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Identification of a functional point defect in SrTiO₃

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Unveiling both the presence and nature of point defects is one of the biggest challenges in condensed matter physics and materials science. Particularly in complex oxides, even a minute amount of unavoidable point defects could generate novel physical phenomena and functions, such as visible light emission and ferroelectricity, yet it remains elusive to clearly identify such point defects. Here, taking SrTiO₃ as a model system, we show that iterative feedback among atomic-layer and stoichiometry-controlled thin-film epitaxy, hybrid density functional theory, and high-resolution cathodoluminescence spectroscopy allows for the identification of a functional cationic defect – the Ti antisite (Ti_{Sr}) defect. Our cathodoluminescence measurements reveal sub-band-gap luminescence, whose spectral fine structures show excellent quantitative agreement, as well as one-to-one correspondence, with the theoretically predicted optical transitions from intrinsic point defects like Ti_{Sr}. Guided by the theory and spectroscopic results, we also control a cation stoichiometry, and it in turn results in good systematics in cathodoluminescence spectra. Not limited to the identification of Ti_{Sr}, this approach allows for more reliable, self-consistent defect study, and provides critical insight into a microscopic picture of point defects in complex oxides.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Point defects are universally present in every material, and significantly affect physical properties and functions of materials [1–4]. In complex oxides, point defects have played a critical role in determining structural, electronic, optical, and electrochemical properties, especially via modifying the charge, spin, and orbital states of cations (e.g., transition metal ions). Recent advances in growth techniques for complex oxides have enabled control of film stoichiometry to achieve highly pure materials with intrinsic bulk properties [5]. On the other hand, it has been also found that point defects can generate a broad spectrum of physical properties, including superconductivity [6], ferroelectricity [7–9], metal-insulator transition [10], and emergent phenomena [11] in complex oxides. To date, it has been believed that most of the above emergent functions originate from oxygen vacancies, and the roles played by other intrinsic defects (e.g., cation vacancy and related defects) have been largely neglected.

SrTiO_3 is one of the most important and interesting complex oxides [12]. A pure, unstrained SrTiO_3 has a simple perovskite cubic structure at room temperature and is a nonmagnetic, paraelectric band insulator with an indirect band gap of ~ 3.2 eV [13]. Interestingly, an external perturbation, such as epitaxial strain and doping, has been employed to realize a wide range of physical properties and functions in SrTiO_3 . In addition to this intentional engineering, even small concentrations of unavoidable point defects can play a decisive role in the properties of SrTiO_3 . Strontium and oxygen vacancies have been considered to be two dominant point defects in SrTiO_3 , because of their small formation energy [14,15]. While the Sr vacancy (V_{Sr}) can act to trap carriers and limit carrier mobilities [16], the oxygen vacancy (V_{O}) is considered to induce superconductivity [17] and n -type conductivity [18,19] in SrTiO_3 . In addition to V_{Sr} and

V_O , recent works propose that antisite Ti defect (Ti_{Sr}), where a Sr is replaced by a Ti atom (Fig. 1(a)), should also be intrinsically present and could lead to interesting and technologically important phenomena [7,9], such as visible light emission and ferroelectricity. However, it still remains elusive to unambiguously identify these point defects.

Cathodoluminescence (CL) spectroscopy has been one of the most successful techniques for characterizing defects in a material [20,21]. Besides near-band-gap and higher lying energy transitions in semiconductors and insulators, luminescence at energies below the band gap arises from defect levels located in the band gap. In a simple material, the measured defect levels give rather straightforward evidence, from which we can identify point defects in the material. In contrast, a complicated structural and electronic reconstruction can occur due to point defects in complex oxides, which necessitates additional theoretical support. Although density functional theory (DFT) has been widely used to explore the electronic structure of complex oxides, its calculated band gap shows a quantitative mismatch with the experimental value [22,23]. This well-known band gap problem has made it impossible to precisely compare the measured and calculated defect-induced optical transitions and identify the relevant point defects. Recently, a more reliable approach, that is, the Heyd, Scuseria, and Ernzerhof (HSE) hybrid functional [24,25], has been adopted in this field. The accuracy of HSE in predicting physical properties for $SrTiO_3$ has already been established [26,33], by reproducing not only the experimental band gap but also dielectric properties and the equilibrium crystal volume.

Here, using iterative feedback loops among atomic-layer- and stoichiometry-controlled thin film epitaxy, hybrid density functional theory, and CL spectroscopy, we identify a functional point defect – Ti antisite (Ti_{Sr}) defect – in a complex oxide $SrTiO_3$. Perovskite oxides usually have multiple intrinsic point defects, such as Ti_{Sr} , V_{Sr} , and V_O (Fig. 1), which can contribute to

the emergence of functional properties in SrTiO₃. Notably, those point defects not only can show distinct dielectric functions, but also can generate spectroscopically resolvable optical transitions. Therefore, by precisely calculating the defect-induced optical transitions and performing high-resolution CL measurements for the controlled thin films, we successfully identify all the measured sub-band-gap optical transitions from point defects and confirm the presence of a functional cationic defect, i.e., Ti_{Sr}, in SrTiO₃.

