Persistent Spin Textures in Semiconductor Nanostructures

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Device concepts in semiconductor spintronics make long spin lifetimes desirable, and the requirements put on spin control by schemes of quantum information processing are even more demanding. Unfortunately, due to spin-orbit coupling electron spins in semiconductors are generically subject to rather fast decoherence. In two-dimensional quantum wells made of zinc-blende semiconductors, however, the spin-orbit interaction can be engineered in such a way that persistent spin structures with extraordinarily long spin lifetimes arise even in the presence of disorder and imperfections. We review experimental and theoretical developments on this subject both for n-doped and p-doped structures, and we discuss possible device applications.

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I. INTRODUCTION

The field of semiconductor spintronics emerged around the turn of the millennium and comprises a broad variety of efforts towards utilizing the spin degree of freedom of electrons, instead, or combined with, their charge for information processing, or, even more ambitious, for quantum information processing (Fabian et al., 2007; Wu et al., 2010; Zutic et al., 2004). Most activities in this area rely on the relativistic effect of spin-orbit coupling described by the Dirac equation and its nonrelativistic expansion in powers of the inverse speed of light \( c \). The well-known spin-orbit coupling term arises here in second order,

\[
\mathcal{H}_{so} = \frac{\hbar}{4m_0c^2}\sigma \cdot \left( \nabla V \times \frac{\vec{p}}{m_0} \right),
\]

where the Pauli matrices \( \sigma \) describe the electron’s spin, \( m_0 \) and \( \vec{p} \) are its bare mass and momentum, respectively, and \( V \) is the potential acting on the particle. Moreover, the free Dirac equation, \( V = 0 \), has two dispersion branches with positive and negative energy, \( \varepsilon(\vec{p}) = \pm \sqrt{m_0^2c^4 + c^2p^2} \), separated by a gap of \( 2m_0c^2 \approx 1\text{MeV} \), and the nonrelativistic expansion of the Dirac equation can be viewed as a method of systematically including the effects of the negative-energy solutions on the states of positive energy starting from their nonrelativistic limit. Importantly, the large energy gap \( 2m_0c^2 \) appears in the denominator of the right hand side of Eq. (1) and thus suppresses spin-orbit coupling for weakly bound electrons.

Turning to semiconductors, the band structure of zinc-blende III-V systems exhibits many formal similarities to the situation of free relativistic electrons (as sketched in Fig. 1), while the relevant energy scales are grossly different (Yu and Cardona, 2010). For not too large doping, only the band structure around the \( \Gamma \) point matters consisting of a parabolic s-type conduction band and a p-type valence band with dispersion branches for heavy and light holes, and the split-off band. However, the fundamental gap between conduction and valence band is of order 1eV or smaller. This heuristic argument makes plausible that spin-orbit coupling is a significant effect in III-V semiconductors and actually lies at the very heart of spintronics research.
A paradigmatic example of a semiconductor spintronics device is the spin field-effect transistor (Datta and Das, 1990) schematically depicted in Fig. 2. In this device proposal, an electron enters a semiconductor region where its spin is rotated via externally manipulable spin-orbit interaction in a controlled way such that the carrier is then transmitted into or, depending on the spin state, reflected from a spin-polarized detector electrode. A shortcoming of this concept is that impurities and other imperfections act as scatterers which change the momentum of the electron (i.e. an orbital degree of freedom) and therefore, again via spin-orbit coupling, easily also randomize the spin, a process known as the Dyakonov-Perel mechanism of spin dephasing (Dyakonov and Perel, 1972). A way to circumvent this effect is to engineer the total spin-orbit field acting on the electron spin in such a way that additional symmetries and related conserved quantities arise which lead to persistent spin structures. This concept has developed many theoretical ramifications and manifested itself in various transport and spectroscopic experiments. These theoretical possibilities and experimental achievements are reviewed in the present paper.

This article is organized as follows: Section II deals with persistent spin structures in n-doped III-V zinc-blende semiconductor quantum wells and is the main body of this review. In section II.A we introduce the contributions to spin-orbit coupling for quantum wells grown along the high-symmetry directions of the crystal. Section II.B provides a self-contained discussion of the theoretical foundation of conserved spin quantities in [001] quantum wells, but treats also the other high-symmetry growth directions. The semiclassical description of spin densities via diffusion equations and their relation to the persistent spin helix are covered in section II.C. In section II.D we report on the plethora of experiments investigating these predictions along with pertaining further theoretical work. Theoretical results regarding signatures of the persistent spin helix arising from many-body physics are summarized in section II.E. Section II.F is devoted to n-doped systems of other geometries including quantum wells of different growth directions and curved structures. In section II.G we summarize developments regarding spin-field-effect transistors and persistent spin textures. Section III contains a discussion of similar persistent spin structures predicted to occur in materials other than n-doped zinc-blende semiconductors. We close with an outlook in section IV.

II. n-DOPED QUANTUM WELLS

A. Spin-Orbit Coupling and Growth Direction

We now summarize important features of the effective description of spin-orbit interaction in zinc-blende III-V semiconductors such as GaAs, InAs etc. focusing on two-dimensional quantum wells (Fabian et al., 2007; Korn, 2010; Winkler, 2003; Yu and Cardona, 2010). As already mentioned, due to the lower carrier densities in such systems compared to, e.g., metals, we can concentrate on the vicinity of the Γ-point, i.e. on wave vectors being small compared to the inverse lattice spacing.

Moreover, we will concentrate here on quantum wells grown into the high-symmetry directions [001], [110], and [111] which have been in the focus of theoretical and experimental studies so far. However, very recent work by Kammermeier et al. (2016) extended the concepts to be discussed below to more general growth directions.

An important contribution to the effective band structure of three-dimensional bulk systems is the Dresselhaus term given by (Dresselhaus, 1955)

\[
H_{\text{D}}^{\text{bulk}} = \gamma \left( \sigma_x k_x (k_y^2 - k_x^2) + \sigma_y k_y (k_z^2 - k_x^2) \right) + \sigma_z k_z (k_y^2 - k_x^2) \tag{2}
\]
with the electron’s (Bloch) wave vector \( \vec{k} \) and a material parameter \( \gamma \). This contribution is symmetry-allowed, \( \gamma \neq 0 \), due to bulk-inversion asymmetry, i.e., the fact that the zinc-blende lattice lacks an inversion center.

In sufficiently narrow quantum wells a simplification occurs as one can, at low enough temperatures, approximate the wave vector components along the growth direction by their average within the lowest subband. For a symmetric well grown along the crystallographic [001] direction we have \( \langle k_z \rangle = 0 \), and introducing polar coordinates \( \vec{k} = k(\cos\phi, \sin\phi) \) for the in-plane components it follows (Dyakonov and Kachorovskii 1986; Iordanskii et al. 1994)

\[
\mathcal{H}_D^{001} = \beta k (\sigma^y \sin\varphi - \sigma^z \cos\varphi) - \beta_3 k (\sigma^x \cos(3\varphi) + \sigma^y \sin(3\varphi)) \tag{3}
\]

with \( \beta = \beta_1 - \beta_3 \) and

\[
\beta_1 = \gamma \langle k_z^2 \rangle, \quad \beta_3 = \gamma \frac{k^2}{4}. \tag{4}
\]

Here as before the \( x \)- and \( y \)-direction coincide with [100] and [010], respectively. The higher angular harmonics in the second line of Eq. (3) are cubic in \( k \). Neglecting these terms leads to

\[
\mathcal{H}_D^{001} = \beta (k_y \sigma^y - k_x \sigma^x) \tag{5}
\]

which contains a contribution strictly linear in wave vector (\( \propto \beta_1 \)) and and a cubic term (\( \propto \beta_3 \)). The latter is usually a small correction: To give a practical example, for a rectangular well of width \( L = 10 \text{nm} \) we have \( \langle k_z^2 \rangle = (\pi/L)^2 \approx 0.1 \text{nm}^{-2} \). Assuming now a comparatively large density of \( n = k_F^2/(2\pi) = 5 \times 10^{11} \text{cm}^{-2} \) with a Fermi wave vector of \( k_F = 0.17 \text{nm}^{-1} \) (neglecting spin splitting) one finds \( k_F^2/4 = 0.007 \text{nm}^{-2} \), i.e. \( \beta_3(k_F)/\beta_1 = 0.07 \). However, there are reports where the quadratic contribution \( \beta_3 \) to the Dresselhaus coefficient \( \beta \) was found to be essential in order to accurately describe experimental data (Dettwiler et al. 2014; Walser et al. 2012). For simplicity we will refer to the Hamiltonian (5) as the linear Dresselhaus term although it contains cubic corrections.

Quantum wells with other growth directions can be similarly described by appropriately rotating wave vector and spin in Eq. (4). We restrict the discussion here on the other high-symmetry directions of the cubic lattice (Dyakonov and Kachorovskii 1986; Eppenga and Schuurmans 1988). For the [110] direction one finds

\[
\mathcal{H}_D^{110} = \beta \frac{3}{2} k_x \sigma^x + \frac{3\beta_3}{2} k_x \sigma^z \sin(3\varphi) \tag{6}
\]

where the \( x \)- and \( y \)-direction are along [001] and [110], respectively. The coefficient \( \beta \) in the first term is again given by Eqs. (4) as \( \beta = \beta_1 - \beta_3 \) and summarizes as above the \( k \)-linear contribution and the correction provided by the first-harmonic part of the cubic contributions, whereas the second term contains the third-harmonic part. Remarkably, both terms couple only to the spin projection in the \( z \)- (or [110]-)direction.

