

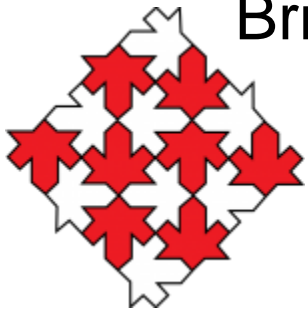
# Bragg's Law and Miller Indices

*Understanding Crystallography and Diffraction*

CCCW24

May 28, 2024

Brian Patrick (via Kate Markzenko via Mike Katz)



# Learning Objectives

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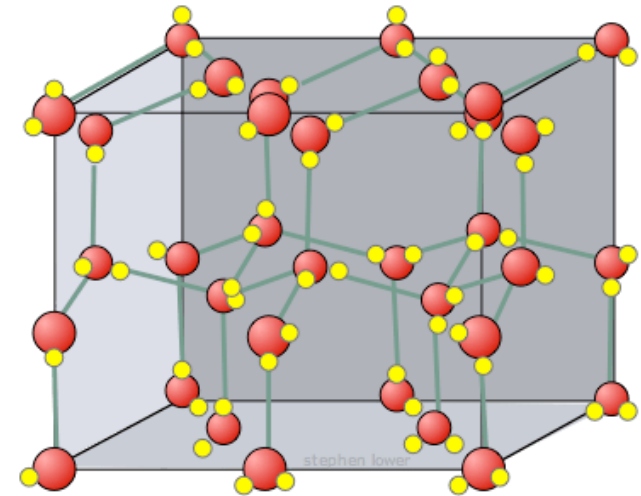
**By the end of this lecture, learners will be able to...**

- Explain the principle of X-ray diffraction and its role in studying crystal structures.
- Describe and derive Bragg's Law.
- Introduce Miller Indices as a notation system for describing crystal planes and directions.
- Understand the process of determining Miller Indices for crystal planes.
- Encourage further exploration and study of crystallography and diffraction.

# Introduction

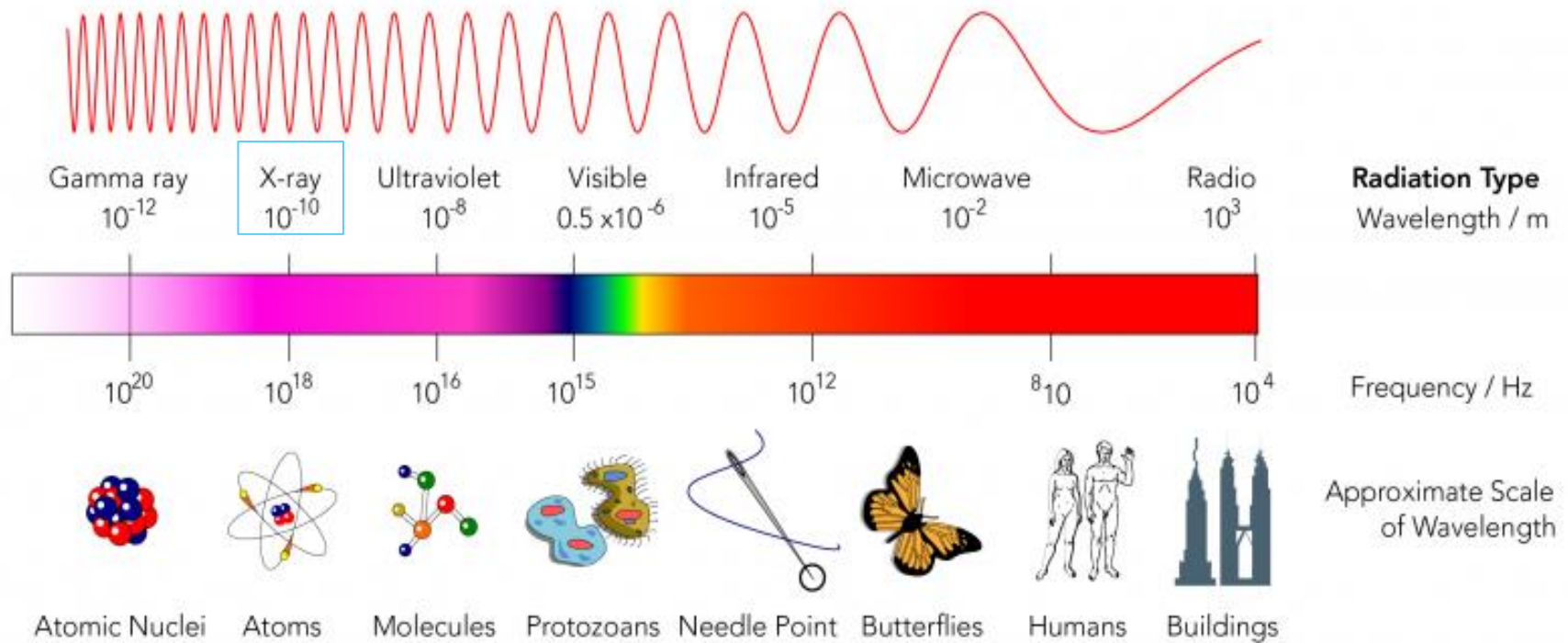
## *Understanding the Structure of Materials*

- We use **crystallography** to understand the structure of **crystalline** solids.
  - **Crystallography**: The study of *crystal structures*.
  - **Crystal structure**: A description of the ordered arrangement of atoms, ions, or molecules in a crystalline solid.
- Why do we care about the structure of crystalline solids?
  - The arrangement of these building blocks within a crystal determines its unique properties and behavior.



Hexagonal Ice,  $I_h$

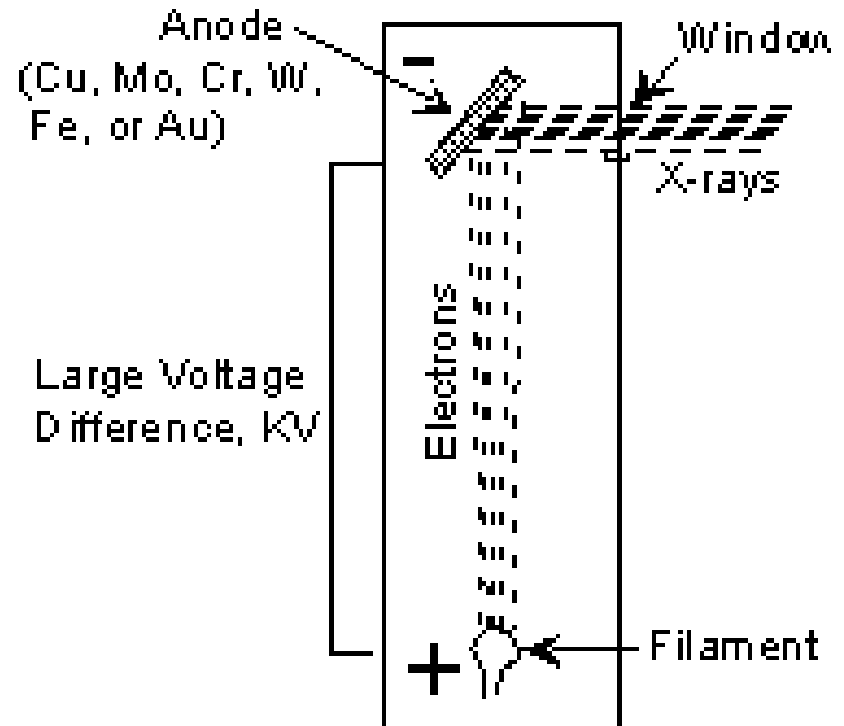
# Electromagnetic Radiation



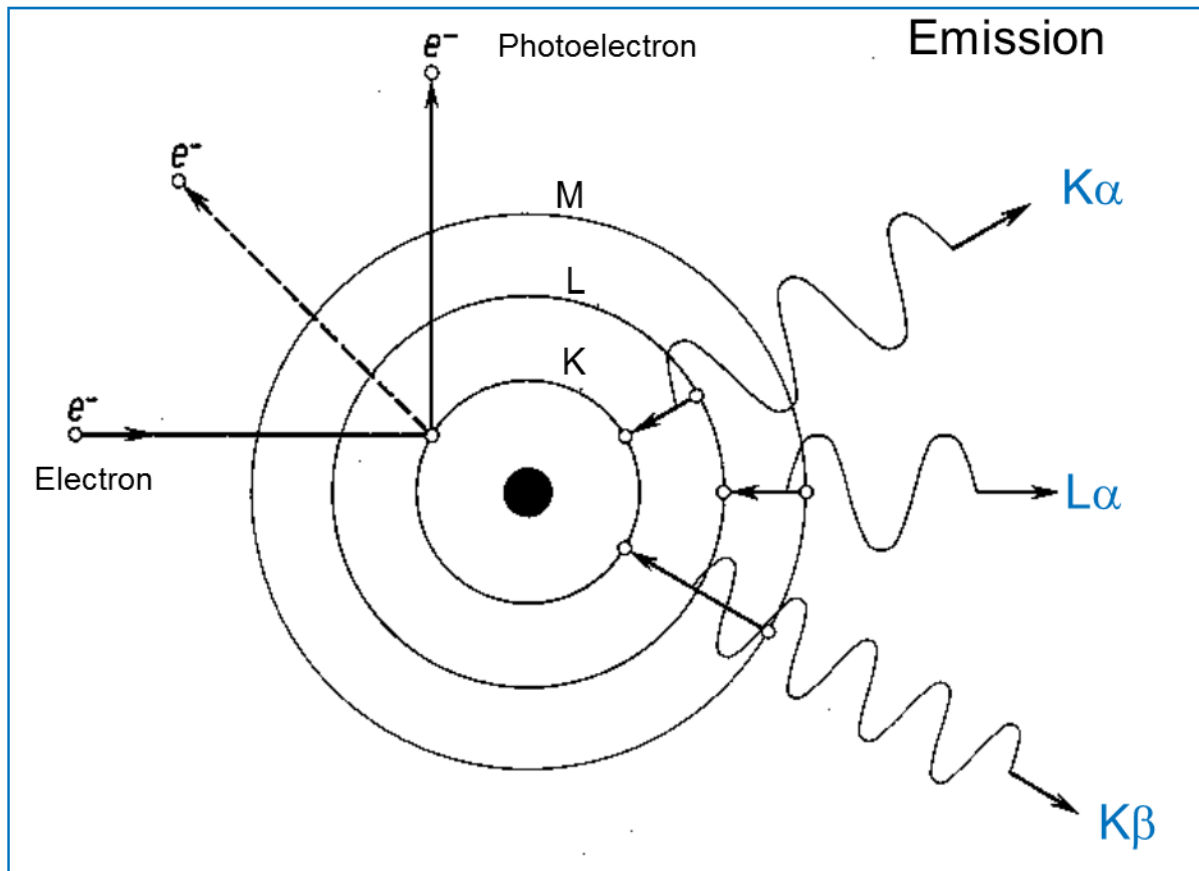
- Smaller wavelengths with higher energy than visible light.
- X-rays can penetrate matter more easily than visible light.

# X-Ray Tube

- Tungsten filament at one end (cathode) and metal target at the other (anode).
- Electrons are generated at the cathode, and directed to the anode by placing a large difference in voltage between the two sites.
- When electrons strike the target, electronic transitions occur and X-rays are generated.
- Target materials produce X-rays of specific wavelength.

