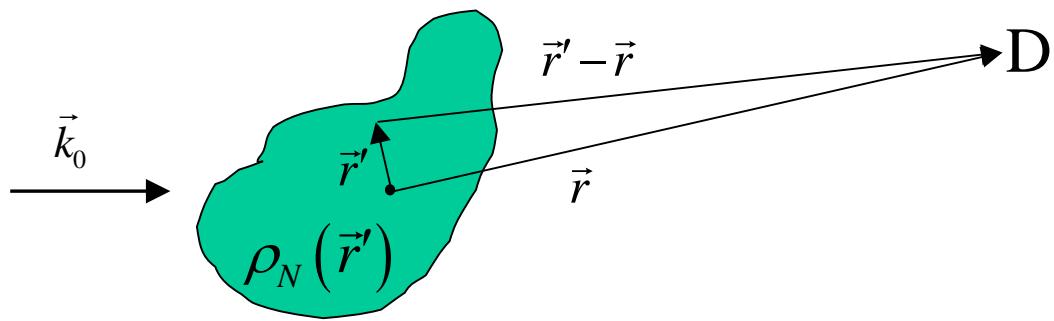


Streuung an einem ausgedehnten Objekt: kontinuierliche Verteilung von Punktstreuern



Streuvermögen wird durch **Streuzentrendichte** $\rho_N(\vec{r})$ bestimmt:

Zurückführung des Problems auf ein Standard-Problem der Physik:
→**Wellengleichung**

Streudichte interpretiert als räumlich begrenztes (und evtl. zeitabhängiges) Potentialfeld, welches als Störung auf die Welle einwirkt

$$\left[\Delta + \vec{k}_0^2 + \nu \rho_N(\vec{r}) \right] \vec{A}(\vec{r}) = 0$$

↑

Laplace-Operator Parameter für Stärke der Wechselwirkung Feld-Welle

Die allgemeine Lösung erhält man mittels Störungsrechnung
1. Ordnung als Potenzreihe in ν :

$$\vec{A}(\vec{r}) = \vec{A}^{(0)}(\vec{r}) + \vec{A}^{(1)}(\vec{r}) + \vec{A}^{(2)}(\vec{r}) + \dots =$$

$$= \vec{A}_0 \exp(i\vec{k}_0 \vec{r}) + \frac{\vec{A}_0 \nu}{4\pi} \int \frac{\exp[i\vec{k}(\vec{r} - \vec{r}')]}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|} \rho_N(\vec{r}') \exp(i\vec{k}_0 \vec{r}') d\vec{r}' + O(\nu^2) + \dots$$

Einfallende Welle	erste Bornsche Näherung (Einfachstreuung)	zweite Bornsche Näherung (Zweifachstreuung = führender Term der Mehrfachstreuung) $O(\dots)$ = in der Ordnung von
-------------------	--	--

Vergleich mit Ergebnis für ein Streuzentrum: $\rho_N(\vec{r}') = \delta(\vec{r}')$

Diracsche Deltafunktion

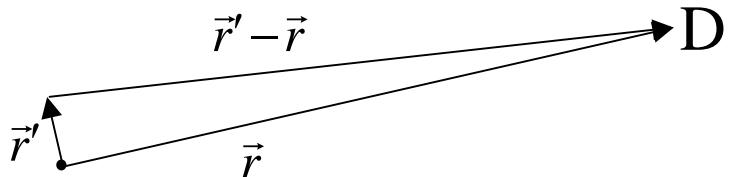
Einsetzen in die allgemeine Lösung liefert in erster Ordnung

$$\vec{A}(\vec{r}) = \vec{A}_0 \exp(i\vec{k}_0 \vec{r}) + \frac{\vec{A}_0 \nu}{4\pi} \frac{\exp(i\vec{k}\vec{r})}{|\vec{r}|}$$
$$\boxed{\frac{\nu}{4\pi} = b}$$

$$\frac{A_0 b}{r} \exp(i\vec{k}\vec{r}) \quad \text{Gestreute Welle}$$

- Spezielle Lösung:**
- 1) erste Bornsche Näherung (Vernachlässigung der Mehrfachstreuung)
 - 2) Frauenhofersche Näherung (Fernfeldnäherung)
Annahme: Dimensionen des streuenden Objektes viel kleiner als Abstand Objekt-Detektor:

$$|\vec{r}'| \ll |\vec{r}|$$



$$\vec{A}(\vec{r}) = \vec{A}_0 \exp(i\vec{k}_0 \vec{r}) + \frac{\vec{A}_0 b}{|\vec{r}|} \exp(i\vec{k} \vec{r}) \int \rho_N(\vec{r}') \exp(i\vec{q} \vec{r}') d\vec{r}'$$

$\underbrace{\hspace{200pt}}$

A_s(q)

Für das Streufeld erhält man damit

$$\vec{A}_s(\vec{q}) = \frac{\vec{A}_0}{|\vec{r}|} \exp(i\vec{k} \vec{r}) \int b \rho_N(\vec{r}') \exp(-i\vec{q} \vec{r}') d\vec{r}'$$

Durch Vergleich mit dem vorher benutzten Ausdruck für das Streufeld für ausgedehnte Objekte

$$\vec{A}_s(\vec{q}) = \frac{\vec{A}_0 b(\vec{q})}{|\vec{r}|} \exp(i\vec{k} \vec{r})$$

erhält man folgenden Zusammenhang für das Streuvermögen $b(q)$:

$$b(\vec{q}) = \int \rho_s(\vec{r}') \exp(-i\vec{q}\vec{r}') d\vec{r}'$$

Fourierintegral

Streu(längen)dichte

Das Streuvermögen eines ausgedehnten Objekts ist somit die Fouriertransformierte der Streu(längen)dichte, die über

$$\rho_s(\vec{r}) = b \rho_N(\vec{r})$$

mit der Anzahldichte $\rho_N(\vec{r})$ verknüpft ist. Die Proportionalitätskonstante b hat je nach Streumethode unterschiedliche Bedeutung

Streumethode	b	Natur der Streudichte
Röntgenstreuung	const · N_{elektron}	Elektronendichte
Neutronenstreuung	b_N	Kern- und Spindichte
Lichtstreuung	const · α	Polarisation

Durch Invertierung des Fourierintegrals (Rücktransformation) erhält man aus der Streuamplitude die Streudichte und damit die Strukturinformation

$$\rho_s(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int b(\vec{q}) \exp(i\vec{q}\vec{r}) d\vec{q}$$

Zentrale Beziehung für die Gewinnung von Strukturinformation aus Streuexperimenten.

Aber: $b(\vec{q})$ ist eine komplexe Größe; d.h.

$$b(\vec{q}) = |b(q)| e^{i\alpha}$$

↑ ↑
Betrag Phase

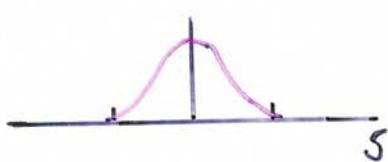
Im Streuexperiment misst man aber nur Intensitäten,

$$I(\vec{q}) = b(q)b^*(q) = |b(q)||b(q)|e^{i\alpha-i\alpha} = |b(q)|^2 ,$$

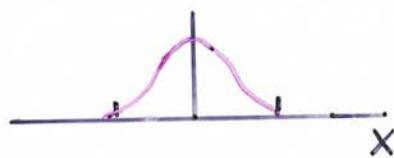
also das Betragsquadrat der Streuamplitude. Die Phaseninformation geht verloren (Phasenproblem!). Damit ist die Verteilung der Streuzentren nicht direkt aus dem Streuexperiment rekonstruierbar. Man muss den Umweg über die Fouriertransformierte der Intensität gehen:

$$?? = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int I(\vec{q}) \exp(i\vec{q}\vec{r}) d\vec{q}$$

Fourier - Transform - Paare



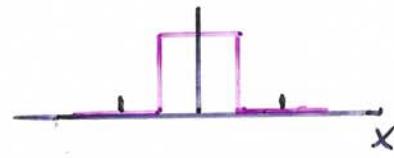
$$\psi(s) = \exp(-\pi s^2)$$



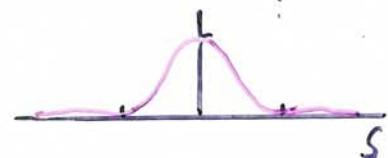
$$f(x) = \exp(-\pi x^2)$$



$$a \cdot \text{sinc}(as) = a \cdot \frac{\sin(\pi as)}{\pi as}$$



$$\Pi(x,a) = \begin{cases} 1 & |x| \leq a/2 \\ 0 & |x| > a/2 \end{cases}$$



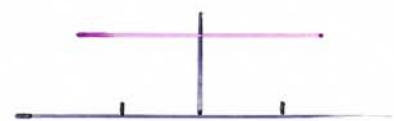
$$a \cdot \text{sinc}^2(as) = a \cdot \left[\frac{\sin(\pi as)}{\pi as} \right]^2$$



