

We consider the electrons to be non-interacting. Strict justification of this comes from the Landau theory, in which an interacting electron gas is re-described in terms of non-interacting *quasi-particles* with renormalised energy (as compared to original particles) and a finite lifetime. Providing this lifetime is long compared to any experimentally relevant processes, the quasi-particle picture is a valid one, and this is generally the case in semiconductors. We may also appeal to a *posteriori* justification, as we will see that this simple treatment is sufficient to describe a wide range of interesting mesoscopic transport experiments.

### 3.3 Effects of confinement

In the triangular quantum well of Fig. 3.1, confinement in one spatial dimension is much stronger than in the other two. With  $z$  singled out as the strongly confined dimension, we may therefore approximate the confinement potential as  $U(\mathbf{r}) = U(z)U(x, y)$ . With magnetic field in the  $z$  direction, i.e. perpendicular to the plane of the interface, the effective mass Schrödinger Equation, Eq. (3.1), admits the separable solution  $\Psi(\mathbf{r}) = \phi_n(z)\psi(x, y)$ , with  $\phi_n(z)$  the  $n$ th quantised solution of the one-dimensional problem in the  $z$  direction. Index  $n = 1, 2, \dots$  defines a set of *sub-bands*; if we consider the electrons to be unconfined in the plane of the interface, then the full eigenfunctions of Eq. (3.1) with  $U(\mathbf{r}) = U(z)$  are

$$\Psi(\mathbf{r}) = \phi_n(z)e^{ik_x x}e^{ik_y y} \quad (3.2)$$

with dispersion

$$E(n, k) = E_c + \epsilon_n + \frac{\hbar^2}{2m^*} (k_x^2 + k_y^2) \quad (3.3)$$

with  $\epsilon_n$ , the eigen-energies from  $z$ -confinement.

The density of states (per unit energy, per unit surface area) of such a quasi-infinite two-dimensional system is

$$\mathcal{D}(E) = \sum_n \frac{m^*}{\pi\hbar^2} \theta(E - \epsilon_n - E_c) = \sum_n \mathcal{D}_0 \theta(E - \epsilon_n - E_c), \quad (3.4)$$

with  $\theta(E)$  the unit step function and where a factor 2 for spin has been included. Within the  $n$ th subband then, the density of states is constant, with value  $n\mathcal{D}_0$ . For GaAs, with effective mass  $m^* = 0.07m_e$ ,  $\mathcal{D}_0 = 2.9 \times 10^{10}/(\text{cm}\cdot\text{meV})$ .

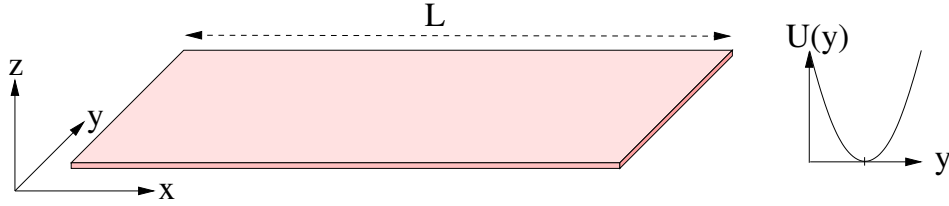


Figure 3.3: Sketch of a 2DEG, establishing co-ordinate system. Strong confinement is in the  $z$  direction, and much weaker parabolic confinement in the  $y$  direction. The extent of the sample in the  $x$ -direction is large cf. extent in  $y$  and  $z$  directions.

Confinement in the  $z$  direction is strong enough that experiments are usually restricted to the lowest  $n = 1$  sub-band. In both 2DEGs and SAQD the  $z$ -confinement is  $\sim 10$  times that in the  $x$ - $y$  plane. Thus, sub-bands  $n \geq 2$  play no significant role and we can neglect the  $z$  direction altogether — reducing the original 3D problem to a two-dimensional one with effective 2D Schrödinger equation

$$\left[ E_s + \frac{1}{2m^*} (i\hbar\nabla + e\mathbf{A})^2 + U(x, y) \right] \psi(x, y) = E\psi(x, y) \quad (3.5)$$

with  $E_s = E_c + \epsilon_1$ , and 2D vector operators.

### 3.4 Transverse modes in 2DEG

Consider a uniform 2D conductor, much longer than it is wide (Fig. 3.3). We will consider transport parallel to the long axis of the conductor ( $x$  direction), assuming that the motion is essentially unconfined in this direction. In the transverse ( $y$ ) direction, we model the confinement with a harmonic potential, such that we write

$$U(x, y) = U(y) = \frac{1}{2}m^*\omega_0^2y^2, \quad (3.6)$$

with  $\omega_0$  the *confinement energy* in the  $y$  direction. Harmonic confinement is a convenient mathematical form as it leads to analytical solutions. It also provides a reasonable approximations to confinements found in experiment.

