

Doping-driven electronic and lattice dynamics in phase-change material vanadium dioxide

Kannatassen Appavoo ^{1*}

Joyeeta Nag ²

Bin Wang ^{2,3}

Weidong Luo ^{2,4,5}

Gerd Duscher ^{4,6}

E. Andrew Payzant ⁴

Matthew Y. Sfeir ⁷

Socrates T. Pantelides ^{2,4,8}

Richard F. Haglund, Jr. ^{2*}

1 Department of Physics, University of Alabama at Birmingham, Birmingham, Alabama 35294

2 Department of Physics and Astronomy, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee 37235

3 School of Chemical, Biological, and Materials Engineering, University of Oklahoma, Norman, Oklahoma 73019

4 Center for Nanophase Materials Sciences, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Oak Ridge, Tennessee 37831

5 Key Laboratory of Artificial Structures and Quantum Control, School of Physics and Astronomy, Shanghai Jiao Tong University, Shanghai 200240, China

6 Department of Materials Science & Engineering, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee 37996,

7 Center for Functional Nanomaterials, Brookhaven National Laboratory, Upton, New York 11973, USA

8 Department of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science, Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tennessee 37235

*Mail correspondence to appavoo@uab.edu; richard.haglund@vanderbilt.edu

Doping is generally understood as a strategy for including additional positive or negative charge carriers to a semiconductor, thereby tuning the Fermi level and changing its electronic properties in the equilibrium limit. However, because dopants also couple to all of the microscopic degrees of freedom in the host, they may also alter the non-equilibrium dynamical properties of the parent material, especially at large dopant concentrations. Here, we show how substitutional doping by tungsten at the one atomic percent level modifies the complex electronic and lattice dynamics of the phase-change material vanadium dioxide. Using femtosecond broadband spectroscopy, we compare dynamics in epitaxial thin films of pristine and tungsten-doped VO₂ over the broadest wavelength and temporal ranges yet reported. We demonstrate that coupling of tungsten atoms to the host lattice modifies the early electron-phonon dynamics on a femtosecond time scale, altering in a counter-intuitive way the ps-to-ns optical signatures of the phase transition. Density functional theory correctly captures the enthalpy difference between pristine and W-doped VO₂ and shows how the dopant softens critical V-V phonon modes while introducing new phononic modes due to W-V bonds. While substitutional doping provides a powerful method to control the switching threshold and contrast of phase-change materials, determining how the dopant *dynamically* changes the broadband optical response is equally important for optoelectronics.

I. INTRODUCTION

The incorporation of dopant atoms into a crystalline or amorphous material is a ubiquitous technique in condensed-matter science that is also exploited in most solid-state device technologies^{1,2}. Doping is typically a strategy for tuning the electronic structure of a material, thus modifying functional properties such as transport, space-charge depletion or the dielectric function, either to elicit or to enhance certain phenomena or to satisfy specific requirements of a technology. For example, in reconfigurable technologies based on phase changes, such as optical data storage^{3,4} and optoelectronics⁵⁻⁷, doping a phase-change material (PCM) affects the electro-optical contrast between the initial and final states by initiating a change from metal to insulator or from a crystalline to amorphous structure. In order for technologies based on PCMs to operate at THz speeds, it is equally important to understand how microscopic degrees of freedom that have been modified by dopant atoms respond dynamically to electronic or structural modification by an ultrafast light pulse. For example, in a PCM, the structural and electronic rearrangements play an important role in dictating key aspects of the transformation — including switching speed, energy cost and dynamic modulation of the dielectric function. While the effects of doping on PCMs has been studied in thermal equilibrium for phase transitions induced by modulating heat, pressure, or electric fields, little is known about how doping alters the ultrafast electronic and structural response of doped PCMs⁸⁻¹⁰.

Vanadium dioxide (VO_2) is a canonical PCM with competing crystalline phases that dictate its metallic and insulating properties¹¹⁻¹³ and appears to have significant applications in field-effect transistors¹⁴ and ultrafast optoelectronics^{10,15,16}. Vanadium dioxide exhibits a reversible solid-solid phase transformation that combines an insulator-to-metal transition (IMT) with a nearly simultaneous structural rearrangement from the monoclinic insulating (M1) phase to a rutile, tetragonal (R) form^{17,18}. The discovery that the phase transition could be induced optically¹⁹ has generated enormous interest in the potential of VO_2 thin films^{10,20} and nanostructures¹⁶ as all-optical switches.

Recent studies of the femtosecond photo-induced phase transition in VO_2 have focused on those processes with characteristic times less than 100 fs^{10,21,22}, effects of lattice mismatch²³ and substrate thermal properties²⁴ during the transition. However, for VO_2 applications in photonics and electro-optics, it is also critical to understand whether or not doping can enable systematic tuning of the dynamics of light-induced insulator-to-metal transition, such as switching-threshold fluence and relaxation times²⁰. Yet remarkably, modifying the insulator-to-metal switching dynamics by doping VO_2 has not, to our knowledge, been attempted up to now. There is substantial evidence that the IMT can be induced by impulsive laser-driven hole doping on an ultrafast time scale^{16,25}, suggesting that the dynamics of the IMT may be controllable by changing the conduction-band population in the initial state. In particular, control of the both the fluence threshold for switching and the relaxation dynamics from the metallic state would be desirable.

