

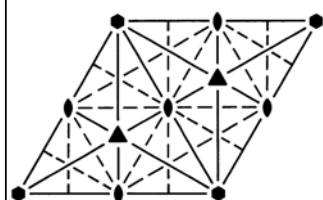
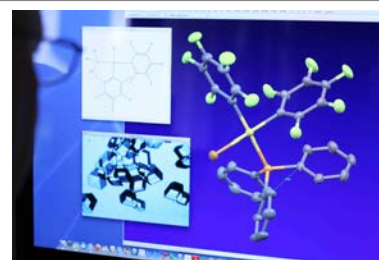


University of
Zurich^{UZH}

Department of Chemistry



Fundamentals of Diffraction



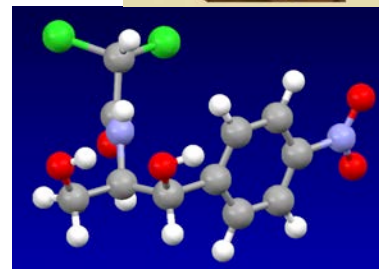
Anthony Linden



7th European Crystallography School

Lisbon

July 10-15, 2022



Crystallography spans science

- **Chemistry, physics, mathematics**
- Mineralogy, geology
- Materials science
- Biochemistry
- Biological sciences
- Pharmaceutical sciences
- Medical sciences

Crystallography

- **Chemical crystallography**
(focus on small-molecule single-crystal crystallography)
- Macromolecular crystallography
- Powder diffraction
- Fibre diffraction
- Quasi-crystals
- Aperiodic structures
- Incommensurate structures

Chemical Crystallography

- Answering chemical questions

We will discuss...

- How to get the most out of a crystal structure
- What we can do
- What we cannot do
- Principles of diffraction – how it works
- Unit cells, crystal systems, lattices
- Symmetry, point groups
- Systematic absences, space groups

Crystallographic Parameters

space group	P-1	crystal description	orange block
a , Å	6.3358(7)	θ range, deg	2.94 to 30.45
b , Å	8.6054(9)	index ranges	-8<= h <=9
c , Å	11.6427(13)		-12<= k <=11
α , deg	91.015(13)°		-16<= l <=16
β , deg	94.877(13)°	total no. of data	7400
γ , deg	102.005(13)°	no. of unique data, R_{int}	3413, 0.0529
V , Å ³	618.25(12)	observed data ^a	2456
Z	2	max. / min. transmission	0.6116 / 0.4486
ρ_{calcd} , g/cm ³	2.532	data / restraints / parameters	3413 / 0 / 155
μ (Mo K α), mm ⁻¹	13.059	goodness of-fit on F ²	0.927
F(000)	432	$R^{a,b}$	0.0457
crystal size, mm ³	0.06 x 0.05 x 0.04	$wR^2^{a,c}$	0.1090
		max, min peaks, e/Å ³	1.756 / -2.130

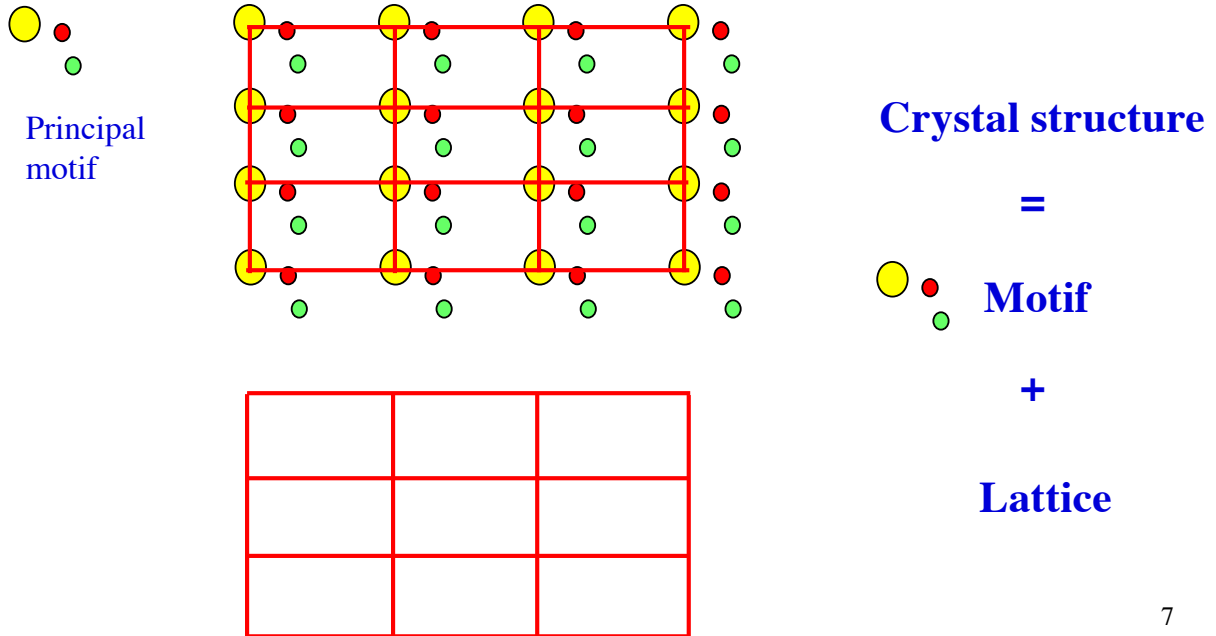
^a Observation criterion: $I > 2\sigma(I)$. ^b $R = \sum ||F_o| - |F_c|| / \sum |F_o|$. ^c $wR^2 = \{ \sum [w(F_o^2 - F_c^2)^2] / \sum [w(F_o^2)^2] \}^{1/2}$.

Why do a crystal structure analysis?

- Understand materials in the solid state
- Chemical and structural identity
- Molecular / structural geometry » electronic structure
- Molecular interactions (H-bonds, C-H...O, etc.)
- Molecular conformation & configuration
- Graphical depiction
- Phase transitions, polymorphism
- Correlation between atomic structure and macroscopic crystal orientation

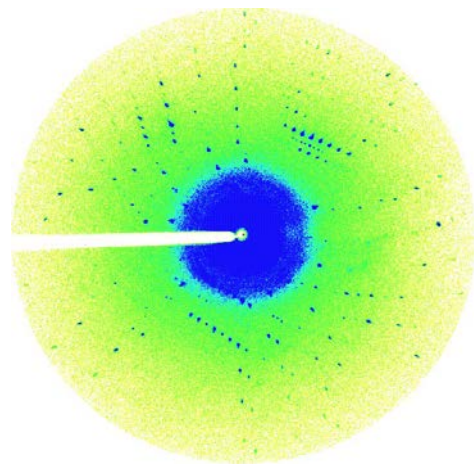
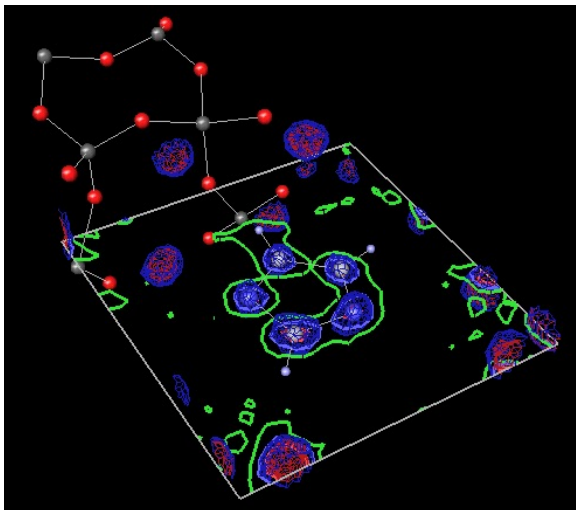
Construction of a Crystal

A crystal is a regularly repeating arrangement of atoms, molecules, or some structural motif.



Why Crystals?

- The regularly repeating arrangement acts as a tiny diffraction grating.
- The diffraction pattern delivers the most useful information if the crystal is SINGLE and of high quality.

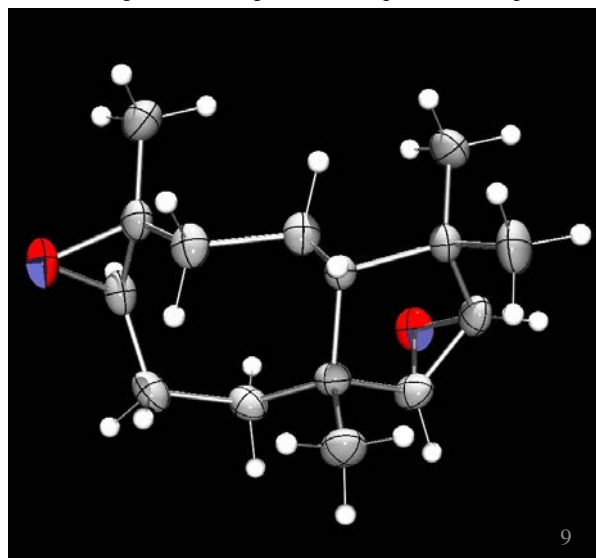
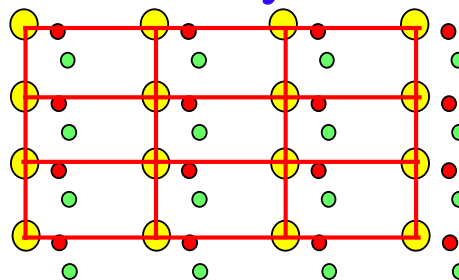


- From the diffraction pattern one can calculate a 3-D map of electron density and so derive the crystal structure (non-trivial).

X-ray Crystal Structure Analysis

The crystal structure yields...

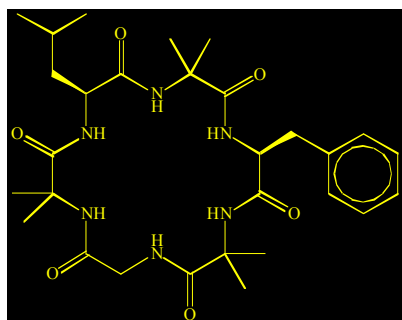
- 3-D molecular & extended lattice structure.
- The smallest repeating unit is often the chemically interesting moiety - molecule.
- A crystal structure determination is the “definitive” analysis.



What am I looking at?

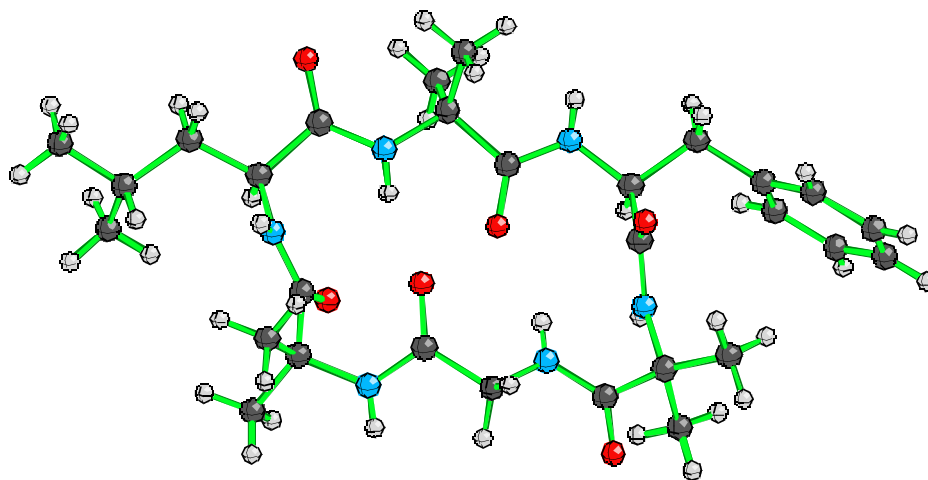
- 3-D electron density map
- You can “see” the molecule
- The “definitive” analysis
- IR, MS, NMR, elemental analyses...
 - ◆ give only part of the picture
 - ◆ spectra must be interpreted

Obtain a 3-D image of molecule



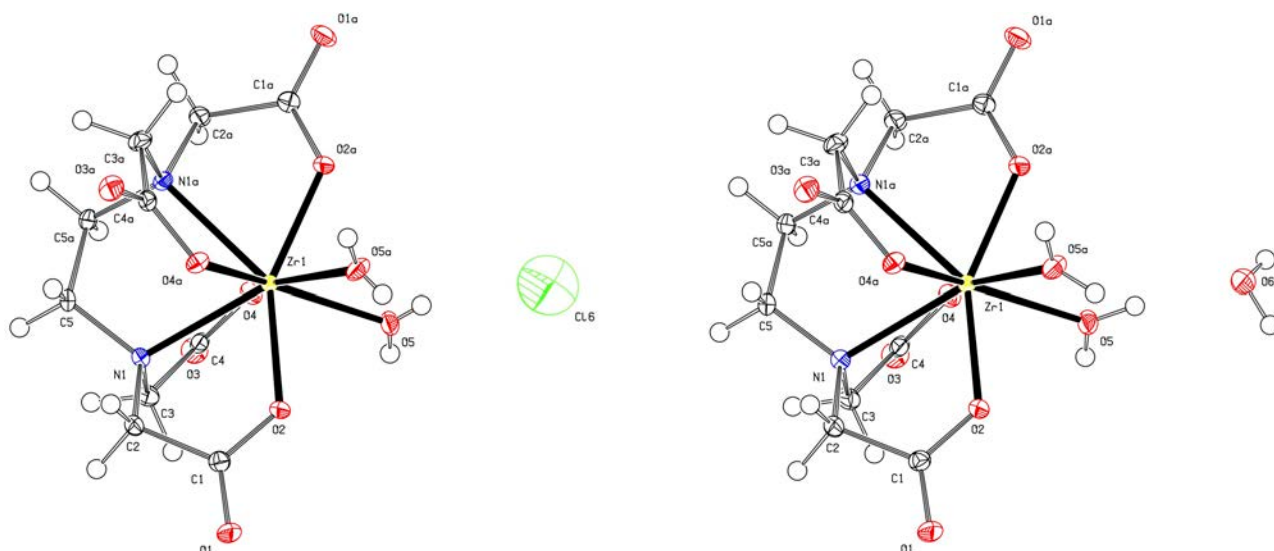
Chemist's 2-D
notation...

and reality



The “definitive” analysis

– when combined with logical chemical reasoning




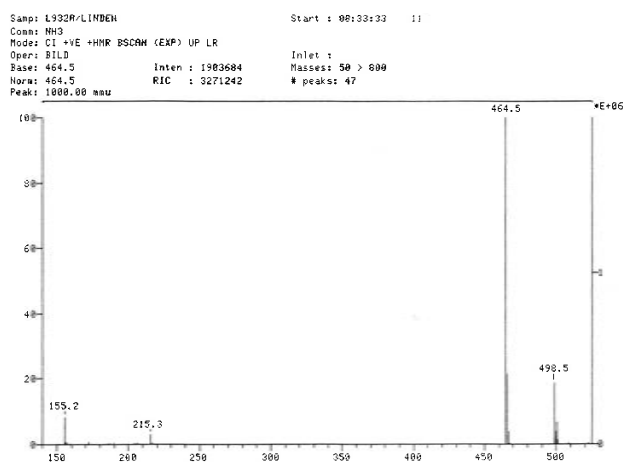
Isolated atom is probably O of H₂O rather than Cl⁻
(charge balance & displacement ellipsoid size)

What do we learn from analyses?