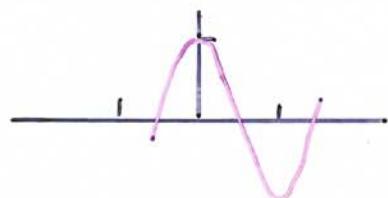
$$\Lambda(x,a) = \begin{cases} 1 - |x|/a & |x| \leq a \\ 0 & |x| > a \end{cases}$$



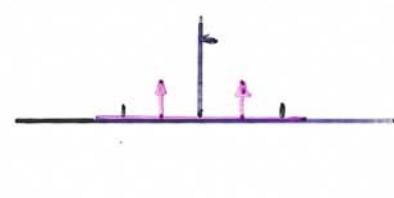
$$\psi(s) = \delta(s)$$



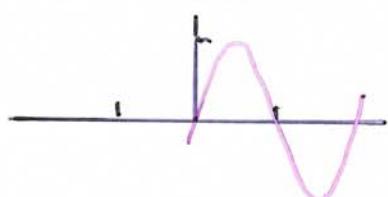
$$f(x) = 1$$



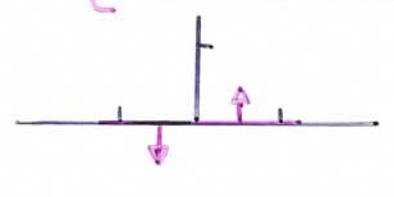
$$\psi(s) = \cos(2\pi as)$$



$$\{[\delta(x+a)] + [\delta(x-a)]\}/2$$



$$\psi(s) = \sin(2\pi as)$$



$$\{[\delta(x+a)] - [\delta(x-a)]\}/2$$

Wichtige Eigenschaften der Fouriertrafo.

Funktion

Fourier-Bild

$$\varphi(s)$$

$$f(x)$$

$$\varphi^*(s)$$

$$f(-x)$$

$$\alpha \varphi_1(s) + \beta \varphi_2(s)$$

$$\alpha f_1(x) + \beta f_2(x)$$

Linearität

$$\varphi(s-a)$$

$$\exp(iax) f(x)$$

$$d[\varphi(s)]/dx$$

$$-ix f(x)$$

Wichtig für
Lösung von
Differential-Gl.

(similarity theorem)

- Ähnlichkeitstheorem : $\varphi(as) = f(x/a)/a$

Dehnung

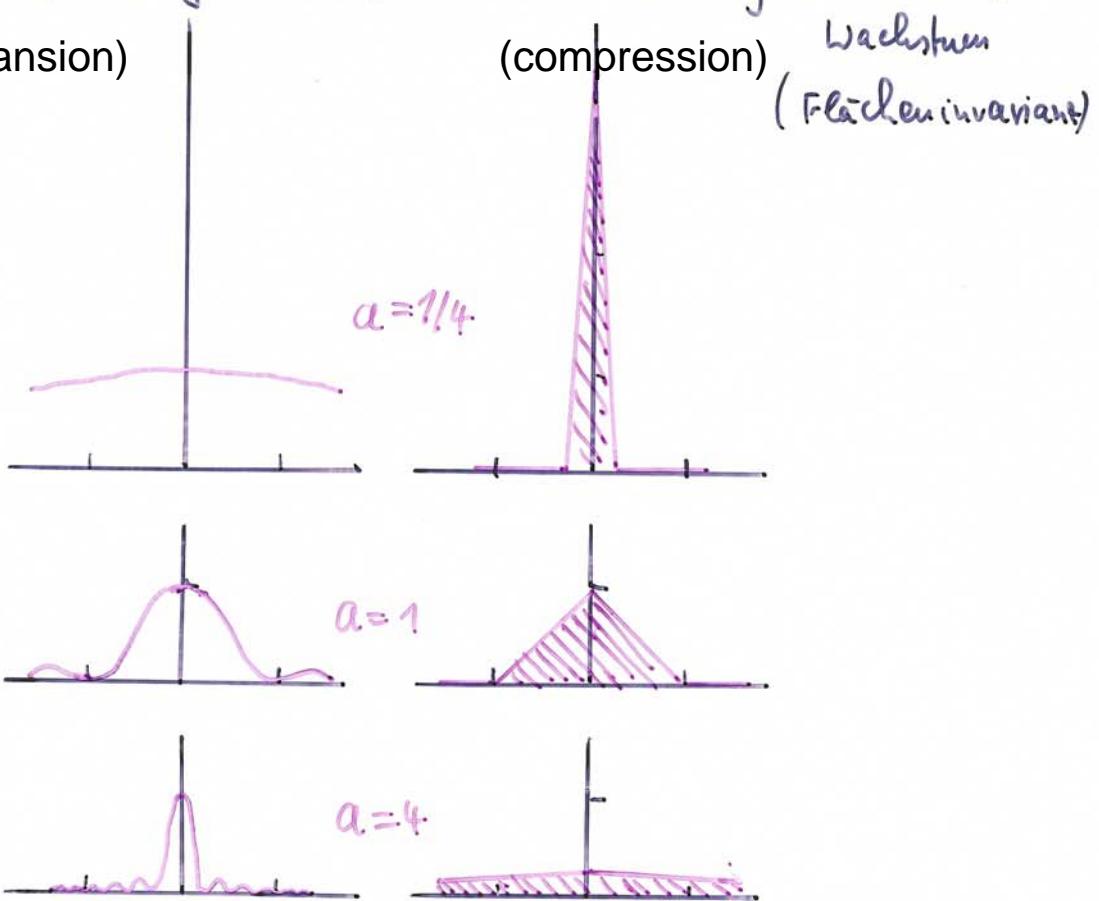
(expansion)



Stauchung u. vertikales

(compression)

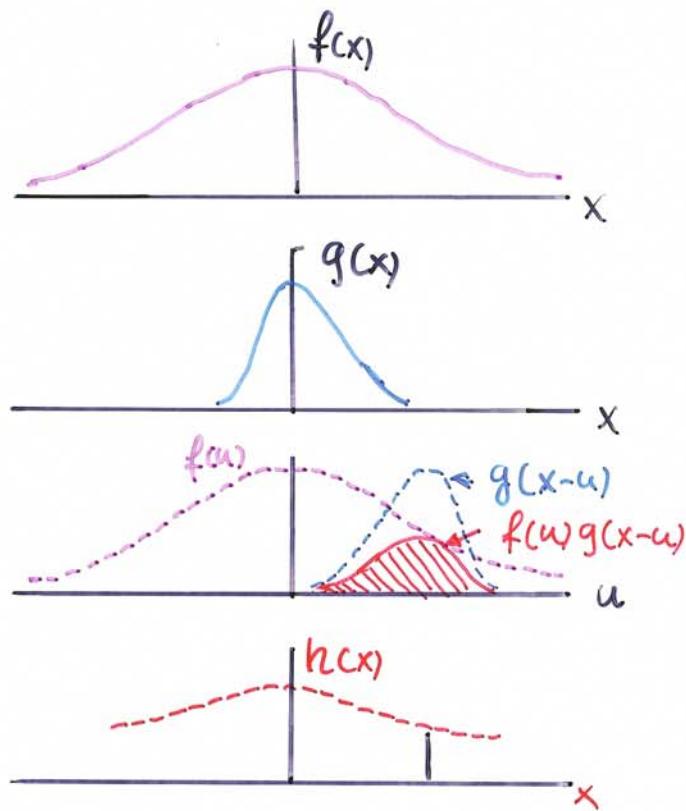
Wachstum
(Flächeninvariant)



Die Faltung (Convolution)

Faltung von $f(x)$ mit $g(x)$:

$$h(x) = f(x) * g(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(u) g(x-u) du$$



Multiplikationstheorem (multiplication theorem)

