

so that the domain walls traversing there always proceeded in the same direction.

It is very likely that the structural change that we have found would give important effects on every process of polarization reversal in  $\text{BaTiO}_3$ . Here we present a bold view for the mechanism of bringing about the anomalous structure change. Generally the directions of spontaneous polarization before and after its reversal are related to each other by a symmetrical operation of rotation. However, it is agreed that the anisotropy of most ferroelectrics is so high that the rotation of the polarization vector within the wall will not occur. In the case of room-temperature structure of  $\text{BaTiO}_3$ , e.g.,  $c/a=1.01$ , the anisotropy does not seem so high that the possibility of rotation of dipoles in a crystalline medium should be absolutely excluded, but it is rather realistic to assume that the rotation mechanism contributes in part to the polarization reversal. If any, the crystalline portions relevant to polarization reversal would be subjected to pure shear stress  $X_5$  or its equivalents, because rotation of polarization takes place in an anisotropic medium. Then the polarization  $P_1$  directed normal to the existing polarization  $P_3$  will be developed as a result of piezoelectric coupling through a torsion

modulus  $d_{15}$  or  $d_{24}$ , e.g.,<sup>3</sup>

$$P_1 = d_{15}X_5.$$

This will be naturally accompanied by the pseudo-monoclinic deformation of the crystalline portions. It is noted that the proposed mechanism is concerned with dynamical process of domain switching. It seems to explain qualitatively all optical characters mentioned before. Especially it is of particular interest that the origin of the character (4) is understandable if we relate one direction of domain movement with right-handed rotation and necessarily the reversed direction with left-handed one.

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<sup>3</sup>It may be noticed that  $d_{15}$  is about 11 and five times as large as  $d_{31}$  and  $d_{33}$ , respectively [D. Berlincourt and H. Jaffe, Phys. Rev. 111, 143 (1958)].

## TWO-QUANTUM ABSORPTION SPECTRUM OF KI<sup>†</sup>

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We have measured the two-quantum absorption spectrum of crystalline KI in the vicinity of the fundamental absorption edge. Two-quantum absorption is a nonlinear phenomenon in which two quanta are simultaneously absorbed in an electronic transition, energy being conserved only between the electronic system and the two quanta. The electronic system is transparent to either quantum alone. Such a process has been observed by Kaiser and Garrett<sup>1</sup> and others, and theoretically investigated by Kleinman<sup>2</sup> and Braunstein.<sup>3</sup> In previous experiments, the absorbed quanta have both been obtained from a narrow-band laser source.

In this experiment, a continuous source of ultraviolet light has been used, allowing a broad spectrum to be investigated. To our knowledge, this is the first experimental demonstration of

the utility of this technique in the range of optical energies.

The two-quantum absorption spectrum should contain as much information about a system (e.g., a solid) as does the ordinary one-quantum spectrum. Because the selection rules are very different (even-parity transitions for two-photon absorption versus odd-parity transitions for one-photon absorption), the two methods of investigation are complementary rather than identical.

The fundamental absorption edge of crystalline KI has not been well understood. Different theoretical models<sup>4</sup> predict similar one-photon absorption spectrum singularities, but quite different two-quantum spectra. This experiment was designed to provide a basis for choice among the various theories, and to allow the experimental study of the absorption process in bulk

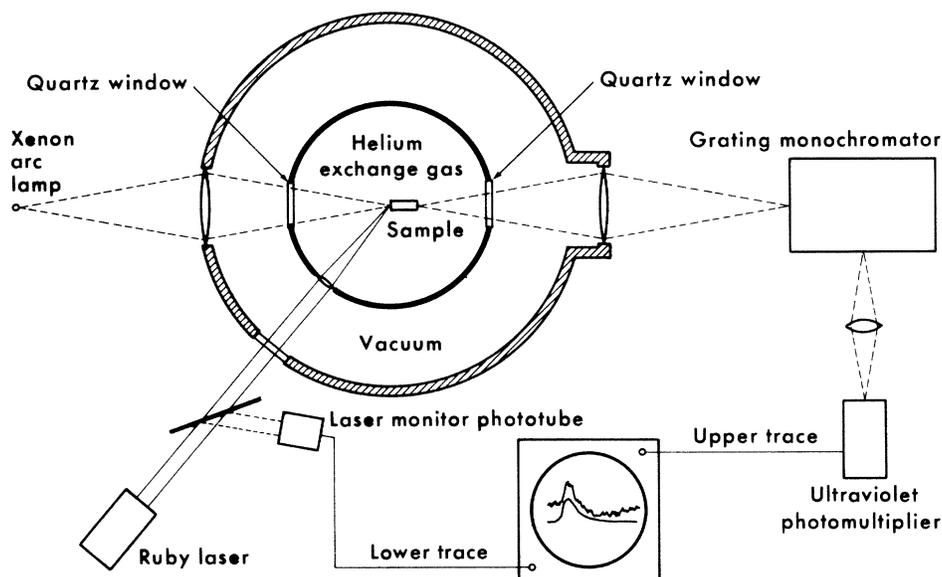


FIG. 1. Schematic diagram of the experiment.

crystalline material rather than in the usual evaporated films.

