

Synchrotron Radiation

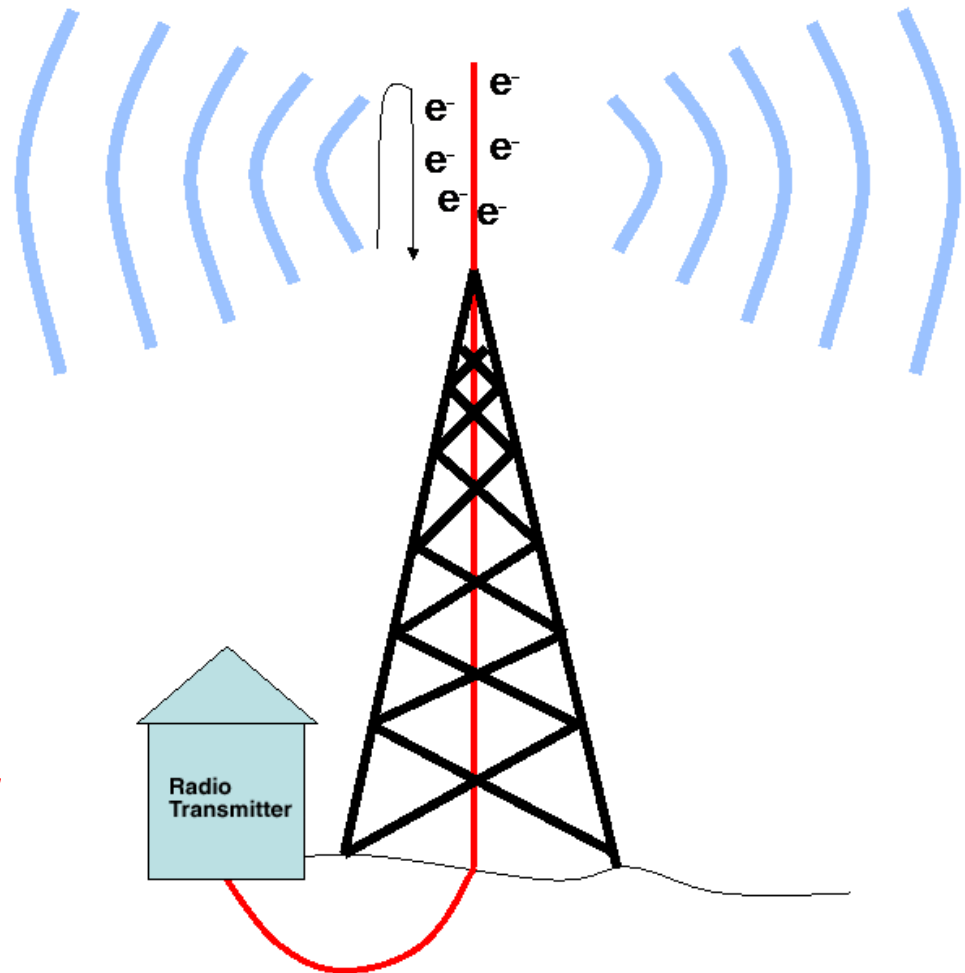
How is synchrotron light made?

by accelerating electrons

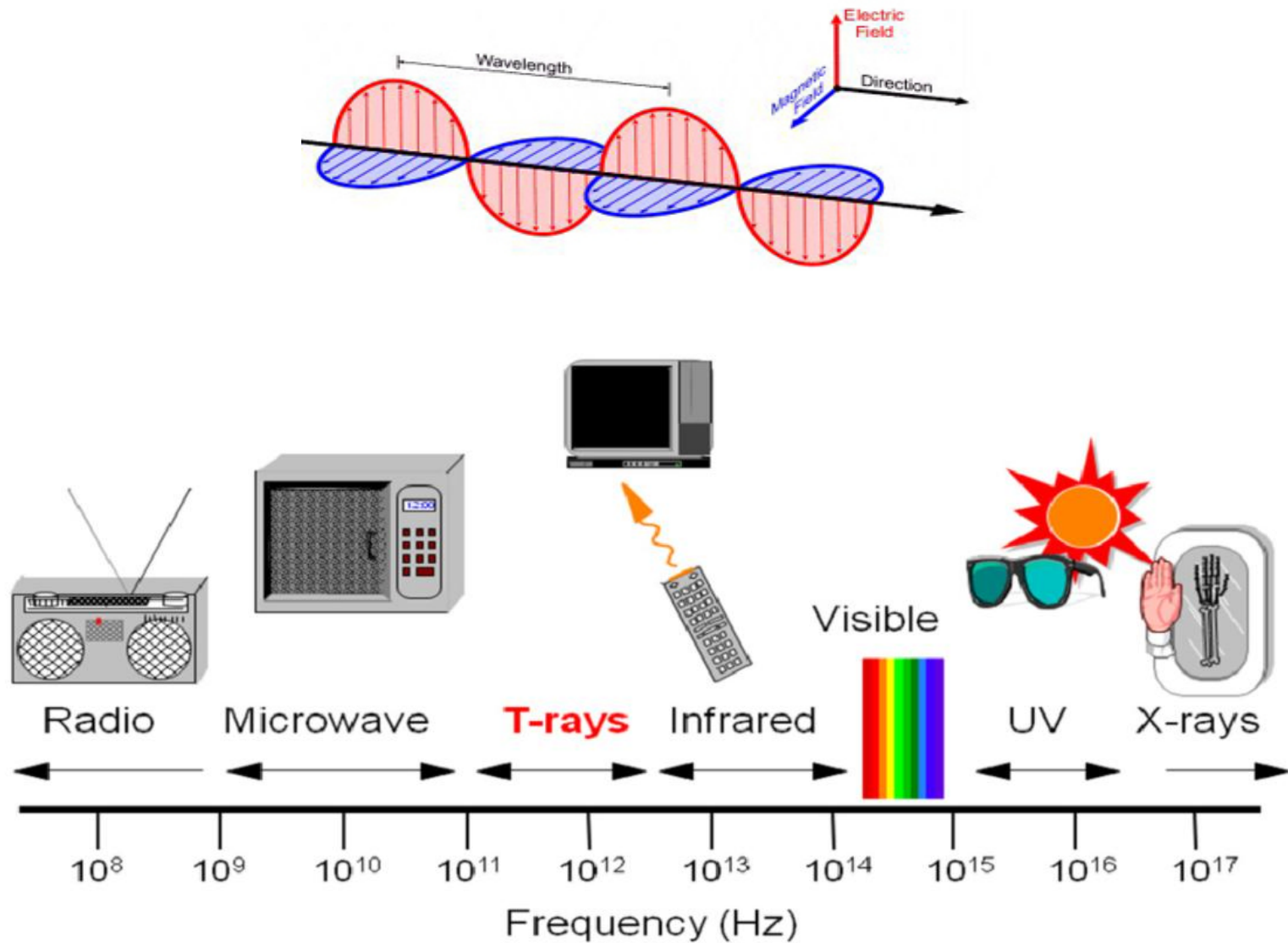
Electromagnetic Radiation

Electrons *accelerating* by running up and down in a radio antenna emit radio waves

Radio waves are nothing more than Long Wavelength Light



Electromagnetic Spectrum



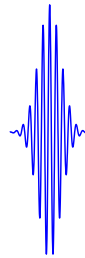
How far does light travel in 1 second? 1 femtosecond?

1 sec

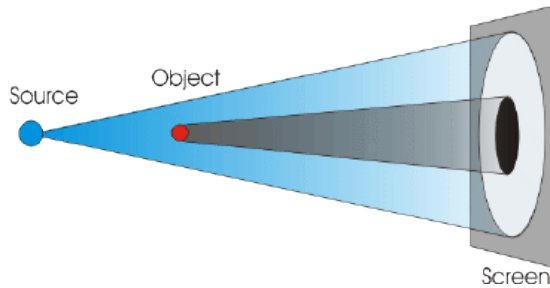


1 fs

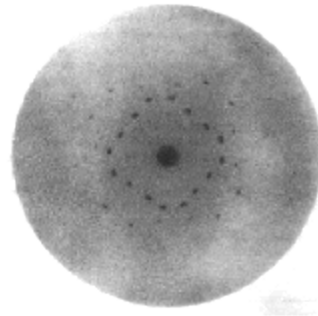
3,000 nm
(1/10 of a hair)



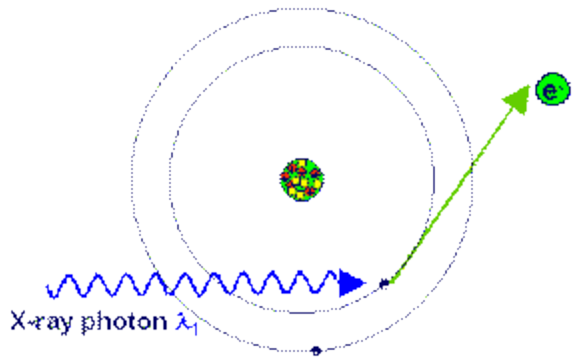
Interaction of photons with matter



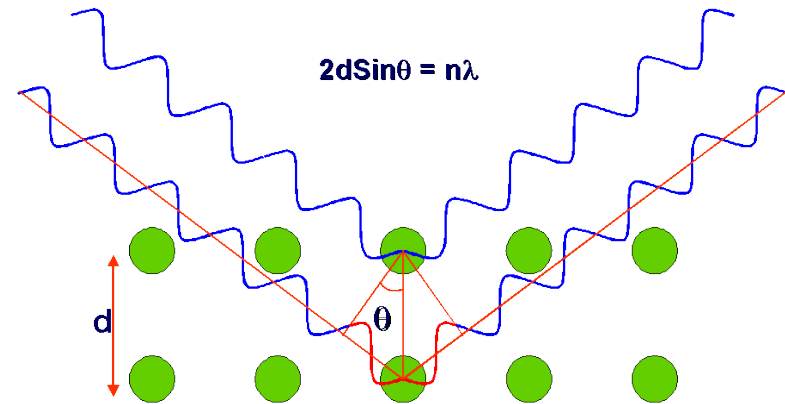
Radiography



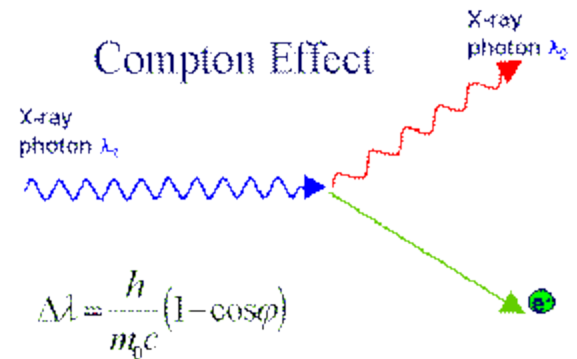
Laue Diffraction



Photoelectric Effect



Bragg Diffraction



Compton Scattering

X-rays have enabled seminal scientific discoveries

18 Nobel Prizes Based on X-ray Work

Chemistry

- 1936: Peter Debye
- 1962: Max Perutz and Sir John Kendrew
- 1976 William Lipscomb
- 1985 Herbert Hauptman and Jerome Karle
- 1988 Johann Deisenhofer, Robert Huber and Hartmut Michel
- 1997 Paul D. Boyer and John E. Walker
- 2003 Peter Agre and Roderick Mackinnon

Physics

- 1901 Wilhem Rontgen
- 1914 Max von Laue
- 1915 Sir William Bragg and son
- 1917 Charles Barkla
- 1924 Karl Siegbahn
- 1927 Arthur Compton
- 1981 Kai Siegbahn

Medicine

- 1946 Hermann Muller
- 1962 Frances Crick, James Watson and Maurice Wilkins
- 1979 Alan Cormack and Godfrey Hounsfield

Early History

1873 Maxwell' s Equations

- Made evident that changing charge densities would result in electric fields that would radiate outward**

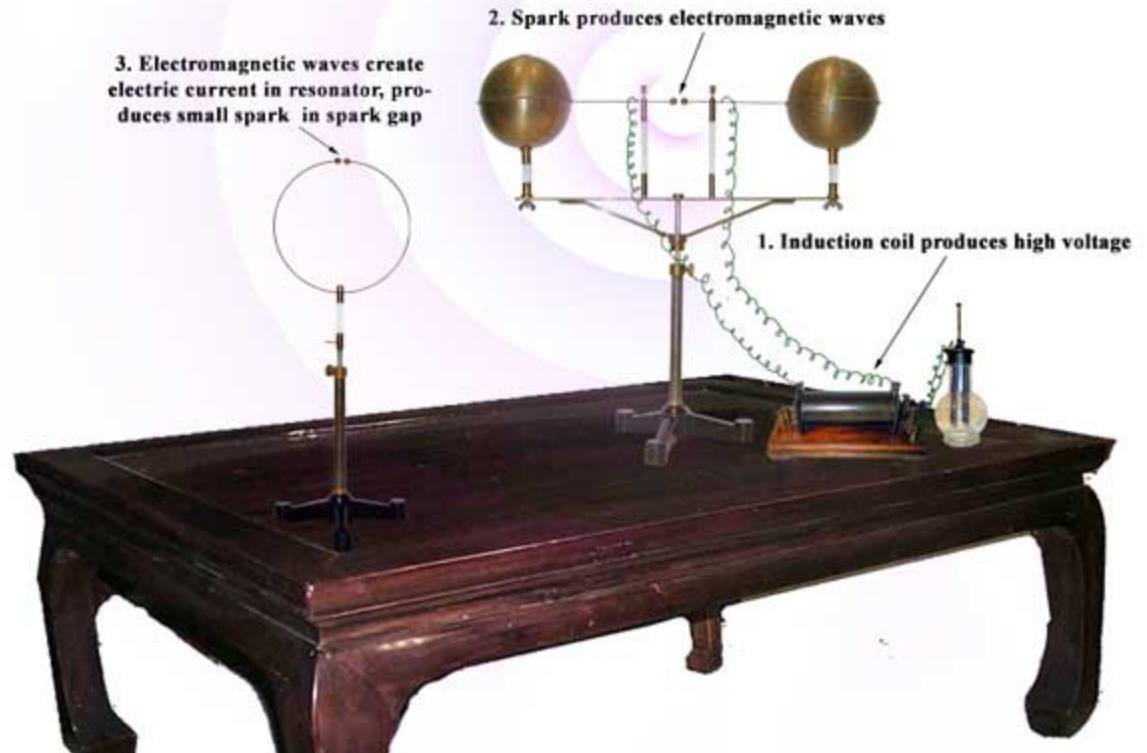
1887 Hertz demonstrated such waves

Discovery of Radio Waves



HEINRICH RUDOLF HERTZ
1847 - 1894

Heinrich Rudolf Hertz
(1847-1894)



Early History

1873 Maxwell' s Equations

- Made evident that changing charge densities would result in electric fields that would radiate outward**

1887 Hertz demonstrated such waves

1895 Röntgen discovered X-Rays

Discovery of X-rays:

Maybe the most important discovery for medicine



Wilhelm Conrad
Röntgen (1845-1923)



Crooke' s Tube



*Bertha
Röntgen' s
Hand 8 Nov,
1895*



*Modern
radiograph of a
hand*

Early History

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1897 Larmor derived an expression for the instantaneous total power radiated by an accelerated charged particle

1898 Lienard' s extended Larmor' s result to the case of a relativistic particle undergoing centripetal acceleration in a circular trajectory

Lienard's Equations

1898 Liénard:

ELECTRIC AND MAGNETIC FIELDS PRODUCED BY A POINT CHARGE MOVING ON AN ARBITRARY PATH

(by means of retarded potentials)

L'Éclairage Électrique

REVUE HEBDOMADAIRE D'ÉLECTRICITÉ

DIRECTION SCIENTIFIQUE

A. CARRÉ, Professeur à l'École Polytechnique, Membre de l'Institut. — A. DARBOUX, Professeur au Collège de France, Membre de l'Institut. — G. LIPPMAN, Professeur à la Sorbonne, Membre de l'Institut. — E. MONTELL, Professeur à l'École centrale des Arts et Manufactures. — E. POINCARÉ, Professeur à la Sorbonne, Membre de l'Institut. — A. POTIER, Professeur à l'École des Mines, Membre de l'Institut. — J. BLONDIN, Professeur agrégé de l'Université.

