Electronic structure and x-ray magnetic circular dichroism in the Mn₃CuN perovskite

V.N. Antonov and L.V. Bekenov

Institute for Metal Physics, 36 Vernadsky Str., Kiev 03142, Ukraine E-mail: antonov@imp.kiev.ua

Received February 20, 2014, published online May 21, 2014

The electronic and magnetic structures of Mn_3CuN are investigated theoretically from first principles using the fully relativistic Dirac LMTO band structure method. Mn_3CuN possesses a magnetic phase transition at T_C = 143 K from a high temperature paramagnetic phase to a low temperature ferromagnetic one with a noncollinear magnetic structure. The transition is accompanied by a structural change from the cubic to the tetragonal lattice. In low temperature phase two Cu moments and two Mn moments (Mn_2 and Mn_3) ferromagnetically align along the c axis while other four Mn_1 magnetic moments are canted from the c axis to [111] direction by angle Θ = \pm 76.2. The x-ray absorption spectra and x-ray magnetic circular dichroism (XMCD) spectra of Mn_3CuN are investigated theoretically from first principles. The origin of the XMCD spectra in the Mn_3CuN compound is examined. The calculated results are compared with the experimental data.

PACS: 75.50.Cc Other ferromagnetic metals and alloys;

71.20.Lp Intermetallic compounds;

71.15.Rf Relativistic effects.

Keywords: electronic structure, ternary manganese compounds.

1. Introduction

Ternary manganese compounds with a formula Mn_3MX (M = Ga, Sn, Zn, Cu and X = C and N) and the cubic crystal structure of a perovskite type have attracted much interest due to the peculiar relationship between lattice and magnetism which leads to a large variety of magnetic orderings and structural transformations [1–9]. The control of magnetostructural correlations in a magnetic metal is extremely important in various advanced industrial applications. By tuning the magnetostructural correlations, various useful functions, such as ferromagnetic shape memory effect [10,11], negative thermal expansion [12], and magnetocaloric effects [13,14], have been developed. In particular, magnetostruction [15], one of the most important properties of a magnetic metal, has a high potential for practical applications, such as in actuators and magnetic switching devices.

One of the most attractive materials exhibiting magnetostructural correlations are antiperovskite manganese nitrides Mn_3MN (M: transitional metal or semiconducting element) [8]. The antiperovskites possess so called magnetovolume effect (MVE), such as negative thermal expansion (NTE) [16–20]. A large volume expansion in antiperovskite manganese nitrides is triggered by magnetic

transition from high-temperature (high-T) paramagnetic (PM) phase to low-temperature (low-T) antiferromagnetic (AF) or ferromagnetic (FM) ordered phases. Another type of the peculiar relationship between the lattice and magnetism is the shape deformation by external magnetic field or magnetostriction. Magnetostriction often occurs without the volume change and it provides information complementary to that obtained from the volume effect. From a technological viewpoint, shape control by external field is one of the most important functions of metallic ferromagnets and has high potential in the design of actuating devices and sensors [15]. Shibayama and Takenaka [21] explored the magnetostriction in Mn₃CuN. It is exceptionally ferromagnetic among antiperovskite manganese nitrides Mn₃MN (M: Zn, Ga, Ag, etc.) most of which are antiferromagnetic. They found that Mn₃CuN exhibits large magnetostriction up to 0.2% even in a polycrystalline. This magnetostriction can be reasonably explained in terms of the rearrangement of thermoelastic martensite variants by the magnetic field; that is, Mn₃CuN can be classified as a FM shape memory alloy. Generally, magnetostriction originates from anisotropy in the wave function of the electrons that induce a magnetic moment. The anisotropy of the electron cloud produces magnetocrystalline anisotropy,

that is, a tendency for a magnetic moment to align along a certain crystallographic direction, which is a dominant factor for magnetostriction in an FM shape memory alloy. In the case of Mn₃CuN, however, large magnetocrystalline anisotropy is not expected because the 3*d* orbitals of Mn are almost half-filled, resulting in an almost isotropic electron cloud, and because the crystallographic anisotropy of Mn₃CuN is much smaller than that of typical FM shape memory alloys.

Mn₃CuN undergoes the first-order transition from a high-T PM to a low-T FM phase at the Curie temperature $T_C = 143$ K [22]. At T_C , the structural deformation simultaneously occurs from a high-T cubic unit cell (Pm3m) to a low-T tetragonal one with shorter c axis, T_1^- (c/a < 1, P4/mmm), but the volume is conservative. The lattice parameters a and c are 3.9075 Å and 3.8502 Å at 100 K, respectively, and the tetragonality c/a is estimated to be 0.9853 [23]. In Mn₃CuN the results of neutron diffraction show that the magnetic moments of Mn atoms are much smaller than the 4–5 μ_B observed in other ordered manganese alloys [8]. This result indicates a strong itinerant character of 3d electrons of Mn atoms in Mn₃CuN.

The energy band structure of the Mn₃MX (M=Ga, Sn, Zn, Cu and X=C and N) systems has been calculated by various methods [24-28]. In the present study, we focus our attention on the theoretical investigation of the x-ray magnetic circular dichroism (XMCD) in the low temperature non-collinear phase of Mn₃CuN. Takenaka et al. [29] explored the magnetic states of Mn and Cu in Mn₃CuN using the x-ray magnetic circular dichroism. They evaluated the spin and orbital magnetic moments, m_s and m_l , respectively, not only for Mn but also for Cu. The theoretical investigations of the origin of the XMCD spectra at the K edges of Mn in the ferromagnetic cubic phases of Mn₃GaC and Mn₃ZnC were carried out in Ref. 27 using the LSDA approximation. The electronic and magnetic structure as well as the XMCD spectra in the low temperature noncollinear Mn₃ZnC perovskite were studied in Ref 30.

This paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents a description of the perovskite Mn₃CuN crystal and magnetic structures as well as the computational details. Section 3 is devoted to the electronic structure and XMCD spectra of the Mn₃CuN compound calculated in the fully relativistic Dirac LMTO band structure method. The calculated results are compared with the available experimental data. Finally, the results are summarized in Sec. 4.

2. Crystal structure and computational details

General properties of spin density waves. The magnetic configuration of an incommensurate spin spiral shows the magnetic moments of certain atomic planes varying in direction. The variation has a well-defined period determined by a wave vector **q**. When the magnetic moment is confined to the lattice sites the magnetization **M** varies as [31]

$$\mathbf{M}(\mathbf{r}_n) = m_n \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\mathbf{q}\mathbf{r}_n + \phi_n)\sin(\theta_n) \\ \sin(\mathbf{q}\mathbf{r}_n + \phi_n)\sin(\theta_n) \\ \cos(\theta_n) \end{bmatrix}, \tag{1}$$

where the polar coordinates are used and m_n is the magnetic moment of atom n with a phase φ_n at the position \mathbf{r}_n . Here we consider only planar spirals, that is, $\theta_n = \pi/2$ which also give the minimum of the total energy. The magnetization of Eq. (1) is not translationally invariant but transforms as

$$\mathbf{M}(\mathbf{r}+\mathbf{R})=D(\mathbf{q}\mathbf{r})\mathbf{M}(\mathbf{r}),\tag{2}$$

where \mathbf{R} is a lattice translation and D is a rotation around the z axis. A spin spiral with a magnetization in a general point \mathbf{r} in space can be defined as a magnetic configuration which transforms according to Eq. (2). Since the spin spiral describes a spatially rotating magnetization, it can be correlated with a frozen magnon.

Because the spin spiral breaks translational symmetry, the Bloch theorem is no longer valid. Computationally, one should use large super-cells to obtain total-energy of the spin spirals. However, when the spin-orbit interaction is neglected spins are decoupled from the lattice and only the relative orientation of the magnetic moments is important. Then, one can define generalized translations which contain translations in the real space and rotations in the spin space [32]. These generalized translations leave the magnetic structure invariant and lead to a generalized Bloch theorem. Therefore the Bloch spinors can still be characterized by a **k** vector in the Brillouin zone, and can be written

$$\psi_k(\mathbf{r}) = e^{i\mathbf{k}\mathbf{r}} \begin{pmatrix} e^{-i\mathbf{q}\mathbf{r}/2} u_k(\mathbf{r}) \\ e^{+i\mathbf{q}\mathbf{r}/2} d_k(\mathbf{r}) \end{pmatrix}.$$
(3)

The functions $u_k(\mathbf{r})$ and $d_k(\mathbf{r})$ are invariant with respect to lattice translations having the same role as for normal Bloch functions. Due to this generalized Bloch theorem the spin spirals can be studied within the chemical unit cell and no large super-cells are needed. Although the chemical unit cell can be used, the presence of the spin spiral lowers the symmetry of the system. Only the spacegroup operations that leave invariant the wave vector of the spiral remain. When considering the general spin space groups, i.e., taking the spin rotations into account, the space-group operations which reverse the spiral vector together with a spin rotation of π around the x axis are symmetry operations [32].

Although the original formulation of the local-spindensity approximation of the density-functional theory allowed noncollinear magnetic order, first-principles calculations for this aspect have begun only recently (for a review, see Ref. 33). One application has been the study of noncollinear ground states, for example, in γ -Fe (Refs. 34–36) or in frustrated antiferromagnets [37,38]. In addition, the noncollinear formulation enables studies of finite-temperature properties of magnetic materials. Since the dominant magnetic excitations at low temperatures are spin waves which are noncollinear by nature, it is possible to determine the magnon spectra and ultimately the Curie temperature from first principles [39–43]. Recently, the noncollinear magnetic configurations were investigated in the Heusler alloys Ni₂MnGa, Ni₂MnAl [31] and IrMnAl [44]. The total energies for different spin spirals were calculated and the ground-state magnetic structures were identified.

Magnetocrystalline anisotropy. Magnetic anisotropy is an important parameter, since in many instances their usefulness is determined by the magnetic anisotropy, i.e., by the extent to which the magnetization retains its orientation in response to magnetic field. As the most important magnetic anisotropy, the magnetocrystalline anisotropy is related to the crystal symmetry of a material. The magnetocrystalline anisotropy energy (MAE) describes the tendency of the magnetization to align along specific spatial directions rather than to randomly fluctuate over time. The MAE determines the stability of the magnetization in bulk as well as nanoparticle systems. Extensive studies of ferromagnetic bulk materials and thin films have highlighted the MAE dependence on crystal symmetry and atomic composition. Whereas the exchange interaction among electron spins is purely isotropic, the orbital magnetization, via the spin-orbit interaction, connects the spin magnetization to the atomic structure of a magnetic material, hence giving rise to magnetic anisotropy [45].

The calculation of the magnetocrystalline anisotropy energy has been a long-standing problem. A first theory of the MAE in Fe and Ni was formulated by Brooks [46] and Fletcher [47], who emphasized that an energy band picture, in which the effect of spin-orbit (SO) coupling is taken into account in a perturbative way, could provide a coupling of the magnetization orientation to the crystallographic axes of approximately the right order of magnitude. In this pioneering work the band structure was oversimplified to three empirical bands [46,47]. Recent investigations [48–52] elaborated the MAE problem using ab initio calculated energy bands obtained within the local-spin density approximation to the density functional theory. Although it is beyond doubt that LSDA energy bands are superior to empirical bands, it turned out that calculating the MAE from first principles poses a great computational challenge. The prime obstacle is the smallness of the MAE of only a few meV/atom, a value which ought to result as the difference of two total energies for different magnetization directions, which are both of the order of 4·10⁴ eV/atom. Owing to this numerical problem, it remained at first unclear if the LSDA could at all describe the MAE correctly, since the wrong easy axis was obtained for hcp Co and fcc Ni [48]. Recent contributions aimed consequently at improving the numerical techniques [50,53], and the correct easy axis was obtained for hcp Co, but not

for fcc Ni [50]. Halilov et al. [51] reported an ab initio investigation of the magnetocrystalline anisotropy energy in bcc Fe and fcc Co and Ni. They introduce the spin-orbit scaling technique, which yields the correct easy axis for Fe and Co, but a vanishing MAE for Ni.

