Science with next-generation soft X-ray sources

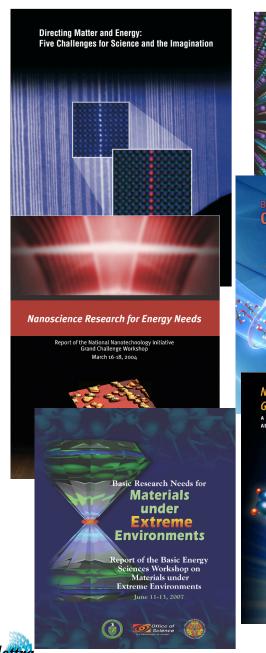
EXPERIMENTAL METHODS

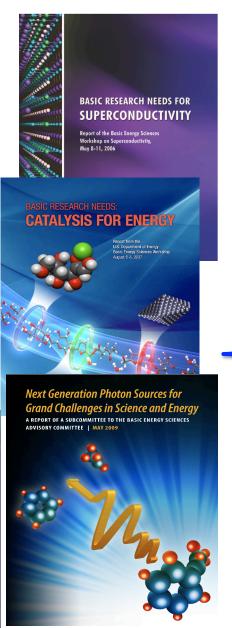
Fulvio Parmigiani *University of Trieste (Italy) and Sincrotrone Trieste*





Vision of the science with future light sources





CONTROL OF COMPLEX MATERIALS AND CHEMICAL PROCESSES

REAL TIME EVOLUTION
OF CHEMICAL REACTIONS, MOTION
OF ELECTRONS AND SPIN

IMAGING AND SPECTROSCOPY OF INDIVIDUAL NANO-OBJECTS

STATISTICAL LAWS OF COMPLEX SYSTEMS

SIMULTANEOUS ULTRASHORT AND ULTRAFAST MEASUREMENTS



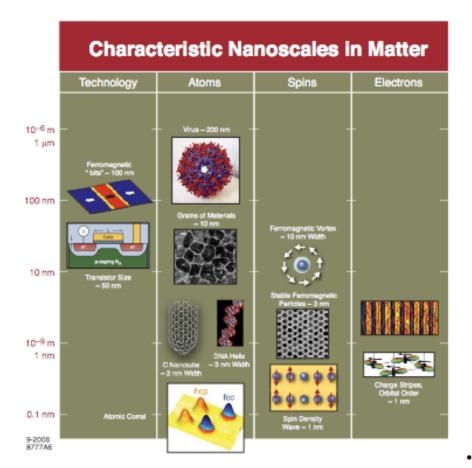
Questions

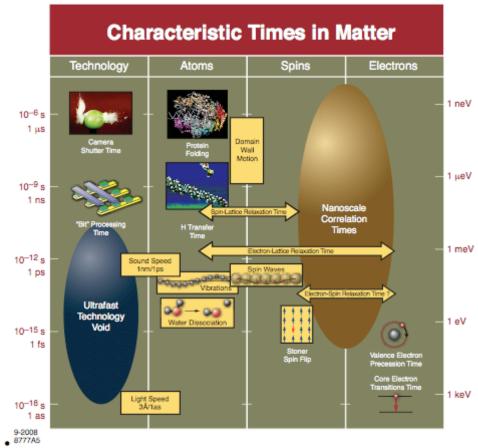
- Can we solve the problem of HTSC?
 Can we understand the coexistence of SC and ferromagnetism?
- Can we make imaging resolution with an information content better than STEM of living matter?
- Can we make material with a photovoltaic efficiency as in the natural process?
- How small and how fast can we make the magnetic recording devices?
- Can we observe a catalytic process under real operating conditions?
- Can we fill the gap between the atomic and condensed matter properties?
- How far can we push our capability to observe the matter under ultra-extreme conditions?





Characteristics





To set the path for probing the matter with the length, time and energy resolution required for unexploring critical and exotic phenomena:

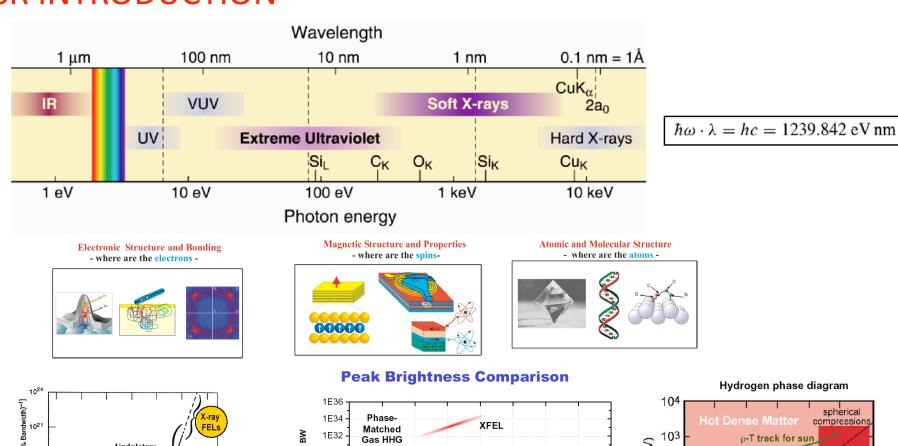
nm, fs (as), and sub-meV.