- **Elemental analysis:**
 - ratios of (some) elements
 - might lead to molecular formula
 - not all elements detectable

- **Mass spectra:**
 - molecular formula
 - composition of some fragments
 - not necessarily all connectivity
 - no 3D information

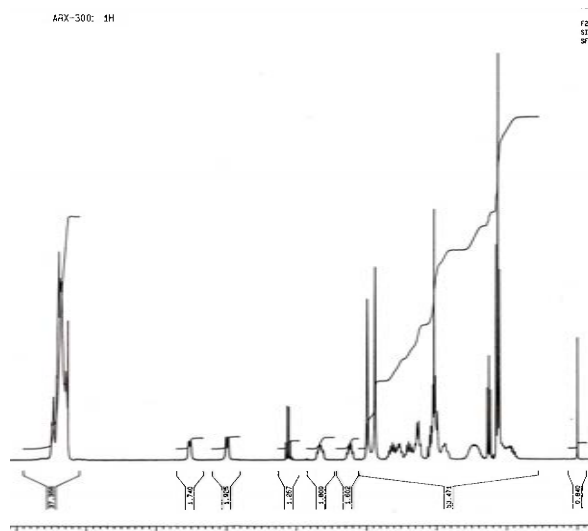
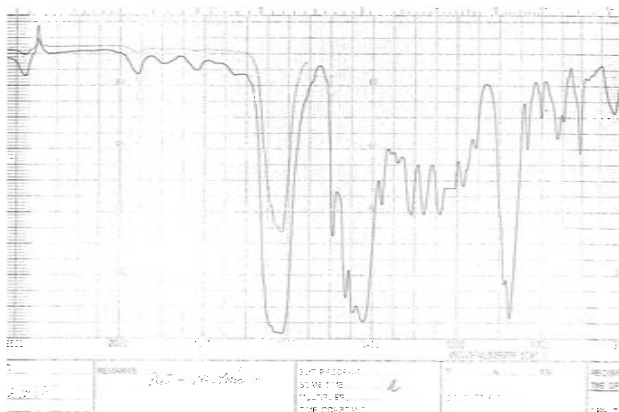
Organisch-chem. Institut Universität Zürich Mikroanalyse	Eingangsdatum : Datum der Analyse : Analyse No.: <i>21194</i>	Name: <i>Binder</i> Gruppe: <i>Heinig</i> Labor: <i>4254</i> Tel.: <i>4254</i>
Substanz : <i>CB Q1a</i>  Bruttoformel: <i>C₁₁H₁₅N₂</i> Mol.Gew.: <i>323.42</i>	zu bestimmende Elemente : <i>CHN</i>	Methode Einwaage Einzelresultate A B C D C H N % □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □ □
Smp.: - Sdp.: - umkrist. aus: getrocknet: <i>HU</i> subl.: hygrosk.: Besonderes:	ber. C <i>77.98</i> H <i>7.79</i> N <i>4.33</i> % gef. C <i>77.99</i> H <i>7.66</i> N <i>4.20</i> %	Bemerkungen: <i>+ IR + IR</i> <i>Danke</i>



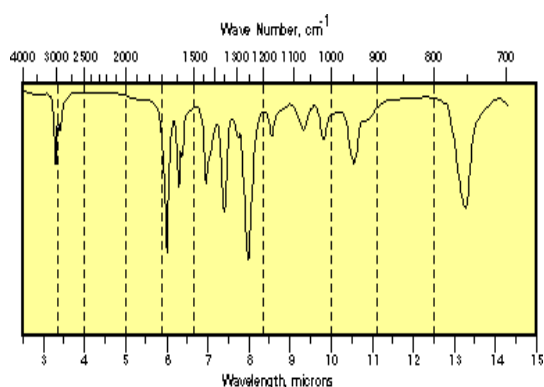
Spectra interpretation relies on accumulated knowledge

- **IR:**
 - functional groups
 - deducing connectivity difficult
 - no 3D information
 - not all elements (easily) detectable

- **NMR – very powerful:**
 - molecular formula
 - full connectivity with care
 - some 3D information

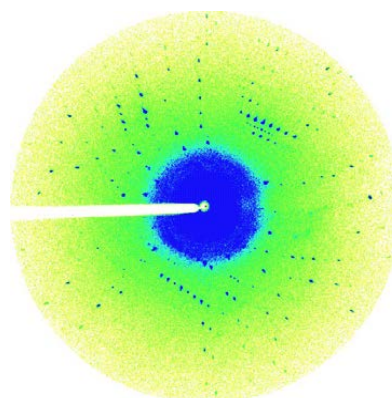


IR



- >3200: OH or NH present
- 3100: moderate peak suggesting unsaturated CH
- 2900: weak peak indicating possible saturated CH
- 2200: no unsymmetrical triple bonds
- 1690: strong carbonyl absorbance
- 1610: weak absorbance bands consistent with carbon-carbon double bonds

X-ray Crystallography

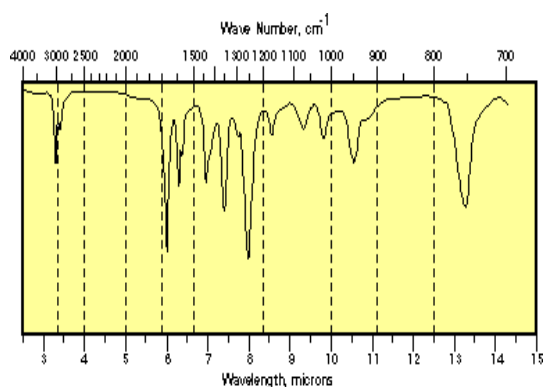


~1000 spotty images

?

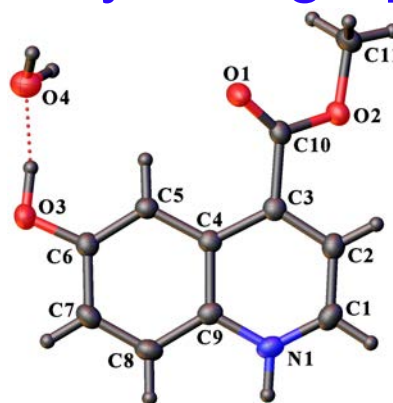
Size of diffraction grid
Some symmetry information

IR



- >3200: OH or NH present
- 3100: moderate peak suggesting unsaturated CH
- 2900: weak peak indicating possible saturated CH
- 2200: no unsymmetrical triple bonds
- 1690: strong carbonyl absorbance
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X-ray Crystallography



3D structure and bonding:

Bond lengths:

O1–C10	1.226(2) Å	C1–N1	1.342(3) Å
C3–C10	1.503(5) Å	C6–O3	1.432(3) Å

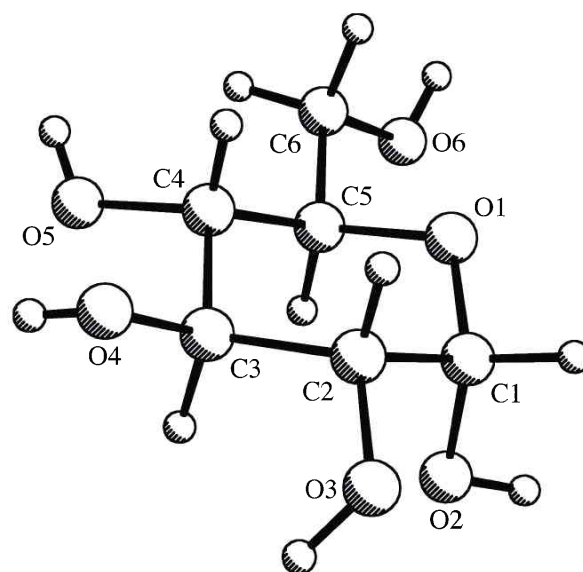
Bond angles:

C1–N1–C9	121.9 (2)°	C10–O2–C11	122.4(2)°
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Absolute configuration Intermolecular interactions

Crystal structure determination

- When done carefully under the right conditions with a suitable quality crystal, it usually unambiguously gives:
 - full elemental composition
 - full connectivity
 - full 3D geometry and conformation
 - absolute configuration for enantiomerically pure chiral molecules
 - intermolecular interactions and packing of molecules in the solid state

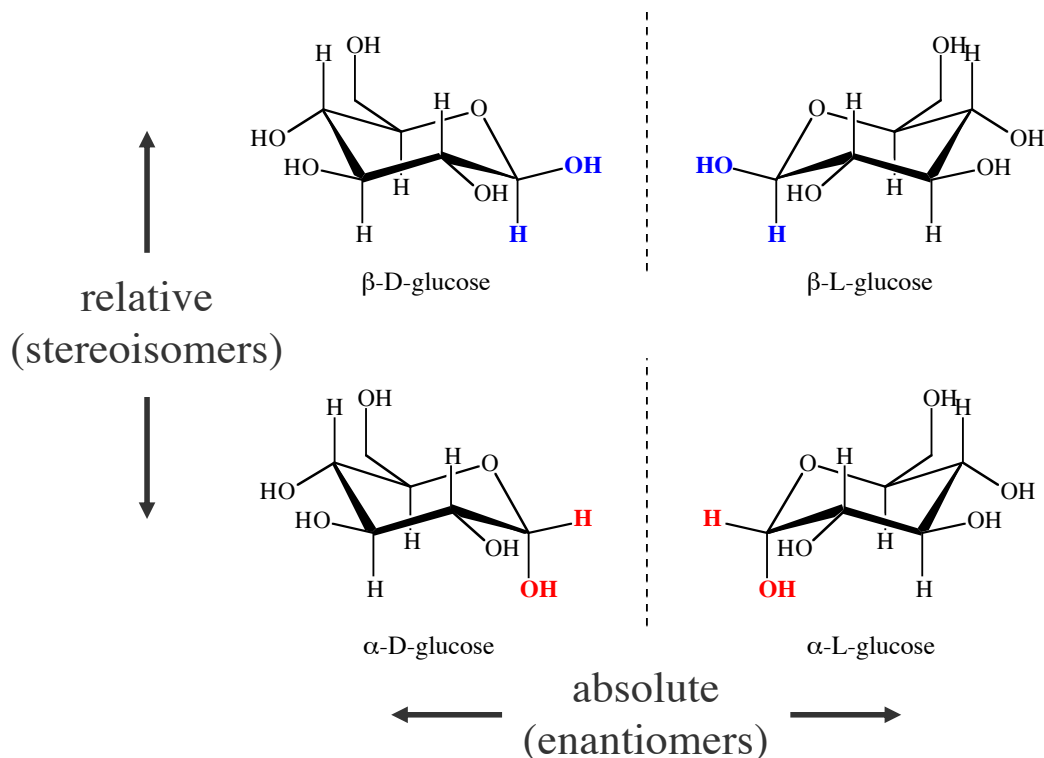


Isolated molecules or those in solution might have a different conformation

Advantages

- Complete 3-D structure
- Relative configuration
- Absolute configuration (sometimes)
- Intermolecular interactions
 - ◆ hydrogen bonding

Relative and absolute configuration



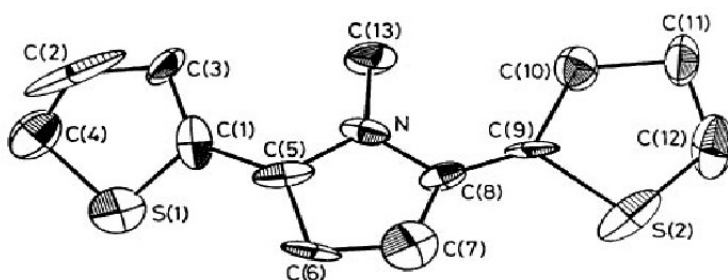
Disadvantages

- Structure represents solid-state conformation
 - ◆ solution structure might be different
- Crystal growth
- Crystal not always representative of the bulk batch
- **Purity is important**, otherwise ambiguity remains
- If solution contains a mixture, what crystallises first (as a nice crystal), a crystal containing one component or the mixture (what ratio of components)? Solid solutions rare.
- A high *ee* mixture might crystallise as a racemic crystal.

Philosophy

- A job worth doing is worth doing as well as possible
- Get the best data the first time
- **Garbage In \Rightarrow Garbage Out**
- Poor results \Rightarrow ambiguity remains or unpublishable
- Might be hard to repeat work months/years later
- A little extra effort early on for crystal growth can be rewarding

Examples of Bad Structures

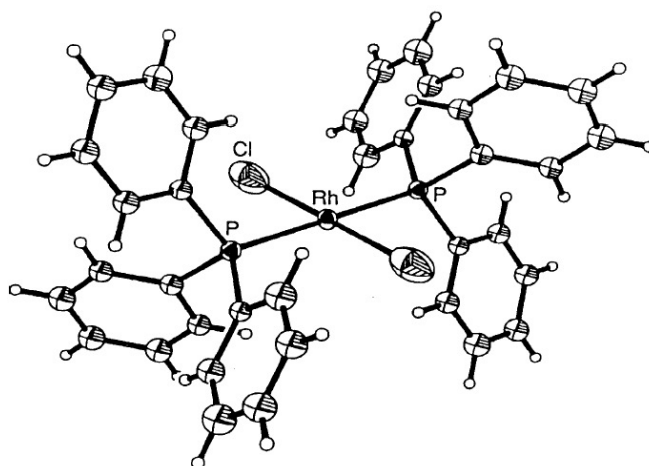


Chem. Comm. **1989**,
1318.

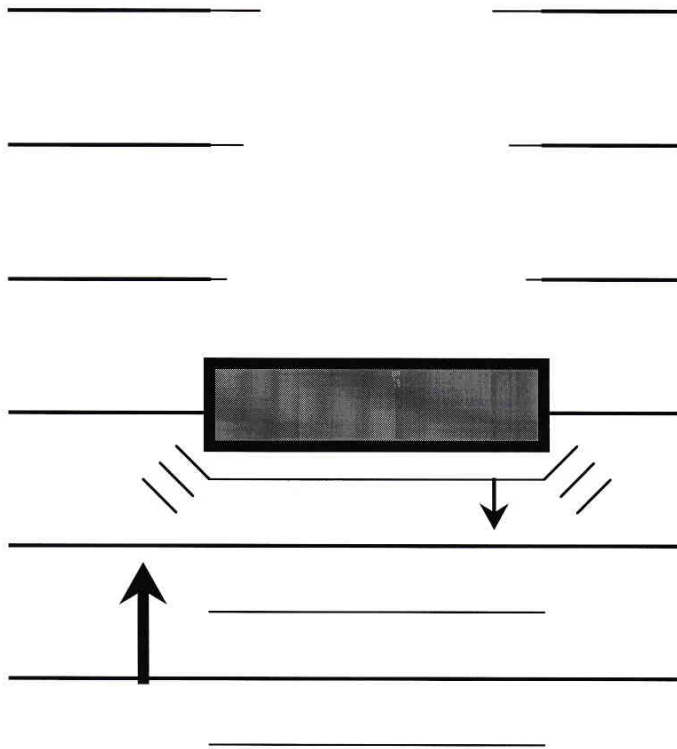
Chem. Comm. **1990**, 1733.

Examples taken from:

Troublesome Crystal Structures
J. Res. Nat. Inst. Stan. Technol.
1996, 327.

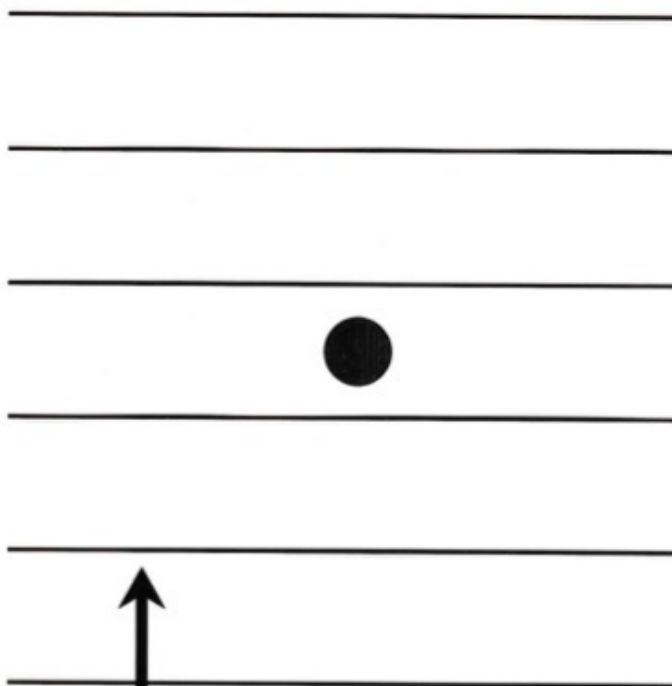


How do we see things?



