

Advanced Analytical Chemistry

Week 01

Crystal structural analysis

Department of Applied Chemistry
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How to obtain information of analyte ?

- To retrieve the desired information from the analyte, it is necessary to provide a **stimulus**, which is usually in the form of electromagnetic, electrical, mechanical, or nuclear energy
- The resulting information is contained in the phenomena that result from **the interaction of the stimulus with the analyte**.
- **The stimulus elicits a response** from the system under study whose nature and magnitude are governed by the fundamental laws of chemistry and physics.

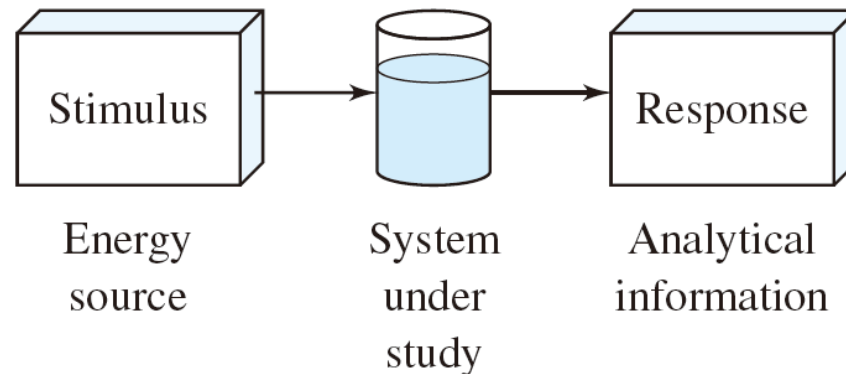
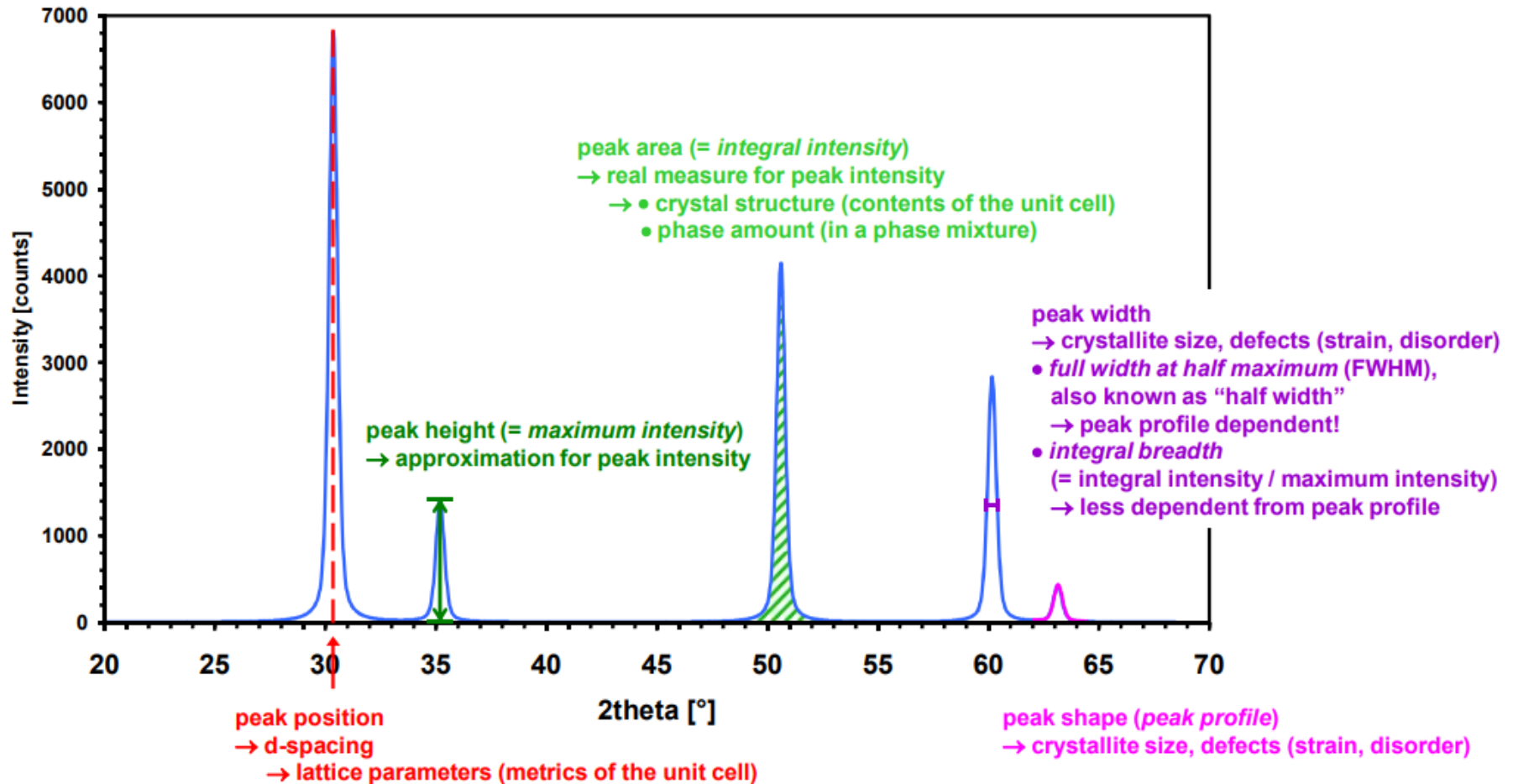


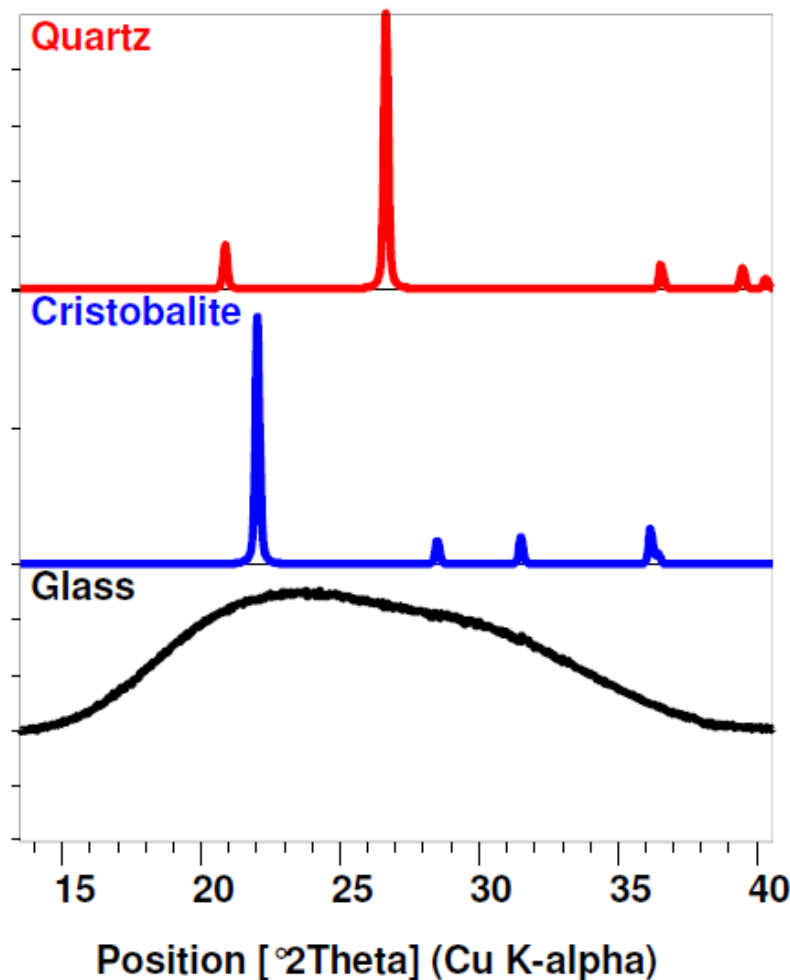
FIGURE 1-1 Block diagram showing the overall process of an instrumental measurement.

X-ray powder diffraction analysis



Frank Girgsdies, Electron Microscopy Group, Department of Inorganic Chemistry, Fritz-Haber-Institut der MPG, Berlin, Germany

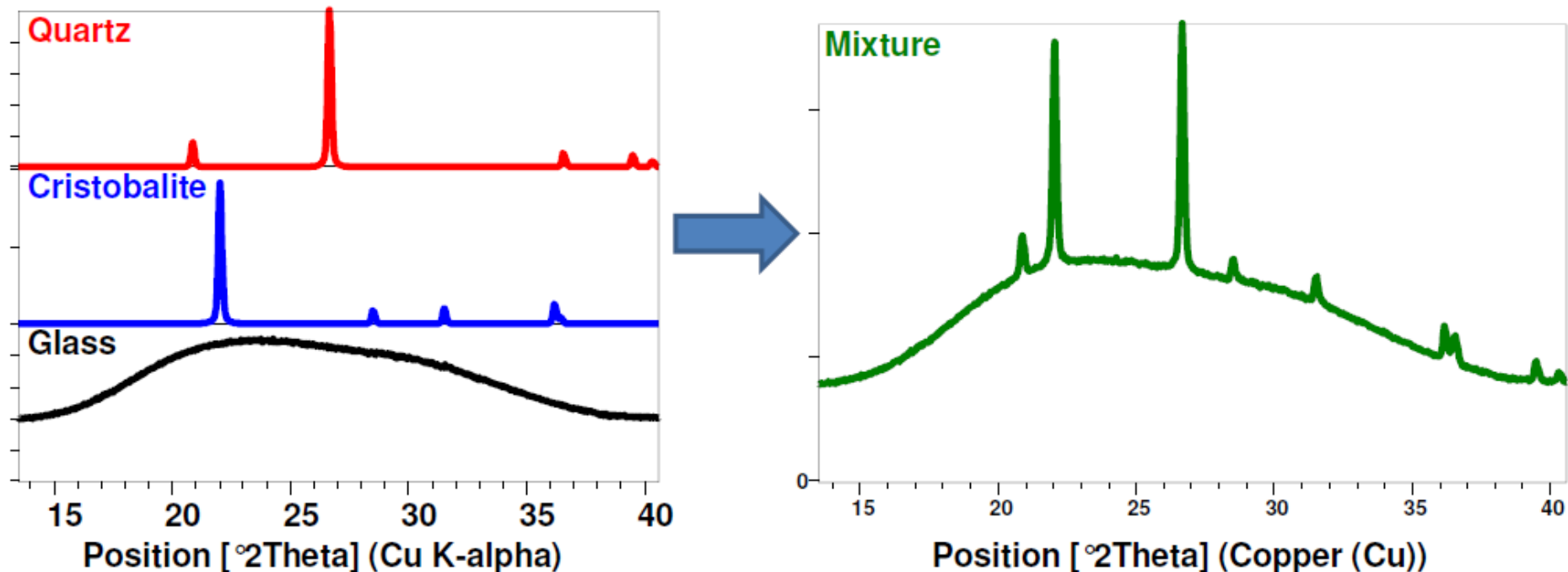
Each “phase” produces a unique diffraction pattern



- A phase is a specific chemistry and atomic arrangement.
- Quartz, cristobalite, and glass are all different phases of SiO_2
 - They are chemically identical, but the atoms are arranged differently.
 - As shown, the X-ray diffraction pattern is distinct for each different phase.
 - Amorphous materials, like glass, do not produce sharp diffraction peaks.

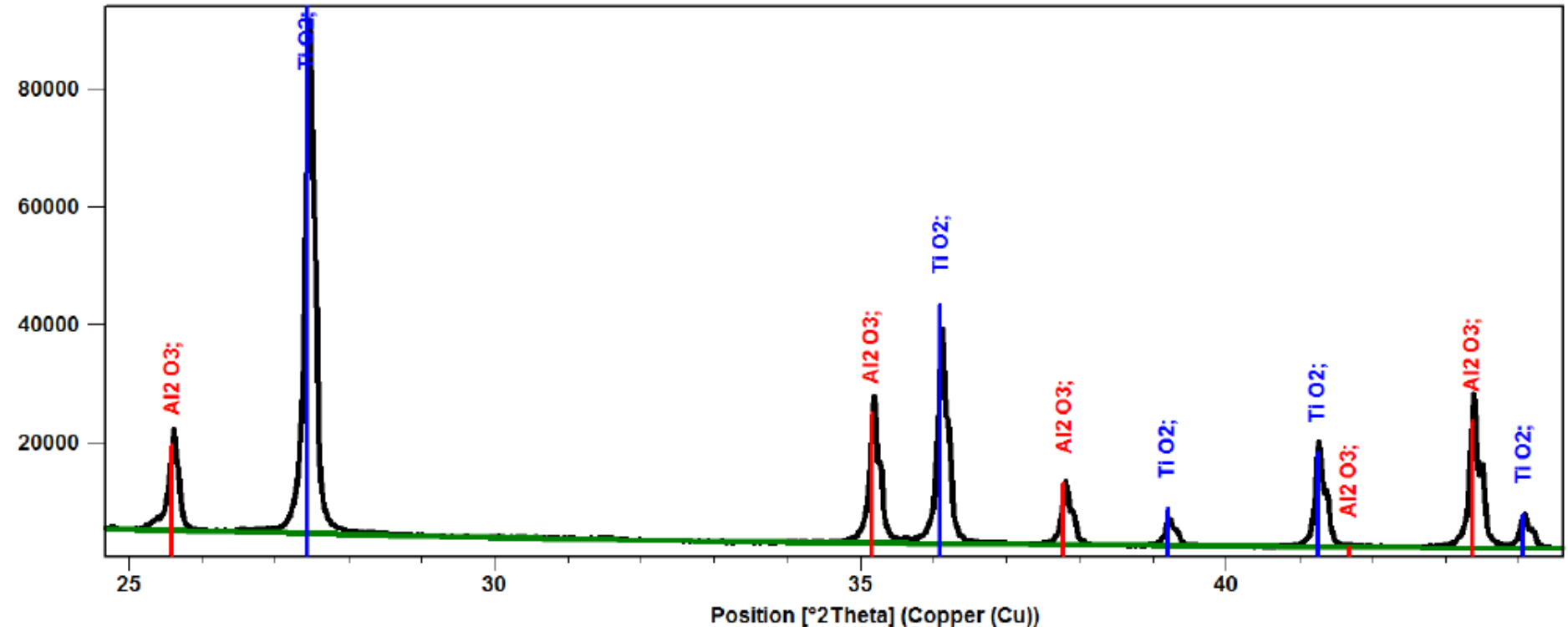
The X-ray diffraction pattern is a fingerprint that lets you figure out what is in your sample.

The diffraction pattern of a mixture is a simple sum of the diffraction patterns of each individual phase.



- From the XRD pattern you can determine:
 - What crystalline phases are in a mixture
 - How much of each crystalline phase is in the mixture (quantitative phase analysis, QPA, is covered in another tutorial)
 - If any amorphous material is present in the mixture

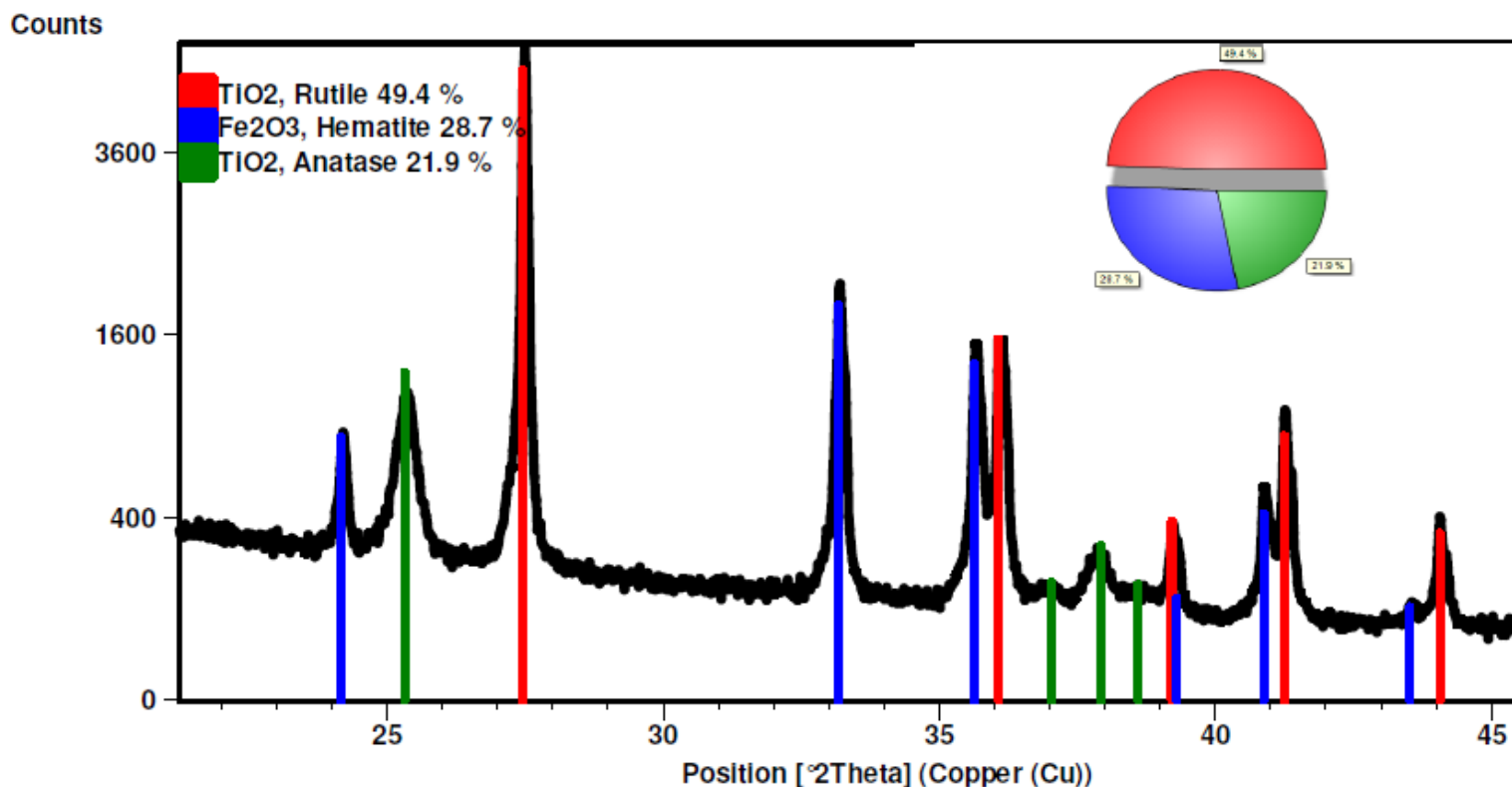
You cannot guess the relative amounts of phases based upon the relative intensities of the diffraction peaks



- The pattern shown above contains equal amounts of TiO_2 and Al_2O_3
- The TiO_2 pattern is more intense because TiO_2 diffracts X-rays more efficiently

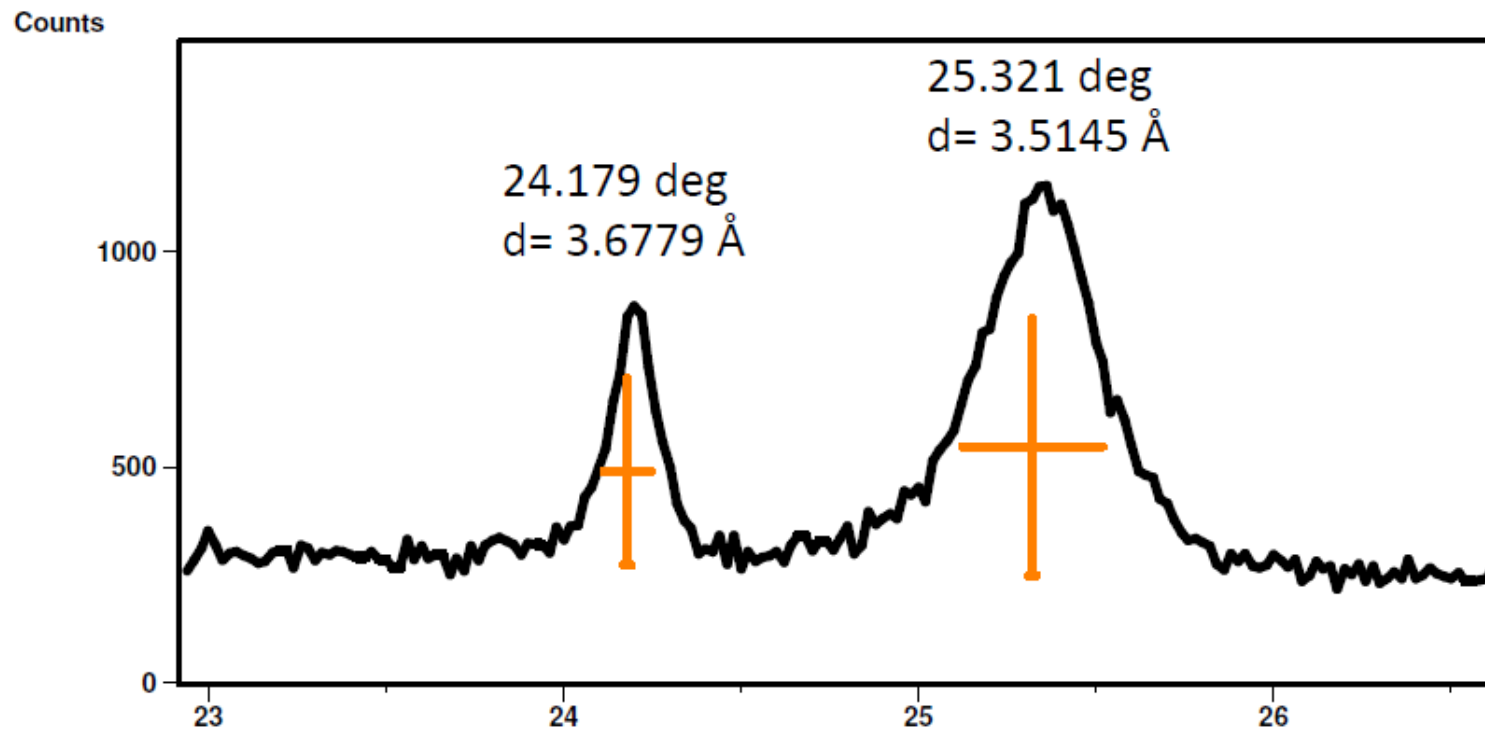
With proper calibration, you can calculate the amount of each phase present in the sample

