

An X-ray Topographic Study of Planar Growth Defects in a Natural Diamond

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ABSTRACT

Ten outcropping planar defects 30 to 70 μm in edge length lying in $\{111\}$ planes inclined to the octahedral faces of an unusually perfect diamond (diameter 4 mm) were revealed by diffraction contrast but could not be detected optically. Those defects in the form of an equilateral triangle with one edge in the crystal surface show stacking-fault-type fringes and are bounded by Frank sessile dislocations. A single regular tetrahedral fault surface lying wholly within the crystal produces a type of x-ray interference not previously observed. Its diffraction theory is outlined, and computed fringe positions and spacings agree well with observation.

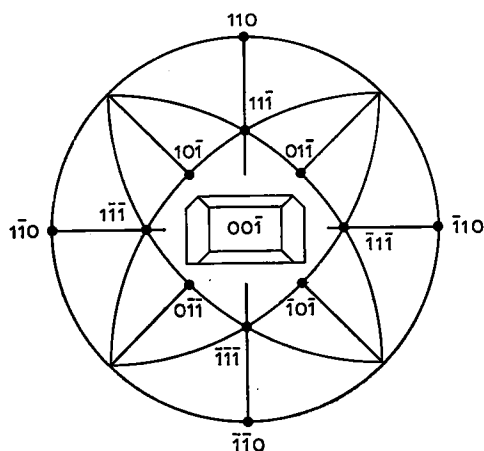
§ 1. INTRODUCTION

IMPERFECTIONS within diamonds may be studied by x-ray topography without destruction of the specimen. The techniques employed and some of their findings have been reviewed by Frank and Lang (1965). Recently, as part of a study of the abrasion of diamond (Lawn, Lang and E. Wilks, in preparation) we have made a topographic study of an unusually perfect stone, and have discovered therein local planar defects of a type not seen previously in the course of surveys of some dozens of specimens. The defects lie in well-defined crystallographic orientations. All are parallel to $\{111\}$. With one exception they outcrop at natural octahedral faces. One defect, in form a regular tetrahedron with faces parallel to $\{111\}$, was contained wholly within the crystal.

Poles of planes used for topograph reflections are indexed in the stereographic projection on $(00\bar{1})$, fig. 1. A sketch of the stone, oriented similarly to the projection, is placed at the figure centre. Originally the stone was a somewhat irregular octahedron. When examined by us it had a pair of opposite apices truncated and polished to form large $(00\bar{1})$ and small (001) facets respectively, and one edge was polished away to produce a $(\bar{1}\bar{1}0)$ facet.

On the $2\bar{2}0$, $\bar{2}20$ stereopair of projection topographs (figs. 2 (a) and (b)) the following features may be noted. Flecks of blackening on images of natural faces reveal the abundance of scratches and ring-cracks. Burrs on edges produce lines of blackening which are helpful in indicating the outline of the stone. Corners are badly chipped and bruised and give especially intense reflections. Within the stone the density of dislocations

Fig. 1

Stereographic projection on (00 $\bar{1}$). Sketch of stone at centre.

is exceptionally low. The majority of those present radiate from a central imperfection. Images of the polished facets show no surface damage. Instead they display a series of concentric 'picture-frames' of enhanced diffracting power. These arise from local lattice curvature where the artificially cut facets intersect natural {111} growth stratifications and allow relaxation of grown-in stresses due presumably to varying impurity content. Such stratifications record the history of growth of the crystal since they show successive positions of the surface of the growing crystal, i.e. of growth horizons.