In this paper, we demonstrate that substitutional doping of tungsten at a level of approximately one atomic percent drastically modifies the dynamics of the photo-induced phase transition in VO_2 , including both the coherent lattice response and charge-carrier dynamics. The fact that the doping occurs substitutionally, confirmed by atomic-resolution scanning-transmission electron microscopy, makes it possible to use density functional theory to calculate and interpret changes in the phonon spectrum and the effects of added carriers (here electrons) on the doped VO_2 . Deploying broadband femtosecond spectroscopy, we show how the added electrons and microscopic deformations of the crystal lattice by the W-dopants modifies the structural and electronic properties of VO_2 from femtosecond to nanosecond time scales. The added mass of the W-dopant atoms also modifies the electron-lattice coupling in the VO_2 host lattice, as seen in changes in the transient coherent phonon response of the system. The data presented here span the largest wavelength range and longest time scale of ultrafast measurements of the photo-

induced phase transition in VO₂ yet measured, with or without doping. Moreover, the results suggest that doping can provide a general strategy for temporally tailoring the electro-optical contrast as well as the electron and phonon dynamics of PCMs.

II. FABRICATION AND STEADY-STATE CHARACTERIZATION

Epitaxial thin films of pristine and W-doped VO₂ were grown on c-cut sapphire (0001) using an established pulsed-laser deposition protocol.²⁶ The doped film was prepared using a 2 at. % W-doped V target to grow W_{0.04}V_{0.96}O₂ thin films. Rutherford backscattering, x-ray diffraction and scanning electron microscopy (SEM) were employed to characterize both sets of samples and confirm that the tungsten dopants did not aggregate. In all studied samples, scanning electron micrographs displayed no substantial change in film texture. White-light transmission measurements showed that the W-doping of VO₂ tunes the critical transition temperature downward (Figure 1a vs. 1c), here from $T_c = 70^\circ\text{C}$ to $T_c = 48^\circ\text{C}$, with changes both in the electronic and structural properties. The normalized white-light (WL) transmission also showed that W:VO₂ undergoes a more gradual phase transition than the pristine VO₂ when thermally cycled, exhibiting reduced optical contrast from about 42% in pristine VO₂ (Figure 1a) to about 28% in W-doped VO₂ (Figure 1c) relative to their respective low-temperature insulating states. Variable-temperature X-ray diffraction was employed to compare the *in situ* structural phase transition in both films, with 3D-isoline contours mapped onto two dimensions following the (010) monoclinic VO₂ family of planes that transform to the (100) tetragonal plane in the high-temperature state. The second- and fourth-order reflections of this (010) family of planes are tracked in the pristine (Figure 1b) and W-doped (Figure 1d) VO₂ films, respectively, as these have the highest intensity. In contrast to the sharp transition as pristine VO₂ evolves between the monoclinic and rutile structures, the W:VO₂ film shows a broader monoclinic peak that gradually and smoothly shifts to the tetragonal peak position when thermally cycled. This same contrast between abrupt *versus* gradual structural transitions is also evident in the signatures of the electronic transition (insulator to metal) in the WL-transmission hysteresis, and is consistent with observations in many experiments.

To determine unambiguously the location of the W-ions, aberration-corrected atomic-number Z-contrast, scanning-transmission-electron microscopy (STEM) was employed in combination with electron-energy-loss spectroscopy (EELS). Analysis of these data (Figure 1e) reveals that the bright column (white arrow) is significantly more intense than the others and can be conclusively attributed to tungsten ions substituting for vanadium ions within the VO₂ lattice. This makes it possible to calculate the relative stability of the M1 and R phases both before and after doping using density functional theory, predicting the changes in critical temperature and enthalpy cost of the transition, as discussed in [SECTION IV](#).

