

Dyfrakcja elektronów wstecznie rozproszonych

Analiza punktowa

EBSĐ - Electron Backscatter Diffraction

EBSP - Electron Backscatter Pattern

BKP - Backscatter Kikuchi Pattern

Obrazowanie orientacji

COM - Crystal Orientation Mapping

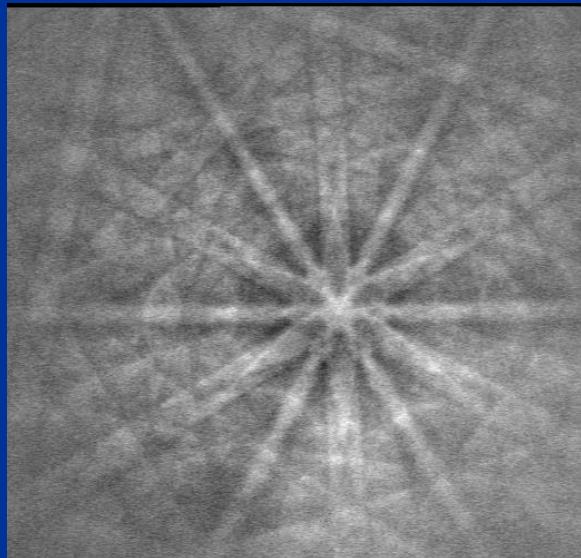
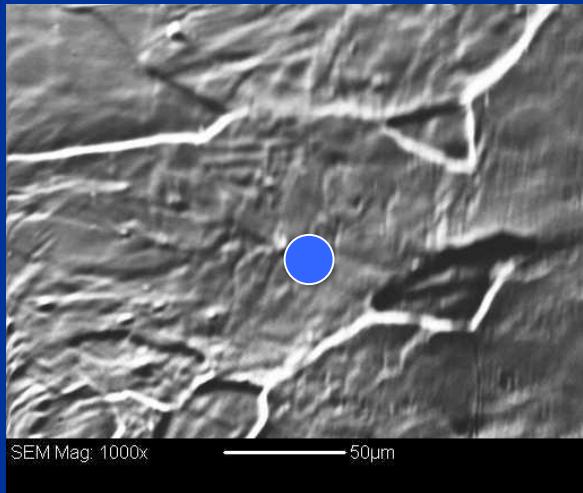
ACOM - Automatic Crystal Orientation

Mapping

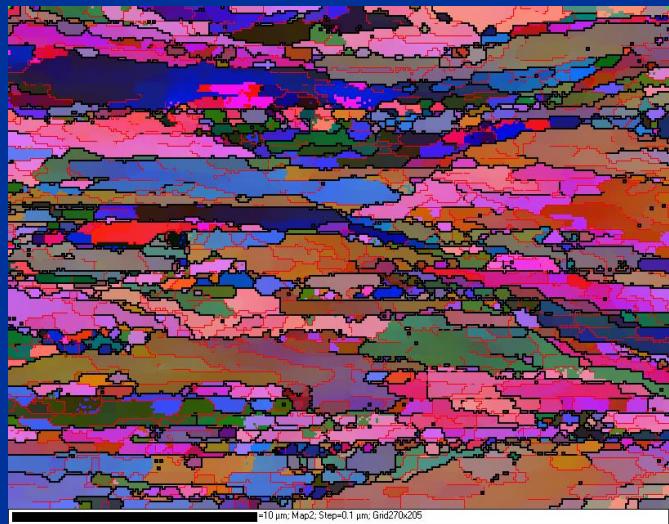
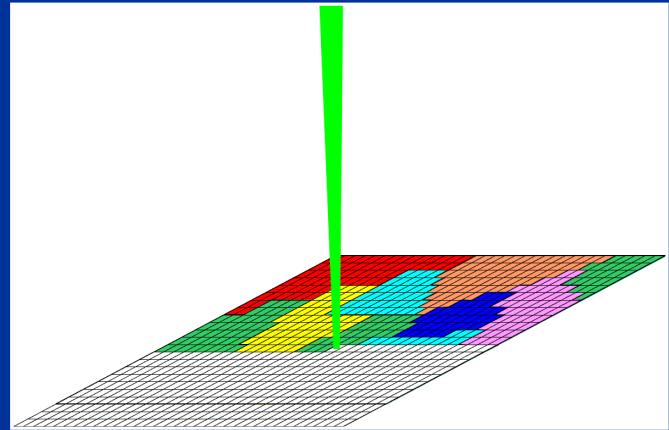
OIM® - Orientation Imaging Microscopy

(TexSEM Laboratories trademark)

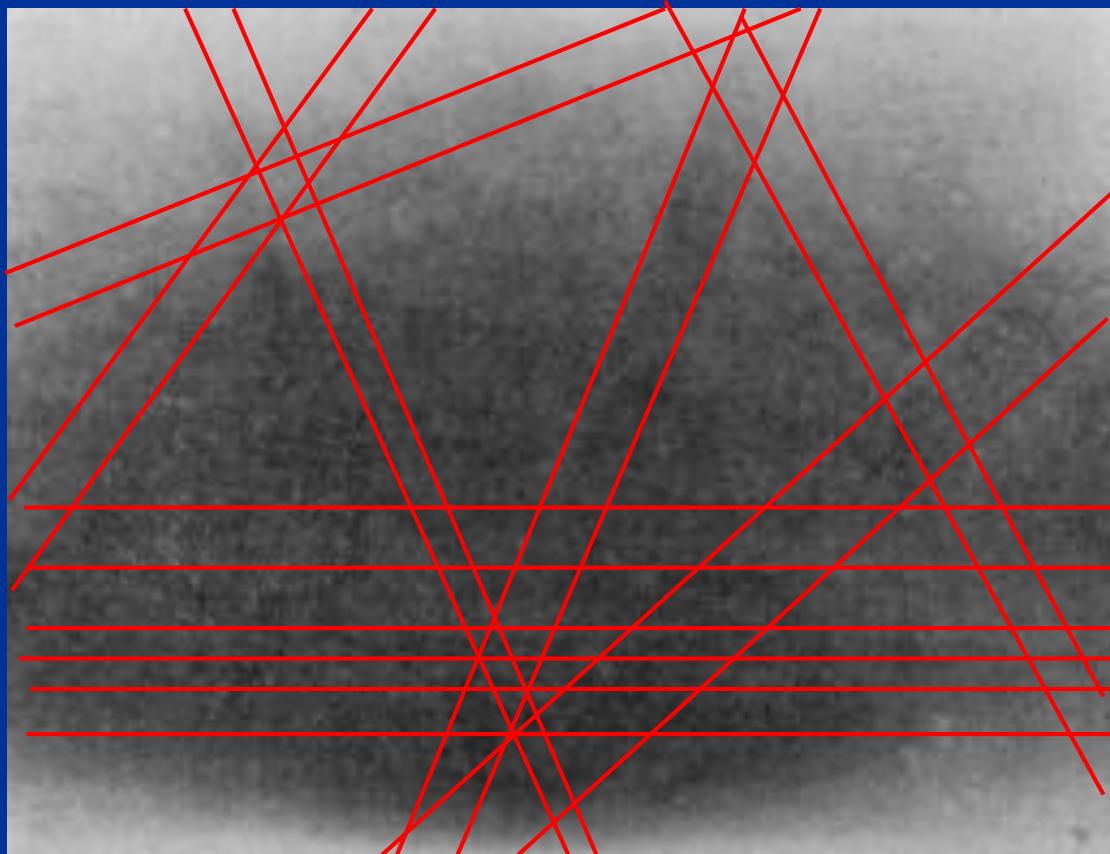
Analiza punktowa



Skanowanie wiązką elektronową

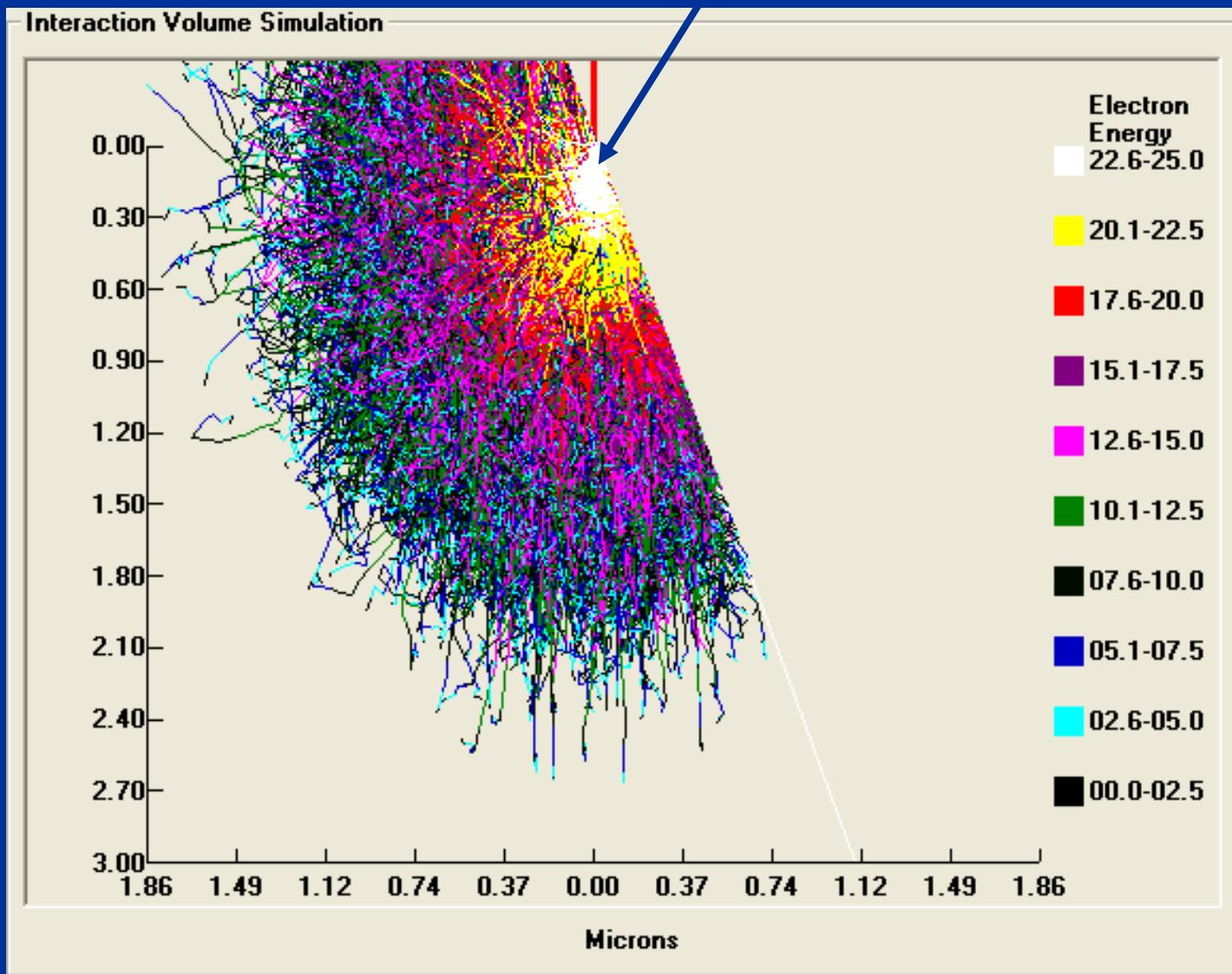


Pierwszy obraz linii dyfrakcyjnych uzyskany przez Kikuchiego w 1928 roku z kryształu kalcytu CaCO_3

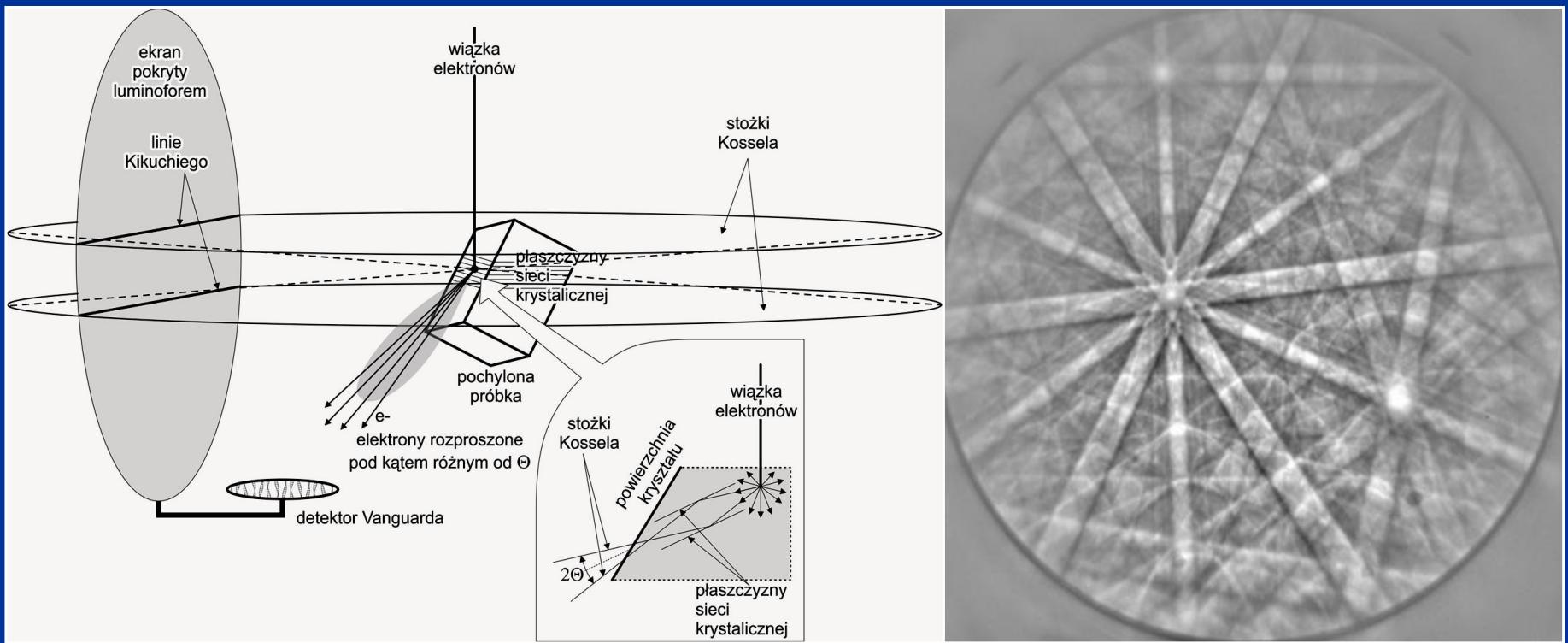


Shoji Nishikawa and Seishi Kikuchi
„*The Diffraction of Cathode Rays by Calcite*”
Proc. Imperial Academy (of Japan) 4 (1928) 475-477

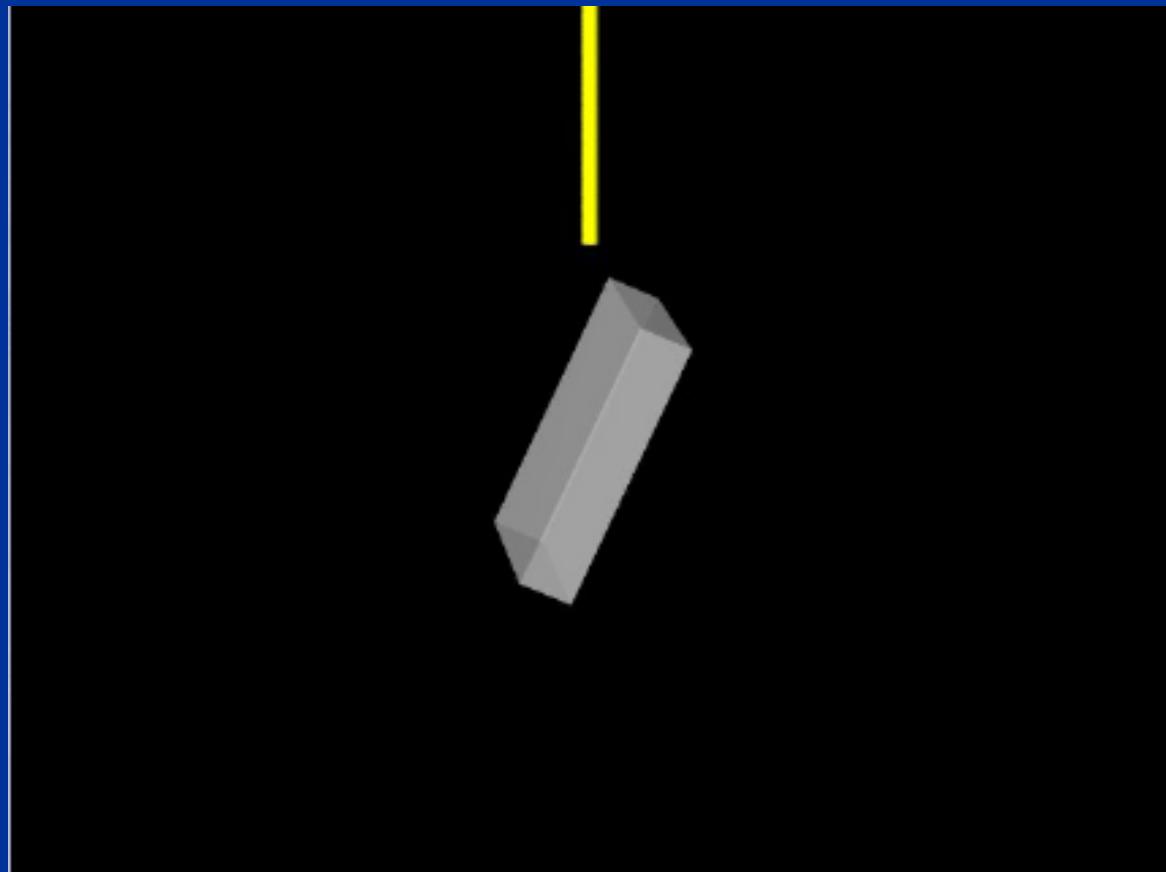
Punktowe źródło elektronów

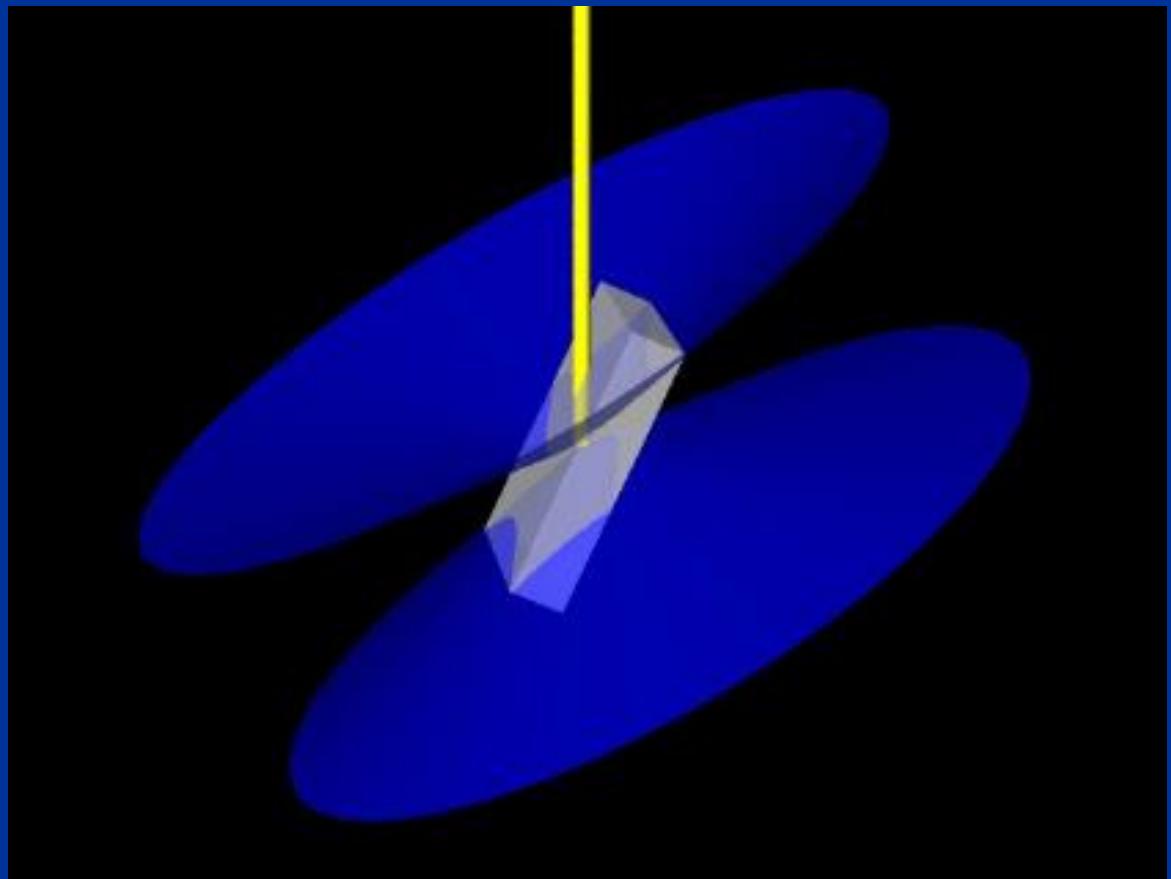
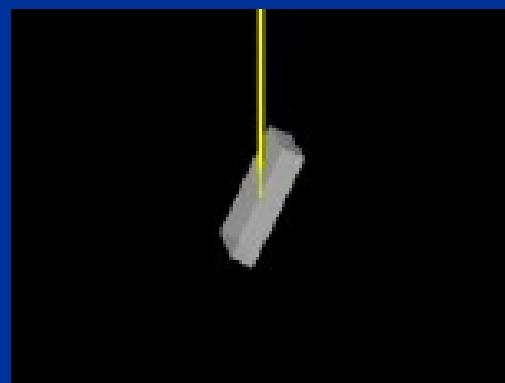


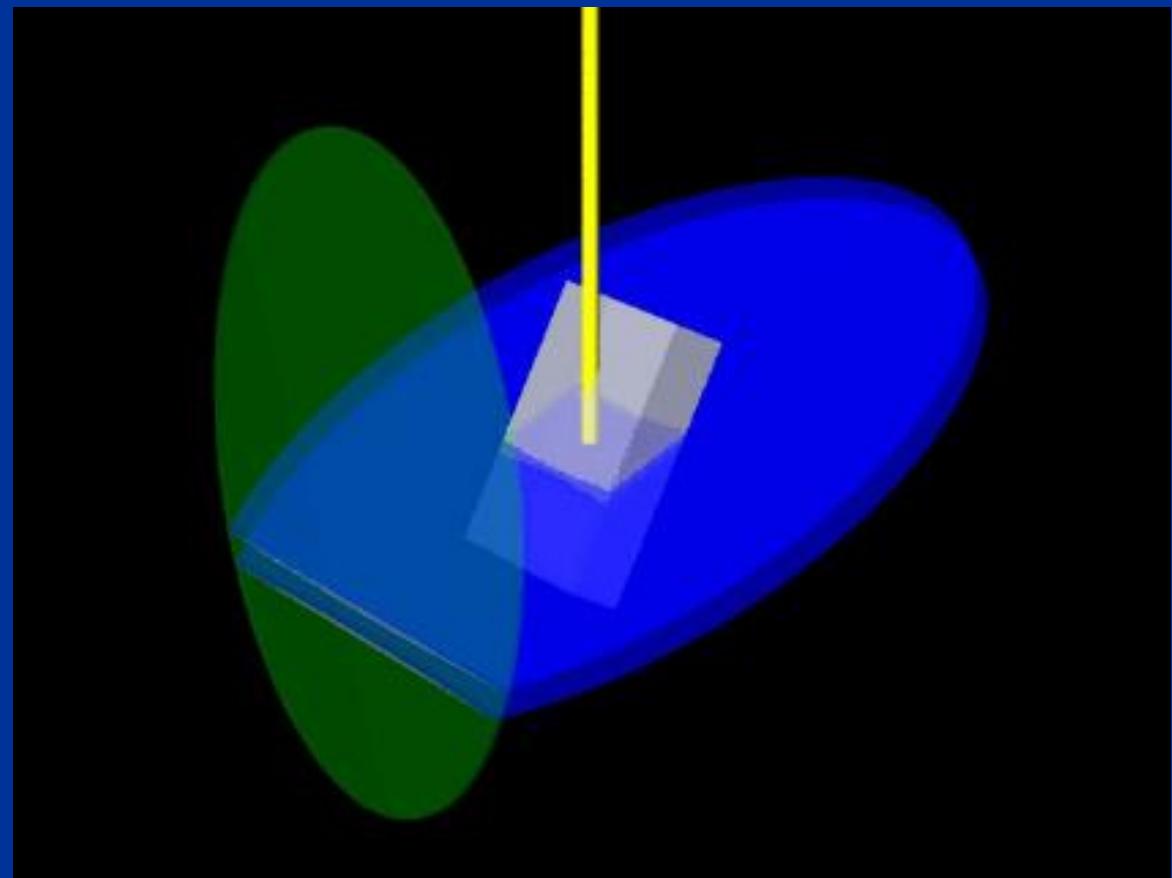
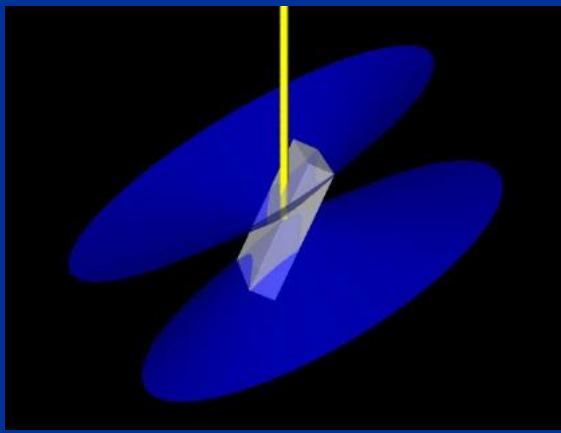
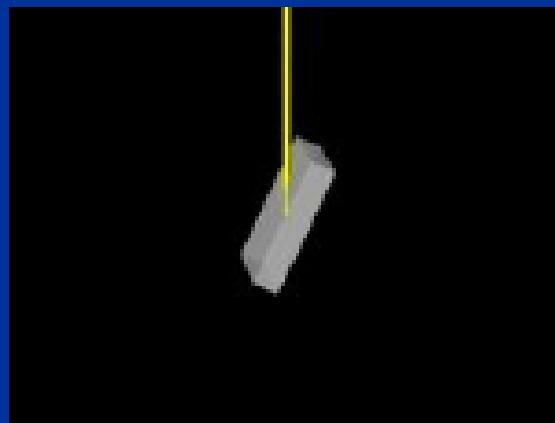
- Elektrony wstecznie rozproszone ulegają dyfrakcji tworząc dla każdej płaszczyzny krystalograficznej stożki dyfrakcyjne o dużym kącie rozwarcia (tzw. stożki Kossela)
- Przecięcie tych stożków z ekranem luminoforu – układ równoległych linii (pasm) zwanych liniami (pasmami) Kikuchiego unikalny dla danej orientacji krystalitu

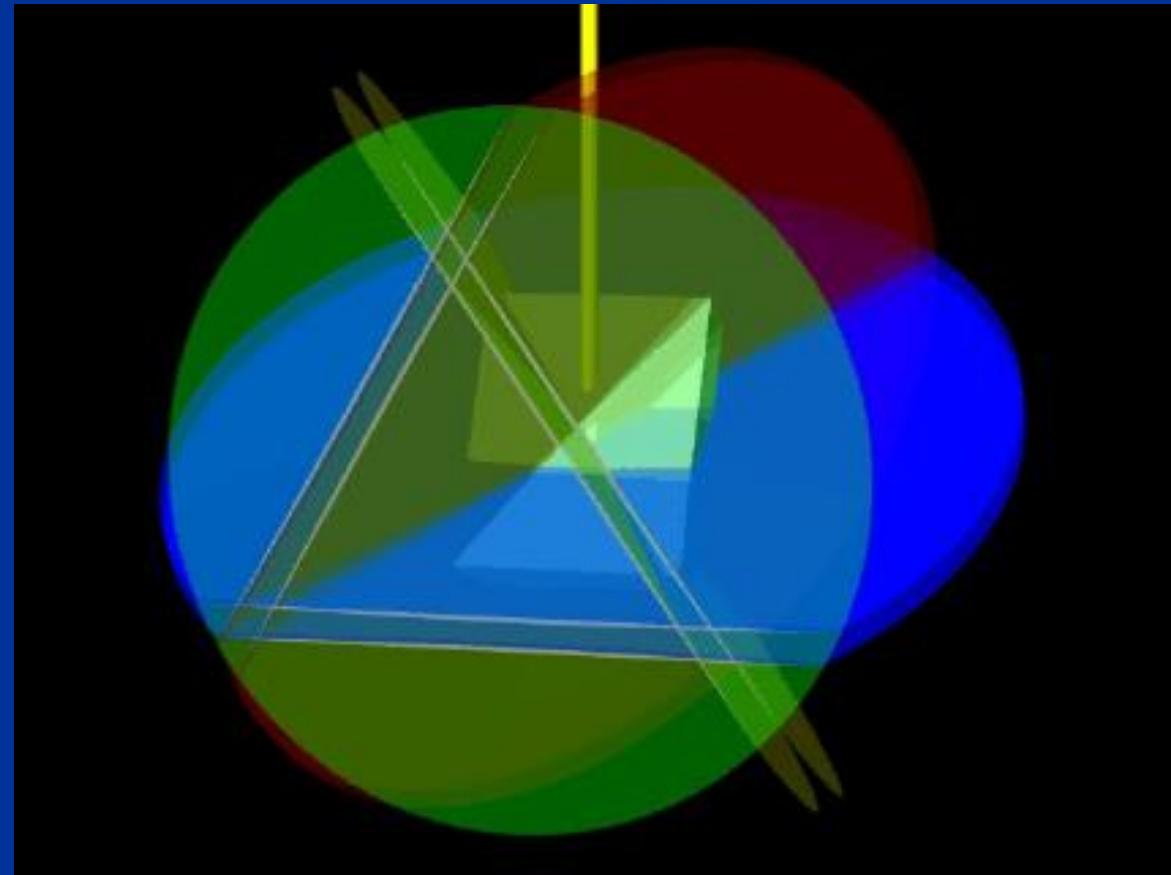
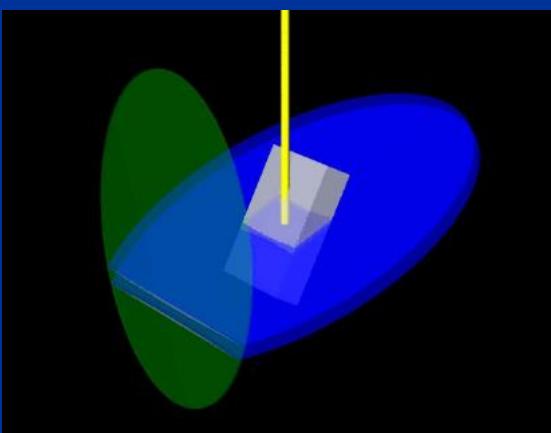
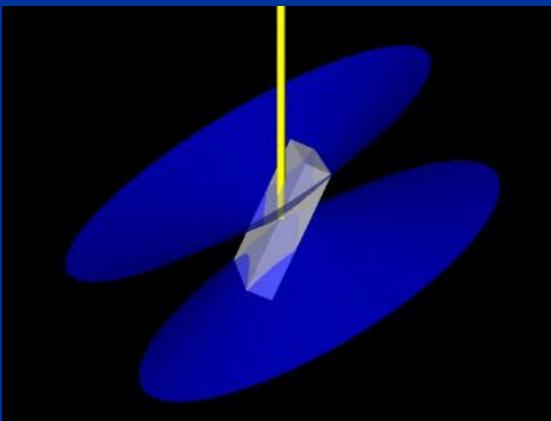
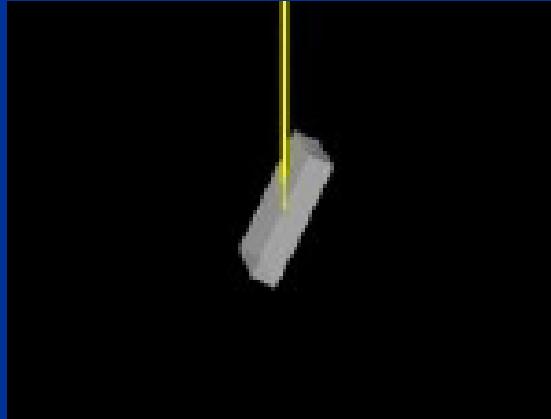


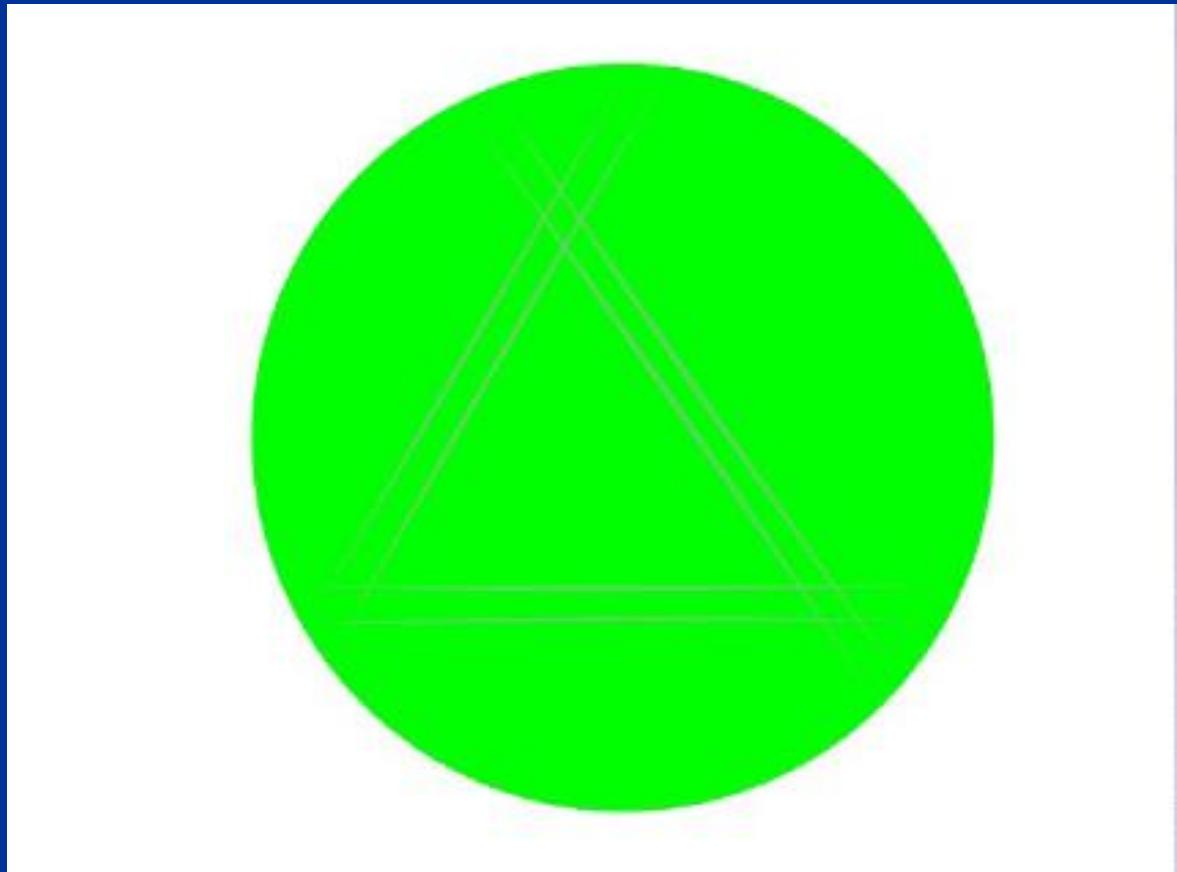
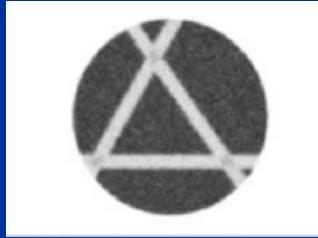
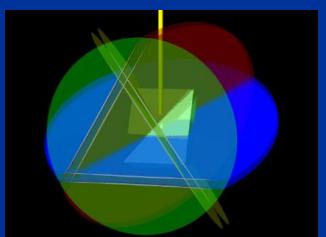
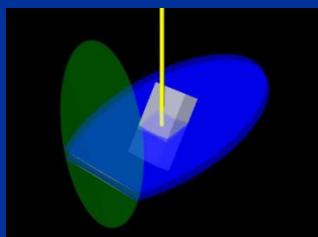
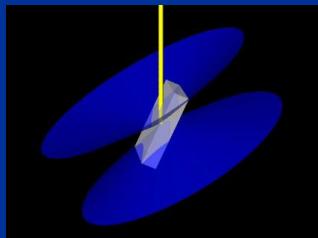
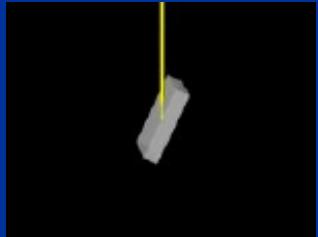
EBSD z krystalitu FeTiO_3

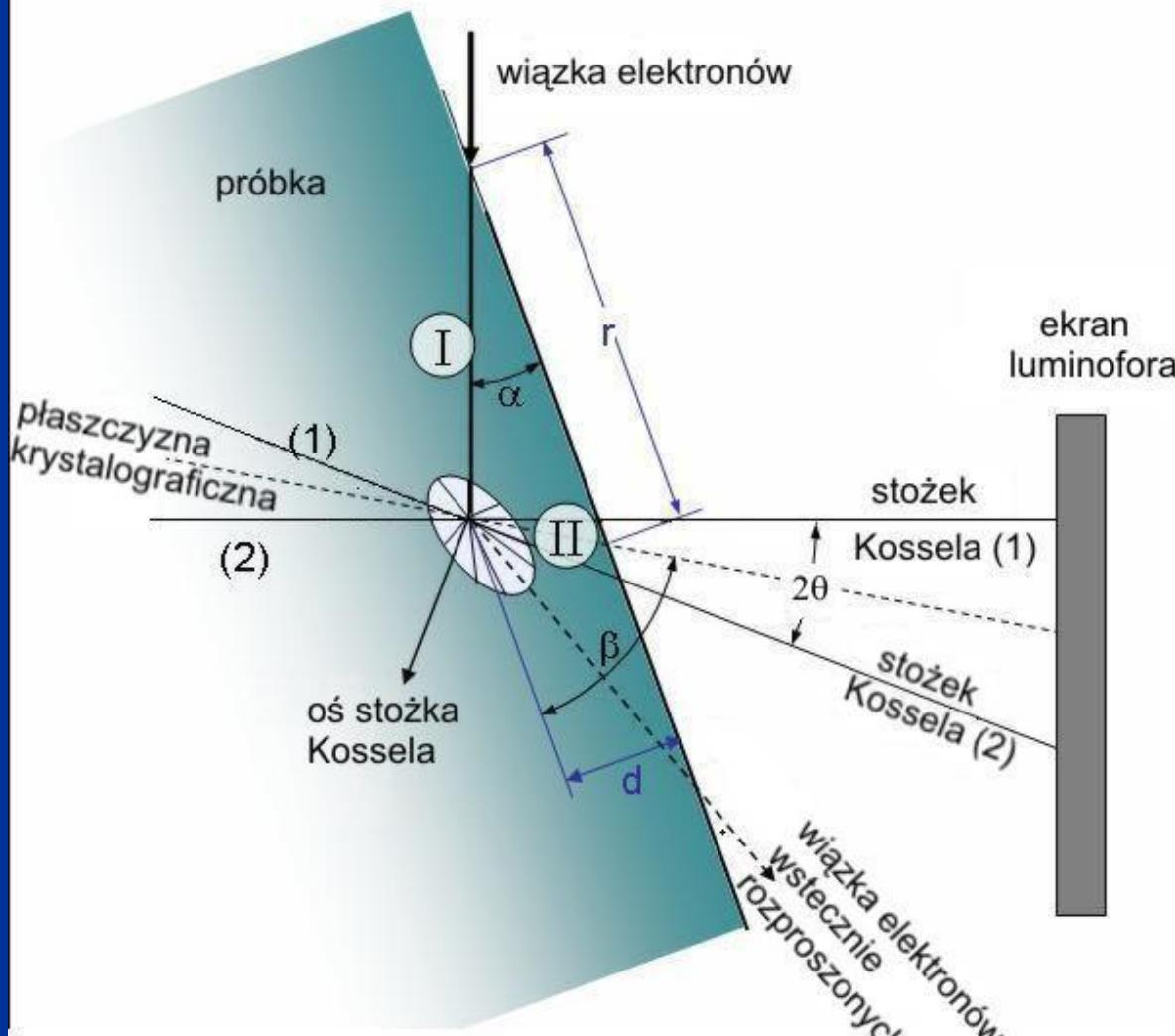










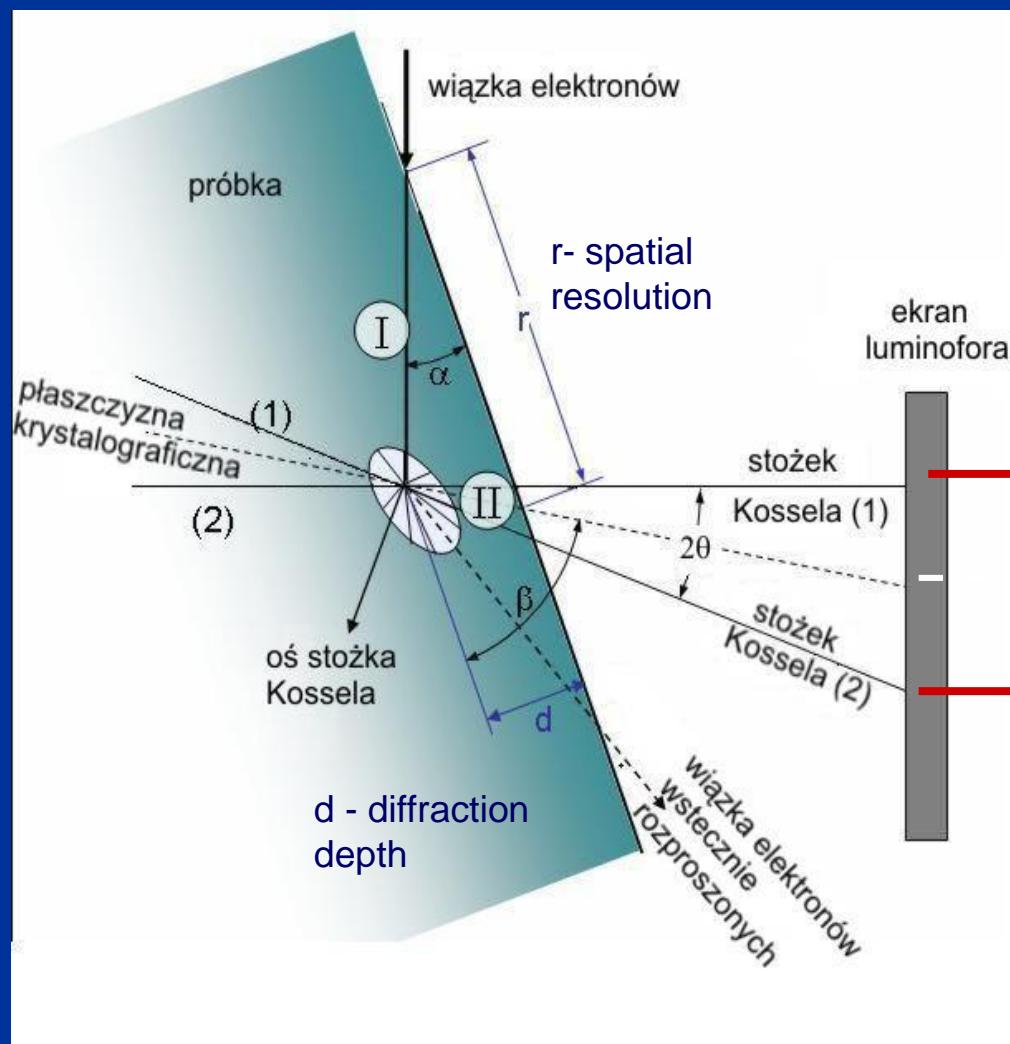


r – spatial resolution, d – diffraction depth

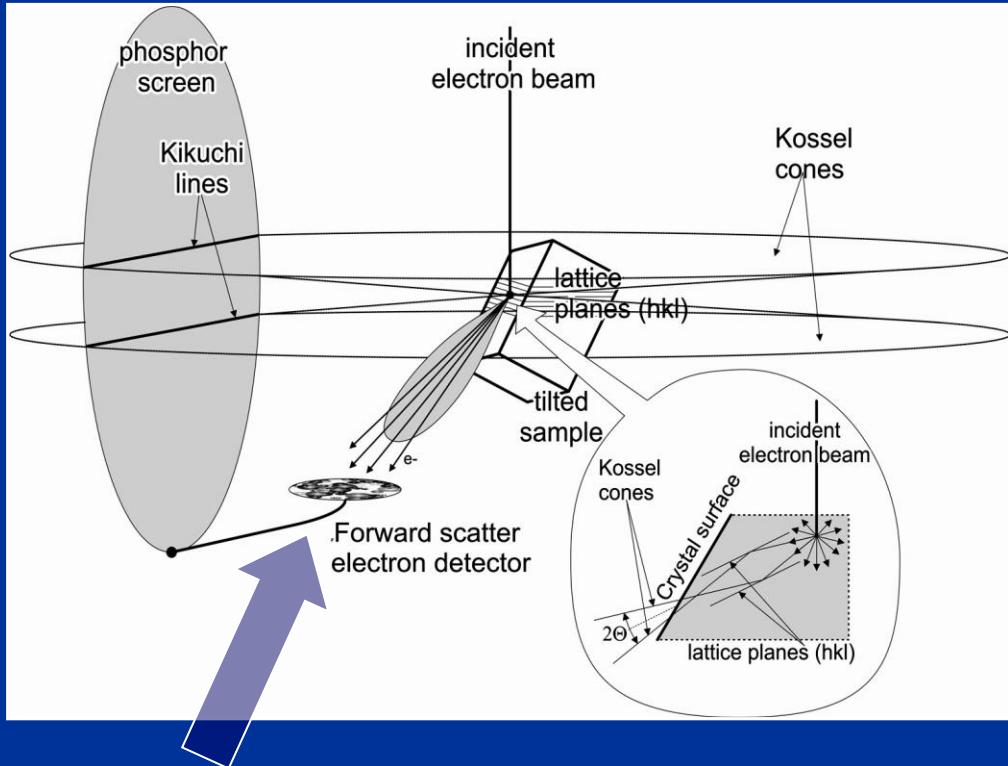
1 utworzenie źródła elektronów w warstwie podpowierzchniowej kryształu – elektryny rozprasiane są we wszystkich kierunkach. Część ulega dyfrakcji zgodnie z prawem Bragga:

$$\lambda = 2d_{hkl} \sin \theta$$

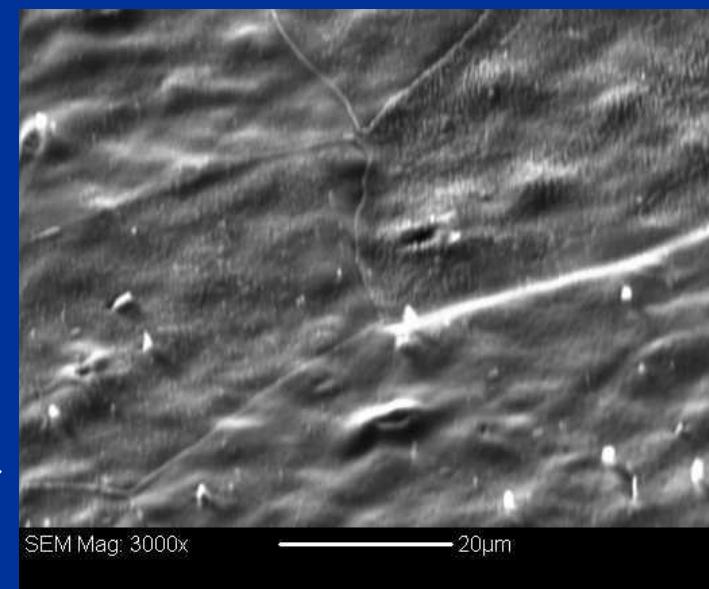
2 Kąt Bragga jest mały (1° dla 15 kV) – stożki są duże – linie przecięcia z ekranem prawie proste; odległość pomiędzy liniami proporcjonalna do $\tan(\theta)$ a linia środkowa pomiędzy przecięciami stożków jest rzutem gnomonicznym płaszczyzny krystalograficznej uginającej elektryny



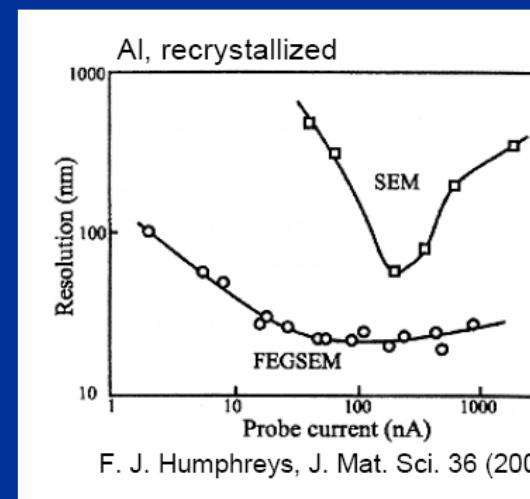
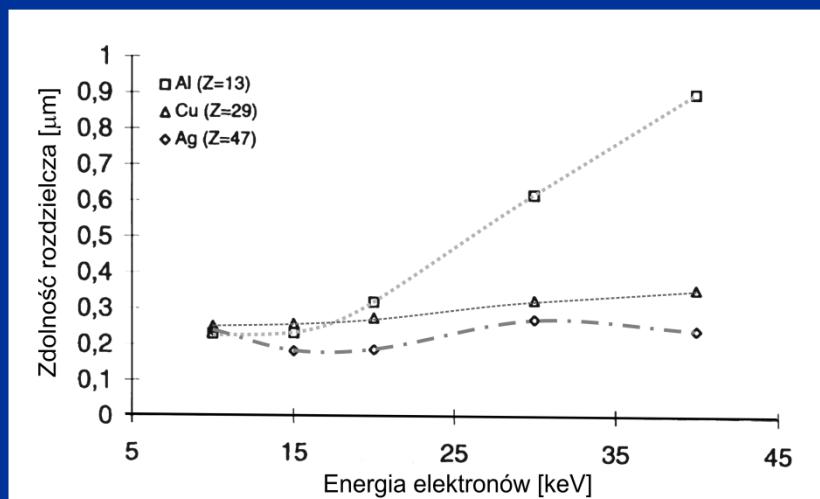
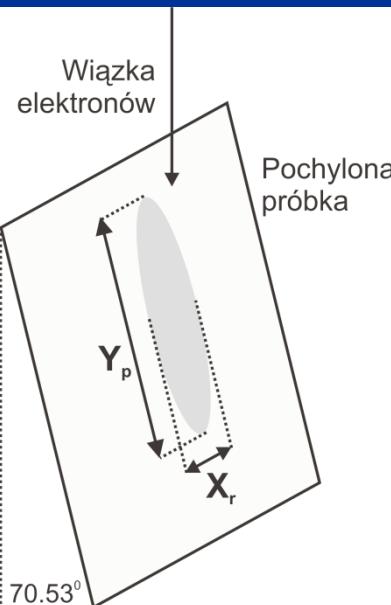
Technika badawcza bardzo czuła powierzchniowo



Dodatkowy detektor elektronów
rozproszonych „do przodu”
(forward scattered) umieszczony
na kamerze CCD służy do
rejestracji obszarów, z których
rejestrowane są dyfrakcje



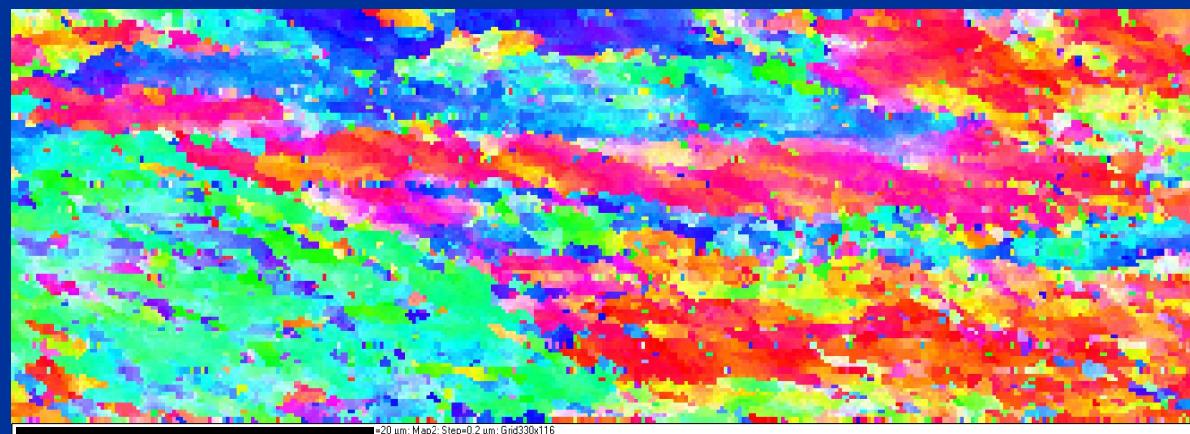
Przestrzenna zdolność rozdzielcza EBSD



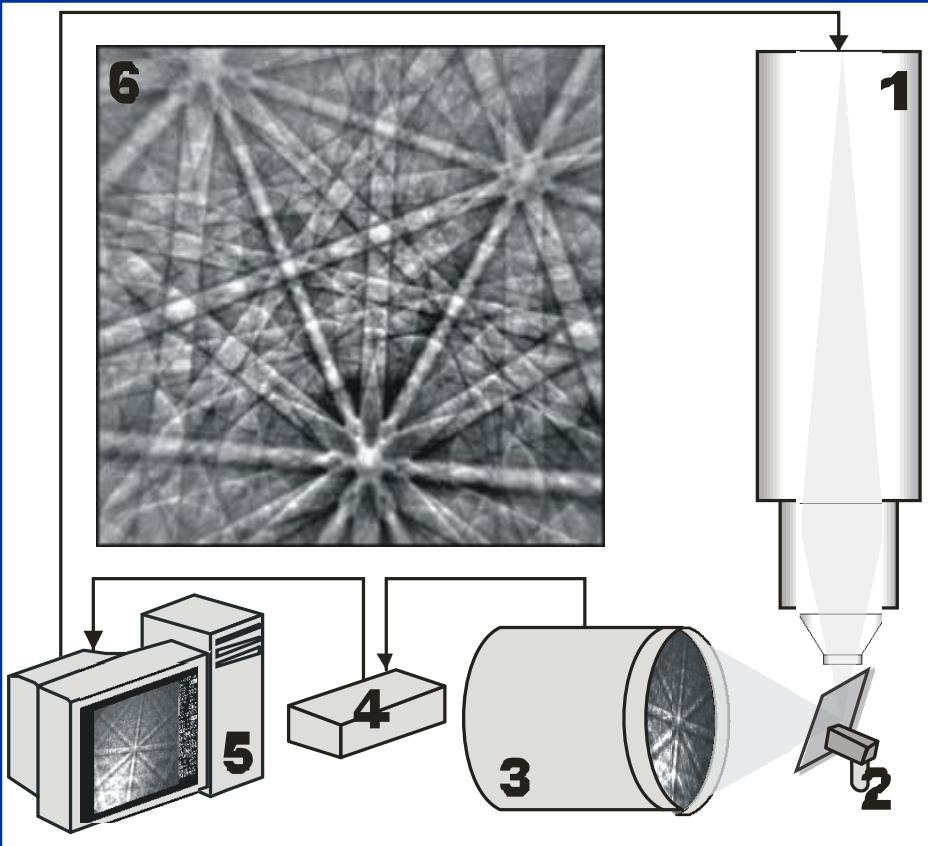
F. J. Humphreys, J. Mat. Sci. 36 (2001), 3833

Zależność zdolności rozdzielczej od
napięcia przyspieszającego dla Al, Cu i Ag

- Zależy:**
- od rodzaju materiału
 - od źródła elektronów (FEG z termoemisją!)

