

Chemistry 832: Solid State Structural Methods

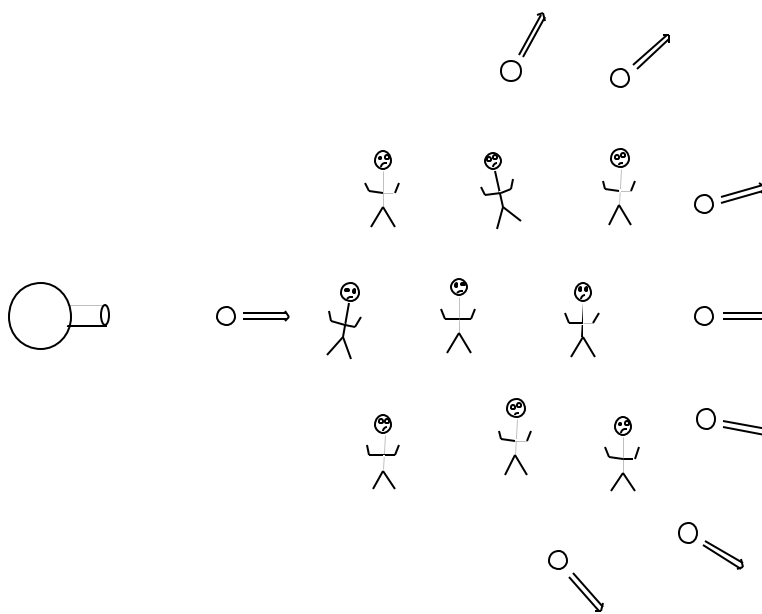
Outline Notes¹ for the Spring 2000 Class

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(i.e., Rough Draft to the end of Topic V)



¹ Based partially on the text: [Crystal Structure Analysis for Chemists and Biologists](#) by J. P. Glusker, M. Lewis, and M. Rossi, VCH Publishers, New York, NY, ©1994. Unless otherwise noted, chapter and page references are to this text.

Table of Contents

Section 01: Table of Major Topics

Chemistry 832: Solid State Structural Methods	1
Table of Contents	2
Topic I: Introduction to Chemistry 832	13
Topic II: X-Ray Diffractometers	30
Topic III: Single Crystals	45
Topic IV: Diffraction by Crystals	76
Topic V: Symmetry	107
Topic VI: Physical Properties of Crystals	157
Topic VII: Image Generation from Diffracted Waves	162
Topic VIII: Amplitudes of Diffracted Waves	173
Topic IX: Phases of Diffracted Waves	181
Topic X: Electron Density Maps	190
Topic XI: Least Squares Refinement	195
Topic XII: Crystal and Diffraction Data	201
Topic XIII: Atomic Coordinates and Molecular Structures	203
Topic XIV: Absolute Structures	211
Topic XV: Crystallographic Publications: Preparation and Analysis	216
Topic XVI: Special Topics	220
Index of Topics and Vocabulary	221

Section 02: Complete Table of Contents

<u>Chemistry 832: Solid State Structural Methods</u>	<u>1</u>
<u>Table of Contents</u>	<u>2</u>
Section 01: Table of Major Topics	2
Section 02: Complete Table of Contents	3
<u>Topic I: Introduction to Chemistry 832</u>	<u>13</u>
Section 01: What is Chemistry 832?	14
<u>Part a: Chemistry 832 Goals and Objectives</u>	<u>14</u>
<u>Part b: Chemistry 832 Syllabus</u>	<u>14</u>
<u>Part c: Chemistry 832 Resources</u>	<u>14</u>
Section 02: What Can Diffraction Methods Tell Us	17
Section 03: Speed and Cost	18
Section 04: What is a Single Crystal and Why is it Important?	19
<u>Part a: Single Crystal</u>	<u>19</u>
<u>Part b: Unit Cell</u>	<u>20</u>
<u>Part c: Unit cells and diffraction data</u>	<u>21</u>
Section 05: Block Diagram of an X-Ray Diffractometer	22
Section 06: X-Ray Generator	23
<u>Part a: Goniometer</u>	<u>24</u>
<u>Part b: Detector</u>	<u>24</u>
Section 07: Basic Steps in X-Ray Diffraction Data Collection	25
Section 08: Basic Steps in X-Ray Diffraction Data Analysis	27
<u>Part a: Data Analysis can be quite routine through impossibly difficult</u>	<u>27</u>
<u>Part b: The Phase Problem</u>	<u>27</u>
Section 09: Main Steps in Data Analysis	28
<u>Part a: Procedural Steps</u>	<u>28</u>
<u>Part b: Flow Chart for a Typical Structure Solution</u>	<u>29</u>
<u>Topic II: X-Ray Diffractometers</u>	<u>30</u>
Section 01: What are X-Rays?	31
<u>Part a: Wavelengths of X-Rays</u>	<u>31</u>
<u>Part b: Why are these Wavelengths chosen?</u>	<u>31</u>
Section 02: X-Ray Generators	32

Part a: X-Ray Lasers	32
Part b: Conventional X-Ray Tubes	32
Part c: Rotating Anode Generators	33
Part d: Synchrotron Sources	34
Section 03: X-Ray Monochromators	35
Part a: Foil Filters (Ni foil)	35
Part b: Crystal (Graphite) Monochromators	35
Part c: Focusing Mirrors	35
Section 04: X-Ray Collimators	36
Part a: Graphite Crystal Monochromators and Pin Holes in Tubes	36
Part b: Focusing Mirrors	36
Section 05: Goniometers	37
Section 06: Low Temperature System	38
Section 07: X-Ray Detectors	39
Part a: Serial Detectors	39
Part b: Film Based Area Detectors	40
Part c: Multi-Wire Area Detectors	41
Part d: CCD Detectors	42
Part e: Imaging Plate Detectors	43
Section 08: X-Ray Absorption in the Diffractometer	44
Part a: Air	44
Part b: Windows	44
Part c: Sample, Glue, Fiber & Capillary	44
Topic III: Single Crystals	45
Section 01: Perfect Crystals?	46
Section 02: Growing Single Crystals	47
Part a: General principles of growing single crystals	49
Part b: Proven Methods for growing crystals	52
Part c: What to do when proven methods fail	64
Section 03: The Unit Cell	69
Section 04: Crystal Shapes	70
Part a: Crystal Growth and Shapes	70
Part b: Indexing Crystal Faces	74

Part c: The Crystal Lattice	75
Topic IV: Diffraction by Crystals	76
Section 01: Waves	77
Part a: Generic Waves	77
Part b: Water Waves	78
Part c: Light Waves	83
Section 02: Diffraction in Two Dimensions	84
Part a: Diffraction Pattern from a Single Slit	84
Part b: Diffraction Patterns from Two or More Slits	85
Part c: Diffraction Patterns from Arrays of Slits	86
Part d: Diffraction by Slits vs. Diffraction by Objects	87
Section 03: Diffraction in Three Dimensions	88
Part a: Laser Light Show	88
Part b: The Influences of Object Patterns	89
Part c: Quantum Mechanical Basketball	90
Part d: The Influences of Objects, Periodicity, Array Size, and Disorder on Diffraction Patterns	91
Section 04: X-Ray Diffraction	93
Part a: What Diffracts X-Rays?	93
Part b: The 180° Phase Shift for X-Rays	93
Part c: Atomic Scattering Factors for X-Rays	94
Section 05: Neutron Diffraction	97
Part a: What Diffracts Neutrons?	97
Part b: Atomic Scattering Factors for Neutrons	97
Section 06: Bragg's Law	98
Part a: The Experimental Truth	98
Part b: The Myth Taught in General Chemistry	99
Part c: The Truth About Bragg's Law	100
Part d: Which planes are we talking about?	101
Part e: Getting Unit Cell Parameters from Interplanar Spacings	103
Section 07: Anomalous Scattering	104
Part a: The Origins of Anomalous Scattering	104
Part b: Anomalous Scattering and Neutrons	105

Part c: Anomalous Scattering and X-Rays	105
Section 08: The Ewald Sphere	106
Topic V: Symmetry	107
Section 01: Introduction to Symmetry	108
Part a: Origin and Choice of the Unit Cell	109
Part b: Symmetry Operations	110
Part c: Point Groups	111
Part d: Space Groups	112
Section 02: Point Symmetry Operations	113
Part a: Rotation Axes	114
Part b: Mirror Planes	117
Part c: Inversion Centers	118
Part d: Rotary Inversion Axes	119
Part e: Point Groups and Chiral Molecules	122
Section 03: Hermann-Mauguin vs. Schoenflies Symbols	123
Section 04: Symmetries of Regularly Repeating Objects	125
Section 05: Crystal Systems \Rightarrow Space Groups	126
Part a: The 7 Crystal Systems	126
Part b: Centering of Unit Cells	130
Part c: The 14 Bravais Lattices	133
Part d: The 230 Space Groups	134
Section 06: Three Dimensional Symmetry Operations	135
Part a: Translations	135
Part b: Screw Axes	136
Part c: Glide Planes	138
Part d: Symmetry in some Real Crystals	139
Part e: Review of Crystal Systems \supset Space Groups	140
Section 07: Symmetry in the Diffraction Pattern	141
Part a: Equivalent Positions	141
Part b: Friedel's Law	142
Part c: Symmetry of Packing \supset Symmetry of Diffraction Pattern	143
Part d: Laue Symmetry	144

Part e: Examples of Using Laue Symmetry to Determine Crystal System:	145
Diffraction Data, Unit Cell Parameters, and the Crystal System	146
Section 08: Space Group Determination from Diffraction Data	147
Part a: Systematic Absences \bar{P} Centering	148
Part b: Systematic Absences \bar{P} Translational Symmetry	150
Part c: Laue (Crystal System) Determination	153
Part d: Bravais Determination	154
Part e: Space Group Determination	155
Part f: Space Group Ambiguity	156
Topic VI: Physical Properties of Crystals	157
Section 01: Mechanical Properties of Crystals	158
Part a: Hardness of Crystals	158
Part b: Cleavage of Crystals	158
Section 02: Optical Properties of Crystals	159
Part a: The Nature of Light	159
Part b: Isotropic and Anisotropic Crystals	159
Part c: Pleochromism	159
Part d: Refraction of Light	159
Part e: Birefringence of Light	159
Part f: Polarization of Light	159
Part g: Optical Activity and Crystals	159
Section 03: Electrical Effects of Crystals	160
Part a: Piezoelectric Effects	160
Part b: Pyroelectric Effects	160
Part c: Non-Linear Optical Phenomenon	160
Section 04: Chemical Effects of Crystal Form	161
Part a: Crystal Forms and Chemical Reactivity	161
Part b: Different Faces Different Reactions	161
Part c: Crystal Forms and Explosive Power	161
Topic VII: Image Generation from Diffracted Waves	162
Section 01: Waves	163
Part a: Amplitudes of Waves	163

Part b: Lengths of Waves	163
Part c: Phase Angles of Waves	163
Part d: Summing Waves	163
Section 02: Fourier Series	164
Part a: Periodic Electron Density in Crystals	164
Part b: Baron Fourier's Theorem	164
Part c: Fourier Analysis	164
Part d: Fourier Synthesis	164
Section 03: Electron Density Calculations	165
Part a: Electron Density is Periodic	165
Part b: Equation for Electron Density as a Function of Structure Factors	165
Part c: hkl values and Crystal Planes	165
Section 04: Fourier Transforms	165
Part a: Equation for Structure Factors as a Function of Electron Density	165
Part b: Relationship Between Real and Reciprocal Space	165
Part c: Summary of the Diffraction Structure Process	165
Section 05: X-Ray Scattering Factors of Electrons in Orbitals	166
Part a: Electron Distribution Curves for Orbitals	166
Part b: Electron Scattering Curves for Orbitals	166
Section 06: Neutron Scattering Factors of Nuclei	167
Section 07: Kinematic and Dynamic Diffraction	168
Part a: Mosaic Blocks	168
Part b: Kinematic Diffraction	168
Part c: Dynamic Diffraction	168
Section 08: Extinction	169
Part a: Primary Extinction	169
Part b: Secondary Extinction	169
Part c: Renninger Effect and Double Reflections	169
Section 09: Structure Factors	170
Part a: Structure Factor Amplitudes	170
Section 10: Displacement Parameters	171
Part a: Vibration of Atoms in a Lattice	171
Part b: Disorder of Atoms and Molecules in a Lattice	171

Part c: Isotropic Displacement Parameters	171
Part d: Simple Anisotropic Displacement Parameters	171
Part e: Quadrupole Displacement Parameters and Evaluations of the Shapes of Electron Clouds	171
Section 11: Anomalous Scattering	172
Part a: Absorption Coefficients as a Function of Wavelength	172
Part b: MAD Phasing of Protein Data	172
Part c: Anomalous Scattering	172
Topic VIII: Amplitudes of Diffracted Waves	173
Section 01: Intensities of Diffracted Beams	174
Part a: Equation for Intensities of Diffracted Beams	174
Part b: Lorenz Factor	174
Part c: Polarization Factor	174
Part d: Absorption Factor	174
Part e: Effects of Wavelength of Measured Intensities	174
Section 02: X-Ray Sources	175
Part a: X-Ray Spectrum of an X-Ray Tube	175
Part b: Monochromatic X-Rays	175
Part c: X-Ray Sources	175
Section 03: X-Ray Detectors	176
Part a: Scintillation Counters	176
Part b: Beam Stop	176
Part c: Area Detectors	176
Section 04: Automated Diffractometers	177
Section 05: Effects of Temperatures on Collected Diffraction Data	178
Section 06: Peak Profiles	179
Section 07: Data Reduction	180
Topic IX: Phases of Diffracted Waves	181
Section 01: Electron Density Distributions vs. Structure Factors and Phases	182
Part a: Flow Diagram	182
Part b: With Known Structures	182
Part c: Non-Centrosymmetric Space Groups	182
Part d: Centrosymmetric Space Groups	182

<u>Section 02: Common Methods for Estimating Phase Angles</u>	<u>183</u>
<u>Part a: The Role of Advances in Computers, Theory, and Software</u>	<u>183</u>
<u>Part b: Direct Methods</u>	<u>183</u>
<u>Part c: Patterson Methods</u>	<u>183</u>
<u>Part d: Isostructural Crystals</u>	<u>183</u>
<u>Part e: Multiple Bragg Diffraction</u>	<u>183</u>
<u>Part f: Shake and Bake</u>	<u>183</u>
<u>Section 03: Direct Methods</u>	<u>184</u>
<u>Part a: Statistical Tools</u>	<u>184</u>
<u>Part b: Mathematics of Phase Relationships</u>	<u>184</u>
<u>Part c: Inequalities</u>	<u>184</u>
<u>Part d: Where Works Best</u>	<u>184</u>
<u>Section 04: Patterson Methods</u>	<u>185</u>
<u>Part a: The Patterson Function</u>	<u>185</u>
<u>Part b: Patterson Maps</u>	<u>185</u>
<u>Part c: Where Works Best</u>	<u>185</u>
<u>Part d: Heavy Atom Methods</u>	<u>185</u>
<u>Section 05: Isomorphous Replacement</u>	<u>186</u>
<u>Part a: Proteins: The Problem Structures</u>	<u>186</u>
<u>Part b: Metal Salts</u>	<u>186</u>
<u>Part c: Unnatural Amino Acids</u>	<u>186</u>
<u>Part d: Related Protein Structures</u>	<u>186</u>
<u>Section 06: MAD Phasing of Proteins</u>	<u>188</u>
<u>Section 07: Shake and Bake</u>	<u>189</u>
<u>Topic X: Electron Density Maps</u>	<u>190</u>
<u>Section 01: Electron Density Function</u>	<u>191</u>
<u>Section 02: Electron Density Maps</u>	<u>192</u>
<u>Part a: General Features of Maps</u>	<u>192</u>
<u>Part b: P(obs) Map</u>	<u>192</u>
<u>Part c: F(calc) Map</u>	<u>192</u>
<u>Part d: Difference Electron Density Maps</u>	<u>192</u>
<u>Part e: Deformation Density Maps</u>	<u>192</u>
<u>Section 03: Resolution</u>	<u>193</u>

Part a: Conventional Definition	193
Part b: Effects of Wavelength on Resolution and Intensities	193
Part c: Mo Resolution	193
Part d: Cu Resolution	193
Part e: Ag and Synchrotron Data	193
Part f: Effects of Resolution on the Structure	193
Section 04: Angles of Data Collection and Series Termination Errors	194
Topic XI: Least Squares Refinement	195
Section 01: What is Least Squares Refinement?	196
Part a: The Mathematics of Least Squares Refinement	196
Part b: Qualitative Picture of Least Squares Refinement	196
Section 02: Precision vs. Accuracy	197
Part a: Precision	197
Part b: Accuracy	197
Part c: Random vs. Systematic Errors	197
Part d: Gaussian Distribution Function	197
Part e: Estimated Standard Deviations	197
Section 03: Constraints	198
Section 04: Restraints	199
Section 05: Global vs. Local Minima in Solution	200
Topic XII: Crystal and Diffraction Data	201
Section 01: The Standard Table	202
Topic XIII: Atomic Coordinates and Molecular Structures	203
Section 01: Molecular Geometries	204
Part a: From xyz Coordinates to Bond Lengths, Bond Angles, etc.	204
Part b: Vibrational Motion	204
Part c: Fractional Coordinates	204
Part d: Orthogonal Coordinates	204
Part e: Complete Molecules?	204
Section 02: Atomic Connectivities	205
Part a: Derivation of Atomic Connectivity Tables	205
Part b: International Tables for Typical Bond Distances	205
Part c: Bond Lengths	205

<u>Section 03: Molecules in the Unit Cell and Z</u>	<u>206</u>
<u>Section 04: Estimated Standard Deviations</u>	<u>207</u>
<u>Part a: ESD Formula</u>	<u>207</u>
<u>Part b: When are two values different?</u>	<u>207</u>
<u>Part c: ESDs and Reliability of Data</u>	<u>207</u>
<u>Section 05: Torsion Angles</u>	<u>208</u>
<u>Section 06: Molecular and Macromolecular Conformations</u>	<u>209</u>
<u>Section 07: Atomic and Molecular Displacements</u>	<u>210</u>
<u>Part a: Vibration Effects in Crystals</u>	<u>210</u>
<u>Part b: Representations of Displacement Parameters</u>	<u>210</u>
<u>Part c: Effects of Displacements on Molecular Geometries</u>	<u>210</u>
<u>Part d: Uses of Anisotropic Displacement Parameters</u>	<u>210</u>
<u>Topic XIV: Absolute Structures</u>	<u>211</u>
<u>Section 01: Chirality of Molecules</u>	<u>212</u>
<u>Section 02: Optical Activity and Chiral Molecules</u>	<u>213</u>
<u>Section 03: Anomalous Dispersion Measurements</u>	<u>214</u>
<u>Section 04: Uses of Anomalous Dispersion</u>	<u>215</u>
<u>Topic XV: Crystallographic Publications: Preparation and Analysis</u>	<u>216</u>
<u>Section 01: Crystallographic Data Bases</u>	<u>217</u>
<u>Section 02: Crystallographic Papers</u>	<u>218</u>
<u>Section 03: Comparing Structures</u>	<u>219</u>
<u>Topic XVI: Special Topics</u>	<u>220</u>
<u>Index of Topics and Vocabulary</u>	<u>221</u>

Topic I: Introduction to Chemistry 832

- Based primarily on:
 - Chapter 1 (G, L, & R, pages 1-31)
 - A. D. Hunter's YSU Structure Solution Manual
 - Other materials available (or referenced) on my WEB Site

- Chapters 1 and Chapter 2 of G, L, & R need to be read on your own by the next class

Ask Students: What do you know about the Application of Diffraction Methods to Solving Chemical Problems?