II. EXPERIMENTAL AND THEORETICAL METHODS

Homoepitaxial SrTiO₃ thin films were grown on (001) SrTiO₃ substrate using the pulsed laser deposition (PLD) method. Before deposition, low miscut ($< 0.05^\circ$) SrTiO₃ substrates were treated with a buffered hydrofluoric acid etch and annealed in oxygen at 1050° C for 6 hours to create atomically smooth single TiO₂ terminated surfaces with unit cell steps. A KrF excimer laser (248 nm) beam was focused on SrTiO₃ single-crystal targets to an energy density of ~ 2.0 J/cm² and pulsed at 5 Hz. SrTiO₃ films were grown at a substrate temperature of 750 °C and oxygen partial pressures of 10 mTorr. The PLD system was equipped with high-pressure reflection high-energy electron diffraction (RHEED), which enabled atomic-layer-controlled growth and *in situ* monitoring during the growth [Fig. 2(a)]. After growth, the films were annealed in 1 atmosphere of oxygen during cooling. The crystal structure of the films was determined using a high-resolution four-circle X-ray diffraction (XRD) machine (Bruker D8 advance). The surface of films was atomically smooth with single unit-cell height steps measured by atomic force microscopy (AFM), as shown in Fig. 2(b).

For first-principles calculations, SrTiO₃ is modeled by a supercell of 160 atoms, constructed by the $2 \times 2 \times 2$ repetition of the 20-atom unit cell [27], which accommodates the

octahedral rotation [28]. One defect is then generated within the 160-atom supercell for each of three types of defects of Ti_{Sr} , V_{Sr} , and V_{O} . For defects modeled in large supercells, the interaction between periodic images is small and can be neglected. Our first-principles calculations are based on the generalized Kohn-Sham density functional theory (DFT) with the screened hybrid functional HSE06 [24,25]. The structure optimizations have been performed by the CRYSTAL14 code package [29] that employs a linear combination (contraction) of localized Gaussian type functions to represent the Bloch orbitals. The Hay-Wadt effective core potentials [30] have been adopted for Ti and Sr atoms, which replace only inner core orbitals with the effective potentials but orbitals for valence electrons are calculated self-consistently. The light oxygen atoms have been described by all-electron basis sets. The basis sets have been chosen following literature [31]: O-8-411(1d)G, Ti-411(311d)G and Sr-311(1d)G, where the numbers refer to the level of contraction. The integrations over the Brillouin zone were performed with a Γ -centered $2 \times 2 \times 2$ k-point mesh. The self-consistent field convergences threshold on energy is set to be 10^{-8} Hartree. The structure is considered to be relaxed when 3×10^{-5} Hartree/Bohr in the root-mean-square values of forces and 1.2×10^{-4} Bohr in the root-mean-square values of atomic displacements are simultaneously achieved for atomic position and lattice constant optimizations respectively. With the relaxed structures for each defect modeled in the SrTiO_3 supercell, we use DFT as implemented in VASP [32] code package to identify the energies of the optical spectra. The formation energy of the Ti_{Sr} in a charge state q can be calculated by: $E^f(\text{Ti}_{\text{Sr}}) = E_T(\text{Ti}_{\text{Sr}}) - E_T(\text{SrTiO}_3) - \mu_{\text{Sr}} + \mu_{\text{Ti}} + q(\varepsilon_{\text{VBM}} + E_{\text{F}}) + \Delta$, where $E_T(\text{SrTiO}_3)$ is the total energy of a perfect SrTiO_3 crystal system and $E_T(\text{Ti}_{\text{Sr}})$ is the total energy of the supercell containing an Ti_{Sr} in a charge state q . The atom X that is removed from the crystal is placed in a reservoir of energy μ_X , referenced to the total energy (per atom) of the standard phase. The reference of Fermi level E_{F} is

the energy at valence-band maximum (VBM) ϵ_{VBM} of SrTiO_3 representing the energy of the electron reservoir. Δ is the charge-state dependent finite-size correction [33]. To be consistent with previous work [34], we set $\mu_{\text{Ti}} = -4.0$ eV and $\mu_{\text{Sr}} = -3.4$ eV. Note that this choice does not affect the position of thermodynamic transition levels, which correspond to the Fermi-level positions where formation energies of different charge states cross and the charge state of defect changes.

