

V. Elastic Scattering of Waves

Roadmap

- A "narrower" question: How to determine crystal structure?
X-ray diffraction
- What do we know? " $2d \sin \theta = n\lambda$ "

We also know that inside a crystal, there are many sets of planes (labelled by (hkl))

$$2d(hkl) \sin \theta = n\lambda$$

↳ key equation for seeing constructive interference
[which angle(s) for given λ , etc.]

- A "broader" question:

What are the properties of waves scattered by a periodic structure?

Related questions

- $2d(hkl) \sin \theta = n\lambda$ gives where to look for bright spots, is there a way to know the intensity of the spots?

- Besides X-ray, one can also use neutron scattering to study magnetic ordering in a solid. Is X-ray scattering very different from neutron scattering?

- Why is the reciprocal space useful?

- One can also use scattering techniques to probe excitations of a solid, e.g. lattice vibrations.

How does it work? [This is obviously inelastic, as energy and momentum are given to taken from the solid]

- Here, we introduce the basic formalism for elastic scattering of waves in a solid.

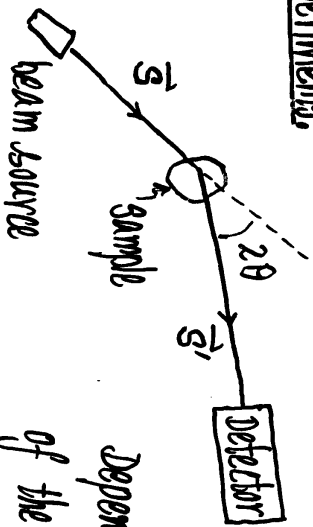
V. Elastic Scattering of Waves

V-①

A. Motivation

To probe a solid, we must do something to it, e.g. heat it up, send in a beam of light and see what will come out, etc.

A usual and useful method is to perform scattering experiments.



Depends on the aim of the expt, the beams may be X-rays, neutrons, electrons

\vec{S} = propagation vector (wave vector) of incident wave[†]

\vec{S}' = propagation vector of scattered wave[†]

[†] \vec{S} is the wavevector. In EM theory, the symbols \vec{k} and \vec{k}' are used. However, there will be many \vec{k} vectors in SSP (e.g., labelling electron waves).

Refs: Kittel Ch. 2 ; Christian Ch. 4 ; Hobbs Hall: Sec 1.4 + Ch. 11

X-rays (EM wave, photon)

- scattered by atomic electrons
- gives crystal structure

$$E = h\nu = \text{energy} = \frac{hc}{\lambda}$$

$$h = 6.62 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J}\cdot\text{s} \\ = \text{Planck's constant}$$

In practical units,

$$\lambda (\text{\AA}) = \frac{12.4}{E (\text{keV})} \quad (\text{X-rays})$$

Neutrons

- have magnetic moment \Rightarrow can interact with entities with spin (electrons, nuclei)
 - useful in studying magnetic properties of solids
- d. Braggie (matter wave) wavelength

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{p}$$

$$\frac{p^2}{2m_n} = E = \text{k.e. of neutron} \Rightarrow E = \frac{h^2}{2m_n \lambda^2}$$

neutron mass = $1.675 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$

In practical units,

$$\lambda (\text{\AA}) \approx \frac{0.28}{\sqrt{E (\text{eV})}} \quad (\text{neutrons})$$

V-②

Electrons

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- have charge, can't penetrate deep into solid
- useful in studying surfaces, films, etc.
- de Broglie wavelength $\lambda = \frac{h}{p}$

$$E = \frac{h^2}{2m_e \lambda^2}$$

\hat{e} Electron mass = 9.11×10^{-31} kg

In practical units,

$$\lambda(\text{\AA}) \approx \frac{12}{\sqrt{E(\text{eV})}} \quad (\text{electrons})$$

B. General Idea

- In expts, what we detect is the resultant wave obtained by considering the interference of the scattered waves from each scatterer (atom) in the solid.

• The discussion here is good for scattering of EM waves, electrons, neutrons. We shall say more on X-ray scattering[†], as it is useful in determining crystal structures.