The basic experimental design is shown in Fig. 1, which is simplified by the omission of several filters designed to reject stray laser light and prevent ultraviolet coloration of the sample. The samples were cleaved from Harshaw KI crystals to a size of approximately  $2 \times 3 \times 25$  millimeters. The laser (Lear Siegler, Inc. LS-4) was operated at an output of about 15 joules per pulse. The ultraviolet and laser beams were kept within the sample by total internal reflection.

Two-quantum absorption, if it occurred at the wavelength being monitored, resulted in a decrease in ultraviolet transmission proportional to the laser intensity. A typical signal (ultraviolet wavelength  $2770 \text{ \AA}$ , sample at liquid nitrogen temperature) is shown in Fig. 2. The lower trace represents the laser intensity. The upper trace shows the simultaneous decrease in ultraviolet intensity; the polarity of this signal was reversed. The peak decrease in intensity was in this case about one part in 500. The similarity of shape of the two signals indicates that the effect is proportional to the laser intensity. The signal has also been shown to have the expected proportionality to ultraviolet intensity.

The experimental results are conveniently represented as an apparent optical density proportional to the laser intensity. The spectra of

this specific induced optical density (optical density/incident laser flux) are shown in Fig. 3 for KI crystals at two temperatures. (Conversion of Optical densities into absorption constants would be appropriate if the laser flux were constant throughout the lengths of the crystals. Since the surfaces are not perfect, there is some leakage, which may be different in the two crystals, and the two curves are not necessarily directly comparable.)

Some characteristic energies of one- and two-photon absorption are expected to be common.

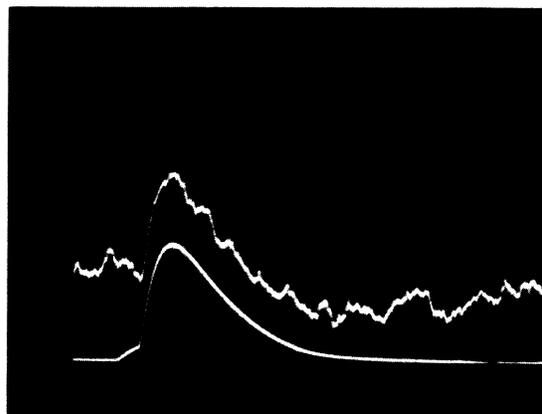


FIG. 2. Typical dual-trace oscillogram showing the ultraviolet (upper trace) and laser (lower trace) intensities. Sweep speed 2 cm/msec. Both signals have passed through 0.2-msec high-cut filters.

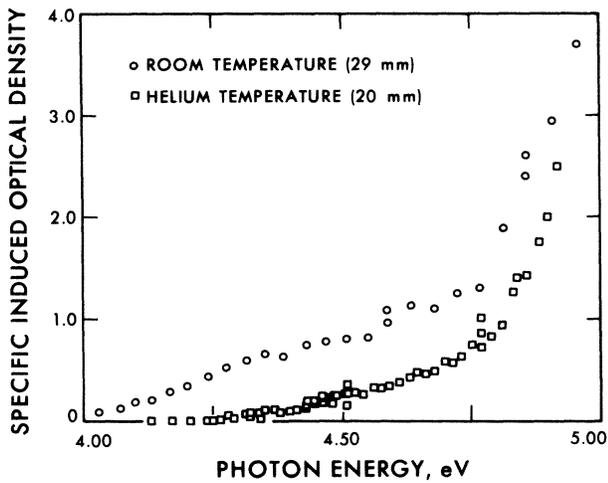


FIG. 3. Two-photon absorption spectra of KI at room temperature and liquid helium temperature. The ordinate is approximately the percentage decrease in transmission for an incident laser flux of  $1/3 \text{ MW/cm}^2$ . The resolution is  $0.03 \text{ eV}$ . The lengths of the two crystals are shown in the figure.

