF} (as $\tau \rightarrow \infty$ and $n \ll n_0$), and much smaller ($n \gg n_0$). Both of these predictions were observed in the recent experiment, and fits of the measured \mathcal{L} to (6.3) were quantitatively consistent, until large enough n where Fermi liquid behavior was restored. However, the experiment also found that the conductivity did not grow rapidly away from $n = 0$ as predicted in (6.2), despite a large peak in $\kappa(n)$ near $n = 0$, as we show in Figure 6.2. Furthermore, the theory of [39] does not make clear predictions for the temperature dependence of τ , which determines $\kappa(T)$.

In this paper, we argue that there are two related reasons for the breakdown of (6.2). One is that the dominant source of disorder in graphene – fluctuations in the local charge density, commonly referred to as charge puddles [68, 87, 110, 107] – are not perturbatively weak, and therefore a non-perturbative treatment of their effects is necessary.* The second is that the parameter τ , even when it is sharply defined, is intimately related to both the viscosity and to n , and this n dependence is

*See [1, 86] for a theory of electrical conductivity in charge puddle dominated graphene at low temperatures.

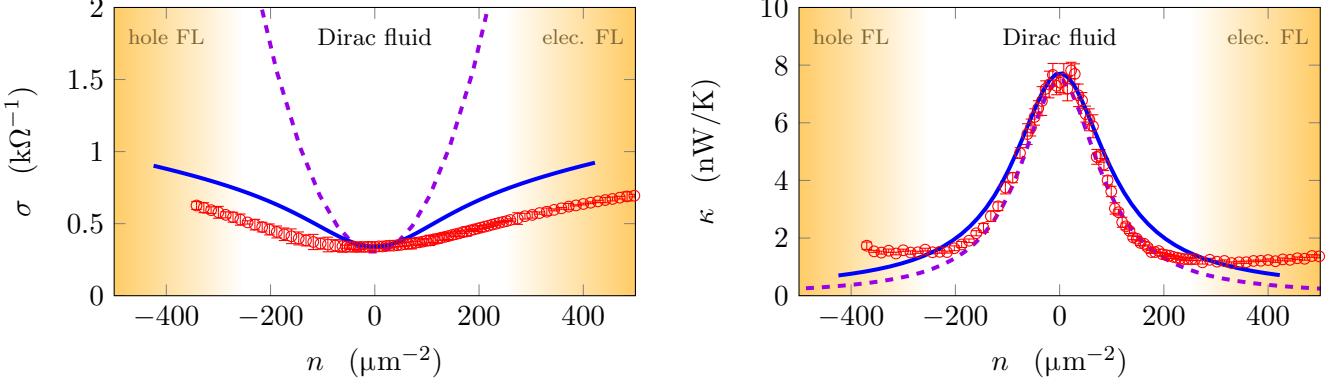


Figure 6.2: A comparison of our hydrodynamic theory of transport with the experimental results of [21] in clean samples of graphene at $T = 75$ K. We study the electrical and thermal conductances at various charge densities n near the charge neutrality point. Experimental data is shown as circular red data markers, and numerical results of our theory, averaged over 30 disorder realizations, are shown as the solid blue line. Our theory assumes the equations of state described in (6.27) with the parameters $C_0 \approx 11$, $C_2 \approx 9$, $C_4 \approx 200$, $\eta_0 \approx 110$, $\sigma_0 \approx 1.7$, and (6.28) with $u_0 \approx 0.13$. The yellow shaded region shows where Fermi liquid behavior is observed and the Wiedemann-Franz law is restored, and our hydrodynamic theory is not valid in or near this regime. We also show the predictions of (6.2) as dashed purple lines, and have chosen the 3 parameter fit to be optimized for $\kappa(n)$.

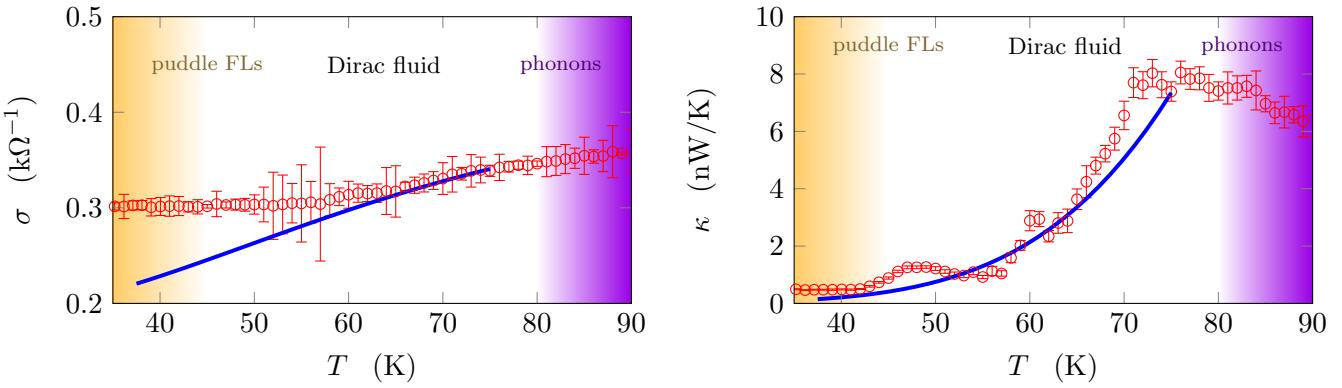


Figure 6.3: A comparison of our hydrodynamic theory of transport with the experimental results of [21] in clean samples of graphene at the charge neutrality point ($n = 0$). We use no new fit parameters compared to Figure 6.2. The yellow shaded region denotes where Fermi liquid behavior is observed; the purple shaded region denotes the likely onset of electron-phonon coupling.

neglected when performing the fit to (6.2) in Figure 6.2. We develop a non-perturbative hydrodynamic theory of transport which relies on neither of the above assumptions, and gives us an explicit formula for τ in the limit of weak disorder. The key assumption for the validity of our theory is that the size of the charge puddles is comparable to or larger than the electron interaction length scale, which is about 100 nm. Experimental evidence suggests this is marginally true in graphene samples mounted on hexagonal boron nitride [107], as was done in [21]. Although we cannot analytically solve our theory non-perturbatively, we perform numerical computations of the transport coefficients in disordered fluids, and compare the results to the experimental data in Figure 6.2. Our simultaneous fit to $\kappa(n)$ and $\sigma(n)$ shows improved quantitative agreement with both sets of data in the Dirac fluid regime. We further compare in Figure 6.3 the temperature dependence of κ and σ between our numerics and the experiment, using no new fitting parameters, and find satisfactory quantitative agreement in the Dirac fluid regime.

Figure 6.4 shows a cartoon of the regime of validity of our hydrodynamic theory. The fact that the charge puddles may be substantial, while the entropy and energy densities are much more constant, helps to explain why the perturbative description of transport is much better for κ than σ , as the perturbative approach works well in a nearly homogeneous fluid. In coming years the quality of graphene samples will improve, and the charge puddle size may grow larger than 100 nm, allowing us to observe the clean hydrodynamic limit described by (6.2). As present day samples are just clean enough to observe hydrodynamics, our determination of the equations of state should be understood as preliminary.

