

nanomat

Nanostructured Materials for Nanotechnology Applications

Materiales Nanoestructurados para Aplicaciones en
Nanotecnología

Module 4 -- Characterization I: Physical-Chemical
Techniques

Diffraction

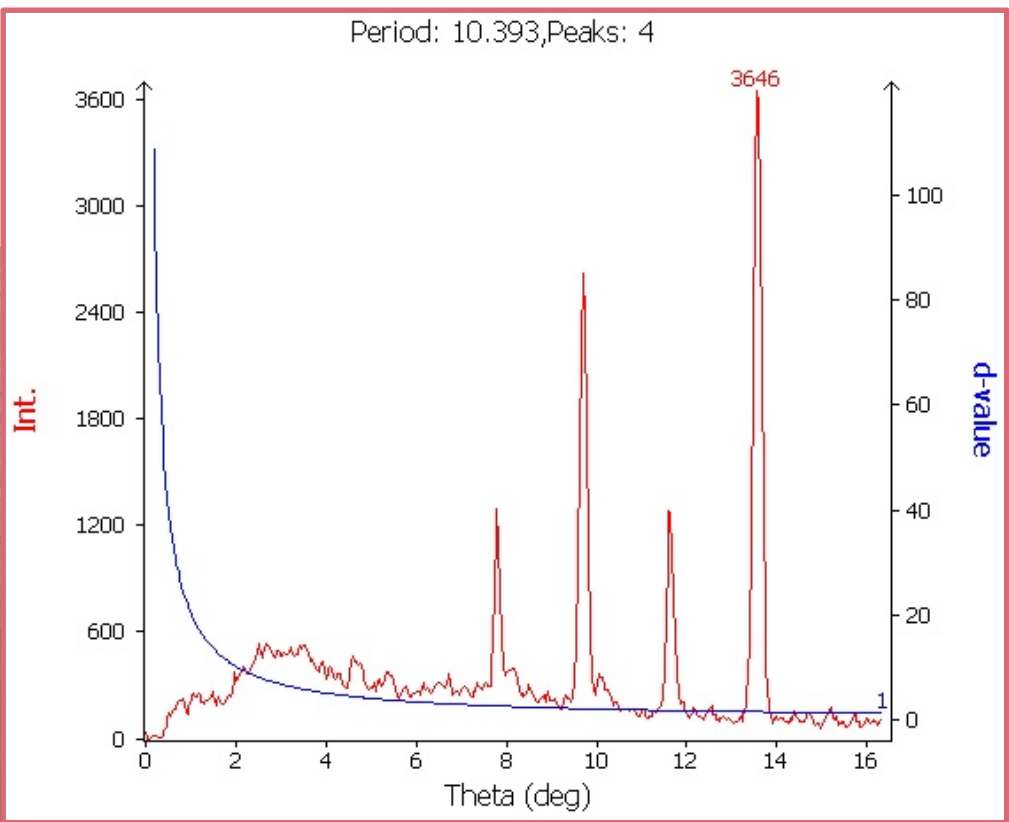
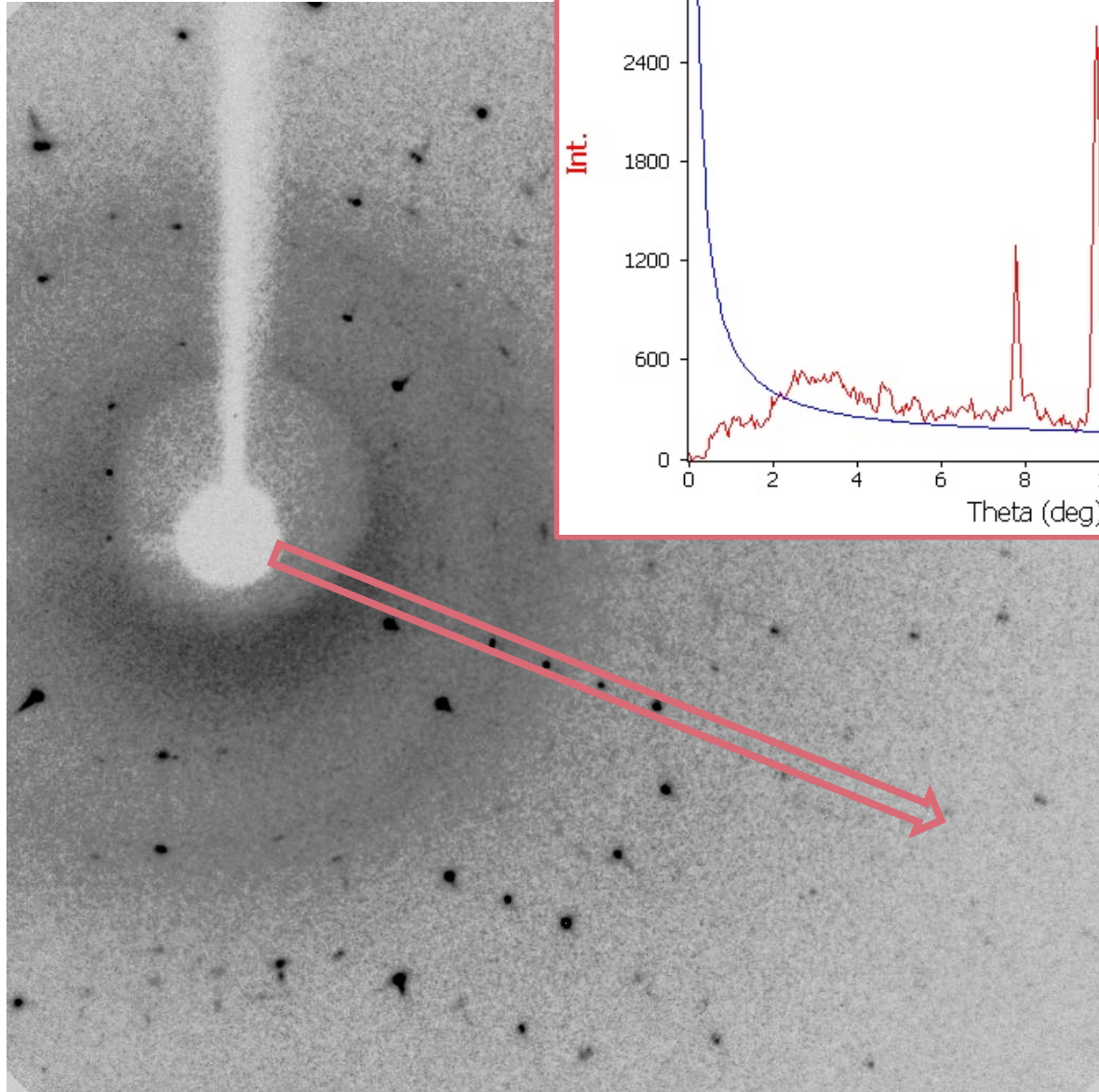
L. R. Falvello
University of Zaragoza
Department of Inorganic
Chemistry

Powder Diffraction

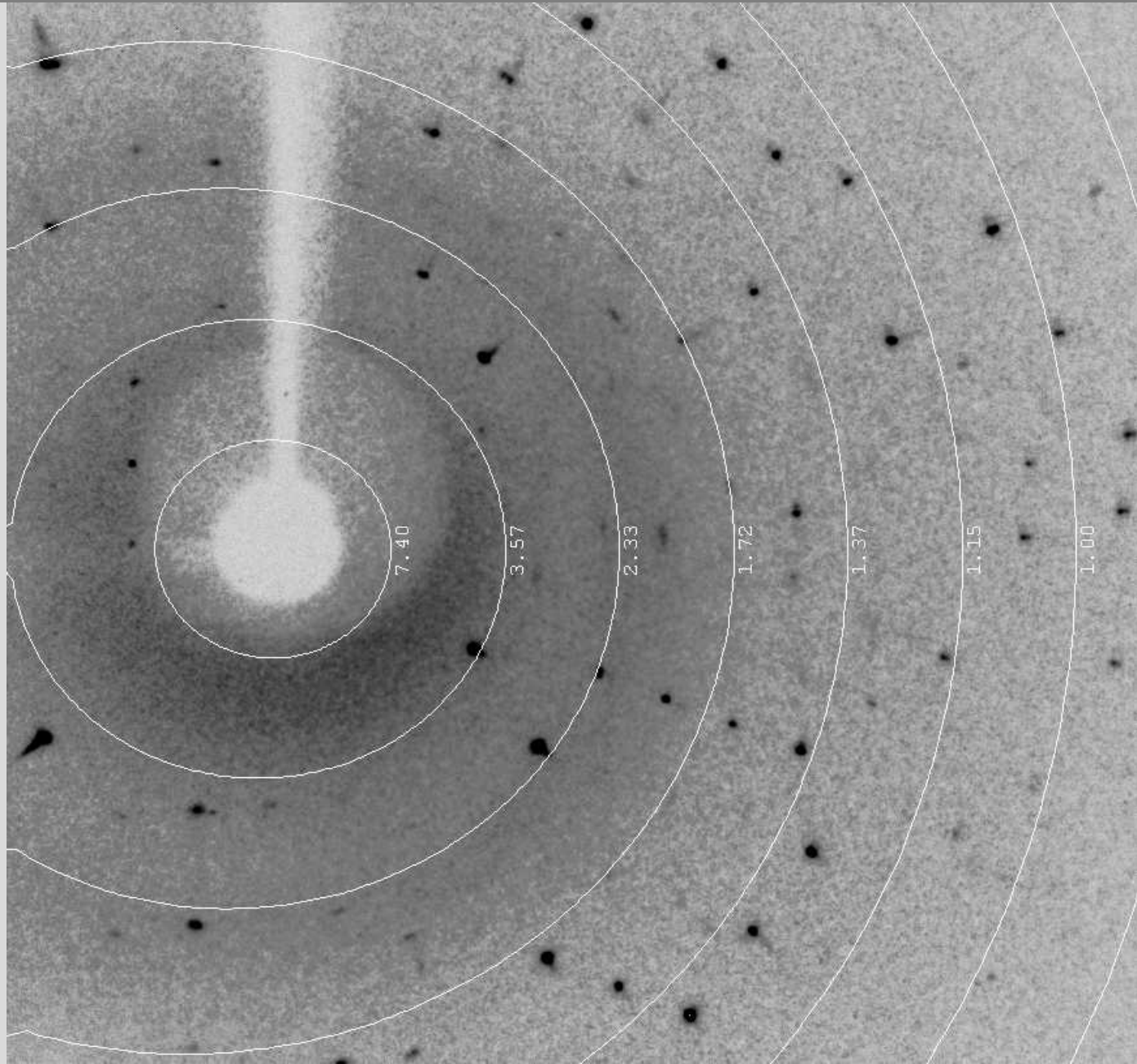
Powder diffraction is used in many contexts, and especially in industrial applications such as quality control.

