Regimes and quantum bounds of nanoscale thermoelectrics with peaked transmission function

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Based on the Landauer-Büttiker theory, we explore the thermal regimes of two-terminal nanoscale systems with an energy-peaked transmission function. The device is in contact with two reservoirs held at different temperatures and chemical potentials. We identify the operation regions where the system acts as energy pump (thermal machine) or heat pump (refrigerator machine), or where it is working in dissipative modes. The corresponding thermoelectric parameters are obtained without numerical calculations. The recent literature, by focusing on systems with box-like or step-like shapes of the transmission functions, demonstrated that bounds of quantum origin exist for output power and heat currents of thermal machines and refrigerators. The simple model we adopt in this paper allows us to grasp easily and without numerical calculations the presence of quantum bounds for the above thermoelectric quantities, as function of the position of the transmission peak with respect to the chemical potentials of the left and right reservoirs. In spite of the simple model and treatment, our results are in qualitative agreement with analytic findings in previous researches obtained with more realistic description of the electronic transmission function.

I. INTRODUCTION

The development of nanotechnology has paved the way for new strategies to increase the efficiency of thermoelectric processes [1]. The pioneering papers by Hicks and Dresselhaus [2] evidenced the importance of investigating nanoscale quantum transport to enhance the thermoelectric dimensionless figure of merit $ZT$ in the linear regime.

$ZT$ is defined as $ZT = \sigma S^2 T/\kappa$, where $\sigma$ is the electronic conductance, $S$ the Seebeck coefficient, $T$ the absolute temperature, and $\kappa$ the electronic (phononic) thermal conductance. Several strategies were reported to maximize $ZT$ by a suitable choice of device design and appropriate materials [3,4]. Most attempts proposed to increase phonon scattering so to decrease the lattice thermal conductivity by engineering nanostructured devices. Other attempts proposed to increase the power factor, $\sigma S^2 T$, by varying the concentration of charge carriers $T$.

As an alternative approach Mahan and Sofo [10] addressed the problem in a formal way, looking for the material with an optimal transport coefficient $T(E)$ that guarantees, at given lattice thermal conductivity, the highest $ZT$. A transmission coefficient with $\delta$-like shape turned out to be the ideal choice. Along this line, the impact of energy spectrum width [17,18] and of other $T(E)$ shapes as box-, Lorentzian [19] and Fano [20,21] like features, were successively considered [22] depending on specific problems or suggested by quantum broadening effects due the contacts. In particular, sharp features in $T(E)$ approaching $\delta$-shape were realized and analyzed in terms of narrow rectangular shapes [23], or single Lorentzian peaks of vanishing width $\Gamma$ [24,25], in quantum dots weakly interacting with the contacts [26,27] and in the presence of electron-electron interaction [28], in single molecule junctions [29], molecular electronics [30,31], and resonant tunneling devices [32].

The weaknesses, for practical realizations, of the strictly $\delta$-shape transmission coefficient proposed by Mahan and Sofo [10], and its conceptual limit, have been fully evidenced in the literature [33,37]. As shown by Whitney [35,36], in the absence of phonon contribution to thermal conductance, such a limitation can be overcome by maximizing the efficiency for given output power. Most importantly he provided analytic expressions for quantum bounds of output power and heat currents for thermoelectric systems with box-like or step-like transmission functions.

In this paper we study the effects of a peaked transmission function on the thermoelectric transport properties of a nanostructured system, in the absence of lattice contribution to the thermal conductivity, and beyond the linear response regime. The nonlinear regime is commonly reached in low-dimensional systems where large values of temperature and electrical potential gradients may easily occur due to their size [27,36,38,39].

