Evidence of charge transfer in three-dimensional topological insulator/antiferromagnetic Mott insulator Bi₁Sb₁Te_{1.5}Se_{1.5}/α-RuCl₃ heterostructures

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(Received 29 December 2022; revised 6 May 2023; accepted 8 May 2023; published 14 June 2023)

We report magnetotransport measurements on $Bi_1Sb_1Te_{1.5}Se_{1.5}/RuCl_3$ heterostructure nanodevices. Bi_1Sb_1Te_{1.5}Se_{1.5} (BSTS) is a strong three-dimensional topological insulator (3D-TI) that hosts conducting topological surface states (TSS) enclosing an insulating bulk. α -RuCl_3 (namely, RuCl_3) is an antiferromagnet that is predicted to behave as a Kitaev-like quantum spin liquid carrying chargeless Majorana excitations. Temperature (*T*)-dependent resistivity measurements on BSTS show the interplay between parallel bulk and surface transport channels. For *T* < 150 K, surface state transport dominates over bulk transport. Multichannel weak antilocalization (WAL) is observed as a sharp cusp in the low-field magnetoconductivity, indicating strong spin-orbit coupling. The presence of top and bottom topological surface states (TSS) including a pair of electrically coupled Rashba surface states (RSS) is indicated. The nonlinear Hall effect, explained by a two-band model, further supports this interpretation. We observed that RuCl_3 has an electrostatic effect on the TSS of BSTS, that is, it changes bandbending at the interface as a result of charge transfer. In this regard, the change in low-*T* logarithmic resistivity upturn in the presence of out-of-plane magnetic field is analyzed employing the Lu-Shen model, supporting the presence of gapless surface states (TSS and RSS) with a π Berry phase.

DOI: 10.1103/PhysRevB.107.245418

I. INTRODUCTION

Topological surface states (TSS) on a three-dimensional (3D) topological insulator (TI) harbors massless Dirac fermions [1-5]. A combination of large spin-orbit interaction and time reversal symmetry determines the properties of TSS, including suppression of backscattering featured in spin-momentum locking and weak antilocalization (WAL) effect. So, TIs have attracted great attention as a candidate for dissipationless spintronics applications and quantum computation. The chalcogenide material (Bi, Sb, Te, Se) based quaternary TIs such as Bi₁Sb₁Te_{1.5}Se_{1.5} (BSTS) exhibits the gapless surface spectrum in the insulating bulk even at room temperatures, and bulk resistivity increases by several orders at low temperatures, thus opening the route to access TSS [2,6-12]. In addition, BSTS hosts Rashba spin-split states originating from quantum confined bulk carriers forming two-dimensional electron gas (2DEG), namely Rashba surface states (RSS) with gapless spectrum carrying π Berry phase, similar to TSS [13].

On the other hand, α -RuCl₃, an antiferromagnet, is known as a proximate Kitaev spin liquid candidate [14–16] and a Mott-Hubbard insulator with a band gap of 1.1 eV induced by a strong electron-electron correlation [17,18], and the transport gap of 0.3 eV, calculated from temperaturedependent resistivity measurements [19]. Moreover, the neutron scattering experiment [20], half-integer thermal Hall effect measurement [21–23], and optical studies prove the presence of physical Majorana fermions [24] which could not be detected in electrical transport. In contrast, the TIsuperconductor junction also hosts Majorana fermions which are electrically accessible [1].

However, due to very high resistance, the electrical transport of α -RuCl₃ is challenging. Recently, it has been theoretically proposed that the interfacial layer of α -RuCl₃ can inject excess holes into the proximitized material due to strain and the difference in work functions of two neighboring materials [25]. Recently, the charge transfer is realized in the electrical transport of the graphene (monolayer)/ α -RuCl₃ device [26,27] as a signature of splitting in the frequency of Shubnikov de-Haas oscillations, supporting the creation of an additional hole band. Furthermore, the small nonzero net magnetic moment of α -RuCl₃ induces a magnetic proximity effect on monolayer graphene as observed in the electrical transport even though α -RuCl₃ is "weak" to show magnetic proximity effect in comparison to other ferromagnetic insulators (for example, Garnets, EuS etc.). The charge transfer properties of α -RuCl₃ have been further manipulated to obtain nanometer-scale p-n junction on a monolayer graphene [28]. The use of α -RuCl₃ as a passive charge transfer interface and the tunable electrostatic gate is expanded in transition metal dichalcogenides/ α -RuCl₃ heterostructure [29,30]. Therefore, α -RuCl₃ is "special" in comparison to other kinds of insulators such as hexagonal Boron nitride (hBN) which show no charge transfer effect based upon the observations reported in various literatures. However, the charge transfer doping on a TI has yet to be explored. These facts motivated us to fabricate the device out of BSTS/RuCl₃ heterostructure.

