Statistical analysis of a mixed-layer x-ray diffraction peak

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Abstract. A mathematical model to describe the line shape of an x-ray diffraction peak from stacks of different layers such as, for instance, an interstratified clay mineral has been evolved. The aim was to be able to analyse the proportions of different specific stacking sequences in two-component interstratified samples. A maximum-entropy algorithm was applied to observed powder-diffraction intensities in order to obtain the probability of each stacking sequence. Application to natural smectite–illite clays gave reasonable results.

1. Introduction

The kinematical description (the single-scattering approximation) of the diffraction of x-rays by a crystal allows for a theory of diffraction which is known to be valid within the limit of *small crystals* [1]. In this paper we apply such a description in order to model the diffraction peak produced by the scattering of x-rays impinging on an interstratified stack. These materials differ from *small crystals* in that, since the diffracting stack is composed of layers of different types, its charge density is non-periodic in one direction and therefore, *strictu sensu*, the stack is not a crystal. The assumption of *small crystals* that guarantees the validity of the kinematical approximation is kept here *under the requirement of considering the number of layers that compose the corresponding stack small*.

The motivation for this work is that of facilitating the determination of stacking-sequence distributions in mixed-layer (interstratified) clay minerals. The seminal early work on interstratified clay (IC) minerals was that by Weaver, published in 1956 [2]. The pertinent modern literature is rather extensive, [3] providing one with a good summary.

Any investigation of mixed-layer clays (be they petrological or mineralogical in nature) critically depends on the ability to interpret their x-ray diffraction peaks [4]. We shall present here a framework that allows the observed x-ray diffraction peak to be modelled as arising from the contributions due to each interstratified stack (for every conceivable stacking sequence), weighted according to the distribution of sequences. Since the dimension of the pertinent configuration space is very large, compared with the information that can be directly obtained from

the available diffraction measurements, recourse to the maximum-entropy principle is to be recommended [5–7].

The paper is organized in the following fashion. In section 2 the maximum-entropy approach is described, whereas section 3 deals with the particular case of mixed-layer systems of two components. Illustrations of the concomitant formalism are discussed in section 4, in which relevant realistic situations are considered. Finally, some conclusions are drawn in section 5.

2. The maximum-entropy approach

Here, we consider the analysis of the diffraction intensity coming from an interlayering of l different types of layer. The intensity distribution in the x-ray diffraction peaks is sensitive to the proportions of each different stacking sequence, so we will apply a maximum-entropy method to determine sequence distributions from intensities. In order to obtain this information we need to ascertain the response of a given sequence when x-rays of wavelength λ (of the order of the interplanar distance) impinge upon an appropriate sample.

Consider an interstratified stack that is formed by stacking up N layers. The position of each layer, along the stacking direction, will be labelled with an integer j that runs form one to N. Because we are dealing with l different types of layer we have l^N possible sequences. Let ν stand for the set of indices needed to specify a given sequence. Using the single-scattering approximation [1], the diffraction intensity $F_{\nu}(\theta)$ produced by a stack in the

configuration ν turns out to be

$$F_{\nu}(\theta) \propto \sum_{i=1}^{N} H^{2}(i) + 2 \sum_{i< j}^{N} H(i)H(j) \cos\left(\phi(j) - \phi(i)\right) + \frac{4\pi}{\lambda} \sum_{s=1}^{j-1} (R(s+1) - R(s))\right)$$
(2.1)

where R(j) is the distance from the site j to the detector, while H(j) and $\phi(j)$ are, respectively, the modulus and phase of the pertinent structure factor, which will depend upon the type of layer located at the site j.

Consider now that the number N of layers per stack is not fixed but can run from one to N_m . Then, the number of all possible sequences in the sample, N_c , say, is

$$N_c = \sum_{N=1}^{N_m} l^N = \frac{l^{N_m+1}-l}{l-1}.$$

The probability of the sequence ν will be denoted by ρ_{ν} .

