III.C CRYSTALS, SYMMETRY AND DIFFRACTION III.C.6 Diffraction

Diffraction methods provide a powerful way to study molecular structure

X-ray diffractionNeutron diffractionElectron diffractionOptical diffractionComputed diffraction

Ultimate goal:

Understand the chemical properties of molecules by determining their atomic structure

Types of chemical bonds (ionic, covalent, or hydrogen) Bond lengths and angles Van der Waals radii Rotations about single bonds etc.

Presently, only X-ray and neutron diffraction techniques are routinely capable of revealing the arrangement of atoms in molecular structures

In 1912 von Laue predicted that X-rays should diffract from crystals like light from a diffraction grating (later verified experimentally by Friedrich and Knipping)

W. L. Bragg: developed concept of diffraction from **crystal planes** and that the diffraction pattern could be used to reveal atomic positions in crystals

Physical principles of X-ray diffraction form the fundamental basis of **Fourier image processing** techniques

III.C.6.a Introduction to Diffraction Theory

Diffraction: non-linear propagation of electromagnetic radiation

- Occurs when an object scatters the incident radiation
- Radiation scattered from different portions of the object interfere both constructively and destructively, producing a diffraction pattern which can be recorded on a photographic emulsion

Recall:

Electrons (in a TEM) are scattered both by the electrons (inelastic scatter) and nuclei (elastic scatter) of specimen atoms

III.C.6.a Introduction to Diffraction Theory

A characteristic of diffraction: (remember this!)

Each point in the diffraction pattern arises from interference of rays scattered from *all irradiated portions* of the object

III.C.6 Diffraction III.C.6.a Introduction to Diffraction Theory

Structure determination by diffraction methods:

- Involves measuring or calculating the structure factor
 (*F*) at many or all points of the diffraction pattern
- Each F is described by two quantities, an amplitude and a phase

Amplitude:

Strength of interference at a particular point

Phase:

Relative time of arrival of scattered radiation (wave) at a particular point

III.C.6.a Introduction to Diffraction Theory

Diffraction facts:

Amplitude is proportional to the square root of the **intensity** in the recorded pattern

Amplitude
$$\propto \sqrt{Intensity}$$

Photographic film does **not** record the scattered amplitude, but rather the **intensity** which is proportional to the amplitude squared: *i.e.* $Intensity \propto (Amplitude)^2$

III.C.6.a Introduction to Diffraction Theory

More Diffraction facts:

- Phase information is lost when the diffraction pattern is recorded
- Phases cannot be measured directly from X-ray diffraction photographs

The "Phase Problem"

- Major concern of structure determination using X-ray crystallography
- Necessitates use of *e.g.* heavy atom, isomorphous replacement, molecular replacement etc. methods

III.C.6.a Introduction to Diffraction Theory

X-ray phases could be obtained <u>if</u> it were possible to rediffract (focus) scattered X-rays with a lens to form an image

We can <u>directly visualize</u> objects in <u>electron and light</u> microscopes because <u>electrons and visible</u> photons scattered by specimens <u>can be focused</u> with lenses to form images

III.C.6.a Introduction to Diffraction Theory

In the absence of "noise", an image might be considered to contain structural information (amplitudes and phases) in directly interpretable form

Major advantage of image processing:

Provides an **objective means** to extract **reliable** structural information from noisy images

Fourier Transforms

Mathematically describes the **distribution of amplitude and phase** in different directions, for **all possible** directions of the beam incident on the object

Fourier transform of an object is a particular kind of **weighted integral** of the object

In one-dimension:

$$F(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathbf{r}(x) e^{(2\mathbf{p}ixX)} dx$$

The Fourier transform in 1-D:

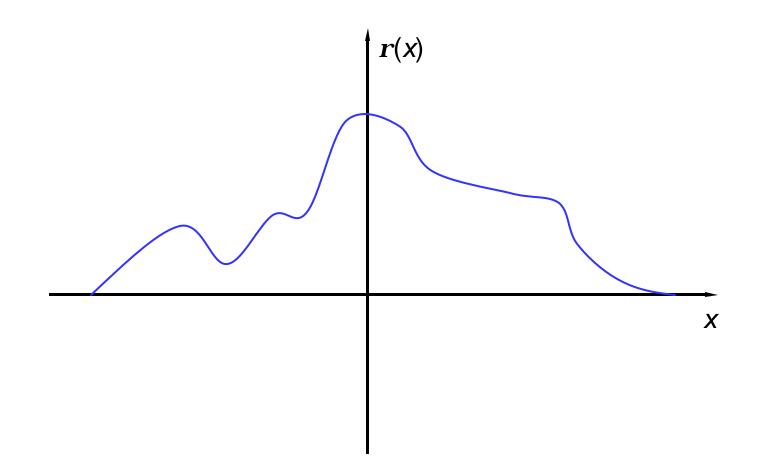
$$F(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathbf{r}(x) e^{(2\mathbf{p}ixX)} dx$$

F(X) = the scattering function (diffraction pattern)

r(x) = the electron density function (object)

Integration is over all density values in the structure

r(x): the object



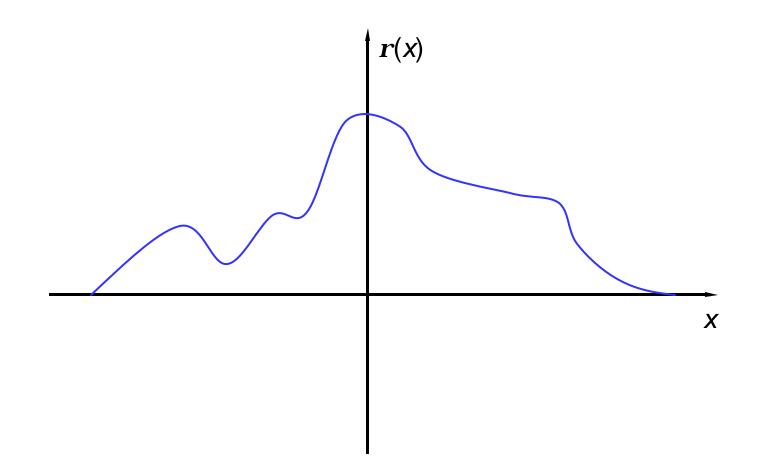
The Fourier transform in 1-D:

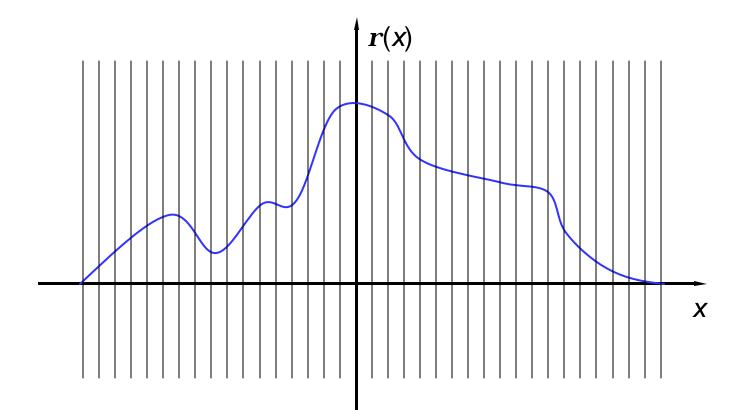
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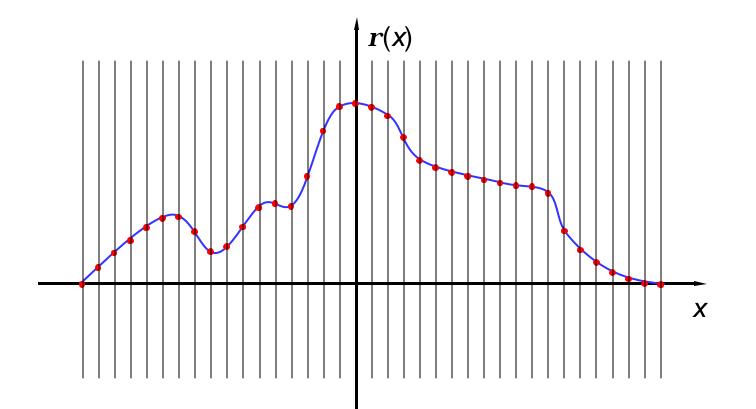
For **sampled** (discrete) data:

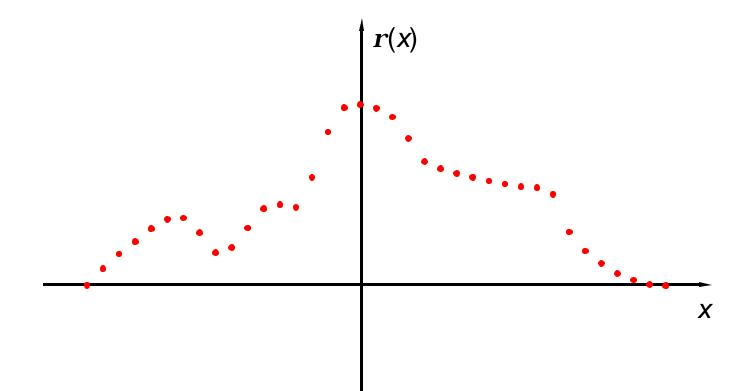
$$F(X) = \sum_{x} \mathbf{r}(x) e^{(2\mathbf{p}ixX)}$$

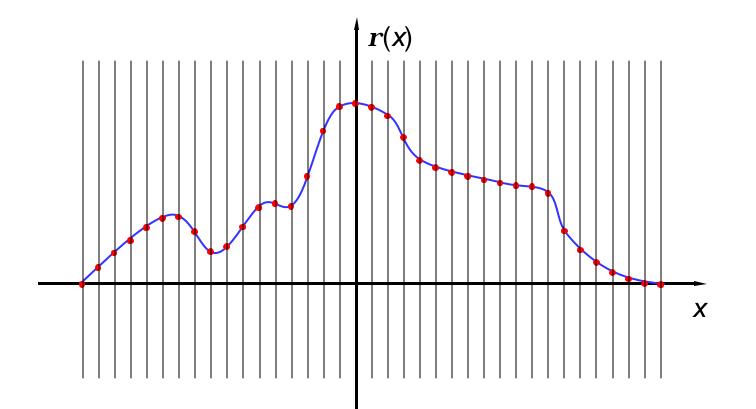
r(x): the object

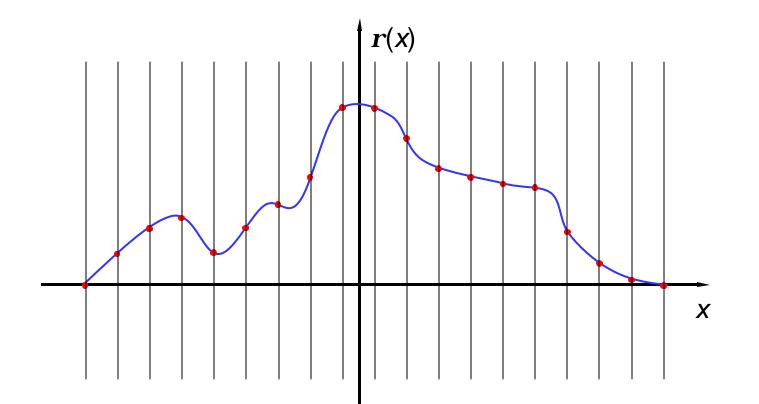


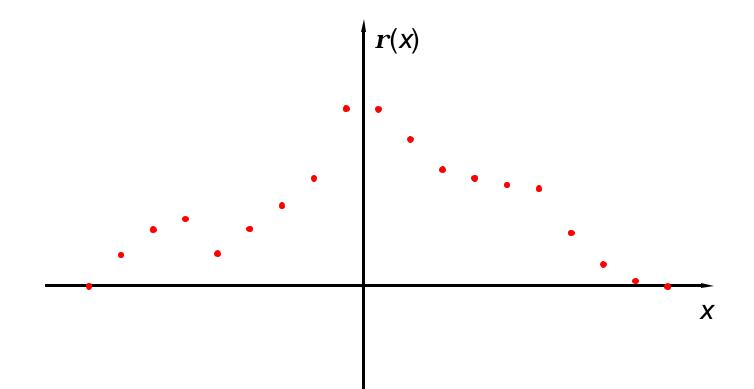


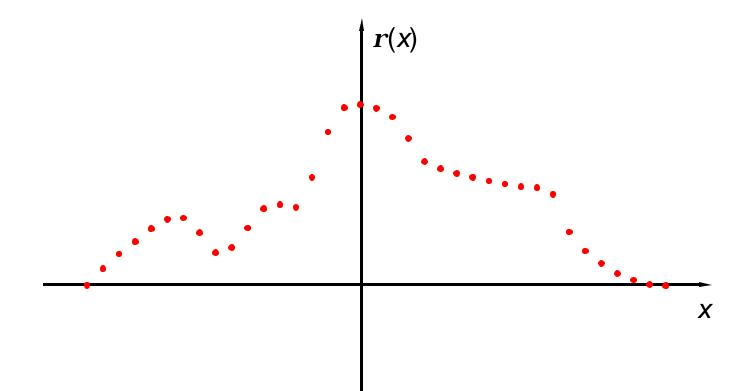


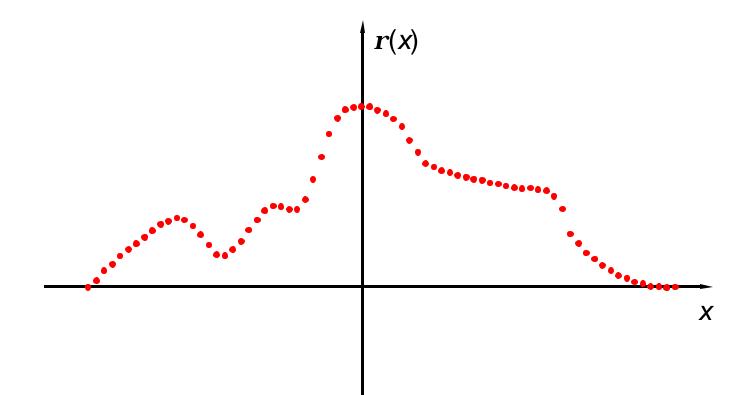












III.C CRYSTALS, SYMMETRY AND DIFFRACTION III.C.6 Diffraction KEY CONCEPTS:

- **Diffraction methods** provide a powerful means to study and determine structure
- First goal of diffraction methods is to determine structure factor amplitudes and phases; from these we can reconstruct structure
- The Fourier transform is just a different way to represent an object
- Any <u>periodic</u> object can be represented mathematically as a summation of sinusoidal waves (Fourier synthesis)
- Image formation is considered a **double diffraction** process

III.C CRYSTALS, SYMMETRY AND DIFFRACTION III.C.6 Diffraction

And some more KEY CONCEPTS:

- Bragg's Law: visualizes diffraction as arising from reflection of radiation from planes in crystals
- Structure factors are **complex** numbers
- Concepts of convolution and multiplication (sampling) help us understand fundamental properties of Fourier transforms

In one-dimension:

$$F(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathbf{r}(x) e^{(2\mathbf{p}ixX)} dx$$

For sampled (discrete) data:

$$F(X) = \sum_{x} \mathbf{r}(x) e^{(2\mathbf{p}ixX)}$$

Shorthand Notations:

F = Fourier transform of r

T = Forward Fourier transform operation

F = T(r)

Inverse relationship: (property of FTs)

Recall: $F(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathbf{r}(x) e^{(2\mathbf{p}ixX)} dx$

F(X) is the **forward transform** of r(x)

$$\mathbf{r}(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(X) e^{(-2\mathbf{p}ixX)} dX$$

thus *r* is the **inverse transform** of *F*

Inverse relationship: (property of FTs)

$$\mathbf{r}(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} F(X) e^{(-2\mathbf{p}ixX)} dX$$

r is the **inverse transform** of *F*

In shorthand notation:

$$r = T^{-1}(F) = T^{-1}(T(r))$$

 T^{-1} = inverse (reverse, back) Fourier transform operation

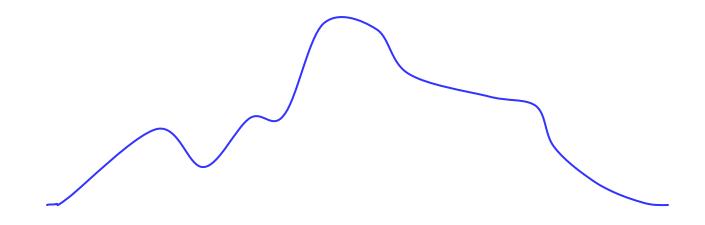
Inversion theorem:

The Fourier transform of the Fourier transform of an object is the original object

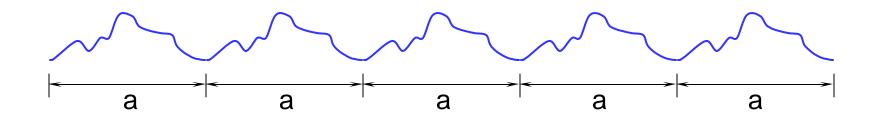
Theorem is analogous to Abbe's treatment of image formation which is considered to be a double-diffraction process

We will return to this idea a bit later...

Any <u>periodic</u> function may be mathematically represented by a summation of a series of sinusoidal waves



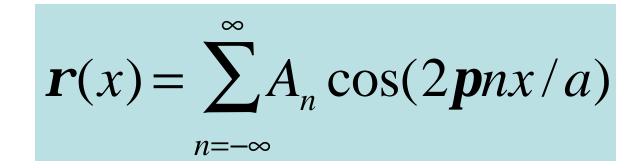
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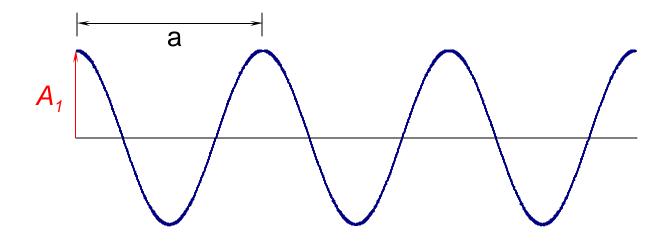


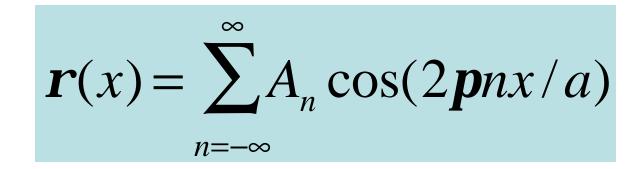
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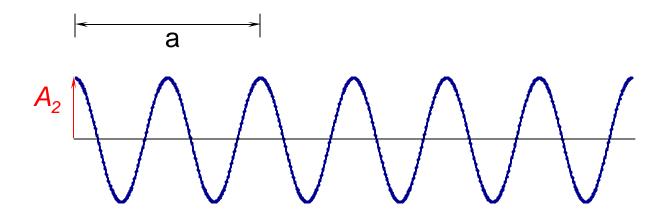
In one-dimension, the Fourier synthesis can be expressed:

$$\mathbf{r}(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} A_n \cos(2\mathbf{p}nx/a)$$









$$\mathbf{r}(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} A_n \cos(2\mathbf{p}nx/a)$$

r(x) = 1-D density function (object)

x = coordinate of a point in the object

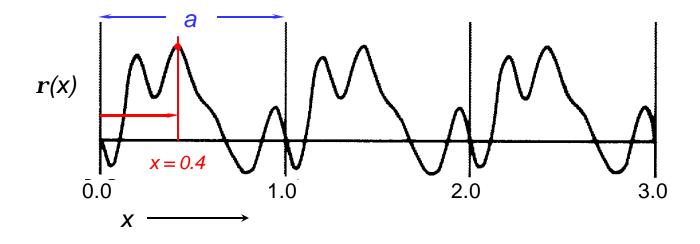
 A_n = Fourier coefficient (amplitude term) for wave number *n*

n = wave number (frequency) or cycles per repeat distance *a*

 $(2\pi nx/a) =$ phase term (position of wave with respect to a fixed origin point in the repeating structure)

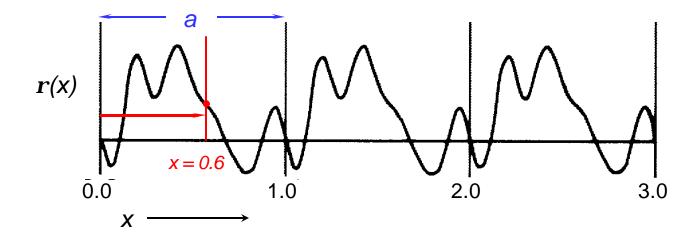
$$\boldsymbol{r}(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} A_n \cos(2\boldsymbol{p}nx/a)$$

- x = coordinate of point in object
- *a* = repeat distance of 1-D periodic object



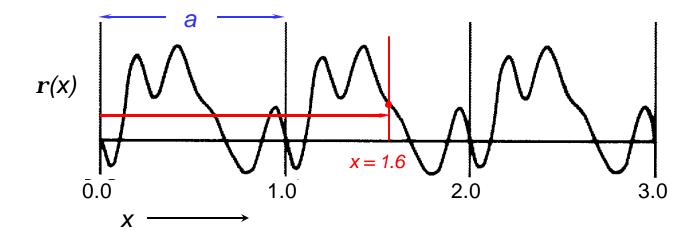
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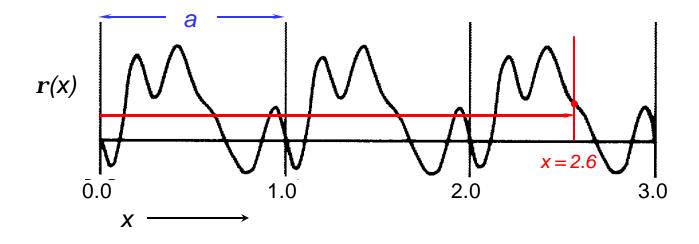
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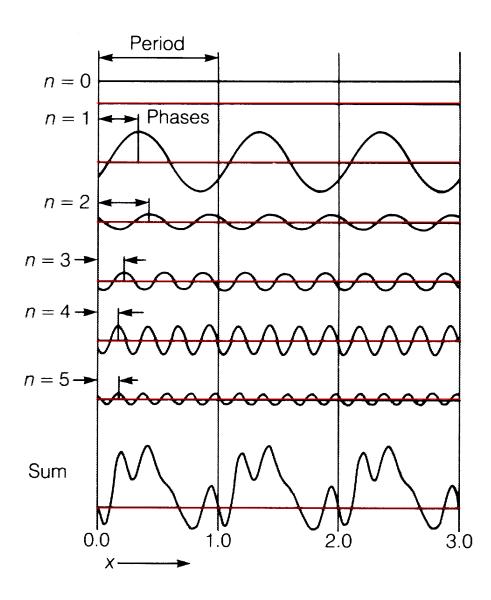
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Fourier Synthesis:

- Mathematical **combination of the waves** to produce the periodic function

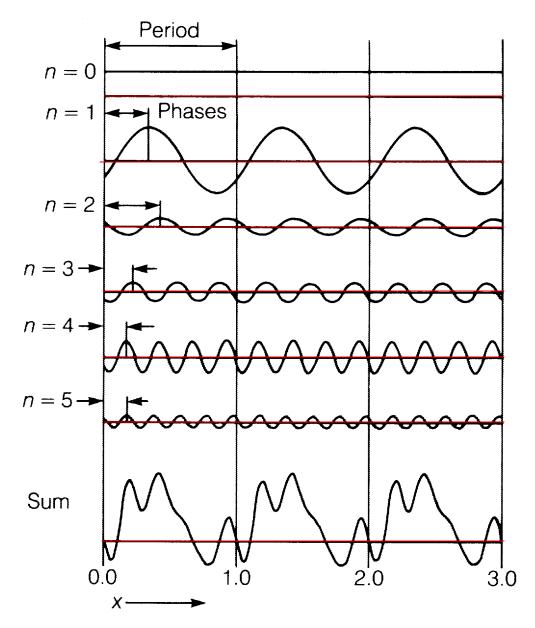
Fourier Analysis:

