

Molecular Sciences

Introduction of concepts and the basics of molecular physics Jochen Küpper

Center for Free-Electron Laser Science, Deutsches Elektronen-Synchrotron DESY, Hamburg Department of Physics & Department of Chemistry, Universität Hamburg The Hamburg Center for Ultrafast Imaging, Universität Hamburg

3. & 7. August 2017

based on the UHH master module "The Basis of Modern Molecular Physics"









Established by the European Commission

Controlled Molecule Imaging talking to molecules "at work"





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- The (quantum-mechanical) properties of isolated molecules
- The interaction of molecules with electromagnetic fields, including the interaction with light
- The interaction of atoms and molecules (with each other)

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The Nobel Prize in Chemistry 2013

Multiscale models for complex chemical systems



kindly provided by Professor Ulf Ryde (Division of Theoretical Chemistry, Lund University)

> http://nobelprize.org/nobel_prizes/chemistry/laureates/2013/index.html 16. & 18. August 2016 5 / 96

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Importance of molecular structure

- Black-body radiation of sun and earth \rightarrow greenhouse effect 0
- Absorption of water vapor, carbon dioxide, methane, ozone 0



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Relation between molecular structure, function and dynamics

- Etaleostansdipuropprotective equation of the section of the sectio
- freetozotransfergenerated in the atmosphere AFTER oxygen production had 0 starte
- How (0



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Recording the molecular movie – timescales



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Watching chemistry with atomic spatial (100 pm) and temporal (10 fs) resolution



Barty, Küpper, Chapman, Ann. Rev. Phys. Chem. 64, 415–435 (2013)

Recording the molecular movie – the ultimate dream

Imaging chemical reactions of single molecules



with atomic resolution in real time

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Controlled Molecule Imaging Toward a microscopic understanding of molecules at work



We are looking for motivated colleagues - please see https://www.controlled-molecule-imaging.org/careers

Physics and Chemistry of *complex* molecules Structural isomers – conformers – of Glycine



Complexity of molecules – "few body" quantum systems Potential energy landscapes of isolated "floppy" molecules





 $1 \text{ cm}^{-1} = 30 \text{ GHz} = 12 \text{ J/mol} = 0.12 \text{ meV} = 4.6 \mu\text{Hartree} = 1.4 \text{ K}$

Physics and Chemistry of complex molecules **Unraveling the structure-function relationship**

"Structure determines function"



Manipulating the motion of neutral molecules Production of controlled/cold molecular samples



Introduction

Bottom-up approach to molecular movies

Cold and Controlled Molecules – when are molecules cold? Cold matter is slow – fairly controlled – matter

1500



- Temperature *T* characterizes the velocity distribution of atoms/molecules. Under *normal* conditions (T = 300 K, p = 1 bar): $\bar{v} = 500 \, \text{m/s}.$
- A velocity distribution with a width of 5 m/s, corresponds to $T = 30 \,\mathrm{mK}$.
- Cold Molecules are slow molecules, "kinematically challenged"

Geschwindigkeit (Meter / Sekunde)

1000

500

0

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- Molecules have various internal degrees of freedom: electronic, vibrational, rotational, nuclear spin, ...
- All these degrees of freedom are quantized! 0
- Orientation of molecules in external fields is also quantized! 0

Definition: Cold Molecules

Cold Molecules are *translationally* and *internally* cold:

- they move slowly
- they are in a few, or even a single (rotational, vibrational, ...) quantum-state(s), preferably (but not necessarily) in the absolute ground-state.

Additionally, the molecules shall be oriented in space.

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Cold matter behaves differently

Matter handled in this way ("kalt gemacht")

- can be studied in greater detail,
- might behave *fundamentally* different.



Bayer Research 15, 64 (2004)16. & 18. August 201619 / 96

Introduction

Bottom-up approach to molecular movies

How can we control the velocity of neutral molecules?



Force on a polar molecule in an (in)homogeneous electric field:







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Bottom-up approach to molecular movies

Experimental setup of the Stark decelerator



Introduction Bottom-up approach to molecular movies

Decelerating OH ($X^{2}\Pi_{3/2}$, v = 0, J = 3/2**)**



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The electric deflector

Quantum-state selection for complex molecules (but no speed change)



Chang, Horke, Trippel, Küpper, Int. Rev. Phys. Chem. 34, 557 (2015) 16. & 18. August 2016 23 / 96

Interactions of molecules with electric fields

In "quantum-mechanical" reality, the Stark effect (the laboratory-fixed dipole moment) depends on the exact quantum state,



200 E (k	300 V/cm)	400	

Dispersion of molecules by an electric field



Toward time-resolved imaging of chemical dynamics kHz-rate manipulation experiments

1 mJ, 30 fs 10 mJ, 40 fs–500 ps @ 1 kHz (>70 nm bandwidth)

gend Elite



(Diatomic) molecules





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Term scheme of OH (radical)



Distinct quantum states due to 0

- electronic,
- vibrational,
- rotational, **...**

degrees of freedom • We will now derive all these quantum

numbers...

