

X-ray Diffraction (XRD)

X-ray Diffractometer

Pecharsky Chapter 6

Cullity Chapter 1

Krawitz Chapter 3

Jenkins & Snyder – Chapter 1, 4, 5, 6

Q's

- Why do we (have to) use XRD?
- What is XRD? What is X-ray diffractometer?
- How to collect raw data of XRD?
- What kind of information can we get from XRD pattern?
- How can we get more accurate/precise results?

➤ Elemental analysis

- ✓ Optical spectroscopy
 - Probes the outer electronic structure of atoms
 - Optical emission (e.g. ICP OES*)
 - Atomic absorption spectrometry (AAS)
- ✓ X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy (XRF)
 - Probes the inner electronic structure of atoms

➤ Phase analysis

- ✓ X-ray diffraction (XRD)

- Qualitative analysis
- Quantitative analysis

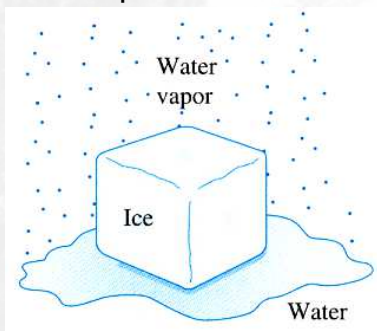
- Qualitative elemental analysis
- Quantitative elemental analysis
- Qualitative phase analysis
- Quantitative phase analysis

* inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometry

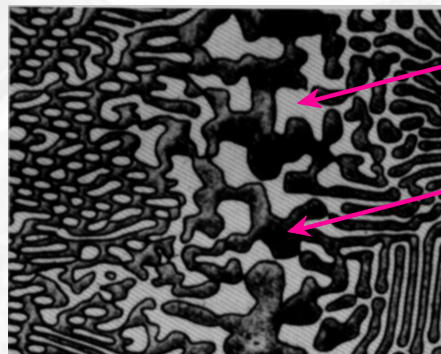
Phase, 상 (相) ?

- a region of material that is chemically uniform, physically distinct, and (often) mechanically separable
- a chemically and structurally homogeneous region of material
- a physically and chemically distinct material region

1 component
3 phases



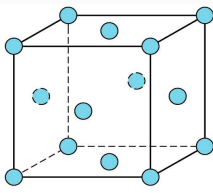
Aluminum-Copper Alloy



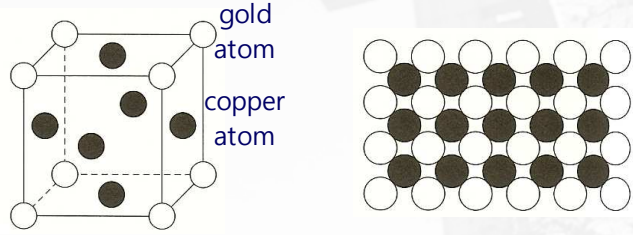
β (lighter phase)

α (darker phase)

Crystal structure of Au & Cu



Crystal structure of AuCu₃



Portable XRF

Au, Cu

Au 30%, Cu 70%

Au, Cu
 Au, AuCu₃
 Cu, AuCu₃
 Au, Cu, AuCu₃



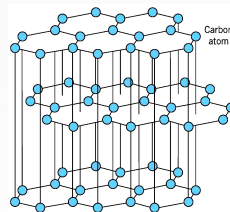
X-Ray Diffraction (XRD)

Structure of carbon

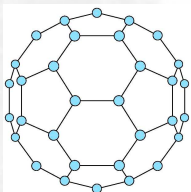
➤ Diamond (Si, Ge)



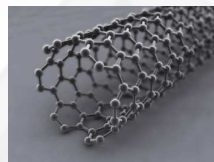
➤ Graphite (BN)



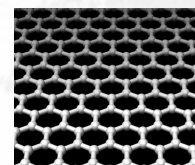
➤ Fullerene (buckyball)



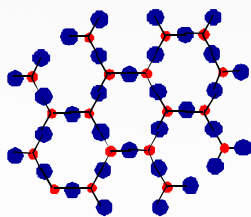
➤ Carbon Nanotube



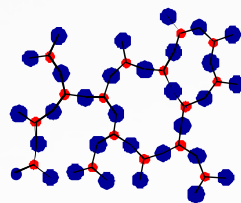
➤ Graphene



elemental analysis → carbon
 phase analysis → diamond, graphite, CNT, graphene



crystalline SiO₂
quartz



noncrystalline SiO₂
fused silica



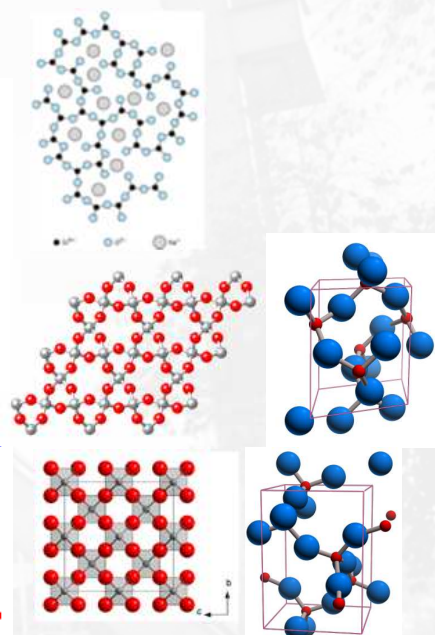
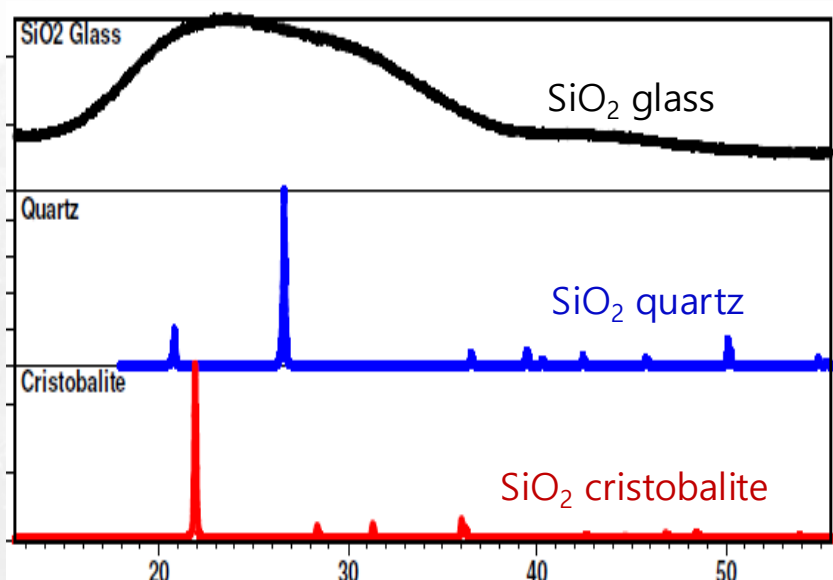
elemental analysis → Si & O
phase analysis → quartz, fused silica

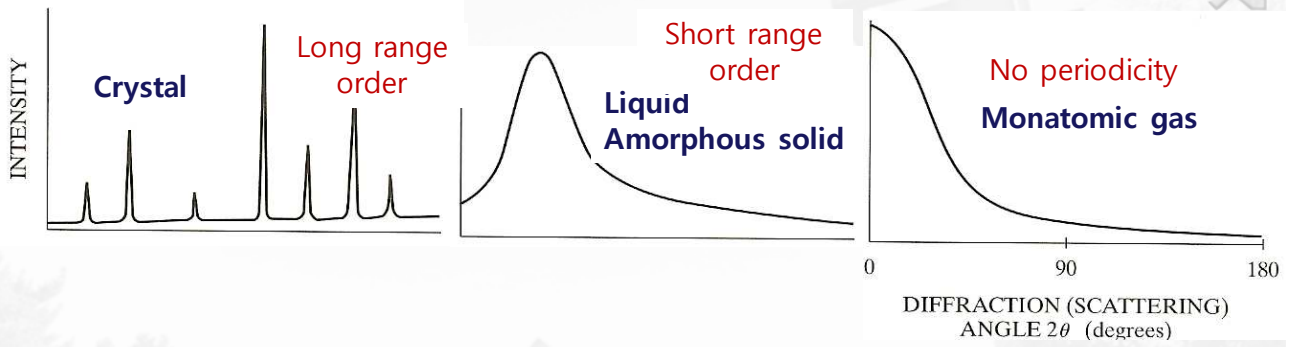
concentricusllc.com/event/crystalmining/2019-10-12/

www.corning.com/kr/ko/products/advanced-optics/product-materials/semiconductor-laser-optic-components/high-purity-fused-silica.html

XRD Pattern vs Crystal Structure

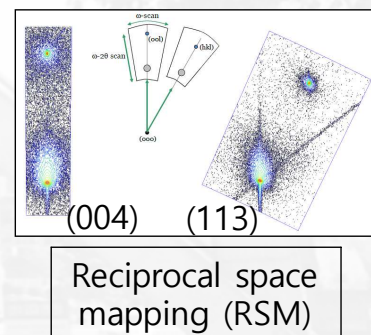
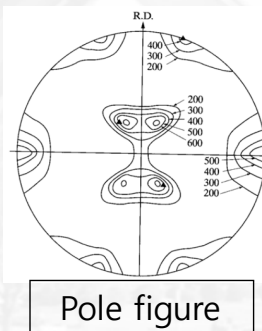
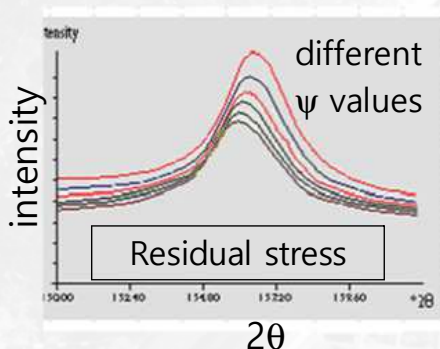
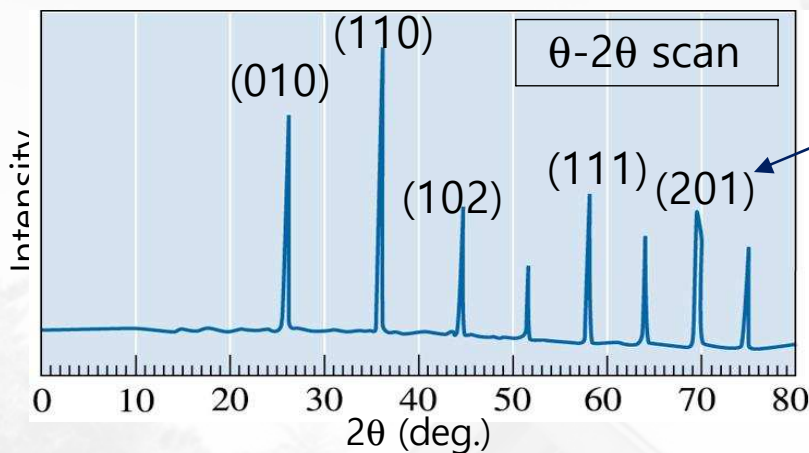
crystalline vs. non-crystalline
(amorphous)

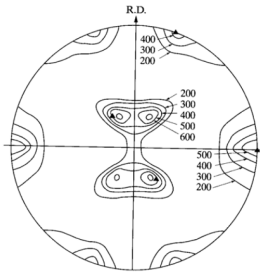




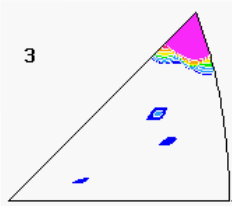
- A single atom scatters incident X-ray beam in **all** directions.
- Large # of atoms arranged in a perfectly periodic array in 3-D to form a crystal, scatter x-rays in **a few** directions.
- Crystal imperfection → diffraction @ non-Bragg angles → diffraction occurs in a narrow angular range with center @ θ_B .

XRD Patterns



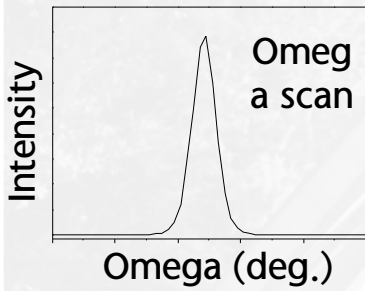
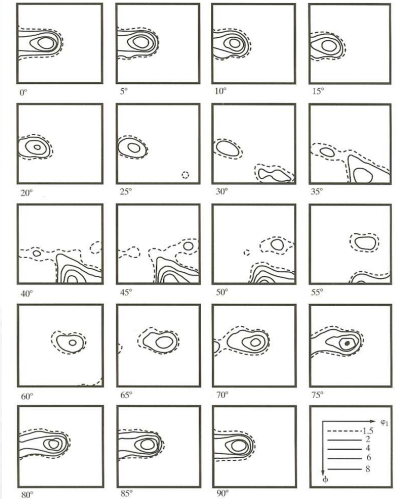


Pole figure

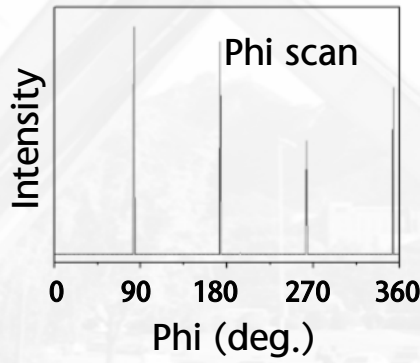


Inverse pole figure

Orientation distribution function (ODF)

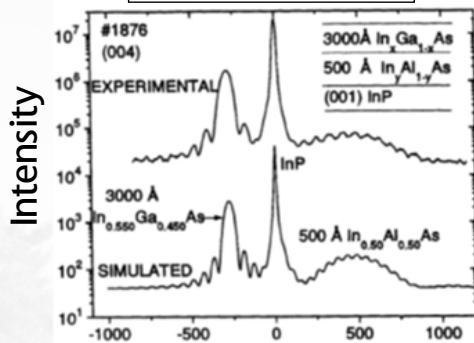


Omega scan

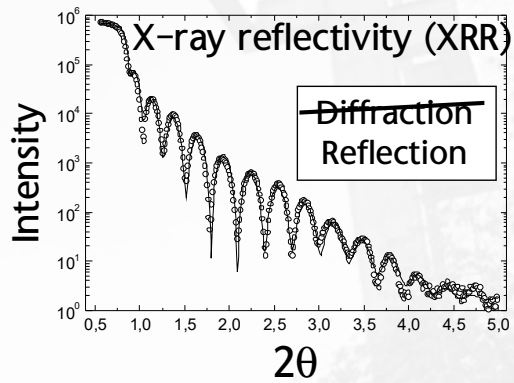


Phi scan

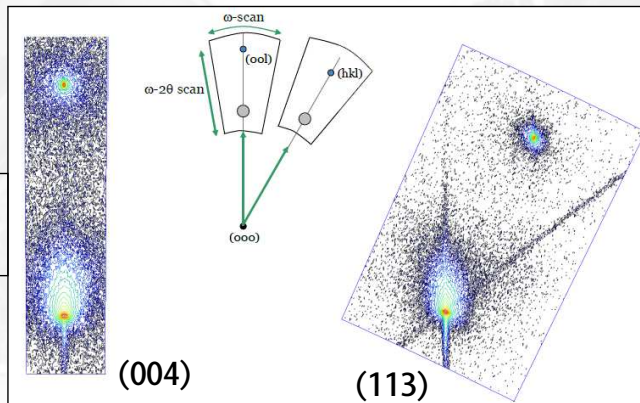
Rocking curve

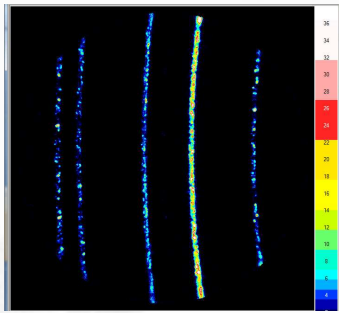


2θ

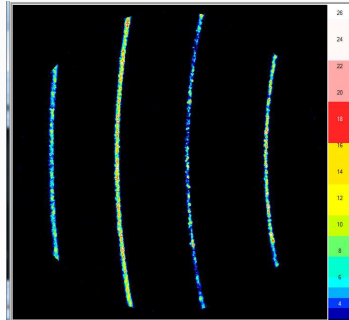


Reciprocal space mapping (RSM)

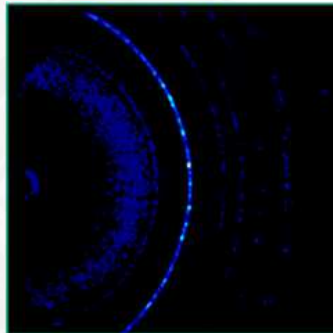




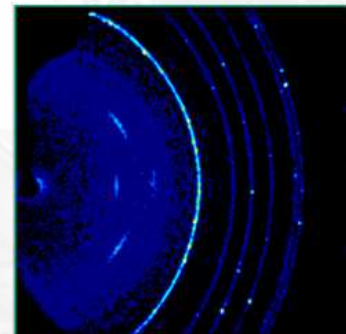
Corundum



LaB₆



unstretched

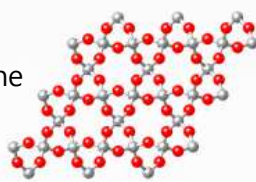


stretched

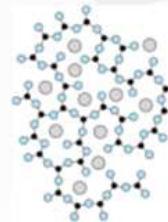
Crystal, Unit Cell, Crystal System, Lattice Parameter

- Crystal ; long-range, 3-dimensional, orderly periodic arrangements of atoms

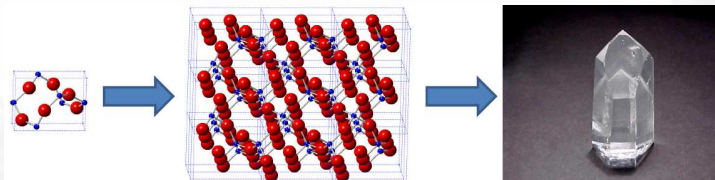
Crystalline solid



Non-crystalline solid

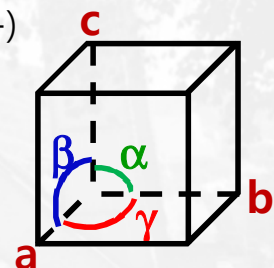


- Unit cell ; basic repeating unit that defines the crystal structure



- **shape** of unit cell ← crystal system (cubic, tetragonal, ---)

- **size** of unit cell ← lattice parameter (a, b, c, α , β , γ)



Crystal System	Axis System
Cubic	$a=b=c, \alpha=\beta=\gamma=90$
Tetragonal	$a=b \neq c, \alpha=\beta=\gamma=90$
Orthorhombic	$a \neq b \neq c, \alpha=\beta=\gamma=90$
Hexagonal	$a=b \neq c, \alpha=\beta=90, \gamma=120$
Rhombohedral	$a=b=c, \alpha=\beta=\gamma \neq 90$
Monoclinic	$a \neq b \neq c, \alpha=\gamma=90, \beta \neq 90$
Triclinic	$a \neq b \neq c, \alpha \neq \beta \neq \gamma \neq 90$

