



X-ray (and Neutron) Diffraction in Materials Science

Pascal Schouwink

X-Ray Diffraction and Surface
Analytics Facility

ISIC-XRDSAP

Labs

Lausanne: BCH 2117, 2118, 1108

EPFL VS Sion: I17 0 I2, I17 – 1 L6+L5

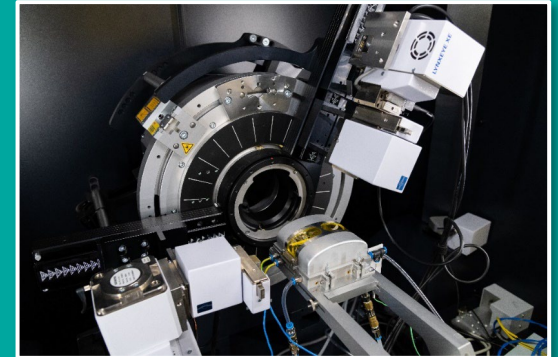
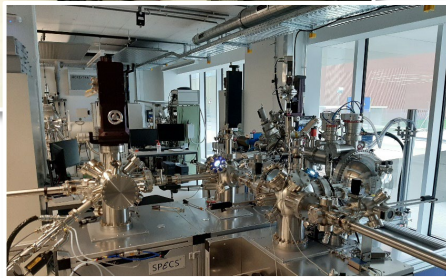


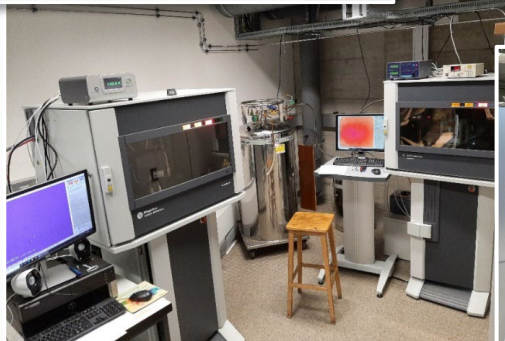
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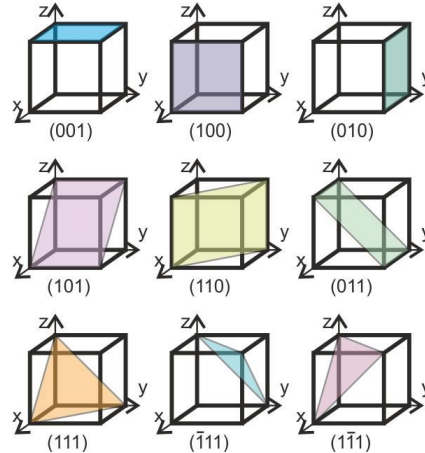
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Open to all EPFL users

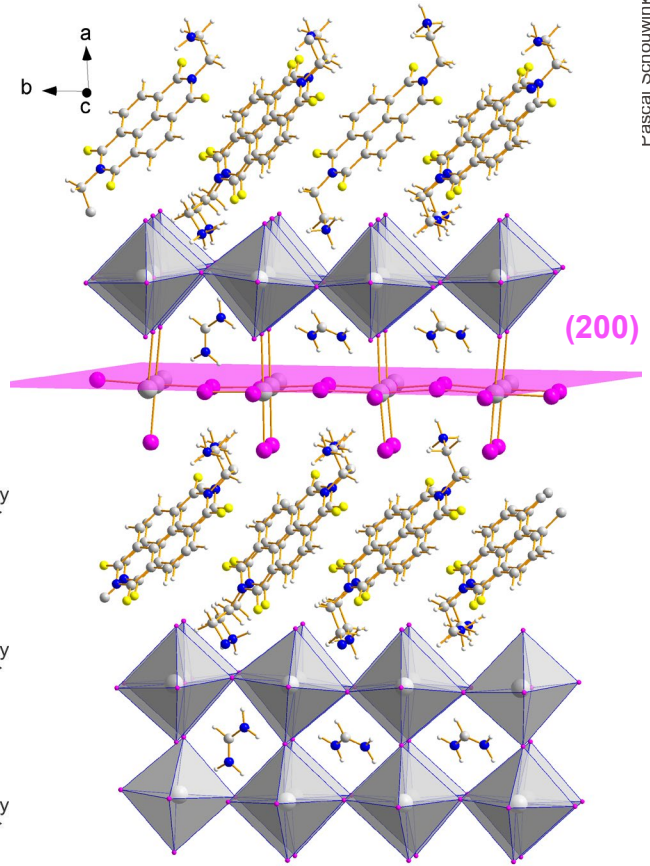
- 7 diffractometers
- 1 MicroRaman 5 lasers
- 1 XPS/UPS
- 2 AFM
- 1 SAXS lab beamline

- Basic understanding of interaction of X-rays (similar for neutrons) with the solid state
 - Overview of different common diffraction geometries
 - Overview of different methods and applications, what to use when
- **For more: CH-632, CH-633**

- Made up of atoms arranged according to the space group symmetry
- Symmetry (periodic boundary condition) gives rise to what is known as the unit cell (smallest element containing all information and by whose translation 3D space can be tiled)
- Planes hkl can be drawn through any point in the crystal structure, passing through different type and amount of the contained atoms

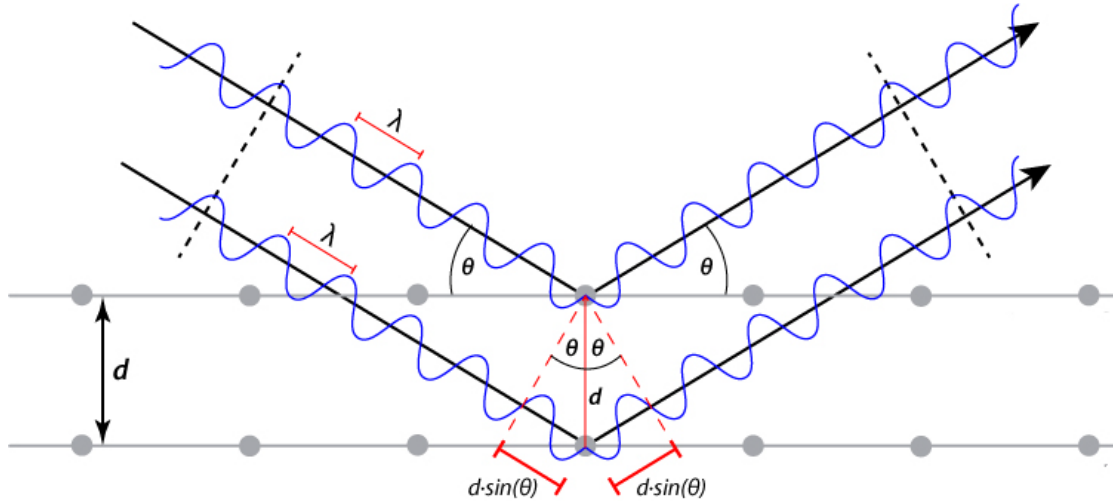


Source: Naemi Weselmann



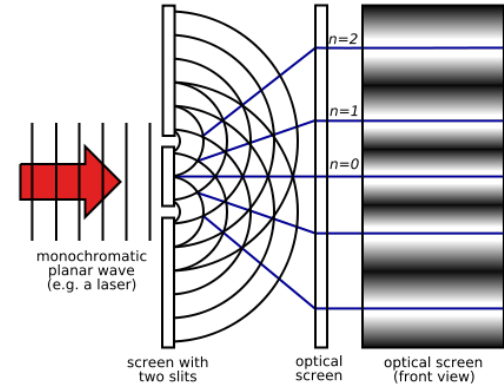
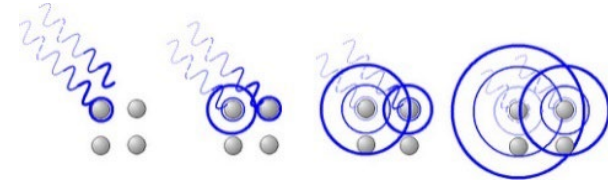
Bragg's law

- (William Bragg, Nobel Prize Physics, 1915)
- Geometrical interpretation (!!!) of the diffraction condition.
- Waves "reflected" of lattice planes with a spacing $d(hkl)$ interfere constructively if their phase difference is a multiple of the wavelength.

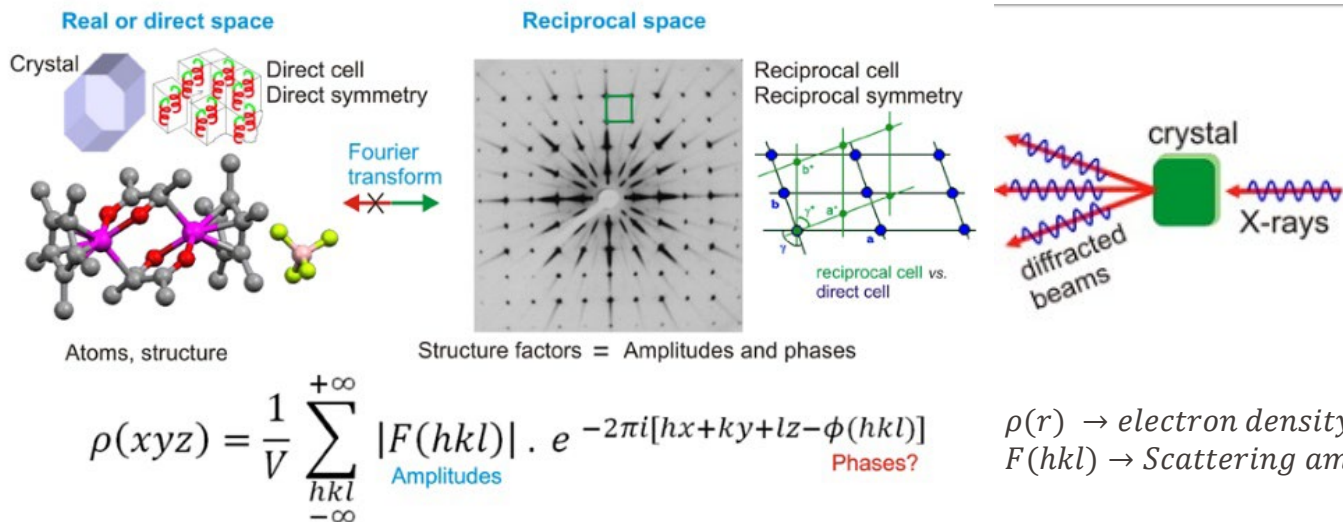


$$2d \sin \theta = n \lambda$$

n : integer



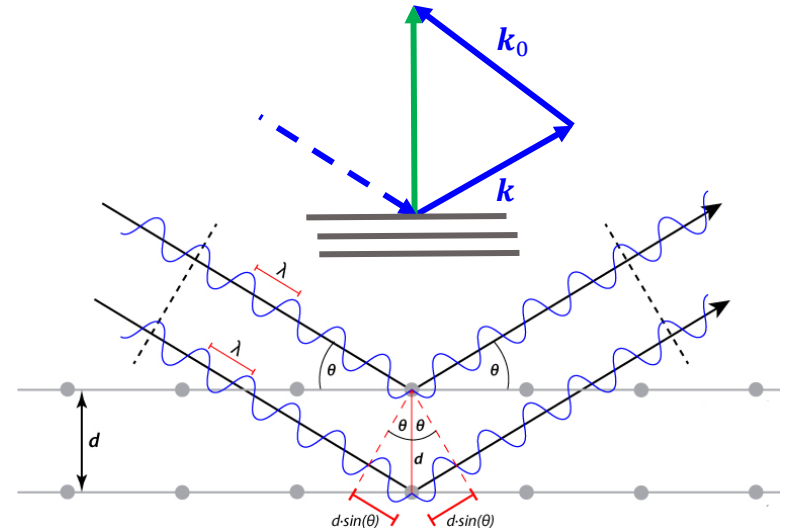
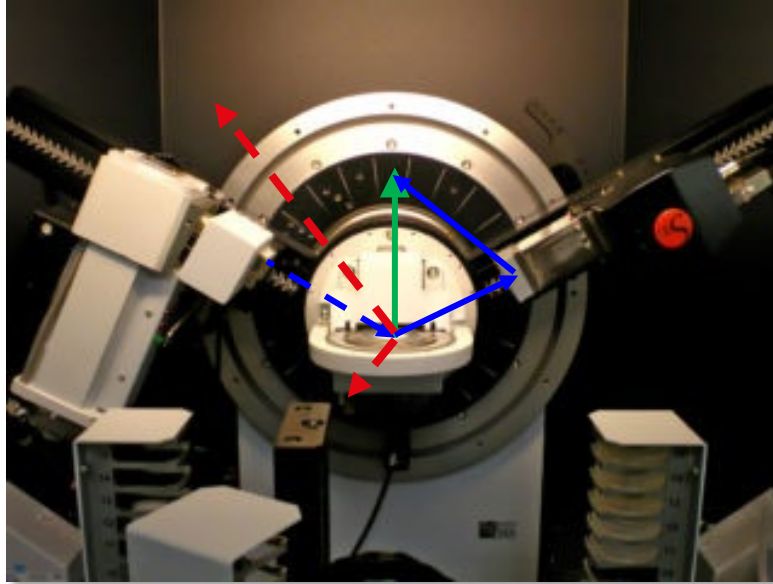
- In reality planes are not occupied by points but atoms (spins), molecules, macromolecules.
- The waves scattered by these objects all interfere simultaneously, giving rise to the diffraction pattern.
- Registered intensities (scattered waves) provide information on the electron density (scatterers) on each plane hkl (atomic structure)



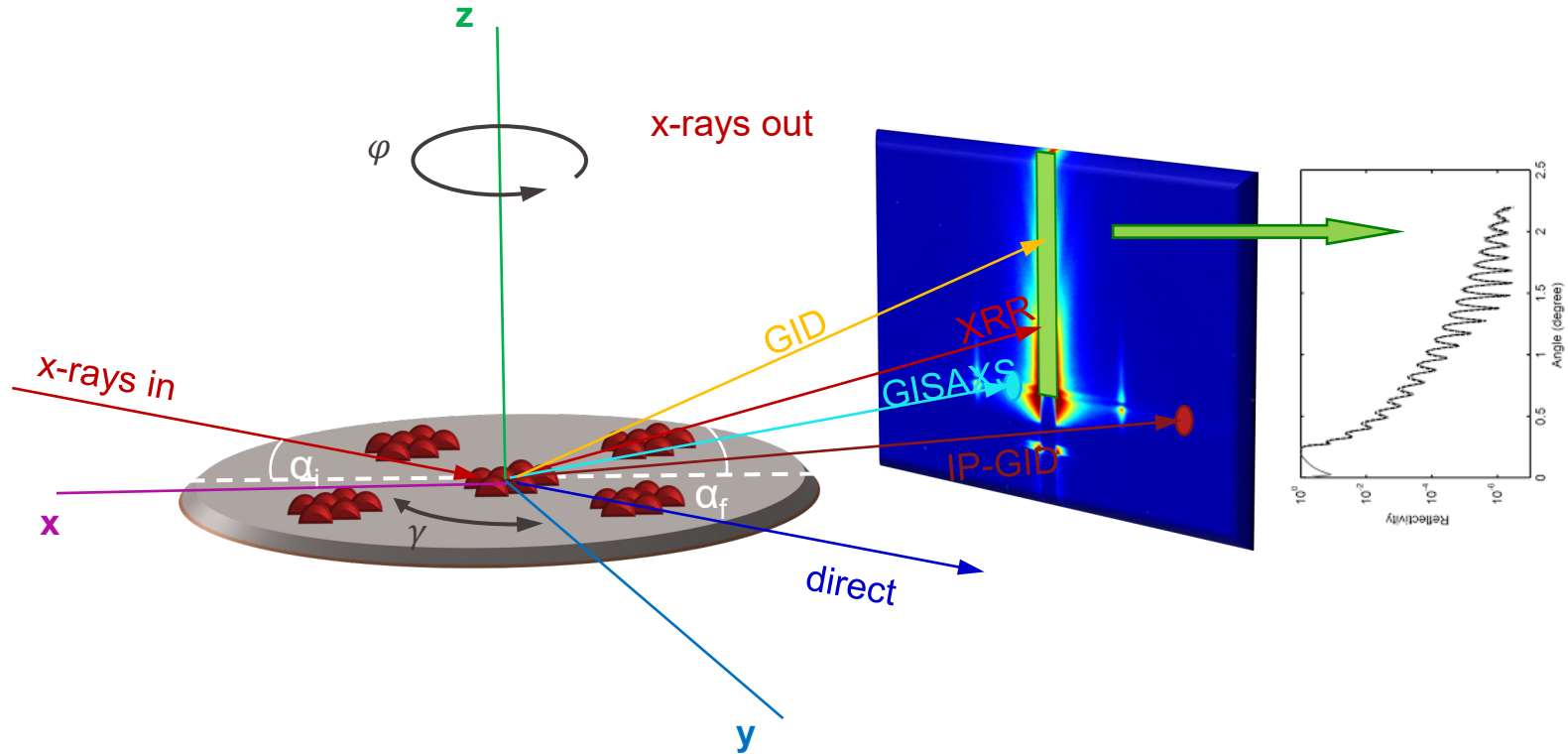
Bragg's law

- Incoming and scattered beam are symmetrical with respect to the lattice plane normal.
- Scattering vector (d^* , Q) is parallel to the lattice plane normal.
- Q: How do you measure a scattering vector where this is not the case?

