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Short-term Internship report

**TDPAC measurements in Bismuth Ferrite**

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## ABSTRACT

Over the past decades, multiferroic materials have attracted increasing attention due to their potential for various practical applications in technology. Multiferroic materials demonstrate more than one of the main properties of ferrous in one phase, which include ferromagnetism, ferroelectricity and ferroelasticity. In the group of materials that demonstrate these characteristics,  $\text{BiFeO}_3$  (BFO) is currently the most interesting and most studied, as both its Néel and Curie temperatures are well above room temperature ( $T_N \approx 370^\circ\text{C}$  and  $T_C \approx 820^\circ\text{C}$ ).<sup>[1,2]</sup>

That is why in this report we present a study local magnetoelectric effect at Bi site in multiferroic bismuth ferrite ( $\text{BiFeO}_3$  or BFO) by using time differential perturbed angular correlation (TDPAC) spectroscopy. The main approach is to use the  $^{111\text{m}}\text{Cd}$  ( $^{111}\text{Cd}$ ) probe as a tracer ion for the investigation of the Bi site. The TDPAC measurements were carried out at various temperatures ( $15 - 500^\circ\text{C}$ ) after thermal treatment at  $800^\circ\text{C}$  in air for 20 minutes. The resulting TDPAC spectra show the absence of magnetoelectric coupling at the site of the bismuth ion in antiferromagnetic BFO below the Néel temperature. This key investigation experimentally confirms the anti-parallel alignment of iron-spins in BFO in anti-ferromagnetic (AF) phase. The experimental results agree well with calculations based on TDPAC theory. The substitutional Bi site location of the  $^{111\text{m}}\text{Cd}$  ( $^{111}\text{Cd}$ ) probe is confirmed using *ab-initio* DFT simulations.

## CHAPTER 1: BFO and its properties

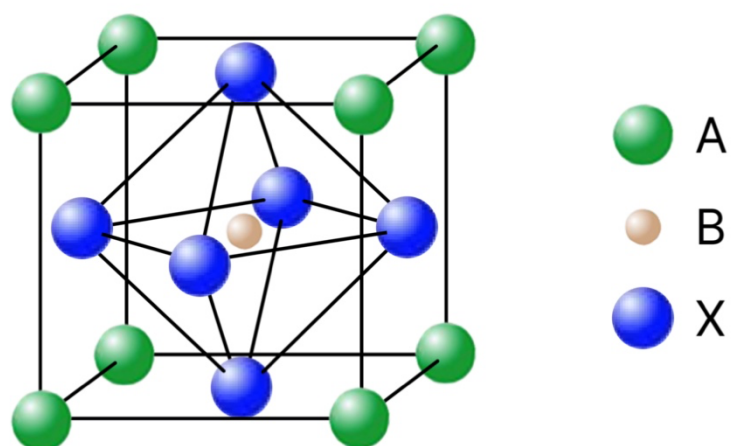
As we have already mentioned, bismuth ferrite is one of the most interesting multiferroics to study. A lot of previous investigators have shown that  $\text{BiFeO}_3$  (BFO) exhibits both magnetism and particularly strong ferroelectricity at RT and thus might be implemented and utilized effectively in various electronic devices such as sensors, data storage, memory devices, and spintronic and photovoltaic devices. This indicates the potential for future BFO-related innovations, according to the literature.<sup>[1,3]</sup>

Multiferroics are defined as materials that exhibit more than one of the primary ferroic properties in the same phase:<sup>[4]</sup>

- ferromagnetism – a magnetisation that is switchable by an applied magnetic field;
- ferroelectricity – an electric polarisation that is switchable by an applied electric field;
- ferroelasticity – a deformation that is switchable by an applied stress.

Multiferroics are often referred to as magnetoelectric materials because they possess both magnetic and electric ordering. This unique property, known as magnetoelectric coupling, allows for the manipulation of magnetization by an electric field and vice versa. In essence, these materials offer a bridge between electric and magnetic phenomena.

Many multiferroic materials are based on the perovskite crystal structure, characterized by the chemical formula  $\text{ABX}_3$ . In this structure, 'A' represents larger cations, 'B' represents smaller cations, and 'X' represents anions. Perovskite materials can be engineered to exhibit multiferroic behavior by carefully selecting the elements occupying the 'A' and 'B' sites.<sup>[5]</sup>



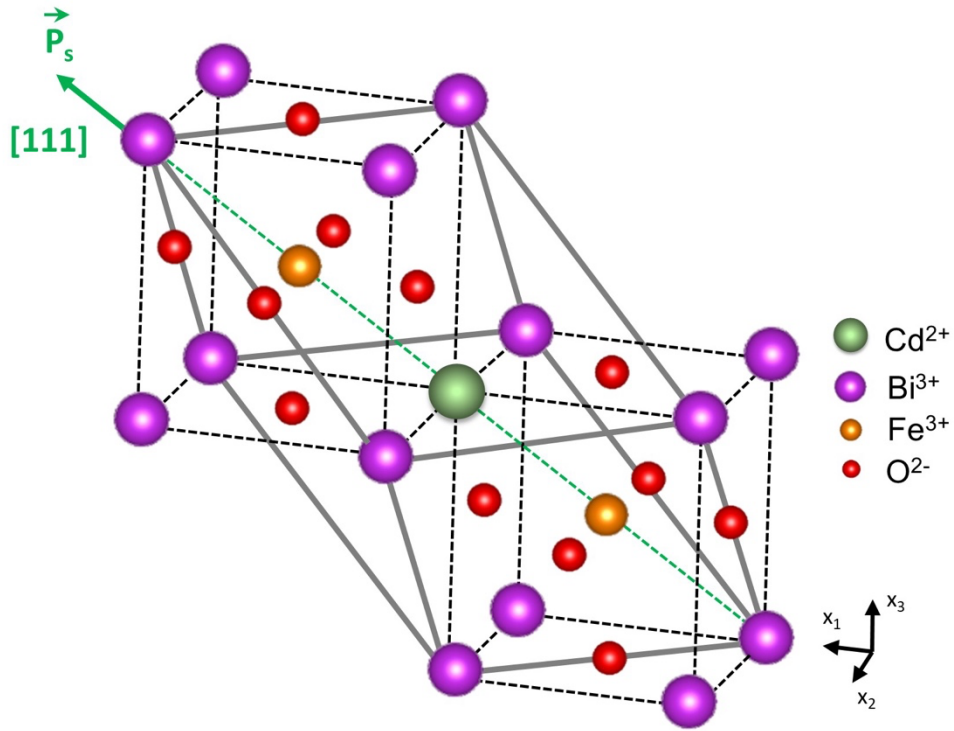
*Fig. 1. Perovskite crystal structure*

Figure 1 shows the visual representation of the perovskite structure, where the cations A and B are coordinated by corner linked octahedra of the X anions, and the B cation sits in the center of these octahedra, forming a three-dimensional network.

## CHAPTER 2: BFO $\alpha$ -phase

According to the literature<sup>[1,6]</sup>, the crystal structure of BFO in the  $\alpha$ -phase is the rhombohedral  $R3c$  space group with the hexagonal cell parameters  $a = 5.58$  Å and  $c = 13.87$  Å at room temperature (RT). The  $\alpha$ -phase exists up to  $T_C \approx 820^\circ\text{C}$ . The stability of this phase can be divided into two nonoverlapping temperature regions, with the Néel temperature  $T_N$  as the boundary line. Below  $T_N$ , which includes RT, BFO exhibits antiferromagnetic (AFM) properties. Above  $T_N$ , and up to the Curie temperature  $T_C$ , BFO is in the paramagnetic state. Around  $T_C$ , a ferroelectric-paraelectric phase transition appears in the  $\beta$  phase. Before BFO undergoes this ferroelectric transition, it undergoes a large spontaneous polarization ( $P \approx 90\text{--}100$   $\mu\text{C cm}^{-2}$ )<sup>[7,8]</sup> in the pseudocubic  $[111]$  direction, based on the work of T. T. Dang et al.<sup>[3]</sup>

$\text{Bi}^{3+}$  and  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  cations generate a nonconventional spontaneous electric polarization which is stabilized by the 6s lone pair electrons of Bi, a slight rotation of the oxygen octahedra, and a certain displacement of the iron ion. The rhombohedrally distorted perovskite structure of space group  $R3c$  results from 1 out of 8 possible orientations for polarization along the body diagonals of a pseudocubic unit cell; one such configuration is shown in Figure 2. Within a single ferroelectric domain, the crystal is rhombohedral with polarization along  $[111]_{\text{cubic}} = [001]_{\text{hex}}$ . Below the Néel temperature, the magnetic moments of the  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  cations interact via superexchange along the Fe-O-Fe bonds at a canting angle of  $156^\circ$ , which leads to antiferromagnetism. On top of this local structure, the magnetic moments generate an incommensurate cycloidal structure of magnetic moments in their respective easy planes. The cycloid has propagation direction along any one  $[110]_{\text{cubic}}$  crystal orientation perpendicular to the axis of electrical polarization. Both vectors span up the corresponding easy magnetic plane, based on the research by J. Schell et al.<sup>[9]</sup>



*Fig. 2. The rhombohedral unit cell (formed by two-unit cell of the pseudo-cubic perovskite) of the crystal structure of  $\text{BiFeO}_3$  with Bi-site substitution of  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$ .  $P_s$  indicates spontaneous electric polarization (designed by Thien Thanh Dang)*

Our study limits to the  $\alpha$ -phase, specifically antiferromagnetic phase (AF) where the measuring temperature is lower than  $400^\circ\text{C}$  because we would like to explore the local magnetoelectric coupling.

