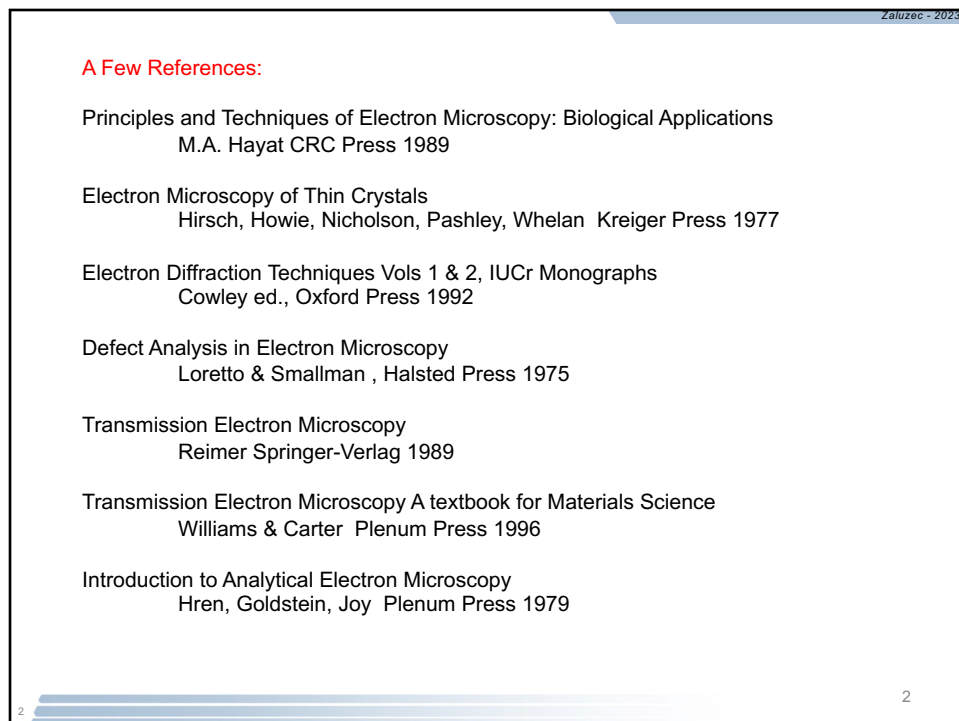
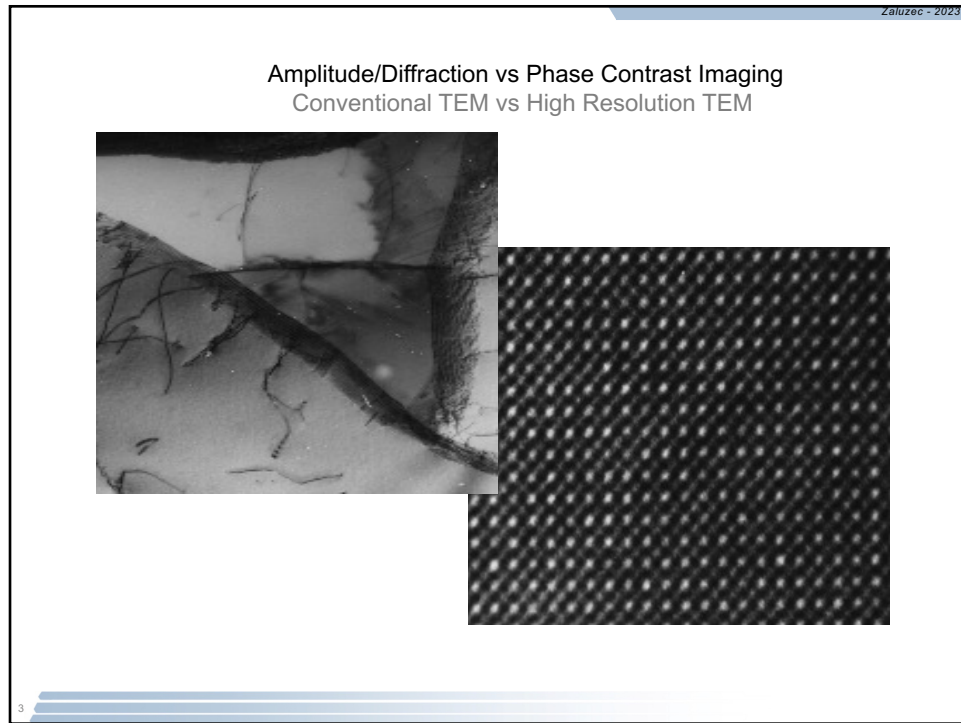


1



2



3

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Roles of the Lenses

Gun Lens

Helps form probe

Condenser Lens

Mainly controls:
Spot Size
hence total beam
current

Objective Lens

Mainly controls
Focus, 1st Magnification

**Diffraction/Intermediate
Lens**

Controls Mode

Projector Lens

Magnification

Most TEM/STEM
have 7-9 Lenses

- 1 Gun Lens
- 2-3 Condensers
- 1 Objective
- 1-2 Intermediate
- 1-2 Projectors

Most instruments
Have Electromagnetic
Round Lenses

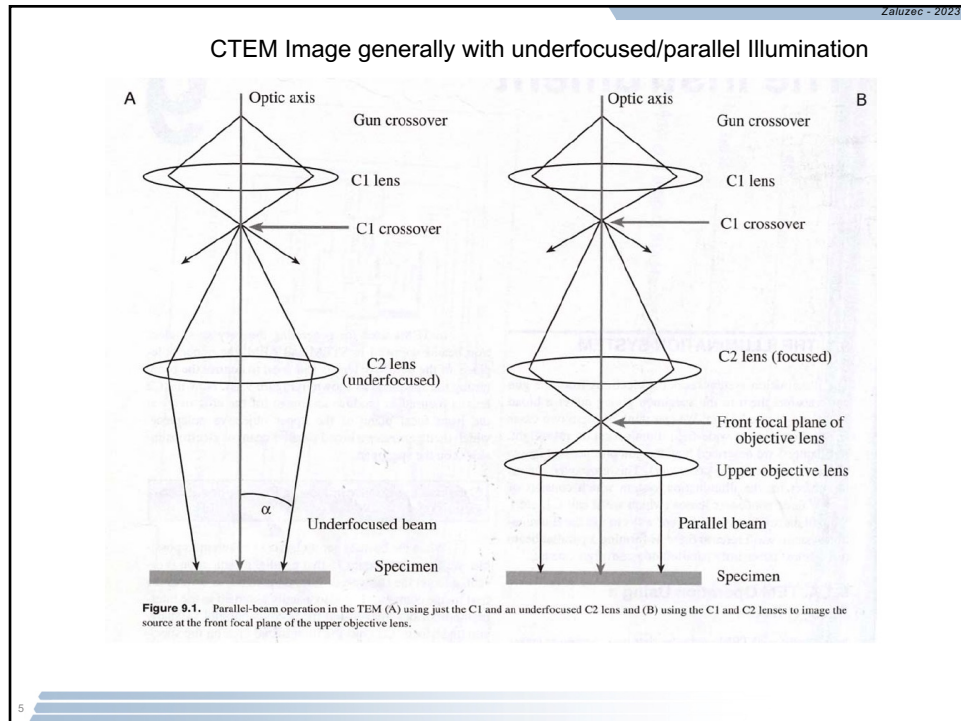
Exception:
Aberration Corrected
Systems

Note the locations
of the various
Apertures.

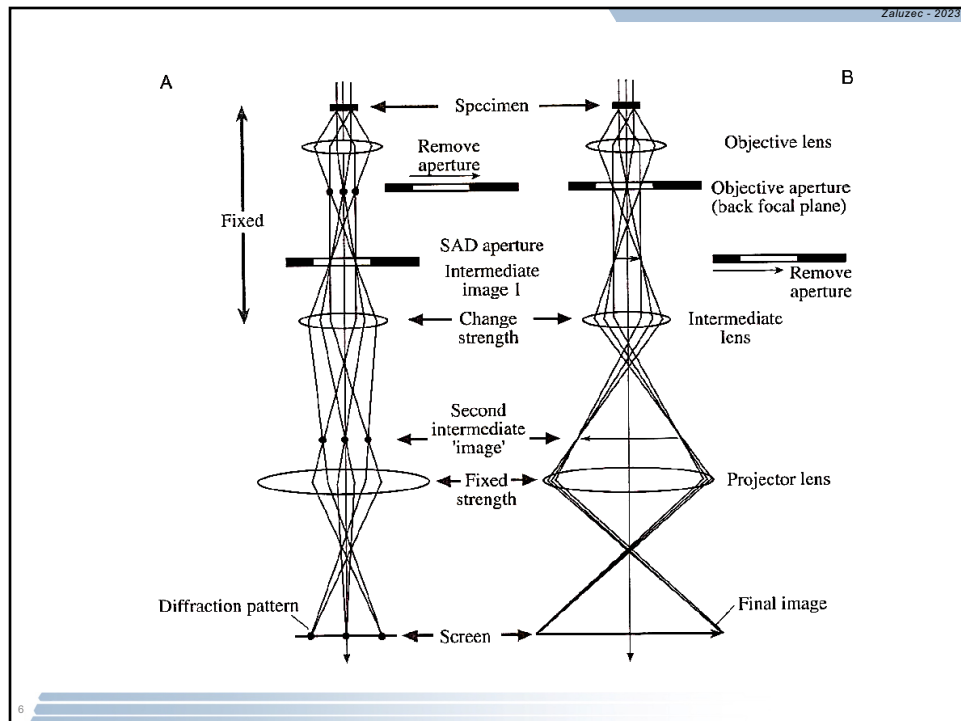
Optimum aperture
sizes are needed
for various
imaging functions.

4

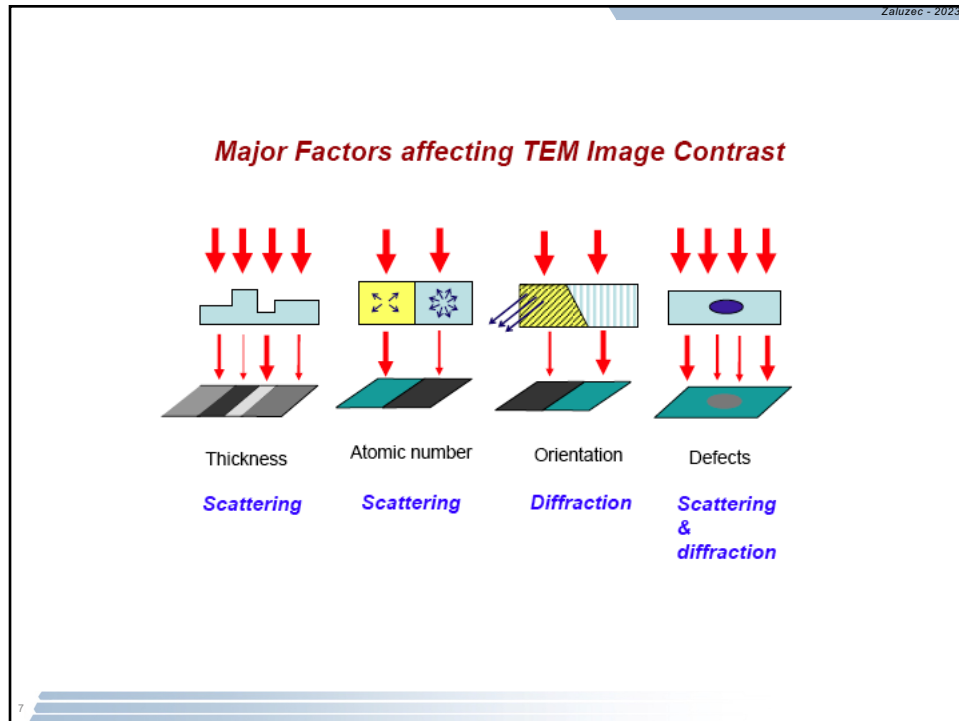
4



5



6



7

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Contrast Mechanisms

Elastic

Amplitude (Mass/Thickness) Contrast
Varying mass of the specimen attenuates the beam

Diffraction Contrast
Scattered beams are removed or signal from scattered events is used

Phase (Interference) Contrast
Scattered beams constructively or destructively interact with each other

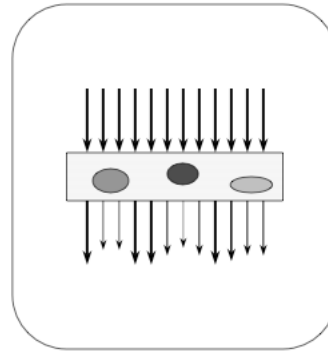
Inelastic
Signal derived from probe changing energy/momentum in the specimen

8

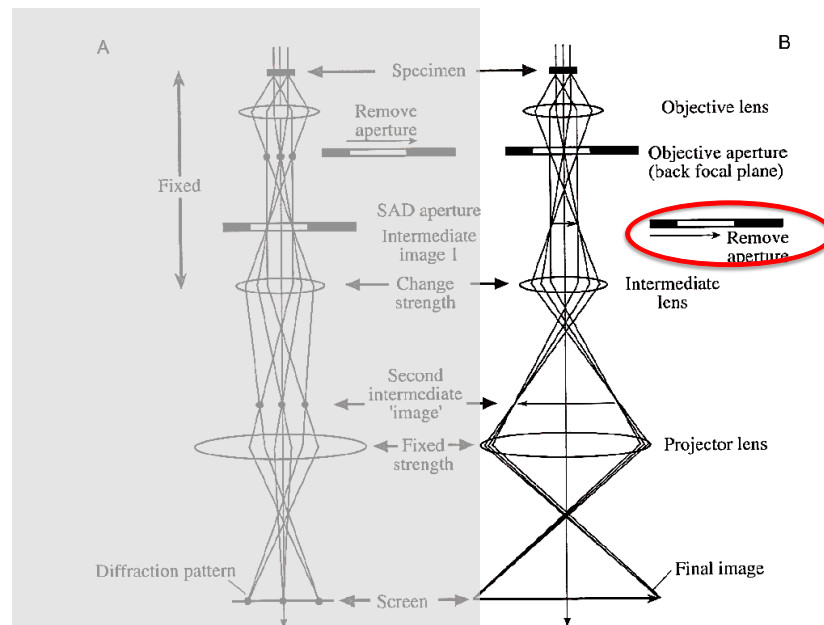
8

Contrast in the TEM

- Mass contrast
 - Varying mass of sample attenuates the beam differently.
- Diffraction contrast
 - Bragg scattered beams are removed.
- Phase contrast
 - Bragg scattered beams interfere with each other.

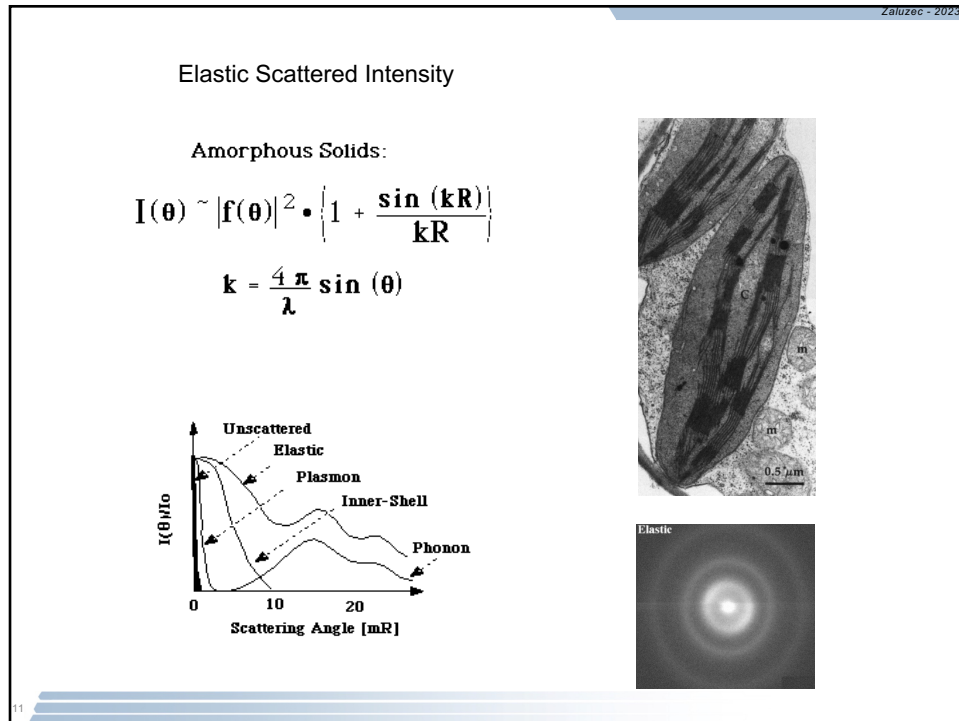


9



10

10



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Mass-Thickness Contrast

- This is the most important type of contrast for biological specimen imaging. In particular, for imaging non-crystalline materials such as tissues, cells, and polymers.
- It is expected that high-Z (i.e., high-mass) regions of a specimen scatter more electrons than low-Z regions of the same thickness.
- Similarly, thicker regions will scatter more electrons than thinner regions of the same average Z, all other factors being constant.
- Therefore, for the case of a BF image, thicker and/or higher-mass areas will appear darker than thinner and/or lower-mass areas. The reverse will be true for DF image.

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Amplitude Contrast

$$\nabla^2 \Psi + \frac{8\pi^2 m}{h^2} (E + V_0) \Psi = 0$$

$Z=0$

$V_0=0$

$\Psi_0 = C_0 e^{i(K_0 \cdot z_0)}$

$Z=t$

$V_0=V$

$V_0=0$

$\Psi_1 = C_1 e^{i(K_1 \cdot z_1)}$

$I = |\Psi_1 \Psi_0| = I_0 e^{-Q_t}$

Amplitude Contrast to a first approximation images the “unscattered” beam
An aperture is used to permit only the directly transmitted beam

13

13

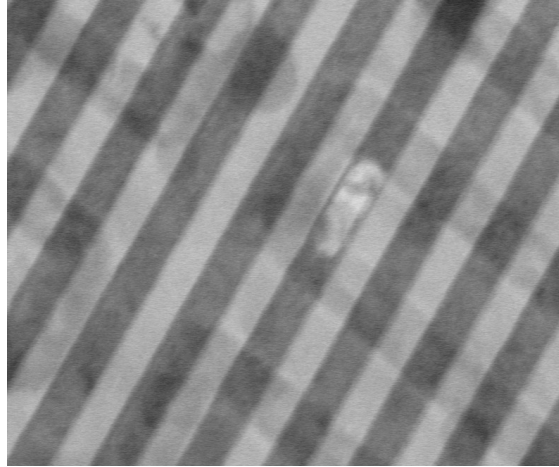
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Amplitude Contrast : Stained Biological Tissue

14

14

Electromigration Voids in "Real Devices"



Amplitude contrast Thick Material

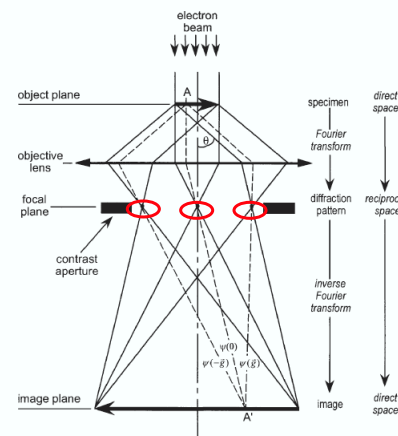
15

Phase Contrast

$$\nabla^2 \Psi + \frac{8\pi^2 m}{h^2} (E + V_0) \Psi = 0$$

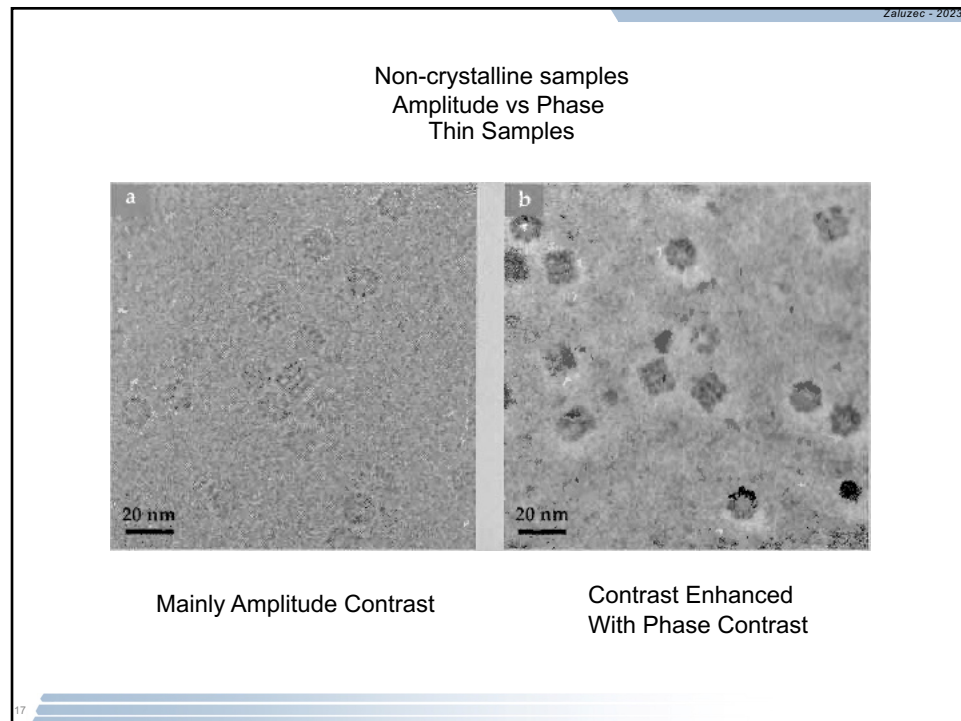
$Z=0$ $V_0=0$ $\Psi_0 = C_0 e^{i(K_0 \cdot z_0)}$
 $Z=t$ $V_0=V$ $\Psi_i = C_i e^{i(K_i \cdot z_i)}$
 $V_0=0$ $\Psi_T = \sum \Psi_i$

$$I = |\Psi_T \Psi_T^*| = I_0 (1 + e^{-Ql} + \dots)$$

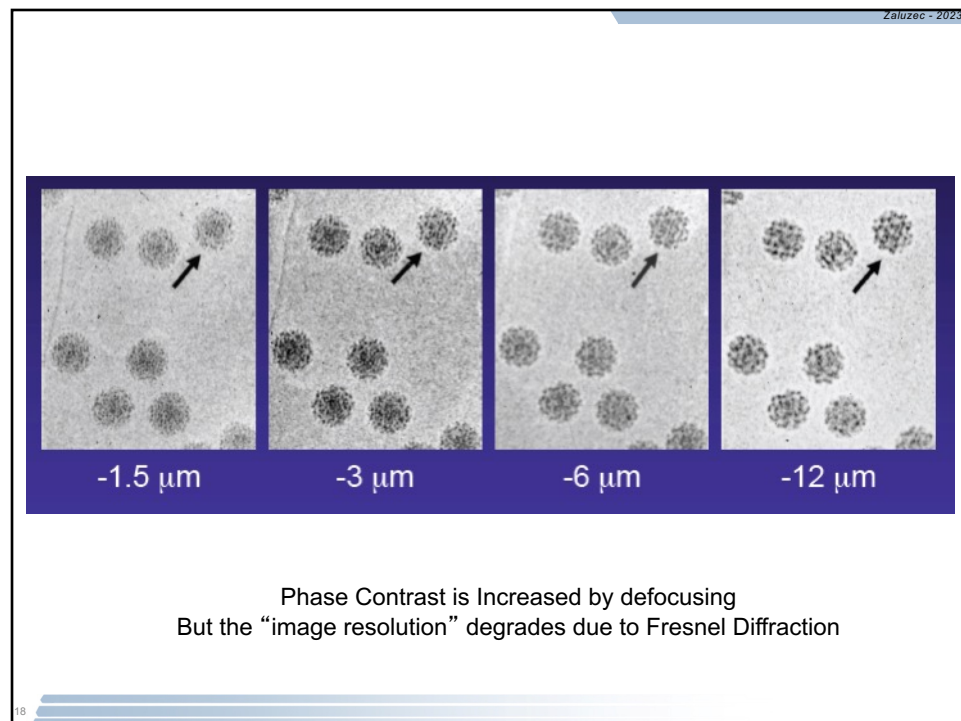


Phase Contrast results from interference between multiple waves
 Large or No apertures used – allows many beams to interact.