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• Example: diatomic molecule:

• Dumb-bell model: two point masses (m_1, m_2) separated by r.



Semi-rigid nuclear frame immersed in the charge cloud of the molecular electrons.

homo-nuclear — all atoms identical hetero-nuclear — different atoms present

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• Example: diatomic molecule:

• Dumb-bell model: two point masses (m_1, m_2) separated by *r*.



- Semi-rigid nuclear frame immersed in the charge cloud of the molecular electrons. 0
- homo-nuclear all atoms identical hetero-nuclear — different atoms present

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Energy scale



- Energy-scale of electronic states: $10000-50000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ 0
- Energy-scale of vibrational states: $100-4000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$
- Energy-scale of rotational states: $1-20 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ 0 (for larger molecules down to 1 GHz or less)
- Molecules *perform* all motions at the same time. 0
- Within one rotational period molecules typically 0 vibrate 10-100 times.

 $1 \,\text{eV} = 8065.5 \,\text{cm}^{-1} = 241.799 \,\text{THz} = 96.5 \,\text{kJ/mol}$

See also the OH term scheme.

(1)

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Born-Oppenheimer approximation



- Separation of electronic and nuclear motion: 0

 - Energy-scale of rotational states: $1-20 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (for larger molecules down to 1 GHz or less)
- Molecules *perform* all motions at the same time. 0



- Seen from the electrons, the nuclear frame is rigid in space.
- The slowly moving nuclei see a smeared out electronic charge cloud (whose effect 0 on the nuclei depends on the internuclear separation). Or: the electrons adjust, essentially instantaneously, to the changing position of the nuclei.

Energy-scale of electronic states: $10000-50000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ Energy-scale of vibrational states: $100-4000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$

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Born-Oppenheimer approximation Separation of electronic and nuclear motion

Definition: Born-Oppenheimer approximation

Electrons are lighter and faster than the nuclei. For the electrons the nuclei seem to be fixed in space, and the nuclei move in an effective distribution of electrons (electron cloud).

• The molecular wavefunction can be written as a product of a *nuclear* wavefunction and an *electronic* wavefunction, where the nuclear coordinates \vec{R}_i are parameters:

$$\Psi\left(\vec{r}_i,\vec{R}_j\right) = \Psi_{\rm e}\left(\vec{r}_i;\vec{R}_j\right)\cdot\Psi_{\rm n}\left(\vec{R}_j\right)$$

- The eigenvalues of the electronic wave equation serve as an effective potential for the nuclear motion in the vicinity of the field configuration \vec{R}_i .
- Electrons move as if the nuclei were fixed in their instantaneous positions and follow the nuclear motion adiabatically.
- Electrons do not make transitions to other states, the electronic states are only deformed by the nuclear displacements.
- The electronic isotope shift is zero within the Born-Oppenheimer approximation.

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Separation of rotational and vibrational motion

- Separation of translation: 3N 3 coordinates in the center of mass frame. This separation is trivial in the absence of external fields.
- Separation of rotation: 3N 6 (3N 5 for linear molecules) vibrational coordinates. 0 But molecules are *not* rigid bodies, rotation and vibration are coupled! There are many ways to attach a "molecular frame", a set of axes that rotate with the molecule, to a non-rigid body — Eckart conditions, Eckart frame.
- The separated nuclear wavefunction reads in the end:

$$\Psi_{n}\left(\vec{R}_{j}\right) = \Psi_{t}\left(X_{cm}, Y_{cm}, Z_{cm}\right) \cdot \Psi_{r}\left(\alpha, \beta, \gamma\right) \cdot \Psi_{v}\left(\alpha, \gamma\right) \cdot \Psi_{v}\left(\alpha, \beta, \gamma\right)$$

 (Q_1, \ldots, Q_{3N-6}) . (3)

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Rotation of Diatomic Molecules

Rigid diatomic rotor



• classical energy:

$$E_r = \frac{1}{2}I\omega^2$$
 with $I = m_1r_1^2 + m_2$

with the reduced mass $\mu = \frac{m_1 m_2}{m_1 + m_2}$ and bond length $r = r_1 + r_2$ one obtains

$$E_r = \frac{1}{2}\mu r^2\omega^2$$

with $L = I\omega$ this yields

$$E_r = \frac{L^2}{2I}$$

• quantum mechanical energy:

$$E_r = \frac{h^2}{8\pi^2 I} J(J+1)$$

- E_r is inversely proportional to *I*
- E_r scales with rotational quantum number as J(J + 1)



