Glass Structure by Synchrotron Techniques

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Glass Structure by Synchrotron Techniques

 Knowledge of structure is important in glass science and technology

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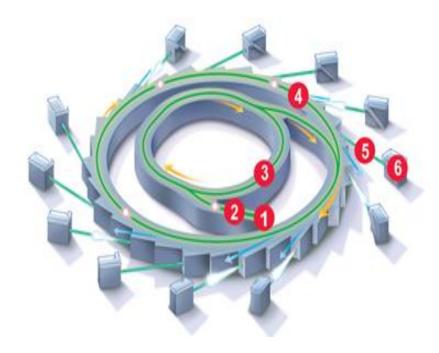
- Understanding and controlling physical and chemical properties
- Leads to optimization of processing

- Practically all atomic-scale structural characterization techniques are based on
 - Elastic scattering
 (e.g. neutron scattering, SAXS, WAXS, AXS)
 - Spectroscopy (XAS, magnetic resonance, Raman/IR, UV/VIS, XPS, QENS, XPCS, IXS etc.)



How do synchrotrons work?

- A Synchrotron accelerates electrons using magnets and RF waves, into an orbit at almost the speed of light. When electrons are deflected through magnetic fields they emit extremely bright light, million times brighter than sunlight.
- Basic parts of synchrotron
 - 1. Electron gun
 - 2. LINAC
 - 3.Booster Ring
 - 4. Storage Ring
 - 5. & 6. Beamline- End Station



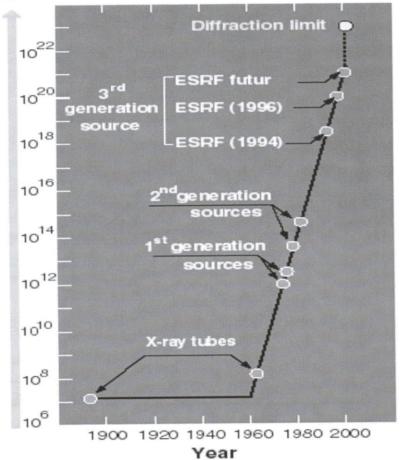


Why Synchrotron ?

Brilliance / Intensity

- Up to 12 orders of magnitude Brighter than laboratory source
- 45 synchrotron sources worldwide
- 11 in the USA
- SPRING8 in Japan is the brightest

Brilliance of the X-ray beams (photons / s / mm² / mrad² / 0.1% BW)





Neutron Sources

Reactor sources

Neutrons produced from fission of 235 U. Moderated to thermal energies (5 to 100 meV corresponding to wavelengths of 1 to 4 Å) e.g. with D₂O. These are continuous sources.

Spallation sources

Proton acclerator and heavy metal target (e.g. W or U) Higher energy neutrons, comes in pulses, wider range of incident neutron energies



Neutron vs. x-ray: properties

Neutron

- Mass = 1.675x10⁻²⁷ kg
- Charge = 0; spin = $\frac{1}{2}$
- Has magnetic dipole moment
- Wavelength can vary over a wide range (e.g. 1 to 30 Å)

Photon

- Mass = 0
- Spin = 1
- Charge =0
- Magnetic Moment = 0
- High-energy x-ray (40 to 100 keV) provides wavelength range of 0.125 to 0.3 Å



Neutron vs. x-ray: advantages & disadvantages

Neutron

λ = inter-atomic spacing
 Penetrates bulk matter
 Strong isotopic contrast
 possible

Magnetic order can be probed

Low brilliance, needs large sample

Not suitable for some elements e.g. B (needs isotopic replacement) X-ray

 λ = inter-atomic spacing High brilliance. High resolution Needs small sample

Weak scattering from light elements No isotopic contrast Radiation damage to samples



Scattering Techniques

X-ray and Neutron Scattering



Theory of elastic x-ray (and neutron) scattering

Elastic (Thomson) scattering of photon by one electron:

 $\frac{d \sigma}{d \Omega}$ = # of scattered photons into unit solid angle/ # of incident photons per unit time

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \left(\frac{e^2}{mc^2}\right)^2 \left[\frac{1+\cos^2\theta}{2}\right] = r_0^2 P$$

 $r_0 = 2.82$ fm is the Thomson scattering length, P is the polarization factor.

Atom has many electrons in the form of an electron cloud around the nucleus.



Atomic form factor or scattering factor *f* is the ratio of amplitude of wave scattered by an atom to that by an electron

$$f(Q) = \int_{0}^{\infty} \rho(\mathbf{r}) e^{-iQ.\mathbf{r}} dr$$

FT of the spatial distribution of electron cloud, considered to spherically symmetric.

A wave has a momentum $p = \hbar k$. Momentum transfer due to scattering is $Q = k_f - k_i$.

** Neutrons are scattered by nuclei; $\frac{d^{\sigma}}{d^{\Omega}} = b^2$ for single atom b= nuclear scattering cross section (Q-independent !)



X-ray and Neutron scattering lengths

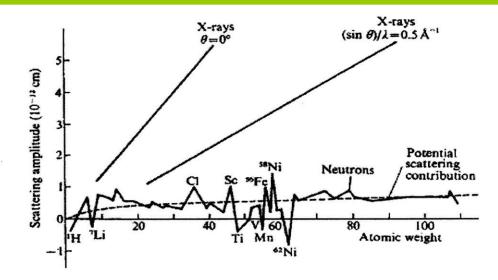
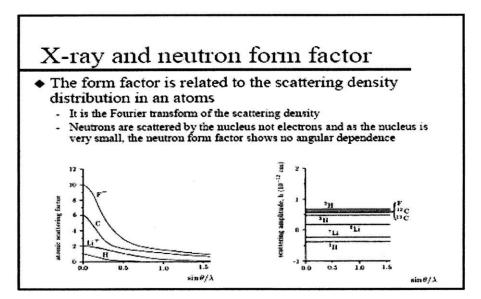
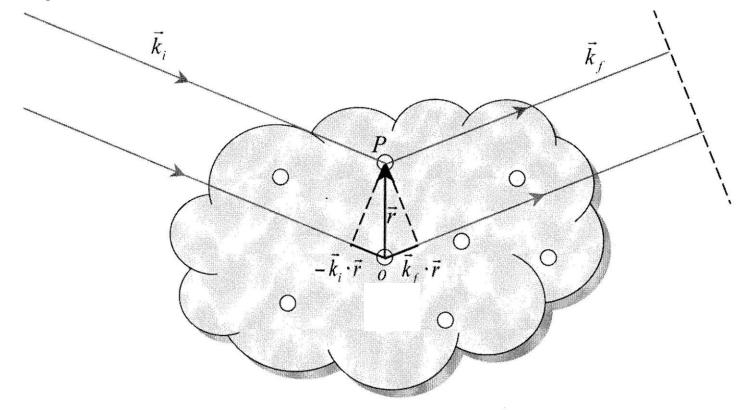


Figure 20. Coherent scattering lengths for x-rays $(r_e f)$ and neutrons (b) as a function of atomic number. Note the dependence on $q \propto \sin \theta / \lambda_o$ for x-rays but not for neutrons. Figure after Bacon (1975).





For many atoms with spherical electron clouds centered around each atom : add up phases of the wavelets scattered from all the electron clouds (atoms) in the sample.





$$\frac{d^{\sigma}}{d^{\Omega}}(elastic) = \sum_{\alpha} c_{\alpha} f_{\alpha}^{2}(Q) + \underbrace{I_{x}(Q)}_{\text{Self}}$$

Measured experimentally (plus inelastic/Compton scattering)

Distinct scattering contains structural information !! It is related to structure factor S(Q), the FT of the pair distribution function g(r):

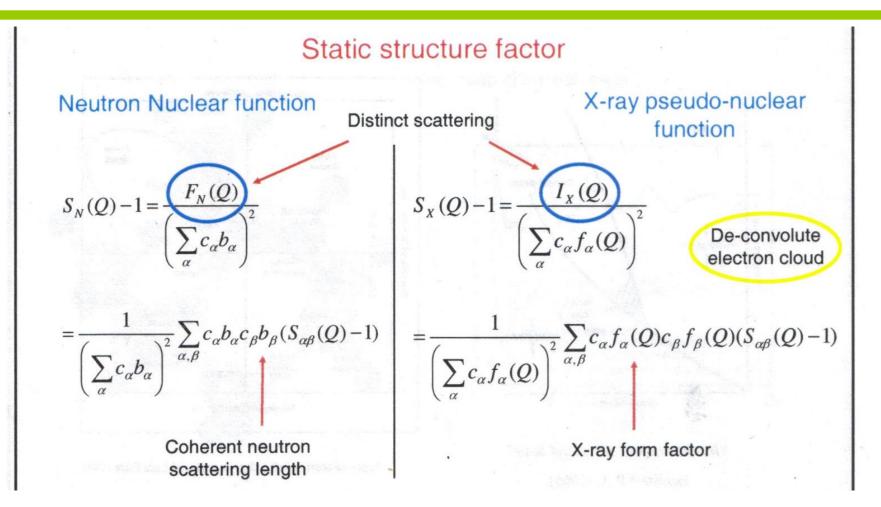
$$S(Q) = V \int dr dr \left[e^{-iQ \cdot (r-r')} \left\langle \rho_N(r) \rho_N(r') \right\rangle \right]$$

positional correlation of atoms

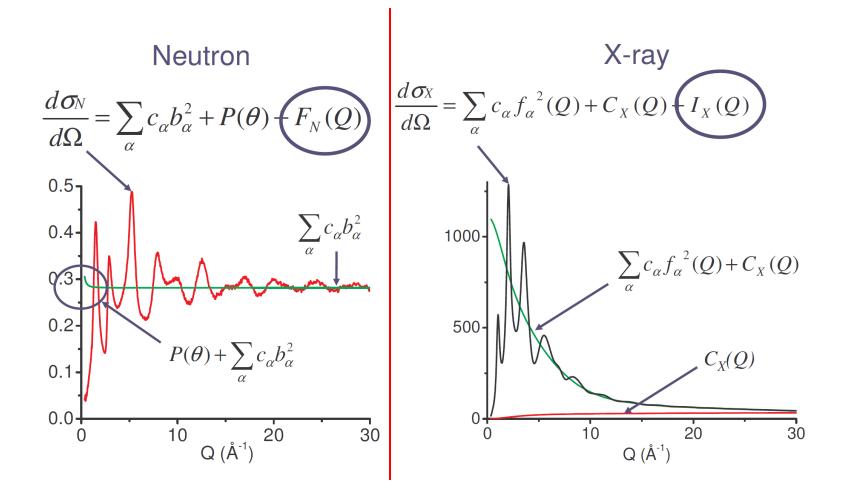


Neutron X-ray $\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}_{self} + \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}_{Compton}$ $\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}_{self} + \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}_{Inelastic} + \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega}_{distinct}$ $d\sigma$ $d\Omega_{distinct}$ $= \sum c_{\alpha} f_{\alpha}^{2}(Q) + C_{X}(Q) + I_{X}(Q)$ $= \sum c_{\alpha} b_{\alpha}^{2} + P(\theta) + F_{N}(Q)$ **Distinct scattering Distinct scattering** Self scattering Self scattering Compton scattering Inelastic scattering "Plazeck"