Crystal Structure of "cubic ZrO₂"

➤ Space Group $Fm\bar{3}m$ (225)

→ cubic

➤ Lattice Parameter $a=5.11\text{\AA}$

Atom	Wyckoff Site	x	y	z	B _{iso}	occupancy
Zr	4a	0	0	0	1.14	1
O	8c	0.25	0.25	0.25	2.4	1

International Tables for Crystallography, Volume A: Space-group symmetry

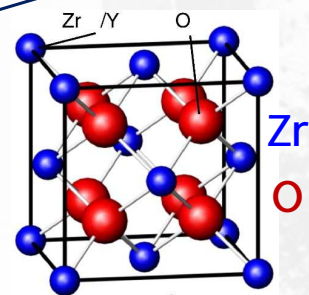
$Fm\bar{3}m$	O_h^5	$m\bar{3}m$
No. 225	$F4/m\bar{3}2/m$	Patterson symmetry
Positions	Coordinates	
Multiplicity, Wyckoff letter, Site symmetry	$(0,0,0)+$	$(0,\frac{1}{2},\frac{1}{2})+, (\frac{1}{2},0,\frac{1}{2})+, (\frac{1}{2},\frac{1}{2},0)+$
192 <i>l</i> 1	(1) x,y,z	(2) \bar{x},\bar{y},z (3) \bar{x},y,\bar{z} (4) x,\bar{y},\bar{z}
48 <i>h</i> $m\bar{3}m$ 2	$0,y,y$ $\bar{y},0,y$	$0,\bar{y},y$ $y,0,\bar{y}$
48 <i>g</i> $2mm$	$x,\frac{1}{2},\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2},x,\frac{1}{2}$	$\bar{x},\frac{1}{2},\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2},\bar{x},\frac{1}{2}$
32 <i>f</i> $\bar{3}m$	x,x,x x,x,\bar{x}	\bar{x},\bar{x},\bar{x} x,\bar{x},x
24 <i>e</i> $4m\bar{3}m$	$x,0,0$ $\bar{x},0,0$	$0,x,0$ $0,\bar{x},0$
24 <i>d</i> $m\bar{3}m$	$0,\frac{1}{2},\frac{1}{2}$ $0,\frac{1}{2},\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2},0,\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2},0,\frac{1}{2}$
8 <i>c</i> $\bar{4}3m$	$\frac{1}{2},\frac{1}{2},\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2},\frac{1}{2},\frac{1}{2}$	
4 <i>b</i> $m\bar{3}m$	$\frac{1}{2},\frac{1}{2},\frac{1}{2}$	
4 <i>a</i> $m\bar{3}m$	$0,0,0$	

Temperature factor

$$B_{iso} \quad U_{iso} \quad B_{ij} \quad U_{ij} \quad \beta_{ij}$$

$$f = f_0 \exp \left[-\frac{B \sin^2 \theta}{\lambda^2} \right]$$

$$B = 8\pi^2 U^2$$



- Site occupancy = 1; every equivalent position of that site is occupied by that atom
- Site occupancy < 1; some of the sites are vacant
 - Site occupancy = 0.5; half of that site is occupied by the atom
- two atoms occupying the same site will each have a fractional site occupancy

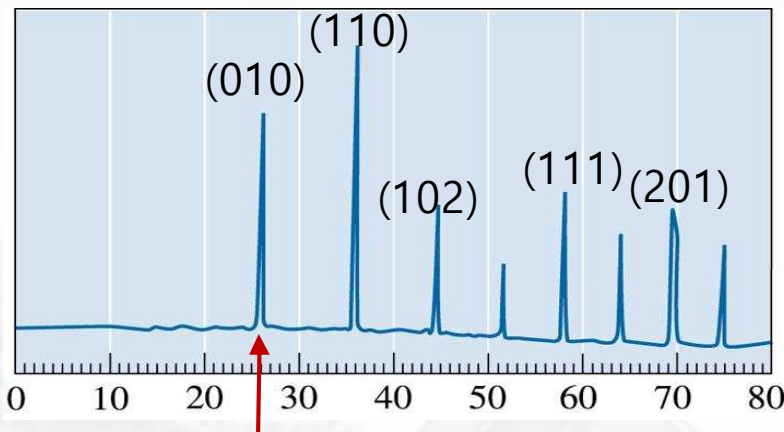
Fake diamond

- Cubic zirconia (ZrO_2) - 8.5 on Mohs scale
- Moissanite (SiC) - 9.5 on Mohs scale, one of the best substitutes for diamond
- White sapphires (Al_2O_3) - 9 on Mohs scale
- Rutile (TiO_2) - 6 on Mohs scale
- White spinels - 8 on Mohs scale
- YAG (Y-Al garnet), GGG (Gd-Ga garnet) - 8 on Mohs scale
- Glass



Handheld XRF
X-ray fluorescence

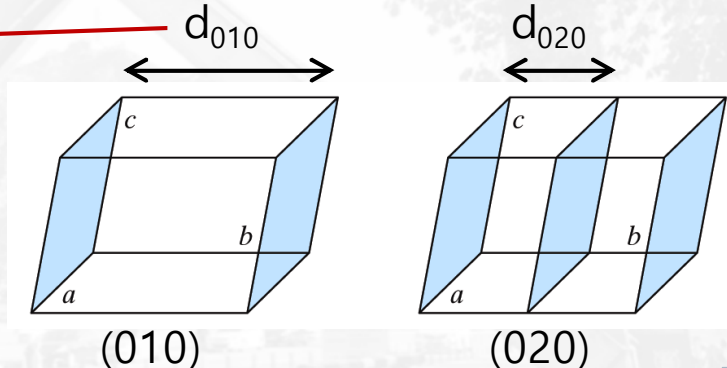
XRD Pattern vs Miller Index



➤ indexing

Peak position

d_{hkl}
Interplanar spacing
(면간 거리)



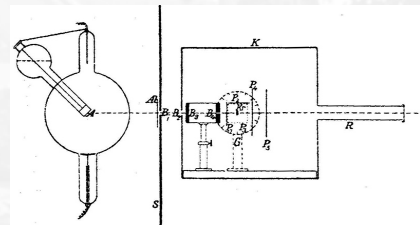
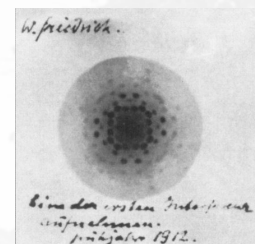
	결정축계	$\frac{1}{d_{hkl}^2}$
Cubic tetragonal	입방	$\frac{1}{a^2} (h^2 + k^2 + l^2)$
	정방	$\frac{h^2 + k^2}{a^2} + \frac{l^2}{c^2}$
orthorhombic	사방	$\frac{h^2}{a^2} + \frac{k^2}{b^2} + \frac{l^2}{c^2}$
hexagonal	육방	$\frac{4}{3a^2} (h^2 + hk + k^2) + \frac{l^2}{c^2}$
rhombohedral	등면	$\frac{1}{a^2} \frac{(h^2 + k^2 + l^2) \sin^2 \alpha + 2(hk + kl + lh) (\cos^2 \alpha - \cos \alpha)}{1 + 2 \cos^2 \alpha - 3 \cos^2 \alpha}$
monoclinic	단사	$\frac{h^2}{a^2} + \frac{k^2}{b^2} - \frac{2kh \cos \gamma}{ab} + \frac{l^2}{c^2}$ (first setting)
		$\frac{h^2}{a^2} + \frac{l^2}{c^2} - \frac{2hl \cos \beta}{ac} + \frac{k^2}{b^2}$ (second setting)
triclinic	삼사	$\frac{h^2}{a^2} \sin^2 \alpha + \frac{k^2}{b^2} \sin^2 \beta + \frac{l^2}{c^2} \sin^2 \gamma + \frac{2hk}{ab} (\cos \alpha \cos \beta - \cos \gamma) + \frac{2kl}{bc} (\cos \beta \cos \gamma - \cos \alpha) + \frac{2lh}{ca} (\cos \gamma \cos \alpha - \cos \beta)$ $\frac{1 - \cos^2 \alpha - \cos^2 \beta - \cos^2 \gamma + 2 \cos \alpha \cos \beta \cos \gamma}{}$

X-ray

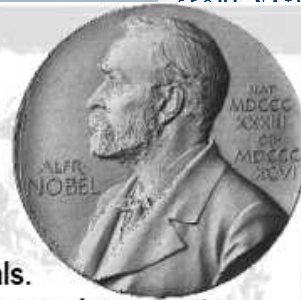
- W.C. Röntgen
 - ✓ 1895: Discovery of X-ray
 - ✓ 1901: First Nobel prize for Physics
- M.T.F. von Laue
 - ✓ 1912: X-ray diffraction, with Friedrich and Knipping
 - ✓ Laue equation, Laue reflections
 - ✓ 1914: Nobel prize for Physics
- C.G. Darwin
 - ✓ 1912: Dynamical scattering theory
 - ✓ Darwin width
- W.H. and W.L. Bragg
 - ✓ 1914: X-ray diffraction from powder samples
 - ✓ Bragg's equation, Bragg reflections
 - ✓ 1915: Nobel prize for Physics
- P.P. Ewald
 - ✓ 1916: Theoretical description of X-ray diffraction
 - ✓ Ewald construction, reciprocal space



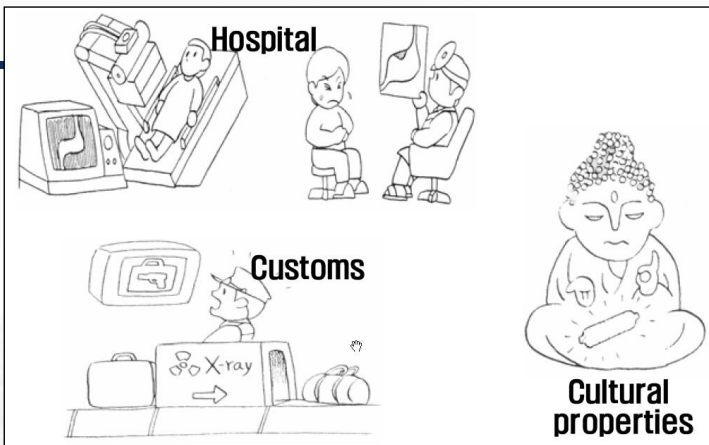
- XRD pattern of a single crystal ZnS
- University of Munich
- Confirmation of wave character of x-ray



Nobel Prizes for Research with X-Rays



- 1901 **W. C. Röntgen** in Physics for the discovery of x-rays.
- 1914 **M. von Laue** in Physics for x-ray diffraction from crystals.
- 1915 **W. H. Bragg** and **W. L. Bragg** in Physics for crystal structure determination.
- 1917 **C. G. Barkla** in Physics for characteristic radiation of elements.
- 1924 **K. M. G. Siegbahn** in Physics for x-ray spectroscopy.
- 1927 **A. H. Compton** in Physics for scattering of x-rays by electrons.
- 1936 **P. Debye** in Chemistry for diffraction of x-rays and electrons in gases.
- 1962 **M. Perutz** and **J. Kendrew** in Chemistry for the structure of hemoglobin.
- 1962 **J. Watson**, **M. Wilkins**, and **F. Crick** in Medicine for the structure of DNA.
- 1979 **A. McLeod Cormack** and **G. Newbold Hounsfield** in Medicine for computed axial tomography.
- 1981 **K. M. Siegbahn** in Physics for high resolution electron spectroscopy.
- 1985 **H. Hauptman** and **J. Karle** in Chemistry for direct methods to determine x-ray structures.
- 1988 **J. Deisenhofer**, **R. Huber**, and **H. Michel** in Chemistry for the structures of proteins that are crucial to photosynthesis.



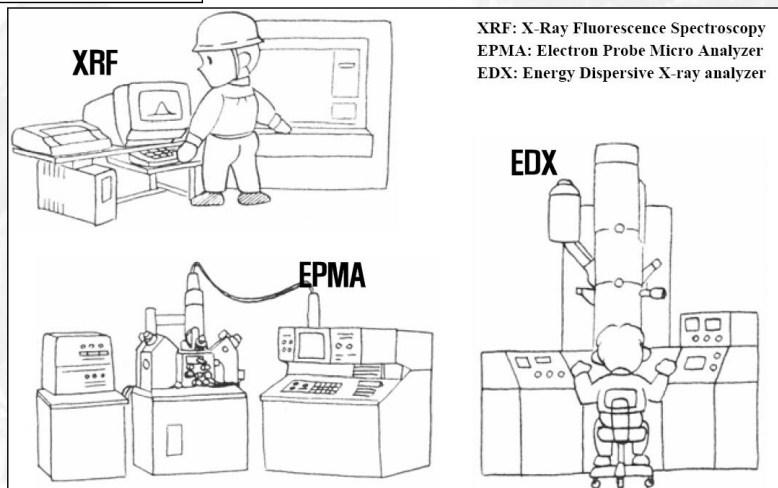
X-ray Transmission

XRF;
X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy

EPMA;
electron probe micro analyzer

EDX;
energy dispersive X-ray analyzer

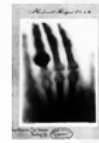
X-ray Fluorescence



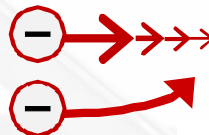
XRF: X-Ray Fluorescence Spectroscopy
EPMA: Electron Probe Micro Analyzer
EDX: Energy Dispersive X-ray analyzer

X-ray

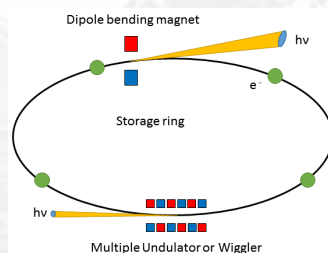
- Electromagnetic wave; wavelength $0.3\text{\AA} \sim 3\text{\AA}$
 - ✓ Invisible in air
- Wavelength \sim atomic distance \rightarrow Diffraction
- Transmission \rightarrow medical, nondestructive evaluation (NDE)
- Detection ; photographic, fluorescent, ionizing
- Generation
 - ✓ X-rays are produced when any electrically charged particle of sufficient kinetic energy rapidly decelerates.



- change of speed of matter
- change of direction of movement



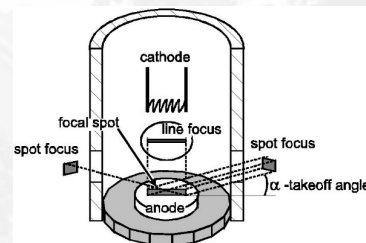
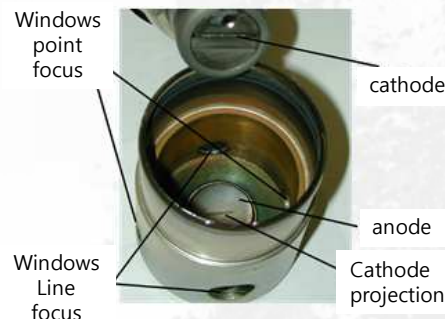
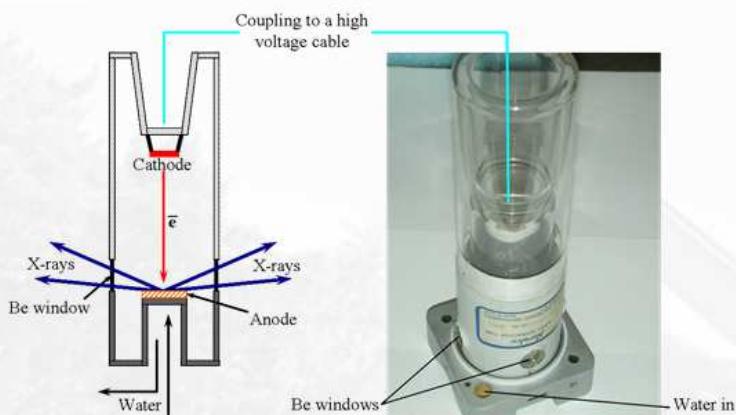
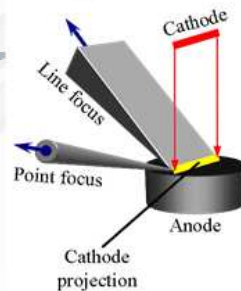
- Sealed X-ray tube; Rotating anode tube; Synchrotron



www.researchgate.net/figure/Schematic-representation-of-the-synchrotron-radiation-source-The-electron-storage-ring_fig13_307606559
 jayxray.com/x-rays/c-arm-buyers-guide/c-arm-talk/rotating-vs-stationary-anode-on-c-arm/
 pd.chem.ucl.ac.uk/pdnn/inst1/xtube.htm

