

INTERNATIONAL TABLES
FOR
CRYSTALLOGRAPHY

Volume H
POWDER DIFFRACTION

Edited by
C. J. GILMORE, J. A. KADUK AND H. SCHENK

First Edition

Published for
THE INTERNATIONAL UNION OF CRYSTALLOGRAPHY

by

WILEY

2019

Contributing authors

- A. J. ALLEN: National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST), 100 Bureau Drive, Gaithersburg, MD 20899, USA. [5.8]
- A. ALTOMARE: Institute of Crystallography – CNR, Via Amendola 122/o, Bari, I-70126, Italy. [3.4, 4.2]
- G. ÁLVAREZ-PINAZO: Departamento de Química Inorgánica, Cristalografía y Mineralogía, Universidad de Málaga, 29071 Málaga, Spain, and X-Ray Data Services S.L., Edificio de institutos universitarios, c/ Severo Ochoa 4, Parque tecnológico de Andalucía, 29590 Málaga, Spain. [3.10]
- M. A. G. ARANDA: ALBA Synchrotron, Carrer de la Llum 2–26, Cerdanyola, 08290 Barcelona, Spain, and Departamento de Química Inorgánica, Cristalografía y Mineralogía, Universidad de Málaga, 29071 Málaga, Spain. [3.10, 7.12]
- R. ARLETTI: Dipartimento di Scienze della Terra, Università degli Studi di Torino, Via Valperga Caluso 35, I-10125 Torino, Italy. [7.14]
- G. ARTIOLI: Dip. Geoscienze, Università di Padova, Via Gradenigo 6, I-35131 Padova, Italy. [7.4]
- CH. BAERLOCHER: Laboratory of Crystallography, ETH Zurich, HCI, G 509, CH-8093 Zurich, Switzerland. [4.6]
- G. BARR: Department of Chemistry, University of Glasgow, University Avenue, Glasgow G12 8QQ, UK. [3.8]
- S. BATES: Triclinic Labs, 1201 Cumberland Ave., Suite S, West Lafayette, IN 47906, USA. [5.6]
- W. VAN BEEK: Swiss–Norwegian Beamlines at ESRF, CS 40220, 38043 Grenoble Cedex 9, France. [2.9]
- J. BERNSTEIN: Department of Chemistry, Ben-Gurion University of the Negev, PO Box 653, Beer Sheva, 84102, Israel. [7.5]
- S. J. L. BILLINGE: Department of Applied Physics and Applied Mathematics, Columbia University, 500 West 120th Street, Room 200 Mudd, MC 4701, New York, NY 10027, USA, and Condensed Matter Physics and Materials Science Department, Brookhaven National Laboratory, PO Box 5000, Upton, NY 11973-5000, USA. [1.1, 5.7]
- M. BIRKHOLZ: IHP, Im Technologiepark 25, 15236 Frankfurt (Oder), Germany. [5.4]
- D. L. BISH: Department of Earth and Atmospheric Sciences, Indiana University, Bloomington, IN 47405, USA. [7.7]
- D. BLACK: National Institute of Standards and Technology, Gaithersburg, Maryland, USA. [3.1]
- K. CENZUAL: University of Geneva, 24 quai Ernest-Ansermet, CH-1211 Geneva 4, Switzerland. [3.7.5]
- R. ČERNÝ: Laboratory of Crystallography, DQMP, University of Geneva, 24 quai Ernest-Ansermet, CH-1211 Geneva 4, Switzerland. [4.5]
- D. CHATEIGNER: CRISMAT–ENSICAEN, UMR CNRS No. 6508, 6 Boulevard M. Juin, F-14050 Caen, France, and Normandie Université, IUT Mesures-Physiques, Université de Caen Normandie, Caen, France. [5.3]
- J. P. CLINE: National Institute of Standards and Technology, Gaithersburg, Maryland, USA. [3.1]
- G. CRUCIANI: Department of Physics and Earth Sciences, University of Ferrara, Polo Scientifico-tecnologico – Bld B, Via G. Saragat 1, I-44122 Ferrara, Italy. [7.14]
- A. CUESTA: ALBA Synchrotron, Carrer de la Llum 2–26, Cerdanyola, 08290 Barcelona, Spain. [3.10]
- C. CUOCCI: Institute of Crystallography – CNR, Via Amendola 122/o, Bari, I-70126, Italy. [3.4, 4.2]
- W. I. F. DAVID: ISIS Facility, Rutherford Appleton Laboratory, Chilton OX11 0QX, UK. [4.3]
- A. G. DE LA TORRE: Departamento de Química Inorgánica, Cristalografía y Mineralogía, Universidad de Málaga, 29071 Málaga, Spain. [3.10, 7.12]
- R. E. DINNEBIER: Max Planck Institute for Solid State Research, Heisenbergstrasse 1, D-70569 Stuttgart, Germany. [1.1, 4.8]
- W. DONG: Department of Chemistry, University of Glasgow, University Avenue, Glasgow G12 8QQ, UK. [3.8]
- H. EHRENBERG: Institut für Angewandte Materialien (IAM-ESS), Karlsruhe Institut für Technologie (KIT), Eggenstein-Leopoldshafen, Germany. [2.8]
- V. FAVRE-NICOLIN: ESRF – The European Synchrotron, F-38043 Grenoble, France. [4.5]
- F. R. FERETȚ: Feret Analytical Consulting, 128, Des Fauvettes, Saint-Colomban, Québec, Canada J5K 0E2. [7.6]
- G. FERRARIS: Dipartimento di Scienze della Terra, Università degli Studi di Torino, Via Valperga Caluso 35, I-10125 Torino, Italy. [7.14]
- A. FITCH: ESRF, 71 Avenue des Martyrs, CS40220, 38043 Grenoble Cedex 9, France. [2.2]
- A. J. FLORENCE: Strathclyde Institute of Pharmacy and Biomedical Sciences, University of Strathclyde, Glasgow, UK. [4.4]
- H. FUESS: Technische Universität Darmstadt, Darmstadt, Germany. [2.8]
- M. GARCÍA-MATÉ: Departamento de Química Inorgánica, Cristalografía y Mineralogía, Universidad de Málaga, 29071 Málaga, Spain, and X-Ray Data Services S.L., Edificio de institutos universitarios, c/ Severo Ochoa 4, Parque tecnológico de Andalucía, 29590 Málaga, Spain. [3.10]
- C. J. GILMORE: Department of Chemistry, University of Glasgow, University Avenue, Glasgow G12 8QQ, UK. [3.8, 6.1]
- T. E. GORELIK: University of Ulm, Central Facility for Electron Microscopy, Electron Microscopy Group of Materials Science (EMMS), Albert Einstein Allee 11, 89069 Ulm, Germany. [2.4]
- S. GRAŽULIS: Institute of Biotechnology, Vilnius University, Sauletekio al. 7, 10257 Vilnius, Lithuania. [3.7.8]
- B. B. HE: Bruker AXS Inc., 5465 E. Cheryl Parkway, Madison, WI 53711, USA. [2.5]
- A. HENINS: National Institute of Standards and Technology, Gaithersburg, Maryland, USA. [3.1]
- M. HINTERSTEIN: Institut für Angewandte Materialien (IAM-ESS), Karlsruhe Institut für Technologie (KIT), Eggenstein-Leopoldshafen, Germany. [2.8]
- C. J. HOWARD: School of Engineering, University of Newcastle, Callaghan, NSW 2308, Australia. [2.3]
- QINGZHEN HUANG: NIST Center for Neutron Research, National Institute of Standards and Technology, Gaithersburg, Maryland 20899, USA. [7.13]
- A. HUQ: Chemical and Engineering Materials Division, Spallation Neutron Source, PO Box 2008, MS 6475, Oak Ridge, TN 37831, USA. [2.10]
- J. A. KADUK: Department of Chemistry, Illinois Institute of Technology, 3101 South Dearborn Street, Chicago, IL 60616, USA, Department of Physics, North Central College, 131 South Loomis Street, Naperville, IL 60540, USA, and Poly Crystallography Inc., 423 East Chicago Avenue, Naperville, IL 60540, USA. [2.10, 3.7, 4.9, 6.1, 7.11]

‡ Emeritus, Senior Consultant with Arvida R&D Centre of Rio Tinto Alcan in Jonquiere, Quebec, Canada.

CONTRIBUTING AUTHORS

- A. KATRUSIAK: Faculty of Chemistry, Adam Mickiewicz University, Poznań, Poland. [2.7]
- A. KERN: Bruker AXS, Östliche Rheinbrückenstrasse 49, Karlsruhe 76187, Germany. [2.1]
- E. H. KISI: School of Engineering, University of Newcastle, Callaghan, NSW 2308, Australia. [2.3]
- R. KLEEBERG: TU Bergakademie Freiberg, Institut für Mineralogie, Brennhausgasse 14, Freiberg, D-09596, Germany. [3.9]
- K. KNORR: Bruker AXS GmbH, Oestliche Rheinbrückenstr. 49, 76187 Karlsruhe, Germany. [3.9]
- U. KOLB: Institut für Physikalische Chemie, Johannes Gutenberg-Universität Mainz, Welderweg 11, 55099 Mainz, Germany. [2.4]
- J. L. LÁBÁR: Institute of Technical Physics and Materials Science, Centre for Energy Research, Hungarian Academy of Sciences, Konkoly Thege M. u. 29–33, H-1121 Budapest, Hungary. [2.4]
- A. LE BAIL: Université du Maine, Institut des Molécules et Matériaux du Mans, UMR CNRS 6283, Avenue Olivier Messiaen, 72085 Le Mans Cedex 9, France. [3.5]
- L. LEÓN-REINA: Servicios Centrales de Apoyo a la Investigación, Universidad de Málaga, 29071 Málaga, Spain. [3.10, 7.12]
- M. LEONI: Department of Civil, Environmental and Mechanical Engineering, University of Trento, via Mesiano 77, 38123 Trento, Italy. [3.6, 5.1]
- L. LUTTEROTTI: Dipartimento di Ingegneria Industriale, Università di Trento, via Sommarive, 9, 38123 Trento, Italy. [5.3]
- L. B. McCUSKER: Laboratory of Crystallography, ETH Zurich, HCI, G 509, CH-8093 Zurich, Switzerland. [4.6]
- I. C. MADSEN: CSIRO Mineral Resources, Private Bag 10, Clayton South 3169, Victoria, Australia. [3.9]
- O. V. MAGDYSYUK: Max Planck Institute for Solid State Research, Heisenbergstrasse 1, D-70569 Stuttgart, Germany. [4.8]
- I. MARGIOLAKI: Department of Biology, Section of Genetics, Cell Biology and Development, University of Patras, GR-26500, Patras, Greece. [7.1]
- M. H. MENDENHALL: National Institute of Standards and Technology, Gaithersburg, Maryland, USA. [3.1]
- S. T. MISTURE: Inamori School of Engineering, Alfred University, Alfred, NY 14802, USA. [7.9]
- A. MOLITERNI: Institute of Crystallography – CNR, Via Amendola 122/o, Bari, I-70126, Italy. [3.4, 4.2]
- M. MORALES: CIMAP ENSICAEN, UMR CNRS No. 6252, 6 Boulevard M. Juin, F-14050 Caen, France, and Normandie Université, ESPE Caen, Université de Caen Normandie, Caen, France. [5.3]
- P. PATTISON: Laboratory for Quantum Magnetism, Institute of Physics, Ecole Polytechnique Federale de Lausanne, CH-1015 Lausanne, Switzerland. [2.9]
- N. C. POPA: National Institute of Materials Physics, Atomistilor Str. No. 405A, PO Box MG7, 077125 Magurele, Romania. [5.2]
- H. F. POULSEN: Institut for Fysik, Danmarks Tekniske Universitet, Kgs. Lyngby, Denmark. [5.5]
- C. A. REISS: Noordikslaan 51, 7602 CC Almelo, The Netherlands. [2.6]
- D. F. RENDLE†: Cranfield Forensic Institute, Department of Engineering & Applied Science, Cranfield University, Shrivensham, Swindon SN6 8LA, Wiltshire, UK. [7.2]
- S. M. REUTZEL-EDENS: Lilly Research Laboratories, Eli Lilly & Company, Indianapolis, IN 46285, USA. [7.5]
- R. RIZZI: Institute of Crystallography – CNR, Via Amendola 122/o, Bari, I-70126, Italy. [3.4, 4.2]
- M. A. RODRIGUEZ: Materials Characterization and Performance Department, Sandia National Laboratories, Albuquerque, NM 87185–1411, USA. [7.3]
- I. SANTACRUZ: Departamento de Química Inorgánica, Cristalografía y Mineralogía, Universidad de Málaga, 29071 Málaga, Spain. [3.10]
- N. V. Y. SCARLETT: CSIRO Mineral Resources, Private Bag 10, Clayton South 3169, Victoria, Australia. [3.9, 7.7]
- H. SCHENK: HIMS, FWNI, University of Amsterdam, Postbus 94157, 1090 GD Amsterdam, The Netherlands. [6.1]
- M. U. SCHMIDT: Institut für Anorganische und Analytische Chemie, Johann Wolfgang Goethe-Universität, Max-von-Laue-Strasse, D-60438 Frankfurt am Main, Germany. [7.10]
- A. SENYSHYN: Technische Universität München, Garching b. München, Germany. [2.8]
- K. SHANKLAND: School of Pharmacy, The University of Reading, Whiteknights, PO Box 224, Reading RG6 6AD, UK. [4.1]
- S. VAN SMAALEN: Laboratory of Crystallography, University of Bayreuth, Universitätsstrasse 30, D-95447 Bayreuth, Germany. [4.8]
- K. STÅHL: Department of Chemistry, Technical University of Denmark, Kemitorvet, Building 207, DK-2800 Kgs. Lyngby, Denmark. [3.7.7.2]
- J. K. STALICK: NIST Center for Neutron Research, National Institute of Standards and Technology, 100 Bureau Drive, Gaithersburg, MD 20899, USA. [4.9.3]
- P. W. STEPHENS: Department of Physics and Astronomy, Stony Brook University, Stony Brook, NY 11794–3800, USA. [3.2]
- B. H. TOBY: Advanced Photon Source, Argonne National Laboratory, Argonne, IL 60439-4856, USA. [4.7, 4.9.2, 4.9.3, 4.10]
- O. VALLCORBA: ALBA Synchrotron, Carrer de la Llum 2–26, Cerdanyola, 08290 Barcelona, Spain. [3.10]
- G. B. M. VAUGHAN: European Synchrotron Radiation Facility, Grenoble, France. [5.5]
- P. VILLARS: 400 Schwanden, Vitznau, CH-6354 Switzerland. [3.7.5]
- R. B. VON DREELE: Advanced Photon Source, Argonne National Laboratory, 9700 S. Cass Avenue, Argonne, IL 60439–4814, USA. [3.3]
- P. S. WHITFIELD: Energy, Mining and Environment Portfolio, National Research Council Canada, 1200 Montreal Road, Ottawa ON K1A 0R6, Canada. [2.10]
- D. WINDOVER: National Institute of Standards and Technology, Gaithersburg, Maryland, USA. [3.1]
- W. WONG-NG: Materials Science Measurement Division, National Institute of Standards and Technology, Gaithersburg, MD 20899, USA. [7.8]
- J. ZHANG: Intel Corporation, Technology Manufacturing Group, 2501 NE Century Boulevard, Hillsboro, OR 97124, USA. [2.4]
- J.-M. ZUO: Department of Materials Science and Engineering, University of Illinois, 1304 W. Green Street, Urbana, IL 61801, USA. [2.4]

† Visiting Fellow.

CONTENTS

2.1.7.2. Detector types	46
2.1.7.3. Position sensitivity and associated scanning modes	49
2.2. Synchrotron radiation and powder diffraction (A. FITCH)	51
2.2.1. Introduction	51
2.2.2. Production of synchrotron radiation	51
2.2.2.1. Bending magnets	52
2.2.2.2. Insertion devices	53
2.2.3. Optics	54
2.2.3.1. Monochromator	54
2.2.3.2. Mirror	55
2.2.3.3. Compound refractive lens	56
2.2.4. Diffractometers	56
2.2.4.1. Parallel-beam instruments	56
2.2.4.2. Debye–Scherrer instruments	58
2.2.4.3. Energy-dispersive instruments	59
2.2.5. Considerations for powder-diffraction experiments	60
2.2.5.1. Polarization	60
2.2.5.2. Radiation damage	61
2.2.5.3. Beam heating	61
2.2.5.4. Choice of wavelength	61
2.2.5.5. Angular resolution	62
2.2.5.6. Spatial resolution	62
2.2.5.7. Time resolution	63
2.2.5.8. Beamline evolution	63
2.3. Neutron powder diffraction (C. J. HOWARD AND E. H. KISI)	66
2.3.1. Introduction to the diffraction of thermal neutrons	66
2.3.2. Neutrons and neutron diffraction – pertinent details	67
2.3.2.1. Properties of the neutron	67
2.3.2.2. Neutron scattering lengths	68
2.3.2.3. Refractive index for neutrons	68
2.3.2.4. Neutron attenuation	69
2.3.2.5. Magnetic form factors and magnetic scattering lengths	69
2.3.2.6. Structure factors	70
2.3.3. Neutron sources	70
2.3.3.1. The earliest neutron sources	70
2.3.3.2. Fission reactors for neutron-beam research	72
2.3.3.3. Spallation neutron sources	73
2.3.3.4. Neutron beam tubes and guides	77
2.3.4. Diffractometers	80
2.3.4.1. Constant-wavelength neutron diffractometers	80
2.3.4.2. Time-of-flight (TOF) diffractometers	85
2.3.4.3. Variations on a theme	88
2.3.4.4. Comparison of CW and TOF diffractometers	91
2.3.5. Experimental considerations	92
2.3.5.1. Preliminary considerations	92
2.3.5.2. Sample-related factors	94
2.3.5.3. Sample environment and <i>in situ</i> experiments	96
2.3.6. Concluding remarks	98

CONTENTS

2.4. Electron powder diffraction (J.-M. ZUO, J. L. LÁBÁR, J. ZHANG, T. E. GORELIK AND U. KOLB)	102
2.4.1. Introduction	102
2.4.2. Electron powder diffraction pattern geometry and intensity (J.-M. ZUO AND J. L. LÁBÁR)	103
2.4.3. Electron powder diffraction techniques (J.-M. ZUO AND J. ZHANG)	105
2.4.3.1. Selected-area electron diffraction (SAED)	105
2.4.3.2. Nano-area electron diffraction (NAED)	105
2.4.3.3. Sample preparation	106
2.4.3.4. Diffraction data collection, processing and calibration	107
2.4.4. Phase identification and phase analysis (J. L. LÁBÁR)	108
2.4.5. Texture analysis (J. L. LÁBÁR)	110
2.4.6. Rietveld refinement with electron diffraction data (T. E. GORELIK AND U. KOLB)	111
2.4.7. The pair distribution function from electron diffraction data (T. E. GORELIK AND U. KOLB)	113
2.4.8. Summary	114
Appendix A2.4.1. Computer programs for electron powder diffraction	114
2.5. Two-dimensional powder diffraction (B. B. HE)	118
2.5.1. Introduction	118
2.5.1.1. The diffraction pattern measured by an area detector	118
2.5.1.2. Comparison between 2D-XRD and conventional XRD	118
2.5.1.3. Advantages of two-dimensional X-ray diffraction	118
2.5.2. Fundamentals	119
2.5.2.1. Diffraction space and laboratory coordinates	119
2.5.2.2. Detector space and pixel position	121
2.5.2.3. Sample space and goniometer geometry	122
2.5.2.4. Diffraction-vector transformation	123
2.5.3. Instrumentation	124
2.5.3.1. X-ray source and optics	124
2.5.3.2. 2D detector	125
2.5.3.3. Data corrections and integration	128
2.5.4. Applications	133
2.5.4.1. Phase identification	133
2.5.4.2. Texture analysis	136
2.5.4.3. Stress measurement	140
2.5.4.4. Quantitative analysis	145
2.6. Non-ambient-temperature powder diffraction (C. A. REISS)	150
2.6.1. Introduction	150
2.6.2. <i>In situ</i> powder diffraction	150
2.6.3. Processes of interest	150
2.6.4. General system setup of non-ambient chambers	150
2.6.4.1. Sample stage	150
2.6.4.2. Temperature-control unit, process controller	150
2.6.4.3. Vacuum equipment, gas supply	151
2.6.4.4. Water cooling	151
2.6.4.5. Diffractometer and height-compensation mechanism	151
2.6.5. Specimen properties	151
2.6.6. High-temperature sample stages	151
2.6.6.1. Direct heating: strip heaters	152
2.6.6.2. Environmental heating: the oven	152
2.6.6.3. Environmental heating: lamp furnace	152

