### Slides from FYS4411 Lectures

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What are they?

#### Electrons confined in an external potential.

- What happens in semiconductors?
- Coloumb effects and the Pauli principle keeps an excited electron-hole pair bound.
- Modelled by a free particle with an effective mass in an external potential. Can disregard the crystal lattice.
- Have the same properties as atoms, only larger size. Are discussed as artificial atoms.
  - Discrete energy levels.
  - Selfbound.
  - Relatively long lifetimes.

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- Smaller crystals have larger energy gaps.
- Effective mass depends on type of semiconductor and size.
  - Effective mass much smaller than m<sub>e</sub>.
  - Large de Broglie wavelength  $\lambda = \frac{h}{\gamma m_0 v}$
  - Quantum effects visible at larger scales.
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Usage

#### Quantum laboratory.

- Improved transistors.
- Quantum computers
- QLED (light emitting diode) and lasers.
  - Smaller sizes
- Medical imaging techniques and realtime tracking of molecules/cells.
- Improved solar panel efficiency.

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#### Quantum dots, the case of our project

We consider a system of electrons confined in a pure isotropic harmonic oscillator potential  $V(\mathbf{r}) = m^* \omega_0^2 r^2/2$ , where  $m^*$  is the effective mass of the electrons in the host semiconductor,  $\omega_0$  is the oscillator frequency of the confining potential, and  $\mathbf{r} = (x, y, z)$  denotes the position of the particle.

The Hamiltonian of a single particle trapped in this harmonic oscillator potential simply reads

$$\hat{H} = rac{\mathbf{p}^2}{2m^*} + rac{1}{2}m^*\omega_0^2\mathbf{r}^2$$

where **p** is the canonical momentum of the particle.

When considering several particles trapped in the same quantum dot, the Coulomb repulsion between those electrons has to be added to the single particle Hamiltonian which gives

$$\hat{H} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{e}} \left( \frac{\mathbf{p}_{i}^{2}}{2m^{*}} + \frac{1}{2}m^{*}\omega_{0}^{2}\mathbf{r}_{i}^{2} \right) + \frac{e^{2}}{4\pi\epsilon_{0}\epsilon_{r}} \sum_{i < j} \frac{1}{\mathbf{r}_{i} - \mathbf{r}_{j}},$$

where  $N_e$  is the number of electrons, -e (e > 0) is the charge of the electron,  $\epsilon_0$  and  $\epsilon_r$  are respectively the free space permitivity and the relative permitivity of the host material (also called dielectric constant), and the index *i* labels the electrons.

We assume that the magnetic field  $\vec{B}$  is static and along the *z* axis. At first we ignore the spin-dependent terms. The Hamiltonian of these electrons in a magnetic field now reads

$$\hat{H} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\theta}} \left( \frac{(\mathbf{p}_{i} + e\mathbf{A})^{2}}{2m^{*}} + \frac{1}{2}m^{*}\omega_{0}^{2}\mathbf{r}_{i}^{2} \right) + \frac{e^{2}}{4\pi\epsilon_{0}\epsilon_{r}}\sum_{i

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\theta}} \left( \frac{\mathbf{p}_{i}^{2}}{2m^{*}} + \frac{e}{2m^{*}}(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{p}_{i} + \mathbf{p}_{i} \cdot \mathbf{A}) + \frac{e^{2}}{2m^{*}}\mathbf{A}^{2} + \frac{1}{2}m^{*}\omega_{0}^{2}\mathbf{r}_{i}^{2} \right) \quad (2)$$

$$+ \frac{e^{2}}{4\pi\epsilon_{0}\epsilon_{r}}\sum_{i$$$$

where **A** is the vector potential defined by  $\mathbf{B} = \nabla \times \mathbf{A}$ .

In coordinate space,  $\mathbf{p}_i$  is the operator  $-i\hbar\nabla_i$  and by applying the Hamiltonian on the total wave function  $\Psi(\mathbf{r})$  in the Schrödinger equation, we obtain the following operator acting on  $\Psi(\mathbf{r})$ 

$$\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{i}} + \mathbf{p}_{\mathbf{i}} \cdot \mathbf{A} = -i\hbar \left( \mathbf{A} \cdot \nabla_{i} + \nabla_{i} \cdot \mathbf{A} \right) \Psi \tag{4}$$

$$= -i\hbar \left(\mathbf{A} \cdot (\nabla_i \Psi) + \nabla_i \cdot (\mathbf{A} \Psi)\right)$$
(5)

We note that if we use the product rule and the Coulomb gauge  $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A} = 0$  (by choosing the vector potential as  $\mathbf{A} = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{r}$ ),  $\mathbf{p}_i$  and  $\nabla_i$  commute and we obtain

$$\nabla_i \cdot (\mathbf{A}\Psi) = \mathbf{A} \cdot (\nabla_i \Psi) + (\underbrace{\nabla_i \cdot \mathbf{A}}_{0}) \Psi = \mathbf{A} \cdot (\nabla_i \Psi)$$