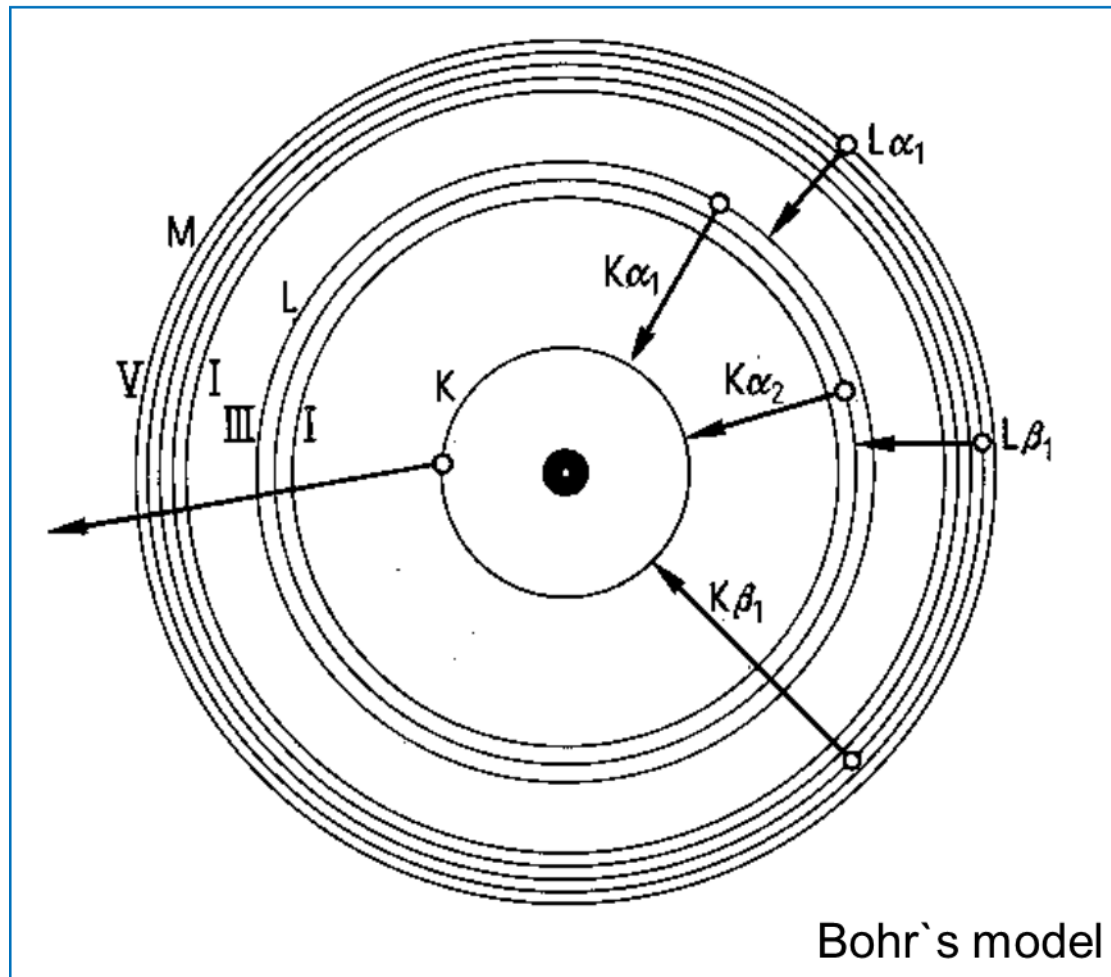


# Generation of Characteristic Radiation



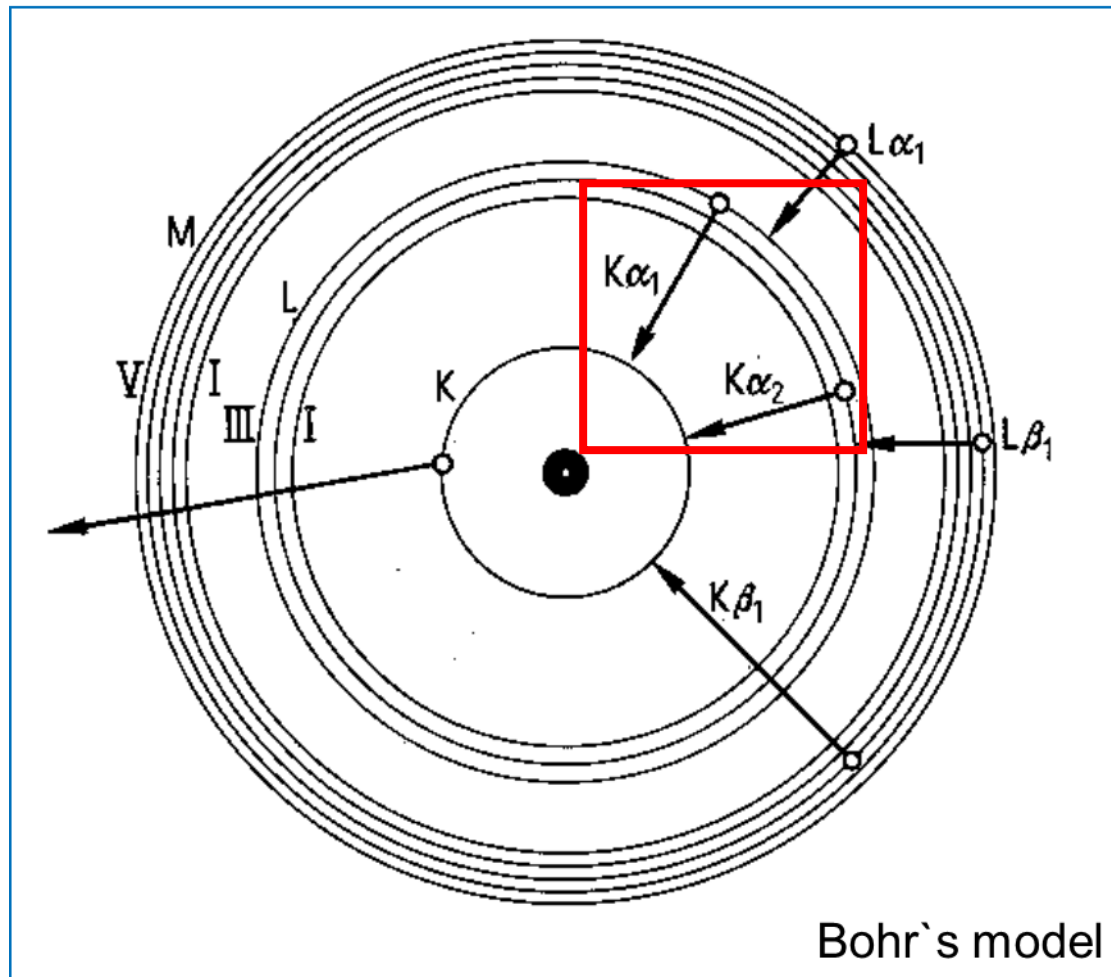
- Incoming electron knocks out an electron from the inner shell of an atom.
- Designation K,L,M correspond to shells with a different principal quantum number.

# Generation of Characteristic Radiation



- Not every electron in each of these shells has the same energy. The shells must be further divided.
- K-shell vacancy can be filled by electrons from 2 orbitals in the L shell, for example.
- The electron transition and the characteristic radiation emitted is given a further numerical subscript.

# Generation of Characteristic Radiation

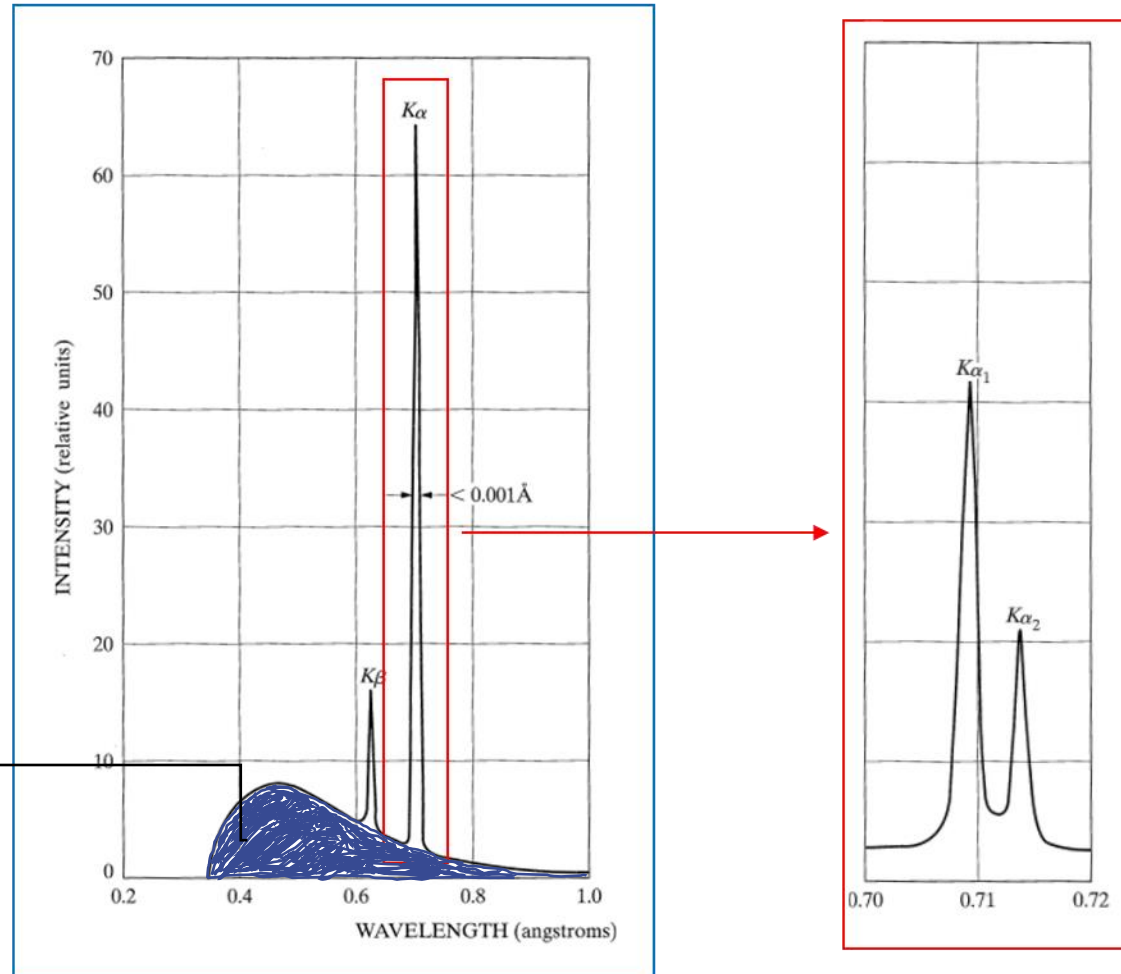


- Not every electron in each of these shells has the same energy. The shells must be further divided.
- K-shell vacancy can be filled by electrons from 2 orbitals in the L shell, for example.
- The electron transition and the characteristic radiation emitted is given a further numerical subscript.



# Emission Spectrum of an X-Ray Tube: Close-up of $K\alpha$

Bremsstrahlung  
radiation



# Characteristic Wavelength

*The X-rays we use for diffraction have a wavelength of 0.7-1.5 Å.*

- Cu radiation (1.54 Å)
  - Great for organic compounds and chiral molecules.
  - Diffracted spots are more widely spread; great for large unit cells.
- Mo radiation (0.71 Å)
  - Great for inorganics. Better resolution.
- Ag radiation (0.56 Å)
  - Hard radiation; often used to analyze samples at a deeper level.

