MAGNETOSTRICTION AND MAGNETOElastic QUANTUM OSCILLATIONS IN p-TYPE LEAD TELLURIDE

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**Abstract**

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IN p-TYPE LEAD TELLURIDE*

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SUMMARY

A detailed experimental and theoretical study of quantum oscillations in the magnetostriction and Young's modulus of p-type lead telluride is presented. The valance band of lead telluride is approximated by a spheroidal, nonparabolic model in which the effects of strain on the valance band parameters are described by a deformation potential model. Using appropriate thermodynamic derivatives of the modified Lifshitz-Kosevich expression for the oscillatory parts of the electronic free energy, it is shown that both types of oscillations arise mainly from relative shifts of the valance band maxima due to shear strains, accompanied by intervalley charge transfer. Band parameters derived from the periods, phases, and spin splitting of the oscillations are in generally good agreement with values reported by other workers. A detailed comparison is made of the experimentally observed oscillation amplitudes with those predicted by theory, and satisfactory agreement is found. The ratio of the amplitudes of the two effects yields a value of the valance band deformation potential, $\Xi_u^V = 7.9 \pm 1.3$ eV, in good agreement with a value found from piezoresistance experiments by Burke.

INTRODUCTION

The Landau quantization of the energy levels of the conduction electrons in a solid placed in a magnetic field forms the basis for some of the most powerful techniques for establishing the electronic structure of solids (ref. 1). One can construct, using the thermodynamic potential for the electronic system as calculated by Lifshitz and Kosevich (ref. 2), a free energy which is a function of the magnetic field, the tempera-


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ture, and the elastic strain. The first derivatives of the free energy with respect to these three thermodynamic variables lead, respectively, to the magnetization, the entropy, and the elastic stress. Because of the quantization of the electronic states, the free energy is periodic in the reciprocal of the magnetic field. This oscillatory character is consequently manifest in the magnetization, entropy, and stress.

The oscillatory magnetization (de Haas-van Alphen effect) has been most extensively used in the study of Fermi surfaces in metals. More recently, the oscillatory entropy, which is revealed as temperature oscillations in a thermally isolated crystal subjected to a swept magnetic field, has also been developed as a useful tool for such studies. The third effect, which appears as an oscillatory magnetostriction (i.e., the dimensional change of a crystal placed in a magnetic field), forms one of the subjects of this paper. The elastic constants of the crystal, which are the second derivatives of the free energy with respect to strain, also show quantum oscillations, and form the second main topic of this paper.

We have measured the oscillatory behavior of the magnetostriction and the Young's modulus of single crystals of p-type lead telluride, a multivalley, degenerate semiconductor, and determined from these results the periods, phases, effective masses, and g-factors for this material. From the amplitudes of these two effects we have also determined the deformation potential $Z^V_u$ for the valance band in lead telluride. The amplitude analysis is considerably simplified by using the ratio of the amplitudes of the two effects. This method of obtaining deformation potentials in semiconductors, or the generalized deformation parameters for Fermi surfaces in metals, is a new and important feature of the techniques described in this paper.

Magnetostriction (MS) was first observed by Joule in 1842 in a bar of iron (ref. 3). The main body of work since that time has been on ferromagnetic materials in which the effect is largest: the strains in iron and nickel are typically $10^{-5}$ to $10^{-6}$ at the saturation field. The first observation of MS in a nonferromagnetic material was made by Kapitza in 1929 in a series of classic experiments in pulsed fields up to 250 kG (ref. 4). Kapitza observed a monotonic MS in bismuth, antimony, graphite, gallium, tin, and tungsten, finding the effect to be greatest in bismuth, where the strain $\epsilon$ is $\sim 10^{-5}$ in a field of 15 tesla (150 kG) at room temperature.

In 1963, Chandrasekhar pointed out that oscillatory MS should be observable in materials that show the de Haas-van Alphen effect (ref. 5). Subsequently, Green and Chandrasekhar observed the first such oscillations in bismuth (ref. 6). Magnetostriction oscillations have since been observed in silver (ref. 7), arsenic (ref. 8), beryllium (ref. 9), bismuth (ref. 10), cadmium (ref. 11), chromium (ref. 12), copper (refs. 13 and 6), gallium (P.A. Pentz private communication), gallium antimonide (ref. 14), lead telluride (refs. 15 and 16), antimony (ref. 17), lead (ref. 12 and private communications from M. M. Finkelstein and from A. J. Slavin), and zinc (ref. 18). One of us (P.R.A.,
unpublished) has observed MS oscillations in gold. The oscillatory strain amplitudes for these materials at 2.5 tesla (25 kG) and temperatures near 4 K range between $10^{-6}$ and $10^{-9}$. For lead telluride at this temperature and field, $\epsilon \sim 10^{-7}$.

Magnetostriction in diamagnetic systems is related directly to the strain dependence of the Fermi surface. Shoenberg (see ref. 14) was one of the first to point out that the diamagnetic oscillatory magnetostriction could be analyzed in terms of the oscillatory magnetization $M$ and the strain dependence of the appropriate extremal cross-sectional area of the Fermi surface:

$$\epsilon_i = -MB s_{ij}^0 \frac{\partial \ln S_m}{\partial \epsilon_j}$$

(1)

where $B$ is the magnetic field, $s_{ij}^0$ is a component of the elastic compliance tensor, and $S_m$ is the extremal cross-sectional area of the Fermi surface perpendicular to the applied magnetic field. (Throughout this report we use the standard "engineering" form of the reduced stress and strain tensors (ref. 19).) Equation (1) was derived using thermodynamic considerations together with the assumption that the strain dependence of the oscillatory diamagnetic free energy is dominated by the strain dependence of the $S_m$ which appears in the argument of the oscillatory factor in the free energy (see eq. (16)). The gallium antimonide and beryllium experiments were analyzed using equation (1); a value for $\frac{\partial \ln S_m}{\partial \epsilon_j}$ was found by measuring separately the magnetization and magnetostriction oscillations. In the present report we derive an expression for the magnetostriction in terms of $\frac{\partial \ln S_m}{\partial \epsilon_j}$ directly from the total free energy, using a modified form of the Lifshitz-Kosevich expression for the diamagnetic free energy. We then use a simple multivalley, deformation potential model to relate $\frac{\partial \ln S_m}{\partial \epsilon_j}$ to the strain dependence of the lead telluride valence band. A similar method has been used by Aron and Chandrasekhar for bismuth (ref. 10) and by the Naval Ordnance Laboratory group for lead telluride (ref. 16). However, the results and conclusions in reference 16 differ from ours at several points. An important new aspect of our analysis is the direct comparison of the MS oscillations with quantum oscillations in the elastic constant (ref. 20). We call these magnetoelastic (ME) oscillations to distinguish them from sound velocity oscillations which have also been observed (ref. 21). By taking the ratio of the amplitudes of these two effects, the analysis is considerably simplified in a manner similar to the simplification obtained by taking the ratio of the amplitudes of the MS oscillations and the magnetization oscillations in equation (1).

Rodriguez (refs. 22 and 23) derived an expression for the velocity oscillations by considering the electronic contribution to the bulk modulus. He simply calculated the second derivative with respect to volume of the Lifshitz-Kosevich expression for the diamagnetic free energy of a free-electron gas, assuming the major contribution to this
derivative to come from the strain dependence of the $S_m$, which appears in the oscillatory factor, and using the free-electron expression $\frac{\partial \ln S_m}{\partial V} = -\frac{2}{3}$. This approach is quite similar to those mentioned in the preceding section for calculating expressions for the MS oscillations. For the analysis of their beryllium experiments, Testardi and Condon (ref. 24) derived expressions relating elastic constant oscillations to magnetization oscillations. They measured separately the magnetization and velocity oscillations and from the combined data report values of $\frac{\partial \ln S_m}{\partial \varepsilon}$. The ideas behind their arguments are quite similar to those used to derive equation (1), where the magnetization and ME oscillations are related. Whereas Rodriguez's equations are limited to the free-electron gas, a ratio method such as that used by Testardi and Condon can be applied to an electronic system with a more general Fermi surface. Testardi and Condon also included B-H effects and the interaction between $\varepsilon$ and $B$ in their analysis.

In this report, we describe a spheroidal, nonparabolic, multivalley, deformation potential model of the valance band of lead telluride. We derive theoretical expressions in terms of our valance band model for the MS and ME oscillations from the appropriate strain derivatives of a modified form of the Lifshitz-Kosevich free energy. Band parameters obtained from the experimental results are compared with results previously obtained by other workers. An analysis of the amplitudes of the MS and ME oscillations and their ratio is presented, leading to an experimental value of the valance band deformation potential $\Sigma^V_u$ for PbTe. Some basic relations for the spheroidal, nonparabolic energy-band model are presented in the appendix.

**LEAD TELLURIDE VALANCE BAND**

Lead telluride (PbTe) is a cubic (NaCl structure, point group m3m) degenerate semiconductor characterized (at liquid-helium temperatures) by a small energy gap (~0.2 eV), high carrier mobilities $\gtrsim 10^5$ cm$^2$ V$^{-1}$ sec$^{-1}$, and small effective masses (~0.05 $m_0$). A mass of experimental evidence (de Haas-van Alphen oscillations, Shubnikov-de Haas oscillations, Azbel-Kaner cyclotron resonance, interband magneto-optical absorption, and other optical and transport phenomena (see references in the beginning of ref. 25)) indicates that the Fermi surface of both p- and n-type PbTe is well described by $\langle 111 \rangle$ directed prolate spheroids centered on the L-points of the Brillouin zone (fig. 1). There are eight half-spheroids or, equivalently, four full spheroids in the zone.

Cuff, Ellett, and Kuglin (refs. 26 and 27) found a strong carrier concentration dependence of the $\langle 111 \rangle$ cyclotron mass for p-type PbTe, which indicates that the valance band of this material is nonparabolic. Dixon and Riedl (ref. 28) found similar results for the carrier concentration dependence of the electric-susceptibility hole mass of PbTe. In order to take nonparabolicity into account we use a model due largely to Kane
Figure 1. - The Brillouin zone of lead telluride showing the eight, (111)- directed, half-spheroids that contain the carriers (either electrons or holes).