This leads us to the following Hamiltonian:

$$\hat{H} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{e}} \left( -\frac{\hbar^{2}}{2m^{*}} \nabla_{i}^{2} - i\hbar \frac{e}{m^{*}} \mathbf{A} \cdot \nabla_{i} + \frac{e^{2}}{2m^{*}} \mathbf{A}^{2} + \frac{1}{2}m^{*} \omega_{0}^{2} \mathbf{r}_{i}^{2} \right) + \frac{e^{2}}{4\pi\epsilon_{0}\epsilon_{r}} \sum_{i < j} \frac{1}{\mathbf{r}_{i} - \mathbf{r}_{j}},$$

The linear term in A becomes, in terms of B:

$$\frac{-i\hbar e}{m^*} \mathbf{A} \cdot \nabla_i = -\frac{i\hbar e}{2m^*} (\mathbf{B} \times \mathbf{r_i}) \cdot \nabla_i \tag{6}$$

$$=\frac{-i\hbar\theta}{2m^*}\mathbf{B}\cdot(\mathbf{r_i}\times\nabla_i)\tag{7}$$

$$=\frac{\mathbf{e}}{2m^*}\mathbf{B}\cdot\mathbf{L}$$
(8)

where  $\mathbf{L} = -i\hbar(\mathbf{r}_i \times \nabla_i)$  is the orbital angular momentum operator of the electron *i*.

If we assume that the electrons are confined in the *xy*-plane, the quadratic term in **A** can be written as

$$\frac{e^2}{2m^*}\mathbf{A}^2 = \frac{e^2}{8m^*}(\mathbf{B}\times\mathbf{r})^2 = \frac{e^2}{8m^*}B^2r_i^2$$

Until this point we have neglected the intrinsic magnetic moment of the electrons which is due to the electron spin in the host material. We will now add its effect to the Hamiltonian. This intrinsic magnetic moment is given by  $\mathcal{M}_s = -g_s^*(e\mathbf{S})/(2m^*)$ , where **S** is the spin operator of the electron and  $g_s^*$  its effective spin gyromagnetic ratio (or effective *g*-factor in the host material).We see that the spin magnetic moment  $\mathcal{M}_s$  gives rise to an additional interaction energy linear in the magnetic field,

$$\hat{H_s} = -\mathcal{M}_s \cdot \mathbf{B} = g_s^* rac{e}{2m^*} B \hat{S_z} = g_s^* rac{\omega_c}{2} \hat{S_z}$$

where  $\omega_c = eB/m^*$  is known as the cyclotron frequency.

#### The final Hamiltonian reads

$$\hat{H} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{e}} \left( \frac{-\hbar^{2}}{2m^{*}} \nabla_{i}^{2} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}m^{*}\omega_{0}^{2}\mathbf{r}_{i}^{2}}_{i r_{i}}^{2} \right) + \underbrace{\frac{e^{2}}{4\pi\epsilon_{0}\epsilon_{r}} \sum_{i < j} \frac{1}{|\mathbf{r}_{i} - \mathbf{r}_{j}|}}_{i r_{i} - \mathbf{r}_{j}|} + \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^{N_{e}} \left( \frac{1}{2}m^{*} \left( \frac{\omega_{c}}{2} \right)^{2} \mathbf{r}_{i}^{2} + \frac{1}{2}\omega_{c}\hat{L}_{z}^{(i)} + \frac{1}{2}g_{s}^{*}\omega_{c}\hat{S}_{z}^{(i)} \right)}_{single particle interactions}},$$
(9)

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with the magnetic field

In order to simplify the computation, the Hamiltonian can be rewritten on dimensionless form. For this purpose, we introduce the following constants:

- the oscillator frequency  $\omega = \omega_0 \sqrt{1 + \omega_c^2/(4\omega_0^2)}$ ,
- > a new energy unit  $\hbar\omega$ ,
- ▶ a new length unit, the oscillator length defined by  $I = \sqrt{\hbar/(m^*\omega)}$ , also called the characteristic length unit.

We rewrite the Hamiltonian in dimensionless units using:

$$\mathbf{r} \longrightarrow \frac{\mathbf{r}}{l}, \quad \nabla \longrightarrow l \nabla \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{L}_z \longrightarrow \hat{L}_z$$

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It leads to the following Hamiltonian:

$$\hat{H} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\theta}} \left( -\frac{1}{2} \nabla_i^2 + \frac{1}{2} r_i^2 \right) + \underbrace{\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \epsilon_r}}_{l=1} \frac{1}{\hbar\omega I} \sum_{i < j} \frac{1}{r_{ij}} + \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\theta}} \left( \frac{1}{2} \frac{\omega_c}{\hbar\omega} \hat{t}_z^{(i)} + \frac{1}{2} g_s^* \frac{\omega_c}{\hbar\omega} \hat{S}_z^{(i)} \right),$$
(10)

Lengths are now measured in units of  $I = \sqrt{\hbar/(m^*\omega)}$ , and energies in units of  $\hbar\omega$ .