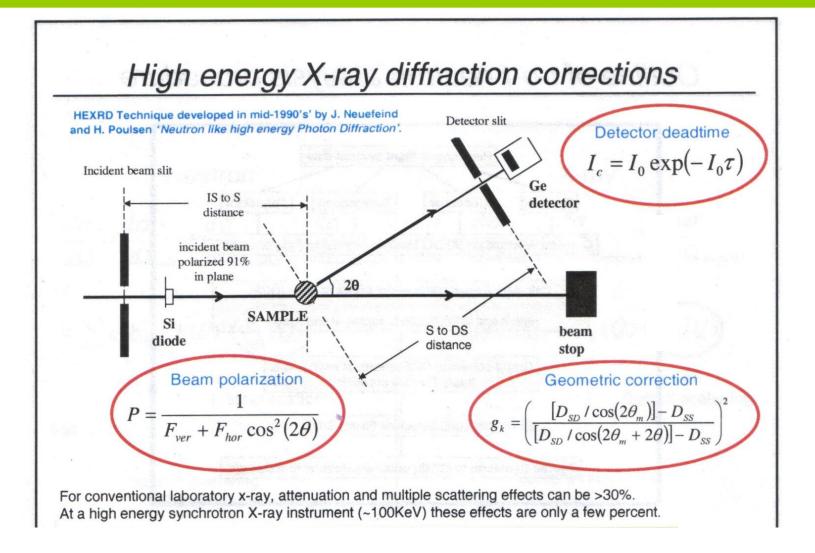






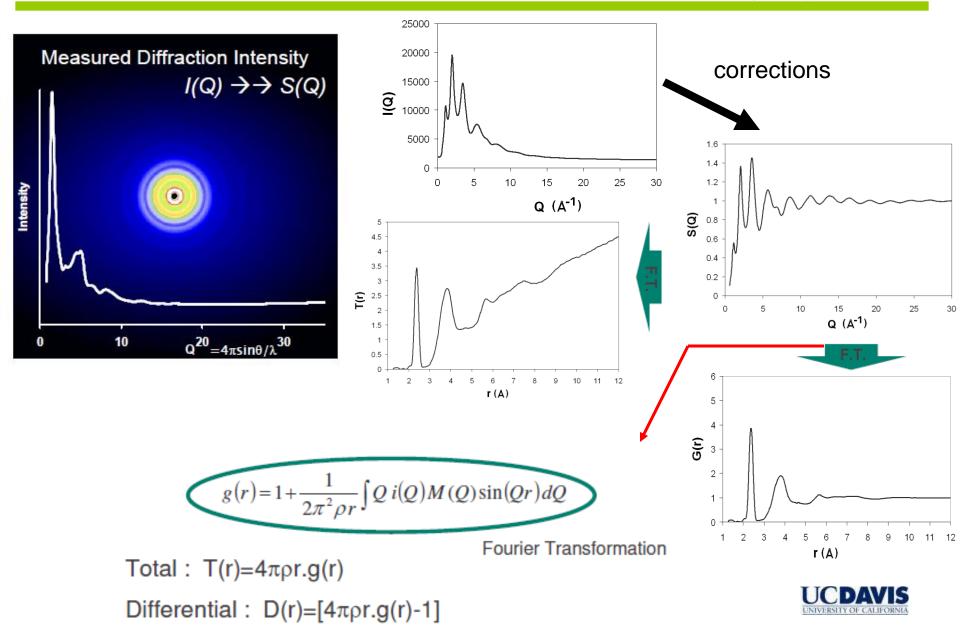


How to obtain G(r) from I(Q) ?

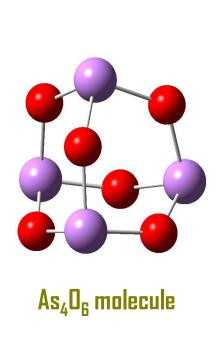


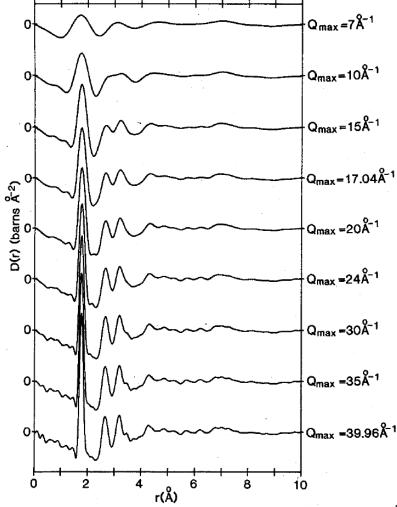


How to obtain DFs from I(Q) ?



Effect of cutoff on resolution

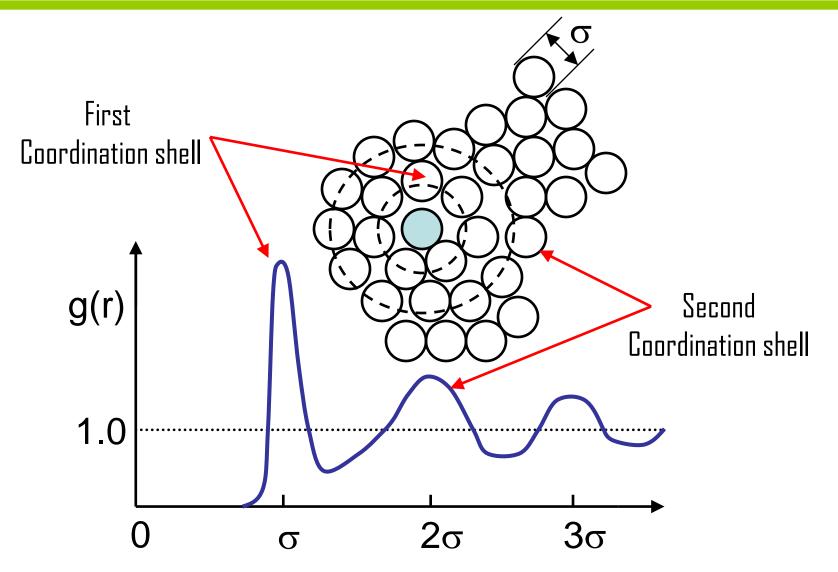




J. Non-Cryst. Sol 111 (1989) 123.

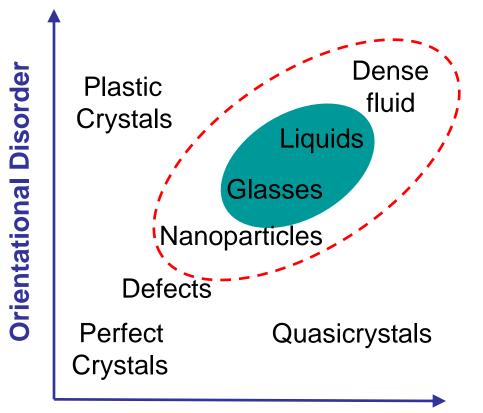


Physical meaning of RDF





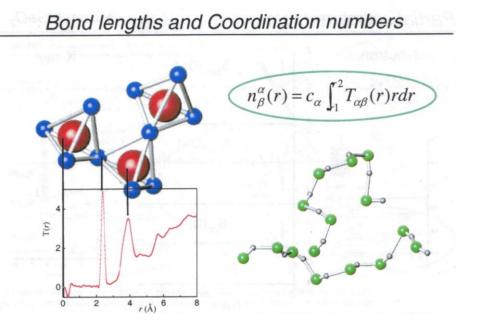
Types of Disorder



Translational Disorder



Glass structure at various length scales



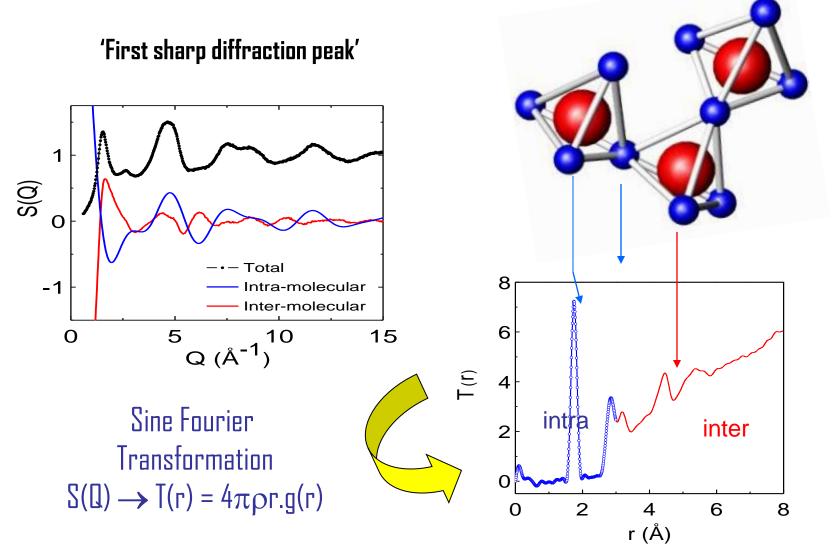


A formation of skydivers illustrates order on an intermediate length scale.