The features described above are all familiar in x-ray topography of diamond (Frank and Lang 1959, 1965, Lang 1964.) Man-made features

Fig. 2



(a)

(b)

Stereopair of projection topographs, Mo K α radiation. Crystal width is 4 mm. Interior tetrahedron circled, imperfect layer parallel to (111) arrowed. (a) $2\bar{2}0$ reflection, (b) 220 reflection.

peculiar to the topographs here shown are the ellipses of blackening arising from cuts made with the edge of a rotating double conical wheel used in the abrasion tests (Wilks and Wilks 1959, Wilks 1961). We see two cuts parallel to $[010]$ on $[00\bar{1}]$, and four parallel to $[11\bar{2}]$ on $[\bar{1}\bar{1}\bar{1}]$. An unusual natural feature is the diffuse triangular sheet of enhanced diffracting power parallel to a $(\bar{1}11)$ plane within the crystal (arrowed in figs. 2 (a) and (b)). This sheet will be discussed in § 4. The outcropping defects of present interest are all less than $70\ \mu\text{m}$ in maximum dimension and are not readily seen at the low magnifications of fig. 2. They appear as small dark triangles. The majority outcrop on the $(11\bar{1})$ face. Single examples have been detected in $(\bar{1}11)$ and $(\bar{1}\bar{1}\bar{1})$. The interior tetrahedral defect, seen faintly within the circles on figs. 2 (a) and (b), lies a little more than half-way from the cube plane containing the central imperfection to the $(00\bar{1})$ facet.

In addition to the x-ray diffraction studies we have examined the stone by transmitted polarized light, by scattered light, and by x-ray absorption topography. Phase contrast micrographs have been taken of the $(11\bar{1})$ surface. None of the planar defects here discussed were revealed in these additional examinations.

For convenience we will discuss the outcropping defects and the interior tetrahedral defect separately, in § 2 and § 3 respectively. In § 4 we will draw some general conclusions concerning the growth history of the diamond.

§ 2. OUTCROPPING DEFECTS

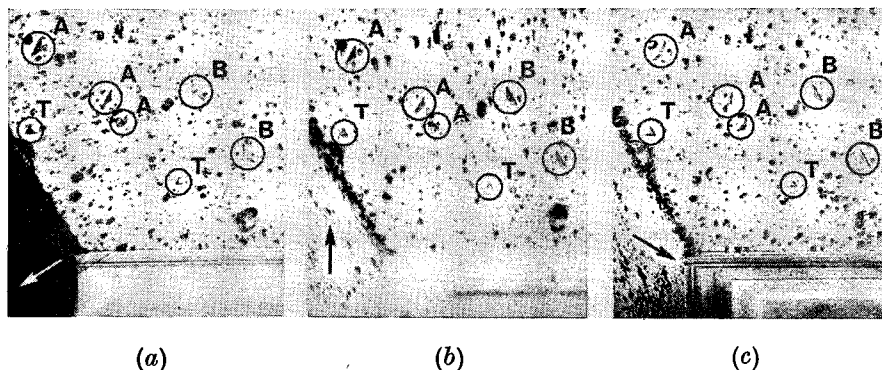
For various reasons (chief of which is the reduction of extinction distance with increasing wavelength) better resolution is achieved with $\text{Cu K}\alpha$ than with $\text{Mo K}\alpha$ radiation. A set of topographs of the $(11\bar{1})$ face was taken with $\text{Cu K}\alpha$ radiation, using the $1\bar{1}\bar{1}$, 111 , $\bar{1}\bar{1}\bar{1}$, $20\bar{2}$, 220 and $02\bar{2}$ reflections. In all cases it could be arranged that the diffracted beam left the $(11\bar{1})$ face nearly normally so as to form an undistorted topographic image. When necessary, the technique of 'limited projection topographs' (Lang 1963) was used to eliminate the unwanted images from other parts of the crystal. In fig. 3 are shown the $1\bar{1}\bar{1}$, 111 and $\bar{1}\bar{1}\bar{1}$ topographs of the corner of the $(11\bar{1})$ face close to the $(\bar{1}\bar{1}\bar{1})$ face and $(00\bar{1})$ facet. This corner has the highest density of outcropping defects. Different variations across the topographs of image density and contrast arise from unavoidable differences in absorbing path through the crystal taken by the rays in each case. The corner of the $(00\bar{1})$ facet included in the field shows the growth stratifications clearly.