CHAMP ÉLECTRIQUE ET MAGNÉTIQUE

PRODUIT PAR UNE CHARGE ÉLECTRIQUE CONCENTRÉE EN UN POINT ET ANIMÉE D'UN MOUVEMENT QUELCONQUE

Admettons qu'une masse électrique en mouvement de densité ρ et de vitesse \mathbf{u} en chaque point produit le même champ qu'un courant de conduction d'intensité \mathbf{u} . En conservant les notations d'un précédent article (*) nous obtiendrons pour déterminer le champ, les équations

$$\frac{1}{4\pi} \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial r} - \frac{\partial \mathbf{S}}{\partial t} \right) = \rho \mathbf{u} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}}{\partial t} \quad (1)$$

$$\nabla \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial r} - \frac{\partial \mathbf{S}}{\partial t} \right) = - \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} \quad (2)$$

avec les analogues déduites par permutation tournante et en outre les suivantes

$$\rho = \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{F}}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{H}}{\partial t} \right) \quad (3)$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{F}}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{H}}{\partial t} = 0 \quad (4)$$

De ce système d'équations on déduit facilement les relations

$$\left(\nabla^2 - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \right) \mathbf{F} = \nabla \left(\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial r} - \frac{\partial \mathbf{S}}{\partial t} \right) \quad (5)$$

$$\left(\nabla^2 - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \right) \mathbf{u} = 4\pi \nabla \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left(\rho \mathbf{u} \right) - \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}}{\partial t} \right] \quad (6)$$

(*) La théorie de Liénard, *L'Éclairage Électrique*, t. XXV, p. 477. α, β, γ , sont les composantes de la force magnétique en x, y, z , celles du déplacement des électrons.

Solent maintenant quatre fonctions $\phi, \mathbf{F}, \mathbf{G}, \mathbf{H}$ définies par les conditions

$$\left(\nabla^2 - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \right) \phi = - 4\pi \nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} \quad (7)$$

$$\left(\nabla^2 - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \right) \mathbf{F} = - 4\pi \nabla \times \mathbf{u} \quad (8)$$

$$\left(\nabla^2 - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \right) \mathbf{G} = - 4\pi \nabla \times \mathbf{u} \quad (9)$$

$$\left(\nabla^2 - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \right) \mathbf{H} = - 4\pi \nabla \times \mathbf{u} \quad (10)$$

On satisfait aux conditions (1) et (2) en prenant

$$\mathbf{u} = - \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} - \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}}{\partial t} \quad (11)$$

$$\mathbf{u} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial t} \quad (12)$$

Quant aux équations (3) à (6), pour qu'elles soient satisfaites, il faudra que, en plus de (7) et (8), on ait la condition

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{F}}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{G}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{H}}{\partial t} = 0 \quad (13)$$

Occupons-nous d'abord de l'équation (7). On sait que la solution la plus générale est la suivante :

$$\phi = \int \frac{\rho(\mathbf{r}', t - \frac{r}{c})}{r} d\mathbf{r}' \quad (14)$$

Fig. 1. First page of Liénard's 1898 paper.

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1895 Röntgen discovered X-Rays

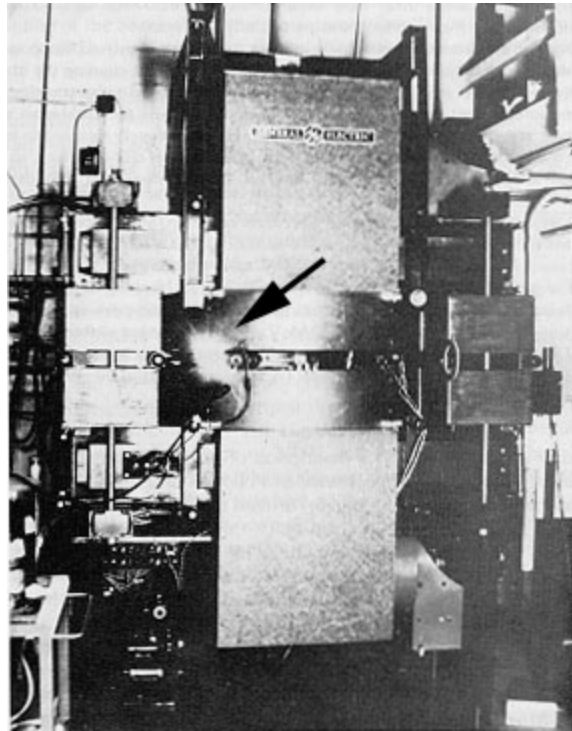
1897 Larmor derived an expression for the instantaneous total power radiated by an accelerated charged particle

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1947 GE's 70-MeV synchrotron : First observation of Synchrotron Light in an accelerator

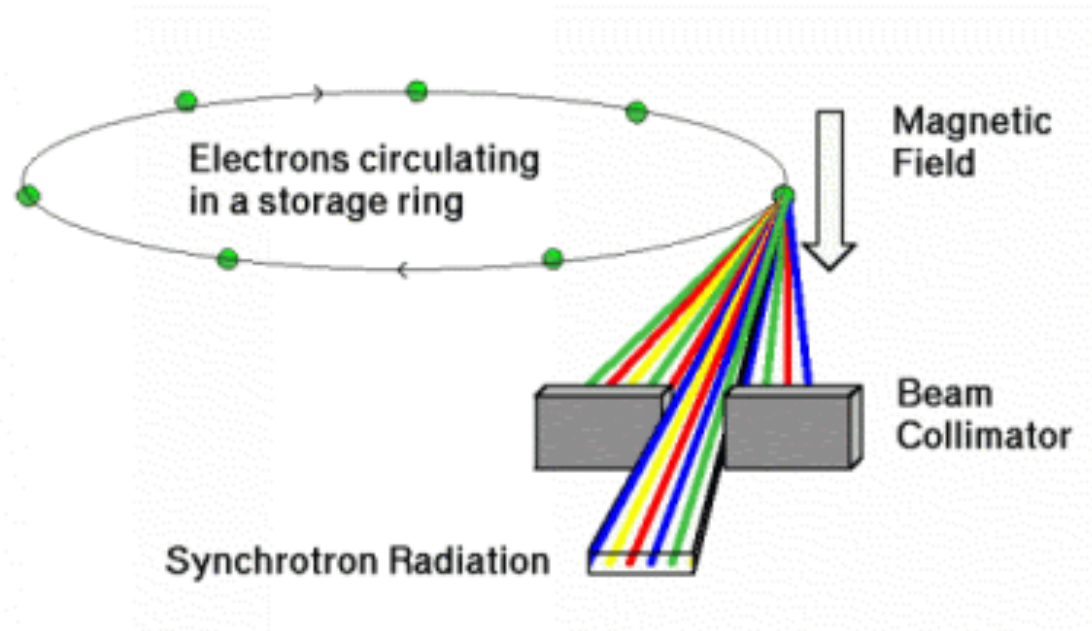
First observation of synchrotron radiation

**GE Synchrotron
New York State**



**First light observed
1947**

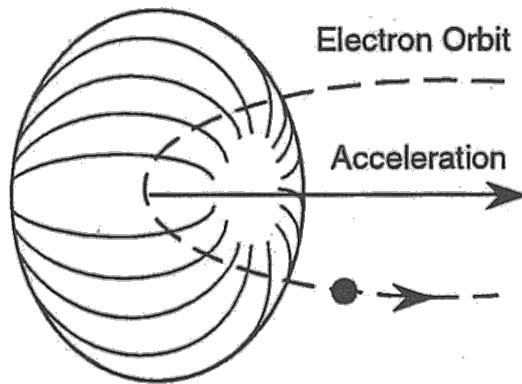
Why we need synchrotron radiation



Synchrotron radiation is electromagnetic radiation emitted when charged particles are radially accelerated (move on a curved path).

Synchrotron Radiation

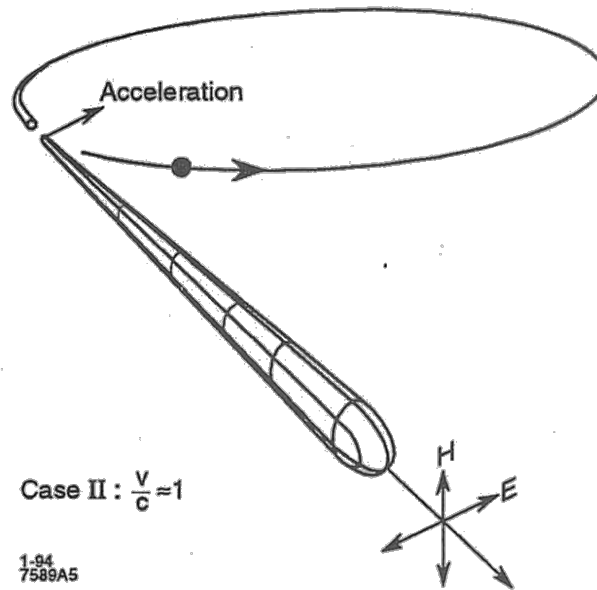
- Radiated power increases at higher velocities
- Radiation becomes more focused at higher velocities



Case I : $\frac{v}{c} \ll 1$

1-94
7589A4

At low electron velocity (non-relativistic case) the radiation is emitted in a non-directional pattern

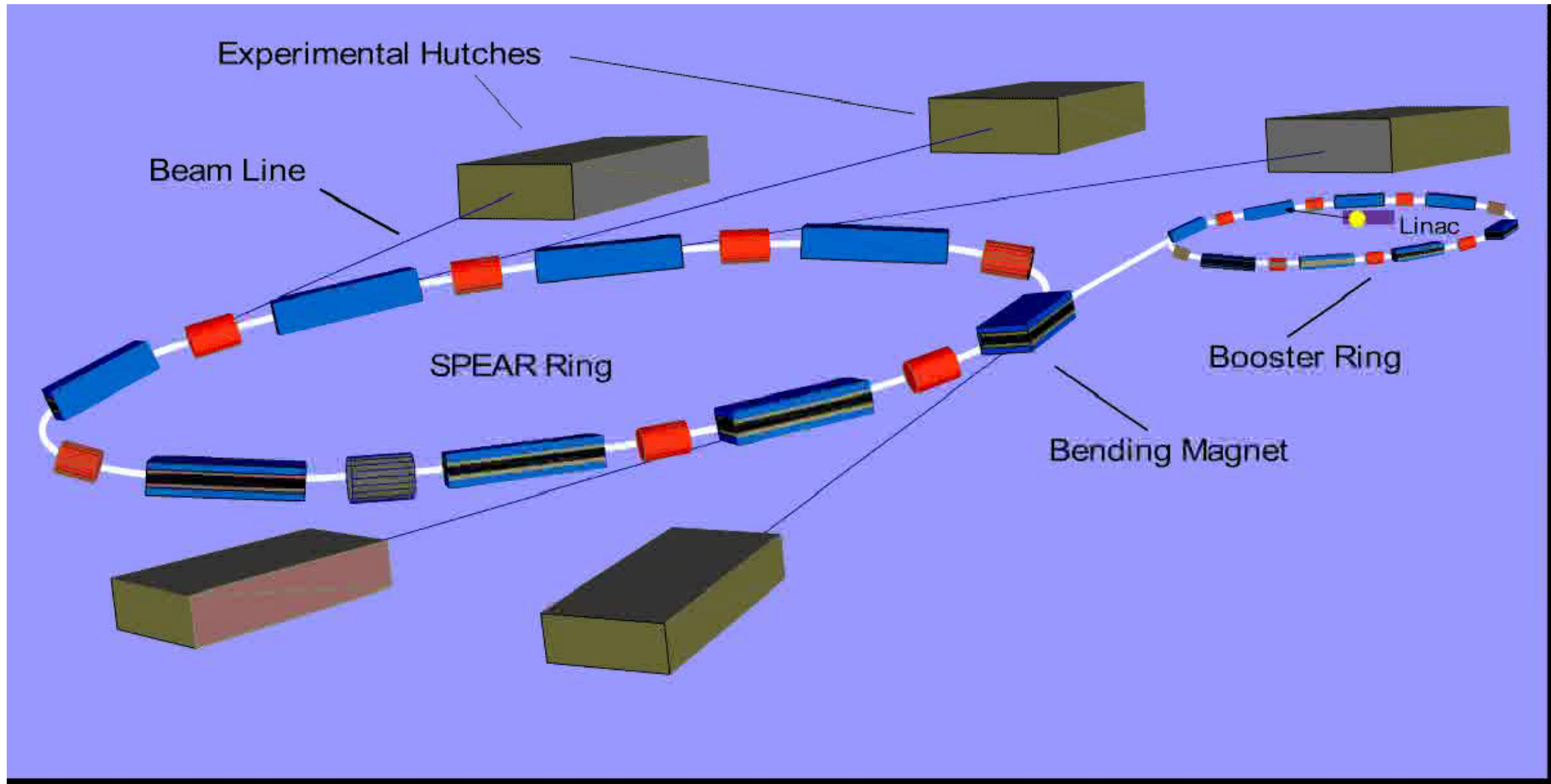


Case II : $\frac{v}{c} \approx 1$

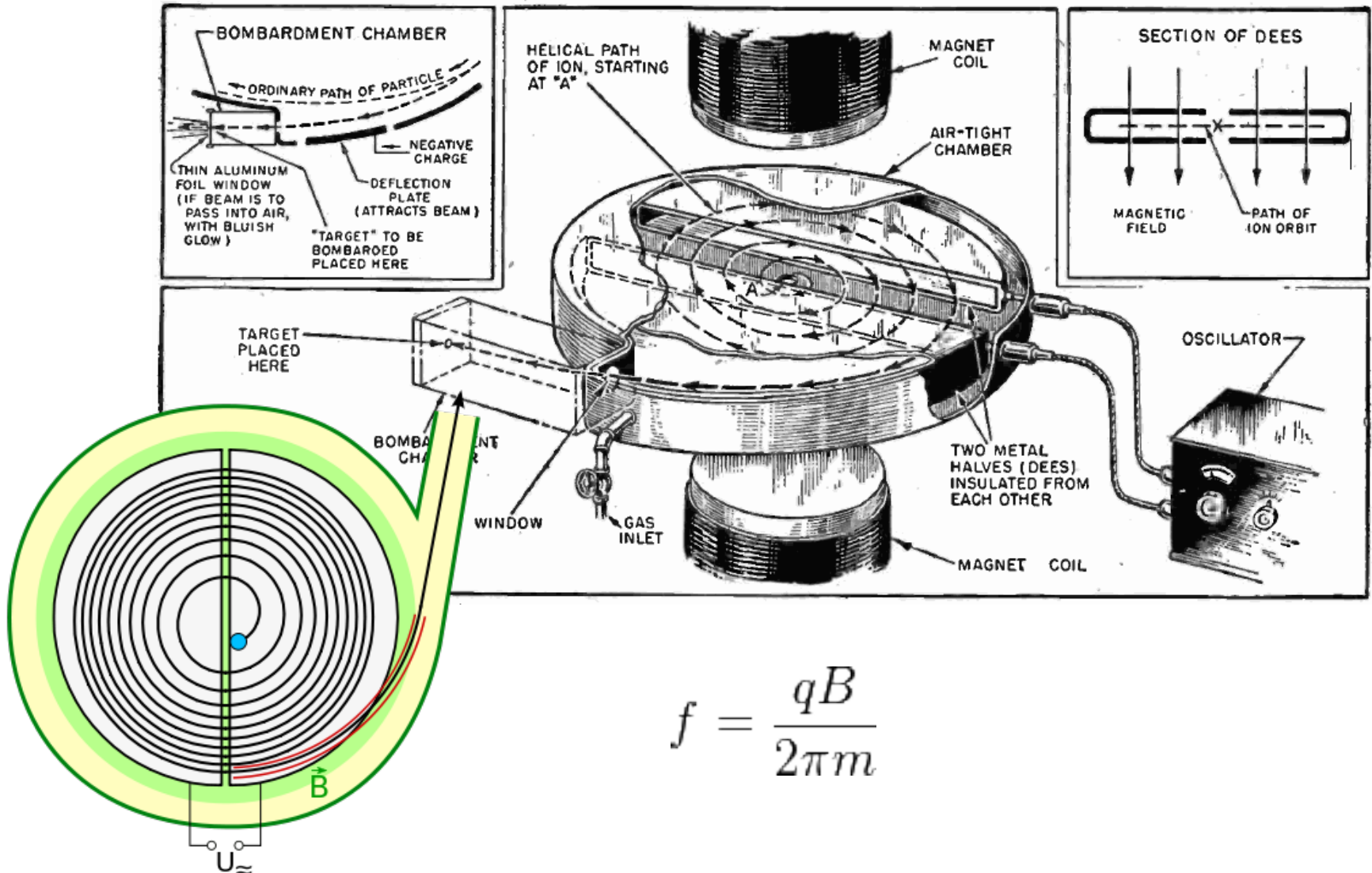
1-94
7589A5

When the electron velocity approaches the velocity of light, the emission pattern is folded sharply forward. Also **the radiated power goes up dramatically**

