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2 Induced Li-site vacancies and non-linear optical behavior of 3 doped lithium niobate crystals

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7 Abstract

8 Second-order non-linear optical (NLO) properties of doped lithium niobate (LN) crystals (abbreviated as M:LN,
9 where $M = \text{Mg}^{2+}, \text{Zn}^{2+},$ and In^{3+} , respectively) have been quantitatively studied from the chemical bond viewpoint.
10 Our results show that the second-order NLO response of doped LN crystals decreases remarkably with increasing
11 dopant concentration in the crystal. The approximately linear composition-property correlation in these doped LN
12 crystals is quantitatively expressed in the current work. A comparison of the different influences of Mg, Zn and In
13 dopants, respectively, shows that these dopants affect the NLO properties of LN crystals mainly via the number of Li-
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16 *Keywords:* Optical properties; Lithium niobate; Second harmonic generation; Chemical bond method

17 1. Introduction

18 Due to its large electrooptical and non-linear
19 optical (NLO) coefficients [1,2], lithium niobate,
20 LiNbO_3 (LN), is one of the most interesting in-
21 organic NLO materials suitable for numerous
22 applications in optics (holographic storage, elec-
23 trooptic devices, waveguide structures, solid-state
24 lasers, frequency doublers and mixers, parametric
25 oscillators, etc.). In spite of the massive research
26 on this material in the past decades there are still
27 many open questions concerning e.g., the forma-
28 tion of efficient self-frequency doubled lasers or the

suppression of the so-called photorefractive dam- 29
age. 30

Usually grown from a congruently melting 31
composition, LN is a typical non-stoichiometric 32
crystal exhibiting a Li deficit of about 1.5%. Thus 33
it contains specific intrinsic defects in its crystal 34
structure – mainly lattice vacancies at Li sites and 35
 Nb_{Li} antisite defects [3–6]. 36

A rich variety of rare earth [7,8] and metal ions 37
can be introduced as dopant into the LN lattice, 38
either during the growth process or by post-growth 39
techniques like ion implantation, using He^+ or H^+ 40
[9], or indiffusion, using e.g., Cu [10]. Important 41
photonic applications are thus possible as e.g., 42
holographic memories [11,12], optical demulti- 43
plexers [13], or self-frequency doubled lasers [14]. 44

Optical devices fabricated from nominally pure 45
LN usually suffer from so-called optical damage 46

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47 due to the photorefractive effect when exposed to
 48 intense illumination. This effect can be greatly re-
 49 duced by co-doping LN crystals with MgO [15,16],
 50 ZnO [17], or In₂O₃ [18], etc., due to the influence of
 51 Mg²⁺, Zn²⁺, or In³⁺ on the intrinsic defect struc-
 52 ture of LN [18–21]. Yet these defects affect not
 53 only the photorefractive but also nearly all other
 54 optical properties of LN; their influences on the
 55 absorption edge [22] and the refractive indices and
 56 the phase matching conditions for different con-
 57 figurations of second harmonic generation (SHG)
 58 [23–27] have already been studied in some detail.

59 The purpose of the present work is a compari-
 60 son of these impurity influences on the NLO re-
 61 sponse, i.e., the SHG susceptibility tensor, of LN.
 62 As shown previously [28], also the non-linear
 63 properties of crystals depend sensitively on the
 64 impurity content. Applying the chemical bond
 65 viewpoint [29–31], the influence of the dopants on
 66 the dielectric response is quantitatively analyzed.

67 2. Structural analysis of doped lithium niobate

68 In pure LN of stoichiometric composition, the
 69 ideal cation stacking sequence along the polar *c*-
 70 axis of the crystal can be described by
 71 ...-Li-Nb-□-Li-Nb-□-..., where □ represents
 72 for a structural vacancy (an empty oxygen octa-
 73 hedron) [3]. This crystal structure is illustrated by
 74 Fig. 1. The structural situation changes when dop-
 75 ants are introduced into the crystal. Nearly all
 76 two- or three-valenced dopants are found to oc-
 77 cupy Li sites [32,33] – at least at low doping levels
 78 (up to some percent). Charge compensation is ac-
 79 complished by the formation of an appropriate
 80 number of Li vacancies. This modifies the local
 81 chemical bonding state in the crystal in a random
 82 way, especially for the oxygen atoms around the
 83 dopants and the vacancies. As an exact numerical
 84 treatment of such a disturbed crystal is not possi-
 85 ble to date, one has to introduce some practical
 86 simplifications.