The internal energy of ferromagnetic materials depends on the direction of spontaneous magnetization. We consider here one part of this energy, the MAE, which possesses the crystal symmetry of the material. For the material exhibiting uniaxial anisotropy, such as a hexagonal or tetragonal crystals, the MAE can be expressed as [48]

$$E(\theta) = K_1 \sin^2 \theta + K_2 \sin^4 \theta + K_3' \sin^6 \theta +$$

$$+ K_3 \sin^2 \theta \cos [6(\varphi + \psi)] + \dots \tag{4}$$

where K_i is the anisotropy constant of the *i*th order, θ and ϕ are the polar angles of the Cartesian coordinate system where the c axis coincides with the z axis (the Cartesian coordinate system was chosen such that the x axis is rotated through 90° from the hexagonal axis) and ψ is a phase angle.

Both the dipolar interaction and the spin-orbit coupling give rise to the MAE, the former contributing only to the first-order constant K_1 . Hear, we deal with the MAE caused only by the spin-orbit interaction. Both magneto-optical effects and MAE have a common origin in the spin-orbit coupling and exchange splitting. Thus, a close connection between the two phenomena seems plausible.

The MAE is, in this paper, defined as the difference between two self-consistently calculated fully relativistic total energies for two different crystallographic directions, $E(\theta)-E_{<001>}$. To attain good convergence in the total energy a large number of **k** points has to be used in the calculations. In the present work the total energy has been calculated with an accuracy high enough to be able to resolve the difference in total energies for different spin directions.

X-ray magnetic circular dichroism. Using straightforward symmetry considerations it can be shown that all magneto-optical phenomena (XMCD, MO Kerr and Faraday effects) are caused by the symmetry reduction, in comparison to the paramagnetic state, caused by magnetic ordering [54]. This symmetry lowering has consequences only when spin-orbit coupling is considered in addition. Therefore, in order to calculate the XMCD properties one has to account for both magnetism and SO coupling at the same time when dealing with the electronic structure of the material considered.

Within the one-particle approximation, the absorption coefficient μ for incident x rays is determined by the probability of electron transitions from an initial core state (with wave function ψ_j and energy E_j) to a final unoccupied states (with wave functions $\psi_{n\mathbf{k}}$ and energies $E_{n\mathbf{k}}$) as

$$\mu_{j}^{\lambda}(\omega) = \sum_{n\mathbf{k}} |\langle \Psi_{n\mathbf{k}} | \mathcal{J}_{\lambda} | \Psi_{j} \rangle|^{2} \delta(E_{n\mathbf{k}} - E_{j} - \hbar \omega) \theta(E_{n\mathbf{k}} - E_{F}),$$
(5)

where $\hbar\omega$ is the photon energy, λ its polarization and $\mathcal{J}_{\lambda}=-e\alpha \mathbf{a}_{\lambda}$ being the dipole electron-photon interaction operator, where α are Dirac matrices, \mathbf{a}_{λ} is the λ polarization unit vector of the photon vector potential $[a_{\pm}=1/\sqrt{2}(1,\pm i,0), a_z=(0,0,1)]$. (Here +/- denotes, respectively, left and right circular photon polarizations with respect to the magnetization direction in the solid).

Concurrent with the x-ray magnetic circular dichroism experimental developments, some important magneto-optical sum rules have been derived in recent years [55–58]. For the $L_{2,3}$ edges the l_z sum rule can be written as [59]

$$\langle l_z \rangle = n_h \frac{4 \int_{-L_3 + L_2} d\omega (\mu_+ - \mu_-)}{3 \int_{-L_3 + L_2} d\omega (\mu_+ + \mu_-)}$$
 (6)

where n_h is the number of holes in the d band $n_h = 10 - n_d$, $\langle l_z \rangle$ is the average of the magnetic quantum number of the orbital angular momentum. The integration is taken over the whole 2p absorption region. The s_z sum rule is written as

$$\langle s_z \rangle + \frac{7}{2} \langle t_z \rangle = n_h \frac{\int_{L_3} d\omega(\mu_+ - \mu_-) - 2 \int_{L_3} d\omega(\mu_+ - \mu_-)}{\int_{L_3 + L_2} d\omega(\mu_+ + \mu_-)}$$
(7)

where t_z is the z component of the magnetic dipole operator $\mathbf{t} = \mathbf{s} - 3\mathbf{r}(\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{s})/|\mathbf{r}|^2$ which accounts for the asphericity of the spin moment. The integration $\int\limits_{L_3} (\int\limits_{L_2})$ is tak-

en only over the $2p_{3/2}(2p_{1/2})$ absorption region.

Crystal structure. Mn₃CuN at room temperature crystallizes in the cubic perovskite-type structure with *Pm*3*m* space group (No. 221). Mn atoms being at the face centers, Cu atoms at the corners, and N atoms at the body center (see Fig. 1). The Mn atoms have two N nearest neighbors at the 1.948 Å distance. The second coordination consists of 8 Mn atoms and 4 Cu atoms at the 2.755 Å.