Depth-resolved cathodoluminescence spectroscopy (DR-CLS) was performed using a Physical Electronics Inc. (PHI) 110-10 glancing incidence electron gun operated with beam voltages from 0.5 kV to 4.5 kV and an emission current controlled to provide a constant power of 1 mW with varying voltages under ultrahigh vacuum (UHV) conditions. The emitted photons were collected by a CaF_2 lens in vacuum, passed through a sapphire window port of the UHV chamber into an Oriel F-number matcher. The collected light was then dispersed through an Oriel MS260i monochromator using a grating with a 300 nm blaze into an Andor iDus OE charge coupled detector (CCD). To minimize charging by the incident electron beam, the sample was covered with a copper grid that was rinsed with acetone, methanol, isopropanol and then DI water prior to use. Individual DRCL spectra were separated by 10 min. periods sufficient to discharge any trapped charge. The electron gun's orientation prevented sample illumination by the filament glow. The normalized 1.8 eV and 2.1 eV peak intensities shown in Fig. 5(b) are defined as the intensity ratio between these CLS peaks and the near-band-edge peak at 3.6 eV [35].

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Figure 2(c) shows XRD θ - 2θ scan of our sample around the SrTiO₃ (002) Bragg peak. The XRD peak position of the SrTiO₃ film was almost identical with that of the SrTiO₃ substrate, indicating that our SrTiO₃ film had a normal unit-cell volume (with a small expansion of <0.1%) and was free of excessive point defects. Based on the measured lattice volume, we may expect that physical properties of the film would be quite similar to those of pure SrTiO₃ bulk. Our previous Raman spectroscopy measurements, however, revealed that our films are polar with the nonpolar-to-polar transition temperature at ~400 K [8,36], whereas pure SrTiO₃ bulk is nonpolar at every temperature. Furthermore, our electrical measurements showed room-temperature ferroelectricity in our ultrathin SrTiO₃ homoepitaxial films [9]. Regarding the distinct Raman spectra of Sr-deficient and Ti-deficient SrTiO₃ [36], we found our films to be Sr-deficient, which was also confirmed by a chemical composition analysis like wave-length dispersive X-ray spectroscopy [8]. This indicates the presence of a Sr-deficiency-related defect that generates ferroelectricity in our nominally stoichiometric SrTiO₃ films.

In the case of Sr-deficient SrTiO₃, our first-principles calculation shows that Ti_{Sr} is the only the point defect that can generate polar distortion [9]. Figure 1 shows the calculated local atomic distortions at the vicinity of three representative intrinsic defects – Ti_{Sr}, V_O⁺¹, and V_{Sr}⁻¹, modeled in a large SrTiO₃ supercell. Among these three types of defects, Ti_{Sr} is only the point defect that breaks the inversion symmetry, generating a large electric dipole. The broken inversion symmetry is facilitated by an electronic reconstruction induced by Ti_{Sr}. The total energy is significantly lowered by the electronic hybridization between the Ti-3*d* states and the O-2*p* electronic states. Atomic reconstructions occur consequently, which can be clearly seen by the Ti_{Sr} forming relatively stronger Ti-O bonds with six of the oxygen atom, while moving away from the other rest six oxygen atoms in its first coordination shell, as presented in Fig. 1(a). Such

a drastic atomic reconstruction generates an electric dipole around $10 e\cdot\text{\AA}$ in our first-principles calculations, which is significantly larger than that in a conventional ferroelectric BaTiO_3 of $1.3 e\cdot\text{\AA}$.

On the other hand, due to the featureless nature of the electronic structure of charged vacancies, a V_{Sr}^{-1} or V_{O}^{+1} defect doesn't introduce any abrupt electronic reconstruction in SrTiO_3 . The atoms surrounding these charged vacancies respond to an electrostatic interaction from the defect. The resulting local atomic structures are distorted away from the original cubic symmetry, however, rather isotopically. Not surprisingly, the inversion symmetries are preserved and no local electric dipole is generated in both types of vacancies, as seen in Fig. 2(b) and (c). It should be noted that we theoretically examined all the possible point defects and their clusters in the case of Sr-deficient SrTiO_3 , and found that only the Ti_{Sr} induces a stable switchable polarization [9], a prerequisite for ferroelectricity.

Interestingly, our calculation also revealed that Ti_{Sr} induces local oxygen-octahedral tilts, as well as local polarization (Fig. 1). While these octahedral tilts can mainly change the local crystal shape, the overall crystal volume might remain almost preserved. The crystal volume change in SrTiO_3 with Ti_{Sr} was calculated as small as $\sim 0.3\%$, compared to that of stoichiometric SrTiO_3 , and it will be even smaller when the calculated cell size is sufficiently large. Notably, the crystal volume was decreased by Ti_{Sr} , rather than being increased. Therefore, according to our calculations, Ti_{Sr} can generate polar distortion, but doesn't induce excessive crystal volume change, consistent with our XRD, Raman, and electrical measurements.

