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Properties of Image-Potential-Induced Surface States of Insulators*[†]

Milton W. Cole ‡

Department of Physics and The James Franck Institute, The University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois 60637 (Received 6 July 1970)

The strongly repulsive interaction between electrons and He or Ne atoms, or H_2 molecules, gives rise to the existence of electronic states localized near a condensed medium consisting of such units. The attractive image potential binds the electrons weakly near the surface; the binding energy ranges from 0.4 meV for liquid He³ to 22 meV for solid D_2 . Motion parallel to the surface is nearly free-electron-like. An exploration of the interaction between electrons and oscillations of the medium's surface reveals a breakdown in perturbation theory which may be remedied by correct treatment of long-wavelength oscillations. A determination is made of the temperature-dependent mobility of electrons for fields parallel to the surface. We find that the surface waves scatter more for the liquid than for the solid. A transition occurs in the mobility as the temperature increases to a point where scattering by atoms of the vapor becomes localized in the bubble state, and the present treatment loses its validity.

I. INTRODUCTION

This paper attempts to elaborate the characteristics of a new kind of electronic state recently proposed by Cohen and the author.¹ The electrons are localized near, but primarily external to, a condensed insulating medium which satisfies certain criteria. The media we shall discuss are composed of atoms which have a primarily repulsive interaction with electrons. Outside of the medium, the interaction is the attractive image potential. The balance between these opposing forces results in localization of excess electrons in the vicinity of the surface. Motion parallel to the surface is essentially unrestricted and, in fact, becomes twodimensional in character.

The question of the existence and character of electronic surface states in general has been investigated theoretically and experimentally for nearly forty years.² Tamm³ and later Shockley⁴ showed that termination of a one-dimensional Kronig-Penney model potential of a one-dimensional crystal may yield solutions for electronic states localized near the "surface" in addition to the usual delocalized states of the bulk material. Bardeen subsequently hypothesized⁵ that surface electronic states played an important role in determining the electrostatic-potential configuration at the interface between a semiconductor and another material (or vacuum). More recently, Schrieffer⁶ described a kind of surface state localized in discrete energy levels with respect to motion normal to the surface but delocalized with respect to parallel motion. This general description has been appropriate to a variety of systems of current interest. These include states localized in inversion layers at semiconductor surfaces, ⁷⁻¹¹ and magnetic-field-induced surface states.^{12,13} An important question in all surface-state investigations is the relationship between properties of the bulk material, for example, electronic band structure, ¹⁴ bonding, ¹⁵ and transport, ¹⁶ and their manifestation at the surface.

The electronic states under discussion were used in I as a basis for explaining experimental results on electron ejection from liquid helium.¹⁷ We presently believe that another explanation is appropriate to that phenomenon. The type of state proposed then and discussed here should nevertheless exist and be observable at surfaces of liquid and solid helium, neon, and hydrogen.

In Sec. II we develop an explanation of the origin of the image-potential-induced surface bands in terms of interaction between an electron and an isolated atom. Section III describes the eigenfunctions and eigenvalues of the surface states. In Sec. IV, we study the effect for the liquid problem of the interaction between the electrons and quantized capillary-gravity waves at the liquid surface. We discuss as well the electron-Rayleighsurface-wave interaction for the solid. In Sec. V, we calculate the mobility of the electrons in an electric field parallel to the surface. Section VI summarizes our results.

II. ORIGIN OF SURFACE STATES

In this section, we describe the interaction between an electron and an isolated neutral nonpolar atom¹⁸ of the kind under consideration. We then describe the modification of this interaction in the presence of other atoms in a condensed medium.¹⁹ These characteristics will be important in understanding the origin and properties of the surface states.

We shall consider as specific examples helium, neon, and hydrogen, although other systems may satisfy the criteria we develop. These atoms have a tightly bound core in the ground state and a large excitation energy to higher states. They are nonpolar and only weakly polarizable. When an electron is incident upon the isolated atom, the scattering is determined by competition between a shortrange repulsion and a long-range attraction.²⁰ The repulsion arises from the requirement of the exclusion principle of orthogonality of the scatteringelectron wave function ψ_e to the atomic core orbitals. This forces ψ_e to oscillate rapidly in the core region, contributing a large positive term to the energy. An effective repulsion results²¹ with a range approximately equal to the Hartree-Fock atomic radius.

At large interparticle separation r, the electric field of the electron polarizes the atom; the induced dipole moment attracts the electron with a polarization potential

$$V_{p}(r) = -\alpha e^{2}/2(r^{2}+r_{0}^{2})^{2} , \qquad (1)$$

where α is the atomic polarizability.^{22, 23} We have introduced the parameter r_0 to provide a reasonable extrapolation of V_{ϕ} to the region of small r.

Experiments in which an electron is scattered by an atom in the gas phase are capable of revealing the delicate balance between these two opposing effects. The low-energy cross section is given by

$$\sigma_s = 4\pi a_s^2 \quad . \tag{2}$$

Both theory and experiment²⁰ find that the scattering length a_s decreases monotonically among the rare gases from a fairly large, positive value in He to a large and negative value for Xe, primarily because of increasing polarizability. For the systems we are considering, He and Ne, the repulsion predominates in determining a_s .

In the transition to a condensed phase, the longrange term is considerably modified, but the repulsive term is not. An excess electron injected into a rare-gas solid is subject to a periodic potential in the absence of lattice distortion.²⁴ It occupies a state $\psi_{\vec{r}}(\vec{r})$ in a conduction band, where k determines the translational properties required of this delocalized state by the Bloch theorem. Because of the large energy gap between valence and conduction bands, the effective-mass sum rule gives an effective mass reduced to only slightly less than the free-electron mass m_0 . Those nearly free-electron states centered about the conduction-band minimum at the point Γ of the Brillouin zone have an isotropic parabolic dispersion relation, 25

$$E(k) = V_0 + \hbar^2 k^2 / 2m .$$
 (3)

The quantity V_0 , the negative of the electron affinity, represents the minimum energy required for electron injection into the medium. Calculations which we describe later reveal that V_0 is positive for both He and Ne.

We next review briefly the present picture of the electronic states of disordered systems. Foldy²⁶ and later Lax²⁷ and Levine and Sanders²⁸ have treated the problem of an electron moving through a hypothetical random lattice of *n* scattering centers per unit volume. In the weak-scattering approximation $(na_s^3 \ll 1)$, they find that the real part of the

electron energy increases because of scattering by an amount

$$V_0 = (\hbar^2/m) 2\pi n a_s .$$
 (4)

Additionally, one finds^{29,30} that statistical fluctuations in density lead to potential fluctuations which may localize electrons.

We note that for higher *n*, Eq. (4) must be corrected for multiple scattering. In particular, it has been found^{31,32} that for a quasi-free-electronic state near k = 0 in the conduction band, an accurate value of V_0 can be obtained from the Wigner-Seitz model.³³ In this model, which we employ later, the polyhedral unit cell is replaced with a sphere of radius r_s given by

$$r_s = (3/4\pi n)^{1/3} , \qquad (5)$$

and the Schrödinger equation is solved within the sphere subject to appropriate boundary conditions. The important consequence for the present discussion is that in this long wavelength $(k \approx 0)$ limit, the result V_0 depends on r_s , but not on details of structure.³²

Experiments involving electron injection into liquid and solid helium, for example, have been performed by Sommer, ³⁴ Woolf and Rayfield, ³⁵ and Onn and Silver. ^{35,36} Their results indicate an opposing barrier V_0 of order +1 eV, in agreement with theoretical calculations using Wigner-Seitz³² and other methods. ^{28,37}

Outside of the medium, on the other hand, the electron experiences an exclusively attractive polarization potential. Adding together this latter contribution from all of the atoms gives the well-known image potential energy V_{image} . If x is the distance between an electron in vacuum (or dilute vapor) and the surface of a medium occupying the half-space x < 0, this potential is classically³⁸

$$V_{\text{image}}(x) = -Ze^2/x$$
, $Z = \frac{1}{4}(\epsilon - 1)/(\epsilon + 1)$ (6)

where ϵ is the static dielectric constant. The force derived from this potential pulls the electron toward the condensed medium. In the case $V_0 > 0$, the classical penetration is impossible, and quantum-mechanical wave functions tail exponentially into the medium.³⁹ The net effect is a binding in the vicinity of the surface, the details of which we shall explore.