A new dimensionless parameter  $\lambda = I/a_0^*$  (where  $a_0^* = 4\pi\epsilon_0\epsilon_r\hbar^2/(e^2m^*)$  is the effective Bohr radius) describes the strength of the electron-electron interaction. Large  $\lambda$  implies strong interaction and/or large quantum dot.

Since both  $\hat{L}_z$  and  $\hat{S}_z$  commute with the Hamiltonian we can perform the calculations separately in subspaces of given quantum numbers  $L_z$  and  $S_z$ .

The simplified dimensionless Hamiltonian becomes

$$\hat{H} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\theta}} \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \nabla_i^2 + \frac{1}{2} r_i^2 \right] + \lambda \sum_{i < j} \frac{1}{r_{ij}} + \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\theta}} \left( \frac{1}{2} \frac{\omega_c}{\hbar \omega} L_z^{(i)} + \frac{1}{2} g_s^* \frac{\omega_c}{\hbar \omega} S_z^{(i)} \right),$$

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The last sum which is proportional to the magnetic field involves only the quantum numbers  $L_z$  and  $S_z$  and not the operators themselves. Therefore these terms can be put aside during the resolution, the squizzing effect of the magnetic field being included simply in the parameter  $\lambda$ . The contribution of these terms will be added when the other part has been solved. This brings us to the simple and general form of the Hamiltonian:

$$\hat{H} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\Theta}} \left( -\frac{1}{2} \nabla_i^2 + \frac{1}{2} r_i^2 \right) + \lambda \sum_{i < j} \frac{1}{r_{ij}}$$

The form

$$\hat{H} = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\rm e}} \left( -\frac{1}{2} \nabla_i^2 + \frac{1}{2} r_i^2 \right) + \lambda \sum_{i < j} \frac{1}{r_{ij}},$$

is however not so practical since the interaction carries a strength  $\lambda$ . Why?

We rewrite it as a one-body part

$$\hat{H}_0 = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\Theta}} \left( -\frac{1}{2} \nabla_i^2 + \frac{\omega^2}{2} r_i^2 \right),$$

and interacting part

$$\hat{V} = \sum_{i < j}^{N_{\rm e}} \frac{1}{|\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_j|}$$

Your task till next week is to show this. The unperturbed part of the Hamiltonian yields the single-particle energies

$$\epsilon_i = \omega \left( 2n + |m| + 1 \right), \tag{11}$$

where n = 0, 1, 2, 3, ... and  $m = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, ...$  The index *i* runs from 0, 1, 2, ...

#### Harmonic oscillator in 2D with cartesian coordinates

Hamilton operator

$$\widehat{\mathbf{H}}_0 = \sum_{i=1}^N \left( -\frac{1}{2} \nabla_i^2 + \frac{1}{2} \omega^2 r_i^2 \right)$$

Eigenvalues and eigenfunctions

$$\phi_{n_x,n_y}(x,y) = AH_{n_x}(\sqrt{\omega}x)H_{n_y}(\sqrt{\omega}y)\exp\left(-\omega(x^2+y^2)/2\right)$$
$$E = \omega(n_x + n_y + 1)$$

Leads to a shell structure, similar to atomic and nuclear systems.

### Hermite polynomials

The Hermite polynomials are the solutions of the following differential equation

$$\frac{d^2 H(x)}{dx^2} - 2x \frac{dH(x)}{dx} + (\lambda - 1)H(x) = 0.$$
 (12)

The first few polynomials are

$$H_0(x) = 1,$$
  
 $H_1(x) = 2x,$   
 $H_2(x) = 4x^2 - 2,$   
 $H_3(x) = 8x^3 - 12,$ 

and

$$H_4(x) = 16x^4 - 48x^2 + 12.$$

They fulfil the orthogonality relation

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathrm{e}^{-x^2} H_n(x)^2 \mathrm{d}x = 2^n n! \sqrt{\pi},$$

and the recursion relation

$$H_{n+1}(x) = 2xH_n(x) - 2nH_{n-1}(x).$$

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#### Tasks for next week

- Set up the harmonic oscillator wave function in cartesian coordinates for an electron with  $n_x = n_y = 0$  and find the oscillator energy.
- Use this result to find the unperturbed energy

$$\int \Phi^* \hat{H_0} \Phi d au = \sum_{\mu=1}^N \langle \mu | h | \mu 
angle.$$

for two electrons with the same quantum numbers. Is that possible?

- Repeat for six electrons (find the relevant harmonic oscillator quantum numbers)
- Read chapter 5 of Lars Eivind Lervåg's thesis, it deals with quantum dots and gives a good introduction to the physics of quantum dots.
- For the project, finish parts 1a and 1b, including analytical derivatives and the profile analysis.