> P.S. Salmon Nature Materials 1, 87–88 (2002)



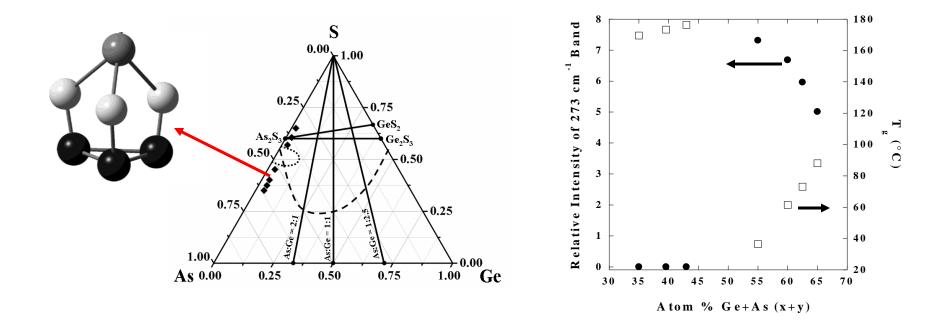
Glass structure at various length scales





Intermediate-range order

A case study of molecular Ge-doped As-S glasses:

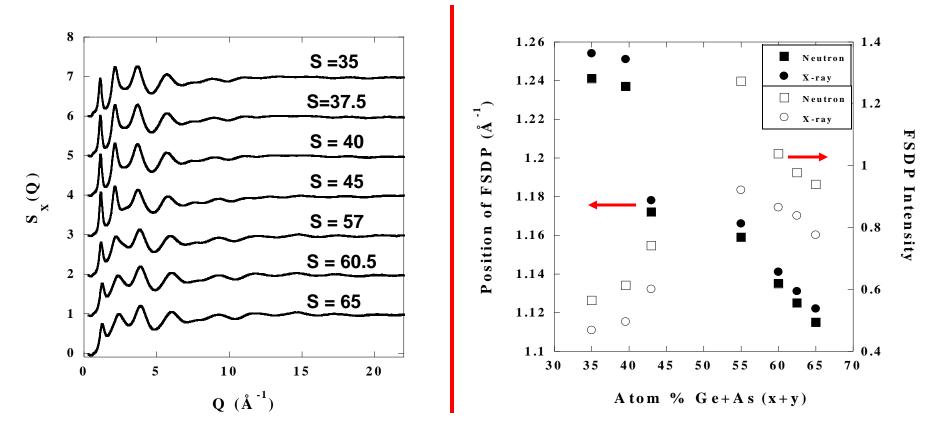


S. Soyer-Uzun et al. , 2009, JPC-C



Intermediate-range order-contd.

A case study of molecular Ge-doped As-S glasses:

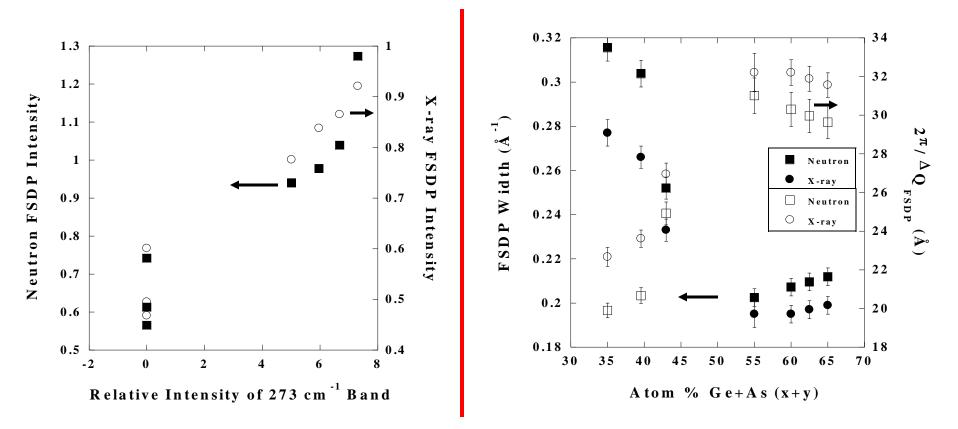


S. Soyer-Uzun et al. , 2009, JPC-C



Intermediate-range order-contd.

A case study of molecular Ge-doped As-S glasses:



S. Soyer-Uzun et al. , 2009, JPC-C



Partial Pair Distribution Functions: The Holy Grail

Remember : $S(Q)^{-1} = \frac{1}{\left(\sum_{\alpha} c_{\alpha} f_{\alpha}(Q)\right)^{2}} \sum_{\alpha,\beta} c_{\alpha} f_{\alpha}(Q) c_{\beta} f_{\beta}(Q) \int_{\alpha\beta} Q^{-1} = \frac{1}{\left(\sum_{\alpha} c_{\alpha} f_{\alpha}(Q)\right)^{2}} \sum_{\alpha,\beta} C_{\alpha} f_{\alpha}(Q) c_{\beta} f_{\beta}(Q) \int_{\alpha\beta} Q^{-1} = \frac{1}{\left(\sum_{\alpha} c_{\alpha} f_{\alpha}(Q)\right)^{2}} \sum_{\alpha,\beta} C_{\alpha} f_{\alpha}(Q) c_{\beta} f_{\beta}(Q) \int_{\alpha\beta} Q^{-1} = \frac{1}{\left(\sum_{\alpha} c_{\alpha} f_{\alpha}(Q)\right)^{2}} \sum_{\alpha,\beta} C_{\alpha} f_{\alpha}(Q) c_{\beta} f_{\beta}(Q) \int_{\alpha\beta} Q^{-1} = \frac{1}{\left(\sum_{\alpha} c_{\alpha} f_{\alpha}(Q)\right)^{2}} \sum_{\alpha,\beta} C_{\alpha} f_{\alpha}(Q) c_{\beta} f_{\beta}(Q) \int_{\alpha\beta} Q^{-1} dQ dQ$

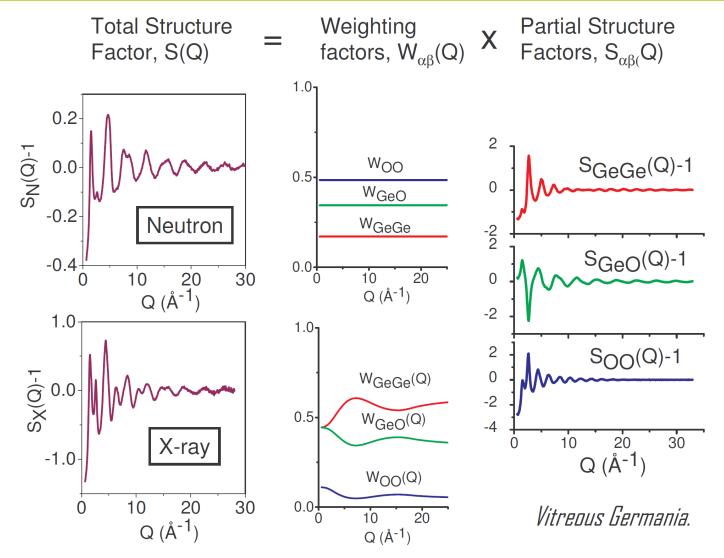
For a material with n different types of atoms there are n(n+1)/2 partial structure factors $S_{\alpha\beta}(Q)$ and hence, that many partial pair distribution functions $g_{\alpha\beta}(r)$.

A complete structural description at the short-range requires this information.

Need to vary the weighting factors of $S_{\alpha\beta}(Q)$ in the above equation: combined neutron & x-ray, isotope substitution for neutron and anomalous x-ray scattering (AXS)



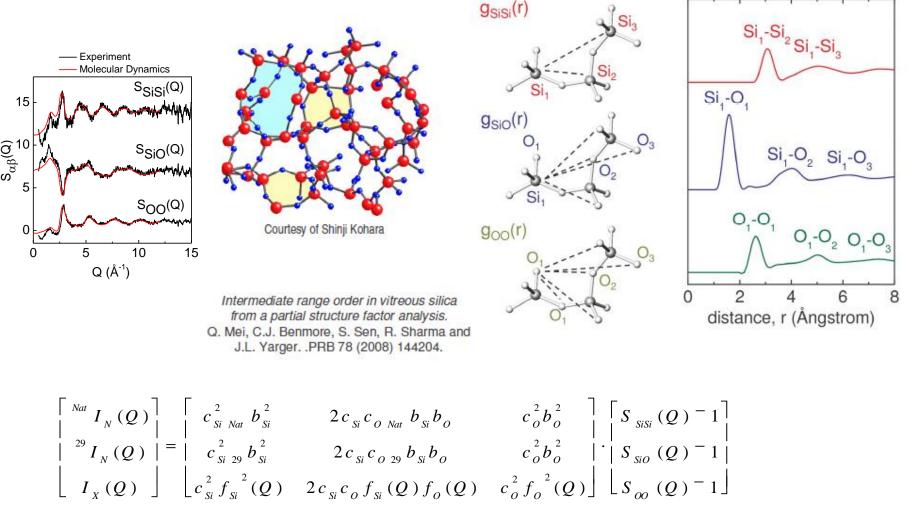
Partial Structure Factors: vitreous GeO₂





