Diffraction: Real Samples Powder Method

Diffraction: Real Samples

- Up to this point we have been considering diffraction arising from infinitely large crystals that are strain free and behave like ideally imperfect materials (x-rays only scattered once within a crystal)
- Crystal size and strain affect the diffraction pattern
 we can learn about them from the diffraction pattern
- High quality crystals such as those produced for the semiconductor industry are not ideally imperfect
 - need a different theory to understand how they scatter x-rays
- Not all materials are well ordered crystals

Crystallite Size

- As the crystallites in a powder get smaller the diffraction peaks in a powder pattern get wider.
- Consider diffraction from a crystal of thickness t and how the diffracted intensity varies as we move away from the exact Bragg angle
 - If thickness was infinite we would only see diffraction at the Bragg angle





Crystallite Size

Suppose the crystal of thickness thas (m + 1) planes in the diffraction direction. Let say θ is variable with value θ_{B} that exactly satisfies Bragg's Law:

$$\lambda = 2d\sin\theta_B$$

• Rays **A**, **D**, ..., **M** makes angle θ_{B}

• Rays **B**, ..., **L** makes angle θ_1

Rays **C**, ..., **N** makes angle θ_2



Crystallite Size

- For angle $\theta_{\rm B}$ diffracted intensity is maximum
- For θ_1 and θ_2 intensity is 0.
- For angles $\theta_1 > \theta > \theta_2$ intensity is nonzero.



The Scherrer Equation

$$2t\sin\theta_1 = (m+1)\lambda,$$

$$2t\sin\theta_2 = (m-1)\lambda.$$

Subtracting: $t(\sin \theta_1 - \sin \theta_2) = \lambda,$ $2t \cos\left(\frac{\theta_1 + \theta_2}{2}\right) \sin\left(\frac{\theta_1 - \theta_2}{2}\right) = \lambda.$

 θ_1 and θ_2 are close to θ_B , so:

$$\sin\left(\frac{\theta_1-\theta_2}{2}\right)\approx\left(\frac{\theta_1-\theta_2}{2}\right).$$

 $\theta_1 + \theta_2 \approx 2\theta_P$

$$2t\left(\frac{\theta_1-\theta_2}{2}\right)\cos\theta_B=\lambda,$$

$$t = \frac{\lambda}{B\cos\theta_{\rm H}}$$

Thus:

The Scherrer Equation

Instrument broadening has to be subtracted

More exact treatment (see *Warren*) gives:

 $=\frac{0.94\lambda}{B\cos\theta_B}$

Scherrer's formula

- Peak width *B* varies inversely with the crystallite size.
- The proportionality constant, *K*, is usually 0.94 and is valid for spherical crystals with cubic symmetry when *B* is taken as full width at half maximum (FWHM).
- The proportionality constant, *K*, is 0.89 for spherical crystals with cubic symmetry when *B* is taken as integral breadth.
- *K* sometimes is rounded up to 1.
- *K* might vary from 0.62 to 2.08.

Suppose $\lambda = 1.54$ Å, d = 1.0 Å, and $\theta = 49^{\circ}$:

for crystal size of 1 mm, $B = 10^{-5}$ deg. for crystal size of 500 Å, B = 0.2 deg.

Peak Width



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Full Width at Half Maximum (FWHM):

FWHM

 Width of the peak at half intensity value between background and peak maximum intensity.

Integral Breadth:

- Total area under the peak divided by the peak height.
- Same as the width of a rectangle which has the same area and the same height as the peak

Strain



Williamson-Hall Plot

Size broadening (Scherrer equation): $B_t(2\theta) = \frac{K\lambda}{t \cos\theta}$

Strain broadening: $B_{\varepsilon}(2\theta) = 4\varepsilon \tan\theta$

300

Slope = ε

Convoluted broadening:

100 ++

 $B_{tot}cos\theta$

Kλ

t

 $B_{tot}(2\theta) = B_t(2\theta) + B_{\varepsilon}(2\theta) = \frac{K\lambda}{t \cos\theta} + 4\varepsilon \tan\theta$



Instrument broadening has to be subtracted

200

Corrections for Instrumental Broadening

There is a link between peak width and crystallite size/strain, but other sources of peak broadening have to be considered when analyzing diffraction data

- Instrumental broadening:
 - slit widths
 - sample size
 - penetration in the sample
 - imperfect focusing
 - unresolved α_1 and α_2 peaks
 - or wavelengths widths where α_1 and α_2 peaks are resolved

To correct for instrumental broadening:

measure the sample

measure <u>under the same conditions</u> the standard with unstrained particles large enough to eliminate particle-size broadening

Corrections for Instrumental Broadening



Voigt, Pseudo-Voigt:

 Deconvolute peaks into Gaussian and Lorentzian fractions and then subtract instrumental broadening.