Although the focus of this paper is on the Dirac fluid in graphene, this is because of the experi-

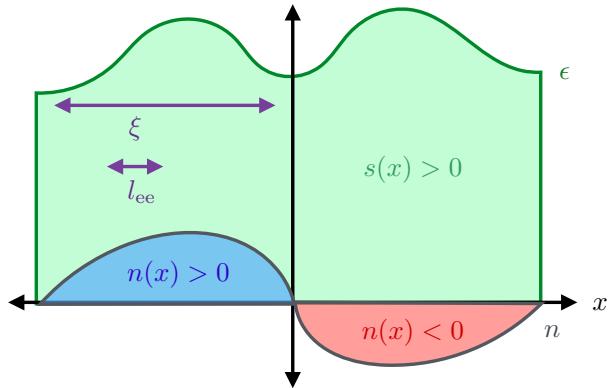


Figure 6.4: A cartoon of a nearly quantum critical fluid where our hydrodynamic description of transport is sensible. The local chemical potential $\mu(x)$ always obeys $|\mu| \ll k_B T$, and so the entropy density s/k_B is much larger than the charge density $|n|$; both electrons and holes are everywhere excited, and the energy density ϵ does not fluctuate as much relative to the mean. Near charge neutrality the local charge density flips sign repeatedly. The correlation length of disorder ξ is much larger than l_{ee} , the electron-electron interaction length.

mental motivation for this work. Our theory has broader validity, and we will introduce it in the more general context of transport in a disordered electronic fluid near a quantum critical point with manifest Lorentz invariance, with the microscopic Fermi velocity v_F playing the role of the speed of light. The Dirac fluid is not strictly Lorentz invariant, but we will justify the validity of our approach even in this system. While the Dirac fluid in graphene is currently the only experimentally realized strongly interacting condensed matter system with evidence for electronic hydrodynamics [21], in the future surface states in topological insulators in three spatial dimensions may host strongly interacting electron fluids [30]. Strongly interacting three dimensional materials including Weyl semimetals [58, 106, 66] may also give rise to novel phenomena relevant for transport [77, 96].

6.1.2 OUTLINE

The outline of this paper is as follows. We briefly review the definitions of transport coefficients in Section 6.2. In Section 6.3 we develop a theory of hydrodynamic transport in the electron fluid, assuming that it is Lorentz invariant. We discuss the peculiar case of the Dirac fluid in graphene in Section 6.4, and argue that deviations from Lorentz invariance are small. We describe the results of our numerical simulations of this theory in Section 6.5, and directly compare our simulations with recent experimental data from graphene [21]. The experimentally relevant effects of phonons are qualitatively described in Section 6.6. We conclude the paper with a discussion of future experimental directions. Appendices contain technical details of our theory.

In this paper we use index notation for vectors and tensors. Latin indices $i j \dots$ run over spatial coordinates x and y ; Greek indices $\mu\nu\dots$ run over time t as well. We will denote the time-like coordinate of A^μ as A^t . Indices are raised and lowered with the Minkowski metric $\eta^{\mu\nu} = \text{diag}(-1, 1, 1)$. The Einstein summation convention is always employed.

6.2 TRANSPORT COEFFICIENTS

Let us begin by defining the thermoelectric response coefficients of interest in this paper. Suppose that we drive our fluid by a spatially uniform, externally applied, electric field E_i (formally, an electrochemical potential gradient), and a temperature gradient $-\partial_i T$. We will refer to $-\partial_j T$ as $T\zeta_j$, with $\zeta_j = -T^{-1}\partial_j T$, for technical reasons later. As is standard in linear response theory, we decompose these perturbations into various frequencies, and focus on the response at a single frequency ω .

Time translation invariance implies that the (uniformly) spatially averaged charge current $\langle J_i \rangle$ and the spatially averaged heat current $\langle Q_i \rangle$ are also periodic in time of frequency ω , and are related to E_i and ζ_i by the thermoelectric transport coefficients:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \langle J_i \rangle \\ \langle Q_i \rangle \end{pmatrix} e^{-i\omega t} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{ij}(\omega) & T\alpha_{ij}(\omega) \\ T\bar{\alpha}_{ij}(\omega) & T\bar{\kappa}_{ij}(\omega) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} E_j \\ \zeta_j \end{pmatrix} e^{-i\omega t}. \quad (6.5)$$

In a typical disordered system, we expect that σ_{ij} , α_{ij} , $\bar{\alpha}_{ij}$ and $\bar{\kappa}_{ij}$ are all proportional to δ_{ij} . In our numerics, finite size effects introduce some anisotropy; our theory is valid in this more general scenario.

In fact, (6.5) is somewhat subtle. Implicit in the definitions of the transport coefficients are a set of boundary conditions. In the definitions in (6.5), we have assumed that we tune E_i and ζ_i , and then measure J_i and Q_i . However, usually in experiments one fixes J_i , as electronic measurements are far easier to control. One then can fix either E_i or ζ_i . So while it is straightforward to measure σ_{ij} by setting $\zeta_i = 0$, one measures not $\bar{\kappa}_{ij}$ but instead κ_{ij} , defined as

$$\langle Q_i \rangle|_{\langle J_i \rangle=0} = T\kappa_{ij}\zeta_j. \quad (6.6)$$

Straightforward manipulations give that $\sigma_{ij}E_j = -T\alpha_{ij}\zeta_j$, and therefore that

$$\kappa_{ij} = \bar{\kappa}_{ij} - T\bar{\alpha}_{ik}\sigma_{kl}^{-1}\alpha_{lj}. \quad (6.7)$$

These definitions are general and independent of our hydrodynamic theory.

6.3 RELATIVISTIC HYDRODYNAMICS

We now develop a theory of relativistic hydrodynamics of the electronic plasma in a disordered metal, where the disorder is introduced by a spatially dependent chemical potential $\mu_0(x)$. So long as the length scale $\xi \sim |\mu_0|/|\partial_x \mu_0|$ over which this function varies is much larger than the electron-electron scattering length $l_{ee} \sim \hbar v_F/k_B T$, it is sensible to treat the fluid as locally homogeneous, with parameters such as energy density and viscosity locally being functions of μ_0 alone. This external chemical potential acts as an external source of energy and momentum for the electronic plasma, and can be sourced by lattice defects or impurities, either in the (semi)metal itself, or in the substrate it is placed on, for two-dimensional materials such as graphene [68, 107]. Our theory here is analogous to [60], and similar to the earlier work [2] in non-relativistic fluids. However, [60] focused mostly on the mathematical consequences of relativistic hydrodynamics, particularly in regards to holographic models. Our focus here is on practical consequences in realistic quantum critical fluids where $\mu \ll k_B T$, and where the equations of state are tightly constrained by scale invariance (see Appendix ??).

Previous theories of hydrodynamic transport assumed that disorder was parametrically weak, and so momentum is a nearly conserved quantity [39, 74]. Such theories can be shown to be a perturbative limit of the more general approach that we advocate below: see [60] and Appendix ??.

However, near the charge-neutrality point, non-perturbative effects can become important [60].

Since this is the regime where [21] observed evidence for hydrodynamic behavior, it is necessary to treat transport in the charge-neutral fluid carefully and to study non-perturbative physics. We begin with a general discussion of the equations of state of a relativistic plasma, and then outline our non-perturbative hydrodynamic description of transport.

Though our focus in this paper is on the case of two spatial dimensions, it is straightforward to generalize our theory to higher dimensions.

6.3.1 HYDRODYNAMIC EQUATIONS

Let us review the structure of relativistic hydrodynamics, which was derived carefully in [39]. Hydrodynamics is a general framework which describes the relaxation of an ergodic and locally thermalizing (classical or quantum) system to global thermal equilibrium, or as close to global equilibrium as boundary conditions or external sourcing allow. The assumption of local thermalization implies that the only quantities with dynamics on long time scales (compared to the local thermalization time l_{ee}/v_F) are quantities that are globally conserved, up to external sources. In a typical theory, these will be charge, energy and momentum, and we will assume this to be the case for graphene as well. Hydrodynamics is a systematic way to truncate equations of motion for the local charge density $n(x)$, energy density $\epsilon(x)$ and momentum density $\Pi_i(x)$, by treating the perturbative parameter as $l_{ee}\partial_\mu$. In fact, it is typical to instead study the dynamics of the thermodynamic conjugate variables: chemical potential $\mu(x)$, temperature $T(x)$ and relativistic velocity $u^\mu(x)$, respectively. u^μ is subject to the usual constraint $u_\mu u^\mu = -v_F^2$.