(Ref. 29) and Cohen (Ref. 30). Considering the symmetry of PbTe and using a coordinate system where \( p_3 \) is the momentum component along [111], and \( p_1 \) and \( p_2 \) are the two orthogonal components, Cohen's equation (26) becomes

\[
\frac{p_1^2 + p_2^2}{2m_1} = \left( E - \frac{p_3^2}{2m_3} \right) \left( 1 + \frac{E}{E_g} + \frac{p_3^2}{2m_1 m_3'} \right)
\]

(2)

where \( E_g \) is an effective energy gap between the valance and conduction bands, \( m_1 \) and \( m_3 \) are the band edge effective masses, and \( m_3' \) is the longitudinal effective mass of the conduction band, which is experimentally found to be of the same order of magnitude as \( m_3 \) (Ref. 31). The Fermi surface is more easily visualized by writing equation (2) in the form

\[
E = \frac{p_1^2 + p_2^2}{2m_t} + \frac{p_3^2}{2m_l}
\]

(3)
where

$$m_t = m_1 \left(1 + \frac{E}{E_g} + \frac{p_3^2}{2E_g m_1^3} \right)$$  \hspace{1cm} (4)

and

$$m_t = m_3$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)

Equation (3) describes a surface of revolution about the 3-axis, which has extremal cross sections at $p_3 = 0$ and $p_3^2 = m_1^3 E_g \left[ \frac{E}{E_g} (m_3/m_1^3 - 1) - 1 \right]$. For the energy and mass values of our samples the second extremum does not exist, and the Fermi surface is spheroidal except for a slight bulging for large values of $p_3$. In this connection, we note that recent work by Schilz (ref. 32) indicates that when the carrier concentration becomes large ($p > 5 \times 10^{18}$ cm$^{-3}$), the valance band Fermi surface becomes cylindrical in shape. The extremal cross section perpendicular to the $p_3$ axis, located at $p_3 = 0$, is given by

$$S_{m3} = 2\pi m_1 E \left(1 + \frac{E}{E_g} \right)$$  \hspace{1cm} (6)

The cyclotron orbits of importance in the present work do not traverse large values of $p_3$, so that the $p_3$ dependence of the transverse mass indicated in equation (4) is small and can be neglected. Instead of equation (4) we therefore use

$$m_t = m_1 \left(1 + \frac{E}{E_g} \right)$$  \hspace{1cm} (7)

Equations (3), (5), and (6) describe the spheroidal, nonparabolic model for the energy surfaces of p-type PbTe, which we use throughout the remainder of this report. As is conventional, we also define a mass anisotropy parameter $K = m_t/m_t$, which in our model has an energy dependence of the form $K = (m_3/m_1) \left[ 1 + (E/E_g) \right]^{-1}$.

A test of the validity of the model and an evaluation of the numerical values of the model parameters appropriate to p-PbTe can be made using our data and the data of Cuff, Ellett, and Kuglin (ref. 26). When the magnetic field is parallel to the unique axis
of the spheroid, the quantum oscillation period $P_3$ is given by

$$P_3 = \frac{e\hbar}{cS_3m_3} = \frac{e\hbar}{cE_Fm_1\left(1 + \frac{E_F}{E_g}\right)} \quad (8)$$

and the corresponding normalized cyclotron mass $\mu_3$ is

$$\mu_3 = \frac{1}{2\pi m_o} \frac{\partial S m_3}{\partial E} \bigg|_{E=E_F} = \frac{m_1}{m_o}\left(1 + 2\frac{E_F}{E_g}\right) \quad (9)$$

(For derivations of these relations, see the appendix. In this report $\mu$ is always used to denote cyclotron masses normalized to $m_o$, the free electron mass, and $m$ is always used to denote unnormalized band masses. Notice that $\mu_3 m_o \neq m_1$.) Solving for $E_F$ from equation (8), substituting this value of $E_F$ into equation (9), and squaring the result give the relation

$$\mu_t^2 = \left(\frac{m_1}{m_o}\right)^2 + Cm_1(P_3E_gm_o)^{-1} \quad (10)$$

where $C = 4\frac{e\hbar}{(m_o c)} = 4.63 \times 10^{-4}$ electron volt per tesla. Thus, a plot of $\mu_t^2$ against $P_3^{-1}$ gives the band edge mass $m_1$ and the energy gap $E_g$.

Such an analysis was carried out in reference 27, and in figure 2 shows a plot of their data along with values found from this experiment. A least-squares fit of the data gives $m_1 = (0.018 \pm 0.003)$ $m_o$ and $E_g = 0.10 \pm 0.02$ electron volt. Cuff, Ellett, Kuglin, and Williams (ref. 27) find a different value for $m_1$. This discrepancy appears to originate from the fact that their equation (2) is not equivalent to our equation (10), although it appears that the same model is being considered. A similar study indicates that $m_2$ is essentially constant over the range of carrier concentrations $3.6 \times 10^{17}$ per cubic centimeter $< p < 3.5 \times 10^{18}$ per cubic centimeter and has a value $m_2 = m_3 = (0.10 \pm 0.02) m_o$.

The direct gap $\Delta$ between the valance and conduction bands of PbTe at $T = 4.2$ K has been determined in two different experiments. Mitchell, Palik, and Zemel (ref. 33) find $\Delta = 0.190 \pm 0.002$ electron volt from magneto-optical studies of epitaxial films and Butler and Calawa (ref. 34) find $\Delta = 0.187$ electron volt from magneto-emission studies with PbTe diode lasers. The fact that the effective gap $E_g$ in our model is smaller than the measured direct optical gap $\Delta$ indicates that interactions between the valence band
and the higher conduction band states are important in determining the valance band parameters.

The interaction of the electron spins with the magnetic field splits each Landau level by an amount $\pm g_e \hbar B / 4 m_0 c$, where the electron g-factor depends on the electron spin-orbit interaction. The two series of quantum oscillations associated with the two spin orientations interfere, producing a single set of quantum oscillations with an amplitude controlled by the factor $\cos(\pi g_\mu / 2)$, where $\mu$ is the normalized cyclotron mass appropriate to the applied field direction. Knowledge of this factor is important in our amplitude analysis.

The g-factor is related to the components of a second-rank tensor and in PbTe has a directional dependence of the form (refs. 35 and 36)

$$g^2 = g_\parallel^2 \cos^2 \theta + g_\perp^2 \sin^2 \theta$$

(11)

where $g_\parallel$ and $g_\perp$ are the g-factors for the field parallel and perpendicular to the [111] axis. The results of a number of different experiments (table I) indicate that at the band
edge, $g_{\parallel} \approx 50$ and that $g_{\parallel}$ decreases with increasing carrier concentration. Burke, Houston, and Savage (ref. 37) find $g_{\perp} = 7 \pm 2$. The carrier concentration dependence of $g_{\parallel}$ is related to the nonparabolicity of the bands; the interband interactions which determine the $g$-factor are quite similar to those which determine the inverse effective mass. To a first approximation, both experimentally and theoretically (refs. 35 and 36) $g_{\parallel}$ varies with carrier concentration as $1/m_{\parallel}$. Schilz (ref. 32) found the spin factor $g_{\mu}/2$ to be directionally independent. This is borne out by other work; for example, using the values of Burke, Houston, and Savage (ref. 37) and equations (A9) and (11) we compute $g_{\mu}/2$ to be 0.56 for the ellipsoid with the smallest extremal area when $\mathbf{B}$ is along [110]. This value is sensibly the same as the values 0.58 shown in table I for the [100] and [111] directions. Since we were able to measure the spin splitting only with $\mathbf{B}[100]$, we will assume the amplitude factor $\cos(\pi g_{\mu}/2)$ to be the same for the [100], [110], and [111] directions.

The effect of strain on nondegenerate\(^1\) energy levels in semiconductors can be described by a deformation potential tensor $\bar{E}$ (refs. 38 to 40). In this scheme the shift in the energy of the point $\nu$ in a band is described to first order in the strain $\bar{E}$ by $\delta E^\nu = \bar{E}^\nu \cdot \bar{e}$. In general, each point in the band will have nine deformation potentials.

\(^1\)There is, in fact, the spin degeneracy; however, for the rock salt structure, this degeneracy is never destroyed by strain deformation (ref. 41).
associated with it. However, this number is usually greatly reduced at a symmetry point. At the L-points in PbTe there are only two independent deformation potentials for each band, and we can express \( \Xi' \), using the notation of Herring (refs. 39 and 40), as 
\[
\Xi'_{ij} = \Xi_d \delta_{ij} + \Xi_u u_i' u_j' 
\]
where \( \delta_{ij} \) is the Kronecker delta and the unit vector \( \hat{u} \) points to a particular L-point. This leads to an energy shift of the form

\[
\delta E' = \left( \Xi_d + \frac{1}{3} \Xi_u \right) (\epsilon_1 + \epsilon_2 + \epsilon_3) + \frac{1}{3} \Xi_u (\pm \epsilon_4 \pm \epsilon_5 \pm \epsilon_6) \tag{12}
\]

where the signs depend upon \( \nu \). The PbTe deformation potentials have been calculated by Ferreira (ref. 41). However, there has been only a limited amount of experimental work on determining the PbTe deformation potentials. Ferreira's results are shown in table II along with the deformation potentials derived from piezoresistance measurements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of data</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Valence band</th>
<th>Conduction band</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>( \Xi_d' )</td>
<td>( \Xi_u' )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Theory</td>
<td>Ref. 42</td>
<td>-8.93</td>
<td>10.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>Ref. 43</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE II. - DEFORMATION POTENTIALS OF LEAD TELLURIDE

by Ilisavskii (ref. 42) and Burke (ref. 43). In order to find the deformation potential from piezoresistance, the elastic constants and the ratio of the mobilities perpendicular and parallel to the [111] axis must be known. Ilisavskii did not have good values for these two parameters, so we have recalculated his deformation potentials using Burke's latest values. The variation of the energy gap with pressure has been measured optically (ref. 44) giving 
\[
(3\Xi_d^c + \Xi_u^c) - (3\Xi_d^v + \Xi_u^v) = 9.5 \text{ to } 11.4 \text{ electron volts, where the superscripts refer to the valance or conduction bands. Ferreira's theoretical values give 11.6 electron volts, in reasonable agreement with experiment.}
\]

The band edge masses \( m_1 \) and \( m_3 \) are found in the work of Lin and Kleinman (ref. 25) to be approximately given by \( m_0/m_i = M_i/\Lambda \), where the \( M_i (i = 1, 3) \) are appropriate momentum matrix elements. Since we expect these matrix elements to be insensitive to small strains, we find, using equation (12),
\[
\frac{\partial \ln m_{1,3}}{\partial \epsilon_i} = \frac{\partial \ln \Delta}{\partial \epsilon_i}
\]

\[
\begin{cases}
G_1 \frac{\Delta}{\Delta} & \text{for } i = 1, 2, \text{or } 3 \\
G_2 \frac{\Delta}{\Delta} & \text{for } i = 4, 5, \text{or } 6
\end{cases}
\]

where

\[
G_1 = (\Xi^c_d - \Xi^v_d) + \frac{1}{3} (\Xi^c_u - \Xi^v_u)
\]

\[
G_2 = \frac{1}{3} (\Xi^c_u - \Xi^v_u)
\]

and the sign depends on the particular L-point considered. Since the g-values depend on the energy gap in a similar manner, they should have a similar type of strain dependence.