We assume that we have at our disposal the results of M diffraction measurements performed upon an l-component sample. Considering that the measurement I_k is performed at the angle θ_k , we write

$$I_{k} = I(\theta_{k}) = A \sum_{N=1}^{N_{m}} \sum_{\nu=1}^{I^{N}} \rho_{\nu} F_{\nu}(\theta_{k}) + B + e_{k}$$

$$k = 1, \dots, M$$
(2.2)

where the proportionality factor A allows for introduction of the normalization condition

$$\sum_{N=1}^{N_m} \sum_{\nu=1}^{l^N} \rho_{\nu} = 1 \tag{2.3}$$

and the constant B is used to represent the effects of a constant background. The terms e_k are 'noise' ones. Let e_k with $k=1,\ldots,M$ be independent random variables, normally distributed with zero mean and variance σ_k^2 and define the quadratic form

$$\Psi(\rho_1, \dots, \rho_{N_c}, B) = \sum_{k=1}^{M} \frac{(I_k - A \sum_{N=1}^{N_m} \sum_{\nu=1}^{I^N} \rho_{\nu} F_{\nu}(\theta_k) - B)^2}{\sigma_k^2}.$$
 (2.4)

The estimator of maximum likelihood is obtained by minimizing (2.4) and renders the classical generalized leastsquare solution. However, since we are dealing with a problem in which the number of unknowns is larger than the number of data, we are in the presence of an undetermined least-square problem. In general, the unrestricted minimization of (2.4) leads to solutions for which $\Psi(\rho_1,\ldots,\rho_{N_c},B)$ vanishes on a hyperplane (of dimension $(N_c + 1 - M)$) whose equation is given by (2.2) with $e_k = 0$ with k = 1, ..., M. In order to incorporate into the desired solution the restriction of positivity, but in a manner compatible with the nature of the errors affecting the data, we shall build a maximum-entropy solution that fixes a numerical value of $\Psi(\rho_1, \dots, \rho_{N_c}, B)$ that is only decided upon by actually taking into account the errors in the data. This is achieved by means of the iterative algorithm proposed in [6, 7], whose operational steps we describe below.

We start by determining the appropriate generalized least-square equations, that are obtained by demanding that

$$\frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial \rho_{\nu}} = 0 \qquad \nu = 1, \dots, N_c \tag{2.5}$$

$$\frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial B} = 0. \tag{2.6}$$

Conditions (2.5) and (2.6) are tantamount to solving the equations

$$T_{\mu} = A \sum_{N=1}^{N_m} \sum_{\nu=1}^{l^N} \rho_{\nu} a_{\nu,\mu} \qquad \mu = 1, \dots, N_c$$
 (2.7)

where

$$T_{\mu} = \sum_{k=1}^{M} \frac{I_{k} F_{\mu}(\theta_{k})}{\sigma_{k}^{4}} - \left(\sum_{k=1}^{M} \frac{I_{k}}{\sigma_{k}^{4}}\right) \left(\sum_{k=1}^{M} \frac{F_{\mu}(\theta_{k})}{\sigma_{k}^{4}}\right) \times \left(\sum_{k=1}^{M} \frac{1}{\sigma_{k}^{4}}\right)^{-1}$$
(2.8)

$$a_{\nu,\mu} = \sum_{k=1}^{M} \frac{F_{\mu}(\theta_{k}) F_{\nu}(\theta_{k})}{\sigma_{k}^{4}} - \left(\sum_{k=1}^{M} \frac{F_{\mu}(\theta_{k})}{\sigma_{k}^{4}}\right) \times \left(\sum_{k=1}^{M} \frac{F_{\nu}(\theta_{k})}{\sigma_{k}^{4}}\right) \left(\sum_{k=1}^{M} \frac{1}{\sigma_{k}^{4}}\right)^{-1}.$$
(2.9)

The system of equations (2.7) is, of course, redundant. In order to eliminate this redundancy we use these equations, in successive fashion (one by one), as constraints to be satisfied by a maximum-entropy solution. Accordingly, if several (indeed an infinite number) ρ_{ν} are candidates that fulfil the given constraints, the one to be selected is that which maximizes the statistical entropy S [8–10]

$$S = -\sum_{N=1}^{N_m} \sum_{\nu=1}^{l^N} \rho_{\nu} \ln \rho_{\nu}. \tag{2.10}$$