Note that throughout this paper, “charge density” n refers to the number density of electrons,

minus the number density of holes: $n = n_{\text{elec}} - n_{\text{hole}}$. Thus, there are no factors of e in the definition of n , or chemical potential μ .*

The equations of motion of hydrodynamics are the local conservation laws, up to external sources.

We apply an external chemical potential μ_0 via an external electromagnetic field $A_{\text{ext}}^t = -\mu_0(x)/e$, $A_{\text{ext}}^i = 0$. We employ relativistic notation with $v_F = 1$ temporarily. The equations of hydrodynamics are

$$\partial_\mu T^{\mu\nu} = e F_{\text{ext}}^{\mu\nu} J_\nu, \quad (6.8a)$$

$$\partial_\mu J^\mu = 0, \quad (6.8b)$$

where $F_{\text{ext}}^{ti} = -F_{\text{ext}}^{it} = \partial_i \mu_0$ are the only non-vanishing components, $T^{\mu\nu}$ represents the expectation value of the local stress-energy density, and J^μ the expectation value of the local charge density. $T^{\mu\nu}$ and J^μ must be expressed in terms of μ , T and u^μ in order to obtain a closed set of equations.

One can show that there is a static solution to the hydrodynamic equations with $u^\mu = (1, 0, 0)$, $T = T_0 = \text{constant}$, and $\mu(x) = \mu_0(x)$ [6o]. Recall that $\mu_0(x)$ is slowly varying on the length scale ξ . We will take this solution as the background state of our fluid.

Hydrodynamics is a perturbative expansion of (6.8), where the perturbative expansion parameter is the number of derivatives of space and time. At zeroth order, the equations of state are simply

*Therefore $[n] = [\text{length}]^{-d}$ and $[\mu] = [\text{energy}]$.

that $T^{\mu\nu}$ and J^μ are given by the thermodynamic relations we derived above:

$$T^{\mu\nu} = (\epsilon + P)u^\mu u^\nu + P\eta^{\mu\nu}, \quad (6.9a)$$

$$J^\mu = nu^\mu, \quad (6.9b)$$

with ϵ the energy density and P the pressure. In the fluid's rest frame, $T^{tt} = \epsilon$, $T^{ij} = P\delta^{ij}$, and $J^t = n$, with all other components vanishing. At first order, [39] showed that the most general first derivative corrections to $T^{\mu\nu}$ and J^μ consistent with symmetries and the local second law of thermodynamics are

$$T^{\mu\nu} = (\epsilon + P)u^\mu u^\nu + P\eta^{\mu\nu} - 2\mathcal{P}^{\mu\rho}\mathcal{P}^{\nu\sigma}\eta\partial_{(\rho}u_{\sigma)} - \mathcal{P}^{\mu\nu}(\zeta - \eta)\partial_\rho u^\rho, \quad (6.10a)$$

$$J^\mu = nu^\mu - \frac{\sigma_Q}{e^2}(\eta^{\mu\nu} + u^\mu u^\nu)\left(\partial_\nu\mu - \frac{\mu}{T}\partial_\nu T - eF_{\nu\rho,\text{ext}}u^\rho\right), \quad (6.10b)$$

with $\eta, \zeta, \sigma_Q > 0$, and $\mathcal{P}^{\mu\nu} = \eta^{\mu\nu} + u^\mu u^\nu$. Here η and ζ are the shear and bulk viscosity respectively, and σ_Q is a “quantum critical” conductivity [39]. Note that the external electromagnetic fields show up in the hydrodynamic gradient expansion in the charge current; this happens because the charged fluid is sensitive only to the gradient in the total electrochemical potential [?]. We allow for P, n, η, ζ and σ_Q to all be position-dependent, with their position dependence related to μ_{ext} , as we will describe shortly in more detail.

It has long been appreciated [39] that σ_Q plays a fundamental role in hydrodynamic transport near quantum critical points. More recently [?] argued that η could play a role in transport. We

will carefully detail how η affects transport in this paper, analytically and numerically.

In our extension of this theory to graphene, we will also allow for Coulomb interactions of the fluid to be substantial enough to enter the hydrodynamic equations. However, this should only alter the equations of state, as well as add a further contribution to $F_{\mu\nu,\text{ext}}$ [74], and we will detail this in the subsequent section. The constraints imposed on hydrodynamics from local positivity of entropy production [39] are unchanged in the presence of Coulomb interactions, which are entirely accounted for via a modified $F_{\text{ext}}^{\mu\nu}$.

It is sufficient in our calculation of σ , α and κ to simplify $T^{\mu\nu}$ and J^μ and retain only the terms linear in velocity. One finds, in $d = 2$:

$$T^{ti} = (\epsilon + P)v^i, \quad (6.\text{IIa})$$

$$T^{ij} = P\delta^{ij} - \eta(\partial^i v^j + \partial^j v^i) - (\zeta - \eta)\delta^{ij}\partial_k v^k, \quad (6.\text{IIb})$$

$$J^i = nv^i - \frac{\sigma_Q}{e^2} \left(\partial_i(\mu - \mu_0) - \frac{\mu}{T} \partial_i T \right). \quad (6.\text{IIc})$$

We stress the novel role of σ_Q , a new dissipative transport coefficient in a relativistic fluid, without a direct analogue in the canonical non-relativistic fluid. This term is related to the underlying thermally excited electron-hole plasma, and the fact that electrons and holes can move in opposite directions under an applied electric field, contributing a net electric current.* There is no microscopic thermal conductivity – instead, all microscopic dissipation related to electric and thermal gradients is

*It is qualitatively similar to the bipolar diffusion effect [78, 109] – however, in hydrodynamics the quasiparticle lifetimes are limited by $\hbar/k_B T$, whereas in the bipolar diffusion effect these lifetimes are parametrically long, as in a Fermi liquid.

controlled by σ_Q .

6.3.2 HYDRODYNAMIC THEORY OF TRANSPORT

We are now ready to detail our hydrodynamic calculation of the transport coefficients defined in Section 6.2. We place our fluid in a box of length L in each direction, with periodic boundary conditions on the fluid in every direction. We then apply a constant background E_i and ζ_i .^{*} The static solution above is no longer a solution to the hydrodynamic equations of motion, sourced by these gradients. Now, we generically expect to excite both a spatial electric current J^i , and a spatial heat current

$$Q^i \equiv T^{ti} - \mu J^i. \quad (6.12)$$

We can expand out J^i and Q^i locally as a Taylor series in E_i and ζ_i . The transport coefficients in Section 6.2 are defined by retaining only the linear terms in E_i and ζ_i , and spatially averaging over the local charge and heat currents. It is sufficient to perform a linear response calculation about our

^{*}The application of a constant ζ_j on a periodic space is the reason why we cannot talk about driving the system with a constant temperature gradient, since the temperature is a periodic function in space. One can formally implement ζ_i through deformations of the spacetime metric and external gauge fields [38].

previously identified static solution:

$$\mu \approx \mu_0(x) + \delta\mu(x)e^{-i\omega t}, \quad (6.13a)$$

$$T \approx T_0 + \delta T(x)e^{-i\omega t}, \quad (6.13b)$$

$$u^t \approx 1, \quad (6.13c)$$

$$u^i \approx \delta v^i(x)e^{-i\omega t}, \quad (6.13d)$$

and then solve the linearized hydrodynamic equations – this is equivalent to only keeping terms linear in E_i and ζ_i in the full solution. For ease of notation, we drop the “ δ ” in front of the linear response perturbations in the remainder of the paper, but one should keep in mind that $\mu(x)$, $T(x)$, and v^i are henceforth perturbatively small quantities.