Partial Pair Distribution Functions: vitreous SiO₂

Vitreous Silica



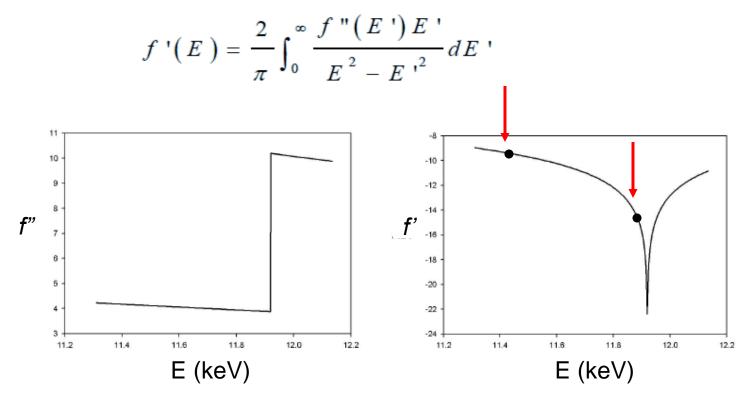


Anomalous x-ray scattering (AXS)

Marked change in atomic form factor near absorption edge:

$$f\left(\mathcal{Q}\,,E\,\right)=\,f_{0}\left(\mathcal{Q}\,\right)+\,f'\left(E\,\right)+\,if''\left(E\,\right),\quad f''\left(E\,\right)\propto\,\mu\left(E\,\right)$$

Kramers-Krönig Dispersion Relation



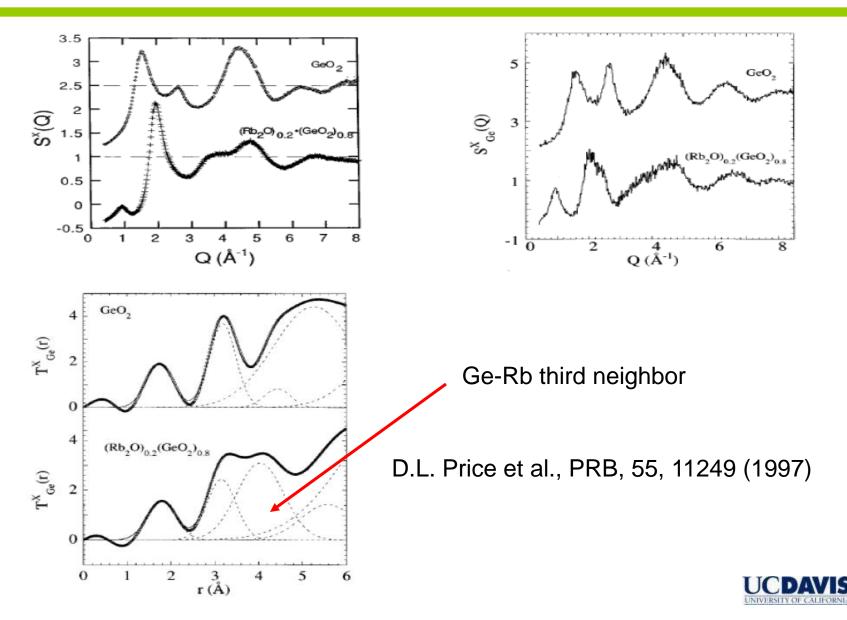


Anomalous x-ray scattering (AXS): contd.

- Limited applicability but powerful technique
- Good for heavy elements
- Longer range than EXAFS
- Depends on very small differences between S(Q) collected near and away from the absorption edge: hence requires sufficient statistics and careful data processing
- Absorption and fluorescence corrections are critical

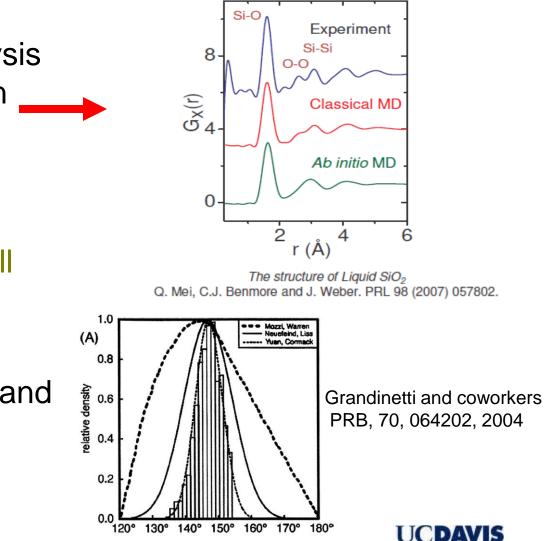


AXS on Rb₂O-GeO₂ glasses



Diffraction + Simulation (MD/RMC)

- Often a combined analysis is the best way to obtain structural information
- Most useful for multicomponent systems (will discuss later)
- Use SRO as constraint and investigate IRO (will discuss later)



Small-Angle X-ray Scattering (SAXS)

- X-rays (and neutrons) are also scattered at very small angles (0.001 to 0.5 Å⁻¹) from large scale (bigger than individual atoms- e.g. 1-100 nm) fluctuations in electron/nuclear density
- For glasses small-angle scattering originates typically from density and/or concentration fluctuations related or unrelated to phase separation
- For glass-ceramics the coexistence of glass and crystal with different densities is important
- Particle shape, size distribution, crystallinity



SAXS-Fundamentals

Differential Scattering Cross-section = $\frac{d^{\sigma}}{d^{\Omega}}(Q) = \Phi_1 - \rho_2 \frac{2}{V_1^2} nP(Q)S(Q)$

$$\rho = N_A d \left(\sum b_i / \sum M_i \right)$$

 V_1 = scattering particle volume n= concentration of particles d= density of particles b_i, M_i = scattering length and atomic weights of elements in the particle

N_A = Avogadro's number

 ρ_1, ρ_2 = scattering length density of particle and matrix P(Q) = form factor (intra-particle atomic arrangement) S(Q)= structure factor (inter-particle correlations)

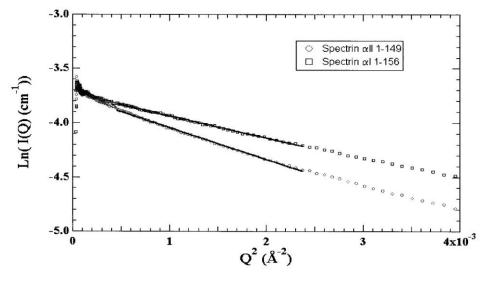


SAXS-Fundamentals: Contd.

Guinier (low Q) region, single particle scattering approximation holds $I(Q) = I(0)e^{-R_{R_g}^2Q^2/3}$

R_a= radius of gyration, related to overall particle dimension

- Looking at scattering in the low-Q regime, where $Q_{max}R_g \le 1.0$ The range can extend up to ≤ 1.2 to 1.3 for ellipsodal particles
- Plot the data as $Ln[I(Q)] vs Q^2$
- The data lie on a straight line and the gradient is $-R_g^2/3$
- The intercept is proportional to the molecular mass of the particles





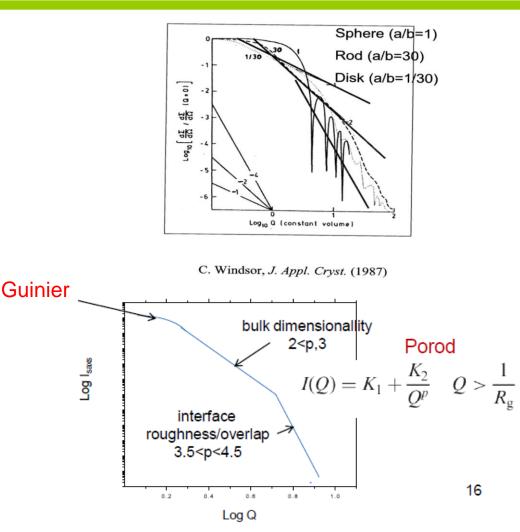
SAXS-Fundamentals: Contd.

Porod limit, large Q

 $Q.R_{g}\rangle\rangle 1$

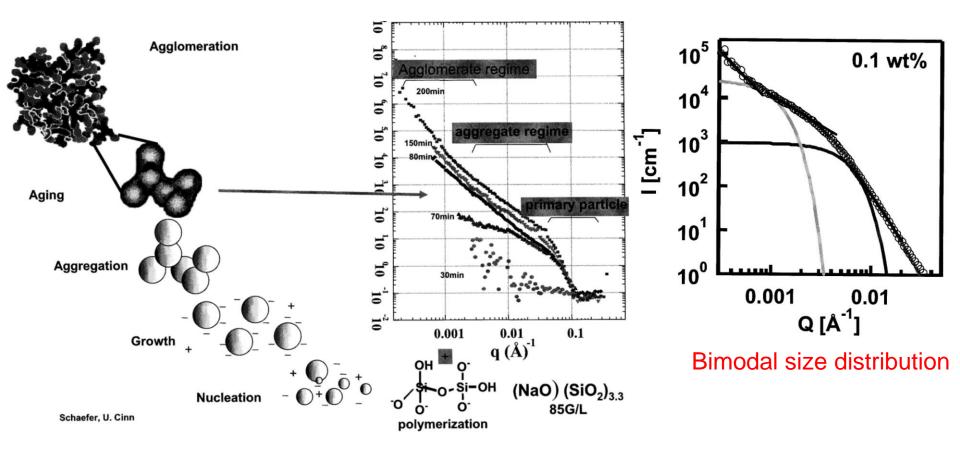
$$\lim_{Q \to \infty} I(Q) = 2\pi S_{v} \left| \Delta \rho^{2} \right| Q^{-4}$$

Spherical particles: $I(Q) \sim Q^{-4}$ Rod-shaped particles: $I(Q) \sim Q^{-1}$ Disk-shaped particles: $I(Q) \sim Q^{-2}$





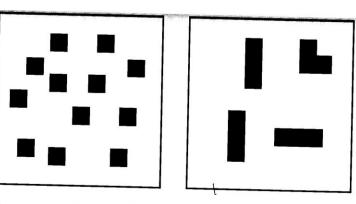
Hierarchical structures-many length scales



G. Beaucage, J.Appl. Cryst., 28, 717, 1995



SAXS Invariant



Direct measure of mean square fluctuation of electron (SAXS) or nuclear density (SANS)