For several reasons, the expression (6) loses its validity for some region of small x. Most simply, the surface plane x=0 is a mathematical artifice which at best might be chosen *post hoc* to fit Eq. (6) asymptotically. Proper quantum-mechanical treatment⁴⁰ shows that the image potential arises from correlation terms in the interaction which will certainly not fit such a simple form. Moreover, the solution (6) is a static potential, while the polarization interaction, in general, has to include dynamic behavior, as has been employed in the electron-atom scattering⁴¹ and polarization problems in solids.⁴² Even a phenomenological description would require a frequency-dependent dielectric function $\epsilon(\omega)$. In particular, for close approach to the surface, the polarization will not be able to follow the electron motion and the adiabatic approximation breaks down.

Finally, deviation of the surface from its assumed form, either by static roughness or surface oscillation, precludes the possibility of a simple description in this region. We shall explicitly discuss some aspects of these effects later. For the purpose of actual calculations, we shall cut off the potential (6) at a point x = b and continue it to the origin as a constant, $-V_1 = V_{image}(b)$. As a simple estimate, we take b to be the average interparticle distance in the medium, but later results are not sensitive to this choice.

It is interesting to note that many years ago, Shockley suggested⁴ that the image potential might play a role in surface-state formation. Of course, for most kinds of surface-state calculations, the image potential is simply the tail end of the binding potential and is not essential. Such states are localized primarily within the medium. The imagepotential-induced states, on the other hand, lie primarily outside the medium, and the image potential plays a fundamental role.

III. EIGENFUNCTIONS OF SURFACE STATES

We shall use the effective-mass approximation^{8,43} to describe matching of the internal solution in the medium to the vapor solution external to it. Ben-Daniel and Duke⁹ have justified the use of this approximation at an "abrupt" junction, where the potential changes discontinuously, and the method has been used extensively to treat surface problems.⁷⁻⁹ We expect it to be valid here for states near the conduction-band minimum. In this model, the eigenfunctions in the presence of a perturbing potential are expanded in unperturbed Bloch states of a given band. The Fourier transform of the expansion coefficients becomes an envelope function $\psi(\mathbf{r})$ which obeys a wave equation in the perturbing potential. For the present problem, that potential V(x) depends only on the coordinate x along the surface normal. Surface reconstruction will be small for the Van der Waal's solid, 44 so the Bloch theorem will apply to translations by a primitive-lattice vector in the surface plane.

 $\psi(\mathbf{r})$ separates into product form

$$\psi_{\vec{\mathbf{k}},m}(\vec{\mathbf{r}}) = A^{-1/2} e^{i\vec{\mathbf{k}}\cdot\vec{\boldsymbol{\rho}}} \phi_m(x) , \qquad (7)$$

where \vec{k} is the eigenvector and $\vec{\rho}$ a radius vector in the surface plane. We obtain two-dimensional bands of states, nearly free-electron-like for parallel motion but localized (for energies $\langle V_0 \rangle$) near the surface x=0.

The two-dimensional character of surface states has been studied theoretically and observed experimentally in various systems. Within the parabolic band approximation, each two-dimensional band imakes a contribution $\mathfrak{N}_i(E)$ to the total density of states $\mathfrak{N}(E)$ that is constant above the band edge $E_{\perp i}$:

$$\mathfrak{N}(E) = \sum_{i} (\nu_{i} m_{i} / \pi \hbar^{2}) \Theta(E - E_{\perp i}) ,$$

where ν_i is the band degeneracy, m_i the effective mass, E_{1i} the eigenvalue for perpendicular motion for the *i*th band, and Θ the usual Heaviside step function.

For the interface between two media having parabolic conduction bands with isotropic effective masses m_1 and m_2 , BenDaniel and Duke have obtained⁹ the continuity conditions for ψ :

$$\frac{1}{m_1} \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} \right)_{x=0^-} = \frac{1}{m_2} \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} \right)_{x=0^+} , \qquad (8a)$$

$$\psi(0) = \psi(0^*)$$
 . (8b)

For the materials considered here, m_1 is approximately equal and m_2 identically equal to m, the free-electron mass. The matching conditions (8) are supplemented by the usual requirement that ψ be finite at infinity. The function $\phi(x)$ satisfies the one-dimensional Schrödinger equation corresponding to an effective potential V(x):

$$\frac{d^2\phi}{dx^2} + \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} (E_{\perp} - V(x))\phi = 0 , \qquad (9)$$

$$E_{\perp} = E - \hbar^2 k^2 / 2m$$
 . (10)

The effective potential is shown schematically in Fig. 1. It is the sum of the perturbing potential, in this case, the external-image potential, supplemented by the energy V_0 of the conduction-band minimum in the insulator. We omit consideration of the image potential in the medium, x < 0, because it is negligible there⁴⁵ in comparison to V_0 except within the outermost atomic layer. There, complications similar to the ones mentioned previously for the small positive-x region necessitate such an approximate description.

The equations to be solved are

$$\phi^{\prime\prime} - \gamma^2 \phi = 0, \quad x < 0 \quad (11a)$$

....

$$\phi'' + \mu_0^2 \phi = 0, \quad 0 < x < b$$
 (11b)

 $\phi'' + (2m/\hbar^2)(E_{\perp} + Ze^2/x)\phi = 0, \quad x > b$ (11c)

where

$$\gamma^2 = (2m/\hbar^2)(V_0 - E_\perp),$$

 $\mu_0^2 = (2m/\hbar^2)(E_\perp + V_1),$
 $V_1 = Ze^2/b.$



FIG. 1. Effective potential for motion normal to the surface, drawn schematically. The mathematical surface is the plane x=0.

We must also satisfy the usual continuity relations and the boundary condition at infinity. Let us define a quantity κ from

 $E_{\perp} = (-Z^2/2\kappa^2)E_H, \quad E_H = me^4/\hbar^2$.

We note that Eq. (11c) is of the same form as the Schrödinger equation for r times the *s*-wave radial wave function of an electron in the Coulomb field of a charge Z nucleus. For that "hydrogenic" problem, ϕ is required to vanish at the origin. The resulting eigenvalues are then κ equal to some integer *n*. We shall compare, in a later section, that result with the results of the present problem. Let us note in advance, however, that in the case of helium, Z is of order 10⁻², so the binding energy will be small in comparison with V_0 , implying little penetration of the wave function into the medium. We then expect the hydrogenic approximation to be relatively good.

Equations (11a) and (11b) have simple decaying exponential and sinusoidal solutions, respectively. The general solution of (11c) is the confluent hypergeometric function. ⁴⁶ One particular form, the Whittaker function $W_{\kappa,1/2}(2Z_X/\kappa a_0)$ is appropriate here because it vanishes at infinity. Here a_0 is the Bohr radius. The solution in the vicinity of the origin has been studied by Wannier⁴⁷ for a similar problem. Wannier introduced two independent functions $J^{\kappa}(y)$ and $N^{\kappa}(y)$, ⁴⁸ which in certain limits behave like Bessel and Neumann functions $J_1(y)$ and $N_1(y)$, respectively⁴⁹:

 $\lim J^{\kappa}(y) = J_1(y)$

$$\lim J^{\kappa}(y) = J_1(y) [1 + O(y^2/16\kappa^2)] \quad \text{as } y \to 0, \quad (12b)$$

(120)

as $\kappa \to \infty$

and similar relations between N^{κ} and N_1 . The appropriate linear combination which is finite at infinity and solves (11c) can then be written

$$F_{\kappa} = y [J^{\kappa}(y) \cos \kappa \pi + N^{\kappa}(y) \sin \kappa \pi],$$

$$y = (8Z x/a_0)^{1/2}.$$
(13)

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Note that F_{κ} is nonzero but finite at the origin except when κ equals an integer, in which case the N^{κ} term disappears and the right-hand side vanishes.

The method we shall use is to substitute the Bessel and Neumann functions themselves into (13) when computing the continuity conditions. This is equivalent to omission of terms beyond the first in (12b). We shall discuss later the adequacy of the approximation.

The unnormalized solutions to Eqs. (11) are

$$\phi = Te^{\gamma x} , \qquad x < 0
\phi = T(\cos \mu_0 x + \delta^{-1} \sin \mu_0 x), \qquad 0 < x < b
\phi = F_{\kappa} [(8Zx/a_0)^{1/2}] , \qquad x > b
\delta = \mu_0 / \gamma , \qquad (14)$$

where T is a constant, determined from continuity and normalization.

The eigenvalue κ is obtained from the matching condition at x=b. After algebraic manipulation and use of well-known properties of derivatives of Bessel functions, we obtain

$$\tan \kappa \pi = -\frac{J_0(y_0) - J_1(y_0)M(y_0)}{N_0(y_0) - N_1(y_0)M(y_0)},$$
(15)

$$M(y_0) = (1+\eta)^{1/2} (\cot \mu_0 b - \delta) / (1+\delta \cot \mu_0 b), \quad (16)$$

where

$$\eta = |E_{\perp}/V_1|$$
, $y_0 = (8Zb/a_0)^{1/2}$.