In the framework of the Landauer-Büttiker theory, we show in Sec. III that a system with an extremely sharp peak resonance at a given energy $E_d$ can behave as an efficient thermal machine or a refrigerator, or a (useless) energy sink, depending on temperatures and chemical potentials of the reservoirs. From the expressions of exchanged power and heat currents we show in Sec. III that it is possible to easily infer for them the existence of bounds of quantum origin.
II. MODEL DETAILS AND THERMOELECTRIC TRANSPORT EQUATIONS IN THE NON-LINEAR RESPONSE REGIME

In this section, by the scattering formalism, we study the different thermoelectric regimes of transport through a two-terminal mesoscopic electronic system characterized by a peaked sharp transmission coefficient $T(E)$, where $E$ is the electron energy. Lorentzian resonances and antiresonances, and Fano transmission profiles, which mimic more realistic situations including quantum interference effects and level broadening due to coupling with reservoirs [35, 36]. Sec. IV contains our conclusive remarks.

Our results provide intuitive, transparent and analytic expressions for the existence of quantum bounds in the value of exchanged power and heat currents in agreement with general findings obtained in the literature through more laborious calculation adopting box-like or step-like shapes of the transmission coefficient [33, 34]. Sec. IV contains our conclusive remarks.

We assume without loss of generality, that the temperature of the left reservoir is hotter than the one of the reservoir, namely $T_L > T_R$. No a priori assumption is done on the chemical potentials $\mu_L$ and $\mu_R$ of the particle reservoirs.

According to the Landauer-Büttiker theory, in steady state conditions, the left or right particle number current $I_N^{(L,R)}$, charge (electric) current $I_e^{(L,R)}$, and heat (thermal) currents $I_Q^{(L,R)}$, are given respectively by the expressions:

$$I_N = I_N^{(L)} = I_N^{(R)} = \frac{1}{\hbar} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dE \ T(E) \ [f_L(E) - f_R(E)]$$

(1a)

$$I_e = I_e^{(L)} = I_e^{(R)} = -eI_N$$

(1b)

$$I_Q^{(L,R)} = \frac{1}{\hbar} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dE (E - \mu_{L(R)}) \ T(E) \ [f_L(E) - f_R(E)]$$

(1c)

where $-e$ is the electron charge and $h$ the Planck constant. Due to particle charge conservation, the left and right number currents are equal and the same holds for the left and right charge currents. On the contrary, the left and right heat currents can have different values. We adopt the choice of positive direction for the currents flowing from the left reservoir to the central device, and for those flowing from the central device to the right reservoir. The exchanged power $P$ is given by

$$P = I_Q^{(L)} - I_Q^{(R)} = (\mu_R - \mu_L)I_N$$

(1d)

Equations (1) are general, and apply both in the linear regime (small difference of chemical potentials and temperatures of the two reservoirs), and in the non-linear regime (arbitrary difference of the thermodynamic parameters of the two reservoirs). We assume that the relation between the applied bias potential and the reservoir chemical potentials is given by $(-e)(V_L - V_R) = \Delta V = \Delta \mu = \mu_L - \mu_R$.

The power production mode is characterized by the fact that left thermal current, right thermal current and available power, are all positive. In this mode heat flows from the hot reservoir to the cold one, and part of the thermal energy is converted into available power, as schematically shown in Fig. 1(a). The efficiency of the device in the thermal machine mode is defined as

$$\eta^{(tm)} = \frac{P}{I_Q^{(L)}} = \frac{I_Q^{(L)} - I_Q^{(R)}}{I_Q^{(L)}} \leq \frac{T_L - T_R}{T_L} \equiv \eta_t^{(tm)}$$

(2)

where $\eta_t^{(tm)}$ indicates the Carnot thermal efficiency. The thermodynamic bounds of the thermal machine efficiency range from zero (for $T_L \approx T_R$) to unity (for $T_R \ll T_L$).