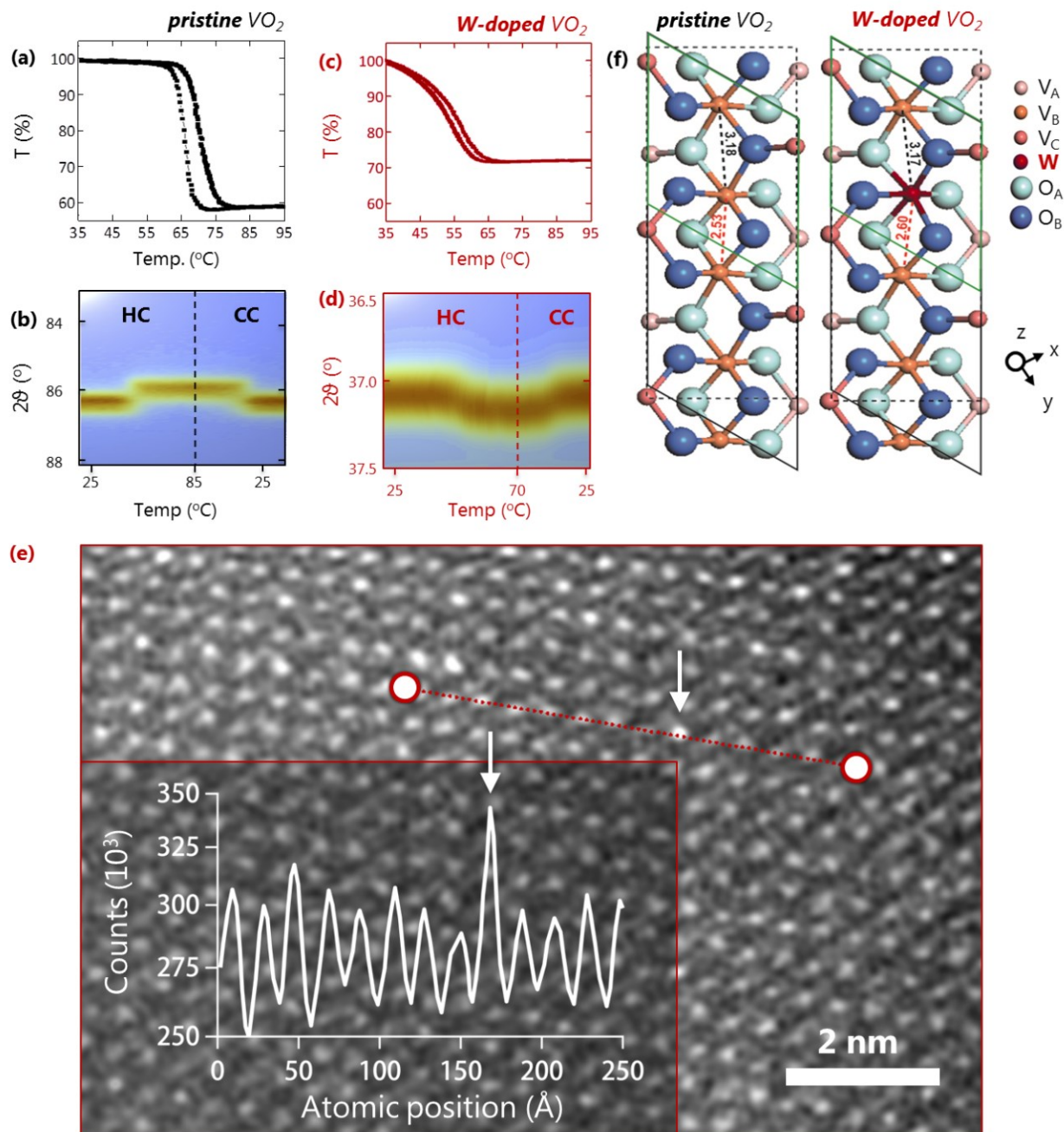


Figure 1. Equilibrium Electronic and Structural Properties of Pristine and W-doped Vanadium Dioxide. (a, c) White-light transmission measurements as a function of temperature and (b, d) *in situ* X-ray diffraction rocking curves of the thermally induced insulator-to-metal transitions. “HC” and “CC” stand for heating and cooling cycle, respectively. The suppressed z-axis in the projected 3D isoline contours is the diffraction intensity. (e) Atomic-number scanning-transmission electron micrograph (z-STEM) of the W-doped VO₂ sample, combined with electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS). The inset is an electron beam intensity profile acquired by Fourier analysis of mass peaks along the row of atoms (measured in Å) marked by the red-colored dotted line. Evidence of substitutional doping allows for monoclinic structures of pristine and W-doped VO₂ to be calculated (f) using the density-functional scheme described in the text. The W-atom is represented in red here, with corresponding changes in the bond distances.

III. ULTRAFAST DYNAMICS IN PRISTINE VERSUS TUNGSTEN-DOPED VO₂

Figure 2 summarizes the effect of pump-laser fluence on the femtosecond dynamics of photon-induced phase transition in pristine and W-doped VO₂ films (Figure 2) in a transient-absorption experiment. Femtosecond transient absorption (TA) measurements were conducted using a commercial 1 kHz amplified Ti:Sapphire laser system. Briefly, the pump pulse ($\lambda_{pump} = 1100$ nm, pulse duration of about 50 fs) is the signal beam from a collinear optical parametric amplifier pumped by the 800 nm fundamental output of an amplified Ti:sapphire laser. The temporally synchronized probe pulse is a white-light supercontinuum generated by focusing the 800 nm light onto a sapphire crystal. The broadband probe yields rich insights into the complex, overlapping spectral signatures associated with the structural (phonon) and electronic dynamics^{27,28} of VO₂ which change dramatically with pump fluence, particularly near switching thresholds.

Figure 2(a) shows the linear absorption of the metal and insulating phases (left axis) and optical-density contrast [$\Delta\text{Ext}_{(M-I)}$] as a function of probe wavelength. For wavelengths shorter than 500 nm, the dielectric contrast between insulating and metallic states $\Delta\text{Ext}_{(M-I)}$ is positive and small, indicating unambiguously the spectral range over which it is advantageous to compare the coherent phonon dynamics between pristine and W-doped VO₂ films [red stars in Figs. 2(a)-(c)]. The coherent phonon dynamics results from displacive excitation of the A₁ “breathing modes” in the insulating-M1 state in VO₂²⁹⁻³¹.

The near-IR pump pulse excites these A₁ Raman modes via displacive excitation of coherent phonons, with unusually large oscillation amplitudes that scale linearly with the fluence of the exciting pulse. When the metallic-R phase is generated from the insulating-M1 phase during ultrafast switching of VO₂, this transformation corresponds to a symmetry breaking process with a vanishing coherent phonon dynamics. Increasing the pump fluence decreases the rise time for the metallic phase to appear and consequently, accelerates the decay of the coherent phonon dynamics. In fact, this coherent phonon signature has been successfully employed as a marker for monitoring the phase transition of VO₂¹⁰.