$$\frac{((k - k_0))}{\lambda} = \frac{1}{d} = d^*$$

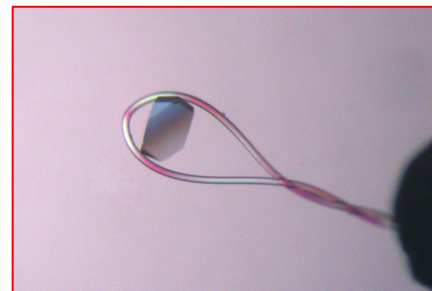
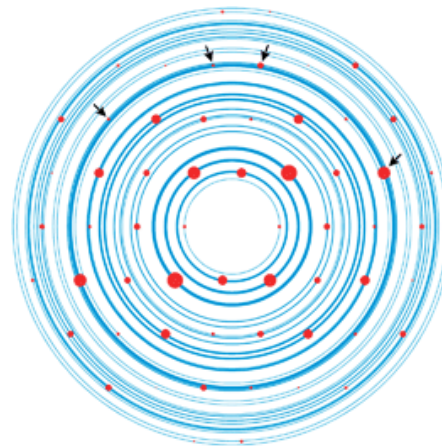
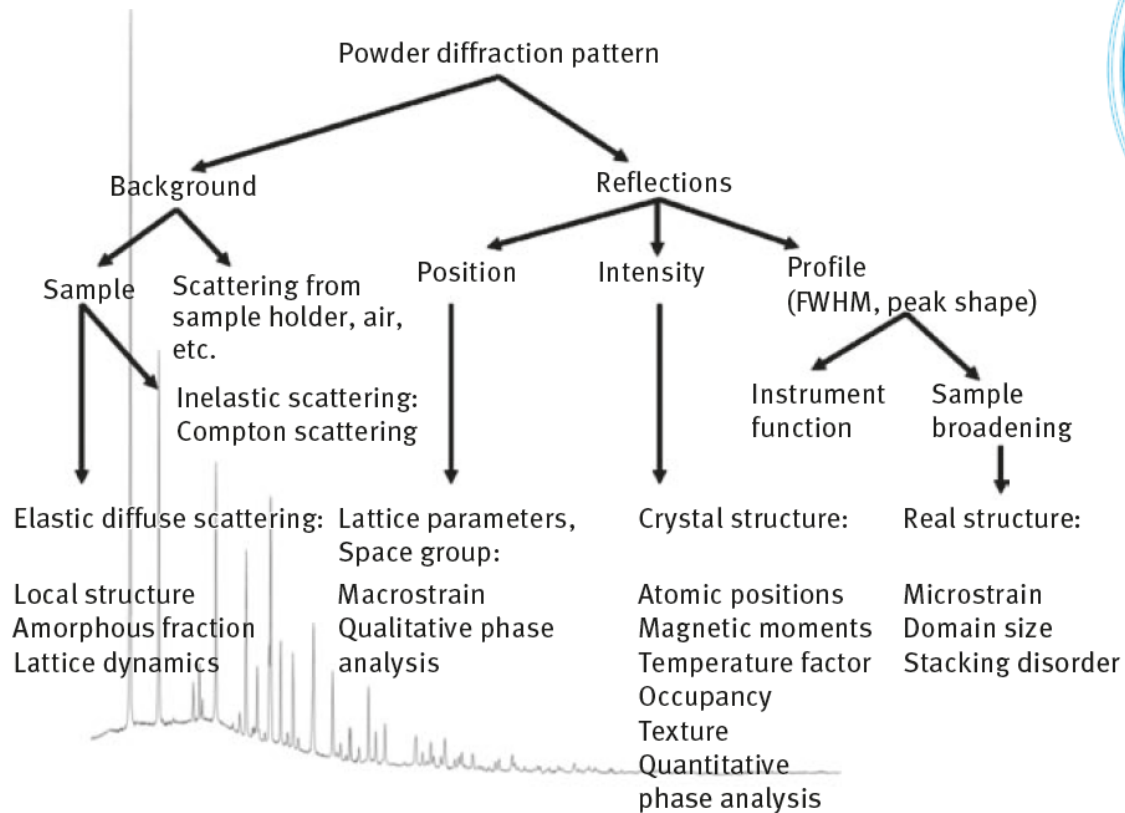


Diffraction geometries



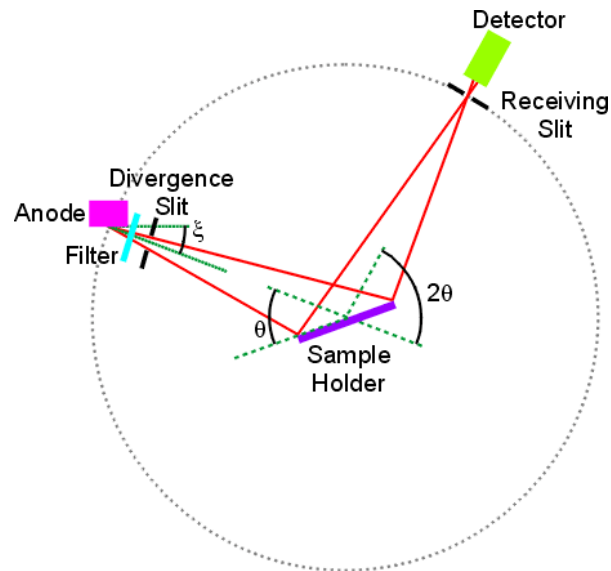
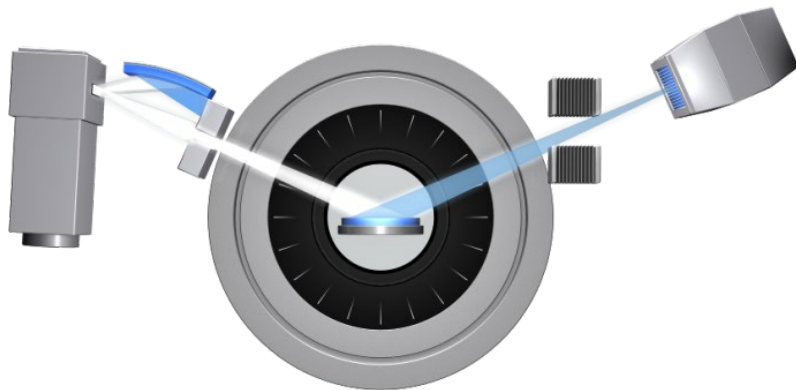
- Different optics, motor-movements, geometry, same machine

- Information in a diffraction pattern

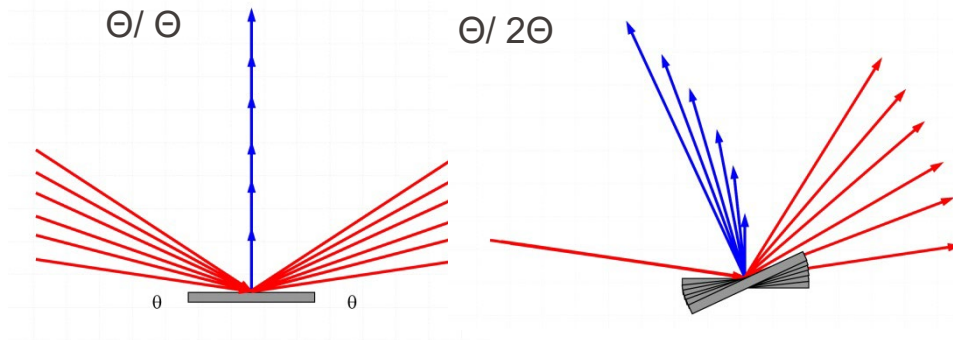


Diffraction geometries: PXRD

Bragg Brentano

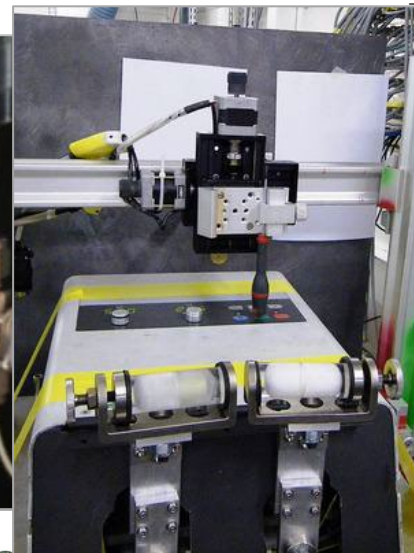
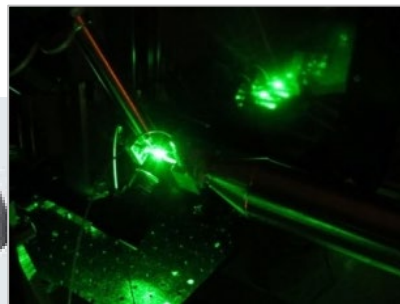
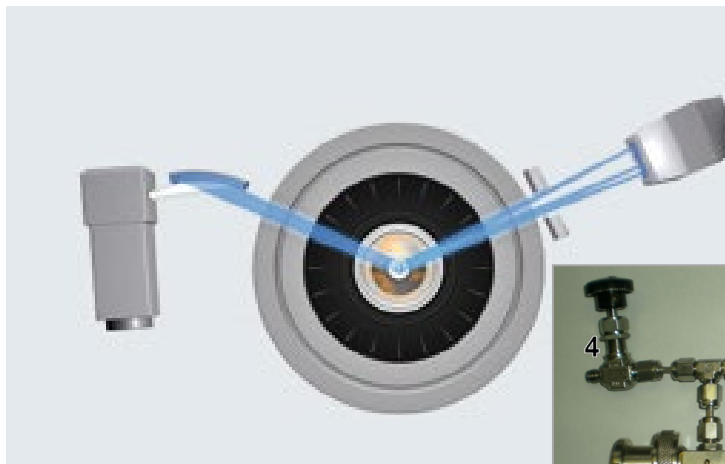


- Reflection geometry.
- Symmetrical scan
- Screening, PXRD

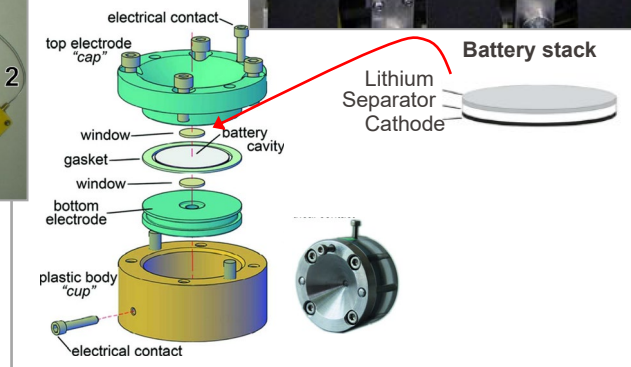
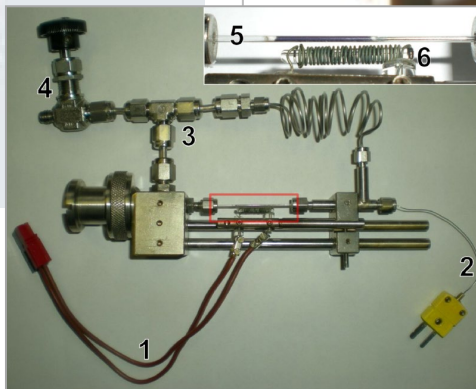


Diffraction geometries: PXRD

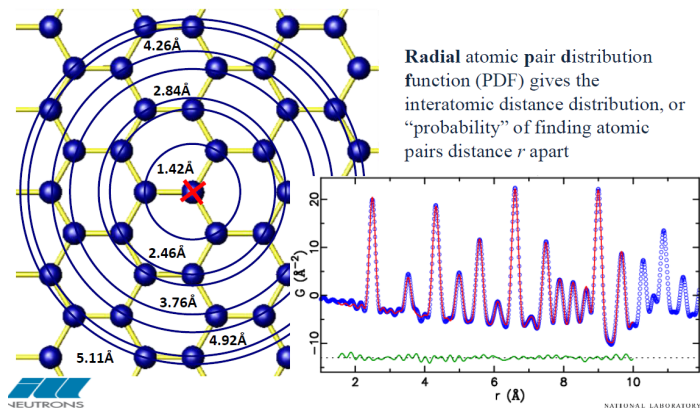
Debye Scherrer



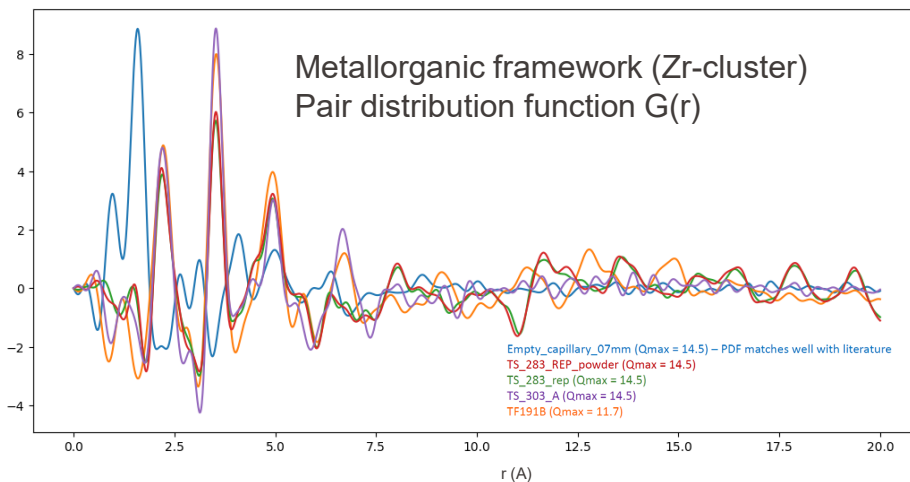
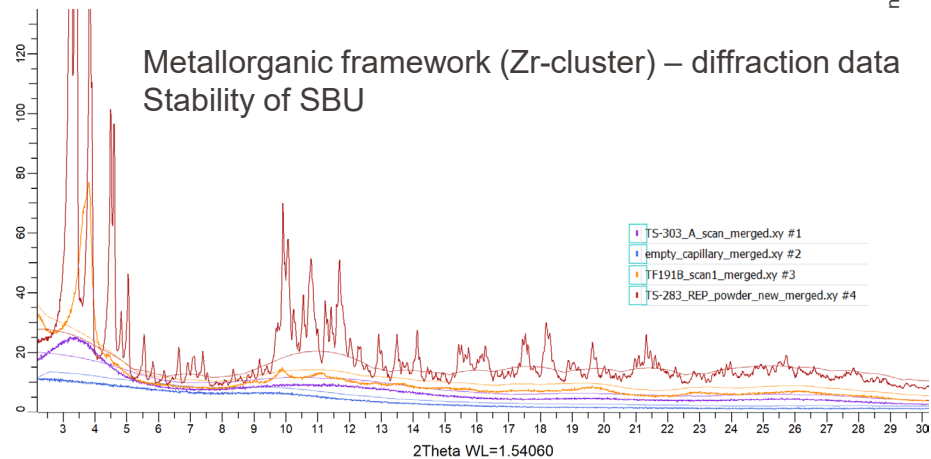
- Transmission geometry
- Detector scan (or 2D image)
- Very flexible (in-situ / in-operando experiments)



