Editor's Choice

Charged Magnetoexcitons in Two Dimensions: Isolated X⁻ and Many-Electron Effects

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The states of charged magnetoexcitons in two-dimensional systems are considered. Exact optical selection rules for intra- and inter-band processes are discussed. The effect of excess electrons on internal transitions of negatively charged excitons X⁻ in quantum wells is studied experimentally and theoretically. An experimentally observed blue-shift with excess electron density is explained in terms of collective excitations, magnetoplasmons bound to a valence band hole.

1. Introduction

The existence of three-particle mobile semiconductor hydrogenic complexes, negatively (X⁻) and positively (X⁺) charged excitons, or trions, was predicted many years ago [1]. These species are the bound states of two electrons and one hole (2e–h) and one electron and two holes (e–2h), respectively. Reduction of the dimensionality enhances the binding of the X⁻ and X⁺ considerably [2–4]. Experimentally, X⁻ has been identified in magneto-optical spectra of a low-density quasi-two-dimensional electron gas (2DEG) in quantum wells (QWs) [5]. The observation in magnetic fields $B$ of spin-singlet and spin-triplet X⁻ and X⁺ charged excitons in QWs has been subsequently reported by many groups [6–13]. The bulk of the experimental work to date has been concentrated on interband magneto-optics. More recently, intraband internal transitions of charged excitons have been studied [14]. Theoretically, the behavior of X⁻ at high $B$ (charged magnetoexcitons), has been studied in the strictly-2D geometry [15], in realistic QWs [16, 17], in a confining potential of a donor ion [18] and a quantum dot [19], and in a spherical geometry [20, 21]¹. The binding of X⁻ at low magnetic fields has also been studied [23, 24].

The trions, X⁻ and X⁺, are often considered to be semiconductor analogs of the negative, H⁻, and positive, H⁺, hydrogen ions. This analogy, however, is not complete. Indeed, the hydrogen ions are usually treated in the infinite proton mass approximation [25] and more closely resemble localized semiconductor complexes, such as the two-electron negative donor ion, D⁻. The latter has been extensively studied in 2D systems

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²) In Haldane’s spherical geometry [22] in addition to the axial symmetry, there is the spherical rotational symmetry. The latter is some analogue of the translational symmetry on the plane. Because of the finite size effects (a finite degeneracy of LLs), the e–h spectra are completely discrete in the spherical geometry in $B$ (see [20, 21]) and, in this respect, are qualitatively different from those on a plane.
in $B$ (see, e.g. [26–30], and references therein). In the case of $X^-$, there are some fundamental differences in the basic physics, which derive from the free motion of the complex. For charged systems in $B$ components of the magnetic translation operator do not commute, $[\hat{K}_x, \hat{K}_y] \neq 0$, although both commute with the Hamiltonian, $[\hat{K}, H] = 0$. Therefore, translations form a non-commutative group and the corresponding dynamical symmetry is often called magnetic translational symmetry (see [31–33], and references therein). It has been used in the study of the motion of atomic ions in magnetic fields [34]. This symmetry and the corresponding exact optical selection rule for charged magnetoexcitons (MXs) have been identified only recently [35, 36].

The aim of this paper is twofold. First, we present an overview of the underlying symmetries (Section 2) and exact optical selection rules (Section 3) for charged e–h complexes in magnetic fields; eigenspectra of the strictly 2D $X^-$ states in several lowest Landau levels (LLs) are presented in Section 4. Second, results of experimental and theoretical studies of the effect of excess electrons on internal $X^-$ transitions are given (Section 5).

## 2. Charged Electron–Hole Complexes in a Magnetic Field

We consider in the effective mass approximation charged e–h complexes in a semiconductor with a simple valence band in a magnetic field; the exchange e–h interaction is neglected. General symmetry properties are illustrated through the example of a three-particle negatively charged exciton $X^-$. Analogous considerations apply to other charged e–h complexes. The Hamiltonian describing the 2D charged exciton $X^-$ in a perpendicular magnetic field $B = (0, 0, B)$ is given by

$$H = H_0 + H_{\text{int}},$$

where the free-particle part is

$$H_0 = \sum_{i=1,2} \frac{\pi^2_{ei}}{2m_e} + \frac{\pi^2_{eh}}{2m_h},$$

and $\pi_j = -i\hbar\nabla_j - \frac{e_j}{c}A(r_j)$ are kinematic momentum operators. The interaction Hamiltonian is

$$H_{\text{int}} = U_{ee}(|r_1 - r_2|) + \sum_{i=1,2} U_{eh}(|r_i - r_h|).$$

In concrete calculations the Coulomb interactions $U_{ee} = -U_{eh} = e^2/er$ are considered, otherwise particular forms of the interaction potentials can be rather arbitrary. We will use the symmetric gauge $A = B \times r/2$. The exact eigenstates of (1) can be labeled as [36]