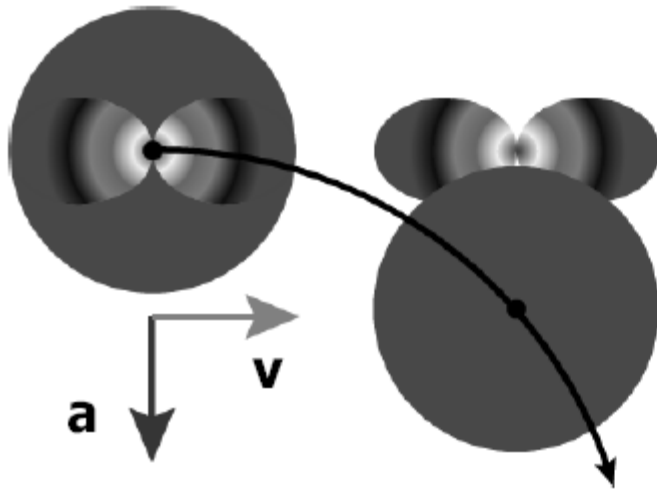
How a storage ring light source works



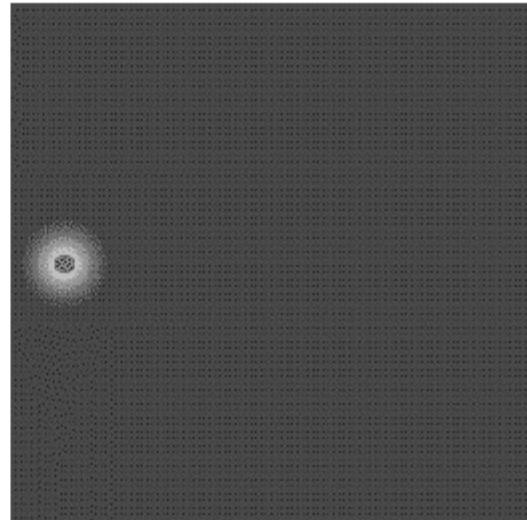
Cyclotron



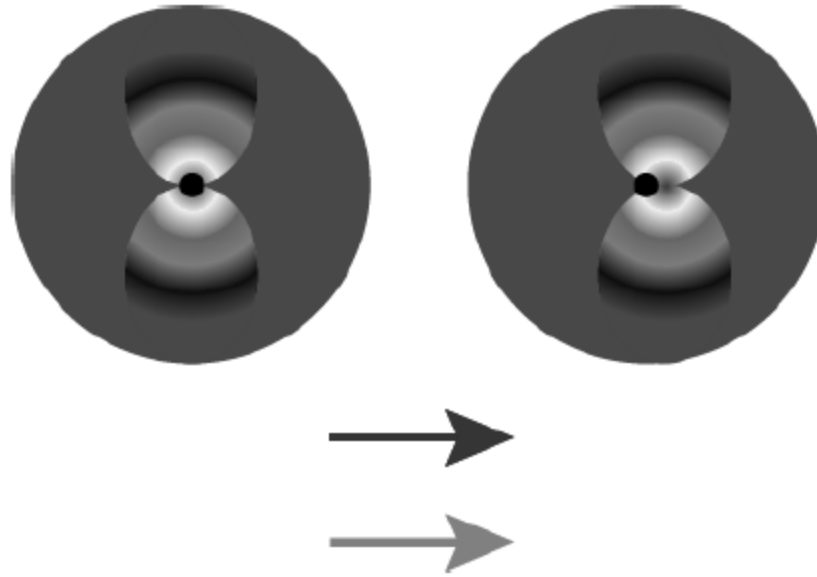
Transverse acceleration



**Radiation field quickly
separates itself from the
Coulomb field**



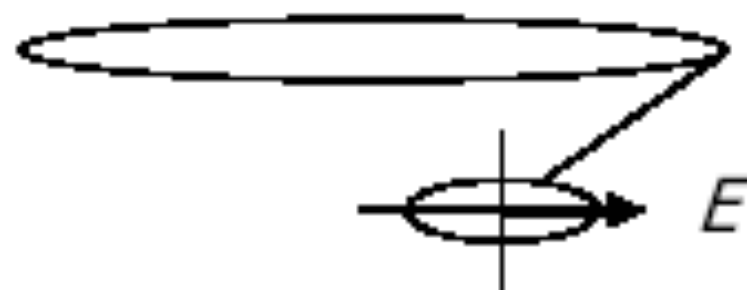
Longitudinal acceleration



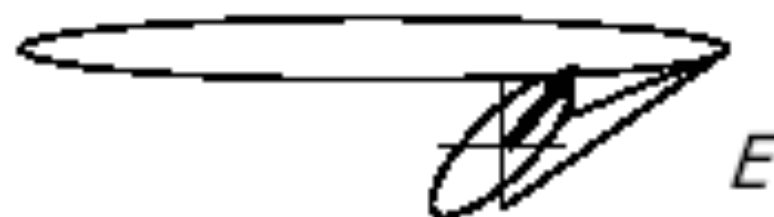
**Radiation field cannot
separate itself from the
Coulomb field**

Polarisation

Synchrotron radiation observed in the plane of the particle orbit is horizontally polarized, i.e. the electric field vector is horizontal



Observed out of the horizontal plane, the radiation is elliptically polarized



Basic Properties of Synchrotron Radiation

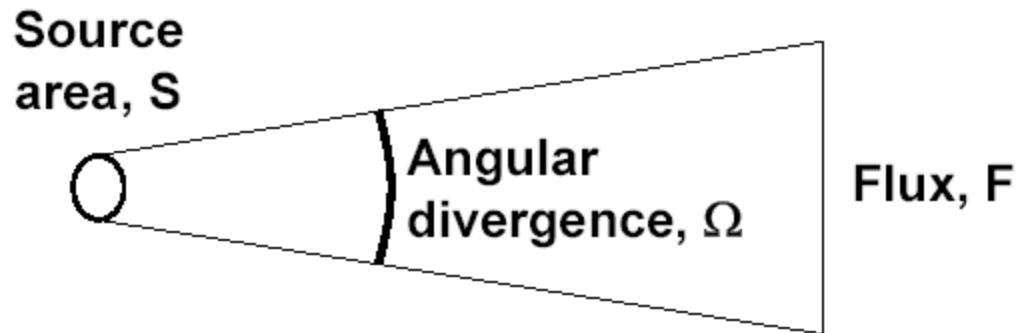
- 1. HIGH FLUX, BRIGHTNESS, STABILITY**
- 2. BROAD SPECTRAL RANGE - Tunability**
- 3. POLARIZATION (linear, elliptical, circular)**
- 4. PULSED TIME STRUCTURE (0.01 - 1 nsec)**
- 5. SMALL SOURCE SIZE (\leq mm)**
- 6. PARTIAL COHERENCE**

The brightness of a light source

$$\text{Flux} = \frac{\text{\# of photons in given } \Delta\lambda/\lambda}{\text{sec}}$$

$$\text{Brightness} = \frac{\text{\# of photons in given } \Delta\lambda/\lambda}{\text{sec, mrad } \theta, \text{ mrad } \varphi, \text{ mm}^2}$$

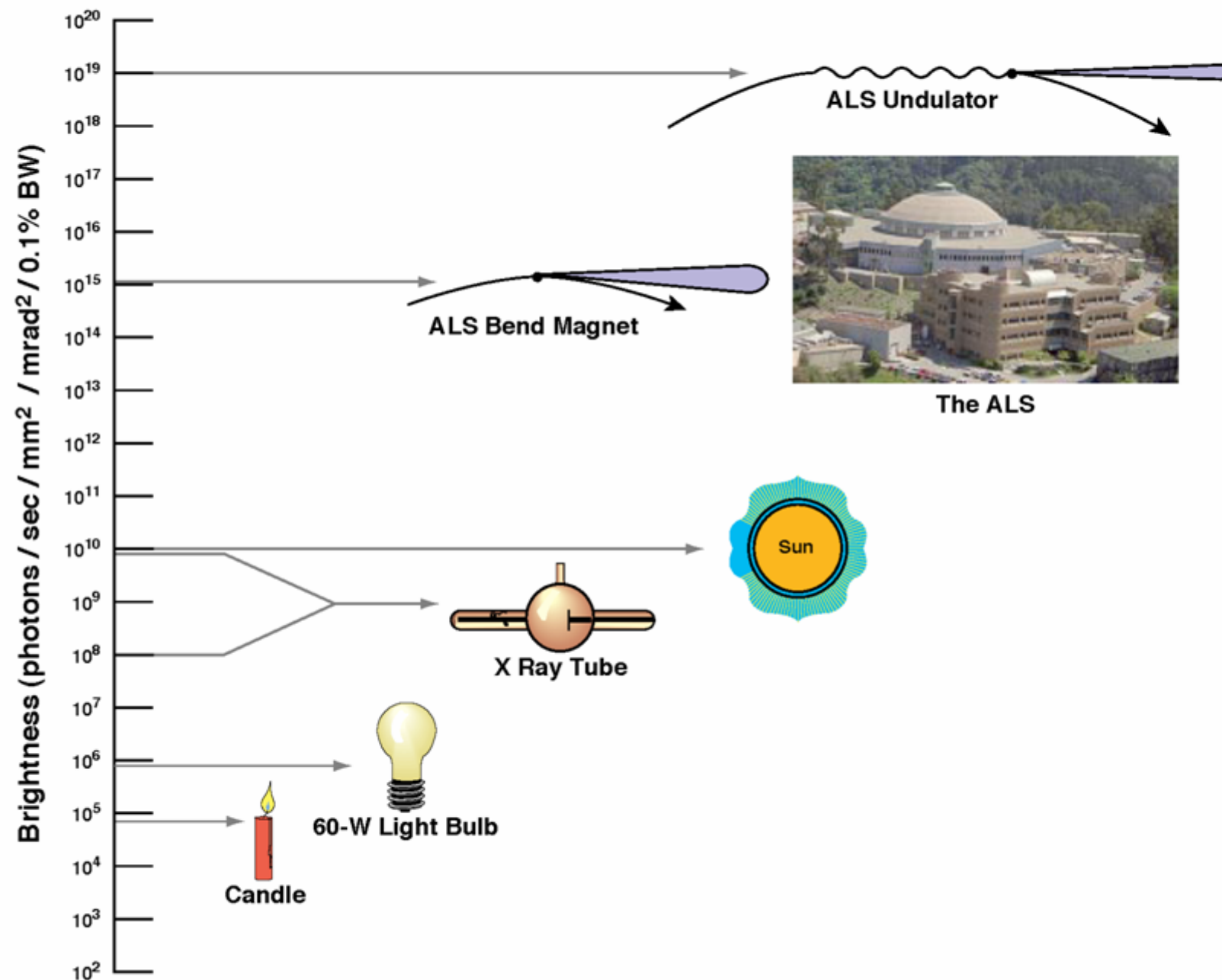
(a measure of concentration of the radiation)



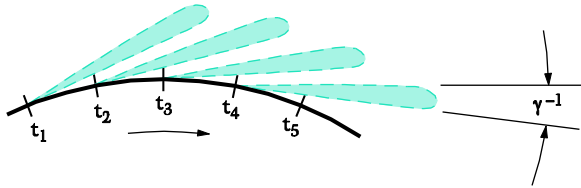
$$\text{Brightness} = \text{constant} \times \frac{F}{S \times \Omega}$$

How Bright Is the Advanced Light Source?

ALS



Bending Magnets and Insertion Devices on Storage Rings

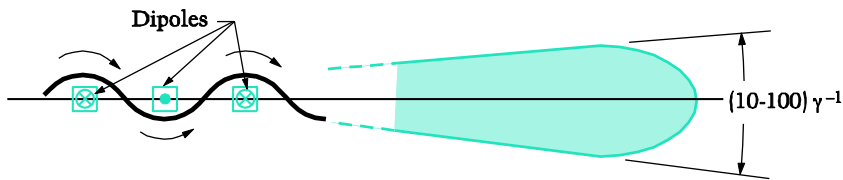


bending magnet - a “sweeping searchlight”

Continuous spectrum
characterized by ϵ_c = critical
energy

$$\epsilon_c(\text{keV}) = 0.665 B(\text{T}) E^2(\text{GeV})$$

eg: for $B = 1.35\text{T}$ $E = 2\text{GeV}$
 $\epsilon_c = 3.6\text{keV}$



wiggler - incoherent superposition

Quasi-monochromatic spectrum with
peaks at lower energy than a wiggler

$$\lambda_1 = \frac{\lambda_u}{2\gamma^2} \left(1 + \frac{K^2}{2}\right) \sim \frac{\lambda_u}{\gamma^2} \text{ (fundamental)}$$

+ harmonics at higher energy

$$\epsilon_1(\text{keV}) = \frac{0.95 E^2(\text{GeV})}{\lambda_u(\text{cm}) \left(1 + \frac{K^2}{2}\right)}$$

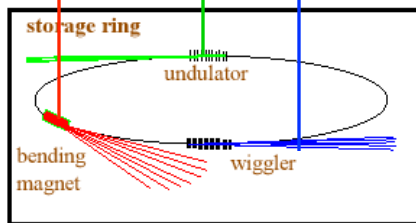
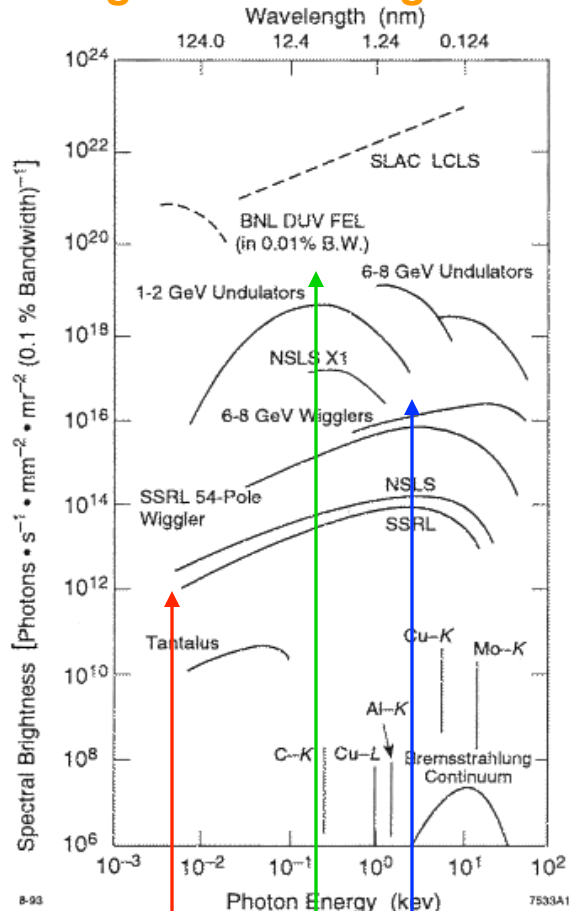
$K = \gamma\theta$ where θ is the angle in each pole



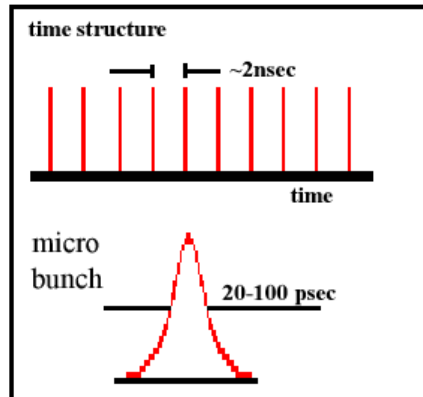
undulator - coherent interference

Synchrotron Radiation - Basic Properties

High flux and brightness



Pulsed time structure



Broad spectral range

Polarized (linear, elliptical, circular)

Small source size

Partial coherence

High stability

$$\text{Flux} = \frac{\# \text{ of photons in given } \Delta\lambda/\lambda}{\text{sec}}$$

$$\text{Brightness} = \frac{\# \text{ of photons in given } \Delta\lambda/\lambda}{\text{sec, mrad } \theta, \text{ mrad } \varphi, \text{ mm}^2}$$

(a measure of concentration of the radiation)

Synchrotron Radiation Facilities Around the World

- **54 in operation in 19 countries used by more than 20,000 scientists**

(Brazil, China, India, Korea, Taiwan, Thailand)

