### STRUCTURE OF LIQUIDS & GLASSES BY NEUTRON & X-RAY DIFFRACTION

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**References** 

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### DIFFRACTION

- Fraunhoffer diffraction: (i) point-like single particle and (ii) assembly of point-like scattering centres (weak scattering limit)
- Density functions and Fourier transforms
- Diffraction from an assembly of finite-sized scattering centres
- Differential scattering cross-section: The static approximation
- Real-space structure
- Multicomponent systems
- Neutron diffraction with isotope substitution (NDIS)
- Anomalous X-ray scattering (AXS)



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### **SCATTERING BY A SINGLE PARTICLE**

# Consider a single point-like particle at the origin and an incident plane wave



Incident plane wave:

$$\Phi_{\rm inc} = \phi_0 \exp i(\underline{k}_0 \bullet \underline{r} - \omega_0 t)$$

### Scattered spherical wave ( $\therefore \lambda >>$ particle diameter)

$$\Phi_{sc} = \frac{\phi_0 A}{R} \exp i(k_1 R - \omega_0 t + \alpha) \equiv \frac{\phi_0 a}{R} e^{ik_1 R} e^{-i\omega_0 t}$$

where  $a = Ae^{i\alpha}$  depends on the nature of the interaction between the incident wave and the scattering centre ( $\alpha$  determines the phase of the scattered wave relative to that incident)

DIFFRACTION

Note: For Schrödinger waves  $\Phi_{inc}$  and  $\Phi_{sc}$  are complex. For other waves only the real parts have physical significance.

### Scattering triangle



 $2\theta$  = scattering angle

 $\hbar \underline{k}_0$  = incident mom<sup>m</sup>  $\hbar \underline{k}_1$  = scattered mom<sup>m</sup>

Change in particle's mom<sup>m</sup>  $\hbar(\underline{k}_0 - \underline{k}_1) = \hbar \underline{Q}$ 

**Q** is called the scattering vector

By the cosine rule  $Q^2 = k_0^2 + k_1^2 - 2k_0k_1\cos 2\theta$ 

For elastic scattering  $|\underline{k}_0| = |\underline{k}_1| = 2\pi/\lambda$ . So

$$Q^2 = 2k_0^2(1 - \cos 2\theta)$$
$$= 4k_0^2 \sin^2 \theta$$

or 
$$Q = \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \sin \theta$$



### If a second particle is at some position <u>r</u>: -

$$AB = r \cos \alpha = \underline{r} \bullet \underline{\hat{k}}_{0} \qquad \underline{\hat{k}}_{0} = \frac{\underline{k}_{0}}{|\underline{k}_{0}|}$$
$$OC = r \cos \beta = \underline{r} \bullet \underline{\hat{k}}_{1} \qquad \underline{\hat{k}}_{1} = \frac{\underline{k}_{1}}{|\underline{k}_{1}|}$$

∴ path difference AB – OC =  $\frac{\underline{r} \bullet \underline{k}_0}{|\underline{k}_0|} - \frac{\underline{r} \bullet \underline{k}_1}{|\underline{k}_1|}$ 

$$= \frac{\lambda}{2\pi} \underline{r} \bullet \underline{Q} \quad \text{for elastic scattering}$$

(phase difference) = (path difference) x  $2\pi/\lambda = \underline{r} \bullet \underline{Q} = \underline{Q} \bullet \underline{r}$ 

$$\therefore \Phi_{sc} = \frac{\phi_0 a}{R} e^{i(k_1 R + \underline{Q} \bullet \underline{r})} e^{-i\omega_0 t}$$

# i.e. second particle gives an additional phase shift of $\underline{Q} \bullet \underline{r}$

### DIFFRACTION FROM AN ASSEMBLY OF PARTICLES

For an assembly of point-like scattering centres at positions  $\underline{r}_i$  (i = 1, 2, ..., N)

$$\Phi_{sc} = \frac{\phi_0 a}{R} e^{ik_1 R} e^{-i\omega_0 t} \sum_{i=1}^{N} e^{i\underline{Q} \cdot \underline{r}_i}$$