Section 01: What is Chemistry 832?

Part a: Chemistry 832 Goals and Objectives

- See the Chemistry 832 Goals and Objectives Handout, available on my WEB Site

Part b: Chemistry 832 Syllabus

- See the Chemistry 832 Syllabus for Spring 2000, available on my WEB Site

Part c: Chemistry 832 Resources

- Texts and Monographs
 - See the list of reference materials: Crystallography-Diffraction Methods Texts List, available on my WEB Site
- The Lab Manuals
 - Copes are available in the Diffraction Lab or may be borrowed from Dr. Hunter

- The Structure Solution Guide
 - Copies are available as .pdf files for those who want their own, one is kept in each of the Diffraction Lab and NT Labs, and may be borrowed from Dr. Hunter

- The NT Lab
 - This lab is equipped with a dozen Windows NT computers, each loaded with all of the software needed for this course. It is available to Chemistry Majors (and other privileged undergraduates) and Graduate Students. To use this lab, you need to get an NT identity and password from Ray.

- The WEB
 - Numerous excellent teaching materials on diffraction methods are available on the WEB, I will place links to some starting sites on my WEB page.

➤ The Diffractometer Lab

- This lab is equipped with two Bruker AXS P4 Diffractometers. The southern instrument is equipped with a Cu X-Ray source and is usually used for powder studies. The northern instrument is equipped with a Mo X-Ray source and is our main single crystal instrument. The two PCs in this lab each control one of the diffractometers

Section 02: What Can Diffraction Methods Tell Us

- Diffraction methods can tell us much useful information about crystalline samples, including:
 - The size and shape of the repeating unit (unit cell) of the crystal
 - Overall molecular structures
 - Bond lengths, angles, torsions, etc.
 - Atomic motion and disorder
 - Intermolecular interactions

Section 03: Speed and Cost

- One generation ago, a single crystal study could take up most of a PhD and consequently was a rarely used technique
- Now, a *routine* single crystal study is both quick and relatively inexpensive
 - 1 second to 1 week for data collection
 - 1 hour to several days to solve the data
 - A few hundred to a few thousand dollars for a small molecule, about ten to a hundred times more for a *routine* protein

Section 04: What is a Single Crystal and Why is it Important?

Part a: Single Crystal

Graphics from Text: Figure 1.3, page 5; single crystals of Quartz and Ammonium Dihydrogen Phosphate (NLO material)

- Growing crystals is typically slowest and most unpredictable part of experiment
- Long distance order from one side to the other
- Defects in the crystal affect quality of data

Part b: Unit Cell

- Repeating motif of crystal
- Bricks in the wall
- Includes both dimensions and symmetry
- Made up of “imaginary” lattice points
- Contains complete unique part(s) of molecules (sometimes more than one copy)

Part c: Unit cells and diffraction data

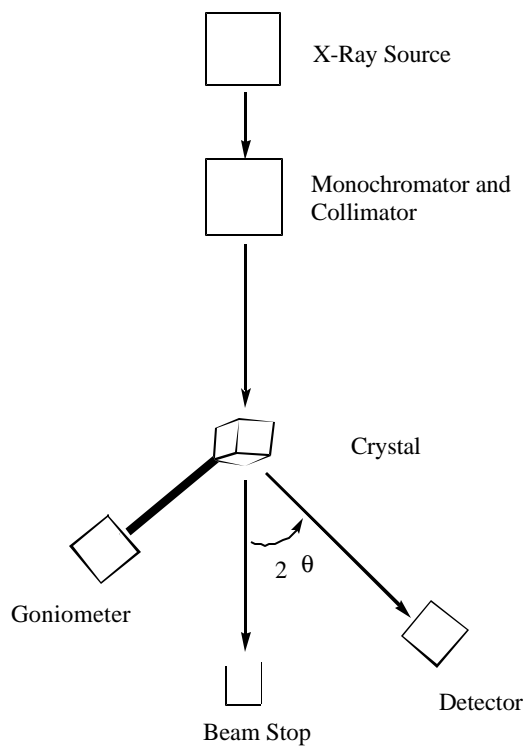
- The more unit cells in the crystal the better the data quality

- The less disorder the better the data quality

Graphics from Text: Figure 1.6, page 14; Unit cells of NaCl and KCl

Graphics from Text: Figures 1.7 and 1.8, pages 17 and 18; Crystal structures of Diamond and Graphite

Graphics from Text: Figures 1.9 - 1.11, pages 19 - 21; Crystal structures of Hexamethylbenzene, Hexachlorocyclohexane, and Steroids as representative examples of early diffraction results

Section 05: Block Diagram of an X-Ray Diffractometer

Graphics from Text: Figure 1.5, page 11; Text's diagram of an X-Ray Diffractometer

Section 06: X-Ray Generator

- Needs to produce intense X-ray beam
- Needs to produce monochromatic X-ray beam
- Needs to produce collimated X-ray beam

Part a: Goniometer

- Allows one to place a sample at a precisely controlled orientation in 3D space
- Under computer control

Part b: Detector

- Allows one to measure the intensity of diffracted X-ray beams as a function of diffraction angle

Section 07: Basic Steps in X-Ray Diffraction Data Collection

- Grow Single Crystal

- Mount Single Crystal on Diffractometer

- Evaluate Crystal Quality

- Collect Unit Cell information and Space Group information

- Collect Diffraction Data

- Collect Absorption Data

➤ Solve Structure

Graphics from Text: Figure 3.11, page 89; Relationship of Crystallographic Data to Structural Data

➤ Prepare Structural Data for Publication

Section 08: Basic Steps in X-Ray Diffraction Data Analysis

Part a: Data Analysis can be quite routine through impossibly difficult

- Quality of Raw Data Advances?
- Theory Advances
- Software Advances
- Computer Advances
- Synergy of these changes

Part b: The Phase Problem

- Which is more important, Knowing the Intensities or Knowing the Phases of the Diffracted beams?
- Data \leftrightarrow Solution Relationship

Experiment \Rightarrow Intensity Information + Phase Information

$\downarrow\uparrow$

Results \Rightarrow Atomic Positions + Atomic Sizes/Shapes

Section 09: Main Steps in Data Analysis

Part a: Procedural Steps

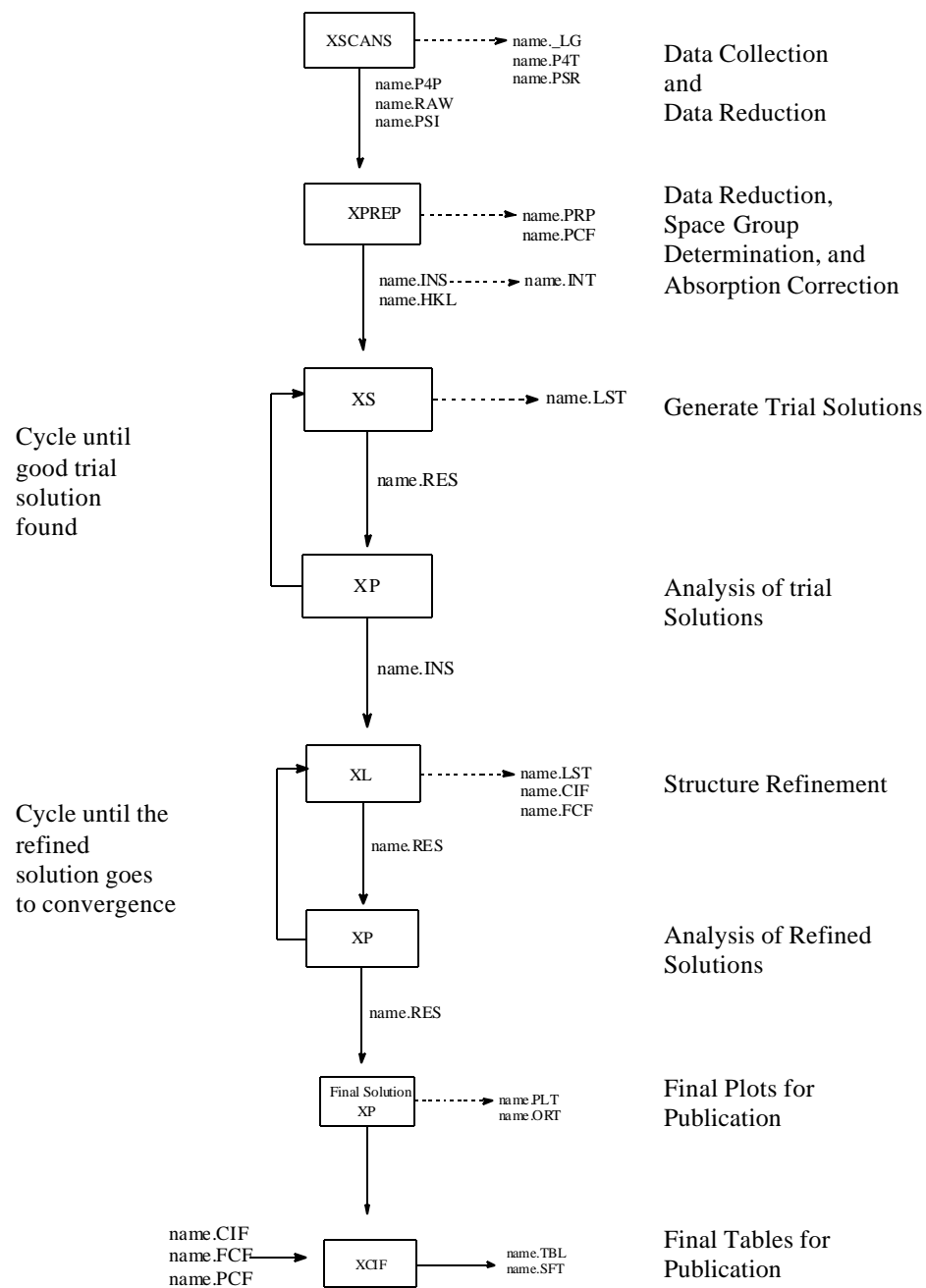
- Process the Raw Data (XPREP)
 - Determine Space Group
 - Do Absorption Corrections

- Determine an Initial Starting Solution (XS)
 - Use one of the “tricks” to find at least one atom at near its actual position
 - This will give you the first phase information

- Evaluate the Trial Structure(s) (XP) and Refine the Trial Structure(s) (XL)

- Evaluate the Final Answer

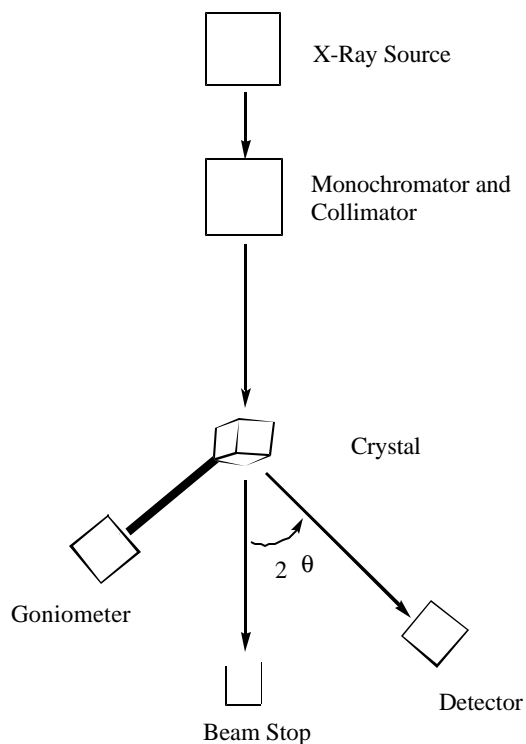
- Prepare the Data for Publication

Part b: Flow Chart for a Typical Structure Solution

Topic II: X-Ray Diffractometers

- Based primarily on:
 - Chapter 7 (G, L, & R, pages 225-279)
 - Other materials available (or referenced) on my WEB Site
 - A. D. Hunter's YSU Structure Solution Manual
 - The Instruments in the Diffraction Lab.

Ask Students: What do you know about X-Ray Diffractometers?



Section 01: What are X-Rays?

Part a: Wavelengths of X-Rays

- Typically 0.5 to 2.0 Å
- Limited by X-Ray Generation Capabilities (i.e., target metal)
- Limited by Available X-Ray Flux
- 1.54 Å for Cu Targets
- 0.71 Å for Mo Targets
- 0.49 Å on Ag Targets
- Tunable Wavelengths on Synchrotron Sources

Part b: Why are these Wavelengths chosen?

- They match intermolecular distances

Section 02: X-Ray Generators

Part a: X-Ray Lasers

Part b: Conventional X-Ray Tubes

- Cathode (Tungsten Filament)
 - Provides electrons
 - Slowly boils off Tungsten Vapor and this contaminates
Metal Target and leads to filament breakage
- Accelerator Plates
- Metal Target (Anode)
 - Determines Wavelength distribution of X-Rays
 - Must be an excellent conductor of heat
 - Up to 3,000 Watts
- Cooling System
 - Limiting variable on tube output
 - Causes most operating problems
 - Transports heat to a heat sink

Part c: Rotating Anode Generators

- Designed to overcome the cooling limitations of Conventional Anodes

- Their Anode is a Rotating Cylinder of the Target Metal

- Rated Power Limits typically 12 to 18 kW
 - Normally run at 6 to 10 kW to reduce maintenance

- Maintenance Problems
 - Seals have to deal with high voltages, high vacuum, and high speeds
 - Filaments need to be changes every couple of months

- Vacuum System maintenance

- Purchase and Operating Costs

Part d: Synchrotron Sources

- National Level Facilities costing hundreds of millions or even a Billion Dollars

- Rely on “wasted” energy of rotating particle beam
 - Early machines collected stray radiation from bending magnets (broad band)
 - Current machines also use Wigglers to generate tunable radiation

- Advanced Light Source, ALS, at the National Lab in Berkeley

- Advanced Photon Source, APS, at the National Lab in Chicago

Section 03: X-Ray Monochromators

- Needed to reduce radiation to a single wavelength without unduly reducing the intensity

Part a: Foil Filters (Ni foil)

- Ni foil

Part b: Crystal (Graphite) Monochromators

- Large Graphite Single Crystal

Part c: Focusing Mirrors

- Highest Photon Yields
 - Catch a larger “spread” of X-rays from the tube

Section 04: X-Ray Collimators

Part a: Graphite Crystal Monochromators and Pin Holes in Tubes

Part b: Focusing Mirrors

- Much higher photon yields

Section 05: Goniometers

- Manual Goniometers on “Picker Machines”

- Automated Goniometers
 - 4 Circle Goniometers on our P4s
 - Kappa Geometry Goniometers
 - Serial Detectors vs. Area Detectors
 - Full computer control

- Extremely precise machining
 - Digital stepper motors

- Goniometer Heads

Section 06: Low Temperature System

- Why low temperatures?
 - Data intensity at high angles
 - Smaller Displacement Parameters
 - Slower crystal decomposition
 - Decomposition from X-Ray Beam
 - Decomposition from heat
 - Decomposition from air

- Limitations
 - Icing
 - Liquid N₂ Systems to ≈ -150 °C
 - Liquid He Systems to $\approx 15 - 20$ K

Section 07: X-Ray Detectors

Part a: Serial Detectors

- Scintillation Counters
- Excellent dynamic range
- Low cost
- Highly reliable
- Only one reflection at a time and therefore long data collection times
- The Multiplex Advantage

Part b: Film Based Area Detectors

- Oldest type of X-Ray Detector
- Multiple layers of film
- Visual estimation of intensities using Densitometer
- Modern automated intensity readings

Part c: Multi-Wire Area Detectors

- X-1000 Multi-Wire Detector on Cu Machine in Lab
 - Grid of wires (512 by 512 or 1024 by 1024)
 - Xe gas ionization
 - Be Windows
- Poor Dynamic Range
- Low Cost
- First major automated route for collecting Protein data
- Good for collecting Powder Data

Part d: CCD Detectors

- Developed by DOD and Astronomers
- The current State of the Art for Small Molecules and Synchrotron data
- Chip sizes range from 1k x 1k to 4k x 4k pixels and several cm on an edge
- Fiber Optic Taper normally used to increase data collection area to about 10 cm x 10 cm
- Data collected for 30 seconds to several minutes per frame and then read out to computer (this almost instantly)
- A Phosphor (tailored for the wavelength(s) of interest) converts the impinging X-rays to multiple visible light photons (what is counted by the CCD chip)
- Moderately expensive but price coming down rapidly
- Significantly more maintenance than a serial detector
- Good dynamic range
- CCD chip needs to be “cryocooled” to function

Part e: Imaging Plate Detectors

- The detector of choice for most current protein diffraction studies
- Very large data collection areas, typically 30 cm x 30 cm
 - This is especially important for large unit cells
- X-rays strike a large Storage Phosphor (frame times can be up to tens of minutes)
- Data read out by training an IR laser onto each pixel which causes optical photons to be released
 - Data read out times can be several minutes as this is done in a serial fashion
 - In compensation, many Imaging Plate systems have two phosphor screens and one is collecting data while the other is reading it out
- Prices similar to CCD systems
- Dynamic range smaller but data collection area larger

Section 08: X-Ray Absorption in the Diffractometer

Part a: Air

- Not a problem for short wavelength radiation such as Mo or Ag
- A significant problem for Cu, especially with large unit cell parameters where crystal to detector distances are large
- Use a He beam path

Part b: Windows

- Typically use Be windows on detectors and X-ray tubes
- May also use plastic films around He beam paths, etc.

Part c: Sample, Glue, Fiber & Capillary

- Larger samples with heavy atoms can absorb significantly
- Glue used to mount the sample, any beam that passes through the mounting fiber, and any capillary glass can absorb significantly, especially for Cu radiation

Topic III: Single Crystals

- Based primarily on Chapter 2 (G, L, & R, pages 33-71).