For the next step, we theoretically examined the optical transition from Ti_{Sr} for checking if it is optically detectable. Assuming that Ti_{Sr} initially exists in +1 charge state (i.e., $\text{Ti}_{\text{Sr}}^{+1}$), the localized electron in the defect state can recombine with a hole in the valence band, the latter of

which is generated by the electron-hole excitation process of the experiment. Following the above process, the $\text{Ti}_{\text{Sr}}^{+1}$ is converted to +2 charge state (i.e., $\text{Ti}_{\text{Sr}}^{+2}$), as described by $\text{Ti}_{\text{Sr}}^{+1} + h \rightarrow \text{Ti}_{\text{Sr}}^{+2}$, emitting photons simultaneously. When the Fermi level is below 2.6 eV above the VBM, there is a possibility that Ti_{Sr} mainly exists in +2 charge state. In this case, the electron can be excited from the valence band to the empty defect state during optical excitation and generate a +1 charge state, thus allowing the same optical emission process $\text{Ti}_{\text{Sr}}^{+1} + h \rightarrow \text{Ti}_{\text{Sr}}^{+2}$. Theoretically, the above optical spectra can be determined by the thermodynamic transition level as well as the correction considering the Stokes shifts. As shown in Fig. 3(a), the thermodynamic transition level between $\text{Ti}_{\text{Sr}}^{+2}$ and $\text{Ti}_{\text{Sr}}^{+1}$ states is revealed to be 2.6 eV above the VBM from our first-principles calculations based on hybrid density functional theory. Compared with the GGA+U results with the ad-hoc band gap correction in Ref. 7, the (2+/+) transition level for the Ti antisite defect is shifted from 2.13 eV above the VBM in Ref. 7 to 2.6 eV above the VBM by our HSE calculations. We believe that HSE provides a more reliable description of the electronic structure in order to determine the transition levels and corresponding optical signatures. The characteristic time of lattice relaxation is much longer than that of the electron-hole excitations. Therefore, the local atomic structure can be assumed to be intact during the optical process according to the Frank-Condon principle. This physical principle allows us to predict the optical transition associated with Ti_{Sr} to be at 1.74 eV, with the computed Stokes shift of 0.86 eV, as schematically shown by our configuration coordinate diagram in Fig. 3(b). By the same token, the optical transitions at 2.80 and 2.03 eV have been predicted to be associated with oxygen vacancy of +1 charge state (i.e., V_{O}^{+1}) and Sr vacancy of -1 charge state (i.e., V_{Sr}^{-1}), respectively, which are also consistent with recent calculations [34].

In order to measure those point-defect-induced optical transitions, we carried out the CL measurements for **nominally stoichiometric SrTiO₃ and slightly Sr-deficient Sr_{0.99}TiO₃ thin films**, as shown in Fig. 4(a). Importantly, we were able to achieve high depth resolution by a differential technique, subtracting suitably normalized spectra acquired at lower energy from slightly higher energy spectra [37]. **The measured CL data exhibits the spectral fine structures with multiple peaks at ~1.6, ~1.8, ~2.1, and ~2.9 eV, which are more obvious in Sr_{0.99}TiO₃ (lower panel in Fig. 4(a)), along with broad signals at 2.3–2.6 eV due to V_O -related defects [37]. Other strong peaks at ~3.6 and ~4.1 eV correspond to the direct-band-gap emission and above-band-gap emission from Ti t_{2g} orbitals [34], respectively. All these measured peak energies are in excellent agreement with our theoretical calculations. Figure 4(b) illustrates the optical transitions, either predicted from first-principles calculations or taken from the literatures [38], showing 1.60, 1.74, 2.03, and 2.80 eV optical transitions by Ti^{3+} , Ti_{Sr}^{+1} , V_{Sr}^{-1} , and V_O^{+2} , respectively. Therefore, based on this quantitative agreement, as well as one-to-one correspondence, between theoretical and experimental data, we could effectively evidence the presence of several point defects, including the functional Ti_{Sr} , in SrTiO₃ thin films.**

Note that positively charged Ti_{Sr} can couple with negatively charged V_O through the attractive Coulomb interaction to form defect complexes. However, this does not rule out the existence of isolated defects and their corresponding optical peaks. Furthermore, as studied in Ref. 7, the Ti_{Sr} - V_O complexes are predicted to exhibit optical absorption and emission peaks at energies that are close to what are induced by the isolated Ti_{Sr} . This supports that the optical transition at ~1.8 eV could originate from the Ti_{Sr} -related defect, not depending on whether it is isolated or forms a complex with V_O .

Defect energy levels are often located closely, making it challenging to assign the defects unambiguously, only by using the theory and spectroscopic measurement. For example, we found that in nominally stoichiometric SrTiO₃ films (upper panel in Fig. 4(a)), the 1.6-eV CL peak by Ti³⁺ is dominant and can mask the signals from other point defects, especially, from Ti_{Sr} at ~1.8 eV. Although pure SrTiO₃ is an insulator, oxygen vacancies can introduce free electrons, resulting in Ti³⁺ neighboring sites and associated luminescence at ~1.6 eV [38]. Precise control of the oxygen vacancy concentration in SrTiO₃ is difficult, resulting in large variations of both the 1.6-eV Ti³⁺-related and 2.9 eV V_O-related CL peaks. However, deposition of SrTiO₃ with carefully controlled stoichiometry could permit us to vary the concentration of these defects, demonstrating our ability to tune the 1.6-eV and other defect-mediated CL peaks in SrTiO₃ systematically. This systematics in CL spectra would allow for more reliable defect assignment.