The weight fraction of each phase can be calculated if the calibration constant is known



- The calibration constants can be determined:
 - By empirical measurements from known standards
 - By calculating them from published reference intensity ratio (RIR) values
 - By calculating them with Rietveld refinement

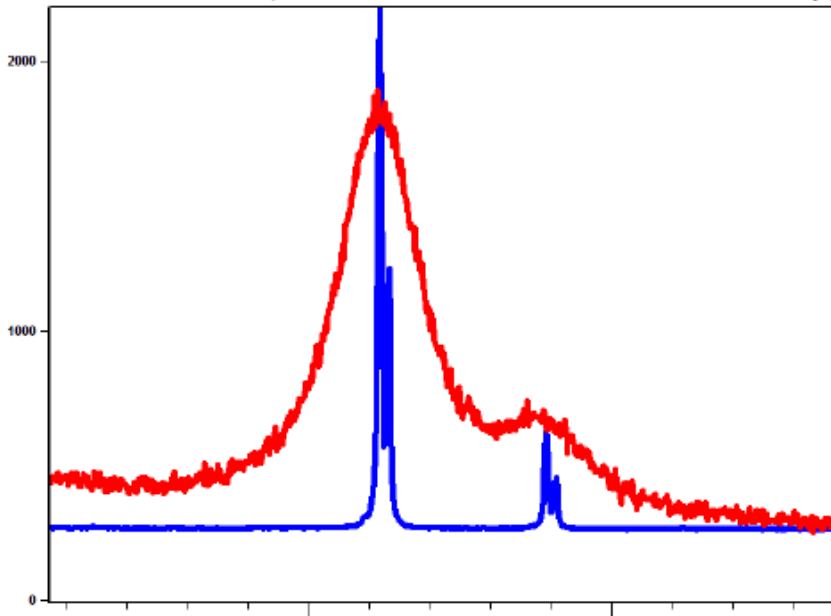
Diffraction peak positions can be used to calculate unit cell dimensions



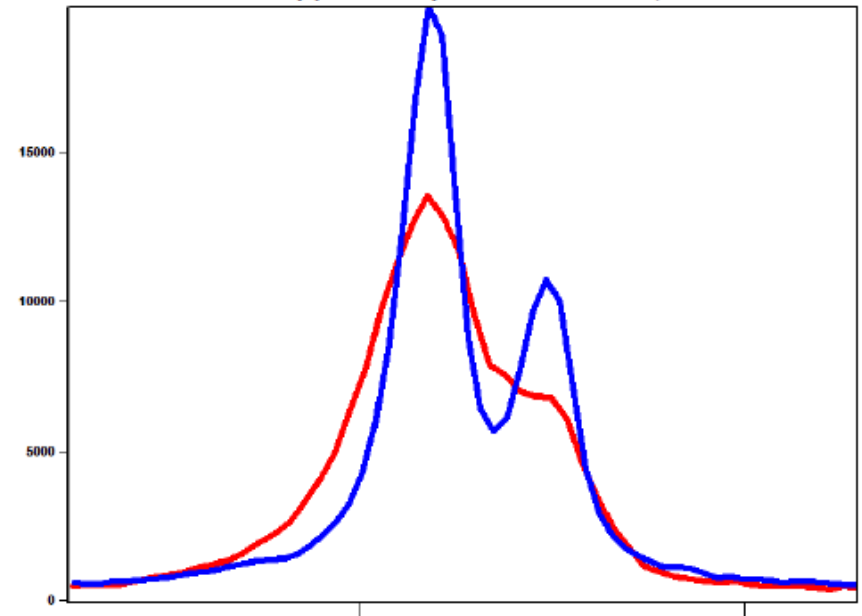
- The unit cell dimensions can be correlated to interatomic distances
- Anything that changes interatomic distances- temperature, substitutional doping, stress- will be reflected by a change in peak positions

Diffraction peak broadening may contain information about the sample microstructure

- Peak broadening may indicate:
 - Smaller crystallite size in nanocrystalline materials
 - More stacking faults, microstrain, and other defects in the crystal structure
 - An inhomogeneous composition in a solid solution or alloy
- However, different instrument configurations can change the peak width, too



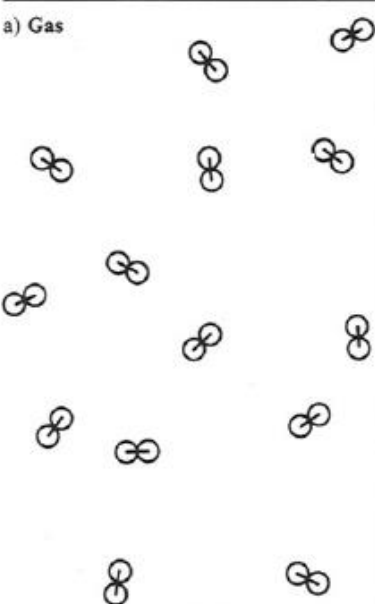

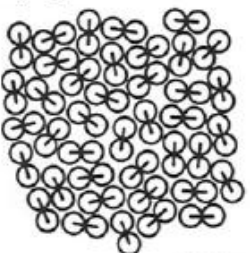
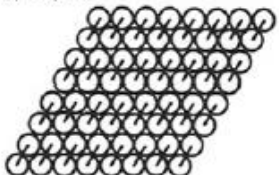

These patterns show the difference between **bulk ceria** (blue) and **nanocrystalline ceria** (red)



These patterns show the difference between the exact same sample run on two different instruments.

When evaluating peak broadening, the instrument profile must be considered.

The states of matter

Representation of the state	Retention of shape	Retention of volume	Distribution of molecules	Physical properties
a) Gas 	No	No	Statistically homogeneous ¹	 Isotropic ²
Boiling point b) Liquid 	No	Yes		
Melting point c) Crystal 	Yes	Yes	Periodically homogeneous ¹	 Anisotropic ³

How can we distinguish crystalline state ?

¹ Equal physical properties in parallel directions \Rightarrow

² Equal physical properties in all directions

³ Different physical properties in different directions

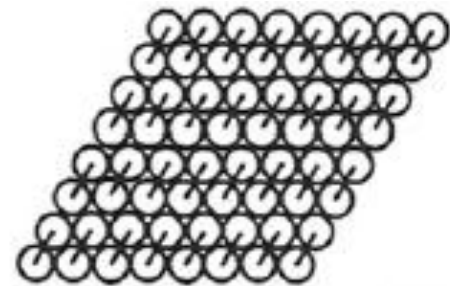
The states of matter

Crystal:

- When the temperature falls below the freezing point, the kinetic energy becomes so small that the molecules become permanently attached to one another.
- A three-dimensional framework of attractive interactions forms among the molecules and the array becomes solid – it crystallizes.
- The movement of molecules in the crystal now consists only of vibrations about a central position. A result of these permanent interactions is that the molecules have become regularly ordered.

“periodically homogeneous distribution”

“anisotropic physical properties”

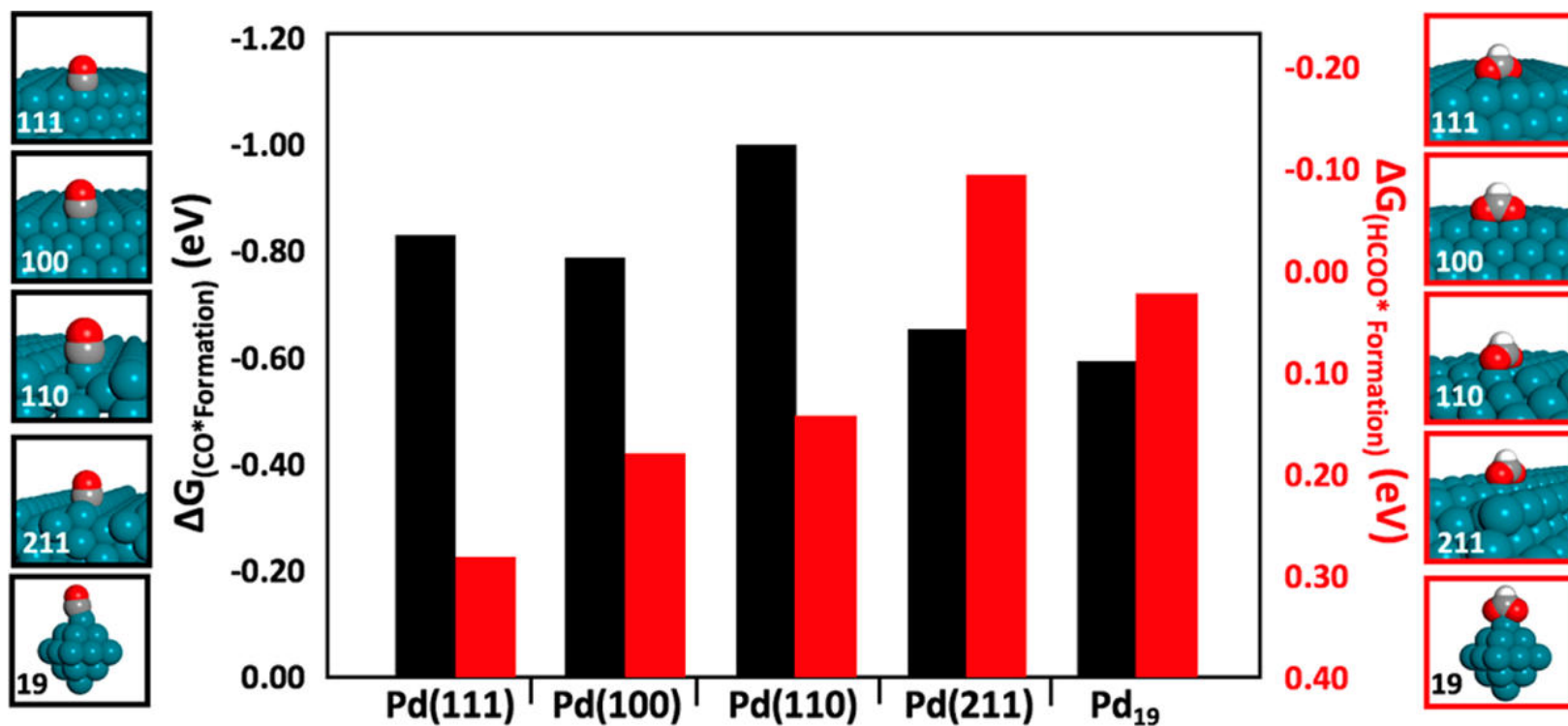


A crystal is an anisotropic, homogeneous body consisting of a three-dimensional periodic ordering of atoms, ions or molecules.

Crystal structure analysis

Crystallography is the experimental science of determining the three-dimensional arrangement of atoms, ions and molecules in crystalline solids

Crystals play a role in many subjects, among them mineralogy, inorganic, organic and physical chemistry, physics, metallurgy, materials science, geology, geophysics, biology and medicine.



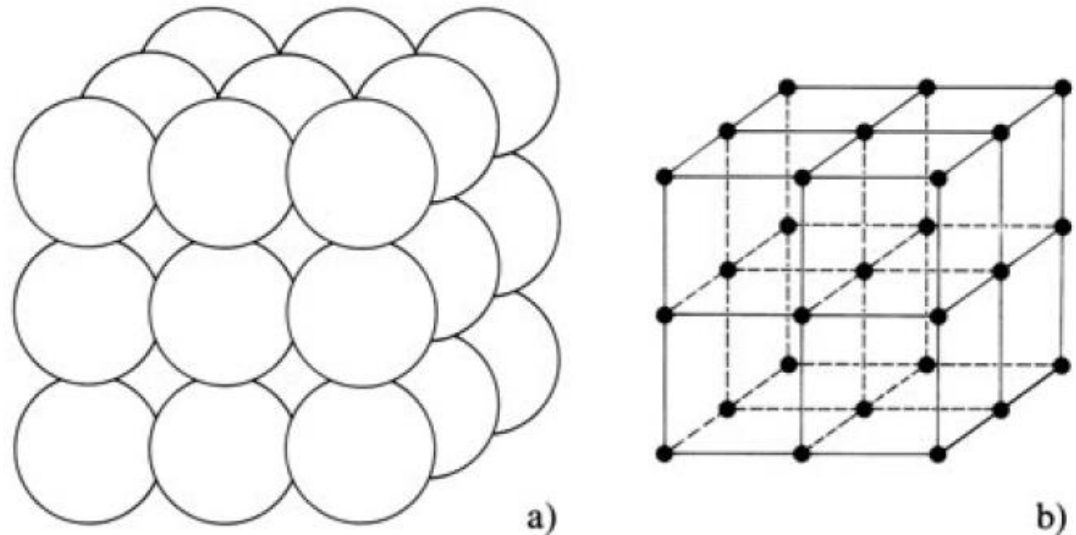
What is lattice?

- **A space lattice** is a three-dimensional periodic arrangement of points, and is a pure mathematical concept.
- **basis:** the arrangement of atoms within a lattice cell.
- **lattice + basis = crystal structure.**

The concept of a lattice will now be developed from a lattice point via the line lattice and the plane lattice, finally to the space lattice.

Fig. 3.1a, b

Three-dimensional periodic arrangement of the atoms in a crystal of α -polonium (a) and the space lattice of the crystal (b)



Line lattice, Plane lattice

- we may consider moving from the point 0 along the vector \vec{a} to the point 1. By a similar movement of $2\vec{a}$, we will reach point 2, etc. By means of this operation, called a **lattice translation**, a **line lattice** has been generated.
- All points made by lattice translation are equivalent.
- $|\vec{a}| = a_0$ is called **lattice parameter** which defines the line lattice.
- If a lattice translation \vec{b} is then allowed to operate on the line lattice, the result is the **plane lattice**. The plane lattice can be constructed from three lattice parameters, \vec{a}_0 , \vec{b}_0 and γ .
- **unit cell** is the least volume being repeated in a solid

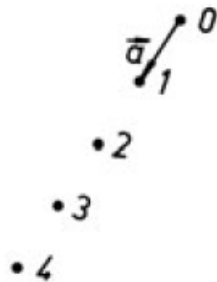


Fig. 3.2

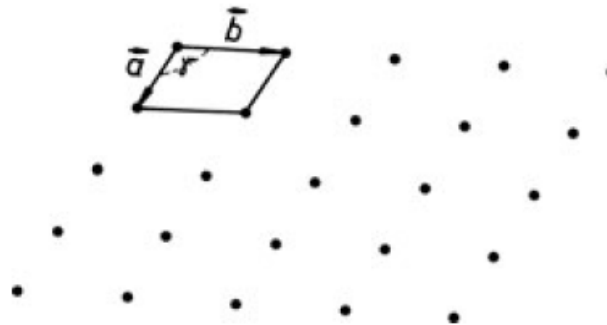


Fig. 3.3

Fig. 3.2 Line lattice with its lattice parameter $|\vec{a}| = a_0$

Fig. 3.3 Plane lattice with the unit mesh defined by the vectors \vec{a} and \vec{b}

Space lattice

- If another lattice translation \vec{c} is introduced, its action on the plane lattice generates the space lattice.

Fig. 3.4

Space lattice with the unit cell defined by the vectors \vec{a} , \vec{b} and \vec{c}

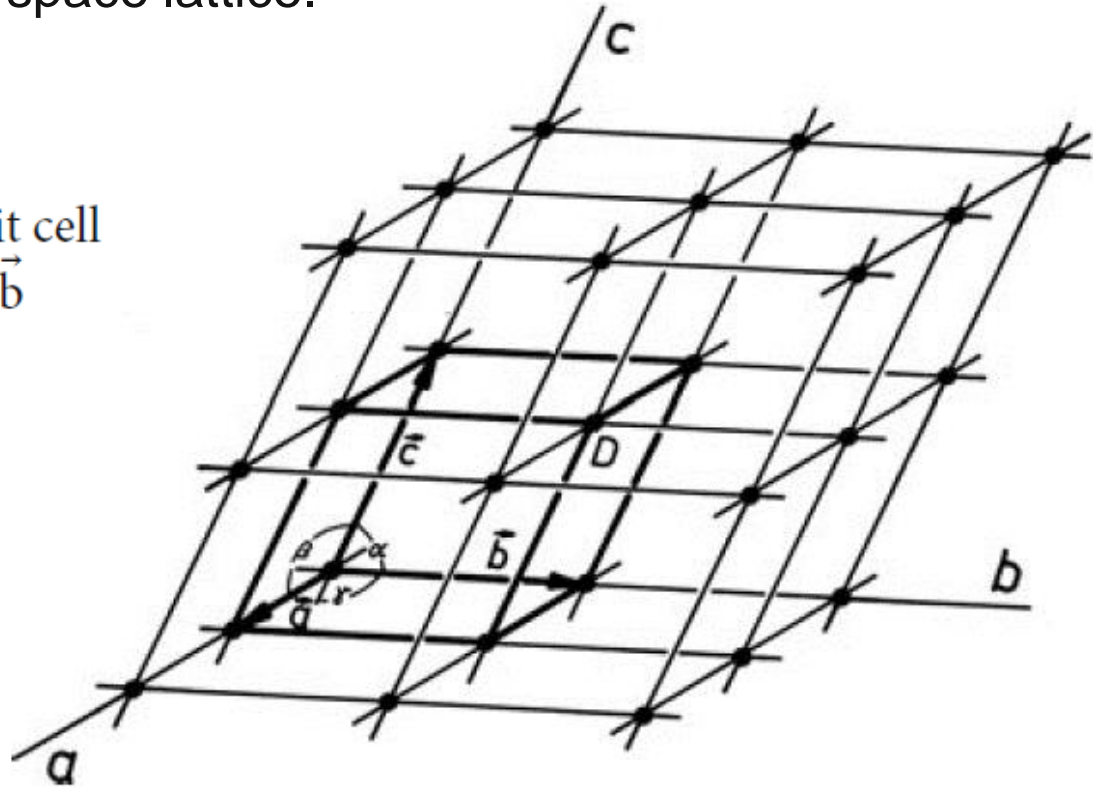


Table 3.1

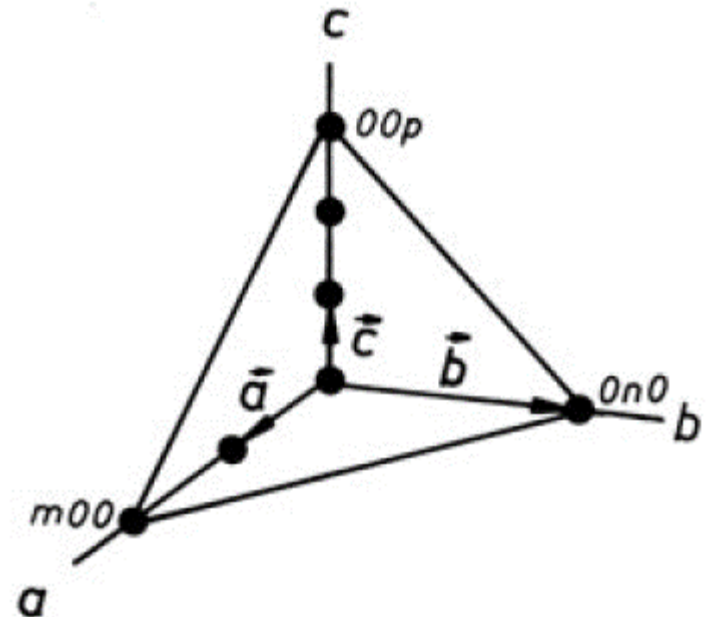
Lattice constants of a unit cell

Length of lattice translation vectors	Interaxial lattice angles
$ \vec{a} = a_0$	$\vec{a} \wedge \vec{b} = \gamma$
$ \vec{b} = b_0$	$\vec{a} \wedge \vec{c} = \beta$
$ \vec{c} = c_0$	$\vec{b} \wedge \vec{c} = \alpha$

Designation of points, lines and planes

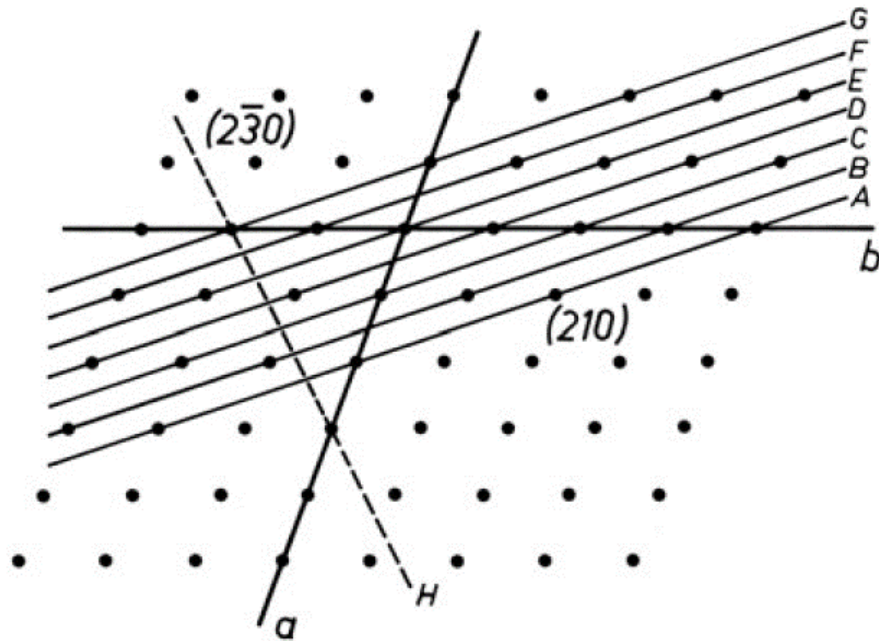
- Consider a plane in the lattice intersecting the axes a , b and c at the points $m00$, $0n0$ and $00p$. The coordinates of the three intercepts completely define the position of a lattice plane.
- however, the reciprocals of these coordinates are used rather than the coordinates themselves. **Miller indices, (hkl) , are defined as the smallest integral multiples of the reciprocals of the plane intercepts on the axes.**

- The lattice plane has the intercepts $m \mid n \mid p = 2 \mid 1 \mid 3$.
- The reciprocals of these are $1/2 \mid 1 \mid 1/3$, leading to the Miller indices **(362)** .