Hence intensity of scattered radiation in detector of area dS at *R* 

 $\propto |\Phi_{\rm sc}|^2 dS = |\Phi_{\rm sc}|^2 R^2 d\Omega$ 

Define the differential scattering cross-section

 $\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \text{(intensity of rad}^n \text{ scattered into small solid}$ 

angle d $\Omega$  in direction of *R*) /

(intensity of incident radiation x d $\Omega$ )

$$=\frac{\left|\Phi_{sc}\right|^{2}\boldsymbol{R}^{2}\,\mathrm{d}\Omega}{\left|\Phi_{inc}\right|^{2}\,\mathrm{d}\Omega}=\boldsymbol{a}\boldsymbol{a}^{*}\left|\sum_{i=1}^{N}\boldsymbol{e}^{i\underline{Q}\cdot\underline{r}_{i}}\right|^{2}$$

So for a single point-like scattering centre at the origin  $d\sigma / d\Omega = aa^*$ :  $\sigma = \int d\Omega (d\sigma / d\Omega) = 4\pi |a|^2$ 

Note: *a* depends on the nature of the interaction between the rad<sup>n</sup> and the scattering centre

### **DENSITY FUNCTIONS & FOURIER TRANSFORMS**

### **Define the density function**

$$\rho(\underline{r}) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{N} \delta(\underline{r} - \underline{r}_{i})$$

This eqn describes a set of point delta functions at the positions of the *N* scattering centres s.t.

$$\int \rho(\underline{r}) d^3 \underline{r} \equiv N$$

Then  $d\sigma/d\Omega$  can be re-written in terms of the Fourier transform of  $\rho(\underline{r})$ 

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\sigma}{\mathrm{d}\Omega} = aa^* \left| \sum_{i=1}^{N} e^{i\underline{Q} \cdot \underline{r}_i} \right|^2 = aa^* \left| \int \mathrm{d}^3 \underline{r} \ \rho(\underline{r}) e^{i\underline{Q} \cdot \underline{r}} \right|^2$$
$$\equiv aa^* N S(\underline{Q})$$

The structure factor  $S(\underline{Q})$  accounts for the effects of interference and depends on the structure of the system

Note: The derivation of  $d\sigma/d\Omega$  assumes that the scattered wave is not attenuated (small sample limit), i.e. there is no beam attenuation and there are no multiple scattering events

### **SCATTERING CENTRES OF FINITE SIZE**

Consider a single atom with Z electrons distributed according to the density function  $\rho_{\rm at}(\underline{r})$  about the charge centre as origin. Then

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\sigma}{\mathrm{d}\Omega} = aa^* \left| \int \mathrm{d}^3 \underline{r} \rho_{\mathrm{at}} \left( \underline{r} \right) e^{i\underline{Q} \cdot \underline{r}} \right|^2$$
$$\equiv aa^* \left| f\left( \underline{Q} \right) \right|^2$$

which defines the atomic form factor  $f(\underline{Q})$  as the Fourier transform of  $\rho_{at}(\underline{r})$ 

If the electron distribution is spherically symmetric then  $f(\underline{Q}) = f(Q)$  and the integral can be made using spherical polar coordinates: -

 $\mathbf{d}^{3}\underline{r} = r^{2} \sin\theta \, \mathbf{d}r \, \mathbf{d}\theta \, \mathbf{d}\phi$  $\underline{Q} \bullet \underline{r} = \mathbf{Q}r \cos\theta$ 

$$\therefore f(\mathbf{Q}) = \int_0^\infty \mathrm{d}\mathbf{r} \int_0^\pi \mathrm{d}\theta \int_0^{2\pi} \mathrm{d}\phi \, \mathbf{e}^{i\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{r}\cos\theta} \rho_{\mathrm{at}}(\mathbf{r}) \mathbf{r}^2 \sin\theta$$

Using  $x = \cos \theta$ 

 $f(\mathbf{Q}) = 2\pi \int_0^\infty \mathrm{d}\mathbf{r} \rho_{\mathrm{at}}(\mathbf{r}) \mathbf{r}^2 \int_{-1}^1 \mathrm{d}\mathbf{x} \left[ \cos \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{r} \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{i} \sin \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{r} \mathbf{x} \right]$ 