$$|\psi_{kMz, S_e, S_h}\rangle.$$

Here $M_z$ is the total angular momentum projection, an eigenvalue of $L_z = \sum_j (r_j \times -i\hbar\nabla_j)_z$. The total spin of two electrons can be either $S_e = 0$ (singlet states) or $S_e = 1$ (triplet states); $S_h$ denotes the spin state of the hole. The discrete quantum number $k = 0, 1, \ldots$ is associated with magnetic translations. Indeed, the Hamiltonian (1) commutes [31, 32, 34–37] with the operator of the magnetic translations, $[\hat{K}, H] = 0$. Here $\hat{K} = \sum_j \hat{K}_j$, and $\hat{K}_j = \pi_j - \frac{e_j}{c}r_j \times B$ are the generators of magnetic translations of individual particles. In the symmetric gauge, $\hat{K}_j(B) = \pi_j(-B)$. Independ-
dent of the gauge, $\hat{\mathbf{K}}_j$ and $\hat{\pi}_j$ commute: $[\hat{K}_{jp}, \hat{\pi}_{jq}] = 0$, $p, q = x, y$. Noting that $[\hat{K}_x, \hat{K}_y] = -i\frac{\hbar B}{c} Q$, where the total charge $Q \equiv \sum_j e_j = -e$ for the $X^-$, and introducing the dimensionless operator

$$
\hat{k} = \left( \frac{c}{\hbar B |Q|} \right)^{1/2} \hat{K}
$$

with canonically conjugate components, one obtains the lowering and raising Bose ladder operators for the whole system [32, 34–37]

$$
\hat{k}_\pm = \pm \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}} (\hat{k}_x \pm \sqrt{2} \hat{k}_y), \quad [\hat{k}_+, \hat{k}_-] = -\frac{Q}{|Q|} = 1.
$$

Therefore, $\hat{k}^2 = \hat{k}_+ \hat{k}_- + \hat{k}_+ \hat{k}_-$ has the discrete oscillator eigenvalues $2k + 1$, $k = 0, 1, \ldots$. Because of the non-commutativity and hermiticity of $\hat{K}_x$ and $\hat{K}_y$, there is a macroscopic (Landau) degeneracy in $k$. This degeneracy is quite natural because physically $k$ describes the center-of-rotation of the charged complex in $B$. Finally, $\nu$ in (4) is the principal quantum number. It can be discrete (bound states) or continuous (unbound states forming a continuum); see below. Each $\nu$-th family of macroscopically degenerate states starts with its Parent State that has $k = 0$ — the center of orbit is the origin — and has the largest (for $Q < 0$) possible $M_z$ in the family. The value of $M_z$ for the PS is determined by particulars of interactions and cannot be established from simple considerations. Daughter states in the $\nu$-th family, $|\Psi^{(D)}_{kM_z,-kS_eS_h\nu}\rangle$, are constructed out of the PS as

$$
|\Psi^{(D)}_{kM_z,-kS_eS_h\nu}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{k!}} \hat{k}_-^k |\Psi^{(P)}_{k=0,M_z,S_eS_h\nu}\rangle,
$$

where we have used $[\hat{L}_z, \hat{k}_\pm] = \pm \hat{k}_\pm$. In what follows we will often omit the superfluous notation $k = 0$ for the PSs, e.g., $|\Psi^{(P)}_{M_z,S_eS_h\nu}\rangle$.

3. Selection Rules for Magneto-Optical Transitions

Selection rules should be formulated in terms of exact quantum numbers. At $B = 0$, the exact quantum numbers can be chosen as the center-of-mass (CM) momentum, a continuous vector $\mathbf{K}$, and the angular momentum projection of the relative motion $l_z^{\text{rel}}$. For simplicity we omit here the spin quantum numbers $S_e, S_h$ and do not discuss the usual spin selection rules. There are two independent optical selection rules associated with the orbital motion: (i) in the dipole approximation, when the photon momentum can be neglected, $\mathbf{K}$ is conserved, and (ii) $l_z^{\text{rel}}$ changes according to the polarization of the photon and the process involved.

For charged complexes in $B$, the quantum number associated with the translational invariance, $k$, becomes discrete. It is conserved in the dipole approximation [36]. Physically this means that the centers-of-rotation of charged complexes in $B$ in the initial and final states must coincide. (Naturally, the emission or absorption of the photon does not change the total charge of the system.) Because of the coupling of the CM and internal motions for the e–h complexes in $B$, there is some fundamental difference in the optical selection rules. Note first that neither $l_z^{\text{rel}}$, nor the CM angular momentum projection $l_z^{\text{cm}}$, is separately conserved in $B$. Only their sum, the total $M_z = l_z^{\text{rel}} + l_z^{\text{cm}}$, is conserved [34]. The second selection rule is formulated, therefore, in terms of $M_z$. 

