Magnetic domain wall motion in a nanowire: depinning and creep

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The domain wall motion in a magnetic nanowire is examined theoretically in the regime where the domain wall driving force is weak and its competition against disorders is assisted by thermal agitations. Two types of driving forces are considered; magnetic field and current. While the field induces the domain wall motion through the Zeeman energy, the current induces the domain wall motion by generating the spin transfer torque, of which effects in this regime remain controversial. The spin transfer torque has two mutually orthogonal vector components, the adiabatic spin transfer torque and the nonadiabatic spin transfer torque. We investigate separate effects of the two components on the domain wall depinning rate in one-dimensional systems and on the domain wall creep velocity in two-dimensional systems, both below the Walker breakdown threshold. In addition to the leading order contribution coming from the field and/or the nonadiabatic spin transfer torque, we find that the adiabatic spin transfer torque generates corrections, which can be of relevance for an unambiguous analysis of experimental results. For instance, it is demonstrated that the neglect of the corrections in experimental analysis may lead to incorrect evaluation of the nonadiabaticity parameter. Effects of the Rashba spin-orbit coupling on the domain wall motion are also analyzed.

I. INTRODUCTION

A magnetic domain wall (DW) in a ferromagnetic nanowire is an important subject in spintronics. A new type of logic device is proposed based on the DW dynamics and a DW-based memory is also proposed, which may have merits such as nonvolatility, high speed, high density, and low power consumption. The dynamics of a DW varies considerably depending on the relative strength of DW driving forces (such as a magnetic field and a current) with respect to disorders, which tend to suppress the DW motion. If the forces are sufficiently strong or the disorders are sufficiently weak, the DW dynamics does not deviate much from the ideal dynamics in the absence of disorders. While some experiments are estimated to be in this regime, many other experiments appear to be in the regime where the disorders are important. It is thus desired to understand the DW dynamics in the weak driving force regime where the competition between the DW driving forces and the disorders is significant.

The DW motion in the weak driving force regime is an important example in the field of driven interfaces. The study on driven interfaces has a long history and addresses many physical systems such as surface growth of a crystal, vortex line motion in high temperature superconductors, and fluid propagation in porous media. Through a long series of theoretical works, a simple picture has emerged: the interface motion becomes collective and the collective length scale $L_{\text{col}}$, which characterizes the length scale of collectively moving interface segments, diverges in the weak driving force limit. Due to the divergence of $L_{\text{col}}$, the interface has overcome an increasingly larger energy barrier as the driving force becomes weaker, with the energy barrier $E_B$ as a function of the driving force $f$ diverging as a power law, $E_B \propto f^{-\mu} \ (\mu > 0)$. Interestingly the creep exponent $\mu$ is universal in the sense that its value does not change continuously with variations of system details and is affected only by a small number of key features such as the system dimensionality. Systems with the same exponent are said to be in the same universality class.

This prediction has been unambiguously confirmed for the field-driven DW motion in metallic ferromagnets, where the DW velocity $v$ is proportional to $\exp(-\kappa H^{-\mu}/k_B T)$. Here $k_B$ is the Boltzmann constant, $T$ is the temperature, $H$ is the magnetic field strength, and $\kappa$ is a constant. Note that this behavior of $v$ is a combined result of the power law scaling of the energy barrier $E_B = \kappa H^{-\mu}$ and the Arrhenius law $v \propto \exp(-E_B/k_B T)$. The creep exponent $\mu$ is found to be $\approx 0.25$, which agrees with the theoretically predicted value $1/4$ in two-dimensional (2D) systems.

A pioneering experiment revealed interesting twists. For nanowires made of a ferromagnetic semiconductor (Ga,Mn)As, the energy barrier for the field-driven DW motion was found to scale as $H^{-\mu}$, where $\mu \approx 1.2$ instead of $1/4$. This difference was attributed to the different nature of disorders; while disorder potential energy is short-range correlated in metallic ferromagnets, it was argued that in ferromagnetic semiconductors, disorder force is short-range correlated. Since the disorder potential energy is obtained by integrating the disorder force, it implies that the disorder potential energy is then long-range correlated. For such cases, it is known that the nature of the correlation along the DW segments is modified and the value of $\mu$ indeed changes.

Another interesting twist of the experiment is that for the current-driven DW motion, the effective energy barrier was reported to scale as $J^{-\mu}$, where $J$ is the current density and $\mu \approx 0.33$ rather than $1/4$ or $1.2$. Thus two different creep exponent values ($1.2$ and $0.33$)
were obtained from the same material, implying that the current-driven DW motion is qualitatively different from the field-driven DW motion.

It is believed that the current induces the DW motion in a nanowire by generating the spin transfer torque (STT). The STT has two mutually orthogonal vector components, the adiabatic STT and the nonadiabatic STT\(^{18,19}\). The nonadiabatic STT has similar properties as the magnetic field while the adiabatic STT has very different properties. Thus the experimental result\(^{18,19}\) implies that the nonadiabatic STT cannot be the main driving force of the DW motion. In fact the exponent \(\mu \approx 0.33\) has been interpreted\(^{20}\) as an indication that the current-driven DW motion is mainly due to the adiabatic STT.

This interpretation is at odds, though not contradictory, with other results. In metallic ferromagnets, the onset of the adiabatic-STT-driven DW motion is estimated\(^{20,21}\) to occur at the current density of \(\sim 10^9\) A/cm\(^2\), which is unendurably high for most experimental systems. Thus the DW motion realized at lower current densities are usually attributed to the nonadiabatic STT.

This situation strongly motivates experimental\(^{22}\) and theoretical\(^{23,24}\) studies of the current-driven DW motion in metallic ferromagnets. This paper aims at theoretical explorations of this issue based on the observation that the DW anisotropy, characterizing the energy cost associated with the change in the tilting angle of the magnetization inside a DW, is of magnitude larger in metallic ferromagnets than in ferromagnetic semiconductors. Since the DW anisotropy tends to suppress variations of the tilting angle, we assume that the DW creep motion in metallic ferromagnets exhibits the below-the-Walker-breakdown-like behavior in the sense that the amplitude of the tilting angle variations during the creep motion stays much smaller than \(2\pi\). For the field-driven DW creep motion, this assumption is experimentally supported since the experimental value \(\sim 0.25\) of the creep exponent agrees with the prediction 1/4 of the theory\(^{25}\), in which the tilting angle dynamics is completely suppressed. For the current-driven DW creep motion, the assumption requires an experimental confirmation. A recent experiment\(^{26}\) reports the purely current-driven DW creep motion in metallic ferromagnets. For ferromagnetic semiconductors, in contrast, it appears that the assumption requires an experimental confirmation. A recent report\(^{27,28}\) examines the DW depinning from a potential well in this 1D regime.

The paper is structured as follows. In Sec. II we discuss the DW depinning from a single potential well in one-dimensional (1D) systems. Analysis of this relatively simple problem clearly illustrates separate roles of the magnetic field, the adiabatic STT, and the nonadiabatic STT on the thermally-assisted tunneling of a DW. It also allows one to identify relevant factors affecting the tunneling, which therefore should be included in the analysis. In this sense, Sec. II is pedagogical. Nevertheless predictions in Sec. III can be tested in real experiments since a DW exhibits the 1D dynamics\(^{17,18}\) when \(L_{col}\) becomes larger than both the thickness and width of a nanowire. In particular, it is predicted that when the depinning rate is used as a tool to evaluate the nonadiabaticity parameter\(^{18,19}\), characterizing the strength of the nonadiabatic STT, it may lead to incorrect values if disorders in a nanowire have certain features. In Sec. III the DW creep motion in 2D systems is analyzed. Separate roles of the magnetic field, the adiabatic STT, and the nonadiabatic STT on the creep motion are clarified. In addition to the leading order contribution to the creep motion in the vanishing DW driving force limit, next leading order contributions are also obtained. Although the next leading order contributions are irrelevant as far as the theoretical determination of the creep exponent and the universality class is concerned, they may nevertheless be relevant in experimental determination of the creep exponent since experiments are always performed at small but finite driving force strength. At the end of both Secs. II and III, effects of the Rashba spin-orbit coupling (RSOC) are discussed. The emergence of the RSOC in ferromagnetic nanowires is recently demonstrated\(^{29}\). Section IV concludes this paper.

II. DW DEPINNING IN 1D

When both the thickness and the width of a magnetic nanowire are sufficiently smaller than the collective length \(L_{col}\), the system reduces to a 1D problem and the configuration of a DW can be described by two variables, the DW position \(q\) and the tilting angle \(\psi\). This Section examines the DW depinning from a potential well in this 1D regime.

