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## Direct Observation of the Photon Suppression of Electronic Shot Noise in a QPC

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We report on direct measurements of the electronic shot noise of a Quantum Point Contact (QPC) at frequencies  $\nu$  in the range 4-8GHz. The very small energy scale used ensures energy independent transmissions of the few transmitted electronic modes and their accurate knowledge. Both the thermal energy and the QPC drain-source voltage  $V_{ds}$  are comparable to the photon energy leading to observation of the shot noise suppression when  $V_{ds} < h\nu/e$ . The measurements provide the first direct comparison to the high frequency shot noise scattering theory without adjustable parameters.

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Current flowing through an electrical quantum conductor can be completely noiseless. This is a direct consequence of the Pauli exclusion principle, which implies that electrons emitted by a biased contact form a noiseless flow. The quantum uncertainty of scattering within the conductor (partition noise) yields to current fluctuations called shot noise [1, 2]. Measuring the shot noise amounts to determine wether electrons have been transmitted or not. Low-frequency shot noise have been used, in particular, to probe the charge of the low energy excitations carrying the current in the Fractional Quantum Hall Effect [3] or the transmissions of the different electronic modes in diffusive wires [4], chaotic cavities [5], or in a Quantum Point Contact presenting a  $0.7 \times 2e^2/h$ anomaly [6]. In finite frequency measurements, for which the energy of the detected photons is a relevant scale, allow to probe the characteristic energies of the system. In this Letter, we report on high frequency shot noise measurement on the simplest quantum conductor, a Quantum Point Contact (QPC). We find, in agreement with theory, that the excess shot noise power vanishes when the energy of the detected photons exceed the thermal energy and the energy of the injected electrons.

In a two contact conductor, electrons emitted in the energy range  $eV_{ds}$  above the Fermi energy, form a noiseless current  $I_0 = 2eV_{ds}/h$  for each electronic mode, where  $V_{ds}$  is the potential difference between the two contacts. At zero temperature, the zero frequency shot noise spectral density is then  $S_I(0) = 2eI_0\Sigma_iD_i(1-D_i)$ . The last factor comes from the variance of the binomial statistics for electrons crossing the conductor in mode (i) with transmission probability  $D_i$  [1, 2]. When the detection frequency increases, one has to take into account the influence of the quantification of energy exchange with the measuring device. More specifically, in order to detect shot noise at frequency  $\nu$ , a photon energy  $h\nu$  has to be transmitted from the sample to the de-

tection circuit. The energy range of electrons able to participate to current fluctuations is then  $eV_{ds} - h\nu$  for  $V_{ds} > h\nu/e$ . Thus, the finite frequency shot noise is reduced to  $S_I(\nu) = S_I(0)(eV_{ds} - h\nu)/eV_{ds}$  [7], and is completely suppressed for  $V_{ds} < h\nu/e$ . This suppression is very similar to that of finite frequency equilibrium thermal noise when  $k_BT < h\nu$ , when electrons have not enough thermal energy to emit photons.

Accurate measurements of low frequency shot noise have definitely established the validity of the scattering picture of quantum transport [8, 9]. However, much less is known about high frequency quantum shot noise. A first motivation to investigate this regime was that a direct experimental test of the theory was missing. A second motivation is the recent prediction that in the frequency range  $\simeq eV_{ds}/2h$  to  $eV_{ds}/h$ , current fluctuations could lead to non-classical photon emission [10] in the external measuring circuit, when only one electronic mode is transmitted, i.e. in a QPC. Another interesting aspect is the modification of the quantum transport laws at high frequencies which may lead to departure from the above shot noise picture [11] in experimental configurations where inclusion of current conservation effects may be important [12].

The first finite frequency shot noise measurements on normal conductors have been done using diffusive conductors [13]. Here the voltage derivative of shot noise was measured. While measurements were consistent with theory, the diffusive conductor did not allow to vary transmission nor to probe the few transmission mode regime. More recently, a Quantum Dot has been used as on-chip detector to probe the shot noise of a QPC in the 10 to 150 GHz frequency range[14]. Here most features expected for QPC shot noise was qualitatively observed validating the promising new photo-detection method. However the lack of knowledge of coupling parameters prevent quantitative shot noise measurements.