Hence

$$f(\mathbf{Q}) = 4\pi \int_0^\infty \mathrm{d}\mathbf{r} \, \mathbf{r}^2 \rho_{\rm at}(\mathbf{r}) \frac{\sin \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{r}}{\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{r}}$$

Limits: 
$$\mathbf{Q} \to \mathbf{0}$$
,  $f(\mathbf{Q} \to 0) = 4\pi \int_0^\infty \mathbf{d} \mathbf{r} \ \mathbf{r}^2 \rho_{at}(\mathbf{r}) = \mathbf{Z}$   
 $\mathbf{Q} \to \infty$ ,  $f(\mathbf{Q} \to \infty) = 0$ 

So for a single centre of finite size the scattering is not isotropic: it is *Q*-dependent

### E.g. for X-ray scattering from a single atom or ion

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\sigma}{\mathrm{d}\Omega} = r_{\mathrm{e}}^{2} \left| f(\mathbf{Q}) \right|^{2}$$

 $r_{\rm e}$  = classical radius of an electron

 $(= 2.8179 \times 10^{-15} \text{ m}),$ 

and the form factor *f*(*Q*) for some selected atoms and ions (in electron units) is given by: -



### DIFFRACTION FOR AN ASSEMBLY OF FINITE-SIZED SCATTERING CENTRES

Let the *N* atoms in the scattering system be arranged with their centres distributed according to the structural density function

$$\rho_{\rm st}\left(\underline{r}\right) \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{N} \delta\left(\underline{r} - \underline{r}_{i}\right)$$

If the charge-density distribution associated with each atom is  $\rho_{at}(\underline{r})$  then the overall charge density is given by the convolution relation

$$\rho(\underline{r}) = \rho_{at}(\underline{r}) \otimes \rho_{st}(\underline{r})$$

By using the convolution theorem it follows that

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = aa^* \left| \int d^3 \underline{r} \left[ \rho_{at} \left( \underline{r} \right) \otimes \rho_{st} \left( \underline{r} \right) \right] e^{i\underline{Q} \cdot \underline{r}} \right|^2$$
$$= aa^* f \left( \underline{Q} \right) f \left( \underline{Q} \right)^* NS_{st} \left( \underline{Q} \right)$$

where  $S_{st}(\underline{Q})$  is the structure factor associated with  $\rho_{st}(\underline{r})$  and does not depend on the nature of the scattering process

For an isotopic liquid or glass,  $Q \rightarrow |Q|$ 

Henceforth, we will write  $S_{st}(\underline{Q})$  as S(Q)

### **ELASTIC & INELASTIC SCATTERING**

So far we have considered elastic scattering. But scattering events can be either elastic or inelastic

More generally, the measured intensity will depend on both the momentum transfer  $\hbar Q$  and energy transfer  $E = \hbar \omega$  for a scattering event. This intensity depends on the double differential scattering crosssection

$$I(\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{E}) \propto \frac{1}{N} \frac{\mathbf{d}^2 \sigma}{\mathbf{d}\Omega \, \mathbf{d} \mathbf{E}_1} = \frac{\sigma}{4\pi} \frac{\mathbf{k}_1}{\mathbf{k}_0} \, \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{E})$$

Incident energy of quantum: E<sub>0</sub>

Final energy of quantum: E<sub>1</sub>

Energy transfer:  $E = E_0 - E_1$ 

Scattering cross section:  $\sigma$ (e.g.,  $\sigma = 4\pi |\mathbf{a}|^2$  for point-like scattering centres)

For a glass, the dynamical structure factor S(Q, E)will have contributions from both elastic and inelastic (phonon and multi-phonon) scattering

$$S(Q, E) = S_{el}(Q)\delta(E) + S_{phonon}(Q, E)$$

For example, I(Q, E) for a glass at low temperature T



 $I(Q, E) \sim 0$  for E < 0: Quanta do not gain energy from the scattering system (it's too cold!)