[†] The idea is due to Max von Laue (1914 Nobel Physics Prize)

Incident and Scattered Waves

V-4

Consider monochromatic incident plane wave: (see figure on p. V-5)

$$\xi_{\text{inc}}(\vec{r}, t) = A e^{i\vec{s} \cdot \vec{r}} e^{-i\omega t}$$

- $\xi_{\text{inc}}(\vec{r}, t)$ may represent: traveling, propagating in the direction of \vec{s}

EM wave: Electric field component of X-ray (Maxwell eqns)

Neutron/electron: wavefunction (Schrödinger eqn)

- Let's focus on X-ray scattering, then \vec{s} is a component of the electric field.

$$s = |\vec{s}| = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$$

s : wave number

- Consider elastic scattering:
 \vec{s} : wave vector

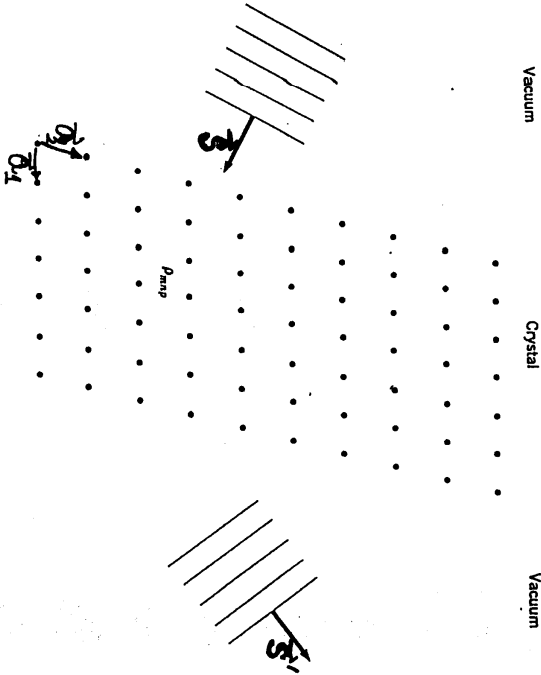
it means: $|\vec{s}'| = |\vec{s}| = s$

$$\omega = \omega'$$

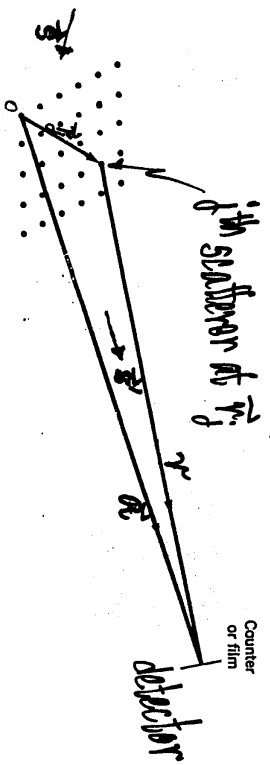
But $\vec{s} \neq \vec{s}'$ (changed in direction)

- Issue: Add up contributions of the waves scattered from each volume element of the crystal.

[†] We haven't specified whether A is a vector or a scalar. For EM waves, A represents the amplitude (and gives the polarization) of the electric field. Hence, A becomes a vector in that case.



An electromagnetic wave of wavevector \vec{k}_i is incident upon a crystal. We want to find the wavevectors \vec{k}_s of the outgoing waves created by diffraction by the atoms of the crystal.



There are many atoms (scatterers) in a solid.
 \vec{r}_j = position vector of the j th scatterer
 \vec{R} = position vector of detector

One scatterer

Consider the scattering from a particular scatterer in the sample. The scatterer is at \vec{r}_j . The detector is at \vec{R} (see figure) and it is far away from sample.

$|\vec{R}| \gg \text{sample size}$

$\sum_{\text{scatt}}^{(j)} (\vec{R}, t) =$ scattered wave by scatterer at \vec{r}_j as observed at position \vec{R} and at time t

$= (A e^{i\vec{s}' \cdot \vec{r}_j}) \cdot f_j \cdot \frac{e^{i\vec{s} \cdot \vec{R}}}{r} e^{-i\omega t}$

proportional to incident wave at the scatterer's location
 outgoing spherical wave centered at \vec{r}_j ($|\vec{s}'| = s$ used)

f_j = a factor that involves the details (e.g. which kind of atom? s_i ? Na?) of the scatterer
 = $f_j (\vec{s}' - \vec{s})$ in general
 = atomic form factor of the scatterer at \vec{r}_j

