

Basic magnetic measurement methods

Magnetic materials in nanoelectronics

- **properties and fabrication**



Magnetic measurements in nanoelectronics

1. Vibrating sample magnetometry and related methods
2. Magneto-optical methods
3. Other methods

Introduction

Magnetization is a quantity of interest in many measurements involving spintronic materials

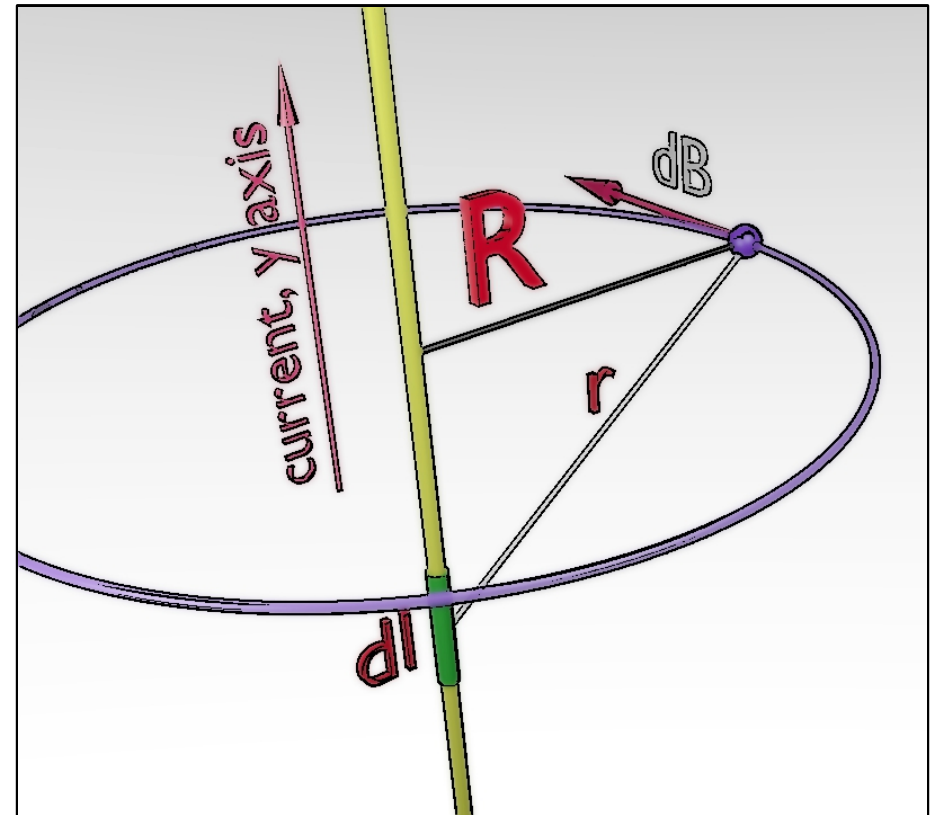
- Biot-Savart law (1820) (Jean-Baptiste Biot (1774-1862), Félix Savart (1791-1841))

Magnetic field (the proper name is magnetic flux density [1]*) of a current carrying piece of conductor is given by:

$$d\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi} \frac{\hat{dl} \times \vec{r}}{|\vec{r}|^3}$$

$$\mu_0 = 4\pi \cdot 10^{-7} \text{ Hm}^{-1} \text{ - vacuum permeability}$$

- The unit of the magnetic flux density, Tesla (1 T=1 Wb/m²), as a derive unit of Si must be based on some measurement (force, magnetic resonance)



*the alternative name is magnetic induction

Introduction

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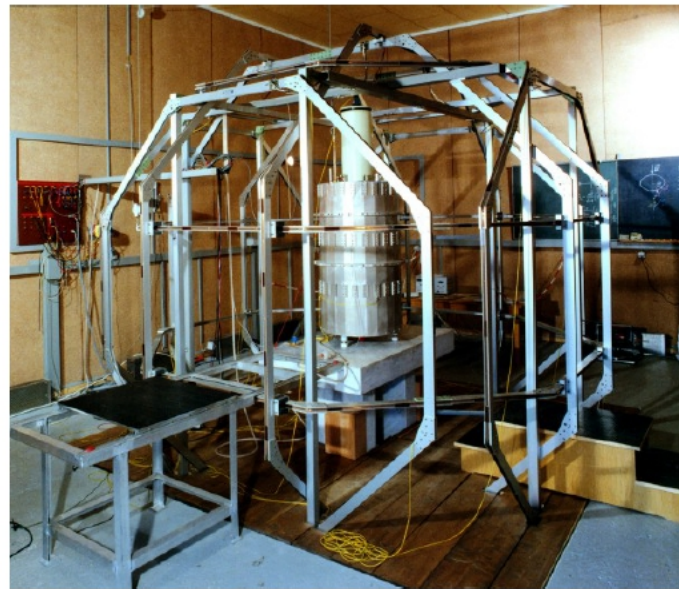
$$d\vec{B} = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi} \frac{\hat{dl} \times \vec{r}}{|\vec{r}|^3}$$

$$\mu_0 = 4\pi \cdot 10^{-7} \text{ Hm}^{-1} \text{ - vacuum permeability}$$

- The Physikalisch-Technische Bundesanstalt (German national metrology institute) maintains a unit Tesla in form of coils with coil constant k (ratio of the magnetic flux density to the coil current) determined based on NMR measurements

Figure 1:

Arrangement of Braunbek coils for compensation of the three components of the earth's magnetic field



graphics from:

http://www.ptb.de/cms/fileadmin/internet/fachabteilungen/abteilung_2/2.5_halbleiterphysik_und_magnetismus/2.51/realization.pdf

*the alternative name is magnetic induction

Introduction

It can be shown that magnetic flux density can be expressed as*:

$$\vec{B}(\vec{r}) = \nabla \times \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \int \frac{j(\vec{r}')}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|} d^3 r'$$

This is called **magnetic vector potential**

$$\vec{B}(\vec{r}) = \nabla \times \vec{A}(\vec{r})$$

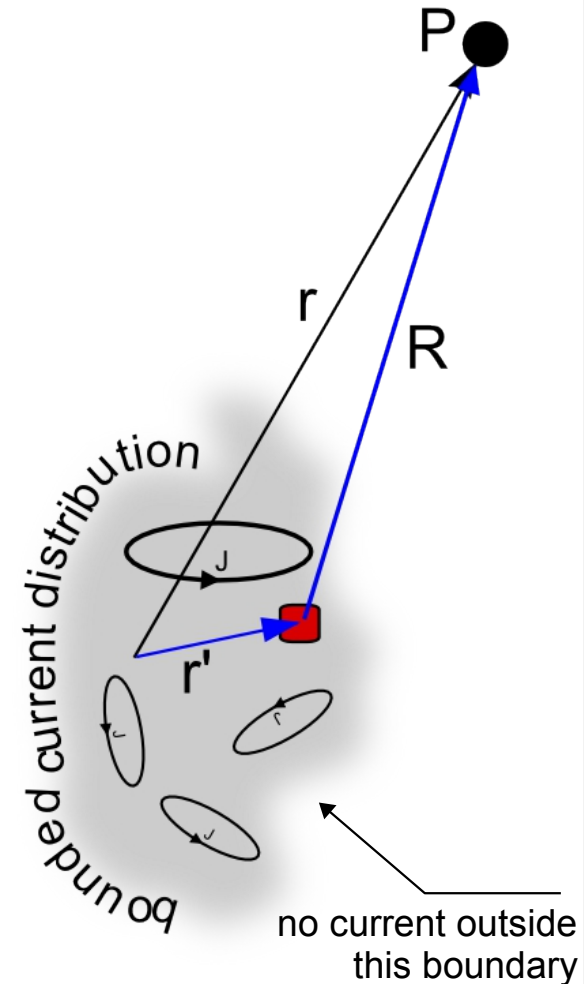
It can be further shown that the vector potential created by bounded current density at positions outside the bounding surface and far from it can be approximated by*:

$$\vec{A}(\vec{r}) = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{1}{|\vec{r}|^3} \vec{r} \times \int (\vec{r}' \times j(\vec{r}')) d^3 r'$$

This is a multipole expansion of the potential of the current distribution limited to two first terms of the expansion*:

$$\frac{1}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|} = \frac{1}{|\vec{r}|} + \frac{\vec{r} \cdot \vec{r}'}{|\vec{r}|^3} + \dots$$

$\vec{j}(\vec{r}')$ - current density [A/m²]



*see for example my lecture *Magnetic field and its sources* from 2012 and references therein (http://www.ifmpan.poznan.pl/urbaniak/Wyklady2012/urbifmpan2012lect1_04powy.pdf)

Introduction

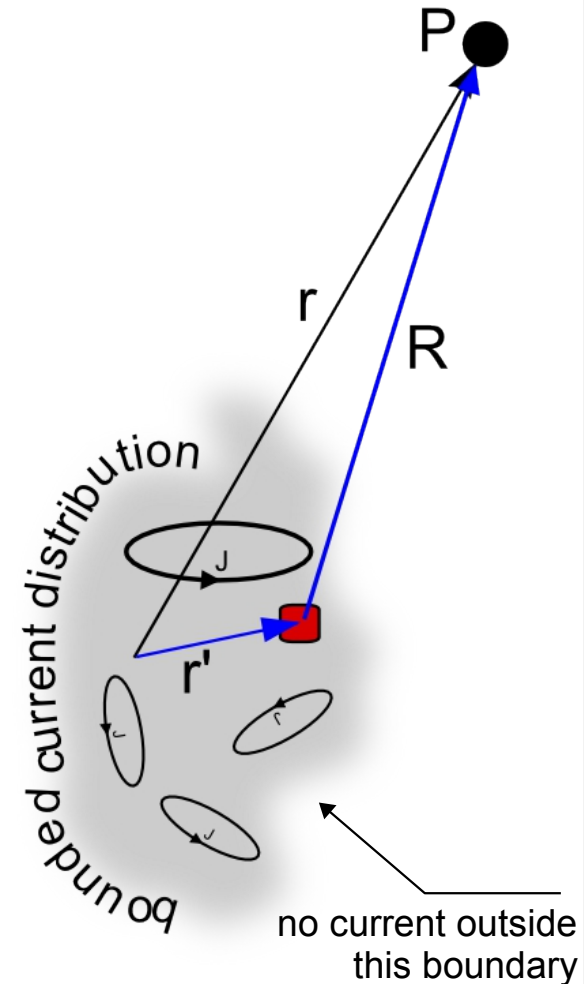
It follows that if a distance r from the observation point P to the current distribution is much greater than the size of region containing current the material/ sample can be characterized by its second moment:

$$\vec{A}(\vec{r}) = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{1}{|\vec{r}|^3} \vec{r} \times \int (\vec{r}' \times \vec{j}(\vec{r}')) d^3 r'$$

We define **magnetic dipole moment** of current distribution [2]:

$$\vec{m} = \frac{1}{2} \int (\vec{r}' \times \vec{j}(\vec{r}')) d^3 r' \quad \left[m \cdot \frac{A}{m^2} \cdot m^3 = A \cdot m^2 \right]$$

- when viewed from far away the details of the current flow within the sample are irrelevant
- the current can be replaced by its dipole moment



Introduction

We define **magnetic dipole moment** of current distribution [2]:

$$\vec{m} = \frac{1}{2} \int (\vec{r}' \times \vec{j}(\vec{r}')) d^3 r' \quad \left[m \cdot \frac{A}{m^2} \cdot m^3 = A \cdot m^2 \right]$$

The integrand of the above expression is called **magnetization**

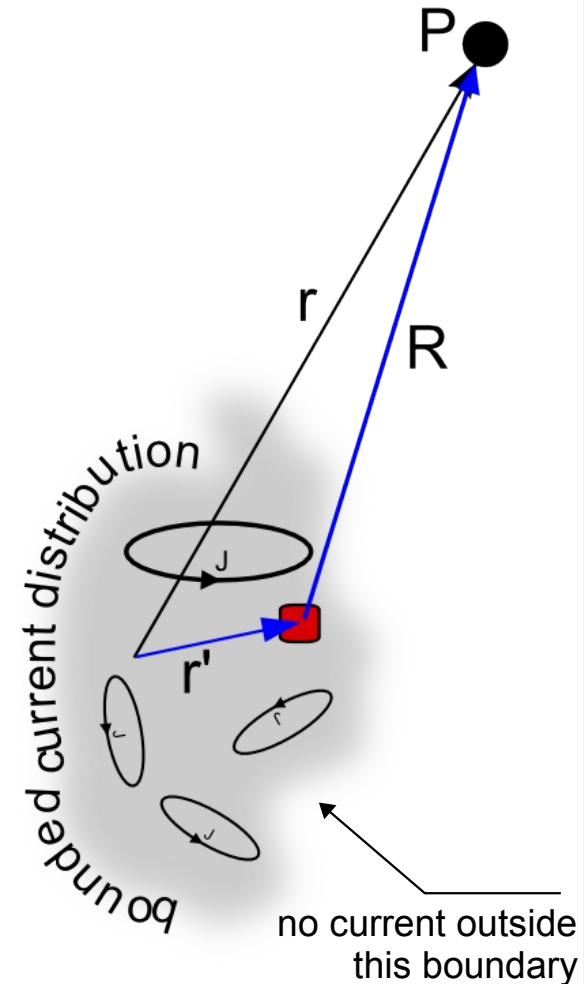
$$\vec{M}(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{2} \vec{r} \times \vec{j}(\vec{r})$$

$$M_{\text{Fe}} \approx 1.7 \times 10^6 \text{ A/m}$$

$$M_{\text{Co}} \approx 1.4 \times 10^6 \text{ A/m}$$

$$M_{\text{Ni}} \approx 0.5 \times 10^6 \text{ A/m}$$

at RT



Introduction

We define **magnetic dipole moment** of current distribution [2]:

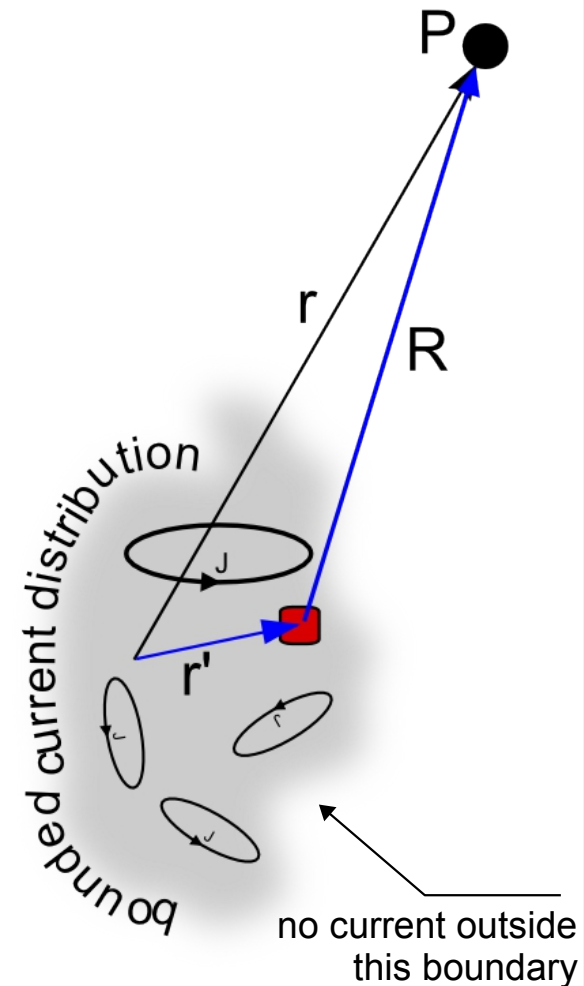
$$\vec{m} = \frac{1}{2} \int (\vec{r}' \times \vec{j}(\vec{r}')) d^3 r' \quad \left[m \cdot \frac{A}{m^2} \cdot m^3 = A \cdot m^2 \right]$$

It can be further shown that (still far away from the current) that*:

$$\vec{B}(\vec{r}) = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{3\hat{r}(\vec{m} \cdot \hat{r}) - \vec{m}}{|\vec{r}|^3}$$

We should compare it with the expression for the field of **electric dipole** [2, 3]:

$$\vec{E}(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{3\hat{r}(\vec{p} \cdot \hat{r}) - \vec{p}}{|\vec{r}|^3}$$



*see for example my lecture *Magnetic field and its sources* from 2012 and references therein (http://www.ifmpan.poznan.pl/urbaniak/Wyklady2012/urbifmpan2012lect1_04powy.pdf)

Introduction

Unless one is involved in investigations of neutron stars [4], nuclear physics [5],

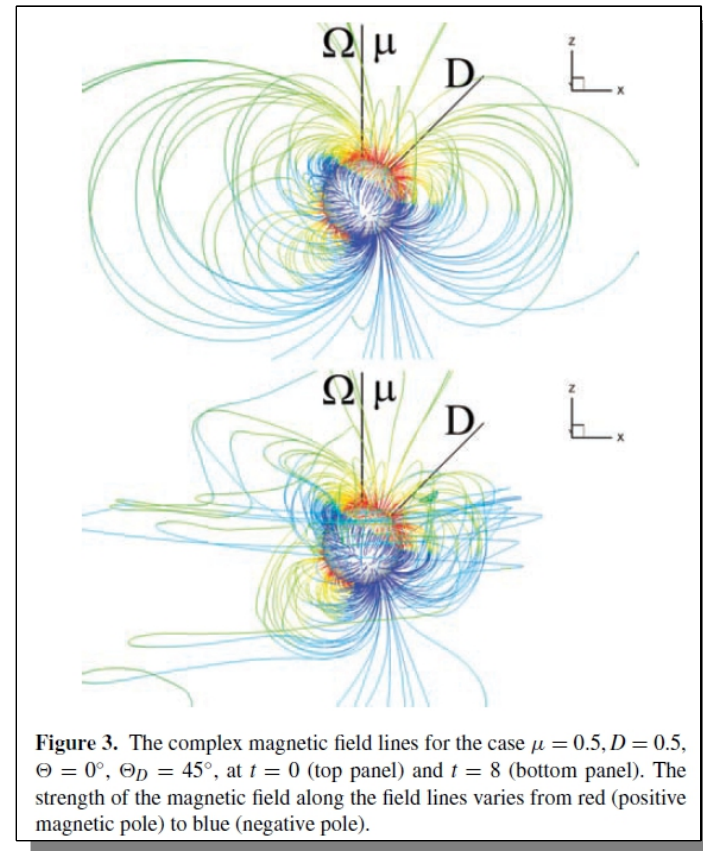
misaligned magnetic dipole and magnetic quadrupole

..., or design of magnets



graphics from Wikimedia Commons; author: ijron

Quadrupole focusing magnet as used in the storage ring at the Australian Synchrotron, Clayton, Victoria.