In this work, we discuss the results of the electronic transport of 3D TI $Bi_1Sb_1Te_{1.5}Se_{1.5}$ (BSTS) in proximity to Mott insulator RuCl₃ by fabricating heterostructure nanodevices of various thicknesses of the TI and RuCl₃ flakes. We carried out low-temperature magnetotransport measurements in the presence of out-of-plane magnetic field (B || c) to probe the

proximity effect on the metallic surface states in TI. The analysis of WAL featured in magnetoconductance and the nonlinear Hall effect yield the affirmative presence of multiple conducting coherent spin-orbit coupled channels, including top and bottom TSS and RSS [31,32]. Linear Logarithmic temperature-dependent conductance in the low-temperature regime suggests the presence of electron-electron interaction and quantum interference effects in our system and we extracted the linear slope based on the Lu-Shen model [33]. On applying out-of-plane magnetic field, the slope quickly saturates to a constant value, indicating the vanishing quantum interference effect. Furthermore, we extracted the maximum change of slope from the temperature-dependent conductance curves at various constant magnetic fields and probed the nature and number of gapless surface states. Our comprehensive analysis suggests a certain thickness threshold of RuCl₃ layer for the effective charge transfer to occur at the TI-RuCl₃ interface. In this regard, we present the theory of band bending combined with the Lu-Shen formalism to probe gapless surface states.

II. SAMPLE GROWTH AND DEVICE FABRICATION

We have synthesized the high-quality single crystals of Bi₁Sb₁Te_{1.5}Se_{1.5} via the modified Bridgman method in a hightemperature vertical furnace. We utilized x-ray diffraction (XRD) methods to characterize the single-crystalline nature of as-grown crystals. XRD patterns recorded by shining Cu K_{α} x-ray show the growth along (0, 0, L) directions (see the Supplemental Material [34]). Further, an electron probe microanalyzer (EPMA) was employed to determine the stoichiometry of the crystal. On the other hand, black lustrous RuCl₃ crystals are grown using the physical vapor transport technique in a horizontal dual-zone furnace (750°C at the hot end and 650 °C at the cold end). Similarly, XRD and EPMA studies helped to prove the growth of high-quality single crystals (see the Supplemental Material [34]). We fabricated the Bi1Sb1Te15Se15/RuCl3 heterostructure by hot and dry transfer technique inside an Argon-filled and water-vapor free glove box with $O_2 < 0.1$ ppm (see the Supplemental Material [34]).

The thicknesses of BSTS and RuCl₃ flakes were measured using atomic force microscopy. The electrical contacts forming the Hall bar pattern were made by e-beam lithography following Cr(10 nm)/Au(200 nm) deposition. Prior to the transport measurement carried out in cryostat (Oxford Instruments, UK), the devices were packaged inside a chip carrier and wirebonded.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Zero-field electrical transport

Figure 1(c) shows an increase in sheet resistance (R_{\Box}) with lowering the temperature and turning it into metal below $T \approx 150$ K. The sheet resistance is calculated by the formula $R_{\Box} = R(\frac{W}{L})$, where R is the sample resistance, and W and L denote the channel width and length, respectively (see the Supplemental Material [34]). The metallic conduction suggests the surfacestates dominated transport for T < 150 K, whereas the bulk charge carriers cause insulating behavior at high temperatures (T > 150 K).



FIG. 1. Zero-field electrical transport. (a) A typical $Bi_1Sb_1Te_{1.5}Se_{1.5}$ (BSTS)/RuCl₃ heterostructure device. The Cr/Au electrodes are fabricated on BSTS only. Scalebar indicates the length of 10 µm. (b) The device schematic with magnetic field configurations. V_O and V_C are the voltages measured for the pair of probes placed on the open region and across RuCl₃ covered region, respectively. (c) Temperature-dependent longitudinal sheet resistance for the open (black) and RuCl₃-covered (red) regions for the BSTS(105 nm)/RuCl₃(20 nm) heterostructure device (D4). High-temperature insulator to low-temperature metallic transition occurs at approximately 150 K. Inset shows the low temperature sheet resistance upturn.