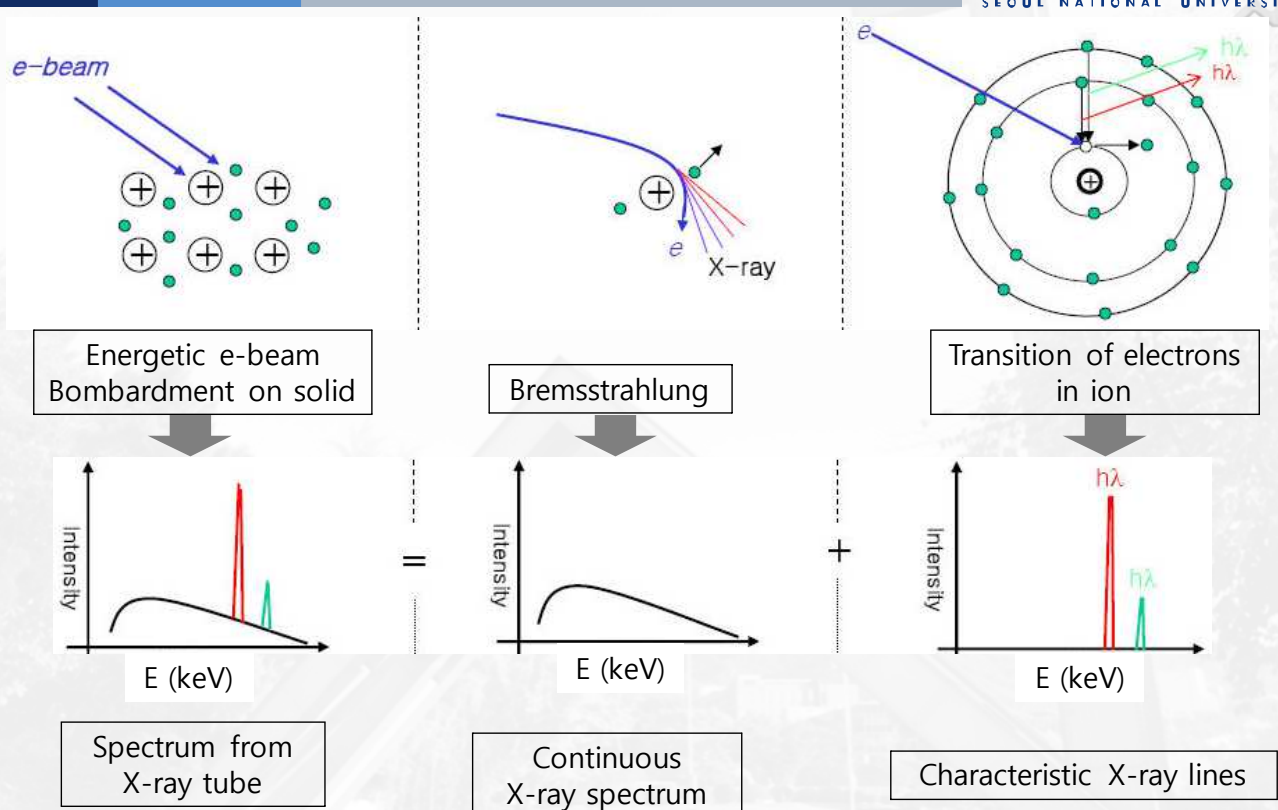
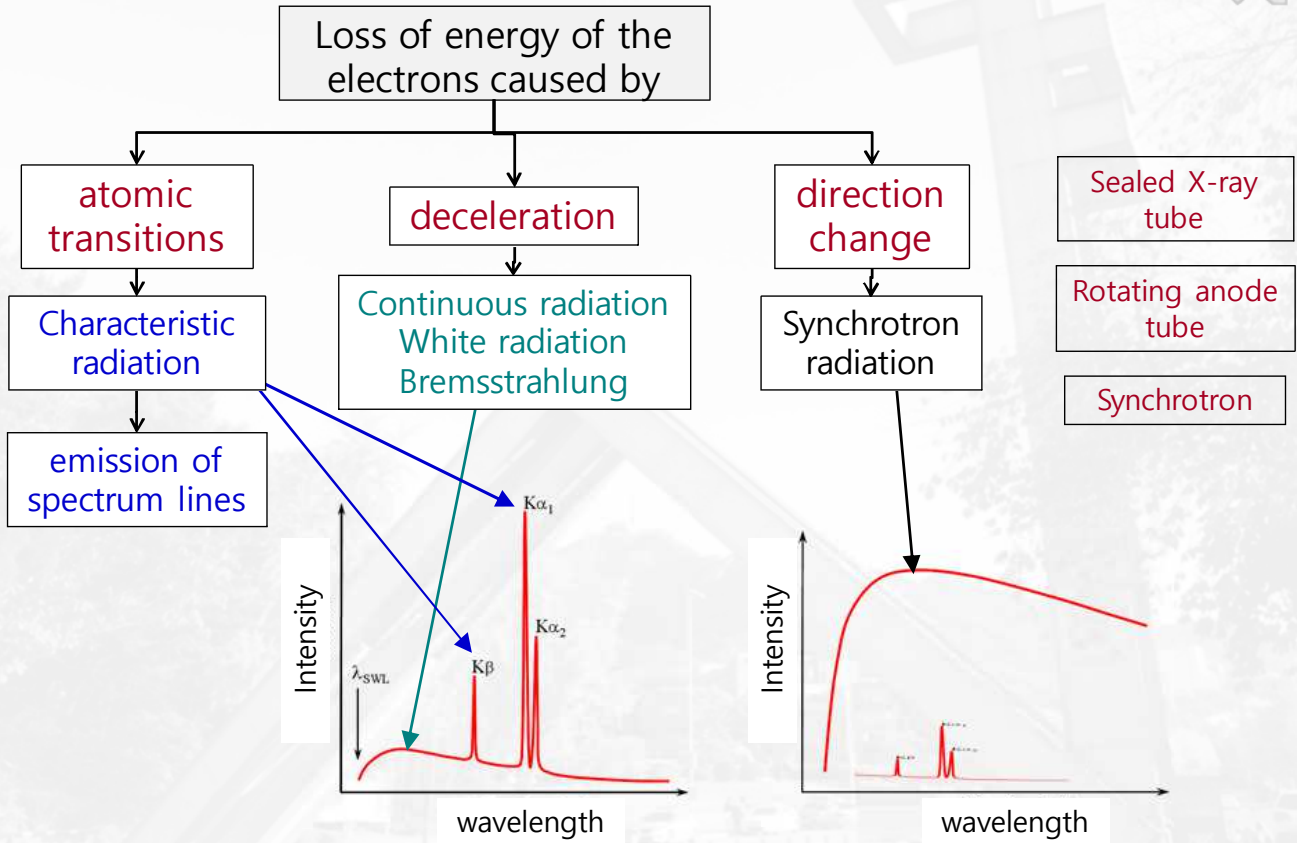
Sealed X-ray tube

- Bombardment of a target by electrons
- Anode (Cu, Mo, W, Ag ..), Cathode (W, LaB6)
- $10^{-3} \sim 10^{-4}$ Torr chamber, high voltage (10 ~ 50kV)

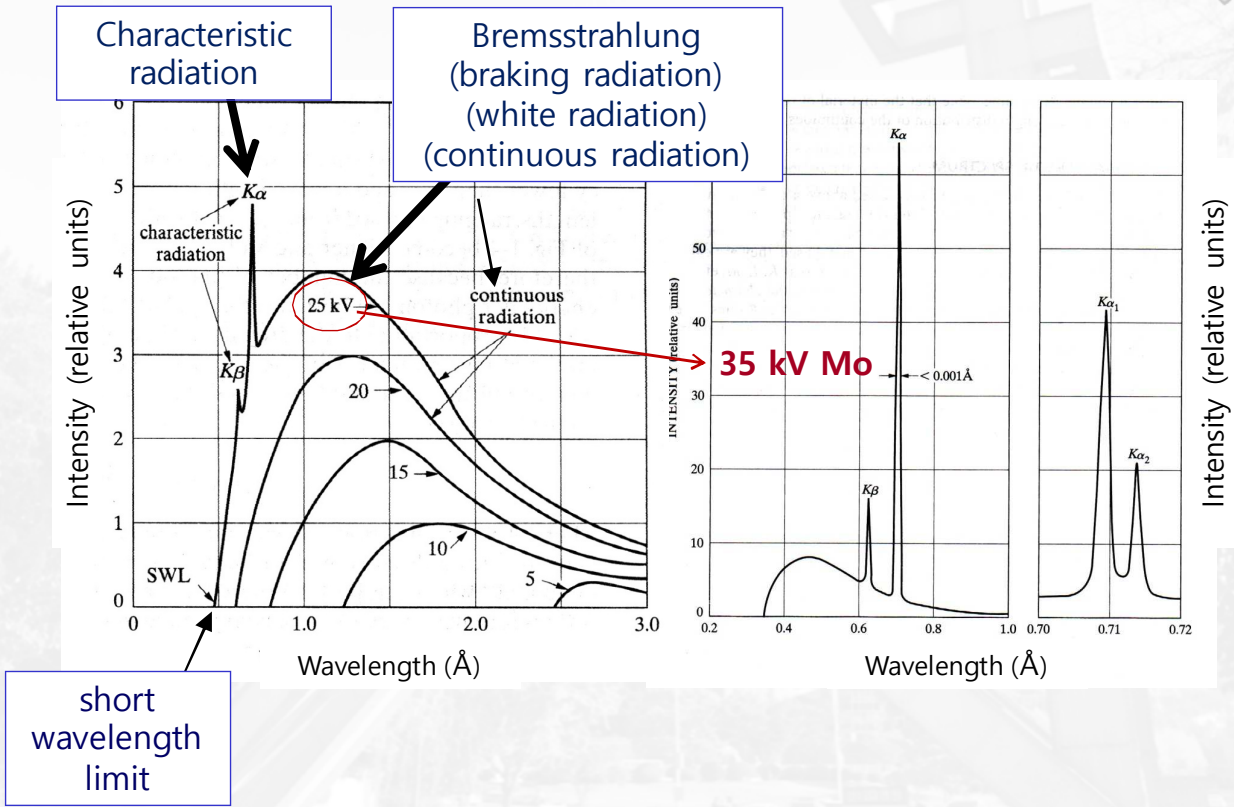


Overall efficiency \leftarrow heat very low

Most of the kinetic energy striking the target is converted into heat.
 \rightarrow $< 1\%$ is transformed into X-ray.

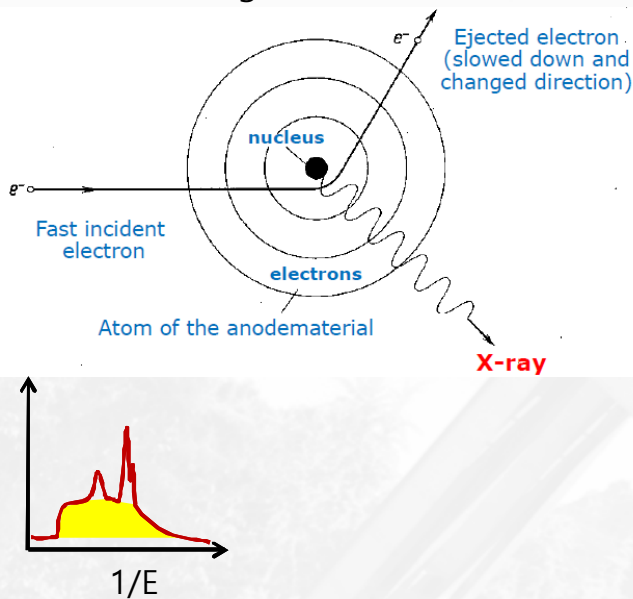


X-ray spectrum of molybdenum

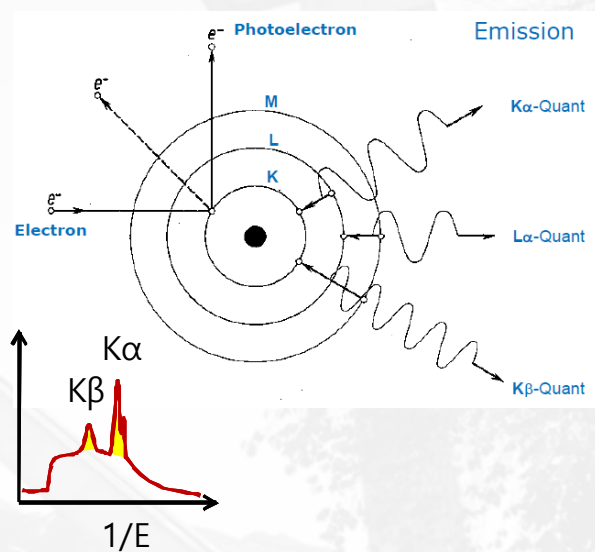


Generation of X-ray

"Bremsstrahlung" Radiation

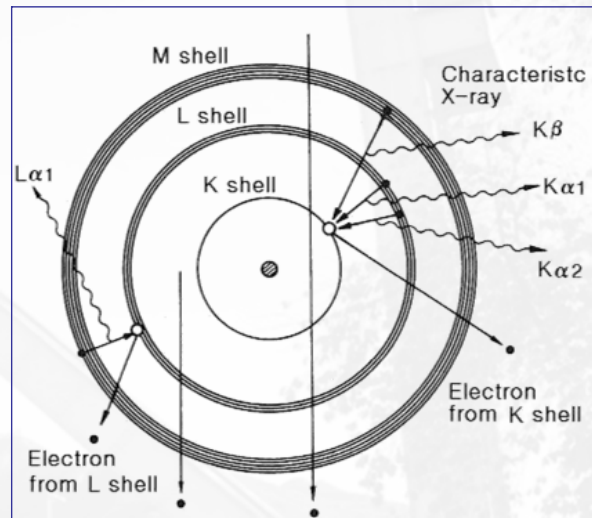
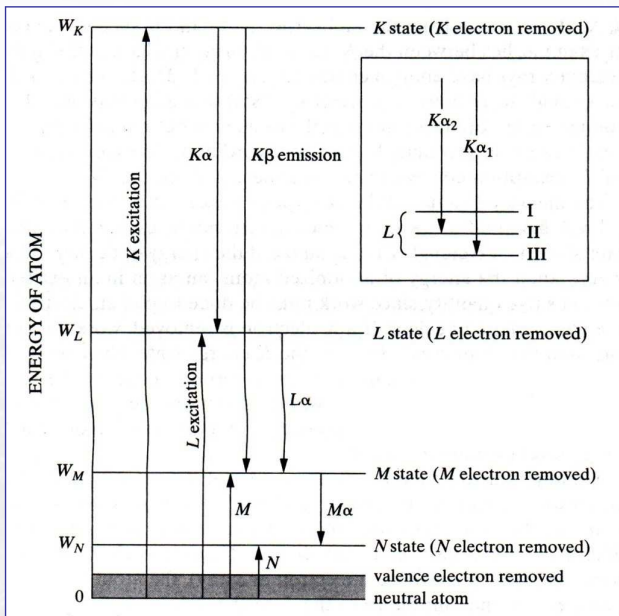


Characteristic Radiation



Cross Sections of Excitation

$$K_{\alpha 1} : K_{\alpha 2} : K_{\beta} = 10 : 5 : 2$$



Cullity page 16

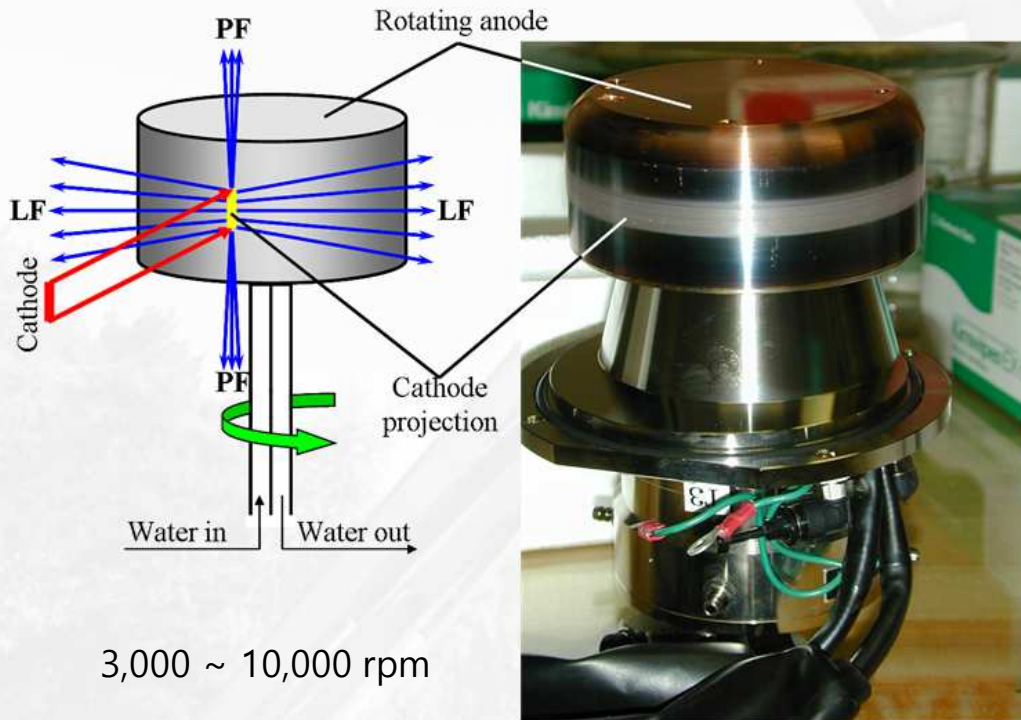
$$K_{\alpha} = (2K_{\alpha 1} + K_{\alpha 2}) / 3$$

β -filter, monochromator

Intensity ratios
 $K_{\alpha 1} : K_{\alpha 2} : K_{\beta} = 10 : 5 : 2$

X-ray from sealed tube/rotating anode

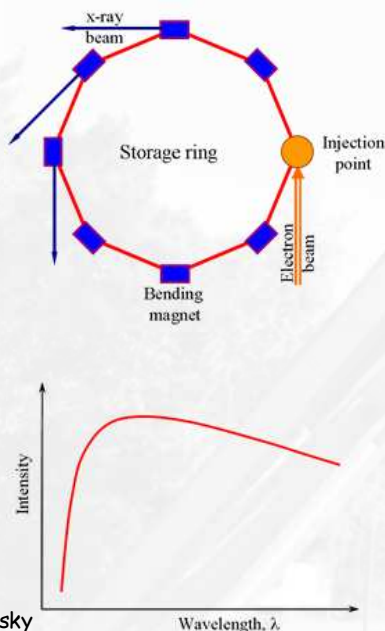
Anode	$K\alpha_1$ (Å)	
Cu	1.54060	- <u>Best for inorganics</u> - <u>Fe and Co fluorescence</u>
Cr	2.28970	- High Resolution for large d-spacing - High attenuation in air
Fe	1.93604	- Used for ferrous alloys to reduce Fe fluorescence. - Causes Cr fluorescence.
Co	1.78897	- <u>Used for ferrous alloys to reduce Fe fluorescence.</u>
Mo	0.70930	- Short wavelength used for small unit cells



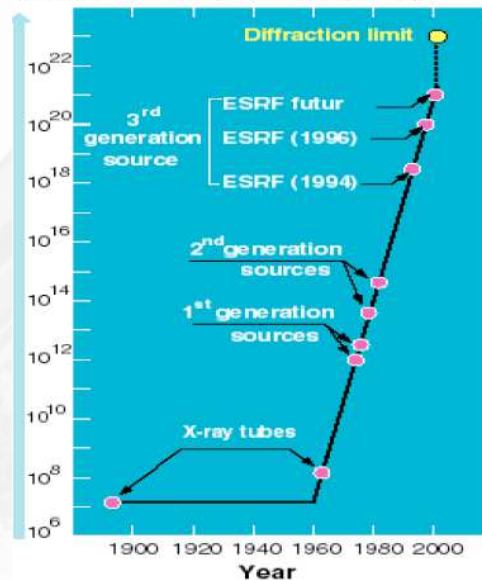
3,000 ~ 10,000 rpm

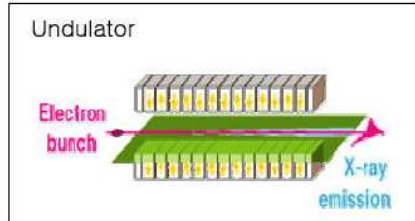
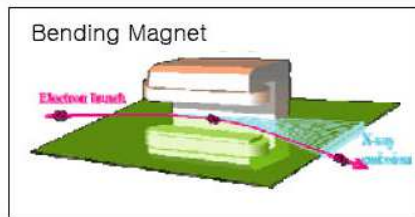
Synchrotron X-ray

- Most powerful X-ray radiation source
- High brilliance X-ray beam
- Distribution of beam intensity as a function of wavelength



Brilliance of the X-ray beams
photons / s / mm² / mrad² / 0.1% BW)





Synchrotron Radiation.

- Very High Dense Source.
- Good Coherent Property.
- Continuous Spectrum.
- Huge Apparatus.