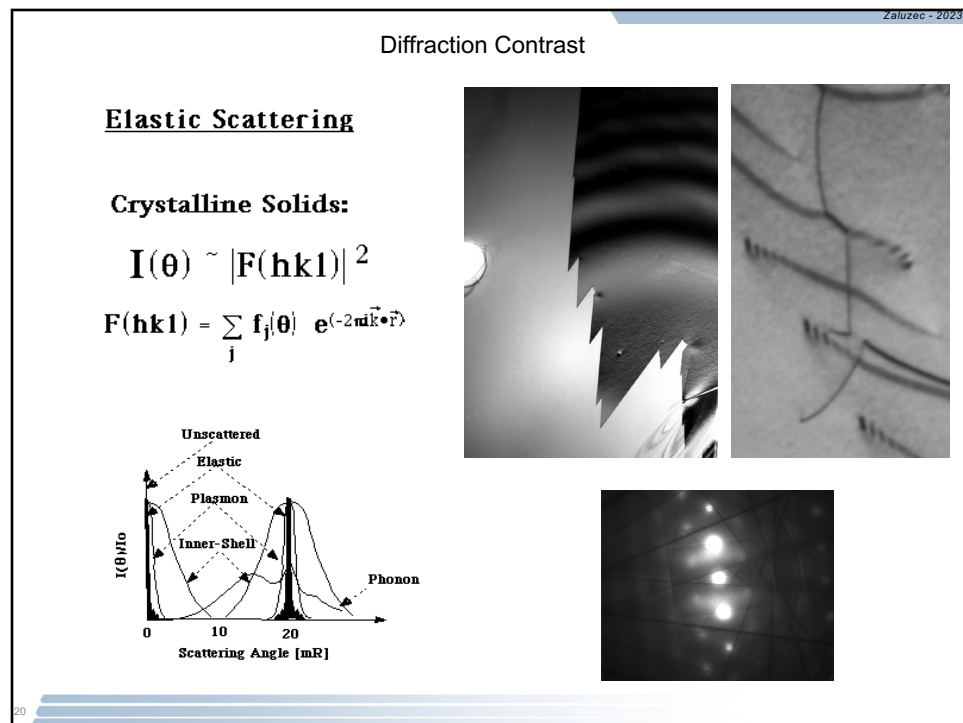
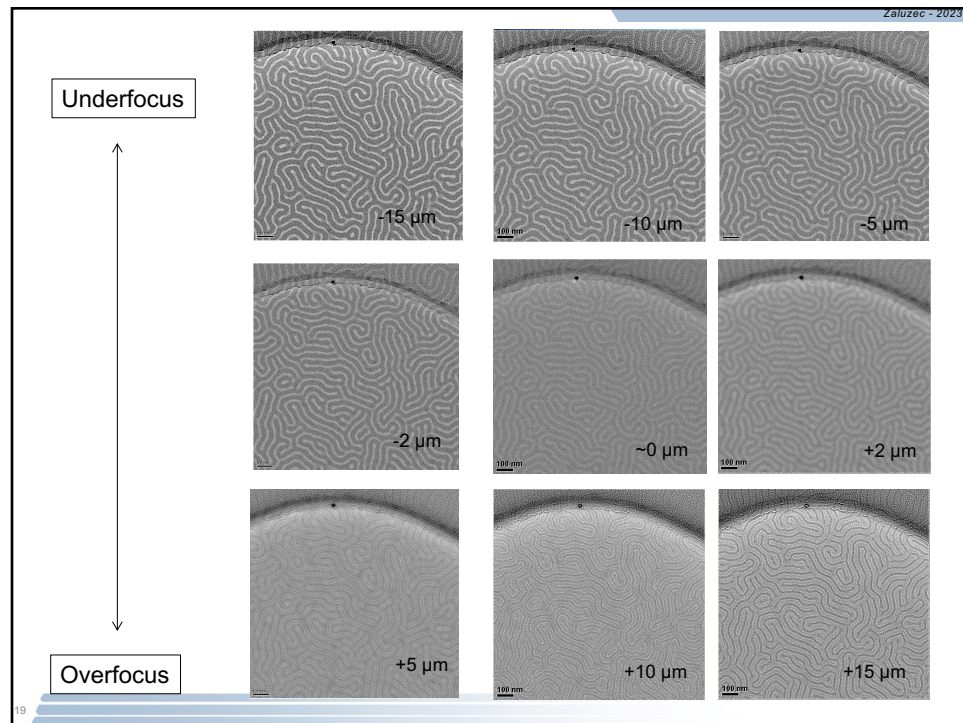
16



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18



TEM/HREM Image Interpretation/Calculation
(well beyond a 60 minute lecture)

$$\nabla^2 \psi(\mathbf{r}) + (8\pi^2 m e / h^2) [E + V(\mathbf{r})] \psi(\mathbf{r}) = 0$$

$$\psi(\mathbf{r}) = \exp(2\pi i \mathbf{\chi} \cdot \mathbf{r})$$

$$V(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{h^2}{2me} \sum_{\mathbf{g}} U_{\mathbf{g}} \exp(2\pi i \mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{r}) = \sum_{\mathbf{g}} V_{\mathbf{g}} \exp(2\pi i \mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{r})$$

$$\psi(\mathbf{r}) = \phi_0(z) \exp(2\pi i \mathbf{K} \cdot \mathbf{r}) + \phi_g(z) \exp(2\pi i (\mathbf{K} + \mathbf{g}) \cdot \mathbf{r})$$

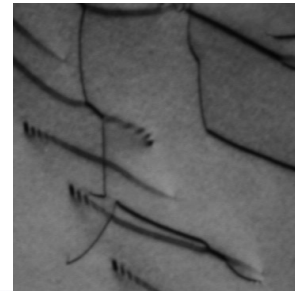
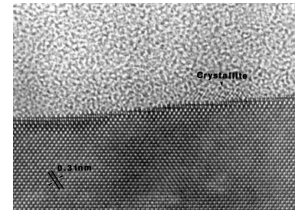
$$K^2 = \frac{2meE}{h^2} + U_0 = \chi^2 + U_0$$

$$I = |\psi \psi^*|$$

ψ_0

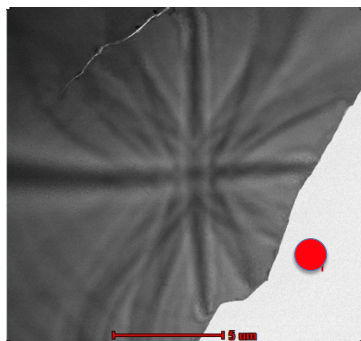
$V(\mathbf{r})$

$\psi(\mathbf{r}) = \sum \phi_i$

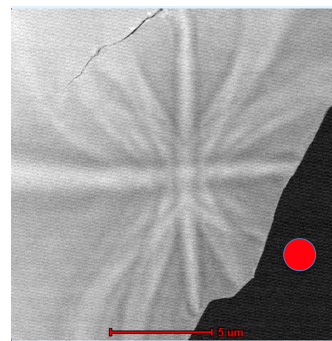


21

Bright Field

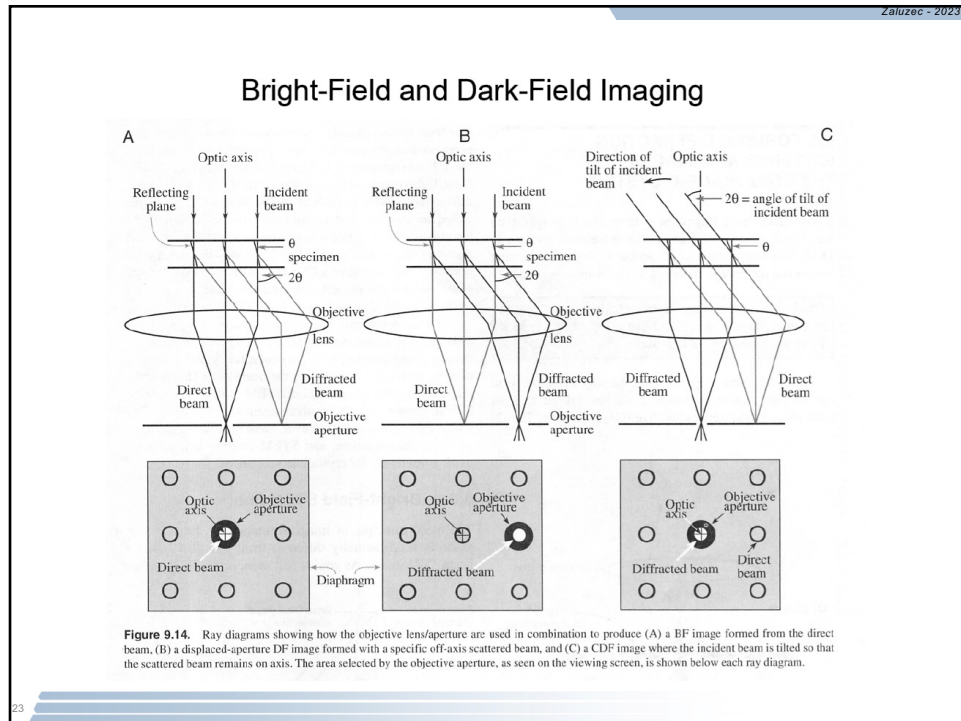


Dark Field

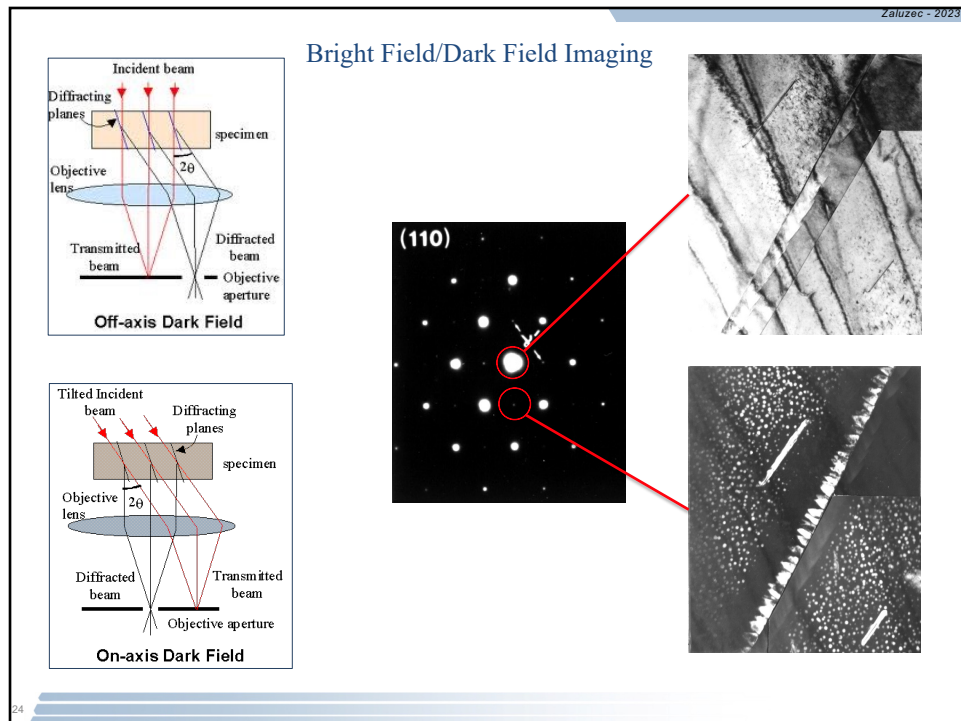


22

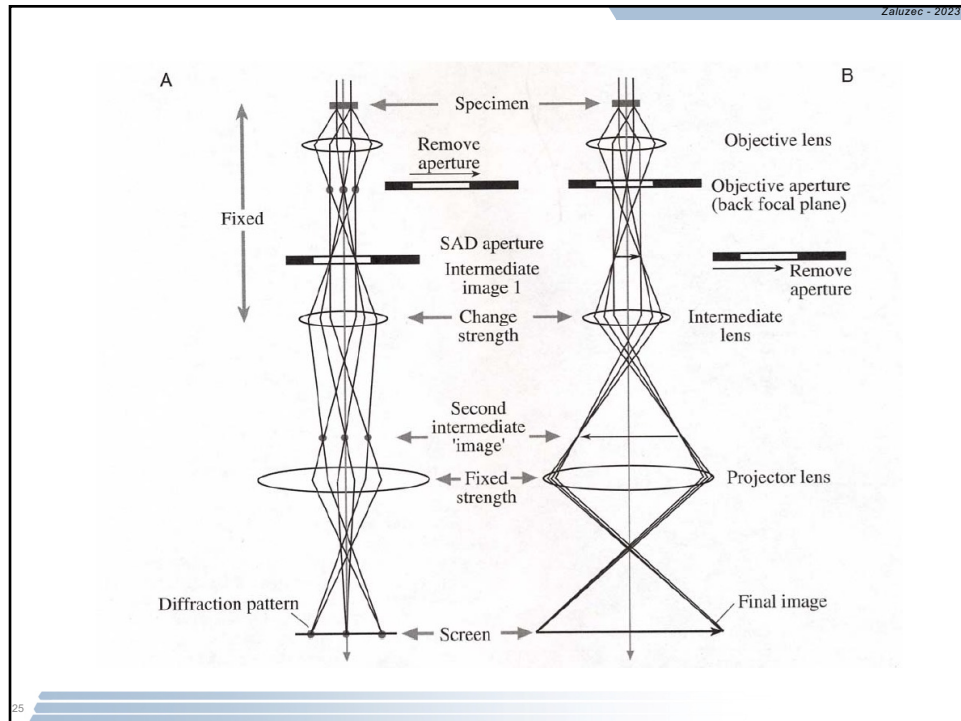
22



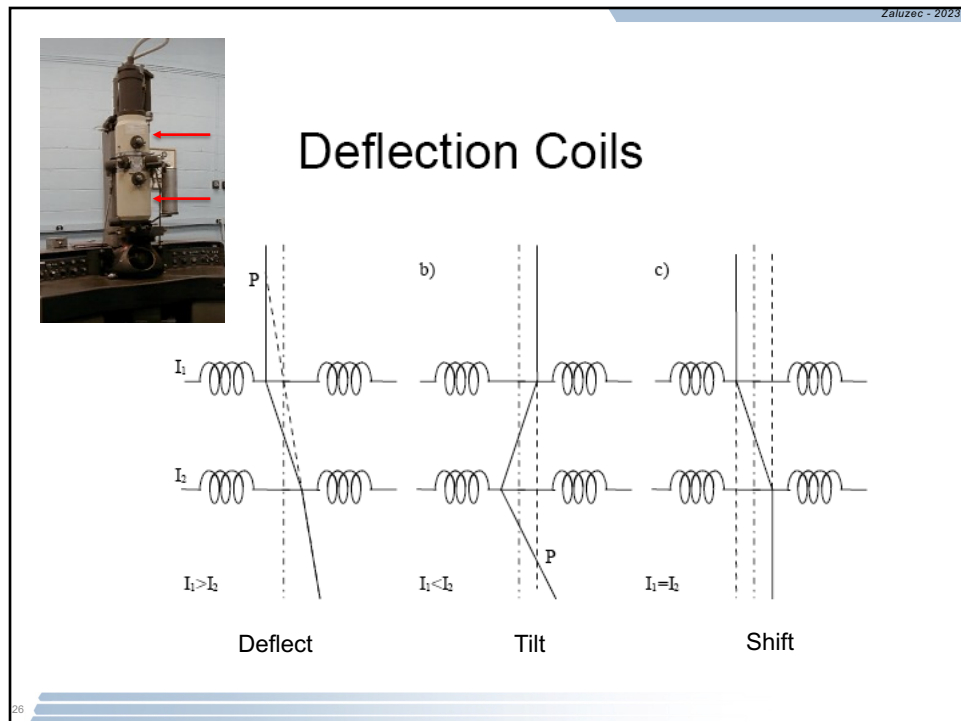
23



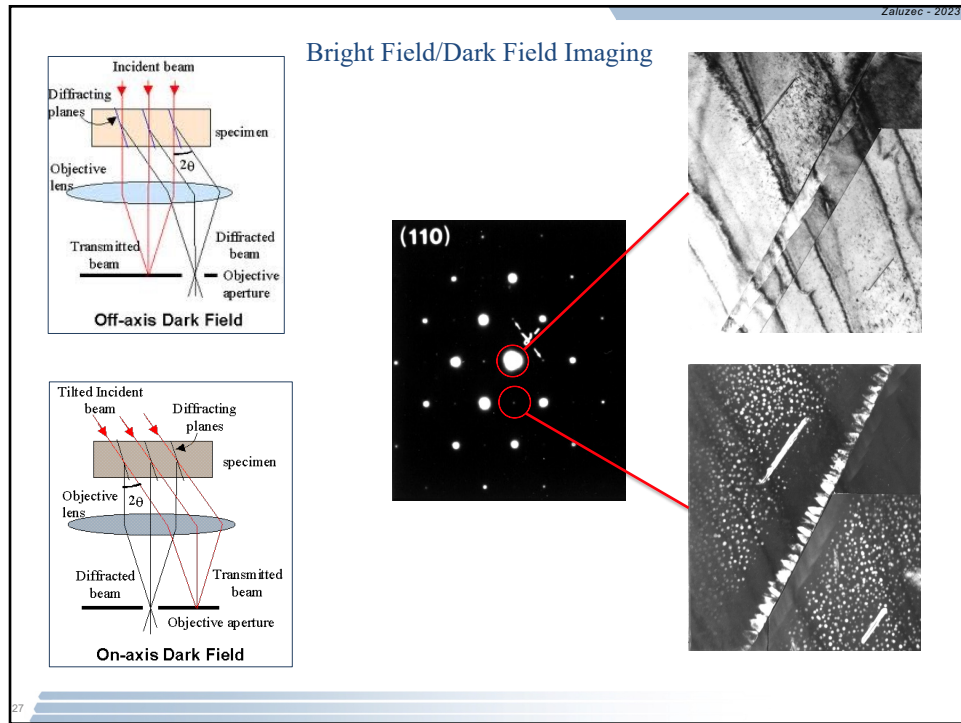
24



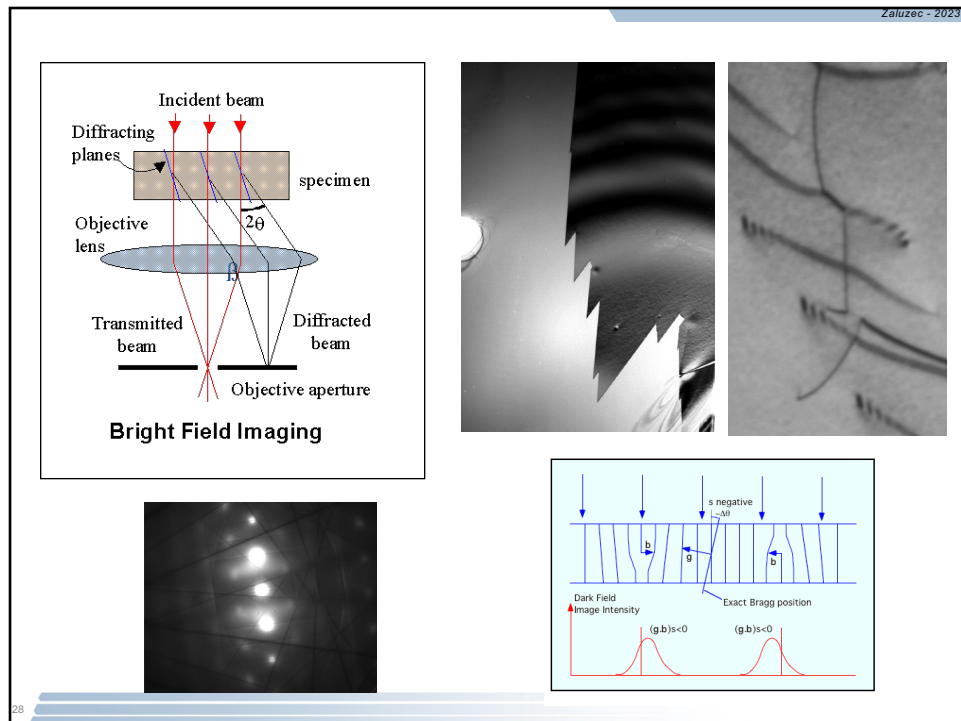
25



26

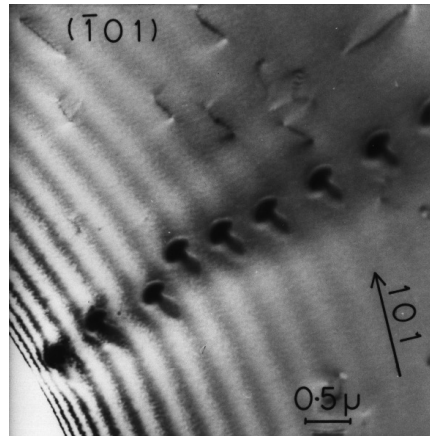
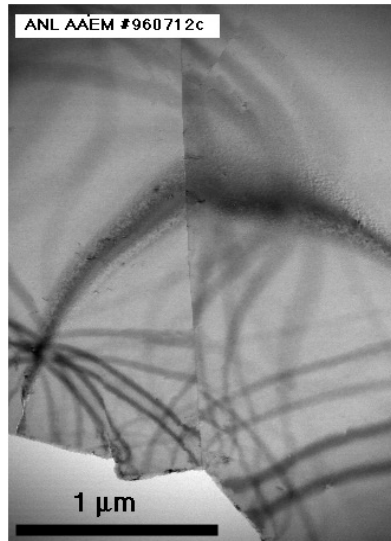


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Common Diffraction Contrast Phenomena In Crystalline Materials



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Kinematical Theory of Image (Diffraction) Contrast

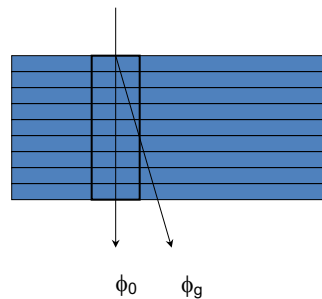
- 1.) Amplitude Contrast
- 2.) Diffraction into a Beam is small
- 3.) Multiple Diffraction Events do not occur
- 4.) Each point of the specimen can be considered independent of its neighbors (column approximation)
- 5.) Each slab in the column can be assumed to act as a Fresnel Zone

$$\phi_0 = 1 - \phi_g$$

$$\phi_g = \left(\frac{\pi i}{\xi_g} \right) \int_0^t e^{-2\pi i s_g z} dz = \frac{\pi i}{\xi_g} \left(\frac{\sin \pi t s_g}{\pi s_g} \right) \left\{ e^{-i \pi t s_g} \right\}$$

