# Finite Element Modelling of Finite Single and Double Quantum Wells 

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#### Abstract

A system of two two-dimensional quantum dots is one of the simplest system used to study wavefunction localization. In general, the system is approximated by two finite quantum wells in the vicinity of each other. The wavefunction of such a system is hard to solve analytically; thus, a more precise numerical method is always in demand to give a better description of the system. This report discusses the finite element method (FEM), which is originally developed for mechanical engineering but extended to physics. This report also discusses using Fermi function to approximate discontinuous physical properties of the system. The validity of these methods is demonstrated with numerical data calculated under various approximations.


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## 1 Introduction

In quantum mechanics, every system can be described by a Schrödinger's equation with appropriate potential terms. Due to complicated potential terms and boundary conditions (BCs), analytically solving Schrödinger's equation is hard in general. However, the variational principle provides a universal way to address this equation. The numerical results of the eigenfunctions corresponding to the wavefunction and the eigenvalues corresponding to energy can be obtained via the finite element method (FEM).

The system of two 2 D quantum dots is treated in two cases: two square quantum wells and two circular quantum wells. Since different materials usually compose the inside and outside regions of the quantum dots, there is a discontinuity in the material properties across the boundary of the potential wells. This discontinuity will lead to difficulties in numerical analysis. Hence, an approximation is needed to resolve this problem. The report discusses the Fermi function as a smooth approximation of the discontinuity at the boundary.

In this report, Section II provides the methodology of the variational principle and the FEM. Section III discusses the validity of the Fermi function approximation. The numerical data of the wave functions and the energy eigenvalues of an electron inside 2D quantum dots are presented and discussed in Section IV. Section V provides the summation and conclusion remarks of this report. Appendix lists selected figures of the wave functions to illustrate
the localization of the wave functions between the two dots.

## 2 Variational Principles and Finite element Analysis

Most of the physical properties obey differential equations which can be derived from the principle of stationary action. For a non-relativistic particle moving in a region with potential energy $V(\mathbf{r})$, the time-independent Schrödinger equation is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\frac{\hbar^{2}}{2 m} \nabla^{2} \psi(\mathbf{r})+V(\mathbf{r}) \psi(\mathbf{r})=E \psi(\mathbf{r}) . \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The Schrödinger equation can be obtained under the condition that the action

$$
\begin{equation*}
A=\int d^{3} r\left[\nabla \psi^{*}(\mathbf{r})\left(-\frac{\hbar^{2}}{2 m}\right) \nabla \psi(\mathbf{r})+\psi^{*}(\mathbf{r})(V(\mathbf{r})-E) \psi(\mathbf{r})\right] \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

has an extremum. Here $\psi$ and $\psi^{*}$ (the complex conjugate of $\psi$ ) can be considered as two independent fields. One can vary the action integral $A$ with respect to $\psi^{*}(\mathbf{r})$ and set the variation to 0,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\delta A=\delta \psi^{*} \frac{\delta A}{\delta \psi^{*}}=0 \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

The wave functions for the resulting Schrödinger's equation can be obtained from the solutions of the equation (3). [2]

The numerical solutions of the equation (3) can be obtained using FEM. In FEM, the action integral is rewritten as the sum of the partitioned action on each element.

To do the action integral for each element, we implement a polynomial interpolation for the wavefunction as $\psi=\phi_{i} N_{i}$. Here, $\phi_{i}$ denotes the $i^{\text {th }}$ nodal value and $N_{i}$ denote the interpolation polynomial at that node. We then integrate the actions using the interpolated wave functions over the element and write the results in matrix form. Then we overlay the element matrix onto the global matrix of the actions. During this process, when a node is present in more than one elements, the matrix component of the nodes in all the element matrices are adding together to ensure the continuity of the action. In this way, the action integral can be written in the matrix form as,

$$
\begin{equation*}
A=\sum_{\alpha \beta}^{\text {nelem }}\left\langle\psi_{\alpha}\right| K_{\alpha \beta}\left|\psi_{\beta}\right\rangle-\epsilon\left\langle\psi_{\alpha}\right| M_{\alpha \beta}\left|\psi_{\beta}\right\rangle . \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here, $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are indices that go from 1 to the total number of elements (nelem), and the $K$ matrix contains the kinetic part of the wavefunction, and the $M$ is the overlap matrix that contains the potential part; whereas $\epsilon$ is the total energy of the system. We can minimize equation (4) with respect to $\left\langle\psi_{\alpha}\right|$ and obtain the discretized version of the Schrödinger equation in matrix form. To solve this matrix is to do a generalized eigenvalue problem.