A. Effective energy

In the 1D regime, the response of the DW collective coordinates \((q, \psi)\) to an external magnetic field \(H\) and/or an electric current of density \(J\) is described by the following equations,

\[
\begin{align*}
\alpha \dot{q} + \dot{\psi} &= \gamma_0 (H - \beta \chi J) - \frac{\gamma_0}{2M_S \Omega} \frac{\partial V}{\partial q}, \quad (1) \\
\frac{\alpha}{\lambda} \dot{\lambda} + \alpha \dot{\psi} &= -\gamma_0 \chi J - \frac{\gamma_0}{2 M_S \Omega \lambda} \frac{\partial V}{\partial \psi}, \quad (2)
\end{align*}
\]

where \(\alpha\) is the Gilbert damping parameter, \(\lambda\) is the DW width, \(\gamma_0\) is the gyromagnetic ratio, \(M_S\) is the saturation magnetization, \(\Omega\) is the cross-sectional area of a nanowire, \(V(q, \psi)\) is the DW potential energy, and the dimensionless parameter \(\beta\) is the nonadiabaticity coefficient\(^{18,19}\) representing the strength of the nonadiabatic STT. \(\chi = \hbar P / 2 \lambda e M_S\) \((< 0)\) is a constant with the dimension \(H/J\), \(P\) is the spin-polarization of the current, and \(\hbar\) is the Planck constant. In Eqs. (1) and (2), the
preferred anisotropy direction fluctuates from position to position. In this case, the preferred tilting angle fluctuates while the strength of the DW anisotropy may not fluctuate.

Below we consider this general situation, in which the disorder potential energy depends both on \( q \) and \( \psi \). In Ref. [23] the \( \psi \) dependence of the disorder potential energy is included in its initial formulation but ignored when the depinning rate is calculated. We demonstrate below that the \( \psi \) dependence of \( V \) generates interesting consequences.

Based on the Lagrangian formulation, Eqs. (1) and (2) may be considered as the Lagrange’s equations of the Lagrangian \( L \) and the dissipation function \( F \).

\[
L = \frac{M_S \Omega}{\gamma_0} (q \dot{q} - \dot{q} \dot{\psi}) - V(q, \psi) \\
+ 2M_S \Omega q (H - \beta \chi J) - 2M_S \Omega \lambda \psi \dot{\chi} J, \\
F = \frac{M_S \Omega}{\gamma_0} (q^2 + \lambda^2 \dot{\psi}^2).
\]

The Lagrangian in Eq. (3) is then transformed to the Hamiltonian i.e. the effective energy function \( E \),

\[
E(q, \psi) = V(q, \psi) - 2M_S \Omega (H - \beta \chi J) \\
+ 2M_S \Omega \lambda \dot{\psi} \chi J.
\]

Here we have used the term effective energy since \( E \) is not a single valued function in the sense that \( E(q, \psi) \neq E(q, \psi + 2\pi) \) although \( (q, \psi) \) and \( (q, \psi + 2\pi) \) represent the same magnetic configuration. Thus some care should be exercised when Eq. (5) is used to analyze the DW dynamics above the Walker breakdown threshold, where \( \psi \) changes more than \( 2\pi \). Below the Walker breakdown threshold, on the other hand, the dynamics of \( \psi \) is confined to a value range narrower than \( 2\pi \) and \( E(q, \psi) \) can be regarded as a single valued function.

\section{Effective energy barrier}

Figure 1 shows schematically the energy profile, to which the DW is subject. The DW has to overcome an energy barrier to get depinned from a given potential well. When the DW driving force \( (H \) or \( J \)) is small, the height of the energy barrier is sufficiently higher than the DW energy measured from the bottom of the potential well and the DW overcomes the large energy barrier by exploiting the thermal agitation. Thus the depinning time from potential wells is governed (within the exponential accuracy) by the energy barrier via the Arrhenius law. When the depinning time is much longer than the relaxation time inside potential wells, the energy barrier is defined as the difference between the saddle point energy and the local ground state energy. One remark is in order. While the Arrhenius law is based on the fluctuation-dissipation theorem [24,25], the theorem does not generally hold when \( J \) is finite and the system is thus in nonequilibrium situations. However it has been demonstrated that
for small $J$ and below the Walker breakdown regime [25], thermal fluctuations still satisfy the theorem, justifying the use of the Arrhenius law in this case.

The energy barrier $E_B$ depends on $H$ and $J$, and we examine this dependence. For $H = J = 0$, $E(q, \psi)$ reduces to $V(q, \psi)$. Let $(q_{G0}, \psi_{G0})$ and $(q_{S0}, \psi_{S0})$ denote respectively the local ground state and saddle point configurations of $V(q, \psi)$. Note that we introduce separate parameters $\psi_{G0}$ and $\psi_{S0}$. Although $\psi_{S0} - \psi_{G0}$ will be much smaller than $2\pi$ in the regime below the Walker breakdown, the difference is nonzero in general due to the $\psi$ dependence of the disorder potential energy. To examine effects of small $H$ and $J$, $V(q, \psi)$ may be Taylor expanded near these configurations;

$$V \approx \omega_G^2 (q - q_{G0})^2 + \nu_G^2 (\psi - \psi_{G0})^2,$$

for $(q, \psi)$ near $(q_{G0}, \psi_{G0})$, and

$$V \approx V_0 - \omega_S^2 (q - q_{S0})^2 + \nu_S^2 (\psi - \psi_{S0})^2,$$

for $(q, \psi)$ near $(q_{S0}, \psi_{S0})$. Here $\omega_G/\beta$ and $\nu_G/\beta$ are the potential stiffness, and the potential depth $V_0$ amounts to the energy barrier height for $H = J = 0$. Note that $\omega_G^2$ in Eq. (6) and $\omega_S^2$ in Eq. (7) appear with the opposite signs due to the difference between the local ground state and saddle point (Fig. 1). Note also that we distinguish $\nu_G$ and $\nu_S$ in order to take account of the $\psi$ dependence of the disorder potential energy.

The driving forces $H$ and $J$ modify the local ground state and saddle point configurations to, say, $(q_G, \psi_G)$ and $(q_S, \psi_S)$. For small $H$ and $J$, the modified configurations can be determined from $\delta E = 0$ with the aid of Eqs. (6) and (7). One obtains

$$q_G = q_{G0} + M_S \Omega \omega_G^{-2}(H - \beta \chi J),$$

$$\psi_G = \psi_{G0} - M_S \Omega \omega_G^{-2} \lambda \psi \chi J,$$

$$q_S = q_{S0} - M_S \Omega \omega_S^{-2}(H - \beta \chi J),$$

$$\psi_S = \psi_{S0} - M_S \Omega \nu_S^{-2} \lambda \chi J.$$

The evaluation of the energy barrier $E_B = E(q_S, \psi_S) - E(q_G, \psi_G)$ is now trivial. One finds

$$E_B - V_0 = -2\delta q_0 M_S \Omega (H - \beta \chi J)$$

$$+ 2\lambda \delta \psi_0 M_S \Omega (\lambda \chi J)$$

$$+ M_S^2 \Omega^2 \omega_G^{-2}(H - \beta \chi J)^2$$

$$- M_S^2 \Omega^2 \nu_S^{-2} (\lambda \chi J)^2,$$

where $\delta q_0 \equiv q_S - q_{G0}$, $\delta \psi_0 \equiv \psi_S - \psi_{G0}$, $\omega_G^{-2} \equiv \omega_S^{-2} + \omega_G^{-2}$ and $\nu_S^{-2} \equiv \nu_S^{-2} - \nu_G^{-2}$. Equation (12) clearly shows the effect of $H$ and $J$ on the energy barrier. Among the two components of the STT produced by $J$, the nonadiabatic STT $(x \lambda \chi J)$ in the first and third lines of Eq. (12) has the exactly same effect as the magnetic field $H$ while the second and the fourth lines of Eq. (12) indicate that the effect of the adiabatic STT $(x \beta \chi J)$ is qualitatively different from the field effect.

The depinning rate $1/\tau$ from a potential well is then given by

$$1/\tau = 1/\tau_0 \exp \left[ -E_B(H, J)/k_B T \right],$$

where $1/\tau_0$ amounts to the attempt frequency and the $H$ and $J$ dependence of $E_B$ are given in Eq. (12).