CONTENTS

2.6.6.4. Domed hot stage	153
2.6.7. Low-temperature sample stages	153
2.6.7.1. Cryogenic cooling stages/cryostat	153
2.6.7.2. Cryogenic cooling stages/cryostream	154
2.6.8. Temperature accuracy	155
2.6.9. Future	155
2.7. High-pressure devices (A. KATRUSIAK)	156
2.7.1. Introduction	156
2.7.2. Historical perspective	156
2.7.3. Main types of high-pressure environments	157
2.7.4. The diamond-anvil cell (DAC)	159
2.7.5. Variable-temperature high-pressure devices	160
2.7.6. Soft and biomaterials under pressure	161
2.7.7. Completeness of data	161
2.7.8. Single-crystal data collection	162
2.7.9. Powder diffraction with the DAC	163
2.7.10. Sample preparation	164
2.7.11. Hydrostatic conditions	164
2.7.12. High-pressure chamber and gasket in the DAC	165
2.7.13. High-pressure neutron diffraction	166
2.7.14. Pressure determination	166
2.7.15. High-pressure diffraction data corrections	167
2.7.16. Final remarks	168
2.8. Powder diffraction in external electric and magnetic fields (H. EHRENBERG, M. HINTERSTEIN, A. SENYSHYN AND H. FUESS)	174
2.8.1. Introduction	174
2.8.2. Experimental conditions	174
2.8.2.1. Detectors	175
2.8.2.2. Absorption	176
2.8.2.3. Sample fluorescence and incoherent neutron scattering	177
2.8.3. Examples	177
2.8.3.1. <i>In situ</i> studies of ferroelectrics in an external electric field	177
2.8.3.2. <i>In situ</i> studies of electrode materials and <i>in operando</i> investigations of Li-ion batteries	181
2.8.3.3. Diffraction under a magnetic field	183
2.8.4. Summary	186
2.9. Cells for <i>in situ</i> powder-diffraction investigation of chemical reactions (W. VAN BEEK AND P. PATTISON)	189
2.9.1. Introduction	189
2.9.2. Historical perspective	189
2.9.3. Main types of reaction cells	189
2.9.3.1. Introduction	189
2.9.3.2. Capillary cells	190
2.9.3.3. Reactions requiring specialist cells	192
2.9.3.4. Cells specifically for neutrons	195
2.9.4. Complementary methods and future developments	197
2.10. Specimen preparation (P. S. WHITFIELD, A. HUQ AND J. A. KADUK)	200
2.10.1. X-ray powder diffraction	200
2.10.1.1. Powders and particle statistics (granularity)	201
2.10.1.2. Preferred orientation	206

CONTENTS

2.10.1.3. Absorption (surface roughness), microabsorption and extinction	209
2.10.1.4. Holders	211
2.10.2. Neutron powder diffraction	218
2.10.2.1. Specimen form	218
2.10.2.2. Sample size	218
2.10.2.3. Specimen containment	218
2.10.2.4. Isotopes, absorption and activation	220
2.10.3. Conclusions	221
PART 3. METHODOLOGY	223
3.1. The optics and alignment of the divergent-beam laboratory X-ray powder diffractometer and its calibration using NIST standard reference materials (J. P. CLINE, M. H. MENDENHALL, D. BLACK, D. WINDOVER AND A. HENINS)	224
3.1.1. Introduction	224
3.1.2. The instrument profile function	224
3.1.3. Instrument alignment	230
3.1.4. SRMs, instrumentation and data-collection procedures	235
3.1.5. Data-analysis methods	238
3.1.6. Instrument calibration	241
3.1.7. Conclusions	250
3.2. The physics of diffraction from powders (P. W. STEPHENS)	252
3.2.1. Introduction	252
3.2.2. Idealized diffraction from powders	252
3.2.2.1. Peak positions	252
3.2.2.2. Diffraction peak intensities	253
3.2.2.3. Peak shapes	255
3.2.3. Complications due to non-ideal sample or instrument properties	257
3.2.3.1. Absorption within a homogeneous sample	257
3.2.3.2. Absorption with multiphase samples	258
3.2.3.3. Granularity, microabsorption and surface roughness	258
3.2.3.4. Anisotropic strain broadening	259
3.2.3.5. Preferred orientation (texture)	260
3.2.3.6. Extinction	260
3.2.4. The Debye scattering equation	261
3.2.5. Summary	261
3.3. Powder diffraction peak profiles (R. B. VON DREELE)	263
3.3.1. Introduction	263
3.3.2. Peak profiles for constant-wavelength radiation (X-rays and neutrons)	263
3.3.2.1. Introduction – symmetric peak profiles	263
3.3.2.2. Constant-wavelength powder profile asymmetry	264
3.3.2.3. Peak-displacement effects	264
3.3.2.4. Fundamental parameters profile modelling	265
3.3.3. Peak profiles for neutron time-of-flight experiments	265
3.3.3.1. The experiment	265
3.3.3.2. The neutron pulse shape	265
3.3.3.3. The neutron TOF powder peak profile	266
3.3.4. Peak profiles for X-ray energy-dispersive experiments	266
3.3.5. Sample broadening	267

CONTENTS

3.3.5.1. Crystallite size broadening	267
3.3.5.2. Microstrain broadening	267
3.4. Indexing a powder diffraction pattern (A. ALTOMARE, C. CUOCCI, A. MOLITERNI AND R. RIZZI)	270
3.4.1. Introduction	270
3.4.2. The basic concepts of indexing	270
3.4.2.1. Figures of merit	271
3.4.2.2. Geometrical ambiguities	272
3.4.3. Indexing methods	273
3.4.3.1. Traditional indexing methods	273
3.4.3.2. Non-traditional indexing methods	275
3.4.4. Software packages for indexing and examples of their use	275
3.4.4.1. Traditional indexing programs	276
3.4.4.2. Evolved indexing programs	276
3.4.4.3. Non-traditional indexing programs	277
3.4.4.4. Crysfire: a suite of indexing programs	278
3.4.4.5. Two commercial programs	278
3.4.4.6. Examples of applications of indexing programs	278
3.4.5. Conclusion	280
3.5. Data reduction to F_{hkl} values (A. LE BAIL)	282
3.5.1. Introduction	282
3.5.2. Algorithms	282
3.5.2.1. Unrestrained cell	282
3.5.2.2. Restrained cell	283
3.5.3. Pitfalls in the extraction of accurate $ F_{hkl} $ values using the Pawley and Le Bail methods	284
3.5.3.1. Consequences of (exact or accidental) overlap	284
3.5.3.2. Preferred-orientation effects	284
3.5.3.3. Background-estimation effects	285
3.5.4. Applications and by-products	285
3.5.4.1. Supporting indexing and space-group determination	286
3.5.4.2. Structure solution	286
3.5.5. Conclusion	286
3.6. Whole powder pattern modelling: microstructure determination from powder diffraction data (M. LEONI)	288
3.6.1. Introduction	288
3.6.2. Fourier methods	289
3.6.2.1. Definitions	289
3.6.2.2. Peak profile and the convolution theorem	289
3.6.2.3. The Warren–Averbach method and its variations	289
3.6.2.4. Beyond the Warren–Averbach method	290
3.6.2.5. Whole powder pattern modelling (WPPM)	290
3.6.2.6. Broadening components	291
3.6.2.7. Assembling the equations into a peak and modelling the data	296
3.6.3. Examples of WPPM analysis	298
3.6.3.1. Nanocrystalline ceria	298
3.6.3.2. Copper oxide	299
Appendix A3.6.1. Functions for profile shapes	301
3.7. Crystallographic databases and powder diffraction (J. A. KADUK)	304
3.7.1. Introduction	304

CONTENTS

3.7.1.1. History of the PDF/ICDD	304
3.7.1.2. Search/match	304
3.7.2. Powder Diffraction File (PDF)	305
3.7.2.1. Sources and formats of the PDF	306
3.7.2.2. Quality marks in the PDF	306
3.7.2.3. Features of the PDF	307
3.7.2.4. Boolean logic in phase identification	309
3.7.3. Cambridge Structural Database (CSD)	313
3.7.3.1. <i>Mercury</i>	314
3.7.4. Inorganic Crystal Structure Database (ICSD)	314
3.7.4.1. General features of the ICSD	315
3.7.4.2. Features particularly useful for powder crystallography	315
3.7.5. Pearson's Crystal Data (PCD/LPF) (with P. Villars and K. Cenzual)	316
3.7.5.1. General information	316
3.7.5.2. Evaluation procedure	316
3.7.5.3. Standardized crystallographic data	316
3.7.5.4. Consequent prototype assignment	317
3.7.5.5. Assigned atom coordinates	317
3.7.5.6. External links	317
3.7.5.7. Retrievable database fields	317
3.7.5.8. Particular software features	318
3.7.6. Metals data file (CRYSTMET)	318
3.7.7. Protein Data Bank (PDB)	318
3.7.7.1. Powder diffraction by proteins	318
3.7.7.2. Calculation of protein powder patterns (with K. Ståhl)	319
3.7.8. Crystallography Open Database (COD) (with S. Gražulis)	320
3.7.9. Other internet databases	321
3.8. Clustering and visualization of powder-diffraction data (C. J. GILMORE, G. BARR AND W. DONG)	325
3.8.1. Introduction	325
3.8.2. Comparing 1D diffraction patterns	325
3.8.2.1. Spearman's rank order coefficient	325
3.8.2.2. Pearson's <i>r</i> coefficient	325
3.8.2.3. Combining the correlation coefficients	325
3.8.2.4. Full-profile qualitative pattern matching	326
3.8.2.5. Generation of the correlation and distance matrices	326
3.8.3. Cluster analysis	327
3.8.3.1. Dendrograms	327
3.8.3.2. Estimating the number of clusters	327
3.8.3.3. Metric multidimensional scaling	328
3.8.3.4. Principal-component analysis	329
3.8.3.5. Choice of clustering method	329
3.8.3.6. The most representative sample	329
3.8.3.7. Amorphous samples	329
3.8.4. Data visualization	329
3.8.4.1. Primary data visualization	329
3.8.4.2. Secondary visualization using parallel coordinates, the grand tour and minimum spanning trees	330
3.8.5. Further validating and visualizing clusters: silhouettes and fuzzy clustering	331
3.8.5.1. Silhouettes	331
3.8.5.2. Fuzzy clustering	333

CONTENTS

3.8.5.3. The <i>PolySNAP</i> program and <i>DIFFRAC.EVA</i>	333
3.8.6. Examples	333
3.8.6.1. Aspirin data	333
3.8.6.2. Phase transitions in ammonium nitrate	335
3.8.7. Quantitative analysis with high-throughput PXRD data without Rietveld refinement	337
3.8.7.1. Example: inorganic mixtures	338
3.8.8. Using spectroscopic data	339
3.8.9. Combining data types: the INDSICAL method	340
3.8.9.1. An example combining PXRD and Raman data	342
3.8.10. Quality control	342
3.8.11. Computer software	342
3.9. Quantitative phase analysis (I. C. MADSEN, N. V. Y. SCARLETT, R. KLEEGERG AND K. KNORR)	344
3.9.1. Introduction	344
3.9.2. Phase analysis	344
3.9.3. QPA methodology	345
3.9.3.1. Absorption–diffraction method	345
3.9.3.2. Internal standard method	346
3.9.3.3. Reference intensity ratio methods	347
3.9.3.4. Matrix-flushing method	347
3.9.3.5. Full-pattern fitting methods	348
3.9.3.6. Rietveld-based QPA	348
3.9.4. Demonstration of methods	350
3.9.4.1. Absorption–diffraction method	350
3.9.4.2. Internal standard method	350
3.9.4.3. Reference intensity ratio	351
3.9.4.4. Matrix flushing	352
3.9.4.5. Rietveld-based methods	352
3.9.5. Alternative methods for determination of calibration constants	353
3.9.5.1. Standardless determination of the phase constant C	353
3.9.5.2. Demonstration of the Zevin approach	354
3.9.5.3. Experiment constant – a whole-sample approach	355
3.9.6. Quantification of phases with partial or no known crystal structures	356
3.9.6.1. Use of calibrated models	356
3.9.6.2. Modelling of structural disorder	358
3.9.6.3. Quantitative determination of amorphous material	360
3.9.7. QPA from <i>in situ</i> experimentation	361
3.9.7.1. Data analysis	361
3.9.8. QPA using neutron diffraction data	362
3.9.9. QPA using energy-dispersive diffraction data	362
3.9.10. Improving accuracy	364
3.9.10.1. Standard deviations and error estimates	364
3.9.10.2. Minimizing systematic errors	364
3.9.10.3. Minimizing sample-related errors	365
3.9.11. Summary	370
3.10. Accuracy in Rietveld quantitative phase analysis with strictly monochromatic Mo and Cu radiations (L. LEÓN-REINA, A. CUESTA, M. GARCÍA-MATÉ, G. ÁLVAREZ-PINAZO, I. SANTACRUZ, O. VALLCORBA, A. G. DE LA TORRE AND M. A. G. ARANDA)	374
3.10.1. Introduction	374

CONTENTS

3.10.2. Compounds and series	375
3.10.2.1. Single phases	375
3.10.2.2. Crystalline inorganic series	375
3.10.2.3. Crystalline organic series	375
3.10.2.4. Variable amorphous content series	376
3.10.3. Analytical techniques	376
3.10.3.1. Mo $K\alpha_1$ laboratory X-ray powder diffraction (LXRPD)	376
3.10.3.2. Cu $K\alpha_1$ laboratory X-ray powder diffraction (LXRPD)	376
3.10.3.3. Transmission synchrotron X-ray powder diffraction (SXRPD)	376
3.10.4. Powder-diffraction data analysis	377
3.10.5. Crystalline single phases	377
3.10.6. Limits of detection and quantification	379
3.10.7. Increasing inorganic crystalline phase content series	381
3.10.8. Increasing crystalline organic phase content series	381
3.10.9. Increasing amorphous content series within an inorganic crystalline phase matrix	382
3.10.10. Conclusions	383
 PART 4. STRUCTURE DETERMINATION	 385
 4.1. An overview of currently used structure determination methods for powder diffraction data (K. SHANKLAND)	 386
4.1.1. Introduction	386
4.1.2. Methods used in SDPD	386
4.1.3. Conventional direct methods of structure determination	387
4.1.4. Modified direct methods of structure determination	388
4.1.5. The direct-methods sum function	388
4.1.6. The Patterson function	388
4.1.7. Resonant (anomalous) scattering	388
4.1.8. Isomorphous replacement	389
4.1.9. Maximum-entropy methods	389
4.1.10. Charge flipping	389
4.1.11. Molecular envelopes	390
4.1.12. Model building	390
4.1.13. Molecular replacement	390
4.1.14. Global optimization	390
4.1.15. Maximum-likelihood methods	391
4.1.16. Local minimization	391
4.1.17. Active use of prior information for particular structural classes	391
4.1.18. Combined figures of merit	392
 4.2. Solving crystal structures using reciprocal-space methods (A. ALTOMARE, C. CUOCCI, A. MOLITERNI AND R. RIZZI)	 395
4.2.1. Introduction	395
4.2.2. Intensity extraction for RS methods	395
4.2.3. Direct methods	395
4.2.3.1. Normalized structure factors	396
4.2.3.2. Structure invariants	397
4.2.3.3. Triplet invariants	397
4.2.3.4. How direct methods work	397
4.2.4. Improving data normalization	399
4.2.4.1. Pseudotranslational symmetry	399

CONTENTS

4.2.4.2. Preferred orientation	400
4.2.4.3. Systematic decomposition	400
4.2.5. Patterson methods	400
4.2.5.1. The use of the Patterson function for estimating integrated intensities	401
4.2.6. Charge flipping	402
4.2.7. Maximum-entropy methods	403
4.2.8. Optimization of the structure model	404
4.2.8.1. Fourier recycling (FR)	404
4.2.8.2. Weighted least-squares (WLSQ) refinement	405
4.2.8.3. Resolution bias modification (RBM)	405
4.2.9. Software packages for powder solution	406
4.2.9.1. Example of structure solution by <i>XLENS</i>	406
4.2.9.2. Example of structure solution by <i>SUPERFLIP</i>	407
4.2.9.3. The input file for a default run of <i>EXPO</i>	407
4.2.9.4. An example of model optimization by <i>EXPO</i> for an inorganic compound	407
4.2.9.5. Example of model optimization by <i>EXPO</i> for an organic compound	408
4.2.9.6. The ALLTRIALS tool in <i>EXPO</i> : exploring all the phase sets	410
4.2.9.7. Graphical tools in <i>EXPO</i>	410
4.2.10. Conclusions	410
4.3. Real-space methods for structure solution from powder-diffraction data: application to molecular structures (W. I. F. DAVID)	414
4.3.1. Introduction	414
4.3.2. Real-space structure determination: a global-optimization extension of the Rietveld method	416
4.3.3. Optimizing the process of real-space structure determination from powder-diffraction data	416
4.3.3.1. Introduction	416
4.3.3.2. Parameterization of the molecular structure	417
4.3.4. The nature and magnitude of the global-optimization challenge	418
4.3.4.1. Interpretation of the least-squares cost function	419
4.3.4.2. The chi-squared hypersurface	421
4.3.5. Global-optimization algorithms	424
4.3.5.1. Stochastic search algorithms	426
4.3.5.2. Deterministic search algorithms	429
4.3.6. Using maximum-likelihood techniques to tackle incomplete structural models	430
4.3.6.1. Introduction	430
4.3.6.2. Working with incomplete structural models: maximum-likelihood methods	430
4.4. The use of supplementary information to solve crystal structures from powder diffraction (A. J. FLORENCE)	433
4.4.1. General remarks	433
4.4.2. Molecular models	434
4.4.2.1. Molecular volume	434
4.4.2.2. Fragment model selection: bond length and angles	434
4.4.2.3. Flexible ring conformations	435
4.4.2.4. Torsion-angle constraints	436
4.4.2.5. Intermolecular distance constraints	438
4.4.2.6. H-atom location in structures solved from X-ray powder data	438
4.4.2.7. Crystal-structure prediction and crystal-structure solution	439
4.4.3. Concluding remarks	439
4.4.3.1. Test data for SDPD	439