The scattered intensity from above systems are different

For an incompressible two-phase system

$$\int_{0}^{\infty} Q^{2} I(Q) dQ = 2\pi^{2} V_{V} (1 - V_{V}) |\Delta \rho|^{2}$$

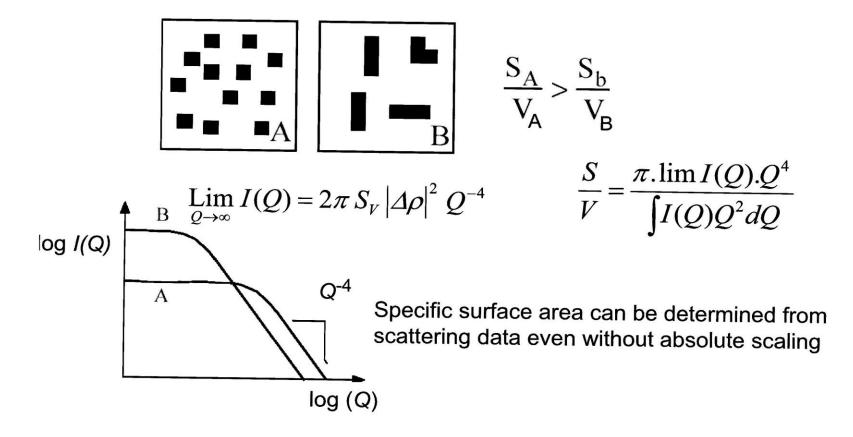
Invariant = $2\pi^2 \phi_{black} (1 - \phi_{black}) (\rho_{white} - \rho_{black})^2$

Guinier and Fournet, pp. 75 - 81



SAXS Invariant: Contd.

• S/V = specific surface area of sample

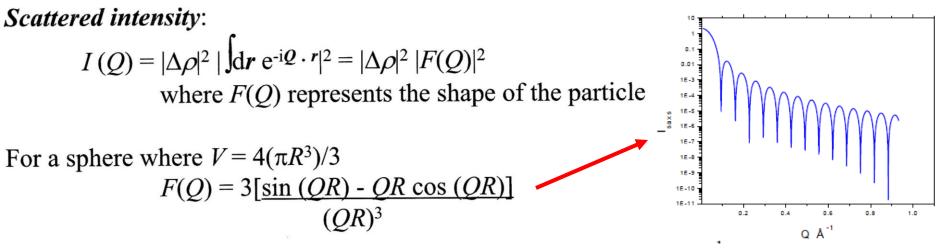




SAXS – Form Factor

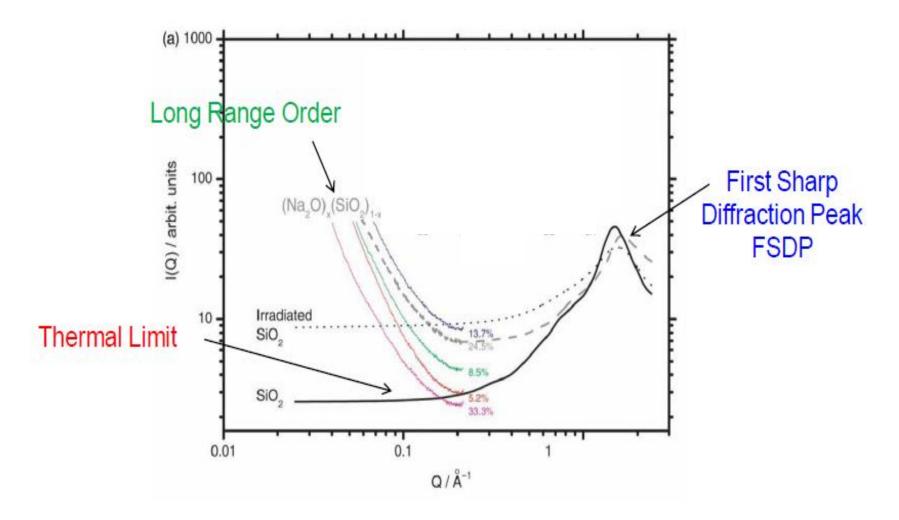
I(Q) ~ P(Q), the form factor that represents interference between radiation scattered by different parts of the same scattering body/particle

Provides information on particle morphology or shape $P(Q) = |F(Q)|^2$





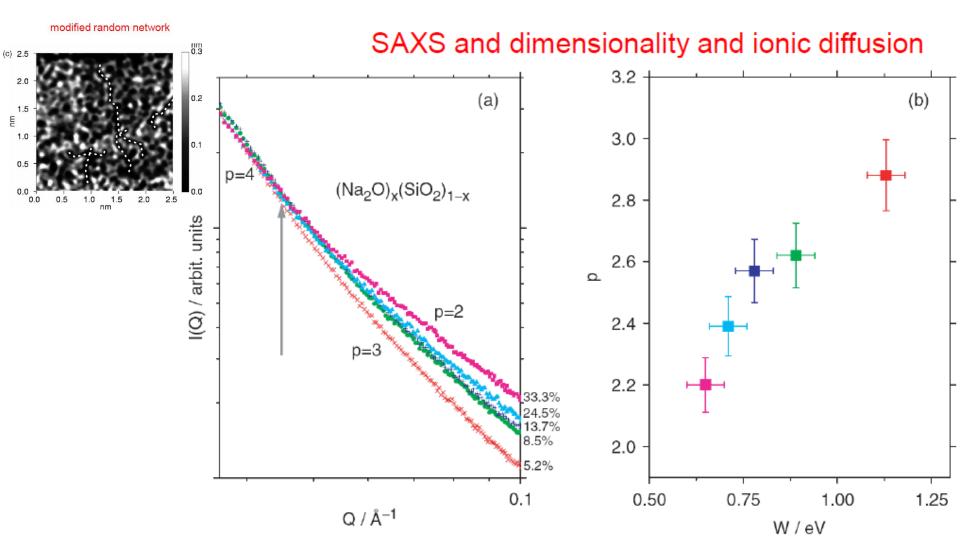
Alkali silicate glasses- density and concentration fluctuations



G.N. Greaves and S. Sen, Adv. Phys., 56, 1, 2007



Alkali Percolation Network Dimensionality



G.N. Greaves and S. Sen, Adv. Phys., 56, 1, 2007



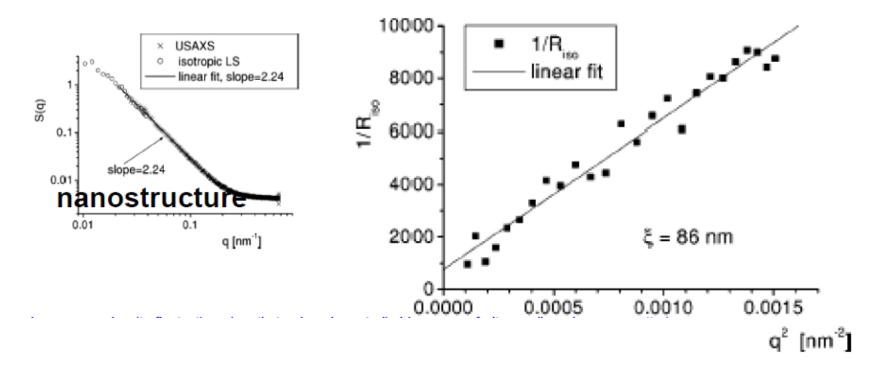
Long range fluctuation near glass transition: OTP

Ornstein-Zernike approximation

$$I(Q) = \frac{I_0}{1 + Q^{2\xi^2}}$$

H.E. Stanley, Introduction to phase transitions and critical phenomena, Oxford University press Oxford, 1971

 ξ correlation length



A. Patkowski et al., PRE, 61, 6909, 2000



X-ray Absorption Spectroscopy

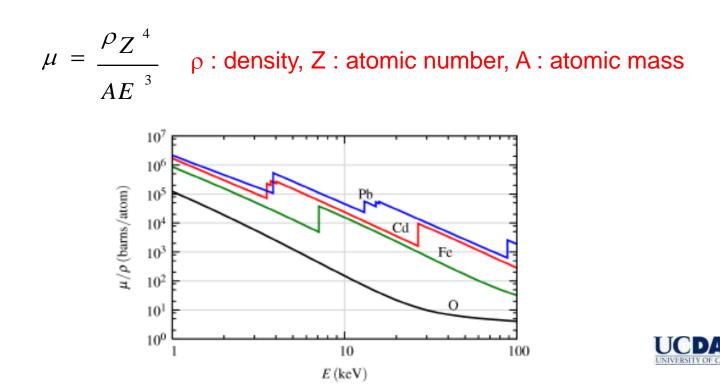
EXAFS & XANES



X-ray Absorption Process

Beer's Law:
$$I = I_0 e^{-\mu t}$$
 $\stackrel{l}{\longrightarrow}$ $\stackrel{l}{=}$ $\stackrel{I}{\longrightarrow}$ μ is absorption coefficient

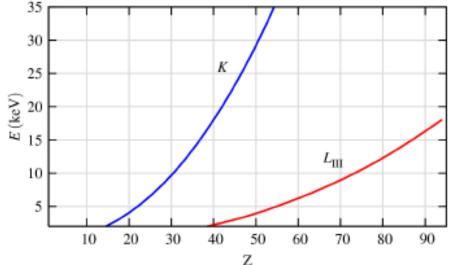
At most x-ray energies μ is a smooth function of x-ray energy E



X-ray Photoelectric effect

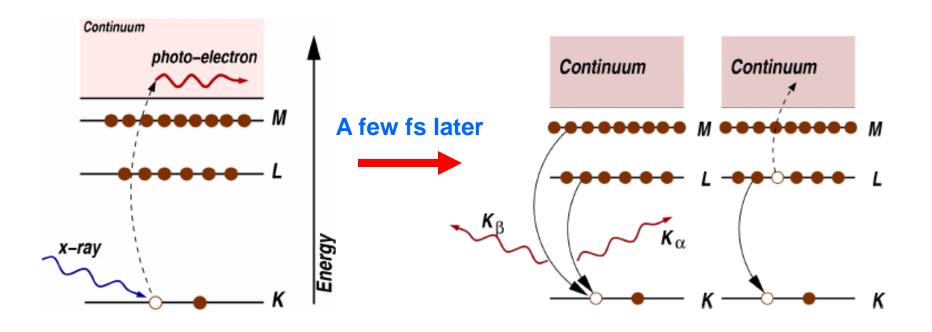
When the incident x-ray energy is equal to or higher than the binding energy of a core K,L or M electron there is a sharp rise in absorption: this is Absorption Edge

The absorption edge energy scales with Z as Z^2





X-ray Photoelectric effect: Contd.