I(Q,E) for E = 0: Elastic line broadened by resolution function of spectrometer. Signal related to equilibrium positions of pairs of scattering centres

I(Q, E) for E > 0: finite intensity because quanta can excite system states (phonons)

Note: For a liquid or gas, there is no truly elastic scattering (i.e., there is always some recoil in the scattering event)

### **POWDER DIFFRACTOMETER**



# Monochromator uses Bragg diffraction to select an incident wavelength $\lambda$ .

 $|\underline{\mathbf{k}}_0| = 2\pi/\lambda$ , and the incident energy  $E_0$  is fixed

Detector has an efficiency  $\varepsilon(E_1)$ 

In the diffraction experiment, the detector integrates I(Q, E) over all energy exchanges *E* at constant scattering angle  $2\theta$ 

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\sigma}{\mathrm{d}\Omega}\Big|_{\mathrm{meas}} = \int_{-\infty}^{E_0} \mathrm{d}E \,\varepsilon(E_1) I(Q,E)$$

### DIFFERENTIAL SCATTERING CROSS-SECTION: THE STATIC APPROXIMATION

The static approximation is usually made to obtain the differential cross-section for the total scattering. Here, it is assumed that  $E/E_0 \ll 1$  such that  $k_0 \simeq k_1$ . Then,

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\sigma}{\mathrm{d}\Omega}\Big|_{\mathrm{SA}} = \frac{\sigma}{4\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{E_0} \mathrm{d}E\varepsilon (E_1) \frac{k_1}{k_0} S(Q, E)$$
$$= \varepsilon (E_0) \frac{\sigma}{4\pi} S(Q)$$

We can define an observation timescale  $\tau_{\text{snapshot}}$  by the time taken for an incident quantum of velocity vto travel one interatomic distance a, i.e.,

 $\tau_{\text{snapshot}} \sim a/v$  where  $a \sim 10^{-10}$  m

The condition  $E/E_0 \ll 1$  for validity of the static approximation can be re-written as  $\tau_{\text{snapshot}} \ll \tau_{\text{min}}$ , where  $\tau_{\text{min}}$  is a characteristic time for atomic motion, e.g., the period of atomic vibration in a solid, or the relaxation time in a liquid. Typically  $\tau_{\text{min}} \sim 10^{-13} - 10^{-12} \,\text{s}$ 

Hence, the static approximation corresponds to a structure that is relatively static on the timescale for a quantum wavepacket to pass from one atom to the next

# For X-ray diffraction, the photons travel at the speed of light

 $\tau_{\mathrm{snapshot}} \sim a/c \sim 10^{-18} \mathrm{s}$ 

So the static approximation is valid

For neutron diffraction,  $v \sim 10^3$  m s<sup>-1</sup>

 $\tau_{\text{snapshot}} \sim a/v \sim 10^{-13} s$ 

So the static approximation is not valid, and inelasticity (or Placzek) corrections must be applied to the results obtained from neutron diffraction experiments

Within the static approximation, the measured differential cross-section gives a more-or-less instantaneous or snapshot picture of the structure

### **STRUCTURE FACTOR**

### Neutron diffraction: -



**Figure 2.** Differential scattering cross-section per atom  $(1/N)d\sigma/d\Omega = \overline{b}^2 S(q) + (\overline{b^2} - \overline{b}^2)$  for a monatomic liquid or glass. The position of the first peak is inversely proportional to the interatomic distance,  $r_{\text{interatomic}}$ .

# Spin and isotope incoherence $\rightarrow$ additional term that does not depend on Q

### X-ray diffraction: -



### **REAL-SPACE STRUCTURE**

Subtract the forward scattering. Fourier transform  $\rightarrow$  the pair-distribution function

$$\boldsymbol{g}(\boldsymbol{r}) = 1 + \frac{1}{2\pi^2 \boldsymbol{r} \rho} \int_0^\infty \boldsymbol{d} \boldsymbol{Q} \boldsymbol{Q} [\boldsymbol{S}(\boldsymbol{Q}) - 1] \sin(\boldsymbol{Q} \boldsymbol{r})$$

where  $\rho$  is the atomic number density



g(r) is a measure of the probability of finding two atoms a distance *r* apart

The coordination number  $\overline{n}$  for the distance range  $r_1 \le r \le r_2$  is obtained by integration

$$\overline{\boldsymbol{n}} = 4\pi \,\rho \int_{r_1}^{r_2} d\boldsymbol{r} \, \boldsymbol{r}^2 \boldsymbol{g}(\boldsymbol{r})$$

and gives the average number of nearestneighbours about a particle at the origin of coordinates The real-space information can also be expressed in terms of the density function D(r) [often represented as G(r)], which is used in pairdistribution function (PDF) analyses: -

$$PDF(r) = D(r) = G(r) = 4\pi \rho r [g(r) - 1]$$
$$= \frac{2}{\pi} \int_{0}^{\infty} dQ Q [S(Q) - 1] sin(Qr)$$