## CHAPTER 3: TDPAC

The technique known as time differential perturbed  $\gamma$ - $\gamma$  angular correlation, often abbreviated as TDPAC or TDPAC-Spectroscopy allows the investigation of the electromagnetic fields interacting with a nuclear probe located in the material<sup>[10, 11]</sup>. The probe nucleus, implanted in the sample, in its excited state decays to its ground state via the sensitive intermediate state through a  $\gamma$ - $\gamma$  cascade decay. Through an angular correlation between the first and the second  $\gamma$ -ray, distinguished through their energies and detection times, hyperfine interactions between the probe nuclei and their surrounding atomic structure can be monitored. A fixed detector, which detects a first quantum  $\gamma_1$ , defines a reference axis, conventionally designated as the  $z$ -axis. A number of nuclei with their initial spin  $I_i$  aligned to this direction is selected. This nuclear alignment leads to an anisotropic radiation of  $\gamma_2$  with regard to  $\gamma_1$ <sup>[12]</sup>. If the probe nucleus quadrupole momentum is disturbed through an electric field gradient (EFG) while being in the intermediate state, its spin  $I$  will experience a torque which forces a spin-precession around the before-referenced  $z$ -axis. Caused by this precession, the population of the intermediate state sublevels changes with time, which again affects the spacial anisotropy of the  $\gamma_1$ - $\gamma_2$  correlation. An electric field gradient is caused by charge distributions which deviate from an ideal spherically symmetric arrangement around the probe atom. It is defined as the second spacial derivative of the electrostatic potential. Through a diagonalization of the interaction Hamiltonian, rotating the tensor into its principal component coordinate system and the use of the Laplace equation, the EFG can be described by its largest component  $V_{zz}$  and the asymmetry parameter, based on the research by G. Marschick et al.<sup>:[2]</sup>

$$\eta = \frac{V_{xx} - V_{yy}}{V_{zz}} \quad (1)$$

The observable spin dependent quadrupole frequency is calculated through:

$$\omega_Q = \frac{eQV_{zz}}{4I(2I-1)\hbar} \quad (2)$$

where  $e$  is the electron charge,  $Q$  the quadrupole moment of the intermediate state of the probe nucleus,  $I$  its angular momentum, and  $\hbar$  the reduced Planck's constant.

Generally one uses the derived quantity  $\nu_Q$ <sup>[9,13]</sup>:

$$\nu_Q = \frac{eQV_{zz}}{h} \quad (3)$$

which is called the electric quadrupole interaction frequency.

For an anisotropy coefficient  $\eta$  of zero, the lowest detectable substate-transition frequency is:

$$\omega_1 = k\omega_Q, \quad (4)$$

with  $k = 6$  for half-integer values of spin momentum, like the  $I = 5/2$  level of the probe isotope  $^{111m}\text{Cd}$ . The higher-ordered frequencies are calculated through  $\omega_n = n\omega_1$ .

If  $\eta$  is different from zero, the transition frequencies  $\omega_n$  are functions of  $\omega_Q$  and  $\eta$  itself:

$$\omega_1 = 2\sqrt{3}\alpha\omega_q \sin\left(\frac{1}{3}\arccos(\beta)\right) \quad (5)$$

$$\omega_2 = 2\sqrt{3}\alpha\omega_q \sin\left(\frac{1}{3}[\pi - \arccos(\beta)]\right) \quad (6)$$

$$\omega_3 = 2\sqrt{3}\alpha\omega_q \sin\left(\frac{1}{3}[\pi + \arccos(\beta)]\right) \quad (7)$$

with

$$\alpha = \sqrt{\frac{28(3+\eta^2)}{3}} \quad (8)$$

and

$$\beta = \frac{80(1-\eta^2)}{\alpha^3} \quad (9)$$

It is noted in some literatures that the observable spin dependent quadrupole frequency in (2) is expressed by  $\omega_0$ , where  $\omega_0 = 6\omega_Q = \frac{3\pi}{10}\nu_Q$ . Therefore, it is inferred from (4) that  $\omega_0 = \omega_1$  (lowest detectable substate-transition frequency) when  $\eta = 0$ .



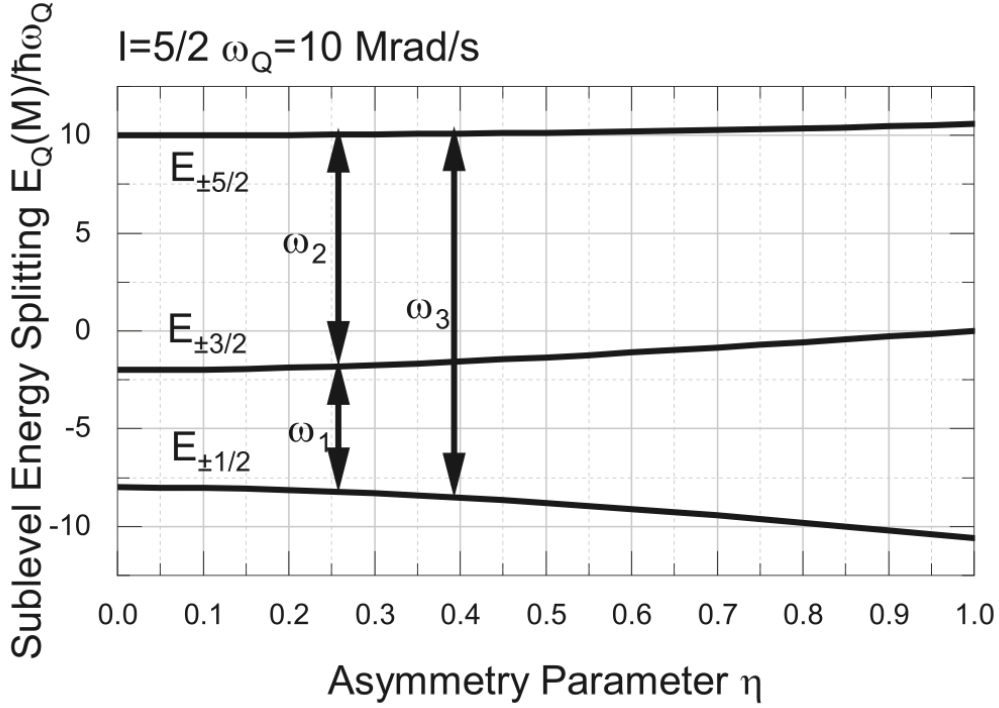


Fig. 3. Change of sublevel energies  $E_Q(M)$  with increasing asymmetry parameter. Reference value only valid for  $I = 5/2$ , taken from the work of Marschick et al.<sup>[2]</sup>

When two successive  $\gamma$  rays are emitted from a single nucleus, they can be observed using two detectors placed in either perpendicular or opposite orientations. By exploring all potential arrangements of detector positions, both with four and six detectors, we can create 12 and 30 individual coincidence spectra, respectively. Within each of these coincidence spectra, any background noise arising from chance coincidences is subtracted. This process enables us to determine the experimental count rate ratio, denoted as  $R(t)$ , which characterizes the disparity between the coincidence count rates observed when the two detectors are positioned at  $180^\circ$  and  $90^\circ$  orientations:<sup>[14]</sup>

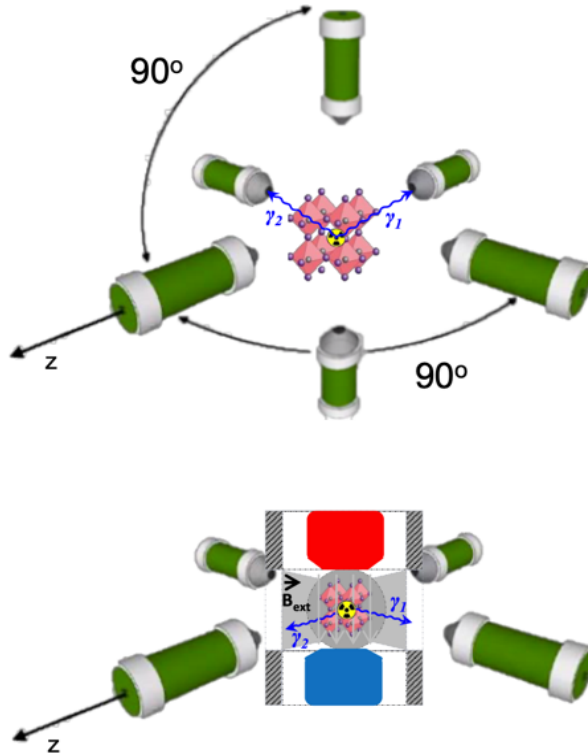
$$R(t) = 2 \frac{W(180^\circ, t) - W(90^\circ, t)}{W(180^\circ, t) + 2W(90^\circ, t)} = A_{22}^{\text{eff}} G_{22}(t) \quad (10)$$