87 The chemical bond method [29–31] treats a
 88 compound as an infinite network of constituent
 89 atoms linked by chemical bonds. For pure crystals,
 90 this can be reduced to a finite network comprising
 91 a single formula unit such as the network of

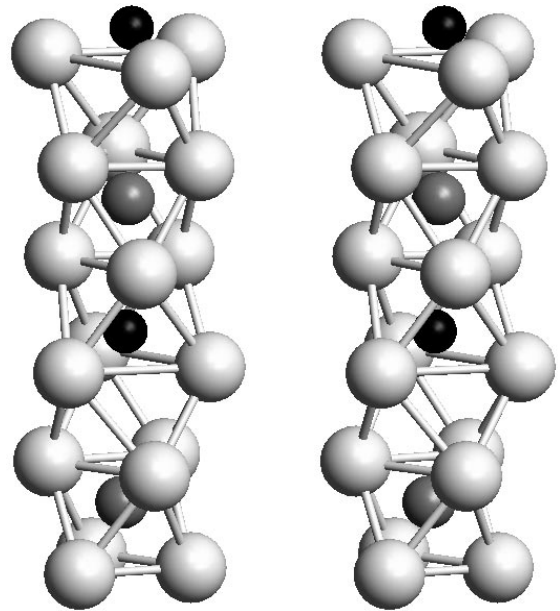


Fig. 1. Stereoscopic view (to be viewed with crossed eyes) of the ideal crystal stacking sequence of lithium niobate along the crystallographic *c*-axis (light gray: oxygen, dark gray: niobium, black: lithium).

LiNbO₃, in which Li⁺ and Nb⁵⁺ are six-coordi- 92
 nated (with O²⁻ anions) and O²⁻ is four-coordi- 93
 nated (with two Li⁺ cations and two Nb⁵⁺ 94
 cations). The detailed chemical bonding descrip- 95
 tion for pure LiNbO₃ is shown in Fig. 2(a). In 96
 the graphs of Fig. 2, each line represents a different 97
 bond, and each atom A in the corresponding lat- 98
 tice is assigned a formal charge equal to its atomic 99
 valence or oxidation state (V_A) and each bond 100
 between atoms A and B is assigned a bond valence 101
 (s_{AB}). The sum of the bond valences (each with 102
 appropriate algebraic sign according to the bond 103
 direction) at each node atom in the network equals 104
 its formal charge, the sum around any loop is zero 105
 [30,31] 106

$$\sum_B s_{AB} = V_A \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{\text{loop}} s_{AB} = 0. \quad (1)$$

Calculations of the crystal susceptibility are based 108
 on such a suitable decomposition of the crystal 109
 into single bonds. 110

The exact treatment of doped LN would require 111
 a large number of such bond graphs, each de- 112

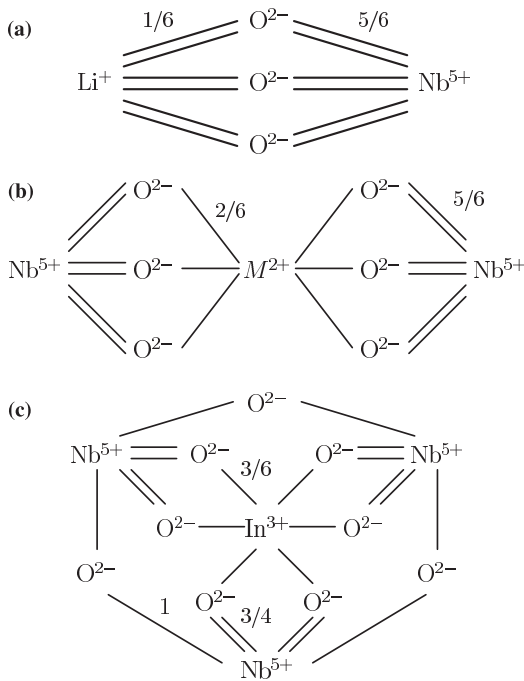


Fig. 2. The bond graph of: (a) pure LiNbO₃; (b) M²⁺:LiNbO₃, where M is Mg and Zn, respectively; (c) In³⁺:LiNbO₃. The valences of the atoms and the theoretical valences of the bonds are shown.