The QPC voltages used was very large, in the range 0.05 to  $0.5E_{Fermi}$ , and the quantum limit cut-off frequency of shot noise was found for too large QPC bias voltages  $(V_{ds} \simeq 5 \times h\nu/e)$ .

In this letter, we present the first accurate test of the scattering theory of finite frequency quantum shot noise for normal coherent conductors using a QPC in the 4-8GHz frequency range. The direct measurement of the total excess noise, the knowledge of and ability to tune electronic mode transmissions, the small energy scale used  $(eV_{ds} \ll 0.02E_{Fermi})$  ensuring energy independent transmissions and allowing to probe the photon limited regime  $(k_BT < h\nu, eV_{ds} < \text{or} > h\nu)$ , give a direct comparison between experiment and theory with no adjustable parameters.

The experimental set-up is represented in figure 1. A two-terminal conductor made of a QPC realized in a 2DEG in GaAs/GaAlAs heterojunction is cooled at 65 mK by a dilution refrigerator and inserted between two transmission lines. The sample characteristics are a 35 nm deep 2DEG with 36.7  $\mathrm{m^2~V^{-1}~s^{-1}}$  mobility and  $4.4\ 10^{1}5\ \mathrm{m}^{-2}$  electron density. In order to increase the sensitivity, both contacts are separately connected to 50  $\Omega$  coaxial transmission lines via two quarter wave length impedance adapters, raising the effective input impedance of the detection lines to 200  $\Omega$  over a one octave bandwidth centered on 6GHz. The transmitted signals are then amplified by two cryogenic Low Noise Amplifiers, with  $T_{\text{noise}} \simeq 5K$ . Two circulators, thermalized the mixing chamber temperature (60 mK) protect the sample from the current noise of the cryogenic amplifiers (thus, the environment seen by the QPC is 200  $\Omega$  at base temperature). After further amplification and eventually narrow bandpass filtering at room temperature, current fluctuations are detected using two calibrated quadratic detectors whose output voltage is proportional to noise power. Up to a calculable gain factor, the detected noise power contains the weak sample noise on top of a large additional noise generated by the first cryogenic amplifiers. In order to remove this background, we measure the excess shot noise, i.e.  $\Delta S_I(\nu, T, V_{ds}) = S_I(\nu, T, V_{ds}) - S_I(\nu, T, 0)$ . Practically, this is done by applying a 93 Hz  $0-V_{ds}$  square-wave bias voltage on the sample through the DC input of a bias T, and detecting the first harmonic of the square-wave noise response of the detectors using lock-in techniques. In terms of noise temperature, referred to the 50 Ohms input impedance, a shot noise variation gives rise to a noise temperature variation of:

$$\Delta T_n^{50\Omega}(\nu, T, V) = \frac{Z_{\text{eff}} Z_{\text{sample}}^2}{(2Z_{\text{eff}} + Z_{\text{sample}})^2} \Delta S_I(\nu, T, V) \quad (1)$$

Equation 1 demonstrates the advantage of impedance matching: in the high source impedance limit  $Z_{\rm sample} \gg Z_{\rm eff}$ , the increase in noise temperature due to shot noise

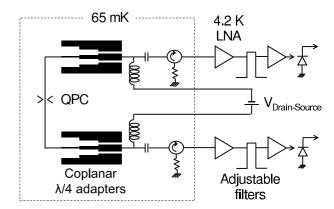


FIG. 1: Schematic diagram of the measurement set-up. Both sides of the QPC are connected to two 50  $\Omega$  coaxial transmission lines via two quarter wave length impedance adapters, raising the effective input impedance of the detection line to 200  $\Omega$ . Two circulators, thermalized at 65 mK, protect the sample from the noise radiated by amplifiers. The transmitted signal is amplified by two cryogenic Low Noise Amplifiers, with  $T_{\rm noise} \simeq 5K$ . The signal is further amplified and filtered at room temperature and detected by a quadratic detectors which output voltage is proportional to the total noise temperature.

is proportional to  $Z_{\rm eff}$ . With the 200  $\Omega$  / 50  $\Omega$  impedance transformer, our set up is thus four times more efficient than when directly connecting the sample to standard 50  $\Omega$  transmission lines. Finally, the QPC differential conductance is simultaneously measured through the DC input of the bias T with a low frequency lock-in technique.

