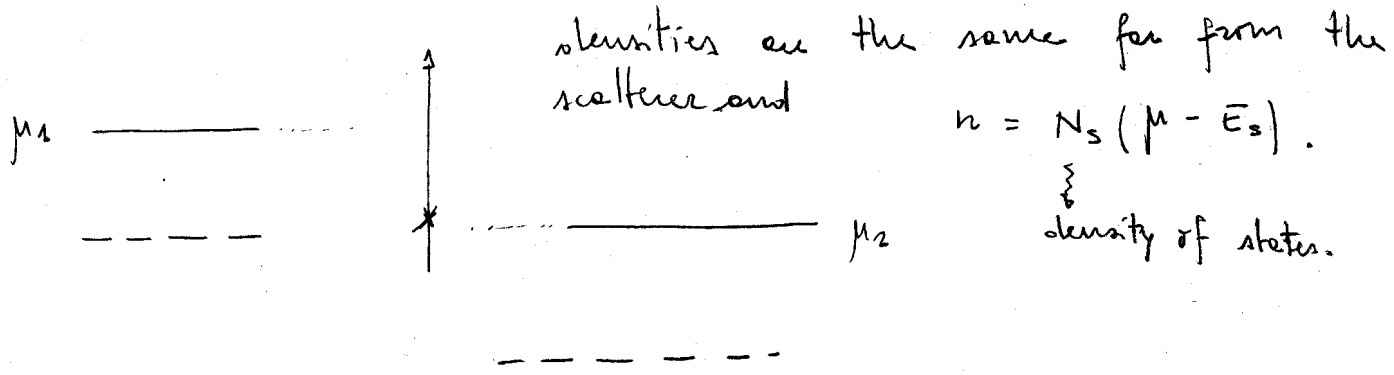
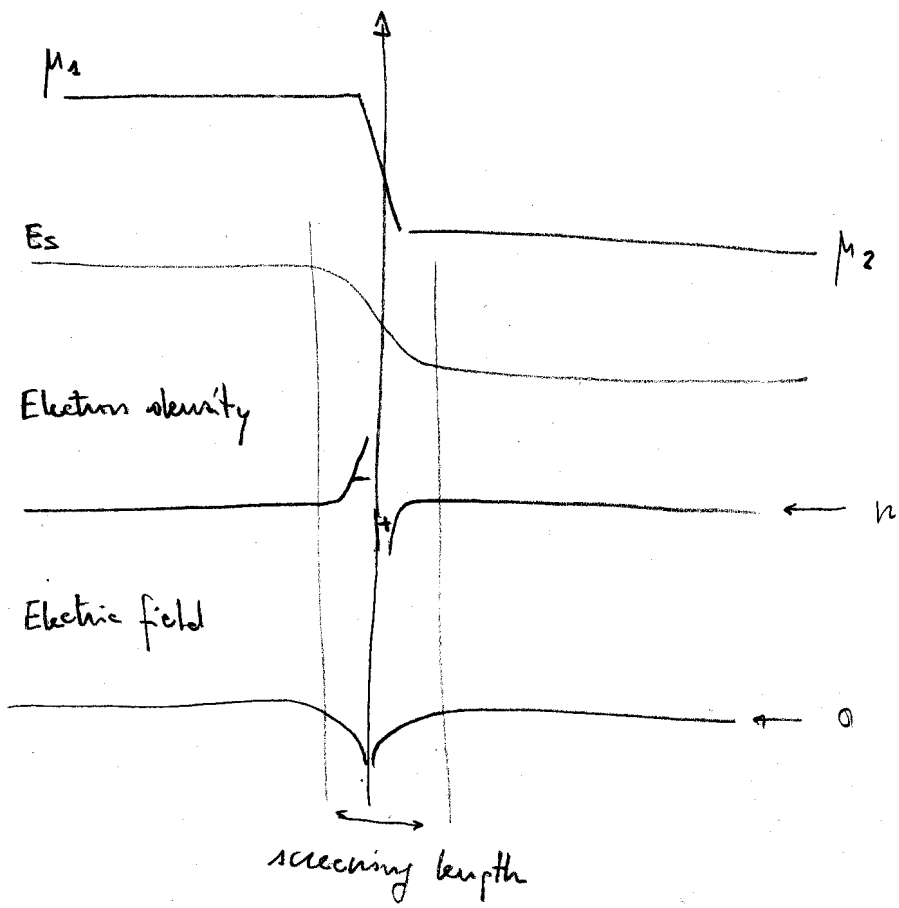


Resistivity dipoles

The fact that we are imposing different electrochemical potentials for the left and to the right imposes a corresponding difference between the bottom of the conduction bands. In fact the electron



But what about the matching? A gradient in  $E_s$  is associated to an electric field which implies a charge (better a dipole since the electric field ... A local density of electrons can arise only if  $\mu$  and  $E_s$  are not parallel. The point is that  $E_s(x)$  is smoother than  $\mu(x)$ .