The refrigeration mode of the system is characterized by the fact that left thermal current, right thermal current and exchanged power are all negative. The heat is extracted from the cold reservoir ($T_R < T_L$) and pumped into the hot reservoir, with the absorption of external energy as schematically shown in Fig. 1(b). In the refrigeration mode the machine efficiency is defined as

$$\eta^{(ref)} = \frac{I_Q^{(R)}}{P} = \frac{I_Q^{(L)} - I_Q^{(R)}}{I_Q^{(L)}} - 1 \leq \frac{T_L}{T_L - T_R} - 1 = \frac{T_R}{T_L - T_R} \equiv \eta_t^{(ref)}$$

(3)

which is clearly unbounded and diverges for $T_L \approx T_R$. 

FIG. 1. (a) Schematic representation of the two-terminal thermoelectric device in the power generation mode. Heat extracted from the hot reservoir ($T_L > T_R$) is partially transferred to the cold reservoir, and the rest converted into usable power. (b) Schematic representation of a thermoelectric device in the refrigeration mode. Heat is extracted from the cold reservoir ($T_R < T_L$) and pumped into the hot reservoir with the absorption of external energy.

The efficiency indicated in Eq. (2) and Eq. (3) refers exclusively to thermal and refrigeration machines. Neither $\eta^{(tm)}$ nor $\eta^{(refr)}$ has a clear physical meaning when the system is working in dissipative modes.

From the transport Eqs. (1), it is apparent the central role played by $T(E)$ and by the difference of the Fermi functions $f_{LR}(E) \equiv f_L(E) - f_R(E)$, which is positive if $E > \varepsilon_0 \equiv \mu_R - \mu_L k_B(T_L - T_R)$.

The function $f_{LR}(E)$ has a single zero at $E = \varepsilon_0$, which is above both chemical potentials for $\mu_L < \mu_R$, and below both chemical potentials if $\mu_L > \mu_R$, see Fig. 2. Throughout this paper, we consider $T_L = 600 \text{ K}$ ($k_B T_L \approx 0.05 \text{ eV}$) and $T_R = 300 \text{ K}$ ($k_B T_R \approx 0.025 \text{ eV}$), a choice often adopted in the literature [6, 36, 42].

From the thermodynamic parameters $T_L$, $T_R$, $\mu_L$, $\mu_R$ we can construct the dimensionless parameter

$$x \equiv \frac{\mu_R - \mu_L}{k_B(T_L - T_R)},$$

which is positive for $\mu_R > \mu_L$ and negative for $\mu_R < \mu_L$, having assumed $T_L > T_R$. It is easy to verify that

$$\frac{\varepsilon_0 - \mu_L}{k_B T_L} = \frac{\varepsilon_0 - \mu_R}{k_B T_R} = \frac{\mu_R - \mu_L}{k_B(T_L - T_R)} \equiv x,$$

thus $\varepsilon_0$ is at the right of both chemical potential for $\mu_R > \mu_L$ and at the left of both chemical potentials for $\mu_R < \mu_L$.

We now focus on thermoelectric transport through a device characterized by a narrow peaked transmission function at the resonance energy $E_d$. This situation typically occurs in the case of systems operating as energy filters [49] as quantum dots [25, 50], quantum wells and quantum wires [51]. For convenience, we describe such a resonance with a narrow rectangular-shaped transmission coefficient of the type

$$T(E) = \begin{cases} A_d & \text{if } E_d - \frac{\Gamma_d}{2} < E < E_d + \frac{\Gamma_d}{2} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

We also assume that the transmission coefficient $T(E)$ is rigid with respect to charge injection due to temperature and voltage gradients. Indeed, in realistic cases, in the presence of electron-electron and electron-phonon interactions
the value of exchanged power and heat currents.

sufficient for our purpose, which is to show, without quantitative calculations, the existence of quantum bounds in particle, charge and heat currents become

$T$ respectively.

$E$ being the energy value for which $f(E) = 0$. (b) In the case $\mu_L > 0$ eV and $\mu_R < -0.025$ eV, the sequence of variables on the energy axis is $-0.05 \text{ eV} < \epsilon_0 < \mu_R < \mu_L$. The vertical red, blue and green dashed lines indicate the position of $\mu_R, \mu_L$ and $\epsilon_0$, respectively.

