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Published paper
Lifetime and polarization of the radiative decay of excitons, biexcitons and trions in CdSe nanocrystal quantum dots

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Abstract

Using the pseudopotential configuration-interaction method, we calculate the intrinsic lifetime and polarization of the radiative decay of single excitons ($X$), positive and negative trions ($X^+$ and $X^-$), and biexcitons ($XX$) in CdSe nanocrystal quantum dots. We investigate the effects of the inclusion of increasingly more complex many-body treatments, starting from the single-particle approach and culminating with the configuration interaction scheme. Our configuration-interaction results for the size dependence of the single-exciton radiative lifetime at room temperature are in excellent agreement with recent experimental data. We also find that (i) whereas the polarization of the bright exciton emission is always perpendicular to the hexagonal c axis, the polarization of the dark exciton switches from perpendicular to parallel to the hexagonal c axis in large dots, in agreement with experiment. (ii) The ratio of the radiative lifetimes of mono- and bi-excitons $\tau(X):\tau(XX)$ is $\sim 1:1$ in large dots (R=19.2 Å). This ratio increases with decreasing nanocrystal size, approaching 2 in small dots (R=10.3 Å). (iii) The calculated ratio $\tau(X^+):\tau(X^-)$ between positive and negative trion lifetimes is close to 2 for all dot sizes considered.
I. INTRODUCTION

Optically-generated excitons in nanocrystal quantum dots (NQDs) can exist as neutral mono-excitons $X$ (one electron, one hole, or e-h), charged excitons $X^\mp$ (e-2h), or $X$ (2e-h), bi-excitons $XX$ (2e-2h), etc. (see Fig. 1). Previous experimental studies have shown [1] that the decay of $XX$ in CdSe NQDs occurs on a fast, sub-100 ps time scale, due to efficient non-radiative Auger recombination, compared to the $\sim$20 ns time scale for the radiative decay of $X$. Fast Auger lifetimes were indeed predicted [2] for $X^+$, $X^-$ and $XX$ in CdSe NQDs. The efficiency of the non-radiative Auger process is evidenced by the fact that injection of additional electrons into the quantum confined states of CdSe nanocrystals leads [3] to a quenching of the PL. As a result, radiative e-h recombination is undetectable in time-integrated photoluminescence (PL) experiments. A signature of the radiative decay of $XX$ has only recently been observed [4] as a low energy shoulder of the monoexciton PL peak using time-resolved, femtosecond PL measurements. The situation is different for CdSe/ZnSe self-assembled quantum dots, where, due to a less efficient non-radiative (Auger) recombination mechanism, the lifetimes for the radiative decay of $X$, $X^\mp$ and $XX$ have been measured [5]. The ratio between exciton and biexciton radiative lifetime was found to be [5] $\tau(X) : \tau(XX) \sim 2:1$. 
In this paper we will address, using the pseudopotential configuration-interaction (CI) method, the radiative lifetime and the polarization of the band-edge emission of excitons, charged excitons, and biexcitons in CdSe colloidal quantum dots.

Radiative lifetimes: Calculating the radiative lifetimes of excitonic and multi-excitonic states is interesting from a theoretical standpoint, because it allows one to determine the effects of the presence of additional carriers (with or without a total net charge) on the radiative recombination of an electron-hole pair. We find that in large dots (R=19.2 Å) the ratio between the lifetimes of the exciton and the biexciton bright states [6] \( \tau(X):\tau(XX) \sim 1:1 \), and increases with decreasing size,
approaching 2:1 in small dots (R=10.3 Å). Our calculated ratio \( \tau(X^+):\tau(X^-) \) is also close to 2 for all dot sizes considered here. Another interesting question is the size dependence of the monoexciton radiative lifetime. We will compare our results with recent experimental results, which show an increase of the radiative lifetime with the dot size. We will also discuss the role of correlation effects in determining the size dependence of the radiative lifetime.