- **8 in construction**

Armenia, Australia, China, France, Jordan, Russia, Spain, UK

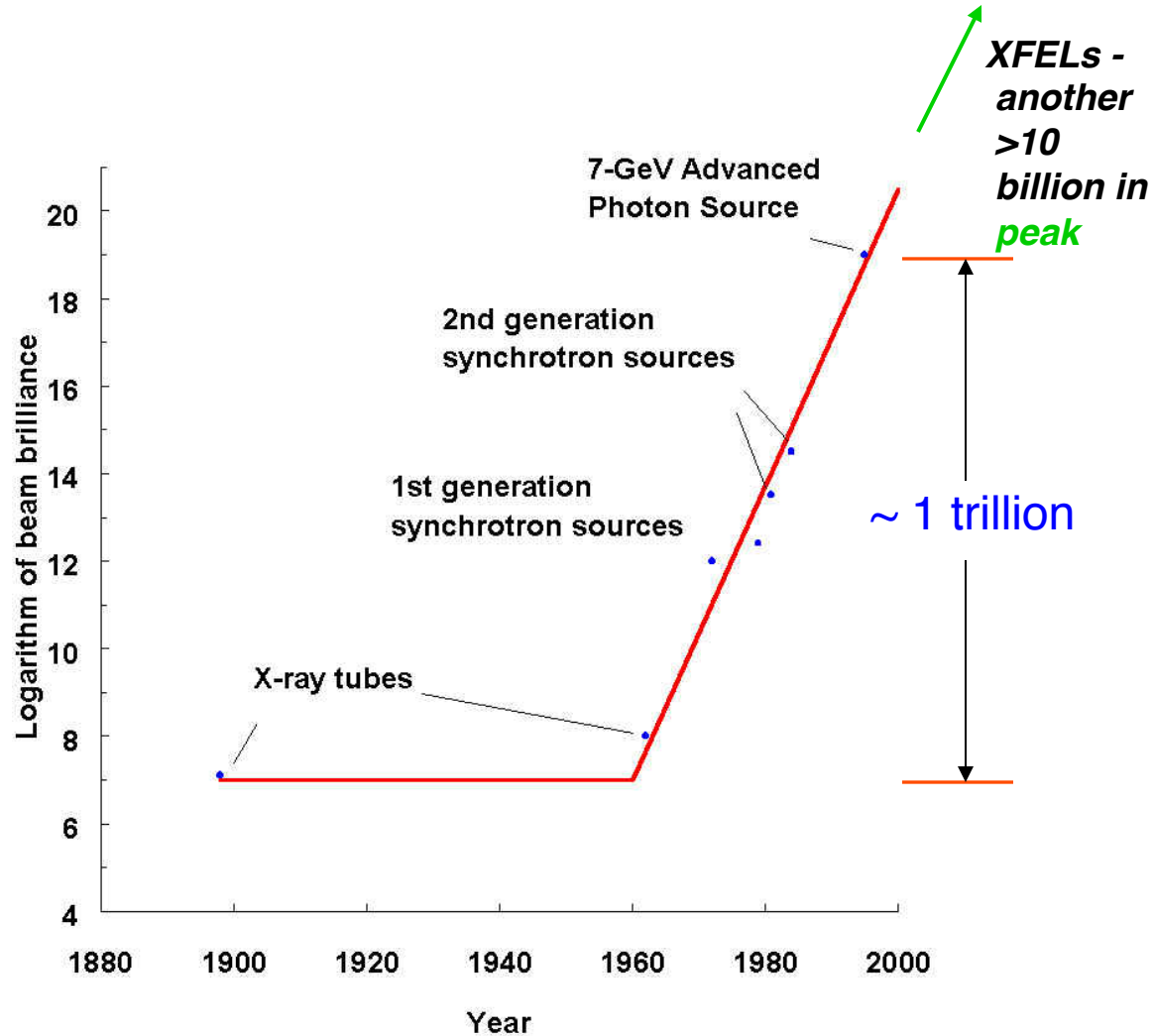
- **11 in design/planning**

For a list of SR facilities around the world see

http://ssrl.slac.stanford.edu/SR_SOURCES.HTML

www.sesame.org.jo

Steep growth in brightness

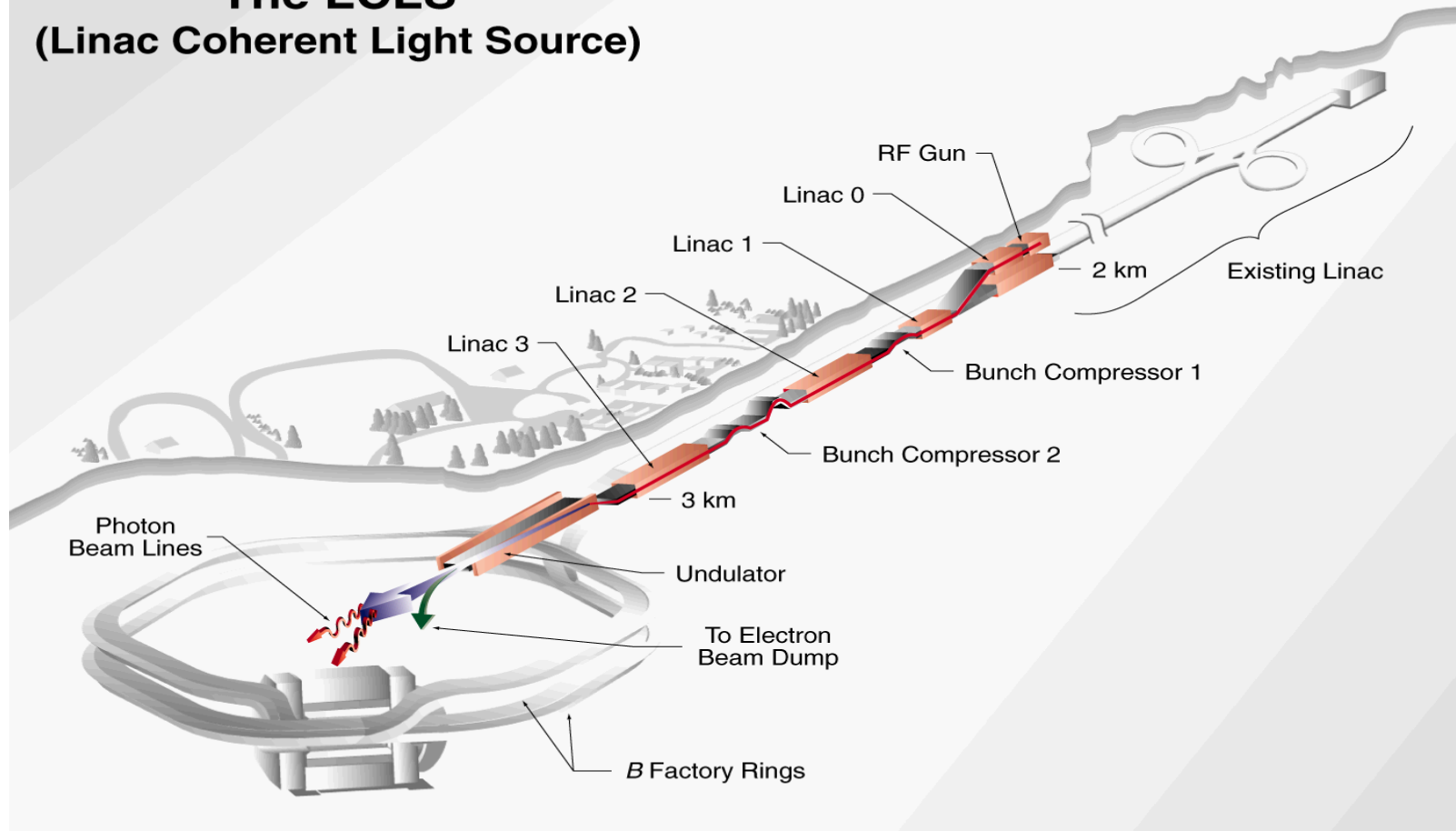


Future of Synchrotron Radiation

- Higher Brightness
 - Free Electron Lasers
- Shorter Pulse Lengths
 - Femto (10^{-12}) and Attosecond (10^{-15})
- Terahertz (T-rays)
 - Coherent Synchrotron Radiation

Linac-driven Light Sources - Toward the 4th Generation (operation in 2008)

The LCLS (Linac Coherent Light Source)

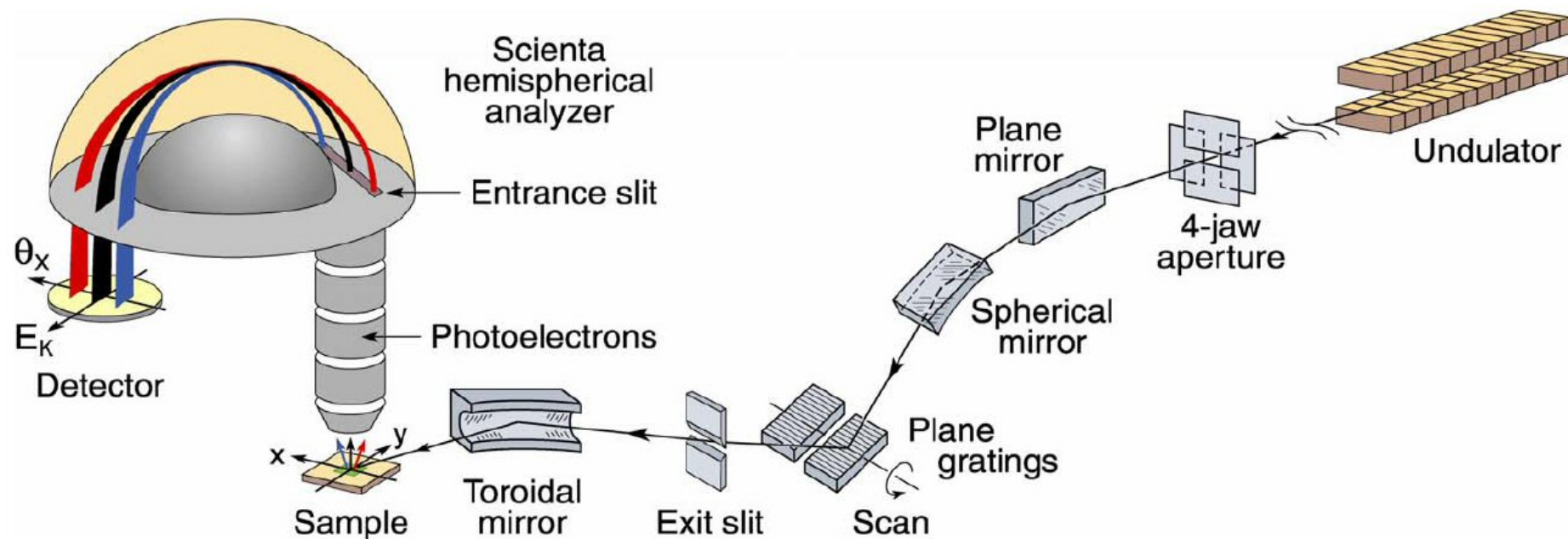


Angle-Resolved Photo-Emission Spectroscopy (ARPES)

Working of ARPES

- An atomically flat sample is illuminated by a beam of monochromatic light.
- Due to the photoelectric effect, the sample emits electrons.
- The kinetic energy and direction of these electrons are measured by the rotatable spectrometer.
- The obtained data are used to map out the Fermi surface of the sample material.

ARPES setup



Parallel multi-angle recording

- Improved **energy resolution**
- Improved **momentum resolution**
- Improved **data-acquisition efficiency**

	ΔE (meV)	$\Delta\theta$
past	20-40	2°
now	2-10	0.2°

Photoelectric Effect

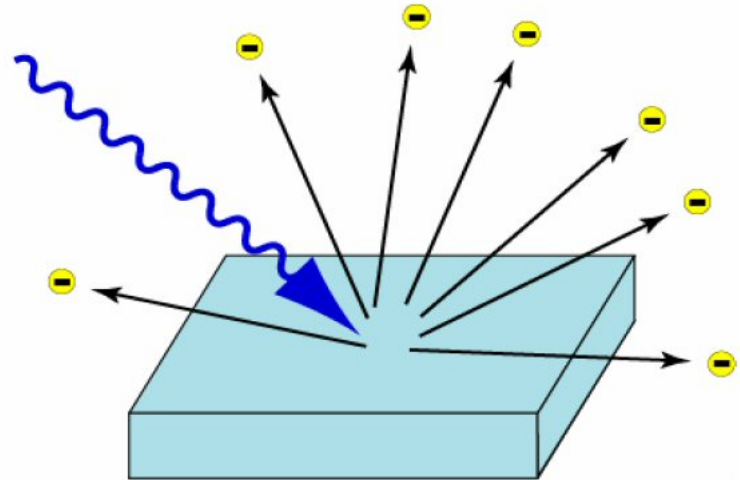
- Explained by Einstein (1905):

$$E_{k_{\max}} = hf - \phi$$

- More generally,

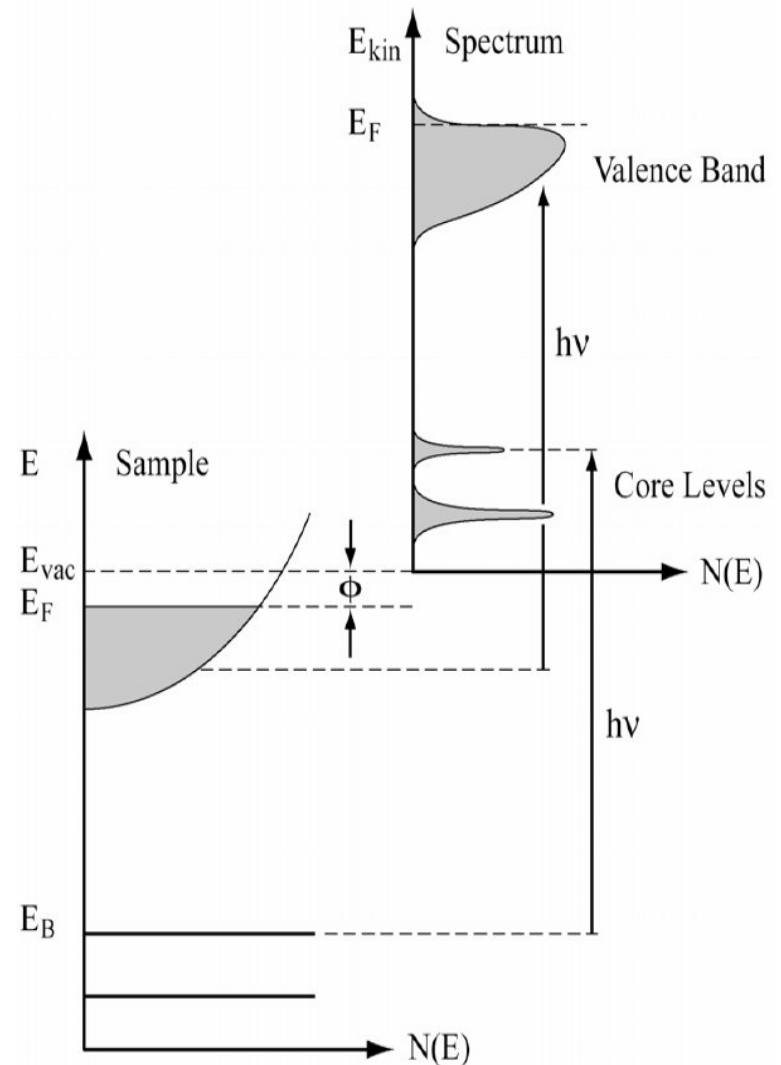
$$E_k = hf - \phi - |E_B|$$

where E_B is the binding energy of the electron.



Photoemission Spectra

- The work function is known/measurable.
- The photon energy is known.
- We can calculate the energy of the electron in the solid!



Basis of ARPES

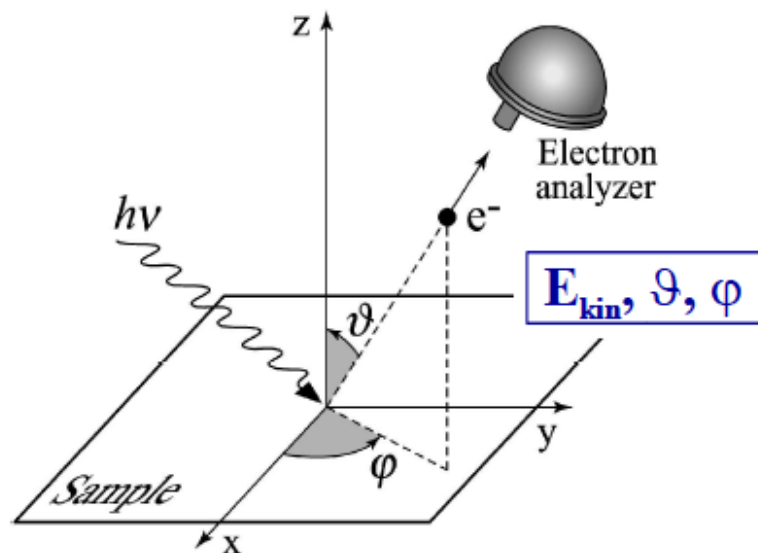
ARPES is directly measuring the components of electron momentum that are parallel to the surface

- The flat surface of the sample has translational symmetry. Therefore, as electrons escape from the solid, linear momentum is conserved parallel to the surface.
- The photon momentum is small and can be neglected.



$$w_{fi} = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} |\langle \Psi_f^N | H_{int} | \Psi_i^N \rangle|^2 \delta(E_f^N - E_i^N - \hbar \nu)$$

$$H_{int} = -\frac{e}{2mc}(\mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{p} + \mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{A}) = -\frac{e}{mc} \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{p}$$