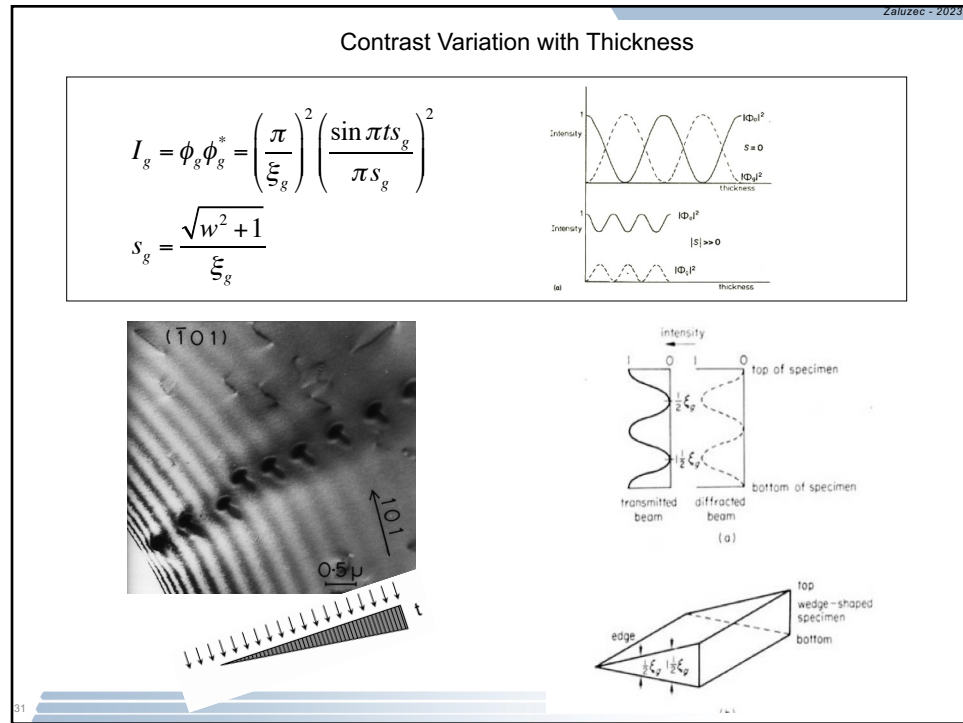
$$\xi_g = \pi V_c \frac{\cos(\theta)}{\lambda F(\theta)} \Rightarrow f(Z, E_0, a_i)$$

$$I_g = \phi_g \phi_g^* = \left(\frac{\pi}{\xi_g} \right)^2 \left(\frac{\sin \pi t s_g}{\pi s_g} \right)^2$$

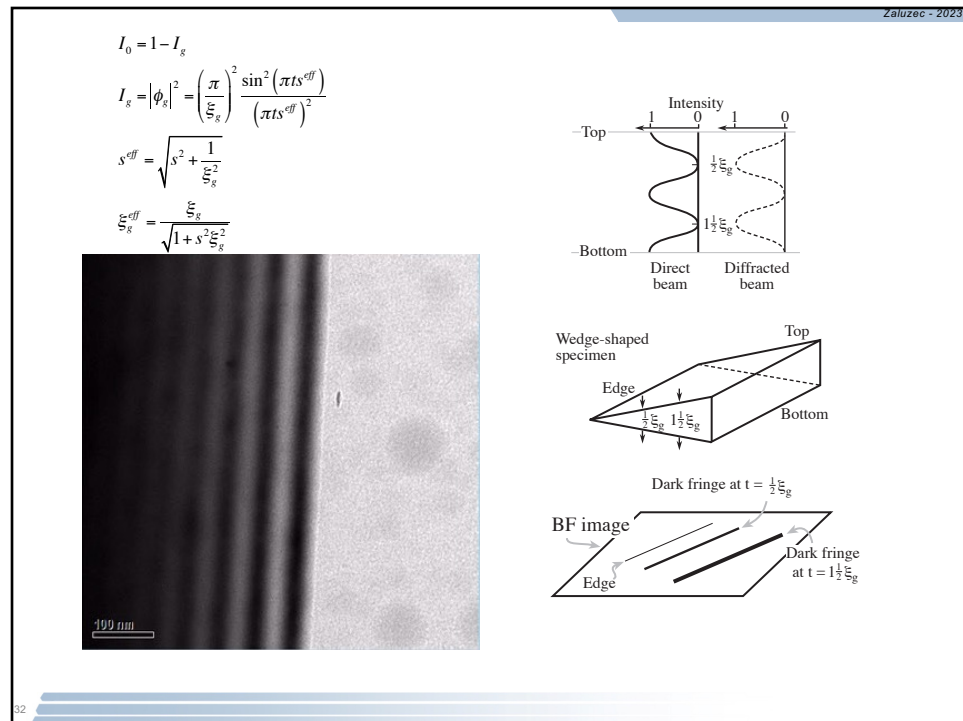


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Typical Extinction Distances (nm) @ 100 kV

Reflection	Al	Cu	Ni	Au	Si	Ge
111	56	24	24	16	60	43
200	67	28	28	18	-	-
220	106	42	41	25	76	45
311	130	51	50	29	135	76
222	138	54	53	31	-	-
400	167	65	65	36	127	66

fcc

Reflection	Fe	Nb	Mo
110	27	26	23
200	39	37	32
211	50	46	41
310	71	62	58

bcc

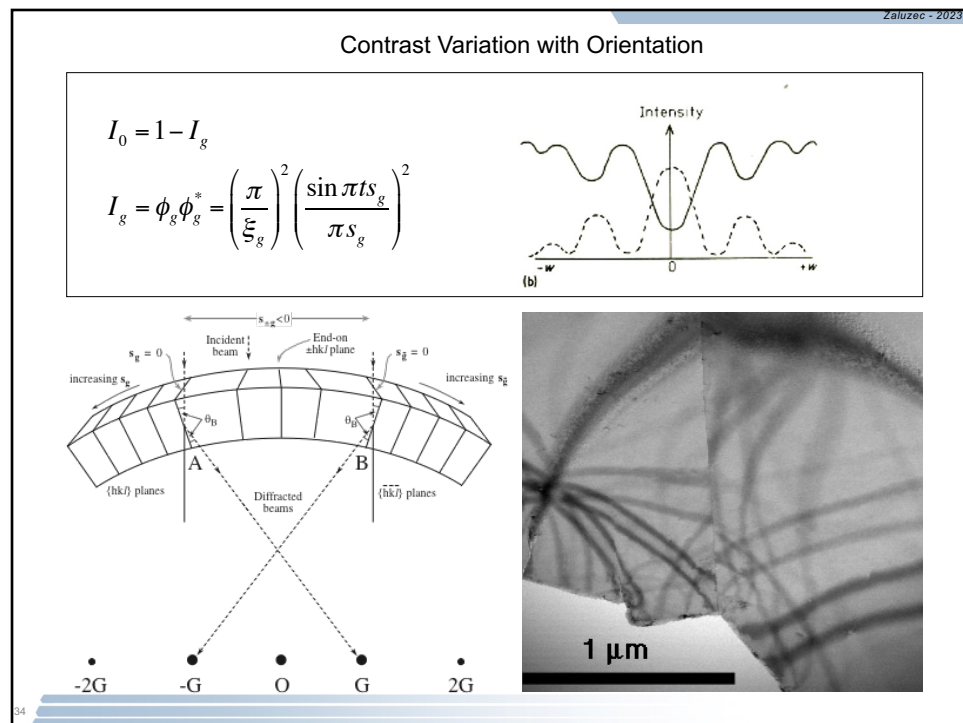
Reflection	Mg	Co	Zn	Zr	Cd
0002	81	25	26	32	24
1-101	100	31	35	38	32
11-20	141	43	50	49	44
1-100	151	47	55	59	52
11-22	171	52	58	59	68
2-201	202	62	70	69	61

hcp

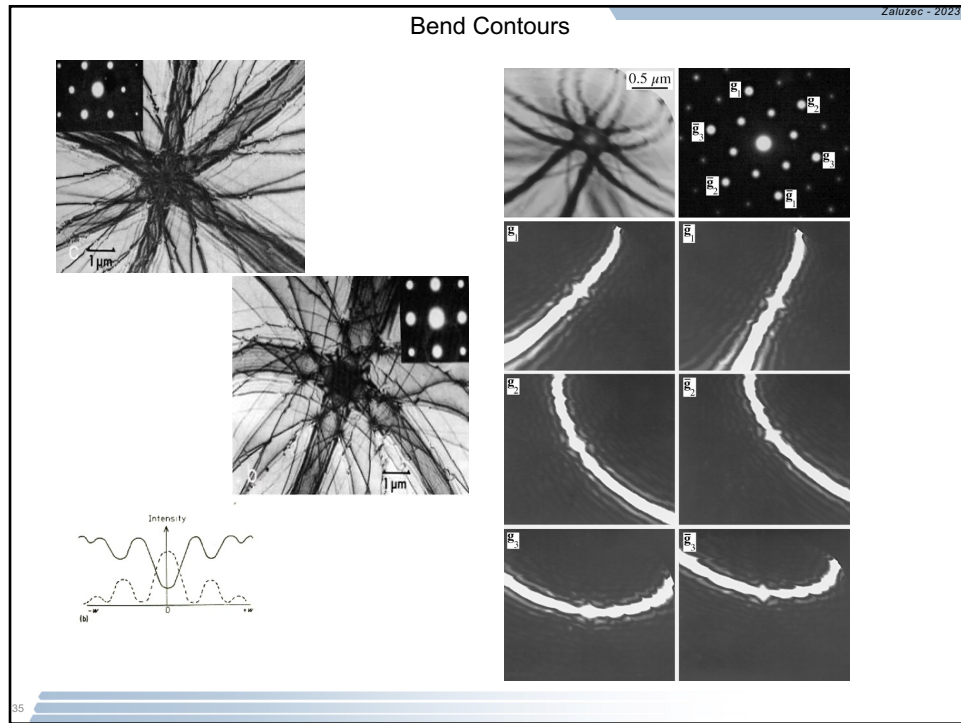
$$\xi_g = \pi V_c \frac{\cos \theta}{\lambda F(\theta)}$$

33

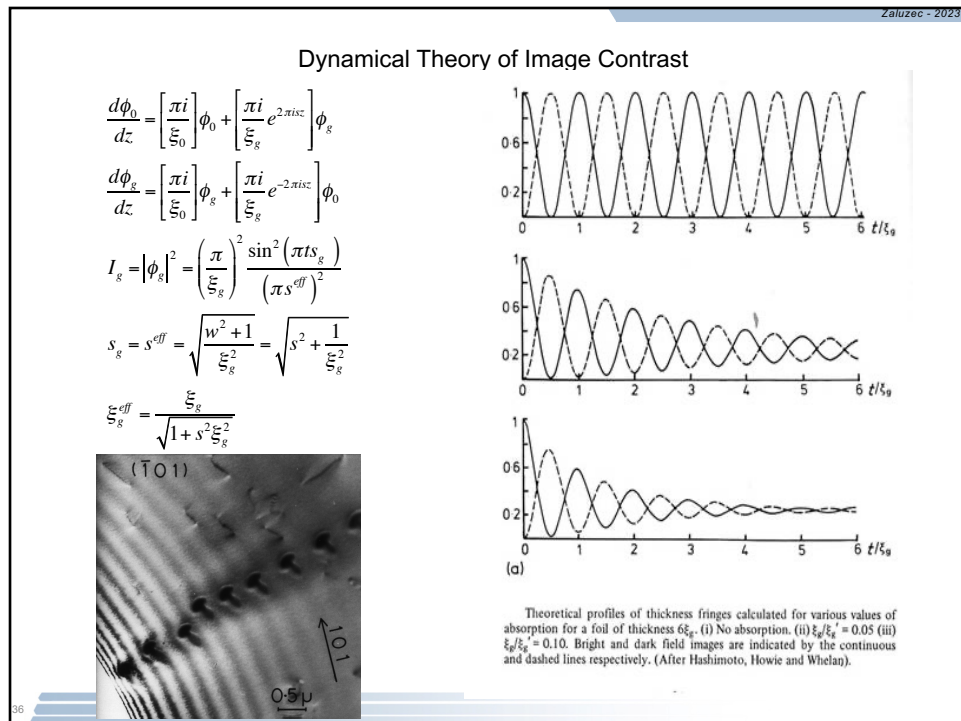
33



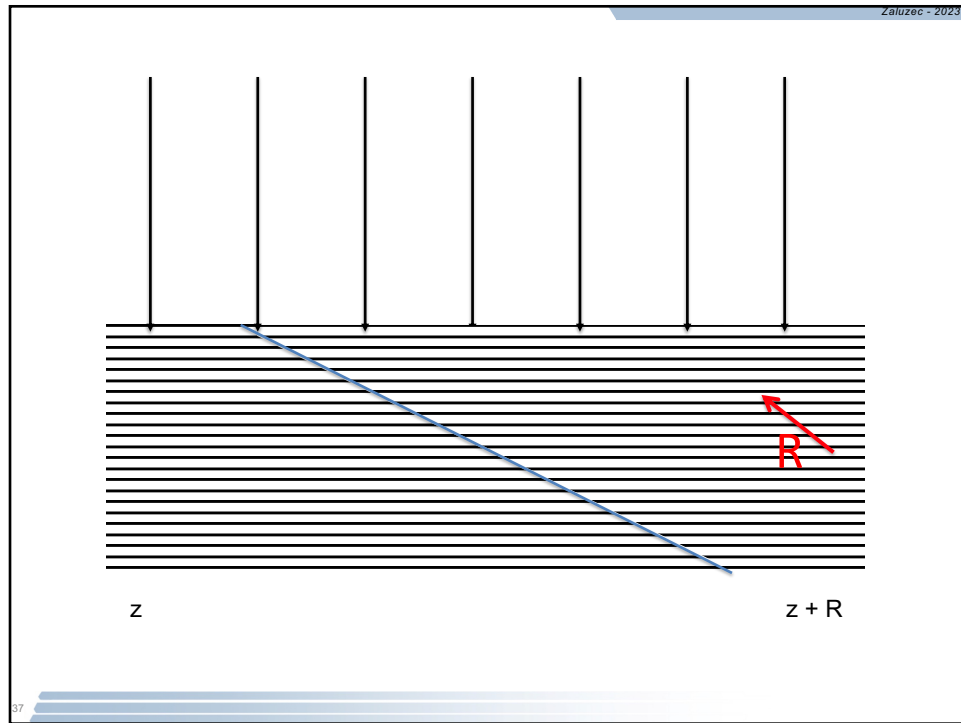
34



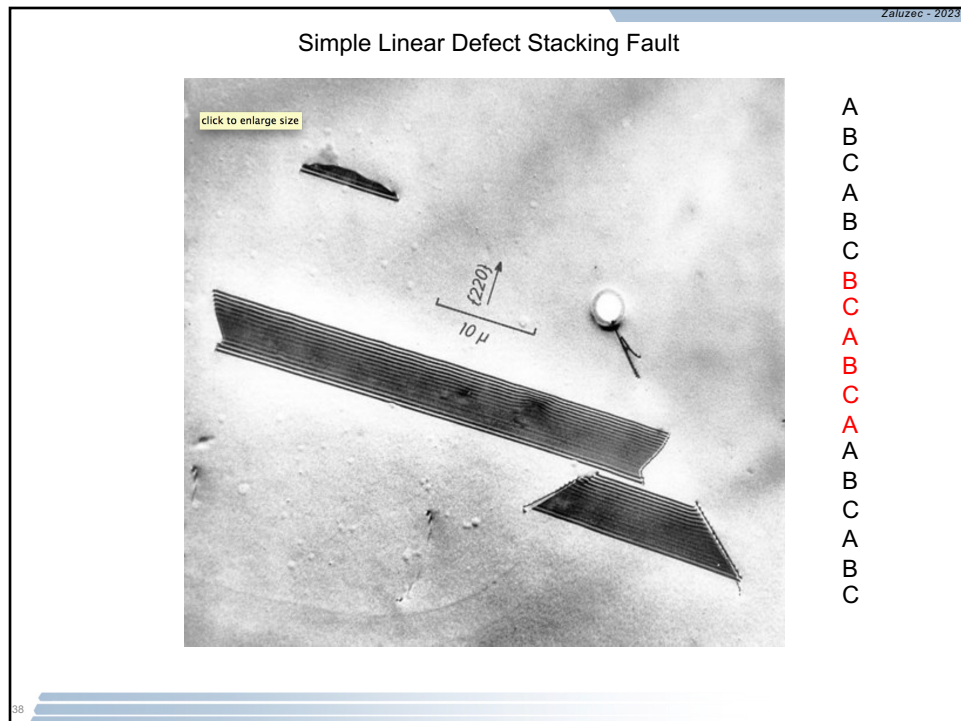
35



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37



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Defect Studies / Imaging Displacement Fields

Howie Whelan Equations

$$\frac{d\phi_0}{dz} = \left[\frac{\pi i}{\xi_0} \right] \phi_0 + \left[\left(\frac{\pi i}{\xi_g} \right) e^{2\pi i (sz + \bar{g} \cdot \bar{R}(z))} \right] \phi_g$$

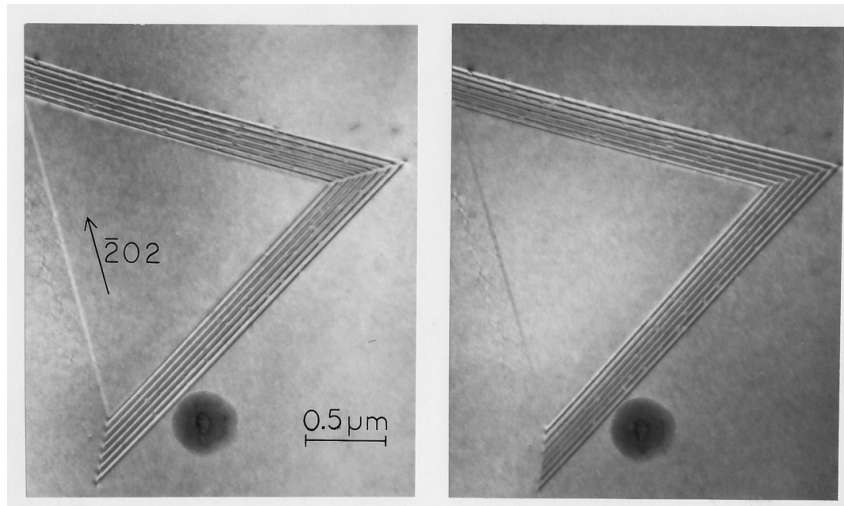
$$\frac{d\phi_g}{dz} = \left[\frac{\pi i}{\xi_0} \right] \phi_g + \left[\left(\frac{\pi i}{\xi_g} \right) e^{-2\pi i (sz + \bar{g} \cdot \bar{R}(z))} \right] \phi_0$$

$$s \cdot z \Rightarrow s \cdot z + g \cdot R(z)$$

$g \cdot R$ controls diffraction contrast for crystalline defects
 $R(z)$ = 3D displacement field of the defect

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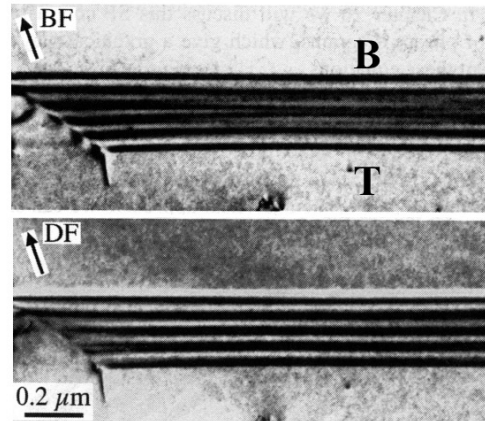
Planar Defects



$g \cdot R = 0, 1, 2 \dots$ No Contrast
 $g \cdot R < \pm 2\pi/3$ Oscillatory Contrast
 Symmetric BF, Asymmetric DF

40

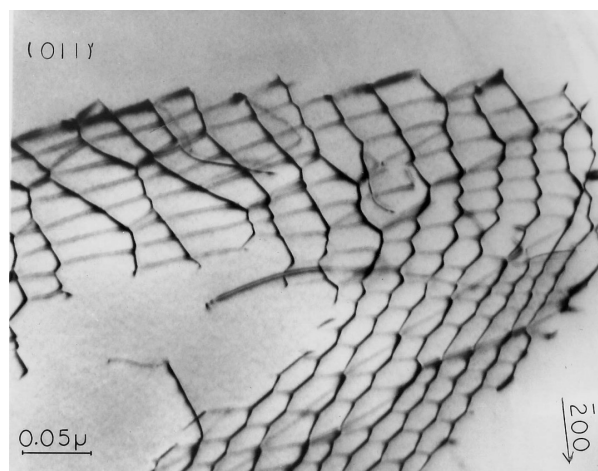
Symmetry of the stacking faults images



- The fringes at the top are the same in BF and DF images
- The fringes at the bottom are complementary

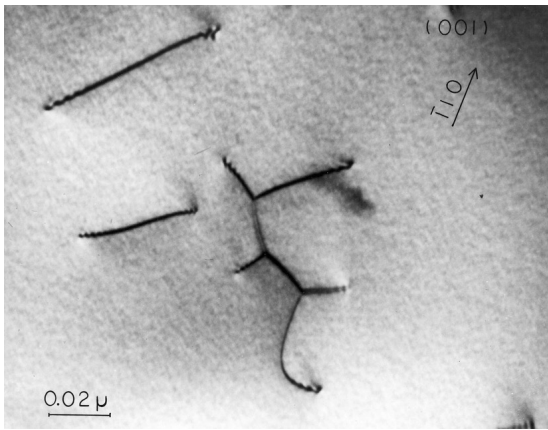
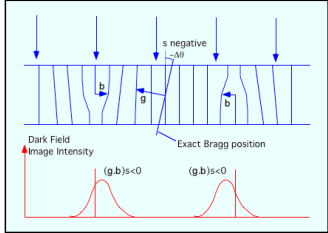
41

Dislocation Images



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$$\phi_g = \left(\frac{\pi i}{\xi_g} \right) \int_0^t e^{-2\pi i(s_g z + \vec{g} \cdot \vec{R})} dz$$

$$\xi_g = \pi V_c \frac{\cos(\theta)}{\lambda F(\theta)}$$

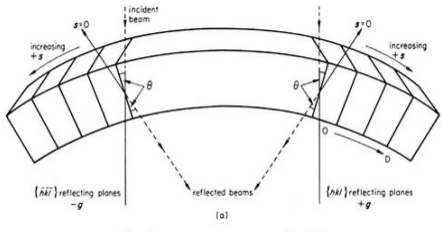
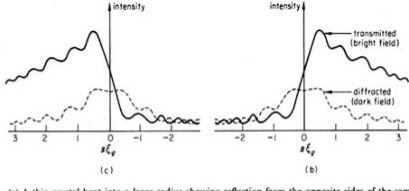
R = displacement of the unit cell in the area of the defect due to its strain field
g = diffracting vector used in imaging.