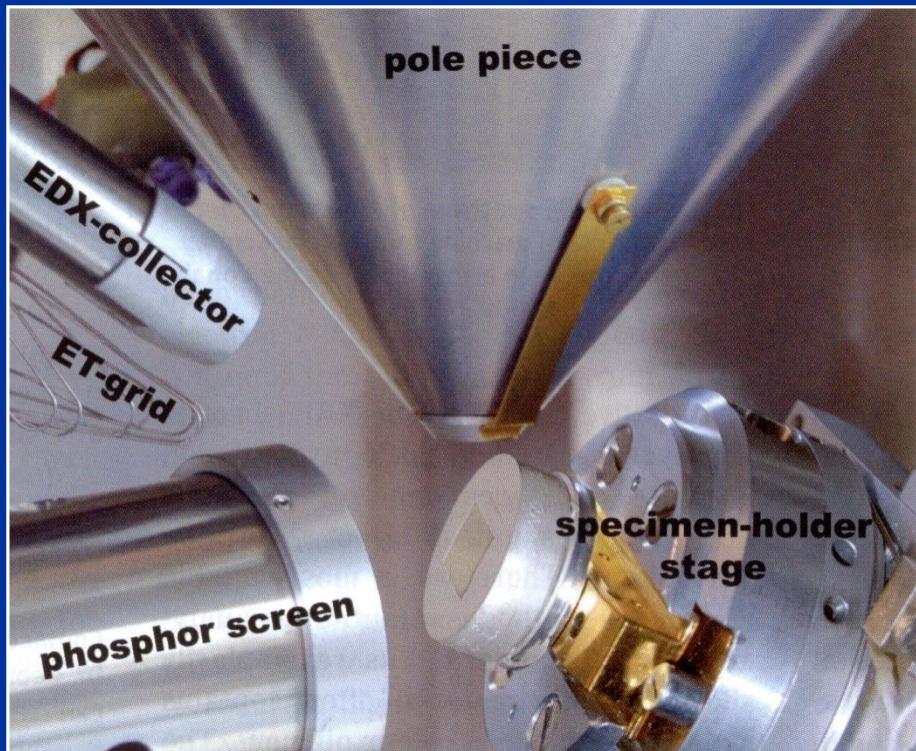


Cu, ECAP step size 200 nm FEI FEGSEM

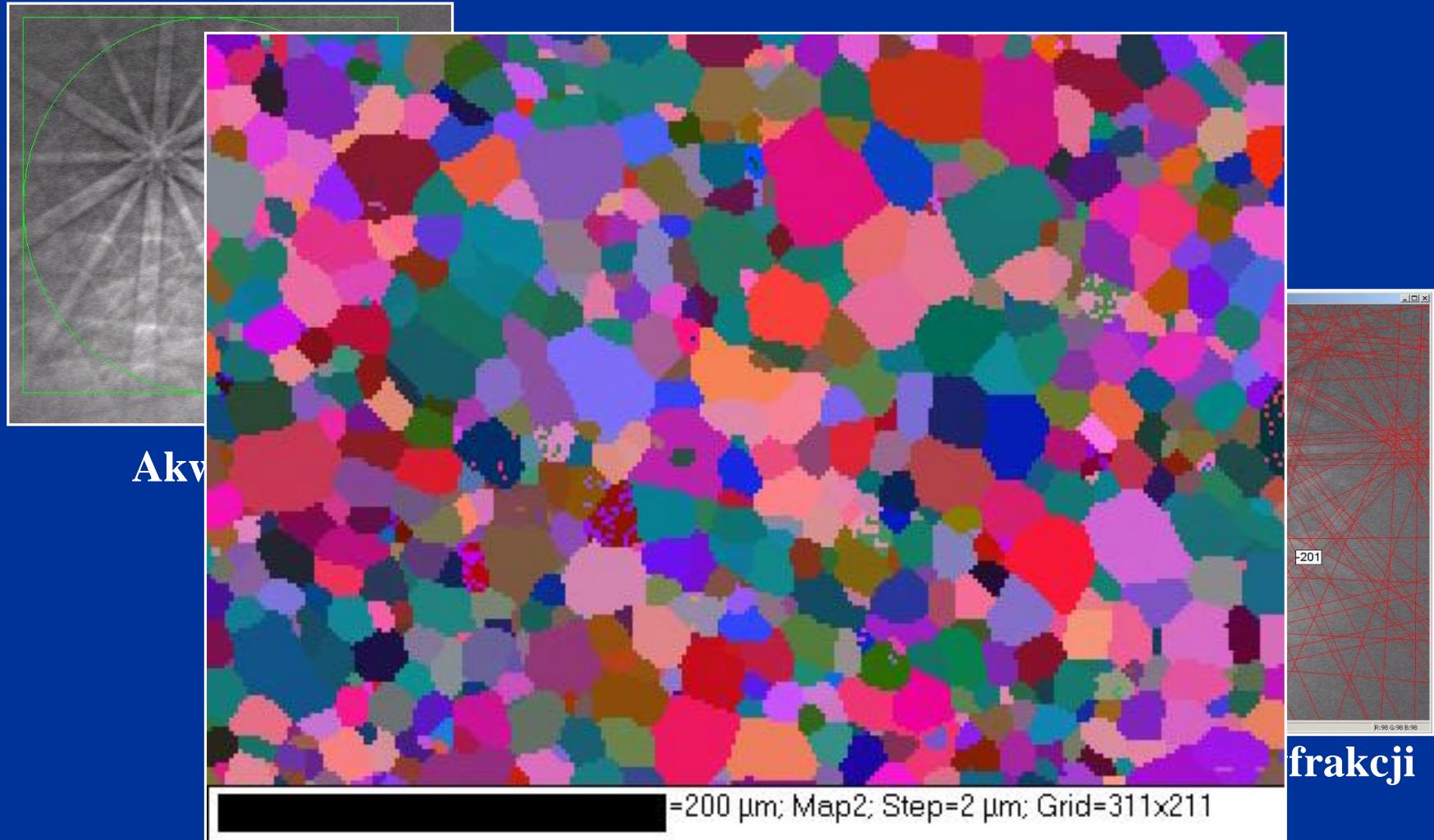


Schemat systemu EBSD

- 1 – kolumna elektronooptyczna**
- 2 – próbka**
- 3 – kamera CCD**
- 4 – sterownik kamery**
- 5 – komputer sterujący wiązką oraz przeprowadzający analizę obrazu**
- 6 – obraz dyfrakcyjny**

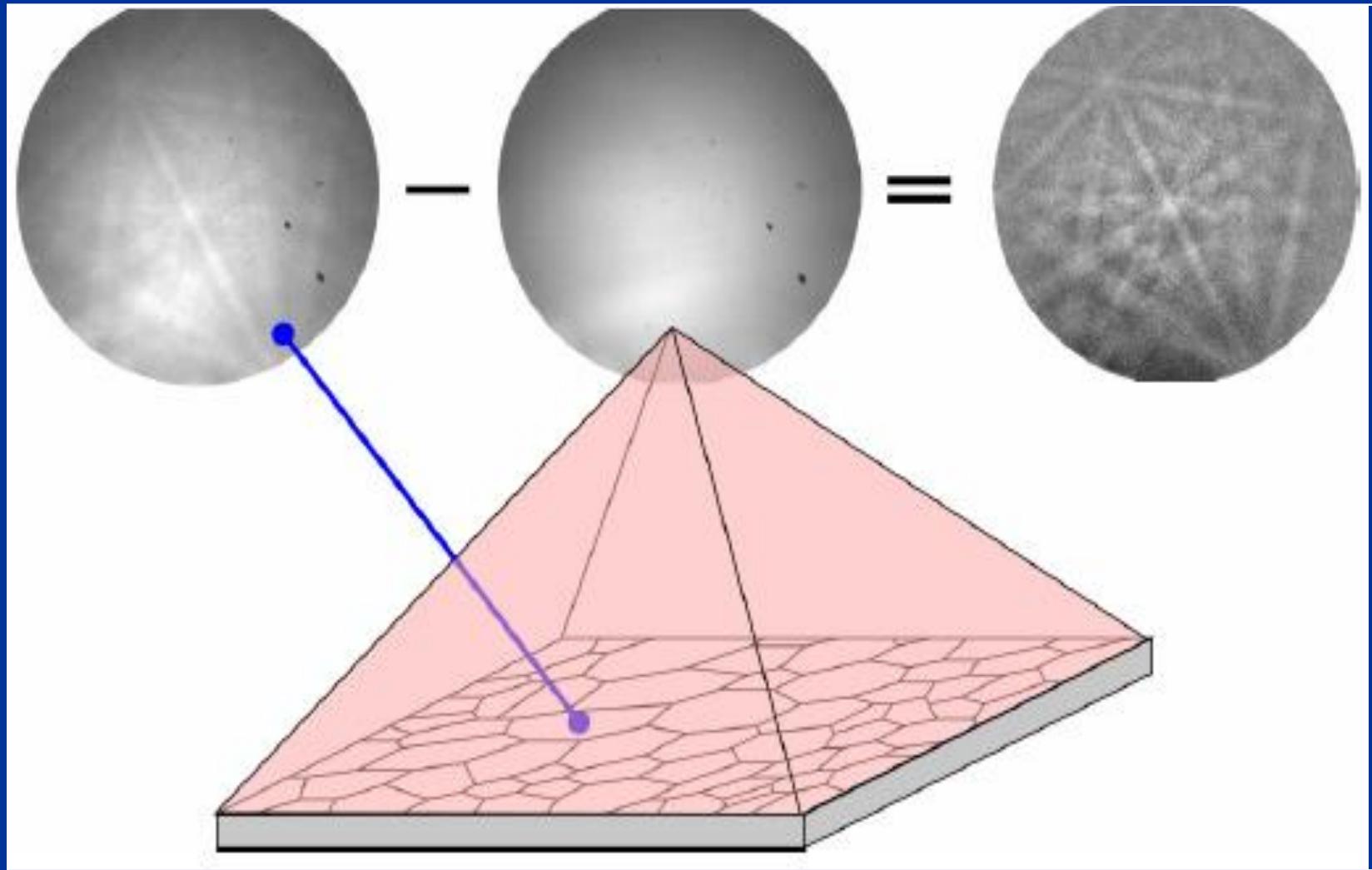


Jak otrzymać mapę orientacji?

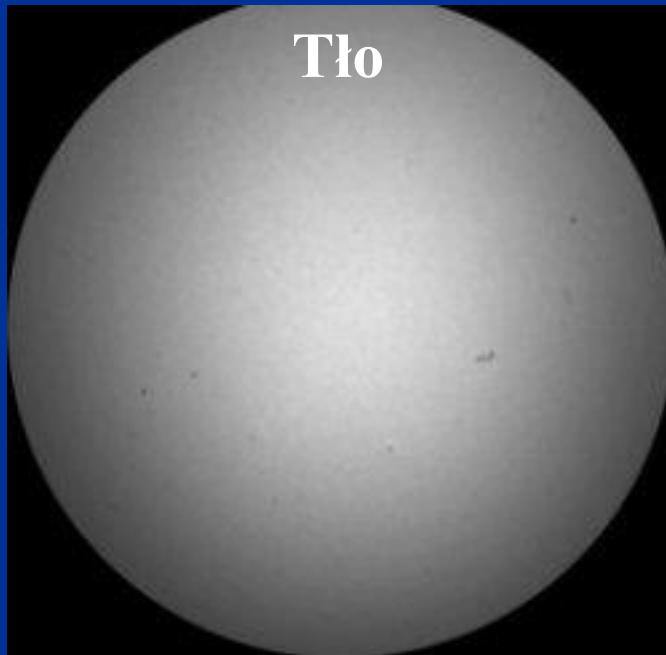


TO NIE JEST TYLKO KOLOROWA MAPA!!!

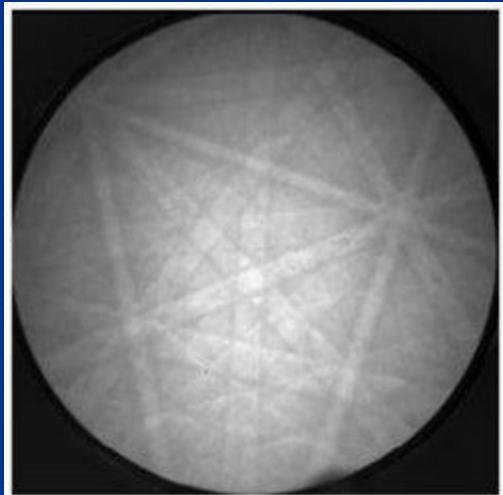
Akwizycja – odejmowanie tła



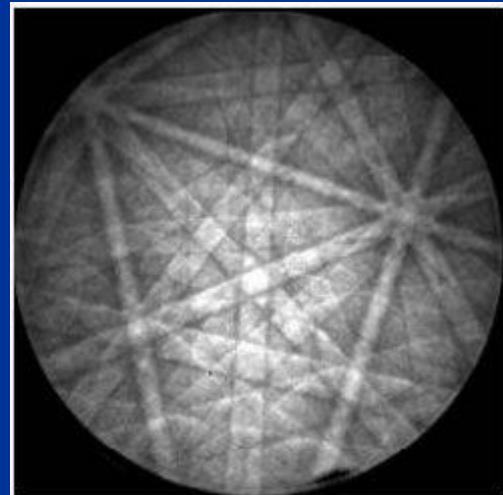
Tło



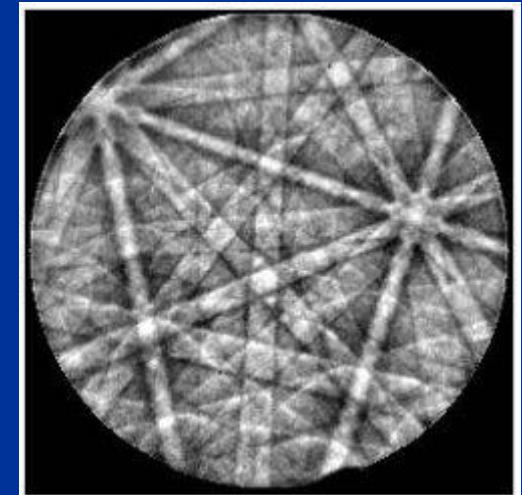
Dyfrakcja wyjściowa



Odejmowanie tła



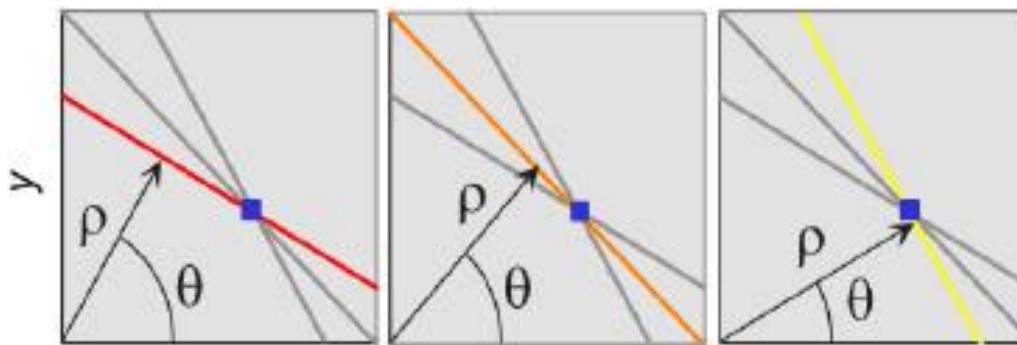
Dzielenie przez tło

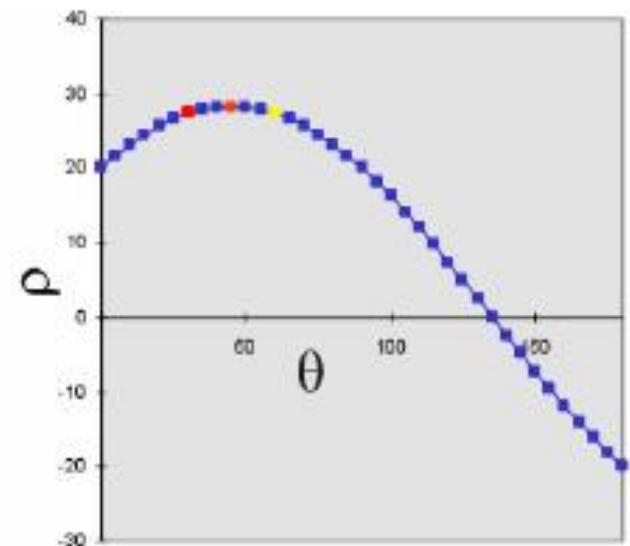


Detekcja linii na dyfrakcji – transformata Hougha

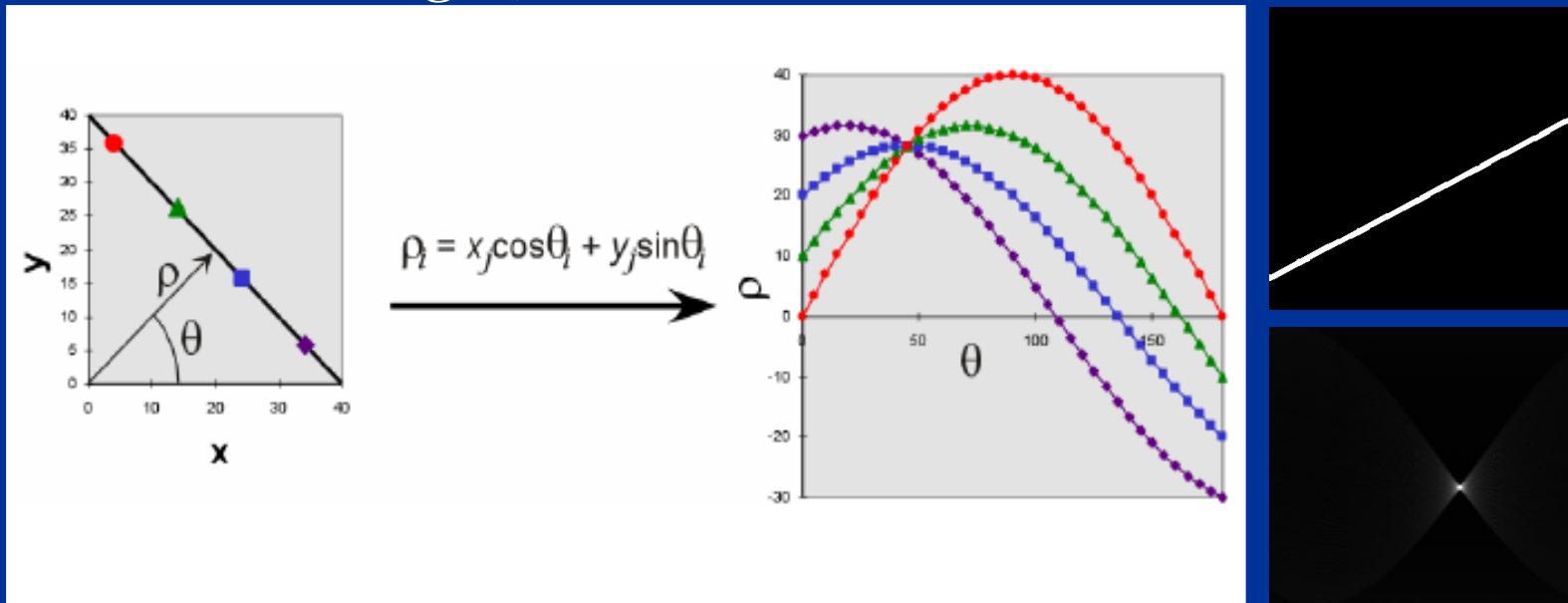
P.C.V. Hough „Method and means for recognising complex pattern”
US Patent 3 069 654, 1962

- Przez pojedynczy pixel na układzie X-Y można przeprowadzić nieskończoną liczbę linii
- Linia ta może być opisana przez parametry Hougha „ ρ ” i „ θ ”, gdzie „ ρ ” reprezentuje odległość linii od początku układu a „ θ ” – kąt pochylenia linii
- Punkt w przestrzeni obrazu jest przedstawiony jako sinusoida w przestrzeni Hougha

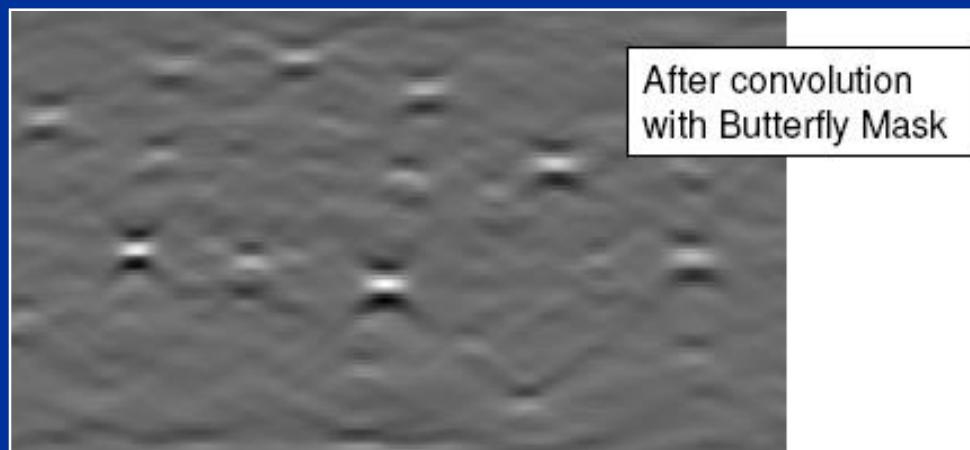
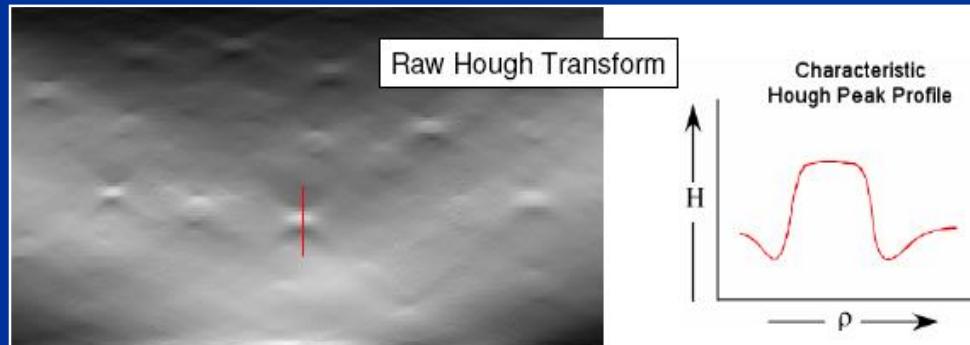
$$\rho_i = x \cos \theta_i + y \sin \theta_i$$




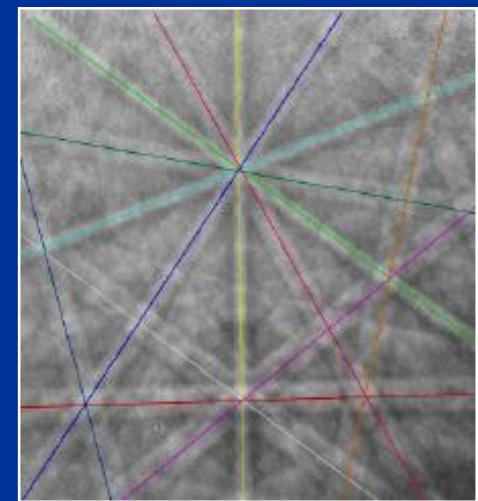
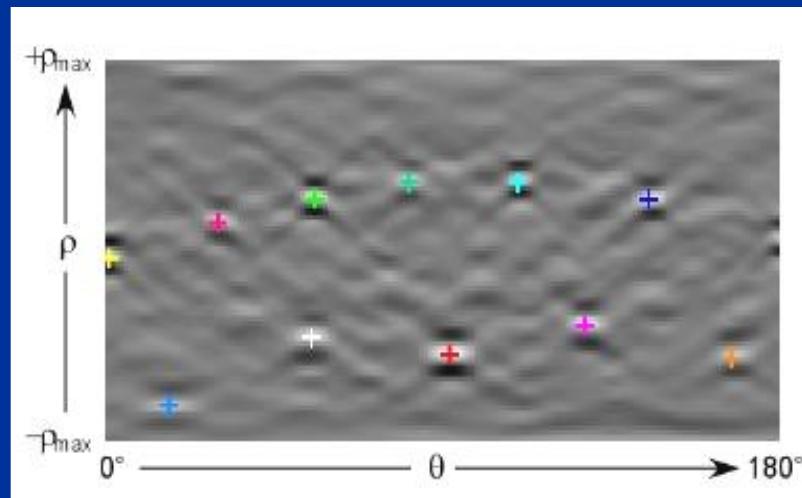
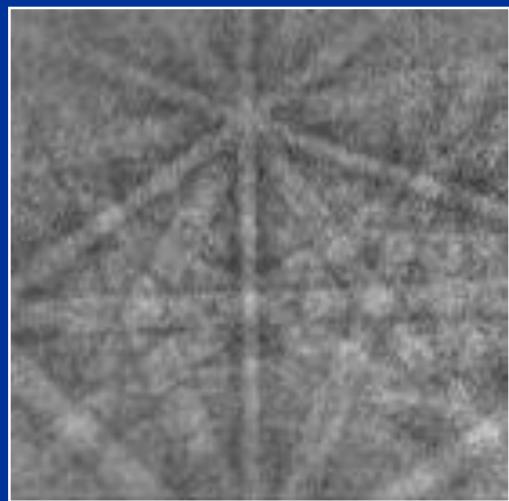
- Rozważmy 4 piksele leżące na jednej linii. Dla każdego piksela obliczamy wszystkie możliwe wartości „ ρ ” dla kąta „ θ ” w zakresie od 0° do 180° zgodnie z równaniem: $\rho = x\cos\theta + y\sin\theta$.
- Otrzymujemy 4 krzywe sinusoidalne przecinające się w punkcie o koordynatach „ ρ ” i „ θ ”, odpowiadających koordynatom „ ρ ” i „ θ ” dla linii w układzie X-Y.
- Linia w układzie X-Y przekształca się w punkt w układzie ρ - θ (transformata Hougha).

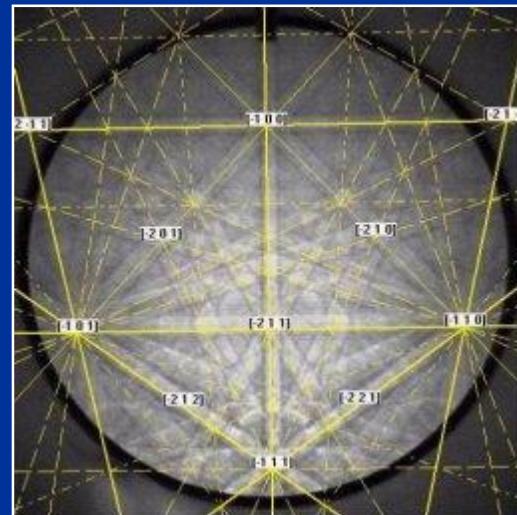
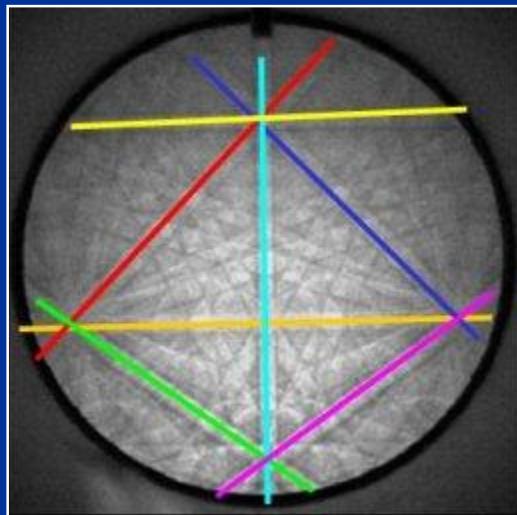
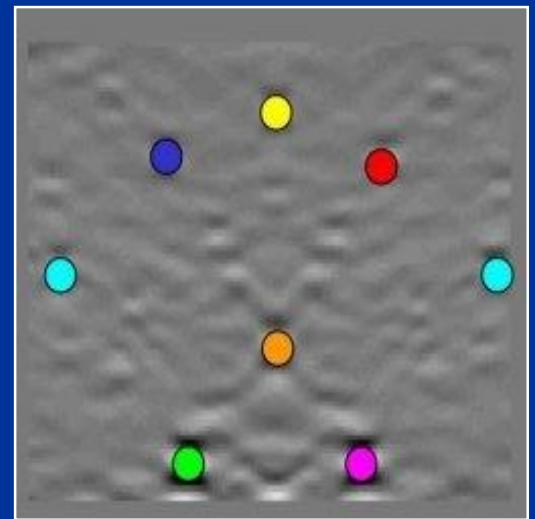
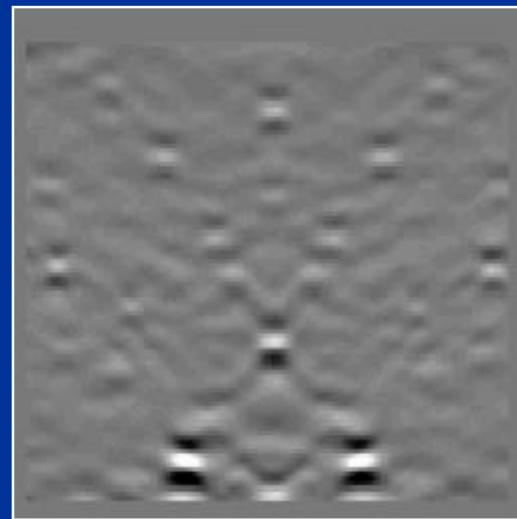
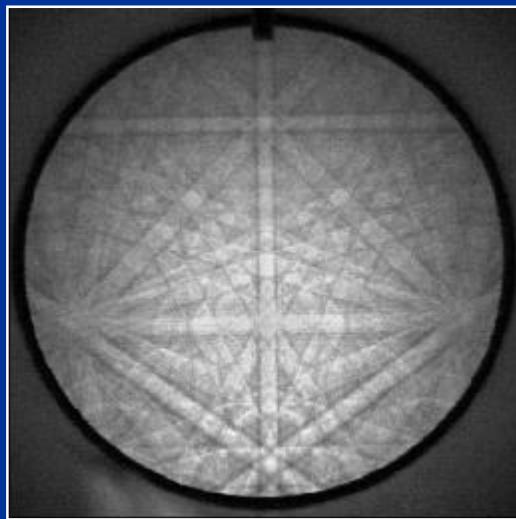


Transformata Hougha

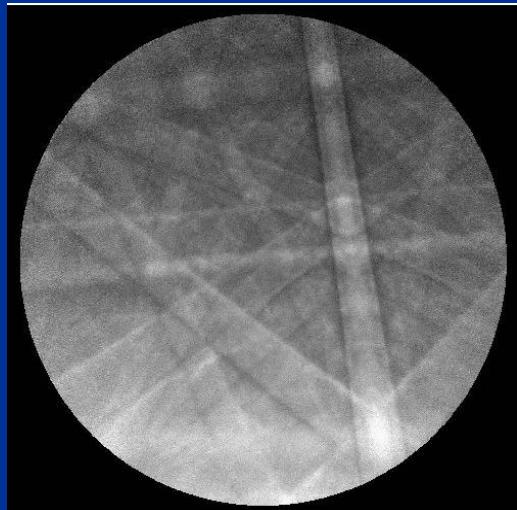


Detekcja linii - transformata Hougha

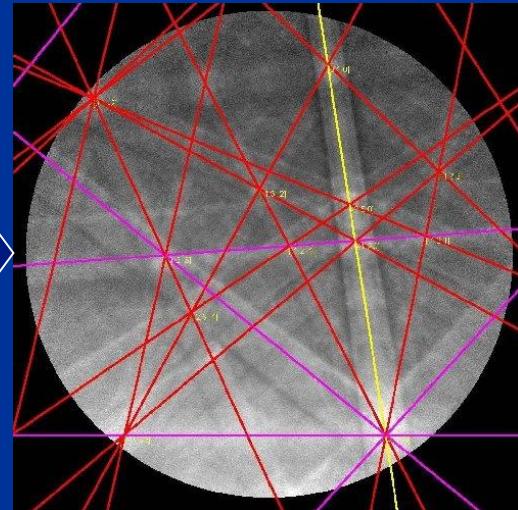




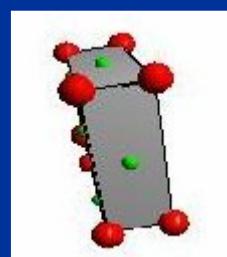
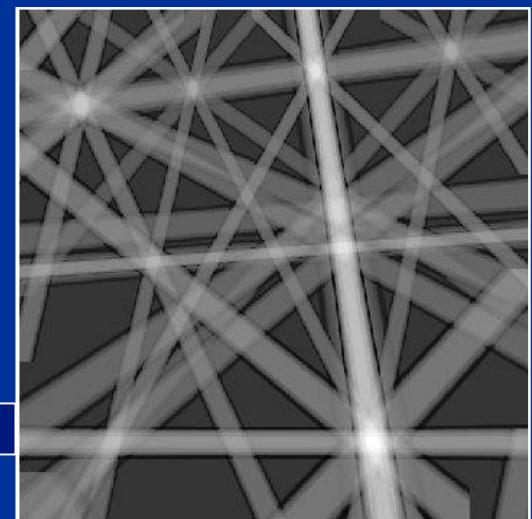
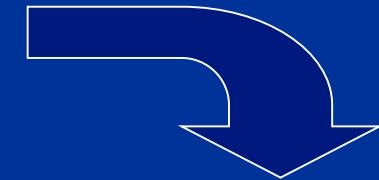
Detekcja linii za pomocą transformaty Hougha



Dyfrakcja z ceramiki
mulitowej (układ
ortorombowy) ($3\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 2\text{SiO}_2$),
10 kV



Rozwiążanie dyfrakcji
nałożone na realną dyfrakcję
orientacja $\{370\}<7\text{-}34>$

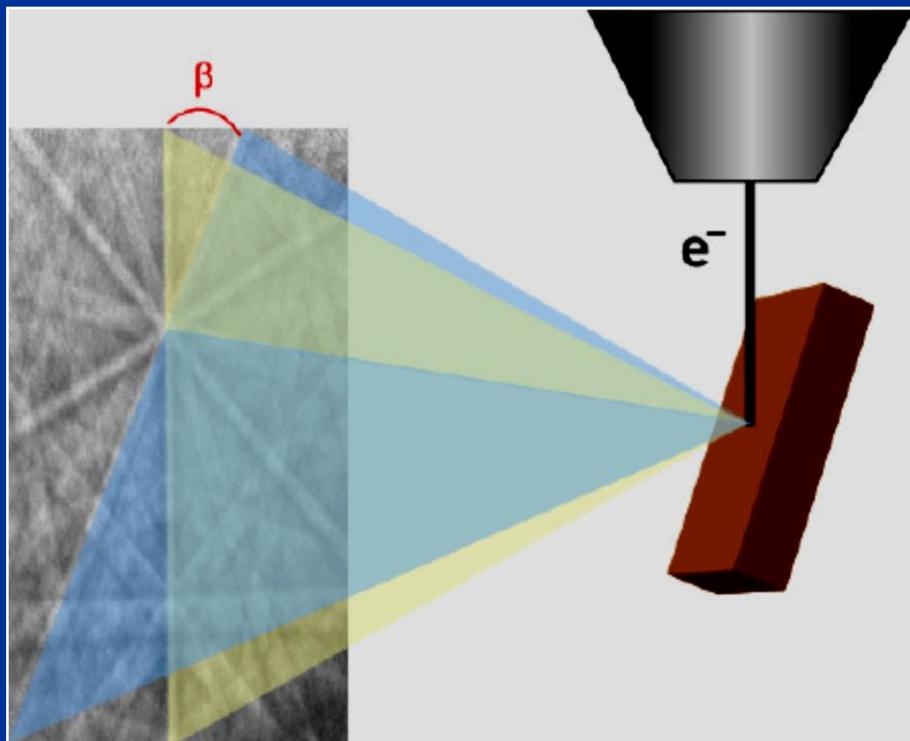


Symulacja orientacji
krystalitu mullitu

Symulacja dyfrakcji – pasma
Kikuchiego o intensywności
większej niż 10% najbardziej
intensywnych pasm

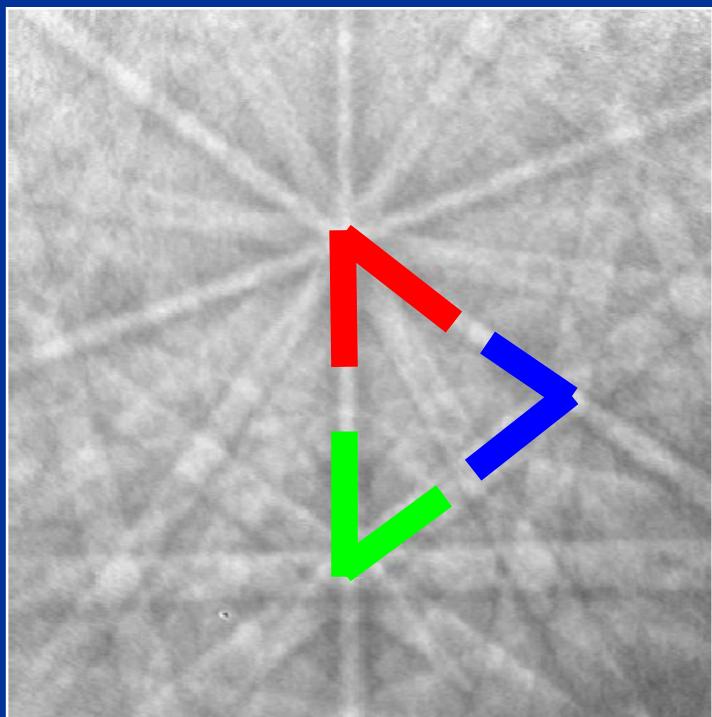
EBSD – analiza dyfrakcji

Identyfikacja odpowiednich wskaźników hkl przez porównanie wartości kątów pomiędzy dwoma pasmami z wartościami kątów z Tablic



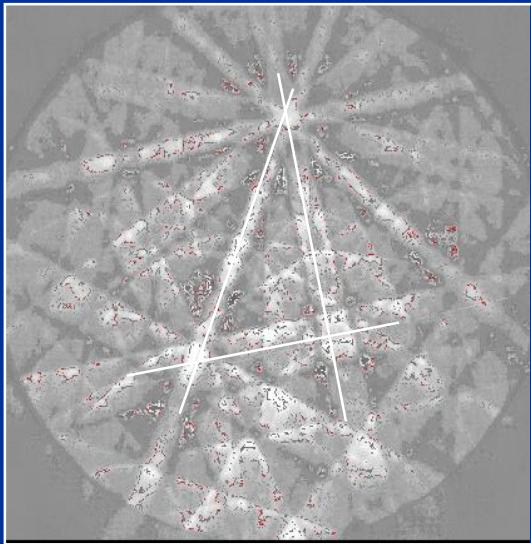
	Angle (hkl) ₁	(hkl) ₂		Angle (hkl) ₁	(hkl) ₂	
	25.2	200	311	64.8	220	3̄1
	29.5	111	311	70.5	111	11̄1
	31.5	220	311	72.5	200	131
	35.1	311	31̄1	80.0	111	311
	35.3	111	220	84.8	311	131
	45.0	200	220	90.0	111	220
	50.5	311	31̄1	90.0	200	020
	54.7	111	200	90.0	200	022
	58.5	111	31̄1	90.0	220	113
	60.0	220	202	90.0	220	220
	63.0	311	13̄1			

Zestaw możliwych rozwiązań dla 3 pasm Kikuchiego otrzymamy poprzez porównanie wartości zmierzonych kątów na realnej dyfrakcji z wartościami z Tablic

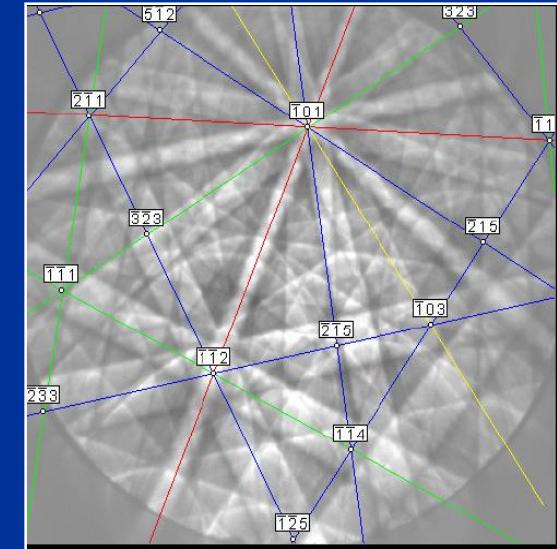
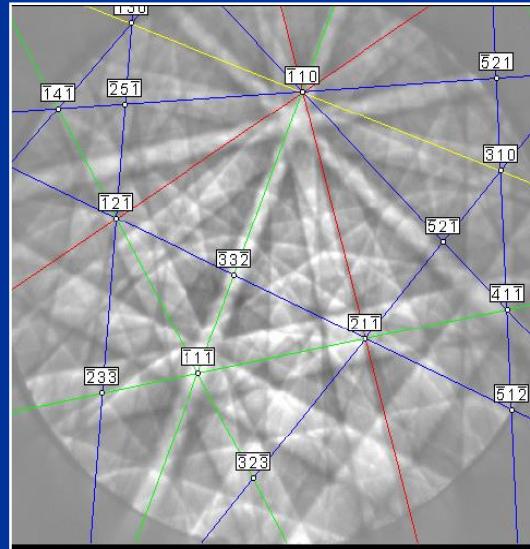
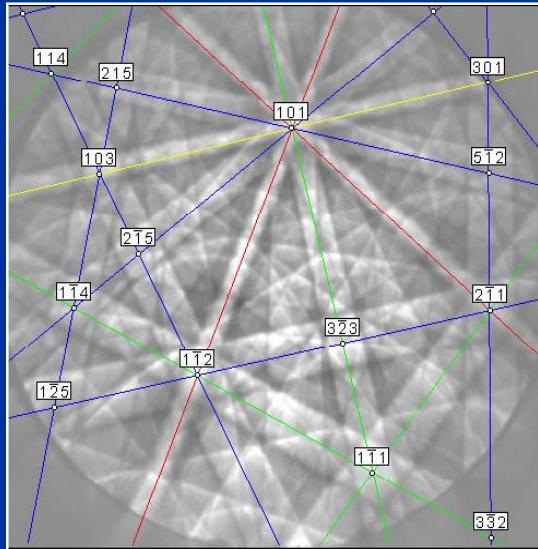


Angle (hkl)	1 (hkl)	2 (hkl)
25.2	200	311
29.5	111	311
31.5	220	311
35.1	311	31-1
35.3	111	220
45.0	200	220
50.5	311	3-1-1
<u>54.7</u>	<u>111</u>	<u>200</u>
<u>58.5</u>	<u>111</u>	<u>31-1</u>
60.0	220	202
63.0	311	13-1
64.8	220	3-11
70.5	111	11-1
<u>72.5</u>	<u>200</u>	<u>131</u>
80.0	111	3-1-1
84.8	311	1-31
90.0	111	2-20
90.0	200	020
90.0	200	022
90.0	220	1-13
90.0	220	2-20

1) Identify the hkl of the high contrast bands (bands likely to be detected by the Hough transform).	200 111 220 311
2) Determine all of the symmetrically equivalent hkl 's.	200, 020, 002 111, 11̄1, 1̄11, 1̄1̄1 220, 2̄20, 202, 20̄2, 022, 02̄2 311, 3̄11, 31̄1, 311̄, 131, 13̄1, 131̄, 113, 11̄3, 111̄3
3) Form all possible pairs.	200, 020 200, 002 200, 111 200, 11̄1 ... 020, 002 020, 111 020, 11̄1 020, 1̄11 ... 002, 111 002, 11̄1 002, 1̄11 002, 1̄1̄1 ... ⋮
4) Calculate the angles between the plane pairs.	200∠020 = 90° 200∠002 = 90° 200∠111 = 54.7° 200∠11̄1 = 54.7° ... 020∠002 = 90° 020∠111 = 54.7° 020∠11̄1 = 54.7° 020∠1̄11 = 54.7° ... 002∠111 = 90° 002∠11̄1 = 90° 002∠1̄11 = 90° 002∠1̄1̄1 = 90° ... ⋮
5) Throw out duplicates and sort.	200∠311 = 25.2° 111∠220 = 35.3° 111∠3̄11 = 58.5° 111∠11̄1 = 70.5° 111∠311 = 29.5° 200∠220 = 45.0° 220∠202 = 60° 200∠131 = 72.5° 220∠311 = 31.5° 311∠3̄11 = 50.5° 311∠13̄1 = 63.0° 111∠3̄11 = 80° 311∠3̄11 = 35.1° 200∠111 = 54.7° 220∠3̄1̄1 = 64.8° ⋮



Dla układu 3 pasm Kikuchiego
porównanie wartości kątów pomiędzy
płaszczyznami z realnej dyfrakcji i
wartościami kątów z Tablic daje
3 możliwe rozwiązania
Które jest właściwe?



$$\# \text{triplets} = \frac{n!}{(n-3)! \cdot 3!}$$

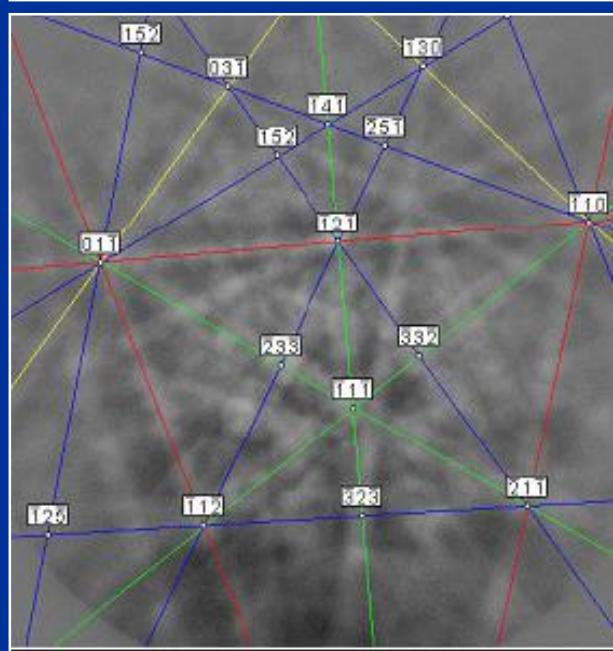
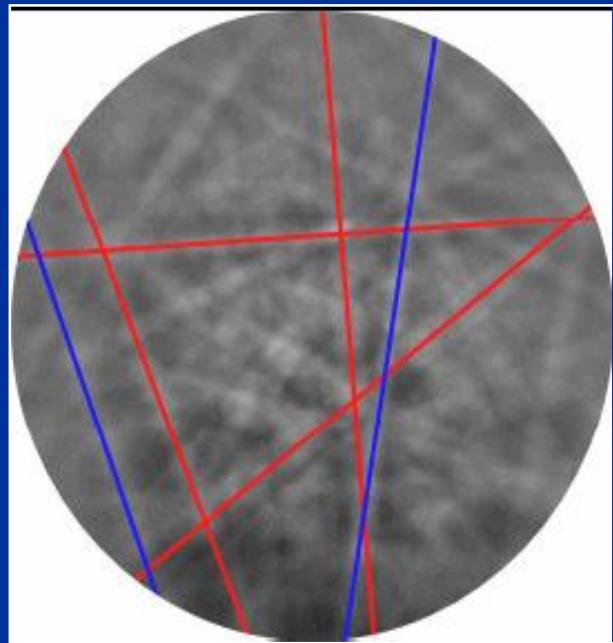
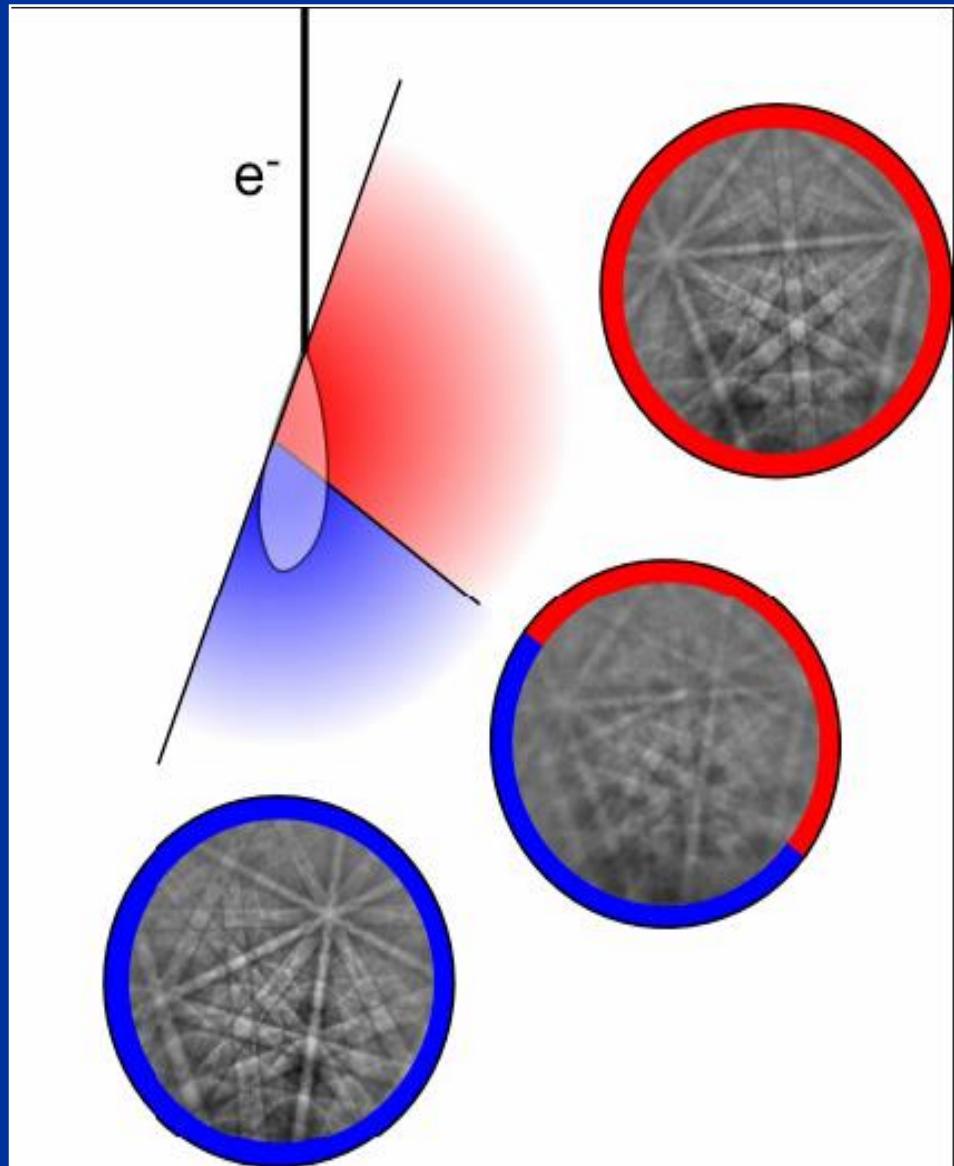
For a given number of bands, n , used for pattern indexing, the number of band triplets is determined by this formula.

Typically 7 to 9 detected bands are used for automatic indexing.

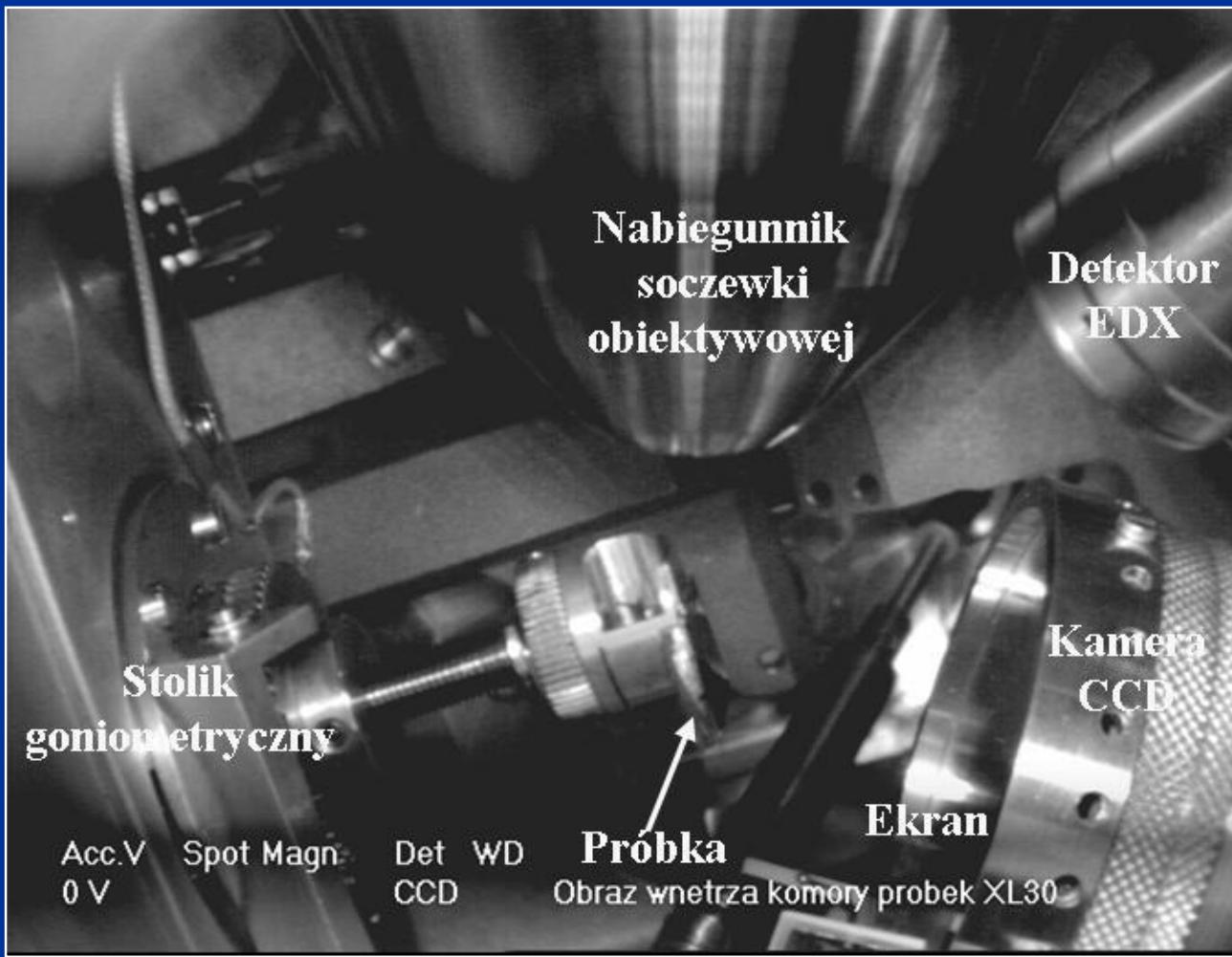
n	# <i>triplets</i>
3	1
4	4
5	10
6	20
7	35
8	56
9	84

Triplet	Solution 1 (V_1)	Solution 2 (V_2)	Solution 3 (V_3)
R, G, Y	X		
R, G, B	X		
R, G, M	X		
R, Y, B	X		
R, Y, M	X	X	
R, B, M	X		
G, Y, B	X		
G, Y, M	X		
G, B, M	X		
Y, B, M	X		X
Total	10	1	1

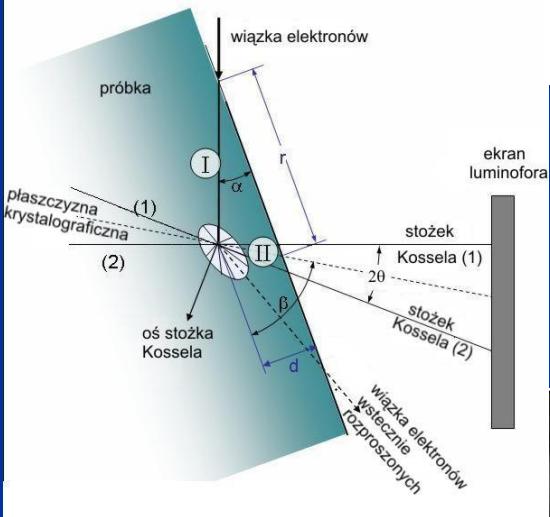
Dla zestawu **5 pasm** – możliwe **10 kombinacji trójkowych**
 Dla 10 kombinacji trójkowych - tylko rozwiązanie V_1 (10 głosów).
 Rozwiązanie V_2 (1 głos) i rozwiązanie V_3 (1 głos)



C-SEM (HV)



Kilka uwag praktycznych

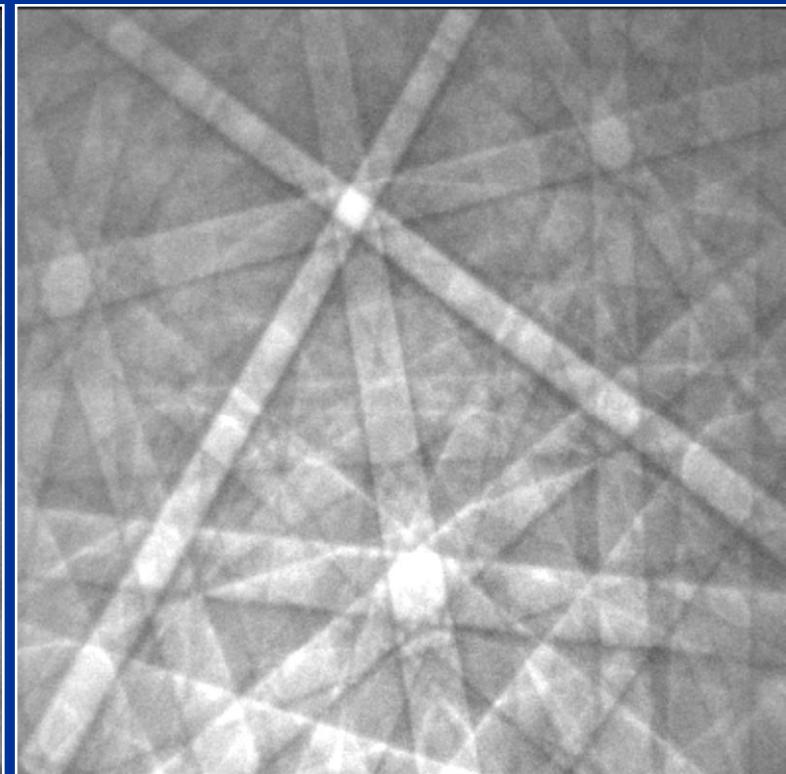
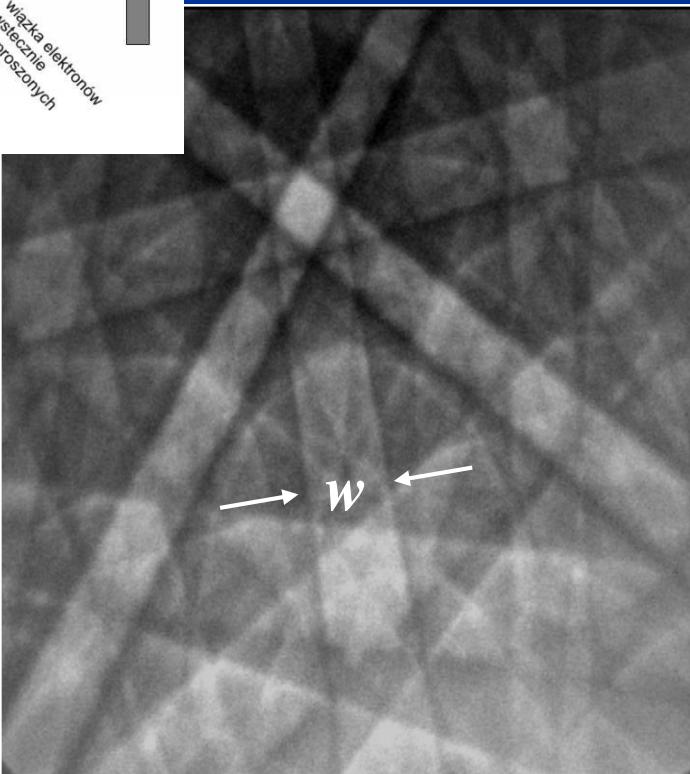


$$w = 2l\theta$$

w - szerokość
pasma

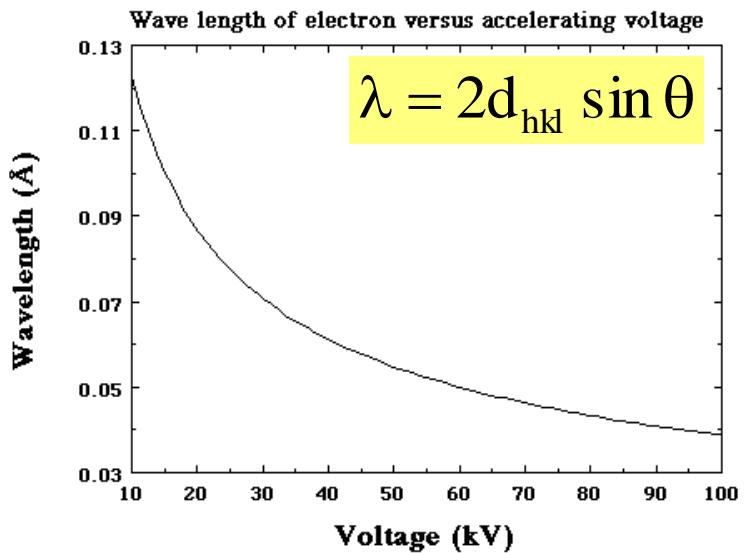
$$n\lambda = 2d_{hkl} \sin\theta = 2d_{hkl} \theta$$

$$w = \frac{l\lambda}{d} \quad \text{gdzie : } l - \text{odległość próbka - ekran}$$



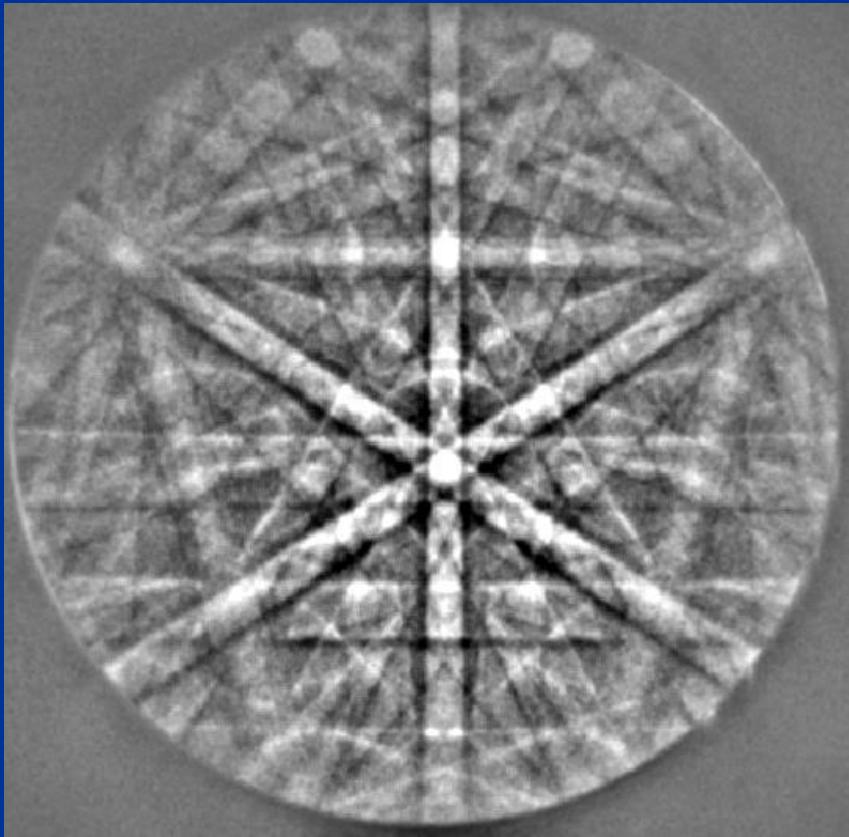
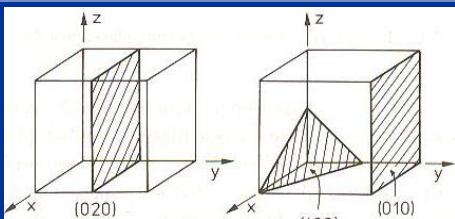
Wpływ napięcia przyspieszającego (zależność w od λ)

EBSD z Si przy 10 kV i 30 kV



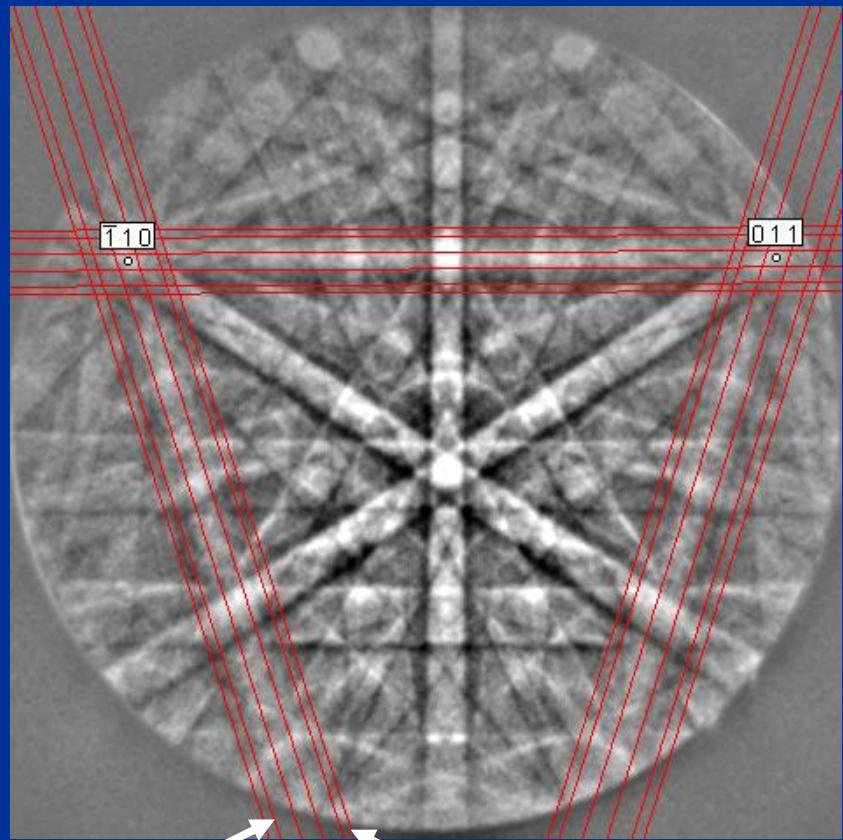
V (kV)	λ (nm)
20	0.00859
30	0.00698
40	0.00602
50	0.00536
60	0.00487
70	0.00448
80	0.00418
90	0.00392
100	0.00370
200	0.00251
300	0.00197
400	0.00164
500	0.00142
600	0.00126
700	0.00113
800	0.00103
900	0.00094
1000	0.00087
2000	0.00050
4000	0.00028

Szerokość pasm Kikuchiego jest odwrotnie proporcjonalna do odległości międzypłaszczyznowej „d”



(zależność „w” od „d”)

Si 1-1-1	3.135 Å
Si 3-3-3	1.045 Å
Si 4-4-4	0.784 Å



3-3-3 1-1-1 4-4-4

Nateżenie pasma Kikuchiego pochodzącego od danej płaszczyzny hkl :

$$I_{hkl} = \left[\sum_i f_i(\Theta) \cos 2\pi(hx_i + ky_i + lz_i) \right]^2 + \left[\sum_i f_i(\Theta) \sin 2\pi(hx_i + ky_i + lz_i) \right]^2$$

gdzie: $f_i(\theta)$ atomowy czynnik rozpraszania dla elektronów,
 (x_i, y_i, z_i) cząstkowe koordynaty dla atomu i w komórce elementarnej.