The outcropping planar defects appear to occupy equilateral triangles on one or more of the $\{111\}$ planes intersecting $(11\bar{1})$. One edge of each triangle lies in the $(11\bar{1})$ surface. This configuration leads us to expect the three basic forms sketched in fig. 4, viz. triangles on a single plane, dihedra and trihedra. We do observe single-plane defects (e.g. those in

fig. 3 marked A, parallel to $(1\bar{1}\bar{1})$, and B, parallel to $(1\bar{1}\bar{0})$, and also trihedra (marked T in fig. 3); but we have not found dihedra on any face.

The defects exhibit no *area* diffraction contrast when their plane coincides with the Bragg plane, nor in 220-type reflections from planes in the zone normal to the defect plane. Other 111 and 220-type reflections show area contrast which under favourable geometrical conditions is resolved into

Fig. 3

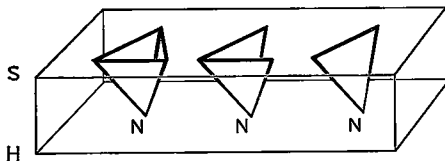


(a) (b) (c)
Topographs of part of $(1\bar{1}\bar{1})$ face, with part of $(00\bar{1})$ facet included in lower right of field. Cu $K\alpha$ radiation. Arrows, length $150\ \mu\text{m}$, are projections of diffraction vector. Circles A indicate triangles parallel to $(1\bar{1}\bar{1})$; B, triangles parallel to $(1\bar{1}\bar{0})$; and T, trihedra. (a) $1\bar{1}\bar{1}$ reflection, (b) $11\bar{1}$ reflection, (c) $\bar{1}\bar{1}\bar{1}$ reflection.

stacking-fault-type fringes with the familiar Pendellösung depth periodicity of about $20\ \mu\text{m}$. Thus in each of the $11\bar{1}$ -type reflections the two sides of a trihedron which are not parallel with the Bragg plane produce contrast, as shown in the enlargements in figs. 5(a), (b) and (c). The trihedra appearing in fig. 3 are too small to show more than the first Pendellösung maximum. The larger single-plane defects (A, B) have their apices (N, fig. 4) about $55\ \mu\text{m}$ below the surface and show three fringes (fig. 5(d)).

It is beyond the resolving power of the x-ray topographs to detect any line contrast from edges of a trihedron in the presence of area contrast

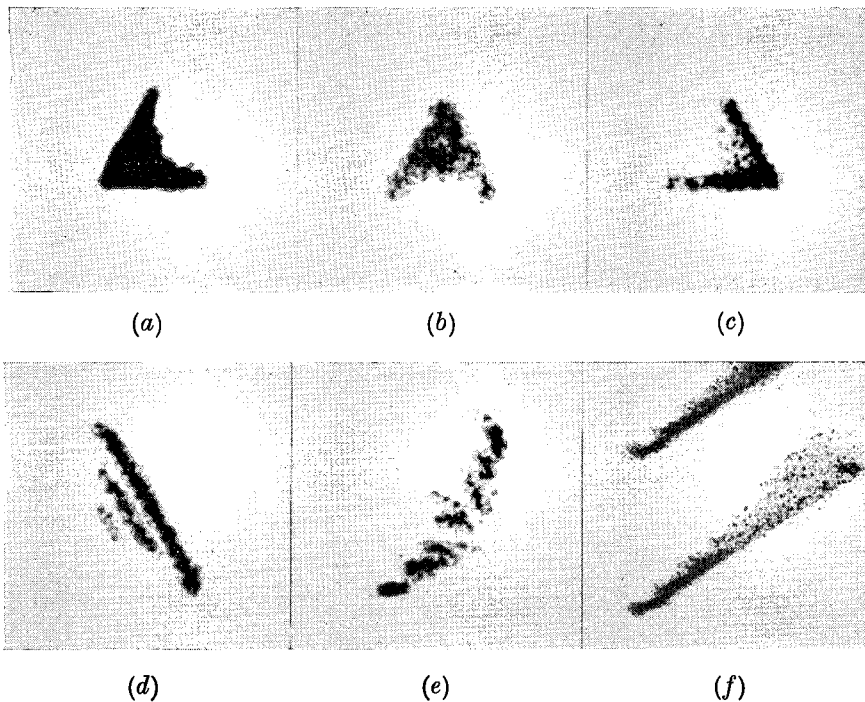
Fig. 4



Expected basic forms of grown-in plane defects initiated at nuclei N on horizon H and propagated outwards to crystal surface S; trihedron, dihedron, and triangle.