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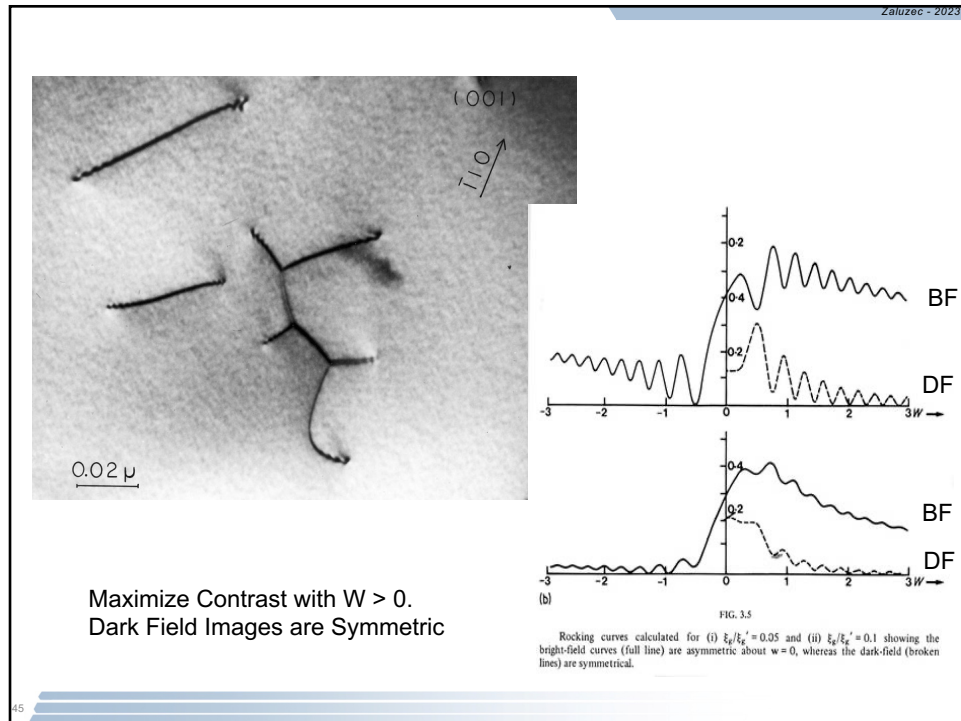
Contrast of Dislocations due to local changes in orientation of planes - recall Bend Contours

(a) A thin crystal bent into a large radius showing reflection from the opposite sides of the same set of (hkl) crystal planes. (b), (c) The intensity distribution versus position for BF and DF (rocking curves). (d) The BF image corresponding to (a). (e), (f) are SADPs showing opposite two-beam diffracting conditions at Y and X in (d)

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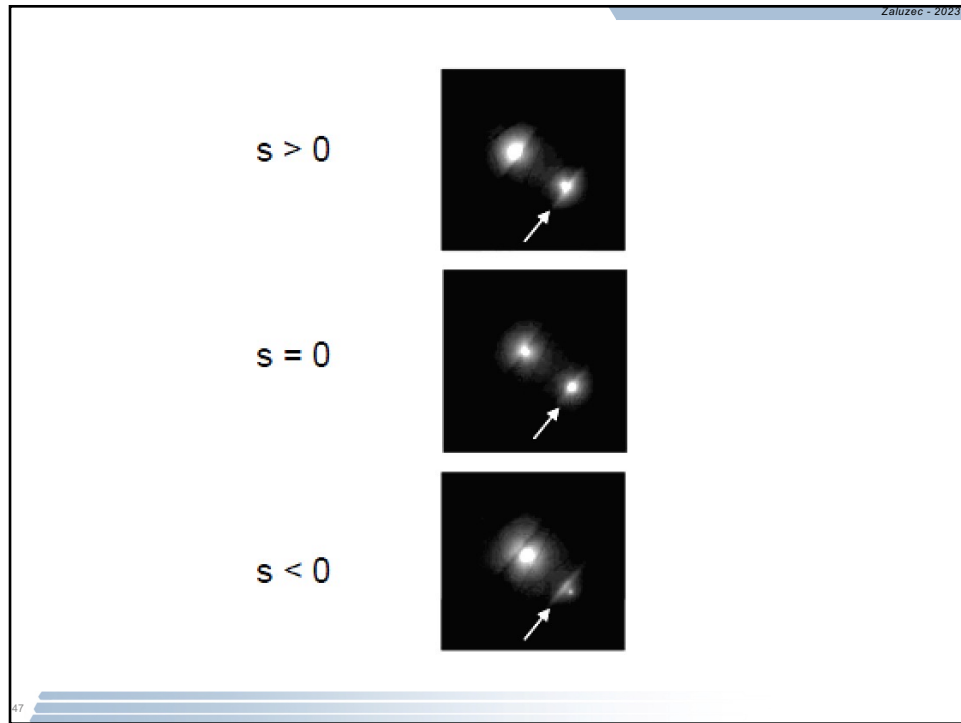
44



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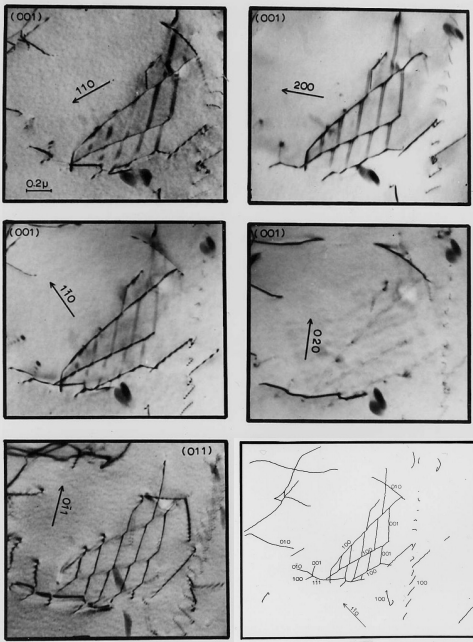
Orientation Dependent
Scattering (Contrast) Studies

$$\phi_g = \left(\frac{\pi i}{\xi_g} \right) \int_0^t e^{-2\pi i (s_g z + \vec{g} \cdot \vec{R})} dz$$

$$\xi_g = \pi V_c \frac{\cos(\theta)}{\lambda F(\theta)}$$

R = displacement vector
g = scattering direction

$\vec{g} \cdot \vec{R}$
controls diffraction contrast
for crystalline defects



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(1) Dislocations are most easily visible and the images broadest when $s = 0$. Images for which $\mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{b} \geq 2$ show much stronger contrast for the same value of s than those for which $\mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 1$ or 0. At $s = 0$, images for which $\mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 2$ show double images, and as s is increased one of the images fades away. Images for which $\mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$ also show double images at $s = 0$ but the two peaks fade away together as s is increased. The images for which $\mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 1$ also fade away as s is increased and become so much weaker than images for which $\mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 2$ that they can be confused with images for which $\mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$. Because the background intensity in dark field becomes very small at large values of s (cf. Fig. 5.3(b)) weak images can be observed as bright lines on a dark background. At small values of s the bright and dark field images appear qualitatively similar.

(2) Dislocations running from top to bottom of a foil show oscillatory contrast when imaged at $s \sim 0$. This contrast is damped out as s is increased. Images taken in bright field with a given diffracting vector give similar oscillatory contrast to that observed in dark field for the same sense of \mathbf{g} for the part of the dislocation at the top of the foil.

(3) The image of a dislocation lies to one side of a dislocation provided $\mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{b} \neq 0$ and $s \neq 0$. The origin of this can be seen from simple diagrams representing the strain fields around dislocations. The displacements on one side of an edge dislocation can be seen to rotate the crystal towards the Bragg condition (thus giving strong contrast) and on the other side away from this condition. The side to which the image lies is given by the sign of $(\mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{b})s$ and the magnitude of the shift by the magnitude of $(\mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{b})s$. Thus when $\mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$ the image is centred on the dislocation. An indication that $\mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$, even when this condition gives strong residual contrast can therefore be obtained by reversing \mathbf{g} ; the absence of an image shift for $|s_c| > 1$ implies that $\mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$.

(4) The image of a dislocation reverses top to bottom and side to side if \mathbf{g} is reversed. A closely spaced dislocation dipole can give apparently more complex behaviour on reversing \mathbf{g} since the images of the dislocations may overlap.

Loretto

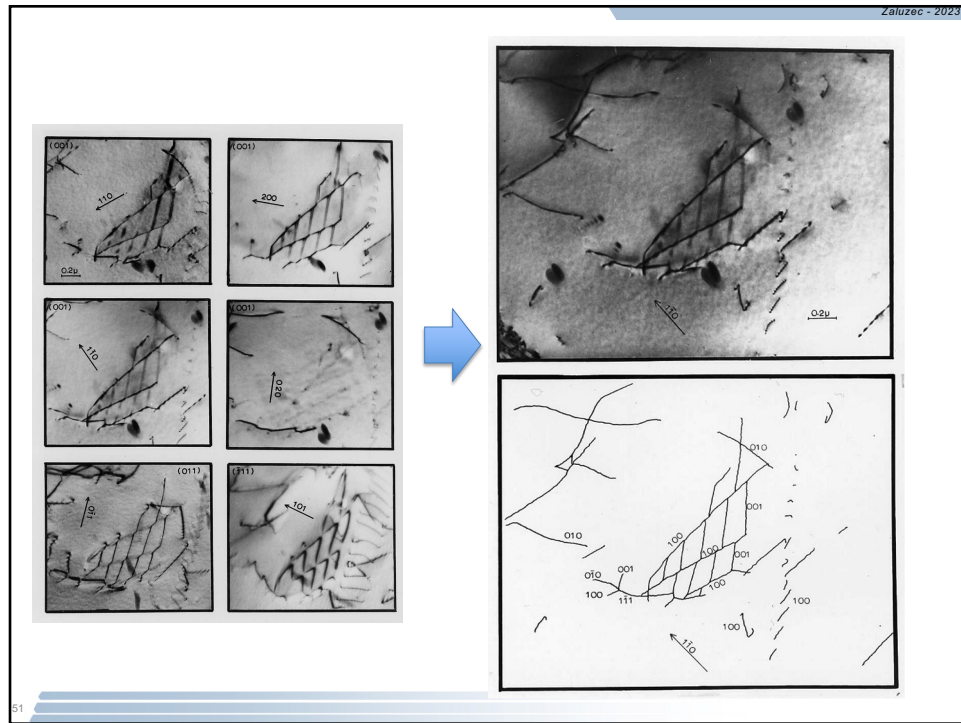
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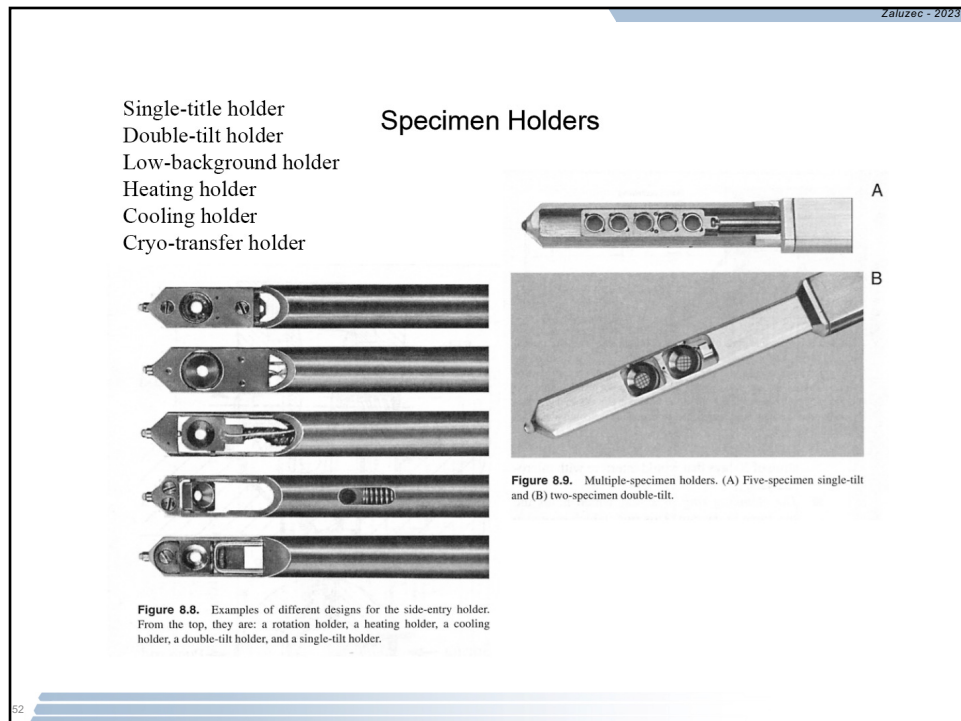
$\mathbf{g}[\text{hkl}]$	$\mathbf{b}[\text{hkl}]$	$\mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{b}$
[100]	[100], [010], [001]	1, 0, 0
[110]	[100], [010], [001]	1, 1, 0
[111]	[100], [010], [001]	1, 1, 1
[110]	[110], [101], [011]	2, 1, 1
[1-10]	[110], [101], [011]	0, 1, -1