Zarejestrowaną dyfrakcję porównujemy z dyfrakcją wyliczoną na podstawie powyższego równania, uważając aby uwzględnić tylko te płaszczyzny które uginają elektrony, gdyż tylko one biorą udział biorą udział w tworzeniu dyfrakcji.

Czynnik strukturalny

Umożliwia przewidywanie obecności lub nieobecności refleksów dyfrakcyjnych od różnych płaszczyzn krystalograficznych a także proporcje ich intensywności. Opisywany przez niego efekt spowodowany jest interferencją fal cząstkowych ugiętych na poszczególnych atomach komórki elementarnej.

$$A_{hkl} \propto F_{hkl} A_0$$

A_{hkl} – amplituda wiązki elektronowej ugiętej na płaszczyźnie hkl

A_0 – amplituda wiązki elektronowej padającej

F_{hkl} – czynnik strukturalny dla płaszczyzny hkl

$$\begin{aligned} F_{hkl} = & f_1(\theta) \exp[-2\pi i(hu_1 + kv_1 + lw_1)] \\ & + f_2(\theta) \exp[-2\pi i(hu_2 + kv_2 + lw_2)] \\ & + \dots \\ & + f_n(\theta) \exp[-2\pi i(hu_n + kv_n + lw_n)] \end{aligned}$$

gdzie:

Z – liczba atomowa,

f_x – czynnik atomowy na rozpraszanie promieniowania rentgenowskiego,

Z-f_x – rozpraszanie elektronu na elektronach powłok

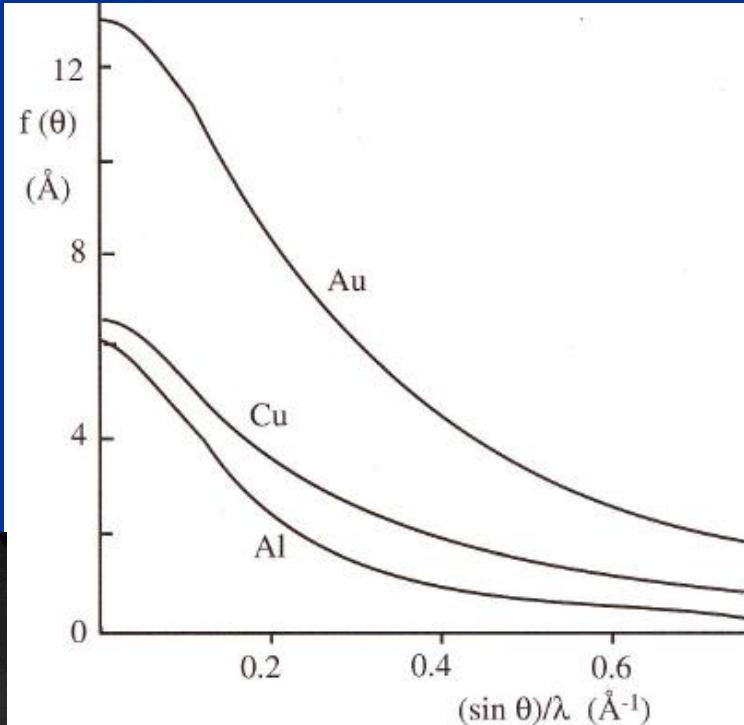
λ/sinθ – opisuje rozpraszanie Rutherforda elektronu na jądrze atomowym

(L.REIMER)

Al

a

$$f(\theta) = \frac{m_o e^2}{2h^2} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\sin \theta} \right)^2 (Z - f_x)$$



Ta

b

$$F_{hkl} = \sum_{j=1}^n f_j(\theta) \exp[-2\pi i(hu_j + kv_j + lw_j)]$$

Dla n liczby atomów w komórce elementarnej

W pewnych przypadkach płaszczyzny nie uginają elektronów – dyfrakcja nie zachodzi –
forbidden reflections

Czynnik strukturalny

100 dla fcc (Au)

– atomy Au rozmieszczone są na narożach komórki elementarnej i na środkach płaszczyzn.

$n = 4$ (bo cztery atomy tworzą komórkę elementarną zajmując pozycje: [0,0,0], [0,1/2,1/2], [1/2,0,1/2], [1/2,1/2,0])

$$F_{hkl} = f_1(\theta) \begin{pmatrix} \exp[-2\pi i(1 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 0)] \\ + \exp[-2\pi i(1 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 0 \cdot \frac{1}{2})] \\ + \exp[-2\pi i(1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 0 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot \frac{1}{2})] \\ + \exp[-2\pi i(1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 0 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 0 \cdot 0)] \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \exp[0] \\ + \exp[0] \\ + \exp[-\pi i] \\ + \exp[-\pi i] \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

$$F_{hkl} = \sum_{j=1}^n f_i(\Theta) \cos 2\pi(hx_n + ky_n + lz_n) - i \sum_{j=1}^n f_i(\Theta) \sin 2\pi(hx_n + ky_n + lz_n)$$

x, y, z – położenia atomu n

hkl – wskaźniki Millerowskie płaszczyzn

F_{hkl} dla FCC

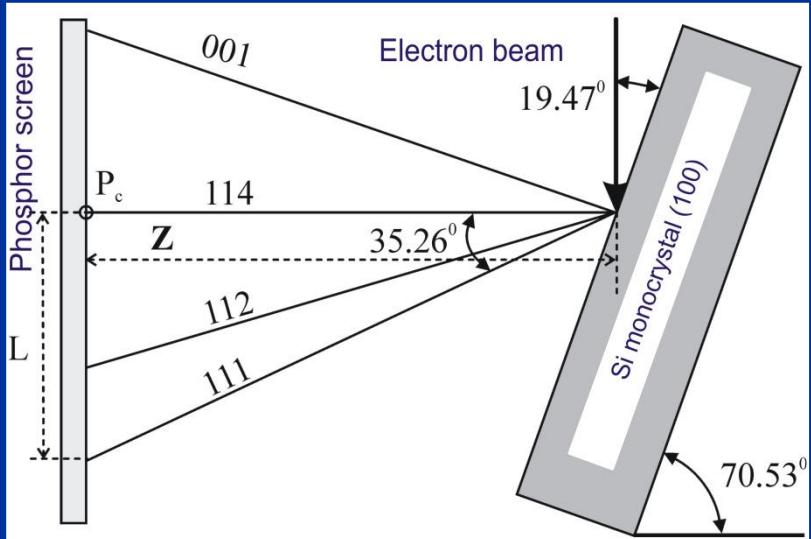
warunkiem wystąpienia refleksu w sieci FCC jest, aby

wskaźniki „h k l” były tego samego rodzaju (parzyste lub nieparzyste),

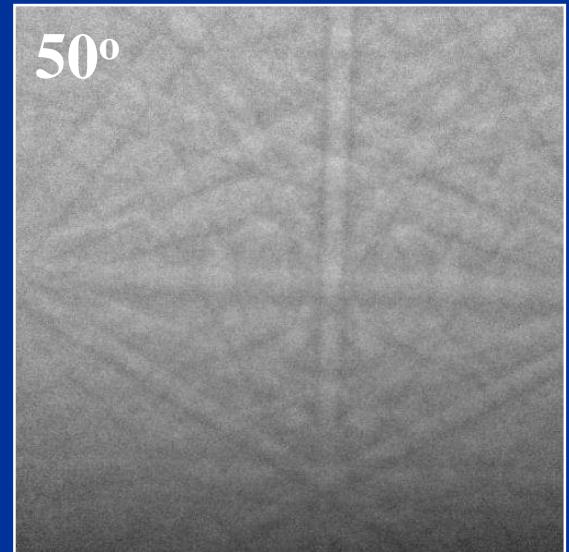
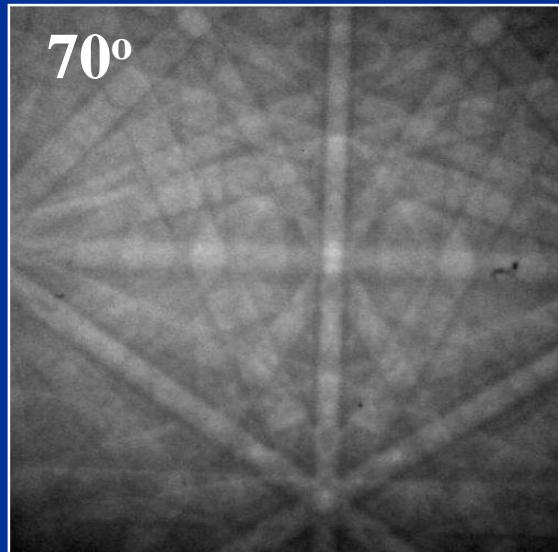
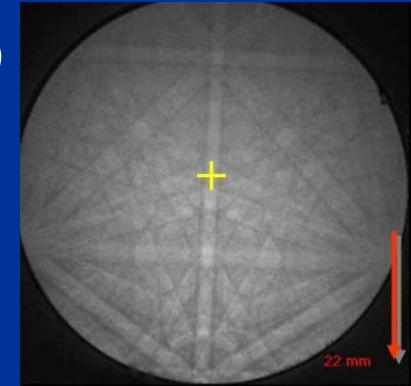
wtedy suma dwóch wskaźników będzie zawsze parzysta (w tym przypadku $F_{hkl} = 4f$), dlatego eliminujemy płaszczyzny: 100, 110, 210, 211..., a zostają płaszczyzny: 111, 200, 220, 311, 222, 331, 422, 333, 440, 531, 442, 533

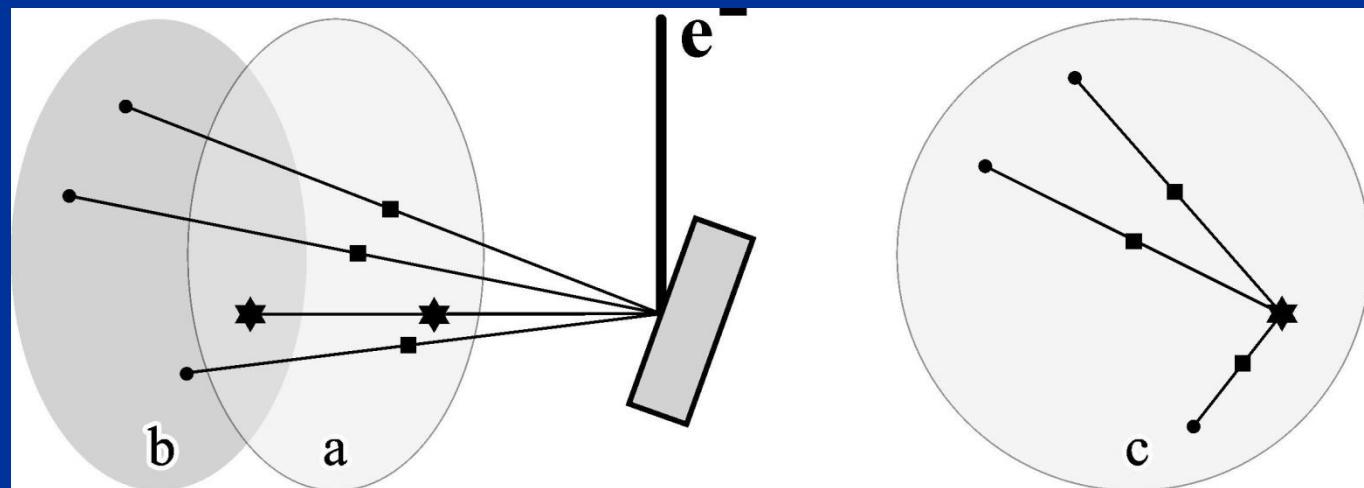
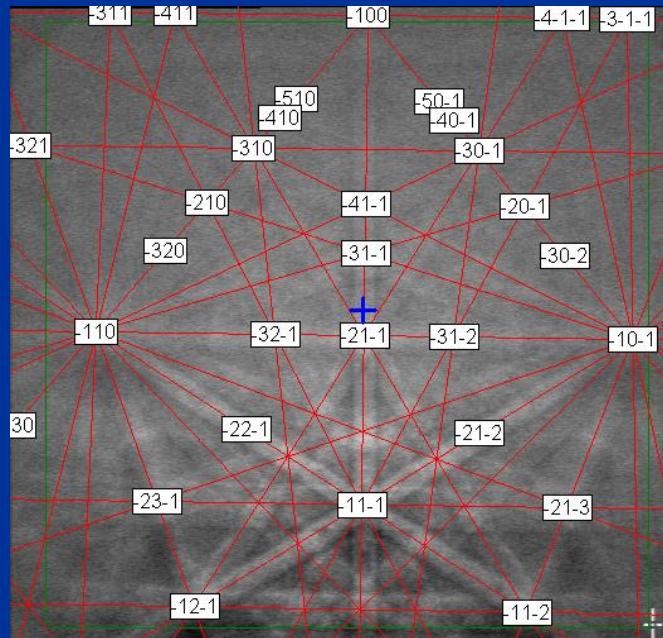
Reflectors	No.	d-spacing, Å	Intensity %
{111}	4	2.338	100.0
{200}	3	2.025	69.4
{220}	6	1.432	27.6
{311}	12	1.221	18.2
{222}	4	1.169	16.2
{331}	12	0.929	9.0
{422}	12	0.827	6.6

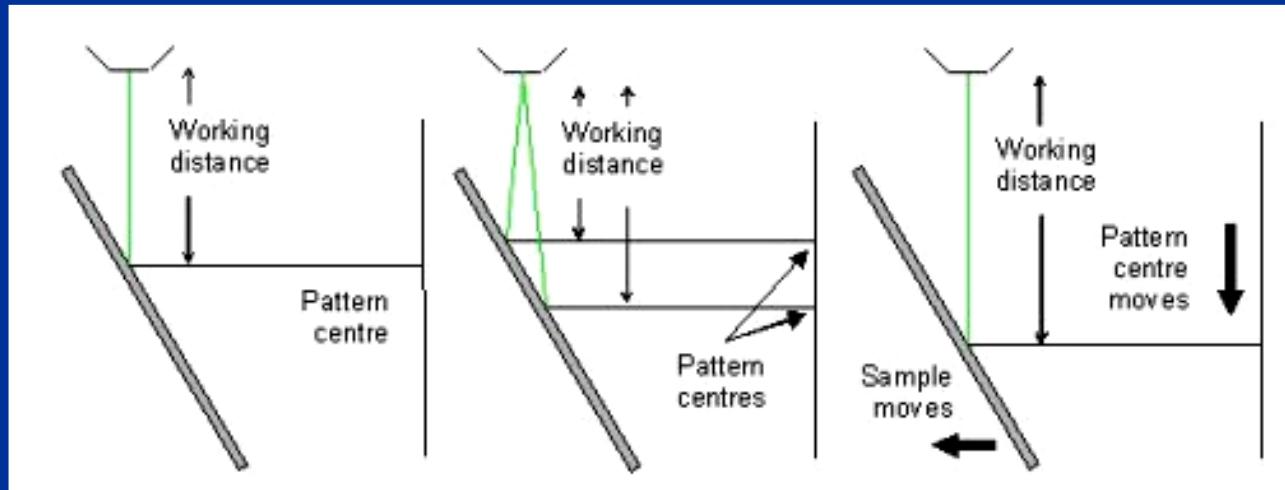
Pattern Centre – dlaczego pochylamy próbę o 70°?



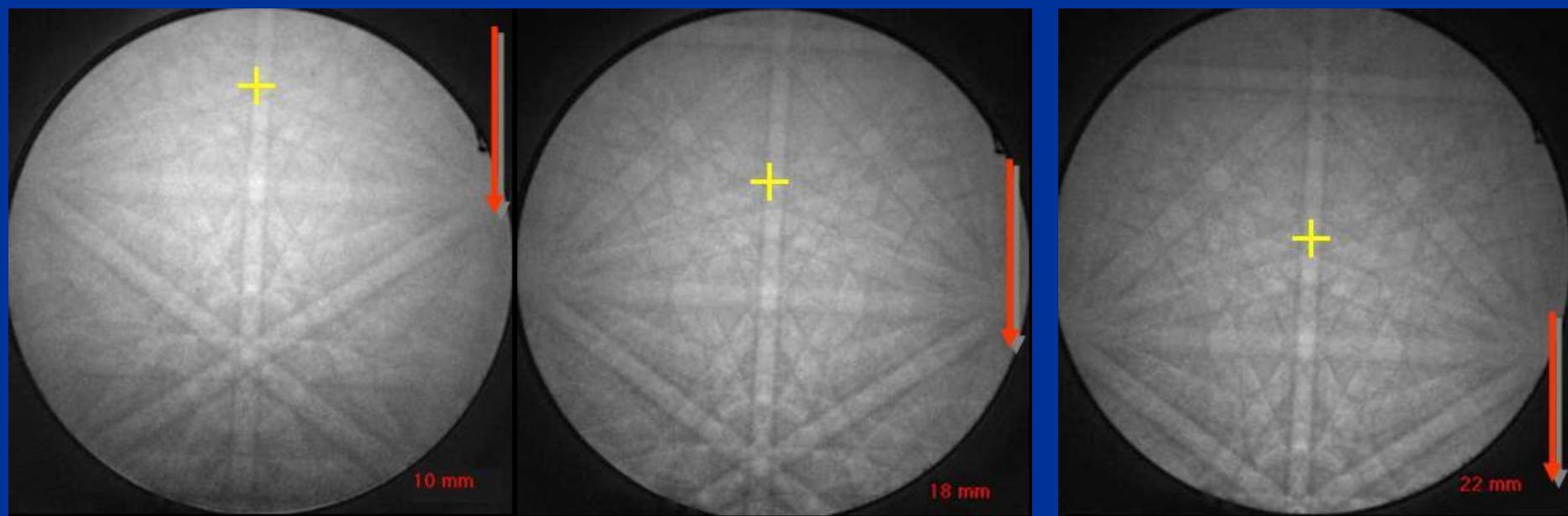
Pattern Centre (PC)
Punkt na ekranie
luminoforu leżący
najblżej źródła
elektronów
generującego dyfrakcję

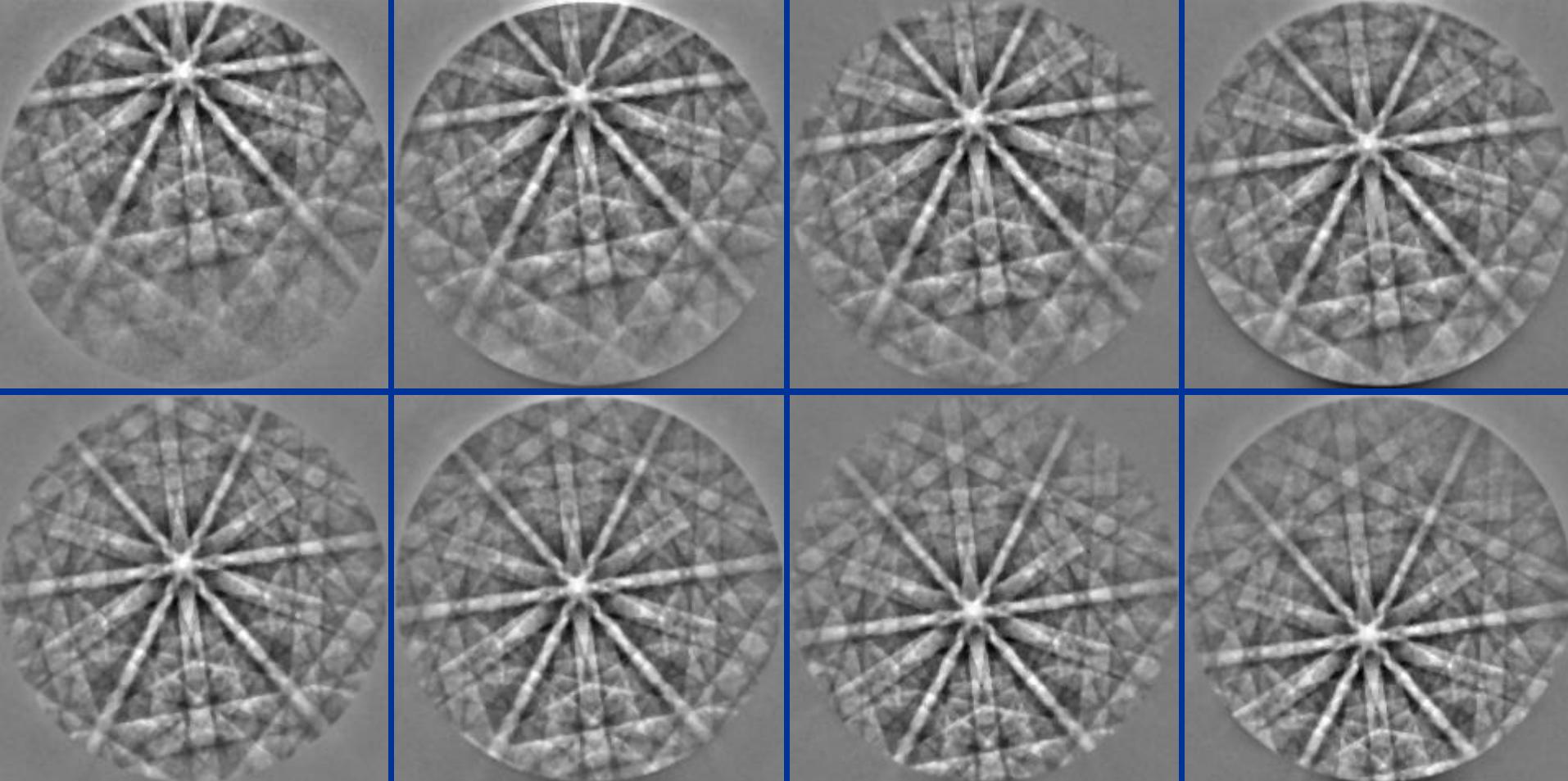




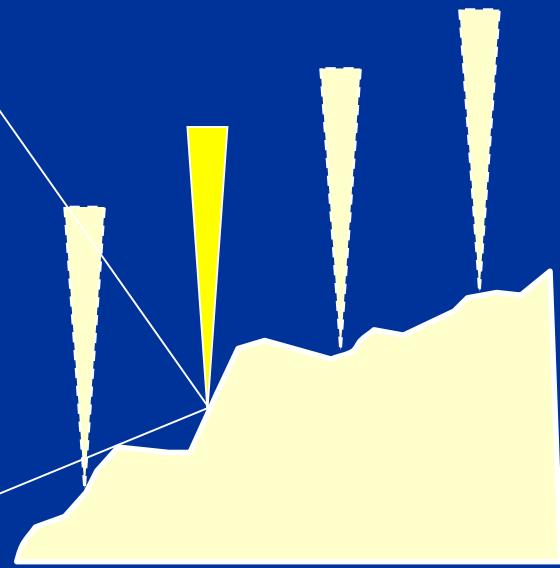
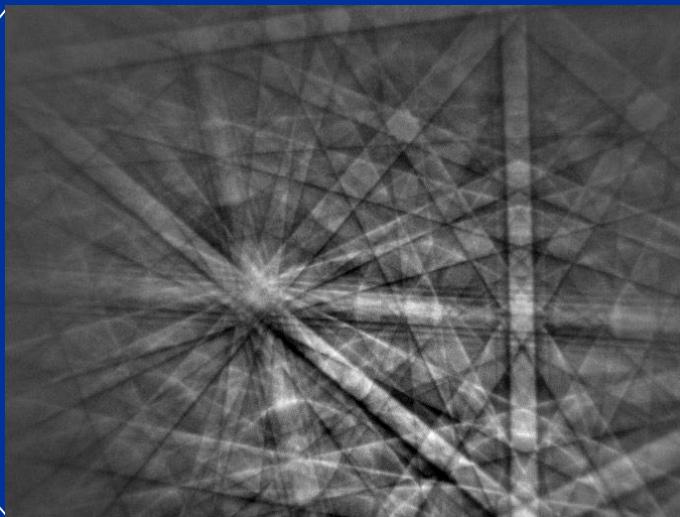
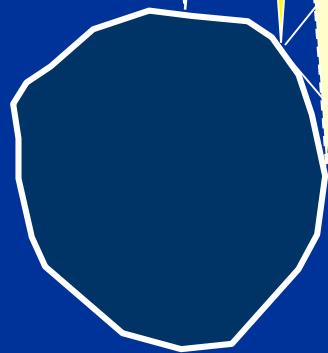


Gdy zmienia się
WD (*Working
Distance*) ulega
zmianie położenie
PC (*Pattern Centre*)

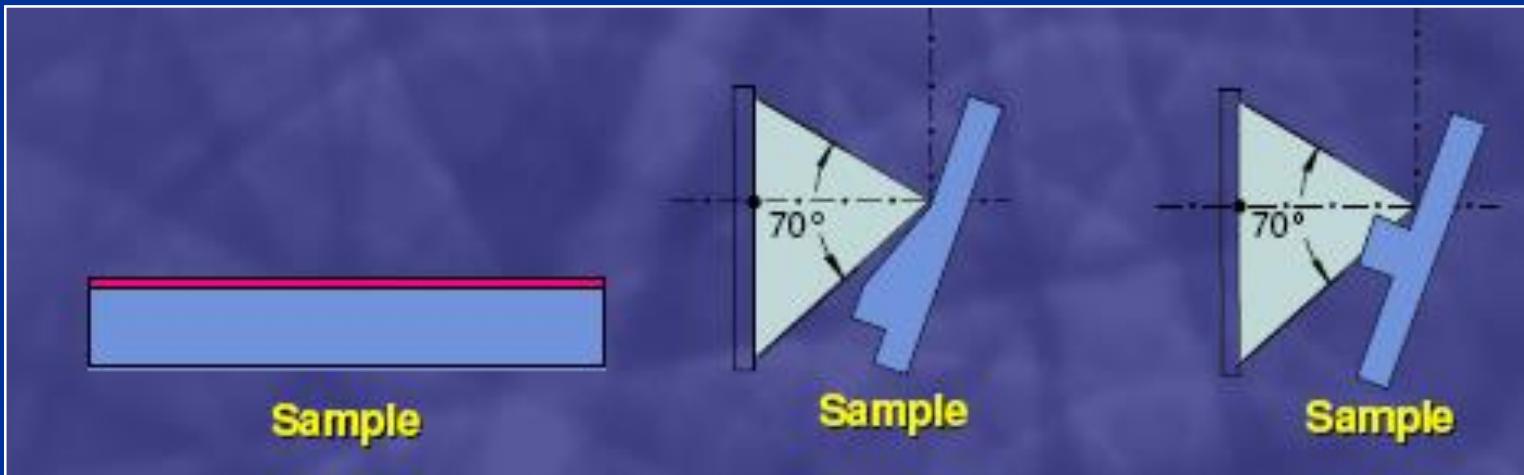




**Zmiana położenia PC (*Pattern Centre*) wraz ze zmianą WD
(*Working Distance*)**
Austenit – WD od 7 mm do 25 mm
(zmiana co 2 mm)

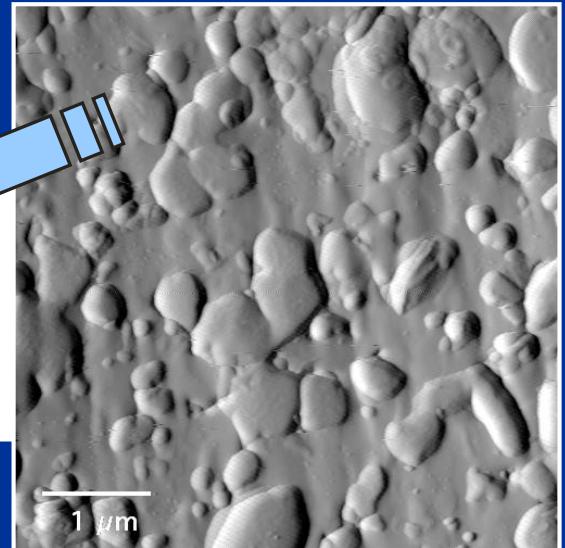
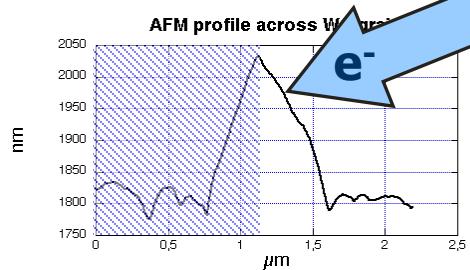
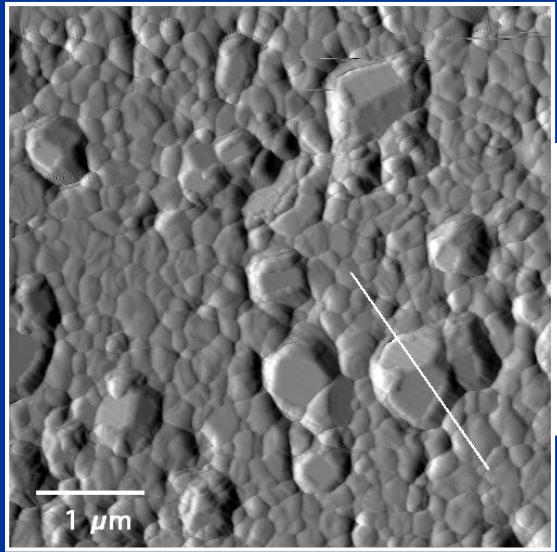


Przygotowanie próbek do badań



Ponieważ informacja pochodzi z głębokości ~50 nm,
dlatego konieczna jest:

- Ciągłość struktury krystalograficznej aż do powierzchni próbki
- Gładka powierzchnia bez wypukłości („shadowing”)
- Brak warstwy zdeformowanej, tlenkowej, napylonej



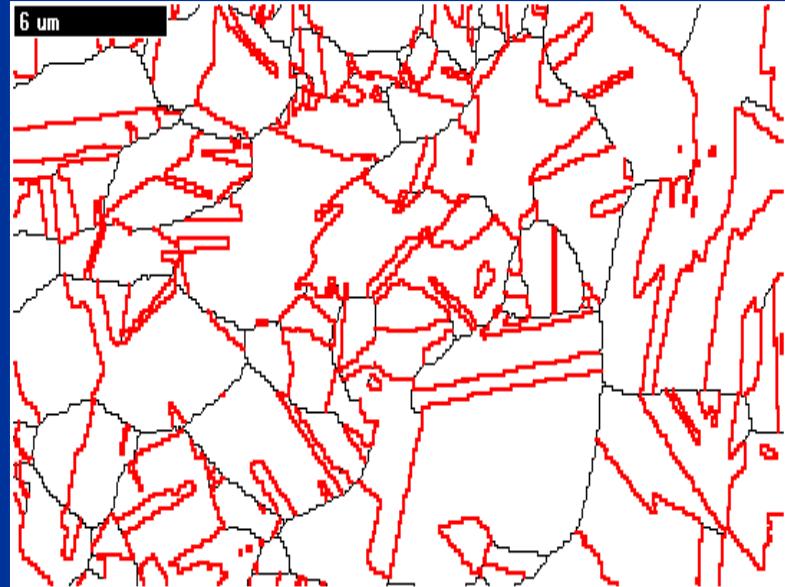
Trawienie termiczne
Y-TZP (0.2 - 0.3 μm)/WC

Polerowanie koloidalną
krzemionką
Y-TZP (0.2 - 0.3 μm)/WC

Przykłady



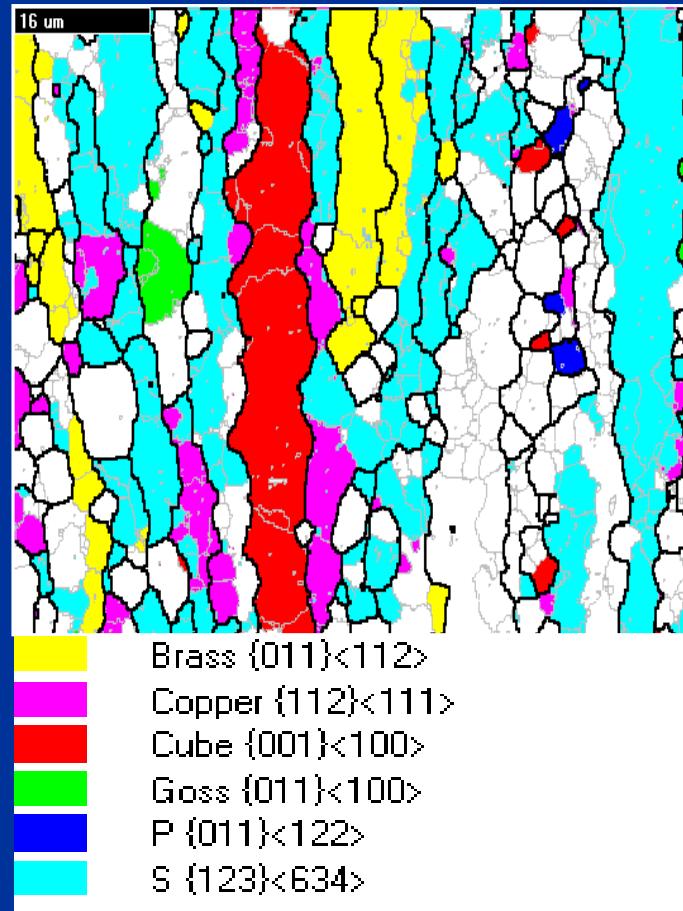
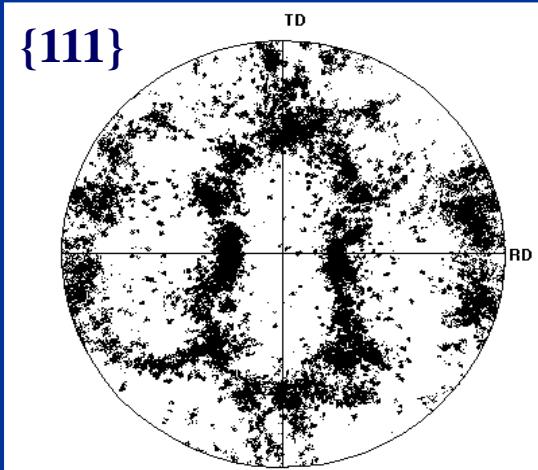
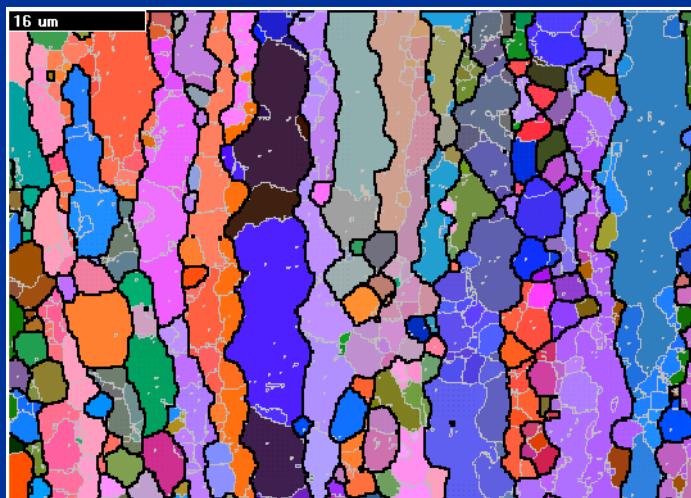
Granice międzyziarnowe
w mosiądzu
Mapa orientacji



Granice CSL (Coincidence Site
Lattice) w mosiądzu
 $\Sigma 3$ (granice bliźniacze) – 67%

Prof. J.Humphries, UM

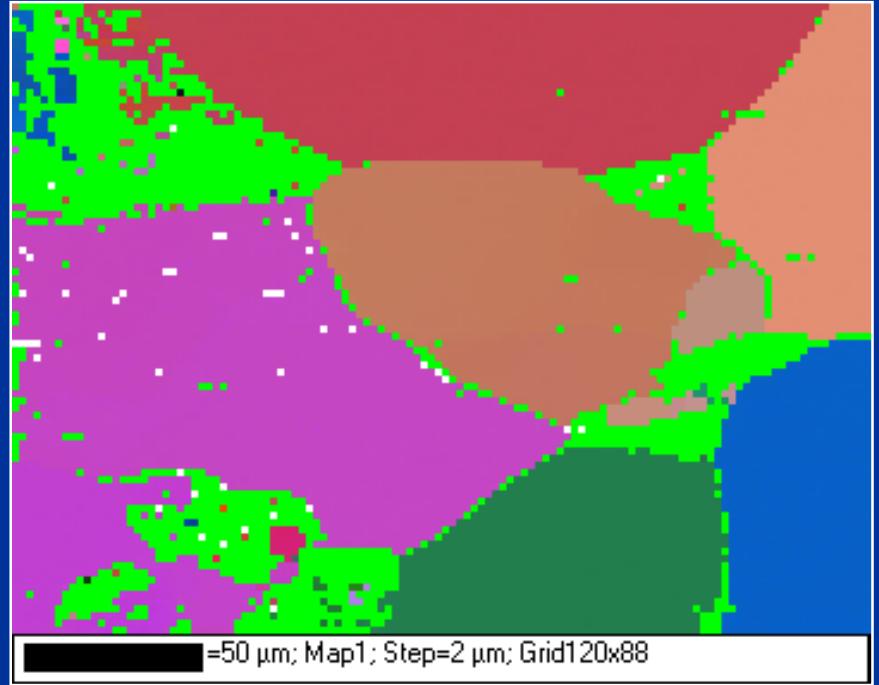
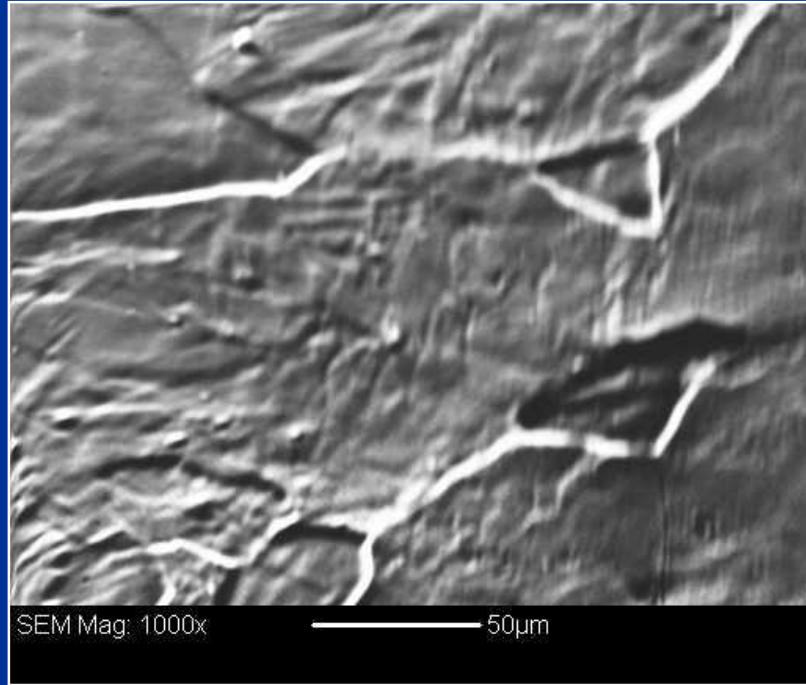
Analiza tekstury



Stop AA5182 walcowany na gorąco

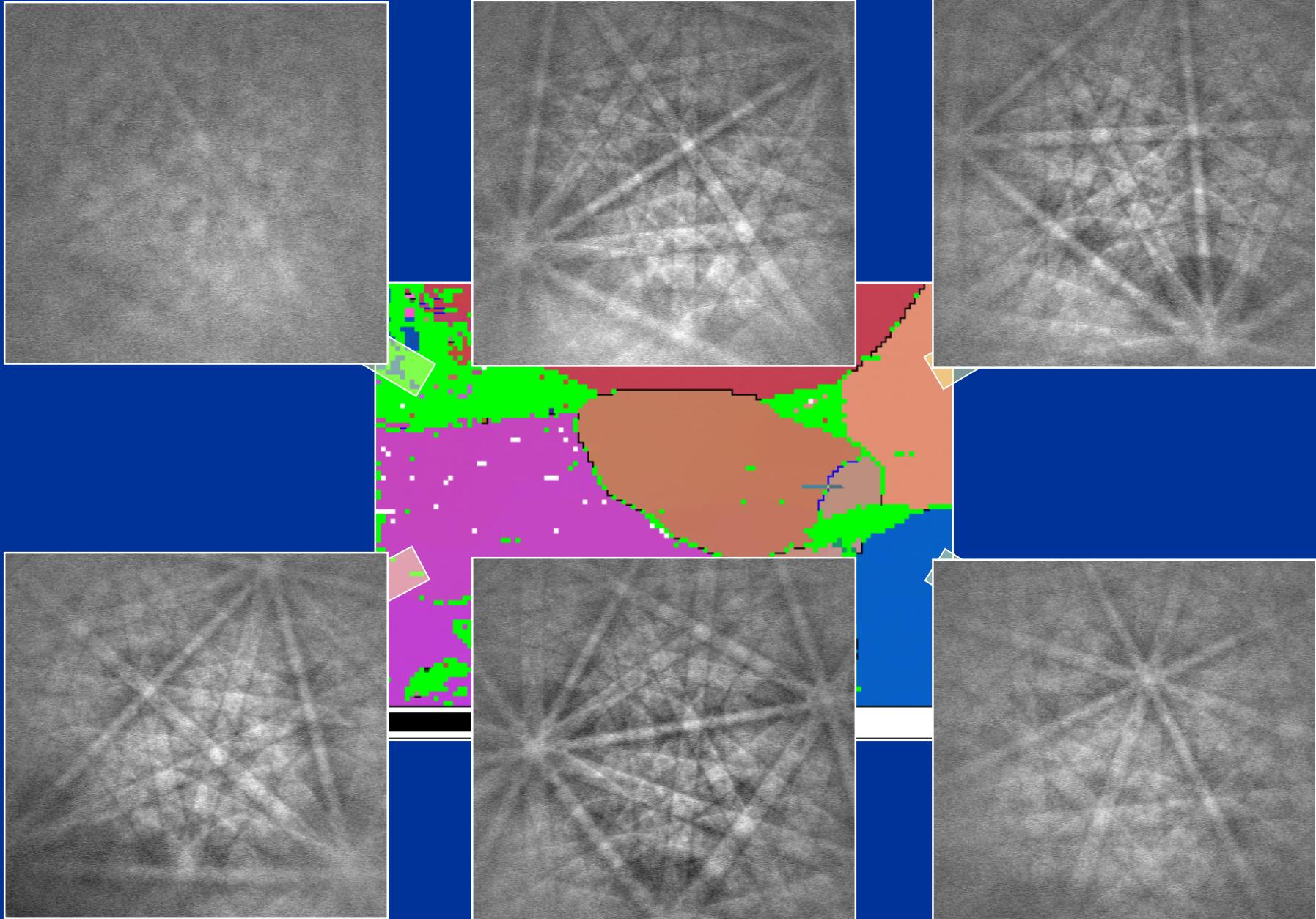
Prof. J.Humphries, UM

Fe0.05wt% C 725°C 554h

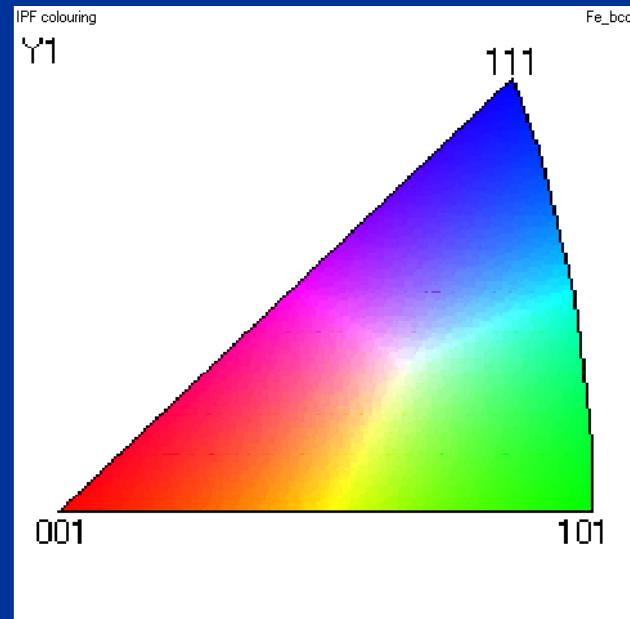
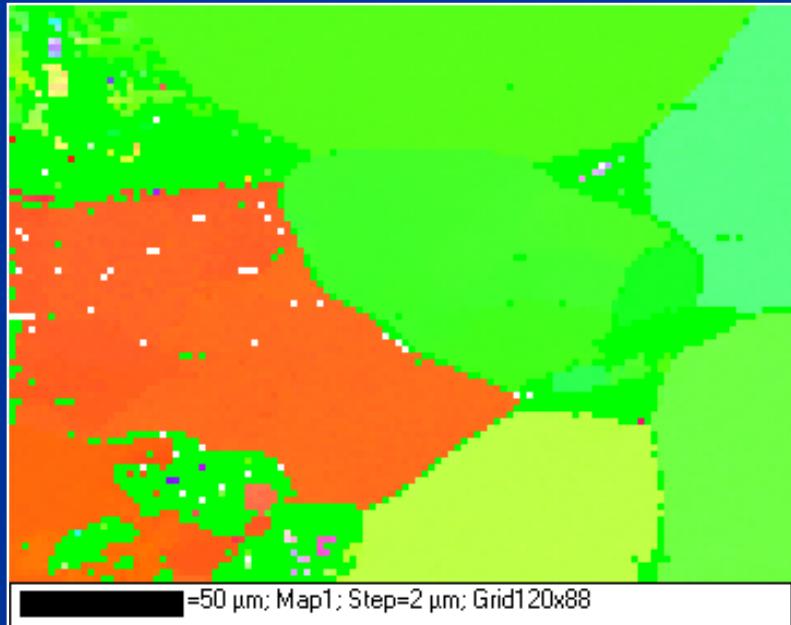


Dodatkowy detektor elektronów rozproszonych do przodu (forward scattered electrons) do obrazowania miejsc na próbce, z których rejestrowane są dyfrakcje

Mapa zmian orientacji All Euler Map



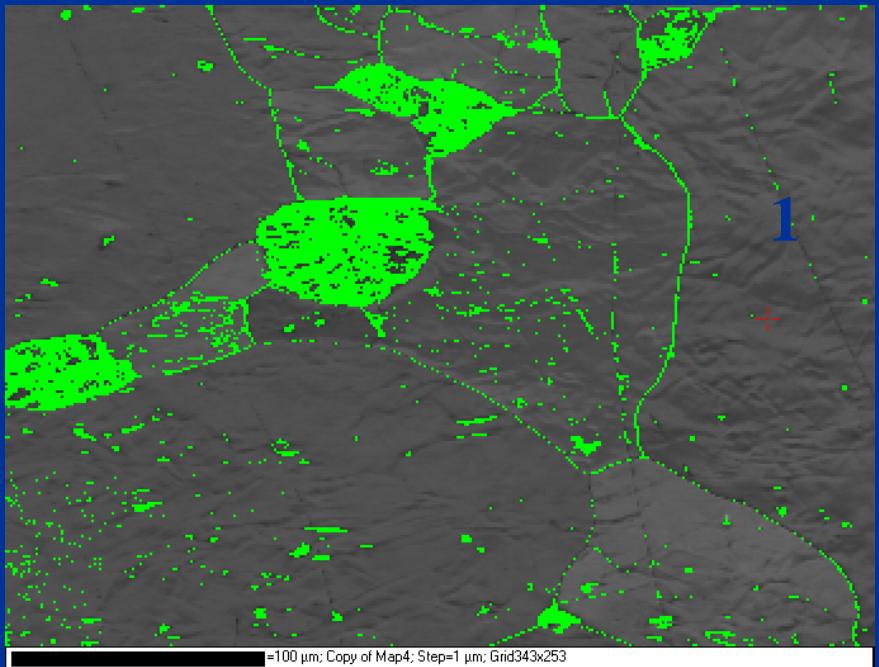
Fe0.05wt% C 725°C 554h



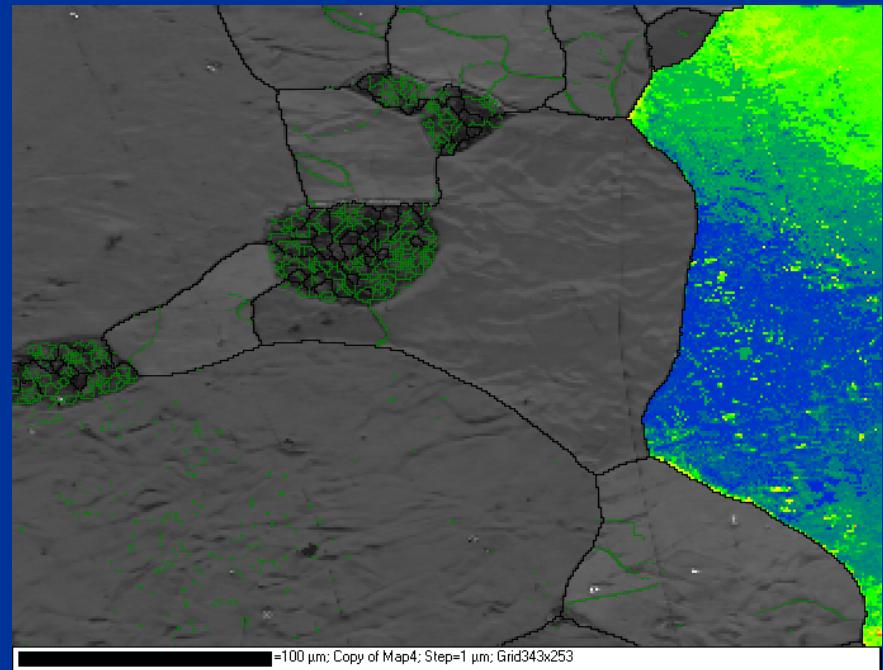
Mapa IPF (*Inverse Pole Figure Map*)

Kodowanie kolorów wskazuje kierunek kryształu
równoległy do kierunku referencyjnego

Fe0.05wt% C 725°C 554h



Mapa BC (*Band Contrast*)