The way of taking into account self-consistently of the relations between  $\mu, E_s, n, \vec{E}$  is the Poisson equation

$$\nabla^2(\delta E_s) = - \frac{e^2 \delta n}{\epsilon d} = - \frac{e^2 N_s (\delta \mu - \delta E_s)}{\epsilon d}$$

↑  
variation with respect of the unperturbed band bottom

$\epsilon$  is the dielectric constant  
 $d$  is the thickness of the 2DEG

$$(\nabla^2 - \beta^2) \delta E_s = -\beta^2 \delta \mu$$

$$\beta^{-1} = \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon d}{e^2 N_s}}$$
 is the screening length.

First we solve  $(\nabla^2 - \beta^2) \delta E_s = \delta(x)$

$S$  is the solution and it decays exponentially over  $x$   $\frac{e^{-\beta|x|}}{x}$

$\delta E_s \sim \delta \mu \otimes S$  where  $\otimes$  means convolution.

$$\beta^{-1} = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon d \cdot 4\pi \hbar^2}{e^2 \cdot m}} = \sqrt{\frac{d a_B}{4}} \quad a_B = \frac{4\pi \epsilon \hbar^2}{m e^2}$$

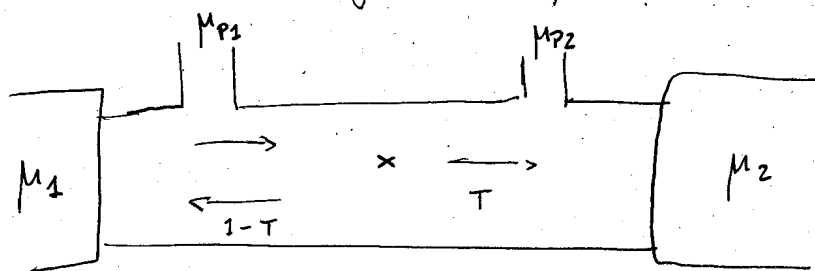
$a_B \sim 10 \text{ nm}$  in GeAs  
 $d \sim 10 \text{ nm}$   
 $\beta^{-1} \sim 5 \text{ nm}$ .

Notice that in metals  $\beta^{-1}$  is much shorter due to the high density of states.

# VOLTAGE PROBES AND MULTITERMINAL DEVICES

The question is: can we measure the resistance generated by a mesoscopic scatterer of transmission probability  $T$ ?

In principle yes, with voltage probes: i.e. contacts through which current cannot flow (floating contacts).



$$\mu_{P1} - \mu_{P2} = (1-T) \Delta\mu \quad \Delta\mu \equiv \mu_1 - \mu_2$$

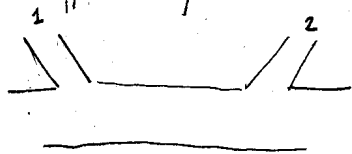
$$I = \frac{2e}{h} M T \Delta\mu$$

$$R_{4t} = \frac{\mu_{P1} - \mu_{P2}}{I} = \frac{h}{2e^2 M} \frac{1-T}{T}$$

But there are at least 3 problems:

1 \* mesoscopic probes are invasive (but it can be minimized)

2 \* mesoscopic probes are seldom identical. They can for example couple differently to the left or right movers



$$\begin{aligned} \mu_{P1} &\approx \mu^- = (1-T) \Delta\mu \\ \mu_{P2} &\approx \mu^+ = T \Delta\mu \end{aligned} \Rightarrow R_{4t} = \frac{h}{2e^2 M} \frac{1-2T}{T}$$

$$\text{or} \quad \begin{aligned} \mu_{P1} &\approx \mu^+ = \Delta\mu \\ \mu_{P2} &\approx \mu^- = 0 \end{aligned} \Rightarrow R_{4t} = \frac{h}{2e^2 M} \frac{1}{T}$$

Also this second problem is not so relevant, at least for  $T \ll 1$  since  $1 \sim 1 - 2T$ . The point is nevertheless that, in that case the four and two terminal resistance would be difficult to distinguish.

3\* INTERFERENCE EFFECTS : if  $T \ll 1 \Rightarrow$  the electrochemical potentials for  $+k$  and  $-k$  states are both nearly equal at the left and right of the scatterer.  $\Rightarrow +k$  and  $-k$  can be mixed.