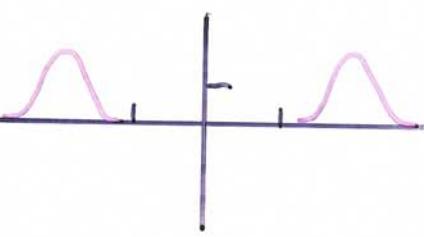
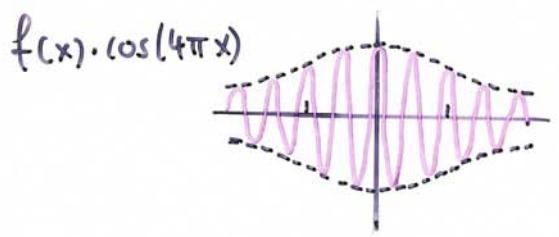
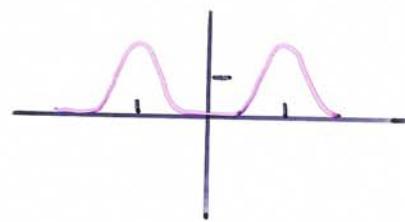
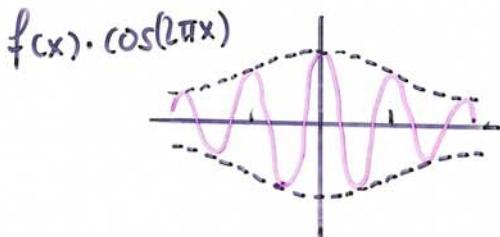
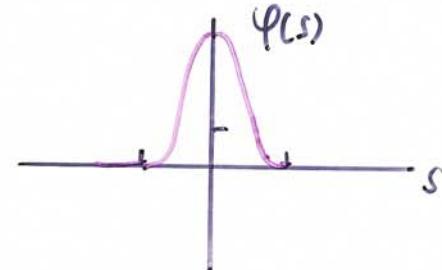
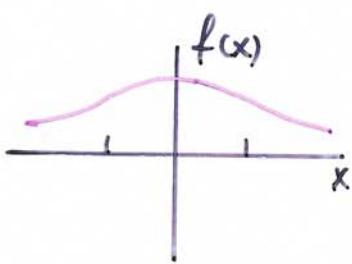
$$\mathcal{F}[f(x)g(x)] = \mathcal{F}[f(x)] * \mathcal{F}[g(x)] = [\Phi(s) * \Psi(s)]$$

Faltungstheorem (convolution theorem)

$$\mathcal{F}[f(x)*g(x)] = \mathcal{F}[f(x)] \mathcal{F}[g(x)] = \Phi(s) \Psi(s)$$

Produkt einer Gaußkurve mit Cosinus-Pkt

→ FT



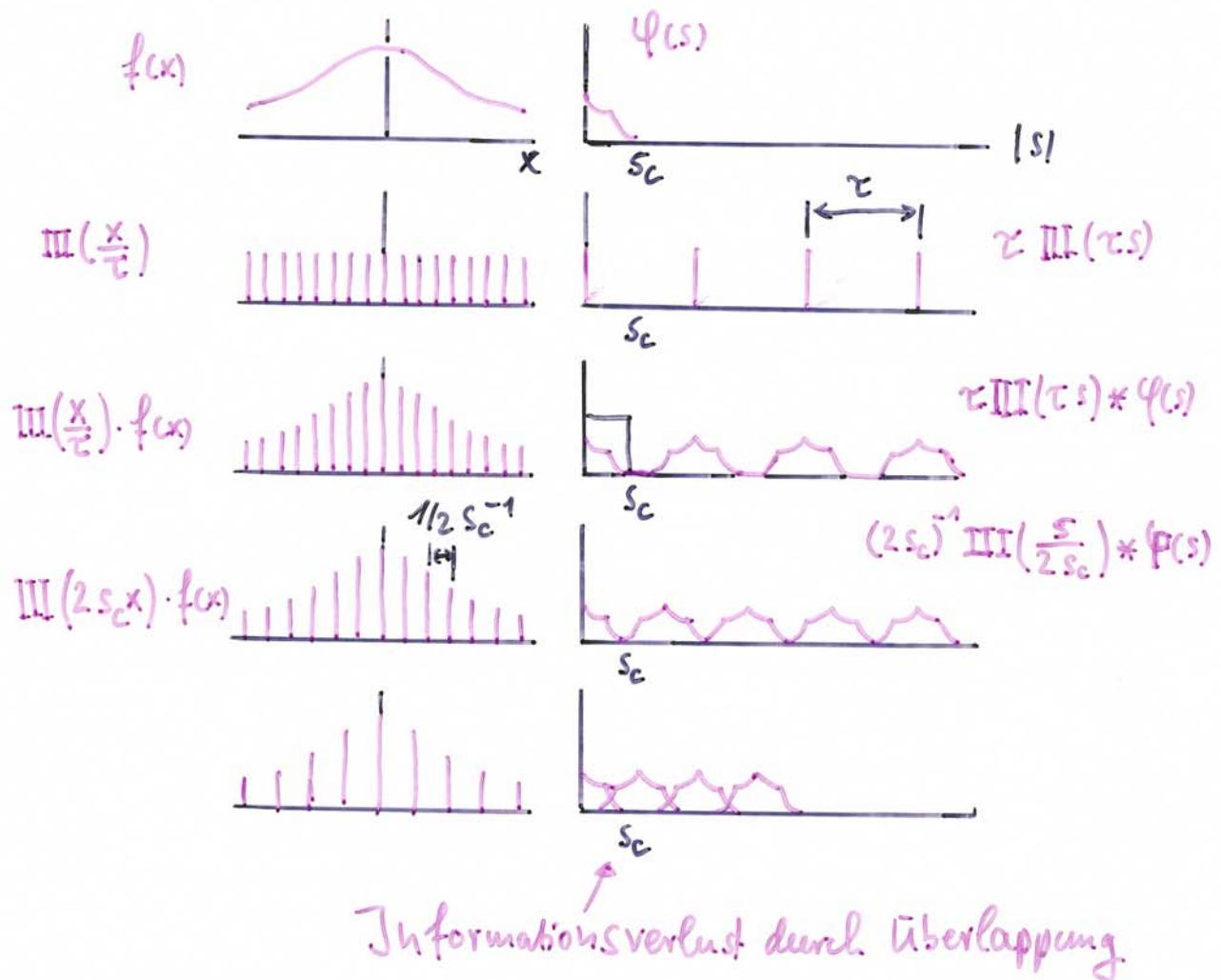
- Wird eine Funktion in einem Raum quadriert, so entspricht dies im reziproken Raum einer **Selbstfaltung**: $\mathcal{F}[\psi(s)\psi(s)] = f(x)*f(x)$ (self convolution)
- Das Betragsquadrat im komplexen (\hat{f}) liefert im reziproken Raum das **Faltungsquadrat**: (convolution square)

$$\mathcal{F}[|\psi(s)|^2] = \mathcal{F}[\psi(s)^*\psi(s)] = \hat{f}^2$$

$$\hat{f}^2 = f(x)*f(-x) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(u)f(u+x)du$$

Das Sampling-Theorem (Abtasttheorem)

Ist eine Funktion $\varphi(s)$ bandbeschränkt, d.h. $\varphi(s) = 0$ für $s > s_c$, so darf das Inkrement der Abtastung im anderen Raum den Wert π/s_c nicht überschreiten, damit keine Information verloren geht.



Zur Patterson - Funktion

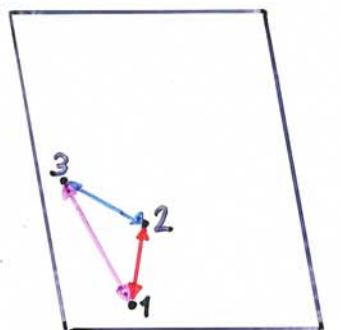
$$P(\vec{r}) = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \int I(\vec{Q}) \exp(i\vec{Q}\cdot\vec{r}) d\vec{Q}$$

$$I(\vec{Q}) = \int P(\vec{r}) \exp(-i\vec{Q}\cdot\vec{r}) d\vec{r}$$

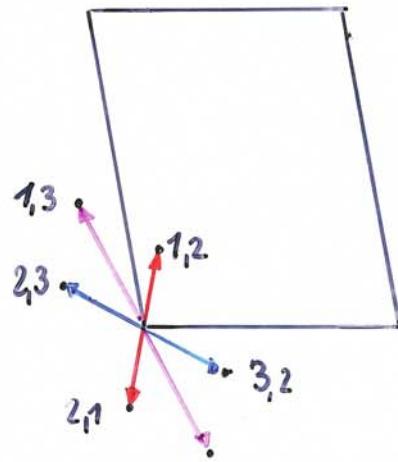
$P(\vec{r})$ = Selbstfaltungsprodukt der Streudichte

$$P(\vec{r}) = \Psi(\vec{r}) * \Psi(-\vec{r}) = \int \Psi(\vec{u}) \Psi(\vec{u} + \vec{r}) d\vec{u}$$

Für diskrete Streutentren:



$\Psi(\vec{r})$



$P(\vec{r})$

Scattering contrast and the principle of Babinet

$$I(q) = N \left| \int_{\text{particle}} \left[\rho_P(\vec{r}) - \langle \rho_L \rangle \right] \exp(-i\vec{q}\vec{r}) d\vec{r} \right|^2$$

↑ ↑
 Scattering density Average scattering density
 of particle of solvent

For homogeneous particles $\rho_P(\vec{r}) = \rho_P$

$$I(\vec{q}) = N(\Delta\rho)^2 \left| \int_{\text{particle}} \exp(-i\vec{q}\vec{r}) d\vec{r} \right|^2 = N(\Delta\rho)^2 P(\vec{q})$$

Scattering contrast $\Delta\rho = \rho_p - \langle \rho_L \rangle$ enters as square \Rightarrow sign not important

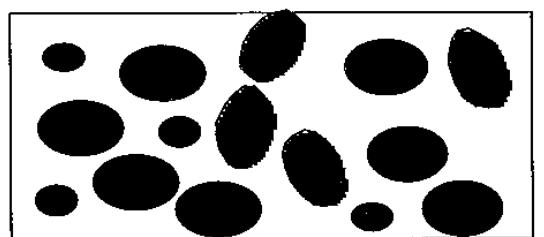
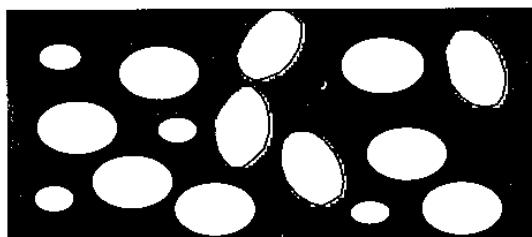
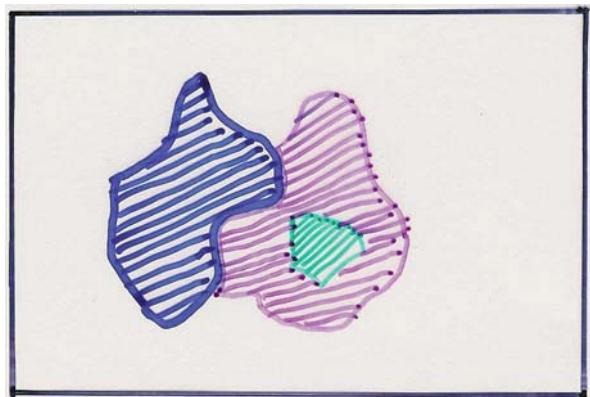


Fig. 1. (a) “White” holes in “black” matrix; (b) “Black” grains in a “white” solvent.

Identical scattering pattern for these two cases \Leftrightarrow principle of Babinet

Contrast variation – a tool to analyse internal particle structures

Example: protein with subcomponents which differ in scattering density



$$\Delta\rho \gg [\rho_L] \quad or \quad \Delta\rho \ll [\rho_L]$$

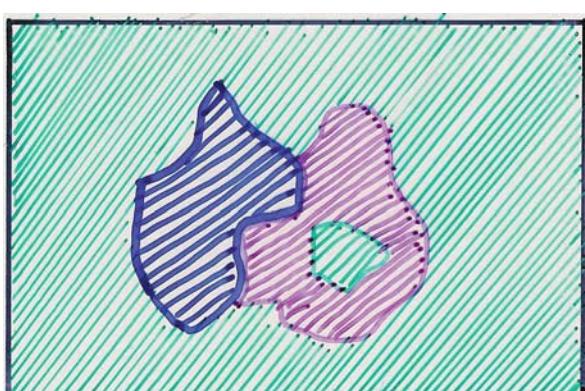
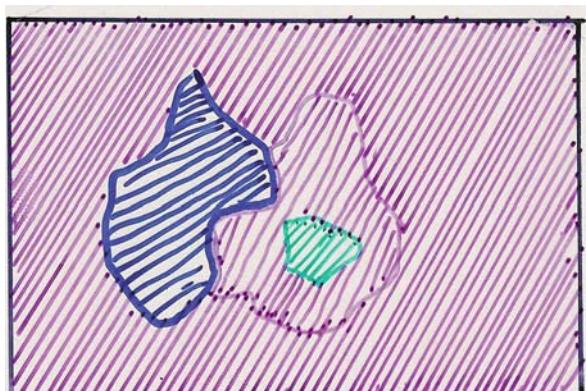
The overall shape of the object is detected



$$\rho_{s,i} \approx [\rho_L] \quad for \quad i = 1, 2, 3$$

Specific subcomponents are made invisible

⇒ Simplification of analysis

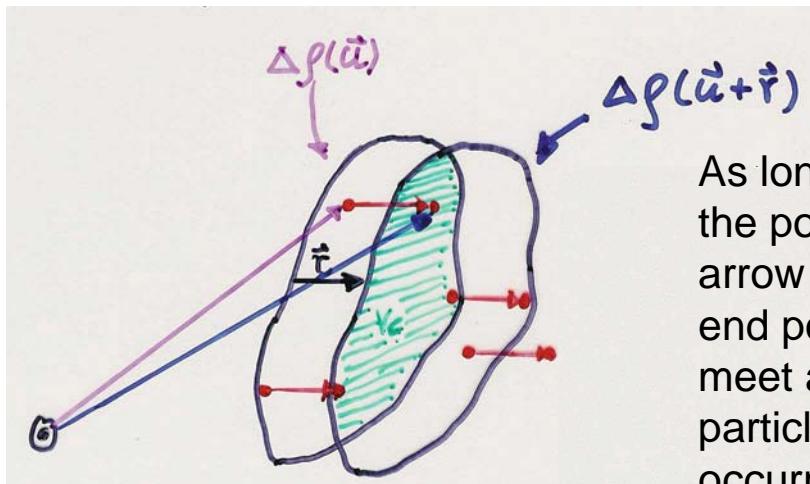


Spatial autocorrelation function $\gamma(r)$

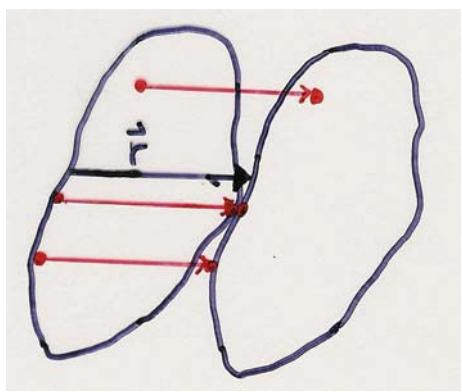
$$\gamma(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int_0^{4\pi} \gamma(\vec{r}) d\Omega = \left\langle \int \Delta\rho_s(\vec{u}) \Delta\rho_s(\vec{u} + \vec{r}) d\vec{u} \right\rangle_{orient.av}$$

$$\gamma(r) = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \int_0^\infty I(q) q^2 \frac{\sin(qr)}{qr} dq$$

$$I(q) = 4\pi \int_0^\infty \gamma(r) r^2 \frac{\sin(qr)}{qr} dr$$



As long as at least one of the points connected by the arrow lies within V_c , the end point of vector \vec{r} will meet a point within the particle. The probability of occurrence of such a vector will be proportional to V_c



In case $|\vec{r}| > D$, where D is the longest distance within the particle
 $\Rightarrow V_c = 0$ and $\gamma(r>D) = 0$

In the opposite limit: $\gamma(r>D) = \max$

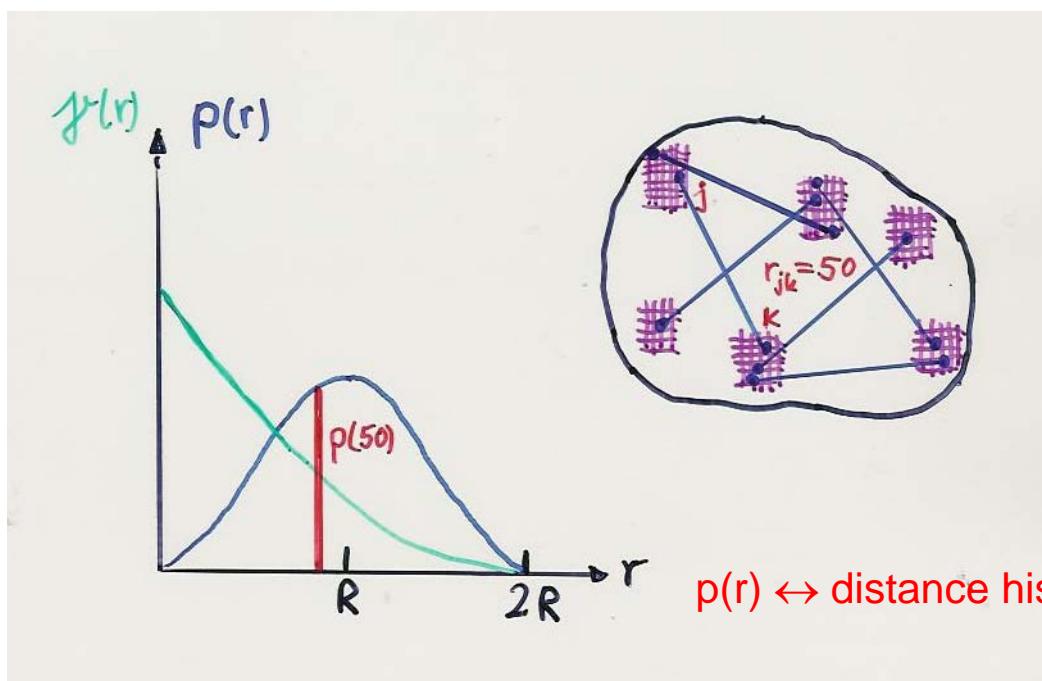
All endpoints outside particle for $|\vec{r}| > D$