As our interest lies in the proximity effect of RuCl₃ on BSTS, we divided all possible successive pairs of voltage probes into two types: (1) one pair of probes rest upon the open surface of the BSTS flake and (2) another pair across the RuCl₃-covered region, as depicted in the Figs. 1(a) and 1(b). We have measured resistances using both pairs of probes to make a comparative study.

1. Conduction due to surface states

To extract the surface contribution to resistance, one may use a parallel bulk-surface channel transport model, where the total conductance is the sum of the surface and the bulk conductance. Here we assume that the resistance $R_{\Box}(T)$ of the metallic surface states follows a linearly decreasing trend until 25 K. At very low temperatures, electron-electron interaction (EEI) also contributes to the resistance, deviating from linear temperature-dependency to power-law one. Below 25 K, the resistance has T^2 -dependence, indicating the presence of electron-electron scattering with large momentum transfer, characteristic of Fermi liquid (see the Supplemental Material [34]).

Below 10 K, we notice an upturn in the sheet resistance instead of saturation generally observed in a disordered metal while approaching 0 K. There are ongoing debates on the origin of the resistance upturn, extensively observed in the case of TI [35–40]. The possible cause is proposed to be due to Anderson localization induced by strong electron-electron scattering in the presence of disorders [33]. There is a clear contrast in the slope of the upturn for both regions of the BSTS flake. The resistance measured on the open region shows an upturn steeper than in the case of the RuCl₃-covered region. Though the origin of the upturn is not clear to date, the effect of the magnetic field has great importance in the study of surface states in TI [33].

In order to formulate the upturn, we plotted the 2D conductance G_S vs ln T and found $G_S \sim \ln T$ in the range 3 K < T < 10 K (Figs. 4 and 5). This ln T dependence of the 2D conductance is suggested to be due to EEI for conventional electrons. However, an additional mechanism in a quantum diffusive transport regime involves weak localization (WL) correction to the conductivity. WL/WAL originates due to the constructive/destructive quantum interference between selfintersecting paths of the fermions in a disordered system. In the case of a TI, WAL stems from the π Berry phase associated with massless Dirac fermions and leads to the enhancement of conductivity. On the contrary, there will be a decrement in conductivity for massive Dirac fermions, known as WL. In TI, topological surface electrons described by the gapless Dirac spectrum should yield a WAL-like feature, that is, a monotonic increase in 2D conductivity with a lowering of the temperature in a logarithmic scale. This observation is in stark contrast to the WL-like feature in the $G_S - \ln T$ plot observed in our experiments. This ambiguity is solved by Lu et al. pioneering the Lu-Shen model, stating that the In T-dependence conductance is dominated by the stronger electron-electron interaction (EEI) over the WAL correction term [33]. At low temperatures, the total contribution to 2D conductance ($\triangle G_S$) is expressed as

$$\Delta G_S(T) = G_S(T) - G_S(T_0) = \Delta G_{EEI}(T) + \Delta G_{qi}(T), \quad (1)$$

where T_0 indicates the reference temperature below which the $\ln T$ dependence of conductance starts, and ΔG_{EEI} and ΔG_{qi} are the contributions to the conductance corrections from EEI and quantum interference (qi) terms, respectively. Now, the $\ln T$ -dependence behavior can be quantitatively described by the *slope* extracted from the $G_S - \ln T$ plot, denoted by κ , which is as follows:

$$\kappa = \left(\frac{\pi h}{e^2}\right) \frac{\partial G_S}{\partial (\ln T)}.$$
(2)

One can write the total slope κ as $\kappa = \kappa_{EEI} + \kappa_{qi}$. κ_{EEI} is expressed as $\kappa_{EEI} = 1 - \eta_H F$, where F (0 < F < 1) is the Coulomb screening factor, suggested to be dependent on the permittivity of the material under study, and η_H lies between 3/4 and 1 for 0 < $\Delta_g/2E_F$ < 1. Here, Δ_g denotes the mass gap, and E_F is the position of the Fermi level. On the other hand, $\kappa_{qi} = \alpha p$, where α is the prefactor extracted by fitting the out-of-plane magneto-conductivity data employing the Hikami-Larkin-Nagaoka equation [41,42], and p is the exponent extracted from the T dependence of the phase coherence length: $L_{\Phi} \propto T^{-p/2}$. In other terms, α and p directly represent the quantum interference (qi) properties of each single coherent transport channel. For example, in the massless limit($\Delta_g/2E_F = 0$), $\alpha = -1/2$ [42,43], $\eta_H = 3/4$ [33], and the expression for the sheet conductivity can be expressed as

$$G_S(T) = \kappa \frac{e^2}{\pi h} \ln\left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right) + G_S(T_0)$$
$$= \left(\alpha p + 1 - \frac{3}{4}F\right) \frac{e^2}{\pi h} \ln\left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right) + G_S(T_0).$$
(3)