Following [60], the linearized hydrodynamic equations (6.8) can be shown to take the following form:^{*}

$$\begin{aligned} & \begin{pmatrix} -e^{-2}\partial_i\sigma_Q\partial_i & e^{-2}T_0^{-1}\partial_i\mu_0\sigma_Q\partial_i & \partial_j n \\ e^{-2}\partial_i\mu_0\sigma_Q\partial_i & -e^{-2}T_0^{-1}\partial_i\mu_0^2\sigma_Q\partial_i & T_0\partial_j s \\ n\partial_i & s\partial_i & -\partial_i(\zeta - \eta)\partial_j - \partial_i\eta\partial_j - \partial_j\eta\partial_i \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \mu \\ T \\ v_j \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} -e^{-1}\partial_i\sigma_Q(E_i - \mu_0\zeta_i/e) \\ e^{-1}\partial_i\sigma_Q\mu_0(E_i - \mu_0\zeta_i/e) \\ enE_i + T_0s\zeta_i \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned} \quad (6.14)$$

^{*}In this equation, derivatives act on all fields to the right, so $\partial_x\eta\partial_x v^x$ should be read as $\partial_x(\eta\partial_x v^x)$.

Here

$$s = \frac{\epsilon + P - \mu_0 n}{T_0} \quad (6.15)$$

is the entropy density of the background fluid. s and n are not independent, and are related by thermodynamic Maxwell relations: see Appendix ???. We have also employed

$$\partial_i P = n \partial_i \mu + s \partial_i T. \quad (6.16)$$

In particular, s and n are position dependent functions whose position dependence is entirely determined by the local chemical potential: $s(x) = s(T_0, \mu_0(x))$, and similarly for n, η , and all other coefficients in the hydrodynamic equations. The proper boundary conditions to impose on μ, T and v_j are periodicity. This forms a well-posed elliptic partial differential equation and can be numerically solved: see Appendix ???. Combining (6.11) and (6.12), along with μ, T and v^i as found from solving the linear system (6.14), we obtain $J_i(E_j, \zeta_j)$ and $Q_i(E_j, \zeta_j)$. Spatially averaging these quantities and employing (6.5), we obtain σ_{ij}, α_{ij} and $\bar{\kappa}_{ij}$.

We cannot exactly compute these transport coefficients in general. However, one can prove [60] that Onsager reciprocity holds. This is a non-trivial consistency check on the validity of our approach. Furthermore, there exist scaling symmetries combining re-scalings of μ, T and v_i , as well as the equations of state; these are listed in Appendix ???. These are helpful when we fit this theory to the data of [21]. These scaling symmetries are also present in the theory of [39], with the exception of a further scaling symmetry which only affects the viscosity and the length scale of disorder in this

theory.

In the limit where

$$\mu_0 = \bar{\mu}_0 + u\hat{\mu}(x), \quad (6.17)$$

with $\hat{\mu}$ an $O(1)$ function but $u \ll \bar{\mu}_0$, the transport coefficients may be perturbatively calculated analytically, and for $\mu \ll k_B T$, we find that

$$\sigma \approx \frac{e^2 v_F^2 n^2 \tau}{\epsilon + P}, \quad (6.18a)$$

$$\alpha \approx \frac{ev_F^2 ns \tau}{\epsilon + P}, \quad (6.18b)$$

$$\bar{\kappa} \approx \frac{v_F^2 T s^2 \tau}{\epsilon + P}, \quad (6.18c)$$

and we find an analytical expression for τ with the following approximate form near the Dirac point:

$$\frac{1}{\tau} \approx \frac{v_F^2 u^2}{2} \left(\frac{\partial n}{\partial \mu} \right)^2 \left[\frac{e^2}{\sigma_Q(\epsilon + P)} + \frac{\eta + \zeta}{\xi^2} \frac{4\mu^2}{(\epsilon + P)^3} \right]. \quad (6.19)$$

Details of this calculation and a more precise (and complicated) formula are given in Appendix ??.

The requirement that we are “far” from the Dirac point is that $\sigma_Q \ll e^2 v_F^2 n^2 \tau / (\epsilon + P)$. Everything in (6.19) except for u is evaluated in the clean fluid with $u \rightarrow 0$. (6.19) makes clear that if η/ξ^2 is large, the n and μ dependence of τ is not negligible even when $\mu \ll k_B T$, and we will verify this in numerical simulations in Section 6.5. The validity of (6.2) for κ is not guaranteed far from the Dirac point in this perturbative limit, but can often be quite good in practice, when the density dependence of all parameters is accounted for. Combining (6.18) and (6.19), we obtain the relativistic

analogue of the perturbative results of [2].

Noting that $n \sim \mu$ as $\mu \rightarrow 0$, careful study of (6.2) shows that the Lorentzian form of $\kappa(n)$ is not altered by plugging in this hydrodynamic formula for τ , while the form of $\sigma(n)$ can be quite distinct, with $\sigma(n)$ no longer growing quadratically at larger n . This helps explain why in Figure 6.2, (6.2) gave a quantitatively good fit to $\kappa(n)$, but not to $\sigma(n)$.

6.4 THE DIRAC FLUID IN GRAPHENE

The previous section developed a general theory for relativistic fluids. It is often said that the Dirac fluid in graphene is a “quantum critical” system in two spatial dimensions [101, 92, 75], and exhibits behavior analogous to the quantum critical regime at finite temperatures above the superfluid-insulator transition, although technical differences arise. Let us review elementary features of the quantum critical behavior of graphene, and argue that our formalism remains appropriate for transport computations.

Assuming that the electrons in graphene are non-interacting, standard band theory calculations on a honeycomb lattice in two spatial dimensions with nearest-neighbor hopping give two species of Dirac fermions with low-energy dispersion relation

$$\epsilon(\mathbf{q}) \approx \hbar v_F |\mathbf{q}|, \quad (6.20)$$

Convincing experimental evidence for these massless Dirac fermions was given in [? ?]. There is a quantum critical point between electron and hole Fermi liquids at zero temperature in graphene, as

the chemical potential μ is tuned through the Dirac point, $\mu = 0$. At (any experimentally accessible) finite temperature T , and at $\mu \ll T$, an effectively relativistic plasma of electrons and holes forms, interacting via a $1/r$ Coulomb potential. The strength of these Coulomb interactions is captured by a dimensionless number α_0 analogous to the fine structure constant:

$$\alpha_0 = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0\epsilon_r\hbar v_F} \approx \frac{1}{137} \frac{c}{\epsilon_r v_F}, \quad (6.21)$$

where $\epsilon_r \sim 4$ is a dielectric constant, $c \approx 3 \times 10^8$ m/s is the speed of light, $v_F \approx 1.1 \times 10^6$ m/s is the Fermi velocity in graphene and e is the charge of the electron. In experiments, $\alpha_0 \sim O(1)$, and so unlike quantum electrodynamics ($\alpha_{QED} \approx 1/137$), interactions are *strong*. v_F plays the role of the speed of light in an effectively relativistic electron-hole plasma, and in an experimentally accessible regime which we describe below, one can use relativistic hydrodynamics to model thermoelectric transport in graphene.

The exception to the emergent Lorentz invariance is the photon-mediated Coulomb interactions, which are the standard $1/r$ interaction of three spatial dimensions. Further, because $v_F \sim c/300$, the Coulomb interaction is essentially non-local and instantaneous in time. Despite this, graphene shares many features with a truly relativistic plasma with “speed of light” v_F , including a “quantum critical” diffusive conductivity σ_Q [73].

Analogously to in quantum electrodynamics, α is a marginally irrelevant interaction, and so the

effective coupling constant runs. At temperature $T \rightarrow 0$, we should replace α_0 with [92]

$$\alpha_{\text{eff}} = \alpha_0 \left(1 + \frac{\alpha_0}{4} \log \frac{\Lambda}{T_0} \right)^{-1} \quad (6.22)$$

where $\Lambda \sim 8.4 \times 10^4$ K is a cutoff related to the graphene band structure (the energy scale at which the dispersion is no longer linear). Note that although the running of α_{eff} causes a logarithmically increasing velocity v_F in (6.20), when we write v_F in this paper, we are always referring to the bare velocity, 1.1×10^6 m/s.