where  $W(180^\circ, t)$  denotes the fourth or sixth root of the product of the  $180^\circ$  spectra after background subtraction and zero-point adjustment. Here,  $W(90^\circ, t)$  denotes the 8th or 24th root of the product of the  $90^\circ$  spectra from the 4- or 6-detector setups, respectively. Also,  $A_{22}^{\text{eff}}$  is the experimental anisotropy coefficient of the  $\gamma_1 - \gamma_2$  cascade and  $G_{22}(t)$  is the theoretical perturbation factor, whose form depends on the type of hyperfine interaction induced at the probe site:<sup>[3]</sup>

$$G_{22}(t) = \sum_{i=1}^m f_i (a_{0i} + \sum_{n=1}^{30} a_{ni} \cos(\omega_{ni} t) \cdot \exp\{-0.5[(\delta_i \omega_{ni} t)^p + (\omega_{ni} \tau_R)^2]\}) \exp(-\lambda_i t) \quad (11)$$

where  $f_i$  is the fraction of probe atoms exposed to the hyperfine interaction  $i$  ( $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ ).  $\omega_{ni}$  are transition frequencies taken from 30 nondiagonal elements of a  $6 \times 6$  frequency matrix;  $a_{ni}$  are taken from 30 nondiagonal elements of a  $6 \times 6$  amplitude matrix and are amplitudes of 30 corresponding transition frequencies;  $a_{0i}$  is determined from the sum of six diagonal elements of the amplitude matrix and is called the hard-core value. The values  $p = 1$  and  $2$  in the exponent represent Lorentzian and Gaussian distributions respectively.  $\delta_i$  is the extent of angular distortion of the local environment around the probe.  $\tau_R$  is the finite time resolution (full width at half maximum) of the detectors.  $\lambda_i$  is the exponential decay constant or dynamic transition, according to the literature.<sup>[3]</sup>

More detailed information about TDPAC can be found in the literature.<sup>[15,16]</sup>



*Fig. 4. Location of detectors around the sample with the radioactive probe in the experimental setup (Image by Thien Thanh Dang 2023)*

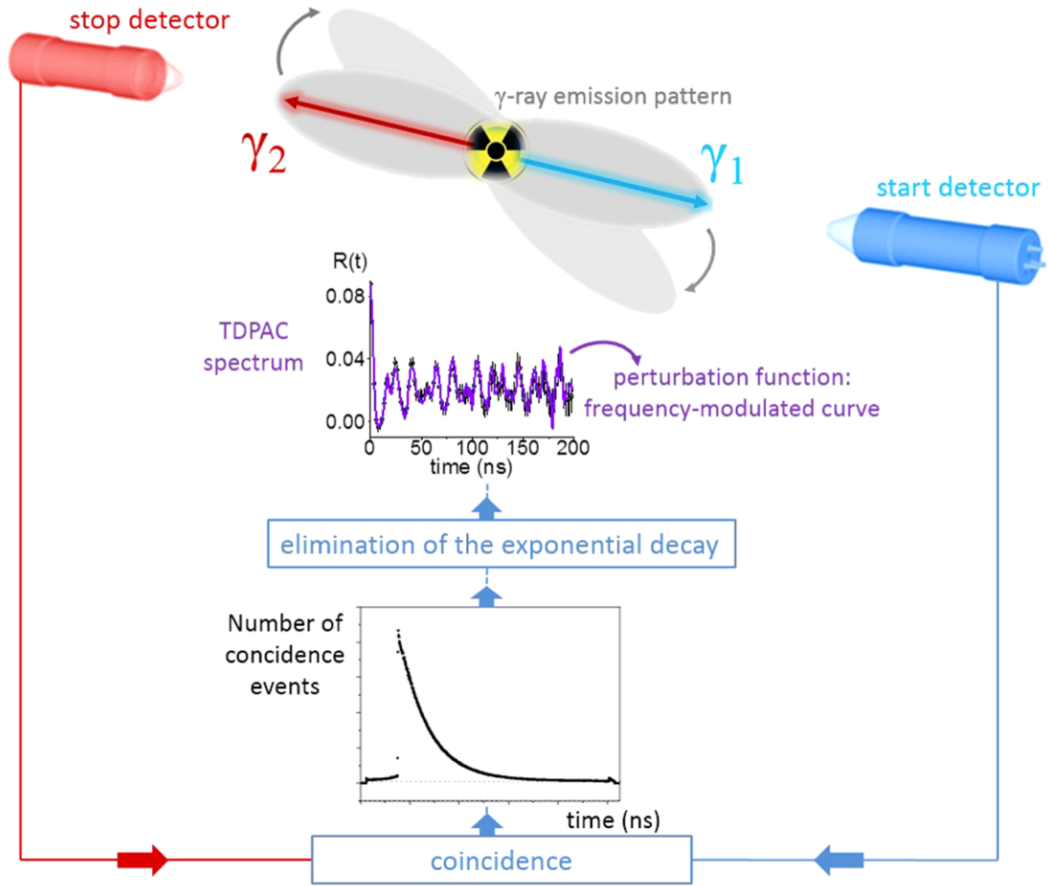
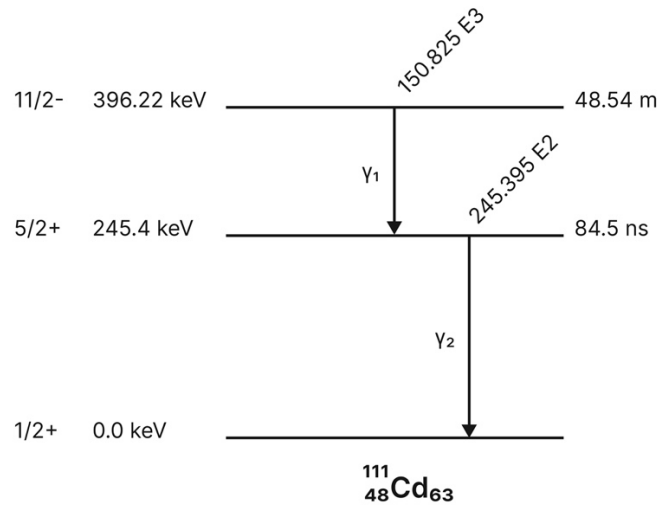


Fig. 5. Basic representation of the  $\gamma$ - $\gamma$  TDPAC technique: detection and coincidence of the rotating emission gamma-cascade pattern, elimination of the exponential decay and generation of frequency-modulated TDPAC curve of the intermediate state, taken from literature<sup>[11]</sup>

## CHAPTER 4: $^{111m}\text{Cd}$ probe

In this research, the nuclear probe utilized to characterize BFO bulks is  $^{111m}\text{Cd}$ . This allows us to investigate the hyperfine interaction between this probe and the nearby atoms by utilizing the TDPAC technique.

To prepare a sample with a nuclear probe for TDPAC measurements, we used the implantation method at ISOLDE-CERN, more detailed information can be found in the literature<sup>[17,18]</sup>. During implantation, a radioactive ion beam with the energy of 30 keV is generated and directed into the crystal lattice of the sample. These ions either come to a stop at interstitial sites or push a lattice-atom out of its place and replace it. This leads to a disruption of the crystal structure, which can be investigated with TDPAC. A careful annealing procedure gradually corrects defect bonds between atoms, thereby leading to the recovery of the regular lattice structure in the local environment of the probe isotopes, based on the research of Schell et al.<sup>[19]</sup>



*Fig. 6. Decay schema of  $^{111m}\text{Cd}$ , data taken from the IAEA Table of Nuclides.<sup>[20]</sup>*

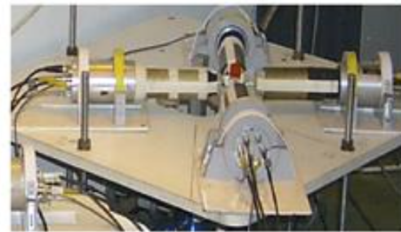
## CHAPTER 5: Data results and discussions

### 5.1 More about TDPAC detector and sample

Figure 7 shows two types of experimental TDPAC spectrometers at ISOLDE. First one is an analogue TDPAC setup (with 4 detectors) named K1 and second one is a digital TDPAC setup (with 6 detectors) named KATAME. A (4-/6-) detectors TDPAC-spectrometer, produces 12/30 coincidence spectra, which are not all similar. There are a set of similar spectra taken with detectors at 90 degrees and another set of spectra taken at 180 degrees. These two sets of spectra are combined to build the  $R(t)$  anisotropy ratio function, i.e., the observable containing all the information regarding the coupling of the nuclear moments with the hyperfine magnetic field and electric field gradient, according to the literature.<sup>[11]</sup> More detailed information about TDPAC spectrometers with 4- and 6-detectors can be found in literature.<sup>[11, 21]</sup>