- Opposite process
- Decomposition of the periodic function into its component waves
- Example: analyzing the sound wave harmonics of a musical instrument

Analogy between Music and Structure

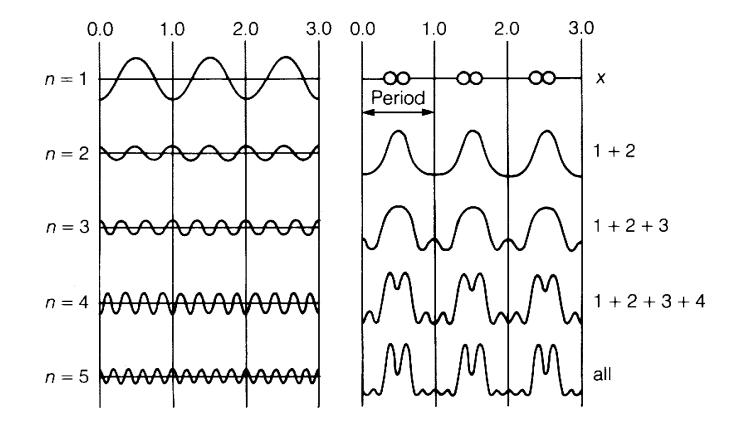
tone = Σ harmonics structure = Σ structure factors

Fourier Synthesis of 1-D Periodic Object

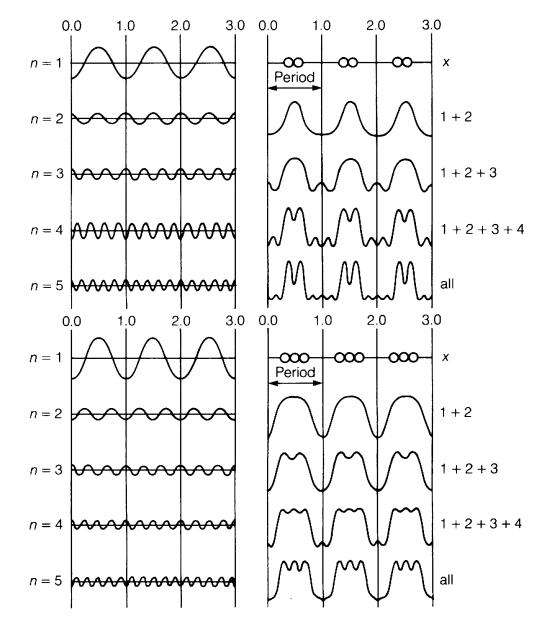


From Eisenberg & Crothers, Fig. 17-14, p.828

Superposition of Waves to Represent 1-D "Crystal"

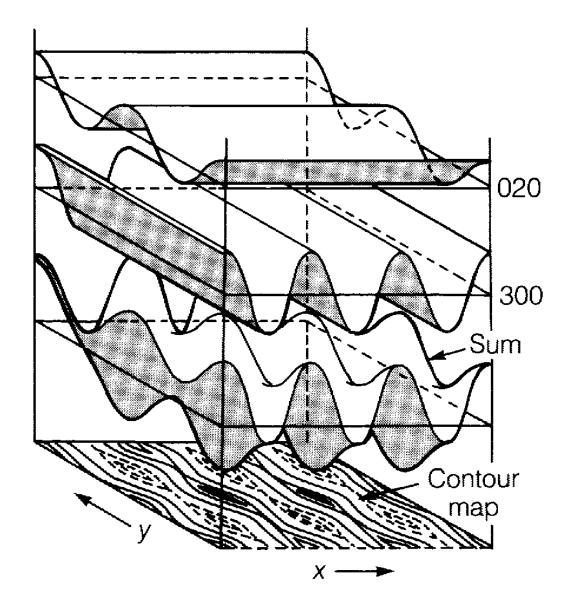


Superposition of Waves to Represent 1-D "Crystal"



From Eisenberg & Crothers, Fig. 17-15, p.829

Summation of 2D Waves to Produce 2D "Electron Density"



From Eisenberg & Crothers, Fig. 17-15c, p.830

3-11-04

Structure determination by diffraction methods:

- Involves measuring or calculating the structure factor (*F*) at many or all points of the diffraction pattern
- Each *F* is described by an **amplitude** and a **phase**

Amplitude:

Strength of interference at a particular point

Phase:

Relative time of arrival of scattered radiation (wave) at a particular point

The Fourier Transform

Mathematically describes the **distribution of amplitude and phase** in different directions, for **all possible** directions of the beam incident on the object

Fourier transform of an object is a particular kind of **weighted integral** of the object

In one-dimension:

$$F(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathbf{r}(x) e^{(2\mathbf{p}ixX)} dx$$

The Fourier Transform

The Fourier transform in 1-D:

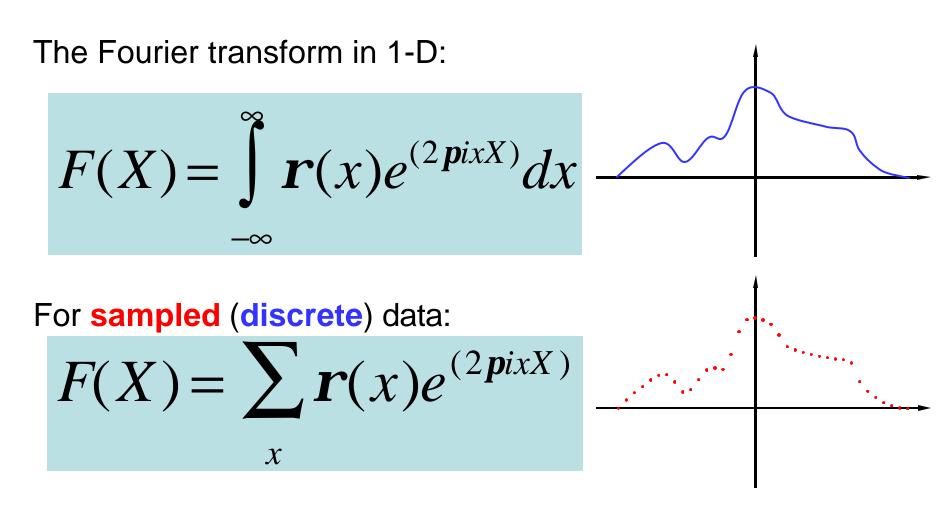
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Integration is over all density values in the structure

The Fourier Transform



The Fourier Transform

- Goal of diffraction methods: determine structure factor amplitudes and phases; from these we can reconstruct structure
- The Fourier transform is just a different way to represent an object

Inverse relationship: (property of FTs)

$$F(X) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathbf{r}(x) e^{(2\mathbf{p}ixX)} dx$$

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Inverse relationship: (property of FTs)

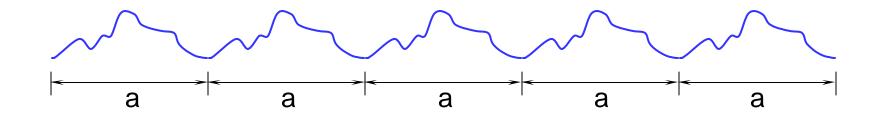
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r is the **inverse transform** of *F*

$$r = T^{-1}(F) = T^{-1}(T(r))$$

III.C CRYSTALS, SYMMETRY AND DIFFRACTION REVIEW Fourier Synthesis

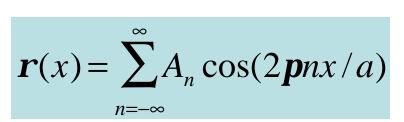
 Any <u>periodic</u> object can be represented mathematically as a summation of sinusoidal waves

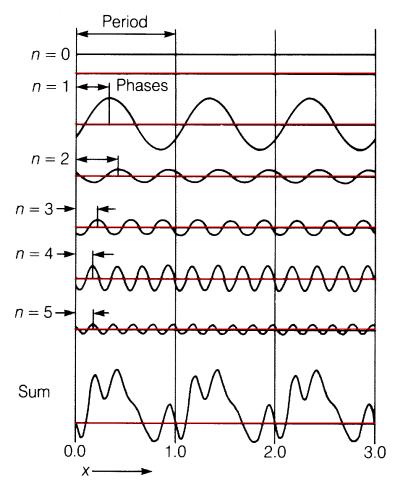


In one-dimension, the Fourier synthesis can be expressed:

$$\mathbf{r}(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} A_n \cos(2\mathbf{p}nx/a)$$

Fourier Synthesis





From Eisenberg & Crothers, Fig. 17-14, p.828

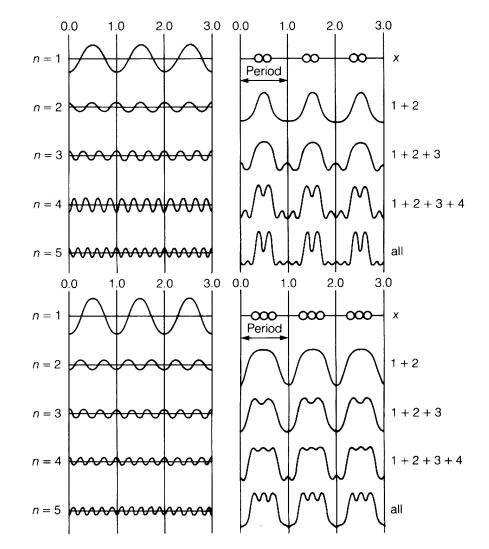
Fourier Synthesis:

- Mathematical **combination of the waves** to produce the periodic function

Fourier Analysis:

- Opposite process
- Decomposition of the periodic function into its component waves

REVIEW

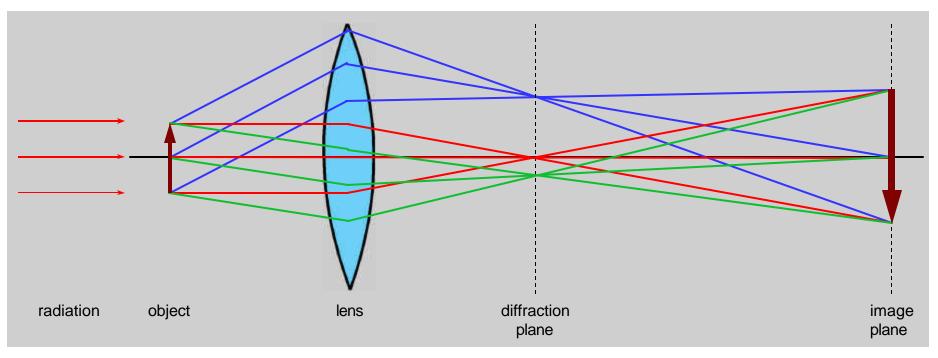


From Eisenberg & Crothers, Fig. 17-15, p.829

OK, that's enough review

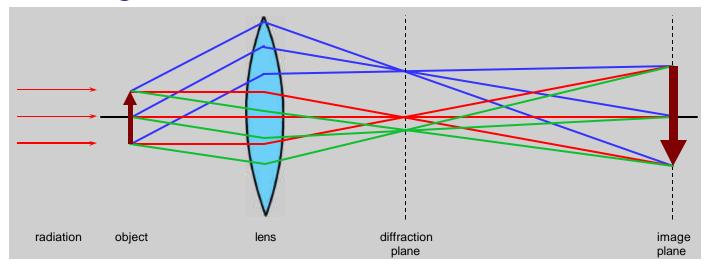
III.C.6.d Image Formation as a Double Diffraction Process

According to Abbe's theory, image formation is a twostage, **double-diffraction** process



An image is the diffraction pattern of the diffraction pattern of an object

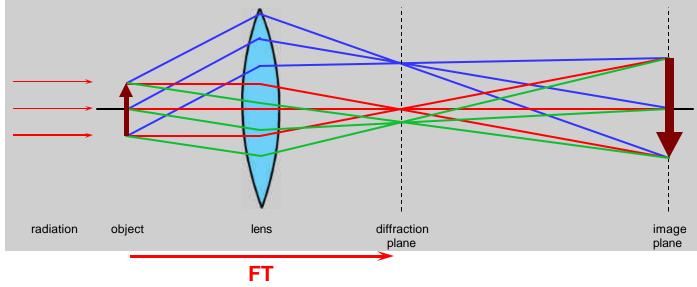
III.C.6.d Image Formation as a Double Diffraction Process



1st stage of image formation

Collimated (parallel) beam of rays incident on the object is scattered and the interference pattern (Fraunhofer diffraction pattern) is brought to focus at the back focal plane of the lens

III.C.6.d Image Formation as a Double Diffraction Process



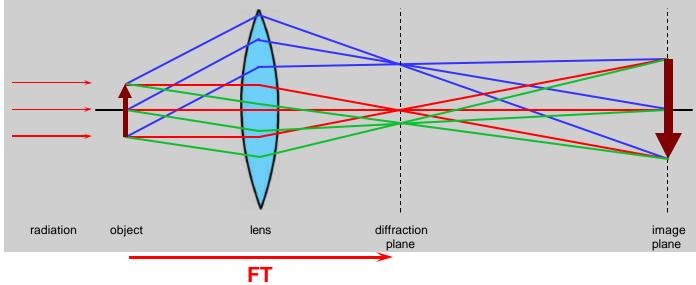
1st stage of image formation

1st stage sometimes referred to as the **forward Fourier transformation**

Intensity distribution of the recorded diffraction pattern of an object is proportional to the square of the Fourier transform of the object

Terms "transform" and "diffraction pattern" are often used interchangeably, but strictly speaking they are **not** equivalent

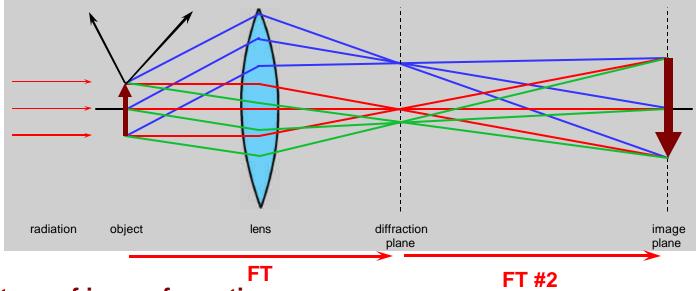
III.C.6.d Image Formation as a Double Diffraction Process



1st stage of image formation

- A lens (essential for image formation) focuses the diffraction pattern at a **finite** distance from the object (at back focal plane of lens)
- If remove lens, no image forms, but instead **Fresnel** diffraction patterns form at finite distances from the object and the **Fraunhofer** diffraction pattern forms at **infinity** (large distance relative to the object size or wavelength of radiation used)
- In X-ray diffraction experiments, there is no lens to focus the X-rays

III.C.6.d Image Formation as a Double Diffraction Process



2nd stage of image formation

Occurs when the **scattered radiation** passes beyond the back focal plane of the lens and **interferes** (recombines) to form an image

Called back or inverse Fourier transformation stage

Recall: Image cannot <u>exactly</u> represent the object because some scattered rays never enter the lens and cannot be focused at the image plane

III.C.6.d Image Formation as a Double Diffraction Process

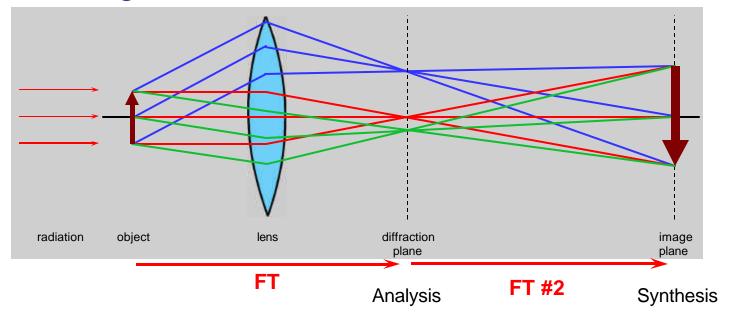
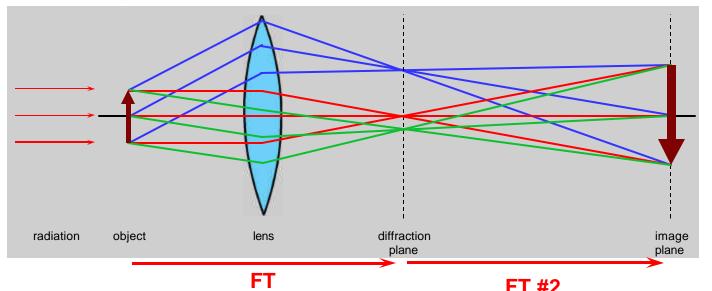


Image formation analogous to:

Fourier analysis in first stage

Fourier synthesis in second stage

III.C.6.d Image Formation as a Double Diffraction Process



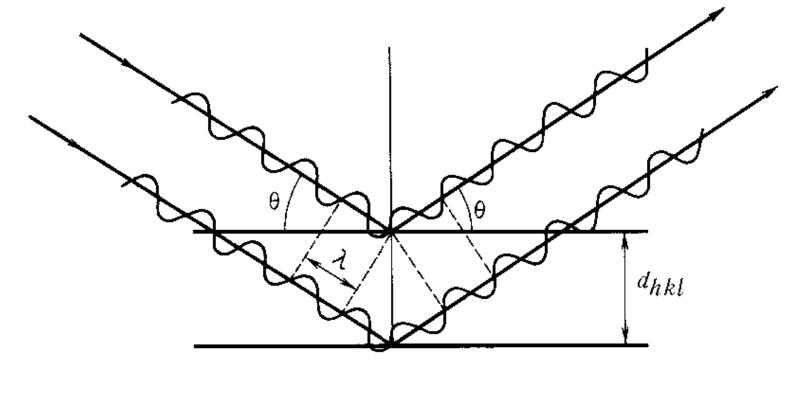
Fourier image analysis is a powerful method for analyzing a wide variety of periodic specimens because:

- Separates processing of electron micrograph images into two stages
- Formation of diffraction pattern in 1st stage reveals structural information in a straightforward manner and conveniently and objectively separates most of the signal and noise components in the image
- -Transform may then be **manipulated** and **subsequently back-transformed** in 2nd stage to produce a **noise-filtered**, **reconstructed image**

III.C.6 Diffraction III.C.6.e Bragg Diffraction

Bragg's Law

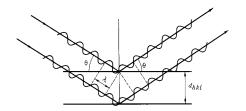
III.C.6 Diffraction III.C.6.e Bragg Diffraction Bragg's Law



 $n\lambda = 2d_{hkl}\sin q_{???}$

From Vainshtein, Fig. 4.2, p.224

III.C.6 Diffraction III.C.6.e Bragg Diffraction



Diffraction can be *conceptualized* as arising from the **reflection** of radiation from **planes** of electron density in the 3D crystal (or lines in a 2D crystal)

These planes are **imaginary** parallel planes within crystals

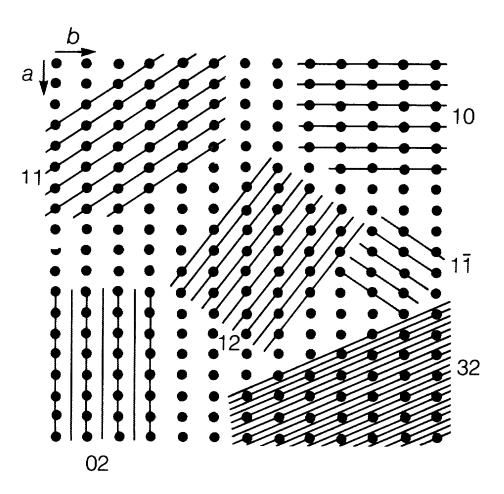
Each set of planes is identified by three Miller indices, *hkl*, which are the reciprocals of the intercepts, in units of cell edge lengths, that the plane makes with the axes of the unit cell

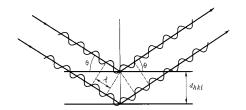
III.C.6 Diffraction III.C.6.e Bragg Diffraction

Miller Indices of Lattice Planes in a Crystal

hk(2-D), hkl(3-D)

The reciprocals of the intercepts, in units of cell edge lengths, that the plane/line makes with the axes of the unit cell





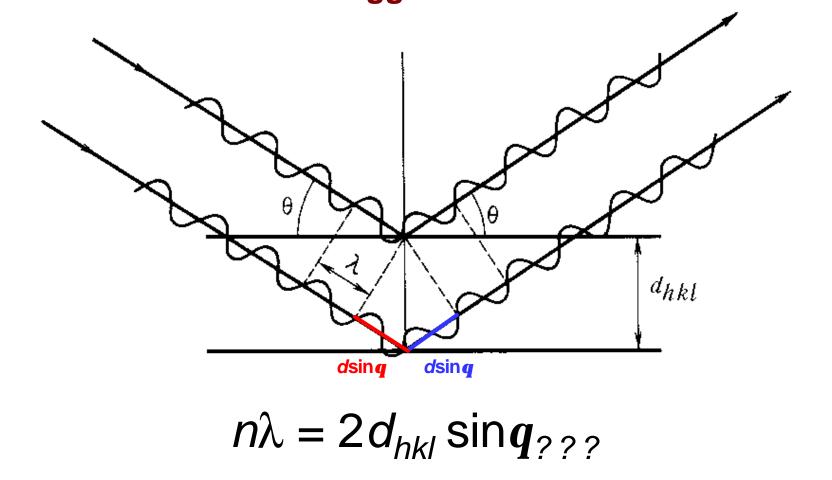
Diffraction from the *hkl* set of planes, separated a distance d_{hkl} , only occurs for certain orientations of the incident radiation according to the Bragg relation:

$$n\lambda = 2d_{hkl} \sin q_{???}$$

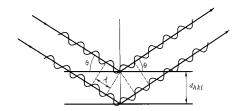
- *n* = integer
- λ = wavelength of incident radiation
- *d*_{*hkl*} = crystal lattice spacing between the [*hkl*] set of crystal planes

 q_{hkl} = angle of incidence and also of reflection

III.C.6 Diffraction III.C.6.e Bragg Diffraction Bragg's Law



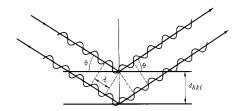
From Vainshtein, Fig. 4.2, p.224



Intensity of each *hkl* reflection is proportional to the distribution of electron density in the *hkl* planes

In some planes the density may be **evenly distributed** and the corresponding reflection will be relatively **weak**

In others, where the density is **concentrated** in one region between the planes, the corresponding reflection will be **strong**