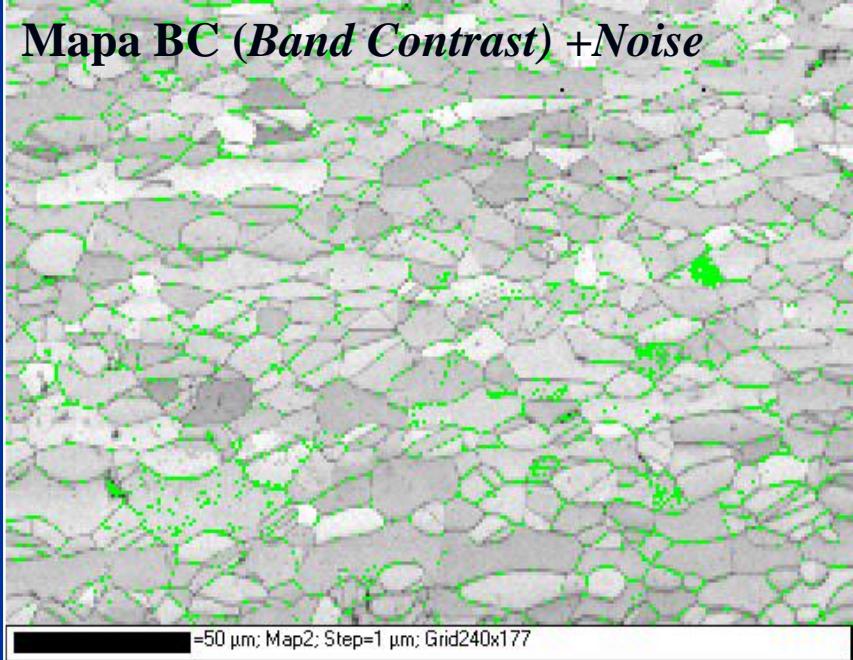


Mapa TC (*Texture Component Map*)

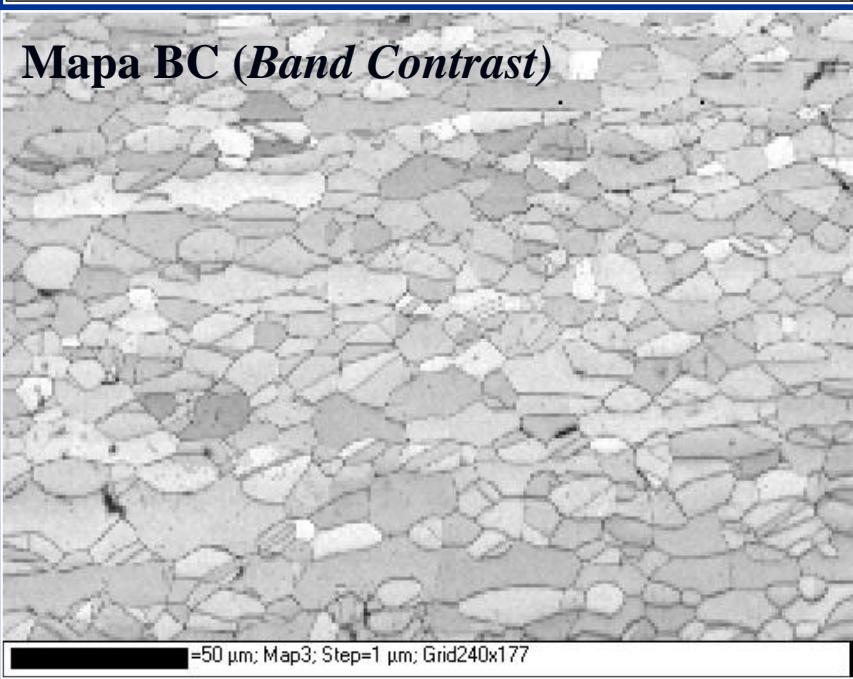
Idealna orientacja ziarna 1:

$\varphi_1 = 130.6^\circ$, $\Phi = 40.1^\circ$, $\varphi_2 = 67.0^\circ$,
odchylenie od idealnej orientacji 1°

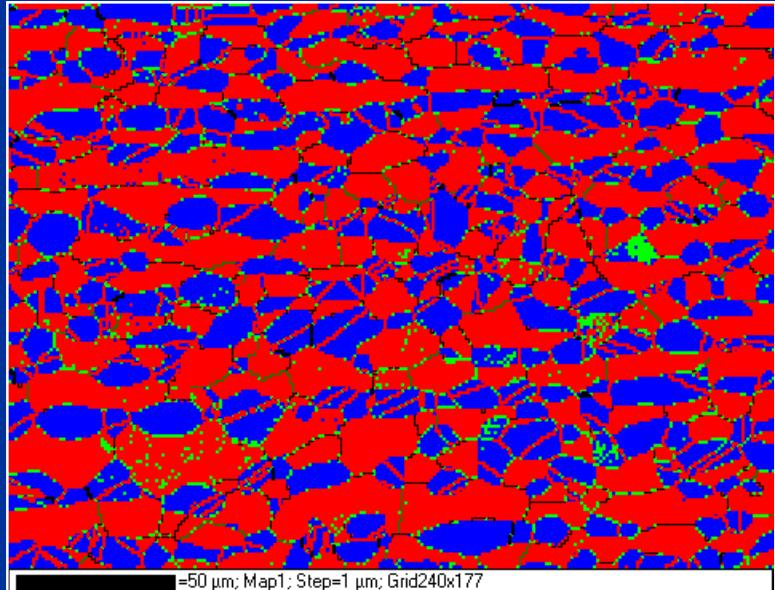
Mapa BC (Band Contrast) +Noise



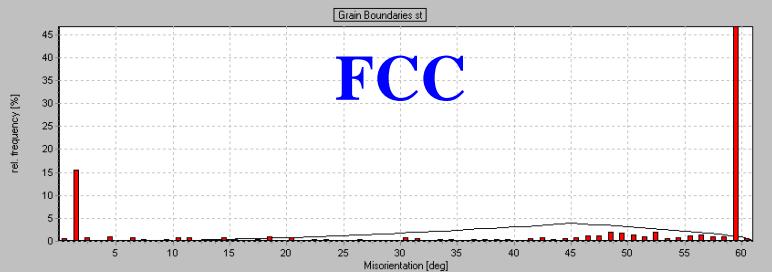
Mapa BC (Band Contrast)



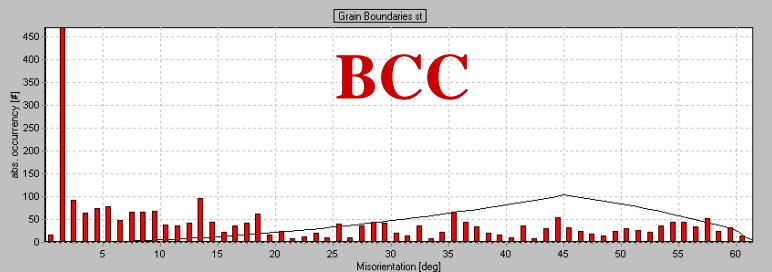
STAL DUPLEX



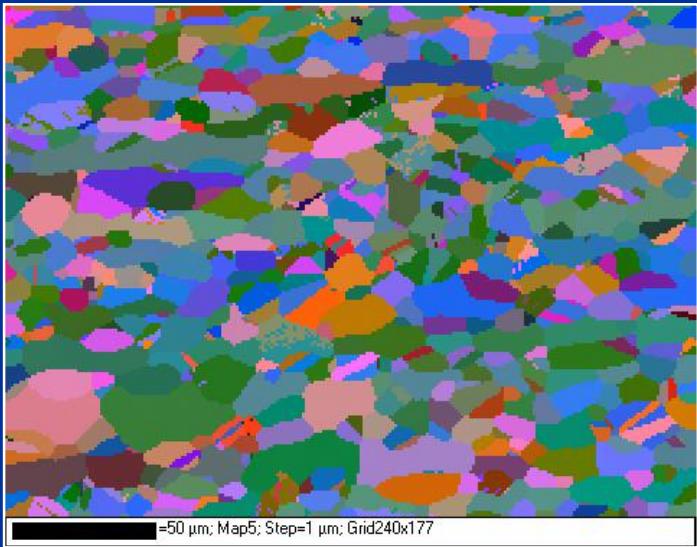
Mapa fazowa + granice



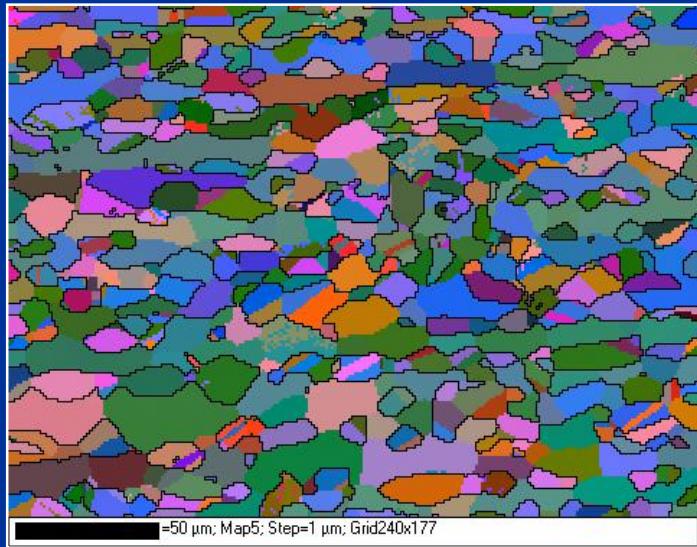
FCC



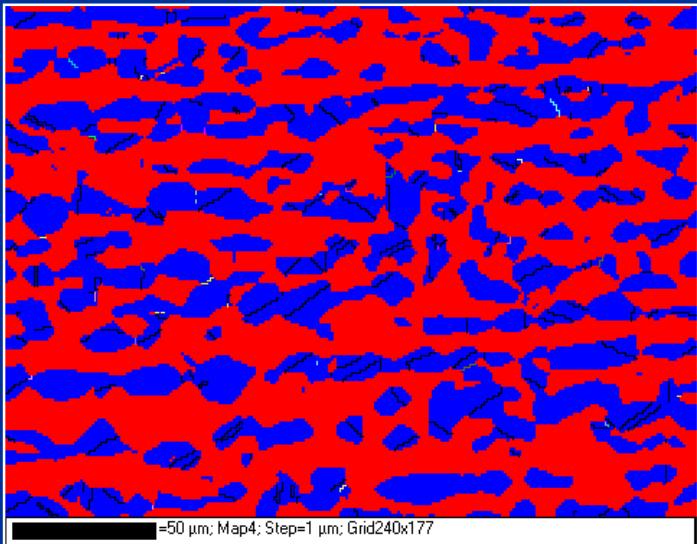
BCC



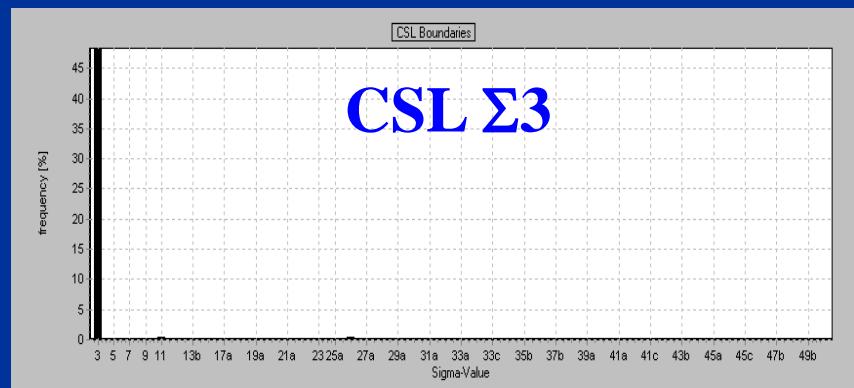
Mapa orientacji



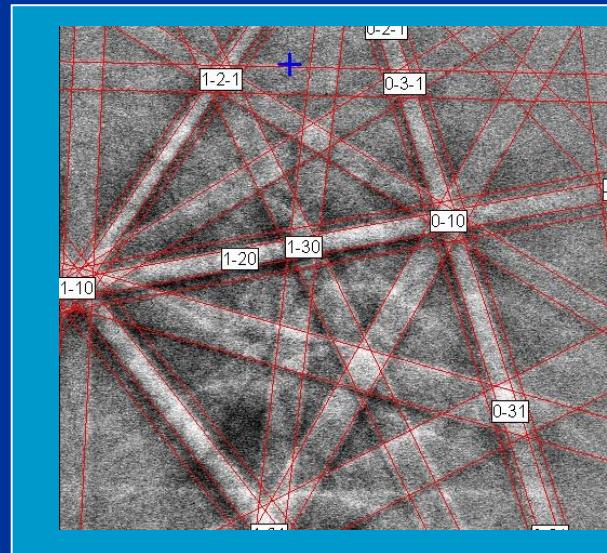
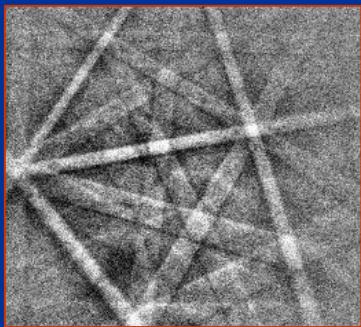
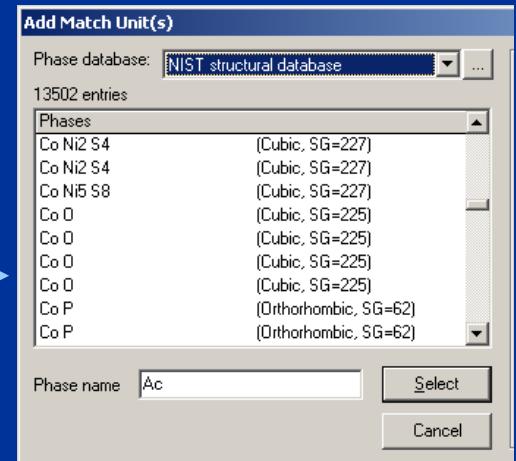
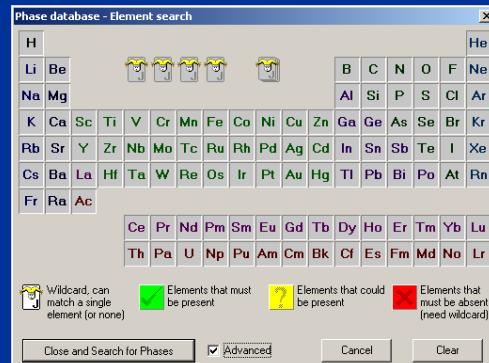
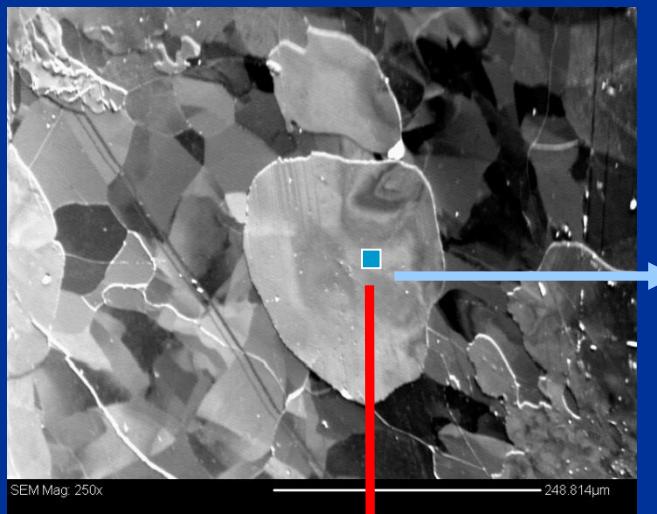
Mapa orientacji + granice fazowe



Mapa fazowa

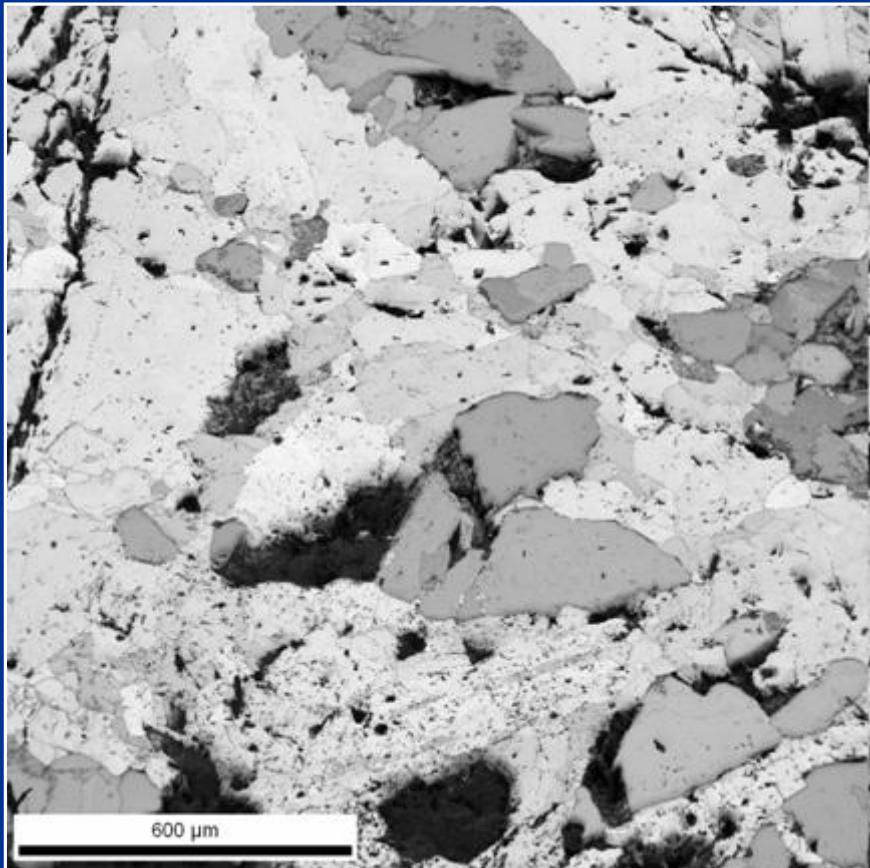


EBSD/OIM – technika wymagająca wzorców

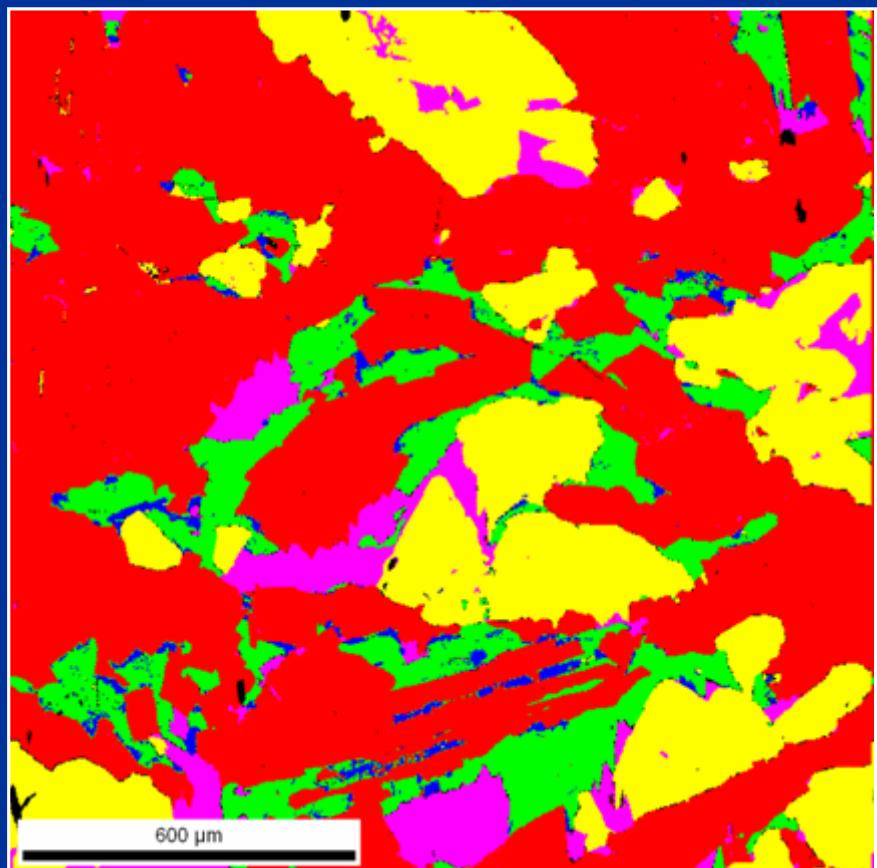


SZMERGIEL (skała zawierająca m.in. korund i magnetyt)

Mapa BC (*Band Contrast*)

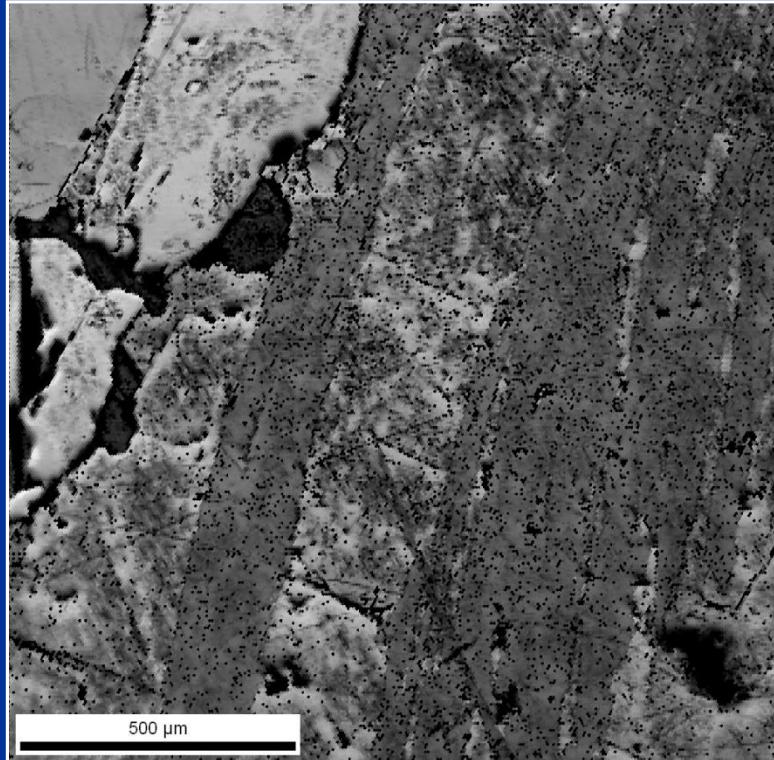


Mapa fazowa

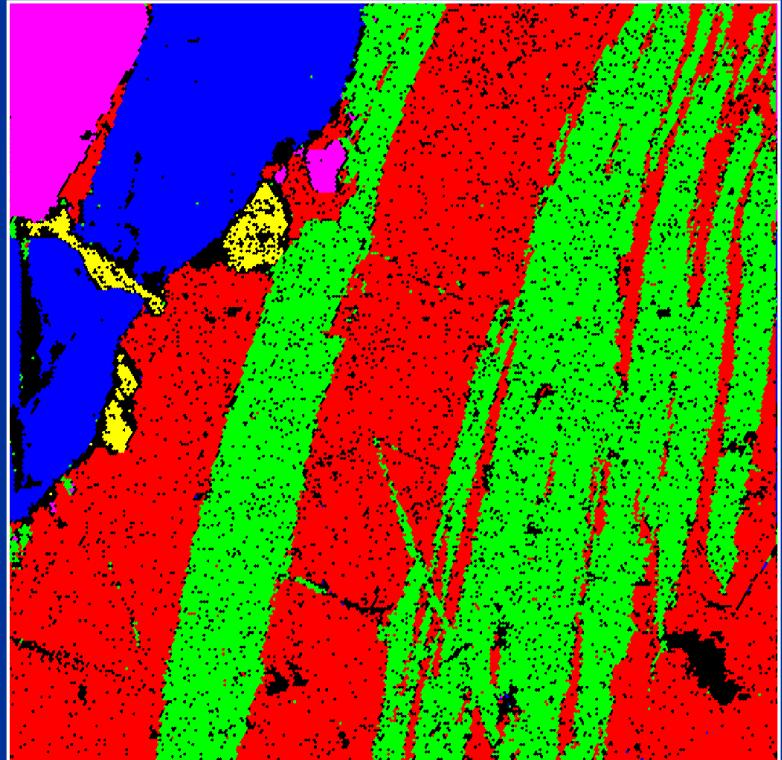


Fe ₃ O ₄
FeTiO ₃
Al ₂ O ₃
TiO ₂
Magnesium Iron Aluminum Silicate Hydroxide

Mapa BC (*Band Contrast*)

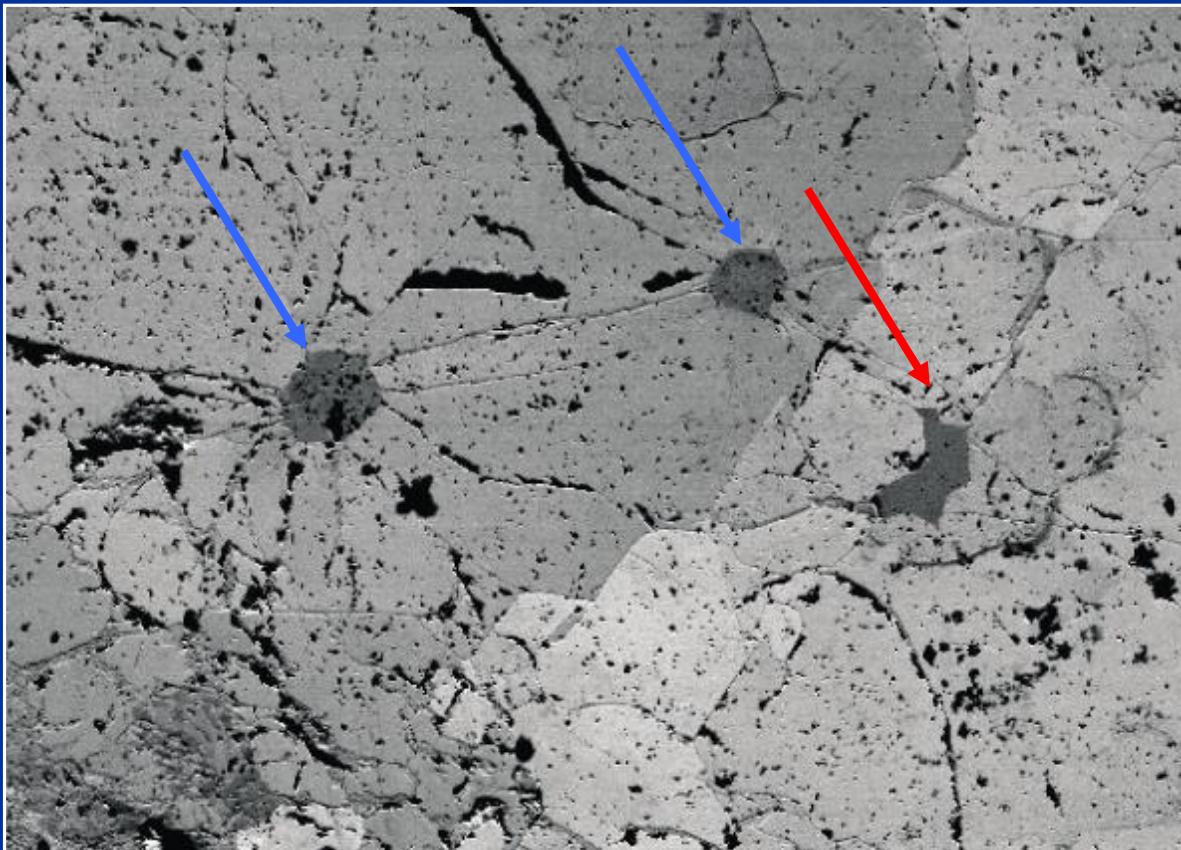


Mapa fazowa



Phase	Total Fraction	Partition Fraction
Chalcopyrite	0.395	0.445
Cubanite	0.330	0.372
Amphibole	0.010	0.011
Iron Oxide	0.115	0.130
Iron Sulfide	0.039	0.044

Forescatter electron image



General microstructure of the analyzed area.

**Three prominent inclusions in dark grey, two of which shows the coesite-quartz transformation
(radial fractures visible as dark lines).**

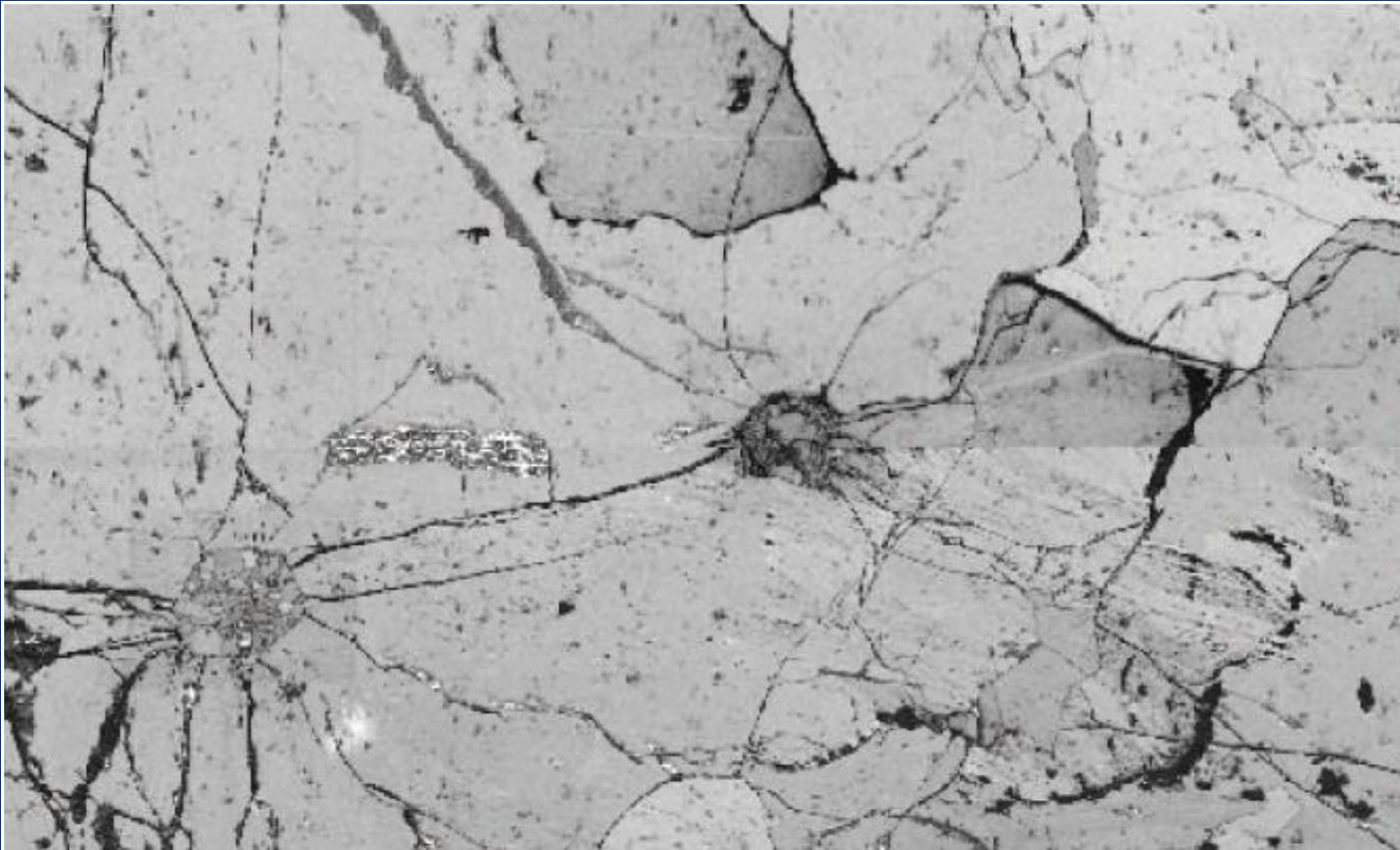
Grey scale variations in the surrounding garnet represent differences in crystal orientations („chanelling contrast”)

Koezyt – odmiana wysokociśnieniowa (20-80 kbar) SiO_2 o strukturze jednoskośnej C2/c

Kwarc – odmiana niskociśnieniowa SiO_2 o strukturze trygonalnej P3₂22

Granat - $(\text{Mg},\text{Fe})_3\text{Al}_2[\text{SiO}_4]_3$

EBSD quality map

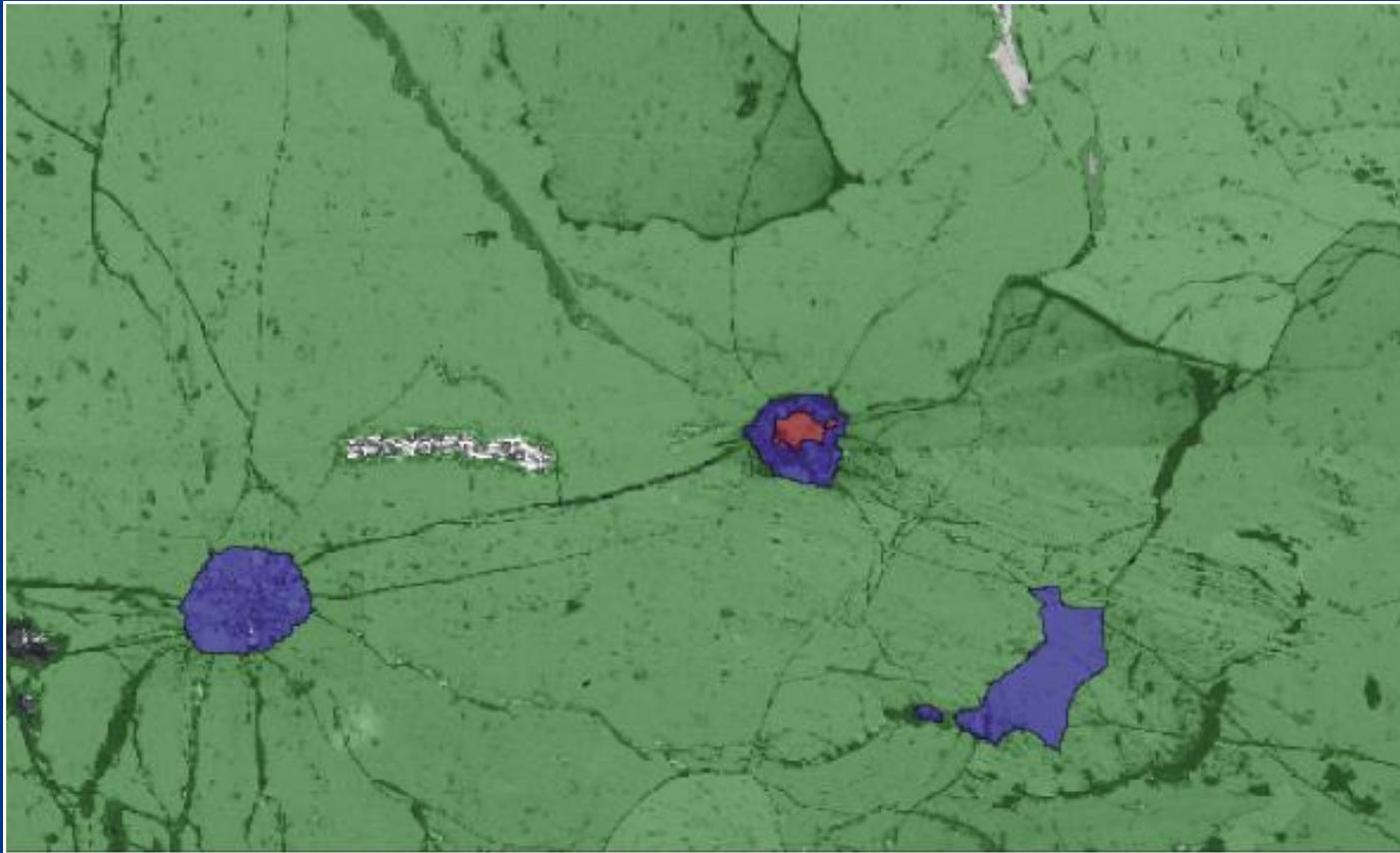


General microstructure of the analyzed area

Two of the inclusions (in the centre and lower left part of the image) are prominent with radiating fractures, visible as black lines (poor EBSD quality)

Horizontal join of the 2 maps is visible across the centre of the image. Scale bar = 400 μ m

Phase map



Distribution of three phases across the area

Garnet is marked in green, quartz in blue and coesite in red.

The central inclusion has a core of coesite surrounded by a rim of quartz.

The lower-left inclusion has completely reverted to quartz.

Radiating from the prominent inclusions are fractures, visible as black lines
(poor EBSD quality)

Orientation map



Crystallographic orientations of all three minerals

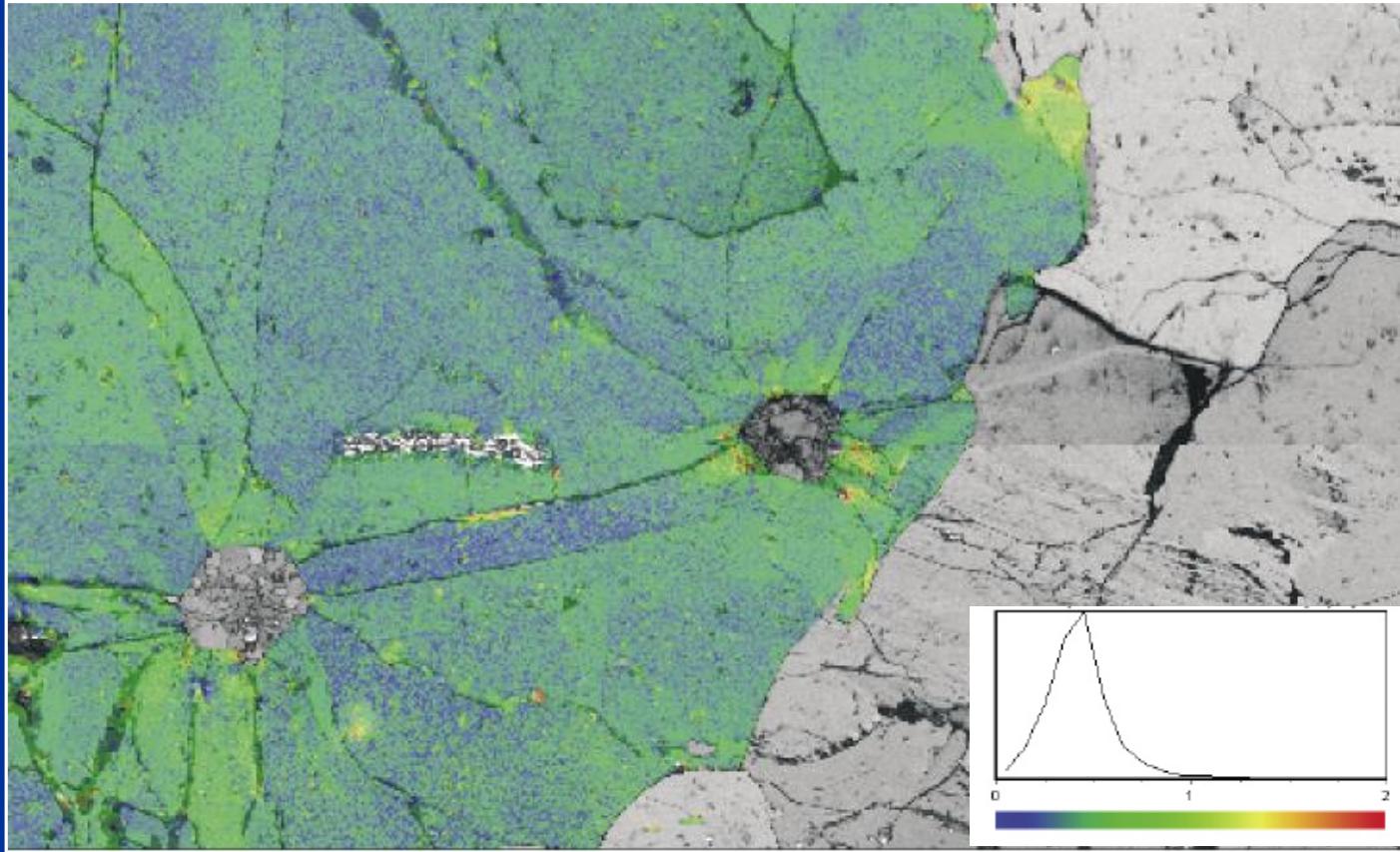
Colors corresponding to the Euler angles.

Grain boundaries are marked in black, phase boundaries are marked in red

The whole area is comprised of only a few garnet grains. The quartz in the inclusions is polycrystalline with grain boundaries radiating from the centre.

The coesite in the central inclusion is a single crystal

Deformation map



Deformation of the garnet around the coesite/quartz inclusions

The attempted change from coesite to quartz has tried to expand the inclusion, thereby causing radial cracks and deformation in the garnet.

This means that the garnet crystal has acted as a protective pressure vessel so that pieces of coesite have been preserved.

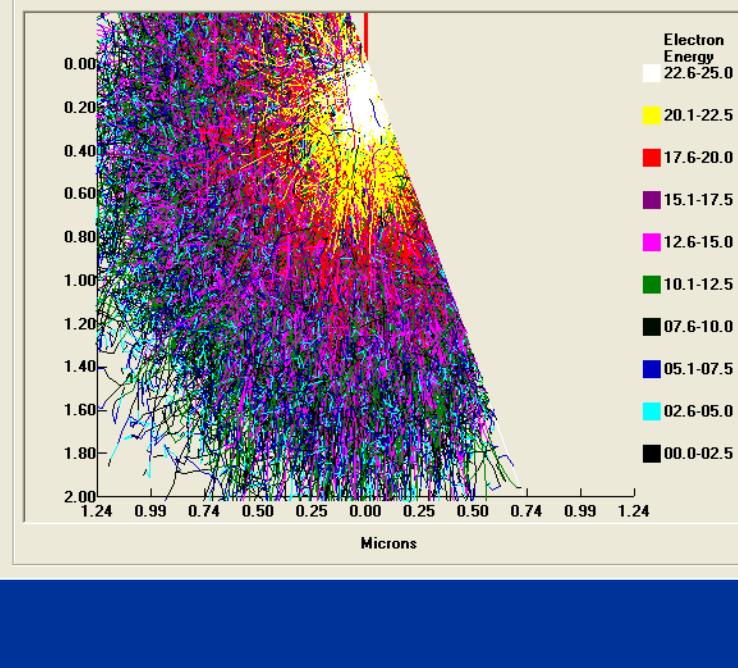
Small scale of deformation in the large garnet grain (less than 2°)

The EBSD technique is limited in spatial resolution by the electron-solid state interaction volume.

The best achievable spatial resolution on a material of medium atomic number is currently in the order of about 30 nm!!!

*Towards better spatial
resolution
(below 1 μ m)*

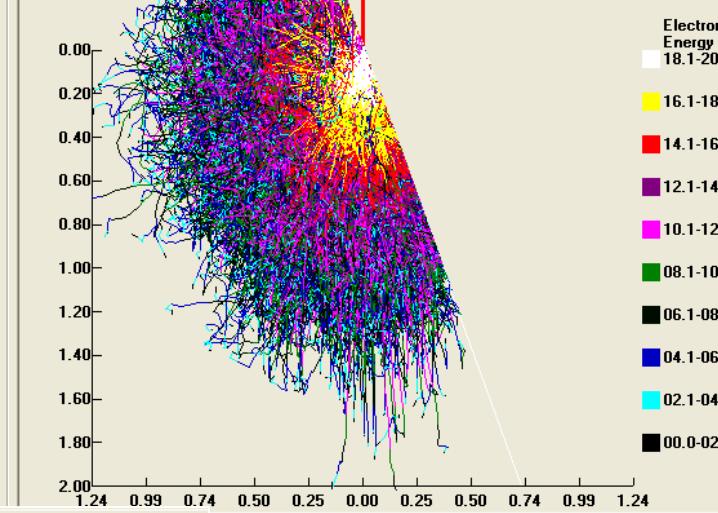
Interaction Volume Simulation



Sample Conditions

kV: 25.0 Tilt: 70
No. Trajectories: 30000
B.S. Coefficient: 0.5184

Interaction Volume Simulation



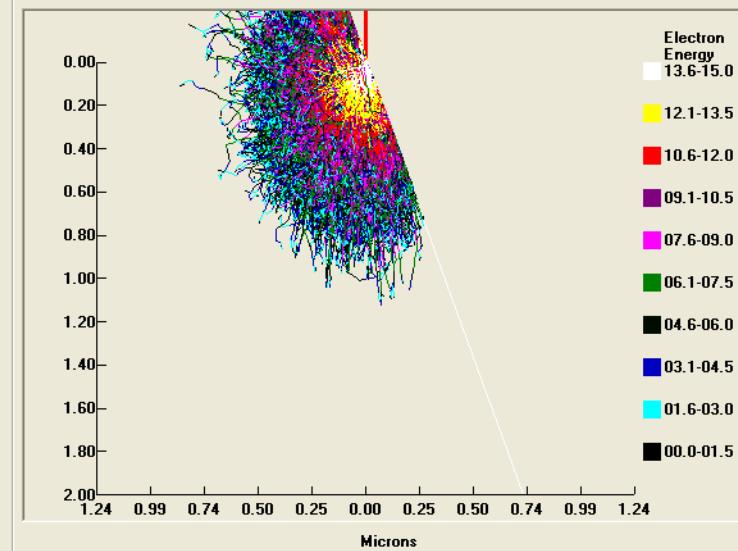
Sample Conditions

kV: 20.0 Tilt: 70
No. Trajectories: 30000
B.S. Coefficient: 0.5171

Bulk Ni

Comments

Interaction Volume Simulation

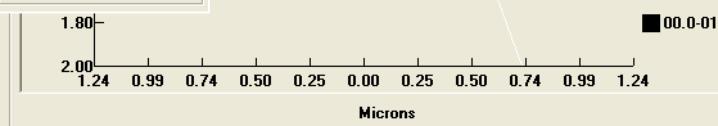


Sample Conditions

kV: 15.0 Tilt: 70
No. Trajectories: 30000
B.S. Coefficient: 0.5233

Bulk Ni

Comments

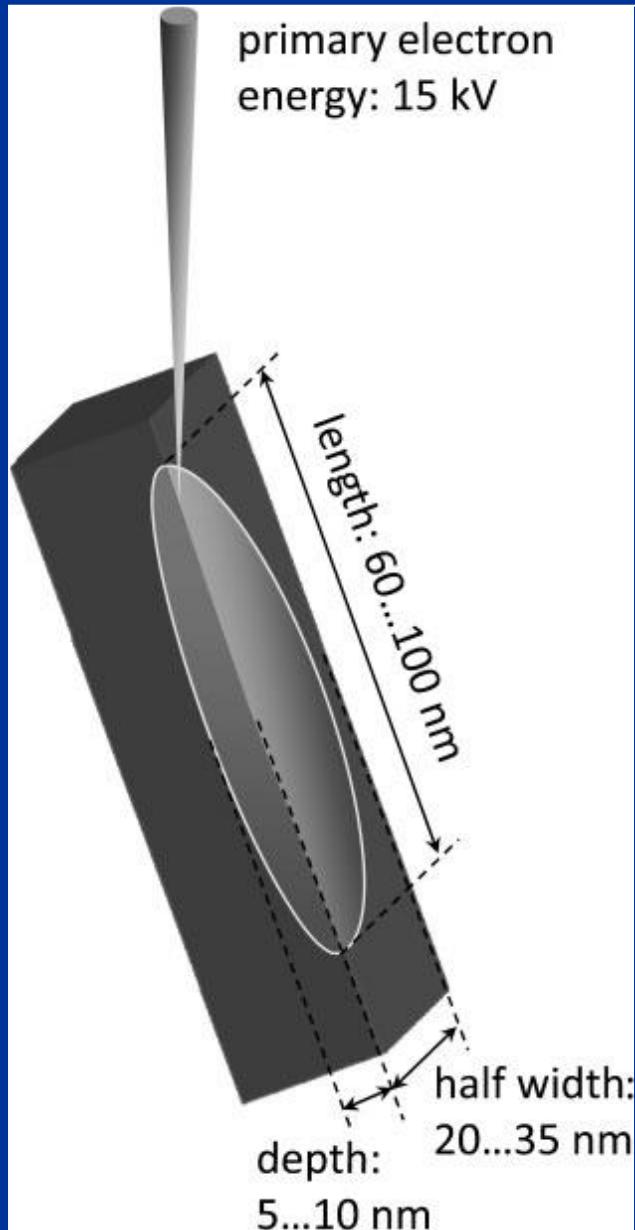


Sample Conditions

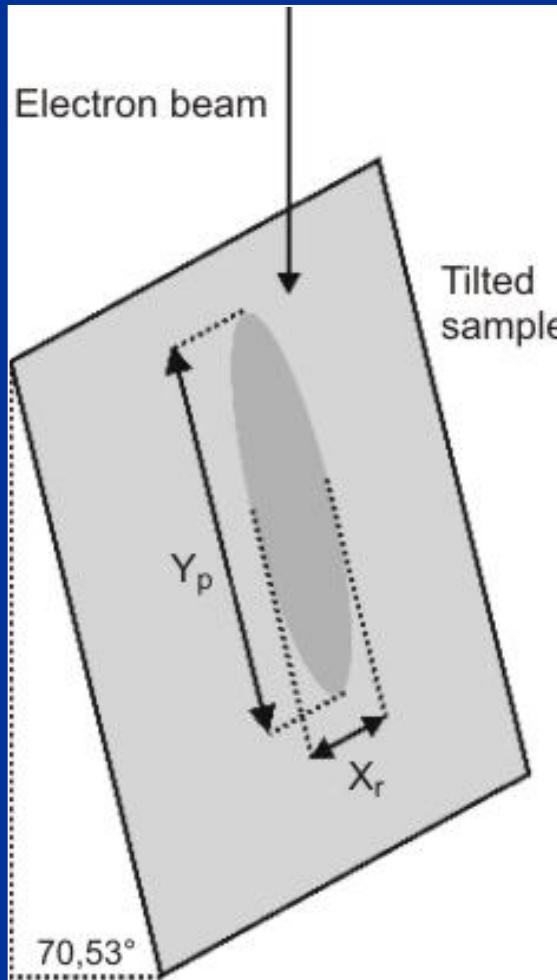
kV: 10.0 Tilt: 70
No. Trajectories: 30000
B.S. Coefficient: 0.5218

Bulk Ni

Comments



Interaction volume of the primary electron beam with the sample



D. Steinmetz, S. Zaefferer (2010),
Mat. Sci. Tech. 26, 640 - 645

F.J.Humphreys and I.Brough (1999),
Journal of Microscopy

X_r spatial resolution parallel to the sample tilt axis
 Y_p spatial resolution perpendicular to the sample tilt axis

Physical spatial resolution

is determined by the size of the volume which contributes to the diffraction signal.

It depends on:

- accelerating voltage
- probe current

Higher spatial resolution means:

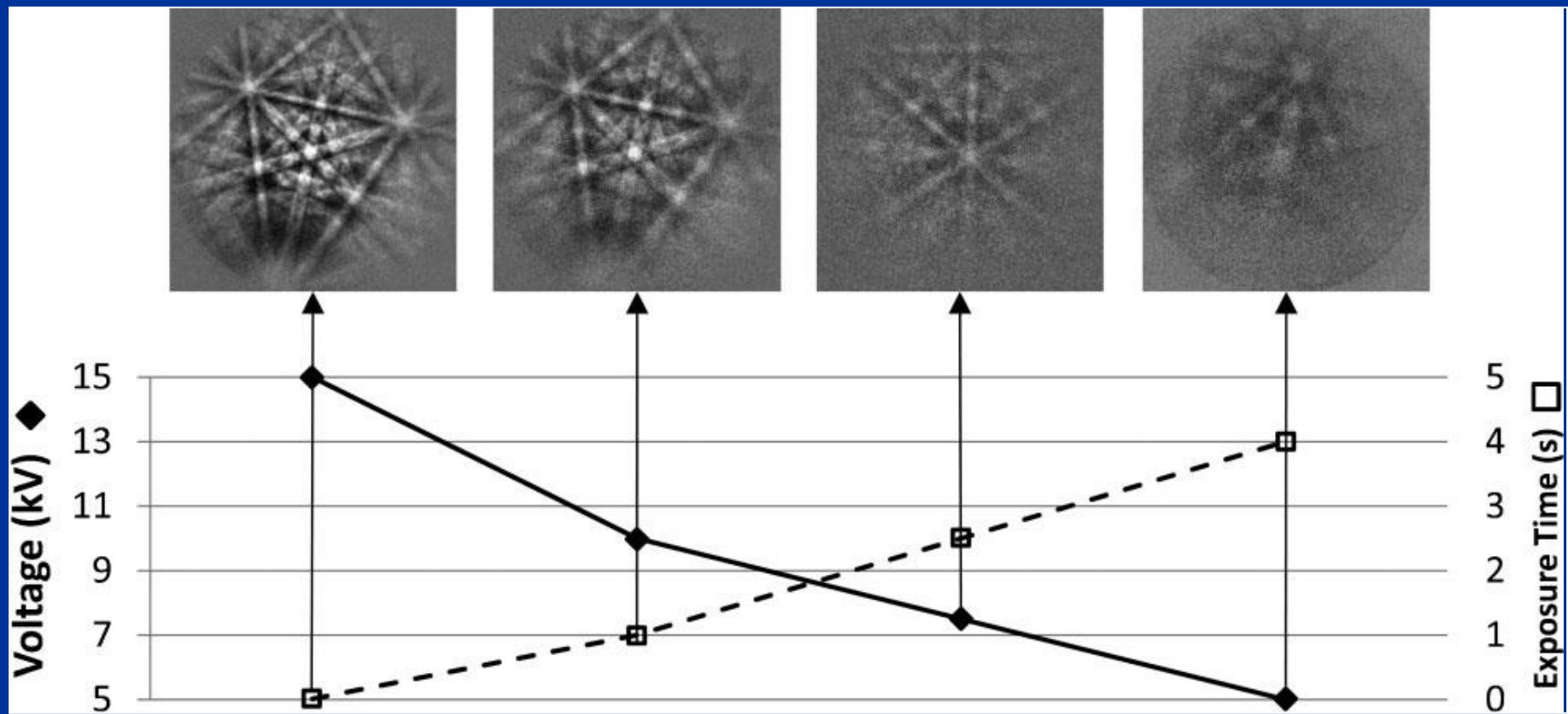
lower kV & beam current

**The challenge for improving physical spatial
resolution is EBSD operated at low kV !!!**

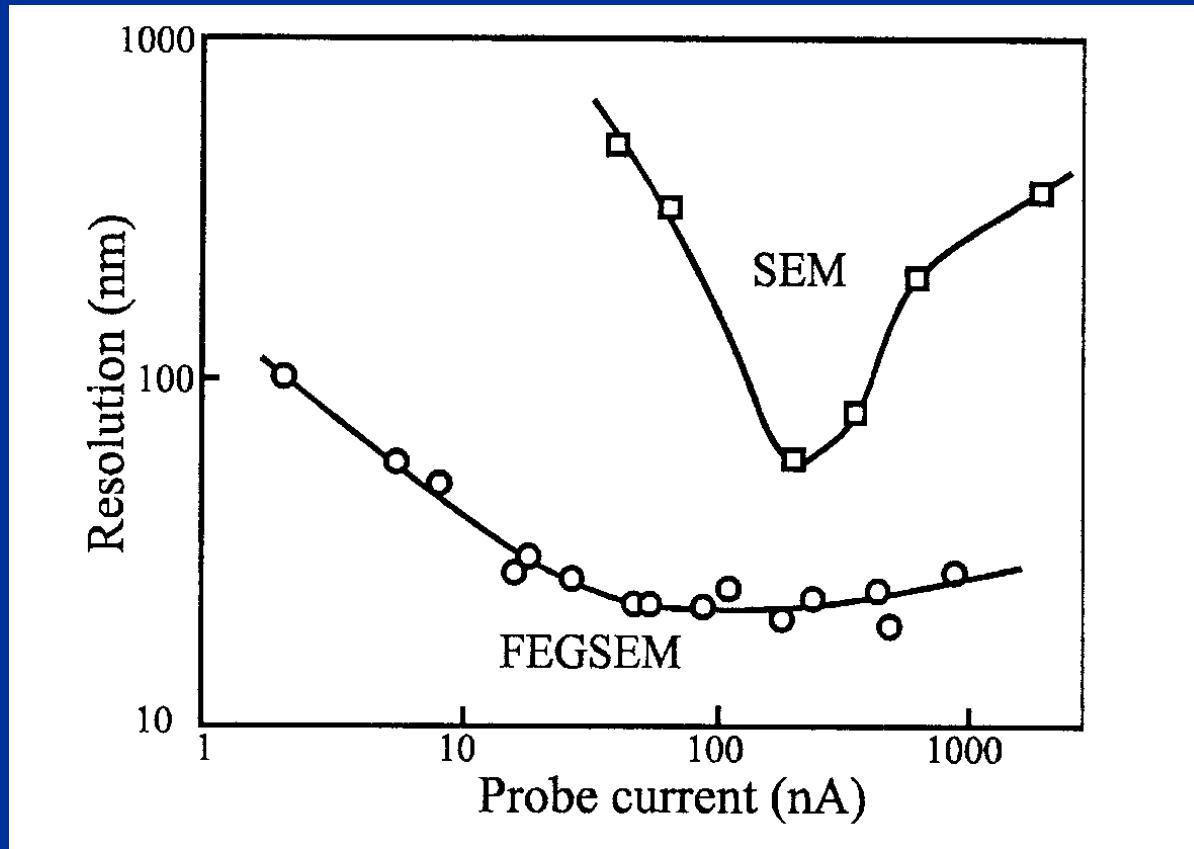
because:

- Low signal
- Weaker patterns especially the edges
- Broaden bands

Influence of accelerating voltage on exposure time

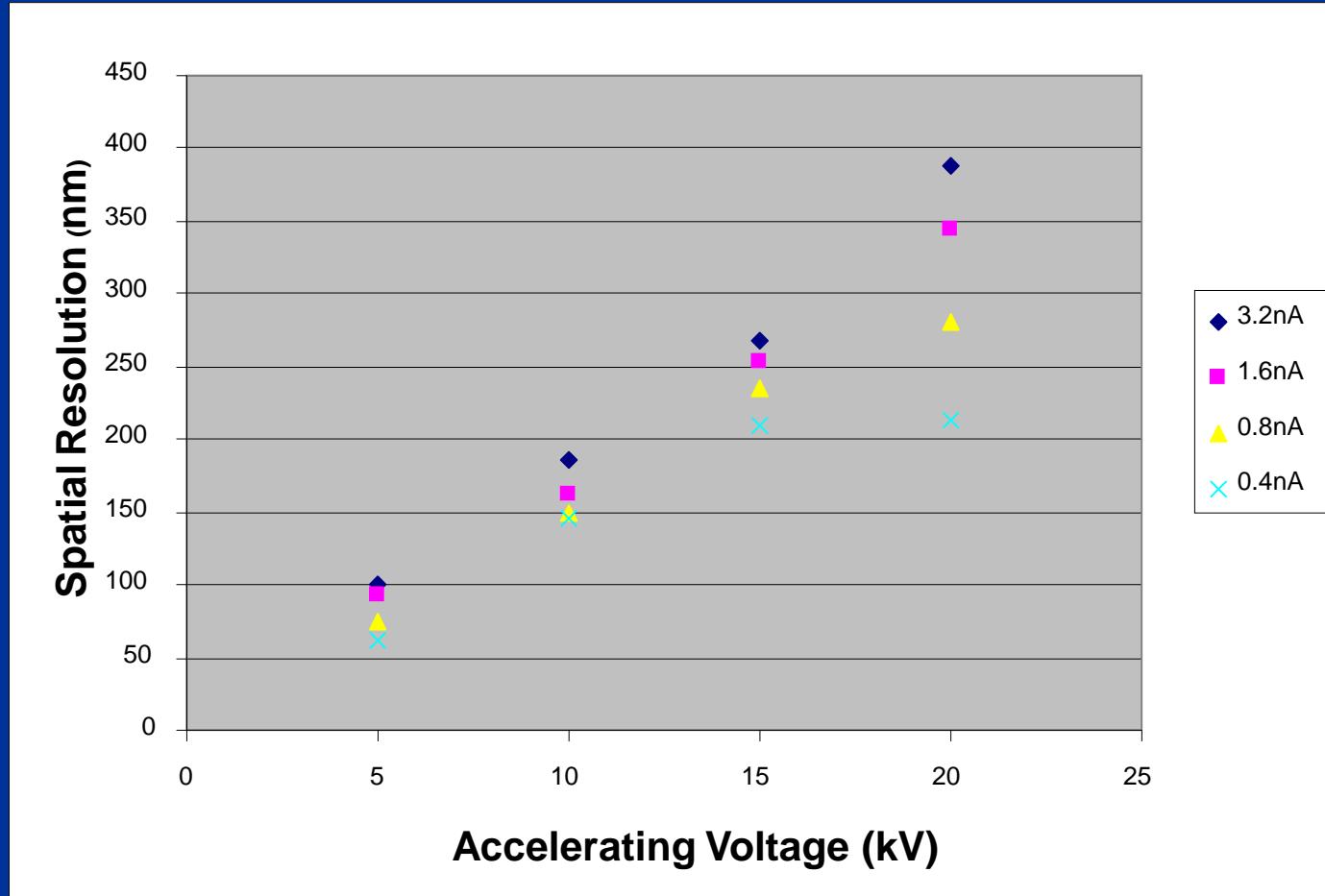


Probe Current vs Physical Spatial Resolution



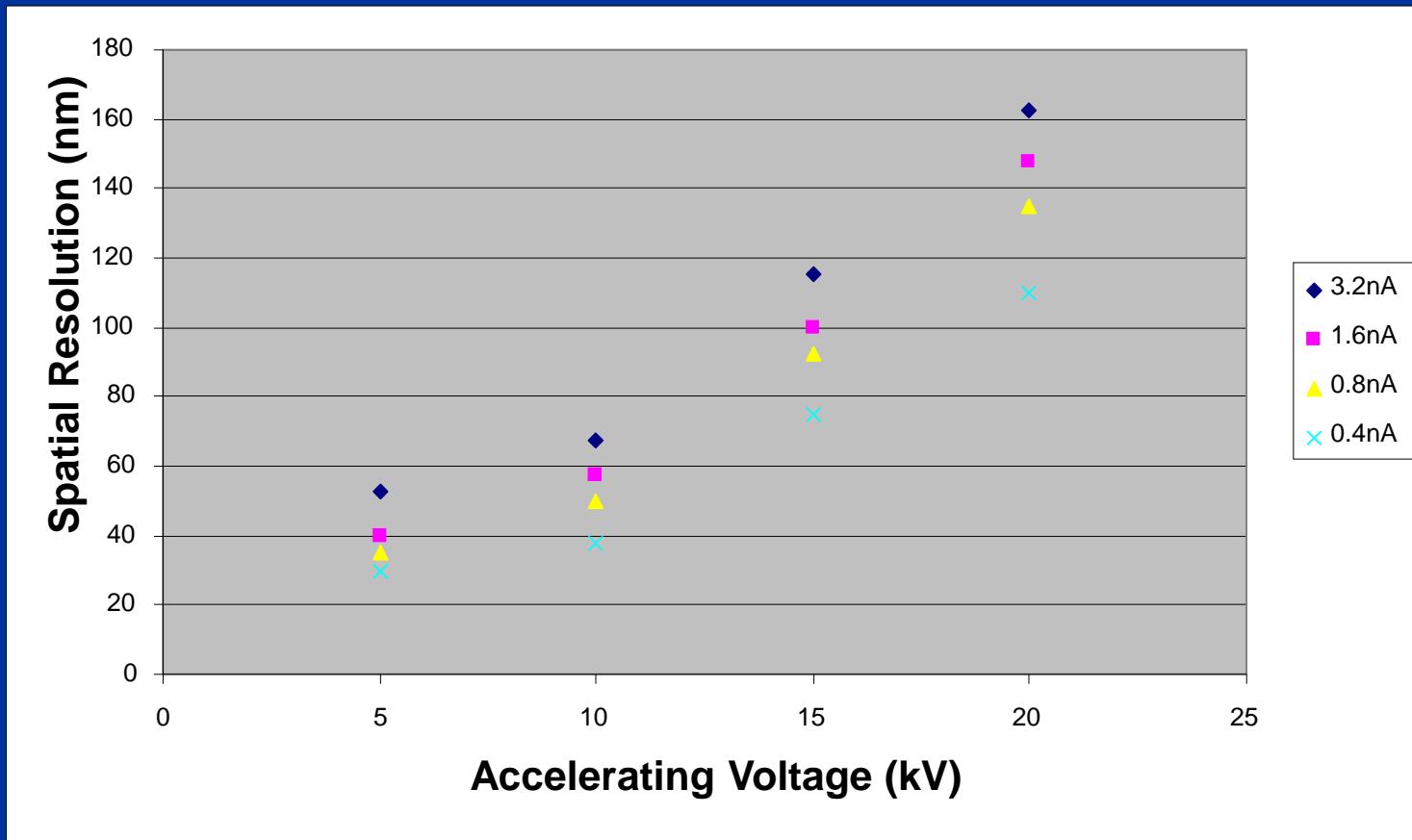
Spatial resolution is improved by using lower probe currents, but must have ability to obtain good Kikuchi patterns.