...it is usually enough to use magnetic dipole approximation

graphics from: M. Long, M. M. Romanova and R. V. E. Lovelace Mon. Not. R. Astron. Soc. **386**, 1274 (2008)

Introduction

Magnetic field strength H

We distinguish two types of currents contributing to magnetic field:

- **the free currents** – flowing in lossy circuits (coils, electromagnets) or superconducting coils; in general one can influence (switch on/off) and measure free currents
- **the bound currents** – due to intratomic or intramolecular currents and to magnetic moments of elementary particles with spin [6]

It can be shown that*:

$$\vec{A}(\vec{r}) = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \int \frac{j_{free}(\vec{r}') + \nabla' \times \vec{M}(\vec{r}')}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|} d^3 r'$$

The effect of magnetic moment distribution on magnetic field is the same as that of current distribution given by:

$$\vec{j}_{bound}(\vec{r}) = \nabla \times \vec{M}(\vec{r})$$

*see for example my lecture *Magnetic field and its sources* from 2012 and references therein (http://www.ifmpan.poznan.pl/urbaniak/Wyklady2012/urbifmpan2012lect1_04powy.pdf)

Introduction

Magnetic field strength H^{**}

- From Biot-Savart law we have:

$$\nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{j}(\vec{r}) = \mu_0 \vec{j}_{free} + \mu_0 \vec{j}_{bound} = \mu_0 \vec{j}_{free} + \mu_0 \nabla \times \vec{M} \quad (1)$$

- We introduce a vector:

$$\vec{H} = \frac{1}{\mu_0} \vec{B} - \vec{M}$$

In cgs system*:

$$\vec{H} = \vec{B} - 4\pi \vec{M}$$

- From (1) we have:

$$\nabla \times \vec{B} - \mu_0 \nabla \times \vec{M} = \mu_0 \nabla \times \left(\frac{1}{\mu_0} \vec{B} - \vec{M} \right) = \mu_0 \vec{j}_{free}$$

- It follows that the rotation of field strength **H is determined solely by the free currents**:

$$\nabla \times \vec{H} = \vec{j}_{free}$$

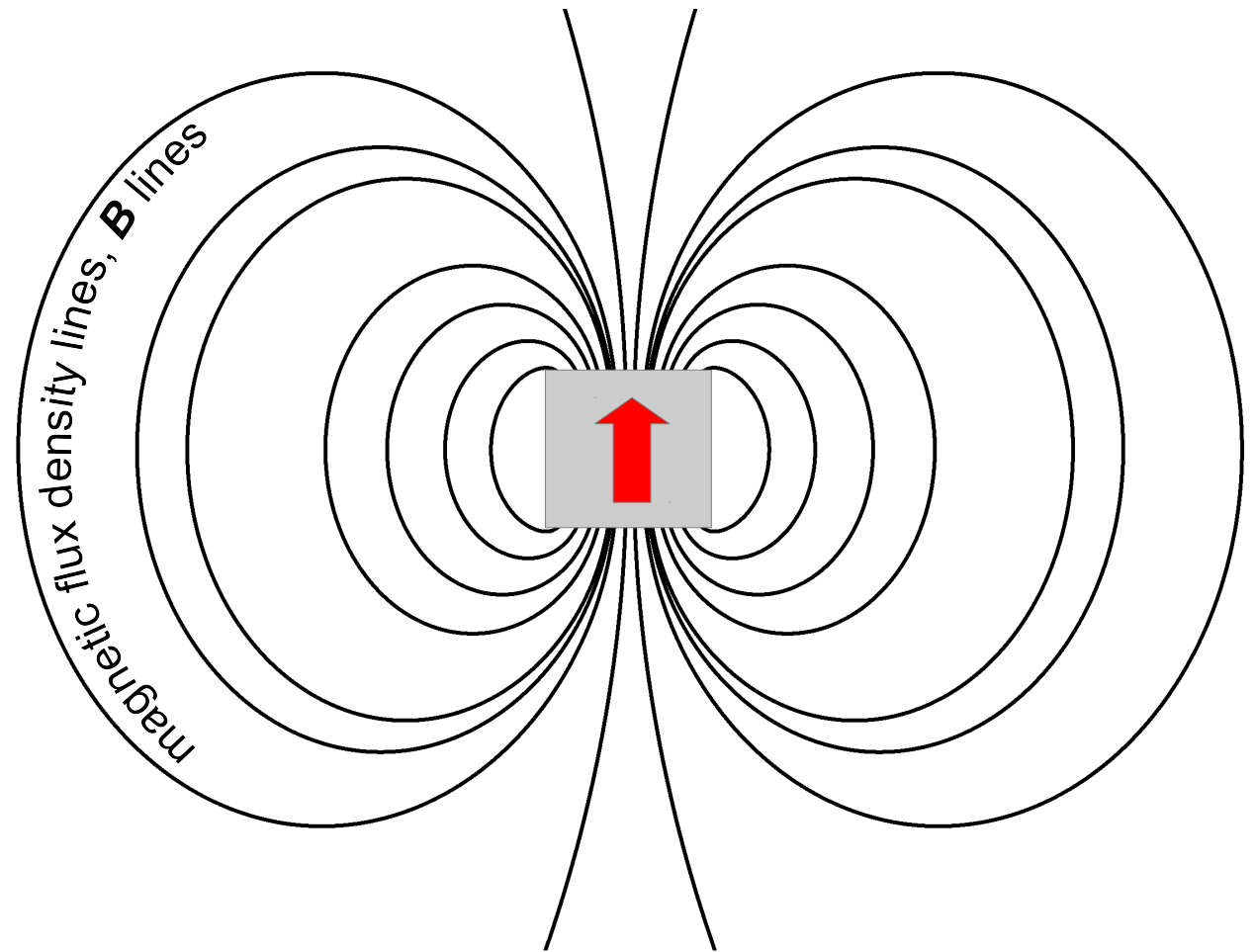
- In general $\nabla \cdot \vec{H} \neq 0$ i.e. magnetic field strength is not source-free.

**this section is taken from K.J. Ebeling and J. Mähnß [3]

*it is an obsolete system but there are still some active users (<http://bohr.physics.berkeley.edu/classes/221/1112/notes/emunits.pdf>)

Introduction

Magnetic field strength H

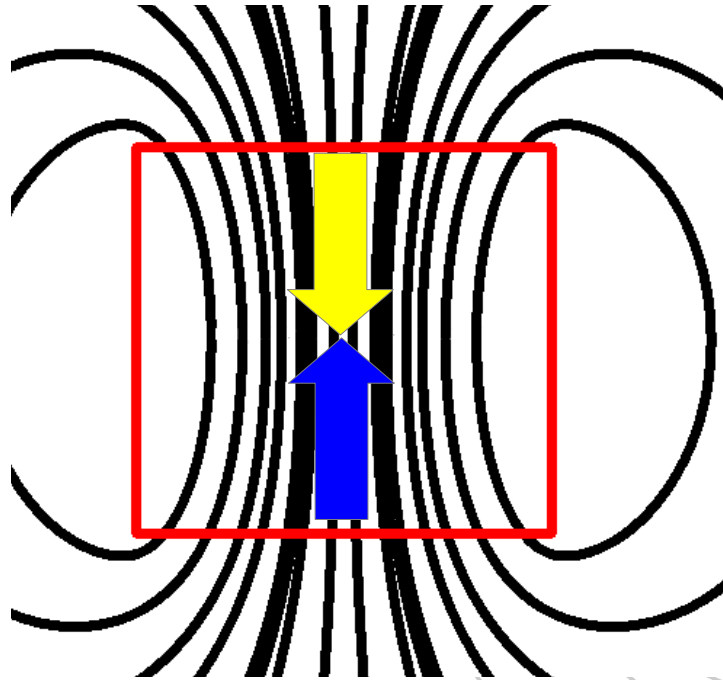


B field lines of a rectangular magnet, **magnetized** upward, and infinite in third dimension

- In general $\nabla \cdot \vec{H} \neq 0$ i.e. magnetic field strength is not source-free.

Introduction

Magnetic field strength H



$$\vec{H} = \frac{1}{\mu_0} \vec{B} - \vec{M}$$

- within the magnet the H and B fields are roughly antiparallel
- outside the magnet the fields coincide in direction (since $M=0$)

B field lines of a rectangular magnet, **magnetized** upward, and infinite in third dimension

B lines are source free

- In general $\nabla \cdot \vec{H} \neq 0$ i.e. magnetic field strength is not source-free.

Introduction

Magnetoreception

- “The magnetic field of the Earth provides a pervasive and reliable source of directional information that certain animals can use as an orientation cue while migrating, homing, or moving around their habitat.” - Sönke Johnsen and Kenneth J. Lohmann
- Diverse animal species (bees, salamanders, turtles, birds etc.) possess magnetoreceptive senses
- Humans do not seem to have the ability to sense either direction or the intensity of magnetic field.



Figure 2. Bacterial magnetoreceptors. Transmission electron micrograph of the bacterium *Magnetospirillum magnetotacticum* showing the chain of magnetosomes inside the cell. The magnetite crystal incorporated in each magnetosome is about 42 nm long. (Image courtesy of Dennis Bazylinski.)

- Magnetobacterias possess **magnetosomes containing magnetic materials** (single domain size range; for example magnetite Fe_3O_4)
- The torque on chain of magnetosomes is strong enough to turn the entire bacteria along magnetic field direction (field inclination). They use this to sense what direction is “down” - they prefer deeper, less oxygenated mud.
- In higher animals the mechanical sensors in cells are supposed to detect the rotation of magnetosomes.

Introduction

Magnetoreception

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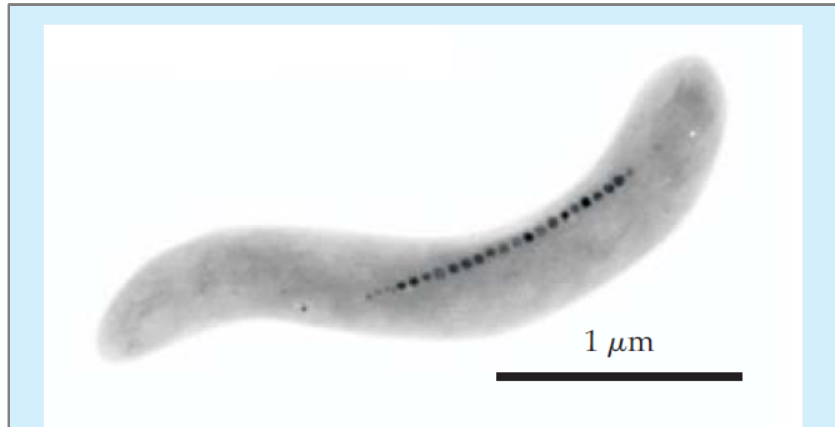
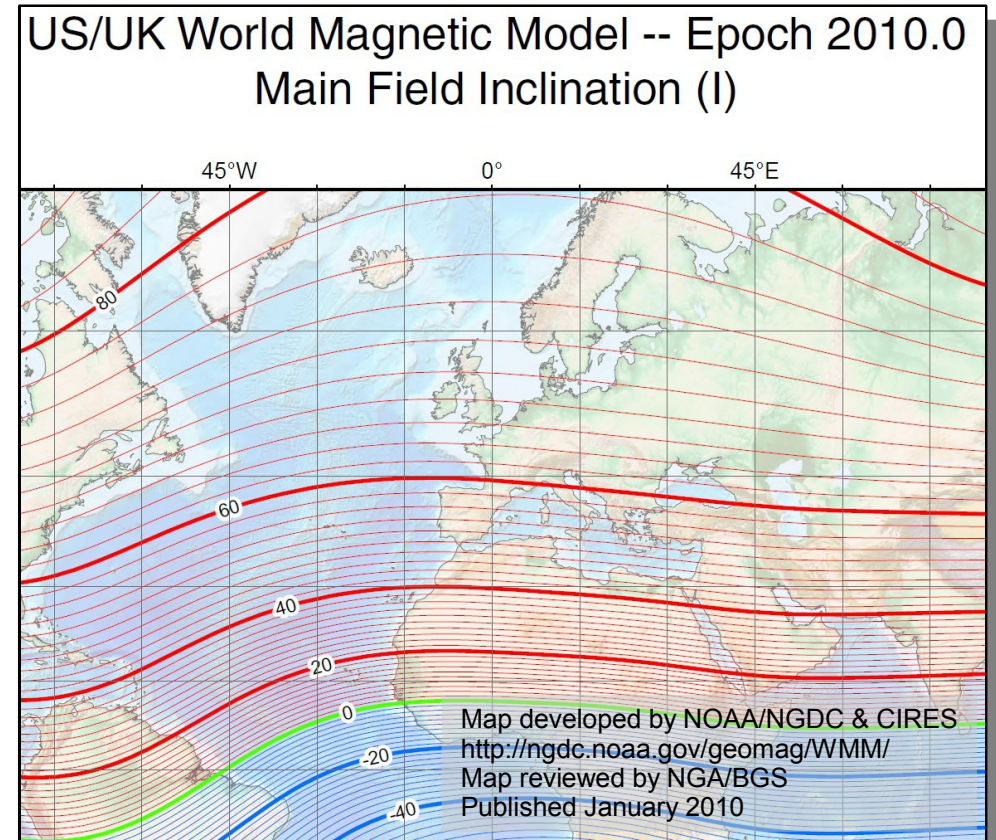


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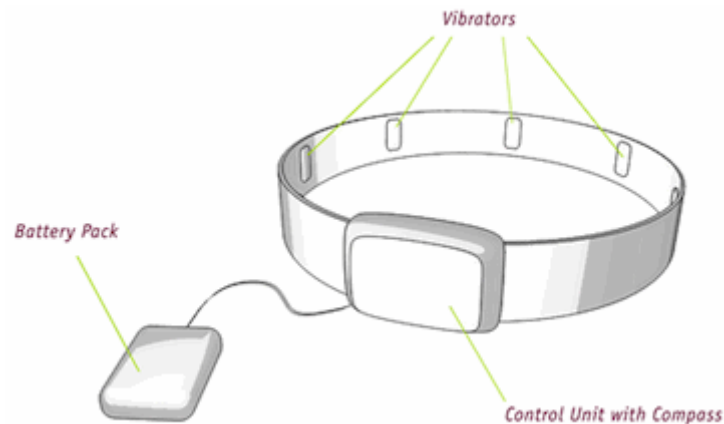


Introduction

Magnetoreception

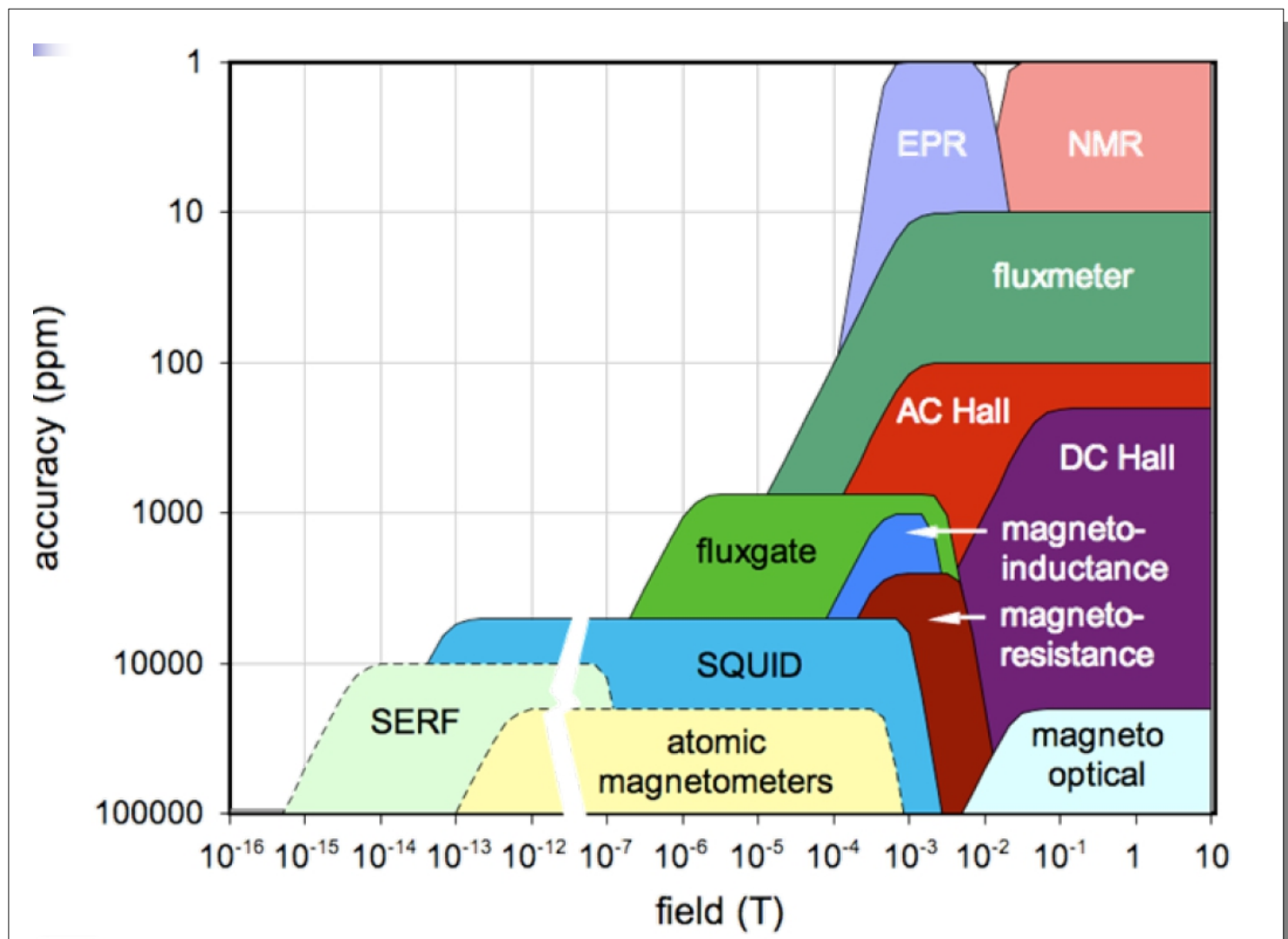
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The research is underway to incorporate magnetic field sensing into humans (*“The **feelSpace** belt is a wearable sensory augmentation device that projects the direction of north onto the waist of the user using thirty vibrating actuators.”*)



Introduction

Measurement of magnetic field strength



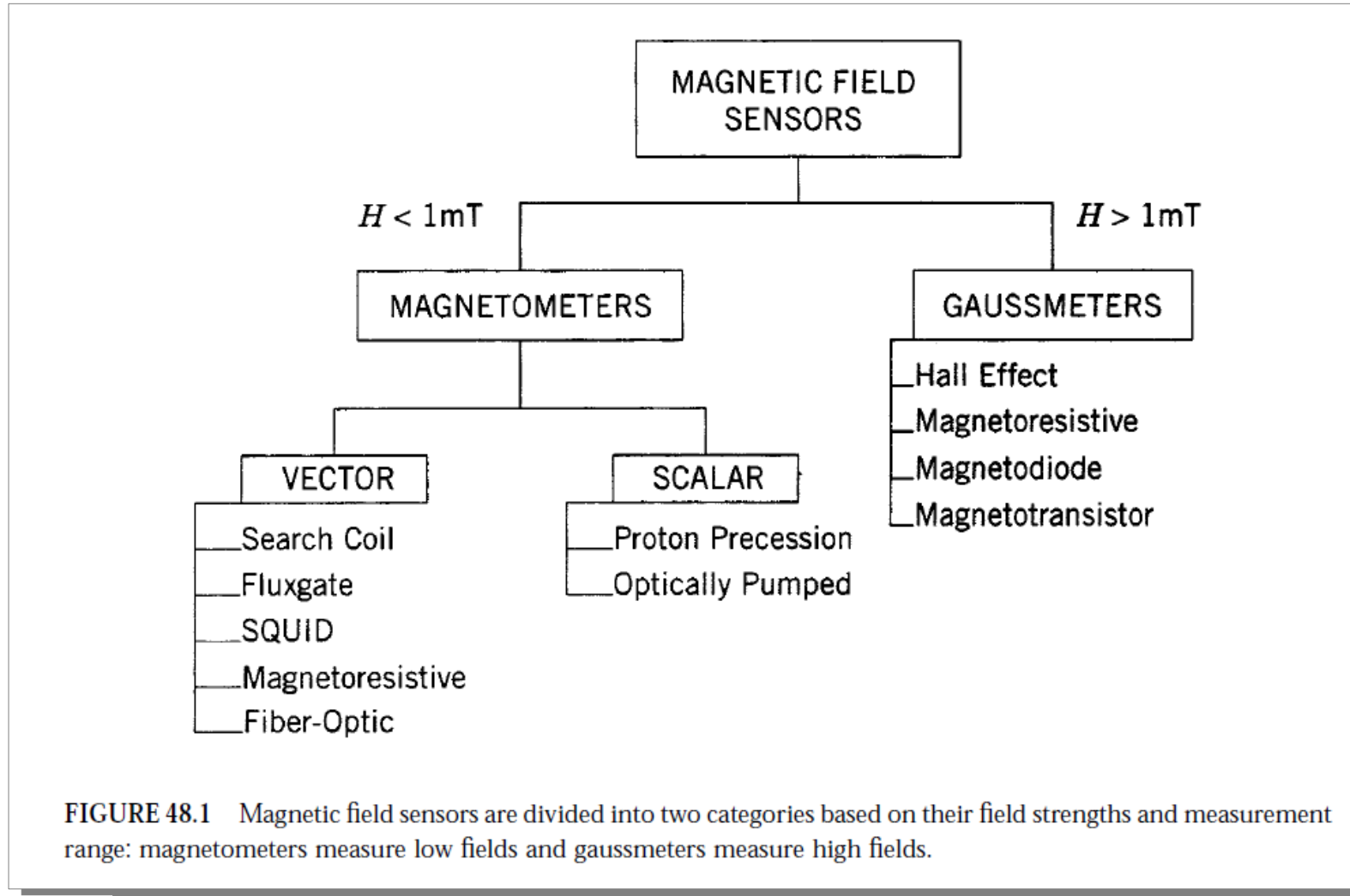
methods most relevant in spintronic measurements:
AC and DC Hall probes

The sensitivity range of the probe should cover whole range of fields in which magnetic configuration significantly changes

graphics from *Field Measurement Methods* lecture delivered during The Cern Accelerator School; Novotel Brugge Centrum, Bruges, Belgium, 16 - 25 June, 2009; author: Luca Bottura

Introduction

- Magnetic sensor can be divided according to different criteria:



- Distinction magnetometer-gaussmeter is rather arbitrary and not commonly used.

graphics from [7]: S.A. Macintyre, Magnetic Field Measurement

Introduction

Vibrating coils magnetometers:

- Coil magnetometers are usually used to measure varying field.
- The situation can be reversed: direct use of Faraday law.