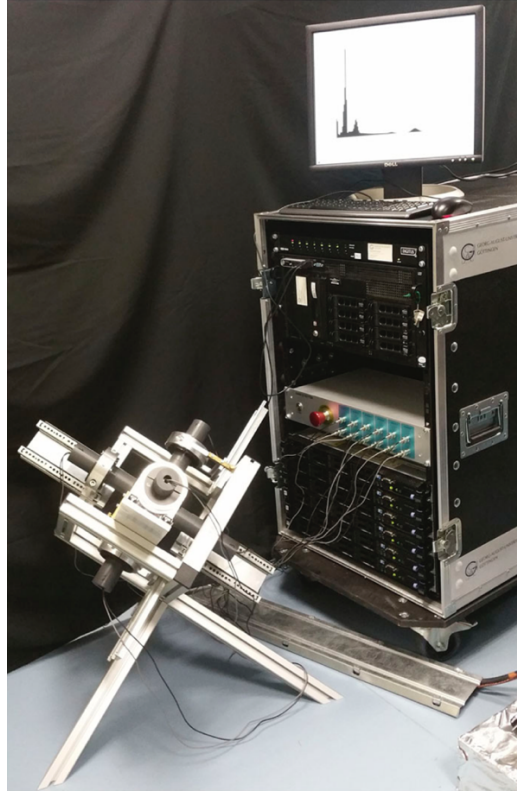


(a)



(b)

(1)



(2)

*Fig. 7. Experimental TDPAC spectrometers. (1) Analogue TDPAC setup (K1) at the ISOLDE. (a) Electronic system with delay boxes; (b) the four detectors setup. (2) Digital and compact TDPAC setup (KATAME), taken from literature.<sup>[11]</sup>*

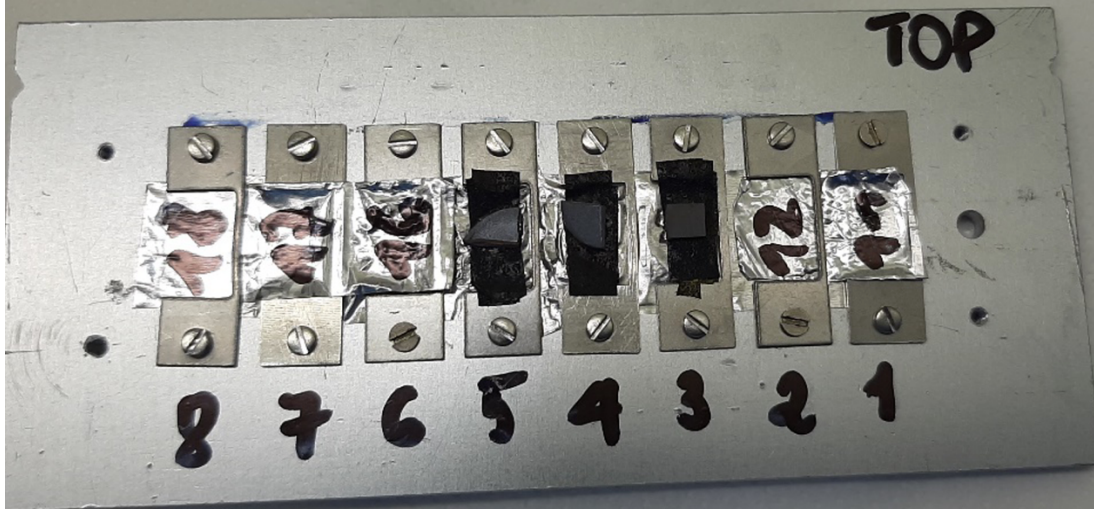


Fig. 8. BFO samples ( $\sim 4 \times 4$  mm) on sample holder (positions 3, 4, 5)

## 5.2 Compressed method

One of the goals of this research is to compare the obtained data with the compressed data to understand how much the too fine data sampling and the compressed data differ in data fitting. And to compress the data, we can use a smoothing algorithm, where only every other output is stored, according to the literature:<sup>[22]</sup>

$$y_j \equiv y_{2k} = \frac{1}{4}(f_{k-1} + 2f_k + f_{k+1}) \quad (12)$$

Where  $j = 0, \dots, \frac{N}{2}$

And we assume that for  $y_0, f_{-1} = f_0$ . Here, there is no phase shift. The visualization of the smoothing algorithm for data compression is shown in Figure 9.

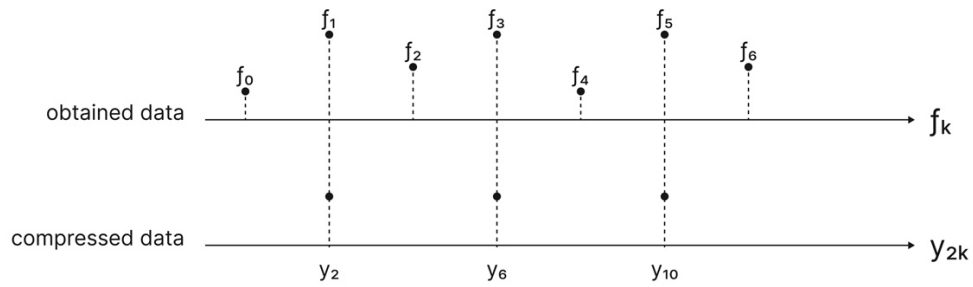


Fig. 9. Data compression algorithm



## 5.3 Experimental results and discussions

### 5.3.1 Non-compressed $R(t)$ spectra

#### A. One fraction:

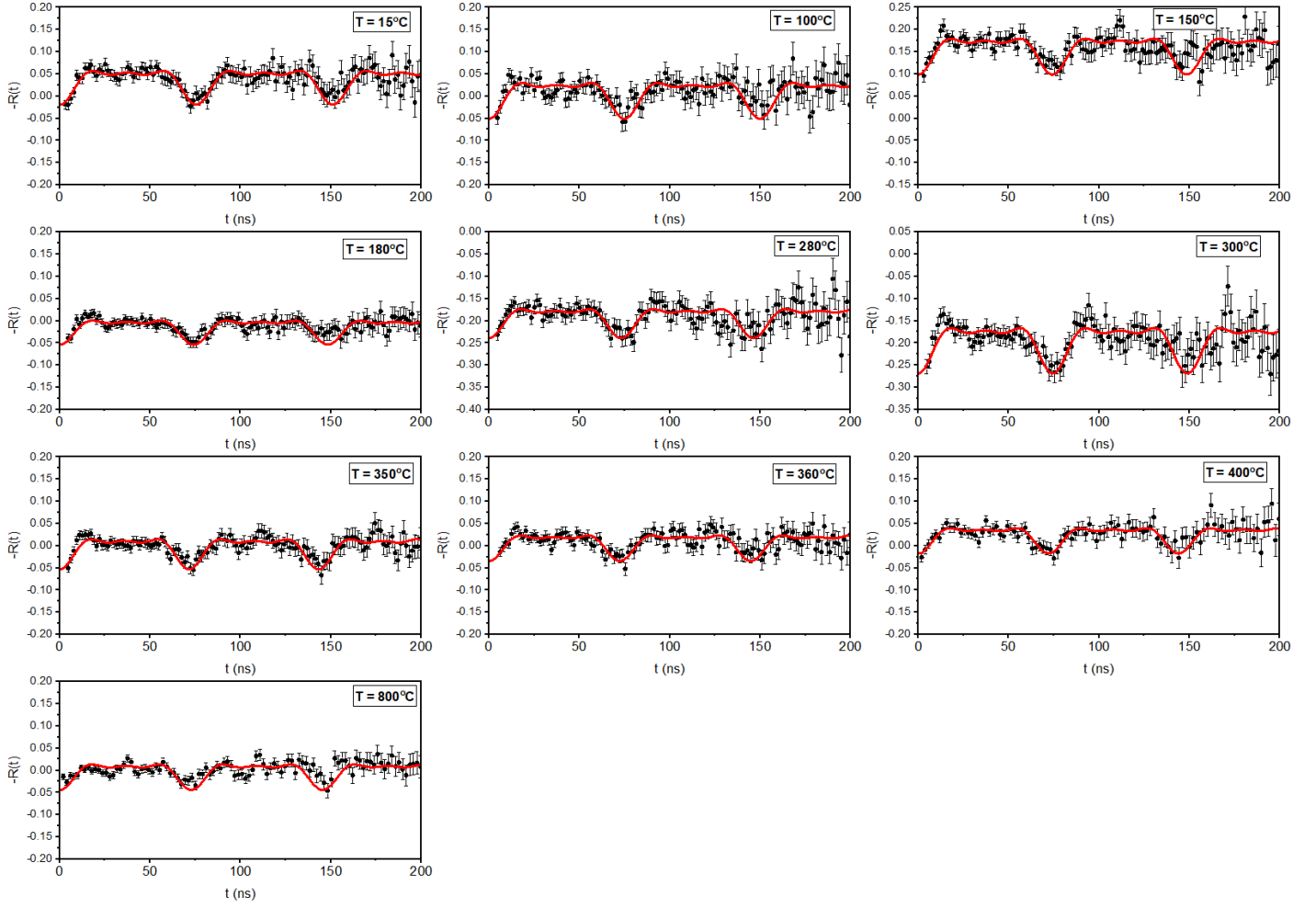


Fig. 10. Fitting curves for non-compressed spectra for one fraction



Table 1

| $T [^{\circ}\text{C}]$ | $f_1 [1]$ | $\nu_{Q1}, \text{MHz}$ | $\eta_1[1]$ | $\delta_1[1]$ |
|------------------------|-----------|------------------------|-------------|---------------|
| 15                     | 1         | $88.2 \pm 0.5$         | 0           | 0             |
| 100                    | 1         | $88.9 \pm 0.6$         | 0           | 0             |
| 150                    | 1         | $89.8 \pm 0.6$         | 0           | 0             |
| 180                    | 1         | $89.9 \pm 0.7$         | 0           | 0             |
| 280                    | 1         | $91.1 \pm 0.6$         | 0           | 0             |
| 300                    | 1         | $89.5 \pm 0.5$         | 0           | 0             |
| 350                    | 1         | $93.1 \pm 0.4$         | 0           | 0             |
| 360                    | 1         | $92.1 \pm 0.6$         | 0           | 0             |
| 400                    | 1         | $92.5 \pm 0.5$         | 0           | 0             |
| 800                    | 1         | $91.6 \pm 0.6$         | 0           | 0             |