FIG. 2. Non-linear Hall effect. (a) All nonlinear Hall resistances as a function of applied magnetic fields for the device D4. (b) Fit to the Hall data acquired at 2 K according to the two-band model [Eq. (4)]. All the extracted (c) carrier densities and (d) mobilities at different temperatures are plotted.

In BSTS, since the relative permittivity ϵ_r is large as ~100, the screening factor F < 0.1 and hence, the slope κ is always positive in the absence of a magnetic field. The positive value of κ is evident in our experiments.

B. Electrical transport at varying magnetic field

1. Hall effect

In order to determine the nature of the charge carriers in TI, we performed Hall measurements in the presence of a magnetic field applied normal to the sample. For three out of four devices, a linear fit to the Hall curves yields a negative charge carrier with carrier concentration $\sim 10^{13}-10^{14}/\text{cm}^2$ and mobility of $\sim 130-180 \text{ cm}^2/(\text{V s})$. The remaining device (D4: [BSTS(105 nm)/RuCl₃(20 nm]) shows nonlinearity in the Hall curve, as shown in Fig. 2(a), indicating the presence of two kinds of negative charge carriers with different mobility. To analyze the nonlinear Hall effect, we used the two-band model with the following formalism:

$$R_{XY} = \frac{B}{e} \frac{\left(n_1 \mu_1^2 + n_2 \mu_2^2\right) + (n_1 + n_2)(\mu_1 \mu_2 B)^2}{(|n_1|\mu_1 + |n_2|\mu_2)^2 + (n_1 + n_2)^2(\mu_1 \mu_2 B)^2} \quad (4)$$

with constraint equation: $G_{XX}(B = 0) = e(n_1\mu_1 + n_2\mu_2)$. Here (n_1, μ_1) and (n_2, μ_2) is the 2D carrier concentrations



FIG. 3. Out-of-plane magnetoconductivity. (a), (b) Out-of-plane magnetoconductivity (MC) for the open and RuCl₃-covered region, respectively. (c) The prefactor α and (d) L_{Φ} as a function temperature. The Neel transitions (T_N) are indicated. [The ripples in MC in (a) are due to the universal conductance fluctuations (UCF), which is not the focus of this work.]

and mobilities, respectively, for two different carriers of the same sign, and *e* is the electronic charge and *B*, the applied magnetic field. Figure 2(b) displays the nonlinear Hall curve fitted with Eq. (4). Figures 2(c) and 2(d) depicts the plots of carrier concentrations and mobilities, respectively, as a function of temperature. These observations are in line with the findings in Ref. [31], where two different values of mobility were attributed to the two types of carriers related to (i) TSS and (ii) RSS. In our case, we obtained the same order in the values of mobility [~2000 and ~200 cm²/(V s)]. The lower mobility corresponds to topological surface carriers, while the higher mobility can be attributed to carriers associated with RSS. These observations are also consistent with the obtained value of α .

2. Multichannel weak antilocalization analysis

The magnetoresistance of a pristine 3D TI shows the sharp cusp feature in the presence of a small magnetic field normal to the sample surface, attributed to the WAL effect [1]. WAL behavior originates from the topological surface carriers, described as massless Dirac fermions, carrying π Berry phase. Conversely, bulk charge carriers can lead to WL, thus contributing to the positive magnetoconductance [44]. However, according to the Rashba model, Rashba surface states also carry π Berry phase, thus leading to the WAL effect [13]. Figure 3 displays the magneto-conductance data for the regions of BSTS flake: (i) open and (ii) RuCl₃-covered. In order to analyze the magneto-conductance data with the WAL feature, we have used Hikami-Larkin-Nagaoka (HLN) formalism which states that, in the quantum diffusive regime of a strong spin-orbit coupled system, the magnetoconductance has the following form [41]:

$$\Delta G_{XX}(B) = \alpha \frac{e^2}{\pi h} \left[\Psi \left(\frac{1}{2} + \frac{\hbar}{4eL_{\Phi}^2 B} \right) - \ln \left(\frac{\hbar}{4eL_{\Phi}^2 B} \right) \right], \quad (5)$$

where α and L_{ϕ} are the prefactor and the phase-coherence length, respectively, and $\Psi(x)$ denotes the digamma function. The leading fitting parameter α has to be corrected by multiplying with a suitable device aspect ratio $(L/W)_{eff}$ to obtain the correct number of uncoupled coherent transport channels, each contributing $\alpha = 0.5$ (see the Supplemental Material [34] for details). These conducting channels are spin-orbit coupled channels and preserve spin-momentum locking.

We fitted the sharp cusp of low-field magneto-conductance (WAL) data using the above-mentioned HLN equation [Eq. (5)] until 0.5 T. With increasing temperature, the WAL effect diminishes due to increasing channel decoherence. The corrected fitting parameter α ranges from 1 to 1.5 for all the devices (see Table I) while varying temperatures until 25 K. Since the values of α are close to 1.5, we can assume there are three spin-orbit coupled coherent transport channels: top and bottom TSS and electrically coupled Rashba surface states (RSS) [31,32].

As evident in Fig. 3(d), the phase coherence length L_{ϕ} follows a monotonic decreasing trend with increasing temperature, gradually destroying the WAL effect associated with carrier dephasing. During dephasing, the charge carrier undergoes inelastic collision, thus yielding to an additional phase that eventually destroys its quantum coherence. In 2D electronic systems, carrier dephasing mainly occurs by smallenergy scale losses due to electron-electron interactions in the low-temperature regime, called the Nyquist dephasing mechanism where $L_{\Phi} \propto T^{-1/2}$. At higher temperatures, the

TABLE I. Transport parameters for perpendicular fields.

Device	Thickness of BSTS flake	Thickness of RuCl ₃ flake	α at 2 K		$\Delta \kappa(\mathbf{B})$	
			open	RuCl ₃ -covered	open	RuCl ₃ -covered
D1	20 nm	35 nm		1.10		+1.0
D2	56 nm	63 nm		1.11		+1.0
D3	92 nm	100 nm	1.25	1.45	+1.0	+1.5
D4	105 nm	20 nm	1.30	1.30	+1.0	+1.0

dephasing mechanism is dominated by electron-phonon interaction $L_{\Phi} \propto T^{-1}$ due to the creation of acoustic phonons that interacts with electrons. In our analysis, we have used the combined form to fit the $L_{\phi} - T$ plot:

$$L_{\Phi} = \frac{1}{(A_0 + A_1 T + A_2 T^2)^{1/2}},$$
(6)

where A_0 , A_1 , and A_2 are the fitting parameters and $A_0 = \frac{1}{L_{\phi 0}^2}$, takes care of the saturation in L_{Φ} near 0 K. Here, $L_{\Phi 0}$ is the phase coherence length at 0 K. The reason for this saturated L_{Φ} is still debatable [45]. Figure 3(d) shows the comparison of the fitted plot in the case of open and RuCl₃-covered regions of BSTS flake. It can be argued that the difference in L_{Φ} for both regions is due to the degree of cleanliness of the BSTS flake. In the RuCl₃-covered BSTS device, we notice no observable change in $\alpha - T$ and $L_{\Phi} - T$ curves while crossing the antiferromagnetic transition temperatures (8 K and 15 K) of RuCl₃, as shown in Fig. 3 [46]. The maximum net magnetic moment in RuCl₃ flake could have an apparent effect on the surface transport of BSTS. However, we think the obtained data are insufficient to conclude, and this observation needs to be corroborated by more detailed experiments.

C. Logarithmic *T*-dependence of sheet conductance at constant out-of-plane magnetic field

At low enough temperatures, we observed linear, logarithmic temperaturedependence of sheet conductance, reminiscent of strong 2D electron-electron interaction in a quantum diffusive regime (Fig. 4). In this regard, we applied the Lu-Shen theory discussed before [33].