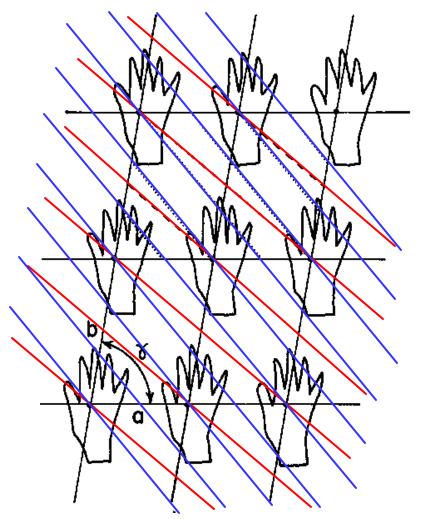


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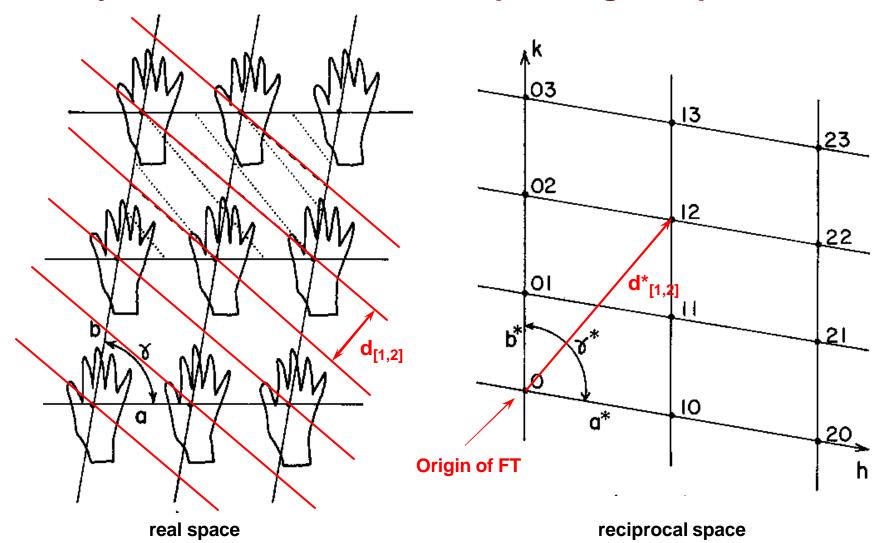
2D Crystal of Hands and Corresponding Reciprocal Lattice



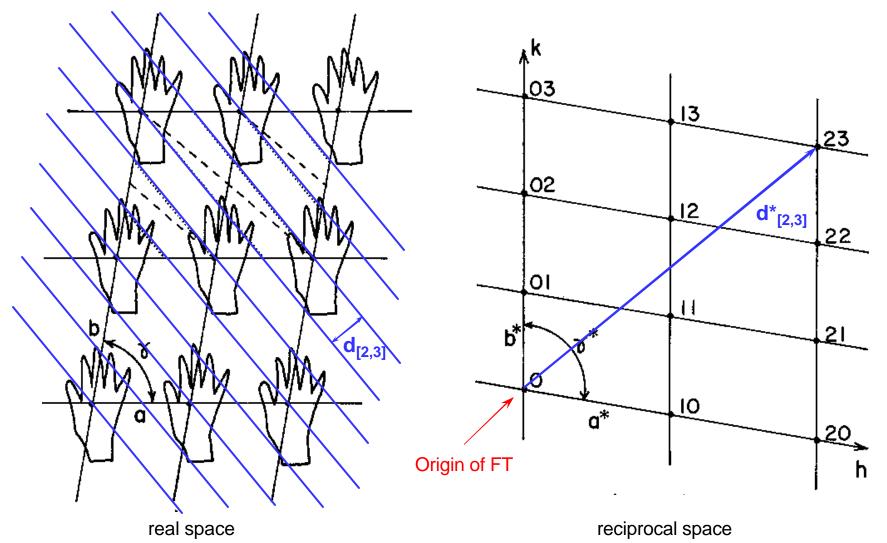
Two Bragg-type "planes" (lines here in 2-D) are depicted in this 2-D crystal of hands

[1,2] and [2,3] are shown

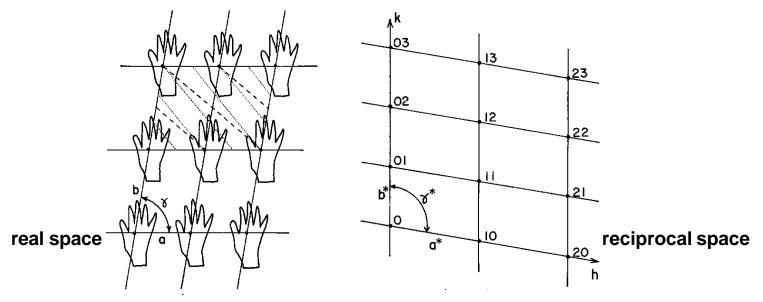
2D Crystal of Hands and Corresponding Reciprocal Lattice



2D Crystal of Hands and Corresponding Reciprocal Lattice



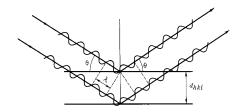
III.C.6.e Bragg Diffraction



Density that lies between the dashed lines diffract at the reciprocal lattice point labeled [1,2] (and also its **Friedel mate**, [-1,-2], not shown)

Spacing (perpendicular distance) between the lines is **inversely proportional** to the distance of the [1,2] reciprocal lattice point from the origin

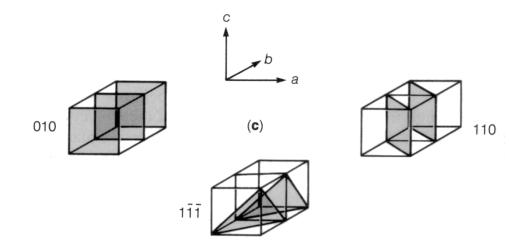
Relative to the transform origin (where $\theta_{hkl} = 0^\circ$, which corresponds to direction of **unscattered** radiation), the reciprocal lattice point appears in a direction **normal** to the set of lines

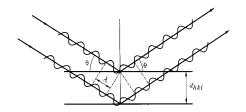


For 2D, periodic structures, each **Friedel pair** of spots arises from a set of fringes (sinusoidal density waves) of particular spacing (frequency) and orientation in the crystal

The so-called **Miller index** of each spot corresponds to the two wave numbers (*h* and *k*) which describe the number of wave cycles per repeat in the *a* and *b* directions.

For diffraction from **3D** crystals, the Miller index of each spot is assigned three wave numbers (*h*,*k*,*l*) corresponding to the number of wave cycles per repeat in the three unit cell directions (*a*,*b*,*c*)





Each spot or reflection in the diffraction pattern may be mathematically represented in real space as a plane wave whose amplitude is proportional to the square root of the spot intensity and whose phase is measured relative to a particular origin point in the crystal (*e.g.* the unit cell origin).

When the amplitudes and phases (structure factors, F_{hkl}) of all spots in the 3D transform are known, the corresponding real space density waves can be mathematically summed (Fourier synthesis) to reconstruct the 3D object density

In 1D:
$$\mathbf{r}(x) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} A_n \cos(2\mathbf{p}nx/a)$$

III.C CRYSTALS, SYMMETRY AND DIFFRACTION III.C.6 Diffraction KEY CONCEPTS:

- Any periodic object can be represented mathematically as a summation of sinusoidal waves (Fourier synthesis)
- Image formation is considered a **double diffraction** process
- Bragg's Law: visualizes diffraction as arising from reflection of radiation from planes in crystals
- Structure factors are complex numbers
- Concepts of convolution and multiplication (sampling) help us understand fundamental properties of Fourier transforms

III.C CRYSTALS, SYMMETRY AND DIFFRACTION

III.C.6 Diffraction

III.C.6.f Structure Factor

Structure Factor

The structure factor describes the scattering from all atoms of the unit cell for a particular Bragg reflection

- Each diffracted ray, or reflection, is described by **one** structure factor, F_{hkl}
- F_{hkl} is a **complex number** whose **magnitude** (amplitude) is proportional to the square root of the intensity of the *hkl* reflection
- Each structure factor may be regarded as a sum of the contributions of the radiation scattered in the same direction from all atoms within the unit cell

For an object with *n* atoms, the structure factor equation is:

$$F_{hkl} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} f_j \exp\left[2\mathbf{p}i(hx_j + ky_j + lz_j)\right]$$

- f_j = atomic scattering factor for atom *j*
 - = ratio of <u>amplitude scattered by the atom</u> amplitude scattered by a single electron

= atomic number at zero scattering angle

< atomic number at larger scattering angles

hkl = particular set of diffracting planes

 x_{j}, y_{j}, z_{j} = fractional unit cell coordinates for atom *j* in the unit cell

$$F_{hkl} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} f_j \exp\left[2\mathbf{p}i(hx_j + ky_j + lz_j)\right]$$

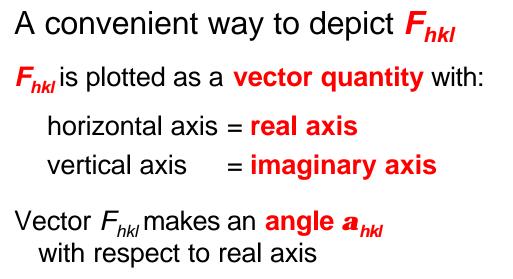
Recall: $e^{i\theta} = \cos\theta + i\sin\theta$, so above can be rewritten:

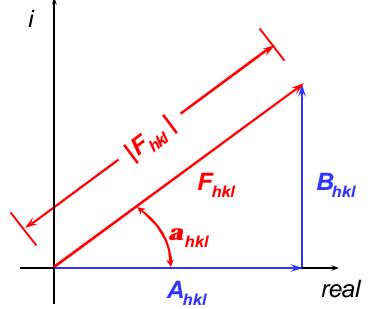
$$F_{hkl} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} f_j \left\{ \cos \left[2p \left(hx_j + ky_j + lz_j \right) \right] + i \sin \left[2p \left(hx_j + ky_j + lz_j \right) \right] \right\}$$
$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} f_j \cos \left[2p \left(hx_j + ky_j + lz_j \right) \right] + i \sum_{j=1}^{n} f_j \sin \left[2p \left(hx_j + ky_j + lz_j \right) \right]$$

$$= A_{hkl} + iB_{hkl}$$

Thus, F_{hkl} is a **complex quantity**, with **real** (A_{hkl}) and **imaginary** (B_{hkl}) parts

III.C.6 Diffraction III.C.6.f Structure Factor Argand Diagram





 F_{hkl} = vector sum of A_{hkl} (real component) and B_{hkl} (imaginary component)

Magnitudes of vectors A_{hkl} and B_{hkl} are: $|F_{hkl}|\cos(a_{hkl})$ and $|F_{hkl}|\sin(a_{hkl})$

Structure factor amplitude (modulus or magnitude of F_{hkl}): $\frac{1}{2}F_{hkl}\frac{1}{2}$ $|F_{hkl}| = [(A_{hkl})^2 + (B_{hkl})^2]^{1/2}$

Structure factor phase **a**_{hkl}

Since
$$F_{hkl} = A_{hkl} + iB_{hkl}$$

$$= |F_{hkl}| \cos(a_{hkl}) + |F_{hkl}| i\sin(a_{hkl})$$
real imaginary

$$= |F_{hkl}| \exp(ia_{hkl})$$

For a **3D** structure with **continuous density**, r(xyz), the structure factor equation becomes:

 $F_{hkl} = V \iiint r(xyz) \exp(2pi [hx+ky+lz]) dx dy dz$

Integration is over the entire unit cell volume, V.

Reemphasizes a property of Fourier transforms: Every point in the object contributes to every point in the diffraction pattern

3-30-04

III.C CRYSTALS, SYMMETRY AND DIFFRACTION

III.C.6 Diffraction

III.C.6.g Convolution and Multiplication

ConvolutionMultiplication

III.C.6 Diffraction III.C.6.g Convolution and Multiplication

These concepts provide a fundamental basis for understanding diffraction from crystalline objects

According to Holmes and Blow (1965), **convolution** of two functions can be described in the following way:

"Set down the origin of the first function in every possible position of the second, multiply the value of the first function in each position by the value of the second at that point and take the **sum** of all such possible operations."

Sounds simple enough...right?

Well, sort of...especially if one function is "simple"

III.C.6 Diffraction III.C.6.g Convolution and Multiplication

Mathematical expression for **convolution**:

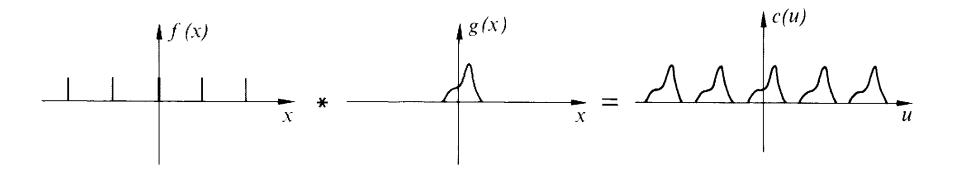
$$c(u) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)g(u-x)dx$$

This is known as the convolution of f(x) and g(x), and may be written in shorter form as:

$$c(u) = f(x) * g(x)$$

III.C.6 Diffraction III.C.6.g Convolution and Multiplication

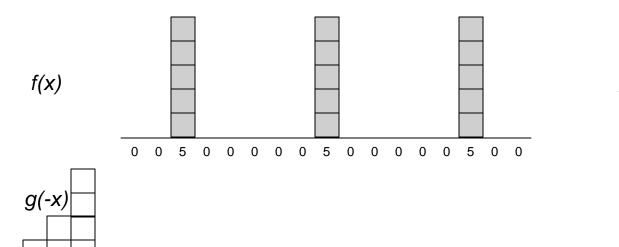
Convolution of f(x), an array of **d** functions, with g(x), an arbitrary function

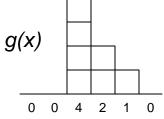


III.C.6.g Convolution and Multiplication

$$c(u) = f(x) * g(x) \qquad c(u) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)g(u-x)dx$$

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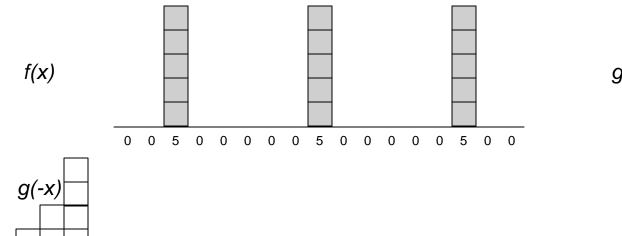
c(u)

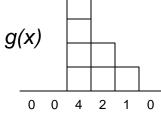
0 1 2 4 0 0

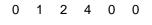
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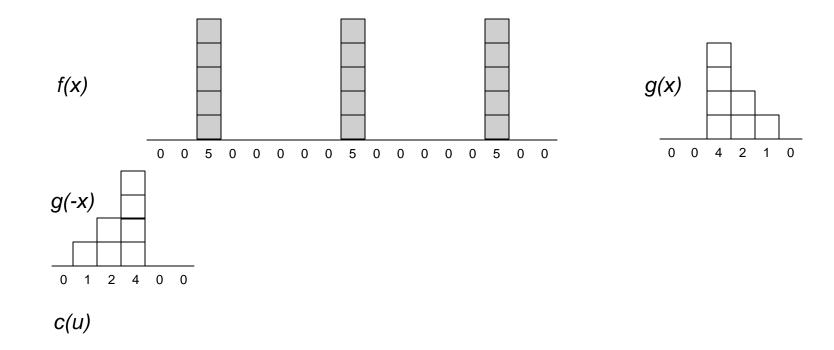


c(u)

III.C.6.g Convolution and Multiplication

$$c(u) = f(x) * g(x) \qquad c(u) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)g(u-x)dx$$

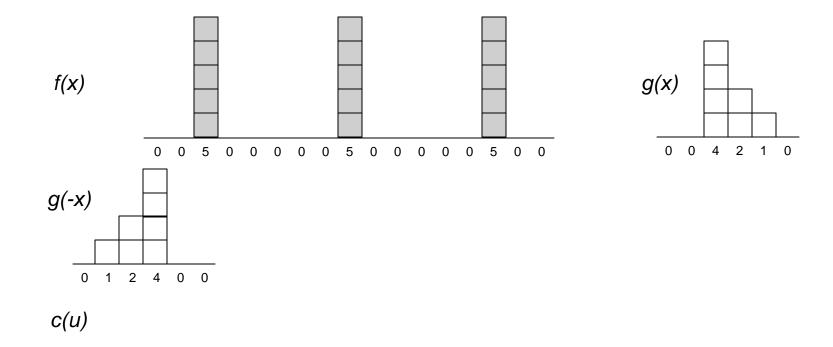
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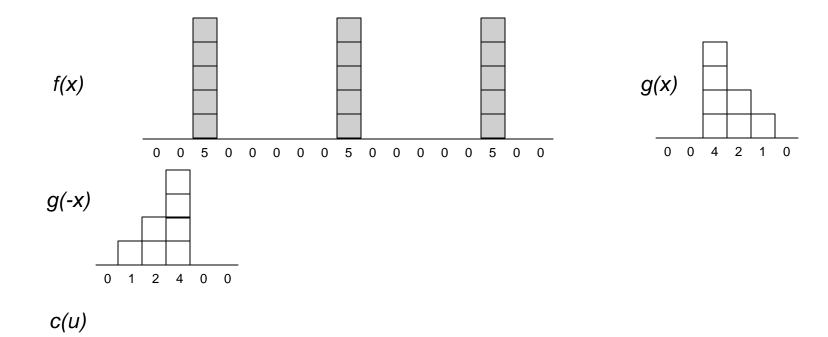
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III.C.6.g Convolution and Multiplication

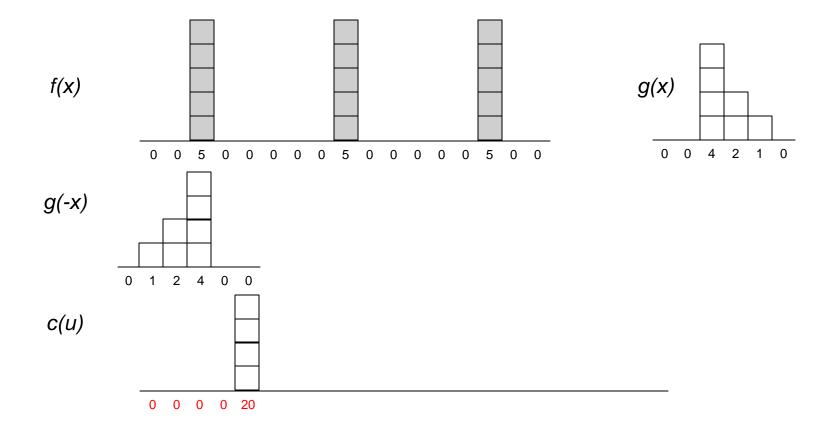
$$c(u) = f(x) * g(x) \qquad c(u) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)g(u-x)dx$$

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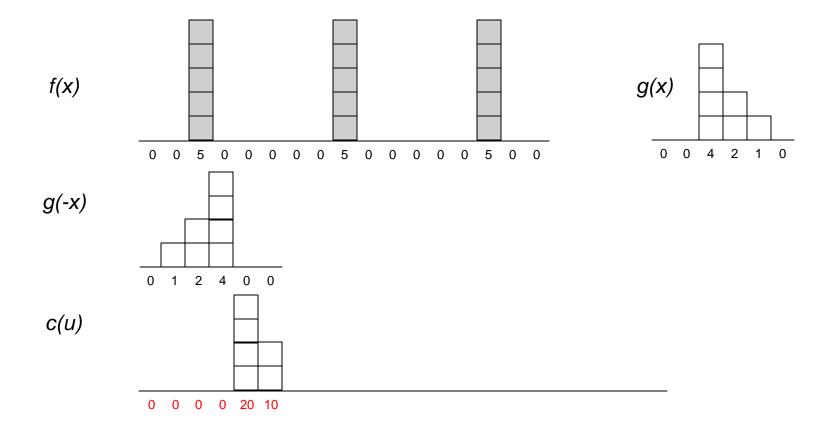
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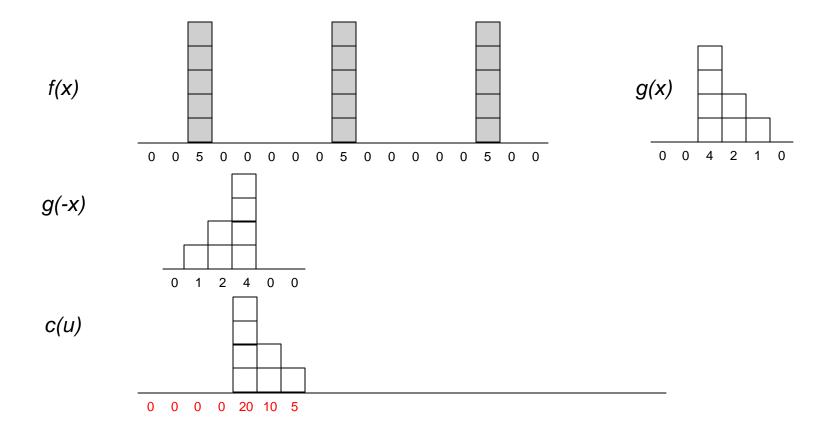
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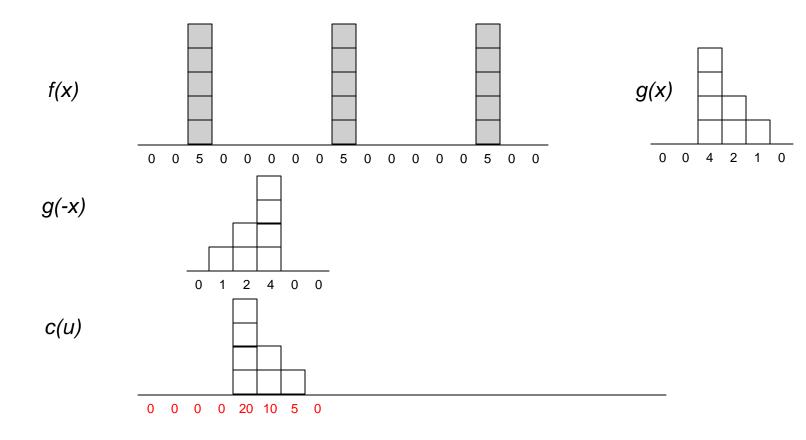
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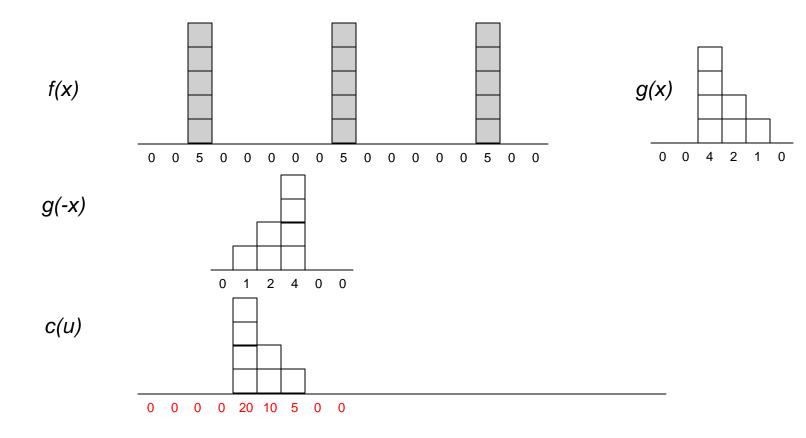
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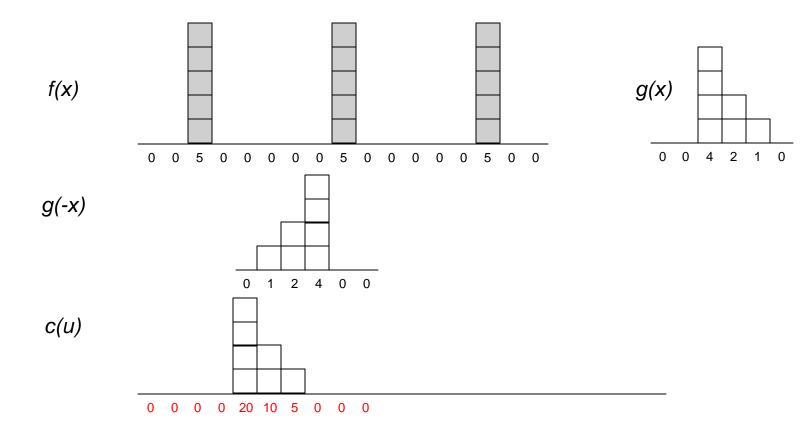
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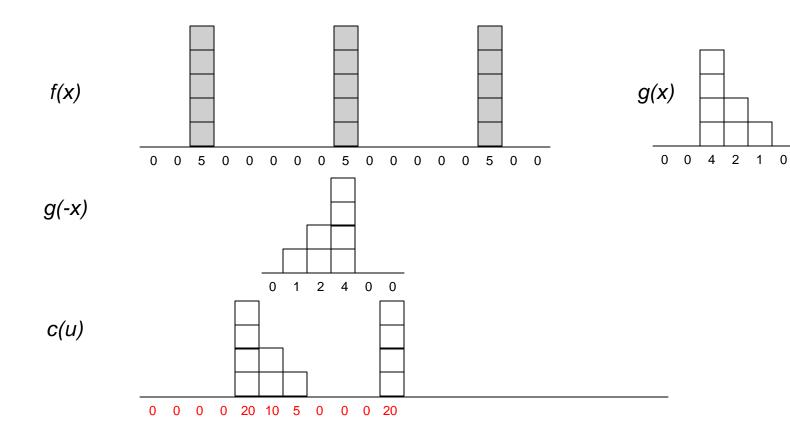
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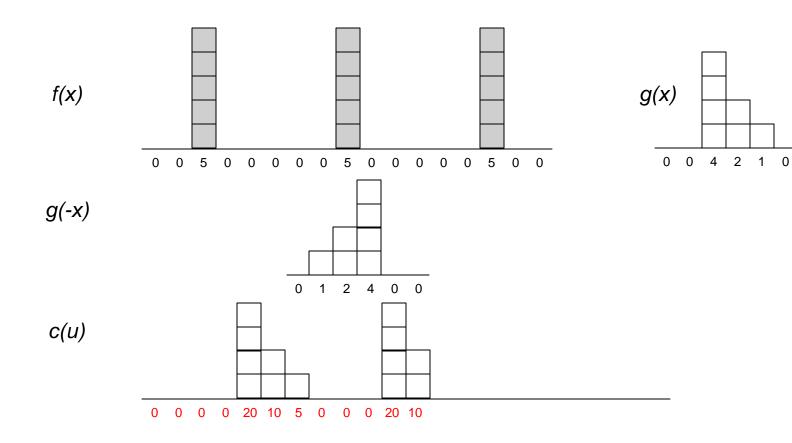
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III.C.6.g Convolution and Multiplication