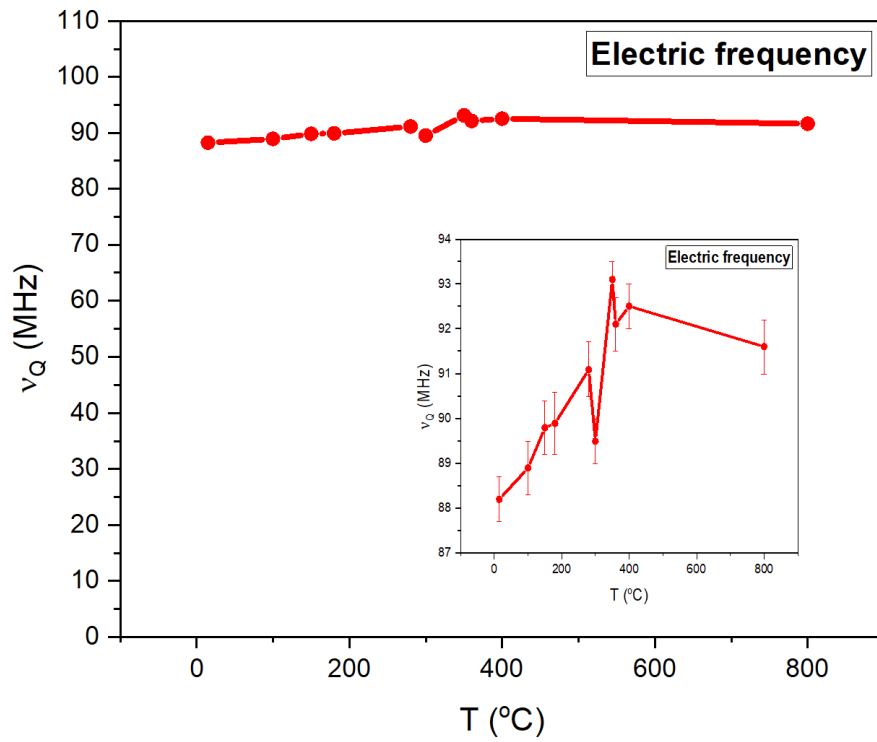
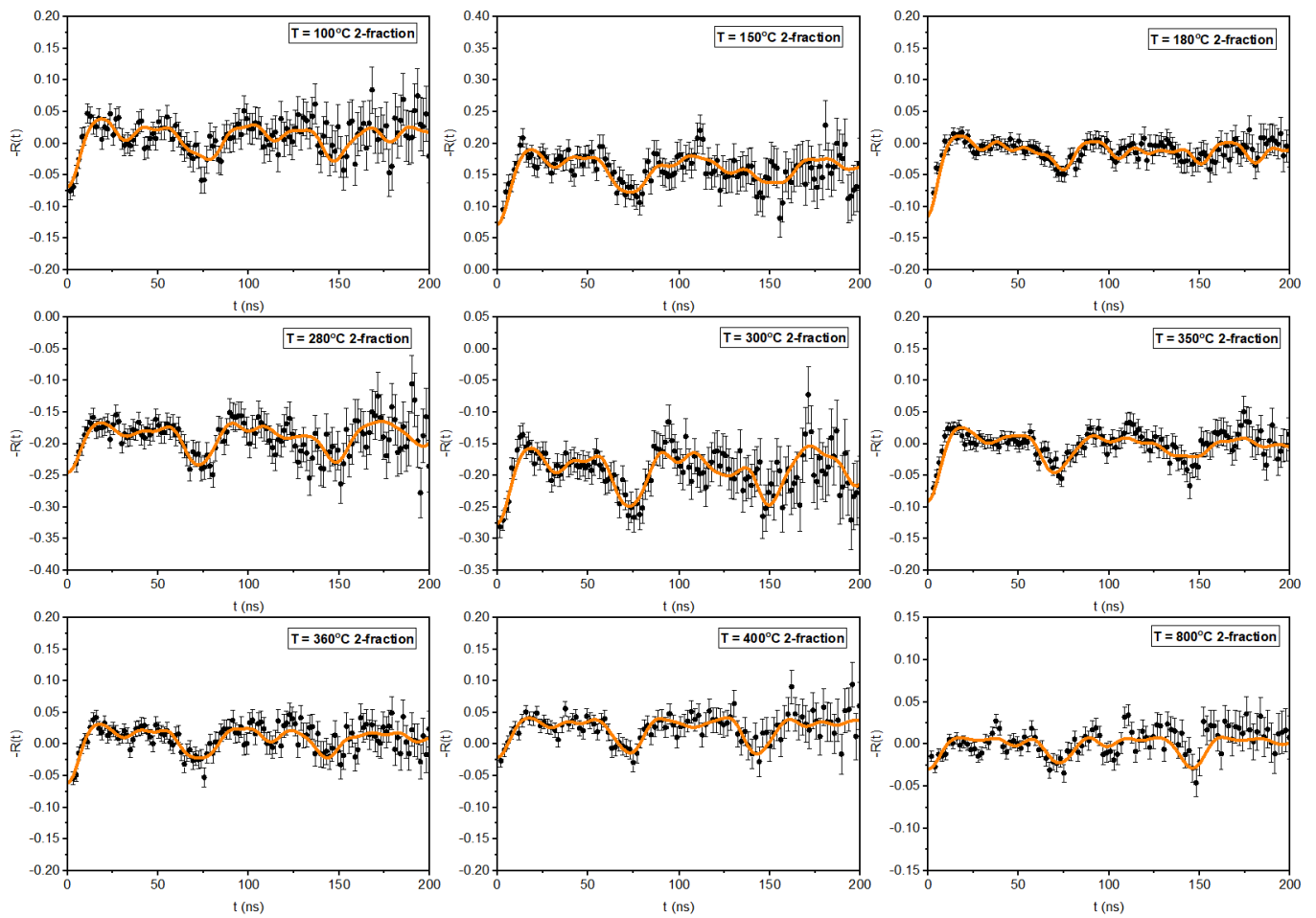


Fig. 11. Dependence of electric frequency on temperature for the one fraction case

Figure 10 shows quite unsuccessful and inaccurate fit, especially at high temperature region ( $T > 280^\circ\text{C}$ ), with only one fraction. This can be seen in the first 25 nanoseconds, when the fitting curve does not match the experimental data. For this reason, all spectra will be refitted with two fractions.

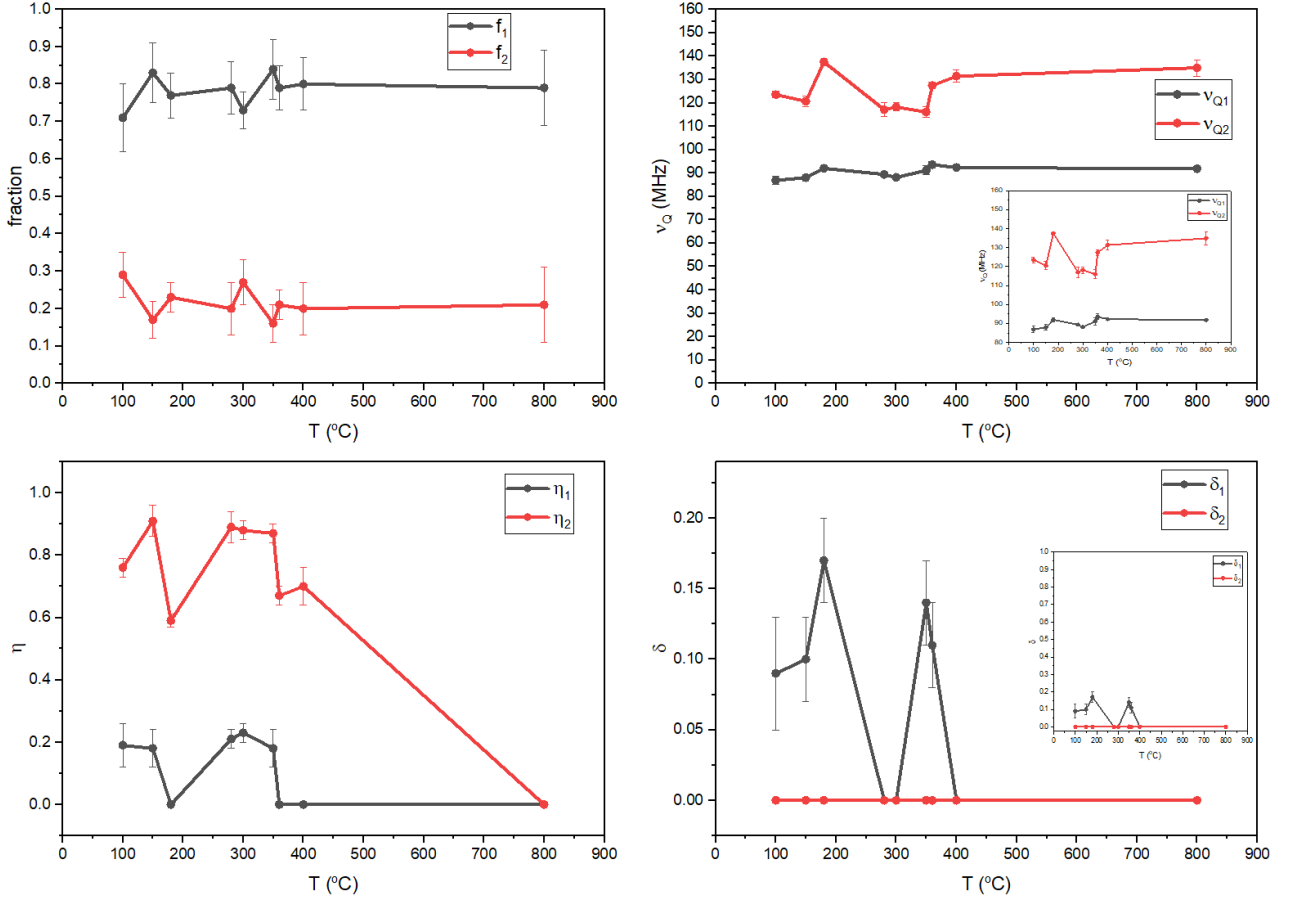
## B. Two fractions:



