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I. INTRODUCTION

Europium telluride (EuTe) is an old-fashioned magnetic semiconductor that has been investigated for many decades [1–4]. The intrinsic source of magnetism in EuTe and other europium chalcogenides is the large spin \( S = \frac{7}{2} \) of the Eu atom, which occupies all lattice sites of the crystal. Additionally, EuTe is optically transparent in the red and infrared wavelength ranges. The combination of huge magnetism and optical transparency in a single material attracts device engineers still today [5,6], but EuTe already raised technological interest nearly half a century ago [7], when it became commercially available. However, technological interest waned when it was discovered that EuTe is an antiferromagnet with a very low Néel temperature \( T_N = 9.6 \) K, which is impractical for device applications. Nevertheless, EuTe and other Eu chalcogenides remain ideal magnetic systems that can be used to test the principles of operation of spin-related devices [8], and to investigate many-body physical phenomena, e.g., spin waves [9] and magnetic polarons [2,4,10–14].

Despite the long research history, only recently it was demonstrated how light can be used to induce a magnetic moment in EuTe, through the photocreation of magnetic polarons [15]. In Ref. [15], a narrow PL emission associated with a pure electronic transition was discovered, a so-called zero phonon line (ZPL). Is was demonstrated that the photoexcited electron that produces the ZPL is dressed by a halo of cant lattice spins, forming a magnetic polaron [16]. The experimental demonstration of magnetic polarons was done by using EuTe epitaxial layers of very high chemical purity and few structural defects, which became available in the last decade when the modern molecular beam epitaxy (MBE) technique began to be employed to grow EuTe crystals [17,18]. The superior quality of EuTe grown by MBE is demonstrated by its improved optical properties, e.g., new band-edge absorption of unprecedented sharpness [17], narrow photoluminescence (PL) lines at higher energies than ever seen before [18], novel second-harmonic generation [19], and a rich spectrum of magneto-refractive effects previously unknown [20]. Based on these discoveries, it became possible to successfully describe the EuTe band-edge electronic structure in the framework of one-electron band theory [21,22], whose validity in rare-earth oxides was questioned in the past [23] due to divergences between theory and the experimental data available at the time [24]. MBE can also be used to integrate Eu chalcogenides into a silicon substrate and other III-V semiconductor structures [25,26], which enhances the prospects of using EuTe in novel optospintronic devices.

The above-mentioned technical and scientific advances, and above all the discovery of a polaron-related ZPL, open the prospect of answering questions such as what is the internal spin structure of the newly discovered polarons, how well may they be modelled theoretically, how can polarons be generated efficiently, what is the polaron binding energy, and how high in temperature may the control of magnetic order, seen in EuTe at helium temperatures [15], be taken? These are long-standing fundamental questions; the answer to them is under debate or even missing, despite the many of investigations already done. The present investigation answers these questions on the basis of a theoretical model and its confrontation with the results of magneto-optical experiments on high-quality epitaxial layers of EuTe, grown by the molecular beam epitaxy technique. The theoretical model and its predictions are described in Sec. II, technical experimental details are given in Sec. III,
experimental results and comparison with theory are given in Sec. IV, and conclusion presented in Sec. V.

II. MAGNETIC POLARON THEORY

A. Polaron Hamiltonian

If an electron is promoted from the valence band into the conduction band through photon absorption in EuTe, prior to radiative recombination the electron will relax into the lowest possible state (dubbed “X state”) [15,18,27]. The exchange interaction between the photoexcited electron in an X state and the lattice spins (the Xf interaction) favors alignment of all spins in a common direction and can be described by an effective magnetic field \( B_{Xf} \sim 1 \text{ T} \), which acts on the lattice spins in the neighborhood of the photoexcited electron [15]. This effective magnetic field opposes the exchange interaction between the lattice spins (the ff interaction), which is antiferromagnetic [28]. If the Xf interaction overpowers the ff one, then a magnetic polaron may be formed, which is when the photoexcited electron breaks the natural antiferromagnetic alignment in its vicinity, generating a local nonzero magnetic moment. Magnetic polarons may also arise due to electrons bound to impurities and defects, and it has been suggested that they may be exploited to raise the critical temperature in rare-earth ferromagnets [13,14].