(*)



$$\vec{r} = \vec{R} - \vec{r}_j$$

$$r^2 = |\vec{R} - \vec{r}_j|^2 = R^2 - 2\vec{R} \cdot \vec{r}_j + r_j^2$$

$$\therefore r = R \left[1 - 2 \frac{\vec{R} \cdot \vec{r}_j}{R^2} + \frac{r_j^2}{R^2} \right]^{1/2}$$

$$\approx R \left(1 - \frac{\vec{R} \cdot \vec{r}_j}{R} \right) \quad R \gg \text{sample size}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{r}{R} \ll 1$$

\therefore neglect $\frac{r_j^2}{R^2}$

In (*),
a unit vector in the direction of \vec{R}

(i) Approximate $\frac{1}{r} \approx \frac{1}{R}$

(ii) r also appears in e^{isr} . Exponential function is rapidly changing with its argument. We need to make a better approximation.

$$e^{i\vec{s} \cdot \vec{r}_j} e^{isr} \approx e^{i\vec{s} \cdot \vec{r}_j} e^{isR} e^{-i\vec{s} \cdot \vec{R} \cdot \vec{r}_j}$$

$$= e^{isR} e^{-i(\vec{s} \cdot \vec{R} - \vec{s}) \cdot \vec{r}_j}$$

Recall \vec{s} = incident propagation vector

Look at $\vec{s} \cdot \vec{R}$: It is a vector of magnitude s and direction that points from the sample to the detector.

Since the detector is far far away from the sample, the direction \hat{R} can be taken to be the direction of the propagation vector \vec{s}' of the scattered wave.

Elastic scattering: $|\vec{s}'| = |\vec{s}| = s$

$$\therefore \vec{s}' = s\hat{R}$$

Putting the two approximations together,

$$e^{i\vec{s} \cdot \vec{r}_j} e^{isr} \approx \frac{e^{isR}}{R} e^{-i(\vec{s}' - \vec{s}) \cdot \vec{r}_j}$$

We pick up $\vec{s}' - \vec{s}$



$\Delta \vec{s} \equiv \vec{s}' - \vec{s}$
= change in propagation vector

due to change in direction for elastic scattering

\therefore The scattered wave due to one scatterer becomes (*) on p. V-6)

$$\sum_{\text{scatt}}^{(j)} (\vec{R}, t) = \underbrace{\left(\frac{A}{R} e^{isR} e^{-i\omega t} \right)}_{\text{outgoing spherical wave}} \cdot f_j e^{-i\Delta \vec{s} \cdot \vec{r}_j}$$

Many scatterers

Add up the contributions from the scatterers.

$$\sum_{\text{scatt.}} (\vec{R}_j, t) = \frac{A}{R} e^{i\vec{k}\vec{R}} e^{-i\omega t} \cdot \left(\sum_j f_j e^{-i\vec{\Delta}\vec{r}_j} \right)$$

sum over all scatterers
 $f_j = f_j(\vec{\Delta})$ in general

This is a general expression for elastic scattering of waves off a collection of scatterers. The scatterers may or may not be ordered in an array. They may even be different scatterers. Thus, it is good for crystalline and amorphous solids.

Remark

When the scattering is due to a spatial distribution of electrons described by the electron concentration $n(\vec{r})$, the term $\sum_j f_j e^{-i\vec{\Delta}\vec{r}_j}$ is replaced by an integral over the sample $\int d^3x n(\vec{r}) e^{-i\vec{\Delta}\vec{r}}$.

C. Elastic Scattering by Crystals

Crystal = Lattice + Basis

To treat $\sum_j f_j e^{-i\vec{\Delta}\vec{r}_j}$ \Rightarrow we need a way to specify the position of the atoms

Specify \vec{r}_j by $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{(i) specifying which primitive cell the atom is in by a lattice vector } \vec{R} \\ \text{(ii) specifying which atom in the basis.} \end{array} \right.$

• Each lattice point has its associated primitive cell \Rightarrow can use a lattice vector \vec{R} to specify the location of a primitive cell

• Let there be α atoms in the basis. Relative to a lattice point, these α atoms are at the locations given by $\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2, \dots, \vec{r}_\alpha$.

\therefore The positions of the atoms of the α -type are:
 $\vec{R} + \vec{r}_\alpha = (u_1\vec{a}_1 + u_2\vec{a}_2 + u_3\vec{a}_3) + \vec{r}_\alpha$

Q.4

V-11

\vec{R}_s are those for a sc lattice. Basis of 2 atoms.