(8)

(9)

(10)

(11)

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Term values

In molecular spectroscopy term values are used for convenience:

$$F(J) = \frac{E_r}{hc} = BJ(J+1)$$

with the rotational constant

$$B = \frac{h}{8\pi^2 cI} = \frac{h}{8\pi^2 c\mu r^2}$$

Here we use cm^{-1} , often also Hz (MHz) are used.

Typical rotational constants of diatomic molecules are 20 cm^{-1} for hydrides (HF, OH, CH,...) to less than 1 cm⁻¹ for heavier small molecules; they become very small (e.g., $< 10^{-6}$ cm⁻¹) for large polyatomic molecules.

	$B_e (cm^{-1})$	$r_e (10^{-12} \text{ m})$
H ₂	60.8	74.16
N_2	2.010	109.4
O ₂	1.446	120.7
Li ₂	0.673	267.3
NO	1.705	115.1
HCl	10.59	127.4

 $1 \text{ cm}^{-1} = 2.99 \cdot 10^{10} \text{ s}^{-1} = 1.23992 \cdot 10^{-4} \text{ eV}$

(12)

(13)

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Rigid Rotor Wavefunctions and Probability Distributions

Wavefunctions of the rigid rotor are the spherical harmonics:

$$\Psi_{rot}(r) = Y_{JM}(\vartheta, \varphi)$$



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Harmonic Oscillator



• Potential energy of harmonic oscillator:

$$V = \frac{1}{2}k(r - r_e)^2$$

• Classical vibration frequency:

$$2\pi\nu_{\rm osc} = \sqrt{\frac{k}{\mu}}$$

• Quantum-mechanical vibration energy:

$$E_{\rm vib} = h v_{\rm osc} (v + \frac{1}{2})$$

- energy levels are equidistant
- ground state has finite (non-zero) energy

(15)

(16)

(17)

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Harmonic Oscillator

• Term values in practically used units (cm^{-1}) :

$$G(v) = \frac{E_{\rm vib}}{hc} = \omega_e(v+\frac{1}{2})$$

with

$$\omega_e = \frac{v_{\rm OSC}}{c}$$

• Example frequencies:

H ₂	$4401 \mathrm{cm}^{-1}$
HĒ	$4138 \mathrm{cm}^{-1}$
OH	$3738 \mathrm{cm}^{-1}$
HCI	$2991 \mathrm{cm}^{-1}$
NaCl	$366 {\rm cm}^{-1}$

(18)

(19)

http://webbook.nist.gov/chemistry/form-ser.html 16. & 18. August 2016 44 / 126

Harmonic Oscillator

• Schroedinger equation:

$$\left[-\frac{\hbar^2\Delta}{2\mu} + \frac{k}{2}(r-r_e)^2\right]\Psi_{vib}(r-r_e) = E_{vib}\Psi_{vib}(r-r_e)$$

• Wavefunctions of the harmonic oscillator are the Hermite polynomials

$$\frac{v}{E_{v}} \qquad \Psi \\
0 \qquad \frac{1}{2}\hbar\omega_{e} \qquad A_{0} \cdot e^{-\frac{\alpha}{2}(r-r_{e})^{2}} \\
1 \qquad \frac{3}{2}\hbar\omega_{e} \qquad A_{1} \cdot 2(r-r_{e}) \cdot e^{-\frac{\alpha}{2}(r-r_{e})^{2}} \\
2 \qquad \frac{5}{2}\hbar\omega_{e} \qquad A_{2} \cdot (1-2\alpha(r-r_{e})^{2}) \cdot e^{-\frac{\alpha}{2}} \\
\sqrt{\mu \cdot k}$$

mit
$$\alpha = \frac{1}{\hbar} \sqrt{\mu \cdot k}$$

$T_{vib}(r-r_e)$

(20)

 $(r - r_e)^2$

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Harmonic Oscillator Wavefunctions



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Morse Oscillator

A more realistic potential must resemble the bond-breaking at large distance!



$$V = D_e \left(1 - e^{-\beta(r - r_e)} \right)^2 \quad (21)$$

- vibrational level spacing decreases
- finite number of vibrational levels (Compare Coulomb potential with an infinite number of bound states.)
- For small $r r_e$:

$$V = D_e \left(1 - (1 - \beta (r - r_e)) \right)^2$$
(22)