- We only detect light (photons) scattered from objects
- We only sense the information in the scattered light (waves)
- Does all scattered light contain information about everything it passes?
- In this case with a large object, yes

What about small objects?



- The waves contain very little information about objects they pass when the wavelength is larger than the object

Why use X-rays?

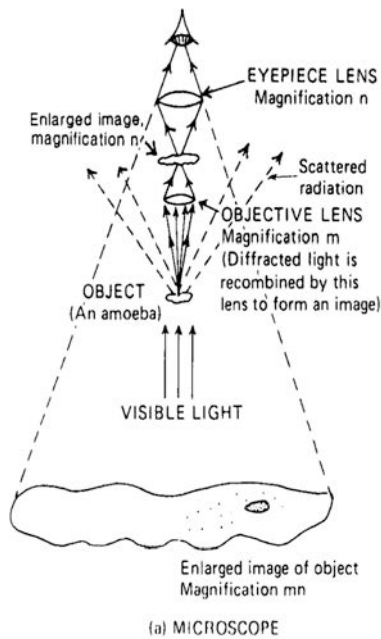
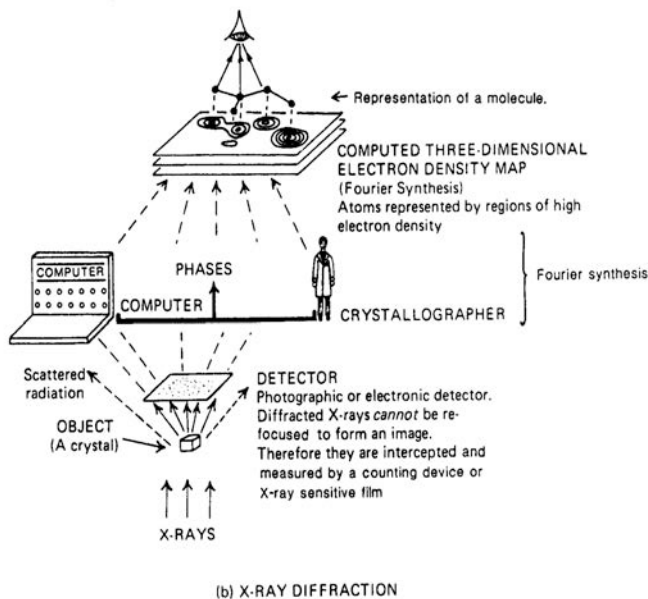


FIGURE 1.1 Analogies Between Light Microscopy and X-ray Diffraction.

Glusker & Trueblood: Crystal Structure Analysis – a Primer

- Atoms in molecules are separated by 0.1-0.3 nm
- To view very small objects ($< 10^{-7}$ m) need shorter wavelength than visible light
- X-rays have a wavelength ~ 0.1 nm.
- Why not use an X-ray microscope?
- Cannot refract X-rays easily

To “view” atoms



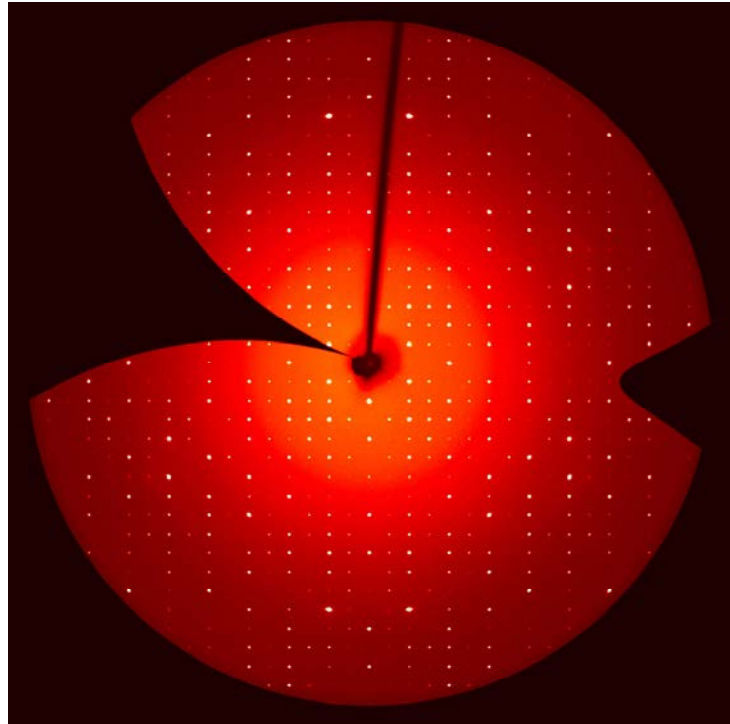
- Record scattered, in particular diffracted, X-rays
- Use a computer as the “lens”

Glusker & Trueblood: Crystal Structure Analysis – a Primer

How can we use the diffraction pattern to deduce the form and orientation of the “objects” in the crystal, i.e. solve the crystal structure?

Reconstructing (unwarping) layers through reciprocal space may be enlightening, e.g. $h0l$, $hk0$, $0kl$, $h1l$, etc.

Highly recommended after ALL data collections



Key information for success

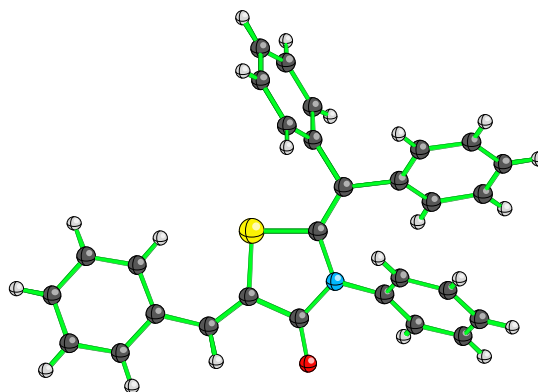
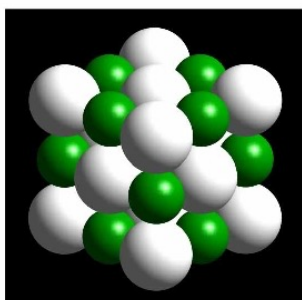
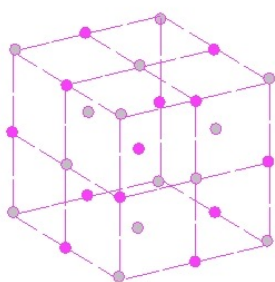
- Size of repeating unit
 - ◆ Related to the spacing in the diffraction pattern
- Arrangement of contents of the unit
 - ◆ Related to intensities of diffracted beams

The Phase Problem

Electron density:
$$\rho(xyz) = \left(\frac{1}{V}\right) \sum_h \sum_k \sum_l \{ |F(hkl)| \cos[2\pi(hx + ky + lz) - \phi(hkl)] \}$$

Intensities, $\sim F(hkl)^2$, can be measured

Phases, $\phi(hkl)$, cannot be measured



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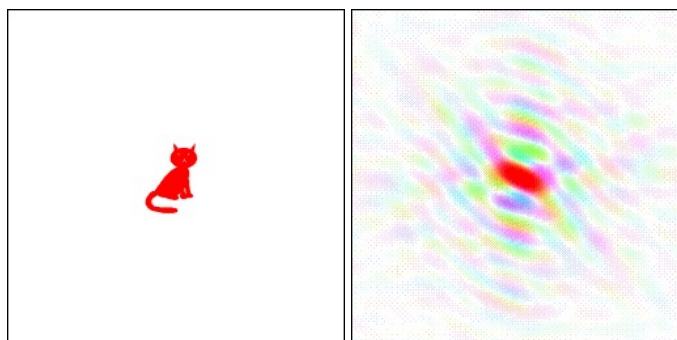
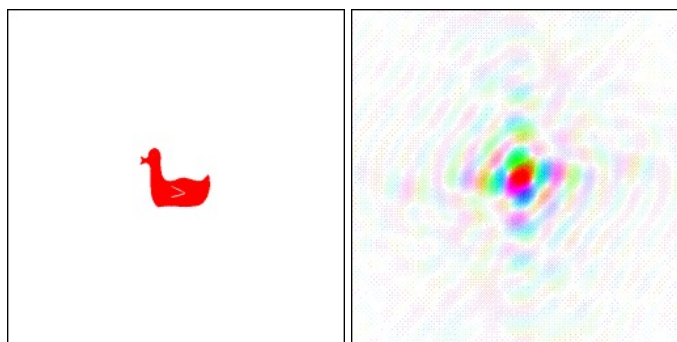
Intensities and Phases

A duck and a cat and their
Fourier transforms
(diffraction pattern)

Brightness = intensity

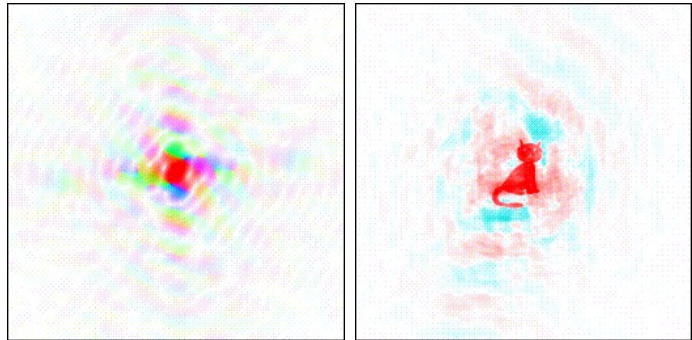
Colour = phase

If we know intensity & phase,
we can do back transformation

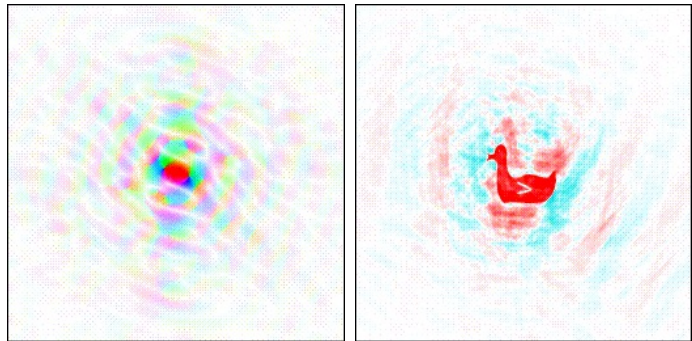


The Importance of Phases

Phases from cat,
intensities from duck:



Phases from duck,
intensities from cat:

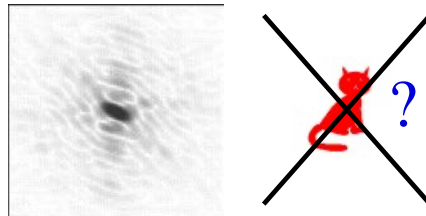


The phases have much more
information than the
intensities.

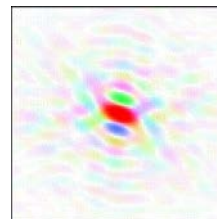
Kevin Cowtan: <http://www.ysbl.york.ac.uk/~cowtan/fourier/fourier.html>

31

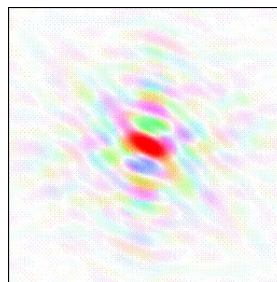
Intensities only; cannot
generate an unknown object:



Take a similar known object
(Manx cat) from which
phases can be calculated:



Manx phases + real
intensities. When phases
nearly correct, the missing
(wrong) parts of the model
appear:



How do we arrive at an approximately correct starting model?

Kevin Cowtan: <http://www.ysbl.york.ac.uk/~cowtan/fourier/fourier.html>

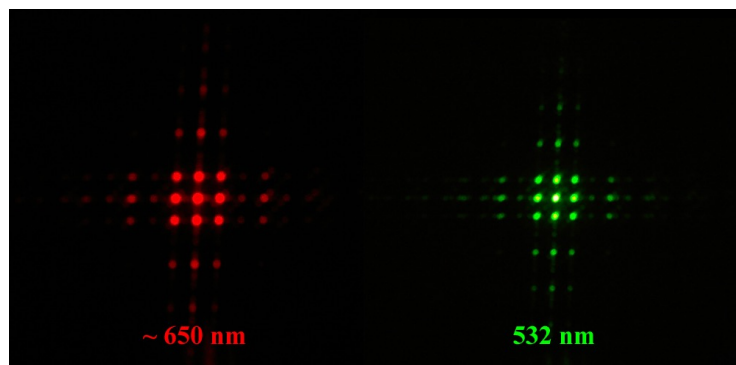
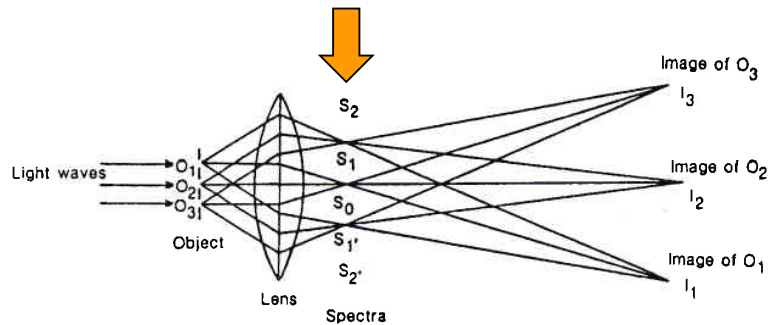
32

The periodic nature of the structure in the crystal causes diffraction; acts as the “lens”.

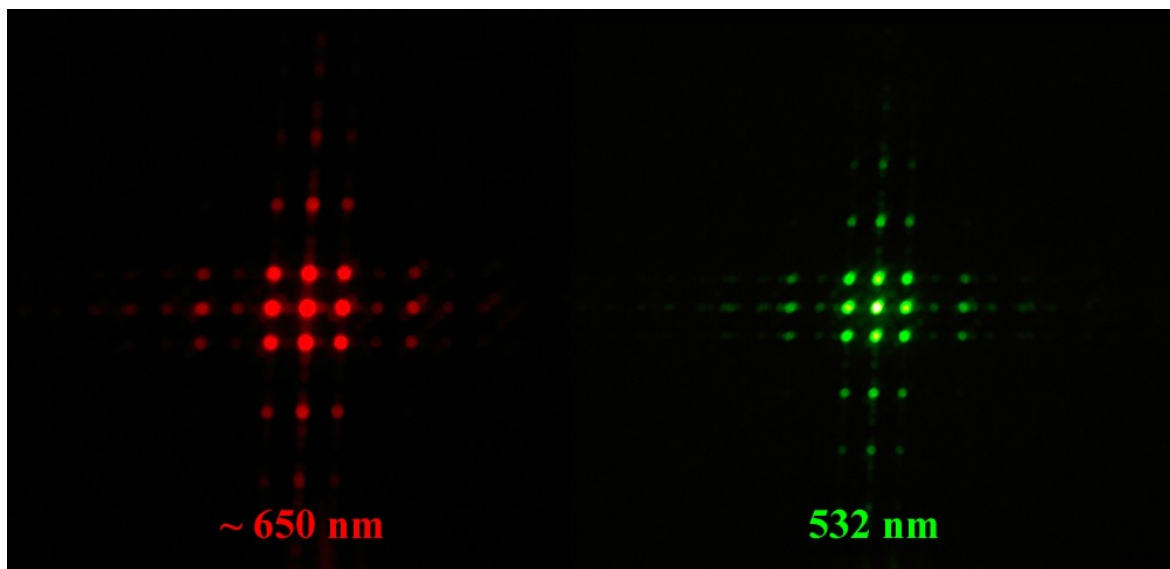
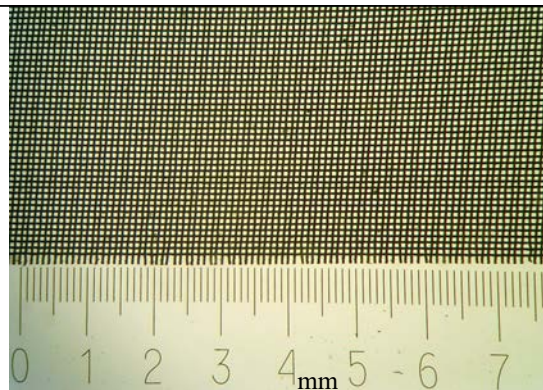
Each diffracted beam contains information about every point in the crystal.