- Crystal Growth Strategies based primarily on Chapter XIV in Allen Hunter's YSU Structure Analysis Lab Manual, SALM, page 240 - 247

Ask Students: What do you know about Single Crystals

Section 01: Perfect Crystals?

- Single Crystals
 - Have long range order
 - Like bricks in a wall

- One distinct orientation
 - Typically a single degree or so of disorder across macroscopic dimensions

Graphics from Text: Figures 2.1 - 2.3, pages 34 - 36; Electron Micrograph pictures of three Virus Crystals

Graphics from Text: Figure 2.4, page 37; Scanning Tunneling Microscope, STM, images of Gallium Arsenide, GaAs, Single Crystals

Section 02: Growing Single Crystals

- Stages of Crystal Growth
 - Nucleation
 - The key step
 - Deposition on Surfaces of Individual Molecules
 - Requires a Saturated Solution
 - Requires that surface have similar metric parameters to the molecules being deposited

Graphics from Text: Figure 2.6, page 42; Sites of crystal growth on a crystal surface

Graphics from Text: Figure 2.8, page 48; Some methods of growing single crystals

- Crystal Growing Strategies from Chapter XIV in Allen Hunter's YSU Structure Analysis Lab Manual, SALM, as a Separate Handout available from:

You Must Print out this Handout

Modified Chapter XIV of ADH's
Structure Analysis Lab Manual, SALM:
Growing Single Crystals Suitable for Diffraction Analysis:
In Color: [137KB.doc](#), [63KB.pdf](#)
Black and white: [143KB.doc](#), [62KB.pdf](#)

Part a: General principles of growing single crystals

- General view: Art rather than Science
 - Green Thumb
- Rational approach informed by understanding

Part i: Rates of Crystal Growth

- Slower is better
 - Typically takes days to a week

Part ii: General Conditions for Crystal Growth

- Best Conditions
 - Constant temperatures
 - Minimal vibration
 - Dark (often seems to help, especially avoid direct sunlight)

- Impatience is the Enemy
 - Convection is bad and should be suppressed
 - Viscous solvents
 - Low Thermal Expansion Coefficient, dependence of density on temperature
 - Narrower tubes
 - Don't check crystallizations too often

Part iii: Solvent Properties and Saturated Solutions

- Grow crystals from Saturated Solutions
 - Like a bear's porridge, concentration at saturation must be just right
 - Systematically explore solubility

Part iv: Master Several Favorite Methods

- Success increases with experience
 - One learns to read subtle signals
 - Find a few methods and master them

Part b: Proven Methods for growing crystals

- The most common methods

Part i: Crystallization by Slow Evaporation

- Most popular method
- Works most easily with air stable materials
- Slow solvent evaporation is the key

Part ii: Crystallization by Cooling

- My personal favorite, alone or in combinations
- Solubility typically decreases with temperature
- Cool saturated solution of sample
 - Freezer for organics/inorganics
 - Furnace for extended solids

Part iii: Crystallization Using Mixed Solvents and Solvent

Diffusion in the Gas Phase

- Use a mixture of solvents to obtain the correct level of solubility
- Mixed Solvents
 - One solvent is moderately good for the compound
 - Contains dissolved sample near saturation
 - One solvent is moderately bad for the compound
 - The two solvents must be fully miscible
 - The sample is fully dissolved in the better solvent and then through various means the concentration of the second, poorer, solvent is increased
- Allow the two solvents to mix using a very slow solvent pump or dropwise solvent addition
- Allow the better solvent to evaporate out of the system

- Allow one or both of the solvents to diffuse into the other via the gas phase
- Typically takes longer and requires a moderately volatile solvent

Part iv: Crystallization by Solvent Layering

- Solvent Layering
 - One solvent is moderately good for the compound
 - Contains dissolved sample near saturation
 - One solvent is moderately bad for the compound
 - The two solvents must be fully miscible
 - Layer one on top of the other

Part v: Crystallization by Diffusion Through Capillaries andGels

- Diffusion through a narrow capillary, constriction in the tube, or a gel
 - One solvent is moderately good for the compound
 - Contains dissolved sample near saturation
 - One solvent is moderately bad for the compound
 - The two solvents must be fully miscible
 - The sample is fully dissolved in the better solvent and then through various means the concentration of the second, poorer, solvent is increased

Part vi: Crystallization From Melts

- Requires that the sample be thermally stable at the requisite melting point of the Melt

- Used industrially to grow single crystals used in the electronics industry, e.g.
 - Single crystal Silicon, Gallium Arsenide, etc.

- Used to grow single crystals of high temperature extended solids, e.g.
 - Minerals such as Diamond and Quartz in nature
 - Metal oxides in Dr. Wagner's group

- Some work has been done on using low temperature ionic liquids (which may melt near room temperature) to apply this approach to less thermally stable ionic materials

Part vii: Crystallization by Sublimation

- The compound must be sufficiently volatile at accessible pressures (vacuums)
- Can be assisted by using heating of the sample and cooling of the receiver

- Works best with the most volatile materials (typically quite nonpolar), e.g.
 - Naphthalene
 - Ferrocene
 - $\text{Cr}(\text{CO})_6$

Part viii: _____CCrystallization Using Combinations

- In Terminator II, Judgement Day, the boy is trying to teach Arnold Swartzenager, the Terminator, how to act more human
 - He first teaches him individual colloquial expression
 - He then tells him he can, like, use combos
 - Arnold gets the idea and comes up with “Hasta La Vista - Baby” (forgive my Spanish)

- Like Arnold, don't be afraid to use combinations, combos, that your experience and intuition suggest, e.g.
 - My favorite method is to layer the solution and then place it in the freezer

Part ix: Syntheses In Situ

- Reactions at the Interface of Two Solutions
 - Can be at a boundary between two immiscible layers
 - Can be at a capillary junction between the same solvent
 - The starting materials are each dissolved in one solution
 - The product is insoluble in neither
 - It precipitates at the solution boundary
 - Works even for thermally unstable materials

- Can be done with an electrochemical source as one “reagent”

Part x: The Magic of NMR Tubes

- An amazingly large number of single crystals are grown in NMR tubes so always check them before cleaning.

- Why is this true?
 - NMR Tubes are:
 - Typically very clean
 - Have few nucleation sites on their walls (no scratches)
 - Thin and this suppresses convection
 - The plastic caps have a very low permeability to most organic solvents that lets them evaporate out slowly over weeks or months
 - Chemists run at near saturation to get the strongest signal
 - Chemists use their cleanest samples for NMR to get the prettiest pictures for their bosses and themselves

- Chemists, as a Rule, are Lazy
 - They do not clean their tubes for months in dark quiet spot and let them sit around undisturbed in spots the boss can't see and they don't have to look at: perfect crystallization conditions

Part xi: Other Chance Methods

- Don't look a gift horse in the mouth and keep a close watch:
 - dirty old flasks you have been avoiding washing
 - in old bottles of samples
 - in anything that might hold a sample

Part c: What to do when proven methods fail**Part i: Purify Your Material**

- Impure materials greatly impede crystallization, especially the formation of single crystals

- If you crystallization doesn't work:
 - Further purify the sample
 - Keep the best solids and use them to start the next round

Part ii: Seed Crystals

- Crystals grow by the addition of individual molecules to a surface having a similar structure

- Crystals can be grown using Seed Crystals of your sample that were too small for diffraction analysis

- Seed crystals are often produced accidentally from solutions splashed on the side walls of flasks

Part iii: The Role of Extraneous Materials

- Interestingly, if one uses too clean of procedures (hard to do in practice) it is much harder for crystals to grow, they typically need a seeding/patterning agent, often provided accidentally

- Dust, dandruff, and grease

- Scratches and defects in the container walls

- Surface treatments of the container walls

Part iv: Try, Try Again

- When All Else Fails, Persistence Pays Off

- Sequential crystal growing strategies

- Systematic approaches to growing single crystals and the exploration of crystallization: the multiplex advantage
 - Learning from Protein Crystallographers

- Make Derivatives
 - They synthetic chemist's best friend

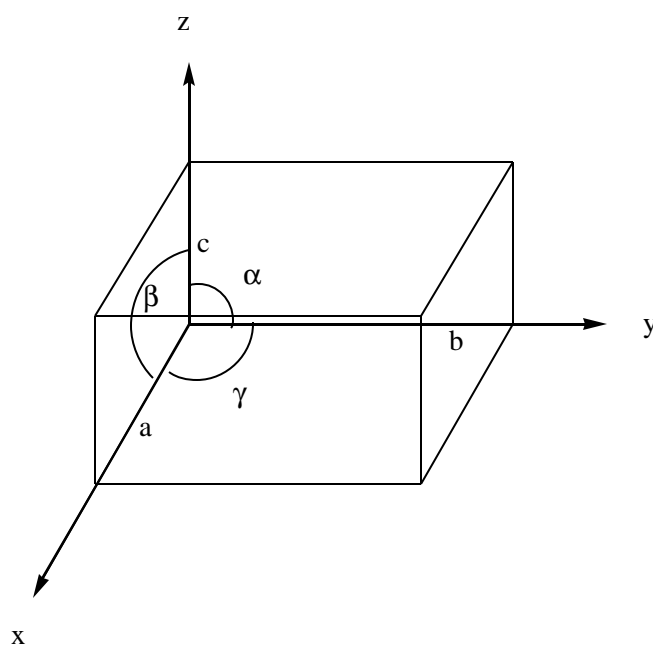
- Solvates and Crystallization Agents
 - Packing / Interacting solvents such as:
 - Water or Alcohols
 - Benzene
 - Chlorocarbons

- Inclusion Compounds and Supramolecular Complexes
 - Thiourea, $SC(NH_2)_2$, Channel Compounds
 - Calix[n]Arenes
 - Cyclodextrins
 - Porphyrins

Section 03: The Unit Cell

Graphics from Text: Figure 2.5, page 38; Unit Cell Axial Lengths and Unit Cell Angles

- Axial naming follows the right hand rule
- The three axial vectors define a Parallelepiped
 - The lengths can be the same or different
 - Range from a few Angstroms to thousands of Angstroms
 - The angle can be the same or different
 - Often are not 90°



Section 04: Crystal Shapes

Part a: Crystal Growth and Shapes

Part i: Crystal Habits and Morphology

- The relative rates that molecules are deposited onto the surface of growing crystals determines the final shape of the crystal

- This final shape for a particular unit cell is referred to as:
 - The Morphology of the Crystal
 - The Habit of the Crystal
 - These external forms are hard to directly relate to unit cell parameters

Graphics from Text: Figure 2.7, page 44; The relationship of crystal faces to the rates of face growth

Part ii: Polymorphism and Isomorphism

- Some molecules are found with several different unit cells (typically because the energies of packing are similar and small changes in crystallization conditions favor one over the others)
- These different forms are known as Polymorphs and this behavior is known as Polymorphism

Graphics from Text: Figure 2.14, pages 58 - 61; Variations of crystal shapes (crystal habits) from the same cubic unit cells

- Isomorphism occurs when two different molecules crystallize in apparently identical crystals

- Isomorphic Crystals typically have similar:
 - Crystal Shapes
 - Unit Cell Dimensions
 - Similar molecular structures
 - Similar molecular compositions

- With enough similarity can grow mixed crystals via Isomorphic Replacement, e.g.
 - Very common in minerals
 - Mixed isotope compounds
 - $V(CO)_6$ in $Cr(CO)_6$
 - Chromium Alum in Potash Alum
 - Isomorphous Replacement in Protein Diffraction Studies using heavy atom salts, unnatural amino acids, etc.

- Alums, $(M_1)_2(SO_4) \cdot (M_3)_2(SO_4)_3 \cdot 24H_2O$
 - $M_1 = K$ or NH_4
 - $M_3 = Al^{+3}$ or Cr^{+3}
 - Form large octahedral crystals by evaporating water solutions

- Potash Alum, $K_2(SO_4) \cdot Al_2(SO_4)_3 \cdot 24H_2O$
 - Colorless
 - Air Stable

- Chromium Alum, $K_2(SO_4) \cdot Cr_2(SO_4)_3 \cdot 24H_2O$
 - Deep Purple
 - Decays in Air

- Isomorphic Replacement
 - Layered Alums
 - Mixed Alums

Part b: Indexing Crystal Faces

- Very widely done in geology as a way of identifying minerals
 - Contact Goniometer (two hinged straight edges used to measure angles)
 - Graphics from Text: Figure 2.10, page 52; Diagram of a Contact Goniometer

- Indexing Crystal Faces
 - The xyz face of a crystal is
 - Parallel to all of the xyz planes in the crystal
 - Intersects to axes of the unit cell at $1/x$, $1/y$, and $1/z$
 - Examples:
 - 100 Face
 - 134 Face
 - Good Exam Type Question
 - Graphics from Text: Figure 2.11 and 2.12, page 53 and 54;
Indexing Crystal Faces

Part c: The Crystal Lattice

- The Crystal Lattice is an imaginary three dimensional array of points, lattice points, that repeats to give the three dimensional order of the crystal

- When convoluted with the unit cell contents, it build the full three dimensional structure of the crystal

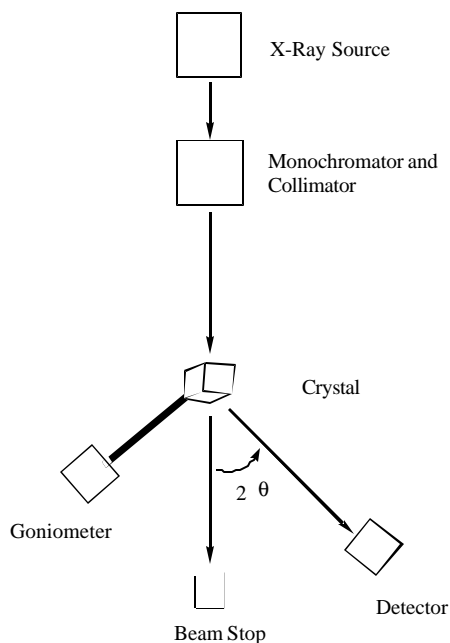
- Graphics from Text: Figures 2.15 and 2.16, pages 62 and 63;
The crystal lattice and real crystals

Topic IV: Diffraction by Crystals

- Based primarily on Chapter 3 (G, L, & R, pages 73-103).

Ask Students: What do you know about the Process of Diffraction of Waves?

- Graphics from Text: Figure 1.2, page 4; Image Generation in Optical Microscopy and X-Ray Diffraction



Section 01: Waves

Part a: Generic Waves

- Parameters that define a wave:
 - Wavelength, λ
 - In Diffraction is typically near 1 μ
 - (Frequency, ν (remember: $C = \lambda \nu$))
 - Amplitude, A
 - Relative Phase, ϕ

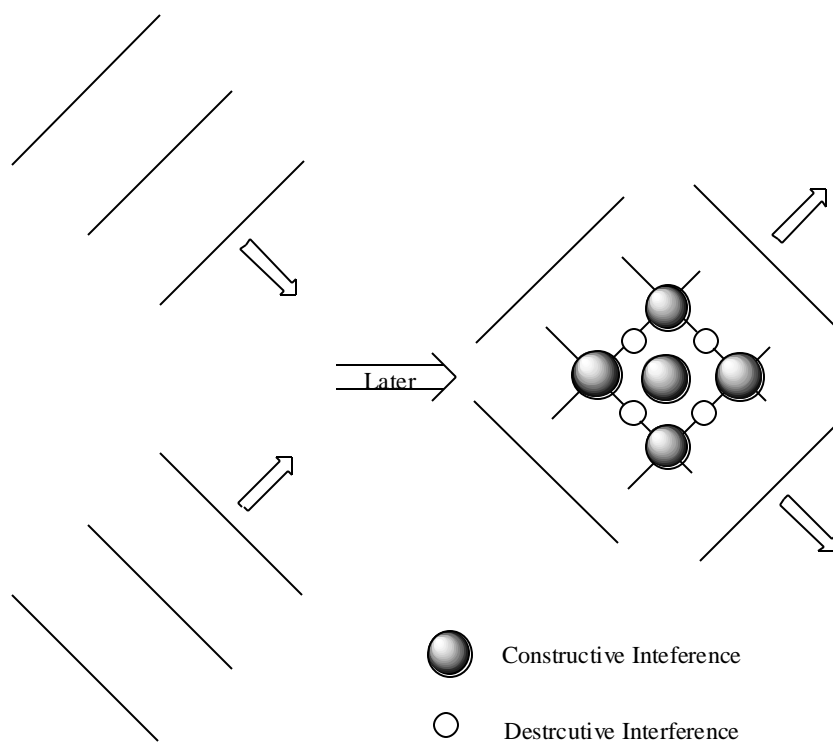
Graphics from Text: Figure 3.1, page 75; The Amplitude, A , Wavelength, λ , and Relative Phase, ϕ , of a Sinusoidal Wave

Part b: Water Waves

- Apply your intuition/real world experience/Physics to thinking about planar waves, such as water waves, moving through holes in a barrier (breakwater)
- Note: The same thing happens when they go through a field of poles in the water

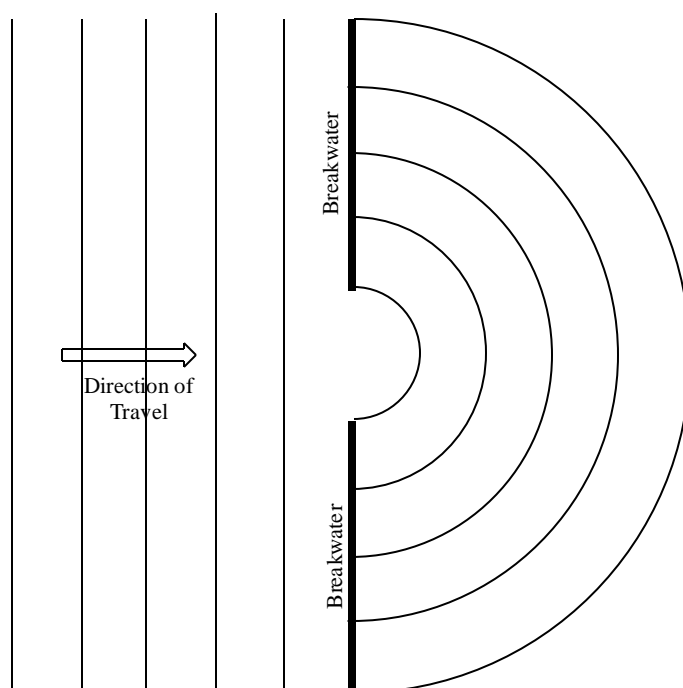
Part i: Non-parallel sets of waves on open water

- Areas of unexpectedly high and low amplitudes (can be very dangerous to boaters) ⇒
 - Constructive Interference
 - Destructive Interference