The Dresselhaus term for the [111] direction reads

\[
\mathcal{H}_D^{111} = \frac{2\beta}{\sqrt{3}} (k_y \sigma^x - k_x \sigma^y) + \frac{4\beta_3}{\sqrt{6}} k_x \sigma^z \sin(3\varphi) \tag{7}
\]

with the \( x \)- and \( y \)-direction pointing along [112] and [110]. Here the same comments apply as to Eqs. (5) and (6): The first term describes the \( k \)-linear part with cubic correction while the second term contains the higher angular-harmonic part of the cubic contributions. Neglecting the third angular-harmonic contributions in Eqs. (6) and (7) leads again to linear Dresselhaus terms incorporating cubic corrections in their parameter \( \beta \).

The second important ingredient to the effective spin-orbit coupling in quantum wells is known as the Rashba term and is due to structure-inversion asymmetry, i.e. it occurs for confining potentials failing to be invariant under spatial inversion along the growth direction (Bychkov and Rashba 1984; Rashba 1960). This contribution is described by the expression

\[
\mathcal{H}_R = \alpha (k_x \sigma^y - k_y \sigma^x), \tag{8}
\]

where the Rashba coefficient \( \alpha \) is essentially proportional to the potential gradient across the quantum well and can therefore be varied experimentally. This contribution to spin-orbit interaction is the essential ingredient to the proposal for a spin field-effect transistor due to Datta and Das (1990) already mentioned in section I. The linear Rashba term (8) is independent of the growth direction and invariant under rotations in the \( xy \)-plane of the quantum well. Remarkably, the above Hamiltonian has the same functional form as the \( k \)-linear Dresselhaus term in Eq. (6) for the [111] growth direction.

Although Rashba coupling was first investigated in semiconductors (Bychkov and Rashba 1984; Rashba 1960), it is nowadays discussed and studied in a much wider variety of structures lacking inversion symmetry; for a recent overview see Manchon et al. (2015). A further source of spin-orbit coupling in two-dimensional structures are assymetric interfaces (Fabian et al. 2007); such contributions will not be considered in the following.

We note that the Rashba term (8) can somewhat naïvely be obtained from the general expression (4) by inserting a linear potential along the \( z \)-axis. This approach, however leads to values for \( \alpha \) being several orders smaller than those inferred from experiments, and a realistic description has to take into account the influence of other bands in addition to the conduction band (Darm-hofer and Rössler 1993; Fabian et al. 2007; de Andrada e
FIG. 3 (Color online) Fermi contours for an electron system with band mass $m = 0.067m_0$ (corresponding to GaAs), a typical Fermi energy of $\varepsilon_f = 10\text{meV}$, and a Dresselhaus parameter of $\beta = 10\text{meVnm}$. With growing Rashba parameter the energy dispersion becomes increasingly anisotropic. For the case $\alpha = \beta$ (bottom right) the spin directions being independent of wave vector are indicated. Figure adapted from Schliemann and Loss (2003).

Silva et al., 1997; Winkler, 2003; Wu et al., 2010. This procedure is effectively similar to the Foldy-Wouthuysen transformation used in relativistic quantum mechanics to reduce the full Dirac equation for four-component spinors to an effective description of the “conduction band” comprised by solutions of positive energy (Bjorken and Drell, 1965). Here the perturbative treatment of the negative-energy states (“valence band”) leads to the spin-orbit coupling term (1), apart from other relativistic corrections.

B. Persistent Spin Helix: Basic theory

Let us first consider quantum wells grown in the [001]-direction. As a result of a large body of experimental as well as theoretical work (Fabian et al., 2007; Wu et al., 2010), both the parameters $\beta$ and $\alpha$ lie for typical materials and growth geometries in the ballpark of about $1.0\ldots100\text{meVnm}$. In particular, the Rashba parameter can be tuned to be equal in magnitude to the Dresselhaus coefficient, $\alpha = \pm \beta$. As we shall see shortly below, this situation gives rise to a prime example of a persistent spin texture in a semiconductor nanostructure.

Let us consider a Hamiltonian consisting of the usual quadratic kinetic energy characterized by a band mass $m$, and the Rashba (8) and the linear Dresselhaus term (5),

$$H = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m} + H_R + H_D^{001}. $$

leading to the two dispersion branches

$$\varepsilon_{\pm}(\vec{k}) = \pm \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m} \sqrt{2\alpha^2 + 2\beta^2 + 2\alpha\beta \sin(2\varphi)} $$

which are illustrated in Fig. 3 for different typical parameters. As seen from the figure and the above equation, the dispersion is clearly anisotropic for $\alpha \neq 0 \neq \beta$. Remarkably, this anisotropy in the dispersion relation does not lead to an anisotropy of the linear electrical bulk conductivity (Chalaev and Loss, 2008, 2009; Trushin and Schliemann, 2007a), despite an earlier statement in the literature (Schliemann and Loss, 2003).

The case $\alpha = \pm \beta$ shown in the lower right panel of Fig. 3 is particular (Schliemann et al., 2003): Here the Hamiltonian (9) can be formulated as

$$H = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left( k^2 + 2 \left( \vec{k} \cdot \vec{Q} \right) \Sigma \right) $$

with

$$\Sigma = \sqrt{2} \frac{\sigma^x + \sigma^y}{\sqrt{2}}, \quad \vec{Q} = \sqrt{2m_0 \alpha} \frac{1}{\hbar^2} (1, \pm 1) $$

such that the spin operator $\Sigma$ is a conserved quantity,

$$[H, \Sigma] = 0. $$

The energy dispersions

$$\varepsilon_{\pm}(\vec{k}) = \pm \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m} \left( k^2 \pm 2 \left( \vec{k} \cdot \vec{Q} \right) \right) $$

form circles whose centers are displaced from the $\Gamma$ point by $\mp \vec{Q}$. Differently from Eq. (10) the double sign here refers to the spin eigenvalues determined by $\Sigma \chi_{\pm} = \pm \chi_{\pm}$ where the eigenspinors read for $\alpha = +\beta$

$$\chi_{\pm} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left( 1 \pm e^{-i\pi/4} \right), $$

and for $\alpha = -\beta$ the lower spin component acquires an additional factor of $(-i)$. In particular, the spin state is independent of the wave vector, i.e. spin and orbital degrees of freedom are disentangled, and the Kramers degeneracy enforced by time reversal symmetry is manifested as

$$\varepsilon_+(\vec{k} - \vec{Q}) = \varepsilon_- (\vec{k} + \vec{Q}). $$

The conservation of the spin component $\Sigma$ expressed in Eq. (13) obviously remains intact if a spin-independent single-particle potential or spin-independent interaction among the electrons are added to the Hamiltonian. In
such a case the single-particle wave vector $\vec{k}$ will in general not be conserved any more and is to be replaced by a proper momentum operator, $\vec{k} \mapsto -i \nabla$. For example, adding an arbitrary scalar potential $V(\vec{r})$ to the Hamiltonian \ref{eq:11} and inserting the ansatz

$$\psi_{\pm}(\vec{r}) = e^{\mp i \vec{Q} \cdot \vec{r}} \pm \phi(\vec{r}) = e^{\mp i \vec{Q} \cdot \vec{r}} \chi_{\pm}(\vec{r})$$ \tag{17}

into $\mathcal{H}\psi_{\pm} = \varepsilon\psi_{\pm}$ leads to the spin-independent Schrödinger equation

$$\left( -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + V(\vec{r}) \right) \phi(\vec{r}) = \left( \varepsilon + \frac{2m\alpha^2}{\hbar^2} \right) \phi(\vec{r}), \tag{18}$$

where the energy is shifted by $\hbar^2 Q^2/(2m) = 2m\alpha^2/\hbar^2$. An analogous many-particle Schrödinger equation is obtained when adding to \ref{eq:11} an arbitrary spin-independent interaction among particles; here the spin component $\Sigma$ of each electron is separately conserved.

Moreover, comparing the spin state of a general wave function composed of the states \ref{eq:17} at given energy,

$$\psi(\vec{r}) = \nu_+\psi_+(\vec{r}) + \nu_-\psi_-(\vec{r})$$

\begin{equation}
= \left( \nu_+e^{-i\vec{Q} \cdot \vec{r}} \chi_+ + \nu_-e^{-i\vec{Q} \cdot \vec{r}} \chi_- \right) \phi(\vec{r}) \tag{19}
\end{equation}

at two arbitrary locations, say $\vec{r} = 0$ and $\vec{r} = \vec{a}$, we see that the spin state of $\psi(\vec{a})$ emerges from $\psi(0)$ by applying the operator $\exp(-i\vec{Q}\vec{a}\Sigma)$. This is a controlled rotation being independent of any further detail of the system encoded in the single-particle potential or the interaction. As the rotation operator is also independent of energy, this observation also holds for arbitrary linear combinations of states of different energy. Thus, under these very general circumstances, the electron spin undergoes a controlled rotation as a function of position, a phenomenon dubbed later on the persistent spin helix [Bernevig et al. 2006].