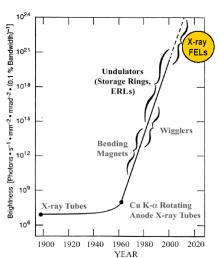
elettra

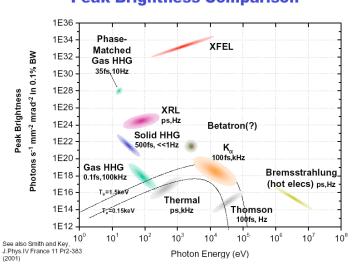


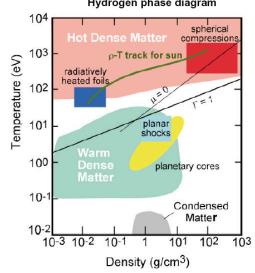


SR INTRODUCTION





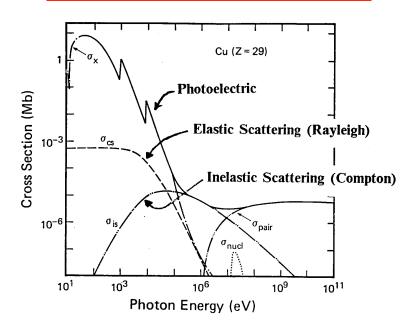






Photon-matter interactions

Photon interaction with electrons



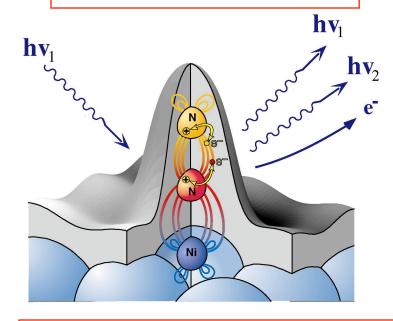
Elastic Scattering

Free electron: *Thomson Scattering*Bound Electron: *Rayleigh Scattering*

Inelastic Scattering

Quasi-free electron: Compton Scattering

Photon Interaction with Matter



Photon-in

Absorption

Photon-in ───Electron-out

Linear: *Electron Photoemission*

Non-Linear: Multi-photon processes

Photon-in → Photon-out

Elastic Scattering: Diffusion and Diffraction

Inelastic Scattering: Brillouin and Raman (phononic and electronic), Fluorescence, Resonant Inelastic Scattering



Scattering and Spectroscopy: Methods

•X-ray Diffraction

Hard X-rays (structure)

Soft X-rays (ordering)

Photoelectron Spectroscopy (PES)

Core level electron spectroscopy

Micro- and nano-PES

PhotoElectron Emission Microscopy (PEEM)

Angle Resolved PES (ARPES)

Resonant photoemission

Photoelectron Diffraction

•X-ray Absorption Spectroscopy (XAS)

Near Edge X-ray Absorption Spectroscopy (NEXAFS)

Extended X-ray Absorption Fine Structure (EXAFS)

X-ray Magnetic Circular Dichroism (XMCD)

X-ray Magnetic Linear Dichroism (XMLD)

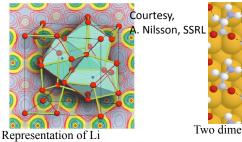
•X-ray Emission Spectroscopy (XES)

Resonant Inelastic X-ray Scattering (RIXS)

Soft X-ray Elastic Scattering

Imaging

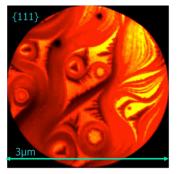
Speckle



Two dimensional structure of

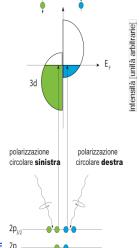
structure at 44 Gpa pressure

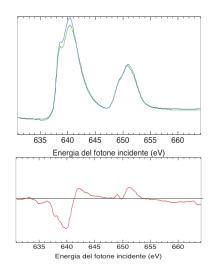
glycine adsorbed on Cu(110)



k_{||}-plane || S || W[110] Surface || Courtesy E. Rotenberg, ALS

Courtesy Nanospectroscopy, Elettra



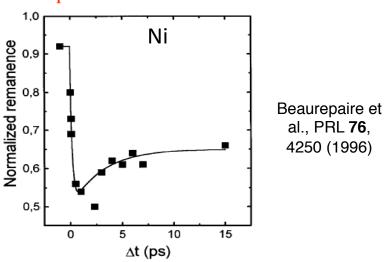




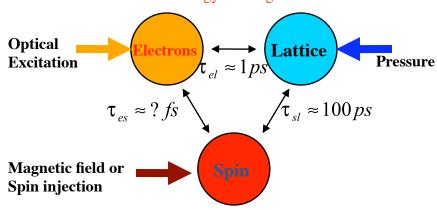


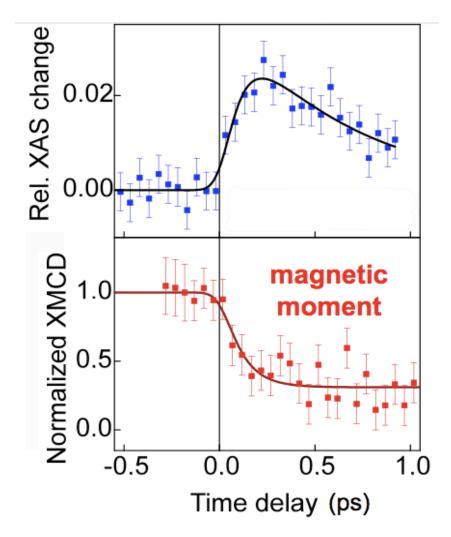
Probing the Properties of Magnetic Materials

Magneto Optical Kerr Effect in the Visible



Non-Equilibrium Magnetization Dynamics: transfer of energy and angular momentum





Stamm et al., Nature Mat. 6, 740(2007)







The 10⁻¹⁸ s Challenges

SPECIAL SECTION



Attosecond Spectroscopy

CONTENTS

Reviews

766 The Future of Attosecond Spectroscopy P. H. Bucksbaum
769 Attosecond Control and Measurement: Lightwave Electronics E. Goulielmakis et al.
775 Harnessing Attosecond Science in the Quest for Coherent X-rays H. Kapteyn et al.

fast a human being could press the button on a stopwatch. More recently, pulsed laser sources have taken the place of those hand-held devices for measuring the fastest phenomena. The technology for tracking the time scale of nuclear motion in free molecules and solids was limited by the duration of a single cycle of visible light: approximately 0.0000000000000000001 second, or 1 femtosecond. Electrons move even faster than that, and for a long time, scientists could only watch their rearrangements as an indiscrete blur. Over the past several years, however, laser technology has crossed the threshold into the attosecond regime (a thousandth of a femtosecond). This series of three Reviews highlights the methods underlying this advance and the scientific prospects they have enabled.