Recently Kim and Burrowes [26] analyzed the effective energy barrier for the purely current-driven DW creep motion in 1D. Equation (39) in their work indicates that $J$ modifies the energy barrier $E_B$ through a linear term $(x \beta J)$, and a quadratic term $(x \beta^2 J^2)$, both of which arise from the nonadiabatic STT. Our result [first and third lines in Eq. (12)] agrees with this result as far as these two terms are concerned. However our result predicts that there are another linear term $(x \lambda \chi J)$, the second line in Eq. (12) and quadratic term $(x \lambda^2 \chi^2 J^2)$, the fourth line in Eq. (12), which arise from the adiabatic STT. This difference between our result and Ref. 26 stems from the nature of the disorders; In Ref. 26, the calculation of $E_B$ assumed that the disorder contribution to $V(q, \psi)$ depends only on $q$ and does not depend on $\psi$, whereas we consider more realistic situations where the disorder contribution depends not only on $q$ but also on $\psi$. This dependence on $\psi$ appears in the second and last terms in Eq. (12) through the factors $\delta \psi_0$ and $\nu^{-2}$.

DW depinning experiments [27,31,33] are sometimes used as a tool to determine the nonadiabaticity parameter $\beta$. When the $\psi$ dependence of the disorder potential energy is negligible and thus $\delta \psi_0 = \nu^{-2} = 0$, one can verify from Eq. (12) that $E_B$ depends on $H$ and $J$ through a single variable $H - \beta \chi J$. Thus by comparing the “efficiency” of $H$ and $J$ in the DW depinning, one can determine $\beta$. In general, however, the $\psi$ dependence of the disorder potential energy may not be negligible. In such situations and in the limit $H, J \to 0$, the $H$ and $J$ dependence of $E_B$ appears through a different single variable $H - \beta \chi J - \lambda \beta \psi_0 / \delta \psi_0$ but careful experimental evaluation may incorrectly identify

$$\beta' = \beta + \lambda \beta \psi_0 / \delta \psi_0$$

as $\beta$. Thus possible $\psi$ dependence of the disorder potential energy should be carefully examined for the correct evaluation of $\beta$.

As discussed in Sec. II A the $\psi$ dependence of $V$ may be qualitatively different depending on details of disorders. When $\nu^{-2} \neq 0$ but $\delta \psi_0 = 0$, the second contribution in Eq. (14) vanishes, simplifying the experimental evaluation of $\beta$. When $\nu^{-2} = 0$ but $\delta \psi_0 \neq 0$, on the other hand, the second contribution in Eq. (14) may not be negligible. A possible way to avoid the incorrect evaluation of $\beta$ in this case is to take an average of $\beta'$ for multiple potential wells. Since the sign of $\delta \psi_0$ is expected to fluctuate from potential wells to potential wells, this averaging process may be able to remove the second contribution of $\beta'$ proportional to $\delta \psi_0$. By the way, the sign
fluctuations of $\delta q_0$ can be suppressed in this averaging process since the depinning to the right ($\delta q_0 > 0$) and to the left ($\delta q_0 < 0$) are distinguishable in experiments.

Lastly we compare two contributions [third and fourth lines in Eq. (12)], both of which generate the $J$-quadratic contributions to $E_B$. They have one important difference; the third line, which arises from the nonadiabatic STT, always enhance $E_B$ and thereby lower the depinning rate while the fourth line, which arises from the adiabatic STT, may either increase or decrease $E_B$ since $\nu^{-2}$ can be positive or negative depending on the nature of disorders. Thus in case that experiments find the $J$-quadratic contribution enhances the depinning rate, it implies that the adiabatic STT makes a larger contribution to the $J$-quadratic dependence of $E_B$ than the nonadiabatic STT.

\section{Effective magnetic field}

The DW depinning for the purely field-driven case is relatively well understood\cite{5}. Thus if one can “map” general situations with both $H$ and $J$ to the purely field-driven case, it may provide a useful way to describe experimental results in general situations. The effective magnetic field is one way to make this connection. We define the effective field $H^*(H, J)$ of the DW depinning by the relation $E_B(H^*, 0) = E_B(H, J)$. $H^*(H, J)$ can be experimentally extracted, for instance, from contour plots of the DW depinning rate as a function of $H$ and $J$. From Eq. (12), one finds that $H^*$ satisfies

$$H^* = \frac{2\omega^2_0 \delta q_0}{MS} H^*$$

$$= (H - \beta J)^2 - \frac{2\omega^2_0 \delta q_0}{MS} (H - \beta J)$$

$$+ \frac{2\omega^2_0 \delta \psi_0}{M} (\lambda \chi J) - \frac{\omega^2_0}{\nu^2} (\lambda \chi J)^2.$$

Solving Eq. (15) for $H^*$ under the constraint $H^*(H = 0, J = 0) = 0$ leads to

$$H^* = \frac{\omega^2_0 \delta q_0}{MS} - \frac{\omega^2_0 \delta q_0}{MS} \left( 1 - \frac{\delta q_0 - \delta q}{\delta q_0} \right)^2$$

$$+ \frac{\nu^2 ((\delta \psi_0)^2 - (\delta \psi)^2)}{\omega^2_0 (\delta q_0)^2} \right)^{1/2},$$

where $\delta q = q_S - q_G$, $\delta \psi = \psi_S - \psi_G$. Here we have used the relations, $MS\Omega(H - \beta J) = \omega^2_0 (\delta q_0 - \delta q)$ and $MS\Omega \lambda \chi J = \nu^2 (\delta \psi_0 - \delta \psi)$ obtained from Eqs. (5), (9), (10), and (11). Since $(\delta q_0 - \delta q)/\delta q_0 \ll 1$ and $\nu^2 ((\delta \psi_0)^2 - (\delta \psi)^2) / \omega^2_0 (\delta q_0)^2 \ll 1$, one can expand the curly bracket in Eq. (16) to obtain

$$H^*(H, J) = H - \beta' J + \frac{M S \Omega}{2 \nu^2 \omega^2_0} \lambda \chi J$$

$$- \frac{M S \Omega}{2 \nu^2 \omega^2_0} \frac{\delta \psi_0}{\delta q_0} (\lambda \chi J)(H - \beta' J)$$

$$+ O(J^2).$$

In case the $\psi$ dependence of the disorder potential energy is negligible, $\beta' = \beta$, $\nu^{-2} = \delta \psi_0 = 0$, and the effective field $H^*$ reduces to $H - \beta' J$. Then the points in the $(H, J)$ plane with the same depinning rate will form straight lines with the slope $\beta'$. However in more general situations with the $\psi$ dependence of the disorder potential energy, deviations from this simple result will occur. When $\nu^{-2} \neq 0$ but $\delta \psi_0 = 0$, the contour lines of the equi-depinning rate will not be straight but instead form parabolas in the $(H, J)$ plane with the coefficient of the $J$-quadratic term proportional to $\nu^{-2}$. Note that this quadratic contribution to $H^*$ is entirely due to the adiabatic STT, while in case of $E_B$, both the adiabatic and nonadiabatic STTs can generate the $J$-quadratic contributions [Eq. (12)]. In this sense, $H^*$ allows clearer separation between the adiabatic and nonadiabatic STT contributions. When $\nu^{-2} = 0$ but $\delta \psi_0 \neq 0$, the contour lines of the equiv-depinning rate will form straight lines with the modified slope, $\beta'$. In this case, the value of $\beta'$ will fluctuate from potential wells to potential wells.

The above analysis provides experimental procedures to determine whether or not the $\psi$ dependence of the disorder potential energy is negligible in a given experiment; If the contour lines of the equiv-depinning rate are not straight lines, $\nu^{-2}$ is not zero. If the slope of the lines

\begin{figure}[h]
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{fig2.png}
\caption{(Color online) (a) An example with the broken inversion symmetry. The ferromagnetic layer (FM) is sandwiched between two different nonmagnetic layers (NM1 and NM2), so that the inversion symmetry is broken along the $\hat{y}$ direction. When the current is injected along $\hat{x}$ direction, the Rashba spin-orbit coupling makes the magnetization feel as if a magnetic field $H_R$ is applied along the $\hat{z}$ direction. (b) Schematic plots of the magnetization configurations for the Bloch wall (upper plot) and the Néel wall (lower) in nanowires with the perpendicular magnetic anisotropy. Solid arrows (colored in red) represent local magnetic moments inside of a Bloch wall (upper plot) and the Néel wall (lower).}
\end{figure}
tangential to the contour lines at the points \((H, J = 0)\) fluctuates from potential wells to potential wells, \(\delta \psi_0\) is not zero.

