

# Precise Parameter measurements

## Introduction

- The change in solute concentration or temperature produce only a small change in lattice parameter → **precise parameter measurements is needed to measure these quantities with any accuracy.**
- The parameter “a” of **cubic substances** is directly proportional to the spacing “d” of any particular set of lattice planes:

$$d_{hkl} = \frac{a}{\sqrt{h^2 + k^2 + l^2}}$$

- Measuring Bragg-angle  $\theta$  for this set of planes → determining “d” → calculating “a”
- But  $\sin\theta$  not  $\theta$  appears in Bragg law → **precision in “d” or “a” depends on precision in  $\sin\theta$  (a derived quantity) and not precision in  $\theta$  (measured quantity).**

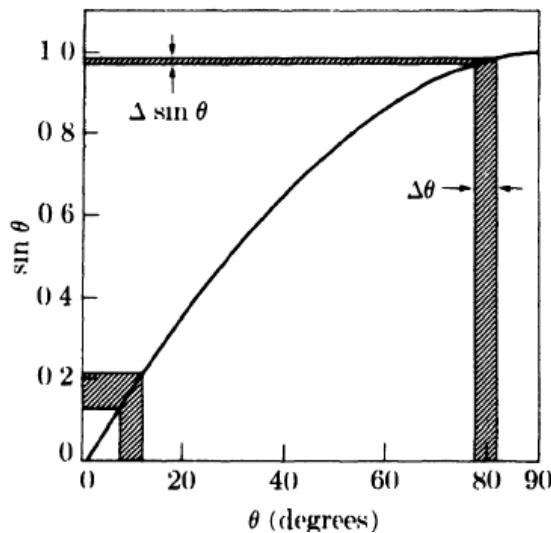


Fig. 1 The error in  $\sin \theta$  caused by a given error in  $\theta$  decreases as  $\theta$  increases

- Angular position is more sensitive to a given change in plane spacing “d” when  $\theta$  is large compared to small  $\theta$ .

In cubic system:

$$\frac{\Delta a}{a} = \frac{\Delta d}{d} = -\cot\theta \Delta\theta$$

If  $\theta \rightarrow 90^\circ$  (**backward-reflected**) then  $\cot\theta \rightarrow 0$

$\frac{\Delta a}{a}$  is the fractional error in a

→ precision in parameter in the use of **backward-reflected** beam having  $2\theta$  at near  $180^\circ$  (not possible to see reflection at this angle of  $180^\circ$ )

- Not possible to see reflection at  $2\theta = 180^\circ$  → **extrapolating** to  $2\theta=180^\circ$  on plot of  $2\theta$  vs. “a”
- **certain function of  $2\theta$  ( $\sin^2\theta$  or  $\cos^2\theta$ ) with “a” will be linear**
- By selecting the parameter from highest-angle line → precision  $\sim 0.01\text{\AA}$  → since “a” for most substances is around  $3\text{-}4\text{\AA}$  then precision  $\sim 0.3\%$
- **With a good experimental technique and extrapolation function → the precision will be  $\sim 0.001\text{\AA}$  or  $0.03\%$  without much difficulty.**
- The general approach in finding an **extrapolation function**: considering the various effects leading to **errors in measured values of  $\theta$**  and how these errors in  $\theta$  vary with the angle  $\theta$  itself.

## Errors in the measurements of a lattice parameter

- two kinds of errors are involved: **systematic and random**
- **Systematic errors**: vary in a regular manner with some particular parameter  
→ film shrinkage, incorrect radius, off-center specimen and absorption are all systematic errors  
→ they vary in regular way with  $\theta$
- **Random errors**: are the ordinary chance errors involved in any direct observation  
→ error in measuring the position of the various lines on the film  
→ they may be positive or negative and do not vary in any regular manner with the position of the line on the film.
- The systematic errors in “a” approach zero as  $\theta$  approach  $90^\circ$   
→ the magnitude of these errors is proportional to slope of the extrapolation line (see Fig 2a)
- The random errors are responsible for deviation of the various points from the extrapolation line (see Fig. 2b).

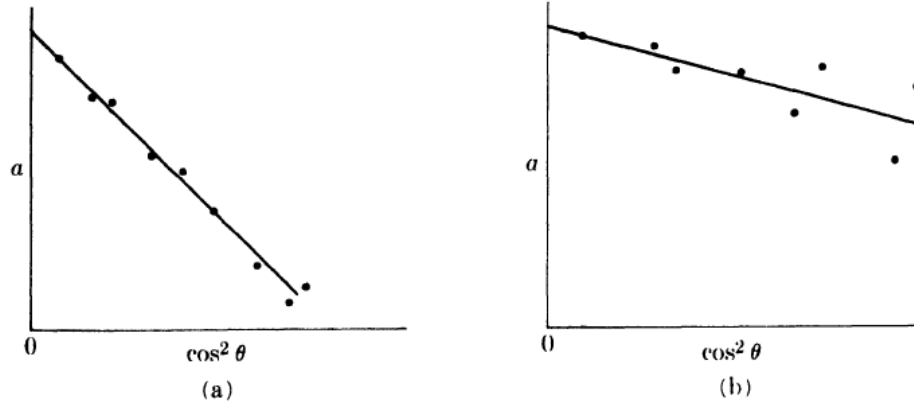
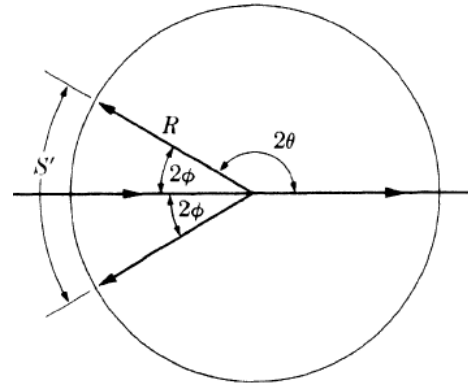


