



Characterization of semiconductor hetero- and nanostructures by x-ray scattering

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Outline:

1. High-resolution x-ray scattering – how it works
2. High-resolution x-ray scattering – what it can do
3. 2D layers and multilayers:
 - 3.1. thicknesses of layers
 - 3.2. strains in layers
 - 3.3. interface roughness
4. What else can be done
5. High-resolution x-ray scattering – what it cannot do



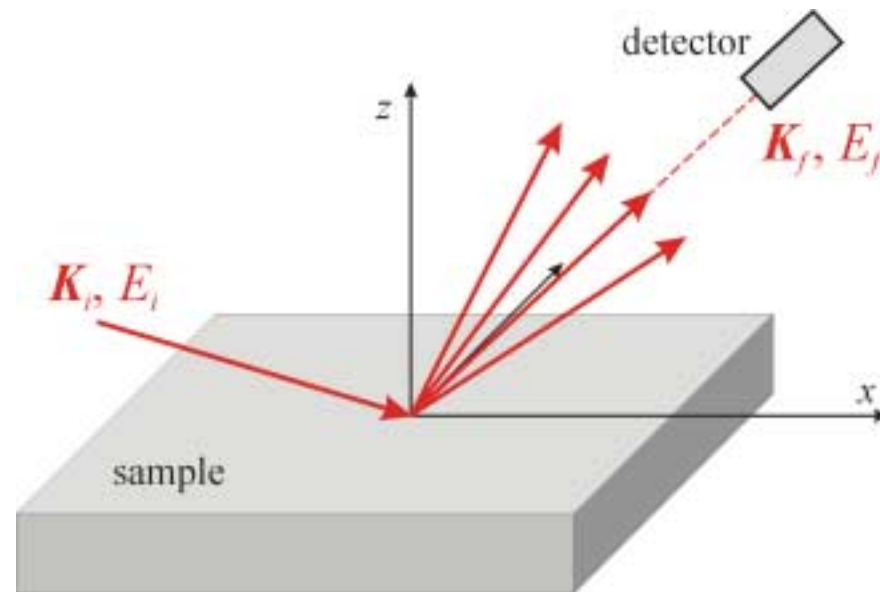
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We restrict ourselves to the scattering from electron charges, scattering from magnetic moments of the electrons is neglected here

An idealized arrangement of a high resolution x-ray scattering experiment:



An ideally plane and monochromatic x-ray beam irradiates the sample; the intensity of a monochromatic plane component of the scattered radiation is measured.

6 degrees of freedom: 2 angular variables of \mathbf{K}_i, E_i , 2 angular variables of \mathbf{K}_f, E_f



Special cases:

- $E_f = E_i$... **elastic** scattering
- $K_{fz} = -K_{iz}$... **specular** scattering
- $\mathbf{K}_f - \mathbf{K}_i = \mathbf{h}$... **coherent** scattering, $\mathbf{h} = 0$... specular reflection, $\mathbf{h} \neq 0$... coherent diffraction

reciprocal lattice vector

- $K_{iy} = K_{fy} = 0$... coplanar geometry
- $|K_{iz}|, K_{fz} \ll K_i, K_f$... grazing-incidence geometry

Elastic coplanar geometry \Rightarrow 3 degrees of freedom \Rightarrow The scattered intensity is a function of the constant energy and the scattering vector

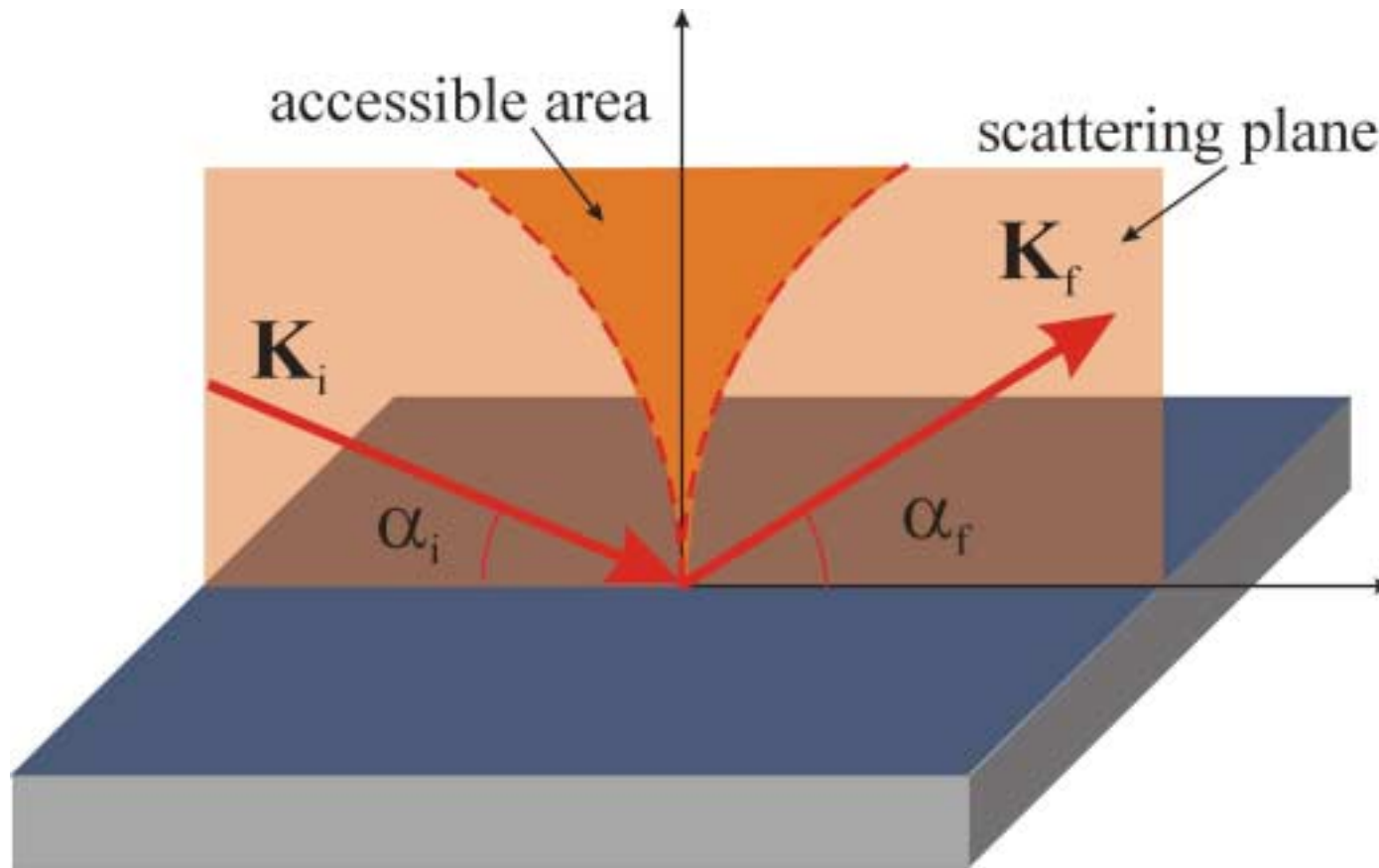
$$\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{K}_f - \mathbf{K}_i$$

\Rightarrow Reciprocal-space intensity map

$$I = I(E, Q_x, Q_z)$$

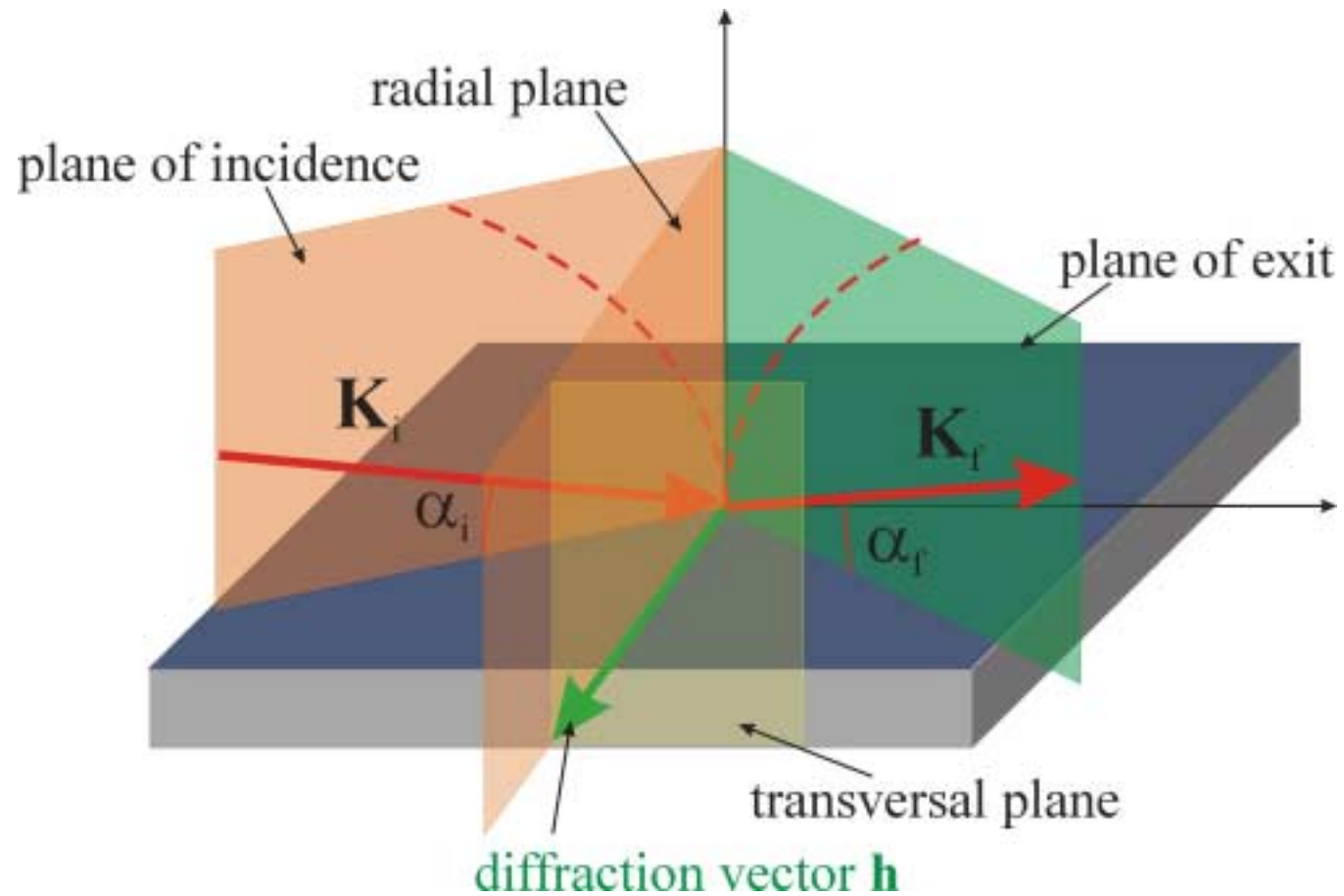


coplanar scattering geometry





grazing-incidence scattering geometry





A simple theory of elastic scattering starts from the classical wave equation:

$$(\Delta + K^2)\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}) = \hat{V}(\mathbf{r})\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r})$$

The classical scattering potential is $\hat{V}(\mathbf{r}) = \text{graddiv} - K^2\chi(\mathbf{r})$, $\chi(\mathbf{r}) = \epsilon_{\text{rel}}(\mathbf{r}) - 1$

polarizability

Electron polarizability (other polarization processes can be neglected) is proportional to the density $\rho(\mathbf{r})$ of all electrons

$$\chi(\mathbf{r}) = -\frac{\lambda^2}{\pi} r_{\text{el}} C \rho(\mathbf{r})$$

classical electron radius

linear polarization factor

Exact solution of the wave equation

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}) = \mathbf{E}_i(\mathbf{r}) + \int d^3\mathbf{r}' G_0(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}') \hat{\mathbf{T}}(\mathbf{r}') \mathbf{E}_i(\mathbf{r}'), \quad \hat{\mathbf{T}} = \hat{V} + \hat{V} G_0 \hat{V} + \hat{V} G_0 \hat{V} G_0 \hat{V} + \dots$$

scattering operator (T-matrix)

The first Born approximation of the solution of the wave equation (**kinematical approximation**)

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}) \approx \mathbf{E}_i(\mathbf{r}) + \int d^3\mathbf{r}' G_0(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}') \hat{V}(\mathbf{r}') \mathbf{E}_i(\mathbf{r}'), \quad \hat{\mathbf{T}} \approx \hat{V}$$

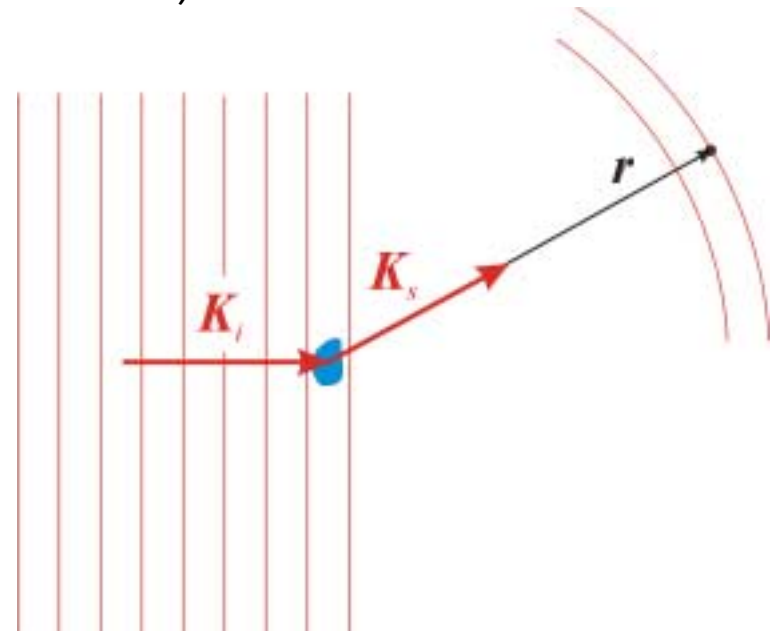
Higher approximations \Rightarrow **dynamical scattering theory** (a Bloch-wave ansatz)