Bucksbaum (p. 766) lays out the essential physics of high harmonic generation, a technique whereby an intense laser field pulls an atomic electron away from the nucleus like a loaded slingshot and then sends it careening back, giving rise to the emission of an attosecond light pulse. The Review also describes in general terms what events such light pulses can be used to track, ranging from electron rearrangements in chemical bonding to conduction dynamics in metallic solids.

Goulielmakis et al. (p. 769) take a more in-depth look at the laser techniques that create and detect attosecond pulses. Their Review also details the prospects not only of passively probing electron motions, but of actively manipulating and controlling them.

In keeping with the uncertainty principle, compressing a light pulse's duration must also broaden its spectral bandwidth. Thus, attosecond pulses extend into the x-ray region of the electromagnetic spectrum. Kapteyn et al. (p. 775) describe efforts to harness this feature of the technology in diffraction and imaging experiments, which would otherwise depend on much more elaborate x-ray generation apparatus.

Optical technology continues to evolve. It seems that just as events at the atomic seal are at last observed with precision, they bring into view a new series of blurs, previously unappreciated. Then the quest begins for an even faster stopwatch.

- IAN OSBORNE AND JAKE YESTON

Harnessing Attosecond Science in the Quest for Coherent X-rays

Henry Kapteyn, Oren Cohen, Ivan Christov, Margaret Murnane*

Modern laser technology has revolutionized the sensitivity and precision of spectroscopy by providing coherent light in a spectrum spanning the infrared, visible, and ultraviolet wavelength regimes. However, the generation of shorter-wavelength coherent pulses in the x-ray region has proven much more challenging. The recent emergence of high harmonic generation techniques opens the door to this possibility. Here we review the new science that is enabled by an ability to manipulate and control electrons on attosecond time scales, ranging from new tabletop sources of coherent x-rays to an ability to follow complex electron dynamics in molecules and materials. We also explore the implications of these advances for the future of molecular structural characterization schemes that currently rely so heavily on scattering from incoherent x-ray sources.

Soft X-ray—Driven Femtosecond Molecular Dynamics

Etienne Gagnon, ¹ Predrag Ranitovic, ² Xiao-Min Tong, ³ C. L. Cocke, ² Margaret M. Murnane, ¹ Henry C. Kapteyn, ¹ Arvinder S. Sandhu ¹*

Attosecond electron wave packet interferometry

T. REMETTER¹, P. JOHNSSON¹, J. MAURITSSON², K. VARJÚ¹, Y. NI³, F. LÉPINE³, E. GUSTAFSSON¹, M. KLING³, J. KHAN³, R. LÓPEZ-MARTENS⁴, K. J. SCHAFER², M. J. J. VRAKKING³ AND A. L'HUILLIER^{1*}

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Science





PHYSICAL REVIEW

VOLUME 75, NUMBER 12

JUNE 15, 1949

On the Classical Radiation of Accelerated Electrons

Julian Schwinger Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts (Received March 8, 1949)

This paper is concerned with the properties of the radiation from a high energy accelerated electron, as recently observed in the General Electric synchrotron. An elementary derivation of the total rate of radiation is first presented, based on Larmor's formula for a slowly moving electron, and arguments of relativistic invariance. We then construct an expression for the instantaneous power radiated by an electron moving along an arbitrary, prescribed path. By casting this result into various forms, one obtains the angular distribution, the spectral distribution, or the combined angular and spectral distributions of the radiation. The method is based on an examination of the rate at which the electron irreversibly transfers energy to the electromagnetic field, as determined by half the difference of retarded and advanced electric field intensities. Formulas are obtained for an arbitrary chargecurrent distribution and then specialized to a point charge. The total radiated power and its angular distribution are obtained for an arbitrary trajectory. It is found that the direc-

tion of motion is a strongly preferred direction of emission at high energies. The spectral distribution of the radiation depends upon the detailed motion over a time interval large compared to the period of the radiation. However, the narrow cone of radiation generated by an energetic electron indicates that only a small part of the trajectory is effective in producing radiation observed in a given direction, which also implies that very high frequencies are emitted. Accordingly, we evaluate the spectral and angular distributions of the high frequency radiation by an energetic electron, in their dependence upon the parameters characterizing the instantaneous orbit. The average spectral distribution, as observed in the synchrotron measurements, is obtained by averaging the electron energy over an acceleration cycle. The entire spectrum emitted by an electron moving with constant speed in a circular path is also discussed. Finally, it is observed that quantum effects will modify the classical results here obtained only at extraordinarily large energies.