For such systematic study, we performed CL measurements for Sr_{1-x}TiO₃ thin films with the controlled Sr deficiency. We prepared four systematic Sr_{1-x}TiO₃ samples ($x \sim 0.00, 0.005, 0.01, \text{ and } 0.02$) [27], using the same SrTiO₃ substrate that was cut into smaller pieces for the film growth. Importantly, based on our DFT calculations [27], we controlled the Sr deficiency in our samples to be below $x = 0.06$, where we could treat a defect as being isolated. In contrast to donor-like V_O, V_{Sr} can act as an electron acceptor, so it can suppress the formation of Ti³⁺. Figure 5(a) shows the CL spectra for SrTiO₃, Sr_{0.995}TiO₃, Sr_{0.99}TiO₃, and Sr_{0.98}TiO₃, where the data of SrTiO₃ and Sr_{0.99}TiO₃ are identical to those in Fig. 4(a). With the increase of Sr deficiency, the 1.6-eV CL peak becomes suppressed, whereas the 1.8-eV and 2.1-eV CL peaks become enhanced. We quantitatively analyzed the enhancement of 1.8-eV and 2.1-eV CL peaks for larger Sr deficiency (Fig. 5(b)), by normalizing their peak area with that of the band-gap emission at ~3.6 eV. While Sr_{0.995}TiO₃ shows a slightly decreased 2.1-eV peak area, possibly due

to filling of any A-site vacancies with Ti, both 1.8-eV and 2.1-eV peaks show general enhancement with the increased Sr deficiency. This systematic change is consistent with our understanding that 1.6-eV, 1.8-eV, and 2.1-eV CL peaks come from Ti^{3+} , Ti_{Sr} , and V_{Sr} , respectively.

IV. CONCLUSION

In summary, we have identified a functional cationic defect, i.e., Ti_{Sr} , in SrTiO_3 , using a combination of atomic-layer- and stoichiometry-controlled thin-film epitaxy, hybrid density functional calculation, and high-resolution CL measurement. All the measured sub-band-gap luminescence could be assigned to the optical transitions from point defects like Ti_{Sr} , with excellent quantitative agreement with theoretical predictions. We also demonstrated that spectral fine structures in the defect-induced luminescence could be systematically tuned, for example, by theory-guided, intentional control of cationic stoichiometry. Our study allows better microscopic understanding on how a point defect contributes to the optical transitions, and guides us to effectively identify the point defect in complex oxides. Our methodology described here is not limited to SrTiO_3 , but will be generally applicable to other complex oxides and materials for identifying and utilizing functional point defects. It should be also of great interest to directly visualize the functional cationic defects in complex oxides, e.g., by using transmission electron microscopy [39].