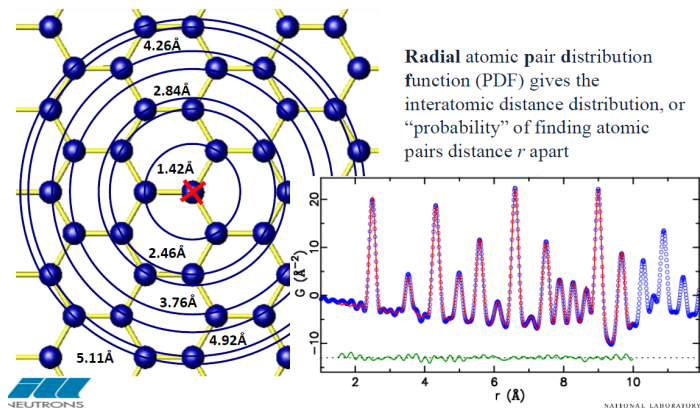
Diffraction geometries: Total Scattering



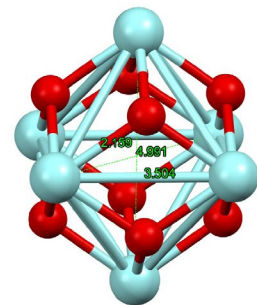
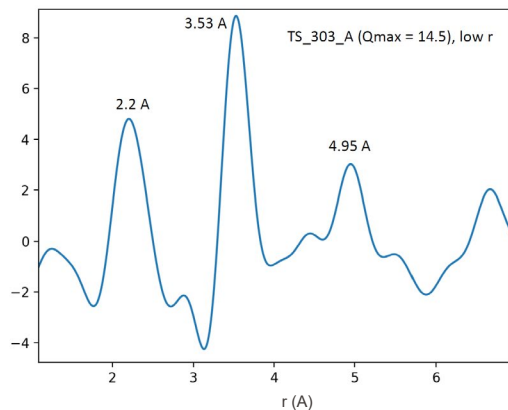
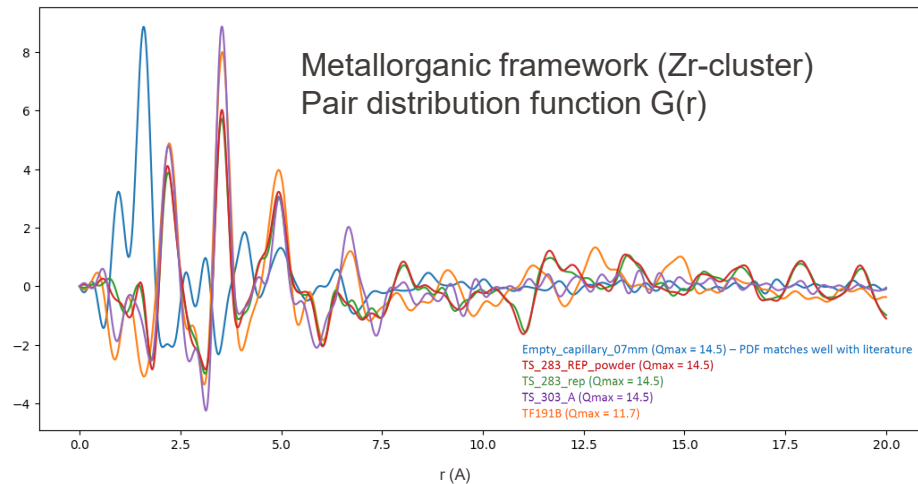
- Transmission geometry as Debye Scherrer
- At least 17 keV! Detector scan (or 2D image)
- Very flexible (in-situ / in-operando experiment)



Diffraction geometries: Total Scattering

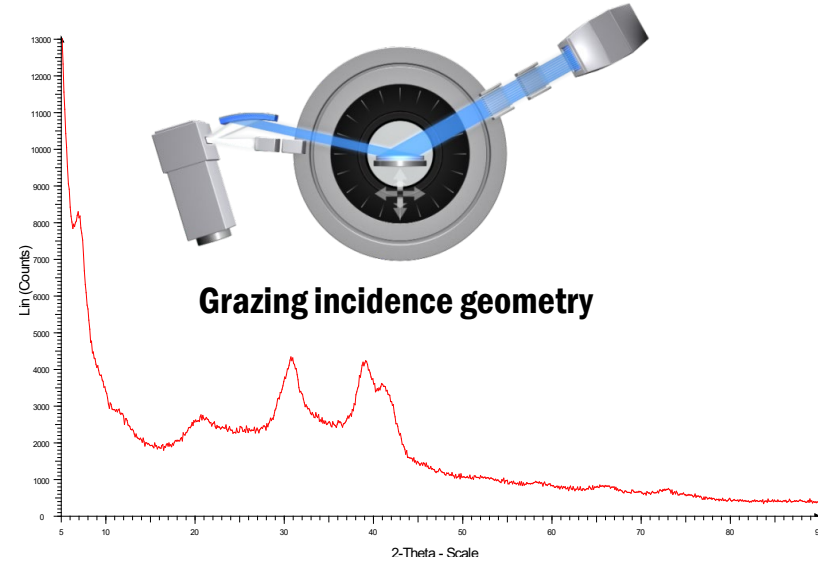
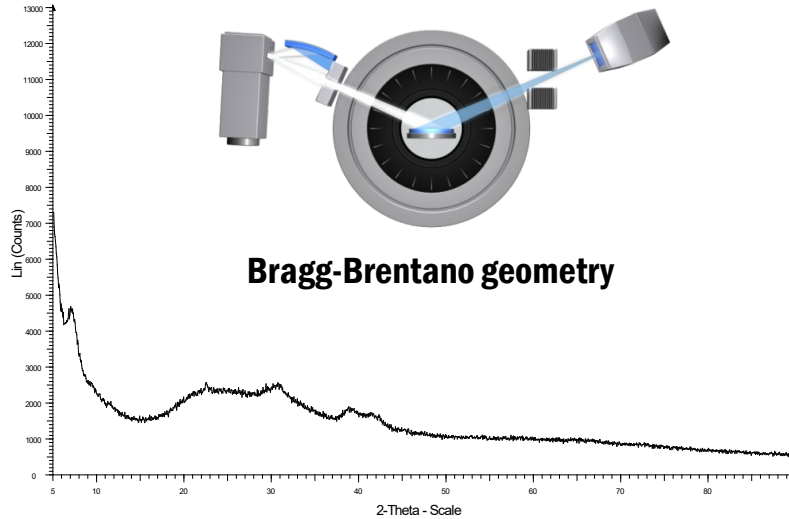


- Transmission geometry as Debye Scherrer
- At least 17 keV! Detector scan (or 2D image)
- Very flexible (in-situ / in-operando experiments)



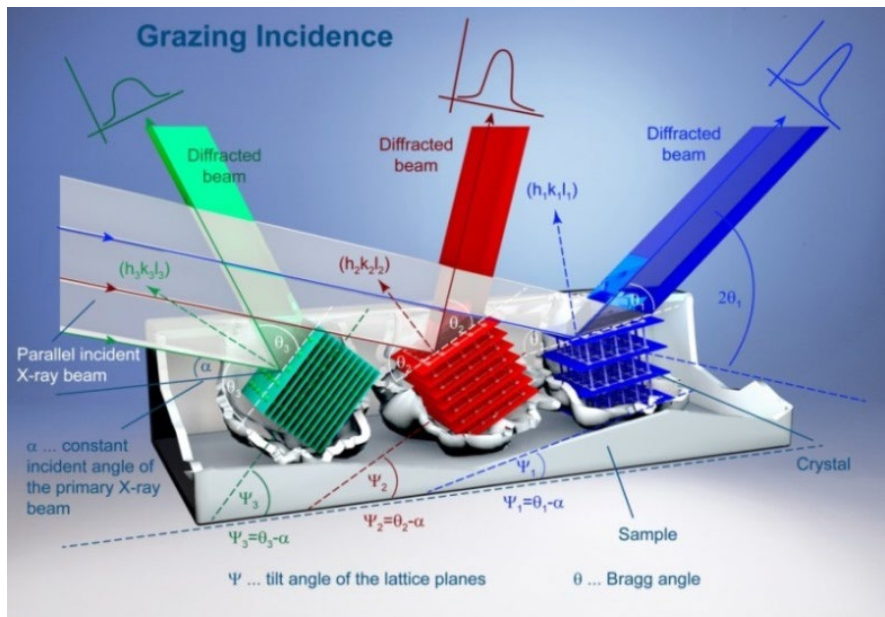
Diffraction geometries: GID

Surface diffraction



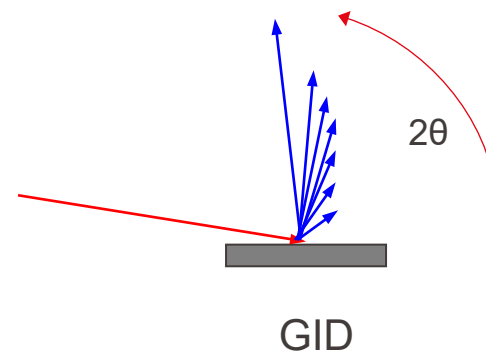
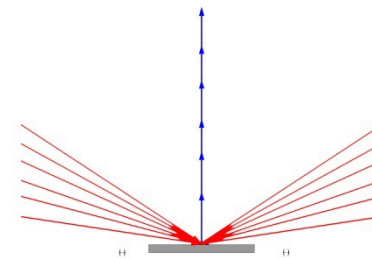
- Thin film geometry
- Constant incident angle
- Surface sensitive
- Depth control
- Scattering vector rotates in scattering plane

Diffraction geometries: GID

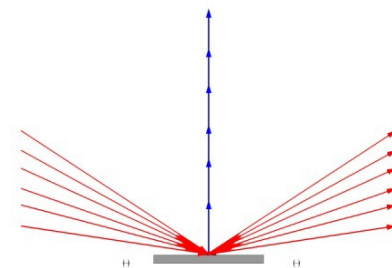
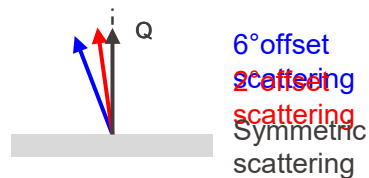
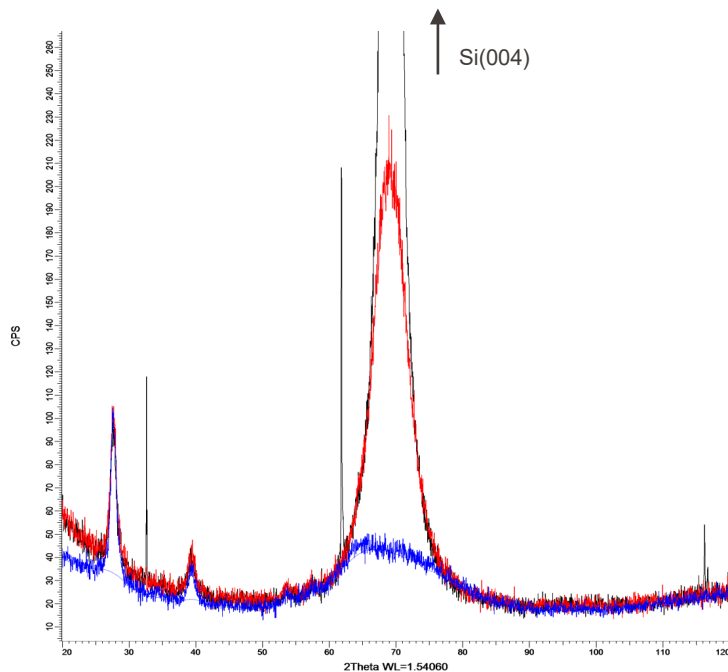


- Thin film geometry
- Constant incident angle
- Surface sensitive
- Depth control
- Scattering vector rotates in scattering plane

Bragg-Brentano

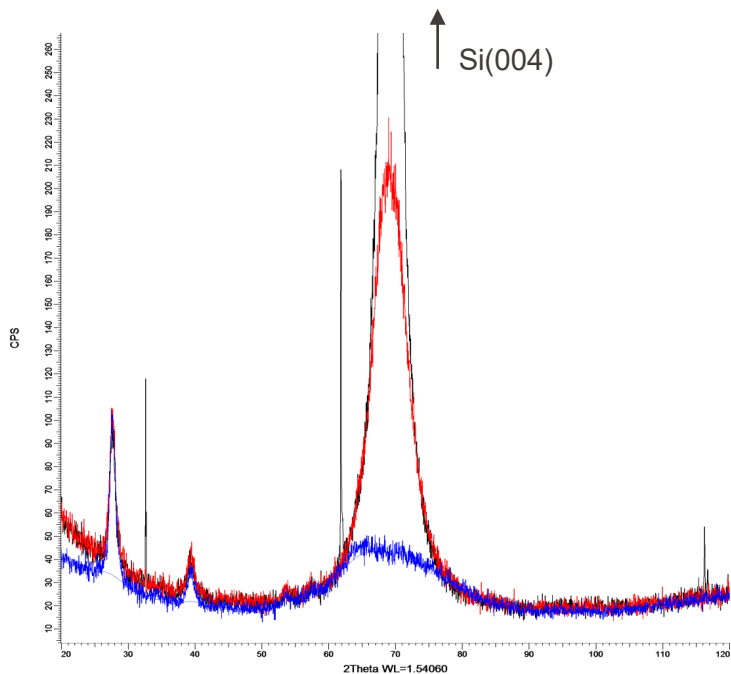


Offset θ/θ scan

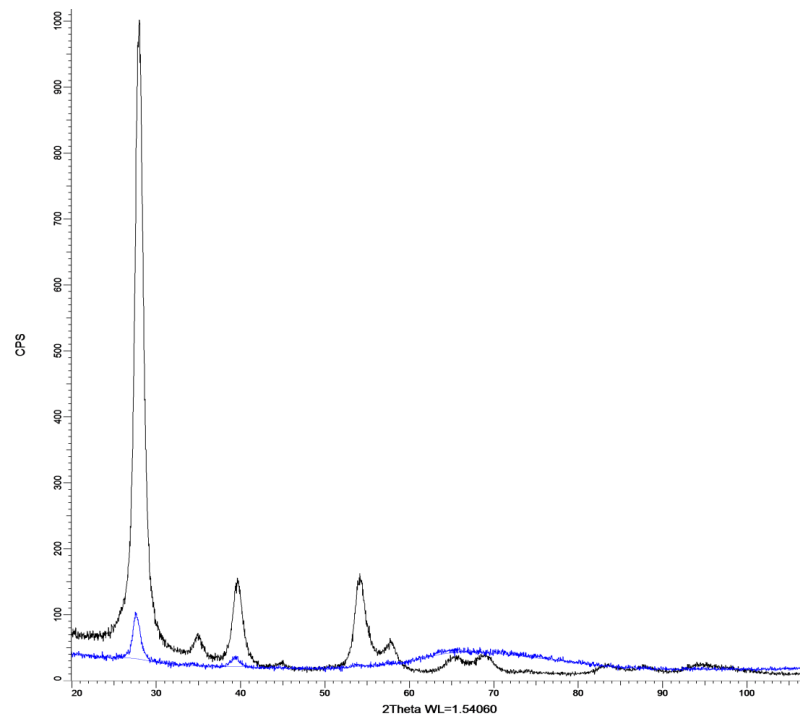


- Possible to strongly reduce Si (004) but layer signal still weak

Diffraction geometries: GID 14nm RuO₂ on Si(001)