At the experimentally accessible temperatures ($T_0 \sim 70$ K) where the plasma described above is most likely not suppressed by local disorder in μ [21], (6.22) gives $\alpha_{\text{eff}} \sim 0.25$. And so the experiments likely probe the dynamics of a strongly interacting quasi-relativistic plasma. It is such a regime where hydrodynamics is a good approximation. More carefully, the electron-electron scattering length has quantum critical scaling [73]

$$l_{\text{ee}} \sim \frac{\hbar v_F}{\alpha_{\text{eff}}^2 k_B T_0} \sim 100 \text{ nm}, \quad (6.23)$$

where we have plugged in for experimentally reasonable values of the parameters. Indeed, pump-probe experiments provide evidence that the electron-electron interaction time, $l_{\text{ee}}/v_F \sim 10^{-13}$ s, is consistent with (6.23) [14, 45]. Furthermore, it is believed that the dominant source of disorder in graphene are charge puddles, which are fluctuations in the local charge density. It is now possible to find samples of graphene where these fluctuations are correlated on the length scale (6.23) [107].

In these cleanest samples, the experimental evidence thus points to the validity of a hydrodynamic description, such as the one we advocate in this paper.

Most computations of the thermodynamic and hydrodynamic coefficients in graphene are based on kinetic theory, which requires a quasiparticle description to be sensible, and so are valid as $\alpha_{\text{eff}} \rightarrow 0$ ($T_0 \rightarrow 0$), when the plasma becomes weakly interacting. However, the experiments are likely not in this weakly interacting regime, and $\log \alpha_{\text{eff}}$ corrections to these properties are not negligible. As such, we will allow *all* coefficients in the equations of motion to be fit parameters. We will also neglect the fact that the running of $\alpha_{\text{eff}}(T_0)$ allows for certain thermodynamic relations for a strictly scale invariant, relativistic fluid to be violated. This assumption is justified in Appendix ??.

We must also take into account the long range Coulomb interactions in our hydrodynamic description. This can be done following [74]. The Coulomb potential introduces a local electric field and must be included in $F_{\text{ext}}^{\mu\nu}$:

$$A_{\text{ext}}^t = \mu_{\text{ext}} - \varphi = \mu_{\text{ext}} - \varphi_{\text{ext}} - \delta\varphi \quad (6.24)$$

where

$$\varphi(\mathbf{x}) = \int d^2y K(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) n(\mathbf{y}), \quad (6.25)$$

with K a Coulomb kernel whose specific form [44] is not necessary for our purposes, and the n the charge density. At $T_0 = 0$, $K(r) = \alpha_{\text{eff}}/r$; at finite T_0 , this is cut-off at long wavelengths due to thermal screening [44]. In (6.24) we have separated the effects of Coulomb screening into two

contributions: φ_{ext} , which alters the background disorder profile, so that $\mu_0 \neq \mu_{\text{ext}}$, and $\delta\varphi$, which is the infinitesimal Coulomb potential created by the change in charge density δn , proportional to E_i and ζ_i .

The time-independent equations of motion depend only on T , v_i , the sources E_i and ζ_i , and the electrochemical potential

$$\delta\Phi \equiv \delta\mu + \delta\varphi. \quad (6.26)$$

This is a direct consequence of the tightly constrained way that F_{ext} and μ enter the hydrodynamic gradient expansion. If we solve for $\delta\Phi$ instead of $\delta\mu$, we find that Coulomb screening does not affect dc transport at all: more precisely, the equations of motion are identical to those in Section 6.3, but with $\delta\Phi$ replacing $\delta\mu$. That dc transport is insensitive to Coulomb screening of the hydrodynamic degrees of freedom was also noted in [74] in a homogeneous fluid by appealing to the random phase approximation.* It is therefore appropriate to directly apply the formalism of Section 6.3 to study dc thermal and electric transport in the Dirac fluid in graphene. To maintain notation with Section 6.3, we will continue to refer to Φ as μ in our linear response theory, with the understanding that this includes corrections due to Coulomb screening.

6.5 NUMERICAL RESULTS

Having argued that the theory of Section 6.3 is an acceptable approximation for dc transport in the Dirac fluid in graphene, we now present the results of numerical simulations of (6.14). In our

*See also the discussion in [82, 62].

numerics, we assume that the equations of state of the graphene fluid are as follows:

$$n(\mu_0) = \left(\frac{k_B T_0}{\hbar v_F} \right)^2 \left[C_2 \frac{\mu_0}{k_B T_0} + C_4 \left(\frac{\mu_0}{k_B T_0} \right)^3 \right], \quad (6.27a)$$

$$s(\mu_0) = \frac{k_B^3 T_0^2}{(\hbar v_F)^2} \left[C_0 + \frac{C_2}{2} \left(\frac{\mu_0}{k_B T_0} \right)^2 - \frac{C_4}{4} \left(\frac{\mu_0}{k_B T_0} \right)^4 \right], \quad (6.27b)$$

$$\eta(\mu_0) = \frac{(k_B T_0)^2}{\hbar v_F^2} \eta_0, \quad (6.27c)$$

$$\zeta(\mu_0) = 0, \quad (6.27d)$$

$$\sigma(\mu_0) = \frac{e^2}{\hbar} \sigma_0, \quad (6.27e)$$

with $C_{0,2,4}$, σ_0 and η_0 dimensionless constants. The form of n and s are consistent with thermodynamic Maxwell relations – see Appendix ???. We take the disorder profile to be random sums of sine waves, and normalize the disorder distribution so that

$$\langle (\mu_0 - \bar{\mu}_0)^2 \rangle = u_0^2 (k_B T_0)^2. \quad (6.28)$$

The shortest wavelength sine wave in the problem is taken to have wavelength $\xi = l_{ee}$ in all of our numerics. There is an exact symmetry of the problem under which ξ can be made arbitrary, so long as we rescale η and ζ by a factor of $(\xi/l_{ee})^2$ – see Appendix ???. We have chosen this value of ξ as it is roughly consistent with previous experimental observations [107], and also the smallest value for which a hydrodynamic description is sensible. More details on numerical methods are in Appendix ??.

An example of our numerical results is shown in Figure 6.5, where the results of varying the dimensionless viscosity η_0 are shown. When the charge puddle sizes are ~ 20 K, as in experiment [107], the value of η_0 dramatically alters the transport coefficients as a function of density. In particular, the $\sigma(n)$ and $\alpha(n)$ curves are substantially flattened, an effect which is predicted using (6.19). Further, the peak in $\kappa(n)$ is substantially smaller than predicted perturbatively, and $\kappa(n)$ does not shrink to 0 as $n \rightarrow \infty$, as predicted in [39]. In contrast, in a limit of extremely weak disorder (temperature at which the Dirac fluid emerges ~ 0.2 K), the transport coefficients are relatively insensitive to the viscosity (assuming that $\eta_0/C_0 \sim 1$, as expected for a strongly interacting quantum fluid).

We also show the consequences of a non-zero C_4 in Figure 6.6. The most important effect of C_4 is that n and $\bar{\mu}_0$ are no longer proportional – in particular, when $C_4 > 0$ we see that at larger n both σ and α decrease much more slowly with n . Whenever $C_4 \neq 0$, the equations of state become badly behaved at large μ , because $s(\mu)$ or $n(\mu)$ becomes a non-monotonically increasing function. At lower temperatures ($T \lesssim 50$ K) in Figure 6.3, this begins to be an issue in the codes for the equations of state we use to compare to experiment. This implies that higher order terms in the equations of state (associated with more fit parameters) are necessary.