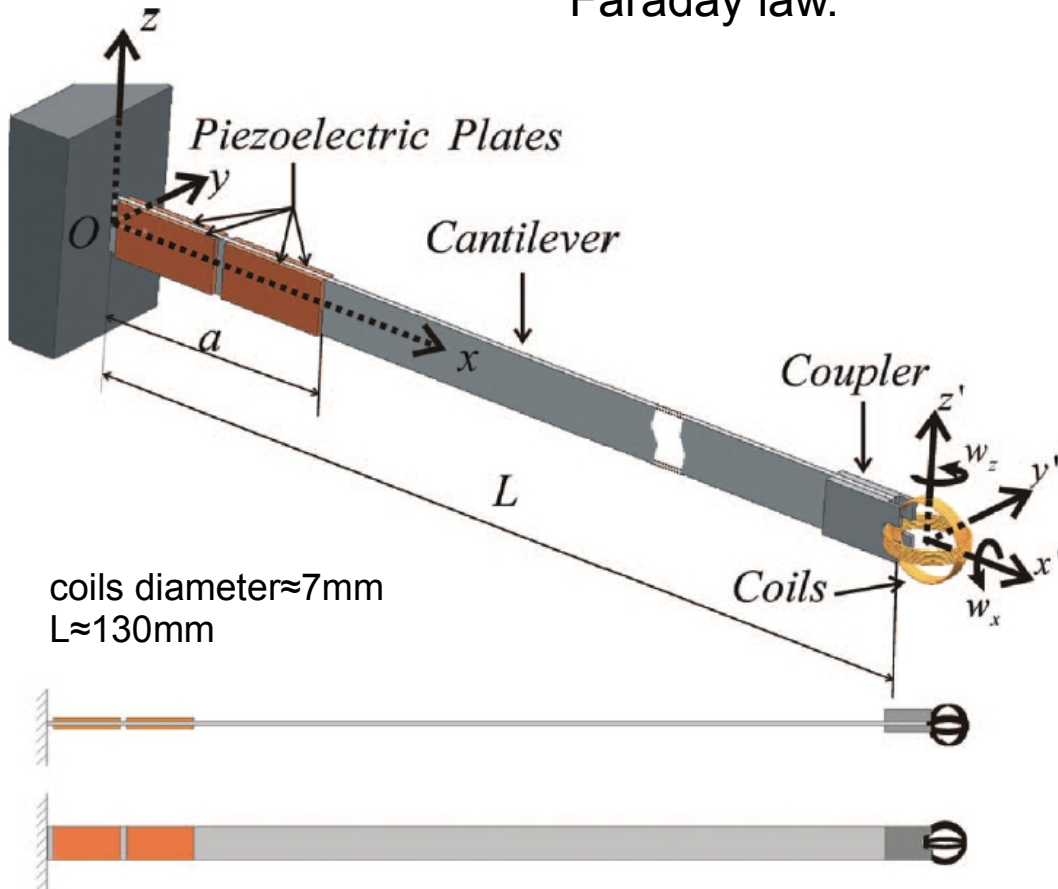


FIG. 1. (Color online) Schematic diagram of device configuration.

- Piezoelectric sheets are used to excite the cantilever bending
- Two individual sensing coils are orthogonally fastened at the tip of cantilever which bends and twists
- Rotation of the coils allows the measurements of field components perpendicular to rotation axis
- High spatial resolution of measurements - coils virtually at the same position (**3-axis measurement**)

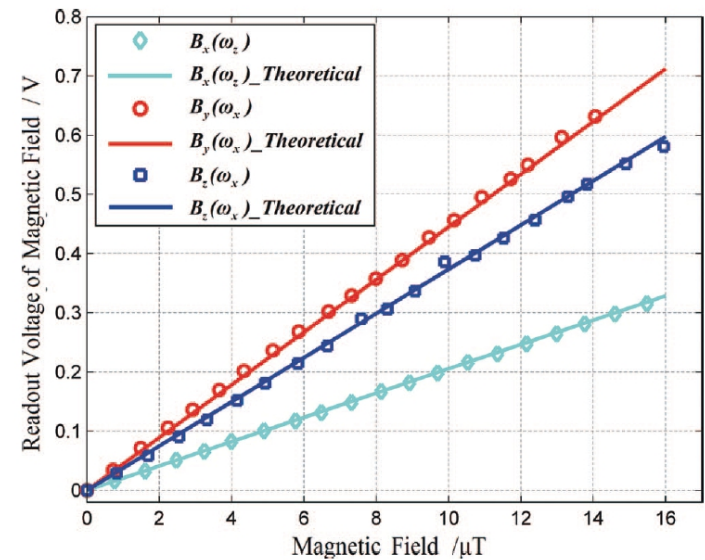
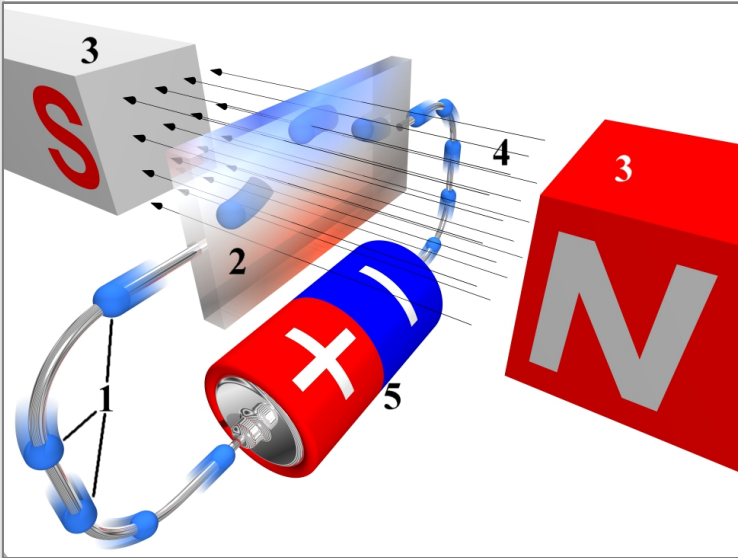


FIG. 6. (Color online) Relationships of measured readout voltages and magnetic fields in the single-mode.

Introduction – Hall magnetometer

- Lorentz force acting on electrons in a circuit deflects them perpendicularly to drift direction:

$$\vec{F}_{Lorentz} = q\vec{E} + q\vec{v} \times \vec{B}$$



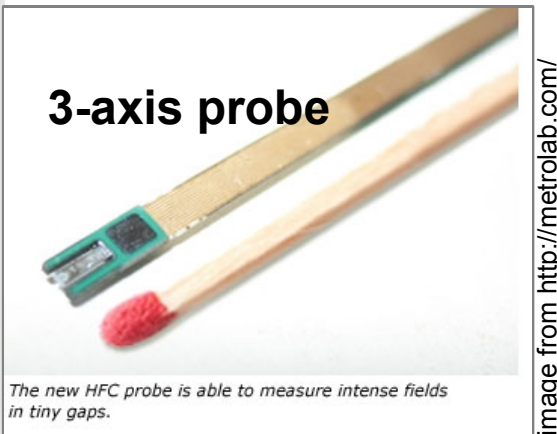
- The build-up of charges on outer limits of the circuit induces Hall voltage which depends on the field strength and is used to sense it.
- The Hall voltage is given by (t-film thickness, R_H -Hall coefficient*):

$$U_y = R_H \frac{I}{t} B_z$$

- The main figure of interest is field sensitivity of the sensor** (for a given driving current I_c):

$$\gamma_b = \frac{U_y}{B_z} = \frac{R_H I_c}{t}$$

- Semiconductors are used to obtain high sensitivity combined with temperature stability (InAs)
- The Hall sensors have a limited use at high fields and low temperatures (conductivity quantization)



Hall sensors are relatively easy to miniaturize

image from Wikimedia Commons; authors: Peo (modification by Church of emacs)

*for InAs R_H is about $0.0001 \text{ m}^3/\text{As}$

**some tenths of mV per kA/m for I_c of several mA (www.lakeshore.com/products/Hall-Magnetic-Sensors/pages/Specifications.aspx)

Introduction – classification of magnetic materials

All materials can be classified in terms of their magnetic behavior falling into one of several categories depending on their bulk magnetic susceptibility χ .

$$\chi = \frac{\vec{M}}{\vec{H}}$$

In general the susceptibility is a position dependent tensor

In some materials the magnetization is not a linear function of field strength. In such cases the differential susceptibility is introduced:

$$\chi_d = \frac{d\vec{M}}{d\vec{H}}$$

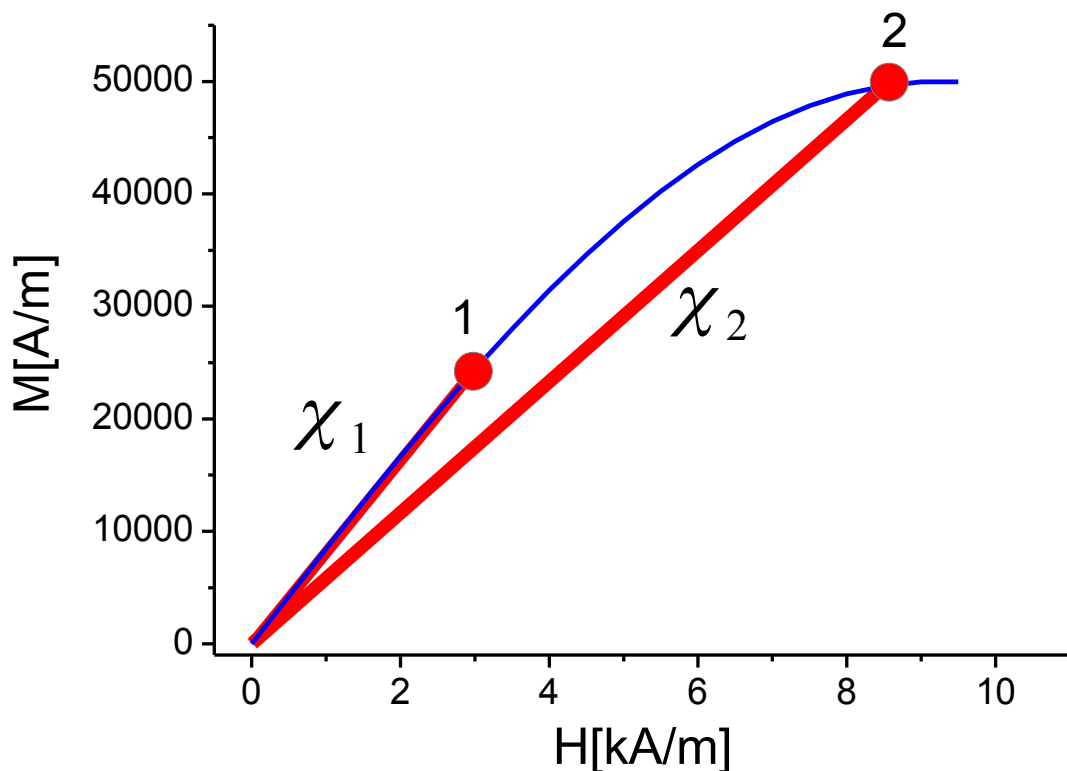
We usually talk about isothermal susceptibility:

$$\chi_T = \left(\frac{\partial \vec{M}}{\partial \vec{H}} \right)_T$$

Theoreticians define magnetization as:

$$M = - \left(\frac{\partial \vec{F}}{\partial \vec{H}} \right)_T$$

$F = E - TS$ - Helmholtz free energy



Introduction – classification of magnetic materials

It is customary to define susceptibility in relation to volume, mass or mole (or spin):

$$\chi = \frac{\vec{M}}{\vec{H}} \quad [\text{dimensionless}], \quad \chi_{\rho} = \frac{(\vec{M} / \rho)}{\vec{H}} \quad \left[\frac{m^3}{kg} \right], \quad \chi_{mol} = \frac{[\vec{M} / (mol / V)]}{\vec{H}} \quad \left[\frac{m^3}{mol} \right]$$

The general classification of materials according to their magnetic properties

$\mu < 1$	$\chi < 0$	diamagnetic*
$\mu > 1$	$\chi > 0$	paramagnetic**
$\mu \gg 1$	$\chi \gg 0$	ferromagnetic***

dia /daɪəməg'netɪk/ -Greek: “from, through, across” - repelled by magnets. We have from:

$$\vec{F} = \frac{1}{2\mu_0} \chi V \nabla (B^2) \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{the force on diamagnet is directed antiparallel to} \\ \text{the gradient of } \mathbf{B}^2 \text{ i.e. away from the magnetized bodies} \end{array}$$

- water is diamagnetic $\chi \approx -10^{-5}$ (see “levitating frog” in my lecture 2 from 2012)

** para- Greek: beside, near; for most materials $\chi \approx 10^{-5} - 10^{-3}$ [1].

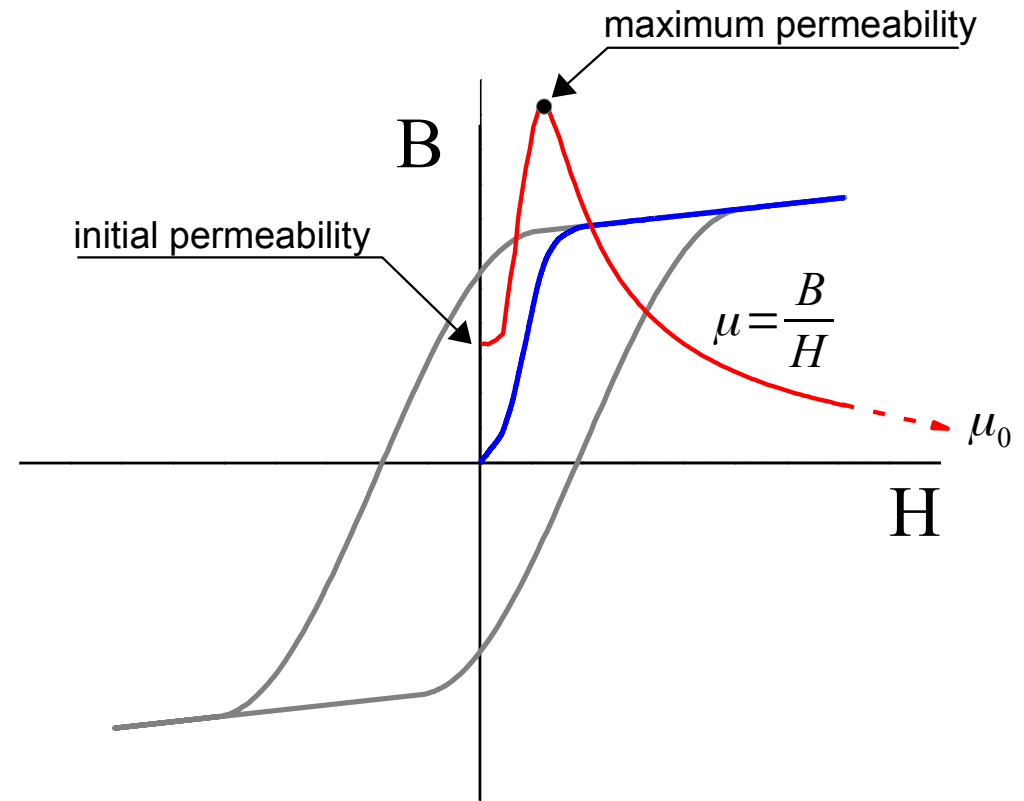
***susceptibility ranges from several hundred for steels to 100,000 for soft magnetic materials (Permalloy)

*see for example my lecture at www.ifmpan.poznan.pl/~urbaniak/Wyklady2012/urbifmpan2012lect2_04.pdf

Introduction – classification of magnetic materials

- Feebly magnetic material – a material generally classified as “nonmagnetic” whose maximum normal permeability is less than 4 [5].
- Ferromagnetic materials can be classified according to the magnetic structure on atomic level:

1. Ferromagnets
2. Antiferromagnets
3. Ferrimagnets
4. Asperomagnets -random ferromagnets
5. Sperimagnets – random ferrimagnets



Introduction – classification of magnetic materials

In general the susceptibility is frequency dependent and the magnetization depends on the preceding field values [3]:

$$\vec{M}(t) = \int f(t-t') H(t') dt'$$

It is customary to introduce a complex susceptibility:

$$\chi = \chi_{real} + i \chi_{imag}$$

$$e^{ix} = \cos(x) + i \sin(x)$$

Then we have:

$$\vec{M} = R.e(\chi \vec{H}) = R.e[(\chi_{real} + i \chi_{imag}) \vec{H}_0 e^{-i\omega t}] = \vec{H}_0 (\chi_{real} \cos(\omega t) + \chi_{imag} \sin(\omega t))$$

in phase with excitation

out of phase

The imaginary part of susceptibility is responsible for magnetic losses [11, p. 254].

Introduction

Magnetic periodic table of elements

H																		He
Li	Be											B	C	N	O	F	Ne	
Na	Mg											Al	Si	P	S	Cl	A	
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	

Image source: B.D. Cullity, Introduction to Magnetic Materials, Addison-Wesley 1972, p. 612

The transition elements are enclosed by a heavy line. See Appendix 3 (opposite page) for data on the rare earths.