- qualitative phase analysis
- quantitative phase analysis, or composition
- lattice parameters
- refinement of structural parameters, for a variation on a known structure
- *ab initio* determination of structure, with refinement
- physical properties, stress, texture, lattice defects, domain size

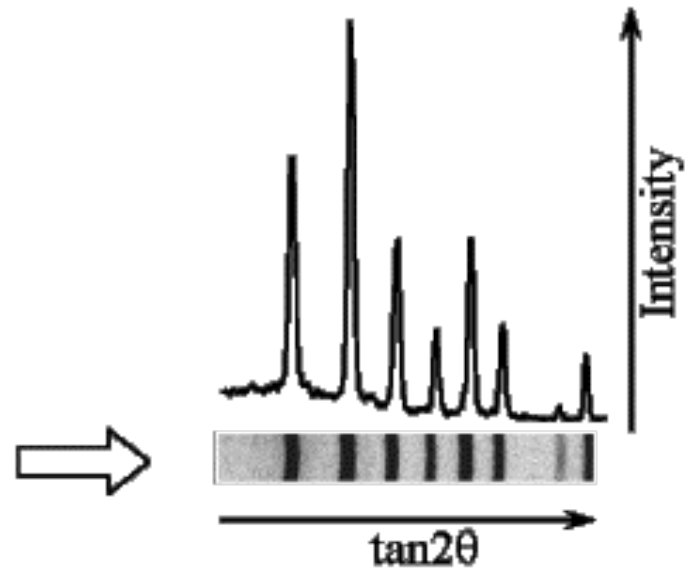
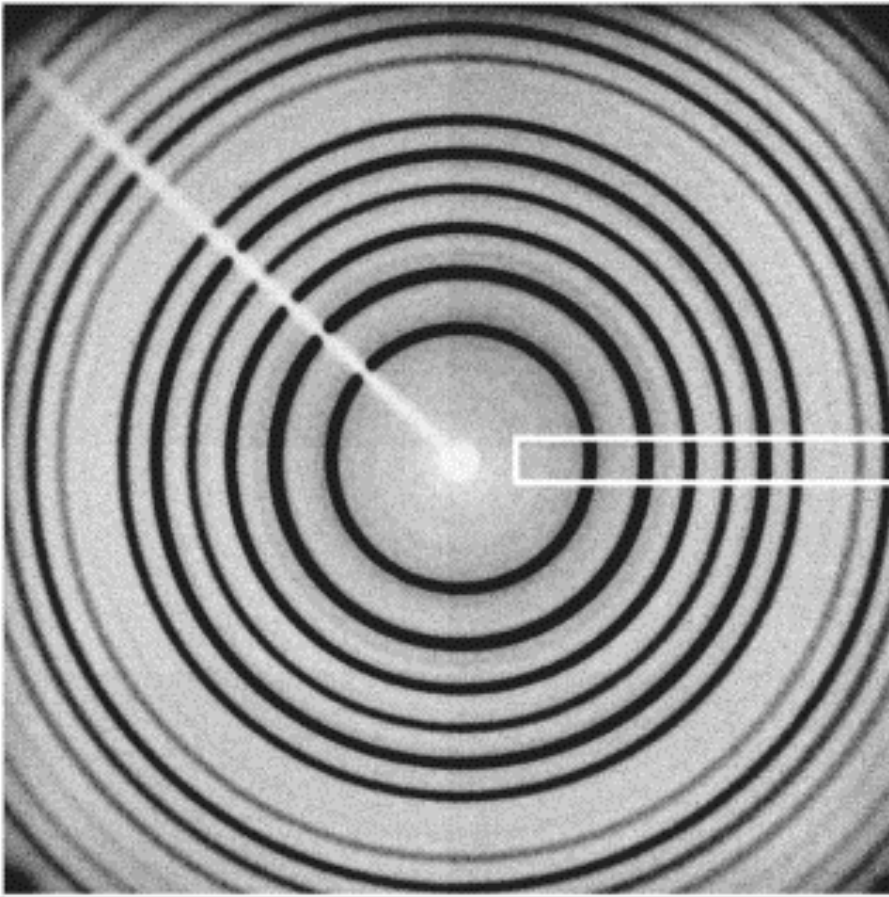
Characteristics of powder diffraction patterns



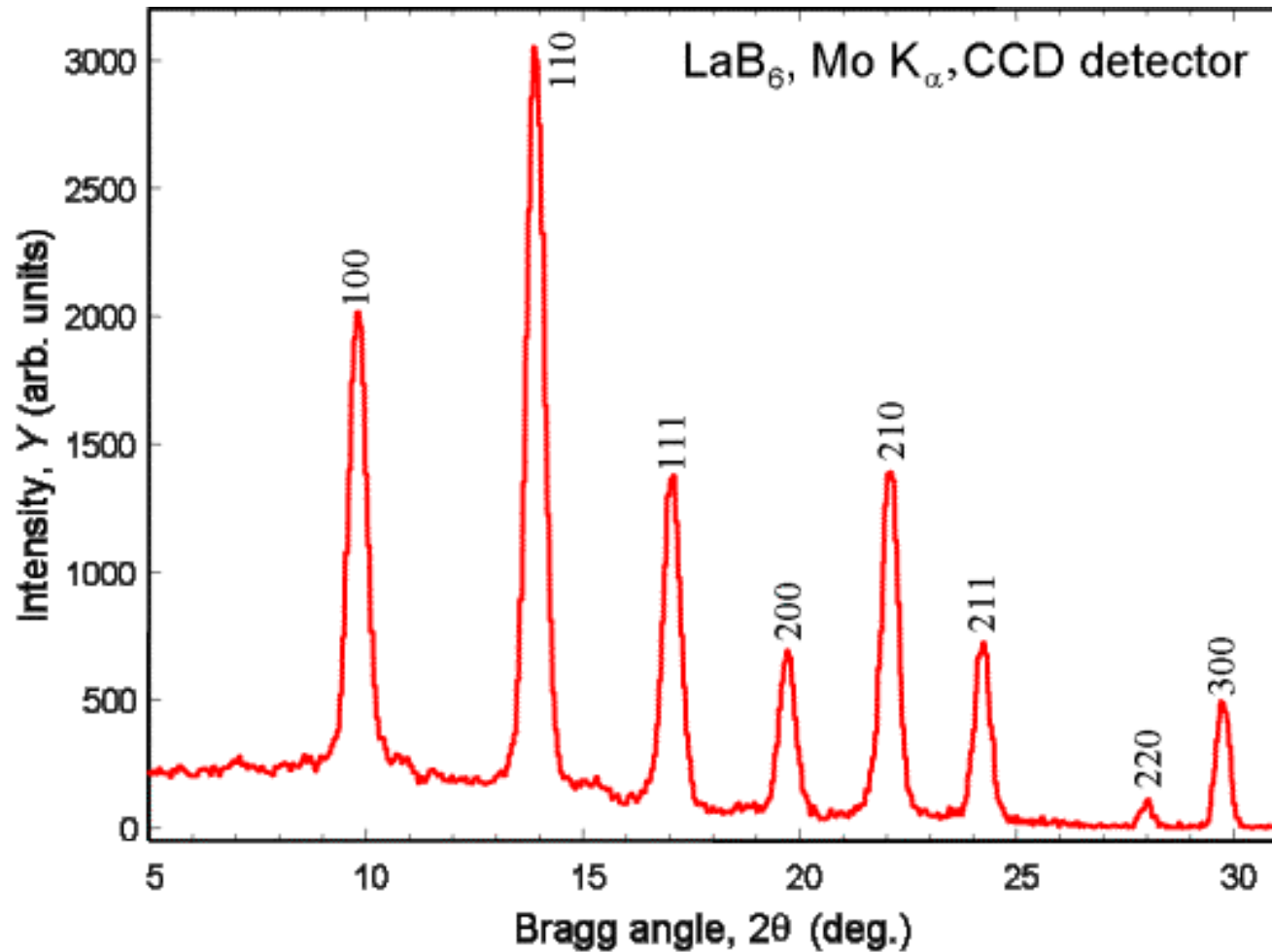
rings of equal resolution



powder diffraction pattern



powder diffraction pattern



V. K. Pecharsky & P. Y. Zavalij, Fundamentals of Powder Diffraction and Structural Characterization of Materials, Springer, 2005.

XRD for the analyst: Getting acquainted with the principles

Martin Ermrich & Detlef Opper

PANalytical, GmbH, 2011

2nd revised edition (2013)

X-Ray Powder Diffraction

Abraham Clearfield & Nattamai Bhuvanesh

Encyclopedia of Inorganic and Bioinorganic Chemistry

2008. John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Online 2011. John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

First published in the Encyclopedia of Inorganic Chemistry, 2008.