*Fig. 12. Fitting curves for non-compressed spectra for two fractions*

Table 2

| T [°C] | $f_1$ [1]     | $f_2$ [1]     | $\nu_{Q1}$ ,<br>MHz | $\nu_{Q2}$ ,<br>MHz | $\eta_1$ [1]  | $\eta_2$ [1]  | $\delta_1$ [1] | $\delta_2$ [1] |
|--------|---------------|---------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|----------------|
| 100    | 0.71±0<br>.09 | 0.29±<br>0.06 | 86.88±1<br>.64      | 123.55±<br>1.42     | 0.19±<br>0.07 | 0.76±<br>0.03 | 0.09±<br>0.04  | 0              |
| 150    | 0.83±0<br>.08 | 0.17±<br>0.05 | 87.96±1<br>.45      | 120.61±<br>2.20     | 0.18±<br>0.06 | 0.91±<br>0.05 | 0.10±<br>0.03  | 0              |
| 180    | 0.77±0<br>.06 | 0.23±<br>0.04 | 91.97±1<br>.22      | 137.52±<br>1.01     | 0             | 0.59±<br>0.02 | 0.17±<br>0.03  | 0              |
| 280    | 0.79±0<br>.07 | 0.20±<br>0.07 | 89.38±0<br>.74      | 117.06±<br>2.86     | 0.21±<br>0.03 | 0.89±<br>0.05 | 0              | 0              |
| 300    | 0.73±0<br>.05 | 0.27±<br>0.06 | 88.08±0<br>.64      | 118.20±<br>1.73     | 0.23±<br>0.03 | 0.88±<br>0.03 | 0              | 0              |
| 350    | 0.84±0<br>.08 | 0.16±<br>0.05 | 91.15±<br>1.92      | 116.02±<br>2.29     | 0.18±<br>0.06 | 0.87±<br>0.03 | 0.14±<br>0.03  | 0              |
| 360    | 0.79±0<br>.06 | 0.21±<br>0.04 | 93.51±1<br>.47      | 127.46±<br>1.43     | 0             | 0.67±<br>0.03 | 0.11±<br>0.03  | 0              |
| 400    | 0.80±0<br>.07 | 0.20±<br>0.07 | 92.32±0<br>.76      | 131.42±<br>2.72     | 0             | 0.70±<br>0.06 | 0              | 0              |
| 800    | 0.79±0<br>.10 | 0.21±<br>0.10 | 91.80±0<br>.10      | 134.96±<br>3.52     | 0             | 0             | 0              | 0              |



*Fig. 13. Curves of hyperfine interaction parameters for two fractions*

The second fraction will be necessary because part of the probe is likely to be located at Bi-site with surrounding distorted Bi atoms. While the first fraction means that Cd is located at Bi-site near a less distorted Bi atoms. Tables 2 and 4 show that the probability that the probe will be located near a less distorted Bi-atoms is greater (first fraction  $f_1$ ) than when the probe is located near a distorted Bi-atoms (second fraction  $f_2$ ).

In other words, fitting with two fractions gives much better results than fitting with only one fraction, because it considers the probability that the probe can be either near a distorted Bi-site or near a less distorted one. The small percentage of distorted Bi atoms probably originates from synthesizing process (solid-state reaction approach).

As shown in Table 2 and Figure 13, the electric frequencies from both fractions behave independently with measuring temperatures although there is a

little fluctuation around 130 MHz at low temperature region for fraction 2. The electric frequency for fraction 1 is quite stable around 87 MHz, which is compatible with DFT simulation presented in the work of Marschick et al.<sup>[2]</sup> In fact, the stoichiometric replacement of  $\text{Bi}^{3+}$  (0.103 nm)<sup>[23]</sup> with a smaller ionic radii substituent ( $\text{Cd}^{2+}$ : 0.095 nm) will decrease the lattice parameter and unit cell volume<sup>[24, 25]</sup>. In addition, the structure of  $\text{BiFeO}_3$  is distorted from rhombohedral to orthorhombic. Consequently, the orthorhombic structure is more stable than that of original rhombohedral  $\text{BiFeO}_3$ <sup>[25, 26]</sup>. This agrees well with our TDPAC result that the electric field gradients (EFGs) behave independently with measuring temperatures. However, with low concentration of  $^{111}\text{mCd}$  (ppm: parts per million) the crystallography will not be changed from rhombohedral to orthorhombic as reported from literatures<sup>[24, 25, 26]</sup>. What we obtain here is just defect relaxation at local scale. So, in our study with  $^{111}\text{mCd}$  tracer the BFO structure stabilizes locally (not macroscopically).

The damping factors from both fractions are almost zero, reflecting the fact that the Cd-probe is well-situated at Bi-site, and therefore the electric frequencies are well-distributed around the mean value. This also confirms that the ion implantation process and thermal treatment after implantation were well performed.

The asymmetry parameter for fraction 1 is zero or close to zero, which is also in good agreement with the DFT simulation<sup>[2]</sup>, reflecting that the charge distribution around the Cd-probe is symmetrical. The asymmetry parameter for fraction 2, in contrast, is close to 1. That means the Cd-probe is surrounded by highly asymmetrical charge due to distorted environment (Bi-atoms) as discussed above.

When we replace  $\text{Bi}^{3+}$  with  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$ , this leads to a change from  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  to  $\text{Fe}^{4+}$  in the compound to compensate unbalanced charge, which in turn means that the magnetic moment will be close to zero for  $\text{Fe}^{4+}$  ions, and therefore no magnetic frequency will be observed, based on the work of Zhou et al.<sup>[27]</sup> The existence of  $\text{Fe}^{4+}$  in the unit cell shown in Fig. 2 will break down the super exchange interaction between  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ - $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  which is known as the main mechanism leading to anti-ferromagnetic order in bismuth ferrite  $\text{BiFeO}_3$ .