Brightness & Fluxes for Neutron & X-Ray Sources

	Brightness ($s^{-1}m^{-2}ster^{-1}$)	dE/E (%)	Divergence ($mrad^2$)	Flux ($s^{-1}m^{-2}$)
Neutrons	10^{15}	2	10×10	10^{11}
Rotating Anode	10^{20}	0.02	0.5×10	5×10^{14}
Bending Magnet	10^{27}	0.1	0.1×5	5×10^{20}
Undulator (APS)	10^{33}	10	0.01×0.1	10^{24}


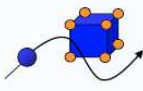
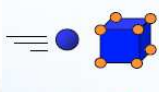

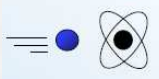
Neutron diffraction

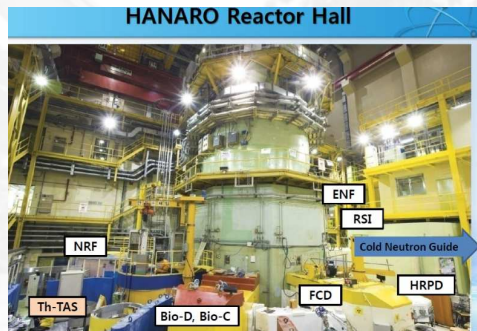
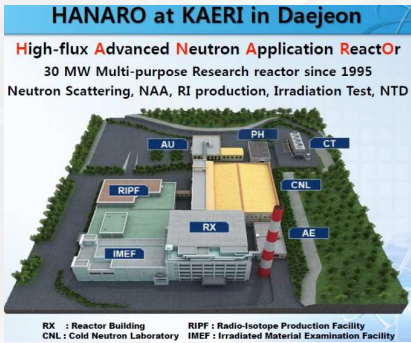
- Produced in nuclear reactors. White spectrum
- **Scattered by nuclei (electron clouds in X-ray).**
- Scattering factor remains constant over the whole range of Bragg angles.
- **Scattering factors not proportional to atomic number**
- Scattering factors are different for different isotopes of the same element.
- Neutrons have spins → interact with unpaired e' spins (magnetic moments), can be used to determine ordered **magnetic structures**.

Electron diffraction

- High vacuum is needed.
- e's strongly interact with materials. → dynamical theory of diffraction
- Cost of equipment

Mass **No Charge** **Spin 1/2 ↑**

- 
No charge
→ Deep penetration
- 
Wavelength Å ~ nm
(Thermal & Cold Neutron)
→ Atomic & Nanometer scale
- 
Energy ~ meV
→ Same magnitude as basic excitations in solids
- 
Spin = 1/2
→ Magnetic structure & dynamics
- 
Interacts with nuclei
→ Contrast variation
($b_H = -3.74\text{fm}$, $b_D = 6.67\text{fm}$)



CHAN PARK, MSE, SNU Spring-2022 Crystal Structure Analyses

Presentation of Shin Ae Kim, KAERI 35

Neutron vs. X-ray

Why Neutron?

X-rays

Scattered from electrons

➢ Scattering proportional to Z

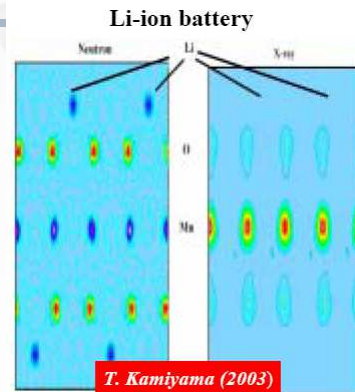
H	C	N	O	Al	Si	P	Ti	D
1	6	7	8	13	14	15	22	1

Neutrons

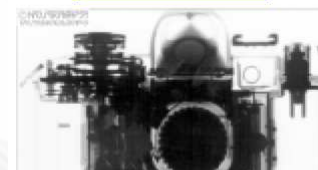
Scattered by nuclei

➢ Scattering not proportional to Z

H	C	N	O	Al	Si	P	Ti	D
1	6	7	8	13	14	15	22	1
-37.4	66.5	93.6	58.0	34.5	41.5	51.3	-34.4	66.7
x10 ⁻¹⁴								



X-ray Radiography



Neutron Radiography



<http://neutra.web.psi.ch>

Presentation of Shin Ae Kim, KAERI

	X-ray (conv/sync)	Neutron	Electron
nature	wave	particle	particle
medium	atmosphere	atmosphere	high vacuum
Scattering by	e' density	nuclei, magnetic spins of e's	electrostatic potential
Range of λ (Å)	0.5~2.5 (0.1~10)	~1	0.01~0.05
l selection	fixed/variable	variable	variable
Lattice image	reciprocal		direct, reciprocal
Direct structure image	no		yes
Applicable theory of diffraction	kinematical		dynamical

Safety (XRD)

Beryllium - MSDS

- Electric shock
- Radiation hazard
 - ✓ Burns
 - ✓ Radiation sickness
 - ✓ Genetic mutation
- Be window

- Appearance: silvery solid or grey foil
Melting point: 1278 C Boiling point: 2970 C
- Very toxic by inhalation - risk of serious damage to health. May act as a human carcinogen for which there is no safe exposure level. May act as a sensitizer.
- Toxicity data IVN-RAT LD50 0.5 mg kg-1
- Risk phrases R26 R27 R37 R39.

IVN – intravenous
 LD50 – lethal dose 50% kill
 R26 – very toxic by inhalation
 R27 – very toxic in contact with skin
 R37 irritating to respiratory system
 R39 – danger of very serious irreversible effects

- No special health risks with Be in solid form

- Skin Contact with Beryllium

- ✓ No effect on contact or temporary embedding.
- ✓ Solvents will not generate beryllium dust, but some acids will. Don't etch beryllium.
- ✓ Wear clean gloves to protect the skin and to protect the beryllium.



Collimation Monochromatization Diffractometer

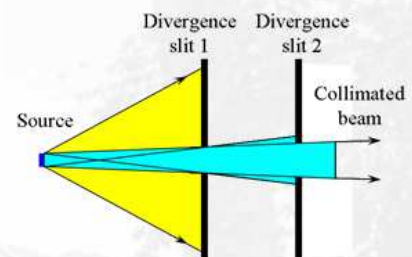
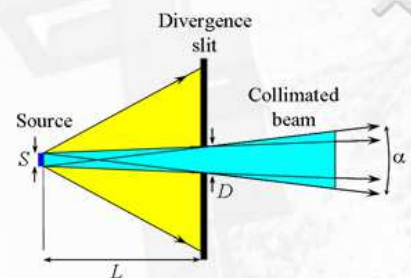
Collimation & Monochromatization

- Conventional X-ray (sealed tube, rotating anode tube) has
 - ✓ Polychromatic nature → monochromatization
 - ✓ Angular divergence → collimation
 - 1. White radiation → high background
 - 2. Three intense characteristic lines ($K_{\alpha 1}$, $K_{\alpha 2}$, K_{β}) → three Bragg peaks from each (hkl)
 - 3. Angular divergence → broad & asymmetric Bragg peaks
-
- **Incident X-ray beam needs to be conditioned** to improve the quality of diffraction pattern.
 - How to reduce both the angular & wavelength dispersion?
 - How to reduce both with minimal loss of intensity of incident & diffracted beams?

Collimation slits

Divergence slit

- The slits block X-rays that have large divergence.
- The size of the divergence slit influences peak intensity and peak shapes.
- Narrow divergence slits:
 - ✓ reduce the intensity of the X-ray beam.
 - ✓ reduce the length of the X-ray beam hitting the sample.
 - ✓ produce sharper peaks.
 - The instrumental resolution is improved so that closely spaced peaks can be resolved.



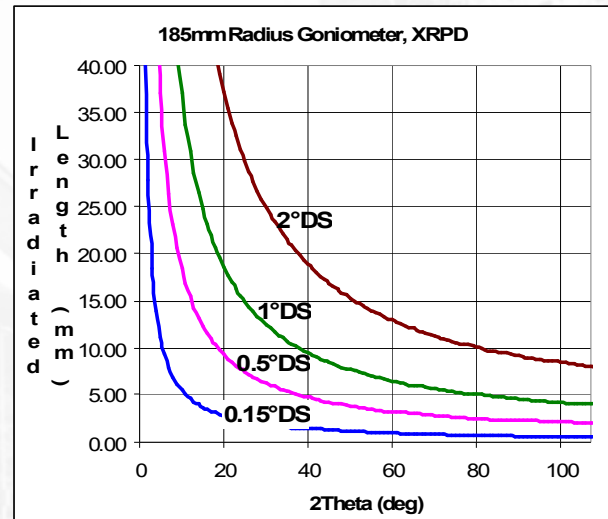
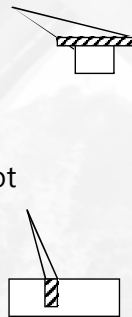
Divergence slit

- The length of the incident beam is determined by the divergence slit, goniometer radius, and incident angle.

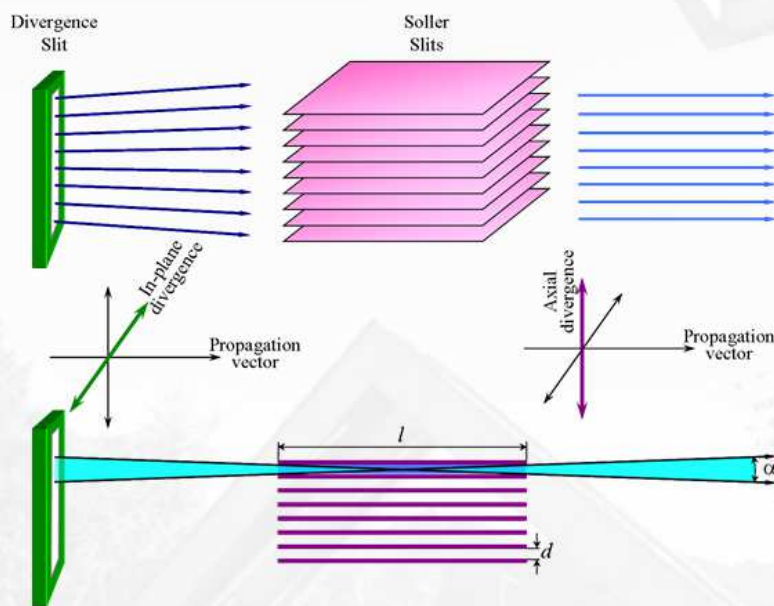


- This should be considered when choosing a divergence slit size:

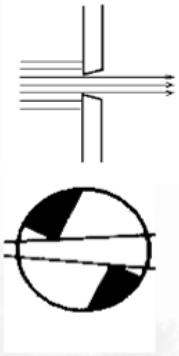
- ✓ if the divergence slit is too large, beam can be significantly longer than your sample at low angles.
- ✓ if the slit is too small, you may not get enough intensity from your sample at higher angles.



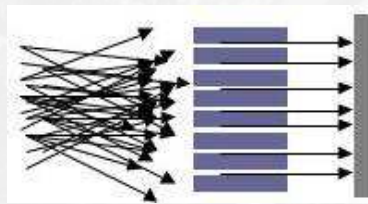
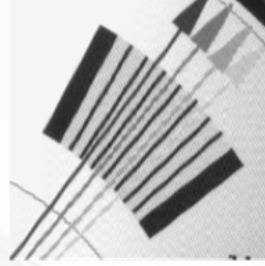
Divergence slit & Soller slit



- Soller slit - reduce angular divergence of the incident X-ray beam in the direction // to goniometer axis (reduce axial divergence).

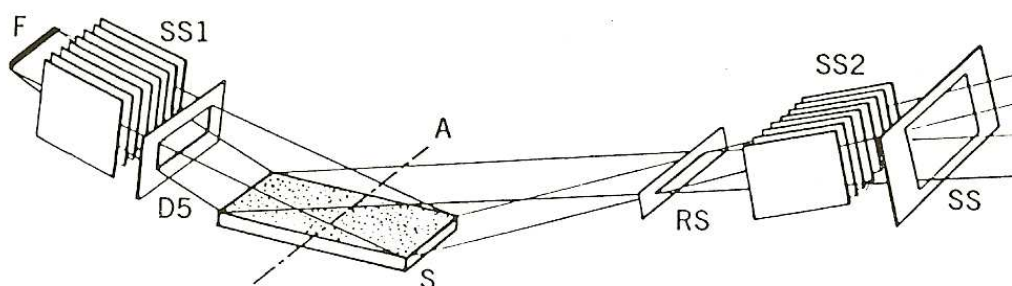
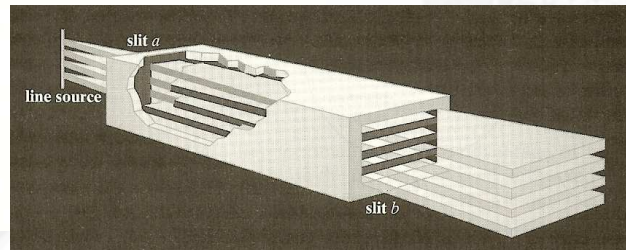
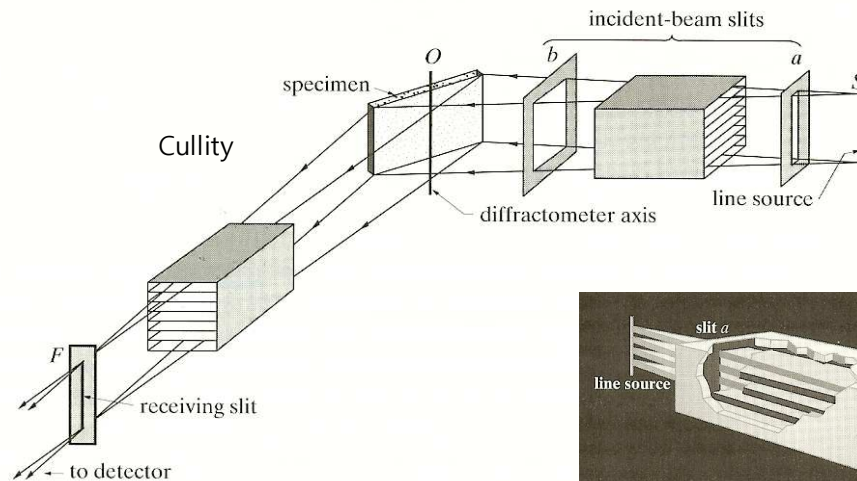


The normal slit consists of two blades, limiting the beam width. For automatic changing of the slit width, turnable edges are used.



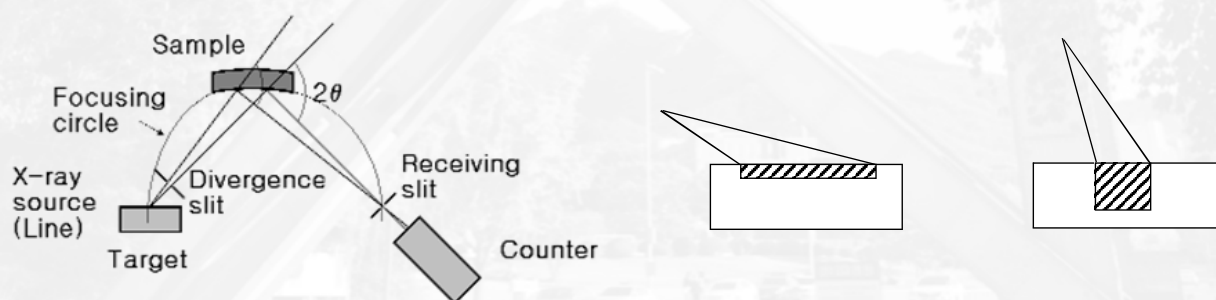
Parallel Plate Collimator & Soller Slits block divergent X-rays, but do not restrict beam size like a divergent slit.

Soller slit



Jenkins & Snyder page 187

- In case the line intensities are to be compared over the whole range of 2θ , the same divergence must be used and specimen must be larger than the beam at all angles.
- Variable divergence slit → irradiated area constant at all 2θ angles
- Fixed divergence slit → irradiated volume constant at all 2θ angles
- Receiving slit defines the width of beam admitted to the detector. Increase of receiving slit → increase of maximum intensity, loss of resolution

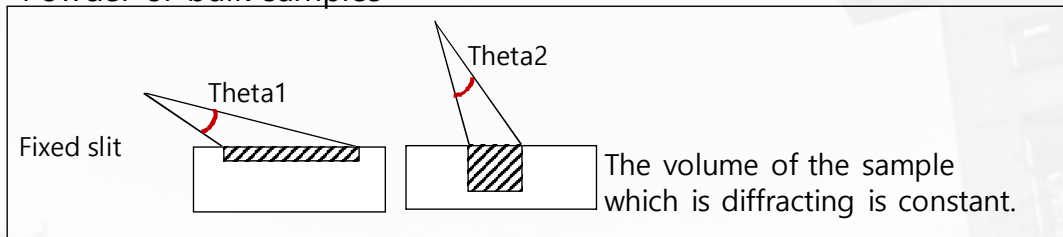


Constant irradiated volume

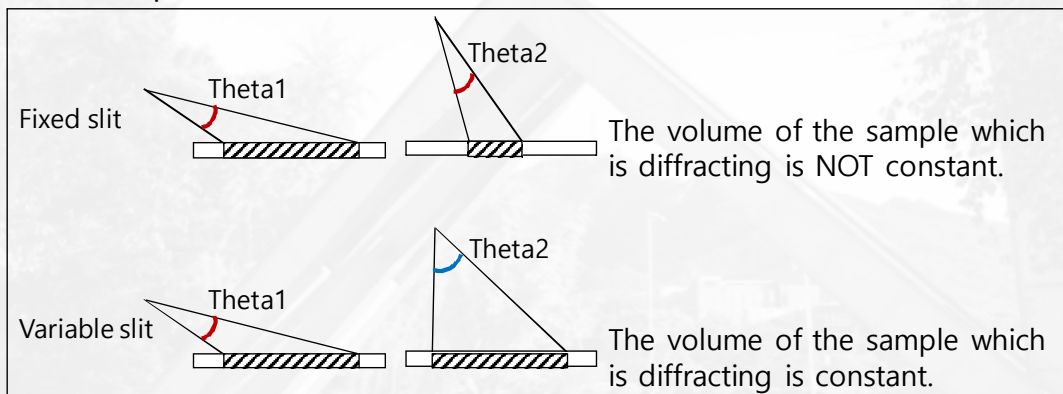
- In a polycrystalline sample of 'infinite' thickness, the change in the irradiated area as the incident angle varies is compensated for by the change in the penetration depth.
- These two factors result in a constant irradiated volume.
 - ✓ as area ↓, depth ↑; and vice versa
- This assumption is important for many aspects of XRPD.
 - ✓ Matching intensities to those in the PDF reference database
 - ✓ Crystal structure refinements
 - ✓ Quantitative phase analysis
- This assumption is not necessarily valid for thin films or small quantities of sample on a ZBH.