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Importantly, the two selection rules cannot be satisfied independently in $B$. Indeed, conservation of $k$ implies that the PSs, as having the same $k = 0$, must be directly connected by the optical transition. However, each PS has some specific value of $M_z$, which is determined by the particulars of interactions. The existence of degenerate daughter states does not bring any freedom, because in each family the quantum numbers $k$ and $M_z$ are connected uniquely via Eq. (7). As a result, transitions between certain families of states turn out to be prohibited (see below); we call such states dark. The existence of dark states remains hidden in other (e.g., Landau) gauges (see Appendix).

### 3.1 Internal intraband transitions

The Hamiltonian describing the interaction with radiation of polarization $\sigma^\pm$ and frequency $\omega$ in the Faraday geometry is [38]

$$\hat{\mathcal{V}}^\pm = \sum_j \frac{e_j F_0 \pi_j^\pm}{m_j \omega} e^{-i\omega t},$$

where $\pi_j^\pm = \pi_{jx} \pm i \pi_{jy}$, and $F_0$ is the electric field amplitude. Since $[\mathcal{V}^\pm, \mathbf{K}] = [\mathbf{V}^\pm, \mathbf{K}^2] = 0$, the quantum number $k$ is conserved in intraband transitions [32, 35, 36]. This means that the transitions must be allowed directly between the PSs: $|\Psi_{M_0, n}^{(P)}\rangle \rightarrow |\Psi_{M_0, n'}^{(P)}\rangle$. Therefore, the PSs must satisfy in the $\sigma^\pm$ polarization the usual selection rules $M'_0 = M_0 \pm 1$, spin conserved (see Fig. 1). For the transition dipole matrix element between the daughter states in the $k$-th and $k'$-th generations we have from (7)

$$D_{n,n'} = \langle \Psi_{K', M_0, n'}^{(P)} | \hat{\mathcal{V}}^\pm | \Psi_{K, M_0, n}^{(P)} \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{k!k'}} \delta_{k,k'} \langle \Psi_{M_0, n'}^{(P)} | \hat{k}'_+ \hat{V}^\pm \hat{k}^- | \Psi_{M_0, n}^{(P)} \rangle$$

Here we have used $[\hat{V}^\pm, \hat{k}_-] = [\hat{V}^\pm, \hat{k}_+] = 0$ and the operator algebra $[\hat{k}_+, \hat{k}_-] = 1$. We see that $D_{n,n'}$ is the same in all generations. Therefore, $D_{n,n'}$ is a characteristic of the two families of states.

### 3.2 Interband transitions

The interaction of an e–h system with the radiation field with e–h pair annihilation is described by the luminescence operator $\hat{\mathcal{L}}_{PL} = p_{cv} \int dr \Psi_{\xi}(r) \Psi_{\eta}(r)$, where $p_{cv}$ is the interband momentum matrix element (see Fig. 2). Consider the photoluminescence (PL) transition $X^- \rightarrow e^-_n +$ photon, in which an e–h pair is annihilated and an electron is left in the final state in the $n$-th LL. In PL from the $X^-$ ground state, $n = 1, 2, \ldots$ correspond to so-called shake-up processes (see, e.g. [9, 39] and references therein).
The corresponding dipole transition matrix element (Fig. 2a) is
\[
D_{PL}(n) = h f(e)_{nm} \langle ^{LL}PL | ^{Y}(D)_{kMz/C0} | n \rangle.
\]
Here \(f(e)_{nm}\) is the factored wave function of the electron in the \(n = 0, 1, \ldots\) LL with the oscillator quantum number \(m = 0, 1, \ldots\) (see, e.g., [33, 34, 37]). The latter is the single-particle analog of the quantum number \(k\) in (7). The angular momentum projection \(m_z = n - m\). Due to the change of the Bloch parts of orbital wave functions in this case, the usual selection rule \(\Delta M_z = 0\) holds for the envelope functions. Thus, \(m_z = n - m = M_z - k\) must hold. Because of the commutativity \([^{LL}PL, \hat{K}] = 0\), the oscillator quantum number should be conserved: \(m = k\). We see, therefore, that [36]
\[
D_{PL}(n) \sim \delta_{n,M_z}.
\] (10)
This is an important result. It shows that the \(X^-\) PL transition is only possible when the electron is left in a single and specific electron LL with the number \(n = M_z\); \(M_z\) here is the angular momentum projection of the PS. The implications for any isolated \(X^-\) state in a translationally invariant system in \(B\) are:
- \(X^-\) states with \(M_z < 0\) are dark in PL;
- \(X^-\) shake-up processes in PL are strictly prohibited. (For donor-bound \(X^-\) states in zero LLs with \(M_z > 0\) (which are energetically favorable), the optical transitions are allowed only via shake-up processes (see [18]).)