The paramagnetic to ferromagnetic phase transition in Mn_3CuN at $T_C=143$ K is accompanied by a structural change from the cubic to the tetragonal lattice. The Mn moments in the low temperature ferromagnetic phase P4/mmm space group, No. 123) constitute a noncollinear magnetic structure: Mn_1 canting from the c axis to [111] direction, the Mn_2 and Mn_3 ferromagnetically align to the c axis (Fig. 2). In the low temperature tetragonal structure Mn-N interatomic distances are slightly increased in comparison with the high temperature cubic phase up to the

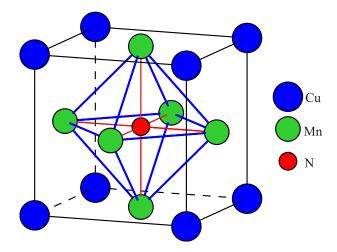


Fig. 1. (Color online) Cubic perovskite-type crystal structure of Mn₃CuN at room temperature.

1.954 Å. Mn_1 atoms are surrounded by two Mn_2 and two Mn_3 atoms at the 2.743 Å distance and four Mn_1 atoms at the 2.763 Å distance.

The details of the computational method are described in Refs. 59,60, and here we only mention several aspects. The calculations were performed for the experimentally observed lattice constants (a=3.896 Å for the cubic perovskite-type structure and a=3.9075 Å c/a=0.9853 for the low temperature tetragonal phase) using the spin-polarized linear-muffin-tin-orbital (LMTO) method [60,61] with the combined correction term taken into account. We used the von Barth–Hedin parametrization [62] for the exchange-correlation potential. Brillouin zone (BZ) integrations were performed using the improved tetrahedron method [63] and the charge self-consistency was obtained with 405 irreducible **k**-points. To improve the potential we include additional empty spheres both in the cubic

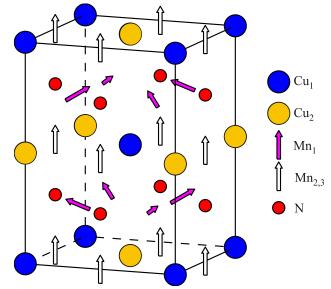


Fig. 2. (Color online) Low temperature magnetic structure of Mn_3CuN .

perovskite-type structure and the low temperature tetragonal phase. The basis consisted of Mn and Cu s, p, d and f; N s, p, d and empty spheres s, and p LMTO's.

The intrinsic broadening mechanisms have been accounted for by folding the XMCD spectra with a Lorentzian. For the finite lifetime of the core hole a constant width Γ_c , in general from Ref. 64, has been used. The finite apparative resolution of the spectrometer has been accounted for by a Gaussian of 0.6 eV.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Energy band structure

The total and partial density of states (DOS) of cubic hypothetical ferromagnetic Mn₃CuN are presented in Fig. 3. The occupied part of the valence band can be subdivided into several regions. N 2s states appear between -17.6 and -15.9 eV. Cu 3d states are fully occupied and cross the N 2p bands in a very narrow energy interval from -4.6 to -1.5 eV. N 2p states extend from -8.6 eV up to 9 eV. The states in the energy range -4.5 to 5.5 eV are formed by Mn d states. The crystal field at the Mn site (D_{4h} point symmetry) causes the splitting of d orbitals into three singlets a_{1g} and b_{1g} ($3z^2-1$ and x^2-y^2), $b_{2g}(xz)$ and a doublet $e_g(xy, yz)$. The $a_{1g}-b_{1g}$ and $b_{2g}-e_g$ splittings are negligible in comparison with its width in LSDA calculations. One should mention that there is quite a small N 2p – Mn d hybridization in the valence bands below the Fermi level.

Mn₃CuN in the cubic perovskite type crystal structure has a local magnetic moments of 2.283 μ_B on Mn, 0.230 μ_B on Cu and -0.115 μ_B on N. The orbital moments are equal to 0.013 μ_B , 0.003 μ_B and 0.0002 μ_B on the Mn, Cu and N sites, respectively. The interaction between the transition metals is ferromagnetic, leading to a total calculated moment of 6.963 μ_B .

Mn₃CuN partial DOS's for the low temperature tetragonal structure are presented in Fig. 4. For this crystal structure the spin magnetic moments are of 2.625 μ_B on the noncollinear Mn₁ atom sites, 2.390 μ_B on the collinear Mn_{2,3} ones, 0.144 μ_B on Cu and –0.068 μ_B on N sites. The orbital moments are equal to –0.037 μ_B , –0.003 μ_B , –0.019 μ_B and 0.002 μ_B on the Mn₁, Mn_{2,3}, Cu and N sites, respectively.

Figure 5 presents the variation of Mn 3d spin (upper panel) and orbital (middle panel) magnetic moments at the Mn₁ and Mn_{2,3} sites with the canting Mn₁ angle. The Mn₁ 3d orbital moments are negative for all the angle interval and reach its maximum absolute value at around 40° . The Mn_{2,3} 3d orbital moments increase when the Mn₁ canting angle changes from 0° to 35° , and then decrease with further increasing of the canting angle, cross the zero at 60° and oscillate around zero up to 90° . The 3d spin moments are also show different angle behavior for the Mn₁ and Mn_{2,3} sites (Fig. 5(a)). The Mn₁ 3d spin magnetic mo-

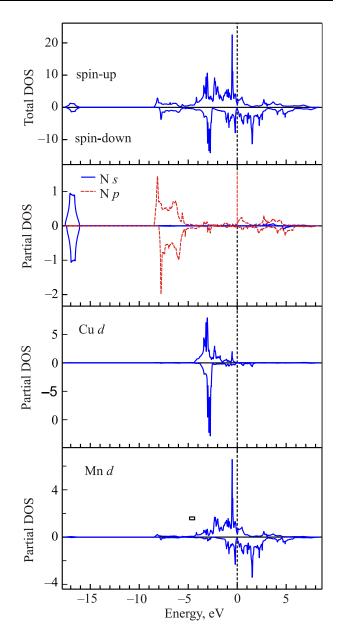


Fig. 3. (Color online)The total (in states/(cell eV)) and partial (in states/(atom eV)) ferromagnetic density of states of Mn₃CuN in the cubic perovskite-type structure. The Fermi energy is at zero.

ments are larger for all the angle interval with the largest difference between the Mn_1 and $Mn_{2,3}$ spin moments when both the moments align along the c axis.