We regard each T_{μ} in (2.7) as proportional to the mean value of a random variable that adopts the values $a_{\nu,\mu}$ with $\nu = 1, ..., N_c$ with probability ρ_{ν} and we solve the set of equations (2.7) in an iterative manner. In order to estimate the unknown constant A we choose just one of the equations (2.7), the α th say, so that we have

$$A = T_{\alpha} \left(\sum_{N=1}^{N_m} \sum_{\nu=1}^{l^N} \rho_{\nu} a_{\nu,\alpha} \right)^{-1}$$
 (2.11)

and the system to be solved can be re-cast in the form

$$\sum_{N=1}^{N_m} \sum_{\nu=1}^{l^N} \rho_{\nu} Q_{\nu,\mu} = 0 \qquad \mu \neq \alpha; \mu = 1, \dots, N_c \quad (2.12)$$

where

$$Q_{\nu,\mu} = T_{\alpha} a_{\nu,\mu} - T_{\mu} a_{\nu,\alpha}. \tag{2.13}$$

We start the iterative process now by employing the maximum-entropy principle in each step. The zeroth-order approximation is devised by requiring that the zeroth-order distribution $\rho_{\nu}^{(0)}$ maximizes the entropy (2.10) with the

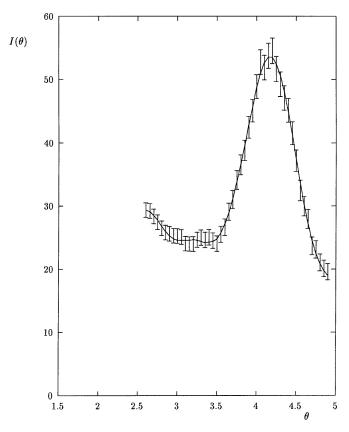


Figure 1. X-ray diffraction intensities (arbitrary units) versus the diffraction angle. The full curve corresponds to the $\rho_{\nu 1}^{(6)}$ theoretical predictions.

normalization constraint only. This entails $\rho_{\nu}^{(0)} = 1/N_c$ and the zeroth-order estimate for A is then

$$A^{0} = T_{\alpha} \left(\sum_{N=1}^{N_{m}} \sum_{\nu=1}^{l^{N}} \frac{a_{\nu,\alpha}}{N_{c}} \right)^{-1}$$
 (2.14)

so that we predict a zeroth-order value for the T_μ as given by

$$T_{\mu}^{0} = T_{\alpha} \sum_{N=1}^{N_{m}} \sum_{\nu=1}^{l^{N}} a_{\nu,\mu} \left(\sum_{N=1}^{N_{m}} \sum_{\nu=1}^{l^{N}} a_{\nu,\alpha} \right)^{-1}$$

$$\mu = 1, \dots, N_{c}.$$
(2.15)

The quality of these conjectures is measured in terms of 'predictive errors' ϵ_μ that are defined in the fashion

$$\epsilon_{\mu} = \frac{|T_{\mu} - T_{\mu}^{0}|}{|T_{\mu}|}$$
 $\mu = 1, \dots, N_{c}$ (2.16)

where the T_{μ} with $\mu = 1, ..., N_c$ are given by (2.8). Let μ_1 be the index such that $\epsilon_{\mu_1} \ge \epsilon_{\mu}$ with $\mu = 1, ..., N_c$. The first-order distribution $\rho_{\nu}^{(1)}$ is then obtained by maximizing (2.10) subject to the constraint

$$\sum_{N=1}^{N_m} \sum_{\nu=1}^{l^N} \rho_{\nu}^{(1)} Q_{\nu,\mu_1} = 0$$
 (2.17)

which is equivalent to enforcing the fulfilment of the μ_1 th equation in the system (2.7). This, plus the normalization

requirement (2.3), leads to

$$\rho_{\nu}^{(1)} = \frac{\exp(-\lambda_1 Q_{\nu,\mu_1})}{\sum_{N=1}^{N_m} \sum_{N=1}^{l^N} \exp(-\lambda_1 Q_{\nu,\mu_1})}$$
(2.18)

where the Lagrange multiplier λ_1 is obtained by solving (2.17). With $\rho_{\nu}^{(1)}$ we obtain a first-order estimation for the parameters A and B (let us call them $A^{(1)}$ and $B^{(1)}$), so that we can build the 'predictions' $T_{\mu}^{(1)}$ with $\mu=1,\ldots,N_c$. From these predictions we calculate the concomitant (new) set $\{\epsilon_{\mu}\}$. After we have selected the largest one, ϵ_{μ_2} , say, we obtain $\rho_{\nu}^{(2)}$ by maximizing S subject to two constraints, namely, the fulfilment of the equations in the set (2.12) corresponding both to $\mu=\mu_1$ and to $\mu=\mu_2$.