- V
- We calculate the diffraction peak at the exact Bragg angle θ_{B} and at angles that have small deviations from θ_{B} .
 - If crystal is infinite then at $\theta \neq \theta_{B}$ intensity = 0.
 - If crystal is small then at $\theta \neq \theta_{B}$ intensity $\neq 0$. It varies with angle as a function of the number of unit cells along the diffraction vector $(\mathbf{s} \mathbf{s}_{0})$.
 - At deviations from θ_{B} individual unit cells will scatter slightly out of phase.
 - Vector $(\mathbf{s} \mathbf{s}_0)/\lambda$ no longer extends to the reciprocal lattice point (RLP).

$$\frac{(\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{s}_0)}{\lambda} = h\mathbf{b}_1 + k\mathbf{b}_2 + l\mathbf{b}_3$$

• $\theta(1) > \theta_B(1)$ for 001 and $\theta(2) > \theta_B(2)$ for 002 • If $\mathbf{H}_{hkl} = \mathbf{H}$ is reciprocal lattice vector then $(\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{s}_0)/\lambda \neq \mathbf{H}$.





• In order to calculate the intensity diffracted from the crystal at $\theta \neq \theta_{B}$, the phase differences from different unit cells must be included.

For three unit vectors \mathbf{a}_1 , \mathbf{a}_2 and \mathbf{a}_3 :

$$A_{total} = \sum_{n_1=0}^{N_1-1} \sum_{n_2=0}^{N_2-1} \sum_{n_3=0}^{N_3-1} F \exp \frac{2\pi i}{\lambda} [(\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{s_0}) \cdot (n_1 \mathbf{a}_1 + n_2 \mathbf{a}_2 + n_3 \mathbf{a}_3)]$$

 n_i – particular unit cell N_i – total number of unit cells along a_i

From the definition of the reciprocal lattice vector:

$$(\mathbf{s}-\mathbf{s}_0)/\lambda = \mathbf{H}+\ell = (h_1\mathbf{b}_1+k_2\mathbf{b}_2+l_3\mathbf{b}_3)+\ell$$

$$A_{total} = F \sum_{n_1} \sum_{n_2} \sum_{n_3} \exp\left[2\pi i (\mathbf{H} + \ell) \cdot (n_1 \mathbf{a}_1 + n_2 \mathbf{a}_2 + n_3 \mathbf{a}_3)\right]$$
$$= F \sum_{n_1} \sum_{n_2} \sum_{n_3} \exp\left[2\pi i (h_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + k_2 \mathbf{b}_2 + l_3 \mathbf{b}_3 + \ell) \cdot (n_1 \mathbf{a}_1 + n_2 \mathbf{a}_2 + n_3 \mathbf{a}_3)\right]$$

since: $\mathbf{b}_{j} \cdot \mathbf{a}_{i} = \delta_{ij}$

$$A_{total} = F \sum_{n_1} \exp\left(2\pi i \ell \cdot n_1 a_1\right) \sum_{n_2} \exp\left(2\pi i \ell \cdot n_2 a_2\right) \sum_{n_3} \exp\left(2\pi i \ell \cdot n_3 a_3\right)$$

Converting from exp to sines:

$$A_{total} = F \left[\prod_{i=1}^{3} \frac{\sin \pi \lambda \ell \cdot N_i \mathbf{a}_i}{\sin \pi \lambda \ell \cdot \mathbf{a}_i} \right] \exp \left\{ \pi \left[(N_1 - 1) \mathbf{a}_1 + (N_2 - 1) \mathbf{a}_2 + (N_3 - 1) \mathbf{a}_3 \right] \right\}$$

Calculating intensity we lose phase information therefore:









- The diffracted intensity calculations make use of ideally imperfect crystals
- This is the "kinematical" theory of diffraction
- The integrated intensity from a perfect crystal large and no mosaic blocks is less than that from an ideally imperfect crystal
- Our consideration of Bragg peak width also has some problems. When we have very large perfect crystals the peak width is not zero. The width converges to a finite small value as the size of the crystal increases
- We need a better theory!
 - > Dynamical theory is used to treat diffraction in perfect crystals