The far-field approximation (the Fraunhofer approximation):

$$E(\mathbf{r}) \approx E_i(\mathbf{r}) - \frac{1}{4\pi} \frac{e^{iK_r}}{r} \langle \mathbf{K}_s | \hat{\mathbf{T}} | \mathbf{K}_i \rangle,$$

$$\mathbf{K}_s = K\mathbf{r} / r$$

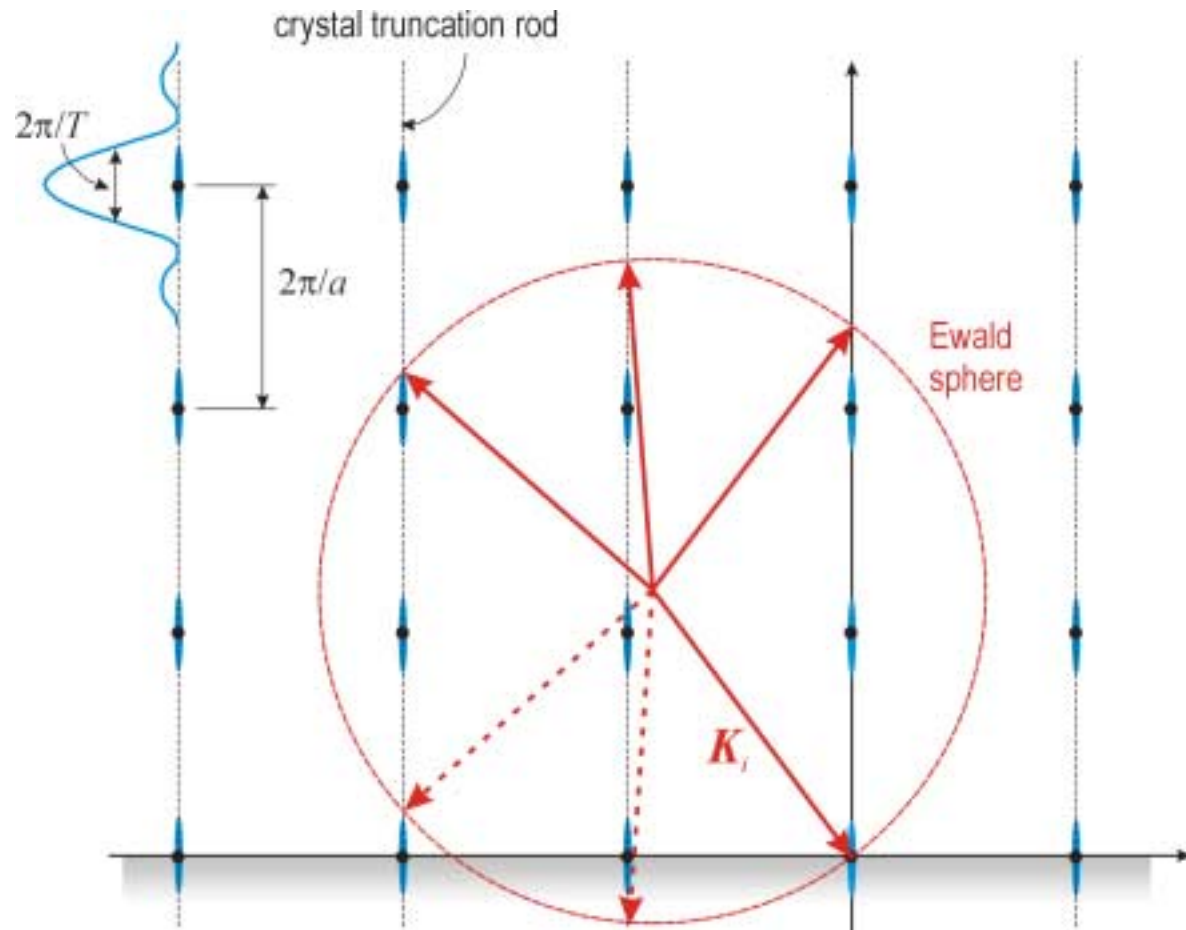


The approximation of a homogeneous wavefield: the scattered intensity does not depend on r . The scattered wavefield is a superposition of plane components, the amplitude of the component with the wave vector \mathbf{K} is proportional to $\langle \mathbf{K} | \hat{\mathbf{T}} | \mathbf{K}_i \rangle$

In the kinematical approximation, the amplitude of the scattered wave is proportional to the Fourier transformation of the **total** electron density



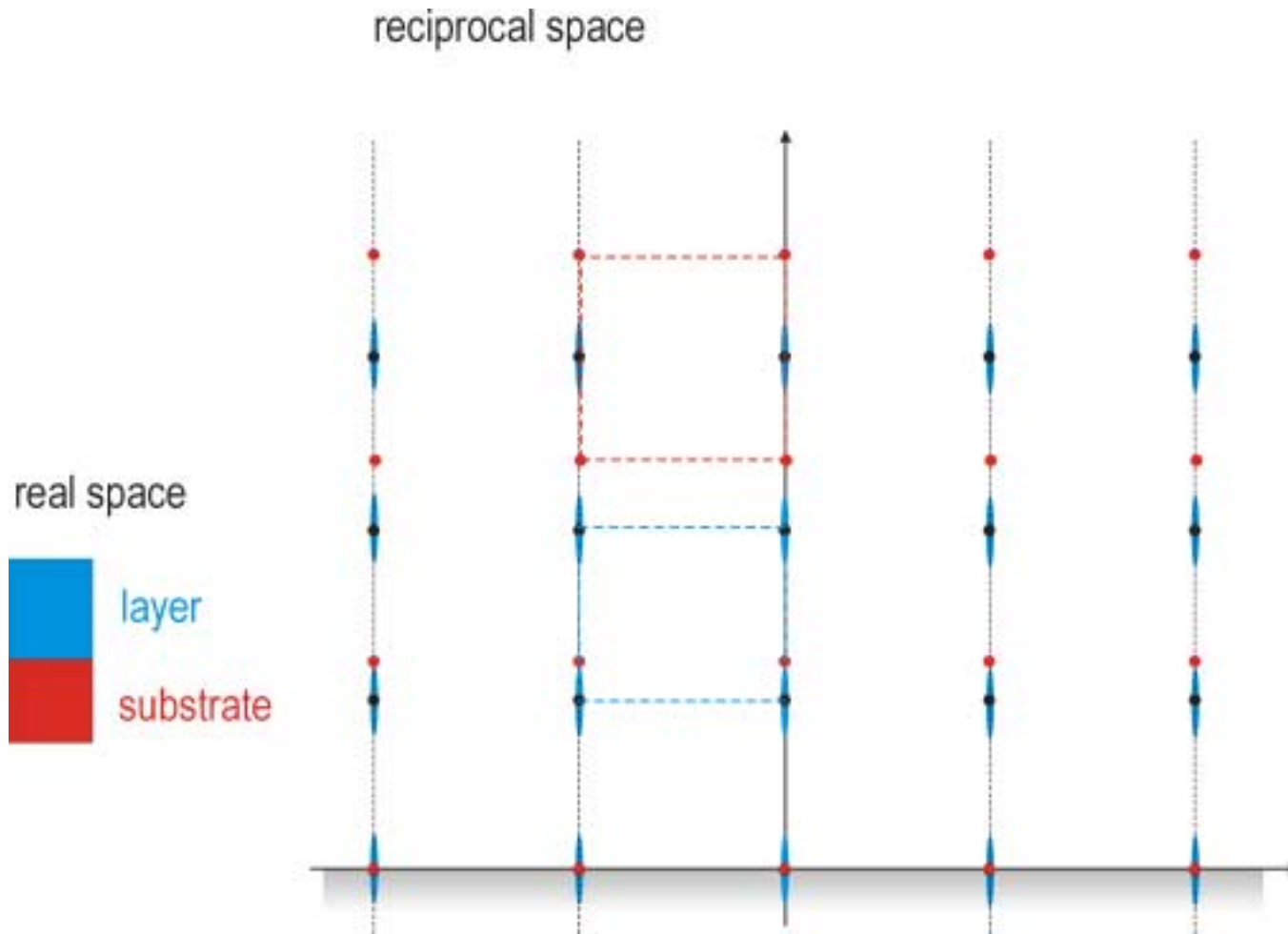
Reciprocal-space intensity map of a thin layer:



Lateral diffraction condition: $\mathbf{K}_{h\parallel} - \mathbf{K}_{i\parallel} = \mathbf{h}_{\parallel}$

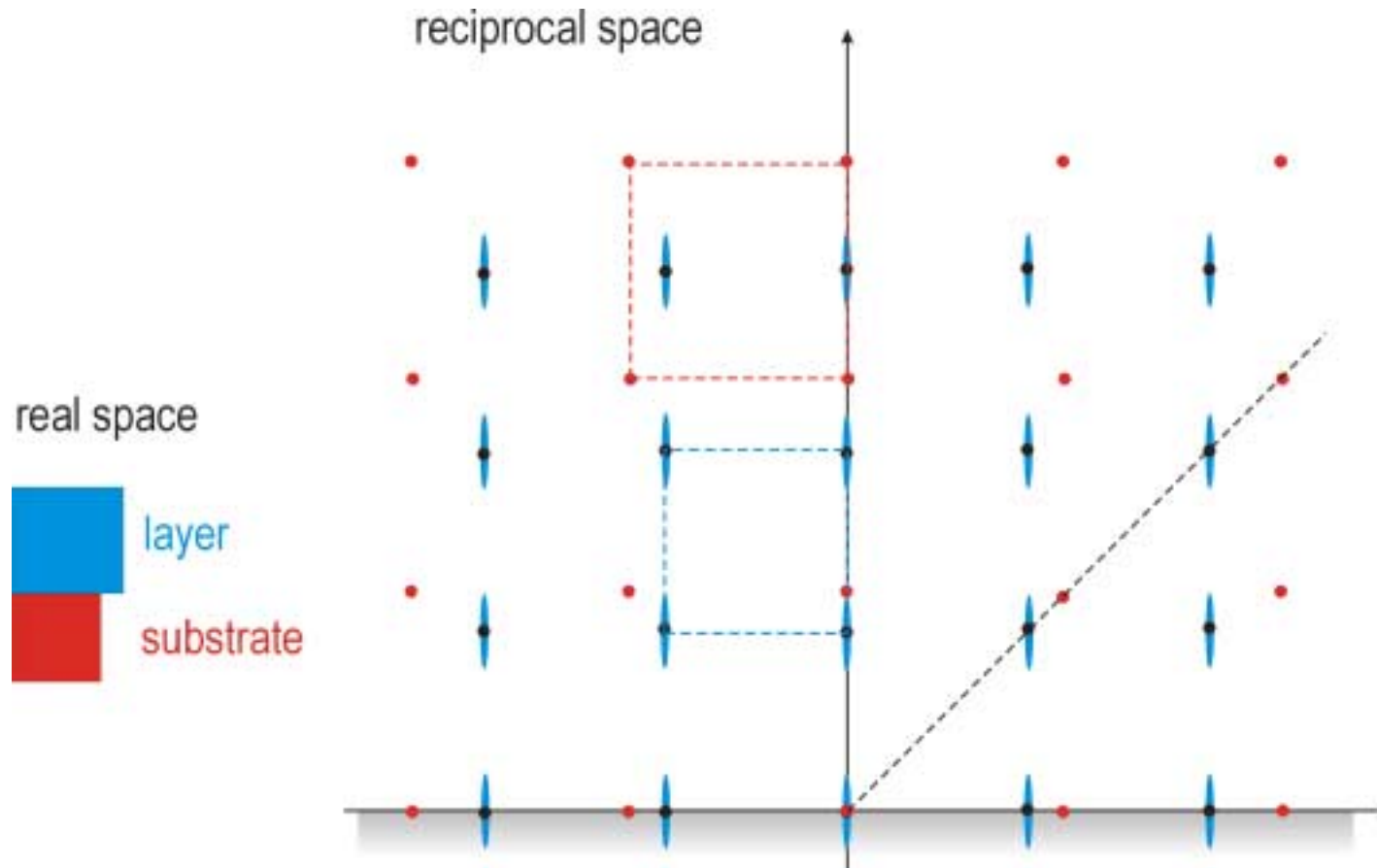


Reciprocal-space intensity map of a **pseudomorph layer** on a semiinfinite substrate



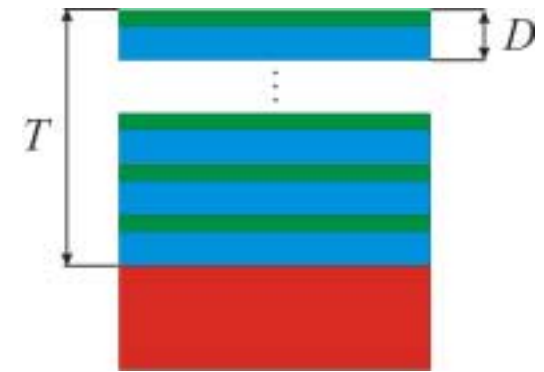
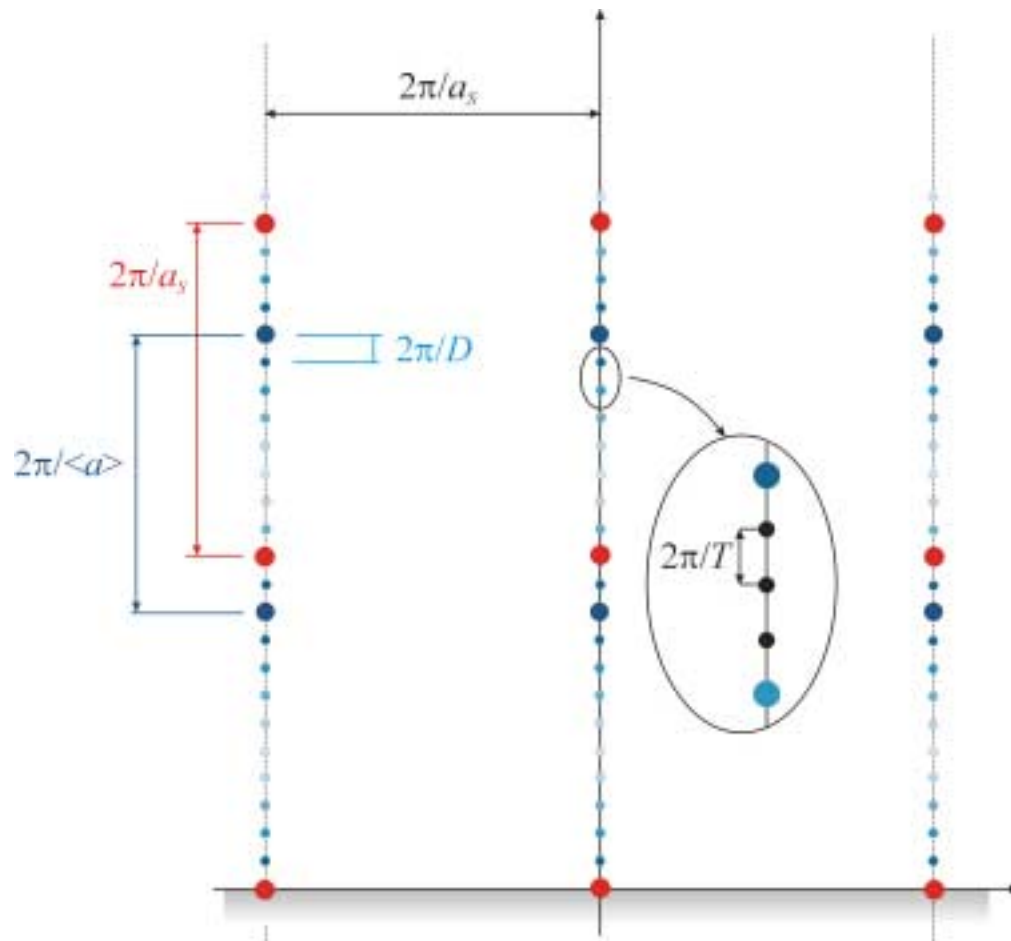


Reciprocal-space intensity map of a **fully relaxed layer** on a semiinfinite substrate





Reciprocal-space intensity map of an ideally pseudomorph periodic superlattice:



mean vertical lattice parameter of the superlattice

$$\langle a \rangle = \frac{n_A a_{Az} + n_B a_{Bz}}{n_A + n_B}$$

$a_{A,Bz}$...vertical lattice parameters of layers A and B,

$n_{A,B}$...numbers of monolayers in layers A and B



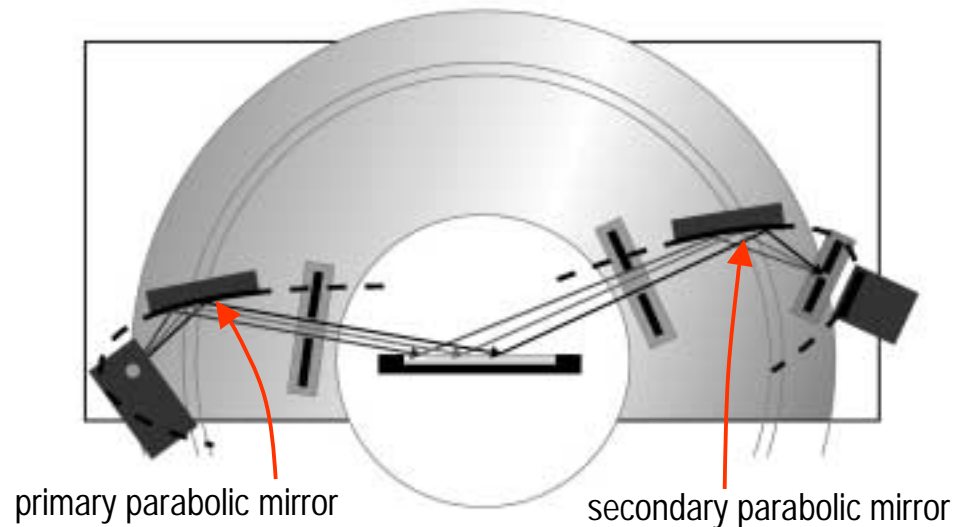
Experimental aspects:

we need

- a parallel and monochromatic primary beam
- an energy- and direction-sensitive detector

however, the degree of collimation and monochromatization should correspond to the resolution necessary for the particular problem.