The following steps continue in the same fashion by selecting from the set (2.7) the 'worst' result and using it as the constraint for the next iterative step. Following such a procedure, the Jth-order approximation is given by

$$\rho_{\nu}^{(J)} = \frac{\exp(-\sum_{i=1}^{J} \lambda_{i} Q_{\nu,\mu_{i}})}{\sum_{N=1}^{N_{m}} \sum_{\nu=1}^{I^{N}} \exp(-\sum_{i=1}^{J} \lambda_{i} Q_{\nu,\mu_{i}})}$$
(2.19)

where the Lagrange multipliers λ_i with i = 1, ..., J are obtained by solving the J equations

$$\sum_{N=1}^{N_m} \sum_{\nu=1}^{l^N} \rho_{\nu}^{(J)} Q_{\nu,\mu_i} = 0 \qquad i = 1, \dots, J.$$
 (2.20)

At each step, say, up to the Jth-order approximation, we can make definite predictions concerning the result of

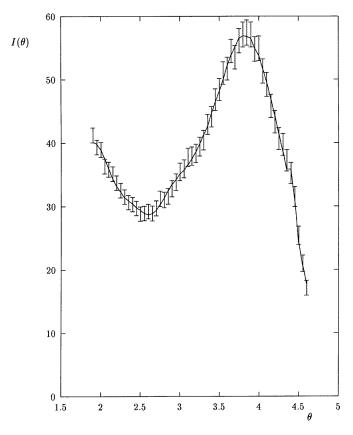


Figure 2. The same details as in figure 1, but that the full curve corresponds to the $\rho_{v2}^{(10)}$ theoretical predictions.

diffraction measurements $I_k^{(J)}$. Indeed,

$$I_k^{(J)} = A^{(J)} \sum_{N=1}^{N_m} \sum_{\nu=1}^{l^N} \rho_{\nu}^{(J)} F_{\nu}(\theta_k) + B^{(J)}$$

$$k = 1, \dots, M$$
(2.21)

where

$$A^{(J)} = T_{\alpha} \left(\sum_{N=1}^{N_m} \sum_{\nu=1}^{l^N} \rho_{\nu}^{(J)} a_{\nu,\alpha} \right)^{-1}$$
 (2.22)

$$B^{(J)} = \left(\sum_{k=1}^{M} \frac{I_k}{\sigma_k^4} - A^{(J)} \sum_{N=1}^{N_m} \sum_{\nu=1}^{l^N} \rho_{\nu}^{(J)} \sum_{k=1}^{M} \frac{F_{\nu}(\theta_k)}{\sigma_k^4}\right) \times \left(\sum_{k=1}^{M} \frac{1}{\sigma_k^4}\right)^{-1}.$$
 (2.23)

The algorithm is to be stopped when these predictions are such that

$$|I_k^{(J)} - I_k| \le \Delta I_k \qquad k = 1, \dots, M$$
 (2.24)

where ΔI_k are estimated as $\Delta I_k = 2\sigma_k$. Since the data are known only within the uncertainty ΔI_k , when that particular stage is reached for which (2.24) is verified, we will have used all the information at our disposal in order to check the predictive power of the maximum-entropy solution. The quadratic form (2.4) will then be $\Psi(\rho_1^{(J)}, \ldots, \rho_{N_c}^{(J)}, B) \neq 0$, which should account for the experimental errors.

Let us suppose that the acceptability test (2.24) is satisfied at the *L*th iteration. At that point, $\rho_{\nu}^{(L)}$ can

be employed to determine the relative quantities of the materials in the sample, namely

$$\langle N^{i} \rangle = \sum_{N=1}^{N_{m}} \sum_{\nu=1}^{l^{N}} \rho_{\nu}^{(L)} N_{\nu}^{i}$$
 (2.25)

where N_{ν}^{i} with $i=1,\ldots,l$ is the number of layers of type i in the configuration ν .