Figures 2(b)-(c) compare the two-dimensional time-resolved data taken for pristine and W-doped VO₂ samples excited by the same pump-laser fluence (~ 3.5 mJ/cm²) — corresponding to *below*-threshold excitation for pristine VO₂ (Figure 2b) but *at-switching* threshold for W:VO₂ (Figure 2c) — and reveal stark differences between doped and undoped material. The damped oscillatory signature of the coherent phonons is present for the pristine VO₂ even for timescales greater than 5 ps (+ 5-10 mOD, red stars indicating the relevant spectral region). However, in the case of W-doped VO₂, the complex overlapping electronic signature is convoluted with the coherent phonon signature even for pump-probe time delays greater than 5 ps. Moreover, Figure 2(c) provides an additional clue that W:VO₂ has been switched to its metallic state as the electronic response in the 550-750 nm range does not return to its ground state for times greater than 1000 ps (black star)^{32,33}. The return of the original insulating-M1 phase takes place on a much longer time scale, a few tens to hundreds of nanoseconds³². For pristine VO₂ at the pump fluence of ~ 3.5 mJ/cm², this electronic signature returns to its ground state within that same temporal window (black star), as is also the case for all lower pump fluences. Also, we note that for all pump fluences studied [Figure 2(d)], W-doped VO₂ has a lower optical switching contrast, confirming that the change in conduction-band electron concentration has the same effect on the insulating state as “clamping” the temperature near the transition point^{34,35}.

Owing to the complex spectrotemporal signal — caused by the mixing of the signals from the coherent phonon dynamics (+mOD) and the electronic signature (-mOD) — we chose to compare our fluence-dependent measurement at 200 ps and at $\lambda = 600$ nm as an indicator of the phase transition. This is based on carefully analyzing all the 2D graphs for both the pristine and W-doped VO₂ samples and is summarized in Figure 2(d). This point on the 2D surface plots allows a fair comparison between both broadband spectral

response and fluence-dependent switching behaviors of both samples. However, this does not necessarily allow us to discriminate among mechanisms that would cause the switching of VO₂ to its metallic-R state; the switching could be caused either electronically via photo-hole doping or thermodynamically via carrier relaxation and subsequent carrier cooling that mediates the energy transfer to the lattice. Nevertheless, this figure reveals several key features of the W:VO₂ dynamics: (i) reduced optical contrast in the spectral range that corresponds to the coherent phonon modes for times less than 10 ps (lower positive values in the low-threshold fluence regime); (ii) a systematic and gradual reduction in optical contrast at every fluence; and (iii) a reduced switching threshold fluence [$F_{TH}(VO_2) - F_{TH}(W:VO_2) \sim 0.5 \text{ mJ/cm}^2$] caused by the W dopant.

Figure 3 shows the differences in long-term dynamics when each sample is pumped at thresholds, i.e. $\sim 3.5 \text{ mJ/cm}^2$ for W:VO₂ and $> 4.0 \text{ mJ/cm}^2$ for VO₂. We extract the dynamics at three wavelengths to highlight their overall behavior. We can readily compare the response of these samples at threshold; we see for example that the coherent phonon signature is about three times stronger for the pristine VO₂ when compared to the W:VO₂, with the effect of coherent phonons being more pronounced at shorter wavelengths (here at $\lambda = 480 \text{ nm}$). Moreover, for the case of the W:VO₂, the optical signatures of the coherent phonons exhibit an overall diminished amplitude and a qualitatively different oscillatory response compared to the VO₂ sample. This point is discussed further in [SECTION IV.B](#).

While optical techniques cannot definitively confirm changes in VO₂ *structure* across the phase transition, as ultrafast X-ray^{36, 13, 37} and electron diffraction^{38, 39} experiments can, time-resolved optical measurements over very long time scales can lead to qualitatively correct insights because of the starkly different relaxation times of the metallic monoclinic and rutile phases. This is true even though, or in a way because, one is spatially averaging over many individual grains in the films, each grain switching probabilistically as the input pump laser energy thermalizes. The peak metallicity is larger in the undoped sample, consistent with the differing contrast ratios in Figure 1 (a) and (c). On the other hand, although W:VO₂ requires a lower optical fluence for switching, it reaches maximum metallicity at about 600 ps, [red stars on Figure 3(a)-(b)] that is delayed relative to pristine VO₂ ($\sim 150 \text{ ps}$). This is the case for all fluences above the switching threshold, suggesting that doping can control the temporal evolution of VO₂ from the insulating monoclinic to the metallic, rutile state, accompanied by spectral changes in its broadband optical response. Importantly, our discussion of whether the samples have undergone the complete IMT is based on whether we observe electronic signatures (550 nm-750 nm) that last for nanoseconds. We note also that our discussion revolves around the case when the sample reaches maximum metallicity, rather than a defining a “unique” switching time for the various samples and excitation conditions.

Consistent with Booth *et al.* ^{40, 41}, and the data presented on thermal switching in the equilibrium regime [Figures 1(a)-(b)], the principal effect of the W⁶⁺ dopant is to lower the energy required to switch the W-doped VO₂ film into the metallic state. The lattice distortion induced by the W-dopants extends over a few unit cells and modifies the energy requirement for switching. However, in contrast to the conclusion of Ref.⁴⁰ about a structurally driven IMT, Figures 2(b)-(c) clearly show that the appearance of the structural phase-transition to a metallic-R state is delayed. Therefore, the picosecond relaxation dynamics of carriers in the conduction band state, and the slow growth of the metallic phase after 100 ps represent two distinct mechanisms. At the highest fluences studied, for both samples, band-gap collapse is nearly instantaneous and a sub-picosecond insulator-to-metal transition occurs. This is consistent with recent demonstrations of instantaneous band gap collapse that occurs within 100 fs after excitation to initiate a transition to the metallic rutile state, driven by hot carrier injection¹⁶.

