can receive X-rays only from the specimen area. They must be carefully aligned to avoid touching the beam.

The use of the long X-ray source makes it necessary to reduce the axial divergence, which would cause very large asymmetry. This is done with two sets of thin (25 to 50 μm) parallel metallic foils PS ('Soller slits'; Soller, 1924) placed before and after the specimen. If a monochromator is used, the set on the side of the monochromator is not essential because the crystal reduces the divergence. The angular aperture of a set of slits is

$$\delta = 2 \arctan (\text{spacing/length}). \qquad (2.3.1.7)$$

The overall width of the set and δ determine the width of the specimen irradiated in the axial direction, which remains constant at all 2θ's. The construction is illustrated in Fig. 2.3.1.5(*d*). The aperture δ is usually 2 to 5°. Each set of parallel slits reduces the intensity; for example, with 12.5 mm long foils with 1 mm spacings, the intensity is about one-half of that without the parallel slits. The aperture can be selected with any combination of spacings and lengths but the greater the length, the fewer foils are needed, and the less is the intensity loss due to thickness of the metal foils (usually 0.025 mm). These slits can be made as interchangeable units of different apertures.

2.3.1.1.2. *Use of monochromators*

Many diffractometers are equipped with a curved highly-oriented pyrolytic graphite monochromator placed after the receiving slit as shown in Fig. 2.3.1.3. Although graphite has a large mosaic spread (~ 0.35 to 0.6°), the diffracted beam from the specimen is defined by the receiving slit, which determines the profile shape and width rather than the monochromator. The same results are obtained whether the monochromator is set in the parallel or antiparallel position with respect to the specimen. The most important advantage of graphite is its high reflectivity, which is about 25–50% for Cu $K\alpha$. This is much higher than LiF, Si or quartz monochromators that have been used for powder diffraction. The $K\beta$ filter and the parallel slits in the diffracted beam can be eliminated and, since each reduces the $K\alpha$ intensity by about a factor of two, the use of a graphite monochromator actually increases the available intensity. The diffracted-beam monochromator eliminates specimen fluorescence and the scattered background whose wavelengths are different from that of the monochromator setting. For example, a Cu tube can be used for specimens containing Co, Fe, or other elements with absorption edges at longer wavelengths than Cu $K\alpha$ to produce patterns with low background. Several monochromator geometries are described by Lang (1956).

A specimen in the reflection mode may be used with an incident-beam monochromator and θ–2θ scanning as shown in Fig. 2.3.1.1(*c*). One of the principal advantages is that it is possible to adjust the monochromator and slits to remove the $K\alpha_2$ component and produce patterns with only $K\alpha_1$ peaks. The profile symmetry, resolution and instrument function are thus greatly improved; see, for example, Warren (1969), Wölfel (1981), Göbel (1982) and Louër & Langford (1988). The high-quality crystal required causes a large loss of intensity and reduces specimen fluorescence but does not eliminate it. However, Soller slits in the incident beam and a β filter are no longer required and the net loss of intensity can be as low as 20%. Such monochromators can now be provided as standard by diffractometer manufacturers and their use is increasing, but they are not as widely used as the diffracted-beam monochromator.

2.3.1.1.3. *Alignment and angular calibration*

It is essential to align and calibrate the diffractometer properly. Failure to do so degrades the performance of the instrument, leading to a loss of intensity and resolution, increased background, incorrect profile shapes, and errors that cannot be readily diagnosed. Procedures and devices for this purpose are often provided by the manufacturer. The principles and mechanical devices to aid in making a proper alignment have been described by Parrish & Lowitzsch (1959) and the general procedure by Klug & Alexander (1974, p. 280).

The alignment requires setting the diffractometer axis of rotation to the selected X-ray tube take-off angle at a distance equal to the radius of the diffractometer. The long axes of the X-ray tube focal line, entrance, receiving, and antiscatter slits must be centred, be parallel to the axis of rotation, and lie in the same plane when the instrument is at 0°. The slits are made parallel to the axis of rotation in the manufacture of the diffractometer, and these steps require positioning of the instrument with respect to the line focus. The parallel-slit foils must also be normal to the rotation axis. A *flat* fluorescent screen made as a specimen to fit into the diffractometer specimen post is used to centre the primary beam by small movements of the ES and/or diffractometer. The diffracted beam can be centred on the curved monochromator with a narrow slit placed at the centre of the monochromator position (with the monochromator removed). The detector arm is then moved to the highest intensity. The procedure is repeated with the receiving slit in position. This is very close to the 0° position described below.