CONTENTS

4.5. Solving and refining inorganic structures (R. ČERNÝ AND V. FAVRE-NICOLIN)	442
4.5.1. The molecular/non-molecular and the organic/inorganic boundaries	442
4.5.2. Modelling of non-molecular compounds	442
4.5.2.1. Principles	442
4.5.2.2. Building units	442
4.5.2.3. Special positions and the sharing of atoms between building units	443
4.5.2.4. Is there a need for precise unit-cell contents?	444
4.5.2.5. Building units and the convergence of the DSM algorithm	444
4.5.2.6. Random <i>versus</i> non-random DSM algorithms	444
4.5.2.7. The choice of the cost function in DSM algorithms	445
4.5.3. Solving, refining and completing inorganic structures	445
4.5.3.1. A general problem: poor quality powder data	445
4.5.3.2. Indexing of multiphase samples	445
4.5.3.3. X-rays <i>versus</i> neutrons	446
4.5.3.4. Chemical and positional disorder	446
4.5.3.5. Structure validation – theoretical issues	447
4.5.4. Examples	448
4.5.4.1. Polyhedral compounds	448
4.5.4.2. Hybrid compounds	449
4.5.4.3. Close-packed compounds	450
4.6. Zeolites (L. B. McCUSKER AND CH. BAERLOCHER)	452
4.6.1. Introduction	452
4.6.2. Framework structure determination	452
4.6.2.1. Preliminary steps	454
4.6.2.2. Model building	454
4.6.2.3. <i>Focus</i>	455
4.6.2.4. Direct methods	456
4.6.2.5. Charge flipping	456
4.6.2.6. Using additional information	457
4.6.3. Structure refinement	458
4.6.3.1. Space-group ambiguity	458
4.6.3.2. Geometric restraints	458
4.6.3.3. Disorder	459
4.6.3.4. Locating non-framework species	459
4.6.3.5. Rietveld refinement of SSZ-74	460
4.6.3.6. Locating isomorphously substituted <i>T</i> atoms	462
4.6.4. Conclusions	462
4.7. Rietveld refinement (B. H. TOBY)	465
4.7.1. History	465
4.7.2. Rietveld <i>versus</i> single-crystal refinements	466
4.7.3. Multiphase and multiple data set fitting	466
4.7.4. The mechanism of Rietveld fitting	467
4.7.5. Types of profile functions	467
4.7.6. Observed structure-factor estimates	467
4.7.7. Estimating observed structure factors without a structure	468
4.7.8. Agreement factors	468
4.7.9. Restraints and constraints in Rietveld refinement	469
4.7.10. The order in which to introduce parameters in a fit	470

CONTENTS

4.7.11. Examples	471
4.7.12. Conclusions	471
4.8. Application of the maximum-entropy method to powder-diffraction data (O. V. MAGDYSYUK, S. VAN SMAALEN AND R. E. DINNEBIER)	473
4.8.1. Introduction	473
4.8.2. The principle of maximum entropy	474
4.8.3. Prior densities in MEM calculations	475
4.8.4. Crystallographic MEM equations	476
4.8.5. MEM algorithms	476
4.8.5.1. Exponential modelling algorithm (Gull & Daniell, 1978; Collins, 1982; Collins & Mahar, 1983)	476
4.8.5.2. Sakata–Sato algorithm (Sakata & Sato, 1990; Sakata <i>et al.</i> , 1990, 1992, 1993; Kumazawa <i>et al.</i> , 1995)	477
4.8.5.3. Cambridge algorithm (Bryan & Skilling, 1980, 1986; Burch <i>et al.</i> , 1983; Skilling & Bryan, 1984; Gull & Skilling, 1987, 1999)	477
4.8.5.4. Two-channel MaxEnt method (Papoular & Gillon, 1990; Zheludev <i>et al.</i> , 1995; Papoular <i>et al.</i> , 1996)	477
4.8.5.5. Valence-only MaxEnt method (Roversi <i>et al.</i> , 1998)	477
4.8.6. Constraints in the MEM based on the measured intensities from powder-diffraction data	478
4.8.6.1. <i>F</i> and <i>G</i> constraints	478
4.8.6.2. Constraints using ‘partly phased’ reflections for anomalous-scattering X-ray powder diffraction	479
4.8.6.3. Prior-derived <i>F</i> constraints	480
4.8.6.4. Observed structure factors	480
4.8.7. Analysis of the electron-density distribution from powder-diffraction data	480
4.8.7.1. Types of MEM-reconstructed electron-density distribution	480
4.8.7.2. MEM-based improvement of the structure model from charge flipping	482
4.8.7.3. Combination of MEM and Rietveld refinement (REMEDY cycle)	482
4.8.7.4. MEM-assisted structure solution by charge flipping	483
4.8.7.5. Disorder and anharmonic atomic displacements	484
4.8.7.6. Accurate electron densities	485
4.8.8. Extensions of the MEM	485
4.8.8.1. Distribution of normalized residuals of the structure factors	485
4.8.8.2. Stopping criterion	485
4.8.8.3. Generalization of MaxEnt algorithm to <i>n</i> dimensions (<i>n</i> > 3) and application to powder-diffraction data of aperiodic structures	486
4.9. Structure validation (J. A. KADUK)	489
4.9.1. Introduction	489
4.9.2. Statistical measures (with contributions from B. H. Toby)	489
4.9.3. Graphical measures (with contributions from B. H. Toby and J. K. Stalick)	490
4.9.4. Chemical reasonableness	496
4.9.4.1. Organic compounds	496
4.9.4.2. Inorganic compounds	503
4.9.5. Working by analogy	508
4.9.6. Structure validation in general	508
4.9.7. <i>CheckCIF/PLATON</i>	509
4.10. Use of CIF for powder diffraction data (B. H. TOBY)	515
4.10.1. Background	515
4.10.2. A brief introduction to CIF	515
4.10.3. CIF usage for powder diffraction	516
4.10.4. Creation of pdCIF data files	517
4.10.5. Creating readers for pdCIF data files	518
4.10.5.1. Ordinate	518

CONTENTS

4.10.5.2. Observed intensities	518
4.10.5.3. Background intensities	518
4.10.5.4. Computed intensities	518
4.10.6. CIF software for powder diffraction	518
4.10.6.1. <i>enCIFer</i>	519
4.10.6.2. The IUCr <i>publicIF</i> application	519
4.10.6.3. The IUCr <i>checkCIF</i> web application	519
4.10.6.4. The IUCr <i>pdCIFplot</i> application	519
4.10.6.5. International Centre for Diffraction Data (ICDD) <i>Genie</i> application	520
4.10.6.6. pdCIF creation in <i>GSAS-II</i>	520
4.10.7. Conclusions	521
PART 5. DEFECTS, TEXTURE AND MICROSTRUCTURE	523
5.1. Domain size and domain-size distributions (M. LEONI)	524
5.1.1. Introduction	524
5.1.2. The Scherrer formula and integral-breadth methods	524
5.1.3. Fourier methods	526
5.1.4. The peak profile and the common volume function ('ghost')	526
5.1.5. Common volume function for simple shapes	528
5.1.6. Calculation of the intensity profile for simple shapes	530
5.1.7. Meaning of the size Fourier coefficients: mean size and column-length distribution	531
5.1.8. Extension of the Fourier approach to a size distribution	531
5.1.9. Analytical distributions	533
5.1.10. Histogram (arbitrary) distributions	534
5.1.11. Example	534
5.2. Stress and strain (N. C. POPA)	538
5.2.1. The importance of determining stress and the diffraction method	538
5.2.2. Strain and stress in single crystals, elastic constants and transformations	538
5.2.3. Strain and stress in polycrystalline samples	540
5.2.3.1. Types of strains and stresses, and the strain/stress orientation distribution function	540
5.2.3.2. The mean and variance of the observable strain, the peak shift and broadening	541
5.2.4. Determining the strain/stress by diffraction	542
5.2.4.1. Determining the macrostrain/stress	542
5.2.4.2. Determining the microstrain	543
5.2.5. Macrostrain/stress in isotropic samples: classical approximations	543
5.2.5.1. The Voigt model	544
5.2.5.2. The Reuss model	544
5.2.5.3. The Hill average	545
5.2.5.4. The Kroner model	545
5.2.5.5. The ' $\sin^2 \Psi$ ' method	545
5.2.5.6. Determining the single-crystal elastic constants	546
5.2.6. The hydrostatic state in isotropic polycrystals	546
5.2.7. Calculating the macroscopic strain/stress using spherical harmonics	547
5.2.7.1. Strain expansion in generalized spherical harmonics: the Popa and Balzar approach	547
5.2.7.2. The selection rules for all Laue classes	548
5.2.7.3. Generalized spherical harmonics of real type, and the WSODF index	548
5.2.7.4. Determining the macrostrain/stress state of the sample	549
5.2.7.5. Simplified ('short') harmonics representation of the peak shift, and the 'mixed' representation	550
5.2.7.6. Implementation in Rietveld codes	550

CONTENTS

5.2.7.7. An application: determining the averaged macroscopic strain and stress tensors in a rolled uranium plate from time-of-flight neutron diffraction data	551
5.2.7.8. Limitations of the spherical-harmonics approach and possible further developments	552
5.2.8. The spherical-harmonics approach to strain broadening	552
5.2.8.1. Ignoring the macrostrain variance	552
5.2.8.2. The double-dependent anisotropic strain breadth (DDASB)	552
5.2.8.3. The ‘classical’ limit of the DDASB	553
5.3. Quantitative texture analysis and combined analysis (D. CHATEIGNER, L. LUTTEROTTI AND M. MORALES) ..	555
5.3.1. Introduction	555
5.3.2. Crystallographic quantitative texture analysis (QTA)	555
5.3.2.1. Orientation distribution (OD)	555
5.3.2.2. The fundamental equation of quantitative texture analysis	558
5.3.2.3. Resolution of the fundamental equation	559
5.3.2.4. Inverse pole figures	562
5.3.2.5. OD refinement reliability estimators	563
5.3.2.6. Texture-strength factors	564
5.3.2.7. Texture types	564
5.3.2.8. Reciprocal-space mapping	566
5.3.3. Magnetic quantitative texture analysis (MQTA)	567
5.3.3.1. Magnetization curves and magnetic moment distributions	567
5.3.3.2. Magnetic pole figures and magnetic ODs	567
5.3.3.3. An example	568
5.3.4. Modelling of preferred orientation in the Rietveld method	569
5.3.4.1. Rietveld and March approaches	569
5.3.4.2. March–Dollase approach	569
5.3.4.3. Modified March–Dollase models	570
5.3.4.4. Donnet–Jouanneaux function	570
5.3.4.5. Modelling by spherical harmonics (and exponential)	570
5.3.4.6. The use of standard functions (or texture components)	570
5.3.4.7. Remarks	570
5.3.5. Combined analysis: structure, texture, microstructure, stress, phase, layering and reflectivity analyses in a single approach ..	571
5.3.5.1. Problems	571
5.3.5.2. Intensity of a pattern and general scheme	572
5.3.5.3. Minimum experimental requirements	572
5.3.5.4. Theoretical implementation	572
5.3.5.5. Implementation	577
5.3.5.6. Examination of a solution	577
5.3.6. Conclusions	578
5.4. Thin films and multilayers (M. BIRKHOLZ)	581
5.4.1. Introduction	581
5.4.2. Effects of absorption	581
5.4.2.1. Absorption factor	581
5.4.2.2. Chemical phase identification	582
5.4.2.3. Determination and interpretation of the product μt	583
5.4.2.4. Phase inhomogeneities	584
5.4.3. Grazing-incidence configurations	584
5.4.3.1. Grazing-incidence X-ray diffraction (GIXRD)	585
5.4.3.2. Penetration depth and information depth	587
5.4.3.3. Depth-dependent properties	587

CONTENTS

5.6.3. Application of the Debye equation to a single molecule	619
5.6.4. The Debye–Menke equation	621
5.6.5. Verification of the Debye–Menke intensity function	622
5.6.6. Background removal, intensity normalization and choice of X-ray optics	623
5.6.7. Application of the Debye normalization to semi-quantitative analysis	625
5.6.8. Correction for the instrumental intensity response	627
5.6.9. The full Debye normalization procedure	631
5.6.10. Application of the Debye normalization procedure	633
5.6.11. Universal appearance of non-crystalline powder patterns	635
5.6.12. Steps towards an effective lattice model of high-density randomly packed materials	638
5.6.13. Practical application of the effective lattice function determination	642
5.6.14. Debye diffraction models for larger molecular ensembles	645
5.6.15. Conclusions	646
5.7. Nanometre-scale structure from powder diffraction: total scattering and atomic pair distribution function analysis (S. J. L. BILLINGE)	649
5.7.1. Introduction	649
5.7.1.1. Types of nanostructure	649
5.7.2. Scattering from nanostructures	650
5.7.2.1. The Debye equation	650
5.7.2.2. Correlation functions	652
5.7.2.3. Low-angle scattering intensity	654
5.7.2.4. Calculating $\mathcal{F}(r; Q_{\min})$ from models	655
5.7.2.5. The extent of small-angle scattering	657
5.7.2.6. PDFs from structures with multiple elements	657
5.7.2.7. Differential structure functions	658
5.7.3. Collecting data for total-scattering and PDF measurements	659
5.7.3.1. Neutrons	659
5.7.3.2. X-rays	660
5.7.3.3. Electrons	661
5.7.3.4. Q ranges and Q resolutions	662
5.7.4. Data reduction	663
5.7.5. Extracting structural information	664
5.7.5.1. Obtaining the PDF from a model	664
5.7.5.2. PDFs from multi-element material	664
5.7.5.3. Model-independent information from the PDF	664
5.7.5.4. Modelling approaches	665
5.8. Scattering methods for disordered heterogeneous materials (A. J. ALLEN)	673
5.8.1. Introduction and overview	673
5.8.1.1. Amorphous and non-crystalline materials	673
5.8.1.2. Disordered and heterogeneous (and multi-component) materials	673
5.8.1.3. Small-angle and wide-angle scattering tools	674
5.8.1.4. Tabulated summary of quantitative information obtainable	674
5.8.1.5. Different notations	675
5.8.2. Recommended measurement tools	675
5.8.2.1. Small-angle scattering using a position-sensitive detector	675
5.8.2.2. Ultra-small-angle scattering using crystal diffraction optics	677
5.8.2.3. Data reduction and calibration of small-angle scattering data	679
5.8.2.4. Reflectivity, grazing-incidence small-angle scattering and diffraction	680
5.8.2.5. Wide-angle scattering and other methods for disordered structures	681

CONTENTS

5.8.3. Quantitative analysis of disordered heterogeneous materials	683
5.8.3.1. Interpretative models for analysis of SAS data	683
5.8.3.2. Small-angle scattering effects on wide-angle scattering analysis	691
5.8.3.3. Combining information from different methods	691
5.8.4. Prospects for future development and recommended further reading	692
5.8.4.1. Developments at X-ray synchrotron facilities	692
5.8.4.2. Developments at steady-state and pulsed neutron sources	693
5.8.4.3. Future prospects	693
5.8.4.4. Further reading	693
PART 6. SOFTWARE	697
6.1. Survey of computer programs for powder diffraction (C. J. GILMORE, J. A. KADUK AND H. SCHENK)	698
PART 7. APPLICATIONS	717
7.1. Macromolecular powder diffraction (I. MARGIOLAKI)	718
7.1.1. Introduction	718
7.1.2. Sample preparation and handling	718
7.1.3. Data collection	720
7.1.4. Cryo-cooling protein powder samples and microstructural effects	721
7.1.5. Crystal screening	723
7.1.6. Improvements in data quality <i>via</i> the use of multiple profiles	725
7.1.7. Structure solution	726
7.1.7.1. Molecular replacement	726
7.1.7.2. The isomorphous-replacement method	728
7.1.7.3. Emerging powder phasing methods	728
7.1.8. Structure refinement	729
7.1.8.1. Stereochemical restraints	729
7.1.8.2. Rigid-body representation of amino-acid residues	731
7.1.9. Related developments	731
7.1.10. Concluding remarks	732
7.2. Forensic applications of X-ray powder diffraction (D. F. RENDLE)	737
7.2.1. Introduction	737
7.2.1.1. Background information	737
7.2.1.2. Preservation of evidence	737
7.2.1.3. Versatility	737
7.2.1.4. Variable specimen size	741
7.2.1.5. Contamination	741
7.2.1.6. Identification <i>versus</i> comparison	741
7.2.1.7. Complementary techniques	741
7.2.2. Instrumentation	742
7.2.2.1. Choice of instrumentation	742
7.2.2.2. Choice of radiation	742
7.2.3. Technical procedures	742
7.2.3.1. Variety and types of specimen encountered and specimen preparation	742
7.2.3.2. Specimen preparation – powders	743
7.2.3.3. Specimen preparation – metals and alloys	743
7.2.3.4. Specimen preparation – monolithic (polycrystalline)	743
7.2.3.5. Sample preparation – single crystal	744

CONTENTS

7.2.3.6. Interpretation of results: identifications and comparisons, checking procedures	744
7.2.3.7. Data archives for statistical and reference purposes	744
7.2.3.8. Continuity of evidence	745
7.2.3.9. Presentation of evidence to the court	745
7.2.4. Examples of forensic casework involving the use of XRPD	746
7.2.4.1. Criminal damage to an automobile	746
7.2.4.2. Fatal road traffic accident	746
7.2.4.3. Attempted murder?	747
7.2.4.4. Synthesis of crack cocaine	747
7.2.5. Summary	747
7.2.5.1. Advantages and limitations of XRPD in forensic science	747
7.2.5.2. Thoughts on the future	748
7.3. Materials for energy storage and conversion (M. A. RODRIGUEZ)	752
7.3.1. Introduction	752
7.3.2. Fossil fuel	752
7.3.3. Hydrogen storage	752
7.3.4. Wind	753
7.3.5. Solar	753
7.3.6. Battery technology	755
7.4. Powder diffraction in art and archaeology (G. ARTIOLI)	759
7.4.1. Introduction	759
7.4.2. The information provided by diffraction	759
7.4.3. Phase identification and quantification	760
7.4.4. Crystal structure analysis	761
7.4.5. Texture analysis	762
7.4.6. Microstructural analysis	762
7.4.7. Present trends	763
7.5. Powder diffraction and pharmaceuticals (J. BERNSTEIN AND S. M. REUTZEL-EDENS)	767
7.5.1. Introduction	767
7.5.2. Some basic background and references	767
7.5.3. Identification and characterization	767
7.5.3.1. Polymorphs, salts, solvates, co-crystals	767
7.5.3.2. Indexing	768
7.5.3.3. Crystal structure solution	769
7.5.4. Quantitation of mixtures by traditional and Rietveld methods	769
7.5.5. Characterization of amorphous materials	771
7.5.6. Quality control and regulatory aspects	773
7.5.7. Creating and protecting intellectual property	773
7.5.7.1. Crystal habit	776
7.5.8. Counterfeit medicines	777
7.5.9. Concluding remarks	778
7.6. Selected applications of Rietveld analysis in the aluminium industry (F. R. FERET)	782
7.6.1. Introduction	782
7.6.2. Bauxite	782
7.6.3. Quantification of quartz in bauxite	784
7.6.4. Occurrence and characterization of Zn and Mn in bauxite	785
7.6.5. Red mud (bauxite residue)	785
7.6.6. Alumina	787

CONTENTS

7.13.2.2. Choice of radiation	872
7.13.3. Analysis of the chemical and structural features of nonstoichiometric superconductors	872
7.13.3.1. Charge transfer and valence-state manipulation	872
7.13.3.2. Modelling of layer structures	875
7.13.3.3. Structural transformations	876
7.13.4. Magnetic order in superconductors and parent compounds	878
7.13.5. Conclusions	879
Appendix A7.13.1. The study of long-range magnetic order in superconductors	879
A7.13.1.1. Commensurate magnetic ordering and primitive cells	879
A7.13.1.2. The 36 magnetic lattices and 1651 Shubnikov groups	881
A7.13.1.3. Magnetic symmetry and antisymmetry operations	881
A7.13.1.4. Magnetic reflection conditions for centred lattices	881
A7.13.1.5. An example of Rietveld refinement against NPD data for a superconductor	882
7.14. Powder diffraction by minerals (R. ARLETTI, G. CRUCIANI AND G. FERRARIS)	885
7.14.1. Powder diffraction and characterization of new mineral species	885
7.14.2. Mineral physics through <i>in situ</i> powder-diffraction experiments	886
7.14.2.1. Thermoelastic behaviour of minerals	886
7.14.2.2. Negative thermal expansion in minerals	887
7.14.2.3. Dehydration of nonporous minerals	887
7.14.2.4. Dehydration and adsorption/desorption mechanisms in porous materials	888
7.14.2.5. High-pressure (HP)-induced reaction/penetration in porous materials	888
7.14.2.6. Phase transitions and spontaneous strain in minerals	888
7.14.2.7. HT studies related to CO ₂ sequestration	889
7.14.3. Minerals related to human health, the biosphere and planetary exploration	889
7.14.3.1. Fibrous minerals	889
7.14.3.2. Biominerals	890
7.14.3.3. Mars mineralogy	890
Subject index	895

Preface

International Tables for Crystallography started life in in 1935 as a two-volume set entitled *Internationale Tabellen zur Bestimmung von Kristallstrukturen*, with C. Hermann as editor. We are now in the third series, with eight volumes covering all aspects of crystallography from symmetry to macromolecular crystallography. However, there has always been one glaring omission and one that has become increasingly serious: powder diffraction. This is odd: powder crystallography started as early as 1916 with the seminal work of Debye and Scherrer, and has grown to include quantitative and semi-quantitative analysis, structure solution and refinement, two-dimensional data, comprehensive databases, clustering, and microstructural properties, and is applied to a wide range of problems of both academic and industrial interest. Articles in the International Union of Crystallography's monthly *Journal of Applied Crystallography* are dominated by powder-diffraction papers. In terms of instrumentation, there are more powder diffractometers (~10 000) in use worldwide than any other comparable diffraction instrument. There have also been rapid advances in radiation sources and detectors, and major developments in software, computing power and visualization tools, all of which have made what was once cutting-edge science commonplace.