D. Rashba spin-orbit coupling effects

The special theory of relativity requires the coupling between the spin and orbital degrees of freedom.\(^4\) Thus the spin-orbit coupling (SOC) is ubiquitous. The strength of the SOC however varies considerably from systems to systems. It is well known\(^4\) that the SOC may be considerably enhanced in systems with the broken inversion symmetry. The SOC in this case is called the Rashba SOC (RSOC). Magnetic systems are not exceptions and the RSOC develops in magnetic systems with the broken inversion symmetry, as exemplified in a recent experiment.\(^2\)

Since the RSOC affects conduction electron spins and they in turn interact with the local magnetization through the \(s-d\) exchange coupling, it also affects the local magnetization. It was reported\(^2\) that a high DW velocity can be achieved in magnetic films with the broken inversion symmetry. In this subsection, we discuss the RSOC effects on the DW depinning.

When the conduction electron spins are modified by the RSOC, according to Ref.\(^4\), the RSOC effects on the DW depinning.

One of primary effects of \(\vec{H}_{\text{RSOC}}\) is to modify the \(\psi\) dependence of \(E(q, \psi)\) [Eq. \((19)\)], since the energy of the system is minimized when the magnetization direction at the center of the DW is parallel to \(\vec{H}_{\text{RSOC}}\). Below we confine ourselves to the analysis of this additional \(\psi\) dependence, and ignore other effects of \(\vec{H}_{\text{RSOC}}\). One example of the ignored effects is the \(\psi\) dependence of the DW width \(\lambda\). To be strict, \(\lambda\) varies with \(\psi\) even when \(\vec{H}_{\text{RSOC}} = 0\), and nonzero \(\vec{H}_{\text{RSOC}}\) modifies the \(\psi\) dependence of \(\lambda\). This effect is discussed in a recent experiment.\(^2\) For \(\vec{H}_{\text{RSOC}} = 0\), it is commonly estimated that the \(\psi\) dependence of \(\lambda\) does not affect the DW motion significantly for small \(\vec{H}_{\text{RSOC}}\) and/or \(J\). We expect that at least for small \(\vec{H}_{\text{RSOC}}\), this effect is still not important. Below we examine the small \(\vec{H}_{\text{RSOC}}\) regime.

1. Bloch DW

For a Bloch DW, the magnetization at the center of the DW points along the \(\hat{z}\) axis and we set \(\psi = 0\) for this direction. Then \(\vec{H}_{\text{RSOC}}\) introduces an additional Zeeman energy \(E_{\text{RSOC}} = -2M_S\Omega \lambda \chi J_0 \cos \psi\) to the system. Here, the dimensionless constant \(\tilde{\alpha}_R = (2\pi m\lambda/h^2)\alpha_R\) measures the strength of the RSOC. Then the total DW energy becomes

\[
E(q, \psi) = V(q, \psi) - 2M_S\Omega q (H - \beta \chi J) + 2M_S\Omega \lambda \chi (\psi - \tilde{\alpha}_R \cos \psi) J. \tag{19}
\]

To calculate \(E_B\) in the presence of \(\tilde{\alpha}_R\), we need to calculate the shifts of the saddle point and ground state configurations due to \(H\) and \(J\) as we did in Sec. II A. Since \(E_{\text{RSOC}}\) is independent of \(q\), it only affects the shifts of \(\psi_S\) and \(\psi_G\). From \(\delta E = 0\), \(\psi\) value of saddle(ground) point \(\psi_S(G)\) for finite \(\tilde{\alpha}_R\) should satisfy

\[
\psi_S(G) = \psi_{S(G)} - \frac{M_S\Omega}{\tilde{\nu}_S(G)} \lambda \chi (1 + \tilde{\alpha}_R \sin \psi_{S(G)}). \tag{20}
\]

Since \(\psi_{S(G)} - \psi_{S(G)} \ll 1\), \(\sin \psi_{S(G)} = \sin[\psi_{S(G)} + (\psi_{S(G)} - \psi_{S(G)})]\) may be Taylor expanded. After some calculation, one then finds that up to \(O(\tilde{\alpha}_R)\), \(E_B\) is given by

\[
E_B \approx V_0 - 2\delta \tilde{\nu}_0 M_S\Omega (H - \beta \chi J) + 2[\delta \tilde{\nu}_0 - \tilde{\alpha}_R (\cos \psi_S(0) - \cos \psi_{S0})] M_S\Omega (\lambda \chi J) + M_S^2 \Omega^2 \omega_T^2 (H - \beta \chi J)^2 - (M_S\Omega)^2 \left[ \frac{1}{\tilde{\nu}_S^4} + 2\tilde{\alpha}_R \left( \frac{\sin \psi_S(0)}{\tilde{\nu}_S} - \frac{\sin \psi_{S0}}{\tilde{\nu}_{S0}} \right) \right] (\lambda \chi J)^2.
\]

Note that the nonadiabatic STT contribution to \(E_B\) is not modified by the RSOC. The RSOC effect modifies the adiabatic STT contribution to \(E_B\). Since the adiabatic
STT contribution is dependent on the $\psi$ dependence of the disorder potential, the RSOC effect is also dependent on the $\psi$ dependence of the disorder potential. When the $\psi$-dependence of the disorder potential energy is absent, $\nu_\perp^2 = \delta \psi_0 = 0$, one finds

$$E_B \approx V_0 - 2\delta \psi_0 M_S \Omega (H - \beta \chi J)$$

$$+ M_S^2 \Omega^2 \omega_+^2 (H - \beta \chi J)^2.$$  \hspace{1cm} (22)

Note that the result does not depend on $\alpha_R$. When $\nu^\perp \neq 0$ but $\delta \psi_0 = 0$ (also $\psi_{G0} = \psi_{SO} = 0$), one finds

$$E_B \approx V_0 - 2\delta \psi_0 M_S \Omega (H - \beta \chi J)$$

$$+ M_S^2 \Omega^2 \omega_+^2 (H - \beta \chi J)^2$$

$$- (M_S \Omega)^2 \nu_\perp^2 (\lambda \chi J)^2 \left[ (1 - \alpha_R M_S \Omega \nu_\perp^2 \lambda \chi J) \right],$$

where $\nu_\perp^2 \equiv \nu_\parallel^2 + \nu_G^2$. Note that the leading effect of the RSOC is to introduce a correction term proportional to $\alpha_R (\lambda \chi J)^3$. On the other hand, when $\nu_\perp^2 = 0$ but $\delta \psi_0 \neq 0$, one finds

$$E_B \approx V_0 - 2\delta \psi_0 M_S \Omega (H - \beta \chi J)$$

$$+ 2[\delta \psi_0 - \alpha_R (\cos \psi_{SO} - \cos \psi_{G0})] M_S \Omega (\lambda \chi J)$$

$$+ M_S^2 \Omega^2 \omega_+^2 (H - \beta \chi J)^2$$

$$- \alpha_R (M_S \Omega)^2 \nu_G^2 (\lambda \chi J)^2 \left[ 2 (\sin \psi_{SO} - \sin \psi_{G0}) \right]$$

$$+ M_S \Omega \nu_\perp \lambda \chi J \cos \psi_{SO} - \cos \psi_{G0} \right].$$

Again the RSOC modifies the adiabatic STT effect. Note that all terms containing $\alpha_R$ are proportional to either $\sin \psi_{SO} - \sin \psi_{G0}$ or $\cos \psi_{SO} - \cos \psi_{G0}$, both of which vanish upon the average over many potential wells.