The angular calibration of the diffractometer is usually made by accurately measuring the 0° position to establish a fiducial point. It assumes that the gear system is accurate and that the receiving-slit arm moves exactly to the angle indicated on the scale at all 2θ positions. The determination of the angular precision of the gear train requires special equipment and methods; see, for example, Jenkins & Schreiner (1986). It is

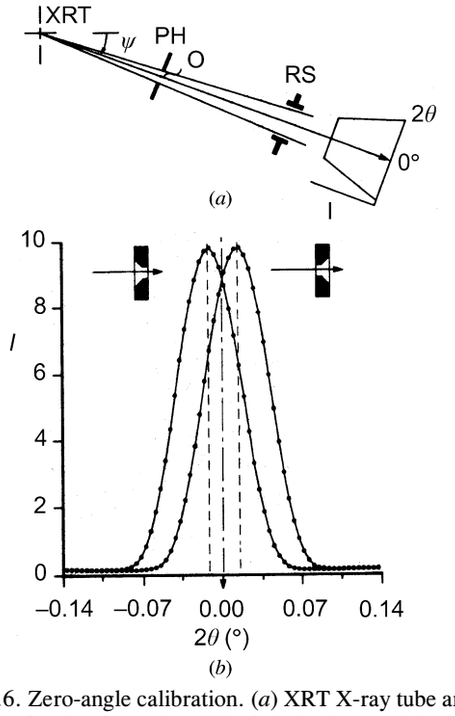

Fig. 2.3.1.6. Zero-angle calibration. (*a*) XRT X-ray tube anode, ψ take-off angle, *O* axis of rotation, PH pinhole, RS receiving slit. Intensity distribution at right. (*b*) 0° position is median of two curves recorded with 180° rotation of PH.

essential that the setting of the worm against the gear wheel be adjusted for smooth operation. In practice, this is a compromise between minimum backlash and jerky movement. The backlash can be avoided by scanning in the same direction and running the diffractometer beyond the starting angle before beginning the data collection. Incremental angle encoders have been used when very high precision is required.

The 0° position of the diffractometer scale, $2\theta_0$, can be determined with a pinhole placed in the specimen post as shown in Fig. 2.3.1.6(*a*) (Parrish & Lowitzsch, 1959). The receiving slit is step scanned in 0.01° or smaller increments and the midpoints of chords at various heights are used to determine the angle. To avoid mis-centring errors of the pin-hole, two measurements are made with the specimen post rotated 180° between measurements. The median angle of the two plots is the 0° position as shown in Fig. 2.3.1.6(*b*) and the diffractometer scale is then reset to this position. The shape of the curves is determined by the relative sizes of the pinhole and the receiving-slit width. With care, the position can be located to about 0.001°. The $2\theta_0$ position can be corrected by using it as a variable in the least-squares refinement of the lattice parameter of a standard specimen.

Another method measures the peak angles of a number of reflections on both sides of 0°, which is equivalent to measuring 4θ. This method may be mechanically impossible with some diffractometers.

The θ–2θ setting of the specimen post is made with the diffractometer locked in the predetermined 0° position and manually (or with a stepping motor) rotating the post to the maximum intensity. A flat plate can be used as illustrated in Fig. 2.3.1.7(*a*). The setting can be made to a small fraction of a degree. Fig. 2.3.1.7(*b*) shows the effect of incorrect θ–2θ setting, which combines with the flat-specimen aberration to cause a marked broadening and decrease of peak height but no apparent shift in peak position (Parrish, 1958). The effect increases with decreasing θ and could cause systematic errors in the peak intensities as well as incorrect profile broadening.