Powder or bulk samples



Thin samples



Monochromators

remove unwanted wavelengths

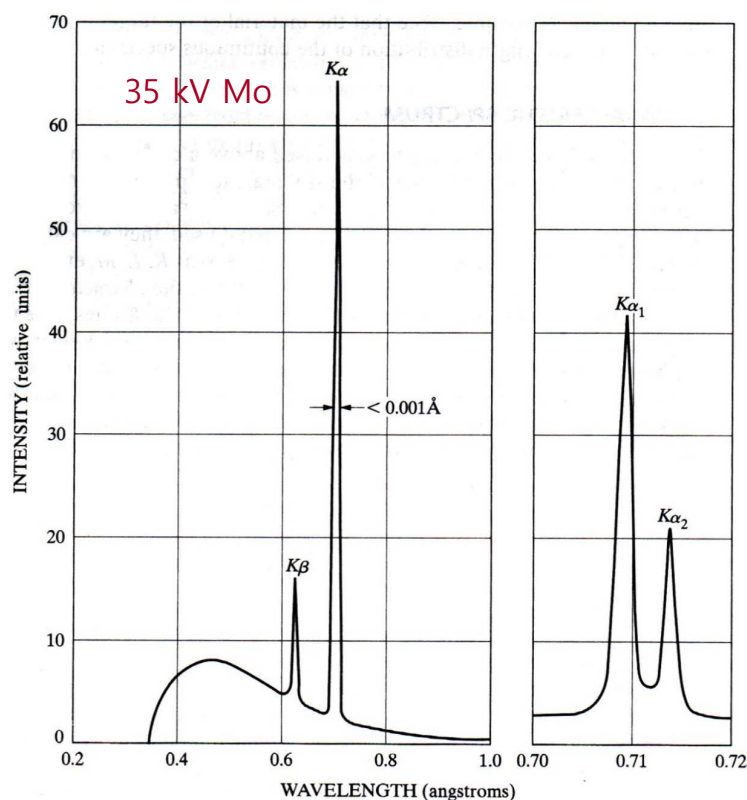
- Problems caused by polychromatic nature of diffracted beam & variability of angular dispersion
- XRD pattern from multiple wavelength, or that from unknown wavelength → difficulty in interpreting the pattern
- Why monochromatic beam is wanted? – we want to obtain experimental pattern from a single wavelength.
- Monochromatization by reducing the intensity of white radiation & by eliminating undesirable characteristic wavelengths from X-ray spectrum
 - ✓ β filter
 - ✓ Diffracted beam monochromator
 - ✓ Primary beam monochromator
 - ✓ Pulse height selection using proportional counter
 - ✓ Use of solid state detector (high resolution energy resolving detector)

X-ray spectrum of molybdenum

$2p \rightarrow 1s$

α_1, α_2 doublet
 β_1, β_3 doublet

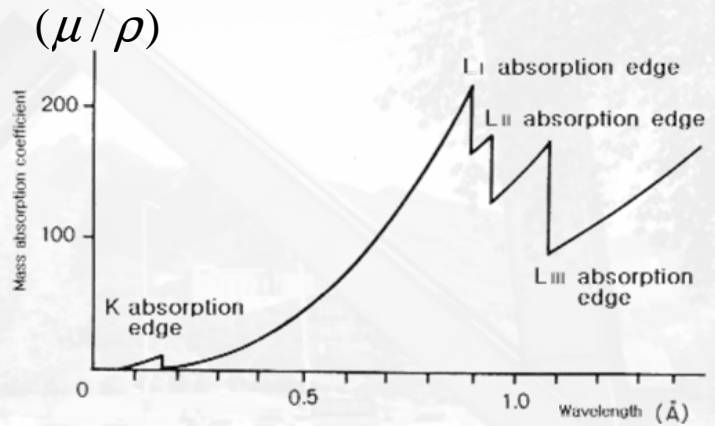
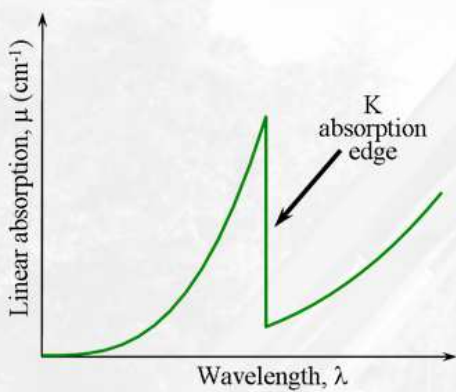
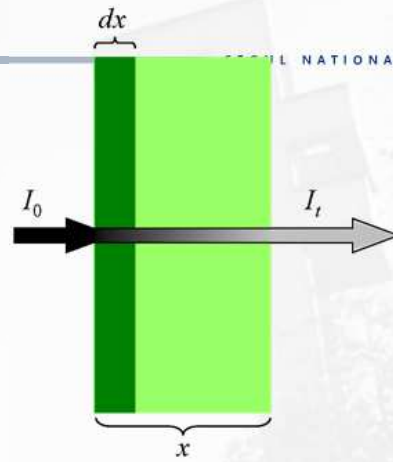
$3p \rightarrow 1s$



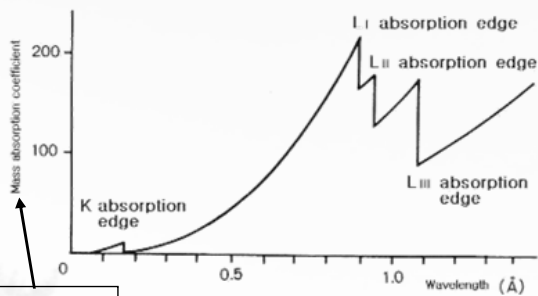
Absorption of X-rays

$$I_x = I_0 e^{-(\mu/\rho)\rho x}$$

μ linear absorption coefficient
 μ/ρ mass absorption coefficient

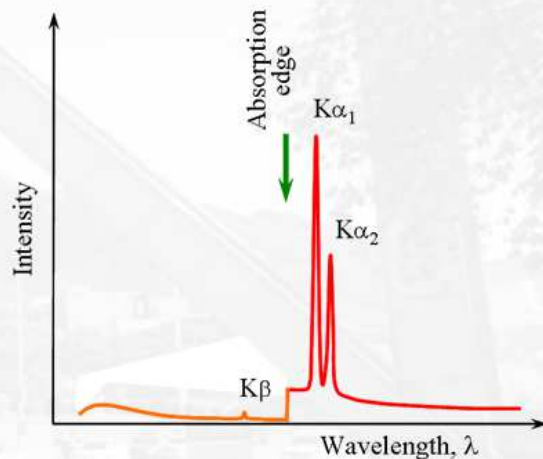
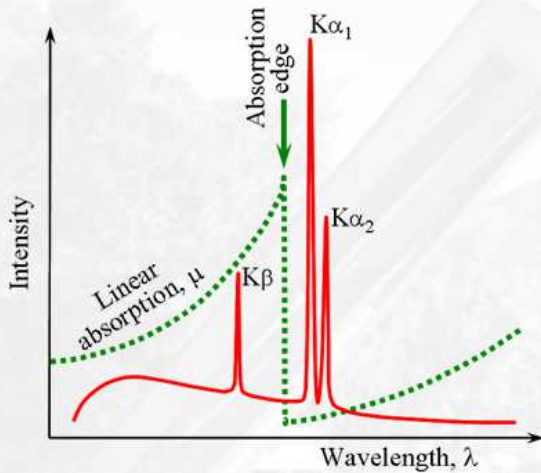


β -filter



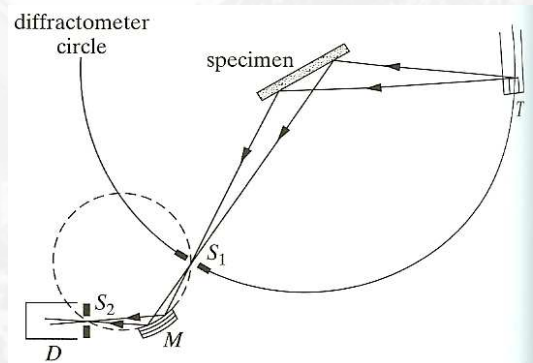
$$I_x = I_0 e^{-(\mu/\rho)\rho x}$$

(μ/ρ)

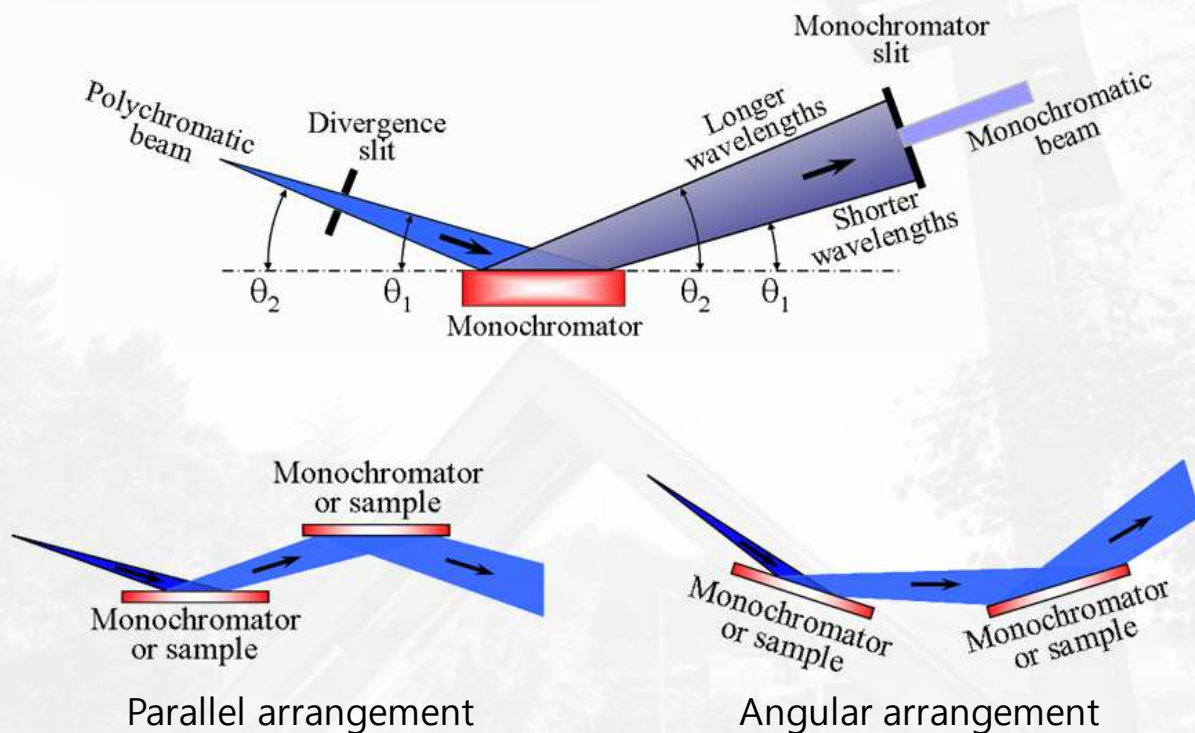


Monochromators

- Ways to reduce BKG
 - ✓ Pulse-height analyser
 - ✓ Diffracted beam monochromator → suppress BKG radiation originating at the specimen (fluorescent radiation, incoherent scattered radiation).
 - ✓ Balanced filter
- Monochromator can be placed in diffracted beam in diffractometer (not in the area detector).
- Incident beam monochromator → L_p factor has to be changed (has to include contribution from the diffraction at the monochromator).
- LiF, graphite, Si, Ge, SiO₂ (quartz), etc

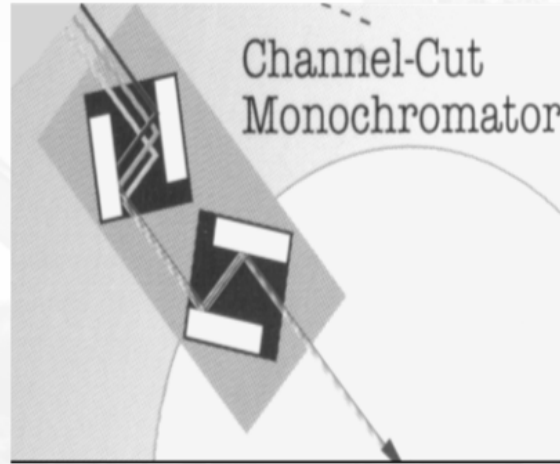
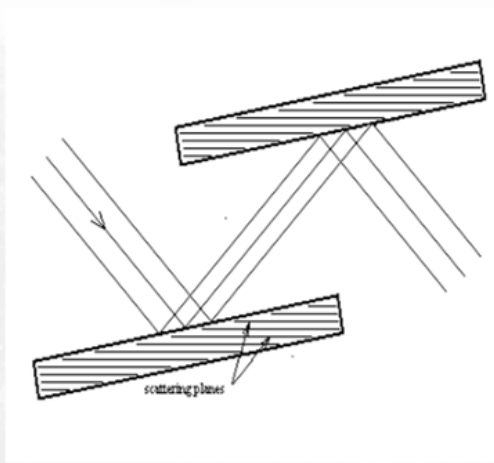


Single crystal monochromator

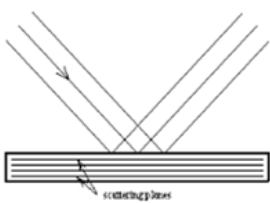


Multi bounce single crystal monochromators

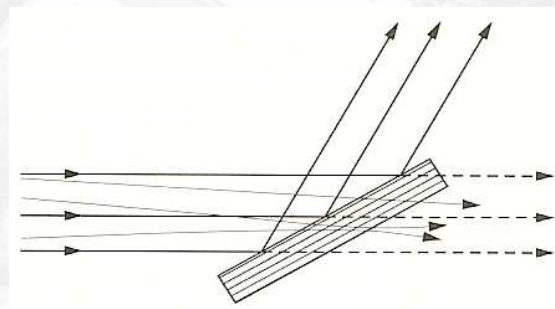
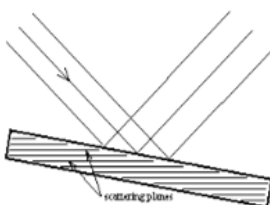
An arrangement of two or four plane crystals provides a beam with very low wavelength dispersion and divergence. Using special channel cut crystals, a high brilliance source is yielded.



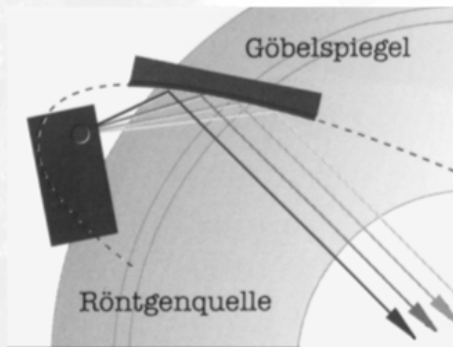
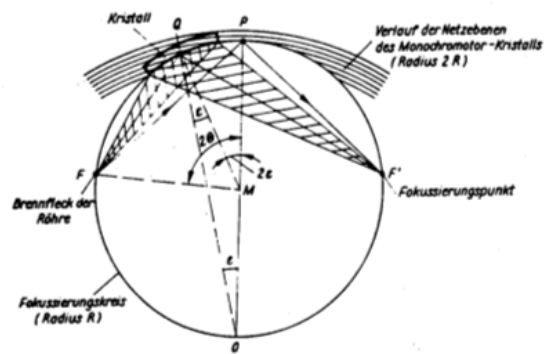
Plane unbent crystal monochromators



- A single crystal may reflect the primary beam, according to Bragg's law, if well aligned.
- It will reject radiation from the wrong direction or the wrong wavelength. → intensity low
- A perfect single crystal will show high resolution in angles or wavelength.
- A poly-domain crystal will show low resolution.
- The better the resolution, the more carefully it must be aligned.



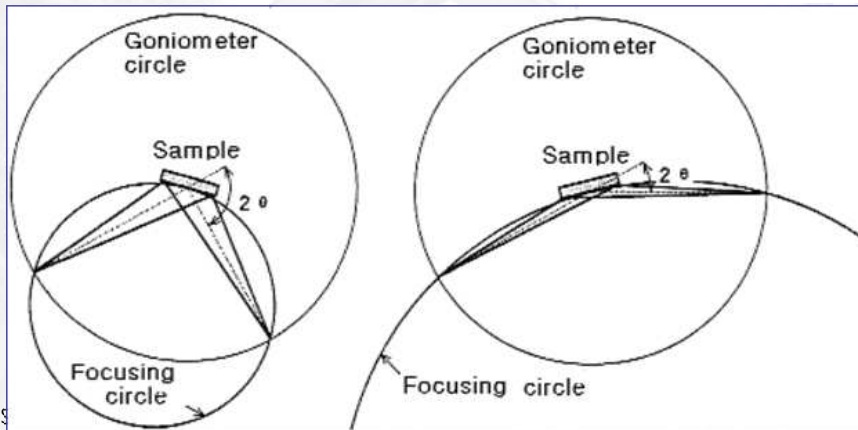
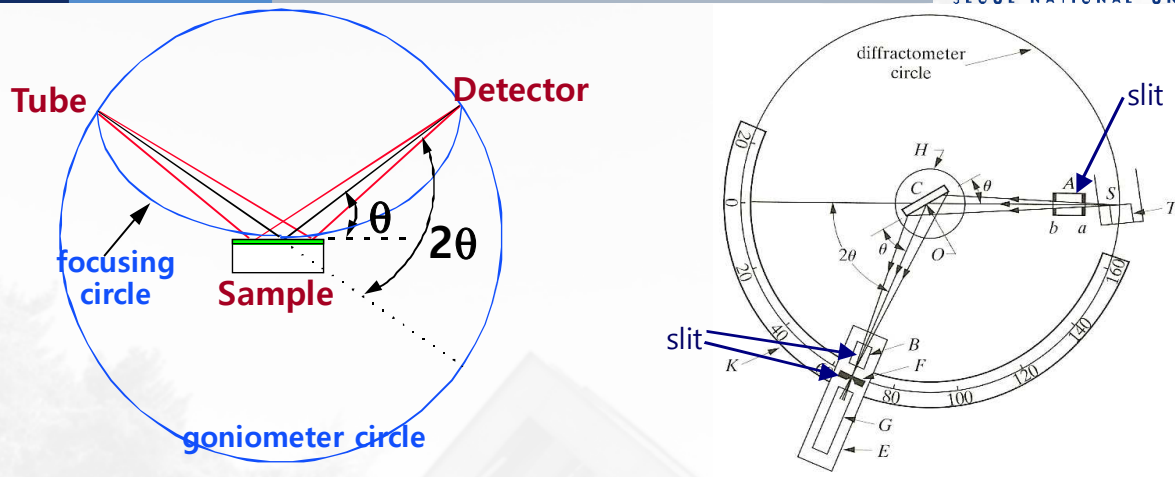
A monochromator of type Johannson is special cut and bent single crystal. It enables the focal spot or the divergent primary beam to be focused to a point again.



The Göbel Mirror is bent like a parabola. The divergent beam emitted by the X-ray tube is converted into a parallel one illuminating the sample. Mounted in the diffracted beam, the beam off the mirror is reflected into the receiving slit.