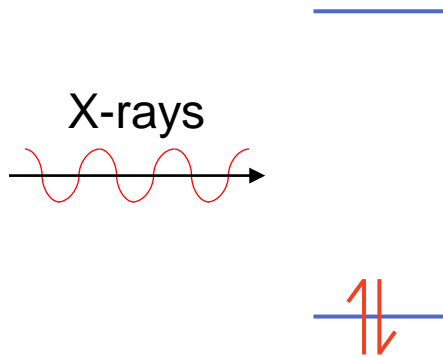
Element	Wavelength ( $\lambda$ ) Å ( $K\alpha_1$ )
Ag	0.5594
Mo	0.7097
Cu	1.5405
Co	1.7889
Fe	1.9360
Cr	2.2896

} PXRD  
Analysis

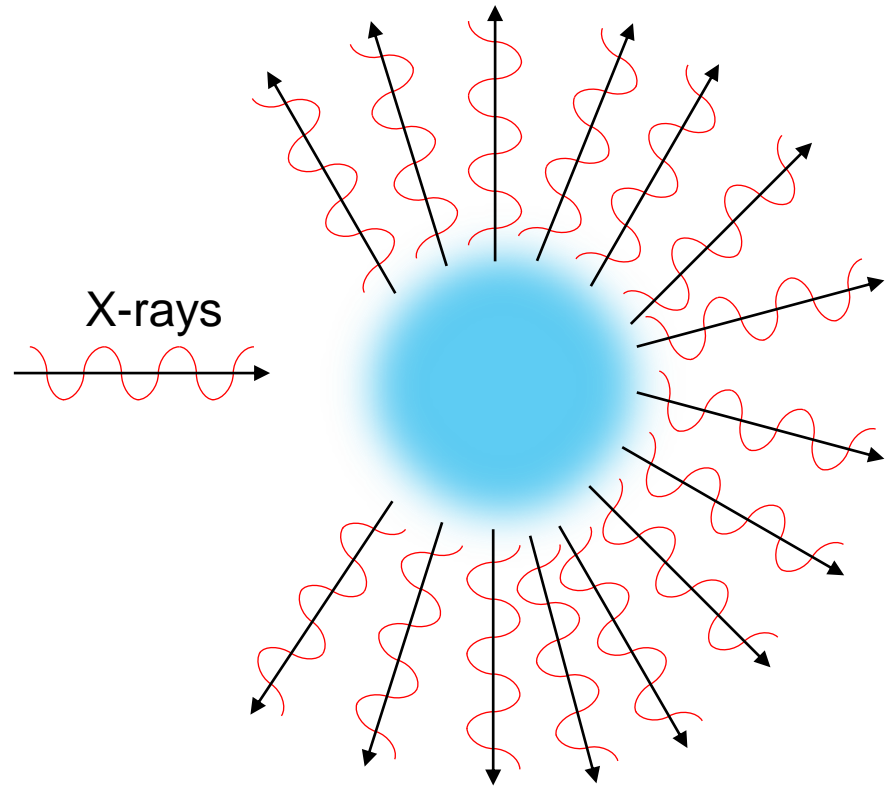
# Electromagnetic Radiation

*How does electromagnetic radiation interaction with matter?*

Absorption

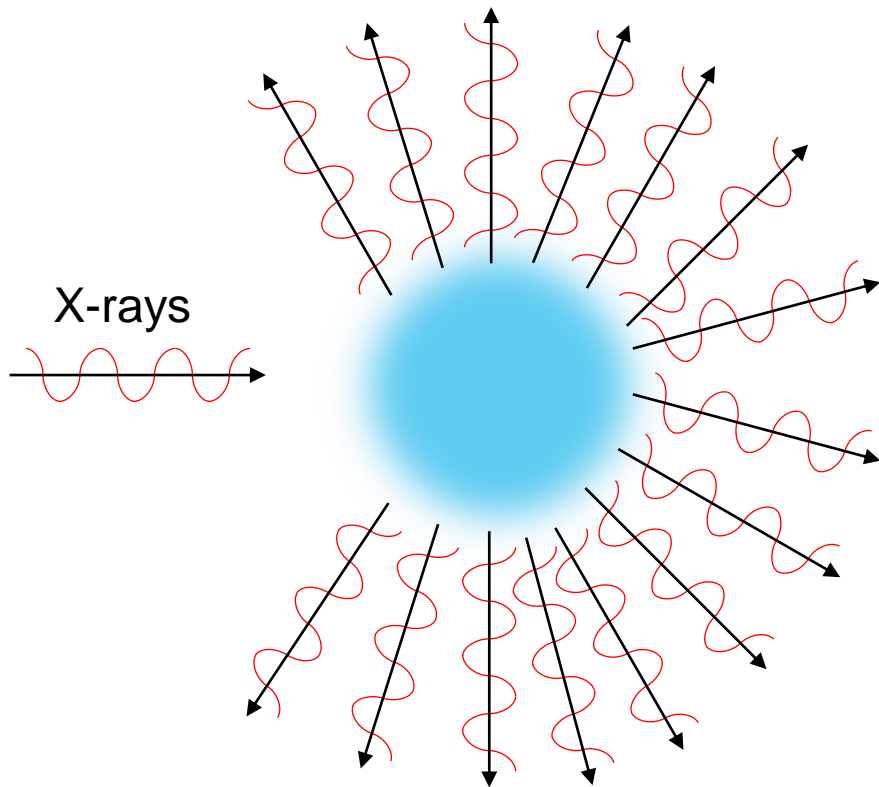


Scattering



# X-Ray Scattering

*X-ray scattering is what we care about!*

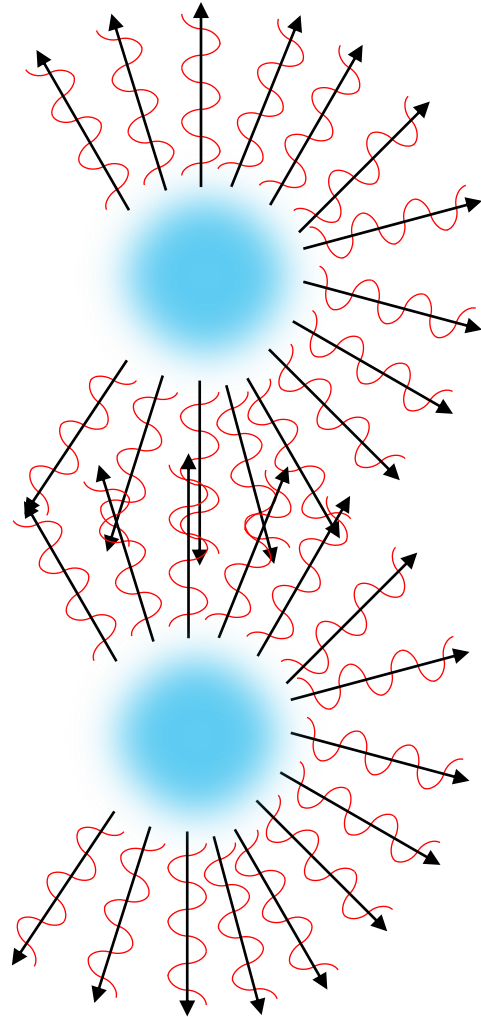


- X-rays interact with the electrons in an atom, causing them to change directions and scatter.
  - **Elastic:** Same wavelength and energy.
  - Inelastic: Different wavelength and energy.
- With multielectron atoms, the whole electron cloud oscillates.
  - The more electrons an atom has, the more it scatters X-rays.

# X-Ray Scattering

*What happens when we have more than one atom?*

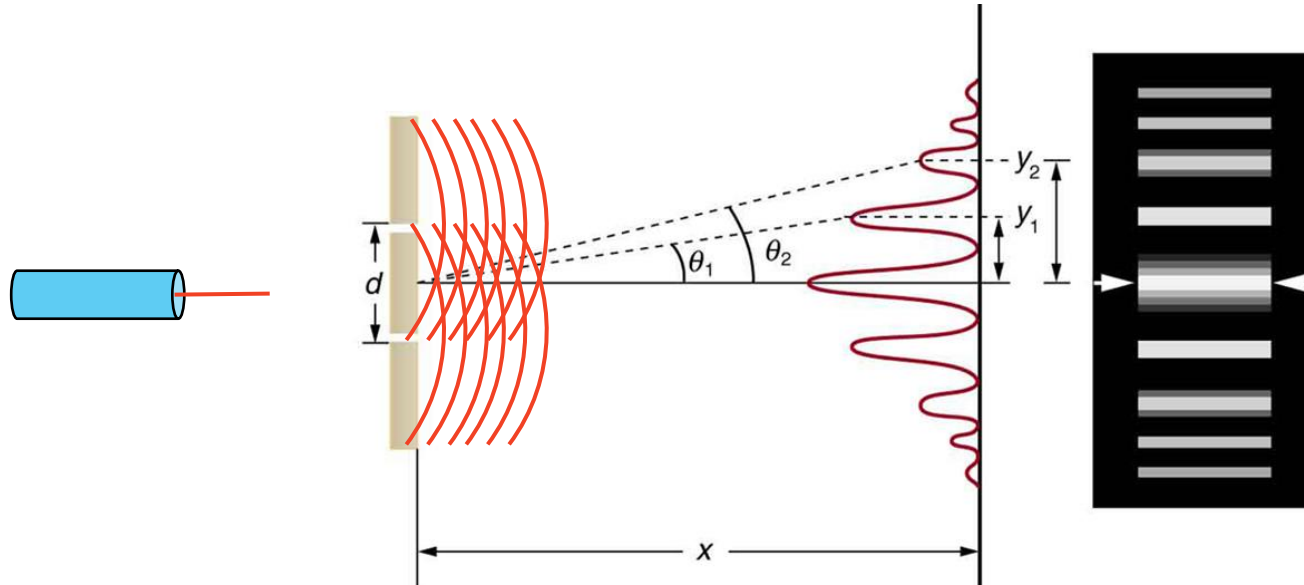
X-rays



The scattered waves from each atom can **interfere** with each other.

# X-Ray Scattering

## *Young's Double Slit Experiment*

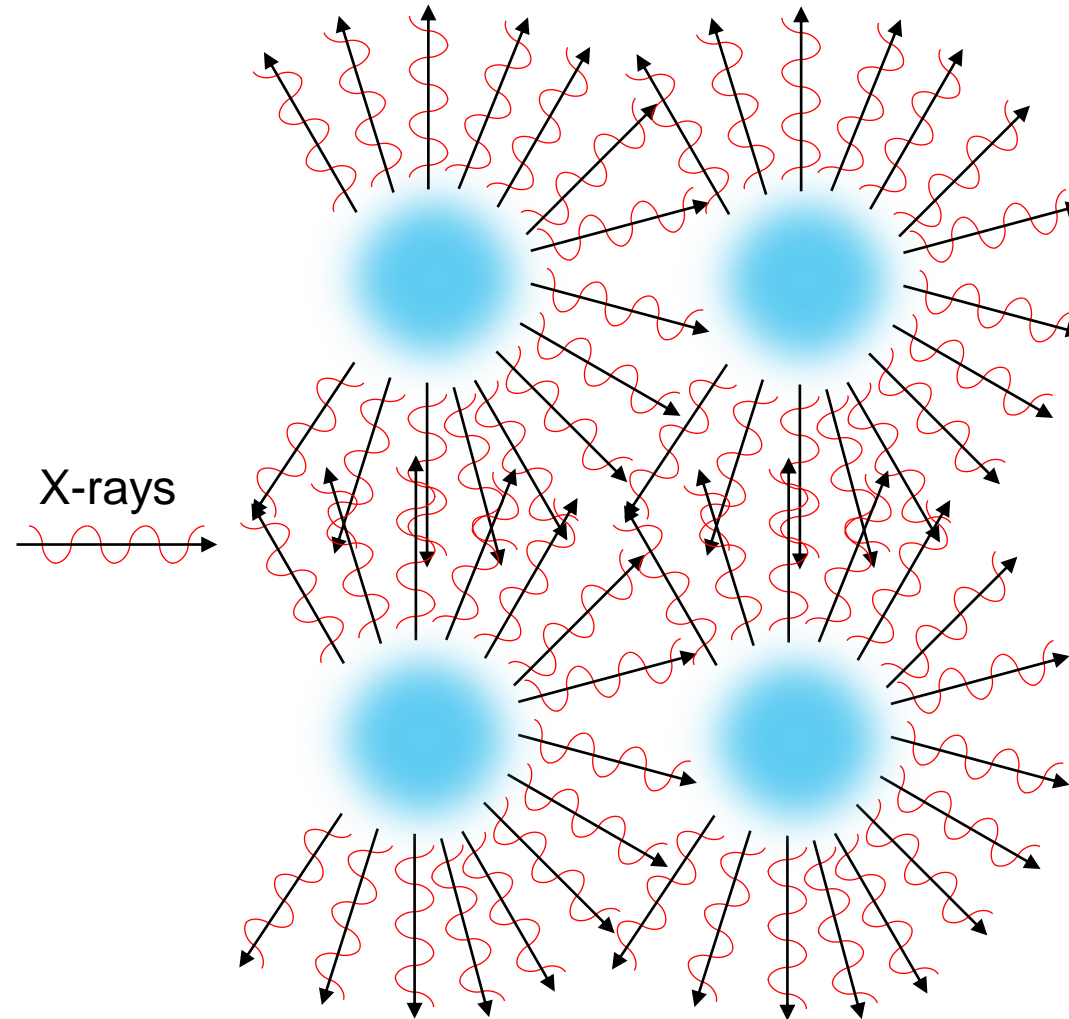


- Light passing through the slits creates two separate wavefronts that can interfere either:
  - Constructively (amplitudes of waves add).
  - Destructively (amplitudes of waves cancel).
- The wavelength of the light and the separation of the slits determines the spacing between the fringes.