$\mathcal{T}(E)$ should be determined self-consistently as a function of $T_L$, $T_R$ and $V$. Nonetheless, this simple model is sufficient for our purpose, which is to show, without quantitative calculations, the existence of quantum bounds in the value of exchanged power and heat currents.

By combining Eqs. (1) and Eq. (7), and assuming $f_{LR}(E) \approx f_{LR}(E_d)$, which is reasonable for $\Gamma_d \ll k_B T$, the particle, charge and heat currents become

$$I_N = \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{\hbar} f_{LR}(E_d), \quad I_e = (-e)I_N, \quad I_Q^{(LR)} = \frac{(E_d - \mu_{LR})}{\hbar} A_d \Gamma_d f_{LR}(E_d). \quad (8)$$

For $E_d = \epsilon_0$, the left and right thermal currents, the particle current and the power are all equal to zero. In fact, at the energy $\epsilon_0$ the occupation states in the two reservoirs is the same and the Carnot efficiency is reached.

We notice that left and right heat currents have different signs if the resonance $E_d$ lies in the interval between the chemical potentials, and the same sign otherwise. Therefore, having $E_d$ between the two chemical potentials is not useful either for refrigeration or for power production. According to Eq. (1d) the power takes the expression

$$\mathcal{P} = \frac{1}{\hbar} (\mu_R - \mu_L) A_d \Gamma_d f_{LR}(E_d). \quad (9)$$

From Eq. (9) we see that in the case $\mu_L < \mu_R$ and $f_{LR}(E)$ corresponding to Fig. 2(a), the thermoelectric device generates energy (i.e., $\mathcal{P} > 0$) if $E_d > \epsilon_0$, see Fig. 3(a), and absorbs energy (i.e., $\mathcal{P} < 0$) if $E_d < \epsilon_0$, Fig. 3(b).

Therefore, in the configuration ($T_L > T_R$; $\mu_L < \mu_R$) the device operates as power generator for $E_d > \epsilon_0$ and as refrigerator for $E_d < \epsilon_0$. In the case of the power generator, see Fig. 3(a), the thermal efficiency parameter for heat-to-power conversion becomes,

$$\eta^{(tm)}(E_d) \equiv \frac{\mathcal{P}}{I_Q^{(LR)}} = \frac{\mu_R - \mu_L}{E_d - \mu_L}, \quad \text{with} \quad \epsilon_0 < E_d < \infty. \quad (10)$$

The maximum value of the efficiency parameter occurs for $E_d \equiv \epsilon_0$ where it equals the efficiency of the Carnot cycle, in fact, from Eq. (11) it follows $\eta^{(tm)}(E_d = \epsilon_0) = (T_L - T_R)/T_L = \eta^{(cm)}_c$. At the same time, according to Eq. (9), the generated power $\mathcal{P}(E_d)$ vanishes.

In the case of the refrigeration regime, see Fig. 3(b), the coefficient of performance becomes

$$\eta^{(refr)}(E_d) \equiv \frac{I_Q^{(R)}(E_d)}{\mathcal{P}} = \frac{E_d - \mu_R}{\mu_R - \mu_L}, \quad \text{for} \quad \mu_R \leq E_d \leq \epsilon_0. \quad (11)$$