Physical spatial resolution as a function of voltage and probe current for aluminum



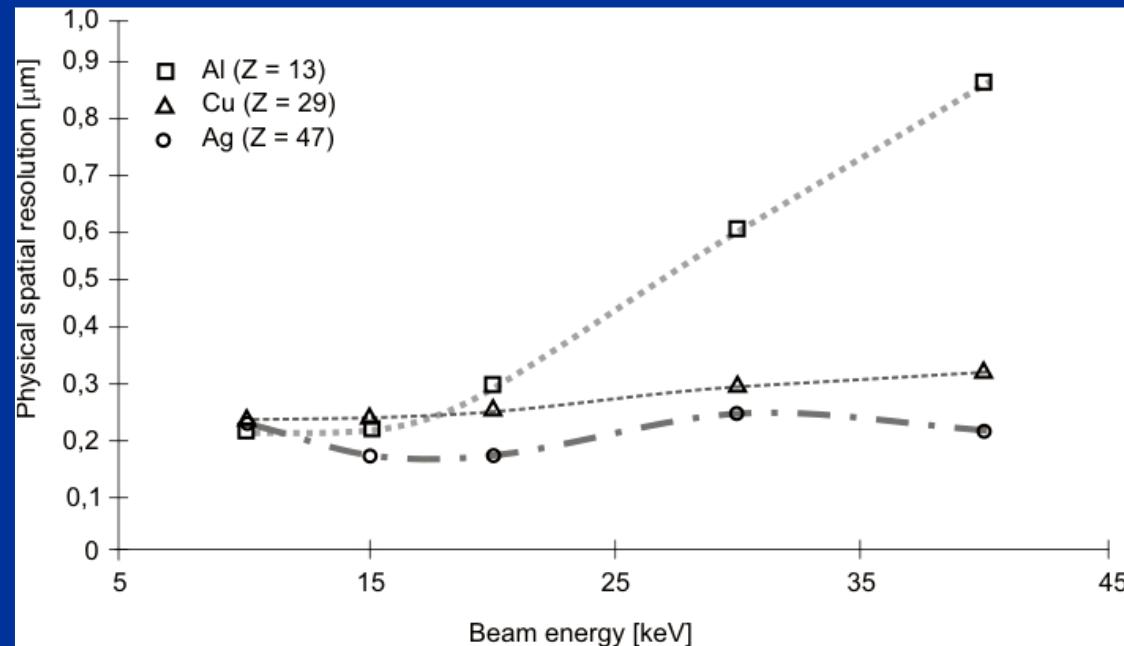
Courtesy of Harvinder Singh Ubhi,
Oxford Instruments

Spatial resolution as a function of voltage and probe current for copper

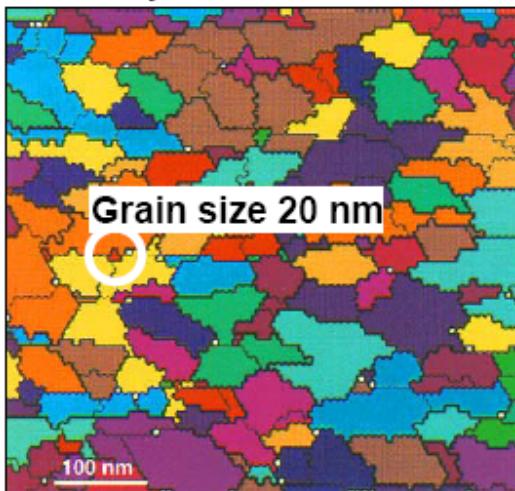


Courtesy of Harvinder Singh Ubhi,
Oxford Instruments

Influence of atomic number on physical spatial resolution



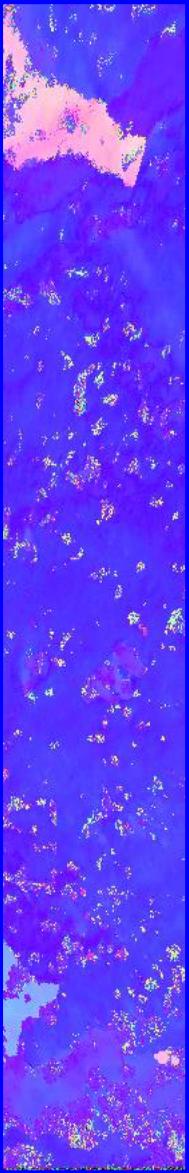
Pt, recrystallized



D. Dingley, in "Electron Backscatter Diffraction in Material Science", Kluwer, 2000

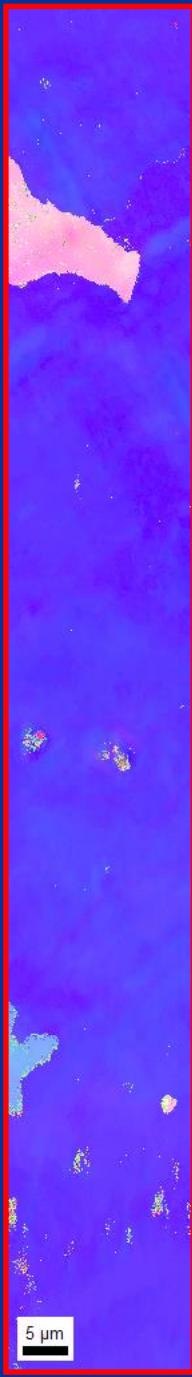
T.Petersen, G.Heilberg, J.Hjelen
(1998) ICEM 14 Proceedings, 775-776

100 nm step size



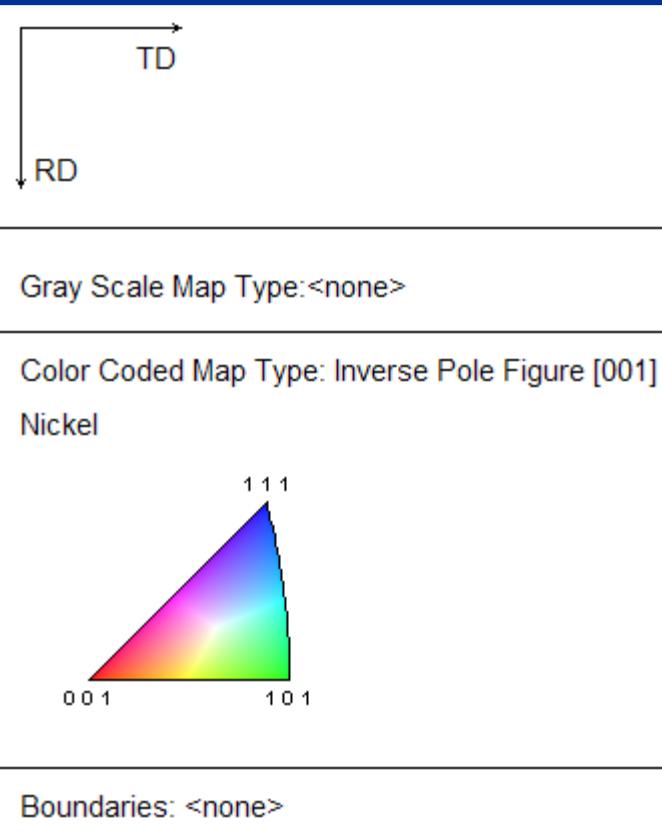
20 keV

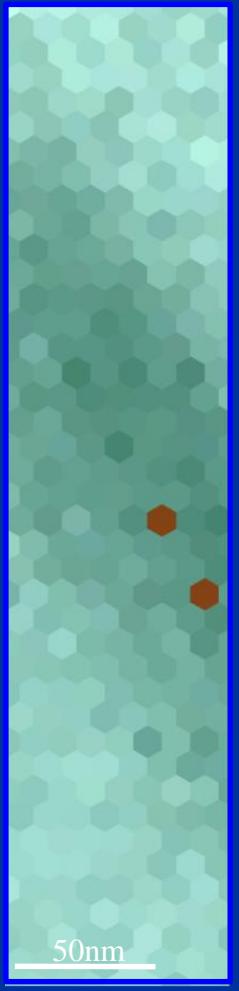
5 μ m



10 keV

Nickel





15keV

10 nm step size

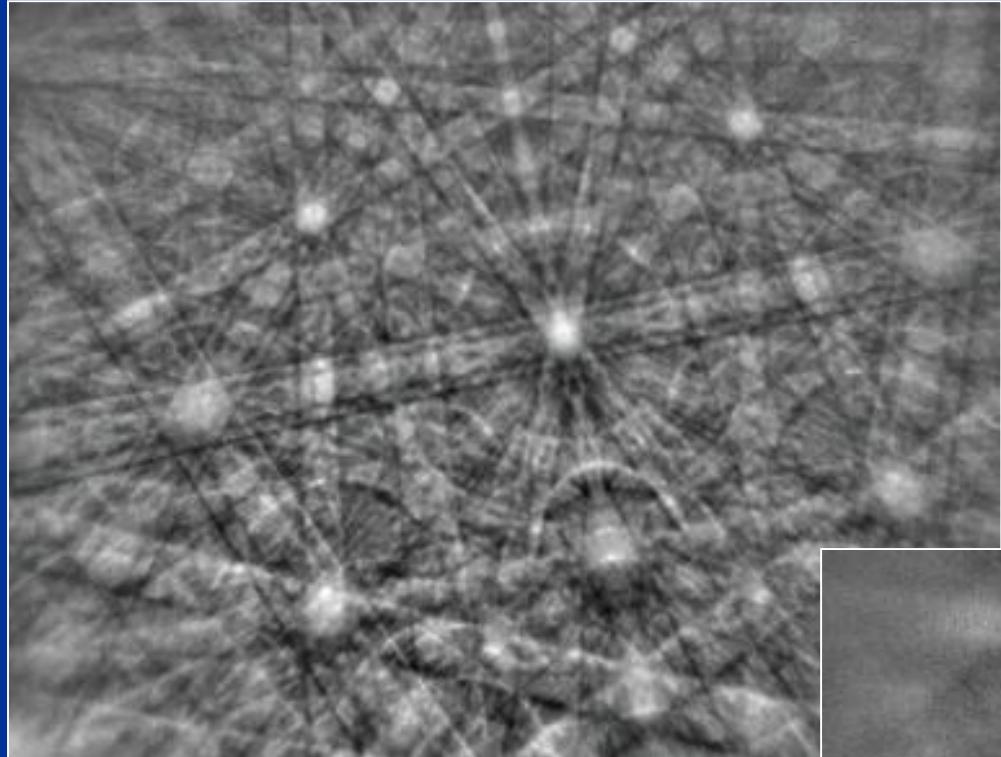


7.5keV

Significant improvement of physical spatial resolution of EBSD is possible !!!

At 15 keV only 2 pixels and a slight decrease of pattern quality indicate of the presence of a small twin in a lightly deformed TWIP steel sample

At 7.5 keV the twin is clearly visible!

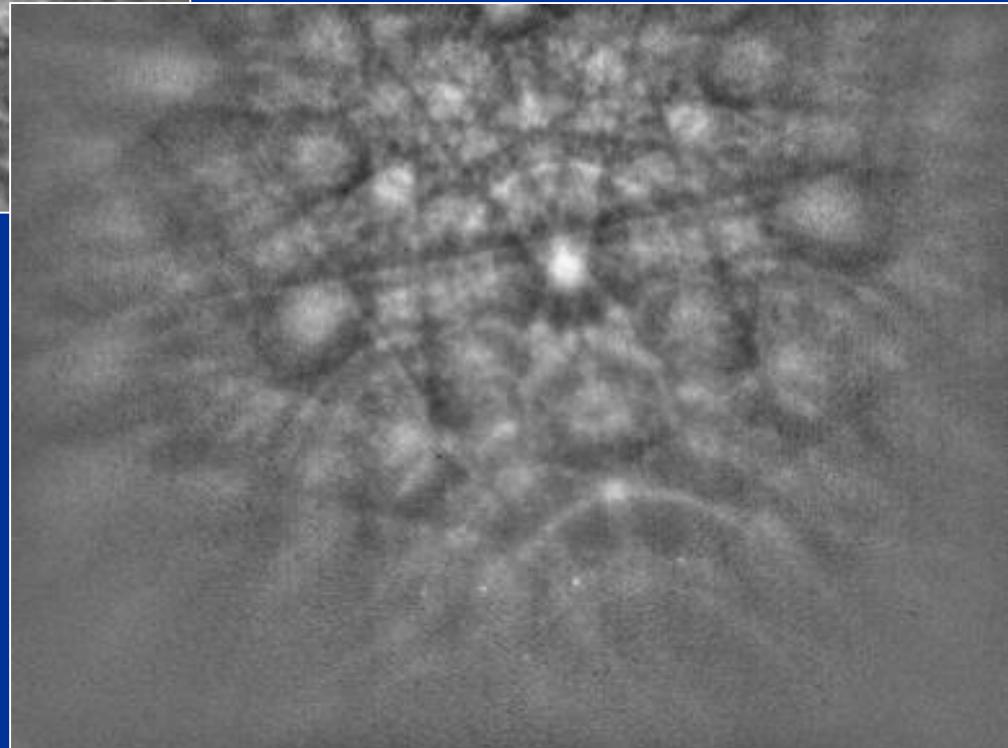


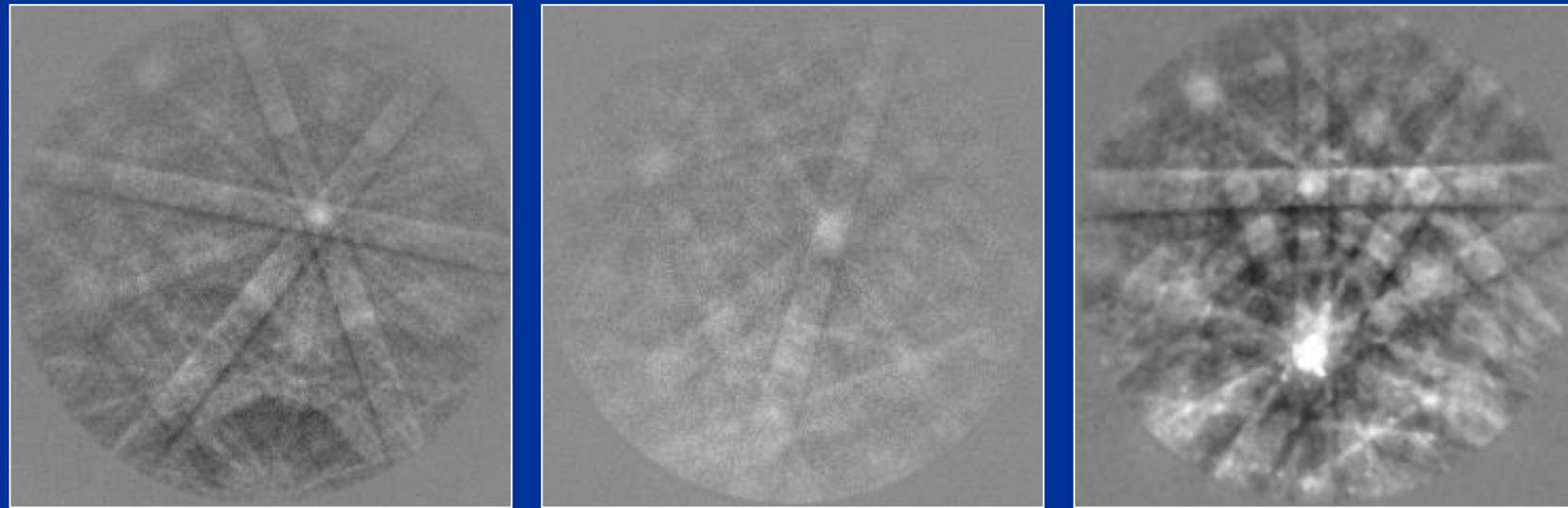
Iron pyrite at 20 keV

*At 20keV excellent detail
can be seen within the pattern.*

*At 5keV, the patterns remain clear
and are readily indexed.*

Iron pyrite at 5 keV

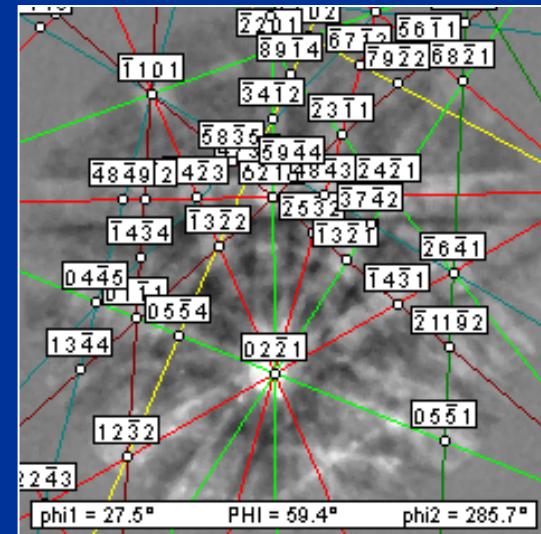




15 keV

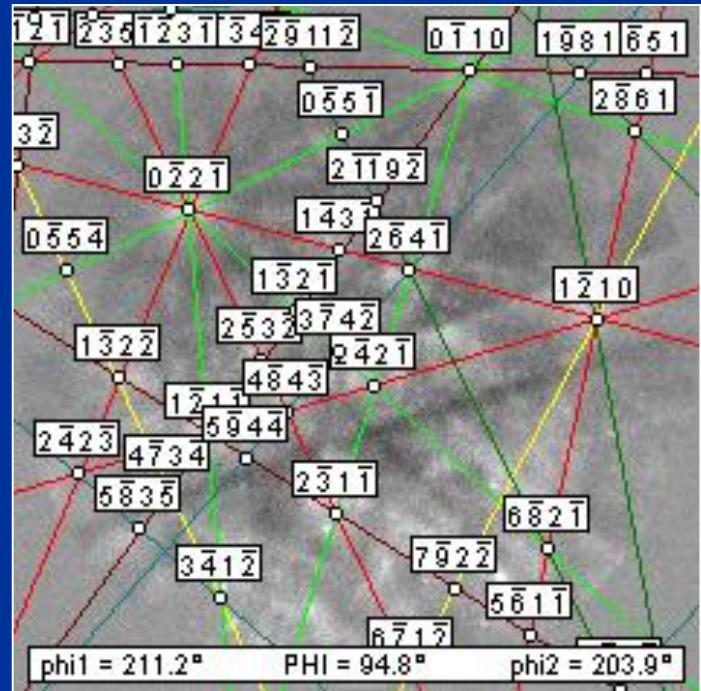
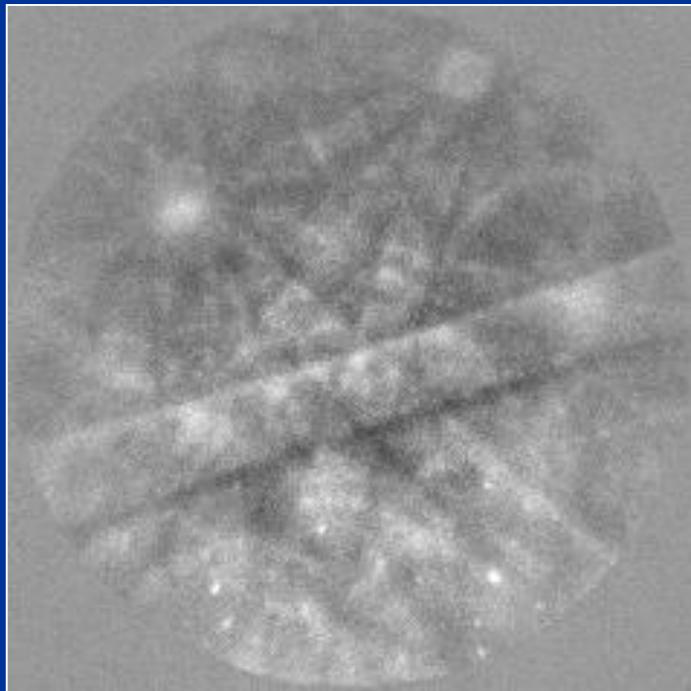
10 keV

EBSD from Al_2O_3



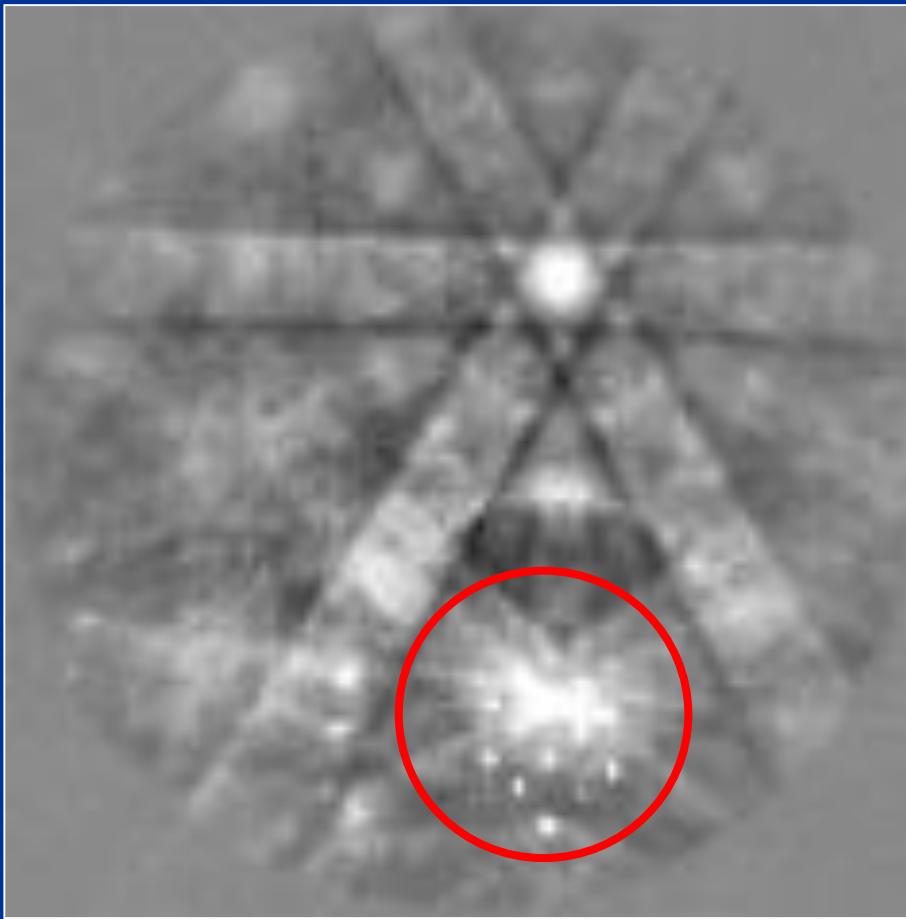
7.5 keV

EBSD from Al_2O_3 5 keV !!!



Long exposure time: 6 fps, binning 1x1

EBSD from Al₂O₃ 5 keV !!!



RHEED pattern is visible !!!

Reflection High Energy Electron Diffraction RHEED:

- provides large elastic scattering cross-section for forward scattered electrons
- keeps penetration depth small by using grazing incidence

Orientation maps from Al_2O_3 5 keV

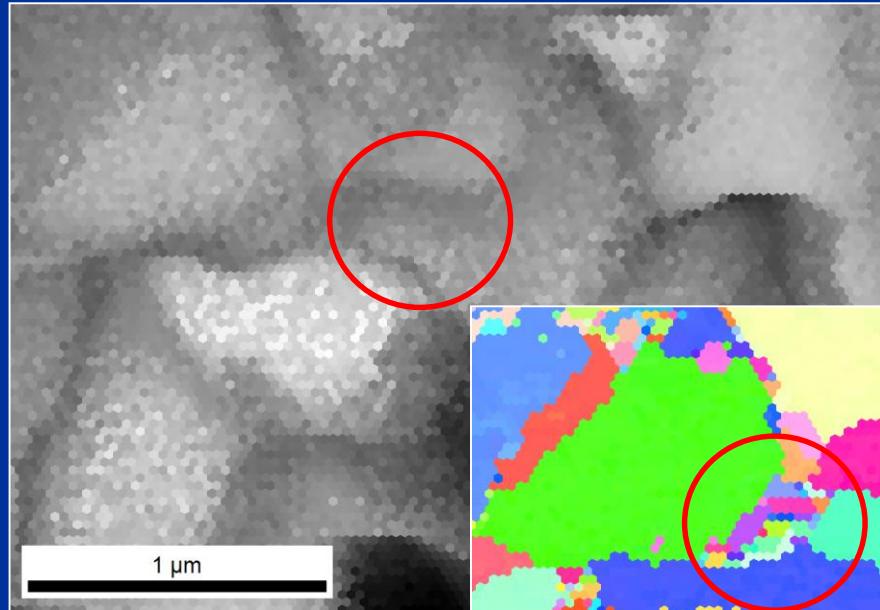
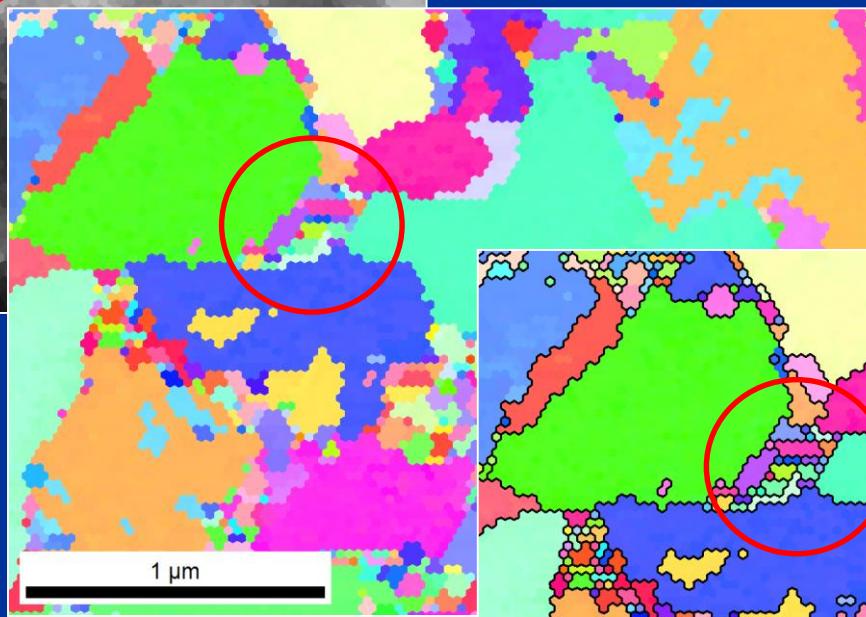
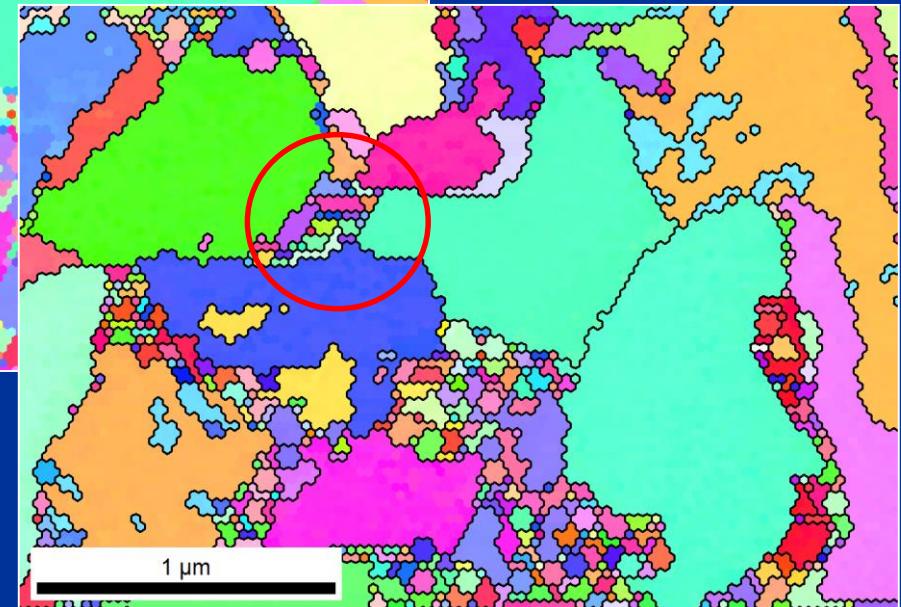


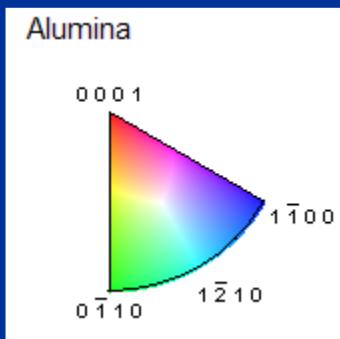
Image Quality map



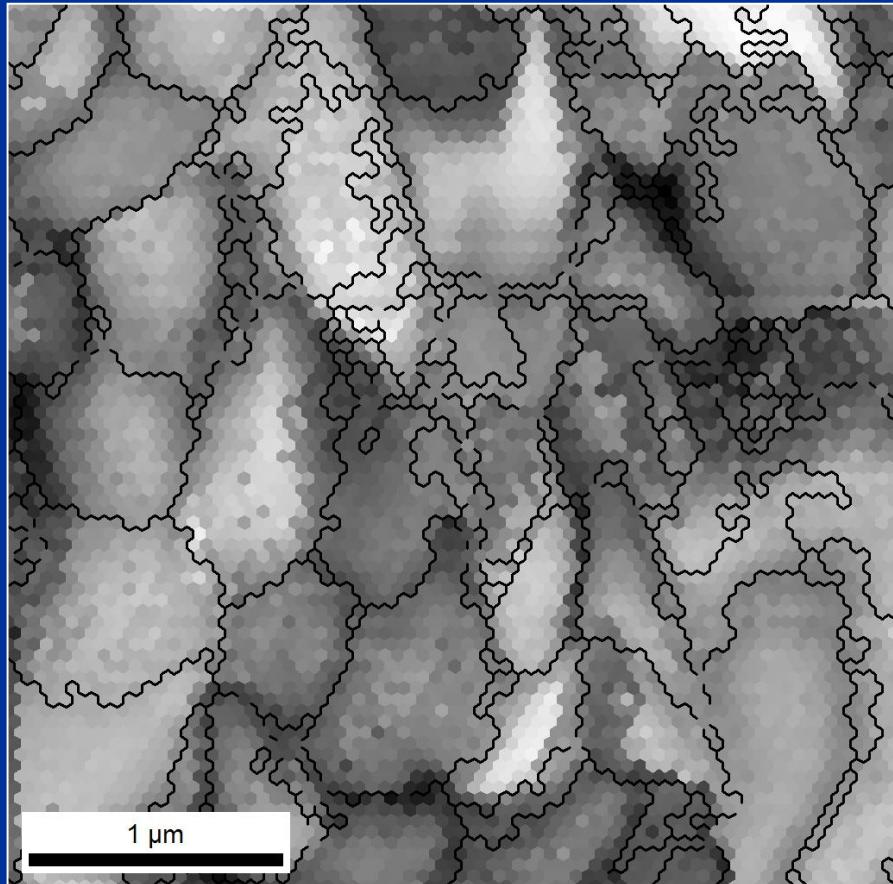
Inverse Pole Figure
map



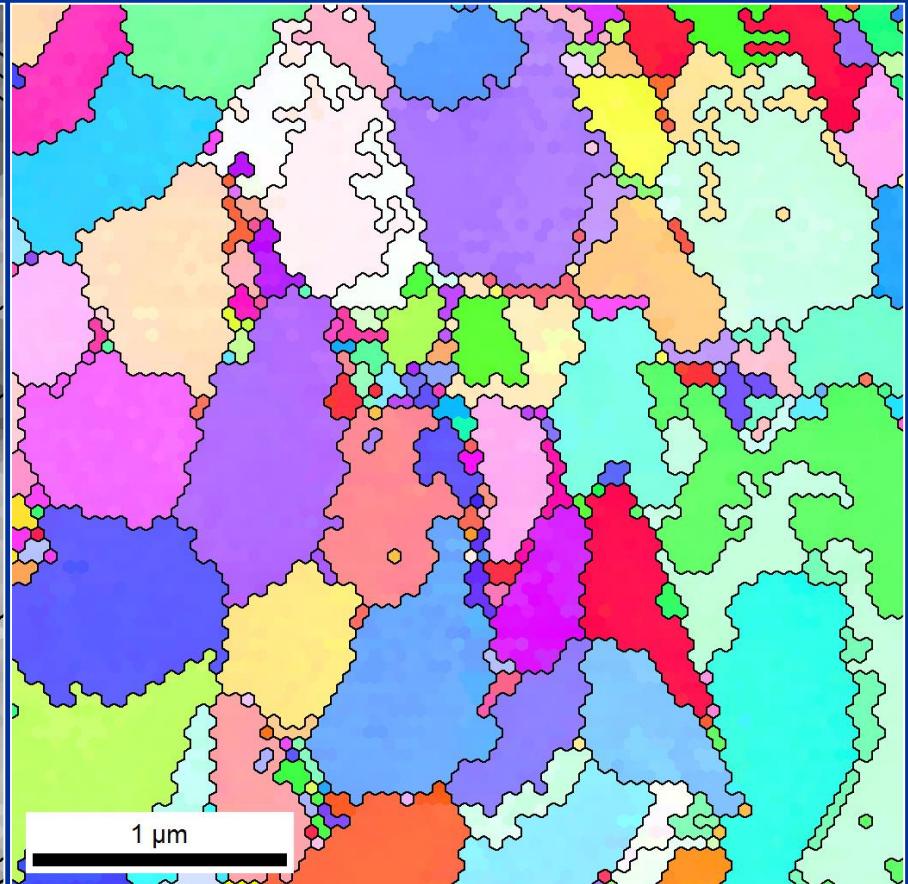
IPF + HAGB



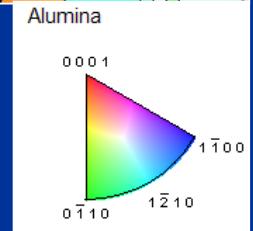
Orientation maps from Al_2O_3 5 keV



IQ + HAGB



IPF + HAGB



Effective spatial resolution

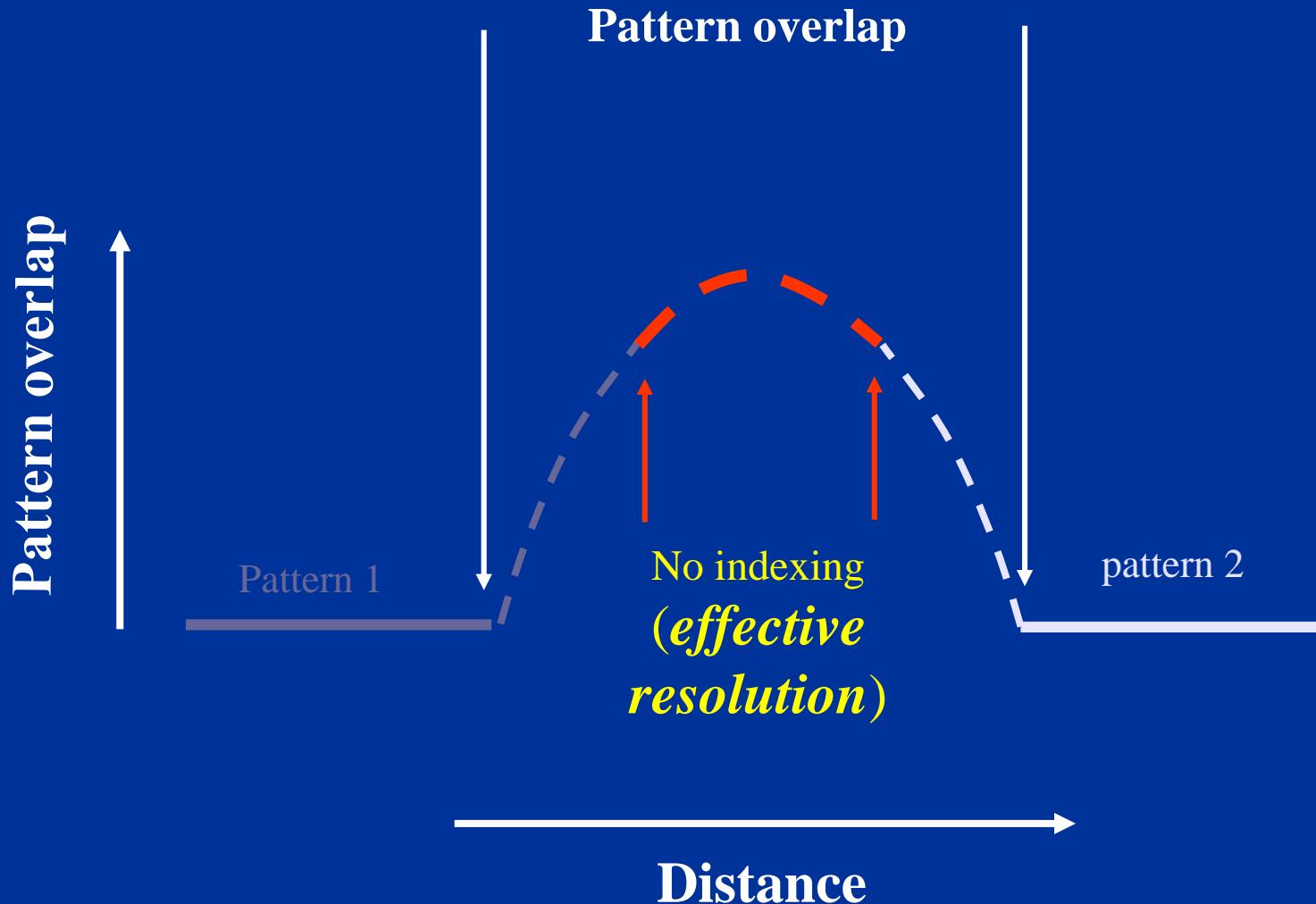
is given by the smallest structure that can be discerned
by the EBSD system.

It depends on:

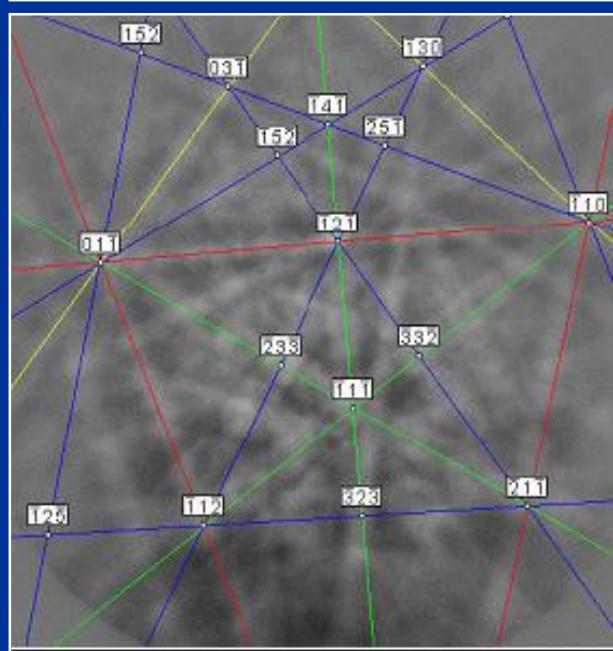
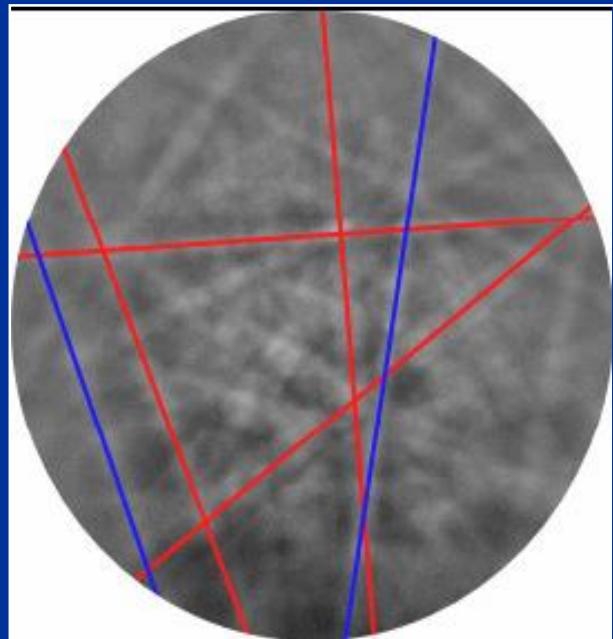
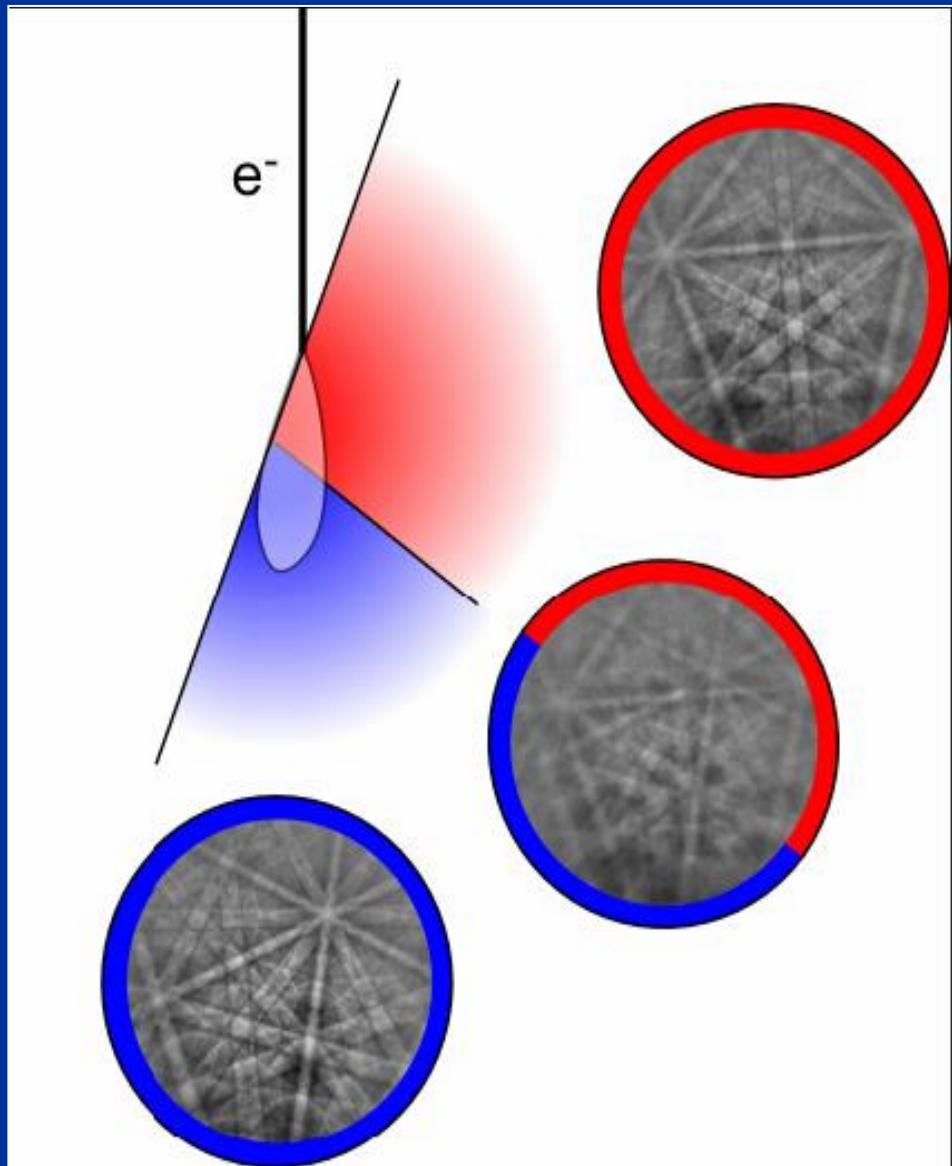
- the misorientation between two points
- software algorithms used for pattern indexing and pattern deconvolution

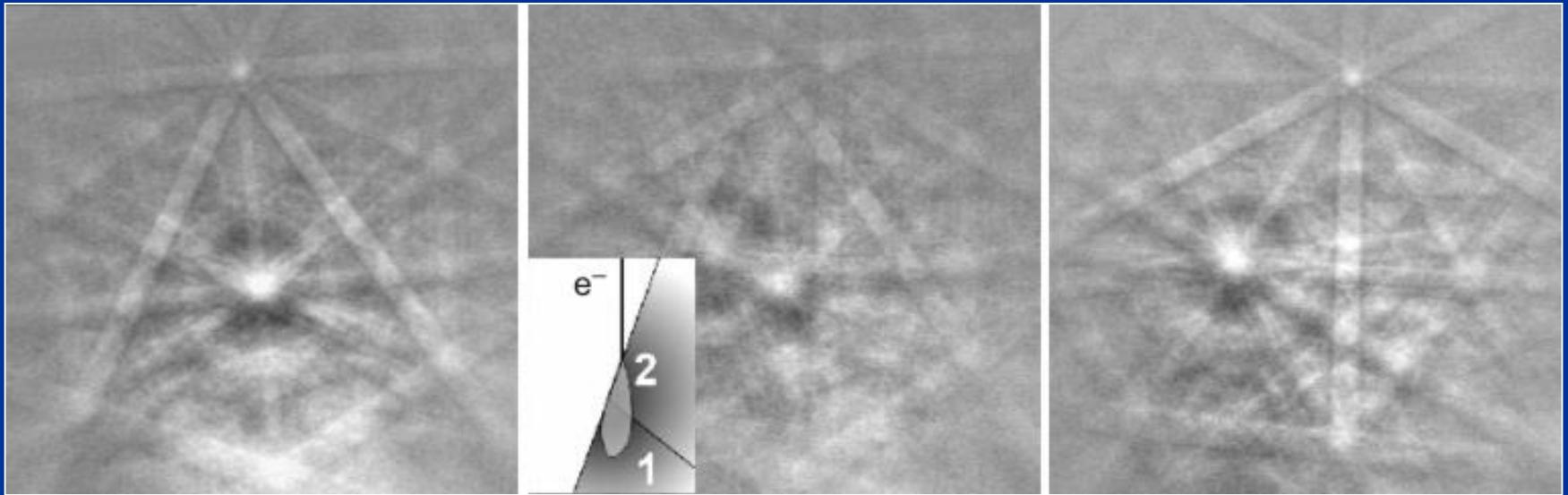
Effective spatial resolution:
*the ability to deconvolute overlapping
patterns at crystallite boundaries*

Absolute Spatial Resolution



Can be measured by traversing the beam across a boundary normal to the sample surface



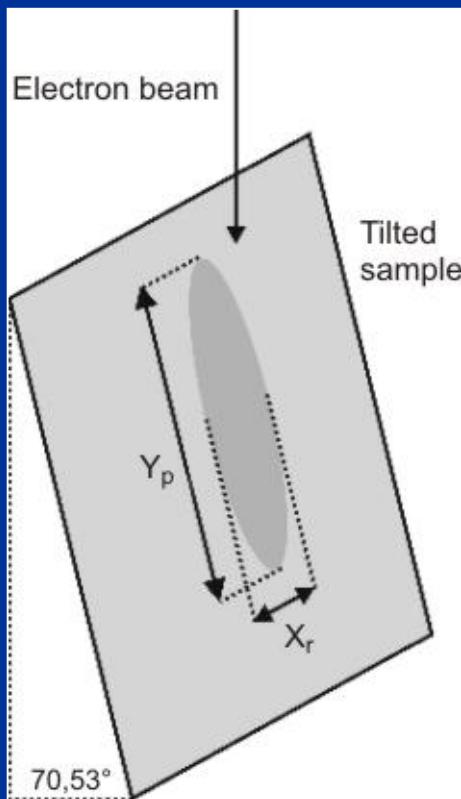


EBSD from Al₂O₃ acquired in the Variable Pressure SEM

Non-indexed points are in
a narrow region at the grain boundary,
where there are overlapping patterns

Calculation of Effective Spatial Resolution

$$X_r = \frac{D(1 - H)}{4}$$

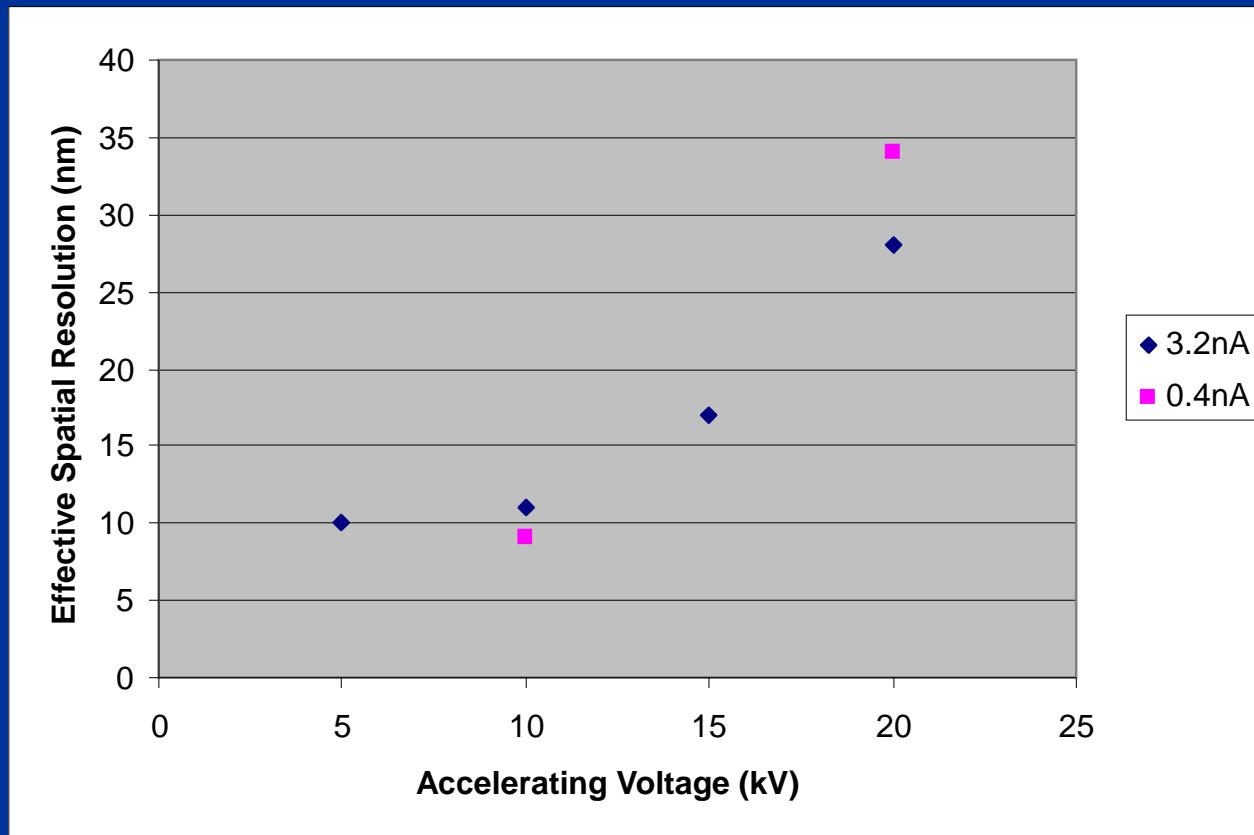


where:

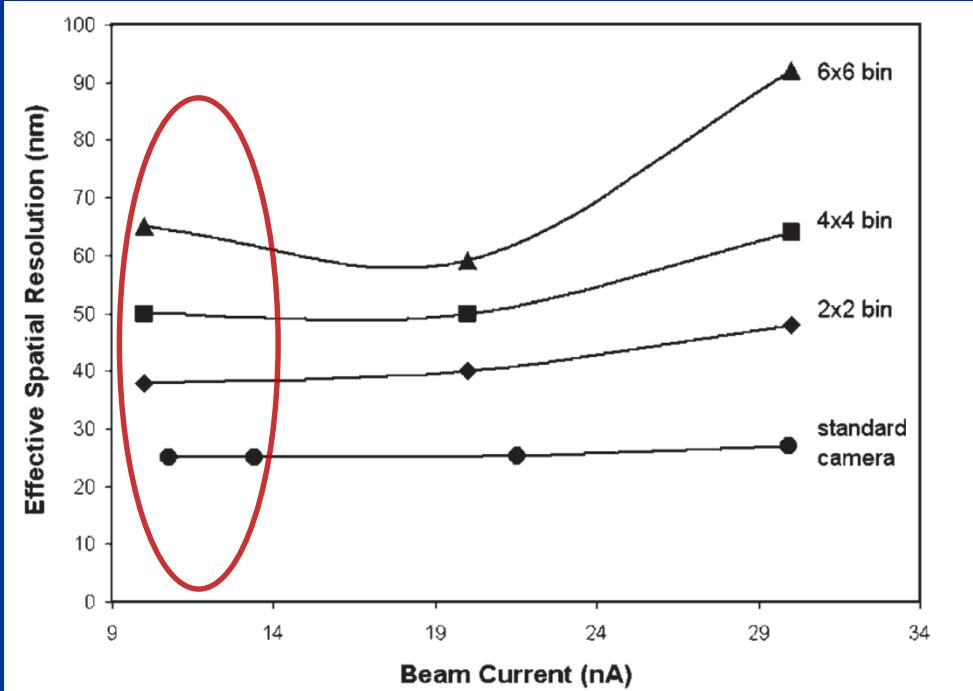
D is the grain size of the sample

H is the fraction of patterns indexed (fractional hit rate).