Ferromagnetic materials

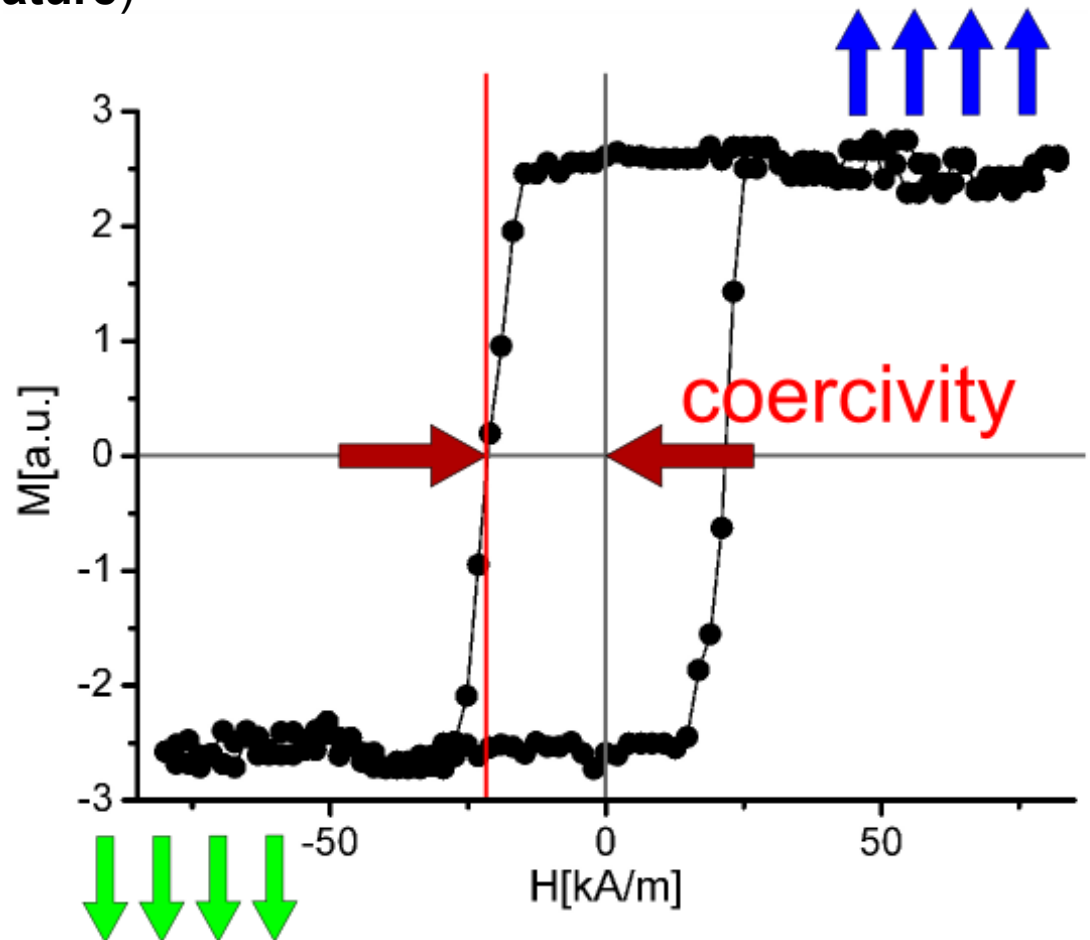
Most notable features of ferromagnetic materials:

- high initial susceptibility/permeability
- they usually retain magnetization after the removal of the external field – **remanence**
- the magnetization curve (B-H or M-H) is nonlinear and hysteretic
- they lose ferromagnetic properties at elevated temperatures (**Curie temperature**)

The notable examples [4]:

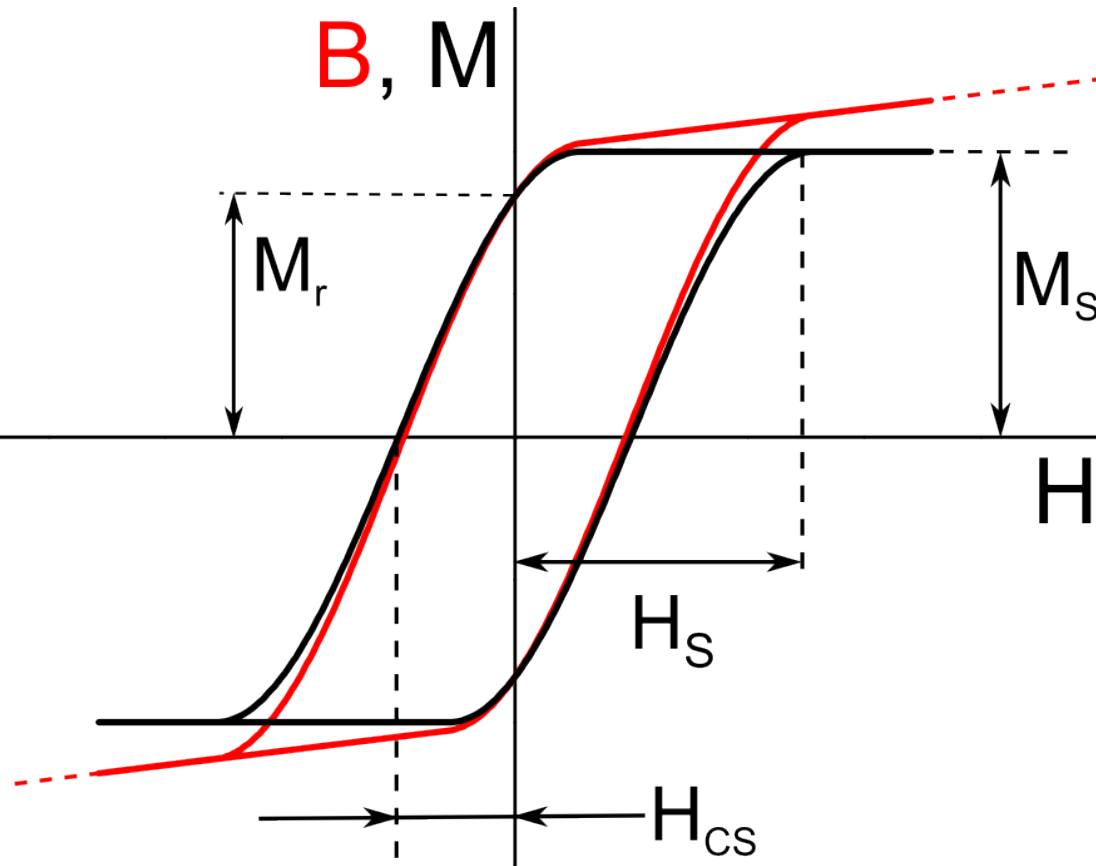
	M_s [kA/m] @RT	T_c [K]
Fe	1714	1043
Co	1433	1403
Ni	485	630

M_s [Am ² /kg] @RT
217.75
161
54.39



Hysteresis nomenclature

The magnetic hysteresis can be presented both as $B(H)$ and $M(H)$ * dependencies.



intrinsic induction:

$$\vec{B}_i = \vec{B} - \mu_0 \vec{H} = \mu_0 \vec{M}$$

coercive field strength – field required to reduce the **magnetic induction** to zero after the material has been symmetrically cyclically magnetized.

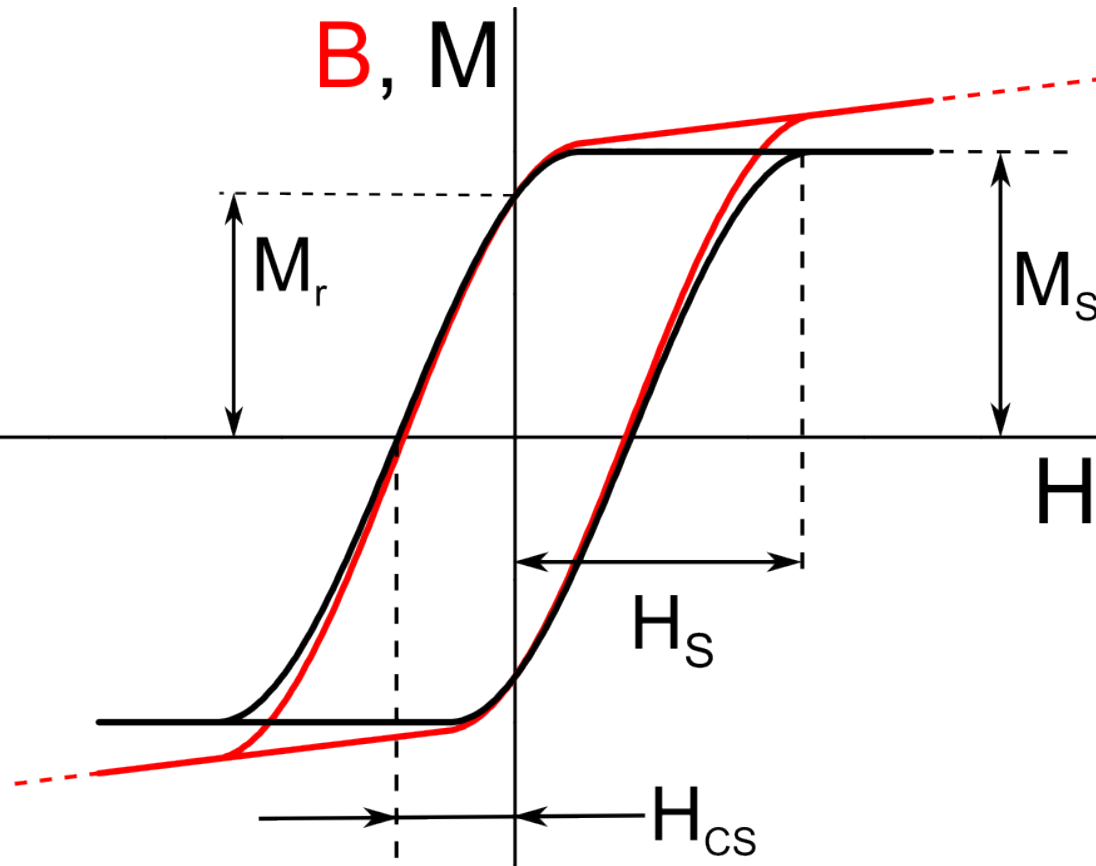
intrinsic coercive field strength – field required to reduce the **intrinsic induction** to zero after...

coercivity, H_{cs} —the maximum value of coercive field strength that can be attained when the magnetic material is symmetrically cyclically magnetized to *saturation induction*, B_s .

* $\mu_0 M(H)$ dependence is called a intrinsic hysteresis loop [8]

Hysteresis nomenclature

The magnetic hysteresis can be presented both as $B(H)$ and $M(H)$ dependencies.



saturation induction, B_s —the maximum intrinsic induction possible in a material

saturation magnetization, M_s :

$$\vec{M}_s = \vec{B}_s / \mu_0$$

demagnetization curve—the portion of a dc hysteresis loop that lies in the second (or fourth quadrant). Points on this curve are designated by the coordinates, B_d and H_d .

remanence, B_{dm} —the maximum value of the remanent induction for a given geometry of the magnetic circuit.

Hysteresis loss

From Faraday's law it follows [4] that the change in a current in circuit 1 produces *emf* in the second circuit:

$$emf_{21} = -M_{21} \frac{dI_1}{dt}$$

At any instant of time the following relation is fulfilled:

$$emf^{appl.} + emf^{ind.} = IR$$

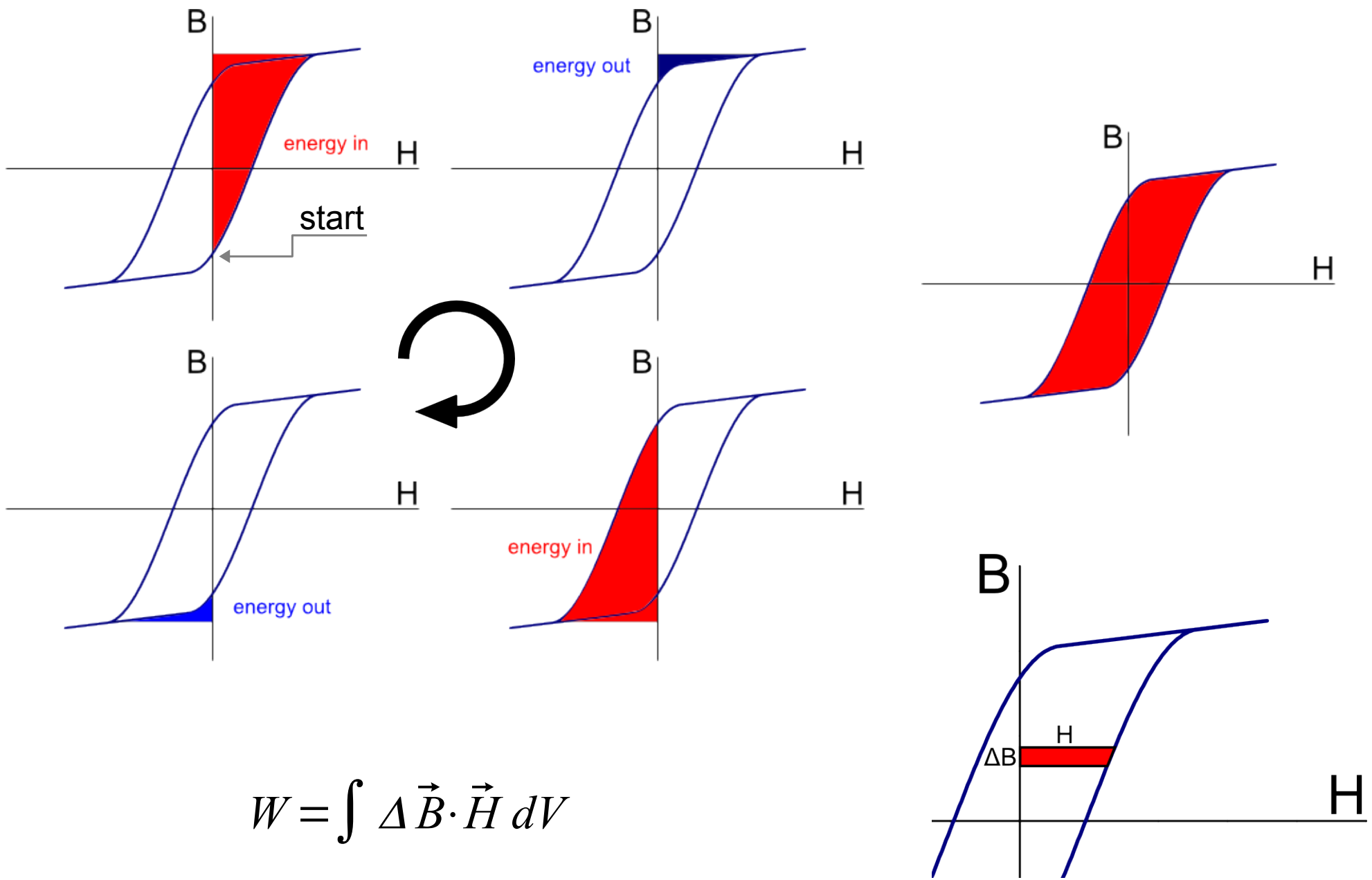
It can be shown [4] that the total energy required to establish a currents in an ensemble of coils fixed in space is:

$$W = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i \Phi_i I_i, \quad \text{where } \Phi_i = \int_S \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{S} \text{ is the flux enclosed by } i\text{-th circuit}$$

Further it can be shown that the total energy may be expressed by:

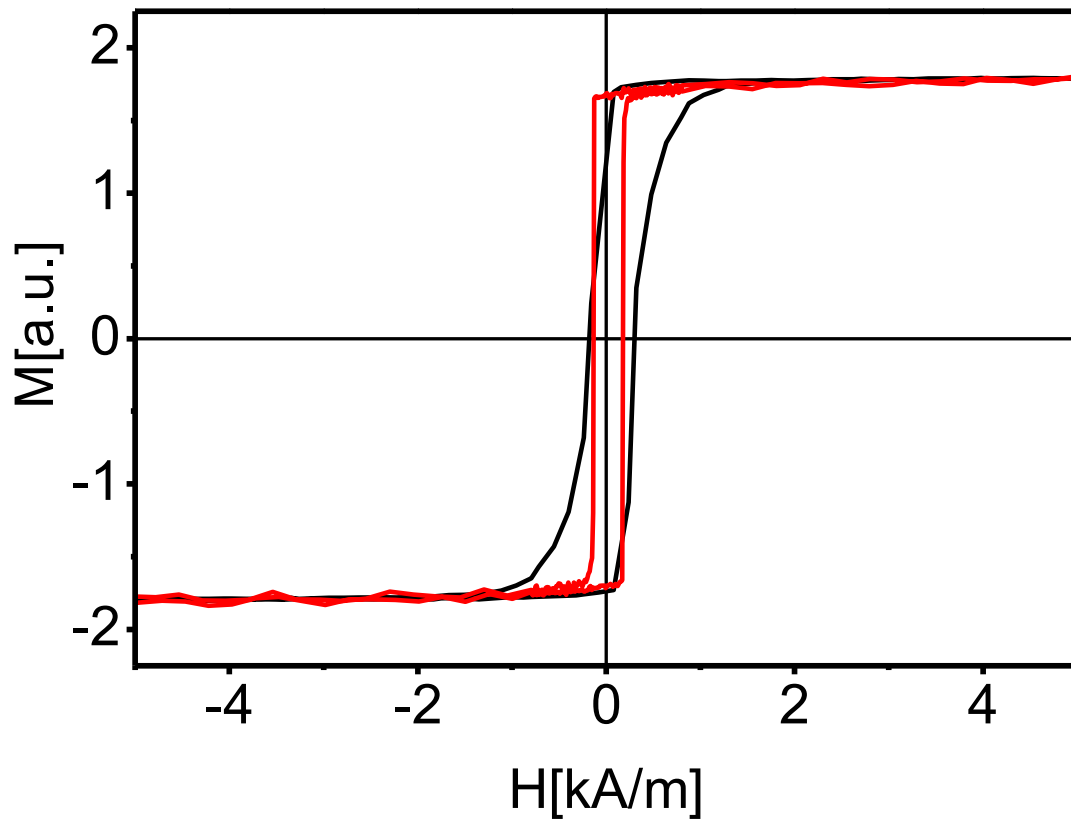
$$W = \int \Delta \vec{B} \cdot \vec{H} dV$$

Hysteresis loss



$$W = \int \Delta \vec{B} \cdot \vec{H} dV$$

Hysteresis – not an intrinsic property



- Hysteresis is not an intrinsic property of the material
- The character of magnetization depends on sample preparation and the shape of the sample.

$[\text{Ni}_{80}\text{Fe}_{20}(2 \text{ nm})/\text{Au}(5 \text{ nm})]_{15}$

$\text{Ni}_{80}\text{Fe}_{20}(38 \text{ nm})$

$\text{Ni}_{80}\text{Fe}_{20}$ - soft magnetic material, $H_C \approx 160 \text{ A/m}$

Minor hysteresis loops

- Minor hysteresis – external field does not saturate the sample
- First order reversal curves allow the characterization of interactions between magnetic particles in particulate media (magnetic recording)

J. Appl. Phys., Vol. 85, No. 9, 1 May 1999

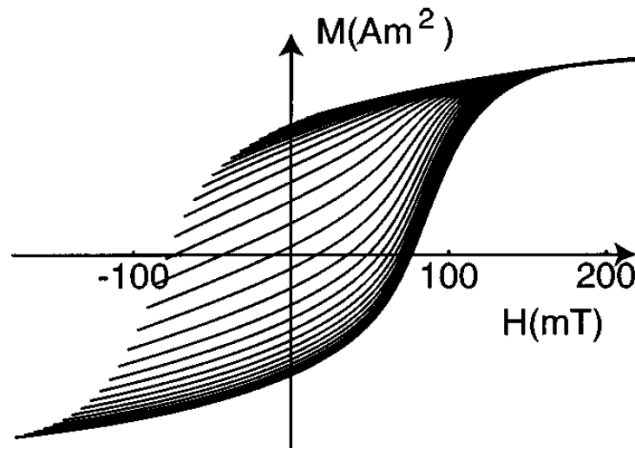
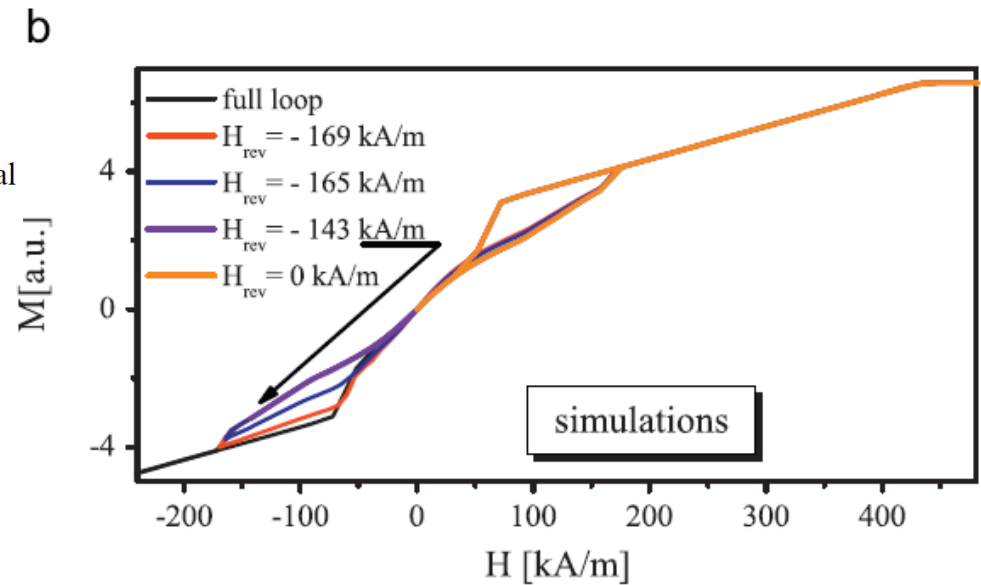
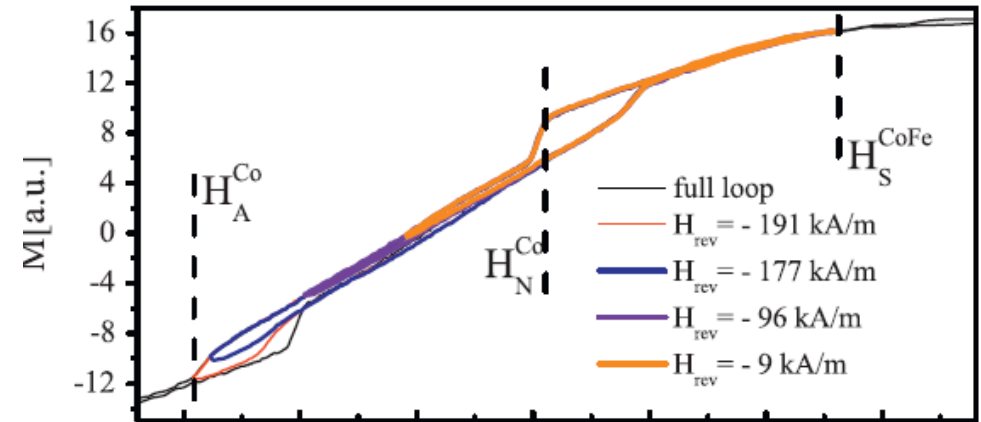


FIG. 1. A set of first order reversal curves (FORCs) for a piece of a typical floppy magnetic recording disk.