The lower panel (c) shows the magnetocrystalline anisotropy energy with the canting Mn_1 angle. We found that the ground state for the low-T phase of Mn_3CuN is two Cu moments and two Mn (Mn_2 and Mn_3) moments ferromagnetically aligned to the c axis while four Mn_1 magnetic moments are canted by $\pm 76.2^{\circ}$ from the c axis to [111] direction (Fig. 2). It is important to note that this ground state with the canted Mn_1 magnetic moments is very stable. Quite a large energy of 5.5 meV/unit cell is needed to transit from the ground state with the canted Mn_1 magnetic moments to the state with all the magnetic

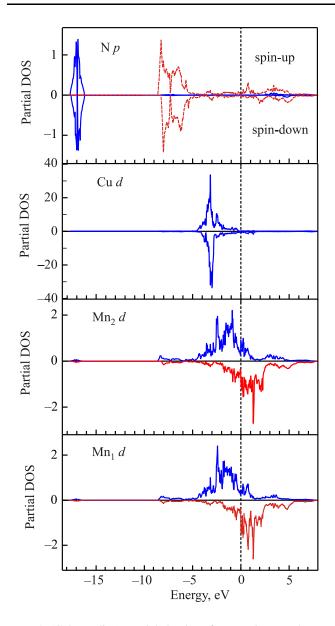


Fig. 4. (Color online) Partial density of states (in states/(atom eV)) of Mn₃CuN in the low temperature non-collinear tetragonal structure. The Fermi energy is at zero.

moments oriented along the c axes. This fact helps to explain the magnetization experiments carried out by Takenaka et al. Ref. 29. They investigated the elementselective magnetization defined as peak-height difference between the positive L_2 peak and the negative L_3 peak. They found that the magnetic-field dependence for Cu is different from that for Mn. The H dependence of the peak-height difference is characterized by a sharp increase at the low-field region for both Mn and Cu. However, the peak-height difference for Cu saturates at 2 kOe, whereas that for Mn shows only a kink at 2 kOe and continues to increase without saturation up to 19 kOe. Authors conclude that the two Cu and two ferromagnetically aligned Mn₂ 3 moments are considered to saturate at a magnetic field of 2 kOe. However, the four counting Mn₁ magnetic moments Mn₁ considered to induce relatively weak magneti-

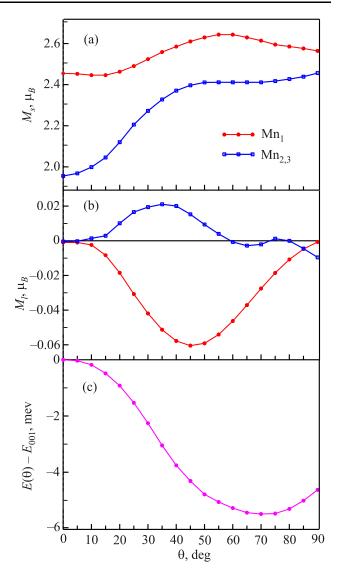


Fig. 5. (Color online) Variation of Mn 3d spin (a) and orbital (b) magnetic moments at the Mn₁ and Mn_{2,3} sites with the canting Mn₁ angle. The lower panel shows the magnetocrystalline anisotropy energy with the canting Mn₁ angle.

zation under a magnetic field, resulting in the absence of saturation in the bulk magnetization up to 19 kOe. To reach the magnetic saturation, in other words to align all the magnetic moments along the c direction, one needs the energy much larger than provided by the magnetic field of 19 kOe.

On the other hand, the magnetocrystalline anisotropy energy which has been estimated by the difference of total energies between the states with spin orientation along and perpendicular to the c axes was found to be rather small in Mn₃CuN reaching 0.5 meV/unit cell in agreement with the suggestion of Takenaka et al. Ref. 29.

3.2. XMCD spectra

At the core level edge XMCD is not only element-specific but also orbital specific. For 3d transition metals, the electronic states can be probed by the K, $L_{2,3}$ and $M_{2,3}$

x-ray absorption and emission spectra. According to the dipole selection rules only the transitions with $\Delta l = \pm 1, \ \Delta j = 0, \ \pm 1$ are allowed [59]. Therefore only electronic states with an appropriate symmetry contribute to the absorption and emission spectra under consideration.

Figure 6 shows the theoretically calculated Mn $L_{2,3}$ x-ray absorption spectra (XAS) as well as XMCD spectra in Mn₃CuN in comparison with the corresponding experimental data obtained by Takenaka et al. [29]. In order to compare the relative amplitudes of the $L_{2,3}$ XMCD spectra we first normalize the theoretically calculated x-ray absorption spectra to the experimental ones taking into account the background scattering intensity [65]. The LSDA describes reasonably well the shapes of the XAS spectra at the Mn $L_{2,3}$ edge (Fig. 6(a)). Because of the electric dipole selection rules the major contribution to the absorption at the L_3 edge stems from the transitions $2p_{3/2} \rightarrow 5d_{5/2}$, with a weaker contribution from $2p_{3/2} \rightarrow 5d_{3/2}$ transitions. For the latter case the corresponding $2p_{3/2} \rightarrow 5d_{3/2}$ radial matrix elements are only slightly smaller than for the $2p_{3/2} \rightarrow 5d_{5/2}$ transitions. The angular matrix elements, however, strongly suppress the $2p_{3/2} \rightarrow 5d_{3/2}$ contribution. Therefore the

