INTRODUCTION

1.1 X-RAY TECHNOLOGY, A BRIEF HISTORY

X-ray technology has more than a hundred years of history and its discovery and development have revolutionized many areas of modern science and technology [1]. X-rays were discovered by the German physicist Wilhelm Conrad Röntgen in 1895, who was honored with the Noble prize for physics in 1901. In many languages today X-rays are still referred to as Röntgen rays or Röntgen radiation. This mysterious light was found to be invisible to human eyes, but capable of penetrating opaque object and expose photographic films. The density contrast of the object is revealed on the developed film as a radiograph. Since then X-rays have been developed for medical imaging, such as for detection of bony structures and diseases in soft tissues like pneumonia and lung cancer. X-rays have also been used to treat disease. Radiotherapy employs high energy X-rays to generate a curative medical intervention to the cancer tissues. A recent technology, tomotherapy, combines the precision of a computerized tomography scan with the potency of radiation treatment to selectively destroy cancerous tumors while minimizing damage to surrounding tissue. Today, medical diagnoses and treatments are still the most common use of X-ray technology.

The phenomenon of X-ray diffraction by crystals was discovered in 1912 by Max von Laue. The diffraction condition in a simple mathematical form, which is now known as Bragg’s law, was formulated by Lawrence Bragg in the same year. The Nobel Prize in Physics in consecutive two years (1914 and 1915) was awarded to von Laue and the elder and junior Braggs for the discovery and explanation of X-ray diffraction. X-ray diffraction techniques are based on elastic scattered X-rays from matter. Due to the wave nature of X-rays, the scattered X-rays from a sample can interfere with each other, such that the intensity distribution is determined by the wavelength and the incident angle of the X-rays and the atomic arrangement of the sample structure, particularly the long range order of crystalline structures. The expression of the space distribution of the scattered X-rays is referred to as an X-ray diffraction pattern. The atomic level structure
of the material can then be determined by analyzing the diffraction pattern. Over its hundred year history of development, X-ray diffraction techniques have evolved into many specialized areas. Each has its specialized instruments, samples of interest, theory, and practice. Single-crystal X-ray diffraction (SCD) is a technique used to solve the complete structure of crystalline materials, typically in the form of a single crystal. The technique started with simple inorganic solids and grew into complex macromolecules. Protein structures were first determined by X-ray diffraction analysis by Max Perutz and Sir John Cowdery Kendrew in 1958, and both shared the 1962 Nobel Prize in Chemistry. Today, protein crystallography is the dominant application of SCD. X-ray powder diffraction (XRPD), alternatively called powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD), got its name from the technique of collecting X-ray diffraction patterns from packed powder samples. Generally, X-ray powder diffraction involves the characterization of the crystallographic structure, crystallite size, and orientation distribution in polycrystalline samples [2–5].

X-ray diffraction (XRD), by definition, covers single crystal diffraction and powder diffraction as well as many X-ray diffraction techniques. However, it has been accepted as convention that SCD is distinguished from XRD. By this practice, XRD is commonly used to represent various X-ray diffraction applications other than SCD. These applications include phase-identification, texture analysis, stress measurement, percentage crystallinity, particle (grain) size, and thin film analysis. An analogous method to X-ray diffraction is the small angle X-ray scattering (SAXS) technique. SAXS measures scattering intensity at scattering angles within a few degrees from the incident angle. SAXS pattern reveals the material structures, typically particle size and shape, in the nanometer to micrometer range. In contrast to SAXS, other X-ray diffraction techniques are also referred to as wide angle X-ray scattering (WAXS).

1.2 GEOMETRY OF CRYSTALS

Solids can be divided into two categories: amorphous and crystalline. In an amorphous solid, glass for example, atoms are not arranged with long range order. Thus amorphous solids are also referred to as “glassy” solids. In contrast, a crystal is a solid formed by atoms, molecules, or ions stacking in three-dimensional space with a regular and repeating arrangement. The geometry and structure of a crystalline solid determines the X-ray diffraction pattern. Comprehensive knowledge of crystallography has been covered by many books [2, 5–9]. This section gives only some basics to help further discussion on X-ray diffraction.