6.5.1 COMPARISON TO EXPERIMENT

We now describe in more details the lessons to be drawn from our fit to experimental data, shown in Figures 6.2 and 6.3. Due to a total of 6 fit parameters (3 which determine the overall scales in the plots, and 3 which alter the shapes of curves), we did not perform an exhaustive analysis and find

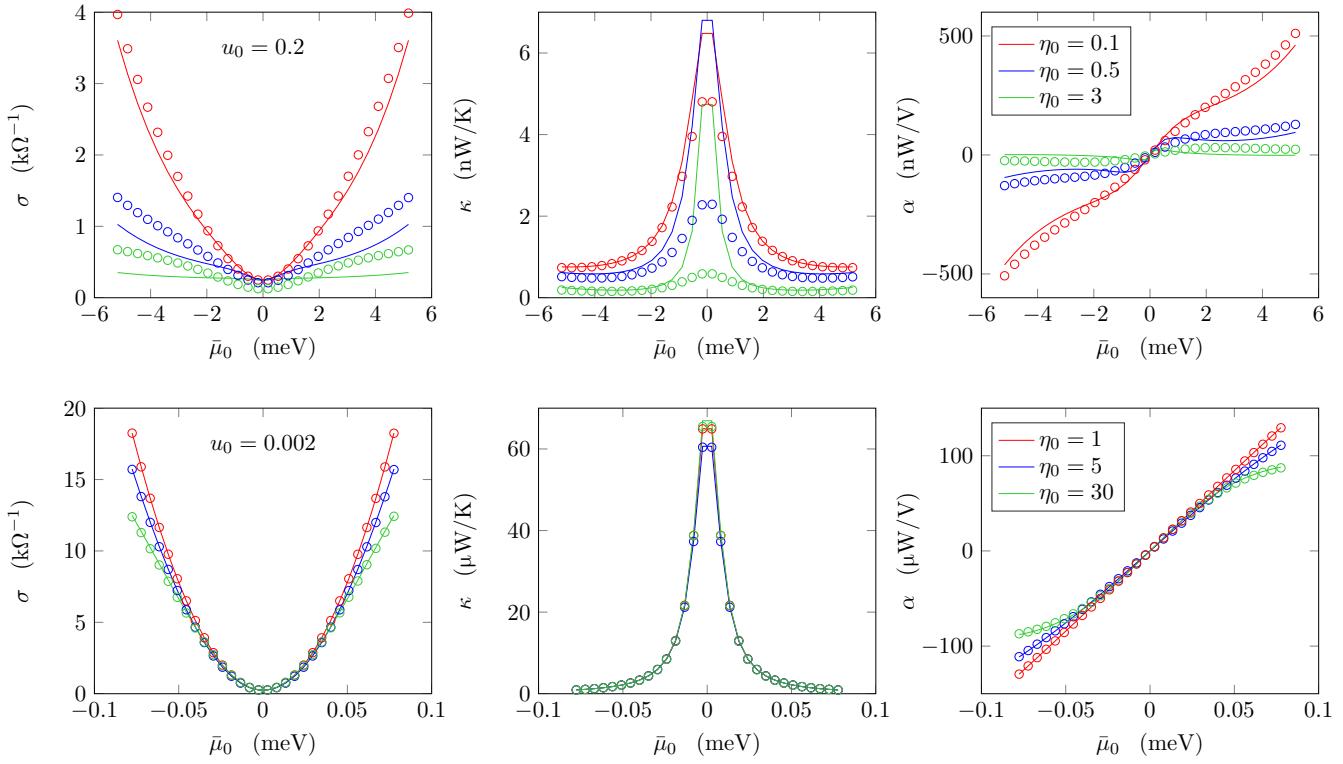


Figure 6.5: Numerical computations of transport coefficients with $C_1 = C_2 = \sigma_0 = 1$ and $C_4 = 0$. The top row has $u_0 = 0.2$, and the bottom row has $u_0 = 0.002$. Solid lines are our theoretical results (using the particular disorder realizations studied) and the circular markers are numerical results. Averages are taken over 20 disorder realizations. $T_0 = 75$ K and we employ the value of v_F in graphene.

a statistically optimal fit. We found that most choices of parameters do not agree well with data, and the fit we have presented serves as a proof of principle that hydrodynamics can explain many important features of the experiment [21], as we now discuss.

To obtain data at lower temperatures, we have taken disorder realizations from $T_0 = 75$ K, using our standard assumption $\xi = l_{ee}(T_0 = 75 \text{ K})$, and simply lowered the temperature. We also keep $u_0 T_0$ constant as a function of T_0 . Formally, this implies that at lower temperatures $\xi < l_{ee}$, as $l_{ee} \sim T^{-1}$; this may be problematic for the validity of hydrodynamics. A conservative solution,

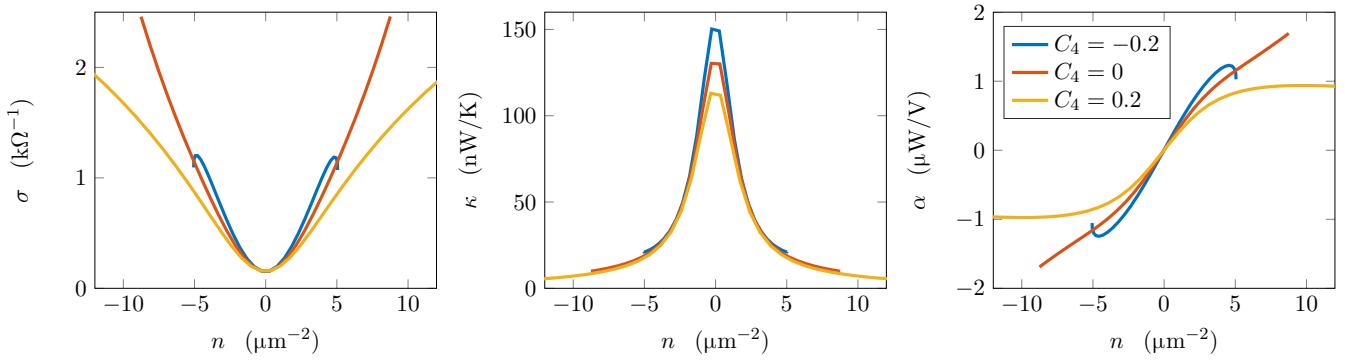


Figure 6.6: Numerical computations of transport coefficients with varying C_4 , $C_1 = \sigma_0 = 1$, $\eta_0 = 3$, $C_2 = 0.2$ and $u_0 = 0.2$. The sharp change in behavior when $C_4 < 0$ is a consequence of $n(\mu)$ not being monotonically increasing at large μ . Averages are taken over 20 disorder realizations. $T_0 = 75$ K and we employ the value of v_F in graphene.

employing the rescaling symmetries of our theory, is to simply double ξ , and quadruple η_0 : all data

is exactly identical, except that for all data points taken in Figure 6.3, $\xi > l_{ee}$ and η_0 increases.

Figure 6.7 revisits the T -dependence in κ . Assuming that disorder is weak, we employ (6.18) and (6.19) to determine the scaling of κ : since $s \sim T^2$, $\epsilon + P \sim T^3$, $\partial n / \partial \mu \sim T$, and the viscosity dependence in τ is negligible, we obtain $\tau \sim T$ and $\kappa \sim T^3$. That numerics and experiment are not consistent with this power law is a sign of the strong non-perturbative effects, and suggests that observing power law signatures of hydrodynamics may only be possible in the cleanest samples: see Figure 6.7. Figure 6.8 suggests that the sharp dependence in T observed in experiment is a consequence of $C_4 > 0$ and is not a robust scaling regime.* As noted in [21], this dramatic T -dependence of κ , in contrast with the very weak T -dependence of σ , at the Dirac point, is a tell-tale sign of hydrodynamics that is not captured by competing theories, such as the bipolar diffusion effect.

*For this particular simulation, the disorder becomes large enough at $T \lesssim 7.5$ K that disorder realizations with $C_4 = 0.1$ sometimes have unphysical thermodynamic behavior.