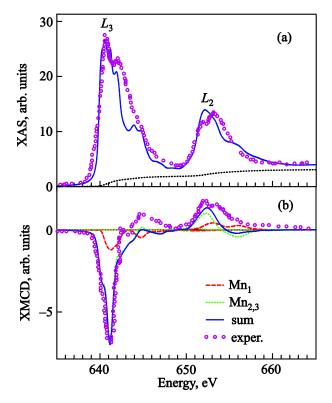


Fig. 6. (Color online) The theoretically calculated isotropic absorption spectra of Mn₃CuN at the Mn $L_{2,3}$ edges for the low temperature tetragonal structure (full blue line) in comparison with the experimental spectrum [29] (circles) measured at 20 K in the external magnetic field H=19 kOe. The dotted line shows the theoretically calculated background spectrum (a); the experimental XMCD spectrum [29] measured at 20 K in the external magnetic field H=19 kOe (circles) and theoretically calculated XMCD spectra for the low temperature tetragonal structure (b).

contribution to the XMCD spectrum at the L_3 edge from the transitions with $\Delta j = 0$ is one order of magnitude smaller than the transitions with $\Delta j = 1$ [59]. The experimental x-ray absorption L_3 spectrum have three peaks around 640.5, 642 and 645 eV, which are well reproduced by the theoretical calculations. The intensity of the second fine structure at 642 eV is slightly underestimates by the theoretical calculations.

Figure 6 (b) shows the experimental XMCD spectrum [29] measured at 20 K and the theoretically calculated one using the LSDA approximation for the low-T tetragonal phase. The theory is in good agreement with the experimental measurements, although the calculated magnetic dichroism is somewhat too small at 645 eV in comparison with the experimental measurements. The XMCD spectra at the $L_{2,3}$ -edges are mostly determined by the strength of the SO coupling of the initial 2p-core states and spinpolarization of the final empty $3d_{3/2.5/2}$ states while the exchange splitting of the 2p-core states as well as the SO coupling of the 3d-valence states are of minor importance for the XMCD at the $L_{2,3}$ edge of 3d transition metals [59]. Although the number of Mn₁ atoms which are canted $\pm 72.2^{\circ}$ from the c axis to [111] direction is two times larger than the number of ferromagnetically aligned Mn2 and Mn₃ atoms (Fig. 2) the main contribution to the $L_{2,3}$ XMCD spectra comes from the $Mn_{2,3}$ atoms (Fig. 6(b)).

Takenaka et al. [29] apply sum rules [Eqs. (6),(7)] to estimate the spin and orbital moments at the Mn and Cu sites. They found extremely small spin magnetic moment at the Mn site $m_s^{\text{Mn}} = 0.27 \mu_B$ which is almost one order of magnitude smaller than obtained in our band structure calculations. The Mn L_3 and the L_2 spectra in Mn₃CuN are strongly overlapped therefore the decomposition of a corresponding experimental $L_{2,3}$ spectrum into its L_3 and L_2 parts is quite difficult and can lead to a significant error in the estimation of the magnetic moments using the sum rules. Besides, the experimentally measured Mn $L_{2.3}$ x-ray absorption spectra have background scattering intensity and the integration of the corresponding XASs may lead to an additional error in the estimation of the magnetic moments using the sum rules. Besides, XMCD sum rules are derived within an ionic model using a number of approximations [59,66]. It is interesting to compare the spin moments obtained from the theoretically calculated XAS and XMCD spectra through sum rule [Eq. (7)] with directly calculated LSDA values in order to avoid additional experimental problems. We obtain $m_s^{\rm Mn_1}=1.84~\mu_B,~m_s^{\rm Mn_2,3}=1.17~\mu_B$ from sum rules. These values are significantly smaller than the corresponding magnetic moments derived from the band structure calculations (2.63 μ_B and 2.39 μ_B for Mn₁ and Mn_{2,3}, respectively). However, they are still much larger than the experimental value $m_s^{\text{Mn}} = 0.27 \ \mu_B$ [29]. One of the possible reasons of such small experimental magnetic moment might be a disorder effect. This question still needs an additional experimental investigation.

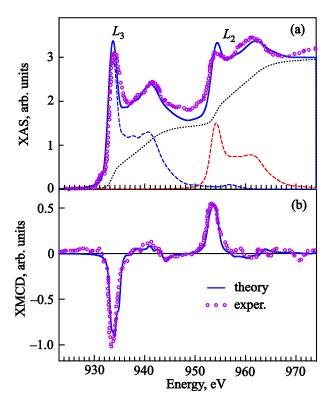


Fig. 7. (Color online) The theoretically calculated isotropic absorption spectra of Mn₃CuN at the Cu L_3 (blue dashed line) and Cu L_2 (red dashed line) edges for low temperature tetragonal structure in comparison with the experimental spectrum [29] (circles) measured at 20 K in the external magnetic field H = 19 kOe. The full blue line presents the theoretically calculated Cu $L_{2,3}$ XAS with taking into account the background spectrum (dotted black line) (a); the experimental XMCD spectrum at Cu $L_{2,3}$ edges [29] measured at 20 K in the external magnetic field H = 19 kOe (circles) and the theoretically calculated XMCD spectra for the low temperature tetragonal structure (b).

Figure 7 shows the theoretically calculated Cu $L_{2,3}$ edge x-ray absorption spectra as well as XMCD spectra in Mn₃CuN in comparison with the corresponding experimental data [29]. The experimentally measured Cu $L_{2,3}$ XAS spectra possess rather large background intensity (Fig. 7(a)). Both the L_3 and L_2 XAS spectra contain intensive narrow low energy peaks and wide high energy shoulders which reflect the energy distribution of Cu 3d empty states (see Fig. 4). Figure 7(b) shows the theoretically calculated XMCD spectra at the Cu $L_{2,3}$ edges in comparison with the experimentally measured ones [29]. The theory shows a very good agreement with the experiment for the x-ray absorption as well as for the XMCD.

4. Summary

In Mn₃CuN a magnetic phase transition occurs at T_C =143 K, which has been classified as a first-order transition from a paramagnetic phase to a ferromagnetic one with a noncollinear magnetic structure. The transition is

accompanied by a structural change from the cubic to the tetragonal lattice.