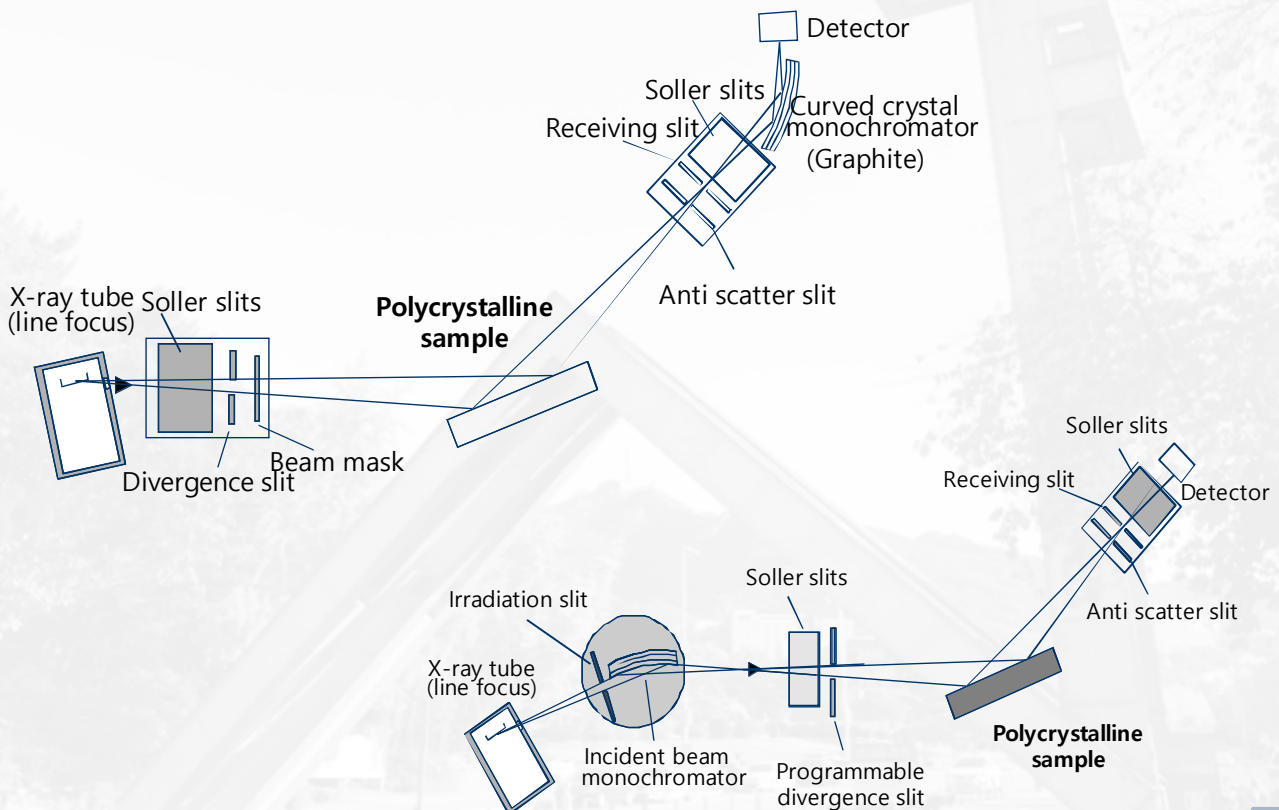
X-ray Diffractometer

Bragg-Brentano geometry (parafocusing geometry)

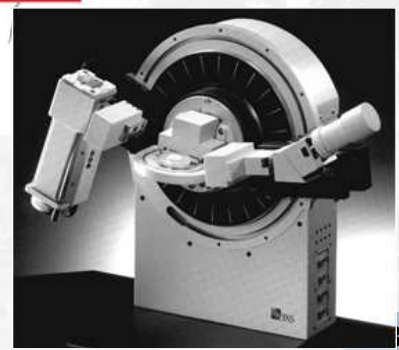
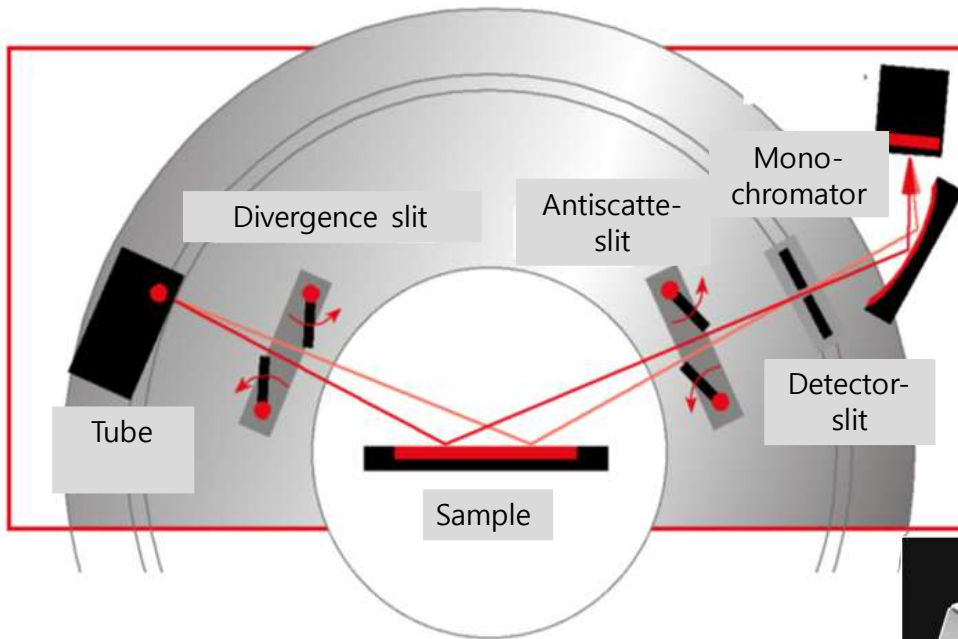


X-ray diffractometer > Bragg-Brentano

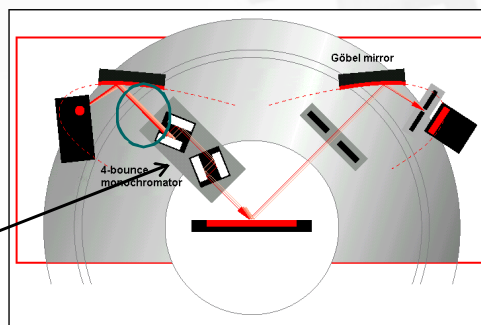
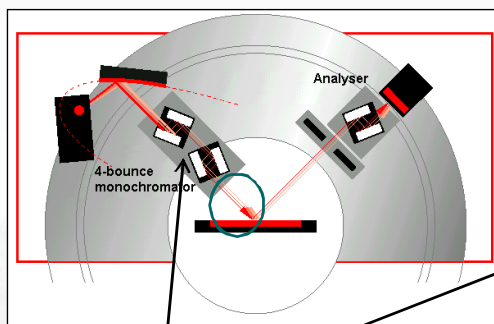
➤ monochromator or filter - suppress $K\beta$ radiation, decrease BKG



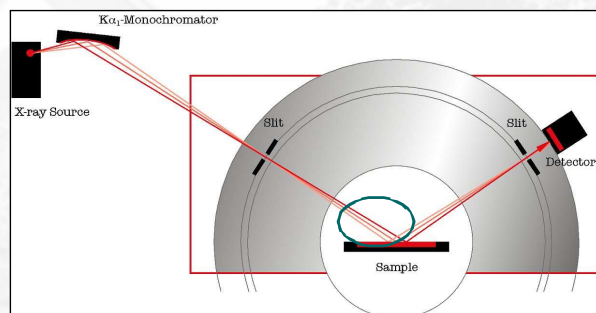
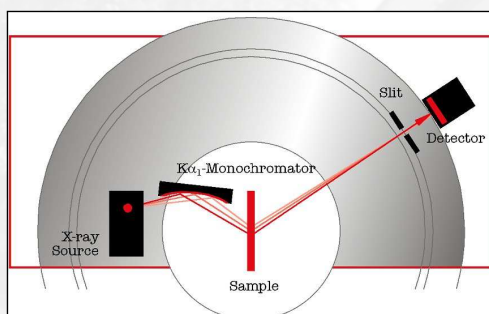
The Bragg-Brentano Geometry

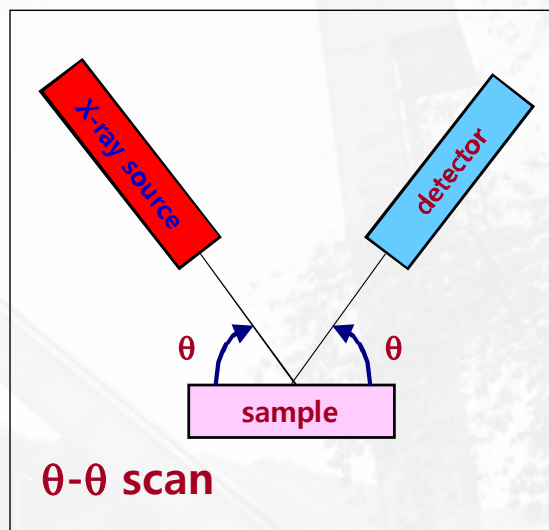
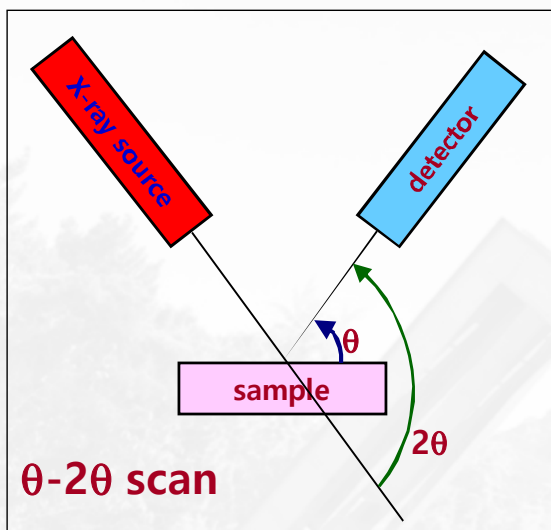


X-ray diffractometer

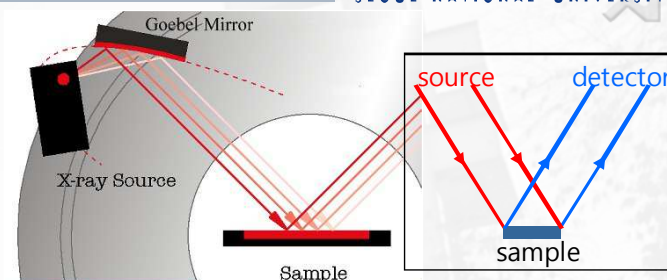
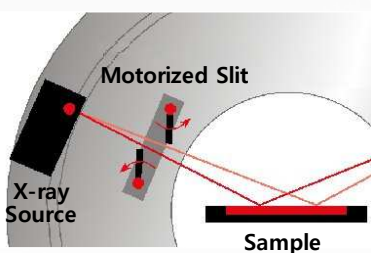
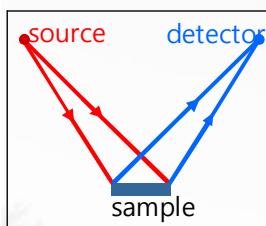


4-bounce monochromator



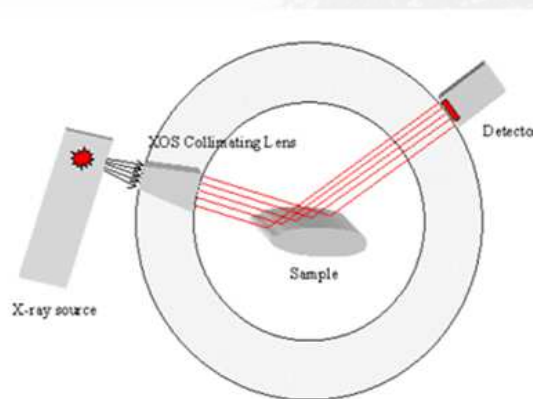
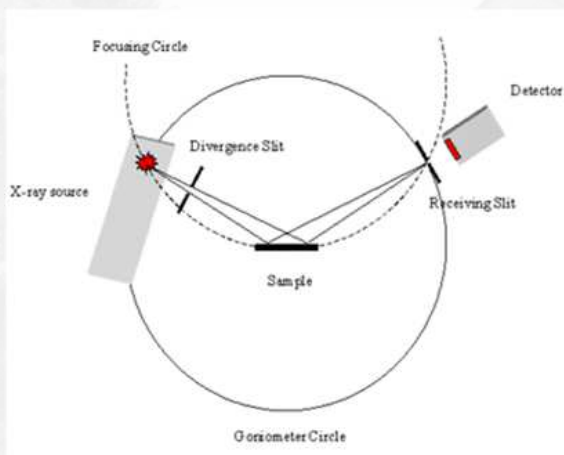


Bragg-Brentano vs. Parallel Beam Geometry



Bragg-Brentano Geometry (para-focusing geometry)

Parallel Beam Geometry generated by Göbel Mirrors



Parallel beam optics → no sample displacement error

X-ray source Collimating optic

Focusing optic

X-ray source Collimating optic

Incoming x-rays Half-focusing optic

XOS

200 μm

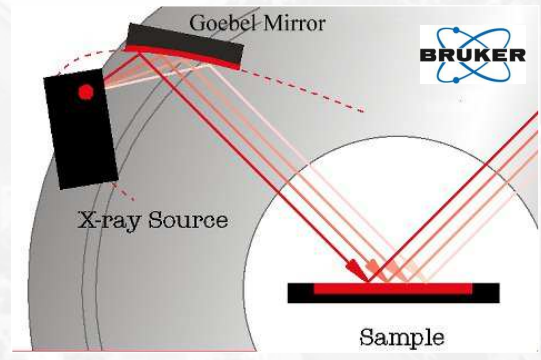
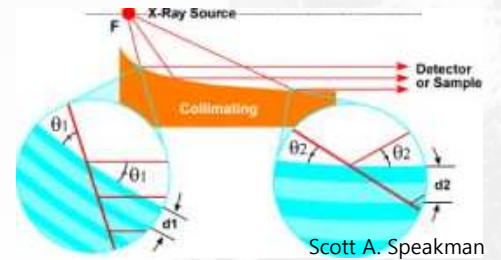
Incident photon "A" angle \leq critical angle (θ_c)
 Incident photon "B" angle $>$ critical angle (θ_c)

glass

gas/vacuum

θ_c (mrad) $\approx \frac{30}{\text{energy (keV)}}$

5 mm 300 μm 10 μm



Parallel beam geometry can be used for

- Analysis of samples with non-flat surfaces, e.g. corrosion on pipes
- Samples you would prefer not to grind to a powder, e.g. jewelry, archaeology or forensic samples



Sodalite Bracelet

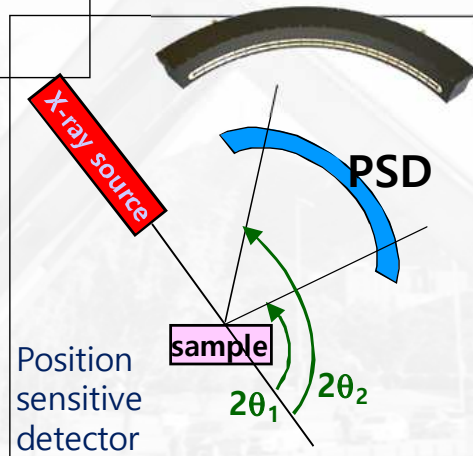
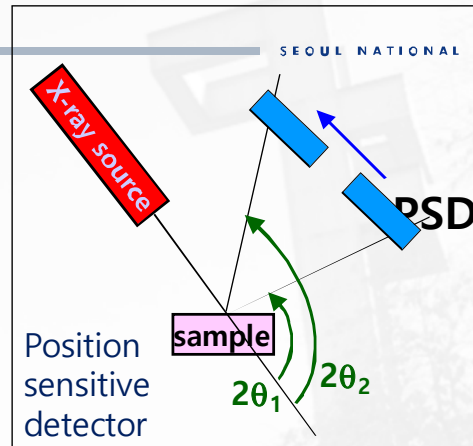
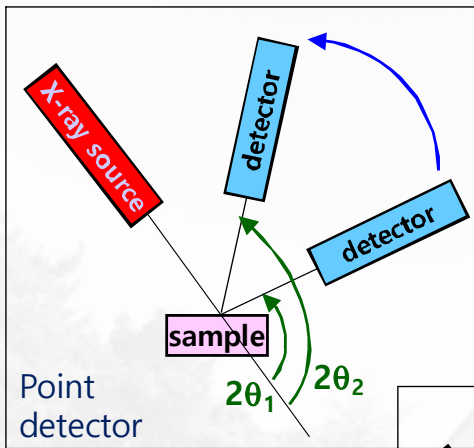


Vesuvianite Pebble

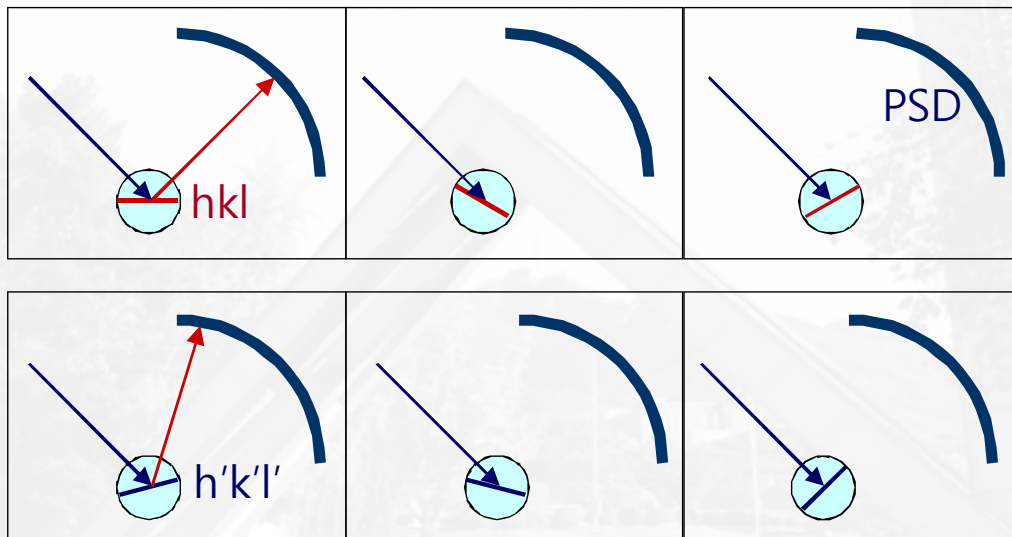
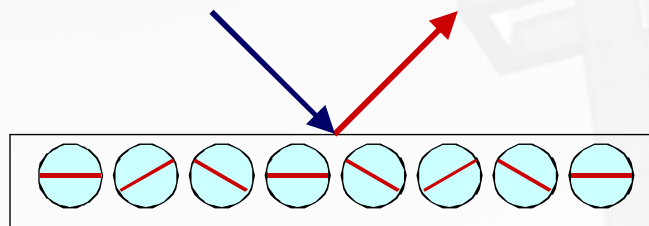
- Measure thermal expansion and contraction when using the heating/cooling stage.
- Grazing incidence diffraction (GID) of layers on substrates
- Reflectometry for thin film thickness and roughness