**THEORY OF OSCILLATING MECHANICAL EFFECTS**

**Thermodynamic Relations**

We obtain theoretical expressions (e.g., ref. 45) for the magnetostriction and magnetoelastic oscillations by considering the free-energy density of the crystal in a magnetic field as the sum of the zero-field elastic energy and the free energy of the diamagnetic electronic system \( \Omega \):

\[
F(\vec{\epsilon}, T, H) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{6} c_{ij}^0 \epsilon_i \epsilon_j + \Omega(\vec{\epsilon}, T, B) + 2\pi M^2
\]

where the \( c_{ij}^0 \) are zero-field components of the elastic stiffness tensor. The magnetization can be obtained from this free energy as (ref. 45) \( M = -\partial F/\partial H = -\partial \Omega/\partial B \) and the stress as \( \sigma_i = \partial F/\partial \epsilon_i \). The explicit dependence of the chemical potential on the strain,
temperature, and magnetic field is neglected since far from the quantum limit (the approximation considered here) its contribution to the oscillatory free energy will be small. Since we are interested in oscillatory effects, we need consider only the oscillatory part of \( \Omega \). For this we use the Lifshitz-Kosevich expression in the modified form given by Williamson, Foner, and White (ref. 46):

\[
\Omega = \sum_{\nu} \sum_{\lambda=1}^{\infty} A_{\lambda \nu} \cos \left( \frac{\lambda c s^\nu_m}{e_h B} - \varphi_\lambda \right)
\]  

(16)

where \( A_{\lambda \nu} \) is a temperature-dependent amplitude function that varies slowly with field,

\[
A_{\lambda \nu} = 2kT \left( \frac{eB}{hc} \right)^{3/2} \left| \frac{\partial^2 s^\nu_m}{\partial B^2} \right|^{-1/2} \frac{\exp \left( \frac{-\lambda \alpha \mu \nu T_D}{B} \right)}{\lambda^{3/2}} \frac{\cos \left( \frac{\lambda \pi g_{\nu \mu} \nu}{2} \right)}{\sinh \left( \frac{\lambda \alpha \mu \nu T}{B} \right)}
\]

(17)

where \( \mu_{\nu}, g_{\nu}, \) and \( S^\nu_m \) are, respectively, the reduced cyclotron mass, the effective g-factor, and the extremal cross-sectional area of the \( \nu \text{th} \) sheet of the Fermi surface, \( T_D \) is the Dingle temperature representing the effect of electron scattering, and \( \alpha = 2\pi^2 k_m c / \hbar \). The phase factor is \( \varphi_\lambda = 2\pi \lambda \gamma \pm \pi / 4 \), where \( \gamma \) is the phase associated with the Landau quantization; the upper sign is used when \( S^\nu_m \) is a maximum, the lower for a minimum. From equation (15) we find the general expression for the strain:

\[
\epsilon_1 = \sum_{j=1}^{6} \mathbf{s}^o_{ij} \left( \sigma_j - \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial \epsilon_j} - 4\pi M \frac{\partial M}{\partial \epsilon_j} \right)
\]

(18)

where the \( \mathbf{s}^o_{ij} \) are defined by \( \sum_{j=1}^{6} \mathbf{s}^o_{ij} \mathbf{c}^o_{jk} = \delta_{ik} \). In PbTe the magnetization is small enough so that the last term in equation (18) can be neglected. (Also, because of the smallness of \( M \), the difference between \( B \) and \( H \) is inconsequential in our analysis.) The oscillatory magnetostriction in the \([l, m, n]\) direction for a PbTe crystal with zero (or constant) external stresses is thus described by the equation
\[
\varepsilon_{lmn} = - \sum_{i,j=1}^{6} \frac{\partial \varepsilon_{lmn}}{\partial \varepsilon_i} s_{ij}^0 \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial \varepsilon_j}
\]

(19)

where \(\frac{\partial \varepsilon_{lmn}}{\partial \varepsilon_i}\) is a product of direction cosines,

\[
\varepsilon_{lmn} = t^2 \varepsilon_1 + m^2 \varepsilon_2 + n^2 \varepsilon_3 + mn \varepsilon_4 + l \varepsilon_5 + m \varepsilon_6
\]

The inverse of Young's modulus in the \([l, m, n]\) direction is defined by

\[(Y_{lmn})^{-1} = \frac{\partial \varepsilon_{lmn}}{\partial \sigma_{lmn}}; \text{ therefore the } ME \text{ oscillations are given by}
\]

\[
Y_{lmn}^{-1}(B) - Y_{lmn}^{-1}(0) = \Delta(Y_{lmn})^{-1} = - \sum_{i,j,k,t=1}^{6} \frac{\partial \varepsilon_{lmn}}{\partial \varepsilon_i} s_{ij}^0 \frac{\partial \sigma_k}{\partial \varepsilon_{lmn}}
\]

\[\times \frac{\partial \varepsilon_t}{\partial \sigma_k} \frac{\partial^2 \Omega}{\varepsilon_j \partial \varepsilon_t}
\]

(20)

Using the identity \(\frac{\partial \sigma_k}{\partial \sigma_{lmn}} = \frac{\partial \varepsilon_{lmn}}{\partial \varepsilon_k}\) and the approximation \(\frac{\partial \varepsilon_t}{\partial \sigma_k} \approx s_{tk}^0\), the ME oscillations are thus described to first order in the elastic constants by

\[
\Delta(Y_{lmn})^{-1} = - \sum_{i,j,k,t=1}^{6} \frac{\partial \varepsilon_{lmn}}{\partial \varepsilon_i} \frac{\partial \varepsilon_{lmn}}{\partial \varepsilon_j} s_{ik}^0 s_{jt}^0 \frac{\partial^2 \Omega}{\partial \varepsilon_k \partial \varepsilon_t}
\]

(21)

\[\text{Strain Derivatives of the Free Energy}\]

In order to evaluate the strain derivatives of the free energy \(\Omega\) we need to evaluate the strain derivatives of the various band parameters which appear in \(\Omega\). To this end, we next use our model of the PbTe band structure to express the strain dependence of the effective masses and cross-sectional areas in terms of the strain dependence of the Fermi energy and the band gap. We then obtain expressions for the strain dependence of these two characteristic energies in terms of the deformation potential parameters.
The band shifts described by the deformation potential scheme lead to variations in \( \Omega \) via three types of effects. The first is due to the relative shift of the valleys produced by a shear strain. Under a shear, some of the valleys move up in energy and some move down. This relative shift of the valleys is accompanied by intervalley charge transfer and changes in the Fermi surface cross-sectional areas. Second are effects due to the nonparabolic bands. Since the energy bands of PbTe are nonparabolic, a shift in the Fermi energy also produces a change in the band parameters. Third are the effects due to the strain dependence of the energy gap. The conduction and valance band deformation potentials are different; therefore, the energy gap is strain dependent. A change in the gap produces a change in the curvature of the bands, hence a change in band parameters. The first effect can occur only with a shear strain, whereas the last two effects will accompany both shear the dilatation strains. We will see from what follows that the dominant effect in PbTe is due to the intervalley charge transfer. This is evidenced experimentally by the fact that both the [100] ME and MS oscillations, which are the only ones to come from pure dilatation strains and involve no intervalley charge transfer, are at least an order of magnitude smaller than the oscillations along other axes.

We account quantitatively for the strain dependence of the cyclotron and band masses by differentiating equations (A9) and (A5):

\[
\frac{\partial \ln \mu}{\partial \epsilon_i} = C_t(\mu) \frac{\partial \ln \mu_t}{\partial \epsilon_i} + \left[ 1 - C_t(\mu) \right] \frac{\partial \ln \mu_L}{\partial \epsilon_i} + C_\theta(\mu) \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \epsilon_i} \quad (22)
\]

\[
\frac{\partial \ln m^*}{\partial \epsilon_i} = C_t(m^*) \frac{\partial \ln m_t}{\partial \epsilon_i} + \left[ 1 - C_t(m^*) \right] \frac{\partial \ln m_L}{\partial \epsilon_i} + C_\theta(m^*) \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \epsilon_i} \quad (23)
\]

where

\[
C_t(\mu) = \left( \frac{\mu}{\mu_t} \right)^2 \left[ \cos^2 \theta + \frac{\mu_t}{2\mu_L} \sin^2 \theta \right] \quad (24)
\]

and

\[
C_\theta(\mu) = \left( \frac{\mu}{\mu_t} \right)^2 \cos \theta \sin \theta \left( 1 - \frac{\mu_t}{\mu_L} \right) \quad (25)
\]
and \( C_t(m^*) \) and \( C_\theta(m^*) \) are obtained from equations (24) and (25) by replacing \( \mu, \mu_t, \) and \( \mu_\ell \) with \( m^*, m_t, \) and \( m_\ell, \) respectively. From equations (7) and (A9) we see that the transverse masses are functions of both the Fermi energy and the energy gap. There is a further energy-gap dependence of the band edge masses, \( m_1 \) and \( m_3, \) which we discussed in a previous section. Assuming that the effective gap is proportional to the direct gap, \( E_g \propto \Delta, \) simple differentiation gives the relations

\[
\frac{\partial \ln \mu_t}{\partial \epsilon_i} = C_F \frac{\partial \ln E_F}{\partial \epsilon_i} + C_g \frac{\partial \ln E_g}{\partial \epsilon_i} \tag{26}
\]

and

\[
\frac{\partial \ln \mu_\ell}{\partial \epsilon_i} = \frac{\partial \ln E_g}{\partial \epsilon_i} \tag{27}
\]

where

\[
C_F = \frac{\frac{E_F}{E_f}}{1 + 2 \frac{E_F}{E_g}} \tag{28}
\]

and

\[
C_g = \frac{1 + \frac{E_F}{E_g}}{1 + 2 \frac{E_F}{E_g}} \tag{29}
\]

and, further,

\[
\frac{\partial \ln m_t}{\partial \epsilon_i} = C_m \frac{\partial \ln E_F}{\partial \epsilon_i} + (1 - C_m) \frac{\partial \ln E_g}{\partial \epsilon_i} \tag{30}
\]
and

$$\frac{\partial \ln m}{\partial \epsilon_i} = \frac{\partial \ln E}{\partial \epsilon_i}$$

(31)

where

$$C_m = \frac{E_F}{E_g}$$

$$\frac{E_F}{1 + \frac{E_F}{E_g}}$$

(32)

Equations (22) to (32) express the strain dependence of $\mu$ and $m^*$ in terms of the strain dependence of the energy gap, the Fermi energy, and the angle between the spheroid axis and the magnetic field.

From equation (A6) we see that the strain dependence of the extremal cross-sectional area is

$$\frac{\partial \ln S_m}{\partial \epsilon_i} = \frac{\partial \ln m^*}{\partial \epsilon_i} + \frac{\partial \ln E_F}{\partial \epsilon_i}$$

(33)

Thus, using equation (23), (30) and (30) with equation (33), we are also able to express $\partial \ln S_m/\partial \epsilon_i$ in terms of the strain dependence of $E_g$, $E_F$, and $\theta$.

We have assumed that $E_g \propto \Delta$; therefore $\partial \ln E_g/\partial \epsilon_i = \partial \ln \Delta/\partial \epsilon_i$, which is given by equation (13). The strain dependence of the Fermi energy is computed using the constraint that the total number $\mathcal{P}$ of carriers in the sample is independent of the strain.