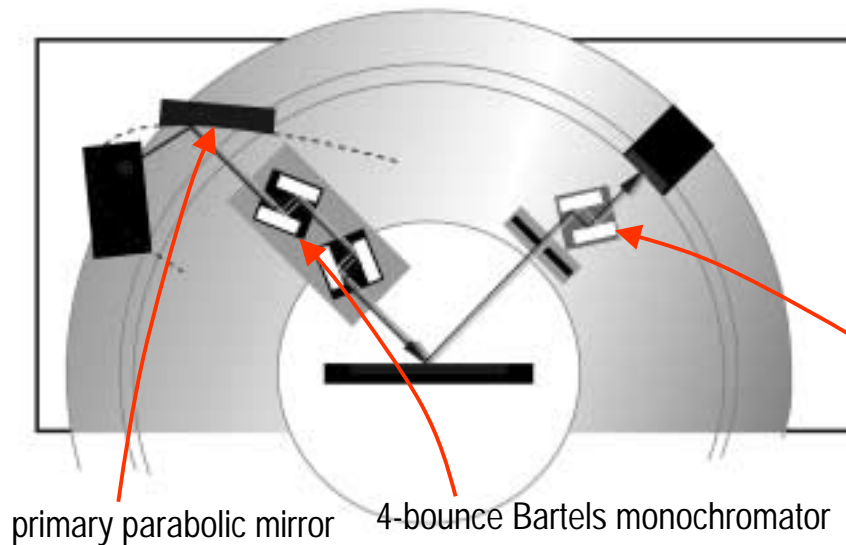
A low-resolution set-up:



powder diffraction, reflectometry



A high-resolution set-up:



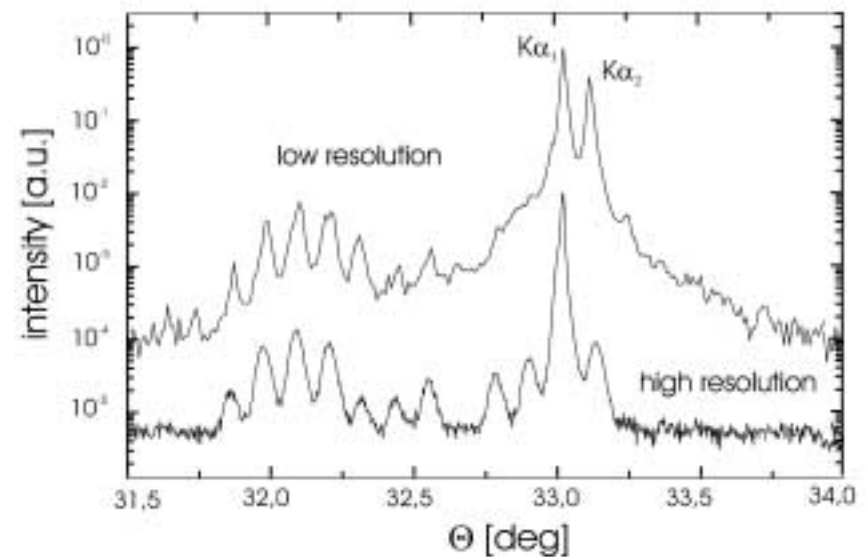
high-resolution coplanar diffraction

2-bounce channel-cut analyser

primary parabolic mirror

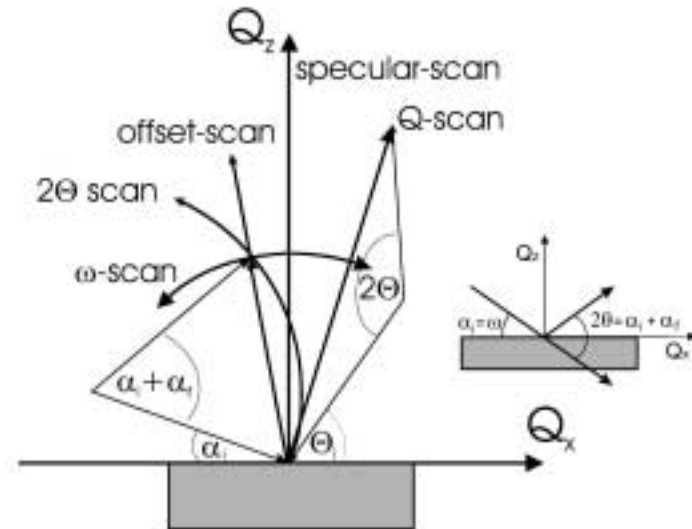
4-bounce Bartels monochromator

Diffraction curves of a $\text{In}_{0.2}\text{Ga}_{0.8}\text{As}/\text{GaAs}$ superlattice measured by low- and high-resolutions set-ups. Much larger flux in the low-res set-up!!!

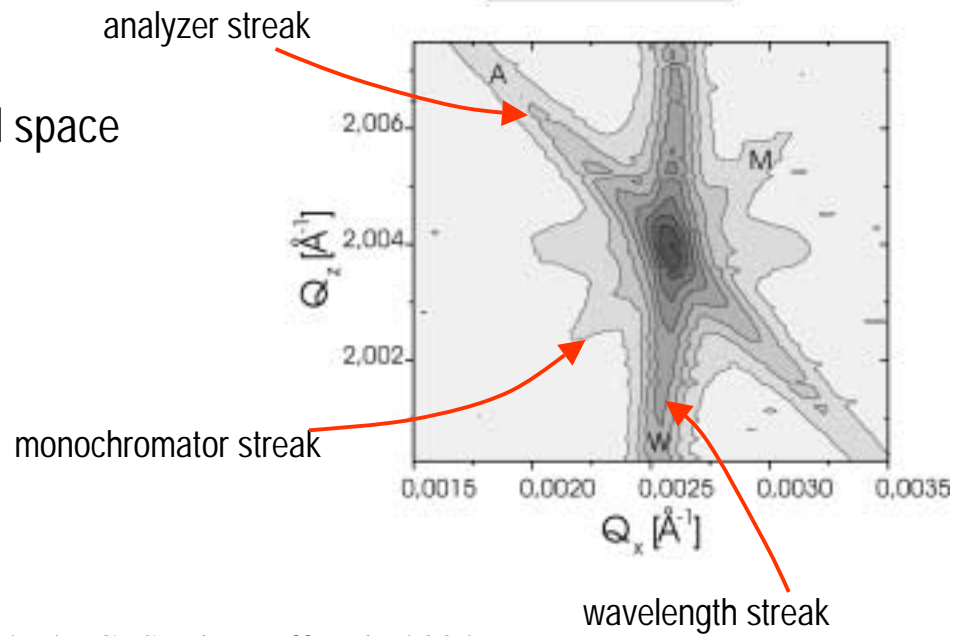




Reciprocal-space mapping – scans in reciprocal space



Resolution function in reciprocal space of a high-resolution setup

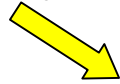




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Small-angle x-ray scattering is sensitive to the 0-th Fourier component χ_0 of the polarizability
 \Rightarrow to the electron density averaged over the unit cell



sample morphology – thicknesses of the layers, interface roughness,
shape of nanostructures

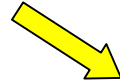
Since the refraction index is $n \approx 1$, the x-ray reflectometry measures the true layer thickness T
and not the optical thickness nT as is the case of optical reflectometry

Accessible range of thicknesses – from approx. 0.5 nm up to about 1000 nm.

Accessible range of root-mean-square (rms) roughnesses – from 0.2 nm up to approx. 2 nm



high-resolution x-ray diffraction is sensitive to the h -th Fourier component χ_h of the polarizability
 \Rightarrow to the deformation in the structure



degree of plastic relaxation in a heterostructure, chemical composition...

x-ray diffraction can also be used for determining the layer thicknesses, especially if the contrast in χ_0 is low.

Measurable range of the deformation ε depends on the diffraction used

$$h\varepsilon > \Delta q_{\min}$$

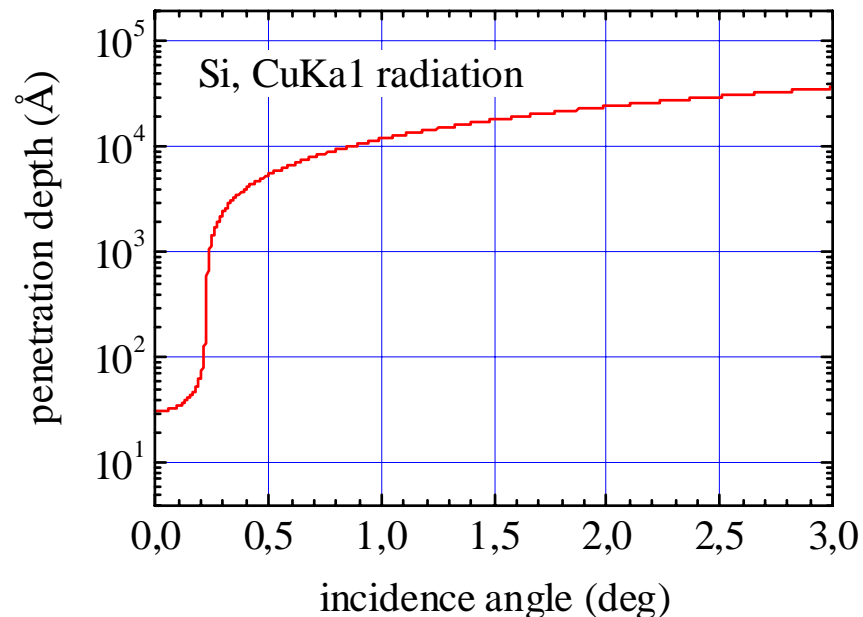
where Δq_{\min} is the experimental resolution in reciprocal space ($\approx 10^{-3} \text{ nm}^{-1}$)

the minimum measurable deformation is of the order of 10^{-4}



Grazing-incidence diffraction is sensitive mainly to the lateral periodicity of the lattice
⇒ it is good for measuring lateral relaxation in thin layers and nanostructures.

Advantage: the penetration depth of the primary beam can be tuned by changing the incidence angle



Disadvantage: the primary beam must be collimated in two orthogonal directions ⇒ it can be performed only using a synchrotron source.

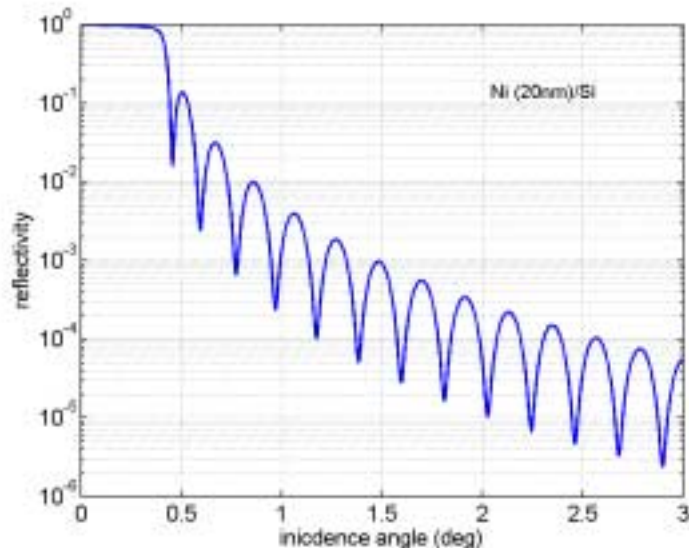


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Determining the thickness of a layer **from x-ray reflection**

Thin layer on a semiinfinite substrate – intensity distribution around $\mathbf{h} = 0$ (x-ray reflection)
interference of the waves **specularly reflected from the interfaces** \Rightarrow thickness oscillations
on the reflection curve



distance of the interference maxima

$$\Delta\alpha_i = \frac{\lambda}{2T} \cos \alpha_i \approx \frac{\lambda}{2T}$$

The maximum thickness is limited by the divergence of the primary beam

$$T \leq 800 \text{ nm} \quad \text{for the divergence of } 20 \text{ arc sec}$$

The minimum thickness depends on the accessible dynamical range, i.e. on the maximum measurable incidence angle $T_{\min} \approx 0.5 \text{ nm}$



The position of the interference maxima approximately obeys the modified Bragg law

$$2T \sqrt{\sin^2 \alpha_i - 2\delta} = m\lambda$$

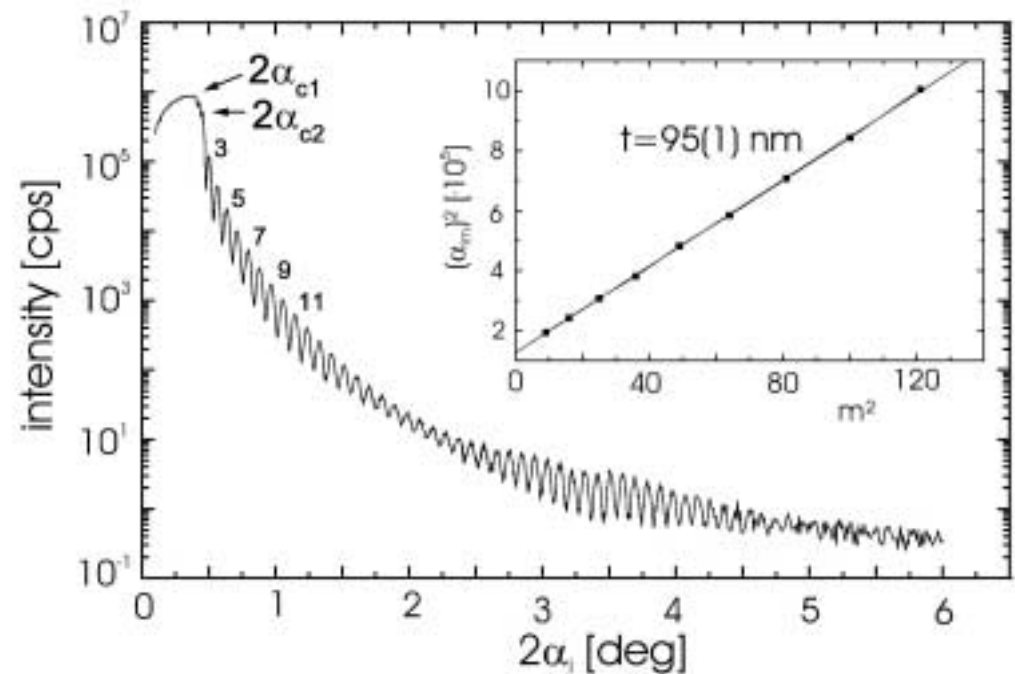
where $\delta = 1 - n$, n is the refraction index of the layer. For small angles of incidence