Designation of points, lines and planes

- Generally, the triple (hkl) represents not merely a single lattice plane, but an infinite set of parallel planes with a constant interplanar spacing.
- Note that (210) and $(\bar{2}\bar{1}0)$ define the same parallel set of planes.



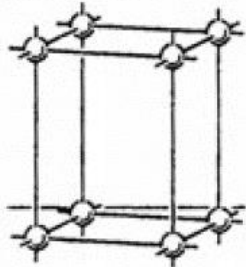
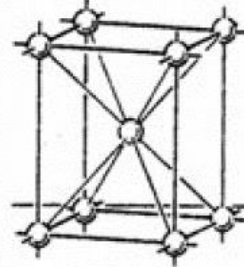
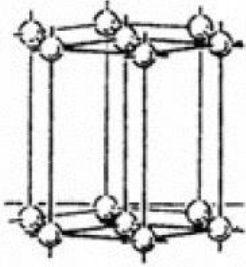
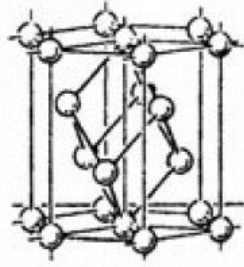
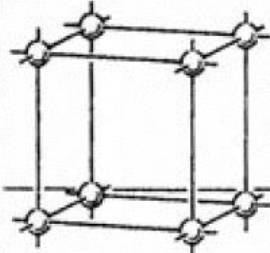
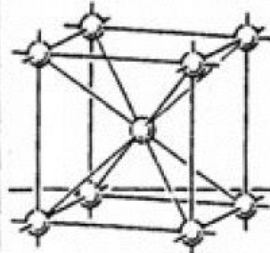
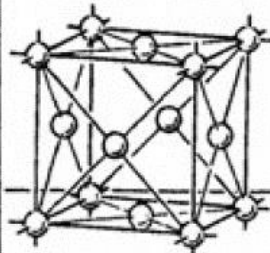
	m	n	p	$\frac{1}{m}$	$\frac{1}{n}$	$\frac{1}{p}$	(hkl)
A	2	4	∞	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	0	(210)
B	$\frac{3}{2}$	3	∞	$\frac{2}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	0	(210)
C	1	2	∞	1	$\frac{1}{2}$	0	(210)
D	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	∞	2	1	0	(210)
E	–	–	–	–	–	–	
F	$\bar{\frac{1}{2}}$	$\bar{1}$	∞	$\bar{2}$	$\bar{1}$	0	$(\bar{2}\bar{1}0)$
G	$\bar{1}$	$\bar{2}$	∞	$\bar{1}$	$\bar{\frac{1}{2}}$	0	$(\bar{2}\bar{1}0)$
H	3	$\bar{2}$	∞	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\bar{\frac{1}{2}}$	0	$(2\bar{3}0)$

7 Crystal systems & 14 Bravais lattices

- 14 Bravais lattices: the 14 and only ways in which it is possible to fill space by a three-dimensional periodic array of points.

Crystal system	primitive	base-centered	body-centered	face-centered
Triclinic $a_0 \neq b_0 \neq c_0$ $\alpha \neq \beta \neq \gamma$				
Monoclinic $a_0 \neq b_0 \neq c_0$ $\alpha = \gamma = 90^\circ$ $\beta > 90^\circ$				
Orthorhombic $a_0 \neq b_0 \neq c_0$ $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$				

7 Crystal systems & 14 Bravais lattices

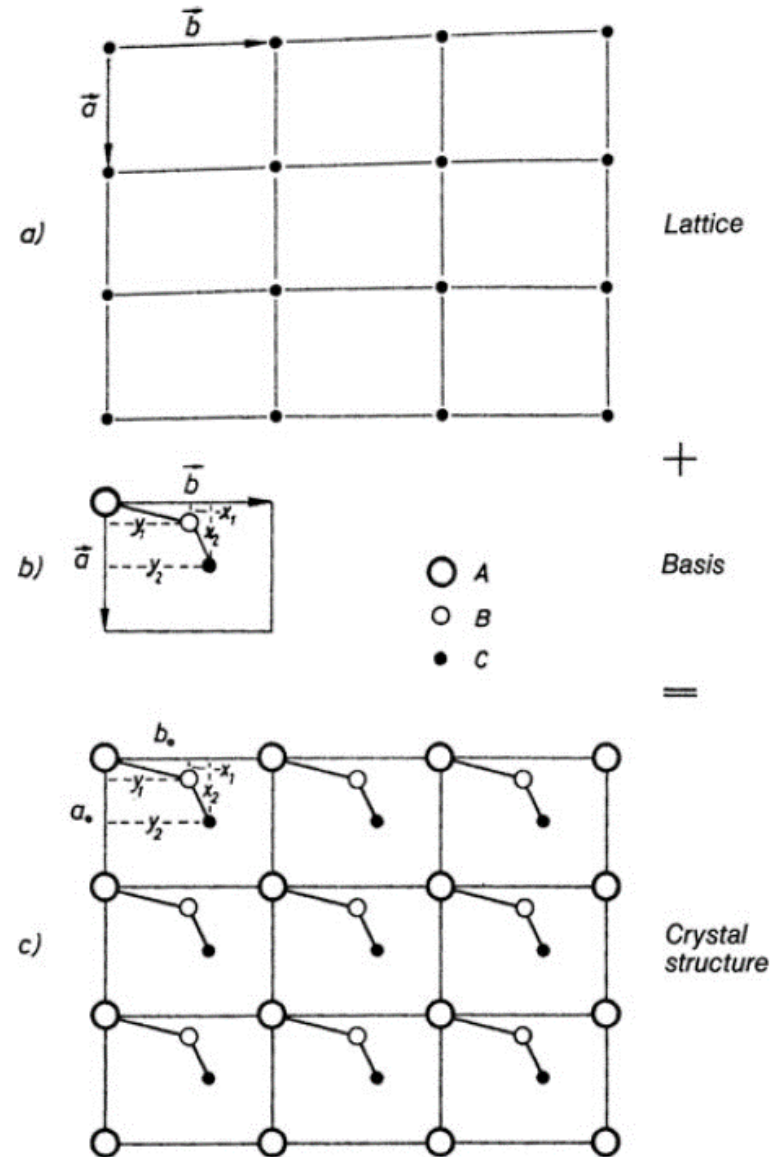
	primitive	base-centered	body-centered	face-centered
Tetragonal $a_0 = b_0 \neq c_0$ $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$				
Trigonal $a_0 = b_0 \neq c_0$ $\alpha = \beta = 90^\circ$ $\gamma = 120^\circ$				
Hexagonal $a_0 = b_0 \neq c_0$ $\alpha = \beta = 90^\circ$ $\gamma = 120^\circ$				
Cubic $a_0 = b_0 = c_0$ $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$				

From a lattice to a crystal

- **Crystal = lattice + basis**
- **Basis:** the arrangement of atoms, ions and molecules
- **Lattice:** $a_0 = a_0, b_0 = b_0, \gamma = 90^\circ$
- **Basis of molecule ABC:**
A: 0,0,0; B: x_1, y_1, z_1 ; C: x_2, y_2, z_2

The position is described by a vector \vec{r} in terms of the lattice translations \vec{a} , \vec{b} , and \vec{c} .

$$\vec{r} = x \vec{a} + y \vec{b} + z \vec{c} \quad (0 \leq x, y, z < 1)$$



Describing the structure of CsI

- An example of a simple crystal structure is CsI
- **unit cell:** a cube with $a_0 = b_0 = c_0 = 4.57 \text{ \AA}$, $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$
- **basis:** I^- : 0,0,0; Cs^+ : $1/2, 1/2, 1/2$

$$m = \frac{Z \cdot M}{N_A} \quad \text{and}$$

$$\rho = \frac{Z \cdot M}{N_A \cdot V} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$$

M : the mass of atoms in the unit cell
 Z : the number of chemical formula units per unit cell
 M : molar mass, N_A : the Avogadro number
 V : unit cell volume

$$\rho_{\text{CsI}} = \frac{1 \cdot 259.81}{6.023 \cdot 10^{23} \cdot 4.57^3 \cdot 10^{-24}} = 4.52 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$$

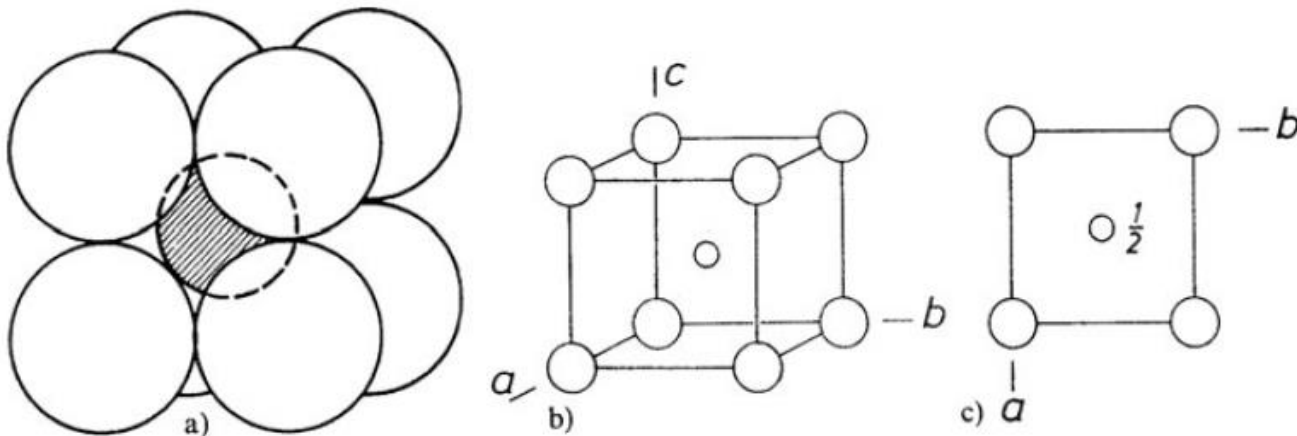
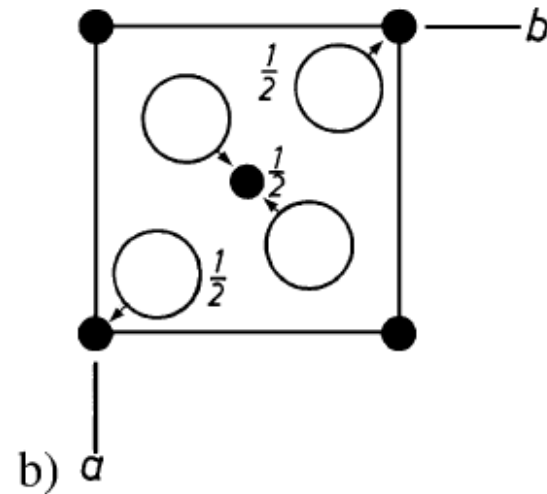
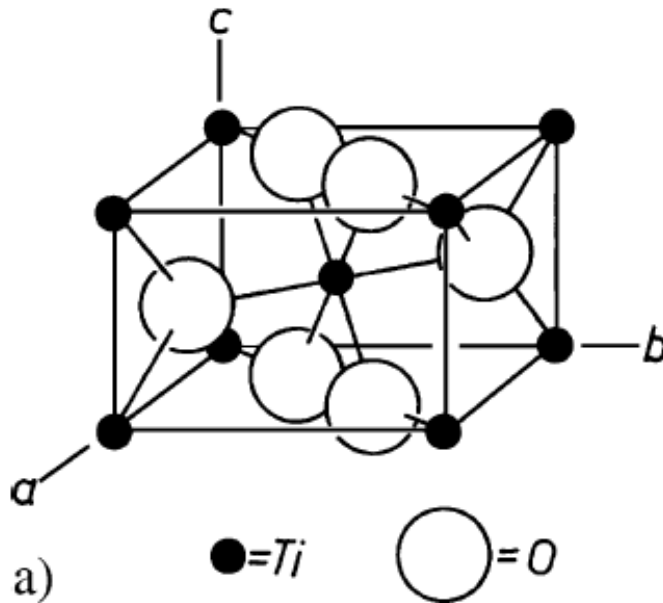


Fig. 4.4a-c The CsI structure shown in a perspective drawing taking account of the relative sizes of the ions (a), with ions reduced to their centers of gravity (b) and as a parallel projection on (001) (c)

Describing the structure of rutile TiO_2

- Unit cell: primitive tetragonal ($a_0 = 4.59 \text{ \AA}$, $c_0 = 2.96 \text{ \AA}$)
- basis: Ti: $0,0,0$; $1/2, 1/2, 1/2$
 O: $0.3, 0.3, 0.0$; $0.8, 0.2, 0.5$; $0.2, 0.8, 0.5$; $0.7, 0.7, 0.0$



Lattice	Basis
Tetragonal P $a_0 = 4.59 \text{ \AA}$ $c_0 = 2.96 \text{ \AA}$	Ti: $0,0,0$ $\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}$
	O: $0.3, 0.3, 0$ $0.8, 0.2, \frac{1}{2}$ $0.2, 0.8, \frac{1}{2}$ $0.7, 0.7, 0$

X-ray diffractometer

고분해능 X-선 회절장치

High Resolution X-Ray Diffractometer System



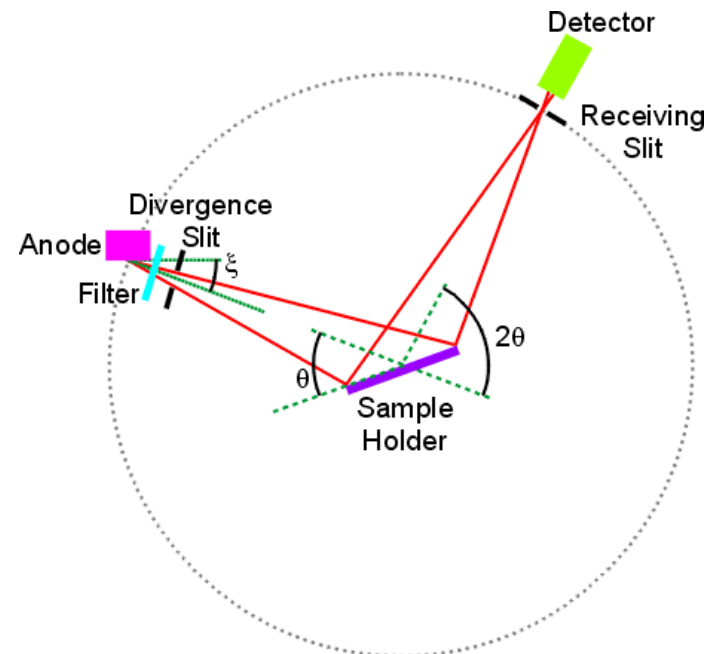
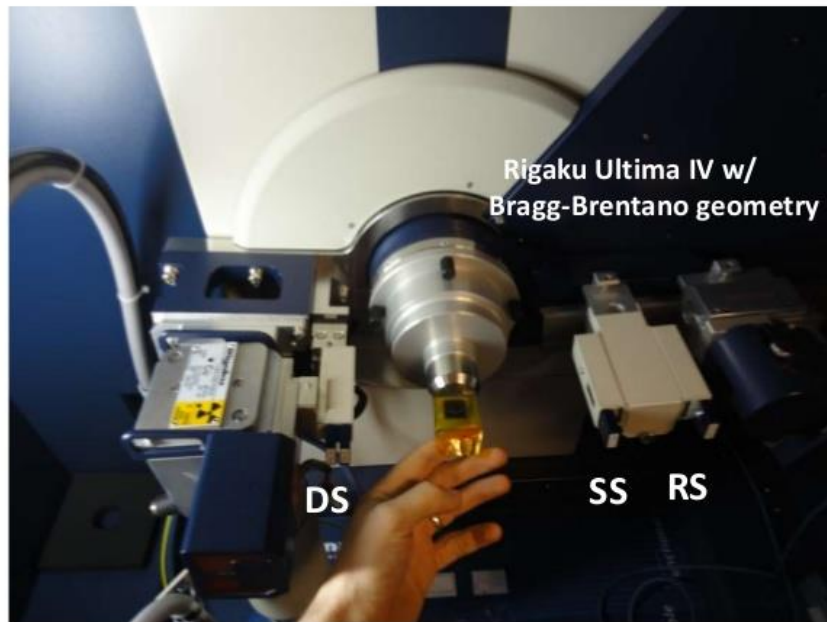
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모델명: Ultima IV

제조국가: 일본

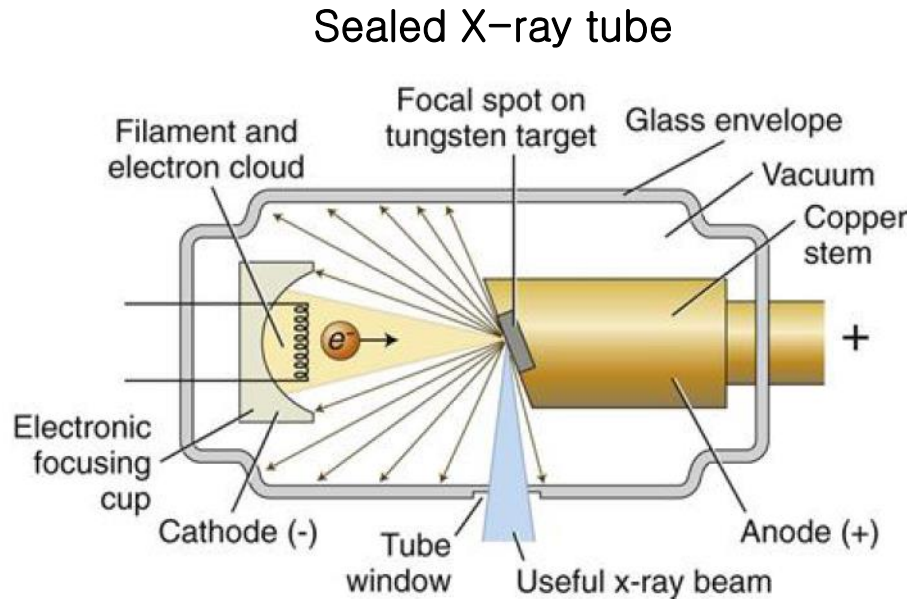
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연락처: 공동실험기기센터 02-910-4217