# X-Ray Diffraction

## *Bragg's "Double Slit" Experiment*

- The crystal is a 3D array of regularly spaced scattering centers (atoms).
- The X-rays diffract as they interact with these scattering centers and interfere with each other to produce a diffraction pattern.
- The diffraction pattern consists of bright spots, or diffraction peaks, that correspond to a specific set of crystal planes.



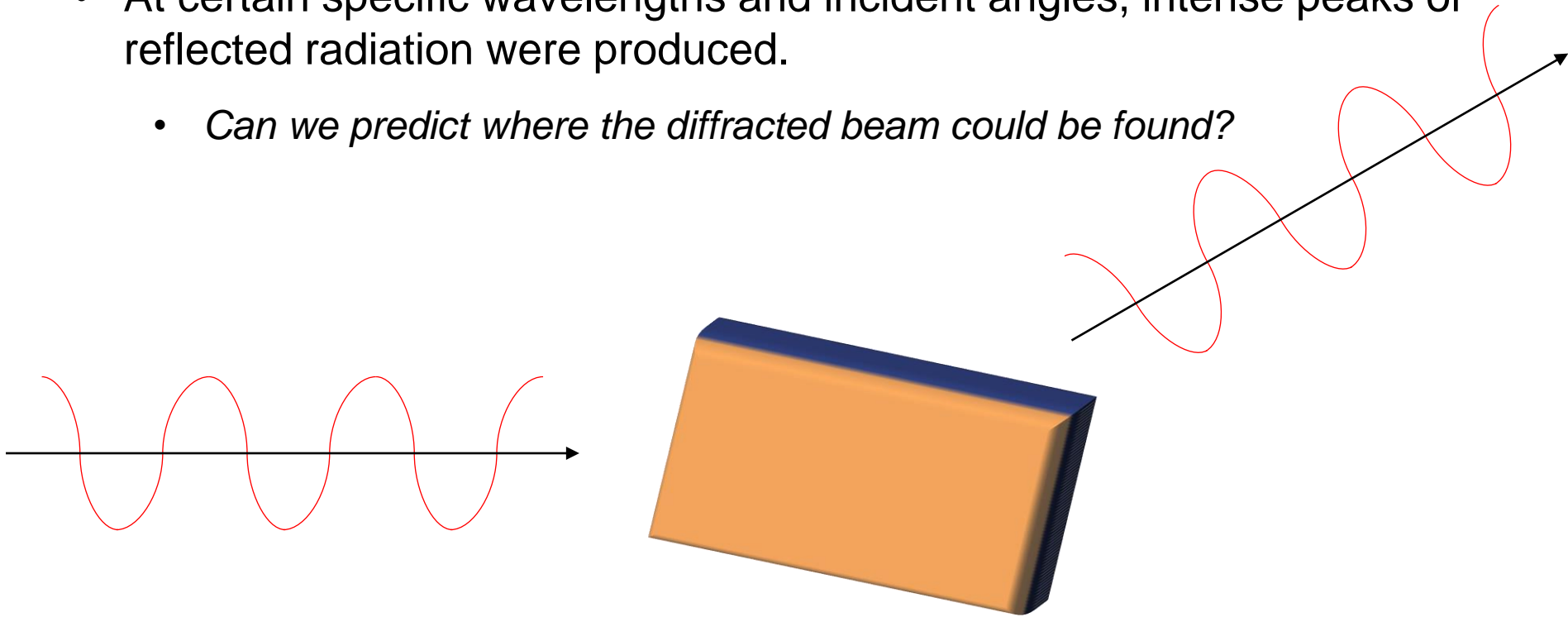
*We still need to locate each diffraction peak and measure the intensity.*





# Diffraction by a Crystal...Recap...

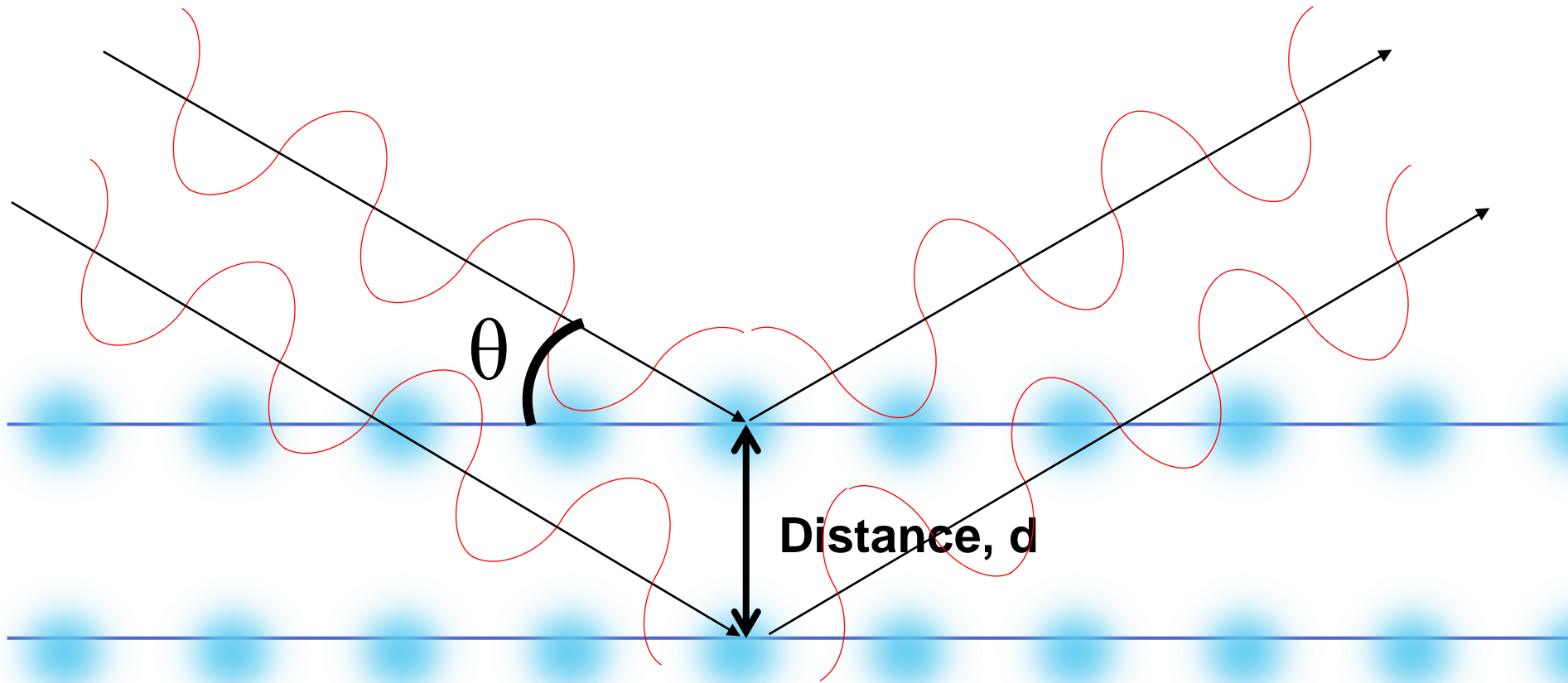
- X-ray diffraction is a technique that involves the scattering of X-rays by the atoms in a crystalline material
- The ordered array of atoms in the crystal acts like a new point source of X-rays, which constructively and destructively interfere to result in a pattern.
- At certain specific wavelengths and incident angles, intense peaks of reflected radiation were produced.
  - *Can we predict where the diffracted beam could be found?*



# Bragg's Law

## *Model*

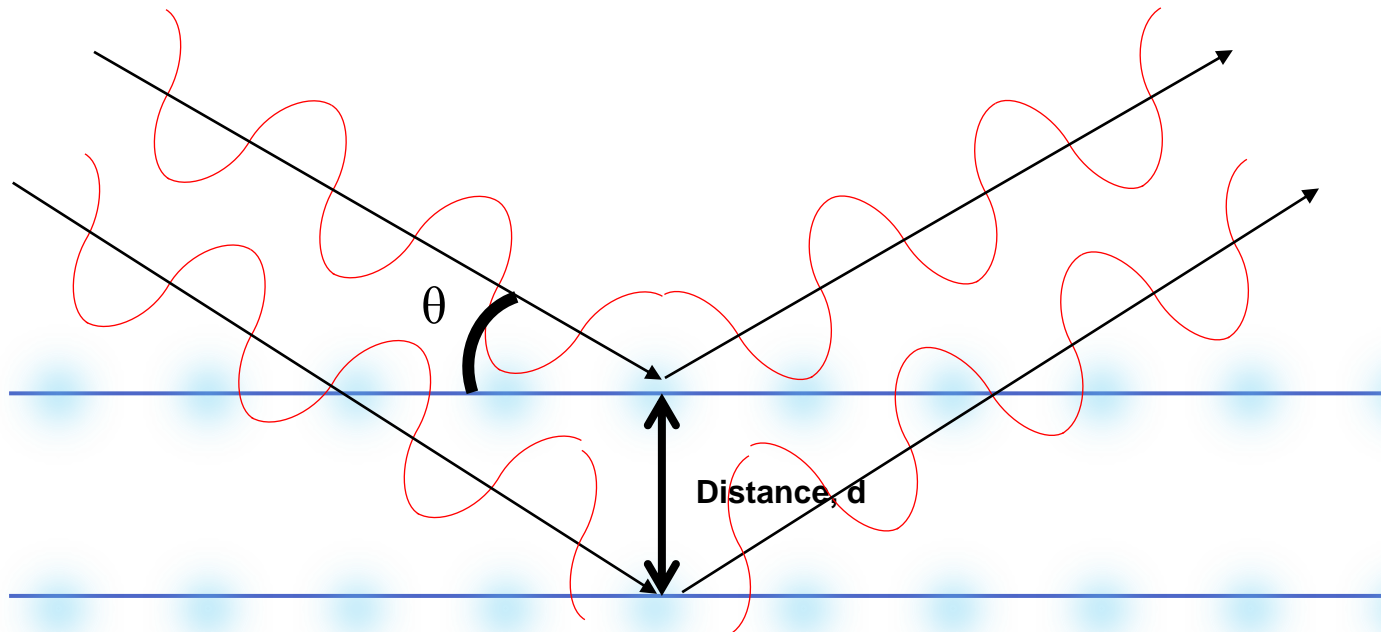
- Crystal is a set of discrete parallel planes.



# Bragg's Law

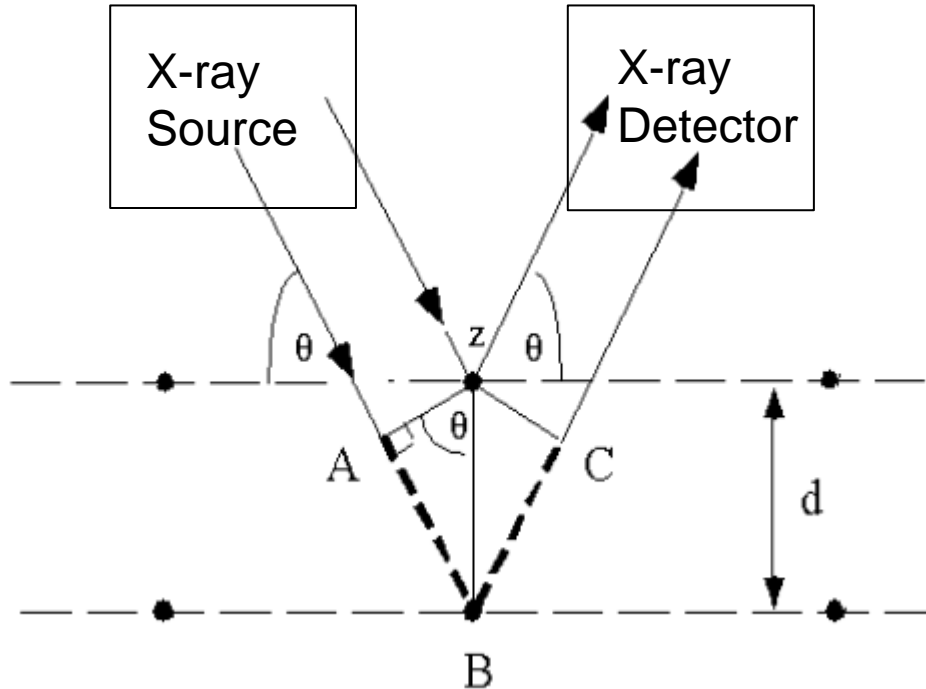
## *Conditions for Constructive Interference*

- Beams must be in phase.
  - “Extra” distances MUST be some whole integer factor of the wavelength
    - $1\lambda, 2\lambda, 3\lambda, 4\lambda, \dots n\lambda$
- How much more one wavelength travels between the two planes depends on the distance between the two planes.