2. Néel DW

For a Néel DW, the magnetization at the center of the DW points along the $\hat{x}$ axis and we set $\psi = 0$ for this direction. Then the Zeeman energy $E_{RSOC}$ due to $H_{RSOC}$ becomes $E_{RSOC} = -2M_S \Omega \lambda \chi J \alpha_R \sin \psi$. Following the same procedure as above, one obtains the energy barrier up to $O(\alpha_R)$,

$$E_B \approx V_0 - 2M_S \Omega \delta q (H - \beta \chi J)$$

$$+ 2[\delta \psi_0 - \alpha_R (\sin \psi_{SO} - \sin \psi_{G0})] \Omega (\lambda \chi J)$$

$$+ M_S^2 \Omega^2 \omega_+^2 (H - \beta \chi J)^2$$

$$- (M_S \Omega)^2 \left[ \frac{1}{\nu_\perp^2} - 2\alpha_R \right] \left( \frac{\cos \psi_{SO}}{\nu_\parallel^2} - \frac{\cos \psi_{G0}}{\nu_G^2} \right)$$

$$\left( \sin \psi_{SO} - \sin \psi_{G0} \right) \left( \lambda \chi J \right)^2.$$ \hspace{1cm} (25)

Similarly to the Bloch DW, the RSOC effect on the Néel DW appears through the adiabatic STT contribution to $E_B$, and is dependent on the $\psi$ dependence of the disorder potential energy. When the $\psi$-dependence of the disorder potential energy is absent, $\nu^\perp = \delta \psi_0 = 0$, one finds that Eq. (25) becomes equivalent to Eq. (22). Note again, that the result does not depend on $\alpha_R$. When $\nu^\perp \neq 0$ but $\delta \psi_0 = 0$ (also $\psi_{G0} = \psi_{SO} = 0$), one finds

$$E_B \approx V_0 - 2M_S \Omega q (H - \beta \chi J)$$

$$+ M_S^2 \Omega^2 \omega_+^2 (H - \beta \chi J)^2$$

$$- (M_S \Omega)^2 \nu_\perp^2 (1 - 2\alpha_R) \lambda \chi J^2.$$ \hspace{1cm} (27)

Note that the leading effect of the RSOC is to introduce a correction term proportional to $\alpha_R (\lambda \chi J)^2$. On the other hand, when $\nu^\perp = 0$ but $\delta \psi_0 \neq 0$, one finds

$$E_B \approx V_0 - 2M_S \Omega q (H - \beta \chi J)$$

$$+ 2[\delta \psi_0 - \alpha_R (\sin \psi_{SO} - \sin \psi_{G0})] M_S \Omega (\lambda \chi J)$$

$$+ M_S^2 \Omega^2 \omega_+^2 (H - \beta \chi J)^2$$

$$+ \alpha_R (M_S \Omega)^2 \nu_G^2 (\lambda \chi J)^2 \left[ 2 (\cos \psi_{SO} - \cos \psi_{G0}) \right]$$

$$+ M_S \Omega \nu_\perp \lambda \chi J \left( \sin \psi_{SO} - \sin \psi_{G0} \right) \right].$$

Again the RSOC modifies the adiabatic STT effect. Note that all terms containing $\alpha_R$ in Eq. (28) vanish upon the averaging over many potential wells.

### III. DW CREEP IN 2D

When the thickness or the width of a magnetic nanowire is larger than the collective length $L_{col}$, the system is not a 1D problem any more. Here we assume that the thickness is sufficiently larger than $L_{col}$ and the thickness is sufficiently smaller than $L_{col}$, so that the system becomes a 2D problem. In the 2D regime, the DW configuration can be described by two functions, $q(z)$ and $\psi(z)$, where $z$ denotes the coordinate along the nanowire width direction. In this Section, we examine the DW creep in this 2D regime. We find that the $\psi$-dependence of the disorder potential energy again plays important roles, similarly to the 1D case. Previous studies of the DW creep motion have ignored the $\psi$-dependence of the disorder potential energy.

#### A. Effective energy barrier

When the nanowire width $w$ is larger than $L_{col}$, an entire DW line does not move simultaneously. Instead, a DW motion consists of a segment-by-segment motion of DW segments of finite lengths. In this situation, the thermally activated DW motion involves DW segments of all possible segment lengths and the DW creep velocity is governed by the bottleneck process with the largest energy barrier. Hence, the effective energy barrier $E_{B}^{\text{creep}}(H, J)$ for the DW creep motion, which determines the DW velocity $v(H, J) \propto \exp[-E_{B}^{\text{creep}}(H, J)/k_B T]$, becomes the maximum value of $E_B(L)$ with respect to $L$. 


where $\tilde{\text{valuedness}}$ problem does not cause any ambiguity in the two configurations $\{q_m(z), \{\psi_m(z)\}\}$ to another local minimum configuration $\{q_m(z), \{\psi_m(z)\}\}$ through the saddle configuration $\{q_s(z), \{\psi_s(z)\}\}$. The upper (lower) panel shows the change of $\{q(z)\}$ ($\{\psi(z)\}$) during the transition. The areas of the grey regions in upper and lower panels correspond to $u_q(L)\lambda L$ and $u_\psi(L)\lambda L$, respectively.

Fig. 3: (Color online) (a) Schematic plot of the coordinates system. (b) Schematic illustration of a DW segment of length $L$, which makes a thermally-assisted transition from the original local minimum configuration $\{q_m(z), \{\psi_m(z)\}\}$ to another local minimum configuration $\{q_m(z), \{\psi_m(z)\}\}$ through the saddle configuration $\{q_s(z), \{\psi_s(z)\}\}$. The upper (lower) panel shows the change of $\{q(z)\}$ ($\{\psi(z)\}$) during the transition. The areas of the grey regions in upper and lower panels correspond to $u_q(L)\lambda L$ and $u_\psi(L)\lambda L$, respectively.

where $E_B(L)$ represents the effective energy barrier for a DW segment of length $L$.

Figure 3(a) depicts schematically the DW configuration in the 2D system. According to Ref. 24, the effective energy $E[q(z), \{\psi(z)\}]$ of a given DW configuration $\{q(z), \{\psi(z)\}\}$ is given by

$$E = \int \frac{dz}{\lambda} \left[ \tilde{J} \left( \frac{\partial q}{\lambda dz} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial z} \right)^2 \right] + \frac{K}{4\hbar} \cos 2\psi + V_{\text{dis}}$$  \hfill (29)

where $\tilde{J}$ measures the DW elasticity and $K/\hbar$ denotes the DW anisotropy. In Eq. (29), the first, second, and third terms represent the DW elastic energy, the DW anisotropy energy, and the disorder potential energy, respectively. The last term in Eq. (29) denotes the effective energy due to the adiabatic STT and the second last term denotes the combined effect of the Zeeman energy and the effective energy due to $H$ and the effective energy due to the non-adiabatic STT. One remark is in order. As in the case of one-dimensional DW depinning in Sec. 2, the effective energy $E$ in Eq. (29) is a multi-valued function since $E[q(z), \{\psi(z)\}] = E[q(z), \{\psi(z) + 2\pi\}]$ while two configurations $\{q(z), \{\psi(z)\}\}$ and $\{q(z), \{\psi(z) + 2\pi\}\}$ are physically identical. Nevertheless this multi-valuedness problem does not cause any ambiguity in the determination of $E_B(L)$ in Eq. (30) since $\psi$ is strictly confined to values much smaller than $\pi/4$ in our study.

In general, $V_{\text{dis}}$ will depend on both $q$ and $\psi$, $V_{\text{dis}} = V_{\text{dis}}(q(z), \psi(z), z)$. Later we find that $\psi$ dependence can generate interesting contributions, just as it did in the 1D system. For definiteness of the illustration, we consider a particular type of the $\psi$ dependence of $V_{\text{dis}}$, arising from the position-by-position fluctuation of $K_\perp$. Then the fluctuating part $\delta K_\perp$ generates the contribution $-(\delta K_\perp/4\hbar) \cos 2\psi$ to $V_{\text{dis}}$. This fluctuation can arise, for instance, from position-by-position fluctuations of the saturation magnetization and nanowire cross-section. For simplicity of the analysis, we ignore the fluctuating part $\delta K_\perp$ for a while and consider it in the later part of the analysis.

To evaluate $E$, it is useful to decompose it into two pieces $E[q(z), \{\psi(z)\}] = E_q[q(z)] + E_\psi[\psi(z)]$, where

$$E_q = \int \frac{dz}{\lambda} \left[ \frac{\tilde{J}}{2\hbar} \left( \frac{\partial q}{\lambda dz} \right)^2 + V_{\text{dis}} \right] - M_{\text{stf}} (H - \beta \chi J)q$$  \hfill (30)

$$E_\psi = \int \frac{dz}{\lambda} \left[ \frac{\tilde{J}}{2\hbar} \left( \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial z} \right)^2 + \frac{K}{4\hbar} \cos 2\psi \right] + M_{\text{stf}} \lambda \chi J.$$  \hfill (31)

As outlined above, to evaluate $E_{\text{creep}}$, we first need to calculate the effective energy barrier $E_B(L)$ that a DW segment of finite length $L$ experiences. Suppose a DW segment of length $L$ ($0 < z < L$) makes a thermally-assisted transition from one local minimum configuration $\{q_m(z), \{\psi_m(z)\}\}$ to another local minimum configuration $\{q_m(z), \{\psi_m(z)\}\}$ through the saddle point configuration $\{q_s(z), \{\psi_s(z)\}\}$ [Fig. 3(b)]. These three configurations differ in the range $0 < z < L$ but are essentially the same in the range $z < 0$ and $z > L$ since only the DW segment of length $L$ makes a thermally-assisted transition. Then the energy barrier becomes $E_B(L) = E[q_s(z), \{\psi_s(z)\}] - E[q_m(z), \{\psi_m(z)\}]$ and it can be decomposed into two pieces, $E_q[q_s(z)] - E_q[q_m(z)]$ and $E_\psi[\psi_s(z)] - E_\psi[\psi_m(z)]$.