The general exact selection rules discussed in this section are applied in the following to describe the magneto-optical transitions of the 2D charged MXs \(X^-\).

### 4. 2D Trions in Zero and Higher Landau Levels

In the limit of high magnetic fields such that [15, 16, 36]
\[
\hbar \omega_{ce(h)} = \frac{\hbar eB}{m_{e(h)}} \gg E_0 = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2}} \frac{e^2}{dB},
\] (11)
LLs remain well-defined. In this limit the three-particle 2e–h states can be labeled in the first approximation as \(\Psi^{(n_e,n_h)}_{kM_1,S_eS_h}\). Here, in addition to the exact quantum numbers (4), a pair of quantum numbers \((n_e,n_h)\) has been introduced, describing the total electron LL number \(n_e\) and the hole LL number \(n_h\) [37]. The expansion in LLs for charged e–h complexes that preserves all symmetries requires summing over an infinite number of e- and h-states in zero LLs. The method has been described elsewhere [37].

#### 4.1 Eigenstates

The calculated 2e–h eigenspectra in several of the lowest LLs \((n_e,n_h)\) are presented in Figs. 3–5. Note that only the PSs \(k = 0\) states are shown. Filled dots above free LLs in
Figs. 3–5 show positions of the excited three-particle states, denoted as (2e)–h. These states originate from the excited states of two electrons that are bound in 2D: despite the e–e repulsion, their relative motion is finite because of the confining effect of the magnetic field [40]. Our results show that an infinite number of such states remain bound in the presence of the hole. For $M_z \gg 1$, the hole can be at a sufficiently large distance from two electrons so as not to perturb strongly their relative motion. In this situation, the relative motion of two electrons can be approximately described by the

**Fig. 3.** Eigenspectra of the three-particle 2e–h electron triplet $S_e = 1$ states in zero LLs $(n_e n_h) = (00)$. Only states with $k = 0$ are shown. Energy is given relative to that of free LLs $\frac{1}{2} \hbar (\omega_{ce} + \omega_{ch})$, in units of $E_0 = \sqrt{\pi/2} e^2 / c l_B$

**Fig. 4.** Same as in Fig. 1 for states in the $(n_e n_h) = (10)$ LLs. Energy is given relative to $\hbar (\omega_{ce} + \frac{1}{2} \omega_{ch})$.
The relative e–e angular momentum projection $m$. The larger $m$, the larger is the e–e distance. With increasing $M_z$ channels with larger $m$ appear as the bound (2e)–h states. In Figs. 3 and 5, for instance, only one such family (with $m = 1$) has developed; states with even $m = 0, 2, \ldots$ are forbidden for electron triplets in the zero electron LL. Asymptotically ($M_z \to \infty$) an infinite number of different (2e)–h families appear in the spectra. The bound discrete (2e)–h states form therefore rather dense spectra, a quasi-continuum. The hole is at a finite distance from the electrons in these states: the relative motions of all three particles are finite. In an approach that fails to recognize different $k$-states, it would have been hardly possible to identify the nature of the excited discrete states above free LLs. Note that bound excited states of a similar nature exist in the spectra of the 2D negative donor ion $D^-$ in strong magnetic fields [28].

The shaded areas in Figs. 3–5 correspond to the three-particle continuum. It is formed by the neutral MX, all states of which have bound internal and extended CM motions [18, 41], and an electron in a scattering state. The electron is on average at infinity (see footnote 2) from the MX: the mean quantum mechanical distance between, e.g., two electrons is infinite in any scattering state, $\sqrt{\langle (\mathbf{r}_1 - \mathbf{r}_2)^2 \rangle_{sc}} = \infty$. For the $(n_e n_h) = (10)$ LLs, there are two different overlapping MX bands (see Fig. 4). One corresponds to the $X_{00}$ MX (e and h in their zero LLs) with the second electron in a scattering state in the first LL. The lower continuum edge lies at the ground state energy $-E_0$ of the $X_{00}$ MX [41]. The second, narrow continuum corresponds to the $X_{10}$ MX (e in the first and h in the zero LL). The lower continuum edge lies at the ground state energy $-0.574E_0$ of the $X_{10}$ MX. For the isolated MX, it is achieved at a finite momentum $\mathbf{K}l_B \simeq 1.19$; an inverse square-root van Hove singularity in the $X_{10}$ density of states is associated with this extremum in 2D. There is another extremum [41] in the $X_{10}$ dispersion at $\mathbf{K} = 0$ producing a finite jump in the $X_{10}$ density of states at an energy $-0.5E_0$. For the
\((n_e n_h) = (01)\) LLs, there is only one continuum formed by the X\(_{01}\) MX in the zero electron and first hole LLs (Fig. 4). The spectra of the isolated X\(_{01}\) and X\(_{10}\) neutral MXs are equivalent.