$$\alpha_i^2 = m^2 \left(\frac{\lambda}{2T} \right)^2 + 2\delta$$

Example: a BN layer on Si

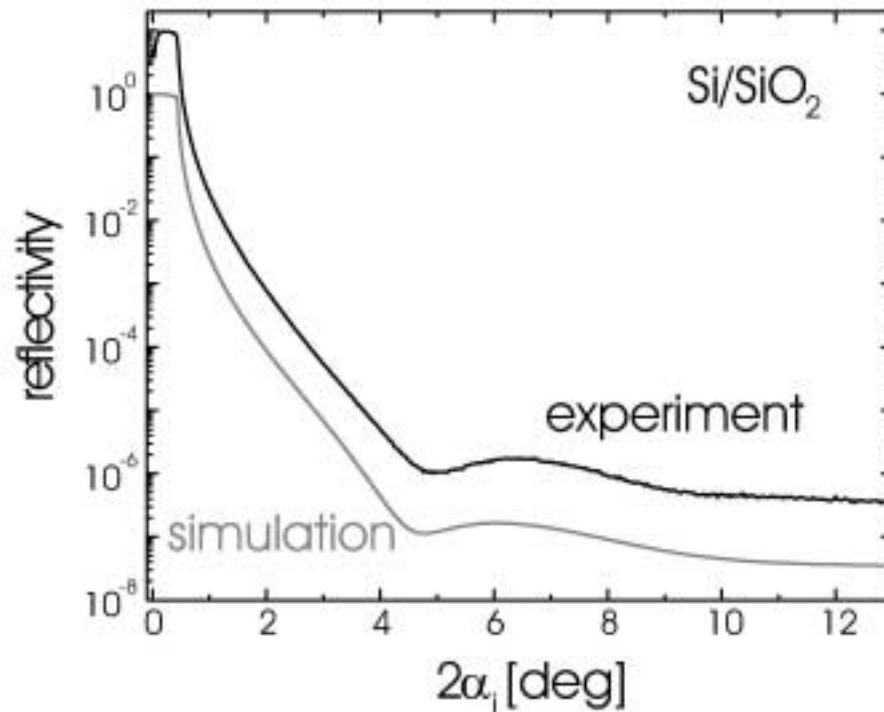
α_{c1} and α_{c2} are the critical angles of the layers and the substrate, respectively

$$\alpha_c = \sqrt{2\delta}$$





Another example: a Si surface with a native oxide layer



$$T_{\text{SiO}_2} = (1.0 \pm 0.1) \text{ nm}$$

$$\sigma = (0.35 \pm 0.05) \text{ nm}$$

r.m.s. roughness
of the Si/SiO₂ interface

In this case, a simulation of the whole reflection curve is necessary!

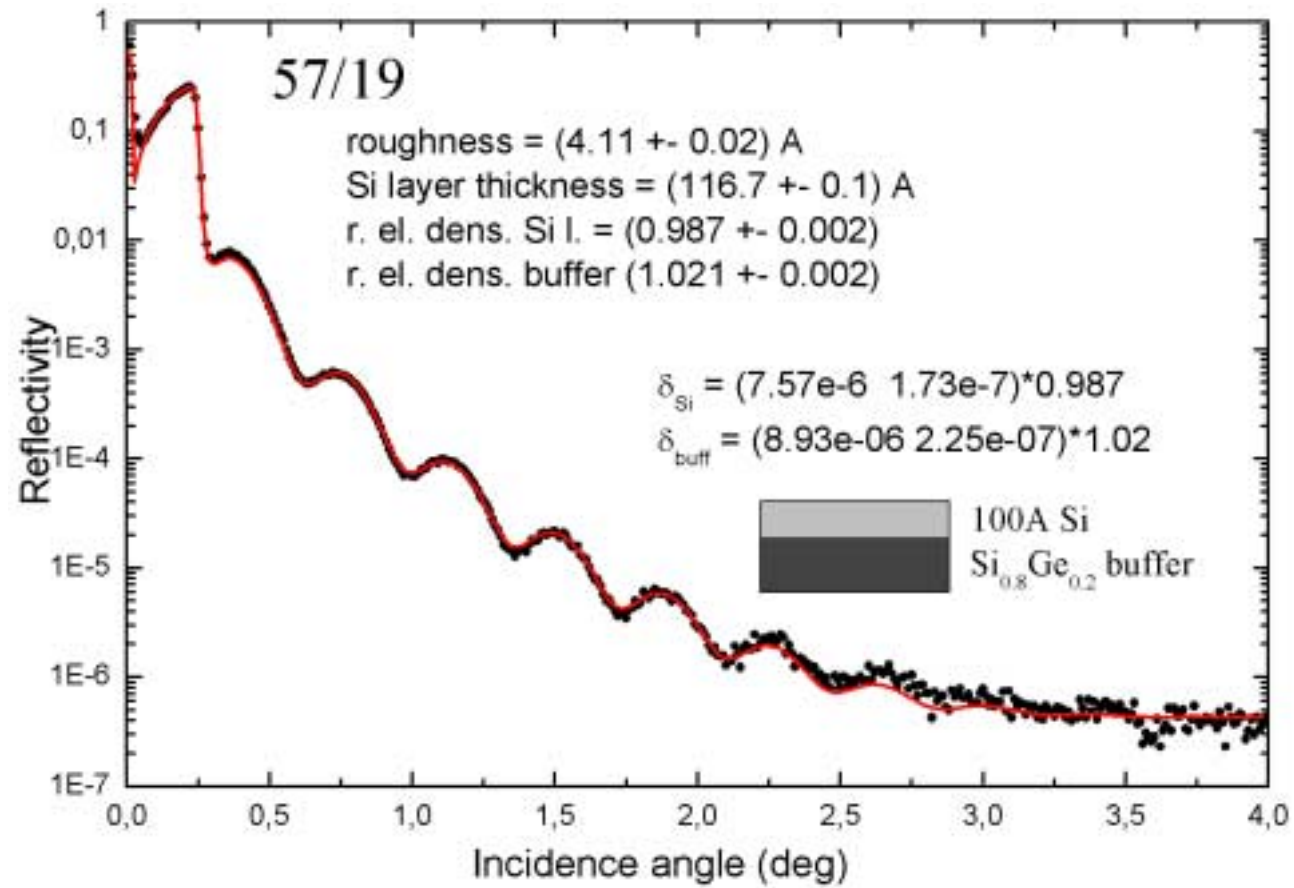
Simulation codes are based on the Parrat formalism

L. G. Parrat, Phys. Rev. **95**, 359 (1954)

Interface roughness is included according to L. Nevot, P. Croce, Rev. Phys. Appl. **15**, 761 (1980).

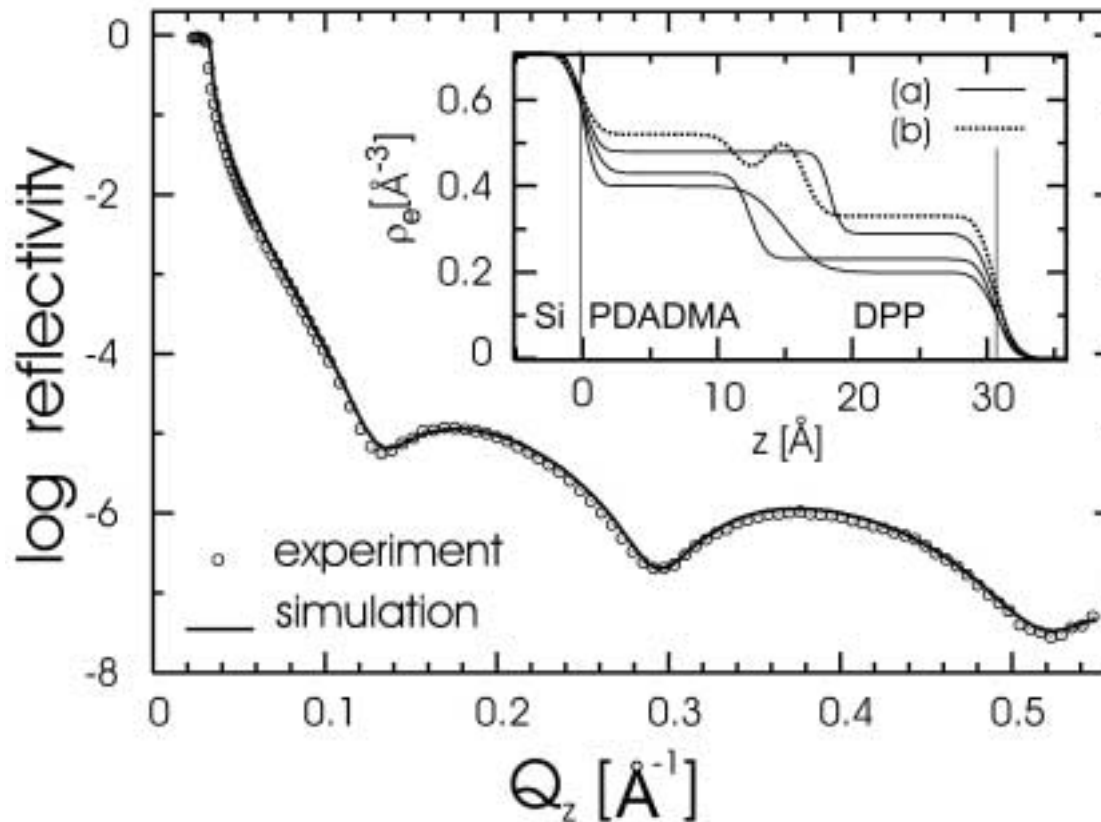


Another nice example:





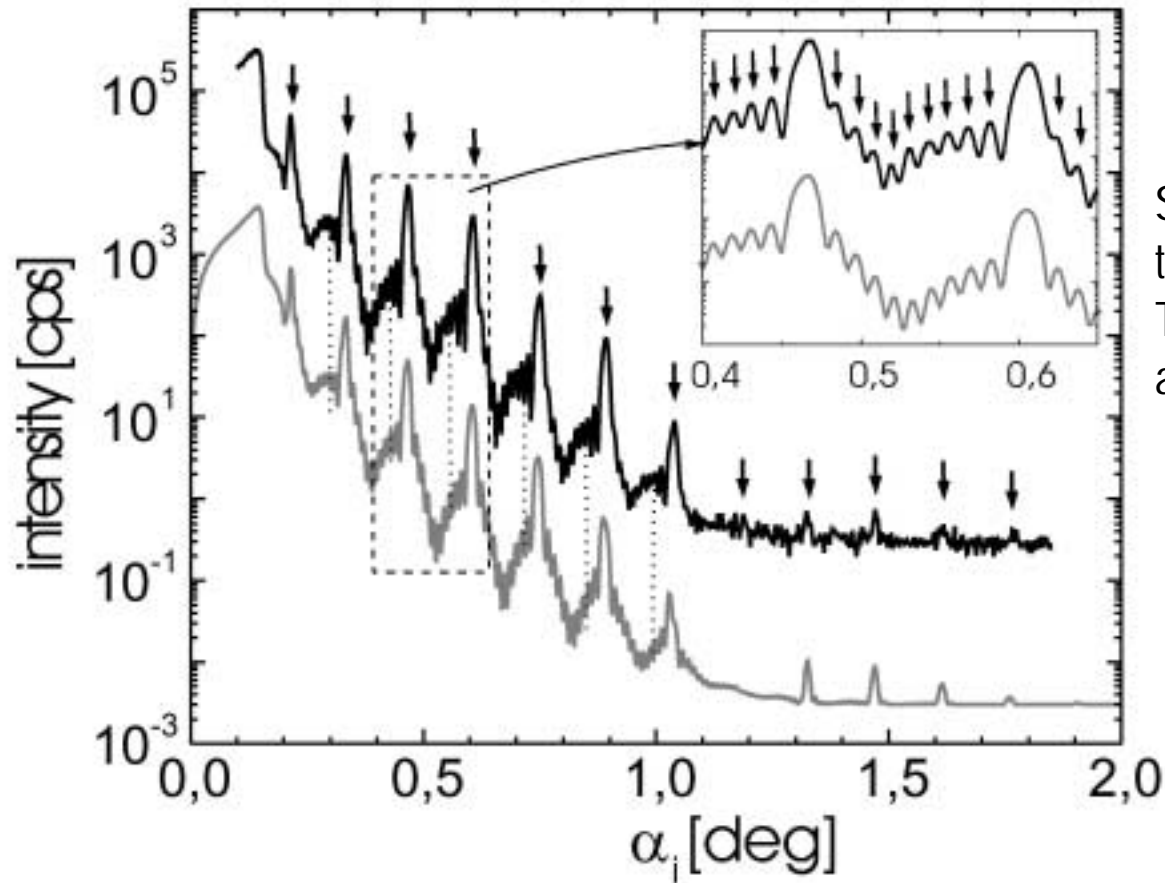
Sometimes, the solution of the problem is not unique:



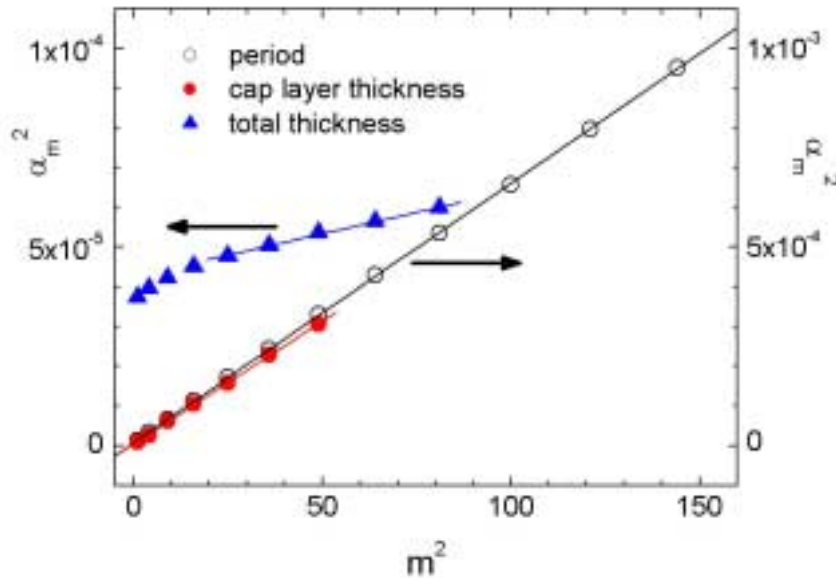
Lipid monolayers attached to polyelectrolyte molecules on Si. several different models (in the inset) yield the same fit. Additional structure information is necessary!!