### 5.3.2 Compressed R(t) spectra

#### C. One fraction:

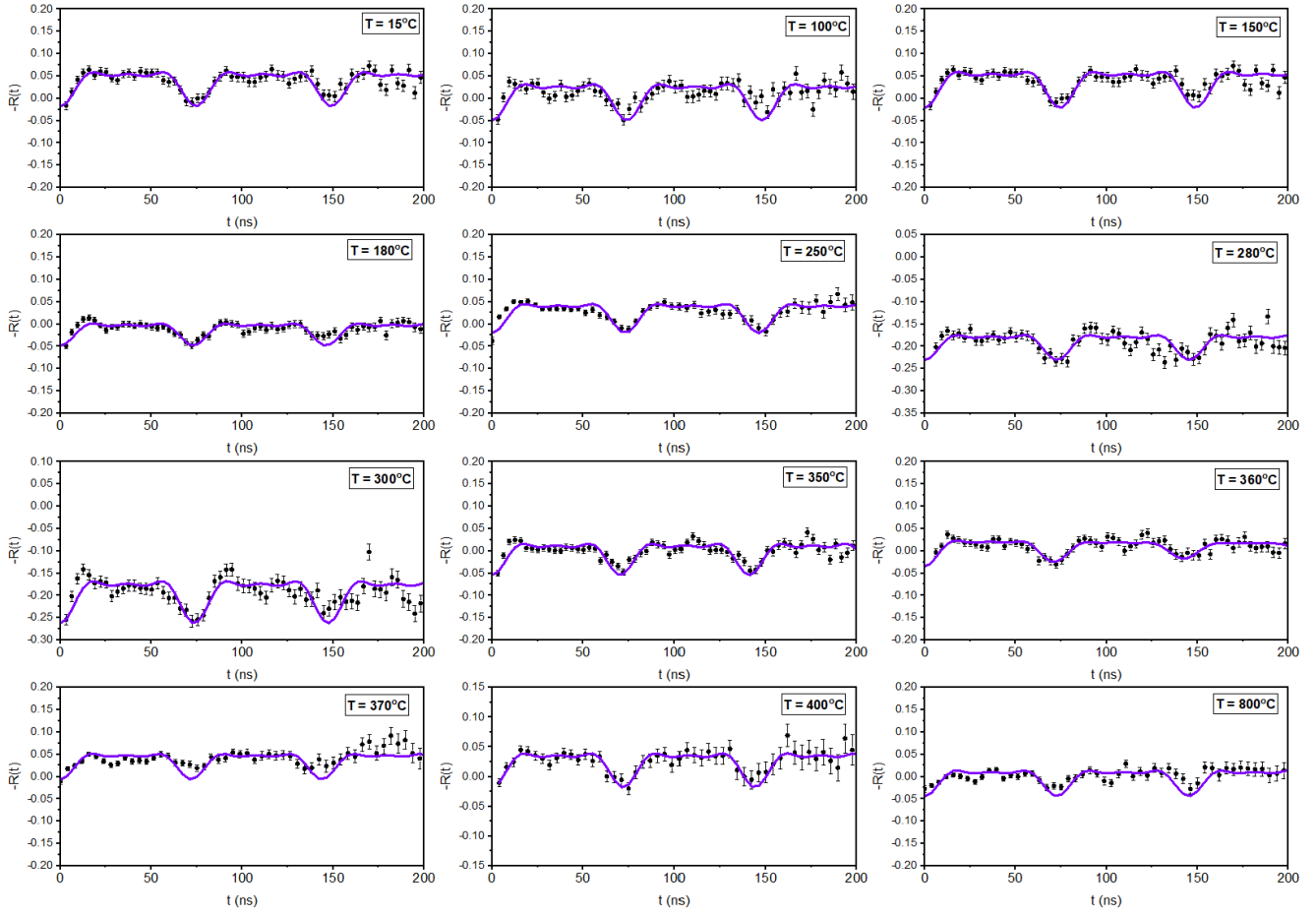


Fig. 14. Fitting curves for compressed spectra for one fraction

Table 3

| $T [^{\circ}\text{C}]$ | $f_1 [1]$ | $\nu_{Q1}, \text{MHz}$ | $\eta_1 [1]$ | $\delta_1 [1]$ |
|------------------------|-----------|------------------------|--------------|----------------|
| 15                     | 1         | $89.5 \pm 0.4$         | 0            | 0              |
| 100                    | 1         | $90.1 \pm 0.7$         | 0            | 0              |
| 150                    | 1         | $89.5 \pm 0.4$         | 0            | 0              |
| 180                    | 1         | $91.3 \pm 0.5$         | 0            | 0              |
| 250                    | 1         | $91.2 \pm 0.6$         | 0            | 0              |
| 280                    | 1         | $91.6 \pm 0.9$         | 0            | 0              |
| 300                    | 1         | $90.5 \pm 0.7$         | 0            | 0              |
| 350                    | 1         | $94.5 \pm 0.5$         | 0            | 0              |
| 360                    | 1         | $93.5 \pm 0.7$         | 0            | 0              |
| 370                    | 1         | $92.7 \pm 0.9$         | 0            | 0              |
| 400                    | 1         | $92.5 \pm 0.5$         | 0            | 0              |
| 800                    | 1         | $91.7 \pm 0.8$         | 0            | 0              |

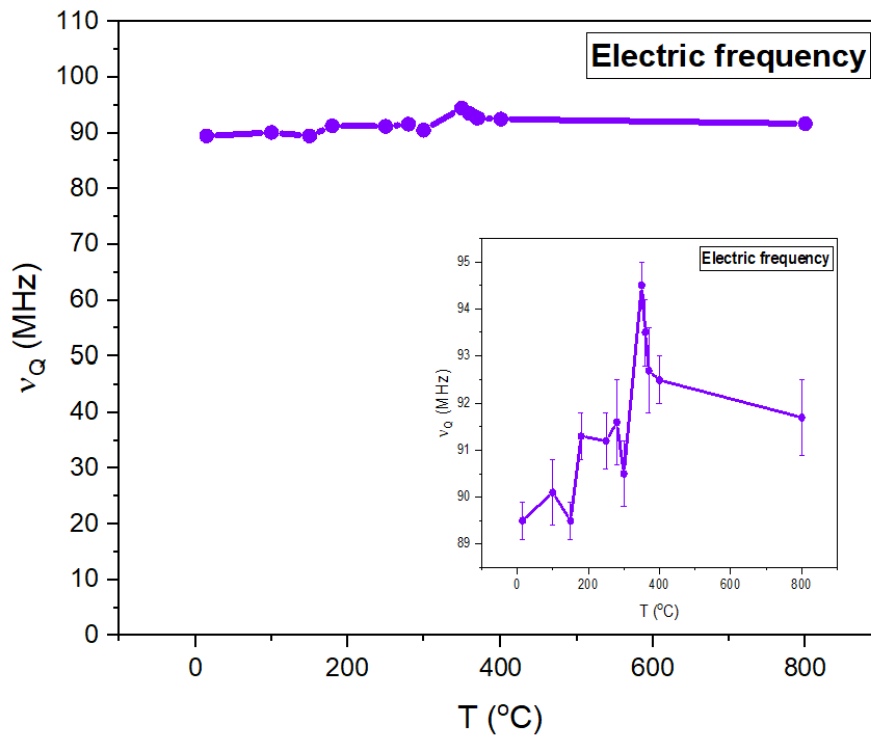


Fig. 15. Dependence of electric frequency on temperature for the one fraction case (compressed data)