Christopher R. Pike, Andrew P. Roberts, and Kenneth L. Verosub



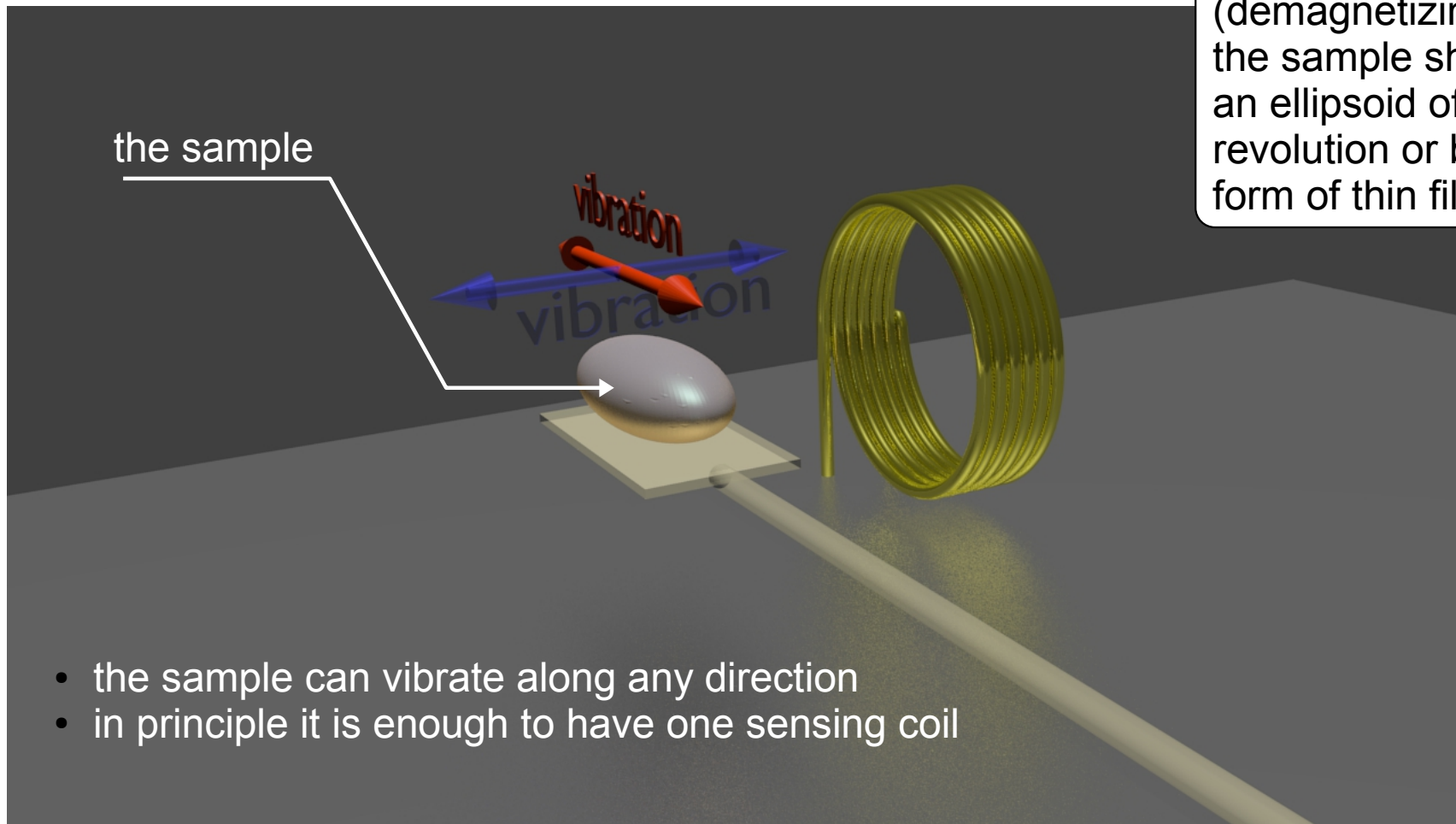
Major and minor hysteresis loops obtained for $[\text{CoFe}(1.2\text{nm})/\text{Au}(1.2\text{ nm})/\text{Co}(0.6\text{nm})/\text{Au}(1.2\text{nm})]_{10}$ ML

Induction methods magnetometry

- In induction methods the Faraday induction is used to measure the magnitude of magnetic moment of the specimen [12].
- The method is based on the Maxwell equation:

$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \vec{B}$$

For the reasons which will become clear later (demagnetizing field) the sample should be an ellipsoid of revolution or be in the form of thin film

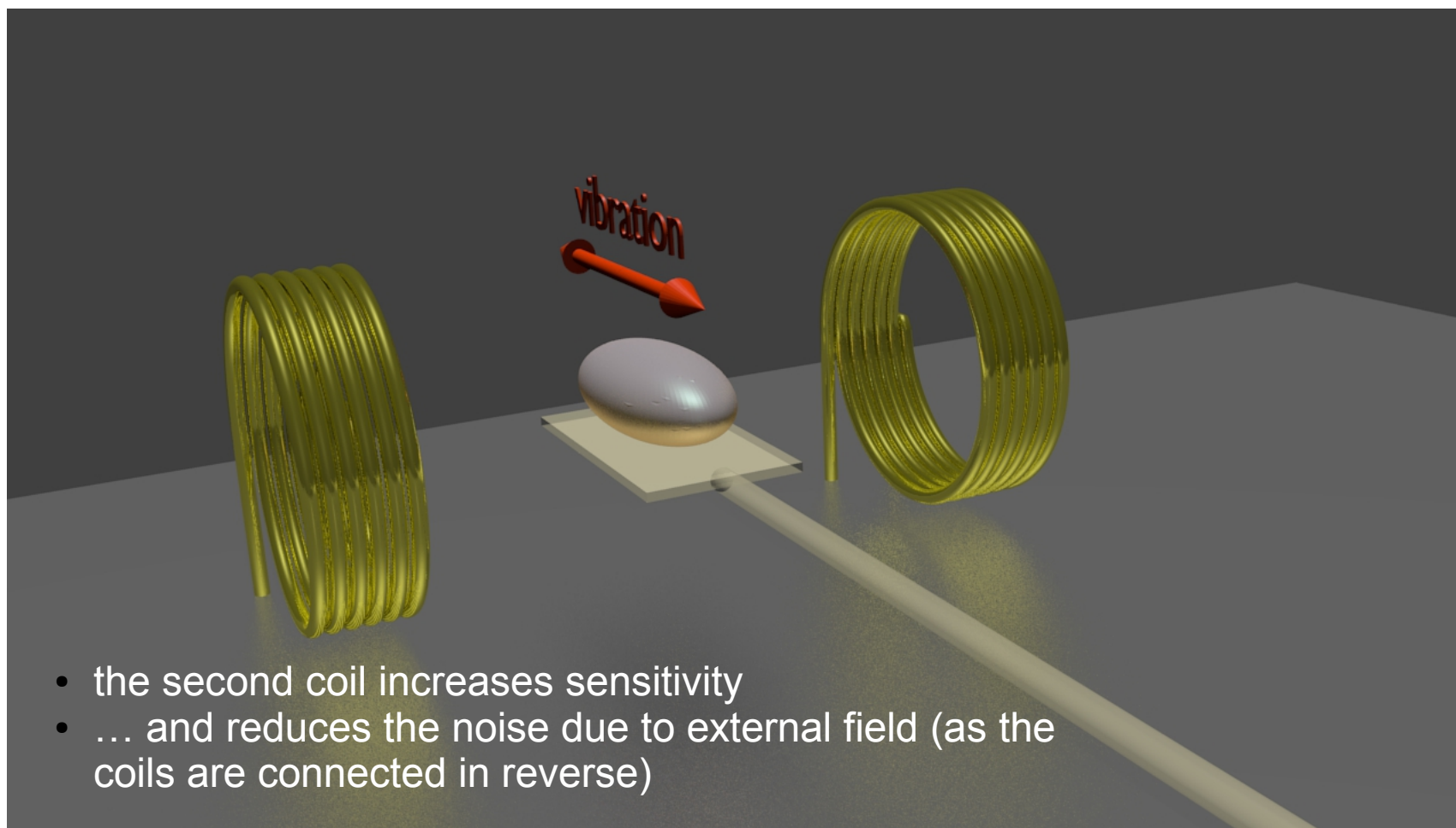


- the sample can vibrate along any direction
- in principle it is enough to have one sensing coil

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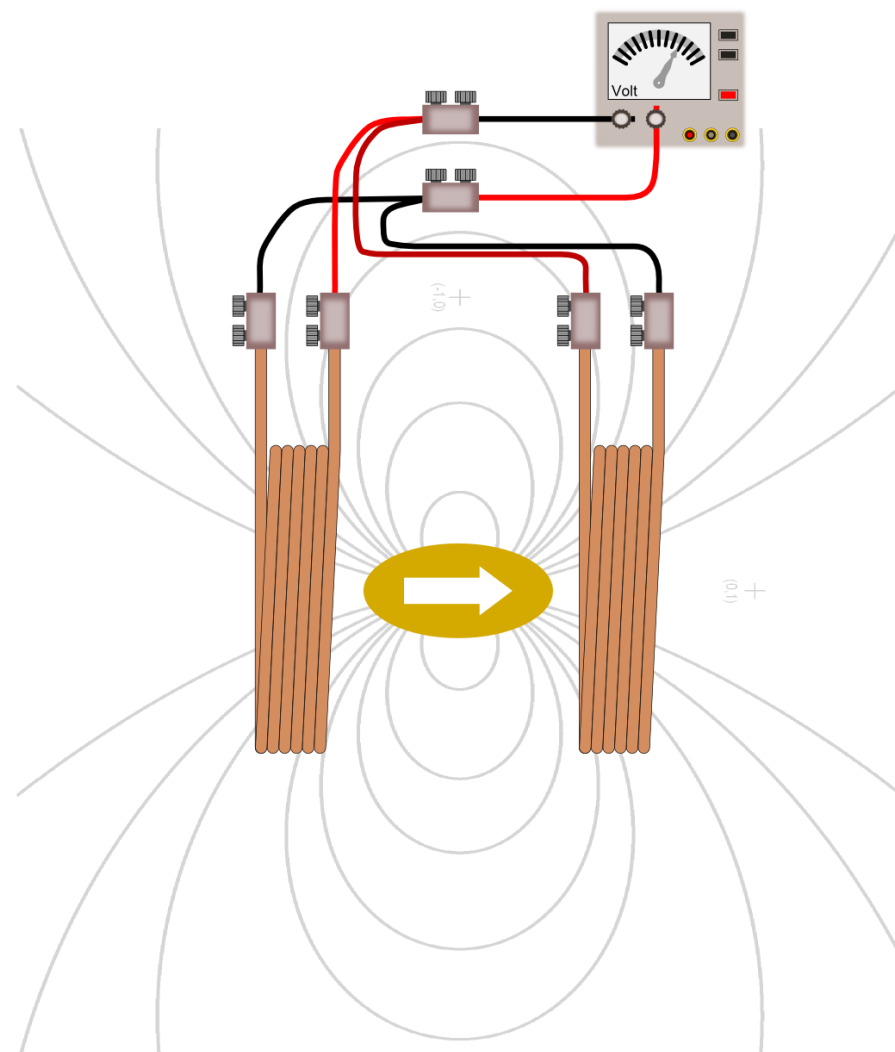


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- the sample moving to the right induces some a voltage in the right pick-up coil (the current flow direction is determined by Lenz's law)
- the voltage induced in the left coil has an opposite sign
- if the coils are connected in reverse both voltages add increasing the sensitivity
- temporal variations of nearly homogeneous external field (from electromagnet or distant sources of EM – fields) cause the opposite voltages in the two coils and cancel out in ideal case.

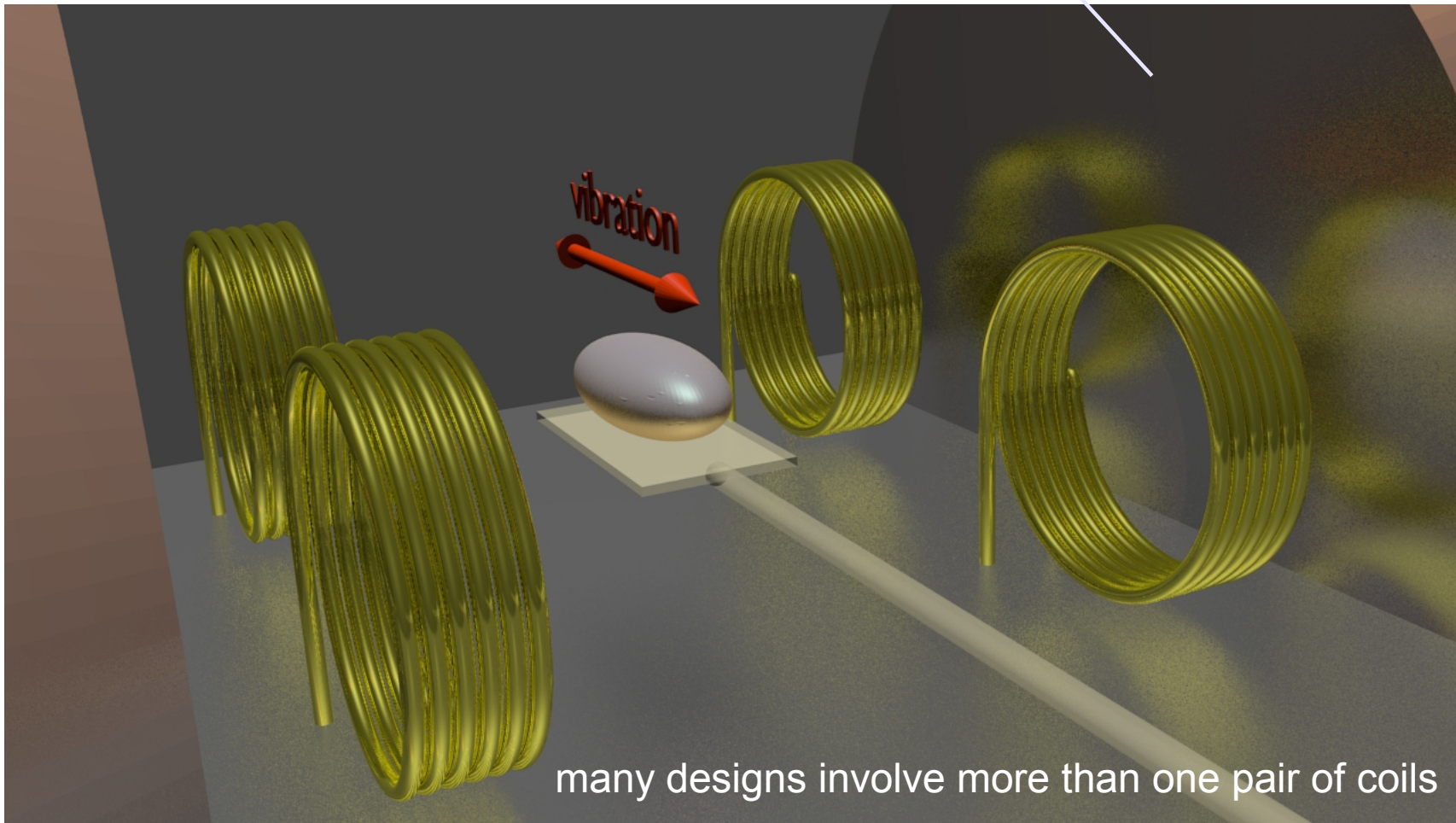


Induction methods magnetometry

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pole piece of an electromagnet



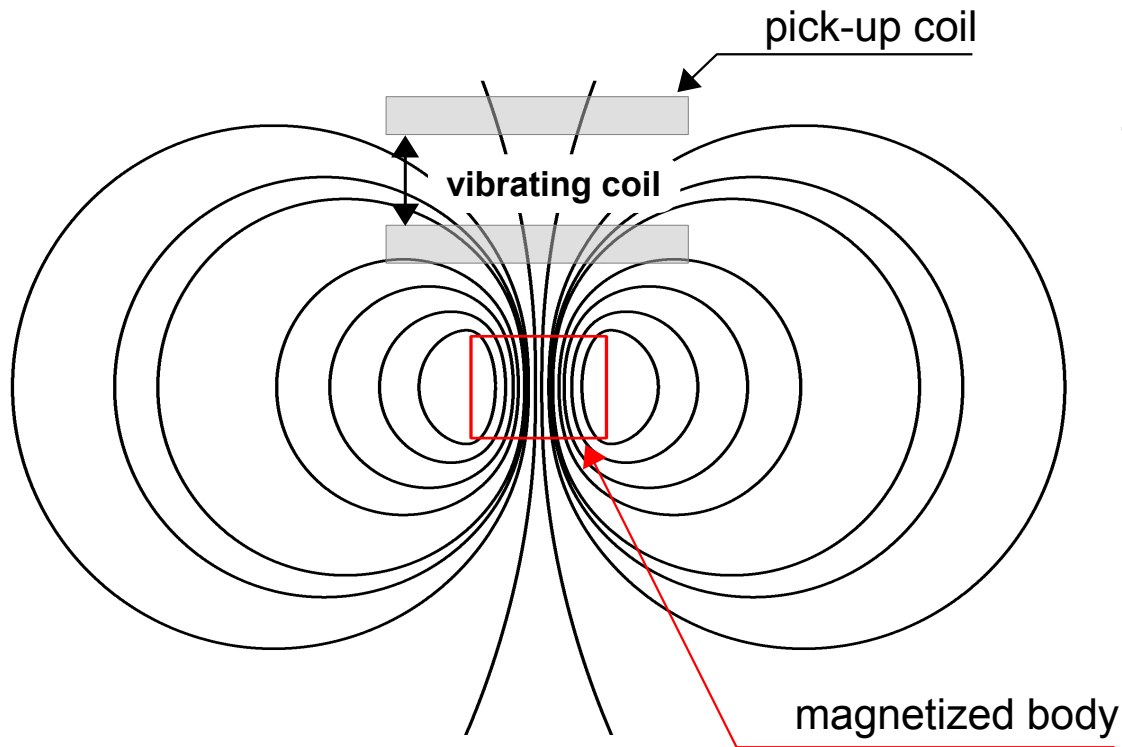
many designs involve more than one pair of coils