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FIGURE CAPTIONS

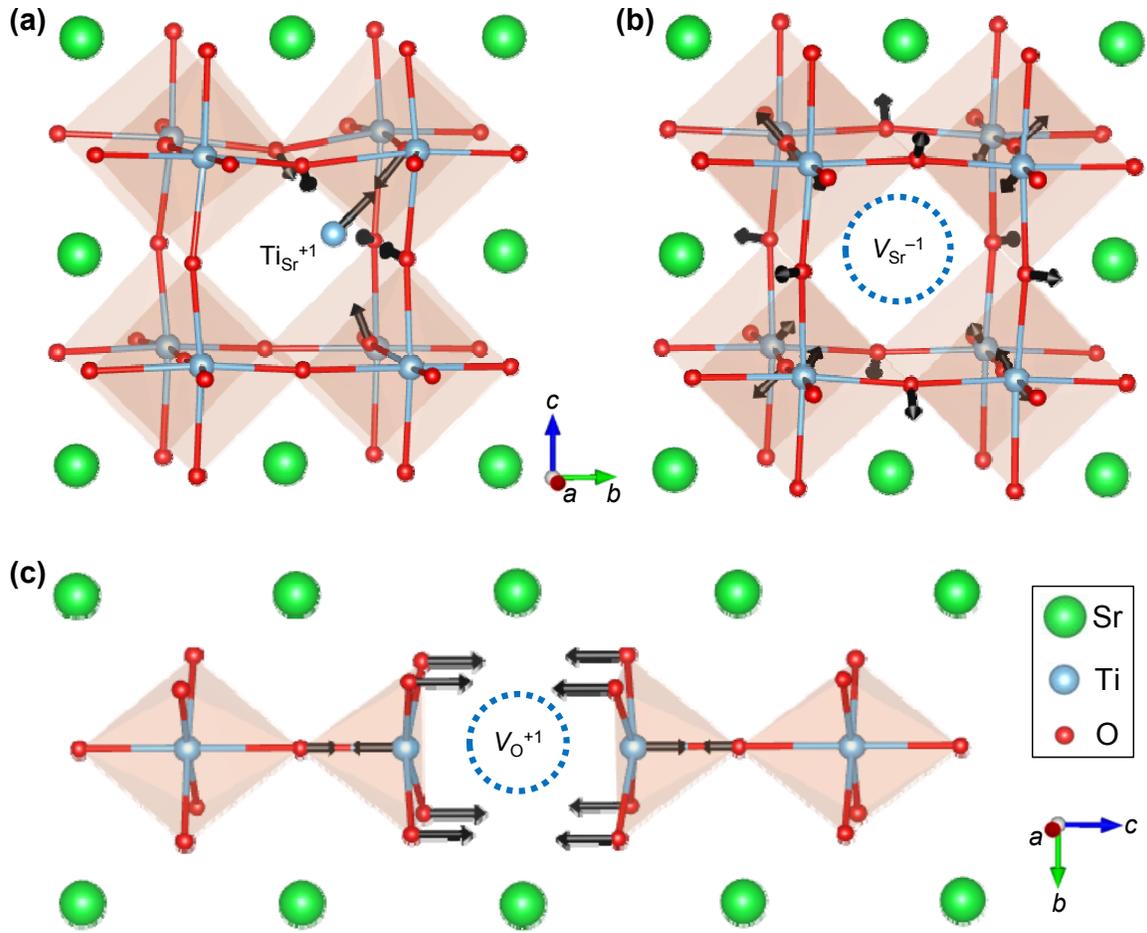


FIG. 1. Atomic structure distortions induced by a point defect. Calculated local atomic structures of $SrTiO_3$ with (a) Ti_{Sr}^{+1} , (b) V_{Sr}^{-1} , and (c) V_O^{+1} . The arrows indicate the directions of the atomic displacement away from the cubic symmetry due to the atomic reconstruction.

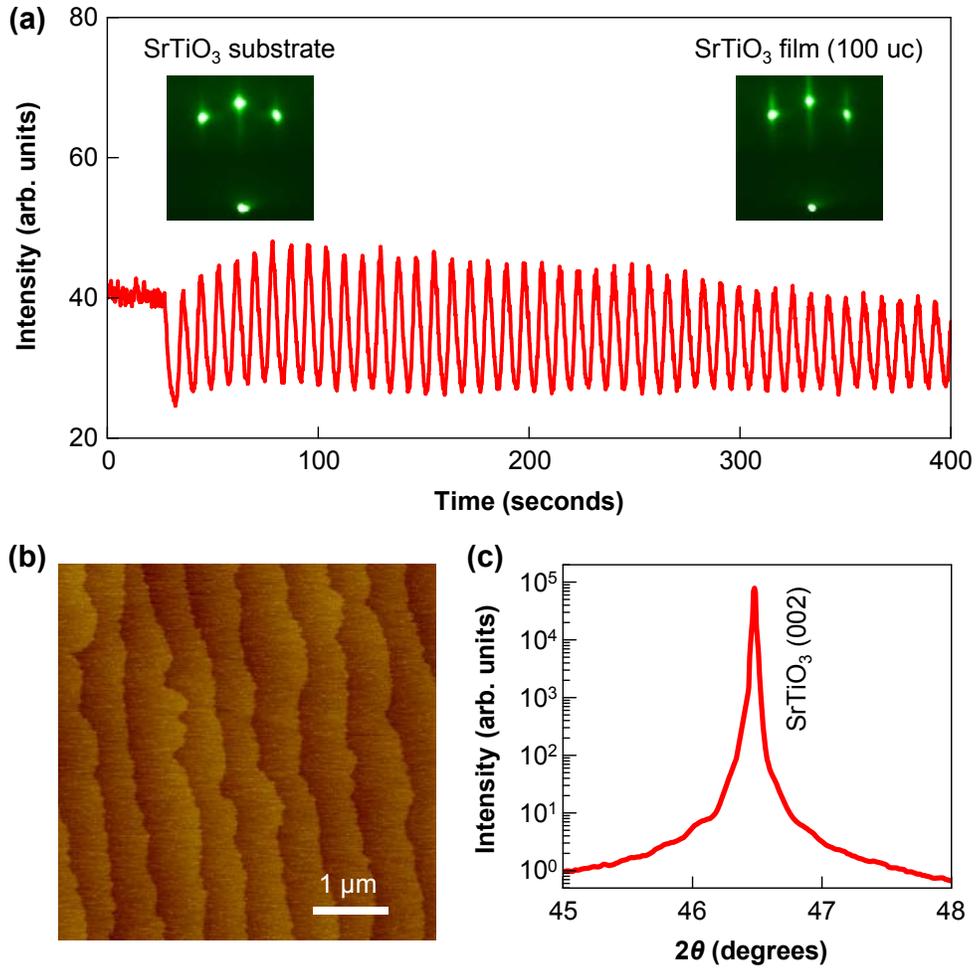


FIG. 2. Growth of homoepitaxial SrTiO_3 thin films. (a) RHEED intensity oscillations during growth of SrTiO_3 film on SrTiO_3 (001) substrate. Insets show RHEED patterns of the SrTiO_3 substrate and 100-unit-cells-thick homoepitaxial SrTiO_3 film on SrTiO_3 . 1 unit cell corresponds to 0.3905 nm. (b) AFM image of 100-unit-cells-thick SrTiO_3 film, which shows the atomically smooth film surface. (c) XRD θ - 2θ curve around the SrTiO_3 (002) Bragg peak for 100-unit-cells-thick homoepitaxial SrTiO_3 film.