1.2.1 Crystal Lattice and Symmetry

A crystal structure can be simply expressed by a point lattice, as shown in Figure 1.1(a). The point lattice represents the three-dimensional arrangement of the atoms in the crystal structure. It can be imagined as being comprised of three sets of planes, each set containing parallel crystal planes with equal interplane distance. Each intersection of three planes is called a lattice point and may represent the location of an atom, ion, or molecule in the crystal. A point lattice can be minimally represented by a unit cell, highlighted in bold in the bottom left corner. A complete point lattice can be formed by the translation of the unit cell in three-dimensional space. This feature is also referred to as translation symmetry. The shape and size of a unit cell can be defined by three vectors \( \mathbf{a} \), \( \mathbf{b} \), and \( \mathbf{c} \), all starting from any single lattice point as shown in Figure 1.1(b). The three vectors are called the crystallographic axes of the cell. As each vector can be defined by its length and direction, a unit cell can also be defined by the three lengths of the vectors \( (a, b, \text{ and } c) \) as well as the angles between them \( (\alpha, \beta, \text{ and } \gamma) \). The six parameters \( (a, b, c, \alpha, \beta, \text{ and } \gamma) \) are referred to as the lattice constants or lattice parameters of the unit cell.
One important feature of crystals is their symmetry. In addition to the translation symmetry in point lattices, there are also four basic point symmetries: reflection, rotation, inversion, and rotation-inversion. Figure 1.2 shows all four basic point symmetries on a cubic unit cell. The reflection plane is like a mirror. The reflection plane divides the crystal into two sides. Each side of the crystal matches the mirrored position of the other side. The cubic structure has several reflection planes. The rotation axes include 2-, 3-, 4-, and 6-fold axes. A rotation of a crystal about an n-fold axis by $360^\circ/n$ will bring it into self-coincidence. A cubic unit cell has several 2-, 3-, and 4-fold axes. The inversion center is like a pinhole camera, the crystal will maintain self-coincidence if every point of the crystal is inverted through the inversion center. Any straight
The various relationships among the six lattice parameters \( (a, b, c, \alpha, \beta, \gamma) \) result in various crystal systems. The simplest crystal system is cubic system in which all three crystallographic vectors are equal in length and perpendicular to each other \( (a = b = c) \) and \( \alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ \). Seven crystal systems are sufficient to cover all possible point lattices. The French crystallographer Bravais found that there are a total of 14 possible point lattices. Seven point lattices are given by the seven crystal systems for the case that only one lattice point is in each unit cell and that the lattice point is located in the corner of the unit cell. These seven types of unit cells are called primitive cells and labeled by \( P \) or \( R \). By adding one or more lattice points within a unit cell one can create non-primitive cells depending on the location of the additional lattice points. The location of a lattice point in the unit cell can be specified by fractional coordinates within a unit cell \( (u, v, w) \). For example, the lattice point in a primitive cell is \((0, 0, 0)\). Therefore, we can define three types of non-primitive cells. The label \( I \) represents the body centered point lattice, which has one additional lattice point at the center of the unit cell, or can be defined by the fraction \( (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}) \). The label \( F \) represents the face centered point lattice with additional lattice points at the center of unit cell face, or \( (0, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}), (\frac{1}{2}, 0, \frac{1}{2}), \) and \( (\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, 0) \). The label \( C \) represents the base centered point lattice with an additional lattice point at the center of the base face \((\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, 0)\). All seven crystal systems and 14 Bravais lattices are summarized in Table 1.1. The unit cells of the 14 Bravais lattices are shown in Figure 1.3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The seven crystal systems</th>
<th>Unit cell</th>
<th>Minimum symmetry</th>
<th>Bravais lattices</th>
<th>Lattice symbol</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cubic</td>
<td>( a = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ ) ( a = b = c )</td>
<td>Four 3-fold rotation axes at 109° 23′ to each other</td>
<td>Simple</td>
<td>( P )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tetragonal</td>
<td>( a = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ ) ( a = b \neq c )</td>
<td>One 4-fold rotation axis or one 4-fold rotation-inversion axis</td>
<td>Simple</td>
<td>( P )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hexagonal</td>
<td>( a = \beta = 90^\circ ) ( \gamma = 120^\circ ) ( a = b \neq c )</td>
<td>One 6-fold rotation axis or one 6-fold rotation-inversion axis</td>
<td>Simple</td>
<td>( P )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhombohedral (Trigonal)</td>
<td>( a = \beta = \gamma \neq 90^\circ ) ( a = b = c )</td>
<td>One 3-fold rotation axis</td>
<td>Simple</td>
<td>( R )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orthorhombic</td>
<td>( a = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ ) ( a \neq b \neq c )</td>
<td>Any combination of three mutually perpendicular 2-fold rotation axes or planes of symmetry</td>
<td>Simple</td>
<td>( P )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monoclinic</td>
<td>( a = \gamma = 90^\circ ) ( \beta \neq 90^\circ ) ( a \neq b \neq c )</td>
<td>One 2-fold rotation axis or one 2-fold rotation-inversion axis</td>
<td>Simple</td>
<td>( P )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Triclinic</td>
<td>( a \neq \beta \neq \gamma \neq 90^\circ ) ( a \neq b \neq c )</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>Simple</td>
<td>( P )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
FIGURE 1.3 Unit cells of the 14 Bravais lattices.
1.2.2 Lattice Directions and Planes

The direction of any line in a crystal lattice can be specified by drawing a line starting from the unit cell origin parallel to the given line and then taking the coordinates \((u', v', w')\) of any point on the line. The coordinates \((u', v', w')\) are not necessarily integers. However, by conventional, \((u', v', w')\) are multiplied by the smallest number that produces integers \(u, v, w\). The crystal direction is described by putting the three integers in square brackets as \([uvw]\). The \([uvw]\) are the indices of a specific crystal direction, and each of the indices can take the value of a positive or negative integer. All directions in a crystal that are symmetry equivalent to \([uvw]\) are represented by a notation with the integers in angular brackets as <uvw>. For example, in a cubic crystal all diagonals of the unit cell are symmetry equivalent. So all the directions \([111], [\overline{1}11], [11\overline{1}], [\overline{1}11], [1\overline{1}1], [\overline{1}\overline{1}\overline{1}]\), and \([\overline{1}\overline{1}\overline{1}]\) can be represented by <111>. The bar over the number is for negative indices. Figure 1.4(a) shows some lattice directions and their indices in a unit cell.

The orientation of lattice planes can be described by using a set of three integers referred to as Miller indices. Miller indices are the reciprocal intercepts of the plane on the unit cell axes. If the crystal plane makes fractional intercepts of \(1/h, 1/k, 1/l\) with the three crystal axes respectively, the Miller indices are \((hkl)\). If the plane runs parallel to an axis, the intercept is at \(\infty\), so the Miller index is 0. Miller indices describe the orientation and spacing of a family of planes. Figure 1.4(b) shows some lattice planes and their Miller indices in a unit cell. The spacing between adjacent planes in a family is referred to as the “d-spacing”. The symbol \{hkl\} refers to all planes that are symmetry equivalent to \((hkl)\). This group of equivalent planes is referred to as planes of a form. For the cubic system all the planes \((100), (010), (001), (100), (010),\) and \((001)\) belong to the form \{100\}. For a tetragonal crystal, \(a = b \neq c\), only the first two indices imply the same interception distance on the crystal axes, so the form \{100\} would only include \((100), (010), (1\overline{1}0),\) and \((0\overline{1}0)\).

Figure 1.5(a) shows the hexagonal unit cell and indices of some directions. It follows the same definition as other lattice types. However, lattice planes are often described by a different system of plane indexing, called Miller–Bravais indices. In hexagonal unit cells it is common to use four axis coordinates, \(a_1, a_2, a_3,\) and \(c\), in which \(a_1, a_2, a_3\) are lying in the basal plane and \(c\) is perpendicular to all three axes. The indices of a plane in the hexagonal system are written as \((hkil)\). Figure 1.5(b) shows some lattice planes in a hexagonal lattice described by Miller–Bravais indices. Since \(a_1, a_2, a_3\) are symmetry equivalent and \(120^\circ\) apart each other, there are only two
independent axes among them. So that the first three values in the Miller–Bravais indices maintain the relation

$$h + k + l = 0 \quad (1.1)$$

Since all cyclic permutations of $h$, $k$, and $i$ are symmetry equivalent, $(10\bar{1}0)$, $(\bar{1}100)$, $(0\bar{1}10)$ are equivalent.