Each point in the crystal contributes to every diffracted intensity in the diffraction pattern.

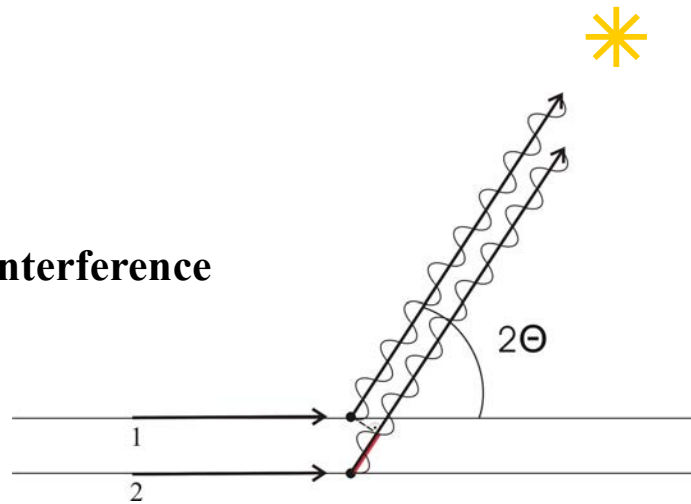
One is the Fourier transform of the other.



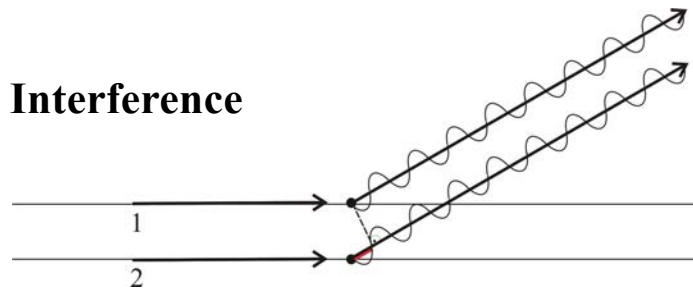
Diffraction Patterns



Constructive Interference



Destructive Interference



Diffraction by a single slit

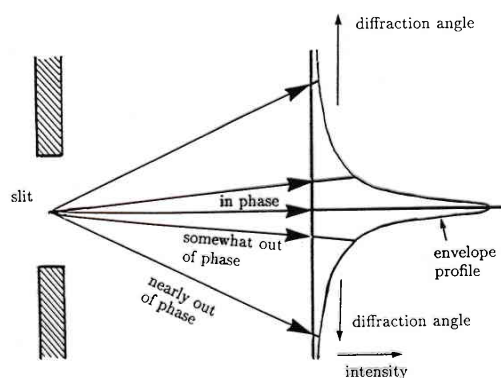


FIGURE 3.5. An illustration of the reason that the diffraction pattern of a single slit has width to its profile (the envelope profile, compare with Figure 3.4). This is because of varying degrees of interference between waves traveling in the directions indicated in this figure. Waves traveling in the direction of the direct beam (if the incident light is perpendicular to the slit) are in phase and give a maximum intensity. At angles other than that of the direct incident beam, the scattered waves are more out of phase. Therefore their intensities decrease because of increased interference. The result is a diffraction pattern with the envelope profile shown here.

In a crystal, this is equivalent to diffraction by the single unit (one or more atoms or molecules) that forms the smallest translationally periodic repeat unit of the crystal

Diffraction by a single slit

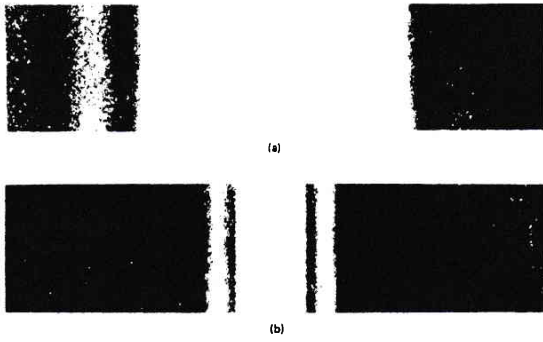


FIGURE 3.1 Diffraction Patterns of Single Narrow Slits.

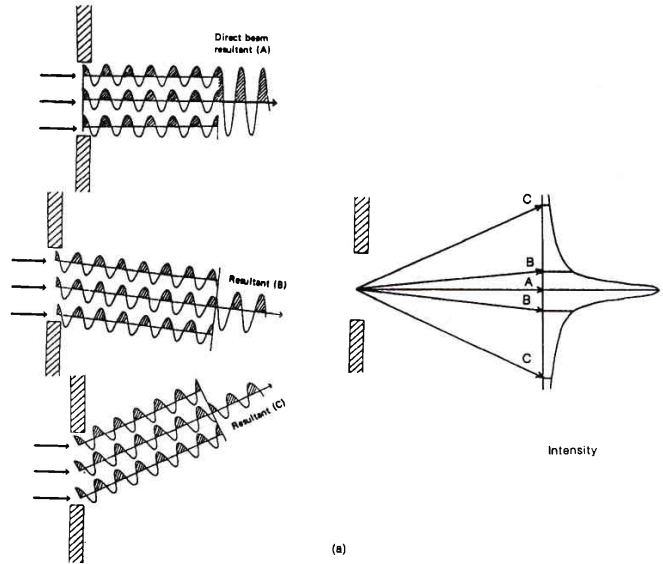


FIGURE 3.3 Diffraction as the Interference of Waves.

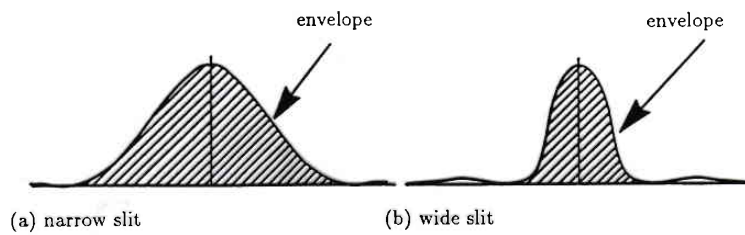
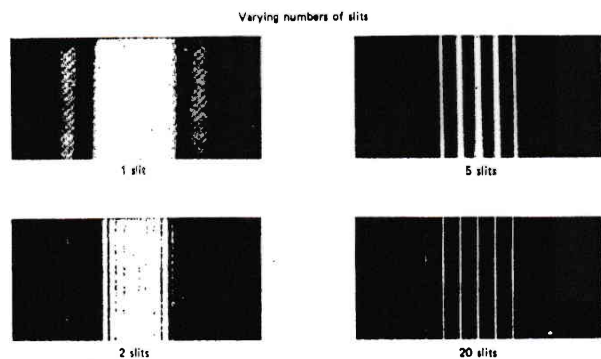
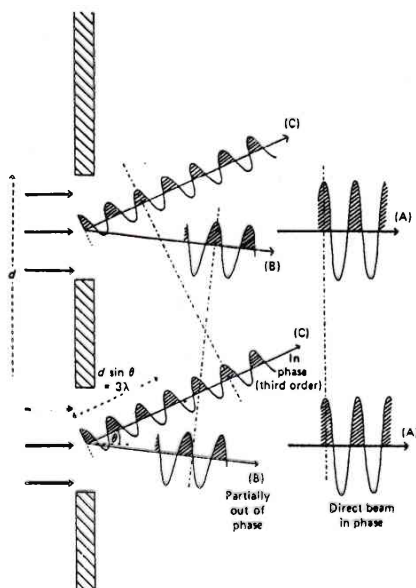
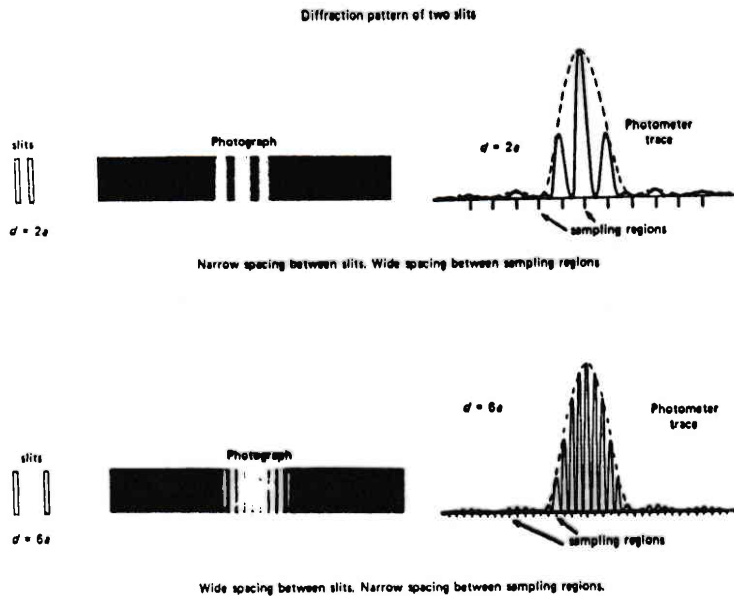


FIGURE 3.4 Scattering by a single slit. (a) Diffraction by a narrow slit and (b) the diffraction pattern of a slit that is wider than that in (a). In both cases the intensity variation shown is referred to as the "envelope." The zero point of the horizontal axis represents the direction of the direct beam (cf. Figure 3.5).

Diffraction by two slits



Wide slit spacing, narrow diffraction pattern



- The size and shape of the “envelope” are determined by the diffraction pattern of a single slit.
- The positions and frequency of the regions in which the envelope is sampled are determined by the spacings between the slits.
- The intensity in each sampled region is influenced by the shape of the envelope.

Wide slit spacing, narrow diffraction pattern

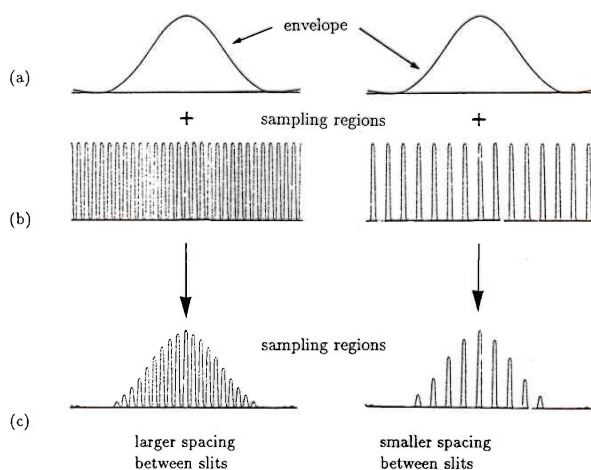
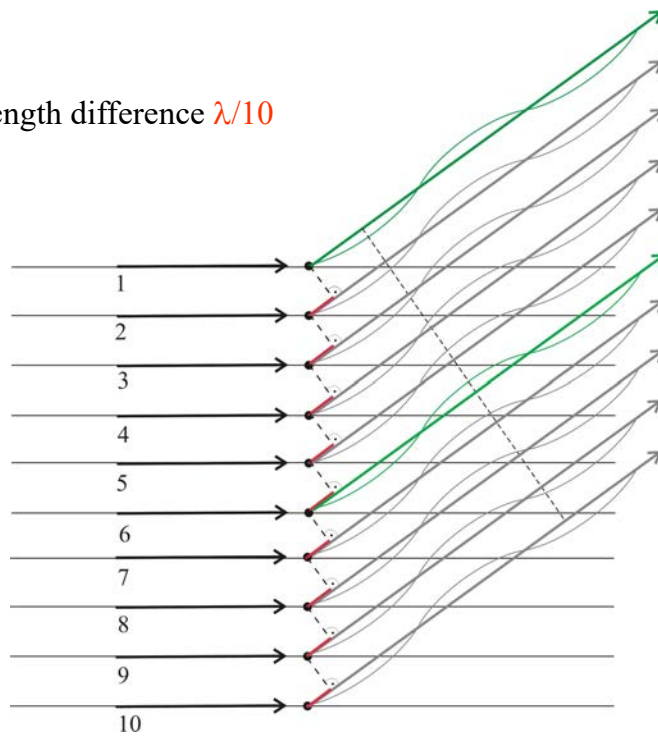


FIGURE 3.6. The diffraction patterns of series of slits. Shown in (a) is the diffraction pattern of a single slit. The sampling regions (from the grating periodicity) are shown in (b). The diffraction pattern is the combination of the envelope profile and the sampling regions, that is, the sampling of the envelope profile at sampling regions only. The results for a series of parallel, regularly spaced slits are shown in (c). The spacing between the slits is greater in the diagrams on the left than in those on the right.

- The diffraction pattern is increasingly sharp, the greater the number of slits.
- Inverse effect. Caused by size of one slit (= the contents of one repeating unit (envelope)) and the spacing between the slits (= the size of the repeating unit)
- Real vs. reciprocal space (slits or real structure vs. diffraction pattern)

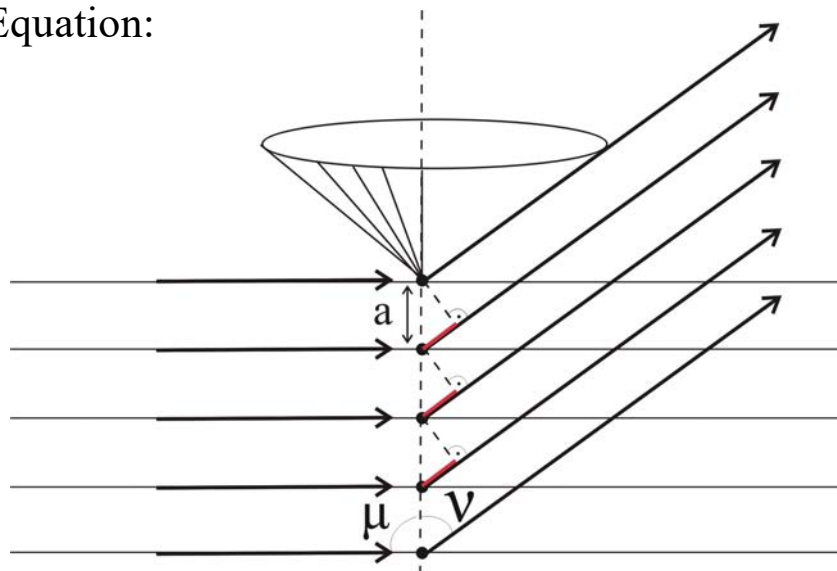
What happens when we are somewhere between complete constructive and destructive interference? i.e. a path length difference between $n\lambda$ und $n\lambda/2$?

e.g. path length difference $\lambda/10$



In a crystal there are ca. 10^5 unit cells along a side. Sharp reflections result!

Laue-Equation:



Path length difference: $a \cos \mu_a + a \cos \nu_a = n_1 \lambda$

For a given incident angle, μ , there is an exactly defined diffraction angle, ν , at which the diffracted beam can be observed for every order of diffraction $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

Analogous equations for all three directions in space:

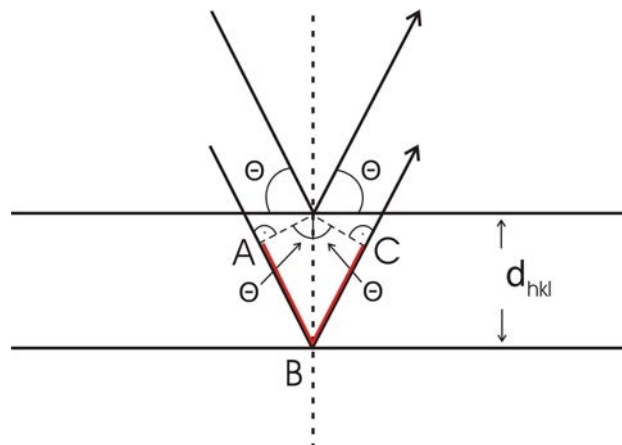
$$a \cos\mu_a + a \cos\nu_a = n_1\lambda$$

$$b \cos\mu_b + b \cos\nu_b = n_2\lambda$$

$$c \cos\mu_c + c \cos\nu_c = n_3\lambda$$

Diffraction only occurs when all three equations are fulfilled simultaneously, i.e. when the three diffraction cones have a common line of intersection!