Table 1: The first 10 energy eigenvalues of the infinite square potential well of the size $600 \times 600 \AA$ with different number of elements. The interpolation polynomials type used is quintic hermite

| State No. <br> $\left(n_{x}, n_{y}\right)$ | 60 Elements | 180 Elements | 360 Elements | 600 Elements | Exact <br> Eigenvalue |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $(1,1)$ | 2.000000315964 | 2.000000011741 | 2.000000001457 | 2.000000000391 | 2 |
| $(1,2)$ | 5.000001155247 | 5.000000042963 | 5.000000005350 | 5.000000001100 | 5 |
| $(2,1)$ | 5.000001155250 | 5.000000042964 | 5.000000005369 | 5.000000001344 | 5 |
| $(2,2)$ | 8.000004186648 | 8.000000155827 | 8.000000019496 | 8.000000004238 | 8 |
| $(1,3)$ | 10.000002782276 | 10.000000102993 | 10.000000012841 | 10.000000002861 | 10 |
| $(3,1)$ | 10.000002820148 | 10.000000105203 | 10.000000013180 | 10.000000002909 | 10 |
| $(2,3)$ | 13.000010227649 | 13.000000380295 | 13.000000047547 | 13.000000010235 | 13 |
| $(3,2)$ | 13.000010227651 | 13.000000380296 | 13.000000047560 | 13.000000010436 | 13 |
| $(1,4)$ | 17.000004723575 | 17.000000175616 | 17.000000021941 | 17.000000004717 | 17 |
| $(4,1)$ | 17.000004723577 | 17.000000175616 | 17.000000021954 | 17.000000004905 | 17 |

The energy of the equation is given by the eigenvalues of the matrix. The corresponding eigenvectors are composed of values of the wave function at each node. Using the interpolation polynomials with the nodal values, we can plot the wavefunction over the whole region.

In the FEM calculation, we can improve the accuracy of the results by adding more elements ( $h$-refinement) and by using higher order interpolation polynomials (called p-refinement). By increasing the number of elements and decreasing the size of each element, we get a better approximation of the wavefunction and thus improve the reliability of the interpolation. When we are using higher order interpolation polynomials, in addition to the continuity of the functional values, the values of higher order derivatives are also taken into account, which provides more details about the function. Table 1 and Table 2 present the data from the calculation of an infinite 2D potential well with different number of elements and different kinds of interpolation

Table 2: The first 10 energy eigenvalues of infinite square potential well of the size $600 \times 600 \AA$ with different interpolation polynomials. The number of elements along each direction is 30 .

| State No. <br> $\left(n_{x}, n_{y}\right)$ | Linear | Quadratic | Cubic hermite | Quintic hermite | Exact <br> Eigenvalue |
| :---: | ---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $(1,1)$ | 2.002072976968 | 2.000000809195 | 2.000009490588 | 2.000002514726 | 2 |
| $(1,2)$ | 5.023403002383 | 5.000018656386 | 5.000036310359 | 5.000009185818 | 5 |
| $(2,1)$ | 5.023403002383 | 5.000018656386 | 5.000036310360 | 5.000009185819 | 5 |
| $(2,2)$ | 8.044733027798 | 8.000036503577 | 8.000138421374 | 8.000033253701 | 8 |
| $(1,3)$ | 10.090019505074 | 10.000278643245 | 10.000080984889 | 10.000022309353 | 10 |
| $(3,1)$ | 10.090019505074 | 10.000278643246 | 10.000093282900 | 10.000022343845 | 10 |
| $(2,3)$ | 13.111349530489 | 13.000296490437 | 13.000331225894 | 13.000081457404 | 13 |
| $(3,2)$ | 13.111349530489 | 13.000296490437 | 13.000331225894 | 13.000081457404 | 13 |
| $(1,4)$ | 17.339273291118 | 17.001264311523 | 17.000162669871 | 17.000037609686 | 17 |
| $(4,1)$ | 17.339273291118 | 17.001264311524 | 17.000162669871 | 17.000037609687 | 17 |

polynomials. It can be shown that when we use quintic Hermite polynomial with 600 elements along each side, we can get results with double precision.