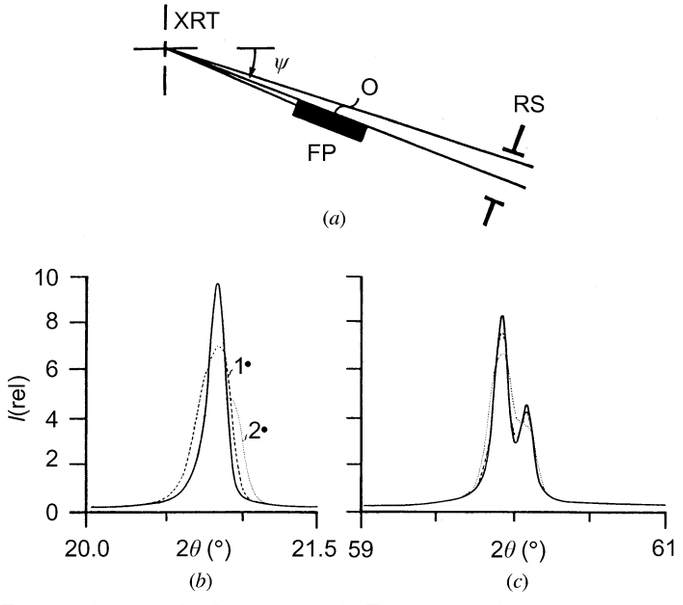

Fig. 2.3.1.7. (*a*) θ–2θ setting at 0°. Flat plate or long narrow slit is rotated to position of highest intensity. (*b*) and (*c*) Profiles obtained with correct θ–2θ setting (solid profile) and 1 and 2° mis-settings (dashed profiles) at (*b*) 21° and (*c*) 60° (2θ).

2.3.1.1.4. *Instrument broadening and aberrations*

The asymmetric form, broadening and angular shifts of the recorded profiles arise from the $K\alpha$ doublet and geometrical aberrations inherent in the imperfect focusing of the particular diffractometer method used. There are additional causes of distortions such as the time constant and scanning speed in rate-meter strip-chart recording, small crystallite size, strain, disorder stacking and similar properties of the specimen, and very small effects due to refractive index and related physical aberrations.

Perfect focusing in the sense of reflection from a mirror is never realized in powder diffractometry. The focusing is approximate (sometimes called 'parafocusing') and the practical selection of the instrument geometry and slit sizes is a compromise between intensity, resolution, and profile shape. Increasing the resolution causes a loss of intensity. When setting up a diffractometer, the effects of the various instrument and specimen factors should be taken into account as well as the required precision of the results so that they can be matched. There is no advantage in using high resolution, which increases the recording time (because of the lower intensity and smaller step increments), if the analysis does not require it. A set of runs to determine the best experimental conditions using the following descriptions as a guide should be helpful in obtaining the most useful results.

In the symmetrical geometries where the incident and reflected beams make the same angle with the specimen surface, the effect of absorption on the intensity is independent of the θ angle. This is an important advantage since the relative intensities can be compared directly without corrections. The actual intensities depend on the type of specimen. For a solid block of the material, or a compacted powder specimen, the intensity is proportional to μ^{-1}, where μ is the linear absorption coefficient of the material. The transparency aberration [equation (2.3.1.13)], however, depends on the effective absorption coefficient of the composite specimen.

The need to correct the experimental data for the various aberrations depends on the nature of the required analysis. For example, simple phase identifications can often be made using data in which the uncertainty of the lattice spacing $\Delta d/d$ is of the order of 1/1000, corresponding to about 0.025 to 0.05° precision in the useful identification range. This is readily attainable in routine practice if care is taken to minimize specimen displacement and the zero-angle calibration is properly carried out. The experimental data can then be used directly for peak search (Subsection 2.3.3.7) to determine the peak angles and intensities (Subsection 2.3.3.5) and the data entered in the search/match program for phase identification.

However, in many of the more advanced aspects of powder diffraction, as in crystal-structure determination and the characterization of materials for solid-state studies, much more detailed and more precise data are required, and this involves attention to the profile shapes. The following sections describe the origin of the instrumental factors that contribute to the shapes and shift the peaks from their correct positions. Many of these factors can be handled individually. With the use of computer programs, they can be determined collectively by using a standard sample without profile broadening and profile-fitting methods to determine the shapes (Subsection 2.3.3.6). The resulting instrument function can then be stored and used to determine the contribution of the specimen to the observed profiles.

A series of papers describing the geometrical and physical aberrations occurring in powder diffractometry has been

references