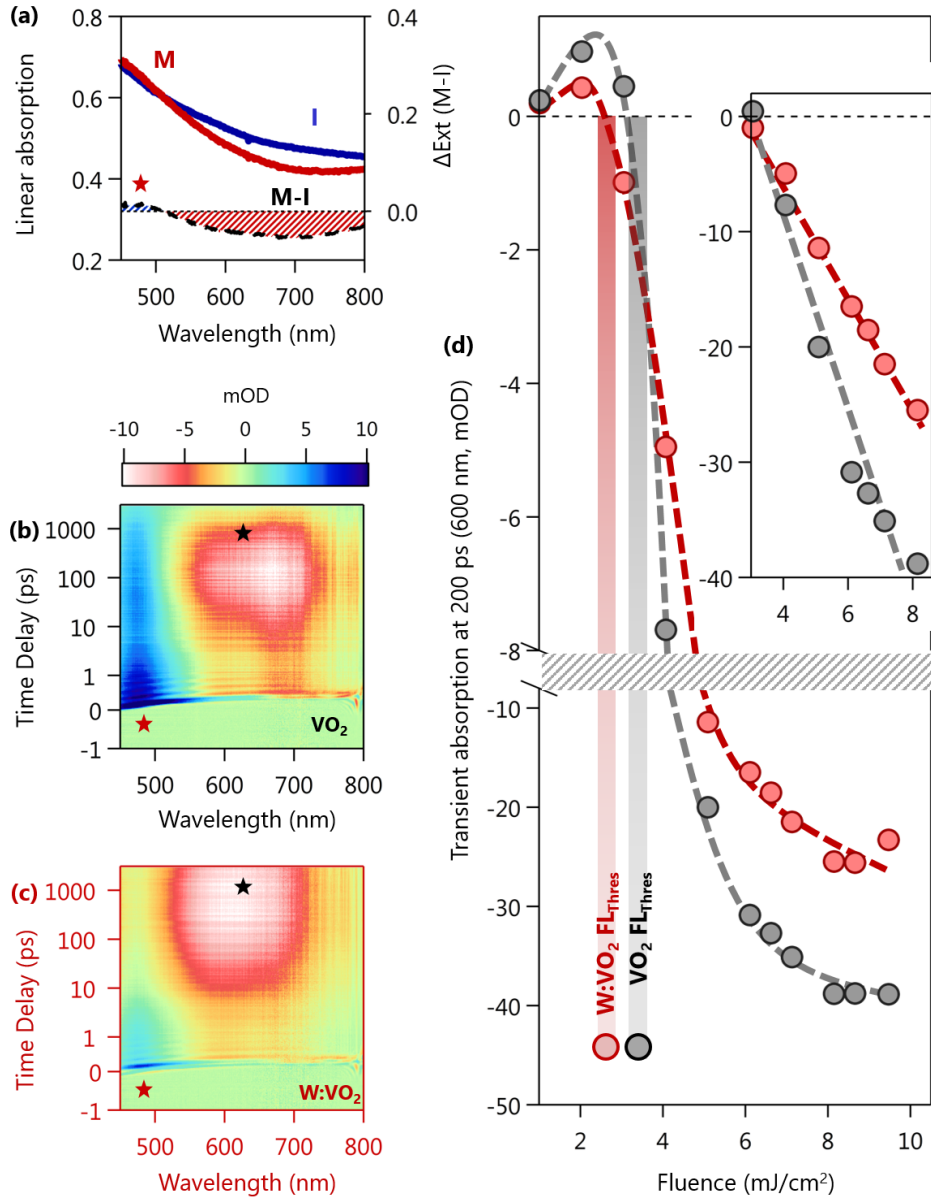


Figure 2. Broadband Ultrafast Response of Pristine versus W-doped VO₂. (a) Linear extinction spectra of VO₂ in the insulating (blue) and metallic (red) state (left scale). The change in optical contrast (extinction) between the two states is also plotted in black dashed lines ($\Delta\text{Ext}_{(\text{M-I})}$), right scale). Surface plots of visible-to-IR broadband transient response of (b) pristine and (c) W-doped VO₂ films excited at ~3.5 mJ/cm². The W-doped film shows completed switching behavior while the pristine VO₂ shows only a transient semiconductor response. For comparison purposes, the 2D color bar have been set to the same range for both samples. (d) Fluence-dependent measurements taken at 200 ps and averaged at ~600 nm for the pristine (grey) and W-doped VO₂ (red). Inset plots the same data on a linear scale to show that the slope ($|\Delta\text{mOD}/\Delta\text{Fluence}|$) is smaller for the W:VO₂ sample. Red and black stars highlight salient features of the ultrafast dynamics that are discussed in extensively in the main text.