To describe the localized photoexcited electron, the envelope-wave-function approach [29] is employed. In an isotropic crystal such as EuTe, the photoexcited electron is described by a spherically symmetric envelope wave function \( \psi(r) \), where \( r \) is the distance to the center of the polaron.

The total energy of a photoexcited electron surrounded by a cloud of canted lattice spins (measured in respect to the energy of a free Bloch electron) is given by the sum

\[
E_{\text{pol}} = K + U_{\text{Coul}} + E_{Xf} + E_{ff} + E_Z.
\]

where \( K \) represents the kinetic of the photoexcited electron, \( U_{\text{Coul}} \) is its Coulomb energy in the field of the photoexcited hole,

\[
E_{Xf} = -J_{Xf} S \sum_i \frac{a^3}{4} |\psi(R_i)|^2 \sin \phi(R_i)
\]

is the Xf energy [17,30] \( J_{Xf} \) is the constant for the exchange interaction between the photoexcited electron and the lattice spins [15], \( S = \frac{7}{2} \) is the spin of an Eu atom, \( a \) is the EuTe lattice parameter, \( R_i \) is the distance from the \( i \)th lattice spin to the center of the polaron, \( \phi(R_i) \) is the canting angle of the \( i \)th lattice spin, as shown in Fig. 1,

\[
E_{ff} = \sum_i 12|J_1 + J_2|S^2[\sin^2 \phi(R_i) - b^2]
\]

is the change in the lattice ff energy induced by the photoexcited electron \( |J_1 \) and \( J_2 \) are the first- and second-neighbor ff exchange constants, respectively, \( b = \frac{\mu_B}{|g_S|} \) is the value of \( \sin \phi(R_i) \) in the absence of the photoexcited electron, \( B \leq B_{\text{SAT}} \) is the absolute value of the applied magnetic field, \( B_{\text{SAT}} \) is the minimum external magnetic field required to impose complete ferromagnetic order in the unperturbed lattice [31]),

\[
E_Z = -g_S \mu_B B \sum_i [\sin \phi(R_i) - b] \tag{4}
\]

is the change in the Zeeman energy of the lattice spins, induced by the photoexcited electron \( g_S = 2 \) is the gyromagnetic factor for an Eu spin in the lattice and \( \mu_B \) is Bohr’s magneton). The Zeeman energy of the photoexcited electron itself, in the range of fields considered here, is much smaller than all other energies and will be ignored. It is assumed that the effective magnetic field acting on the lattice spins is larger than the spin-flop field \( B_{\text{SF}} \sim 0.08 \text{ T} \) [32], hence the lattice spins belonging to different sublattices are oriented symmetrically to the effective field [15], as shown in Fig. 1. It is also assumed that the spin of the photoexcited electron is relaxed [15,27], meaning that the effective field \( B_{Xf} \) points in the direction of the applied magnetic field, if one is present.

Last but not least, the canting angle is allowed to vary continuously, which would be strictly valid only when \( S \rightarrow \infty \) but is a suitable approximation in the present case, considering the large spin \( S = 7/2 \) of the Eu atoms [11].