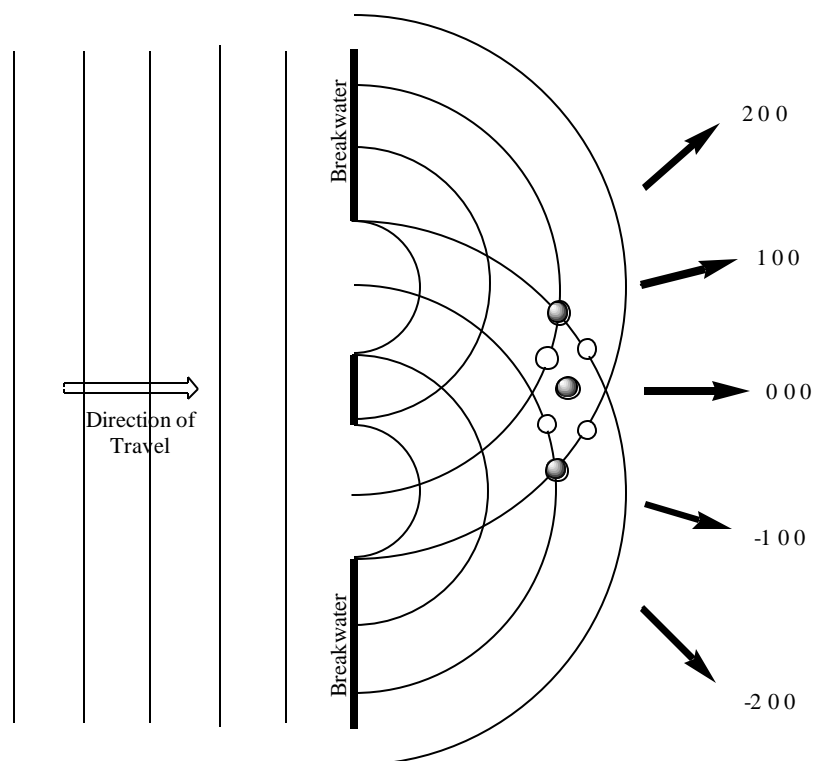
Part ii: Parallel waves passing through a hole in a breakwater

- Areas of unexpectedly high and low amplitudes (can be very dangerous to boats at dock) ⇒
- Constructive Interference
- Destructive Interference
- Graphics from Text: Figure 3.2a, page 76; Spreading of Plane Waves passing through a slit



Part iii: Parallel waves passing through two holes in a breakwater

- Areas of unexpectedly high and low amplitudes ⇒
 - Constructive Interference
 - Destructive Interference
 - Graphics from Text: Figure 3.2b, page 76; Spreading of Plane Waves passing through two slits



Part iv: Parallel waves passing through two holes of varying spacings

- The further apart the slits are the closer together will be the sites of constructive and destructive interference
- Graphics from Text: Figure 3.2b and c, page 76; Effects of slit spacing on interference pattern

Part c: Light Waves

- Graphics from Text: Figure 1.4, page 9; Diffraction of light through a fine metal mesh sieve

- Note the wavelength does not change

- Constructive Interference and Destructive Interference

- Graphics from Text: Figures 1.1 and 3.3, pages 3 and 77;
Constructive and Destructive Superposition of Waves

Section 02: Diffraction in Two Dimensions

Part a: Diffraction Pattern from a Single Slit

Part i: Influence of Slit Width on Diffraction Pattern

- Narrow Slits \Rightarrow Wide patterns
- Wide Slits \Rightarrow Narrow patterns
- Note: the inverse relationship characteristic of diffraction

Graphics from Text: Figure 3.5, page 79; Diffraction Patterns of a Single Slit

Part ii: Reason for the Observed Diffraction Pattern Shapes

- Constructive and Destructive Interference from light coming through different parts of the slit

Graphics from Text: Figure 3.6, page 80; Reason for the Diffraction Patterns of a Single Slit

Part b: Diffraction Patterns from Two or More Slits

- Much like with water waves, pairs of slits give rise to interference patterns.

Part i: Influence of Slit Spacing

- Wide spacing of slits leads to closely spaced maxima
- Close spacing of slits leads to widely spaced maxima

Graphics from Text: Figure 3.6, page 80; Diffraction Pattern Spacing from Larger and Smaller Spacings of Slits

Part c: Diffraction Patterns from Arrays of Slits

- The overall influences of slit width and pattern are a convolution of the influences of slit width and slit spacing
- Slit Width \Rightarrow Overall Envelope of Diffraction Pattern
- Slit Spacing \Rightarrow Spacing of Maxima within that Envelope

Graphics from Text: Figure 3.6, page 80; Diffraction Pattern Spacing from Arrays of Slits

Part d: Diffraction by Slits vs. Diffraction by Objects

- These discussions have focused on models of slits in walls

- They also work equally well with objects that cause the bending, for example:
 - A field of Telephone Poles planted in a lake for water waves
 - A pattern of glass or plastic rods for light waves

Section 03: Diffraction in Three Dimensions

Part a: Laser Light Show

- Diffraction patterns form by shining light through two dimensional patterns and projected onto a screen

Laser Light Show: Laser Pointer and ICE Slides

Graphics from Text: Figure 3.7, page 82; Diffraction Patterns from Arrays of Points on a Slide

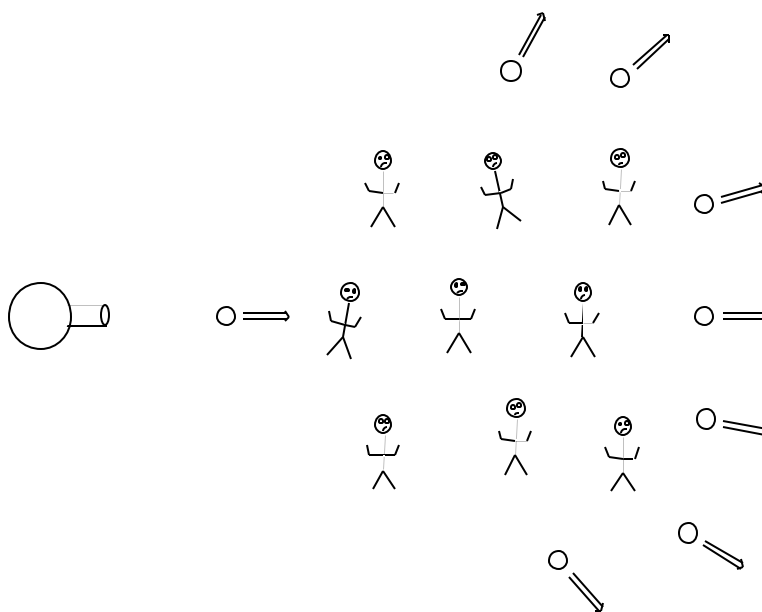
Part b: The Influences of Object Patterns

- It is most apparent that there is a reciprocal relationship between the diffracting array and the observed pattern
 - A square array \Rightarrow a square pattern
 - A rectangular array \Rightarrow a rectangular pattern rotated 90°
 - A hexagonal array \Rightarrow a hexagonal pattern
 - A closely spaced array \Rightarrow a widely spaced pattern
 - A widely spaced array \Rightarrow a closely spaced pattern

- Hence the origin of the term Reciprocal Space

Part c: Quantum Mechanical Basketball

- Influences of the patterns on the court on who in the stands will get hit
- Influences of the player orientation, size, and shape on who in the stands will be hit



Part d: The Influences of Objects, Periodicity, Array Size, and Disorder on Diffraction Patterns

Part i: Objects in the Array

- The size, shapes, and orientations of the objects in the array
⇒ a continuously varying intensity of diffracted light
- This is like a topographic map

Part ii: Pattern of the Array

- The periodicity of the pattern determines the angles at which diffracted beams will be observable and hence set a mask over which the continuously varying intensity pattern can be sampled
- This is like a piece of paper with holes punched out of it through which one looks at a topographic map

Part iii: Size of the Array

- The more objects in the array:
 - the narrower will be each beam of light
 - the stronger will be the total diffracted beam

Part iv: Disorder of the Array

- The more disordered (both dynamically and statically) the array the weaker will be the diffracted beams at higher diffraction angles

Section 04: X-Ray Diffraction

Part a: What Diffracts X-Rays?

- X-rays are diffracted by electrons not the nucleus so an X-ray structure solution tells you where the electrons are in the sample not where the centers of the atoms are

Part b: The 180° Phase Shift for X-Rays

- When a wave is reflected (e.g., a water wave off of a wall or a light wave off of a mirror) that wave gets a 180° phase shift relative to the incoming wave
- The same 180° Phase Shift is typical for X-ray diffraction

Graphics from Text: Figure 3.8, page 84; the Phase Shift during X-Ray Scattering

Part c: Atomic Scattering Factors for X-Rays

- Since X-ray are diffracted by electrons, the size and shape of the electron cloud will influence the diffracted intensity

Graphics from Text: Figure 3.12, page 90; The relationship of Relative Object Size and Wavelength to High Angle Scattering of Waves

Graphics from Text: Figure 3.13a, page 91 and Table 3.2 page 92; Some Atomic Scattering Factors and Atomic Scattering Curves for X-Rays

Part i: Maximum Atomic Scattering Factor, ASF

- More total electrons corresponds to a stronger diffracting ability
- Thus, the maximum Atomic Scattering Factor, ASF, will follow the order $W > Mo > Cr$, etc., $O^{-2} > O^{-} > O$
- The maximum ASF value for an atom/ion is equal to the total number of electrons
- Because ASF is determined by the electron cloud and not by the nuclear composition, it is largely independent of the isotope

Part ii: Shapes of the Atomic Scattering Factor Curves

- The size of the atom strongly influences the angular dependence of the diffracted intensity
- As with slit width effects, this is due to destructive interference between X-rays scattered from different parts of the electron cloud
- With the same total number of electrons, larger atoms drop off more quickly (i.e., due to Z_{eff})
- The effects of different orbitals can be calculated to give calculated ASF curves
- Because atoms are large with respect to the size of X-rays, X-Ray ASF curves drop off fairly rapidly and one tends not to see a lot of diffracted intensity at high angles
- ASF curves are typically plotted as ASF vs. $\sin\theta/\lambda$ and are thus useful for all X-ray wavelengths

Section 05: Neutron Diffraction

Part a: What Diffracts Neutrons?

- Neutrons are diffracted by nuclei

Part b: Atomic Scattering Factors for Neutrons

- Neutrons used for diffraction have a wavelength of about 1 \AA while nuclei have diameters of about 10^{-4} and therefore act a point diffraction objects
- This means that their scattered intensity is largely independent of angle
- Because it is nuclei that do the scattering, Neutron ASF values are different for different isotope
- However, they are independent of the charge on the atom/ion

Graphics from Text: Figure 3.13b, page 91 and Table 3.2, page 92;

Atomic Scatting Factors for Neutrons

Section 06: Bragg's Law

Part a: The Experimental Truth

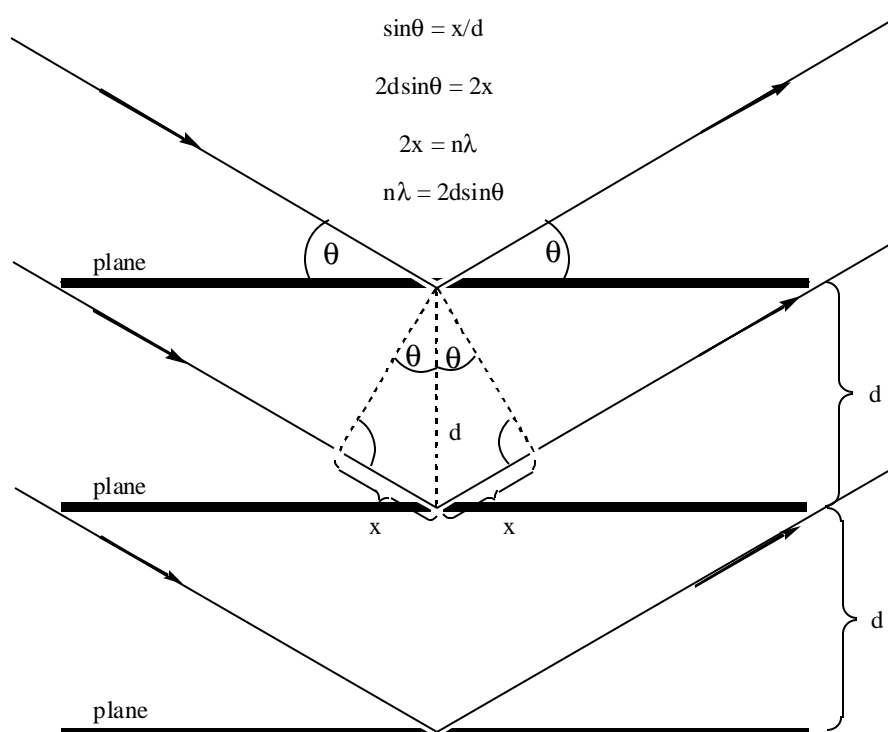
- Bragg's Law states for diffraction to occur it is observed experimentally that:

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

- Where
- $n \equiv$ Any integer, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, etc.
 - $\lambda \equiv$ The Wavelength of Diffracted Light
 - $d \equiv$ The Interplanar Spacing
 - $\theta \equiv$ The Angle between the Incident Ray and the Planes

Part b: The Myth Taught in General Chemistry

- Diffraction Off of Planes gives Bragg's Law (may mention this is due to constructive and destructive interference)

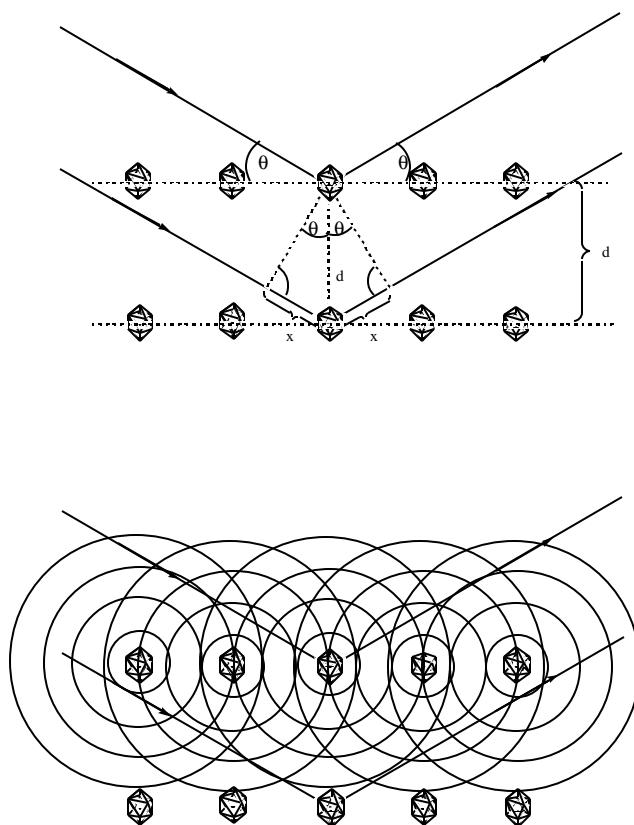


Graphics from Text: Figure 3.10b, page 87; Diffraction off of Planes

Part c: The Truth About Bragg's Law

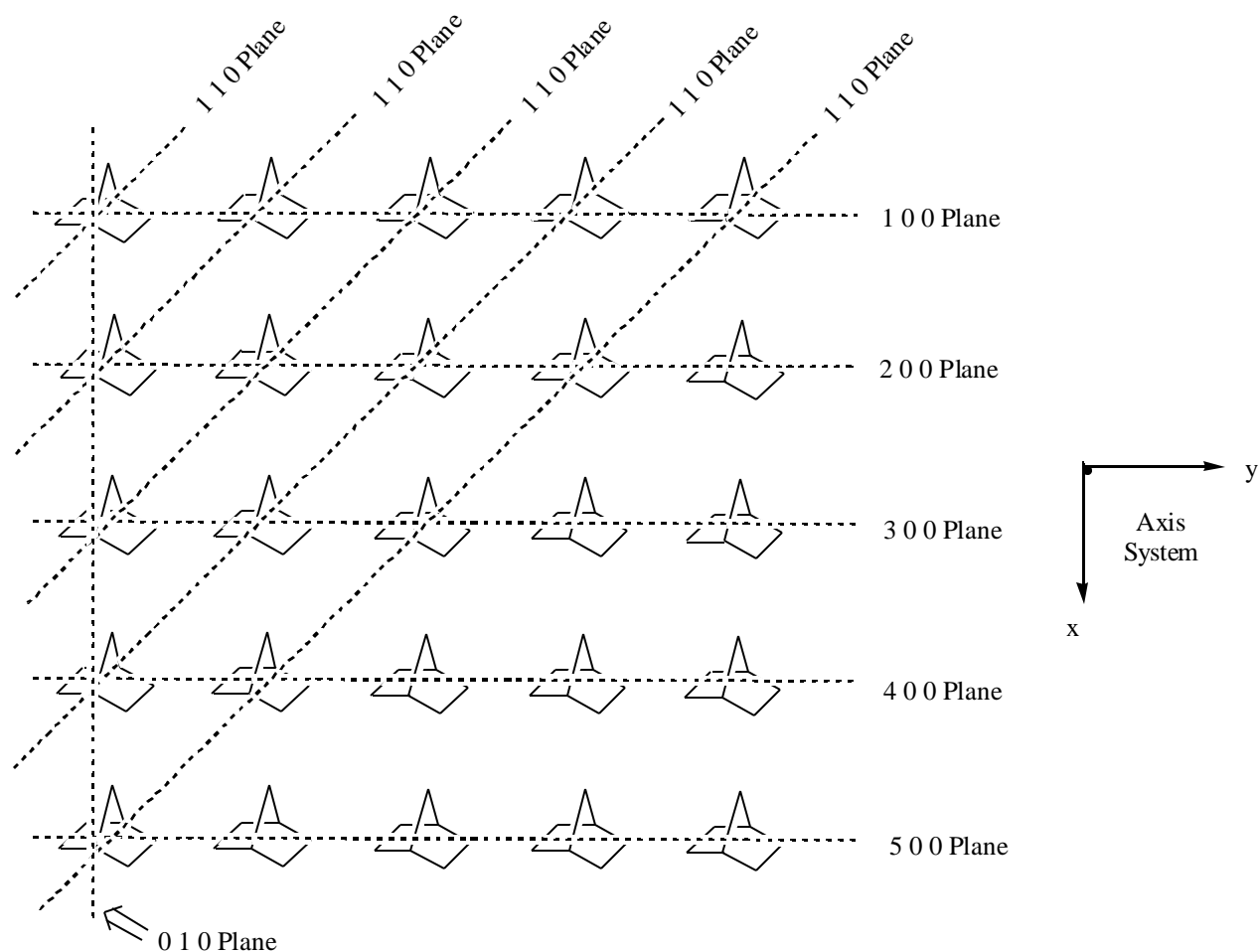
Graphics from Text: Figure 3.9, page 85; Conditions for Diffraction so as to get Constructive Interference - Relating Diffraction Through Slits to Diffraction off of Planes

Graphics from Text: Figures 3.10a and b, pages 86 and 87; Interference and Bragg's Law



Part d: Which planes are we talking about?