The probe could see a "node" of the interference between  $+k$  and  $-k$  states. We could  $\Rightarrow$  measure for example  $\phi$  electrochemical potential also to the LEFT of the scatterer, even if both states have the same occupation.

To fix the ideas: let us take a single  $k$   $+k, -k$   
 No interference

$$\rho = \frac{1}{2} [ |t_k X + k| + |t_{-k} X - k| ]$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

INTERFERENCE

$$\rho = \frac{1}{2} [ (|t_k\rangle + |t_{-k}\rangle) ( \langle +k| + \langle -k| ) ]$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

The solution to the problem comes from the Büttiker formalism.

## BÜTTIKER FORMULA (1985)

In order to interpret results of four terminal devices with voltage probes in the mesoscopic regime, Büttiker devised a very elegant and simple method. The basic idea is to TREAT ALL TERMINALS ON EQUAL FOOTING.

2 terminal

$$I = \frac{2e}{h} \bar{T} [M_1 - M_2]$$

$\bar{T}$  is the transmission

function. It is in general a function of the energy

$T M(E)$  at least. If  $\Delta\mu < \Delta E_c$ ,  $M(E)$  is constant. We call this regime linear response.

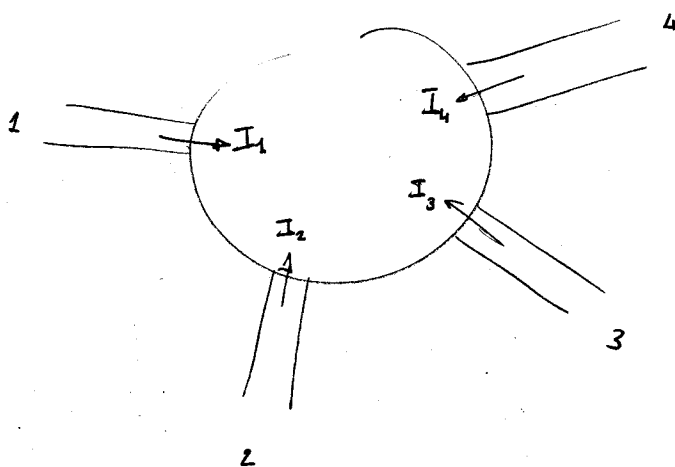
↓  
general

$$I_p = \frac{2e}{h} \sum_q [\bar{T}_{q \leftarrow p} M_p - \bar{T}_{p \leftarrow q} M_q]$$

in other terms;

$$I_p = \sum_q [G_{qp} V_p - G_{pq} V_q] \quad G_{pq} = \frac{2e^2}{h} \bar{T}_{p \leftarrow q}$$

N.B. The currents are all flowing from the contact



If  $V_p = V_q \quad \forall p, q \Rightarrow I_p = 0 \quad \forall p$  this observation implies immediately

$$0 = \sum_q (G_{qp} - G_{pq}) \Rightarrow \sum_q G_{qp} = \sum_q G_{pq}$$

$$I_p = \sum_q (G_{pq} V_p - G_{pq} V_q) = \sum_q G_{pq} (V_p - V_q)$$

Another important relation (that we will prove later) involves the magnetic field

$$[G_{qp}]_{+B} = [G_{pq}]_{-B}$$

intuitively we can justify it by saying that all paths go into their (time) reverse by reversing the sign of the magnetic field.

The potential of a voltage probe

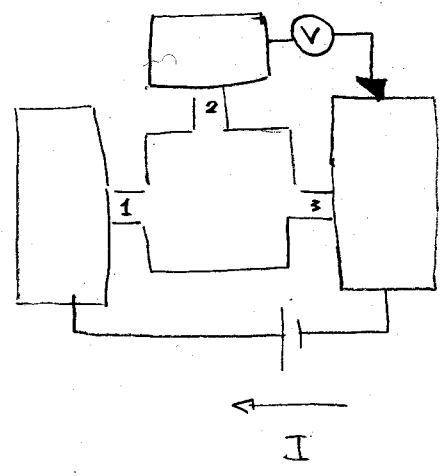
$$0 = I_p = \sum_q G_{pq} (V_p - V_q) = \sum_{q \neq p} G_{pq} (V_p - V_q)$$