from its faces, but we do observe dislocation-line contrast from the edges of the single-plane defects in those reflections which give no area contrast. Figure 5 (e) is an enlargement of a defect in orientation A, i.e. parallel to $(\bar{1}\bar{1}\bar{1})$, taken with the $\bar{1}\bar{1}\bar{1}$ reflection. That this curious pattern does arise from a pair of dislocations diverging from the apex and running out to the surface along $[110]$ and $[10\bar{1}]$ respectively may be understood from the following observations. Firstly, consider the two isolated dislocations which outcrop in the field of fig. 3. They appear on fig. 3 (a) only: one is on the left of the upper defect B and the other below and to the left of the lower defect B. Both dislocations have Burgers vector parallel to $[10\bar{1}]$ and are mainly screw. They give sharp images near their points of outcrop, but the images from segments below the surface get rapidly wider and weaker with increasing segment depth. This widening arises from the fanning-out of the diffraction effects of the dislocation within the whole 'energy-flow triangle' contained between incident and diffracted beam directions. The angle $2\theta_B$ included between these directions, 44° , is large in the present case. Near the outcrop the sharp dislocation

Fig. 5



Enlargements of images of outcropping defects shown in fig. 3. (Images of surface damage have been subdued.) Trihedron in reflections (a) $\bar{1}\bar{1}\bar{1}$, (b) $11\bar{1}$, (c) $\bar{1}\bar{1}\bar{1}$, (d) triangle parallel to $(11\bar{1})$, reflection $\bar{1}\bar{1}\bar{1}$, (e) triangle parallel to $(\bar{1}\bar{1}\bar{1})$, reflection $\bar{1}\bar{1}\bar{1}$, (f) outcropping dislocations in silicon, for comparison with image (e).

image has the familiar Pendellösung beading; further away this changes to a 'feathering' or 'barbing' of the image. It is these barbs which we see chiefly in fig. 5(e). The two images shown for comparison in fig. 5(f) are of dislocations in silicon taken with Mo K α radiation. For them the energy flow-triangle is much narrower and their barbs are not so pronounced. They are, however, viewed in an orientation similar to the lower bounding dislocation (parallel to $[10\bar{1}]$) in fig. 5(e). If a mirror be placed on one of the fig. 5(f) images in the position corresponding to the mirror plane of the image of fig. 5(e) then the latter pattern can be convincingly synthesized.

We find that the dislocations bounding all single-plane defects are Frank sessiles. We will review the evidence for this conclusion with respect to defects in the orientation B. Figure 3(a) shows that the contrast of the bounding dislocations is closely similar to that of the two isolated dislocations having Burgers vector $\frac{1}{2}[10\bar{1}]$. For the latter, in this $1\bar{1}\bar{1}$ reflection, $\mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 1$. Since x-ray topographic dislocation image contrast depends quite strongly upon the value of $\mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{b}$ under the experimental conditions applying, we conclude that $\mathbf{g} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 1$ also for the bounding dislocations. Since, to a first order, the bounding dislocations are invisible in the 220 and $02\bar{2}$ reflections, we conclude that \mathbf{b} is normal to the plane of the defect, and thus is $\frac{1}{3}[1\bar{1}\bar{1}]$. In fact, very feeble visibility of the bounding partial parallel to $[110]$ appears in the $02\bar{2}$ reflection, and of the partial parallel to $[01\bar{1}]$ in the 220 reflection. These latter observations confirm the pure edge character of the bounding dislocations: we expect the dislocation line parallel to \mathbf{g} to be strictly invisible, whereas that making 60° with \mathbf{g} can produce faint contrast from the term proportional to $\mathbf{l} \times \mathbf{b}$ in its displacement field (\mathbf{l} is unit vector parallel to the line).

