

4. DIFFUSE SCATTERING AND RELATED TOPICS

In practice the molecules perform more or less finite librations about the main orientation. The structure factor may then be found by the method of symmetry-adapted functions [see, *e.g.*, Press (1973), Press & Hüller (1973), Dolling *et al.* (1979), Prandl (1981, and references therein)].

$$\langle F \rangle = \sum_k f_k 4\pi \sum_{\nu} \sum_{\mu=-\nu}^{+\nu} i^{\nu} j_{\nu}(\mathbf{H} \cdot \mathbf{r}_k) C_{\nu\mu}^{(k)} Y_{\nu\mu}(\theta, \varphi). \quad (4.2.4.98)$$

$j_{\nu}(z)$ is the ν th order of spherical Bessel functions, the coefficients $C_{\nu\mu}^{(k)}$ characterize the angular distribution of \mathbf{r}_k , $Y(\theta, \varphi)$ are the spherical harmonics where $|\mathbf{H}|, \theta, \varphi$ denote polar coordinates of \mathbf{H} .

The general case of an arbitrary crystal, site and molecular symmetry and the case of several symmetrically equivalent orientationally disordered molecules per unit cell are treated by Prandl (1981); an example is given by Hohlwein *et al.* (1986). As mentioned above, cubic plastic crystals are common and therefore mostly studied up to now. The expression for $\langle F \rangle$ may then be formulated as an expansion in cubic harmonics, $K_{\nu\mu}(\theta, \varphi)$:

$$\langle F \rangle = \sum_k f_k 4\pi \sum_{\nu} \sum_{\mu} i^{\nu} j_{\nu}(\mathbf{H} \cdot \mathbf{r}_k) C'_{\nu\mu} K_{\nu\mu}(\theta, \varphi). \quad (4.2.4.99)$$

($C'_{\nu\mu}$ are modified expansion coefficients.)

Taking into account isotropic centre-of-mass translational displacements, which are not correlated with the librations, we obtain:

$$\langle F' \rangle = \langle F \rangle \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{6} H^2 \langle U^2 \rangle\right\}. \quad (4.2.4.100)$$

U is the mean-square translational displacement of the molecule. Correlations between translational and vibrational displacements are treated by Press *et al.* (1979).

Equivalent expressions for crystals with symmetry other than cubic may be found from the same concept of symmetry-adapted functions [tables are given by Bradley & Cracknell (1972)].

4.2.4.5.3. Short-range correlations

The final terms in equations (4.2.4.90) and (4.2.4.93) concern correlations between the orientations of different molecules. Detailed evaluations need a knowledge of a particular model. Examples are compounds with nitrate groups (Wong *et al.*, 1984; Lefebvre *et al.*, 1984), CBr_4 (More *et al.*, 1980, 1984), and many others (see Sherwood, 1979). The situation is even more complicated when a modulation wave with respect to the occupation of different molecular orientations is superimposed. A limiting case would be a box-like function describing a pattern of domains. Within one domain all molecules have the same orientation. This situation is common in ferroelectrics where molecules exhibit a permanent dipole moment. The modulation may occur in one or more directions in space. The observed intensity in this type of orientationally disordered crystal is characterized by a system of more or less diffuse satellite reflections. The general scattering theory of a crystal with occupational modulation waves follows the same lines as outlined in Section 4.2.3.1.

4.2.5. Measurement of diffuse scattering

To conclude this chapter experimental aspects are summarized which are specifically important in diffuse-scattering work. The summary is restricted to film methods commonly used in laboratories and (X-ray or neutron) diffractometer measurements. Sophisticated special techniques and instruments at synchrotron facilities and reactors dedicated to diffuse-scattering work are not described here. The full merit of these machines may be assessed

after inspection of corresponding user handbooks which are available upon request. Also excluded from this section are instruments and methods related to diffuse scattering at low angles, *i.e.* small-angle scattering techniques. Although no fundamental differences exist between an X-ray experiment in a laboratory and at a synchrotron facility, some specific points have to be considered in the latter case. These are discussed by Matsubara & Georgopoulos (1985), Oshima & Harada (1986), and Ohshima *et al.* (1986).

Generally, diffuse scattering is weak in comparison with Bragg scattering, anisotropically and inhomogeneously distributed in reciprocal space, elastic, inelastic, or quasi-elastic in origin. It is frequently related to more than one structural element, which means that different parts may show different behaviour in reciprocal space and/or on an energy scale. Therefore special care has to be taken concerning the following points: (1) type of experiment: X-rays or neutrons, film or diffractometer/spectrometer, single crystal or powder; (2) strong sources; (3) best choice of wavelength (or energy) of incident radiation if no 'white' technique is used; (4) monochromatic and focusing techniques; (5) sample environment and background reduction; (6) resolution and scanning procedure in diffractometer or densitometer recording.

On undertaking an investigation of a disorder problem by an analysis of the diffuse scattering an overall picture should first be recorded by X-ray diffraction experiments. Several sections through reciprocal space help to define the problem. For this purpose film methods are preferable. Cameras with relatively short crystal-film distances avoid long exposure times. Unfortunately, there are some disorder problems which cannot be tackled by X-ray methods. X-rays are rather insensitive for the elucidation of disorder problems where light atoms in the presence of heavy atoms play the dominant role, or when elements are involved which scarcely differ in X-ray scattering amplitudes (*e.g.* Al/Si/Mg). In these cases neutrons have to be used at an early stage. If a significant part of the diffuse scattering is suspected not to be of static origin concomitant purely elastic, quasi-elastic or inelastic neutron experiments have to be planned from the very beginning.

Because diffuse scattering is usually weak, intense radiation sources are needed, whereas the background level should be kept as low as possible. Coming to the background problem later, we should make some brief remarks concerning sources. Even a normal modern X-ray tube is a stronger source, defined by the flux density from an anode (number of photons $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$), than a reactor with the highest available flux. For this reason most experimental work which can be performed with X-rays should be. Generally the characteristic spectrum will be used, but special methods have been developed where the white X-ray spectrum is of interest (see below). A most powerful source in this respect is a modern synchrotron storage ring (see, *e.g.*, Kunz, 1979). With respect to rotating anodes one should bear in mind not only the power but also the flux density, because there is little merit for a broad focus in diffuse-scattering work (separation of sharp and diffuse scattering). One can suppose that synchrotron radiation in the X-ray range will also play an important role in the field of monochromatic diffraction methods, owing to the extremely high brilliance of these sources (number of quanta $\text{cm}^{-2}, \text{sr}^{-1}, \text{s}^{-1}$ and wavelength interval). Diffuse neutron-diffraction work may only be performed on a high- or medium-flux reactor. Highly efficient monochromator systems are necessary. In combination with time-of-flight neutron methods pulsed sources are nowadays equivalent to reactors (Windsor, 1982).

If film and (X-ray) diffractometer methods are compared, film techniques are highly recommended at an early stage to give a general survey of the disorder problem. Routine X-ray techniques such as rotation photographs, Weissenberg or precession techniques may be used. The Weissenberg method is preferred to the