Due to the spherical symmetry, \( \phi(R_i) \) is constant for a given radius \( R_i \), and by minimizing \( E_{ff} + E_{Xf} + E_Z \) in respect to \( \sin \phi(R_i) \), we find

\[
\sin \phi(R_i) = \begin{cases} 
1 & \text{if } A|\psi(R_i)|^2 + b > 1 \\
A|\psi(R_i)|^2 + b & \text{otherwise},
\end{cases}
\]

where

\[
A = \frac{J_{Xf}}{96|J_1 + J_2|S^2 a^2}.
\]

By taking advantage of the continuum approximation [3], whereby the discrete distribution of Eu spins in the crystal lattice is replaced by a continuous one, with a density of spins equal to \( 4/a^3 \) characteristic of the face-centered cubic lattice, the polaron problem can be formulated in terms of a very
succinct Schrödinger equation. One writes

\[ E_{\text{ff}} + E_{Xf} + E_Z = \int_0^{\infty} 4\pi r^2 dr |\psi(r)|^2 V_{\text{pol}}(r), \]

and

\[ E_{\text{pol}} = \int_0^{\infty} 4\pi r^2 dr \psi^*(r) \mathcal{H}_{\text{pol}} \psi(r), \]

where the Hamiltonian operator is given by

\[ \mathcal{H}_{\text{pol}} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m^*} \frac{d}{dr} \left( r^2 \frac{d}{dr} \right) - e^2 \frac{\phi^2}{r^2} + V_{\text{pol}}(r). \]

The first term in Eq. (8) is the kinetic energy operator \((m^* \text{ is the effective mass of the photoexcited electron), the second term is the Coulomb interaction operator between the electron and the photoexcited hole, which is screened by a dielectric constant \(\varepsilon), and \(V_{\text{pol}}(r)\) is the self-energy term, which unites the \(f, Xf,\) and Zeeman energies [Eqs. (3), (2), and (4), respectively] in a single compact and concise expression:

\[ V_{\text{pol}}(r) = -J_{Xf} S \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} A |\psi(r)|^2 + b, & r \leq r_c \\ \frac{1}{2} A |\psi(r_c)|^2 + b, & r > r_c \end{cases} \]

where \(r_c\) is the radius of the spherical ferromagnetic core at the center of the polaron [i.e., the region where \(\phi(r) \equiv \pi / 2\); \(r_c\) is determined by the condition \(A |\psi(r_c)|^2 + b = 1\) or \(r_c = 0\) if this condition is never satisfied].

**B. Ground state of the polaron**

The ground state of the polaron is given by the minimum energy solution of the Schrödinger equation

\[ \mathcal{H}_{\text{pol}} \psi(r) = E_{\text{pol}} \psi(r). \]

The Schrödinger equation must be solved by using the self-consistent method [33] because the confining potential \(V_{\text{pol}}(r)\) is dependent on the wave function, as Eq. (9) shows. Alternatively, an approximate solution can be found by using the variational method. Although less accurate, the variational method has the advantage of producing a fully analytical solution. In this paper both solutions are presented and compared. To the best of the authors knowledge, this is the first time that the self-consistent method has been used to tackle the polaron problem.

The first known theoretical treatment of magnetic polarons in EuTe assumed a variational wave function equal to a constant within the polaron sphere and zero outside of it [2,34]. A better choice is Bohr’s function, which will be used here, as done by other authors describing impurity-stabilized polarons [10,11] and photoinduced ones [35].

\[ \psi(r,a_B) = \frac{e^{-r/a_B}}{\sqrt{\pi a_B^3}}. \]

The effective Bohr radius \(a_B\) is the variational parameter. With this choice the radius of the ferromagnetic core, defined in Eq. (9), can be expressed analytically:

\[ r_c = \begin{cases} \frac{a_B}{2} \ln \frac{A}{(1-b)^2 a_B^3} & \text{if } A > (1-b)^2 a_B^3 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise}. \end{cases} \]

The entry parameters used in all calculations are given in Table I. For the parameters given in Table I, no bound state is produced if the Coulomb term of the Hamiltonian is set to zero, in agreement with Ref. [11], which concluded theoretically that free conduction band electrons cannot form magnetic polarons in bulk EuTe.

**FIG. 2.** (Color online) Polaron ground state obtained by the self-consistent method (lighter curves) and the variational method (darker line), and energy of the ground state (dotted line). (b) Radial dependence of the canting angle.