$$\Rightarrow V_p = \frac{\sum_{q \neq p} G_{pq} V_q}{\sum_{q \neq p} G_{pq}}$$

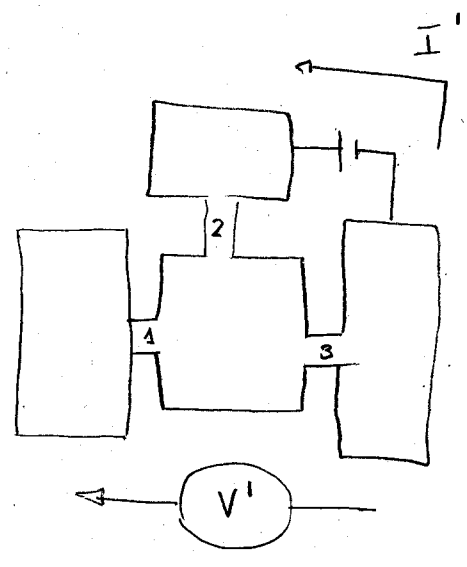
If  $B=0$   $G_{qp} = G_{pq}$  and the Büttiker formula reduces to the Kirchhoff law for a set of conductors all connected between each others.

Three-terminal device

(A)



(B)



In a generic 3 terminal device we have 3 voltages and 3 currents. Using the Büttiker formula we connect them:

$$\begin{pmatrix} I_1 \\ I_2 \\ I_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} G_{12} + G_{13} & -G_{12} & -G_{13} \\ -G_{21} & G_{21} + G_{23} & -G_{23} \\ -G_{31} & -G_{32} & G_{32} + G_{33} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} V_1 \\ V_2 \\ V_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$I_1 + I_2 + I_3 = 0 \Rightarrow$  I need only to know  $I_1$  and  $I_2$  (for example...) I can also eliminate 1 bias by measuring the energies from there.

$$\begin{pmatrix} I_1 \\ I_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} G_{12} + G_{13} & -G_{12} \\ -G_{21} & G_{21} + G_{23} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} V_1 \\ V_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

By inverting we obtain:

$$\begin{pmatrix} V_1 \\ V_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} R_{11} & R_{12} \\ R_{21} & R_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I_1 \\ I_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Where

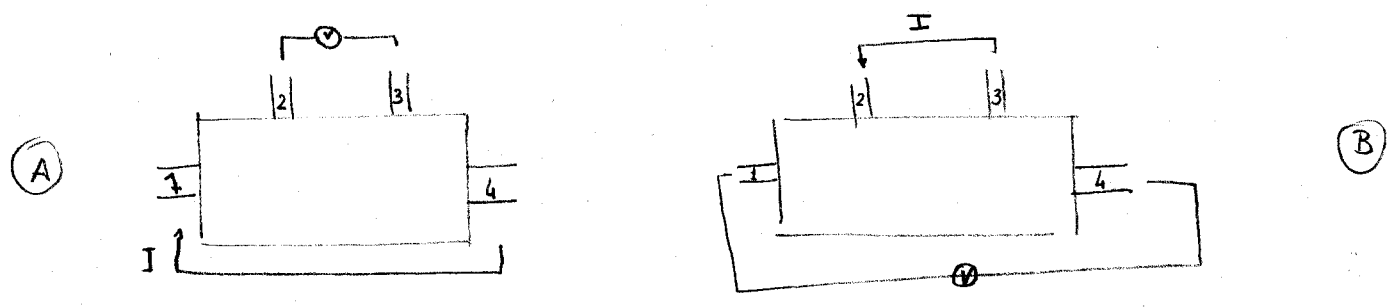
$$[R] = \begin{pmatrix} G_{12} + G_{13} & -G_{12} \\ -G_{21} & G_{21} + G_{23} \end{pmatrix}^{-1} = \frac{1}{(G_{12} + G_{13})(G_{21} + G_{23}) - G_{21}G_{12}} \begin{pmatrix} G_{21} + G_{23} & G_{12} \\ G_{21} & G_{12} + G_{23} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{G_{12}G_{23} + G_{13}G_{21} + G_{13}G_{23}} \begin{pmatrix} G_{21} + G_{23} & G_{12} \\ G_{21} & G_{12} + G_{23} \end{pmatrix}$$

(A)  $I_2 = 0 \Rightarrow -I_1 = +I_3 = I \quad R_{1A} = \frac{V_2 - V_3}{I}$   
 $V_3 = 0 \Rightarrow R_{1A} = \frac{V_2}{I_1} \Big|_{I_2=0} \quad R_{21} = \frac{G_{21}}{G_{12}G_{23} + G_{13}G_{21} + G_{13}G_{23}}$

(B)  $I_1 = 0 \quad R_{1B} = \frac{V_1}{I_3} \Big|_{I_2=0} = R_{1B} = \frac{V_1}{+I_2} \Big|_{I_1=0} = +R_{12}$   
 $V_3 = 0$