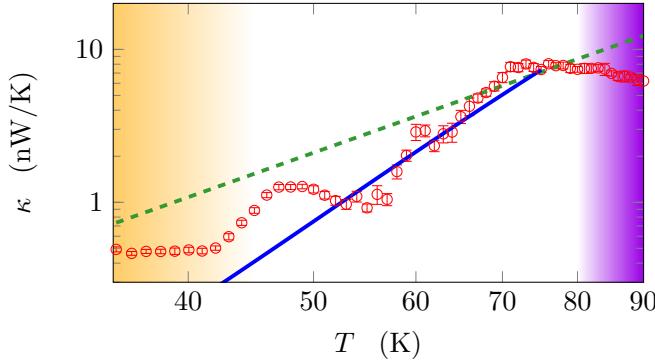


Figure 6.7: A comparison of our numerical computation of $\kappa(T)$ with experimental results of [21] at the charge neutrality point ($n = 0$). The red data points are experimental data from [21], the blue curve is our disorder-averaged simulation (using identical parameters to Figure 6.3), and the green dashed curve is the perturbative prediction $\kappa \sim T^3$ for comparison. Data is shown on a log-log scale. The yellow shaded region denotes where Fermi liquid behavior is observed; the purple shaded region denotes the likely onset of electron-phonon coupling.

The fits to $\sigma(n)$ and $\sigma(T)$ are not as good as the fits to κ . Nonetheless, our theory does help to explain the slow growth in σ away from the Dirac point, as a consequence of a fluid with both non-negligible viscosity and large disorder, as in Figure 6.5. Our simulations also correctly predict that the conductivity is an increasing function of T , an entirely non-perturbative effect, in Figure 6.3. This is at odds with predictions from kinetic theory in the Dirac fluid, which predict that $\sigma(n = 0, T) \sim \alpha_{\text{eff}}^{-2}$ should be decreasing with T due to the T -dependence in α_{eff} [73]. Any residual contact resistance [104] will also increase the growth rate of $\sigma(n)$ away from the Dirac point, and as such will be closer fit by our numerical results in Figure 6.2.

The most surprising thing about the fit is the large values of all coefficients, compared to previous theories. For example, it is predicted [101, 92] that $C_0 \lesssim 3.4$, and we find $C_0 \sim 10$. This is a direct consequence of the large values of the density n over which the Dirac fluid is present (as measured by where strong deviations from the Wiedemann-Franz law occur). The naive theoretical estimate is

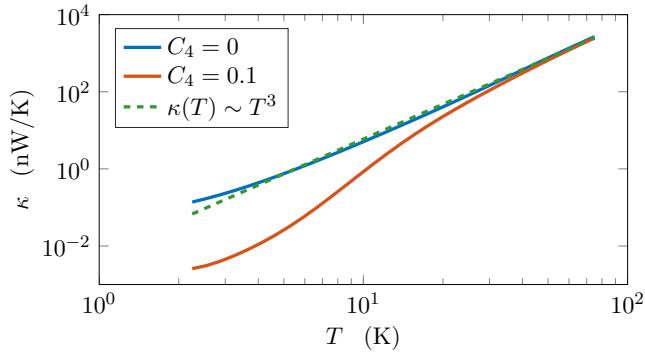


Figure 6.8: A comparison of $\kappa(T)$ in simulations with varying C_4 . We take $C_0 = 1, C_2 = \eta_0 = 0.1, \sigma_0 = 1, u_0 = 0.1$ (at $T_0 = 75$ K). At large T both scenarios have $\kappa \sim T^3$; at lower T the fluid with $C_4 > 0$ undergoes a dramatic drop in $\kappa(T)$, similar to that observed in experiment.

that the Dirac fluid should not extend past about $n \sim 40 \text{ } \mu\text{m}^{-2}$,^{*} yet we see the Dirac fluid all the way to about $n \sim 200 \text{ } \mu\text{m}^{-2}$; we will comment more on this issue shortly. As in non-relativistic fluid dynamics, our hydrodynamic theory has a large number of rescaling symmetries (Appendix ??), and these rescaling symmetries turn out to lead to very large values for all hydrodynamic coefficients as a consequence of the large scale on the density axis in Figure 6.2.

Another consequence of this rescaling is a dramatically large shear viscosity: $\eta_0 \sim 100$. It is now canonical to normalize this by the entropy density, and so the “proper units” to measure η in are $\eta_0/C_0 \approx 10$. This scaling is a consequence of a proposition [51] that strongly coupled theories would have $\eta/s \approx \hbar/4\pi k_B$, or $\eta_0/C_0 \approx 1/4\pi$. The viscosity is a helpful measure of the interaction strength in a theory; if the interactions are perturbatively controlled by a small parameter g , then we expect $\eta \sim g^{-2}$; only when the interaction strength is large can $\eta \sim s$, up to a prefactor of order unity. Hence, coming close to saturating the bound of [51] is a signature that the fluid is strongly

*We have used theoretically predicted values of C_0 and C_2 [92], and assumed that the Dirac fluid ends when the μ -dependent contribution to s is comparable to the T -dependent contribution.

interacting. Our estimate for η_0/C_0 is about 100 times larger than the bound of [51]. Smaller values of $\eta/s \sim 0.5\hbar/k_B$ have been reported in other experiments in cold atomic gases [16] and quark-gluon plasma [65]. The possibility of adding the Dirac fluid to a list of strongly interacting quantum fluids is tantalizing, and a more direct measure of η in the Dirac fluid is of interest.

One possibility is that our bare coefficients C_0 , η_0 etc. are anomalously large because [21] has measured the average charge density in the entire sample. However, some regions of the sample (notably close to the contacts on the edges [42], or regions very close to impurities) may have such large local values of μ_0 that they are always in a Fermi liquid regime. So long as these Fermi liquid regimes do not percolate across the entire sample, our hydrodynamic description of transport may be quite reasonable in the bulk. However, these regions have a much smaller compressibility, and so can absorb a lot of charge relative to a clean Dirac fluid. It may be that the total averaged charge density is then not equal to the averaged hydrodynamic charge density, leading us to overestimate n . Rescaling $n \rightarrow \lambda n$ would rescale $C_0 \rightarrow \lambda C_0$ and $\eta_0 \rightarrow \lambda^2 \eta_0$. Choosing $\lambda = 0.2$, in accordance with our previous estimates on the regime of the Dirac fluid at $T_0 \sim 75$ K, we obtain $C_0 \sim 2$ and $\eta_0/C_0 \sim 2$, which are both reasonable for a strongly interacting fluid.

As noted previously, we expect that future measurements in cleaner samples may give a wider separation between l_{ee} and ξ . Together with a better understanding of edge effects and the charge puddle profile, we expect this approach to lead to cleaner estimates of $C_{0,2,4}$, η_0 and σ_0 .

6.6 PHONONS IN GRAPHENE

Throughout this work we have neglected the effects of electron-phonon coupling in graphene [31, 32]. In this section, we provide some brief qualitative comments on the role of electron-phonon coupling in the experiment [21], and discuss signatures for future experiments.

Generically, phonons extract both energy and momentum from the electronic fluid, and in doing so hamper a hydrodynamic description.* In graphene, the acoustic branch(es) of phonons have dispersion relation [43]

$$\omega_{\text{ac}}(\mathbf{q}) \approx \hbar v_a |\mathbf{q}| \quad (6.29)$$

with $v_a \approx 2 \times 10^4$ m/s and so $v_a \ll v_F$. By considering conservation of energy and momentum in electron-phonon scattering events, one finds that the phonon energies are negligible, and thus the scattering event can be treated as elastic from the point of view of the electrons.