Effective Spatial Resolution calculated for Al as a function of accelerating voltage and beam current



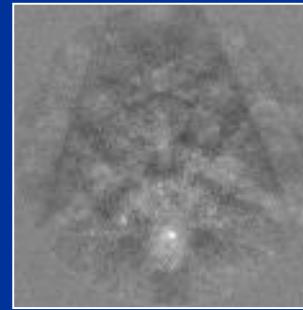
Effective spatial resolution degrades with increased binning



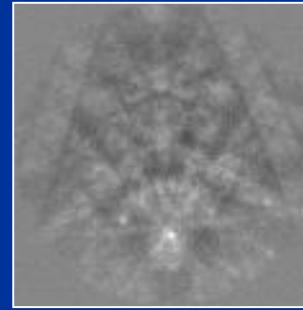
As binning increases, the bands become less well defined, the pattern quality is reduced and the **effective spatial resolution**, which depends on **the ability to deconvolute overlapping patterns at boundaries**, deteriorates.



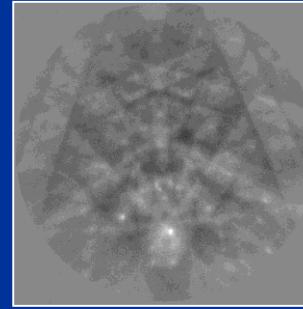
Binning 6x6



Binning 4x4



Binning 2x2

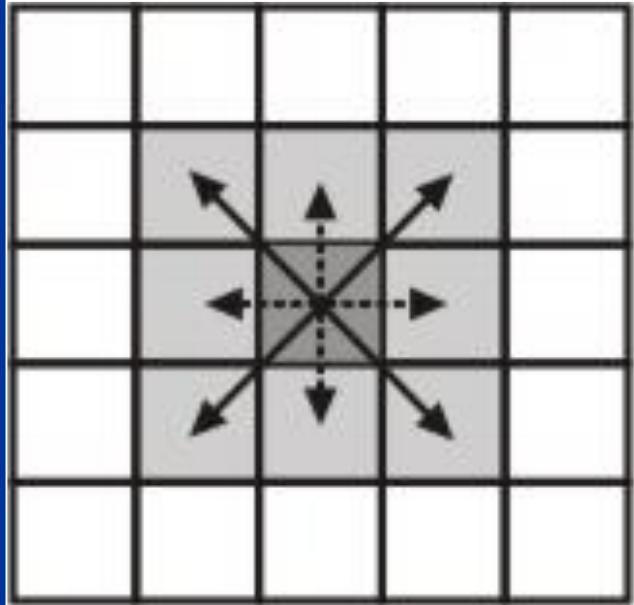


Binning 1x1

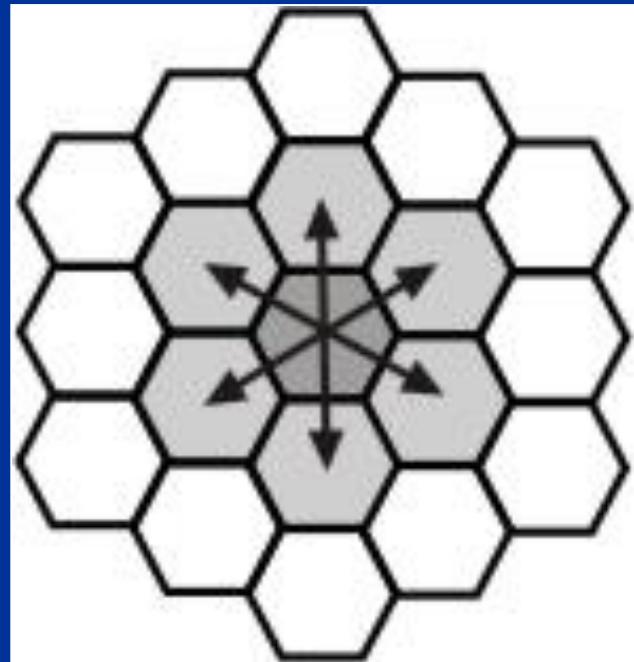
**The step size selected for a particular EBSD
measurement is
NO INDICATOR
of spatial resolution!!!**

**If step size is smaller than the physical or effective
resolution then it depends only on the ability of the
software system to deconvolute the overlapping
patterns of neighbouring volumes.**

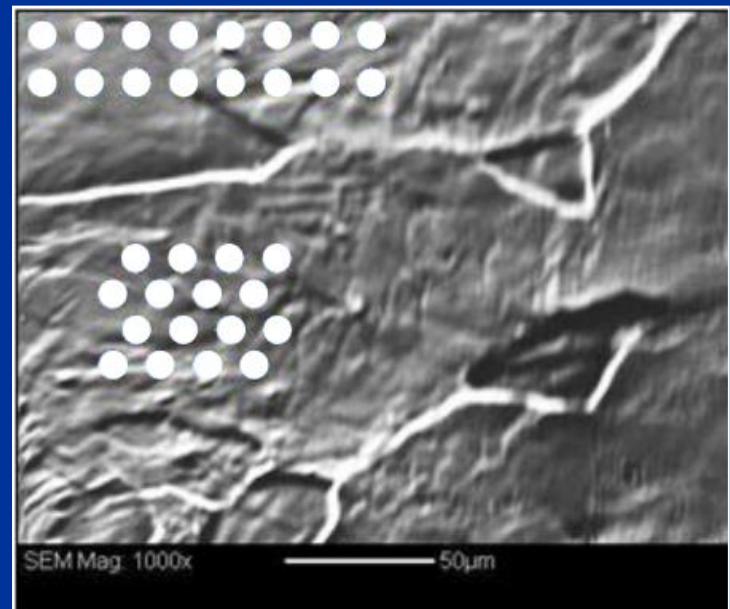
Scanning mode versus spatial resolution



Square grid



Hexagonal grid

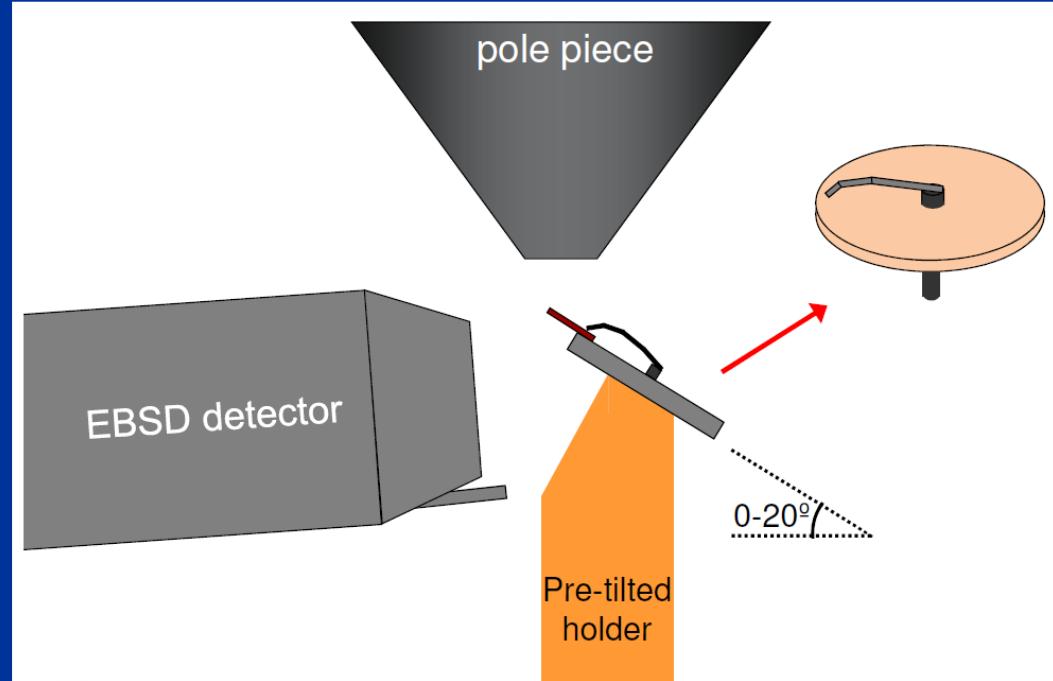
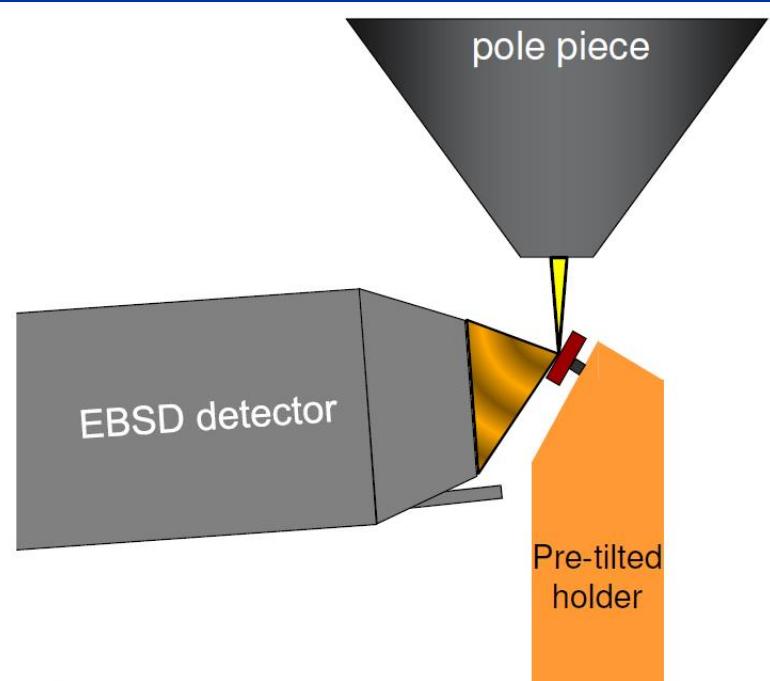


TKD versus EBSD

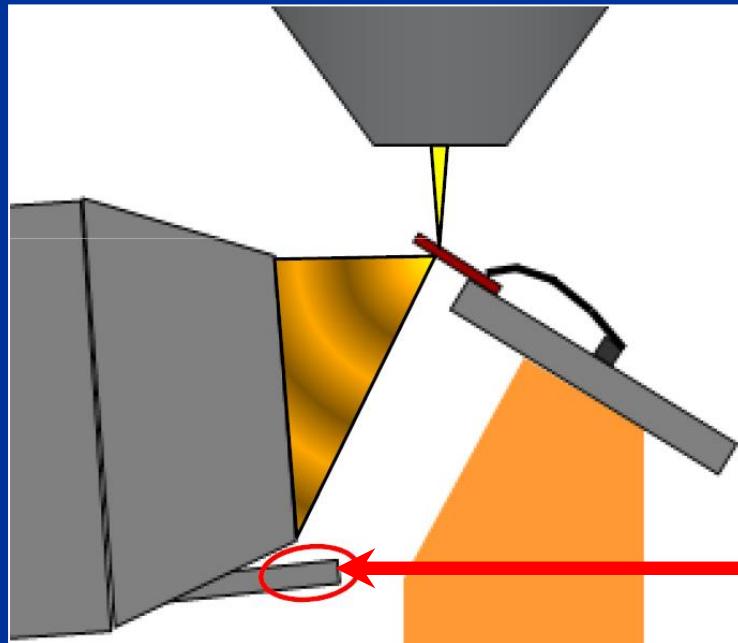
t – EBSD or TKD

(transmission electron backscatter diffraction)
(Kikuchi Diffraction Pattern in the SEM)

- **t-EBSD/TKD uses a conventional EBSD system, including mounting, hardware and software**
- **FEG-SEM platform is an important component for the highest resolution work**
- **The difference (and innovation) between EBSD and t-EBSD/TKD is the placement and orientation of the sample in the SEM chamber**
- **Requires a thin sample !!!**

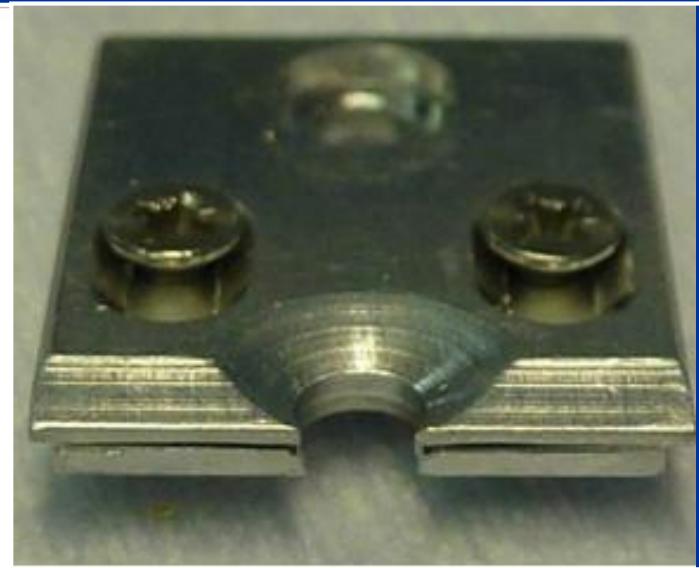
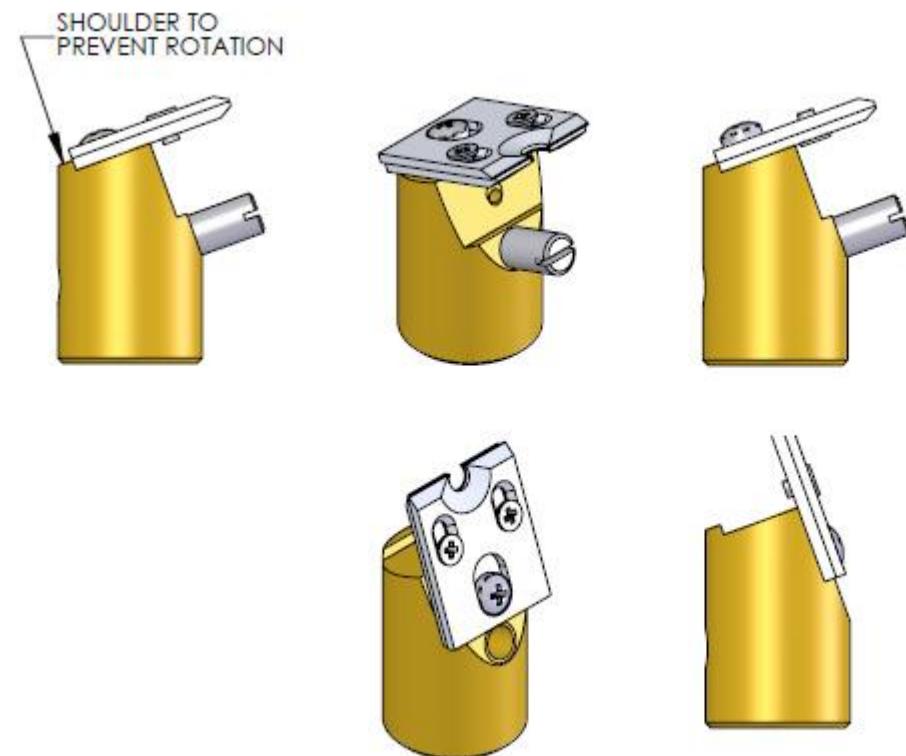


Geometry: TKD in the SEM

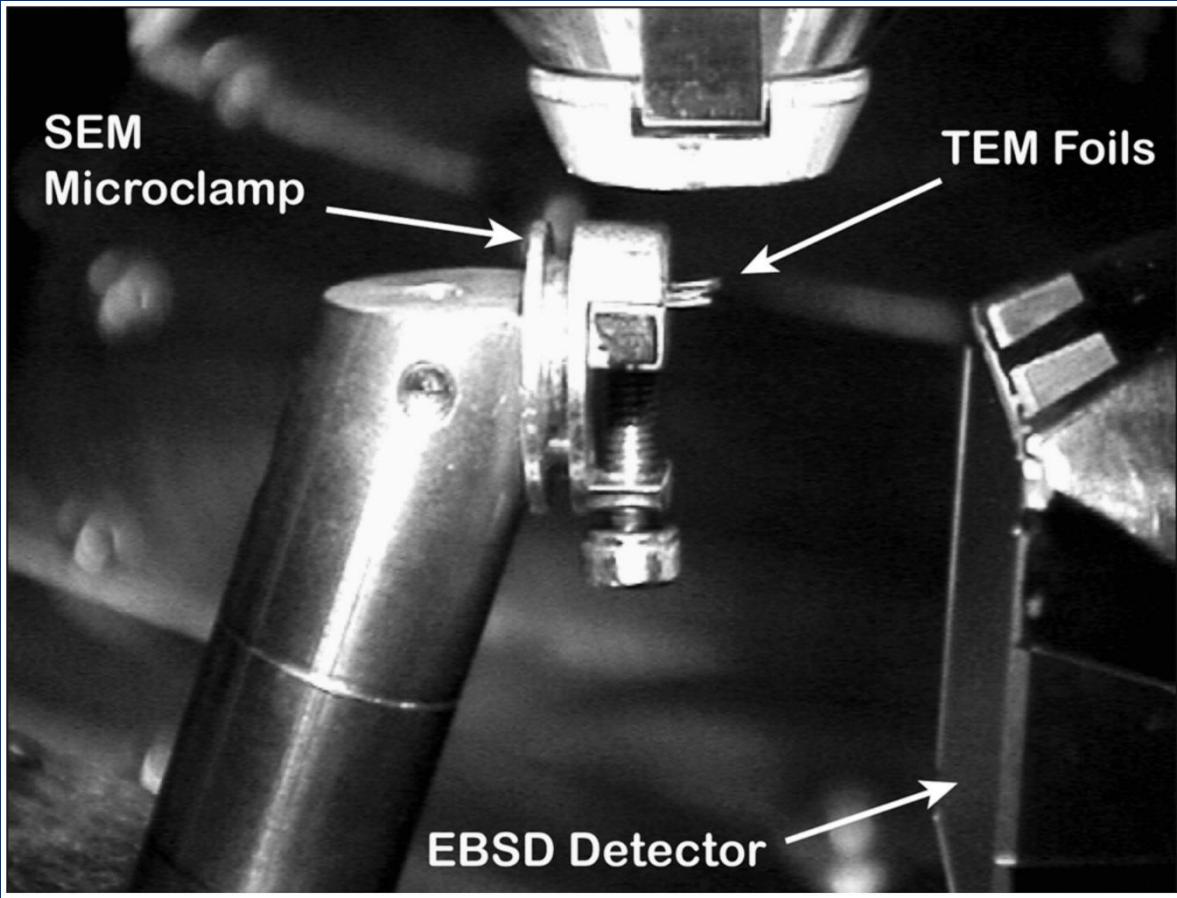


FSD
(here:
DF-STEM)

SEM-TKD holder – a microclamp

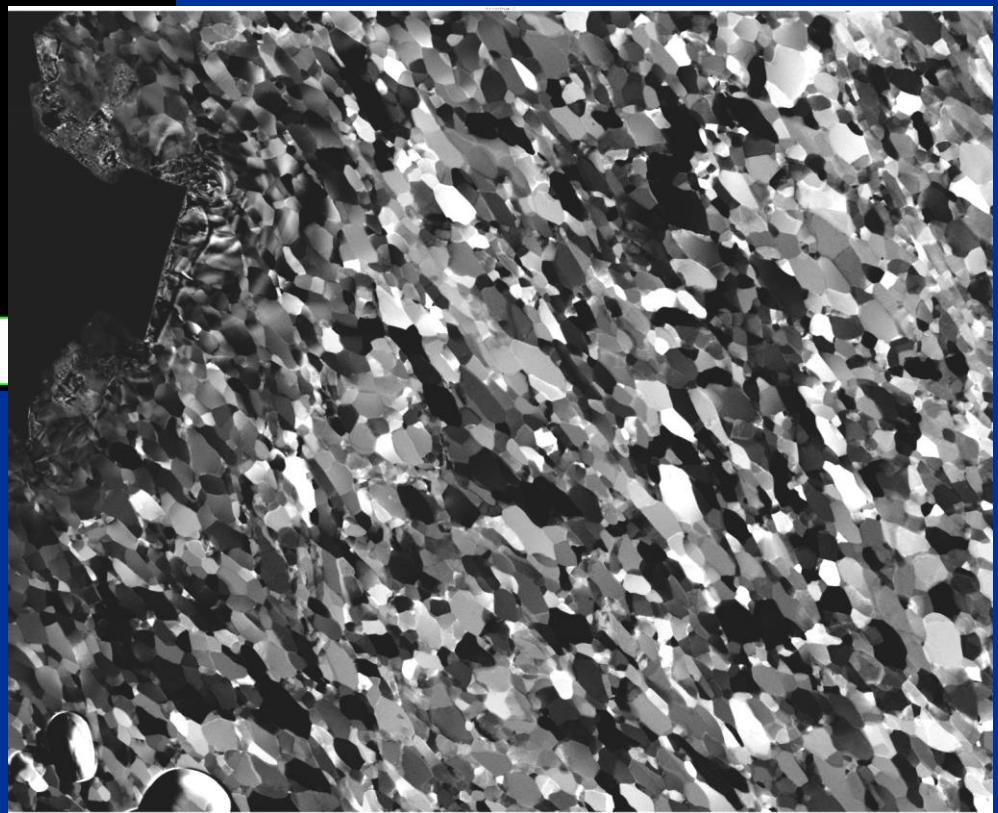
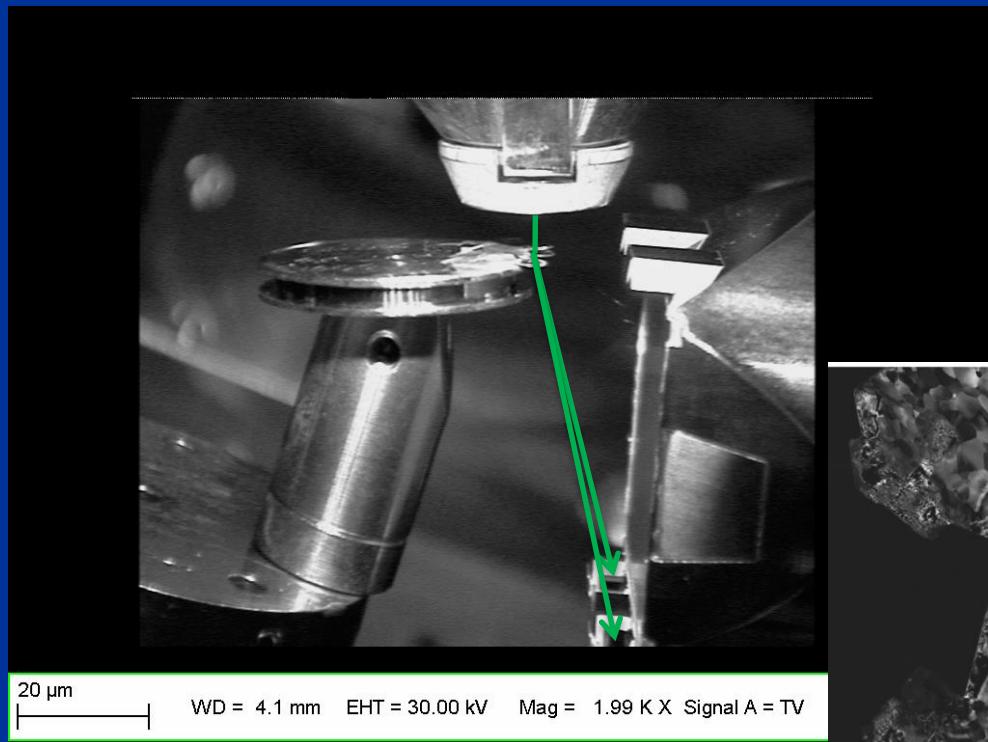


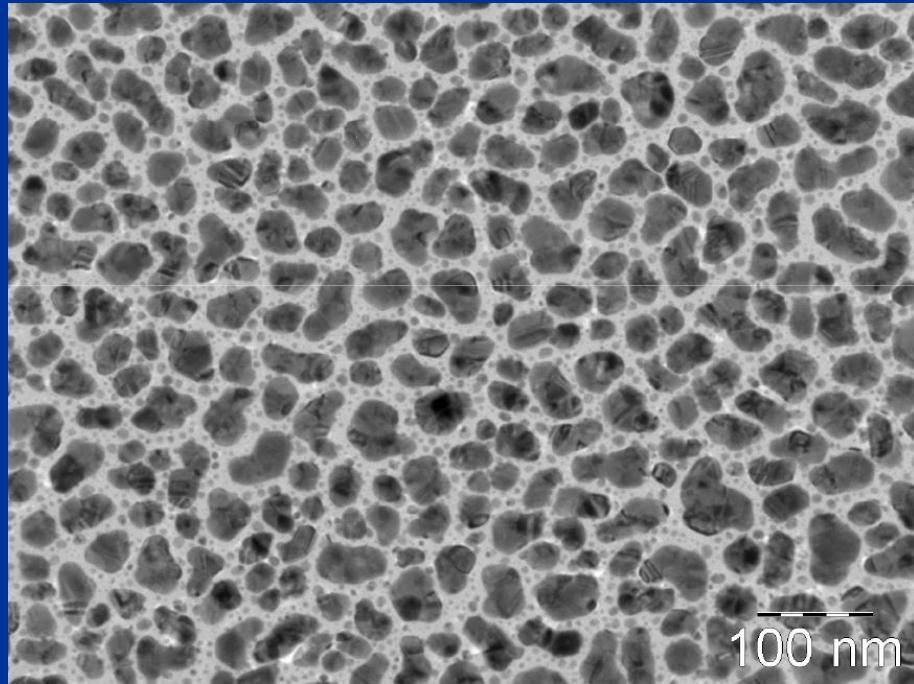
Sample holder
In EBSD position



Experimental set up for SEM-TKD, with the pre-tilted EBSD sample holder, the TEM foils held in a microclamp in a horizontal position, and the EBSD detector to the right.

FSE from Al after severe plastic deformation

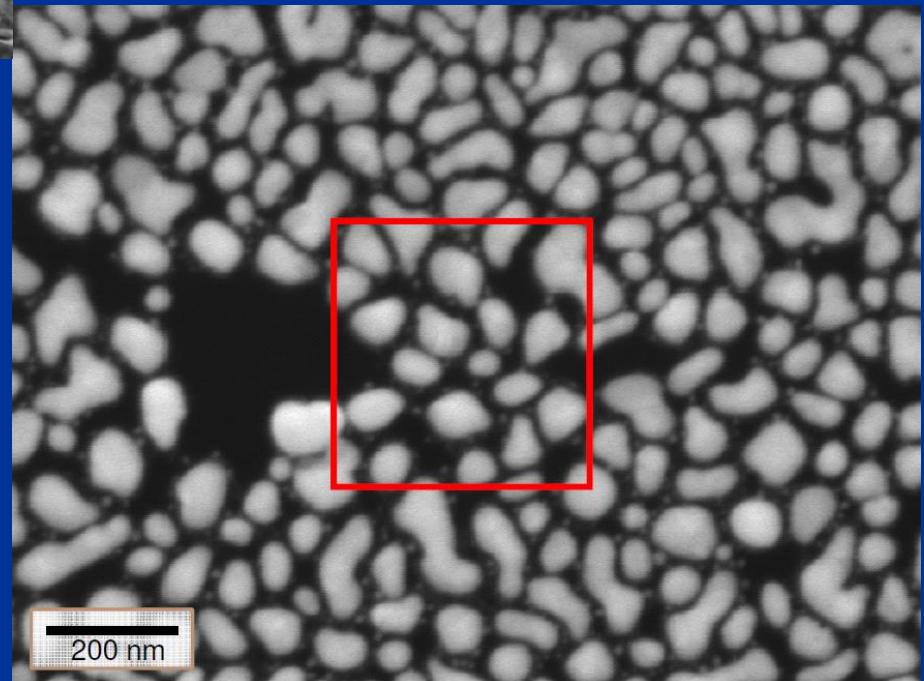




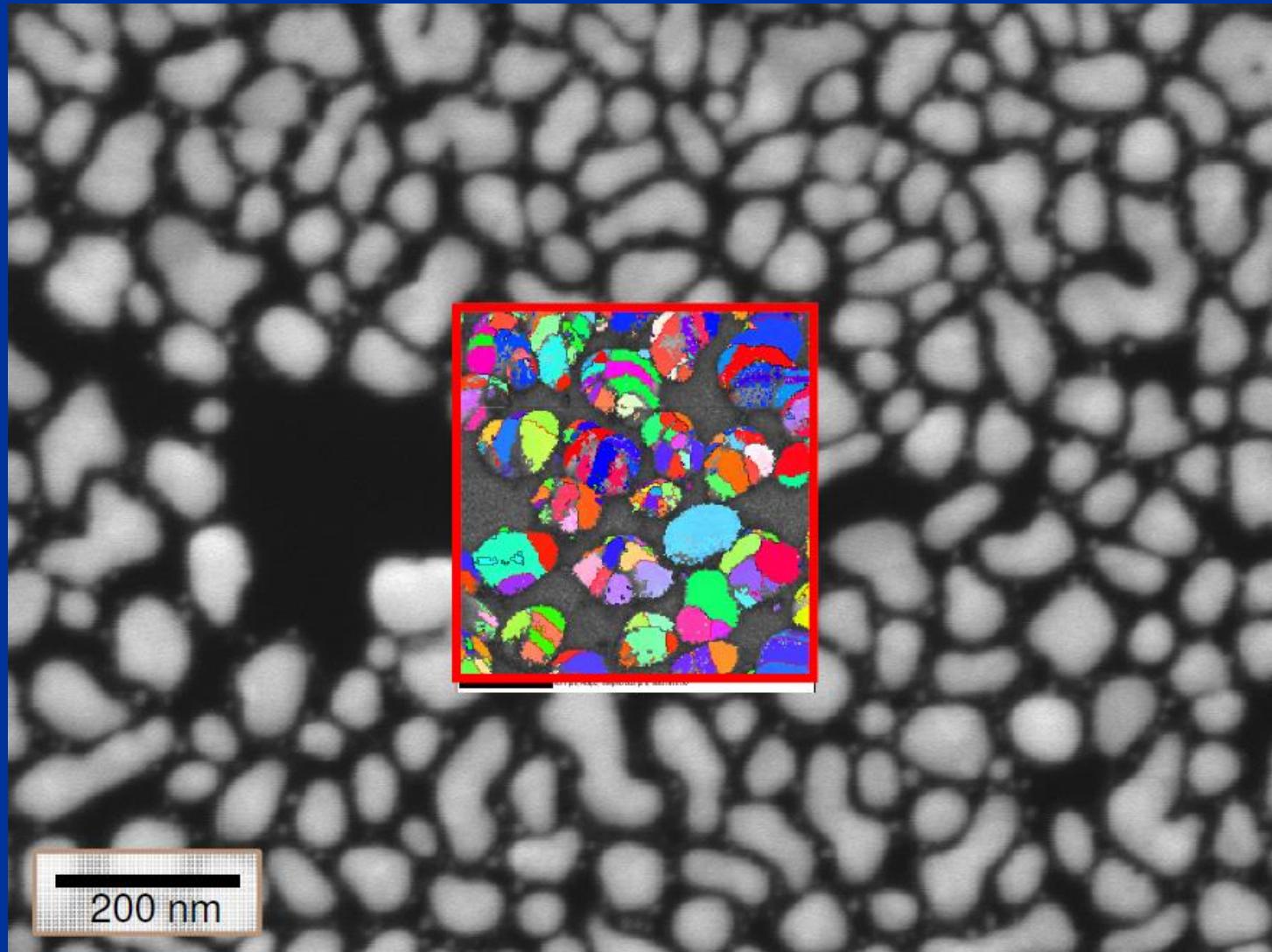
**BF-TEM image
gold islands**

**STEM-FSE image
gold islands**

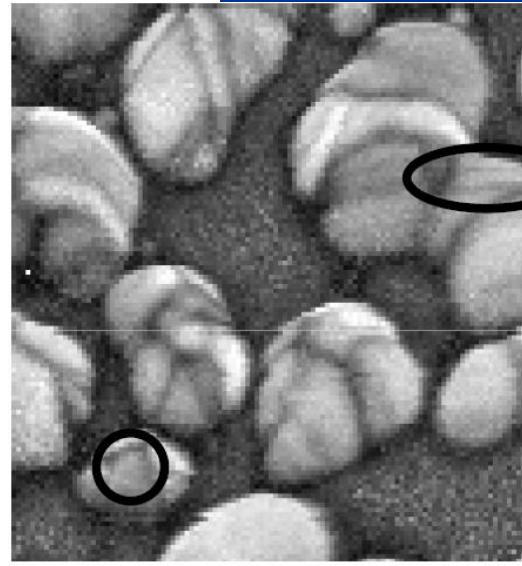
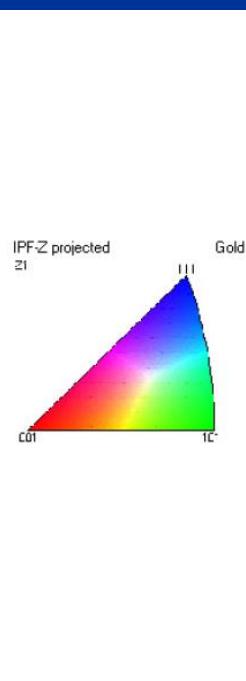
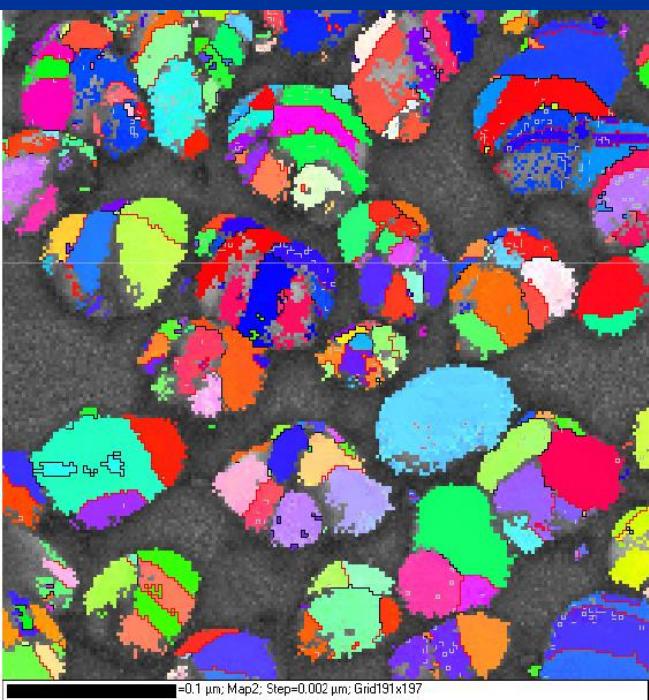
Sample courtesy S. Prikhodko (UCLA),
TEM work by Roy Boulder (NIST)



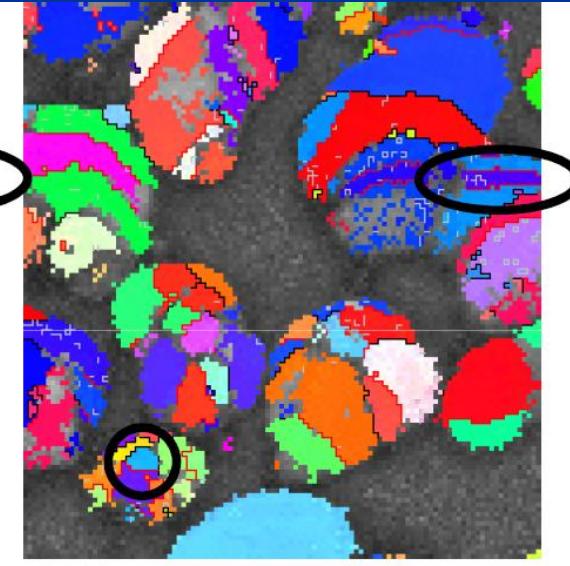
STEM-FSD image with IPF map



Courtesy of Scott D.Sitzmann,
Oxford Instruments



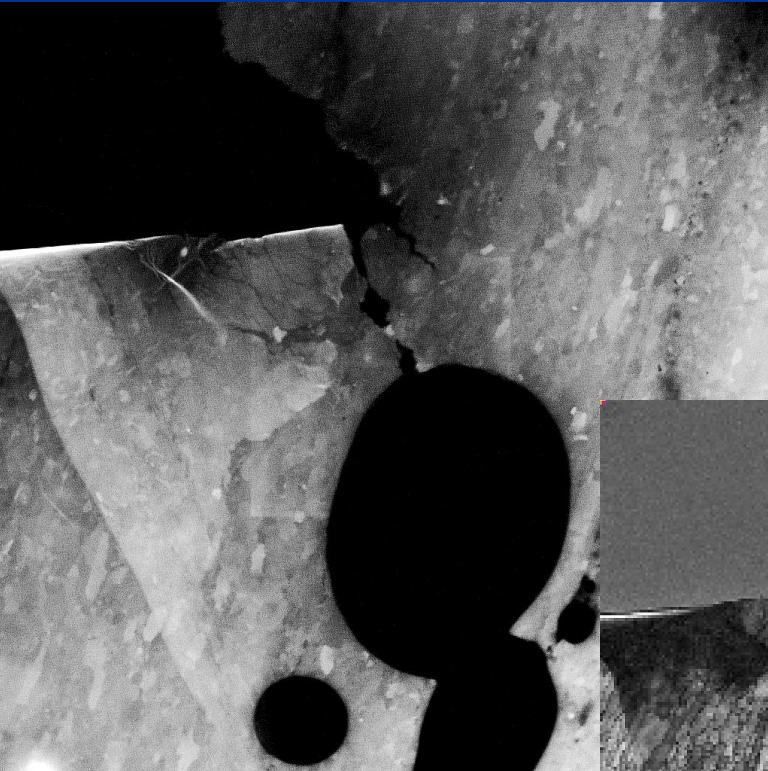
100 nm



$\sim 10 \times 15$ nm twin domain

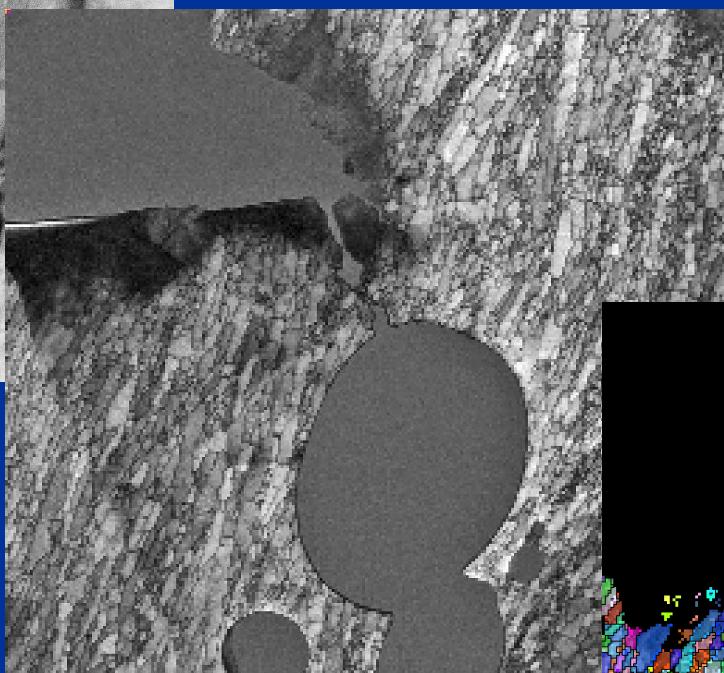
Each pixel = 2nm

Courtesy of Scott D.Sitzmann
Oxford Instruments



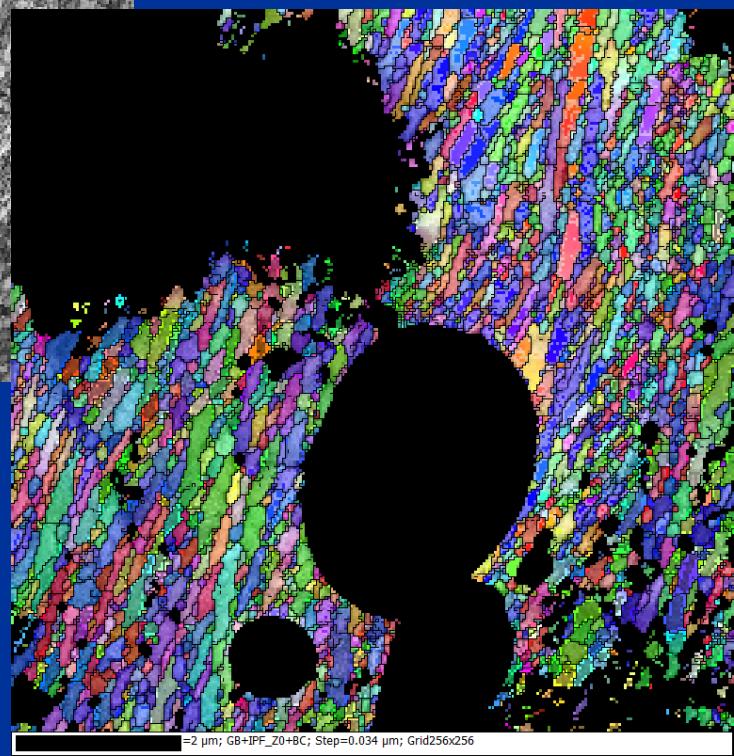
FSE image

Highly deformed Al 6060 alloy

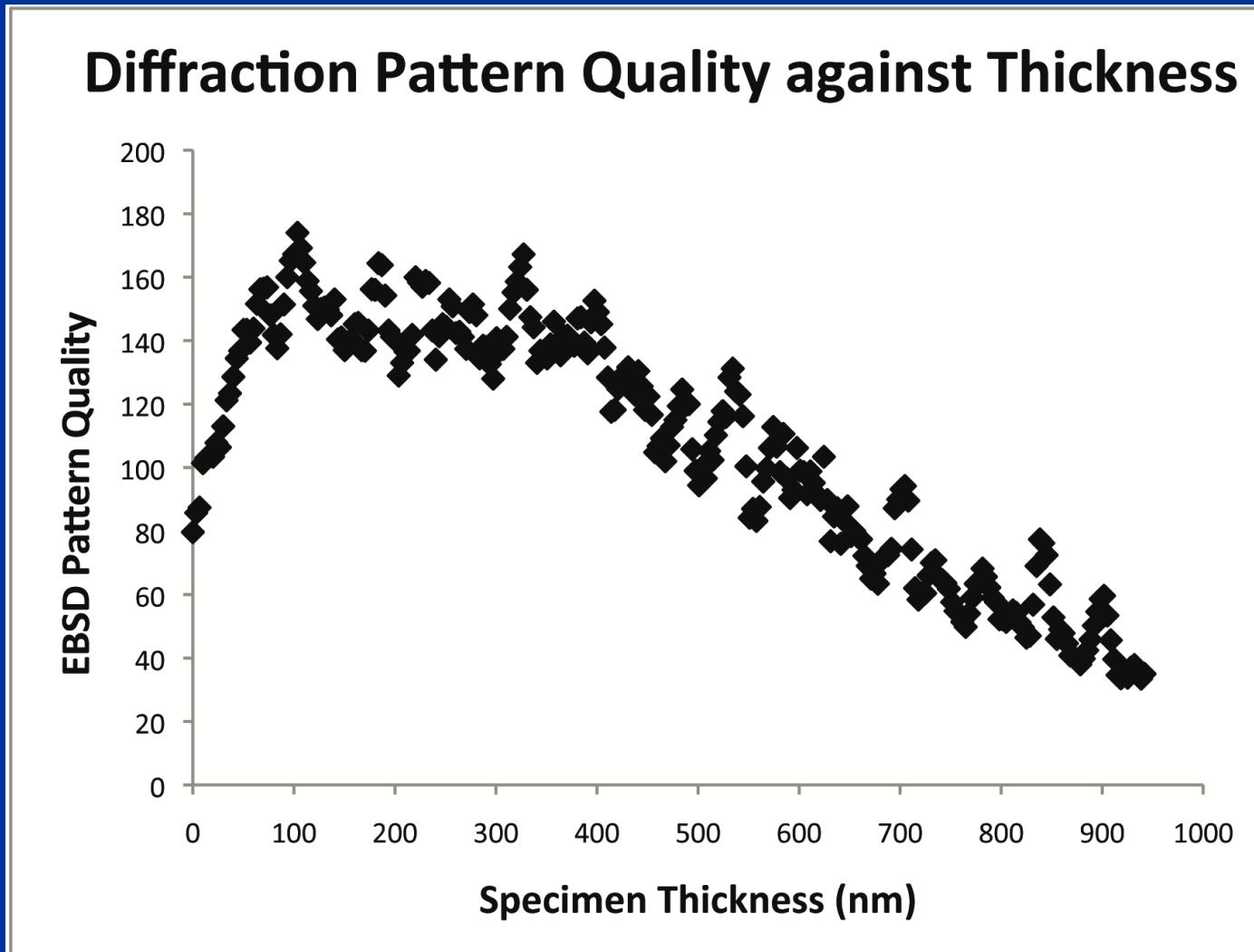


Band contrast map

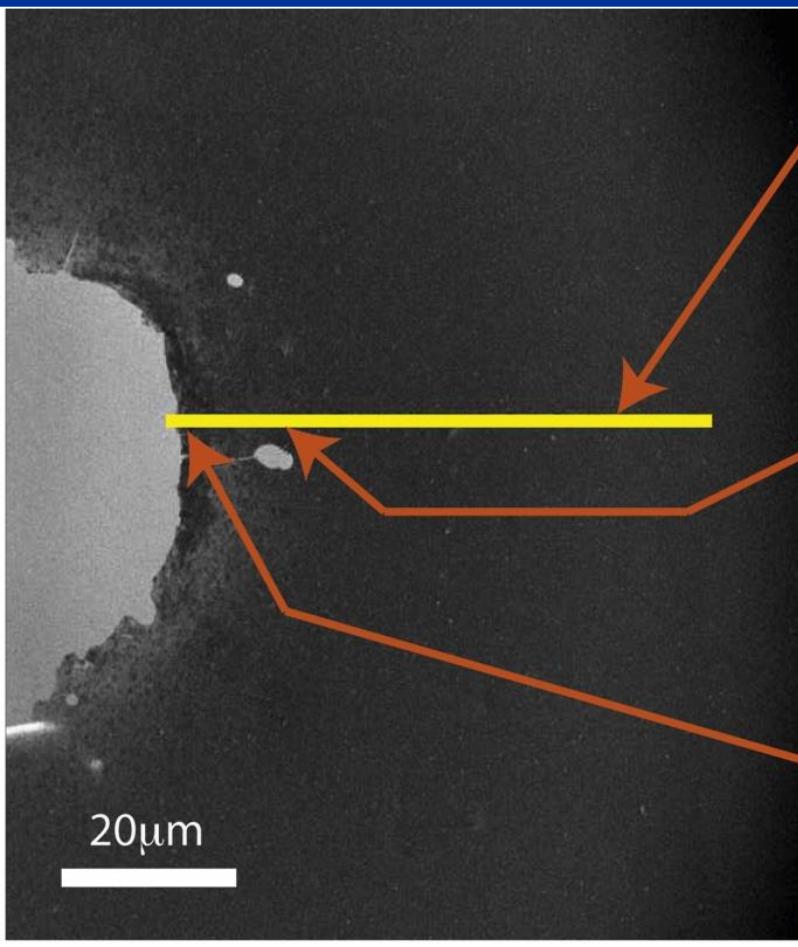
IPF orientation map



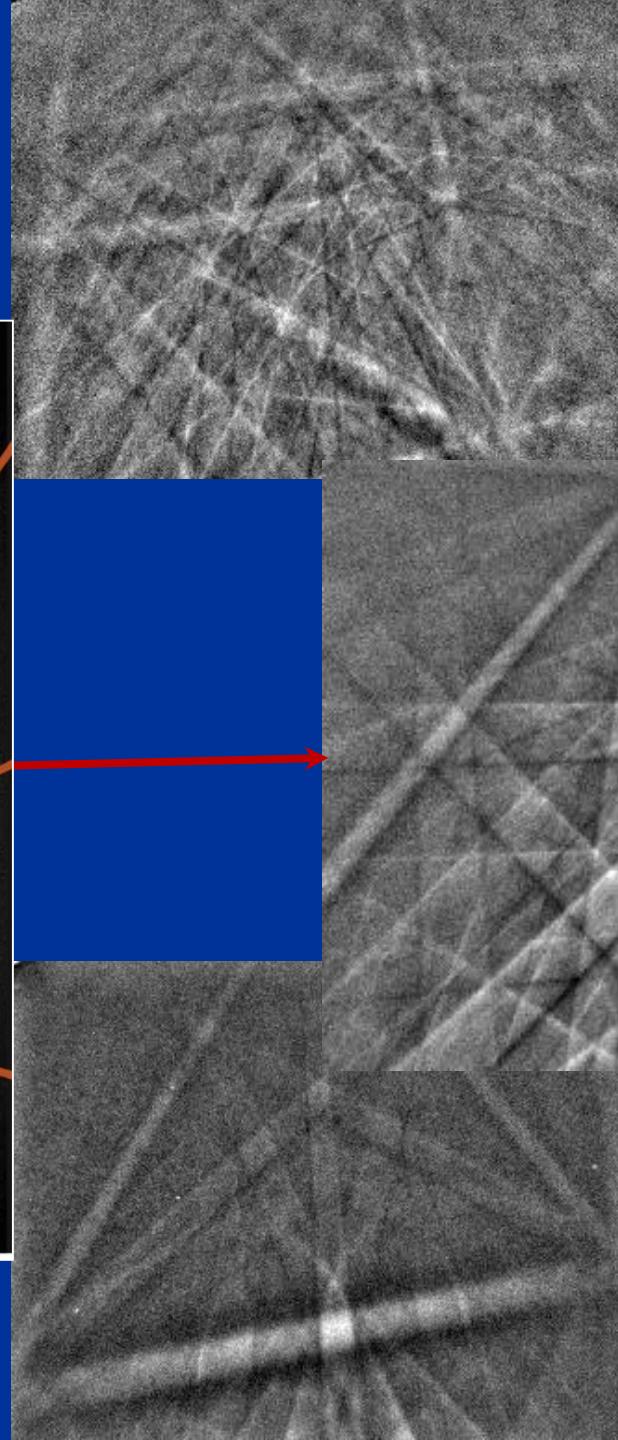
EBSP quality vs thickness for Al thin foil



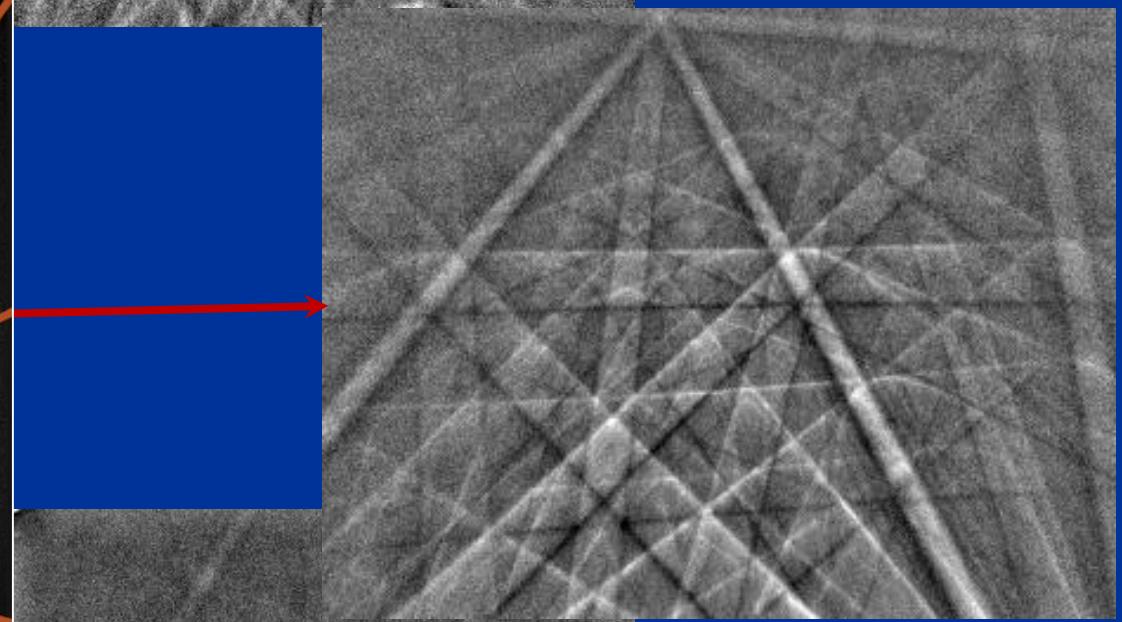
Too thick: Lateral beam spread may produce **overlapped patterns**, depending on grain size, Z, kV



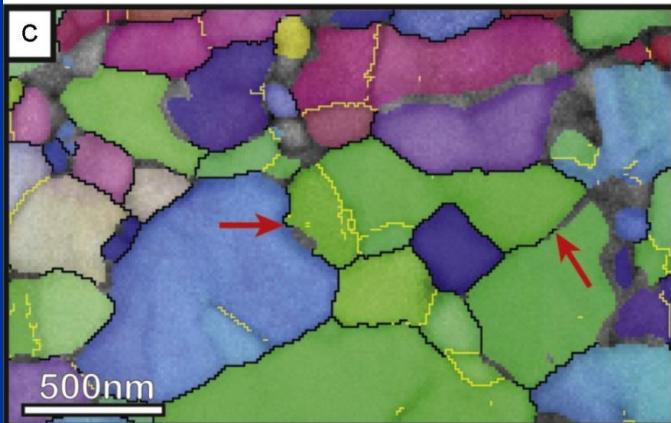
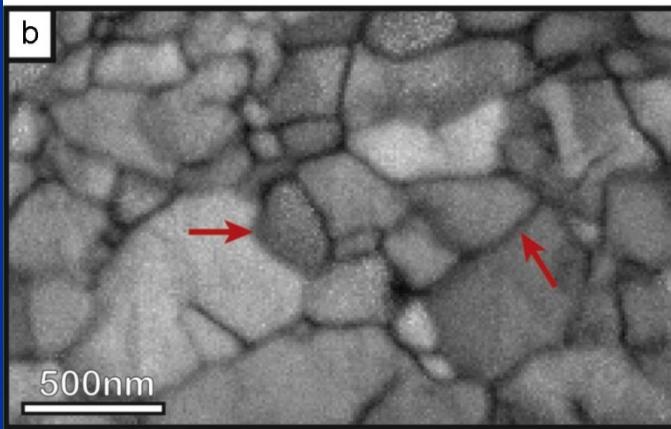
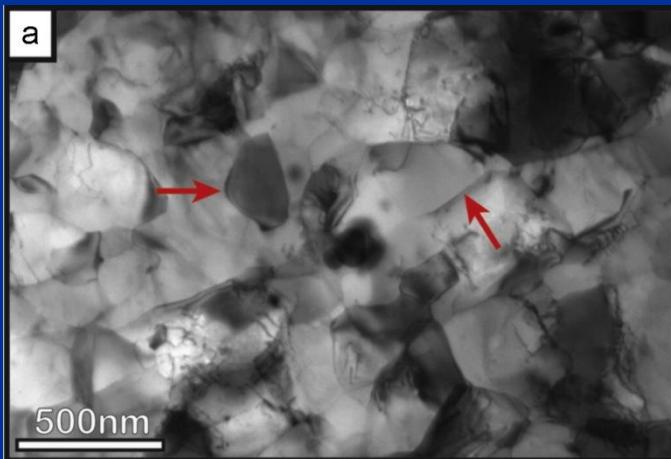
Secondary electron (SE) image of the central perforation in an **Al 6060** TEM foil. The yellow line marks a transect along which diffraction patterns were stored and analyzed.