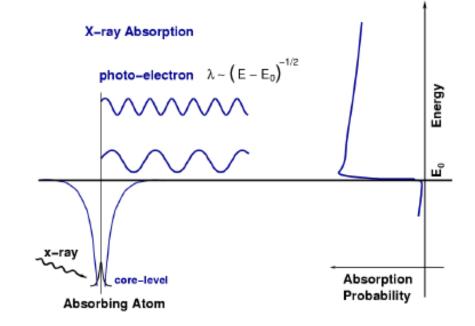
X-ray photon is absorbed by a core-level electron which is excited to an unoccupied state above the Fermi level, the core hole that is left behind gets filled up within a few femtoseconds by a higher-lying electron emitting fluorescence or Auger electron



Absorption coefficient above edge

Fermi's Golden Rule
$$\mu(E) \propto \left| \left\langle i | H | f \right\rangle \right|^2$$

For a bare atom: NO EXAFS, smooth drop in $\mu(E)$ above absorption edge

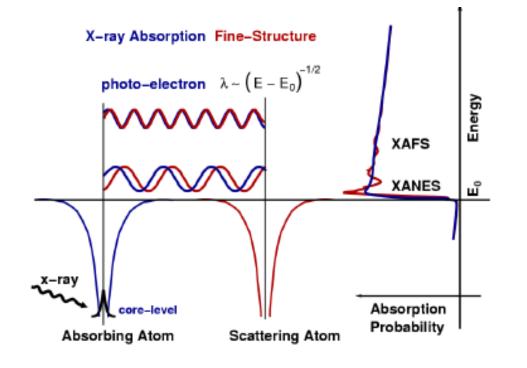




Effect of neighboring atoms

The ejected photoelectron is scattered by the neighboring atoms This results in interference between outgoing and backscattered waves.

 μ (E) depends on density of final states at energy E-E₀ that is modulated by the interference at the absorbing atom: EXAFS



THE EXAFS FUNCTION

$$\chi(E) = \frac{\mu(E) - \mu_0(E)}{\Delta \mu_0(E)}$$

Usually represented in terms of wavevector k

$$k = \sqrt{\frac{2m(E - E_0)}{\hbar^2}}$$



The EXAFS Equation

$$\chi_{(k)} = \sum_{j} \frac{N_{j} f_{j}(k) e^{-2k^{2\sigma_{j}^{2}}} e^{-2R_{j}/\lambda_{(k)}}}{kR_{j}^{2}} \sin[2kR_{j} + \delta_{j}(k)]$$

- N = coordination number
- σ = mean square variation in distance (Debye-Waller factor)
- R= inter-atomic distance
- f(k), $\delta(k)$ are scattering properties of the neighboring atoms
- $\lambda(k)$ = mean free path of photoelectron

Typically N, σ and R are fitted to the $\chi(k)$ data *f*(k), $\delta(k)$ and $\lambda(k)$ are theoretically calculated



EXAFS Data Reduction Steps

Experimentally $\mu(E) \propto \log(I_0/I)$ or I_f/I_0

Subtract a smooth pre-edge function to get rid of instrumental background and absorption from other edges

Identify E_0 , energy of the maximum derivative of $\mu(E)$

Normalize $\mu(E)$ to go from 0 to 1

Remove a smooth post-edge background function to approximate $\mu_0(E)$

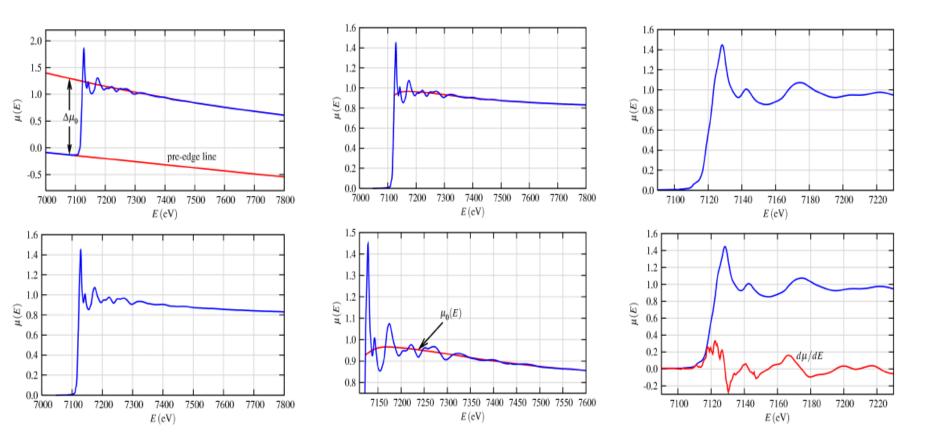
Isolate the EXAFS: $\chi(k)$

Fourier Transform to get real space pair-correlation function

Fit k^2 or k^3 –weighted $\chi(k)$ data to the EXAFS equation to get coordination environment



EXAFS Data Reduction Steps - I



Fitting of backgrounds

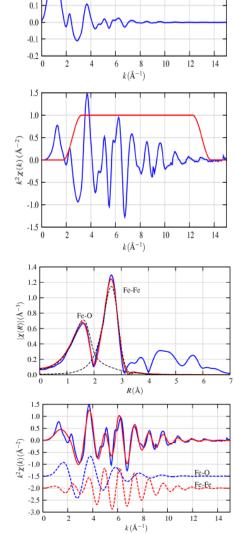
Isolation of XANES



EXAFS Data Reduction Steps - II

Experiment

Simulation



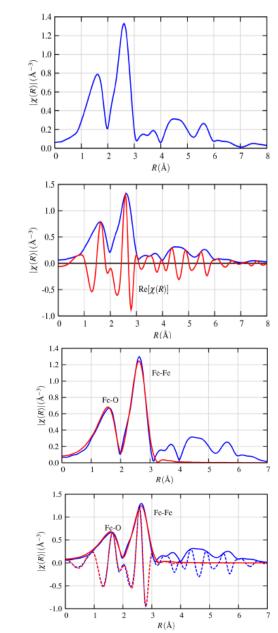
0.6

0.5

0.4

0.3

<u>چ</u> 0.2

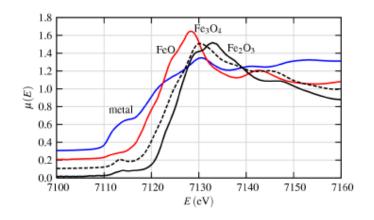


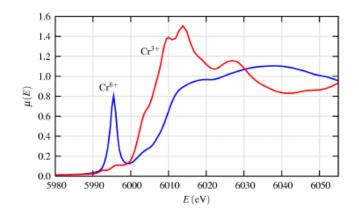


XANES: Applications

Although physically and theoretically XANES is not well understood, it is used as a fingerprint technique for determination of

- 1. Valence state
- 2. Phase identification
- 3. Coordination number/chemistry
- 4. Hybridization, band structure etc.







Nature of intermediate-range order in Ge-As sulfide glasses: A case study employing a combination of EXAFS, Neutron & x-ray scattering, SANS, RMC

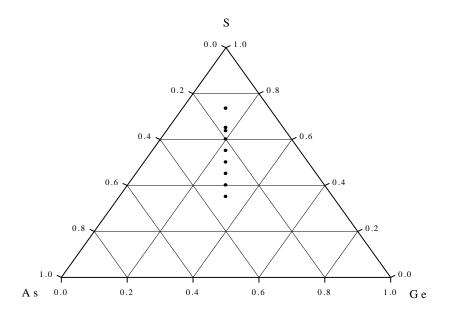
S. Soyer Uzun*, S. Sen*, C.E. Benmore** and B.G. Aitken[†]

*Dept. of Materials Science, University of California at Davis ** Argonne National Laboratory †Corning Incorporated



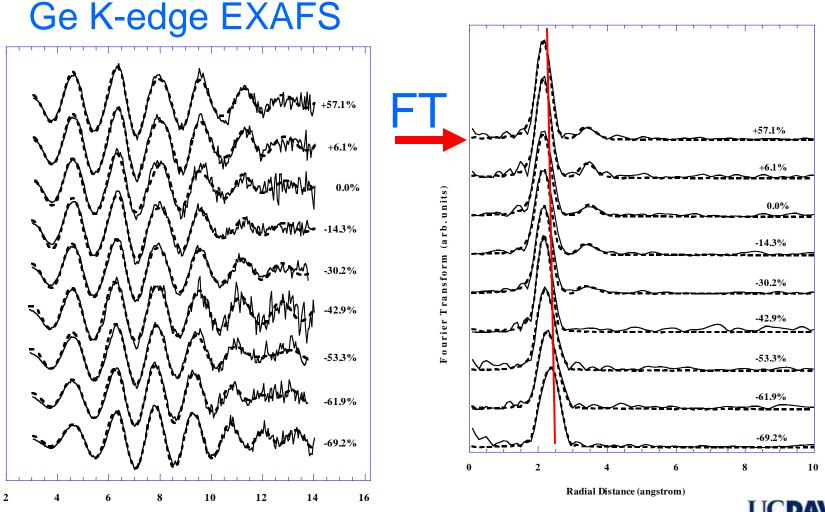
Background and Motivation

- Complex glasses with wide compositional range of glass formation
- Technologically important: passive and active photonic devices
- Model system for testing structureproperty models based on average coordination numbers





