

2.1. LABORATORY X-RAY SCATTERING

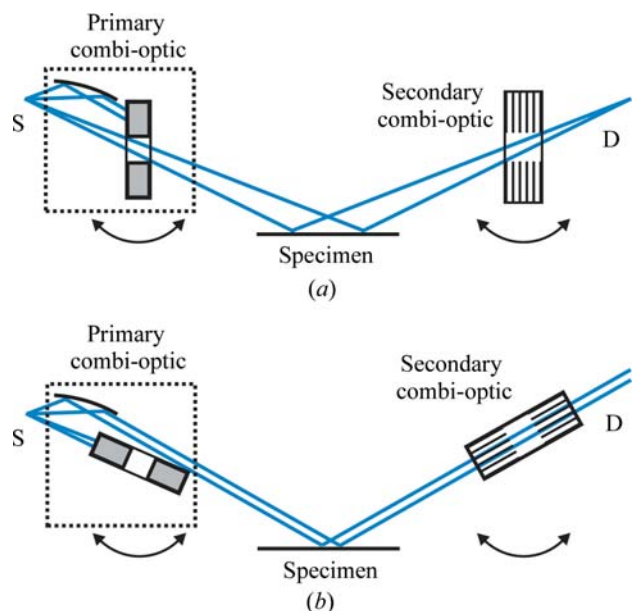


Figure 2.1.23 Incident and diffracted beam combi-optics for switching between (a) the Bragg–Brentano geometry and (b) the parallel-beam geometry. S: X-ray source; D: detector.

separated by a small gap. When turning the two parallel-plate collimators into the beam direction, only those diffracted rays running parallel to the collimator plates will reach the detector (Fig. 2.1.23b). When turning the collimators by approximately 90° , the gap between the two collimators acts as a variable slit enabling a divergent beam (Fig. 2.1.23a).

Significantly more sophisticated combi-optics are used in X-ray diffractometers that are mostly used for thin-film analysis. In Fig. 2.1.24 an example for two different incident-beam and four different diffracted-beam paths is shown, providing the choice between eight different beam paths depending on the properties of the specimen and the application requirements. The incident beam path is characterized by a fixed-target X-ray source equipped with a Göbel mirror, attached on a motorized mount. By rotating this arrangement by about 5° , the beam travels either through a rotary absorber followed by a two-bounce channel-cut monochromator and a slit (upper beam path, high-resolution

setting), or just through a single slit (lower beam path, high-flux setting). The diffracted beam path represents a double-detector setup, typically consisting of a point detector (D1) and a position-sensitive detector (D2). For the point detector three different beam paths can be chosen by means of a switchable slit, which either sends the beam through a three-bounce channel-cut analyser, or through the same two-parallel-plate-collimator arrangement already discussed in Fig. 2.1.23, either acting as a parallel-plate collimator or a variable slit. A fourth beam path without any diffracted-beam X-ray optics allows use of the position-sensitive detector.

2.1.7. X-ray detectors

The general concepts of X-ray detectors are described here with the focus on practical aspects. The physics of X-ray detection and the individual detector technologies are extensively covered in the literature. He (2009) gives a comprehensive discussion that also includes the most recent detector technologies. Additional detailed descriptions are found in *International Tables for Crystallography* Vol. C (2004), as well as in the textbooks by Pecharsky & Zavalij (2009), Clearfield *et al.* (2008), Paganin (2006), Jenkins & Snyder (1996), and Klug & Alexander (1974).

2.1.7.1. Detector parameters

There are many ways to characterize the properties and performance of an X-ray detector.

Ideally, in a given detector operated under appropriate conditions, (1) each photon will produce a detectable signal and (2) the signal recorded is proportional to the number of photons detected. If both conditions are fulfilled then the detector has unit *quantum efficiency*. The *detective quantum efficiency* (DQE) may be defined as the squared ratio of the output signal-to-noise ratio to the input signal-to-noise ratio, expressed as a percentage. A detector's DQE is generally less than 100% because there is always detector noise and not every photon is detected. The DQE thus depends on the characteristics of the detector (*e.g.* transmission of the detector window, count rates and dead time, *etc.*) and varies with the X-ray energy for the same detector.

The *detector linearity* determines the accuracy of intensity measurements and depends on the ratio between the photon

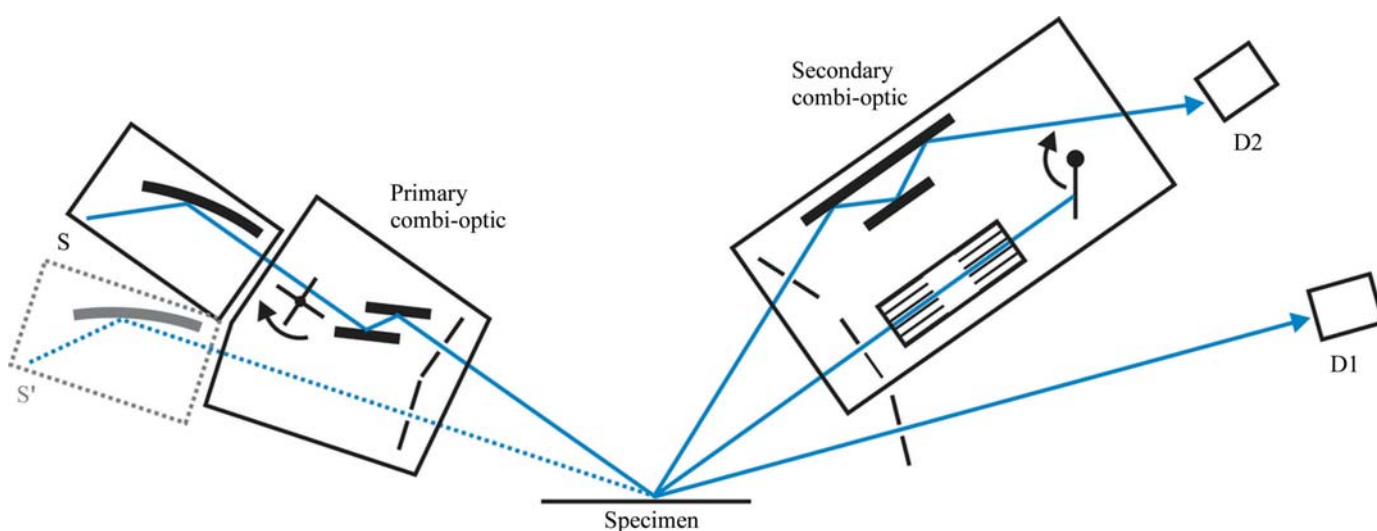


Figure 2.1.24 Example of the use of highly sophisticated incident- and diffracted-beam combi-optics in combination with a rotatable X-ray source and a double detector arm. This setup enables two different incident-beam and four different diffracted-beam paths, and thus provides a choice between eight different beam paths, depending on the properties of the specimen and the requirements of the application. S: X-ray source, S': X-ray source rotated by about 5° , D1, D2: detectors.