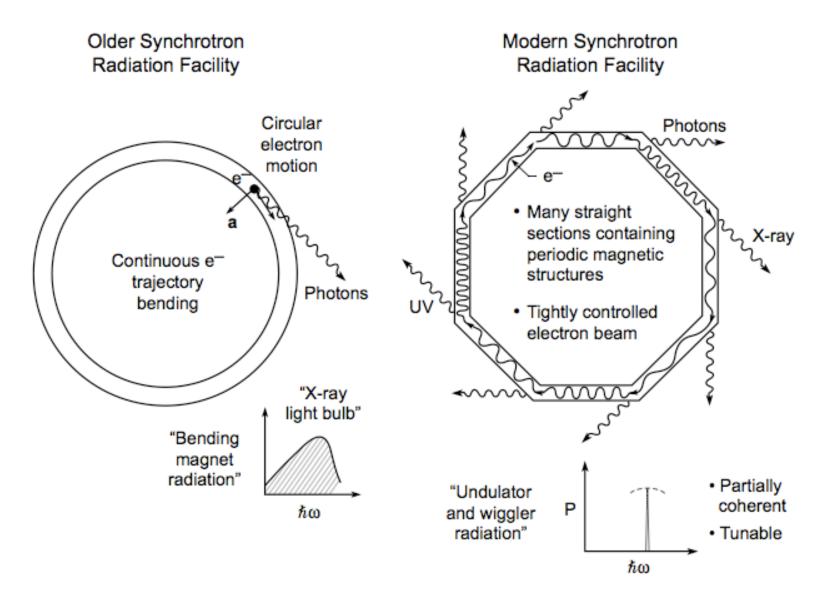






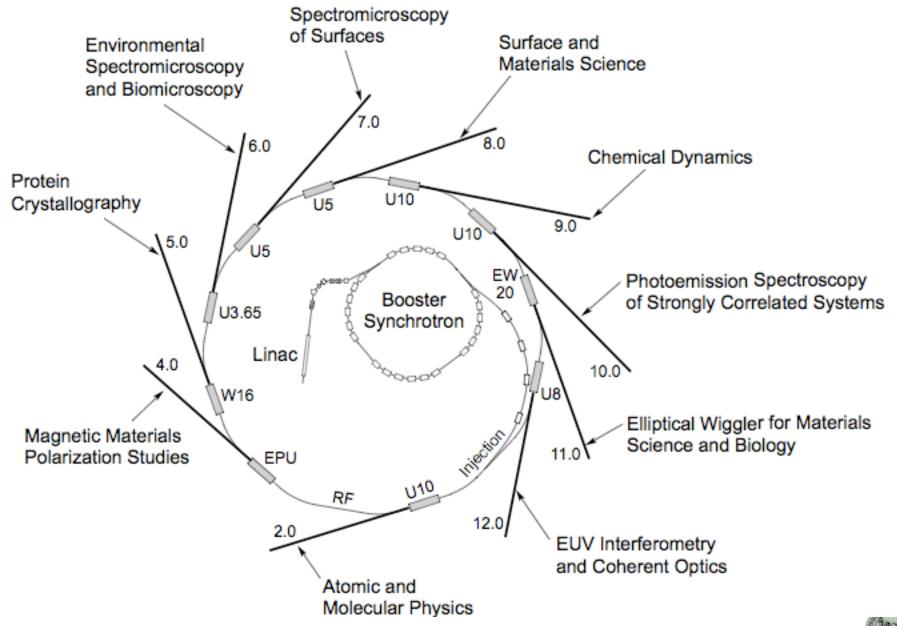




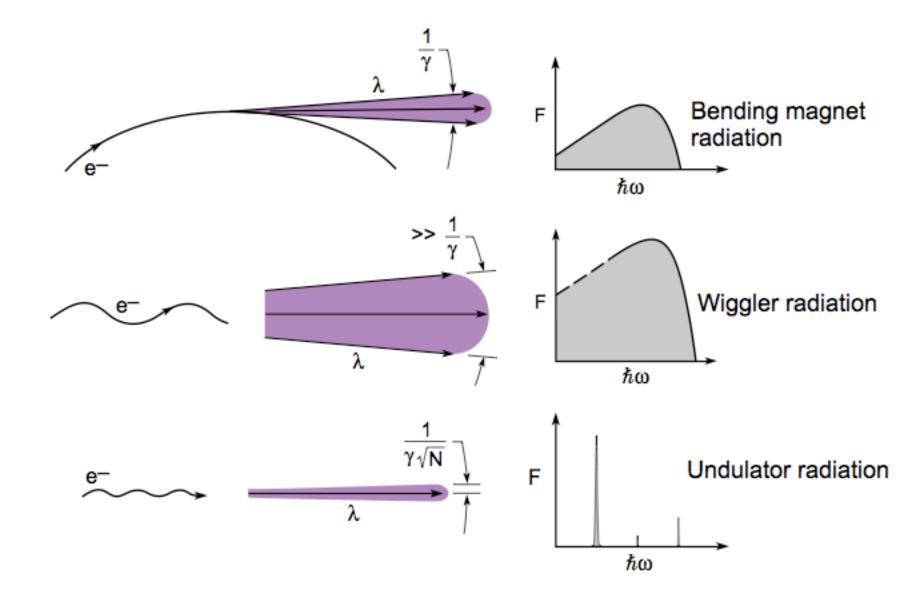
















Future light sources

Third generation x-ray sources Storage ring $\varepsilon \sim E^2/R$ $\tau_{lifetime} >> \tau_{relexation}$ bunch charge 1nC

·Many experiments

·Ready tunability

·High flux

ps pulses

ANL-08/39 BNL-81895-2008 LBNL-1090E-2009 **SLAC-R-917 Science and Technology** of Future Light Sources

Fourth generation x-ray sources LINAC source Energy-Recovery (=> FEL) LINAC $\epsilon \sim 1/E$ $\tau_{iifetime} \ll \tau_{relaxation}$ bunch charge ≤ 1 nC bunch charge < 100 pC Extremely high peak High average brilliance brilliance ·Full spatial coherence Full spatial coherence Many experiments Ultrashort (fs) pulses. ·Ready tunability Temporal coherence with ·High flux seeding in future Flexible pulse characteristics pulse rep. Rate 10² to 10⁶ Hz •Fs to ps pulse lengths

Scheme showing the combination of a superconducting linear accelerator with several return arcs and various X-FEL oscillators (from K.J. Kim).