John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

DOI: 10.1002/9781119951438.eibc0307

Rietveld Refinement

$$\Phi = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i (Y_i^{obs} - Y_i^{calc})^2$$

n -- the number of points in the diffraction pattern

Y_i -- the intensity at point i

w_i -- weighting factor for point i

b_i -- background intensity at point i

K -- phase scale factor if more than one phase is present

$$\Phi = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i \left(Y_i^{obs} - \left[b_i + K \sum_{j=1}^m I_j y_j(x_j) \right] \right)^2$$

m -- the number of reflections contributing intensity to point i

I_j -- integrated intensity of the j^{th} Bragg reflection

$y_j(x_j)$ -- peak shape function

von Dreele, R. B., *Rietveld Refinement*, in *Powder Diffraction, Theory and Practice*, Ed. Binneber, R. E. and Billinge, S. J. L. RSC Publishing, 2008. ISBN 978-0-85404-231-9

Pecharsky, V. K. & Zavalij, P. Y., *Fundamentals of Powder Diffraction and Structural Characterization of Materials*, Springer, 2005. ISBN 0-387-24147-7

Factors which may enter into the calculation of Y_i^{calc}

peak shape

$$y_i = I_k \exp \left[\frac{-4 \ln(2)}{H_k^2} (2\theta_i - 2\theta_k)^2 \right]$$