0 = Out of Contrast 1 = In-Contrast 2 = Double Contrast

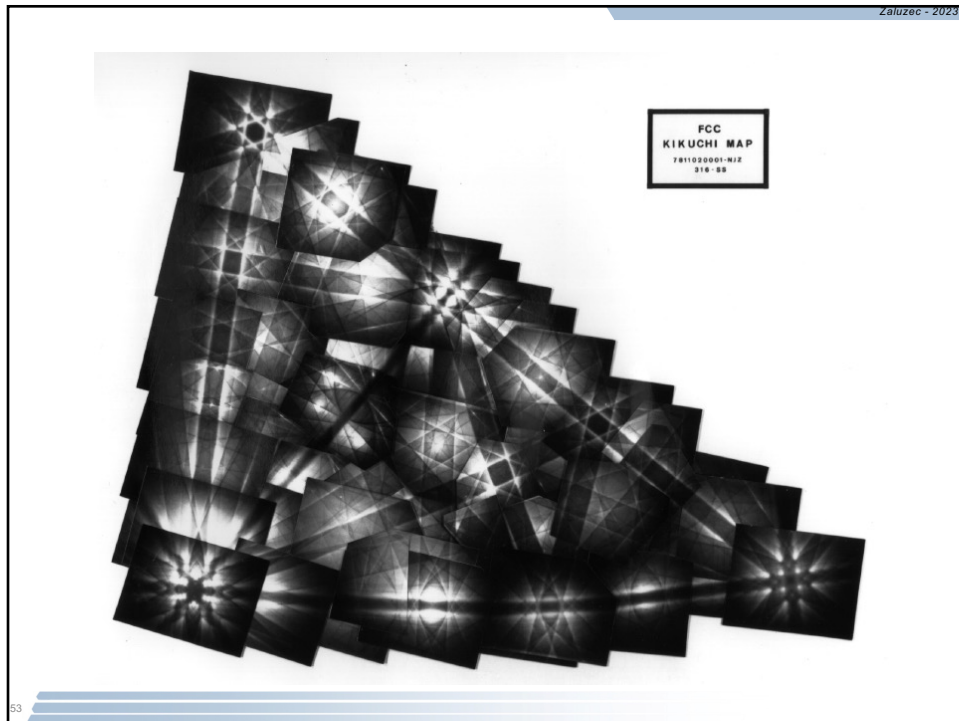
50



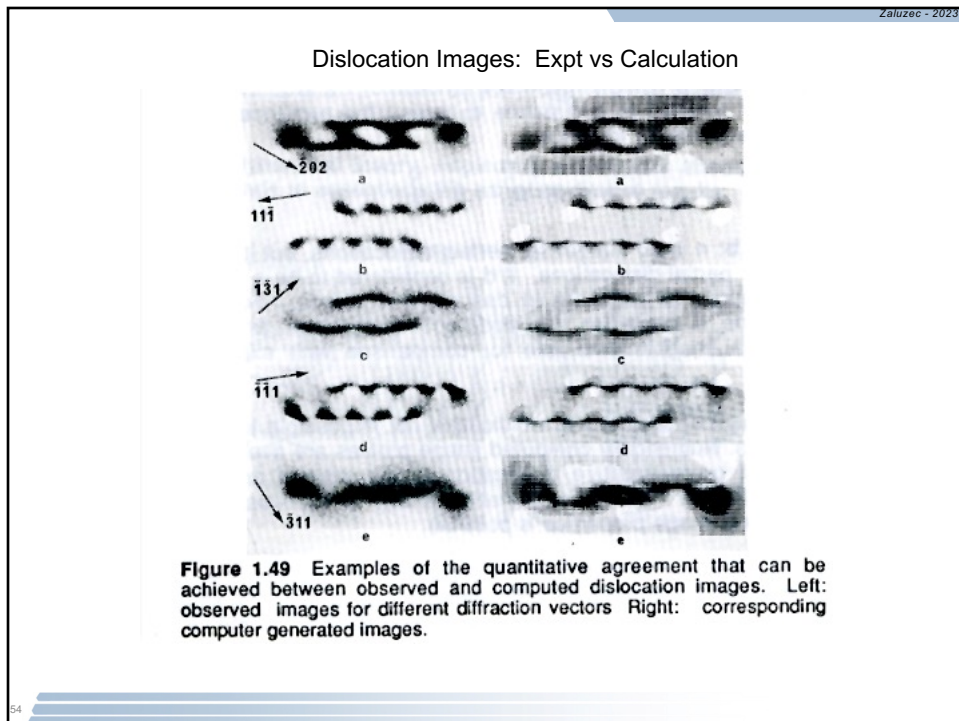
51



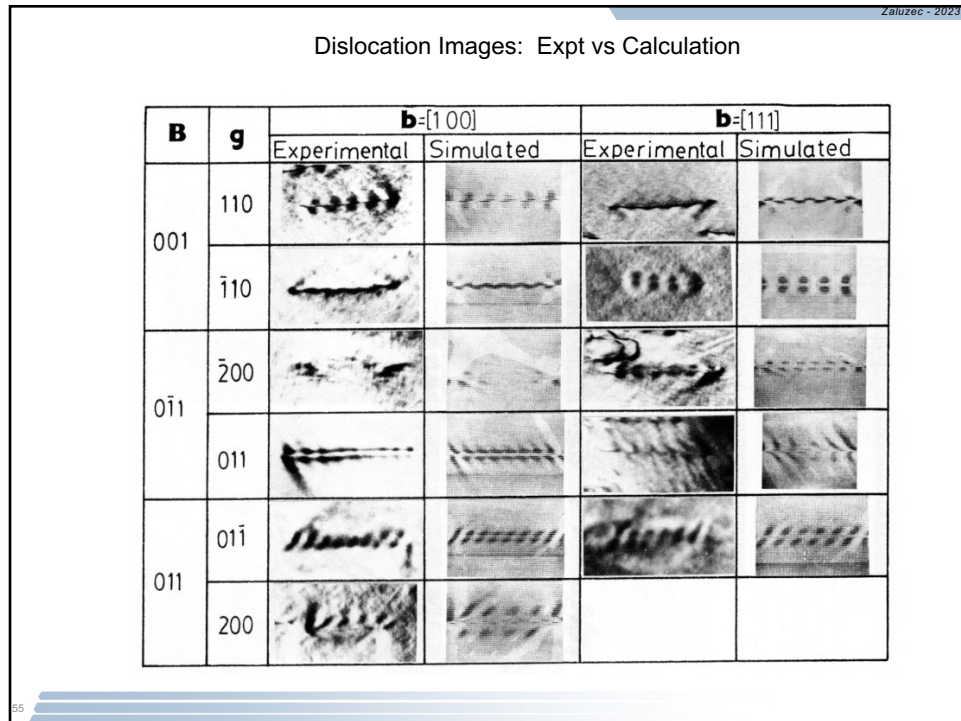
52



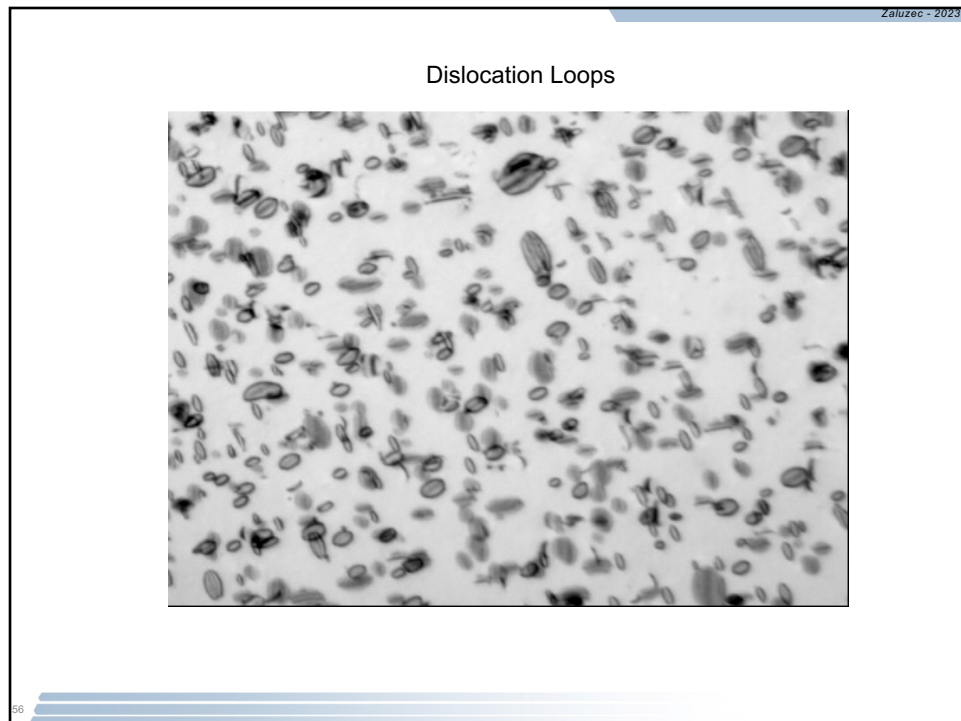
53



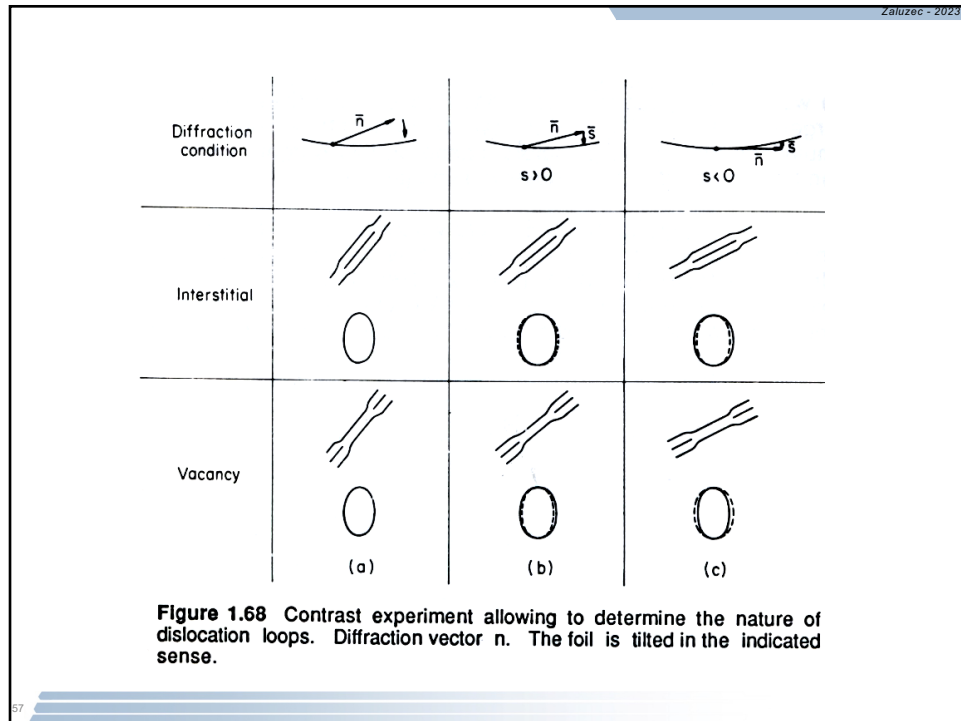
54



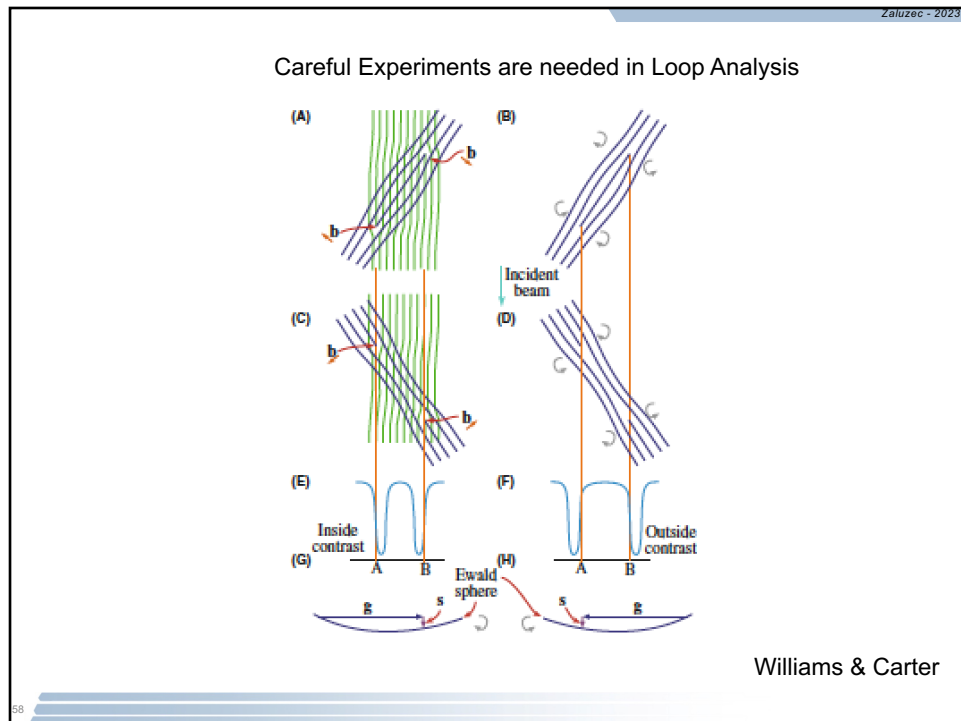
55



56



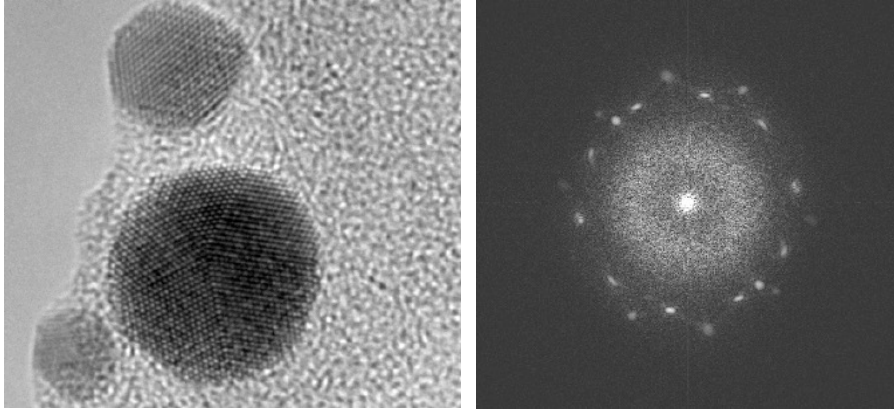
57



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HREM

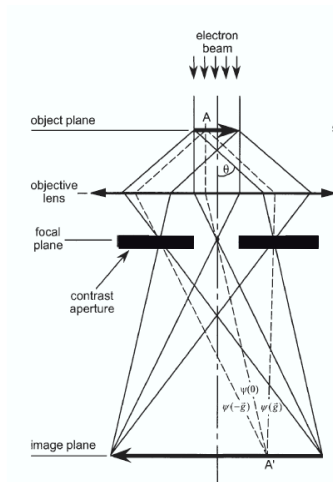
Phase Contrast Imaging



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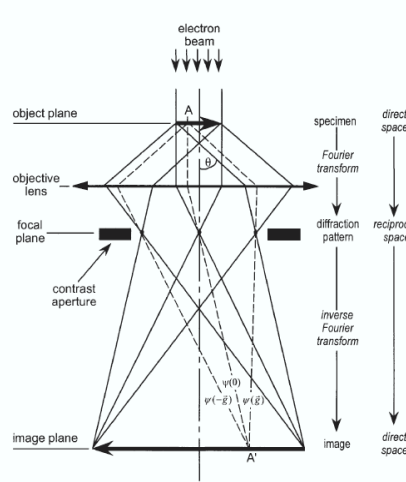
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Amplitude/Diffraction Contrast



Small Objective Aperture
 Intensities of either Unscattered
 Electrons or individual Scattering
 Events are used to form an Image
 Intensity from other Beams is lost

Phase Contrast



Large or No Objective Aperture
 Phases/Intensities of Scattered
 Electrons are combined to form an Image

60

60

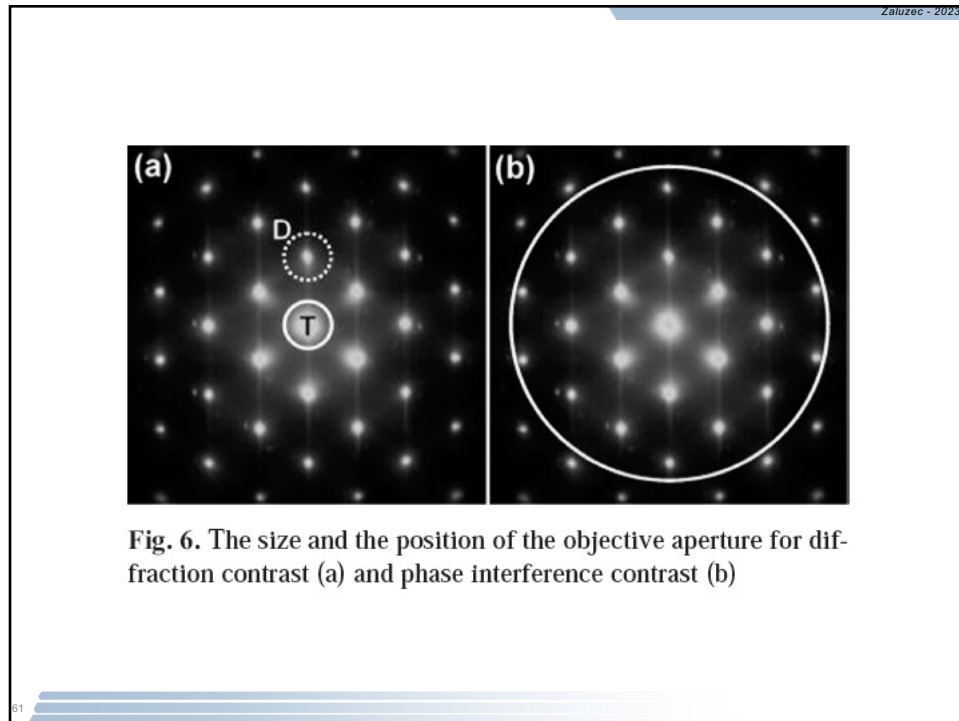


Fig. 6. The size and the position of the objective aperture for diffracted contrast (a) and phase interference contrast (b)

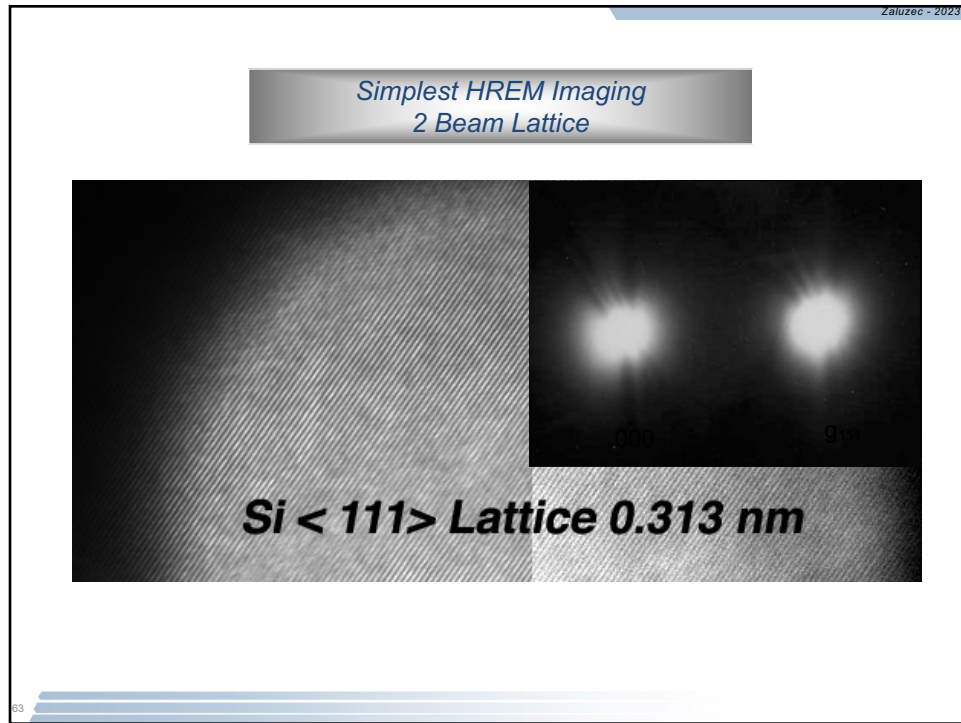
61

Image Formation in the High-Resolution TEM

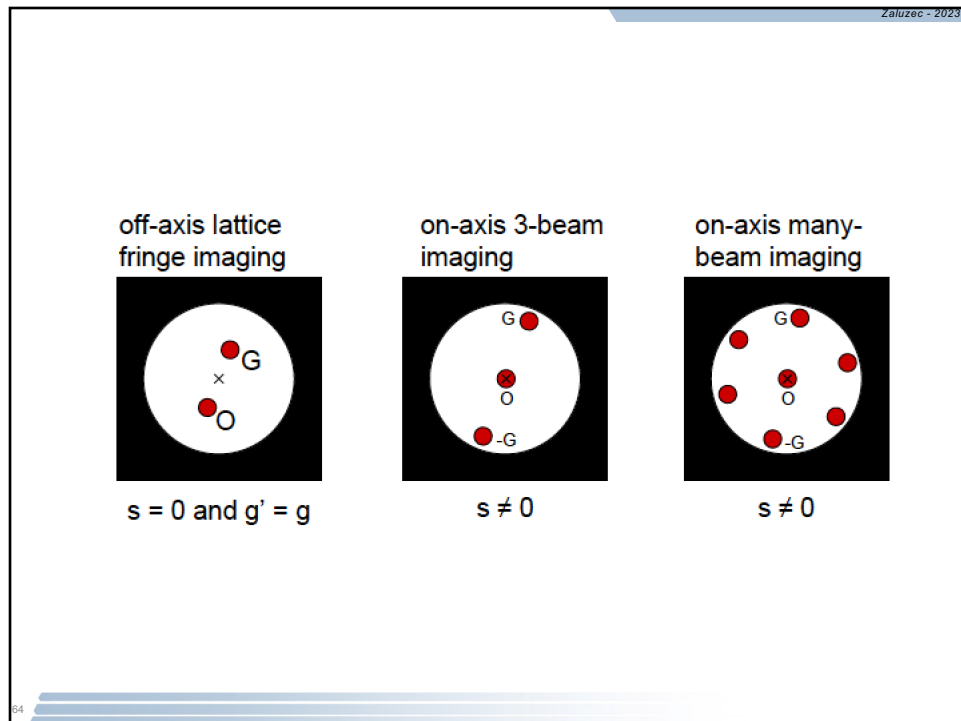
- In the high-resolution TEM, the incident electron beam interacts strongly with the crystal, forming multiple diffracted beams that are brought together by the objective lens so they can interfere to create an image.
- ***TEM images are able to depict the projected atom columns because they are interference patterns of the directly transmitted beam with beams diffracted from the specimen.***
- Structural information from the specimen is encoded in the phase of the scattered electron waves [5]. Although the electron phase is not an observable (it is not gauge invariant [6]), phase differences can be measured by interference experiments such as imaging.
- At the “optimum” or “extended Scherzer” defocus [7], objective lens phase shifts allow interference of the scattered electron waves exiting the specimen to turn the relative phases of the waves into image peaks mapping the atom positions (at the resolution of the microscope).

[5] J.M. Cowley, Diffraction Physics (1975) North Holland / American Elsevier.
 [6] H. Rose, Lectures on Charged Particle Optics, LBNL (2004)
 [7] O. Scherzer, J. Appl. Phys. 20 (1949) 20-29.

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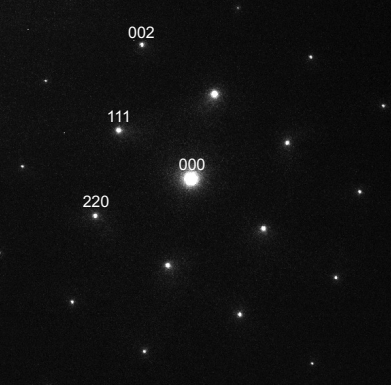
63



64

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Zone Axis Images
All the "diffracted beams" interfere

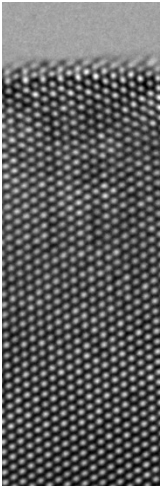
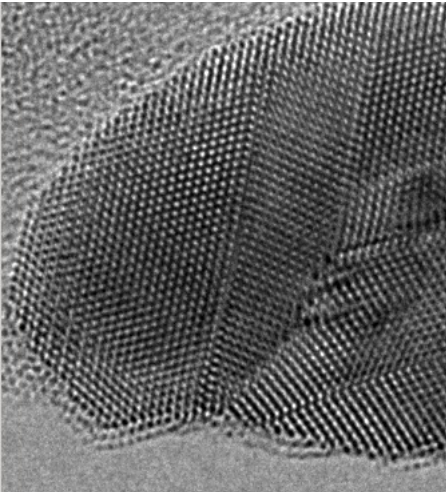
Silicon {110}
 $d_{\langle 111 \rangle} = 0.3134$
 $d_{\langle 220 \rangle} = 0.1919$
 $d_{\langle 002 \rangle} = 0.1635$

65
65

65

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Gold – HREM Images

Small Variations
in Orientation and Thickness

Significant Variations
in Orientation and Thickness

66
66

66

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incident electron wave

The diagram illustrates the propagation of an incident electron wave through a crystal lattice. On the left, a grid of circles represents the crystal lattice. To its right, a series of horizontal lines represent the wave's path, alternating between 'phase object' (indicated by a wavy line) and 'vacuum' (indicated by a straight line). To the right of this, a series of horizontal lines represent the wave's path, alternating between 'propagation' (indicated by a straight line) and 'phase shift' (indicated by a wavy line). The labels 'phase object' and 'vacuum' are repeated for each pair of lines, while 'propagation' and 'phase shift' are repeated for each pair of lines.

$$\psi(x, y)_r = \psi_m(x, y)_0 \exp\left(\sigma \int_0^r V(xy, z) dz\right) = \psi_m(x, y)_0 \exp(\sigma V_p(xy)_1)$$

$$\psi(x, y)_n = \frac{\exp ik'\epsilon}{\epsilon} \left[\psi_m(X, Y)_{n-1} \exp(\sigma V_p(X, Y)_n) \right] \otimes \exp\left[\frac{ik'\epsilon}{2\epsilon} (X^2 + Y^2)\right]$$

Phase of the exit wave depends upon the thickness & interference of the diffracted and transmitted beams in the specimen.

The diagram illustrates the propagation of an incident electron wave through a crystal lattice. On the left, a grid of circles represents the crystal lattice. To its right, a series of horizontal lines represent the wave's path, alternating between 'phase object' (indicated by a wavy line) and 'vacuum' (indicated by a straight line). To the right of this, a series of horizontal lines represent the wave's path, alternating between 'propagation' (indicated by a straight line) and 'phase shift' (indicated by a wavy line). The labels 'phase object' and 'vacuum' are repeated for each pair of lines, while 'propagation' and 'phase shift' are repeated for each pair of lines.

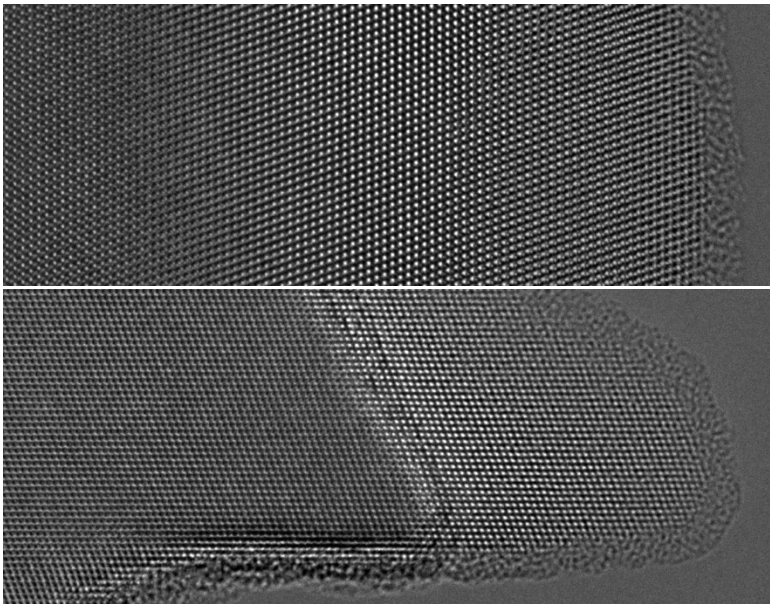
Dark
Atoms

White
Atoms

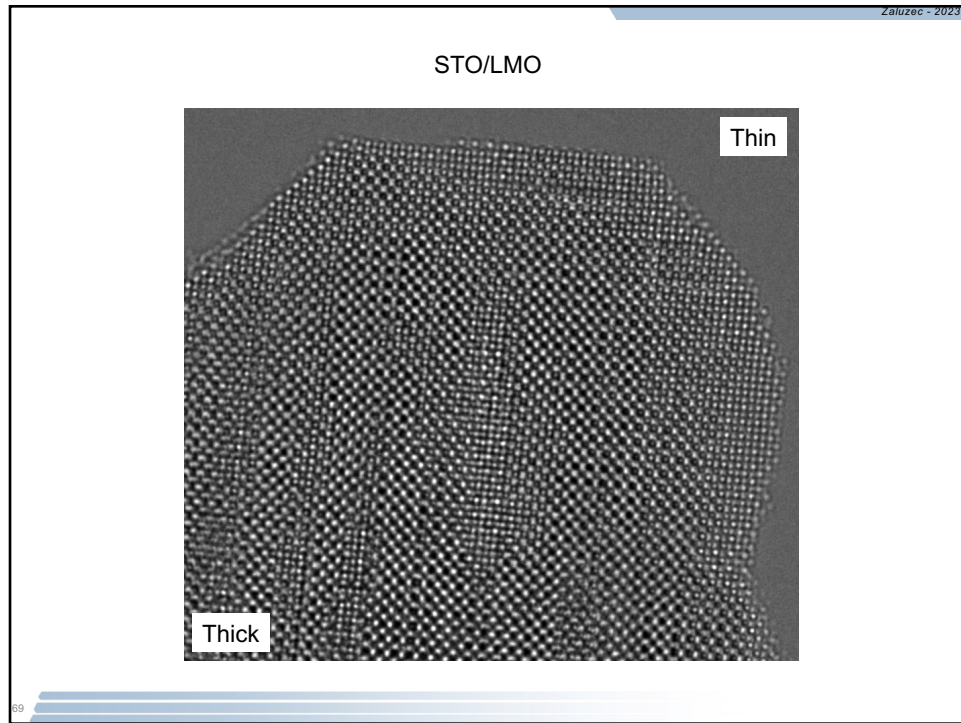
A micrograph showing a crystal lattice structure. The lattice is composed of dark and light regions, representing different atomic species. A green line is drawn across the lattice, indicating a specific direction of propagation or a boundary.

87

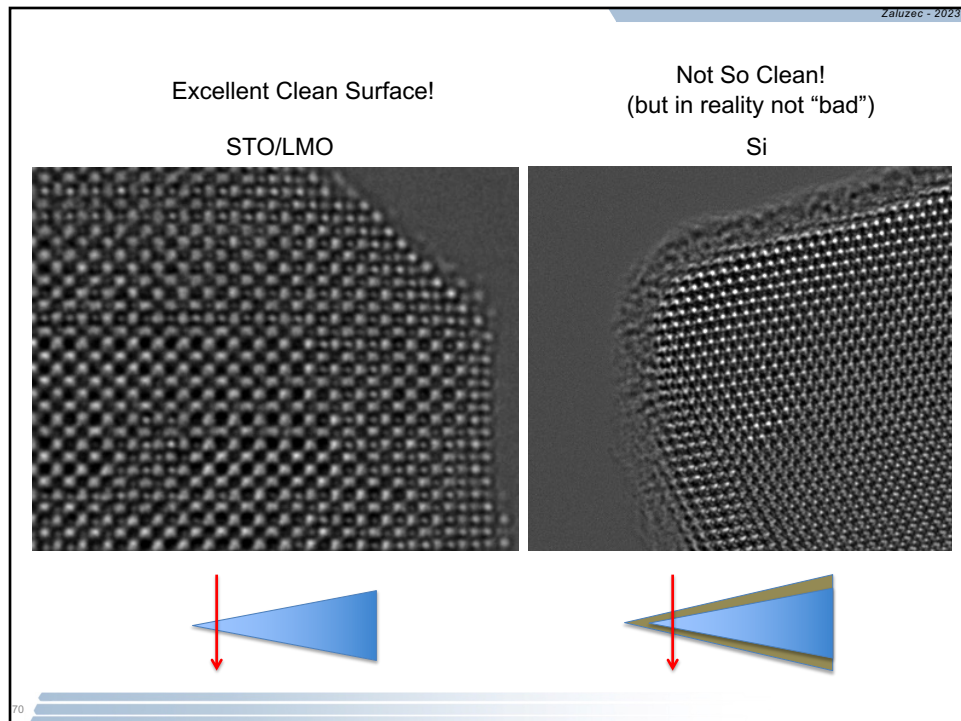
Silicon {110} – Variable Thickness
Amorphous Material at Edge



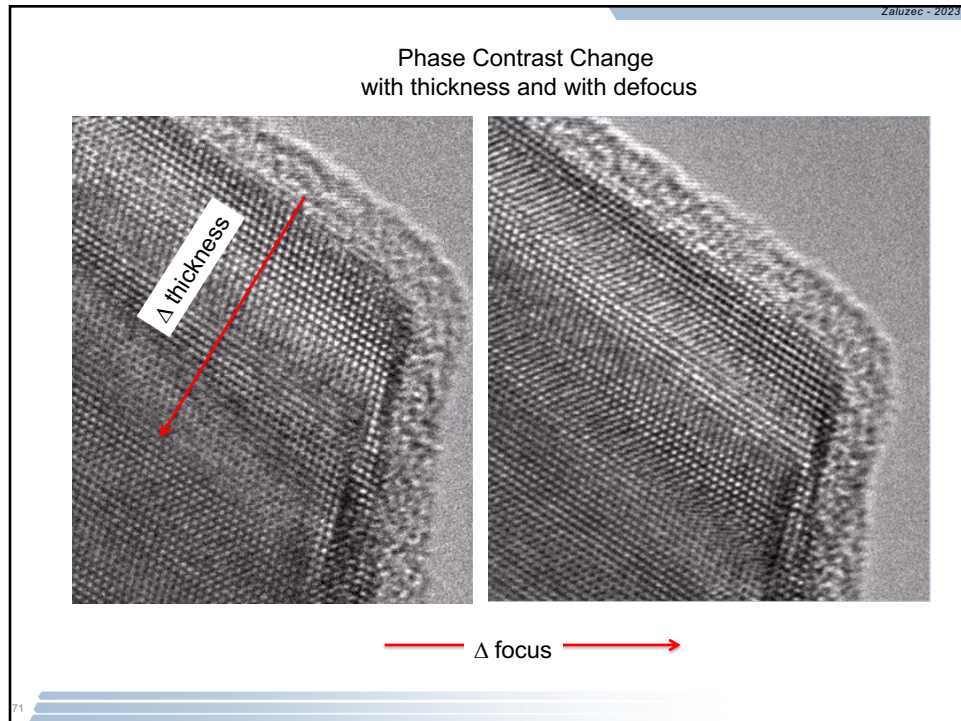
The figure consists of two high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) images of Silicon {110}. The top image shows a well-ordered lattice of silicon atoms, with the thickness of the crystalline region varying across the field of view. The bottom image shows a similar lattice structure, but with a distinct region of amorphous material visible at the edge, characterized by a lack of long-range order and a more diffuse appearance.