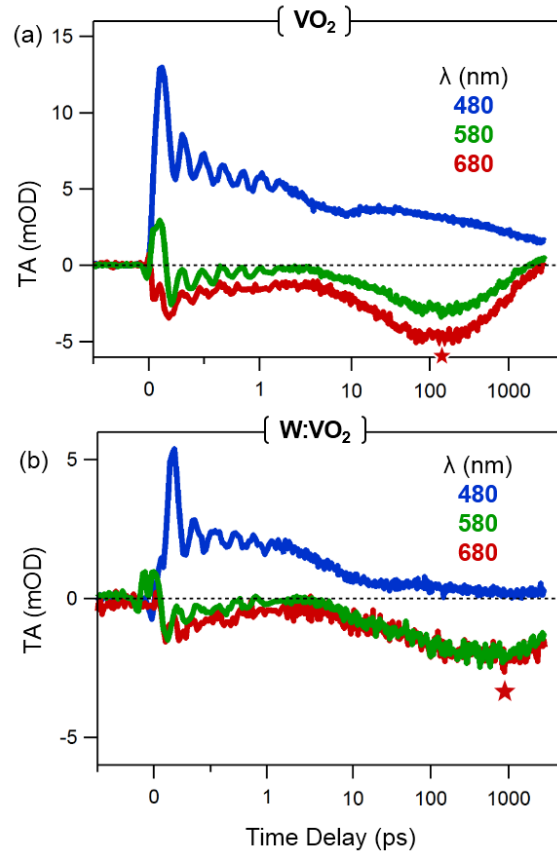


Figure 3. Dynamics of Pristine versus W-doped VO₂ at their Respective Switching Thresholds. Transient absorption (TA) dynamic traces at various wavelengths ($\lambda = 480, 580$ and 680 nm) for **(a)** VO₂ at 3.5 mJ/cm² and **(b)** W:VO₂ at 4.0 mJ/cm² displaying the effect of changes in the coherent phonons on the optical signatures. The red star denotes the delay at which the samples have reached maximum change in optical contrast, corresponding to maximum R1 metallicities for the stated pump-laser fluence. Note the change in scale for the ordinate axis so as to display the coherent vibrations in the W:VO₂ sample.

IV. THEORETICAL CALCULATIONS AND DISCUSSION

(A) EFFECT OF DOPING ON ENTHALPY COST OF PHASE-TRANSITION

First-principles density-functional-theory (DFT) calculations were employed to evaluate the relative stability of the low-temperature monoclinic (M1) and high-temperature rutile (R) phases of VO₂ before and after W-substitution, as depicted in Figure 1f. We used the Hohenberg-Kohn DFT^{42,43} in the non-spin-polarized generalized-gradient approximation⁴⁴ plus Hubbard U (GGA+U)⁴⁵ approach and the projector augmented-wave (PAW) method as implemented in VASP^{29,46,47}. All calculations were performed with an energy cutoff of 500 eV. The Hubbard parameter and exchange interaction were $U = 4.0$ eV, and $J = 0.7$ eV, respectively^{16,48}. For pristine VO₂, the M1 unit cell contains four V atoms and eight O atoms, while the primitive unit cell of the R phase contains only two V atoms and four O atoms. For better convergence of the total energy difference between phases, a double unit cell, consistent in size and shape with the unit cell of the monoclinic phase, was used to calculate the rutile phase. An $8 \times 8 \times 8$ k-point grid was generated using the Monkhorst-Pack scheme. The structures were relaxed so that residual forces on all atoms were smaller than 5×10^{-3} eV/Å. A supercell containing WV₃₁O₆₄ was used to compute the total energies of the W-doped monoclinic and rutile phases, corresponding to a W concentration of ~3 atomic percent, which is three times as large as the experimental doping, but it makes the calculations feasible.

The calculated M1 phase lattice parameters are $a = 5.68$ Å, $b = 4.61$ Å, $c = 5.45$ Å, with monoclinic angle $\alpha = 122.1^\circ$, in excellent agreement with experimental structure: $a = 5.7529$ Å, $b = 4.5263$ Å, $c = 5.3825$ Å, and $\alpha = 122.602^\circ$ ⁴⁹. For the rutile structure, the calculated relaxed structure corresponds to lattice parameters of $a = 4.64$ Å, $c = 2.80$ Å, in good agreement with experimental values of $a = 4.554$ Å, $c = 2.857$ Å. The calculated V-V distance in the rutile phase is 2.86 Å, while the short (long) V-V distances in the low-temperature M1 phase become 2.53 Å (3.18 Å), in good agreement with experiment. The total energy of the monoclinic phase is calculated to be lower than the rutile phase by 96.9 meV per VO₂ unit, consistent with the stability of the monoclinic phase at low temperature. For the calculated structure of the rutile phase, the VO₆ octahedron also has tetragonal symmetry. The four V-O bonds in the a-b plane have a length of 1.93 Å, while the two V-O bonds along the c-direction have a length of 1.95 Å. For the calculated structure of the monoclinic phase, the VO₆ octahedron becomes distorted: The longest V-O bond becomes 2.07 Å, while the shortest V-O bond becomes 1.81 Å.

Following the definition of Baur⁵⁰ we can calculate the bond length distortion index (DI) to quantify the distortion of the VO₆ octahedron: $DI = \frac{1}{6} \sum_{i=1}^6 \frac{|l_i - l_{av}|}{l_{av}}$, where l_i is the individual V-O bond length, and l_{av} is the average bond length. For the calculated rutile structure, $DI = 0.002$, indicating a small distortion of the VO₆ octahedron; while $DI = 0.044$ for the calculated monoclinic structure, indicating a larger distortion of the VO₆ octahedron. Following Robinson *et al.*⁵¹ the variance of the octahedral bond angles in the VO₆ and WO₆ octahedra is defined as $\sigma^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{12} \frac{|\theta_i - 90^\circ|^2}{11}$ where θ_i is the individual angle between V-O (or W-O) bonds. For the calculated rutile structure, $\sigma^2 = 2.6 \text{ degree}^2$, indicating very small distortion of the VO₆ octahedron; while $\sigma^2 = 39.9 \text{ degree}^2$ for the calculated monoclinic structure, indicating large distortion of the VO₆ octahedron. For the W-doped monoclinic phase, both the WO₆ octahedron and its nearest-neighbor VO₆ octahedron are distorted less. We obtain $\sigma^2 = 33.3 \text{ degree}^2$ for the WO₆ octahedron and $\sigma^2 = 28.0 \text{ degree}^2$ for the neighboring VO₆ octahedron. The effects of W doping were calculated in a supercell containing 96 atoms with formula WV₃₁O₆₄, with atomic positions optimized for both M1 and R phases. The total energy of the monoclinic phase is lower than the rutile phase, consistent with the stability of even the W-doped M1 phase at low temperature. The total calculated energy difference is 74.4 meV per W_{1/32} V_{31/32} O₂ unit, which is smaller compared to the undoped VO₂. Thus, W doping stabilizes the high-temperature

rutile phase relative to the low-temperature monoclinic phase, consistent with the observed reduction of transition temperatures in W-doped VO₂ samples.