peak asymmetry

$$A_s = 1 - \left[\frac{sP (2\theta_i - 2\theta_k)^2}{\tan \theta_k} \right]$$

peak width

$$H_k^2 = U \tan^2 \theta_k + V \tan \theta_k + W$$

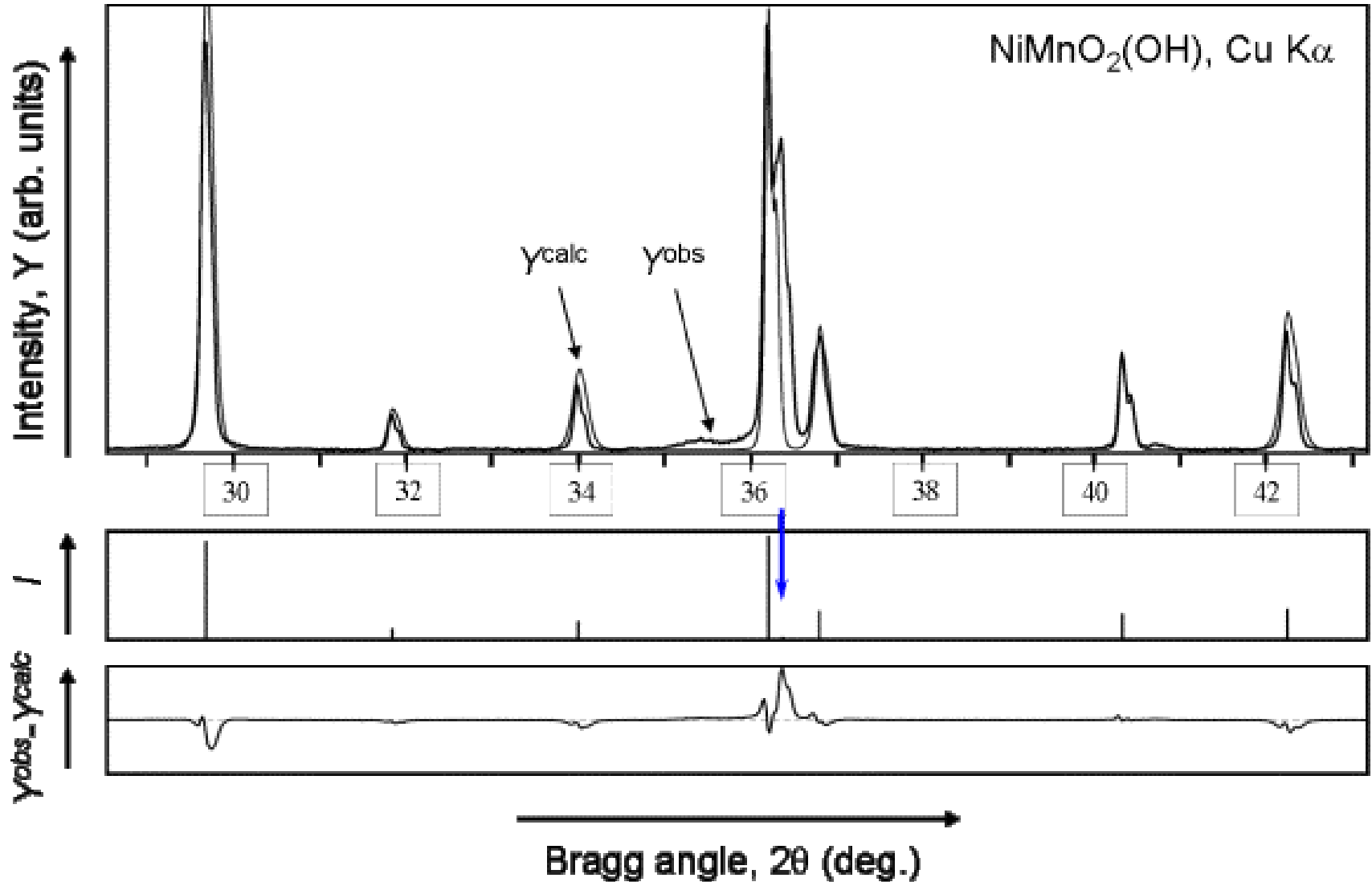
preferred orientation

$$I_{corr} = I_{obs} \exp \left(-G\alpha^2 \right)$$

... and others

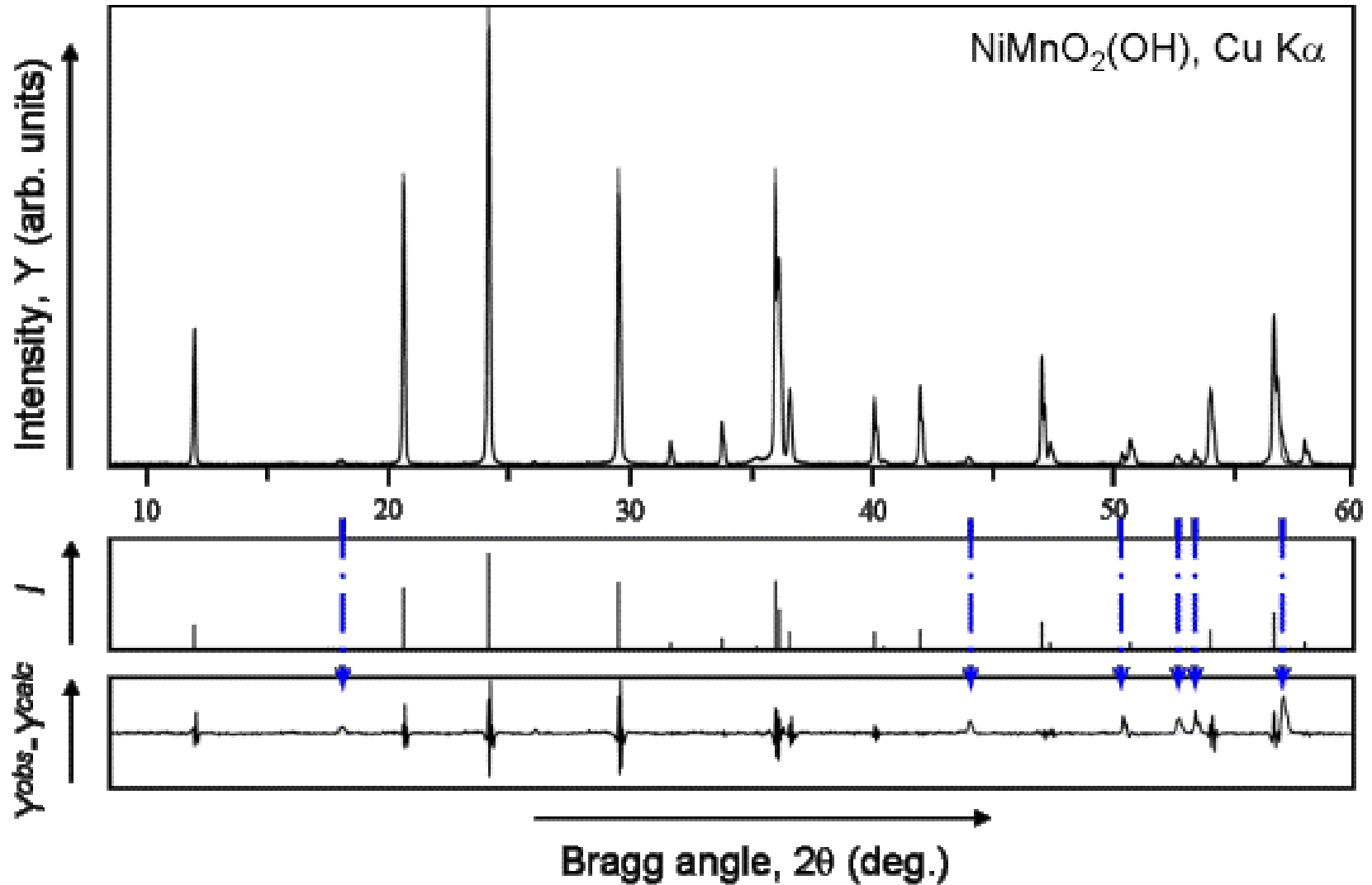
↑ from Wikipedia ↑

powder diffraction -- results



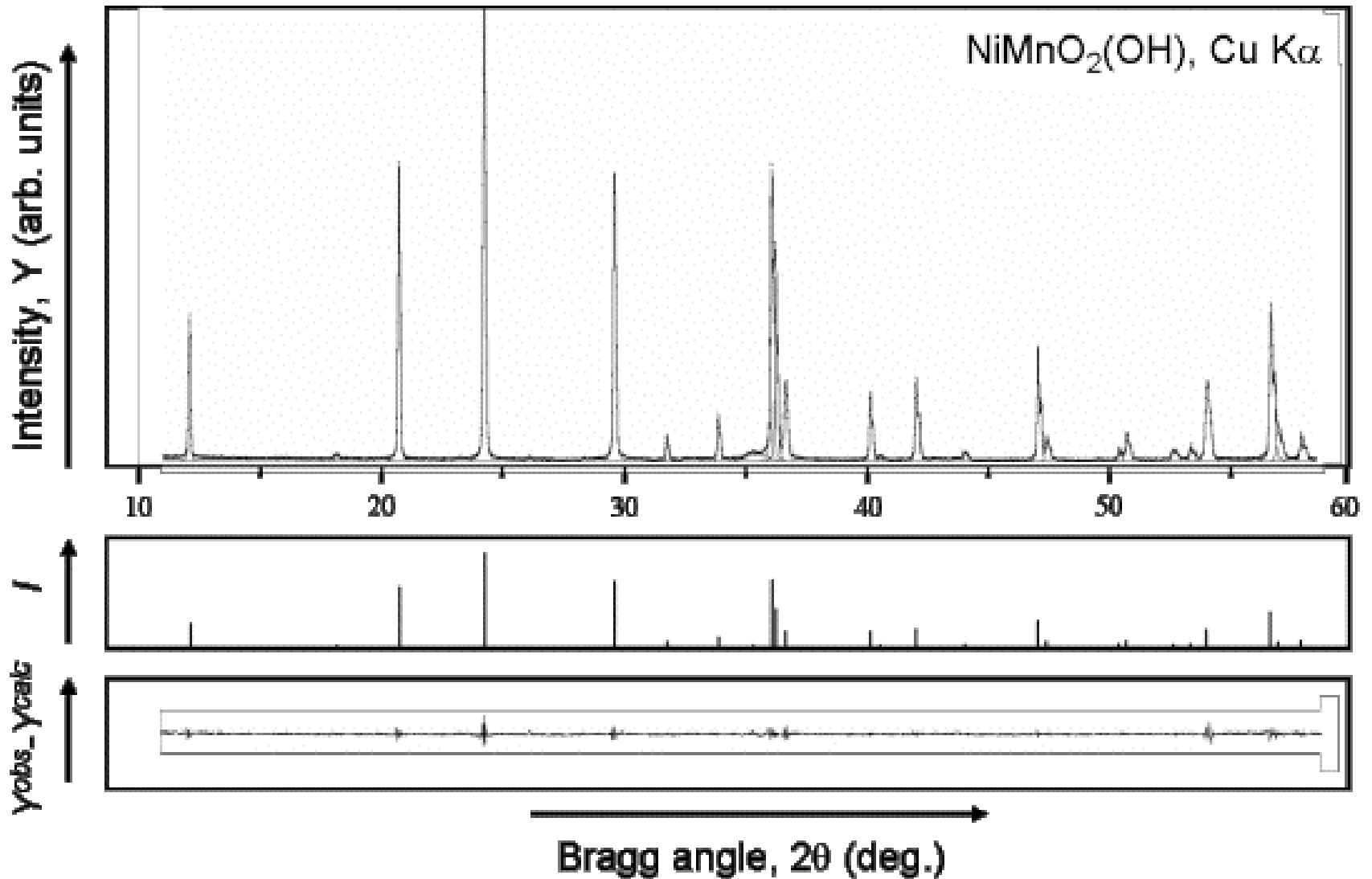
V. K. Pecharsky & P. Y. Zavalij, Fundamentals of Powder Diffraction and Structural Characterization of Materials, Springer, 2005. Fig. 4.9.

powder diffraction -- results



V. K. Pecharsky & P. Y. Zavalij, Fundamentals of Powder Diffraction and Structural Characterization of Materials, Springer, 2005. Fig. 4.14. Blue arrows indicate peaks that are still not included in the fit.

powder diffraction -- results



V. K. Pecharsky & P. Y. Zavalij, Fundamentals of Powder Diffraction and Structural Characterization of Materials, Springer, 2005. Fig. 4.16. End of refinement.

Peak Shape Analysis

- ◆ Peak broadening comes from several sources
 - Instrumental effects
 - Finite crystallite (not particle) size ($< 100\text{-}500\text{ nm}$)
 - Strain (atoms deformed from ideal positions in a non-uniform manner)
 - Extended defects (terminate "crystal" and lead to size broadening)
- ◆ Methods of extracting size & strain information
 - Scherrer formula (average size, neglects strain)
 - Integral breadth methods (provide average values of size and strain)
 - Peak shape methods (provide size and strain distributions)

Size Broadening

- ◆ Scherrer (1918) first observed that small crystallite size could give rise to line broadening. He derived a well known equation for relating the crystallite size to the broadening, which is called the "Scherrer Formula"

$$D_v = K\lambda / \{\beta \cos \theta\}$$

- ◆ D_v = Volume Weighted crystallite size
- ◆ K = Scherrer constant, somewhat arbitrary value that falls in the range 0.87-1.0. I usually assume $K = 1$.
- ◆ λ = The wavelength of the radiation
- ◆ β = The integral breadth of a reflection (in radians 2θ) located at 2θ .

Stress and strain

- **Stress** can be applied by an external action. Stress can also be "residual," that is, a physical potential within the sample as a result of previous action or deformation.
- **Strain** is the deformation that occurs in response to stress. Strain modifies the spacing between Bragg planes, so it modifies the angle 2θ observed in a powder diffraction pattern.

Stress and strain

Strain modifies the Bragg plane spacing d and affects the diffraction pattern in two ways.

-- Considering a given reflection, if the average Bragg plane spacing d (averaged over all the crystallites in the sample) for this reflection is changed by strain, then there is a peak shift. The mean value of 2θ for the reflection in question is changed.

-- If the dispersion of the Bragg plane spacing for a reflection is modified by strain, then there is a change in the width of the peak -- usually peak broadening.

Welzel, U., Ligot, J., Lamparter, P., Vermeulen, A. C., and Mittemeijer, E. J., J. Appl. Cryst. (2005), 38, 1 - 29.

Stress and strain

Stress and strain are symmetrical second-rank tensors.

Popa, N. C., *Microstructural Properties: Texture and Macrostress Effects*, in *Powder Diffraction, Theory and Practice*, Ed. Binnebier, R. E. and Billinge, S. J. L. RSC Publishing, 2008.

Scardi, P., *Microstructural Properties: Lattice Defects and Domain Size Effects*, in *Powder Diffraction, Theory and Practice*, Ed. Binnebier, R. E. and Billinge, S. J. L. RSC Publishing, 2008.

Texture analysis

The goal of texture analysis is to establish the orientation distribution function (ODF).

- Using Euler angles to define the orientation of a crystallite relative to a global reference frame for the sample, the ODF is a description of the volume fraction of particles lying within each incremental range of the Euler angles.
- Sometimes the ODF is the object of the measurements.
- Sometimes the ODF is needed as a parametric addition to Rietveld refinement.