The methodology that has done more than anything to transform the field treats the measured powder-diffraction data in a comparable way to single-crystal data (albeit with more restrictive conditions) and is generally known as Rietveld refinement. This method will be found everywhere in this volume and was developed in the 1960s by Bert Loopstra (who came up with the concept), Bob van Laar (who worked out the mathematics) and Hugo Rietveld (who wrote the first computer program for it), as discussed in a recent article by van Laar & Schenk [*Acta Cryst.* (2018), **A74**, 88–92].

The field has not been devoid of books: there are excellent books edited by Dinnebier and Billinge [*Powder Diffraction Theory and Practice* (2008), Cambridge: Royal Society of Chemistry], Clearfield, Reibenspies and Bhuvanesh [*Principles and Applications of Powder Diffraction* (2008), Oxford: Wiley] and Mittemeijer and Welzel [*Modern Diffraction Methods* (2013), Weinheim: Wiley-VCH]. These, however, are not completely

comprehensive and the need for a volume of *International Tables* dedicated to powder diffraction has become increasingly urgent.

So here it is. As if to emphasize the scale and diversity of the topic, it is one of the larger volumes of *International Tables* with over 900 pages and 54 chapters. The first part is devoted to basic diffraction theory as applied to powder samples, followed by parts on instrumentation and sample preparation, methodology, structure determination, defects, texture and microstructure, and software, and concluding with descriptions of applications over a wide variety of disciplines ranging from ceramics to pharmaceuticals. Even a volume of this size cannot be wholly comprehensive, but the editors hope that it covers a wide range of topics that will be relevant and of interest to most powder diffractionists. We plan to include yet more topics in a second edition.

The volume is intended primarily to be a practical one – when you have a problem in powder analysis this should be the first book you reach for. To this end, the data for many of the examples discussed in the text can be downloaded from <https://it.iucr.org>, so that readers can try the examples for themselves. We have not (yet) included step-by-step instructions on how to process the data; perhaps that will come in the future. The chapter on software gives information on how to obtain the necessary programs.

A word is needed about notation. A field as diverse as powder diffraction does not have a uniform notation. Texture and stress, for example, use a different nomenclature to structure solution. Our conclusion was that if we were to attempt to impose a uniform notation throughout the volume, it would have made it very difficult to link the chapters to the existing literature. We have to live with diversity.

An enterprise such as this has been a large undertaking, and we thank the authors for their patience. It is important to acknowledge the role of the staff at the IUCr offices in Chester, especially Nicola Ashcroft, Simon Glynn and Peter Strickland. We are very grateful for all their hard work.

CHRIS GILMORE, JIM KADUK AND HENK SCHENK
Editors, *International Tables for Crystallography* Volume H

SAMPLE PAGES

2. INSTRUMENTATION AND SAMPLE PREPARATION

(2006), Fewster (2003), Bowen & Tanner (1998), Jenkins & Snyder (1996), Klug & Alexander (1974), and Peiser *et al.* (1955). An extensive discussion of the principles of combining X-ray optics to optimally suit a wide range of different powder diffraction as well as thin-film applications has been given in the textbook by Fewster (2003).

2.1.6.3.1. Absorptive X-ray optics

2.1.6.3.1.1. Apertures

The simplest way of beam conditioning is to place apertures such as slits (line focus) or pinholes (point focus) into the incident and/or diffracted beam to control beam divergence and shape, and to reduce unwanted scattering from air or any beam-path components. Apertures are ‘shadow-casting’ optics and thus cannot increase flux density. Reducing beam divergence and beam dimensions by means of apertures invariably results in a loss of intensity that is inversely proportional to the slit aperture.

The principles are shown in Fig. 2.1.14. The divergence of a beam is established by the dimensions of the focal spot as well as the aperture and the distance of the aperture from the source (Fig. 2.1.14*a*). The divergence in the diffraction plane is usually called ‘equatorial divergence’ and the divergence in the axial direction ‘axial divergence’. Apertures can be of the plug-in type requiring manual changes of the aperture to obtain different divergence angles, or – usually only for equatorial divergence slits – motorized. Motorized slits are mostly used in the Bragg–Brentano geometry to limit equatorial divergence, which can be arbitrarily chosen and either be kept constant to keep the diffracting specimen volume constant (as is invariably the case with plug-in slits), or varied as a function of 2θ to keep the illuminated specimen length constant. Typical aperture angles range from 0.1 – 1° .

To provide additional collimation, a second aperture may be placed at some distance away from the first (Fig. 2.1.14*b*). When using the same aperture, an almost-parallel beam may be obtained from a divergent beam at the cost of high intensity losses. A third aperture is often used to reduce scattering by the second slit. In laboratory X-ray diffractometers dedicated for SAXS analysis such collimation systems may reach lengths of more than 1 m.

Another way to parallelize radiation is to use a parallel-plate collimator (PPC), which is manufactured from sets of parallel, equally spaced thin metal plates, as shown in Fig. 2.1.14(*c*). Each pair of neighbouring plates works like a double-aperture arrangement as shown in Fig. 2.1.14(*b*). In contrast to simple slits and pinholes, PPCs do not change the shape of the beam. PPCs arranged parallel to the diffraction plane are usually called ‘Soller slits’ and are used to control axial divergence. Such devices can be used for focusing as well as parallel-beam geometries with typical aperture angles ranging from 1 – 5° . Soller slits are usually mounted on both the incident- and diffracted-beam sides of the specimen. PPCs arranged parallel to the diffraction plane are specifically used in parallel-beam geometries to minimize equatorial beam divergence, with typical aperture angles ranging from 0.1 – 0.5° .

The ways in which the diffracted beam can be conditioned are limited when employing one- or two-dimensional detectors. A particular issue related to these types of detectors is unwanted scattering from air or any beam-path components. Ideally, a closed, evacuated or He-flushed beam path will be used, but this is often not feasible owing to collision issues. For smaller detectors it is possible to place the anti-scatter aperture closer to the

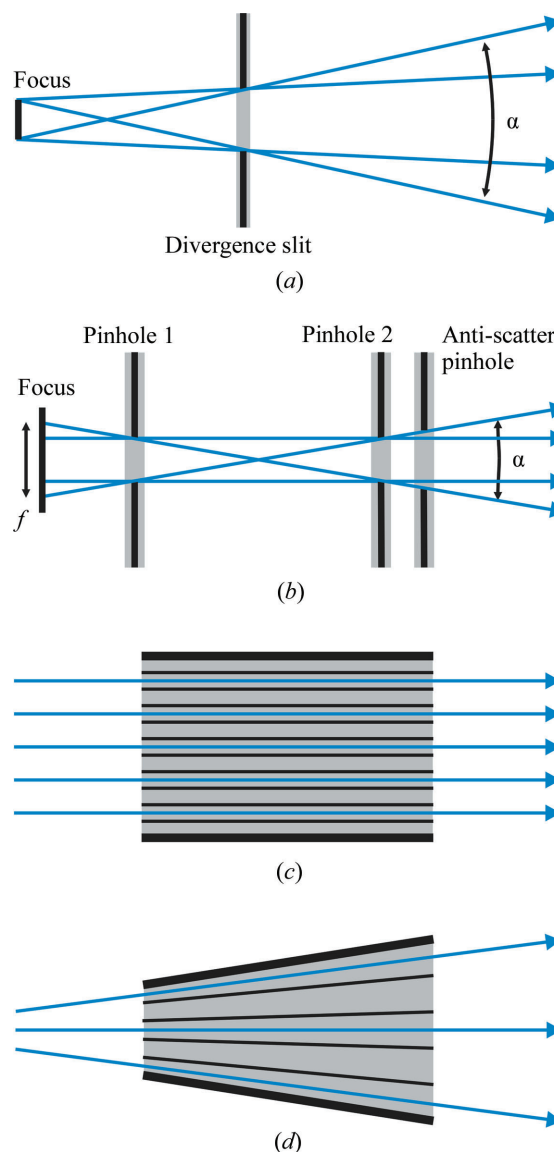


Figure 2.1.14

Apertures used for beam collimation. α : divergence angle, f : virtual focus. (a) Single slit or pinhole, (b) parallelization through double slits or pinholes, (c) parallelization through a parallel-plate collimator, (d) a radial plate collimator.

specimen surface. Alternatively, a knife edge may be placed on top of the specimen. As knife edges may interfere with divergent beams at higher 2θ angles, it is necessary to move them away from the specimen at higher 2θ angles. Another possibility, limited to one-dimensional detectors, is to use radial Soller slits as shown in Fig. 2.1.14(*d*).

2.1.6.3.1.2. Metal filters

Metal filters are the most frequently used devices for monochromatization of X-rays in laboratory diffractometers. Metal filters represent single-band bandpass devices where monochromatization is based on the K absorption edge of the filter material to selectively allow transmission of the $K\alpha$ characteristic lines while filtering white radiation, $K\beta$ radiation (hence they are frequently known as ‘ $K\beta$ filters’), and other characteristic lines.

A properly selected metal filter has its K absorption edge right between the energies of the $K\alpha$ and $K\beta$ characteristic lines of the source. As a rule of thumb, this is achieved by choosing an element just one atomic number less than the X-ray source target material in the periodic table. For heavy target materials such as

2.3. NEUTRON POWDER DIFFRACTION

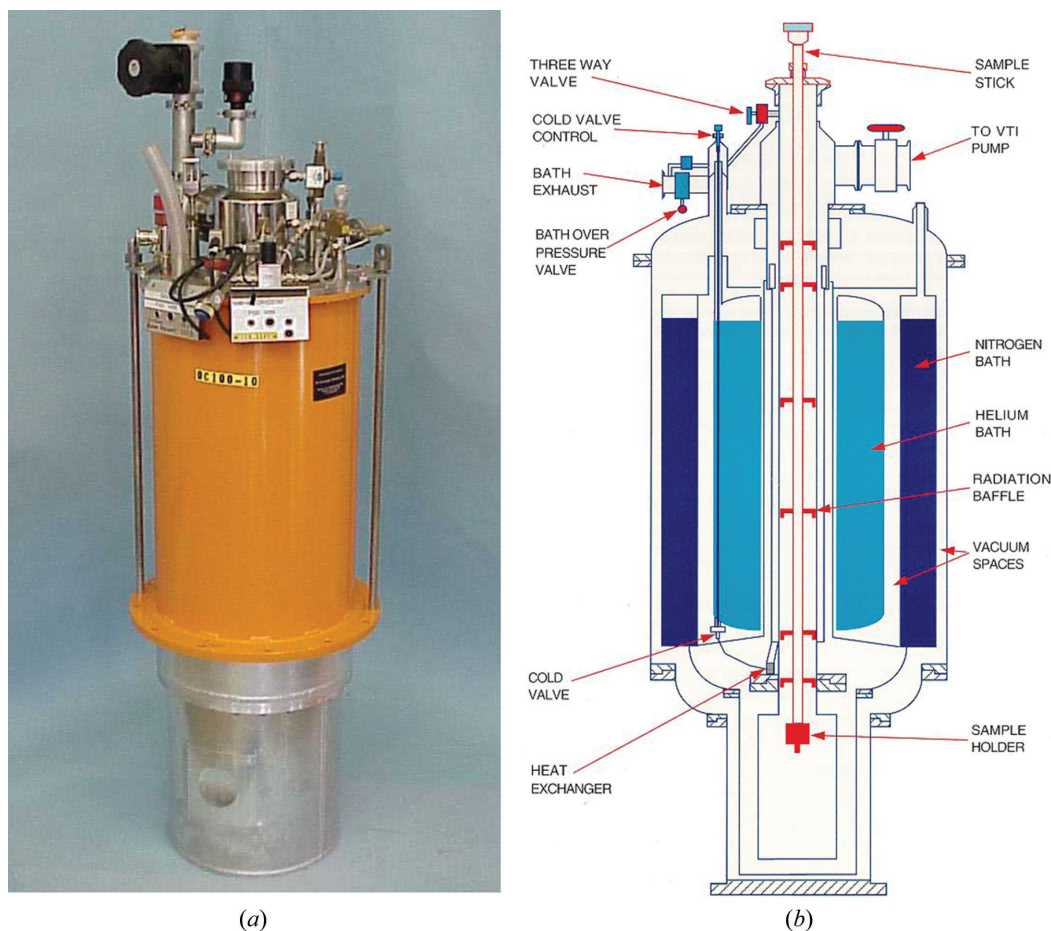


Figure 2.3.26

(a) Exterior and (b) interior of the standard ILL liquid-helium cryostat for cooling samples in the range 1.8–295 K. An internal heater allows samples to be studied without interruption from 1.8–430 K. Reproduced with permission from the ILL.

cylindrical sections that allow ready transmission of neutrons but preserve the vacuum and exclude radiant heat from the outside world. Liquid-helium cryostats can generally attain base temperatures of 4.2 K (He alone) or 1.9 K if pumped. Liquid-nitrogen cryostats are limited to 77 K. A second type of low-temperature device is the closed-cycle He refrigerator, commonly referred to by the trade name Displex. These are more compact than a liquid-helium cryostat and do not require refilling. Depending on the number of stages and internal design, refrigerators with base temperatures as low as 4 K are available.

Samples are typically first cooled to base temperature and then studied at the chosen sequence of increasing temperatures. This is achieved through a small electric resistance heater and control system. As heat transfer to and from the sample is deliberately poor in these devices, sufficient time should be allowed for the (often large) sample to reach thermal equilibrium before recording its neutron-diffraction pattern. It is worth noting that the attainment of thermal equilibrium does not guarantee that the sample has attained thermodynamic equilibrium. Some phase transitions are notoriously slow, for example the ordering of hydrogen (or deuterium) in Pd metal at 55 K and 75 K, which can take up to a month (Kennedy *et al.*, 1995; Wu *et al.*, 1996), or the ordering of C in TiC_x ($0.6 < x < 0.9$) around 973 K, which can take a week to complete (Moisy-Maurice *et al.*, 1982; Tashmetov *et al.*, 2002).

Raising samples to above ambient temperature is, for X-ray diffraction, the subject of a separate chapter (Chapter 2.6); however, neutron-diffraction high-temperature devices are somewhat different. Most commonly used and most versatile is

the foil element resistance furnace, in which Cu bus bars transfer electric current to a cylindrical metal foil which heats up as a result of its electrical resistance. Foil elements are typically 30–60 mm in diameter and up to 200 or 250 mm long so as to provide a long hot zone of uniform temperature within the furnace. The sample is located, *via* a sample stick from above or occasionally *via* a pedestal support from below, in the centre of the foil heating element, ensuring that it is uniformly bathed in radiant heat. Concentric metal-foil heat shields greatly reduce heat loss to the exterior by radiation, while convective losses are avoided by evacuating the interior of the furnace to $\sim 10^{-5}$ mbar. Metals for manufacture of the foil elements include V, which has almost no coherent diffraction pattern and can operate continuously up to 1173 K or intermittently to 1273 K. For temperatures above this, progressively more refractory metals are chosen such as Nb (<1773 K), Ta (<2473 K) or W (2773 K). These materials will contribute some small diffraction peaks to the observed patterns, which requires the recording of reference patterns from the empty furnace before commencing. Owing to the internal vacuum, some types of sample are at risk of subliming, decomposing or disproportioning during the experiment. In such cases, sample cans that extend outside the hot zone, where they can be coupled to a gas-handling system and filled with an internal atmosphere of air, an inert gas or a reactive gas of interest as required, are used.

Alternatives to foil furnaces include variations of the wire-wound laboratory furnace with a split winding and reduced insulating material in the neutron beam path, Peltier devices, hot-air blowers and induction heaters. The first three of these are discussed by Kisi & Howard (2008).

2.5. TWO-DIMENSIONAL POWDER DIFFRACTION

where $F(x, y)$ is the flux (in photons s^{-1}) intercepted by the pixel and B is the brightness of the source (in photons $\text{s}^{-1} \text{mrad}^{-2}$) or scattering from the sample. The ratio of the flux in pixel $P(x, y)$ to that in the centre pixel $P(0, 0)$ is then given as

$$\frac{F(x, y)}{F(0, 0)} = \frac{D^3}{R^3} = \frac{D^3}{(D^2 + x^2 + y^2)^{3/2}} = \cos^3 \phi, \quad (2.5.20)$$

where ϕ is the angle between the X-rays to the pixel $P(x, y)$ and the line from S to the detector in perpendicular direction. It can be seen that the greater the sample-to-detector distance, the smaller the difference between the centre pixel and the edge pixel in terms of the flux from the homogeneous source. This is the main reason why a data frame collected at a short sample-to-detector distance has a higher contrast between the edge and centre than one collected at a long sample-to-detector distance.

2.5.3.2.2. Spatial resolution of area detectors

In a 2D diffraction frame, each pixel contains the X-ray intensity collected by the detector corresponding to the pixel element. The pixel size of a 2D detector can be determined by or related to the actual feature sizes of the detector structure, or artificially determined by the readout electronics or data-acquisition software. Many detector techniques allow multiple settings for variable pixel size, for instance a frame of 2048×2048 pixels or 512×512 pixels. Then the pixel size in 512 mode is 16 (4×4) times that of a pixel in 2048 mode. The pixel size of a 2D detector determines the space between two adjacent pixels and also the minimum angular steps in the diffraction data, therefore the pixel size is also referred to as pixel resolution.

The pixel size does not necessarily represent the true spatial resolution or the angular resolution of the detector. The resolving power of a 2D detector is also limited by its point-spread function (PSF) (Bourgeois *et al.*, 1994). The PSF is the two-dimensional response of a 2D detector to a parallel point beam smaller than one pixel. When the sharp parallel point beam strikes the detector, not only does the pixel directly hit by the beam record counts, but the surrounding pixels may also record some counts. The phenomenon is observed as if the point beam has spread over a certain region adjacent to the pixel. In other words, the PSF gives a mapping of the probability density that an X-ray photon is recorded by a pixel in the vicinity of the point where the X-ray beam hits the detector. Therefore, the PSF is also referred to as the spatial redistribution function. Fig. 2.5.12(a) shows the PSF produced from a parallel point beam. A plane at half the maximum intensity defines a cross-sectional region within the PSF. The FWHM can be measured at any direction crossing the centroid of the cross section. Generally, the PSF is isotropic, so the FWHMs measured in any direction should be the same.