The very first step in the experiment is to characterize the QPC. The inset of figure 4 shows the differential conductance versus gate voltage when the first two modes are transmitted. As the experiment is performed at zero magnetic field, the conductance exhibits plateaus, quantized in units of  $G_0 = 2e^2/h$ . We used a short QPC (the gates are 80 nm wide) in order to reduce the dependance of the sample conductance with bias voltage  $(\delta G/G \le 6\%$  for  $V_{ds} \le 80\mu V$  for  $G \simeq 0.5~G_0$ ). As a consequence, the plateaus are not very pronounced. The measured conductance (open circles) is well described by the saddle point model (solid line) introduced in Ref.[15]. From the fitting parameters, one can establish a direct correspondence between the total conductance of the sample and the transmissions of the different modes of the QPC.

We then set the gate voltage to obtain only one mode, half transmitted ( $G \simeq 0.5~G_0$ ). Figure 2 shows the shot noise measured for two different frequencies 4.77 GHz and 7.63 GHz and bandwidth 90 MHz and 180 MHz. As we have two independent detection chains, the measurements have been done *simultaneously*. We note a striking suppression of shot noise variation at low bias voltage, and that the onset of noise increases with the measurement frequency. This feature is in agreement with the

expected suppression of shot noise at high frequency.

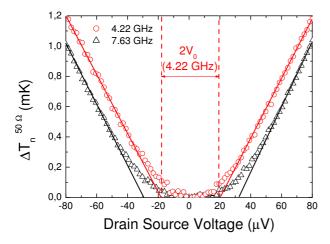


FIG. 2: Excess noise temperature, referred to the 50  $\Omega$  input impedance, as a function of bias voltage, measured at 4.22 GHz (open circles) and 7.63 GHz (open triangles). The solid lines represent the linear fits to the data in the [-80  $\mu$ V,-50  $\mu$ V] range for  $V_{ds}$ , and in [50 $\mu$ V,80  $\mu$ V] range, from which the intercept  $V_0$  is deduced.

To guarantee that the increase in noise temperature is due to shot noise and not to heating, we repeat the same experiment at fixed frequency (here we used a 5.4-5.9 GHz filter) for different sample conductance. We plot the slope  $d\Delta T_n/dV$  measured between  $50\mu V$  and  $80\mu V$ . The energy range is chosen so that eV is greater than  $h\nu$  by at least  $5k_BT_{\rm fridge}$  over the entire frequency range. As one can see on figure 4, the data agree qualitatively with the expected D(1-D) dependence of pure shot noise.

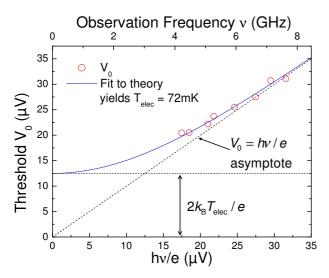


FIG. 3: Intercept of the excess noise asymptote with the zero excess noise axis, plotted as a function of the observation frequency. The dashed line correspond to the low frequency  $(eV_0=2k_{\rm B}T)$  and high frequency  $(eV_0=h\nu)$  limits, and the solid line is a fit to theory, with the electronic temperature as only fitting parameter.

We now give a quantitative comparison between our measurements and the high frequency scattering model for quantum shot noise. The expected excess power spectrum is given by:

$$\Delta S_{I}(\nu, T, V) = 2G_{0} \sum_{i} D_{i} (1 - D_{i}) \left( \frac{h\nu - eV}{e^{(h\nu - eV)/k_{B}T} - 1} + \frac{h\nu + eV}{e^{(h\nu + eV)/k_{B}T} - 1} - \frac{2h\nu}{e^{h\nu/k_{B}T} - 1} \right), \qquad (2)$$

where  $D_i$  stands for the transmission of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  spin degenerate mode. This gives a cusp in the noise power at zero temperature:  $\Delta S_I(\omega,T,V)=2G_0\sum_i D_i(1-D_i)(eV-h\nu)$  if  $eV>h\nu$  and 0 otherwise. At finite temperature, the cusp is thermally rounded. At high bias  $(eV\gg h\nu,\,k_{\rm B}T)$ , equation 2 gives a shot noise variation .

$$\Delta S_I(\nu, T, V) = 2G_0 \sum_i D_i (1 - D_i) (eV - eV_0), \quad (3)$$

with

$$eV_0 = h\nu \coth\left(\frac{h\nu}{2k_{\rm B}T}\right).$$
 (4)

In the low frequency limit  $V_0$  characterizes the transition between Johnson-Nyquist noise and shot noise  $(eV_0 = 2k_BT)$ , whereas in the low temperature limit, it marks the onset of photon suppressed shot noise  $(eV_0 = h\nu)$ .