X-ray reflection from a periodic superlattice:



SiGe/Si multilayer with a 21 nm thick Si cap layer.
Thickness (Kiessig) fringes are denoted by arrows



$D = (20.5 \pm 0.3) \text{ nm}, T = (232 \pm 5) \text{ nm},$
 $T_{\text{cap}} = (21 \pm 2) \text{ nm}$

These values are used as starting estimates for a whole-curve fitting

From the fit, we obtained:

$$T_{\text{oxide}} = (3 \pm 1) \text{ nm}, T_{\text{cap}} = (21.0 \pm 0.5) \text{ nm}, D = (20.6 \pm 0.2) \text{ nm},$$

$$T_{\text{Si}} / T_{\text{SiGe}} = 7.0 \pm 0.2, x_{\text{Ge}} = 0.35 \pm 0.15, \sigma = (0.7 \pm 0.1) \text{ nm}$$

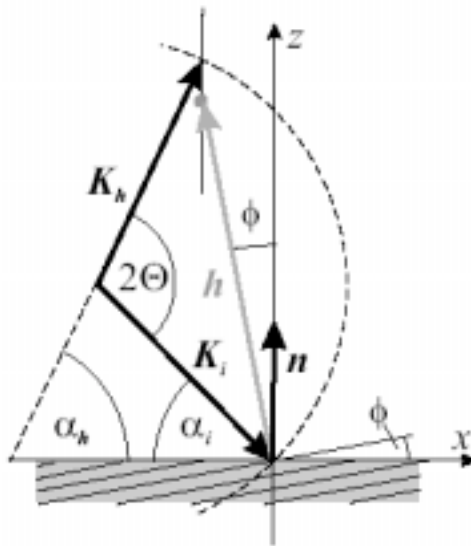


Determination of layer thickness from x-ray diffraction – interference of waves **diffracted from the layer and from the substrate**

The distance of the thickness fringes
$$\Delta\alpha_i = \frac{\lambda\gamma_h}{T \sin(2\Theta_B)}$$

Θ_B is the Bragg angle, γ_h is the direction cosine of the diffracted wave with respect to the surface normal. For a symmetric diffraction (the diffracting planes are parallel to the surface)

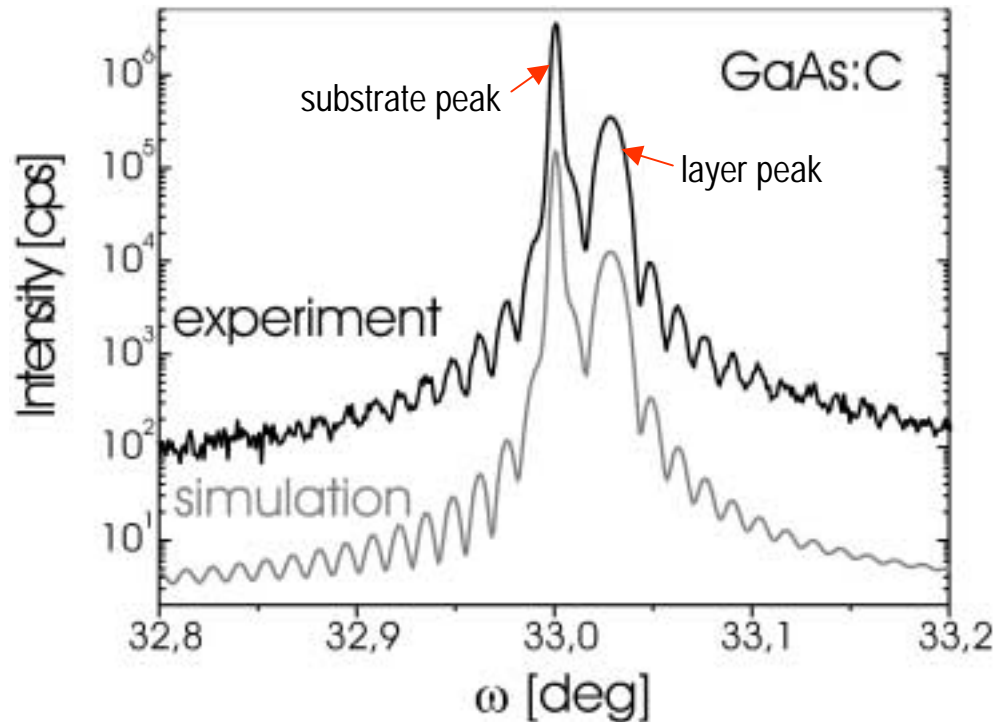
$$\Delta\alpha_i = \frac{\lambda}{2T \cos \Theta_B}$$



sketch of the diffraction geometry. $\phi = 0$ corresponds to the symmetric diffraction



a simple example: a symmetric 004 diffraction curve of a GaAs:C layer on GaAs(001)



From the thickness fringes:

$$T = (392 \pm 32) \text{ nm}$$

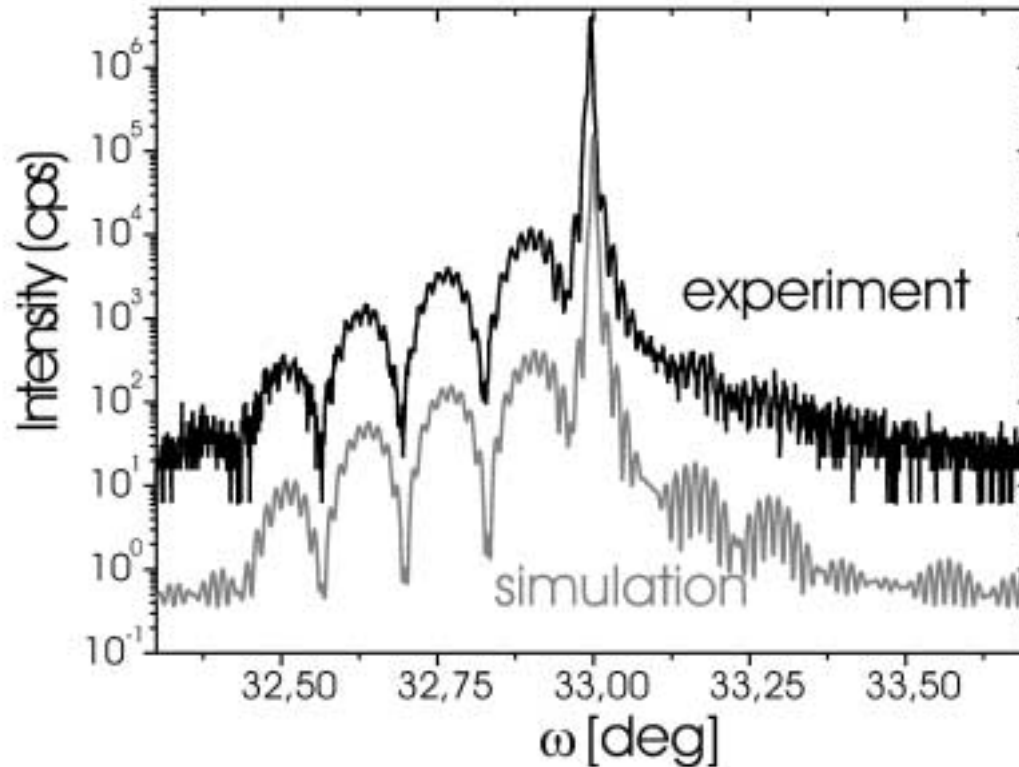
From the distance of both peaks:

$$\frac{\Delta a}{a} \approx -390 \text{ ppm} \Rightarrow x_c \approx 5 \times 10^{19} \text{ cm}^{-3}$$

For the simulation, a dynamical diffraction theory must be used, the formulas can be found in W.J. Bartels, J. Hornstra, D.J.W. Lobeek: Acta Cryst. A **42**, 539 (1986)



Another example: 004 symmetric diffraction on a GaAs/ $\text{In}_{0.06}\text{Ga}_{0.94}\text{As}$ /GaAs/ $\text{In}_{0.06}\text{Ga}_{0.94}\text{As}$ /(001)GaAs heterostructure



rapid oscillations \Rightarrow

$$T_1 = (300 \pm 3) \text{ nm}$$

total thickness of the stack

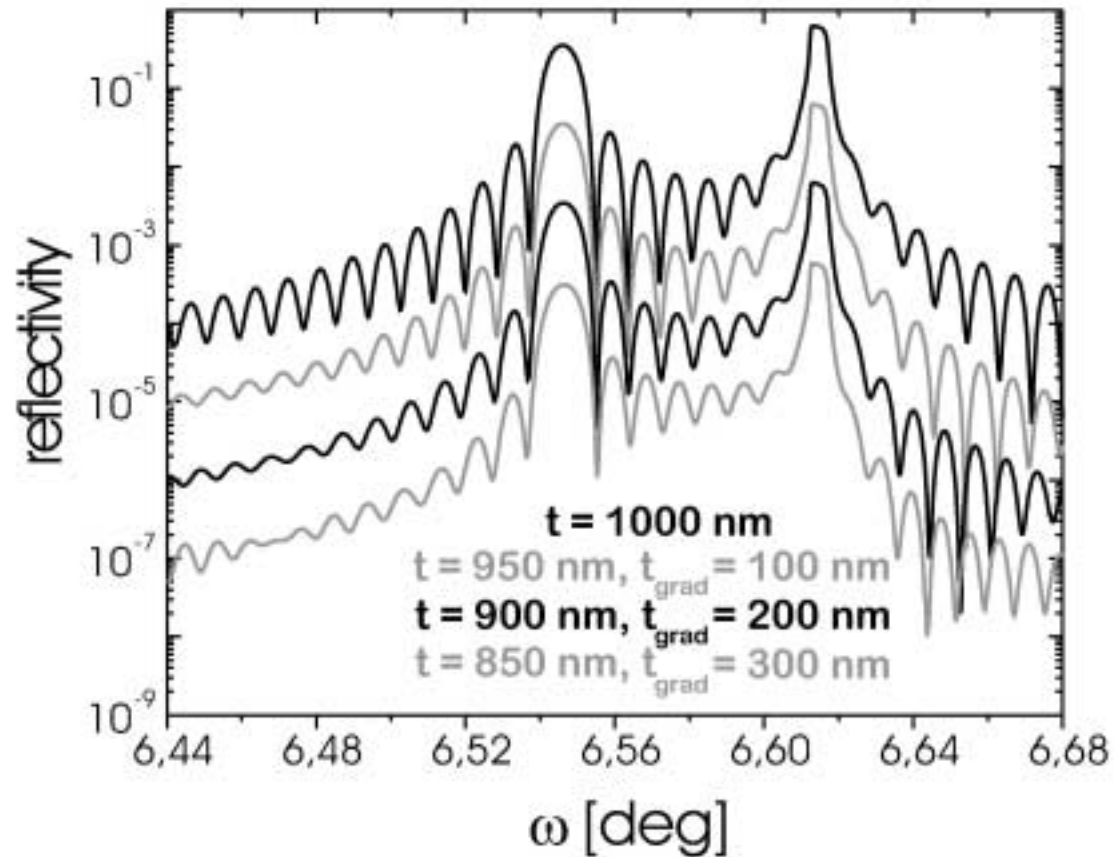
slow oscillations \Rightarrow

$$T_2 = (33 \pm 5) \text{ nm}$$

thickness of the upper GaAs layer

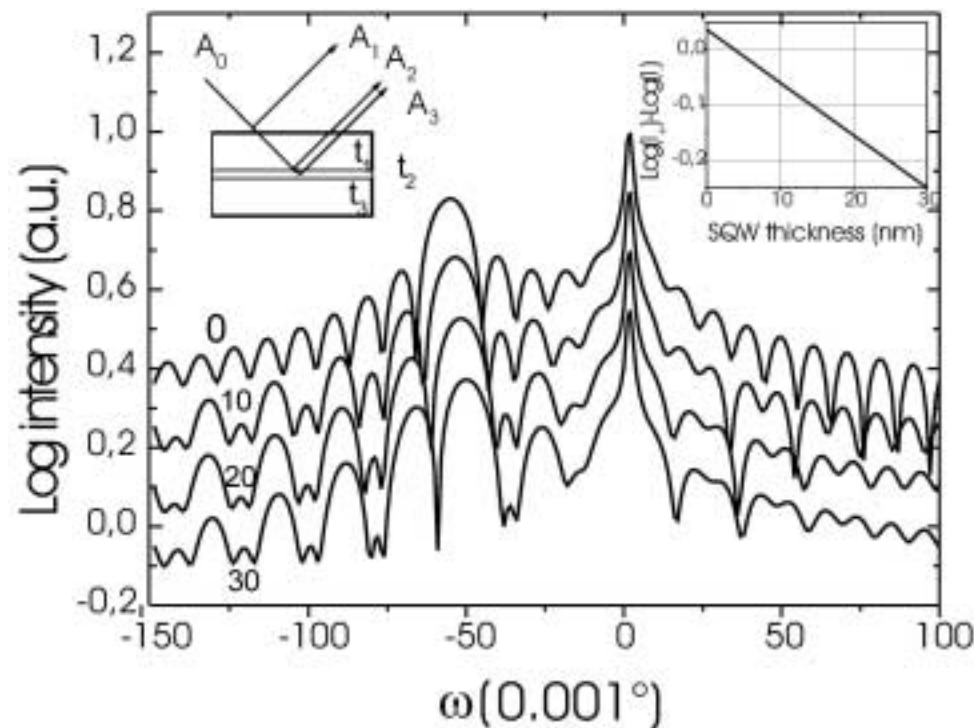


Influence of an interface grading on a diffraction curve, asymmetric 224 diffraction curves calculated for a $\text{Ga}_{0.6}\text{Al}_{0.4}\text{As}/\text{GaAs}$ heterostructure, linearly graded interface





X-ray diffraction from a system with a thin buried layer – the diffraction curve depends on the phase shift of the waves diffracted from the crystal above and below the layer:

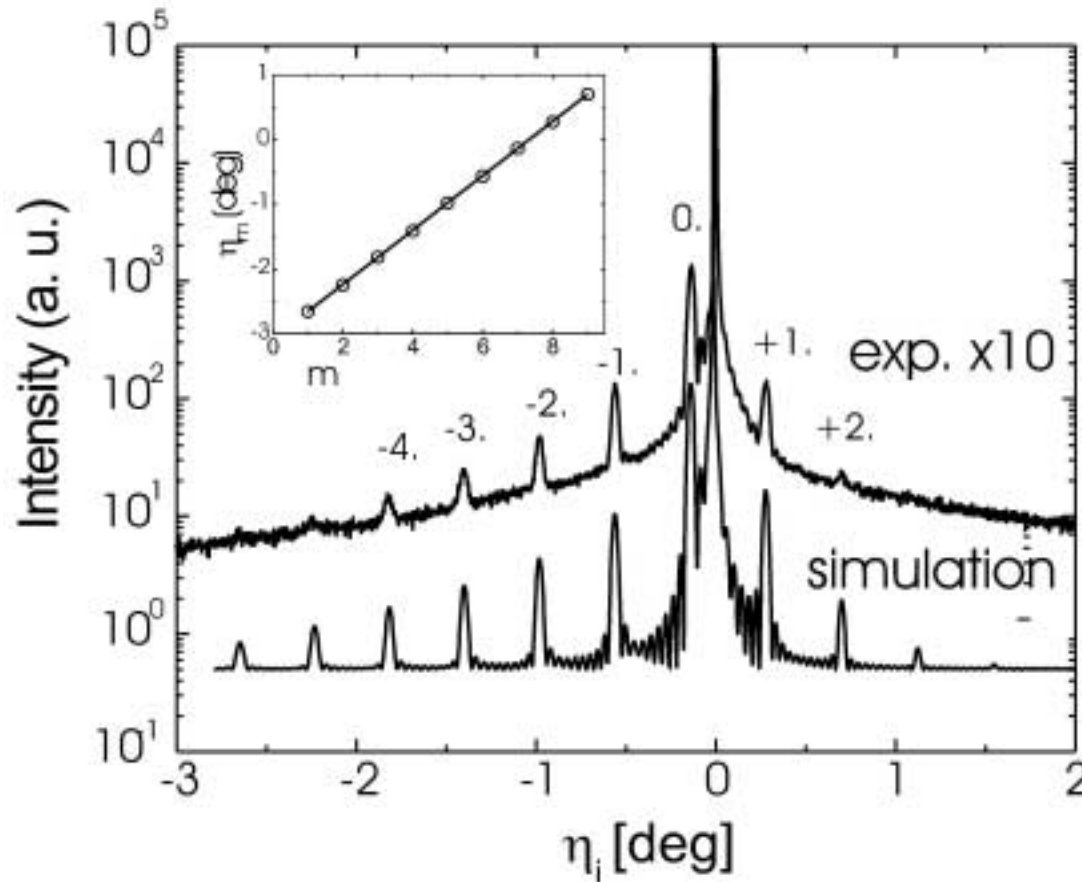


Calculated 004 diffraction curves for a $\text{Ga}_{0.6}\text{Al}_{0.4}\text{As}/\text{GaAs}/\text{Ga}_{0.6}\text{Al}_{0.4}\text{As}$ heterostructure on GaAs(001). The thickness of GaAs quantum well varies from 0 to 30 nm.