There is a number of low-lying bound X\(^-\) states. In the zero LLs, there is only one bound state, the triplet X\(_{00}\), with a small binding energy \(0.044 E_0\) (counted from the lower continuum edge, see Fig. 3) \([15, 16, 36]\). In the 2D system in the high-\(B\) limit, there are no bound singlet X\(^-\) states in the zero LLs. This is in contrast to the situation at \(B = 0\), where only the singlet X\(^-\) binds, and to quasi-2D systems at finite \(B\), where both singlet and triplet X\(^-\) states are bound \([16]\). In the next electron LL \((n_e n_h) = (10)\), there is also only one bound state, which is the triplet X\(_{10}\) with larger binding energy \(0.086 E_0\) \([36, 37]\). This resembles a stronger binding of the triplet donor ion D\(^-\) in the first electron LL and has the same physical origin, which is discussed in \([28, 36]\). In the next hole LL \((n_e n_h) = (01)\), there are many bound states, both triplets X\(_{00}\) (Fig. 5) and singlets X\(_{01}\); spectra for the latter have been presented elsewhere \([37]\).

4.2 Interband transitions

The spectra obtained for the X\(^-\) eigenstates, together with the selection rule (12), make it possible to qualitatively understand interband transitions involving both discrete bound X\(^-\) states and the continuum. As follows from (12), all 2e–h states that have negative total \(M_z < 0\) are dark in PL. An important example is the ground triplet X\(_{00}\) state in zero LLs that has \(M_z = -1\) (Fig. 3) and is therefore dark \([36]\). This result has also been found in the spherical geometry \([20]\). In the strictly-2D high-\(B\) limit it also follows \([15]\) from the “hidden symmetry” \([42–44]\) in e–h systems. Importantly, quasi-2D effects, admixture of higher LLs, or a complex character of the valence band \([36]\) will not make the ground X\(_{}^-\) state bright, as long as it remains at \(M_z < 0\). Finite-size calculations performed in the spherical geometry \([21]\) indicate that the second “bright” triplet X\(_{00}\) with \(M_z = 0\) may exist in quasi-2D systems at finite \(B\). High-accuracy calculations in plane geometries for realistic QW parameters give, however, a rather small binding energy \((0.15 \pm 0.1)\) meV for wide 300 Å GaAs QWs at high \(B\) and indicate that this state is unbound in 100 Å QWs.

Let us now consider bound states in higher LLs. The strongly bound triplet X\(_{10}\) state in the first electron LL \((10)\) has \(M_z = 1\) (Fig. 4). It is PL active only in the process X\(_{10}\) → e\(_0\) + photon, which leaves the electron in the first LL. This PL process has a large dipole transition matrix element. Consider now the absorption (Fig. 2b) involving the low-density 2DEG in the zero LL with final states belonging to the first electron LL. Such absorption processes were observed \([45]\) in the low-density 2DEG in magnetic fields and called a “Combined Exciton-Cyclotron Resonance” (ExCR). Due to the selection rule (10), the transitions to the bound triplet state e\(_0\) + photon → X\(_{10}\) and transitions to the excited bound states \((2e)–h\) are prohibited. Therefore, when the final states belong to the first electron LL, the ExCR processes can only go via transitions to the continuum. There are two overlapping continua in the \((10)\) LL (Fig. 4). Somewhat surprisingly, theory \([46]\) predicts that both channels e\(_0\) + photon → X\(_{00}\) + e\(_1\) and
all internal transitions are bound-to-bound, and there are no allowed photoionizing transitions in strong magnetic fields [27, 28]. In the \( \sigma^+ (\sigma^-) \) polarization the inter-LL e-CR-like \( \Delta n_z = 1 \) (h-CR-like \( \Delta n_h = 1 \)) transitions are strong and gain strength with \( B \) (Fig. 6). All other transitions are only due to LL mixing and are weak; transition matrix elements \( \sim [E_0/h\omega_{\text{ce}}(h)]^2 \sim B^{-1} \). The transitions must simultaneously satisfy the two selection rules (11): \( \Delta k = 0 \) and \( \Delta M_z = \pm 1 \).

Consider first the \( \sigma^+ \) polarization. Because of the selection rules, the bound-to-bound \( X_{t00} \rightarrow X_{t10}^- \) transition, which lies below the e-CR, is strictly prohibited in a translationally invariant system [36]. There are two channels of photoionizing transitions to the continuum: \( X_{t00}^- + \text{photon} \rightarrow X_{00}^- + e_0^- \) and \( X_{t00}^- + \text{photon} \rightarrow X_{t10}^- + e_0^- \), shown as transitions 1 and 2 in Fig. 6. Both have large oscillator strengths and intrinsic linewidths \( \sim 0.2E_0 \). The situation resembles the ExCR transitions discussed above. The corresponding double-peak structure in the singlet and triplet \( X^- \) inter-LL transitions has been observed experimentally [14].