Pair distance distribution function (PDDF) $p(r)$

$$p(r) = \gamma(r)r^2$$

$$p(r) = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \int_0^\infty I(q) qr \sin(qr) dr$$

$$I(q) = 4\pi \int_0^\infty p(r) \sin(qr) dr$$



$p(r) \leftrightarrow$ number of volume elements within the particle which are separated by a distance between r and $r+dr$

Inhomogenous particles: each distance has to be weighted by the corresponding excess scattering densities of the volume elements ($\Delta\rho_s(r_j)$, $\Delta\rho_s(r_k)$ – i.e. the excess electron densities in case of SAXS).

⇒ negative excess scattering densities possible → negative pairs
 → $p(r)$ can become negative in certain r -regions

Two approaches to structure analysis

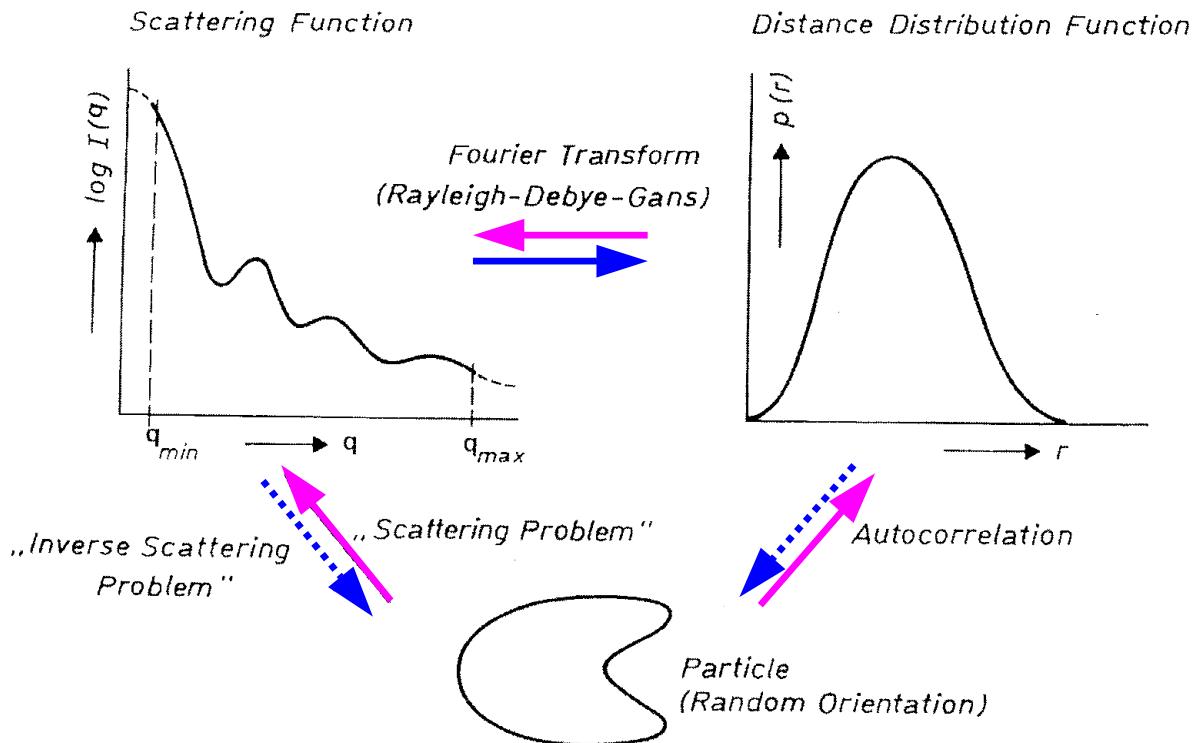


Fig. 6. The scattering problem and the inverse scattering problem .

1. Prediction of the scattering function $I(q)$ for a given particle shape and scattering density distribution
→ “**the scattering problem**”
2. Reconstruction of a structure model from measured scattering data
→ “**the inverse scattering problem**”

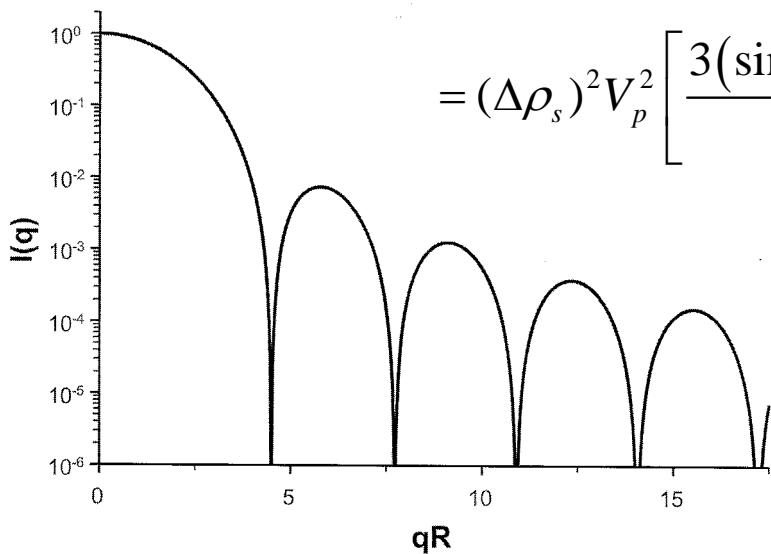
Scattering functions in reciprocal and real space

a) Globular particles

i) Homogeneous sphere: $\Delta\rho_s(r) = \Delta\rho_s$

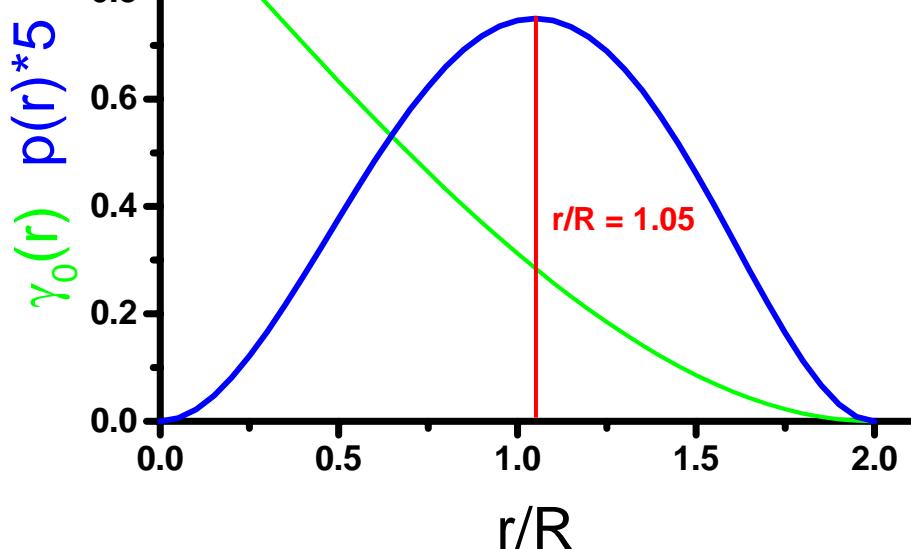
$$I(q) = (\Delta\rho_s)^2 V_p^2 P(q) =$$

$$= (\Delta\rho_s)^2 V_p^2 \left[\frac{3(\sin(qR) - qr \cos(qR))}{(qR)} \right]^2$$