**Polarization of band-edge emission:** Electron-hole exchange interactions split the lowest excitonic manifold of CdSe quantum dots into a lower-energy, “dark” exciton (with a long radiative lifetime) and a higher-energy, “bright” exciton. We find that emission from the bright exciton is always polarized perpendicular to the wurtzite c-axis for all dot sizes considered here. In the case of the emission from the dark exciton, we will show that correlation effects, introduced via configuration interaction, lead in large dots to a rotation of the polarization from perpendicular to parallel to the wurtzite c-axis.

The paper is structured as follows: After a brief overview of our theoretical approach, we introduce the electronic structure of single excitons, positive and negative trions, and bi-excitons, both in the single-particle picture and in the many-particle picture. We then discuss the evolution of energy levels, intrinsic radiative lifetimes and polarization of the band edge transitions of the single exciton through increasingly more complex many-body treatments, starting from the single-particle approach and culminating with the full CI method. We then compare the calculated size dependence of the \( X \) radiative lifetime with recent experimental data. Finally, we discuss the radiative lifetime and polarization of bi-excitons (\( XX \)) and charged excitons (\( X^+ \) and \( X^- \)).
II. METHOD

We consider here three CdSe wurtzite spherical dots of radius $R = 10.3$, 14.6, and 19.2 Å, whose surface is passivated by ligand potentials [7]. The single-particle energies $\epsilon_i$ and wave functions $\psi_i$ are computed using the semiempirical, non-local pseudopotential method described in Refs. [8,9]. The pseudopotential is derived from bulk LDA calculations and is adjusted to remove LDA errors in band gaps and effective masses. The single-particle Schrödinger equation is solved using a plane-wave basis set and including spin-orbit coupling. The excitonic wave functions $\Psi^{(i)}$ are then expanded in terms of single-substitution Slater determinants $\Phi_{v,c}$ constructed from the single-particle conduction ($c$) and valence ($v$) wave functions:

$$\Psi^{(i)} = \sum_{v=1}^{N_v} \sum_{c=1}^{N_c} C_{v,c}^{(i)} \Phi_{v,c}. \quad (1)$$

The many-body Hamiltonian is solved within the framework of the CI scheme, where we use a position-dependent screening for the Coulomb and exchange integrals. More details on the CI method can be found in Ref. [9]. In the present work, the Slater determinants are built using $N_v=30$ valence states and $N_c=7$ conduction states, corresponding to CI basis sets of 840 configurations for the monoexciton, 5,460 configurations for the negative trion, 24,780 for the positive trion, and 161,070 configurations for the biexciton. In our approach, the effects of charged carriers (electrons and holes) on the electronic structure are accounted for by the many-particle CI expansion. Figure 2 shows, for both $X$ and $XX$, the CI convergence of the radiative lifetimes and energies of the transitions labeled 2 in Figs. 1a and 1d. We see that the lifetime converges with a basis set of 15 valence states and 4 conduction states, while the convergence of the energy is slower.
The radiative lifetime for the transition $\Psi^{(i)} \rightarrow \Psi^{(j)}$ is obtained in the framework of standard time-dependent perturbation theory [10]:

$$\left( \frac{1}{\tau_{ij}} \right) = \frac{4nF\alpha\omega_{ij}}{3c^2}|M_{i,j}|^2, \quad (2)$$

where $n$ is the refractive index of the medium surrounding the nanocrystal, $F = 3\varepsilon/(\varepsilon_{\text{NQD}} + 2\varepsilon)$ is the screening factor (here $\varepsilon = n^2$ and $\varepsilon_{\text{NQD}}$ is the dielectric constant of the NQD), $\alpha$ is the fine structure constant, $\hbar\omega_{ij}$ is the transition energy, $c$ is the speed of light in the vacuum, and $M_{i,j}$ is the CI dipole matrix element. In the case of a single exciton, for example, we have