Induction methods magnetometry

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- The method is based on the Maxwell equation:

$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \vec{B}$$

- The electromotive force generated in the pick-up coils is proportional to the magnetization of the sample; it depends too on the orientation of the magnetic moment relative to the coils:



- Depending on position of the coils the integral of the induction through the surface bounded by the coils changes; the voltage (or integral of \vec{E} along the coil perimeter) depends on the rate of change of induction \vec{B} :

$$U = \oint \vec{E} dl = \iint \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \vec{B} dS$$

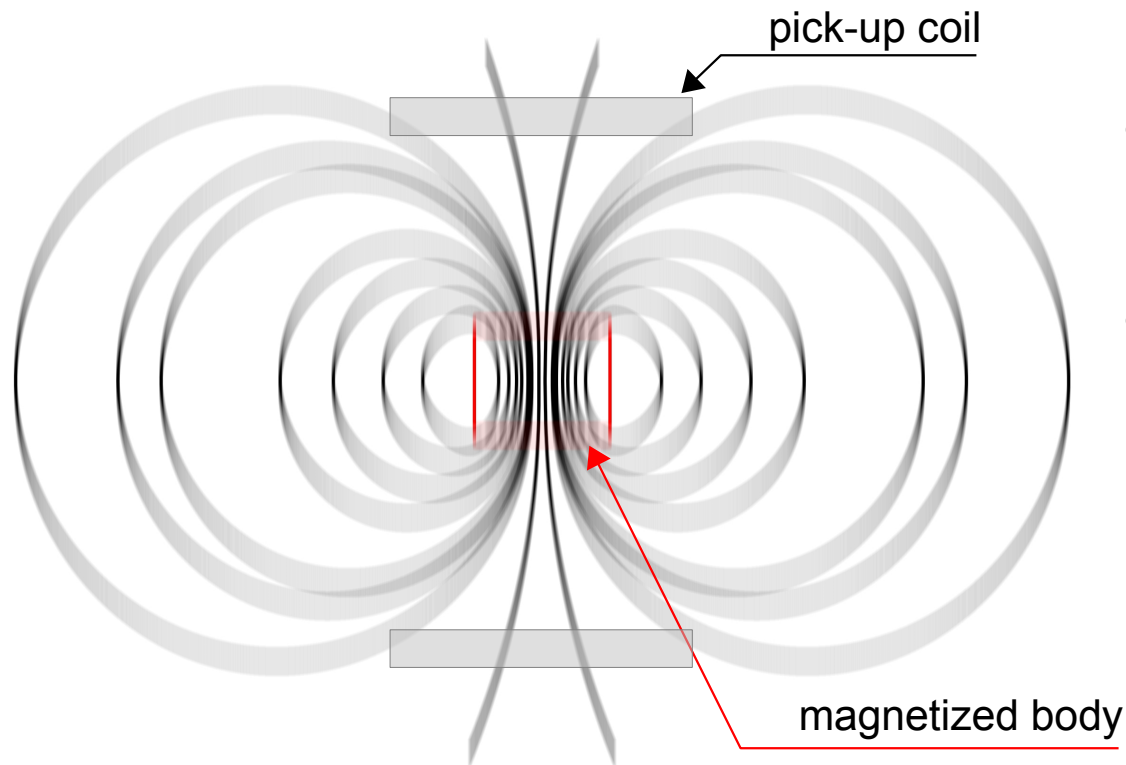
*field lines of the magnet of height 3 and width 4 which is infinite in the direction perpendicular to the image

Induction methods magnetometry

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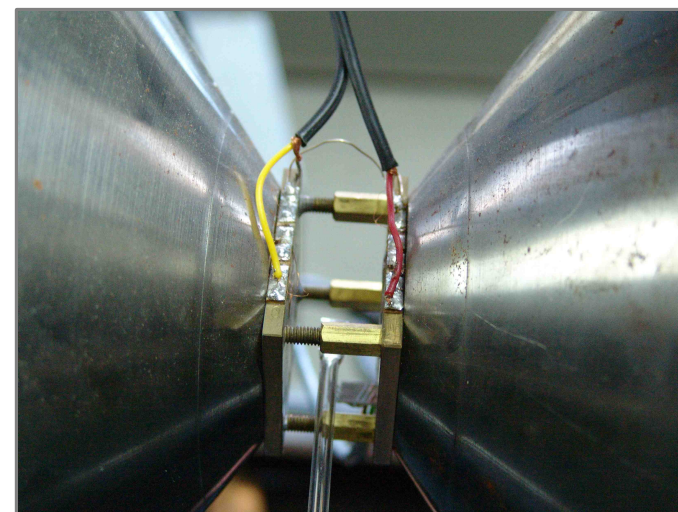
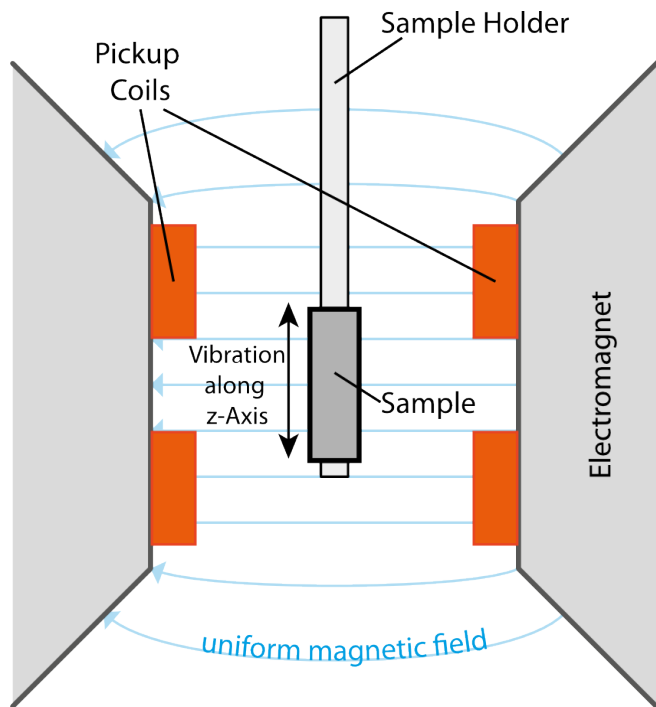
- In measurement one usually uses static pick-up coils while the sample (and its magnetic field) vibrates
- To minimize the influence of the external sources of magnetic field pairs of coils are used: the variations of the external field add to the signal in one coil and subtract from the signal of the other coil.

*field lines of the magnet of height 3 and width 4 which is infinite in the direction perpendicular to the image

Vibrating sample magnetometer

- **VSM** is a device used to measure magnetic moment and hysteresis
- It uses the electromagnetic induction and lock-in principle of measurement [13]

Image source - Wikimedia Commons; author: R0oland



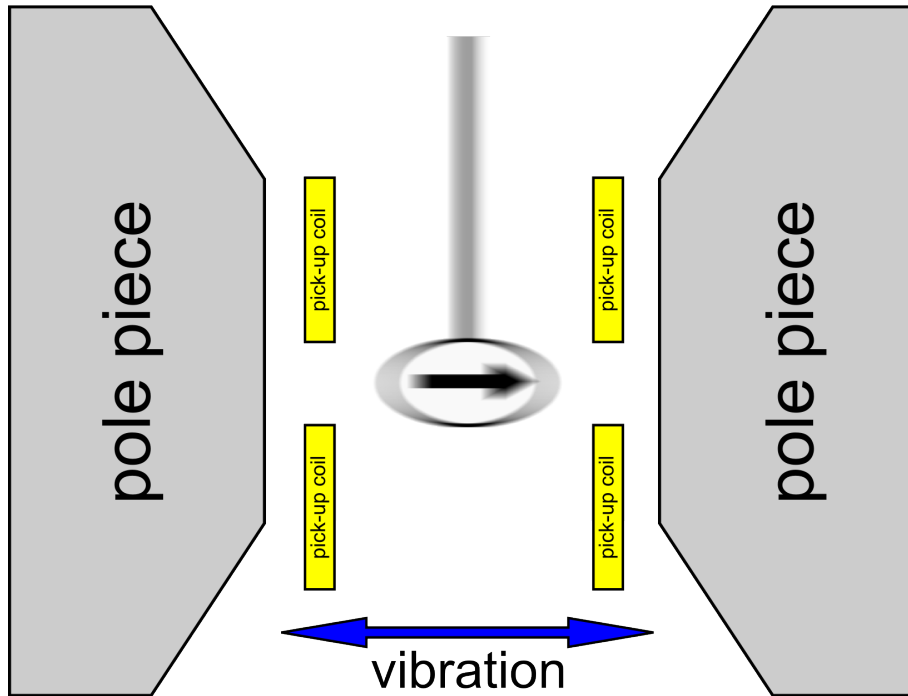
“nonmagnetic” sample holder

- Commercially available VSM magnetometers have sensitivity below 10^{-9} Am⁻² (depending on acquisition time)

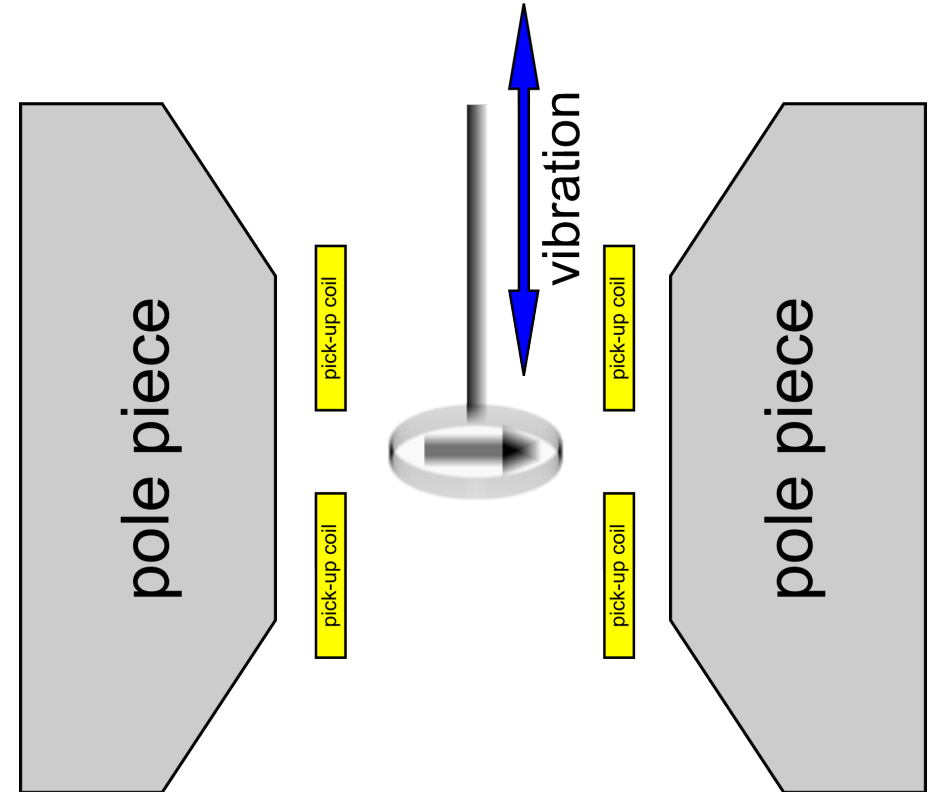
VSM (properly calibrated) measures the absolute value of magnetic moment of the sample

Vibrating sample magnetometer

- VSM can be used in different configurations of sample vibration relative to the external field direction:



parallel configuration
(vibration parallel to the field)



transverse configuration

Vibrating sample magnetometer – principle of operation

Lock-in principle of measurement allows the measurement of signals weaker than the noise. We start from the trigonometric identity:

$$\cos(\alpha)\cos(\beta) = \frac{1}{2}\cos(\alpha - \beta) + \frac{1}{2}\cos(\alpha + \beta)$$

- We assume that the sample vibrates with frequency ω giving the signal of that frequency and amplitude A in pick-up coils (through magnetic induction)
- We mix* (multiply) that signal with the signal of frequency ω_1 taken from the generator that drives the sample (we can have some phase difference ϕ). Using the above identity we have:

$$A \cos(\omega t) B \cos(\omega_1 t + \phi) = \frac{1}{2} A B \cos(\omega t - \omega_1 t - \phi) + \frac{1}{2} A B \cos(\omega t + \omega_1 t + \phi)$$

But $\omega_1 = \omega$ (the same generator) so we obtain:

$$A \cos(\omega t) B \cos(\omega_1 t + \phi) = \frac{1}{2} A B \cos(\phi) + \frac{1}{2} A B \cos(2\omega t + \phi)$$

constant in time

fast varying component

Using **low pass-filter** we can filter out the varying component.

There remains only constant voltage which is proportional to the signal from the sample and which is maximum if the phase difference is a multiple of π :

$$\frac{1}{2} A B \cos(\phi)$$

*mixing can also mean adding signals - additive mixers in audio electronics

Vibrating sample magnetometer – principle of operation

The signal from the pick-up coils can be interfered by external sources of electromagnetic radiation (50 Hz and its harmonics from power lines, car ignition circuits etc.). The signal can be expressed now as:

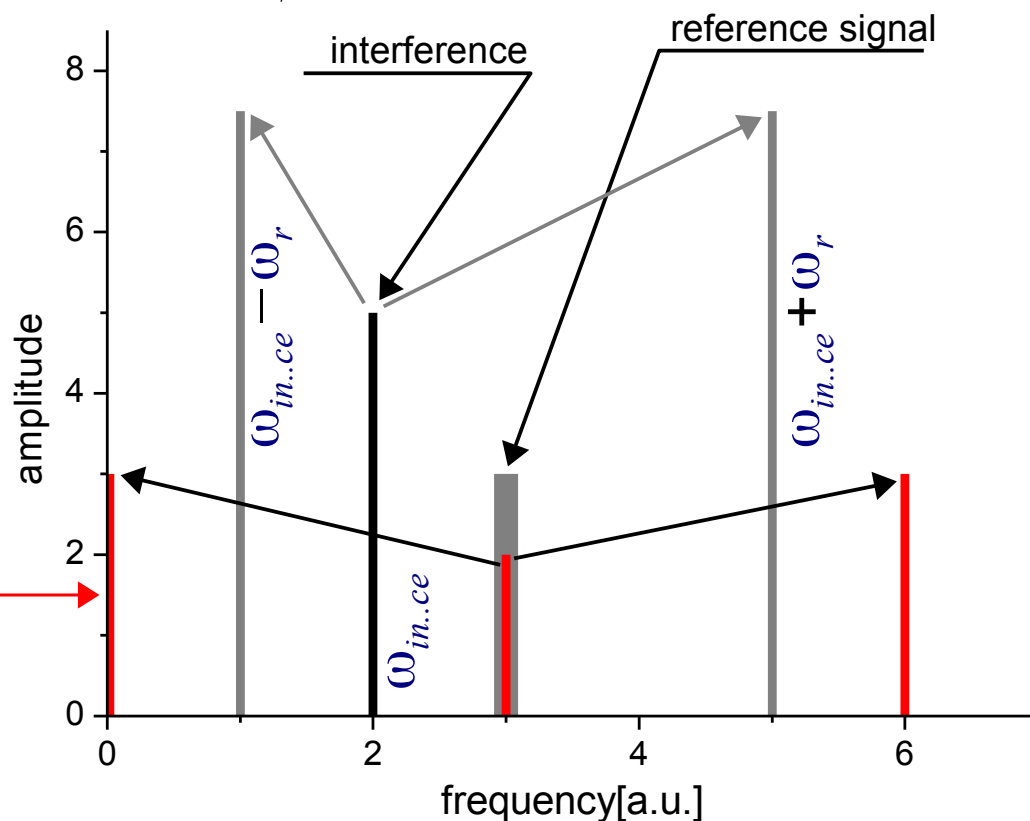
$$S_{coil} = \sum_i A_i \cos(\omega_i t + \phi_i)$$

Multiplying again by the reference signal (from generator) we get:

$$S_{coil} B \cos(\omega_r t + \phi) = \sum_i \left(\frac{1}{2} A_i B \cos((\omega_i - \omega_r)t - \phi_i) + \frac{1}{2} A_i B \cos((\omega_i + \omega_r)t + \phi_i) \right)$$

Only those signals which have a frequency equal to the reference frequency contribute to constant voltage received from mixer

constant signal from the sample



Vibrating sample magnetometer – the sensitivity function

- Sensitivity function $\mathbf{G}(\mathbf{r})$ represents the spatial distribution of detection coil sensitivity – the dependence of VSM signal on sample position. The function G is calculated for given direction of sample motion and given set of detection coils.
- For the moment moving with velocity $v(t)$ the signal induced in coils is:

$$U(t) = \mu G(\vec{r}) v(t)$$

- To obtain time dependence of the signal the above expression must be integrated over the volume of the sample for given amplitude and frequency of oscillations.

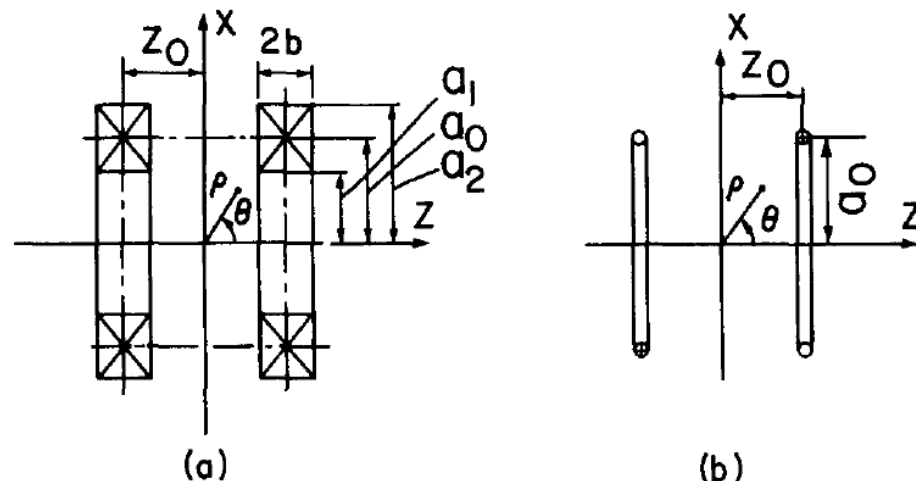


FIG. 1. Axial detection coils: (a) thick rectangular cross-section coils, (b) thin coils. The spherical coordinates ρ and θ give the position of vibrating dipole.