We consider an applied magnetic field perpendicular to the 2DEG (in the  $z$  direction), and choose a gauge such that the vector potential is written

$$\mathbf{A} = -\hat{\mathbf{e}}_xB y; \quad A_x = -B y; \quad A_y = 0. \quad (3.7)$$

The 2D Schrödinger equation, Eq. (3.5), can then be written

$$\left[ E_s + \frac{1}{2m^*} (p_x + eBy)^2 + \frac{1}{2m^*} p_y^2 + U(y) \right] \psi(x, y) = E\psi(x, y), \quad (3.8)$$

with  $p_x = -i\hbar\partial/\partial x$  and  $p_y = -i\hbar\partial/\partial y$ . This has solution

$$\psi(x, y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{L}} e^{ikx} \chi(y) \quad (3.9)$$

with plane wave in  $x$  direction (normalised to length  $L$ ) and the transverse function  $\chi(y)$  given by the solution of the 1D problem

$$\left[ E_s + \frac{1}{2m^*} p_y^2 + \frac{1}{2m^*} (\hbar k + eBy)^2 + \frac{1}{2} m^* \omega_0^2 y^2 \right] \chi(y) = E\chi(y). \quad (3.10)$$

Let us define the cyclotron frequency

$$\omega_c = \frac{|eB|}{m^*}, \quad (3.11)$$

and the length

$$y_k = \frac{\hbar k}{eB}. \quad (3.12)$$

We have then

$$\left[ E_s + \frac{1}{2m^*} p_y^2 + \frac{1}{2} m^* \omega_c^2 (y + y_k)^2 + \frac{1}{2} m^* \omega_0^2 y^2 \right] \chi(y) = E\chi(y). \quad (3.13)$$

Completing the square, we have

$$\left[ E_s + \frac{m^* \omega_0^2 \omega_c^2}{2 \tilde{\omega}^2} y_k^2 + \frac{1}{2m^*} p_y^2 + \frac{1}{2} m^* \tilde{\omega}^2 \left( y + \frac{\omega_c^2}{\tilde{\omega}^2} y_k \right)^2 \right] \chi(y) = E\chi(y), \quad (3.14)$$

with

$$\tilde{\omega}^2 = \omega_c^2 + \omega_0^2 \quad (3.15)$$

This, then, has the form of a displaced Harmonic oscillator, and from elementary quantum mechanics, we have the solutions

$$\chi_{n,k}(y) = u_n \left( q + \frac{\omega_c^2}{\tilde{\omega}^2} q_k \right), \quad (3.16)$$

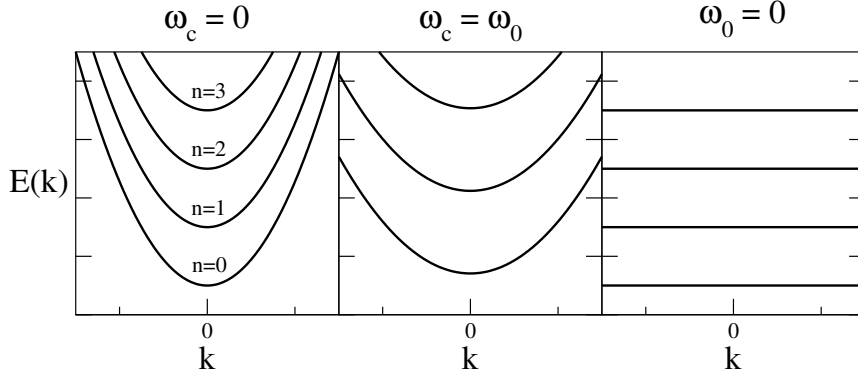


Figure 3.4: Dispersion relation for a 2DEG with transverse harmonic confinement and perpendicular magnetic field. The three plots are for different choices of  $\omega_0$  and  $\omega_c$ , the confinement and cyclotron frequencies, respectively.

with  $u_n(x)$  the usual simple-harmonic oscillator eigenfunctions written in terms of the dimensionless displacements  $q = y/\tilde{l}$  and  $q_k = y_k/\tilde{l}$  with length

$$\tilde{l} = \sqrt{\frac{\hbar}{m^*\tilde{\omega}}}. \quad (3.17)$$

The corresponding dispersion relation is

$$\begin{aligned} E &= E_s + \frac{m^* \omega_0^2 \omega_c^2}{2 \tilde{\omega}^2} y_k^2 + \left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right) \hbar \tilde{\omega} \\ &= E_s + \left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right) \hbar \tilde{\omega} + \frac{\hbar^2 k^2 \omega_0^2}{2m^* \tilde{\omega}^2}, \end{aligned} \quad (3.18)$$

with  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ . This result is illustrated in Fig. 3.4

The first thing to notice is that due to the confinement in the  $y$ -direction, we obtain a series of sub-bands, labelled with quantum number  $n$ . In contrast to the  $z$ -direction, however, here the confining potential is relatively weak, and more than just the lowest of sub-band will play a role in transport. In analogy with optical wave guides, these sub bands are known as *transverse modes* and they play a crucial role in determining the transport properties of low-dimensional conductors. We also note that the dispersion of a given transverse mode is of plane-wave form (i.e. quadratic) but with a renormalised mass  $m^* \rightarrow m^* (1 + \omega_c^2/\omega_0^2)$  — increasing the magnetic field

increases this renormalised mass of the electrons and makes the dispersion relation flatter. Figure 3.4 highlights two limiting cases:

- **Zero field:** For  $B \rightarrow 0$ , we have  $\omega_c \rightarrow 0$  and  $\tilde{\omega} \rightarrow \omega_0$  such that

$$E = E_s + \left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right) \hbar\omega_0 + \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m^*}, \quad (3.19)$$

as expected.