Offset θ/θ scan

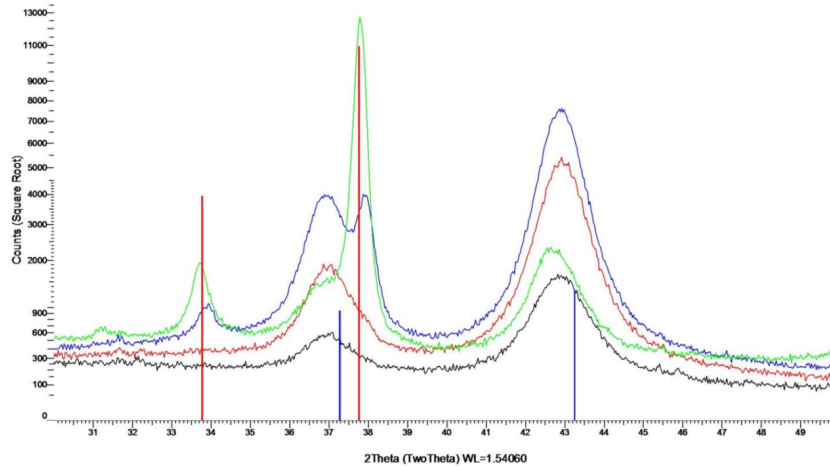
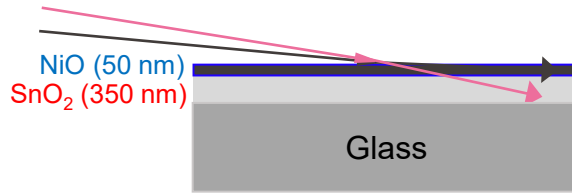
- Possible to strongly reduce Si (004) but layer signal still weak

GIXRD vs 6° Offset θ/θ scan

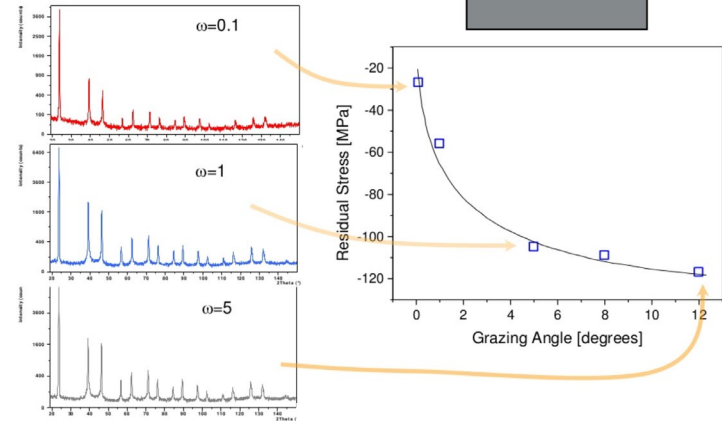
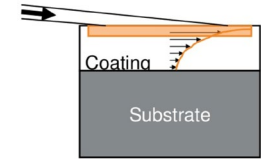
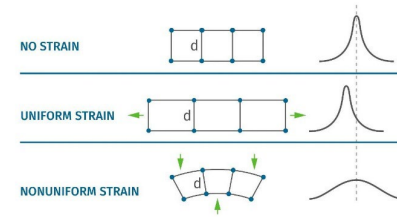
- Possible to remove substrate signal
- Significant gain for layer signal

Diffraction geometries: GID

Incident angles: Theta=0.25, 0.3, 0.35, 1.5

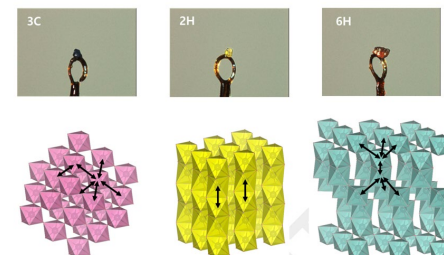
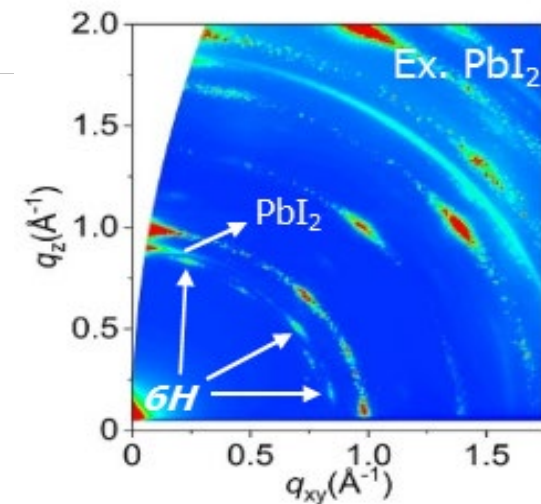
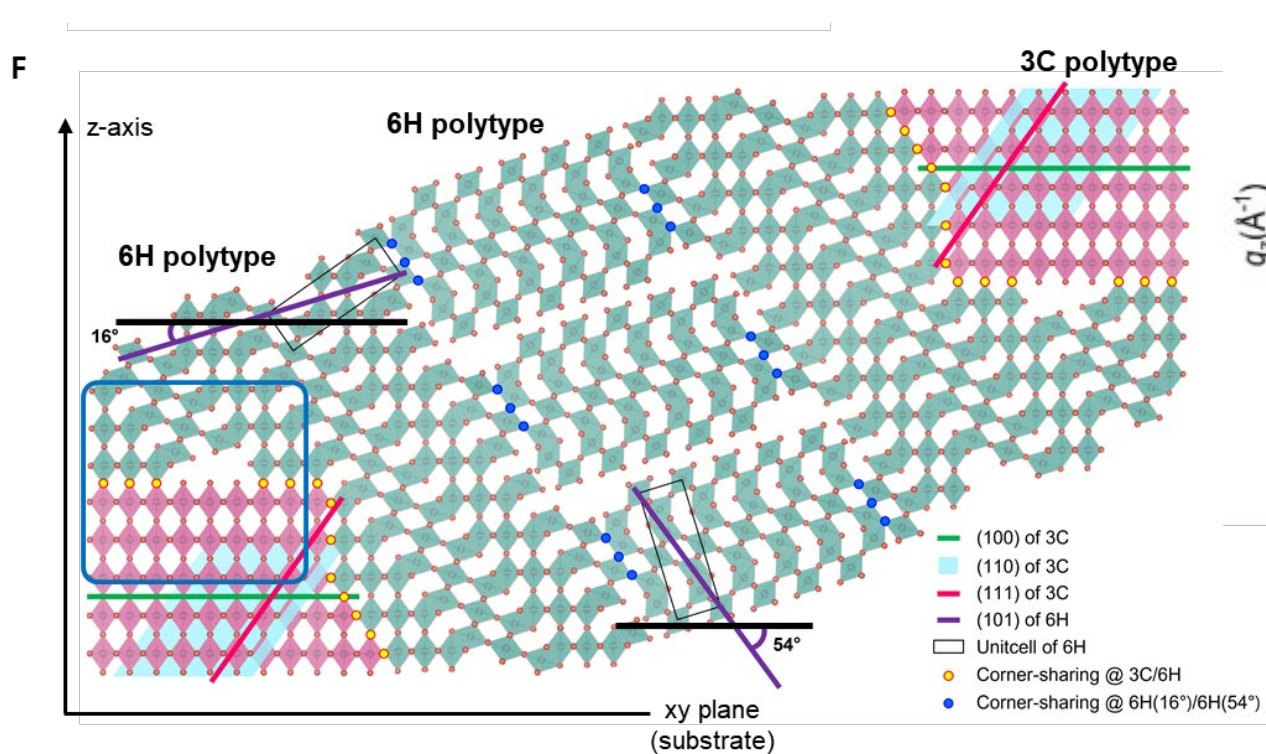


- Depth profiling: phase composition and layer sequence



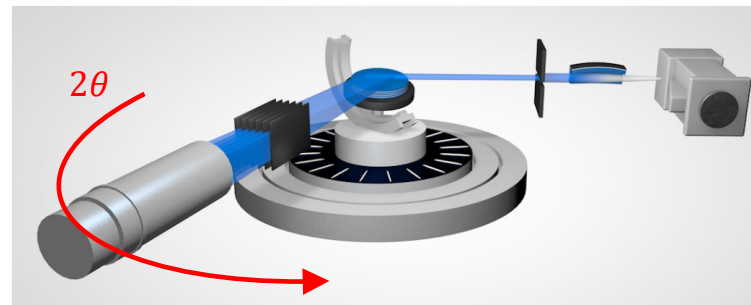
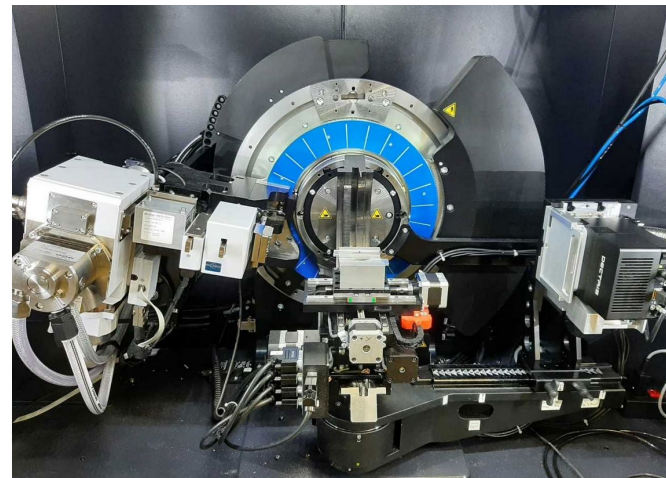
- Depth profiling: stress gradient in CdTe layer of solar cell

➤ Texture: reconstruct complex film interfaces (Perovskite PV)

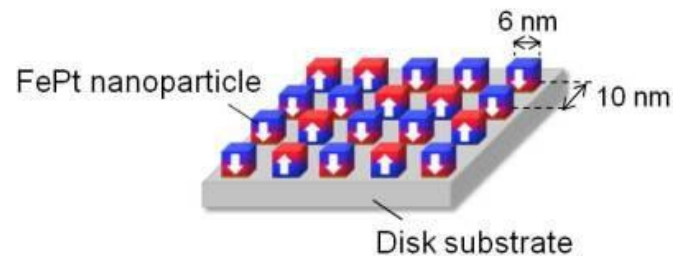
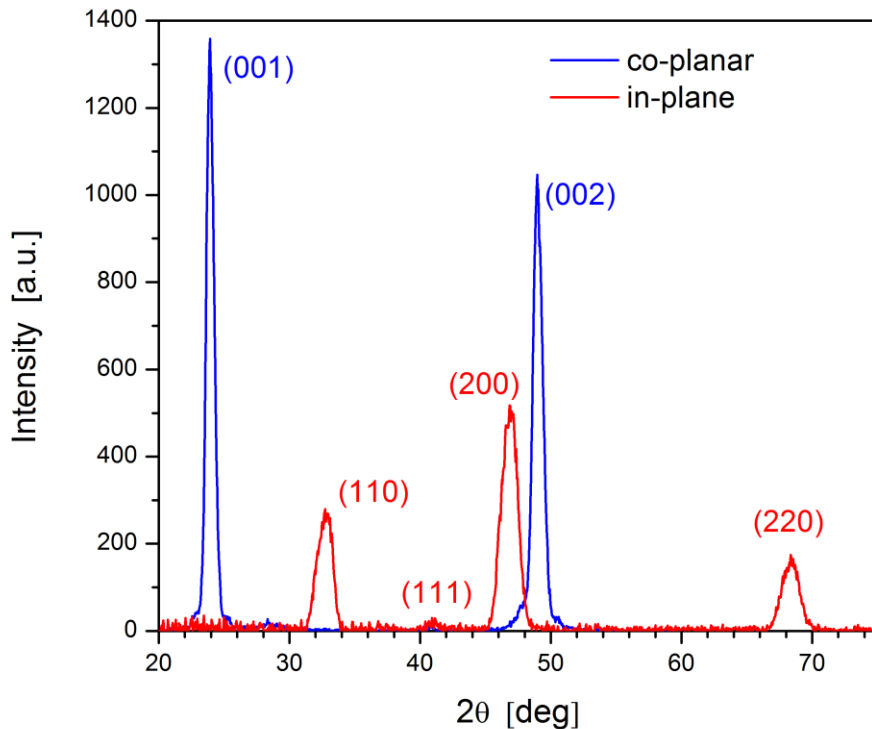


Diffraction geometries: In-plane GID

- Highly oriented films
 - In-plane Lattice parameter
 - Epitaxial relation
 - Domain formation and twist (IP rocking curve)
 - In-plane Texture
 - Crystallite Size
 - Micro Strain
-
- In-plane detector scan
 - Requires special instrumentation

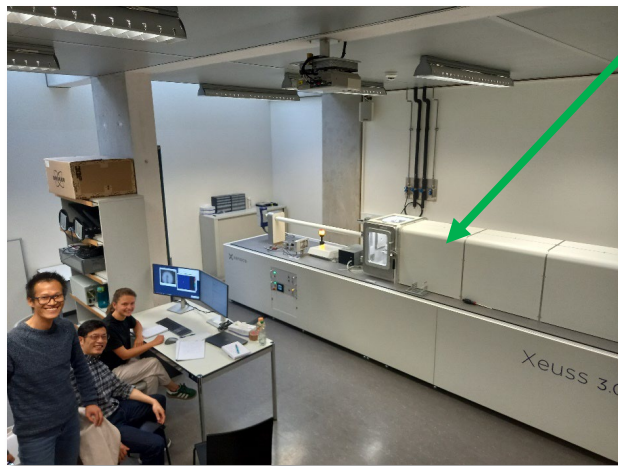


- FePt thin films of 10 nm (magnetic mass storage)

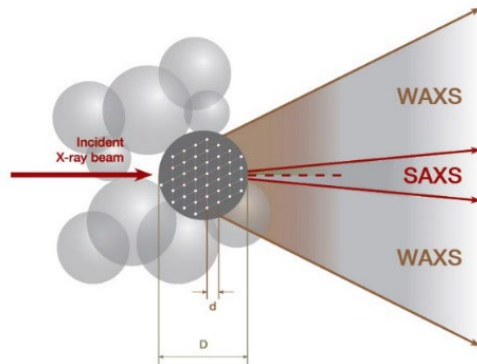


- Crystallite size in the surface normal direction is about the film thickness.
- In-plane crystallite size is about 6.5nm
- In-plane fiber textured around (001)