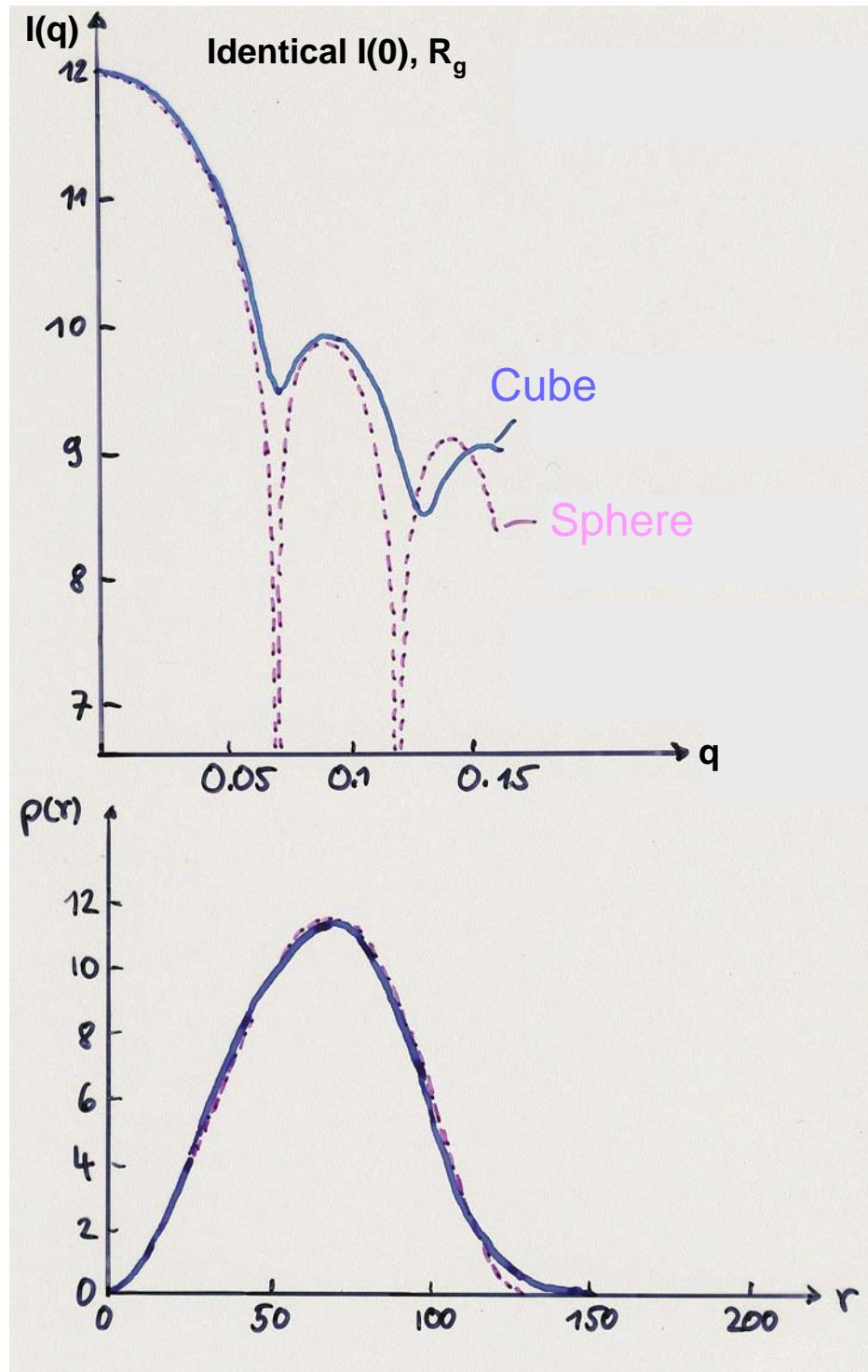


$$\gamma_0(r) = \left(1 - \frac{3}{4} \frac{r}{R} + \frac{1}{16} \frac{r^3}{R^3} \right) \quad r \leq 2R$$

$$p(r) = \frac{3}{4\pi} \frac{r^2}{R^2} \left(2 - \frac{3r}{2R} + \frac{r^3}{8R^3} \right) \quad r \leq 2R$$

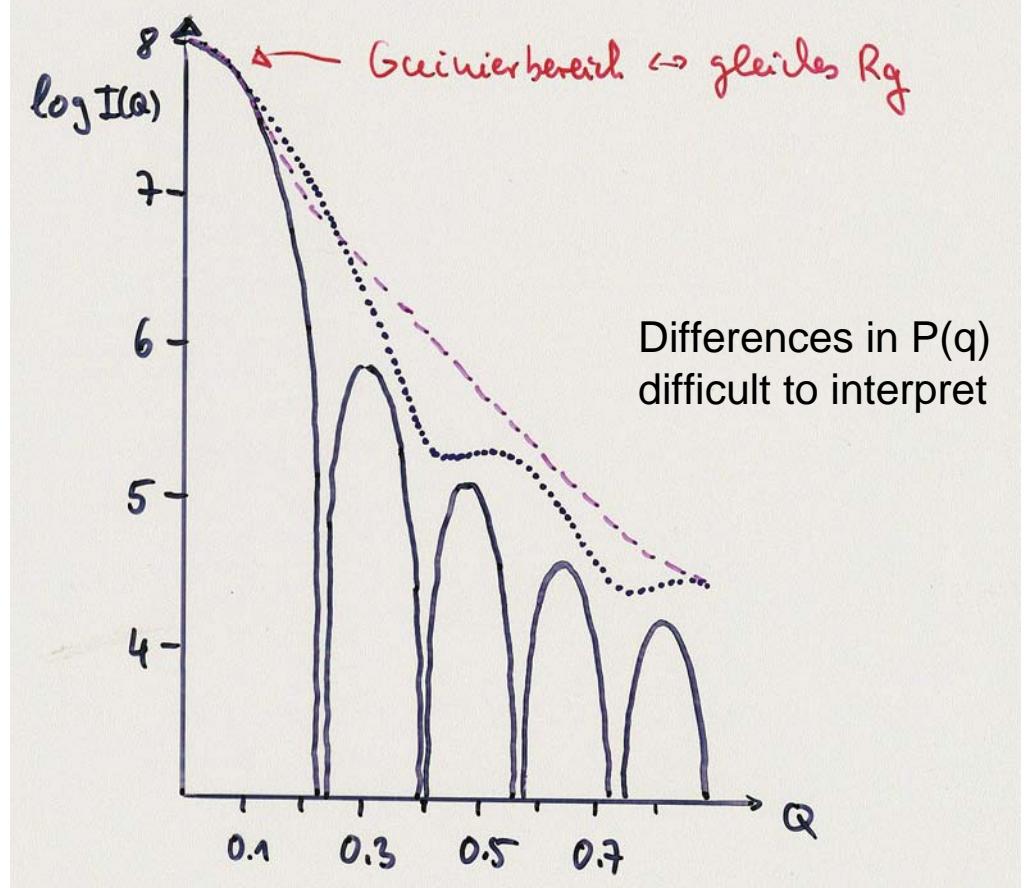
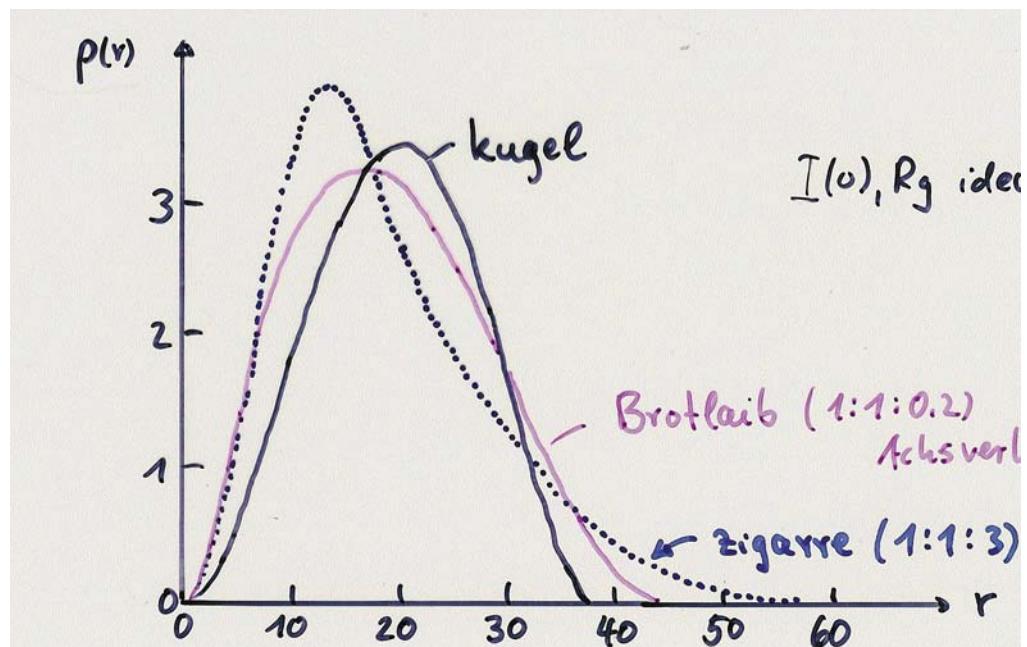