The angle of the above controlled rotation is $2\vec{Q}\vec{a}$ and naturally depends on the distance $\vec{a}$, while the rotation axis in spin space is defined by the conserved operator $\Sigma$ and given by $(\mp1,1,0)$, depending on $\alpha = \pm\beta$. As a consequence, the spin component in this direction is constant as a function of both position and time leading to an infinite spin lifetime as measured by expectation value of $\Sigma$. The latter feature is of course just a general property of any conserved operator within an equilibrium state.

Prior to the work by Schliemann et al. (2003) also other authors reported peculiarities of the system \ref{eq:9} at $\alpha = \beta$ although not relating their observations to the existence of a new conserved quantity. Kiselev and Kim (2000b) have studied an effective spin model of the type \ref{eq:9} where the momentum $\vec{p} = m\vec{v}$ is a classical quantity (also neglecting the difference between canonical and kinetic momenta due to spin-orbit coupling) whose time dependence is generated by a Markov chain modeling independent elastic scattering events. Here for general Rashba and Dresselhaus parameters, the spin is rapidly randomized via the Dyakonov-Perel spin relaxation mechanism [Dyakonov and Perel 1972]. For $\alpha = \pm\beta$ the time ordering $\mathcal{T}$ in the time evolution operator $\mathcal{U}(t) = \mathcal{T}\exp(-i\int_0^t dt'\mathcal{H}(\vec{p}(t')/\hbar))$ becomes trivial such that it takes, up to a global phase factor, the form of the above global spin rotation operator \cite{Schliemann et al. 2003},

$$\mathcal{U}(t) = \exp \left( -i\vec{Q}\vec{a}(t)\Sigma \right) \tag{20}$$

with $\vec{a}(t) = \vec{r}(t) - \vec{r}(0)$. In particular Kiselev and Kim (2000b) observed a diverging spin lifetime for expectation values of $\Sigma$; a similar conclusion was reached by Cartoixa et al. (2003), slightly subsequent to the work by Schliemann et al. (2003). The suppressed relaxation of appropriate spin components was also found earlier by Averkiev and Golub (1999).

In another theoretical investigation Pikus and Pikus (1995) concluded that contributions of Rashba and Dresselhaus spin-orbit coupling to the electrical conductivity cancel each other at $\alpha = \beta$ (albeit both terms were predicted there to contribute additively to spin relaxation, in contrast to the results demonstrated above). Tarasenko and Averkiev (2002) studied the combined influence of Rashba and Dresselhaus contributions to the beating patterns of Shubnikov-de Haas oscillations and predicted an effective cancellation of the terms at $\alpha = \beta$. Finally, the very fact that Rashba and Dresselhaus spin-orbit coupling can nontrivially interfere rather than simply add up was already observed theoretically by Knap et al. (1996) within investigations of weak localization phenomena.

Writing the Hamiltonian \ref{eq:11} in the form

$$\mathcal{H} = \frac{1}{2m} \left( \vec{p} + \hbar\vec{Q} \Sigma \right)^2 - \frac{\hbar^2 \vec{Q}^2}{2m} \tag{21}$$

suggests to interpret the operator $\exp(-i\vec{Q}\vec{a}\Sigma)$ occurring in Eqs. \ref{eq:17}, \ref{eq:19} as a gauge transformation and $\vec{p}$ as a gauge-dependent canonical momentum [Chen and Chang 2008; Tokatly and Sherman 2010]. Moreover, since the hermitian $2 \times 2$-matrix $\Sigma$ generates SU(2)-transformations, the question arises whether the Hamiltonian \ref{eq:21} admits further symmetries furnishing a full representation of the Lie algebra su(2). Following Bernevig et al. (2006) this can be achieved by writing the Hamiltonian in second-quantized form,

$$\mathcal{H} = \sum_{k\eta} \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left( k^2 + 2m\vec{Q} \cdot \vec{k} \right) c_{k\eta}^+ c_{k\eta} \tag{22}$$

along with

$$T^3 = \Sigma = \sum_{k\eta} \frac{\eta}{2} c_{k\eta}^+ c_{k\eta} \tag{23}$$
where $c^\pm_{k\eta}(c^-_{k\eta})$ creates (annihilates) an electron with wave vector $\vec{k}$ and spin state $\chi$, $\eta = \pm$. Defining now

$$T_{Q}^\pm = \sum_k c^+_{(\vec{k}-\vec{Q})}\pm c_{(\vec{k}+\vec{Q})}^-$$

and its adjoint $T_{Q}^- = (T_{Q}^+)^*$ one easily verifies that the latter two operators fulfill together with $T^3$ the su(2) commutation relations,

$$\left[ T_{Q}^+, T_{Q}^- \right] = 2T^3 \quad \left[ T^3, T_{Q}^\pm \right] = \pm T_{Q}^\pm$$

and commute, just as $T^3$, with the Hamiltonian,

$$\left[ H, T_{Q}^\pm \right] = 0 .$$

Moreover, since $T_{Q}^\pm$ also commute with any Fourier component of the density $\rho = \sum_\eta \bar{c}_{k\eta}^+ \bar{c}_{(\vec{k}+\vec{Q})\eta}$,

$$\left[ \rho, T_{Q}^\pm \right] = 0 .$$

Eq. (26) remains also valid if arbitrary spin-independent potentials or interactions are added to the Hamiltonian. We note that the su(2) commutation relation (25) as well as the property (27) hold for any vector $\vec{Q}$. The vanishing of the commutator (26), however, depends on the specific form given in Eq. (12) and the fact that the spin-independent part of the kinetic Hamiltonian (11) is quadratic in the wave vector leading to the degeneracy (16). For instance, if a term quartic in the momentum were present (still consistent with time reversal symmetry), Eq. (26) would not hold, and also a formulation (21) is the style of a gauge theory would not be possible.

Applying an in-plane magnetic field perpendicular to $\vec{Q}$ (i.e. in the direction defined by $\Sigma$) changes the Hamiltonian as

$$\mathcal{H}' = \sum_{k\eta} \left( \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} k^2 + \eta \left( \frac{\hbar^2}{m} \vec{Q} \cdot \vec{k} + \frac{\Delta}{2} \right) \right) c^+_{k\eta} c_{k\eta}$$

with $\Delta$ being the Zeeman gap. This alteration breaks the SU(2) symmetry down to U(1) as the Hamiltonian of course still commutes with $\Sigma$ but not with $T_{Q}^\pm$ for any choice of $\vec{Q}$ since

$$\left[ \mathcal{H}', T_{Q}^\pm \right] = \sum_k \left( \frac{2\hbar^2}{m} k \cdot (\vec{Q} - \vec{Q}') + \Delta \right) c^+_{(\vec{k}-\vec{Q})} c_{(\vec{k}+\vec{Q})}^- .$$

The operators $T_{Q}^\pm$ are defined with respect to the explicit spinors (15). In terms of the usual spin density $\vec{S}_Q = (1/2) \sum_{k} \sum_{\nu\mu} c^+_{k\mu} \sigma_{\mu\nu} c_{(\vec{k}+\vec{Q})\nu}$ defined with respect to the original spin coordinates underlying the Hamiltonian (9) they can be expressed as

$$T_{Q}^\pm = S_{\pm 2\vec{Q}}^z \pm \frac{\vec{Q}}{|\vec{Q}|} \cdot \vec{S}_{\pm 2\vec{Q}} ,$$

i.e. they describe the spin components perpendicular to the quantization axis defined by $\Sigma = 2T^3$. Defining the hermitian combinations $T^1 = (T^+ + T^-)/2$, $T^2 = (T^+ - T^-)/(2i)$, we obtain an su(2)-valued vector $\vec{T}$ of observables commuting with the Hamiltonian. Thus, the expectation value $\langle \vec{T} \rangle$ within any pure state is constant in time. Regarding mixed states, a sufficient condition for a constant expectation value is to demand that the density operator is only a function of the Hamiltonian itself, $\rho = \rho(H)$, as typical for equilibrium situations. However, such a density matrix is also invariant under arbitrary spin rotations generated by $\vec{T}$ such that, as usual for rotationally invariant magnetic systems, $\langle \vec{T} \rangle$ vanishes. In other words, a finite expectation value $\langle \vec{T} \rangle$ is the consequence of a non-equilibrium state or the result of spontaneous symmetry breaking. The latter should of course not be expected in a two-dimensional system.

For quantum wells with growth direction [110] the Dresselhaus term (6) commutes with $\sigma^z$. Thus, the analog of the Hamiltonian (9) allows for a conserved spin quantity if Rashba spin-orbit coupling is absent. In this case the Hamiltonian can again, neglecting the cubic third-harmonic contribution to the Dresselhaus coupling, be formulated as in Eq. (11) with

$$\Sigma = \sigma^z , \quad \vec{Q} = \frac{m_\beta}{2\hbar^2} (0, 1) .$$

With these replacements, analogous properties as obtained above for [001] quantum wells at $\alpha = \pm \beta$ follow. In particular, an SU(2) symmetry as described in Eqs. (22)-(27) also occurs here which is in the present case broken down to U(1) by applying a magnetic field along the growth direction (cf. Eqs. (28), (29)).

Finally, for quantum wells grown into the [111]-direction the linear part of the Dresselhaus coupling (7) and the Rashba term (8) have the identical functional form. Here a conserved quantity can only be realized if these two contributions exactly cancel each other (Car-toixa et al. 2005a and Vurgaftman and Meyer 2005).