**TABLE I.** EuTe parameters used in the theoretical modeling of the polaron.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>(J_1) (K)</th>
<th>(J_2) (K)</th>
<th>(a) (Å)</th>
<th>(B_{\text{SF}}) (T)</th>
<th>(m^*)</th>
<th>(\varepsilon)</th>
<th>(J_{Xf}) (meV)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Value</td>
<td>0.043</td>
<td>−0.15</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>0.3m_0</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reference</td>
<td>[1]</td>
<td>[1]</td>
<td>[36]</td>
<td>[32]</td>
<td>[37]</td>
<td>[18,38]</td>
<td>This work</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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function of the confined electron for $B = 0$. The self-consistent $V_{\text{Pol}}(r)$ is less confining than the variational one given by Eq. (9), and the self-consistent orbital is more extended. The energy of the photoexcited electron bound state is found to be $-0.0942$ eV for the variational method, and $-0.0860$ eV for the self-consistent one. The difference between these values is explained by the fact that the variational function is only approximately consistent with Eq. (9), in which the confining potential itself [Eq. (9)] depends on the wave function.

Figure 2(b) shows the sine of the canting angle as a function of distance to the polaron center. The variational calculation produces a ferromagnetic core of radius $r_c = 0.95a$, whereas the self-consistent result is $r_c = 0.47a$. Given that the nearest-neighbor distance in the face-centered cubic EuTe lattice is 0.71a, then a small ferromagnetic core is predicted by the variational model, but no ferromagnetic core is expected in the self-consistent approximation, which characterizes the polaron as type I [11].

In the idealized picture above the photoexcited electron is allowed to polarize all lattice spins, no matter how distant they are from the polaron center. In reality, the polarization action of the photoexcited electron is limited to the region where the effective magnetic field generated by the photoexcited electron wins the competition with other sources of effective magnetic fields; for instance, the magnetic anisotropy [39], which is described by a spin-flop field of $B_{\text{SF}} \sim 0.1$ T [32]. Consequently the polaron radius will be finite. The radius of the polaron can be estimated by taking the spin-flop field as a measure of the minimum effective field that the photoexcited electron must generate in order to have any effect on the lattice polarization. Then the polarization action of the photoexcited electron on the lattice spins, which is measured by how much the photoelectron changes the (sine of the) canting angle, which from Eq. (5) is given by $A|\phi(r)|^2$, must be greater than the change in $\sin \phi$ that would be caused by a magnetic field of magnitude $B_{\text{SF}}$, which is simply [15] $b_{\text{SF}} = B_{\text{SF}}/B_{\text{SAT}}$. Thus the polaron volume is defined by the values of $r$ that satisfy the inequality

$$A|\phi(r)|^2 \geq b_{\text{SF}}. \quad (13)$$

The equality occurs at $r = R_{\text{Pol}}$, which by using Eq. (11) produces an analytical expression for the polaron radius,

$$R_{\text{Pol}} = \frac{a_B}{2} \ln \frac{A}{b_{\text{SF}}\pi a_B^2}, \quad (14)$$

if the variational approximation is used, which gives $R_{\text{Pol}} = 3.6a$ for $B = 0$. In contrast, in the self-consistent approximation, $R_{\text{Pol}} = 4.0a$ is found numerically from the equality condition in Eq. (13).

The average canting angle of the lattice spins within the polaron will be given by

$$\langle \sin \phi \rangle = \frac{1}{R_{\text{Pol}}^3} \int_0^{R_{\text{Pol}}} 4\pi r^2 dr \sin \phi(r), \quad (15)$$

where $\Omega_{\text{Pol}} = \frac{4}{3} \pi R_{\text{Pol}}^3$ is the polaron volume, which gives $\langle \phi \rangle = 7^\circ$ for the variational model and $\langle \phi \rangle = 5^\circ$ for the self-consistent one. Both the theoretically estimated $R_{\text{Pol}}$ and the average canting angle $\langle \phi \rangle$ are in approximate agreement with the experimental estimates given in Ref. [15], where the polaron radius was found to be $3.6a$, and the complementary angle to $\phi$ was found to be $\sim 80^\circ$.