Measuring the PSF directly by using a small parallel point beam is difficult because the small PSF spot covers a few pixels and it is hard to establish the distribution profile. Instead, the line-spread function (LSF) can be measured with a sharp line beam from a narrow slit (Ponchut, 2006). Fig. 2.5.12(b) is the intensity profile of the image from a sharp line beam. The LSF can be obtained by integrating the image from the line beam along the direction of the line. The FWHM of the integrated profile can be used to describe the LSF. Theoretically, LSF and PSF profiles are not equivalent, but in practice they are not distinguished and may be referenced by the detector specification interchangeably. For accurate LSF measurement, the line beam is intentionally positioned with a tilt angle from the orthogonal

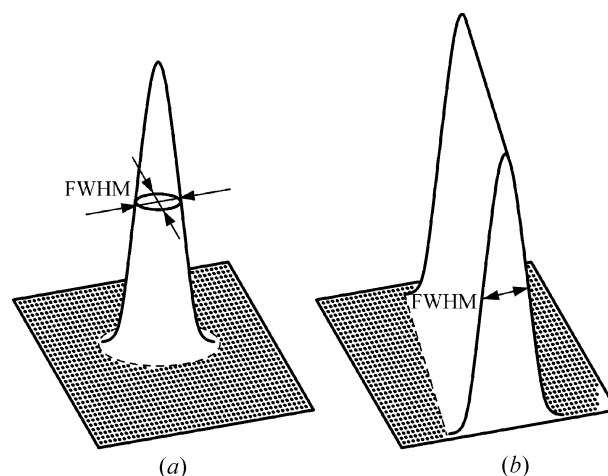


Figure 2.5.12

(a) Point-spread function (PSF) from a parallel point beam; (b) line-spread function (LSF) from a sharp line beam.

direction of the pixel array so that the LSF can have smaller steps in the integrated profile (Fujita *et al.*, 1992).

The RMS (root-mean-square) of the distribution of counts is another parameter often used to describe the PSF. The normal distribution, also called the Gaussian distribution, is the most common shape of a PSF. The RMS of a Gaussian distribution is its standard deviation, σ . Therefore, the FWHM and RMS have the following relation, assuming that the PSF has a Gaussian distribution:

$$\text{FWHM} = 2[-2 \ln(1/2)]^{1/2} \text{RMS} = 2.3548 \times \text{RMS}. \quad (2.5.21)$$

The values of the FWHM and RMS are significantly different, so it is important to be precise about which parameter is used when the value is given for a PSF.

For most area detectors, the pixel size is smaller than the FWHM of the PSF. The pixel size should be small enough that at least a 50% drop in counts from the centre of the PSF can be observed by the pixel adjacent to the centre pixel. In practice, an FWHM of 3 to 6 times the pixel size is a reasonable choice if use of a smaller pixel does not have other detrimental effects. A further reduction in pixel size does not necessarily improve the resolution. Some 2D detectors, such as pixel-array detectors, can achieve a single-pixel PSF. In this case, the spatial resolution is determined by the pixel size.

2.5.3.2.3. Detective quantum efficiency and energy range

The detective quantum efficiency (DQE), also referred to as the detector quantum efficiency or quantum counting efficiency, is measured by the percentage of incident photons that are converted by the detector into electrons that constitute a measurable signal. For an ideal detector, in which every X-ray photon is converted to a detectable signal without additional noise added, the DQE is 100%. The DQE of a real detector is less than 100% because not every incident X-ray photon is detected, and because there is always some detector noise. The DQE is a parameter defined as the square of the ratio of the output and input signal-to-noise ratios (SNRs) (Stanton *et al.*, 1992):

$$\text{DQE} = \left(\frac{(S/N)_{\text{out}}}{(S/N)_{\text{in}}} \right)^2. \quad (2.5.22)$$

The DQE of a detector is affected by many variables, for example the X-ray photon energy and the counting rate. The dependence of the DQE on the X-ray photon energy defines the

2.8. POWDER DIFFRACTION IN ELECTRIC AND MAGNETIC FIELDS

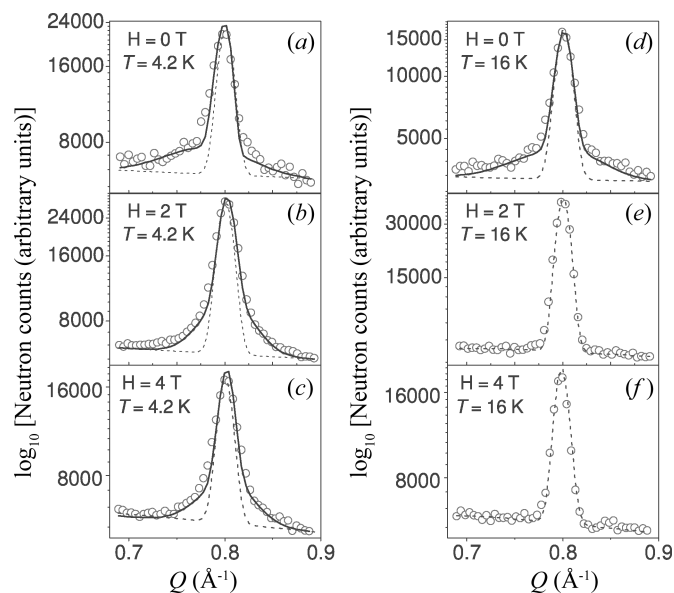


Figure 2.8.15

The observed Bragg reflection 100 (open circles) under an applied field of (a) 0 T, (b) 2 T and (c) 4 T at 4.2 K and (d) 0 T, (e) 2 T and (f) 4 T at 16 K (taken from Yusuf *et al.*, 2013). Copyright IOP Publishing. Reproduced with permission. All rights reserved.

narrow temperature range a macroscopic polar vector leads to a multiferroic behaviour. As this study was based on single-crystal neutron measurements, no further details are given here. Frustrated triangular-lattice Ising antiferromagnets have degenerate magnetic ground states, which give rise to very complex magnetic structures. As there are only small differences in the competing exchange interaction in such frustrated triangular-lattice compounds, a sequence of phase transitions is introduced by changes in temperature or magnetic field. The compound $\text{Ca}_3\text{Co}_2\text{O}_6$ is another example of a frustrated system. Field-dependent powder diffraction patterns were reported for the doped system $\text{Ca}_3\text{Co}_{1.8}\text{Fe}_{0.2}\text{O}_6$ by Yusuf *et al.* (2013). They distinguished the short-range magnetic order (SRO), reflected in the half-width of the Bragg reflections (Fig. 2.8.15), from the long-range order as given by the Bragg positions. They stated that even under magnetic fields up to 4 T the broadening of Bragg reflections indicates the persistence of SRO. In a field of 2 T, the observed change in the structure from incommensurate to commensurate indicates a reduction of spin frustration. In fields of 4 T, a ferrimagnetic system is introduced, followed by a ferromagnetic one above 5 T.

2.8.3.3.2.2. Manganite systems

Like the vanadates, in the class of rare-earth manganites of the type RMn_2O_5 successive magnetic phase transitions between commensurate (CO) and incommensurate phases (ICP) can occur. Intensive investigations have been undertaken to understand the relationship between their magnetic and dielectric properties. The spontaneous electric polarization is induced by a magnetic transition. Thus the primary order parameter is magnetic rather than structural. Among the rare-earth compounds, those containing Nd or an element lighter than Nd do not exhibit ferroelectricity. In all these materials a broken magnetic symmetry at lower temperatures leads to a polar symmetry group. In addition, a cycloidal component indicates a common underlying mechanism. The Mn^{3+} and Mn^{4+} ions are fully charge-ordered. Neutron diffraction studies of these phases have been performed by Radaelli & Chapon (2008), who also

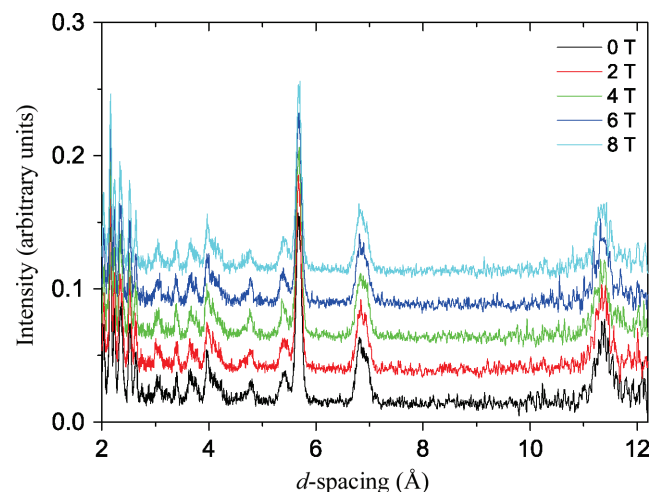


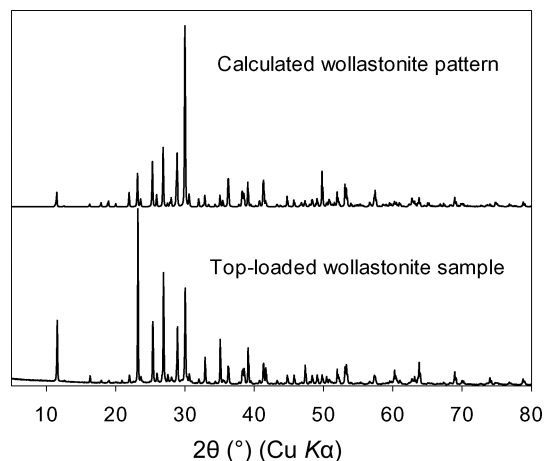
Figure 2.8.16

Time-of-flight diffraction patterns of YMn_2O_5 at 1.6 K under magnetic fields between 0 and 8 T (taken from Radaelli & Chapon, 2008). Copyright IOP Publishing. Reproduced with permission. All rights reserved.

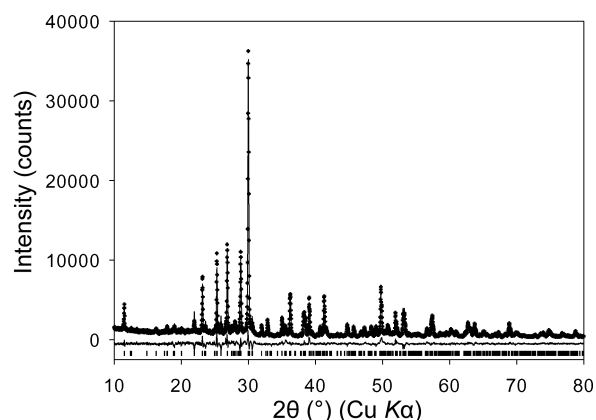
analysed the possible exchange pathways. In TbMn_2O_5 the H - T phase diagram of the commensurate-low-temperature-incommensurate (CO-LT-ICP) magnetic transitions shows an upward jump in the transition temperature from ~ 25 K at zero field to 27 K at 9 T. The low-temperature ICP phase is stabilized under an external field for TbMn_2O_5 and the dielectric constant is enhanced. It was concluded that Tb and Mn order independently, implying the absence of coupling terms between them. Strong support for this suggestion was provided by an in-field neutron study on the analogue YMn_2O_5 . Neither the positions nor the intensities of the magnetic Bragg reflections were affected by the magnetic field (Fig. 2.8.16). The magnetic low-temperature ICP phase in the Tb compound was stabilized under a magnetic field. This is in contrast to observations on HoMn_2O_5 by Kimura *et al.* (2007), using single crystals. In both cases, however, the neutron data correlate directly with the results obtained by dielectric measurements under a magnetic field. The difference in the behaviours is thus confirmed. The two studies also reveal different magnetic order at low temperatures. The same magnetic sequence at low temperatures as for Tb was observed in YMn_2O_5 , which does not contain a magnetic rare-earth element. Under fields up to 8 T the positions and the intensities of the magnetic Bragg reflections remained unchanged, showing that the antiferromagnetic structure of the manganese sublattice is extremely stable. As in the vanadates, the main reason for the sequence of magnetic structures is frustration of the manganese spins. Without going too deeply into the details of the different exchange pathways and orbital occupancies, one factor behind this behaviour is the Jahn-Teller effect of the Mn^{3+} ion, which is also relevant in the multiferroic TbMnO_3 as part of the RMnO_3 family (Kimura *et al.*, 2003). Another feature often found in multiferroic systems is the small ferromagnetic component caused by small spin canting due to Dzyaloshinskii-Moriya interactions. This property strongly influences the low-temperature magnetism in RMn_2O_5 (Kimura *et al.*, 2009).

2.8.3.3.3. Additional systems and scattering techniques

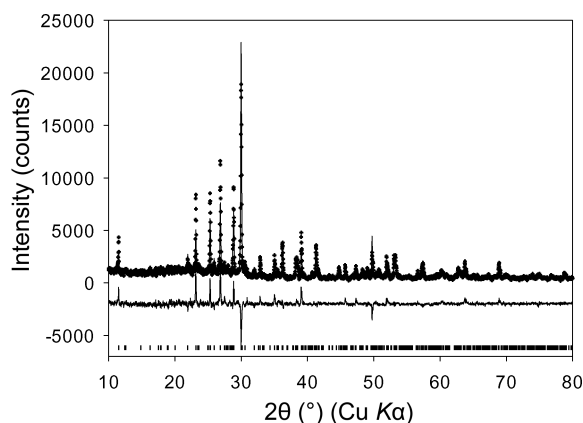
Information about the anisotropy of the local magnetic susceptibility at different magnetic sites has been extracted from diffraction patterns for a $\text{Tb}_2\text{Sn}_2\text{O}_7$ powder measured using polarized neutrons under magnetic fields of 1 and 5 T (Gukasov

**Figure 2.10.26**

Effect of preferential orientation on data from top-loaded wollastonite compared with the calculated pattern from the literature wollastonite-1A structure (Ohashi, 1984).

**Figure 2.10.27**

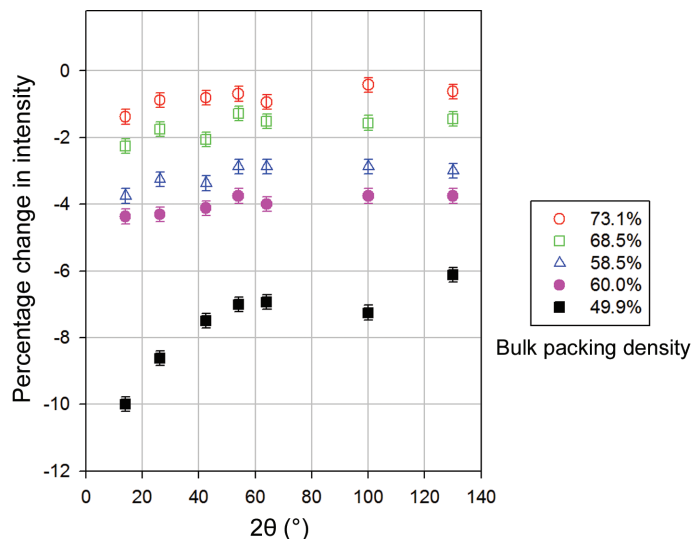
Rietveld refinement fit to the literature wollastonite-1A structure (Ohashi, 1984) with data from a 0.3 mm capillary with no orientation corrections.

**Figure 2.10.28**

Rietveld refinement fit to the literature wollastonite-1A structure (Ohashi, 1984) with data from a 0.2 mm capillary with no orientation corrections.

intact while filling the capillary (Fig. 2.10.23). Fig. 2.10.24 gives a summary of the effectiveness of the different sample-preparation techniques for this particular mica sample in terms of the ratio of the integrated intensities of the 001 and 200 reflections. The spray-dried sample with careful top loading can produce a pattern practically equivalent to the capillary data set.

Plates are not the only problematic morphology. Needle-shaped crystallites such as those exhibited by wollastonite (Fig.

**Figure 2.10.29**

The effect of surface roughness on the intensity compared to that of a bulk copper specimen. Data from Suortti *et al.* (1972).

2.10.25) and some organic compounds can also show significant problems when top-loaded. In fact, lath-like crystallites such as wollastonite can orient in two directions at the same time, so the behaviour can be more complicated than that of materials with plate-like morphology (see Figs 2.10.26, 2.10.27 and 2.10.28).

2.10.1.3. Absorption (surface roughness), microabsorption and extinction

Absorption, microabsorption and extinction effects all alter peak intensities, although particularly low absorption (*e.g.* from organics) can give rise to sample transparency in reflection geometry (as discussed in the section on the choice of sample mounting), where a peak shift and change in profiles can occur. Microabsorption and extinction solely affect the peak intensities.

Microabsorption (also known as absorption contrast) and extinction are effects that complicate quantitative phase analysis. They are both still related to size – particles in the case of microabsorption and crystallites in the case of extinction.

2.10.1.3.1. Absorption (surface roughness)

Absorption is an obvious issue when using capillaries in transmission (a convenient calculator is available on the 11-BM web site, <http://11bm.xray.aps.anl.gov>), but absorption can also affect data obtained in reflection using Bragg–Brentano geometry through the mechanism commonly described as ‘surface roughness’. In essence, the increasing packing density with depth leads to lower intensities at low diffraction angles, leading to anomalously low or negative displacement parameters (much as absorption does in capillaries). There are two components to the effect (Fig. 2.10.29, Suortti, 1972). The constant decrease in intensity is generally incorporated into the refined scale factor. The angle-dependent portion becomes more significant as the packing density is reduced.

The effect is greatest with strongly absorbing materials analysed in reflection geometry, so care should be taken to produce a sample with a smooth surface and uniform density where possible. An example is provided by the patterns (Fig. 2.10.30) of a commercial cobalt silicate (which turned out to consist of a mixture of phases). A pattern from a slurry deposited on a zero-background cell – a technique useful for small samples, but which produces a rough surface – yielded significantly lower

3.7. CRYSTALLOGRAPHIC DATABASES

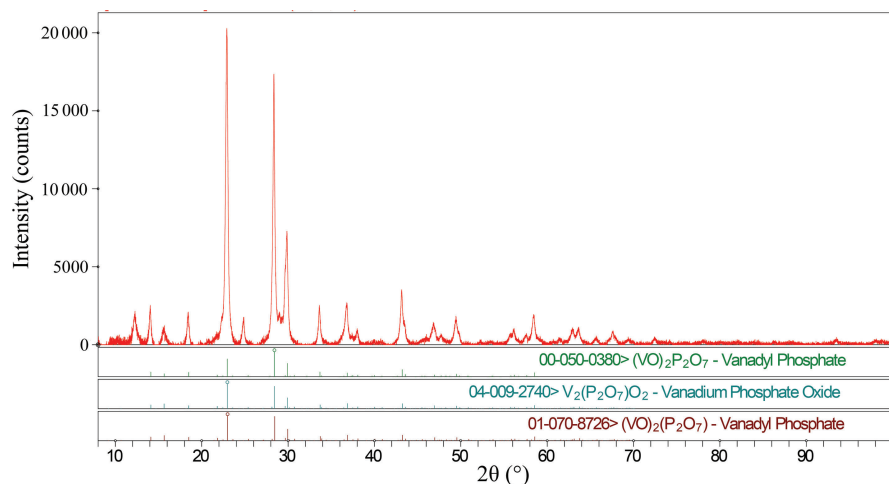


Figure 3.7.4

The results of applying a commercial search/match program (*Jade 9.5*; Materials Data, 2012) to the (background-subtracted, $K\alpha_2$ -stripped) powder pattern of a butane-oxidation catalyst. The first three patterns in the hit list had equivalent figures of merit. The PDF entries 00-050-0380 and 04-009-2740 had Star quality marks and 04-009-2740 contained the atomic coordinates necessary for a Rietveld refinement. Additional peaks are apparent. The phases that give rise to them were identified using the native capabilities of the Powder Diffraction File.

