

4. DIFFUSE SCATTERING AND RELATED TOPICS

the different ordering parameters (for different sites) will include a factor $\exp(2\pi i \mathbf{r}_m \cdot \mathbf{h})$ (see Andersson *et al.*, 1974).

From the above expressions, it is found that the Bragg scattering will affect diffuse scattering from different sources differently: Diffuse scattering from substitutional order will usually be enhanced at low and intermediate angles, whereas scattering from thermal and electronic fluctuations will be reduced at low angles and enhanced at higher angles. This may be used to study substitutional order and displacement order (size effect) separately (Andersson, 1979).

The use of such expressions for quantitative or semi-quantitative interpretation raises several problems. The Bragg scattering effects occur in all diffuse components, in particular the inelastic scattering, which thus may no longer be represented by a smooth, monotonic background. It is best to eliminate this experimentally. When this cannot be done, the experiment should be arranged so as to minimize Kikuchi-line excess/deficient terms, by aligning the incident beam along a not too dense zone. In this way, one may optimize the diffuse-scattering information and minimize the dynamical corrections, which then are used partly as guides to conditions, partly as refinement in calculations.

The multiple scattering of the background remains as the most serious problem. Theoretical expressions for multiple scattering in the absence of Bragg scattering have been available for some time (Moliere, 1948), as a sum of convolution integrals

$$I(\mathbf{u}) = [(\mu)I_1(\mathbf{u}) + (1/2)(\mu)^2 I_2(\mathbf{u}) + \dots] \exp(-\mu), \quad (4.3.4.9)$$

where $I_2(\mathbf{u}) = I_1(\mathbf{u}) * I_1(\mathbf{u}) \dots$ etc., and $I_1(\mathbf{u})$ is normalized.

A complete description of multiple scattering in the presence of Bragg scattering should include Bragg scattering between diffuse scattering at all levels z_1, z_2, \dots etc. This quickly becomes unwieldy. Fortunately, the experimental patterns seem to indicate that this is not necessary: The Kikuchi-line contrast does not appear to be very sensitive to the exact Bragg condition of the incident beam. Høier (1973) therefore introduced Bragg scattering only in the last part of the crystal, *i.e.* between the level z_n and the final thickness z for n -times scattering. He thus obtained the formula:

$$I(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{h}) = \sum_j |C_h^j|^2 \left\{ A_1^j \sum_{g \neq g'} F_1(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{g}') C_g^j C_{g'}^{j*} + \sum_n \sum_g A_{ng}^j F_n(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{g}) |C_g^j|^2 \right\}, \quad (4.3.4.10)$$

where F_n are normalized scattering factors for n th-order multiple diffuse scattering and A_n^j are multiple-scattering coefficients which include absorption.

When the thickness is increased, the variation of $F_n(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{g})$ with angle becomes slower, and an expression for intensity of the channelling pattern is obtained (Gjønnnes & Taftø, 1976):

$$I(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{h}) = \sum_j \sum_g \sum_n |C_h^j|^2 |C_g^j|^2 A_n^j \\ = \sum_j |C_h^j|^2 \sum_n A_n^j \rightarrow |C_h^j|^2 / \mu^j(\mathbf{u}). \quad (4.3.4.11)$$

Another approach is the use of a modified diffusion equation (Ohtsuki *et al.*, 1976).

These expressions seem to reproduce the development of the general background with thickness over a wide range of thicknesses. It may thus appear that the contribution to the diffuse background from known sources can be treated adequately – and that such a procedure must be included together with adequate

filtering of the inelastic component in order to improve the quantitative interpretation of diffuse scattering.

4.3.5. Multislice calculations for diffraction and imaging

The description of dynamical diffraction in terms of the progression of a wave through successive thin slices of a crystal (Chapter 5.2) forms the basis for the multislice method for the calculation of electron-diffraction patterns and electron-microscope images [see Section 4.3.6.1 in *IT C* (2004)]. This method can be applied directly to the calculations of diffuse scattering in electron diffraction due to thermal motion and positional disorder and for calculating the images of defects in crystals.

It is essentially an amplitude calculation based on the formulation of equation (4.3.4.1) [or (4.3.4.2)] for first-order diffuse scattering. The Bragg scattering in the first part of the crystal is calculated using a standard multislice method for the set of beams \mathbf{h} . In the n th slice of the crystal, a diffuse-scattering amplitude $\Psi_d(\mathbf{u})$ is convoluted with the incident set of Bragg beams. For each \mathbf{u} , propagation of the set of beams $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{h}$ is then calculated through the remaining slices of the crystal. The intensities for the exit wave at the set of points $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{h}$ are then calculated by adding either amplitudes or intensities. Amplitudes are added if there is correlation between the defects in successive slices. Intensities are added if there are no such correlations. The process is repeated for all \mathbf{u} values to obtain a complete mapping of the diffuse scattering.

Calculations have been made in this way, for example, for short-range order in alloys [Fisher (1969); see also Cowley (1981) ch. 17] and also for TDS on the assumption of both correlated and uncorrelated atomic motions (Doyle, 1969). The effects of the correlations were shown to be small.