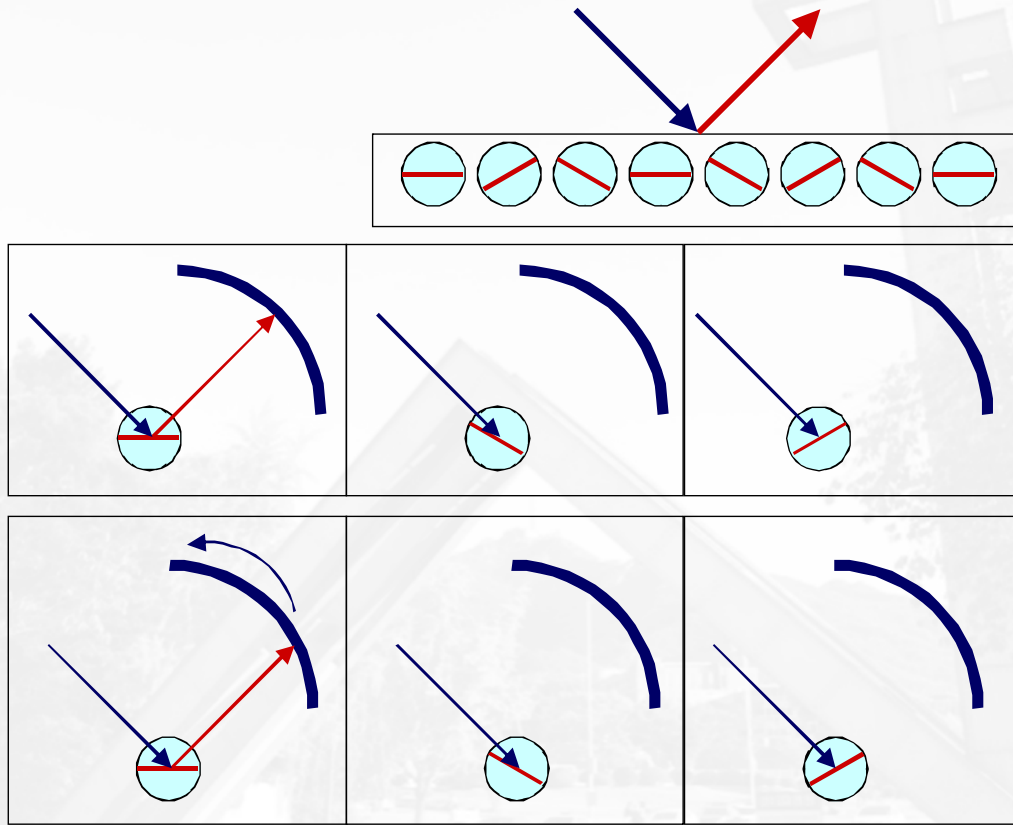
http://www.csec.ed.ac.uk/Instruments/D8_diffractometer/D8_parallel-beam.html

Point, Line, & Area detector

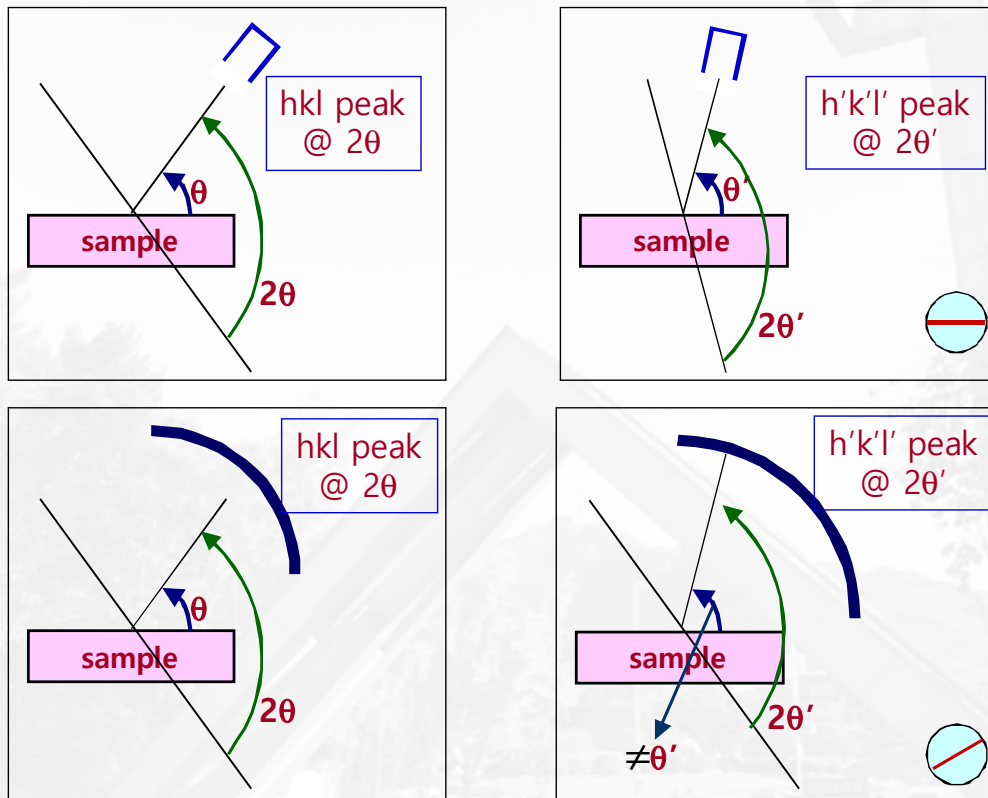


Line detector, PSD

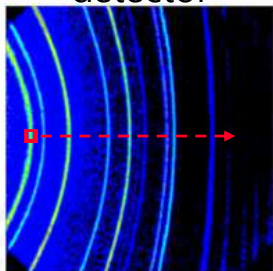




Point detector vs. Line detector

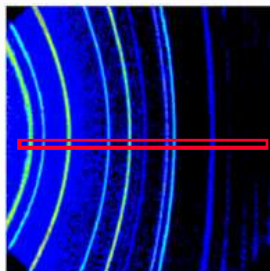


Scintillation detector



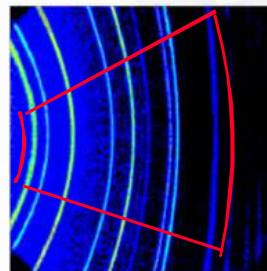
- ✓ small spot measured
- ✓ scan necessary
- ✓ long collection time

Line detector (PSD)

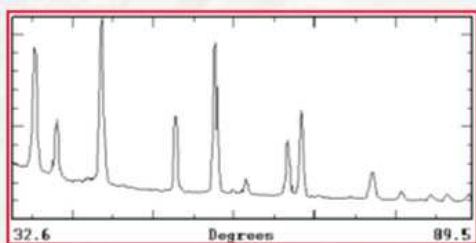


- ✓ large 2θ range measured simultaneously
- ✓ medium collection time

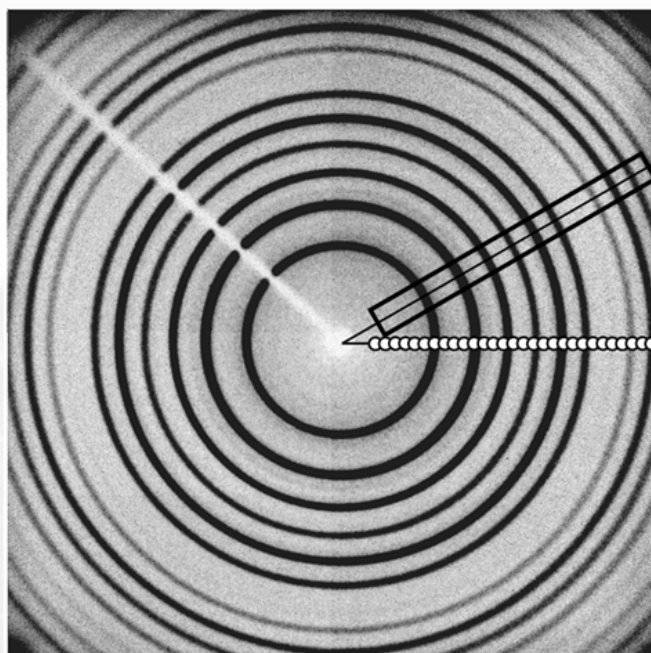
Area detector



- ✓ large 2θ and χ range measured simultaneously
- ✓ measurement of oriented samples
- ✓ very short collection times

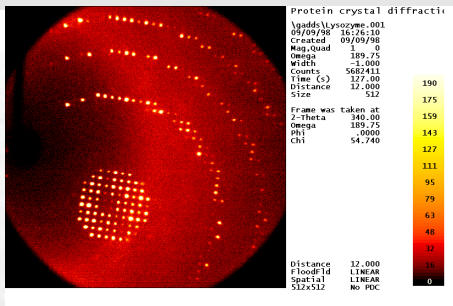
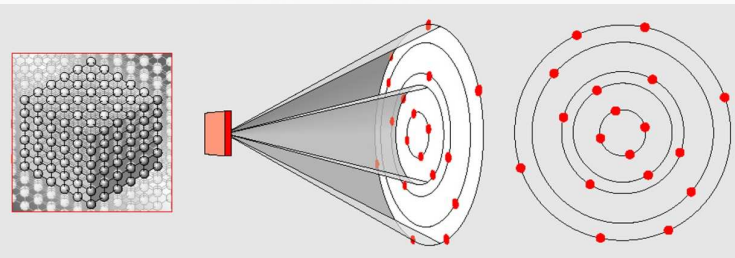
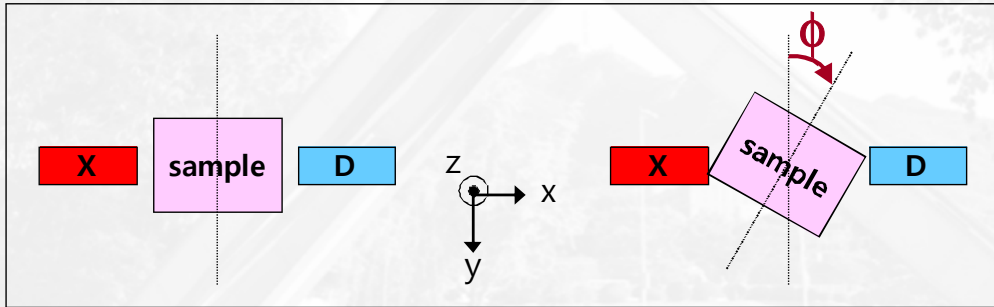
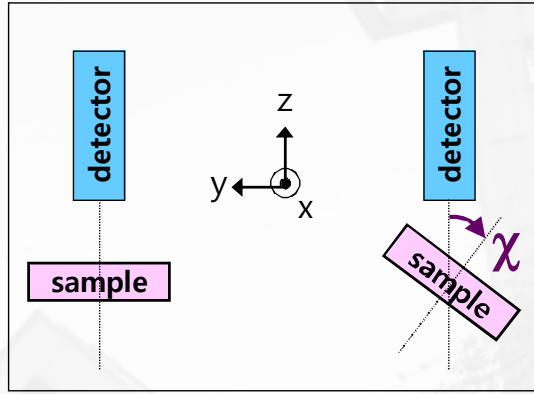
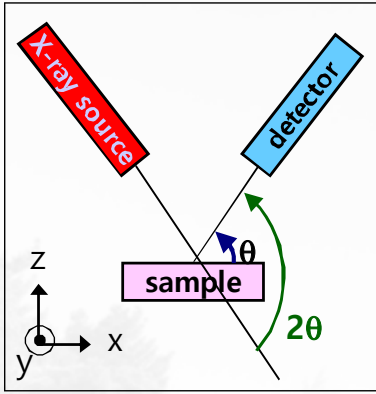


✓ intensity versus 2θ by integration of the data

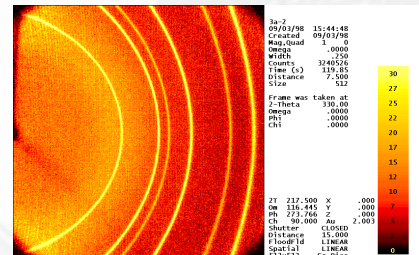


$f(2\theta)$

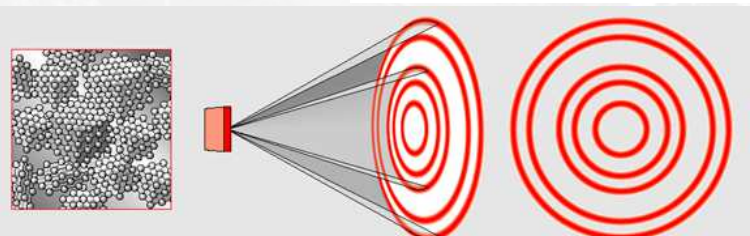
$f(2\theta)$

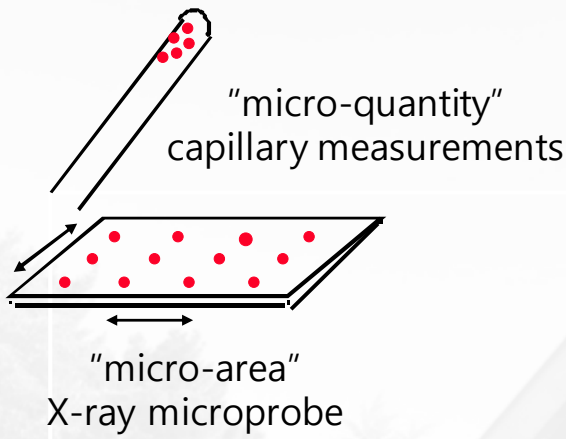


Single Crystal Diffraction

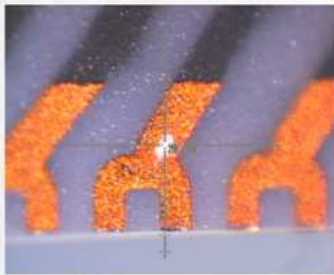


Powder Diffraction

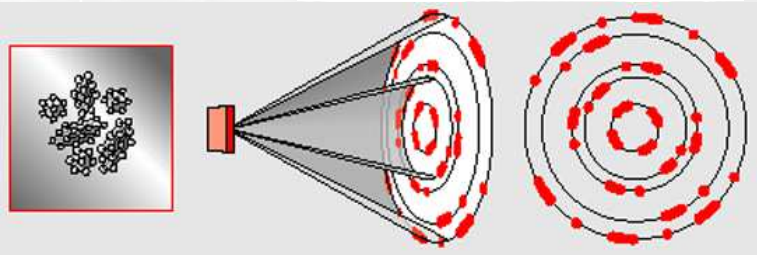
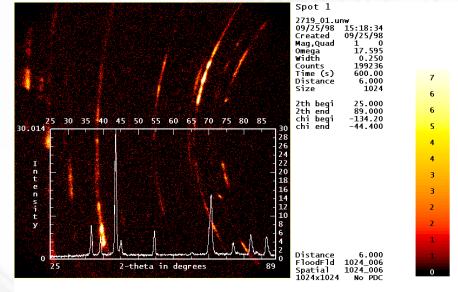




- qualitative phase analysis
- micro-texture
- quick point-and-shoot operation



Inspection of a gold pad



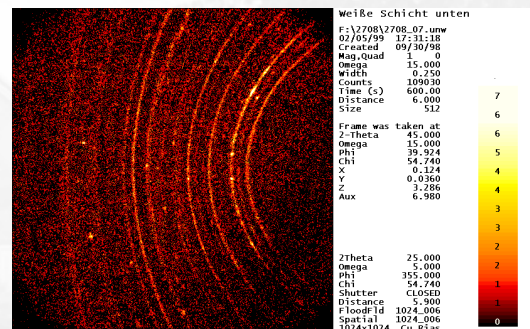
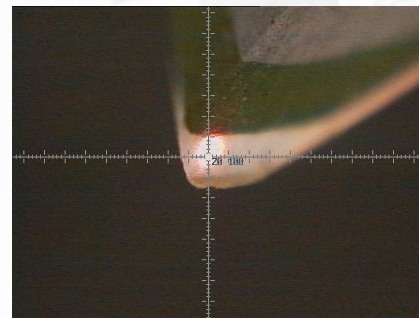
Forensic Application

Fatal Bicycle Accident Collection of Evidence



traces of car paint found on the bicycle

Dr. W. Kugler
Landeskriminalamt
Baden-Württemberg
Stuttgart, Germany



Detector

Detectors

- X-ray detector = transducer + pulse formation circuit
- Transducer – convert the energies of X-ray photons to electric currents.
- Pulse formation circuit – convert current into voltage pulses that are counted/integrated by counting equipment.
- Transducer = detector or counter

- Gas proportional counter, scintillation counter, Si(Li) detector, intrinsic germanium detector → all use the ability of X-rays to ionize matter.

- point detectors
 - ✓ observe one point of space at a time.
 - slow, but compatible with most/all optics.
 - ✓ scintillation and gas proportional detectors count all photons, within an energy window, that hit them.
 - ✓ Si(Li) detectors can electronically analyze or filter wavelengths.

- position sensitive detectors
 - ✓ linear PSDs observe all photons scattered along a line from 2 to 120° long.
 - ✓ 2D area detectors observe all photons scattered along a conic section.
 - ✓ gas proportional (gas on wire; microgap anodes)
 - limited resolution, issues with dead-time and saturation
 - ✓ CCD
 - limited in size, expensive
 - ✓ solid state real-time multiple semiconductor strips
 - high speed with high resolution, robust

- Quantum efficiency
 - ✓ How efficiently it collects x-ray photons and then converts them into a measurable signal.

- Linearity
 - ✓ Linear when there is a linear dependence between the photon flux and the rate of signals generated by the detector per second.
 - ✓ Dead time

- Proportionality
 - ✓ How the size of the generated voltage pulse is related to the energy of the x-ray photon.