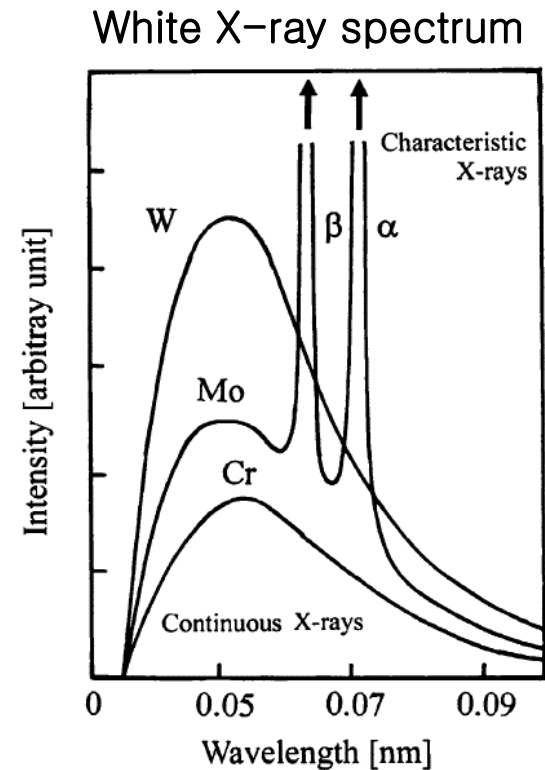


Production of X-rays

- When a **high voltage** is applied, high-speed electrons collide with a target
- Kinetic energy [eV] → **continuous X-ray + characteristic X-ray**



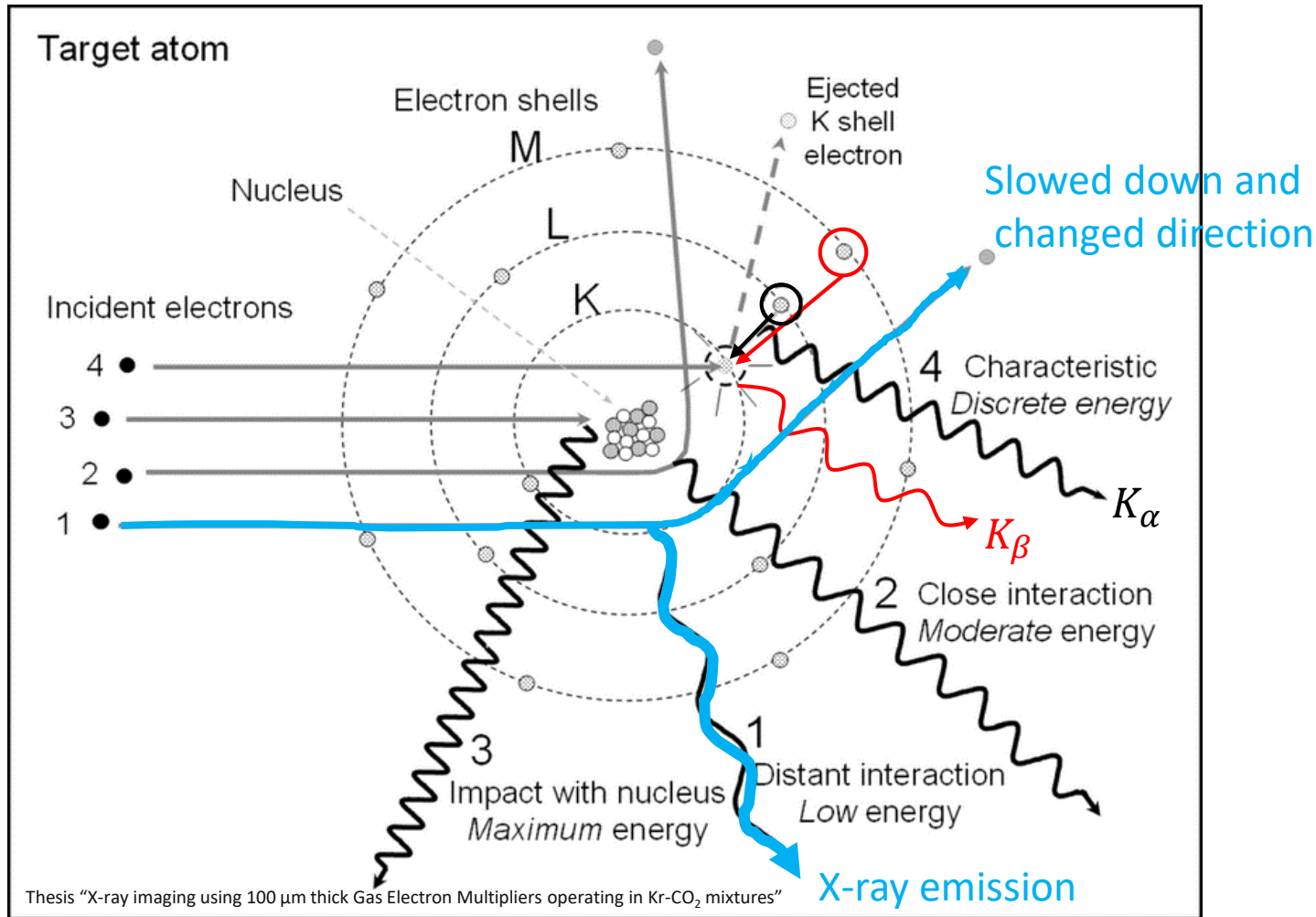
Thesis "X-ray imaging using 100 μm thick Gas Electron Multipliers operating in Kr-CO₂ mixtures"



- Max energy and shortest λ_{SWL} of X-ray

$$E_{kinetic} = eV = E_{X-ray} = h\nu_{max} = h \frac{c}{\lambda_{SWL}}$$

continuous & characteristic X-ray



$$I_{\text{cont}} = AiZV^2$$

$$I_K = B_S i (V - V_K)^{1.67}$$

I_{cont} = total intensity of white X-ray, i = tube current,
 I_K = K_{α} intensity, Z = atomic number, V = voltage,
 V_K = voltage to eject K-shell electron,
 A, B_S = constant

X-ray absorption and Ni filter

- X-rays which enter a sample are scattered by electrons around the nucleus of atoms → the reduction in intensity of X-rays

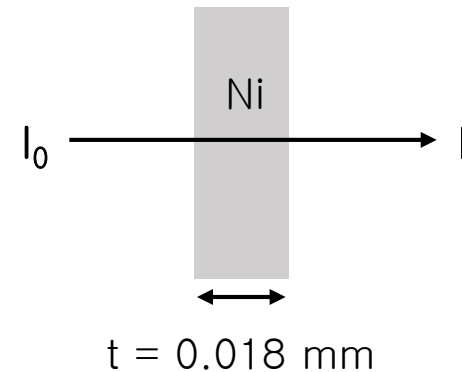
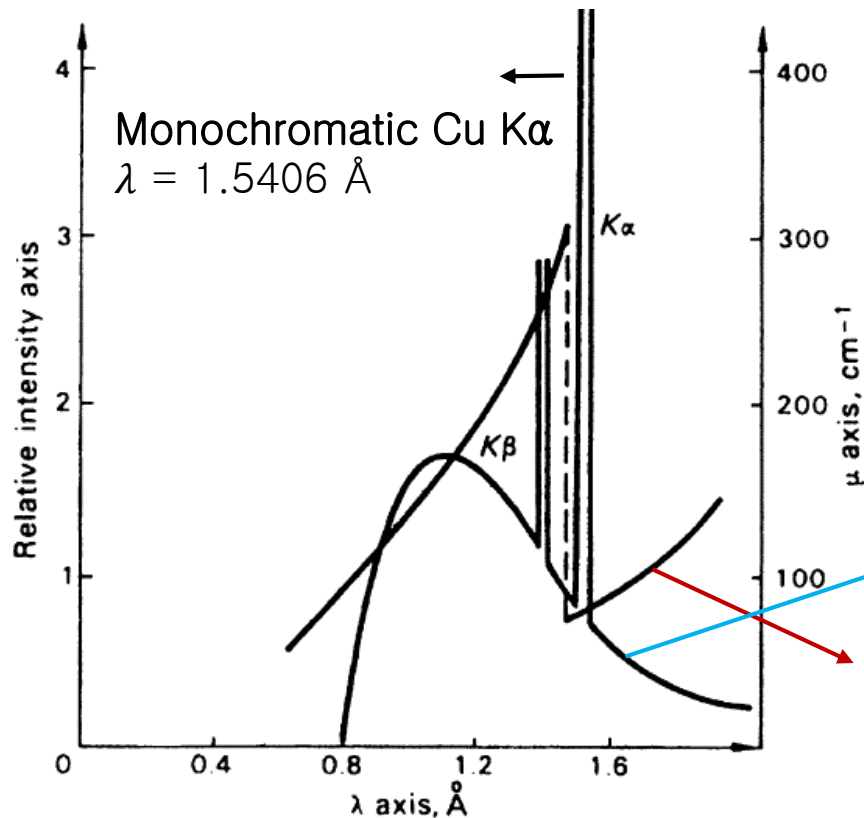
$$I = I_0 e^{-\mu x}$$

μ = linear absorption coefficient : the extent of absorption

I_0 = intensity of incident beam

x = the distance passed through

- μ depends on wavelength and absorbing material



X-ray radiation of Cu target

Linear absorption coefficient for Ni
(L absorption edge = 1.4886 \AA)

Interference on a set of lattice planes

- X-ray diffraction: a combined effect of interference and scattering
- Assume that a parallel, monochromatic beam of **X-rays** falls on a set of **lattice planes** with a spacing of **d**, making a glancing angle of **θ** with them.
- The waves I and II will be reflected at A_1 and B.
- At A_1 , the path difference = $\Gamma = BA_1 - A_1B' = BA_3 - BC = CA_3 = 2d\sin\theta$
- An **interference maximum** will be observed when $\Gamma = \lambda$

correlation
↕
Bragg equation: $\lambda = 2d\sin\theta$, $n\lambda = 2(nd)\sin\theta$
(Cu $K\alpha$ line, $\lambda = 1.5406 \text{ \AA}$)

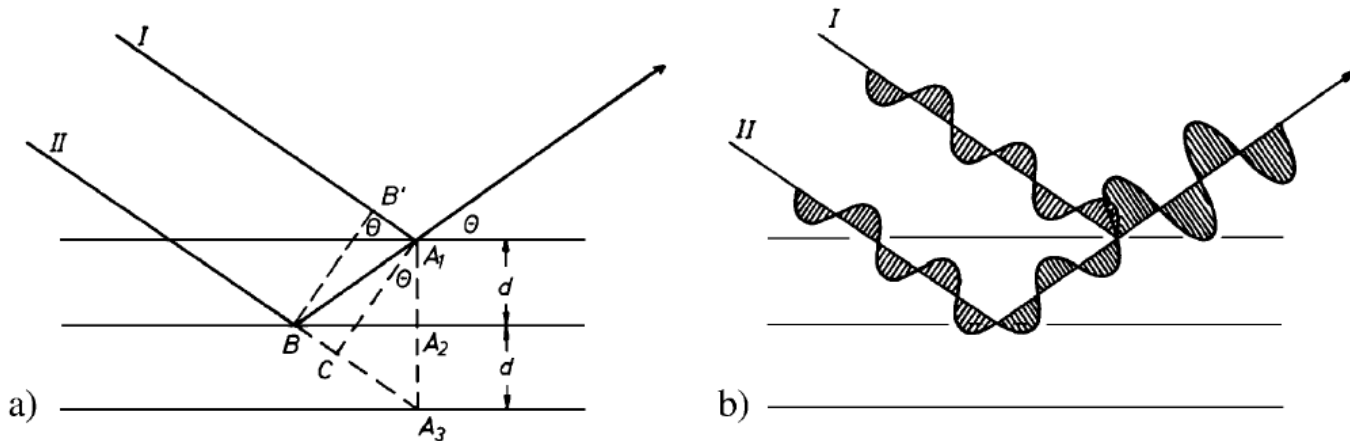


Fig. 13.1a Diffraction (“reflection”) of an X-ray beam by a set of lattice planes. **b** Interference of waves reflected by a set of lattice planes ($\Gamma = 1\lambda$)

Scattering by a unit cell

- **Structure factor:** sum of the scattered waves from (hkl) lattice planes by atoms in a unit cell

The diffraction intensity $\propto |F_{hkl}|^2$.

$$F_{hkl} = \sum_{j=1}^N f_j e^{2\pi i(hu_j + kv_j + lw_j)}$$

N = total number of atoms in a unit cell

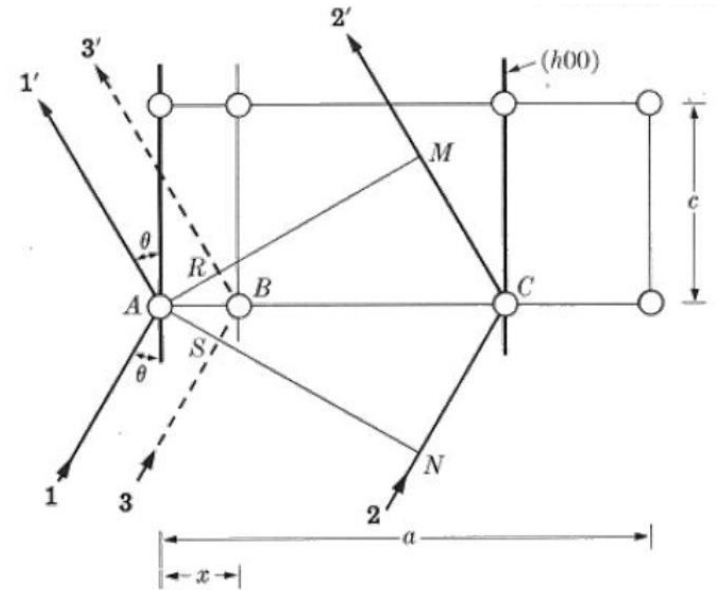
f_j = atomic scattering factor of the j th atom

u_j, v_j, w_j = fractional coordinates of the j th atom

$u = x/a, v = y/b, w = z/c$

a, b, c = lattice parameters

x, y, z = actual coordinates



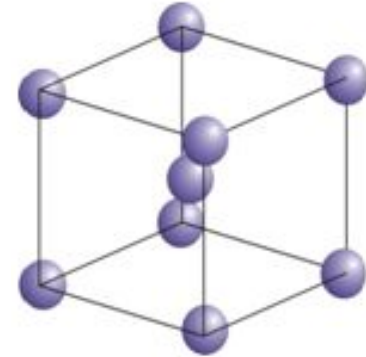
1. Describes how atomic arrangement (uvw) influences the intensity of the scattered beam
2. It tells us which reflections (i.e., peaks, hkl) to be expected in a diffraction pattern

Structure factor

ex) **body-centered cell** composed of the same element

$$F_{hkl} = \sum_{j=1}^N f_j e^{2\pi i(hu_j + kv_j + lw_j)}$$

$$uvw = 000, \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2}$$



$$F = f e^{2\pi i \times 0} + f e^{2\pi i \left(\frac{h}{2} + \frac{k}{2} + \frac{l}{2}\right)} = f [1 + e^{\pi i(h+k+l)}] = f [1 + (-1)^{h+k+l}]$$

When the number of $(h + k + l)$ is even: $F = 2f$, $F^2 = 4f^2$

When the number of $(h + k + l)$ is odd: $F = 0$, $F^2 = 0$

$$(cf) e^{n\pi i} = (-1)^n, e^{n\pi i} = e^{-n\pi i}$$

(110), (200), (211) reflections are possible

(111), (210), (300) are impossible

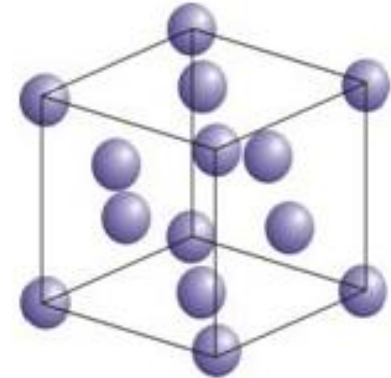
The **structure factor** is completely independent of the shape and size of the unit cell, and critically **depends on the actual atomic arrangement**

Structure factor

ex) face-centered cell composed of the same element

$$F_{hkl} = \sum_{j=1}^N f_j e^{2\pi i(hu_j + kv_j + lw_j)}$$

$$uvw = 000, \frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{2}0, 0\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}0\frac{1}{2}$$



$$F_{hkl} = f[1 + e^{-i\pi(h+k)} + e^{-i\pi(k+l)} + e^{-i\pi(h+l)}]$$

$$F_{hkl} = f[1 + (-1)^{h+k} + (-1)^{k+l} + (-1)^{h+l}] \quad (\text{cf}) \quad e^{n\pi i} = (-1)^n, \quad e^{-n\pi i} = e^{-n\pi i}$$

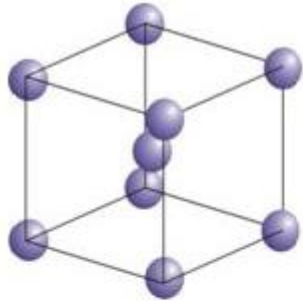
When h, k, l are all even or odd: $F = 4f$, $F^2 = 16f^2$

When h, k, l are mixed parity: $F = 0$, $F^2 = 0$

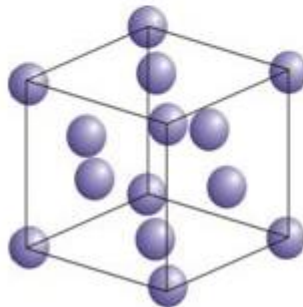
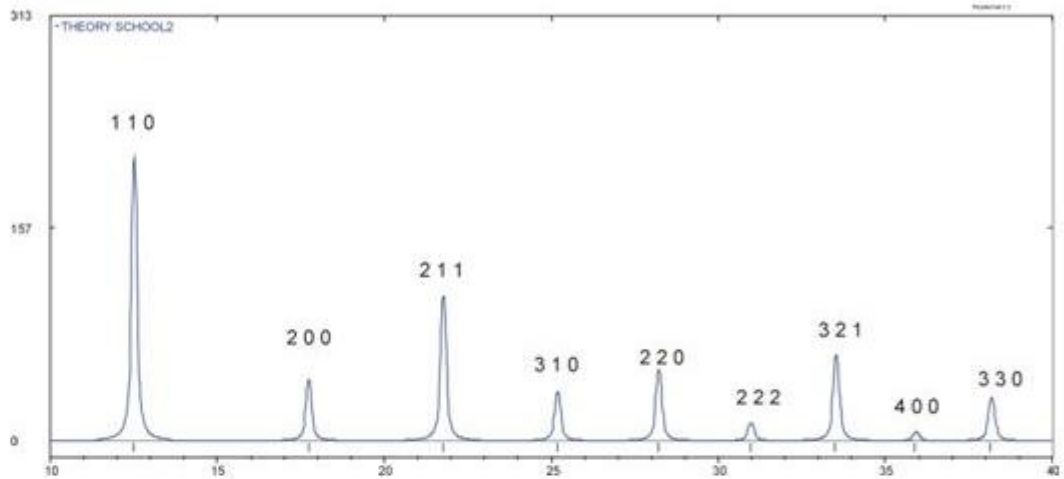
(111) , (200) , (220) , (311) , (222) reflections are possible

The **structure factor** is completely independent of the shape and size of the unit cell, and critically **depends on the actual atomic arrangement**