From Eq. (15) the total magnetic moment of a polaron can be estimated to be

$$\mathcal{M}_{\text{Pol}} = \Omega_{\text{Pol}}\mathcal{M}_{\text{SAT}} \langle \sin \phi \rangle, \quad (16)$$

where $\mathcal{M}_{\text{SAT}} = \frac{4}{3} g_{\mu_B} S$ is the saturation magnetization of the crystal, which gives $\mathcal{M}_{\text{Pol}} = 650\mu_B$ and $\mathcal{M}_{\text{Pol}} = 610\mu_B$ in the variational and self-consistent calculations, respectively.

When the applied magnetic-field intensity reaches $B_{\text{SAT}}$, the lattice spins attain complete ferromagnetic alignment, and the polaron potential becomes a constant, $V_{\text{Pol}}(r) = -J_{\text{Xf}} S$, as Eq. (9) shows. In this limit, the variational Bohr function becomes an exact solution of the polaron Schrödinger equation, produces a polaron radius that is almost independent of the magnetic field and varies by at most $\sim 5\%$, whereas the variational result for $R_{\text{Pol}}$ varies linearly with $B$, and can be increased by as much as 20% by the application of a magnetic field.

The binding energy of the polaron, $E_{\text{Bind}}$, is equal to the photoexcited electron’s self-energy, i.e., the energy it gains by polarizing the surrounding lattice spins. Put in another way, $E_{\text{Bind}}$ is the difference between the total binding energy of the photoexcited electron and its binding energy when the lattice spins are unpolarized. The former is the difference between the energy of the polaron state, $E_{\text{Pol}}$, given by Eq. (10), and the continuum threshold, which according to Eq. (9) is to $-b J_{\text{Xf}} S$; the latter is just the effective Rydberg, $R^* = m^* k^2 e^4/(2e^2 h^2)$. Thus, as illustrated in Fig. 4,

$$E_{\text{Bind}} = -b J_{\text{Xf}} S - E_{\text{Pol}} - R^*. \quad (17)$$

The calculated $E_{\text{Bind}}$, using Eq. (17), is shown in Fig. 3 as a function of the applied magnetic field.
where \(B_X(r) = \frac{J_X}{gS\mu_B} \frac{a^3}{4} |\psi(r)|^2\),

\[B_X(r) = \frac{1}{\Omega_{Pol}} \frac{J_X}{gS\mu_B} \frac{a^3}{4}\] (19)

whose average value within the polaron volume is

\[\langle B_X \rangle = \frac{1}{\Omega_{Pol}} \frac{J_X}{gS\mu_B} \frac{a^3}{4}\]

The effective \(X_f\) field adds to the magnetic field applied externally, therefore the required external field required to impose ferromagnetic alignment within a polaron is lower by \(\langle B_X \rangle\) than in the rest of the crystal. By using the parameters given in Table I and \(R_{Pol} \sim 4a\), \(\langle B_X \rangle \sim 1\ T\) is obtained, in approximate agreement with the experimental value [15].

Based on the above theory, valid for \(T = 0\ K\), predictions can be made for polaron effects in the high-temperature limit, \(T \gg T_N\), when the EuTe system approaches paramagnetic behavior. In this limit, \(E_f \to 0\) and \(E_X\) dominates the self-energy of the photoexcited electron for \(B = 0\) (i.e., when \(E_Z = 0\)). In the continuum approximation, Eq. (2) can be rewritten as

\[E_X = -J_X/2 (\sin \phi)\]

on the other hand, the average magnetization inside the polaron is given by \(\langle M \rangle = M_{SAT} (\sin \phi)\), hence

\[\langle \sin \phi \rangle = \langle m \rangle\]

where \(\langle m \rangle = \langle M \rangle / M_{SAT}\) is the reduced magnetization (the magnetization measured in units of the maximum-possible value, \(M_{SAT}\)). But in the paramagnetic limit, \(\langle m \rangle\) approaches the Brillouin function, i.e.,

\[\lim_{T \to T_N} \langle m \rangle = B_S(T, B)\]

\[\lim_{T \to T_N} E_X = -J_X/2 B_S(T, \langle B_X \rangle)\]