Diffraction geometries: SAXS

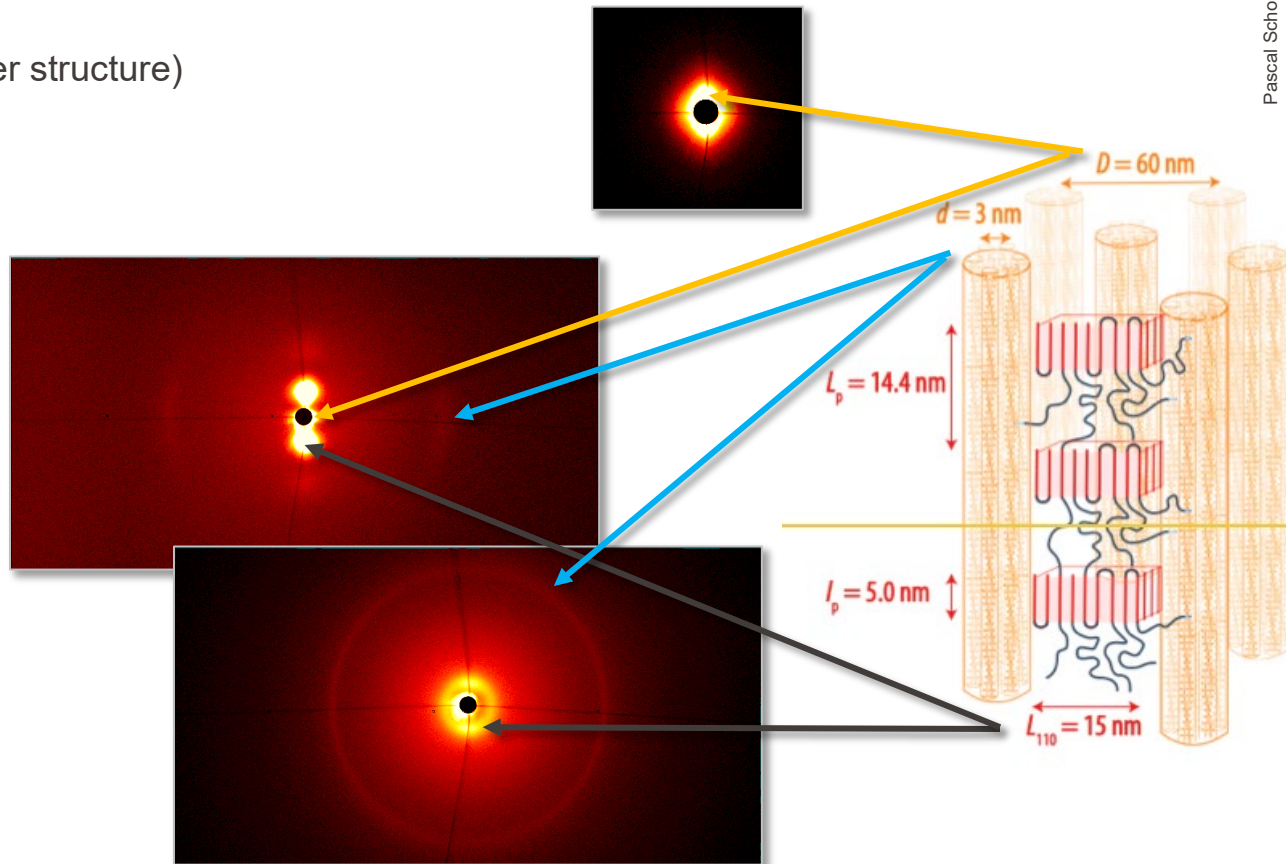


Beam path is evacuated

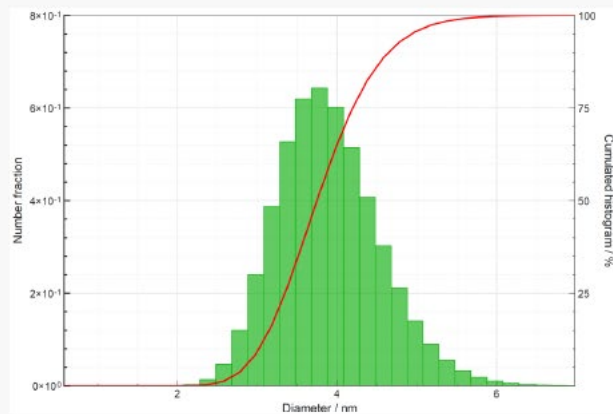
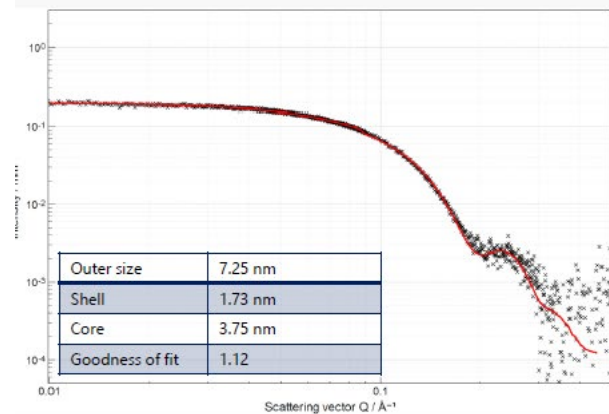
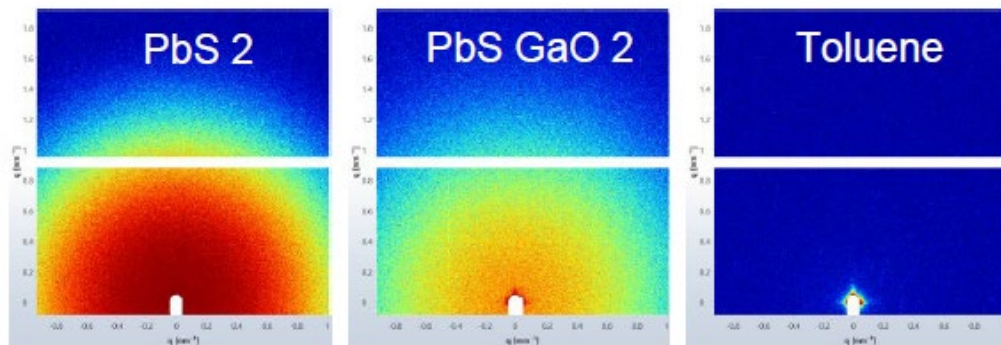


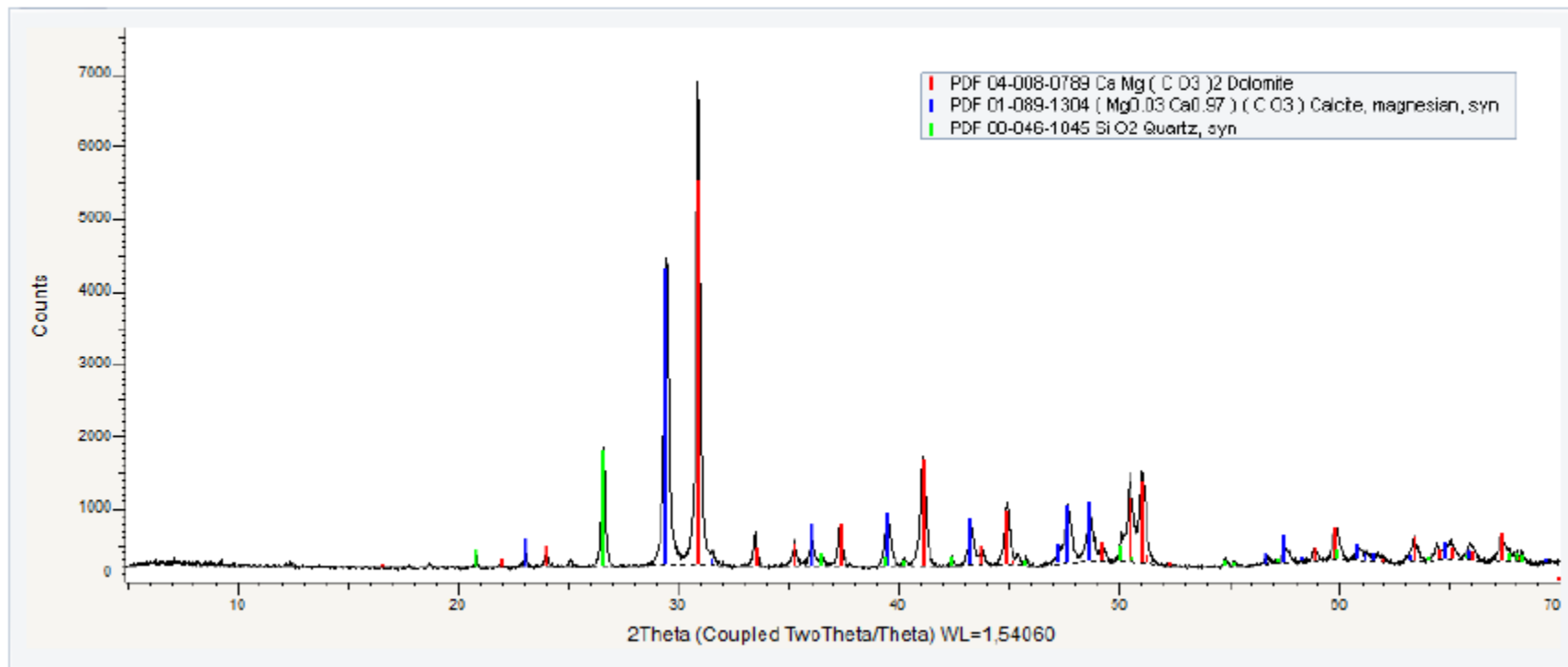
- X-ray scattering at low angles
- Large distances (nanoscopic order > 1 micron...)
- NP (shape, distribution, core-shell, aggregation, growth...)
- Biomolecules (aggregation, folding...)
- Nanoscopic structures (gratings...)

- Large d-spacing (polymer structure)



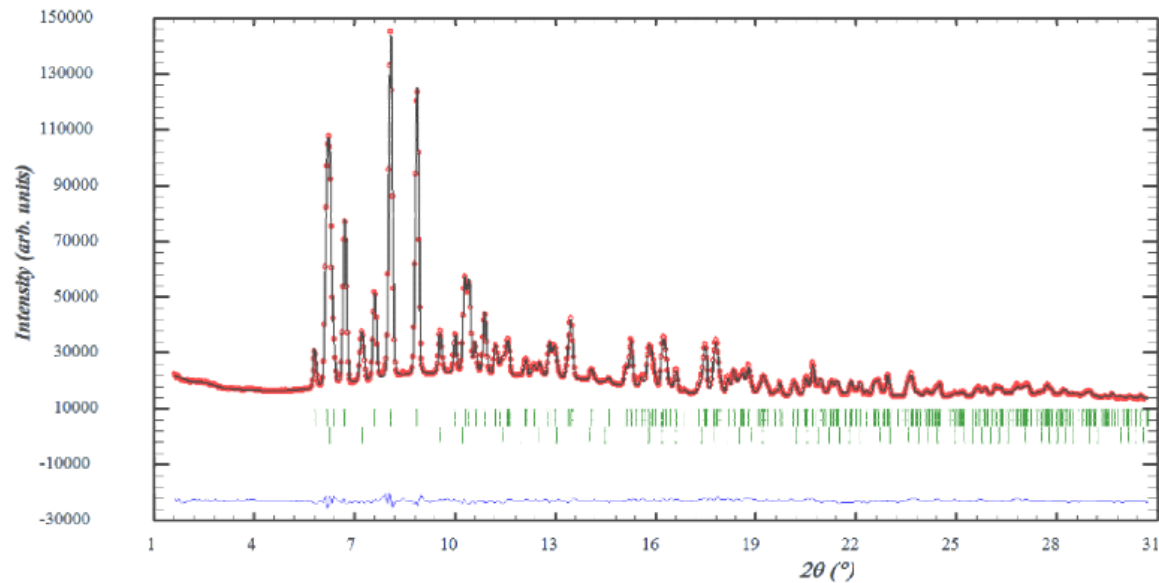
- Particle structure: PbS GaO – core-shell particle



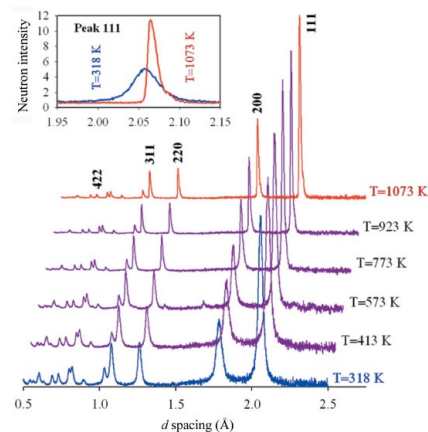
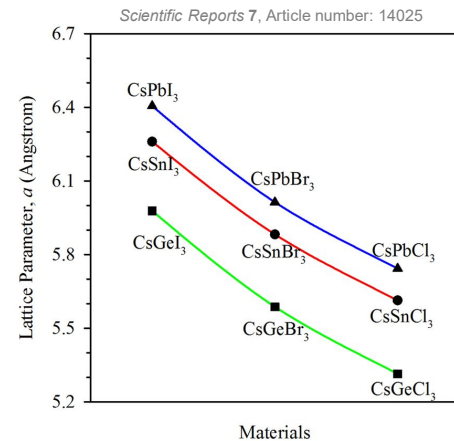


- Requires database

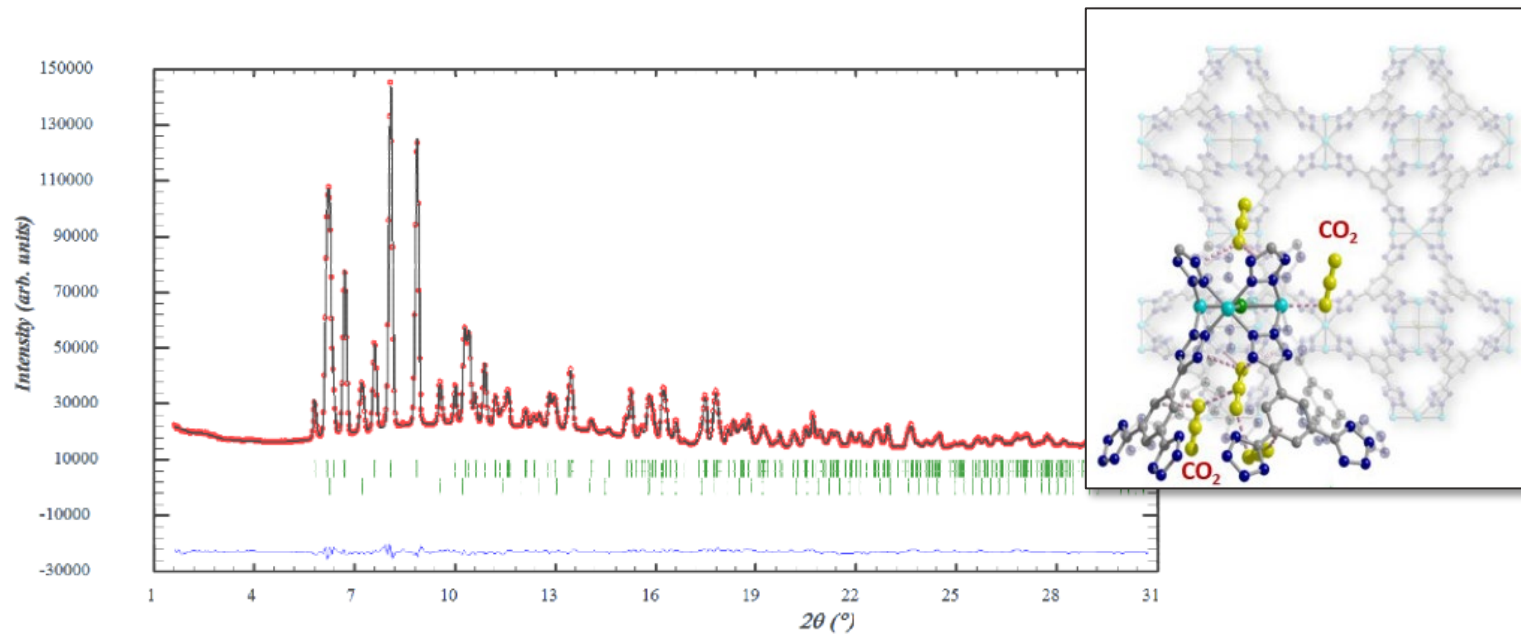
Applications PXRD: Profile fit



- Requires unit cell and space group
- No model (intensities are meaningless)
- Provides all quantities that are not model-based (unit cell parameters, peak shapes....)