This system of equations can be studied for various values of the parameters to elucidate the nature of our results. As we increase the barrier V_0 from a finite value to infinity for fixed b, the denominator of Eq. (15) passes through zero, and κ changes from below to above an integer *n*. This integer is the "hydrogenic" limit discussed earlier which occurs for $b \rightarrow 0$, $V_0 \rightarrow \infty$, with energy eigenvalue

 $E_n^0 = (-Z^2/2n^2)E_H$, hydrogenic limit.

Wannier studied⁴⁷ the special case $V_0 = \infty$, b > 0. In that limit, the present results agree except for his additional approximation of $\eta \ll 1$ in Eq. (16).

We note that the right-hand side of Eq. (16) is dependent on κ (or E_1) almost exclusively via the factor $(1 + \eta)^{1/2}$ in M. However, the parameter η is in fact the value at the matching position of the neglected higher-order term in Eq. (12b). For the consistency of this calculation, it should be small. In that case, we obtain the result that all eigenvalues κ undergo a uniform shift from their hydrogenic value $\kappa =$ integer.

Hartree⁵⁰ has studied the normalization of the Whittaker functions for application to atomic problems. He obtains the following result:

$$\int_0^\infty dx \, W_{\kappa, 1/2}^2 \left(2Z x / \kappa a_0 \right) = \left[\kappa^3 \Gamma^2(\kappa) / Z \right] \,, \tag{17}$$

where Γ is the γ function. Thus, the Whittaker function normalized with respect to the positive *x* axis may be taken as

$$\phi_{\kappa}(x) = [Z/\kappa^{3}\Gamma^{2}(\kappa)]^{1/2}W_{\kappa,1/2}(2Zx/\kappa a_{0})$$
$$= -(Z/4\kappa^{3})^{1/2}F_{\kappa}(x) .$$
(18)

This agrees with the known normalization of generalized Laguerre polynomials⁵¹ which are related to the form of F_{κ} in the limit $\kappa \rightarrow$ integer.

If one neglects the change in contribution to the normalization integral arising from replacement of W by the sinusoidal function in the region 0 < x < b, then the ratio R of integrated probability density for x < 0 to that for x > 0 is

$$R = \int_{-\infty}^{0} dx T_{\kappa}^{2} e^{2\gamma x} / \int_{0}^{\infty} dx F_{\kappa}^{2}$$
$$= Z T_{\kappa}^{2} / 8\gamma \kappa^{3} , \qquad (19)$$

where

$$T_{\kappa} = F_{\kappa}(y_0) / (\cos \mu_0 b + \delta^{-1} \sin \mu_0 b) .$$
 (20)

The constant N_{κ} by which we must multiply $\phi_{\kappa}(x)$ of Eq. (18) to obtain a function normalized with respect to the complete x axis is found from

$$N_{\kappa} = [Z/4\kappa^{3}(1+R)]^{1/2} .$$
⁽²¹⁾

The small penetration limit $(R \ll 1)$ will apply to most of the systems we discuss.

For the present calculation, we shall use the approach of Springett *et al.*⁵² to obtain V_0 . These authors use the Wigner-Seitz method and a highly idealized model pseudopotential. Specifically, the potential in each cell *i* is taken to be the sum of a hard-core repulsion plus a negative constant polarization term V_{pol} :

$$V(\vec{\mathbf{r}} - \vec{\mathbf{r}}_i) = \infty, \quad |\vec{\mathbf{r}} - \vec{\mathbf{r}}_i| < \tilde{a}$$
$$= V_{\text{pol}}, \qquad \tilde{a} < |\vec{\mathbf{r}} - \vec{\mathbf{r}}_i| < r_s.$$
(22)

The length \tilde{a} is a theoretical estimate of the scattering length for the fictitious problem of electronatom scattering in the absence of polarization. The constant V_{pol} is assigned the value at the cell center $(\vec{\mathbf{r}} = \vec{\mathbf{r}}_i)$ of the polarization potential due to all other atoms $j \neq i$ of the medium, plus an average over the cell of the polarization potential from the *i*th atomic core itself.

This representation of the potential as a sum of individual atom contributions, and division of each of these into two parts, repulsive plus polarization, is artificial and oversimplified. Miyakawa and Dexter have criticized⁵³ this procedure and proposed an alternative method for treating polarization, but their results for V_0 differ little from those of Springett *et al.*⁵²

In Table I, we show values of the various param-

		$10^{-22}n$ (cm ⁻³)	$10^3 Z$	Theor	V ₀ (eV) Expt	$10^2\eta$	10 ² δκ	E_{\perp} (meV)	$\langle x \rangle$ (Å)	$10^{4}R$
He ³	(liq) (sol)	1.64	5.14	0.90		1.3	4.2	0.39	103	0.9
He^4	(liq) (sol)	2.18 3.01	6.82 9.39	1.30 2.01	$1.0 \pm 0.2^{-34,35}$	1.6 2.0	4.6 5.0	0.69 1.32	78 56	1.2 1.5
Ne	(liq) (sol)	$3.72 \\ 4.60$	22.12 27.16	$\begin{array}{c} 0.47 \\ 0.61 \end{array}$		6.7 7.7	24.1 24.2	$11.5 \\ 17.5$	$\begin{array}{c} 24 \\ 19 \end{array}$	80 95
H ₂	(liq) (sol)	2.17 2.66	$26.00 \\ 31.62$	2.20 3.27	$\textbf{0.3}\pm\textbf{0.2}^{\cdot36}$	6.8 7.6	10.5 10.0	$11.5\\16.7$	20 17	$\frac{13}{12}$
D_2	(liq) (sol)	2.59 3.08	30.82 36.37	$3.11 \\ 4.44$		7.5 8.3	10.0 9.4	16.0 21.9	17 15	$\frac{12}{11}$

TABLE I. Description of wave functions for normal motion.

eters we have chosen¹ and the corresponding results of the calculation. The "effective-charge" Z has been derived from the Clausius-Mossotti relation, which is valid for atoms such as these which have small polarizability. The quantity η is approximately equal to the magnitude (relative to unity) of those terms neglected when we substituted in the matching-equation Bessel and Neumann functions for the true eigenfunctions. If the classical turning point for the ground-state eigenvalue had been selected for b, η would be 1.

The quantity $\delta \kappa$ given in Table I is the shift of the eigenvalues from integral values. As we have seen, all the κ undergo the same shift. $|E_1|$ is the binding energy of the ground state. The quantity $\langle x \rangle$ is the expectation value of the electron coordinate. This value is approximate, having been obtained from hydrogenic wave functions. The small values of *R* confirm the expectation that there is little electron penetration.

We note here that the results are not sensitive to the choice of cutoff b that we have made. In all cases shown in Table I, variation in E_1 was less than 5% for variation of b between $\frac{1}{2}r_s$ and $2r_s$.

We have some basis for analyzing the calculation of V_0 . Electron-injection experiments have been performed for both liquid helium and liquid hydrogen with results shown in Table I. The discrepancy for hydrogen is not surprising in view of the oversimplified model employed here. Each of the systems listed in Table I have $V_0 > 0$, which is certainly sufficient for localization. However, even a negative V_0 would permit localized surface states if Z is sufficient to create a bound state with $E < V_0$.

We observe that hydrogen has the strongest binding in terms of both binding energy and size of $\langle x \rangle$, which is only 20 Å. Helium has the weakest and neon falls intermediate between the two. On the other hand, we note that the fractional penetration *R* for Ne is the largest (0.009) as is the eigenvalue shift (~0.25). Ne is perhaps the most interesting system in this respect.

IV. SCATTERING AND LIFETIME OF SURFACE STATES

The eigenstates we have discussed arise from a static attractive interaction between the electron and a uniformly dense medium bounded by the plane x=0. Bulk-density fluctuations (phonons) will modify this interaction but, because of small electron penetration into the medium, will not play an important role in scattering. Additionally, the attraction may be enhanced if the surface deforms to some other configuration $u(\vec{\rho}, \vec{r}_e)$ in the presence of an electron. Here $u(\vec{\rho}, \vec{r}_e)$ denotes the amplitude of the surface displacement at a position $\vec{\rho}$ in the surface plane and \vec{r}_e is the electron position. The perturbation will affect both the lifetime and the energy of the state we have disucssed.