The slope κ in Eq. (3) has two parts: κ_{EEI} and κ_{qi} . Now since the quantum interference correction to the conductivity vanishes at high fields, $B \gg B_{\Phi}$ where B_{Φ} is the phase coherence field expressed as $B_{\Phi} = \frac{\hbar}{4eL_{\Phi}^2}$, κ_{qi} also vanishes. Note that L_{ϕ} is extracted from the perpendicular field transport data. On the contrary, κ_{EEI} is constant irrespective of the magnetic field. These two observations yield simpler expressions for two regimes of magnetic field range:

$$\kappa(B \ll B_{\Phi}) = \alpha p + 1 - \frac{3}{4}F,\tag{7}$$

$$\kappa(B \gg B_{\Phi}) = 1 - \frac{3}{4}F.$$
(8)

Therefore, at strong fields perpendicular to the sample, $\Delta \kappa (B = \infty) = \kappa (B = \infty) - \kappa (B = 0) = \kappa (B \gg B_{\Phi}) - \kappa (B \ll B_{\Phi}) \approx -\alpha p$. For instance, in the case of a single intact TSS channel, $\alpha = -1/2$ and p = 1 due to 2D electronelectron interaction dominant in the system ($L_{\phi} \propto T^{-p/2}$), $\Delta \kappa = +0.5$. This change in κ can be explained in terms of the Berry phase in the Dirac model as follows:

$$\phi_b = \pi \left(1 - \frac{\Delta_g}{2E_F} \right),\tag{9}$$

where Δ_g is the energy gap in the gapped Dirac surface states and E_F is the position of the Fermi level. One expects $\Delta \kappa = +0.5$ in the case of π Berry phase, which is the case of gapless surface states. For a gapped or massive Dirac system (for example, magnetically doped TI), $\Delta \kappa = -0.5$ due to the deviation of ϕ_b from π . Recently, Tkáč *et al.* have demonstrated how $\Delta \kappa$ is more sensitive to time-reversal breaking



FIG. 4. Logarithmic temperature-dependent conductance at constant out-of-plane magnetic field. G_S -T semilogarithmic plot for devices D1, D2, and D4 at different out-of-plane fields and the corresponding change in the slope ($\Delta \kappa$) for (a), (b) the open region and (c), (d) the RuCl₃ covered region.

perturbations such as magnetic dopants in pristine TI in comparison to WAL that persists despite the change in π Berry phase (ϕ_b) . Further, they have shown how $\Delta \kappa$ changes from +0.5 to -0.5 on crossing Curie transition temperature though the WAL behavior has been seen to manifest [47]. Previously there was evidence of WAL-WL crossover which requires magnetic doping to some extent in TI [48–51]. In this regard, the evaluation of $\Delta \kappa$ has been proved to be a more efficient tool to detect the minute change in the π Berry phase [47]. In other terms, it is more sensitive to the mass gap opening by magnetic doping in the gapless Dirac system such as TI, as discussed in Ref. [33]. Figures 4(a), 4(b) and 5(a), 5(c), 5(e), 5(f) display the $G_S - T$ semilogarithmic plot for magnetic fields applied perpendicular to the sample. On increasing field, the slope (κ) starts rising sharply and saturates soon, as evident in Figs. 4(c), 4(d) and 5(b), 5(d), 5(g). It turns out that $\Delta \kappa = +1.0$, twice the value of +0.5 associated with single TSS channel carrying π Berry phase, observed earlier in literature [37–40].

1. When $\Delta \kappa = +1.0$

In the case of openregion, WAL measurement indicates the existence of top and bottom TSS and electrically coupled top and bottom RSS (Fig. 3). Therefore, we argue both TSS lead to $\Delta \kappa = (+0.5) + (+0.5)$, as evident in Figs. 4(c) and 5(b), 5(d), 5(g). However, the contribution in $\Delta \kappa$ from RSS



FIG. 5. Logarithmic temperature-dependent conductance at constant out-of-plane magnetic field. (a), (c), (e), (f) G_S-T semilogarithmic plot at different out-of-plane fields and (b), (d), (g) the corresponding change in the slope ($\Delta \kappa$) for the open region and the RuCl₃ covered region.

is not accounted for since the RSS are not only coupled with themselves but also interact with TSS via interband scattering (Fig. 6). Note that, though the intraband scattering for TSS is prohibited due to the absence of backscattering, the carriers are allowed to tunnel from TSS to the RSS bands, provided the tunneling rate is larger than the decoherence rate $(1/L_{\phi}^2)$. This coupling between TSS and RSS is observed as the reduction in the value of α (~ 1.2) along with the small deviation from the π Berry phase in the case of RSS. This validates the observation of $\Delta \kappa = \Delta \kappa_{top-TSS} + \Delta \kappa_{bottom-TSS} =$ (+0.5) + (+0.5) = +1.0 for three out of four devices (D1, D2, and D4) irrespective of coverage by RuCl₃ flake (Table I).