•10% pulses/s

·Few experiments





Q = 50 pC, e5 = 0.1µ, Δτ ≤ 5 ps, f≥ 3 MHz

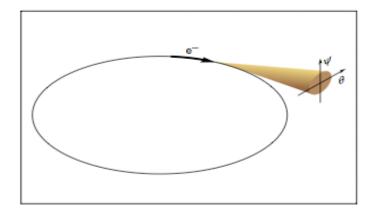
XELO (10-30 keV)

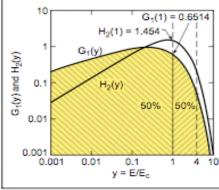
GeW 1 MHz

2.5 GeV, 9 M Iz

GeV,3 MHz

Bending Magnet Radiation



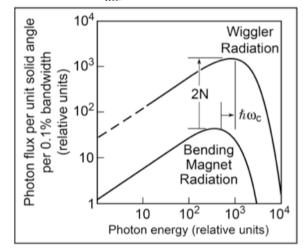


y	$G_1(y)$	$H_2(y)$
0.0010	2.131×10^{-1}	2.910×10^{-2}
0.0100	4.450×10^{-1}	1.348×10^{-1}
0.1000	8.182×10^{-1}	6.025×10^{-1}
0.3000	9.177×10^{-1}	1.111×10^{0}
0.5000	8.708×10^{-1}	1.356×10^{0}
0.7000	7.879×10^{-1}	1.458×10^{0}
1.000	6.514×10^{-1}	1.454×10^{0}
3.000	1.286×10^{-1}	5.195×10^{-1}
5.000	2.125×10^{-2}	1.131×10^{-1}
7.000	3.308×10^{-3}	2.107×10^{-2}
10.00	1.922×10^{-4}	1.478×10^{-3}

$$E_c = \hbar \omega_c = \frac{3e \, \hbar B \gamma^2}{2m} \tag{5.7a}$$

$$E_c(\text{keV}) = 0.6650E_e^2(\text{GeV})B(\text{T})$$
 (5.7b)

$$\gamma = \frac{E_c}{mc^2} = 1957E_c(\text{GeV}) \qquad (5.5)$$



$$\left. \frac{d^3 F_B}{d\theta \ d\psi \ d\omega / \omega} \right|_{\psi=0} = 1.33 \times 10^{13} E_e^2 (\text{GeV}) I(\text{A}) H_2(E/E_c) \frac{\text{photons/s}}{\text{mrad}^2 \cdot (0.1\% \text{ BW})}$$
(5.6)

$$\frac{d^2 F_B}{d\theta \, d\omega/\omega} = 2.46 \times 10^{13} E_e (\text{GeV}) I(\text{A}) G_1(E/E_c) \frac{\text{photons/s}}{\text{mrad} \cdot (0.1\% \text{BW})}$$
 (5.8)

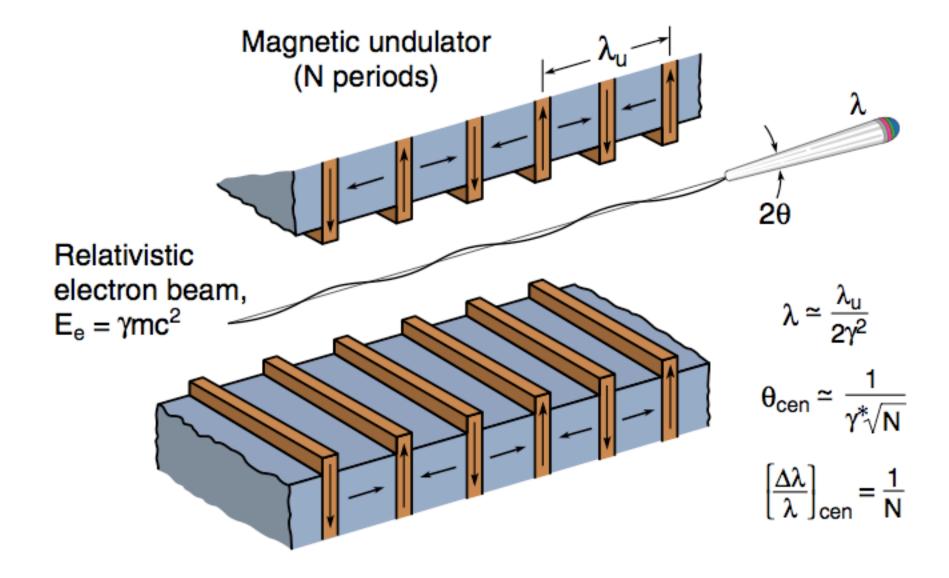
 F_{B} = Integrated Photon Flux

Problem: Calculate the differential flux per unit angle and unit frequency for $y(E/E_c) = 5$, I = 0.5 A and $E_e = 3$ GeV