Moreover, in a very recent work Kammermeier et al. (2016) extended the above considerations to more general growth directions. Specifically it was demonstrated that a conserved spin operator of the above type exists, for appropriately tuned Rashba coupling, if and only if two Miller indices of the growth direction agree in modulus. Fully analogously to the cases discussed above, this conserved spin components are extended to an su(2) algebra of operators commuting with the Hamiltonian.
C. Spin Diffusion Equations

Let us concentrate again on [001] quantum wells. As seen before, for balanced contributions to spin-orbit coupling \( \alpha = \pm \beta \) an electron spin undergoes a perfectly controlled rotation provided the locations of injection and detection of the electron are sufficiently defined, for instance in terms of quantum point contacts \( \text{[Schliemann et al.] 2003} \). This, however, is a rather special situation in experiments. In order to treat more general scenarios it is useful to study the expectation value of the local spin density,

\[
\bar{s}(\vec{r}, t) = \left\langle \sum_a \frac{\hbar}{2} \vec{s}_a \delta (\vec{r} - \vec{r}_a(t)) \right\rangle, \tag{32}
\]

where \( a \) labels the electrons, and the average \( \langle \cdot \rangle \) is to be taken over the given (in general nonequilibrium) state

\[
D_{so} = 2k_f^2 \tau \begin{pmatrix}
\frac{(\alpha + \beta)^2 + \beta_3^2}{\hbar^2} & 0 & \frac{i(\alpha + \beta)q_1}{m} \\
-i(\alpha + \beta)q_1/m & \frac{(\alpha - \beta)^2 + \beta_3^2}{\hbar^2} & \frac{i(\alpha - \beta)q_2}{m} \\
\frac{i(\alpha + \beta)q_2/m}{2} & \frac{i(\alpha - \beta)q_1/m}{2} & \frac{2(\alpha^2 + \beta^2 + \beta_3^2)}{\hbar^2}
\end{pmatrix}. \tag{34}
\]

In Eq. (33) we have used a rotated coordinate system in the plane of the quantum well, \( \bar{s}^{1,2} = (\pm s^x + s^y)/\sqrt{2} \), \( \bar{s}^3 = s^z \), and likewise for the wave vector \( \vec{q} \), such that the new axes are along \([110]\) and \([110]\). \( D = v_f^2 \tau/2 \) is the usual diffusion constant given in terms of the momentum relaxation time \( \tau \) and the Fermi velocity \( v_f = \hbar k_f/m \) for an effective Fermi wave vector \( k_f \) (neglecting again spin splitting here). The above result (33) is valid in the regime of weak spin-orbit interaction, \( |\alpha, \beta, \beta_3| k_f \tau/\hbar \ll 1 \). Diffusion equations similar to Eqs. (33), (34) have, for various types of spin-orbit coupling and ingredients to the many-body physics, also been derived using different theoretical techniques \( \text{[Bernevig and Hu] 2008, Burkov et al.] 2004, Kalevich et al.] 1994, Kleinert and Bryksin} 2007, 2009, Lüffe et al.] 2013, 2011, Raimondi et al.] 2006, Schwab et al.] 2006, Wenk and Kettlemann] 2010, Yang et al.] 2010} \).

All the effects of spin-orbit interaction in the diffusion equation (33) are encoded in the matrix (34). As to be expected, this equation also reflects the symmetry properties arising for balanced Rashba and Dresselhaus coupling as analyzed in Sec. 1.1.3. At, say, \( \alpha = \beta \) the equation for \( \bar{s}^2 \) decouples from the remaining system and reads in real space

\[
(\partial_t - D \nabla^2 + 1/T_1) \bar{s}^2(\vec{r}, t) = 0 \tag{35}
\]

with \( 1/T_1 = 2k_f^2 (\beta_3/\hbar)^2 \) and the general solution

\[
\bar{s}^2(\vec{r}, t) = \frac{e^{-t/T_1}}{(2\pi)^2} \int d^2 q e^{-Dq^2 t} s^2(\vec{q}, t = 0) e^{i\vec{q}\vec{r}}. \tag{36}
\]

in the presence of disorder potentials and/or interactions among the charge carriers. Moreover, we also include the cubic third-harmonic correction to the Dresselhaus term \( \beta_3 \) proportional to \( \beta_3 \). Effective semiclassical diffusion equations for \( \bar{s}(\vec{r}, t) \) can be derived via quantum kinetic equations rooted in the Keldysh formalism \( \text{[Mishchenko et al.] 2004} \). Working in Fourier space at small frequencies and wave vectors, and evaluating the arising parameters within the zero-temperature ground state, one obtains in the regime of weak spin-orbit coupling \( \text{[Bernevig et al.] 2006, Liu and Sinova] 2012, Salis et al.] 2014, Stanescu and Galitski] 2007} \).

The latter equation describes the diffusion of an initial spin polarization, accompanied by its decay on the time scale \( T_1 \) which, as suggested by the notation, is aptly referred to as a decoherence time. Without the cubic third-harmonic correction to the Dresselhaus term, \( \beta_3 = 0 \), no decay occurs, and all the dynamics is due to the diffusive motion of electrons with fixed spin governed by the particle (or charge) diffusion constant \( D \). We note that the spin density can be changed by either moving the particles or altering their spin. Due to the latter mechanism, the spin density does, differently from the charge density, fulfill a continuity equation with additional source terms \( \text{[Erlingsson et al.] 2005} \). The infinite spin relaxation time occurring at \( \alpha = \pm \beta \) and \( \beta_3 \propto 1/T_1 = 0 \) was confirmed by several authors on the basis of Monte Carlo
simulations treating the orbital carrier dynamics classically [Kiselev and Kim 2006; Liu et al. 2010; Ohno and Yoh 2007; 2008]; for an analytical approach see also Lyubinskiy and Kachorovskii 2006 and Wenk and Kettmann 2011].

The two other solutions to Eq. (33) are for \( \alpha = \beta \) and \( \beta_3 = 0 \) characterized by the frequencies

\[
i \omega_{\pm}(\vec{q}) = Dq^2 \pm 8k_f^2 r \left((\alpha/\hbar)^2 + (\alpha q_1/m)^2\right).
\]

Now for \( \vec{q} \) being twice the “shift vector” \( \pm \vec{Q} \) as occurring in Eqs. (12), (16), i.e. \( q_1 = \pm 2|\vec{Q}|, q_2 = 0 \), we have \( \omega_\pm = 0 \) (Bernevig et al. 2006). This static solution describes the persistent spin helix and reads in real space

\[
\left(\begin{array}{c}
\hat{s}^1(\vec{r}) \\
\hat{s}^3(\vec{r})
\end{array}\right) = A \left(\begin{array}{c}
\cos \left(2\vec{Q}\vec{r} + \phi\right) \\
-\sin \left(2\vec{Q}\vec{r} + \phi\right)
\end{array}\right)
\]

with two real constants \( A, \phi \). Naturally, the angular argument \( 2\vec{Q}\vec{r} \) of the spin rotation around the [110] direction occurring here is the same as (for \( \vec{r} = \vec{a} \)) in the effective evolution operator (20). The spatial dependence of the spin density (38) precisely mimics the rotation of the spin of an electron moving along the direction of \( \vec{Q} \). Fig. 4 shows a sketch of the helical spin structure described be Eq. (38).

D. [001] Quantum Wells: Experiments and Simulations

We now review experimental work investigating the high-symmetry situation \( \alpha = \pm \beta \) in [001] quantum wells, along with numerical simulations and pertinent theoretical approaches.

1. Optical Techniques

The stability of periodic spin structures in GaAs quantum wells close to the regime \( \alpha \approx \beta \) has been experimentally studied by Koralek et al. (2009) using the technique of transient spin-grating spectroscopy. Here a periodic spin pattern with defined wave vector \( \vec{q} \) is created via optical orientation by two noncollinear laser beams, and its time evolution is then monitored by diffraction of a time-delayed probe pulse. The initial spin density structure is a superposition of two helices with the same \( \vec{q} \parallel [110] \) but different senses of rotation, only one of which matches the one encoded in the static solution (38). Accordingly, Koralek et al. (2009) observe that the initial spin polarization decays, to about equal weights, on two very distinct time scales as shown in Fig. 5. A short-lived part where the life time shows a maximum at \( q = 0 \) and slowly decreases with growing wave number, and a fraction with clearly enhanced lifetime attaining a pronounced maximum at \( q \approx 10^6 \text{m}^{-1} \). The latter should be interpreted as a persistent spin helix (38) with \( q = 2Q = 4m\alpha/\hbar^2 \) corresponding to a Rashba parameter of \( \alpha \approx 3 \text{meV}\AA \). The fact that these measurements indeed explore the regime \( \alpha \approx \beta \) was further established by varying the Rashba and Dresselhaus parameter (see lower panels). The data shows decay on two distinct time scales. Upper right panel: Lifetimes of the spin helices with enhanced \( (\tau_R) \) and reduced \( (\tau_E) \) stability. The former one corresponds to the spin density configuration (38) with a maximum lifetime at \( q = 2Q \). Lower panels: Lifetime of the spin helix configuration as a function of wave number for different doping asymmetry (varying the Rashba coupling, left) and well width (varying the Dresselhaus term, right). Adapted from Koralek et al. (2009).