FIG. 6. Toplogical surface states (TSS) and Rashba surface states (RSS). (a) Schematic of band structures of a topological insulator. (b) Fermi circles for TSS and RSS along with the intra and interband scattering between TSS and RSS near the Fermi level. The former type of scattering is prohibited, while the latter type is allowed.

2. Evidence of Rashba surface states (RSS) coexisting with topological surface states (TSS) ($\Delta \kappa$ =+1.5)

According to the Rashba model, Rashba fermions can also carry π Berry phase owing to the spin-momentum locking in a strongly spin-orbit coupled system such as TI [13]. Like TSS, RSS is also protected due to the time-reversal (TR) symmetry. Since Rashba spin-split surface states also give rise to gapless energy spectrum ($\Delta/2E_F = 0$), they can contribute to the ln *T* dependence of sheet conductance and can lead to $\Delta \kappa = +0.5$ according to the Lu-Shen theory [33].

During magnetotransport measurement of the hBNencapsulated BSTS device, Abhishek et al. attributed the observed $\alpha = 2.0$ to the presence of top and bottom TSS and two decoupled top and bottom RSS by corroborating with ARPES measurements [6,31,32]. Two well-separated RSS (near the top and bottom surfaces) in the bulk-insulating TI arises from the band bending near the interfaces with hexagonal-BN and SiO2. Moreover, TSS and RSS are physically wellseparated from each other, and RSS resides deep inside the bulk while TSS forms on the surface where two insulators (here, hBN or SiO2 or vacuum and BSTS) of topologically distinct classes meet. Abhishek et al. further argued that $\alpha = 1.5$ indicates the presence of top and bottom TSS as well as a coherent transport channel originating from the electrical coupling between top and bottom RSS. Therefore, our samples possess three single coherent conducting channels indicated by $\alpha \approx 1.5$ in the WAL measurements. We attribute the difference in the α and $\Delta \kappa$ of both regions of BSTS flake



FIG. 7. Band bending in TI-nonTI interface. (a) A typical TInonTI interface where BSTS is TI and SiO_2 , vacuum, or RuCl₃ is the non-TI. (b), (c) Band bending with triangular potential well wherein Rashba states subbands reside for RuCl₃-covered and open region of TI, respectively.

(device D3) to the possible charge transfer mechanism due to RuCl₃, discussed in the next section.

3. Charge transfer induced band bending

Due to the quantum confinement, the Rashba 2DEGs have many subbands spatially distributed within the triangular potential well (Fig. 7). The solutions to the wave functions of bulk electrons confined in that region can be approximated as Airy functions that describe the nonrelativistic particles trapped in a triangular potential well [52]. The energy gap between two successive subbands depends on the depth and width of the potential well. We expect a shallower potential well in the case of less strong band bending, while the stronger band bending leads to a deeper potential well with smaller spatial width. So, for example, the energy gap between the ground and first excited states or subbands is smaller in the case of weaker band bending, while sufficiently strong band bending forces the bulk charge carriers to accommodate in the ground state only, hence closer to the interface.

For three BSTS devices [20 nm (D1), 56 nm (D2), and 105 nm (D4) thick] covered by the RuCl₃ layer with varying thicknesses [35 nm (D1), 63 nm (D2), and 35 nm (D4), respectively], the change in slopes, $\Delta \kappa$ are constant to +1.0 (see Table I and Fig. 5). The positive unity possibly corresponds to decoupled top and bottom TSS, each contributing +0.5. However, we notice a change in the value of $\Delta \kappa$ during the conductance measurement across the 100 nm thick RuCl₃covered region of 92 nm thick BSTS flake (device D3 in Table I). As usual, $\Delta \kappa = +1.0$ for the open region of the latter device. On the contrary, the covered region yields $\Delta \kappa = +1.5$, greater by +0.5 than that for other devices. These findings insist we consider one more gapless surface state carrying π Berry phase. We attributed the extra (+0.5) to the decoupled top-RSS spatially wellseparated from the top-TSS but electrically coupled with bottom-RSS (near SiO₂ surface). This observation is corroborated by extracting $\alpha = 1.45$, closer to 1.5 than that for other devices, as evident from Table I. This notion can be understood from the strength of band bending and corresponding potential well with different depth, width, and shape depending upon interaction with the interfacial layer.