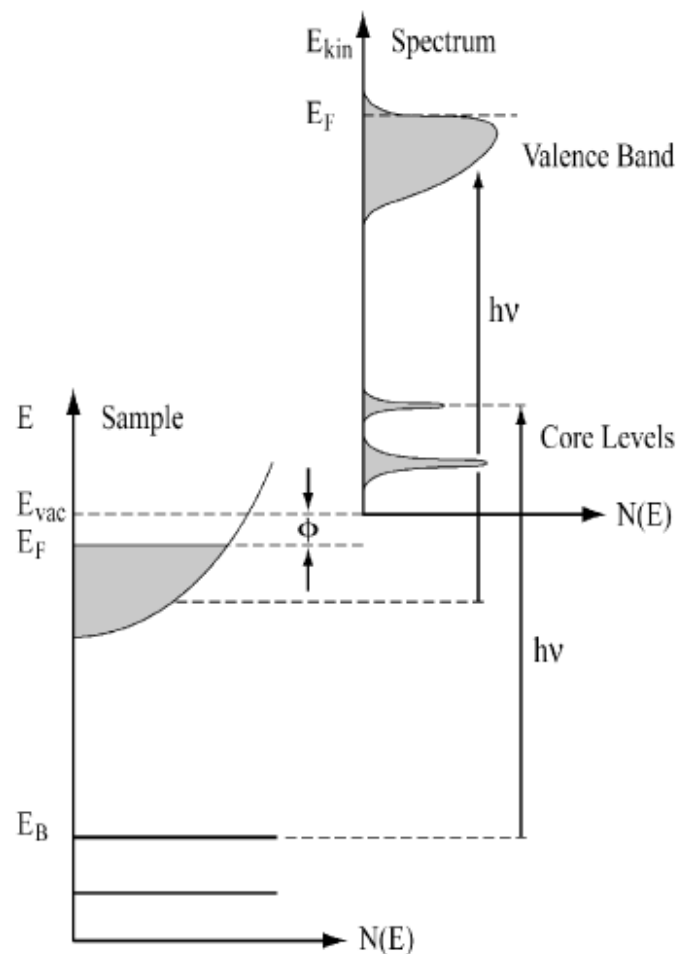


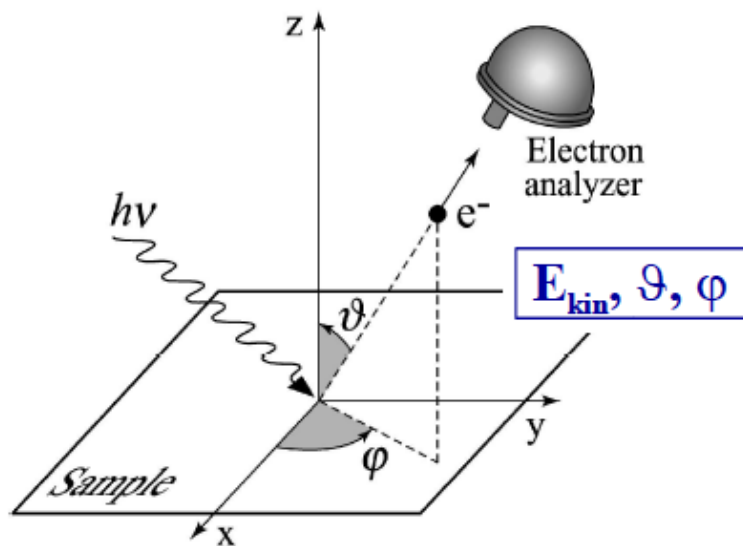
Energy Conservation

$$E_{kin} = h\nu - \phi - |E_B|$$

Momentum Conservation

$$\mathbf{p}_{||} = \hbar \mathbf{k}_{||} = \sqrt{2m E_{kin}} \cdot \sin \theta$$





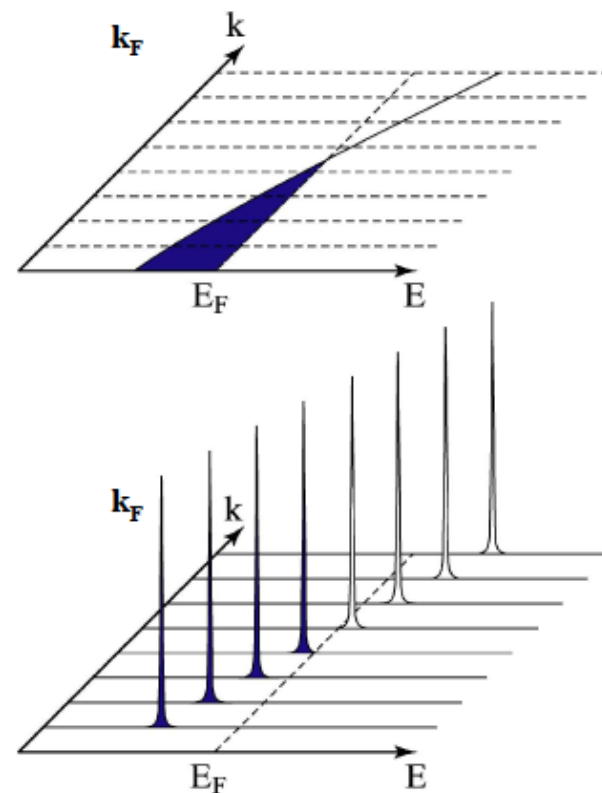
Energy Conservation

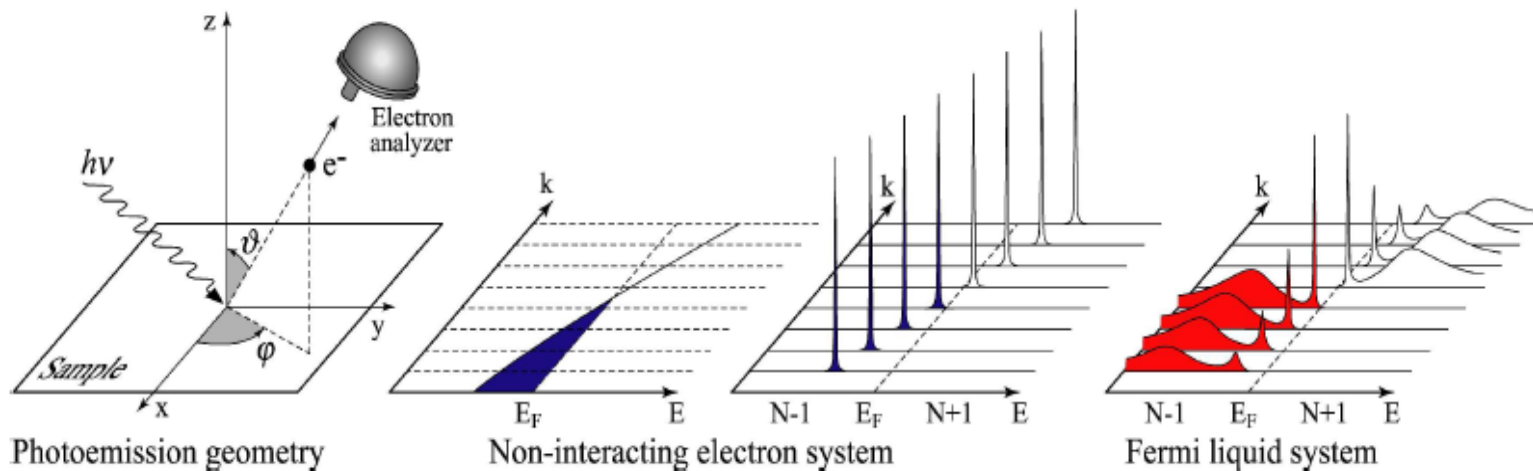
$$E_{kin} = h\nu - \phi - |E_B|$$

Momentum Conservation

$$p_{||} = \hbar k_{||} = \sqrt{2m E_{kin}} \cdot \sin\theta$$

Electrons in Reciprocal Space





Photoemission intensity: $I(k, \omega) = I_0 |M(k, \omega)|^2 f(\omega) A(k, \omega)$

Single-particle spectral function

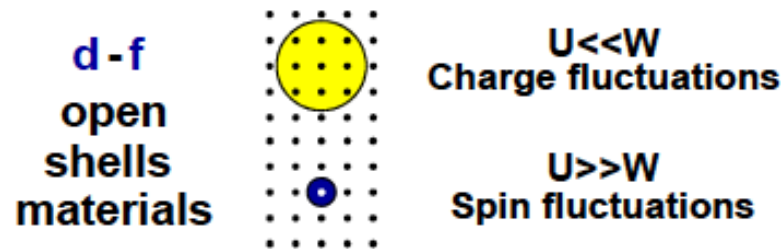
$$A(\mathbf{k}, \omega) = -\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{\Sigma''(\mathbf{k}, \omega)}{[\omega - \epsilon_{\mathbf{k}} - \Sigma'(\mathbf{k}, \omega)]^2 + [\Sigma''(\mathbf{k}, \omega)]^2}$$

$\Sigma(\mathbf{k}, \omega)$: the “self-energy” - captures the effects of interactions

What is ARPES used for?

- ARPES is an almost ideal tool for imaging the Fermi surface of 1-D and 2-D solids.
- Since many of the high temperature superconductors are essentially 2-D materials, much of the work in this field is done using ARPES.

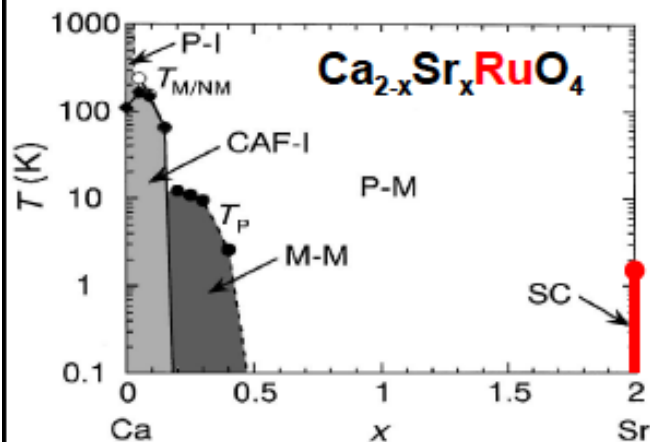
Strongly correlated systems



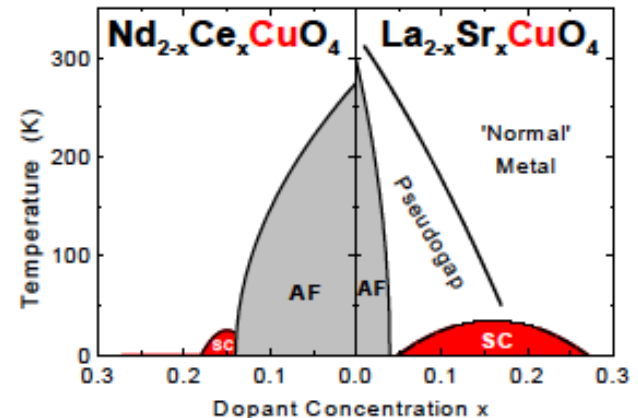
I	II	IIIb	IVb	Vb	VIb	VIIb	VIIIb	IXb	Xb	IIb	III	IV	V	VI	VII	0	
H																He	
Li	Be										B	C	N	O	F	Ne	
Na	Mg										Al	Si	P	S	Cl	Ar	
K	Ca	Sc	Ti	V	Cr	Mn	Fe	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se	Br	Kr
Rb	Sr	Y	Zr	Nb	Mo	Tc	Ru	Rh	Pd	Ag	Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Te	I	Xe
Cs	Ba	La*	Hf	Ta	W	Re	Os	Ir	Pt	Au	Hg	Tl	Pb	Bi	Po	At	Rn
Fr	Ra	Ac*	Rf	Db	Sg	Bh	Hs	Mt									
Lanthanides*			Ce	Pr	Nd	Pm	Sm	Eu	Gd	Tb	Dy	Ho	Er	Tm	Yb	Lu	
Actinides**			Th	Pa	U	Np	Pu	Am	Cm	Bk	Cf	Es	Fm	Md	No	Lr	

Degrees of freedom
Charge / Spin
Orbital
Lattice

Control parameters
Bandwidth (U/W)
Band filling
Dimensionality



- Kondo
- Mott-Hubbard
- Heavy Fermions
- Unconventional SC
- Spin-charge order
- Colossal MR



Understand the
macroscopic electronic properties
and the role of
competing degrees of freedom



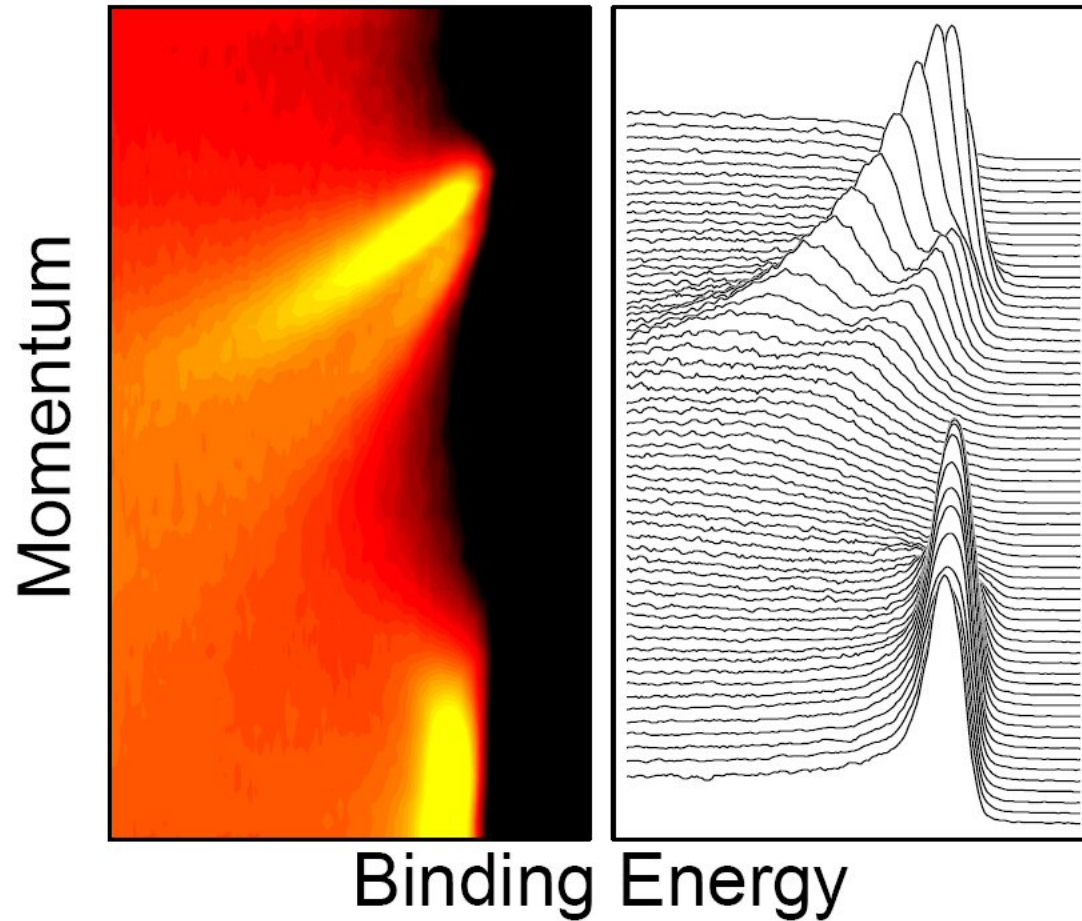
Study the **low-energy electronic excitations**