In the \( \sigma^- \) polarization, there are two bound-to-bound [35] \( X_{t00}^- \rightarrow X_{t01}^- \) transitions with final states having \( M_z = -2 \) (transitions 3 and 4 in Fig. 6). Both transitions lie above the h-CR. There is also a broad photoionizing transition 5 to the \( X_{01}^- + e_0^- \) continuum. Note that transitions to many families of the bound \( X_{t01}^- \) states (see Fig. 5) are forbidden in a translationally invariant system. As the presence of disorder would make many of these transitions partly allowed, the spectra are expected to be sample dependent.

### 5. Many-Body Effects in Internal Transitions of Charged Magnetoexcitons

#### 5.1 Experiment

Optically detected resonance (ODR) spectroscopy combines visible/near-infrared photoluminescence (PL) with far-infrared (FIR) methods [47]: one monitors the changes in
the intensity and shape of the PL signal of a sample that are induced by the (resonant) absorption of radiation from a FIR laser. The sample is mounted inside a variable temperature insert in a liquid helium cryostat at the center of a superconducting magnet and is kept at low temperatures, typically 4.2 K. The external magnetic field (up to 15 T) is used to tune the various FIR transitions into resonance with the FIR laser photon energy, which ranges from 2.87 to 17.6 meV. Optical fibers are used to transport the exciting light and collect the PL signal, and a light pipe and condensing light cone system is used to guide and focus the FIR radiation to the sample inside the cryostat. The light intensity of the HeNe or Ar$^+$ ion excitation lasers is approximately 500 mW/cm², and the power of the FIR laser at the output coupler of the laser head lies between 20 and 80 mW. The FIR radiation is modulated with an external chopper at a frequency of approximately 200 Hz, and phase-sensitive, lock-in techniques are used to detect the induced changes in the PL signal, which are typically between 0.1 and 10% of the PL intensity.

Three GaAs/Al$_{0.3}$Ga$_{0.7}$As multiple quantum well samples, modulation-doped with silicon in the barriers, were studied. The structures of these low, medium, and high carrier density samples are [(well/barrier–thickness in Å) × repetitions]: sample 1: (200/400) × 40; sample 2: (240/480) × 20; and sample 3: (240/240) × 10.

Figure 7 shows ODR scans for all three samples taken at a FIR laser photon energy of 12.8 meV. In addition, the magnetic fields corresponding to electron filling factor $n_e = 2$, $B = 0.4$, 1.7, and 4.0 T, respectively, (determined by magneto-photoluminescence measurements) are indicated by the downward pointing arrows. The position of electron cyclotron resonance, present in all three traces, is marked by the vertical solid line at $B = 7.7$ T labeled e-CR. A second feature marked by the upward pointing arrow is observed at magnetic fields just below e-CR. It is identified as the triplet-like internal transition of $X^-$ [14, 36]. As the carrier density is increased (following the traces from top to bottom), this feature evolves from a shoulder to e-CR in the low density sample to a clear peak in the high density sample as it moves to lower magnetic fields and therefore experiences a blue-shift in energy. Other resonances observed at lower magnetic fields are identified as the internal singlet-like transitions of $X^-$ [14, 36].

![Fig. 7. ODR spectra of samples 1, 2, and 3, recorded for a FIR laser photon energy of 12.8 meV. The position of the e-CR is indicated by the solid vertical line, the triplet-like $X^-$ transition is marked by the upright arrows, and filling factor $n_e = 2$ is indicated for each sample by the downward pointing arrows. Inset: comparison of the blue-shift of $X^-$ and $D^-$ plotted as a function of magnetic field (see text for details).](image-url)
They are most notable in the low and medium density samples, but are not seen in the most heavily doped sample for which they would occur at fields below that corresponding to $\nu_e = 2$. This behavior is not the subject of the present discussion.

The inset to Fig. 7 shows that the experimentally observed blue-shift of the dominant internal $X^-$ transition extracted from the low and medium density samples is larger than the corresponding singlet-like transition of $D^-$ measured in a well- and barrier-doped GaAs multiple quantum-well (MQW) sample of similar dimensions and carrier concentration [48, 49].