Bragg Equation (1912):



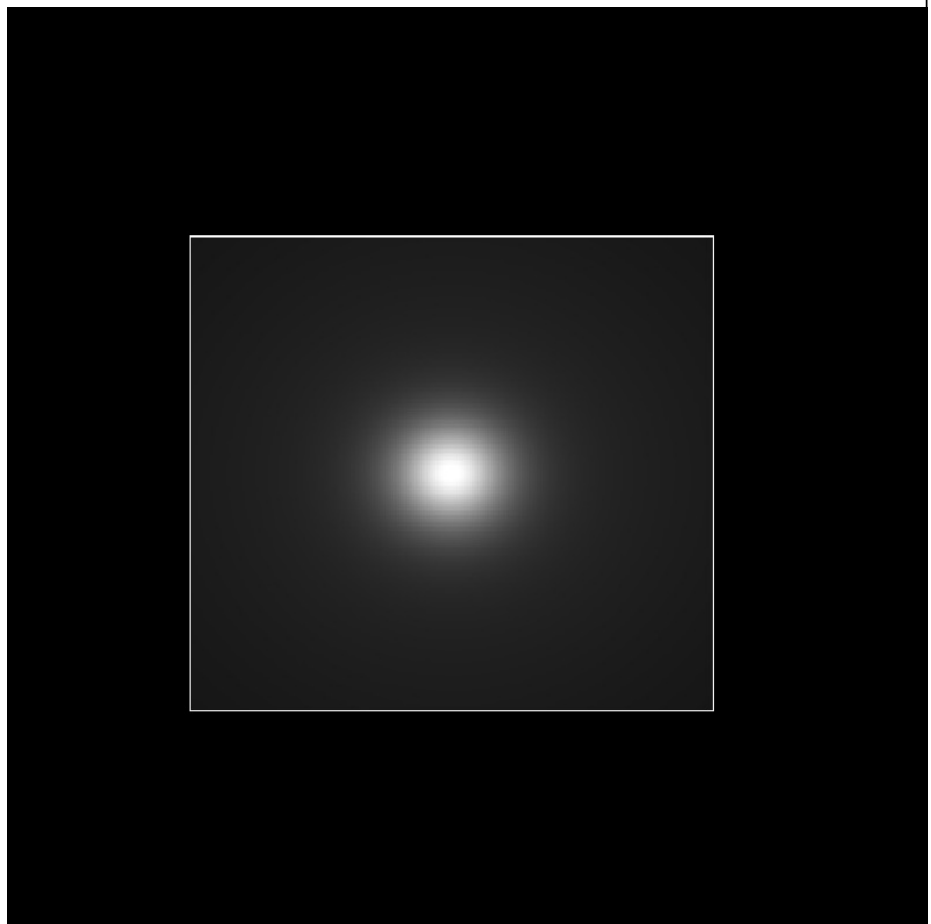
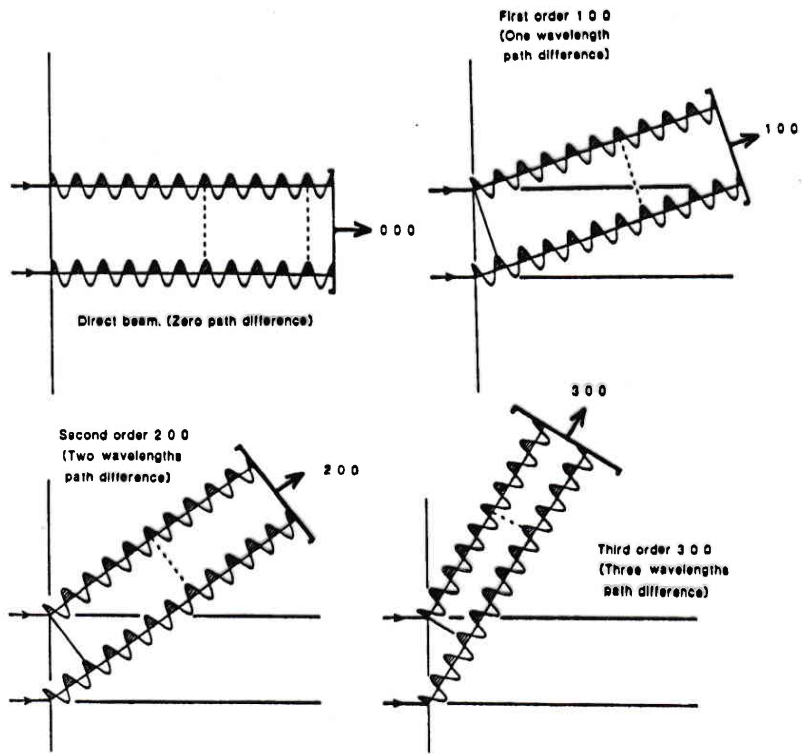
Constructive interference occurs when:

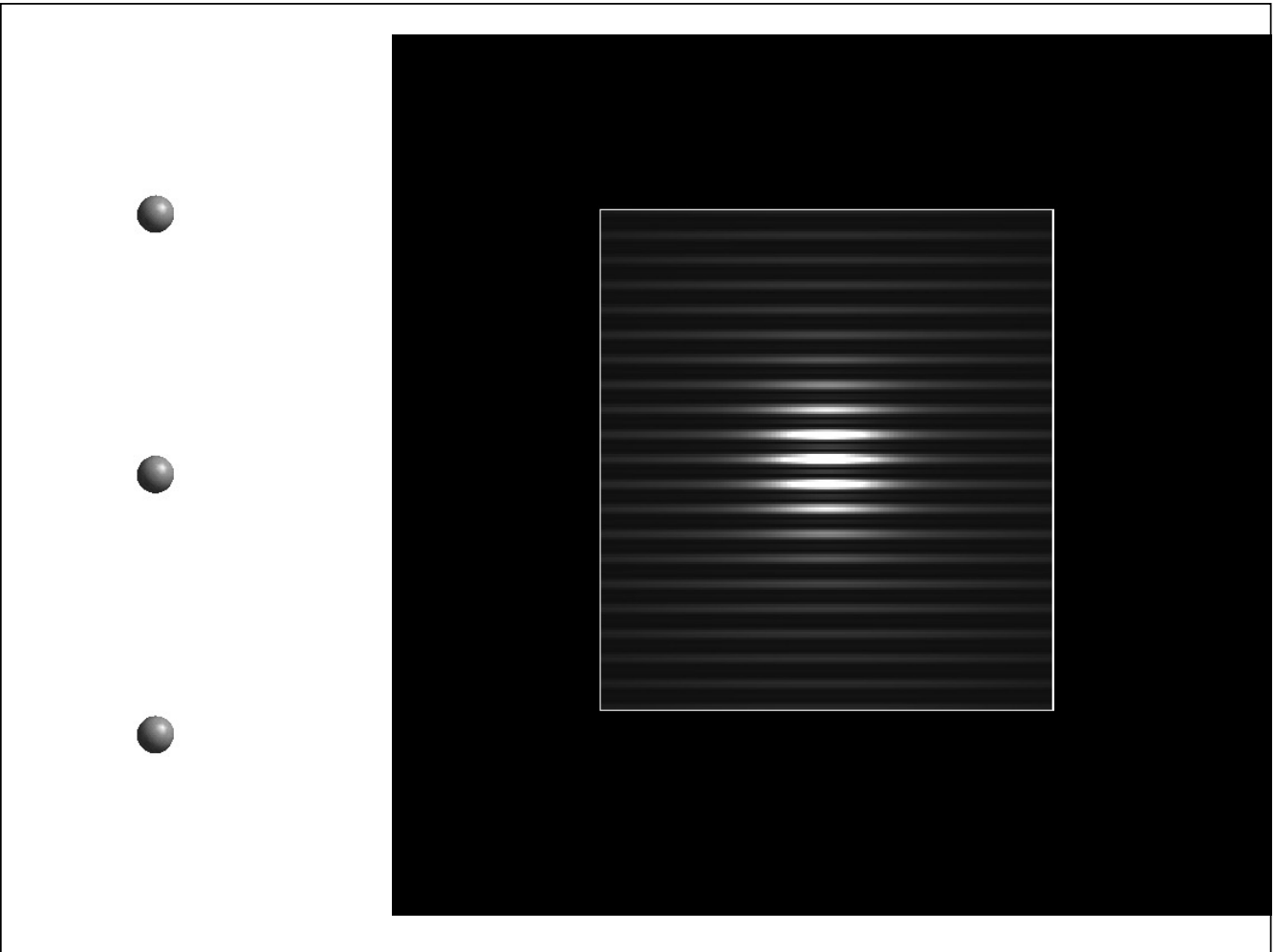
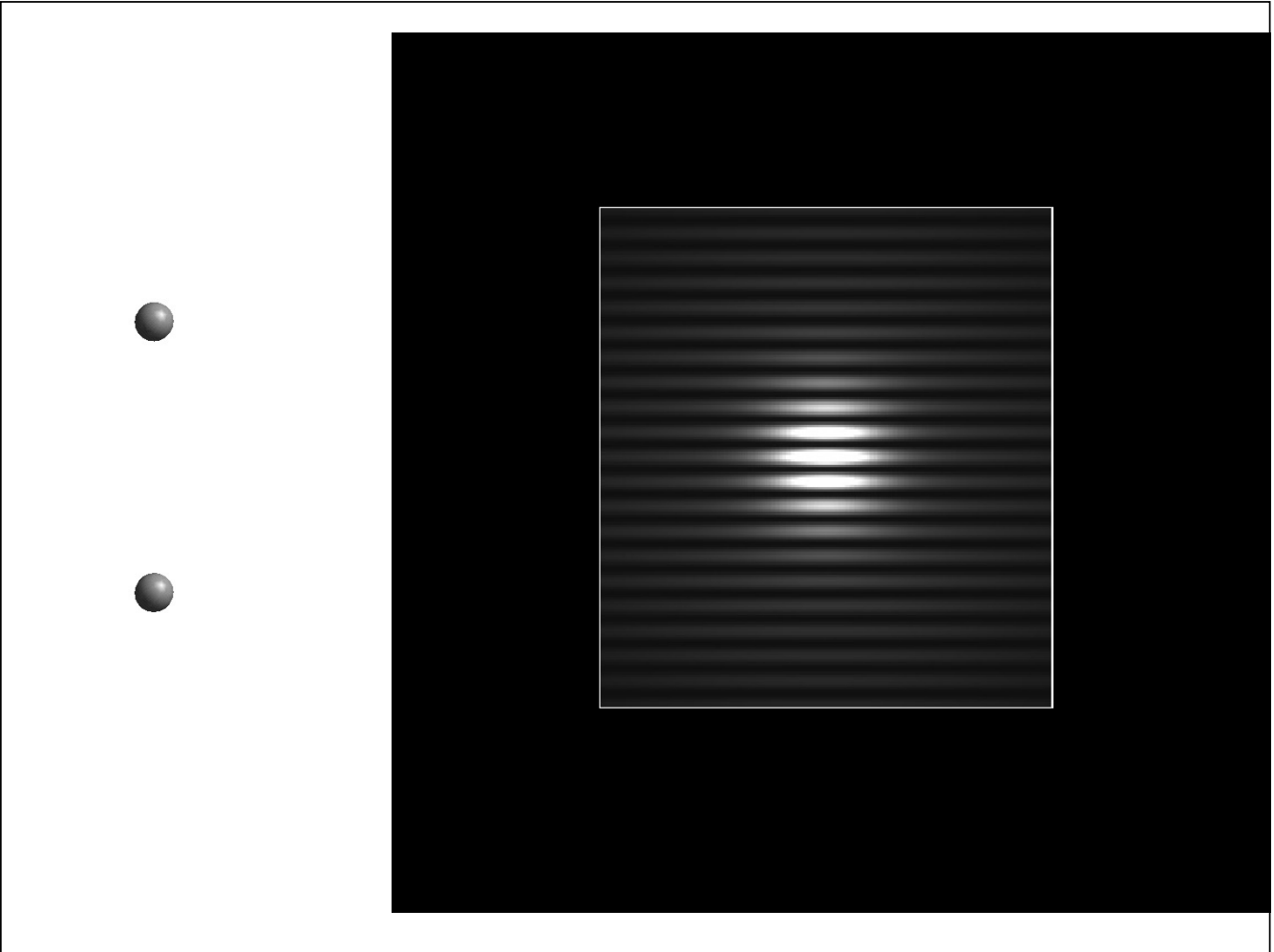
$$\Delta = n \cdot \lambda \quad (\Delta = AB + BC)$$