(ii) Sphere contra Cube



$P(q)$: deviations from spherical shape result in a smearing out of the minima (similar to polydispersity)

$P(r)$: deviations hardly visible; maximum as for sphere; cube has higher D; shallower tail makes determination of D value difficult



$p(r)$: D/r_{max}	Sphere	< Oblate	< Prolate	3D	“2D”	“1D”	Dim. of max. extension
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b) Rodlike particles (cylinders, prisms)

Length L

cross section $A_c = R_c^2 \pi$ (with maximum dimension d)

$d \ll L$

For $q > 1/L$ the scattering function factorizes in

$$I(q) = \frac{L\pi}{q} \cdot I_c(q); \quad I_c(q) = \text{cross section scattering function}$$

$$I_c(q) = (\Delta\rho_s)^2 (R_0^2 \pi)^2 \left(2 \frac{J_1(qR_0)}{qR_0} \right); \quad R_c = R_0 / \sqrt{2}$$

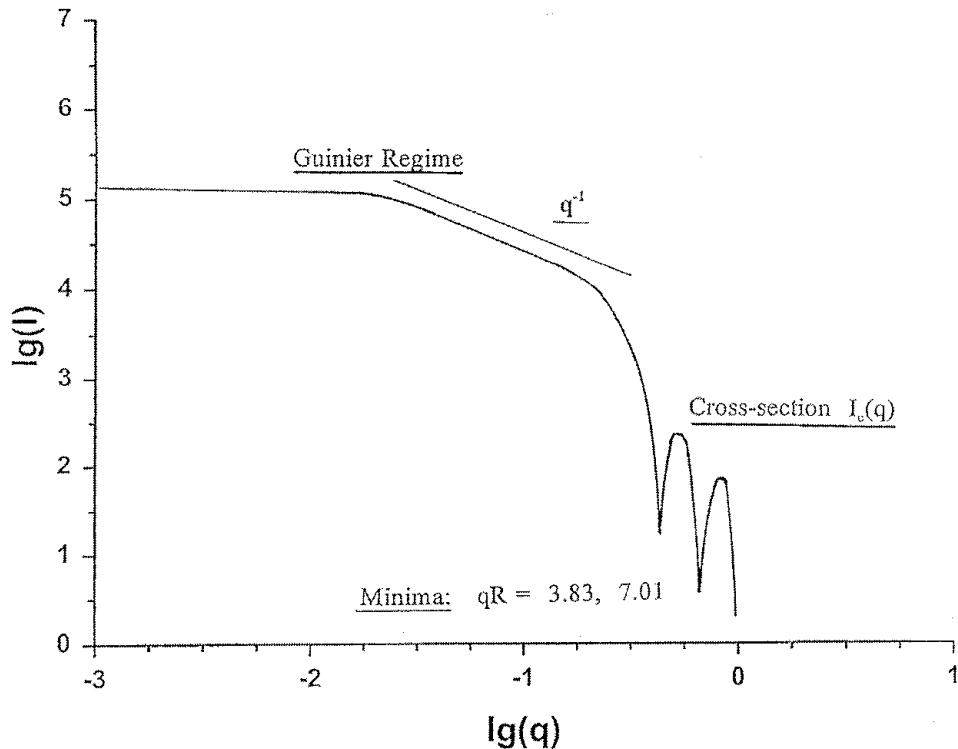
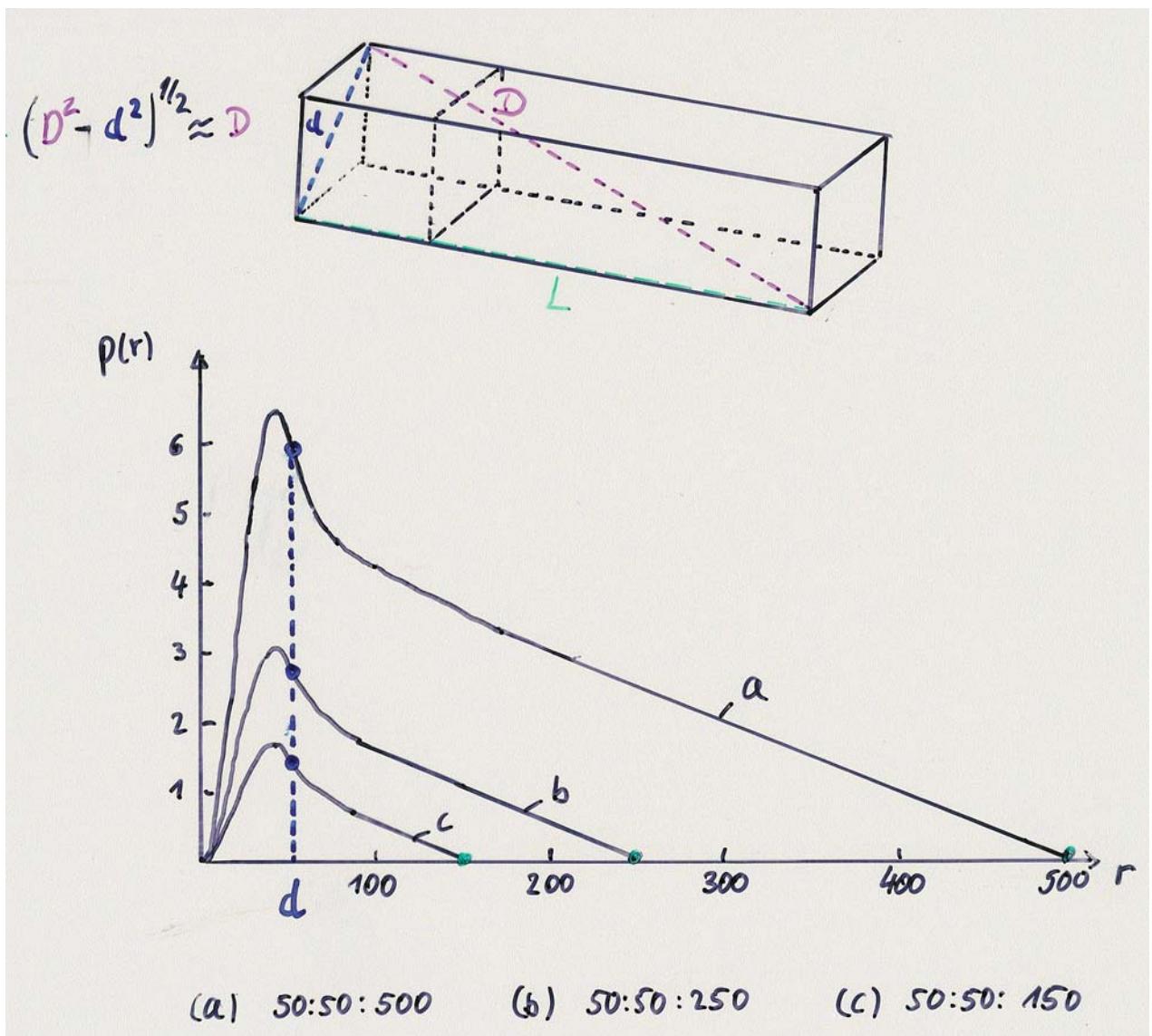


Fig. 12. Scattering curve of a long cylindrical particle (schematic representation).