5.2 Theory

To understand the experimental findings, we consider intraband excitations from the ground state of the 2D system with integer fillings of electron LLs $\nu_e = 2\pi\tilde{p}_e n_e = 1, 2$ containing a low-density gas of photoexcited mobile valence band holes (see Section 5.1). The collective excitations correspond to transitions to the correlated e–h final state. It can be viewed as an interacting few-particle system: The final state consists of the conduction band electron in the empty $n = 1$ LL, $e_{cb1}$, a conduction band hole in an otherwise filled $n = 0$ LL, $h_{cb0}$, and a mobile valence band hole in the $n = 0$ LL, $h_{vb0}$. Similar ideas have been exploited for a description of the interband PL from the 2DEG in high fields (see [50] and references therein to earlier work). Notice now that we can treat the final state as a positively charged complex $X^+$, with a strong exchange interaction between the particles $e_{cb1}$ and $h_{cb0}$. The intraband optical transition matrix element (Fig. 8a) resembles an interband transition (Fig. 2b). Classification of states and optical selection rules can therefore be formulated following the recipes of Sections 2 and 3.

In the absence of the valence band hole, the intraband collective excitations are charge-neutral 2D magnetoplasmons [40, 51]. They are characterized by the conserved CM momentum $\mathbf{K}$, have finite relative motion (a bound $e_{cb1}$–$h_{cb0}$ pair) and extended CM motion. Only $\mathbf{K} = 0$ magnetoplasmons are e-CR active and, due to Kohn’s theorem [38], have the bare cyclotron energy $\hbar\omega_{cc}$. Magnetoplasmons with $\mathbf{K} \neq 0$ form at $\nu_e = 1$ a band of finite width $E_0/2$. In the presence of the valence band hole, different $\mathbf{K}$ states are admixed into the three-particle $X^+$ eigenstate. Kohn’s theorem is no longer applicable, and many states acquire oscillator strength.

Calculations of the eigenspectra of the three-particle $2h$–e excitations and matrix elements of intraband optical transitions $h_{vb0} + \text{photon} \rightarrow \text{2h–e}$ (Fig. 8) were performed using a method that is similar to our
treatment of the $X^-$ states [36, 37]; a detailed account will be presented elsewhere. Here we discuss the spectra of transitions that have energies larger than the e-CR energy $E_{\text{CR}}$. For electron filling factor $n_e = 1$, there exists one rather sharp peak. It corresponds to the optically active $2h-e$ state, a three-particle resonance that lies within the magnetoplasmon continuum (Fig. 9). With increasing $n_e$, exchange-correlation effects are enhanced. As a result, the quasi-bound three-particle state shifts upward in energy. For filling factor $n_e = 2$ it moves out of the continuum and becomes a truly bound $2h-e$ state that is characterized by finite relative motions of all particles. For both $n_e = 1$ and 2, the optically active state describes a magnetoplasmon bound to the mobile valence band hole $h_{vb0}$. Note that with the increased energy separation from the optically-active e-CR mode, this state loses oscillator strength.

The energies of collective excitations are larger than the energy of the internal transition [14, 36] of the isolated $(n_e \rightarrow 0)$ triplet $X^-$. This means that $X^-$ transitions are blue-shifted in the presence of excess electrons. The calculated blue-shifts of the $X^-\rightarrow$ triplet at $n_e = 1$ and $n_e = 2$ are $0.28E_0$ and $0.49E_0$, respectively. This behavior resembles the blue-shift of the two-electron negative donor center $D^-$ in the presence of excess electrons [48, 49], which is understood in terms of magnetoplasmons localized on fixed donor ions $D^+$ [52, 53]. In the latter case the translational invariance is broken by the donor potential and classification of states is qualitatively different. Quantitatively, the blue-shifts of the $X^-$ and $D^-$ are comparable; for the latter they are given by $0.15E_0$ and $0.34E_0$ at $n_e = 1$ and 2, respectively [52]. In agreement with experiment, the predicted blue-shift of the $X^-$ is larger than that of the $D^-$ (see inset to Fig. 7).

6. Conclusions

Exact optical selection rules for inter- and intra-band transitions of charged $e–h$ complexes in magnetic fields have been discussed. We have considered in detail the struc-
ture of the 2D $X^-$ eigenspectra in several LLs. It has been shown that generally there exists a multitude of discrete bound $X^-$ states, both singlets and triplets, associated with higher LLs. Only few of these states are optically active in a translationally invariant system in a magnetic field.

The effect of excess electrons on internal transitions of charged MXs $X^-$ in quantum wells has been studied experimentally and theoretically. The observed blue shift is explained in terms of a new type of collective excitations, magnetoplasmons bound to a mobile valence hole.

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Appendix

In the Landau gauge, translational invariance is manifestly preserved in one direction [54]. It might seem that the implications due to the magnetic translations could be more transparent in this gauge. Here we show that for charged e–h complexes this is not the case: the existence of dark states remains in fact hidden in the Landau gauge. Fundamentally, this happens because in the Landau gauge the rotational symmetry of space is manifestly broken in the Hamiltonian. The choice of the symmetric gauge leaves both dynamical symmetries, rotations about the $B$ axis, and the magnetic translations, intact.