A zone is defined as a set of non-parallel planes that are all parallel to one axis. This axis is called the zone axis. Miller indices for all planes in a zone obey the relationship

$$hu + kv + lv = 0 \quad (1.2)$$

where $[uvw]$ defines the zone axis and $(hkl)$ are the Miller indices of each plane in the zone. Figure 1.6 shows some of the crystal planes in the cubic lattice that belong to the [001] zone.

The distance between two adjacent planes with the same indices is called the interplanar spacing or d-spacing, which is an important parameter in Bragg’s law. The interplanar spacing $d_{hkl}$ is a function of both the plane indices $(hkl)$ and the lattice parameters $(a, b, c, \alpha, \beta, \gamma)$. The equations of d-spacings for all seven crystal systems are listed in Table 1.2. More equations on the unit cell volume and interplanar angles can be found in appendix 3 of ref. [2].

### 1.2.3 Atomic Arrangement in Crystal Structures

Actual crystal structures can be described by the Bravais lattice filled with the same or different kind of atoms. The atoms take either the exact lattice points and/or points with fixed offset to the lattice points. The three most common crystal structures of metals are body-centered cubic (BCC), face-centered cubic (FCC), and hexagonal close-packed (HCP) structures, as shown in Figure 1.7. BCC has two atoms per unit cell located at the coordinates 0 0 0 and $\frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{2}$ respectively. Many metals, such as α-iron, niobium, chromium, vanadium, and tungsten have BCC structure. FCC has four atoms per unit cell at the coordinates 0 0 0, 0 $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$ 0 $\frac{1}{2}$, and $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ 0 respectively. Metals with FCC structure include γ-iron, aluminum, copper, silver, nickel, and gold. HCP contains three
FIGURE 1.6 All shaded crystal planes belong to the [001] zone in the cubic lattice.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Crystal system</th>
<th>Equations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cubic</td>
<td>( \frac{1}{d_{hkl}^2} = \frac{h^2 + k^2 + l^2}{a^2} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tetragonal</td>
<td>( \frac{1}{d_{hkl}^2} = \frac{h^2 + k^2}{a^2} + \frac{l^2}{c^2} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hexagonal</td>
<td>( \frac{1}{d_{hkl}^2} = \frac{4}{3} \left( \frac{h^2 + hk + k^2}{a^2} \right) + \frac{l^2}{c^2} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhombohedral (Trigonal)</td>
<td>( \frac{1}{d_{hkl}^2} = \frac{(h^2 + k^2 + l^2)\sin^2\alpha + 2(hk + kl + hl)(\cos^2\alpha - \cos\alpha)}{a^2(1 - 3\cos^2\alpha + 2\cos^3\alpha)} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orthorhombic</td>
<td>( \frac{1}{d_{hkl}^2} = \frac{h^2}{a^2} + \frac{k^2}{b^2} + \frac{l^2}{c^2} )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monoclinic</td>
<td>( \frac{1}{d_{hkl}^2} = \frac{1}{\sin^2\beta} \left( \frac{h^2}{a^2} + \frac{k^2\sin^2\beta}{b^2} + \frac{l^2}{c^2} - \frac{2hl\cos\beta}{ac} \right) )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Triclinic</td>
<td>( \frac{1}{d_{hkl}^2} = (1 - \cos^2\alpha - \cos^2\beta - \cos^2\gamma + 2\cos\alpha\cos\beta\cos\gamma)^{-1} )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\[
= \left( \frac{h^2}{a^2} \sin^2\alpha + \frac{k^2}{b^2} \sin^2\beta + \frac{l^2}{c^2} \sin^2\gamma + \frac{2kl}{bc} (\cos\beta\cos\gamma - \cos\alpha) + \frac{2lh}{ca} (\cos\gamma\cos\alpha - \cos\beta) + \frac{2hk}{ab} (\cos\alpha\cos\beta - \cos\gamma) \right)^{-1}
\]
INTRODUCTION

FIGURE 1.7 Atomic arrangements in three common crystal structures of metals.

equivalent hexagonal unit cells, each has two atoms at the coordinates 0 0 0 and \( \frac{a}{2} \frac{a}{2} \frac{a}{2} \) (or at equivalent position \( \frac{a}{3} \frac{a}{3} \frac{a}{3} \)). Metals with HCP structure include beryllium, magnesium, zinc and \( \alpha \)-titanium. Both FCC and HCP are close-packed arrangements. Both FCC (111) plane and HCP (0002) have the same atomic arrangement within the plane, but have different stacking sequences.

Structures of crystals formed by unlike atoms are built by a Bravais lattice with certain conditions. One is that the translation of a Bravais lattice must begin and end on the atoms of the same kind. The other is that the space arrangement of each kind of atom poses the same symmetry elements as the whole crystal. The structure of NaCl (rock salt) is shown in Figure 1.8. The unit cell of NaCl contains eight ions, located at the following coordinates:

- four Na\(^+\) ions at 0 0 0, \( \frac{a}{2} \frac{a}{2} 0 \), \( \frac{a}{2} 0 \frac{a}{2} \), and 0 \( \frac{a}{2} \frac{a}{2} \),
- four Cl\(^-\) ions at \( \frac{a}{2} \frac{a}{2} \frac{a}{2} \), 0 0 \( \frac{a}{2} \), \( \frac{a}{2} 0 \frac{a}{2} \), and \( \frac{a}{2} 0 0 \).

It can be seen that Na\(^+\) ions formed a FCC structure and 4 Cl\(^-\) ions form an FCC with \( \frac{a}{2} \frac{a}{2} \frac{a}{2} \) translation from the Na\(^+\) “lattice”. Therefore, the Bravais lattice of NaCl crystal is face-centered cubic.

FIGURE 1.8 The structure of NaCl. Na\(^+\) is FCC and Cl\(^-\) is FCC with \( \frac{a}{2} \frac{a}{2} \frac{a}{2} \) translation.
1.2.4 Imperfections in Crystal Structure

Thus far we have assumed that crystals have a very regular atomic arrangement following the crystal structure. However, most crystalline materials are not perfect. The regular pattern of atomic arrangement may be interrupted by crystal defects. There are various types of crystal defects, such as point defects, line defects, planar defects, and bulk defects.