# Derivation of Bragg's Law

## Derivation



$$n\lambda = AB + BC$$

$$n\lambda = 2 AB$$

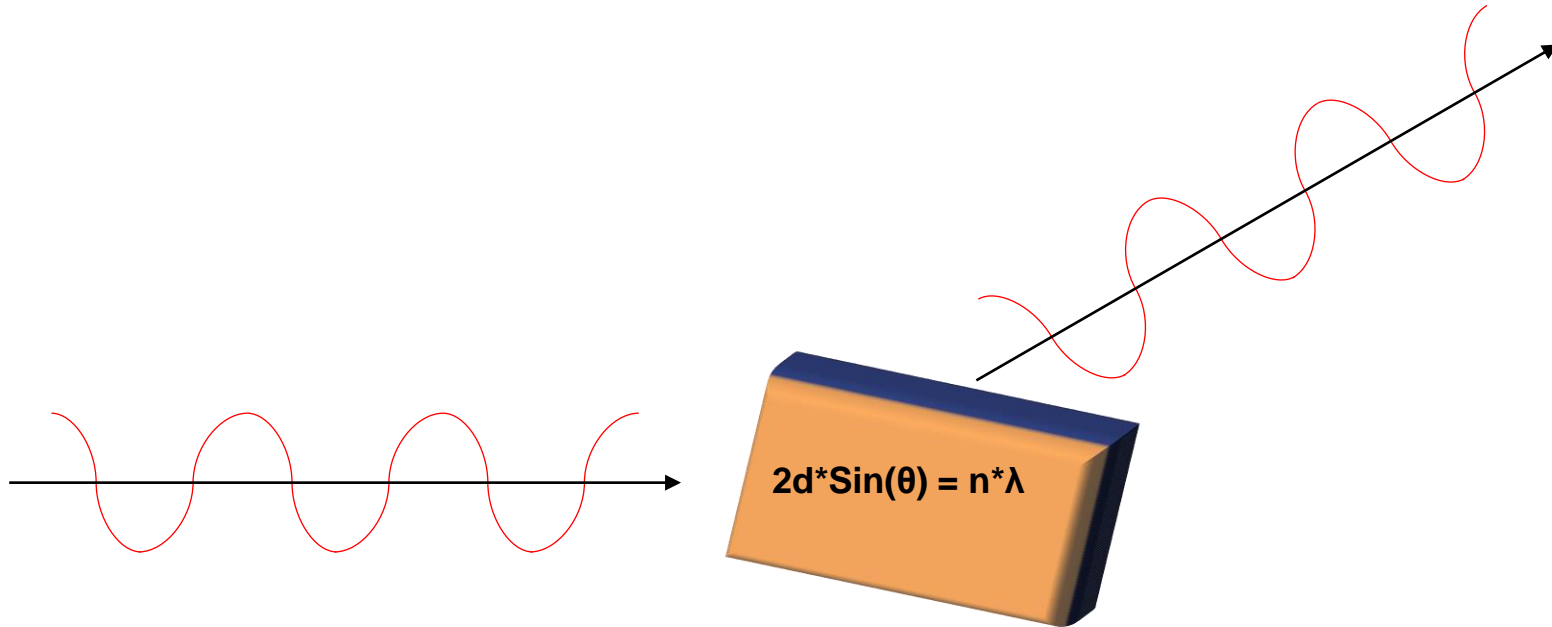
$$AB = d \sin \theta$$

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

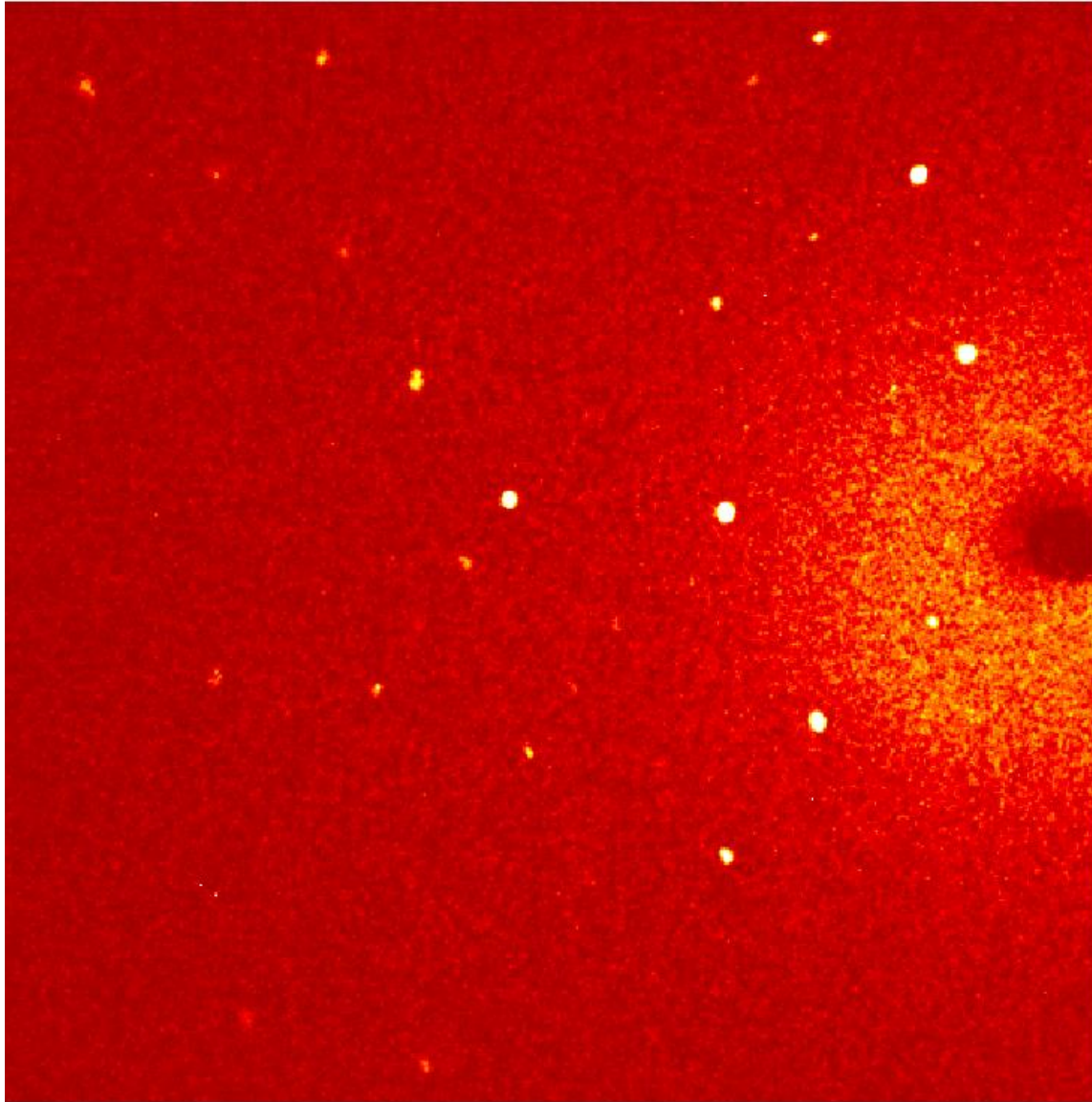
**Bragg's law**

If we have parallel planes in a crystal a distance,  $d$ , apart, then only when the X-rays hit the plane at an angle,  $\theta$ , where the extra distance,  $2AB$ , travelled by longer path is equal to  $n\lambda$  do we have constructive interference (diffraction).

# Planes and Distances

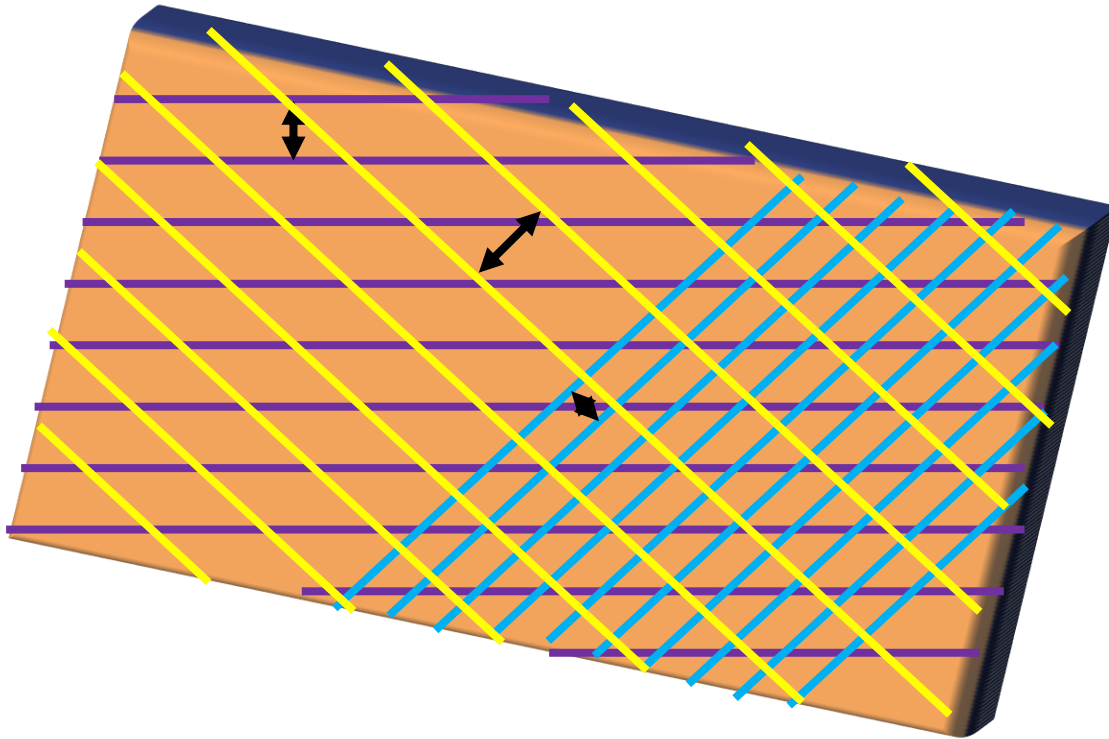


If we have parallel planes in a crystal a distance,  $d$ , apart, then only when the X-rays hit the plane at an angle,  $\theta$ , where the extra distance,  $2AB$ , travelled by longer path is equal to  $n\lambda$  do we have constructive interference (diffraction).



Each bright spot, or **reflection**, represents a plane that has satisfied Bragg's condition for diffraction.