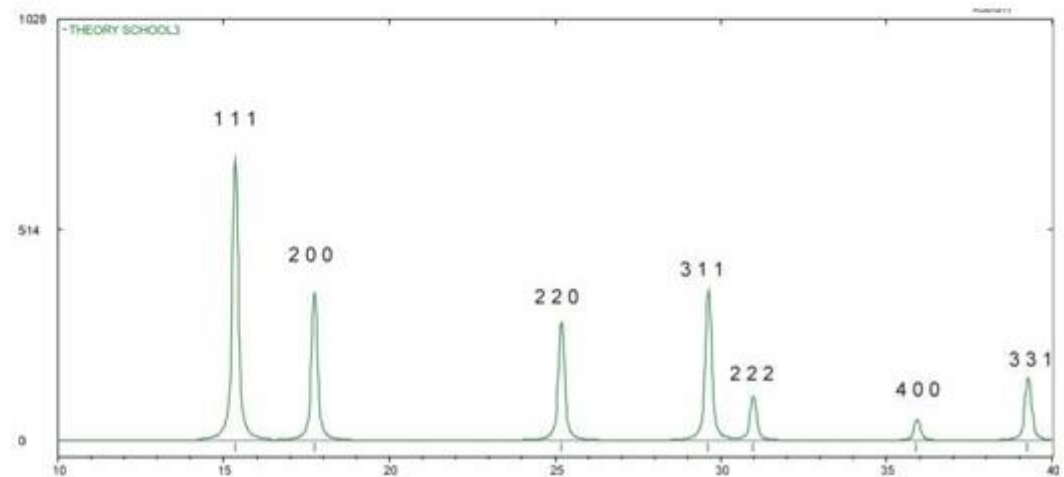
Structure factor



Body Centred Cubic

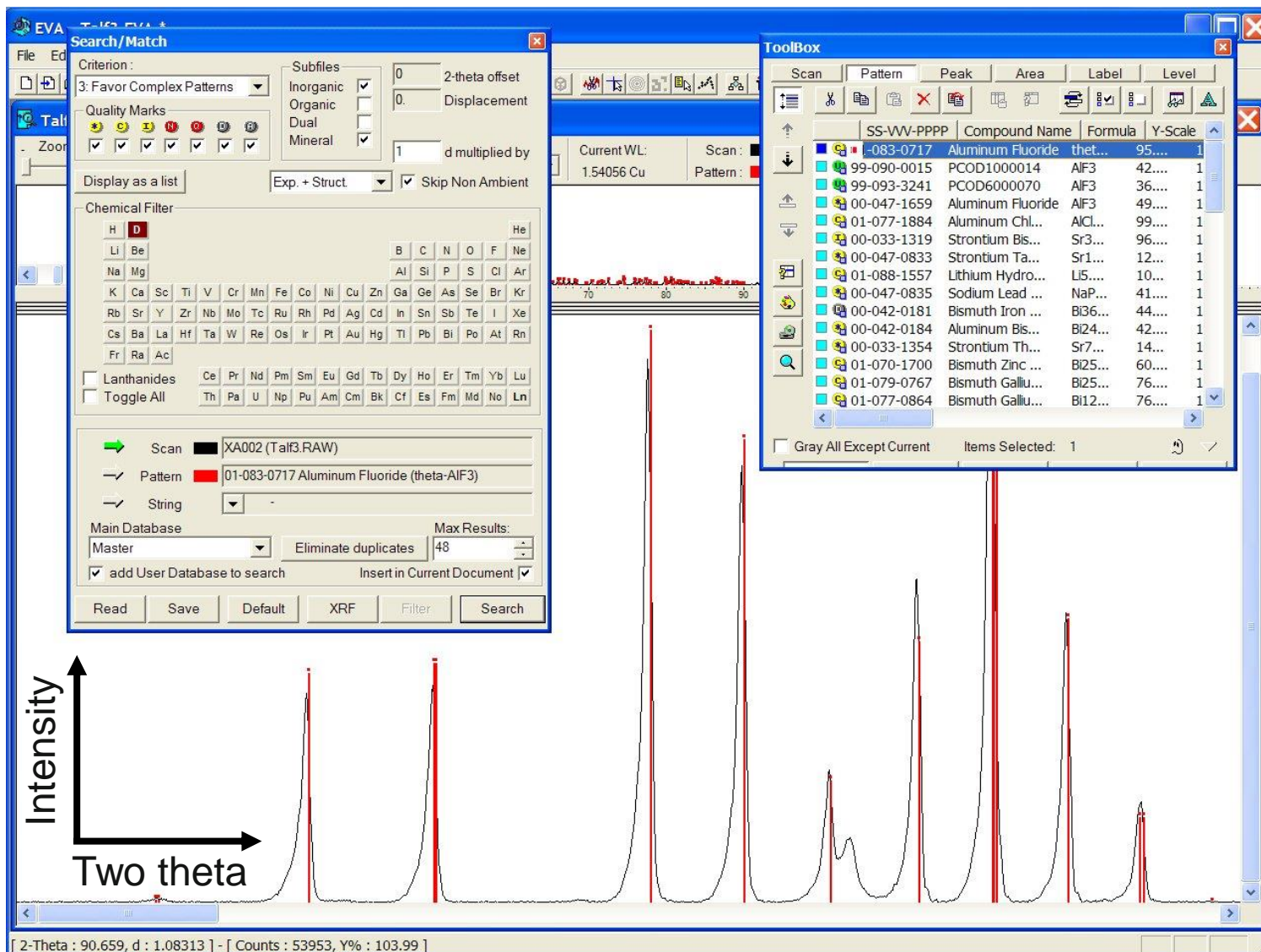


Face Centred Cubic



XRD data analysis using software

Qualitative Identification of phase : *search and match* !



Database

- ICDD(International Centre for Diffraction Data): a scientific organization dedicated to collecting, editing, publishing, and distributing powder diffraction data for the identification of crystalline materials [Previously, JCPDS]
- PDF (powder diffraction file): a collection of single-phase X-ray powder diffraction patterns in the form of tables of characteristic interplanar spacings and corresponding relative intensities along with other pertinent physical and crystallographic properties

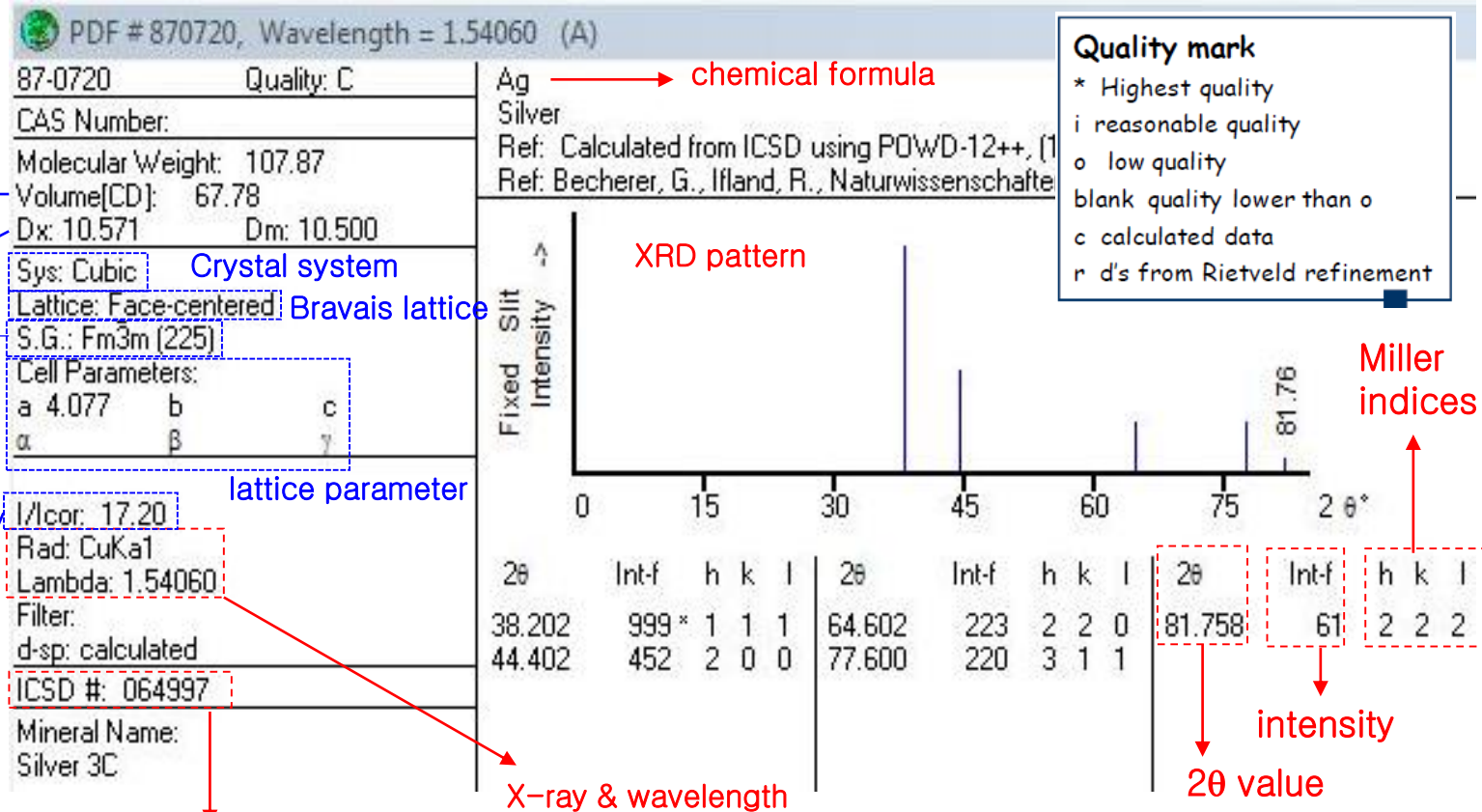
Space group: a group representing symmetries and atomic configuration in a unit cell

Unit cell volume

Crystallographically
Calculated density
(D_m : measured
density in g/cm³)

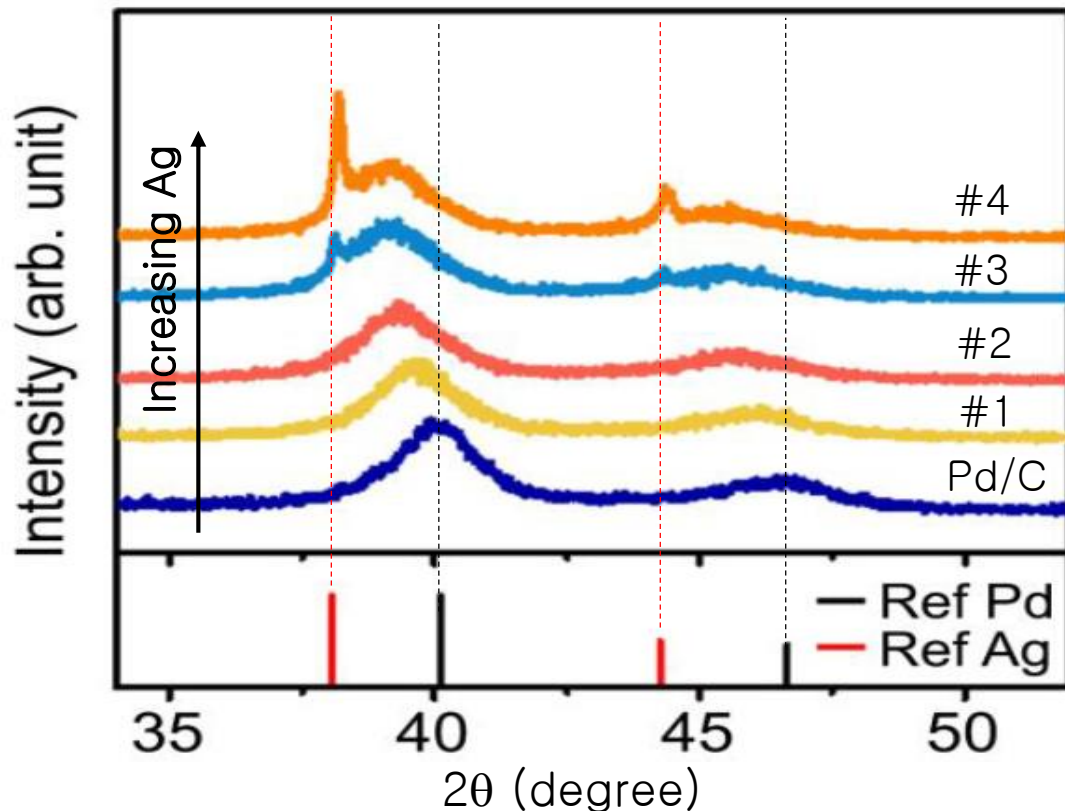
$$\frac{I_b}{I_a} = \frac{(I/I_c)_a}{(I/I_c)_b} \times \frac{X_a}{X_b}$$

I/I_{cor} : reference intensity ratio
Corundum: a crystalline Al₂O₃

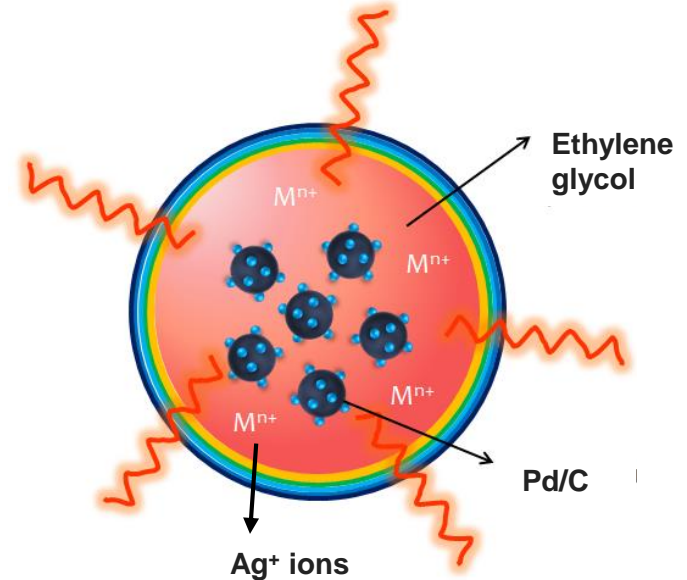


Example for XRD data analysis

XRD patterns of Pd–Ag alloy samples



*Microwave-assisted
Polyol method*



1. What is the crystal structure and phase ?

→ Pd/C: Pd metal with face-centered cubic (FCC) crystal structure

→ #1 & #2: Pd–Ag alloy with unidentified composition

→ #3 & #4: the mixture of Pd–Ag alloy and pure Ag crystal

2. Why does the shift of 2θ values occur? → $\lambda = 2d\sin\theta$

3. How can we quantify the change of lattice parameters ?

d-spacing & lattice parameter

Assume a set of planes (h k l) of orthorhombic crystal near the origin.

$$a_0 \times \frac{1}{h} \times \cos \phi_a = d_{hkl}$$

$$b_0 \times \frac{1}{k} \times \cos \phi_b = d_{hkl}$$

$$c_0 \times \frac{1}{l} \times \cos \phi_c = d_{hkl}$$

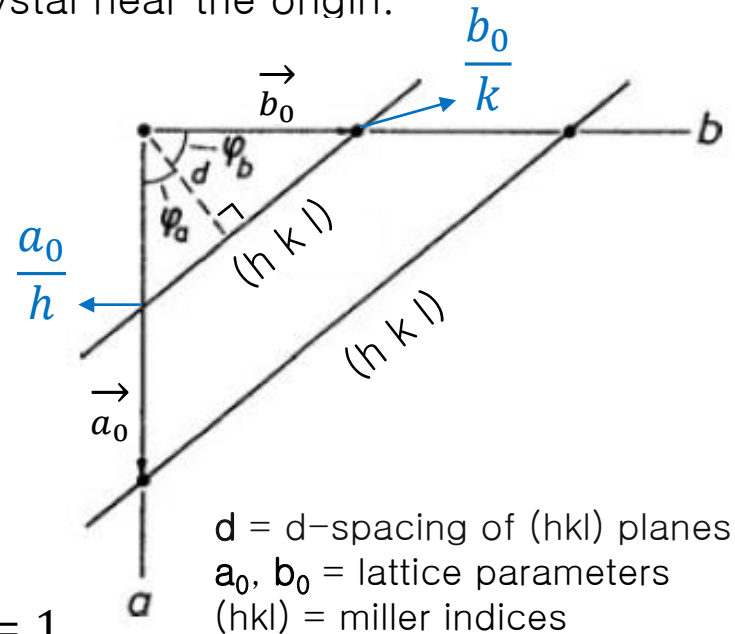
$$\cos^2 \phi_a + \cos^2 \phi_b + \cos^2 \phi_c = d_{hkl}^2 \left(\frac{h^2}{a_0^2} + \frac{k^2}{b_0^2} + \frac{l^2}{c_0^2} \right) = 1$$

(orthorhombic system)

$$d_{hkl} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{h^2}{a_0^2} + \frac{k^2}{b_0^2} + \frac{l^2}{c_0^2}}}$$

(cubic system, $a_0 = b_0 = c_0$)

$$d_{hkl} = \frac{a_0}{\sqrt{h^2 + k^2 + l^2}}$$



Relationship between the miller indices, d-spacings and lattice parameters

Determination of lattice parameter

By substituting the equation for the d-spacing into the Bragg equation:

$$d_{hkl} = \frac{a_0}{\sqrt{h^2 + k^2 + l^2}} \xrightarrow{\lambda = 2d\sin\theta} \sin^2\theta = \frac{\lambda^2}{4a_0^2} (h^2 + k^2 + l^2) \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

$$a_0^2 = \frac{\lambda^2}{4\sin^2\theta} (h^2 + k^2 + l^2) \quad (\text{Eq. 2})$$

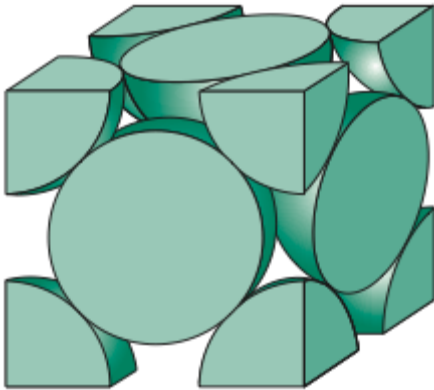
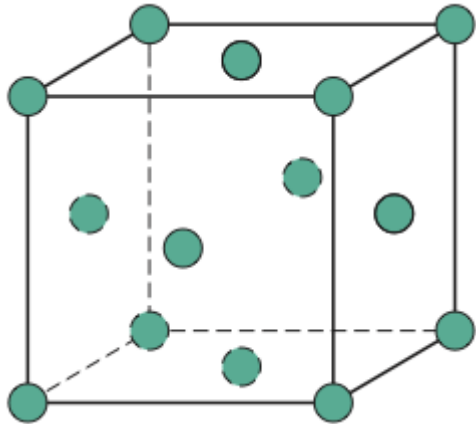
- The Eq. 1 suggests that the **diffraction angle** can be determined from **the shape and size of the unit cell**. “*principle of XRD measurement*”
- One can determine **lattice parameters** by measuring **diffraction angles** from Eq. 2.

Sample	Plane	2θ (degree)	d-spacing, d_{hkl} (Å)	Lattice parameter (Å)
Pd/C	(111)	40.032	2.250	3.898
#1	(111)	39.674	2.270	3.932
#2	(111)	39.380	2.286	3.960

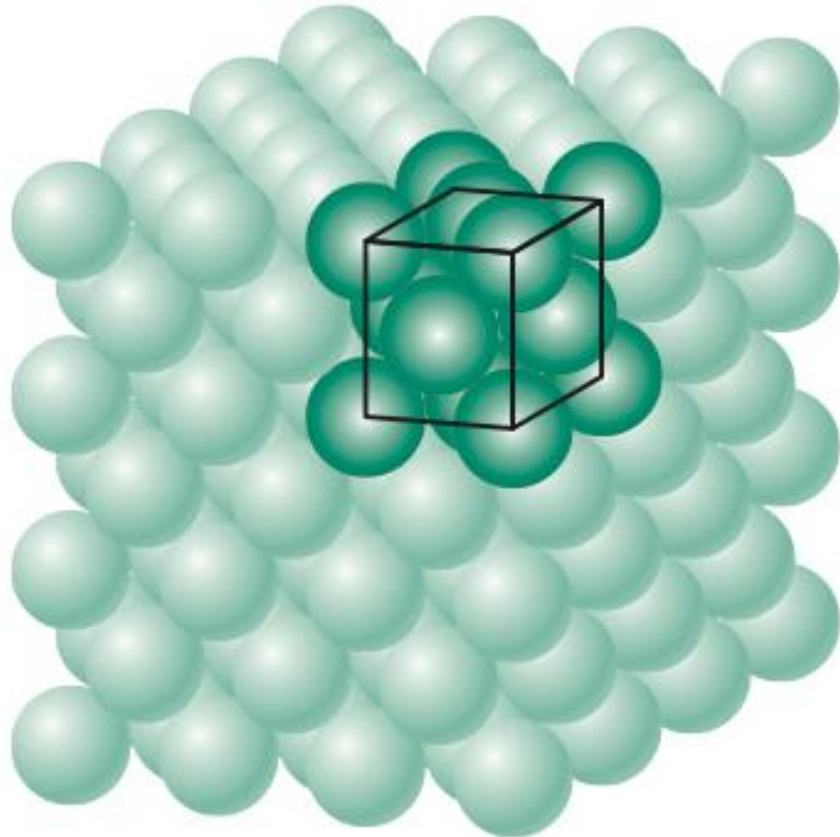
1.59% expansion

$$a_0 = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda^2}{4\sin^2\theta} (h^2 + k^2 + l^2)} = \sqrt{\frac{(1.5406 \text{ Å})^2}{4 \times \sin^2(20.016^\circ)} (1^2 + 1^2 + 1^2)} = 3.898 \text{ Å}$$

Lattice expansion



FCC crystal structure



d-spacing & lattice parameter

Table below provide the relationship between the **d-spacings** for specific **Miller indices** and the **lattice parameters** for each crystal system.