![FIG. 5](Color online) Upper left panel: Decay curves of spin gratings obtained by Koralek et al. (2009) for different wave numbers \( q \) of the initially modulated spin density. The data shows decay on two distinct time scales. Upper right panel: Lifetimes of the spin helices with enhanced \( (\tau_R) \) and reduced \( (\tau_E) \) stability. The former one corresponds to the spin density configuration (38) with a maximum lifetime at \( q = 2Q \). Lower panels: Lifetime of the spin helix configuration as a function of wave number for different doping asymmetry (varying the Rashba coupling, left) and well width (varying the Dresselhaus term, right). Adapted from Koralek et al. (2009).
formed in a [001]-grown GaAs quantum well with the existence of the single conserved spin component \( \Sigma \). The helix does not depend on the full SU(2) symmetry but implies an external magnetic field in [1 10]-direction coupling to the conserved spin component \( \Sigma \). Introducing such an external field breaks the SU(2) symmetry. The work by Walser et al. (2012) has conducted a similar imaging study on a sample where the Rashba parameter was varied by a gate voltage close to \( \alpha = -\beta \). In a companion study the same authors used Kerr imaging to map out the spin dynamics in quantum wires lithographically defined in the quantum well along the [110]- and [110]-direction (Ishihara et al. 2014b). In accordance with Eqs. (11), (12) (again for \( \alpha = -\beta \)), the spin-orbit coupling was in the former case (where \( \vec{k} \perp \vec{Q} \) ) found to be strongly suppressed while in the latter direction a spin helix was formed. Similar results on spin dephasing time scales for quantum wires in GaAs wells close to \( \alpha = -\beta \) were reported by Denega et al. (2010). Salis et al. (2014) combined the experimental techniques of Walser et al. (2012) with theoretical simulations to study the formation of a spin helix, again following a local optical spin excitation, under imperfect conditions. Specifically, the authors considered a finite imbalance \( |\alpha| - |\beta| \neq 0 \), a substantial third-harmonic cubic correction to the Dresselhaus term, and lateral confinement within the quantum well. The experimental results obtained again for GaAs samples are found to agree well with the theoretical modeling. Only shortly later the same collaboration (Altmann et al. 2014) investigated, in a similar experimental setup, the spin helix lifetime near \( \alpha = \beta \) in quantum wires etched along the direction [110] |\vec{Q}| in quantum wells originating from the same wafer as used before (Walser et al. 2012). By fitting their data to a spin diffusion model (Salis et al. 2014), cf. Sec. II.C the authors conclude that the observed enhanced stability of the helix is mainly due to the geometrical confinement while the intrinsic lifetime is rather unaffected and still determined essentially by the cubic third-harmonic contribution to the Dresselhaus term.

Schönhuber et al. (2014) have investigated via inelastic light scattering intrasubband spin excitations in a GaAs quantum well close to \( \alpha = \beta \) produced again from the same wafer as used by Walser et al. (2012). For momentum transfer along the direction of \( \vec{Q} \parallel [110] \) a substantial spin splitting is found, while this quantity is clearly suppressed in the opposite direction, in accordance with Eqs. (11), (12) and the findings by Ishihara et al. (2014b) (working at \( \alpha = -\beta \)). The spin orbit parameters extracted from the measurements are consistent with the results by Walser et al. (2012).

Most recently, two studies extended the work by Yang et al. (2012) mentioned above on spin helix drift in quantum wells now close to \( \alpha = \pm \beta \). Kunihashi et al. (2016) investigated drift spin transport via Kerr imaging in a four terminal geometry of ohmic contacts covered by a semi-transparent Au gate electrode. The latter varied the Rashba coupling while voltages applied to the contacts created drift transport of optically injected spin-polarized electrons. Wells of two widths (\( L = 15 \)nm and laser. The upper panels of Fig. 6 show the spreading of this initial wave packet by diffusion: The \( z \)-component of the spin density evolves, due to the combined Rashba and Dresselhaus spin-orbit coupling near \( \alpha = +\beta \), into an oscillatory pattern along the [110]-direction, consistent with numerical simulations by Liu et al. (2009, 2006). As to be expected, the spin density pattern is constant in the orthogonal [110]-direction. Similar as in the measurements by Koralek et al. (2009), the detection technique is only sensitive to the \( z \)-component of the spin density. Applying an external magnetic field in [110]-direction coupling to the conserved spin component \( \Sigma \) rotates the in-plane component of the helix into the growth direction and enables its detection (lower panels of Fig. 6). We note that, as seen in Eqs. (22), (29), introducing such an external field breaks the SU(2) symmetry at \( \alpha = \beta \). Thus, the work by Walser et al. (2012) is an experimental demonstration that the stability of the persistent spin helix does not depend on the full SU(2) symmetry but the existence of the single conserved spin component \( \Sigma \) suffices.

The investigations by Walser et al. (2012) were performed in a [001]-grown GaAs quantum well with the Rashba parameter fixed by asymmetric doping. Ishihara et al. (2014a) have conducted a similar imaging study on a sample where the Rashba parameter was varied by a gate voltage close to \( \alpha = -\beta \). In a companion study the same authors used Kerr imaging to map out the spin dynamics in quantum wires lithographically defined in the quantum well along the [110]- and [110]-direction (Ishihara et al. 2014b). In accordance with Eqs. (11), (12) (again for \( \alpha = -\beta \)), the spin-orbit coupling was in the former case (where \( \vec{k} \perp \vec{Q} \) ) found to be strongly suppressed while in the latter direction a spin helix was formed. Similar results on spin dephasing time scales for quantum wires in GaAs wells close to \( \alpha = -\beta \) were reported by Denega et al. (2010). Salis et al. (2014) combined the experimental techniques of Walser et al. (2012) with theoretical simulations to study the formation of a spin helix, again following a local optical spin excitation, under imperfect conditions. Specifically, the authors considered a finite imbalance \( |\alpha| - |\beta| \neq 0 \), a substantial third-harmonic cubic correction to the Dresselhaus term, and lateral confinement within the quantum well. The experimental results obtained again for GaAs samples are found to agree well with the theoretical modeling. Only shortly later the same collaboration (Altmann et al. 2014) investigated, in a similar experimental setup, the spin helix lifetime near \( \alpha = \beta \) in quantum wires etched along the direction [110] |\vec{Q}| in quantum wells originating from the same wafer as used before (Walser et al. 2012). By fitting their data to a spin diffusion model (Salis et al. 2014), cf. Sec. II.C the authors conclude that the observed enhanced stability of the helix is mainly due to the geometrical confinement while the intrinsic lifetime is rather unaffected and still determined essentially by the cubic third-harmonic contribution to the Dresselhaus term.

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2. Transport Measurements

Kohda et al. (2012) have investigated the quantum corrections to the magnetoconductance in InGaAs quantum wells with spin-orbit coupling close to $\alpha = \pm \beta$. Spin-orbit interaction combined with scattering on imperfections generically randomizes the spin leading to weak antilocalization signaled by a negative magnetoconductance. Kohda et al. (2012) applied the magnetic field perpendicular to the quantum well and used a gate voltage across it to vary the Rashba parameter $\alpha$. As shown in Fig. 7, in a comparatively narrow well of width $L = 4\text{nm}$ the authors found a transition from weak antilocalization to weak localization and back when driving the gate voltage through an appropriate critical value. In a sample with a larger well width of $L = 7\text{nm}$ and therefore smaller Dresselhaus parameter $\beta$ no such behavior was observed, i.e. in the latter system $\beta$ and the range of $\alpha$ seem to be too different to match each other. The experimental results are corroborated by numerical simulations which conclude that the weak localization signal persists even if the cubic third-harmonic term in Eq. (5) is included, but its location in parameter space is shifted away from $\alpha = \beta$.

The fact that the $L = 4\text{nm}$ sample actually has spin-orbit coupling parameters close to $\alpha = \beta$ was also established by Kohda et al. (2012) in an independent experiment using the spin-galvanic effect. This phenomenon amounts in an electric current to response to an in-plane spin polarization, and its directional dependence is highly sensitive to the ratio $\alpha/\beta$ (Ganichev et al., 2004; Ganichev and Golub, 2014; Trushin and Schliemann, 2007a). Which was indeed found to be close to unity.

Dettwiler et al. (2014) extended the investigations by Kohda et al. (2012) using GaAs quantum wells varying in width from $L = 8\text{nm}$ to $L = 13\text{nm}$. Employing a combination of top and back gates the Rashba parameter $\alpha$ and the carrier density $n$ could be tuned independently.

The point $\alpha = \beta$ was again determined by monitoring the transition from weak antilocalization to weak localization and back. To obtain a consistent data analysis it was necessary to take into account the cubic correction (being proportional to $n$) to the Dresselhaus parameter $\beta$. As a result, Dettwiler et al. (2014) demonstrated control over spin-orbit coupling parameters and carrier density while preserving the condition $\alpha = \beta$. At quite high densities such as $n = 9 \cdot 10^{11}\text{cm}^{-2}$ no transition between weak antilocalization and localization was found which should be ascribed to the third-harmonic correction to the Dresselhaus term that also increases with density.