## D. Two fractions:

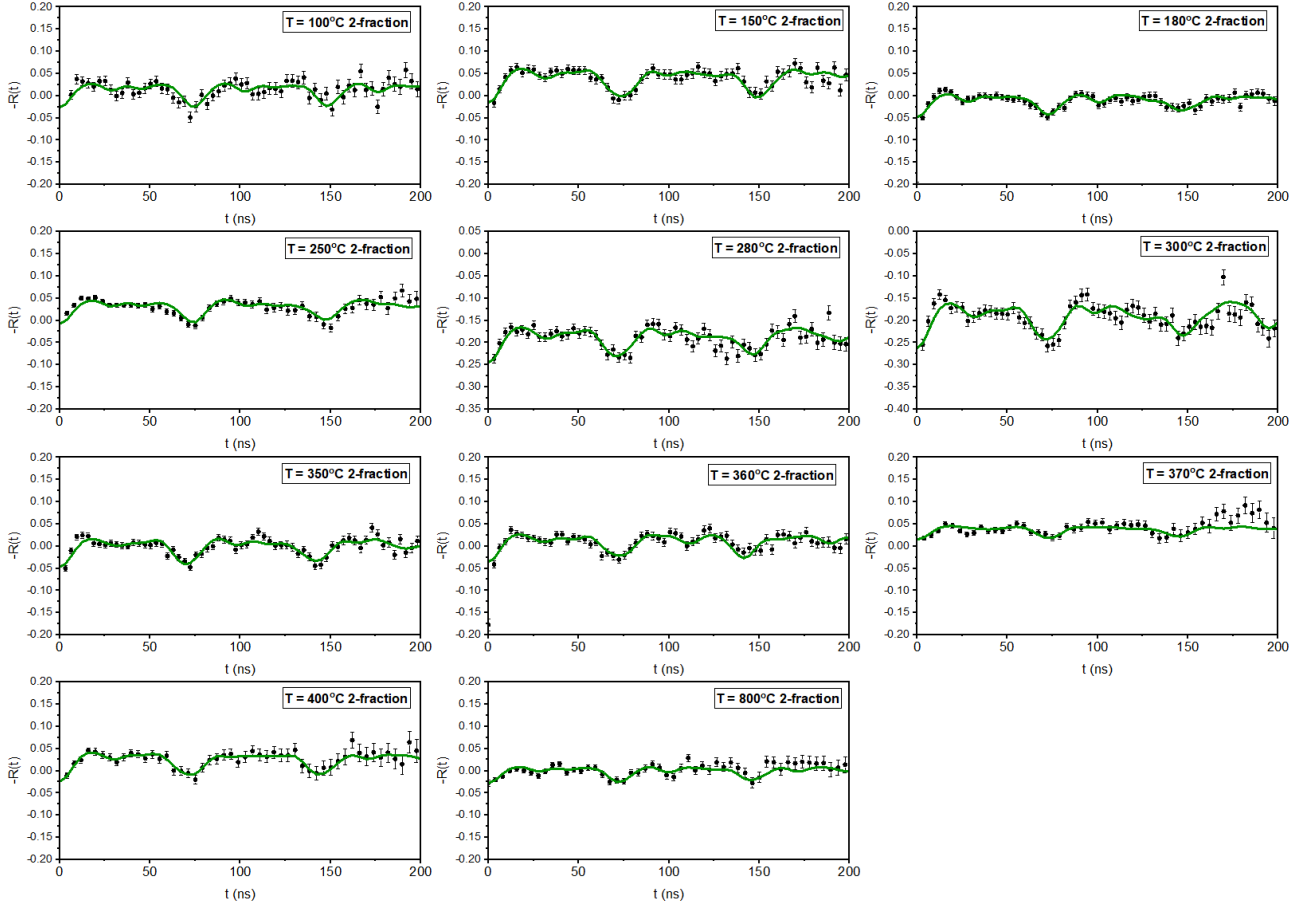


Fig. 16. Fitting curves for compressed spectra for two fractions



Table 4

| T [°C] | $f_1$ [1]     | $f_2$ [1]     | $\nu_{Q_1}$ ,<br>MHz | $\nu_{Q_2}$ ,<br>MHz | $\eta_1$ [1]  | $\eta_2$ [1]  | $\delta_1$ [1] | $\delta_2$ [1] |
|--------|---------------|---------------|----------------------|----------------------|---------------|---------------|----------------|----------------|
| 100    | 0.71±0<br>.15 | 0.29±<br>0.15 | 89.37±1<br>.35       | 141.28±<br>3.16      | 0             | 0.59±<br>0.05 | 0              | 0              |
| 150    | 0.78±0<br>.06 | 0.22±<br>0.07 | 88.98±0<br>.59       | 119.71±<br>2.10      | 0.12±<br>0.04 | 0.87±<br>0.03 | 0              | 0              |
| 180    | 0.70±0<br>.06 | 0.30±<br>0.07 | 91.19±0<br>.64       | 140.41±<br>1.37      | 0             | 0.71±<br>0.02 | 0              | 0              |
| 250    | 0.78±0<br>.10 | 0.22±<br>0.10 | 90.12±0<br>.96       | 137.94±<br>3.34      | 0.18±<br>0.05 | 0.66±<br>0.06 | 0              | 0              |
| 280    | 0.73±0<br>.15 | 0.27±<br>0.11 | 90.59±0<br>.94       | 118.69±<br>2.75      | 0.20±<br>0.04 | 0.88±<br>0.04 | 0              | 0              |
| 300    | 0.76±0<br>.08 | 0.24±<br>0.09 | 89.71±0<br>.82       | 117.68±<br>2.54      | 0.21±<br>0.04 | 0.94±<br>0.08 | 0              | 0              |
| 350    | 0.82±0<br>.08 | 0.18±<br>0.09 | 93.10±0<br>.77       | 115.98±<br>11.91     | 0.16±<br>0.04 | 0.98±<br>0.42 | 0              | 0              |
| 360    | 0.71±0<br>.07 | 0.29±<br>0.07 | 94.34±0<br>.58       | 130.02±<br>1.45      | 0             | 0.62±<br>0.03 | 0              | 0              |
| 370    | 0.80±0<br>.17 | 0.20±<br>0.16 | 91.36±1<br>.80       | 107.43±<br>6.99      | 0.14±<br>0.12 | 0.75±<br>0.17 | 0              | 0              |
| 400    | 0.83±0<br>.06 | 0.17±<br>0.06 | 92.35±0<br>.61       | 125.33±<br>3.25      | 0             | 0.88±<br>0.05 | 0              | 0              |
| 800    | 0.73±0<br>.11 | 0.27±<br>0.12 | 91.26±1<br>.41       | 144.20±<br>3.63      | 0             | 0.65±<br>0.07 | 0              | 0              |

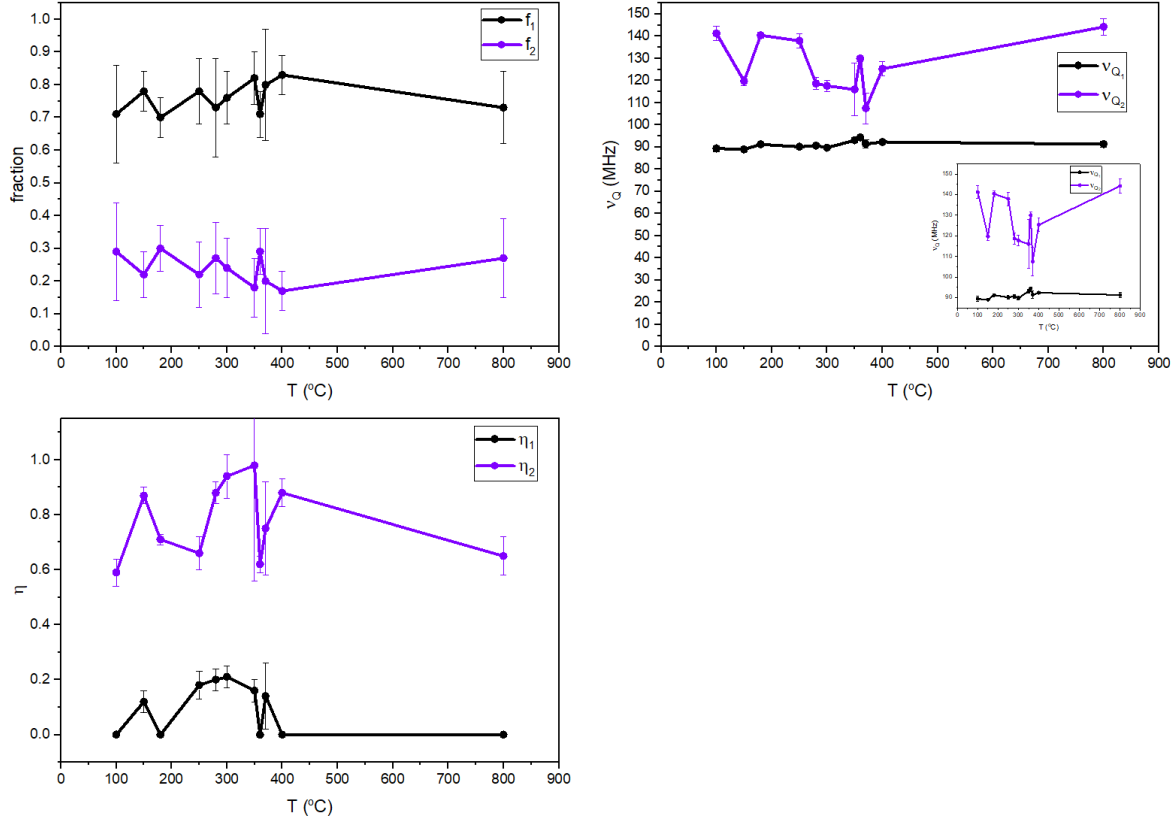


Fig. 17. Curves of hyperfine interaction parameters for two fractions

### 5.3.3 Comparison between non-compressed and compressed data

Some compressed  $R(t)$  spectra data don't provide good fittings because the smoothed algorithm for data compression reduces the number of data points and increases the time per channel, i. e. the algorithm can remove both unnecessary, false data points and important data points. And that is why such a fit won't be very high quality and accurate, and therefore the determination of the parameters of hyperfine interaction will also not be very high quality. In the concept of these experimental data, the uncompressed data gives better fitting spectra than the compressed ones. However, in other cases when the time per channel is quite small leading to the "condensed"  $R(t)$  spectra, the compressed data is essential.

## CHAPTER 6: Conclusion

In this work, we use TDPAC measurements to investigate the local environment around an implanted  $^{111\text{m}}\text{Cd}$  ( $^{111}\text{Cd}$ ) nuclear probe in Bismuth Ferrite. The TDPAC measurements were obtained at different temperatures (15 - 500°C) from two TDPAC spectrometers: an analog 4-detector setup (K1) and a digital 6-detector setup (KATAME). The experimental results agree well with calculations based on TDPAC theory. The substitutional Bi site location of the  $^{111\text{m}}\text{Cd}$  ( $^{111}\text{Cd}$ ) probe is confirmed using ab-initio DFT simulations.<sup>[2]</sup> The results of the  $R(t)$  spectra show that the electric frequency is almost stable and doesn't depend on temperature. This is due to the implantation of the  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  ion instead of the  $\text{Bi}^{3+}$  ion, which leads to a decrease in the lattice parameter and the volume of the unit cell. Since the radius of the  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  ion (0.095 nm) is smaller than the radius of the  $\text{Bi}^{3+}$  ion (0.103 nm), the structure of  $\text{BiFeO}_3$  is distorted from rhombohedral to orthorhombic. Therefore, the orthorhombic structure is more stable than the original rhombohedral structure of  $\text{BiFeO}_3$ . The replacement of  $\text{Bi}^{3+}$  with  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  leads to a change of  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$  to  $\text{Fe}^{4+}$  in the compound to compensate for the unbalanced charge, which in turn means that the magnetic moment will be close to zero for  $\text{Fe}^{4+}$  ions, and hence no magnetic frequency will be observed. The existence of  $\text{Fe}^{4+}$  in the unit cell shown in Fig. 2, will disrupt the super exchange interaction between  $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ - $\text{Fe}^{3+}$ , which is known as the main mechanism leading to the antiferromagnetic order in bismuth ferrite.

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