Table 3.1 Information of plane spacing for seven crystal systems

Cubic	$\frac{1}{d^2} = \frac{h^2 + k^2 + l^2}{a^2}$	
Tetragonal	$\frac{1}{d^2} = \frac{h^2 + k^2}{a^2} + \frac{l^2}{c^2}$	→ At least two d_{hkl} values are required
Hexagonal	$\frac{1}{d^2} = \frac{4}{3} \left(\frac{h^2 + hk + k^2}{a^2} \right) + \frac{l^2}{c^2}$	
Trigonal	$\frac{1}{d^2} = \frac{(h^2 + k^2 + l^2) \sin^2 \alpha + 2(hk + kl + hl)(\cos^2 \alpha - \cos \alpha)}{a^2(1 - 3 \cos^2 \alpha + 2 \cos^3 \alpha)}$	
Orthorhombic	$\frac{1}{d^2} = \frac{h^2}{a^2} + \frac{k^2}{b^2} + \frac{l^2}{c^2}$	→ At least three d_{hkl} values are required
Monoclinic	$\frac{1}{d^2} = \frac{1}{\sin^2 \beta} \left(\frac{h^2}{a^2} + \frac{k^2 \sin^2 \beta}{b^2} + \frac{l^2}{c^2} - \frac{2hl \cos \beta}{ac} \right)$	
Triclinic	$\frac{1}{d^2} = \frac{1}{V^2} (S_{11}h^2 + S_{22}k^2 + S_{33}l^2 + 2S_{12}hk + 2S_{23}kl + 2S_{13}hl)$	

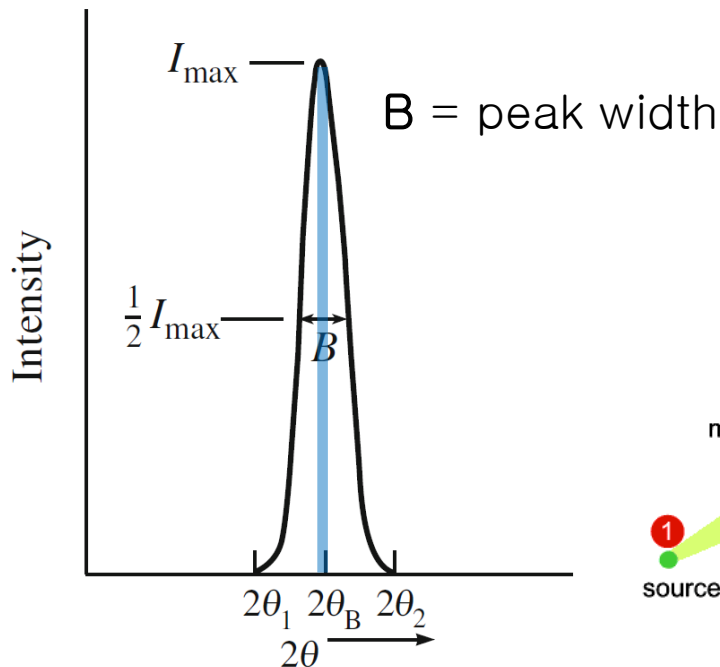
On the triclinic system, V is the volume of a unit cell and the coefficients are given below.

$$\begin{aligned}
 S_{11} &= b^2 c^2 \sin^2 \alpha, & S_{12} &= abc^2 (\cos \alpha \cos \beta - \cos \gamma), \\
 S_{22} &= a^2 c^2 \sin^2 \beta, & S_{23} &= a^2 bc (\cos \beta \cos \gamma - \cos \alpha), \\
 S_{33} &= a^2 b^2 \sin^2 \gamma, & S_{13} &= ab^2 c (\cos \gamma \cos \alpha - \cos \beta)
 \end{aligned}$$

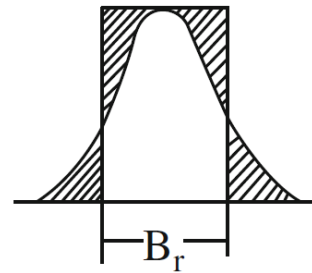
Line broadening

- Diffraction peak has the shape of distribution rather than a line (ideal case)
- Source: **instrumental** broadening + **size** broadening + **strain** broadening

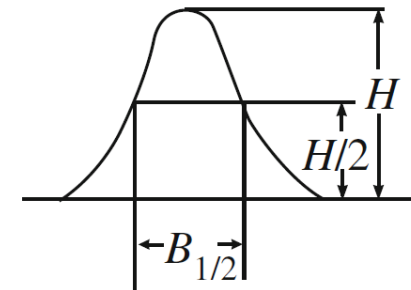
Schematic diagram for X-ray diffraction peak profile of a fine crystalline sample



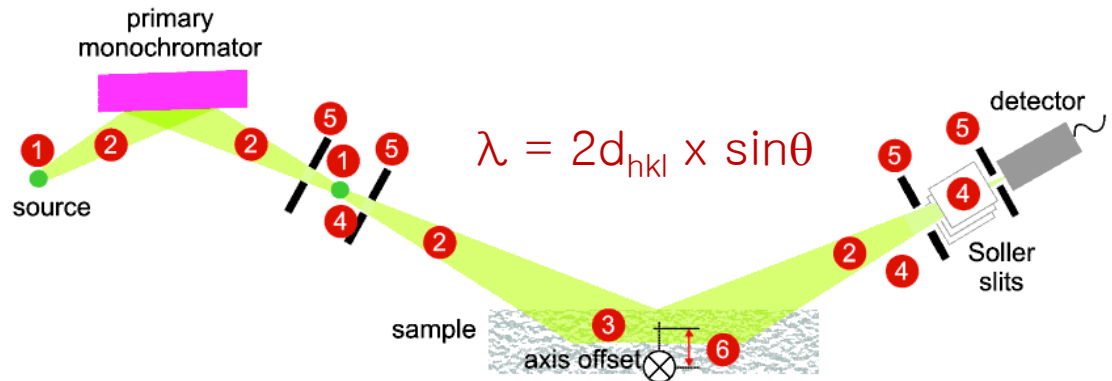
Integral breadth



FWHM



- FWHM: the full width at half maximum
- Integral breadth: the width of a rectangle having the same area and the same height as the peak



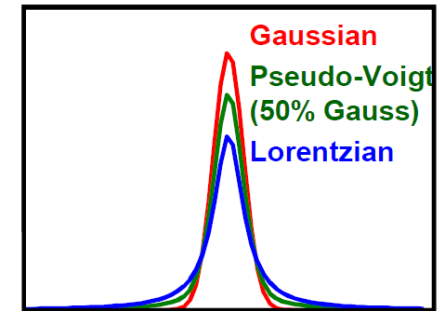
Instrumental contributions:

- (1) X-ray is not perfectly monochromatic. Superposition of $K\alpha_1$ and $K\alpha_2$ (λ distribution)
- (2) Divergence issue of incident/reflected beams and slit width (θ distribution)

Line broadening

Depending on peak shape, different correction method

- Lorentzian: $\beta_{\text{observed}} = \beta_{\text{instrument}} + \beta_{\text{size}} + \beta_{\text{strain}}$
- Gaussian: $\beta_{\text{observed}}^2 = \beta_{\text{instrument}}^2 + \beta_{\text{size}}^2 + \beta_{\text{strain}}^2$



the instrumental broadening can be determined using a standard material with very high crystallinity and large particle size

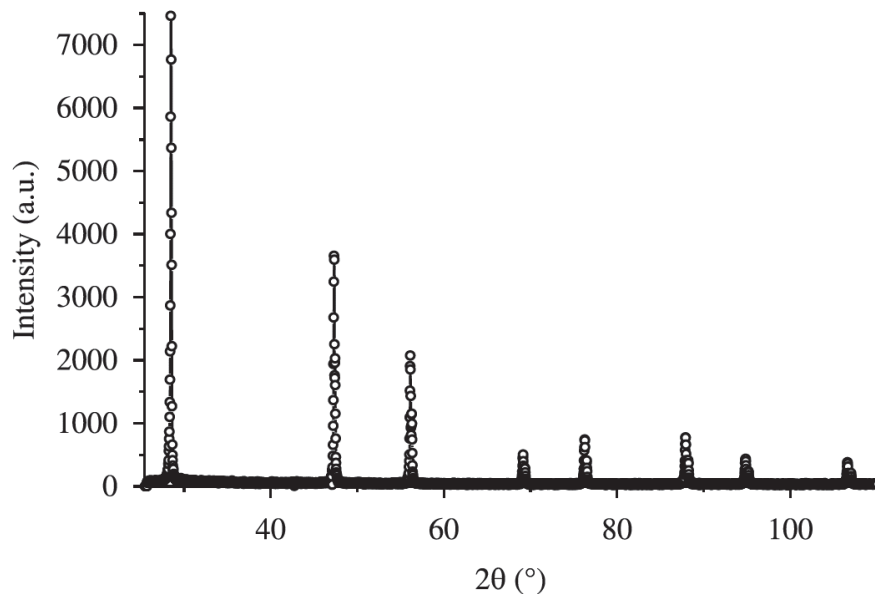


Figure 1. XRD pattern of standard silicon powder.

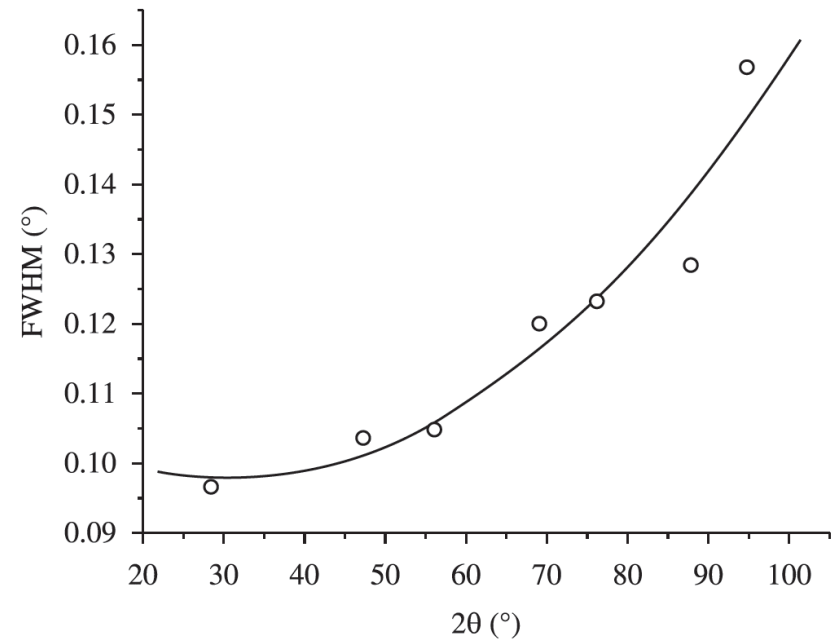


Figure 3. Instrumental broadening against 2θ for standard Silicon powder.

Size broadening

(Effective in < c.a. 100 nm)

Scherrer equation:

$$B = \frac{K\lambda}{D\cos\theta_B}$$

λ : X-ray wavelength

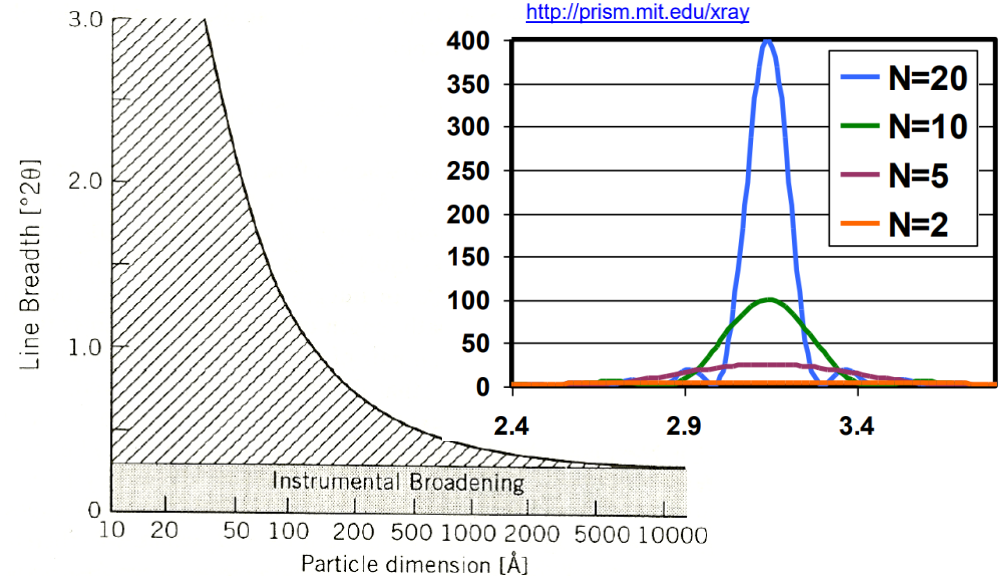
θ_B : Bragg angle

K : Scherrer constant

(shape factor, 0.94 for FWHM of spherical crystals)

B : peak width in radians, corrected for instrumental broadening

D : a volume-weighted mean of crystallite sizes in the direction normal to the reflecting planes



- Peak width (B) is inversely proportional to crystallite size (D)

Infinite crystals means perfect periodicity and diffraction

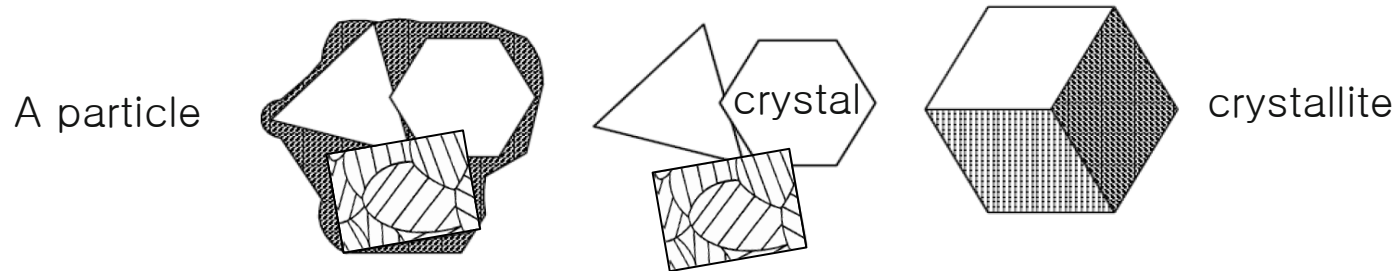
“The smaller the crystal, the smaller the number of periods, and thus the less perfect the Bragg diffraction”

- Peak width (B) is inversely proportional to $\cos\theta_B$

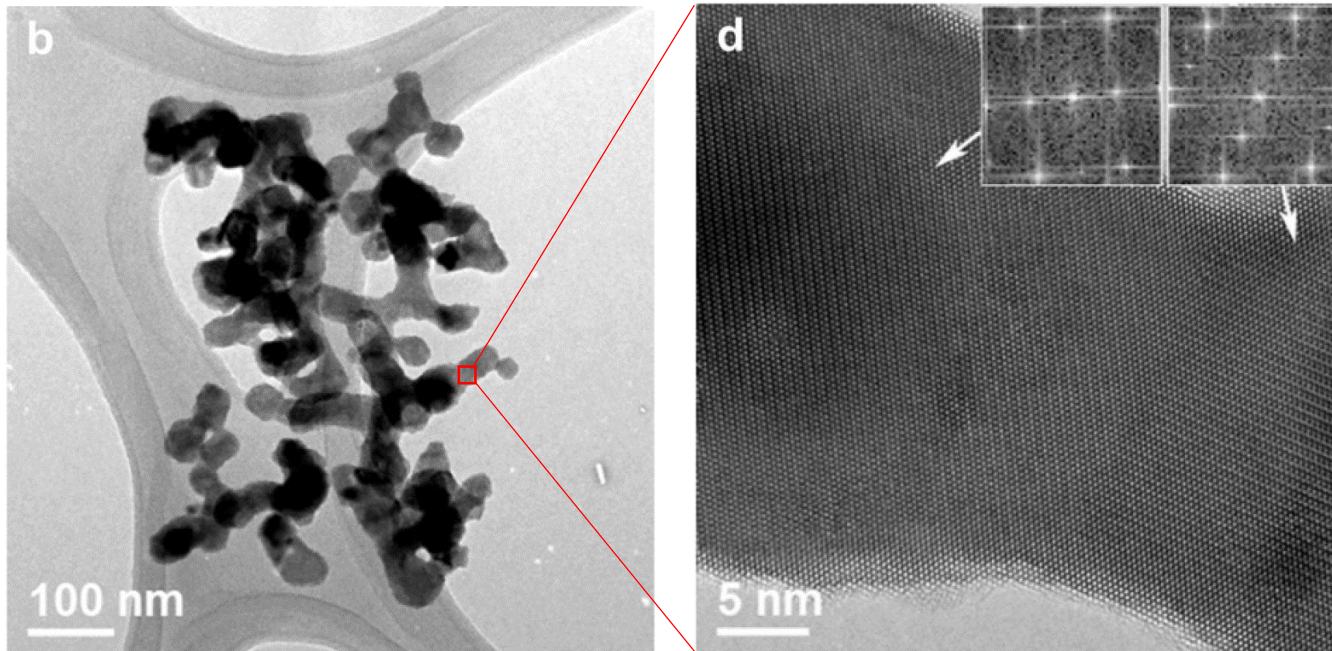
“The size broadening is more pronounced at larger 2θ angles”

What is crystallite size

[Figure taken from the TOPAS 3.0 Users Manual, Bruker AXS]



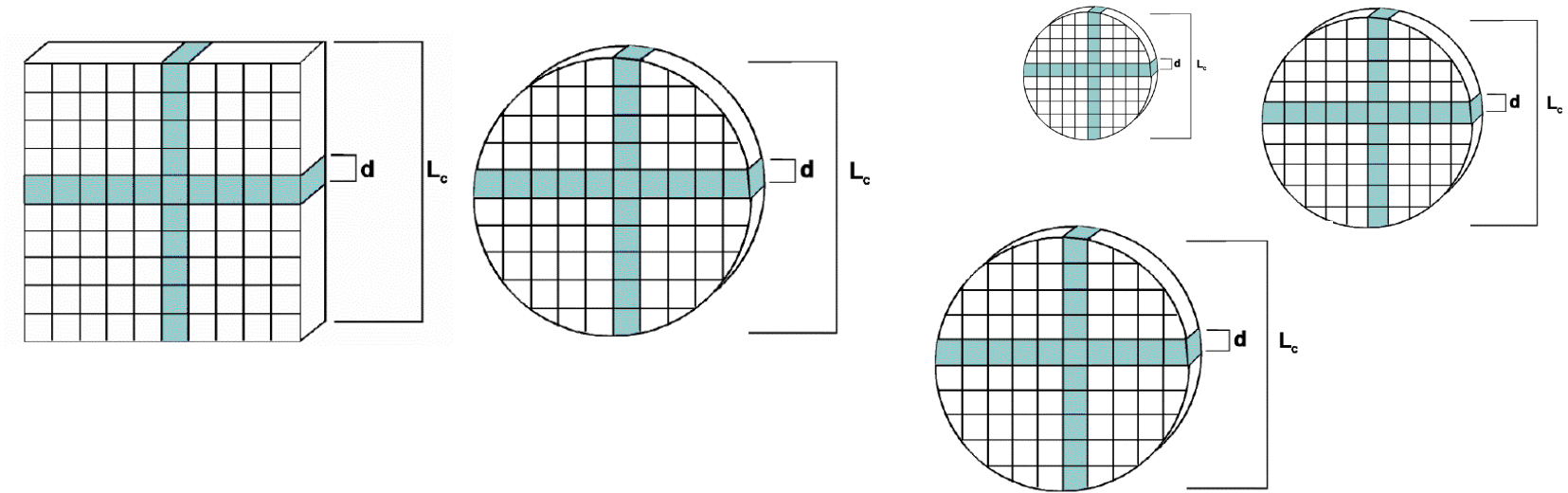
- **A particle** may consist of one or more crystals which are fused together
- **A crystal** may consist of several crystallites with different crystallographic orientations, which are fused by small angle boundaries
- **crystallite**: a small region of a solid with a single-crystalline property



<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhydene.2012.04.063> (22.09.16)

http://www.fhi-berlin.mpg.de/acnew/departement/pages/teaching/pages/teaching_wintersemester_2015_2016/frank_girgsdies_peak_profile_fitting_in_xrd_151106.pdf (22.09.16)