Point defects are defects that involve randomly distributed extra or missing atoms. There is no strict definition of the size of a point defect, but generally a point defect is not extended in space in any dimension, but within a region of one or a few atoms. Vacancies are sites that should be occupied by an atom in a perfect crystal but that are unoccupied. Interstitials are extra atoms inserted between the normal atomic sites. Typically interstitials are significantly smaller atoms compared to the matrix atoms in the crystal, for example, hydrogen, carbon, boron, or nitrogen atoms in metal crystals. Crystals with interstitials are also referred to as interstitial solid solutions. A substitutional solid solution contains another type of point defects – substitutional defects. In a substitutional solid solution of B in A, B atoms replace the sites normally occupied by A atoms. In a typical substitutional solution, B atoms are randomly distributed in the crystal. Under certain conditions, B atoms may replace A atoms in a regular pattern, called long range order. The solution is then called ordered or superlattice structure. Point defects may change the lattice parameters in proportion to the concentration of the defects. Point defects play an important role in semiconductors.

Line defects are defects that extend in one dimension within a region of one or a few atoms in the other two dimensions. Crystal dislocations are line defects. There are two basic types of dislocations, the edge dislocation and the screw dislocation. An edge dislocation is caused by the termination of a plane of atoms in the middle of a crystal, or it can be thought of as the result of adding or subtracting a half crystal plane between two adjacent full crystal planes. A screw dislocation is a line defect along which the atom arrangement is distorted like a screw thread, or it can be thought of as the result of cutting partway through the crystal and displacing it parallel to the edge of the cut. Dislocations can dramatically reduce the energy barrier to shearing a crystal along a crystal plane, so that the density of dislocations in a crystal can change the resistance of the crystal to plastic deformation.

Plane defects are crystal defects that extend in two dimensions and within a region of one or a few atoms in the third dimension. Grain boundaries are interfaces between contacting crystals that have different orientations. Depending on the degree of misorientation between the two contacting crystals, grain boundaries are categorized as low angle grain boundaries and high angle grain boundaries. The difference between low angle grain boundary misorientation and high angle grain boundary misorientation varies in the range of 10–15° depending on the material. The structure and property of low angle grain boundaries have a strong dependence on the misorientation angle, while high angle grain boundaries are not dependent on the misorientation. Antiphase boundaries are another type of plane defect existing in ordered alloys. The crystals on both sides of the boundary have the same structure and orientation with the interruption of the order by removing or adding a layer of atoms. For example, if the ordering is in the sequence of ABABABABAB an antiphase boundary takes the form of ABABBABA or BABAABABA. Stacking faults are another type of plane defect. Stacking faults commonly occur in close-packed structures. The \{111\} planes of FCC and the \{0002\} planes of HCP have the same close-packed atomic planes with six-fold symmetry. Any two adjacent close-packed crystal planes in FCC and HCP are stacked in an identical sequence and labeled as AB. Each atom in the B plane is directly on top of the center of triangles formed by three atoms in A plane. In an HCP structure, the atomic location in the third plane is directly above those of the first plane, so the stacking sequence continues as ABABABABAB. In an FCC structure, the atoms in the third layer fall on a location not
directly above either A or B, but at a third location C. The atoms in the fourth plane are directly above those of the A plane, so the sequence continues as ABCABCABC. A stacking fault is a one or two plane deviation from the above perfect sequence. For example, ABCABCABCABC in FCC is a stacking fault and ABABABCABAB in HCP is a stacking fault. All plane defects disrupt the motion of dislocations through a material; so introducing the plane defects can change the mechanical properties of a material.

Bulk defects, also known as volume defects, are either clusters of the above defects or small regions of a different phase. The latter are often called precipitates. Bulk defects are obstacles to dislocation motion, so they are one of the mechanisms for strengthening materials. A crystal may contain many small regions or blocks with identical lattice structure, but separated by faults and dislocation clusters, as shown in Figure 1.9. The adjacent blocks are slightly disoriented so that the perfect crystal lattice extends only within each block. This kind of structure is referred to as a mosaic structure. The extent of the mosaic structure is also described as mosaicity. To say that a crystal has low mosaicity means that it has larger perfect crystal blocks or smaller misorientation between blocks.

1.3 PRINCIPLES OF X-RAY DIFFRACTION

X-rays are electromagnetic radiation with a wavelength in the range of 0.01 to 100 angstroms (Å). X-rays belong to a portion of the electromagnetic spectrum overlapping with gamma rays in the shorter wavelengths and with ultraviolet in the longer wavelengths. The wavelength of typical X-rays used in X-ray diffraction is in the region of 1 Å, which is comparable to the range of interatomic spacing in crystals. When a monochromatic X-ray beam hits a sample, in addition to absorption and other phenomena, it generates scattered X-rays with the same wavelength as the incident beam. This type of scattering is also known as elastic scatter or coherent scattering. The scattered X-rays from a sample are not evenly distributed in space, but are a function of the electron distribution in the sample. The atomic arrangement in the sample can be ordered as with a single crystal or disordered for glass or liquid. As such, the intensities and spatial distributions of the scattered X-rays form a specific diffraction pattern that is uniquely determined by the structure of the sample.
There are many theories and equations about the relationship between the diffraction pattern and the material structure. Bragg’s law is a simple way to describe the diffraction of X-rays by a crystal. In Figure 1.10(a), the incident X-rays hit the crystal planes with an incident angle $\theta$ and reflection angle $\theta$. The diffraction peak is observed when the Bragg condition is satisfied:

$$n\lambda = 2d \sin \theta$$  \hspace{1cm} (1.3)

where $\lambda$ is the wavelength, $d$ is the distance between each adjacent crystal planes (d-spacing), $\theta$ is the Bragg angle at which one observes a diffraction peak, and $n$ is an integer, called the order of reflection. That means that the Bragg condition with the same d-spacing and $2\theta$ angle can be satisfied by various X-ray wavelengths (energies). Or for the same wavelength and d-spacing, the Bragg condition may be satisfied by several $2\theta$ angles. In X-ray diffraction using a single wavelength, the Bragg equation is typically expressed with $n = 1$ for the first order of diffraction because the higher order reflections can be considered as being from different lattice planes. For instance, the second order reflection from ($hkl$) planes is equivalent to the first order reflection from ($2h, 2k, 2l$) planes. The diffraction peak is displayed as diffracted intensities at a range of $2\theta$ angles. For perfect crystals with perfect instrumentation, the peak is a delta functions (the black straight vertical line) as shown in Figure 1.10(b). The intensity is denoted by $I$.