➤ Diagram of planes from a section of crystal



➤ Graphics from Text: Figure 2.12, page 34; the Indexing of Crystal Faces

- The minimum incidence angle \Rightarrow reflections off of pairs of planes that are one layer apart and would be the 1 0 0 reflections

- The next angle \Rightarrow reflections off to pairs of planes two layers apart and would be referred to as the 2 0 0 reflection

- The third smallest angle \Rightarrow reflections off to pairs of planes three layers apart and would be referred to as the 3 0 0 reflection

- Thus the 1 0 0, the 2 0 0, the 3 0 0, etc., reflections all come off of a set of parallel planes that intersect the x axis but not the y and z axes

Part e: Getting Unit Cell Parameters from Interplanar**Spacings**

- Once one measures the observed angles of a dozen or so reflections, it is an exercise in geometry to calculate the unit cell parameters
- Obviously the more accurate the angles (and the larger the number) the more accurate will be the unit cell parameters

Graphics from Text: Table 3.1, page 88; Obtaining Unit Cell Dimensions from d_{hkl} Values

Section 07: Anomalous Scattering

Part a: The Origins of Anomalous Scattering

- Upon diffraction from an array of atoms, most of the time the phase shift is approximately 180°

- In the ideal case, the absorption of radiation by an element increases smoothly with increasing wavelength

- Occasionally, when the incident radiation is similar in energy to the energy required to excite or ionize a bound electron, there will be a spike in the absorption curve called an Absorption Edge

- Graphics from Text: Figure 6.23, page 219; Absorption Curves for some representative atoms

- If the wavelength of the incident radiation is near the absorption edge of an element then the phase shift is likely to be significantly different than 180° , more later

Part b: Anomalous Scattering and Neutrons

- For neutrons, anomalous scattering is dependent on the isotope one uses and can be used to readily distinguish isotopes in different positions
- Graphics from Text: Table 3.2, page 92; Atomic Scattering Factor Table including an example of Anomalous Scattering for ${}^6\text{Li}$

Part c: Anomalous Scattering and X-Rays

- As we will see later, this is very important for X-rays both in helping to estimate phases of complex molecules such as proteins and in absolute structure determinations where anomalous scattering makes reflection $h\ k\ l \neq -h\ -k\ -l$

Section 08: The Ewald Sphere

- The Ewald Sphere is a way of thinking about when a crystal will be at the right orientation for a reflection to occur

Graphics from Text: Figure 3.17, pages 98 and 99, The Origin of the Ewald Sphere

Topic V: Symmetry

- Based primarily on:
 - Chapter 4 (G, L, & R, pages 105-141)
 - XSCANS Tutorial Guide and Reference Guide (Bruker-AXS)
 - The International Tables (Symmetry and Space Group Determination Sections)
 - Software Package: Crystallographic CourseWare (M. Kastner, Bucknell University): An exceptionally useful and user friendly package to learn about symmetry and many aspects of diffraction methods

Ask Students: What do you know about Symmetry?

Section 01: Introduction to Symmetry

- Symmetry tell us about patterns in shapes in a very concise way and is very important in interpreting crystallographic data

- We will not be discussing symmetry in detail in 2000 (but will in the Semester version of the course) but will look at some high points

Part a: Origin and Choice of the Unit Cell

- The Origin of the Unit Cell is entirely arbitrary but for the sake of simplicity it is usually chosen as the point of highest symmetry in the unit cell

- Note: The molecule(s) in the unit cell do not have to be in the center and in fact are often split between adjacent unit cells

- For each lattice, one can choose an infinite number of unit cells
 - The only criterion is that, when duplicated side by side, the unit cell must reproduce the structure of the whole crystals
 - The unit cell can be chosen with different sizes and shapes
 - The Primitive Unit Cell is the smallest unit cell possible with its angles being as close to 90° as possible

- Graphics from Text: Figures 4.1a and b, pages 106 and 107;
Examples of Choices of Unit Cells

Part b: Symmetry Operations

- Symmetry operations are geometric activities that convert an object back into itself
 - It can be a point, a line, or a plane

- Graphics from Text: Figure 4.2, page 108; The Symmetry of Benzene

- Graphics from Text: Table 4.1, page 116; Table of Symmetry Operations

Part c: Point Groups

- Point Groups are a collection of symmetry operations characteristic of an object that is fixed in space
- These are widely used in Physical Chemistry and Spectroscopy to simplify calculations and predict spectra
- There are 32 Unique Point Groups relevant to the Crystalline State

Part d: Space Groups

- Space Groups are a collection of Symmetry Operations characteristic of an object that is arranged periodically in space
- These are widely used in Solid State Chemistry and Materials Science to simplify calculations and understand extended solids
- There are 230 Unique Space Groups
 - Some of these are very commonly found while others have yet to be observed in nature

Section 02: Point Symmetry Operations

- Point Symmetry Operations are a symmetry elements characteristic of an individual object
- No Translational Symmetry Operations are allowed

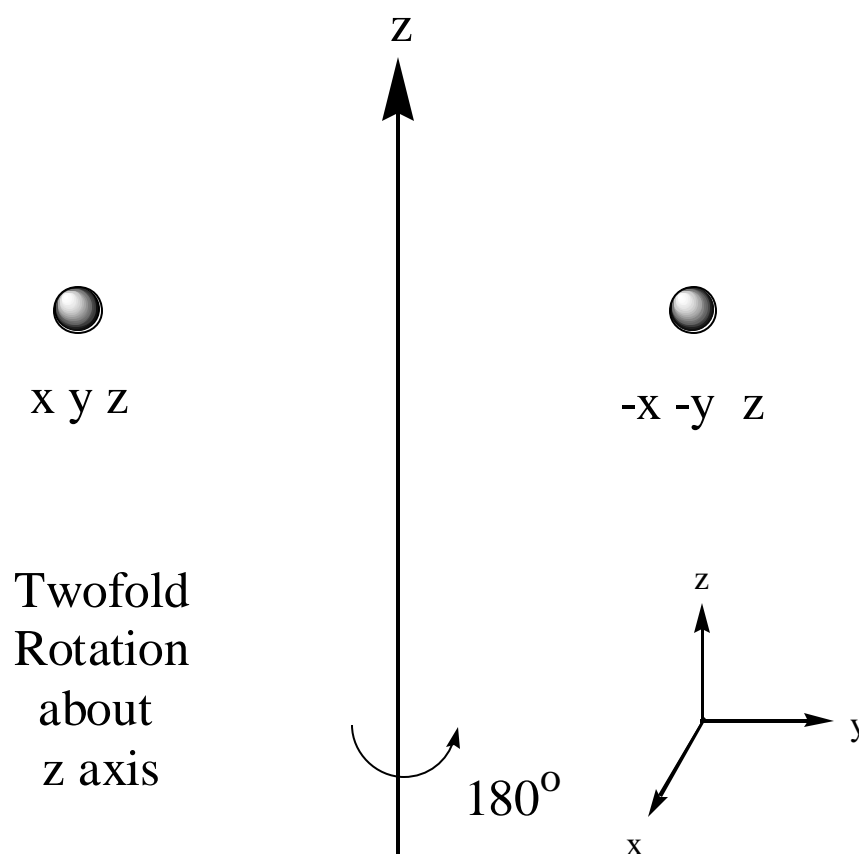
Part a: Rotation Axes

- Rotation Axes occur when one rotates an object about a line passing through its center

- A n-fold rotation rotates an object through $360/n^\circ$ leaving the object unchanged

- $n=1 \Rightarrow$ A Onefold Rotation rotates the object through 360°
 - This rotation is also referred to as the Identity Operation

- $n=2 \Rightarrow$ A Twofold Rotation rotates the object through 180°
- Graphics from Text: Figure 4.3, page 110; Two Fold Rotation Axes



$n=3 \Rightarrow$ A Threefold Rotation rotates the object through 120°

➤ $n=4 \Rightarrow$ A Fourfold Rotation rotates the object through 90°

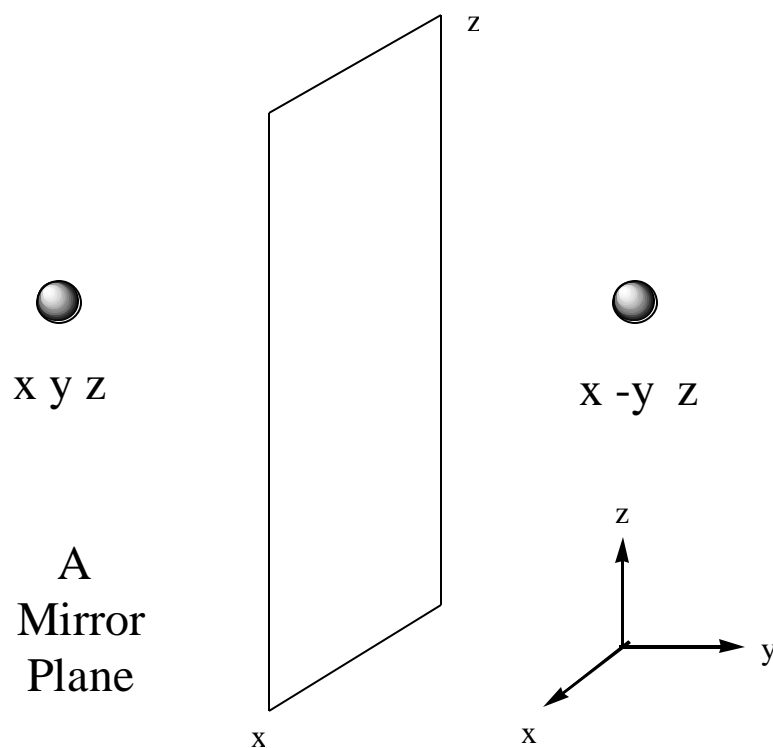
➤ $n=5 \Rightarrow$ A Fivefold Rotation rotates the object through 72°

➤ This is allowed in individual molecules but not allowed in crystalline materials

➤ $n=6 \Rightarrow$ A Sixfold Rotation rotates the object through 60°

Part b: Mirror Planes

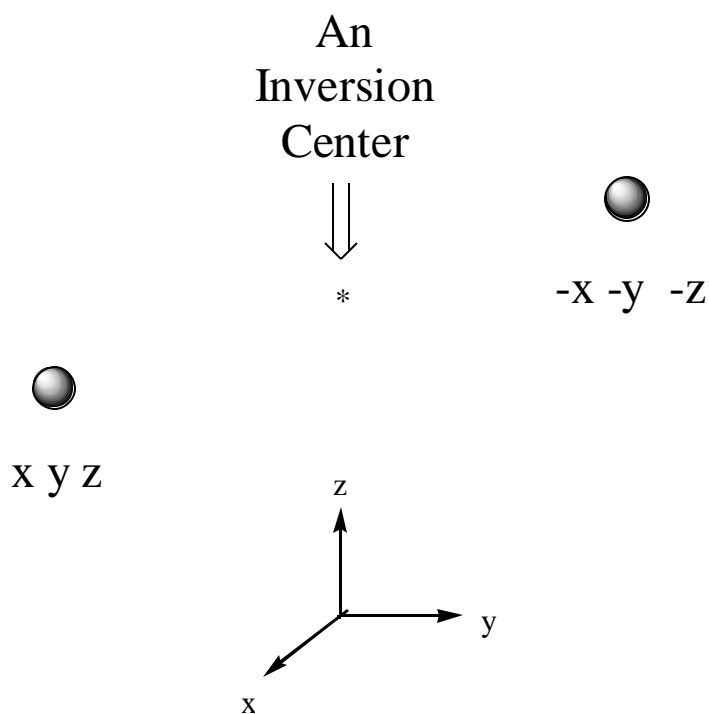
- A Mirror Plane converts an object into its Mirror Image
- Objects may have more than one mirror planes in them



- Graphics from Text: Figure 4.4, page 111; Mirror Planes

Part c: Inversion Centers

- An Inversion Center turns a molecule inside out
- It is often referred to as “i” or as 1bar



- Graphics from Text: Figure 4.5, page 112; Center of Symmetry

Part d: Rotary Inversion Axes

- A Rotatory Inversion Axis is a Rotation by $360^\circ/n$ followed by an inversion across a center of symmetry

- A n-fold rotation rotates an object through $360/n^\circ$ followed by inversion leaving the object unchanged

- $n=1 \Rightarrow$ A Onefold Rotatory Inversion rotates the object through 360° and then inverts it
 - This rotation is the same as the Inversion Center

 - This is referred to as $1\bar{1}$

- $n=2 \Rightarrow$ A Twofold Rotatory Inversion rotates the object through 180° and then inverts it
 - This is referred to as $2\bar{1}$
 - This is equivalent to a Mirror Plane

- Graphics from Text: Figure 4.6, pages 113 and 114;
Twofold Rotatory Inversion Axis

- $n=3 \Rightarrow$ A Threefold Rotatory Inversion rotates the object through 120° and then inverts it
 - This is referred to as $3\bar{1}$

- $n=4 \Rightarrow$ A Fourfold Rotatory Inversion rotates the object through 90° and then inverts it
 - This is referred to as $4\bar{1}$

- $n=5 \Rightarrow$ A Fivefold Rotatory Inversion rotates the object through 72° and then inverts it
 - This is referred to as $5\bar{1}$
 - This is allowed in individual molecules but not allowed in crystalline materials

- $n=6 \Rightarrow$ A Sixfold Rotatory Inversion rotates the object through 60° and then inverts it
 - This is referred to as $6\bar{1}$

Part e: Point Groups and Chiral Molecules

Part i: Proper Symmetry Operations

- Proper Symmetry Operations do not change the handedness of objects
 - Translations
 - Rotations

Part ii: Improper Symmetry Operations

- Improper Symmetry Operations do change the handedness of objects (i.e., they convert it to its mirror image)
 - Reflections
 - Inversions

Part iii: Point Groups and Handedness

- If a molecule is Chiral, it can never be in a Point Group that includes Improper Symmetry Operations because they would then be superimposable on their mirror image

Section 03: Hermann-Mauguin vs. Schoenflies Symbols

- Point Groups can be indicated by one of two systems of nomenclature
- Schoenflies is what is used most commonly by Chemists such as Spectroscopists
- Hermann-Mauguin is used by Crystallographers
- Graphics from Text: Table 4.1, page 116; Conversions from Schoenflies to Hermann-Mauguin Symbols for Point Groups
- Graphics from Text: Figure 4.7, page 117; The Symmetry of a Cube

- Rotation

- Rotation + Perpendicular Reflections

- Rotation + Plane(s) Through the Axis

- Rotatory Inversion

- Rotation (n) + n Perpendicular Twofold Axes

- Rotation (n) + n Perpendicular Twofold Axes +
Perpendicular Reflections

- Rotation (n) + n Perpendicular 2 Fold Axes + Perpendicular
Reflections + Diagonal

- Cubic Space Groups

Section 04: Symmetries of Regularly Repeating Objects

- Crystallographic Point Groups (i.e., those in solids) must leave the whole crystal unchanged
- As a consequence only 2, 3, 4, and 6 fold symmetries are allowed (Fivefold Symmetry) is forbidden
- As a consequence, there are only 32 Allowed Point Groups in the Crystalline State

- Graphics from Text: Figure 4.8, page 119; Fivefold Symmetry vs. Threefold, Fourfold, and Sixfold Symmetry

Section 05: Crystal Systems & Space Groups

Part a: The 7 Crystal Systems

- The Seven Crystal Systems are characterized by their Lattice Symmetries (which also constrain their allowed unit cell axial lengths and angles)
- Graphics from Text: Table 4.2, page 120; The Seven Crystal Systems

Part i: Triclinic

- Symmetry is the Identity or Inversion
- Lattice (Laue) Symmetry \Rightarrow 1bar
- $a \neq b \neq c$
- $\alpha \neq \beta \neq \gamma$

Part ii: Monoclinic

- Symmetry is a single Twofold Rotation or Rotatory Inversion axis along b
- Lattice (Laue) Symmetry $\Rightarrow 2/m$
- $a \neq b \neq c$
- $\alpha = \gamma = 90^\circ$
- $\beta \neq 90^\circ$

Part iii: Orthorhombic

- Symmetry is three mutually perpendicular Twofold Rotation or Rotatory Inversion axes along a , b , and c
- Lattice (Laue) Symmetry $\Rightarrow mmm$
- $a \neq b \neq c$
- $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$

Part iv: Tetragonal

- Symmetry is a single Fourfold Rotation or Rotatory Inversion axis along c
- A “face stretched cube”
- Lattice (Laue) Symmetry $\Rightarrow 4/mmm$
- $a = b \neq c$
- $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$

Part v: Cubic

- Symmetry is four Threefold axes along $a+b+c$, $-a+b+c$, $a-b+c$, and $-a-b+c$
- Lattice (Laue) Symmetry $\Rightarrow m3m$
- $a = b = c$
- $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$

Part vi: Trigonal

- Symmetry is a single Threefold Rotation or Rotatory Inversion axis along $a+b+c$
- A “corner stretched cube”
- Lattice (Laue) Symmetry $\Rightarrow 3(\bar{6})m$
- $a = b = c$
- $\alpha = \beta = 90^\circ$ Table in Text Incorrect???
- $\gamma \neq 90^\circ, \gamma < 120^\circ$ Table in Text Incorrect???