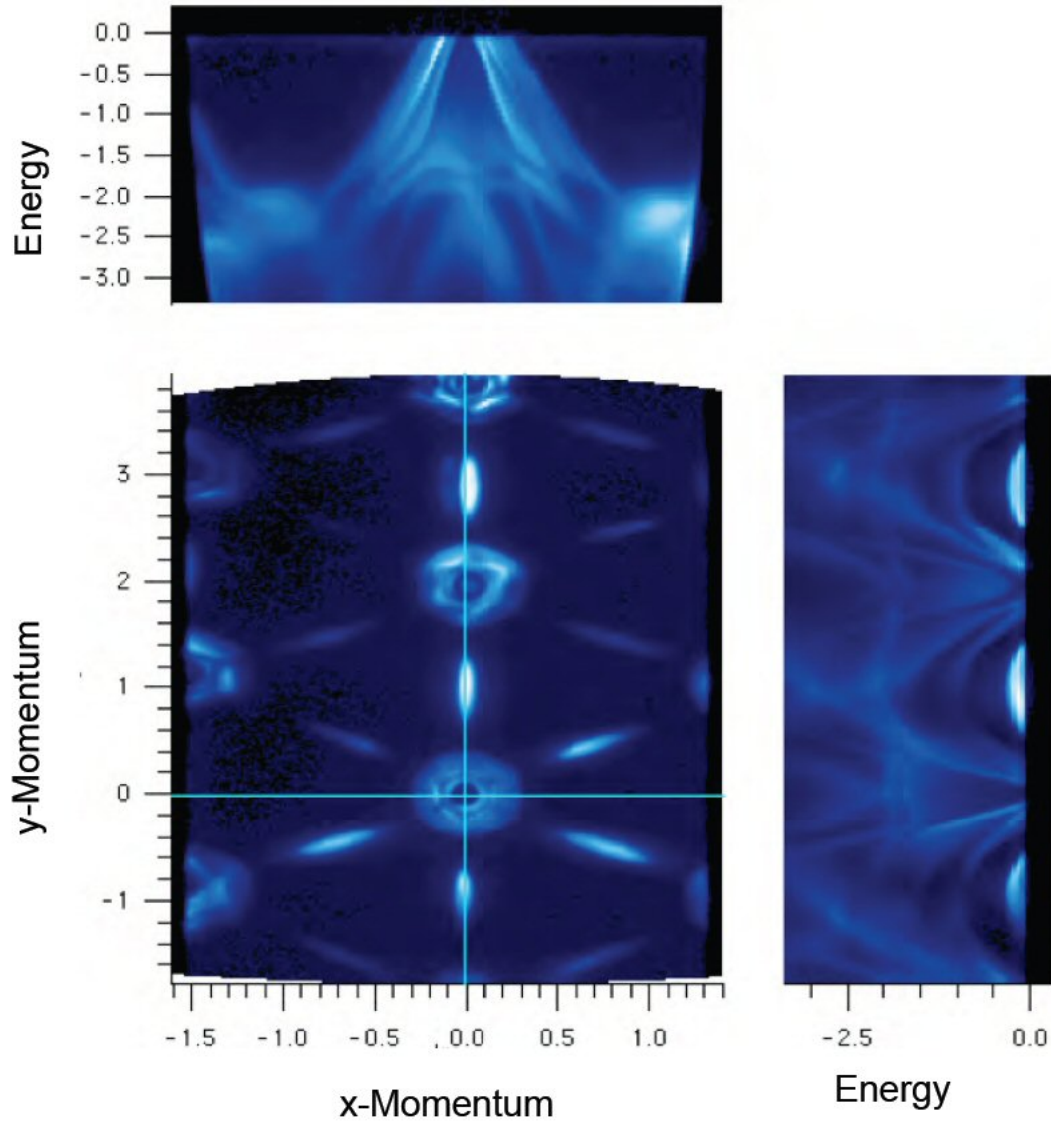
ARPES

Velocity and direction of
the electrons in the solid

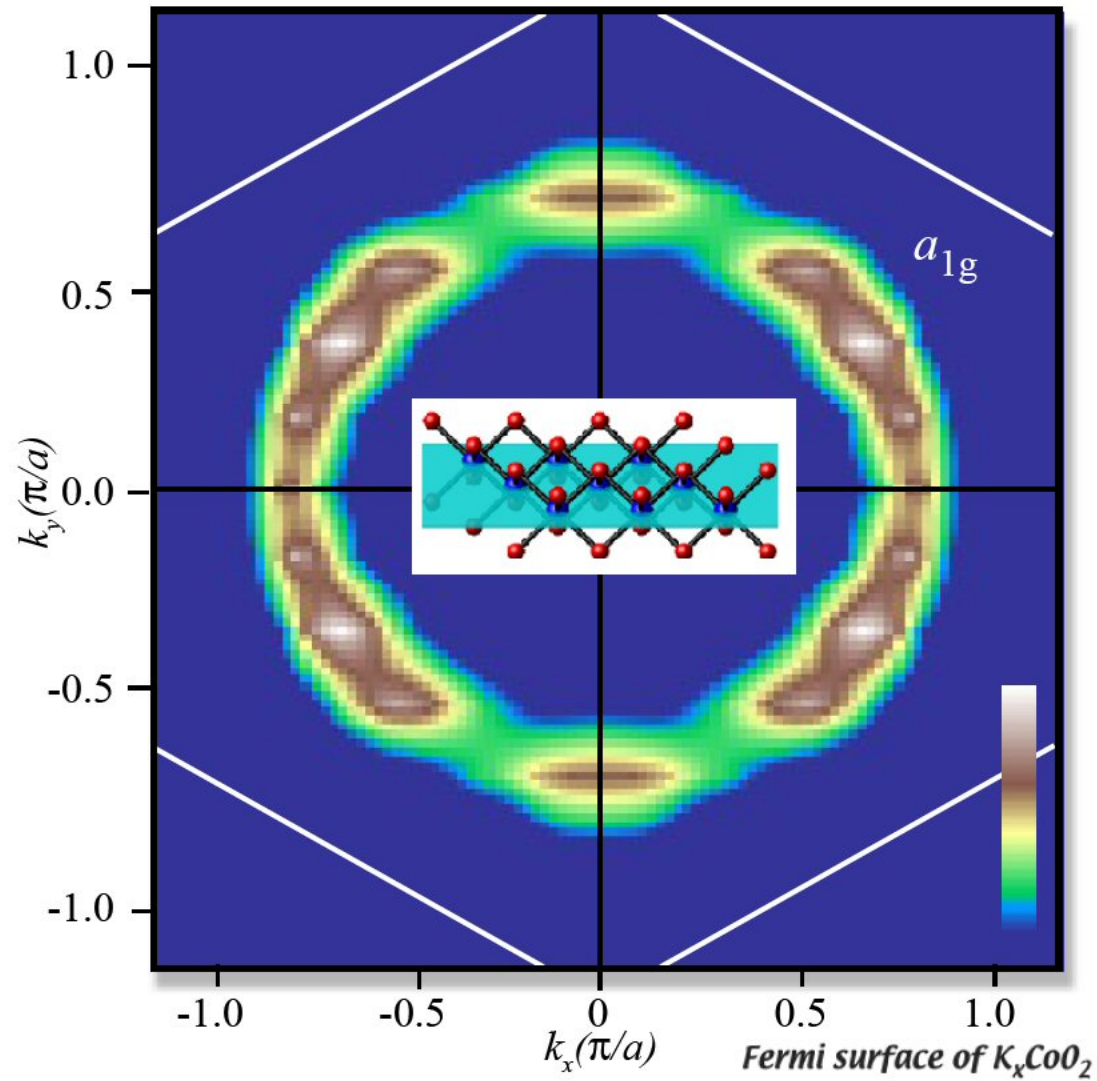
Momentum and Binding Energy



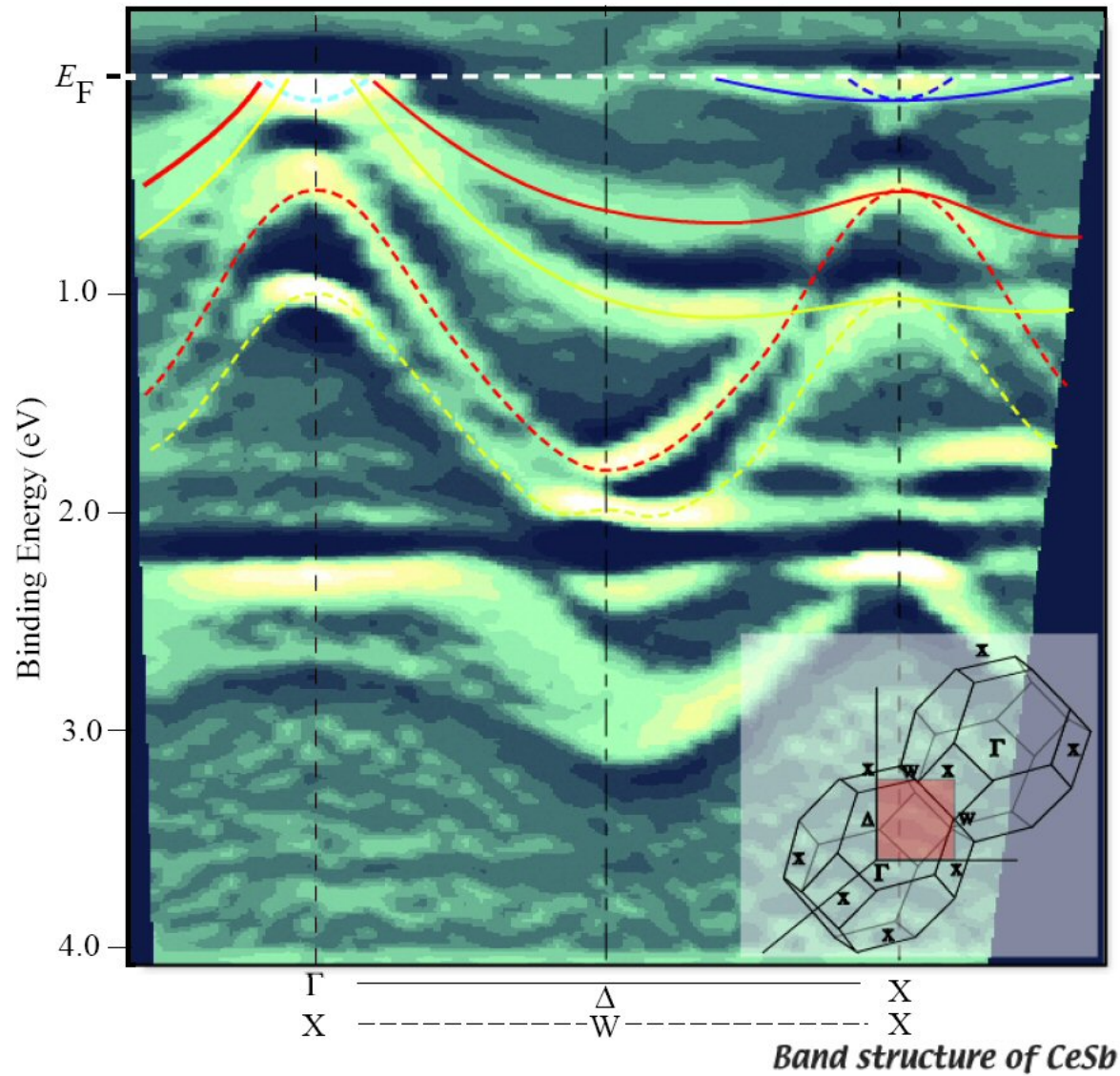
Direct k Space Imaging



Fermi Surface Images

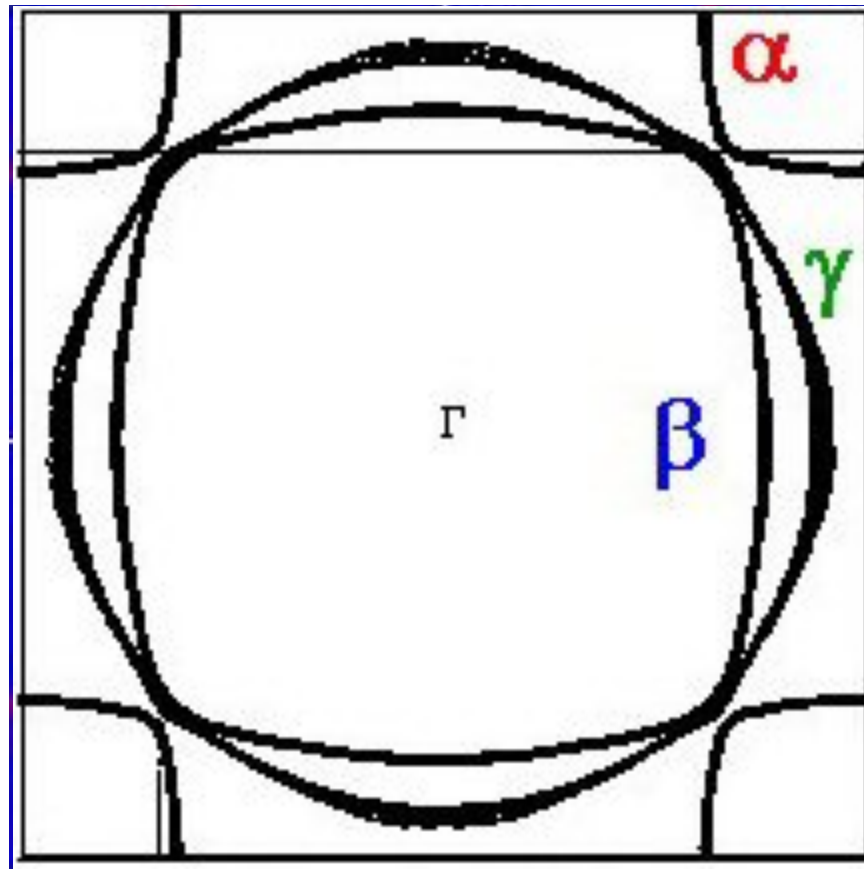


Band Structure Images



Validation of Predictions

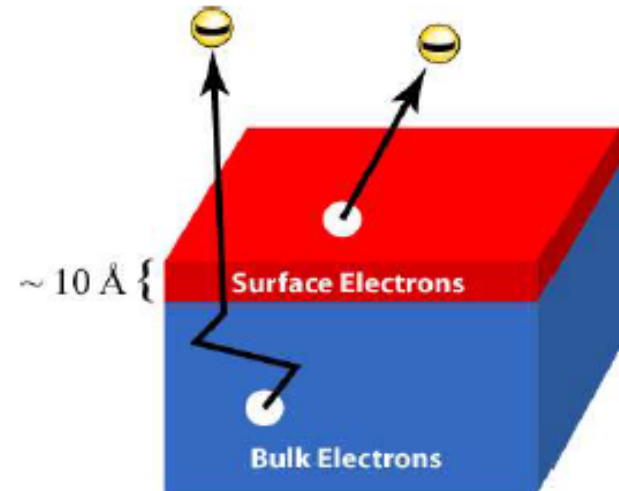
Sr_2RuO_4 : ARPES vs. Γ -Calculation



Advantages

- **Direct information about electronic states!**
- Straightforward comparison with theory - little or no modelling.
- High-resolution information about **BOTH energy and momentum**
- **Surface-sensitive probe**
- Sensitive to “many-body” effects
- Can be applied to small samples (100 μm x 100 μm x 10 nm)

Limitations

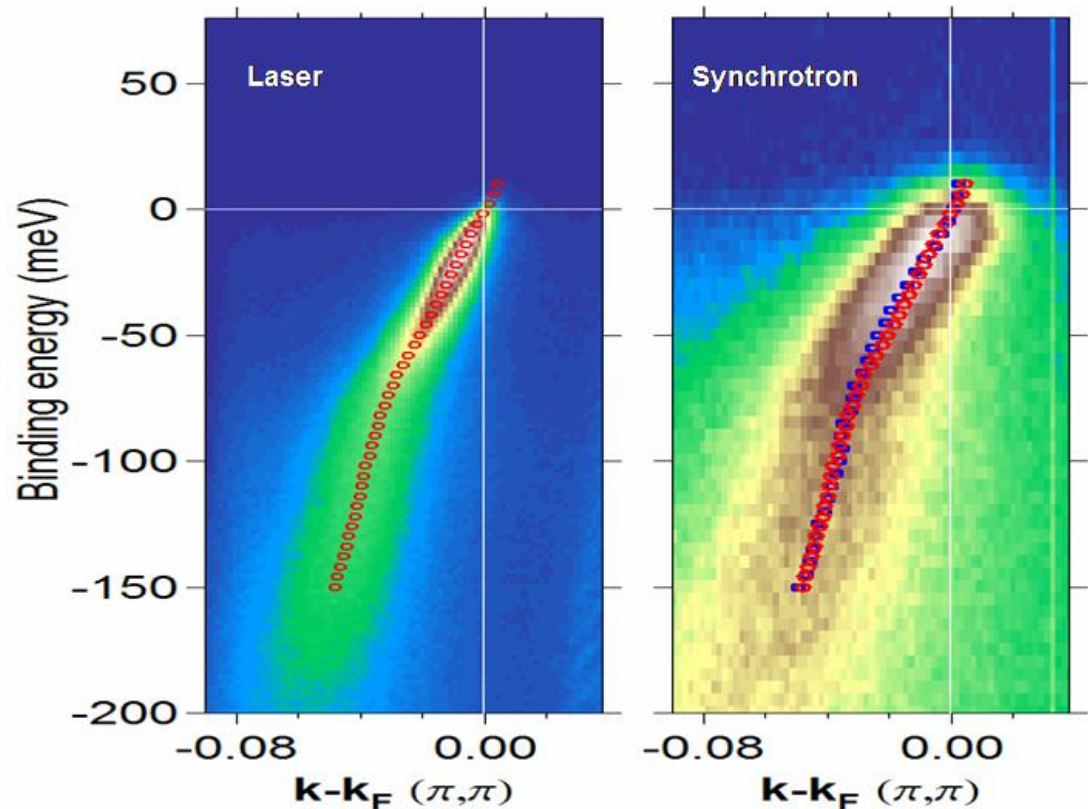


- **Not bulk sensitive**
- Requires clean, atomically flat surfaces in **ultra-high vacuum**
- Cannot be studied as a function of pressure or magnetic field

Further Advances

- Laser ARPES: lower energy means sharper pictures

(image of
 $\text{Bi}_2\text{Sr}_2\text{CaCu}_2\text{O}_8$
in “nodal”
direction)



Neutron Scattering

Neutrons have **No Charge!**

- Highly penetrating
- Nondestructive
- Can be used in extremes

Neutrons have a **Magnetic Moment!**

- Magnetic structure
- Fluctuations
- Magnetic materials

Neutrons have **Spin!**

- Polarized beams
- Atomic orientation
- Coherent and incoherent scattering

The **Energies** of neutrons are similar to the energies of elementary excitations!