The delta function is an oversimplified model, which requires a perfect crystal without mosaic structure and a perfectly collimated monochromatic X-ray beam. A typical diffraction peak is a broadened peak displayed by the blue curved line in Figure 1.10(b). The peak broadening can be due to many different effects, including imperfect crystal conditions, such as strain, mosaic structure, and finite size; ambient conditions, such as atomic thermal vibration; and instrumental conditions, such as X-ray beam size, beam divergence, beam spectrum distribution, and detector resolution. The curved line gives a peak profile which is the diffracted intensity distribution in the vicinity of the Bragg angle. The highest point on the curve gives the maximum intensity of the peak, $I_{\text{max}}$. The width of a peak is typically measured by its full width at half maximum (FWHM). The total diffracted energy of a diffracted beam for a peak can be measured by the area under the curve, which is referred to as integrated intensity. The integrated intensity is a more consistent value for measuring the diffracted intensity of a reflection since it is less affected by all the peak broadening factors. Causes of peak broadening, while increasing FWHM, typically also reduce...
the maximum intensity at the same time. Therefore, overall variation of the integrated intensity is less significant compared to the variations of FWHM and $I_{\text{max}}$.

1.3.2 Diffraction Patterns

This diffraction condition is based on the existence of the long periodicity of crystalline materials. In general, X-ray diffraction can provide information on the atomic arrangement in materials with long range order, short range order, or no order at all, like gases, liquids, and amorphous solids. A material may have one of the above atomic arrangement types, or a mixture of the above types. Figure 1.11 gives a schematic comparison of diffraction patterns for crystalline solids, liquid, amorphous solids, and monatomic gases as well as their mixtures. The diffraction pattern from crystals has many sharp peaks corresponding to various crystal planes based on Bragg’s law. The peaks at low $2\theta$ angles are from crystal planes of large d-spacing and vice versa at high $2\theta$ angles. In order to satisfy the Bragg condition at all crystal planes, the crystal diffraction pattern is actually generated from polycrystalline materials or powder materials. Therefore, the diffraction pattern is also called the powder diffraction pattern. A similar diffraction pattern can be collected with a single crystal if the crystal has been rotated at various angles during data collection so that Bragg’s law can be satisfied when the crystal is at the right orientation. The technique has been used in the Gandolfi camera in which the crystal is rotated above an axis tilted 45° from the camera axis. The powder-like pattern generated by rotating a single crystal sample with other types of diffractometers is also referred as a Gandolfi pattern.

Both amorphous solid and liquid materials do not have the long range order as a crystal does, but the atomic distance has a narrow distribution due to the atoms being tightly packed. In this case, the intensity of the scattered X-rays forms one or two maxima with a very broad distribution in the $2\theta$ range. The intensity vs. $2\theta$ distribution reflects the distribution of the atomic distances. In principle, a pattern like this should be called a scattering pattern since there is no diffraction as we have defined earlier, but we may call it a diffraction pattern for convenience. A monatomic gas has no order at all. The atoms are distributed randomly in space. The scattering curve shows no features at all except that the scattered intensity drops continuously with the increase of the $2\theta$ angle. The scattering curve for air or gas shows a similar feature although the molecules have a preferred distance between atoms within each molecule. The diffraction pattern from a material containing both amorphous and crystalline solids has a broad background from the amorphous phase and sharp peaks from crystalline phase. For example, many polymer materials have an amorphous matrix with crystallized regions. The diffraction pattern may contain air-scattering background in addition to sharp diffraction peaks. The air-scattering can be generated from the incident beam or diffracted beam. If the air-scattering is not removed by the diffractometer, the diffraction pattern contains a high background at low $2\theta$ angle and the background gradually decreases with increasing $2\theta$ angle.

1.4 RECIPROCAL SPACE AND DIFFRACTION

Bragg’s law gives a simple relationship between the diffraction pattern and the crystal structure. Many X-ray diffraction applications can be easily explained by Bragg’s law. X-ray diffraction phenomena can also be explained in reciprocal space by the reciprocal lattice and the Ewald sphere. X-ray diffraction analysis with concepts in reciprocal space is a powerful way of understanding and solving many diffraction problems [2–5].
1.4.1 Reciprocal Lattice

The reciprocal lattice is a transformation of the crystal lattice in real space to reciprocal space. The shape and size of a unit cell in real space can be defined by three vectors \( \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}, \) and \( \mathbf{c} \), all starting from any single lattice point. The unit cell of the corresponding reciprocal lattice is then give by three vectors \( \mathbf{a}^*, \mathbf{b}^*, \) and \( \mathbf{c}^* \) (also referred to as reciprocal lattice axes,
and

\[ a^* = \frac{1}{V}(b \times c), \]
\[ b^* = \frac{1}{V}(c \times a), \]
\[ c^* = \frac{1}{V}(a \times b) \tag{1.4} \]

where \( V \) is the volume of the crystal unit cell in the real space and

\[ V = a \cdot b \times c \tag{1.5} \]

Since each reciprocal lattice axis is the vector product of two lattice axes in real space, it is perpendicular to the planes defined by the two lattice axes. The original lattice axes and reciprocal lattice axes maintain the following relations:

\[ a \cdot a^* = b \cdot b^* = c \cdot c^* = 1 \tag{1.6} \]

and

\[ b \cdot a^* = c \cdot a^* = a \cdot b^* = c \cdot b^* = b \cdot c^* = a \cdot c^* = 0 \tag{1.7} \]

Figure 1.12 illustrates the relationship between the original lattice in real space and reciprocal lattice. The unit cell of the original lattice is drawn as green lines. The three reciprocal lattice axes define a unit cell of the reciprocal lattice (blue lines). The origin of the reciprocal lattice axes, denoted by \( O \), is the origin of the reciprocal lattice. The repeat translation of the reciprocal

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**FIGURE 1.12** Relationship between the original crystal lattice in real space and reciprocal lattice.
lattice unit cell in three dimensions forms the complete reciprocal lattice. Except for the origin, each lattice point is denoted by a set of three integers \((hkl)\), which are the number of translations of the three reciprocal lattice axes respectively to reach the lattice point. In other words, the vector drawn from the origin to the lattice point \((hkl)\) is given by

\[
H_{hkl} = ha^* + kb^* + lc^*
\]  