Magnetoconductance studies in quantum wires in the directions [100], [110], [110] of an [001] InGaAs quantum well were performed by Sasaki et al. (2014) building upon theoretical work by Scheid et al. (2008). To reduce fluctuation effects the authors used arrays of wires which were arranged in the same sample thus enabling simultaneous measurements. The Rashba coupling was varied by a top gate, and the magnetic field lay in the plane of the well leading in combination with the spin-orbit coupling to a strong anisotropy of the magnetoconductance which additionally depends on the direction of the wire. In a one-dimensional quantum wire spin randomization due to momentum scattering (Dyakonov-Perel mechanism) is quenched since effective wave vector-dependent field provided by the spin-orbit interaction is unidirectional. This phenomenon will be discussed in more detail in section II.F.4. An in-plane magnetic field noncollinear with the spin-orbit field changes this situation and leads spin...
randomization favoring weak antilocalization. Thus, in accordance with numerical simulation done by the authors, the weak localization signal in the conductance is maximal if the applied field is collinear with the field provided by the spin-orbit coupling. With the direction of the wave vector defined by the quantum wire, the latter observation provides a means to determine the ratio $\alpha/\beta$. In particular, for $\alpha/\beta = 1$ no anisotropy of the magnetoconductance is observed for transport in the [110]-direction since here we have $\vec{k} \perp \vec{Q}$ (cf. Eqs. (11), (12)). If the applied magnetic field is substantially noncollinear with the spin-orbit field it randomizes the spin and suppresses weak localization. Assuming that this process is most efficient if both fields are of the same magnitude (as indicated by the numerics), Sasaki et al. (2014) also give reasonable separate estimates for $\alpha$ and $\beta$. For a further proposal to determine the relative strength of the Rashba and Dresselhaus coupling utilizing the high-symmetry point $[\alpha/\beta] = 1$ see Li and Chang (2010).

Most recently, Yoshizumi et al. (2016) have demonstrated gate-controlled switching between $[\alpha = \pm \beta]$ in an InAlAs quantum well. The occurrence of each persistent spin helix (differing by sense of rotation) was again detected by similar magnetoconductance measurements as above.


Several theoretical studies have identified the cubic Dresselhaus term as the main decay mechanism of the persistent spin helix (Cheng and Wu, 2006; Cheng et al., 2007; Kettemann, 2007; Kurosawa et al., 2015; Liu and Sinova, 2012; Lüffe et al., 2011; Lusakowski et al., 2003; Shen and Wu, 2009; Wenk and Kettemann, 2011), in accordance with experiments already mentioned (Koralek et al., 2009; Salis et al., 2014).

Specifically, the spin-grating experiments by Koralek et al. (2009) found the spin lifetime $\tau_h$ of the symmetry-protected spin helix to be of order a few hundred picoseconds, depending significantly on temperature. The ratio of $\tau_h$ and the time scale of ordinary (spin) diffusion can be expressed as $\eta := 4DQ^2\tau_h$. This quantity is approximately constant, $\eta \approx 100$, below 50K while it decreases for higher temperature with a power law showing an exponent slightly larger than 2. The subsequent theoretical analysis by Liu and Sinova (2012) concluded that this temperature dependence cannot be quantitatively described by a low-order treatment of the spin-orbit interaction which is essentially restricted to the Dyakonov-Perel regime and leads to the diffusion equations (33), (34) (given here at zero temperature). This finding is in qualitative agreement with the experimental study by Studer et al. (2009) on InGaAs quantum wells using time-resolved Faraday rotation. Instead the Elliot-Yafet relaxation mechanism should also be taken into account which yields expressions somewhat more involved than Eqs. (33), (34).

Theoretical investigations by Lüffe et al. (2011, 2013) led to the prediction that the spin helix life time can be enhanced by Coulomb repulsion (treated there within Hartree-Fock approximation). A study of Rashba and Dresselhaus coupling and its interplay with Coulomb interaction described by the GW approximation was presented by Nechaev et al. (2010).

A further possible source of decoherence of the spin helix are spatial inhomogeneities of the effective Rashba interaction described by the GW approximation was presented by Lüffe et al. (2016), Glazov et al. (2010a), Liu et al. (2006).

E. Many-Body Signatures of the Persistent Spin Helix

We now summarize the role of persistent spin textures in connection with the many-body physics of interacting systems. If not mentioned otherwise, we consider electrons in [001] quantum wells subjected to Coulomb repulsion and spin-orbit coupling of the Rashba and the linear Dresselhaus type.

Badalyan et al. (2009, 2010) evaluated the dielectric function of the two-dimensional electron gas within Random Phase Approximation (Lindhard formula). For $\alpha = \pm \beta$ one obtains the dielectric response of system without spin-orbit coupling, while for general parameters a beating of the static Friedel oscillations is observed. In a subsequent work the charge density relaxation propagator, i.e. the slope of the imaginary part of the polarization function, and its analyticity properties was studied (Badalyan et al. 2013).

The optical conductivity was calculated by Maytoren et al. (2006) and compared with the frequency dependence of the spin Hall conductivity (which vanishes in the static limit (Schlüsselmann, 2000)). The authors predict a rich phenomenology arising from the interplay of the two spin-orbit coupling terms. In a subsequent work the analysis was extended to the optical (i.e. spatially homogeneous) spin susceptibility (Lopez-Bastidas et al., 2007). The optical conductivity for quantum wells with Rashba and Dresselhaus coupling was reconsidered by Lüffe et al. (2013). As a signature of the persistent spin helix, all interband transitions vanish at $[\alpha = \pm \beta]$. If the cubic Dresselhaus contribution is taken into account, these transitions are rendered finite but still suppressed.

Capps et al. (2015) studied the finite-temperature equilibrium state of an interacting electron gas at $\alpha = \pm \beta$ within Hartree-Fock approximation and concluded the absence of any helical spin structures; a finding consistent with the fact that, as discussed in section II.B finite expectation values of the operators (23), (24) occur only in nonequilibrium states or as the result of spontaneous symmetry breaking. Most recently, the authors have extended their analysis to the spin Seebeck effect (Capps et al., 2015).
The RKKY interaction between magnetic moments in the presence of spin-independent disorder was investigated by Chesi and Loss (2010). Here the disorder-averaged susceptibility shows a twisted exchange interaction decaying exponentially with distance. Iglesias and Maytorena (2010) have investigated the dynamical spin-polarization, i.e. the linear response of the spin-magnetization to a homogeneous in-plane electric field. The authors consider Rashba and Dresselhaus spin-orbit coupling in quantum wells with growth directions [001], [110], and [111].

When the electrons are confined to a quantum wire (and their interaction is neglected) the spin-orbit coupling in general leads to anticrossings of the single-particle subband dispersions except for the case $\alpha = \pm \beta$ where, due to the additional conserved quantity, crossings occur (Schliemann et al., 2003). Using a Luttinger liquid description, Meng et al. (2014) studied the renormalization of such (anti-)crossings in the presence of Coulomb repulsion. This effect especially significant near the high-symmetry point $\alpha = \pm \beta$ where the anticrossing gap vanishes with an interaction-dependent power law in the spin-orbit parameters.

\section*{F. Other Growth Directions and Geometries}

We now review, among other items, experimental studies dedicated to persistent spin structures in quantum wells of the other high-symmetry growth directions [110] and [111]. A very recent prediction of analogous phenomena in systems of more general growth direction has been already mentioned (Kammermeier et al., 2016). For a summary of experimental work on spin-orbit coupling in such systems (not specifically addressing spin helices) we refer to Ganichev and Golub (2014).

1. [110] Quantum Wells

As seen in Sec. 1.1.B for quantum wells grown in the [110]-direction a conserved spin component along with an SU(2) symmetry involving an appropriate wave vector transfer occurs in the absence of Rashba coupling. Relying on optical techniques several groups reported on clearly enhanced spin dephasing times compared to those observed in quantum wells of other growth directions (Bel’kov et al., 2008; Couto et al., 2007; Müller et al., 2008; Ohno et al., 1999; Schreiber et al., 2007a,b; Völkl et al., 2011, 2014). Moreover, spin dephasing is found to be strongly anisotropic depending on whether the spin polarization lies in the plane of the quantum well or along the growth direction where the longest lifetimes occur (Döhrmann et al., 2004; Griesbeck et al., 2012). These observations are of course in agreement with the structure of the Dresselhaus spin-orbit coupling, and the remaining spin decay can be attributed to residual Rashba coupling (Glazov et al., 2010b; Poshakinskiy and Tarasenko, 2013; Tarasenko, 2009) and/or hole-mediated processes (Völkl et al., 2011).

Experiments directed explicitly towards helical spin structures were performed by Chen et al. (2014) who studied [110]-grown GaAs quantum wells using time-resolved Kerr microscopy. To generate a finite net spin-orbit field averaged over the the Fermi contour, the Fermi disk was shifted from its equilibrium position by applying a DC current of up to 200$\mu$A. The direction of the current defines the direction of the effective wave vector to be inserted in the Dresselhaus Hamiltonian ($\varepsilon$). Additionally a magnetic field of order a few hundred mT was applied. By comparing data obtained for different directions of the magnetic field, the authors were able to extract the energy contribution due to spin-orbit interaction. For a current along the the [110]- (or y-)direction this quantity is proportional to the current strength, while for the orthogonal [001]- (or x-)direction it is more or less constant, in accordance with the form of the Dresselhaus term ($\varepsilon$).