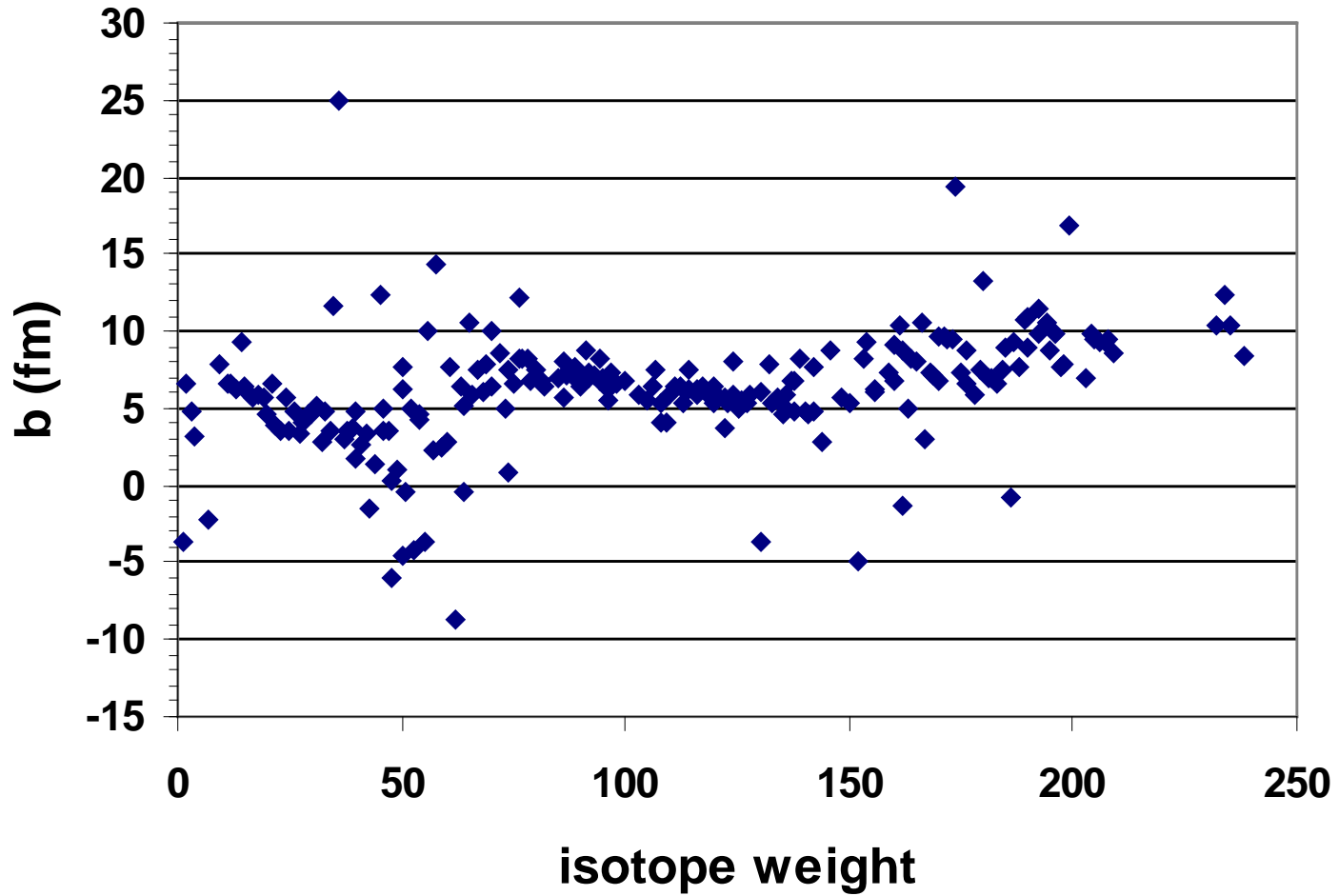
neutron diffraction

<http://www.ill.eu/science-technology/why-use-neutrons/>

<http://www.sns.gov/science/aboutneutrons.html>

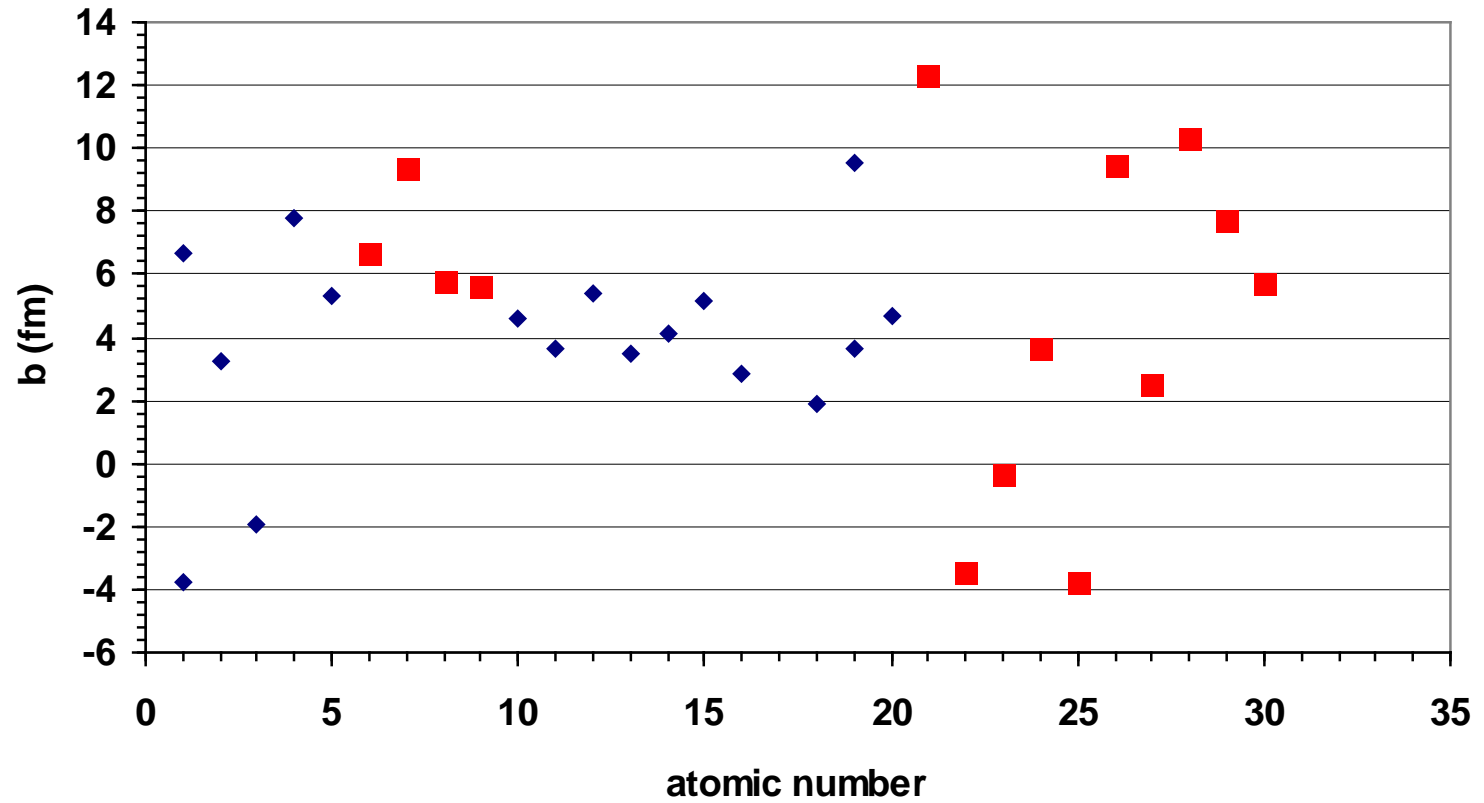
<http://www.isis.stfc.ac.uk/about-isis/aboutisis.html>

Bound Scattering Length vs. Isotope Weight



Source: <http://webster.ncnr.nist.gov/resources/n-lengths/>

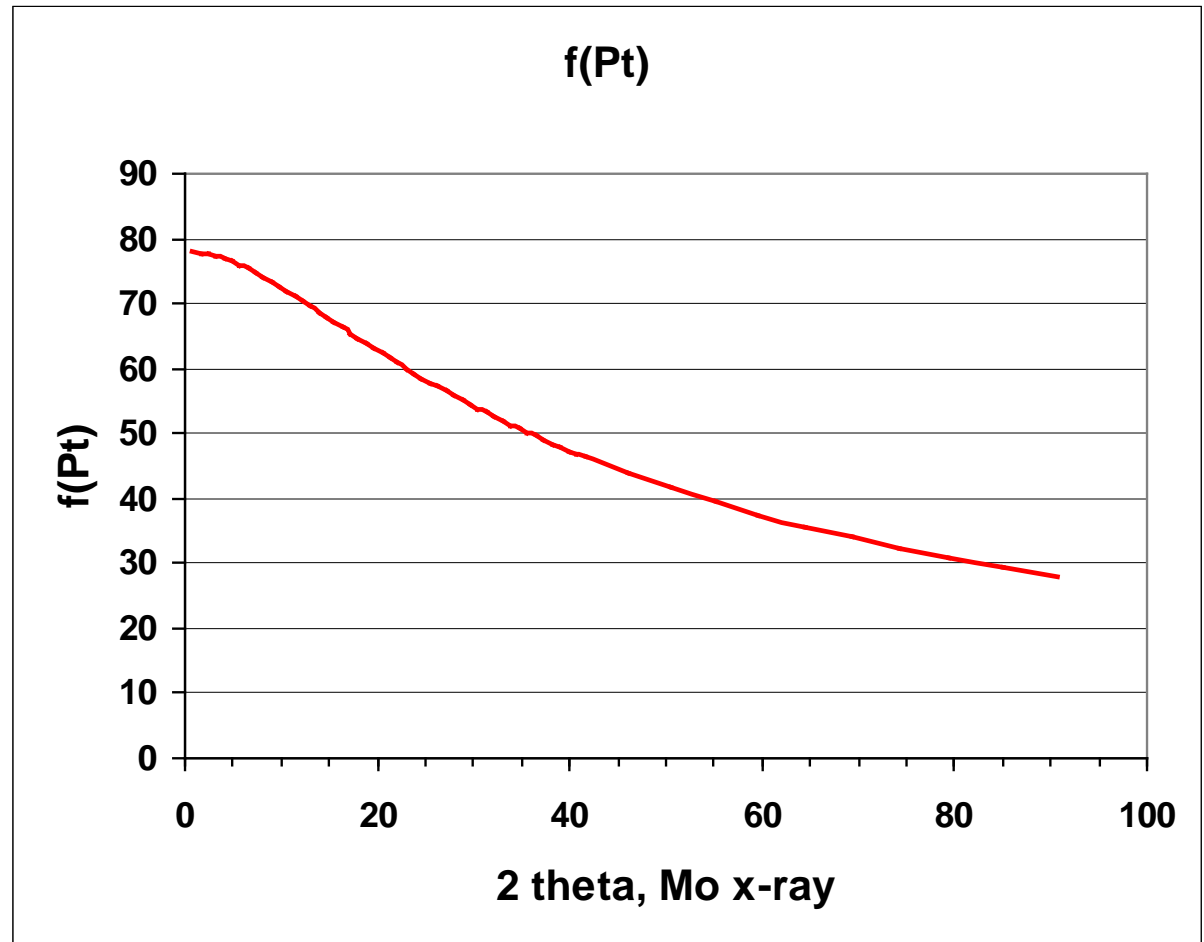
Bound Scattering Lengths vs. Z



$$F_{calc, hkl} = \sum_{atoms\ j} f_j \exp^{-T} \cdot \exp^{2\pi i[hx_j + ky_j + lz_j]}$$

X-Ray scattering factors decrease with increasing scattering angle, for a given wavelength.

Neutron scattering lengths do not.



The diffracted **intensities** depend on the contents of the unit cell.

$$F_{calc, hkl} = \sum_{atoms\ j} b_j \exp^{-T} \cdot \exp^{2\pi i[hx_j + ky_j + lz_j]}$$

The structure factor expression describes the diffracted intensities produced by a given unit-cell content.

When we analyze a structure, we start from the structure factors, or their squares, the measured intensities, and we want to calculate the unit-cell contents.

$$\rho_{xyz} = \sum_{hkl} \left| F_{obs, hkl} \right| \cdot \exp^{i\phi} \cdot \exp^{-2\pi i[hx_j + ky_j + lz_j]}$$

What is unique to single-crystal **neutron** diffraction?