Optimal range



Too thin
(weak signal but still workable)



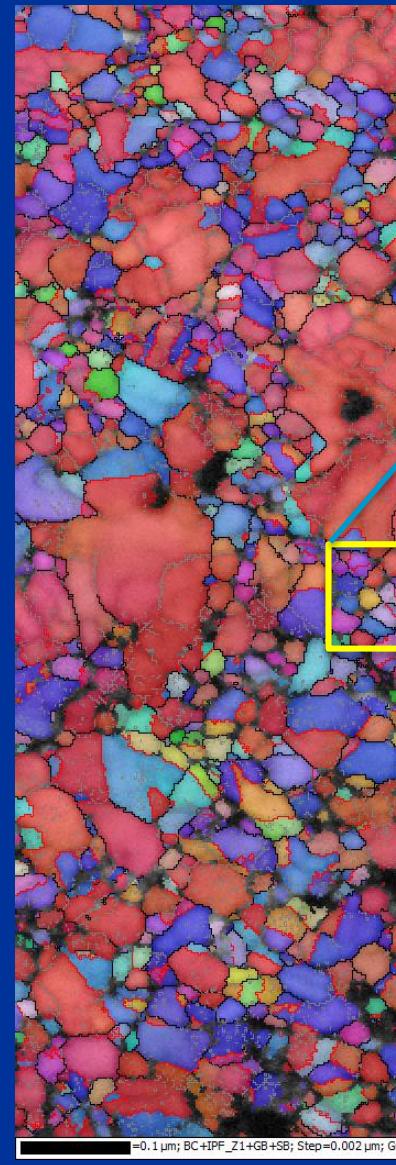
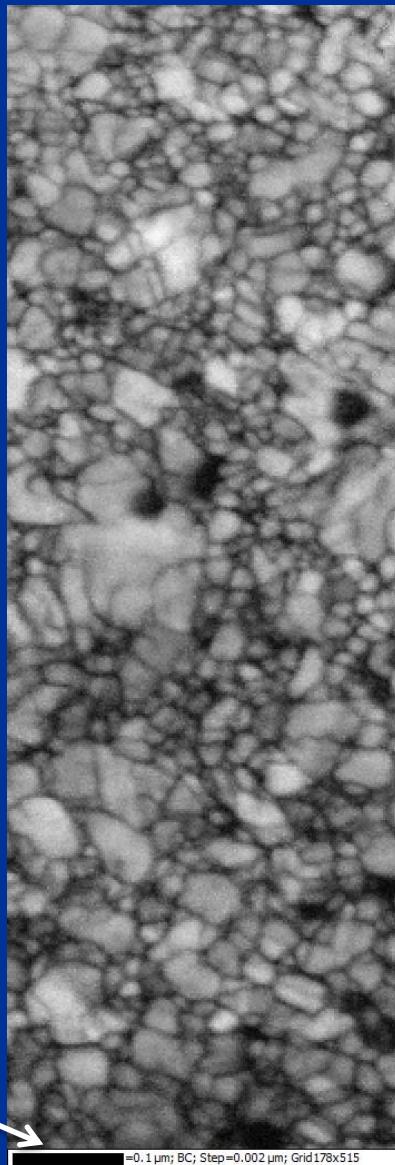
A comparison between STEM imaging in the SEM and TKD orientation mapping in aluminium alloy Al6060.

(a) A BF STEM image collected in the SEM.

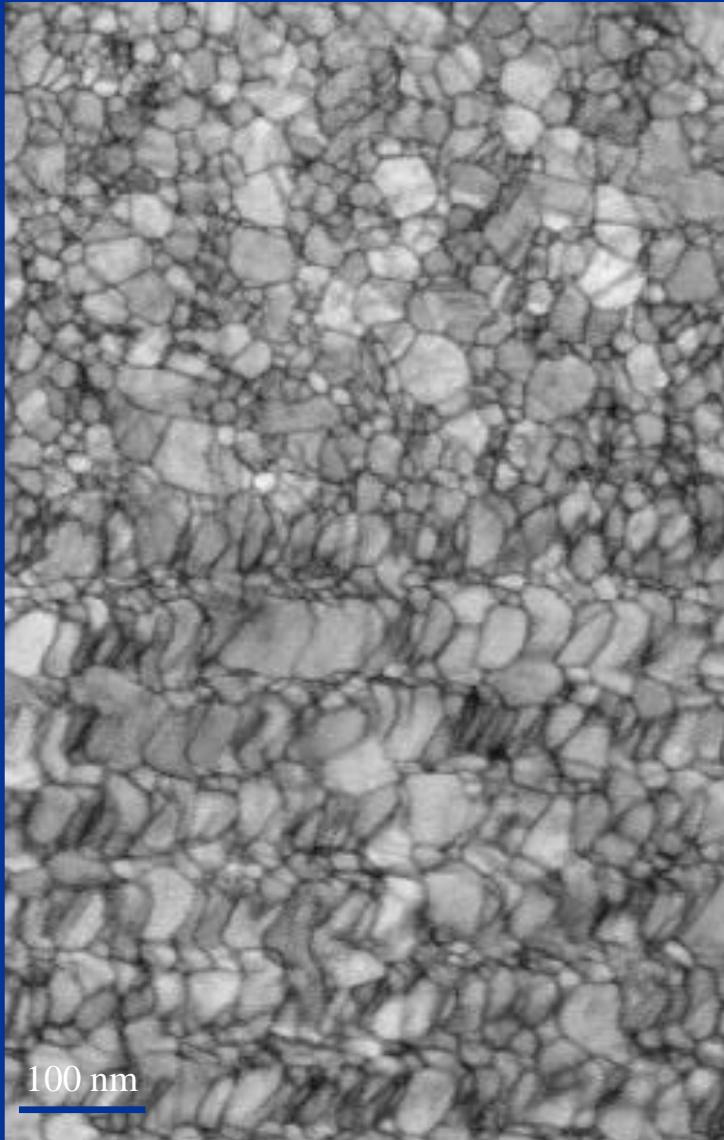
(b) TKD pattern quality map (band contrast) of the same area, collected using a 10 nm step size.

(c) Cleaned orientation map (IPF z-direction coloring scheme), showing high angle boundaries ($>10^\circ$) in black, and low angle boundaries ($2-10^\circ$) in yellow.

Electrodeposited nano-Ni



Since TKD generally uses very small step sizes with high electron current, it is especially vulnerable to drift !!!



Drift

Best results at highest resolution after letting stage stabilize for 1-3 hours
Vertical drift: image out of focus
Good depth of field beneficial

Contamination

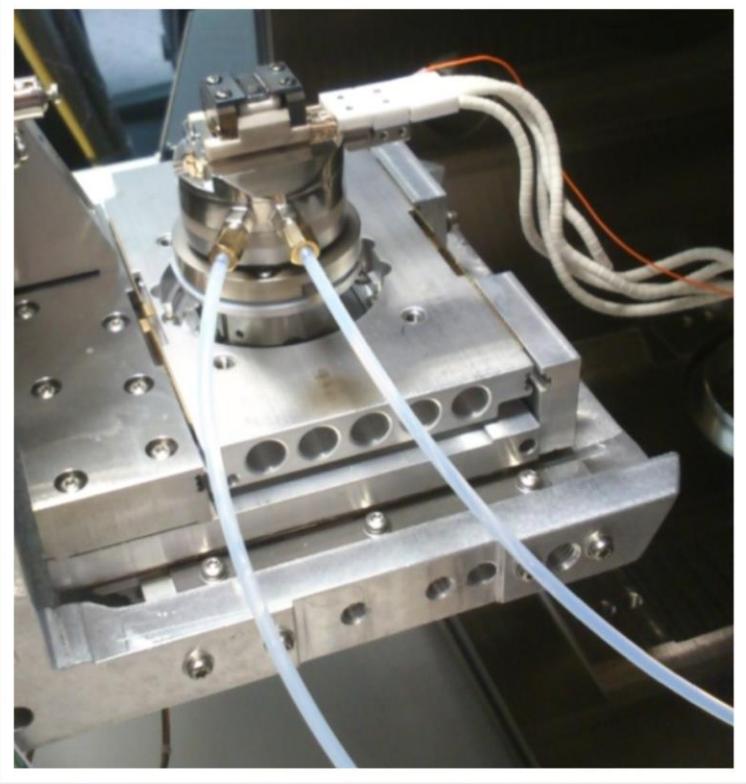
Clean samples and good vacuum necessary
Scanning adjacent to region of interest for 10-60 minutes can help
Sensible choice of map shape (short rows)

Lab instabilities

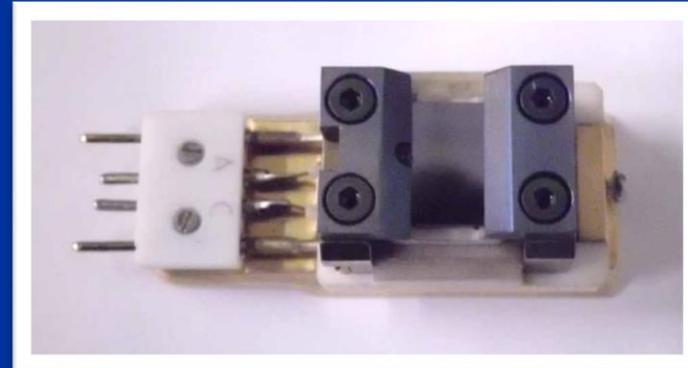
Air conditioning and coolant temperature

*In situ EBSD
experiments*

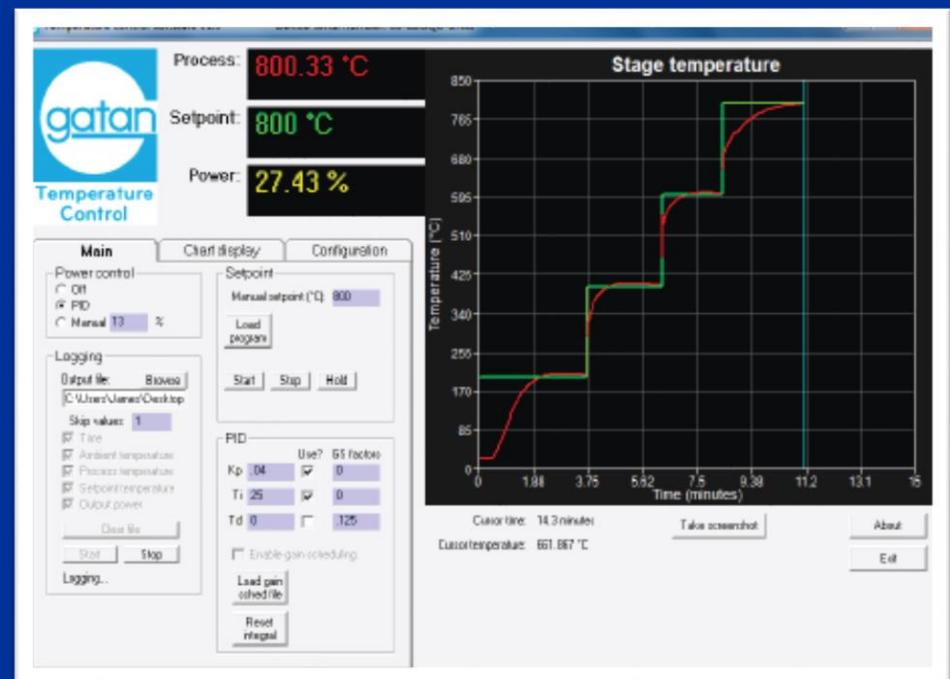
In situ experiments in the SEM



Gatan 950 °C Murano 525 heating stage with UBS Temperature Controller in the microscope chamber

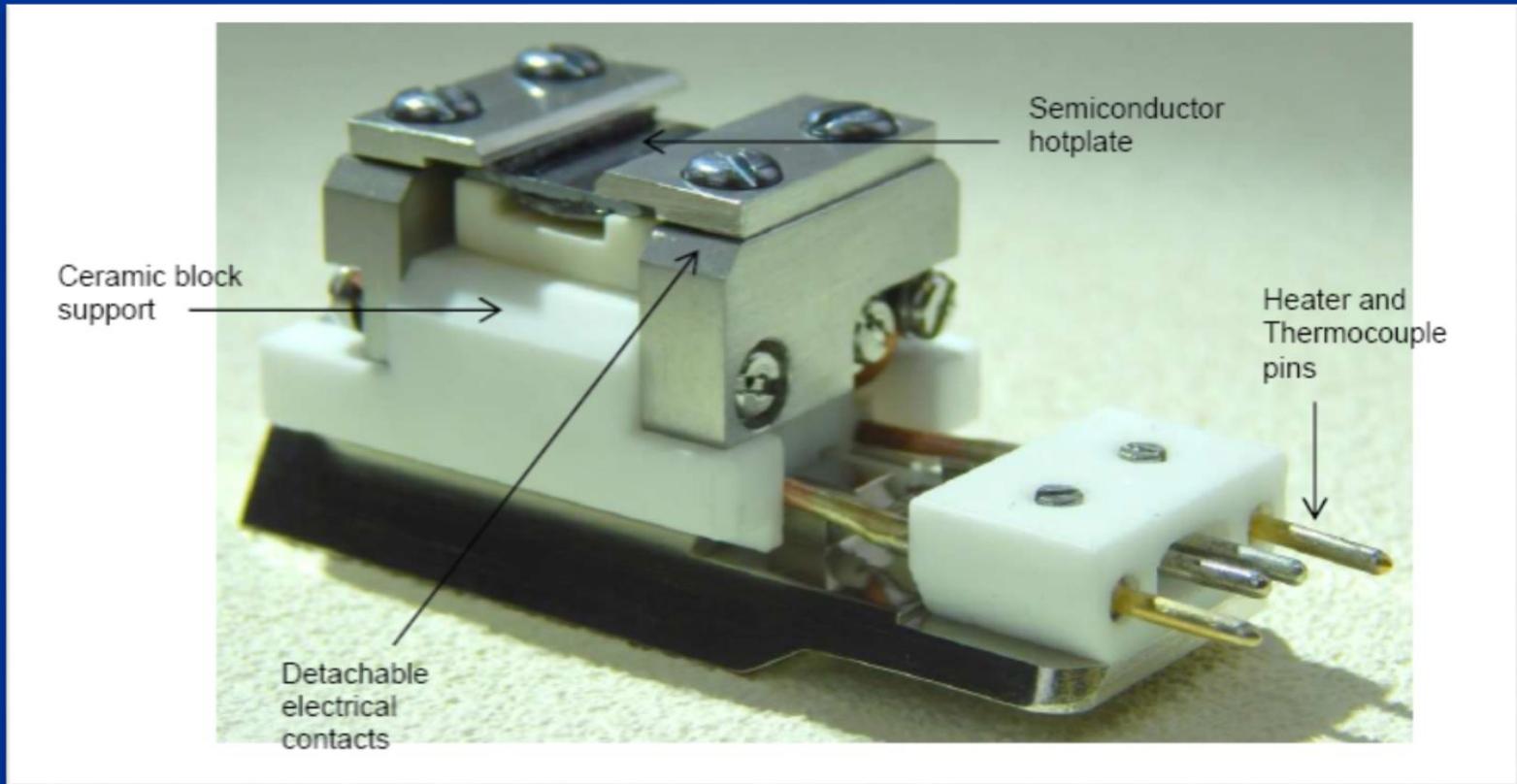


Specimen plate



Main window of temperature control software

In situ experiments in the SEM

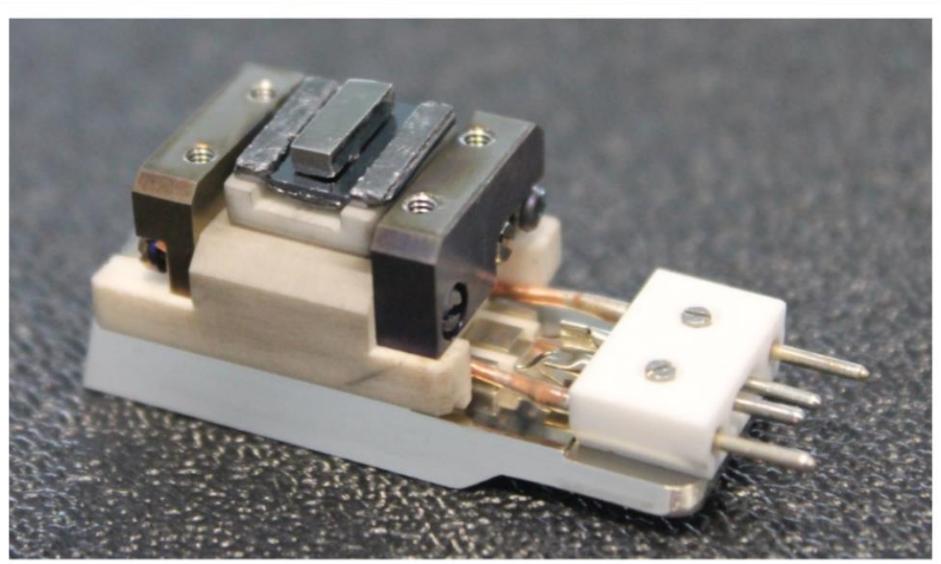
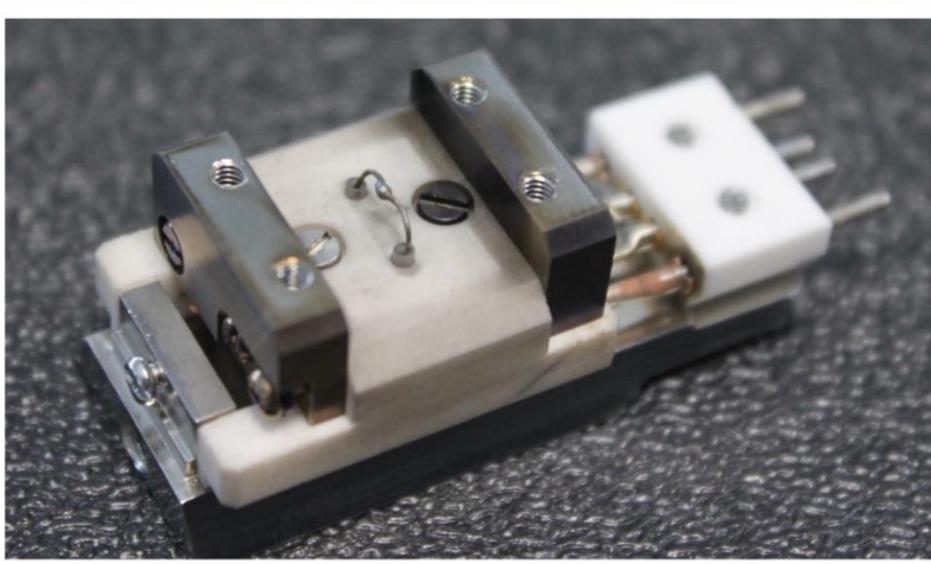


Gatan 950 °C Murano 525 heating stage



Heating stage parameters

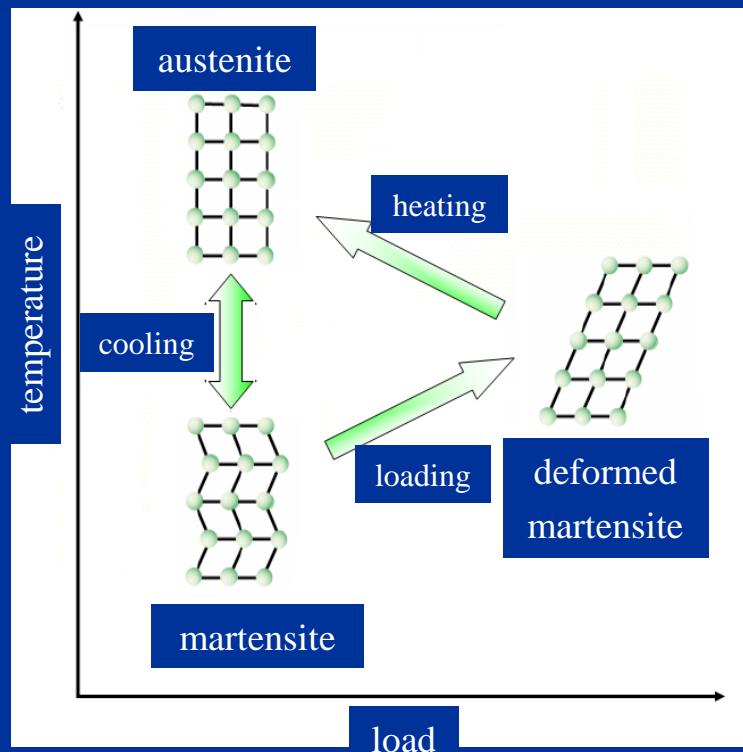
- First heating stage for rapid *in-situ* specimen characterization
- Monitor phase transformation from ambient to 950 °C
- Single specimen for entire heating range, provides continuity and optimizes speed of characterization
- Controlled specimen heating to >100 °C per minute for 9 mm (L) x 4 mm (W) x 1.5 mm (H) samples



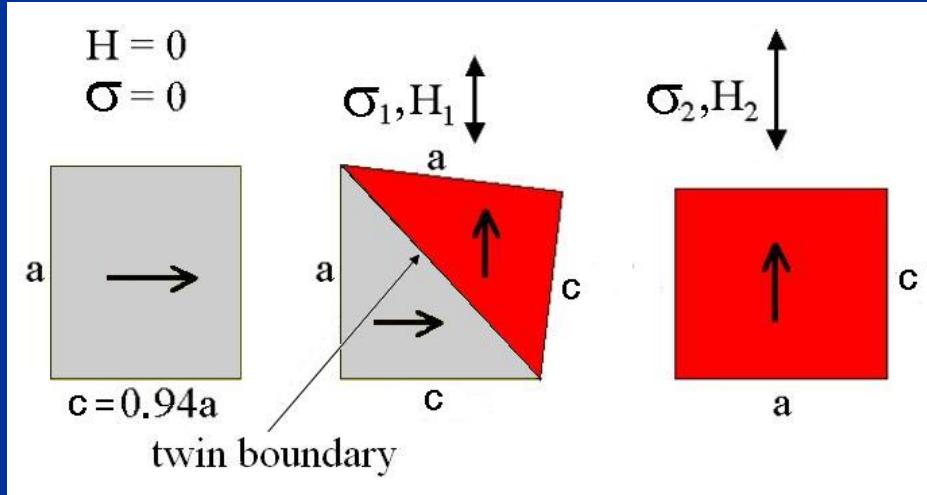
Gatan 950 °C Murano 525 heating stage

Magnetic field induced strain

Requirements: high magnetocrystalline anisotropy, highly mobile twin boundaries



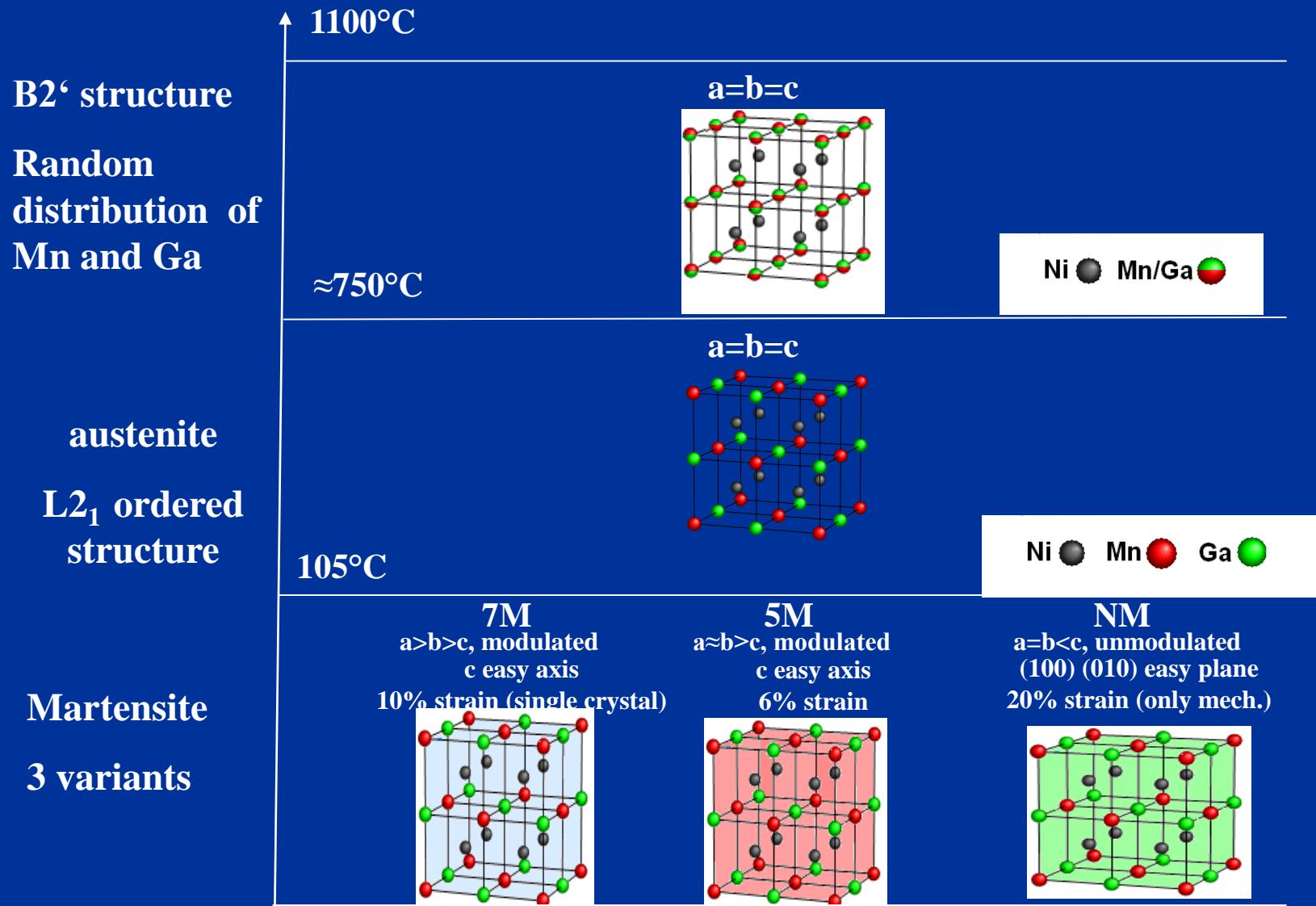
Shape-memory effect



Magnetic shape-memory effect
(Magnetic Field Induced Strain)

MFIS is based on the easy twin boundary motion and a high magnetocrystalline anisotropy in the martensitic state. Due to the tetragonal NM (non-modulated) or 7M or 5M (modulated) monoclinic structures, a macroscopic strain occurs by twin boundary motion exchanging the a- and c-axes.

System Ni-Mn-Ga

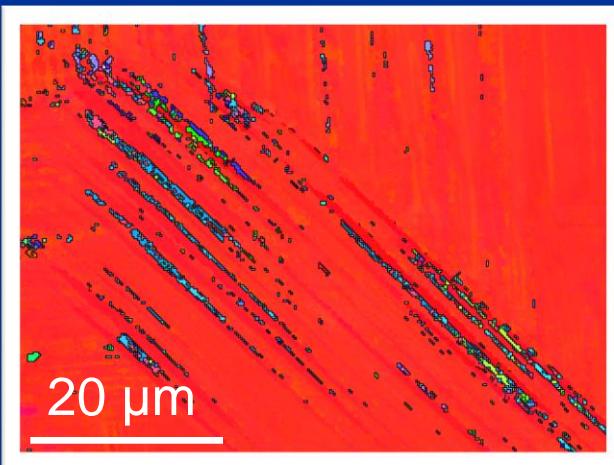
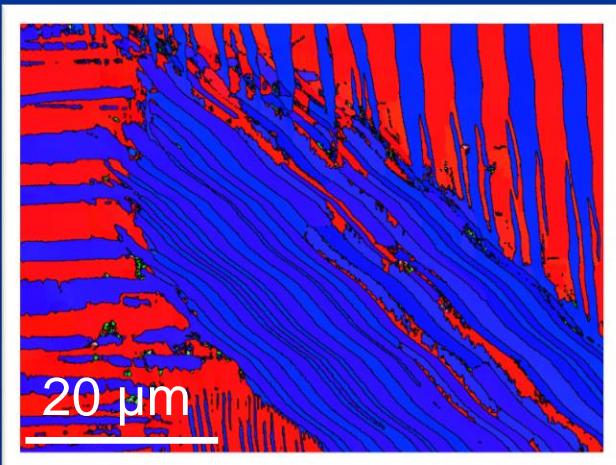


$\text{Ni}_{50}\text{Mn}_{30}\text{Ga}_{20}$ non-modulated structure ($A_s \sim 80^\circ\text{C}$, $A_f \sim 90^\circ\text{C}$)

25°C

90°C

105°C

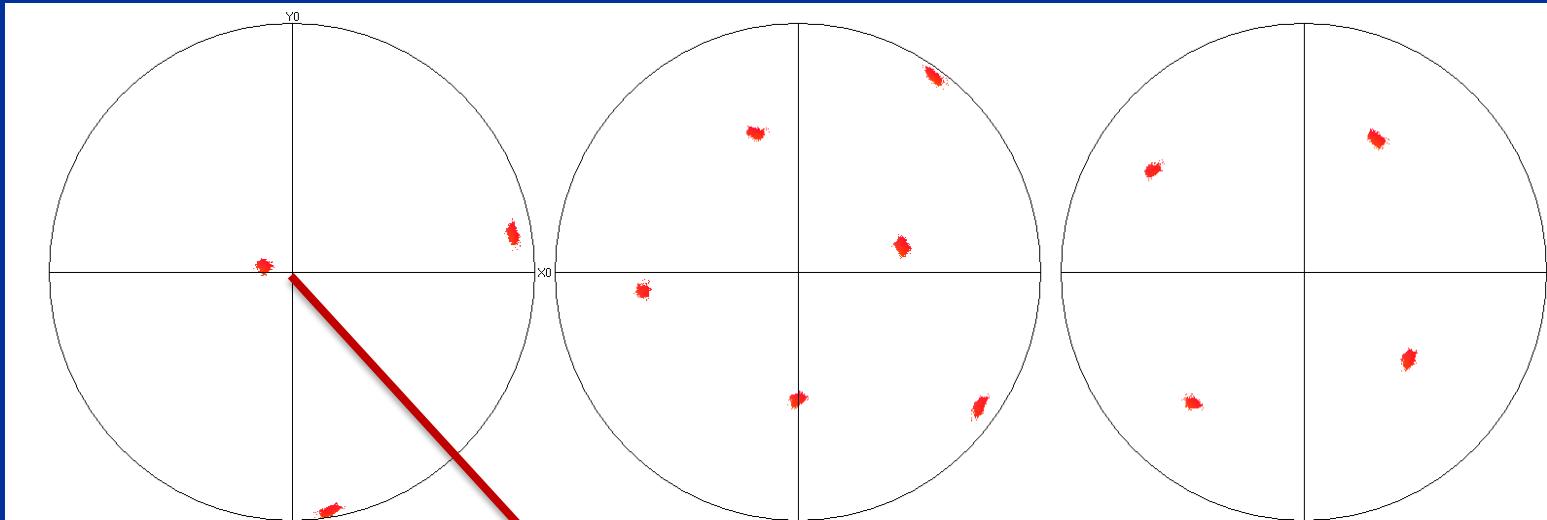


IPF color coding,
step size 0.15 μm

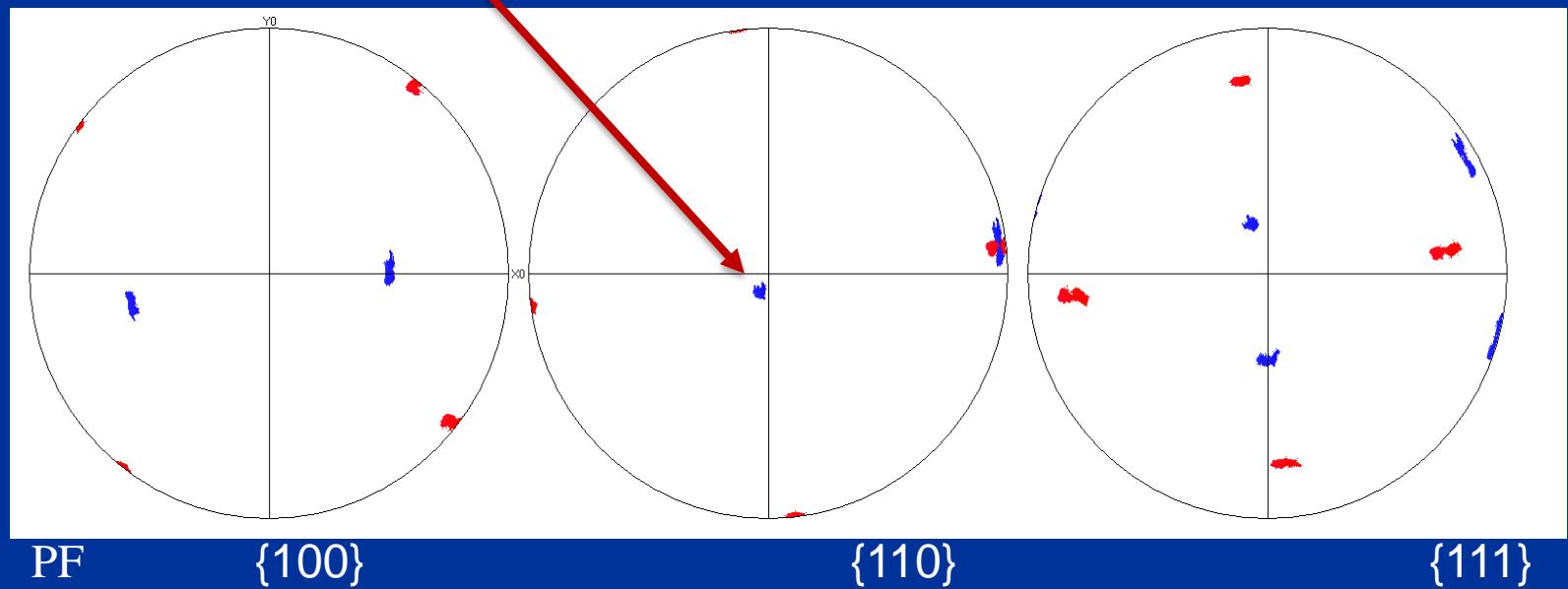
Phase map shows only one phase – i.e. complete transformation has occurred

Orientation relationship

Austenite
(105°C)



Martensite
(25°C)



PF

{100}

{110}

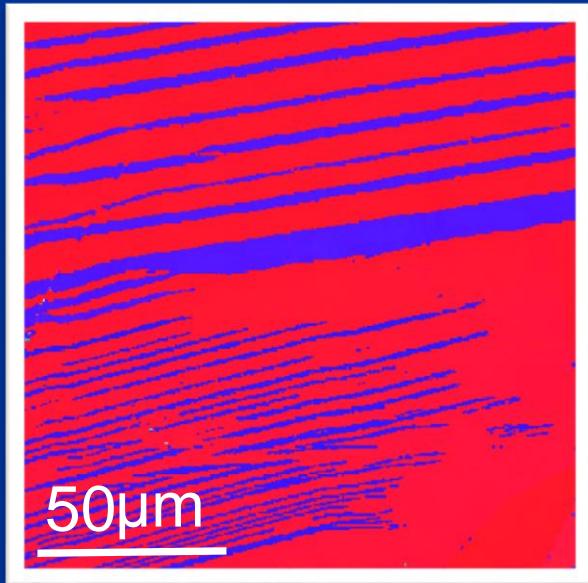
{111}

In-situ studies of martensitic phase transformation allow to capture details of the orientation relationship between austenite and martensite

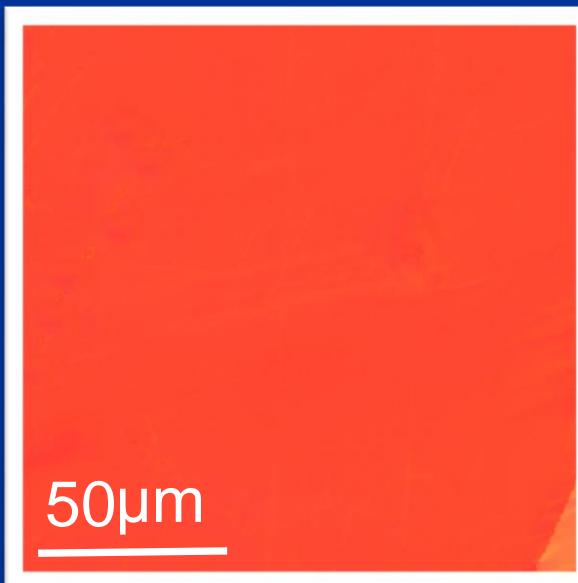
$\text{Ni}_{50}\text{Mn}_{29}\text{Ga}_{21}$ modulated 5M structure ($A_s \approx 74^\circ\text{C}$, $A_f \approx 81^\circ\text{C}$)

Thermal cycling!

25°C

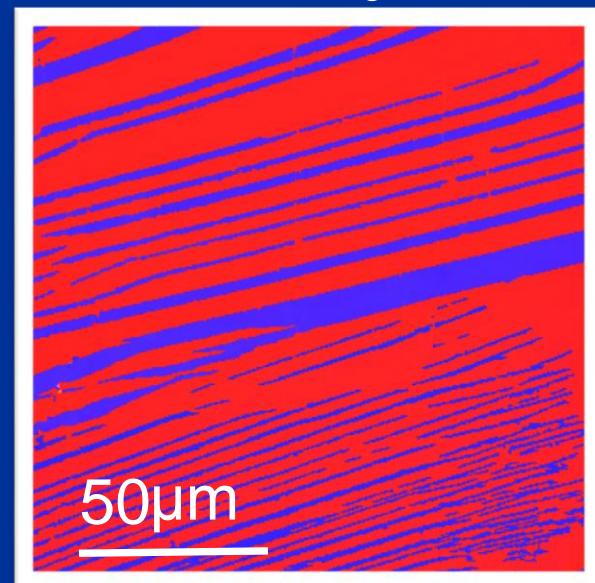


90°C



25°C

after cooling

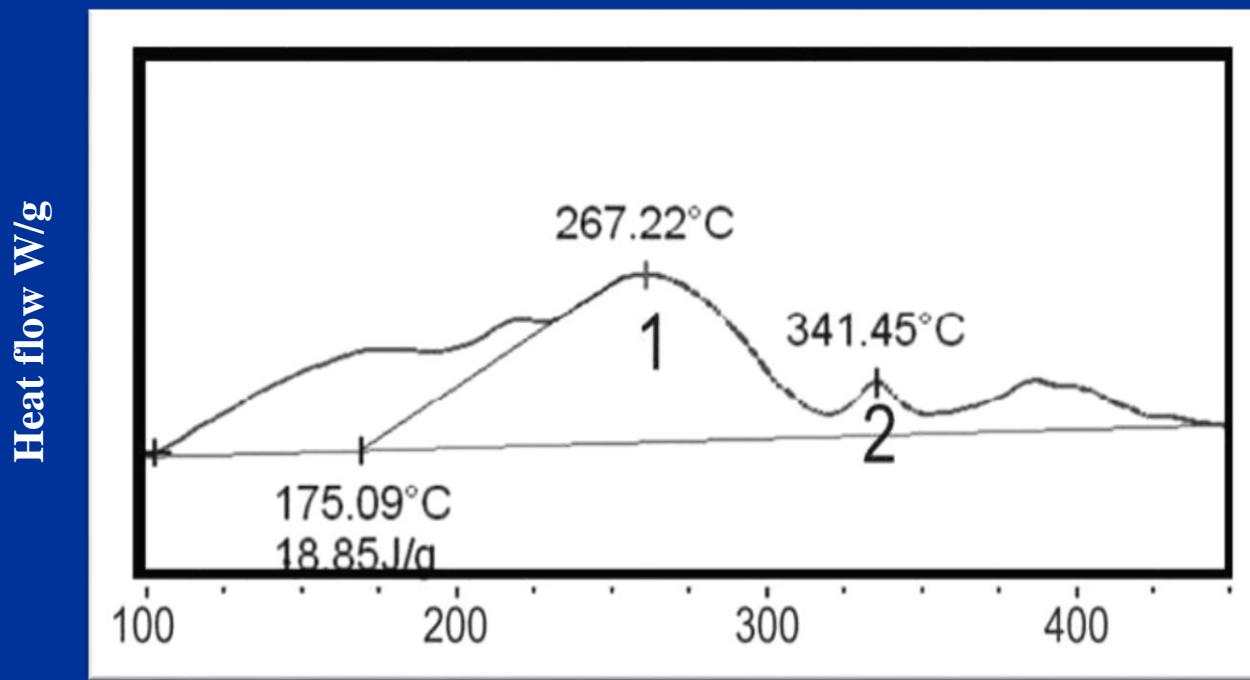


IPF color coding, step size
0.4 μm

Reverse transition

Distribution of martensitic laths (plates) after cooling
is not the same as before
phase transformation

Aluminum alloy 6013 after cold rolling Calorimetric studies

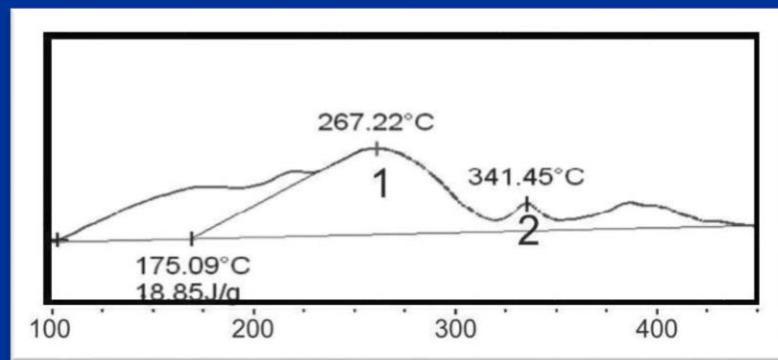
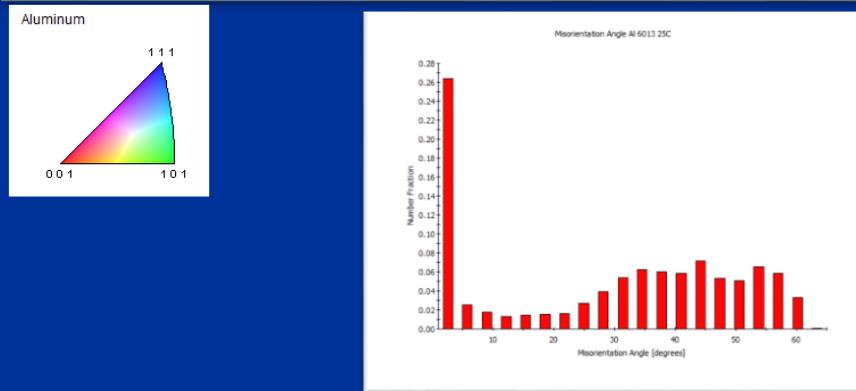
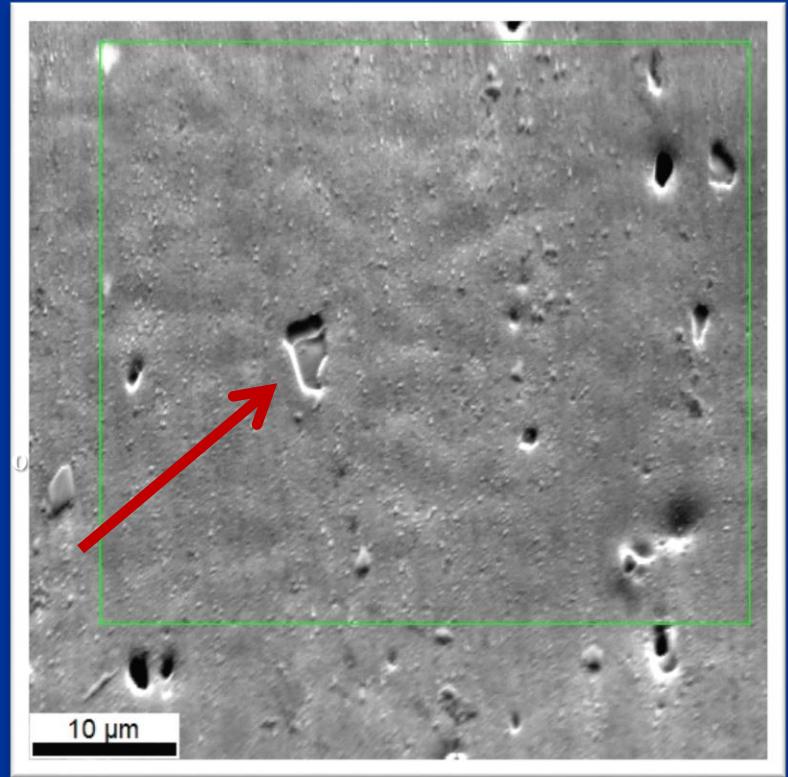
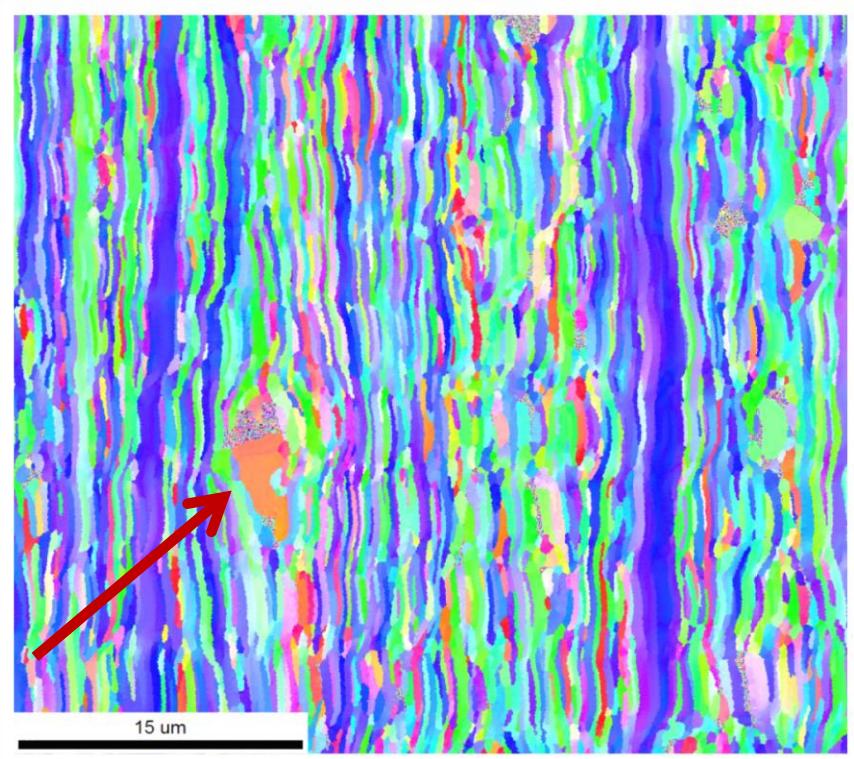


Recrystallization peaks:

- 1 first recrystallization takes place in highly deformed zones in the vicinity of **large particles** (particle stimulated nucleation PSD)
- 2 proper recrystallization is overlapped by dissolution of **small ($<<1\mu\text{m}$) second-phase particles**.

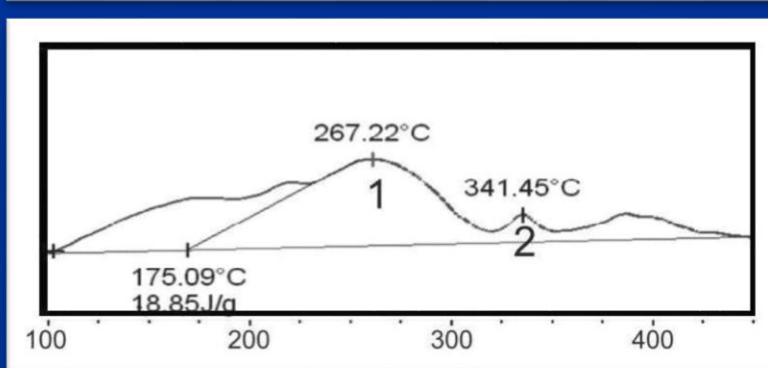
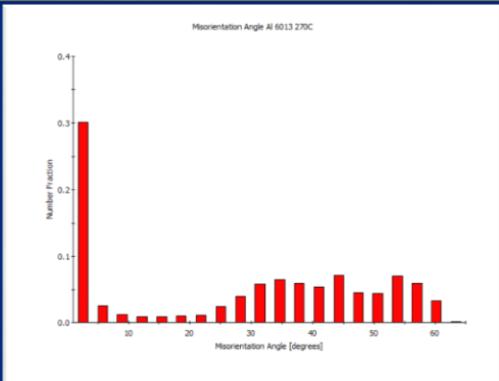
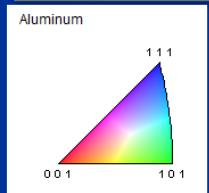
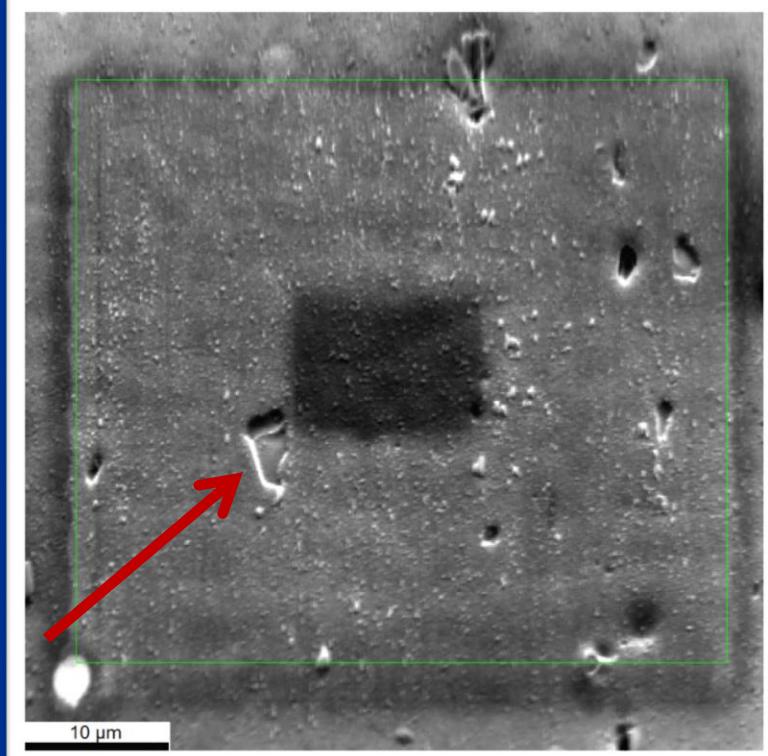
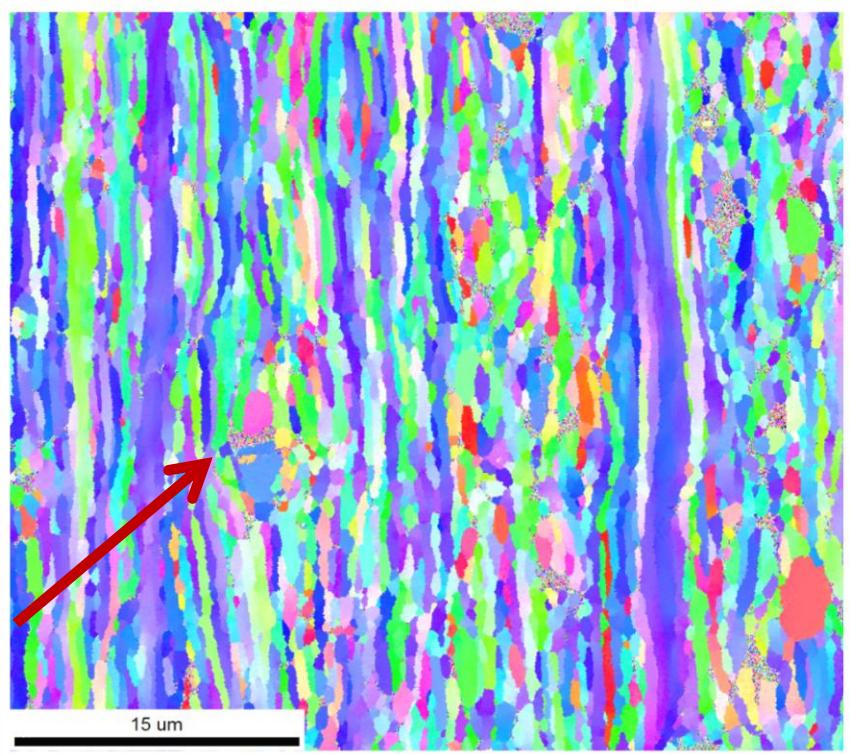
Recrystallization is fully completed after reaching 380°C .