As shown on figure 2,  $V_0$  is determined by the intersection of the high bias linear regression of the measured excess noise and the zero excess noise axis. Figure 3 shows the variation of  $V_0$ , as a function of the observation frequency, measured at fixed conductance  $G \simeq 0.5G_0$ . Equation 4 gives a very good fit to the experimental data. The only fitting parameter is the electronic temperature  $T_{\rm elec} = 72$  mK, in good agreement with the fridge temperature (65 mK).

To get a quantitative comparison between theory and the measured variation of shot noise with transmission, one must evaluate the increase in electron temperature due to finite bias-voltage. The sample dimensions being much larger than the electron-electron energy relaxation length, but much smaller than electron-phonon energy relaxation length, we are in the 'hot electrons' regime. If one assumes that electrons within the ohmic contacts remain at the lattice temperature, the electronic temperature is given by the Wiedemann-Franz law [9]:

$$T_e^2 = T_0^2 + \frac{24}{\pi^2} \frac{G}{G_m} \left( 1 + \frac{2G}{G_m} \right) \left( \frac{eV}{2k_{\rm B}} \right)^2,$$
 (5)

where  $G_m$  stands for the *total* conductance of the 2D leads, estimated from the conductance measurements to

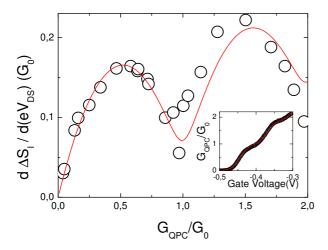


FIG. 4: Open circles: Derivative of the excess current noise deduced from the measured increase of the noise temperature. Full line: theoretical prediction, based on the transmissions of the different modes deduced from the QPC transmission. The only fitting parameter is the attenuation of the Microwave Signal. Inset: Open circles: conductance of the sample as a function of the applied gate voltage. Solid Line: fit with the 'Saddle Point Model' from ref. [15].

12 mS  $\pm 20\%$ . The increased noise temperature is then due to both shot noise and to the increased Johnson-Nyquist noise. For a lattice temperature of 65 mK and a 80  $\mu$ V bias voltage one gets an effective temperature 85 mK at  $G=G_0/2$ . This accounts for the small discrepancy between the fridge temperature and the electron temperature deduced from the variation of  $V_0$  with frequency. For  $G=2G_0$ , on gets an electron temperature of 115 mK at 80  $\mu$ V excitation voltage. The photon energy is thus still significantly higher than  $k_{\rm B}T$ , strongly reducing the influence of thermal effects.

We extract the slope  $d\Delta S_I/d(eV)$  from a linear regression to the experimental data between 50  $\mu V$  and 80  $\mu V$ drain source voltage. Figure 4 displays  $d\Delta S_I/d(eV)$  as a function of the sample conductance, both normalized to  $G_0$ . The solid line gives the total expected excess current noise, estimated from equations 2 and 5, using the attenuation of the signal as a free parameter. The contribution due to electron heating is evaluated by calculating the difference of Johnson-Nyquist noise (at zero bias voltage) at the maximum temperature (at 80  $\mu$ V) and the minimum temperature (at 50  $\mu$ V) of the drain source excursion. The agreement is quite satisfactory, given the accuracy of the saddle-point model description of the QPC transmission, which assumes constant width and spacing of the conductance plateaus. We find a 5 dB attenuation, which is in good agreement with the expected 6 dB deduced from calibration of the various elements of the detection chain.

In conclusion, we performed the first direct measurement of the finite frequency shot noise of the simplest mesoscopic system, a QPC. The data are found in quantitative agreement with theoretical predictions. The technique we developed should be very useful to investigate the statistical properties of photons produced by a phase coherent single mode conductor, or the finite frequency shot noise of strongly correlated systems.

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