$\vec{R}_s = \vec{0}$, $\vec{R}_a = \frac{a}{2}(\hat{x} + \hat{y} + \hat{z})$

The scattered wave has a factor $\sum_j f_j e^{-i\vec{k}\cdot\vec{r}_j}$

(i) $\Delta\vec{k}\cdot\vec{r}_j \rightarrow \Delta\vec{k}\cdot(\vec{R} + \vec{r}_0)$

(ii) $\sum_{\text{all atoms}} \rightarrow \sum_{\vec{R}} \sum_{\alpha=1}^2$
 sum over every primitive (unit) cells
 sum over the α atoms in the basis

Therefore, $\sum_j f_j e^{-i\Delta\vec{k}\cdot\vec{r}_j} = \sum_{\vec{R}} \sum_{\alpha=1}^2 f_{\alpha}(\Delta\vec{k}) e^{-i\Delta\vec{k}\cdot\vec{R}}$

$\left(\sum_{\vec{R}} e^{-i\Delta\vec{k}\cdot\vec{R}} \right) \cdot \left(\sum_{\alpha=1}^2 f_{\alpha}(\Delta\vec{k}) e^{-i\Delta\vec{k}\cdot\vec{r}_{\alpha}} \right)$

relate to the lattice only (nothing to do with the atoms in the basis) (geometric factor)
 over atoms in the basis, relate to the atoms in the crystal (material)

V-12

$\sum_j f_j e^{-i\Delta\vec{k}\cdot\vec{r}_j} = \left(\sum_{\vec{R}} e^{-i\Delta\vec{k}\cdot\vec{R}} \right) \cdot \left(\sum_{\alpha=1}^2 f_{\alpha}(\Delta\vec{k}) e^{-i\Delta\vec{k}\cdot\vec{r}_{\alpha}} \right)$

= Geometrical term x terms related to material (lattice) (basis)

= $Q(\Delta\vec{k}) \cdot \mathcal{S}(\Delta\vec{k})$ for crystals

where

$Q(\Delta\vec{k}) = \sum_{\vec{R}} e^{-i\Delta\vec{k}\cdot\vec{R}}$

structure factor of the basis

$\mathcal{S}(\Delta\vec{k}) = \sum_{\alpha=1}^2 f_{\alpha}(\Delta\vec{k}) e^{-i\Delta\vec{k}\cdot\vec{r}_{\alpha}}$
 over the atoms in the basis
 infinitely many in principle

Thus, $\sum_{\text{spots}} \langle \vec{R}_0, t \rangle = \frac{A}{\Omega} e^{i\vec{k}\cdot\vec{R}_0} e^{-i\omega t} Q(\Delta\vec{k}) \mathcal{S}(\Delta\vec{k})$

Experimentally, the pattern (bright spots) is related to the intensity of the scattered wave at the detector

$I = \left| \sum_{\text{spots}} \langle \vec{R}_0, t \rangle \right|^2 = \frac{|A|^2}{\Omega^2} \cdot |Q(\Delta\vec{k})|^2 \cdot |\mathcal{S}(\Delta\vec{k})|^2$
 a constant when detector is fixed

• $I \neq 0$ only when $|A(\Delta\vec{s})|^2 \neq 0$ and $|d(\Delta\vec{s})|^2 \neq 0$.

Consider $A(\Delta\vec{s}) = \sum_{\vec{R}} e^{-i\Delta\vec{s} \cdot \vec{R}}$

• It is a sum over many phase factors which are highly sensitive to the argument. For most $\Delta\vec{s}$, the terms tend to cancel and $A(\Delta\vec{s})$ vanishes.

• But, there are some (in fact many, infinitely many) $\Delta\vec{s}$ that $A(\Delta\vec{s})$ is huge ($\neq 0$)!

Recall: $\vec{G} \cdot \vec{R} = 2\pi \cdot \text{integer}$ for all \vec{R}
 a reciprocal lattice vector

Key Point: note: there are many \vec{G} 's.

If $\Delta\vec{s} = \vec{G}$, then $e^{-i\Delta\vec{s} \cdot \vec{R}} = 1$ and A is huge.

If $\Delta\vec{s} \neq \vec{G}$, $A = 0$ and $I = 0$.

If $\Delta\vec{s} = \vec{G}$, $I \neq 0$ if $|d(\vec{G})|^2 \neq 0$

Thus one needs to tune $\Delta\vec{s}$ (magnitude through the wavelength and direction through detector location) in clever ways to see $I \neq 0$ (bright spots), which results from constructive interference.