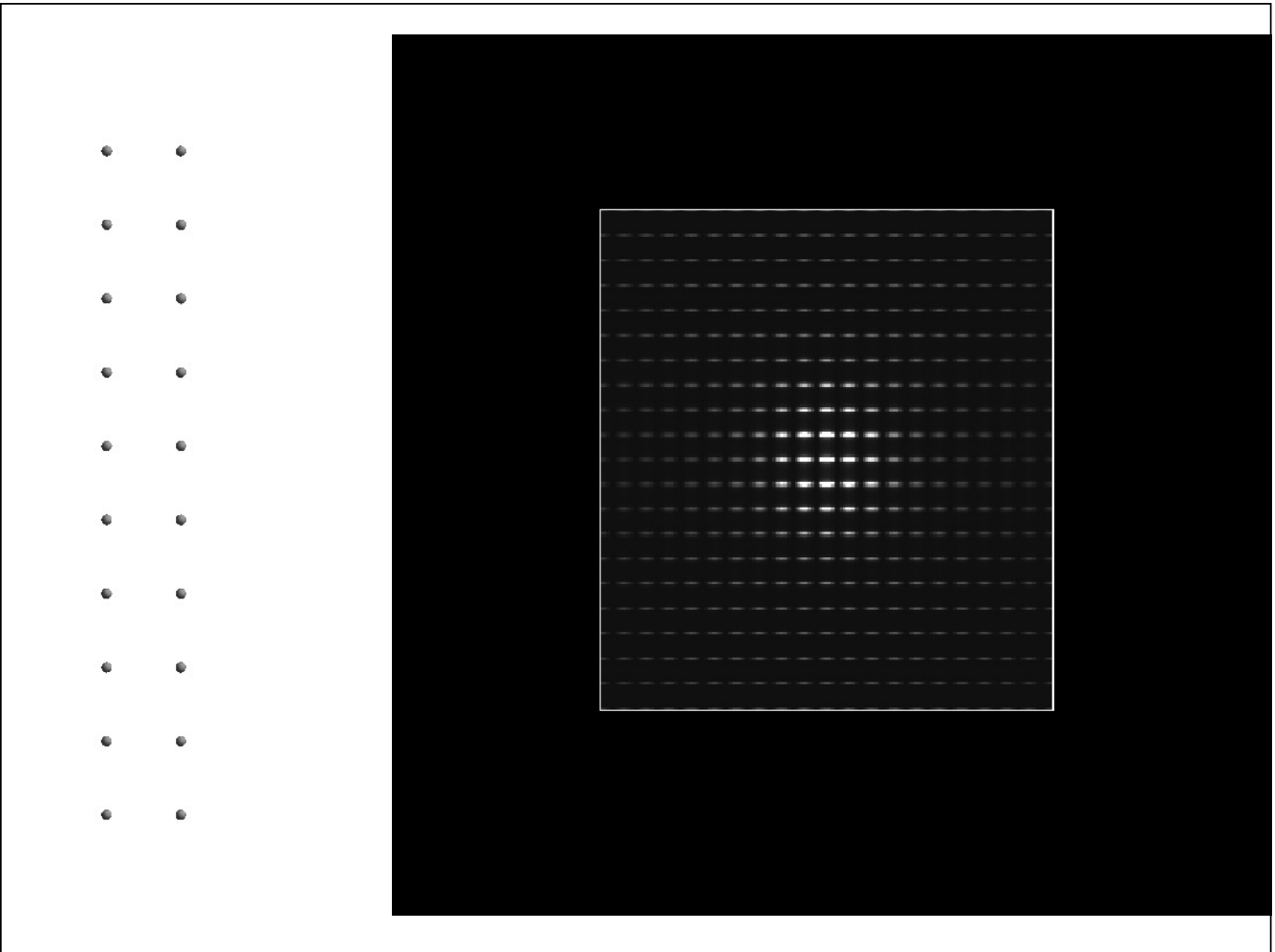
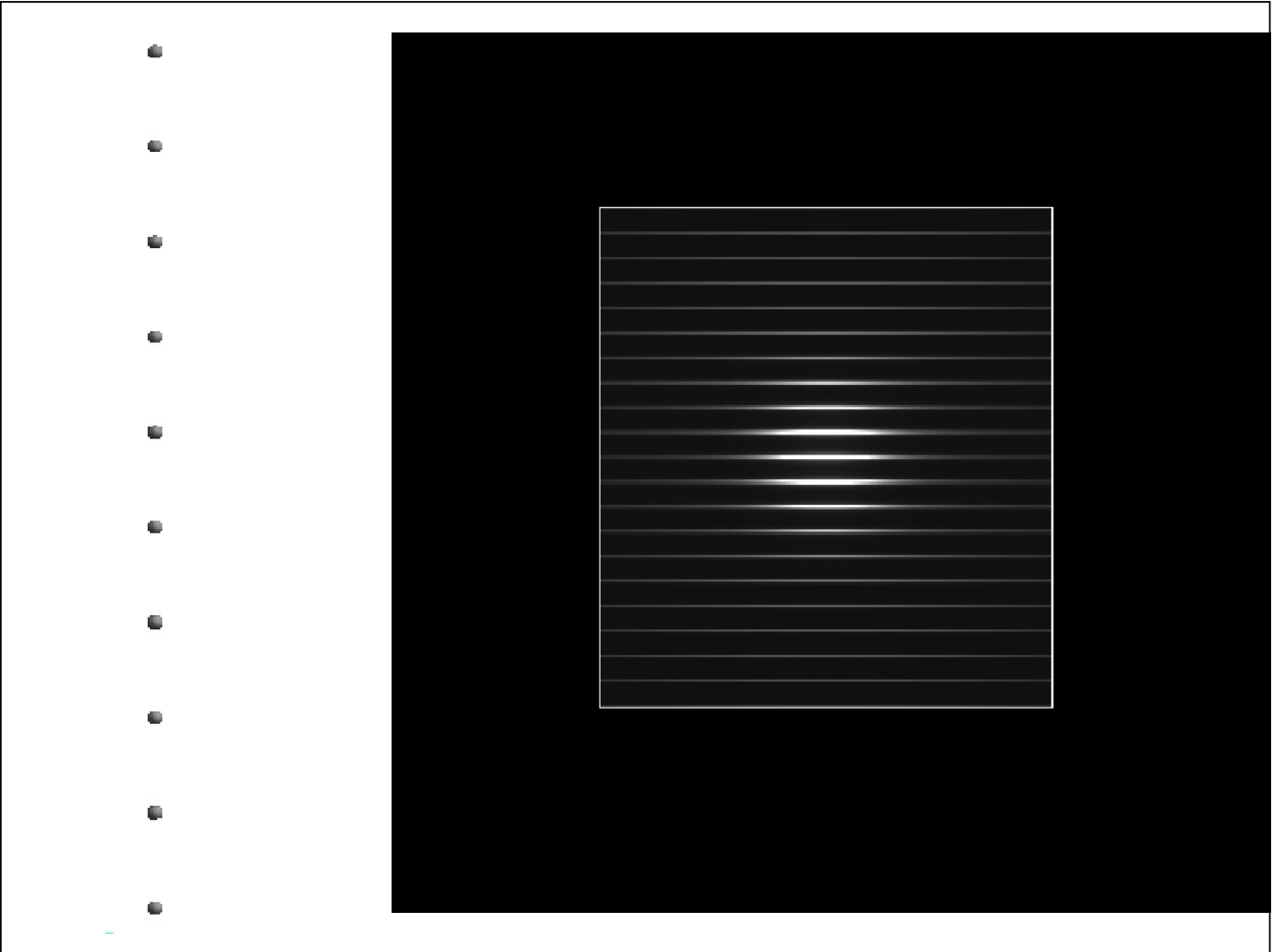
Using:

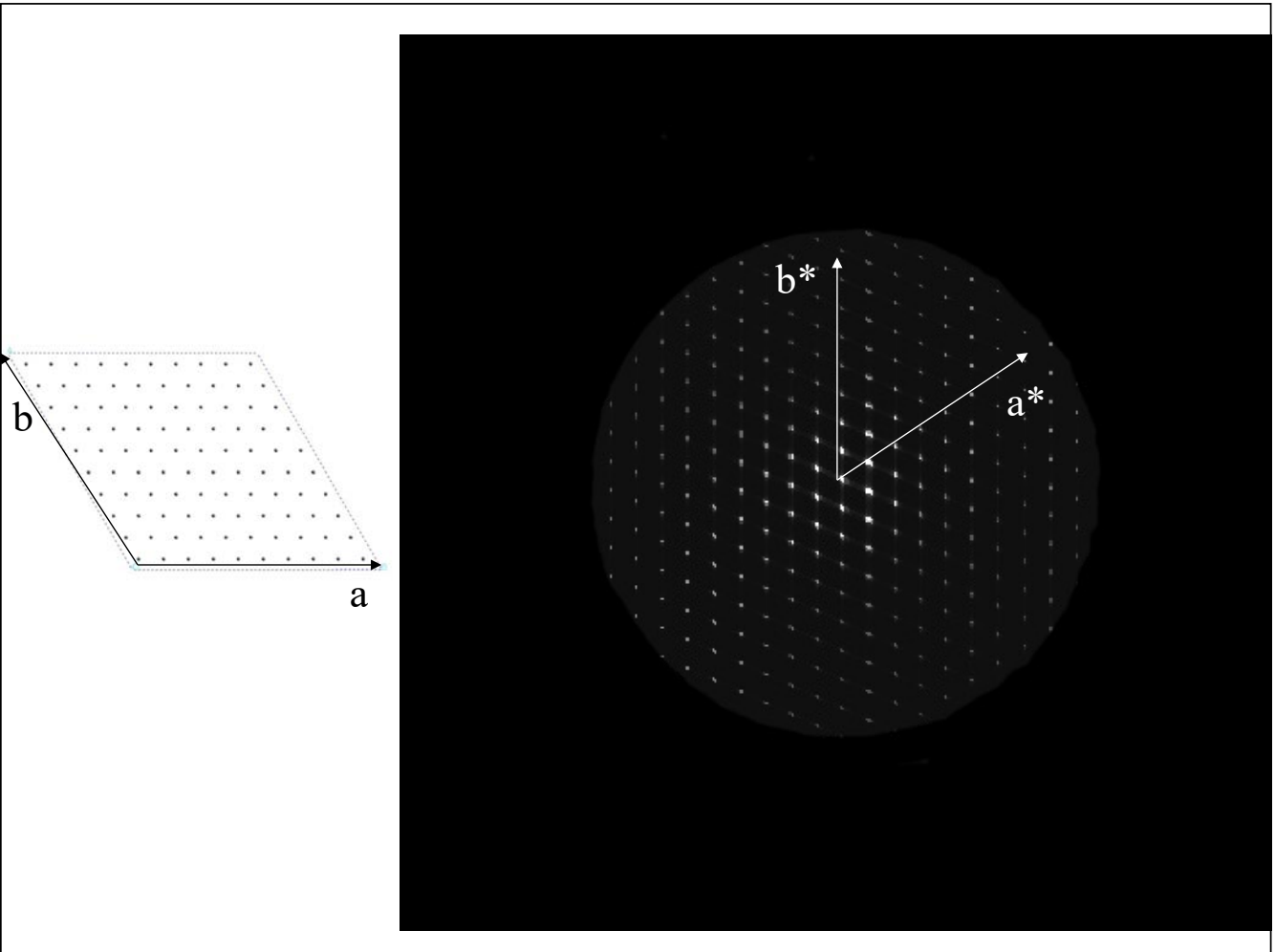
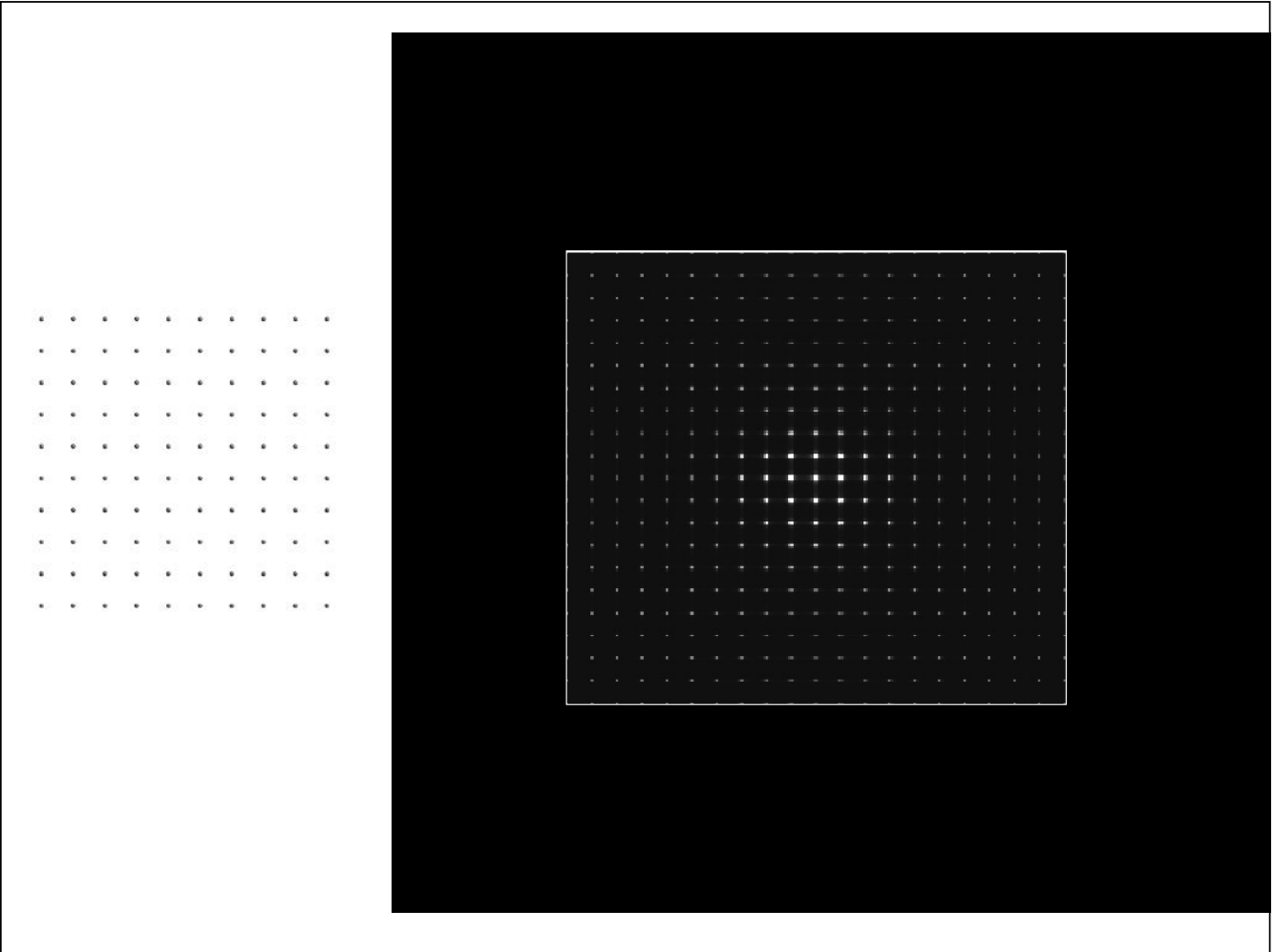
$$\sin\theta = (\Delta/2)/d \text{ results in } n \cdot \lambda = 2d \cdot \sin\theta$$

Orders of diffraction



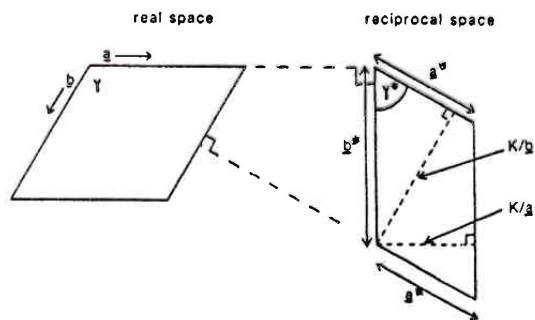
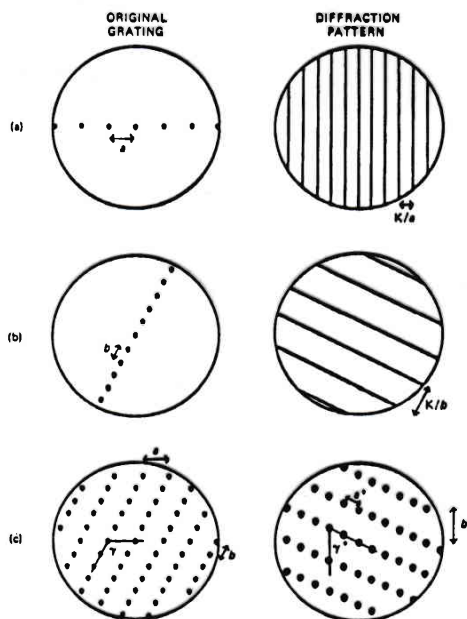






