X-Rays and X-Ray Diffraction

In 1895, W. C. Roentgen (1845–1923) discovered that when electrons were accelerated by a high voltage in a vacuum tube and allowed to strike a glass or metal surface inside the tube, fluorescent minerals some distance away would glow, and photographic film would become exposed. Roentgen attributed these effects to a new type of radiation (different from cathode rays). They were given the name X-rays after the algebraic symbol x, meaning an unknown quantity. He soon found that X-rays penetrated through some materials better than through others, and within a few weeks he presented the first X-ray photograph (of his wife’s hand). The production of X-rays today is usually done in a tube (Fig. 25–35) similar to Roentgen’s, using voltages of typically 30 kV to 150 kV.

Investigations into the nature of X-rays indicated they were not charged particles (such as electrons) since they could not be deflected by electric or magnetic fields. It was suggested that they might be a form of invisible light. However, they showed no diffraction or interference effects using ordinary gratings. Indeed, if their wavelengths were much smaller than the typical grating spacing of $10^{-6} \text{m} (= 10^3 \text{nm})$, no effects would be expected. Around 1912, Max von Laue (1879–1960) suggested that if the atoms in a crystal were arranged in a regular array (see Fig. 13–2a), such a crystal might serve as a diffraction grating for very short wavelengths on the order of the spacing between atoms, estimated to be about $10^{-10} \text{m} (= 10^{-4} \text{nm})$. Experiments soon showed that X-rays scattered from a crystal did indeed show the peaks and valleys of a diffraction pattern (Fig. 25–36). Thus it was shown, in a single blow, that X-rays have a wave nature and that atoms are arranged in a regular way in crystals. Today, X-rays are recognized as electromagnetic radiation with wavelengths in the range of about $10^{-7} \text{nm}$ to $10 \text{nm}$, the range readily produced in an X-ray tube.

We saw in Sections 25–7 and 25–8 that light of shorter wavelength provides greater resolution when we are examining an object microscopically. Since X-rays have much shorter wavelengths than visible light, they should in principle offer much greater resolution. However, there seems to be no effective material to use as lenses for the very short wavelengths of X-rays. Instead, the clever but complicated technique of X-ray diffraction (or crystallography) has proved very effective for examining the microscopic world of atoms and molecules. In a simple crystal such as NaCl, the atoms are arranged in an orderly cubical fashion, Fig. 25–37, with atoms spaced a distance $d$ apart. Suppose that a beam of X-rays is incident on the crystal at an angle $\phi$ to the surface, and that the two rays shown are reflected from two subsequent planes of atoms as shown. The two rays will constructively interfere if the extra distance ray I travels is a whole number of wavelengths farther than the distance ray II travels. This extra distance is $2d \sin \phi$. Therefore, constructive interference will occur when

$$mA = 2d \sin \phi, \quad m = 1, 2, 3, \ldots, \quad (25-10)$$

where $m$ can be any integer. (Notice that $\phi$ is not the angle with respect to the normal to the surface.) This is called the Bragg equation after W. L. Bragg (1890–1971), who derived it and who, together with his father W. H. Bragg (1862–1942), developed the theory and technique of X-ray diffraction by crystals in 1912–1913. If the X-ray wavelength is known and the angle $\phi$ is measured, the distance $d$ between atoms can be obtained. This is the basis for X-ray crystallography.