(23)

The binding energy of the polaron is simply the absolute value of the self-energy, i.e.,

\[\lim_{T \to T_N} E_{Bind} = J_X/2 B_S(T, \langle B_X \rangle)\]

Finally, the magnetic moment of a polaron is given by \(M_{Pol} = \Omega_{Pol} M_{SAT} \langle m \rangle\), and can also be estimated in the high-temperature limit by substituting Eqs. (21) and (22) into Eq. (16), which gives

\[\lim_{T \to T_N} M_{Pol} = \Omega_{Pol} M_{SAT} B_S(T, \langle B_X \rangle)\]

The calculated binding energy, using Eq. (24), is shown in Fig. 5. It can be seen that the binding energy plummets towards room temperature. This is explained by the increasing thermal agitation of the lattice spins when the sample is heated, which suppresses the ability of the photoexcited electron to polarize the lattice spins around itself, thereby inhibiting polaron formation. At \(T = 100\ K\), the binding energy is \(6\ meV\) (only a small fraction of the \(T = 0\ K\) value), which is approximately equal to \(k_B T\), hence polaron formation is unlikely already at \(T \sim 100\ K\). Parallel to the fast decrease of the binding energy when the temperature is raised, Eq. (25) shows that the magnetic moment of a polaron also decreases in the same proportion. For instance, at \(T = 100\ K\), the magnetic moment of a polaron is reduced to only \(M_{Pol} = 150\mu_B\).

**III. EXPERIMENT**

The near-gap photoluminescence (PL) and photoluminescence excitation (PLE) in EuTe were measured by using very low excitation powers (below \(~100\ \mu W/cm^2\)), which is mandatory for resolving the ZPL [15]. The samples were grown by molecular beam epitaxy on BaF2 substrates [36]. The thickness of the epitaxial layers was in the range 1–4.2 \(\mu m\). In the PL investigation, the excitation source was a Nd:YAG 532 nm laser, and for PLE a Xenon lamp coupled to a single-grating 0.25 m monochromator was used. Light was conveyed to the sample and collected from the sample using optical fibers and \textit{in situ} optics assembled in a homemade sample holder, similar to the one described in Ref. [40]. The sample holder was used to position the sample inside a cryostat in complete isolation from ambient light sources. When the PL intensity is very low (as is the case here, because extremely low excitation levels were employed), our light collection
method, instead of using a conventional cryostat with windows and freestanding optical elements, is advantageous for two reasons (for a detailed description see Ref. [41]): (1) the \textit{in situ} optics allows us to collect light over a greater solid angle; (2) ambient light sources are completely excluded, whereas they hinder measurements in an open-lens-optics setup. In the PLE experiment, the excitation light was left-hand or right-hand circularly polarized by using a circular polarizer contained in the \textit{in situ} optics. All measurements were taken at a temperature of $T = 5 \text{ K}$, under the effect of a magnetic field of up to 28 T and applied in the Faraday geometry. Measurements taken in fields above 10 T were done at the High Magnetic Field Laboratory of Radboud University in Nijmegen (HMFL).

### IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Measured PL spectra are shown as a function of the applied magnetic field in Fig. 6(a), whereby a weak manifold of equally spaced lines could be resolved. As an example, the black solid line in Fig. 6(b) shows the PL for $B = 7 \text{ T}$, in which seven lines, equally spaced by the EuTe optical phonon energy [42] of 17.5 meV, are well resolved. The manifold intensity fits well with a Poisson distribution (for details see Ref. [15]), characteristic of a radiative transition between two electronic states but coupled to a single phonon mode [43,44]. Therefore, the whole of the PL band is ascribed to a single photoexcited electronic state, the so-called $X$ state, as detailed in Ref. [15]. The light dashed curves in Fig. 6(b) show the isolated individual phonon replica from which the position, width, and intensity of the ZPL can be extracted.

In contrast to the commonly observed PL in EuTe reported by other authors, which consists of the unresolved superposition of several lines, the ZPL is associated with a single and pure electronic transition. Therefore, the ZPL displacement, when the crystal is submitted to a perturbation of some kind, measures directly the displacement of the electronic energy levels. This is not the case for a PL line that englobes several electronic transitions or multiphonon emissions, because in the latter case the energy shift of the PL maximum may be driven by an uneven change in the oscillator strengths of the transitions comprising the PL band and not by any real shift of energy levels. Moreover, since the ZPL is associated with a polaron state, an energy shift of the ZPL is equal to a change in the energy of the polaron. Figure 7 shows the shift in the position of the maximum of the ZPL as a function of magnetic field. Below the saturation field of $B_{\text{SAT}} = 7.3 \text{ T}$ (the intensity of the applied magnetic field required to impose ferromagnetic spin alignment within a polaron), the linear redshift is described by a slope of 38 meV/T. For comparison, the shift in the polaron energy, $E_{\text{Pol}}$, predicted by the self-consistent calculation using parameters given in Table I, is also shown in Fig. 7(a). The theory predicts the correct behavior and, up to the saturation field, the agreement between theory and experiment is slightly better if the value of the parameter $J_X$ is taken to be $J_X = 83 \text{ meV}$, as given in Table I, instead of $J_X = 77 \text{ meV}$, estimated in an earlier work [15].

At $B = B_{\text{SAT}} = 7.3 \text{ T}$ (i.e., when $b = 1.0$), full ferromagnetic alignment within the polaron is achieved. However, at this field the lattice spins outside the polaron sphere are not yet saturated. Increasing the field up to $B = 8.3 \text{ T}$, then ferromagnetic alignment is imposed everywhere, the magnetic polaron ceases to exist, and the position of the ZPL is expected to remain constant. However, Fig. 7 shows that the ZPL continues to redshift (by about 15 to 20 meV) even when the applied magnetic field is greater than the saturation field, up to 15 T, where the redshift comes to a halt. The small redshift between 8.3 and 15 T is probably associated with a
magnetic-field suppression of roughness in the confining potential of the photoexcited electron, associated with structural or chemical inhomogeneities.

The position of the ZPL as a function of temperature at \( B = 0 \) was already reported (Fig. 4 in Ref. [15]). The ZPL could be followed up to a temperature of about 30 K. Above 30 K, the PL becomes too weak, and the ZPL can no longer be resolved. Nevertheless, between the Néel temperature and 30 K, a blueshift of about 20 meV is observed, which is typical of the optical-band-edge absorption spectrum of EuTe in a magnetic field [1]. When an external magnetic field is present, the blueshift is associated with increasing lattice spin fluctuations, which reduce the magnetization induced by the magnetic field, which in turn reduces the \( J_x \) energy gain of the photoexcited electron. However, the ZPL blueshift observed here occurs when no external magnetic field exists, which provides independent proof that the photoexcited electron generates an effective magnetic field. The blueshift also indicates that increasing the temperature progressively destroys the polaron, as expected from the theoretical model (see end of Sec. II B).