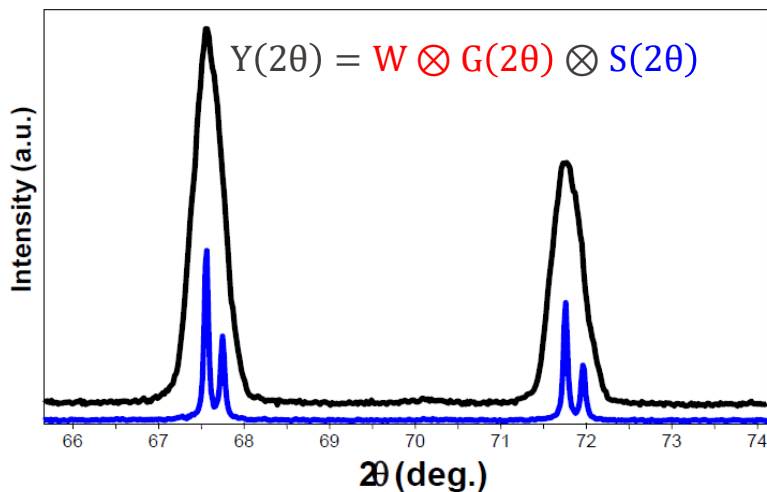
Applications PXRD: Rietveld refinement



- Requires approximate starting model or CIF files
- Phase quantification
- Structure refinement
- Structure completion (Fourier-difference map analysis)

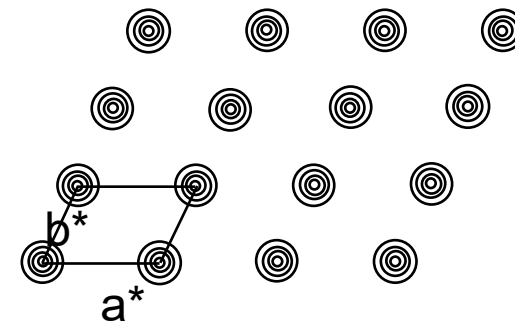
Applications PXRD: Line broadening

- Diffraction lines broaden due to disruptions of the lattice periodicity
- Peak shapes can be analyzed From profile fit (or Rietveld refinement)

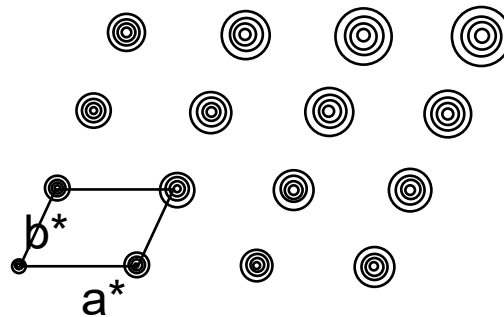


Instrument: measured or calculated (source emission profile W , geometric contribution $G = F_1 \otimes F_1 \otimes F_1 \otimes \dots$)

Sample



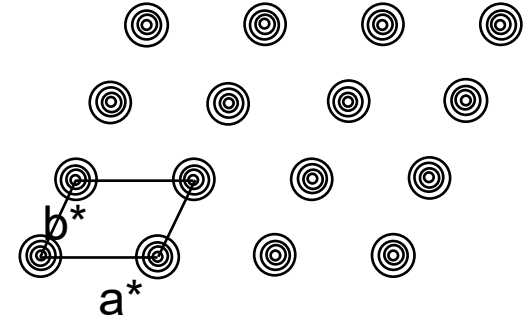
Size broadening



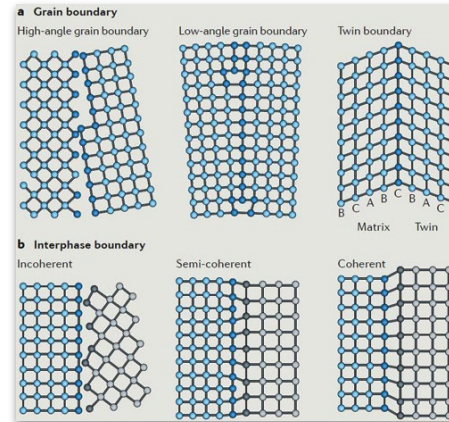
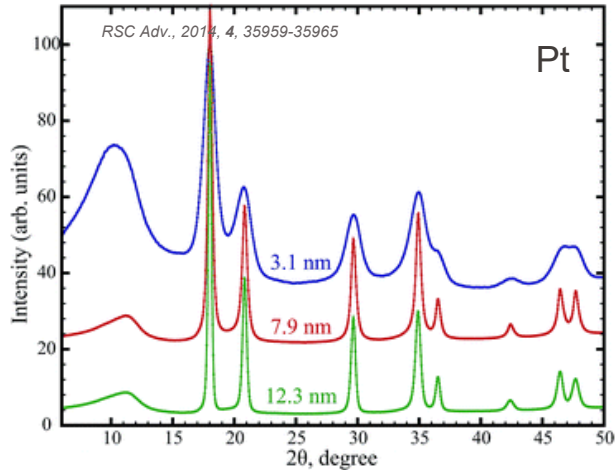
Microstrain broadening

- Scherrer equation (over 100 years old)

$$\tau(2\theta) = \frac{K\lambda}{\beta \cdot \cos\theta}$$



Size broadening

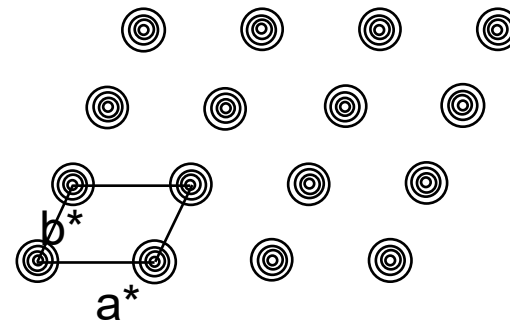
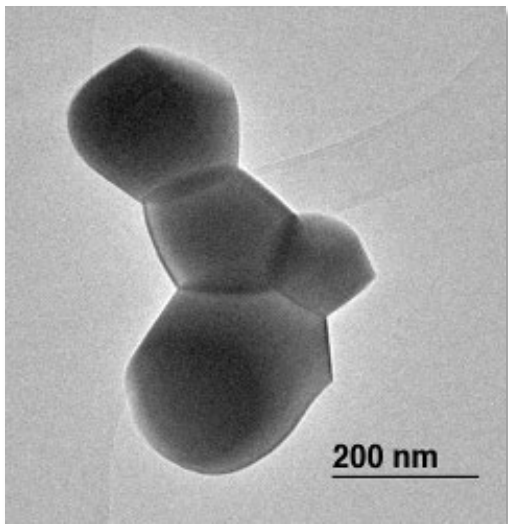


Microstrain broadening

Applications PXRD: Line broadening

- Scherrer equation (over 100 years old)

$$\tau(2\theta) = \frac{K\lambda}{\beta \cdot \cos\theta}$$



Size broadening

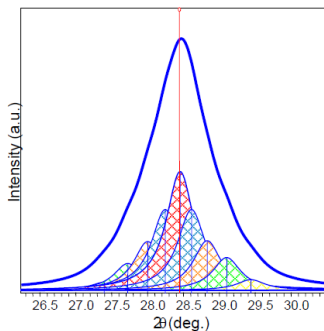
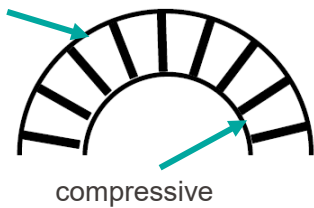
- Particle, crystallite and domain size are not the same.
- XRD (and ND) determines domain size!

Microstrain broadening

- Scherrer equation (over 100 years old)

$$\tau(2\theta) = \frac{K\lambda}{\beta \cdot \cos\theta}$$

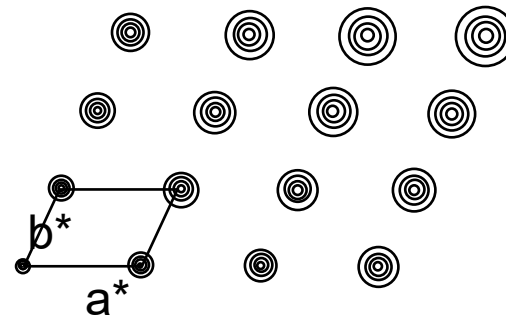
Tensile stress



- Distribution of lattice parameters
- Surface tension NP
- 1D, 2D and 0D defects



Size broadening



Microstrain broadening

- Scherrer equation (over 100 years old)

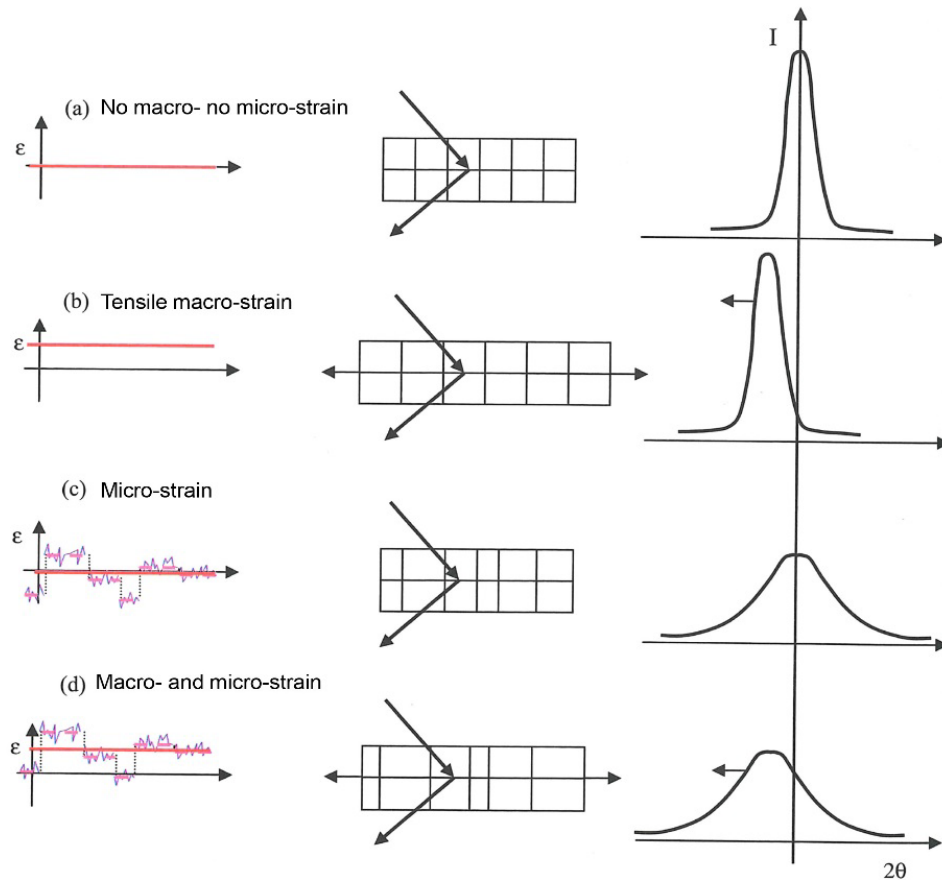
$$\tau(2\theta) = \frac{K\lambda}{\beta \cdot \cos\theta}$$

- Macrostrain (residual stress)

$$\varepsilon_{hkl} = \frac{\Delta d_{hkl}}{d_{hkl}}$$

- Microstrain

$$B(2\theta) = C\varepsilon \frac{\sin\theta}{\cos\theta} = C\varepsilon \tan\theta$$



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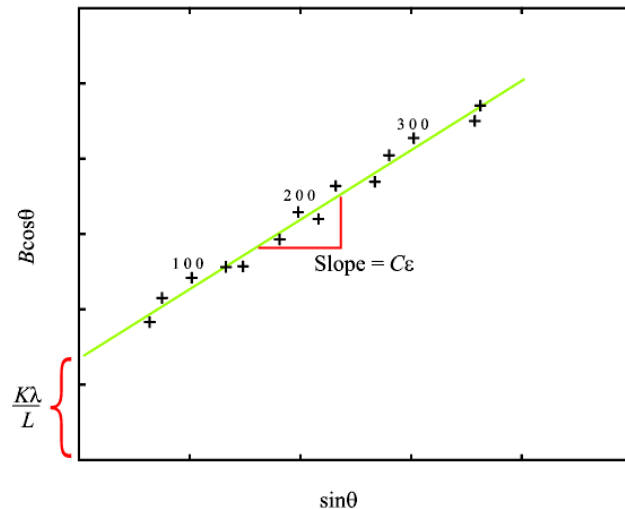
- Microstrain

$$B(2\theta) = C\varepsilon \frac{\sin\theta}{\cos\theta} = C\varepsilon \tan\theta$$

Linear relationship: Williamson – Hall plot

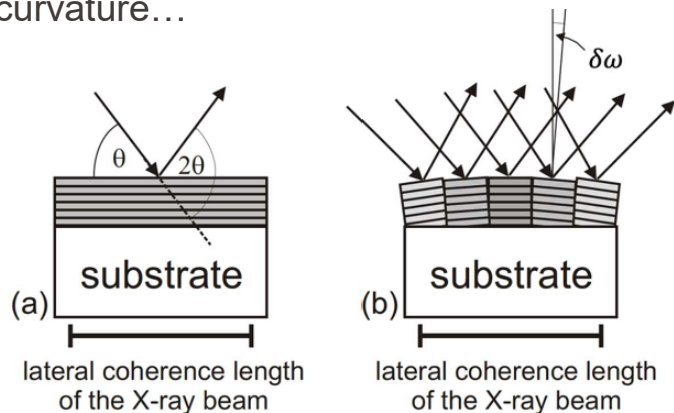
$$\beta_{tot} = B + \tau = C\varepsilon \tan\theta + \frac{K\lambda}{\beta \cdot \cos\theta}$$

$$\beta_{tot} \cos\theta = C\varepsilon \sin\theta + \frac{K\lambda}{\beta}$$

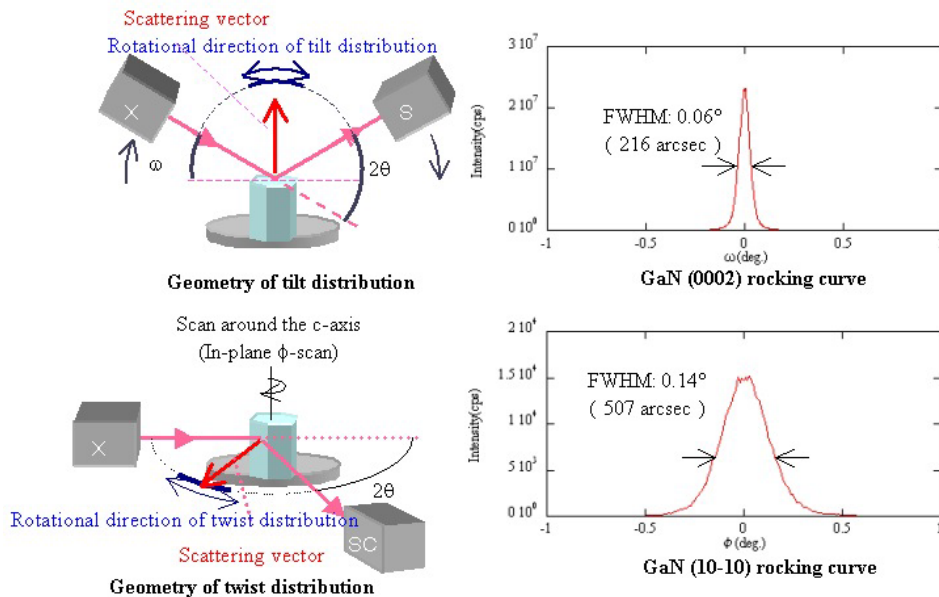


Applications HRXRD: Rocking curves, RSM, Pole figures

- Used to study layer quality and defects: mosaic spread, dislocation density, curvature...