# Planes and Distances



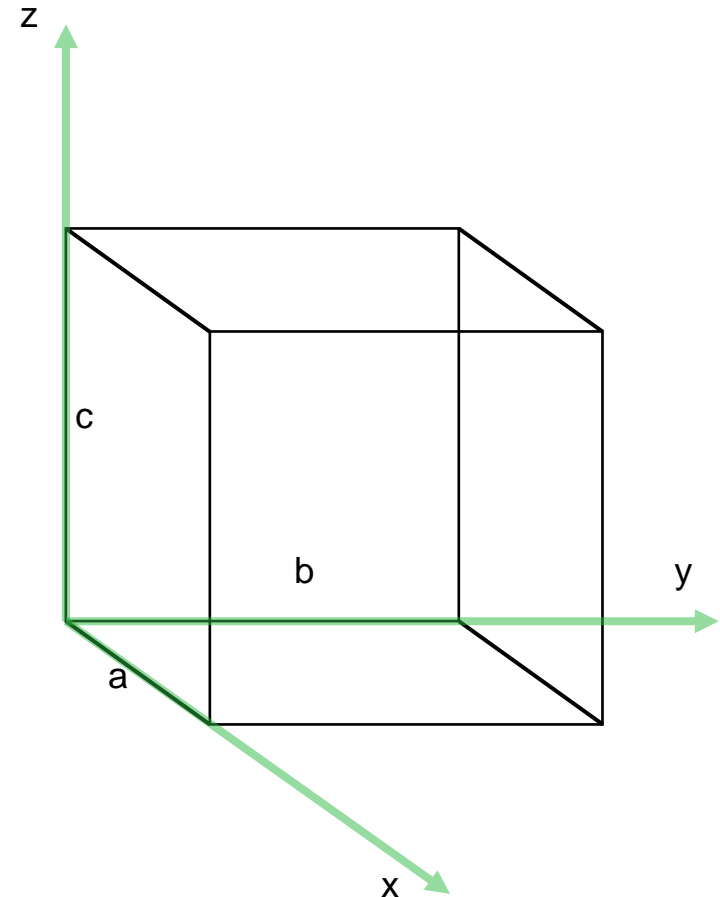
- We can draw an infinite number of parallel planes through a crystal.
- The family of planes are a distance  $d$  apart from each other.
- Only when we satisfy Bragg's Law, do we see “diffraction” from the planes.

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

# Planes and Distances

## Miller Planes

- In 1839, William Hallowes Miller came up with a notation for these planes.
- We don't need to consider the whole crystal. We just need to look at the unit cell.
- We refer to these planes as  $(h\ k\ l)$ .
  - $h$  is the inverse of the fractional coordinate along **a**.
  - $k$  is the inverse of the fractional coordinate along **b**.
  - $l$  is the inverse of the fractional coordinate along **c**.





# Planes and Distances

## Miller Planes

- Every plane that we can draw in the unit cell, intersects at some fraction of the way along the unit cell axis ( $a$ ,  $b$ ,  $c$ ).

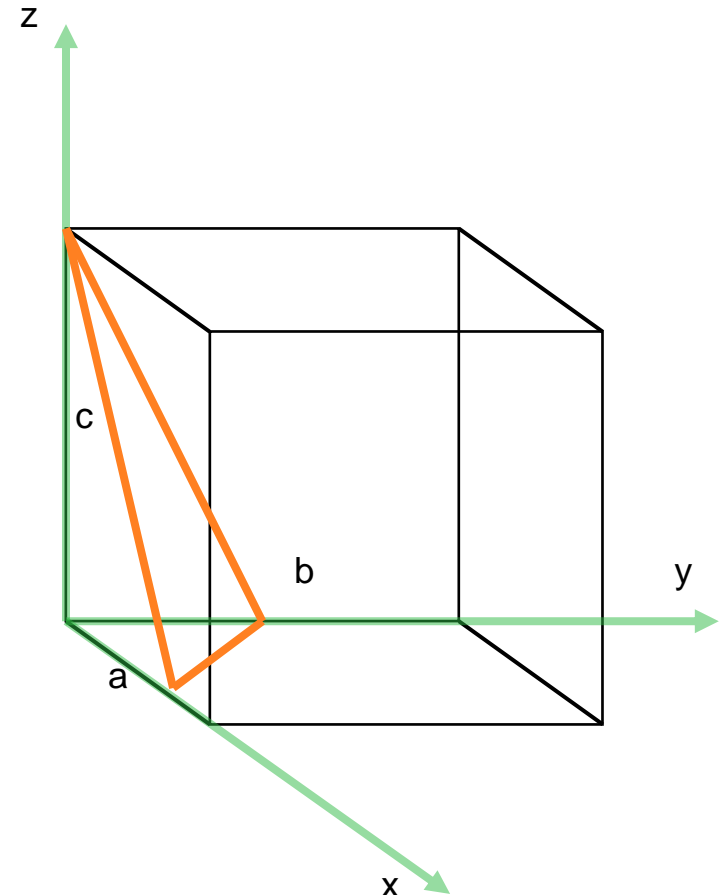
The orange plane:

- Intersects **a** at 0.5
- Intersects **b** at 0.5
- Intersects **c** at 1

*We call this the (221) plane*

We refer to these planes as ( $h$   $k$   $l$ ).

- $h$  is the inverse of the fractional coordinate along **a**.
- $k$  is the inverse of the fractional coordinate along **b**.
- $l$  is the inverse of the fractional coordinate along **c**.



# Planes and Distances

## Miller Planes

- Every plane that we can draw in the unit cell, intersects at some fraction of the way along the unit cell axis (a, b, c).

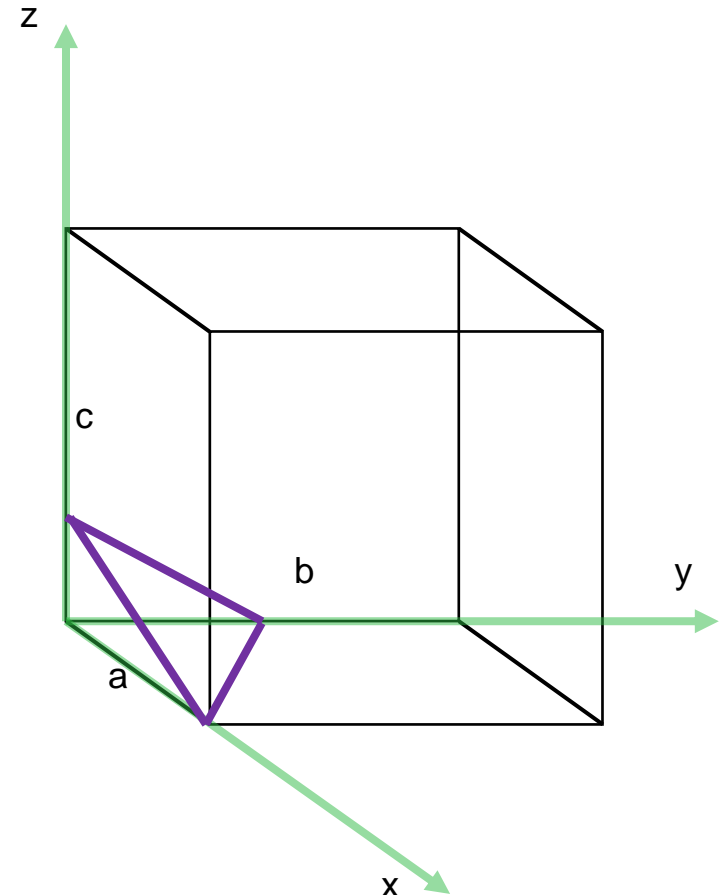
The purple plane:

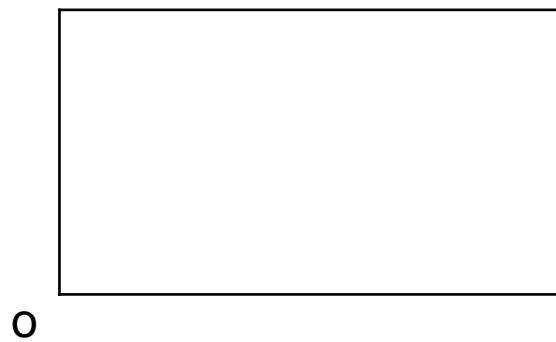
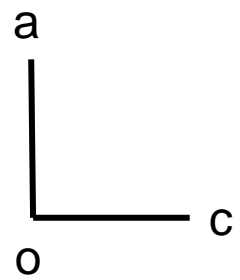
- Intersects a at 1
- Intersects b at 0.5
- Intersects c at 0.33

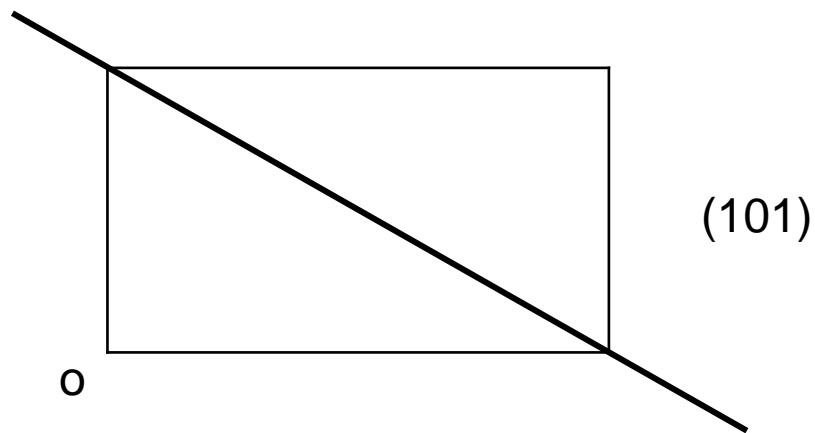
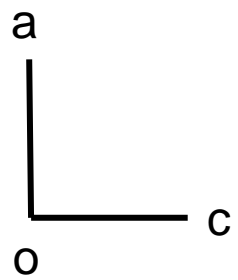
*We call this the (123) plane*

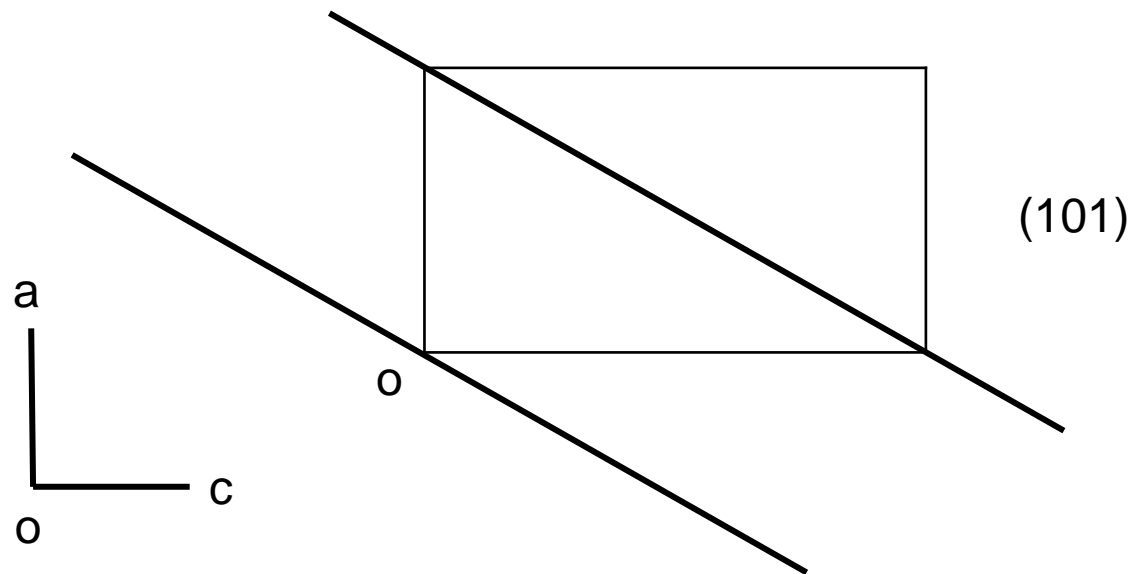
We refer to these planes as (h k l).

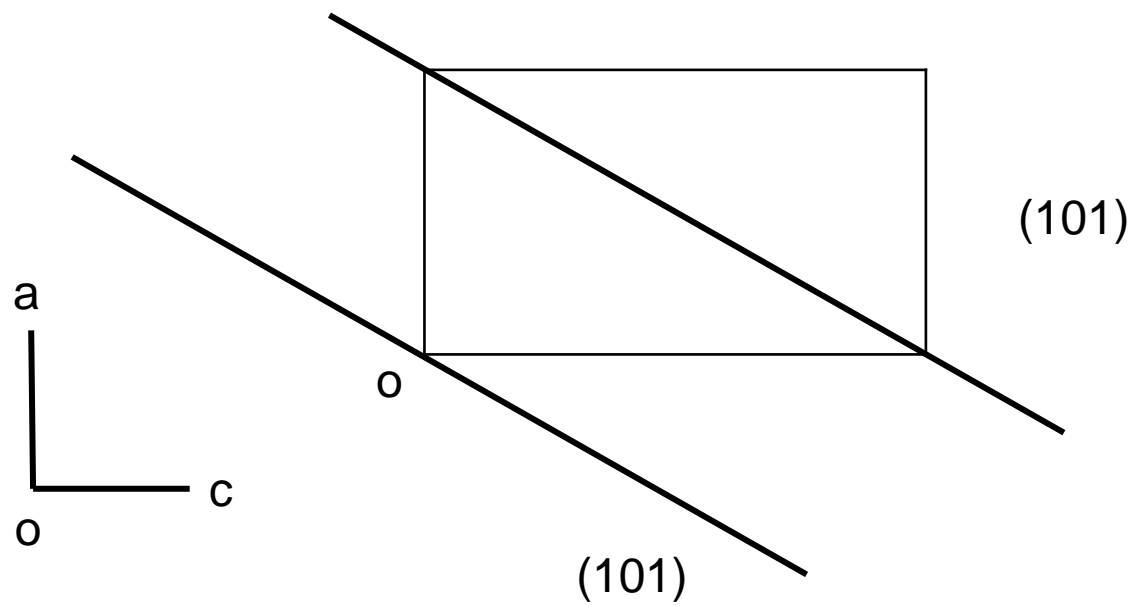
- h is the inverse of the fractional coordinate along a.
- k is the inverse of the fractional coordinate along b.
- l is the inverse of the fractional coordinate along c.