$$M_{i,j} = \sum_{v,c} C_{v,c}^{(i)} C_{v,c}^{(j)} \langle \psi_v | \mathbf{r} | \psi_c \rangle, \quad (3)$$

where the coefficients $C_{v,c}^{(i)}$ are given by Eq. (1). The dielectric constant of the dot is calculated using a modified Penn model; we find $\varepsilon_{\text{NQD}} = 4.8$ for $R=10.3\text{Å}$, 5.3 for $R=14.6\text{Å}$, and 5.6 for $R=19.2\text{Å}$. Here we use the refractive index of toluene ($n=1.496$). This choice allows us to discuss...
the behavior of $\tau$ in realistic systems (typically $n$ ranges [11] from 1.375 for hexane to 1.496 for toluene), without however losing generality. Indeed, it has recently been found experimentally [12] that the influence of the solvent refractive index on the PL lifetime of CdSe NQDs is small, consistently with the observed [13] insensitivity of the absorption cross section of CdSe NQDs on the solvent refractive index.

The polarization of the emitted light is determined according to:

$$P_\beta = \frac{I_\beta}{I_\perp + I_\parallel}.$$ (4)

where $\beta = ||, \perp$ and $I_\parallel, I_\perp$ are the intensities of the emitted light along the nanocrystal $z$ axis (oriented along the $c$ axis of the wurtzite lattice structure) and perpendicular to it, respectively.

### III. RESULTS

**A. From the single-particle level ladder to the many-particle excitonic ladder**

Figure 1 (upper panels), shows schematically the single-particle levels of CdSe NQDs occupied by $N = 2$, 3 and 4 particles. They are labeled as $e_i$ and $h_i$, where $i = 1 \cdots n$ increases from the VBM = $h_1$ to lower-energy states and from the CBM = $e_1$ to higher-energy states. The envelope functions of the first four hole states $h_1 - h_4$ have, respectively, $s, s, p$ and $p$ angular momentum component, whereas the first two electron states $e_1$ and $e_2$ have mostly $s$ and, respectively, $p$ character. The lowest energy excitonic states studied here derive from combinations of the uppermost four hole states $h_1 - h_4$ and the lowest electron state $e_1$. As the energy separation between $e_1$ and $e_2$ is of the order of 300 meV for a R=19.2Å CdSe NQD, and increase to about 600 meV for a R=10.3 Å dot, excitons derived from electron states higher than $e_1$ are highly excited, and therefore will not be
considered in this work (they are however included in the expansion of the many-particle wave functions). The lower panel of Fig. 1 shows a schematic diagram of the calculated excitonic ladder.

B. Many-body effects on the transition energies and radiative lifetimes of neutral single excitons

We will analyze the excitonic energies and radiative decay times by decomposing the final CI results into four simple, physically recognizable terms, each corresponding to a different level of many-body treatment (denoted as LMT 1 - LMT 4 in order of increasing level of sophistication):

1. The single-particle level (LMT 1), where only the eigenvalues $\varepsilon_i$ and the corresponding eigenfunctions $\psi_i$ are used. Inter-electronic Coulomb, exchange and correlation effects are neglected. The excitons have no binding and are highly degenerate.

2. Addition of the screened electron-hole direct Coulomb integrals (LMT 2). This perturbative correction leads to binding of the excitons and to spectral red shifts.

3. The single-configuration level (LMT 3), in which Coulomb and exchange interactions within a single excitonic multiplet ($e_i h_j$) (single configuration) are included, but the interaction between different configurations is omitted. This leads to excitonic level splittings, and to a lowering of the degeneracies.

4. The full CI level (LMT 4), which includes correlations as well as intra-configuration Coulomb and exchange interactions. Here all the configurations in the CI expansion are allowed to interact. All inter-electronic direct and exchange Coulomb integrals are screened (= Bethe-Salpeter approach).