## 3 Fermi Function in 2D

The regions outside and inside of a quantum dot are composed of different materials, each of them with a different effective mass for the carrier and potential band-gap.[1] At the boundary of the two materials, there will be a discontinuity in these properties. This discontinuity will cause problems in FEM calculation when using Hermite interpolation, in which the continuity of the derivative of the function is taken into account. When using Hermite interpolation, we impose the continuity condition at the boundary of the elements by overlying parts from different local matrices that correspond to the same node. If we have a discontinuity at the boundary, the derivative
at the same node calculated from the two adjacent elements is different by a constant. We need to adjust this by multiplying the derivative nodal value of one of the elements by that constant so that the corresponding matrix value in both elements match up. It is hard to perform this for a complicated BCs because there is no simple algorithm to pick up all the adjacent element matrices at the boundary. Resolving this problem requires approximations that smooth out those discontinuous steps. The Fermi function, which originated in statistical physics to describe the Fermi-Dirac Distribution provides a good approximation for this condition. To show this graphically, we take an example of a 1D three-layer system with different effective mass in each layers. If $m_{r}$ represents the ratio $m_{e} / m^{*}, m_{r}$ along the region can be written as a Fermi function. The Fermi function provides an adjustable smoothing of the jump discontinuity at the boundary. Thus $m_{r}$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
m_{r}(x)=m_{r o}+\frac{m_{r i}-m_{r o}}{1+\exp \left(\frac{\left(x-x_{1}\right)\left(x-x_{2}\right)}{\delta^{2}}\right)} . \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here, $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ are the coordinates of the two boundaries, $\delta$ is the parameter used to control the sharpness of the Fermi curve at the edge, $m_{r i}$ is the value of $m_{r}(x)$ in the middle, and $m_{r o}$ is the value of $m_{r}(x)$ on the two sides. A set of plots that corresponds to this set up is shown as FIG. 1.

From FIG. 1. it is clear that if the parameter $\delta$ is small enough, the Fermi function will quickly become horizontal when moving away from the boundary. The parameter $\delta$ can be used to control the fitness of the Fermi


Figure 1: Comparison between a step function and a Fermi function.
function to the step function. It can be shown by doing quick math that a smaller $\delta$ value will give better fitness of the function. To give an example of the results using the Fermi function, Table 3 shows the calculations for a finite square inside a square potential well, where the Fermi function (take potential for example) is set up as

$$
\begin{equation*}
V(x)=V_{\text {out }}-\frac{V_{\text {out }}-V_{\text {in }}}{\left(1+\exp \left(\frac{\left(x-x_{1}\right)\left(x-x_{2}\right)}{\delta^{2}}\right)\right)\left(1+\exp \left(\frac{\left(y-y_{1}\right)\left(y-y_{2}\right)}{\delta^{2}}\right)\right)} . \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

In this equation, $x_{1}$ and $y_{1}$ are the smaller bound and $x_{2}$ and $y_{2}$ are the larger bound of the square region inside. This Fermi function will ensure the potential equals $V_{i n}$ inside the square region and $V_{i n}$ in the surrounding outer
square. FIG. 2 shows the effective mass distribution in the physical region in terms of mass ratio. FIG. 3 shows the potential function in the region. The shape of the function in these two figures are described by the Fermi function to provide a continuous approximation of the property difference across the boundary. Table ?? shows the results of the first ten eigenvalues obtained from this problem with various $\delta$ values. The potential band gap and effective mass ratio come from the heavy hole band width of AlGaAs and GaAs. The potential inside is 0 eV and the potential outside is 0.159 eV . The ratio of electron mass to its effective mass inside is 2.86 and the ratio outside is 2.638 . From the variational method in quantum mechanics, we know that the approximated results will always give an upper bound for the real value. From Table 3, when $\delta$ is smaller the results are smaller. So our data shows that for smaller $\delta$ values we get better results. It is also worth noticing that when $\delta$ is getting smaller the change in the resulting number is getting less significant. However, due to the limited capacity of the computer program, results will not be valid when using a extremely small $\delta$ value.