Part vii: Hexagonal

- Symmetry is a single Sixfold Rotation or Rotatory Inversion axis along c
- Lattice (Laue) Symmetry $\Rightarrow 6/mmm$
- $a = b \neq c$
- $\alpha = \beta = 90^\circ$
- $\gamma = 120^\circ$

Part b: Centering of Unit Cells

- Centering relates to how many lattice points are in each unit cell and where are any additional lattice points located
- There are four possible types: P , (C , A , or B), I , and F (plus R)
- When Primitive Centering is found with the Trigonal Crystal System, this is referred to as Primitive Rhombohedral, R , rather than Primitive, P , Centering
- Graphics from Text: Table 4.3, page 121; Diagrams at the bottom of the table of the five types of Centering

Part i: Primitive Centering

- The Primitive Unit Cell contains only a single lattice point (at its corners (the other centerings have this same corner lattice point))
- This means that each unit cell has only 1 lattice point
- This type of centering is designated as P
- When Primitive Centering is found with the Trigonal Crystal System, this is referred to as Primitive Rhombohedral, R , rather than Primitive, P , Centering

Part ii: Body Centered

- The Body Centered Unit Cell contains a second lattice point at the center of the unit cell
- This means that each unit cell has 2 lattice points
- This type of centering is designated as I

Part iii: Face Centered

- The Face Centered Unit Cell contains a second lattice point in the middle of two opposite faces of the unit cell
 - This means that each unit cell has 2 lattice points
 - This may be the C , A , or B faces
 - This type of centering is designated as C

Part iv: All Face Centered

- The All Face Centered Unit Cell contains centering on all faces
 - This means that each unit cell has 4 lattice points
 - This type of centering is designated as F

Part c: The 14 Bravais Lattices

- If one combines the 7 Crystal Systems with the 4 Types of Centering, there are only 14 combinations consistent with three dimensional ordered arrays
- These are referred to as the 14 Bravais Lattices
- Each is associated with two to seven unique Crystallographic Point Groups

7 Crystal Systems + 4 Centering Types



14 Bravais Lattices

- Graphics from Text: Table 4.3, page 121; The 14 Bravais Lattices, 32 Crystallographic Point Groups (Crystal Classes), and Some Representative Space Groups
- Graphics from Text: Figure 4.9, page 122; The 14 Bravais Lattices (7 Primitive and 7 Nonprimitive)

Part d: The 230 Space Groups

- The 32 Crystallographic Point Groups must fit into the Symmetries of the 14 Bravais Lattices
 - Each Crystallographic Point Group is used only once
 - They must be consistent with translational symmetry
 - This produces the 230 Crystallographic Space Groups

14 Bravais Lattices + 32 Crystallographic Point Groups



230 Crystallographic Space Groups

- Graphics from Text: Table 4.3, page 121; The 14 Bravais Lattices, 32 Crystallographic Point Groups (Crystal Classes), and Some Representative Space Groups

Section 06: Three Dimensional Symmetry Operations

- With crystalline arrays, additional symmetry elements that involve translations are introduced

Part a: Translations

- Straight Translations must be present to get a lattice and occur in each dimension to build up the three dimensional lattice from the unit cell contents

- Graphics from Text: Figure 4.10, page 123; Translational Symmetry

Part b: Screw Axes

- Screw Axes involve translations some small fraction of the unit cell length while rotating around an axis
- The symbol for a Screw axis is n_q
 - n tells us the amount of rotation (i.e., $360/n^\circ$)
 - q tells us the fraction of the unit cell translated (i.e., a q/n translation, thus 4_3 involves a $3/4$ translation)
- This does not change the handedness of objects

- A 4_1 screw axis involves a 90° rotation while moving $1/4$ the way along the unit cell length

- A 4_2 screw axis involves a 90° rotation while moving $2/4$ ($1/2$) the way along the unit cell length

- A 4_3 screw axis involves a 90° rotation while moving $3/4$ the way along the unit cell length
 - Note: 4_1 and 4_3 are equivalent (i.e., referred to as enantiomorphic)

- Graphics from Text: Figure 4.11, page 124; A Twofold Screw Axis

- Graphics from Text: Figure 4.13, page 126; The Relationship Between Symmetry Operations with and without a Translation, the Relationship between a Twofold Rotation Axis and a Twofold Screw Axis

Part c: Glide Planes

- Glide Planes involve translations some small fraction of the unit cell length while inverting through the mirror plane
- *a* Glides, *b* Glides, and *c* Glides involve a $a/2$, $b/2$, and $c/2$ axis translation
- i.e., *a* Glide involves a translation $1/2$ of the length of the *a* axis and reflection through a plane
- Graphics from Text: Figure 4.12, page 125; A Glide Plane
- *n* Glides involve a translation $1/2$ the length of the diagonal
 - $1/2(b+c)$, $1/2(c+a)$, or $1/2(a+b)$
- *d* Glides involve a translation $1/4$ the length of the diagonal
 - $1/4(b\pm c)$, $1/4(c\pm a)$, or $1/4(a\pm b)$
- Graphics from Text: Figure 4.13, page 126; The Relationship Between Symmetry Operations with and without a Translation, the Relationship between a Mirror Plane and a Glide Plane

Part d: Symmetry in some Real Crystals

- Graphics from Text: Figures 4.14a and b, pages 129 and 130;
The Symmetry found (and Equivalent Positions) in Hydrated Citric Acid and Anhydrous Citric Acid Crystals

Part e: Review of Crystal Systems & Space Groups

7 Crystal Systems + 4 Centering Types



14 Bravais Lattices + 32 Crystallographic Point Groups



⇓ (Translational Symmetry)



230 Crystallographic Space Groups

Section 07: Symmetry in the Diffraction Pattern

Part a: Equivalent Positions

- The Asymmetric Unit is the smallest unit from which the actions of the Space Group Symmetry will produce the entire contents of the crystal

- When the complete set of Space Group Symmetry Elements acts upon the Asymmetric Unit each position $x y z$ in the asymmetric unit may be converted into other Equivalent Positions within the Unit Cell

- Graphics from Text: Table 4.4, page 128; Table of Equivalent Positions in some Common Space Groups

- Graphics from Text: Figures 4.14a and b, pages 129 and 130; The Symmetry found (and Equivalent Positions) in Hydrated Citric Acid and Anhydrous Citric Acid Crystals

Part b: Friedel's Law

- It commonly occurs that not all reflections in the data set have different intensities, rather we often see in Friedel Symmetry that sets of reflections have exactly equal intensities
- For many crystals, the intensity pattern in the data is exactly Centrosymmetric
- This is called Friedel's Law which states

$$I(h\ k\ l) = I(-h\ -k\ -l)$$

- This means that in these cases one half of the data should be an exact duplicate of the other
- The only exceptions to Friedel's Law occur when one or more atoms in the structure Anomalous Scatterers (from which one may deduce Absolute Configurations)
- Graphics from Text: Figure 4.15, page 131; An example to Illustrate Friedel Symmetry in Diffraction Data

Part c: Symmetry of Packing ⇔ Symmetry of Diffraction**Pattern**

- All of the Symmetry of Crystal Packing will be reflected (in an inverse manner) in the Symmetry of the Diffracted Data

- Thus, from the Symmetry of the Diffracted Data we can infer the Symmetry of the Crystal Packing

- This is how one determines the Space Group and even some structural information

Part d: Laue Symmetry

- Laue Symmetry is all of the Symmetry of the Diffracted Data other than Friedel Symmetry
- This extra symmetry can be used to reduce the amount of data collected or help to be sure of the Crystal System (i.e., the axial lengths and angle are not enough because they may be accidentally these values)
- Graphics from Text: Figure 4.16, page 131; An example to Illustrate the Fourfold Laue Symmetry in Diffraction Data

Part e: Examples of Using Laue Symmetry to Determine**Crystal System:**

- Graphics from Text: Figure 4.17, page 132; Laue Symmetry in the Diffraction Data of Monoclinic and Orthorhombic Crystals

- Monoclinic Crystals will have:
 - $I(h\ k\ l) = I(-h\ k\ -l)$
 - But $I(h\ k\ l) \neq I(-h\ k\ l)$
 - [Of course from Friedel $I(h\ k\ l) = I(-h\ -k\ -l)$]

- Orthorhombic Crystals (three mutually perpendicular Twofold Axes) will have:
 - $I(h\ k\ l) = I(-h\ k\ l) = I(h\ -k\ l) = I(h\ k\ -l)$

- Therefore one observes that $I(h\ k\ l) = I(-h\ k\ l)$ (within statistical error for a representative collection of reflections) then we can be certain a crystal is really Orthorhombic and not just a Monoclinic Crystal that just happens to have $\beta = 90^\circ$

Diffraction Data, Unit Cell Parameters, and the Crystal System

- **The Laue Symmetry of the Diffraction Data, and not the Unit Cell Dimensions, is the best way to Determine the Crystal System (see example above)**

Section 08: Space Group Determination from Diffraction Data

- In 2000 we will not look at this in detail due to time limitations but you do need to be familiar with the general principles

- Graphics from Text: Figure 4.18, page 133; Three examples to Illustrate the use of Symmetry in Diffraction Data to Determine Space Groups

Part a: Systematic Absences P Centering

Part i: Centering as Translational Symmetry

- Centering of Unit Cells leads to easily predicted changes in the diffraction data
- The different Lattice Points in a Nonprimitive Unit Cell can be thought of as a type of Translational Symmetry

Part ii: Example: A Centering

- Thus A Centering can be thought of as a translation of the Corner Lattice Point from the corners of the unit cell half way up both the b and c axes to give the second Lattice Point in the middle of the A Face
 - This is stated as a $b/2 + c/2$ Translation
- This Translation means that all reflections having the Sum of the k and l indices being odd will be Systematically Absent
 - This is stated as a $k + l$ odd Systematic Absence

Part iii: Getting Centering from Systematic Absences

- These absences will be found in all of the data whatever the values of h k and l (i.e., none have to be zero)
 - No general absences $\Rightarrow P$ Centering (no translation)

- $k + l$ odd absent $\Rightarrow A$ Centering ($b/2 + c/2$ translation)

- $l + h$ odd absent $\Rightarrow B$ Centering ($c/2 + a/2$ translation)

- $h + k$ odd absent $\Rightarrow C$ Centering ($a/2 + b/2$ translation)

- h k l two odd or two even absent (all odd or all even present)
 $\Rightarrow F$ Centering ($(a + b)/2$, $(b + c)/2$, and $(a + c)/2$ translations)

- $h + k + l$ odd absent $\Rightarrow I$ Centering ($(a + b + c)/2$ translation)

- Graphics from Text: Table 4.5, page 134; Examples of Using Systematic Absence Data to Determine Centering (Bravais Lattice) Information

Part b: Systematic Absences & Translational Symmetry**Part i: Systematic Absences when One or Two Indices are Zero**

- Translational Symmetry gives rise to Systematic Absences that are observed when either one or two of the indices are zero

- Graphics from Text: Table 4.5, page 134; Examples of Using Systematic Absence Data to Determine Translational Symmetry Elements (Screw Axes and Glide Planes)

- A complete listing of these rules is given in the International Tables

Part ii: Screw Axis Determinations from Systematic Absences

- A Twofold Screw Axis, 2_1 , along a will make $h\ 0\ 0$ be systematically absent when h is an odd number due to the $a/2$ translation

- A Twofold Screw Axis, 2_1 , along b will make $0\ k\ 0$ be systematically absent when k is an odd number due to the $b/2$ translation

- A Twofold Screw Axis, 2_1 , along c will make $0\ 0\ l$ be systematically absent when l is an odd number due to the $c/2$ translation

- A Threefold Screw Axis, 3_1 or 3_2 , along c will make $0\ 0\ l$ be systematically absent when $l = 3n + 1$ or $l = 3n + 2$ due to the $c/3$ or a $2c/3$ translation

Part iii: Glide Plane Determinations from Systematic Absences

- A Glide Plane Perpendicular to axis a translating along b , b glide, will make $0\ k\ l$ be systematically absent when k is an odd number due to the $b/2$ translation

- A Glide Plane Perpendicular to axis a translating along c , c glide, will make $0\ k\ l$ be systematically absent when l is an odd number due to the $c/2$ translation

Part c: Laue (Crystal System) Determination

- When one collects the full diffraction data in either tabular or graphical form, one can look for Patterns in Equivalent Intensities of the Diffraction Data and from these determine the Laue Symmetry (i.e., the Crystal System; Triclinic, Monoclinic, Orthorhombic, Tetragonal, Cubic, Trigonal, and Hexagonal)
- This can initially be done by looking at a representative set of reflection intensities
- Graphics from Text: Table 4.2, page 120; The Seven Crystal Systems

Part d: Bravais Determination

- When one collects the full diffraction data in either tabular or graphical form, one can look for Systematic Absences and from these deduce the various types of Translational Symmetry present
- This can initially be done by looking at a representative set of reflection intensities
- From the General Systematic Absences (i.e., for all non-zero values of h , k and l) one can deduce the Centering Type from the 4 unique possibilities (i.e., P , A , B , C , F , or I)
- From the Crystal System and Centering Type information one gets which of the 14 Bravais Lattice Types one has
- Graphics from Text: Table 4.3 and Figure 4.9, pages 121 and 122; The Fourteen Bravais Lattice Types (and their associated Point Groups as well as some representative Space Groups)

Part e: Space Group Determination

- When one collects the full diffraction data in either tabular or graphical form, one can look for Systematic Absences in the data for cases when one or two of the Indices are zero (i.e., $h\ 0\ 0$, $0\ k\ 0$, $0\ 0\ l$, $h\ k\ 0$, $h\ 0\ l$, and $0\ k\ l$) and from these deduce the various types of Translational Symmetry present (i.e., Screw Axes and Glide Planes present (symmetry of the Point Group))

- This really needs to be done with a fairly complete data set but one can get a good idea but just collecting these Special Classes of Reflections

- From this information one can reduce the possible choices of 230 Space Groups to (ideally) one or a few

- Graphics from Text: Table 4.6, page 135; Space Groups and the Symmetry Elements of Objects in Them

Part f: Space Group Ambiguity

- When two or more Space Groups fit, you have a Space Group Ambiguity (which often revolves around whether you have a Center of Symmetry; which must be resolved otherwise)

Topic VI: Physical Properties of Crystals

➤ Based primarily on Chapter 5 (G, L, & R, pages 143-183).

Ask Students: What do you know about the Physical Properties of Crystals?

Section 01: Mechanical Properties of Crystals

Part a: Hardness of Crystals

Part b: Cleavage of Crystals

Section 02: Optical Properties of Crystals

Part a: The Nature of Light

Part b: Isotropic and Anisotropic Crystals

Part c: Pleochromism

Part d: Refraction of Light

Part e: Birefringence of Light

Part f: Polarization of Light

Part g: Optical Activity and Crystals

Section 03: Electrical Effects of Crystals

Part a: Piezoelectric Effects

Part b: Pyroelectric Effects

Part c: Non-Linear Optical Phenomenon

Section 04: Chemical Effects of Crystal Form

Part a: Crystal Forms and Chemical Reactivity

Part b: Different Faces Different Reactions

Part c: Crystal Forms and Explosive Power

Topic VII: Image Generation from Diffracted Waves

➤ Based primarily on Chapter 6 (G, L, & R, pages 185-223).

Ask Students: What do you know about How an Optical Microscope Works?

Ask Students: What do you know about How X-Ray Diffraction Data is Transformed into Structural Information?

Graphics from Text: Figure 1.2, page 4; Imaging object using microscopes and diffraction methods

Section 01: Waves**Part a: Amplitudes of Waves****Part b: Lengths of Waves****Part c: Phase Angles of Waves****Part d: Summing Waves**

Graphics from Text: Figure 1.1, page 3; Effect of relative phases
when summing waves

Section 02: Fourier Series

Part a: Periodic Electron Density in Crystals

Part b: Baron Fourier's Theorem

Part c: Fourier Analysis

Part d: Fourier Synthesis

Section 03: Electron Density Calculations

Part a: Electron Density is Periodic

Part b: Equation for Electron Density as a Function of Structure Factors

Part c: hkl values and Crystal Planes

Section 04: Fourier Transforms

Part a: Equation for Structure Factors as a Function of Electron Density

Part b: Relationship Between Real and Reciprocal Space

Part c: Summary of the Diffraction Structure Process

Section 05: X-Ray Scattering Factors of Electrons in Orbitals

Part a: Electron Distribution Curves for Orbitals

Part b: Electron Scattering Curves for Orbitals

Section 06: Neutron Scattering Factors of Nuclei

Section 07: Kinematic and Dynamic Diffraction

Part a: Mosaic Blocks

Part b: Kinematic Diffraction

Part c: Dynamic Diffraction

Section 08: Extinction

Part a: Primary Extinction

Part b: Secondary Extinction

Part c: Renninger Effect and Double Reflections

Section 09: Structure Factors

Part a: Structure Factor Amplitudes

Section 10: Displacement Parameters**Part a: Vibration of Atoms in a Lattice****Part b: Disorder of Atoms and Molecules in a Lattice****Part c: Isotropic Displacement Parameters****Part d: Simple Anisotropic Displacement Parameters****Part e: Quadrupole Displacement Parameters and
Evaluations of the Shapes of Electron Clouds**

Section 11: Anomalous Scattering

Part a: Absorption Coefficients as a Function of Wavelength

Part b: MAD Phasing of Protein Data

Part c: Anomalous Scattering

Topic VIII: Amplitudes of Diffracted Waves

➤ Based primarily on Chapter 7 (G, L, & R, pages 225-279).

Ask Students: What do you know about How the Amplitudes of Diffracted Waves are Related to Crystal Structures and Molecular Structures?

Section 01: Intensities of Diffracted Beams

Part a: Equation for Intensities of Diffracted Beams

Part b: Lorenz Factor

Part c: Polarization Factor

Part d: Absorption Factor

Part e: Effects of Wavelength of Measured Intensities

Section 02: X-Ray Sources

Part a: X-Ray Spectrum of an X-Ray Tube

Part b: Monochromatic X-Rays

Part c: X-Ray Sources

Section 03: X-Ray Detectors

Part a: Scintillation Counters

Part b: Beam Stop

Part c: Area Detectors

Section 04: Automated Diffractometers

Section 05: Effects of Temperatures on Collected Diffraction

Data

Section 06: Peak Profiles

Section 07: Data Reduction

Topic IX: Phases of Diffracted Waves

➤ Based primarily on Chapter 8 (G, L, & R, pages 281-343).

Ask Students: What do you know about How the Phases of Diffracted Waves are Related to Crystal Structures and Molecular Structures?

**Section 01: Electron Density Distributions vs. Structure Factors
and Phases**

Part a: Flow Diagram

Part b: With Known Structures

Part c: Non-Centrosymmetric Space Groups

Part d: Centrosymmetric Space Groups

Section 02: Common Methods for Estimating Phase Angles

Part a: The Role of Advances in Computers, Theory, and Software

Part b: Direct Methods

Part c: Patterson Methods

Part d: Isostructural Crystals

Part e: Multiple Bragg Diffraction

Part f: Shake and Bake

Section 03: Direct Methods

Part a: Statistical Tools

Part b: Mathematics of Phase Relationships

Part c: Inequalities

Part d: Where Works Best

Section 04: Patterson Methods

Part a: The Patterson Function

Part b: Patterson Maps

Part c: Where Works Best

Part d: Heavy Atom Methods

Section 05: Isomorphous Replacement

Part a: Proteins: The Problem Structures

Part b: Metal Salts

Part c: Unnatural Amino Acids

Part d: Related Protein Structures

Section 06: MAD Phasing of Proteins

Section 07: Shake and Bake

Topic X: Electron Density Maps

➤ Based primarily on Chapter 9 (G, L, & R, pages 345-387).