Our results are as follows:
(1) At the single-particle level (LMT 1) all single-exciton states $X$ are 4-fold degenerate, due to the Kramer's degeneracy of the single-particle states. The two lowest exciton levels are derived, respectively, from $(e_1 h_1)$ and from $(e_1 h_2)$, and are both optically active (large oscillator strength). The next two exciton levels are derived from $(e_1 h_3)$ and $(e_1 h_4)$. Due to the different symmetry of the electron and hole envelope functions, they are optically inactive (small oscillator strength).

From Fig. 3a we see that at the single-particle level the exciton radiative lifetime $\tau(X)$ decreases as the band gap increases, i.e., as the size is reduced. This is due to the factor $\tau^{-1} \propto \omega_m^3$ in Eq. (2), which overcomes the decrease of the dipole matrix elements $|M_{ij}|^2$ with increasing gap (Fig. 3b), leading to an overall decrease of $\tau(X)$ with $E_g = \hbar \omega$.

(2) Adding, via first order perturbation theory [9], the electron-hole Coulomb interaction to the single-particle approximation, leads to a (level-dependent) shift of all excitonic levels (and consequently of the energy gap) to lower energies. This shift, which decreases with increasing NQD size from ~400 meV for a R=10.3Å dot, to ~200 meV for a R=19.2Å dot, leaves the degeneracy of the levels, the allowed/forbidden character of the optical transitions and the dipole matrix elements $M_{ij}$ unchanged. However, the dependence of the lifetime on the transition energy $\omega$ in Eq. (2) leads to a size-dependent increase in $\tau(X)$, when compared to the single-particle level (LMT 1). According to Eq. (2), we have

$$\tau^{(SP+C)} = \left( \frac{E_g^{(SP)}}{E_g^{(SP+C)}} \right)^3 \tau^{(SP)},$$

where “SP” and “SP+C” stand for Single-Particle (LMT 1) and Single-Particle + Coulomb (LMT 2), respectively. Thus, the inclusion of electron-hole interactions results in an increase of the lifetime by a factor $\left( E_g^{(SP)} / E_g^{(SP+C)} \right)^3$, ranging from 1.5 for the smallest dot (where $\tau$ increases from
5.1 ns to 7.6 ns), to ~1.3 for the largest dot where \( \tau \) increases from 7 ns to 9 ns. As shown in Fig. 3a, where \( \tau \) and the relative \( E_g \) are calculated consistently within the same many-body approach (i.e., \( \tau^{(SP)} \) is plotted vs. \( E_g^{(SP)} \)), the radiative lifetime in this approximation still shows an increase with nanocrystal size.

(3) In the single-configuration approximation (LMT 3), Coulomb and exchange matrix elements between states within a single excitonic configuration are taken into account. The lowest exciton manifold - derived from the configuration \((e_1 h_1)\) - splits [9] into two 2-fold degenerate states (Fig.1, lower panel): a lower energy, nearly spin-forbidden “dark” state \(X_D\) (denoted by a dashed line in Fig.1), and a higher energy, optically allowed “bright” state \(X_B\) (solid line). Their radiative recombination transitions are labeled 1 and 2 in the lower panel of Fig. 1a. \(X_D\) and \(X_B\) are separated by the exchange splitting energy \(\Delta_{ex}\), ranging in energy from ~5 to ~16 meV for dots with sizes R=19.2 - 10.3Å. Above the lowest \(X_D\) and \(X_B\) excitons are four exciton states derived from \(e_1\) and \(h_2\). They have degeneracy of 1, 2 and 1 and are, respectively, dark, bright and bright. Their separation from the lowest \((e_1 h_1)\)-derived excitons is of the order of 25-30 meV. We find that, in the single-configuration approximation, \(\tau(X_D)\) is in the ms range, and increases with increasing dot size from 7.7 ms for a R=10.3Å dot, to 720 ms for a R=19.2Å dot. Interestingly, in the effective mass approximation [14] the lowest-energy exciton is completely dark, and therefore has infinite radiative lifetime. As a result, other mechanisms were invoked to explain the observed finite lifetime of the dark exciton [14]. In our pseudopotential calculations, emission from the lowest-energy exciton has finite oscillator strength (and thus finite lifetime), because of the atomistic character of the band-edge single-particle wave functions and the coupling with higher-energy excitonic configurations in the many-body CI Hamiltonian. Recent atomistic calculations [15] have
shown that, in the presence of surface states, the lowest-energy exciton acquires significant oscillator strength, due to the mixing of dark and bright excitonic states.