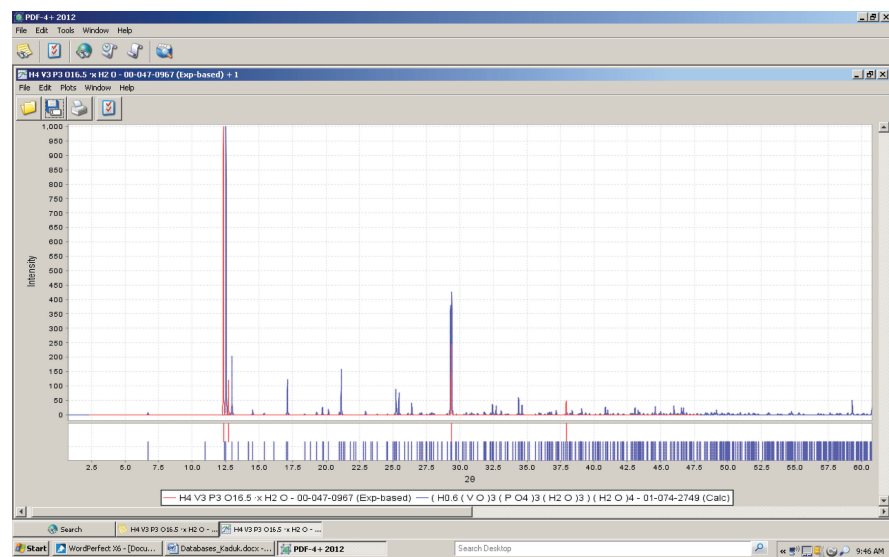


Figure 3.7.5

Comparison of the low-quality experimental PDF entry 00-047-0967 with the high-quality calculated pattern 01-074-2749 located by searching the experimental pattern against the rest of the PDF. The similarity in patterns and chemistry demonstrated that the two phases were the same and that the coordinates used to calculate entry 01-074-2749 could be used in a Rietveld refinement of a butane-oxidation catalyst.

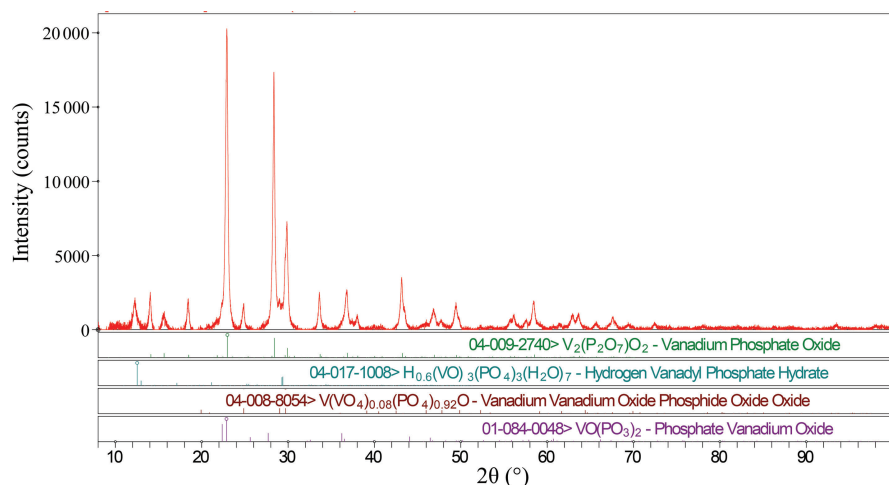


Figure 3.7.6

The four crystalline phases identified in a butane-oxidation catalyst.

3.7.2.4.4. Isocracker sludge

An isocracker is a refinery unit which simultaneously carries out cracking and isomerization reactions to produce more high-octane gasoline. A black deposit isolated from such a unit was surprisingly crystalline (Fig. 3.7.9; files NALK157.gsas, NALK157.raw and padv.prm). It was easy to identify small concentrations of elemental sulfur, pyrrhotite-4M (now called pyrrhotite-4C), haematite, lepidocrocite and dolomite, but the major peaks did not match well those of any entry in the PDF.

It seemed likely that a mineral-related phase would serve as a structural prototype for an apparently new phase, so two separate searches for mineral-related phases with one of their three strongest peaks in the d -spacing ranges 7.09 ± 0.03 and 5.57 ± 0.03 Å were combined. The two hits in the search list were both uranium minerals. These seemed unlikely in a refinery deposit(!). Widening the search ranges to 7.09 ± 0.10 and 5.57 ± 0.07 Å yielded rasvumite, KFe_2S_3 (PDF entry 00-033-1018), as the second entry in the hit list.

The fit to the major peaks in the deposit was reasonable, but there should not be any potassium in a refinery deposit and none was detected in a bulk chemical analysis. When the jar containing the deposit was opened, it smelled strongly of ammonia. Ammonium and potassium ions are about the same size and often form isostructural compounds. The infrared spectrum of the deposit was dominated by bands of ammonium ions.

The potassium in the structure of rasvumite (PDF entry 01-083-1322, used as a reference) was replaced by nitrogen. Analysis of potential hydrogen-bonding interactions yielded approximate hydrogen positions in the ammonium ion. These positions were refined using a density-functional geometry optimization. This model yielded a satisfactory Rietveld refinement (Fig. 3.7.10) and the quantitative analysis 45.7 (2) wt% $(\text{NH}_4)\text{Fe}_2\text{S}_3$, 12.8 (4) wt% S_8 , 22.0 (6) wt% lepidocrocite ($\gamma\text{-FeOOH}$), 5.5 (5) wt% haematite ($\alpha\text{-Fe}_2\text{O}_3$), 6.6 (3) wt% pyrrhotite-4C (Fe_7S_8) and 6.6 (3) wt% dolomite [$\text{CaMg}(\text{CO}_3)_2$; limestone environmental dust]. The powder pattern and crystal structure of $(\text{NH}_4)\text{Fe}_2\text{S}_3$ are now included in the PDF as entry 00-055-0533.

3.7.2.4.5. Amoxicillin

The amoxicillin powder from a commercial antibiotic capsule was highly crystalline. Its powder pattern (files kadu918.gsas, KADU918.raw, d8v3.prm and KADU921.rd) was matched well by the PDF entries 00-039-1832 and 00-033-1528 for amoxicillin trihydrate, but there was an additional peak at a d -spacing of 16.47 Å ($5.37^\circ 2\theta$). With such a low-angle peak, it seemed prudent to measure the pattern again

4. STRUCTURE DETERMINATION

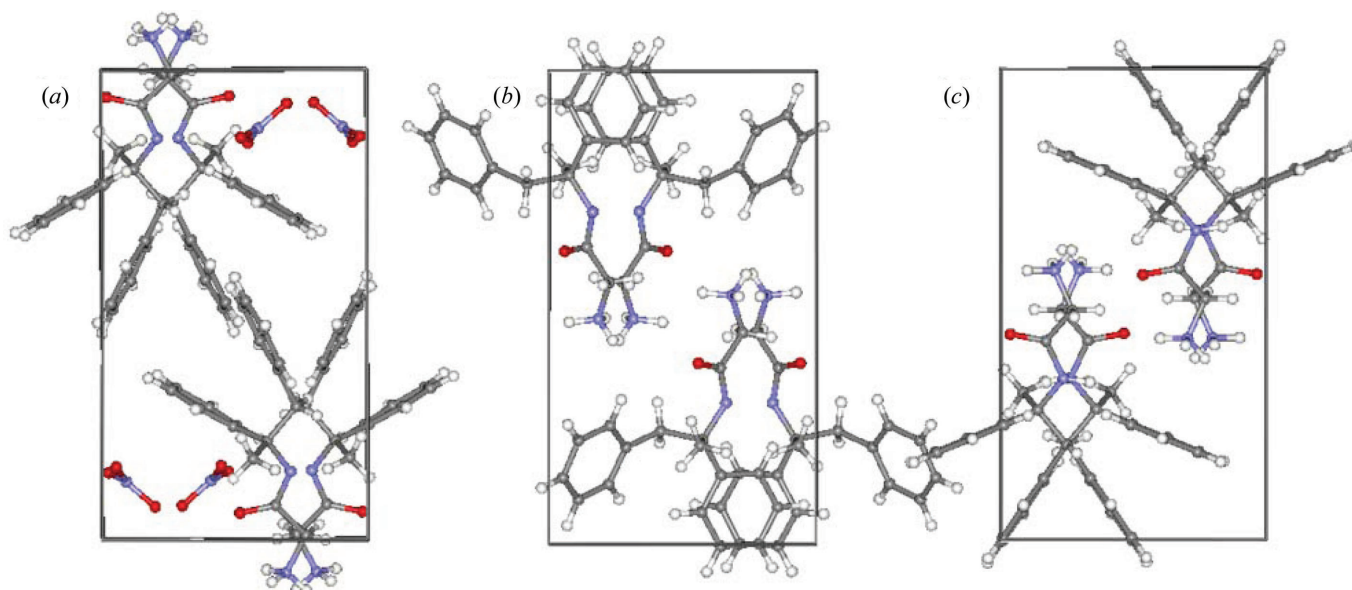


Figure 4.3.19

(a) The correct crystal structure of remacemide nitrate. (b) The best structure determination using a least-squares analysis to compare observed and calculated diffraction data with only the remacemide ion used in the structural model. Note that although the structural arrangement is completely incorrect, it is clear that the solution has resulted in an optimal correlation of observed and calculated electron density. Note in particular that the phenyl group maps closely onto the scattering density associated with the nitrate ion. (c) The best structure determination using a maximum-likelihood analysis to compare observed and calculated diffraction data with only the remacemide ion used in the structural model. The structure illustrated in (c) is enantiometrically related to correct solution shown in (a). The agreement between the remacemide molecular position, orientation and conformation in (a) and (c) is as close as obtained in a standard least-squares analysis with the nitrate ion included.

implementation of simulated annealing in *DASH*, the HMC approach is a factor of 2 more successful in locating the global minimum over a series of 20 repeat runs. From a comparison of Figs. 4.3.15 and 4.3.18, it is evident that the hybrid Monte Carlo algorithm is also significantly more efficient, requiring on average an order of magnitude fewer χ^2 evaluations.

4.3.6. Using maximum-likelihood techniques to tackle incomplete structural models

4.3.6.1. Introduction

Solving crystal structures from powder-diffraction data is a significantly more difficult and less straightforward procedure than its single-crystal counterpart because of the loss of information associated with compressing the three-dimensional reciprocal lattice on to the one dimension of a powder-diffraction pattern with the corresponding inevitable overlap of Bragg reflections. The situation can be ameliorated and Bragg-peak intensities more easily extracted by explicitly using texture or methods such as differential thermal expansion (Brunelli *et al.*, 2003). However, discussion of these experimental methods is beyond the scope of this chapter. The incorporation of additional chemical information directly into the structure-solution process using both databases and complementary experimental techniques is discussed in Chapter 4.4. This section discusses the reverse situation, where there is a lack of chemical information, and highlights the effectiveness of maximum-likelihood methods.

4.3.6.2. Working with incomplete structural models: maximum-likelihood methods

In the previous section, the use of additional information to facilitate real-space structure solution was discussed. Specifically, constraining molecular conformation, through the active use of torsion-angle distributions derived from the Cambridge Structural Database and the intramolecular distance restraints derived

from solid-state NMR measurements, was shown to accelerate structure solution and extend the range of complexity of structures that may be solved using real-space structure-determination techniques (Middleton *et al.*, 2002).

In this section, a complementary strategy is discussed where not all the structure is initially determined. Consider the case of a co-crystal or salt compound where there is more than one type of molecule in the crystal structure. It is possible, through the use of maximum-likelihood techniques, to account for and effectively ignore a significant structural component and yet determine precisely the location of all of the rest of the crystal structure. Take the specific case of the anti-convulsant agent remacemide nitrate ($C_{17}H_{21}N_2O^+ \cdot NO_3^-$). Markvardsen *et al.* (2002) showed that, although the nitrate group accounts for $\sim 18\%$ of the X-ray scattering, a real-space structure solution, based not on a conventional least-squares but on a maximum-likelihood optimization between observed and calculated diffraction data, yielded the correct location, orientation and torsion angles of the remacemide ion without any attempt to locate the nitrate ion; see Fig. 4.3.19.

The maximum-likelihood method is perhaps best explained by specific reference to this crystal structure. The remacemide and nitrate ions will be denoted as the fragment and blur, respectively, for the purposes of the discussion. Given that the objective of the maximum-likelihood approach is to determine only the remacemide fragment, the *a priori* presumption is that the scattering contribution of the blur is randomly distributed throughout the unit cell. In reciprocal-space terms, this means that the calculated structure factors are no longer a set of numbers but are instead represented by a multidimensional Gaussian distribution with a width that is determined by the magnitude of the random scattering associated with the blur. As a consequence, the scattering density of the nitrate ion is actively considered in structure-factor representation, even though its position is explicitly unknown. With a large unknown component, the Gaussian broadening will be large and the

4.8. THE MAXIMUM-ENTROPY METHOD

$$C_G = -\chi_{\text{aim}}^2(G) + \frac{1}{N_G} \sum_{i=1}^{N_G} w_i \left(\frac{G_{\text{obs}}^i - G_{\text{MEM}}^i}{\sigma(G_{\text{obs}}^i)} \right)^2 = 0, \quad (4.8.25)$$

where G_{obs}^i and $\sigma(G_{\text{obs}}^i)$ are the group amplitude and standard uncertainty as obtained from the experiment, respectively, and G_{MEM}^i is computed from $F_{\text{MEM}}(\mathbf{H}_j)$ (Section 4.8.4) according to equation (4.8.23).

G constraints can be introduced into the MEM with aid of an additional Lagrange multiplier λ_G (see Section 4.8.4):

$$L = S - \lambda_N C_N - \lambda_F C_F - \lambda_G C_G. \quad (4.8.26)$$

Experience has shown that a certain fraction of reflections must be available as F constraints in order for the MEM to converge to the correct electron-density distribution. Since the ratio of λ_F and λ_G is not known *a priori*, applications have used a single constraint with a single Lagrange multiplier λ_{FG} according to

$$L = S - \lambda_N C_N - \lambda_{FG} C_{FG} \quad (4.8.27)$$

with the combined F and G constraint

$$C_{FG} = -\chi_{\text{aim}}^2 + \frac{1}{N_{\text{all}}} \sum^N$$

uncertainties can be avoided by the use of so-called G constraints based on the integrated intensities of groups of overlapping reflections (Sakata *et al.*, 1990). G constraints can be easily incorporated into the Sakata–Sato algorithm, and are thus actively used in this algorithm.

G constraints are based on N_G groups of overlapping reflections. Group i has contributions of N_G^i reflections, resulting in a ‘group amplitude’ G^i equal to the square root of the integrated intensity and related to the structure-factor amplitudes through

$$G^i = \left[\sum_{j=1}^{N_G^i} \left(\frac{m_j}{\sum m_j} |F(\mathbf{H}_j)|^2 \right) \right]^{1/2}, \quad (4.8.23)$$

where m_j is the point-group multiplicity of reflection j . The summation runs over the symmetry-independent structure factors contributing to group i . The standard uncertainty of the group amplitude G_i follows as

$$\sigma(G^i) = \frac{1}{G^i} \left[\sum_{j=1}^{N_G^i} \left(\frac{m_j}{\sum m_j} |F(\mathbf{H}_j)|^2 \right) \right]^{1/2}. \quad (4.8.24)$$

The group amplitudes can be used in the G constraint in a similar way to the F constraint [equation (4.8.10)]:

5.4. THIN FILMS AND MULTILAYERS

$$t_{\text{per}} = t_A + t_B. \quad (5.4.71)$$

Such superlattices are fabricated for applications as so-called Bragg mirrors in light-emitting devices or as X-ray mirrors. The X-ray reflectivity curves of such multilayers have various characteristic features that are illustrated for the example of an X-ray mirror system in Fig. 5.4.22. The figure also displays the reflectograms of a $10 \times (6 \text{ nm TiO}_2/6 \text{ nm C})$ superlattice on an Si substrate that was again calculated using *RCSim* (Zaumseil, 2005). As for the single-layer system, a modified Bragg equation (5.4.53) may be derived describing the occurrence of the superlattice peaks by inserting t_{per} instead of t ,

$$\theta_m^2 = \langle \theta_c \rangle^2 + m^2 \left(\frac{\lambda}{2t_{\text{per}}} \right)^2, \quad (5.4.72)$$

where $\langle \theta_c \rangle$ is the average critical angle of the total superlattice. The thickness values for each individual layer A and B and the interface roughness σ_{AB} and σ_{BA} can be determined by fitting with the matrix formalism. The figure displays three different simulations with varying interface roughnesses. The difference between the large fringes is accounted for by (5.4.72), while the small fringing scales with the total thickness of the layer system, *i.e.* $1/(Nt_{\text{per}})$. Ideally, there are $N - 2$ small fringes between two adjacent superlattice peaks. It can be realized from the figure that for certain combinations of σ_{AB} and σ_{BA} every second maximum may vanish. This effect may be observed in superlattices having $t_A = t_B$ and is due to the destructive interference from X-ray beams reflected at the AB and BA interfaces.

Superlattices with large differences in electron density between individual layers can be used as X-ray mirrors. Typical material combinations are Mo/Si, V/C or La/B₄C and other systems with substantial ρ_e contrast. XRR also provides a sensitive tool for studying the surface oxidation of metals and other

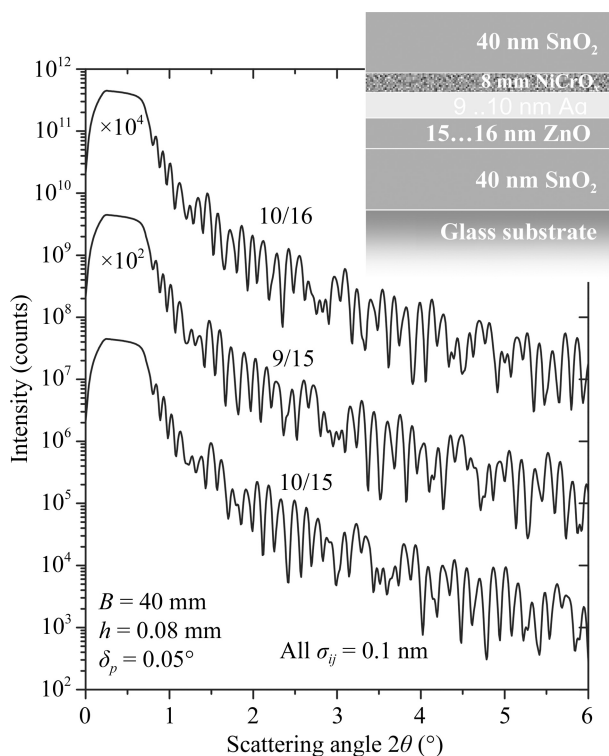


Figure 5.4.21 Simulated X-ray reflectivity patterns of barrier coating SnO/NiCrO_x/Ag/ZnO/SnO on glass recorded with Cu $K\alpha$ radiation. The numbers above each pattern indicate the thicknesses of the Ag and ZnO layers, respectively, in nanometres. Other thicknesses were kept constant.