The displacement at the surface is opposed in the liquid case by both gravity and the surface tension. In the absence of the electron, the normal modes of vibration of the free surface are known as capillary-gravity waves. Atkins⁵⁴ has discussed their quantized form as ripplons and calculated their contribution to the surface free energy, and hence surface tension, of liquid helium. In Appendix A, we quantize the ripplons and derive their dispersion relation using a technique developed by Pitaevskii.⁵⁵ The resulting eigenfrequencies are given by the classical formula

$$\omega^2(q) = gq + (\sigma/d)q^3 , \qquad (23)$$

where g is the gravitational constant, σ the surface tension, d the liquid mass density, and \vec{q} the wave vector in the surface plane. The gravitational term becomes unimportant in (23) for $q > 10^2$ cm⁻¹.

We note here that the Pitaevskii method is based on a hydrodynamic approximation and is hence strictly correct only for long wavelengths and low frequencies. In addition, the liquid has been considered ideal and incompressible; more realistic treatment will yield both damping and coupling to phonon modes.

The electron-ripplon interaction represents the

change in electron-fluid polarization energy which arises when the surface deforms. This change can be expressed as a sum of interactions between electron and atoms of the fluid. However, because of dielectric screening, it is not permissible simply to add up individual terms of $V_p(\vec{\mathbf{r}})$ in the form given in Sec. II, Eq. (6). Lekner has studied⁵⁶ this screening for the case of a charge in liquid argon. For distances r greater than a small multiple of the atomic hard-core diameter, he finds that the local fields set up by atoms near the one at r reduce the potential to the value given by classical Lorentz local-field theory:

$$V_{p}^{ser}(\mathbf{\vec{r}}) = V_{p}(\mathbf{\vec{r}})/(1+\frac{8}{3}\pi n\alpha)$$
.

This applies to an atom deep within the medium. Near the surface, however, the screening will be incomplete. For simplicity, therefore, we completely ignore the screening and remember that subsequent work will be valid only to lowest order in the local field (i.e., n). In the cases of liquids He, Ne, and H₂, the quantity $\frac{8}{3}\pi n\alpha$ takes the values 0.03, 0.12, and 0.15, respectively, which gives some estimate of the uncertainty involved in the assumption.

The additional electron-surface interaction V_{int} in the presence of surface perturbation is then

$$\begin{split} V_{\rm int}(\vec{\mathbf{r}}_e) &= -C \int d^2 \vec{\rho}' \int_0^{u(\vec{\rho}')} dx' \{ 1/[(\vec{\mathbf{r}}_e - \vec{\mathbf{r}}')^2 + \gamma_0^2]^2 \} \; , \\ C &= \frac{1}{2} n \alpha e^2 \; . \end{split}$$

We may expand the integrand in a Taylor's series in powers of $x'/x_e = \Delta$, valid if $|\Delta| < 1$. Only the first two terms will be considered, a valid approximation since the wave function is small in that region anyway. Similarly we shall take $r_0 = 0$. The result is

$$V_{int}(\vec{r}_{e}) = -C \int d^{2} \vec{\rho}' \frac{1}{[(\vec{\rho}_{e} - \vec{\rho}')^{2} + x_{e}^{2}]^{2}} \times \left\{ u(\vec{\rho}') + \frac{2u^{2}(\vec{\rho}')}{x_{e}\{1 + [(\vec{\rho}_{e} - \vec{\rho}')/x_{e}]^{2}\}} + \cdots \right\}.$$
 (24)

We expand the surface displacement in ripplon normal modes as described in Appendix A:

$$u(\vec{\rho}) = A^{-1/2} \sum_{\vec{k}} Q_{\vec{k}} e^{i\vec{k}\cdot\vec{\rho}}$$

where \vec{k} is a wave vector and ρ a radius vector in the surface plane of area A. The lowest-order interaction term is

$$\begin{split} V_{\rm int}^{(1)} &= A^{-1/2} \sum_{\vec{k}} Q_{\vec{k}} \int d^2 \vec{\rho} \,' \left\{ e^{i \vec{k} \cdot \vec{\rho}} / \left[(\vec{\rho}_e - \vec{\rho}')^2 + x_e^2 \right]^2 \right\} \\ &= A^{-1/2} \sum_{\vec{k}} Q_{\vec{k}} e^{i \vec{k} \cdot \vec{\rho}_e} \int d^2 \vec{\rho} \left[e^{i \vec{k} \cdot \vec{\rho}} / (\vec{\rho}^2 + x_e^2)^2 \right] \,. \end{split}$$

The integral becomes

$$\int d^{2} \vec{\rho} \, \frac{e^{i\vec{k}\cdot\vec{\rho}}}{(\rho^{2}+\chi_{e}^{2})^{2}} = 2\pi \int d\rho \, \rho \, \frac{J_{0}(k\rho)}{(\rho^{2}+\chi_{e}^{2})^{2}}$$

$$= (\pi k / x_e) K_1 (k x_e)$$
, (25)

where we have used the integral representation of the zero-order Bessel function:

$$J_0(y) = (1/\pi) \int_0^\pi d\theta \cos(y \cos\theta)$$

and a representation of the modified Bessel function of the second kind⁵⁷ (for positive argument):

$$K_1(u) = K_{-1}(u) = 2u \int_0^\infty dt [t J_0(t) / (t^2 + u^2)^2]$$

The second term requires evaluation of

$$V_{\text{int}}^{(2)}(\vec{\mathbf{r}}_c)$$

$$= -C2 \int d^{2} \vec{\rho}' \frac{u^{2}(\vec{\rho}')}{[(\vec{\rho}_{e} - \rho')^{2} + x_{e}^{2}]^{2} (x_{e} \{1 + [(\vec{\rho}_{e} - \vec{\rho}')/x_{e}]^{2}\})}$$

$$= \left(\frac{2C}{Ax_{e}}\right) \sum_{\vec{k}, \vec{k}'} Q_{\vec{k}} Q_{\vec{k}'}$$

$$\times \int d^{2} \vec{\rho}' \frac{e^{i\vec{k}' \cdot \cdot \vec{\nu}}}{[(\vec{\rho}_{e} - \vec{\rho}')^{2} + x_{e}^{2}]^{2} \{1 + [(\vec{\rho}_{e} - \vec{\rho}')/x_{e}]^{2}\}}$$

$$= \frac{4\pi x_{e}}{A} C \sum_{\vec{k}, \vec{k}'} Q_{\vec{k}} Q_{\vec{k}'} e^{i\vec{k}' \cdot \cdot \vec{\sigma}_{e}} \{[(k'')^{2}/8x_{e}^{2}]K_{-2}(k''x_{e})\},$$
(26)

where

$$\mathbf{k''} = \mathbf{k} + \mathbf{k'}$$
.

We arrive at the total electron-ripplon interaction term from (25) and (26):

$$(-1/C)V_{int} = A^{-1/2} \sum_{\vec{k}} Q_{\vec{k}} e^{i\vec{k}'\cdot\vec{p}_e} [(\pi k/x_e)K_1(kx_e)] + A^{-1} \sum_{\vec{k},\vec{k}'} Q_{\vec{k}} Q_{\vec{k}'} e^{i\vec{k}'\cdot\vec{p}_e} \times \{ [(\pi (k'')^2/2x_e)K_2(k''x_e)\} + \cdots .$$

The boson amplitude operators $Q_{\vec{k}}$ are replaced by creation $(a_{\vec{k}}^{\dagger})$ and annihilation $(a_{\vec{k}})$ operators via the transformation developed in Appendix A, Eq. (A7b):

$$Q_{\vec{k}} = (\hbar k / 2d\omega_k)^{1/2} (a_{-\vec{k}}^{\dagger} + a_{\vec{k}})$$
 .

The first-order term in the electron-ripplon interaction is then, in second-quantized notation,

$$H_{\text{int}} = -\sum_{\substack{\mathbf{\vec{q}},\mathbf{\vec{k}}\\\mathbf{i},m}} M_{\mathbf{\vec{q}},\mathbf{\vec{k}}}^{\mathbf{i},m} \left(C_{\mathbf{\vec{k}}+\mathbf{\vec{q}},\mathbf{i}}^{\dagger} a_{-\mathbf{q}}^{\dagger} + C_{\mathbf{\vec{k}}+\mathbf{\vec{q}},\mathbf{i}}^{\dagger} a_{\mathbf{q}}^{*} \right) C_{\mathbf{\vec{k}},m} , \qquad (27)$$

$$M_{\mathbf{\tilde{t}},\mathbf{\tilde{k}}} = \pi C (\hbar q^3 / 2 dA \omega_q)^{1/2} \langle \mathbf{\tilde{k}} + \mathbf{\tilde{q}}, l | [K_1(qx) / x] e^{i \mathbf{\tilde{q}} \cdot \mathbf{\tilde{p}}_e} | \mathbf{\tilde{k}}, m \rangle$$
(28)

Here $c_{\vec{k},m}^{\vec{r}}$, and $c_{\vec{k},m}$ are creation and annihilation operators for the electronic states $\psi_{\vec{k},m} = |\vec{k}, m\rangle$. Note that the interaction term is Hermitian and conserves quasimomentum in the parallel direction, given by

$$\vec{\mathbf{P}}_{\parallel} = -i\hbar\nabla_{\parallel} + \sum_{\mathbf{q}} a_{\mathbf{q}}^{\dagger} a_{\mathbf{q}} \hbar \mathbf{q} ,$$

where ∇_{μ} denotes differentiation with respect to $\vec{\rho}_{e}$. Thus, \vec{P}_{μ} is a good quantum number and may be used to characterize eigenstates of the full problem. All possible single-boson processes are included. Higher-order processes arise from the neglected terms $H_{int}^{(i)}$, $i \ge 2$, which the present treatment ignores.