(4) Inclusion of correlations via configuration interaction (LMT 4) lets \((e_i h_j)\)-derived excitons interact with \((e_k h_m)\)-derived excitons. This leads to a further red shift of the exciton energies, without, however, introducing additional level splittings [9]. The bright exciton lifetime \(\tau(X_B)\) increases by a factor of about 2 in a R=10.3Å dot, whereas it remains almost unchanged in the largest dot (R=19.2 Å). Interestingly, as we see from Fig. 3a, the contribution of correlation to the radiative lifetime has opposite sign in small (R=10.3 and R=14.6Å) and large (R=19.2Å) dots. Correlation effects lead to an increase of \(\tau(X_B)\) with \(E_g\) (i.e., with decreasing dot size), thus reversing the trend of LMT 1 theory. The effects of correlation are even more pronounced on the dark exciton radiative lifetimes, leading, for a R=19.2Å NQD, to a two order of magnitude decrease of \(\tau(X_D)\), compared to the single-configuration approximation (from 720 to 8.2 ms). In smaller NQDs, correlation effects lead to a less dramatic decrease in the dark-exciton lifetime, yielding \(\tau(X_D)=1.5\) ms in a R=10.3Å dot.
**Fig. 3** Dependence of (a) the radiative lifetime and (b) the dipole matrix elements on the energy gap, for different levels of complexity in the many body treatment for the lowest energy optically allowed transition of the monoexciton $X$ at zero temperature: (1) single-particle (LMT 1), (2) single-particle plus electron-hole direct Coulomb attraction (LMT 2), (3) single-configuration (LMT 3), and (4) full configuration interaction (LMT 4). We plot consistently $\tau^{(L)}(X_B)$ and $|M^{(L)}(X_B)|^2$ vs. $E_g^{(L)}$, where $L=1-4$ represents the many-body level.

**C. Reversal of polarization of the dark band edge monoexciton transition**

Perhaps the most impressive effect of correlations is a change of the polarization of the dark-exciton transitions as a function of size. At LMT 1, 2 and 3 the dark band edge excitonic transition (labeled 1 in Fig. 1a) is 100% polarized perpendicular to the nanocrystal $z$ axis (i.e., the wurtzite $c$ axis). However, correlation effects, introduced via CI at LMT 4, yield a size-dependent decrease of the degree of linear polarization [Eq. (4)] of the dark exciton, leading to an inversion of the polarization for a $R=19.2\,\text{Å}$ NQD, where the dark exciton transition becomes mainly polarized...
along the z axis (Fig. 4a). This effect occurs even using only three valence states and one conduction state \([N_v=3\) and \(N_c=1\) in Eq.(1)] in the expansion of the excitonic wave function, corresponding to a basis set of 12 configurations for \(X\). The bright exciton decay has always perpendicular polarization, as already pointed out by Efros et al. [14]. A switch of the luminescence polarization alignment with time from parallel to perpendicular to the initial absorbing dipole was observed experimentally by Bawendi et al. [16] in 32Å-diameter NQDs. They found that the emission followed a two-component decay, where the slow component (identified as originating from the decay of a “dark” state) had opposite polarization compared to the fast component (originating from the decay of an optically excited state).