### **HOW IS A DIFFRACTION PATTERN BUILT-UP?**

Each incident quantum is not described by a perfect plane wave, but by a wavepacket that is coherent over a finite extent of space, which defines its coherence volume



The size of the coherence volume is dependent on spread in wavelengths  $\Delta\lambda/\lambda$  selected by the monochromator, and by the collimation of the incident and scattered beams, i.e., it depends on the **Q**-space resolution of the diffractometer

The maximum real-space structure that can be probed will depend on the size of the coherence volume. Hence, each quantum will probe only part of the structure (that within its coherence volume) of a system of finite size

A complete diffraction pattern is built-up from a set of scattered quanta, i.e., it represents an ensemble average of the snapshot pictures of the structure taken by the quanta over the duration of the diffraction experiment

### **DATA CORRECTIONS**

# To obtain an accurate representation of the structure, the differential cross-sections must be placed on an absolute scale

### Corrections must also be performed carefully: -

# Neutrons Attenuation Multiple scattering Placzek (inelasticity) Incoherence Resolution Background Furnace/container/pressure cell Normalisation (vanadium) Dead time



### **MULTICOMPONENT SYSTEMS**

System of *n* different chemical species  $\alpha$ 

$\boldsymbol{c}_{\alpha}$	= atomic fraction						
$\boldsymbol{b}_{\!\alpha}$	= coherent scattering length						
$\boldsymbol{b}_{\mathrm{inc},\alpha}$	= incoherent scattering length						
$f_{\alpha}(Q)$	= atomic form factor						

For X-ray diffraction: -

$$\frac{1}{r_{e}^{2}} \frac{1}{N} \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} \bigg|_{SA} = \sum_{\alpha} \sum_{\beta} c_{\alpha} c_{\beta} f_{\alpha} (Q) f_{\beta}^{*} (Q) [S_{\alpha\beta} (Q) - 1] + \sum_{\alpha} c_{\alpha} f_{\alpha} (Q) f_{\alpha}^{*} (Q)$$
$$= F_{X} (Q) + \sum_{\alpha} c_{\alpha} |f_{\alpha} (Q)|^{2}$$

For neutron diffraction: -

$$\frac{1}{N} \frac{\mathrm{d}\sigma}{\mathrm{d}\Omega} \bigg|_{\mathrm{SA}} = \sum_{\alpha} \sum_{\beta} \boldsymbol{c}_{\alpha} \boldsymbol{c}_{\beta} \boldsymbol{b}_{\alpha} \boldsymbol{b}_{\beta} \Big[ \boldsymbol{S}_{\alpha\beta} (\boldsymbol{Q}) - 1 \Big] + \sum_{\alpha} \boldsymbol{c}_{\alpha} \Big( \boldsymbol{b}_{\alpha}^{2} + \boldsymbol{b}_{\mathrm{inc},\alpha}^{2} \Big) \\ = \boldsymbol{F}_{\mathrm{N}} (\boldsymbol{Q}) + \sum_{\alpha} \boldsymbol{c}_{\alpha} \Big( \boldsymbol{b}_{\alpha}^{2} + \boldsymbol{b}_{\mathrm{inc},\alpha}^{2} \Big)$$

Each partial structure factor  $S_{\alpha\beta}(Q)$  describes the pair-correlations between atomic species  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ 