What is crystallite size



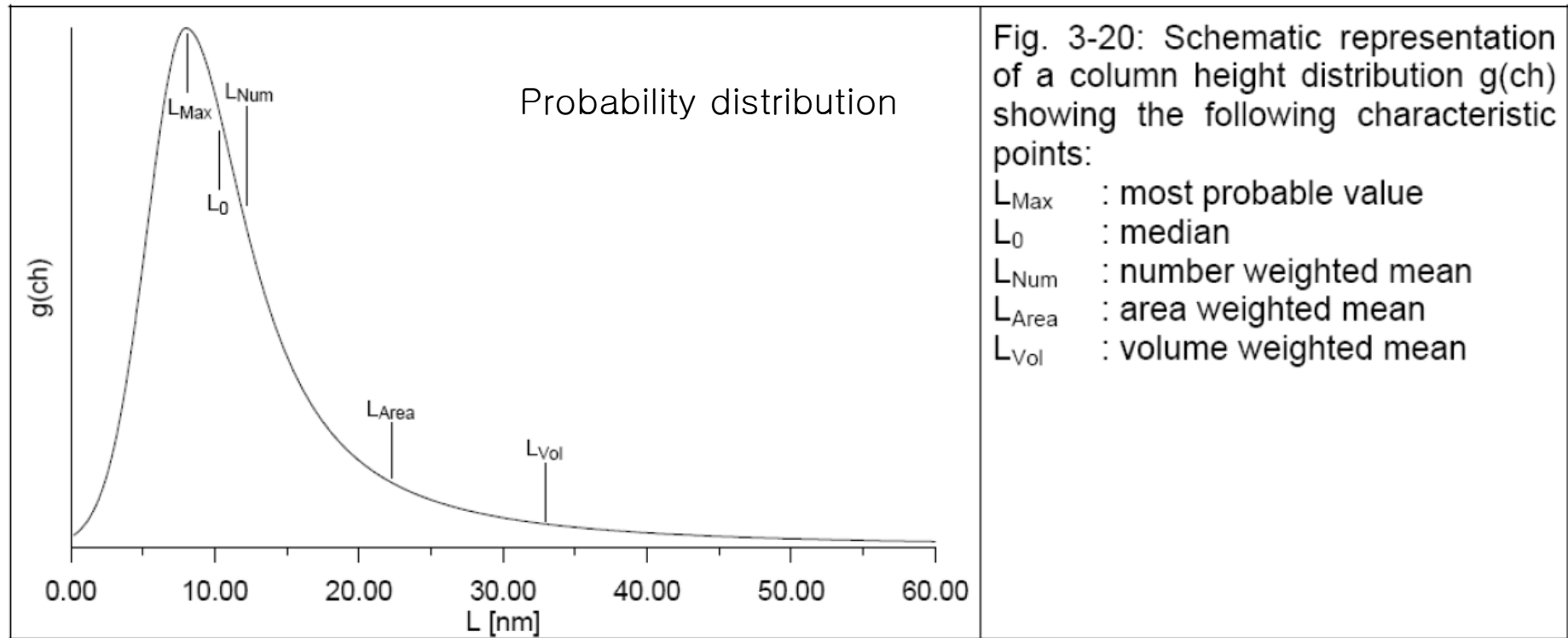
- The crystallite size will be different between crystallites
- Even in a single crystallite, various lengths of columns are present
- we need to know the weighing scheme of crystallite sizes
- X-ray diffraction is a volume effect. So, the **derived size is a volume-weighted mean**

(ex) Let us assume **two crystallites** (diameter = 1 for the 1st, and 2 for the 2nd)

- arithmetic mean size = $1 \times \frac{1}{2} + 2 \times \frac{1}{2} = 1.5$
- area weighted mean size = $1 \times \frac{1}{5} + 2 \times \frac{4}{5} = 1.8$
- volume weighted mean size = $1 \times \frac{1}{9} + 2 \times \frac{8}{9} = 1.89$

What is crystallite size

The crystallite size and the most common size are different



[Figure taken from the TOPAS 3.0 Users Manual, Bruker AXS]

L_{max} : most common value

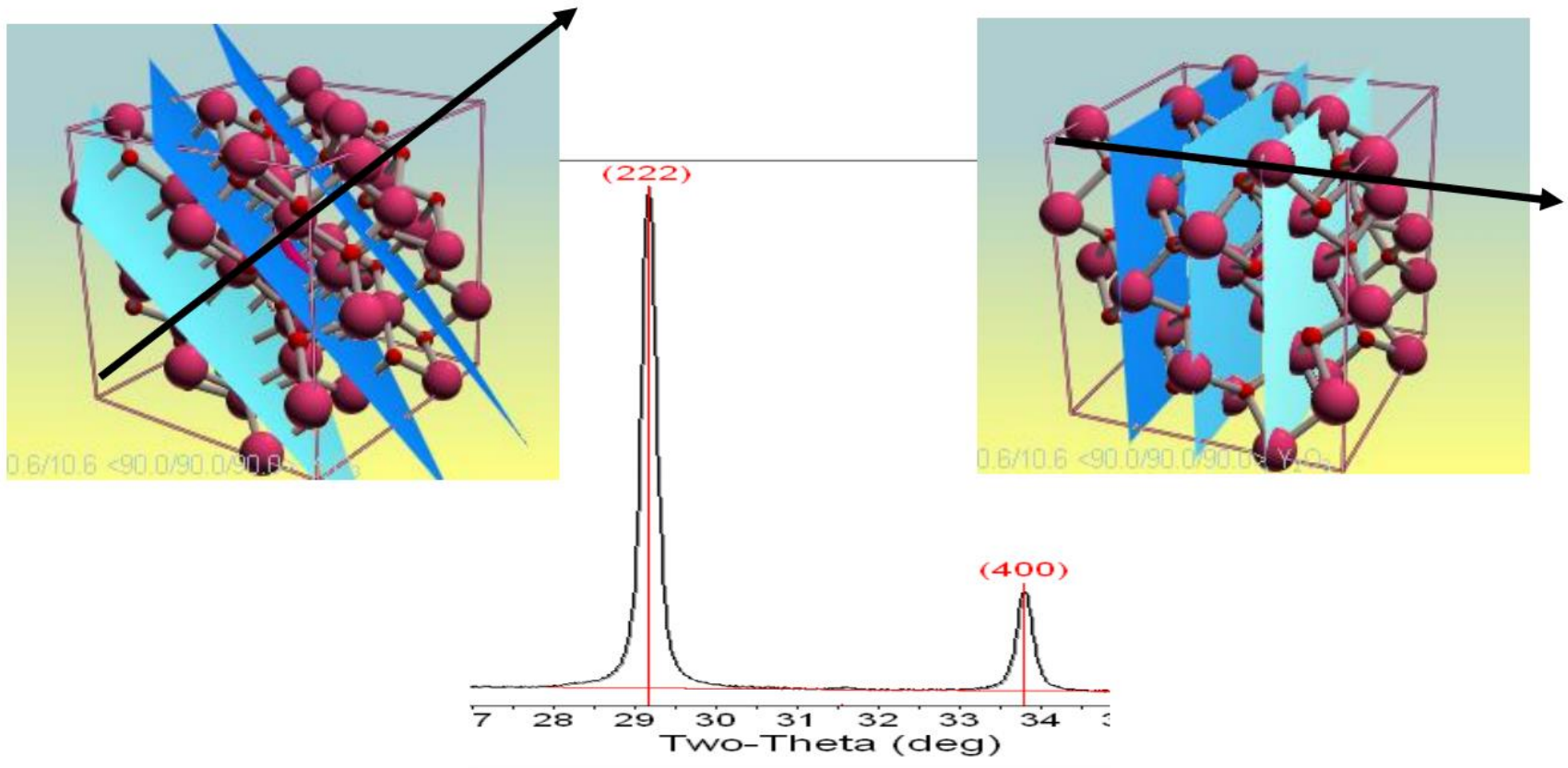
L_0 : the value at which the integral of the curve is cut into two halves

L_{num} : number weighted mean (arithmetic mean)

L_{area} , L_{vol} : each value is given with a different weight according to the fraction that their area or volume contributes to the total area or volume.

What is crystallite size

- The broadening of a single diffraction peak is the product of the crystallite dimensions in the direction perpendicular to the planes that produced the diffraction peak.



Example

(Effective in < c.a. 100 nm)

$$D = \frac{K\lambda}{B\cos\theta_B}$$

λ : 0.15406 (nm)

θ_B : peak position (radians)

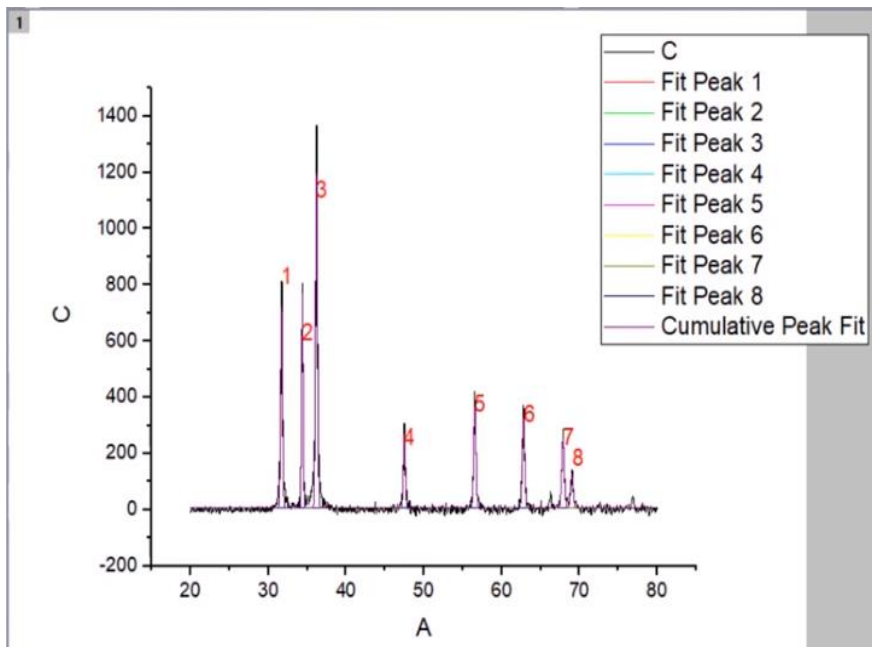
K : 0.94 for FWHM of spherical crystals

B : FWHM (radians)

D : crystallite sizes in the direction normal to (hkl) (nm)

Procedure:

(1) XRD data; (2) Peak Fit; (3) θ_B , FWHM; (4) calculation



$$D = \frac{0.94 \times 0.15406 \text{ nm}}{(0.28673^\circ * \frac{\pi \text{ rad}}{180^\circ}) \cos(\frac{31.70868^\circ}{2} * \frac{\pi \text{ rad}}{180^\circ})}$$

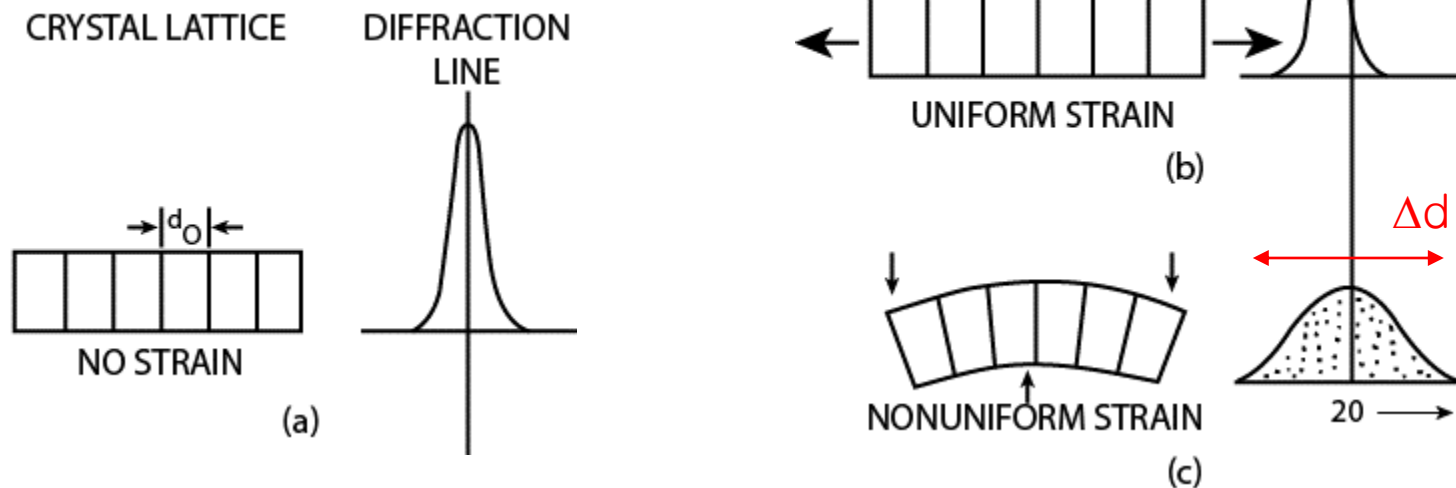
$$D = 30.08227 \text{ nm}$$

$$D_{\text{average}} = 29.3 \text{ nm}$$

peak position (2θ, °)	FWHM(°)	crystallite size D (nm)
31.70868	0.28673	30.08226516
34.36301	0.22556	38.50392314
36.19607	0.29529	29.56156776
47.47974	0.29426	30.80395372
56.54624	0.35102	26.83988698
62.80407	0.35766	27.18003745
67.8968	0.40304	24.81729582
69.03285	0.38421	26.20979309

The D_{average} is not accurate due to the assumptions and instrumental effect, but gives comparable information .

Strain broadening



- When all crystallites receive a **uniform strain**, each d-spacing changes uniformly and then a **certain shift in the peak position** is observed.
- when applying a **non-uniform strain**, the different size of distortion depending on the place, the d-spacing show divergence at random with a certain width.
- **Lattice strain**: **local deviation of d-spacings** from the average value where the forces of compression and expansion will be balanced
- Origins:
 - point defects like interstitial or missing or substitutional atoms
 - 1-D defects like screw dislocations
 - 2-D defects like twin boundaries
 - surface tensions in nanoparticles, morphological effect such as nanotubes

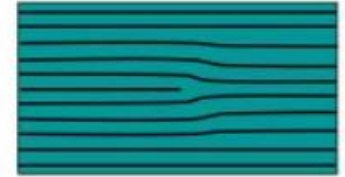
Strain broadening

$$B = 4\varepsilon \frac{\sin\theta_B}{\cos\theta_B} \quad \varepsilon = \frac{\Delta d}{d} (\%)$$

Ideal crystal



Distorted crystal



ε : a volume-weighted mean of lattice strain

θ_B : Bragg angle

B : peak width in radians

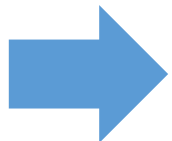
– Peak width (B) is proportional to strain (ε)

“The larger the strain, the higher the broadening”

– Peak width (B) is proportional to $\tan\theta_B$

“The strain broadening is more pronounced at larger 2θ angles”

Combined contribution



$$B_{obs} = B_{inst} + B_{size} + B_{strain} = B_{inst} + \frac{K\lambda}{D\cos\theta_B} + 4\varepsilon\tan\theta_B$$

$$B_{obs}^2 = B_{inst}^2 + B_{size}^2 + B_{strain}^2 = B_{inst}^2 + \left(\frac{K\lambda}{D\cos\theta_B}\right)^2 + (4\varepsilon\tan\theta_B)^2$$

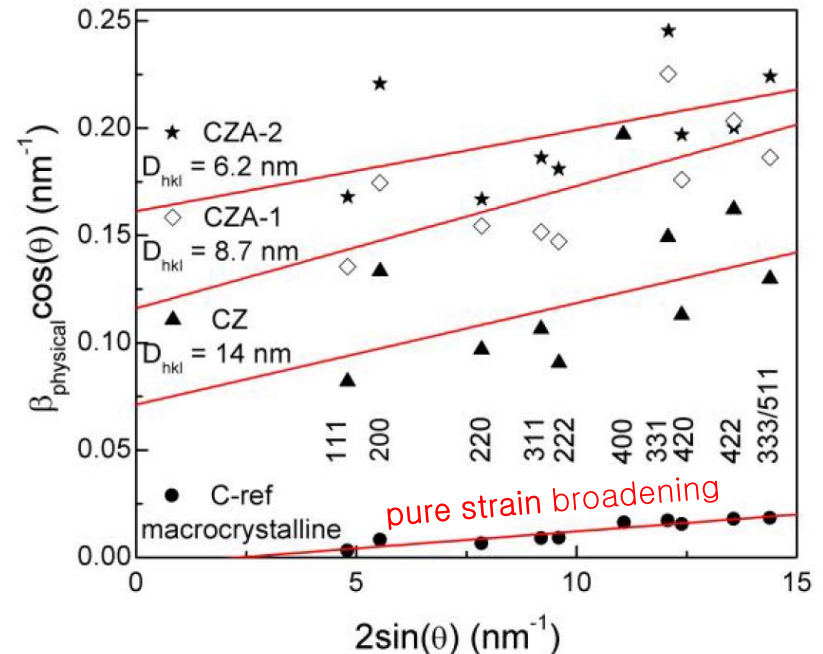
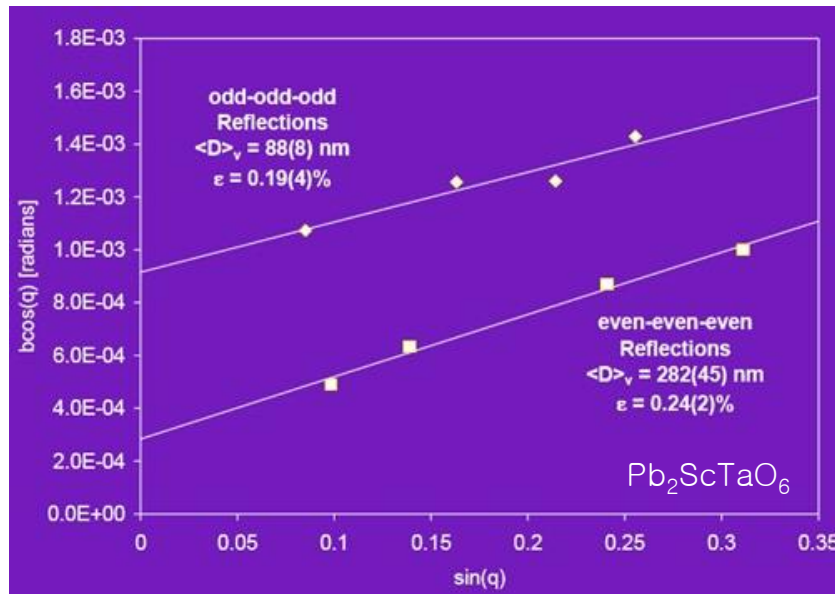
Williamson-Hall analysis

Williamson and Hall (1953) proposed a method for deconvoluting size and strain broadening. Assuming Lorentzian peak shape:

$$B_{obs} - B_{inst} = B_{size} + B_{strain} = \frac{K\lambda}{D\cos\theta_B} + 4\epsilon\tan\theta_B$$

$$\text{y-axis} \leftarrow (B_{obs} - B_{inst})\cos\theta_B = \underbrace{\frac{K\lambda}{D}}_{\text{y-axis intercept: size}} + \underbrace{4\epsilon}_{\text{slope: strain}} \underbrace{\sin\theta_B}_{\text{x-axis}} \rightarrow \text{x-axis}$$

Williamson-Hall plot



RIR-based quantitative analysis

- RIR (reference intensity ratio, I/I_c): the intensity of sample referenced to corundum.
- Experimentally, I/I_c can be determined by taking the ratio of the strongest line of the pattern to the intensity of the strongest line of corundum in a 50/50 wt% mixture.
- Or can be calculated theoretically from crystal structures

$$\text{For analyte: } I_a = \frac{K_a X_a}{\rho_a \mu} \quad \text{For corundum: } I_c = \frac{K_c X_c}{\rho_c \mu}$$

$$\frac{I_a}{I_c} = \frac{K_a \rho_c X_a}{K_c \rho_a X_c} = K \frac{X_a}{X_c} \xrightarrow[50-50 \text{ mixture}]{X_a = X_c} \frac{I_a}{I_c} = K = \left[\frac{I}{I_c} \right]_a$$

- The intensity of a diffraction peak profile is a convolution of many factors including concentration. In the RIR method, we assume that the same phase has similar K_a and ρ_a values.

$$I_{ia} = \frac{K_{ia} X_a}{\rho_a \mu}$$

I_{ia} = intensity of reflection i of phase a (measured)

X_a = wt fraction of phase a (analyzed)

ρ_a = density of phase a

μ = linear attenuation coefficient

K_{ia} = contains structure, multiplicity, temperature, scale factors for reflection i of phase a

RIR-based quantitative analysis

- For any a + b mixture, the intensity ratio is related with their wt% composition.