Similar to the studies by Walser et al. (2012) on [001] quantum wells, Chen et al. (2014) also mapped out the formation of a helical spin structure following a local injection of spin density polarized along the growth direction. As this direction coincides with the direction of the spin-orbit field, an additional small magnetic field was necessary to generate nontrivial dynamics. Fig. 8 shows the time-resolved data which is well reproduced by Monte Carlo simulations.
2. [111] Quantum Wells

According to Eqs. (7) and (8), the linear Dresselhaus coupling in quantum wells grown in the [111]-direction can exactly cancel the Rashba term for \( \alpha = 2\beta/\sqrt{3} \). Thus, spin-orbit interaction is present only in higher corrections, the leading one being third-harmonic contribution in Eq. (7). This situation in GaAs quantum wells was investigated by Balocchi et al. (2011) using time-resolved photoluminescence spectroscopy. For an appropriate Rashba coupling tuned by a gate voltage, the authors observed clearly enhanced spin lifetimes exceeding 30 ns for all spin directions. Spin polarizations perpendicular to the growth direction were generated by a transverse magnetic field of order a few hundred mT. In a subsequent work, Ye et al. (2012) found, for structures as used by Balocchi et al. (2011), the sign of the gate voltage to depend on whether the underlying GaAs [111] substrate is terminated by a [111]A (Ga-rich) or [111]B (As-rich) surface.

Independent confirmation for the above findings was provided by Biermann et al. (2012) and Hernandez-Minguez et al. (2012) who performed photoluminescence measurements on GaAs [111] quantum wells of somewhat larger width; for a summary see also Hernandez-Minguez et al. (2014). Wang et al. (2013) recorded both the spin lifetime \( \tau_s \) and the momentum relaxation time \( \tau_m \) in GaAs [111] quantum wells and deduced an enhanced spin diffusion length \( l_s = \sqrt{D\tau_s}, D = v_f^2 \tau/2 \), at an appropriate gate voltage. Moreover, Balocchi et al. (2013) combined optical experiments and theoretical simulations to investigate the influence of the cubic third-harmonic contribution to the Dresselhaus coupling close to the cancellation of the linear part with the Rashba term. The authors conclude that effective control over spin relaxation even at room temperature should be possible in sufficiently narrow [111] wells where the linear Dresselhaus term dominates.

3. Curved Systems

Another situation where, for appropriately tuned spin-orbit interaction, nontrivial conserved spin quantities occur is realized by evenly curved cylindrical two-dimensional electron systems. The geometry of such samples is sketched in Fig. 9(a); for the practical fabrication of such structures see, e.g., Mendach et al. (2004, 2006); and Schmidt and Eberl (2001).

Including Rashba spin-orbit coupling, the Hamiltonian can be formulated as (Trushin and Schliemann, 2007b)

\[
H = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} k_z^2 + \frac{\hbar^2 q_{\varphi}^2}{2mR^2} + \alpha \left( k_z \sigma^x - \frac{q_{\varphi}}{R} \sigma^z \right) \tag{39}
\]

where \( k_z \) is the wave vector component along the \( z \)-axis of the cylinder of radius \( R \), and \( q_{\varphi} = -i\partial/\partial\varphi \) generates real-space rotations around the axis. \( \sigma^x = -\sigma^x \sin \varphi + \sigma^y \cos \varphi \) is the projection of the Pauli matrices on the azimuthal direction such that \( \{\sigma^x, \sigma^z\}/(2i) = \sigma^x \cos \varphi + \sigma^y \sin \varphi =: \sigma^z \). For general Rashba parameter \( \alpha \) the above Hamiltonian leads to anisotropic dispersions shown in Fig. 9(b), differently from the case of a flat system discribed by the Hamiltonian (8) and depicted in Fig. 9(c).

One easily finds the commutator

\[
[H, \sigma^x] = \left( \frac{\hbar^2}{2mR^2} + \frac{\alpha}{R} \right) (q_{\varphi}\sigma^x + \sigma^y q_{\varphi}) \tag{40}
\]

which vanishes if the Rashba parameter fulfills

\[
\alpha = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2mR}, \tag{41}
\]

a result that remains obviously valid if arbitrary spin-independent potentials or interactions are added to the Hamiltonian (39). Moreover, in full analogy to flat quantum wells with appropriately tuned Rashba and Dresselhaus parameter, the conservation of \( \Sigma = \sigma^x \) leads to circular dispersion relations displaced by a shift vector (cf. Fig. 9(d)). Thus, analogous to Eqs. (24), (24), we have a complete \( su(2) \) algebra of operators commuting with the Hamiltonian (Trushin and Schliemann, 2007b). Finally, the corresponding persistent spin structure can also be described via appropriate spin diffusion equations (Kleinert and Bryksin, 2009).

Independently of the condition (41) the Hamiltonian (39) always commutes with the total angular momentum \( j = q_{\varphi} + \sigma^z/2 \), and electrons in superpositions the same \( j \) but opposite spin orientation show interesting periodic spin patterns along the cylindrical axis (Bringer and Schäpers, 2011).

As a somewhat related geometry, Nowak and Szafran (2009) studied circular quantum rings embedded in [001] quantum wells with Rashba and Dresselhaus spin-orbit coupling. Here the latter leads, except for the high-symmetry case \( \alpha = \pm \beta \), to elliptical deformations of the confined electron density.

4. Lateral Confinement, Magnetic Fields, and Finite Well Width

Duckheim et al. (2009) performed a theoretical study of the dynamical spin Hall effect (Duckheim and Loss, 2007) in a two-dimensional electron gas confined to a channel of finite width. Specifically, the spin accumulation at the channel boundary in response to a AC electric field along the channel direction was investigated. This effect is found to typically decay on the length scale set by the spin-orbit coupling. However, considering additionally a DC in-plane magnetic field at balanced spin-orbit coupling \( \alpha = \pm \beta \) the authors were able to identify conditions under which such spatially oscillating spin profiles...
can extend over the entire channel, thus forming a driven spin helix.

Badalyan and Fabian (2010) studied the interplay between Rashba and Dresselhaus spin-orbit coupling at \( \alpha = \pm \beta \) with a magnetic field in the growth direction of the quantum well, and a hard-wall boundary oriented either in the direction of \( \vec{Q} \) (cf. Eq. (12)) or perpendicular to it. In the former case a spin helix along the boundary arises. The key observation here is that the transformation (17) still yields a spin-independent Schrödinger equation (18) even if an arbitrary vector potential \( \vec{A} \) is coupled to the momentum \( \vec{p} = -i\hbar \nabla \rightarrow \vec{p} + e\vec{A} \), leading to a magnetic field \( \vec{B} = \nabla \times \vec{A} \) whose direct Zeeman coupling to the spin is neglected (as done by the above authors) such that \( \Sigma \) remains a conserved quantity.

Introducing further lateral confinement in a given quantum well constrains the electron motion to take place mainly in the direction along the boundary. An extreme case of such a situation is a (quasi-)one-dimensional quantum wire with only the lowest subband being occupied. However, even in broader channels the longitudinal component of the wave vector clearly dominates the dynamics. This constraint fixes the projection of the spin operator acting predominantly on the electron via spin-orbit interaction. As a result, the Dyakonov-Perel spin relaxation mechanism can be expected to be strongly suppressed by such lateral confinement. This effect is rather independent of particular tuning of spin-orbit coupling parameters, but as it clearly leads to enhanced spin lifetimes we shall also summarize the pertaining developments here; for further discussions see also Holleitner (2011).

Following several quantitative theoretical predictions (Bouriel et al. 1998, Kiselev and Kim 2000a; Mal’shukov and Chao 2000; Pareek and Bruno 2002), this suppression of spin relaxation in narrow channels was experimentally verified by Holleitner et al. (2006, 2007) combining time-resolved Faraday rotation measurements with evaluations of Shubnikov-de Haas oscillations. Their work was qualitatively confirmed by Kwon et al. (2007) also relying on the Shubnikov-de Haas effect. At about the same time, the crossover from two- to one-dimensional spin relaxation behavior was also found by Schäpers et al. (2006) and Wirthmann et al. (2006) via weak antilocalization studies.

Regarding the influence of a magnetic field in two-dimensional bulk systems at \( \alpha = \pm \beta \), Wilde and Grundler (2013) predicted the disappearance of additional beatings in de Haas-van Alphen oscillations, an effect similar to the suppression of zitterbewegung (Biswas and Ghosh 2012) Nita et al. (2012) Schliemann et al. (2006). Kumihashi et al. (2009) performed magnetoconductance measurements in narrow InGaAs wires with Rashba and Dresselhaus spin-orbit coupling tuned close to \( \alpha = \pm \beta \). Here essentially weak localization is found since the spin relaxation length systematically exceeds the inelastic scattering length due to the combined effect of spatial dimension and the conserved spin quantity. In a subsequent study the authors investigated a semiclassical model for spin relaxation in systems of the above type with a focus on \( \alpha = \pm \beta \), also proposing a method to quantitatively estimate the spin-orbit parameters Kumihashi et al. (2012a). Most recent experimental work includes investigation by Altmann et al. (2014) on quantum wires close to \( \alpha = \beta \) (cf. section II.D.1) and a Kerr rotation study of channels with dominating Dresselhaus coupling (Altmann et al. 2015).

Also working close to the one-dimensional limit, Krstajic et al. (2010) performed a theoretical study of the conductance of quantum wires in [001] wells with spatially varying Rashba and Dresselhaus coupling around \( \alpha = \beta \) taking into account subband mixing. Further theoretical investigations considered spin-helical structures in quantum wires of finite length in the presence of Rashba coupling (Slipko et al. 2013, 2011, 2011 Slipko and Pershin, 2011 Slipko et al. 2011).