Aluminum alloy 6013 SEM 25°C

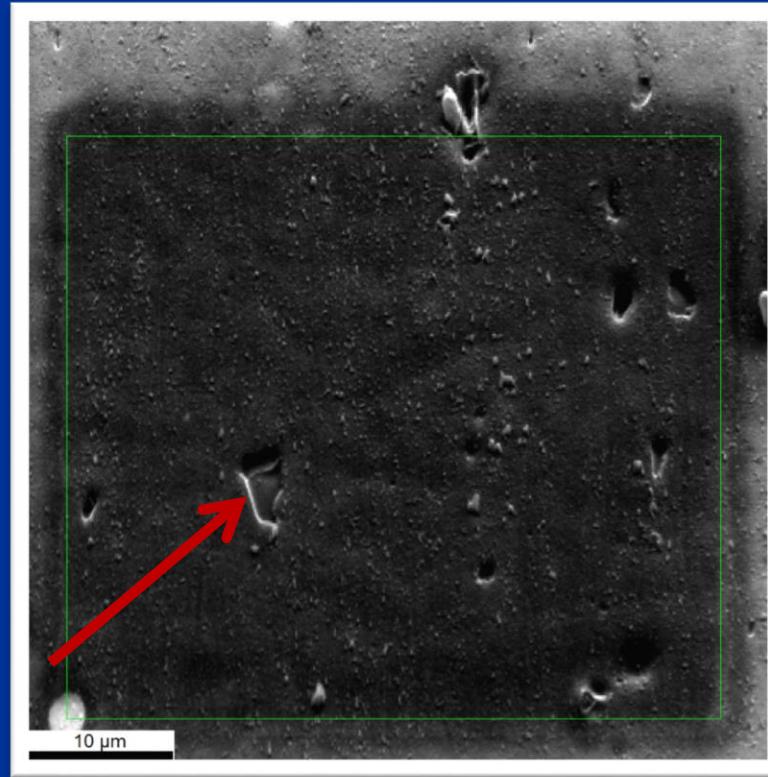
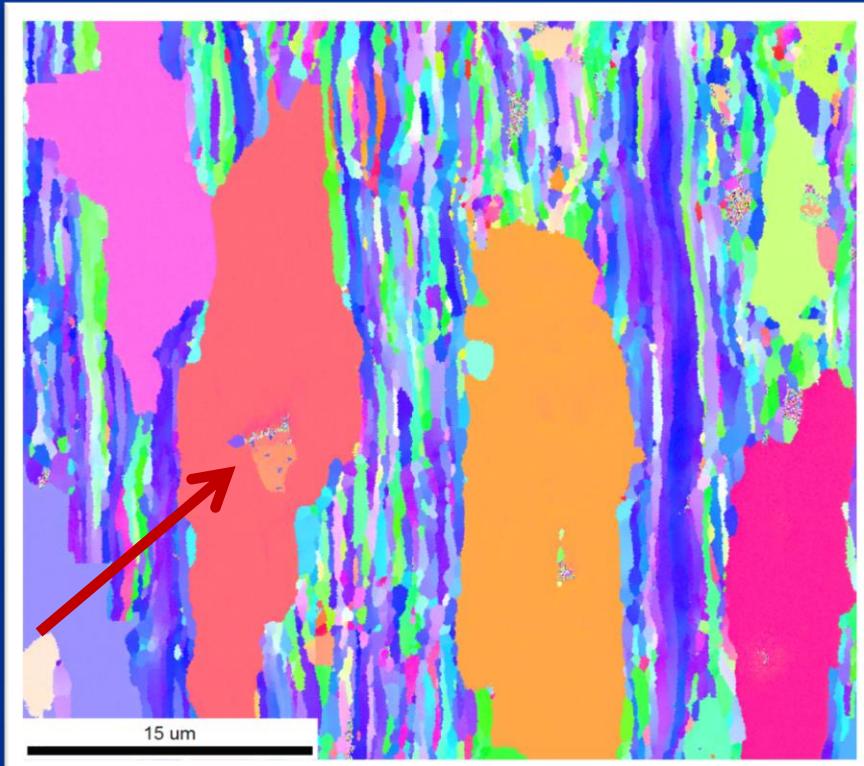


Aluminum alloy 6013 SEM 270°C

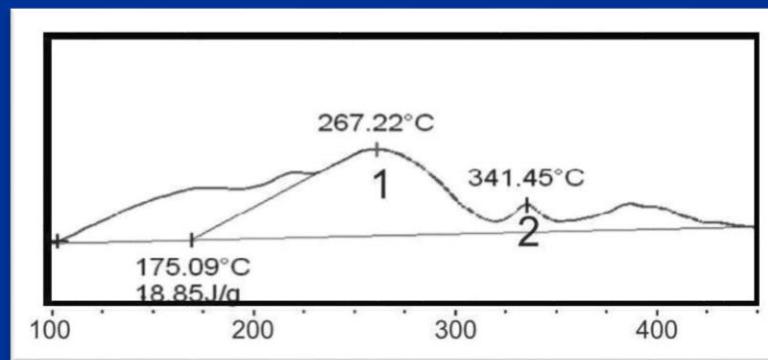
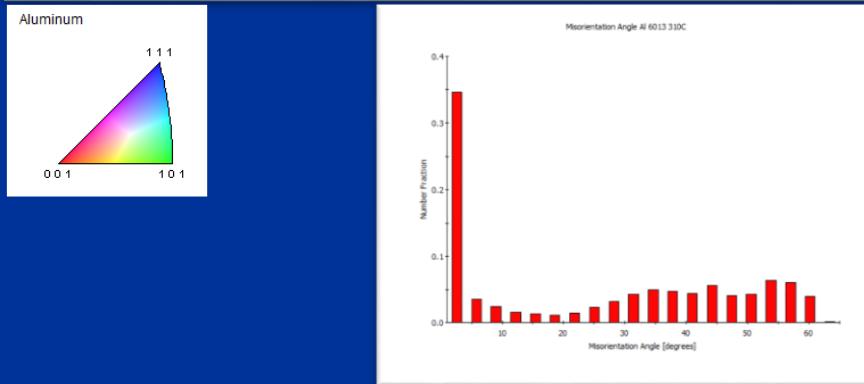
RD
ND



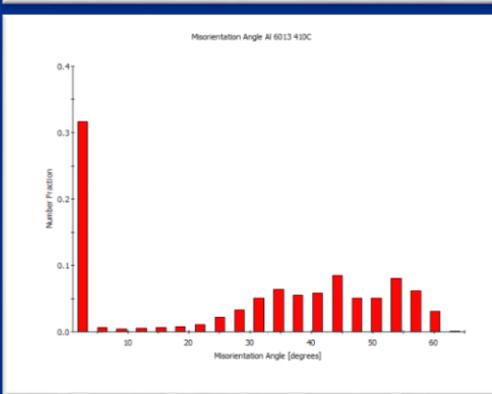
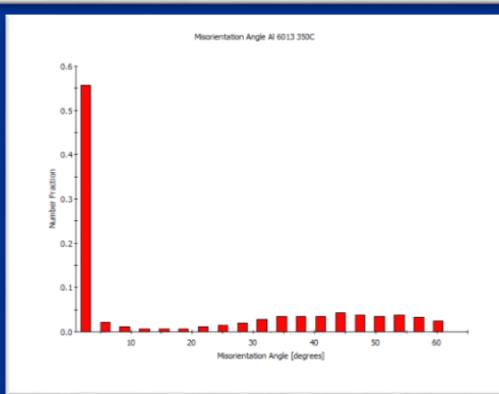
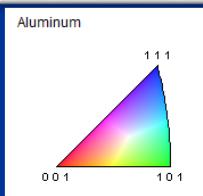
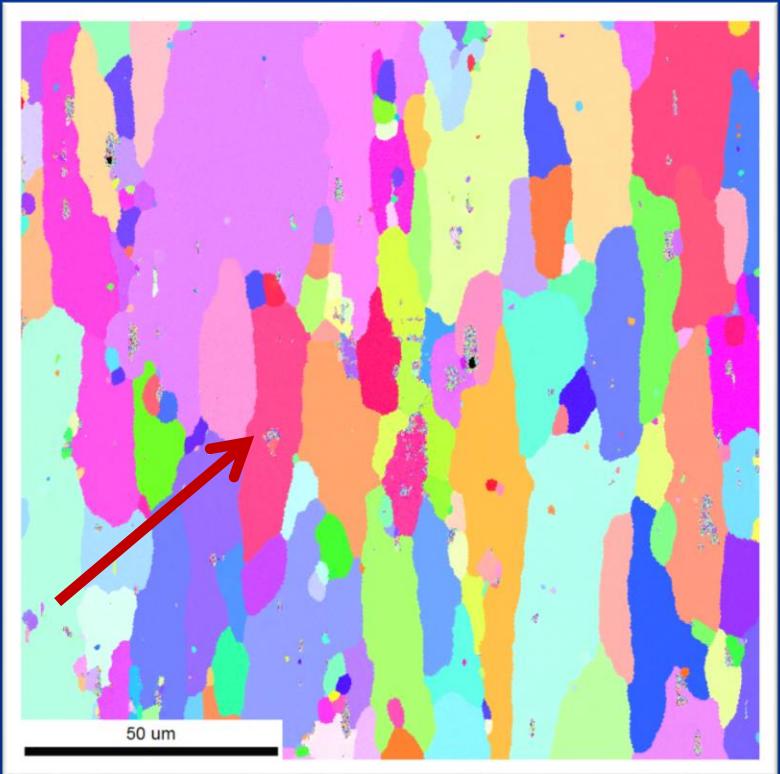
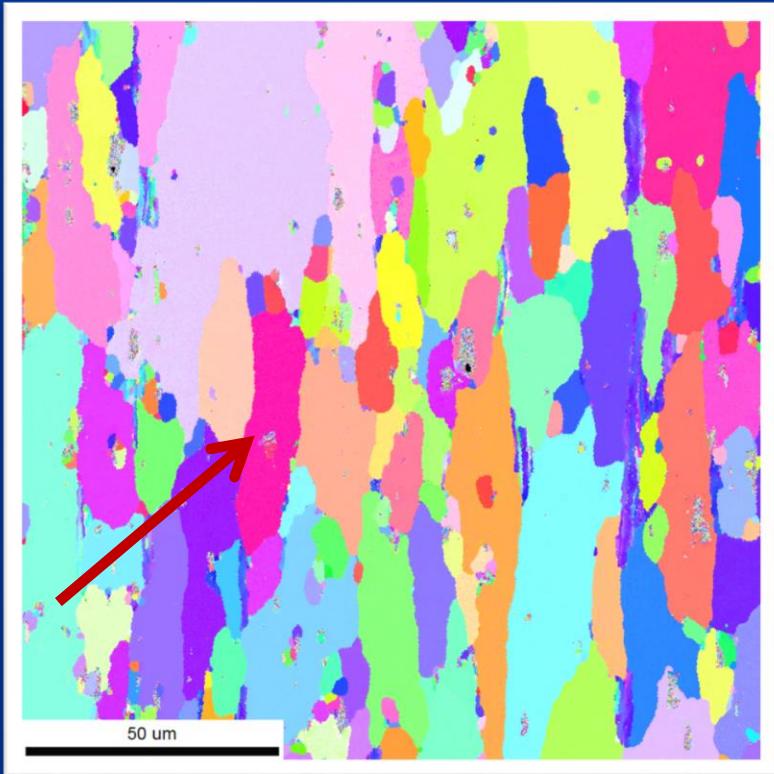
Aluminum alloy 6013 SEM 310°C



RD
ND



Aluminum alloy 6013 SEM 350°C & 410°C

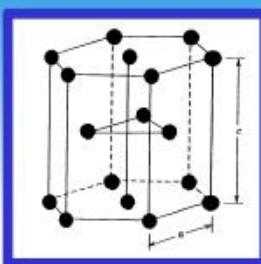


In-situ phase transformation $\alpha \rightarrow \beta$ in Titanium

- ❖ Specimen: 5 mm x 5 mm x 1 mm pure electropolished Ti.
- ❖ At 100 °C Ti exists in the HCP phase .
- ❖ Close to 880°C, Ti undergoes an allotropic transformation to BCC.
- ❖ Upon cooling, Ti structure gradually reverts back to HCP (equiaxed / Widmanstatten structure).
- ❖ Yellow marker shows minimal drift at elevated temperatures

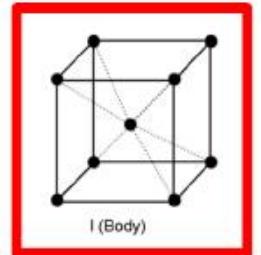
■

= α HCP



■

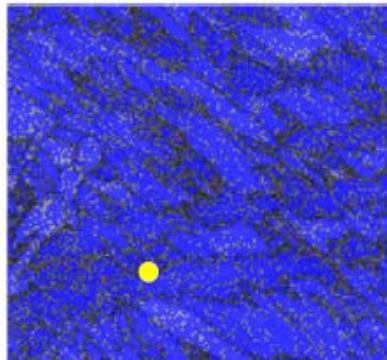
= β BCC



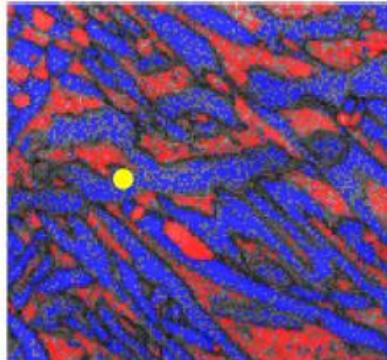
HEATING →

COOLING →

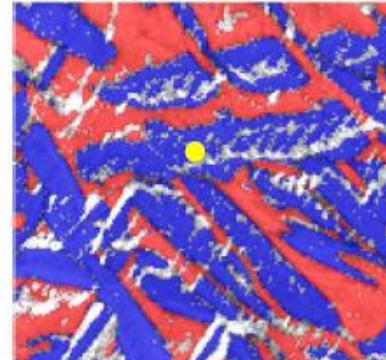
100 °C



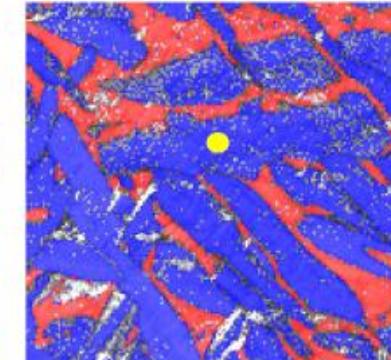
900 °C



800 °C



700 °C



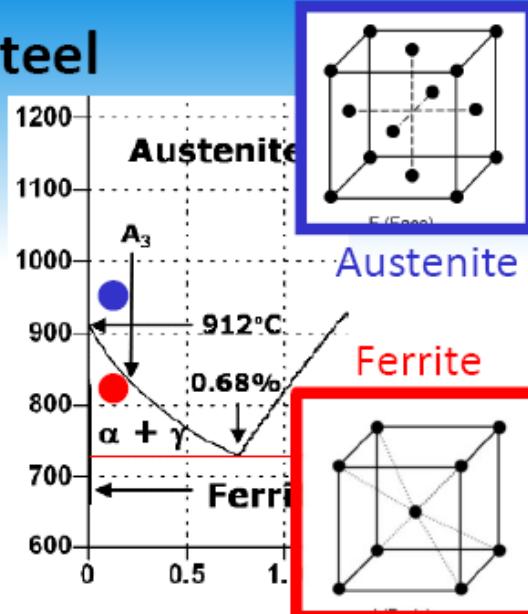
15 μm



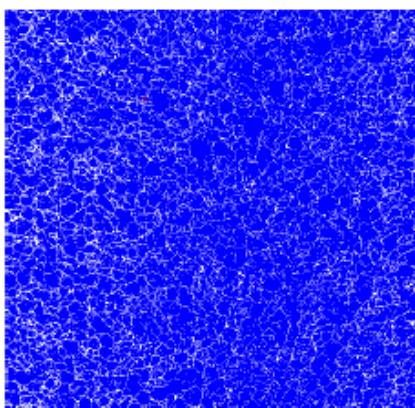
Data: Dr. Ali Ghosh (Univ. of Manchester)

In-situ phase transformation $\gamma \rightarrow \alpha$ in low carbon steel

- ❖ Specimen: 5 mm x 5 mm x 1 mm electropolished steel.
- ❖ Heating to 945 °C : transformation to austenite.
- ❖ Controlled cooling to 880 °C: transformation to ferrite
- ❖ Microstructure and mechanical properties → grain size.
- ❖ Murano allows steel heat treatment cycles to be optimised in real time, in-situ.



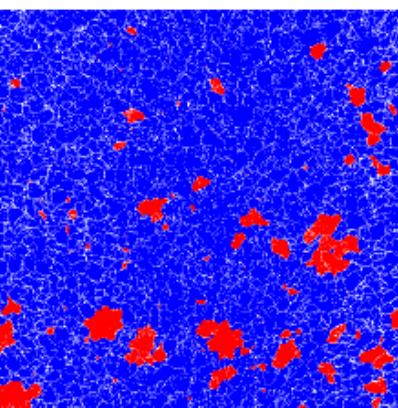
945 °C 0 mins



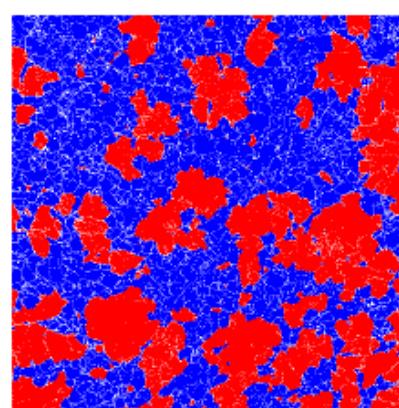
300 μm

γ Austenite FCC

895 °C 5 mins

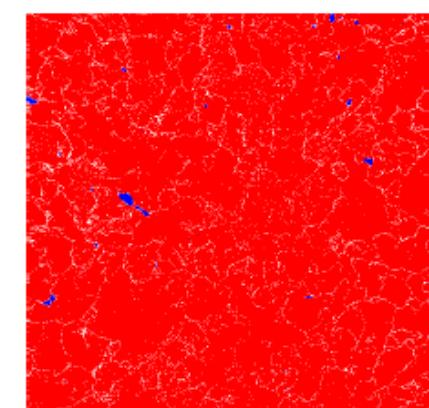


895 °C 10 mins



10 mins

880 °C 15 mins



15 mins

Murano used for a controlled cooling rate.

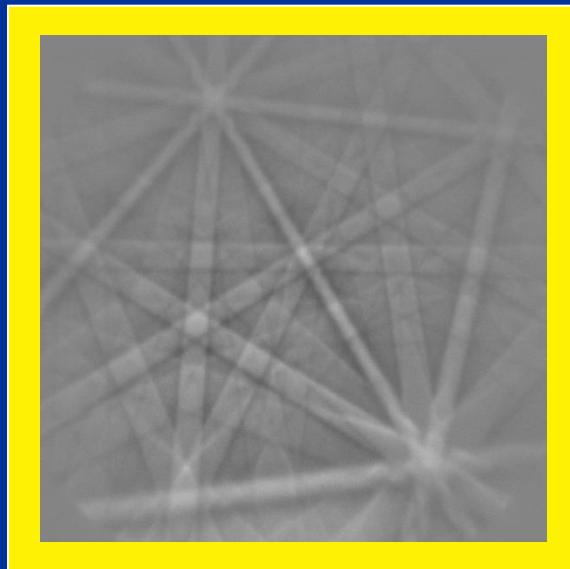
α Ferrite BCC



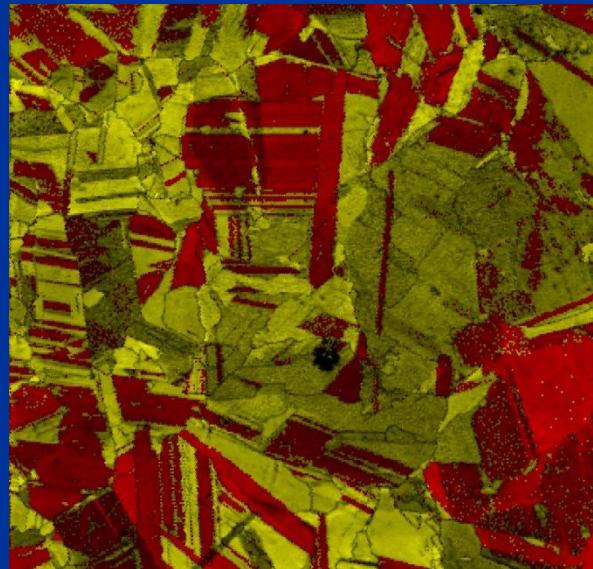
Data: Dr. S. Ubhi (Oxford Instruments)

EBSD - Analiza przemian fazowych

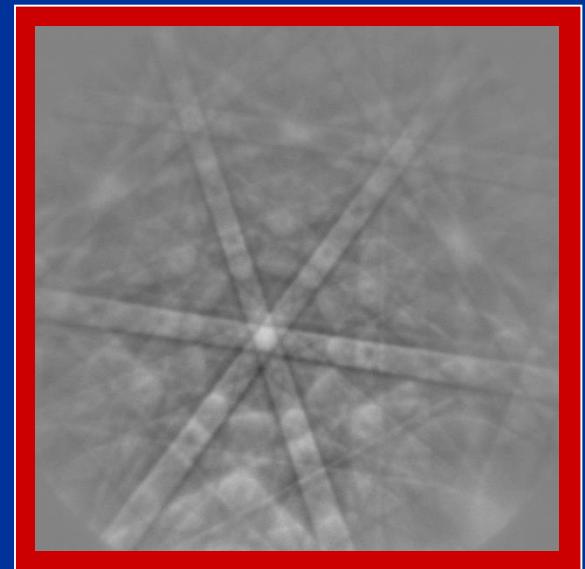
**Kobalt β : faza
wysokotemperaturowa
sieć FCC**

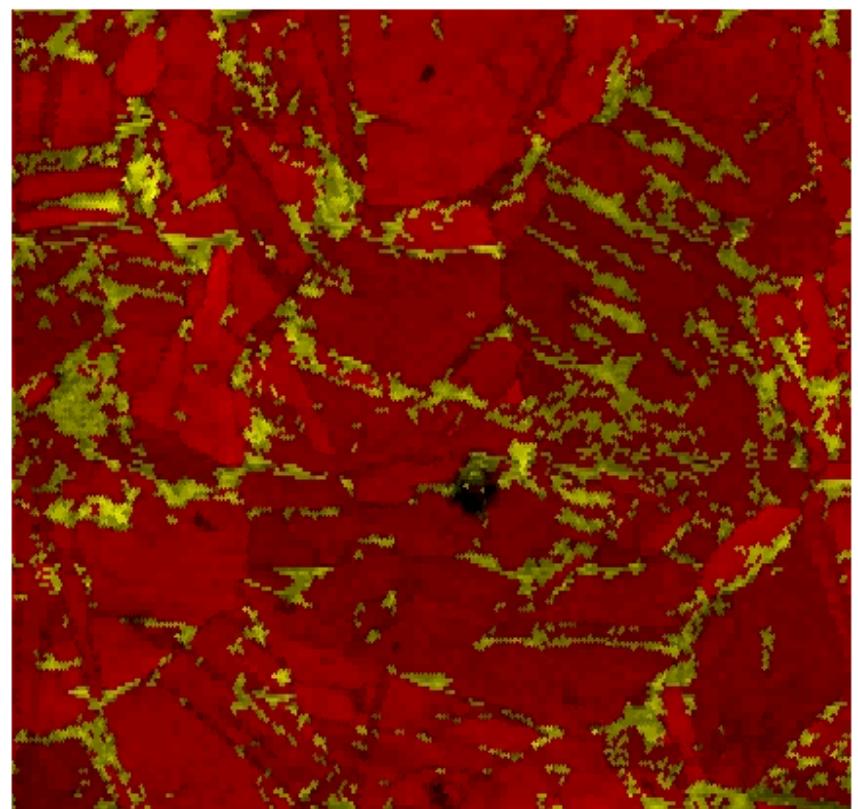
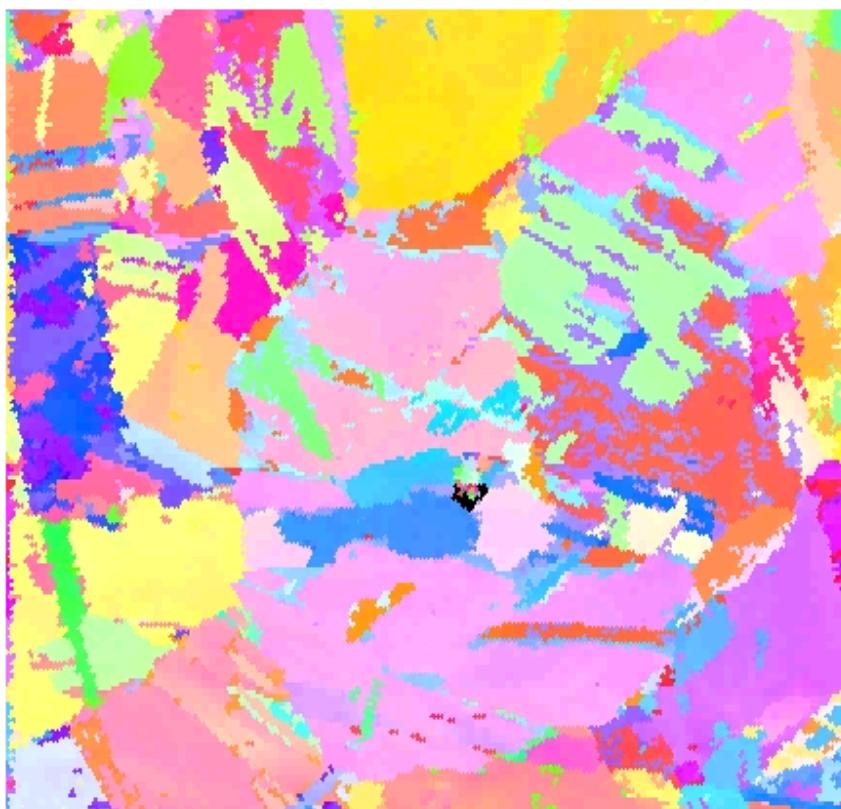
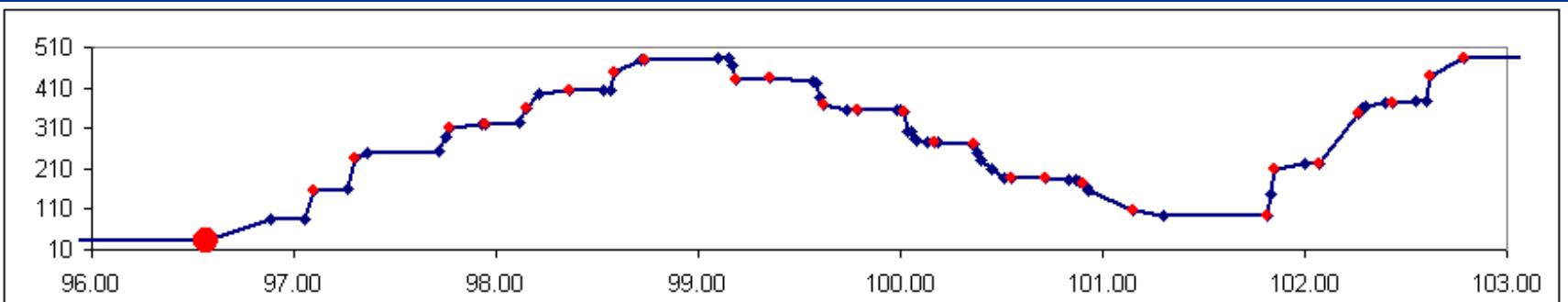


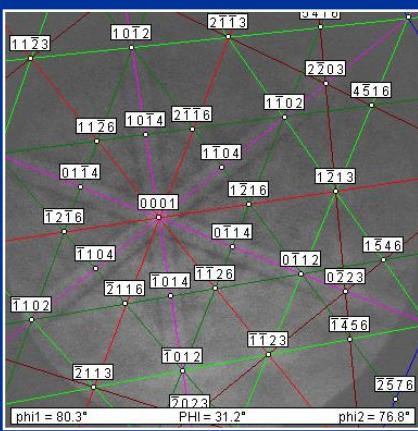
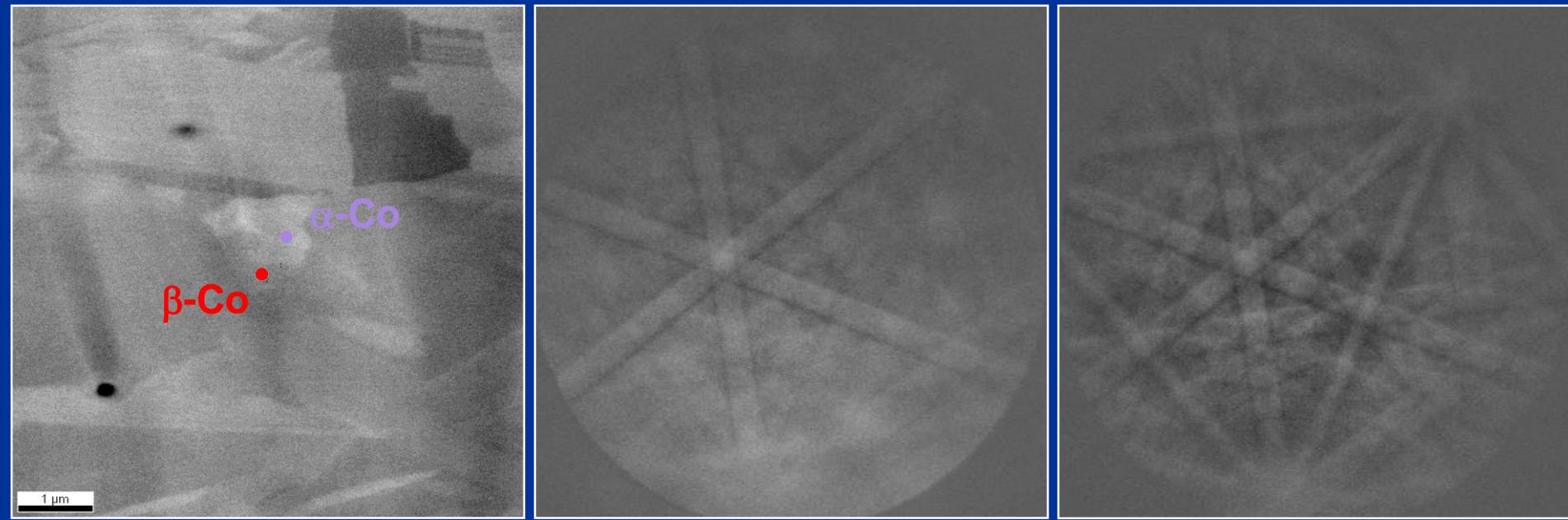
**Temperatura przemiany
alotropowej 417°C**



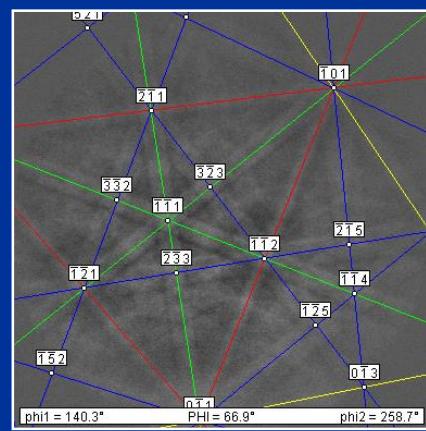
Kobalt α sieć HCP







α -Co
(HPC)

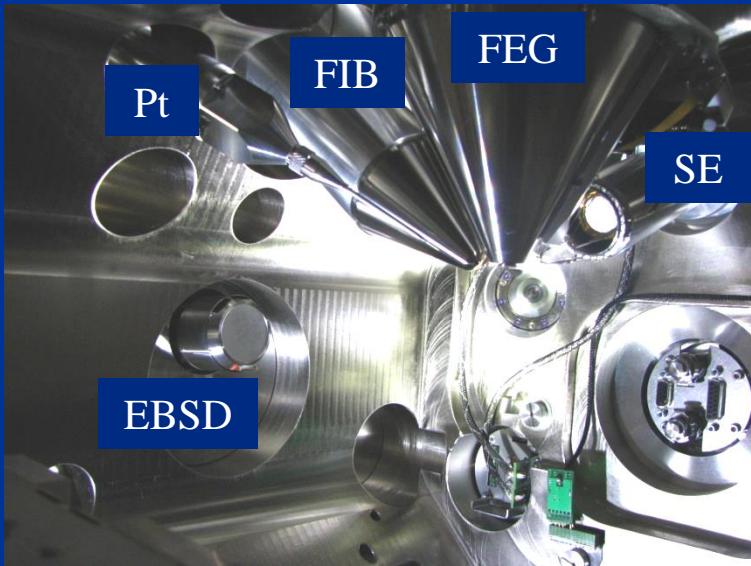


β -Co
(FCC)

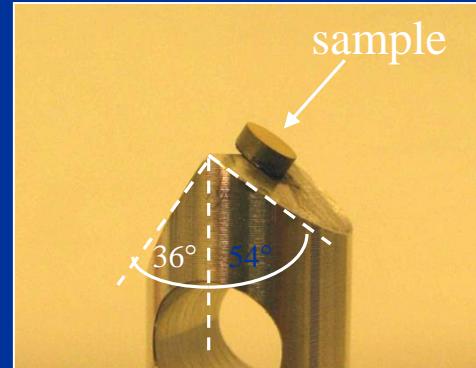
Równoległość osi [0001] i [111] faz α i β dla Co

3D EBSD

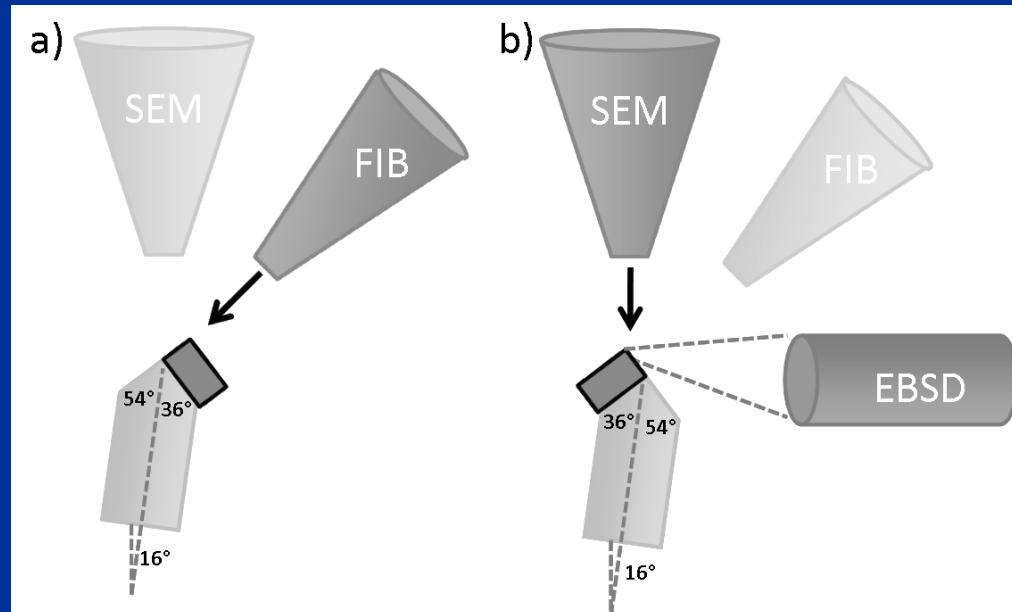
3D-EBSD - Geometrical setup



microscope chamber

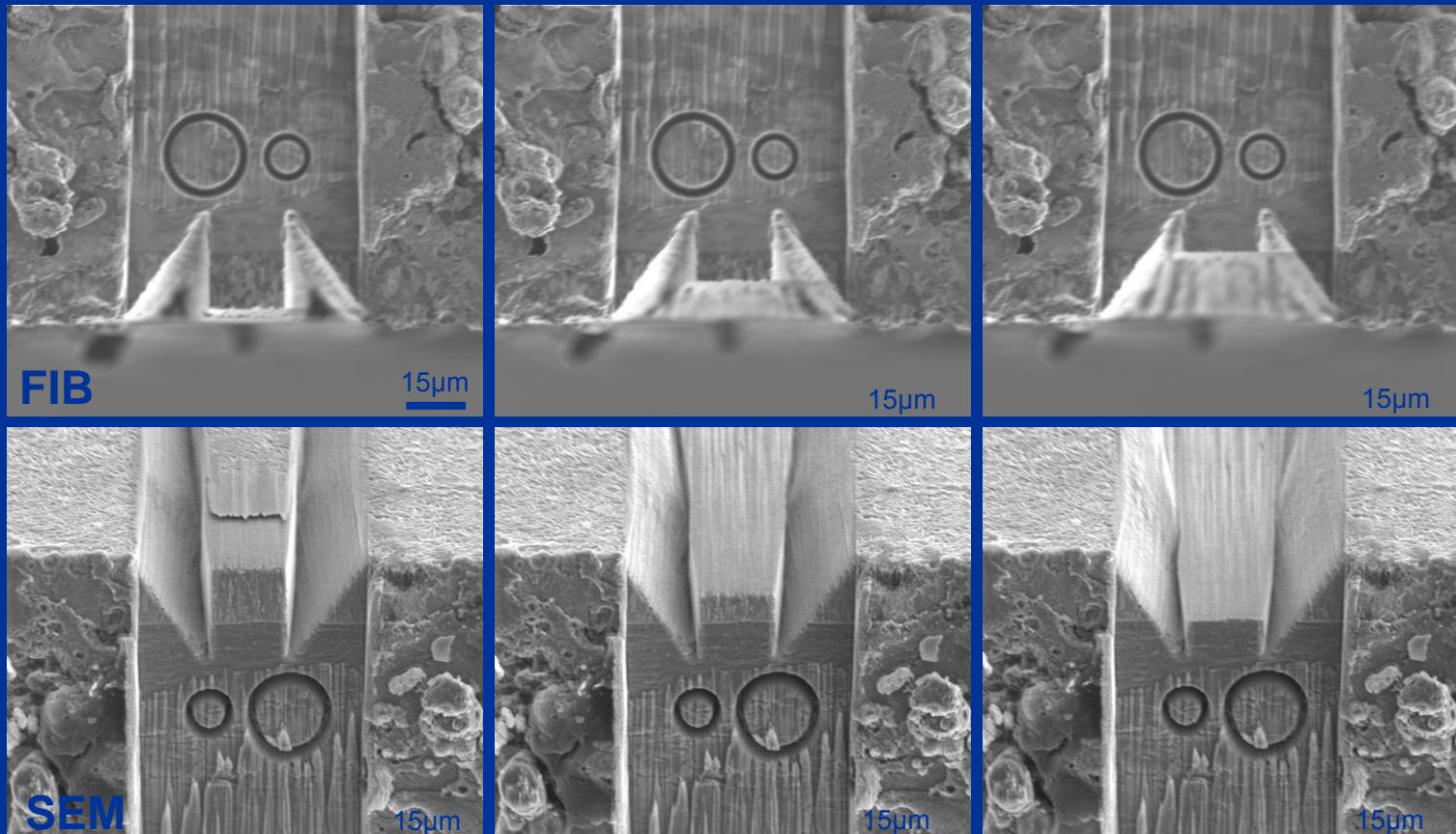


pre-tilted sample holder

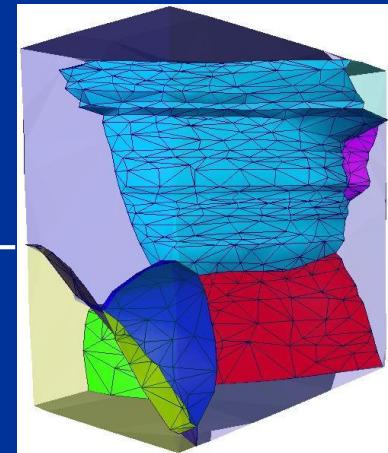
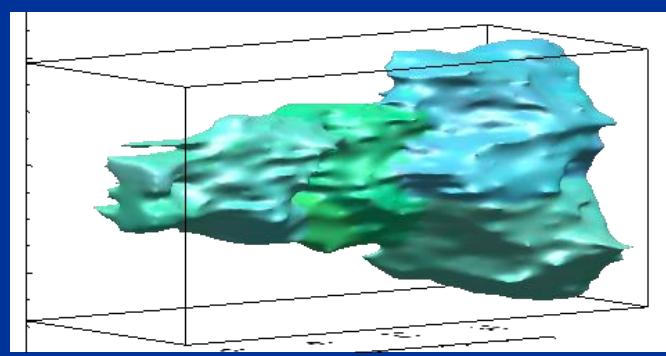
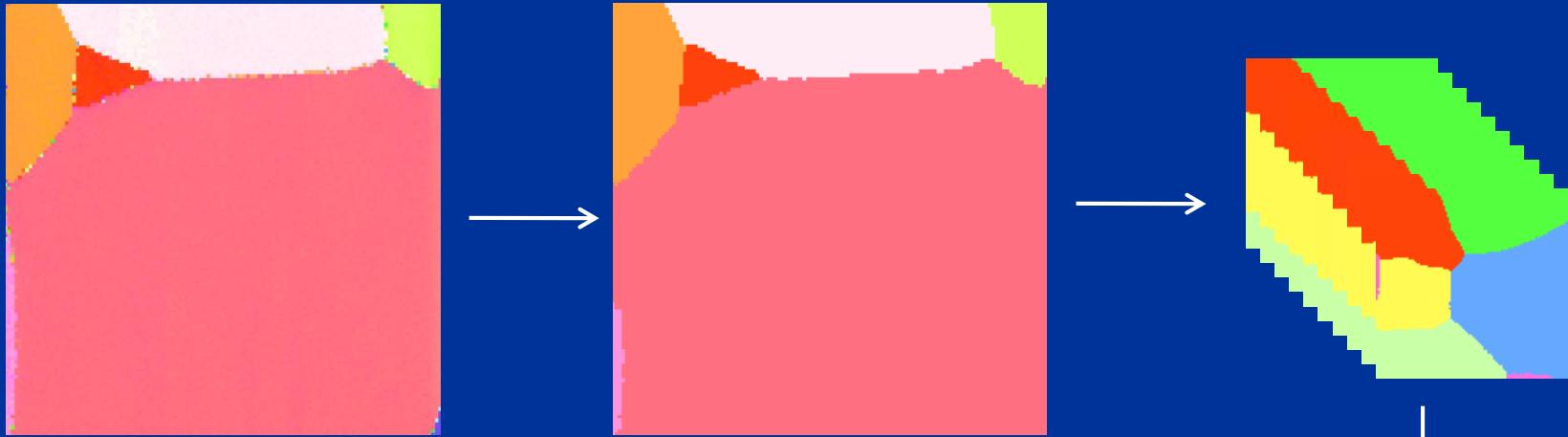


When a pre-tilted holder is used, the sample rotation around tilt axis by 180° is only needed.

Ion milling



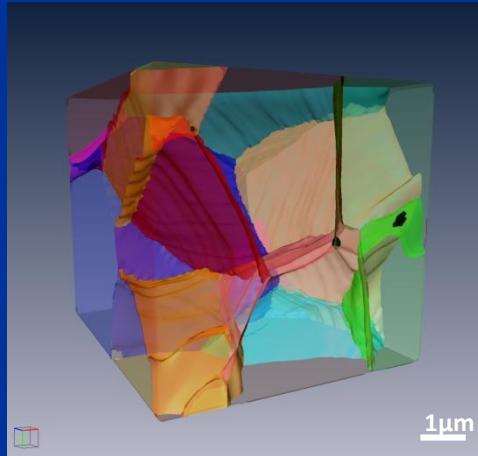
Data processing



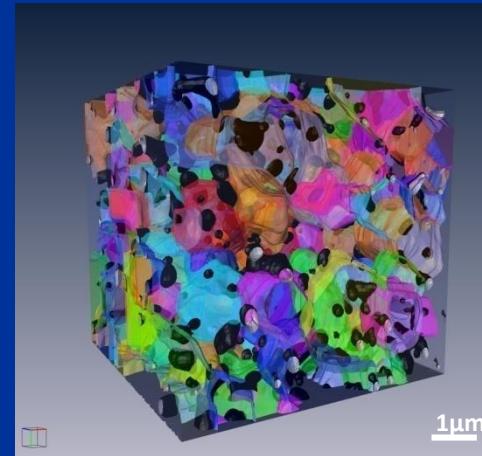
Software:

- Amira5 Resolve RT
- TSL OIM 5

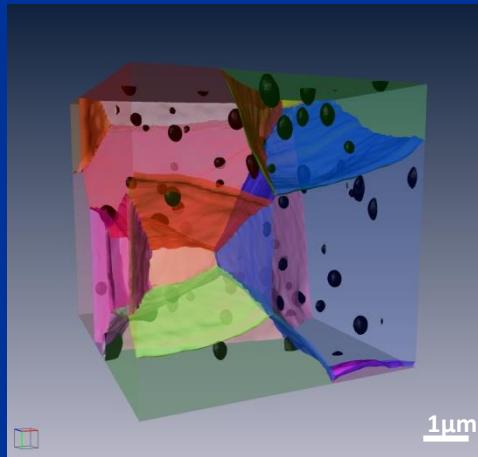
Results: 3D reconstructions



T1600



S1600



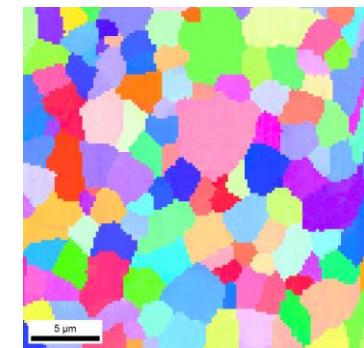
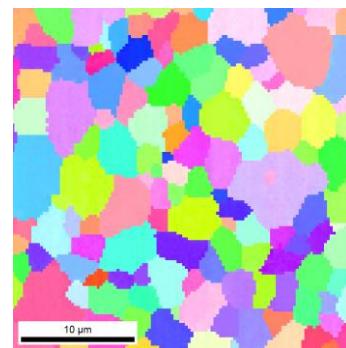
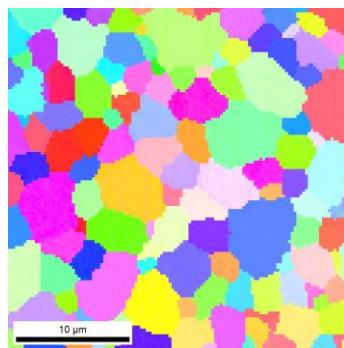
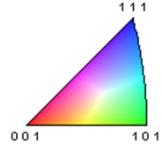
T1650



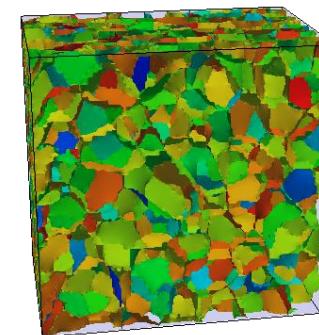
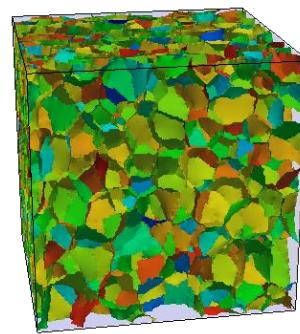
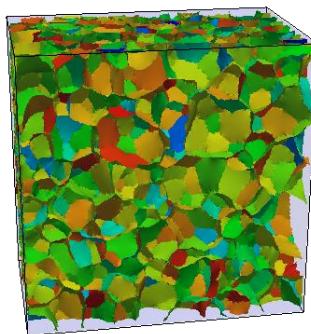
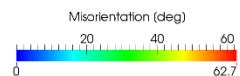
S1650

2D & 3D EBSD results from ZrO₂

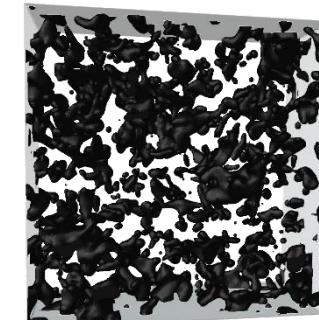
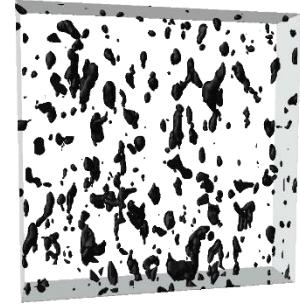
2D Inverse Pole
Figure map



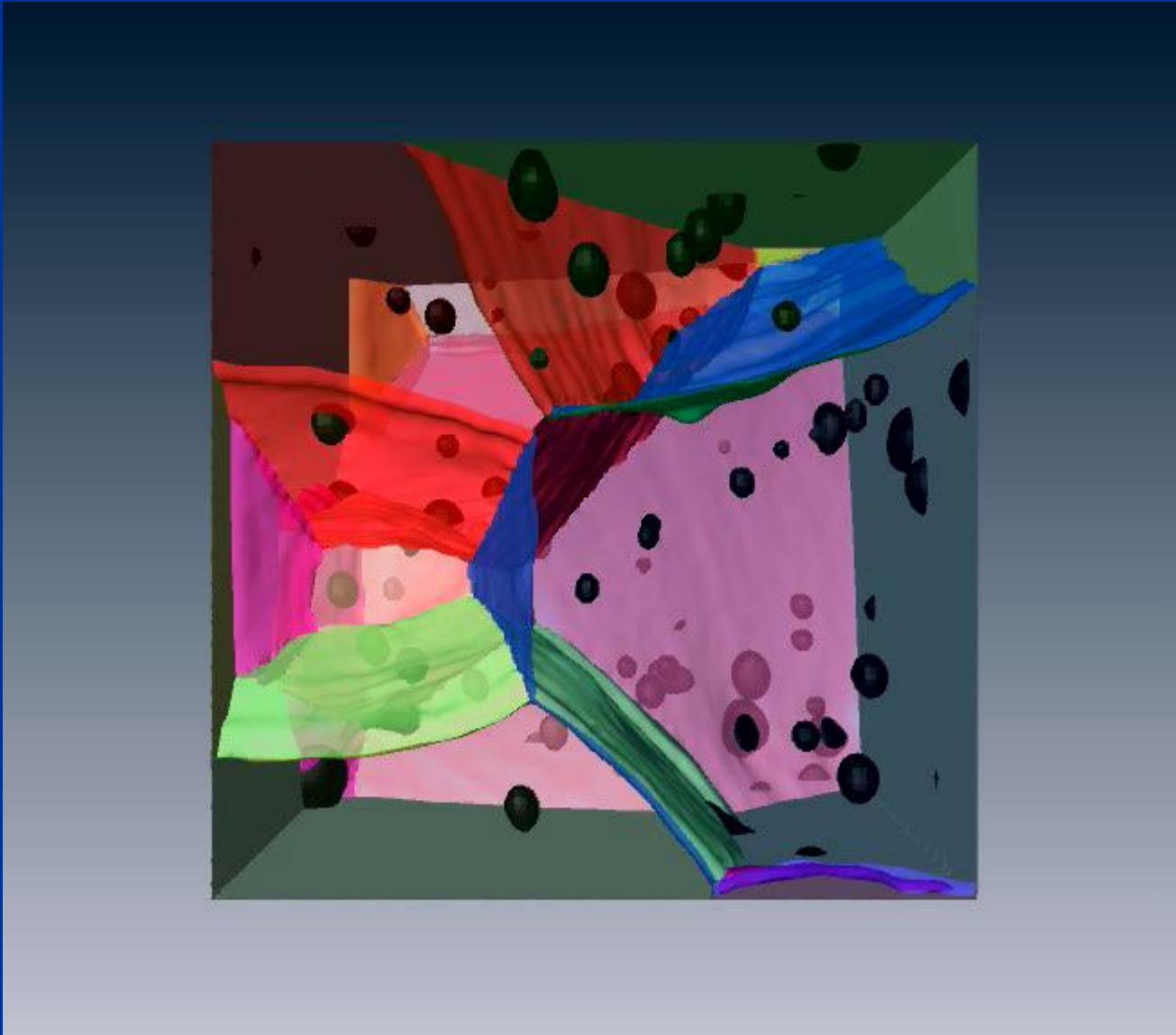
3D grain
boundary
reconstruction



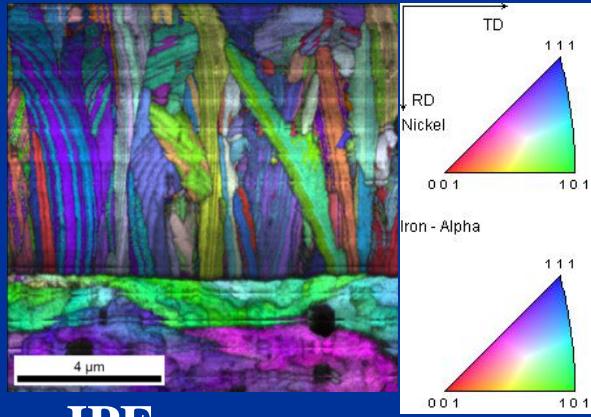
3D pore structure
reconstruction



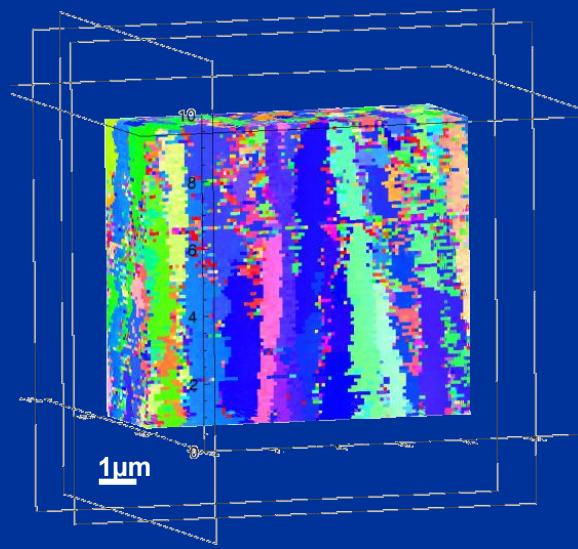
3D pores distribution in ZrO₂



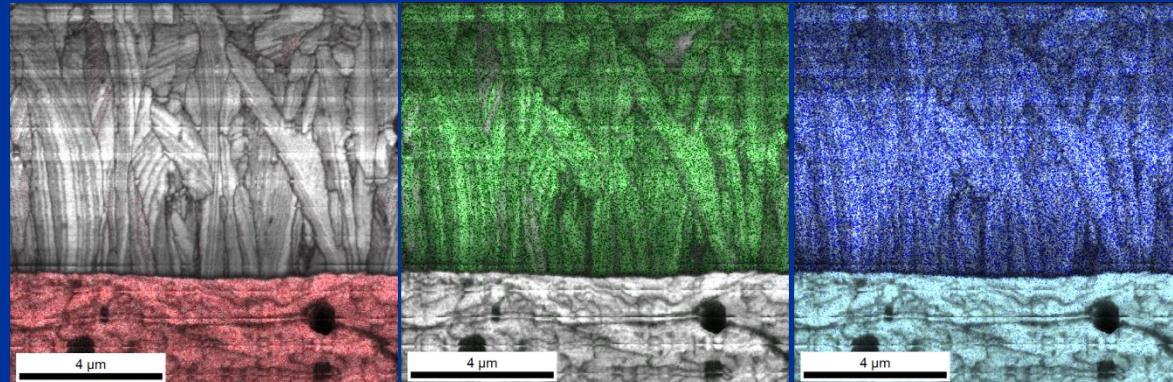
Other applications: Ni-Mo/Fe



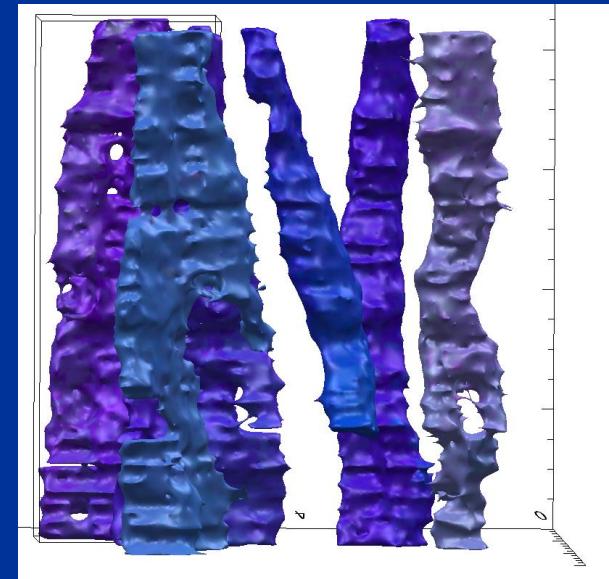
IPF map



3D IPF map

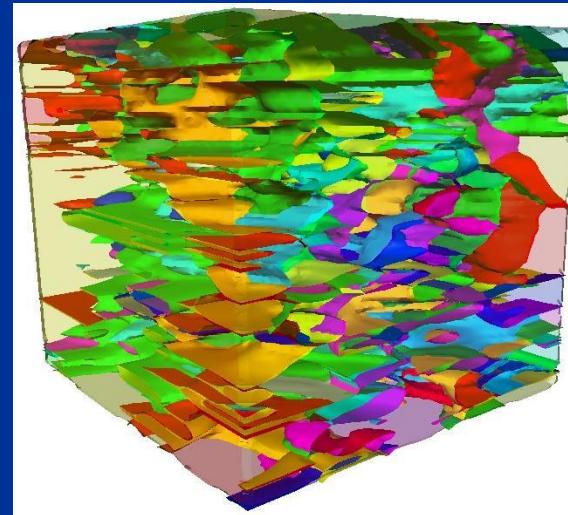
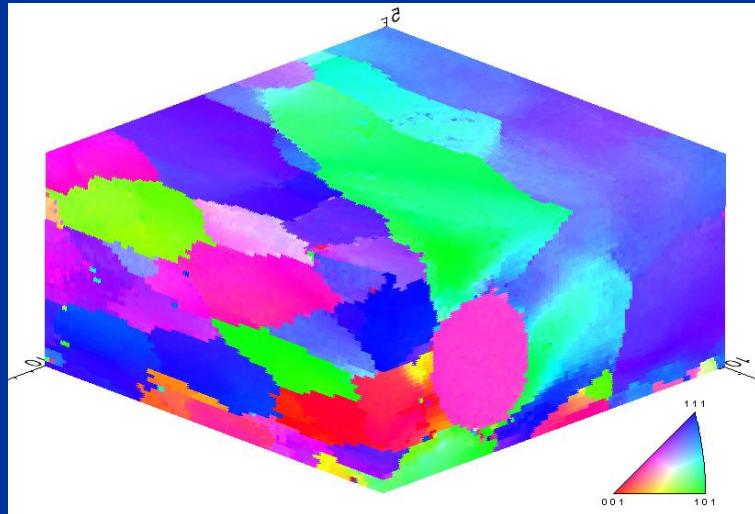


Fe Mo Ni
Chemical composition evaluation by EDS

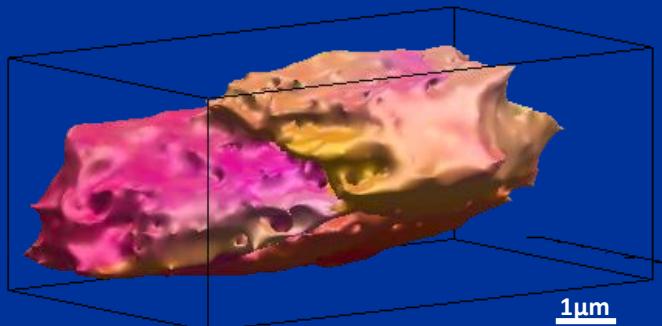


3D grain reconstruction

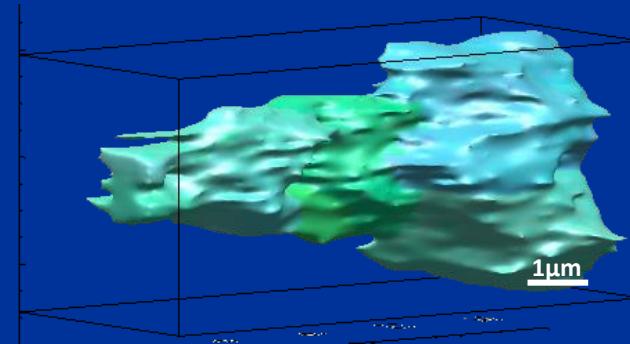
Other applications: Al6013



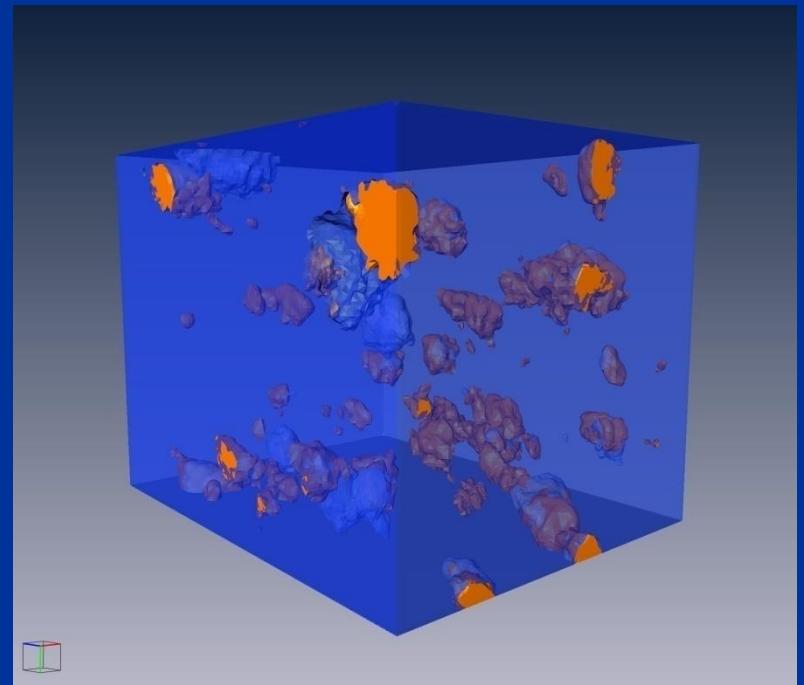
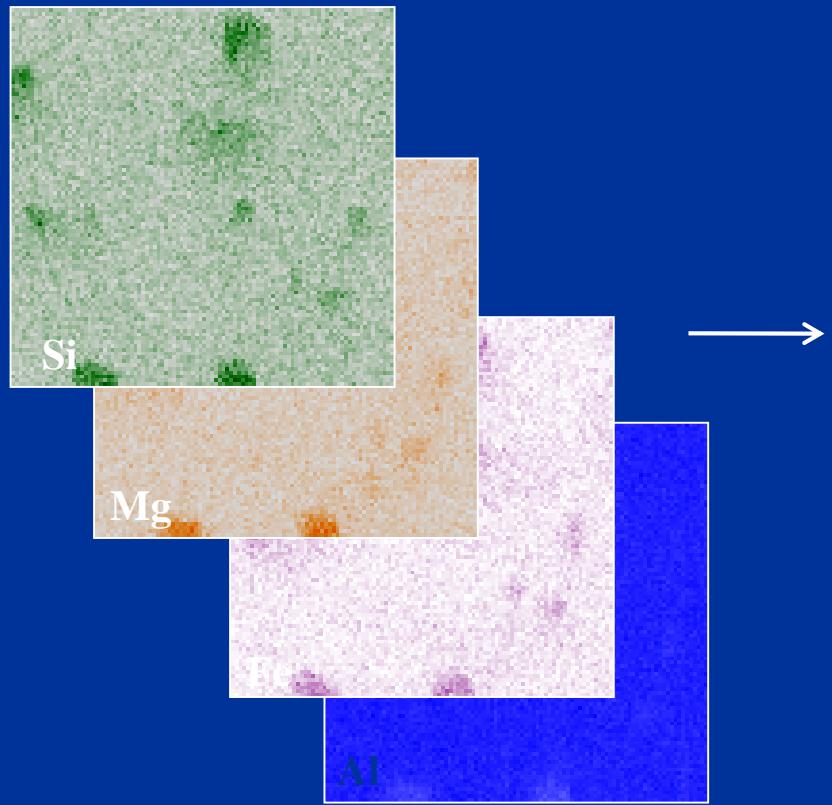
**Grain boundary reconstruction
(colors are randomly chosen)**



3D grain reconstruction



3D EDS Al6013



3D-EDS reconstruction

EDS maps of elements distribution

3D-EBSD technique – pros and cons

Applications:

- 3D microstructure and microtexture of metals and ceramics
- microstructure analysis with the grain size of ca. 1-5 µm
- analysis of grain boundary character
- investigations of pore morphology

Limitations:

- destructive technique!
- effects of anisotropic sputtering
- effects of amorphisation
- sample charging (in ceramics!)
- resolution: 50x50x50 nm³
- region of interest: 25x25x25 µm³
- time per slice: 5-30 min