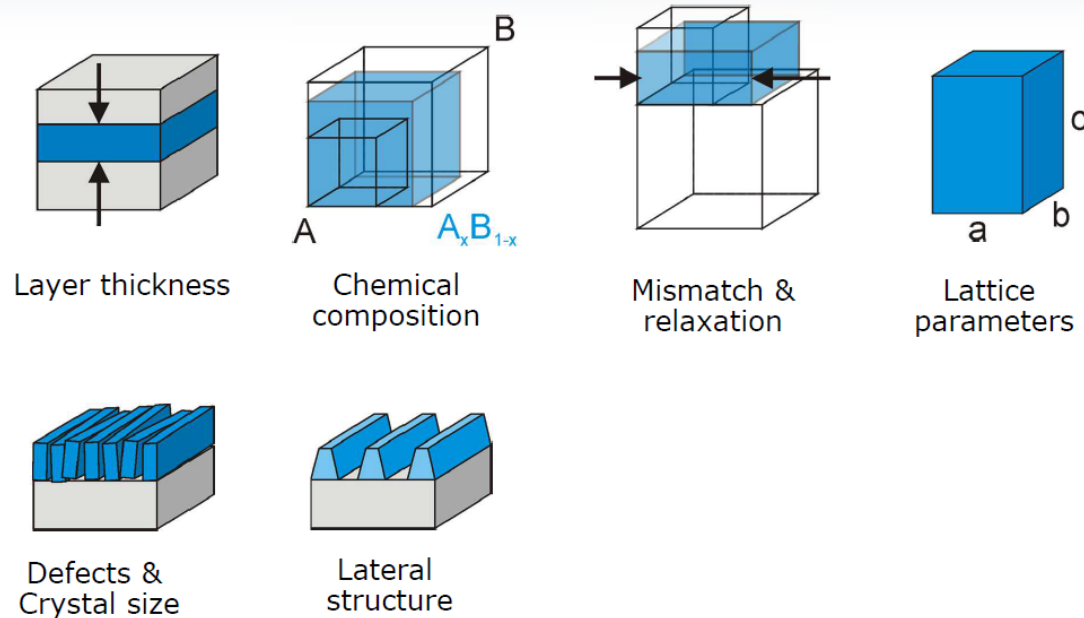
- Perfect powder:** rocking curve meaningless (flat), detector always in diffraction condition
- Perfect crystal:** rocking curve produces very sharp peak, only when crystal is properly tilted.



- Tilt distribution 0.06° , twist distribution 0.14° .

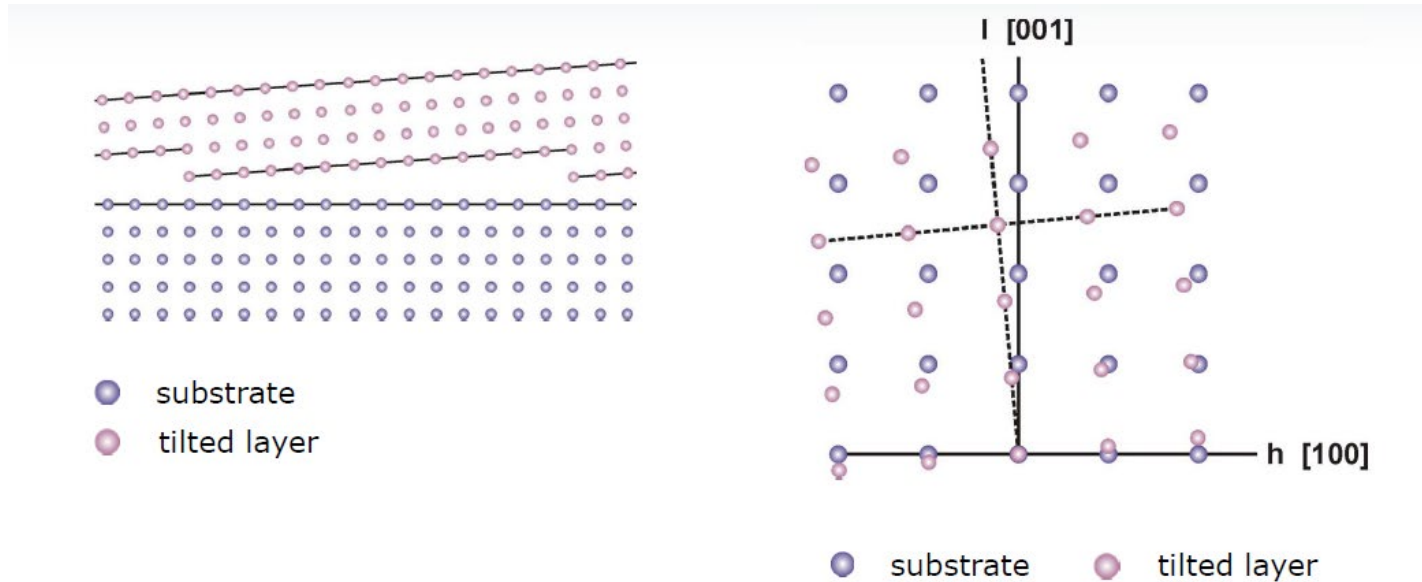
Applications HRXRD: Rocking curves, RSM, Pole figures

- Reciprocal space maps: used for analysis of epitaxial layers



Applications HRXRD: Rocking curves, RSM, Pole figures

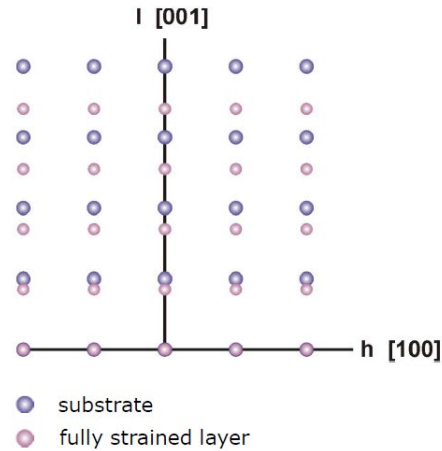
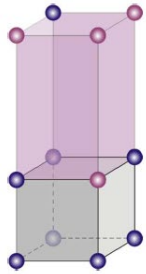
- Reciprocal space maps: used for analysis of epitaxial layers



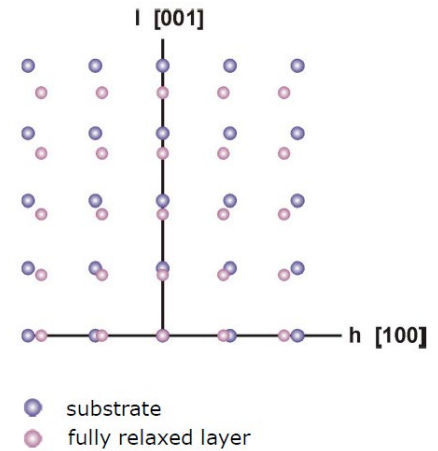
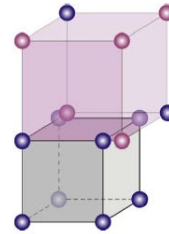
Applications HRXRD: Rocking curves, RSM, Pole figures

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Pseudomorphic Layer

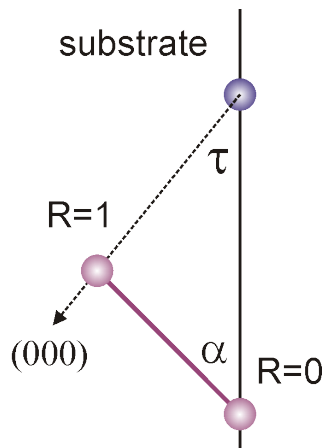
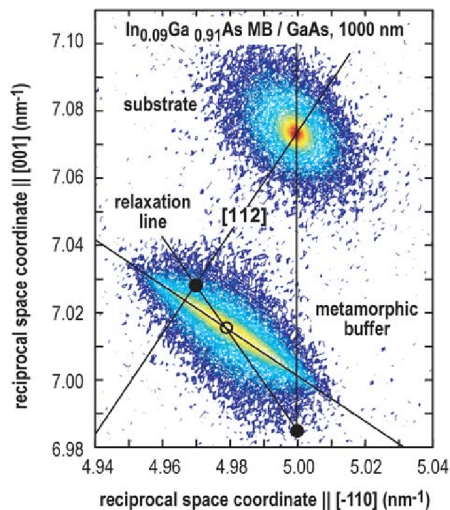


Completely relaxed Layer

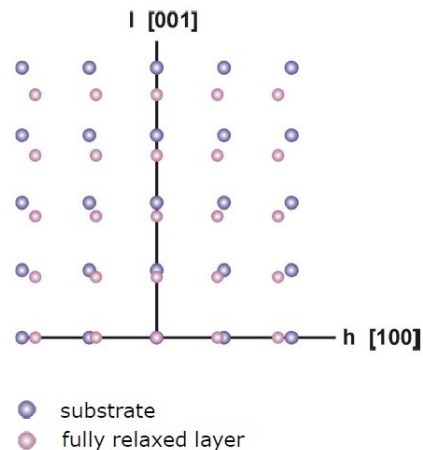
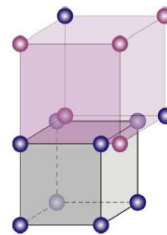


Applications HRXRD: Rocking curves, RSM, Pole figures

- Reciprocal space maps: used for analysis of epitaxial layers



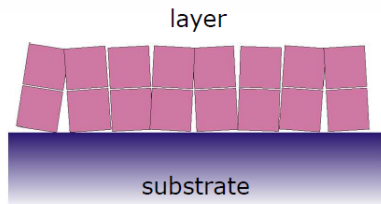
Completely relaxed Layer



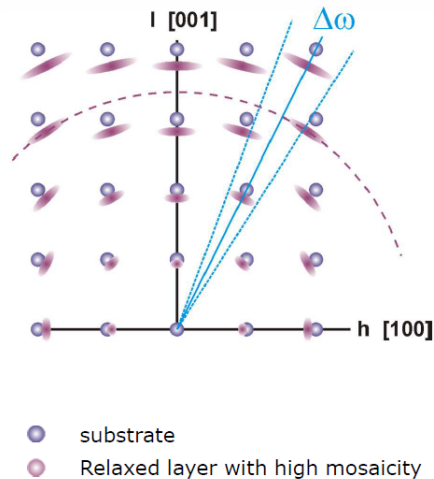
- Partially strained metamorphic buffer layer with mosaic broadening

Applications HRXRD: Rocking curves, RSM, Pole figures

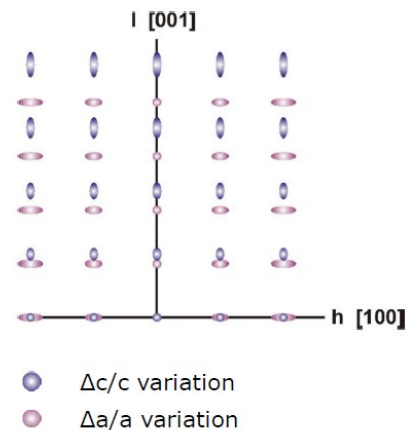
- Reciprocal space maps: used for analysis of epitaxial layers



Mosaicity causes a smearing of the reflection on a circle around (000).

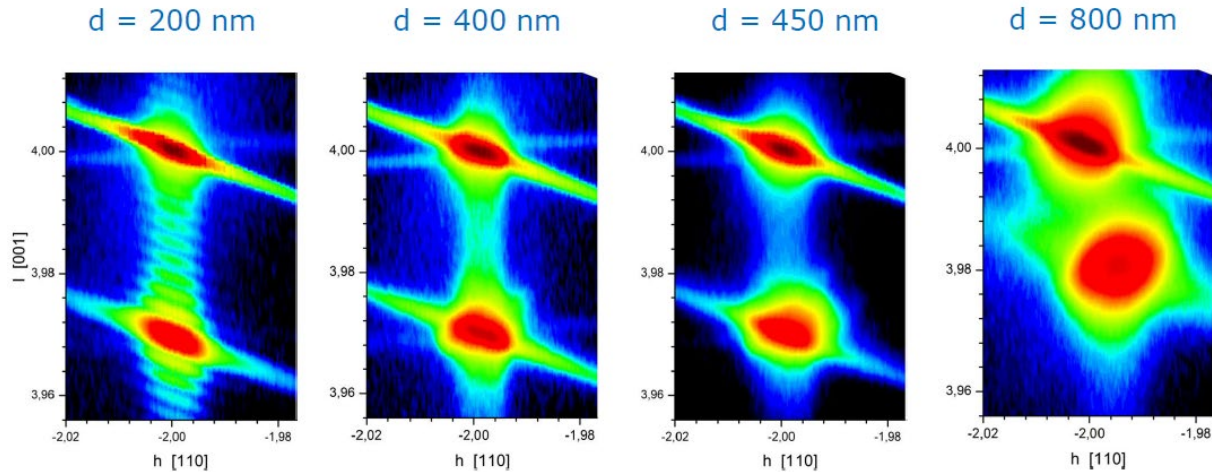


Lattice constant variation



Applications HRXRD: Rocking curves, RSM, Pole figures

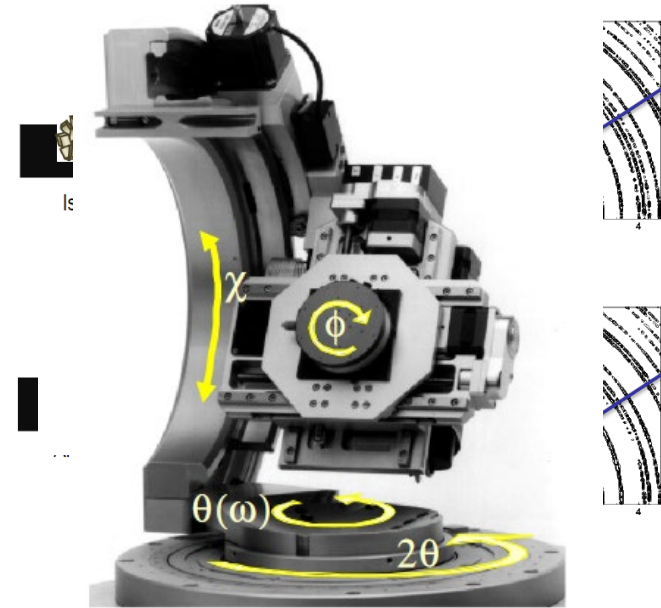
- Reciprocal space maps: used for analysis of epitaxial layers



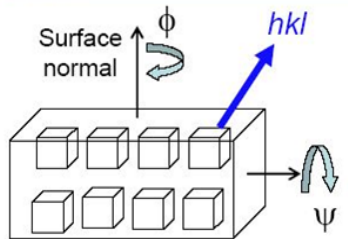
RMS from $\text{In}_{0.06}\text{Ga}_{0.96}\text{As}$ films on GaAs with different layer thickness

Applications HRXRD: Rocking curves, RSM, Pole figures

- Pole figure - stereographic projection of a crystal axis down some sample direction
- Pole figures are used to visualize complex texture.
- Access reciprocal lattice points that are not out-of-plane.