(1.8)

and the direction of the vector \(H_{hkl}\) is normal to the lattice planes \((hkl)\) in real space. The magnitude of the vector \(H_{hkl}\) is given by the \(d\)-spacing of the \((hkl)\) planes by

\[
|H_{hkl}| = \frac{1}{d_{hkl}}
\]

(1.9)

Therefore, each point \((hkl)\) in the reciprocal lattice represents a set of lattice planes \((hkl)\) in the real space lattice. The position of the point in the reciprocal lattice defines the orientation and \(d\)-spacing of the lattice planes in the real space lattice. The further away a reciprocal lattice point is from the origin, the smaller is the \(d\)-spacing of the corresponding lattice planes. For example, the reciprocal lattice point (111) represents the (111) lattice planes in the real space lattice, and the lattice vector is given by

\[
H_{111} = a^* + b^* + c^*
\]

and

\[
d_{111} = \frac{1}{|H_{111}|} = \frac{1}{|a^* + b^* + c^*|}
\]

1.4.2 The Ewald Sphere

The relationship between the Bragg condition and the reciprocal lattice can be explained visually by the Ewald sphere, also referred to as the reflection sphere. Ewald came up with a geometrical construction to help visualize which Bragg planes are in the correct orientation to diffract. In Figure 1.13, the diffracting crystal is located in the center of the Ewald sphere, C. The radius of

![Ewald sphere and Bragg condition in reciprocal space.](image)

FIGURE 1.13 Ewald sphere and Bragg condition in reciprocal space.
the Ewald sphere is defined as $1/\lambda$. The incident beam can be visualized as the vector from I to C, and the diffracted beam is the vector from C to P. Both the incident beam and the diffracted beam are at an angle $\theta$ from a set of crystal planes ($hkl$). The d-spacing of the crystal planes is $d_{hkl}$. In Ewald sphere, both the incident beam vector $s_0/\lambda$ and the diffracted beam vector $s/\lambda$ start at the point C and end at points O and P respectively. The vector from O to P is the reciprocal lattice vector $H_{hkl}$ and is perpendicular to the crystal planes. The three vectors have the relationship

$$\frac{s - s_0}{\lambda} = H_{hkl} = ha^* + kb^* + lc^*$$  \hspace{1cm} (1.10)

and the magnitude of the vectors has the relationship based on Bragg’s law:

$$\left|\frac{s - s_0}{\lambda}\right| = \frac{2\sin \theta}{\lambda} = |H_{hkl}| = \frac{1}{d_{hkl}}$$  \hspace{1cm} (1.11)

The point O is the origin of the reciprocal lattice and the point P is the reciprocal point ($hkl$). The Bragg condition is satisfied only when the reciprocal lattice point falls on the Ewald sphere. For a single crystal, the chance of having a reciprocal lattice point on the Ewald sphere is very small if the crystal orientation is fixed. Multiplying both ends of equation (1.10) by the three lattice axes in real space respectively, we obtain the Laue equations

$$a \cdot (s - s_0) = h\lambda$$
$$b \cdot (s - s_0) = k\lambda$$
$$c \cdot (s - s_0) = l\lambda$$  \hspace{1cm} (1.12)

The Laue equations establish that a periodic three-dimensional lattice produces diffraction maxima at specific angles depending on the incident beam direction and the wavelength. The Laue equations are suitable to describe the diffraction geometry of a single crystal. Bragg’s law is more conveniently used for powder diffraction. Both the Laue equations and Bragg’s law define the diffraction condition in different formats.

The distance between the origin of the reciprocal lattice (O) and the lattice point (P) is reciprocal to the d-spacing. The largest possible magnitude of the reciprocal lattice vector is given by $2/\lambda$. This means that the smallest d-spacing satisfying the Bragg condition is $\lambda/2$. In powder X-ray diffraction, the random orientation of all crystallites can take all possible orientations assuming an infinite number of crystallites in diffraction. The trace of the reciprocal lattice points from all crystallites can be considered as a series of spherical surfaces with the origin O as the center. Therefore, the condition for satisfying Bragg’s law is only if the d-spacing is greater than half of the wavelength. In other words, the Bragg condition can be satisfied if a reciprocal lattice point falls in a sphere of $2/\lambda$ from the origin O. This sphere is called the limiting sphere for powder diffraction. Figure 1.14 illustrates the limiting sphere for powder diffraction in a two-dimensional cut through the origin. Only two of the three reciprocal lattice vectors $a^*$ and $b^*$ are shown in the 2D illustration. All the reciprocal lattice points within the limiting sphere are denoted by blue dots. For powder samples, all the reciprocal lattice points having the same distance from the origin form a sphere shown by a circle with a blue line. For example, the reciprocal lattice point $P(hkl)$ would not fall on the Ewald sphere for a single crystal with fixed orientation. But for powder samples, the equivalent reciprocal lattice point from some crystallites would fall on the Ewald
FIGURE 1.14 Limiting sphere for the powder diffraction.

sphere at point $P'$. The same explanation can also be given for a rotating single crystal. In this case, the reciprocal lattice point $P(hkl)$ can cross with the Ewald sphere by a proper rotation. The Gandolfi camera works on this principle.

There is another set of vectors, usually in physics and related fields, which are used to describe the above diffraction condition with the following relations:

$$Q = k - k_0$$  \hspace{1cm} (1.13)

and

$$|k - k_0| = \frac{4\pi \sin \theta}{\lambda} = |Q| = \frac{2\pi}{d_{hkl}}$$  \hspace{1cm} (1.14)

where, $k$ and $k_0$ are called the wave vectors for the incident and diffracted beams, and both have a magnitude of $2\pi/\lambda$. The scattering vector $Q$ has a similar physical meaning of $H_{hkl}$, except with a factor of $2\pi$ in magnitudes. Overall, we have the following relations between the two sets of vectors:

$$k_0 = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} s_0, \quad k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} s, \quad \text{and} \quad Q = 2\pi \cdot H$$  \hspace{1cm} (1.15)

in which, $s$ and $s_0$ can be considered as the unit vectors of $k$ and $k_0$ respectively. $H$ is a general expression of the diffraction vector by removing the indices $(hkl)$ from the subscript. For consistency, the vector set $s, s_0, and H$ will be used in the following chapters except when the vector set $k, k_0, and Q$ are specified.