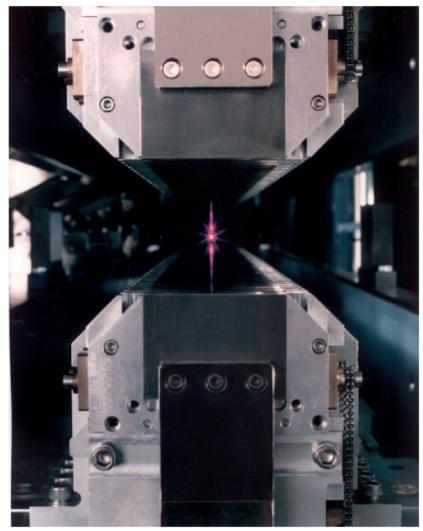
SR Undulators 1



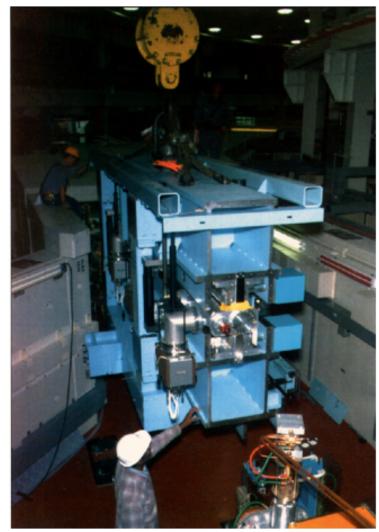




SR Undulators 2



ALS U5 undulator, beamline 7.0, N = 89, λ_u = 50 mm



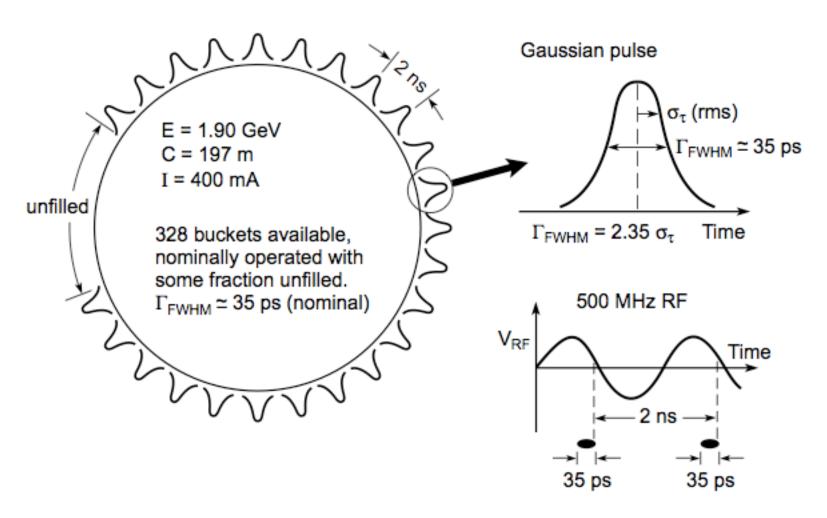
ALS Beamline 9.0 (May 1994), N = 55, $\lambda_u = 80 \text{ mm}$





SR Electron bunches

The axial electric field within the RF cavity, used to replenish lost (radiated) energy, forms a potential well "bucket" system that forces electrons into axial electron "bunches". This leads to a time structure in the emitted radiation.





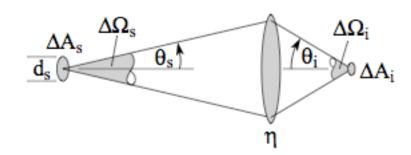


Brightness 1

Brightness is defined as radiated power per unit area and per unit solid angle at the source:

$$B = \frac{\Delta P}{\Delta A \cdot \Delta \Omega} \tag{5.57}$$

Brightness is a conserved quantity in perfect optical systems, and thus is useful in designing beamlines and synchrotron radiation experiments which involve focusing to small areas.

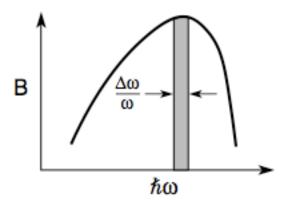


Perfect optical system:

$$\Delta A_s \cdot \Delta \Omega_s = \Delta A_i \cdot \Delta \Omega_i$$
; $\eta = 100\%$

Spectral brightness is that portion of the brightness lying within a relative spectral bandwidth $\Delta\omega/\omega$:

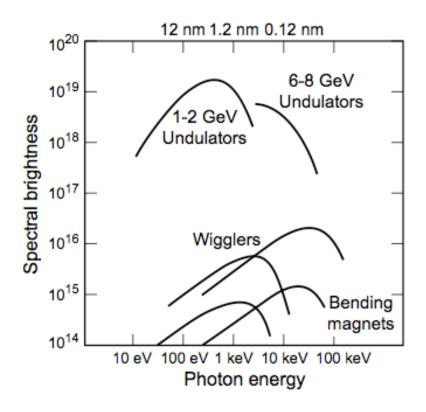
$$B_{\Delta\omega/\omega} = \frac{\Delta P}{\Delta A \cdot \Delta \Omega \cdot \Delta \omega/\omega}$$
 (5.58)



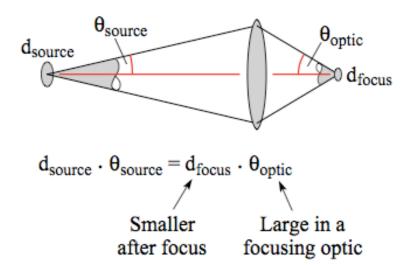




Brightness 2



 Brightness is conserved (in lossless optical systems)



 Starting with many photons in a small source area and solid angle, permits high photon flux in an even smaller area