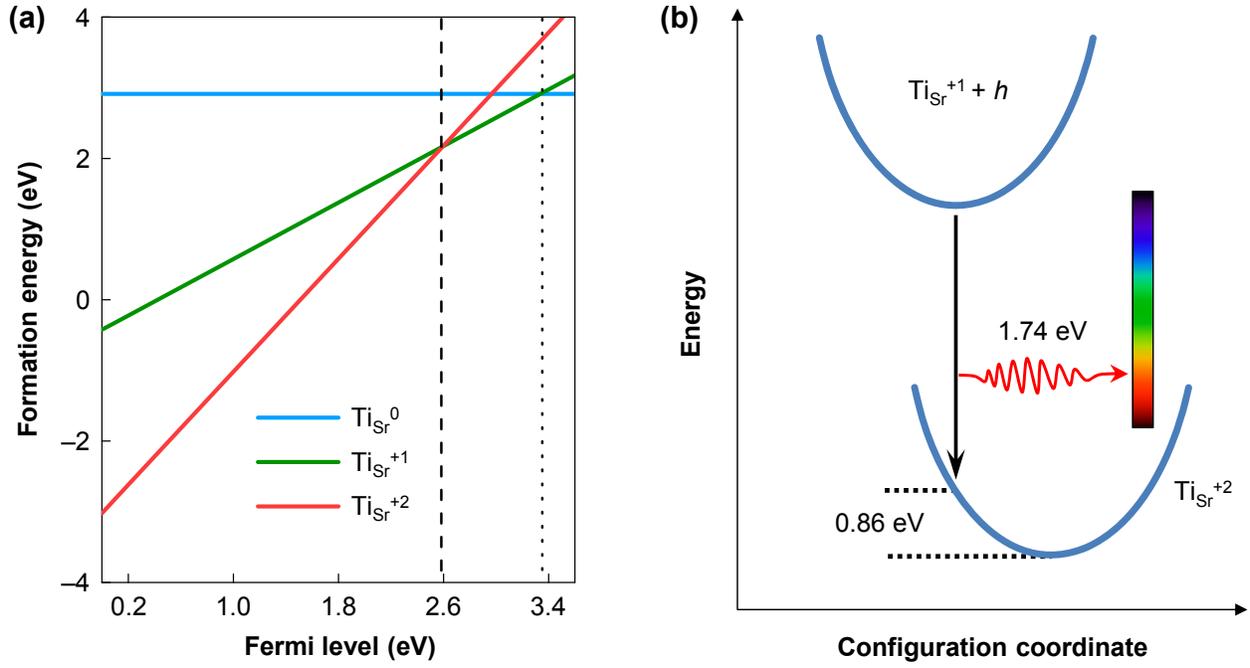


FIG. 3. Microscopic mechanism for luminescence process by Ti_{Sr} . (a) Formation energy of Ti_{Sr} defect of 0, +1, and +2 charge states. (b) Schematic plot of the configuration coordinate diagram for the optical process, $Ti_{Sr}^{+1} + h \rightarrow Ti_{Sr}^{+2}$, which emits photons.