X-ray diffraction from a periodic superlattice – a sequence of satellite maxima with the distance

$$\Delta\alpha_i = \frac{\lambda\gamma_h}{D \sin(2\Theta_B)}$$



A SiGe/Si superlattice,
asymmetric 224 diffraction.
From the inset:

$$D = (20.6 \pm 0.7) \text{ nm}$$

From the fitting of the whole
curve:

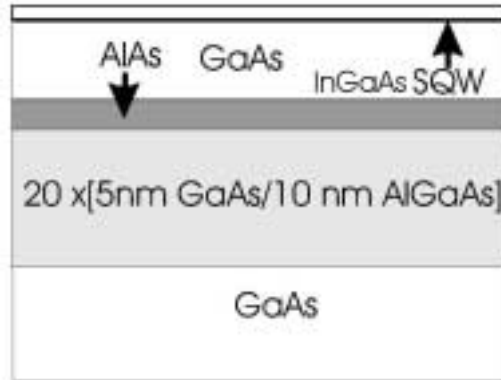
$$D = (20.5 \pm 0.1) \text{ nm},$$

$$T_{\text{Si}} / T_{\text{SiGe}} = 7 \pm 0.5,$$

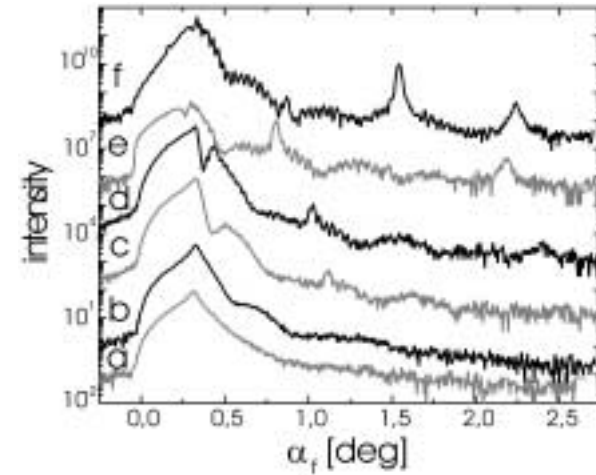
$$x_{\text{Ge}} = 0.36 \pm 0.02$$



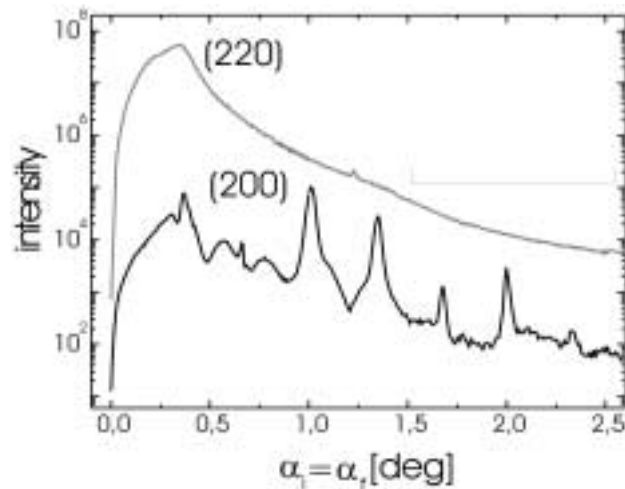
Grazing-incidence diffraction on the heterostructure:



weak diffraction
200



various incidence angles from $\alpha_i = 0.2^\circ$ (a) to 1.0° (f)



nearly no contrast in the strong 220 diffraction,
the weak 200 diffraction is much more sensitive
to the chemical contrast



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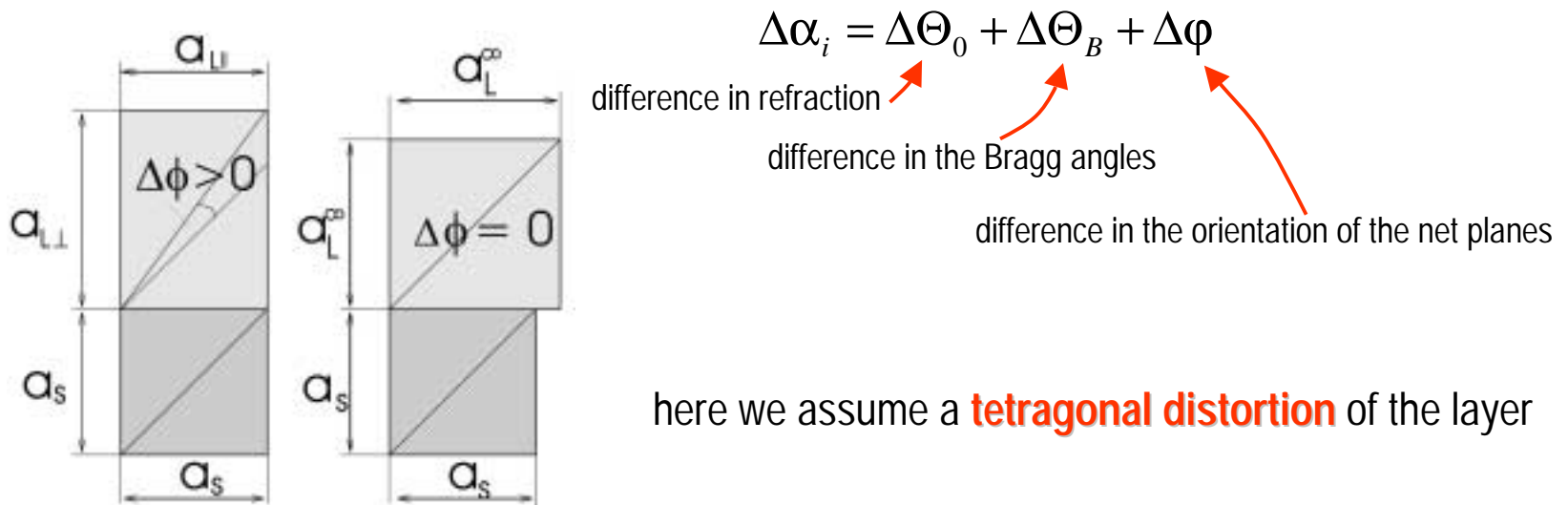
How to determine the strain status of the layer by means a **double-axis diffractometer** (open detector window), i. e., by measuring $I(\alpha_i)$, regardless of α_f ?
Two independent diffraction curves are necessary

Horizontal and vertical **lattice misfits** of the layer $\delta_{\parallel} = \frac{a_{L\parallel} - a_S}{a_S}$, $\delta_{\perp} = \frac{a_{L\perp} - a_S}{a_S}$

don't mix it with the **lattice mismatch** $f = \frac{a_L^{\infty} - a_S}{a_S}$

connection with the relaxation degree r : $\delta_{\parallel} = rf$ $r = \frac{a_{L\parallel} - a_S}{a_L - a_S}$

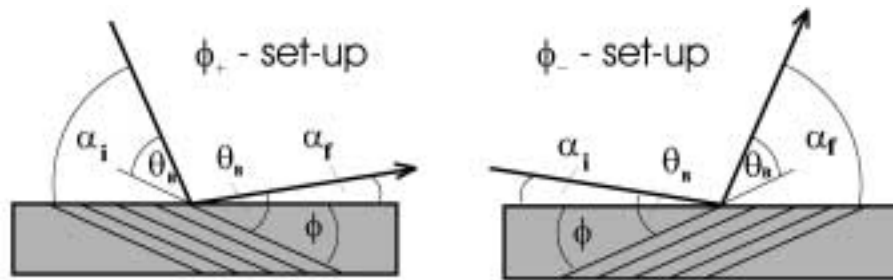
The angular separation of the layer and substrate peaks



here we assume a **tetragonal distortion** of the layer



If $\Delta\Theta_0$ can be neglected, both components of misfit can be determined from the angular separations $\Delta\alpha_{i\pm}$ of the peaks measured in two opposite geometries:



$$\Delta\alpha_{i\pm} = \Delta\Theta_B \pm \Delta\varphi$$

The misfit components are

$$\delta_{\perp} = \Delta\varphi \tan \varphi - \Delta\Theta_B \cot \Theta_B, \quad \delta_{\parallel} = -\Delta\varphi \cot \varphi - \Delta\Theta_B \cot \Theta_B$$

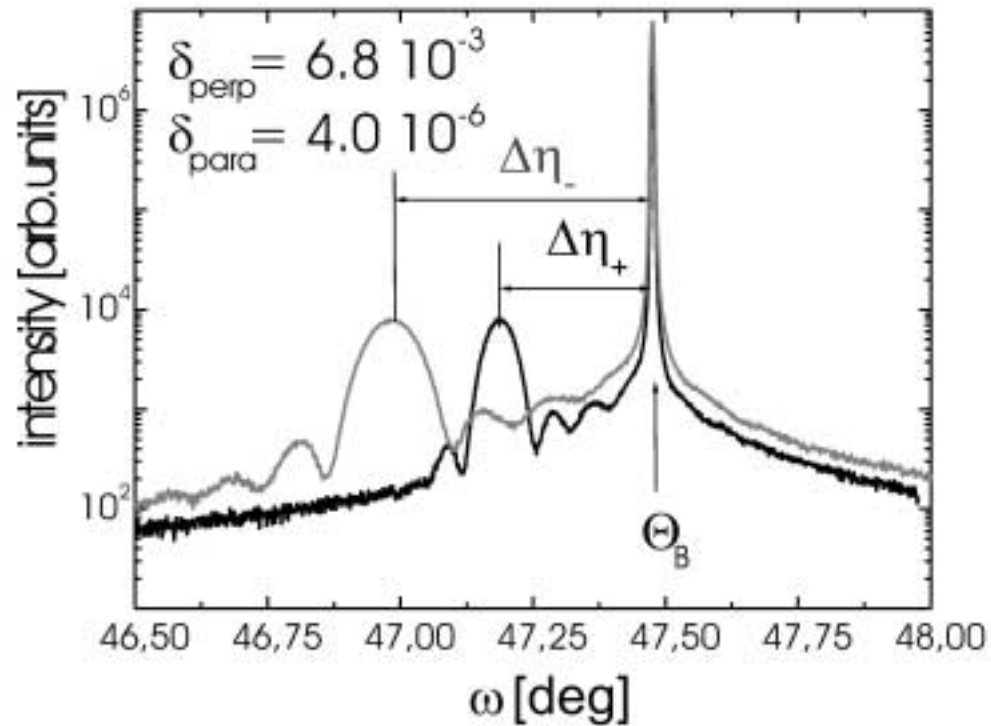
If the layer is pseudomorph ($r = 0$)

$$(\Delta\alpha_{i+} - \Delta\alpha_{i-}) \tan \varphi = (\Delta\alpha_{i+} + \Delta\alpha_{i-}) \cot \Theta_B$$

must hold.



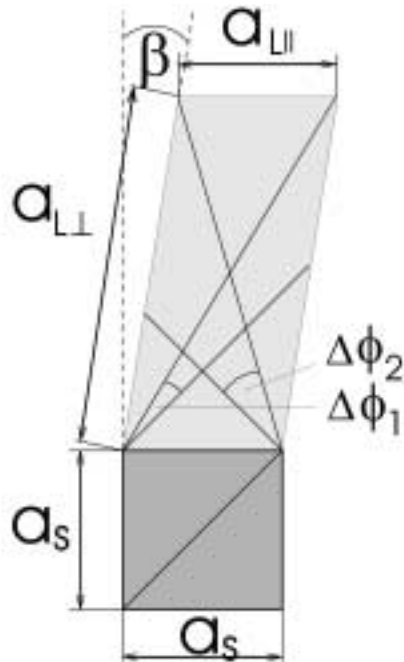
A 66 nm thick SiGe layer on Si(001), asymmetric diffractions 115 with opposite asymmetries:



since δ_{\parallel} is very small, the layer can be assumed pseudomorph



If the distortion of the layer is general (i.e., non-tetragonal), the situation is more complicated:

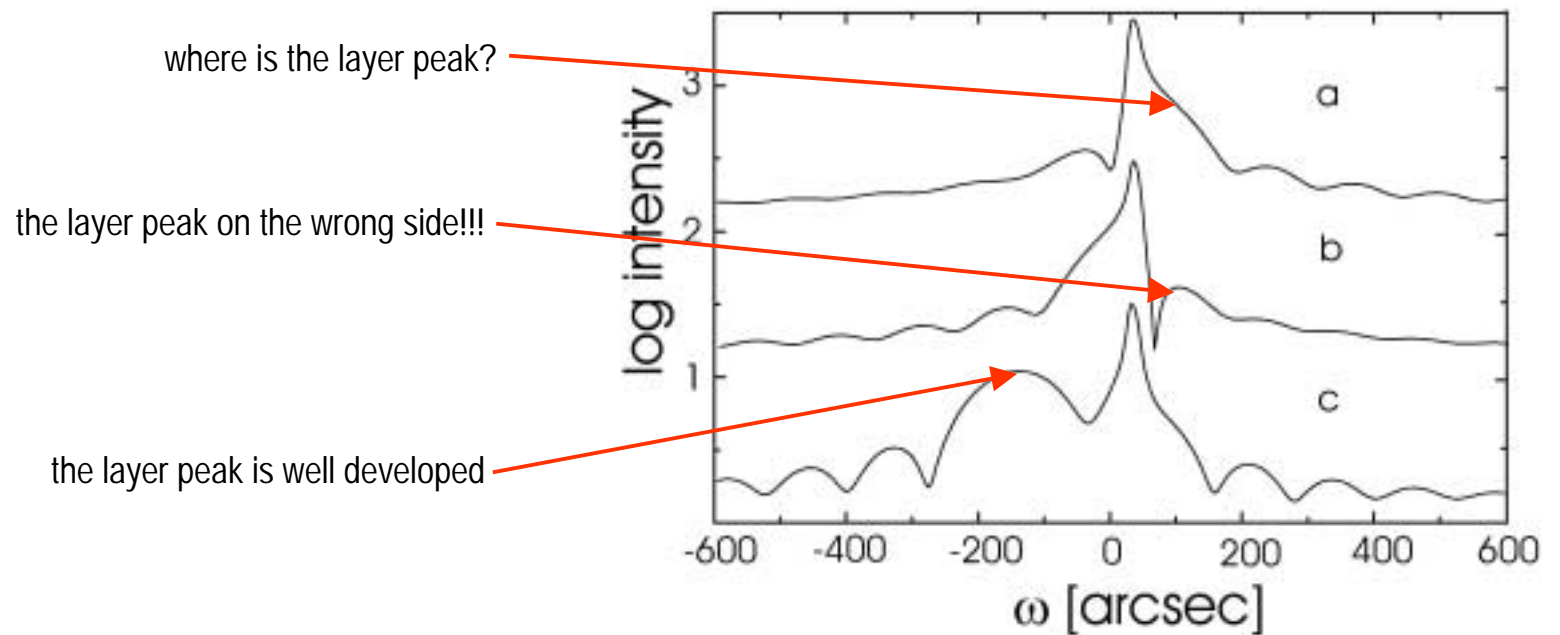


several crystallographic equivalent diffractions with various azimuthal directions must be measured