- Molecular Vibrations and Lattice modes
- Magnetic excitations

The **Wavelengths** of neutrons are similar to atomic spacing!

- Sensitive to structure
- Gathers information from 10^{-10} to 10^{-7} m
- Crystal structures and atomic spacings

Neutrons probe **Nuclei!**

- Light atom sensitive
- Sensitive to isotopic substitution

de Broglie Wavelength

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{p} = \frac{h}{mv} = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2mE}}$$

$$E = 81.6 \text{ meV}$$

$$v = 3950 \text{ m/s}$$

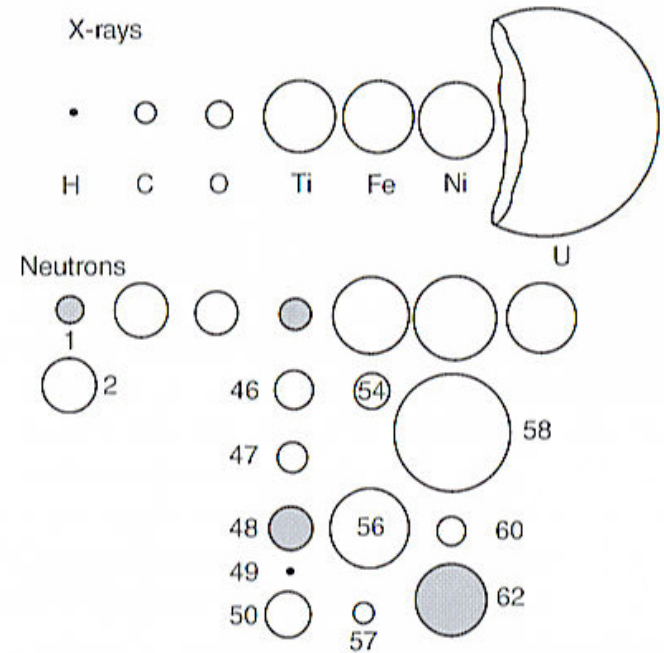
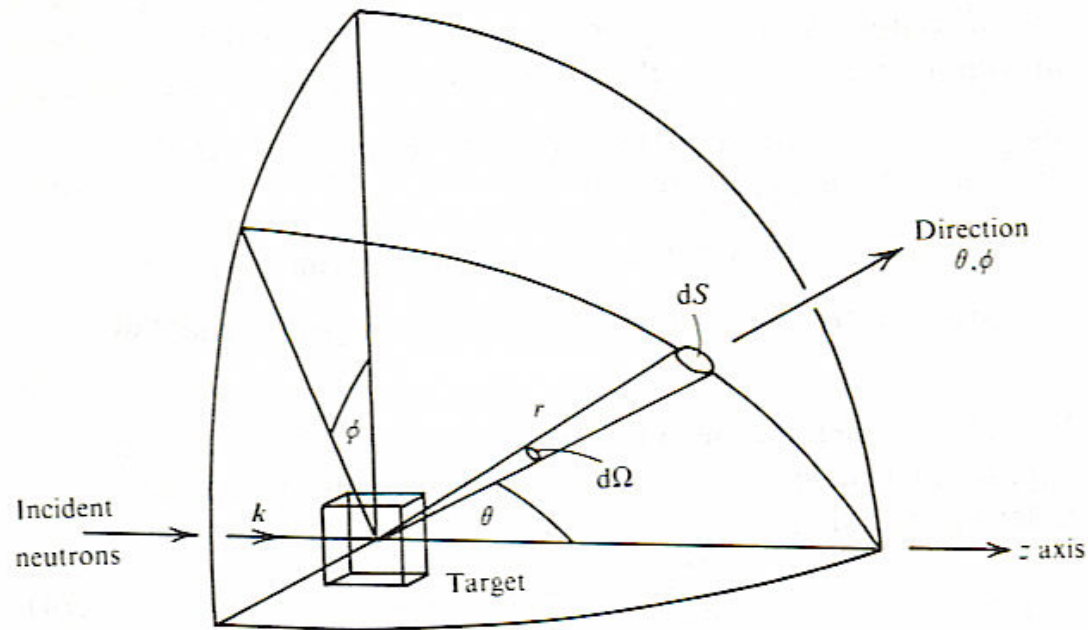
$$\lambda = 1 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}$$

$$E = 1 \text{ meV}$$

$$v = 437 \text{ m/s}$$

$$\lambda = 9 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}$$

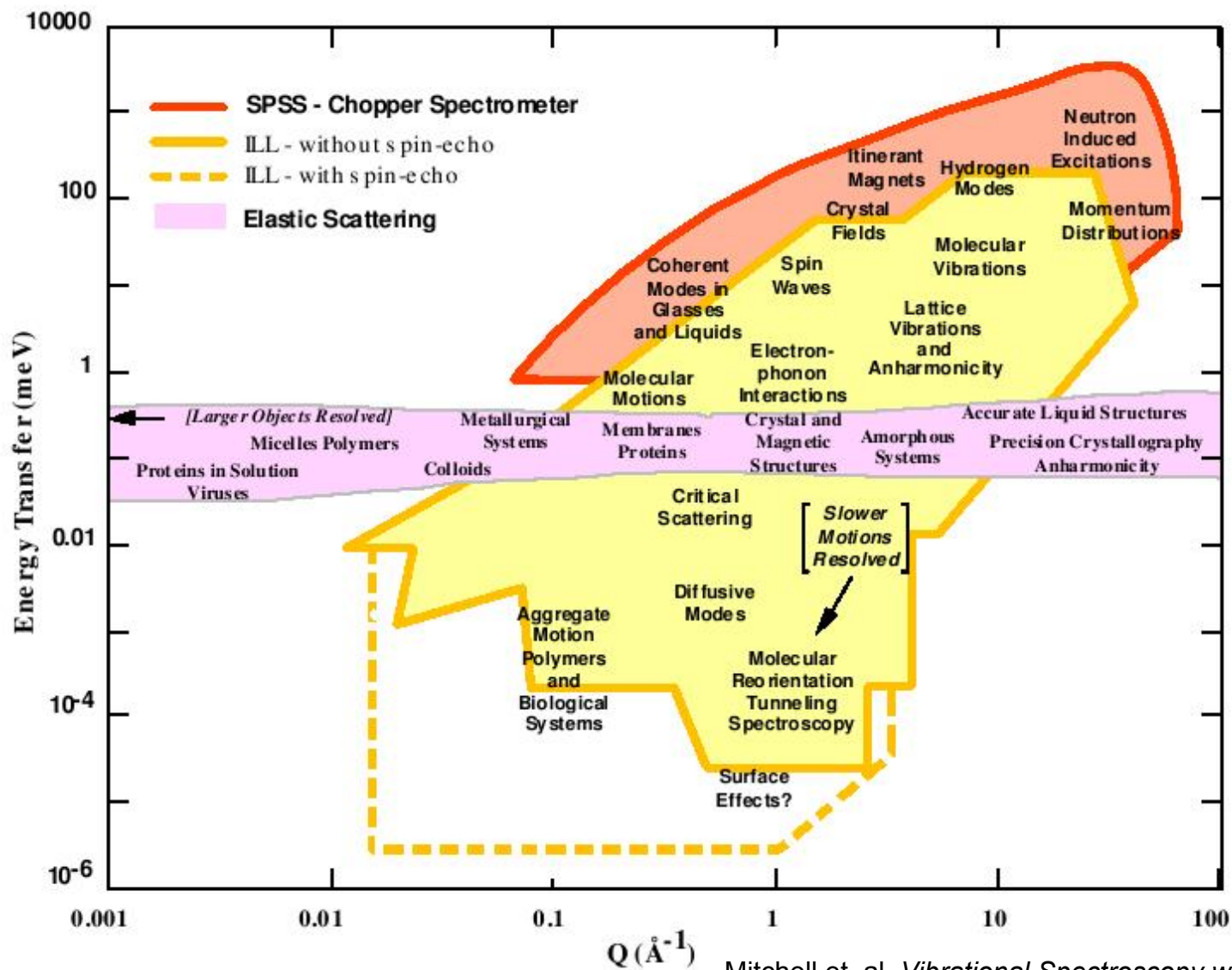
Neutrons vs. X-rays



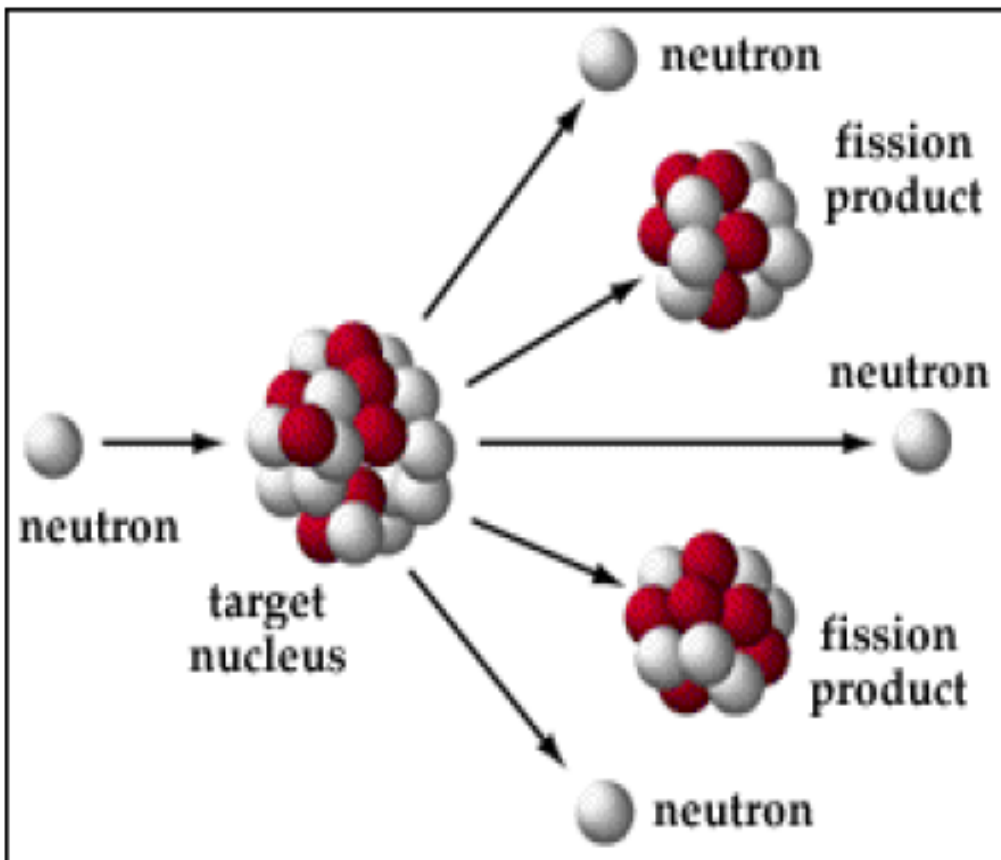
Chatterji, *Neutron Scattering from Magnetic Materials* (2006)

Neutrons allow easy access to atoms that are usually unseen in X-ray Scattering

How are neutrons useful?



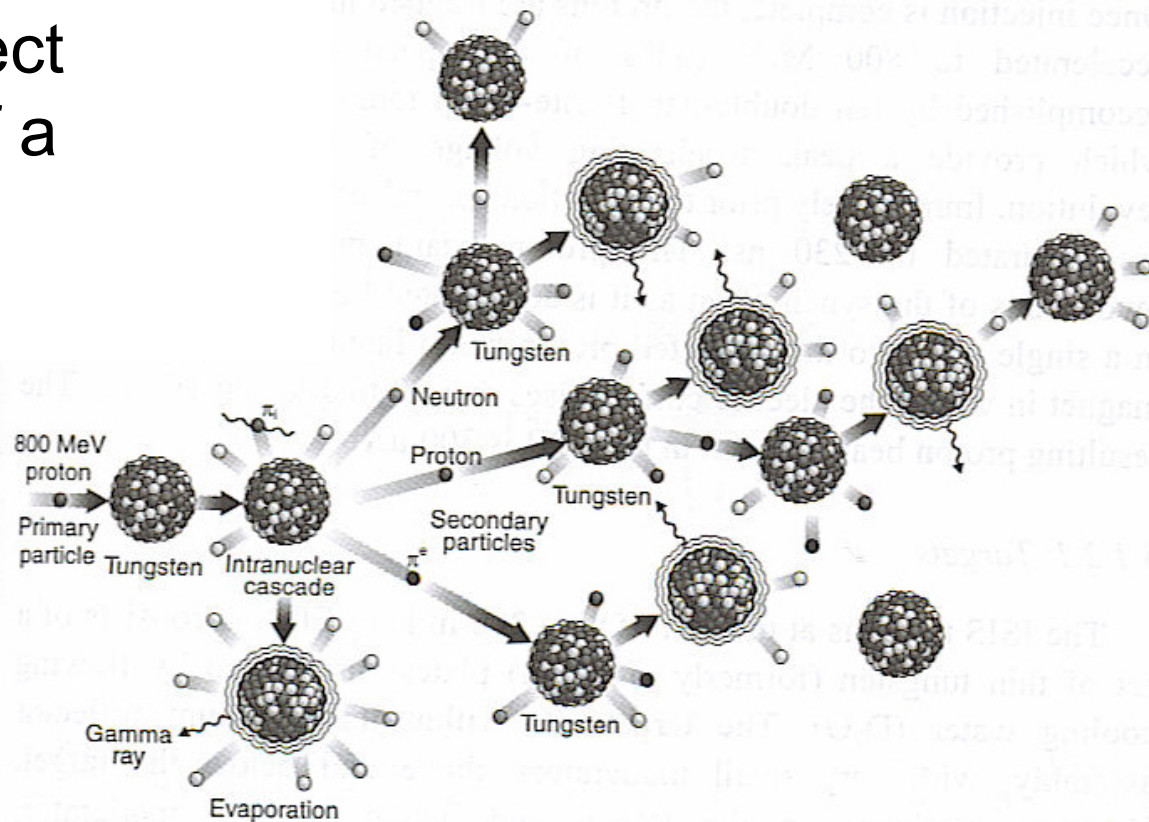
Neutrons from Reactor Sources



- Uses nuclear fission to create neutrons
- Continuous neutron flux
- Flux is dependent on fission rate
- Limited by heat flow in from the reaction
- Creates radioactive nuclear waste

Neutrons from Spallation Sources

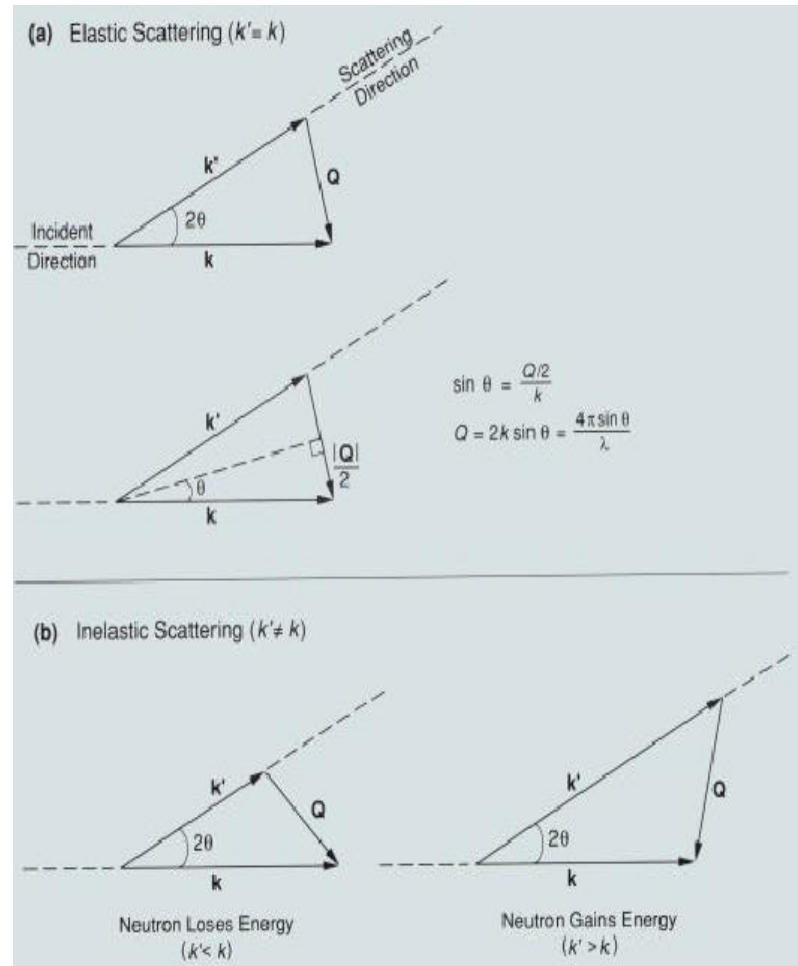
- Uses a cascade effect from the collision of a proton on a heavy metal.
- Pulsed Source
- High Intensity
- Heat production is relatively low