∴ An extremely intense scattered wave becomes possible when $\Delta\vec{s} = \vec{G}$.

This condition is called the Laue condition.

In expts, the observations give information about the reciprocal lattice vectors \vec{G} 's, thus the reciprocal lattices, and thus the direct lattice. This is why an understanding of the concept of reciprocal lattice is important.

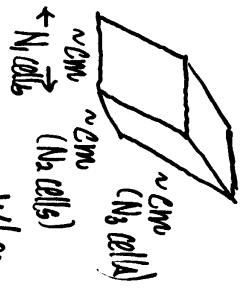
Remark:

In more elementary treatments (e.g. easier books), the previous result ($\Delta\vec{k} = \vec{G}$ for possible $I \neq 0$) can be illustrated as follows.

Consider a big crystal with (big but finite)

$\mathcal{N}^0 = N_1 \cdot N_2 \cdot N_3$ primitive unit cells

N_1 lattice pts. in \vec{a}_1 direction
 N_2 lattice pts. in \vec{a}_2 direction
 N_3 lattice pts. in \vec{a}_3 direction



$N_1, N_2, N_3 \gg 1$
 $\sim 10^8$ each for a crystal of $\sim 1 \text{ cm}^3$

When $\Delta\vec{k} = \vec{G}$, $a(\Delta\vec{k} = \vec{G}) = \left(\sum_{k_1=0}^{N_1} 1 \right) \left(\sum_{k_2=0}^{N_2} 1 \right) \left(\sum_{k_3=0}^{N_3} 1 \right)$
 $= N_1 \cdot N_2 \cdot N_3 = \mathcal{N}^0 = \text{huge number}$

How about arbitrary $\Delta\vec{k}$?

Note that the lattice vectors \vec{R} can be written as: a crystal $\sim 1 \text{ cm}^3$

$\vec{R} = u_1 \vec{a}_1 + u_2 \vec{a}_2 + u_3 \vec{a}_3$, $\begin{cases} u_1 = 0, 1, \dots, N_1-1 \\ u_2 = 0, 1, \dots, N_2-1 \\ u_3 = 0, 1, \dots, N_3-1 \end{cases}$

$a(\Delta\vec{k}) = \sum_{\vec{R}} e^{-i\Delta\vec{k} \cdot \vec{R}} = \sum_{u_1=0}^{N_1-1} \sum_{u_2=0}^{N_2-1} \sum_{u_3=0}^{N_3-1} e^{-iu_1 \Delta\vec{k} \cdot \vec{a}_1} e^{-iu_2 \Delta\vec{k} \cdot \vec{a}_2} e^{-iu_3 \Delta\vec{k} \cdot \vec{a}_3}$

$= \left(\sum_{u_1=0}^{N_1-1} e^{-iu_1 \vec{a}_1 \cdot \Delta\vec{k}} \right) \cdot \left(\sum_{u_2=0}^{N_2-1} e^{-iu_2 \vec{a}_2 \cdot \Delta\vec{k}} \right) \cdot \left(\sum_{u_3=0}^{N_3-1} e^{-iu_3 \vec{a}_3 \cdot \Delta\vec{k}} \right)$

$= \left(\frac{1 - e^{-iN_1 \vec{a}_1 \cdot \Delta\vec{k}}}{1 - e^{-i\vec{a}_1 \cdot \Delta\vec{k}}} \right) \cdot \left(\frac{1 - e^{-iN_2 \vec{a}_2 \cdot \Delta\vec{k}}}{1 - e^{-i\vec{a}_2 \cdot \Delta\vec{k}}} \right) \cdot \left(\frac{1 - e^{-iN_3 \vec{a}_3 \cdot \Delta\vec{k}}}{1 - e^{-i\vec{a}_3 \cdot \Delta\vec{k}}} \right)$