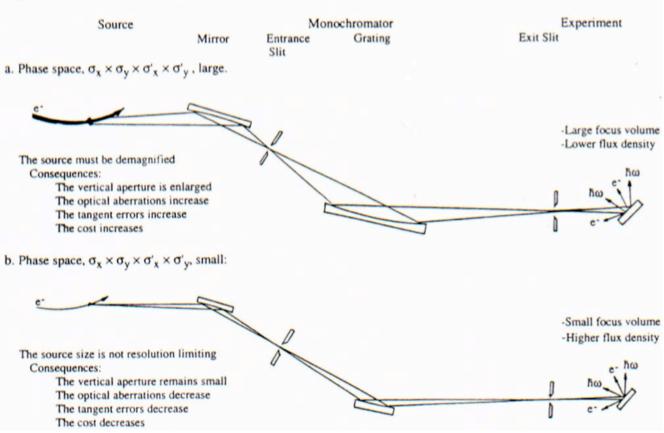
Brightness 3

Brilliance =
$$\frac{\Phi}{\sigma_x \sigma_y \sigma_x' \sigma_y' BW}$$

where:

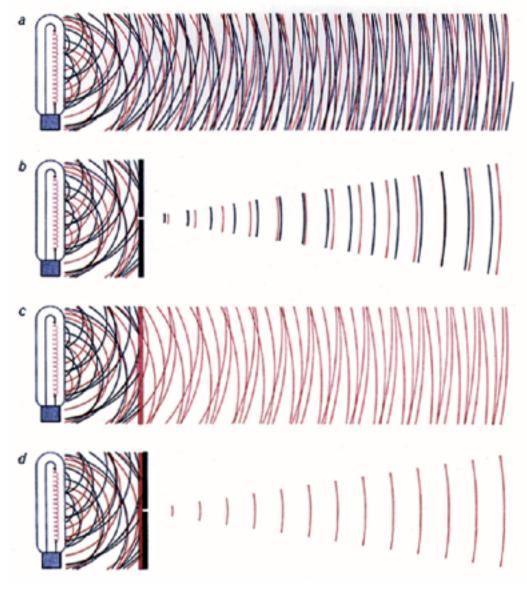
 Φ is the photon flux $\sigma_{x,y}$ are the source sizes $\sigma'_{x,y}$ are the source divergences BW is the bandwidth

Figure 1.2.1: The Practical Meaning of Brilliance









Courtesy of A. Schawlow, Stanford.





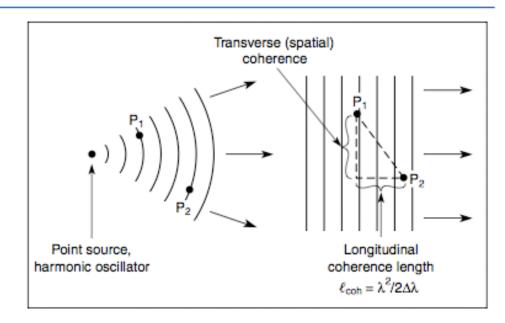
Mutual coherence factor

$$\Gamma_{12}(\tau) \equiv \langle E_1(t+\tau)E_2^*(t)\rangle \tag{8.1}$$

Normalize degree of spatial coherence (complex coherence factor)

$$\mu_{12} = \frac{\langle E_1(t)E_2^*(t)\rangle}{\sqrt{\langle |E_1|^2\rangle}\sqrt{\langle |E_2|^2\rangle}}$$
(8.12)

A high degree of coherence ($\mu \to 1$) implies an ability to form a high contrast interference (fringe) pattern. A low degree of coherence ($\mu \to 0$) implies an absence of interference, except with great care. In general radiation is partially coherent.



Longitudinal (temporal) coherence length

$$\ell_{\rm coh} = \frac{\lambda^2}{2 \Delta \lambda} \tag{8.3}$$

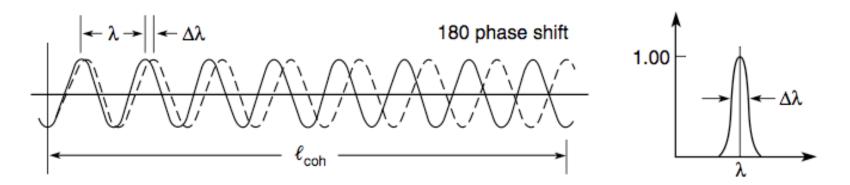
Full spatial (transverse) coherence

$$d \cdot \theta = \lambda/2\pi \tag{8.5}$$

See any text book of OPTICS







Define a coherence length ℓ_{coh} as the distance of propagation over which radiation of spectral width $\Delta\lambda$ becomes 180° out of phase. For a wavelength λ propagating through N cycles

$$\ell_{\rm coh} = N\lambda$$

and for a wavelength $\lambda + \Delta \lambda$, a half cycle less $(N - \frac{1}{2})$

$$\ell_{coh} = (N - \frac{1}{2}) (\lambda + \Delta \lambda)$$

Equating the two

$$N = \lambda/2\Delta\lambda$$

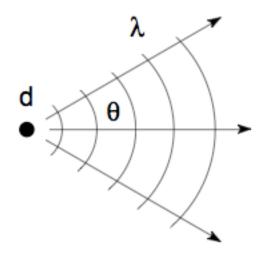
so that

$$\ell_{\rm coh} = \frac{\lambda^2}{2 \Delta \lambda} \tag{8.3}$$





- Associate spatial coherence with a spherical wavefront.
- A spherical wavefront implies a point source.
- How small is a "point source"?