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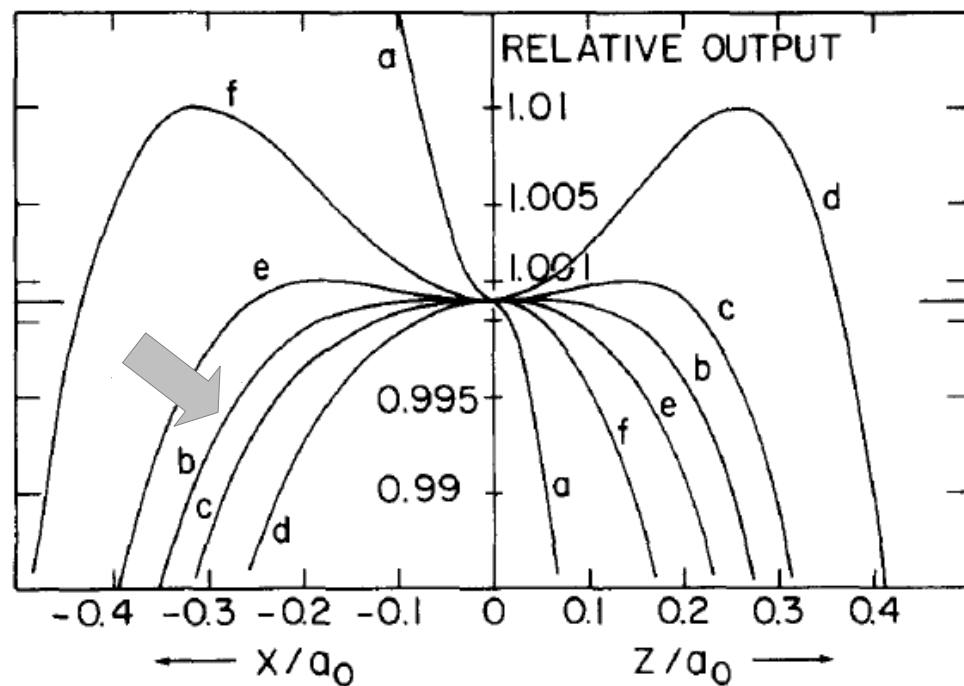


FIG. 3. Relative sensitivity function vs displacement of small sample along the z axis (right-hand side of the figure), and along the x axis (in the perpendicular symmetry plane, left-hand side of the figure) for thin-coil pairs with intercoil distances z_0/a_0 equal to: (a) $1/2$; (b) $\sqrt{3}/2 \cong 0.8660$; (c) 0.8841; (d) 0.9244; (e) 0.8444; (f) 0.7992. The curves (c) and (d) correspond to coils with elongated homogeneity along the z axis, and curves (e) and (f) have elongated homogeneity in the perpendicular plane. Note that the elongated homogeneity corresponds to overcompensation of 0.1% for (c) and (e) and 1% for (d) and (f), respectively.

A. Zieba and S. Foner, Rev. Sci. Instrum. 53, 1344 (1982)

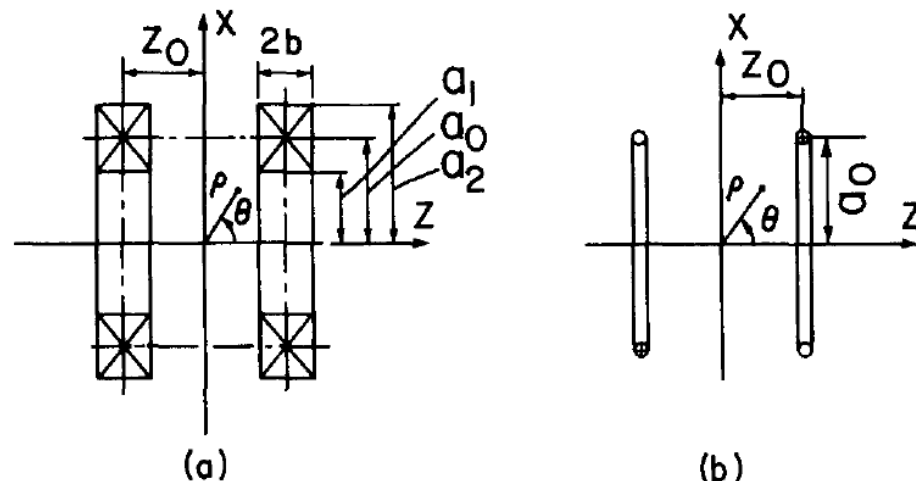


FIG. 1. Axial detection coils: (a) thick rectangular cross-section coils, (b) thin coils. The spherical coordinates ρ and θ give the position of vibrating dipole.

- For *thin coils* spaced 0.866..times their diameter apart the sensitivity function is not maximal but is very flat at center of the coils system – the signal does not depend much on the dipole position.

Minor hysteresis loops

- There are several common coils configurations each of which is characterized by different sensitivity function.

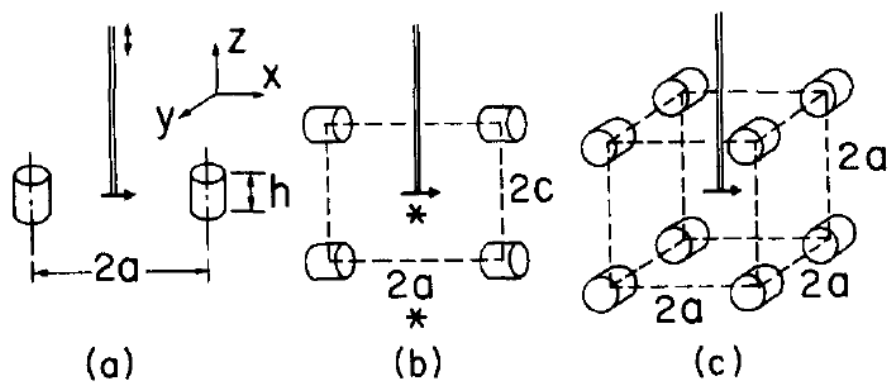


FIG. 5. Three principal transverse detection coil configurations for a VSM with sample vibration perpendicular to the direction of the dipole moment and exhibiting the saddle point at the symmetry center. The axes of the coils are directed along the z , x , and y axes, respectively. The asterisks in Fig. 5(b) indicate the position of the accidental saddle points for that geometry when the two upper coils are removed.

- Depending on the shape of the sample one usually need corrections factors to obtain the signal independent of the shape.

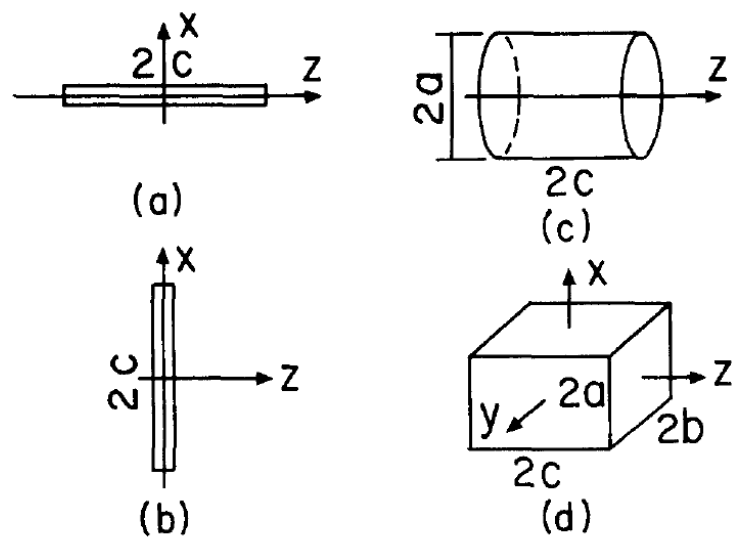
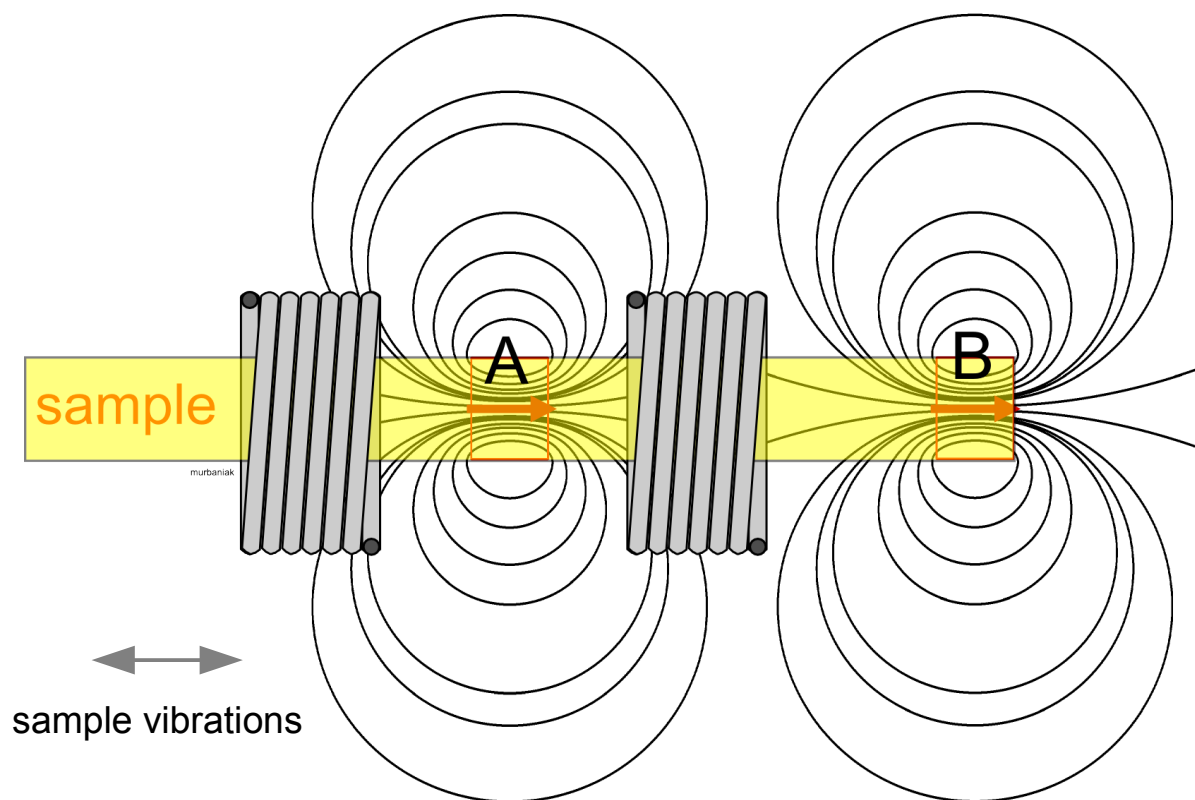


FIG. 7. Examples of regular sample shapes: (a) thin rod (arbitrary cross section) parallel to the z axis; (b) thin rod perpendicular to the z axis; (c) cylinder; (d) rectangular parallelepiped.

Vibrating sample magnetometer – sample size

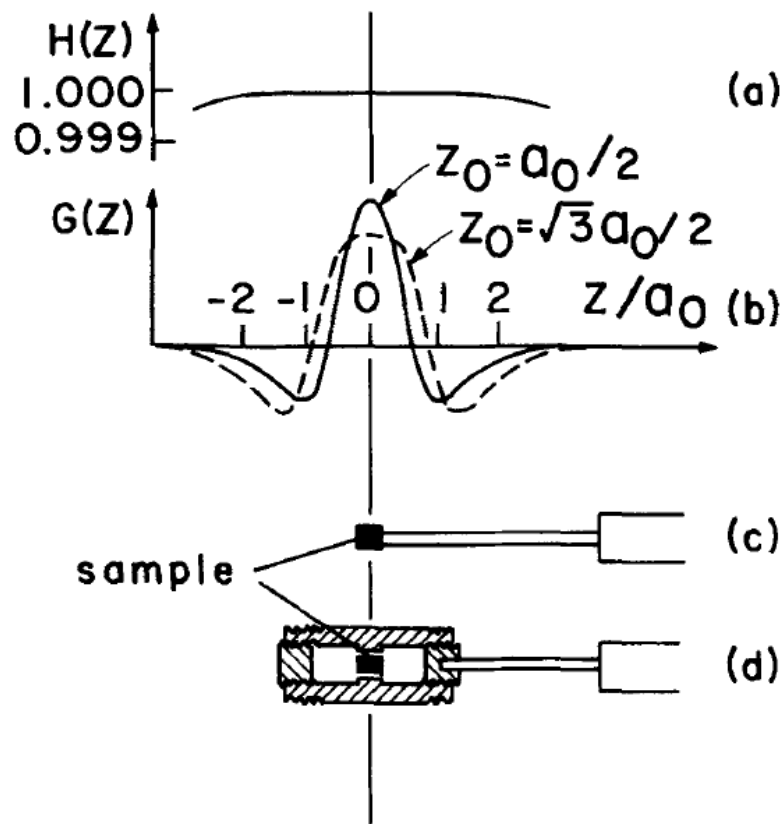
- The ideal measurement of the $M(H)$ dependence is performed using ellipsoidal (or spherical) samples; in that case the sample can be represented by the point dipole.
- It is often desirable to maintain the integrity of the sample for further measurements so the size of the sample cannot be made small compared to detection coils.



- Parts **A** and **B** of the sample (yellowish bar) contribute oppositely to the signal in the right coil
- For infinitely long sample the signal would be zero
- The sample size should be possibly small (which increases the signal to noise ratio)

Vibrating sample magnetometer – sample size

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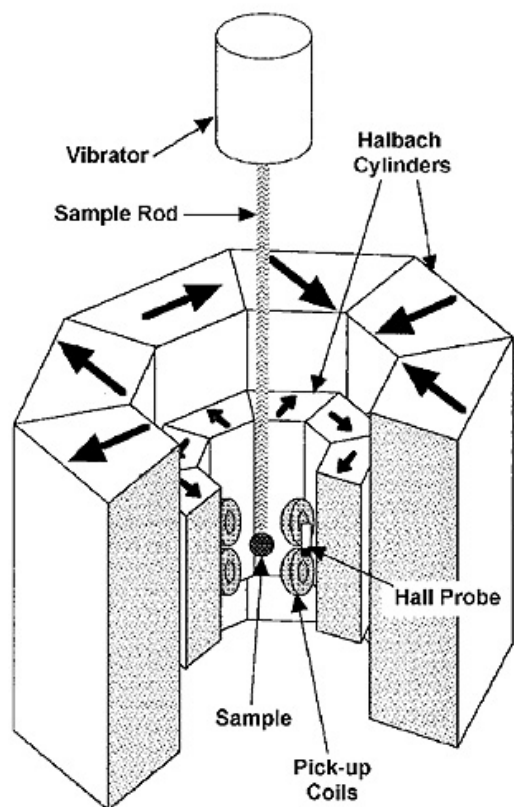
- For typical two coils configurations the material beyond about $z/a_0=1$ produces an output of opposite sign to that of $z/a_0 < 1^*$.
- Large support rod structures may interfere with the signal of the sample – the symmetric arrangement of holders will reduce/cancel that effect

* $2a_0$ – distance between coils

FIG. 11. Sketch comparing relative spatial distribution of: (a) relative external field $B(z)$; (b) sensitivity function $G(z)$ for $z_0 = a_0/2$ and $z_0 = a_0\sqrt{3}/2$; (c) sample support rod; (d) pressure clamp and support rod.

Vibrating sample magnetometer

- VSM is a standard method of measuring hysteresis of thin magnetic films (other popular method is a Kerr effect magnetometry)
- The VSM may use permanent magnets configurations like Halbach cylinders (see L.2) instead of electromagnets.



- There is an interesting development of VSM called an alternating gradient magnetometer (**AGM**):
 - the sample is placed in the static magnetic field which is locally modified by a small varying field of current coils
 - this field creates field gradient which exerts a sinusoidally varying force on the sample
 - the displacement of the sample is sensed by the piezoelement which is a part of the sample holder

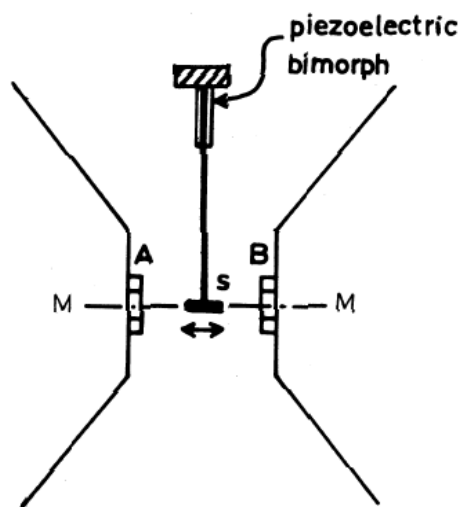


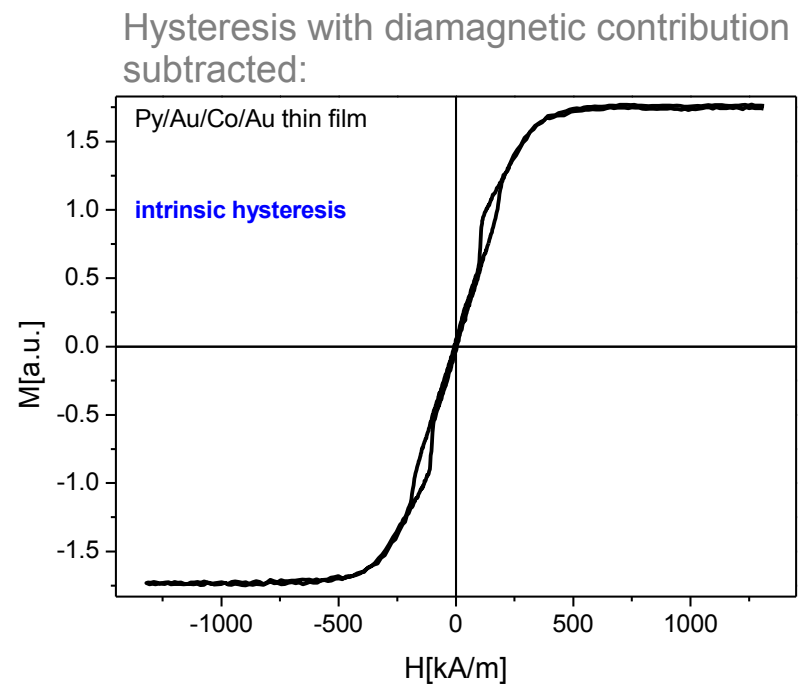
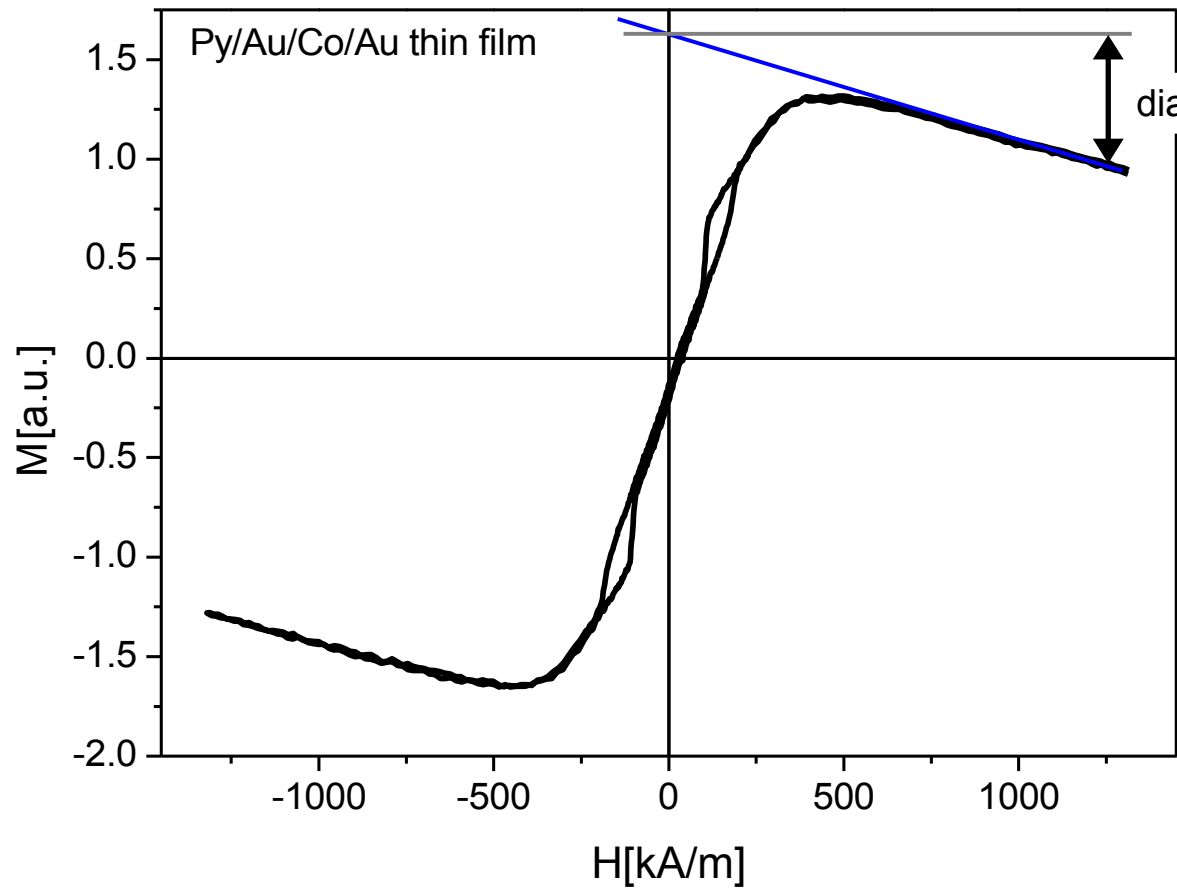
Fig.2 Simple AGM. M, M=electromagnet pole pieces; A, B=gradient field coils, connected series opposing; S=sample

-AGM is not necessarily suitable for soft magnetic materials

[7] C.D. Graham,
J. Mater. Sci. Technol. **16**, 100 (2000)

Vibrating sample magnetometer

- The shape of the sample influences the measurement of hysteresis with VSM (demagnetizing field) – intrinsic field differs from the applied field; the effect of demagnetizing field can be properly taken into account in ellipsoidal samples (see L2) or in their limiting cases (elongated rod, thin film)
- With VSM measurements of small volume samples (like thin films) it is often necessary to subtract the diamagnetic contribution from the sample holder



Vibrating sample magnetometer with SQUID

- The superconducting quantum interference device (SQUID) can be used as a flux to voltage converter in the VSM magnetometer.