Ask Students: What do you know about the Relationship of Electron Density Maps to Molecular Structures?

Section 01: Electron Density Function

Section 02: Electron Density Maps**Part a: General Features of Maps****Part b: P(obs) Map****Part c: F(calc) Map****Part d: Difference Electron Density Maps****Part e: Deformation Density Maps**

Section 03: Resolution**Part a: Conventional Definition****Part b: Effects of Wavelength on Resolution and Intensities****Part c: Mo Resolution****Part d: Cu Resolution****Part e: Ag and Synchrotron Data****Part f: Effects of Resolution on the Structure**

Section 04: Angles of Data Collection and Series Termination

Errors

Topic XI: Least Squares Refinement

➤ Based primarily on Chapter 10 (G, L, & R, pages 389-411).

Ask Students: What do you know about How Least Squares Refinement Works?

Section 01: What is Least Squares Refinement?

Part a: The Mathematics of Least Squares Refinement

Part b: Qualitative Picture of Least Squares Refinement

Section 02: Precision vs. Accuracy

Part a: Precision

Part b: Accuracy

Part c: Random vs. Systematic Errors

Part d: Gaussian Distribution Function

Part e: Estimated Standard Deviations

Section 03: Constraints

Section 04: Restraints

Section 05: Global vs. Local Minima in Solution

Topic XII: Crystal and Diffraction Data

➤ Based primarily on Literature References

Ask Students: What do you know about How to Interpret Tables of Crystal and Diffraction Data?

Section 01: The Standard Table

Topic XIII: Atomic Coordinates and Molecular Structures

- Based primarily on Chapters 11 to 13 (G, L, & R, pages 413-571).

Ask Students: What do you know about How one Interprets Raw Crystallographic Data to Get Molecular Structure Information?

Section 01: Molecular Geometries

Part a: From xyz Coordinates to Bond Lengths, Bond Angles, etc.

Part b: Vibrational Motion

Part c: Fractional Coordinates

Part d: Orthogonal Coordinates

Part e: Complete Molecules?

Section 02: Atomic Connectivities

Part a: Derivation of Atomic Connectivity Tables

Part b: International Tables for Typical Bond Distances

Part c: Bond Lengths

Section 03: Molecules in the Unit Cell and Z

Section 04: Estimated Standard Deviations

Part a: ESD Formula

Part b: When are two values different?

Part c: ESDs and Reliability of Data

Section 05: Torsion Angles

Section 06: Molecular and Macromolecular Conformations

Section 07: Atomic and Molecular Displacements

Part a: Vibration Effects in Crystals

Part b: Representations of Displacement Parameters

Part c: Effects of Displacements on Molecular Geometries

Part d: Uses of Anisotropic Displacement Parameters

Topic XIV: Absolute Structures

➤ Based primarily on Chapter 14 (G, L, & R, pages 573-625).

Ask Students: What do you know about How the Absolute Structures of Molecules are Determined?

Section 01: Chirality of Molecules

Section 02: Optical Activity and Chiral Molecules

Section 03: Anomalous Dispersion Measurements

Section 04: Uses of Anomalous Dispersion

Topic XV: Crystallographic Publications: Preparation and**Analysis**

➤ Based primarily on Chapter 16 (G, L, & R, pages 689-729).

Ask Students: What do you know about Using the Crystallographic Literature?

Section 01: Crystallographic Data Bases

Section 02: Crystallographic Papers

Section 03: Comparing Structures

Topic XVI: Special Topics

Index of Topics and Vocabulary

#		4 Circle Goniometers	37
ϕ	77	4 Types of Centering	133
$\beta = 90^\circ$	145	4/mmm	128
$\beta \neq 90^\circ$	127	4_1 screw axis	137
(4_2 screw axis	137
(a + b + c)/2 translation	149	4_3 screw axis	137
(a + b)/2	149	4bar	120
(a + c)/2	149	5	
(b + c)/2	149	5bar	121
(M ₁) ₂ (SO ₄)(M ₃) ₂ (SO ₄) ₃ ·24H ₂ O	73	6	
0		6/mmm	129
0 0 1	155	6bar	121
0 k 0	155	7	
0 k l	155	7 Crystal Systems	133, 140
I		A	
1/2(a+b)	138	A	77, 130, 132, 154
1/2(b+c)	138	a ≠ b ≠ c	126, 127
1/2(c+a)	138	a = b ≠ c	128, 129
1/4(a±b)	138	a = b = c	128, 129
1/4(b±c)	138	A Centering	148, 149
1/4(c±a)	138	A Face	148
14 Bravais Lattice Types	154	a Glide	138
14 Bravais Lattices	133, 134, 140	a Glides	138
180° Phase Shift	93	A Sixfold Rotation	116
1bar	118, 126	a/2	138
2		a/2 + b/2 translation	149
2/m	127	a+b+c	128, 129
2 ₁	151	-a+b+c	128
230 Crystallographic Space Groups	134, 140	a-b+c	128
230 Space Groups	155	-a-b+c	128
230 Unique Space Groups	112	Absolute Configurations	142
3		absolute structure determinations	105
3(bar)m	129	Absolute Structures	211
3 ₁	151	Absolute Structures of Molecules	211
3 ₂	151	Absorption Coefficients as a Function of Wavelength	172
32 Allowed Point Groups	125	Absorption Correction	29
32 Crystallographic Point Groups	133, 134, 140	Absorption Corrections	28
32 Unique Point Groups	111	Absorption Curves for some representative atoms	104
360/n	136	Absorption Data	25
360/n°	114, 119	Absorption Edge	104
3bar	120	Absorption Factor	174
4		Accelerator Plates	32
4 Centering Types	133, 140	Accuracy	197
		Advanced Light Source	34
		Advanced Photon Source	34
		Ag	44

Ag and Synchrotron Data	193	b/2	138
Ag Targets	31	b/2 + c/2	148
Air	44	b/2 + c/2 translation	149
Al ³⁺	73	Baron Fourier's Theorem	164
Alcohols	68	Basic Steps in X-Ray Diffraction Data Analysis	27
All Face Centered	132	Basic Steps in X-Ray Diffraction Data Collection	25
All Face Centered Unit Cell	132	Be windows	44
Allen D. Hunter	1	Be Windows	41
Allen Hunter's YSU Structure Analysis Lab Manual	48	Beam Stop	176
ALS	34	bear's porridge	51
Alums	73	bending magnets	34
Ammonium Dihydrogen Phosphate	19	Benzene	68, 110
Amplitude	77	Berkeley	34
Amplitudes of Diffracted Waves	173	Birefringence of Light	159
Amplitudes of Waves	163	Block Diagram of an X-Ray Diffractometer	22
Analysis of Refined Solutions	29	Body Centered	131
Analysis of trial Solutions	29	Body Centered Unit Cell	131
Angles of Data Collection and Series Termination		Bond Lengths	205
Errors	194	Bragg's Law	98, 99
angular dependence of the diffracted intensity	96	Bravais Determination	154
Anode	32, 33	breakwater	78
Anomalous Dispersion Measurements	214	Bricks	20
Anomalous Scatterers	142	bricks in a wall	46
anomalous scattering	105	Bruker AXS	16
Anomalous Scattering	104, 172	Bruker-AXS	107
Anomalous Scattering and Neutrons	105	Bucknell University	107
Anomalous Scattering and X-Rays	105	C	
Application of Diffraction Methods to Solving Chemical Problems?	13	C	130, 132, 154
APS	34	C Centering	149
Area Detectors	37, 176	c Glides	138
Art rather than Science	49	c/2	138
ASF	95	c/2 + a/2 translation	149
Ask Students:13, 30, 45, 76, 107, 157, 162, 173, 181, 190, 195, 201, 203, 211, 216		Calix[n]Arenes	68
Asymmetric Unit	141	capillary	44, 56, 60
Atomic and Molecular Displacements	210	Cathode	32
Atomic Connectivities	205	CCD chip	42
Atomic Coordinates and Molecular Structures	203	CCD Detectors	42
Atomic motion and disorder	17	Center of Symmetry	118, 156
Atomic Positions	27	Centering	130, 148
Atomic Scattering Factor	95	Centering (Bravais Lattice) Information	149
Atomic Scattering Factors for Neutrons	97	Centering as Translational Symmetry	148
Atomic Scattering Factors for X-Rays	94	Centering of Unit Cells	130
Atomic Scatting Factors for Neutrons	97	Centering Type	154
Atomic Sizes/Shapes	27	Centrosymmetric Space Groups	182
Automated Diffractometers	177	Channel Compounds	68
Automated Goniometers	37	Chapter 1	13
Axial naming	69	Chapter 10	195
axial vectors	69	Chapter 14	211
B		Chapter 16	216
B	130, 132, 154	Chapter 2	13, 45
B Centering	149	Chapter 3	76
b Glides	138	Chapter 4	107
		Chapter 5	157
		Chapter 6	162
		Chapter 7	30, 173

Chapter 8	181	Crystal Habits and Morphology	70
Chapter 9	190	crystal lattice	75
Chapter XIV	45	Crystal Lattice	75
Chapters 1	13	Crystal Packing	143
Chapters 11 to 13	203	Crystal Quality	25
Chemical Effects of Crystal Form	161	crystal shapes	71
Chemistry 832	1	Crystal Shapes	70, 72
Chemistry 832 Goals and Objectives	14	Crystal Structure Analysis for Chemists and Biologists	1
Chemistry 832 Resources	14	Crystal Structures	173, 181
Chemistry 832 Syllabus	14	crystal surface	47
Chemists	123	Crystal System	144, 146, 153, 154
Chicago	34	Crystal Systems \Rightarrow Space Groups	126
Chip sizes	42	Crystalline State	125
Chiral	122	crystallization	64
Chirality of Molecules	212	Crystallization Agents	68
Chlorocarbons	68	Crystallization by Cooling	52
Choices of Unit Cells	109	Crystallization by Diffusion Through Capillaries and Gels	56
Chromium Alum	72, 73	Crystallization by Slow Evaporation	52
Citric Acid	139	Crystallization by Solvent Layering	55
Cleavage of Crystals	158	Crystallization by Sublimation	58
collimated X-ray beam	23	Crystallization From Melts	57
combinations	59	Crystallization Using Combinations	59
combos	59	Crystallization Using Mixed Solvents and Solvent Diffusion in the Gas Phase	53
Common Methods for Estimating Phase Angles	183	Crystallographers	123
Comparing Structures	219	Crystallographic CourseWare	107
Complete Molecules	204	Crystallographic Data Bases	217
Complete Table of Contents	3	Crystallographic Literature	216
Computer Advances	27	Crystallographic Papers	218
Constant temperatures	50	Crystallographic Point Groups	125, 133
Constraints	198	Crystallographic Publications: Preparation and Analysis	216
Constructive and Destructive Superposition of Waves	83	Crystallography-Diffraction Methods Texts List	14
Constructive Interference	79, 80, 81, 83, 100	Cu 44	
Contact Goniometer	74	Cu Machine	41
Convection	50	Cu radiation	44
Conventional Anodes	33	Cu Resolution	193
Conventional Definition	193	Cu Targets	31
Conventional X-Ray Tubes	32	Cu X-Ray source	16
convoluted	75	Cube	123
Cooling System	32	Cubic	128, 153
Corner Lattice Point	148	Cubic Space Groups	124
Costs	33	cubic unit cells	71
Cr(CO) ₆	58, 72	Cyclodextrins	68
Cr ⁺³	73		
cryocooled	42	D	
Crystal (Graphite) Monochromators	35	$d \equiv$ The Interplanar Spacing	98
Crystal and Diffraction Data	201	d Glides	138
Crystal Classes	133, 134	dandruff	66
crystal decomposition	38	Data \leftrightarrow Solution Relationship	27
crystal faces	70	Data Analysis can be quite routine through impossibly difficult	27
Crystal Forms and Chemical Reactivity	161	data collection	18
Crystal Forms and Explosive Power	161	data collection area	43
Crystal Growing Strategies	48		
crystal growth	47		
Crystal Growth and Shapes	70		
crystal habits	71		

data collection areas	43	Dynamic range	43
Data for Publication	28	Dynamic Range	41
Data intensity at high angles	38	E	
Data read out times	43	Edition of Notes	1
Data Reduction	29, 180	Effects of Displacements on Molecular Geometries	210
Decomposition from air	38	Effects of Resolution on the Structure	193
Decomposition from heat	38	Effects of Temperatures on Collected Diffraction Data	178
Decomposition from X-Ray Beam	38	Effects of Wavelength of Measured Intensities	174
Defects in th crystal	19	Effects of Wavelength on Resolution and Intensities	193
Deformation Density Maps	192	Electrical Effects of Crystals	160
Densimeter	40	electrochemical source	60
Department of Chemistry	1	Electron Density Calculations	165
Deposition on Surfaces	47	Electron Density Distributions vs. Structure Factors and Phases	182
Derivation of Atomic Connectivity Tables	205	Electron Density Function	191
Derivatives	67	Electron Density is Periodic	165
Destructive Interference	79, 80, 81, 83	Electron Density Maps	190, 192
Detector	24	Electron Distribution Curves for Orbitals	166
d_{hkl} Values	103	Electron Micrograph	46
Diagonal	124	Electron Scattering Curves for Orbitals	166
Diamond	21, 57	electrons	93
Difference Electron Density Maps	192	enantiomorphic	137
Different Faces Different Reactions	161	Equation for Electron Density as a Function of Structure Factors	165
Diffracted beams	27	Equation for Intensities of Diffracted Beams	174
Diffracted Data	143, 144	Equation for Structure Factors as a Function of Electron Density	165
diffraction angle	24	Equivalent Positions	141
Diffraction by Crystals	76	ESD Formula	207
Diffraction by Slits vs. Diffraction by Objects	87	ESDs and Reliability of Data	207
Diffraction Data	25, 162	Estimated Standard Deviations	197, 207
Diffraction Data, Unit Cell Parameters, and the Crystal System	146	evaporate	53
Diffraction in Three Dimensions	88	Ewald Sphere	106
Diffraction in Two Dimensions	84	Example: A Centering	148
Diffraction Lab	14, 15	Examples of Using Laue Symmetry to Determine Crystal System	145
Diffraction of Waves	76	Extinction	169
Diffraction off of Planes	100	F	
Diffraction Pattern from a Single Slit	84	<i>F</i>	130, 132, 154
Diffraction Pattern Spacing	85	<i>F</i> Centering	149
Diffraction Pattern Spacing from Arrays of Slits	86	<i>F</i> (calc) Map	192
Diffraction Patterns from Arrays of Points on a Slide	88	Face Centered	132
Diffraction Patterns from Arrays of Slits	86	Face Centered Unit Cell	132
Diffraction Patterns from Two or More Slits	85	face stretched cube	128
Diffraction Patterns of a Single Slit	84	Ferrocene	58
Diffraction Through Slits	100	Fiber Optic Taper	42
Diffractometer Lab	16	Figure 1.2	76
diffuse	54	Figure 1.3	19
Direct Methods	183, 184	Figure 1.4	83
disorder	21	Figure 1.5	22
disorder across macroscopic dimensions	46	Figure 1.6	21
Disorder of Atoms and Molecules in a Lattice	171		
Disorder of the Array	92		
Displacement Parameters	38, 171		
dropwise solvent addition	53		
Dust	66		
Dynamic Diffraction	168		
dynamic range	39, 42		

Figure 2.10	74	Flow Chart for a Typical Structure Solution	29
Figure 2.11 and 2.12	74	Flow Diagram	182
Figure 2.12	101	Focusing Mirrors	35, 36
Figure 2.14	71	Foil Filters (Ni foil)	35
Figure 2.4	46	Fourfold Laue Symmetry in Diffraction Data	144
Figure 2.5	69	Fourfold Rotation	116
Figure 2.6	47	Fourfold Rotation or Rotatory Inversion axis	128
Figure 2.7	70	Fourfold Rotatory Inversion	120
Figure 2.8	47	Fourier Analysis	164
Figure 3.1	77	Fourier Series	164
Figure 3.10b	99	Fourier Synthesis	164
Figure 3.11	26	Fourier Transforms	165
Figure 3.12	94	Fourteen Bravais Lattice Types	154
Figure 3.13a	94	Fractional Coordinates	204
Figure 3.13b	97	Frequency	77
Figure 3.17	106	Friedel	145
Figure 3.2a	80	Friedel Symmetry	142, 144
Figure 3.2b	81	Friedel Symmetry in Diffraction Data	142
Figure 3.2b and c	82	Friedel's Law	142
Figure 3.5	84	From xyz Coordinates to Bond Lengths, Bond Angles, etc.	204
Figure 3.6	84, 85, 86		
Figure 3.7	88	G	
Figure 3.8	93	GaAs	46
Figure 3.9	100	Gallium Arsenide	46, 57
Figure 4.10	135	Gaussian Distribution Function	197
Figure 4.11	137	General Conditions for Crystal Growth	50
Figure 4.12	138	General Features of Maps	192
Figure 4.13	137, 138	General principles of growing single crystals	49
Figure 4.15	142	General Systematic Absences	154
Figure 4.16	144	Generate Trial Solutions	29
Figure 4.17	145	Generic Waves	77
Figure 4.18	147	geology	74
Figure 4.2	110	Getting Centering from Systematic Absences	149
Figure 4.3	115	Getting Unit Cell Parameters from Interplanar Spacings	103
Figure 4.4	117	gift horse	63
Figure 4.5	118	Glide Plane	138, 152
Figure 4.6	120	Glide Plane Determinations from Systematic Absences	152
Figure 4.7	123	Glide Planes	138, 150, 155
Figure 4.8	125	Global vs. Local Minima in Solution	200
Figure 4.9	133, 154	Glue	44
Figure 6.23	104	Goals and Objectives Handout	14
Figures 1.1 and 3.3	83	Goniometer	24
Figures 1.7 and 1.8	21	Goniometer Heads	37
Figures 1.9 - 1.11	21	Goniometers	37
Figures 2.1 - 2.3	46	Graphics from Text 19, 21, 22, 26, 46, 47, 69, 70, 71, 74, 75, 76, 77, 80, 81, 82, 83, 84, 85, 86, 88, 93, 94, 97, 99, 100, 101, 103, 104, 105, 106, 109, 110, 115, 117, 118, 120, 123, 125, 126, 130, 133, 134, 135, 137, 138, 139, 141, 142, 144, 145, 147, 149, 150, 153, 154, 155, 162, 163	
Figures 2.15 and 2.16	75	Graphite	21
Figures 3.10a and b	100	Graphite Crystal Monochromators and Pin Holes in Tubes	36
Figures 4.14a and b	139, 141		
Figures 4.1a and b	109		
Filaments	33		
Film Based Area Detectors	40		
Final Plots for Publication	29		
Final Tables for Publication	29		
Fivefold Rotation	116		
Fivefold Rotatory Inversion	121		
Fivefold Symmetry	125		

