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Thermopower as a tool to investigate many-body effects in quantum systems

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Measuring the thermopower of a confined quantum system reveals important information about its excitation spectrum. Our simulations show how this kind of transport spectroscopy is able to extract a clear signal for the onset of Wigner localization in a nanowire segment. This demonstrates that thermopower measurements provide a tool for investigating complex many-body quantum effects, which is less intrusive than the usual charge-stability diagram as no high source-drain bias is required. While the effect is most pronounced for weak tunnel coupling and low temperatures, the excited states also significantly affect the thermopower spectrum at moderate temperature, adding distinct features to the characteristic thermopower lineshape.

Temperature differences appear everywhere in our environment. Between two conductors, a temperature gradient may result in electrical power. This idea goes back to Seebeck who discovered the effect in the beginning of the 19th century. Obviously, thermoelectricity has a great potential for applications, and much of the current activity in the field is spurred by the ever-increasing need to find better ways to efficiently recycle waste heat.

Thermoelectric effects in nanostructured quantum systems have recently attracted much interest, in part for the prospect to exploit the quantum properties of a nanosystem to enhance the usually low thermoelectric efficiency, see, e.g., Refs. 1 and 2 and references cited therein. In addition, the measurement of the electric response to a small thermal bias in a nanoscale system is emerging as a very useful complement to traditional conductance measurements in the investigation of novel effects in nanostructures, including their intricate quantum-mechanical properties. Examples are the recent study of the renormalization of energy states in quantum dots,\(^3\) rectification effects,\(^4,5\) quantum-thermoelectric reciprocity relations in quantum thermoelectric transport,\(^5\) and the proposed use of thermovoltage measurements as a novel method to identify Majorana states.\(^7\)

As thermal transport probes a relatively large energy window, excited states may manifest as additional peaks in the thermopower signal.\(^8-10\) Here, we apply this concept to the Wigner localization\(^11\) in a nanowire.\(^12-17\) Wigner localization is a prime example for a pronounced many-body effect, caused by the dominance of the repulsive interaction over the kinetic energy of the electrons in the system.\(^11,18\) Clearly, such spatially correlated quantum states cannot be described by the constant interaction model commonly used for thermal transport simulations;\(^8\) see also Ref. 19 for its extension to exchange effects. Thus, we need to work with a more realistic many-particle picture, fully taking into account the correlations in the system. Our approach follows Ref. 16, where we probed the Wigner localization by the conductance signal of excited states under finite bias. Using the thermopower signal, these features can be extracted already in linear response as demonstrated in this letter. This is of great benefit, as high source-drain biases are often problematic due to stray fields and sample heating.

The nanowire system that we investigate here is depicted in Fig. 1. We consider a segment of a nanowire, which is connected to leads on either side via a tunneling barrier. Possible realizations are, e.g., semiconductor nanowires with metal stripes acting as leads and simultaneously providing a Schottky barrier,\(^16\) nanowires with embedded heterostructures,\(^20\) or nanowires defined by cleaved edge overgrowth.\(^21\)

The nanowire segment is modeled as a hard-wall cylinder of radius 35 nm. We use the single-mode approximation, i.e., assume that the electrons are in the ground state in the transverse directions. In contrast, the length of the wire (160 nm), set by a finite well potential of depth \(V_0 \approx 0.1\) eV, allows for a multitude of spin-degenerate states. (Standard parameters for InSb are used.) The Hamiltonian including the full Coulomb interaction between the electrons is solved by the configuration interaction method (exact diagonalization).

![Figure 1](image-url)

**FIG. 1.** Schematic figure of the system. A finite segment of a nanowire is embedded between metallic leads. One lead is kept at a higher temperature by \(AT\). A bias \(V_{sd}\) is applied between source and drain. The energy levels of the nanowire segment are shifted by a gate potential \(\mu_{gate}\). The contacts provide barriers of height \(V_0\).
to find the energies and many-particle eigenstates of the electrons in the nanowire segment, see Ref. 16 for further details. The entire system can be shifted downwards in energy by \( \mu_{\text{gate}} \) by applying an appropriate gate contact. The leads are represented by Fermi seas of non-interacting electrons with temperatures \( T + \Delta T \) and \( T \), and chemical potentials \( -eV_{sd}/2 \), respectively, where \( \Delta T \) is the temperature difference and \( V_{sd} \) is the source-drain bias applied.

Electron transitions between the leads and the many-particle states are treated within the master equation model\(^{22–24} \) with tunneling matrix elements calculated as in Ref. 14. In the stationary state, we find the current \( I \) between source and drain as a function of \( V_{sd} \) and \( \Delta T \). The thermopower \( S = -(V_{th}/\Delta T) \) is easily accessible to quantify thermal transport. It is defined via the thermo-voltage \( V_{th} \), the bias point of vanishing \( I \) for a finite \( \Delta T \).