**Fig. 4** Radiative lifetimes at zero temperature as a function of emission energy for the various excitonic states considered here. Bright (solid lines) and dark (dashed lines) transitions are labeled according to Fig. 1. The subscript \(z\) denotes transitions polarized along the \(z\) axis. The arrows mark the position of the fundamental transition (labeled 1 in Fig. 1) from the \(N\)-particle ground state to the \((N-2)\)-particle ground state.
D. Size-dependence of the exciton radiative lifetime and comparison with experiment

The scaling of the radiative lifetime with nanocrystal size has been extensively studied and different expressions have been proposed in the literature so far [14,17,18]. Models with various degrees of sophistication, invoked to justify different experimental findings, predict either a decrease [14] or an increase [17,18] of \( \tau(X_B) \) with dot size. Among the latter there is, however, disagreement about the value of the positive exponent \( \gamma \) in the expression \( \tau \propto R^\gamma \). As discussed above, the size dependence of the radiative lifetime is the result of a competition between two opposite trends when the dot size is reduced: A decrease in the overlap of electron and hole wave functions (leading to smaller dipole matrix elements \( M_{ij} \)) and an increase in the magnitude of the excitonic gap due to increased confinement (leading to larger values of \( \omega_{ij} \)).

Recently van Driel et al. [18], using the fact that the dipole matrix elements are related to the momentum matrix elements by \( \langle 0 \mid \mathbf{p} \mid j \rangle = i \hbar \mathbf{v} \langle 0 \mid r \mid j \rangle \), have expressed the rate of spontaneous radiative decay as \( \Gamma_j \propto \omega_j \langle 0 \mid p \mid j \rangle^2 \). They have then argued that since \( \langle 0 \mid p \mid j \rangle = \langle \mu_c \mid p \mid \mu_v \rangle \) (where \( \mu_c \) and \( \mu_v \) are the Bloch function of the conduction and valence bands, respectively), the momentum matrix elements do not depend on the size of the NQD, and therefore \( \Gamma_j \propto \omega_j \). Our pseudopotential calculations show that in the single-particle approximation the momentum matrix elements depend slightly on the NQD size (with a variation of about 7% from a dot with \( R=10.3 \) Å to one with \( R=19.2 \) Å). If we take into account the size dependence of the screening factor \( F \) in Eq. (2) - which depends on the nanocrystal size via the dielectric constant of the dot - we find that the quantity \( P^2 = F \langle 0 \mid p \mid j \rangle^2 \) is approximately constant, leading to \( \Gamma_j \propto \omega_j \). This result remains valid when excitonic effects are included in the single-configuration approximation (LMT 2 and 3).
Our full-CI calculations (LMT 4), however, predict a strong size dependence for $P^2$, which is found to increase with the nanocrystal radius.

Until recently no systematic experimental study of the size dependence of the radiative decay in CdSe NQDs had been carried out. The trend that could be extrapolated, based on the few available experimental data [19-23] for NQDs of different sizes, was that of a slight decrease of the radiative lifetime with increasing dot size. However, a recent experimental paper by van Driel et al. [18] showed an increase of the radiative lifetime with size for CdSe quantum dots at room temperature (see Fig. 5, solid circles and empty triangles). The authors interpreted their results in terms of a multi-level model in which thermal population of optically-dark excited states from a bright ground state is invoked to explain the alleged supra-linear dependence of the decay rate with emission frequency [18]. This model however does not yield quantitative agreement with experiment, even when resorting to accurate tight-binding calculations of the exciton states (which underestimate the decay rate by 75% [18]). Indeed, it has long been established [9,14] that in CdSe NQDs the lowest-energy exciton level is dark, while the next exciton level (a few meV higher in energy) is bright (see Fig. 1a). These levels are followed by a multiplet (25-30 meV higher in energy) consisting of one dark and two bright exciton levels [9,14]. Therefore, the assumption used in Ref. [18] that the lowest-energy exciton state is bright while higher-energy states are dark appears to oversimplify the exciton electronic structure.
Fig. 5 (Color online) Room temperature experimental [18] PL decay rates deduced from a single exponential fit (black solid circles) and the average arrival time (black open triangles), compared with thermally averaged radiative rates at room temperature \(\langle 1/\tau(X) \rangle\) calculated with the semi-empirical pseudopotential method in the single-configuration (diamonds), and full-CI (squares) approximations. The dotted line is a linear fit to the solid circles (disregarding the second to last point), showing that the data points have a linear dependence on the emission energy.