We have studied the electronic structure in the high-T ferromagnetic cubic phase and low temperature noncollinear phase of Mn₃CuN perovskite compound in the LSDA approximation by means of an ab initio fullyrelativistic spin-polarized Dirac linear muffin-tin orbital method. The magnetic unit cell of low-T ferromagnetic Mn₃CuN contains two magnetic moments due to Cu and six magnetic moments due to Mn; two Cu moments and two Mn moments (Mn2 and Mn3) are ferromagnetically aligned along the c axis while other four Mn_1 magnetic moments are canted from the c axis to [111] direction. We found that the ground state corresponds to the canting angle $\Theta = \pm 76.2^{\circ}$. We investigated the influence of the Mn₁ canting angle on the total energy and 3d spin and orbital magnetic moments at Mn sites. We found that the Mn₁ 3d orbital moments are negative for all the angle interval and reach its maximum absolute value at around 40°. The Mn₂ 3 3d orbital moments increase when the Mn₁ canting angle changes from 0° to 35°, and then decrease with further increasing of the canting angle, cross the zero value at 60° and oscillate around zero up to 90°. The 3d spin moments also show different angle behavior for the Mn1 and Mn_{2,3} sites. The Mn₁ 3d spin magnetic moments are larger for all the angle interval with the largest difference between the Mn₁ and Mn_{2,3} spin moments when both the moments align along the c axis.

We have studied theoretically the x-ray absorption and x-ray magnetic circular dichroism spectra at the Mn and Cu $L_{2,3}$ edges in the low temperature noncollinear phase of Mn₃CuN. The calculated spectra show excellent agreement with the experiment. We show that although the number of Mn₁ atoms which are canted by the $\pm 76.2^{\circ}$ from the c axis to [111] direction is two times larger than the number of ferromagnetically aligned Mn₂ and Mn₃ atoms the main contribution to the $L_{2,3}$ XMCD spectra comes from the Mn_{2,3} atoms.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by the National Academy of Sciences of Ukraine in the framework of the State Target Scientific and Technology Programs "Nanotechnology and Nanomaterials" for 2010-2014 (No. 0277092303) and Implementation and Application of Grid Technologies for 2009-2013 (No. 0274092303).

- 1. M. Guillot, R.P. Pauthenet, and C.R. Acad, *Sci. (Paris)* **258**, 3242 (1964).
- J.P. Bouchaud, R. Fruchart, and C.R. Acad, Sci. (Paris) 261, 458 (1965).
- 3. J.J. Pierre, J.P. Bouchaud, R. Fruchart, M. Guillot, H. Bartholin, F. Chaisse, and C.R. Acad, *Sci.* (*Paris*) **261**, 655 (1965).

- 4. J.P. Bouchaud, R. Fruchart, P. Pauthenet, M. Guillot, H. Bartholin, and F. Chaisse, *J. Appl. Phys.* **37**, 971 (1966).
- 5. D. Fruchart, E.F. Bertaut, F. Sayetat, M.N. Eddine, R. Fruchart, and J.P. Senateur, *Solid State Commun.* **8**, 91 (1970).
- 6. A. Kenmotsu, T. Shinohara, and H. Watanabe, *J. Phys. Soc. Jpn.* **32**, 377 (1972).
- 7. D. Fruchart, E.F. Bertaut, B.L. Clerc, L.D. Khoi, P. Veittet, G. Lorthioir, M.E. Fruchart, and R. Fruchart, *J. Solid State Chem.* **8**, 182 (1973).
- 8. D. Fruchart and B.F. Bertaut, *J. Phys. Soc. Jpn.* **44**, 781 (1978).
- 9. T. Kaneko, T. Kanomata, and K. Shirakawa, *J. Phys. Soc. Jpn.* **56**, 4047 (1987).
- 10. R.C. O'Handley, S.J. Murray, M. Marioni, H. Nembach, and S.M. Allen, *J. Appl. Phys.* **87**, 4712 (2000).
- R. Kainuma, Y. Imano, W. Ito, Y. Sutou, H. Morito, S. Okamoto, O. Kitakami, K. Oikawa, A. Fujita, T. Kanomata, and K. Ishida, *Nature* 439, 957 (2006).
- 12. E.F. Wasserman, in: *Ferromagnetic Materials*, K.H.J. Buschow and E.P. Wohlfarth (eds.), Elsevier, Amsterdam (1990), Vol. 5, p. 237.
- 13. O. Tegus, E. Brück, K.H.J. Buschow, and F.R. de Boer, *Nature* **415**, 150 (2002).
- 14. A. Fujita, S. Fujieda, Y. Hasegawa, and K. Fukamichi, *Phys. Rev. B* **67**, 104416 (2003).
- 15. A.E. Clark, in: *Ferromagnetic Materials*, E.P. Wohlfarth (ed.), Elsevier, Amsterdam, (1980), Vol. 1, p. 531.
- 16. K. Takenaka and H. Takagi, *Appl. Phys. Lett.* **87**, 261902 (2005).
- 17. K. Takenaka and H. Takagi, *Mater. Trans.* **47**, 471 (2006).
- 18. R.J. Huang, L.F. Li, F.S. Cai, X.D. Xu, and L.H. Qian, *Appl. Phys. Lett.* **93**, 081902 (2008).
- 19. K. Takenaka, K. Asano, M. Misawa, and H. Takagi, *Appl. Phys. Lett.* **92**, 011927 (2008).
- Y. Sun, C. Wang, Y.C. Wen, L.H. Chu, H. Pan, M. Nie, and M.B. Tang, *J. Am. Ceram. Soc.* 93, 2178 (2010).
- T. Shibayama and K. Takenaka, *J. Appl. Phys.* **109**, 07A928 (2011).
- 22. M. Barberon, R. Madar, E. Fruchart, G. Lorthioir, and R. Fruchart, *Mater. Res. Bull.* **5**, 1 (1970).
- 23. K. Asano, K. Koyama, and K. Takenaka, *Appl. Phys. Lett.* **92**, 161909 (2008).
- 24. J.P. Jardin and J. Labbé, *J. Phys. (Paris)* **36**, 1317 (1975).
- 25. K. Motizuki and H. Nagai, J. Phys. C 21, 5251 (1988).
- M. Shirai, Y. Ohata, N. Suzuki, and K. Motizuki, *Jpn. J. Appl. Phys.*, *Suppl. 32-3* 32, 250 (1993).
- M. Takahashi and J. Igarashi, *Phys. Rev. B* 67, 245104 (2003)
- 28. L. Hua, L. Wang, and L.F. Chen, *J. Phys.: Condens. Matter* **22**, 206003 (2010).