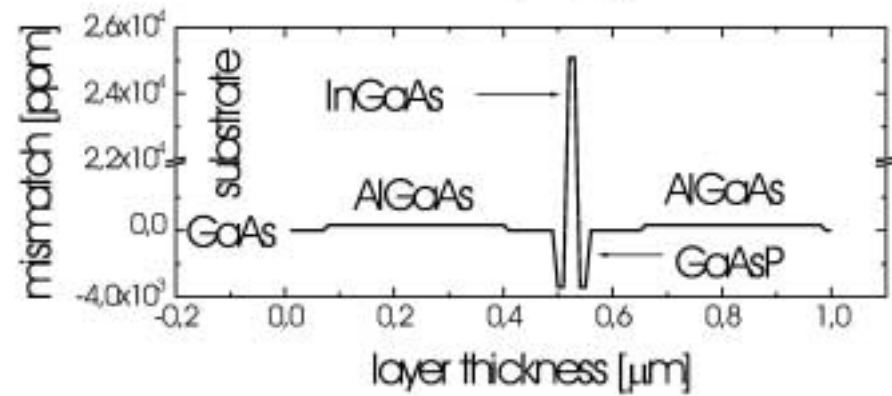
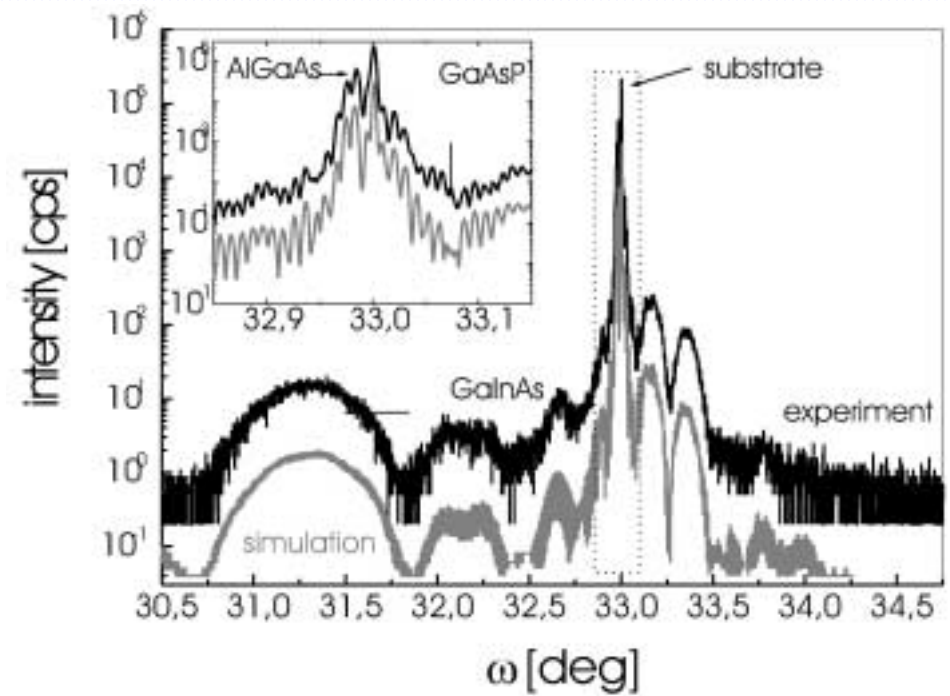
Another problem: if the mismatch is too small, the measured angular separation of the layer and substrate peaks might be misleading:

Diffraction curves of a GaInAsP (250nm) layer on InP simulated in asymmetric 224 diffraction for various values of vertical misfit: (a) 0, (b) 2.5×10^{-4} , (c) 10^{-3} .





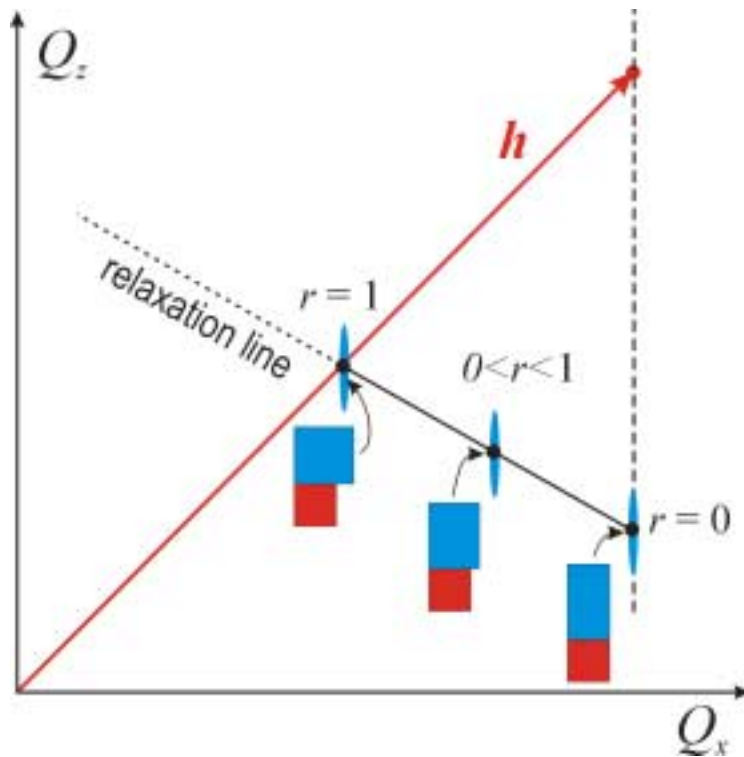
The state-of-the-art measurement,
a 004 diffraction from a laser structure





Determination of the strain status of a layer by means of a **reciprocal-space mapping**:

How to determine the degree of relaxation?



degree of relaxation $r = \frac{a_{L||} - a_S}{a_L - a_S}$

lattice mismatch $f = \frac{a_L^\infty - a_S}{a_S}$

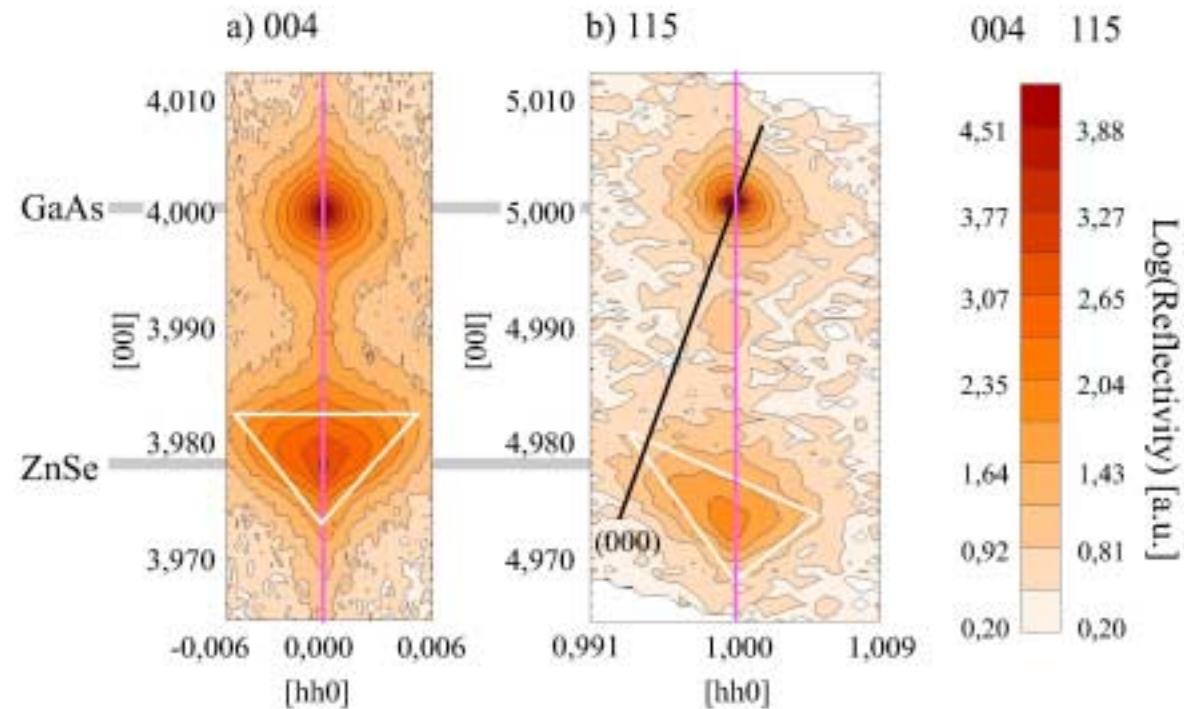
position of the layer peak with respect to the substrate

$$\Delta Q_x = -f r h_x, \quad \Delta Q_z = -f h_z \frac{1 + \nu - 2r\nu}{1 - \nu}$$

ν is the Poisson ratio



A ZnSe 310 nm layer on GaAs measured in symmetric 004 and asymmetric 115 diffractions

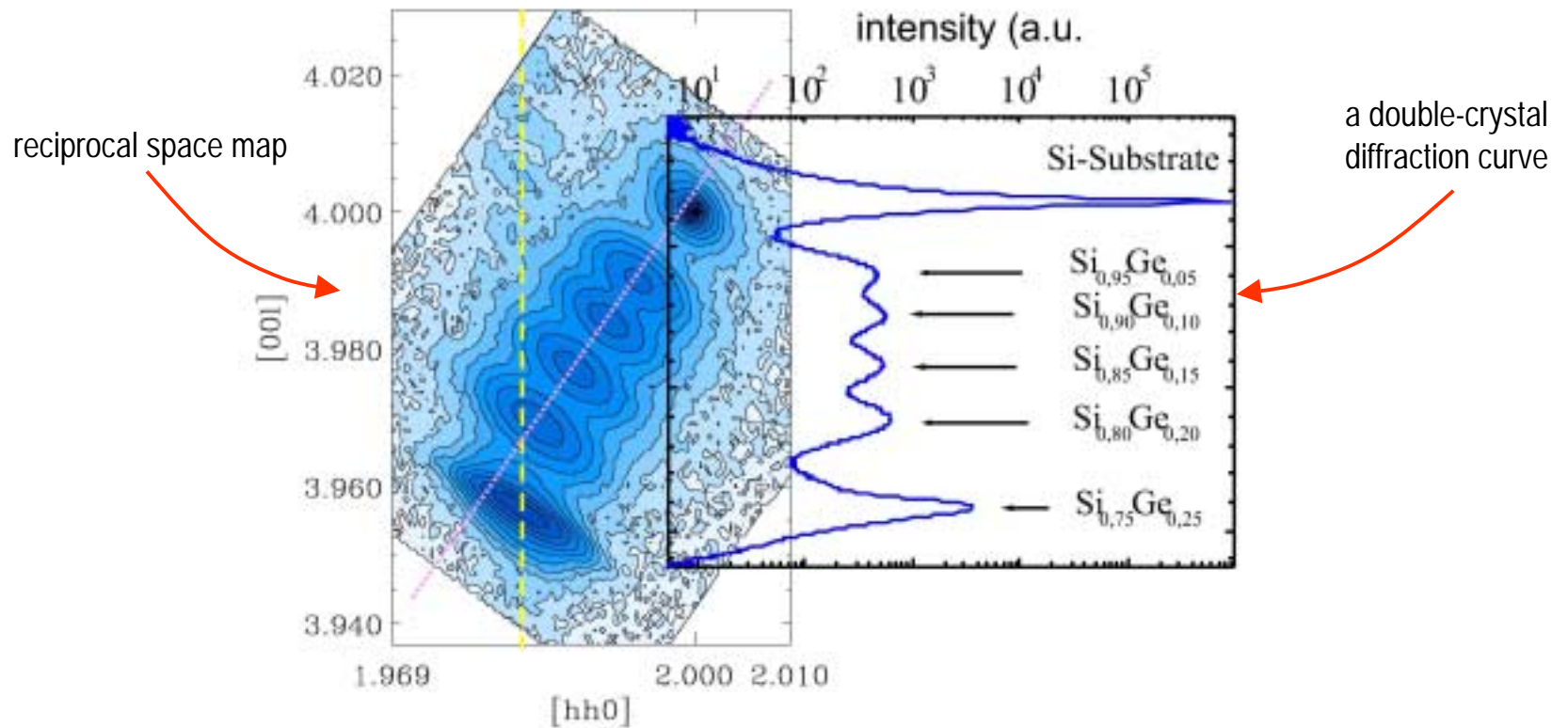


from the position of the layer peak, the value $r \approx 0.1$ follows

H. Heinke et al., J. Cryst. Growth **135**, 41 (1994).



Reciprocal space map of a graded multilayer in asymmetric 224 diffraction

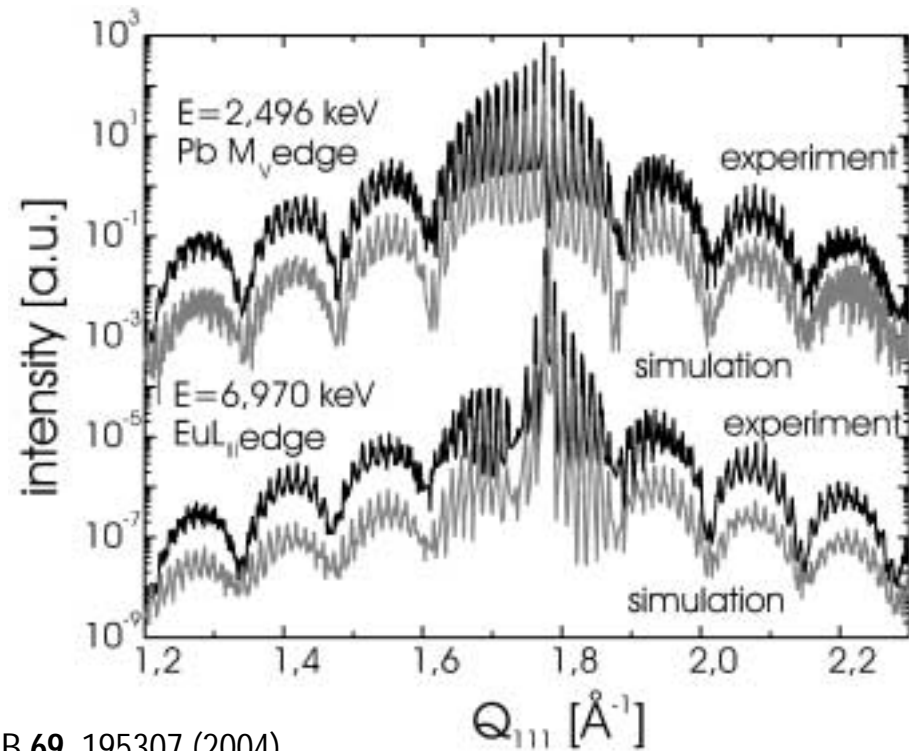


The first 4 layers are relaxed, the 5th layer is nearly pseudomorph with respect to the 4th one



Anomalous scattering effects – using a steep dependence of the atomic scattering factor close to an absorption edge

a 100-period multilayer of $(\text{PbSe})_{123}/(\text{EuSe})_{13}$ on PbTe (111), weak 111 diffraction.
At the Pb-edge, the PbSe layers are suppressed – the intensity stems mainly from EuSe (positive mismatch).
At the Eu-edge, the EuSe layers are suppressed, the PbSe layers are visible (negative mismatch to PbTe).