Four terminal device



As a first step we set one of the voltages to zero. (say  $V_4$ )

$$\begin{pmatrix} I_1 \\ I_2 \\ I_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} G_{12} + G_{13} + G_{14} & -G_{12} & -G_{13} \\ -G_{21} & G_{21} + G_{23} + G_{24} & -G_{23} \\ -G_{31} & -G_{32} & G_{31} + G_{32} + G_{34} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} V_1 \\ V_2 \\ V_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} V_1 \\ V_2 \\ V_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} R_{11} & R_{12} & R_{13} \\ R_{21} & R_{22} & R_{23} \\ R_{31} & R_{32} & R_{33} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} I_1 \\ I_2 \\ I_3 \end{pmatrix} \quad R = [G]^{-1}$$

by inspection

$$R_{1A}^{4b} = \frac{V}{I} = \frac{V_2 - V_3}{I_1} \Big|_{I_2=I_3=0} = R_{21} - R_{31}$$

$$R_{1B}^{4b} = \frac{V}{I} = \frac{V_1 - (0)}{I_2} \Big|_{I_2=-I_3, I_1=0} = R_{12} - R_{13}$$

We are thus left with the calculation of  $G_{ij}$ , in other terms of  $T_{ij}$ .



# Reciprocity

We have just proven that the interchange of the voltage and the current probes leads to different definitions of the resistance

$$R_A^{3t} = R_{21}$$

$$R_B^{3t} = R_{12}$$

$$R_A^{4t} = R_{21} - R_{31}$$

$$R_B^{4t} = R_{12} - R_{13}$$

But, are these resistances connected to each other? The answer is yes and we take as given the relation

$$G_{pq}(B) = G_{qp}(-B) \quad [\text{we will prove it later}]$$

If  $B=0 \Rightarrow G_{pq} = G_{qp}$ . From the expression of  $[R]^{-1}$  it follows immediately that  $[R^{-1}]_{pq} = [R^{-1}]_{qp}$  if  $q \neq p \Rightarrow \{[R^{-1}]\}^T = [R^{-1}]$ .

But  $[R^{-1}]^T = [R^T]^{-1}$ .  $[R^{-1}]^T R^T = [R R^{-1}]^T = \mathbb{1}^T = \mathbb{1} \Rightarrow R = R^T$

$$R^T [R^{-1}]^T = [R^{-1} R]^T = \mathbb{1}^R = \mathbb{1}.$$

It follows that, for  $B=0$  the resistances of the cases A and B are the same.

$$B \neq 0 \Rightarrow [R^{-1}]_{pq}(B) = [R^{-1}]_{qp}(-B) \quad \text{for } q \neq p.$$

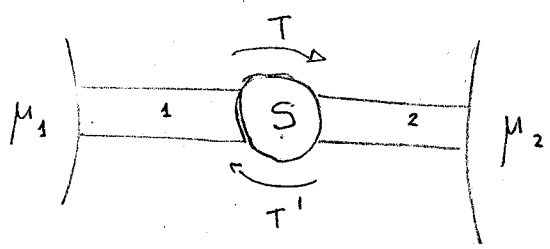
$$q = p : [R^{-1}]_{qq}^{(B)} = \sum_{p \neq q} G_{qp}(B) = \sum_{p \neq q} G_{pq}(-B) = \sum_{\substack{p \neq q \\ \text{see pag. 108}}} G_{qp}(-B) = [R^{-1}]_{qq}(-B).$$

$$\Rightarrow [R^{-1}](B) = [R^{-1}]^T(-B) \Rightarrow \boxed{R(B) = R^T(-B)}$$

↑  
RECIPROCALITY RELATIONS

# Linear response ?

The Landauer formula as we have derived it gives the conductance of a device. It is thus explicitly a formula valid for "small biases". But what do we mean by small? Let us reconsider the derivation, now using the current distributions:



Landauer  $I = \frac{2e}{h} \bar{T} \Delta\mu$  (\*)  $\bar{T} = TM$ .

$$\left. \begin{aligned} i_1^+(E) &= \frac{2e}{h} M(E) f_1(E) \\ i_2^-(E) &= -\frac{2e}{h} M'(E) f_2(E) \end{aligned} \right\} \text{reflectionless contacts}$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} i_1^-(E) &= -(1-T) i_1^+ + T' i_2^- \\ i_2^+(E) &= T i_1^+ - (1-T') i_2^- \end{aligned} \right\} \text{where also } T, T' \text{ are energy independent}$$

$$I = \int dE i_1^+(E) + i_2^-(E) = \frac{2e}{h} \int dE T(E) M(E) f_1(E) - T'(E) M'(E) f_2(E)$$

In order to obtain (\*) we need at first sight:

- \*  $T(E) = T'(E)$
  - \*  $M(E) = M'(E)$
  - \* Temp  $\rightarrow 0$
- } or at least  $\bar{T}(E) = \bar{T}'(E)$   $\bar{T} = TM$ .