1. $q$ degree of freedom

First, we evaluate $E_q[q_s(z)] - E_q[q_m(z)]$. The last term in Eq. (30) gives rise to the contribution $-M_{\text{stf}} (H - \beta \chi J)u_q(L)L$, where $u_q(L) = \int_0^L \frac{dz}{\lambda \chi J} \tilde{J}(z) - q_m(z)/L$ [Fig. 3(b)] measures the typical value of the difference $q_s(z) - q_m(z)$ in the region $0 < z < L$. Since $q_s(z) - q_m(z) \approx 0$ for $z < 0$ and $z > L$, it is evident that $u_q(L)$ is a growing function of $L$ (Fig. 3). According to the theory of interfaces in disordered media, where the
disorder and the elastic energy compete, \( u_q(L) \) grows as a power law \( u_q(L) = u_{q0}(L/L_C)^\zeta \) where \( u_{q0} \) is a characteristic scaling constant, \( \zeta \) is the wandering exponent and \( L_C \) is the Larkin length\(^8^{,16,17}\). For DWs formed in metallic ferromagnetic films, \( \zeta = 2/3^{,16,11,16,17}\). To find out the total contribution of all three terms in Eq. (30) to \( E_q(\{q(z)\}) - E_q(\{q_m(z)\}) \), we note that \( E_q(\{q(z)\}) \) has the same form as the DW free energy for the purely field-driven DW motion. This problem has been analyzed in Ref. 17, and we borrow the calculation result of Ref. 17 to obtain the characteristic L dependence of \( E_q(\{q(z)\}) - E_q(\{q_m(z)\}) \)

\[
\frac{E_q(\{q(z)\}) - E_q(\{q_m(z)\})}{L} \cong \epsilon_{el} \left[ \frac{\{u_q(L)\}}{L} \right]^2 - M_{Stf}(H - \beta\chi J)u_q(L)L, \tag{32}
\]

where the DW energy density \( \epsilon_{el} = \bar{J}/2\hbar \lambda^2 \). Here the first term includes the combined contribution of the first two terms in Eq. (30).

### 2. \( \psi \) degree of freedom

Next, we evaluate \( E_\psi(\{\psi_s(z)\}) - E_\psi(\{\psi_m(z)\}) \). For a purely field-driven DW motion, \( \psi \) degree of freedom does not play any role for the DW creep motion if the system is in the regime below the Walker breakdown (the same holds for the DW depinning in 1D systems as well, see Sec. 11). Then, \( E_\psi(\{\psi_s(z)\}) - E_\psi(\{\psi_m(z)\}) \) is essentially zero\(^8^{,11,16,17,22\). Thus the central task is to determine the effect of \( J \) on this difference. An injection of \( J \) induces an excitation of \( \psi \). Since the DW anisotropy \((-K_\perp \cos 2\psi)\) favors \( \psi = 0 \), the growth of \( \psi \) is strongly suppressed when \( K_\perp \) is large, which is the conventional situations in metallic ferromagnetic systems (in ferromagnetic semiconductors, \( K_\perp \) is usually much smaller and this may not be the case). Then we can fairly assume that \( |\psi| < \pi/4 \) during the DW motion. This assumption is valid even when spatial fluctuations of \( K_\perp \) exist, provided that the magnitude of the \( K_\perp \) fluctuations is sufficiently smaller than the spatial average of \( K_\perp \). Under this assumption, \( \cos 2\psi \) in Eq. (31) may be Taylor expanded to obtain

\[
E_\psi = \int \frac{dz}{\lambda} \left[ \frac{\bar{J}}{2\hbar} \left( \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial z} \right)^2 + \frac{K_\perp(q,z)}{2\hbar} \right] \psi^2 + M_{Stf} \psi \lambda \chi J \right] - \int \frac{dz}{\lambda} \frac{K_\perp(q,z)}{4\hbar}, \tag{33}
\]

where the position dependence of \( K_\perp \) is made manifest. The last term of Eq. (33) can be absorbed to \( V_{dis}(q,z) \) in \( E_q \) to define a new effective disorder potential \( V_{new}(q,z) \) for the \( q \)-dependence of the \( L \)-dependence of \( E_q(\{q(z)\}) - E_q(\{q_m(z)\}) \) in Eq. (32) remains essentially the same. Then we may forget about the last term of \( E_\psi \) in Eq. (33) and consider only the first three terms.

To obtain the \( L \)-dependence of \( E_\psi(\{\psi_s(z)\}) - E_\psi(\{\psi_m(z)\}) \), we first examine characteristics of the saddle and minimum configurations. At these configurations, \( \delta E_\psi/\delta \psi = 0 \). Thus \( \psi_s \) and \( \psi_m \) satisfy

\[
-\frac{\bar{J}}{\hbar} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial z^2} + \frac{K_\perp(q,z)}{\hbar} \psi + M_{Stf} \lambda \chi J = 0, \tag{34}
\]

where \( q \) in \( K_\perp(q,z) \) denotes \( q_m(z) \) and \( q_s(z) \), respectively, for \( \psi = \psi_m(z) \) and \( \psi = \psi_s(z) \). We analyze Eq. (34) under the boundary condition, \( \psi_m(z) - \psi_s(z) \approx 0 \) for \( z < 0 \) and \( z > L \). Equation (34) is solved firstly for \( J = 0 \). Note that Eq. (34) has the same structure as the Schrödinger equation\(^{32\)} \(-\hbar^2/2m)\partial^2 \psi/\partial z^2 + [U(z) - E] \psi = 0 \) for a quantum mechanical particle of the mass \( m \) subject to the potential energy \( U(z) \) with the total energy \( E \). In this analogy, \( K_\perp(q(z),z)/\hbar \) corresponds to the difference \( U(z) - E \). In quantum mechanics, it is well-known that when the total energy \( E \) is smaller than the potential energy \( U(z) \), the solution \( \psi(z) \) is a sum of two exponentially growing functions; one growing as \( z \) becomes more positive and the other growing as \( z \) becomes more negative. For both exponentially growing functions, the rate of the exponential growth is roughly given by \( \sqrt{2m(U(z) - E)/\hbar} \). This knowledge of the Schrödinger equation is directly applicable to Eq. (34) since \( K_\perp \) stays positive for all \( z \). This analogy implies that small change in \( K_\perp \) within \( 0 < z < L \) causes an exponentially large change in \( \psi \) at the boundaries \( z = 0 \) and \( z = L \) (large \( L \) limit is important for the DW creep motion). Combined with the boundary condition, and recalling that Eq. (34) is a linear homogeneous equation, we then find that both \( \psi_s \) and \( \psi_m \) should be essentially zero. All other solutions of Eq. (34) cannot satisfy the boundary condition and moreover violate the assumption \( |\psi| \ll \pi/4 \) due to their exponential growth.

Next, one considers nonzero \( J \). Since Eq. (34) is then a linear inhomogeneous differential equation, its general solution is a sum of the general homogeneous solution for \( J = 0 \) and a particular solution for \( J \neq 0 \). Due to the exponential growth, the general homogeneous solution should be set to zero again and we need to find one nonzero particular solution, which is consistent with the boundary condition and satisfies the assumption \( |\psi| \ll \pi/4 \). While the exact form of the particular solution is difficult to obtain, it is evident from the structure of the linear differential equation Eq. (34) that the particular solution \( \psi \) should be proportional to \( \psi \). Thus, \( \psi_s \propto J \) and \( \psi_m \propto J \). As for the \( L \)-dependence of \( \psi_s \) and \( \psi_m \), it is evident that they cannot grow as a power law of \( L \) since they are strictly bounded below \( \pi/4 \). Thus we obtain \( \psi_s \propto L^0 J \) and \( \psi_m \propto L^0 J \). The proportionality factors of \( \psi_s \) and \( \psi_m \) are different since \( K_\perp(q,z) \) in Eq. (34) amounts to \( K_\perp(q_s(z),z) + K_\perp(q_m(z),z) \), and they are different.