$$I_c(q) = I_c(0) e^{-q^2 R_{g,c}^2 / 2}$$

\Rightarrow cross section Guinier plot: $\log I(q)q$ vs q^2

$p(r)$: best discussed for square prisms



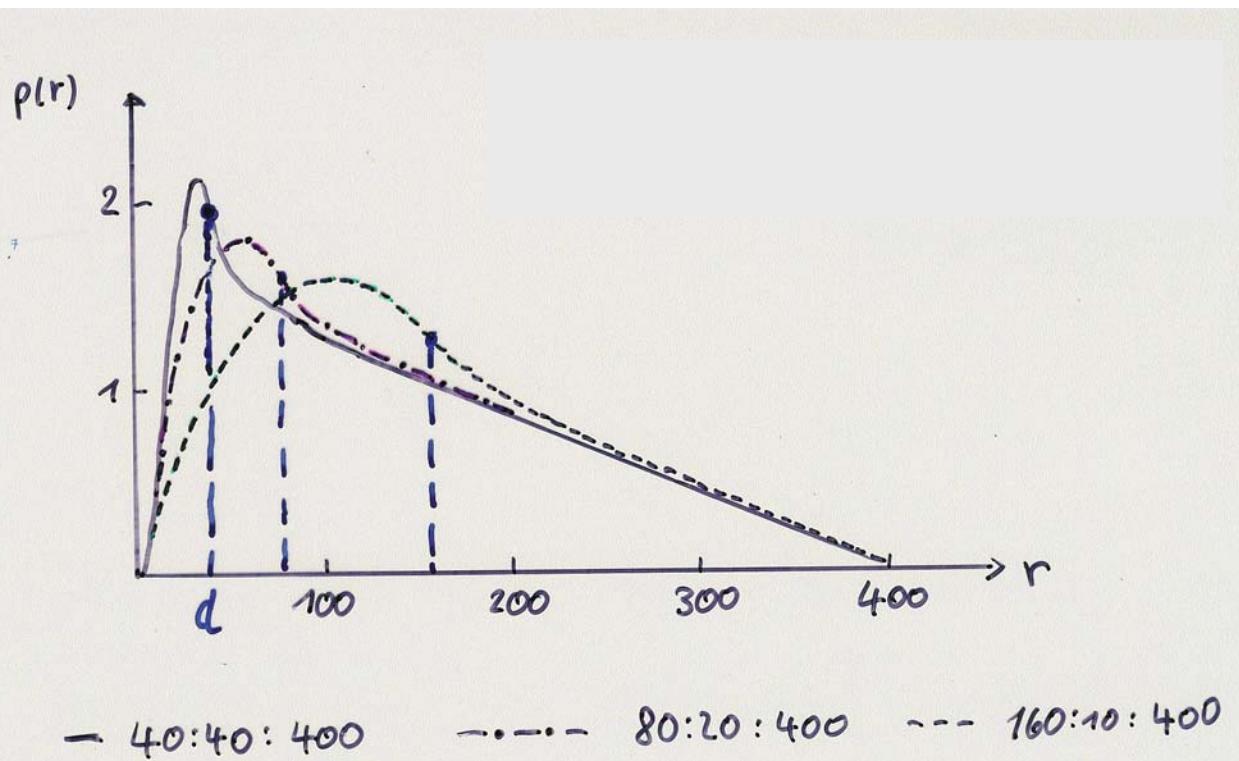
Cutoff $D \approx L$

For $r \gg d$: $p(r) = (1/2\pi)(\Delta\rho_s)^2 A_c^2 (L-r) \rightarrow$ linear region
slope $\propto A_c^2$

$r \leq d$: maximum as distances within a cross section are most frequent

Inflection point roughly indicates d

Variation of shape of cross section at constant A_c



- Inflection point now indicates largest dimension of cross section
- Limit for appearance of linear region: $D/d > 2.5$



Reciprocal space:
 Structure assignment difficult \Rightarrow $p(r)$ more meaningful

- c) Flat particles (e.g. a circular disc)
finite thickness D_t
large area A with $R \gg D_t$
For $q > 1/R$ the scattering function factorizes in

$$I(q) = I_{plane} \cdot I_t(q) = \frac{2\pi A}{q^2} \cdot I_t(q)$$

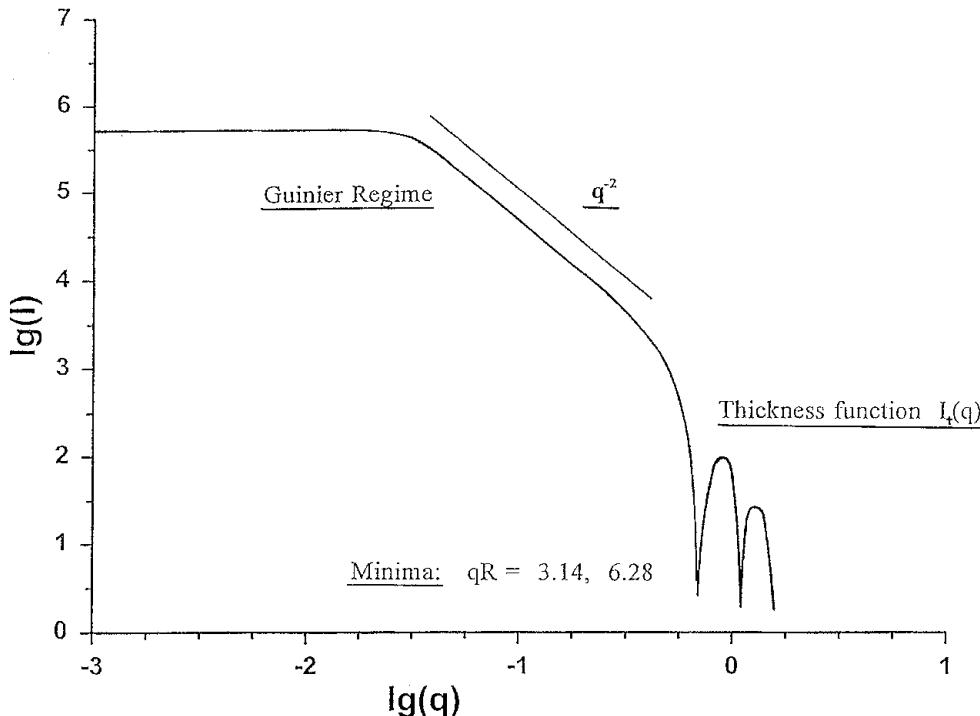


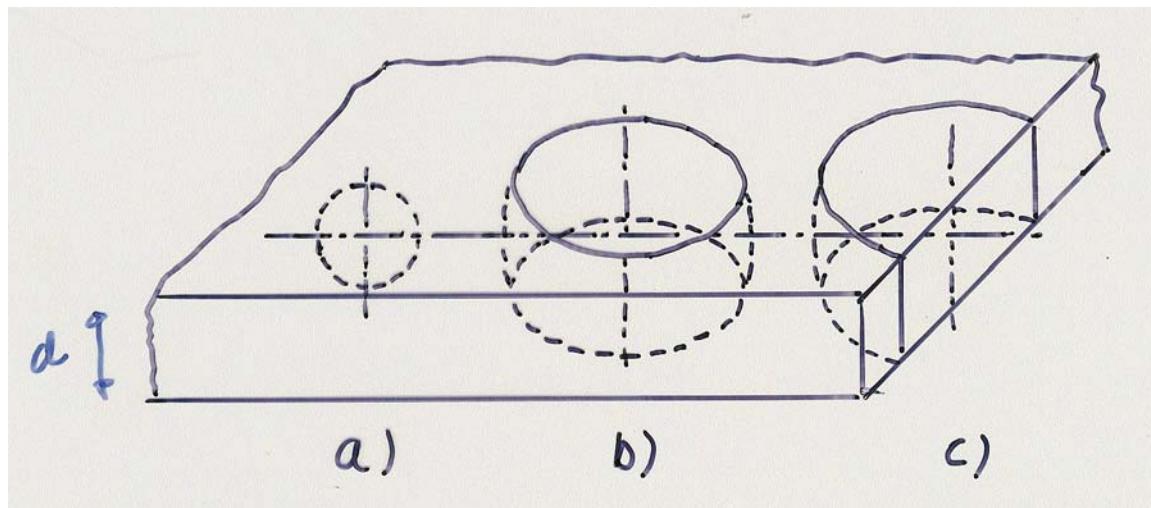
Fig. 16. Scattering curve of a thin flat particle (schematic representation).

$$I_t = I_t(0) e^{-q^2 R_{g,t}^2}$$

⇒ thickness Guinier plot: $\log I(q)q^2$ vs q^2
for homogeneous flat particle with thickness D_t :

$$R_t = D_t / \sqrt{12}$$

$p(r)$ -function of a platelet:



Choose a point within the platelet and let r increase from 0 to finite values \rightarrow three stages

a) $r < d$ (d = thickness of platelet)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{number of distances} &\propto 4\pi r^2 && \text{surface of a sphere} \\ \Rightarrow p(r) &\propto r^2 \end{aligned}$$

b) $r > d$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{number of distances} &\propto 2\pi r d && \text{cylinder surface} \\ \Rightarrow p(r) &\propto r \end{aligned}$$

c) Boundary losses at $r \gg d$

$p(r)$ goes through a maximum and levels off at $p(r=D) = 0$