In reality (\*) is more general

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} [f_1(E) - f_2(E)] dE &= \lim_{L \rightarrow -\infty} \int_L^{\infty} [f(E-\mu_1) - f(E-\mu_2)] dE = \lim_{L \rightarrow -\infty} \int_{L-\mu_1}^{\infty} f(E) dE - \int_{L-\mu_2}^{\infty} f(E) dE \\ &= \lim_{L \rightarrow -\infty} \int_{L-\mu_1}^{L-\mu_2} f(E) dE = \mu_1 - \mu_2 \end{aligned}$$

It follows that if  $\bar{T}$  does not depend on  $E \Rightarrow (*)$  is valid  $\forall$  bias voltages  
temperature  
N.B. at some point  $\mu_i$  is also affecting  $\bar{T}$ , but this is another reason.

3 Still in the limit  $\bar{T}(E) = \bar{T}'(E)$ .

$$I = \frac{2e}{h} \int dE \bar{T}(E) [f_1(E) - f_2(E)] = \frac{2e}{h} \int dE \bar{T}(E) [f(E - \mu_1) - f(E - \mu_2)]$$

$$= \frac{2e}{h} \int dE \bar{T}(E) \int_{\mu_2}^{\mu_1} dE' f'(E - E') = \frac{2e}{h} \int_{\mu_2}^{\mu_1} dE' \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dE \bar{T}(E) [f'(E - E')]$$

$$= \frac{1}{e} \int_{\mu_2}^{\mu_1} dE' \hat{G}(E') \quad \text{where} \quad \hat{G}(E') = \frac{2e^2}{h} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dE \bar{T}(E) [f'(E - E')]$$

Thus (\*) is valid under the loose condition that  $\hat{G}(E')$  is constant in the interval between  $\mu_2$  and  $\mu_1$ . The energy scale of the variations of  $\bar{T}(E)$  is due to coherent scattering processes and is called correlation energy  $\epsilon_c$ .  $f'$  is a peak of width given by the temperature:

- \*  $k_B T < \epsilon_c \Rightarrow (*)$  is valid under the condition  $\Delta\mu \ll \epsilon_c$
- "
- \*  $\epsilon_c < k_B T \Rightarrow \Delta\mu \ll k_B T$

summarizing:  $\Delta\mu \ll \epsilon_c + k_B T$

In the case  $k_B T < \epsilon_c$  it is justified  $T \rightarrow 0$ . But if these conditions  
-  $f'(E - E') = \delta(E - E') \Rightarrow \hat{G}(E') = \frac{2e^2}{h} \bar{T}(E')$ .  $E'$  is in the window between  $\mu_2$  and  
 $\mu_1$ .  $E_f$  is also there and  $\bar{T}(E') \approx \bar{T}(E_f)$ . In the other case we can  
linearize in  $\frac{\mu_i - E_f}{k_B T}$  and obtain

$$I = \frac{2e}{h} \int dE \bar{T}(E) [-f_0'(E)] (\mu_1 - \mu_2) = \dots \frac{\hat{G}(E_f) (\mu_1 - \mu_2)}{e}$$

## Multiterminal devices

The extension of the Landauer to multiterminal is straightforward also for current densities:

$$I_p = \int i_p(\epsilon) d\epsilon$$

$$i_p(\epsilon) = \frac{2e}{h} \sum_q \left[ \bar{T}_{qp}(\epsilon) f_p(\epsilon) - \bar{T}_{pq}(\epsilon) f_q(\epsilon) \right]$$

Under the no current condition at equilibrium

$$\sum_q \bar{T}_{qp}(\epsilon) = \sum_q \bar{T}_{pq}(\epsilon) \quad \forall \epsilon$$

$$\Rightarrow i_p(\epsilon) = \frac{2e}{h} \sum_q \bar{T}_{pq}(\epsilon) [f_p(\epsilon) - f_q(\epsilon)]$$

Under the same assumptions presented for the 2 terminal device

$$I_p = \sum_q G_{pq} (V_p - V_q)$$

$$G_{pq} = \frac{2e^2}{h} \int d\epsilon \bar{T}_{pq}(\epsilon) \left| -\frac{\partial f_0}{\partial \epsilon} \right| \approx \frac{2e^2}{h} \bar{T}_{pq}(\epsilon_f)$$