The matrix elements M may be calculated by numerical integration of the expression (28) using known series expansions for $K_1(qx)$. Subsequent calculations we shall perform tend to depend most sensitively on small values of the argument. In particular, the characteristic wave vector for perpendicular motion in the unperturbed problem is

$$q_0 = 2Z/a_0 \equiv 2Zme^2/\hbar^2$$

For $q/q_0 \ll 1$, we may then use the small argument expansion for K_1 when computing M:

$$K_1(q_X) \approx (q_X)^{-1}, \quad q_X \ll 1$$
 (29)

If we make the (approximate) substitution of "hydrogenic" wave functions for the true ones, it follows that

$$\langle \varphi_0 | K_1(q_X)/q | \varphi_0 \rangle \cong q_0^2/2q, \quad q \ll q_0.$$
 (30)

No cutoff of the interaction for small x is necessary in this calculation because of the vanishing of the approximate wave function in that region.

The real and imaginary energy shifts caused by the electron-ripplon interaction may be investigated using perturbation theory. This investigation turns out to yield anomalous and interesting results which arise from both the ripplon dispersion relation and the dimensionality of the calculation.

The rate of scattering by interactions in which a single ripplon is created is

$$\begin{split} \Gamma^{\mathcal{C}}(k, T) &= (2\pi/\hbar) \sum_{\mathbf{\bar{q}}} |M_{\mathbf{\bar{q}}}|^2 (n_q + 1) \\ &\times \delta\left(\frac{1}{2}a[k^2 - (\vec{\mathbf{k}} - \vec{\mathbf{q}})^2] - \hbar\omega_q\right) \\ &= (A/2\pi\hbar) \int_0^{q_m} dq \ q(n_q + 1) |M_q|^2 \\ &\times \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta \ \delta(akq \cos\Theta - aqS_*(q)) \ , \end{split}$$

where a, n_{σ} , and $S_{*}(q)$ are given by

$$a = \hbar^2/m ,$$

$$n_q = (e^{\beta\hbar \omega_q} - 1)^{-1}, \quad \beta^{-1} = k_B T \qquad (31)$$

$$S_{+}(q) = \frac{1}{2}q \pm m\omega_q / \hbar q .$$

Integration over θ gives the general result,

$$\int_{0}^{2\pi} d\theta \, \delta(akq \cos\theta - S_{\pm}(q)) \\ = 2\Theta(k^{2} - S_{\pm}^{2}(q))/aq(k^{2} - S_{\pm}^{2}(q))^{1/2} , \qquad (32)$$
$$\Gamma^{C}(k, T) = (Am/\pi\hbar^{3}) \int_{q_{1}}^{q_{2}} dq (n_{q} + 1) |M_{q}|^{2}/$$

$$(k^2 - S^2_{+}(q))^{1/2}$$
, (33)

where the limits of integration correspond to the range of ripplon wave vector that can be created.

If the denominator has zeros for q less than the Debye cutoff q_m , then these define $\{q_i\}$ through

$$|S(q_i)| = k$$
, $i = 1, 2$.

This case is depicted schematically in Fig. 2. Otherwise, the integration is carried to the limits 0 and/or q_m . For the ripplon case, there are two q_i satisfying this equation only if k exceeds a threshold value k_0 , which equals the minimum of $S_*(q)$ as a function of q (see Fig. 2). For the acoustic phonon case, in contrast, the emission threshold occurs for phonons having q=0, so $q_1=0$ and the sound velocity becomes the threshold, as is well known.³³

Integration of Eq. (33) indicates that as k passes from below to above k_0 , Γ^c jumps discontinuously from zero to a finite value

$$\Gamma^{c}(k_{0}^{*}, T) = Am(n_{q_{0}}+1) \left| M_{q_{0}} \right|^{2} / \pi \hbar^{3} [2k_{0}S_{*}^{\prime \prime}(q_{0})]^{1/2},$$

where the primes indicate differentiation. The discontinuity occurs because of the zero of the denominator at threshold. It does not occur in three dimensions because there the $\sin\theta$ phase-space term suppresses it at the emission threshold ($\theta = 0$). Unfortunately, the discontinuity that occurs in the present case is not experimentally accessible because k_0 corresponds to much less than thermal energies.

The rate Γ^A at which the electron scatters via ripplon-annihilation processes is obtained similarly:

$$\Gamma^{A}(k, T) = (mA/\pi\hbar^{3}) \int_{q_{1}}^{q_{2}} dq \left\{ n_{q} \left| M_{q} \right|^{2} / [k^{2} - S_{-}^{2}(q)]^{1/2} \right\},$$

where the $\{q_i\}$ are defined with respect to S_{-} . Since the minimum of $|S_{-}|$ is zero, no threshold occurs, and the process will always occur for finite T.

We have numerically evaluated the rates Γ^A and Γ^C . For temperatures of most experimental interest ($T \ge 0.1$ °K), the most important contributions to the scattering of thermal electrons ($k \approx 10^5$ cm⁻¹) arise from ripplon wave vectors $10^1 < q < 10^4$



FIG. 2. Schematic depiction of wave-vector relationship which determines ripplon emission. Electron having wave vector k_1 is below the emission threshold. With wave vector k_2 , it can emit ripplons with wave vector qbetween q_1 and q_2 .

 cm^{-1} . For these q and T, the distribution function reaches its classical high-temperature limit

$$n_q \approx k_B T / \hbar \omega_q \gg 1,$$

and Γ^A becomes identical to Γ^c . The total scattering rate can then be evaluated analytically:

$$\Gamma(k, T) = 2\Gamma^{C} = (T/k) [m\pi^{2}C^{2}q_{0}^{4}k_{B}/8\hbar^{3}(gd\sigma)^{1/2}].$$
(34)

For $T = 1 \,^{\circ}$ K and $k = 10^5 \,\mathrm{cm}^{-1}$, we obtain an extremely high scattering rate $\Gamma \approx 10^{14} \,\mathrm{sec}^{-1}$. This is a consequence of the small excitation energy associated with the ripplons. In fact, the author has shown elsewhere⁵⁸ that the modes are so "soft" that in the thermodynamic limit only the weak gravitational force prevents a long-wavelength divergence predicted by Widom⁵⁹ for the surface-vibration amplitudes.

Two comments are appropriate here. The result we have obtained relies on perturbation theory, a situation we explore below. Additionally, since the important q's are much smaller than k, the momentum-transfer rate important for mobility calculations will be much less than $k\Gamma$. In Sec. V we evaluate the mobility more realistically.

We may calculate the real energy shift from perturbation theory. To lowest order, the energy shift is

$$\Delta E^{(2)} = \mathscr{O} \sum_{\mathbf{\tilde{q}}} \left\{ \frac{n_q + 1}{\frac{1}{2}a[k^2 - (\mathbf{\tilde{k}} - \mathbf{\tilde{q}})^2] - \hbar\omega_q} + \frac{n_q}{\frac{1}{2}a[k^2 - (\mathbf{\tilde{k}} + q)^2] + \hbar\omega_q} \right\} |M_q|^2 .$$

The integration over θ is a principal-part integral:

$$\int_{0}^{2\pi} d\theta / [k \cos \theta - S(q)] = 0, \qquad k^{2} > S^{2}(q)$$
$$= \frac{-\pi \operatorname{sgn}(S(q))}{(S^{2} - k^{2})^{1/2}}, \qquad k^{2} < S^{2}(q)$$

For a thermalized electron of wave vector k, the approximate result is

$$\Delta E^{(2)} = (-\pi C^2 m q_0^4 / 16 \hbar^2 \sigma \beta k^2) (1 - 4k^2 / q_m^2)^{1/2} ,$$

which is a very small value, of order a few millidegrees in energy. This occurs because the qvectors of long wavelength that contribute strongly to Γ do not contribute at all to $\Delta E^{(2)}$, because of the angular integration above. To check if this is accidental, we may explore the next term of perturbation theory, which is of fourth order and of the form

$$\Delta E^{(4)} = \sum_{l,m,n} \frac{V_{kl} V_{lm} V_{mn} V_{nk}}{(E_k - E_l)(E_k - E_m)(E_k - E_n)}$$

Examination of these terms reveals that one kind of term (corresponding to a "crossing" diagram) contributes very strongly to the energy shift. For this term, the states $|l\rangle$ and $|n\rangle$ include ripplons of different wave vector. The other kind of term contributes little for the same reasons that made $\Delta E^{(2)}$ small.