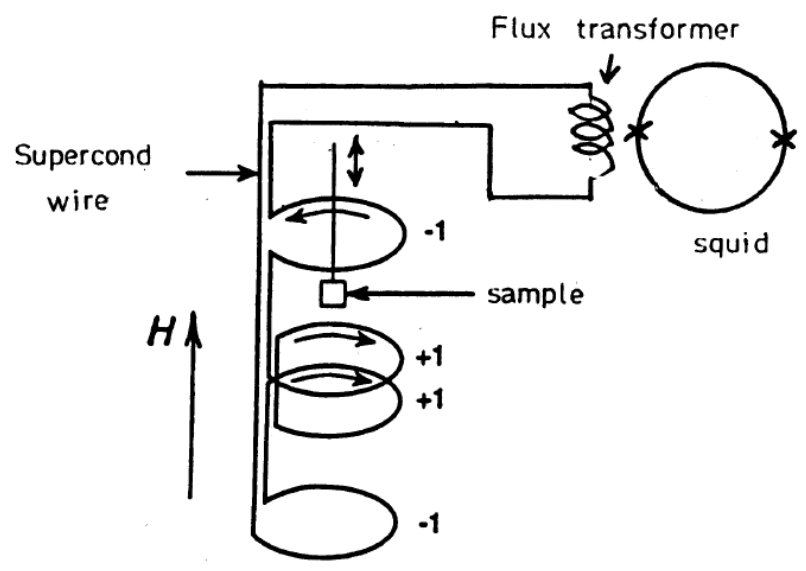


Fig.3 Diagram of SQUID magnetometer

- The sample vibrates between pick-up coils placed in an external magnetic field
- The coils are connected so as to insure that the change in the applied field produces no net flux in the coils (second order gradiometer [7])
- The coils are *coupled inductively to SQUID* element which converts flux changes caused by the movement of the sample to voltage
- The voltage is measured with lock-in principle
- The sensitivity of commercial VSMs with SQUID can exceed 10^{-11}Am^2 .

It corresponds roughly to 0.1mm×0.1mm×1nm piece of iron

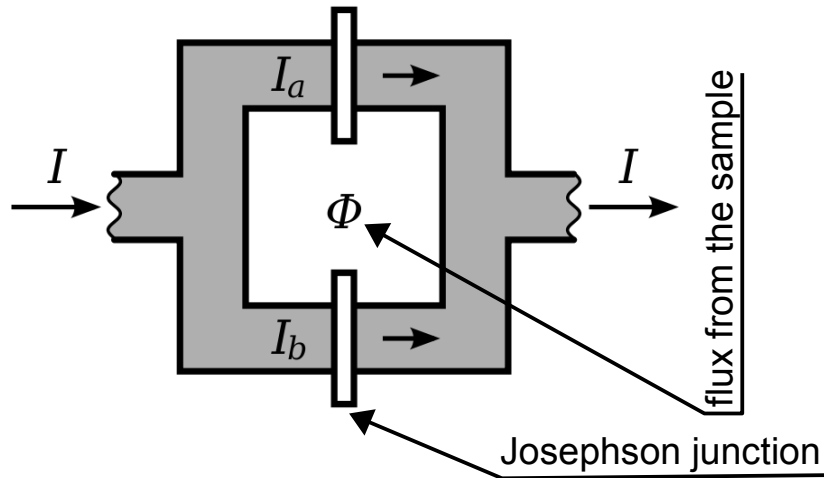
- Resolution is field dependent (noise from field source)

*MPMS SQUID VSM from Quantum Design

Image from: [7] C.D. Graham, J. Mater. Sci. Technol. 16, 100 (2000)

Vibrating sample magnetometer with SQUID

- The superconducting quantum interference device (SQUID) can be used as a flux to voltage converter in the VSM magnetometer.



- Magnetic flux passing through a superconducting current circuit is quantized:

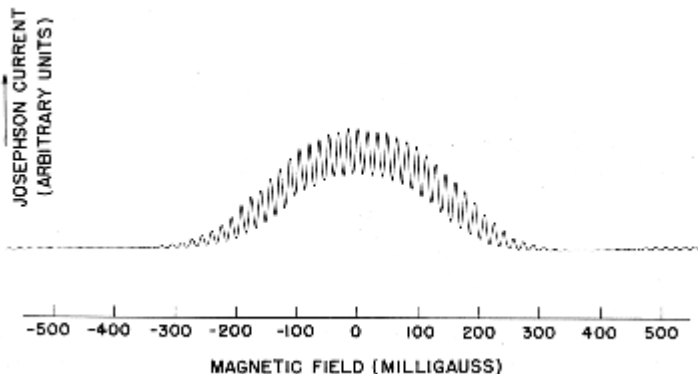
$$\phi_0 = \frac{h}{2e} \approx 2.067 \times 10^{-15} \text{ T m}^2$$

- The total current going through the junction can be shown to be [8]:

$$J_{tot} = J_0 \cos\left(\frac{2\pi e}{h} \phi\right)$$

- The current through the junction oscillates as the function of the flux through the superconducting coil. Since the junctions have a resistance we can measure the voltage drop across the device:

Counting oscillations one can determine the flux through the Josephson device



[8] SQUIDS: A Technical Report, <http://rich.phekda.org/squid/technical/index.html#toc>

Vibrating sample magnetometer with SQUID

- The magnetometers with SQUID are the most sensitive devices of this kind. They can measure field as low as 10^{-14} T* which is *less than fields associated with human brain activities*.
- The resolution of the device can be much better than the magnetic flux quantum.
- The sensitivity of the device allow the measurement of hysteresis loops of single particles:

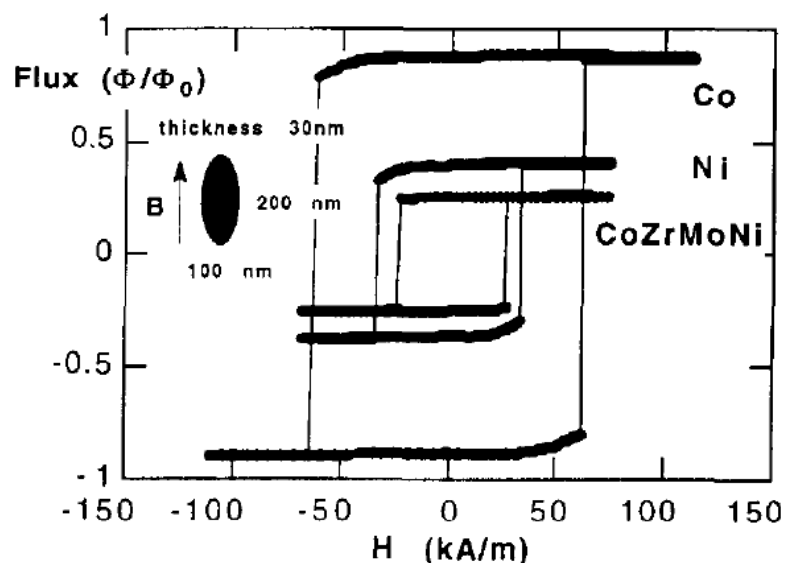


Fig. 3. Hysteresis loops of type A – Co, Ni and CoZrMoNi particles, ellipticity 200×100 nm, thickness 30 nm, $T = 0.2$ K.

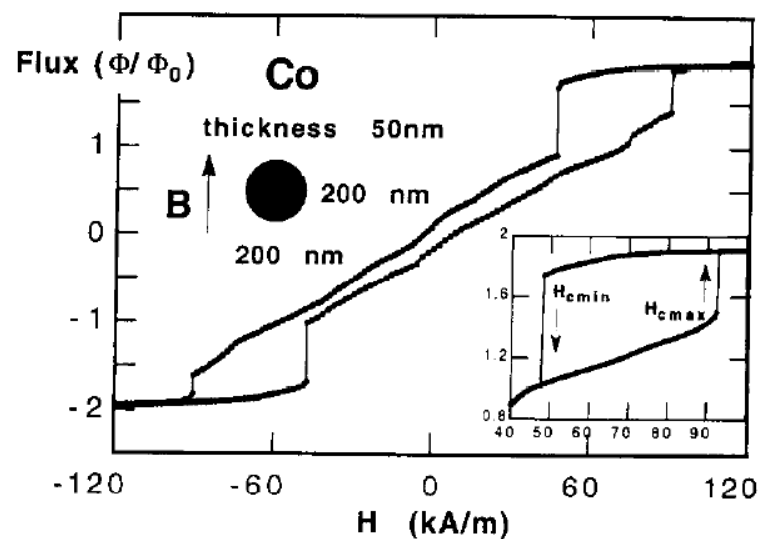


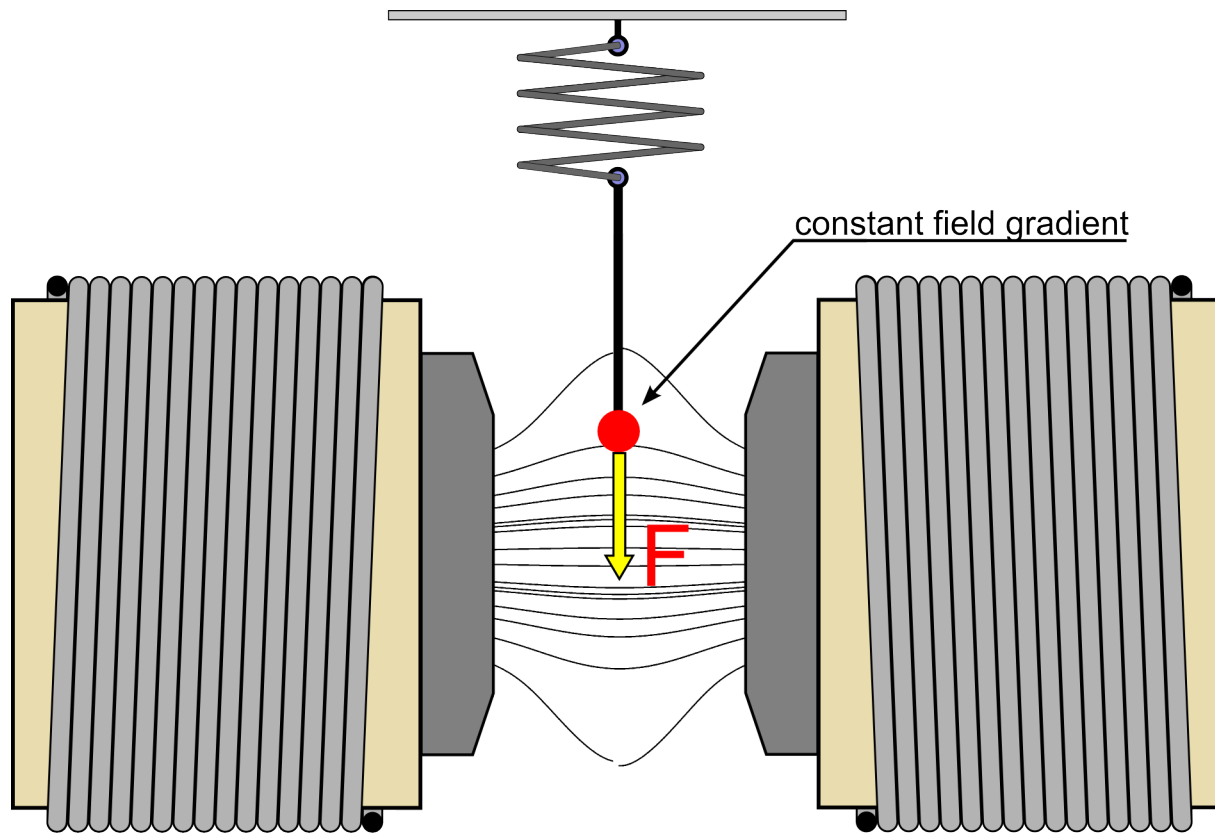
Fig. 6. Hysteresis loop of type C – Co particles, ellipticity 200×200 nm, thickness 50 nm, $T = 0.2$ K. The inset shows a minor loop of this particle.

Resolution of $10^{-4}\Phi_0$ – behavior of about 10^6 spins.

W. Wernsdorfer et al., Journal of Magnetism and Magnetic Materials 145 (1995) 33-39

Magnetic scales

- The magnetic moment and susceptibility can be measured with magnetic scales [10].
- They utilize the force exerted by a magnetic field with a gradient (see L.2) on magnetized body.
- The **Faraday method** utilizes the force on a small sample placed in virtually constant field gradient:

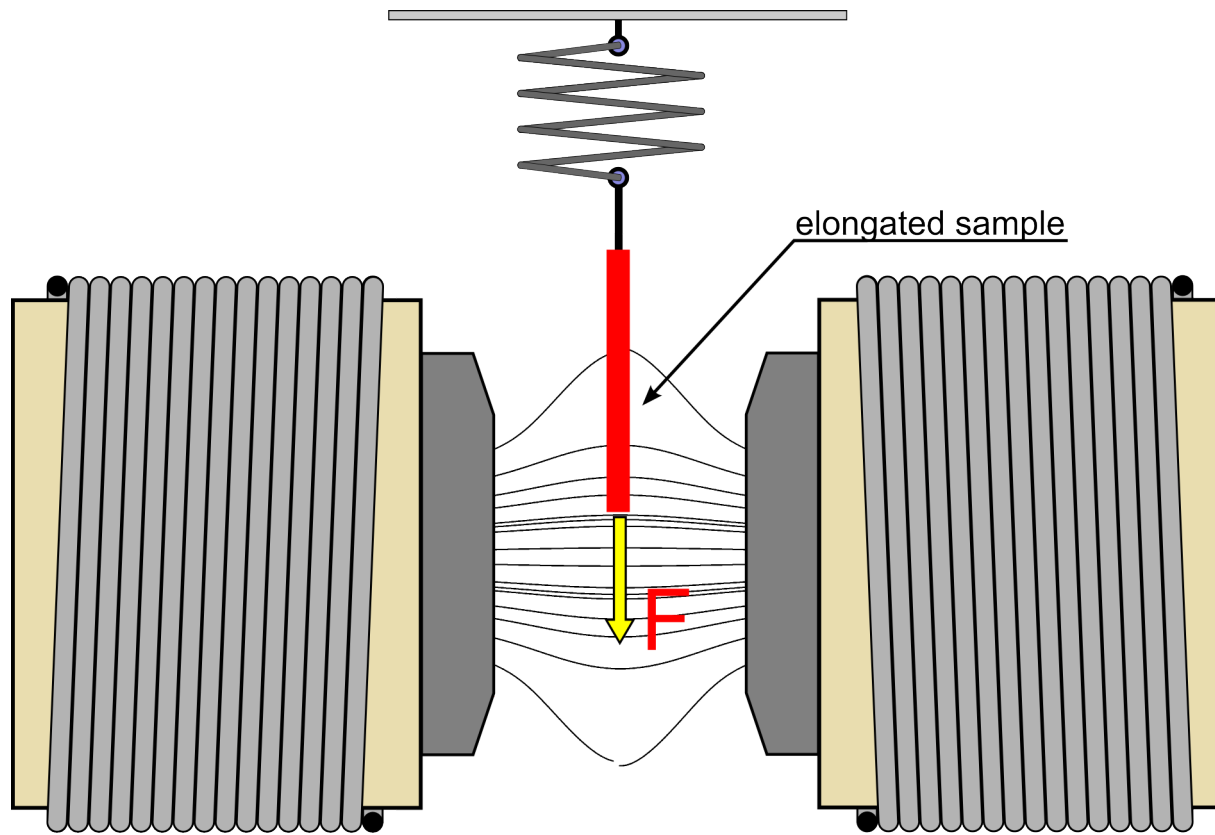


The force on magnetic particle is (L.2) (V - volume):

$$\vec{F} = \frac{1}{2\mu_0} \chi V \nabla (B^2)$$

Magnetic scales

- The **Gouy method** utilizes the force on a long bar sample with one end placed in electromagnet and the other one outside, in very small field.
- The method is used mainly for diamagnetic and paramagnetic substances.



The force on magnetic particle is (L.2) (V - volume):

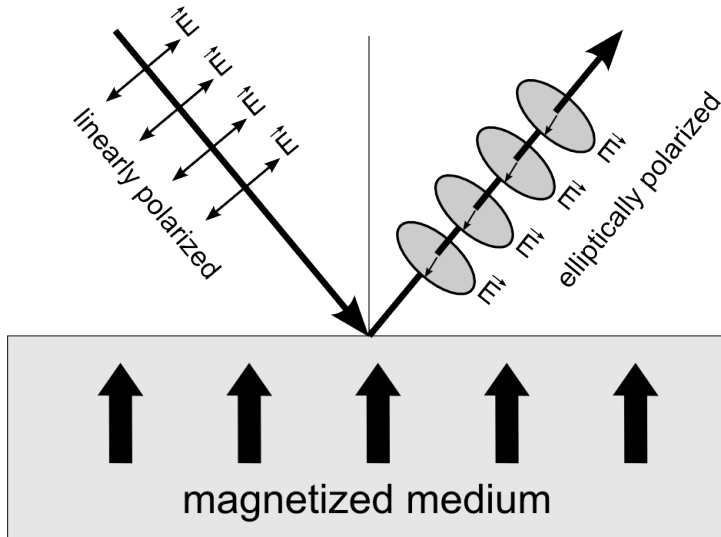
$$\vec{F} = \frac{1}{2\mu_0} \chi V \nabla (B^2)$$

Integrating this along the length of the sample we get [10]:

$$\vec{F} = \frac{1}{2} \chi V (H_{max}^2 - H_{min}^2) \approx \frac{1}{2} \chi V H_{max}^2$$

Kerr effect magnetometer

Kerr effect – change of polarization of light reflected from the surface of magnetized material*



- Using polarizer for incident light and analyzer for reflected light one obtains voltage which is, for small angles of rotation *proportional to the magnetization*:

$$I = I_0 \cos^2(\theta)$$

Malus' law

$$\cos^2(\theta) = 1 - \theta^2 + \dots$$

- The effect can be used to measure magnetic hysteresis of thin films (or near surface layers of bulk materials).
- The penetration depth is determined by skin depth for a given radiation frequency** and resistivity of the material.
- The Kerr magnetometers can be extremely sensitive ($1.2 \times 10^{-18} \text{ Am}^2$! [9])

$$** \delta = \sqrt{\frac{2\rho}{2\pi\mu_0\mu_r f}}$$

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- OpenOffice www.openoffice.org
- Inkscape inkscape.org
- POV-Ray www.povray.org
- Blender www.blender.org
- SketchUp sketchup.com.pl

I also used “Fizyczne metody osadzania cienkich warstw i metody analizy powierzchniowej” lectures by Prof. F. Stobiecki which he held at Poznań University of Technology in 2011.