113 scribing one of the possible environments around a
 114 dopant ion. To avoid such complications with
 115 randomly distributed modified bonding situations,
 116 we treat doped LN instead as an appropriate
 117 mixture of pure LN with pure ‘metal’ niobate
 118 (metal = Mg, Zn, In, ...). Of course this approxi-
 119 mative approach can not be used in general, albeit
 120 it can be successfully applied for the calculation of
 121 optical properties. This is due to the fact that opti-
 122 cal wavelengths are rather large compared to
 123 typical interatomic distances, a summation over a
 124 fixed distribution of small regions will yield the
 125 same optical susceptibility as a summation over a
 126 random distribution. Consequently, for the de-
 127 scription and decomposition of doped LN, we use
 128 the bond graphs of the metal niobates MNb₂O₆
 129 (M = Mg, Zn) and InNb₃O₉, as shown in Fig.
 130 2(b) and (c), in addition to that of pure LN (Fig.
 131 2(a)). Thus crystals of doped LN Li_{1-x}M_{x/2}NbO₃
 132 and Li_{1-x}In_{x/3}NbO₃ are formally treated as (1 - x)
 133 · LiNbO₃ + x/2 · MNb₂O₆ and (1 - x) · LiNbO₃ +

x/3 · InNb₃O₉, respectively. As a further approxi- 134
 mation in the calculations, the geometrical struc- 135
 ture data for the metal niobates are adopted from 136
 pure LN. Generally it must be assumed that the 137
 crystal lattice would relax its geometry slightly 138
 around dopants and vacancies due to the altered 139
 ionic charges. Yet, to date no experimental struc- 140
 tural data are available which describe the *relaxed* 141
 lattice around impurities in LN correctly. 142

3. Theoretical method

143

As shown in previous works [29] – developed 144
 from the dielectric theory of solids [34–36] – the 145
 chemical bond method regards certain macro- 146
 scopic physical properties of a crystal as a combi- 147
 nation of the contributions of all constituent 148
 chemical bonds. Accordingly, the linear and sec- 149
 ond-order NLO properties of a crystal can be 150
 calculated using the appropriate geometric sum of 151
 the respective properties of its corresponding 152
 constituent chemical bonds. On the basis of the 153
 crystallographic structure of an assigned crystal, 154
 its linear and second-order NLO susceptibilities χ 155
 and d_{ij} thus can be written as 156

$$\chi = \sum_{\mu} F^{\mu} \chi^{\mu} = \sum_{\mu} N_b^{\mu} \chi_b^{\mu} \quad (2)$$

and

158

$$d_{ij} = \sum_{\mu} \left\{ \frac{G_{ij}^{\mu} N_b^{\mu} (0.5) \{ [(Z_A^{\mu})^* + n(Z_B^{\mu})^*] / [(Z_A^{\mu})^* - n(Z_B^{\mu})^*] \} f_i^{\mu} (\chi_b^{\mu})^2}{d^{\mu} q^{\mu}} + \frac{G_{ij}^{\mu} N_b^{\mu} s(2s-1) [r_0^{\mu} / (r_0^{\mu} - r_c^{\mu})]^2 f_c^{\mu} (\chi_b^{\mu})^2 \rho^{\mu}}{d^{\mu} q^{\mu}} \right\}, \quad (3)$$

respectively. Parameters used in Eqs. (2) and (3) 160
 include: 161

- F^{μ} Fraction of bonds of type μ composing the crystal.
- χ^{μ} Linear susceptibility contribution from μ type bonds.
- N_b^{μ} Number of bonds of type μ per cm³.
- χ_b^{μ} Susceptibility of a single bond of type μ .