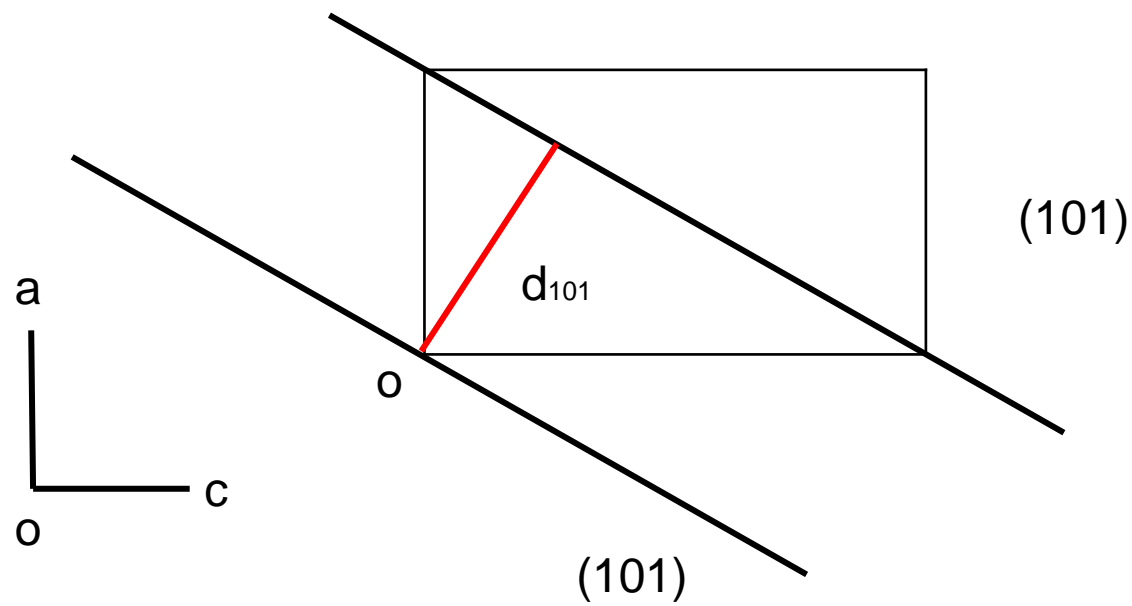


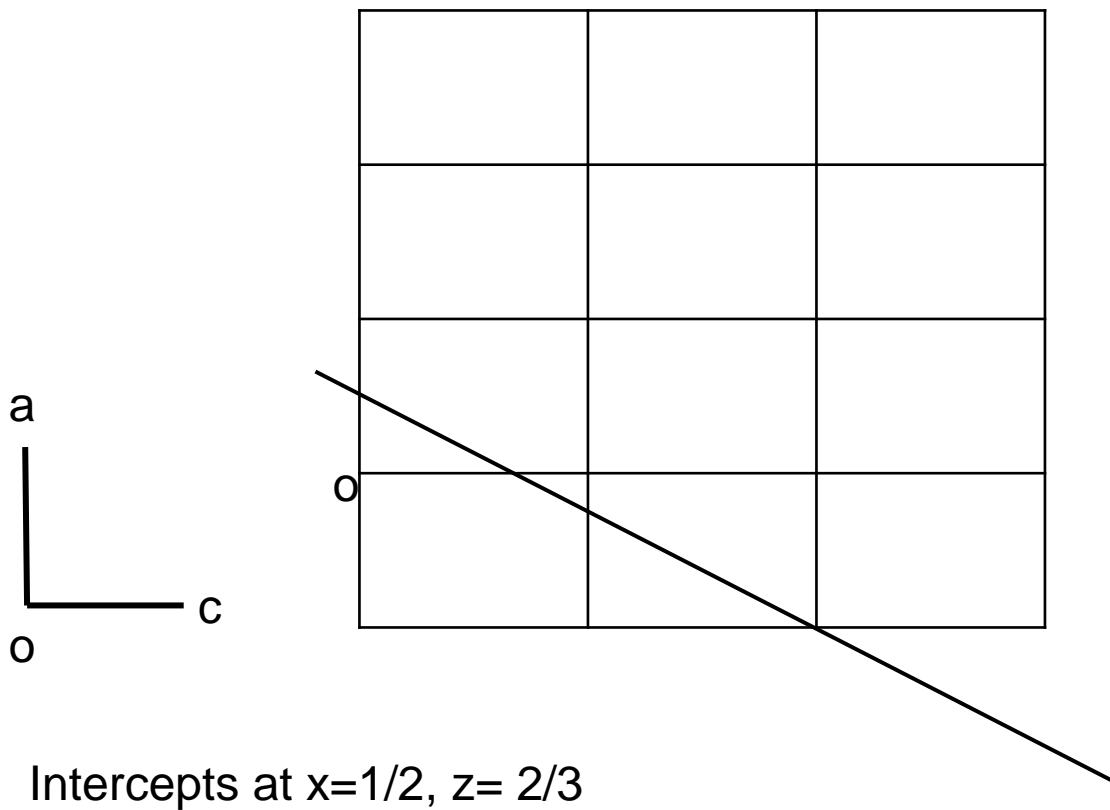




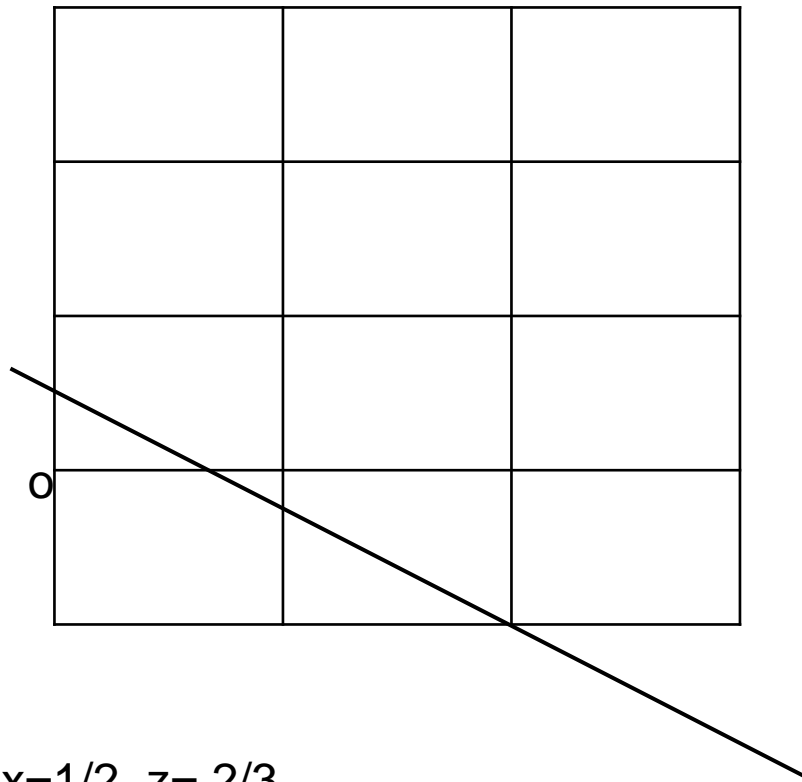






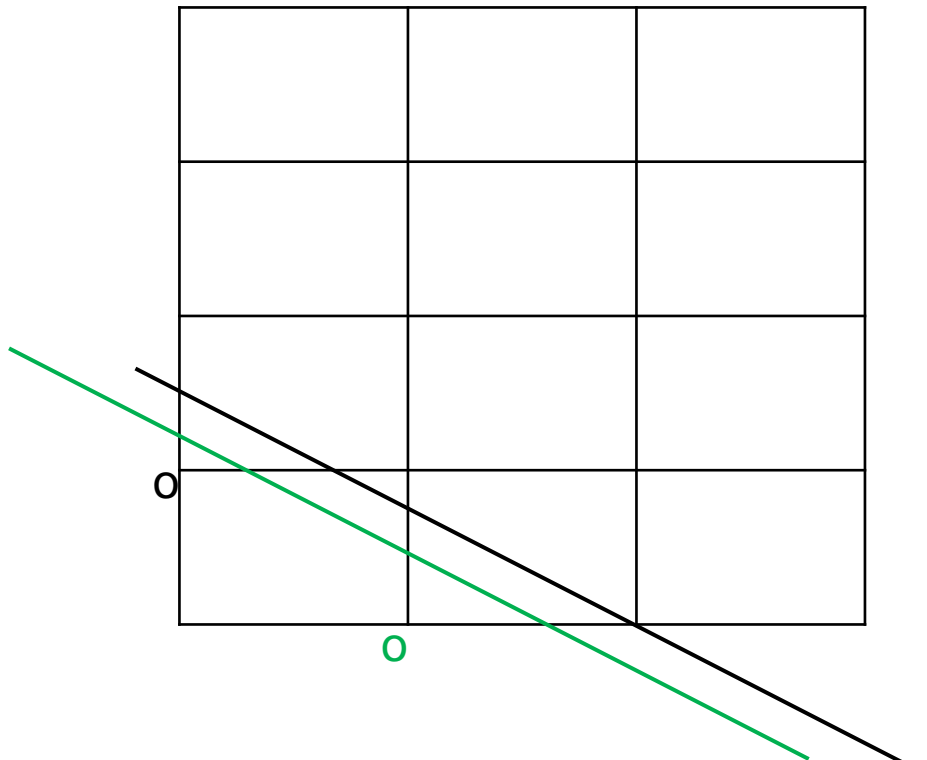






Intercepts at  $x=1/2$ ,  $z= 2/3$

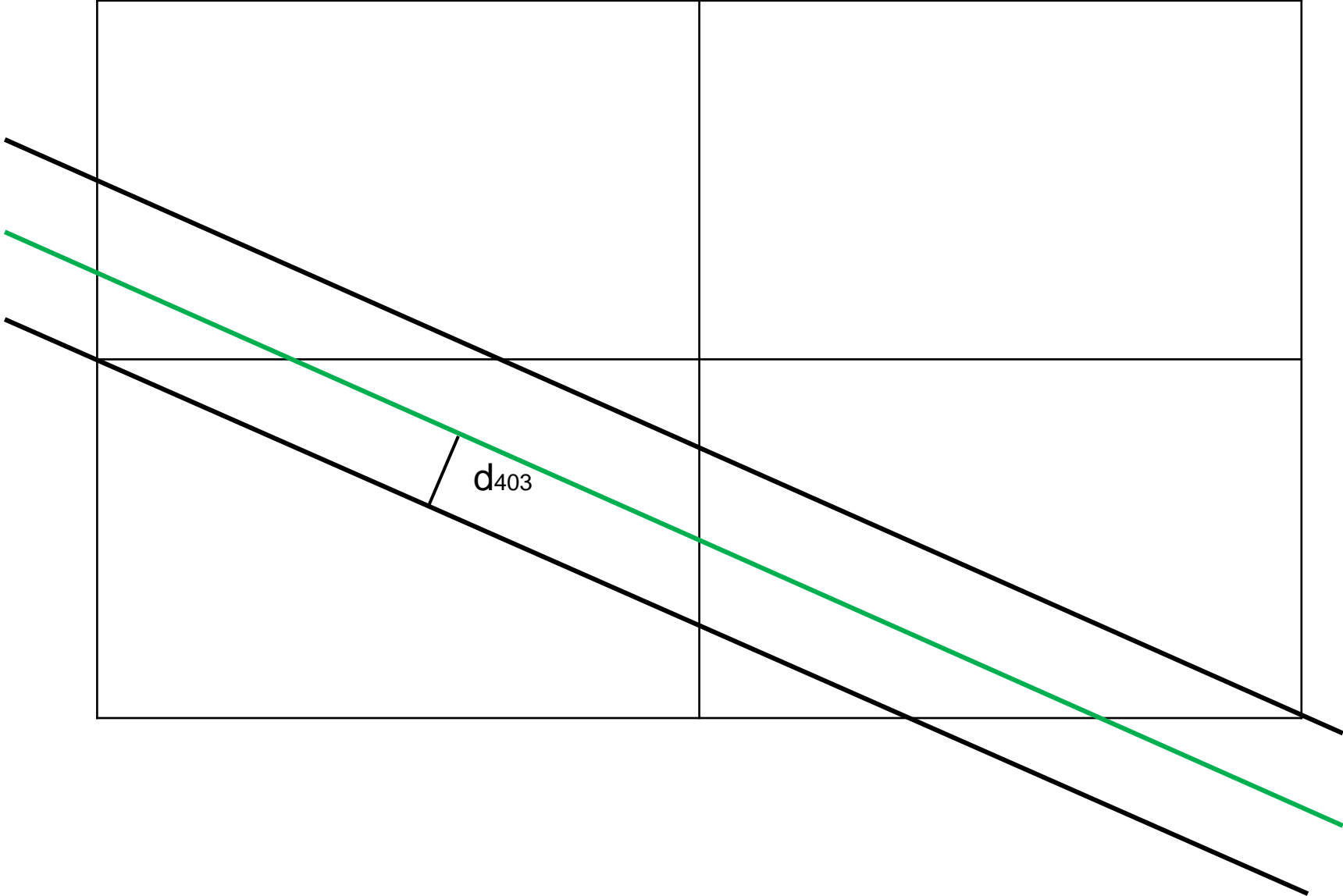
$(2\ 0\ 3/2)$  Miller index, however indices should be integers!



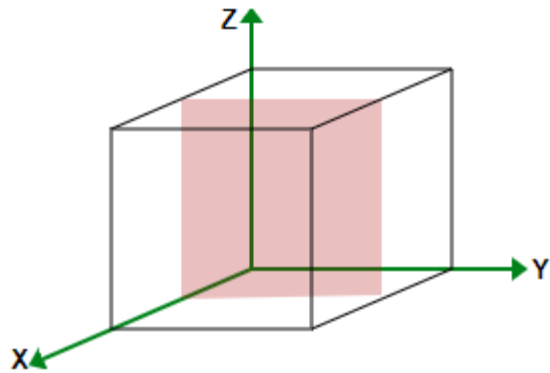
Intercepts at  $x=1/4$ ,  $z= 1/3$ , wrt original origin

Miller index is now (4 0 3)

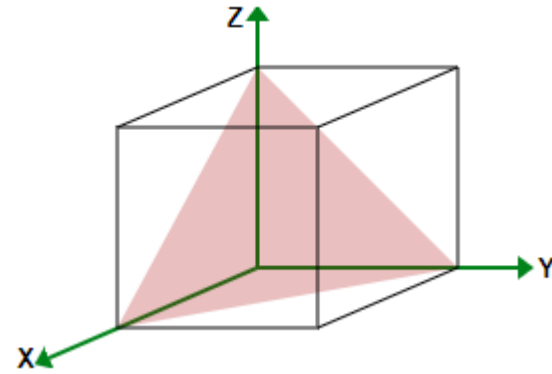
Plane in green is a (403) plane from an adjacent unit cell



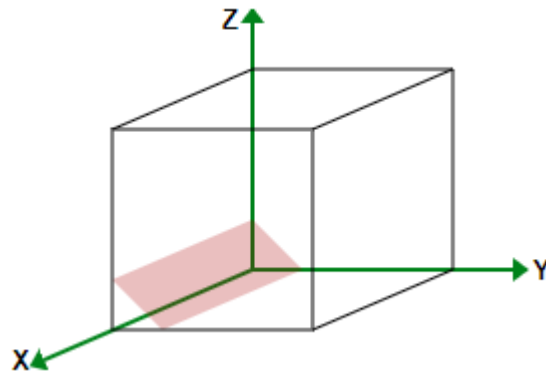
# Practice



(200)



(111)

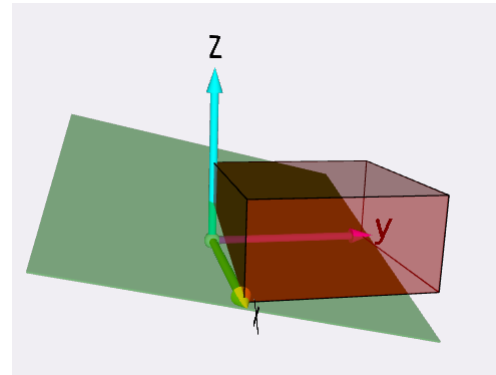


(044)

# Planes and Distances

- The larger the indices, the smaller the d values.
- Negative numbers are denoted with a bar on top of the number.  
E.g. ( $\bar{1}00$ ).

<http://KatzResearchGroup.com/Miller.html>



- Notation:
  - Round brackets are used when referring to a specific plane.  
E.g. (100)
  - Curly brackets are used when referring to a set of planes related by symmetry.  
E.g. {100} family of planes in a cubic system consists of (100), (010), (001), ( $\bar{1}00$ ), ( $0\bar{1}0$ ) and ( $00\bar{1}$ ).

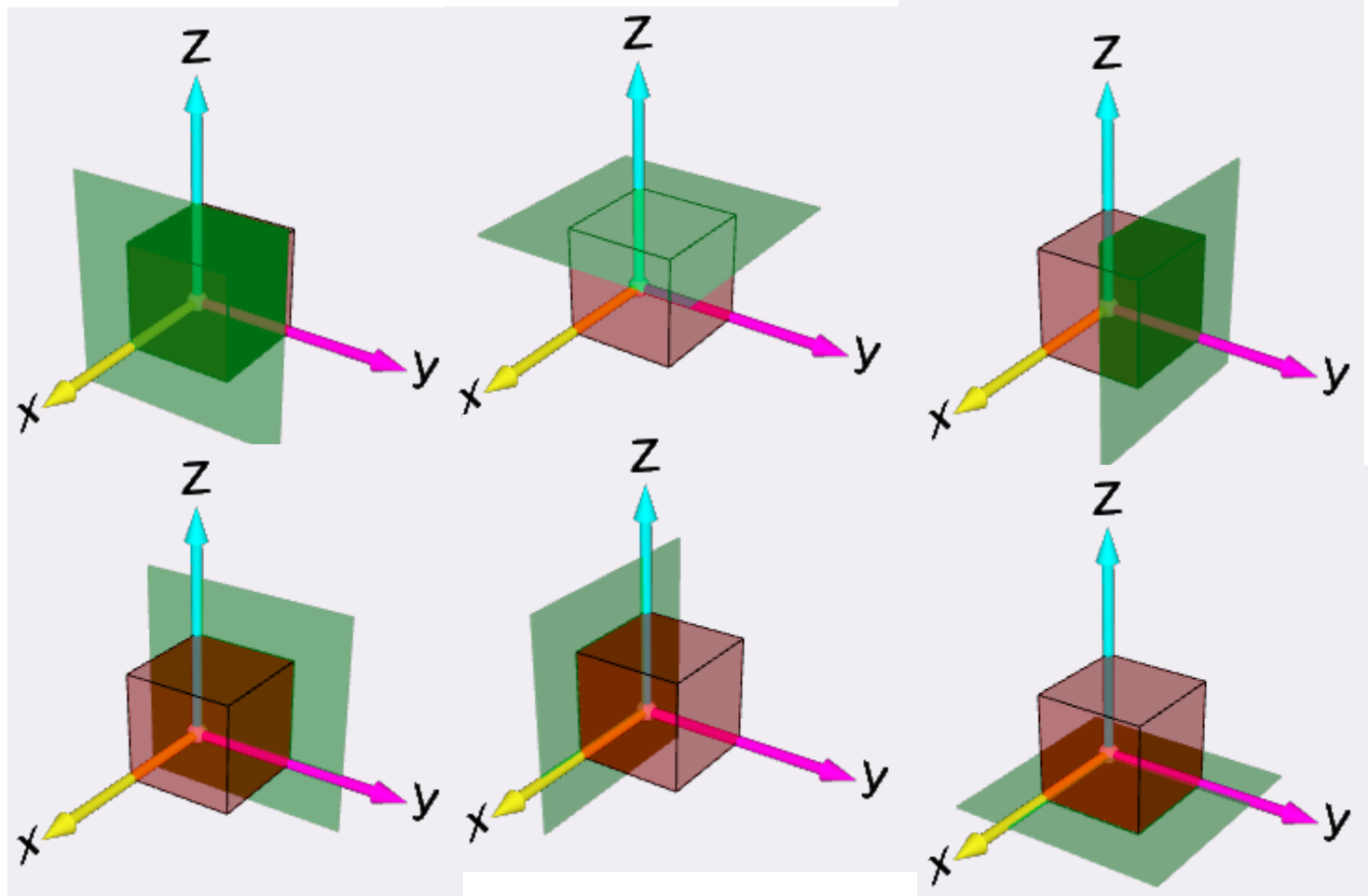
# Planes and Distances

## *Family of Planes*

E.g. {100} family of planes in a cubic system consists of (100), (010), (001), ( $\bar{1}00$ ), ( $0\bar{1}0$ ) and ( $00\bar{1}$ ).

$$a=b=c$$

$$\alpha=\beta=\gamma=90^\circ$$



# Planes and Distances

- If we know the unit cell length, then we can predict the distance between any parallel set of hkl planes.

*General formula for determining the d-spacing...*

$$\frac{1}{d^2} = \frac{1}{V^2} [h^2 b^2 c^2 \sin^2 \alpha + k^2 a^2 c^2 \sin^2 \beta + l^2 a^2 b^2 \sin^2 \gamma + 2hkabc^2 (\cos \alpha \cos \beta - \cos \gamma) + 2kla^2 bc (\cos \beta \cos \gamma - \cos \alpha) + 2hlab^2 c (\cos \alpha \cos \gamma - \cos \beta)].$$