In order to compare our results with the experimental data of van Driel et al. [18], we have calculated the room-temperature thermal average of the radiative rate \(\langle \tau(X) \rangle\), where the contributions of higher excitonic states were included. We find that the room-temperature radiative lifetime is mainly due to thermal mixing of \(X_D\) and \(X_B\). However, as the quantum dot size increases, contributions from higher-energy excitonic states become significant, as these states become closer in energy to \(X_B\). This effect balances the size dependence of the intrinsic lifetime \(\tau(X_B)\), yielding similar values for \(\langle \tau(X) \rangle\) in both the \(R=19.2\AA\) and the \(R=14.6\AA\) dots (the lifetime of the smallest dot is, however, still longer). Our results for the thermally averaged rates in the single-configuration (solid diamonds) and full-CI (solid squares) approximations are compared with the experimental data of van Driel et al. [18] in Fig. 5. The single-configuration rates perfectly fit the
experimental average arrival time for both dot sizes, whereas the CI rates show a better agreement for the larger dot. We note, however, that the overall quantitative agreement with experiment is excellent in this size range, especially considering the poor agreement of both EMA and tight-binding calculations [18]. As mentioned above, the difference between single-configuration and full-CI calculations is the inclusion of correlations in the latter. Based on the comparison with the above experimental rates and our calculated single-configuration rates, such inclusion seems to underestimate the dipole matrix elements for the smallest dot considered here (see also Fig. 3b).

E. Radiative recombination of biexcitons

The singly degenerate biexcitonic ground state derives from the configuration \((e_i^2 h_i^2)\) (Fig. 1d), and is followed, at higher energies, by a “dark” state derived from \((e_i^2 h_i^1 h^1_i)\). The identity and the optical nature of higher-energy excitonic levels depend on the dot size. In the R=10.3Å dot, the next (third) state derives from \((e_i^2 h^1_i h^1_i)\) and is bright. It is followed by a dark and by a bright state derived, respectively, from \((e_i^2 h^1_i h^1_i)\) and \((e_i^2 h_i^1 h_i^1)\). In the R=14.6Å dot, instead, the third state is dark and derives from \((e_i^2 h_i^1 h_i^1)\). Two bright states derived from \((e_i^2 h_i^1 h_i^1)\) follow higher in energy. Similarly, in the R=19.2Å dot the states above the lowest two singly degenerate levels are dark, bright, and bright, respectively. However, in this case they derive from \((e_i^2 h_i^1 h_i^1)\), \((e_i^2 h_i^1 h_i^1)\), and \((e_i^2 h_i^1 h_i^1)\), respectively.

Figure 4d shows our calculated energies, radiative decay times and polarization for the biexciton transitions labeled 1-10 in Fig. 1d. Assuming that biexcitons thermalize to the lowest energy level before recombining, at T~0 one would see in emission only transitions from the bi-exciton ground state to all optically allowed monoexciton levels. However, in Fig. 4d we also show lifetimes for
transitions from higher biexcitonic states, due to their importance in room temperature emission where higher-energy levels are thermally populated. Interestingly, transition 1 in Fig. 1d, i.e. the decay from the ground state biexciton to the ground state monoexciton, is dark and z-polarized, as is the monoexciton band-edge transition (transition 1 in Fig. 1a).