Assuming that the change of entropy between the monoclinic and rutile phases at the transition is the same for both pristine and W-doped VO₂, the phase-transition temperature $T_{C;1}$ of W:VO₂ can be estimated as $T_{C;1} = T_{C;0} (\Delta E_1 / \Delta E_0)$, where $T_{C;0}$ is the transition temperature of pristine VO₂, and ΔE_0 and ΔE_1 are the total energy differences between the M1 and R phases in the VO₂ and W:VO₂, respectively. An estimated transition temperature of 261 K is obtained for the WV₃₁O₆₄ material using the calculated total energy differences and the experimental transition temperature of 340 K in pristine VO₂. The reduction of transition temperature in W:VO₂ is equivalent to 25 K per 1% W-dopant atom, in excellent agreement with the experimentally observed reduction of 27 K per 1% W-dopant atom⁵². Consequently, the DFT calculations suggest that the differences in the structural phase transitions of pristine vs. doped VO₂-films are associated with the structural distortion and additional charges introduced by the dopant ions. These changes in the energy cost of the transition are indeed reflected in the electronic signature of the phase change, that is in the insulator-to-metal transition.

(B) EFFECT OF DOPING ON COHERENT PHONON DYNAMICS

As suggested in SECTION III, the tungsten dopants have an appreciable effect on the lattice dynamics, both on the short and longer timescales (Figure 3). To further quantify these effects in both samples, we extract the kinetic traces of the 2D time-resolved data at around 475 nm at key pump fluences (Figure 4a-c). Figure 4d displays the experimentally-obtained frequency domain signatures of the coherent phonons, acquired via Fourier transformation of the kinetic traces. The transformed data reveals that the W-dopant modifies the phonon spectrum by softening the VO₂ phonon modes. We observe phonon softening near 6 THz, a well-known signature of the phase transition in pristine VO₂¹⁰, as well as an additional phonon mode near 4 THz, near the Γ -point. These lower-frequency V-W vibrational modes in the W-doped VO₂ as compared to the V-V dimer vibration at 6 THz in pristine VO₂ suggest that the presence of W may lower the energy required to trigger the phase change, resulting in the rather smooth transition observed in Figure 2c. As the fluence is increased to near-switching threshold and above, these phonon modes from both the pristine and W:VO₂ vanish, indicating the loss of the insulating state and the subsequent onset of metallization in the rutile crystalline structure.

To determine how the tungsten dopant modifies the phonon modes of the VO₂, vibrational frequencies were calculated using the zone-centered finite-difference method (Γ -point only in the Brillouin zone), so that each ion is displaced in the direction of each Cartesian coordinate, as in density functional perturbation theory (DFPT). Using this finite-displacement method to calculate the lattice vibrations of this W-doped VO₂ system in a WV₁₀₇O₂₁₆ supercell, we find several zone-centered vibrations in the range 3.6-4.8 THz involving the motion of the W-atom bonded to neighboring V atoms. In this approach, the Hessian matrix and the force constants were calculated using the VASP package⁴⁶. The PBE-GGA exchange-correlation potential⁵³ was used, and the electron-core interactions were treated in the projector augmented-wave (PAW) method^{29,47}. All the calculations were based on a supercell including 27 unit cells (3×3×3) of the monoclinic structure. For W-VO₂, one V atom is replaced by W, so that the W concentration is about 0.9%. The phonon density of states was calculated by manually counting the number of states within a 0.1 THz window and plotted as function of frequency. The curves, as shown in Figure 4e, are smoothed using second-order least-squares regression to compare with the experimental data (Figure 4d). The calculations capture the phonon softening near 6 THz and the broadening and low-order modes near 4 THz. Figure 4g depicts a representative W-V mode in the 3.6-4.8 THz range for a W:VO₂ unit cell. The presence of lower-order modes is typically attributed to lattice vibrations that extend to multiple unit cells, as discussed by

Gervais *et al.*⁸ Therefore, doping the VO₂ lattice with tungsten has the effect of modifying the phonon density of states at those lower phonon-mode frequencies.