Then it is straightforward to verify that in the first three terms in Eq. (33) generates the contribution proportional to \( L^2 J^2 \) for \( \psi = \psi_s \) and \( \psi = \psi_m \). Then the characteristic \( L \)-dependence of \( E_\psi(\{\psi_s(z)\}) - E_\psi(\{\psi_m(z)\}) \)
may be expressed as
\[ E_{\psi}(\psi_m(z)) = E_{\psi}(\psi_m(z)) \approx M_s f(x) \lambda_J u_{\psi}(L) L, \]  
where \( u_{\psi}(L) = \int_0^L \frac{dz}{L} [\psi(z) - \psi_m(z)] / L \) scales as \( L^0 \) with the proportionality constant scaling as \( J^1 \). We remark that for \( E_{\psi}(\psi_m(z)) \) to have a nonzero value, it is crucial to take into account the \( q \)-dependent fluctuation of \( K_\perp \). Without it, \( \psi_s = \psi_m \) and \( u_{\psi}(L) = 0 \) since \( K_\perp(q_s, z) = K_\perp(q_m, z) \) and both \( \psi_s \) and \( \psi_m \) satisfy the exactly same equation [Eq. (31)].

One remark is in order. In Ref. 23, \( E_{\psi}(\psi_m(z)) \) was evaluated to be proportional to \( JL \), which is different from our evaluation result \( J^2L \). This difference stems from the fact that the thermally-activated transition process considered in Ref. 23 is qualitatively different from the transition process considered in our work; while \( |q| \) is assumed to remain smaller than \( \pi / 4 \) for the transition process considered in our work, it is assumed in Ref. 23 that \( q \) jumps by \( \sim \pi \) for each transition process. Such transition with the jump of \( q \) by \( \sim \pi \) may be relevant for a DW motion in ferromagnetic semiconductors where the magnetic anisotropy is much smaller.

**B. Creep velocity**

The DW velocity \( v(H, J) \) in the creep regime is given by \( v \propto \exp[-E_B^\text{creep} / k_B T] \), where \( E_B^\text{creep} \) for given \( H \) and \( J \) is the maximum value of \( E_B(L) \) with respect to \( L \). By combining Eqs. (32) and (35), we obtain the effective energy barrier \( E_B(L) \) for the DW segment of length \( L \). Its \( L, J \) and \( H \) dependence can be summarized as
\[ E_B(L) = e_{cl} \left( u_q(L) \right)^2 L^{-1} - M_s f(H - \beta \chi J) u_q(L) L + M_s f \lambda_J u_{\psi}(L) L, \]
where \( u_q(L) = u_{q0}(L/L_{col})^\zeta \) and \( u_{\psi}(L) = u_{\psi0} L^0 J \). Substituting these relations into Eq. (35) leads to
\[ E_B(L) = e_{cl} \frac{u_{q0}^2}{L_{col}^{2\zeta - 1}} L^{2\zeta - 1} - M_s f(H - \beta \chi J) u_{q0} L^{\zeta + 1} + M_s f \lambda_J u_{\psi0} L^0. \]

For metallic ferromagnets with \( \zeta = 2/3 \), Eq. (37) becomes
\[ E_B(L) = A L^{1/3} - B L^{5/3} + C L \]
where \( A = e_{cl} u_{q0}^2 L_{col}^{4/3}, B = M_s f(H - \beta \chi J) u_{q0} L_{col}^{-2/3}, \) and \( C = M_s f \lambda_J u_{\psi0} L_{col}^2 \). The maximum energy barrier \( E_B^\text{creep} \) is then determined by \( E_B^\text{creep} = E_B(L_{col}) \), where the collective length \( L_{col} \) satisfies \( \partial E_B / \partial L |_{L_{col}} = 0 \). From Eq. (38), the collective length \( L_{col} \) is given by
\[ L_{col} = \left( \frac{-3C + \sqrt{9C^2 + 20AB}}{2A} \right)^{-3/2}, \]
and \( E_B^\text{creep} \) is written as
\[ E_B^\text{creep} = \frac{2}{5} (2A)^{3/2} \left( \frac{-2C + \sqrt{9C^2 + 20AB}}{-3C + \sqrt{9C^2 + 20AB}} \right)^{3/2}. \]

**1. Effective magnetic field**

The effective magnetic field \( H^*(H, J) \) for the DW creep motion is defined by the relation \( v(H, J) = v(H^*, 0) \) with the constraint \( H^*(H, 0) = H \). The effective magnetic field \( H^* \) provides a convenient way to express the result for \( v(H, J) \); Recalling that the DW velocity for the purely field-driven DW motion is given by \( v(H, 0) = v_0 \exp(-\kappa H^{-\mu} / k_B T) \), the DW velocity for general \( H \) and \( J \) can be expressed as
\[ v(H, J) = v_0 \exp \left\{ \frac{\kappa [H^*(H, J)]^{-\mu}}{k_B T} \right\}. \]
where \( \kappa \) is a constant independent of \( H \) and \( J \). Thus the evaluation of \( H^*(H, J) \) amounts to the evaluation of \( v(H, J) \). \( H^*(H, J) \) also determines contour lines of equal DW velocity in the \((H, J)\) plane.

Since \( v(H, J) \) is determined by \( E_B^\text{creep} \), \( H^*(H, J) \) can be calculated from \( E_B^\text{creep} = E_B^\text{creep}(H, J) = E_B^\text{creep}(H^*, 0) \). We define \( D = M_s f u_{q0} L_{col}^{-2/3} \) and \( \epsilon = \beta \chi \). Then Eq. (40) can be expressed as
\[ E_B^\text{creep} = \frac{2}{5} (2A)^{3/2} (2AD)^{-1/4} [F(H, J)]^{-1/4}, \]
where
\[ F(H, J) = \left[ -3\eta J^2 / 10 + \sqrt{(3\eta J^2 / 10)^2 + (H - \epsilon J)^2} \right] \left[ -\eta J^2 / 5 + \sqrt{(3\eta J^2 / 10)^2 + (H - \epsilon J)^2} \right]. \]
where \( \eta = u_{q0} \lambda L C (5M_s f / u_{q0} L_{col}^{3/2})^{1/2} \). It can be easily verified that \( F(H, J = 0) = H \). Since the constants \( A \) and \( D \) are independent of \( H \) and \( J \), \( F(H, J) \) itself is the effective field, \( H^* = F(H, J) \). One also finds that \( \kappa \) in Eq. (11) is given by \( \kappa = (2/5) (2A)^{3/2} (2AD)^{-1/4} \). In the limit \( H, J \rightarrow 0 \), we expand \( F(H, J) \) to obtain
\[ H^*(H, J) = H - \epsilon J - \eta J^2 \sqrt{H - \epsilon J} + \frac{2}{5} \left( \eta J^2 \right)^2 + O \left( J^6 \right). \]
Again, as the DW depinning in 1D systems (Sec. 11C), the non-adiabatic STT (\( \epsilon J \)) acts in the exactly same way as the magnetic field \( (H) \). The adiabatic STT contribution \( \left( \eta J^2 \right) \), however, introduces the nonlinearity to \( H^* \) and thus plays a qualitatively different role from the magnetic field for the creep motion. If an experiment is performed for sufficiently small \( H \) and \( J \), so that the nonlinear contributions in Eq. (11) are negligible, the creep motion will follow a simple scaling behavior, \( v(H, J) = v_0 \exp[-\kappa(H - \epsilon J)^{-\mu} / k_B T] \) with \( \mu = 1/4 \).
However if $H$ and $J$ are not sufficiently small, the nonlinear contributions in Eq. (44) introduce deviations from the simple scaling behavior and should be taken into account in an experimental analysis.

C. Rashba spin-orbit coupling effects

The RSOC is generated when the inversion symmetry is broken. When a current flows in a nanowire with the broken inversion symmetry, the magnetization feels as if there is an additional magnetic field $\vec{H}_{\text{RSOC}}$, of which magnitude is proportional to $J \tilde{\alpha}_R$. We consider the case where the inversion symmetry along the $\hat{z}$ axis is broken and the current flows along the $\hat{x}$ direction (parallel to the DW motion direction). Then $\vec{H}_{\text{RSOC}}$ is along the $\hat{z}$ direction. When the RSOC is strong, it may modify the nature of the DW motion qualitatively. But when the RSOC is weak, its effect may be accounted for perturbatively. Below we assume the RSOC to be weak. Then its effect can be calculated in a way similar to the 1D case discussed in Sec. II D. Again the RSOC effect varies depending on the magnetic anisotropy and the DW structure. We confine ourselves to nanowires with the PMA and consider two types of DW structure: Bloch DW and Néel DW.