When we use the Fermi function to approximate the discontinuous properties at the boundary, We need to assign more elements in the adjacent of the boundary. This is because the graph of the Fermi is turning to vertical line very fast at the boundary, as shown in FIG. 1. To interpolation this behaviour properly, the size of the elements close to the boundary needs to be small. Applying more elements near the boundary can shrink the element size so that within each element the change in the function value is small
and can be represented properly by the interpolation polynomials. In order to have more elements at the boundary and try to reduce the overall number of elements, we can set up several intervals, each with different element density. The length of the intervals are given in terms of $\delta$. We then assign more elements in the interval close to the boundary and assign a few elements to interval away from the boundary. This way we can represent the discontinuous properly at the boundary without using too much elements.

To summarize, using the Fermi function to approximate the step- functionlike behaviour will give good numerical results when we assign more elements in the adjacent of the boundary and a small enough $\delta$ value.


Figure 2: Inverse of mass to effective mass ratio ( $m_{*} / m_{e}$ ) distribution for the square inside a square calculation.

Table 3: The first 10 energy eigenvalues of a finite potential square inside an infinite square potential well with various $\delta$ values. The size of the region is $600 \times 600 \AA$ and the size of the finite well inside is $100 \times 100 \AA$. Around the boundary there are three intervals. The sizes of these intervals $5,5,10$ in terms of $\delta \AA$ and the number of elements inside each interval are correspondingly $25,10,5$. The total number of elements along each direction is 310. The effective mass and potential difference of the inside square and the outside square come from the heavy hole band gap of AlGaAs and GaAs. Parameter used in the calculation are further elaborated on in the text.

| Energy <br> Eigenstates | $\delta=0.5$ <br> $10^{-3} \mathrm{eV}$ | $\delta=0.1$ <br> $10^{-3} \mathrm{eV}$ | $\delta=0.05$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 15.599597506491 | 15.599587280724 | 15.599586560589 | 15.599586003793 |
| 2 | 38.758694071697 | 38.758672070459 | 38.758670538591 | 38.758669354742 |
| 3 | 38.758694071733 | 38.758672070763 | 38.758670539295 | 38.758669361244 |
| 4 | 61.733240851152 | 61.733207910490 | 61.733205627558 | 61.733203882489 |
| 5 | 76.357094213602 | 76.357063911059 | 76.357061868547 | 76.357060311942 |
| 6 | 76.560231572882 | 76.560200073149 | 76.560197941915 | 76.560196290390 |
| 7 | 99.028297790542 | 99.028257598005 | 99.028254876732 | 99.028252810697 |
| 8 | 99.028297790641 | 99.028257598609 | 99.028254877917 | 99.028252820181 |
| 9 | 126.155187366676 | 126.155163516181 | 126.155162034658 | 126.155160894802 |
| 10 | 126.155187366819 | 126.155163517511 | 126.155162037583 | 126.155160920987 |



Figure 3: Potential function for the square inside a square calculation.

## 4 Double Quantum Dots Interaction

In a 2 D region where there are two separated quantum dots, a particle can tunnel through the barrier between the dots if the dots are close enough to each other. The localization of the wavefunction inside two dots and the shift of the energy eigenvalue are discussed in this section.

### 4.1 Double Square dots

The quantum dots here are two squares that each have the width of $200 \AA$. They are symmetric to each other about the central $y$-axis. The distance between them is allowed to vary, and its effect to the wavefunction and eigenvalue is calculated. Outside the two dots, the width of surrounded region is set to $300 \AA$ to allow the wavefunction to die out properly at the outside
boundary. The Fermi function that is used to describe the discontinuous properties at the dots boundary is