The defects described above bear a marked resemblance to those observed in electron microscopy of epitaxially grown layers of silicon on silicon (Booker and Stickler 1962, Booker 1965). In the present examples certain growth horizons (such as H, fig. 4) contain the nucleating points for the defects, in place of the substrate-epitaxial layer interface in the silicon case. The simplest explanation of the orientation and contrast of trihedra is that they are stacking faults propagated from a small triangular island of wrongly stacked material at the horizon H, according to the model of Booker and Stickler (1962). These workers have been able to show that in silicon grown on a chemically polished silicon substrate the three sides of the trihedra are each single intrinsic faults (Booker and Stickler 1963). The trihedra we observed are too small for the nature of their faults to be determined by x-ray topography.

The defects which appear as triangles on a $\{111\}$ plane inclined to the crystal face may contain micro-twin lamellae or a number of stacking faults. There could be present twin lamellae many hundred angstroms thick without noticeably modifying the stacking-fault contrast in x-ray topographs. If there is a succession of similar stacking faults all we can conclude is that their number is not divisible by three. Again, all we can

conclude strictly about the dislocation configuration at the bounding edges of the triangles is that the *resultant* Burgers vector is always $\frac{1}{3}\langle 111 \rangle$ normal to the plane of the triangle. In the absence of evidence to the contrary we suggest that these single-plane defects comprise a single missing or added layer in the f.c.c. stacking sequence. (This is, of course, a double layer of atoms in the diamond structure (Hornstra 1958).) They may propagate from one edge of an island of a wrongly stacked layer on the horizon H. Our Burgers vector findings coincide with those of Booker and Tunstall (Booker 1964) who find that similar triangles in silicon are bounded by $\frac{1}{3}\langle 111 \rangle$ Frank dislocations, sometimes dissociated.

§ 3. THE INTERIOR TETRAHEDRAL DEFECT

The position of the single tetrahedral defect circled in fig. 2 shows that it lies in the (III) growth sector of the crystal. The orientation of the tetrahedron relative to the growth direction is similar to that of the trihedra in figs. 3 and 4. We interpret the tetrahedron as arising from the termination of a trihedral growth defect by capping with a fault plane on the growth front. This conclusion is supported by the diffraction evidence. No diffraction contrast arises from imperfection within the *volume* of the tetrahedron. This volume appears to be perfect crystal in strictly parallel orientation with the surrounding crystal. *Area* diffraction contrast is obtained from faces of the tetrahedron when the Bragg plane does not coincide with the face or does not lie in the zone of the face-normal. Thus in 111-type reflections three out of four faces produce contrast, and in 220-type reflections two out of four. Figure 6 compares stereopairs of limited projection topograph images of 111 and 220-type reflections with the respective images. The difference between our tetrahedron images and those predicted and observed for 220-type reflections by Pashley and Presland (1961) in electron microscope studies of gold foils arises from the higher Bragg angle and different orientation of the tetrahedron with respect to the incident beam in our case. The density of the image depends upon the ratio of cross-sectional area of primary beam intercepted by the face to that of the diffracted beam leaving it. In the case of the 220-type reflections the expected ratio of densities from the two active faces is $\sin^2(\alpha + \theta_B)/\sin^2(\alpha - \theta_B) \sim 4$ (θ_B is the Bragg angle, α is the angle between Bragg plane and the face). We have confirmed that all faces of the tetrahedron have similar diffraction properties. The large size of the tetrahedron (edge length 115 μm) excludes the possibility of its production from collapse of a triangular vacancy disc in the grown crystal (as can occur on a much smaller scale in quenched metals (Silcox and Hirsch 1959)). We can obtain no direct evidence on the nature of the dislocations along the $\langle 110 \rangle$ edges of the tetrahedron. If they are simply the stair-rod type with small Burgers vector $\frac{1}{6}\langle 110 \rangle$ we would not expect to see them in the presence of area contrast from the faces.

Interference fringes appear in section topograph images of the tetrahedron. Two sequences of section topographs taken under the geometrical