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To interpret HREM you MUST calculate the EXIT wave function
then compare with experimental images

jems Student Edition
(version 4.1830U2014)
Windows XP & Mac OS X versions

CaF₂ parallel projection.

<http://www.jems-saas.ch>

Pierre Stadelmann
pierre.stadelmann@epfl.ch

E-mail: jems.saas@gmail.com
info@jems-saas.ch

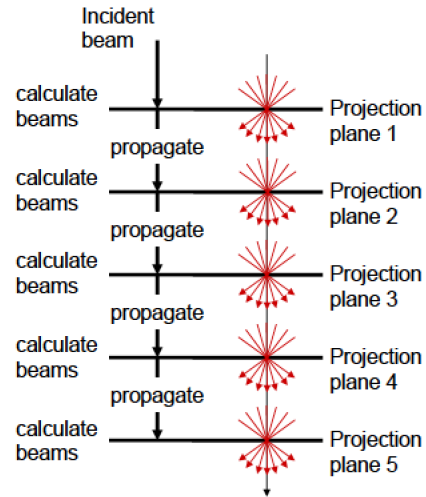
Address: JEMS-SAAS
Dr. P. Stadelmann
Obere Lomattenstrasse 33
CH-3906 Saas-Fee
Switzerland

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72

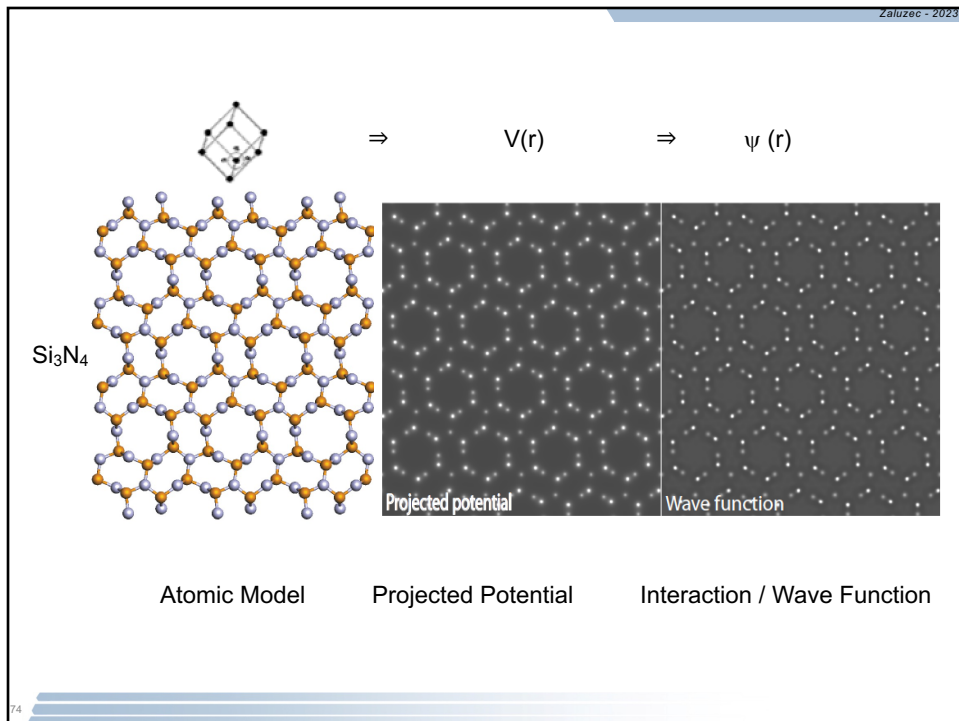
Multislice Method

1. divide the sample up into thin slices
2. project the potential of a slice onto a plane within that slice: this a phase grating
3. calculate the amplitudes and phases of all the beams resulting from the incident beam interacting with the projected potential
4. propagate these beams through the microscope until they reach the next slice
5. Calculate a new set of beams



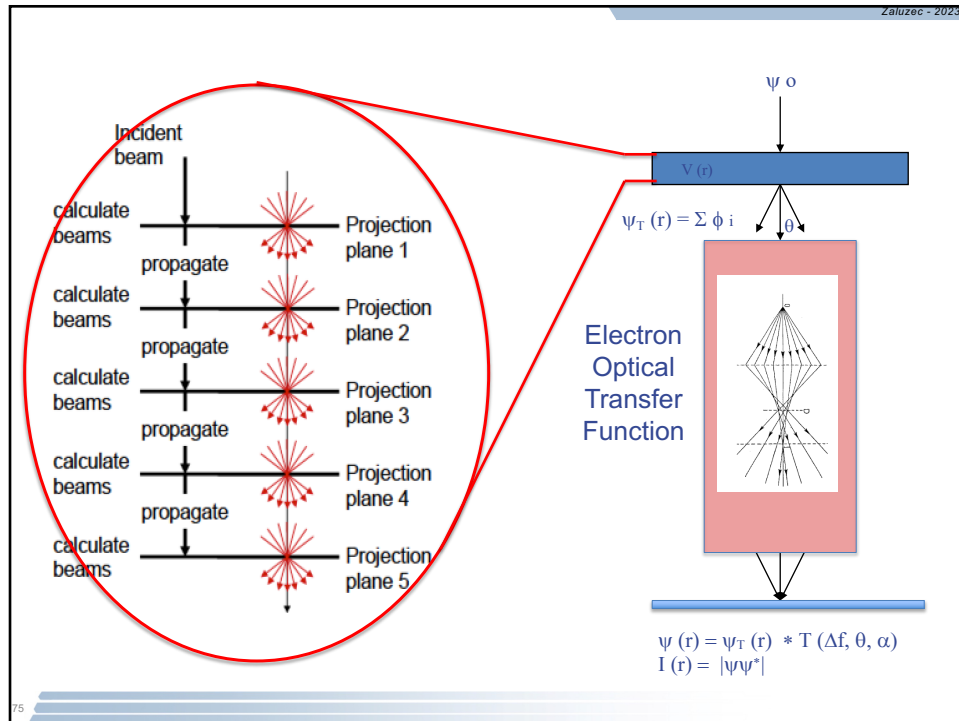
73

73

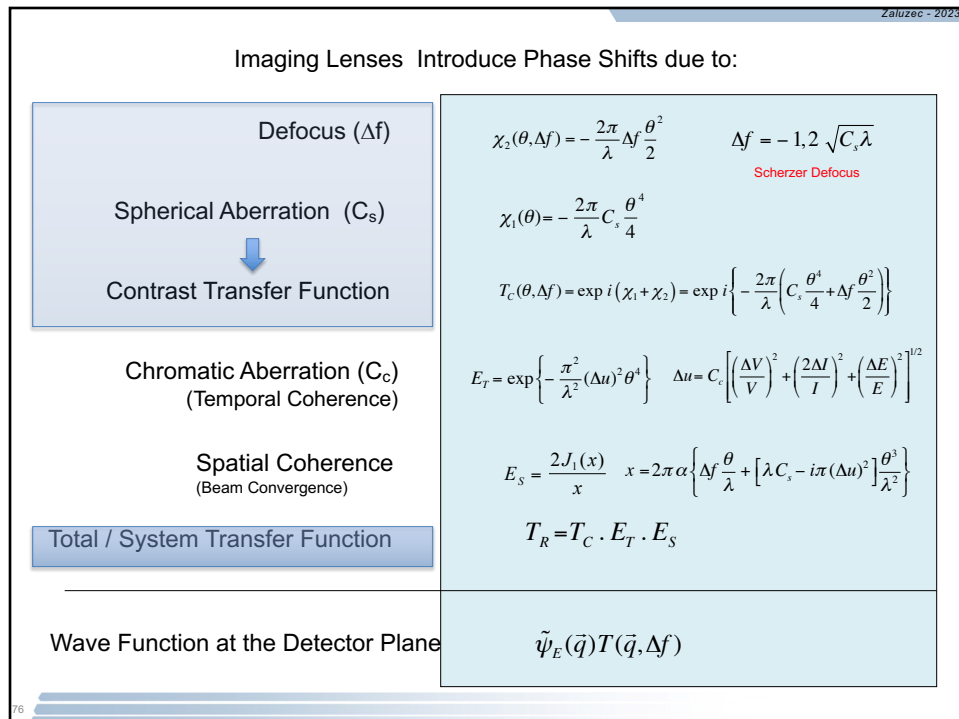


74

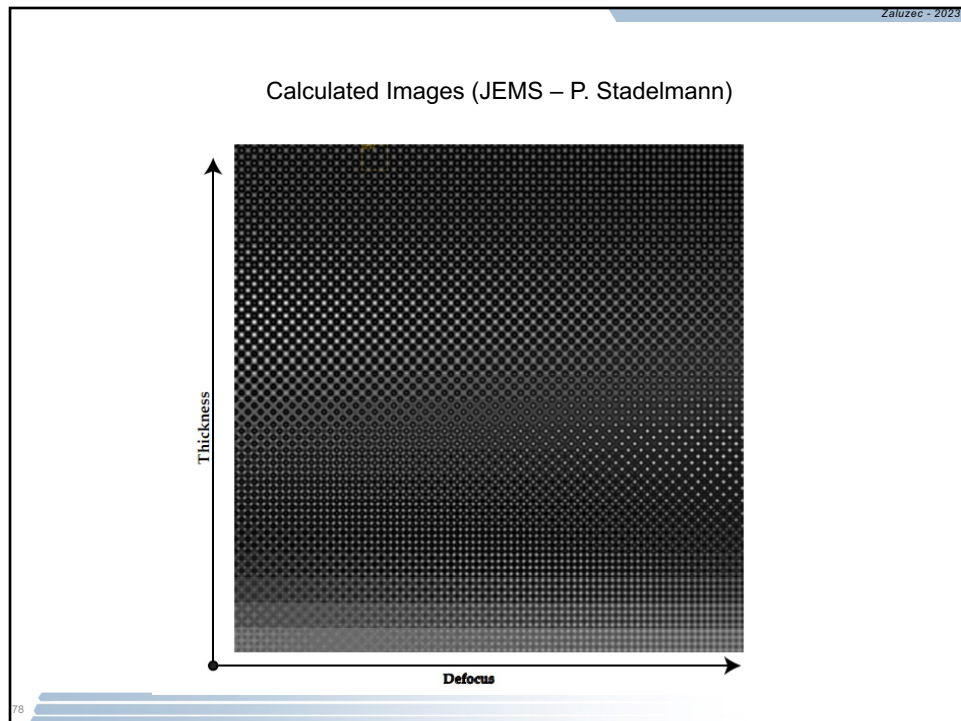
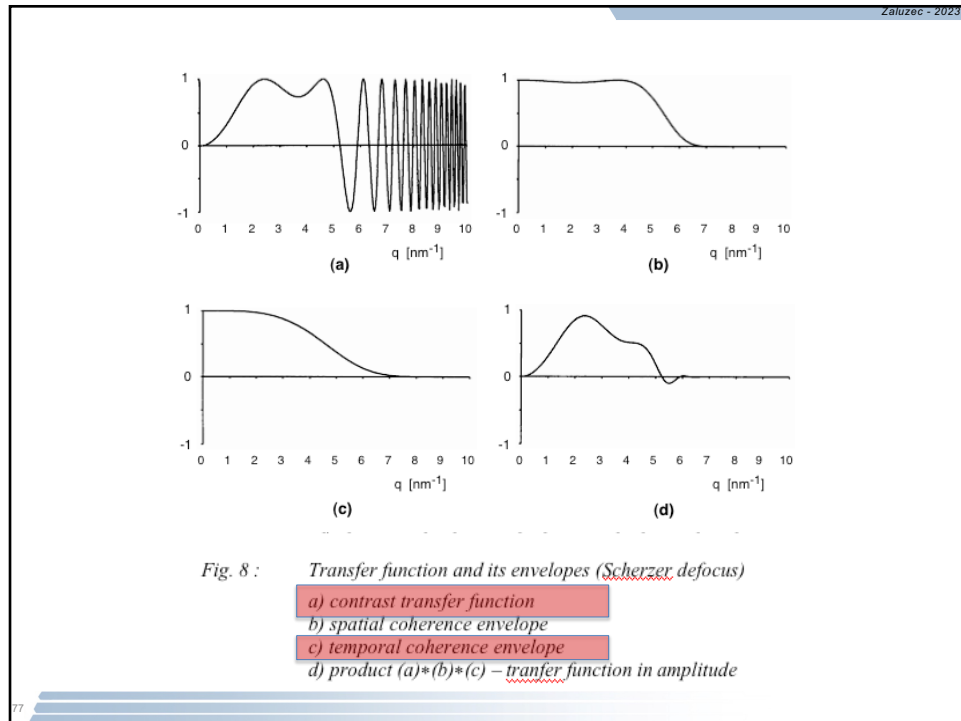
74

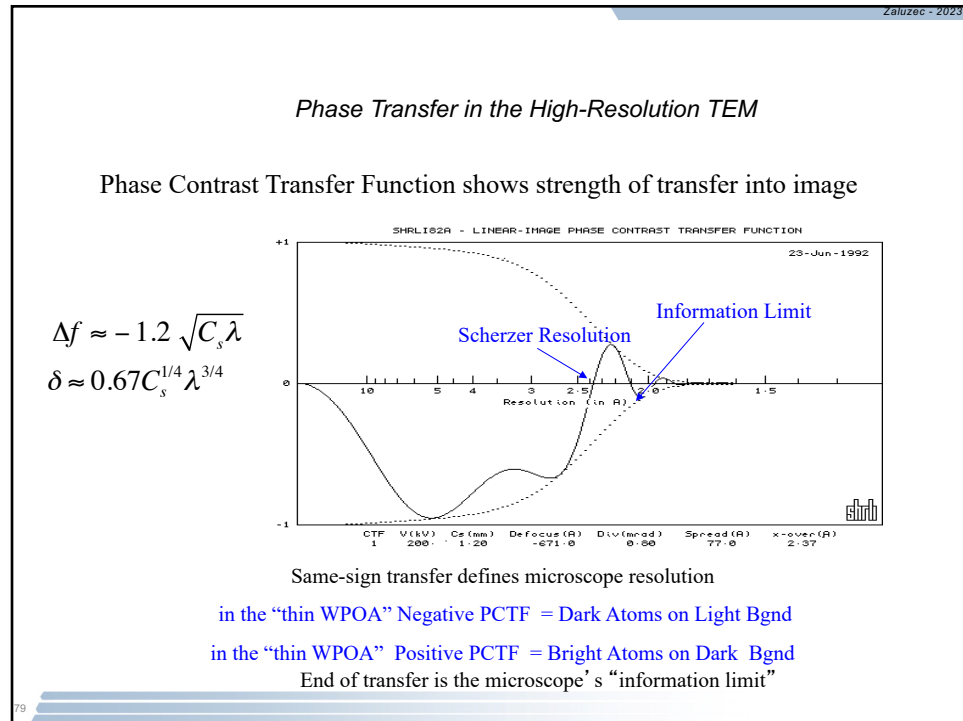


75

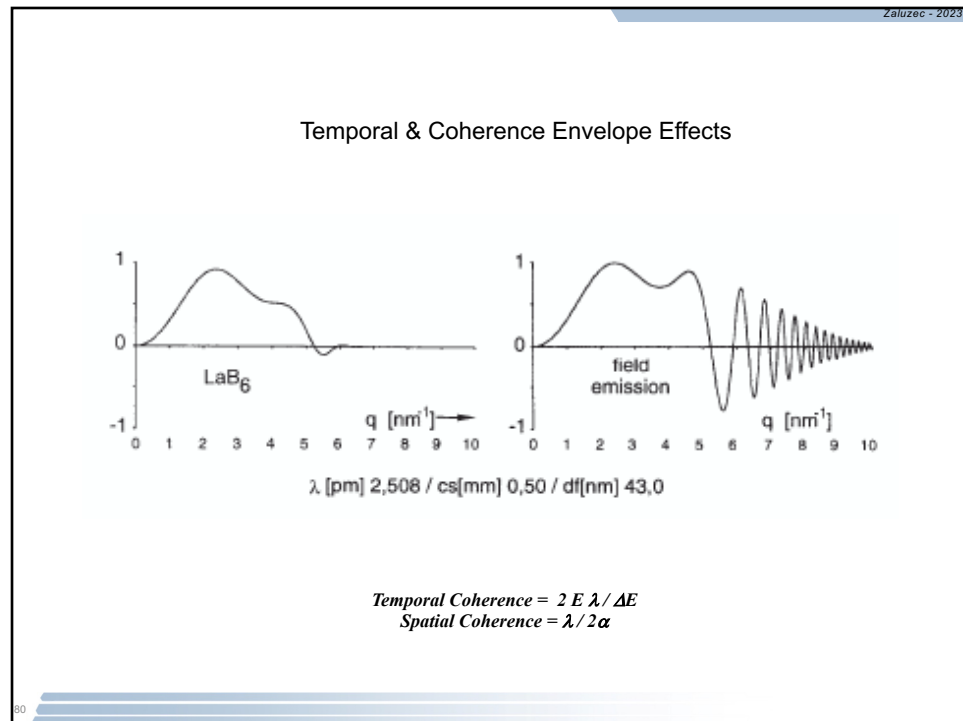


76

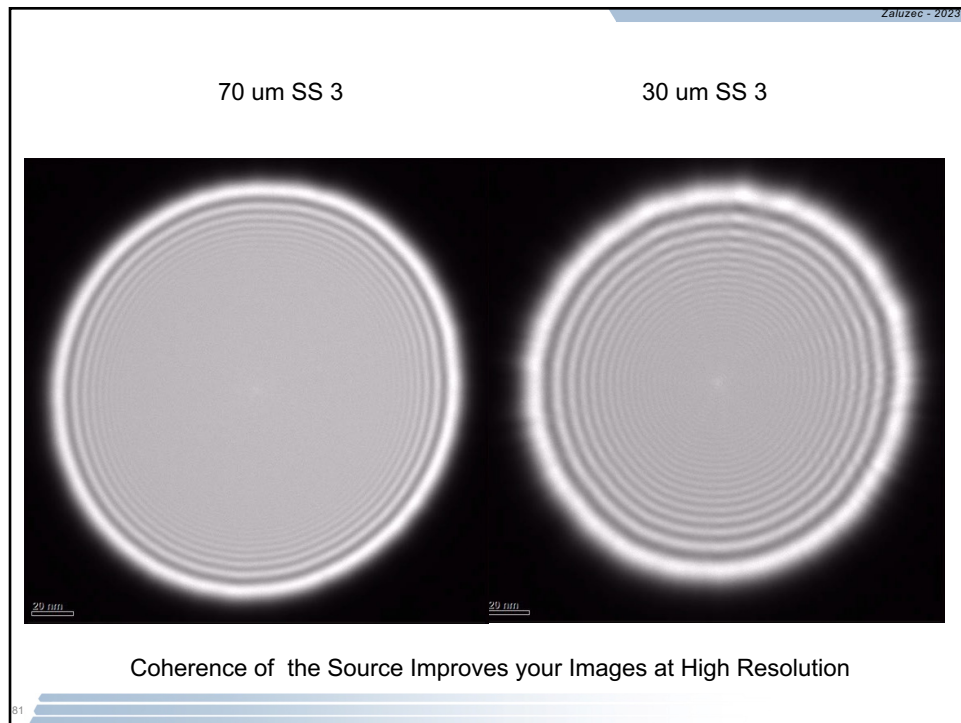




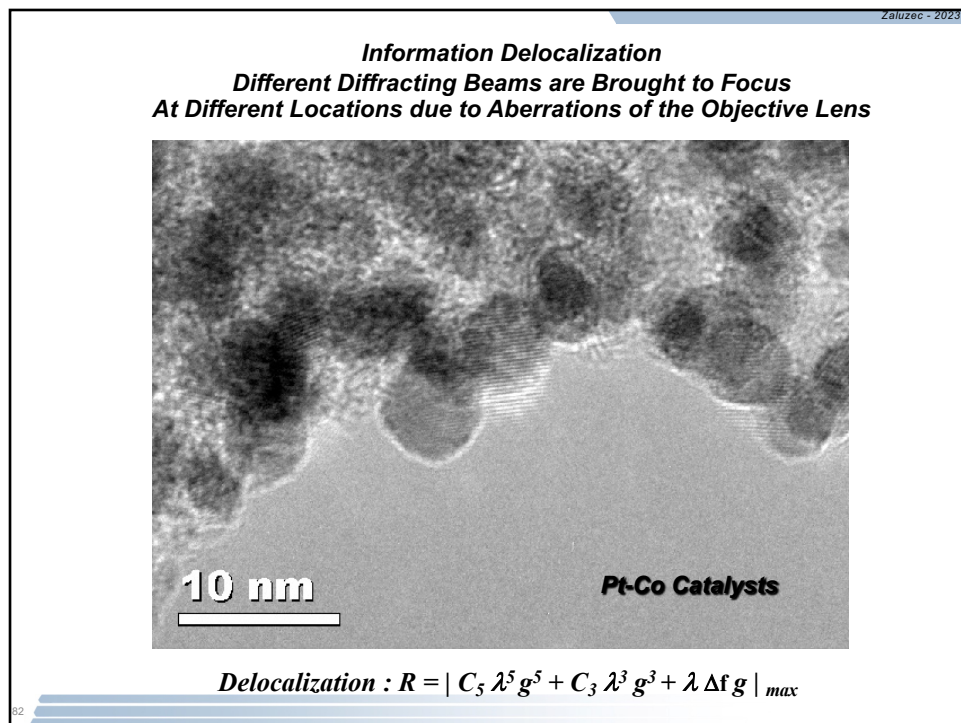
79



80



81

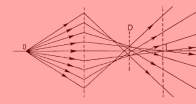


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What are the limitations in Elastic/Inelastic Imaging & Spectroscopy ?