FIG. 2. Schematic representation of the Fermi function difference $f_{LR}(E) \equiv f_L(E) - f_R(E)$, for $T_L = 600$ K, $T_R = 300$ K. (a) In the case $\mu_L = 0$ eV and $\mu_R = 0.025$ eV the sequence of variables on the energy axis is $\mu_L < \mu_R < \epsilon_0 = 0.05$ eV, $\epsilon_0$ being the energy value for which $f_{LR}(E) = 0$. (b) In the case $\mu_L = 0$ eV and $\mu_R = -0.025$ eV, the sequence of variables on the energy axis is $-0.05 \text{ eV} < \epsilon_0 < \mu_R < \mu_L$. The vertical red, blue and green dashed lines indicate the position of $\mu_R, \mu_L$ and $\epsilon_0$, respectively.
FIG. 3. Schematic representation of transport processes for the ideal filtering device in the configuration $T_L > T_R$ and $\mu_L < \mu_R$. (a) Power generation regime for $\mu_L < \mu_R < \varepsilon_0 < E_d$. (b) Refrigeration regime for $\mu_L < \mu_R < E_d < \varepsilon_0$. (c) Intermediate dissipative regime, for $E_d$ between the two chemical potentials. (d) Semi-infinite dissipative regime, for $E_d$ smaller than both chemical potentials.

The efficiency of the refrigeration machine is zero for $E_d = \mu_R$, and takes the maximum value at $E_d = \varepsilon_0$ where it equals the coefficient of performance of the Carnot cycle for refrigeration: $\eta^{(refr)}(E_d = \varepsilon_0) = T_R / (T_L - T_R) = \eta_c^{(refr)}$.

When $E_d$ is smaller than one or both chemical potentials (Fig. 3(c) and Fig. 3(d)), power is absorbed and fully dissipated into heat transferred to both reservoirs with no useful result. Specifically, in the case $\mu_L < E_d < \mu_R$, see Fig. 3(c), $f_{LR}(E_d) < 0$, and we have: $I_Q^{(L)} < 0, I_Q^{(R)} > 0, P < 0$ and $I_N < 0$. The power is then absorbed and wasted into heat transferred to both reservoirs. We call this regime the intermediate dissipative regime. When the resonance energy $E_d$ is instead located in the energy interval $[-\infty, \mu_L]$ (Fig. 3(d)), $f_{LR}(E_d) < 0$ and we have: $I_Q^{(L)} > 0, I_Q^{(R)} > 0, P < 0$ and $I_N < 0$. The power is then absorbed, and wasted into heat transferred to the right reservoir. We call this regime the semi-infinite dissipative regime.

Similar considerations hold in the case $T_L > T_R$ and $\mu_L > \mu_R$. The results are summarized in Fig. 4.

FIG. 4. Schematic representation of transport processes for the ideal filtering device in the configuration $T_L > T_R$ and $\mu_L > \mu_R$. (a) Power generation regime for $E_d < \varepsilon_0 < \mu_R < \mu_L$. (b) Refrigeration regime for $\varepsilon_0 < E_d < \mu_R < \mu_L$. (c) Intermediate dissipative regime, with $E_d$ between the two chemical potentials. (d) Semi-infinite dissipative regime, with $E_d$ larger than both chemical potentials.
III. QUANTUM BOUNDS FOR THE THERMOELECTRIC REGIMES OF THE IDEAL PEAKED-FILTERING DEVICE

The results of the previous section are pictorially summarized in Fig. 5, where the contour plot illustrates the power generated or absorbed, in units $A_d \Gamma_d / \hbar$, as function of $E_d$ and $\mu_R$. We assume $\mu_L$ as the reference energy and, without loss of generality, we set $\mu_L = 0$. Moreover, we indicate two particularly important lines in the $(E_d, \mu_R)$ plane. The bisector line $E_d = \mu_R$ marks the border between the refrigeration regime (region II) and the intermediate dissipative regime (region III). The steeper line $E_d = \mu_R / \eta_c = \varepsilon_0$ marks the border between the refrigeration (region II) and the thermal (region I) regimes. The $E_d$-axis marks the border between the power production and the semi-infinite dissipative regime (regions II and IV), while the $\mu_R$-axis marks the other border between the two dissipative regimes. Thanks to the inversion symmetry of the exchanged power $P$ with respect to the axis $(E_d, \mu_R)$, for the regions of interest I and II, we can restrict our considerations to the first quadrant in Fig. 5. For $\mu_R > 0$ the power generation region I is delimited by the constraints $\mu_R > 0$ and $E_d > \varepsilon_0 = \mu_R / \eta_c$, while the refrigeration region is delimited by the constraints $\mu_R > 0$ and $\mu_R < E_d < \varepsilon_0 = \mu_R / \eta_c$. It is seen by inspection that in region I the produced power $P$ is bounded, since