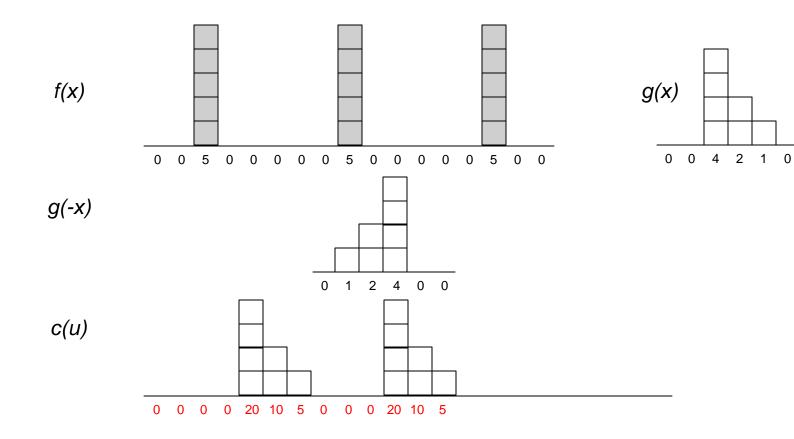
$$c(u) = f(x) * g(x) \qquad c(u) = \int_{-\infty} f(x)g(u-x)dx$$



III.C.6.g Convolution and Multiplication

$$c(u) = f(x) * g(x) \qquad c(u) = \int_{-\infty} f(x)g(u-x)dx$$

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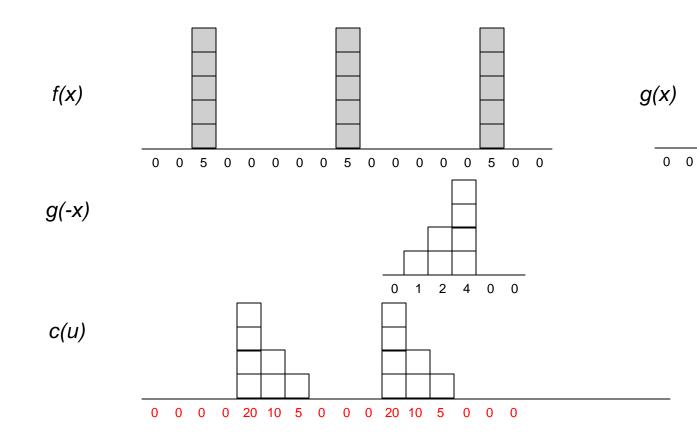


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$$c(u) = f(x) * g(x) \qquad c(u) = \int_{-\infty} f(x)g(u-x)dx$$

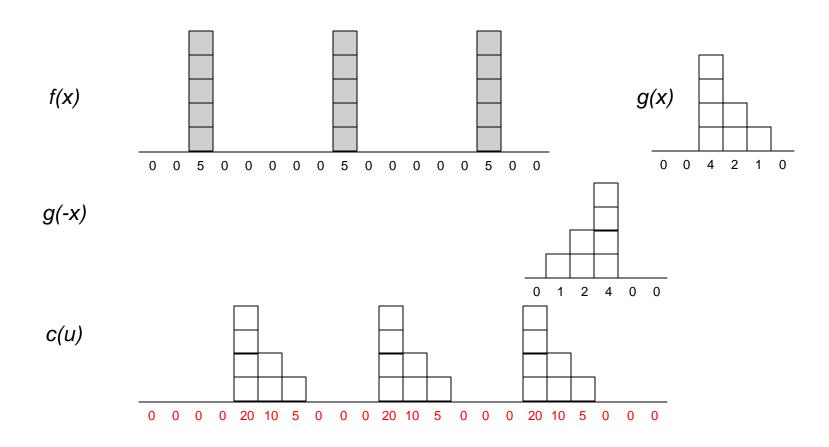
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III.C.6.g Convolution and Multiplication

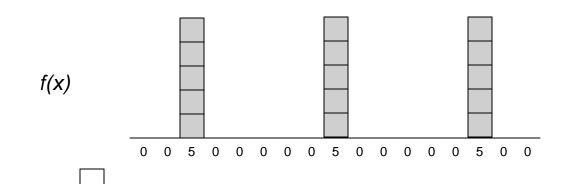
$$c(u) = f(x) * g(x) \qquad c(u) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)g(u-x)dx$$

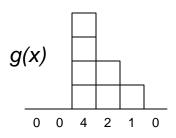


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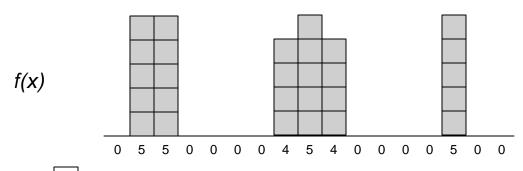
c(u)

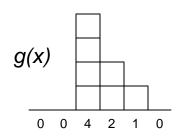
g(-x)

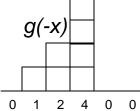
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$$c(u) = f(x) * g(x) \qquad c(u) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)g(u-x)dx$$





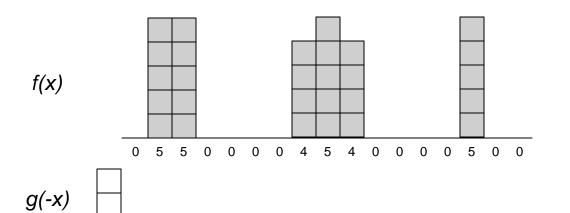


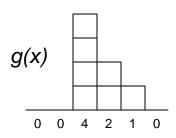
c(u)

III.C.6.g Convolution and Multiplication

$$c(u) = f(x) * g(x) \qquad c(u) = \int f(x)g(u-x)dx$$

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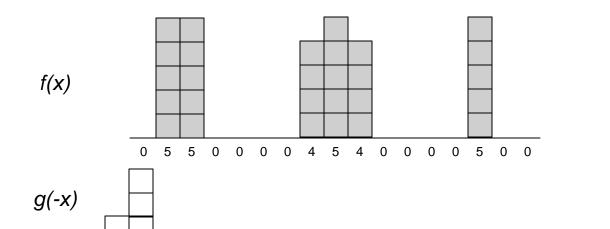
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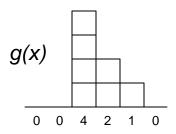
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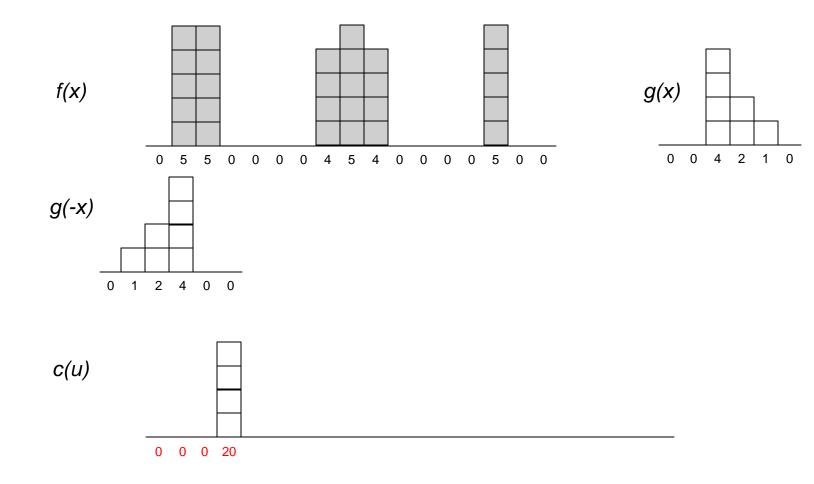
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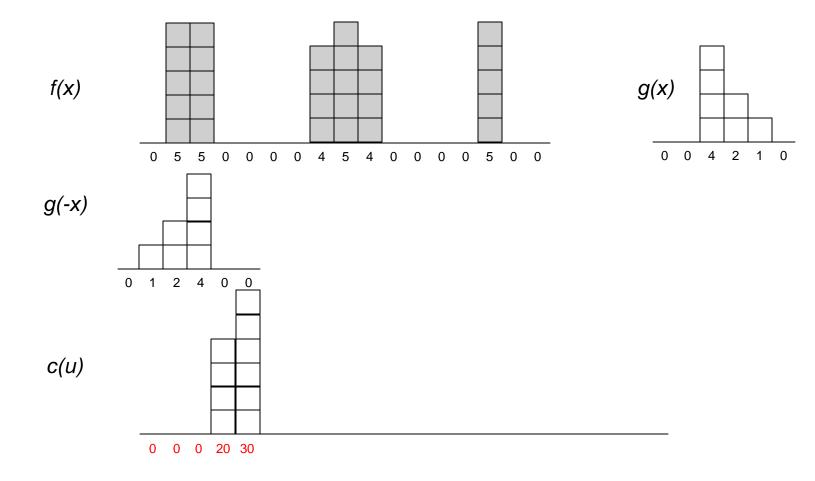
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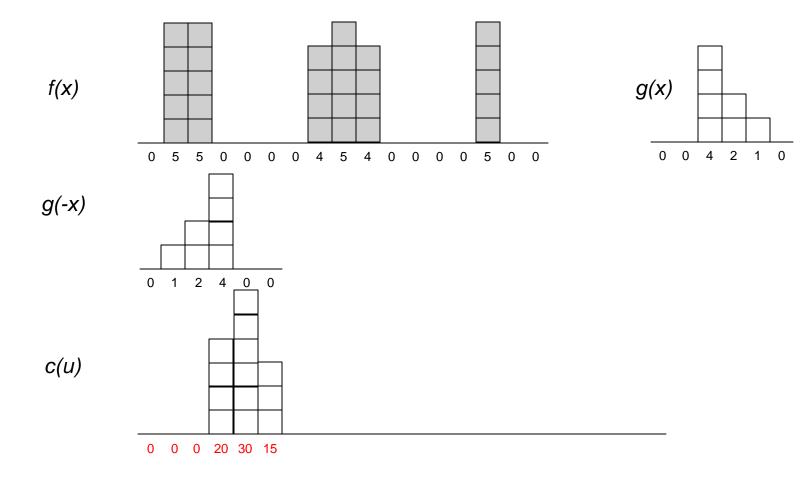
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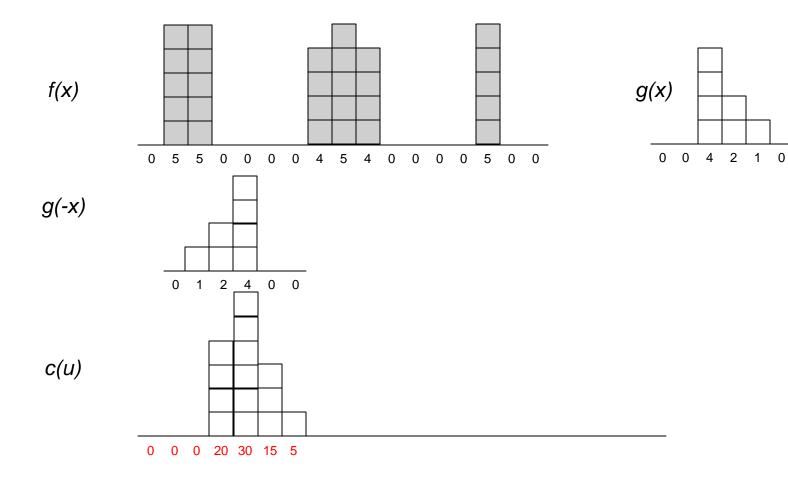
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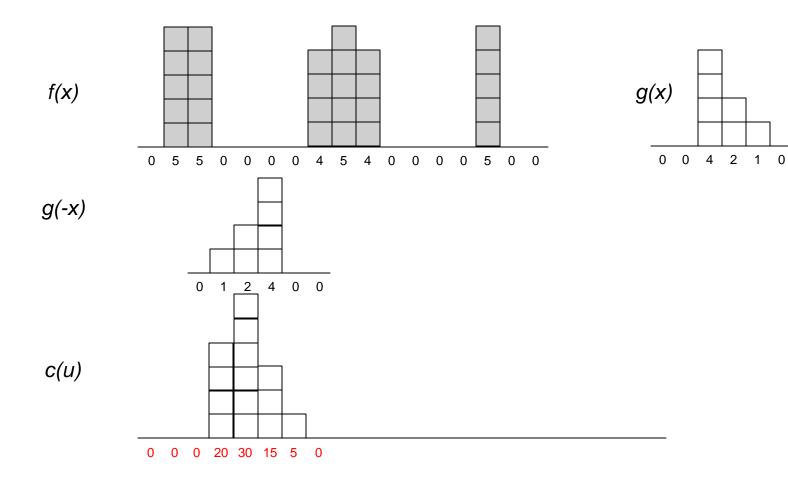
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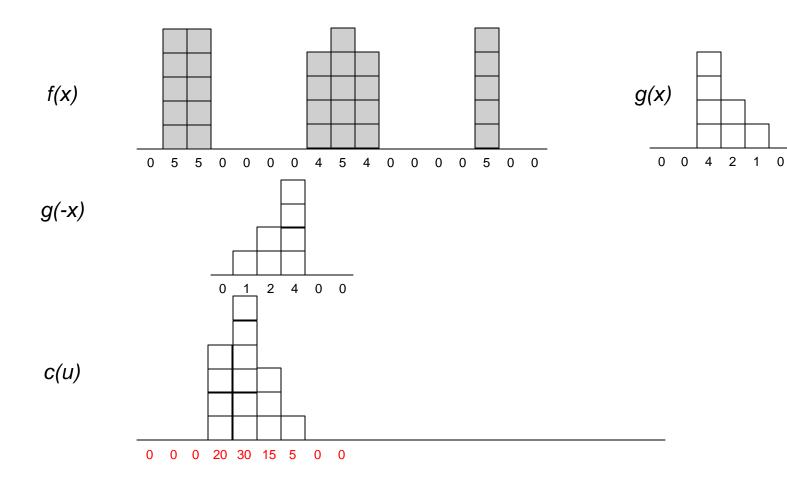
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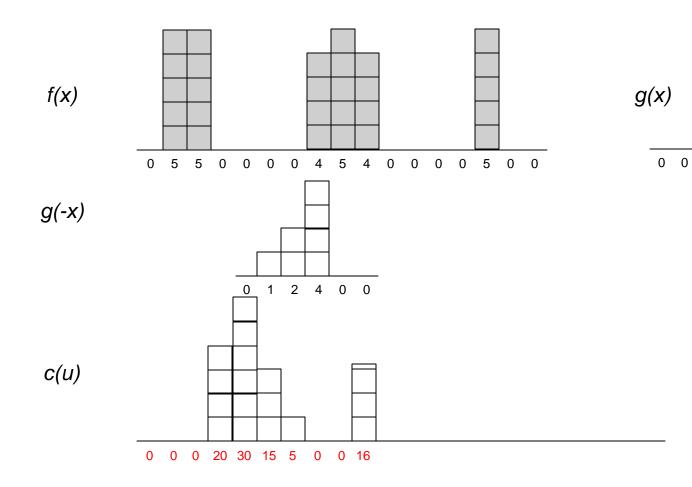
III.C.6.g Convolution and Multiplication

$$c(u) = f(x) * g(x) \qquad c(u) = \int f(x)g(u-x)dx$$

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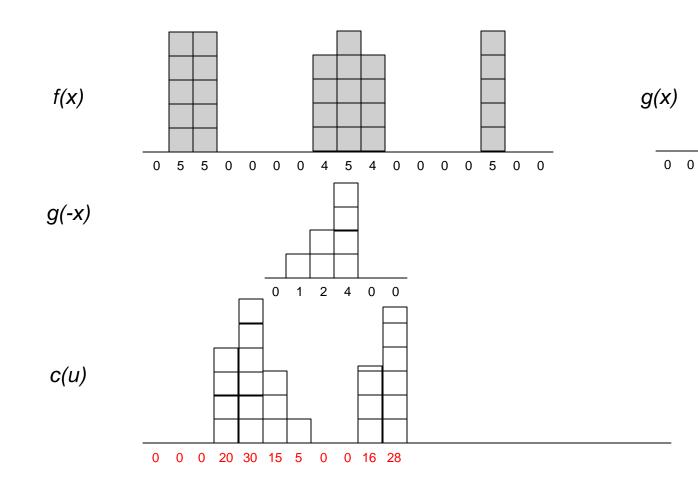
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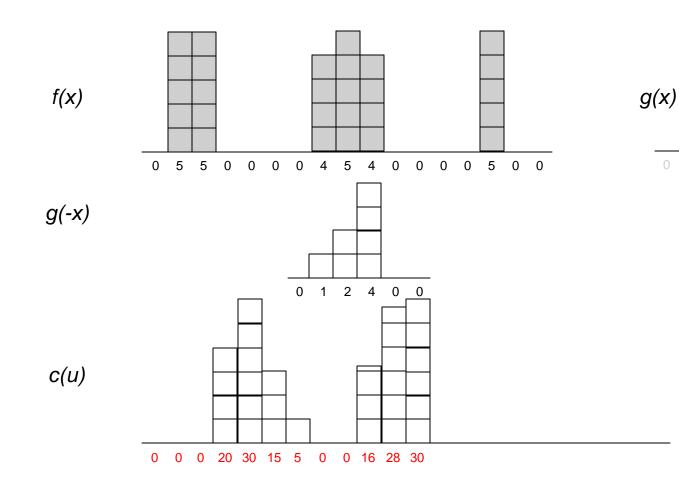


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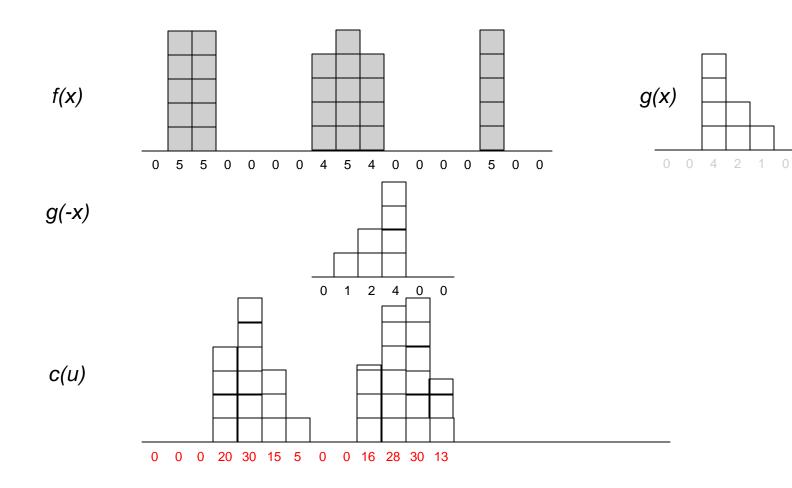
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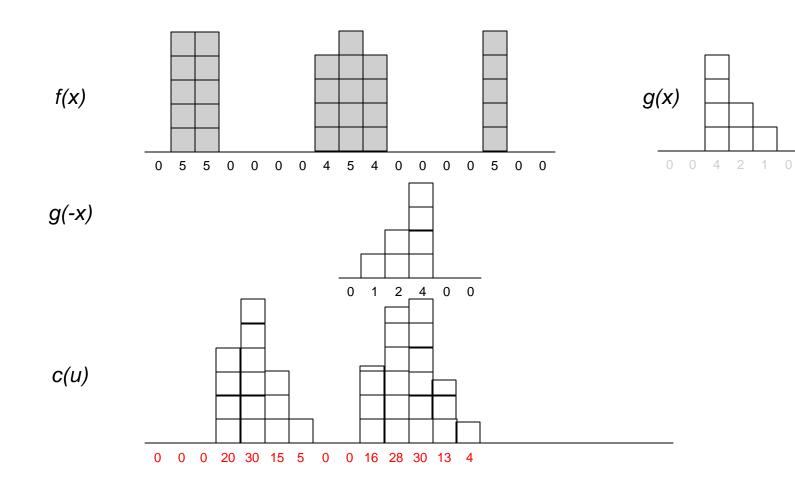
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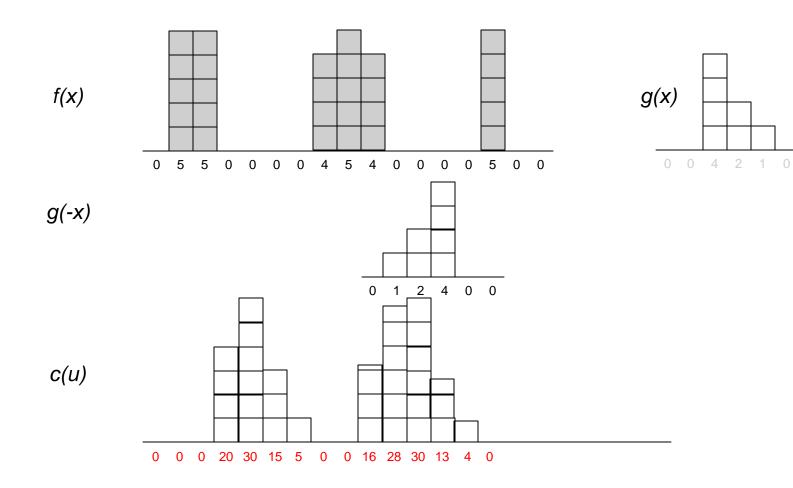
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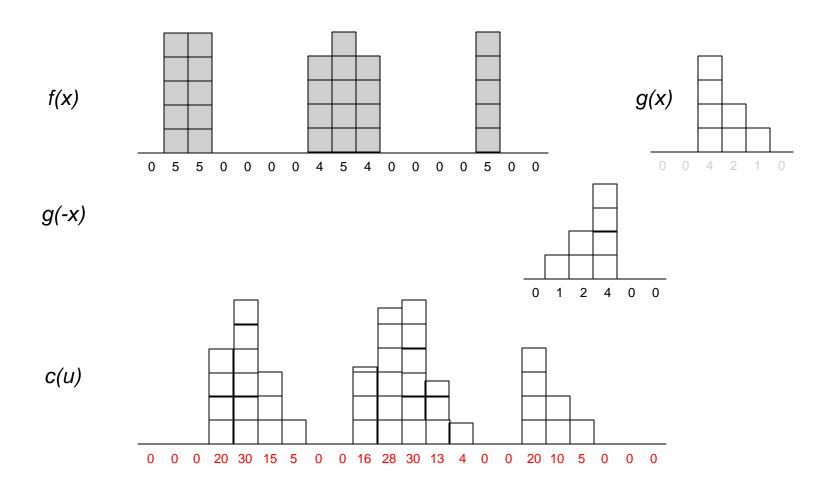
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III.C.6.g Convolution and Multiplication