Naively: why not  $i_p(\epsilon) = \frac{2e}{h} \sum_q \left[ \bar{T}_{qp}(\epsilon) f_p (1 - f_q) - \bar{T}_{pq} f_q (1 - f_p) \right]$

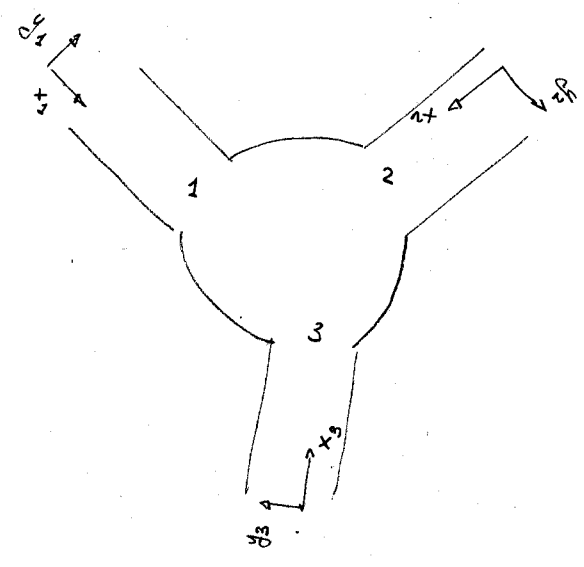
the answer is: in the case of reflectionless contact it is meaningless since the contacts are absorbing ALL. If the contact does NOT have this property  $\Rightarrow$  the previous conclusion is definitely not enough. One should start to consider the weak coupling. Or the non equilibrium Green's function approach, in principle able to handle the transition.

# Scattering states

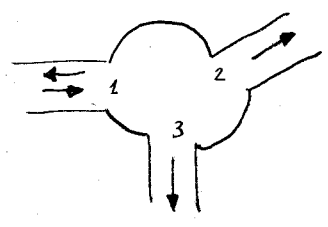
The idea that guides us to understand this kind of transport (the COHERENT TRANSPORT) is the one of SCATTERING STATE:

The wave function in lead  $p$  due to a scattering state  $(q, k)$  is given by:

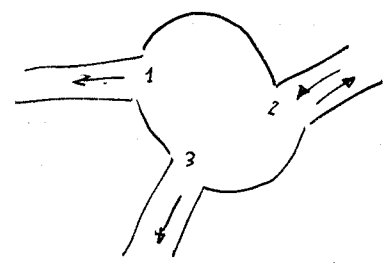
$$\Psi_p(q) = S_{pq} \chi_p^+(y_p) e^{ik^+ x_p} + S'_{pq} \chi_p^-(y_p) e^{ik^- x_p}$$



$|1, k\rangle$



$|2, k\rangle$



The current associated to the scattering state  $(q, k)$  per unit energy in lead  $p$

$$i_p(q) = \frac{2e}{h} (S_{pq} - T_{pq})$$

(Assuming 1 mode per lead)

In conductor with reflectionless contacts the states  $(q, k)$  are in equilibrium with contact  $q \Rightarrow$

$$I_p = \int \sum_q f_q(E) i_p(E) dE$$

which is the current generated in lead  $p$  due to all scattering states coming with whatever energy  $E$  from whatever contact  $q$ . Notice that we are treating a non-equilibrium problem as a special combination of equilibrium ones!

$$I_p = \frac{2e}{h} \int [f_p - \sum_q T_{pq} f_q] dE$$

The transmission coefficients obey the sum rule

$$\sum_q T_{pq} = \sum_q T_{qp} = 1$$

↑ this part we know      ↑ this we will prove later.

In case of multiple modes in the leads:

$$\bar{T}_{pq} = \sum_{m \in p} \sum_{n \in q} T_{mn}$$

The presence of a magnetic field does not disturb this picture in terms of scattering states. In fact

- It is always possible to write the vector potential in such a way that  $A \sim \hat{x}_q B y_q \quad \forall \text{ lead } q$ .

Appendix E of H.U. Baranger and A. D. Stone (1989) Phys. Rev. B 40 8169.