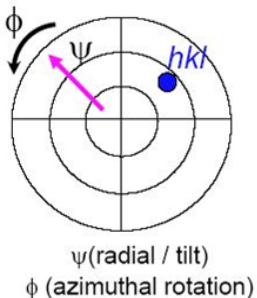


Applications HRXRD: Rocking curves, RSM, Pole figures

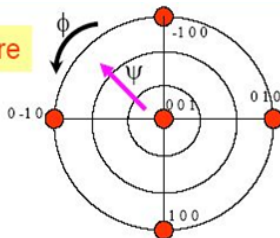


Example: (100) cubic crystal

Pole figure plot



(100) Pole figure

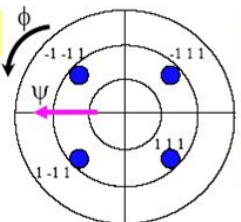
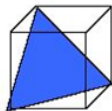


Azimuth
 $\phi = 0, 90^\circ, 180^\circ, 270^\circ$

Tilt
 $\psi = 0, 90^\circ$

$\psi: [100], [100]$

(111) Pole figure

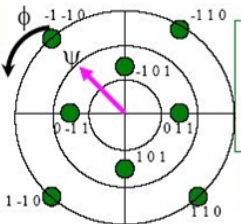
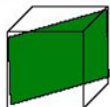


Azimuth
 $\phi = 45^\circ, 135^\circ, 225^\circ, 315^\circ$

Tilt $\psi = 54.7^\circ$

$\psi: [100], [111]$

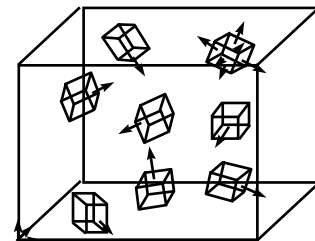
(110) Pole figure



Azimuth
 $\phi = 0, 90^\circ, 180^\circ, 270^\circ, 45^\circ, 135^\circ, 225^\circ, 315^\circ$

Tilt $\psi = 45^\circ, 90^\circ$

$\psi: [100], [110]$



Loose powder

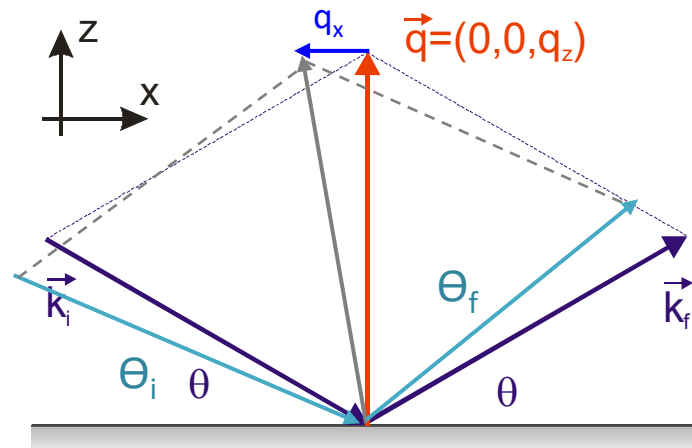
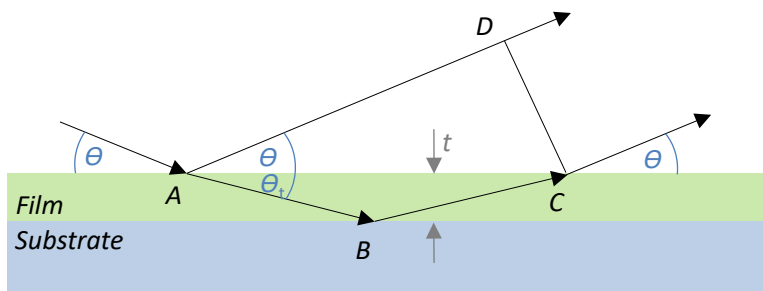
- (100) facet, isotropic powder. What does pole figure look like?

Applications: X-ray reflectometry (XRR)

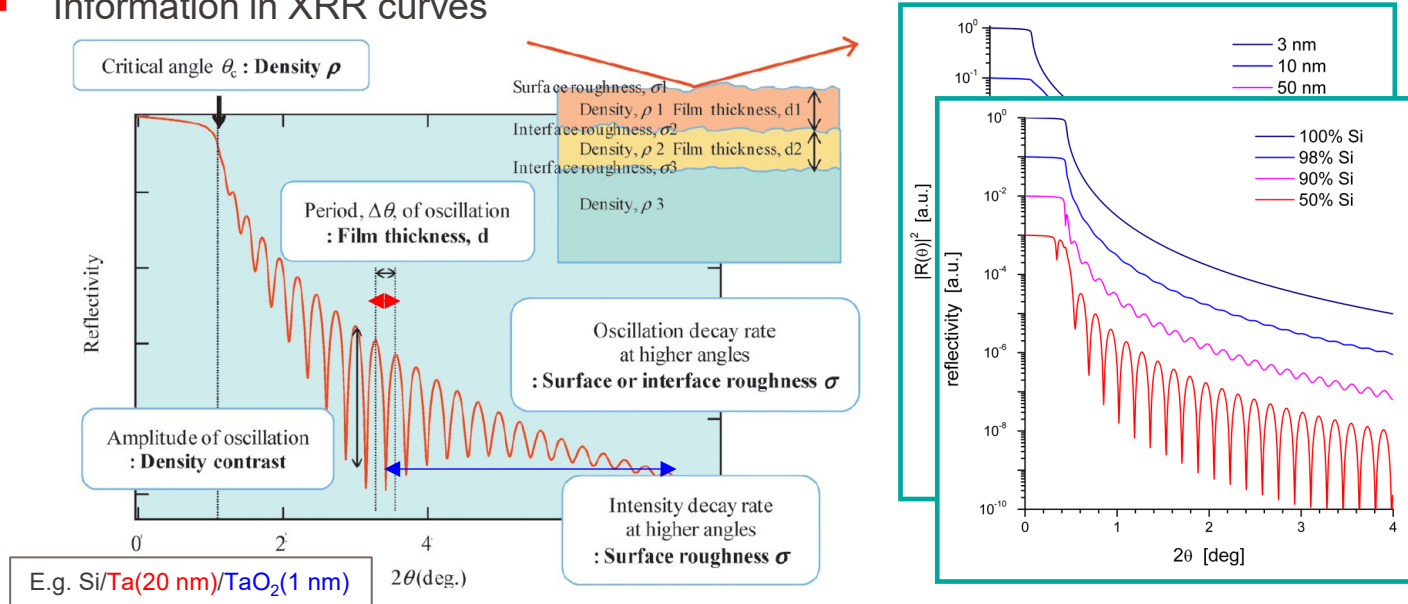
- **Thin film geometry!**
- Not a diffraction method! The specular reflection is measured.
- With XRR we analyze amplitude of **specular** reflection from interfaces

- **Surface sensitive**
 - Measured interference of reflected, not diffracted waves.
 - Works on crystalline and amorphous films.

- **Information obtained by XRR**
 - Layer thickness 0.1 nm – 1000 nm
 - Material density < 1-2%
 - Roughness of surfaces and interfaces < 3-5 nm



- Information in XRR curves

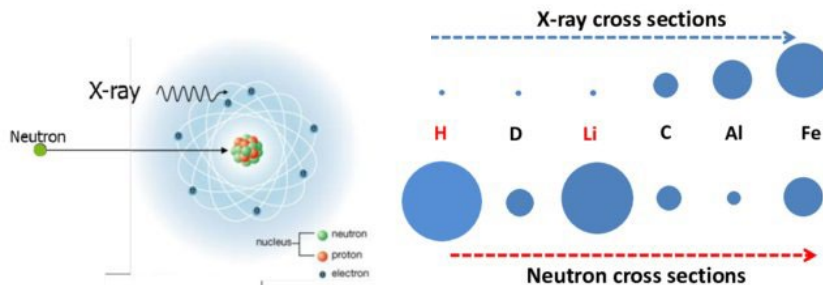


- The interference of the waves reflected from the interfaces causes oscillations of period $\Delta q_z = 2\pi/d$
- Minimal observable thickness given by maximal observable range (λ)
- Maximal observable thickness given by instrumental resolution (source, optics, detector)
 - Sample should have thickness observable with diffractometer
- Amplitude of thickness fringes increases with increasing density contrast.
 - Sample should have good contrast in electron density

X-ray vs. Neutron diffraction

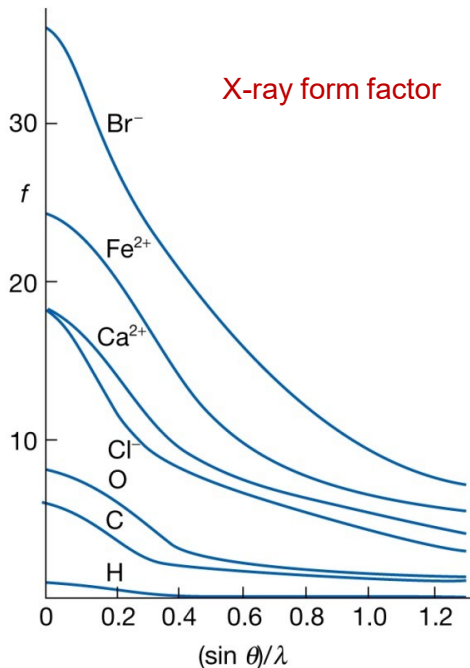


- Available methods very similar to X-ray diffraction (measurement + analysis)



- X-rays interact with electrons, neutrons with the nucleus.

- Different isotopes might have considerably different cross sections



Neutron cross section

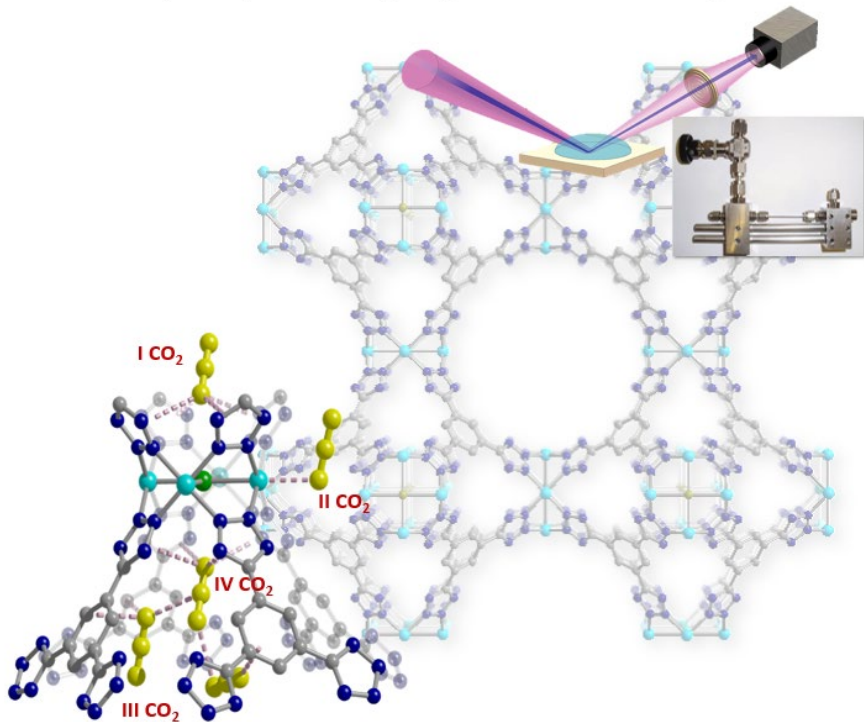
| | Mass number | Isotope abundance | b_c (fm) | σ_c (barn) | σ_i (barn) |
|----|-------------|-------------------|------------|-------------------|-------------------|
| H | 1 | 99.985 | -3.74 | 1.7583 | 80.27 |
| | 2 | 0.015 | 6.671 | 5.592 | 2.05 |
| C | 12 | 98.9 | 6.65 | 5.559 | 0 |
| | 13 | 1.10 | 6.19 | 4.81 | 0.034 |
| O | 16 | 99.762 | 5.803 | 4.232 | 0 |
| | 17 | 0.038 | 5.78 | 4.2 | 0.004 |
| Al | 13 | 100 | 3.449 | 1.495 | 0.0082 |
| Si | 28 | 92.23 | 4.107 | 2.1633 | 0.0 |
| | 29 | 4.67 | 4.7 | 2.12 | 0.001 |
| | 30 | 3.10 | 4.58 | 2.64 | 0 |
| Mn | 55 | 100 | -3.73 | 1.75 | 0.4 |
| Fe | 54 | 5.8 | 4.2 | 2.2 | 0 |
| | 56 | 91.7 | 9.94 | 12.42 | 0 |
| Co | 59 | 100 | 2.49 | 0.779 | 4.8 |

$$I(hkl) = e^{-2B(T)s^2} L_p(\theta) A(\theta) y PO p_{hkl} |F(hkl)|^2$$

$$F(hkl) = \sum_N f_N e^{2\pi i(hx_N + ky_N + lz_N)}$$

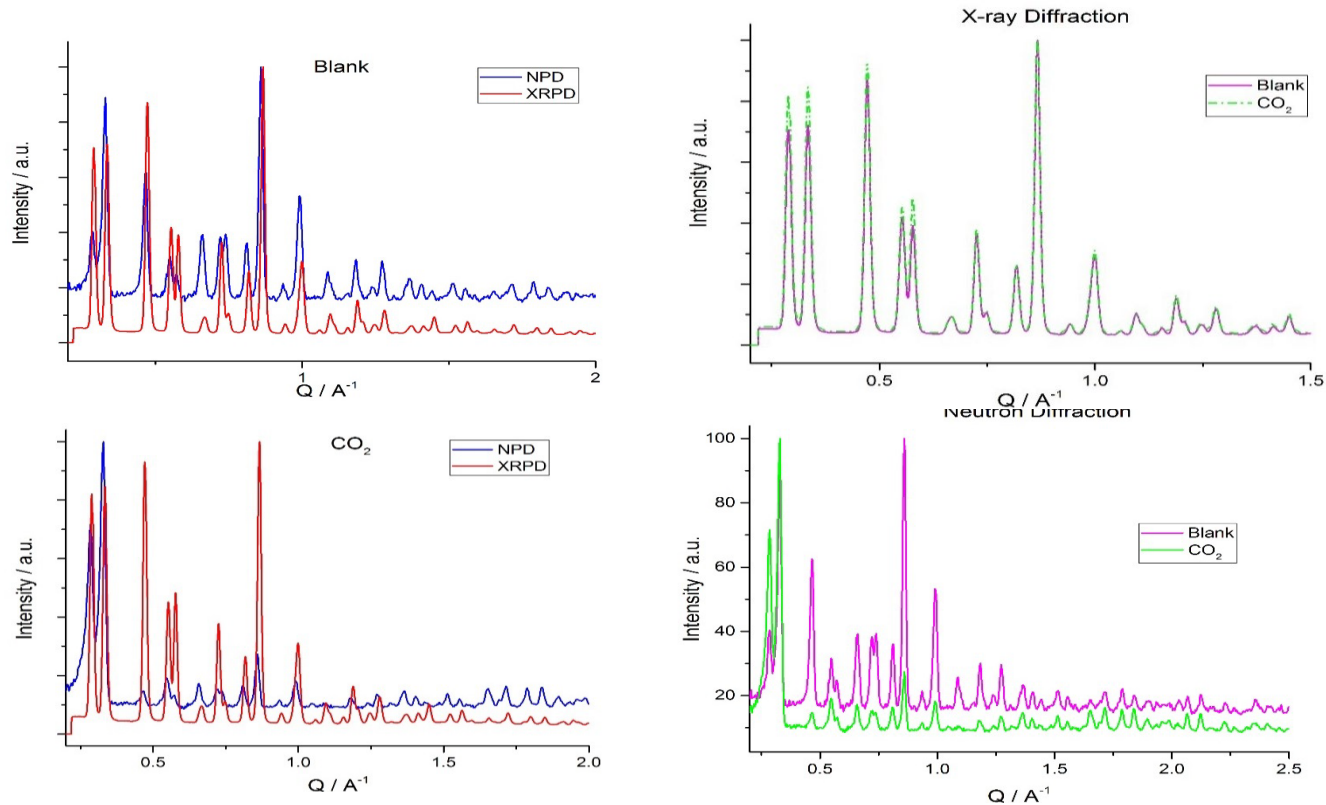
X-ray vs. Neutron diffraction

- Metalorganic framework – gas sorption



X-ray vs. Neutron diffraction

- Metalorganic framework – gas sorption



X-ray vs. Neutron diffraction

- Some common cases where it is useful to use neutrons:
 - Hydrogen positions (largest scattering cross section of all elements!)
 - Oxygen (gases, ordering, vacancies...)
 - Transition metal ordering
 - Magnetic order
 - The neutron is electrically neutral, interaction not with electron cloud but with nucleus: Large penetration depth (devices) + bulk properties.
 - The closest neutron sources are at PSI and in Grenoble (ILL)
 - You need a rather large sample volume
 - Sample will be activated