Fu and Egues (2015) studied theoretically spin-orbit interaction in [001] quantum wells broad enough such that, for typical densities, the two lowest subbands \( i = 1, 2 \) are occupied in the ground state.
et al. (2007). Treating interaction effects within the Hartree approximation and solving the resulting coupled Schrödinger-Poisson system, the authors obtained separate coefficients $\alpha_1, \alpha_2$ and $\beta_1, \beta_2$ for the Rashba and Dresselhaus coupling for each subband. Points of enhanced symmetry such as $\alpha_1 = \beta_1$ are discussed in more detail. Working upon these findings Fu et al. (2015) concluded that the coupling parameters can be tuned to be of equal modulus in each subband but with a different relative sign: $\alpha_1 = \beta_1, \alpha_2 = -\beta_2$. This situation gives rise to a superposition of two persistent spin helices with orthogonal wave vectors leading to a persistent skyrmion lattice. Moreover, Wang et al. (2015) discussed the possibility of a persistent spin helix in coupled double and triple GaAs quantum wells.

Nakhmedov and Alekperov (2012) considered electrons subjected to Rashba and Dresselhaus coupling near $\alpha = \beta$ and an in-plane magnetic field in quantum wells of finite thickness where the specific form of the transverse potential was taken into account. Moreover, Nazmitdinov et al. (2009) investigated quantum wires with Rashba and Dresselhaus coupling of arbitrary strength where an in-plane magnetic field gives rise to a conserved spin operator for electrons with appropriate longitudinal momentum.

G. Spin Field-Effect Transistors and Related Concepts

We now summarize recent developments regarding spin field-effect transistors with a relation to persistent spin structures. For a more comprehensive review on spin transistor devices see Sugahara and Nitta (2010). We will mainly concentrate on [001] quantum wells.

In the classic proposal of a spin field-effect transistor due to Datta and Das (1990) already sketched in Fig. 2, an electron is emitted from a spin-polarized electrode into a semiconductor region where its spin is rotated via electrically tunable Rashba coupling. Depending on the rotation angle and the spin-polarization of the detecting electrode, the electron passes through the device with a high or low probability, defining the “on”- and “off”-state of the transistor. Problems of this concept include the spin injection into the active semiconductor region (Schmidt et al. 2000) and the randomization of spins due to scattering on imperfections as already discussed in section II.B (Dyakonov and Perel, 1972). Indeed these obstacles limit so far the signal efficiency in practical implementations to a rather low level (Koo et al. 2009).

A means to tackle the issue of spin decay in [001] grown structures is to balance the Dresselhaus and Rashba coupling in one of the operational states of the transistor (Cartoixa et al. 2003; Schliemann et al. 2003). For example, the on-state can be defined by $\alpha = \pm \beta$ such that the electron spin is symmetry-protected whereas in the off-state $|\alpha| \neq \beta$ spin randomization sets in. To fully exploit the spin conservation in the on-state, it is useful to precisely define the locations of spin injection and detection by means of quantum point contacts (Chuang et al. 2015; Schliemann et al. 2003). Kunihashi et al. (2012b) discussed a device operating between the states $\alpha = +\beta$ and $\alpha = -\beta$ (Schliemann et al. 2003); for a recent experimental realization of such a scenario see Yoshizumi et al. (2016). A variant of the above concepts for [110] structures was put forward by Hall et al. (2003) where in one of the device states additional Rashba coupling leads to spin decoherence. Further theoretical proposals involving spatially inhomogeneous Rashba coupling include work by Liu et al. (2012) and Alomar et al. (2015).

In a proposal by Betthausen et al. (2012) electron spins are modulated adiabatically in the on-state of the device (and therefore protected against decay), while in the off-state diabatic Landau-Zener transitions induced by a spatially rotating magnetic field set in leading to spin decoherence. The feasibility of this device is demonstrated experimentally using a (Cd,Mn)Te diluted semiconductor quantum well (Betthausen et al. 2012); for related theoretical work see also Saarikoski et al. (2012) and Wojcik and Adamowski (2016).

Wunderlich et al. (2010) combined the spin field-effect transistor concept with the spin Hall effect in an n-doped GaAs quantum well. Spin are injected optically, and the conductance of the device is switched via a top gate. The spin polarization of the resulting current is detected via a transversal voltage resulting from the (inverse) spin Hall effect.

III. p-DOPED STRUCTURES, TOPOLOGICAL INSULATORS, AND OTHER SYSTEMS

As already sketched in Fig. 1, the structure of the $p$-type valence band of III-V zinc-blende semiconductors is much richer compared to the $s$-type conduction band (Fabian et al. 2007; Korn 2010; Winkler 2003; Wu et al. 2010; Yu and Cardona 2010). A realistic band structure model consists here of the classic Luttinger Hamiltonian parametrizing the different masses for heavy and light holes (Luttinger 1956) and additional spin-orbit coupling contribution arising from structure- and bulk-inversion asymmetry (Winkler 2003). The latter terms are analogous to the Rashba and Dresselhaus couplings for conduction band electrons. In particular, as pointed out only quite recently, in two-dimensional quantum wells pronounced Dresselhaus contributions being linear in the in-plane momentum can arise from the heavy and light hole mixing induced by boundary conditions at the nanostructure interfaces (Durnev et al. 2014; Luo et al. 2010). Taking into account these findings, Wenk et al. (2016) identified conditions for strained $p$-doped [001] wells under which conserved spin quantities occur for holes being close to the Fermi contour.
The latter is for realistic parameters well approximated by a circle. The circumstance that spin conservation applies here only to charge carriers with wave numbers close to $k_F$ is similar to the result by Nazmitdinov et al. (2009) who found conserved spin operators in $n$-doped quantum wires arising for appropriate wave vectors only. Wenk et al. (2016) considered strained quantum wells with ground states being both of heavy and light hole type; more special results apply to unstrained systems. Similar conserved spin quantities in strained quantum wells were also found by Dollinger et al. (2014) and Sacksteder and Bernevig (2014) using band structure models where the linear Dresselhaus term plays a less dominant role. The spin conservation here is again restricted to a vicinity of the Fermi contour, but the necessary conditions on band structure parameters are difficult to meet in realistic materials.

Absor et al. (2015) performed ab initio calculations for Wurtzite ZnO surfaces of appropriate orientation and predicted an effective spin splitting similar as for Dresselhaus coupling $n$-doped [110] quantum wells of zinc-blende materials (cf. Eq. (3)), which should analogously give rise to a persistent spin helix.

The possibility to realize persistent spin textures in monolayers of (group-III) metal-monochalcogenides was discussed by Li and Appelbaum (2015). Sacksteder et al. (2012) investigated spin conduction in surface states of three-dimensional topological insulators with anisotropic dispersion. The authors predict coherent spin transport if (i) the effective Hamiltonian is tuned to conserve an appropriate spin component (such that its Dirac cone is infinitely stretched), or (ii) the Fermi energy is aligned with a local extremum of the anisotropic two-dimensional dispersion.

Liu et al. (2014) studied the proximity effect in layered structures of triplet superconductors and [001] semiconductor quantum wells with Rashba and Dresselhaus spin-orbit coupling. The authors conclude that the vector of triplet pair expectation values should form a long-ranged helix in the semiconductor material for $\alpha = \pm \beta$. Related Josephson effects and possible experimental setups are also discussed.

Yet another fascinating perspective is the possibility to realize persistent helical spin structures in systems of ultracold fermionic atoms as discussed by Tokatly and Sherman (2013).

IV. CONCLUSIONS AND OUTLOOK

We have reviewed the gamut of developments related to the persistent spin helix that have emerged from the theoretical predictions by Schliemann et al. (2003) and Bernevig et al. (2006). The topic is still a hot one as one can see from the list of references, a substantial amount of which is not older than two years. In particular, new experimental studies continue to appear.

Our discussion includes $n$-doped III-V zinc-blende quantum wells of growth directions [001], [110], and [111]. The first one has received most attention so far, regarding experiments as well as theoretical work. Right from the beginning the investigations about conserved spin operators and suppressed decoherence were closely tied to proposals for improving the device concept of spin-field-effect-transistors. Among the most promising experimental developments in this regard are the very recent studies on drift transport of spin helices as discussed in section II.D.1. It is needless to say that these achievements have the chance to contribute to spin-based information processing in semiconductor structures.

Also systems with growth directions [110] and [111] have been subject to thorough experimental studies, while the predicted many-body effects of persistent spin textures (mainly in [001] quantum wells) are still awaiting their experimental investigation.

A most recent theoretical result was obtained by Kammermeier et al. (2016) stating that a persistent spin helix is achievable in quantum wells of more general growth direction if and only if two of its Miller indices have the same modulus. Specifically, the resulting SU(2) symmetry is characterized by a conserved spin component $\Sigma = \vec{e} \cdot \vec{Q}$ and a shift vector $\vec{Q}$ which is always perpendicular to the direction of the spin-orbit field, $\vec{e} \perp \vec{Q}$. The latter feature is strongly reminiscent to the spin-momentum locking found in the edge modes of topological insulators (Hasan and Kane 2010 Qi and Zhang 2011) but occurs here in the bulk of the system. The above findings have the potential to stimulate a flurry of further fascinating experiments.

Other very recent new developments include the study of two-dimensional $p$-doped systems which are well known for their clearly richer band structure.

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