1.4.3 Diffraction Cone and Diffraction Vector Cone

In powder diffraction, for a fixed incident X-ray vector $s_0/\lambda$, the diffracted beam vector $s/\lambda$ takes all directions at a $2\theta$ angle from the incident beam direction, as shown in Figure 1.15. The end of the $s/\lambda$ vector forms a circle on the Ewald sphere passing through the reciprocal lattice point $P(hkl), P'(hkl)$ and all equivalent reciprocal lattice points. The diffracted beams form a cone with
INTRODUCTION

1.5 TWO-DIMENSIONAL X-RAY DIFFRACTION

1.5.1 Diffraction Pattern Measured by Area Detector

The diffraction patterns shown in Figure 1.11 are displayed as diffracted intensity vs. 2θ angle assuming that the diffracted intensity is a unique function of diffraction angle. The actual diffraction pattern is distributed in the 3D space around the diffracting sample. Figure 1.16 illustrates the diffraction patterns from a single crystal and from polycrystalline samples. The diffracted beams from a single crystal point to discrete directions each correspond to a family of diffracting planes, as shown in Figure 1.16(a). Each diffracted beam is a direct reflection of the incident X-ray beam based on Bragg’s law. The diffracted beams are intercepted by an area detector and the X-ray intensity distribution on the sensing area is converted to an image-like diffraction pattern, also referred to as a frame. The region representing each diffracted beam in the frame is called a diffraction spot. Figure 1.16(b) is a diffraction frame from a single crystal of the sweet
FIGURE 1.16 Patterns of diffracted X-rays: (a) from a single crystal, (b) diffraction frame from single crystal of protein thaumatin, (c) diffraction cones from a polycrystalline sample. (d) diffraction frame from corundum powder.

protein thaumatin. Due to the large and complex unit cell of this protein crystal, there are many diffraction spots in the frame. Today, in the area of single crystal diffraction, two-dimensional detectors are required to collect enough diffraction data to solve the structure of a complex crystal. Single crystal X-ray diffraction (SCD) has been covered by much literature [9–10]. This book will mainly cover diffraction from polycrystalline materials or other non-single crystal materials in the following chapters.

Polycrystalline materials consist of many crystalline domains, ranging from a few to more than a million in the incident beam. In single-phase polycrystalline materials, all these domains have the same crystal structure but various orientations. Polycrystalline materials can also be multiphase materials with more than one kind of crystal structure blended together. Polycrystalline materials can also be mixed or bonded to different materials such as thin films or coatings on single-crystal substrates. The crystalline domains can be embedded in an amorphous matrix. Most often, the sample undergoing X-ray analysis is not a randomly oriented polycrystalline material, but a combination of polycrystalline, amorphous, and single crystal contents, polycrystalline with preferred orientation or deformed due to residual stresses. The diffracted beams from
INTRODUCTION

A polycrystalline (powder) sample forms a series of diffraction cones in 3D space since large numbers of crystals oriented randomly in the space are covered by the incident X-ray beam, as shown in Figure 1.16(c). Each diffraction cone corresponds to the diffraction from the same family of crystalline planes in all the participating grains. The diffraction frame from a polycrystalline sample is a cross-section of the detecting surface and the diffraction cones. Figure 1.16(d) is a diffraction frame collected from corundum powder by an area detector with flat detecting surface. The diffraction pattern collected with an area detector is typically given as a two-dimensional image frame, so the X-ray diffraction with an area detector is called two-dimensional X-ray diffraction [11]. In this book and a lot of literature, XRD² or 2D-XRD may be used alternatively as an abbreviation for two-dimensional X-ray diffraction.

1.5.2 Materials Characterization with 2D Diffraction Pattern

A 2D diffraction pattern can be considered as the intensity distribution of the scattered X-rays as a function of $\gamma$ and $2\theta$ angles. Figure 1.17(a) shows such a 2D pattern collected from corundum powder with a flat 2D detector. It contains several diffraction rings with various Bragg angles, denoted by $2\theta$. The diffraction ring closest to the trajectory of the incident beam has the smallest $2\theta$ value. The angle along each diffraction ring can be described by $\gamma$, which defines the dimension orthogonal to the $2\theta$ direction. In order to explain the basic concept of materials characterization with 2D diffraction patterns, the frame can be converted to an image with rectangular $\gamma$-$2\theta$ coordinates, as shown in Figure 1.17(b). This image can be referred to as a $\gamma$-$2\theta$ plot or simply a gamma plot.

A 2D diffraction pattern can be analyzed directly or by data reduction to the intensity distribution along $\gamma$ or $2\theta$. The $\gamma$-integration can reduce the 2D pattern into a diffraction profile analogous to the conventional diffraction pattern which is the diffraction intensity distribution as a function of $2\theta$ angles. This kind of diffraction pattern can be evaluated by most exiting software and algorithms for conventional applications, such as phase identification, structure refinement, and $2\theta$-profile analysis. However, the materials structure information associated with the intensity distribution along the $\gamma$ direction is lost through $\gamma$-integration. In order to evaluate the material’s structure associated with the intensity distribution along the $\gamma$ angle, either the 2D diffraction pattern should be directly analyzed or the $\gamma$-profile generated by $2\theta$-integration should be used.

The relationship between the diffraction ring profile and materials characterization can be explained by the following four types of $\gamma$-$2\theta$ plots. Figure 1.18 illustrates four $\gamma$-$2\theta$ plots of a

![FIGURE 1.17](image-url) (a) 2D diffraction pattern from corundum powder, (b) 2D pattern displayed in rectangular $\gamma$-$2\theta$ coordinates.
Figure 1.18 Illustrations of gamma plots from samples with (a) random fine powder, (b) texture, (c) stress, (d) large crystal size.

A material may contain texture, stress, and large crystal size simultaneously so the 2D diffraction pattern can be a mix of the above four models. Figure 1.19(a) is a diffraction frame collected from a proprietary multilayer battery anode with Bruker VÅNTEC-500 2D detector. Figure 1.19(b) is the same diffraction pattern displayed as a 3D plot with intensity, denoted as I, in the vertical direction. The material characterization can be observed directly from the 2D frame. For example, some diffraction rings show very strong intensity variation but smooth transition from high intensity to low intensity. These diffraction rings are produced from materials with strong preferred orientation and fine crystal grains. Some other diffraction rings are very spotty with sharp transition from high intensity to low intensity. These diffractions are produced from...
INTRODUCTION

materials with large crystal grain size. By comparing two types of the diffraction rings, it can also be concluded that the sample contains at least two phases, because it is impossible for a sample with homogenous single phase to produce diffraction rings so dramatically different.