Known values & constant

Measured

$$\frac{I_a}{I_b} = \frac{\frac{I_a}{I_c}}{\frac{I_b}{I_c}} = \frac{\frac{K_a \rho_c X_a}{K_c \rho_a X_c}}{\frac{K_b \rho_c X_b}{K_c \rho_b X_c}} = \frac{\frac{K_a X_a}{\rho_a}}{\frac{K_b X_b}{\rho_b}} = \frac{K_a}{\rho_a} \times \frac{\rho_b}{K_b} \times \frac{X_a}{X_b} = \frac{\left[\frac{I}{I_c}\right]_a}{\left[\frac{I}{I_c}\right]_b} \times \frac{X_a}{X_b}$$

Example:

Phase	I/I _c	Measured I
a	4.32	2415
b	3.90	5958

$$\left[\frac{I}{I_c}\right]_a = \frac{K_a \rho_c}{K_c \rho_a} \quad \left[\frac{I}{I_c}\right]_b = \frac{K_b \rho_c}{K_c \rho_b}$$

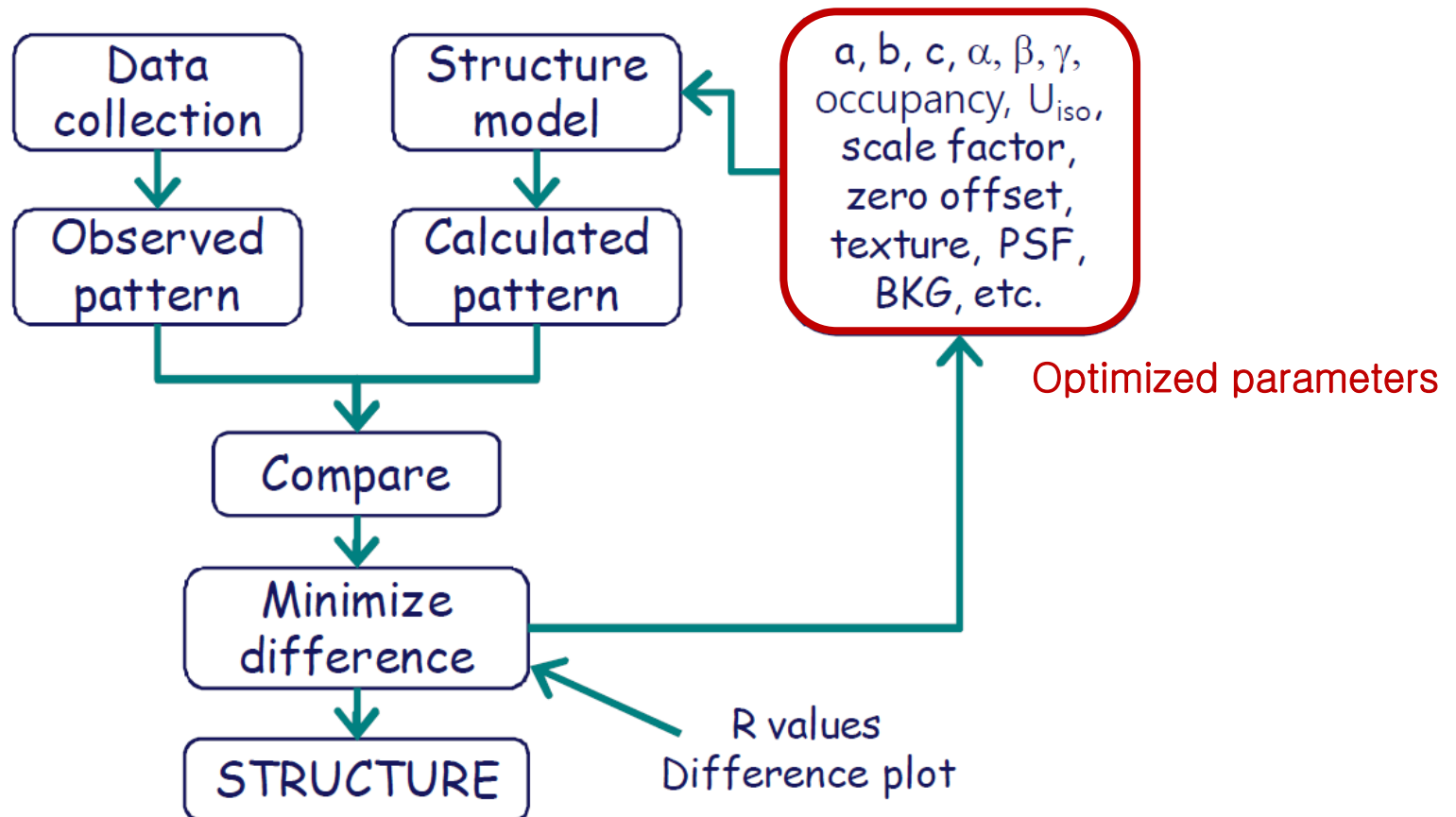
$$\frac{X_a}{X_b} = \frac{1 - X_b}{X_b} = \frac{I_a}{I_b} \times \frac{\left[\frac{I}{I_c}\right]_b}{\left[\frac{I}{I_c}\right]_a} = \frac{2415}{5958} \times \frac{3.90}{4.32} = 0.3659$$

$X_b = 73.2\%$
 $X_a = 26.8\%$

It should be noted that the presence of any unidentified or amorphous phases invalidates the use of this method. Also, the change of instrumental condition can affect the I/I_c values.

Rietveld refinement

- Rietveld Refinement is to **fit** the entire diffraction pattern measured, optimizing the agreement between the **measured** and the **calculated**
- *What input is needed to carry out a Rietveld Refinement?*
 - Correct unit cell parameters, atomic positions, space group symmetry, etc.
 - For known materials, ***.cif file (a starting model)** include all information.



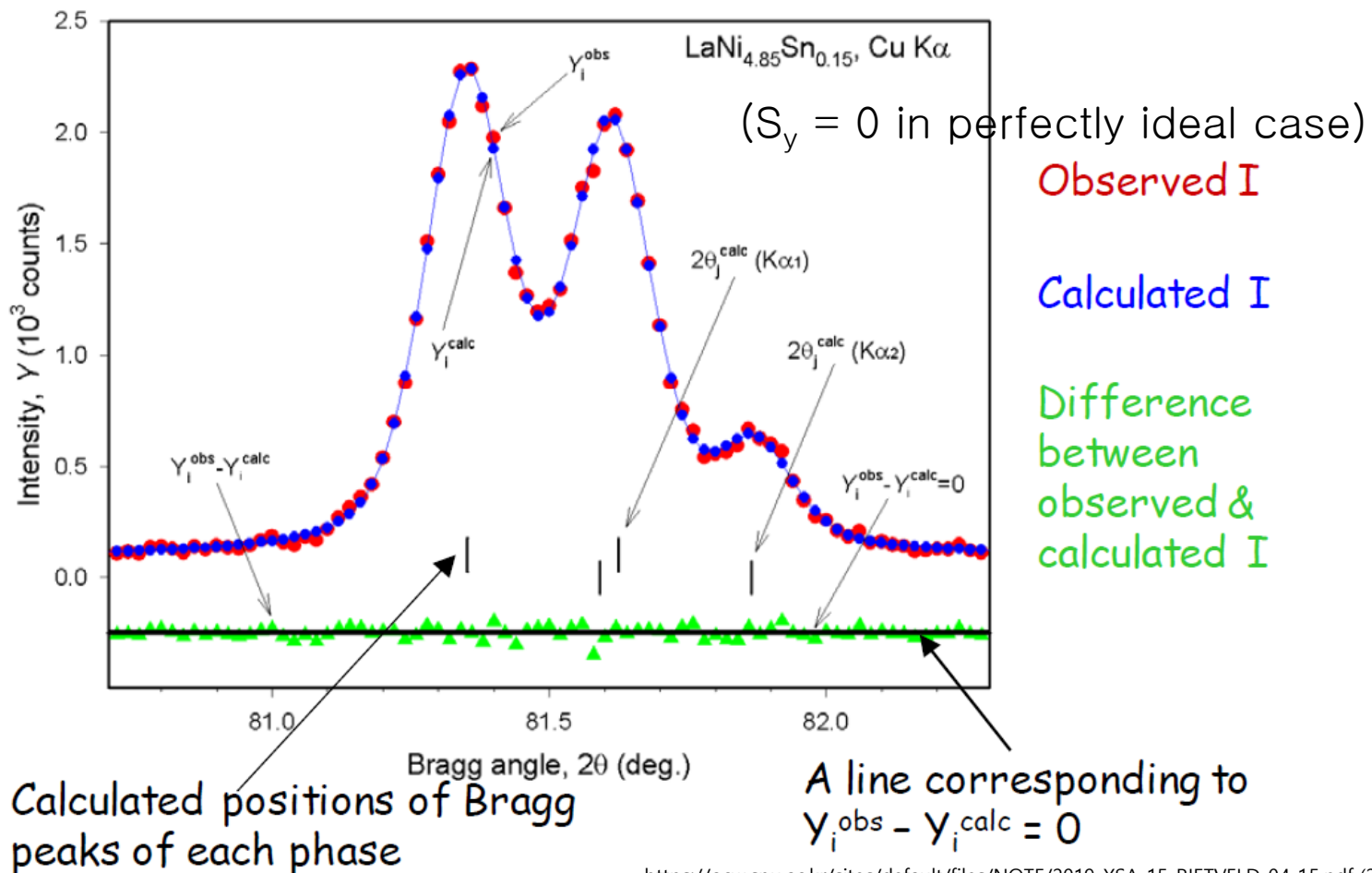
Rietveld refinement

$$S_y = \sum w_i (Y_{o,i} - Y_{c,i})^2 \quad (S_y \text{ is the function that should be minimized})$$

w_i , weighting factor = $1 / \sigma^2[y_{o,i}]$

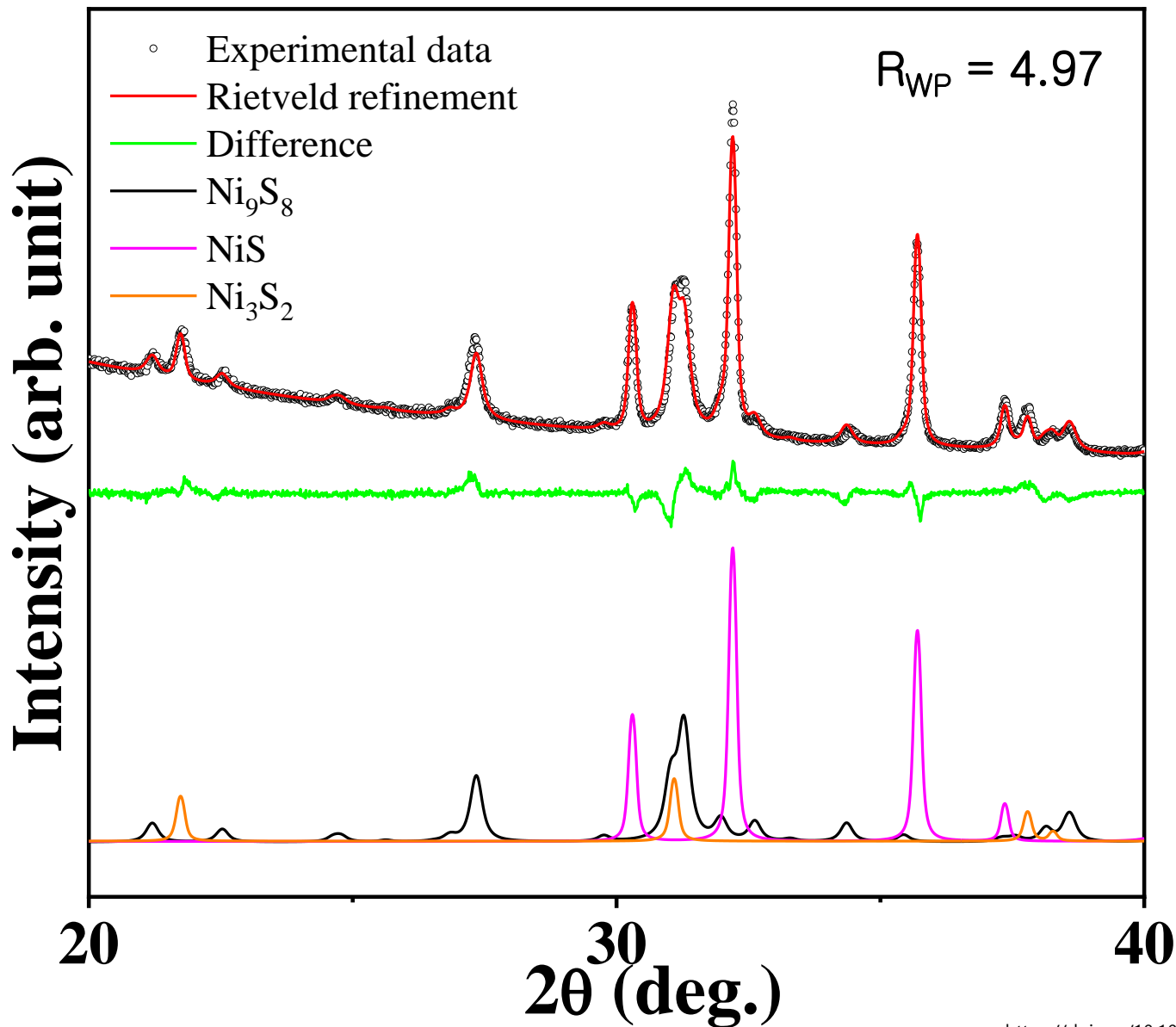
$Y_{o,i}$, $Y_{c,i}$ = Observed, Calculated intensity at the i th step

$\sigma[y_{o,i}]$: the standard deviation of $y_{o,i}$ "uncertainty"



Rietveld refinement example

Rietveld refinement: NiS#87-2_Ar250C2h

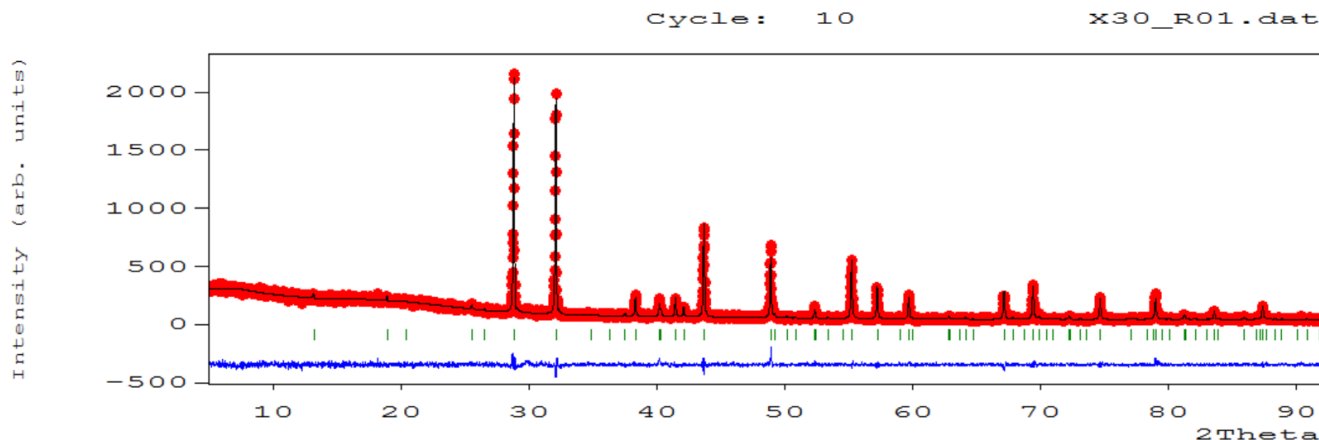


Phase	Wt%
Ni ₉ S ₈	56.05
NiS	32.45
Ni ₃ S ₂	11.5

Rietveld refinement example

```
=> Convergence reached at this CYCLE !!!!: CYCLE No.      1
=> R-Factors:  6.50      8.74      Chi2: 0.873      DW-Stat.:  1.1736      Patt#:  1
=> Expected :      9.35                      1.9335
=> Conventional Rietveld R-factors for Pattern:      1
=> Rp: 51.8      Rwp: 29.2      Rexp: 31.24      Chi2: 0.873
=> Global user-weighted Chi2 (Bragg contrib.):  1.302
=> -----> Pattern#      1
=> Phase:      1
=> Bragg R-factor:  7.052
=> RF-factor      :  8.794
=> Normal end, final calculations and writing...
```

```
=> CPU Time: 0.487 seconds
```



Weighted profile residual:

$$R_{wp} = \sum_i^n \left(\frac{w_i (Y_i^{obs} - Y_i^{calc})^2}{\sum_i^n w_i (Y_i^{obs})^2} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \times 100\%$$

Goodness of fit:

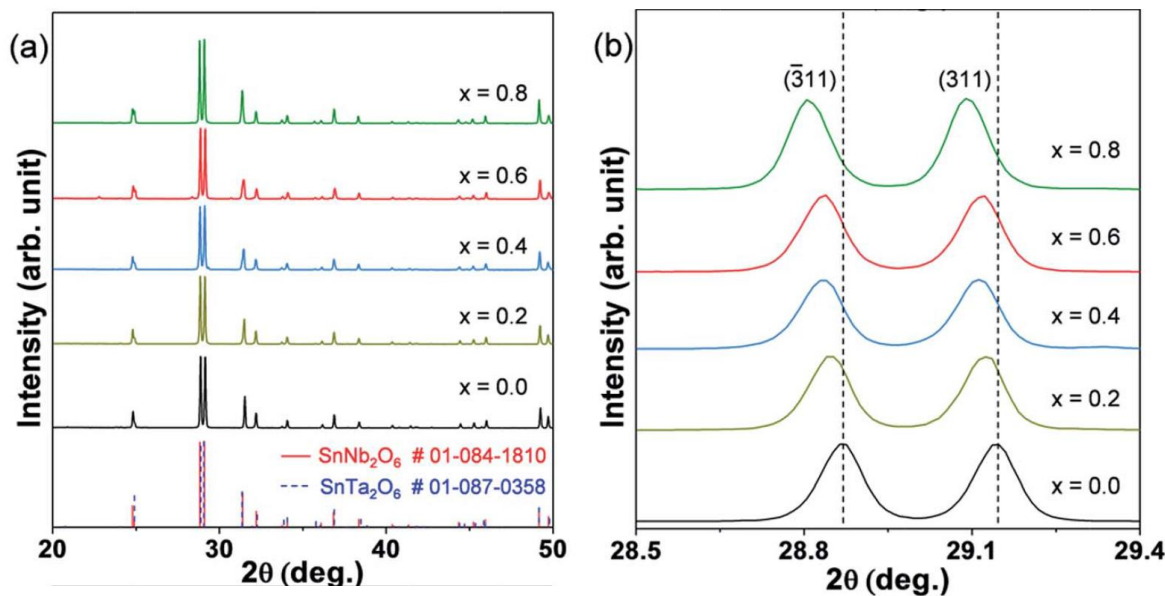
$$\chi^2 = \sum_i^n \frac{(Y_i^{obs} - Y_i^{calc})^2}{n - p} = \left(\frac{R_{wp}}{R_{exp}} \right)^2$$

Normally, R_{wp} value less than 10 should be achieved

χ Value should be close to 1

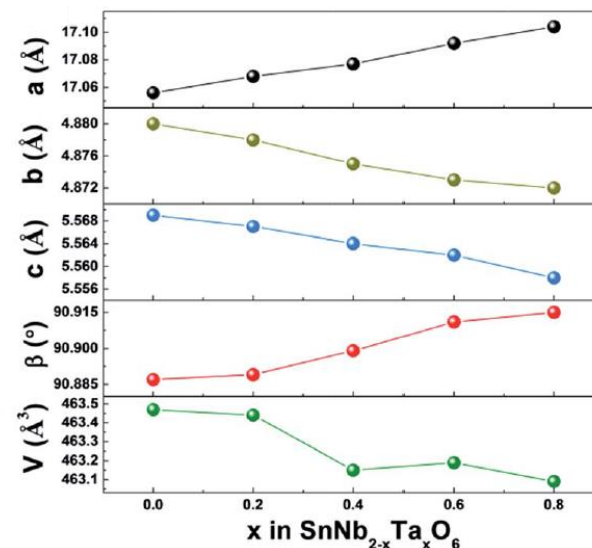
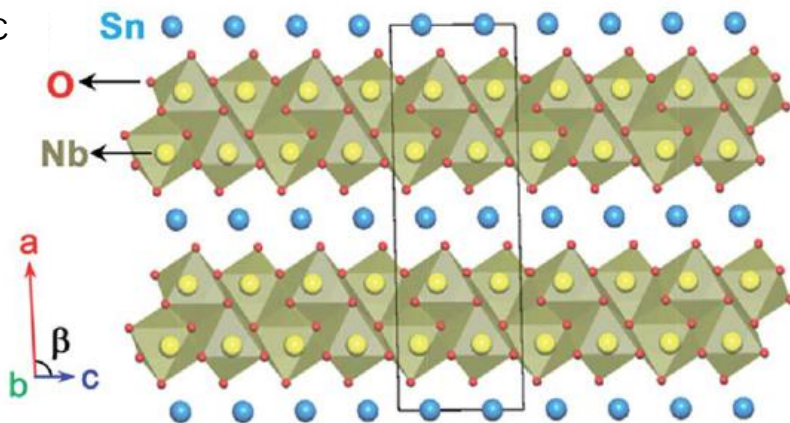
Rietveld refinement example

Solid-solution $\text{SnNb}_{2-x}\text{Ta}_x\text{O}_6$



Monoclinic

α 90
 β 90.85
 γ 90
 a_0 17.093
 b_0 4.877
 c_0 5.558



Rietveld refinement example