We conclude that this simple perturbation approach does not provide a good description of these scattering processes. A more realistic treatment is currently under investigation. This uses timedependent wave functions which adjust adiabatically to the long-wavelength low-frequency surface oscillations which created difficulty for the method used here.

The same failure of perturbation theory occurs in the solid case, except here an actual divergence occurs. We consider in particular Rayleigh surface waves.⁶⁰ The interaction-matrix element can be obtained by analogy to the ripplon case:

$$M_{R}(q) = B_{R}C\pi q_{0}^{2} [\hbar q / 8 dA \omega_{R}(q)]^{1/2} ,$$

$$\omega_{R}(q) = c_{R}q, \quad c_{R} = C_{*}\xi .$$
(35)

Here B_R and ξ are constants of order unity, and C_t is the bulk transverse sound velocity. Except for the modified dispersion relation, this is of the same form as the ripplon matrix element. Integration of the scattering rate here gives a logarithmic divergence arising from $q \rightarrow 0$ modes. Thus, the same problem occurs for the solid case as we encountered previously for the liquid.

V. MOBILITY

In this section, we determine the mobility of electrons in image-potential-induced surface states for dc electric field, parallel to the surface. The scattering arises from several mechanisms we have not described as well as from ripplons and Rayleigh waves for liquid and solid, respectively.

First we modify the transition-rate calculations of Sec. IV to obtain a result appropriate to mobility determinations. We define a fractional momentumtransfer rate λ which is a sum of the rates for all momentum-transfer processes, weighted by the fraction (with respect to k) of momentum transferred in the direction of the electron velocity vector:

$$\lambda = (2\pi/\hbar) \sum_{\vec{q}} \left(-\vec{q} \cdot \vec{k}/k^2 \right) \left| M_q \right|^2 \{ (n_q + 1) \delta(aq[k\cos\theta - S_+(q)]) + n_q \delta(aq[k\cos\theta - S_-(q)]) \} .$$
(36)

The angular integration gives

$$\int_{0}^{2\pi} d\theta \cos\theta \,\delta(aq[k\cos\theta - S_{\pm}(q)]) \\ = \left[-2S_{\pm}(q)/akq\right] \left[k^{2} - S_{\pm}^{2}(q)\right]^{-1/2} \Theta\left[k^{2} - S_{\pm}^{2}(q)\right]$$

The result of the integration over q for the ripplon case is

$$\lambda_1 = (m\pi^2 C^2 q_0^4 / 8\hbar^3 \sigma) (1/\beta k^2) . \tag{37}$$

This result depends mostly on large q values, for which the present treatment is valid, so it should

yield the correct mobility. The rate λ_i is of order 10^{10} sec⁻¹, much smaller than Γ itself. For the Rayleigh wave case appropriate to the solid, we obtain

$$\lambda_{s} = \frac{m\pi C^{2} q_{0}^{4} B_{R}^{2}}{2d\hbar^{3} c_{R}^{2}} \frac{\left[k^{2} - (mc_{R}/\hbar)^{2}\right]^{1/2}}{\beta k^{2}} , \qquad (38)$$

which is only of order 10^6 sec^{-1} for typical values of the parameters. We obtain the interesting result that the liquid surface reduces the mobility more than the solid surface does. Although we have not included other modes present at the solid surface, similar small values occur for these because of the linear dispersion relation at long wavelengths.

One contribution to the mobility that we have not discussed yet arises from perturbation of the potential V_0 itself, which contributes a direct short-range interaction with the electron. Similar problems have been considered by Greene and O'Don-nell⁶¹ and Prange and Nee.¹³ Those treatments, however, take V_0 to be infinite, to keep electrons in the medium, and the formulation is somewhat different. The matrix element $M_d(q)$ for scattering an electron from a state $|\vec{k}, n\rangle$ to a state $|\vec{k}, \vec{q}, m\rangle$ is

$$M_{d}(q) = A^{-1} \int d^{2}\vec{\rho} \int_{\infty}^{\infty} dx \,\phi_{m}^{*}(x) \,\phi_{n}(x) \,V_{c}(\vec{\rho},x) \,e^{i\vec{q}\cdot\vec{\rho}},$$
$$V_{c}(\vec{\rho},x) = V_{0}[\Theta(x) - \Theta(x - u(\vec{\rho}))].$$

If the ϕ_n , and ϕ_m vary slowly near x = 0, we may expand the integrand and find

$$\begin{split} M_{d}(q) &= V_{0} \sum_{\alpha=1} A_{n,m}^{\alpha} I_{\alpha}(q) , \\ A_{n,m}^{\alpha} &= \frac{1}{\alpha !} \left[\frac{d^{(\alpha-1)}}{dx^{(\alpha-1)}} \phi_{m}^{*}(x) \phi_{n}(x) \right]_{x=0} , \\ I_{\alpha}(q) &= A^{-1} \int d^{2} \vec{p} \ e^{i\vec{q}\cdot\vec{p}} u^{\alpha}(\vec{p}). \end{split}$$

We may examine these equations for several kinds of deformation. For both liquid and solid cases, we may expand the u's as before in the normal modes of surface oscillation. The matrix element for lowest-order scattering becomes

$$M_{d}(q) = A^{-1/2} V_{0} | \phi(0) |^{2} Q_{-q}.$$
(39)

A comparison with the comparable expression developed earlier for the long-range polarization term shows that $M_d(q)$ is a factor of 10^{-2} smaller than the previous expression for wave vectors of interest, given the eigenfunctions obtained earlier. Higher-order terms turn out to contribute negligibly as well, so we shall consider this direct interaction no further.

One unrelated contribution to the lifetime that should be considered here is scattering by isolated atoms of the vapor. The Clausius-Clapeyron equation along the phase-equilibrium curve gives for the saturated vapor pressure

$$P=P_0 e^{-\beta L},$$

where L is the energy of vaporization (sublimation in the solid case) per particle, and P_0 is a relatively slowly varying function of T which, in the lowtemperature limit, can be obtained by integrating this equation in conjunction with the ideal-gas law:

$$P_0 = g_s (M / 2\pi\hbar^2)^{3/2} \beta^{-5/2}$$

where M is the atomic mass and g_s the spin degeneracy.

Interaction with the vapor atoms has the effect of raising the zero of energy according to Eq. (4), as well as scattering of the electrons. The first effect is unimportant to lowest order¹⁰ because the gas density is uniform. The second contribution, however, becomes the dominant scattering mechanism for T greater than some T_1 . We can anticipate this with confidence because we know that for He the dynamic electron-atom interaction in the gas phase²⁸ at densities of order 10²¹ cm⁻³ causes localization of electrons in a cavity (bubble) from which the He atoms are evacuated. This density occurs in the saturated vapor of He⁴ at a temperature of 3.5 °K and for He³ at 2.3 °K. This important difference between results for the two isotopes should be experimentally observable.

Scattering of surface-state electrons from impurity potentials has been discussed by Kawaji and Kawaguchi¹¹ and Stern and Howard⁸ for the Coulomb potential. We will employ instead the coherent-parallel-plane theory of Duke.⁶² In this model, self-energy diagrams corresponding to the electron-atom interaction at a fixed distance from the surface are analyzed to include multiple scattering within each plane of constant x. Then an integration over x is performed. The interaction is taken to be a contact pseudopotential interaction

$$V(\mathbf{\vec{r}}-\mathbf{\vec{r}}_i) = (\hbar^2 / m) \ 2\pi a_s \ \delta(\mathbf{\vec{r}}-\mathbf{\vec{r}}_i) \ .$$

The scattering rate that results is given in the present notation as

$$\lambda_{v} = (2n_{v}/\hbar) \left[\hbar^{2}/m 2\pi a_{s} \right]^{2} \int_{0}^{\infty} dx \mid \phi_{n}(x) \mid^{2}$$
$$\times \sum_{m} \mid \phi_{m}(x) \mid^{2} \pi \mathfrak{N}_{m}(E) .$$

Because of orthogonality of the eigenfunctions, the term m=n in the sum will contribute most. Taking only this term and using hydrogenic eigenfunctions, we find

$$\lambda_v = 3\pi^2 n_v a_s^2 \hbar q_0 / 16m.$$

For the example of liquid He⁴ at 1 $^{\circ}$ K, this gives a rate of order 10¹⁰ sec⁻¹, which is comparable to rates for scattering by surface waves discussed earlier.