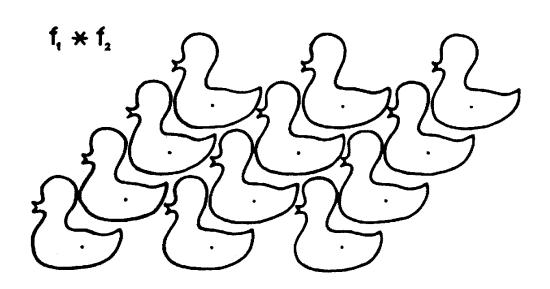
Convolution of hand and 2D lattice produces 2D crystal of hands

The way was have • • • my my my, · · <u>-</u> ***** • • f_1 • • • ٠ f_2 f_3

III.C.6.g Convolution and Multiplication

Convolution of Duck and 2D Lattice Produces 2D Crystal of Ducks

f,



f,

Convolution Theorem:

Provides a precise way to describe the relationship between objects (real space) and transforms (reciprocal space)

The Fourier transform of the **convolution** of two functions is the **product** of their Fourier transforms

$$T(f \star g) = F \times G$$

Symbols: * = convolution operation X = multiplication operation

f and g represent two separate functions F and G are the respective Fourier transforms

Convolution Theorem:

The Fourier transform of the **convolution** of two functions is the **product** of their Fourier transforms

 $T(f * g) = F \times G$

The **converse** relationship also holds:

The Fourier transform of the **product** of two functions is equal to the **convolution** of the transforms of the individual functions

$$T(f \ge g) = F \ast G$$

III.C.6.g Convolution and Multiplication

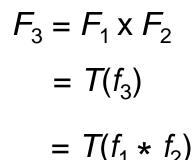
Crystal Structure: $f_3 = f_1 * f_2$ (f_1 = unit cell contents; f_2 = real space lattice) (real space)

Equivalent to the convolution of the **contents** of the unit cell (f_1) with a **finite lattice** (f_2)

The above equation can also be written as:

 $f_3 = T^{-1}(F_3)$ $f_3 = T^{-1}(F_1 \times F_2)$

Transform of Crystal Structure: (reciprocal space)



Equivalent to the transform of the unit cell **contents**, F_1 , multiplied (sampled) by the transform of the crystal lattice, F_2 (reciprocal lattice)

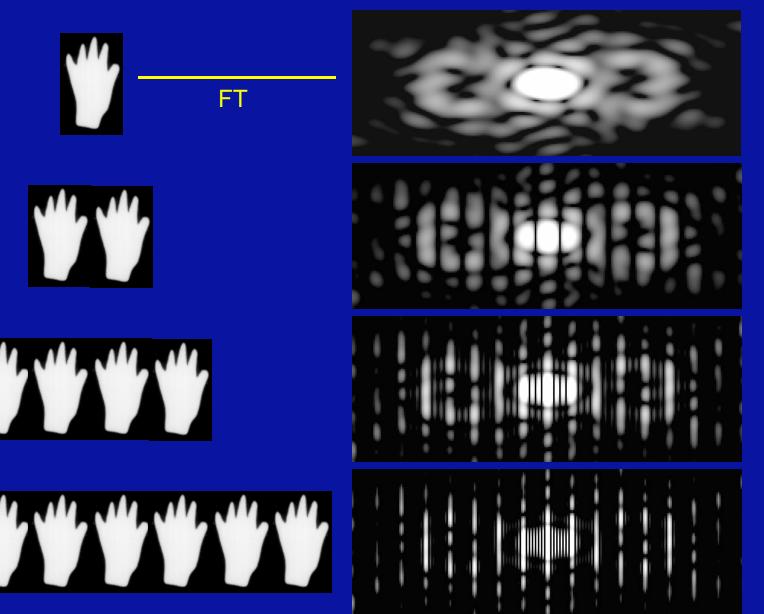
These examples are easy to conceptualize because, in each case, one of the functions (f_2 or F_2) is "**simple**" (*i.e.* an **array of points** or a lattice)

In the reciprocal lattice, the **sampling interval** is **reciprocally related** to the real space lattice repeat

- F_1 , the transform of the contents of the unit cell, is a **continuous function**
- F_3 , the transform of the crystal, is **discrete** (because F_2 is discrete)
- The crystal transform (F_3) is the transform of the single unit cell "sampled" at the reciprocal lattice points

Values of the Fourier transform at the reciprocal lattice points are called the **structure factors** (*F*_{hkl})

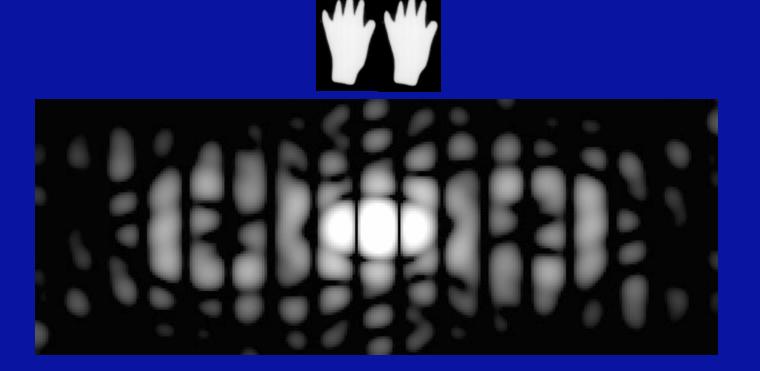
1-D lattices give rise to transforms sampled in only one direction



1 hand

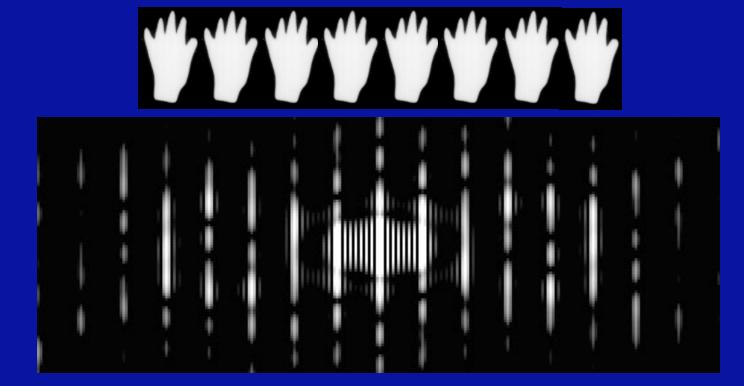














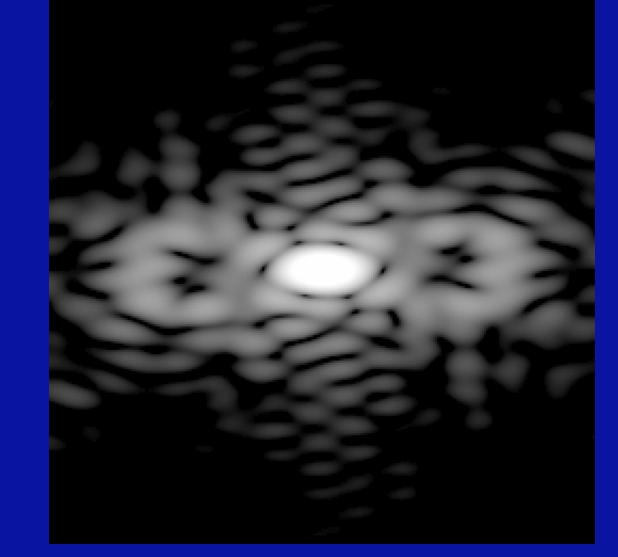
1-D lattices give rise to transforms sampled in only one direction

2-D lattices produce sampling on a 2-D grid or reciprocal lattice

Example 1: Orthogonal 2-D lattice

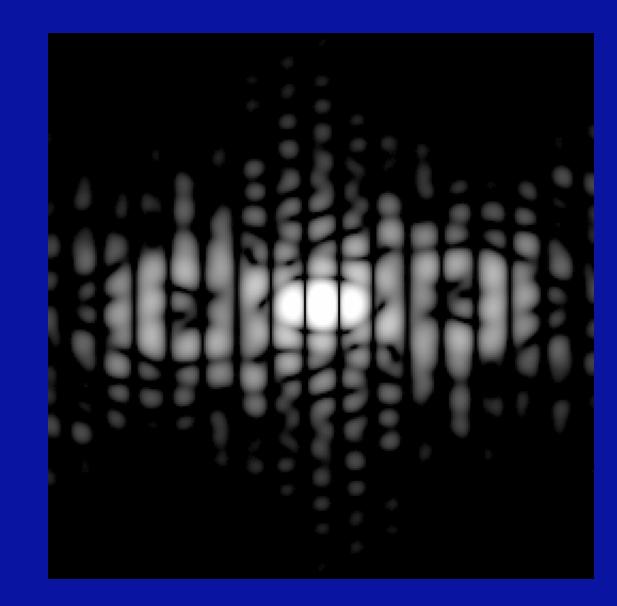
1 hand

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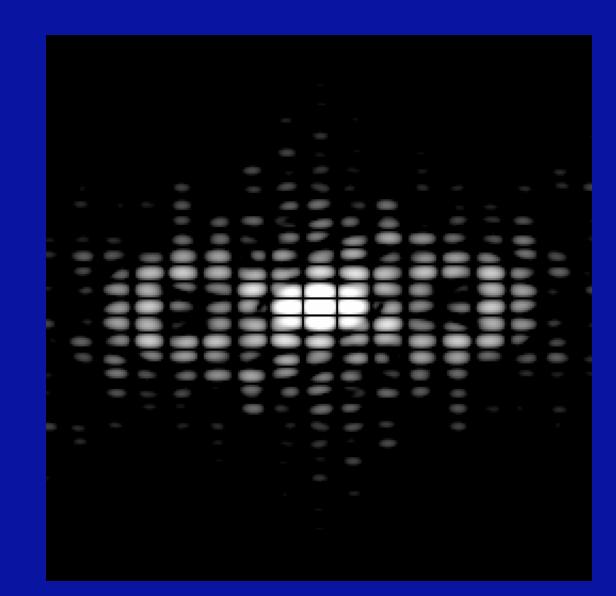
2 x 1 crystal



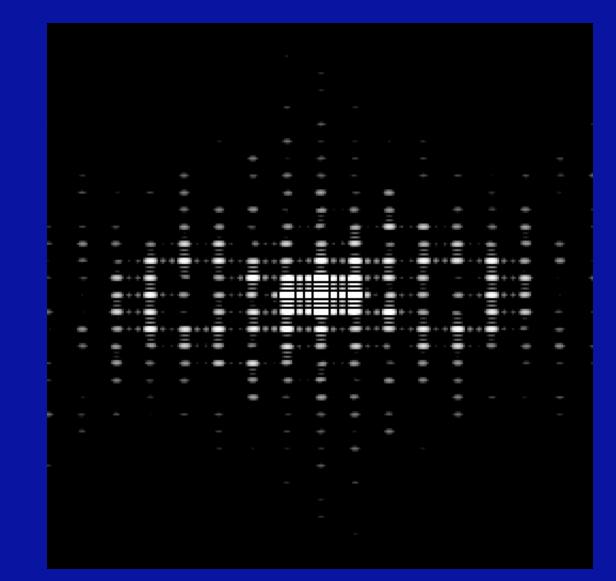


2 x 2 crystal





4 x 4 crystal



8 x 8 crystal

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16 x 8 crystal

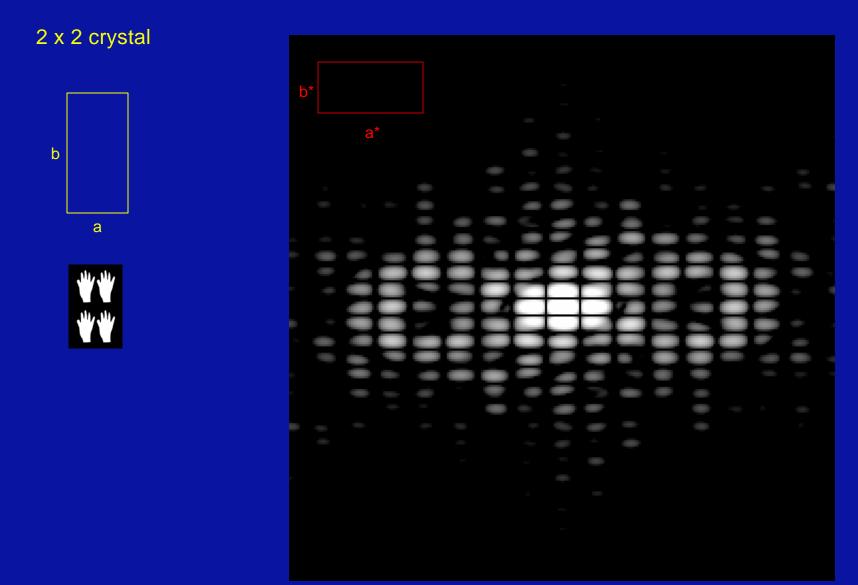
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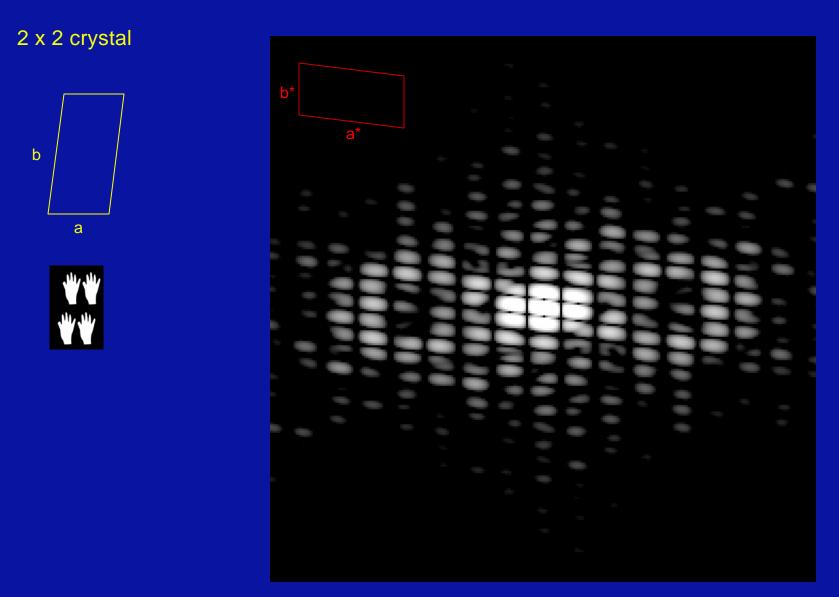
III.C.6 Diffraction III.C.6.g Convolution and Multiplication

1-D lattices give rise to transforms sampled in only one direction

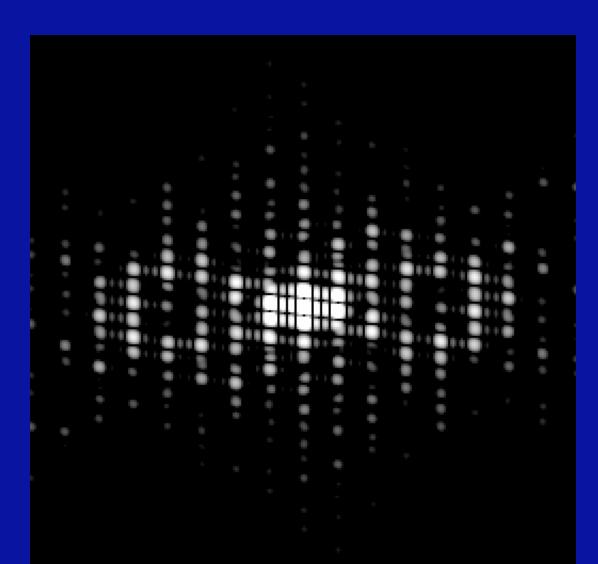
2-D lattices produce sampling on a 2-D grid or reciprocal lattice

Example 2: Non-orthogonal 2-D lattice

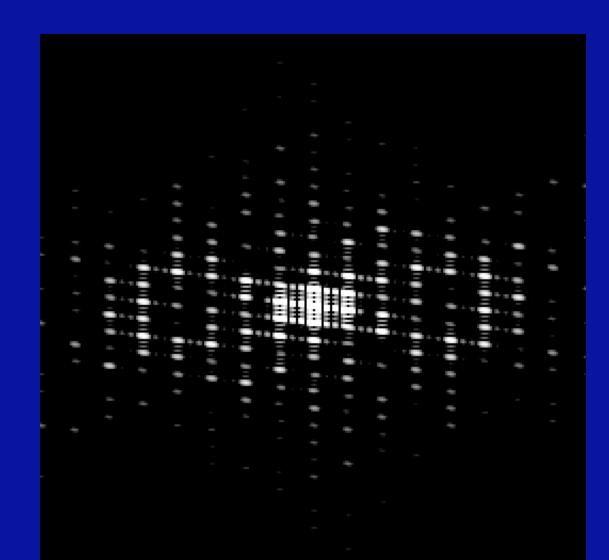




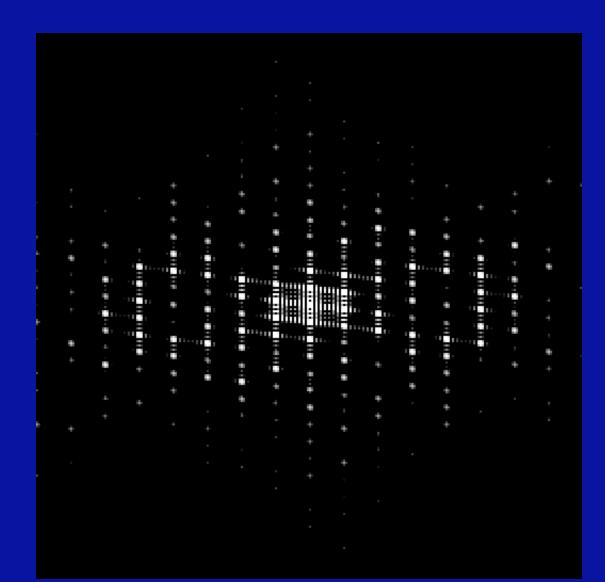
4 x 2 crystal



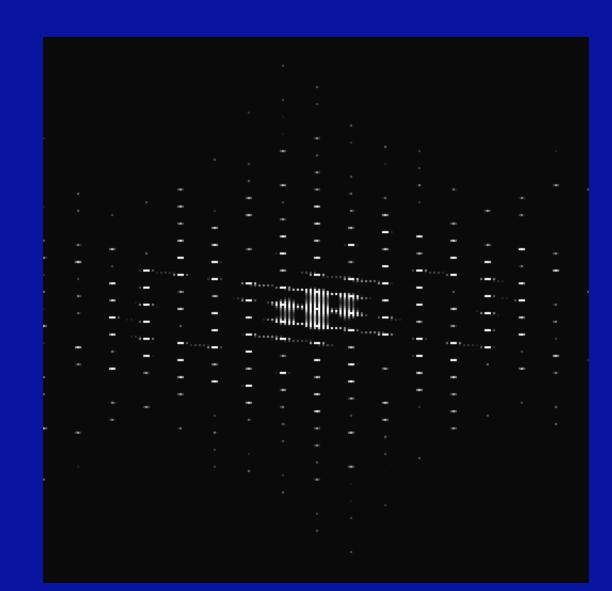
4 x 4 crystal



8 x 4 crystal



8 x 8 crystal



16 x 8 crystal

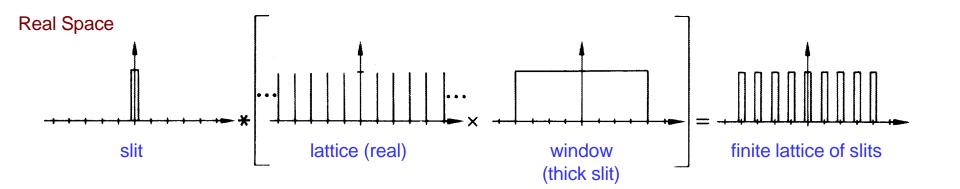
16 x 8 crystal

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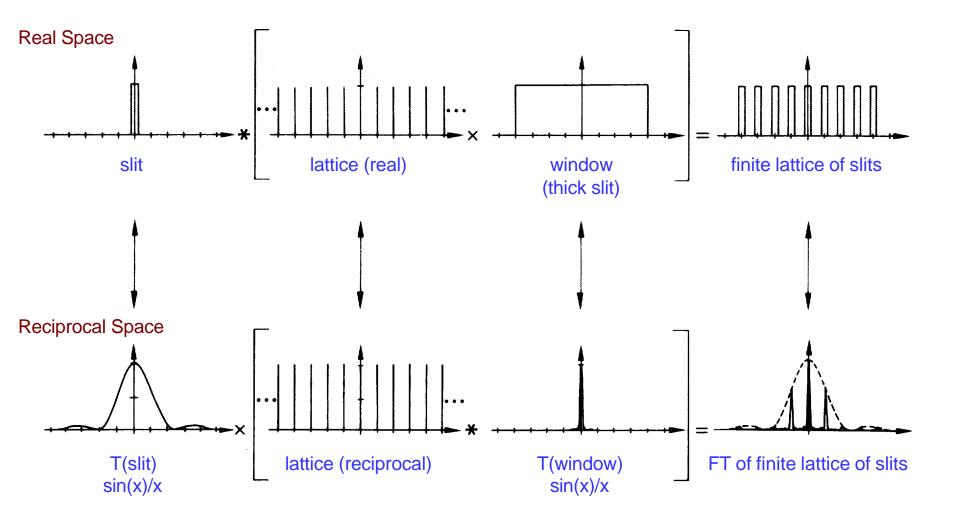
III.C.6 Diffraction III.C.6.g Convolution and Multiplication

If the phase and amplitude (structure factor) at each point *hk* in the 2-D reciprocal lattice can be obtained, the **crystal and motif structures** can be solved by **mathematical** Fourier synthesis (inverse Fourier transformation)

Diffraction Pattern of N Wide Slits (Fourier Transform and Convolution Relationships)



Diffraction Pattern of N Wide Slits (Fourier Transform and Convolution Relationships)