The ground and low-lying excited states of confined systems provide knowledge of fundamental properties of the system. Let us, for example, consider the lowest excitation energies \( \Delta \epsilon \) and \( \Delta E_2 \) for a one- and a two-particle system, respectively. If the Coulomb interaction is relatively weak, the independent-particle shell model applies. In that case, we find \( \Delta E_2 \approx \Delta \epsilon \), as the lowest single particle level is spin-degenerate. In contrast, for strong Coulomb repulsion, the two-particle ground state is better described by the two electrons being localized at either end of the wire segment, which is the Wigner localization addressed above. Here, we have four different spin configurations with a ground state singlet, which is almost degenerate with the excited triplet. (The energy difference results from residual coupling between the localized states.) Consequently, one can detect the onset of Wigner localization by observing that \( \Delta E_2 \) becomes significantly smaller than \( \Delta \epsilon \).

Commonly, the energy levels in a confined quantum system are measured by transport spectroscopy.\(^{8,25} \) Here, the conductance is measured as a function of source-drain bias and gate potential, see our calculated results in Fig. 2. The borders of the Coulomb blockade regions, where tunneling is energetically forbidden, are given by transitions between the ground states with different particle numbers, e.g., the lines 1 and 3 in the inset. Similarly, lines for tunneling to excited states (such as lines 2 and 4) can be identified. In this way, the onset of Wigner localization could be experimentally proven in Ref. 16 via the criterion \( \Delta E_2 \ll \Delta \epsilon \). However, these lines are not visible in the Coulomb blockade region. Thus, a significant source–drain bias is required for their observation. Such biases provide electric fields inside the sample, which may disturb the electronic structure. Detection of these lines far from equilibrium does therefore not always provide reliable information.

At low enough temperatures,\(^{26} \) low lying excitations become discernible in the Seebeck coefficient (thermopower), as fine-structure in the otherwise saw–tooth shaped thermopower\(^{8} \) for the case of weak contact couplings. This may sound surprising; since the thermopower is measured at vanishing source–drain bias in the Coulomb blockade regime, where there is no visible effect of excited states in the conductance (see Fig. 2). In fact, the conductance due to excited states is exponentially suppressed in the Coulomb blockade area.\(^{8} \) Although this makes tunneling via excited states invisible in the conductance, the small effect of the excited states on the current is still large enough to make a visible shift of its zero and, hence, the thermopower \( S = -(V_{th}/\Delta T) \) is measurable. This opens up the possibility of detecting the low lying excitation energies. In fact, Fig. 3 shows that for the nanowire system considered here, the energy differences \( \Delta \epsilon \) and \( \Delta E_2 \) can be directly extracted from the \( \mu_{\text{gate}} \)-dependence of the thermopower. Even if the lever arm factor, relating the measured gate potential to \( \mu_{\text{gate}} \), is not precisely known, the relative size of \( \Delta \epsilon \) and \( \Delta E_2 \) remains accessible. This provides a clear indication of the onset of Wigner localization, as it also becomes (gradually) visible in the spatial structure of the ground state shown in the inset of Fig. 3.

Thus, we propose to use thermopower measurements to identify the excited states in complex many particle systems. This approach provides two important benefits compared to standard tunneling spectroscopy: (i) One only needs to sweep the gate bias, and not also the source-drain bias, which reduces measurement times. (ii) The system is less affected by the measurements, as the source-drain bias remains small. It is proportional to the energy scale of the applied thermal bias (less than 1 K, or tens of \( \mu eV \)), as compared to the measurement of Coulomb diamonds that typically require a bias of order several \( mV \).

Regarding the technical realization, thermal biasing of short segments of nanowires has been demonstrated,\(^{27,28} \) which, however, was somewhat cumbersome and required careful tuning to avoid disturbances in the measurement circuit. A recent improvement in biasing technique\(^{29} \) allows for highly local (avoiding overall heating), continuously tunable, and electrically non-intrusive thermal biasing, which strongly facilitates the proposed thermopower measurements.

At higher temperatures \( (3k_BT \gg \Delta E) \), the excitations are no longer discernible in the Seebeck coefficient (Fig. 4). However, they add distinct features to the thermopower line-shape (which at finite temperature evolves away from a saw–tooth pattern\(^{8,28} \), and even shift the zeroes off their usual positions (at the Coulomb peak positions and in the middle...
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26. $k_BT < \Delta E$, where $\Delta E$ is the energy scale, we want to resolve.