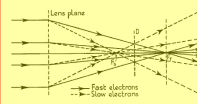
Aberrations

- Spherical



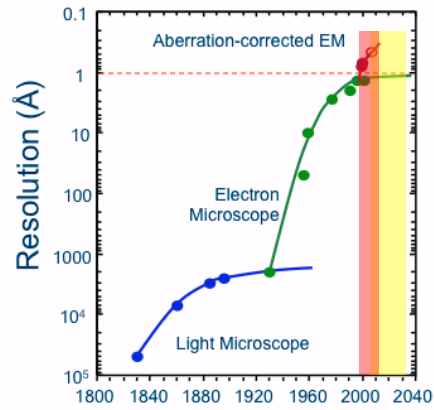
$$r_{sph} = C_s \beta^3$$

- Chromatic



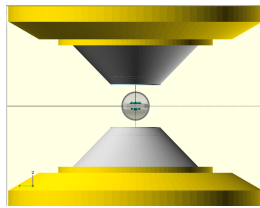
$$r_{chr} = C_c \frac{\Delta E}{E} \beta$$

The source and solution to “resolution limitations” has been known for nearly 50 years



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EM Imaging
w / wo Image Corrector



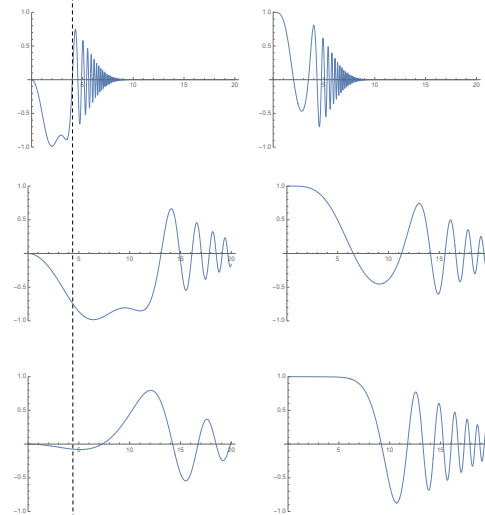
C₁ -84 nm
C_s 2.7 mm
C_c -2mm
E₀ 300 kV

C₁ -8 nm
C_s 25 μm
C_c -2mm
E₀ 300 kV

C₁ -1 nm
C_s 10 μm
C_c 2mm
E₀ 200 kV

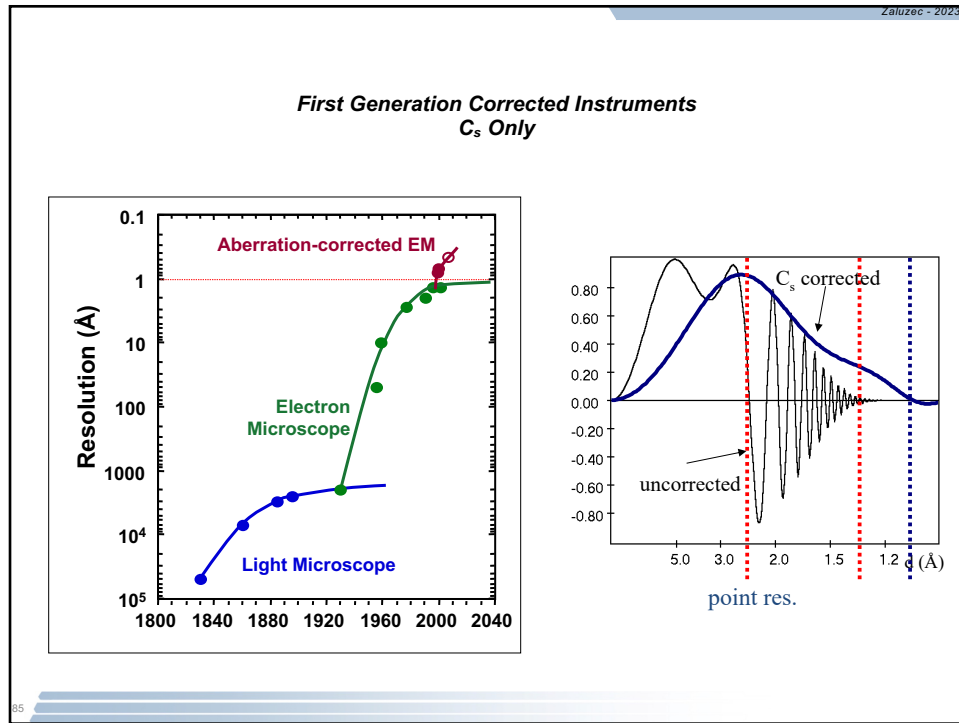
PCTF

ACTF



Using δf , C_s , C_c now have a new tool for Manipulating Contrast

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Hyperspectral Imaging & Spectroscopy A view from the Trenches Where are the game changers?

- C_s Correction is now routine !
- C_c Correction is it important ?
 - exists only at limited number of Institutions
 - wrt to resolution has largest impact on lower voltages
 - What else does aberration correction impact – Contrast!

C_s Only

~1.4 Å

$C_s + C_c$

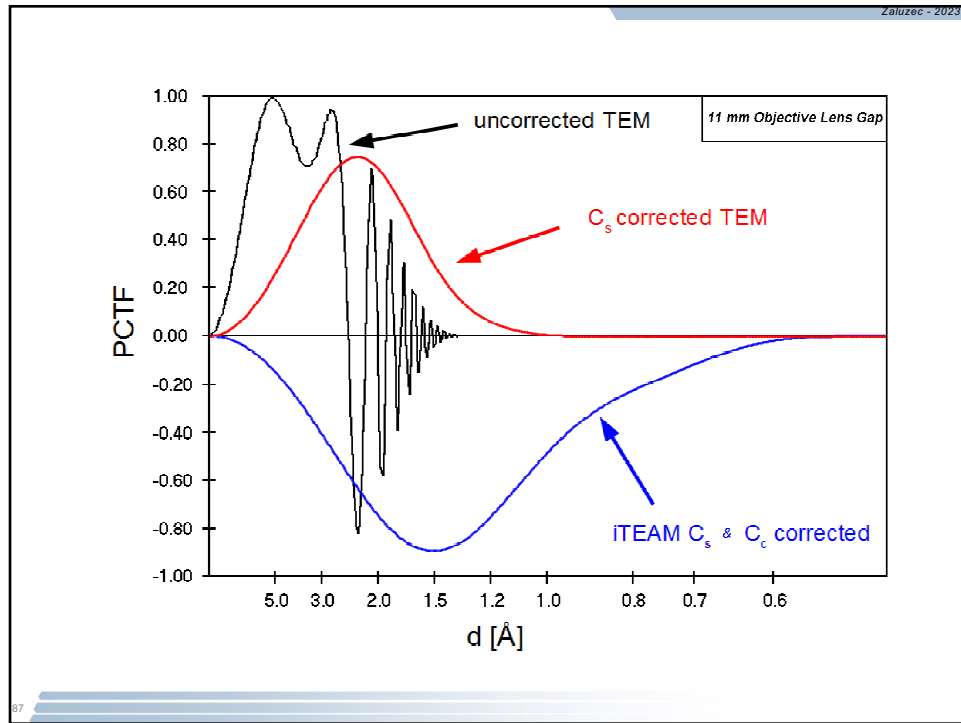
~1.0 Å

80 kV

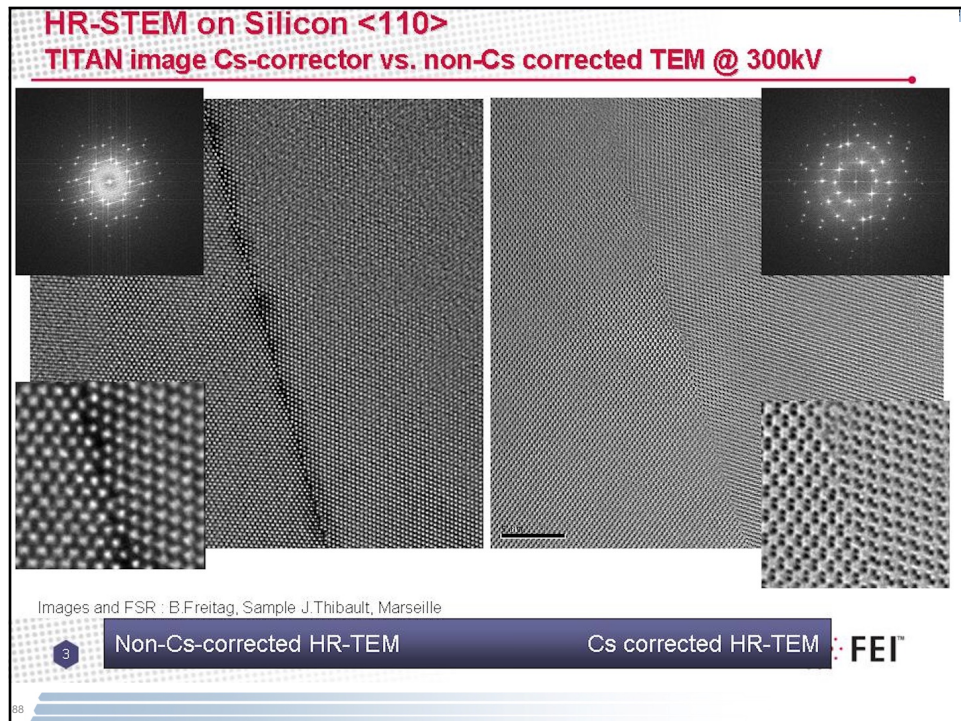
Argonne Chromatic Aberration-corrected TEM (ACAT)

86

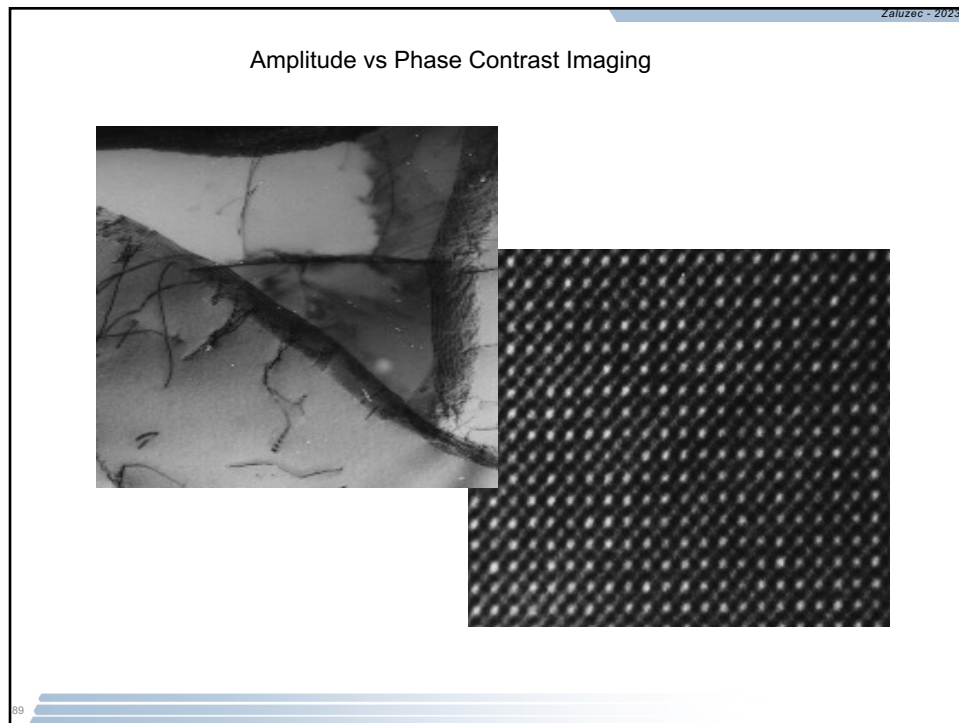
86



87



88



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C_s Correction is Phase Correction HREM “Phase Contrast” is the most common mode

- To get information beyond Scherzer resolution requires a “correction” of the phase changes introduced by spherical aberration.
- Correction may be by hardware, or by software such as focal-series reconstruction of the exit-surface wave.
- Early focal-series reconstruction methods used simple linear combinations of image intensities at different spatial frequencies to correct for spherical aberration and extend microscope resolution.

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Contrast & Information Transfer: TEM

Contrast Transfer function

$$T_{\text{phase}}(q) = \sin\left(\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}\left(\frac{1}{2}C_1\lambda^2q^2 + \frac{1}{4}C_3\lambda^4q^4 + \frac{1}{6}C_5\lambda^6q^6 + \frac{1}{8}C_7\lambda^8q^8\right)\right) * E_t * E_s;$$

$$T_{\text{amplitude}}(q) = \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{\lambda}\left(\frac{1}{2}C_1\lambda^2q^2 + \frac{1}{4}C_3\lambda^4q^4 + \frac{1}{6}C_5\lambda^6q^6 + \frac{1}{8}C_7\lambda^8q^8\right)\right) * E_t * E_s;$$

E_t : damping envelope of temporal coherence

E_s : damping envelope of spatial coherence

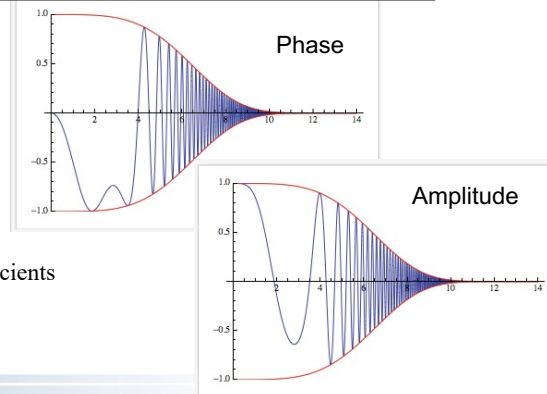
C_1 : defocus - Δf

C_3 : Spherical Aberration Coefficient

C_5, C_7 : Higher Order Aberration Coefficients

Information limit:

temporal coherence $\rightarrow C_c, \Delta E$



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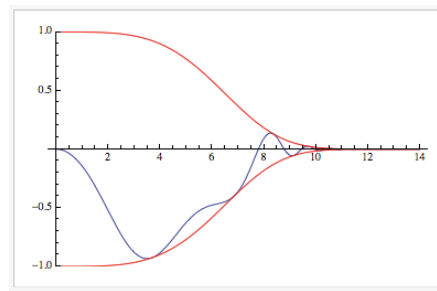
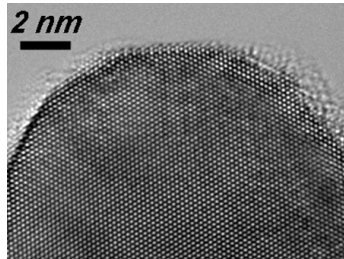
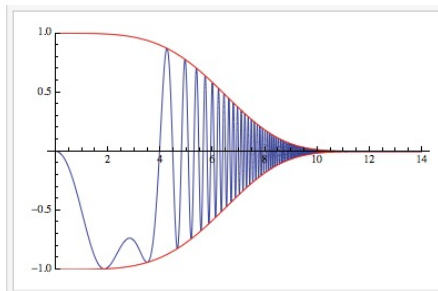
Aberration Correction & Conventional HREM – Phase Contrast

$$C_1 = \delta f$$

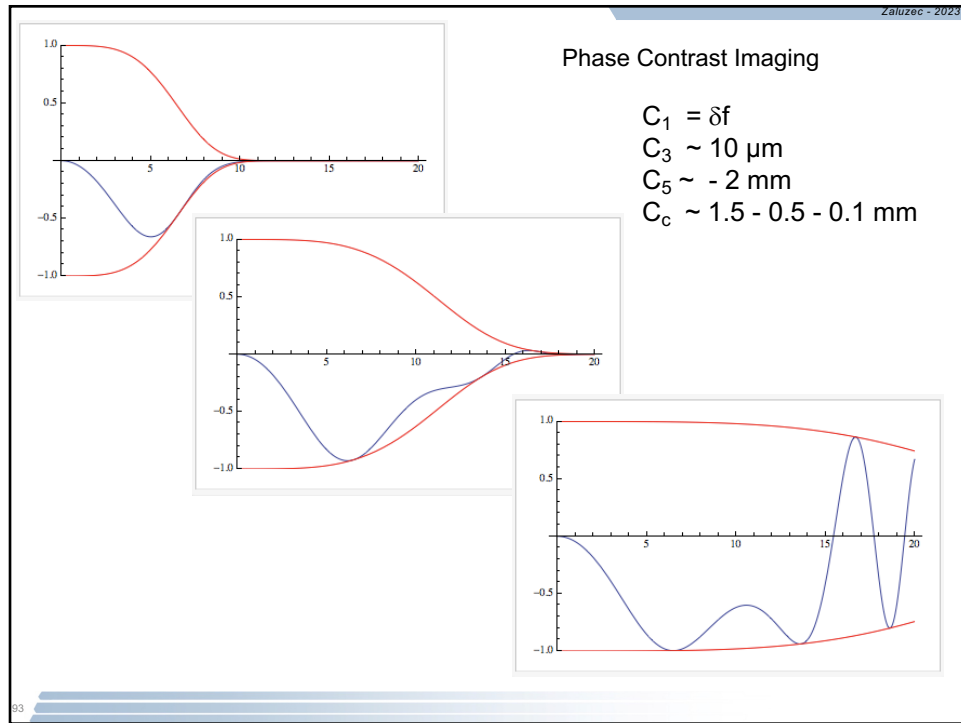
$$C_3 \text{ 1.5} \rightarrow 0.1 \text{ mm}$$

$$C_c \sim 1.5 \text{ mm}$$

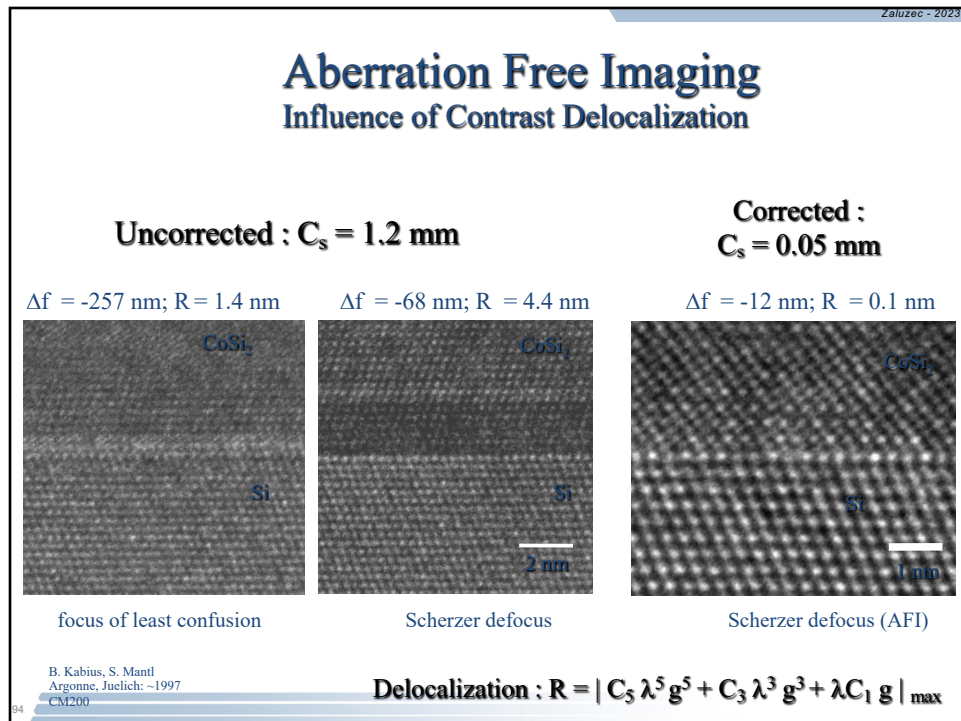
$$C_5 \sim -2 \text{ mm}$$



92



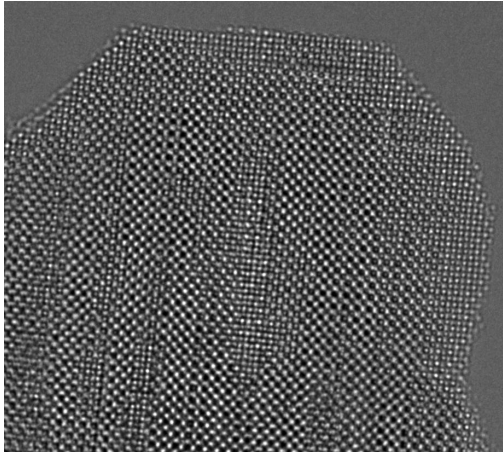
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C_s/C_c Aberration Corrections also further helps to minimizes delocalization

$$\Delta R_{\text{coe}} = \lambda g(C_1 + C_c \Delta E/E_0 + C_s(\lambda g)^2 + C_5(\lambda g)^4)$$


STO-LMO

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Positive Phase Contrast Imaging

Dark Atoms

White Atoms

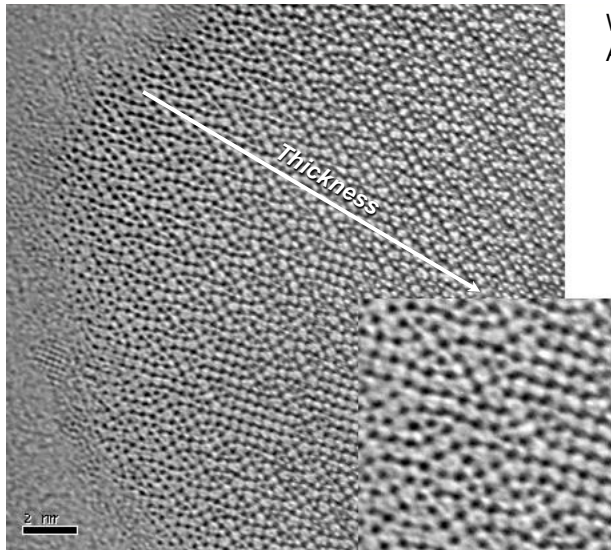
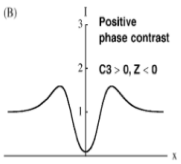


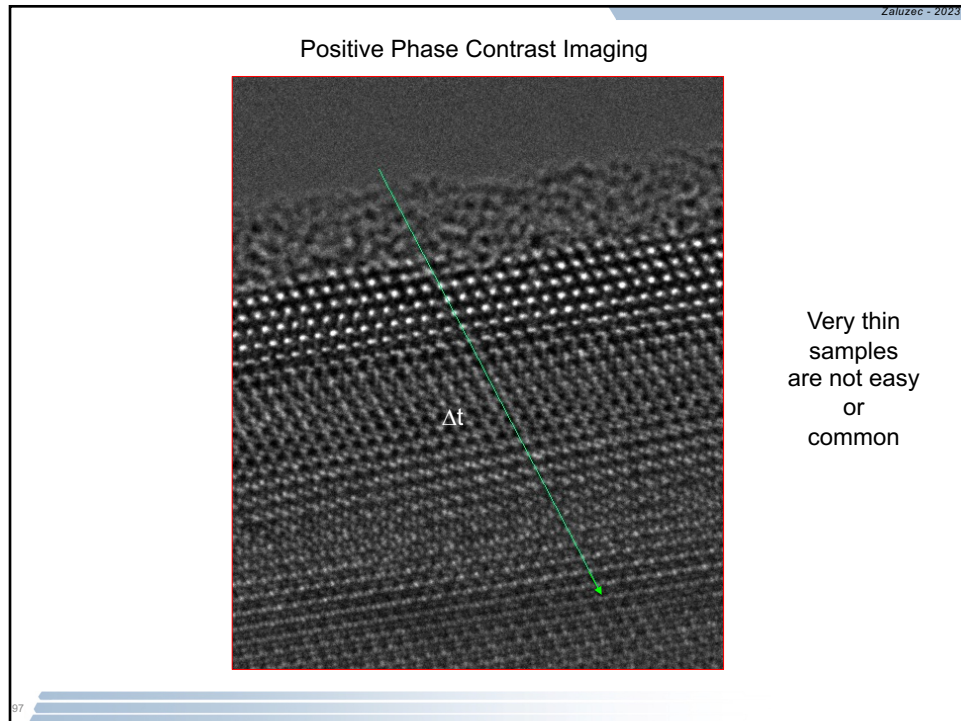
Image : B.Freitag

(B)