For our spheroidal model (see eq. (A1)), the density of carriers in the $\nu$th valley is

$$p_{\nu} = \frac{2^{3/2}}{3\pi^{2/3}h^3} m^1/2(E_{\nu}^{3/2})$$

(34)

Since $\mathcal{P} = V \sum_{\nu=1}^{4} p_{\nu}$, where $V$ is the crystal volume, the constraint $\partial \mathcal{P}/\partial \epsilon_i = 0$ leads directly to
\[ \delta_{11} + \delta_{21} + \delta_{31} + \frac{1}{4} \left( \frac{3}{2} - C_m \right) \sum_{\nu=1}^{4} \partial \ln \frac{E_{\nu}'}{\partial \epsilon_i} + \left( \frac{3}{2} + C_m \right) \sum_{\nu=1}^{4} \partial \ln \frac{E_F'}{\partial \epsilon_i} = 0 \] (35)

where \( \delta_{ij} \) is the Kronecker symbol, and we have used equations (30) to (32) to express the strain derivatives of \( m_t \) and \( m_l \) in terms of the strain derivatives of \( E_{\nu}' \) and \( E_F' \).

The Fermi energy for our p-type samples is the difference between the chemical potential \( \zeta \) and the valance band maximum \( E_{\nu}' \), therefore,

\[ \frac{\partial \ln E_{\nu}'}{\partial \epsilon_i} = \frac{1}{E_F} \left( \frac{\partial E_{\nu}'}{\partial \epsilon_1} - \frac{\partial \zeta}{\partial \epsilon_1} \right) \] (36)

Using the valence band shifts and the gap dependence described by the deformation potential scheme, equations (12), (13), (35), and (36) lead to expressions for \( \partial \ln E_{\nu}'/\partial \epsilon_i \) in terms of the deformation potentials. There are two cases to be considered:

1. **Dilatational strain** \((i = 1, 2, \text{ or } 3)\). Equations (12) and (13) indicate that all the gap and band-edge shifts are independent of \( \nu \). Therefore, the sums in equation (35) are replaced by a multiplication factor of four, giving

\[ \frac{\partial \ln E_{\nu}'}{\partial \epsilon_i} = -\frac{2}{3} + \frac{1 - \frac{2}{3} C_m}{1 + \frac{2}{3} C_m} \frac{G_1}{\Delta} \] (37)

2. **Shear strain** \((i = 4, 5, \text{ or } 6)\). From equations (12) and (13)

\[ \sum_{\nu=1}^{4} \frac{\partial \ln E_{\nu}'}{\partial \epsilon_i} = 0 \]

and

\[ \sum_{\nu=1}^{4} \frac{\partial \ln E_{\nu}'}{\partial \epsilon_i} = 0 \]
From these and equations (35) and (36), it follows that \( \frac{\partial \xi}{\partial \epsilon_1} = 0 \), so that

\[
\frac{\partial \ln E_F^\nu}{\partial \epsilon_1} = \frac{1}{E_F^\nu} \frac{\partial E_F^\nu}{\partial \epsilon_1} = \frac{1}{3} \frac{\Xi_u}{E_F^\nu}
\]  

(38)

We next examine the strain derivatives of \( \Omega \) which appear in the expression for the MS and ME oscillations, equations (19) and (21), using the expressions for the strain derivatives of the band parameters (eqs. (22) to (38)). Equations (16) and (17) indicate that \( \partial \Omega / \partial \epsilon_1 \) contains many strain derivatives since the effective masses, g-factor, Dingle temperature, cross-sectional area, and volume are, in principle, all strain dependent. However, by completely differentiating equations (16) and (17) and numerically evaluating the various terms using the parameters appropriate to our PbTe samples, we find that the contribution from the strain derivative of \( S^\nu_m \) in the argument of the cosine factor is at least an order of magnitude larger than any other contribution. (In this numerical analysis, we assume that \( \partial \ln T_D / \partial \epsilon_1 \) and \( \partial \ln g / \partial \epsilon_1 \) are at most as large as \( \partial \ln \mu / \partial \epsilon_1 \). Also, since the crystal strains never exceeded \( 10^{-6} \) in our experiments and the cubic symmetry was only slightly perturbed, we can assume that \( \partial \theta / \partial \epsilon_1 \ll 1 \). This is equivalent to assuming that the Fermi surface ellipsoids continue to point very nearly along the body diagonals of the strained cubic lattice.) Schematically,

\[
\frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial \epsilon_1} = \frac{\partial A}{\partial \epsilon_1} \cos \left[ \frac{cS^m_m}{\epsilon h B} - \varphi \right] - A \frac{cS^m_m}{\epsilon h B} \frac{\partial \ln S^m_m}{\partial \epsilon_1} \sin \left[ \frac{cS^m_m}{\epsilon h B} - \varphi \right]
\]

Since we find that \( \partial \ln A / \partial \epsilon_1 \) is roughly of the same order as (or less than) \( \partial \ln S^m_m / \partial \epsilon_1 \), one of the principal factors that determine the relative magnitude of the various terms is \( cS^m_m / (\epsilon h B) \). This number is equal to \( 2\pi \) times the number of Landau levels below the Fermi surface. Since our amplitude measurements were always made with oscillations corresponding to Landau numbers greater than five, the \( \partial \ln S^m_m / \partial \epsilon_1 \) term dominates. The fact that this is the dominant term is also borne out experimentally by the observed phase of the MS oscillations. The amplitude analysis in this work is made with that part of the data which show only a single period. These periods correspond to the smallest extremal area which we label \( S^O_m \). Since numerical evaluation shows that the contributions to \( \partial \Omega / \partial \epsilon_1 \) from other extremal areas and from harmonics \( (\lambda > 1) \) are negligible, the expression that we use for our MS amplitude analysis takes the form.
\[ \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial \epsilon_i} \sim -A_{10} \frac{cS^0_m}{\epsilon h B} \sum_{S^0_m} \frac{\partial \ln S^0_m}{\partial \epsilon_i} \sin \left( \frac{cS^0_m}{\epsilon h B} - \varphi_1 \right) \]  

(39)

where the sum is over all the equivalent pieces of the Fermi surface which contribute to the given period.

We further find from numerical evaluation of the various terms in the second strain derivatives of \( \Omega \) that under the experimental conditions just discussed we can write

\[ \frac{\partial^2 \Omega}{\partial \epsilon_i \partial \epsilon_j} \approx -A_{10} \left( \frac{cS^0_m}{\epsilon h B} \right)^2 \sum_{S^0_m} \frac{\partial \ln S^0_m}{\partial \epsilon_i} \frac{\partial \ln S^0_m}{\partial \epsilon_j} \cos \left( \frac{cS^0_m}{\epsilon h B} - \varphi_1 \right) \]  

(40)

Equation (40) could include terms in \( \partial^2 S^0_m / \partial \epsilon_i \partial \epsilon_j \); however, a comparison of phases of the MS and ME oscillations shows that such terms are negligible.

**Analytic Expressions and Ratio**

Equations (19) and (39) and equations (21) and (40) combine to give the expressions that we use in analyzing our MS and ME experimental data,

\[ \epsilon_{\ell mn} = A_{10} \frac{cS^0_m}{\epsilon h B} \sum_{S^0_m} \sum_{i, j=1}^{6} \frac{\partial \epsilon_{\ell mn}}{\partial \epsilon_i} \frac{\partial \ln S^0_m}{\partial \epsilon_j} \sin \left( \frac{cS^0_m}{\epsilon h B} - \varphi_1 \right) \]  

(41)

\[ \Delta(Y_{\ell mn})^{-1} = A_{10} \left( \frac{cS^0_m}{\epsilon h B} \right)^2 \sum_{S^0_m} \left( \sum_{i, j=1}^{6} \frac{\partial \epsilon_{\ell mn}}{\partial \epsilon_i} \frac{\partial \ln S^0_m}{\partial \epsilon_j} \right)^2 \cos \left( \frac{cS^0_m}{\epsilon h B} - \varphi_1 \right) \]  

(42)
In our analysis of the experimental data, we fit the MS data to equation (41) and separately fit the ME data to equation (42). We determine experimentally the values of $A_{10}$ and $S_m^0$ and find experimental values for the strain derivative sums which we then relate to the deformation potentials. From equations (41) and (42) we see that the complicated coefficient $A_{10}$ should disappear from the expression for the ratio of the MS and ME amplitudes for a given sample under the same thermodynamic conditions, that is, the same $B$, $T$, crystallographic orientation, etc. However, we find the MS and ME Dingle temperatures $T_D^e$ and $T_D^Y$ to be different, leading to a term $\exp\left[\alpha \mu \left(T_D^e - T_D^Y \right)/B\right]$ in the expression for the ratio. Even then, consideration of the ratio leads to a considerable simplification of the analysis, and we use the ratio in a separate approach to analyze the deformation potential.

**EXPERIMENTAL METHODS**

The oscillatory magnetostriction was measured by determining the change in capacitance of a parallel-plate capacitor composed of one fixed plate and one plate glued directly to the end of the oriented single crystal PbTe sample. We used a three-terminal capacitance cell based on a differential thermal expansion cell described by White (ref. 47), modified to allow a variety of samples with different dimensions to be used in one cell. A ratio transformer bridge (General Radio 1615-A) and a phase-sensitive null detector were used to measure the change in capacitance. This technique allowed us to detect a change in capacitance of the order of $10^{-6}$ picofarad, which corresponded to strains of a few times $10^{-10}$.

The magnetoelastic oscillations were measured using the mechanical composite oscillator technique developed by Quimby and Balamuth (refs. 48 and 49). The composite oscillator consisted of a quartz bar (typical dimensions 1 by 0.25 by 0.25 cm) bonded to an oriented single crystal PbTe bar of identical transverse dimensions. The long axis of the quartz transducer was in the Y quartz direction. The X-faces of the quartz were coated with chromium-gold electrode films so that a Young's modulus vibrational mode for the composite system was excited when a sinusoidal voltage was applied to the electrodes. The electrical leads, which also served to support the oscillator, were attached to the transducer at nodal points. The composite oscillator was driven by a frequency-stable constant-voltage source, usually at a frequency near the fundamental resonance of the transducer (typically 250 kHz). Changes in the Young's modulus of the sample as a result of an applied magnetic field produced changes in the resonance frequency of the composite oscillator (appropriate analytic expressions are given by Balamuth (ref. 49)).
which, in turn, produced changes in the electrical impedance of the oscillator circuit. This impedance change was detected directly by monitoring the voltage across a small series resistor. The voltage was amplified, rectified, and applied to an X-Y recorder. The response of the composite oscillator was investigated as a function of magnetic field at several driving frequencies on each side of the resonance as well as at the resonance peak itself in order to compare the changes in dispersion and attenuation of the system. In the 250-kilohertz range, attenuation effects were completely negligible compared with the resonance frequency shifts due to changes in the PbTe Young's modulus. Because of the high $Q$ of the composite oscillator (typically $10^3$ to $10^4$), the sensitivity was high; the minimum detectable fractional change in Young's modulus was estimated to be $10^{-6}$ to $10^{-7}$. It is noteworthy that even in its relatively unsophisticated form this system compares favorably in sensitivity with the "sing-around" ultrasonic technique commonly used to measure sound velocity changes (ref. 44).

Details of the MS and ME experimental techniques and apparatus have been described elsewhere by one of us (T.E.T.) (ref. 50).

**EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

**Band Parameters**

Our experiments were performed on single-crystal samples from two different boules of p-type material grown by one of us (T.E.T.) by the Czochralski method. The boules were labeled X5 and X6. Samples were spark cut from neighboring sections of the middle of the boules. Hall measurements gave carrier concentrations of $(3.5 \pm 0.2) \times 10^{18}$ per cubic centimeter for the X5 samples and $(0.9 \pm 0.1) \times 10^{18}$ per cubic centimeter for the X6 samples. The X5[110] sample was a 0.851- by 0.488- by 0.462-centimeter bar with the long axis parallel to [110]. The X5[100]-stack was 0.927- by 0.353- by 0.36-centimeter [100]-oriented bar produced by gluing two nearly cubical pieces together with GE7031 varnish. The stacking was done to increase the OM signal. No magnetoelastic oscillation experiments were made with the samples from X5. The three X6 bars with axes along [100], [110], and [111] had dimensions 0.749 by 0.274 by 0.312 centimeter, 0.745 by 0.282 by 0.244 centimeter, and 0.805 by 0.269 by 0.257 centimeter, respectively.

The oscillation periods and phases were analyzed in terms of the factors $\cos[2\pi/(PB) - \varphi_1]$ in equations (41) and (42). The period and phase were found by assigning successive integers $N$ to the oscillation peaks and plotting the inverse magnetic field for the $N^{th}$ peak, $B_N^{-1}$, against $N$. The major oscillation periods found in this manner from the complete set of experiments are presented in table III. The errors quoted are
TABLE III. - MEASURED OSCILLATION PERIODS AND CYCLOTRON MASSES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field direction</th>
<th>Oscillation period, T⁻¹</th>
<th>Cyclotron mass, m₀</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sample</td>
<td>X5</td>
<td>X6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td></td>
<td>[100]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(10.9±0.2)x10⁻²</td>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X5</td>
<td>0.033±0.003</td>
<td>0.033±0.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td></td>
<td>[110]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td></td>
<td>[111]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a combination of the standard deviation of the mean found from a least-squares fit of the data and the 0.5 percent field calibration uncertainty of the magnets. These periods are in agreement with those found in reference 27.

An important consideration in the analysis was the relative phases of the MS and ME oscillations. As equations (40) and (41) show, the ME and MS oscillations for a particular sample and field orientation should be 90° out of phase if our model is correct. We observe this phase relation in our data (fig. 3). The sign of the oscillations depends on the sign of the standard deviation of the mean found from a least-squares fit of the data and the 0.5 percent field calibration uncertainty of the magnets. These periods are in agreement with those found in reference 27.

For the spheroidal model described by equations (3), (5), and (6) the carrier density p needed to fill four spheroids is related to the oscillation period P and the mass anisotropy K = m₇/mₜ by

\[ p = aP^{-3/2}(K \cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta)^{3/4}K^{-1/4} \]  

where \( \theta \) is the angle between the major axis of the spheroid, that is, [111], and the applied magnetic field and \( a = 2.263 \times 10^{16} \text{T}^{-3/2} \text{cm}^{-3} \) (a product of universal constants). Using equation (43), the periods presented in table III, and the measured carrier concentrations, we find \( K = 6.5(\pm 1.0, -0.6) \) for X5 and \( K = 8.3(\pm 0.9) \) for X6. In figure 4 we have plotted our values for K along with values found in p-type PbTe by other workers. The two most recent studies, those by Burke, Houston, and Savage (ref. 37) and by Schilz (ref. 32) indicate K values that are twice as large as those found in our work and that of three other investigators (refs. 26 and 51 to 53). Burke (ref. 37) made an extensive
**Figure 3.** Typical magnetostriction and magnetoelastic oscillation data. Sample X6[110]; field direction, \( \mathbf{B} \parallel [111] \); Young's modulus and strain measured parallel to [110] direction; absolute temperature, 4.2 K.

**Figure 4.** Published values of the (111) cyclotron mass and the mass anisotropy \( K \) as function of carrier concentration for p-type lead telluride.
study of Shubnikov-de Haas frequencies. He Fourier-analyzed the frequency spectrum from the three fundamental oscillations and as many as five harmonics for numerous magnetic field directions in the (110) plane. It is quite difficult to understand the discrepancy between their results and the results of the other workers. It is noteworthy that Burke (ref. 37) finds that the carrier concentration determined from a high-field Hall measurement agrees with that determined from the best fit of their data to equation (43). In both the work of Stiles (ref. 52) and Cuff (ref. 26), the carrier concentration found from equation (43) was about 30 percent less than that determined from a Hall measurement for \( p \approx 3 \times 10^{18} \) per cubic centimeters. The latter authors attribute these extra carriers to other pieces of the Fermi surface. Analysis of Coste's data (ref. 53) gives reasonable agreement between the \( p \) from equation (43) and that from a Hall measurement.\(^2\) Since the value of \( K \) comes into the amplitude analysis through the term \( |\partial S'/\partial p_B|^2 \cdot 1/2 \), (eqs. (17) and (A4)), the contradictory \( K \) values shown in figure 4 will be discussed further in the section Amplitudes. Unless otherwise stated we will use our experimental values for \( K \).

Cyclotron effective masses were found by measuring the ratio of the MS oscillation amplitudes at two temperatures. From equations (41) and (17) the ratio of the amplitudes at the same magnetic field but at two different temperatures is given by

\[
\frac{\epsilon(T_1, B)}{\epsilon(T_2, B)} = \frac{T_1 \sinh \left( \frac{\alpha \mu T_2}{B} \right)}{T_2 \sinh \left( \frac{\alpha \mu T_1}{B} \right)}
\]

This equation was solved by Newton's method on a digital computer for a series of oscillation peaks and temperatures. Data were normally taken near 4.2, 6.5, and 8.5 K. From a weighted least-squares fitting of the data result the masses presented in table III. Since the MS amplitudes for \( \mathbf{B} || [100] \) were very small, no masses could be determined for this field direction. No temperature-dependence studies were made for the magnetoelastic oscillations.

From equations (3) and (9), \( m_t = 1/2(m_1 + \mu_3 m_o) \) and \( m_\ell = K m_t \). Thus, from the values just presented, \( m_t/m_o = 0.028 \pm 0.002 \) and \( 0.023 \pm 0.002 \), and \( m_\ell/m_o = 0.18 \pm 0.02 \) and \( 0.19 \pm 0.02 \) for the X5 and X6 samples, respectively.

\(^2\)In his paper Coste claims that these two values do not agree, but his computation of \( p \) seems to be in error.
As a test of the internal consistency of the model, we computed the [110] cyclotron mass using equation (A9), \( m_t \), the measured [111] cyclotron mass, and the measured \( K \). The computed values are \( 0.044 \pm 0.002 \) and \( 0.032 \pm 0.002 \) for \( X5 \) and \( X6 \), respectively. The agreement between these values and the measured values shown in table III supports the self-consistency of the model and measurements.

The Fermi energy is easily computed from the de Haas-van Alphen period and the effective mass (see the appendix):

\[
E_F = \frac{\epsilon \hbar}{m_o c} \left( \frac{P m^*}{m_o} \right)^{-1}
\]

From our data for \( \vec{B} || [111] \), where \( m^* = m_t \), we find \( E_F = 63 \pm 5 \) and \( 28 \pm 2 \) meV for samples \( X5 \) and \( X6 \), respectively.

Above 2 tesla (20 kG) the ME and MS oscillations begin to show a splitting of the oscillation peaks due to the Zeeman splitting of the Landau levels. From the oscillations for \( \vec{B} || [100] \), where all four ellipsoids have the same fundamental frequency, we were able to determine the spin splitting of the peaks. Each peak corresponds to a solution of the equation

\[
\frac{1}{PB} = N \pm \frac{\mu g}{4} + \gamma + \frac{1}{8}
\]

where the second term on the right accounts for the two spin levels for each Landau quantum number \( N \). This term was found by indexing the oscillation peaks with a spin index and a quantum number and plotting \( N \) against \( (B_N^{-1})_+ \) and \( (B_N^{-1})_\pm \). The resulting g-factors are compared in table I with those found in p-type material by other workers. Butler and Calawa (ref. 34) obtain their results from magnetoemission studies in diode lasers, Schilz (ref. 32) from magnetoacoustic attenuation oscillations, and Cuff (ref. 27) and Burke (ref. 37) from Shubnikov-de Haas oscillations. For both \( \vec{B} || [111] \) and \( \vec{B} || [110] \), there are additional oscillations from a second set of ellipsoids. This makes the analysis difficult, and it has not been carried through.

The value of \( g\mu \) depends on the assignment of spin and quantum numbers to a set of oscillations. From the phase analysis mentioned previously, we know that \( \cos(\pi g\mu / 2) \) must be negative, but this condition does not determine a unique labeling of the oscillation peaks. The values for \( g\mu / 2 \) in table I correspond to a spin splitting greater than half the Landau splitting. This scheme gives \( g \) values that agree with the values found by
Patel and Slusher (ref. 54) from spin-flip Raman scattering in n-type material\(^3\) with \(n = 10^{17}\) per cubic centimeter.

**Amplitudes**

The MS amplitude coefficients were found by fitting the strain oscillation amplitudes to equations (17) and (41). From the data we computed the quantities \(y = \ln \left[ \epsilon_{\ell mn} B^{-1/2} \times \sinh(\alpha \mu T/B) \right]\) for each oscillation peak and a linear least-squares fit was made to a plot of \(y\) against \(B^{-1}\). From the equations, it follows that the slope of this plot gives the Dingle temperature and that the \(y\) intercept leads to a value for

\[
\cos \left( \frac{\pi B}{2} \right) \sum_{i,j=1}^{6} \frac{\partial \epsilon_{\ell mn}}{\partial \epsilon_i} s_{ij} \frac{\partial \ln S_{m}^{0}}{\partial \epsilon_j}
\]

This procedure necessitates a knowledge of \(S_{m}^{0}, \mu\), and \(\left| \frac{\partial^2 S}{\partial p_B^2} \right|_{S=S_{m}^{0}}^{-1/2}\) for which we use the band parameters presented in the section Band Parameters and equation (A3). The Dingle temperatures found from the MS oscillations are presented in table IV. The

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Strain direction</th>
<th>Field direction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>[110]</td>
<td>(\vec{B} \parallel [110])</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[111]</td>
<td>(\vec{B} \parallel [111])</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[110]</td>
<td>(\vec{B} \parallel [110])</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[111]</td>
<td>(\vec{B} \parallel [111])</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dingle temperature, K

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Strain direction</th>
<th>Field direction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>X5</td>
<td>[110]</td>
<td>5.4±0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[111]</td>
<td>9.2±0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X6</td>
<td>[110]</td>
<td>7.3±0.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^3\)Because of the similarities between the PbTe conduction and valance bands, the \(g\)-values (as well as effective masses) should be comparable in n- and p-type material.
errors indicated are the standard deviation of the mean computed from the random error associated with the amplitude measurements and the uncertainty in \( \mu \). The magnetostriction amplitudes for \( X5[100] \) and \( X6[100] \) were too small to give reliable Dingle temperatures.