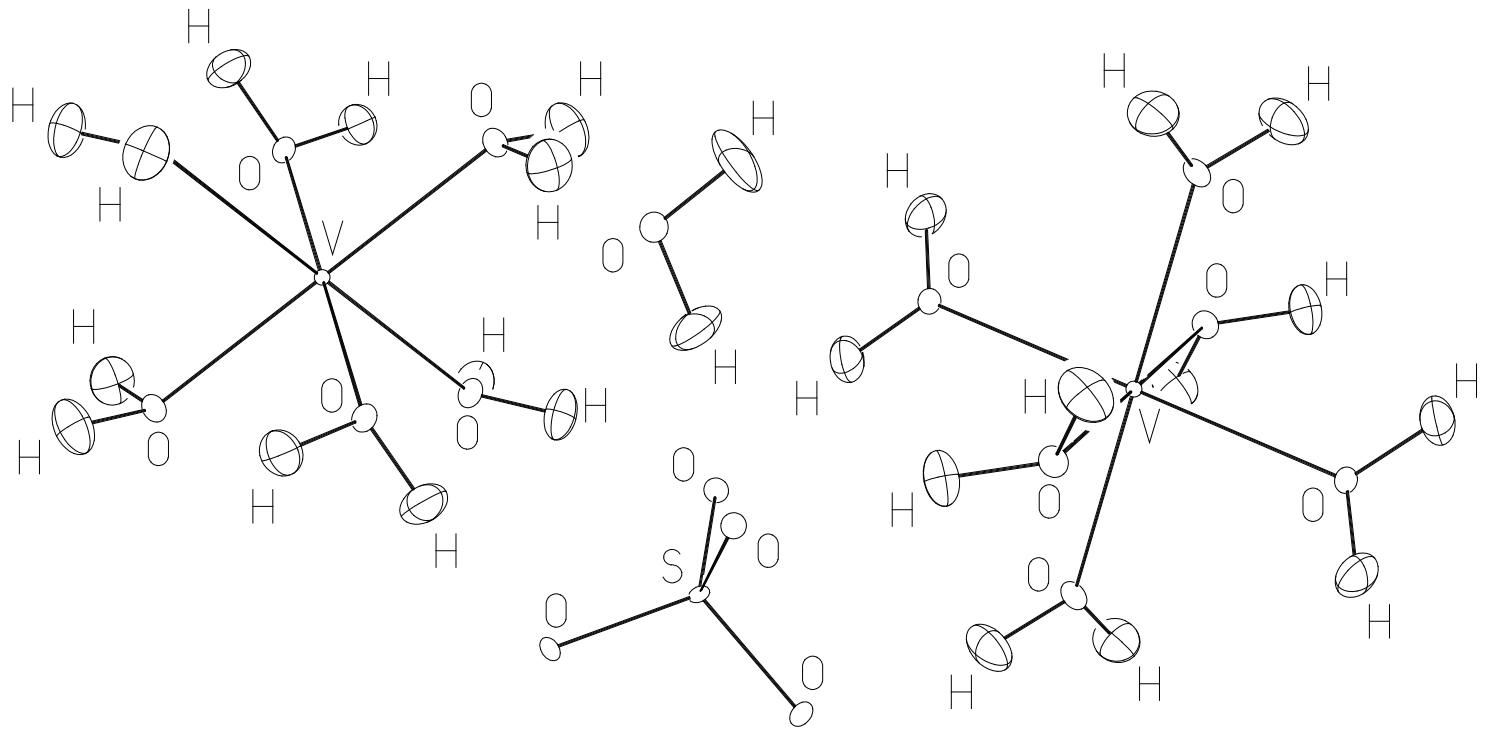
- *b*
- **sample size**
- **accessibility**
- **energy**
- **special environments**
- **spin**
- **Laue technique with time-of-flight**
- **absorption and extinction properties**

It is because of the properties of b as a function of element and isotope that single-crystal neutron diffraction has acquired its best-known application – the location of hydrogen atoms.

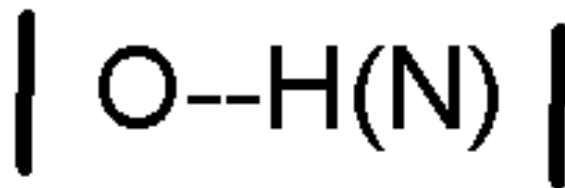
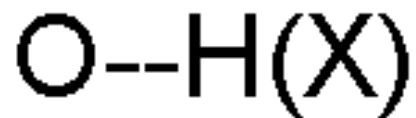
However, the properties of b also enable other applications, for example:

- “neutron distances” for bonds involving hydrogen atoms (*vide infra*)
- distinguishing the elements of the first d-block series
- distinguishing C from N, and N from O (*vide infra*)
- anisotropic displacement parameters of H
- crystallographic tricks, such as the correct use of two different space groups for the same structure (*vide infra*)

$\text{VSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$



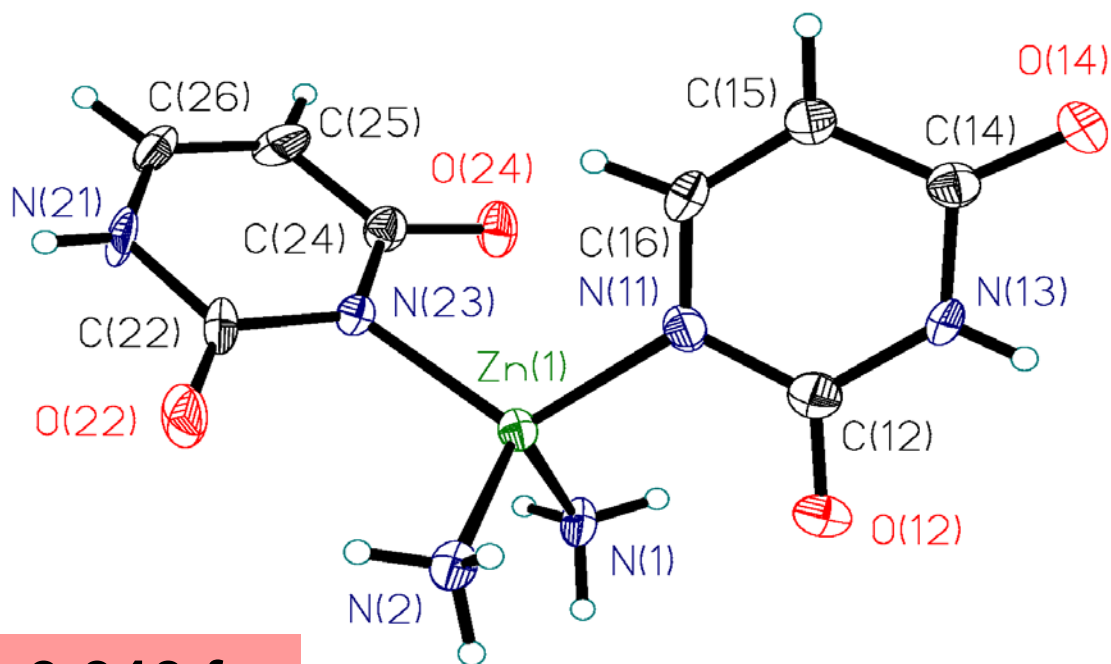
“X-Ray Distance” and “Neutron Distance”



VSO₄·7H₂O Hydrogen-Bond Geometry (X-Ray and Neutron)

D—H...A "coords. Å"	D...A Å	D—H Å	H...A Å	D—H...A (°)
O(1w) - H(11) ... O(1) "x, y, z"	2.757(3) 2.758(4)	0.81(4) 0.990(7)	1.96(4) 1.788(7)	166(4) 165.7(6)
O(1w) - H(12) ... O(2) "x, 1/2 - y, -1/2 + z"	2.739(3) 2.729(3)	0.74(4) 0.970(5)	2.00(4) 1.762(6)	177(3) 174.3(7)
O(2w) - H(21) ... O(2) "x, -1 + y, z"	2.777(3) 2.776(4)	0.79(3) 0.984(8)	2.02(3) 1.809(7)	162(3) 167.1(6)
O(2w) - H(22) ... O(4) " x, y, z"	2.877(3) 2.893(4)	0.78(3) 0.984(7)	2.11(3) 1.923(7)	169(3) 168.0(7)
O(3w) - H(31) ... O(2) "x, y, z"	2.945(3) 2.859(4)	0.88(4) 0.966(8)	2.10 (4) 1.907(7)	162(4) 168.1(6)
O(3w) - H(32) ... O(1) "-x, 1 - y, -z"	2.863(3) 2.828(4)	0.82(3) 0.968(7)	2.05(4) 1.861(7)	174(3) 176.9(6)
O(4w) - H(41) ... O(3) "x, y, z"	2.798(3) 2.793(3)	0.78(4) 0.971(6)	2.02(4) 1.826(6)	177(4) 173.8(7)

Distinguishing Carbon and Nitrogen



C: $b = 6.646$ fm
N: $b = 9.36$ fm

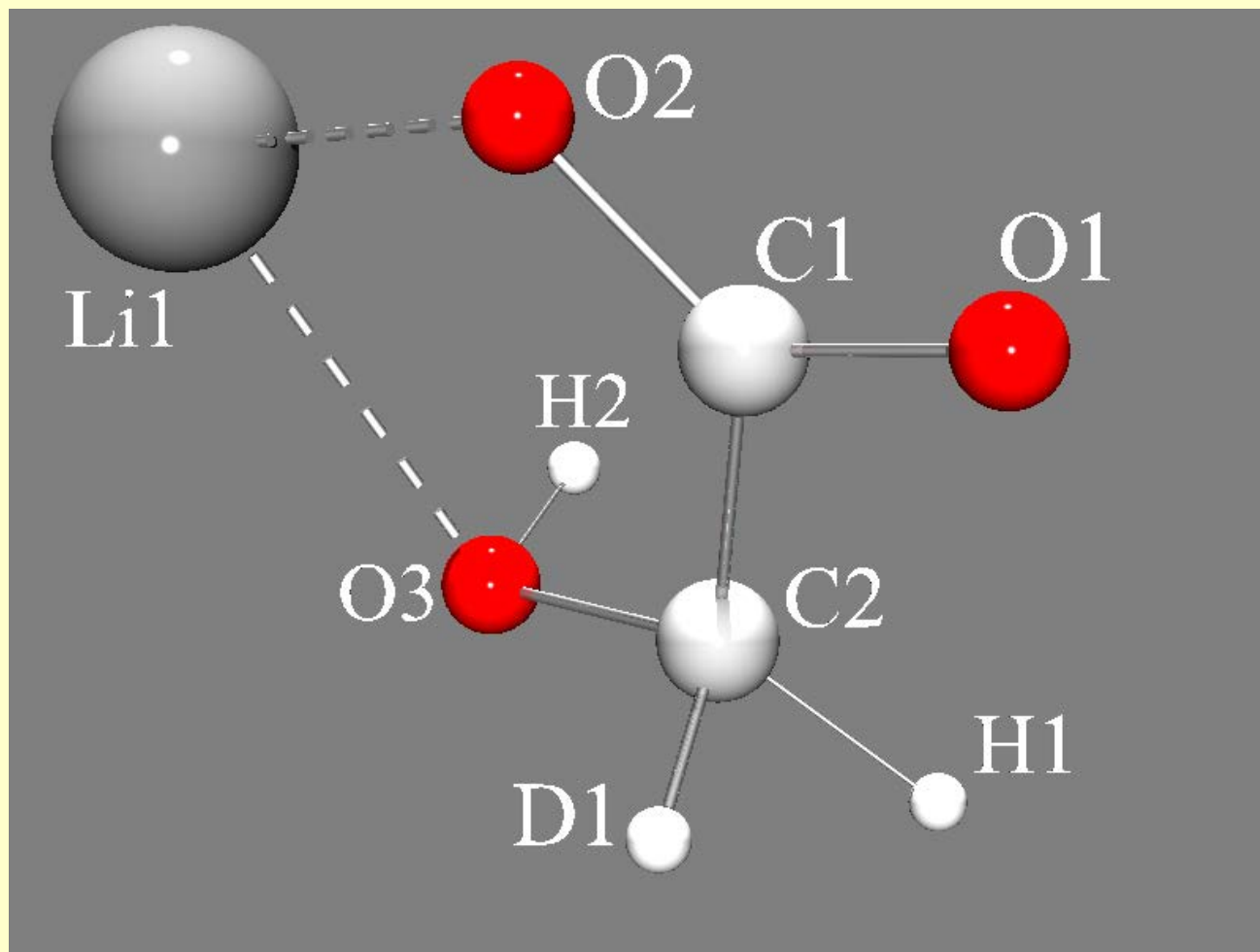
Two Space Groups for the Same Structure: Li α -deuteroglycollate

Johnson, C. K., Gabe, E. J., Taylor, M. R., Rose, I. A. (1965). *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* 87, 1802.