There are n(n+1)/2 different  $S_{\alpha\beta}(Q)$  functions, which overlap

For a given material, we want to measure these  $S_{\alpha\beta}(Q)$  functions, and Fourier transform to get the partial pair-distribution functions

$$\boldsymbol{g}_{\alpha\beta}(\boldsymbol{r}) = 1 + \frac{1}{2\pi^2 \boldsymbol{r} \rho} \int_0^\infty \boldsymbol{d} \boldsymbol{Q} \, \boldsymbol{Q} \Big[ \boldsymbol{S}_{\alpha\beta}(\boldsymbol{Q}) - 1 \Big] \sin(\boldsymbol{Q} \boldsymbol{r})$$

The weighting factors for the  $S_{\alpha\beta}(Q)$  functions can be changed by altering either  $b_{\alpha}$  or  $f_{\alpha}(Q)$ . The diffraction pattern will change, but the structure will remain unaltered

Then combine these diffraction patterns to reduce the complexity of correlations associated with a single diffraction pattern

Can change the  $b_{\alpha}$  values by using isotope substitution  $\rightarrow$  neutron diffraction with isotope substitution (NDIS)

Can change the  $f_{\alpha}(Q)$  values by working near to an absorption edge  $\rightarrow$  anomalous X-ray scattering (AXS)

### NEUTRON DIFFRACTION WITH ISOTOPE SUBSTITUTION (NDIS)

н		Elements with isotope contrast												He			
Li	Be	(different <sub>bcoh</sub> )										в	С	N	0	F	Ne
Na	Mg											AI	Si	P	s	СІ	Ar
к	Са	Sc	Ti	v	Cr	Mn	Fe	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se	Br	Kr
Rb	Sr	Y	Zr	Nb	Мо	Тс	Ru	Rh	Pd	Ag	Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Te	1	Xe
Cs	Ba	La	Hf	Та	w	Re	Os	Ir	Pt	Au	Hg	П	Рb	Bi	Po	At	Rn
Fr	Ra																
		Ce	Pr	Nd	Pm	Sm	Eu	Gd	ТЬ	Dy	Но	Er	Tm	Yb	Lu		
		Th	Pa	U	Np	Pu	Am	Cm	Bk	Cf	Es	Fm	Md	No	Lr		

Green: Good scattering length contrast Orange: Marginal scattering length contrast [Blue: anomalous neutron diffraction]

### First-difference method

Prepare two samples that are chemically identical, but change the isotopic content of one of the elements X. For example, exchange

<sup>58</sup>Ni ( $b_{\rm coh}$  = 14.4 fm) for <sup>62</sup>Ni ( $b_{\rm coh}$  = -8.7 fm )

Can then eliminate all of the partial structure factors apart from those of the targeted element  $\rightarrow$  weighted sum of the  $S_{X\beta}(Q)$ 

### Second-difference method

Prepare three or more samples that are chemically identical, but change the isotopic enrichment of one of the elements X.

Can then isolate  $S_{XX}(Q)$  for the targeted element

### Full partial structure factor analysis

Realistically, only feasible for binary systems. Prepare n(n + 1)/2 samples with identical chemical compositions but with different isotopic mixtures. Solve the scattering matrix to isolate each of the individual partial structure factors.

We will use this method as a case study

### CASE STUDY: GeO<sub>2</sub>

### For details see Salmon et al. (2007) J. Phys. Condens. Matter <u>19</u> (2007) 415110

Isotope	<i>b</i> (fm)
<sup>nat</sup> Ge	8.185
<sup>70</sup> Ge	10.00
<sup>73</sup> Ge	5.02
<sup>nat</sup> O	5.805



**Scattering matrix** 



### Fourier transform to obtain the $g_{\alpha\beta}(r)$

### **Notes**

The multiplicative factors in the inverse matrix are large. So small statistical errors in the data are inflated in the inversion process – most scattering matrices are poorly conditioned

## High statistical precision is needed for the total structure factors

Small systematic errors on one or more of the measured total structure factors (e.g. poor normalisation, steps, poor attenuation and/or multiple scattering corrections) will produce large errors in the partial structure factors

High accuracy for the measured total structure factors is essential. Data should be carefully checked for selfconsistency using the known density and scattering lengths