From Heisenberg's Uncertainty Principle ($\Delta x \cdot \Delta p \ge \frac{\hbar}{2}$), the smallest source size "d" you can resolve, with wavelength λ and half angle θ , is

$$\mathbf{d} \cdot \boldsymbol{\theta} = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi}$$





 $\Delta \mathbf{x} \cdot \Delta \mathbf{p} \geq \hbar/2$

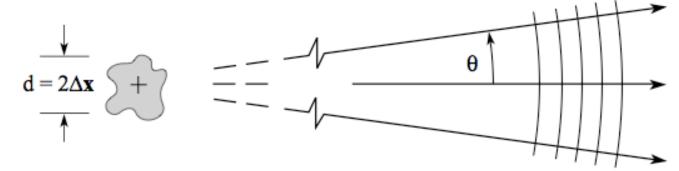
(8.4)

Standard deviations of Gaussian distributed functions (Tipler, 1978, pp. 174-189)

 $\Delta \mathbf{x} \cdot \hbar \Delta \mathbf{k} \geq \hbar/2$

 $\Delta \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{k} \Delta \theta \ge 1/2$

 $2\Delta \mathbf{x} \cdot \Delta \theta \ge \lambda / 2\pi$



Note:

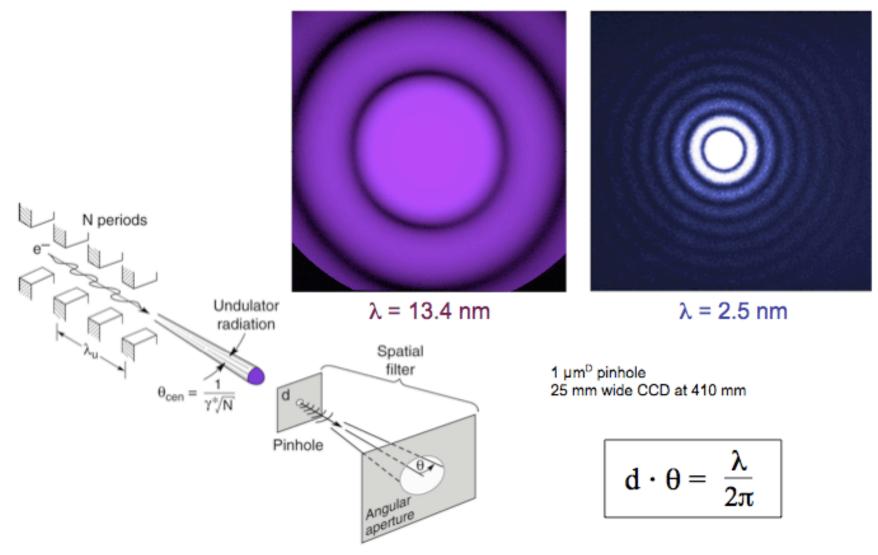
Spherical wavefronts occur in the limiting case

or

$$(d \cdot 2\theta)_{FWHM} \simeq \lambda/2$$
 FWHM quantities





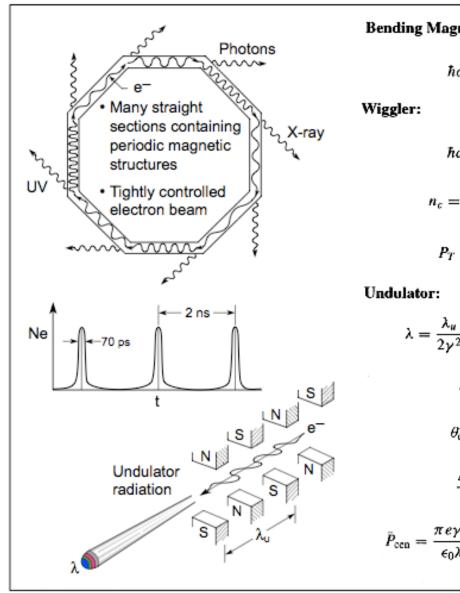


Courtesy of Patrick Naulleau, LBNL / Kris Rosfjord, UCB and LBNL





SR BM-Wiggler-Undulator –Summary 1



Bending Magnet:

$$\hbar\omega_c = \frac{3e\hbar B\gamma^2}{2m} \tag{5.7}$$

$$\hbar\omega_c = \frac{3e\hbar B\gamma^2}{2m} \qquad (5.80)$$

$$n_c = \frac{3K}{4} \left(1 + \frac{K^2}{2} \right) \tag{5.82}$$

$$P_T = \frac{\pi e K^2 \gamma^2 I N}{3\epsilon_0 \lambda_u} \tag{5.85}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{\lambda_u}{2\gamma^2} \left(1 + \frac{K^2}{2} + \gamma^2 \theta^2 \right) \quad (5.28)$$

$$K = \frac{eB_0\lambda_u}{2\pi mc} \tag{5.18}$$

$$\theta_{\text{cen}} = \frac{1}{\gamma^* \sqrt{N}} \tag{5.15}$$

$$\frac{\Delta \lambda}{\lambda}\Big|_{con} = \frac{1}{N}$$
 (5.14)

$$\bar{P}_{\text{cen}} = \frac{\pi e \gamma^2 I}{\epsilon_0 \lambda_u} \frac{K^2}{\left(1 + \frac{K^2}{2}\right)^2} f(K) \quad (5.41)$$





SR BM-Wiggler-Undulator –Summary 2

Bending magnet radiation

- Broad spectrum
- Good photon flux
- No heat load
- Less expensive
- · Easier access

Wiggler radiation

- Higher photon energies
- More photon flux
- Expensive magnet structure
- Expensive cooled optics
- Less access

Undulator radiation

- Brighter radiation
- Smaller spot size
- Partial coherence
- Expensive
- Less access

Problem: Describe the main differences in terms of physical mechanisms among A BM a wiggler and an undulator