1. Bloch DW

The magnetization direction at the center of the Bloch DW points along the $\hat{z}$ direction. In the convention where $\psi = 0$ for the Bloch DW, an additional Zeeman energy $E_{\text{RSOC}}$ due to the RSOC effect becomes

$$E_{\text{RSOC}} = -2 \int \frac{dz}{\lambda} M_s t f \lambda \chi J \tilde{\alpha}_R \cos \psi,$$  
(45)

where $\tilde{\alpha}_R$ is the dimensionless RSOC coefficient $\tilde{\alpha}_R = (2 \pi m \lambda / \hbar^2) \alpha_R$. Depending on the sign of $\tilde{\alpha}_R$, the RSOC may enhance or suppress possible deviations from $\psi = 0$.

Since $E_{\text{RSOC}}$ depends only on $\psi$, it may be included in $E_{\psi}$. Then Eq. (31) is modified to

$$E_{\psi} = \int \frac{dz}{\lambda} \left[ \frac{\dot{J}}{2 \hbar} \left( \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial z} \right)^2 + \frac{K_\perp}{4 \hbar} \cos 2\psi \right].$$

For $|\psi| \ll \pi/4$, it reduces to

$$E_{\psi} = \int \frac{dz}{\lambda} \left[ \frac{\dot{J}}{2 \hbar} \left( \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial z} \right)^2 + \frac{K_\perp(q,z)}{2 \hbar} \psi^2 \right. + M_{s\psi} t f \lambda \chi J (\psi - \tilde{\alpha}_R \cos \psi) \bigg].$$

The second integral of Eq. (47) can be absorbed to $V_{\text{dis}}$ in $E_{\psi}$ in Eq. (30), and we may concentrate on the first integral of Eq. (47). Note that the contribution from the RSOC ($\propto J \tilde{\alpha}_R \psi^2$) has the same structure as the DW anisotropy contribution ($\propto K\perp \psi^2$). Thus the main effect of the RSOC is to renormalize $K\perp$ to $\xi K\perp$, where $\xi = 1 + 2 \hbar M_{s\psi} t f \lambda \chi J \tilde{\alpha}_R / K\perp$. Since $\xi \ll 1$, it is safe to assume $\xi = 1 + 1 \ll 1$ in the creep regime where $J$ is small.

For $\tilde{\alpha}_R = 0$, it has been demonstrated [Eq. (35)] that $E_{\psi}(\psi(1)) - E_{\psi}(\psi(0)) \approx M_{s\psi} t f \lambda \chi J u_{\psi}(L) L$, where $u_{\psi} = u_{\psi \psi} J$. For nonzero $\tilde{\alpha}_R$, the RSOC effect will appear through the renormalization of $u_{\psi \psi}$. It is reasonable to expect that the renormalized $u_{\psi \psi}$ depends on $\xi - 1$ in a nonsingular way. Then we may Taylor expand $u_{\psi \psi}$ with $\xi - 1$ as a small variable, and express the renormalized $u_{\psi \psi}$ as $u_{\psi \psi}(1 + \gamma R J + O(J^2))$. Although the exact evaluation of $\gamma R$ is difficult, it is evident that it should be proportional to $\tilde{\alpha}_R$.

In the presence of the RSOC, the energy barrier $E_B(L)$ in Eq. (37) is modified to

$$E_B(L) = \epsilon_c \frac{u_{\psi \psi}^2}{L_\perp} L^{\xi - 1} - M_{s\psi} t f (H - \beta \chi J) u_{\psi \psi} L^{\xi + 1} + M_{s\psi} t f \lambda \chi J^2 u_{\psi \psi}(1 + \gamma R J)L.$$  
(48)

Since Eq. (48) has the same structure as Eq. (37) except that the last term of Eq. (48) is multiplied by the extra factor $(1 + \gamma R J)$, the energy barrier $E_B^{\text{creep}}$ for the creep motion can be obtained straightforwardly from Eq. (48).

2. Néel DW

The magnetization direction at the center of the Néel DW points along the nanowire direction ($\hat{x}$ direction). In the convention where $\psi = 0$ for this direction, an additional magnetic field $\vec{H}_{\text{RSOC}}$ of which magnitude is proportional to $\lambda \chi J \tilde{\alpha}_R$ appears in terms of cubic and higher orders of $J$ and thus, we conclude that the RSOC does not modify the DW creep motion qualitatively in small $J$ regime.

Note that this equation differs from Eq. (45) (sin $\psi$ vs. $\cos \psi$) since $\psi = 0$ represents the different directions ($\hat{z}$ vs. $\hat{x}$) in the two cases. For $|\psi| \ll \pi/4$, $E_{\psi}$ in Eq. (31) is
modified to
\[
\tilde{V}_\psi(\psi) \approx \int \frac{dz}{\lambda} \left[ \frac{j}{2\hbar} \left( \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial z} \right)^2 + \frac{K_\perp(q,z)}{2\hbar} \psi^2 + M_{STT} \psi \chi J(1-2\tilde{\alpha}_R) \psi \right] + \frac{M_{STT} \lambda}{\lambda} \int \frac{dz}{\lambda} \frac{K_\perp(q,z)}{4\hbar}.
\]

Note that \(\tilde{\alpha}_R\) appears only in the second line, which accounts for the adiabatic STT effect. It is then evident that the RSOC renormalizes the adiabatic STT effect by the renormalization factor \((1-2\tilde{\alpha}_R)\).

With this knowledge, the energy barrier \(E_B^{\text{creep}}\) can be obtained in a straightforward way. For metallic ferromagnets with \(\zeta = 2/3\), the effective field for the Néel DW is given by the equation identical to Eq. (42) except replacing \(\eta\) by \(\eta(1+2\tilde{\alpha}_R)\). Note that the correction by nonzero \(\tilde{\alpha}_R\) again appears in rather high order terms in \(J\). Thus we conclude that the RSOC does not modify the creep motion of the Néel DW qualitatively.

IV. CONCLUSION

Magnetic DW motion in a nanowire was examined in the weak driving force regime with particular attention to metallic ferromagnets, where the DW anisotropy is very large. Effects of the magnetic field, the adiabatic STT, and the nonadiabatic STT on the DW motion were examined under the assumption that the amplitude of the tilting angle dynamics is much smaller than \(2\pi\). To be more specific, we examined two phenomena, the DW depinning from a single potential well in 1D systems, and the DW creep motion through a disordered potential profile in 2D systems.

The analysis on the 1D depinning becomes relevant when both the width and the thickness of a nanowire are smaller than the collective length \(L_{\text{col}}\). The nonadiabatic STT has the same effect as the magnetic field, and together, they generate the leading order contribution to the depinning rate. We found that the way that the adiabatic STT affects the DW depinning depends on the nature of disorders. In particular, it was demonstrated that in certain types of disorders, the conventional ways to determine the nonadiabaticity parameter \(\beta\) result in incorrect values. Possible ways to avoid the incorrect evaluation have been proposed.

The analysis on the 2D creep motion becomes relevant when the width of a nanowire is larger than \(L_{\text{col}}\) while the thickness remains smaller than \(L_{\text{col}}\). A thermally-assisted DW velocity is determined by the energy barrier \(E_B^{\text{creep}}\) between two spatially adjacent local minimum configurations in the DW energy profile. The contribution of the non-adiabatic STT \((\propto \beta J)\) to \(E_B^{\text{creep}}\) is the same as that of the magnetic field. The role of the adiabatic STT, however, is qualitatively different from those of the non-adiabatic STT and the magnetic field. Efficiencies of driving forces (magnetic field and current) are described in terms of the total effective magnetic field. Both the magnetic field and the non-adiabatic STT generate linear contributions to the total effective magnetic field, implying that the purely field-driven and purely current-driven DW creep motions belong to the same universality class. The adiabatic STT, on the other hand, generates \(J\)-quadratic or higher order contributions to the total effective magnetic field, and thus its contributions constitute the next leading order contributions. Although these contributions are irrelevant in the vanishing driving force limit, their effects may need to be taken into account in practical scaling analysis since experiments are always carried out at small but finite driving force strength.

Effects of the Rashba spin-orbit coupling (RSOC) on the DW depinning in 1D systems and on the DW creep in 2D systems are also discussed. For a Bloch wall in a nanowire with the PMA, the RSOC effect appears in terms of cubic and higher orders of \(J\) in the effective energy barrier. For a Néel wall in a nanowire with the PMA, the RSOC affects the effective energy barrier in a way similar to the adiabatic STT. Thus, its contribution to the energy barrier appears in quadratic and higher orders of \(J\).

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