Fig. 2 The schematic of extrapolation curves. (a): larger symmetric errors , small random errors. (b): small systematic errors, large random errors.

### Debye-Scherrer camera

The sources of error in  $\theta$  are:

- Film shrinkage
- Incorrect camera radius
- Absorption in specimen
- The overall error is given by



$$\Delta\phi_{S',R,C,A} = \left(\frac{\Delta S'}{S'} - \frac{\Delta R}{R}\right)\phi + \frac{\Delta x}{R}\sin\phi \cos\phi$$

Where,  $S'$  is the distance on the film between two corresponding back-reflection lines.  $2\phi$  is supplement of  $2\theta$  and  $\phi = S'/4R$ .  $\Delta x$  is displacement of the specimen from the camera center in parallel to the incident beam.  $R$  is the camera radius.

$$\phi = 90^\circ - \theta, \Delta\phi = -\Delta\theta, \sin\phi = \cos\theta \text{ and } \cos\phi = \sin\theta$$

- After some calculation ....→

$$\frac{\Delta d}{d} = K \cos^2 \theta$$

$$\text{where } K \text{ is constant } K = \left(\frac{\Delta S'}{S'} - \frac{\Delta R}{R} + \frac{\Delta x}{R}\right)$$

→ Fractional error in “d” are directly proportional to  $\cos^2 \theta$

- In cubic system →

$$\frac{\Delta a}{a} = \frac{\Delta d}{d} = \frac{a-a_0}{a_0} = K \cos^2 \theta$$

$$a = a_0 + a_0 k \cos^2 \theta \quad (1)$$

- The true value of “a” can be found by extrapolating the straight line to  $\cos^2 \theta = 0$
- From various approximation involved in the derivation of this Equation (1) it is clear that this Equation is true for large values of  $\theta$ . (the angles larger than  $60^\circ$  should be used in extrapolation).
- **Nelson- and Riley analyzed the various sources of error, particularly absorption, and showed that the relation**

$$\frac{\Delta d}{d} = k \left( \frac{\cos^2 \theta}{\sin \theta} + \frac{\cos^2 \theta}{\theta} \right)$$

holds quite accurately down to very low values of  $\theta$  and not just at high angles.

the bracketed terms are called the **Nelson-Riley function**.

- The value of “a<sub>0</sub>” can be found by plotting “a” against the N-R function, which approaches zero as  $\theta$  approaches  $90^\circ$ .

## Diffractionmetres

Source of systematic errors:

1. Misalignment; 2. Use of flat specimen instead of specimen curved to conform to the focusing circle; 3. Absorption; 4. displacement of the sample from diffractometer axis.

Ab error in d given by :

$$\frac{\Delta d}{d} = \left( -\frac{D \cos^2 \theta}{R \sin \theta} \right)$$

- Where D is the specimen displacement parallel to the reflecting-plane normal and R is the diffractometer radius

## Method of least squares

- The accuracy of measuring lattice parameter depends on the **accuracy of a straight line** drawing through a set of experimental points, each of which is subject to random errors.  
 → an analytical method is needed to find the best fitted line  
 → **method of least squares**
- **If a number of measurements are made of the same physical quantity and if these measurements are subject only to random errors, then the theory of least squares**

**states that the most probable value of the measured quantity is that which makes the sum of the squares of the errors a minimum.**

- Suppose: the various points have coordinates  $x_1 y_1, x_2 y_2, \dots$  and  $x$  and  $y$  are related by an Equation of :  $y = a + bx$

→ The first experimental point has a value of  $y=y_1$

→ the error in the first point:  $e_1=(a+bx_1) - y_1$

→ the sum of the squares of these errors:

$$\sum (e^2) = (a + bx_1 - y_1)^2 + (a + bx_2 - y_2)^2 + \dots$$

- The theory of least squares

→ the best  $a$  from differentiating with respect to  $a$

$$\frac{\partial \sum (e^2)}{\partial a} = 2(a + bx_1 - y_1)^1 + 2(a + bx_2 - y_2)^1 + \dots = 0$$

$$\sum a + b \sum x - \sum y = 0$$

→ the best  $b$  from differentiating with respect to  $b$

$$a \sum x + b \sum x^2 - \sum xy = 0$$

These are normal equations.

Simultaneous solution of these two Equations → give  $a$  and  $b$

- The normal equation are :

$$\sum y = \sum a + b \sum x$$

$$\sum xy = a \sum x + b \sum x^2$$