$$P = \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{\hbar} \mu_R f_{LR}(E_d) < \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{\hbar} \mu_R f_L(E_d) < \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{\hbar} \mu_R f_L\left(\frac{\mu_R}{\eta_c(x_m)}\right).$$ (12)

The last quantity in the above equation is evidently bounded as the chemical potential $\mu_R$ is varied in the interval $[0, +\infty]$, and so is the power production. Exploiting the relation (5) with $\mu_L = 0$ one obtains the dependence of $P$ from the temperature difference:

$$P < \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{\hbar} k_B (T_L - T_R) \frac{x}{e^x + 1}. $$ (13)

The maximum of the above equation is found from the solution of a transcendent equation. The result is $P < \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{\hbar} k_B (T_L - T_R) 0.2785$. This occurs for $x = 1.2785$, i.e., $\mu_R = 0.032$ eV.

Figure 6(a) reports the contour plot of the power exchange for regions I and II. For the chosen temperatures, the maximum generated output power occurs for $E_d = 0.102$ eV and $\mu_R = 0.030$ eV. As expected, $P$ is zero along the $E_d$-axis, where $\mu_R = \mu_L (= 0)$, and also along the line $E_d = \varepsilon_0 = \mu_R / \eta_c$, where $f_L - f_R = 0$. Conversely, in the

FIG. 5. Contour plot in the $(E_d, \mu_R)$ plane of the power exchanged by the thermoelectric device with peaked transmission function. The plot is invariant under inversion symmetry, and it is sufficient to focus on $\mu_R > 0$ and $E_d > 0$. The device works as power producing machine or refrigerator in regions I and II, respectively. Regions III and IV represent useless dissipative regimes.
refrigeration region the absorbed power is negative and is not bounded. In fact, the absorbed power along the \( E_d = \mu_R \) line (setting \( \mu_L = 0 \)) reads
\[
P(E_d = \mu_R) = \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} \mu_R f_{LR}(\mu_R) = \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} \mu_R \left[ \frac{1}{e^{\mu_R/k_B T} + 1} - \frac{1}{2} \right].
\] (14)
The above expression is evidently not bounded for large values of the chemical potential \( \mu_R \). In summary, \( P \) is zero along the \( E_d = \mu_R \) line and becomes arbitrarily large along the bisector \( E_d = \mu_R \). The power absorbed in region II is zero along the \( E_d = \epsilon_0 \) line and becomes arbitrarily large along the bisector \( E_d = \mu_R \).

Figure 6 reports the contour plot of the efficiency (red region) and the performance coefficient (blue region) of the considered ideal filtering nanostructure. The line \( E_d = \epsilon_0 = \mu_R/\eta_{C}^{(tm)} \), which is positive and bounded in the thermal machine regime, and negative and unbounded in the refrigeration regime. (d) Contour plot of the right thermal current \( I_Q^{(R)} \), which is positive in the power production region and negative in the refrigeration region. The right thermal current is bounded in both regimes.

along the line \( E_d = \epsilon_0 = \mu_R/\eta_{C}^{(tm)} \), while it is given approximately by the value \((-1/2)(A_d\Gamma_d/h)\mu_R\) along the line \( E_d = \mu_R \), when \( \mu_R \) exceeds few \( k_B T_L \).