### **ANOMALOUS X-RAY SCATTERING (AXS)**

In general, the form factor depends on the scattering vector Q and the incident photon energy  $E_0$ 

$$\boldsymbol{f}_{\alpha}\left(\boldsymbol{Q},\boldsymbol{E}_{0}\right)=\boldsymbol{f}_{\alpha}\left(\boldsymbol{Q}\right)+\boldsymbol{f}_{\alpha}'\left(\boldsymbol{E}_{0}\right)+\mathsf{i}\boldsymbol{f}_{\alpha}''\left(\boldsymbol{E}_{0}\right)$$

where  $f'_{\alpha}(E_0)$  and  $f''_{\alpha}(E_0)$  are the real and imaginary parts of the so-called anomalous dispersion term

Near an absorption edge,  $f'_{\alpha}(E_0)$  and  $f''_{\alpha}(E_0)$  change with  $E_0$ , the detail of which depends on the chemical environment of the absorbing species

For example, for the K-edge of Se: -



### Energy ranges for absorption edges of the elements



E.g., can probe the coordination environment of  $Y^{3+}$  in aqueous solution by using the Y *K*-edge



The method is challenging: -

- Excellent incident energy resolution (< 1 eV)
- Excellent scattered energy resolution (<100 eV?)
- Need to measure the absorption cross-section to get f'<sub>α</sub>(E<sub>0</sub>)
- Difficulties associated with resonance Raman and subsequent absorption
- Contrast limited to ~10%

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Neutron and X-ray diffraction are important tools for elucidating the structure of disordered materials

Experiments require great care, and high counting statistics

Information at the partial structure factor level is important for revealing the detail of the structure on a local and intermediate length scale

Methods for obtaining this information include NDIS and AXS (can also combine x-ray and neutron diffraction)

Results can be used to test the reliability of, e.g., the theoretical scheme used in molecular dynamics simulations

Can also use the diffraction results to help build structural models via, e.g., (i) the reverse Monte Carlo (RMC) method [McGreevy, J. Phys.: Condens. Matter <u>13</u> (2001) R877] or (ii) the Empirical Potential Structure Refinement (EPSR) method [Soper, Phys Rev B <u>72</u> (2005) 104204]

# NOTE: ENERGY OF RADIATION FOR DIFFRACTION STUDIES

1) <u>X-rays</u>

For an x-ray photon  $E = hv = \frac{hc}{\lambda}$ 

**Exercise:** express *E* in eV and  $\lambda$  in Å (1 Å = 10<sup>-10</sup> m). Hence show that

 $E(eV) = 12.4 \times 10^{3} / \lambda(Å)$ 

2) Neutrons

For a thermal neutron  $E = \frac{p^2}{2m_n}$ de Broglie wavelength  $\lambda = \frac{h}{p}$  $\therefore E = \frac{h^2}{2m_n\lambda^2} = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m_n}$  where  $k \equiv \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$ .

**Exercise:** Show that  $E(eV)=81.81 \times 10^{-3}/[\lambda(\text{ Å})]^2$ 

3) Electrons

For a non-relativistic electron

$$\boldsymbol{E} = \frac{\boldsymbol{h}^2}{2\boldsymbol{m}_{\mathrm{e}}\boldsymbol{\lambda}^2} = \frac{\boldsymbol{h}^2\boldsymbol{k}^2}{2\boldsymbol{m}_{\mathrm{e}}}$$

**Exercise:** Show that  $E(eV)=150.4/[\lambda(Å)]^2$ 

Note: If  $\lambda = 1$  Å energy of neutron is 81.81 meV cf. 12.4 keV for an x-ray

Energy of neutrons released in nuclear fission  $\approx$ 1 MeV.  $\therefore$  to make diffraction experiments require a reduction in energy of  $\approx 10^7$ . This is achieved via inelastic collisions in a moderator material, e.g., a block of graphite at 2000 K. The resultant neutrons have thermal energies  $\approx k_{\rm B}T$ 

Note: X-rays and electrons are scattered by the electrons of an atom. Neutrons are scattered by the nucleus of an atom, and also by the unpaired electrons of a magnetic atom.

Note: For a thermal neutron,  $\lambda >>$  nuclear dimensions (10<sup>-15</sup> m) we have point-like scattering centres  $\Rightarrow$  isotropic scattering.