• term values

$$G(v) = \omega_e(v + \frac{1}{2}) + \text{correction term}$$
(23)
= $\omega_e(v + \frac{1}{2}) - \omega_e x_e(v + \frac{1}{2})^2 + \omega_e y_e(v + \frac{1}{2})^3$ (24)

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Potential energy surfaces Electronic states of the simplest molecule: H₂⁺

- *Effective potential* for the nuclear motion as a function of internuclear distance.
- Electrons do not make transitions to other states, the electronic states are only deformed by the nuclear displacements.



nternuclear distance. tronic states are only

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Symmetry classification of the electronic states Electronic states of the simplest molecule: H⁺₂



The states are labelled by two symmetry labels: • Angular momentum projection on axis $\lambda = |m|$: $\begin{array}{c|ccc} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ \hline \pi & \delta & \phi \end{array}$ λ 0 4 . . . \mathcal{V} σ • • • The WF are eigenfunctions of \hat{L}_z $\Psi_e(z,r,\varphi) = F(z,r)(2\pi)^{-1/2}e^{im\varphi}$

- Parity: gerade (g) or ungerade (u) 0 Which is possible because $[H_e, \hat{L}_z] = 0$ and $[H_{\rm e},\hat{\Pi}]=0$ (where operator)

 $\Pi \Psi(x_1, \ldots, x_f) = \Psi(-x_1, \ldots, -x_f)$ defines the parity

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Introduction to molecular terms for diatomics Two electrons

Let's make a product *ansatz* for the wavefunction:

$$\Psi(1,2) = \psi_{m_1,(g,u)}^{(a)}(1)\psi_{m_2,(g,u)}^{(b)}(2)$$

• Angular momentum projection on axis $\Lambda = |m_1 + m_2|$: $\frac{\Lambda \mid 0 \quad 1 \quad 2 \quad 3 \quad 4 \quad \dots}{\mid \Sigma \quad \Pi \quad \Delta \quad \Phi \quad \Gamma \quad \dots}$

• Parity:

 $g \times g = g$ $u \times u = g$

$$g \times u = u$$

• Spin:

$$\psi^{(a)} \equiv \psi^{(b)}$$
: singlet
 $\psi^{(a)} \neq \psi^{(b)}$: singlet or triplet
Term symbol: ${}^{2S+1}\Lambda^{(+,-)}_{(g,u)}$

(4)

(5) (6) (7)

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Potential energy surfaces; H₂





$H_{\rm e}\left(\vec{r},\vec{R}\right)\Psi_{\rm e}\left(\vec{r};\vec{R}\right) = V\left(\vec{R}\right)\Psi_{\rm e}\left(\vec{r};\vec{R}\right)$

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United Atom picture



for $r \longrightarrow 0$: $H_2^+ \longrightarrow He^+ - n, l$ "as in atom"

- m_l can have values $-l \dots l$
- Only $|m_l| = \lambda$ is preserved and a good quantum number ($\lambda = 0, 1, 2 \Rightarrow \sigma, \pi, \delta$)
- σ -orbitals: symmetric about internuclear axis.
- π-orbitals: 1 nodal plane containing internuclear axis, always doubly degenerate.

 $2p\pi$



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Electronic angular momentum Orbital symmetry

 σ orbital possesses rotational symmetry around the internuclear axis



 π orbital has one nodal plane containing the internuclear axis



 δ orbital has two nodal planes containing the internuclear axis



Principal quantum number *n* associated with a function that has n - 1 nodes. For a σ orbital these are all radial.

Azimuthal quantum number l specifies the number of angular nodes (l = 0, ..., n - 1).

Therefore

l angular nodes n-l-1 radial nodes

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Multi-electron molecule

- Every electron approximately sees an effective field of the other electrons and nuclei (mean field; Hartree-Fock).
- The wavefunction can be written as

$$\psi = \prod_{i}^{N} \chi_i(q_i)$$

- $\chi_i(q_i)$ are one-electron wavefunctions (molecular orbitals) that can be written as linear combination of atomic orbitals (LCAO)
- ψ must change sign (antisymmetric) if any electrons *i* and *j* are exchanged $(\rightarrow \text{Slater determinant})$
- Obtained electronic states are characterized by *total orbital angular momentum*

$$\Lambda = \left| \sum_{i} m_{li} \right| = \left| \sum_{i} \pm \lambda_{i} \right|$$

States are then denoted $\Sigma, \Pi, \Delta \dots$

The overall spin 0

$$S = \sum_{i} s_i$$

2S+1 Λ

determines the *multiplicity* 2S + 1.