Figure 4 shows a superposition of a single-photon absorption spectrum of Teegarden<sup>5</sup> and the present two-photon data. The temperature shift between the two temperatures compared is small,  $-0.05 \text{ eV}$ .<sup>6</sup>

Several observations ought to be made concerning Figs. 3 and 4. (1) The two-quantum absorption seems to exhibit two edges having thresholds near characteristic energies observed in one-quantum absorption. (2) The low-energy two-photon edge shifts  $0.25 \text{ eV}$  toward higher energies between room temperature and helium temperature. The high-energy two-quantum edge shifts much less. In comparison, the lowest energy (one-quantum) exciton band ( $5.8 \text{ eV}$ ) moves about  $0.25 \text{ eV}$  between room and helium temperature, while the high-energy peak ( $6.7 \text{ eV}$ ) moves only about  $0.1 \text{ eV}$ .<sup>6</sup> (3) The two-quantum continuum absorption coefficient for a two-band allowed transition model is given by

$$\alpha_2(E_{uv}; E_1) = \alpha_1(E_{uv} + E_1) (4\pi e^2 \hbar^2 / m^*) (E_{uv} + E_1 - E_0) \times (1/E_1)^2 (1/E_1 + 1/E_{uv})^2 U, \text{ for } (E_{uv} + E_1 - E) \geq 0,$$

where  $\alpha_1$  and  $\alpha_2$  are the one- and two-quantum absorption coefficients,  $E_{uv}$  and  $E_1$  the ultraviolet and laser quantum energies,  $E_0$  the band gap, and  $U$  the energy density of the laser beam. This crude model predicts, from the one-quantum ab-

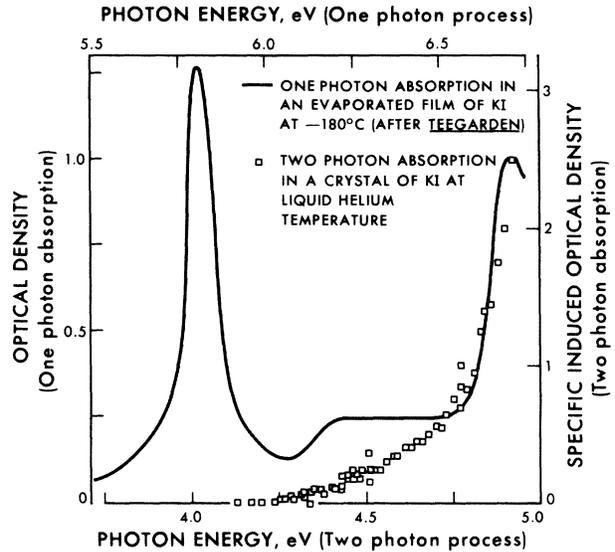


FIG. 4. One- (see reference 5) and two-photon absorption spectra of KI at low temperature. The abscissas differ by  $1.79 \text{ eV}$ , the energy of a ruby-laser photon.

sorption, an  $\alpha_2$  of  $1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ cm}^{-1}$  at helium temperature and  $4.70 \text{ eV}$ , which compares favorably to the value of  $2.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ cm}^{-1}$  estimated from the experimental data. (4) There is evidence for a small ( $\sim 20\%$  above the continuum absorption) peak at  $6.21 \text{ eV}$  which has been interpreted as a Wannier  $2S$  exciton.<sup>6</sup> If such a state exists, the two-photon curve should exhibit a peak at an equivalent energy corresponding to the Wannier  $2P$  state. Our data are too noisy to say whether or not such a peak is present. (5) A striking feature of the two-photon absorption is the absence of any absorption corresponding to the exciton peak at  $5.8 \text{ eV}$ . The data of Fig. 4 have been extended to  $3.9 \text{ eV}$  but show no further absorption. The excitation and Wannier exciton models are both consistent with this result; neither requires an even-parity state near the ground (odd-parity) exciton state. The transfer model, on the other hand, does require such a nearby even-parity state and is therefore not consistent with this result. (6) It was attractive to associate the rise in two-quantum absorption above  $4.8 \text{ eV}$  with the corresponding peak in one-photon absorption at  $6.7 \text{ eV}$ . If the one-photon peak is the spin-orbit split (halogen doublet) partner of the exciton peak at  $5.8 \text{ eV}$ , the absence of two-photon absorption associated with one peak implies the absence of such absorption associated with the other.

The signal-to-noise problem, well illustrated in Fig. 2, is currently being studied in an attempt to search for fine structure in the absorption edge.