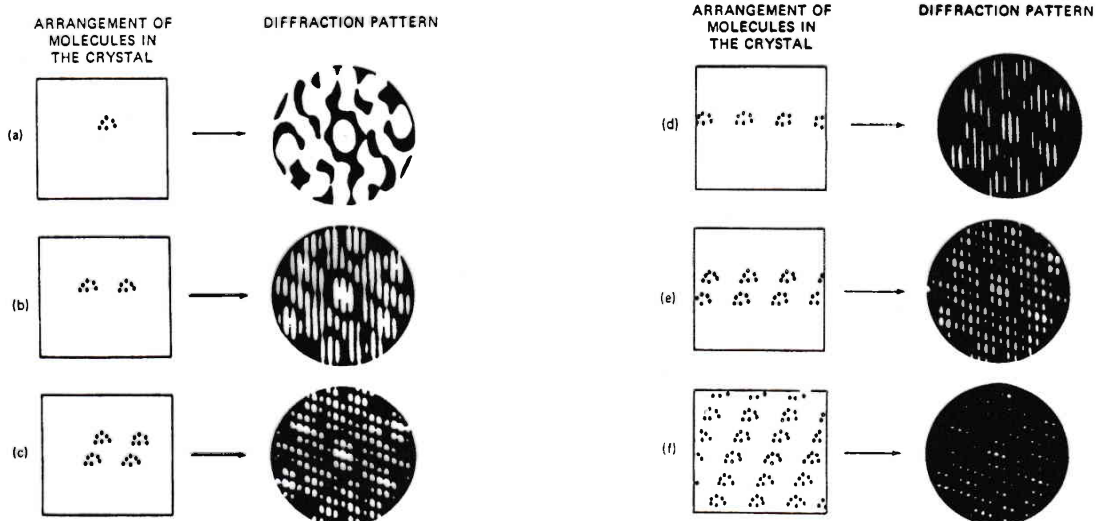
2-Dimensional Diffraction Gratings

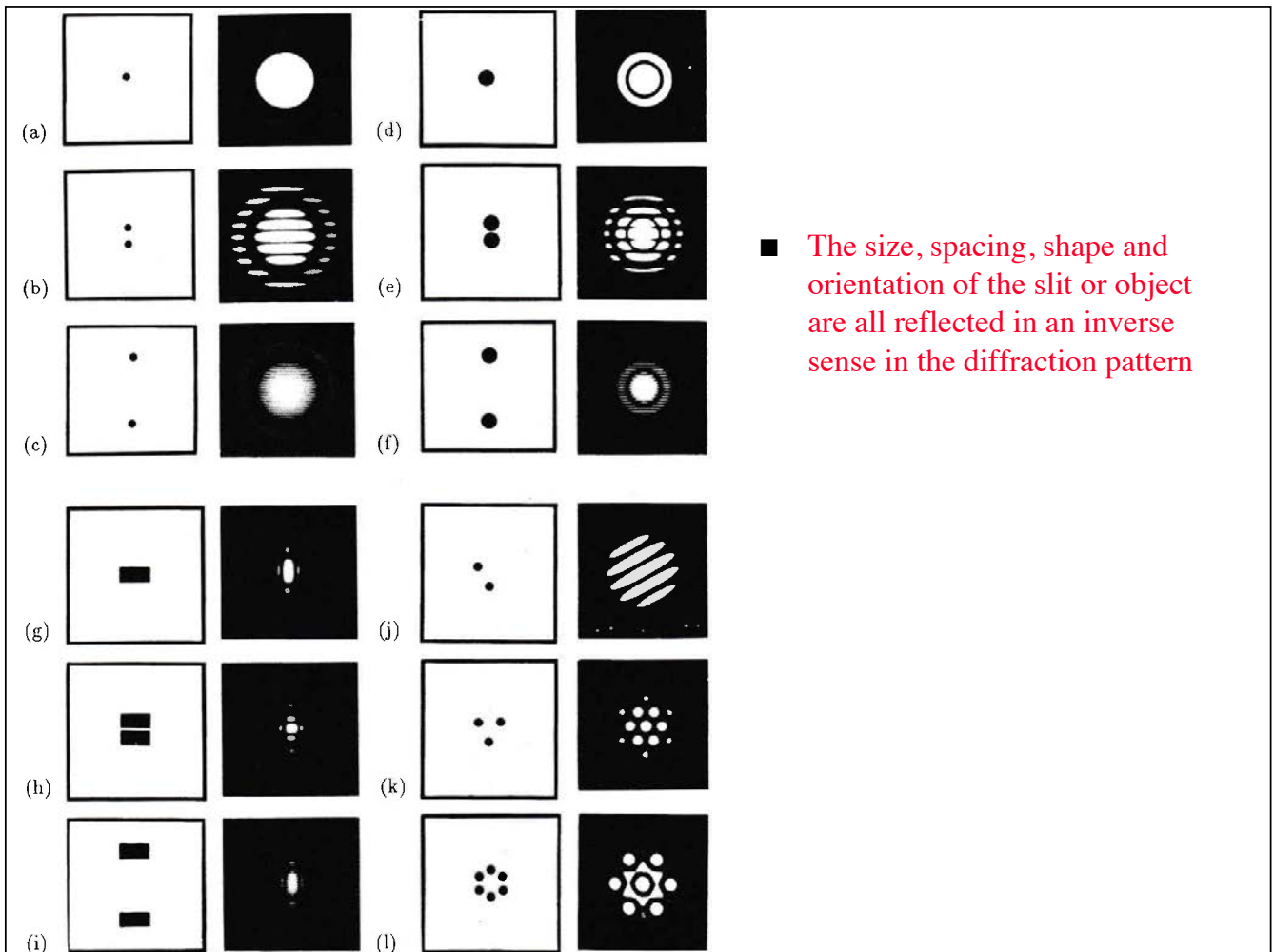
Original grating Diffraction pattern



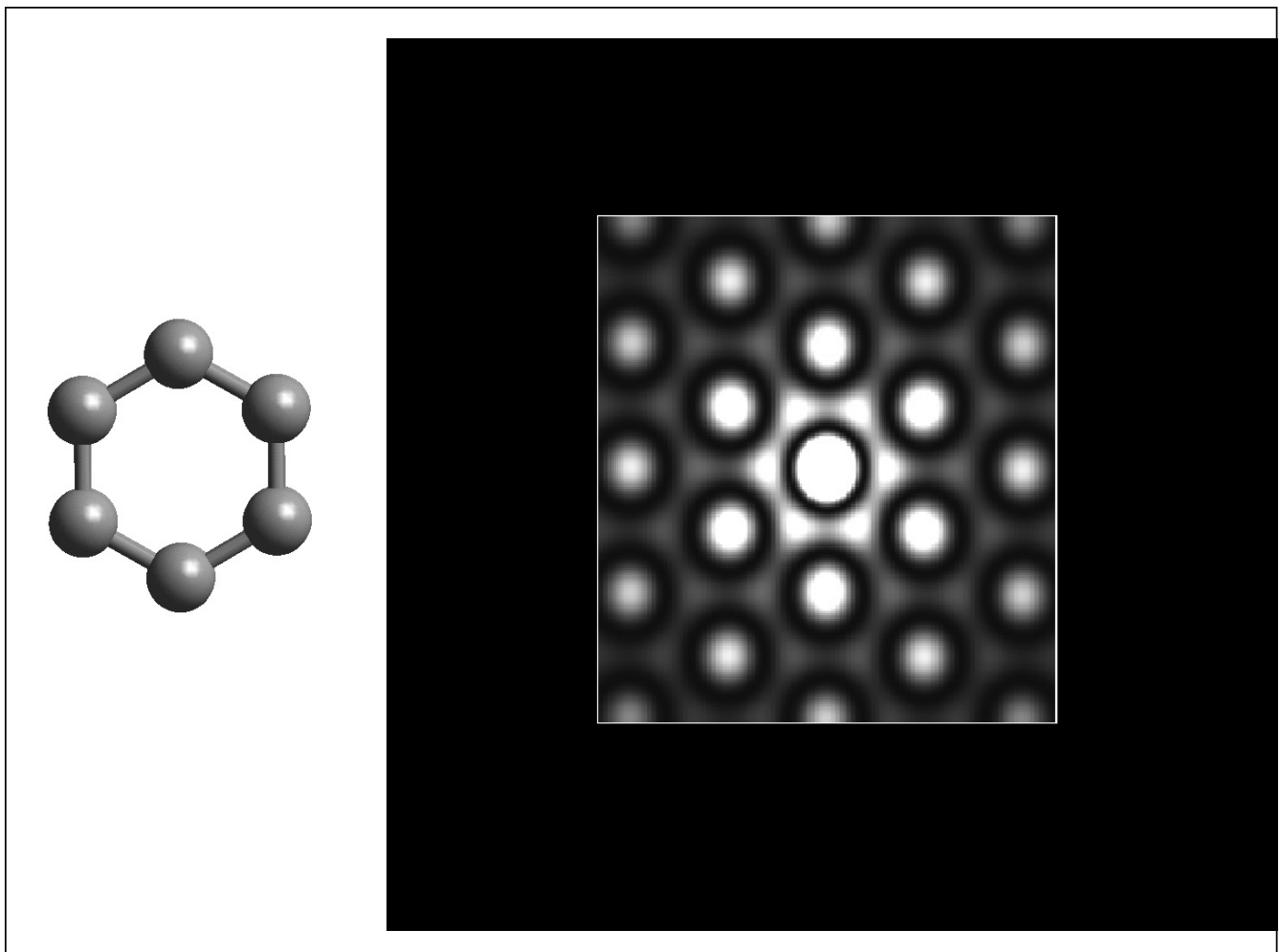
Diffraction by Molecules

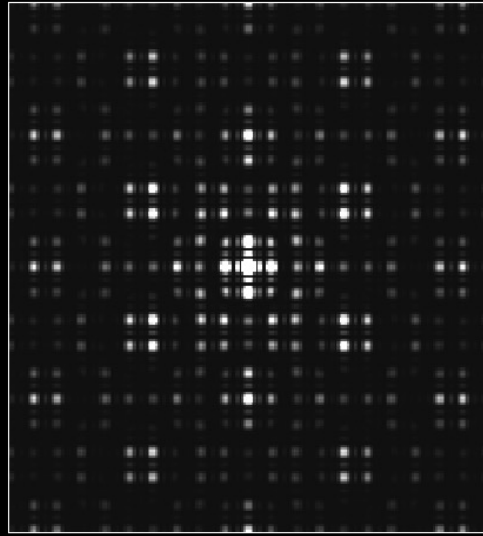
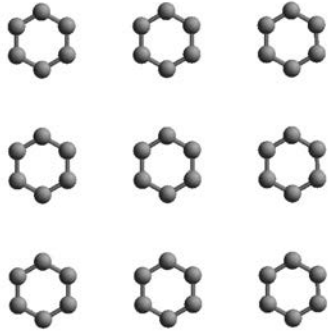
Size of repeating unit affects spacing of pattern.
Contents of unit affects intensities within the pattern.



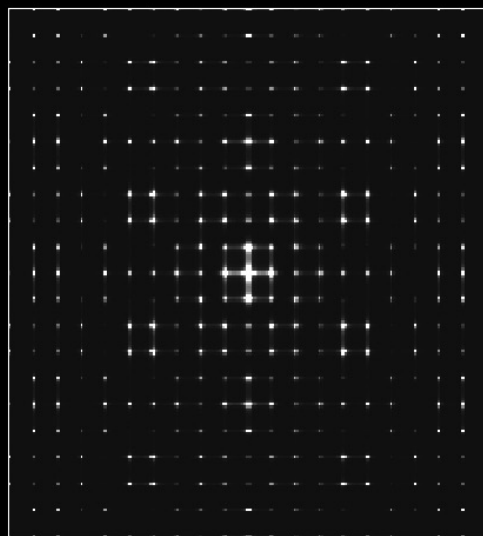
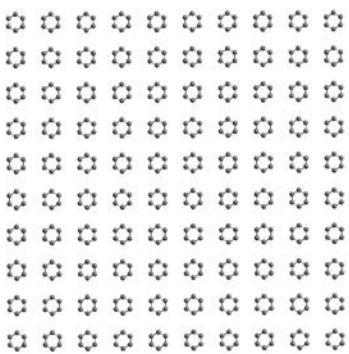


■ The size, spacing, shape and orientation of the slit or object are all reflected in an inverse sense in the diffraction pattern

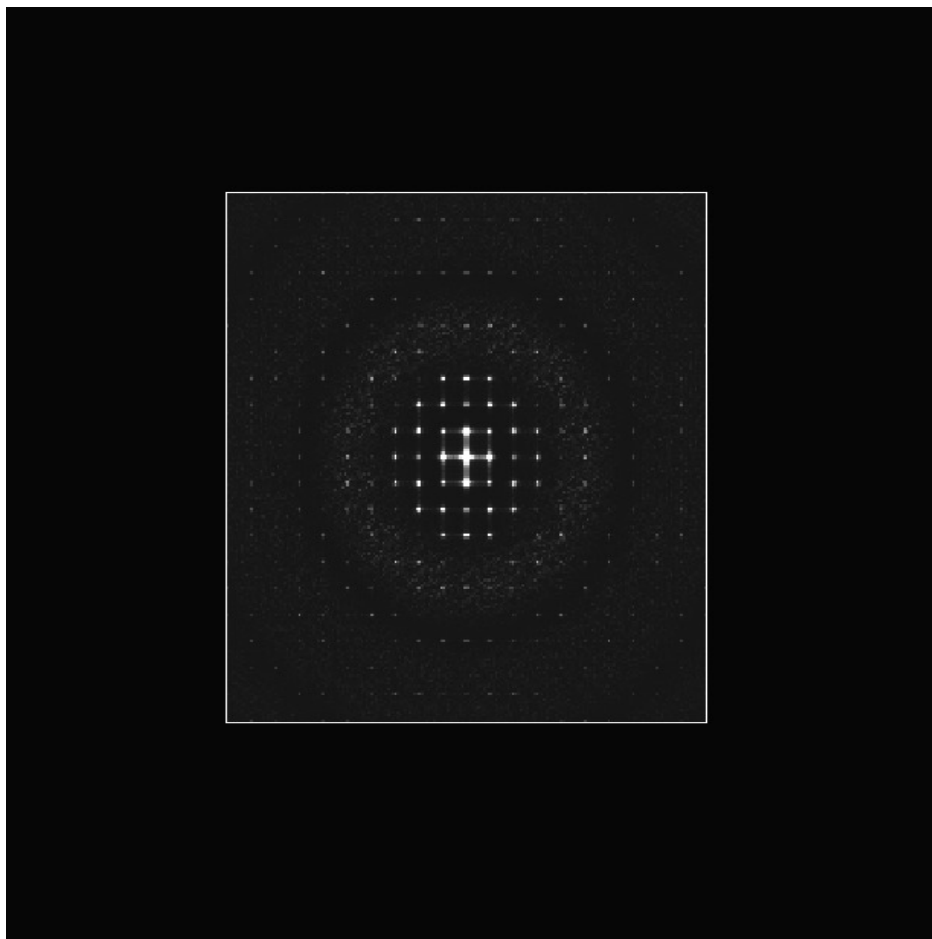
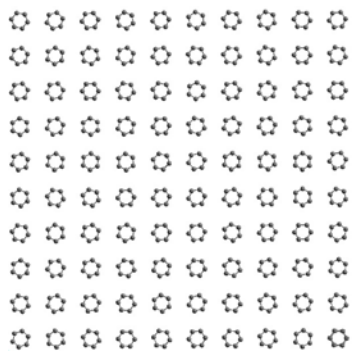




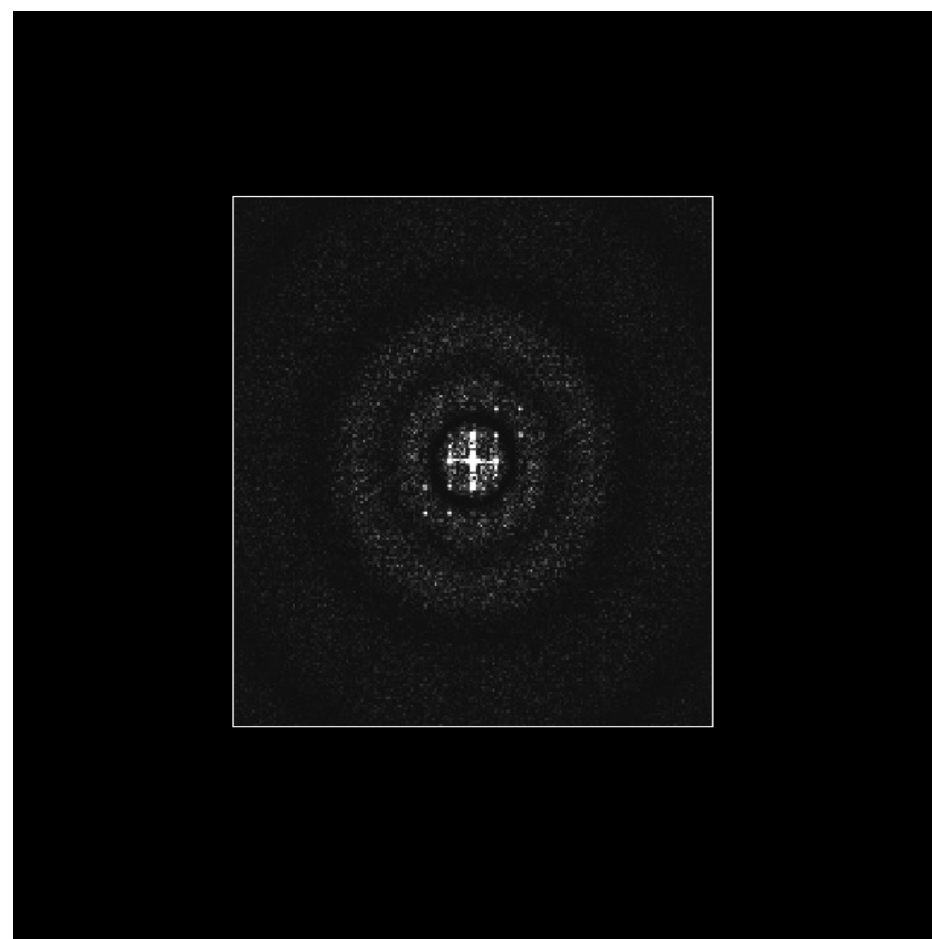
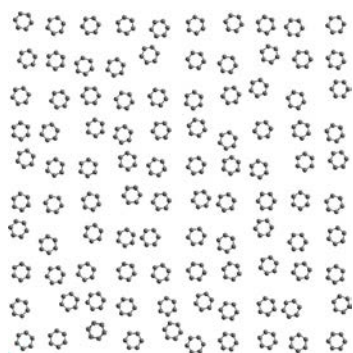
Ordered periodic
arrangement
= sharp diffraction
pattern (Bragg peaks)