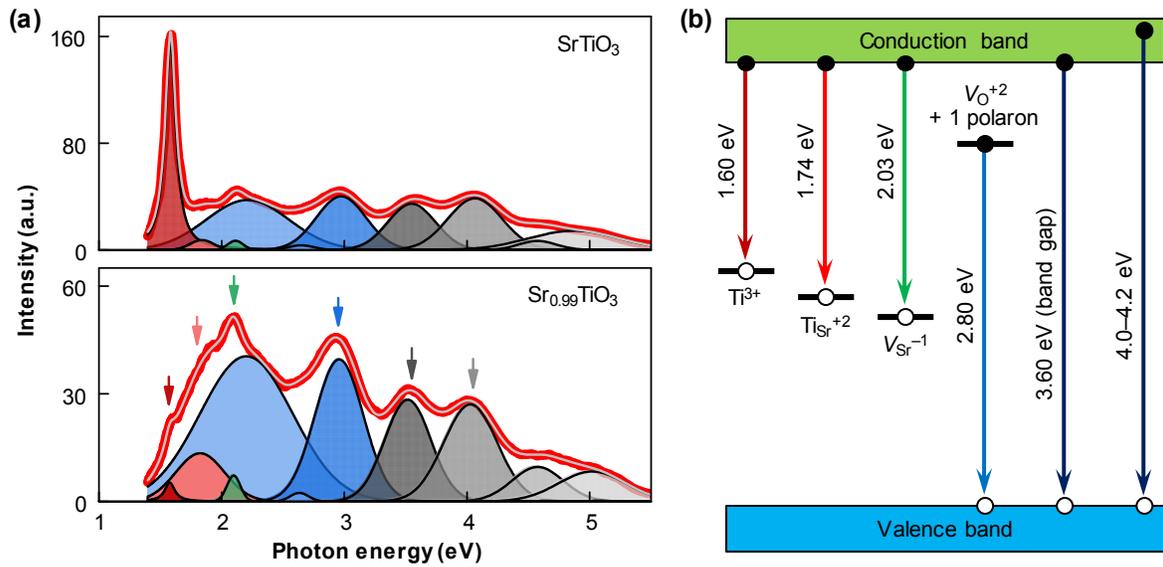


FIG. 4. Point-defect-induced fine structures in the cathodoluminescence (CL) spectra of SrTiO₃. (a) CL spectra for 24-unit-cells-thick homoepitaxial SrTiO₃ (upper panel) and Sr_{0.99}TiO₃ (lower panel) films. The CL spectra are fitted with 9 Gaussian curves (with the centers at ~1.8, ~2.1, ~2.3, ~2.6, ~2.9, ~3.6, and ~4.1 eV, ~4.5 eV, and ~4.9 eV) and one Lorentzian curve (with the center at ~1.6 eV). Six peaks at ~1.6, ~1.8, ~2.1, ~2.9, ~3.6, and ~4.1 are denoted by arrows. Red and gray solid lines indicate experimental and fitted data, respectively. (b) Schematics of luminescence processes. The luminescence by Ti_{Sr}, V_{Sr}, and V_O is predicted from hybrid density functional theory, and the one by Ti³⁺ is from ref. 37.

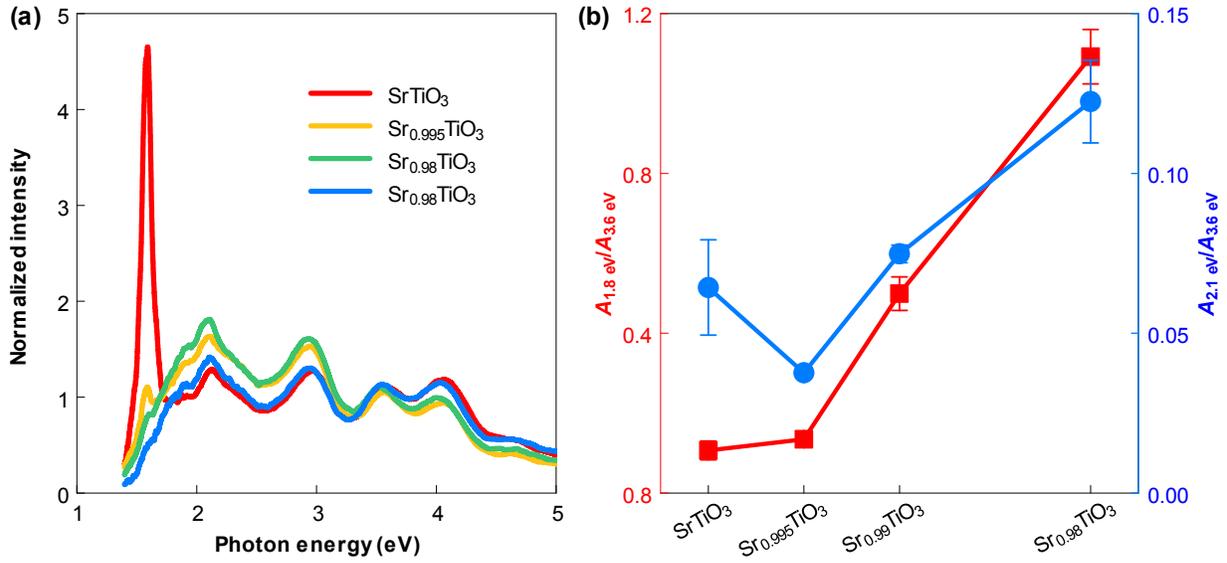


FIG. 5. Identification of point defects by the controlled Sr deficiency in SrTiO₃. (a) CL spectra for 24-unit-cells-thick homoepitaxial SrTiO₃, Sr_{0.995}TiO₃, Sr_{0.99}TiO₃, and Sr_{0.98}TiO₃ films. We normalize the peak intensity with that of the 3.6-eV CL peak (corresponding to the direct band gap). (b) Areas under the 1.8-eV (red squares) and 2.1-eV (blue circles) CL peaks, normalized with that under the 3.6-eV CL peak, as a function of Sr deficiency.