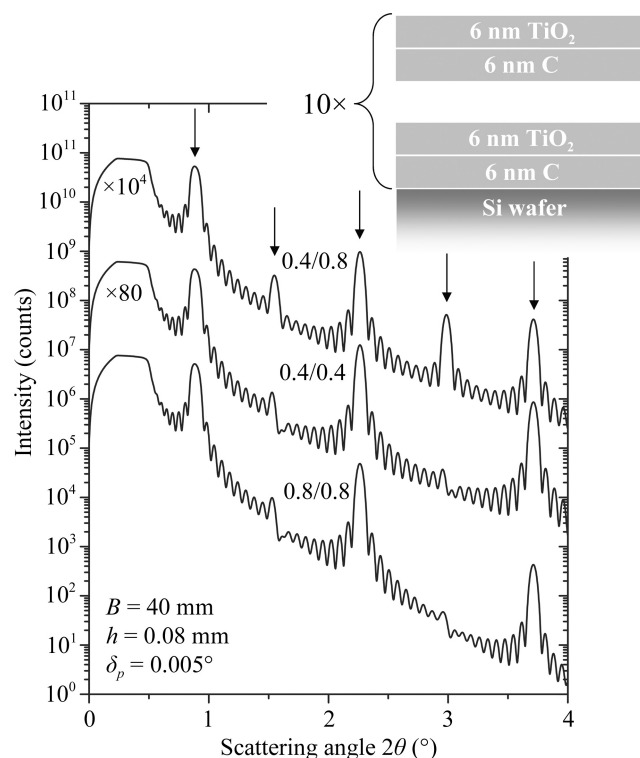


Figure 5.4.22 Simulation of X-ray reflectivity of a (TiO₂/C) superlattice on an Si wafer. The numbers above the pattern give the roughnesses of the TiO₂ and C layers, respectively, in nanometres. The substrate roughness was set to a constant 0.4 nm. Superlattice peaks are indicated by arrows.

materials that are sensitive to surface oxidation. In fact, in his seminal study Parratt investigated a thin copper film on glass, where reliable agreement between the measured and simulated reflectivity could only be achieved by introducing a 15 nm-thin surface-oxide layer into the model (Parratt, 1954). The possibility that there may be an oxide layer on the top of a thin-film or multilayer system should routinely be considered when fitting measured reflectivity curves. Surface chemical reactions may also be studied by XRR.

5.4.7. Grazing-incidence X-ray scattering (GIXS)

In a GIXS experiment, a primary beam with momentum \mathbf{K}_0 impinges on the sample at a very small incidence angle, as in XRR. Again, the elastically scattered intensity with momentum vector \mathbf{K} , $|\mathbf{K}| = |\mathbf{K}_0| = 2\pi/\lambda$, is measured in a reflective configuration, but it is not the specular reflection alone that is measured by a point detector. Instead, the intensity in GIXS is collected by a two-dimensional detector screen, allowing scattering events for which the scattering vector $\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{K} - \mathbf{K}_0$ deviates from the substrate normal to also be recorded. The incidence angle between the primary (scattered) beam and the substrate surface is generally denoted by α_i (α_f), while the azimuth of the scattered beam is indicated by $2\theta_f$. The two-dimensional intensity map is then given as a function of momentum-transfer coordinates Q_y and Q_z according to

$$\begin{aligned} Q_y &= \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \sin \theta \cos \alpha_f \sin 2\theta_f, \\ Q_z &= \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \sin \theta (\sin \alpha_i + \sin \alpha_f), \end{aligned} \quad (5.4.73)$$

where the projection of \mathbf{K}_0 to the sample surface is assumed to define the x axis. The method is often used with small scattering angles, and in this case is denoted as GISAXS. The analysis of

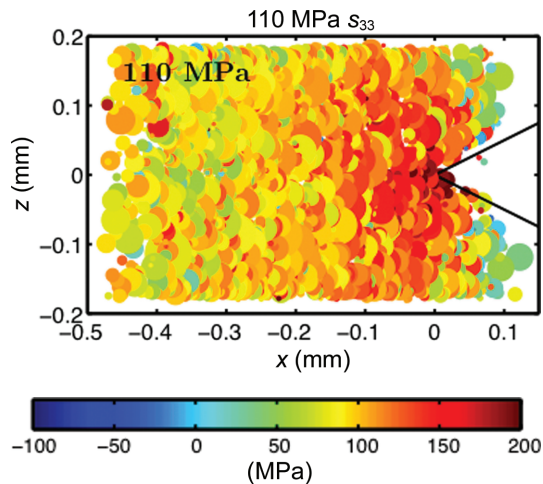


Figure 5.5.5

Stress map of 1750 grains around a notch in an Mg AZ321 sample during tensile deformation. Shown is the axial stress in each grain at an external load of 110 MPa colour coded according to the colour bar at the bottom. The figure represents a 2D projection of the 3D map. The diameters of the spheres represent the grain sizes. Reprinted from Oddershede *et al.* (2012), with permission from Elsevier.

$\simeq 10^{-4}$ and grain orientations to 0.5° precision (Margulies *et al.*, 2002; Martins *et al.*, 2004; Oddershede *et al.*, 2012; Bernier *et al.*, 2011). These properties imply that the method is well adapted to studies of grain rotations (*e.g.* Poulsen *et al.*, 2003). Furthermore, having determined the entire strain tensor for each grain, the corresponding stress tensor can be derived, using Hooke's law; see Section 5.5.10. Fig. 5.5.5 is an example of the application of such stress mapping. In practice this formalism is applicable up to 5–10% plastic deformation; at higher external loads the centre-of-mass algorithms tend to break down because of spot overlap.

5.5.8. 3D grain and orientation mapping

3DXRD microscopy and diffraction contrast tomography (DCT) enable relatively fast generation of large 3D grain maps and 3D orientation maps by use of tomographic reconstruction algorithms. The development of such algorithms is non-trivial, as the complexity in terms of the dimensionality and sheer size of the reconstruction space is much larger than for classical tomography. Another difference is that in 3DXRD and DCT the number of useful projections is given by the number of observable reflections and as such is intrinsically limited (Poulsen, 2004).

In the most general case, some or all of the grains may be smaller than the voxel size and as such the relevant representation is in terms of associating an orientation distribution function, ODF, with each voxel. This implies operating in a numerically very large six-dimensional solution space. Reconstruction algorithms for this case are not routinely available. In practice, focus has been on vector-field reconstructions, where each voxel is associated with one and only one orientation. However, even with this constraint, further simplifications may be required for computational reasons.

An important simplification is the case where the grains are both large in comparison to the voxel size and 'undeformed'; that is, the orientation spread within each grain is negligible. In this case the spatial and angular degrees of freedom are separate, and one may effectively reconstruct *grain maps* rather than orientation maps. Mathematically speaking, the task at hand in this case

is to determine the 3D boundary network with as high a precision as possible.

Furthermore, if the diffraction spots do not overlap, one may initially index the various grains, and then reconstruct the 3D morphology of individual grains independently. Powerful methods from the field of discrete tomography can then be applied, allowing for reconstructions even in the case of very few projections (Alpers *et al.*, 2006; Batenburg *et al.*, 2010). The first 3D grain maps were of this kind (Fu *et al.*, 2003).

Another simplification for reconstructing both grains and orientations is the use of a line beam, *cf.* Fig. 5.5.1. In this case, 3D maps are generated by stacking independent reconstructions from a set of layers.

At the time of writing, orientation maps comprising up to 20 000 grains have been obtained. The spatial resolution is of the order 1–5 μm . Using synchrotron sources, the data-acquisition time for a full 3D map is typically of the order of a few hours.

Below we outline two popular approaches for reconstruction.

5.5.8.1. Approach 1: Grain-by-grain volumetric mapping

In this approach it is assumed that the grains have negligible orientation gradients. First, the orientations and centres-of-mass of the grains are found, *cf.* Section 5.5.7. Then the 3D shape of each grain is reconstructed. Owing to experimental uncertainties the shapes of the grains will not form a perfect 3D space-filling map, so the last step in the procedure is typically an optimization of the grain-boundary position based on standard image-analysis techniques such as smoothing or erosion/dilation. In practice, the presence of voids can be a concern when the aim is to reach a detailed description of boundary curvatures and triple-junction geometry.

Diffraction contrast tomography (*e.g.* Johnson *et al.*, 2008; Ludwig *et al.*, 2008; King *et al.*, 2008) is performed in this way, as are standard 3DXRD microscopy experiments. As an example of such work, Fig. 5.5.6 shows a grain map of a β -Ti sample reconstructed by the DCT algorithm.

5.5.8.2. Approach 2: Orientation mapping by Monte Carlo optimization

Classical transform algorithms are not well suited to handling vector-field reconstructions. Focus has therefore been on Monte Carlo based optimization routines. An example is the forward-

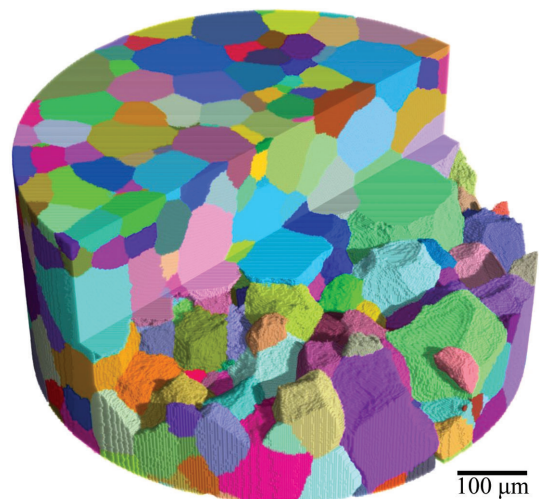


Figure 5.5.6

Rendition of the 3D grain structure in a cylindrical β -Ti specimen containing 1008 grains, as obtained by the DCT algorithm. From Ludwig *et al.* (2008).

5. DEFECTS, TEXTURE AND MICROSTRUCTURE

citly, *PDFgetX2* (Qiu *et al.*, 2004). This approach does not result in a PDF on an absolute scale, which is generally not a problem when modelling the data since an overall scale factor can be applied to the calculated PDF. In practice, our experience is that data sets collected at the same time (for example, a temperature series) and processed using *PDFgetX3* all appear with the same scale factor and features such as peak heights can be compared with each other even without modelling.

5.7.5. Extracting structural information

5.7.5.1. Obtaining the PDF from a model

Assume that we have a model for our sample that consists of a set of N atoms at positions \mathbf{r}_i with respect to some origin. The model is built up as described in Section 5.7.2.2.

If we consider a crystalline single-element material, for example nickel, a typical neutron-sized sample contains in the vicinity of 10^{20} or more atoms. To properly calculate $R(r)$ we would therefore need to carry out a double sum over this many atoms, which is completely impractical. However, in practice accurate PDFs can be calculated from many fewer (and a practically small number of) atoms. First, we are generally only interested in calculating $R(r)$ over a relatively narrow range of r , say 20 Å. In this case, we would still need to put the origin on each of the 10^{20} atoms in turn to accurately represent the sample, but each time the sum need only be taken over atoms that lie within 20 Å of the origin atom, a volume that contains only 10^2 – 10^3 atoms. Second, the material in question may be crystalline. In this case, the total sample is made up of many equivalent unit cells which are periodically repeated in space (although it should be noted that in real crystals, the ideal of every unit cell being

identical may not hold well). In this favourable situation we need only place the origin on each atom in the unit cell, since the equivalent atom in all the other unit cells has exactly the same atomic environment. This is now a computationally tractable problem: a double sum where the first sum is taken over the atoms in the unit cell (typically <100) and the second sum over all atoms within r_{\max} of the origin atom, where r_{\max} is the maximum extent over which the PDF is to be calculated. This is shown in Fig. 5.7.11.

Even in the case where the sample is nanocrystalline or amorphous, sufficient averaging over different possible configurations to replicate the measured PDF is in general possible with a much smaller number of atoms. For example, in typical big-box modelling approaches such as reverse Monte Carlo, boxes containing $\sim 10^4$ atoms are typical.

5.7.5.2. PDFs from multi-element material

When calculating the PDF from samples with multiple atomic species, we need an expression for the calculated radial distribution function expressed in terms of partial radial distribution functions between different atom types. In analogy to Section 5.7.2.6, when multiple elements are present in the sample we can write

$$\begin{aligned} R(r) &= \frac{1}{N\langle f \rangle^2} \sum_{i,j(i \neq j)} f_i^* f_j \delta(r - r_{i,j}) \\ &= \frac{1}{\langle f \rangle^2} \sum_{\alpha,\beta} \sum_{i \in \{\alpha\}, j \in \{\beta\}(i \neq j)} \frac{f_\alpha^* f_\beta}{N} \delta(r - r_{i,j}) \\ &= \sum_{\alpha,\beta} \frac{c_\alpha c_\beta f_\alpha^* f_\beta}{\langle f \rangle^2} \left(\sum_{a,b} \frac{1}{N c_\alpha c_\beta} \delta(r - r_{i,j}) \right) \\ &= \sum_{\alpha,\beta} \frac{c_\alpha c_\beta f_\alpha^* f_\beta}{\langle f \rangle^2} R_{\alpha\beta}, \end{aligned} \quad (5.7.63)$$

which serves to define

$$R_{\alpha\beta} = \frac{1}{N c_\alpha c_\beta} \sum_{a,b} \delta(r - r_{i,j}). \quad (5.7.64)$$

5.7.5.3. Model-independent information from the PDF

It is clear from this description that the PDF is a heavily averaged representation of the structure. First, directional information is lost. Second, it is a linear superposition of the local environments of many atoms. How can such a function contain any useful information at all? The reason is that, especially on very short length scales, the possible environments of particular atoms are very limited. In nickel, for example, all the atoms have the same number of neighbours (12) at the same nearest-neighbour distance, $r_{nn} = 2.49$ Å (Wyckoff, 1967). There is no intensity in $R(r)$ for $r < r_{nn}$ and a sharp peak at r_{nn} . This behaviour is very general and true even in atomically disordered systems such as glasses, liquids and gases. In such systems the second and higher neighbour distances are generally less well defined and the PDF peaks are broader. However, in crystals, because of the long-range order of the structure, all neighbours at all lengths are well defined and give rise to sharp PDF peaks (Levashov *et al.*, 2005). The position of these peaks directly gives the separations of pairs of atoms in the structure. If data are measured with high enough Q_{\max} , finding the position of a peak maximum will give the distance separating a pair of atoms in the material. If the

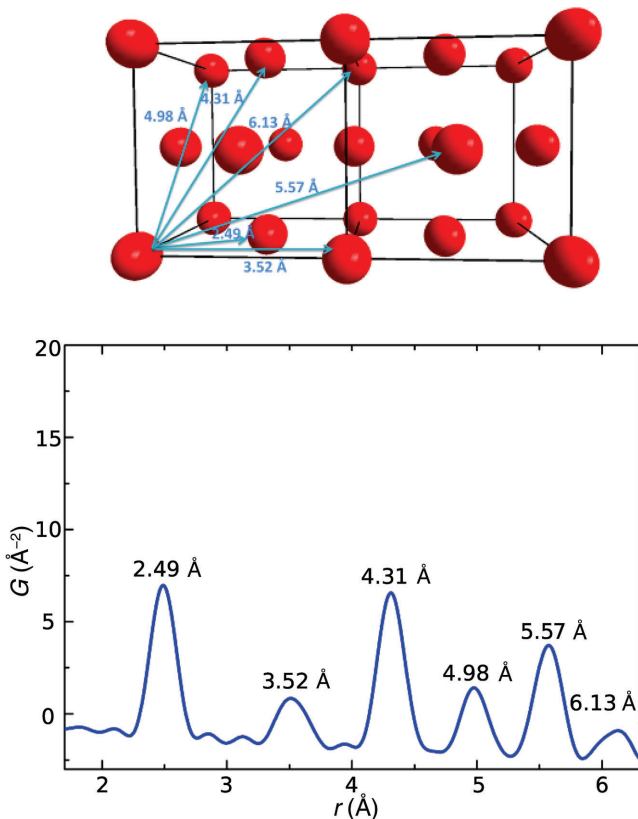


Figure 5.7.11

A schematic of the buildup of the PDF from the structural model for face-centred-cubic nickel. The top figure shows the bond distances of nearby atoms from a reference Ni atom at the corner. Its corresponding PDF is shown below.

Table 6.1.1
Software for powder diffraction

Program	Description	Function(s)	Reference(s)	URL or other source	Availability
ACerS-NIST Phase Equilibria Diagrams Database	Phase-equilibria diagrams	Database	ACerS-NIST Phase Equilibria Diagrams Database (2013)		Commercial
ADM	Software suite including device control, pattern evaluation, qualitative and quantitative phase analysis, indexing, lattice-parameter refinement, crystal-size evaluation, microstress analysis, profile analysis and pattern simulation	Phase analysis, indexing, lattice-parameter refinement, crystal size, stress, profile analysis, pattern simulation	Downs & Hall-Wallace (2003)	http://www.RMSKempten.de/	Commercial
American Mineralogist Crystal Structure Database (AMCSD)	Online database that includes every structure published in <i>The American Mineralogist</i> , <i>The Canadian Mineralogist</i> , <i>European Journal of Mineralogy</i> and <i>Physics and Chemistry of Minerals</i> , as well as selected data sets from other journals	Minerals, database		http://rruff.geo.arizona.edu/AMSameds.php	Free to use
ANAELU	Computer-based tools for inferring single-crystal structures and fibre textures from two-dimensional diffraction diagrams	Modelling, glasses	Fuentes-Montero <i>et al.</i> (2011)	http://www.esrf.eu/computing/scientific/ANAELU/Anelu_Page.htm	Free
ARITVE	Modelling of glass structures using the Rietveld method	Modelling, glasses	Le Bail (1995, 2000)	http://sdpd.univ-lemans.fr/aritve.html	Free
ATOMS	Structure visualization. Part of the <i>SHAPE</i> software package	Structure visualization	Shape Software, 521 Hidden Valley Road, Kingsport, TN 37663, USA	http://www.shapesoftware.com/	Commercial
AUTOFP	GUI for highly automated Rietveld refinement using an expert system algorithm based on <i>FULLPROF</i>	Rietveld refinement	Cui <i>et al.</i> (2015)	http://pmedia.shu.edu.cn/autofp	Free
AUTOX	Autoindexing multiphase samples; included with <i>VMRIA</i>	Indexing	Zlokazov (1995); Bergmann <i>et al.</i> (2004)	http://www.ccp14.ac.uk/ccp/web-mirrors/vmria	Free
AXES	Program for X-ray powder diffraction data evaluation, specially designed for peak-shape analysis and data preparation for Rietveld refinement in connection with <i>FULLPROF</i>	Data conversion, peak-shape analysis	Mändar <i>et al.</i> (1996)	http://www.ccp14.ac.uk/ccp/web-mirrors/axes/~hugo/axes/	Free for academic use
AXES-20B	Estimation of crystal size and shape. Links to a wide range of programs and includes a range of data-processing and display functions	Phase identification, data conversion, structure visualization, peak location, peak profiling, indexing	Mändar & Vajakas (1998); Mändar <i>et al.</i> (1999)	http://www.ccp14.ac.uk/ccp/web-mirrors/axes/	Free
Balls&Sticks	Structure visualization and animation	Structure visualization	Ozawa & Kang (2004)	http://www.toycrate.org/	Free
BALSAC	Construction, visualization and interactive analysis of crystal lattices	Structure visualization	K. Hermann, Fritz-Haber-Institut der MPG, Berlin, Germany	http://www.fhi-berlin.mpg.de/~hermann/Balsac/	Free
BEARTEX	Texture analysis in polycrystalline materials	Texture analysis	Wenk <i>et al.</i> (1998)	http://eps.berkeley.edu/~wenk/TexturePage/beartex.htm	Free