- Dynamical diffraction theory is complicated. It includes the possibility of multiple scattering in a crystal. Diffracted beam is phase shifted by 90° every time it is diffracted within the crystal (this is in addition to the 180° shift on scattering from an individual electron or atom)
 - Scattering twice off a set of lattice planes K₀ to K₁ to K₂, produces a diffracted beam in the direction of the incident beam but with a 180° phase shift. The resulting destructive interferences reduces the intensity of the beam in the incident direction
 - This is PRIMARY EXTINCTION



- A full mathematical treatment of dynamical theory uses differential equations that describe the transfer of energy between the forward and diffracted x-ray beams.
 - This theory predicts that intensity from a perfect crystal with negligible absorption is

$$=\frac{8}{3\pi}\left(\frac{e^2}{mc^2}\right)\frac{N\lambda^2|F|}{\sin 2\theta}\left(\frac{1+|\cos 2\theta|}{2}\right)$$

where N is the number of unit cells per unit volume.

Note the intensity depends on F not F^2

Ι

The theory also predicts that the peak shape on rocking the crystal in the diffracted beam. The width of this rocking curve is called the Darwin width. Note that at the top of the curve the reflectivity is ~100%.

The width of the curve 2s is given	by	Changes in shape: due to absorption
$s = \left(\frac{e^2}{2}\right) \frac{N\lambda^2 F }{2} \left(\frac{1 + \cos 2\theta }{2}\right)$	1-2	
$\left(\frac{mc^{2}}{\pi}\right)\pi\sin 2\theta\left(\frac{2}{\pi}\right)$ EWHM, $\Delta\theta_{c}$, for Darwin curve = 2.12s	0.8	
For first order reflections:	10.6 -	
Higher order reflections have	0.4 -	

Excellent candidate for the cathode of rechargeable lithium battery that is inexpensive, nontoxic, and environmentally benign.

First Reported:

"LiFePO₄: A Novel Cathode Material for Rechargeable Batteries", A.K. Padhi, K.S. Nanjundaswamy, J.B. Goodenough, Electrochimical Society Meeting Abstracts, **96-1**, May, 1996, pp 73.





Padhi, A. K.; Nanjundaswamy, K. S.; Goodenough, J. B. J. Electrochem. Soc. 1997, 144, 1188

•When a lithium-based cell is discharging, the lithium is extracted from the anode and inserted into the cathode.

•When the cell is charging, the reverse occurs.

Cathode (Li_xCoO_2 : 0 < x < 1) Anode (Li_xC_6 : 0 < x < 1)

Commercialized by Sony Corp. in 1991

Limits for the large scale applications:

- 1. Safety
- 2. Cost (Co)







Maximum entropy method (MEM)-based whole-pattern fitting of room temperature high-resolution synchrotron X-ray diffraction data for LiFePO₄. The incident beam from the bending magnet source was monochromated by a double-crystal Si (111) monochromator, and the diffraction data were collected by a multiple-detector system with flat Ge (111) analysis crystals and scintillation counters. The wavelength was calibrated as 1.206353 Å by powder diffraction data from NIST SRM640c.

"Experimental visualization of lithium diffusion in Li_xFePO₄"
Shin-ichi Nishimura, Genki Kobayashi, Kenji Ohoyama, Ryoji Kanno, Masatomo Yashima & Atsuo Yamada
Nature Materials 7, 707 (2008) Published online: 10 August 2008





Rietveld refinement results for LiFePO₄ with neutron diffraction data measured at room temperature in air.





X-ray diffraction patterns of a mixture of 0.6 LiFePO₄ and 0.4 FePO₄ recorded at 30 K steps from 298 K to 633 K with magnification of 200 reflections. Bruker AXS D8 ADVANCE powder diffractometer was used with Co-K α radiation and linear position-sensitive detector Vantec-1. Measurement ranges were from 15° to 100°. The measurements were conducted under a high-purity He atmosphere in an Anton Paar HTK 450 temperature-controlled chamber.



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Nuclear distribution of lithium calculated by the Maximum Entropy Method (MEM) using neutron powder diffraction data measured for Li_{0.6}FePO₄ at 620 K.

- (a) Three-dimensional Li nuclear density data shown as blue contours. The brown octahedra represent FeO₆ and the purple tetrahedra represent PO₄ units.
- (b) Two-dimensional contour map sliced on the (001) plane at z = 0.5; lithium delocalizes along the curved one-dimensional chain along the [010] direction, whereas Fe, P and O remain near their original positions.
- (c) Two-dimensional contour map sliced on the (010) plane at y = 0; all atoms remain near their original positions.