- K. Takenaka, T. Shibayama, A. Ozawa, T. Hamada, T. Nakamura, K. Kodama, and T. Kinoshita, *J. Appl. Phys.* 110, 023909 (2011).
- 30. V.N. Antonov, B.N. Harmon, A.N. Yaresko, and A.P. Shpak, *Phys. Rev. B* **75**, 165114 (2007).
- 31. J. Enkovaara, A. Ayuela, J. Jalkanen, L. Nordstrom, and R.M. Nieminen, *Phys. Rev. B* **67**, 054417 (2003).
- 32. L.M. Sandratskii, *J. Phys.: Condens. Matter* **3**, 8565 (1991).
- 33. L. Sandratskii, Adv. Phys. 47, 91 (1999).
- L. Sandratskii and J. Kübler, J. Phys.: Condens. Matter 4, 6927 (1992).
- 35. D.M. Bylander and L. Kleinman, *Phys. Rev. B* **59**, 6278 (1999).
- 36. K. Knöpfle, L. Sandratskii, and J. Kübler, *Phys. Rev. B* **62**, 5564 (2000).
- 37. P. Kurz, G. Bihlmayer, K. Hirai, and S. Blügel, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **86**, 1106 (2001).
- 38. D. Hobbs and J. Hafner, *J. Phys.: Condens. Matter* **12**, 7025 (2000).
- 39. V.P. Antropov, M.I. Katsnelson, M. van Schilfgaarde, and B.N. Harmon, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **75**, 729 (1995).
- 40. N.M. Rosengaard and B. Johansson, *Phys. Rev. B* **55**, 975 (1997).
- 41. M. Uhl and J. Kübler, Phys. Rev. Lett. 77, 334 (1996).
- 42. S.V. Halilov, H. Eschrig, A.Y. Perlov, and P.M. Oppeneer, *Phys. Rev. B* **58**, 293 (1998).
- 43. M. Pajda, J. Kudrnovsky, I. Turek, V. Drchal, and P. Bruno, *Phys. Rev. B* **64**, 174402 (2001).
- 44. V.N. Antonov, B.N. Harmon, A.N. Yaresko, L.V. Bekenov, and A.P. Shpak, *Phys. Rev. B* **73**, 094445 (2006).
- 45. C. Hirjibehedin, C. Lin, A. Otte, M. Ternes, C. Lutz, and B. Jones, *Science* **317**, 1199 (2007).
- 46. H. Brooks, Phys. Rev. 58, 909 (1940).
- 47. G.C. Fletcher, *Proc. R. Soc. London, Ser. A* **67**, 505 (1954).
- 48. G.H.O. Daalderop, P.J. Kelly, and M.F.H. Schuurmans, *Phys. Rev. B* **41**, 11919 (1990).
- 49. P. Strange, J.B. Staunton, B.L. Györffy, and H. Ebert, *Physica B* **172**, 51 (1991).
- 50. J. Trygg, B. Johansson, O. Eriksson, and J.M. Wills, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **75**, 2871 (1995).
- 51. S.V. Halilov, A.Y. Perlov, P.M. Oppeneer, A.N. Yaresko, and V.N. Antonov, *Phys. Rev. B* **57**, 9557 (1998).
- 52. P. Ravindran, A. Delin, P. James, B. Johansson, J.M. Wills, R. Ahuja, and O. Eriksson, *Phys. Rev. B* **59**, 15680 (1999).
- 53. D.-S. Wang, R. Wu, and A.J. Freeman, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **70**, 869 (1993).
- 54. W.H. Kleiner, Phys. Rev. 142, 318 ().
- 55. G. van der Laan and B.T. Thole, *Phys. Rev. B* **38**, 3158 (1988).
- 56. B.T. Thole, P. Carra, F. Sette, and G. van der Laan, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **68**, 1943 (1992).

- 57. P. Carra, B.T. Thole, M. Altarelli, and X. Wang, *Phys. Rev. Lett.* **70**, 694 (1993).
- 58. G. van der Laan and B.T. Thole, *Phys. Rev. B* **53**, 14458 (1996).
- V. Antonov, B. Harmon, and A. Yaresko, *Electronic Structure and Magneto-Optical Properties of Solids*, Kluwer, Dordrecht (2004).
- 60. V.V. Nemoshkalenko and V.N. Antonov, *Computational Methods in Solid State Physics*, Gordon and Breach, Amsterdam (1998).
- 61. O.K. Andersen, Phys. Rev. B 12, 3060 (1975).

- 62. U. von Barth and L. Hedin, J. Phys. C 5,1629 (1972).
- 63. P.E. Blöchl, O. Jepsen, and O.K. Andersen, *Phys. Rev. B* **49**, 16223 (1994).
- 64. J.C. Fuggle and J.E. Inglesfield, *Unoccupied Electro*nic States. Topics in Applied Phys., Springer, New York (1992), Vol. 69.
- 65. F.K. Richtmyer, S.W. Barnes, and E. Ramberg, *Phys. Rev.* **46**, 843 (1934).
- 66. V.N. Antonov, O. Jepsen, A.N. Yaresko, and A.P. Shpak, *J. Appl. Phys.* **100**, 043711 (2006).