From Sherwood, Fig. 7.21, p.255

III.C CRYSTALS, SYMMETRY AND DIFFRACTION

III.C.6 Diffraction

KEY CONCEPTS:

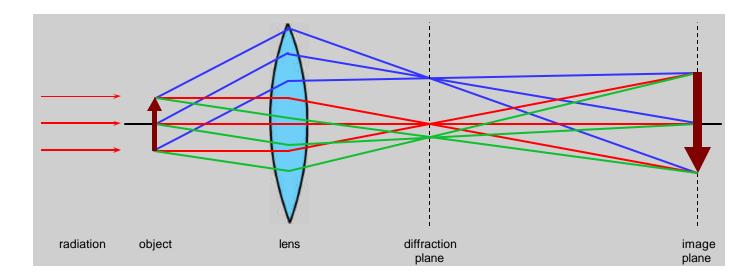
- Fourier transform
- Fourier Synthesis and Analysis
- Image formation is a double diffraction process
- Bragg's Law
- Structure factor and Argand diagram
- Convolution and multiplication

III.C.6.h Other Properties of FTs and Diffraction Patterns

- 1) Analogy between OD and "Mathematical" FTs
- 2) Asymmetric / Symmetric Objects / Transforms
- 3) Reciprocity
- 4) Resolution
- 5) Sharpness of Diffraction Spots
- 6) Geometry, Intensity and Symmetry
- 7) Projection Theorem
- 8) Friedel's Law

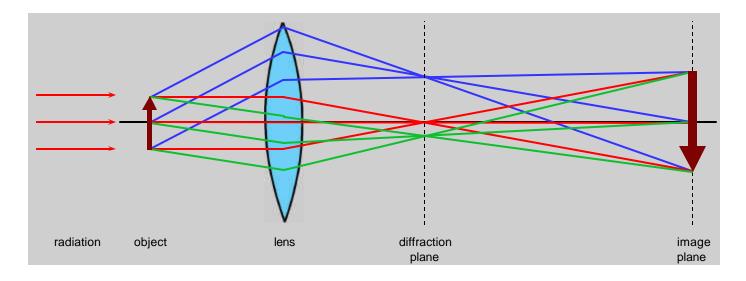
III.C.6.h Other Properties of FTs and Diffraction Patterns Analogy between OD and "Mathematical" FTs

Optical bench is an excellent device for demonstrating properties of Fourier transforms and diffraction patterns



III.C.6.h Other Properties of FTs and Diffraction Patterns

Analogy between OD and "Mathematical" FTs



Optical Diffraction:

- Incident radiation is laser beam
- Diffraction grating (object) is transparency (*e.g.* EM micrograph) or mask

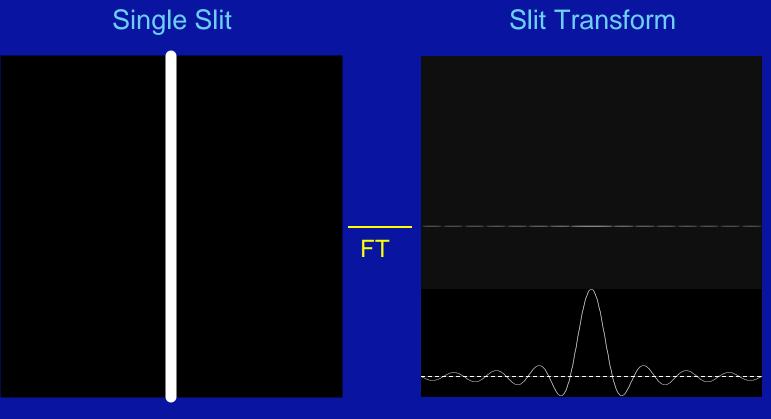
III.C.6.h Other Properties of FTs and Diffraction Patterns Asymmetric vs. Symmetric Objects and Their Transforms

Simple, symmetric structures \Rightarrow simple, symmetric transforms

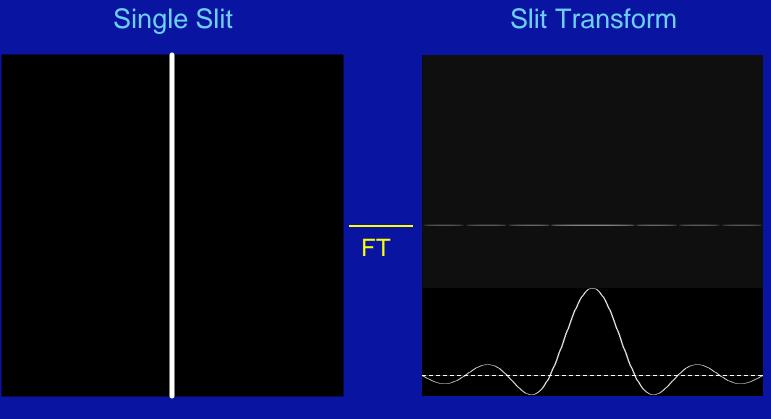
Asymmetric structures \Rightarrow complex transforms

Transforms are like **fingerprints**:

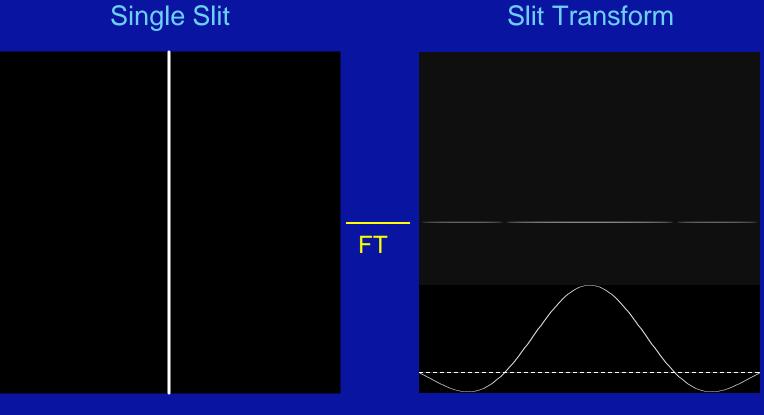
Specific object features often give rise to characteristic features in the transform



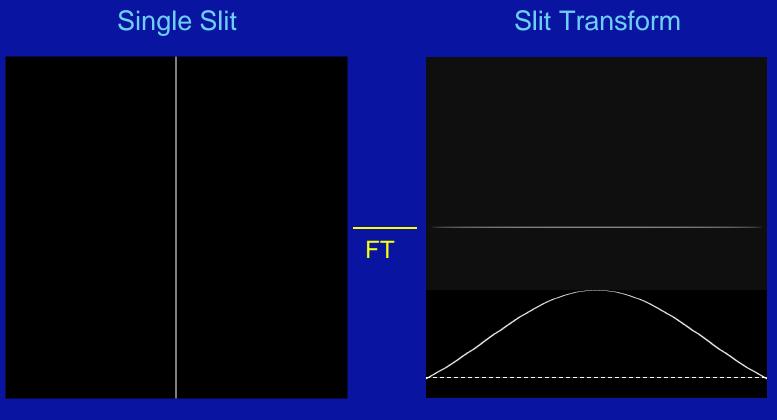




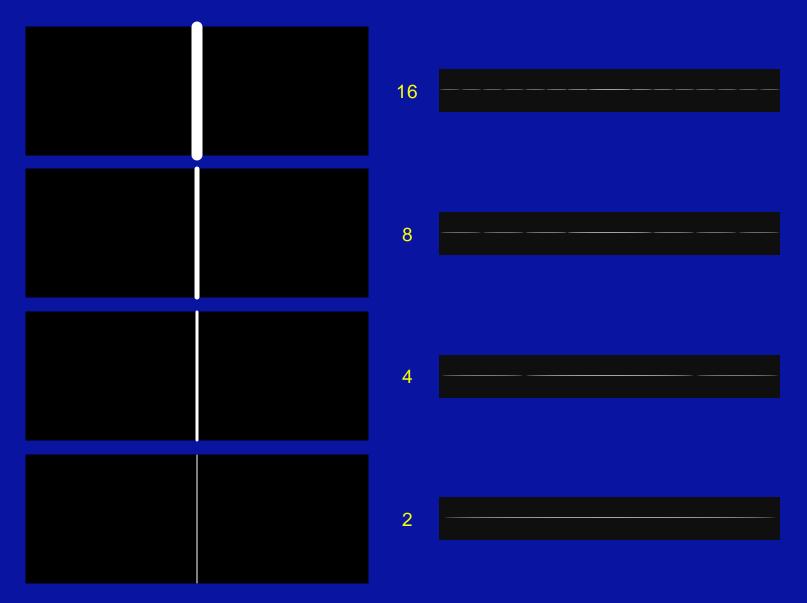
 $\frac{\sin(x)}{x}$

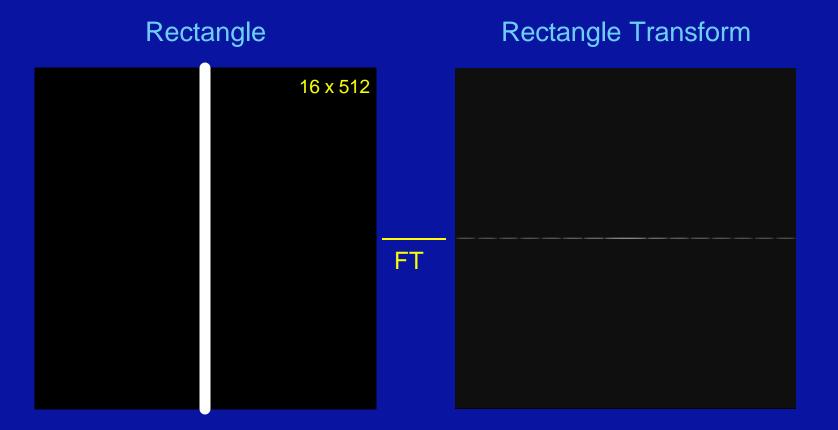


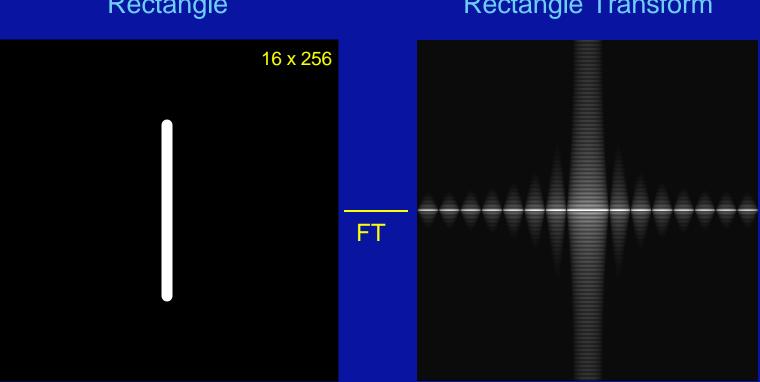






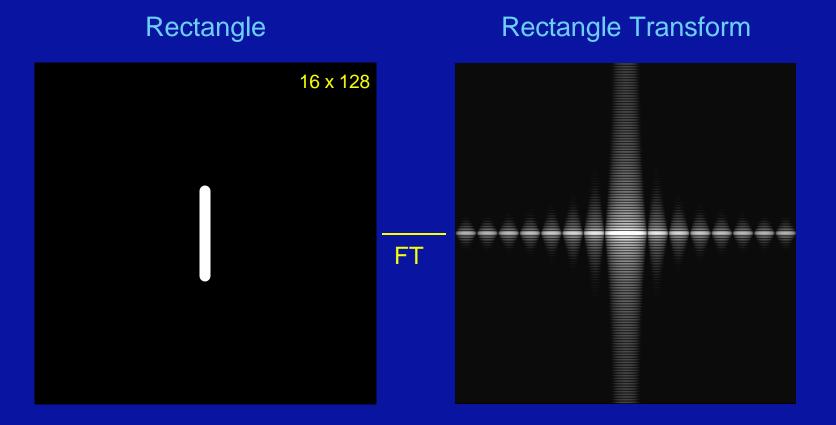


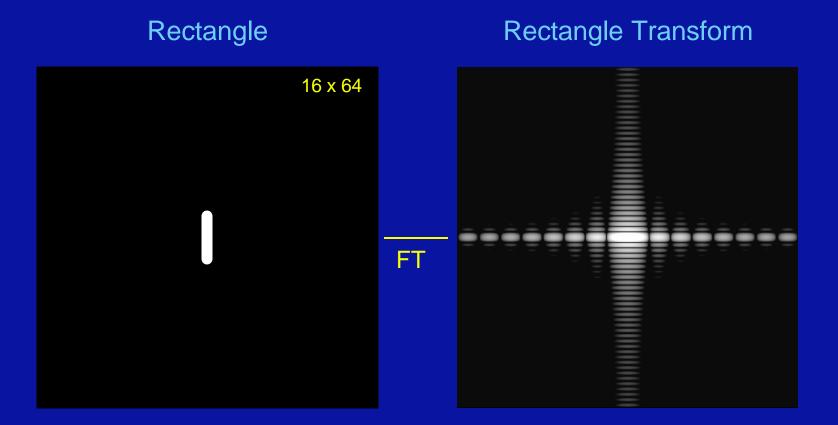


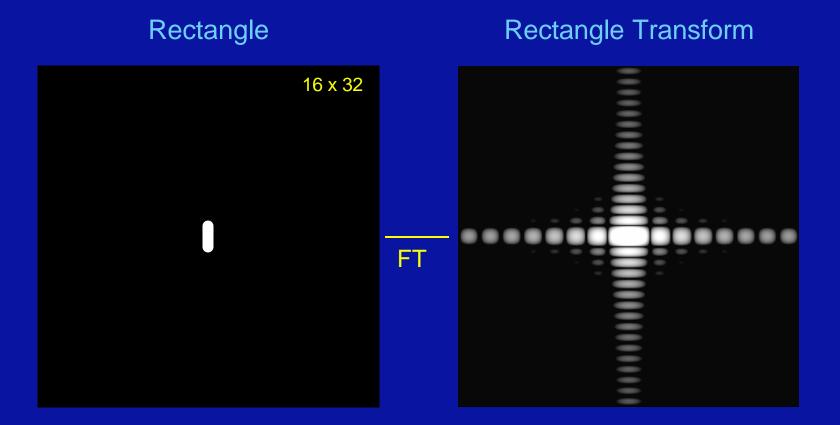


Rectangle

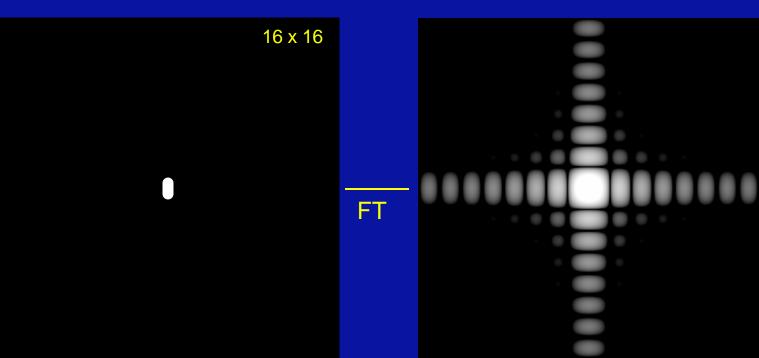
Rectangle Transform



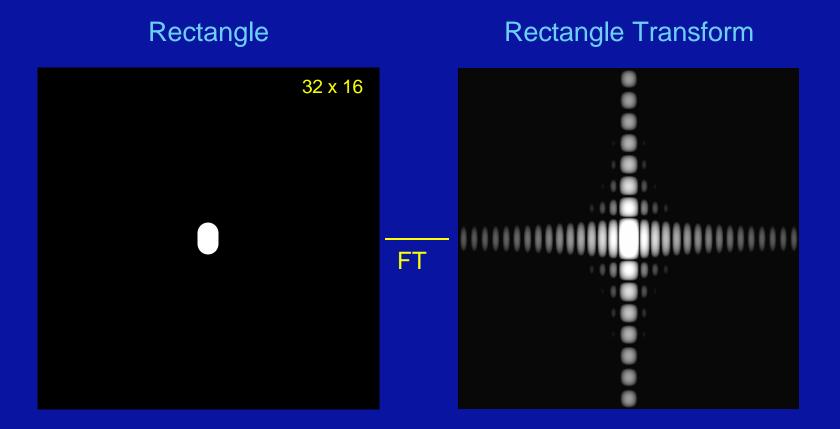


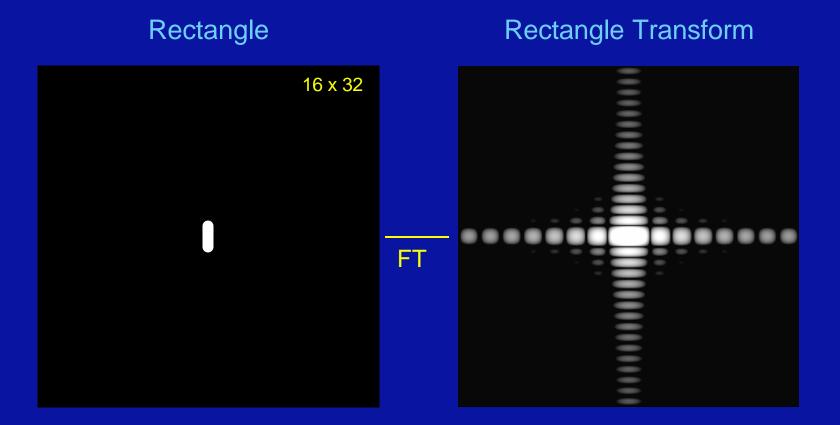


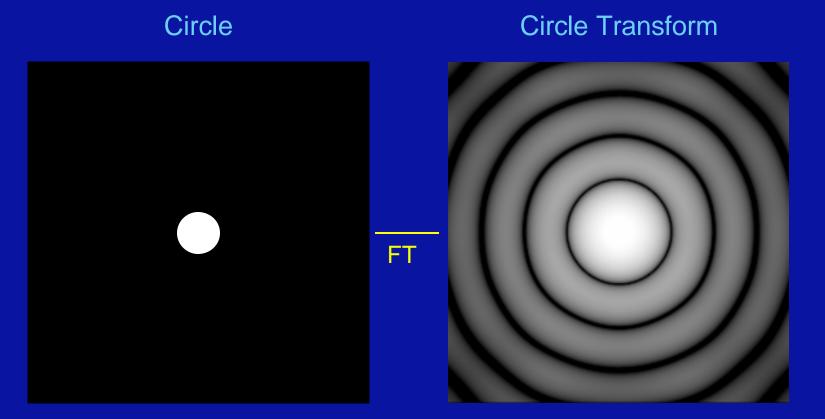
"Rectangle" Transform

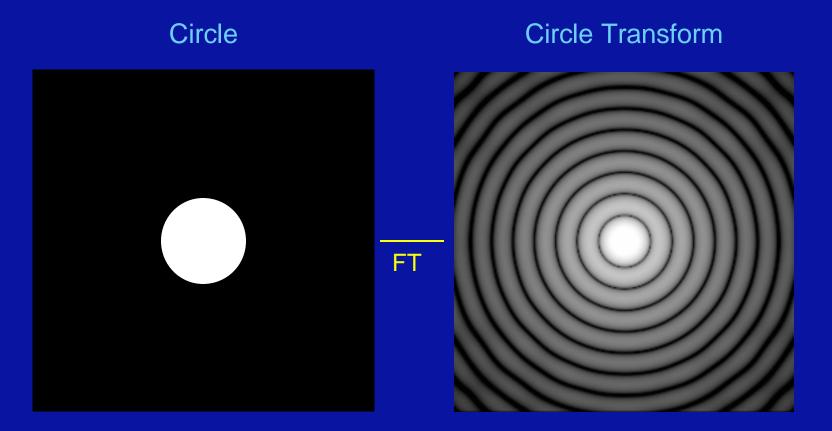


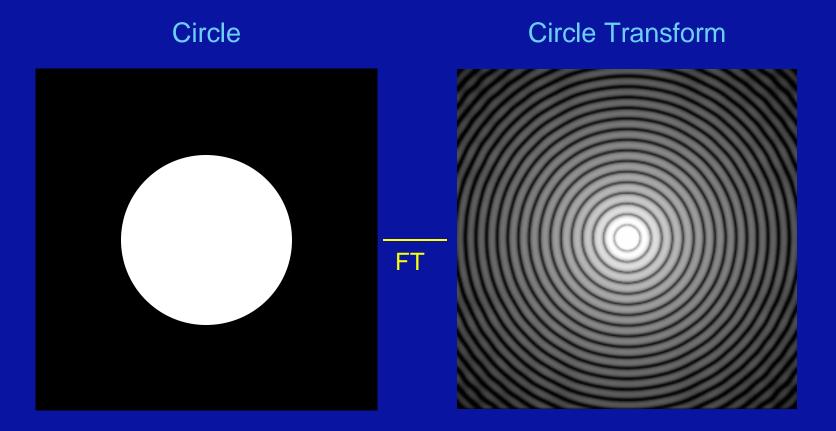
"Rectangle"

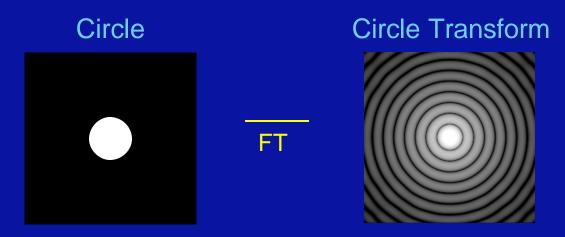






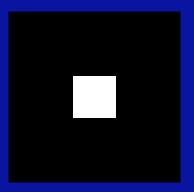




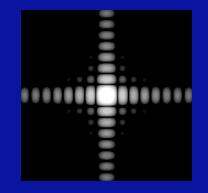


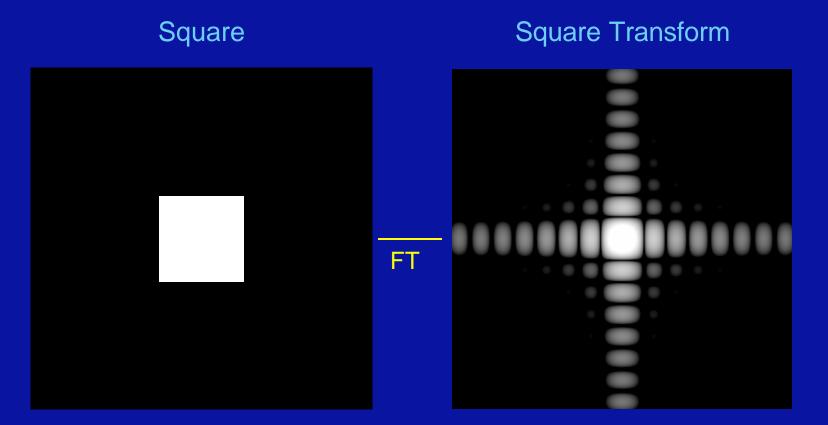
FT

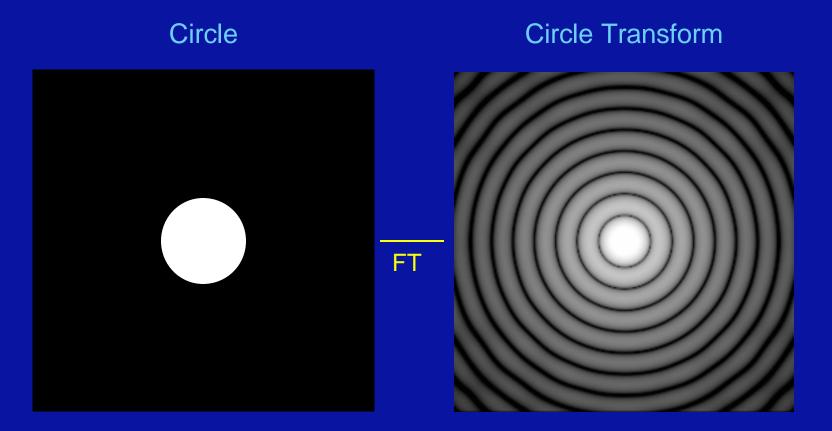
Square



Square Transform







III.C.6.h Other Properties of FTs and Diffraction Patterns Asymmetric vs. Symmetric Objects and Their Transforms