The size dependence of both the energy and the radiative lifetime of transition 2 in Fig. 1d are shown in Fig. 6. We see that the transition energy is very close to that of $X_B$ for all dot sizes, and decreases with increasing dot size. The radiative lifetime is only weakly size-dependent, compared to the decrease of the $X_B$ radiative lifetime with increasing size. The ratio of the two lifetimes approaches 2 for the smallest dot and is close to 1 for R=19.2Å. In self-assembled CdSe/ZnSe dots the ratio $\tau(X_B):\tau(XX_B) \sim 2:1$ was found both in ensemble [24] and in single dot [5] measurements (for dots with exciton emission between 2.25 and 2.38 eV). However in the latter system, the decay of both exciton and biexciton occurs on a sub-ns time scale at low temperature.
Fig. 6 Size dependence of (a) the radiative lifetime and (b) the corresponding transition energy of the lowest optically-allowed transition for $X$, $XX$ (transitions labeled 2 in Fig. 4a and Fig. 4d: solid lines, circles), $X^+$ and $X^-$ (transitions labeled 1 in Fig. 4b and Fig. 4c: dashed lines, squares) at zero temperature. In (b) the transition energies of $XX_B$, $X^+$ and $X^-$ are plotted relative to $E(X_B)$.

F. The trions

In the trion ground state the two identical particles are in a spin singlet state, and therefore the trion ground state does not exhibit exchange splitting. The positive trion $X^+$ (N=3 in Fig. 1b) shows a bright ground state derived from $(e^1_i h^2_i)$, followed by three dark states derived from $(e^1_i h^1_i h^1_j)$, two dark states derived from $(e^1_i h^1_j h^1_i)$, and two bright states derived from $(e^1_i h^1_i h^1_j)$. Radiative recombination of $X^+$ (N=3) results in a final state with N=1, i.e. a singly occupied hole level $h_i$. The two lowest-energy states of the negative trion $X^-$ (N=3 in Fig. 1c) are bright and derive, respectively, from $(e^2_i h^1_i)$ and $(e^2_i h^1_j)$. The next two levels are derived from $(e^2_i h^1_i)$ and $(e^2_i h^1_j)$ and are dark. $X^-$ decays radiatively into a single electron state $e_j$.

The zero-temperature transition energies, polarizations and radiative lifetimes of positive and negative trions are shown in Fig. 4b and Fig. 4c, respectively. The size dependence of the energy and radiative lifetime of the lowest trion transition (labeled 1 in Fig. 4) are shown in Fig. 6. We find that while the transition energies of $X^-$ and $X^+$ are very close, and decrease with increasing nanocrystal size (Fig. 6b), the radiative lifetime of $X^+$ is nearly twice as large as that of $X^-$ (Fig. 6a). We also find that, at room temperature, the emission energy of $X$ and $X^+$ almost coincide for all dot sizes, so it may be difficult to resolve spectroscopically the emission from $X^+$. However, from
Fig. 4 and Fig. 6 we see that the emission of both $X$ and $XX$ should be detectable as a low-energy shoulder in the PL originating from $X$, in agreement with recent experimental observations [4].

IV. CONCLUSIONS

We investigated the properties (lifetimes, transition energies and polarization) of the radiative emission of monoexcitons, biexcitons, and positive and negative trions in CdSe nanocrystal quantum dots. In the case of the single exciton, we decomposed the final CI results into simple, physically recognizable contributions that derive from increasingly more complex many-body treatments. Our results are in excellent agreement with available experimental data on (i) the size-dependence of the exciton lifetime and (ii) the degree of polarization of the decay from the lowest dark monoexciton.

This work was supported by the U.S. DOE-SC-BES, Division of Materials Science, under the Nanoscience Initiative DOE LAB 03-17. M.C. gratefully acknowledges support from the Royal Society under the University Research Fellowship scheme.
REFERENCES


[6] In an exciton with $N$ particles we define as “bright” (“dark”) states that are optically accessible (inaccessible) from the ground state of the excitonic configuration with $(N-2)$ particles.