Figure 6b reports the contour plot of the efficiency (red region) and the performance coefficient (blue region) of the considered ideal filtering nanostructure. The line \( E_d = \mu_R/\eta_C^{(tm)} \) provides the (maximum) Carnot efficiency both for heat-energy conversion and for refrigeration, which are \( \eta_C^{(tm)} = 0.5 \) and \( \eta_C^{(ref)} = 1 \) for the considered temperatures.
However, the corresponding exchanged power is zero, see Fig. 6(a). Around this line an optimal trade-off for power generation or refrigeration can be established. The efficiency at the maximum power output in region I is \( \eta_{\text{P,Max}}^{(\text{tm})} = 0.296 \).

As for the heat current outgoing the hot left contact, we have \( I_{Q}^{(L)} = (A_d \Gamma_d / h) E_d [f_L(E_d) - f_R(E_d)] \). Within region I, \( I_{Q}^{(L)} \) is positive, and becomes zero along the border line \( E_d = \varepsilon_0 = \mu_R / \eta_{\text{tm}}^{(\text{tm})} \). Most importantly, the left thermal current is bounded in the region I since in that region we have

\[
I_{Q}^{(L)} < \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} E_d f_L(E_d) = \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} E_d \left( \frac{1}{e^{E_d/k_B T_L} + 1} \right). \tag{15}
\]

From Fig. 6(c), it is seen that the maximum of the left thermal current occurs at the point \( E_d \approx 0.091 \text{ eV} \), along the border line \( \mu_R = 0 \). This last feature is indeed expected: for \( \mu_R = \mu_L (= 0) \) no chemical potential barrier is of obstacle to the carrier diffusion.

In the refrigeration region II, \( I_{Q}^{(L)} < 0 \) is not bounded. Consider in fact Eq. (8) for the left thermal current along the line \( E_d = \mu_R \). One obtains

\[
I_{Q}^{(L)}(E_d = \mu_R) = \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} \mu_R [f_L(\mu_R) - f_R(\mu_R)] = \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} \mu_R \left( \frac{1}{e^{\mu_R/k_B T_L} + 1} - \frac{1}{2} \right). \tag{16}
\]

The last expression is evidently not bounded, and so is the heat current flowing from the left reservoir. Along the line \( E_d = \mu_R \gg k_B T_L \), it holds \( I_{Q}^{(L)} \approx (-1/2)(A_d \Gamma_d / h) \mu_R \). As shown in Fig. 6(d), the coincidence of Eq. (14) and Eq. (16) is due to the fact that the right thermal current is zero on the boundary line \( E_d = \mu_R \).

Eventually we consider the heat current flowing from/to the cold right reservoir, as reported in Fig. 6(d). In the power generation regime, the right thermal current \( I_{Q}^{(R)} \), see Eq. 8, is positive and bounded. In fact the quantity \( (E_d - \mu_R) \) is always positive and then

\[
I_{Q}^{(R)} < \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} (E_d - \mu_R) f_L(E_d) < \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} E_d f_L(E_d) = \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} E_d \left( \frac{1}{e^{E_d/k_B T_L} + 1} \right). \tag{17}
\]

As mentioned above, \( I_{Q}^{(R)} \) in Fig. 6(d) and \( I_{Q}^{(L)} \) in Fig. 6(c) are perfectly equal on the \( E_d \) axis since the power generated vanishes there. In the refrigeration region the right heat current \( I_{Q}^{(R)} \) is negative and bounded, in contrast to the left unbounded current. In fact, from Eq. (17) we obtain

\[
I_{Q}^{(R)} > -\frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} (E_d - \mu_R) f_R(E_d) = -\frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} (E_d - \mu_R) \left( \frac{1}{e^{(E_d-\mu_R)/k_B T_R} + 1} \right). \tag{18}
\]

Again \( I_{Q}^{(R)} \) vanishes along the lines \( E_d = \varepsilon_0 = \mu_R / \eta_{\text{tm}}^{(\text{tm})} \) and \( E_d = \mu_R \).