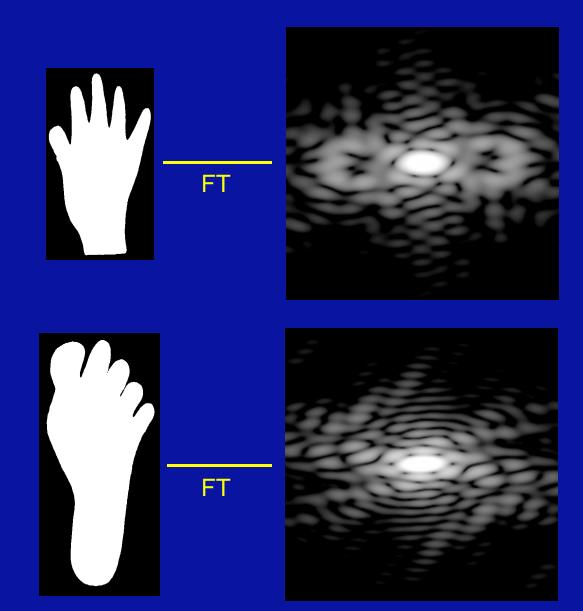
Simple, symmetric structures \Rightarrow simple, symmetric transforms

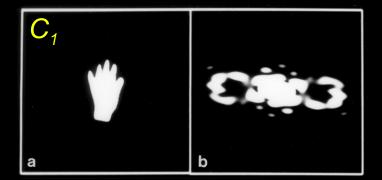
Asymmetric structures \Rightarrow complex transforms

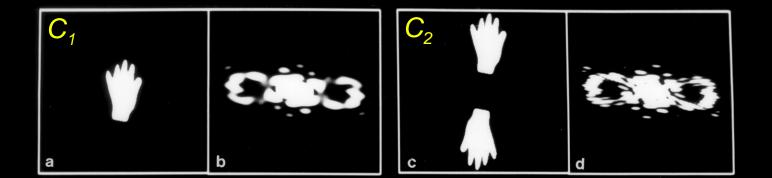
Transforms are like **fingerprints**:

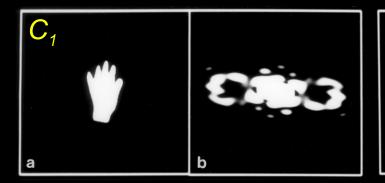
Specific object features often give rise to characteristic features in the transform

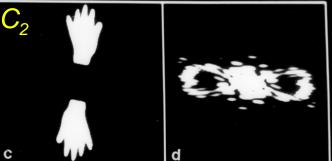
Asymmetric Objects and Their Transforms

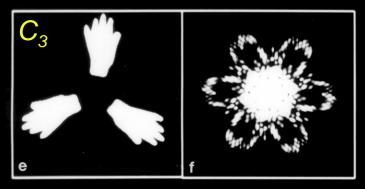


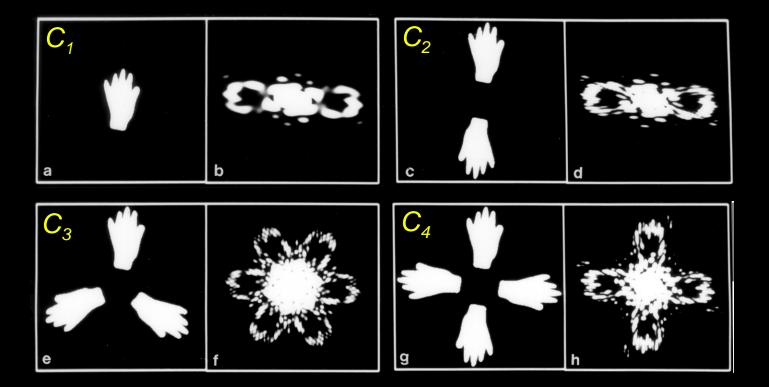


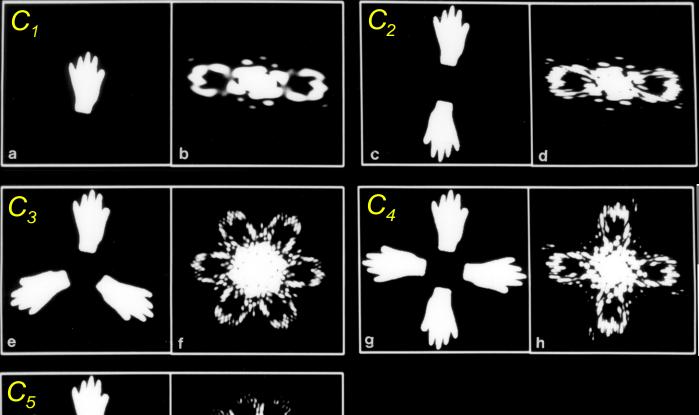


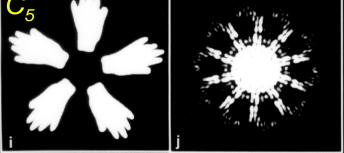


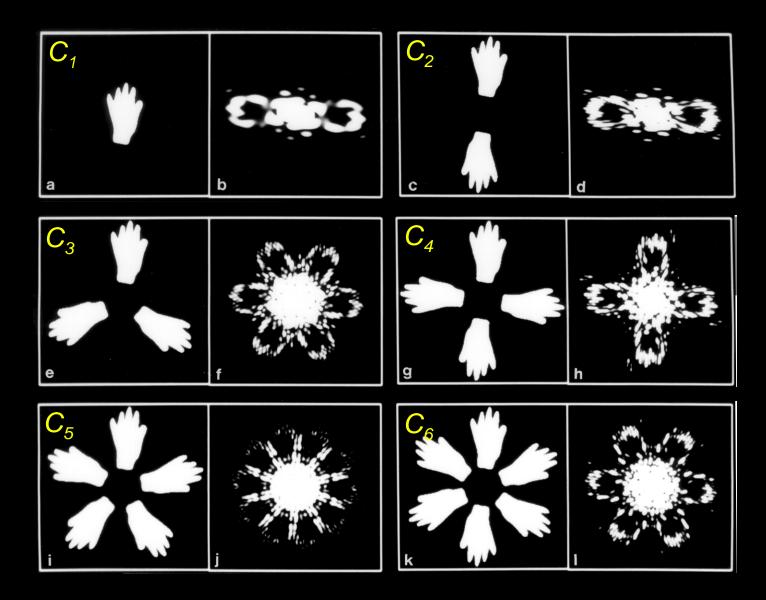












III.C.6.h Other Properties of FTs and Diffraction Patterns

Asymmetric vs. Symmetric Objects and Their Transforms

Structure can be regenerated by back transformation **ONLY** if the **amplitudes and phases** at **ALL** points of the FT are available

May be accomplished for:

Visible light (optical reconstruction)

Electrons (electron microscopy)

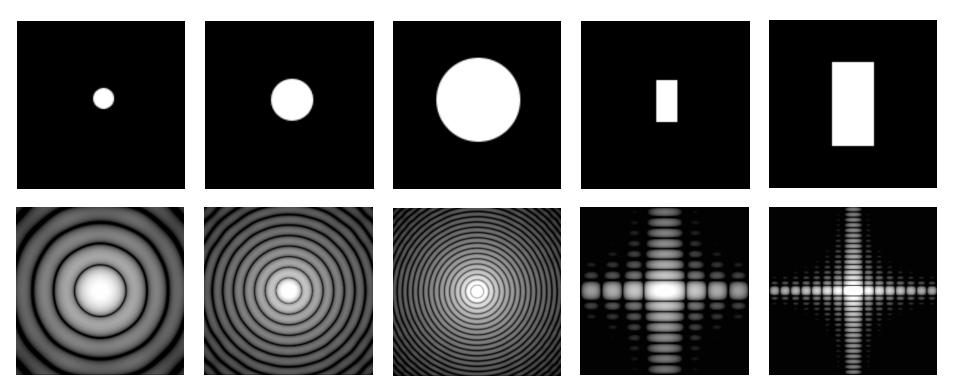
Can only be achieved by **mathematical** computation for:

X-rays and neutrons (phases indirectly measured)

Simple inspection of most transforms does NOT directly lead to a unique determination of structure

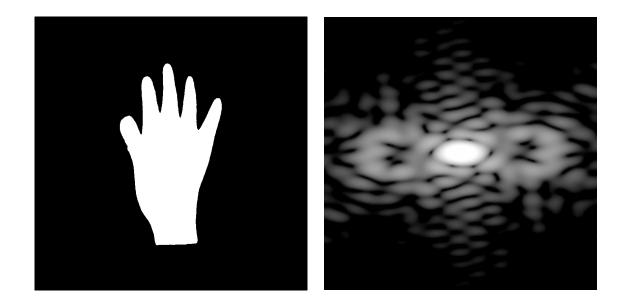
III.C.6.h Other Properties of FTs and Diffraction Patterns Reciprocity

Dimensions in object (**real space**) are **inversely** related to dimensions in the transform (**reciprocal space**)



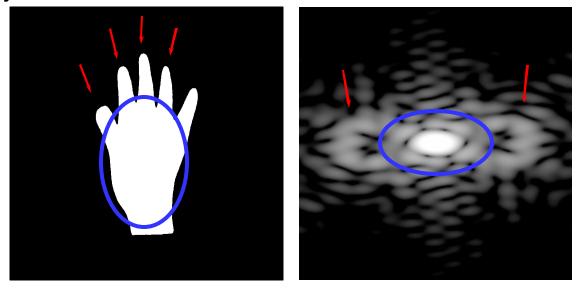
III.C.6.h Other Properties of FTs and Diffraction Patterns Reciprocity

Small spacings in object - represented by features spaced far apart in reciprocal space



III.C.6.h Other Properties of FTs and Diffraction Patterns Resolution

Outer regions of FT arise from fine (high resolution) details in the object



Coarse (low resolution) object features contribute near the central region of the FT

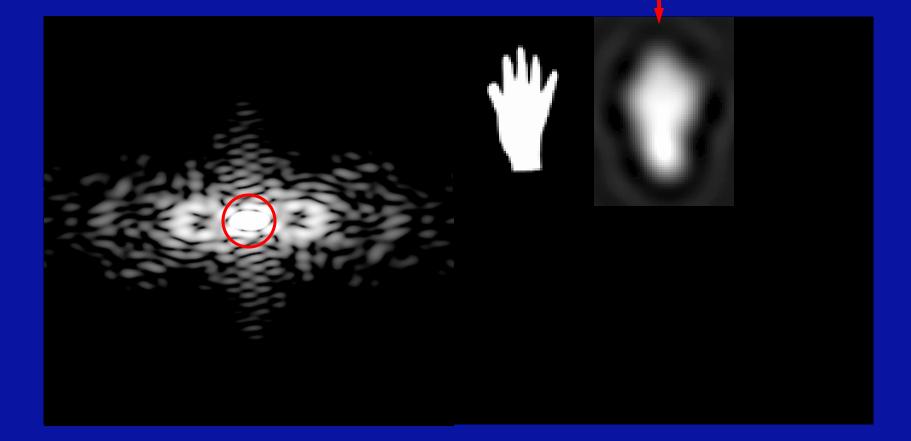
III.C.6 Diffraction III.C.6.h Other Properties of FTs and Diffraction Patterns Resolution

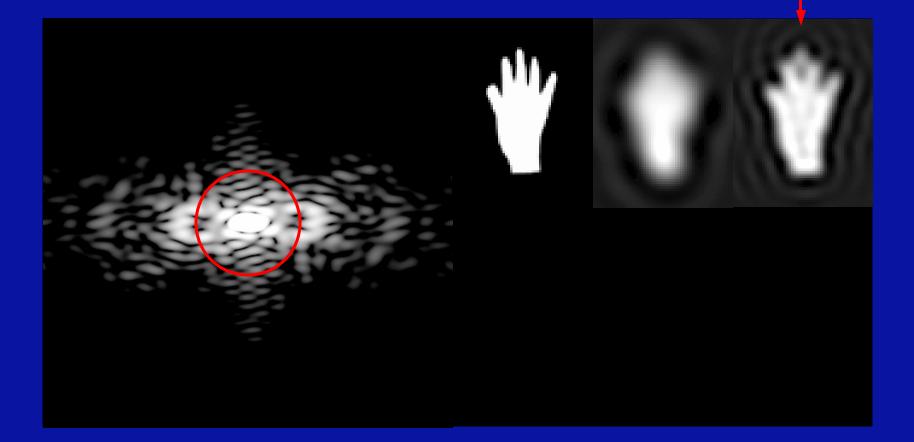
Low-pass/High-pass filtering

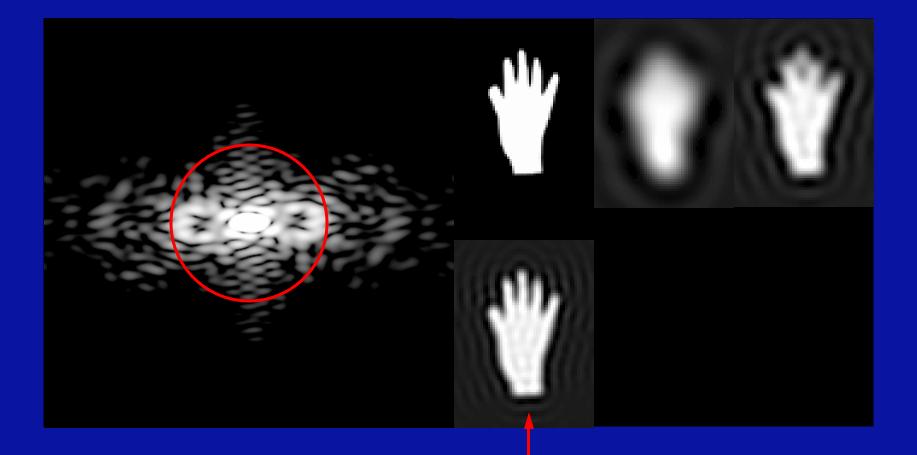
Low-pass: low-resolution features (near center of transform) are allowed to "pass" through filter and interfere (resynthesize) at image plane while high resolution features are removed

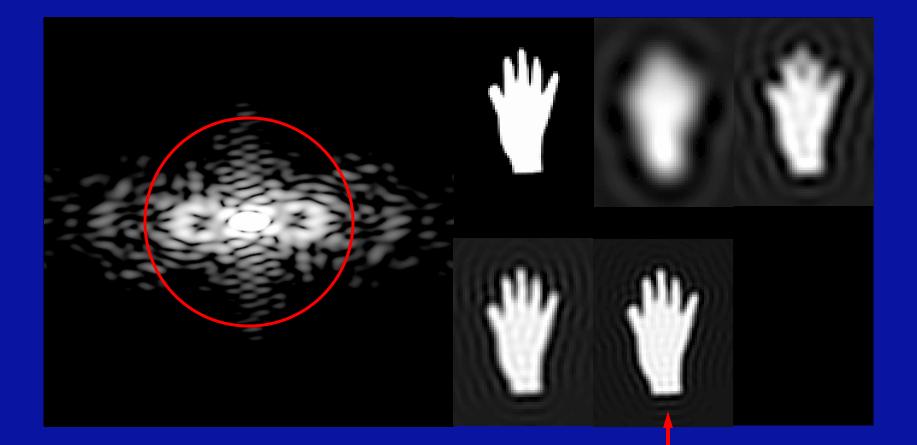
High-pass: low resolution Fourier components are removed (*i.e.* blocked by filter) while high resolution Fourier components are allowed to "pass" through filter and form an image (leads to accentuation of high resolution features such as edges)

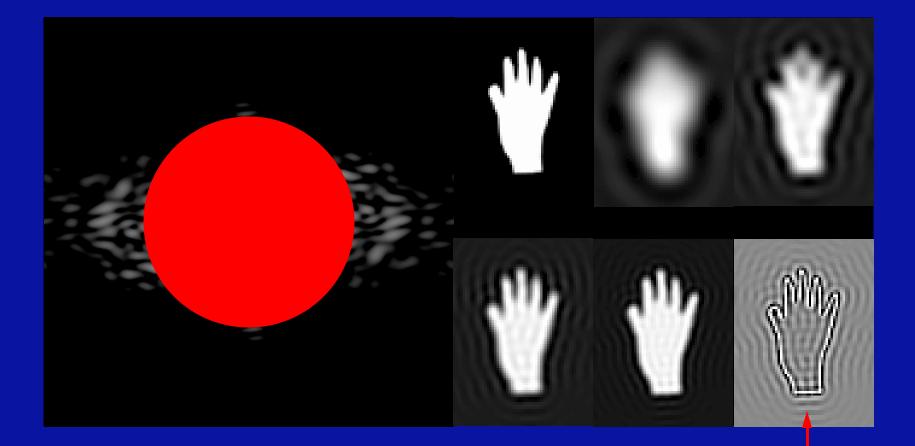


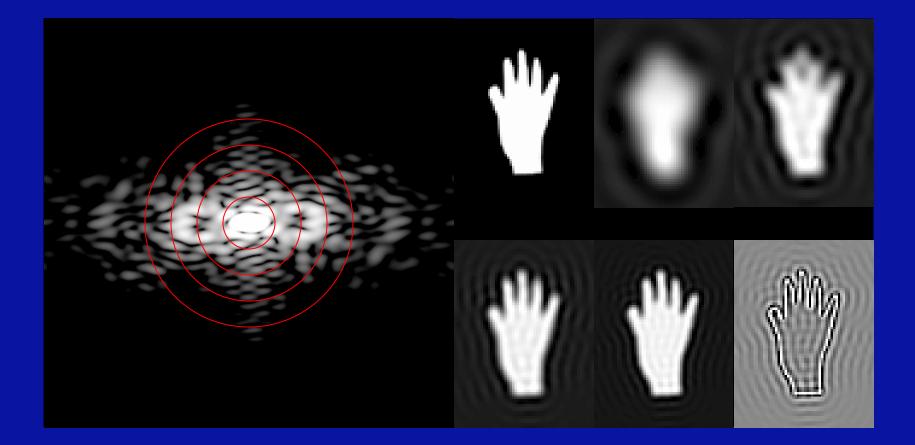


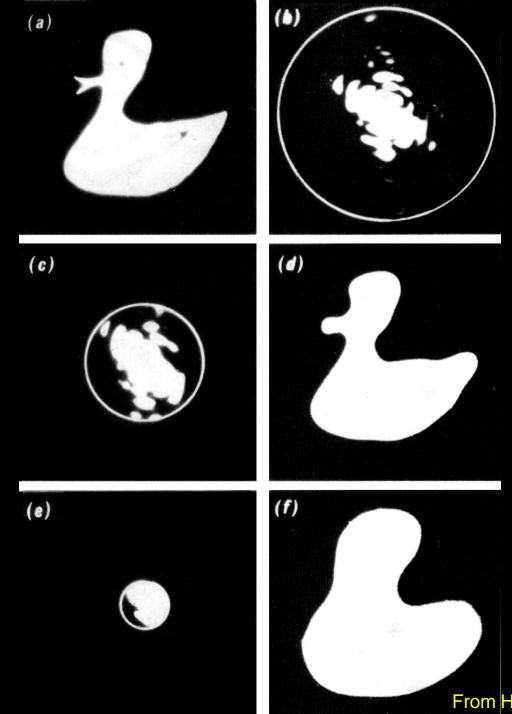












From Holmes and Blow, Fig. 3, p.120

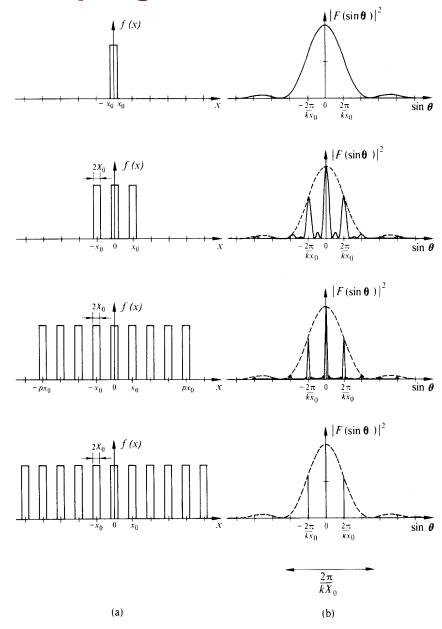
III.C.6.h Other Properties of FTs and Diffraction Patterns Sharpness of Diffraction Spots

Features in the diffraction pattern become sharper as the number of diffracting objects or the distance between them increases

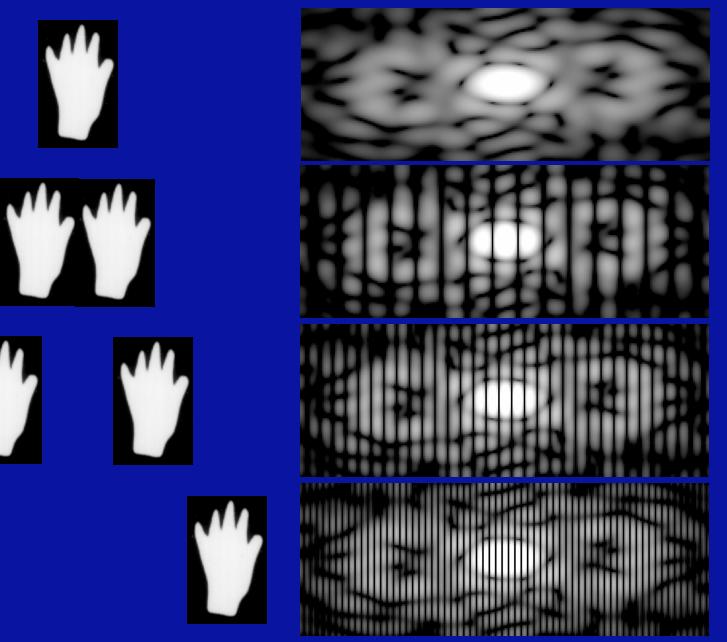
Sharpening reflects a situation of more complete, destructive interference away from the reciprocal lattice positions

Transform Sampling

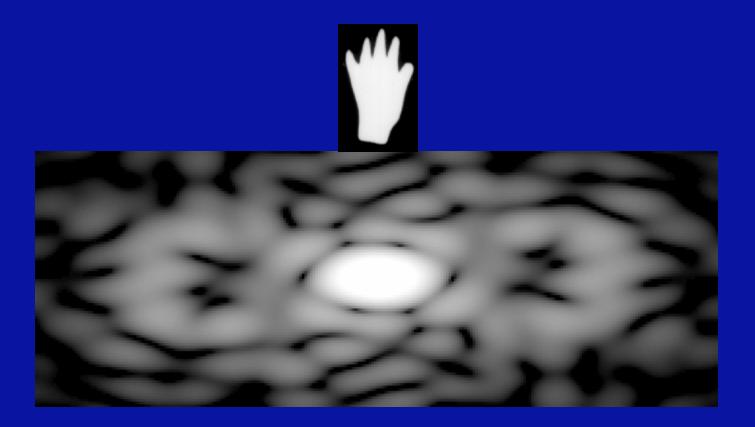
Diffraction patterns of one, three, nine and 8 number of slits