In Appendix B, the mobility of a two-dimensional

electron gas is calculated using the Boltzmann equation and a relaxation-time (τ) approximation. The resulting mobility is given in Eq. (B4) as

$$\mu = \frac{e}{2m} \int_0^\infty dk \, k^3 \tau(k) e^{-\beta \hbar^2 k^2 / 2m} / \int_0^\infty dk \, k^3 e^{-\beta \hbar^2 k^2 / 2m}$$

We have calculated in this section several contributions to the scattering rate. For both liquid and solid, the quantity can be expressed as the inverse of a sum of scattering contributions from gas-phase atoms and surface oscillations which we have separately evaluated.

In Fig. 3 we show the mobility for electronic states at the surface of liquid He³, liquid He⁴, and solid He⁴. These suffice to illustrate the various regions of interest. At low T, surface-wave scattering dominates. For the solid case, this becomes very small as few electrons exceed the emission-velocity threshold. In the liquid case, the mobility is T independent because of the form of (37). As the temperature increases, the transition occurs to scattering primarily by vapor atoms, so the mobility becomes approximately exponentially T dependent. At some point, in the vicinity of the vertical arrows in Fig. 3, this treatment fails as the electron becomes localized in a "bubble" state and the mobility drops rapidly.²⁸

VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

We have explored in detail the image-potentialinduced surface bands. In particular, we have found that the wave functions for normal motion correspond closely to those of simple form which solve the hydrogenic problem. The fractional penetration of the wave function into the medium is small. It increases, however, for the most strongly bound states.

We have obtained results for the interaction between the surface electrons and oscillatory modes of the liquid surface which are important for the present study in addition to being of more general theoretical interest.

Experiments are currently being performed in several laboratories to test for the existence and properties of these states. In particular, we have made predictions regarding the mobility which should be readily accessible to experiment.

We note that further theoretical work is in progress with the aim of improving upon the perturbation method employed here. In addition, the theory is being extended to apply to the dielectric film on a metal substrate, for which case the binding is strongly enhanced.

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FIG. 3. Mobility as function of temperature for electrons bound near the surface of liquid and solid He^4 and liquid He^3 . The vertical arrows indicate a transition to the localized bubble state of much lower mobility. Note reduction by a factor of 4 of the mobility shown for solid He^4 .

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APPENDIX A: RIPPLON QUANTIZATION

Ripplons are quantized capillary-gravity waves at and near a liquid surface, the motion extending to a depth of order the inverse of the wave vector k. No density oscillation is associated with these modes, which are well-known classically. The present derivation describes an ideal incompressible semi-infinite fluid bounded by the plane x=0of area A. We shall impose periodic boundary conditions to quantize k. The hydrodynamic technique we employ was used earlier by Pitaevskii⁵⁵ to derive the density-fluctuation excitation spectrum of liquid helium.

In an ideal fluid, the velocity is the gradient of a potential φ . Incompressibility implies that φ satisfies Laplace's equation. Thus, the kinetic energy is given by

$$T = \frac{1}{2}d\int (\nabla\varphi)^2 d\tau$$

= $-\frac{1}{2}d\int \varphi\nabla^2\varphi d\tau + \frac{1}{2}d\int d\vec{S} \cdot \varphi\nabla\varphi$
= $\frac{1}{2}d\int d\vec{S} \cdot \varphi\nabla\varphi$, (A1)

where we have used the divergence theorem.

If we take
$$G(\vec{\mathbf{r}}, \vec{\mathbf{r}}')$$
 to be
 $G(\vec{\mathbf{r}}, \vec{\mathbf{r}}') = 1/|\vec{\mathbf{r}} - \vec{\mathbf{r}}'|$,
 $\nabla^2 G(\vec{\mathbf{r}}, \vec{\mathbf{r}}') = -4\pi\delta(\vec{\mathbf{r}} - \vec{\mathbf{r}}')$. (A2)

In the case that \vec{r} lies on the boundary, the δ function in Eq. (A2) will contribute only one-half of the full value to the expression⁶³

$$\varphi(\mathbf{r}) = (-1/2\pi) \int d^3\mathbf{r}' \,\varphi(\mathbf{r}') \nabla'^2 G(\mathbf{r},\mathbf{r}')$$

where the prime denotes differentiation with respect to the primed coordinates. We next add a term of zero value to the right-hand side and use Green's theorem:

$$\begin{split} \varphi(\vec{\mathbf{r}}) &= (-1/2\pi) \int d^{3}\vec{\mathbf{r}}' \left[\varphi(\vec{\mathbf{r}}') \nabla'^{2} G(\vec{\mathbf{r}}, \vec{\mathbf{r}}') \right. \\ &- G(\vec{\mathbf{r}}, \vec{\mathbf{r}}') \nabla'^{2} \varphi(\vec{\mathbf{r}}, \vec{\mathbf{r}}') \right] \\ &= (1/2\pi) \int d\vec{\mathbf{s}}' \cdot G(\vec{\mathbf{r}}, \vec{\mathbf{r}}') \nabla' \varphi(\vec{\mathbf{r}}, \vec{\mathbf{r}}') \\ &= (1/2\pi) \int dS' \left[\dot{u}(\vec{\mathbf{r}}') / \left| \vec{\mathbf{r}} - \vec{\mathbf{r}}' \right| \right]. \end{split}$$
(A3)

Here the dot denotes time differentiation and we have used

$$0 = \left[\nabla' G(\vec{\mathbf{r}}, \vec{\mathbf{r}}') \cdot \vec{\mathbf{n}}'\right]_{\vec{\mathbf{r}}, \vec{\mathbf{r}}' \text{ on } \vec{\mathbf{s}}'},$$
$$\dot{u}(\vec{\mathbf{r}}') = \left[\nabla' \varphi(\vec{\mathbf{r}}') \cdot \vec{\mathbf{n}}'\right]_{\vec{\mathbf{r}}' \text{ on } \vec{\mathbf{s}}'}.$$

Here \vec{n}' is the unit normal and $u(\vec{r})$ the surface displacement. We consider here oscillatory motion associated only with the upper-bounding surface. From Eqs. (A1) and (A3), we obtain

$$T = (d/4\pi) \int \int dS dS' \left[\dot{u}(\vec{r}) \dot{u}(\vec{r}') / \left| \vec{r} - \vec{r}' \right| \right]. \quad (A4)$$

The potential energy *V* arising from surface deviation from planarity has contributions from both gravitational and surface-tension forces:

$$V = \int dS \int_{-\infty}^{u(\overline{r})} dz \, dgz + \sigma \int dS [1 + (\nabla u)^2]^{1/2}$$

$$\approx V_g + \int dS [dgu^2/2 + (\sigma/2)(\nabla u)^2], \qquad (A5)$$

where V_g is the equilibrium value, σ the surfacetension coefficient, and *g* the gravitational constant. We have assumed the displacement gradient small, $|\nabla u| \ll 1$.