X-ray: $P2_1/n$

Neutron: $P2_1$

$Z = 4$



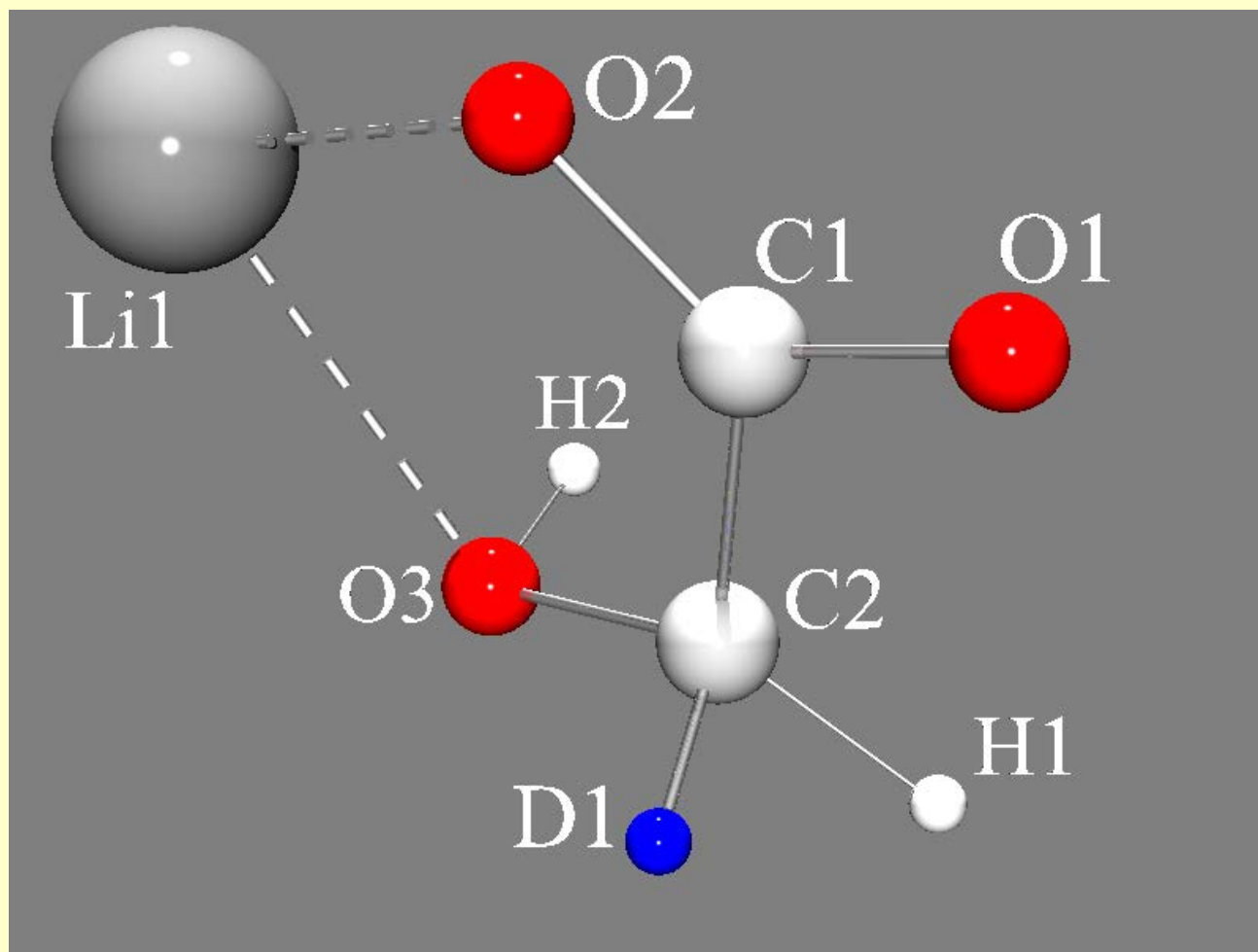
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X-ray: $P2_1/n$

Neutron: $P2_1$

Z = 4



ENERGY: Neutrons vs. X-Rays

For $\text{MoK}\bar{\alpha}$ x-radiation ($\lambda = 0.71069 \text{ \AA}$):

$$E = h\nu = \frac{hc}{\lambda} = 2.795 \times 10^{-15} \text{ J} = 17440 \text{ eV} = 17.4 \text{ keV}$$

For $\text{CuK}\bar{\alpha}$ x-radiation ($\lambda = 1.5418 \text{ \AA}$):

$$E = h\nu = \frac{hc}{\lambda} = 1.288 \times 10^{-15} \text{ J} = 8040 \text{ eV} = 8.04 \text{ keV}$$

For neutrons with $\lambda = 0.71069 \text{ \AA}$:

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{p} = \frac{h}{mv} \quad v = \frac{h}{m\lambda} = 5566 \text{ m/s}$$

$$E_n(\text{meV}) = 81.8/\lambda^2 (\text{\AA}^2)$$

$$E = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 = 2.594 \times 10^{-20} \text{ J} = 0.162 \text{ eV} = 162 \text{ meV} \quad \sim 1300 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

For neutrons with $\lambda = 1.5418 \text{ \AA}$: $v = 2566 \text{ m/s}$

$$E = 5.514 \times 10^{-21} \text{ J} = 0.0344 \text{ eV} = 34.4 \text{ meV}$$

$$\sim 280 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

Absorption and Extinction Properties

$$\mu = \mu_s + \mu_a \left(\frac{\lambda(\text{\AA})}{1.8\text{\AA}} \right)$$

$$A = \frac{I}{I_o} = \exp(-\mu\tau)$$

$$A = \frac{I}{I_o} = \frac{1}{V} \int_{crystal} \exp(-\mu\tau) dV$$

Absorption and Extinction Properties

$$\mu = \mu_s + \mu_a \left(\frac{\lambda(\text{\AA})}{1.8\text{\AA}} \right)$$

$$\mu_s = \frac{Z}{V} \sum \sigma_s$$

σ_s : total scattering cross section,
tabulated in units of 100 fm²

μ_s (cm⁻¹); V (Å³)

summation over one formula weight, Z = number of formulas
per unit cell, V = unit cell volume

$$\mu_a = \frac{Z}{V} \sum \sigma_a$$

σ_a : absorption cross section, (100 fm²),
tabulated for 1.8 Å neutrons

μ_s (cm⁻¹); V (Å³)

σ_s and σ_a : *International Tables, Vol. C, Table 4.4.4.1.*

Experimental Determination of Spin Densities

$$f_p(\vec{s}) = \sum_{\ell=0}^L \sum_{m=-\ell}^{\ell} i^{\ell} M_{\ell}^m N_{\ell}^m \langle \mathbf{j}_{\ell} \rangle \mathbf{Z}_{\ell}^m(\theta_s, \phi_s)$$

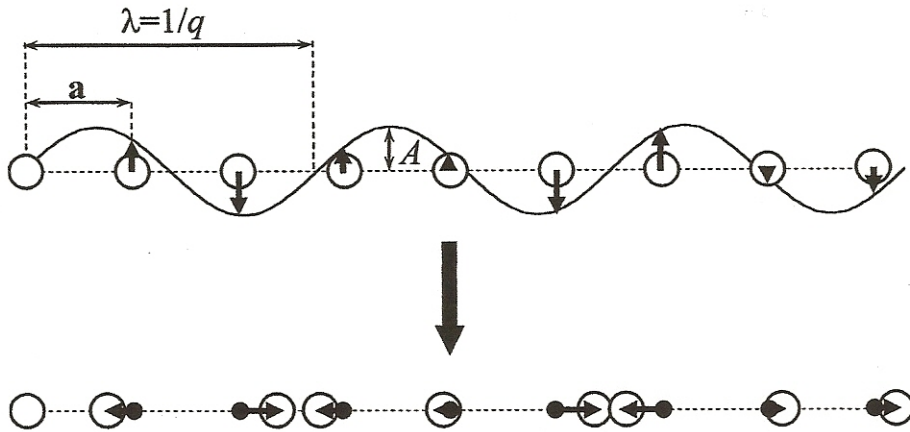
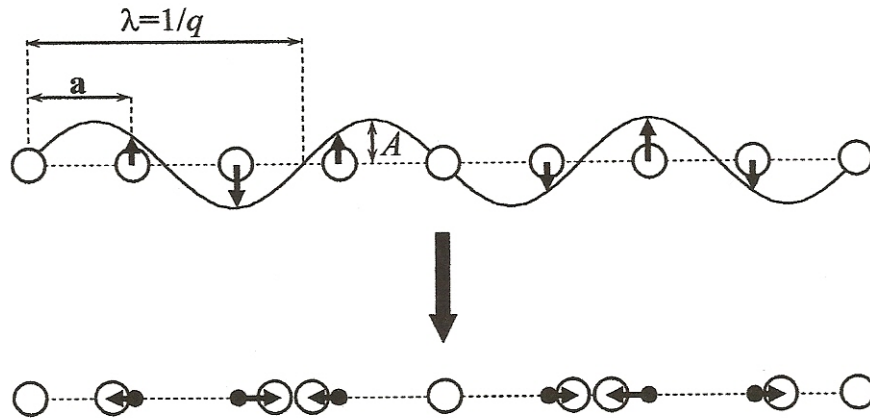
(This same scheme is used in the experimental determination of charge densities by x-ray diffraction.)