In table V the strain derivative sums determined from the experimental MS amplitudes are presented and compared with values computed from the theory presented in the section Strain Derivatives of the Free Energy. The theoretical values were computed using the deformation potentials from Ferreira's (ref. 41) theoretical work (table II), and the elastic constants measured by Houston, Strakma, and Belson. The extrapolated \( T = 0 \) \( K \) values for the stiffness constants were used to compute the following compliance constants: \( s_{11}^0 + 2s_{12}^0 = (0.731 \pm 0.007) \times 10^{-11} \) \( m^2 N^{-1} \) and \( s_{44}^0 = (6.61 \pm 0.04) \times 10^{-11} \) \( m^2 N^{-1} \). The large uncertainties of the theoretical values result entirely from the uncertainty in \( \cos(\pi g\mu/2) \). Even though \( g\mu \) is experimentally determined to better than 10 percent, \( \cos(\pi g\mu/2) \) has a large percentage uncertainty when the function nears zero. The values in table I lead to \( \cos(\pi g\mu/2) = -(0.19 \pm 0.10) \) for \( X5 \) and \( -(0.40 \pm 0.08) \) for \( X6 \).

The errors in the experimental strain derivative sums are the standard deviation of the mean due to the uncertainty of the amplitude measurements and the uncertainties in \( \mu \) and \( K \). Because of the discrepancy between the \( K \) values found by different experimenters for \( p \approx 3 \times 10^{18} \) per cubic centimeter there is an added degree of uncertainty about the experimental values for \( X5 \), since the amplitude analysis includes the term

\[
\left| \frac{\partial^2 S' / \partial p_B^2}{\partial p_B^2} \right|^{-1/2} \approx K \text{ dependent. }
\]

For instance, if we were to use \( K = 13 \), the value of Burke, Houston, and Savage (ref. 40), rather than our experimental value (\( K = 6.5 \)) all of the \( X5 \) experimental values in table V would be reduced by 23 percent for \( \bar{B}[100] \), by 27 percent for \( \bar{B}[110] \), and by 29 percent for \( \bar{B}[111] \). Using \( K = 13 \) instead of 8.3 for \( X6 \) gives 17-, 19-, and 20-percent reductions, respectively, for these three cases. Since both \( \cos(\pi g\mu/2) \) and \( \left| \frac{\partial^2 S' / \partial p_B^2}{\partial p_B^2} \right|^{-1/2} \) cancel out of the expressions for the ratio of the ME and MS amplitudes, the large uncertainties of these parameters do not enter into the results of the ratio analysis.

Magnetostriction oscillations were investigated at temperatures from 4 to 9 \( K \). No temperature dependence of the strain derivative sum was observed and the data in table V are the average of values over this temperature range. The oscillations in several cases were just barely detectable or were not seen at all. For these cases an upper limit for the amplitude coefficient is presented. We had no \( X5[111] \) sample. Because the amplitudes for \( X6[100] \) were quite small for transverse magnetic field configurations,

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4 Straight forward, although tedious, symmetry considerations appropriate to the m3m symmetry of PbTe can also be used to find these relations.
TABLE V. - EXPERIMENTAL AND THEORETICAL VALUES OF STRAIN DERIVATIVE SUMS\textsuperscript{a} FROM MAGNETOSTRICTION OSCILLATIONS FOR SAMPLE X6 (\(p = 9 \times 10^{17} \text{ cm}^{-3}\)) AND SAMPLE X5 (\(p = 3.5 \times 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3}\))

[Theoretical values were computed using \(E_{u}^T = 10.46 \text{ eV.}\)]

| Sample | Type of data | Strain direction | | | | | | | |
|--------|--------------|------------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|        |              | [010]            | [110] | [111] | [001] | [111] | [111] | [110] |
|        |              | [100]            | [011] | [110] | [010] | [011] | [110] | [110] |
| X5     | Experimental| \(<0.07 \times 10^{-10}\) | \(<0.42 \times 10^{-10}\) | \(<0.34 \times 10^{-10}\) | \(<0.85 \times 10^{-10}\) | \(<0.85 \times 10^{-10}\) | \(<0.85 \times 10^{-10}\) | \(<0.85 \times 10^{-10}\) |
|        | Simple theory| \((0.04 \pm 0.02) \times 10^{-10}\) | \((0.02 \pm 0.01) \times 10^{-10}\) | \((0.03 \pm 0.02) \times 10^{-10}\) | \((0.04 \pm 0.02) \times 10^{-10}\) | \((0.04 \pm 0.02) \times 10^{-10}\) | \((0.04 \pm 0.02) \times 10^{-10}\) | \((0.04 \pm 0.02) \times 10^{-10}\) |
|        | Full theory | \((0.19 \pm 0.10)\) | \((0.18 \pm 0.07)\) | \((0.24 \pm 0.9)\) | \((0.9 \pm 5.0)\) | \((0.9 \pm 5.0)\) | \((0.9 \pm 5.0)\) | \((0.9 \pm 5.0)\) |
| X6     | Experimental| \(<4.7 \times 10^{-10}\) | \(<5.7 \times 10^{-10}\) | \(<5.7 \times 10^{-10}\) | \(<5.7 \times 10^{-10}\) | \(<5.7 \times 10^{-10}\) | \(<5.7 \times 10^{-10}\) | \(<5.7 \times 10^{-10}\) |
|        | Simple theory| \((0.08 \pm 0.02) \times 10^{-10}\) | \((0.04 \pm 0.01) \times 10^{-10}\) | \((0.08 \pm 0.02) \times 10^{-10}\) | \((0.08 \pm 0.02) \times 10^{-10}\) | \((0.08 \pm 0.02) \times 10^{-10}\) | \((0.08 \pm 0.02) \times 10^{-10}\) | \((0.08 \pm 0.02) \times 10^{-10}\) |
|        | Full theory | \((0.30 \pm 0.06)\) | \((0.18 \pm 0.04)\) | \((38.9 \pm 7.9)\) | \((39.3 \pm 7.9)\) | \((39.3 \pm 7.9)\) | \((39.3 \pm 7.9)\) | \((39.3 \pm 7.9)\) |

\textsuperscript{a}Strain derivative sum = \(\cos(\gamma_{p}, \gamma_{p}) \sum_{n} \frac{E_{p}}{m} \left[ 6 \left( \rho_{p} \right) \left( \rho_{p} \right) \left( \rho_{p} \right) \left( \rho_{p} \right) \right] \)

\textsuperscript{b}Sample X5 was stacked to increase the MS signal.

\textsuperscript{c}No sample.
we did not attempt to align the field along specific crystallographic directions for transverse fields. These facts explain the absence of entries for the corresponding crystal and field orientations in table V.

Two sets of theoretical values are presented in table V. The "simple theory" values correspond to a rigid parabolic band model with infinite energy gap. In this model the strain mass term, $\partial \ln m^*/\partial \epsilon_i$ in equation (33), is neglected and $\partial \ln S_0^m/\partial \epsilon_i$ is considered to be due solely to the change in crystal volume ($= -2/3$) for dilatation strains ($i = 1, 2, 3$) or due to intervalley charge transfer ($= 1/3 \frac{E_u}{E_F}$) for shear strains ($i = 4, 5, 6$). The values labeled "full theory" are computed using the model represented by equations (33), (22), (30), (31), (37), (38), and (13). As an example of the magnitudes of some of the numbers which enter the theoretical computations, $\partial \ln m^*/\partial \epsilon_i$, $\partial \ln E_F/\partial \epsilon_i$, and $\partial \ln S_0^m/\partial \epsilon_i$ for X6 with $\vec{B}[110]$ are presented in table VI.

### TABLE VI. - REPRESENTATIVE THEORETICAL STRAIN DERIVATIVES FOR X6 WITH $\vec{B}[110]$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of theory</th>
<th>Value of $i$</th>
<th>Strain derivatives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>$\frac{\partial \ln m^*}{\partial \epsilon_i}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple</td>
<td>1, 2, or 3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4, 5, or 6</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full</td>
<td>1, 2, or 3</td>
<td>12.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4, 5, or 6</td>
<td>23.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The agreement between the experimental and theoretical values in table V is quite reasonable; however, due to the large uncertainty in the theoretical values, especially for the X5 data, a definitive quantitative analysis of the experimental and theoretical amplitude factors is not possible with the numbers presented in table V. The relative magnitudes and ratios of the various terms do confirm many of the aspects of the model we have presented. We can see this by writing the strain derivatives in a more transparent form. When evaluating the strain derivative sums for the strain and field directions shown in table V by means of the prescriptions described in the section Strain Derivatives of the Free Energy, one finds that, except for the case $\epsilon \parallel [110]$ with $\vec{B}[001]$, all the sums can be simplified into the sum of a dilatation term and a shear term of the form (ref. 55)
\[\sum_{i,j=1}^{6} \frac{\partial \epsilon_{mn}}{\partial \epsilon_i} s_{ij}^0 \frac{\partial \ln S_m^0}{\partial \epsilon_j} = N_e (\beta_d + D \beta_s) \]  

(47)

where \(N_e\) is the number of equivalent extremal areas \(S_m^0\), \(\beta_d = \left(s_{11}^0 + 2s_{12}^0\right) \frac{\partial \ln S_m^0}{\partial \epsilon_4}\), and \(D\) is a direction cosine factor which takes the values 0, 1/2, -1/2, 1, and -1/3 for the directions \(\langle 100 \rangle\), \([110]\), \([111]\), and \([111]\), respectively, when the derivative indicated in \(\beta_s\) is performed on the extremal area of the \([111]\)-spheroid. For the case \(\epsilon||[110]\) with \(\mathbf{B}||[001]\), the right side of equation (47) becomes simply \(4\beta_d\). A significant aspect of the model is that in this case the shear terms cancel when summed over the four spheroids: the shear strain causes two of the valance band maxima to move up in energy, thereby increasing the extremal areas at the Fermi energy, and the other two move down, decreasing their areas. Comparing equation (47) with the experimental data in table V shows that, qualitatively, the data fit our theoretical model quite well. We find, for example, that \(\beta_s > > \beta_d\); the full theory values in table VI lead to \(\beta_d = -2.2 \times 10^{-11}\) square meters per newton and \(\beta_s = 977 \times 10^{-11}\) square meters per newton. These values are typical of the large difference between the dilatation and shear contributions to the strain derivative sums predicted by our theoretical model, including other field directions and for sample X5. Since the shear term \(\beta_s\) is theoretically so much larger than the dilatation term \(\beta_d\), any term in equation (47) that contains \(\beta_s\) will be much larger than terms which do not contain \(\beta_s\).

From table V we see that for all cases where equation (47) shows contributions from only the dilatation strains (i.e., \(\epsilon||[100]\), \(D = 0\), or \(\epsilon||[110]\) with \(\mathbf{B}||[001]\), the experimental values are at least an order of magnitude smaller than those for which equation (47) shows shear contributions. This result confirms one aspect of the model.