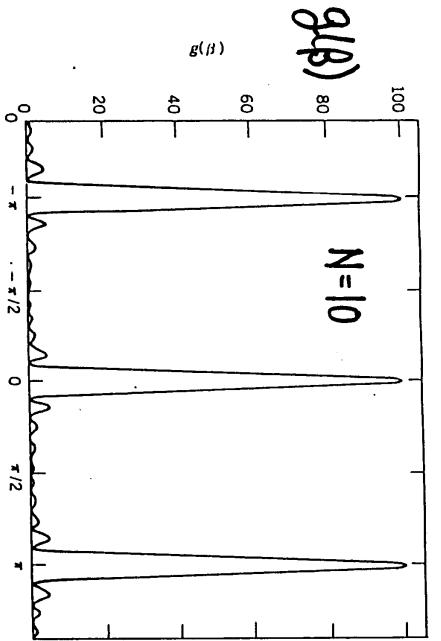
$\frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2} N_1 \vec{a}_1 \cdot \Delta\vec{k}}}{e^{-\frac{1}{2} \vec{a}_1 \cdot \Delta\vec{k}}} \cdot \frac{\sin\left(\frac{N_1}{2} \vec{a}_1 \cdot \Delta\vec{k}\right)}{\sin\left(\frac{1}{2} \vec{a}_1 \cdot \Delta\vec{k}\right)}$

$I \propto |a(\Delta\vec{k})|^2 = \left(\frac{\sin\left(\frac{N_1}{2} \vec{a}_1 \cdot \Delta\vec{k}\right)}{\sin\left(\frac{1}{2} \vec{a}_1 \cdot \Delta\vec{k}\right)} \right)^2 \cdot \left(\frac{\sin\left(\frac{N_2}{2} \vec{a}_2 \cdot \Delta\vec{k}\right)}{\sin\left(\frac{1}{2} \vec{a}_2 \cdot \Delta\vec{k}\right)} \right)^2 \cdot \left(\frac{\sin\left(\frac{N_3}{2} \vec{a}_3 \cdot \Delta\vec{k}\right)}{\sin\left(\frac{1}{2} \vec{a}_3 \cdot \Delta\vec{k}\right)} \right)^2$

Thus, I exhibits the behaviour of the function

$g(\beta) = \left(\frac{\sin(N\beta)}{\sin\beta} \right)^2$ for $N \sim 10^8$

Let's see how $g(\beta)$ behaves.



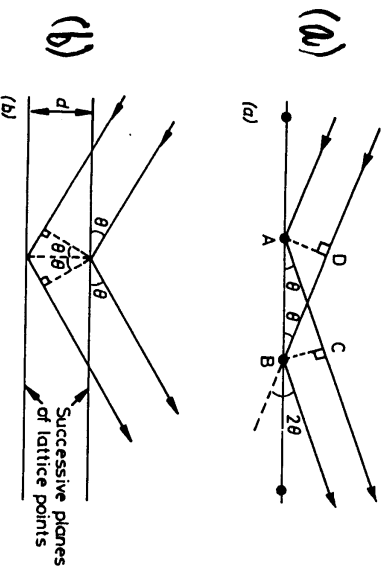
The function $g(\beta) = \frac{\sin^2(N\beta)}{\sin^2(\beta)}$ for $N = 10$. It is periodic with period π and has principal maxima at $\beta = k\pi$, where k is an integer. $N - 2$ secondary maxima occur between adjacent principal maxima. As N increases the principal maxima become higher and narrower and secondary maxima become less prominent.

Note:
 $N \sim 10^8$
 in crystals

- sharply peaked at $\beta = \pi \cdot \text{integer}$ (gives $\Delta\vec{s} = \vec{G}$)
- drops rapidly away from peaks
- As N increases, peaks ($\sim N^2$) get sharper
- $N \sim 10^8$, only sharp peaks remain.
- This illustrates that we need to satisfy the same condition $\Delta\vec{s} = \vec{G}$ to get $I \neq 0$.

D. The Laue Condition and the Bragg Condition

Bragg (~ 1913) derived the condition for constructive interference of the X-rays scattered from a set of parallel lattice planes.



Proof of Bragg's law. (a) Scattering of x-rays from the adjacent lattice points A and B in the plane will be in phase if $AC = DB$ and thus if the scattered beam makes the same angle θ to the plane as the incident beam. (b) Scattering of x-rays off successive planes is in phase if the path difference $2d \sin \theta$ is an integral number of wavelengths $n\lambda$.

(a) From one plane: A and B are adjacent lattice points.

For constructive interference of waves scattered from A and B,

we need $AC = BD$

true if the scattered wave makes the same angle θ to the plane as the incident wave

Remark: θ here is the glancing angle (different from the angle of incidence in optics). It is also called the Bragg angle.

- Note that the result ~~is~~ is similar to that in the law of reflection in optics

⇒ The diffracted wave looks as if it has been reflected from the crystal plane

notes:

- (i) these planes have nothing to do with the surface planes bounding the specimen, as X-rays or neutrons see all!
- (ii) Because of this result, people often talk about X-ray diffraction in solids as Bragg reflection.