Finally, the photoluminescence excitation spectrum of the ZPL is shown in Fig. 8 as a function of the applied magnetic field. The PLE threshold is characterized by the same quadratic redshift seen in the optical absorption of EuTe, which is due to the narrowing of the band gap [45]. However, at any applied field, the PLE spectrum was always independent of the polarization of the excitation light, in striking contrast to the optical absorption spectrum, which shows a huge circular dichroism [45]. This result can be interpreted in the following way: Although at the band-edge threshold the optical densities are different for left- and right-hand circularly polarized photons, both photons end up being absorbed anyway, because the samples used here are very thick, thus both photons generate photoexcited electrons, albeit in different excited electronic states. However, prior to recombination, the photoexcited electron relaxes energy and spin [27], loosing memory of the excited electronic state it occupied initially. Thus the PL produced is uncorrelated with the polarization of the excitation light.

Additionally, when the energy of the excitation photons is driven above the EuTe band gap, the PLE intensity decreases, which is again in sharp contrast to the optical absorption, which steeply increases [24,45]. The decreasing PLE signal points to a decreasing connection between energy levels higher in the conduction band and the relaxed state that originates the ZPL. This suggests that electrons excited to states of higher energy have an increasing chance of encountering a nonradiative recombination path, which is quite plausible. Another aspect worthy of notice is the decreasing PLE signal with increasing magnetic field at a fixed energy just above the band gap. This is the case for the PL with photons of energy 532 nm (2.33 eV), which is near the maximum of the PLE spectrum at \( B = 0 \), as the dotted line in Fig. 8 shows. Upon increasing the applied magnetic field, the EuTe band gap hugely redshifts, hence the 2.33 eV excitation photons are strongly moved out of resonance, and for a fixed excitation power the PL signal decreases. Therefore the observation of a decreasing PL signal with increasing magnetic field can be partly explained by the increasing disconnection between the
hot photogenerated electrons and the relaxed photoexcited state, and not necessarily by a change in the symmetry of the relaxed photoexcited state, as has been suggested in the literature [18].

V. CONCLUSIONS

In summary, the magnetic polaron in EuTe has been revisited in high-quality crystals grown by MBE and thoroughly investigated both theoretically and experimentally. A very concise single-particle effective Hamiltonian operator, describing the polaron in a magnetic field, was formulated, and its Schrödinger equation was solved exactly by using the self-consistent method for the first time. Although in general the self-consistent method produces very similar results to those obtained by the variational method, some results are distinctly different, e.g., the size of the ferromagnetic core, the size of the polaron itself, and the magnetic-field dependence of the latter. The theory correctly predicts the ZPL shift in a magnetic field, and with increasing temperature of the sample, demonstrating its reliability. The theory is very compact and depends on few entry parameters (exchange constants, effective mass, and dielectric constant), and could be used to describe magnetic polarons not only in other europium chalcogenides, but in many other materials as well.

Confrontation of the theory with the experimental data gathered on EuTe provides an estimate for the $X_f$ exchange constant, $X_f = 83$ meV. At $T \to 0$ K, the polaron radius is $4a$, the binding energy of the polaron is 27 meV, and its magnetic moment is $610 \mu_B$. However, the polaron binding energy and its magnetic moment decrease drastically when temperature is increased and, by $T \sim 100$ K, the polaron is effectively destroyed. This is explained by the increasing agitation of the lattice spins when the temperature is raised, which makes them less susceptible to the effective magnetic field the photoexcited electron produces.

The PLE intensity is independent on the polarization of the excitation light, which demonstrates that the spin of the photoexcited electron that generates the magnetic polaron is completely relaxed when the polaron is formed. Finally, it was demonstrated that polaron generation is most efficient when the excitation-light photons are in resonance with the EuTe energy gap and progressively decreases when the excitation-photon energy is increased beyond the EuTe gap.

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Here the $X_f$ interaction energy for a photoexcited electron in an extended state, given in Ref. [17], whereby it interacts equally with all lattice spins, was generalized to a localized electron state, assuming that the $X_f$ interaction with a given lattice spin is proportional to the probability that the photoexcited electron is found in the volume of the crystal that corresponds to that particular lattice spin.


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