$$
\begin{align*}
P(x)=P_{\text {out }} & -\frac{P_{\text {out }}-P_{\text {in }}}{\left(1+\exp \left(\frac{\left(x-x_{1}\right)\left(x-x_{2}\right)}{\delta^{2}}\right)\right)\left(1+\exp \left(\frac{\left(y-y_{1}\right)\left(y-y_{2}\right)}{\delta^{2}}\right)\right)} \\
& -\frac{P_{\text {out }}-P_{\text {in }}}{\left(1+\exp \left(\frac{\left(x-x_{3}\right)\left(x-x_{4}\right)}{\delta^{2}}\right)\right)\left(1+\exp \left(\frac{\left(y-y_{1}\right)\left(y-y_{2}\right)}{\delta^{2}}\right)\right)}, \tag{7}
\end{align*}
$$

where $P$ denotes the properties such as effective mass or potential, and $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}, y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$ are the boundary coordinates of the first dot and $x_{3}$ and $x_{4}, y_{1}$ and $y_{2}$ are the boundary coordinates of the second dot. The effective mass distribution and the potential function are shown in FIG. 4 and FIG. 5 respectively.


Figure 4: Inverse of mass to effective mass ratio $\left(m_{*} / m_{e}\right)$ distribution for the double square dots calculation.

Table 4 shows the energy eigenvalues of each calculation with different separation distance. It is clear that when the distance in between is wide


Figure 5: Potential function for the double dots calculation.
enough for both wavefunctions to die out within the barrier, there is a twofold degeneracy of each state. This is due to the symmetry in the shape of the two dots. When two dots are moving towards each other, the degeneracy is broken up due to the possibility of particle tunneling through the barrier. From the data, when the distance in between is shrinking, some of the states are moving upward while others are moving downward and no state remains the same. When the two dots are close enough, the energy of the lower states may surpass the energy of the originally higher states. It can also be shown from the data that when the distance is changing in one direction, the change of energy is strictly in one direction. In another word, when a state's energy is increasing, it is strictly increasing while the distance is decreasing. Similarly, when a state's energy is decreasing, it is strictly decreasing while the distance is decreasing. The next section shows the figures to the wavefunctions of the
first few states with square dots. The merging of the two waves is clearly shown when the two dots are getting closer to each other.

### 4.2 Double Circular dots

The quantum dots in this set of calculation are two squares with a radius of $100 \AA$. The center of the two dots is on the same horizontal line. The physical region around the two dots is a rectangle with the dimension $1600 \AA *$ $800 \AA$. The distance between the dots is set to be the distance between the two center subtract two times the radius. This distance is allowed to vary, and its effect to the wavefunction and eigenvalue is calculated. The changing of the potential energy and effective mass at the circular boundary is described by a Fermi function

$$
\begin{equation*}
P=P_{\text {out }}-\frac{P_{\text {out }}-P_{\text {in }}}{1+\exp \left(\frac{r_{1}-r}{\delta}\right)}-\frac{P_{\text {out }}-P_{\text {in }}}{1+\exp \left(\frac{r_{2}-r}{\delta}\right)} . \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

$P$ is the physical property the function is used to described. $r$ is the radius of the circle and $r_{1}$ and $r_{2}$ is the distance of the point of interest to the two center.

Table 5 shows the first 10 energy eigenvalues of each calculation with different separation distance. From the comparison of circular dots and square dots, there are two things worth noticing. Firstly, the energy eigenvalues are changed in different geometry. This is because the first ten states are all bound states whose energy is lower than the potential energy of the finite
Table 4: The first 10 energy eigenvalues of two square quantum dots with various distances in between. The region around the two dots has a width of $300 \AA$ and the size of each quantum dots is $200 \times 200 \AA$. The distant between the two dots is label at the first row. Around the boundary of each dots there are three intervals. The sizes of these intervals are $5,10,15$ in terms of $\delta$ and the number of elements inside each interval are correspondingly $20,5,5$. The total number number of elements is $500 \times 260$. The effective mass and potential difference of the quantum dots and outside regions come from the conduction band gap of AlGaAs and GaAs.