3. The two-component mixed-layering problem

Interlayered, mixed-layer or interstratified phyllosilicates are those in which two or more different types of layer are stacked together along the axis normal to (001). Phyllosilicate layers are strongly bonded internally, but rather weakly to each other. The basal surfaces of different kinds of layers are geometrically very similar, consisting of sheets of oxygen or hydroxyl ions disposed in a pseudohexagonal array [11]. The combination of weak interlayer bonding and structural commensuration parallel to the layers allows the observed interstratification.

Although interstratifications of more than two components have been reported [2, 12, 13], we will deal here only with two-component systems (layer 1 and layer 2). Layer 1 is characterized by (i) an interplanar spacing d_1 and (ii) a structure factor whose modulus and phase depend both on the diffraction angle θ and are denoted by $H_1(\theta)$ and $\phi_1(\theta)$, respectively. Accordingly, the corresponding figures for layer 2 are denoted by d_2 , $H_2(\theta)$ and $\phi_2(\theta)$, respectively.

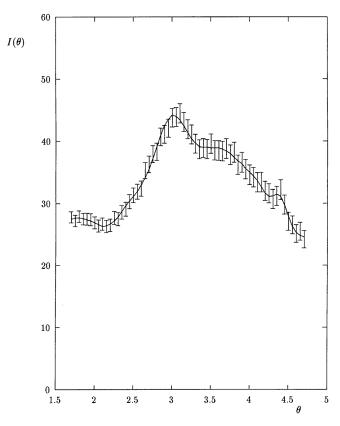


Figure 3. The same details as in figure 1, but that the full curve corresponds to the $\rho_{v3}^{(11)}$ theoretical predictions.

The diffraction intensity resulting from a 001-oriented stack of N layers arranged in a vertical sequence perpendicular to the 001 plane is given by (2.1). The detailed aspect of (2.1) is determined by the occupational sequence. In this instance one has

$$H(j) = \begin{cases} H_1(\theta) & \text{if site } j \text{ corresponds} \\ & \text{to a layer of type 1} \\ H_2(\theta) & \text{if site } j \text{ corresponds} \\ & \text{to a layer of type 2} \end{cases}$$

$$\phi(j) = \begin{cases} \phi_1(\theta) & \text{if site } j \text{ corresponds} \\ & \text{to a 1-layer} \\ \phi_2(\theta) & \text{if site } j \text{ corresponds} \end{cases}$$

$$(3.1)$$

$$\phi(j) = \begin{cases} \phi_1(\theta) & \text{if site } j \text{ corresponds} \\ & \text{to a 1-layer} \\ \phi_2(\theta) & \text{if site } j \text{ corresponds} \\ & \text{to a 2-layer} \end{cases}$$
(3.2)

$$R(j+1) - R(j)$$

$$= \begin{cases} d_1 \sin(\theta) & \text{if both sites } (j \text{ and } j+1) \\ & \text{correspond to a 1-layer} \\ d_2 \sin(\theta) & \text{if both sites correspond to} \\ & a 2\text{-layer} \\ \frac{(d_1 + d_2)}{2} \sin(\theta) & \text{if both types of layers} \\ & \text{are involved.} \end{cases}$$

$$(3.3)$$

As stated in section 2, we have N layers for each stack and thus we are dealing with 2^N possible sequences per stack, N ranging from unity up to a maximum value N_m .

Remember that ν stands for the set of indices needed to specify a given configuration, that $F_{\nu}(\theta)$ is the value of (2.1) for configuration ν and that the probability of finding the sequence ν in our sample is denoted by ρ_{ν} . We are now in a position to write down the expression for our allimportant quantity: the measured diffraction intensity at the angle θ , that will be of the form

$$I(\theta) = A \sum_{N=1}^{N_m} \sum_{\nu=1}^{2^N} \rho_{\nu} F_{\nu}(\theta) + B.$$
 (3.4)

We have introduced at this point all the elements needed in order to tackle an involved, realistic problem in the forthcoming section, in which specific examples of twocomponent systems are to be addressed.