(b) From planes:

To obtain diffraction maximum, successive planes should scatter in phase

Consider path difference: $d =$ spacing of parallel planes

$$2d \sin \theta = n\lambda \quad \text{where } n \text{ is an integer}$$

← Bragg's law or Bragg's condition

Remember:

$$2d \sin \theta = n\lambda \quad \text{Bragg's condition}$$

a condition that requires θ and λ be matched

$$n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

- If $2d \sin \theta = n\lambda$, the constructive beam is identified by the statements

" n th-order reflection from the (hkl) planes"

OR by convention as

"the $(n_1n_2n_3)$ reflection"

- E.g., 3rd order reflection from (111) planes is described as the (333) reflection in X-ray crystallography.
- Smallest n is $n=1$,

∴ need $\lambda < 2d$ (that's why we need to use X-rays)

- Bragg's argument does not say anything about the intensity of the beam. Also, it does not involve the basis atoms. These effects are included in $|S(G)|^2$ in the earlier derivation

The Laue Condition and the Bragg Condition

Laue Condition: $\Delta \vec{s} = \vec{s}' - \vec{s} = \vec{G}$

Elastic scattering: $|\vec{s}'| = |\vec{s}| = s \quad s = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$

$|\vec{s}'|^2 = s'^2 + s^2 - 2|\vec{s}'||\vec{s}|\cos 2\theta$

$2\theta =$ angle between \vec{s} and \vec{s}'

$|\vec{s}'|^2 = 2s^2 (1 - \cos 2\theta)$

$= 4s^2 \sin^2 \theta$

$\theta =$ Bragg angle

$|\vec{s}'| = 2s \sin \theta = 2 \cdot \left(\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}\right) \cdot \sin \theta$

- Now consider a reciprocal lattice vector:

$\vec{G} = v_1 \vec{b}_1 + v_2 \vec{b}_2 + v_3 \vec{b}_3 = \vec{h}(h_1 \vec{b}_1) + v_2 \vec{b}_2 + v_3 \vec{b}_3 =$ integers

We can find the common divisor, n , of v_1, v_2, v_3 .

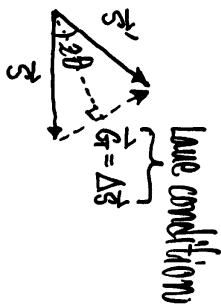
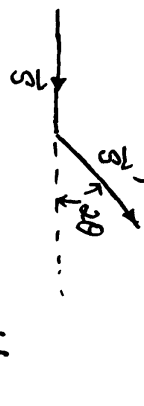
$\vec{G} = n (h_1 \vec{b}_1 + h_2 \vec{b}_2 + h_3 \vec{b}_3) = n \vec{G}(hkl)$

where $n =$ positive integer,

and h, k, l are integers which do not have common divisor.

$\vec{G}(v_1 v_2 v_3)$ and $\vec{G}(hkl)$ are in the same direction. $\vec{G}(hkl)$ is the

shortest reciprocal lattice vector in that direction.



$|\vec{s}'| = 2 \cdot \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \cdot \sin \theta$

$\Rightarrow n \cdot |\vec{G}(hkl)| = 2 \cdot \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \cdot \sin \theta$

$\Rightarrow n\lambda = 2 \cdot \frac{2\pi}{|\vec{G}(hkl)|} \cdot \sin \theta$

$\vec{G}(hkl) = h\vec{b}_1 + k\vec{b}_2 + l\vec{b}_3$

\Rightarrow $2 \cdot d(hkl) \cdot \sin \theta = n\lambda$

where $d(hkl) =$ spacing of adjacent lattice planes

specified by the Miller indices (hkl) .

Bragg condition (Bragg 1913)

$n =$ positive integer

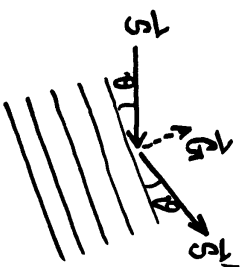
Note that: $\lambda \leq 2d$

typically $d \sim$ a few Å

$\Rightarrow \lambda \sim$ few Å

\Rightarrow for EM waves, we need X-ray.

\therefore The Laue condition $\Delta \vec{s} = \vec{G}$ gives the Bragg condition $2 \cdot d(hkl) \cdot \sin \theta = n\lambda$.



Bragg

same