| Energy States | $\begin{gathered} 600 \AA \\ 10^{-3} \mathrm{eV} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 100 \ddot{A} \\ 10^{-3} \mathrm{eV} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 50 \AA \\ 10^{-3} \mathrm{eV} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 20 \ddot{A} \\ 10^{-3} \mathrm{eV} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 10 \ddot{A} \\ 10^{-3} \mathrm{eV} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 5 A \\ 10^{-3} \mathrm{eV} \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 2 \ddot{A} \\ 10^{-3} \mathrm{eV} \end{gathered}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 0.83642219 | 20.835100121 | 4318396776 | 20.118138582876 | 7294350815 | 17.336452410640 | 15.475914436 |
| 2 | 20.836422199671 | 20.837743070250 | 20.896724597006 | 21.368030748688 | 21.827053070788 | 22.134891850030 | 22 |
| 3 | 51.936770519614 | 51.929120355622 | 51.654137644621 | 49.251022804996 | 45.812256970293 | 42.485069134872 | 39.697 |
| 4 | 51.936770519648 | 51.935173197156 | 51.868898454421 | 51.190237242611 | 49.976272319298 | 48.403167439914 | 46.578656 |
| 5 | 51.93677071045 | 51.938366003649 | 52.002528038120 | 52.485632521805 | 52.944491745190 | 53.249924319354 | 53.45231 |
| 6 | 51.93677071048 | 51.94441657612 | 52.213457441230 | 54.123707150544 | 55.943479400734 | 57.1662971760 | 7.9 |
| 7 | 82.767557754244 | 82.758230637324 | 82.458259567420 | 79.991414418447 | 76.568435868404 | 73.3184622147 | 0.62 |
| 8 | 82.767557754336 | 82.776877991618 | 83.070034401976 | 85.027273894116 | 86.845362737204 | 88.057837193614 | 87.265840 |
| 9 | 103.235545037256 | 103.213558121556 | 102.473373756346 | 97.925812416043 | 93.252112917984 | 89.750726250653 | 88.862536087 |
| 10 | 103.235545037396 | 103.250628879649 | 103.191020016176 | 102.468360792840 | 101.232540304087 | 99.67735095201 | 7.920 658764 |

wells. Therefore the energy of the bound states should depend on the geometry and the size of the quantum well. Secondly, the degeneracy pattern is different and can be shown by looking at the last four states of dots that have distance $600 \AA$ in between. In the square dots, there are two doublet degeneracies and the difference is quite significant, but in circular dots difference in all the four states are much less than that of square dots. The degeneracy pattern is determined by the symmetry of the system and can be predicted using group theory. The square and circle have different symmetry; therefore, the degeneracy pattern should be different. There are also many similarities between this two set of data. Firstly, it is clear that for the circular wells when the distance is large enough, there will be a doublet degeneracy of every state same as that of the square wells. When the two circle are getting closer to each other, the degeneracy is broken due to the possibility of electron tunneling through. Secondly, similar to that of the square, when the distance between the circle is decreasing, the change of energy of the same state is strictly in one direction. The next section also shows the figures to the wavefunctions of the first few states with circular dots. The merging of the two waves is clearly shown when the two dots are getting closer to each other.

Table 5: The first 10 energy eigenvalues of two circular quantum dots with various distances in between. The physical region around the two dots is a rectangle with the dimension $1600 \AA * 800 \AA$ and the radius of each quantum dots is $100 \AA$. The center of two circle is on the same horizontal line and the distant between the two dots is denoted at the first row. The node density ( $A$ per node) on the circle is 0.5 . The node density on the outside is 40 . The mesh is generated with Gmsh and the mesh element is triangle. The effective mass and potential difference of the quantum dots and outside regions come from the conduction band gap of AlGaAs and GaAs. The $\delta$ used for this calculation is $0.01 \AA$

| Energy <br> States | $600 \AA$ <br> $10^{-3} \mathrm{eV}$ | $100 \AA$ <br> $10^{-3} \mathrm{eV}$ | $50 \AA$ <br> $10^{-3} \mathrm{eV}$ | $2 \AA$ <br> $10^{-3} \mathrm{eV}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | 24.301762 | 24.299946 | 24.271749 | 22.520824 |
| 2 | 24.301848 | 24.301157 | 24.328896 | 25.174874 |
| 3 | 61.479926 | 61.469889 | 61.307540 | 54.336396 |
| 4 | 61.480161 | 61.474289 | 61.465212 | 61.066178 |
| 5 | 61.480645 | 61.474724 | 61.483734 | 61.796655 |
| 6 | 61.480810 | 61.479178 | 61.638951 | 65.436480 |
| 7 | 109.788008 | 109.752326 | 109.440862 | 100.310885 |
| 8 | 109.788361 | 109.762897 | 109.686299 | 107.291977 |
| 9 | 109.791326 | 109.768343 | 109.844395 | 111.672180 |
| 10 | 109.791652 | 109.778437 | 110.080558 | 114.466675 |