| TABLE I. Quantum bounds for a nanoscale thermoelectric with peaked transmission function. |
|-----------------------------------------------|
| Power generation region \( \mu_L = 0 \) \( \mu_R > 0 \) \( E_d > \varepsilon_0 \) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| \( \mathcal{P} > 0 \) | bounded | \( \mathcal{P} < \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} \mu_R f_L(E_d) \) | \( \mathcal{P} \approx \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} \mu_R f_L(E_d) \) | \( \mathcal{P} \gg \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} \mu_R f_L(E_d) \) | \( \mathcal{P} \gg \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} \mu_R f_L(E_d) \) | \( \mathcal{P} \gg \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} \mu_R f_L(E_d) \) |
| \( I_{Q}^{(L)} > 0 \) | bounded | \( I_{Q}^{(L)} < \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} E_d f_L(E_d) \) | \( \mathcal{P} \approx \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} \mu_R f_L(E_d) \) | \( \mathcal{P} \gg \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} \mu_R f_L(E_d) \) | \( \mathcal{P} \gg \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} \mu_R f_L(E_d) \) |
| \( I_{Q}^{(R)} > 0 \) | bounded | \( I_{Q}^{(R)} < \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} E_d f_L(E_d) \) | \( \mathcal{P} \approx \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} \mu_R f_L(E_d) \) | \( \mathcal{P} \gg \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} \mu_R f_L(E_d) \) | \( \mathcal{P} \gg \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} \mu_R f_L(E_d) \) |

| Refrigeration region \( \mu_L = 0 \) \( \mu_R > 0 \) \( \mu_R < E_d < \varepsilon_0 \) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| \( \mathcal{P} < 0 \) | not bounded | \( \mathcal{P} \approx \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} \mu_R f_L(E_d) \) | \( \mathcal{P} \approx \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} \mu_R f_L(E_d) \) | \( \mathcal{P} \approx \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} \mu_R f_L(E_d) \) |
| \( I_{Q}^{(L)} < 0 \) | not bounded | \( \mathcal{P} \approx \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} \mu_R f_L(E_d) \) | \( \mathcal{P} \approx \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} \mu_R f_L(E_d) \) | \( \mathcal{P} \approx \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} \mu_R f_L(E_d) \) |
| \( I_{Q}^{(R)} < 0 \) | bounded | \( I_{Q}^{(R)} < \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} (E_d - \mu_R) f_R(E_d) \) | \( \mathcal{P} \approx \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} \mu_R f_L(E_d) \) | \( \mathcal{P} \approx \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} \mu_R f_L(E_d) \) | \( \mathcal{P} \approx \frac{A_d \Gamma_d}{h} \mu_R f_L(E_d) \) |
IV. CONCLUSIONS

We investigated the thermoelectric transport properties of a nanoscale system characterized by a transmission coefficient peaked at the energy $E_d$, connected to two particle reservoirs at different temperatures and chemical potentials. We identified the regions in the parameter space set $T_L$, $T_R$, $\mu_L$, $\mu_R$ and $E_d$ where the system works as a thermal machine or as a refrigerator with the corresponding efficiency and coefficient of performance, and provided a simple demonstration of the existence of quantum bounds for the exchanged power and heat currents. In particular, as summarized in Table I we have shown that the power produced by the thermal machine is bounded and positive, and that the thermal currents $I^{(L)}_Q$ and $I^{(R)}_Q$ are both positive and bounded, with a single maximum of the same value located at the same position along the $E_d$-axis. In contrast, for the refrigerator the absorbed power is negative and not bounded. We also notice the absence of bounds in $I^{(L)}_Q$. On the contrary $I^{(R)}_Q$ is strictly bounded, in fact heat current out of a reservoir at temperature $T$ cannot exceed appropriate quantum bounds [53]. Analytic results in the literature exploiting more realistic shapes of the transmission function [35–37, 54] are in qualitative agreement with the results here obtained with a simple and intuitive procedure for the peaked transmission model.

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