*Considering symmetry....*

Cubic:

$$\frac{1}{d^2} = \frac{h^2 + k^2 + l^2}{a^2}$$

Orthorhombic:

$$\frac{1}{d^2} = \frac{h^2}{a^2} + \frac{k^2}{b^2} + \frac{l^2}{c^2}$$

Tetragonal:

$$\frac{1}{d^2} = \frac{h^2 + k^2}{a^2} + \frac{l^2}{c^2}$$

# Wrap-up

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- Electrons scatter X-rays
- In an ordered array of atoms (a crystal), this leads to constructive and destructive interference.
  - Each type of atom has its own response to X-rays.
  - We observe a diffraction pattern.
    - **Because all atoms are interacting with each other to form the diffraction pattern, every atom can contribute to every Bragg reflection we observe.**
- Bragg determined what conditions were necessary to get diffraction.
- Miller created a notation so that we can define any set of parallel planes.
  - Miller planes, hkl reflections, ....
- If we know the unit cell length, then we can predict the distance between any parallel set of hkl planes.
  - We can then determine at what angle we will see diffraction.
    - We can determine the intensity of that diffraction pattern.
      - We can reverse engineer the atoms and their positions that caused this.
        - We can get a crystal structure!!!!



# Learning Objectives

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**It is now the end of the lecture! Do you know...**

- ✓ Explain the principle of X-ray diffraction and its role in studying crystal structures.
- ✓ Describe Bragg's Law and its role in studying crystal structures.
- ✓ Introduce Miller Indices as a notation system for describing crystal planes and directions.
- ✓ Understand the process of determining Miller Indices for crystal planes.
- ✓ Encourage further exploration and study of crystallography and diffraction.

**???.....Any questions???**

**Huge thank you to Mike Katz for sharing  
his slides!!**

**Questions?**