## 5 Conclusion

This MQP project provides a finite element modelling of single and double quantum dots. It also shows how to use the Fermi function as a continuous approximation of discontinuous functions. All of this shows the power of FEM in calculating the energy eigenvalues and modelling the wavefuncions of 2D systems. This report also discusses the localization of the wavefuncions in two adjacent square and circular quantum dots. The results of which provides details about electrons tunnelling thought the barrier between the dots.

A system of two two-dimensional quantum dots is one of the simplest system used to study wavefunction entanglement between two electrons. The wavefunction of two electrons in side the double quantum dots is strongly correlated with the wavefunction of a single electron. The results of this report could be extended into the study of two electrons interaction and the entanglement between them in quantum wells.

## A The figures of the wavefunctions

## A. 1 square dots



Figure 6: State 1 wavefunction of the square quantum dots with distance $100 \AA$ between.


Figure 7: State 2 wavefunction of the square quantum dots with distance $100 A$ between.


Figure 8: State 3 wavefunction of the square quantum dots with distance $100 \AA$ between.


Figure 9: State 4 wavefunction of the square quantum dots with distance 100 A between.


Figure 10: State 1 wavefunction of the square quantum dots with distance $50 \AA$ between.


Figure 11: State 2 wavefunction of the square quantum dots with distance $50 \AA$ between.


Figure 12: State 3 wavefunction of the square quantum dots with distance $50 A$ between.


Figure 13: State 4 wavefunction of the square quantum dots with distance $50 \AA$ between.


Figure 14: State 1 wavefunction of the square quantum dots with distance 20 A between.


Figure 15: State 2 wavefunction of the square quantum dots with distance $20 A$ between.


Figure 16: State 3 wavefunction of the square quantum dots with distance $20 A$ between.


Figure 17: State 4 wavefunction of the square quantum dots with distance $20 \AA$ between.


Figure 18: State 1 wavefunction of the square quantum dots with distance $10 \AA$ between.


Figure 19: State 2 wavefunction of the square quantum dots with distance $10 \AA$ between.


Figure 20: State 3 wavefunction of the square quantum dots with distance $10 A$ between.


Figure 21: State 4 wavefunction of the square quantum dots with distance $10 \AA$ between.


Figure 22: State 1 wavefunction of the square quantum dots with distance $5 \AA$ between.


Figure 23: State 2 wavefunction of the square quantum dots with distance $5 A$ between.


Figure 24: State 3 wavefunction of the square quantum dots with distance $5 A$ between.


Figure 25: State 4 wavefunction of the square quantum dots with distance $5 \AA$ between.

## A. 2 circular dots



Figure 26: State 1 wavefunction of the circular quantum dots with distance $100 A$ between.


Figure 27: State 2 wavefunction of the circular quantum dots with distance $100 \AA$ between.


Figure 28: State 3 wavefunction of the circular quantum dots with distance $100 A$ between.


Figure 29: State 4 wavefunction of the circular quantum dots with distance $100 A$ between.


Figure 30: State 1 wavefunction of the circular quantum dots with distance $50 \AA$ between.


Figure 31: State 2 wavefunction of the circular quantum dots with distance $50 \AA$ between.


Figure 32: State 3 wavefunction of double quantum dots with distance $50 \AA$ between.


Figure 33: State 4 wavefunction of the circular quantum dots with distance $50 A$ between.


Figure 34: State 1 wavefunction of the circular quantum dots with distance $2 \AA$ between.


Figure 35: State 2 wavefunction of the circular quantum dots with distance $2 \AA$ between.


Figure 36: State 3 wavefunction of the circular quantum dots with distance $2 \AA$ between.


Figure 37: State 4 wavefunction of the circular quantum dots with distance $2 \AA$ between.

## References

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