Short-range order from Ge and As Kedge EXAFS



⁻¹)

Wavenumber k (angstrom

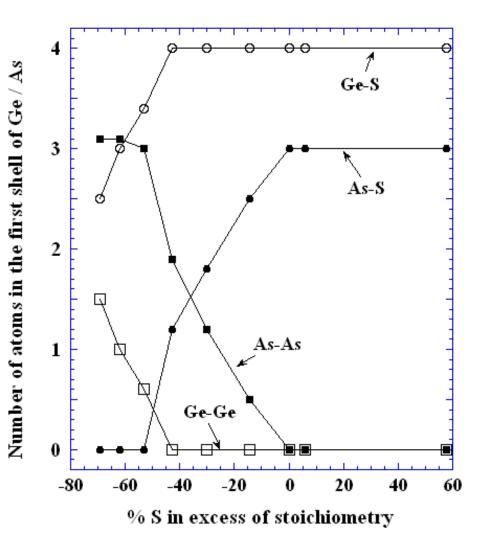


 $k^{\ 3}\chi(k)$

Short-range order from Ge and As Kedge EXAFS

- Ge and As are always 4 and 3 coordinated
- As-As homopolar bonding takes up initial S-deficiency
- Ge takes part in homopolar bonding when all As is used up in As-As bonding

Sen et al. PRB, 64, 104202 (2001); JNCS, 293-295, 204 (2001).



How to study IRO?

 Compositional evolution of RDF in real space

 Behavior of First Sharp Diffraction Peak (FSDP) parameters

Combine RMC simulation with diffraction to build large-scale structural models



Experimental Methods

- Sample synthesis
 - Ge-As-S glasses with Ge=As and 33.3 \leq S \leq 70.0
 - melting of constituent elements (≥99.9995% purity) in evacuated (10⁻⁶ Torr) fused silica ampoule at 1200 K for 24 h, quenched in water, annealed at Tg
- Neutron and high-energy x-ray diffraction
 - GLAD Diffractometer at IPNS
 - Sector 11-IDC at Advanced Photon Source, ANL (115.47 keV)



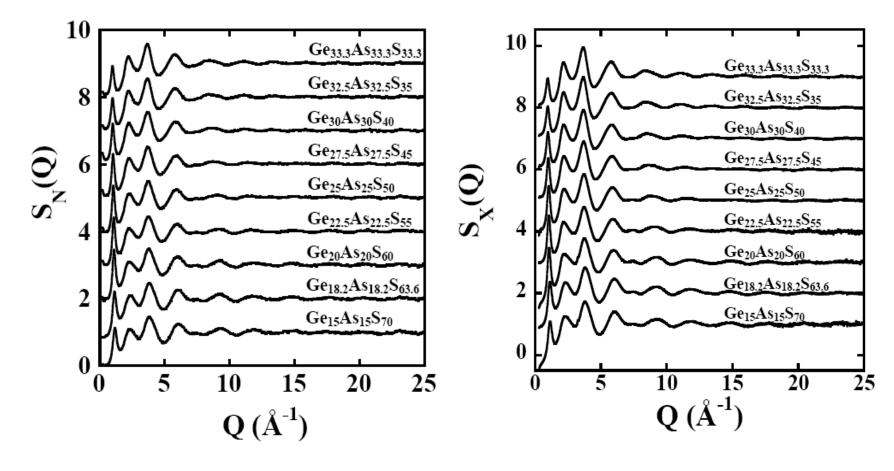
Why combine neutron & x-ray?

- structural interpretation of RDF for multi-component glasses becomes non-unique due to the convolution of a large number of pair-correlation functions
- neutrons and X-rays often weigh pair-correlations differently
- For example in stoichiometric and S-excess glasses the first peak at 2.24 Å in RDF corresponds to Ge-S and As-S correlations:

$$C^{N} = {}^{N}W_{AsS}C_{As}(S) + {}^{N}W_{GeS}C_{Ge}(S)$$
$$C^{X} = {}^{X}W_{AsS}C_{As}(S) + {}^{X}W_{GeS}C_{Ge}(S)$$

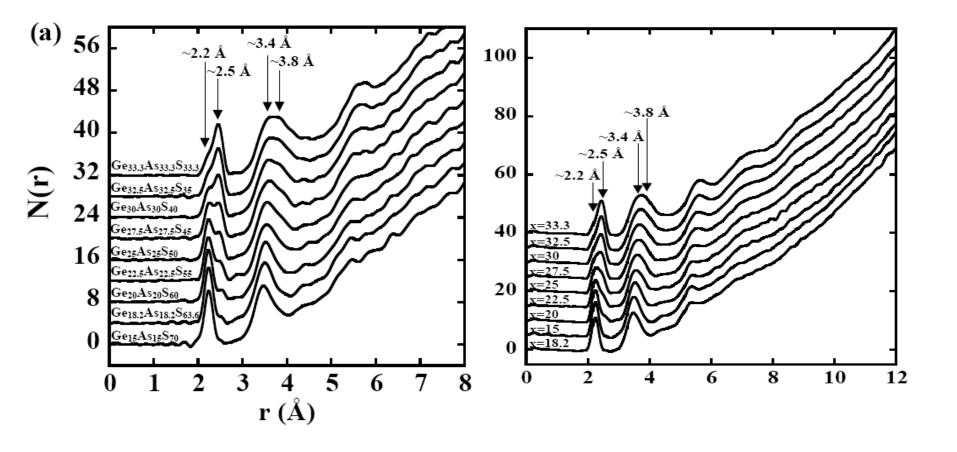


Neutron and x-ray structure factors





Neutron and x-ray RDFs





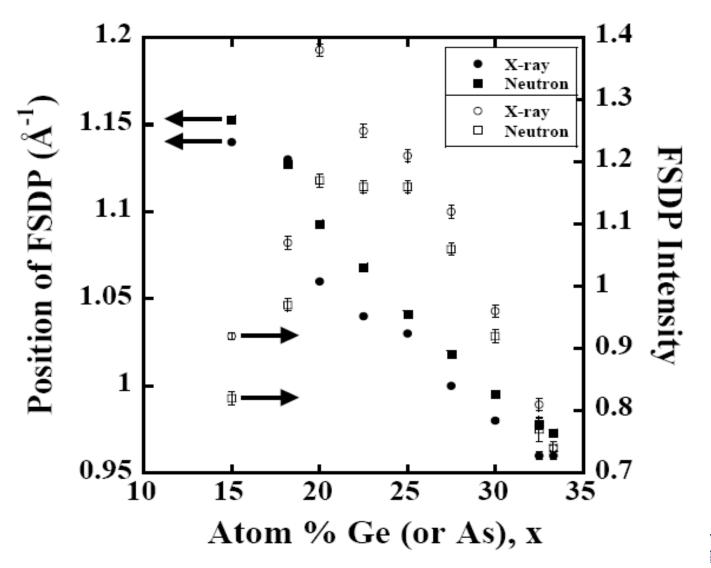
Short-range atomic correlations

- ~2.2 Å: Ge-S and As-S nearest neighbors
- ~2.5 Å: Ge-Ge, As-As and Ge-As nearest neighbors
- ~3.4 Å : Ge/As S Ge/As next-nearest neighbors
- ~3.6 Å : S S nearest neighbors