Another confirming aspect of the MS data comes from the ratios of various amplitude terms. Using equation (47) and assuming \(\beta_s > > \beta_d\), the strain derivative sums for \(\mathbf{B}||[110]\) with \(\epsilon\) along \([110]\), \([110]\), and \([111]\) should be in the ratio 1/2:-1/2:-1/3. For \(\mathbf{B}||[111]\) with \(\epsilon\) along \([111]\) and \([110]\) the ratio should be 1:-1/2. The data, as presented in table V and interpreted in light of the symmetries involved, are seen to be in good agreement with these predictions. Perhaps the most striking experimental confirmation of the model comes from the signs of the observed phases. As we pointed out the phases are in complete agreement with our model; for example, the MS oscillations for \(\mathbf{B}||[110]\) with \(\epsilon||[110]\) and \([110]\) are 180° out of phase, as we would expect from equation (47).
The observed changes in amplitude and the phase shifts of the MS oscillations due to cancellation of the shear terms as the magnetic field is rotated into the [001] direction in the (110) plane are shown by the experimental data in figure 5. The experimental results with \( B \) or \( \epsilon \) along \( \langle 100 \rangle \) are difficult to analyze because the strain amplitudes are quite small and any slight misalignment of the sample would produce an anomalously large signal. This fact is made quite apparent by figure 5.

![Figure 5. - Amplitude and phase of [110] magnetostriction oscillations for \( \vec{B} \) near [001] for sample X6.](image)

The ME amplitude analysis is quite similar to the MS analysis. A linear least squares fit was made of \( x = \ln \left[ \Delta Y_{l,mn}^{-1} B^{1/2} \sinh(\alpha \mu T/B) \right] \) against \( B^{-1} \). From equations (17) and (42) it follows that the Dingle temperature comes from the slope of the curve and that the \( x \) intercept gives a value for

\[
\cos \left( \frac{\pi g \mu}{2} \right) \sum_{i,j=1}^{6} \frac{\partial \epsilon_{lnn}}{\partial \epsilon_{i}} S_{ij}^{o} \frac{\partial \ln S_{m}^{o}}{\partial \epsilon_{j}} \left[ \sum_{l,m} \right]^{2}
\]

The Dingle temperatures found from the ME amplitude analysis are presented in table VII. The ME Dingle temperatures for \( \vec{B} \| \langle 110 \rangle \) are consistently lower than the MS Dingle temperatures for the same samples, whereas for \( \vec{B} \| \langle 111 \rangle \) the ME Dingle temperatures are larger than the MS Dingle temperatures. This result is unexpected within the framework of our model.
Table VII shows theoretical and experimental values determined for the ME strain derivative sums. The simple theory and full theory values have the same meaning as the MS theoretical values. The elastic constants, deformation potentials and the value of \( \cos(\pi g_\mu / 2) \) used for the theoretical evaluations are the same as those used to calculate the MS amplitude terms. Again, the uncertainty in the theoretical values comes from the uncertainty in \( \cos(\pi g_\mu / 2) \). Recall also that the experimental values depend on the value of \( K \) used in the data reduction. Using \( K = 13 \) instead of 8.3 leads to a reduction of the experimental values by 17, 19, and 20 percent for the \([100]\), \([110]\), and \([111]\) magnetic field directions, respectively.

Just as we were able to write the MS strain derivative sums in a form that illuminates the significance of the relative magnitudes of the values in table V, we find that the ME strain derivative sums for all the sample and field directions shown in table VII except the case \( \epsilon_{[110]} \) with \( \vec{B}_{[100]} \), can be expressed in the form

\[
\sum_{i,j=1}^{6} \left[ \sum \frac{\partial \epsilon_{l,mn}}{\partial \epsilon_{i}} S_{ij} \frac{\partial \ln S_{0}^m}{\partial \epsilon_{j}} \right]^2 = N_e (\beta_d + D_\beta S)^2
\]

(48)

where all the terms have the same meaning as in equation (47). For the case \( \epsilon_{[110]} \) with \( \vec{B}_{[100]} \), the right side of equation (47) becomes \( 4 (\beta_d^2 + \frac{1}{4} \beta_s^2) \). Remember that, for the comparable MS case, the shear terms \( \beta_s \) cancelled out when summed over the four spheroids. In the ME case, the strain derivatives are all squared before they are summed, and the shear term does not cancel. Since \( |\beta_s| >> |\beta_d| \), as seen experi-

Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample and axis</th>
<th>Field direction</th>
<th>Dingle temperature, K</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>X6[100]</td>
<td></td>
<td>9.6±0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B∥[100]</td>
<td>8.3±1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B∥[001]</td>
<td>6.8±0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B∥[110]</td>
<td>7.3±0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>B∥[111]</td>
<td>8.4±0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8.2±0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X6[110]</td>
<td></td>
<td>8.4±0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8.5±0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7.5±0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10.2±0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X6[111]</td>
<td></td>
<td>8.4±0.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8.5±0.4</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>7.5±0.3</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10.2±0.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


TABLE VIII. - EXPERIMENTAL AND THEORETICAL VALUES OF STRAIN DERIVATIVE SUM FROM MAGNETOELASTIC OSCILLATIONS FOR SAMPLE X6

[Theoretical values were computed using $\gamma_Y^m = 10.46$ eV.]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of data</th>
<th>Sample and axis</th>
<th>X6[100]</th>
<th>X6[110]</th>
<th>X6[111]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Type of data</td>
<td>XS[100]</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strain derivative sum $^a$, m^4 N^-2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field direction</th>
<th>[100]</th>
<th>[010]</th>
<th>[011]</th>
<th>[110]</th>
<th>[110]</th>
<th>[001]</th>
<th>[111]</th>
<th>[111]</th>
<th>[110]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>(3.1±0.7)×10^-18</td>
<td>(2.9±0.9)×10^-18</td>
<td>(1.3±0.3)×10^-18</td>
<td>(23±2)×10^-18</td>
<td>(15±2)×10^-18</td>
<td>(33±4)×10^-18</td>
<td>(9.7±1.6)×10^-18</td>
<td>(2.7±0.4)×10^-18</td>
<td>(2.6±0.3)×10^-18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple theory</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>(13.5±3)</td>
<td>(13.5±3)</td>
<td>(27±5)</td>
<td>(6.8±1.4)</td>
<td>(27±5)</td>
<td>(6±1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full theory</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>(18.9±4)</td>
<td>(19.3±4)</td>
<td>(37±7)</td>
<td>(9.8±2.0)</td>
<td>(38.5±8)</td>
<td>(8.6±1.7)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^a$Strain derivative sum = $\cos(\pi g_{\mu}/2) \sum_{S_m^0} \left[ \sum_{l,j=1}^{6} \left( \frac{\partial^2 \epsilon_{l,m}^0}{\partial \epsilon_l} \right) \right]^{2}$. 


mentally and theoretically from both the MS and ME data, the MS strain derivative sum for the case $\epsilon || [110]$ with $\vec{B} || [100]$ was an order of magnitude less than the sums involving $\beta_s$. In contrast, the ME strain derivative sum for this orientation is of the same magnitude as in the other cases.

Using $|\beta_s| \gg |\beta_d|$, equation (48) predicts that for $X_6[110]$ the ratio of the strain derivative sums for $\vec{B} || [110]$, [110], [001], and [111], respectively, should be $2:2:4:1$ (table VIII). The experimental values confirm this aspect of the theoretical model reasonably well. The experimental values for $X_6[110]$ are also in reasonably good agreement with those predicted by the theoretical model. The fact that the ME theoretical values predicted for $X_6[100]$ are much smaller than the values measured is not too surprising since our model and calculations contain several simplifying assumptions. The $X_6[100]$ experimental values are, in fact, an order of magnitude smaller than the $X_6[110]$ experimental values. This we understand qualitatively within the framework of our model. The order of magnitude disagreement between experiment and theory for $X_6[111]$ is not understood at this time. The experiments on $X_6[111]$ were carefully repeated in an unsuccessful attempt to resolve this discrepancy. Equation (48) predicts that the strain derivative sum for $X_6[111]$ with $\vec{B} || [111]$ should be equal to the $X_6[110]$ value for $\vec{B} || [001]$ and that the value for the $X_6[111]$ case with $\vec{B} || [110]$ should be $2/9$ of this value. The MS data for $X_6[111]$ gave good agreement between experiment and theory, so the discrepancy does not seem to be associated with this particular sample.

We have already pointed out that the expression for the ratio of the ME to the MS amplitudes is greatly simplified because of the cancellation of most of the coefficient $A_{10}$ which contains, among other things as factors, $K$ and $\cos(\pi g\mu/2)$. From equations (41), (42), (47), and (48), we see that, for all the sample configurations in tables V and VII except the case $\epsilon || [110]$ with $\vec{B} || [001]$, the expression for the ratio of the amplitudes takes the form

$$\frac{\Delta(Y_{l mn})^{-1}}{E_{l mn}} = \frac{c S^O_m}{e h B} \sum_{i, j=1}^{6} \frac{\partial \epsilon_{l mn}}{\partial \epsilon_i} \frac{\partial \ln S^O_m}{\partial \epsilon_j} \exp \left[ \alpha \mu \frac{(T_e D - T_D)}{B} \right]$$

(49)

If the Dingle temperatures were the same the right side of equation (49) would have a simple $B^{-1}$ field dependence. The experimentally observed field dependence does, in fact, deviate from $B^{-1}$ and we attribute this wholly to the difference in Dingle temperatures.
Because the X6[100] amplitudes are too small and the X6[111] ME data are questionable, we have only the data from X6[110] for the ratio. (No ME measurements were made on the X5 samples.) By least-squares fitting a semilogarithmic plot of equation (49) for the data from X6[110], we find the parameters presented in tables IX and X. As can readily be seen from table IX, the ME and MS Dingle temperature difference determined from the ratio (eq. (49)) and the difference obtained from the values from the two separate experiments agree. The nature of this difference is not understood within the framework of our thermodynamic model.

The strain derivative sums determined from the ratio are displayed in table X. The terms simple theory and full theory have the same meanings as above. The experimental values for the ratio are independent of the K value and the \( \cos(\pi g \mu / 2) \) so that uncertainties in these parameters have no effect on the results. The uncertainties of the experimental values in table X are mainly due to the random uncertainties of the amplitude measurements themselves.

From our theoretical model (see, for instance, table VI and eq. (38)) we find that the strain derivative sums shown in table X are essentially linearly proportional to \( \Xi^V_u \); therefore, for the theoretical values in table X we have scaled the deformation potential to give the best fit of the theory to the experiment. The best value \( \Xi^V_u = 7.9 \pm 1.3 \) electron volts closely agrees with the 8.5-electron-volt value found from piezoresistance measurements by Burke (ref. 51). When we scale the ME data for a best fit between experiment and theory, we find \( \Xi^V_u = 10.1 \pm 1.2 \) electron volts. The uncertainty in the deformation potential determined from the ME data comes mainly from the uncertainty in \( \cos(\pi g \mu / 2) \). For the ME case, however, we must concern ourselves with the question of whether \( K \) is 13 or 8.3. The 10-percent uncertainty introduced by this difference is not included in the \( \pm 1.2 \) electron volts.