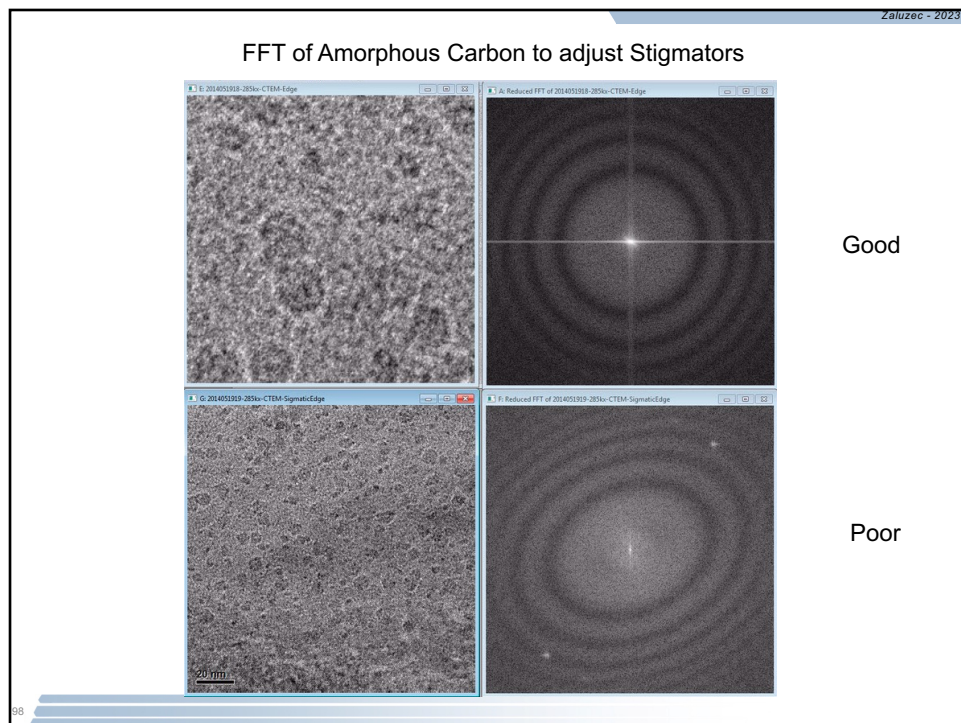


96

96



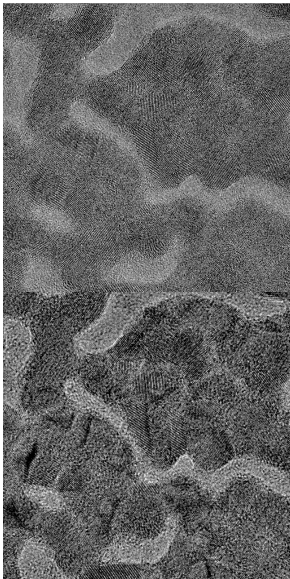
97



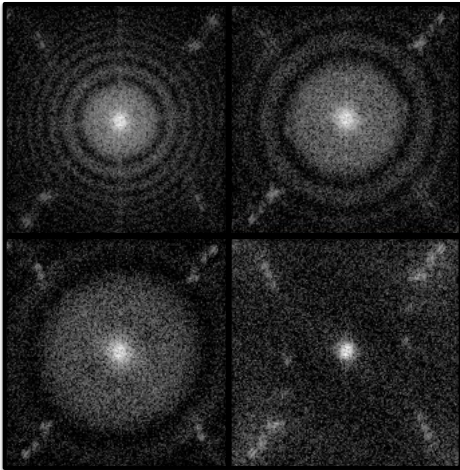
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Which Image is in Focus



Scherzer Focus using FFT



“1st Dark FFT Ring” at the Periphery of the FFT
⇒ Maximizing the information transfer

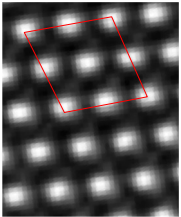
99

99

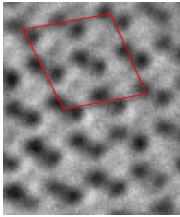
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Ultra High Resolution is not “trivial” even with a Corrector

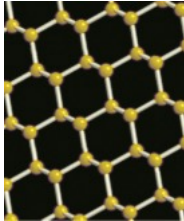
Sample must be very thin and the alignments both
of the instrument and the specimen excellent



Thick & Just out
of Alignment



Thin &
Aligned
(but not perfectly)



Si
{110}

..... and for UHREM direct structural correspondence
is not common ⇒ you should expect to do an image simulation/calculation !!!

100

100

Direct structural interpretation of phase contrast imaging is most cases elusive.

Iterative image simulation is almost always required.

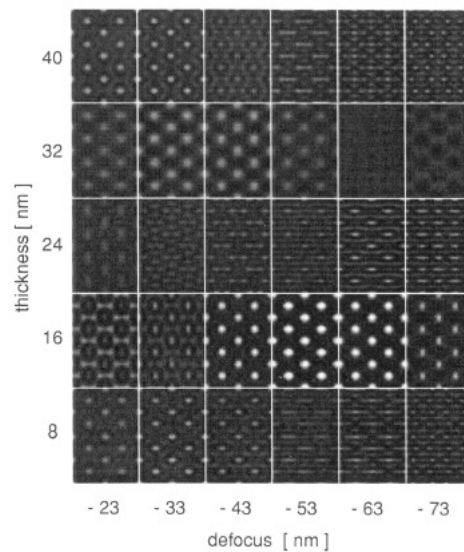
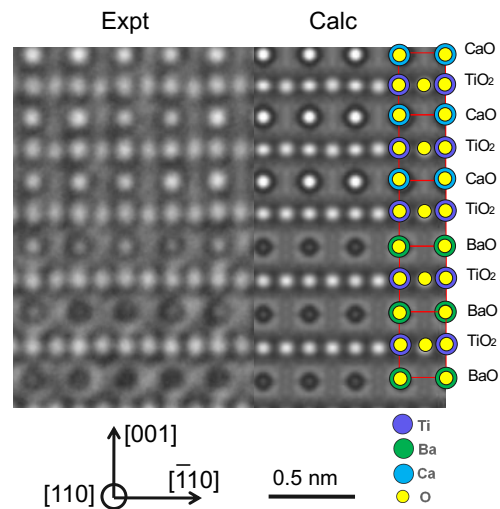


Fig. 15. A defocus - thickness map of the Fe_3Al intermetallics

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HREM Image Simulation

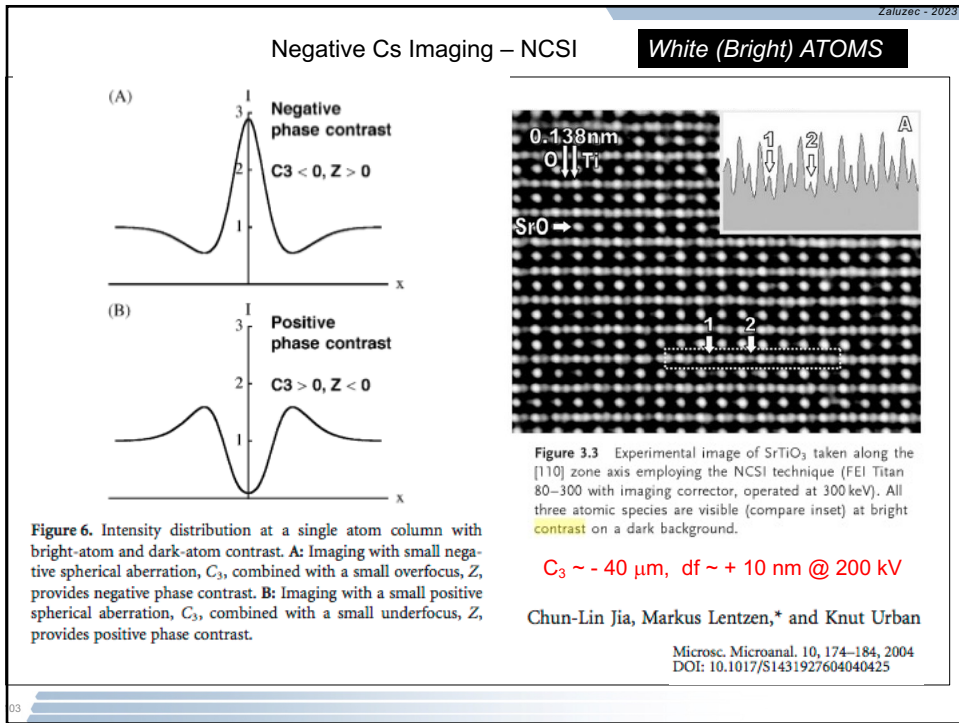


HREM image simulation using JEMS with multislice method. Major simulation parameters are: Cs: $3 \mu\text{m}$, C5: -1.79 mm , Cc = $1 \mu\text{m}$. Thickness: 10 nm , defocus: 3 nm . Energy spread: 0.8 eV .

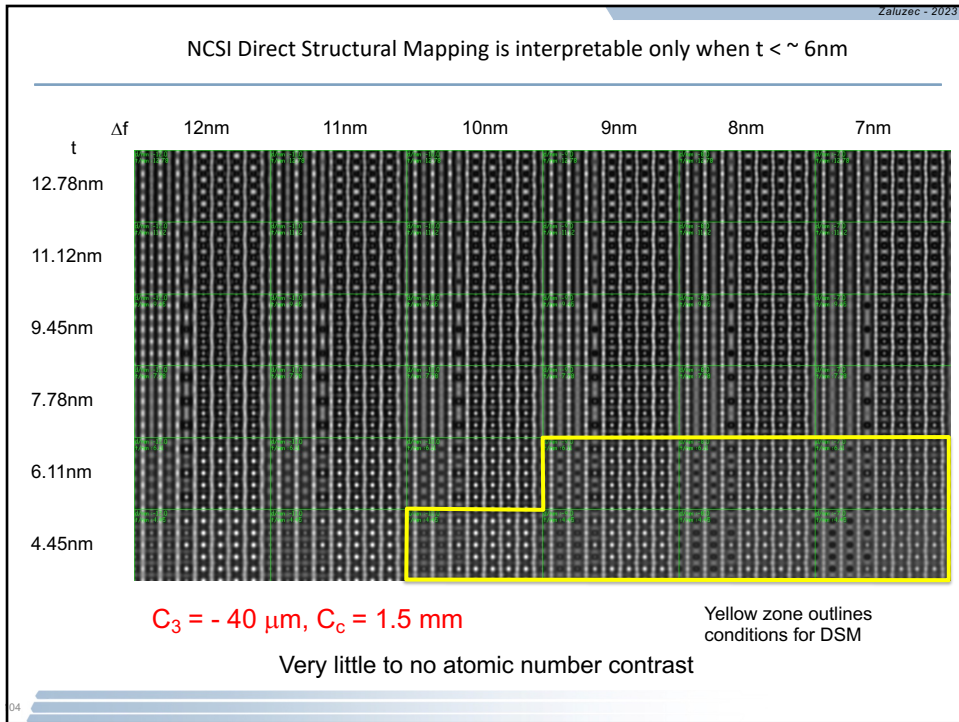
The Ba/O columns show dark contrast in the middle surrounded by white ring, while the Ca/O columns are opposite. Note the Ba/O or Ca/O columns at interface show different contrast as inside sublayer due to the mixture of Ba and Ca.

JG Wen ANL Electron Microscopy Center

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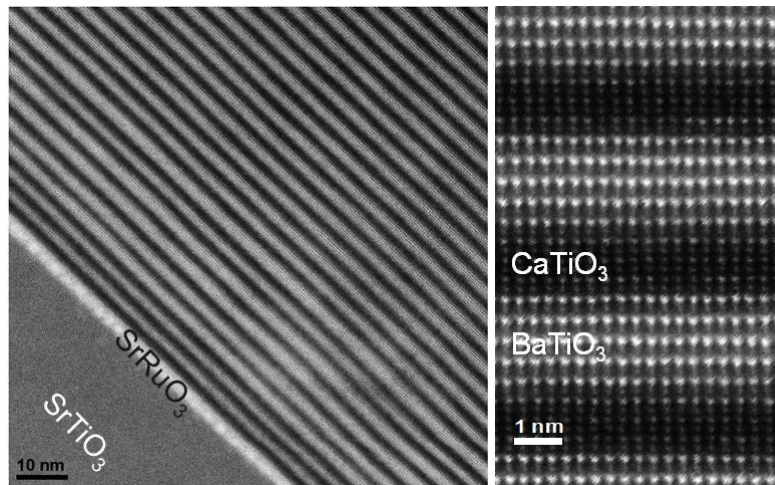


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There are other contrast mechanisms in your “tool box”



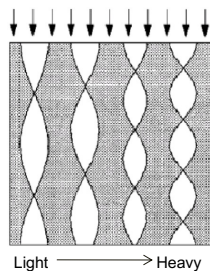
STEM – HAADF Images
can also include “Z-contrast”

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Amplitude Contrast Imaging Technique Sensitive to Channeling

Channeling Theory

When crystal is aligned along zone axis, the interaction of electrons with an atom column is very strong. Due to the strong electrostatic potential of the atoms, an atom column acts as a channel for the incoming electrons. By passing through successive atoms, the electron wave oscillates along channeling direction as shown below. This oscillation length, called extinction distance, is a function of the average mass density of the column, depending on chemical composition and zone axis.

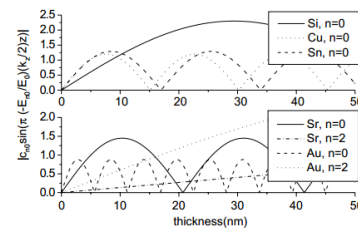


Schematic diagram of electron channeling

extinction distance

$$D_{1S} = \alpha \left[\frac{d^2}{Z} + 0.276B \right]$$

α , a constant
 d , distance between successive atoms along column
 Z , atomic number
 B , Debye-Waller factor



Examples of extinction distances

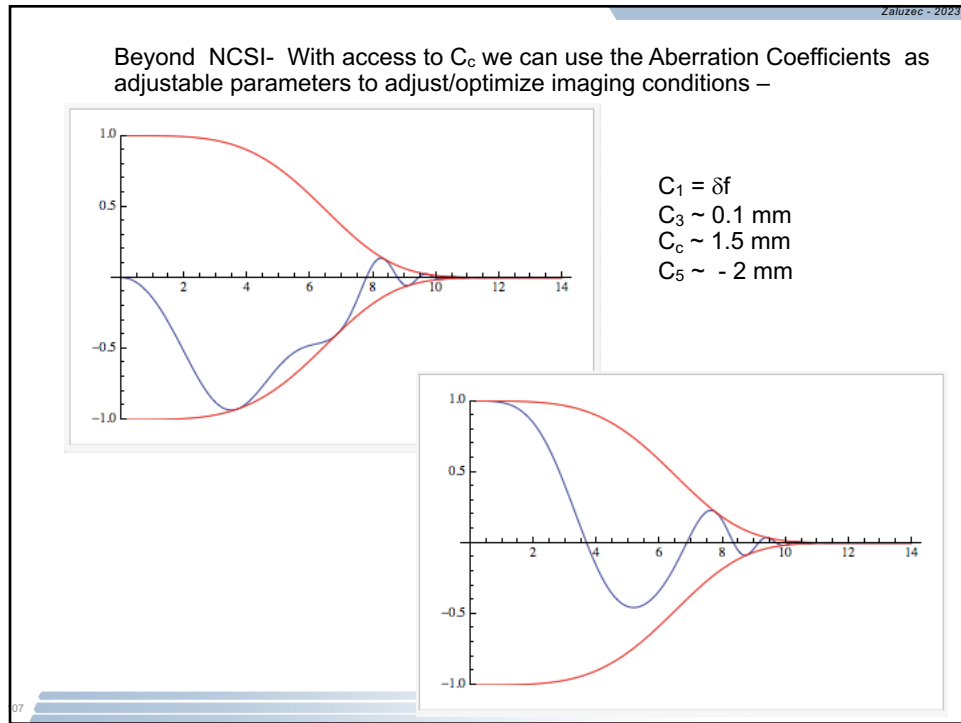
As shown in the right figure, different atoms have different extinction distance. The intensity of atom columns oscillates depending on thickness. Defocus can change the phase of the oscillation.

A. Wang, F.R. Chen, S. Van Aert, D. Van Dyck,
Ultramicroscopy, 110 (2010) 527.

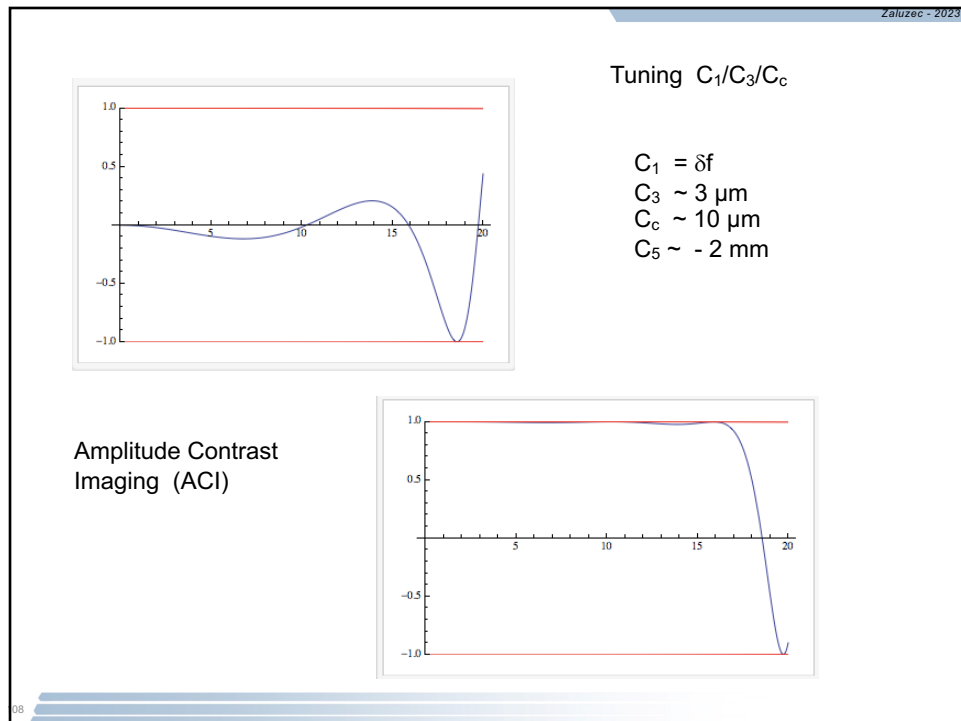
Electron Microscopy Center

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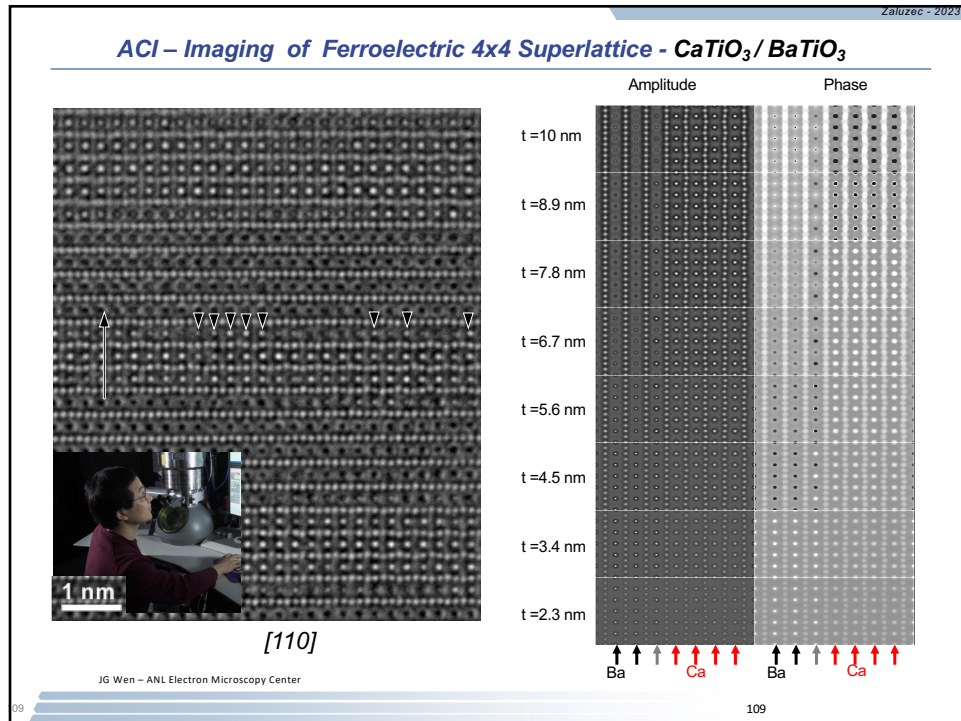
106



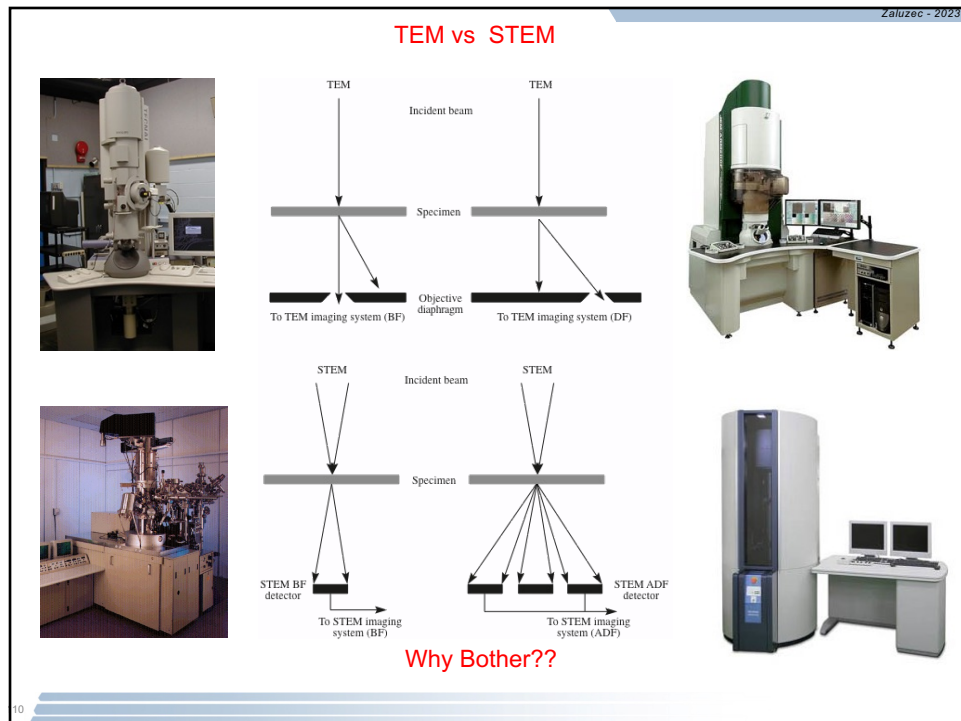
107



108



109



110