4. The application to natural illite-montmorillonite samples

Montmorillonite is a smectite clay that easily exchanges cations with other substances [11, 14]. We shall analyse here results concerning sodic montmorillonite samples, in which Na cations between the layers compensate for lattice (charge) defects.

Illite clays may originate from montmorillonite and are not able to exchange cations. They rarely appear in pure, single-phase states. Some degree of interstratification is often present, hence it is of great geological and industrial interest to learn details about this interstratification. As

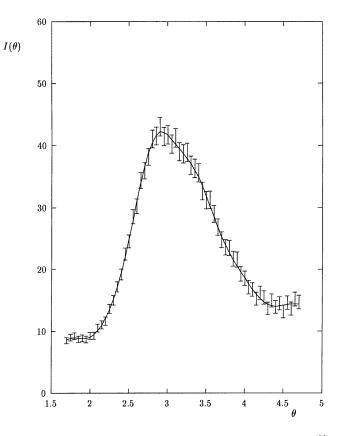


Figure 4. The same details as in figure 1, but that the full curve corresponds to the $\rho_{\nu 4}^{(11)}$ theoretical predictions.

an example we may mention that interstratification details are of importance in the determination of diagenetic zones. They are intimately related both to the origin and to the migration of hydrocarbons in a sedimentary basin.

From a petrological standpoint illite–smectites are the most interesting mixed-layer clays. They are quite ubiquitous, well known from a chemical standpoint and exhibit a mineralogical variation that responds to pressure–temperature variations during diagenesis [15–17].

In order to understand the transformation from smectite to illite that takes place during diagenesis and consequently to establish its role during the transformation of organic matter into liquid and gaseous hydrocarbons, it is of great interest to be in a position to determine the relative proportions of smectite and illite in ICs, as well as the concomitant distribution of stacking sequences.

We shall apply the considerations of the previous sections to this situation and assign label 1 to montmorillonite and label 2 to illite ($d_1 = 15.8 \text{ Å}$ and $d_2 = 10 \text{ Å}$). We take the montmorillonite structure factors from [18], whereas those for illite were computed from the structure reported in [19].

Figures 1–4 display x-ray diffraction peaks obtained from illite–montmorillonite polycrystalline samples (these data have already been corrected for the Lorentz-polarization factor). The error bars in these figures are drawn assuming a 2σ error in the measurement of intensities, where $\sigma=(I)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ (I is the measured intensity). The samples were prepared so as to be preferentially

oriented according to the 00*l* direction. This is achieved by sedimentation from a water suspension onto a glass surface.

As a first example, we believe it to be instructive to analyse an illite sample which is known to be in a single phase (that is, a sample with a negligible degree of interstratification). In previous works [20, 21], it was shown that the particle size distribution of sodic montmorillonite samples was such that most stacks had fewer than six layers. For this reason (and according to the results arising from this first example) we shall consider $N_m = 10$ (which entails dealing with 2046 configurations) and we shall assume that configurations with more than ten layers are of the single-phase kind only (so that in the concomitant states the maximum number of layers can be safely set to be equal to 50).

Figure 1 displays x-ray diffraction measurements from the sample under consideration. We are dealing with 47 data points. In order to attain concordance for all of them with ΔI_k (see equation (2.24)), as represented by the error bars, it was found necessary to construct a sixth-order approximation through which the theoretical values are calculated according to the relations

$$I_k^{(6)} = A^{(6)} \sum_{N=1}^{10} \sum_{\nu=1}^{2^N} \rho_{\nu}^{(6)} F_{\nu}(\theta_k)$$

$$+ A^{(6)} \sum_{K=11}^{50} \rho_K^{(6)} F_K(\theta_k) + B^{(6)}$$

$$(4.1)$$

where the index K stands for the illite single-phase configurations corresponding to $N_m > 10$, that have been

Table 1. The most populated 50 configurations corresponding to the samples here analysed. The stacking distributions $\rho_{\nu 1}^{(6)}$, $\rho_{\nu 2}^{(10)}$, $\rho_{\nu 3}^{(11)}$ and $\rho_{\nu 4}^{(11)}$ are those of figures 1, 2, 3 and 4,respectively.