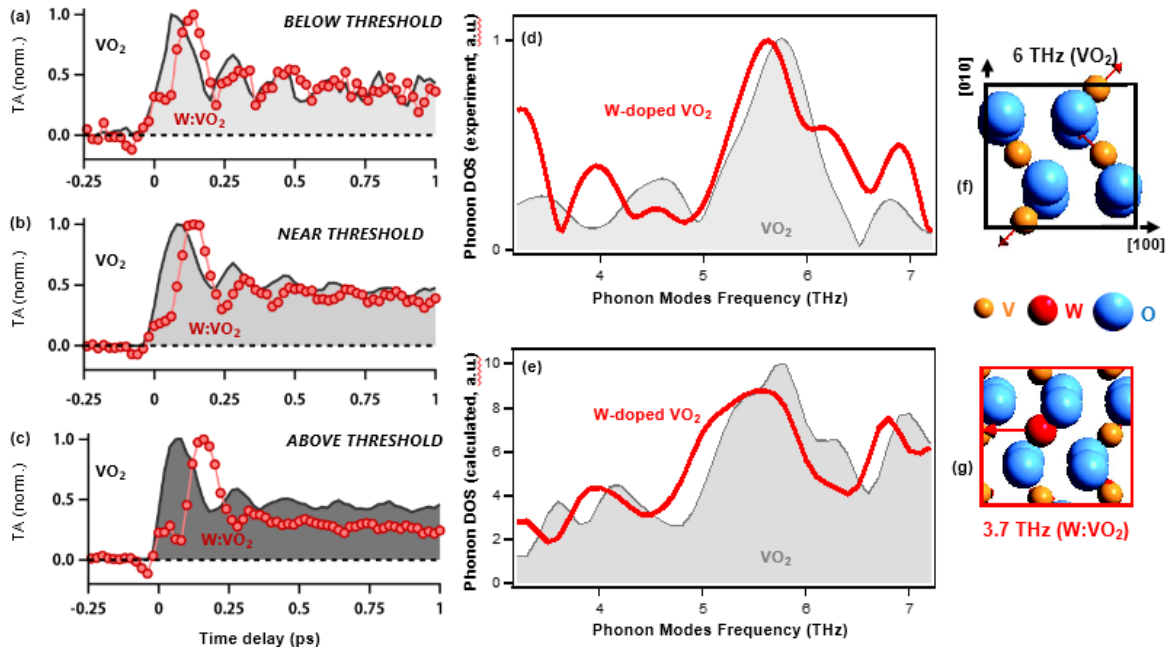


Figure 4. Effect of W-dopants on VO₂ Coherent Phonon Dynamics. Normalized transient absorption (TA) data for only the first picosecond comparing VO₂ (grey) and W:VO₂ (red) at **(a)** below, **(b)** near and **(c)** just above their respective switching thresholds. Note the systematic faster damping of the oscillation for the W-doped sample. **(d)** Experimental phonon spectra comparing pristine (grey) and tungsten-doped (red) VO₂ samples with lattice vibrations driven by below-threshold exciting pump pulse. Data were acquired by Fourier transforming the kinetics data of Figure 2b, c with spectral slices centered at 475 nm and with a 20 nm bandwidth. **(e)** Calculated phonon spectra at the Γ point using a finite displacement method comparing the VO₂ (grey) and W:VO₂ (red). The principal phonon vibrations for the V-V at 6 THz (for the VO₂ unit cell) and a representative 3.7 THz W-V mode in the 3.6-4.8 THz range (for the W:VO₂ unit cell) are shown in **(f)** and **(g)**, respectively. The red atom represents the tungsten dopant.

VI. CONCLUSION

Taken together, we observe that both electronic and the structural phase transitions in VO₂ are strongly affected by substitutional doping of tungsten atoms, at a concentration appropriate to many phase-change applications. Ultrafast laser switching into the metallic state occurs at lower fluence in W-doped VO₂ films, with drastic time-dependent changes across the visible-to-NIR spectrum. Moreover, the difference in coherent response between pristine and W-doped VO₂ films suggests that bond-softening due to both the higher electron concentration and greater inertial mass alters the carrier dynamics even during the first few picoseconds. The decreased transmission observed for the W-doped film at all fluences is attributable to the excess carriers in the conduction band, resulting also in a reduced energy required to switch the film. Another reason for this reduced transmission could be due to the dopant ions that generate localized regions of R-phase symmetry even in the insulating monoclinic VO₂²².

Doping with lighter elements, such as aluminum or magnesium^{54,55}, can, in principle, be used not only to control the switching threshold of a PCM, but also to change the optical contrast in the insulator-to-metal transmission and induce faster relaxation to the insulating state following ultrafast laser excitation. Dopants – either lighter or heavier than vanadium – can also be used to create lattice deformation in the form of strain, thus triggering the phase transition with varying switching threshold depending the nature of the strain (tensile or compressive).⁵⁶⁻⁵⁸ Localized introduction of dopants by ion implantation can be used to alter the optical properties of metamaterials and metasurfaces.⁵⁹ More rapid doping-induced dynamics would be appropriate for applications to silicon photonics, where optical and electrical switching of ring resonators using vanadium dioxide are already being explored.^{60,61}

In general, therefore, one can also expect that doping phase-change materials – with either excess electrons or holes – will continue to provide insights into phase-transition dynamics in strongly correlated materials, while simultaneously yielding many opportunities to control the properties of thin PCM films for specific applications in optoelectronics and photonics.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Materials preparation and laser experiments were supported by the National Science Foundation (JN and RFH: ECS-0801985, KA:OIA-1832898) and the Defense Threat Reduction Agency (KA and RFH, HDTRA1-01-1-0047). Density Functional Theory (DFT) calculations were partly sponsored by the Department of Energy (DE-FG02-09ER46554, BW, WL and STP), by the National Science Foundation (DMR-1207241, BW, STP), and by the McMinn Endowment at Vanderbilt University (STP). This research used resources of the Center for Functional Nanomaterials, which is a US DOE Office of Science Facility, at Brookhaven National Laboratory under Contract No. DE-SC0012704. Computations were performed at the National Energy Research Scientific Computing Center. Portions of this work were performed at the Vanderbilt Institute of Nanoscale Science and Engineering, using facilities renovated under NSF ARI-R2 DMR-0963361. The high-temperature XRD work was conducted at the Center for Nanophase Materials Sciences, which is a DOE Office of Science User Facility. We thank Professor Simon Wall and Professor Raanan Tobey for helpful discussions.

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