Neutron scattering

Elastic Neutron Scattering

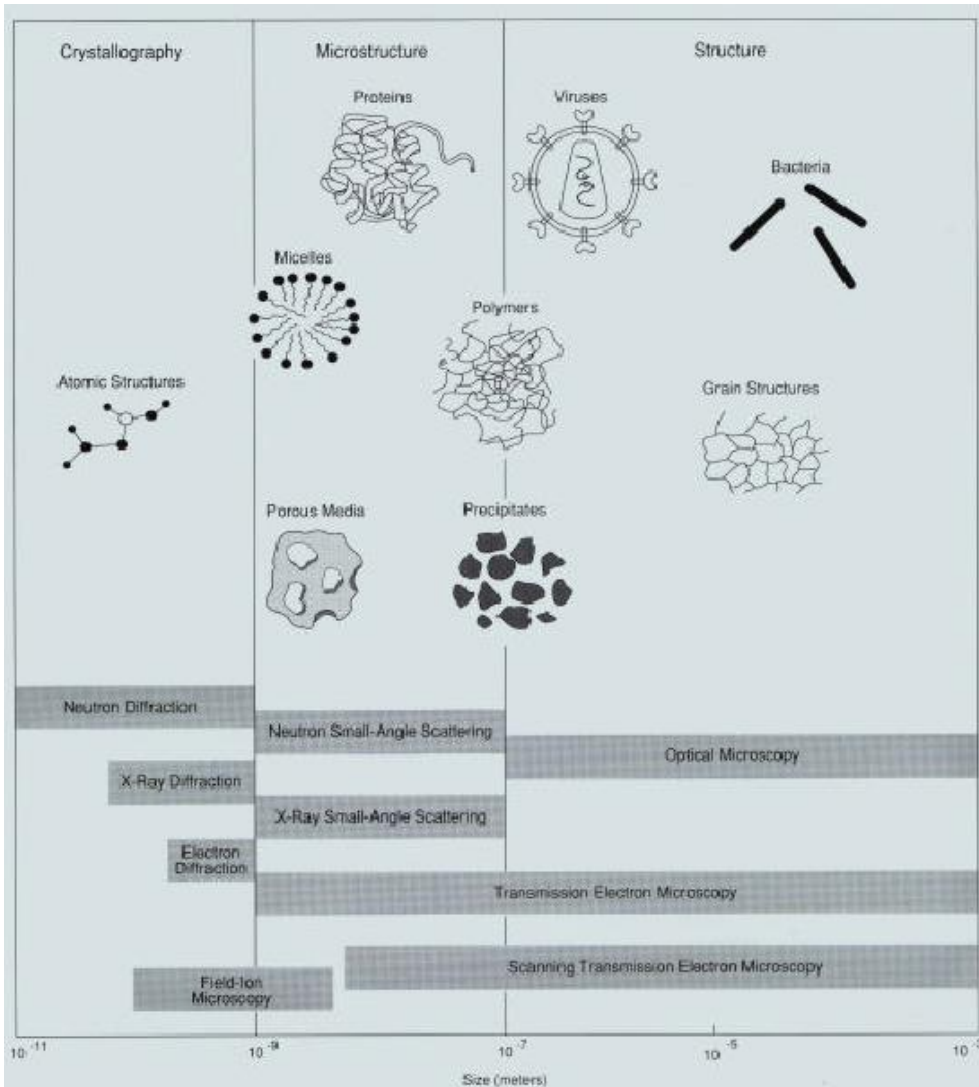
- No loss of energy
- Examines the change in momentum or angle of the neutrons.



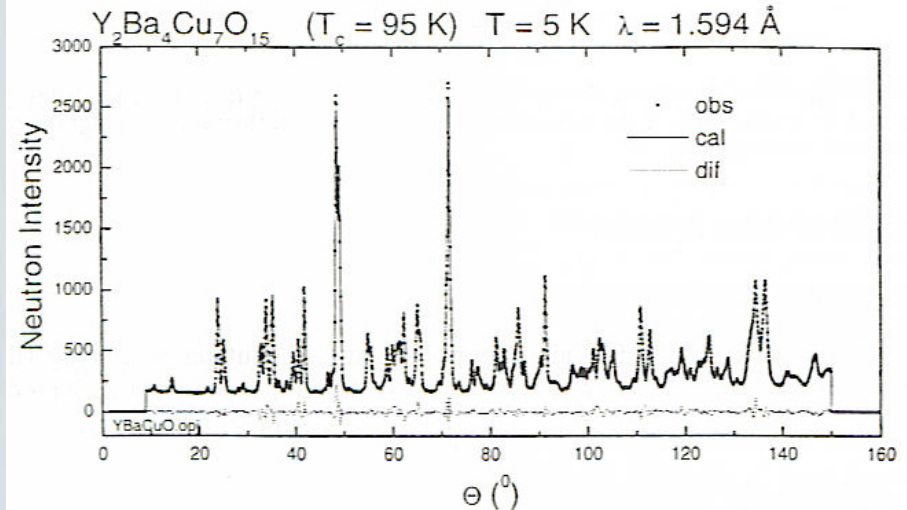
Inelastic Neutron Scattering

- Examines both momentum and energy dependencies.

Elastic Neutron Scattering



Pynn, *Neutron Scattering: A Primer* (1989)

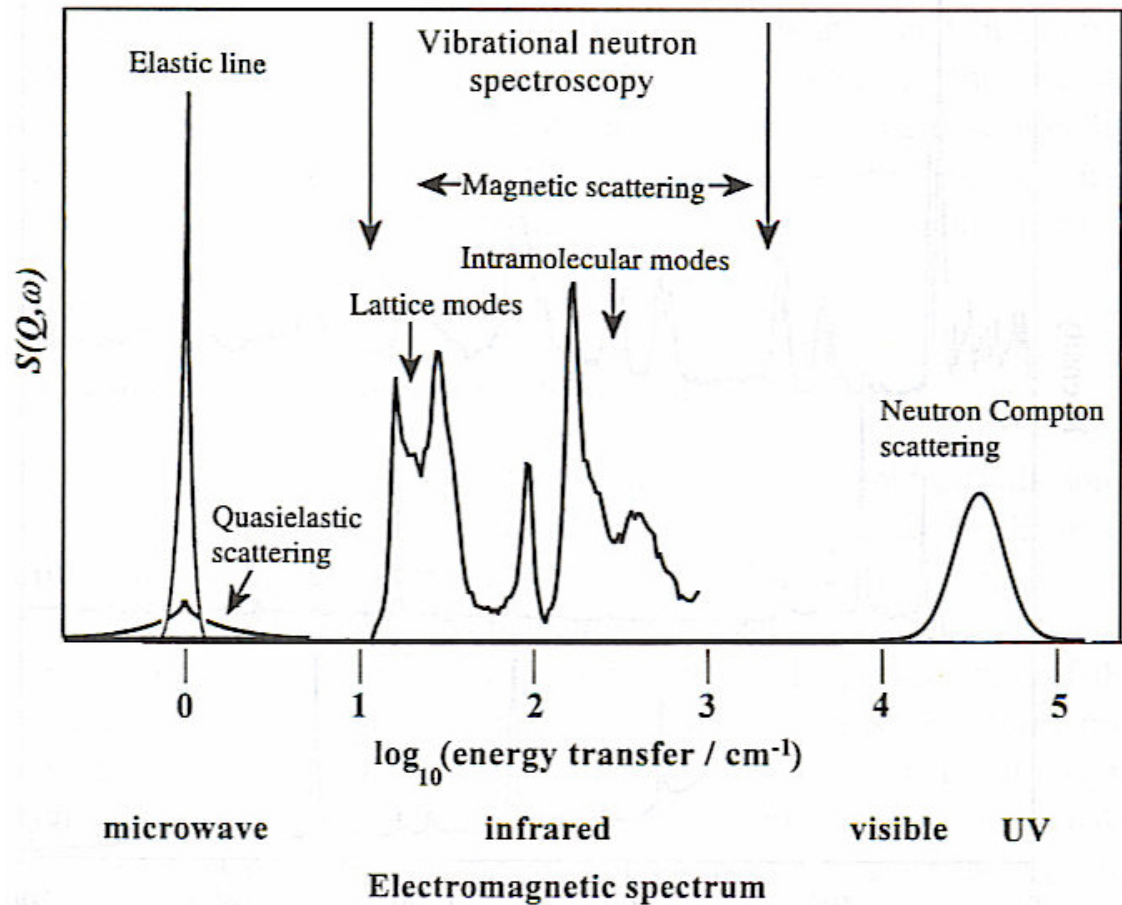


Mitchell et. al, *Vibrational Spectroscopy with Neutrons* (2005)

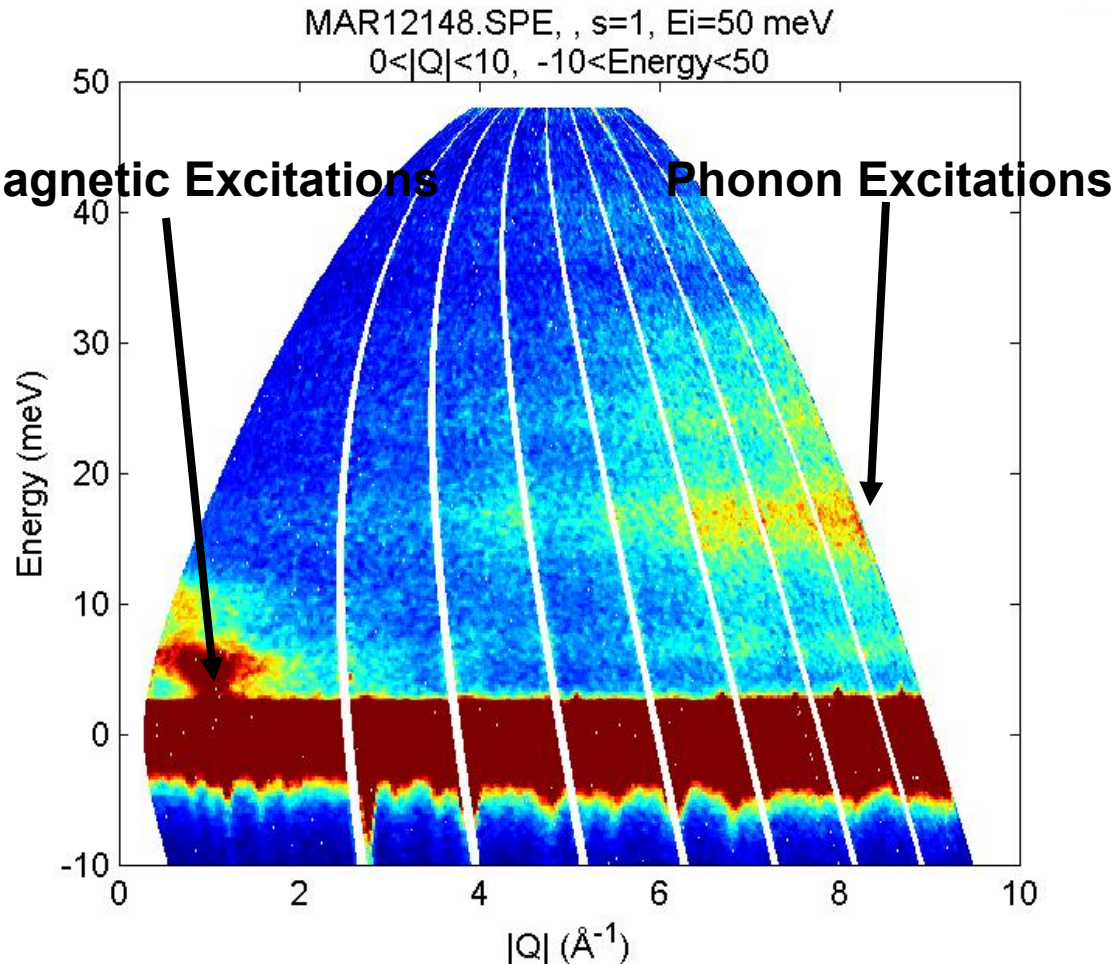
- Determine length scales and differentiate between nano-, micro-, and macro-systems.
- Utilizes position and momentum correlation.

Inelastic Neutron Scattering

Uses both change in momentum and energy to characterize a systems vibrational, magnetic, and lattice excitations.



Vibrational and Magnetic Excitations



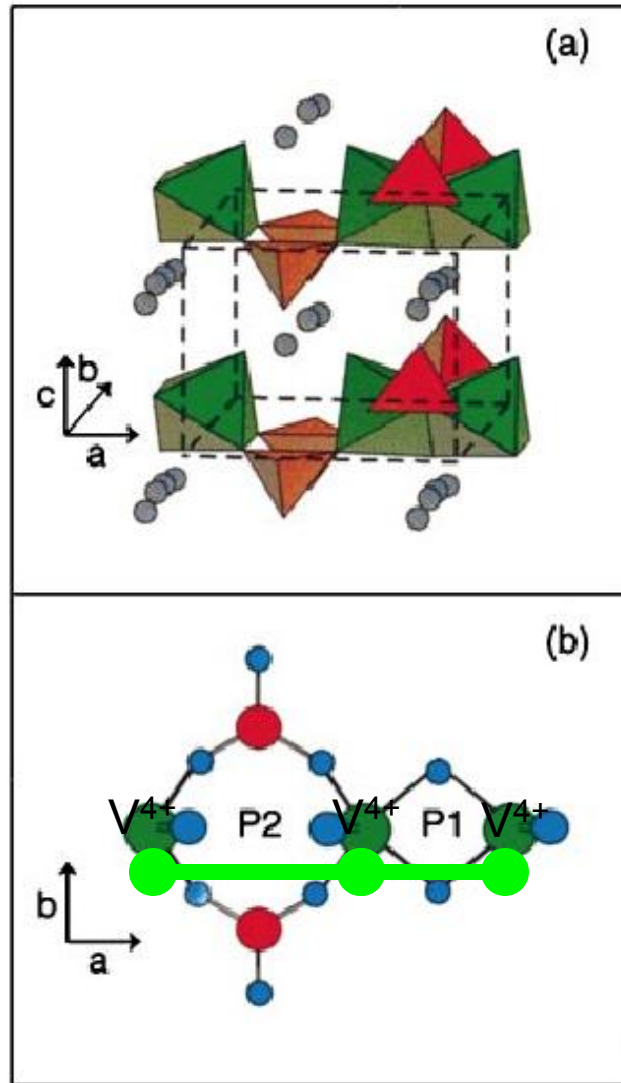
- Vibrational excitations are broad, large excitations.

Neutrons observe all phonon and vibrational excitations. The intensity is determined by the phonons polarization vectors.

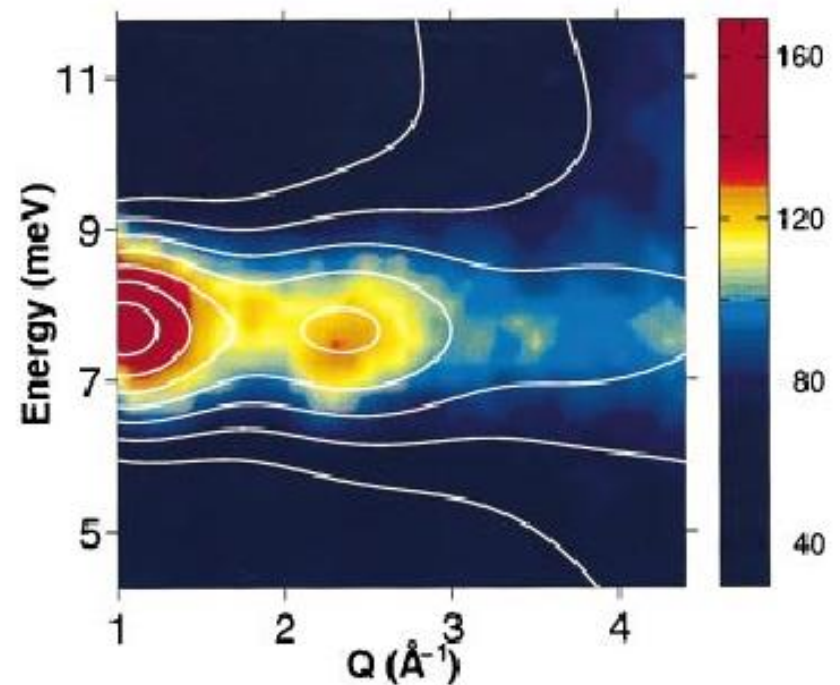
- Magnetic excitations are detailed by spin transitions of $\Delta S = 0$ and ± 1 .

Q-dependence of magnetic excitations help determine the magnetic structure within the material.

Inelastic Neutron Scattering from magnetic sample



The use of neutron scattering on the material of $\text{VODPO}_4 \bullet \frac{1}{2} \text{D}_2\text{O}$ clarified the magnetic structure of the material.



Summary

- Neutrons are produced in two main ways
 - Research Reactors
 - Spallation Sources
- Utilizes the properties of the neutron.
- Neutrons are useful in determining not only structural properties of a material, but also the vibrational, magnetic, and lattice excitations.