G_{ij}^{μ}	Geometrical contribution of chemical bonds of type μ .	[38] taking into account the more complex true screening behavior in crystals. 173	174
$(Z_A^{\mu})^*, (Z_B^{\mu})^*$	Effective number of valence electrons of A and B ions, respectively.	The bond charge q^{μ} can be expressed as [29,37] 175	175
n	Ratio of numbers of two elements B and A in the bond valence equation [37].	$q^{\mu} = (n_c^{\mu})^* [1/(\chi^{\mu} + 1) + f_c^{\mu}(2^{F_c} - 1.1)/N_{\text{cation}}]e$,	(7)
f_i^{μ}, f_c^{μ}	Fractions of ionic and covalent characteristics of the individual bonds, $f_i^{\mu} = (C^{\mu})^2 / [(E_h^{\mu})^2 + (C^{\mu})^2]$ and $f_c^{\mu} = 1 - f_i^{\mu}$, where C^{μ}, E_h^{μ} are the average energy gaps due to ionic and covalent effects.	where $(n_c^{\mu})^*$ is the number of valence electrons per bond μ , $F_c = \sum_{\mu} N_b^{\mu} f_c^{\mu}$ the crystal covalency, and N_{cation} the cation coordination number. 177 The geometrical factors G_{ij}^{μ} for the contributions of the respective bond types μ to the tensor coefficients d_{ij} are deduced from the crystal geometry 180	178 179 181 182
d^{μ}	Bond length of the μ type bonds in Å.	$G_{ij}^{\mu} = G_{ikl}^{\mu} = 1/n_b^{\mu} \sum_{\lambda} \alpha_{i,\lambda}^{\mu} \alpha_{k,\lambda}^{\mu} \alpha_{l,\lambda}^{\mu}$.	(8)
q^{μ}	Bond charge of the μ th bond.	The sum on λ is to be taken over all n_b^{μ} symmetry-equivalent bonds of type μ in the unit cell. $\alpha_{i,\lambda}^{\mu}$ denotes the direction cosine of the λ th bond of type μ in the unit cell with respect to the i th axis of the optical indicatrix, ij is the contracted form of the full set of indices ikl used in the third rank non-linear susceptibility tensor. 184	185 186 187 188 189 190
s	Exponent in the bond force constant.		
$r_c^{\mu} = 0.35r_0^{\mu}$	Core radius, where $r_0^{\mu} = d^{\mu}/2$ and d^{μ} is the bond length.		
$\rho^{\mu} = (r_A^{\mu} - r_B^{\mu}) / (r_A^{\mu} + r_B^{\mu})$	Difference in the atomic sizes, where r_A^{μ} and r_B^{μ} are the covalent radii of atoms A and B, taken from the periodic table of elements.		
162	According to Levine's model [36] the susceptibility		
163	χ^{μ} of any bond of type μ is expressed as		
	$\chi^{\mu} = (4\pi)^{-1} \left(\hbar \Omega_p^{\mu} \right)^2 / \left[(E_h^{\mu})^2 + (C^{\mu})^2 \right], \quad (4)$		
165	where Ω_p^{μ} is the plasma frequency. The average		
166	covalent energy gap E_h^{μ} of a bond is given by		
167	[34,38]		
	$E_h^{\mu} = 39.74 / (d^{\mu})^s, \quad s = 2.48 \quad (5)$		
169	the average ionic gap C^{μ} by		
	$C^{\mu} = b^{\mu} \exp(-k_s^{\mu} r_0^{\mu}) [(Z_A^{\mu})^* - n Z_B^{\mu}] / r_0^{\mu}, \quad (6)$		
171	where $\exp(-k_s^{\mu} r_0^{\mu})$ is the Thomas–Fermi screening		
172	factor and b^{μ} is a correction factor of order unity		
		4. Results and discussion	191
		On the basis of the detailed crystallographic data of pure LN [39] and the modifications for doped LN discussed above, the linear and NLO susceptibilities of all different constituent bonds Li–O, Nb–O, and M–O contained in doped LN are calculated. To increase accuracy, the calculated values of the linear optical susceptibilities were referenced against experimental values. The experimental values of the (ordinary) refractive indices n_o at 1079 nm were taken from previous studies [23,24,26,27] which yield an approximately linear dependence on the dopant concentration at low doping levels:	192 193 194 195 196 197 198 199 200 201 202 203 204
		Mg : LN, $n_o = 2.2311 - 0.00085 c_{\text{Mg}}$,	(9)
		$c_{\text{Mg}} < 9\%$,	206
		Zn : LN, $n_o = 2.2311 + 0.00079 c_{\text{Zn}}$,	(10)
		$c_{\text{Zn}} < 9\%$,	208

$$\text{In : LN, } n_o = 2.2311 - 0.00280 c_{\text{In}}, \quad (11)$$

$$c_{\text{In}} < 3\%.$$

210 c denotes the molar percentage of the respective
211 oxide in LN.

212 These experimental references were used to ob-
213 tain the exact correction factors b in Eq. (6).

214 The calculations of the non-linear susceptibili-
215 ties also yield approximately linear dependencies
216 on the dopant concentration, which can be sum-
217 marized by Eqs. (12)–(14):

$$d_{22} = 2.71 \cdot (1 - 0.026 c_{\text{Mg}} - 0.023 c_{\text{Zn}} - 0.064 c_{\text{In}}), \quad (12)$$

$$219 \quad d_{31} = -4.12$$

$$\cdot (1 - 0.028 c_{\text{Mg}} - 0.026 c_{\text{Zn}} - 0.097 c_{\text{In}}), \quad (13)$$

$$221 \quad d_{33} = -22.9$$

$$\cdot (1 - 0.027 c_{\text{Mg}} - 0.024 c_{\text{Zn}} - 0.082 c_{\text{In}}), \quad (14)$$

223 where d_s are in pm/V and c_s are the molar per-
224 centages of the respective oxides (MgO, ZnO,
225 In_2O_3).