We next expand the displacement and its time derivative in ripplon normal-mode coordinates \hat{k} quantized by the requirement of periodic boundary conditions:

$$u(\vec{\mathbf{r}}) = A^{-1/2} \sum_{\vec{k}} Q_{\vec{k}} e^{i\vec{k}\cdot\vec{r}} ,$$

$$\dot{u}(\vec{\mathbf{r}}) = A^{-1/2} \sum_{\vec{k}} \dot{Q}_{\vec{k}} e^{i\vec{k}\cdot\vec{r}} .$$

The Lagrangian of the system is given by

$$L = \sum_{\vec{k}} (T_{\vec{k}} - V_{\vec{k}}) ,$$

$$\sum_{\vec{k}} T_{\vec{k}} = \frac{d}{4\pi A} \sum_{\vec{k}, \vec{k}'} \dot{Q}_{\vec{k}} \dot{Q}_{\vec{k}'} \int \int dS \, dS' \frac{e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} + \vec{k}' \cdot \vec{r}')}}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|} .$$

But from the integral representation of the Bessel function and an appropriate integration formula, we obtain

$$T_{\vec{k}} = \frac{d}{4\pi A} \dot{Q}_{\vec{k}} \sum_{\vec{k}'} \dot{Q}_{\vec{k}'} \frac{2\pi}{k} \int dS e^{i(\vec{k} + \vec{k}') \cdot \vec{r}}$$
$$= (d/2k) \dot{Q}_{\vec{k}} \dot{Q}_{-\vec{k}} .$$

Similarly, we evaluate $V_{\vec{k}}$ and find

$$L_{\vec{k}} = (d/2k)\dot{Q}_{\vec{k}}\dot{Q}_{-\vec{k}} - \frac{1}{2}(dg + \sigma k^2)Q_{\vec{k}}Q_{-\vec{k}}$$

We derive the canonical momentum $\pi_{\mathbf{k}}$ and Hamiltonian by the usual method:

$$\Pi_{\vec{k}} = (d/k) \dot{Q}_{-\vec{k}}, \qquad (A6)$$
$$H = \sum_{\vec{k}} \left[\Pi_{\vec{k}} \Pi_{-\vec{k}} (k/2d) + Q_{\vec{k}} Q_{-\vec{k}} \left[\frac{1}{2} (dg + \sigma k^2) \right] \right].$$

We quantize H by imposing the boson commutation relations upon the operators Q, Π :

 $[Q_{\vec{\mathbf{k}}},\Pi_{\vec{\mathbf{k}}'}]=i\hbar\delta_{\vec{\mathbf{k}},\vec{\mathbf{k}}'},$

and then transform to a form diagonal in creation and annihilation operators $a_{\mathbf{k}}^{\dagger}$, $a_{\mathbf{k}}^{\mathbf{r}}$:

 $Qz = (\hbar k/2d\omega z)^{1/2}(a_{-}z + az),$

$$\Pi_{\vec{k}} = i(\hbar \, d\omega_{\vec{k}}/2k)^{1/2} \, (a_{\vec{k}}^{\mathsf{T}} - a_{-\vec{k}}) \; ; \qquad (A7a)$$

$$H = \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \hbar \omega_{\mathbf{k}} (a_{\mathbf{k}}^{\dagger} a_{\mathbf{k}}^{\dagger} + \frac{1}{2}) ; \qquad (A7b)$$

$$g_k^2 = gk + (\sigma/d)k^3 . \tag{A8}$$

We thus recapture the classical dispersion relation as one would expect. However, we have obtained in addition the transformation equations (A7) which provide a normalization necessary for computing electron-ripplon interaction. Furthermore, the Hamiltonian (A6) has been used elsewhere by the author⁵⁸ to study properties of the liquid-vacuum interface.

APPENDIX B: MOBILITY FOR TWO-DIMENSIONAL GAS

We investigate here two-dimensional transport for a system of electrons characterized by Maxwell-Boltzmann statistics. In steady state, the time rate of change of the distribution function n_k^* is zero:

$$0 = -\nabla_{\vec{k}} n_{\vec{k}} \cdot \frac{e\vec{\mathbf{E}}}{\hbar} - \frac{\partial n_{\vec{k}}}{\partial t} \big|_{\text{scatt}} , \qquad (B1)$$

where \vec{E} is an electric field along the z axis which perturbs an equilibrium distribution $n_0(\vec{k})$. The second term arises from scattering processes. We associate with these a relaxation time $\tau(k)$ which gives a measure of the rate at which any nonequilibrium electron distribution $n_1(\vec{k})$ would, in the absence of \vec{E} , relax toward equilibrium. We have

$$-\frac{\partial n_{\vec{k}}}{\partial t}\Big|_{\text{scatt}} = \frac{n_1(\vec{k})}{\tau} ,$$

$$n_1(\vec{k}) = n_{\vec{k}} - n_0(\vec{k}) ,$$

$$n_0(\vec{k}) = (\hbar^2 \beta \pi / m) N e^{-\beta \hbar^2 k^2 / 2m} ,$$
(B2)

where N is the total number of electrons per unit area. If we assume that \vec{E} does not strongly perturb the distrubution $n_0(\vec{k})$, then the lowest-order terms of (B1) give

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$$n_1(\vec{\mathbf{k}}) = \left(\frac{\hbar^2 \beta \pi}{m}\right)^2 k_z \frac{e E \gamma(k)}{\hbar} N e^{-\beta \hbar^2 k^2 / 2m} .$$
(B3)

The current density J_z associated with this nonequilibrium distribution is

 $J_{s} = \int d^{2}\vec{\mathbf{k}} e n_{1}(\vec{\mathbf{k}}) v(\vec{\mathbf{k}}) .$

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[†]Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for Ph.D. degree in the Department of Physics, University of Chicago.

[‡]Present address: Physics Department, University of Toronto, Toronto, Ont., Canada.

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We define the mobility as

$$\mu = J_{z} / Ne E$$

Then we obtain

$$\mu = e \int_0^\infty dk \, k^3 \tau(k) e^{-\beta \hbar^2 k^2/2m} / 2m \int_0^\infty dk \, k^3 e^{-\beta \hbar^2 k^2/2m} \cdot (B4)$$

rupole interaction present, and α is really a tensor. The quadrupole moment is small $(2.2 \times 10^{-16} \text{ cm}^2)$, however, and we ignore it in the present work.

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PHYSICAL REVIEW B

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Isotope Splitting of the F-Center In-Gap Mode in KI and KBr

D. Bäuerle*†‡

Laboratory of Atomic and Solid State Physics, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York 14850

and

R. Hübner[§]

Institut für theoretische Physik, der Universität Stuttgart, Germany (Received 30 March 1970)

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High-resolution measurements at the *F*-center in-gap mode in KI and KBr have revealed a threefold structure in the absorption spectrum with lines at 82. 62 ± 0.02 , 81.98 ± 0.02 , 81.19 ± 0.05 cm⁻¹ and at 99. 60 ± 0.03 , 99. 07 ± 0.04 , 98.50 ± 0.05 cm⁻¹, respectively. This structure is interpreted as due to the presence of two stable isotopes, K^{39} and K^{41} , in the crystal. In a three-dimensional-model calculation which uses as parameters changes in the force constants between the defect and the first nearest neighbors (A01) and changes in the force constant between the first and fourth nearest neighbors (A14), we found that the in-gap mode frequencies are extremely sensitive to the value of the latter. The position and splitting in the absorption lines can be explained in the calculation by using A01 = -0.50, A14 = -0.060 for KI and A01 = -0.50, A14 = +0.002 for KBr. Stress experiments on the strongest lines in KI are in agreement with our model. Extending the calculation to Cl⁻ and Br⁻ centers in KI, it is shown that the measured isotope splitting for Cl³⁵, Cl³⁷ and Br⁷⁹, Br⁸¹ centers can be explained by taking into account not only changes in A01 but also changes in A14.

I. INTRODUCTION

The far-infrared absorption spectra associated with very light substitutional defects in alkali halides like H⁻, D⁻ ions (U centers) and F, F' centers were recently reported. $^{1-4}$ These vacancy-type centers give rise to resonance absorption in the upper acoustic band for H_{\bullet} , D_{\bullet} , and F' centers and to gap-mode absorption in the region between the optic and acoustic phonon branches for the F center, respectively. The different absorption frequencies of these defects are mainly an effect of local force-constant changes. The amount by which the perturbed force constants differ from the unperturbed value can be obtained by fitting the experimental results to model calculations in three dimensions. Calculations of the infrared-active modes in perturbed lattices on the basis of "realistic models" for the lattice dynamics are given, c.g., by Klein, ⁵ Page and Strauch, ⁶ Benedek and Nardelli, ⁷ and some others. Recently, Benedek and Mulazzi⁸ calculated the *F*-center gap-mode absorption based on one of Hardy's deformation dipole models.

The measurements and calculations reported in this paper should provide further clarification of the dependence of the optical response of perturbed lattice vibrations on mass and force-constant changes. As a "model case," we have chosen the F center for the following reasons: (a) Some lattice dynamical properties of the F center are already known. They could be studied indirectly through the electronic transition because of the electron-phonon interaction.⁸⁻¹⁰ (b) The vibrational absorption associated with F centers in KBr and KI is in the phonon gap. Therefore, the corresponding absorption lines are sharp, and small perturbations of the surrounding lattice can be measured.

After a short description of the experimental apparatus (Sec. II), we present in Sec. III the experimental results. High-resolution measurements at the *F*-center in-gap mode in KI near 83 cm⁻¹ have revealed a threefold structure of the absorption shape. Quite similar lines occur in KBr (Sec. IIIA). Stress experiments at the strongest lines in KI, those at 82. 62 and 81. 98 cm⁻¹, are reported in Sec. III B.