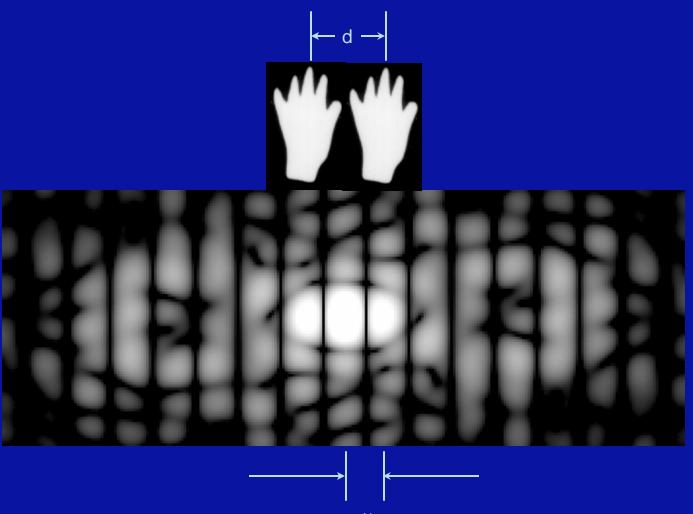


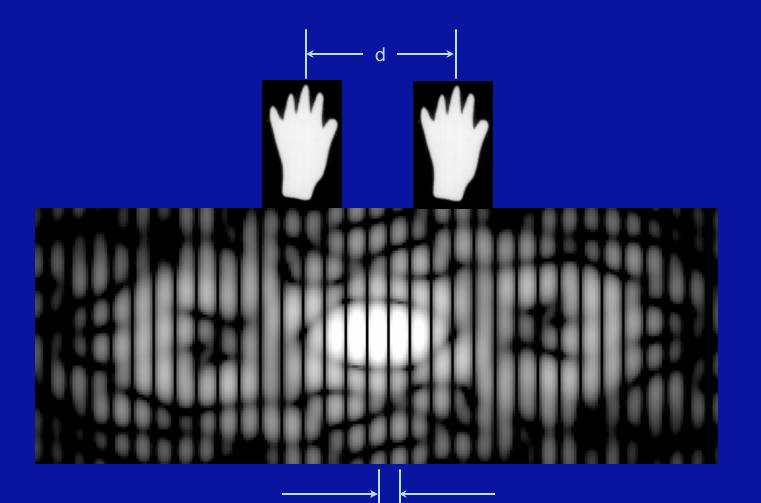
From Sherwood, Fig. 7.16, p.249

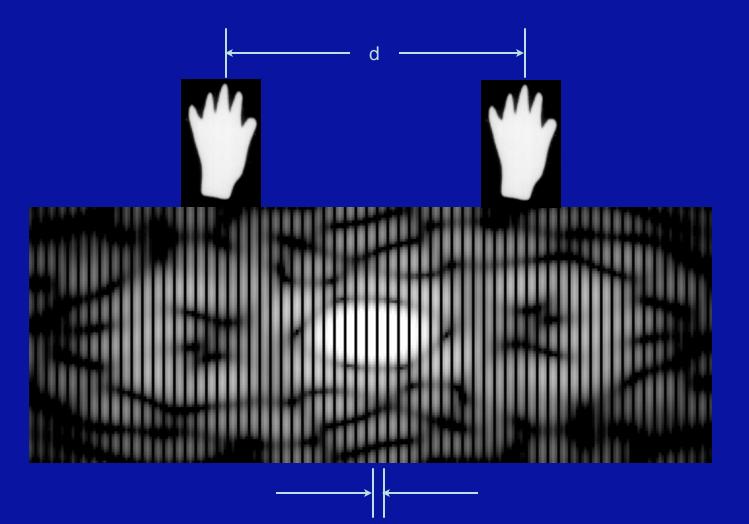












4-01-04

III.C.6.h Other Properties of FTs and Diffraction Patterns

- 1) Analogy between OD and "Mathematical" FTs
- 2) Asymmetric / Symmetric Objects / Transforms
- 3) Reciprocity
- 4) Resolution
- 5) Sharpness of Diffraction Spots
- 6) Geometry, Intensity and Symmetry
- 7) Projection Theorem
- 8) Friedel's Law

III.C.6.h Other Properties of FTs and Diffraction Patterns

Transforms are like **fingerprints**

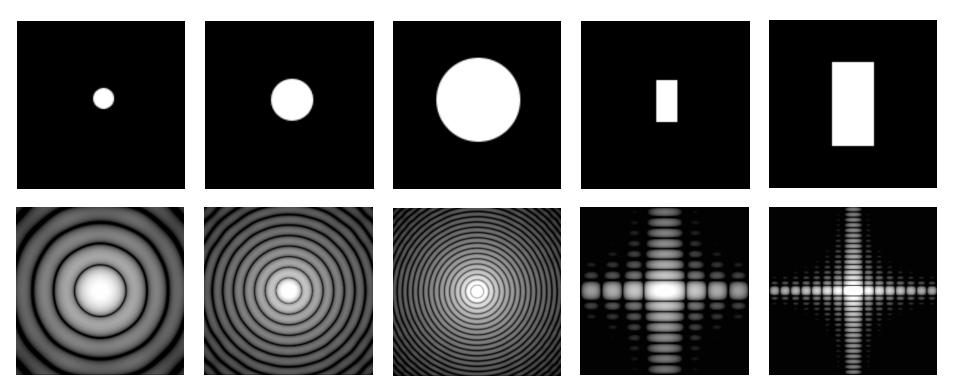
Asymmetric structures \Rightarrow complex transforms

Simple, symmetric structures \Rightarrow simple, symmetric transforms

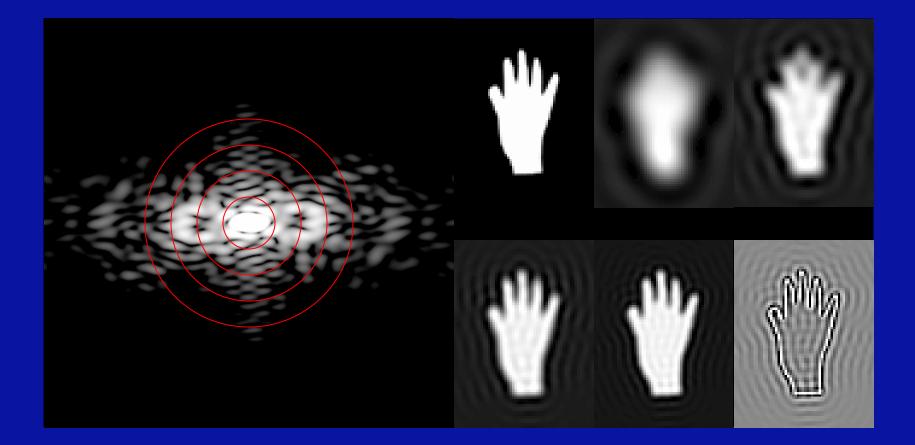
Simple inspection of most transforms does NOT directly lead to a unique determination of structure

III.C.6.h Other Properties of FTs and Diffraction Patterns Reciprocity

Dimensions in object (**real space**) are **inversely** related to dimensions in the transform (**reciprocal space**)



Fourier Transform Filtering



III.C.6.h Other Properties of FTs and Diffraction Patterns Sharpness of Diffraction Spots

Features in the diffraction pattern become sharper as the number of diffracting objects or the distance between them increases

Sharpening reflects a situation of more complete, destructive interference away from the reciprocal lattice positions

III.C.6.h Other Properties of FTs and Diffraction Patterns Geometry, Intensity and Symmetry

Geometry and spacings of the crystal and reciprocal lattices obey a reciprocal relationship

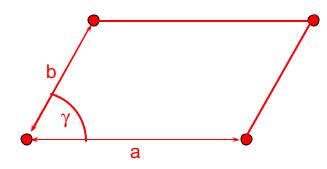
$$d^* = \frac{K}{d\sin g^*}$$

and
$$g^* = 180 - g$$

- d = unit cell spacing (a or b)
- $d^* = \text{reciprocal}$ lattice spacing ($a^* \text{ or } b^*$)
- g = angle between unit cell axes
- g^* = angle between reciprocal lattice axes
- K = constant of diffraction (= λL)
- λ = wavelength of monochromatic radiation
- L = camera length (distance from specimen to diffraction plane)

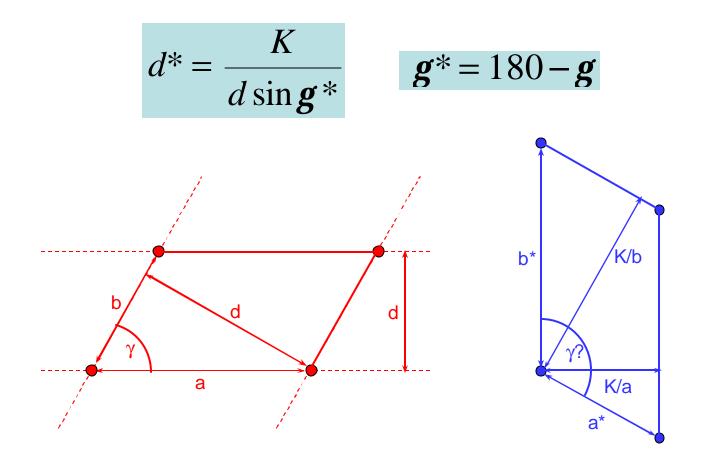
Geometry, Intensity and Symmetry

$$d^* = \frac{K}{d\sin g^*} \qquad g^* = 180 - g$$



Real Lattice

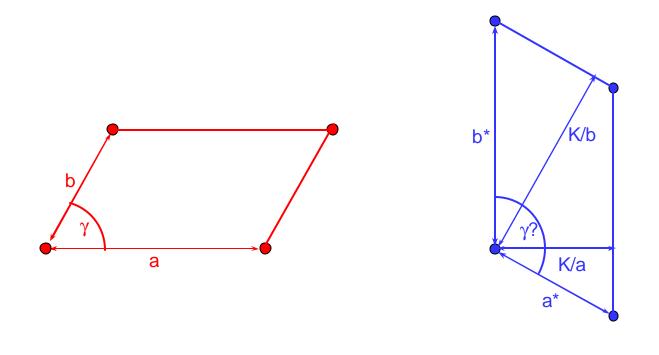
Geometry, Intensity and Symmetry



Real Lattice

Reciprocal Lattice

The reciprocal lattice edges, of dimensions *a*^{*} and *b*^{*}, are respectively perpendicular to the cell edges *b* and *a*

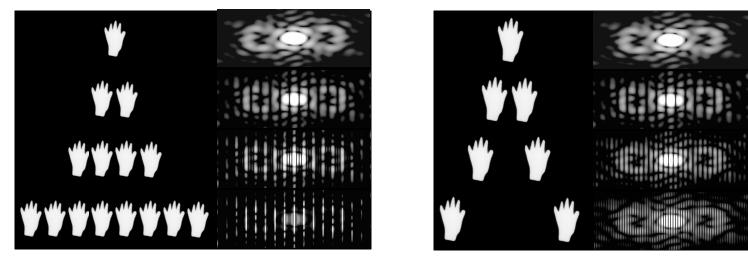


Real Lattice

Reciprocal Lattice

Each spot is indexed according to its position in the reciprocal lattice, and is considered to arise by diffraction from a set of density (Bragg) planes/lines in the 3-D/2-D crystal

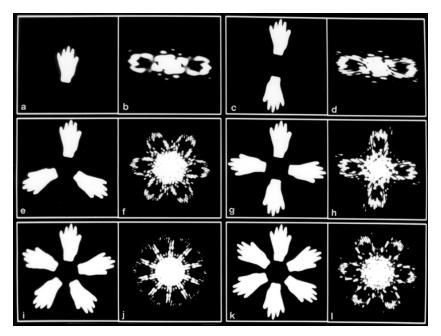
Motif structure, NOT spacings or geometry of crystal lattice, determine the intensity distribution in transform



Spacings and geometry of crystal lattice only determine where the motif transform is sampled

Structural symmetry produces symmetrical intensity distributions in the transform (aside from Friedel symmetry)

Object rotational symmetry	Transform rotational symmetry
<i>n</i> even	n
<i>n</i> odd	2 <i>n</i>

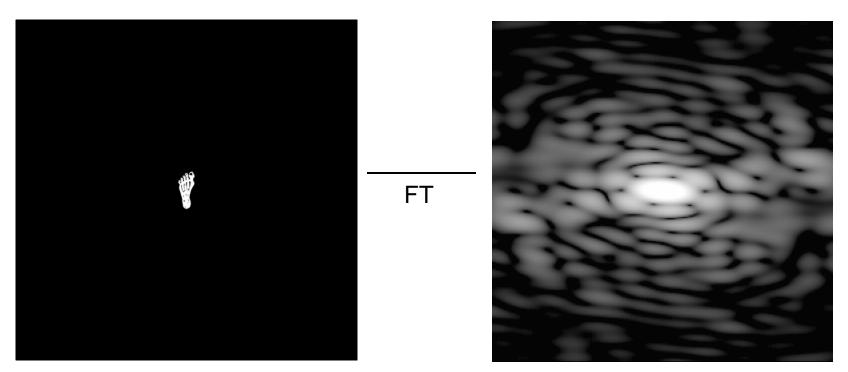


One of major reasons why OD is powerful method for diagnosing presence of symmetry in biological specimens

Screw-axis symmetry in a crystal produces systematic absences in the transforms

Foot

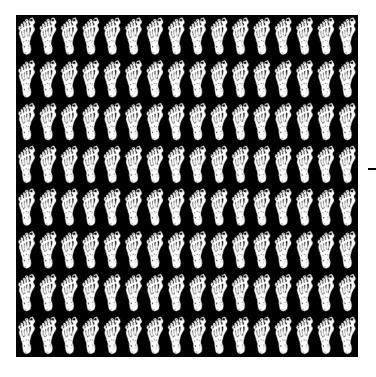
Foot Transform



Geometry, Intensity and Symmetry

FT

Foot p1 Crystal

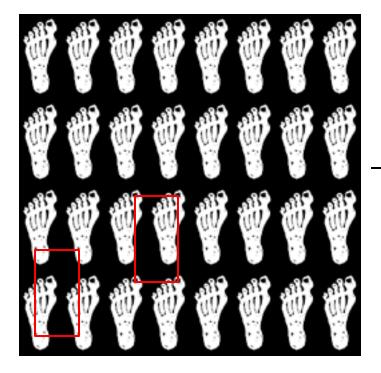


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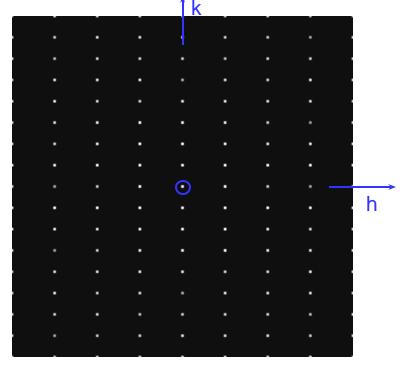
Geometry, Intensity and Symmetry

FT

Foot p1 Crystal



Foot p1 Crystal Transform



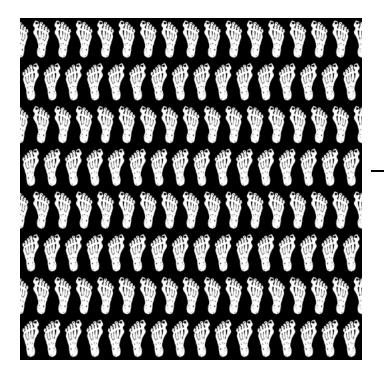


b

Geometry, Intensity and Symmetry

FT

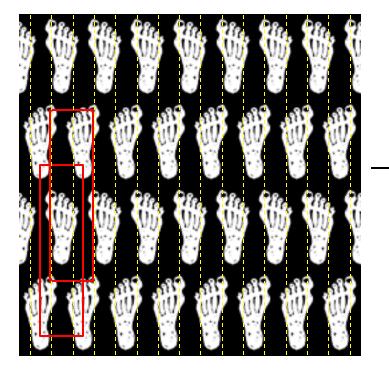
Foot pg Crystal

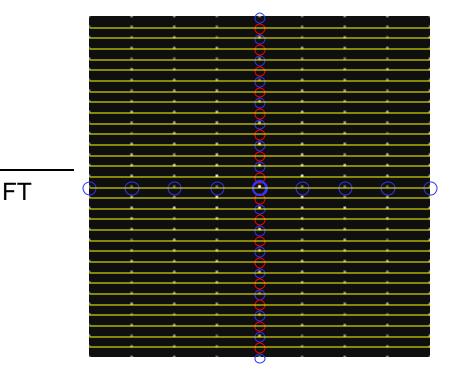


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Geometry, Intensity and Symmetry

Foot pg Crystal

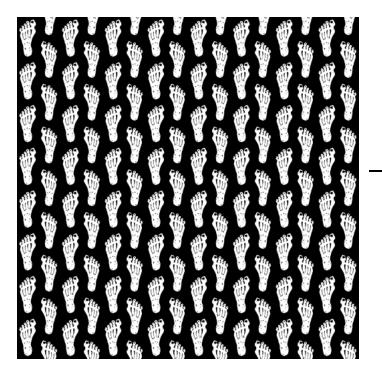




Geometry, Intensity and Symmetry

FT

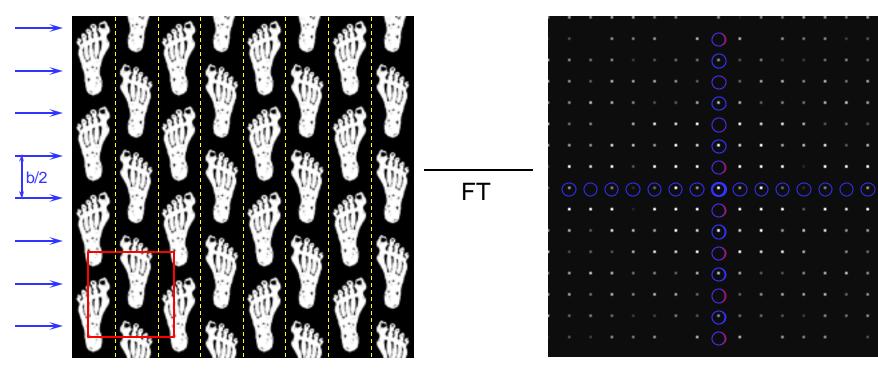
Foot pg Crystal



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Geometry, Intensity and Symmetry

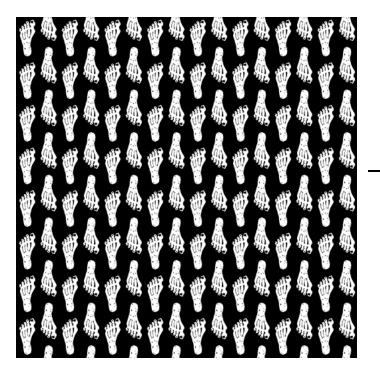
Foot pg Crystal



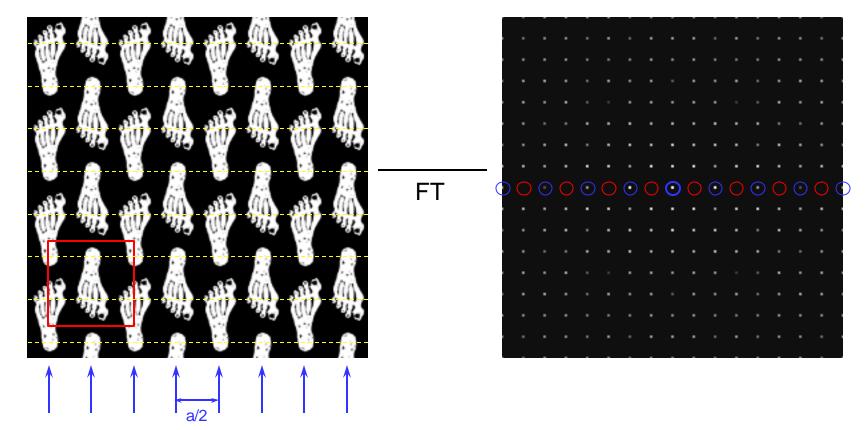
Geometry, Intensity and Symmetry

FT

Foot pg Crystal



Foot pg Crystal



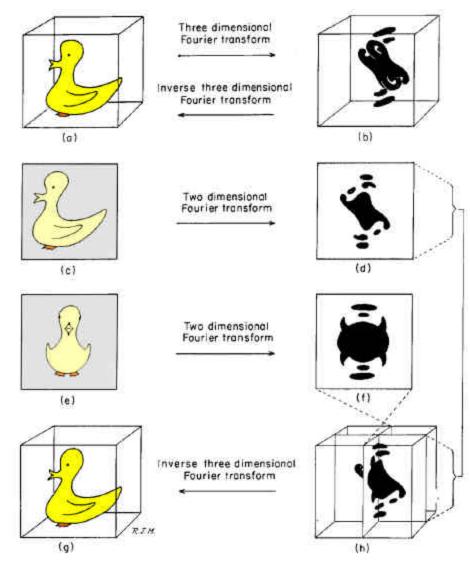
III.C.6.h Other Properties of FTs and Diffraction Patterns Projection Theorem

- FT of the **projected** structure of a **3-D** object is equivalent to a **2-D central section** of the 3-D FT of the object
- Central section **intersects the origin** of the 3-D transform and is perpendicular to the direction of projection

Basis of 3D reconstruction by Fourier methods:

- Several independent views of the projected structure are recorded and their 2-D transforms calculated to build up a complete 3-D transform
- 3-D structure is **reconstructed** from 2-D views by inverse Fourier transformation of 3-D FT

Projection Theorem



From Lake (Lipson), Fig. 14, p.174

III.C.6.h Other Properties of FTs and Diffraction Patterns Friedel's Law

Diffraction pattern from the projected structure of a real object has an **inversion center** in the **intensity** distribution

Amplitude at any point in the pattern is identical at a point equidistant and opposite in direction from the transform origin: $|F_{hkl}| = |F_{-h,-k,-l}|$

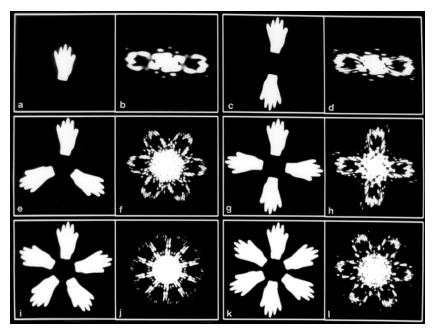
Phases at these two points are opposite: $a_{hkl} = -a_{-h,-k,-l}$

For periodic specimens with periodic patterns consisting of discrete spots (reflections), Friedel related spots are called **Friedel pairs**

III.C.6.h Other Properties of FTs and Diffraction Patterns Friedel's Law

Friedel symmetry causes the transform of **any real** object to display **2-fold** symmetry in the **intensity** distribution

Object rotational	Transform rotational
symmetry	symmetry
<i>n</i> even	n
<i>n</i> odd	2 <i>n</i>



III.C.6 Diffraction III.C.6.h Other Properties of FTs and Diffraction Patterns Friedel's Law

Optical diffraction:

Friedel's law generally fails (pattern does not exhibit perfect inversion symmetry in intensity distribution) because the object is a photographic transparency which causes irregular phase shifts of the incident radiation (laser light) as it passes through the emulsion and backing of the film

Mathematically computed diffraction patterns:

Should have PERFECT Friedel symmetry (if software is bug-free of course!)

End of Sec.III.C.6