226 For pure LN (i.e., $c_{\text{Mg}} = c_{\text{Zn}} = c_{\text{In}} = 0$) the cal-
227 culated results agree well with experimental data at
228 1064 nm [40]: $d_{22} = 2.1$ pm/V, $d_{31} = -4.3$ pm/V,
229 and $d_{33} = -27$ pm/V, as well as with our previ-
230 ously calculated results at 1064 nm [37].

231 The dependencies of the three tensor coefficients
232 on the doping concentrations show that all coef-
233 ficients decrease approximately linearly with in-
234 creasing doping concentrations. This indicates that
235 the dopants directly or indirectly reduce the
236 acentricity of the material. The decrease is most
237 expressed in In-doped LN, considerably less in the
238 case of Zn or Mg doping, the ratio of the slopes is
239 approximately 4. One explanation for the large
240 difference between three- and two-valent dopants
241 is the scaling used. The d values in Eqs. (12)–(14)
242 are calculated as a function of the ‘molar’ impurity
243 concentration which usually is referred to the basic
244 oxides composing the material. These basic oxides

245 are Li_2O , Nb_2O_5 , MgO , ZnO , and In_2O_3 , respec-
246 tively. Taking this and the respective valence state
247 into account, In_2O_3 introduces four times as much
248 Li vacancies as MgO or ZnO into the crystallo-
249 graphic frame of LN. The correspondence between
250 this factor four and the slope ratio discussed above
251 suggests that the reduction in the acentricity of
252 LN, introduced by dopants, is mainly due to the
253 number of Li vacancies, fairly independent of the
254 specific impurity used. A similar factor of 4 is also
255 found when regarding the so-called ‘threshold’
256 values [41] for different dopants in LN which were
257 found to be about 6% in the case of Mg and Zn
258 and about 1.5% in the case of In [21]. The fact that
259 the number of Li vacancies strongly affects the
260 NLO properties of LN assures our previous result
261 that the Li places in the crystallographic frame of
262 LN are the sensitive lattice sites, on which dopants
263 (or vacancies) can modify the dielectric properties
264 most effectively [29,37]. Yet this seems to be
265 mainly true for the non-linear properties (i.e., the
266 acentricity) as the linear dielectric properties be-
267 have in a slightly different way: n_o decreases with
268 Mg doping [23], increases with Zn doping [24], and
269 decreases with In doping [26].

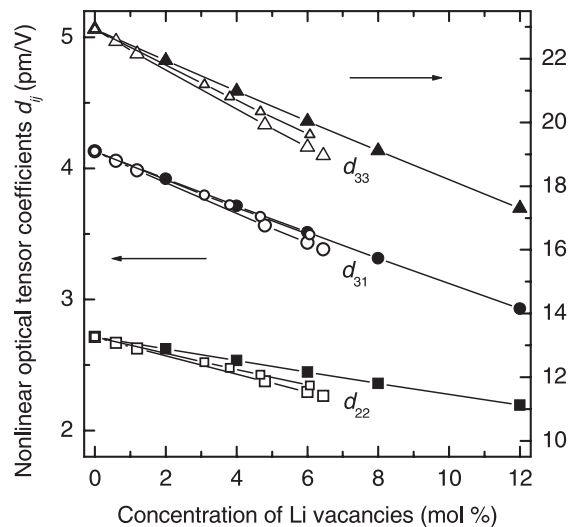


Fig. 3. Non-linear optical tensor coefficients d_{ij} in doped lithium niobate as a function of the lithium vacancy concentration induced by different dopants. Filled markers: In-doped, small open markers: Zn-doped, large open markers: Mg-doped lithium niobate.

270 A plot of the SHG tensor coefficients as a
 271 function of the lithium vacancy concentration
 272 (Fig. 3) shows the approximately coinciding be-
 273 havior for all three sorts of dopants discussed here.
 274 The behavior of the d values can be described by
 275 the global formula

$$d_{ij} = d_{ij}^{\text{pure}} \cdot (1 - 0.023 \cdot c_{\text{VLi}}) \quad (15)$$

277 with an accuracy of about $\pm 5\%$ for lithium vac-
 278 uancy concentrations c_{VLi} less than 10%. For d_{ij}^{pure}
 279 the values given in Eqs. (12)–(14) or the respective
 280 experimental values have to be inserted.

281 5. Conclusion

282 Dielectric properties of doped LN single crystals
 283 at 1079 nm have been quantitatively studied from
 284 the chemical bond viewpoint of crystal materials.
 285 It is found that different dopants on Li sites in LN
 286 affect the second-order NLO response of LN
 287 crystals in a different way. Yet all doping depen-
 288 dencies for the dopants regarded here can be de-
 289 scribed by a global unitary factor when referred to
 290 the concentration of lithium vacancies induced by
 291 the impurities.

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