This computing method is not practical for electron-microscope images in which individual defects are to be imaged. The perturbations of the exit wavefunction due to individual defects (vacancies, replaced atoms, displaced atoms) or small groups of defects may then be calculated with arbitrary accuracy by use of the ‘periodic continuation’ form of the multislice computer programs in which an artificial, large, superlattice unit cell is assumed [Section 4.3.6.1 in *IT C* (2004)]. The corresponding images and microdiffraction patterns from the individual defects or clusters may then be calculated (Fields & Cowley, 1978). A more recent discussion of the image calculations, particularly in relation to thermal diffuse scattering, is given by Cowley (1988).

In order to calculate the diffuse-scattering distributions from disordered systems or from a crystal with atoms in thermal motion by the multislice method with periodic continuation, it would be necessary to calculate for a number of different defect configurations sufficiently large to provide an adequate representation of the statistics of the disordered system. However, it has been shown by Cowley & Fields (1979) that, if the single-diffuse-scattering approximation is made, the perturbations of the exit wave due to individual defects are characteristic of the defect type and of the slice number and may be added, so that a considerable simplification of the computing process is possible. Methods for calculating diffuse scattering in electron-diffraction patterns using the multislice approach are described by Tanaka & Cowley (1987) and Cowley (1989). Loane *et al.* (1991) introduced the concept of ‘frozen phonons’ for multislice calculations of thermal scattering.

4.3.6. Qualitative interpretation of diffuse scattering of electrons

Quantitative interpretation of the intensity of diffuse scattering by calculation of *e.g.* short-range-order parameters has been the exception. Most studies have been directed to qualitative features

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and their variation with composition, treatment *etc.* Many features in the scattering which pass unrecognized in extensive X-ray or neutron investigations will be observed readily with electrons, frequently inviting other ways of interpretation.

Most such studies have been concerned with substitutional disorder, but the extensive investigations of thermal streaks by Honjo and co-workers should be mentioned (Honjo *et al.*, 1964). Diffuse spots and streaks from disorder have been observed from a wide range of substances. The most frequent may be streaks due to planar faults, one of the most common objects studied by electron microscopy. Diffraction patterns are usually sufficient to determine the orientation and the fault vector; the positions and distribution of faults are more easily seen by dark-field microscopy, whereas the detailed atomic arrangement is best studied by high-resolution imaging of the structure [Section 4.3.8 in *IT C* (2004)].

This combination of diffraction and different imaging techniques cannot be applied in the same way to the study of the essentially three-dimensional substitutional local order. Considerable effort has therefore been made to interpret the details of diffuse scattering, leaving the determination of the short-range-order (SRO) parameters usually to X-ray or neutron studies.

Frequently, characteristic shapes or splitting of the diffuse spots from *e.g.* binary alloys are observed. They reflect order extending over many atomic distances, and have been assumed to arise from forces other than the near-neighbour pair forces invoked in the theory of local order. A relationship between the diffuse-scattering distribution and the Fourier transform of the effective atom-pair-interaction potential is given by the ordering theory of Clapp & Moss (1968). An interpretation in terms of long-range forces carried by the conduction electrons was proposed by Krivoglaз (1969). Extensive studies of alloy systems (Ohshima & Watanabe, 1973) show that the separations, m , observed in split diffuse spots from many alloys follow the predicted variation with the electron/atom ratio e/a :

$$m = \left[\frac{12}{\pi} (e/a) \right]^{1/3} t - \sqrt{2},$$

where m is measured along the [110] direction in units of $2a^*$ and t is a truncation factor for the Fermi surface.

A similarity between the location of diffuse maxima and the shape of the Fermi surface has been noted also for other structures, notably some defect rock-salt-type structures. Although this may offer a clue to the forces involved in the ordering, it entails no description of the local structure. Several attempts have been made to formulate principles for building the disordered structure, from small ordered domains embedded in less ordered regions (Hashimoto, 1974), by a network of antiphase boundaries, or by building the structure from clusters with the average composition and coordination (De Ridder *et al.*, 1976). Evidence for such models may be sought by computer simulations, in the details of the SRO scattering as seen in electron diffraction, or in images.

The cluster model is most directly tied to the location of diffuse scattering, noting that a relation between order parameters derived from clusters consistent with the ordered state can be used to predict the position of diffuse scattering in the form of surfaces in reciprocal space, *e.g.* the relation $\cos h + \cos k + \cos l = 0$ for ordering of octahedral clusters in the rock-salt-type structure (Sauvage & Parthé, 1974).

Some of the models imply local fluctuations in order which may be observable either by diffraction from very small regions or by imaging. Microdiffraction studies (Tanaka & Cowley, 1985) do indeed show that spots from 1–1.5 nm regions in disordered LiFeO₂ appear on the locus of diffuse maxima observed in diffraction from larger areas.

Imaging of local variations in the SRO structure has been pursued with different techniques (De Ridder *et al.*, 1976; Tanaka & Cowley, 1985; De Meulenaere *et al.*, 1998), *viz.*: dark field using diffuse spots only; bright field with the central spot *plus* diffuse spots; lattice image. With domains of about 3 nm or more, high-resolution images seem to give clear indication of their presence and form. For smaller ordered regions, the interpretation becomes increasingly complex: Since the domains will then usually not extend through the thickness of the foil, they cannot be imaged separately. Since image-contrast calculations essentially demand complete specification of the local structure, a model beyond the statistical description must be constructed in order to be compared with observations. On the other hand, these models of the local structure should be consistent with the statistics derived from diffraction patterns collected from a larger volume.

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