1.5.3 Two-Dimensional X-Ray Diffraction System and Major Components

Two-dimensional X-ray diffraction (XRD²) systems have a variety of configurations and component options to fulfill the requirements of different samples and applications. As shown in Figure 1.20, a typical XRD² system normally consists of five basic components:

- X-ray source – produces X-rays with the required radiation energy, focal spot size, and intensity
• X-ray optics – conditions the primary X-ray beam to the required wavelength, beam focus size, beam profile and divergence
• goniometer and sample stage – establishes and maneuvers the geometric relationship between primary beam, sample and detector
• sample alignment and monitor – assists users with positioning the sample into the instrument center and monitors the sample state and position
• area detector – intercepts and records the scattering X-rays from a sample, and saves and displays the diffraction pattern into a two-dimensional frame

Each of the basic components may have several options suitable for various applications and functions. The whole system is controlled by a computer, with software for instrument control, data acquisition, and data analysis. In addition to the five basic components, there are some other accessories, such as a low temperature stage, high temperature stage, helium or vacuum beam path for SAXS, beamstop, and alignment and calibration fixtures. The geometry conventions, X-ray source and optics, detector, goniometer, sample stage, and various configurations will be covered in the following chapters.

1.5.4 Summary

A two-dimensional diffraction frame contains far more information than a diffraction pattern measured with conventional diffraction system with a point detector or a linear position-sensitive detector. The speed of two-dimensional diffraction is typically several orders of magnitude higher than conventional diffraction. Two-dimensional X-ray diffraction analyses, commonly performed on polycrystalline materials, include phase identification, quantitative phase analysis, preferred orientation, and residual stresses.

Phase identification (phase ID) can be done by integration in the selected $2\theta$ range along the Debye rings [12–16]. The integrated data gives better intensity and statistics for phase ID and quantitative analysis, especially for those samples with texture, large grain size, or small quantity. Then the integrated diffraction profiles can be analyzed with existing algorithms and methods, profile fitting with conventional peak shapes and fundamental parameters, quantification of phases, and lattice parameter indexing and refinement. The diffraction results can be used to search and match with the ICDD database [17–21]. The large 2D diffraction pattern collected at a single exposure can reveal many materials characteristics, which is suitable for in-situ measurement of time sensitive events, such as phase transformation, deformation, or chemical reactions [22–25].

Texture measurement with two-dimensional diffraction is extremely fast compared to measurement using a point or linear detector. The area detector collects texture data and background values simultaneously for multiple poles and multiple directions. Due to the high measurement speed, pole-figures can be measured at very fine steps, allowing detection of very sharp textures [26–28].

Stress measurement using the area detector is based on a direct relationship between the stress tensor and diffraction cone distortion. Since the whole or a part of the Debye ring is used for stress calculation, two-dimensional diffraction can measure stress with high sensitivity, high speed, and high accuracy. It is very suitable for samples with large crystals and textures. Simultaneous measurement of stress and texture is also possible since 2D data consists of both stress and texture information [29–32].

Percent crystallinity can be measured faster and more accurately with data analysis over 2D frames, especially for samples with anisotropic distribution of crystalline orientation.
The amorphous region can be defined externally within user-defined regions, or the amorphous region can be defined with the crystalline region included when the crystalline region and the amorphous region overlap.

Small angle X-ray scattering (SAXS) data can be collected at high speed. Anisotropic features from specimens, such as polymers, fibrous materials, single crystals, and biomaterials, can be analyzed and displayed in two dimensions. De-smearing correction is not necessary due to the collimated point X-ray beam. Since one exposure takes all the required SAXS information, it is easy to scan over the sample to map the structure information from small angle diffraction [33, 34].

Microdiffraction and diffraction mapping data is collected with speed and accuracy. X-ray diffraction from small sample amounts or small sample areas has always been a slow process because of limited beam intensity. The 2D detector captures whole or a large portion of the diffraction rings, so spotty, textured, or weak diffraction data can be integrated over the selected diffraction rings [35–40].

Thin film samples with a mixture of single crystal, random polycrystalline layers, and highly textured layers can be measured with all the features appearing simultaneously in diffraction frames [41–47]. The pole-figures from different layers and substrate can be overlapped to reveal the orientation relationship [48, 49]. The use of an area detector can dramatically speed up the data collection for reciprocal space mapping on an in-plane reciprocal lattice point [50].

Combinatorial screening by two-dimensional X-ray diffraction is one of the most powerful high-throughput screening techniques. Because of the penetrating power of the X-ray beam, non-destructive to samples, and fast data collection and abundant information about the materials atomic structure, two-dimensional X-ray diffraction can be used to screen a material library with high speed and high accuracy [51–53]. In addition to high-throughput screening, two-dimensional X-ray diffraction systems have been widely used in pharmaceuticals and biomaterials research [54–57].

Forensics and archeology have benefitted from two-dimensional X-ray diffraction for identifying materials and structures from small amounts or small areas of samples, which is often the case in these fields. It is non-destructive and does not require special sample treatment, so the original evidence or sample can be preserved. Two-dimensional diffraction patterns contain abundant information and are easy to observe and explain in the courtroom. All the techniques discussed in this book can be used for forensics and archeological analysis. Experimental examples and case studies can be found in many references [36, 58–62].

In summary, two-dimensional X-ray diffraction refers to X-ray diffraction applications with a two-dimensional detector and corresponding data reduction and analysis. Two-dimensional X-ray diffraction is the ideal, non-destructive, analytical method for examining samples of all kinds, such as metals, polymers, ceramics, semiconductors, thin films, coatings, paints, biomaterials, and composites for material science research, molecular structure determination and polymorphism study for drug discovery and processing, for samples with micro volume or micro area for forensic analysis, and archeological analysis. A two-dimensional diffraction pattern contains abundant information about the atomic arrangement, microstructure, and defects of solid or liquid materials. In recent years, the use of two-dimensional diffractometers has dramatically increased in academic researches and various industries. This book covers the basic concept and recent progress in two-dimensional X-ray diffraction theory and technologies, including geometry conventions, X-ray source and optics, two-dimensional detectors, diffraction data interpretation, and configurations for various applications, such as phase identification, texture, stress, microstructure analysis, crystallinity, thin film analysis, and combinatorial screening.
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