Sub-periodic crystals

Incommensurate modulations

Composite crystals

Quasi-crystals



take-home points

single-crystal diffraction

- structure analysis

powder diffraction

- phase identification (qualitative)

- composition analysis (quantitative phase analysis)

- Rietveld refinement (variation on known structure)

- ab initio structure analysis and Rietveld refinement

radiation:

- in-house x-rays (usually Cu or Mo sources)

- synchrotron radiation (x-rays)

- neutrons (reactor or spallation)

take-home points

defining formula and Z

calculate density

different ways of representing symmetry

origins of diffraction

-- scattering interaction (x-rays - electron, neutrons - nucleus)

-- atomic scattering factor

-- structure factor

Bragg's law

Laue equation

reciprocal lattice / Ewald sphere

number of reflections that can be measured (single crystal)

resolution of a diffraction analysis

take-home points

least-squares refinement of structural parameters

- single crystal
- powder (Rietveld)

reporting diffraction results

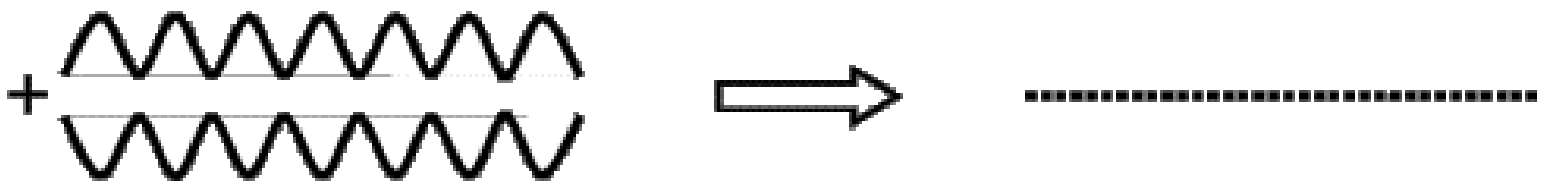
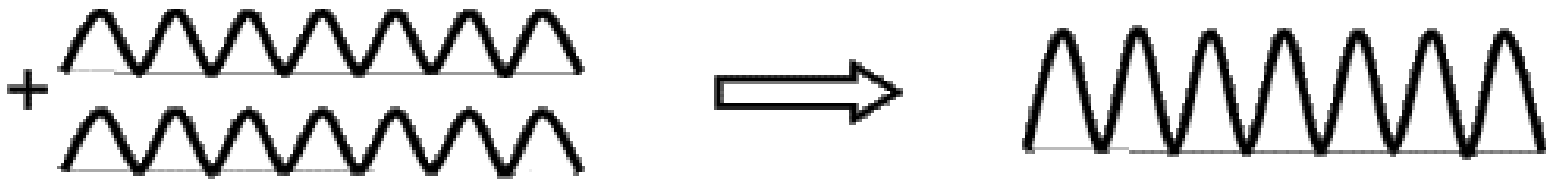
- CIF for some applications
- rounding numbers derived by least-squares
- calculating distances in crystallographic reference frames

stress and strain

texture

particle size

interference between waves



density

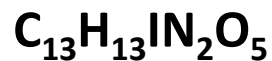
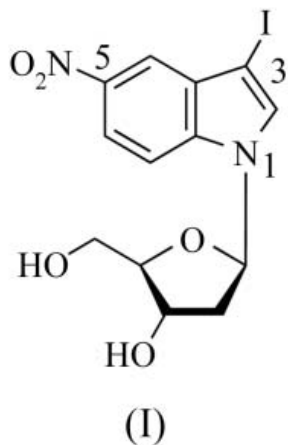
The density of a crystalline solid is calculated this way:

$$\rho(g / cm^3) = \frac{m.w. \cdot Z \cdot 1.6604}{V(\text{\AA}^3)}$$

The origin of the formula is this:

$$\rho(g / cm^3) = \frac{(m.w.)(g / mole) \cdot Z(\text{molecules} / \text{cell}) \cdot (10^{24} \text{\AA}^3 / cm^3)}{V(\text{\AA}^3 / \text{cell}) \cdot (6.023 \times 10^{23} \text{ molecules} / \text{mole})}$$

Typical problems include: (1) calculating the density, given a formula and Z; (2) calculating the formula of one unit cell, given density and V; (3) estimating Z given the unit cell volume and the formula (but without knowing the density. For this, if the crystal contains organic fragments, an initial estimate of 18\AA^3 per non-H atom is used. (For a pure inorganic, this number will not provide a good estimate.)

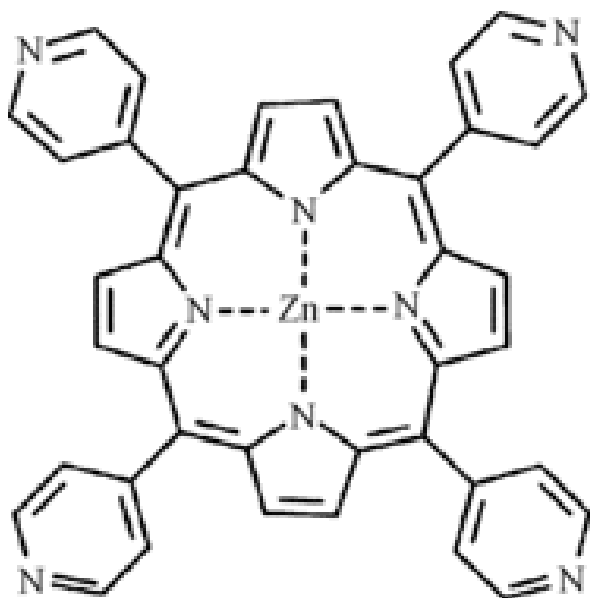


$$M_r = 404.15$$

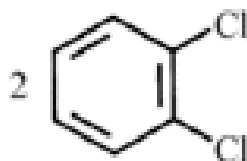
$$a = 17.549 \text{ \AA} \quad b = 7.0981 \text{ \AA} \quad c = 10.9242 \text{ \AA} \quad \alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ \quad V = 1360.8 \text{ \AA}^3$$

How many molecules in the cell? (Z = 4)

$$\rho = 1.972 \text{ g}\cdot\text{cm}^{-3}$$



(I)



$$\rho = 1.502 \text{ g} \cdot \text{cm}^{-3}$$

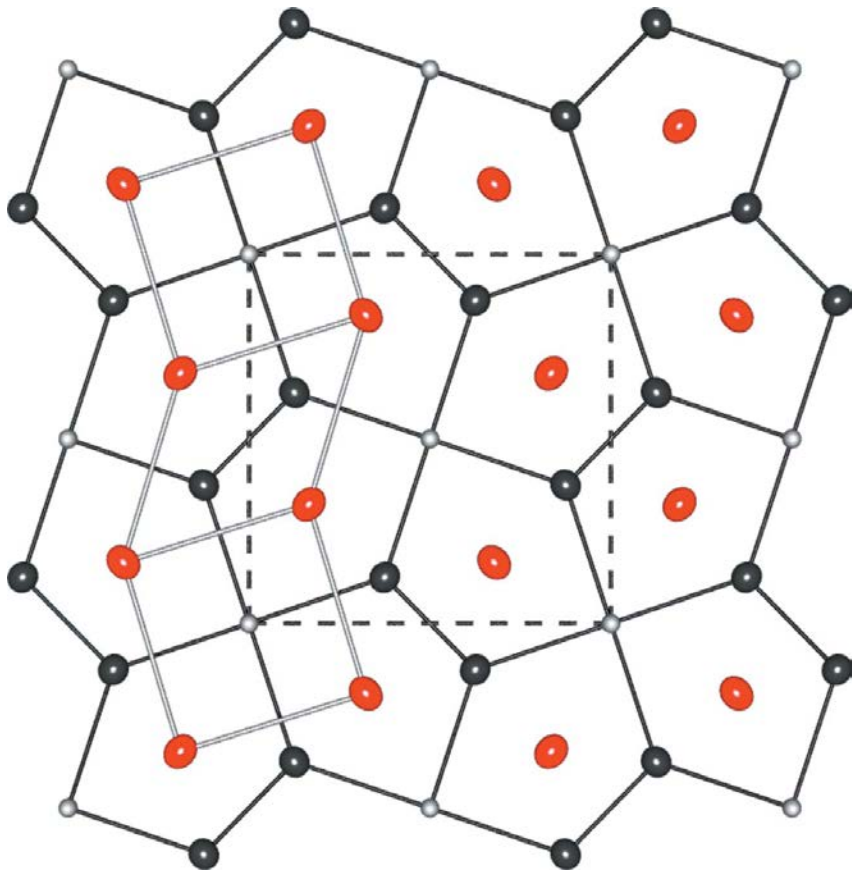


Mr = 976.03

a = 11.0295 b = 13.8207 c = 14.1529 Å

$\alpha = \gamma = 90^\circ$ $\beta = 90.2382$ V = 2157.39 Å³

How many molecules in the cell? (Z = 2)



Sc₂MgGa₂

M_r = 253.67

a = b = 7.1577 c = 3.9166 Å

α = β = γ = 90° V = 200.66 Å³

Mg: white

Ga: black

Sc: red

Z = 2

ρ = 4.198 g·cm⁻¹

Panalytical document, page 25, “Discussion of Bragg’s Law”:

4. Resolution can be defined as the lowest measurable d -value for a used wavelength, for $\sin \theta = 1$ follows $d_{\min} = \lambda/2$.

5. Varying of λ causes:

- The number of measurable reflections to vary, and
- The angular position of the reflections to vary; also,
- The separation between two neighboring reflections is changed.