The transformation from the symmetric $A(r) = B \times r/2$ to the Landau gauge $A'(r) = (0, Bx, 0) = A(r) + \nabla f(r)$, where $f(r) = Bxy/2$, is realized with the help of the unitary operator $U = \exp \left( i \sum_j e_j Bf(r_j)/\hbar c \right)$ [54]. The eigenstates and operators in the Landau gauge will be denoted below by the tilde sign. As an example, the exact charged degenerate eigenstate in the $n$-th family with a $1D$ momentum $k_y$ is designated as $|\tilde{\Psi}_{k_y} \rangle$. The spin quantum numbers are omitted for brevity (cf. (7)). Consider in the Landau gauge the dipole transition matrix elements, analogous to Eq. (9), between the states from the $n$-th and $n'$-th families. The operator of the interaction with the radiation of polarization $s$ is $\tilde{V}_{n, n'} = \tilde{U} V_{n, n'} \tilde{U}^\dagger$ in this gauge. It conserves $k_y$, therefore $\langle \tilde{\Psi}_{k_y} | \tilde{V}^\dagger | \tilde{\Psi}_{k_y'\nu} \rangle \sim \delta(k_y - k_y')$. Also, $\tilde{D}_{\nu'\nu}(k_y) \equiv \langle \tilde{\Psi}_{k_y'\nu} | \tilde{V}^\dagger | \tilde{\Psi}_{k_y\nu} \rangle$ does not depend on $k_y$. Indeed, a state with some arbitrary $k_y'$, $|\tilde{\Psi}_{k_y'\nu} \rangle$, can be constructed from any other state in the same $\nu$-'th family, $|\tilde{\Psi}_{k_y, \nu} \rangle$, with the help of the unitary operator of translations in the momentum $k_y$ space, $\tilde{T}_{k_y}$,

$$|\tilde{\Psi}_{k_y'\nu} \rangle = \tilde{T}_{k_y' - k_y} |\tilde{\Psi}_{k_y, \nu} \rangle, \quad (A1)$$
$$\tilde{T}_{k_y} = \exp \left( -i\tilde{\mathbf{K}}^2 k_y / \hbar^2 B \right). \quad (A2)$$

This follows from the (gauge independent) commutation relation for the $x$- and $y$-components of the operator of the magnetic translations $[\tilde{K}_x, \tilde{K}_y] = i\hbar^2$ and from the commutativity of $\tilde{\mathbf{K}}$ with the Hamiltonian, $[\tilde{H}, \tilde{\mathbf{K}}] = 0$. Since $[\tilde{T}_{k_y}, \tilde{V}^\dagger] = [\tilde{T}_{k_y}^\dagger, \tilde{V}] = 0$, we
have
\[
\tilde{D}_{\nu \nu'}(k_y') = \langle \tilde{\Psi}_{k_y'} | \tilde{V}^\pm | \tilde{\Psi}_{k_y'} \rangle = \langle \tilde{\Psi}_{k_y} | \tilde{T}_{k_y}^\dagger \tilde{V}^\pm \tilde{T}_{k_y}^\dagger | \tilde{\Psi}_{k_y} \rangle \\
= \langle \tilde{\Psi}_{k_y} | \tilde{V}^\pm | \tilde{\Psi}_{k_y} \rangle = \tilde{D}_{\nu \nu}(k_y). 
\] (A3)

However, unlike the situation in the symmetric gauge, there are no PSs in the Landau gauge: states with arbitrary \( k_y \) are allowed. Therefore, we cannot proceed here as in Eq. (9). As a result, the fact that some of the families of states are dark turns out to be hidden in the Landau gauge. To make it apparent, one has to go back to the symmetric gauge

\[
|\tilde{\Psi}_{k_y} \rangle = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \alpha^{(v)}_{k_y}(k) \frac{1}{\sqrt{k!}} k^k |\psi_{M,v}^{(p)} \rangle, 
\] (A4)

where \( \alpha^{(v)}_{k_y}(k) \) are expansion coefficients, and we have used Eq. (7). Then, using (9) yields

\[
\tilde{D}_{\nu \nu}(k_y) = \left[ \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \alpha^{(v)}_{k_y}(k) \alpha^{(v')}_{k_y}(k) \right] D_{\nu \nu} = D_{\nu \nu'},
\] (A5)

where we have used the fact that \( \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \alpha^{(v)}_{k_y}(k) \alpha^{(v')}_{k_y}(k) = 1 \) for arbitrary families \( v, v' \).

This fact can be established by group-theoretical considerations [31]. It physically follows also from, e.g., the sum rule for the oscillator strengths and the fact that \( \tilde{D}_{\nu \nu'} \) does not depend on \( k_y \). Above we have not used a concrete form of the gauge transformation \( \tilde{U} \). Therefore, we have proved that the dipole transition matrix element \( D_{\nu \nu'} \) — a characteristic of two macroscopically degenerate families of charged states — is gauge-invariant, as it should be.

References