Graphite Single Crystal	35	incidence angle	102
grease	66	Inclusion Compounds	68
Green Thumb	49	Index of Topics and Vocabulary	221
Grow Single Crystal	25	Indexing Crystal Faces	74
Growing crystals	19	Indexing of Crystal Faces	101
growing single crystals	47	Indices are zero	155
Growing Single Crystals	47	Inequalities	184
Growing Single Crystals Suitable for Diffraction Analysis	48	Influence of Slit Spacing	85
H		Influence of Slit Width on Diffraction Pattern	84
h + k odd absent	149	Initial Starting Solution	28
h + k + l odd absent	149	inside out	118
h 0 0	155	Intensities of Diffracted Beams	174
h 0 l	155	Intensity Information	27
h k 0	155	intensity of diffracted X-ray beams	24
h k l two odd or two even absent	149	Interface of Two Solutions	60
h k l \neq -h -k -l	105	Interference and Bragg's Law	100
Habit of the Crystal	70	intermolecular distances	31
handedness	136	Intermolecular interactions	17
handedness of objects	122	International Tables	107, 150
Hardness of Crystals	158	International Tables for Typical Bond Distances	205
He beam path	44	Introduction to Chemistry 832	13
heat sink	32	Introduction to Symmetry	108
Heavy Atom Methods	185	Inversion Center	119
Hermann-Mauguin	123	Inversion Centers	118
Hermann-Mauguin vs. Schoenflies Symbols	123	Inversions	122
Hexachlorocyclohexane	21	ionic liquids	57
Hexagonal	129, 153	IR laser	43
Hexamethylbenzene	21	Isomorphic Crystals	72
High Angle Scattering of Waves	94	Isomorphic Replacement	72, 73
high speeds	33	Isomorphism	72
high vacuum	33	Isomorphous Replacement	72, 186
high voltages	33	Isostructural Crystals	183
hkl values and Crystal Planes	165	isotope	95, 97
I		isotopes	105
i	118	Isotropic and Anisotropic Crystals	159
<i>I</i>	130, 131, 154	Isotropic Displacement Parameters	171
<i>I</i> Centering	149	J	
$I(h\ k\ l) \neq I(-h\ k\ l)$	145	J. P. Glusker	1
$I(h\ k\ l) = I(-h\ k\ l)$	145	K	
$I(h\ k\ l) = I(-h\ k\ -l)$	145	K 73	
$I(h\ k\ l) = I(-h\ -k\ -l)$	142, 145	k + l odd absent	149
$I(h\ k\ l) = I(-h\ k\ l) = I(h\ -k\ l) = I(h\ k\ -l)$	145	k = l odd Systematic Absence	148
ICE Slides	88	$K_2(SO_4) \cdot Al_2(SO_4)_3 \cdot 24H_2O$	73
Identity Operation	114	$K_2(SO_4) \cdot Cr_2(SO_4)_3 \cdot 24H_2O$	73
Image Generation from Diffracted Waves	162	Kappa Geometry Goniometers	37
Image Generation in Optical Microscopy and X-Ray Diffraction	76	KCl	21
Imaging Plate Detectors	43	Kinematic and Dynamic Diffraction	168
Imaging Plate systems	43	Kinematic Diffraction	168
immiscible layers	60	Knowing the Intensities	27
Impatience is the Enemy	50	Knowing the Phases	27
Improper Symmetry Operations	122	L	
Impure materials	64	l + h odd absent	149
		$l = 3n + 1$	151

$l = 3n + 2$	151	mmm	127
Lab Manual	14	Mo	44
large unit cells	43	Mo Resolution	193
Laser Light Show	88	Mo Targets	31
Laser Pointer	88	Mo X-Ray source	16
lattice point	131	Molecular and Macromolecular Conformations	209
lattice points	20, 75	Molecular Geometries	204
Lattice Points	148	Molecular Structure Information	203
Lattice Symmetries	126	molecular structures	17
Laue (Crystal System) Determination	153	Molecular Structures	173, 181, 190
Laue Symmetry	144, 145	Molecules in the Unit Cell and Z	206
Laue Symmetry of the Diffraction Data	146	monochromatic X-ray beam	23
Layered Alums	73	Monochromatic X-Rays	175
Least Squares Refinement	195	Monoclinic	127, 145, 153
Lengths of Waves	163	Monoclinic Crystals	145
Light Waves	83	Morphology of the Crystal	70
Liquid He Systems	38	Mosaic Blocks	168
Liquid N ₂ Systems	38	Mount Single Crystal	25
Long distance order	19	Multiple Bragg Diffraction	183
long range order	46	multiplex advantage	67
Lorenz Factor	174	Multiplex Advantage	39
Low Temperature System	38	Multi-Wire Area Detectors	41
		Multi-Wire Detector	41
M		N	
M. Kastner	107	$n \equiv$ Any integer	98
M. Lewis	1	n Glides	138
M. Rossi	1	$n \lambda = 2 d \sin \theta$	98
m3m	128	NaCl	21
MAD Phasing of Protein Data	172	Naphthalene	58
MAD Phasing of Proteins	188	Narrow Slits \Rightarrow Wide patterns	84
Main Steps in Data Analysis	28	Narrower tubes	50
Maintenance Problems	33	Neutron ASF	97
Manual Goniometers	37	Neutron Diffraction	97
mask	91	Neutron Scattering Factors of Nuclei	167
Master Several Favorite Methods	51	Neutrons	97
Materials Science	112	NH ₄	73
Mathematics of Phase Relationships	184	Ni foil	35
maximum ASF value	95	NLO material	19
Maximum Atomic Scattering Factor, ASF	95	NMR tubes	61
Mechanical Properties of Crystals	158	Non-Centrosymmetric Space Groups	182
Melt	57	Non-Linear Optical Phenomenon	160
metal mesh sieve	83	Non-parallel sets of waves on open water	79
Metal oxides	57	Nonprimitive	133
Metal Salts	186	Nonprimitive Unit Cell	148
Metal Target	32	n_q	136
minerals	72, 74	NT Lab	15
Minerals	57	Nucleation	47
mirror image	122	nucleation sites	61
Mirror Image	117	nuclei	97
Mirror Plane	120	O	
Mirror Plane and	138	Objects in the Array	91
Mirror Planes	117	octahedral crystals	73
miscible	55	Onefold Rotation	114
Mixed Alums	73	Onefold Rotatory Inversion	119
Mixed Solvents	53		
mixture of solvents	53		

Operating Costs	33	Point Groups and Chiral Molecules	122
Optical Activity and Chiral Molecules	213	Point Groups and Handedness	122
Optical Activity and Crystals	159	Point Symmetry Operations	113
Optical Microscope Works	162	Polarization Factor	174
optical photons	43	Polarization of Light	159
Optical Properties of Crystals	159	Polymorphism	71
orientation	46	Polymorphism and Isomorphism	71
orientation in 3D space	24	Polymorphs	71
Origin of the Unit Cell	109	Porphyryns	68
Orthogonal Coordinates	204	Potash Alum	72, 73
Orthorhombic	127, 145, 153	Powder Data	41
Orthorhombic Crystals	145	Precision	197
Other Chance Methods	63	Precision vs. Accuracy	197
Outline Notes	1	Primary Extinction	169
P		Primitive	133
<i>P</i>	130, 131, 154	Primitive Centering	130, 131
<i>P</i> Centering	149	Primitive Rhombohedral	130
P(obs) Map	192	Primitive Unit Cell	131
P4	37	Procedural Steps	28
P4 Diffractometers	16	Process the Raw Data	28
Parallel waves passing through a hole in a breakwater	80	Proper Symmetry Operations	122
Parallel waves passing through two holes in a breakwater	81	Protein Crystallographers	67
Parallel waves passing through two holes of varying spacings	82	Protein data	41
Parallelepiped	69	protein diffraction studies	43
Pattern of the Array	91	Protein Diffraction Studies	72
Patterson Maps	185	Proteins: The Problem Structures	186
Patterson Methods	183, 185	Proven Methods for growing crystals	52
Peak Profiles	179	Purchase Costs	33
Perfect Crystals	46	Purify Your Material	64
Periodic Electron Density in Crystals	164	Pyroelectric Effects	160
Perpendicular Reflections	124	Q	
Perpendicular Twofold Axes	124	Quadrupole Displacement Parameters and Evaluations of the Shapes of Electron Clouds	171
Persistence Pays Off	67	Qualitative Picture of Least Squares Refinement	196
Phase Angles of Waves	163	Quality of Raw Data	27
phase information	28	Quantum Mechanical Basketball	90
Phase Information	27	Quartz	19, 57
Phase Shift during X-Ray Scattering	93	R	
Phases of Diffracted Waves	181	<i>R</i> 130	
Phosphor	42	Random vs. Systematic Errors	197
photon yields	36	Rated Power Limits	33
Photon Yields	35	Rates of Crystal Growth	49
Physical Chemistry	111	rates of face growth	70
Physical Properties of Crystals	157	Raw Crystallographic Data	203
Picker Machines	37	Reason for the Observed Diffraction Pattern Shapes	84
Piezoelectric Effects	160	reciprocal relationship	89
Plane Waves passing through a slit	80	Reciprocal Space	89
Plane Waves passing through two slits	81	Refine	28
Plane(s) Through the Axis	124	Reflections	122
plastic caps	61	Refraction of Light	159
Pleochromism	159	Related Protein Structures	186
Point Group	122	Relationship Between Real and Reciprocal Space	165
Point Groups	111, 123, 154		

Relationship of Crystallographic Data to Structural Data	26	Slit Spacing \Rightarrow Spacing of Maxima within that Envelope	86
Relative Phase	77	Slit Width \Rightarrow Overall Envelope of Diffraction Pattern	86
Renninger Effect and Double Reflections	169	Slower is better	49
Repeating motif of crystal repeating unit	20	Small Molecules	42
Representations of Displacement Parameters	210	Software Advances	27
Resolution	193	Solid State Chemistry	112
Restraints	199	Solid State Structural Methods	1
Review of Crystal Systems \Rightarrow Space Groups	140	Solvates	68
right hand rule	69	Solve Structure	26
Rotary Inversion Axes	119	solvent evaporation	52
Rotating Anode Generators	33	Solvent Layering	55
Rotating Cylinder	33	Solvent Properties and Saturated Solutions	51
rotating particle beam	34	solvent pump	53
Rotation	124	Space Group	28, 143
Rotation Axes	114	Space Group Ambiguity	156
Rotations	122	Space Group Determination	29, 155
Rotatory Inversion	124	Space Group Determination from Diffraction Data	147
Rotatory Inversion Axis	119	Space Group information	25
<i>routine</i> single crystal study	18	Space Group Symmetry	141
S		Space Group Symmetry Elements	141
SALM	45, 48	Space Groups	112, 133, 134, 154
Sample, Glue, Fiber & Capillary	44	Space Groups and the Symmetry Elements of Objects in Them	155
saturated solution	52	Spacings of Slits	85
Saturated Solution	47	Special Classes of Reflections	155
Saturated Solutions	51	Special Topics	220
SC(NH ₂) ₂	68	Spectroscopists	123
Scanning Tunneling Microscope	46	Spectroscopy	111
Schoenflies	123	Speed and Cost	18
Scintillation Counters	39, 176	Spring 2000 Class	1
Scratches	66	Stages of Crystal Growth	47
Screw Axes	136, 150, 155	State of the Art	42
Screw Axis Determinations from Systematic Absences	151	Statistical Tools	184
Secondary Extinction	169	stepper motors	37
Seed Crystals	65	Steroids	21
seeding/patterning agent	66	STM	46
Sequential crystal growing strategies	67	Storage Phosphor	43
Serial Detectors	37, 39	Structural Data for Publication	26
Seven Crystal Systems	126, 153	Structural Information	162
Shake and Bake	183, 189	Structure Analysis Lab Manual	45, 48
Shapes of the Atomic Scattering Factor Curves	96	Structure Factor Amplitudes	170
Silicon	57	Structure Factors	170
Simple Anisotropic Displacement Parameters	171	Structure Refinement	29
Single Crystal	19	Structure Solution Guide	15
Single Crystals	45, 46	Summary of the Diffraction Structure Process	165
single wavelength	35	Summing Waves	163
Sinusoidal Wave	77	Supramolecular Complexes	68
$\sin\theta/\lambda$	96	Surface treatments	66
Sixfold Rotation or Rotatory Inversion axis	129	Syllabus for Spring 2000	14
Sixfold Rotatory Inversion	121	Symmetries of Regularly Repeating Objects	125
Sixfold Symmetry	125	Symmetry	107, 108
Size of the Array	92	Symmetry in Diffraction Data to Determine Space Groups	147
slit spacing	82		

Symmetry in some Real Crystals	139	The Truth About Bragg's Law	100
Symmetry in the Diffraction Pattern	141	The Unit Cell	69
Symmetry of Packing \Rightarrow Symmetry of Diffraction Pattern	143	Theory Advances	27
Symmetry Operations	110, 112, 137, 138	Thermal Expansion Coefficient	50
Synchrotron data	42	Thiourea	68
Synchrotron Sources	31, 34	Three Dimensional Symmetry Operations	135
Syntheses In Situ	60	Threefold Rotation	116
Systematic Absence Data	149, 150	Threefold Rotation or Rotatory Inversion axis	129
Systematic Absences	150, 154, 155	Threefold Rotatory Inversion	120
Systematic Absences \Rightarrow Centering	148	Threefold Screw Axis	151
Systematic Absences \Rightarrow Translational Symmetry	150	topographic map	91
Systematic Absences when One or Two Indices are Zero	150	Torsion Angles	208
Systematic approaches to growing single crystals	67	Translation	137, 138
Systematically Absent	148	Translational Symmetry	135, 140, 148, 150, 154, 155
T		Translational Symmetry Elements	150
Table 3.1	103	Translational Symmetry Operations	113
Table 3.2	94, 97, 105	Translations	122, 135
Table 4.1	110, 123	Trial Structure	28
Table 4.2	126, 153	Triclinic	126, 153
Table 4.3	130, 133, 134, 154	Trigonal	129, 153
Table 4.4	141	Trigonal Crystal System	130
Table 4.5	149, 150	Try, Try Again	67
Table 4.6	155	tunable radiation	34
Table of Contents	2	Tungsten Filament	32
Table of Major Topics	2	Tungsten Vapor	32
Table of Symmetry Operations	110	Two Fold Rotation Axes	115
Tables of Crystal and Diffraction	201	Twofold Axes	145
Telephone Poles	87	Twofold Rotation	115
Terminator II, Judgement Day	59	Twofold Rotation Axis	137
Tetragonal	128, 153	Twofold Rotation or Rotatory Inversion	127
Texts and Monographs	14	Twofold Rotation or Rotatory Inversion axes	127
The 14 Bravais Lattices	133	Twofold Rotatory Inversion	120
The 180° Phase Shift for X-Rays	93	Twofold Rotatory Inversion Axis	120
The 230 Space Groups	134	Twofold Screw Axis	137, 151
The 7 Crystal Systems	126	U	
The Crystal Lattice	75	unit cell	17
The Ewald Sphere	106	Unit Cell	20, 141
The Experimental Truth	98	Unit Cell Angles	69
The Influences of Object Patterns	89	Unit Cell Axial Lengths	69
The Influences of Objects, Periodicity, Array Size, and Disorder on Diffraction Patterns	91	Unit Cell Dimensions	72, 103, 146
The Magic of NMR Tubes	61	Unit Cell information	25
The Mathematics of Least Squares Refinement	196	unit cell parameters	103
The Myth Taught in General Chemistry	99	unit cells	21
The Nature of Light	159	Unit Cells	148
The Origins of Anomalous Scattering	104	Unit cells and diffraction data	21
The Patterson Function	185	Unnatural Amino Acids	186
The Phase Problem	27	Uses of Anisotropic Displacement Parameters	210
The Primitive Unit Cell	109	Uses of Anomalous Dispersion	215
The Role of Advances in Computers, Theory, and Software	183	V	
The Role of Extraneous Materials	66	V(CO) ₆	72
The Standard Table	202	vacuum	58
		Vacuum System maintenance	33
		VCH Publishers	1
		Vibration Effects in Crystals	210

Vibration of Atoms in a Lattice	171	X-Ray Detector	40
Vibrational Motion	204	X-Ray Detectors	39, 176
Virus Crystals	46	X-Ray Diffraction	93
Viscous solvents	50	X-Ray Diffractometer	22
visible light photons	42	X-Ray Diffractometers	30
Visual estimation of intensities	40	X-Ray Flux	31
volatile materials	58	X-Ray Generator	23
volatile solvent	54	X-Ray Generators	32
W		X-Ray Lasers	32
Water	68	X-Ray Monochromators	35
Water Waves	78	X-Ray Scattering Factors of Electrons in Orbitals	166
wavelength	44	X-Ray Sources	175
Wavelength	77	X-Ray Spectrum of an X-Ray Tube	175
Wavelength distribution	32	X-ray tubes	44
Wavelengths of X-Rays	31	XSCANS Tutorial Guide and Reference Guide	107
Waves	77, 163	Y	
WEB	15	Youngstown State University	1
What are X-Rays?	31	Z	
What Can Diffraction Methods Tell Us	17	Z_{eff}	96
What Diffracts Neutrons?	97	a	
What Diffracts X-Rays?	93	$\alpha \neq \beta \neq \gamma$	126
What is a Single Crystal and Why is it Important	19	$\alpha = \beta = 90^\circ$	129
What is Chemistry 832	14	$\alpha = \beta = 90^\circ$	129
What is Least Squares Refinement	196	$\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$	127, 128
What to do when proven methods fail	64	$\alpha = \gamma = 90^\circ$	127
When are two values different	207	g	
Where Works Best	184, 185	$\gamma \neq 90^\circ$	129
Which planes are we talking about?	101	$\gamma < 120^\circ$	129
Why are these Wavelengths chosen	31	$\gamma = 120^\circ$	129
Wide Slits \Rightarrow Narrow patterns	84	l	
Wiglers	34	λ	77
Windows	44	$\lambda \equiv$ The Wavelength of Diffracted Light	98
Windows NT computers	15	n	
With Known Structures	182	ν	77
X		q	
X-1000	41	$\theta \equiv$ The Angle between the Incident Ray and the Planes	98
Xe gas ionization	41		
XL	28		
XP	28		
XPREP	28		
X-Ray Absorption in the Diffractometer	44		
X-ray are diffracted by electrons	94		
X-ray beam	23		
X-Ray Collimators	36		