If only acoustic phonons couple to the electronic fluid, we may approximate that the momentum conservation equation is modified, following the phenomenology of [39]:

$$\partial_\mu T^{\mu i} \approx F_{\text{ext}}^{\nu i} J_\nu - \frac{T^{ti}}{\tau_a}. \quad (6.30)$$

The latter term implies that the momentum of the electronic fluid degrades at a constant rate τ_a^{-1} ,

*The hydrodynamic description of transport reduces to a diffusion equation for the conserved electrical current. Historically, this was modeled via resistor networks [50, 26].

which we take to be

$$\frac{1}{\tau_a} = \mathcal{B}T^a, \quad (6.31)$$

where $a > 0$ and $\mathcal{B} > 0$ are constants that are phenomenological. [43] computed their values using kinetic theory and found $a = 4$ far from the Dirac point. This effect has been observed experimentally [29], but a is expected to change near the Dirac point. Following arguments similar to [4, 43], we can estimate a by assuming a quasiparticle description of transport, and that the dominant events are absorption or emission of a single phonon. Since acoustic phonons cannot effectively carry away energy, a Dirac quasiparticle of energy ϵ can scatter into $\sim \epsilon$ states. All phonons with relevant momenta are thermally populated, and we estimate the scattering rate to be proportional to the momentum of the phonon. Thus we estimate, using that the typical quasiparticle energy is $\epsilon \sim T$, $a = 1 + 1 = 2$.*

Assuming that the charge puddles are small and can be accounted for perturbatively, κ is approximately given by (6.2) at the Dirac point, with

$$\frac{1}{\tau} \approx \frac{u^2}{2\sigma_Q(\epsilon + P)} \left(\frac{\partial n}{\partial \mu} \right)^2 + \mathcal{B}T^a = \frac{\mathcal{A}u^2}{T^b} + \mathcal{B}T^a. \quad (6.32)$$

Our analytic theory predicts $b = 1$. The contribution κ from electron-phonon coupling is negligible so long as

$$T \ll T^* \equiv \left(\frac{\mathcal{A}}{\mathcal{B}} u^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{b+a}}. \quad (6.33)$$

*As there is no large Fermi surface with $\mu \gg k_B T$, no further corrections to a are necessary, as in usual metals.

Note that $T^*(u)$ is an increasing function – the weaker the disorder, the lower the temperature at which electron-phonon coupling cannot be neglected in the Dirac fluid. The thermal conductivity scales as

$$\kappa \sim \begin{cases} T^{2+b} & T \ll T^* \\ T^{2-a} & T \gg T^* \end{cases} \quad (6.34)$$

If $a > 2$, we find phenomenology quite similar to that observed in [21], with $\kappa(T)$ growing non-monotonically. We also find that

$$\kappa(T^*) = \mathcal{C}(T^*)^{2-a}, \quad (6.35)$$

a result which can be tested in experiment by measuring T^* via the peak in κ for different samples.

The prefactor of this proportionality \mathcal{C} may not be very sensitive to the particular sample, since it is independent of u . Figure 6.9 shows a sketch of $\kappa(T)$, accounting for acoustic phonons, in three samples with different disorder strengths u . This mechanism is also consistent with the fact that the cleaner samples in [21] had peaks in $\kappa(T)$ at lower temperatures, which suggests our proposed mechanism for the non-monotonicity in $\kappa(T)$ is sensible. Although our perturbative quasiparticle-based argument found $a = 2$ above, the presence of local charge puddles may increase the effective value of a to somewhere between 2 and 4, and lead to $\kappa(T^*)$ be a decreasing function. A careful analysis of electron-phonon coupling in disordered Dirac fluids is worth more study.

At higher temperatures, we expect optical phonons to couple non-negligibly to the electron fluid. These phonons can exchange both energy and momentum effectively, and at this point we expect the measured thermal conductivity to increase due to electron-phonon coupling. In [21], there is a

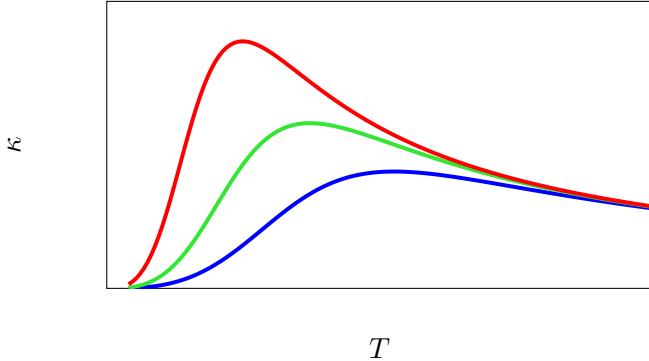


Figure 6.9: A sketch of $\kappa(T)$, accounting for coupling to acoustic phonons, for samples of graphene with three different amounts of disorder (measured by u). We take $a = 3, b = 1$ in this plot.

sharp upturn in $\kappa(T)$ at all densities at temperatures of 100 K, which is likely due to activation of optical phonons in the boron nitride substrate [20].

6.7 CONCLUSIONS

We have developed a theory of transport in realistic hydrodynamic electron fluids near a quantum critical point. This theory provides a substantially improved quantitative fit to $\kappa(n)$ and $\sigma(n)$ simultaneously. We have further found reasonable quantitative fits to $\sigma(T)$ and $\kappa(T)$ at the Dirac point, giving us valuable information about the mechanism of momentum relaxation beyond the theory of [39].

Although we have managed to find fluids where the growth in $\sigma(n)$ is quite slow, there are still differences between the shape of $\sigma(n)$ found numerically and in experiment. There are numerous possibilities for residual discrepancies. One of the most important possibilities is that the disorder is so strong that the full thermodynamic equation of state is necessary – in this paper, we have only

kept the three leading order terms. Alternatively, we may simply not have found the correct equation of state of graphene. A disorder profile more subtle than superimposed sines and cosines may also be responsible for deviations with our theory, although our investigation into this possibility suggests that other disorder profiles cause $\sigma(n)$ to have more substantial density dependence. We have assumed that the disorder profile is unaltered both by changes in T and in $\bar{\mu}_0$. This is a very strong assumption and need not be true. Finally, there may be other sources of momentum relaxation, such as out-of-plane distortions in the graphene lattice, or interactions with phonons. An understanding of the aforementioned issues is an important future task, though may be quite challenging given the possibility that strong interactions in the Dirac fluid at $T \sim 70$ K may lead to the failure of standard perturbative techniques. The most fruitful direction for resolving at least some of these questions may be directly in experiments: for example, techniques to directly resolve the local charge density on length scales $\lesssim 10$ nm are well known [107], and can shed light into the evolution of μ_0 as a function of T , as well as the spatial correlations in μ_0 .

Experimentally, it may be possible to generate samples of graphene with much weaker charge puddles using suspended devices [13, 69]. Thermodynamic measurements can also be used to determine the coefficients $C_{0,2,4}$, though these measurements are complicated by the presence of disorder, as we discuss in Appendix ???. Nonetheless, measurements of the specific heat and compressibility in the Dirac fluid will serve as valuable guideposts for future hydrodynamic models. Such measurements have been made in the Fermi liquid [68], and their extension to the Dirac fluid form the basis for worthwhile experiments.

Previous experiments which measured the ac conductivity [41] were not in the hydrodynamic

limit. Comparing the momentum relaxation time τ between measurements of κ , and a putative Drude peak in ac transport, may provide a quantitative test of our theory. Studying magnetotransport [39] may also be a fruitful direction in experiments. A theoretical discussion of transport at finite frequency and magnetic field beyond the weak disorder limit will appear elsewhere. The thermopower of graphene has recently been measured at $T \sim 200$ K [35], and it would be interesting to measure σ , α and κ in the same sample in the Dirac fluid and compare with our hydrodynamic formalism.

*Since the dawn of time, man hath sought to make things
smaller.*

Eric Bachmann

7

Magneto-thermal transport

THERE'S SOMETHING TO BE SAID for having a good opening line.

8

Conclusions and future work

References

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