• general term symbol:

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(25)

(26)

(27

(28)

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Homonuclear Molecules gerade/ungerade symmetry

When the two nuclei in the molecule are identical (i.e., have the same mass and charge), the orbital angular momentum function can only be

- symmetric (even, gerade), or
- anti-symmetric (odd, ungerade)

with respect to the inversion symmetry (point reflection at center of symmetry) in the molecule.

- one-electron wavefunctions:
 - g (gerade) for even *l* in united atom
 - *u* (ungerade) for odd *l* in united atom

Molecular orbitals are described as $\sigma_g, \sigma_u, \pi_g, \pi_u, \ldots$

- many-electron systems:
 - *g* (gerade) for even number of odd orbitals
 - *u* (ungerade) for odd number of odd orbitals

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Homonuclear Molecules

Correlation diagram between united atoms and separated atoms picture



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Spin alignment

- All states with $\Lambda \ge 1$ (Π, Δ, \ldots) are double degenerate (namely " $\pm \Lambda$ "). 0
- Different ways to create $\Lambda = 0$ lead to distinctly different Σ -states! 0 For a configuration of two π orbitals one obtains

$$\Lambda = 2: \leftarrow \leftarrow \text{or} \rightarrow \rightarrow$$

Exactly degenerate for non-rotating molecule

$$\Lambda = 0: \rightarrow \leftarrow \text{ or } \leftarrow \rightarrow$$

- Only degenerate to first approximation
- In higher order approximations the sum- and difference-wavefunctions are not really degenerate
- Symmetry with respect to reflection at any plane through the internuclear axis
 - Σ^+ Symmetric with respect to reflection at any plane through the internuclear axis.
 - antisymmetric with respect to reflection at any plane through the internuclear axis.
- For the $\pi\pi$ configuration (e.g. in the BH molecule which is the united C atom, $(1s)^2(2s)^2(2p)^2$ in the molecular $(1s\sigma)^2(2s\sigma)^2(2p\pi)^2$ configuration), we then get the following states:

 $^{1}\Sigma^{+}$, $^{1}\Sigma^{-}$, $^{1}\Delta$, $^{3}\Sigma^{+}$, $^{3}\Sigma^{-}$, $^{3}\Delta$

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Term symbol Electronic state label

 $2S+1 \Lambda (+,-) (\mathcal{U},g) \\ (\mathcal{U},g) \\ \Sigma, \Pi, \Delta, \Phi, \dots \\ \uparrow \text{ doubly degenerate } (\pm \Lambda)$ different ways to create $\Lambda = 0$, leading to distinctly different Σ-states:

reflection at any plane through the internuclear axis

Σ^{\pm} : symmetric (+) or antisymmetric (-) with respect to

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Multi electron molecules Electronic configurations of OH

Symmetrization postulate of QM (Pauli-principle) forbids putting all nine electrons of into lowest orbital. Therefore the configuration of the lowest electronic state of OH is $^{2}\Pi$:

$$(1s\sigma)^2(2s\sigma)^2(2p\sigma)^2(2p\pi)^3$$

- The first electronically excited state 0 corresponds to a $(1s\sigma) \rightarrow (2p\pi)$ $(\Delta n = 1)$ excitation, resulting in a $^{2}\Sigma^{+}$ state.
- The excitation is in the UV (308 nm, \bigcirc $32500 \,\mathrm{cm}^{-1}$), showing the energy scale of the electronic states.



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Eigenstate Symmetry

Molecular orbitals of OH United atoms orbital 1so





2 ×

Gaussian 2003 C.02, MP2/aug-cc-pVTZ 16. & 18. August 2016 56 / 126

Parity

Rotational (eigen-) states are characterized by *overall symmetry properties*; most importantly: **parity**

- + Overall eigenfunction remains unchanged for an inversion of all particles (electrons and nuclei at coordinates \vec{r}) through the origin
- Overall eigenfunction changes sign for an inversion of all particles (electrons and nuclei at coordinates \vec{r}) through the origin

$$total : P\Psi(\vec{r}) = \pm \Psi(-\vec{r})$$

$$electronic : P\Psi_e(\vec{r}) = (-1)^{i+j}\Psi_e(-\vec{r}) \text{ with } i = \begin{cases} 0 \triangleq g\\ 1 \triangleq u \end{cases}$$

$$vibrational : P\Psi_v(\vec{r}) = \Psi_v(-\vec{r})$$

$$rotational : P\Psi_r(\vec{r}) = (-1)^J \Psi_r(-\vec{r})$$



Furhter details: nuclear-spin hyperfine structure Nuclear-spin isomers of water (H₂O)



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