### Table IX. - The Difference Between Magnetostriiction and Magnetoelastic Dingle Temperatures for X6[110]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field direction</th>
<th>[110]</th>
<th>[110]</th>
<th>[111]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dingle temperature difference, ( T^X_D - T^Y_D ) K</td>
<td>1.4±0.1</td>
<td>1.3±0.7</td>
<td>-1.2±0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Eq. (49)(^b)</td>
<td>1.4±0.6</td>
<td>1.3±0.6</td>
<td>-1.2±0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tables IV and VII(^b)</td>
<td>.7±0.6</td>
<td>.8±0.6</td>
<td>-1.0±0.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^a\)Fitting the ME-MS ratio data to eq. (49).
\(^b\)The difference between the values determined by the two separate experiments.
**TABLE X.** - STRAIN DERIVATIVE SUM DETERMINED FROM MAGNETOSTRICTION-MAGNETOElastic AMPLITUDE RATIO FOR X6[110]

[Theoretical values computed using $\Xi^V_m = 10.46$ eV.]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of data</th>
<th>Field direction</th>
<th>[110]</th>
<th>[110]</th>
<th>[111]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strain derivative sum$^a$, $m^2_s^{-1}$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td></td>
<td>$(37\pm 2) \times 10^{-10}$</td>
<td>$(26\pm 5) \times 10^{-10}$</td>
<td>$(48\pm 3) \times 10^{-10}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple theory</td>
<td></td>
<td>$(31\pm 5) \times 10^{-10}$</td>
<td>$(31\pm 5) \times 10^{-10}$</td>
<td>$(31\pm 5) \times 10^{-10}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full theory</td>
<td></td>
<td>$(37\pm 6) \times 10^{-10}$</td>
<td>$(37\pm 6) \times 10^{-10}$</td>
<td>$(37\pm 6) \times 10^{-10}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^a$Strain derivative sum = \( \sum_{\text{S}^0_m} \sum_{i,j=1}^6 (\partial \epsilon_{l \text{max}} / \partial \epsilon_i)^{\text{S}^0_j} (\partial \ln S^0_m / \partial \epsilon_j) \).

**TABLE XI.** - SPIN SPLITTING FACTOR (ABSOLUTE VALUE) DETERMINED FROM MAGNETOSTRICTION AND MAGNETOElastic AMPLITUDE DATA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample and strain direction</th>
<th>Field direction</th>
<th>[110]</th>
<th>[110]</th>
<th>[001]</th>
<th>[111]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spin splitting factor, $</td>
<td>\cos(x \nu / 2)</td>
<td>$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magnetostriction X6[110]</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.18±0.03</td>
<td>0.17±0.03</td>
<td>0.18±0.04</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X6[110]</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.68±0.13</td>
<td>0.76±0.18</td>
<td>0.59±0.10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X6[111]</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.44±0.10</td>
<td>0.63±0.24</td>
<td>0.70±0.28</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magnetoelastic X6[110]</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.86±0.33</td>
<td>0.55±0.21</td>
<td>0.63±0.24</td>
<td>0.70±0.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Having found a value for the deformation potential from the MS-ME amplitude ratio we next return to the MS and ME data to find a value for $\cos(\pi g\mu/2)$. Taking $\Xi_u^V = 7.9 \pm 1.3$ electron volts, we use our theoretical model to compute values for the strain derivative sums and then combine these results with equations (41) and (42) and the experimental amplitudes to find $\cos(\pi g\mu/2)$. The results of this procedure are given in table XI. The comparison of the spin factor found in this manner with the value found directly from the splitting of the oscillation peaks is a further test of the internal consistency of the theoretical model. Assuming $\cos(\pi g\mu/2)$ to be the same in the [100], [110], and [111] directions, and incorporating our phase results, which indicate that this function must be negative, the average of the $X_5$ values in table XI give $\cos(\pi g\mu/2) = -(0.18 \pm 0.02)$ compared with the spin splitting value of $-(0.19 \pm 0.10)$. The $X_6$ values average to $-(0.57 \pm 0.06)$ compared with the spin splitting value of $-(0.40 \pm 0.08)$. For this analysis we have used our own values for $K$. If we had used the $K$ value of Burke, Houston, and Savage (ref. 40) the $X_5$ and $X_6$ data in table XI would have to be shifted down by 28 and 15 percent, respectively. If our model is correct, this indicates that a value of $K = 13$ for $p = 3 \times 10^{18}$ is too high.

CONCLUSIONS

A detailed experimental and theoretical study of quantum oscillations in the magnetostriction (oscillatory magnetostriction) and Young's modulus (magnetoelastic oscillations) of p-type lead telluride has been presented. The Young's modulus oscillations represents the first observation of quantum oscillations in the elastic constants of a semiconductor. In the theory, the oscillatory magnetostriction and magnetoelastic oscillations are related to strain derivatives of extremal Fermi surface cross-sectional areas using appropriate thermodynamic derivatives of the modified Lifshitz-Kosevich expression for the quantum oscillatory electronic free energy. These strain derivatives are, in turn, related to a deformation potential description of the strain dependence of the electronic band structure using an adaptation of Cohen's nonellipsoidal, nonparabolic band model to describe the nearly spheroidal nonparabolic valence band of lead telluride.

From the periods, phases, and spin splitting of the oscillations, we find experimental band parameters for p-type lead telluride that are in generally good agreement with parameters reported by other workers, although there is a discrepancy with recent results of Burke, Houston, and Savage (ref. 32) and of Schilz (ref. 37) in the value of the Fermi surface anisotropy constant $K$. These workers found values of $K$ near 13 for carrier concentrations near $3 \times 10^{18}$ per cubic centimeter, whereas we found $K = 6.5$ for $p = 3.5 \times 10^{18}$ per cubic centimeter.
The absolute amplitudes of the magnetostriction and magnetoelastic oscillations were generally in good agreement with the predictions of our theory. From the ratio of the amplitudes of the two types of oscillation, we have derived a value of the valance-band deformation potential \( \Xi^V_u = 7.9 \pm 1.3 \) electron volts. This agrees well with a value previously obtained by Burke (ref. 16) from piezoresistance measurements. The relative phase of the two types of oscillation is in accord with that predicted by the theory. A detailed study of the absolute amplitudes of the two types of oscillation indicates that the dominant effect of strain on the valance band is a lifting of the degeneracy of the valence band maxima by shear strains accompanied by intervalley charge transfer. The effects of strain on the band parameters (the so-called strain-mass effects) are roughly an order of magnitude smaller than the intervalley charge transfer effects. This is in contradiction with a conclusion of reference 16 based on oscillatory magnetostriction experiments only. In that analysis these workers used band parameters from the literature that give a value of the spin-splitting factor in disagreement with our experimental observations, and, in addition, their analysis appears to contain a numerical error. If these two features of their analysis are corrected, their results are consistent with small strain-mass effects. Study of our amplitude results also suggests that our value of the Fermi surface anisotropy constant is more nearly correct than the higher values reported by Burke, Houston, and Savage (ref. 37) and by Schilz (ref. 32).

Lewis Research Center,
National Aeronautics and Space Administration,
Cleveland, Ohio, October 6, 1971,
112-27.
APPENDIX - SOME BASIC RELATIONS

In this appendix we present some basic relations between the band parameters for our spheroidal, nonparabolic energy band model of PbTe. Most of the relations follow directly from geometric considerations.

The four ⟨111⟩ spheroidal bands described by equations (3), (5), and (7) can accommodate a total carrier density $p$ if the volume $V_p$ in momentum space of each spheroid is

$$V_p(E_F) = \left(\frac{p}{\hbar}\right)^3 = \frac{4}{3} \pi^2 m_t E_F (2m_e E_F)^{1/2}$$

This requires that the Fermi energy $E_F$ be

$$E_F = \frac{\hbar^2 \left(\frac{3\pi^2 p}{4}\right)^{2/3}}{2m_t K^{1/3}}$$

From straightforward geometrical considerations, the area of intersection $S$ between a plane perpendicular to an axis $p_B$ and a spheroidal Fermi surface is found to be

$$S(\theta, p_B) = \frac{2\pi m_t \sqrt{K E_F}}{\left(K \cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta\right)^{1/2}} - \frac{\pi p_B^2 \sqrt{K}}{\left(K \cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta\right)^{3/2}}$$

where $\theta$ is the angle between the $p_B$ axis and the spheroid axis and $p_B$ is the distance from the plane to the center of the spheroid.

The period of the quantum oscillations is determined by the maximum cross-sectional area $S_m$ of the Fermi surface perpendicular to the field direction, $p = e\hbar/(cS_m)$. From equation (A2) we see that the maximum cross-sectional area occurs when $p_B = 0$, giving

$$P(\theta) = \frac{e\hbar \left(K \cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta\right)^{1/2}}{cm_t \sqrt{K E_F}}$$

From equation (A2) we can evaluate one of the important amplitude factors of the Lifshitz-Kosevich equation (eq. (17)):
\[
\frac{\partial^2 S}{\partial p_B^2}\bigg|_{S=S_m}^{-1/2} = \left(\frac{K}{2\pi}\right)^{1/2} \left(\cos^2 \theta + \frac{\sin^2 \theta}{K}\right)^{3/4}
\]

(A4)

It is convenient to define a band mass \( m^* \) for the nonparabolic bands by the relation

\[
\left(\frac{1}{m^*}\right)^2 = \frac{\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta}{m_t m_l}
\]

(A5)

The preceding expressions can be written more easily in terms of this band mass:

\[
S_m(\theta) = 2\pi m^* E_F
\]

(A6)

\[
P(\theta) = -\frac{e\hbar}{cE_F m^*}
\]

(A7)

\[
\left|\frac{\partial^2 S}{\partial p_B^2}\right|_{S=S_m}^{-1/2} = \left(\frac{K}{2\pi}\right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{m_t}{m^*}\right)^{3/2}
\]

(A8)

The reduced cyclotron mass for a magnetic field in the B-direction is defined as

\[
\mu = \left(\frac{1}{2\pi m_o}\right) \left(\frac{\partial S_m}{\partial E}\right)_{E_F}
\]

Substituting equation (7) into equation (A2) and differentiating result in

\[
\left(\frac{1}{\mu}\right)^2 = \left(\frac{\cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta}{\mu_t^2 \mu_t^l}\right) \Phi
\]

(A9)

where

\[
\mu_t = \left(\frac{m_1}{m_o}\right) \left(1 + \frac{2E_F}{E_g}\right)
\]
\[
\mu_t = \frac{m_3^2}{m_0}
\]

and

\[
\Phi = (1 - \xi)(1 + 2r)(1 + 2r - r\omega)^{-2}
\]

and where

\[
r = \frac{E_F}{E_g}
\]

\[
\omega = \frac{1}{2} (1 + r) \left( 1 + r + \frac{m_3}{m_1} \cot^2 \theta \right)^{-1}
\]

and

\[
\xi = r \left( 1 + 2r + \frac{m_3}{m_1} \cot^2 \theta \right)^{-1}
\]

Using the experimental results for PbTe, \( \Phi \) is found to be very near 1 when the field is in any of the principal crystallographic directions: For the X6 samples \( 0.99 < \Phi < 1 \), and, for X5, \( 0.97 < \Phi < 1 \). Thus, for all practical purposes we can set \( \Phi = 1 \). Notice that \( \mu_t \neq m_t/m_0 \), except for \( E_F/E_g = 0 \).
REFERENCES


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