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## DISTURBANCE OF PHONON DISTRIBUTION IN HIGH ELECTRIC FIELDS

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The rate of phonon generation may be calculated from the well-known expressions for the rates of scattering of electrons with phonon emission and absorption, respectively.<sup>1</sup> For the conditions of interest, electron energy is too low for optical phonon emission, and carrier concentration is fairly high. We may therefore take for the distribution function of the electrons in the  $i$ th valley a Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution  $f^{(i)} = \{n/N_c(T_e^{(i)})\} \exp[-\epsilon/k_0 T_e^{(i)}]$ , where  $N_c(T_e^{(i)})$  is the "effective density of states" in the  $i$ th valley. We shall neglect the asymmetric part of the electron distribution and of the disturbed phonon distribution since these are expected to be small. When the phonon disturbance is not too large, the phonon lifetime should be given by the boundary scattering value  $L/u_\alpha$ , where  $u_\alpha$  is the appropriate sound velocity. Taking the steady-state value  $N_{q\alpha}$  of phonons with wave vector  $q$  as the product of the generation rate and this lifetime, we find for  $\hbar u_\alpha q \ll k_0 T_e^{(i)}$

$$N_{q\alpha} = \left[ \sum_{\alpha=1}^g F_\alpha^{(i)} \right] / \left[ 1 + \sum_{\alpha=1}^g F_\alpha^{(i)} \hbar u_\alpha q / k_0 T_e^{(i)} \right], \quad (1)$$

where  $g$  is the number of valleys, and

$$F_\alpha^{(i)} = \frac{1}{2} L \frac{m_t^{3/2} m_l^{1/2}}{\pi \hbar^4 \rho u_\alpha^2} \frac{n^{(i)}}{N_c(T_e^{(i)})} k_0 T_e^{(i)} \frac{\Xi_\alpha^2}{C^{1/2}(\theta_i)} \times \exp\{-[\hbar^2 q^2 / 8mk_0 T_e^{(i)}] C(\theta_i)\}, \quad (2)$$

$$C(\theta_i) = \sin^2 \theta_i + (m_t/m_l) \cos^2 \theta_i, \quad (3)$$

$\theta_i$  being the angle between  $\vec{q}$  and the symmetry axis of the  $i$ th valley. For longitudinal waves  $\alpha = l$  and  $\Xi_l = \Xi_d + \Xi_u \cos^2 \theta_i$ ; for transverse waves  $\alpha = t$  and  $\Xi_t = \Xi_u \sin \theta_i \cos \theta_i$ , the  $\Xi$ 's being the deformation potential constants defined by Herring and Vogt.<sup>1</sup> It is seen that, for the  $F_\alpha^{(i)}$  not large compared to unity, which we shall assume to be the case throughout this treatment, (1) is not in a form for which we may say the phonon distribution has a new temperature.

$N_{ql}$  and  $N_{qt}$  were calculated for  $n$ -Ge, for several directions of  $q$ , with current assumed in the [100] direction, in which case  $T_e^{(i)}$  is the same for all valleys.  $T_e$  was taken as  $10T_{lat}$ , or  $40^\circ$ , and  $\hbar \omega_q / k_0 T_{lat}$  was taken as 2. For  $q$  in the [100] direction, it was found that  $F_t^{(i)} = 3.32nL/5 \times 10^{14}$  for  $L$  in cm,  $n$  in  $\text{cm}^{-3}$ .  $F_l^{(i)}$  for this direction was quite small. For  $q$  in the [111] direction,  $F_l^{(111)} = 12.1nL/5 \times 10^{14}$ , but it is much smaller for the other three valleys. The corresponding quantity for transverse waves is 0 for the [111] valley, and small for the other three valleys. Despite the large anisotropy of  $N_{ql}$  and  $N_{qt}$  individually, their sum has small anisotropy. For  $L = 1$  cm,  $n = 5 \times 10^{14}/\text{cm}^3$ , the sum is  $\approx 4$  for  $q$  in the [100] direction, 5.5 for  $q$  in the [111] direction.

With  $N_q$  given above, one may calculate from the usual formalism<sup>1</sup> the relaxation-time tensor and the mobility, which is a scalar for current in the [100] direction, as functions of  $T_e$ . In turn,  $T_e$  may be determined by the familiar technique

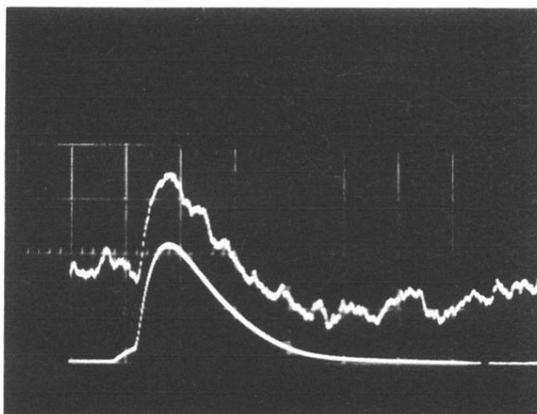


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