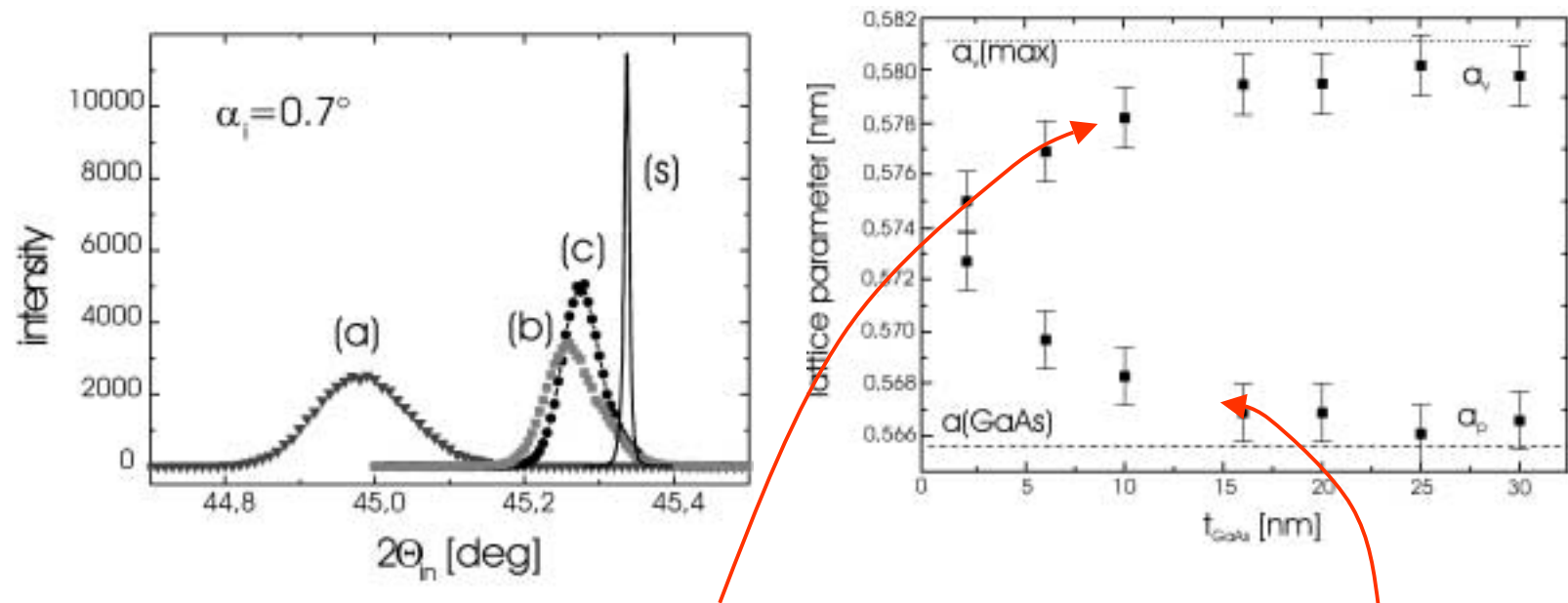


T. U. Schuelli et al., Phys. Rev. B **69**, 195307 (2004)



Grazing-incidence diffraction – determining the lateral lattice parameter

A series of $\text{In}_{0.8}\text{Ga}_{0.2}\text{As}(18\text{nm})/\text{GaAs}$ superlattices with various GaAs thicknesses, 200 GID diffraction:



the mean vertical lattice parameter increases with increasing thickness of GaAs

the common in-plane lattice parameter decreases with increasing thickness of GaAs

D. Rose et al., Physica B **198**, 256 (1994).



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2. High-resolution x-ray scattering – what it can do
- 3. 2D layers and multilayers:**
 - 3.1. thicknesses of layers
 - 3.2. strains in layers
- 3.3. interface roughness**
4. What else can be done
5. High-resolution x-ray scattering – what it cannot do



Interface roughness in x-ray reflection:

- decreases the intensity of the specularly reflected rays
- gives rise to diffuse x-ray scattering

Decrease of the specular intensity – the Fresnel reflectivity coefficient of an interface is multiplied by the attenuation factor

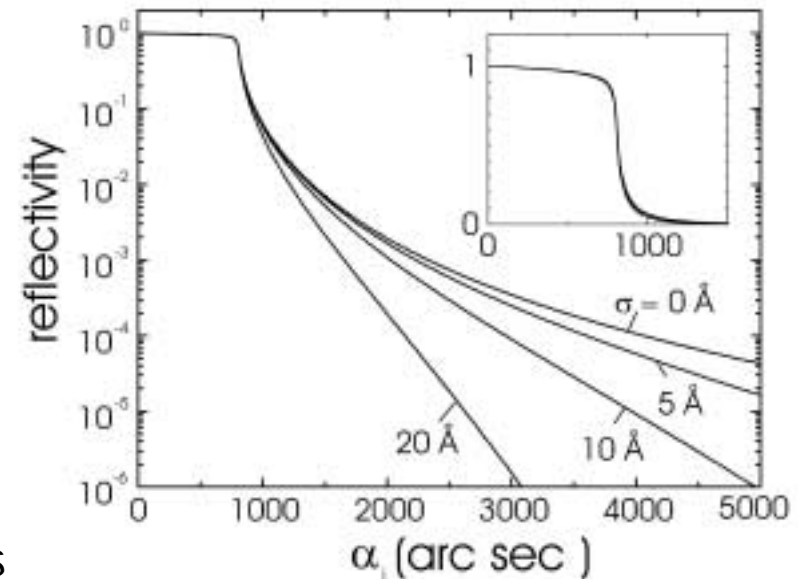
$$\exp(-Q_z Q_{zT} \sigma^2 / 2)$$

rms roughness of the interface

the vertical component of the scattering vector above the interface

the vertical component of the scattering vector below the interface

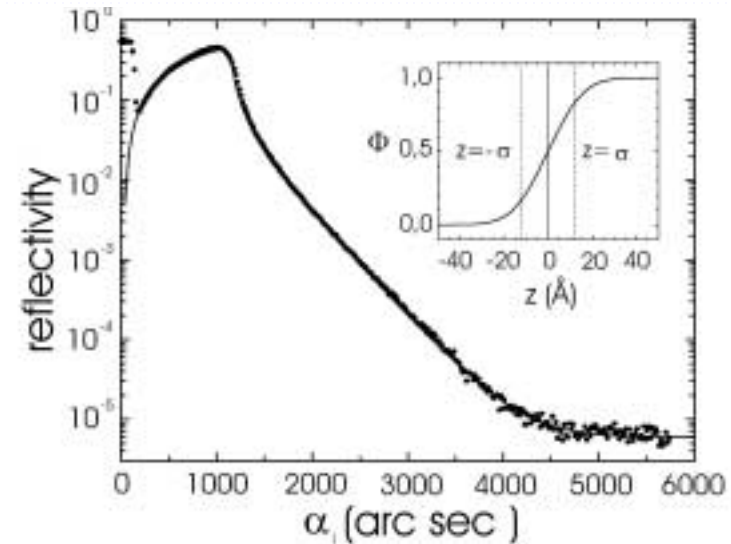
specular reflectivity of a Si surface calculated for various roughnesses





Examples of specular reflectivity results:

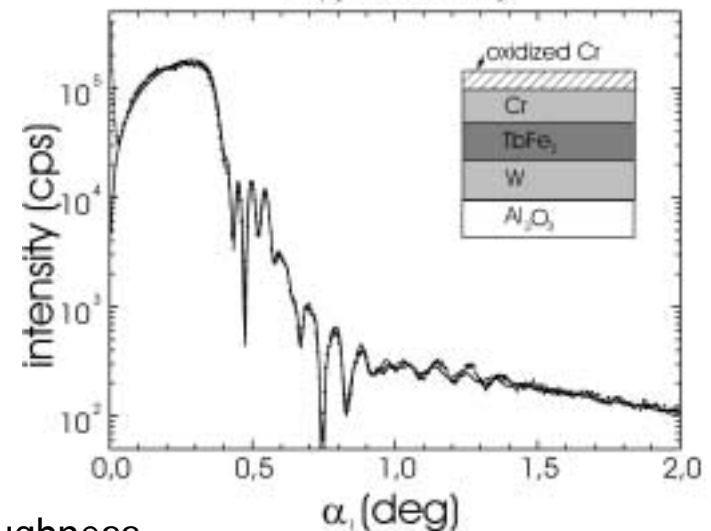
measured and fitted specular reflectivity
of a rough GaAs surface



measured and fitted specular reflectivity
of a metallic sandwich, rms roughnesses:

$$\sigma_{\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3} = (0.2 \pm 0.05) \text{ nm}, \quad \sigma_{\text{TbFe}_2} = (9.4 \pm 0.5) \text{ nm},$$

$$\sigma_{\text{Cr}} = (2.2 \pm 0.3) \text{ nm}$$



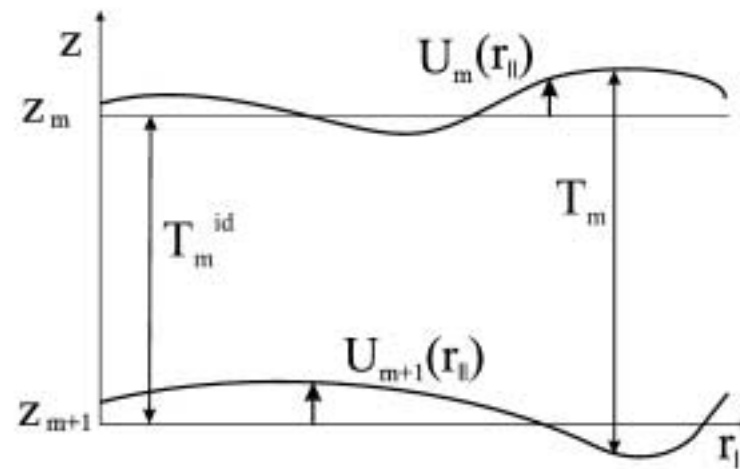
The specular reflectivity is sensitive to the rms roughness
but **not to the roughness correlation length**



Diffusely scattered intensity distribution in reciprocal space is, roughly speaking, proportional to the Fourier transformation of the roughness correlation function

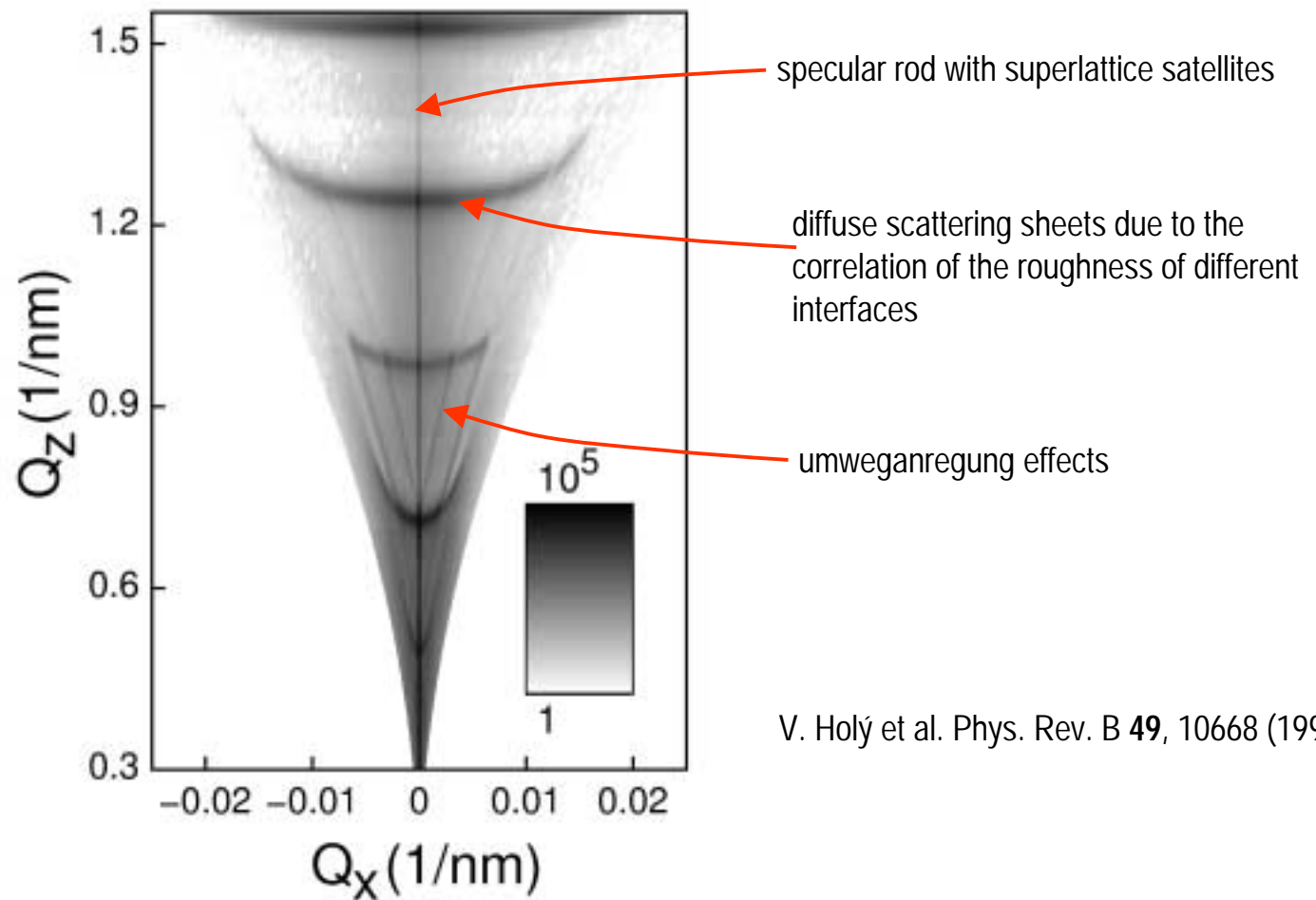
$$C_{mn}(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}') = \langle U_m(\mathbf{r})U_n(\mathbf{r}') \rangle$$

sketch of the interfaces in a rough multilayer





Example: a reciprocal space map of a GaAs(15nm)/AlAs(7nm) multilayer



V. Holý et al. Phys. Rev. B **49**, 10668 (1994)



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Volume defects in the layers:

- mosaic structure of relaxed layers
 - size of the mosaic blocks
- misfit dislocations in relaxed layers V. Holý et al., *J. Appl. Cryst.* **27**, 551 (1994)
 - densities of particular dislocation types
- defects in implanted layers V. Kaganer et al., *Phys. Rev. B* **55**, 1793 (1997).
 - vertical profiles of radiation defects
- precipitates, stacking faults, dislocation loops etc. M. A. Krivoglaz, *X-Ray and Neutron Diffraction in Nonideal Crystals* (Springer, Berlin, 1996)
 - types, sizes and densities of the defects

Semiconductor nanostructures:

- etched quantum wires and dots U. Pietsch et al., *High Resolution X-Ray Scattering from Thin Film and Lateral Nanostructures*, (Springer 2004).
 - morphology and strain J. Stangl et al., *Rev. Mod. Phys.* in print (2004)
- self-organized quantum wires and dots M. Schmidbauer, *X-Ray Diffuse Scattering from Self-Organized Mesoscopic Semiconductor Structures*, (Springer 2004).
 - positions, shapes and chemical compositions of non-capped and buried nanostructures

Local methods – microdiffraction (a powerful x-ray optics is necessary)



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High-resolution x-ray scattering method measures the intensity distribution **in reciprocal space** and it is not trivial to obtain real-space information (**phase problem**).

Usually, a suitable structure model must be chosen *a priori* and fitted to measured data.

Attempts to overcome the phase problem by a direct method were successful only in trivial cases

- a phase recovery of a wave diffracted from a thin layer
- coherent (i.e. phase-sensitive) small angle scattering from metallic clusters

Monographs on high-resolution x-ray scattering:

- V. Holý, U. Pietsch and T. Baumbach, *High-Resolution X-Ray Scattering From Thin Films and Multilayers*, (Springer 1999); a new edition appears in 2004
- P. F. Fewster, *X-Ray Scattering From Semiconductors*, (Imperial Coll. Press 2003).
- D. K. Bowen, B. K. Tanner, *High Resolution X-Ray Diffractometry Topography*, (CRC Press 1998) .

THANK YOU FOR YOUR KIND ATTENTION