- Resolution
 - ✓ Ability to resolve x-ray photons of different energy and wavelength

Table 5.3. Properties of Common X-ray Detectors

Property	Scintillation			Xe Sealed Gas			Si(Li)		
	Cr	Cu	Mo	Cr	Cu	Mo	Cr	Cu	Mo
Quantum efficiency (%)	60	98	100	90	90	75	90	95	80
Linearity—loss at 40,000 c/s	Less than 1%			Up to 5%			Up to 50%		
Proportionality	Very stable			Pulse shift at high c/s			Pileup, etc., at moderate c/s		
Resolution (%)	55	45	31	17	14	10	3	2	1

Photographic film

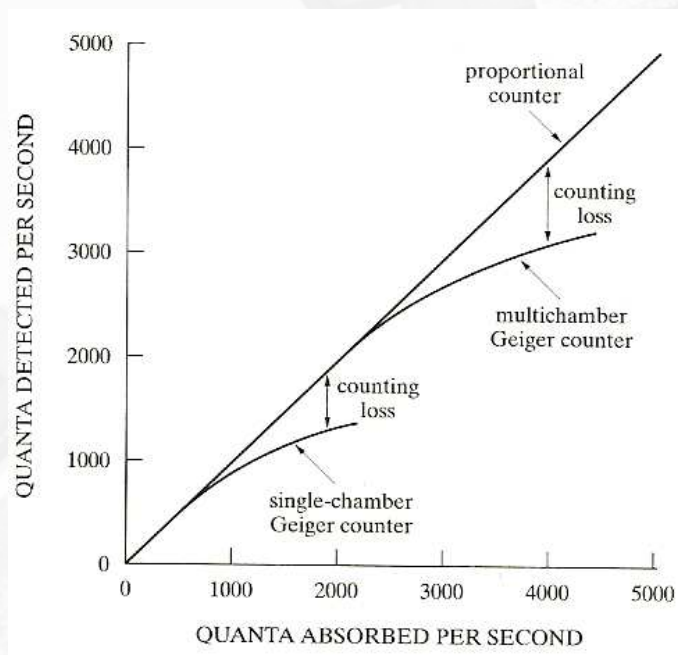
- Silver halide → metallic silver, when exposed to x-ray photons
- Once developed (darkened), further incoming X-rays can change nothing.
 - loss of information (**dead time** in electronic counters)
- Film darkening is proportional to the intensity of exposing X-rays over LINEAR RANGE of the film.
- When measuring intense sources
 - ✓ (1) Have to reduce X-ray intensity with filters or reduce incident beam flux.
 - ✓ (2) extend linear range of the film.
- Low proportionality range, limited spatial & energy resolution

- All use the ability of X-rays to ionize matter.
 - ✓ Matter = gas → Proportional, Geiger
 - ✓ Matter = solid → Scintillation, Semiconductor

- Proportional
- Geiger
- Scintillation
- Semiconductor

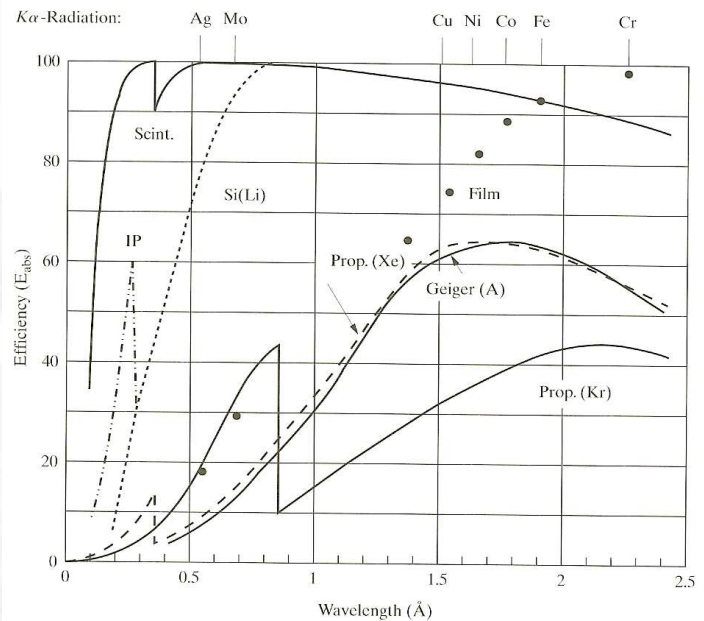
Counting loss

- When time interval between pulses is very small, adjacent pulses may not be counted as separate pulses. → counting loss begins
- Resolving time (t_c)– minimum time between two resolvable pulses



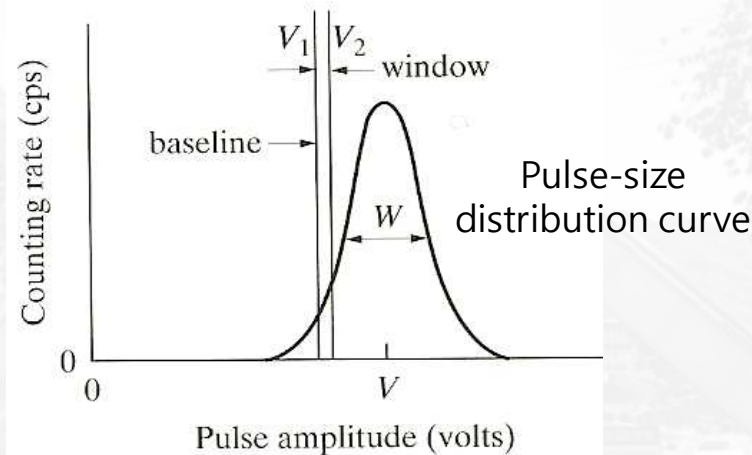
Counting efficiency

- Efficiency of detector in collecting radiation incident upon it
- Most detectors designed for XRD are optimized for the measurement of Cu $K\alpha$ radiation. Loss of efficiency can result when different λ is used.



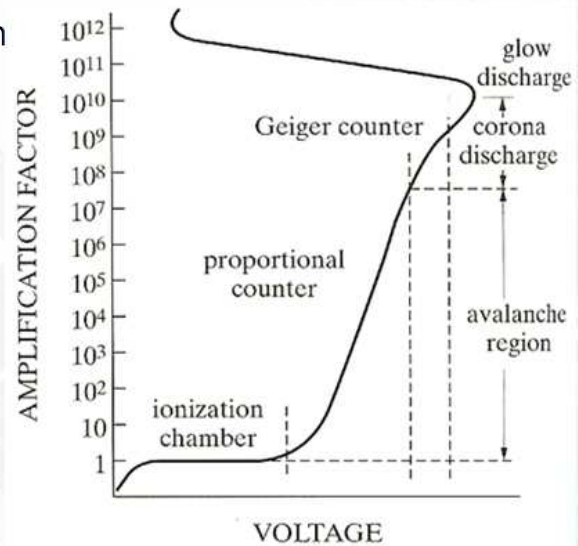
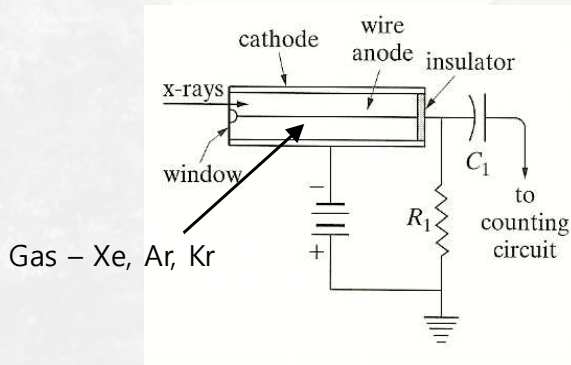
Resolution

- A measure of detector's ability to resolve two X-ray photons of different energy
- Size of voltage pulses produced by detectors are proportional to the energy of the x-ray quantum absorbed.
- Resolution $R = W/V$



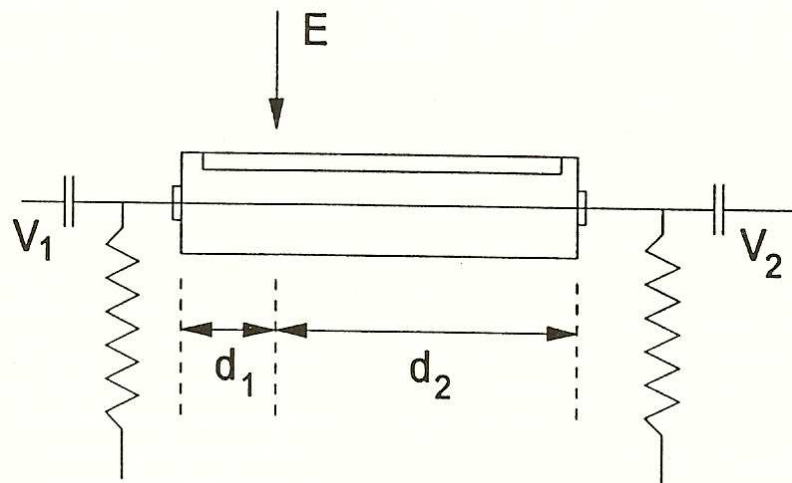
Proportional counters

- Size of pulse \propto energy of X-ray quantum absorbed \rightarrow X-ray quanta of different energies can be distinguished.
- Gas is ionized by incoming X-ray.
- e^- \rightarrow anode, positive ion \rightarrow cathode (cylindrical metal shell)
- Multiple ionization \rightarrow gas amplification



Position sensitive proportional counter

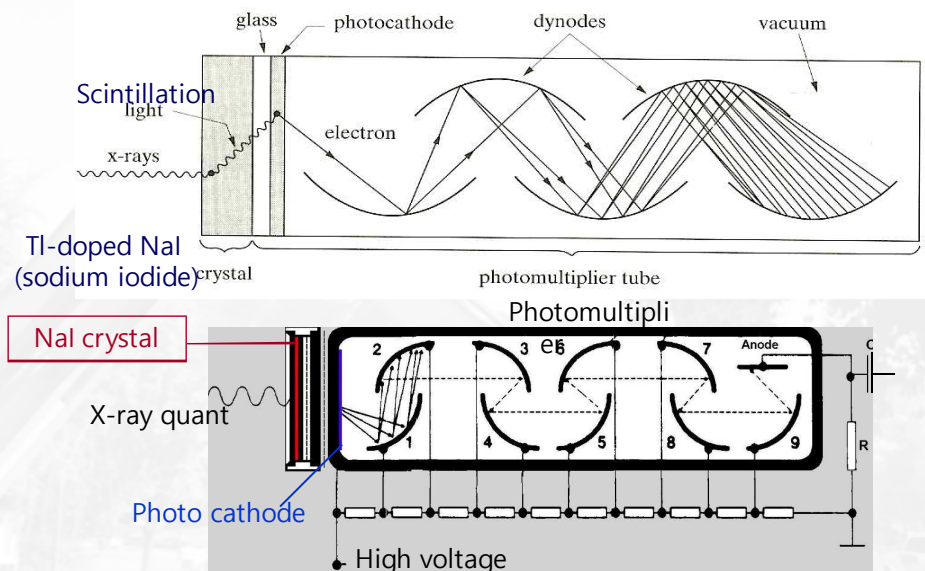
- Increased speed of data acquisition
- Measure "rise time" (rate at which a pulse develops) at each end of the wire. \rightarrow detect position can be located.
- Angular resolution not very high



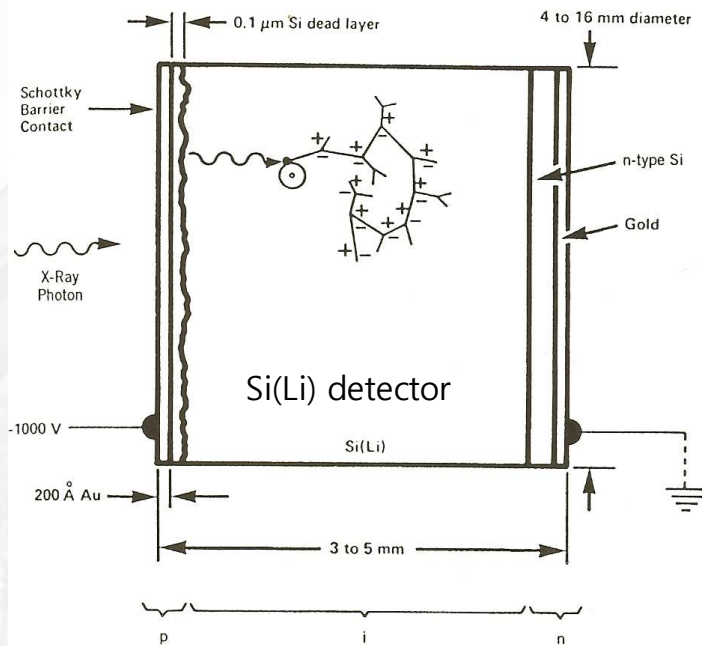
- Very high voltage in a proportional counter → Geiger counter
- Gas amplification factor much larger than proportional counter
- All pulses have the same size, regardless of the energy of X-ray quanta.
- Cannot count at high rates without losses. → seldom used in diffractometry.

Scintillation detector

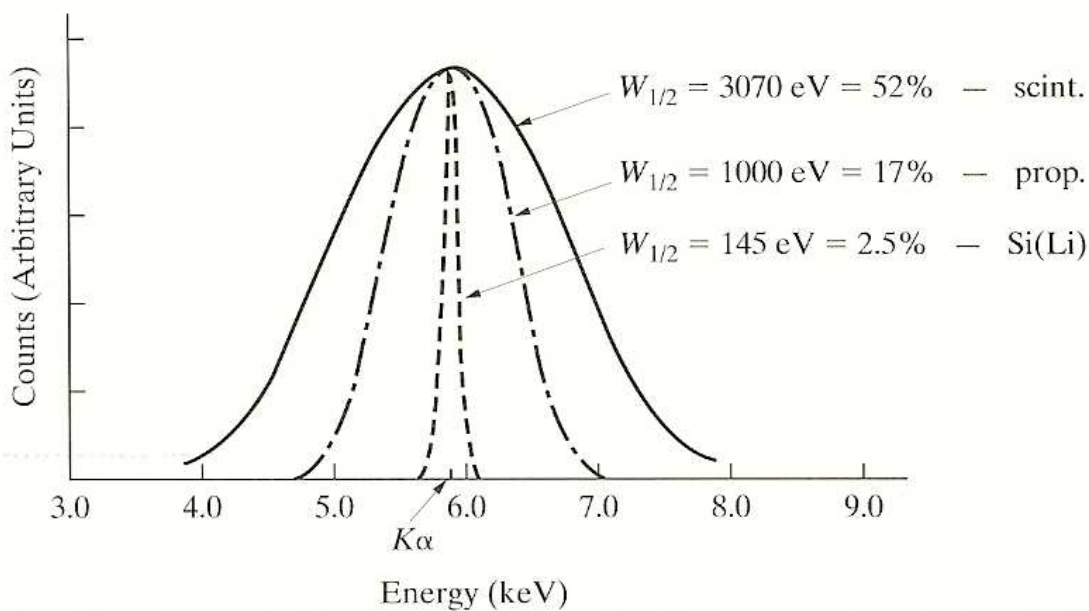
- X-ray can cause certain substances to fluoresce visible light.
- Amount of light \propto emitted X-ray intensity
- Pulses produced \propto energy of X-ray quanta
- Difficult to discriminate between X-ray quanta of different energies. → energy resolution not great



- Best energy resolution
 - ✓ Produces pulses proportional to the absorbed X-ray energy with better energy resolution than any other detector.
- Si(Li), Ge(Li), HPGe
- Need LN2 cooling



Pulse-height distribution curves



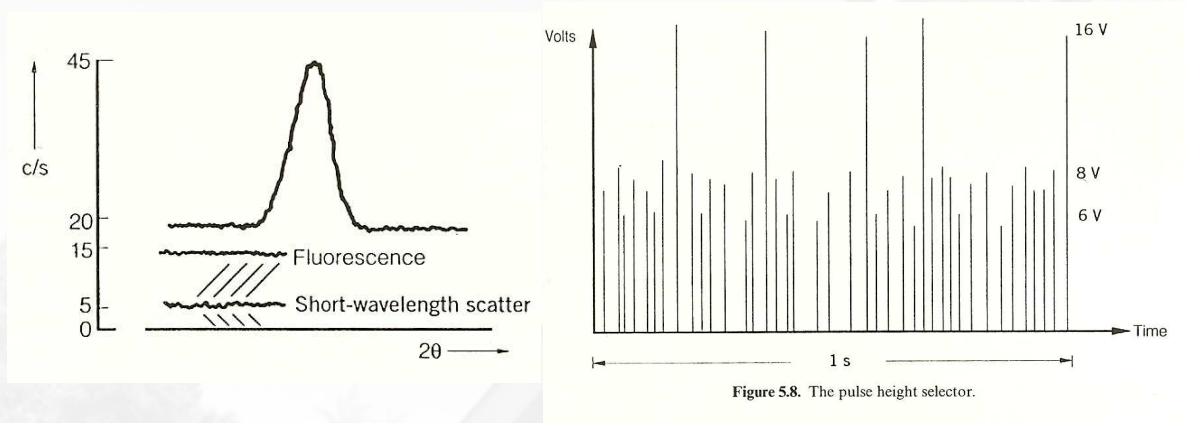
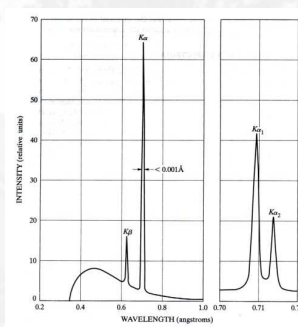


Figure 5.8. The pulse height selector.

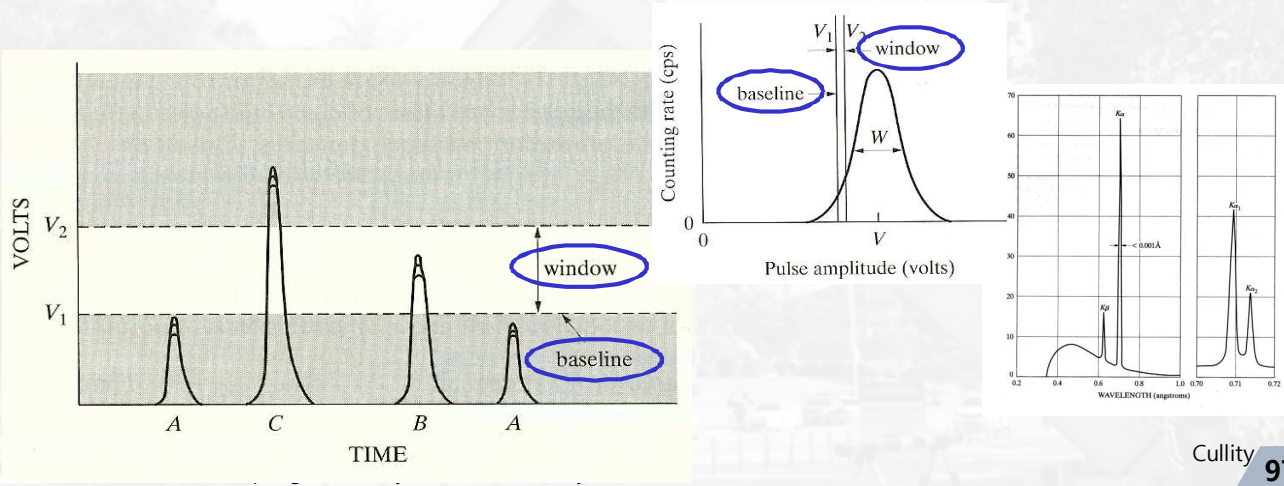
- Different energy → different size of voltage pulse → can be electronically discriminated. --- PHS, pulse height analyzer (PHA)
- Can remove such effects as sample fluorescence & BKG that may arise from short wavelength X-rays from X-ray tube continuum that pass the β filter.



- Proportional, scintillation semiconductor detectors
"proportional" ; they produce pulses having a size proportional to the energy of the incident X-rays.
- If pulses of different size can be distinguished, X-rays of different energies can be distinguished.
- Pulse-height discriminator
- Single-channel pulse-height analyzer
- Multi-channel pulse-height analyzer (MCA)

Pulse height analysis

- Pulse-height discriminator
 - ✓ Reject any pulses smaller than V_1 .
- Single-channel pulse-height analyzer
 - ✓ Only pulses having sizes between V_1 & V_2 can pass
 - ✓ Can reduce BKG of diffraction pattern by excluding short I white radiation.
- Multi-channel pulse-height analyzer (MCA)
 - ✓ Can separate pulses from a detector that is receiving incident radiation of many wavelengths, by sorting pulses according to their size.



Pulse height analysis

- Pulse-height discriminator
- Single-channel pulse-height analyzer
 - ✓ Entire energy range is scanned serially in time by moving channel.
- Multi-channel pulse-height analyzer (MCA)
 - ✓ A large number of fixed channels cover the entire range
 - ✓ All channels simultaneously receive the count-rate information appropriate to each channel.