RuCl₃ layer, when strained, can cause charge (hole) transfer to the next layer interfaced with it, as evident in the case of graphene (monolayer)/RuCl₃ heterostructure [25,27]. Similarly, we expect hole transfer from the RuCl₃ layer to the electron-rich BSTS surface layer. The holes doped in the TI surface layer will compensate the negative charge somewhat, and the effect will be seen as the reduction in the strength of band bending. In other terms, RuCl₃ proximitized to the TI layer will make the triangular potential well shallower. As discussed before, the quantum confinement of bulk electrons within a triangular potential well leads to the multiple Rashba spin-split surface subbands spatially separated from each other. In the case of the shallower triangular potential well, the spatial separation between subbands is less. In turn, some subbands are expected to intersect the Fermi level. On the contrary, one subband will be deep inside the potential well, and other subbands will not be available due to the large enough energy gap in the case of the vacuum-interfaced region of the TI flake. This phenomenon can be understood in terms of the depletion region formed near the interface, as shown in Fig. 7. At the end of the depletion region inside the TI, we expect the Rashba surface states to reside. In the vicinity of the vacuum-TI interface, the depletion region is narrow enough to cause RSS and TSS coupling together. On the other hand, the RuCl₃-TI surface provides a wider depletion region inside the TI to accommodate RSS subbands decoupled from the TSS. Eventually, this charge transfer induced band bending gives extra (+0.5) to $\Delta \kappa$ due to gapless RSS that carries π Berry phase [33]. So, the total change in the slope in the logarithmic temperature dependence of sheet conductance due to the RuCl₃-covered region can be expressed as

$$\Delta \kappa = \Delta \kappa_{\text{top-TSS}} + \Delta \kappa_{\text{bottom-TSS}} + \Delta \kappa_{RSS}$$
$$= (+0.5) + (+0.5) + (+0.5)$$
$$= +1.5. \tag{10}$$

To corroborate our speculation, we take into account the value of α extracted from the perpendicular field magnettransport. For the open region, α is lesser than for the covered region though $1 < \alpha < 1.5$ in both cases. Hence, in this way, the RuCl₃ has a possible proximity effect on TI surface states.

IV. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, we probed the electrical transport signature in 3D TI BSTS nanoflakes proximitized to exfoliated RuCl₃ nanoflakes. Multichannel WAL analysis of low-field magnetoconductance yields the prefactor α that ascertains the presence of TSS and Rashba spin-split conducting states (RSS) originating from quantum-confined bulk charge carriers near the TI-nonTI interface. The nonlinear Hall effect indicates Rashba fermions are distinct from topological Dirac fermions which have low mobility. At low temperatures, resistivity upturn manifests as linear logarithmic temperature ln *T* dependence of sheet conductance, revealing the electron-electron interaction and quantum interference effect. Furthermore, application of the Lu-Shen model to ln *T* dependence of sheet conductance at various constant out-of-plane magnetic fields yields the maximum change in slope, $\Delta \kappa =$ +1.0 for the top and bottom TSS each contributing (+0.5). In the case of $\Delta \kappa =$ +1.5, additional +0.5 indicates the presence of a conducting coherent channel due to RSS. We observed the difference in the values of $\Delta \kappa$ for the open and RuCl₃-covered region of BSTS flake in the case of 100 nm thick RuCl₃. We argue that RuCl₃ injects holes into the electron-rich TI surface layer and causes compensation of bulk charge carriers, leading to weaker band bending and decoupling of RSS from TSS as captured by the value of $\Delta \kappa =$ +1.5. However, we did not observe this difference in $\Delta \kappa$ for other TI devices covered by RuCl₃ with lesser thicknesses (<100 nm). Our experiments suggest that there could be another possibility; by lowering the thickness of the BSTS

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flake, by forming edge-contact geometry via encapsulating the TI nanoflakes with RuCl₃ flakes or by tuning carrier density using gatevoltages, the hole injection would be appreciable which may result in some observable change in the electrical transport properties.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We thank Nirmal K. Sebastian, Gagan Rastogi, and Abhinab Mohapatra for insightful discussions. We acknowledge the funding support from the Ministry of Education, Government of India. We thank the Micro-and-Nano characterization facility and the National Nano fabrication facility at CeNSE, IISc. We thank the AFMM facility in IISc.

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