~3.8 Å: Ge/As – Ge/As – Ge/As next-nearest neighbors

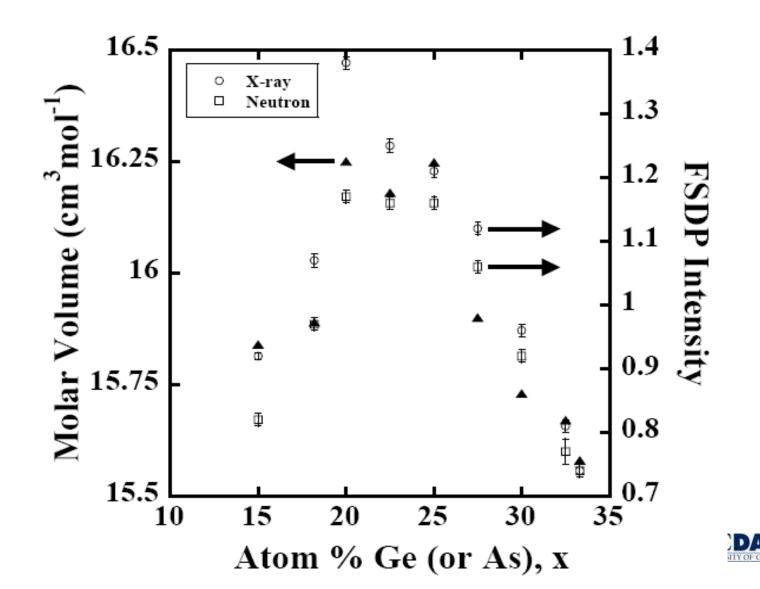


FSDP parameters: intensity & position

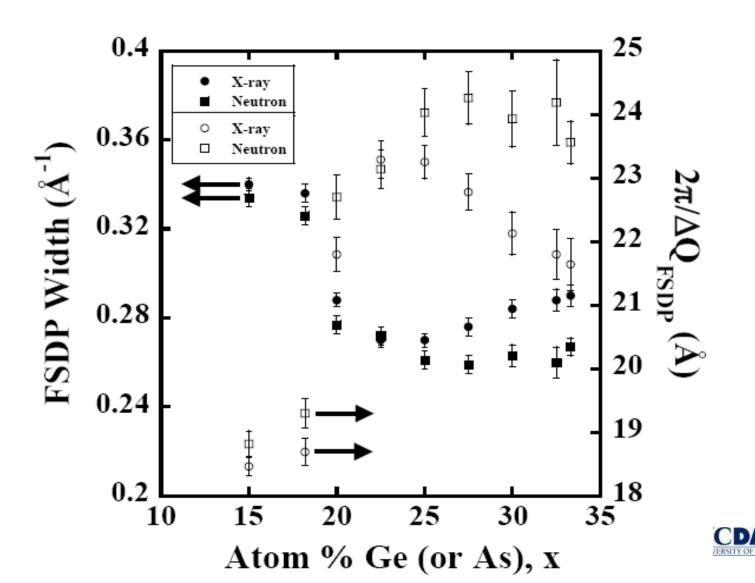




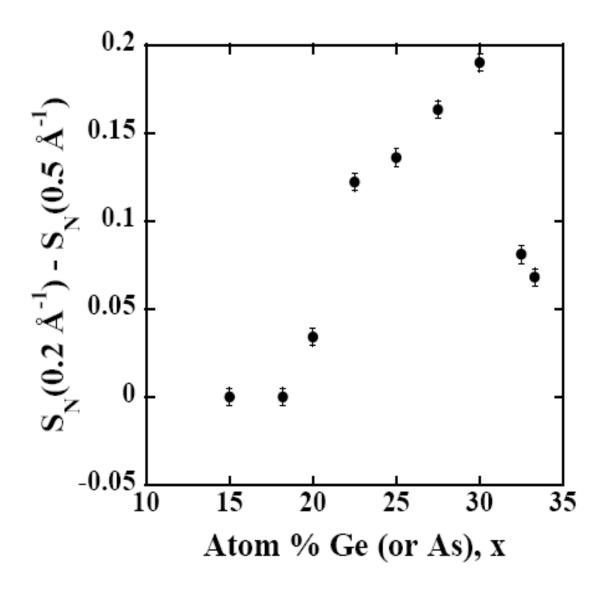
FSDP parameters: intensity & position



FSDP parameters: width



Small-angle neutron scattering



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Nature of Intermediate-Range Order

•FSDP intensity shows reversal around x= 25 where Ge starts participating in Ge-Ge/As bonding

 Metal-metal correlations in GeS₂ and As₂S₃ networks-Additional IRO from As-As correlations in As-rich clustersincrease in coherence length

 Strong density fluctuation from coexistence of heteropolar and homopolar bonded regions: increasing SAS

For x>25: loss of GeS₂ network, structure dominated by metalmetal bonded network, decrease in SAS and coherence length



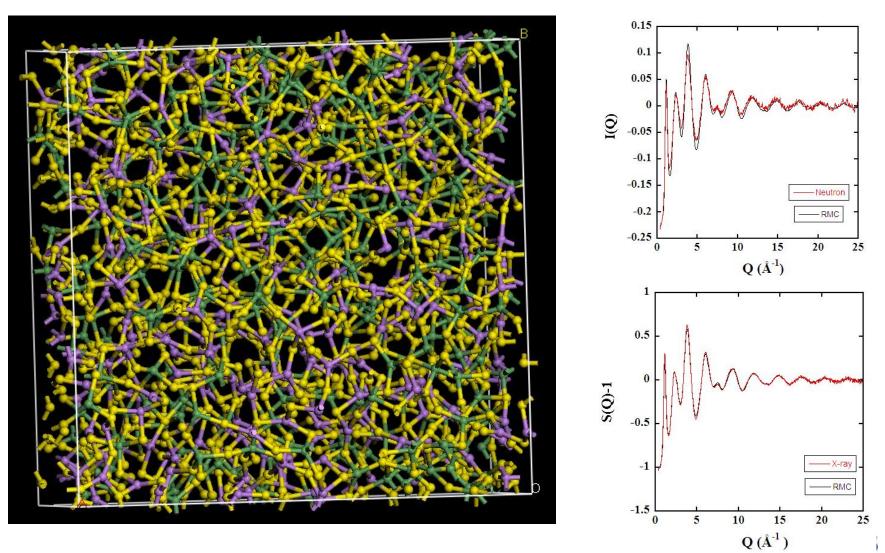
Reverse Monte Carlo Simulation

- 1. 1700-1800 atom simulation (box size ~ 3.6 nm)
- 2. Initial configuration was setup using shortrange order constraints from EXAFS and diffraction
- 3. X-ray and neutron S(Q) were fitted simultaneously using the code RMCA

(McGreevy and Pusztai; J. Phys.: Cond. Matter 13, R877-R913, 2001)

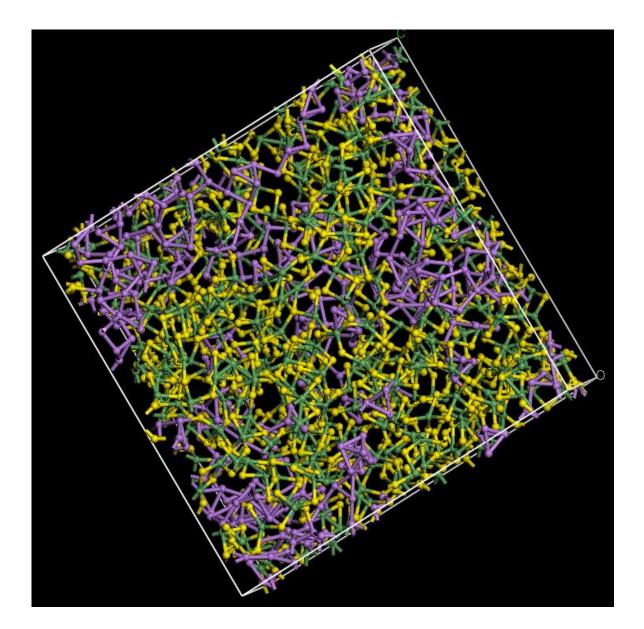


Stoichiometric glass



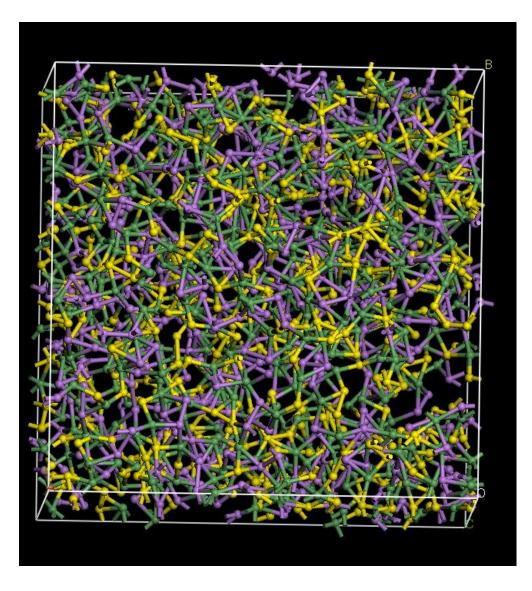
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S-deficient glass





Most S-deficient glass





New Techniques (with a lot of future potential for glasses & liquids)

IXS & XPCS



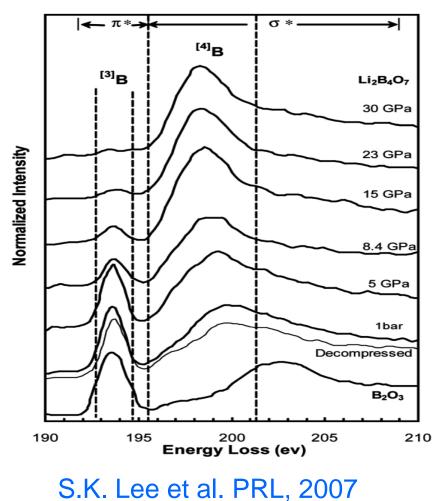
Inelastic x-ray scattering

- Involves energy loss of x-ray photon associated with bound-state electronic transitions of core-level electrons
- Especially useful for low-Z atoms (e.g. B, C, Li) where absorption techniques are not practical due to low energies of absorption
- Use monochromatic high-energy x-ray and look at energy loss spectrum (sort of like the difference between IR and Raman spectroscopy)
- Can be done in resonance to get element-specific and amplify the effect (RIXS)
- More conventional application is in studying fast dynamics (ps), sound velocity, elastic properties (xray Brillouin spectroscopy)

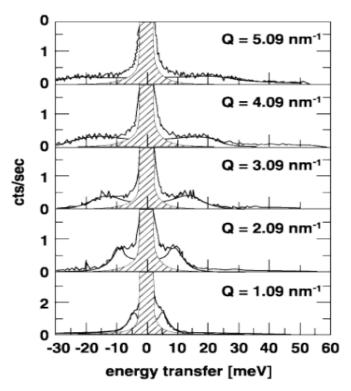


Inelastic x-ray scattering

IXS of borate glasses: pressure effect on B coordination



Dynamics in Al₂O₃ liquid



IXS spectra at 1.8 meV resolution (APS 3-ID) from liquid aluminum oxide at 2323K

H. Sinn, et al, Science **299**, 2047 (2003).



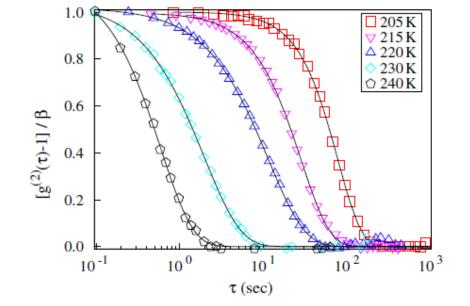
X-ray photon correlation spectroscopy

- PCS probes slow dynamics (mHz to MHz) by analyzing temporal correlation among scattered photons
- Visible light PCS is an important technique for studying the long wavelength dynamics in glassforming liquids.
- XPCS offers unprecedented opportunity in probing slow dynamics at very short wavelengths: x-ray speckle spectroscopy



X-ray photon correlation spectroscopy

- XPCS study of suspended nanoparticles in a supercooled glass-forming liquid
- At T >> Tg the particles undergo Brownian motion; measurements closer to glass transition (T ~ 1.2 Tg) indicate hyperdiffusive behavior





Caronna, et al., PRL 100, 055702 (2008)

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