□ The transverse modes are independent

$$\vec{J} = \frac{e}{2m} \left( \Psi [(\vec{p} - e\vec{A})\Psi^*] + \Psi^* [(\vec{p} - e\vec{A})\Psi] \right)$$

$$\vec{p} = -i\hbar\vec{\nabla}$$

$$I = \frac{e}{2m} \int [\Psi (p_x - eA_x)\Psi^* + \Psi^* (p_x - eA_x)\Psi] dy$$

$$\Psi = \Psi_i + \Psi_s \quad \text{where}$$

$$\Psi_i = \frac{1}{\sqrt{L}} \chi^+(y) \exp[ik^+x]$$

$$\Psi_s = s' \frac{1}{\sqrt{L}} \chi^-(y) \exp[ik^-x]$$

$$I_i = \frac{e}{mL} \int [\chi^+(\hbar k^+ - eA_x)\chi^+] dy \quad \chi \text{ real}$$

$$I_s = \frac{e}{me} |s'|^2 \int [\chi^-(\hbar k^- - eA_x)\chi^-] dy$$

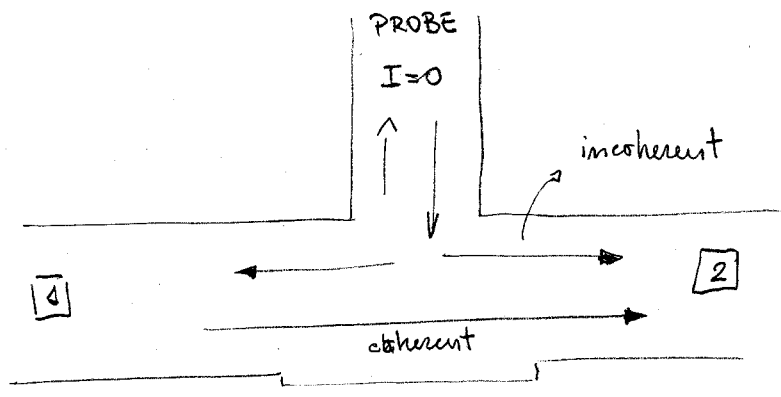
And what about the cross terms

$$\frac{e}{mL} \int [\chi^+ \left( \frac{\hbar(k^+ + k^-)}{2} - eA_x \right) \chi^-] dy \quad ?$$

They vanish due to the orthogonality relation

$$\int \left[ \chi_{m,k} \left( \frac{\hbar(k+k')}{2} - eA_x \right) \chi_{n,k'} \right] dy = \delta_{kk'} \quad (\text{exercise})$$

A voltage probe is a source of decoherence



we call  $\varphi$  the voltage probe

$$i_\varphi(E) = \frac{2e}{h} \sum_{q \neq \varphi} \bar{T}_{\varphi q}(E) [f_p(E) - f_q(E)] + \frac{2e}{h} \bar{T}_{p\varphi} [f_p(E) - f_\varphi(E)]$$

for what concerns the voltage probe we do not know the distribution function. We just know that  $I_\varphi = 0$

$$i_\varphi(E) = \frac{2e}{h} \sum_q \bar{T}_{\varphi q}(E) [f_\varphi(E) - f_q(E)] \quad \bar{R}_\varphi \equiv \sum_q \bar{T}_{\varphi q}$$

$$f_\varphi(E) = \frac{h}{2e} \frac{1}{\bar{R}_\varphi} \left[ i_\varphi + \frac{2e}{h} \sum_q \bar{T}_{\varphi q} f_q \right] = \frac{1}{\bar{R}_\varphi} \left[ \frac{h}{2e} i_\varphi + \sum_q \bar{T}_{\varphi q} f_q \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow i_\varphi(E) = \frac{2e}{h} \sum_{q \neq \varphi} \bar{T}_{\varphi q}(E) [f_p(E) - f_q(E)] + \frac{2e}{h} \bar{T}_{p\varphi} \left[ f_p(E) - \frac{1}{\bar{R}_\varphi} \left( \frac{h}{2e} i_\varphi + \sum_{q \neq \varphi} \bar{T}_{\varphi q} f_q \right) \right]$$

$$= \frac{2e}{h} \sum_{q \neq \varphi} \bar{T}_{\varphi q}(E) [f_p(E) - f_q(E)] + \frac{2e}{h} \bar{T}_{p\varphi} f_p(E) - \frac{2e}{h} \sum_{q \neq \varphi} \frac{\bar{T}_{p\varphi} \bar{T}_{\varphi q}}{\bar{R}_\varphi} f_q - \frac{\bar{T}_{p\varphi}}{\bar{R}_\varphi} i_\varphi$$

$$\bar{T}_{p\varphi} = \bar{T}_{p\varphi} \frac{\bar{R}_\varphi}{\bar{R}_\varphi} = \bar{T}_{p\varphi} \frac{1}{\bar{R}_\varphi} \sum_q \bar{T}_{\varphi q} = \sum_q \frac{\bar{T}_{p\varphi} \bar{T}_{\varphi q}}{\bar{R}_\varphi}$$