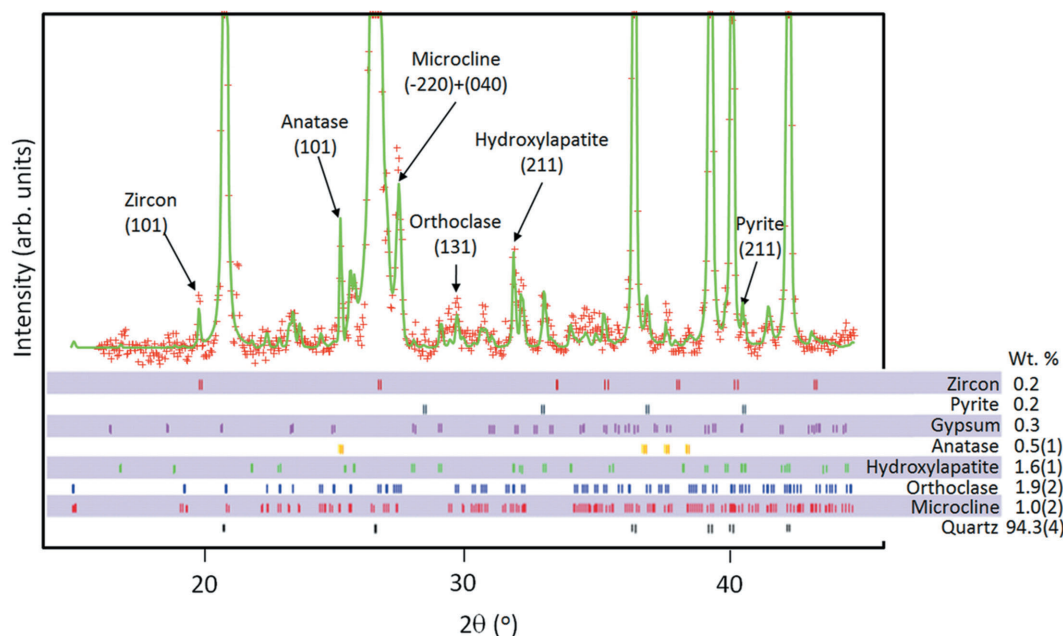


Figure 7.3.1

Multi-phase Rietveld refinement of a borehole specimen. The line shows the calculated pattern. Raw data points are shown as + symbols. Individual peaks for the trace phases are highlighted by arrows. Off-scale peaks are from quartz. Reflection tick marks for each phase are shown below the pattern. Quantitative weight % values for the phases are listed on the lower right of the plot. See Rodriguez *et al.* (2012). Copyright (2012) JCPDS – International Centre for Diffraction Data. Reproduced with permission.

release initiated upon conversion of the low-temperature γ -Ca(BH₄)₂ phase to the high temperature β -Ca(BH₄)₂ phase. Synchrotron sources also have the advantage of a tunable X-ray wavelength and are therefore not restricted to a fixed wavelength as dictated by the anode of a standard sealed-tube source. In this regard, synchrotron sources are often employed for atomic pair distribution function (PDF) analysis. This is because synchrotron sources can easily generate the hard X-ray wavelengths (*e.g.* $<0.5 \text{ \AA}$) that are necessary to achieve high momentum-transfer values (*i.e.* $Q_{\text{max}} > 20 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$) in measured data sets (see Chupas *et al.*, 2003). PDF data are useful for characterizing nearest-neighbour distances between atomic species in a structure and can be beneficial for both crystalline and non-crystalline compounds. Chupas *et al.* (2007) demonstrated the use of synchrotron radiation to detect the presence of H₂ in Mn₃[Co(CN)₆]₂·3H₂ by differential PDF analysis. This approach revealed how the H₂ molecules are bound within the porous framework, resulting in a more detailed understanding of how H₂ is stored and recovered from the material. While access to synchrotron facilities is often limited, well designed experiments can lead to significant knowledge of a material's behaviour. Chapter 2.2 in this volume is dedicated to synchrotron radiation and the reader is referred to that chapter for further details.

7.3.4. Wind

One of the critical aspects of green technologies such as wind and solar is the intermittent nature of the harvested energy, which dictates the necessity for energy storage. Wind farms have been employing a clever strategy for power storage through the use of compressed air energy storage (CAES), as outlined by Cavallo (2007). This method employs the use of underground caverns (man-made or naturally occurring). When the wind is active at a time of low power demand, a wind farm may choose to transfer power to an air compressor that pumps air into a cavern, thereby storing the energy in the form of pressure. The energy can be converted back to electricity by releasing the air pressure through a turbine. Careful characterization of cavern geology is impor-

tant, especially with regard to the materials present in the access boreholes that are drilled deep into the ground to bridge the cavern to the surface (Rodriguez *et al.*, 2012). Quantitative characterization of the phases present as a function of depth is important information for assessing the impact of cyclic air pressure on the CAES station. Fig. 7.3.1 shows a Rietveld refinement for an eight-phase diffraction pattern obtained from a core-drill specimen. The identification of the phases was facilitated by employing X-ray fluorescence (XRF) for determination of the elemental composition (Rodriguez *et al.*, 2012). It is worth noting that the plot in Fig. 7.3.1 shows intensity for phases that are very close to the background level. The quartz peaks, which make up more than 90 wt% of the sample, go off-scale on the intensity axis. This allows the signals from the other minor or trace phases present to be seen more easily. One phase of critical importance for CAES functionality was FeS₂ (pyrite), because oxidation of this phase could alter the pH and mineralogy of the borehole. The phase analysis *via* Rietveld refinement revealed a very small weight fraction of pyrite at this borehole depth. In fact, the quantity was so small and confounded by peak overlap with other phases that its detection proved difficult without the supporting XRF analysis. Typical errors associated with phase quantification are in the 0.1 to 0.5 weight percent range, depending on the quality of the XRD data and the scattering behaviour of the quantified phase. This is one of the limitations of powder XRD. Detection and quantification of major, minor and trace phases *via* XRD analysis can give better insight into the functionality and possible issues that might impact CAES, a practical option for energy storage at large wind-farm facilities.

7.3.5. Solar

The challenge of solar technology is to efficiently convert photonic energy from sunlight into another form of energy, typically electricity. The solar cell is the quintessential building block of the industry, but materials science challenges still remain. The three best-known issues with photovoltaics are: (1) the influence of grain boundaries, (2) the electron affinity of

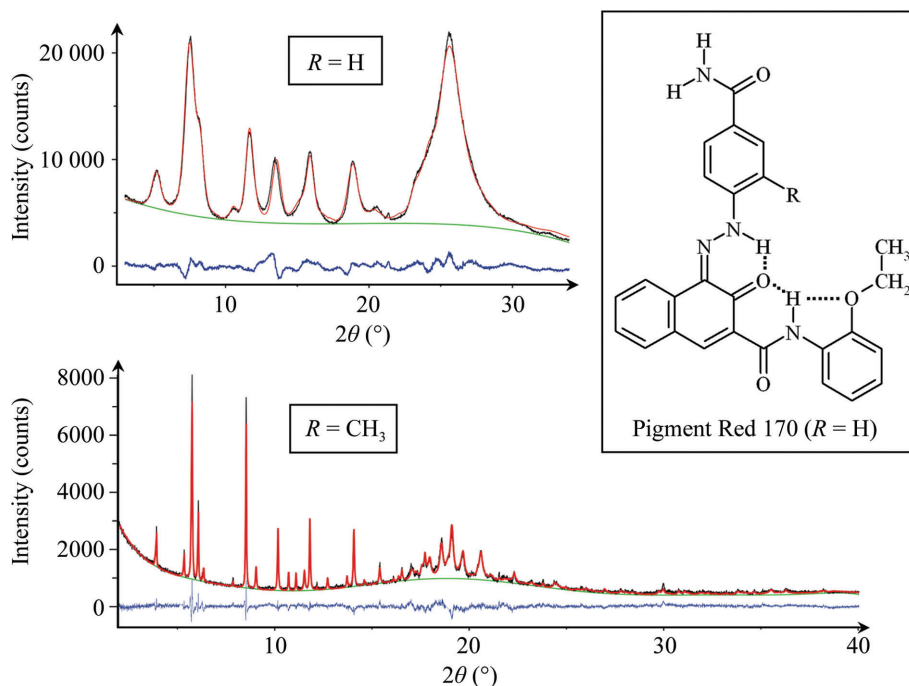


Figure 7.10.8

Structure determination of the nanocrystalline α -phase of Pigment Red 170 from powder data using an isostructural methyl derivative with improved crystallinity. Top, Rietveld plot of the α -phase of Pigment Red 170 ($R = \text{H}$); bottom, methyl derivative ($R = \text{CH}_3$). Experimental diffractograms are in black, the calculated diffractogram is in red, the background is in green and difference curves are in blue. Wavelengths were 1.5406 Å ($\text{Cu } K\alpha_1$) for Pigment Red 170 and 1.149914 Å (synchrotron radiation) for the methyl derivative. The space group is $P2_12_12_1$, with $Z = 4$, $a = 23.960$ (9), $b = 23.234$ (9), $c = 3.887$ (1) Å for Pigment Red 170 and $a = 24.6208$ (9), $b = 22.8877$ (9), $c = 3.9388$ (2) Å for the methyl derivative.

7.10.2.6. Investigation of local structures of nanocrystalline and amorphous organic compounds using pair-distribution function analyses

7.10.2.6.1. General

There is no sharp boundary between crystalline, nanocrystalline and amorphous states. In an amorphous sample the molecules can be ordered, despite the absence of Bragg reflections. For example, an organic compound with a domain size of 10 nm corresponding to about $5 \times 5 \times 5$ unit cells with 500 molecules will not cause a single visible peak in the X-ray powder pattern; nevertheless, the molecules have a given conformation and form an ordered arrangement with a defined local structure.

Local structures in crystalline, nanocrystalline and amorphous organic compounds, including pharmaceuticals, agrochemicals, pigments and optoelectronic materials, can be investigated by pair-distribution function (PDF) analysis.

The pair-distribution function (also called the ‘radial distribution function’) represents the probability $G(r)$ of finding two atoms with an interatomic distance r . The PDF is weighted with the scattering power of the two atoms and is summed over all atom–atom pairs. The PDF contains intramolecular as well as intermolecular atom–atom distances. PDF curves are derived by Fourier transformations from carefully measured powder diffractograms. The method itself is explained in Chapter 5.7.

Applications to organic compounds include the following.

- (i) The investigation of local structures and packing motifs in nanocrystalline and amorphous compounds.
- (ii) The identification of polymorphic forms in nanocrystalline and amorphous compounds.
- (iii) The investigation of the actual atomic and molecular arrangements in disordered structures.
- (iv) To determine whether a powder is a co-crystal or a physical mixture of the individual compounds.

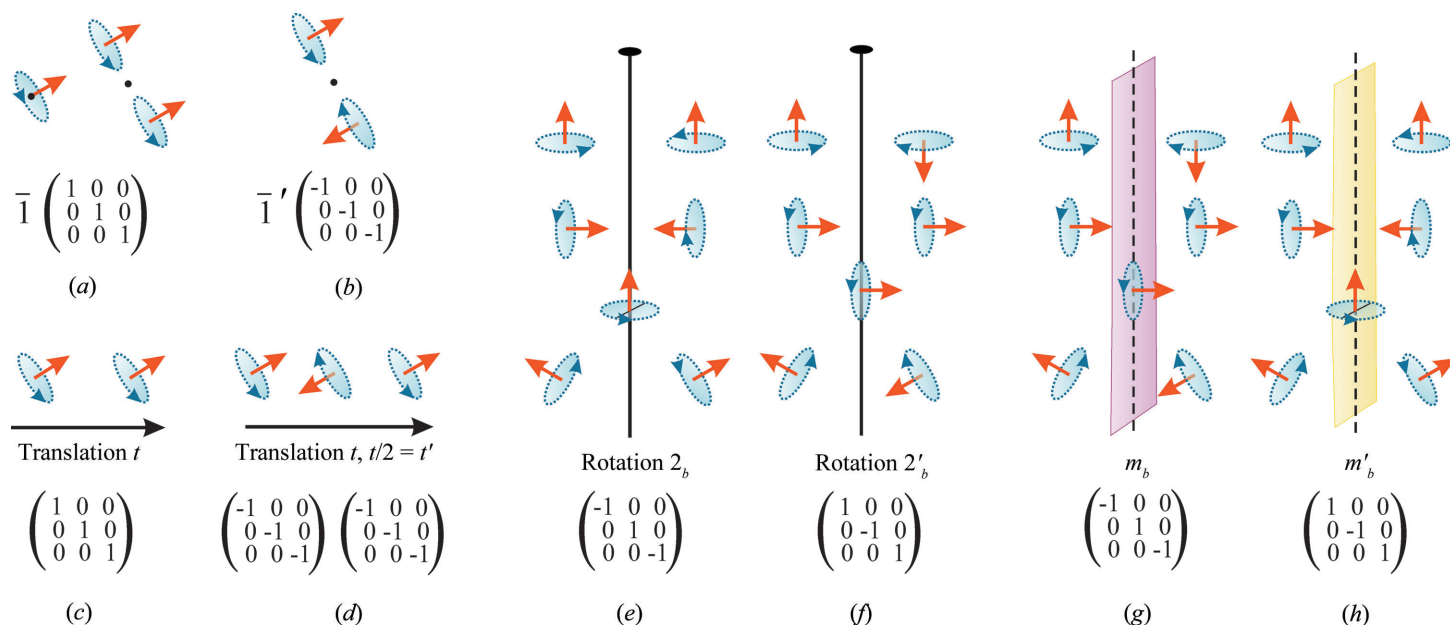
- (v) The detection of crystal seeds in an amorphous powder. The commencement of crystallization is visible in the PDF at an earlier stage than in the powder diagram itself.

PDF analyses are widely used for inorganic compounds, for example glasses, liquids, amorphous or highly disordered materials, quasicrystals *etc.* (Neder & Proffen, 2009; Egami & Billinge, 2012). The application of PDF methods to organic compounds is at present (2018) in its infancy. The generation of a PDF curve from powder diffraction data is possible with programs such as *PDFgetX3* (Juhás *et al.*, 2013). The simulation of PDF curves from a structural model can be achieved, for example with *DISCUS* (Neder & Proffen, 2009), *RMCprofile* (Tucker *et al.*, 2007), *PDFgui* (Farrow *et al.*, 2007), *DiffPy-CMI* (Juhás *et al.*, 2015) or *TOPAS* (Coelho, 2018) (see Fig. 7.10.9). The full fitting of a structural model of an organic crystal structure to a PDF curve using restraints for bond lengths, bond angles and planar groups, such as in a Rietveld refinement, is nowadays becoming possible (Prill *et al.*, 2016).

7.10.2.6.2. Example: nanocrystalline phase of Pigment Yellow 213

Pigment Yellow 213 is an industrial hydrazone pigment used for automotive coatings. The compound exhibits two polymorphs (Fig. 7.10.10). The brown β -phase is obtained directly from the synthesis. Solvent treatment for 3 h at 423 K leads to the desired greenish-yellow α -phase. The crystal structure of the α -phase could be solved by a combination of X-ray powder diffraction, electron diffraction and lattice-energy minimizations (Schmidt, Brühne *et al.*, 2009). The molecules are almost planar and form a layer structure with an interlayer distance of 3.3 Å (Fig. 7.10.11).

The metastable β -phase is a nanocrystalline powder. The structures of both phases were investigated by PDF analyses. Powder patterns were carefully recorded with a short wavelength

**Figure 7.13.18**

Selected magnetic symmetry and antisymmetry elements that Dannay *et al.* (1958) first applied to magnetic symmetry. (a) Inversion $\bar{1}$; (b) anti-inversion $\bar{1}'$; (c) translation t ; (d) anti-translation t' ; (e) rotation 2 ; (f) anti-rotation $2'$; (g) reflection m ; and (h) anti-reflection m' .

ferromagnetic moments have a ferromagnetic component and an antiferromagnetic component.

Collinear antiferromagnetic ordering. An example of collinear antiferromagnetic ordering is shown in Fig. 7.13.16(d). In this case there is only one type of ion (or atom), located in equivalent crystallographic positions and having equal moment amplitudes in an antiparallel orientation.

Canted antiferromagnetic ordering. Fig. 7.13.16(e) shows an example of a canted non-collinear antiferromagnetic order in which the moments tilt in such a way that both the \mathbf{M}_x and \mathbf{M}_y directions have antiparallel components. The magnetic unit cell has parameters that are double those of the nuclear unit cell.

A7.13.1.2. The 36 magnetic lattices and 1651 Shubnikov groups

The types of magnetic lattices are shown in Fig. 7.13.17. They are similar to the familiar crystal lattices in that they represent identical chemical entities, but the associated magnetic moments have the same amplitude and opposite orientation. The first row of the figure shows five types of white lattices: P (primitive), C (C -face centred), A (A -face centred), F (all-face centred) and I (body centred). All the white lattices represent ferromagnetic ordering of the moments. A white-and-black (W&B) lattice can be thought of as containing two lattices of the same type, one of which is termed 'white' and the other 'black'. The origin of the black lattice can be located at the centre of a face or at an edge, or at the body centre of the white lattice. For example, Fig. 7.13.17(e) indicates a white I lattice combined with a black I lattice with origin at $c/2$ of the white lattice, resulting in the W&B lattice I_c of Fig. 7.13.17(c). The W&B lattices are expressed by two-letter symbols in which the symbol (P , C , A , I or F) of the W lattice is followed by a subscript (A , a , C , c , I or s) which indicates the location of the origin of the black lattice. The capital subscript letters A , C and I indicate that the origin of the B lattice is at the A -face centre $(0, b/2, c/2)$, C -face centre $(a/2, b/2, 0)$ and at the body centre $(a/2, b/2, c/2)$ of the white lattice, respectively. The lower-case subscript letters a and c indicate that the origin of the black lattice is at the centre of the a axis ($a/2$) and c axis ($c/2$) of the white lattice, respectively. For example, the lattice P_C is a

combination of a PW lattice with a PB lattice with the origin at the C -face centre $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, 0)$ of the W lattice, while P_c indicates that the origin of the PB lattice is at $c/2$. These types of magnetic lattices, when applied to the seven crystal systems, give a total of 36 magnetic lattices, of which 14 are pure white and 22 are W&B lattices (see Table 7.13.3).

A7.13.1.3. Magnetic symmetry and antisymmetry operations

Magnetic symmetry elements include all the symmetry elements of the nuclear structure plus the corresponding anti-symmetry elements that are produced by adding the time (or current) reversal operation R . Selected typical elements of symmetry and antisymmetry and their symmetry-operation matrices are shown in Fig. 7.13.18. The operation of an element of antisymmetry can be performed as a normal symmetry operation followed by a reversal in direction.

A7.13.1.4. Magnetic reflection conditions for centred lattices

Table 7.13.4 lists the possible neutron magnetic reflection conditions related to the magnetic lattices illustrated in Fig. 7.13.17. The results are obtained by evaluating the neutron magnetic structure factor for $F_{hkl} = 0$ and are confirmed by computations using the program *GSAS* (Larson & Von Dreele, 2004). The conditions for systematic extinctions of magnetic reflections for glide planes and screw axes were reported by Ozerov (1967).

Effects of spin orientation in magnetic structures. Fig. 7.13.3 is a schematic view of the definition of the vectors relevant to the evaluation of the magnetic structure factor. In addition to the magnetic reflection conditions for centred lattices, glides and screws, systematic absences can also be observed when the condition $F_{hkl} = 0$ occurs because the magnetic spin \mathbf{K} is parallel to the scattering vector $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}$ for a class of reflections hkl . In this case, the angle α between the scattering and the magnetization vectors is zero and, consequently, $|q| = \sin \alpha = 0$.

Ambiguous spin orientation. Shirane (1959) showed that ambiguous spin structures can be deduced from NPD data, and concluded that: (i) no information can be obtained about the spin