- **Zero confinement** For  $\omega_0 \rightarrow 0$ , we have  $\tilde{\omega} \rightarrow \omega_c$  and

$$E = E_s + \left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right) \hbar\omega_c, \quad (3.20)$$

in which case, quantum number  $n$  therefore the familiar Landau levels with quantisation energy given by the cyclotron frequency. NB: there is no dispersion in this limit.

### 3.5 Quantum dots: Fock-Darwin Spectrum

A useful model for the electronic confinement of a quantum dot is the two-dimensional, symmetric parabolic potential

$$U(x, y) = \frac{m^*}{2} \omega_0^2 (x^2 + y^2). \quad (3.21)$$

The corresponding Hamiltonian of an electron in the dot is

$$H = \frac{1}{2m^*} (\mathbf{p} + e\mathbf{A})^2 + \frac{m^*}{2} \omega_0^2 (x^2 + y^2). \quad (3.22)$$

By using the symmetric gauge for the vector potential  $\mathbf{A} = (-By/2, Bx/2, 0)$  it can be shown (homework!) that the energy spectrum the dot is given by

$$E_{n_+, n_-} = (n_+ + 1) \hbar\Omega + \frac{1}{2} \hbar\omega_c n_-, \quad (3.23)$$

with

$$\Omega^2 = \omega_0^2 + \frac{\omega_c^2}{4}, \quad (3.24)$$

and quantum numbers

$$n_{\pm} = n_x \pm n_y; \quad \text{for } n_x, n_y = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad (3.25)$$

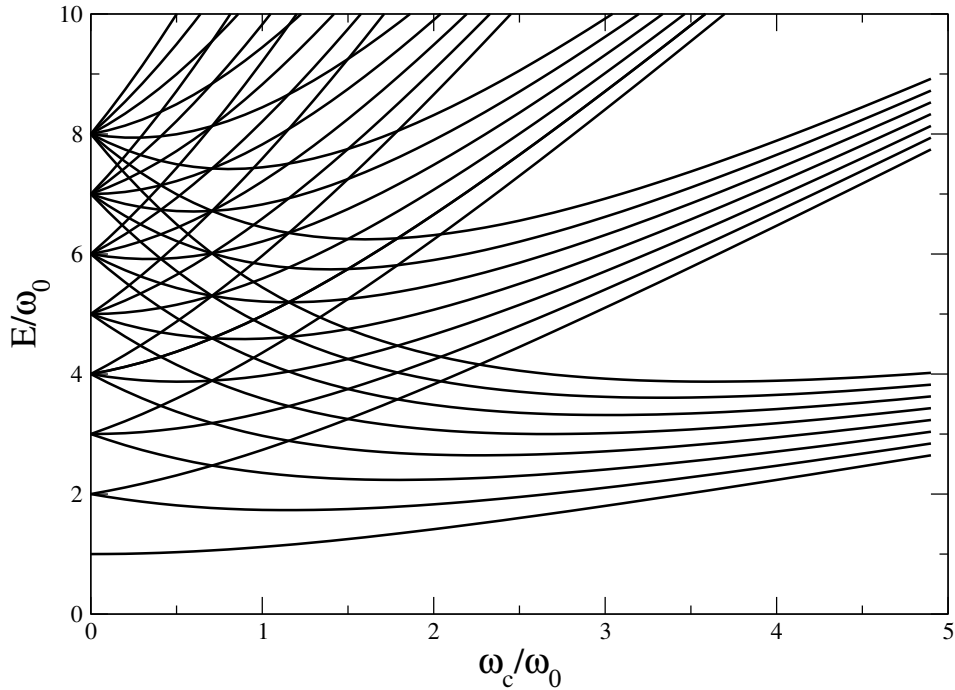


Figure 3.5: Fock-Darwin spectrum of symmetric quantum dot up to quantum number  $n = 7$ .

This result is known as the Fock-Darwin spectrum after the physicists who initially discussed the problem in the 1930s (nothing to do with quantum dots). This spectrum is plotted in Fig. 3.5. For  $B = 0$  we have the regularly-spaced spectrum of a two-dimensional symmetric harmonic oscillator. In the high-field limit, the spectrum goes over into that of the Landau levels with the effects of the dot confinement playing an ever decreasing role.