Disorder
= breakdown of the
strict periodic array
= reduction in pattern
sharpness and in
Bragg intensities

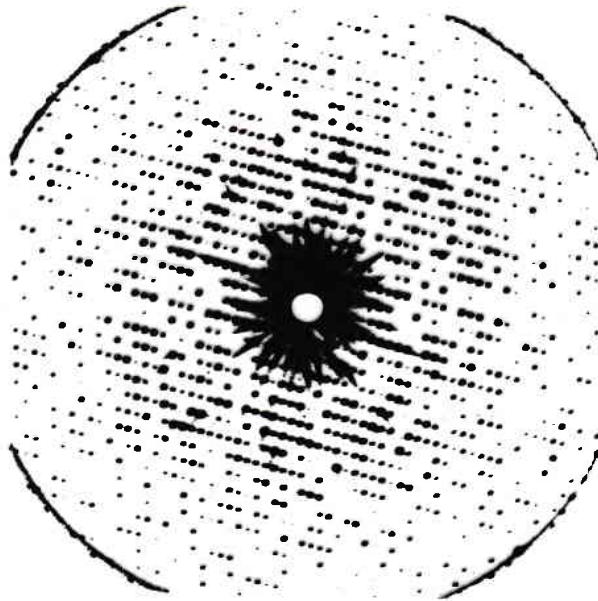


Severe disorder
= loss of periodic array
= loss of diffraction
spots and increase in
diffuse scattering



Essentially impossible
to determine the crystal
structure via routine
methods

Diffraction Photograph of a Real Crystal



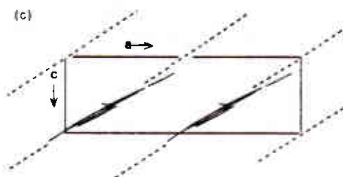
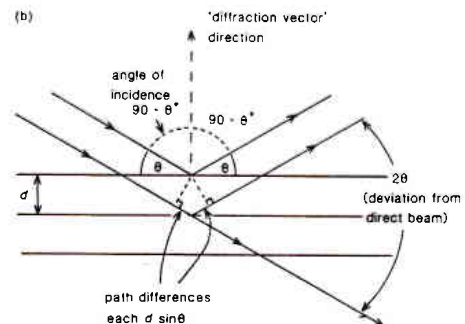
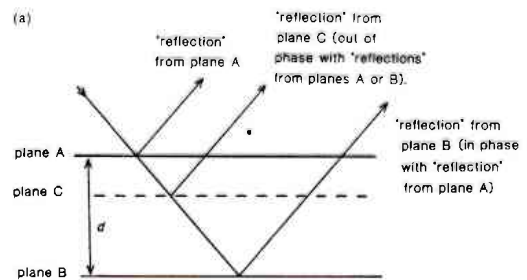
Bragg's Equation

$$n \cdot \lambda = 2d \cdot \sin \theta$$

Reflection of X-rays by imaginary planes through lattice points in the crystal

Atoms or molecules on or close to a lattice plane gives strong intensity for the corresponding diffracted beam (reflection)

No atoms or molecules on or close to a lattice plane gives weak intensity for that reflection



When using X-rays, why do Bragg intensities fall off as the diffraction angle increases?

Atoms have a finite size which depends on the element.

Interference arises between the scattering from the electrons at different positions within the atom.

The larger the atom, the greater the interference as the diffraction angle increases.

Cf. single slits of different sizes.

This property is known as the Atomic Scattering Factor and is tabulated for all elements, ions and common X-ray wavelengths.

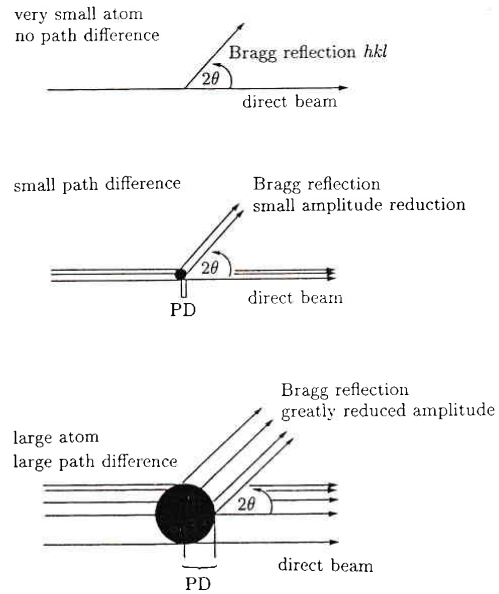
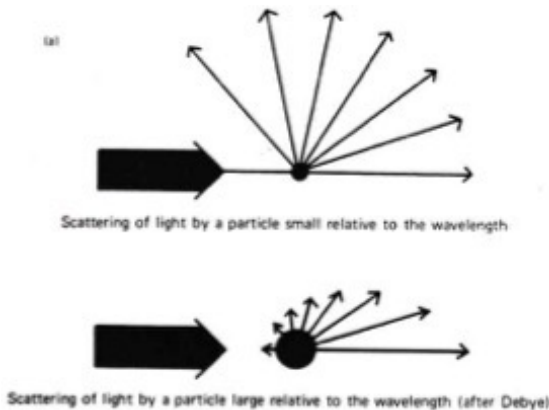


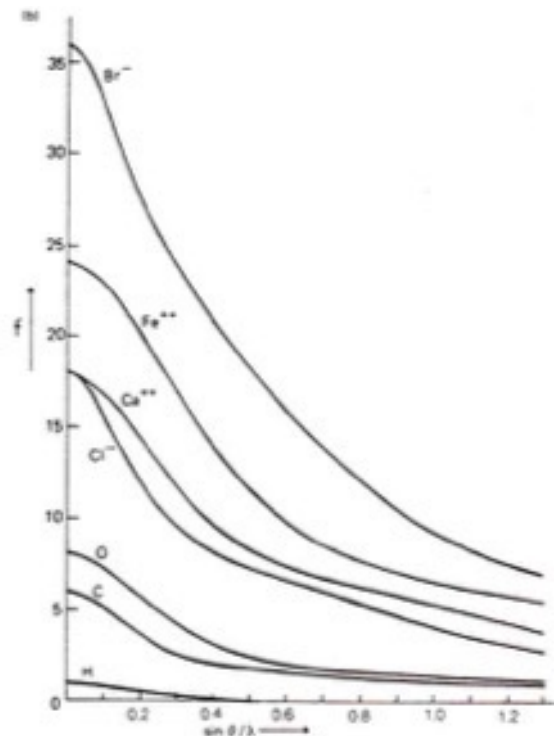
FIGURE 3.12. The effect of the size of an atom, relative to the wavelength of the incident radiation, on the intensities of diffracted beams as the scattering angle 2θ increases. As the phase difference between waves scattered by the different outer regions of an atom increases, so does the falloff in intensity as a function of 2θ (or $\sin \theta/\lambda$). (a) A very small atom (e.g., the nucleus of an atom, detected by neutron diffraction). (b) A larger atom, and (c) a very large atom. The falloff in intensity is greatest in (c) because the path difference (PD) for the largest size atom is greatest.

This interference property is known as the Atomic Scattering Factor, f , and is tabulated for all elements, ions and common X-ray wavelengths.

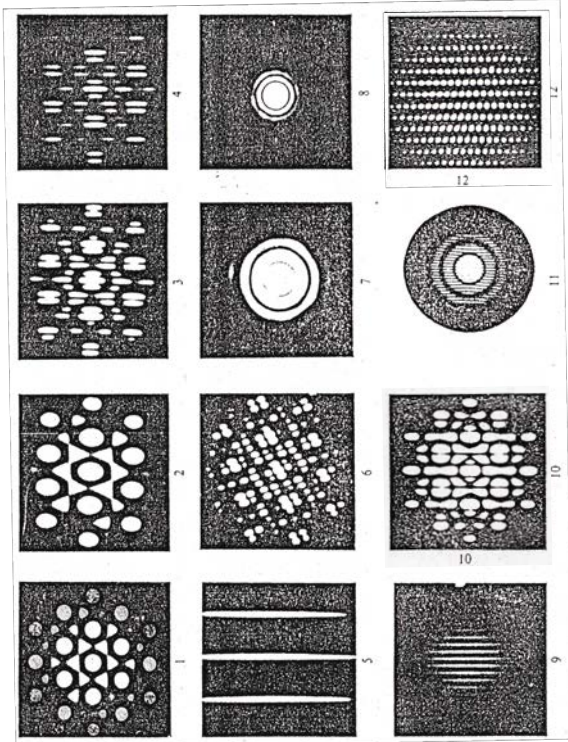
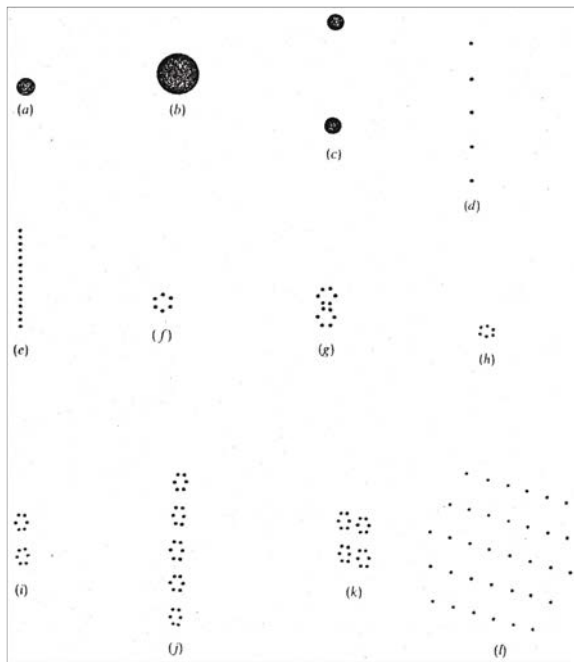
At zero scattering angle (direct beam, y intercept on the graph), the f value is just the number of electrons in the atom or ion.



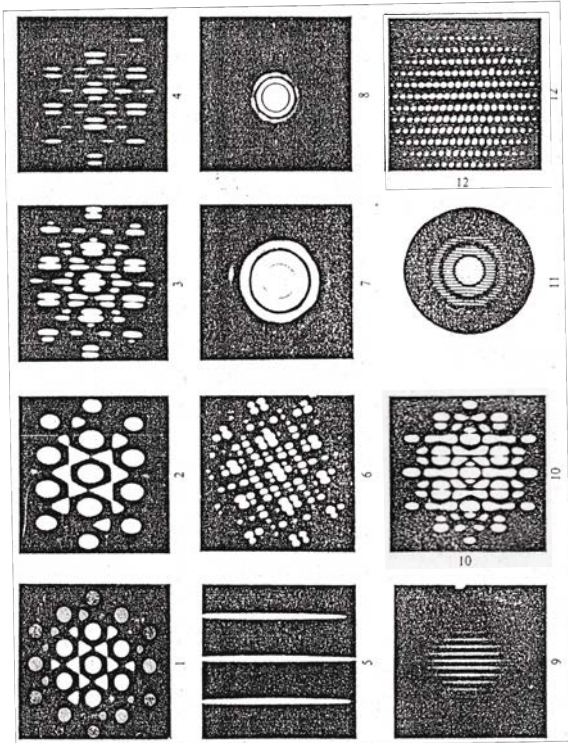
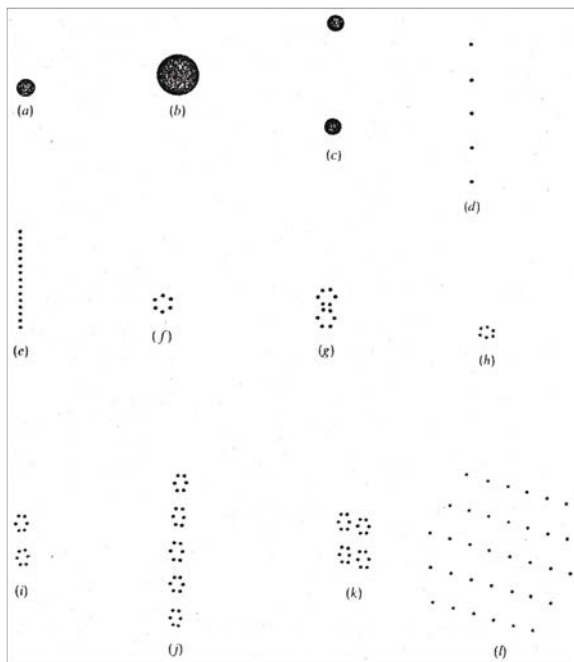
Scattering Factors



Match the real space motif to the diffraction pattern

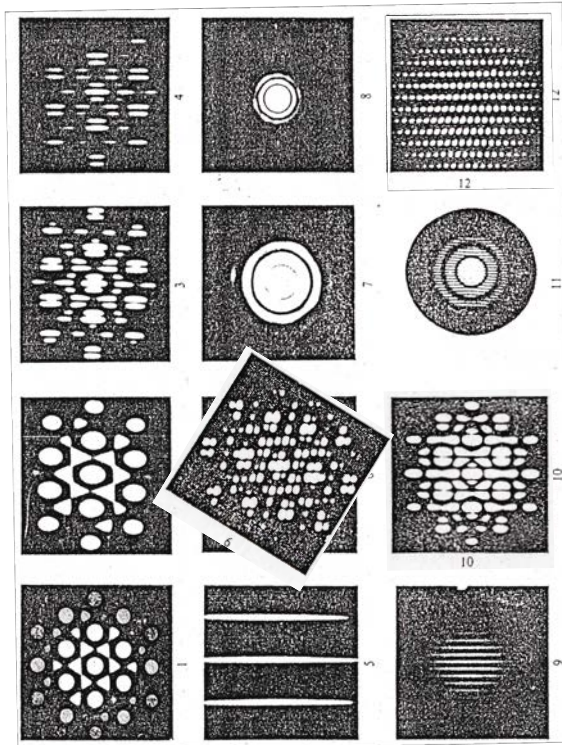
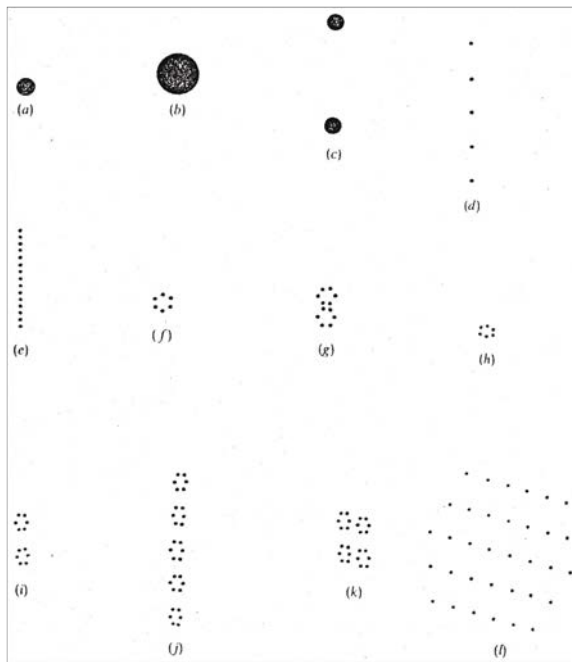


Match the real space motif to the diffraction pattern



a/7 b/8 c/11 d/9 e/5 f/1 g/10 h/2 i/3 j/4 k/6 l/12

Match the real space motif to the diffraction pattern



a/7 b/8 c/11 d/9 e/5 f/1 g/10 h/2 i/3 j/4 k/6 l/12; the image for 6 was not given with the correct orientation.
 Larger object = smaller envelope (blob); larger repeat spacing = smaller line spacing; more repeats give sharper lines.