ν ₁	$ ho_{v_1}^{(6)}$	ν_2	$ ho_{v_2}^{(10)}$	ν ₃	$ ho_{v_3}^{(11)}$	ν ₄	$ ho_{v_4}^{(11)}$
2222	0.253 16	2	0.0 9368	2222222	0.033 06	1111	0.11655
222222	0.248 91	1	0.081 78	2222212	0.033 01	11	0.07724
22222	0.23574	221	0.07831	2122222	0.033 01	1	0.06399
222	0.09831	122	0.07831	2221222	0.03236	2	0.05312
2221222	0.06567	222	0.07666	222222	0.031 02	111	0.03859
222222	0.04390	222222	0.06432	222221	0.02900	211	0.027 10
2222222	0.041 99	2222	0.047 90	122222	0.02900	112	0.027 10
2	0.00892	22122	0.04010	2222	0.02489	212	0.02271
22	0.001 02	12222	0.03627	212222	0.02285	11221	0.01599
22222222	0.00042	22221	0.03627	222212	0.02285	12211	0.01599
1222	0.00023	22222	0.02893	2222222	0.01883	112211	0.01360
2221	0.00023	222221	0.02264	1222212	0.018 55	22111	0.01257
1	0.00012	122222	0.02264	2122221	0.01855	11122	0.01257
1221222	0.00008	2222222	0.02074	222122	0.016 97	1112111	0.01157
2221221	0.00008	12221	0.02035	221222	0.016 97	1212211	0.011 23
222122	0.00005	22	0.01751	22212	0.01595	1122121	0.01123
221222	0.00005	222222	0.01614	21222	0.01595	11222	0.01006
22221	0.00003	222122	0.01578	22222	0.01529	22211	0.01006
12222	0.00003	221222	0.01578	1222221	0.01167	22	0.00946
122222	0.00002	2212222	0.01378	22222222	0.011 64	111111	0.00919
222221	0.00002	2222122	0.01378	2111222	0.01032	122111	0.00893
1222222	0.00001	122221	0.00763	2221112	0.01032	111221	0.00893
2222221	0.00001	1222122	0.007 19	22	0.00869	122122	0.00743
12221	0.00000	2212221	0.007 19	2221	0.008 01	221221	0.00743
1221	0.00000	2222221	0.005 47	1222	0.008 01	1112212	0.00730
221221	0.00000	1222222	0.005 47	212	0.00783	2122111	0.00730
122122	0.00000	12122	0.00454	211222	0.007 46	122122	0.00685
221	0.00000	22121	0.00454	222112	0.007 46	221221	0.00685
122	0.00000	212222	0.00337	212221	0.00672	12212	0.00678
2212222	0.00000	222212	0.00337	122212	0.00672	21221	0.00678
2222122	0.00000	1221	0.00305	2212	0.005 98	221	0.00648
12212	0.00000	121	0.00287	2122	0.005 98	122	0.00648
21221	0.00000	2212121	0.00259	12221	0.00563	12111	0.00634
22122	0.00000	1212122	0.00259	2112	0.005 53	11121	0.00634
122221	0.00000	11	0.00204	2112222	0.005 46	1122	0.00624
122212	0.00000	1212221	0.001 94	2222112	0.005 46	2211	0.00624
212221	0.00000	1222121	0.001 94	2212121	0.005 34	12	0.005 15
22212	0.00000	2212122	0.00186	1212122	0.00534	21	0.005 15
21222	0.00000	122122	0.001 85	21112	0.00531	11211	0.00506
1222221	0.00000	221221	0.001 85	12212	0.005 26	21111	0.00499
12222221	0.00000	1221211	0.00183	21221	0.005 26	11112	0.00499
1222212	0.00000	1121221	0.00183	12	0.00523	1121221	0.00492
2122221	0.00000	2221222	0.00175	21	0.00523	1221211	0.00492
21	0.00000	21222	0.00170	222	0.005 19	11111	0.00482
12	0.00000	22212	0.00170	121	0.005 17	1112	0.00442
2122	0.00000	1212222	0.00153	12222	0.005 16	2111	0.00442
2212	0.00000	2222121	0.00153	22221	0.005 16	12121	0.004 19
212222	0.00000	12	0.001 45	12121	0.005 08	1221	0.00408
222212	0.00000	21	0.001 45	212112	0.005 08	211111	0.004 07
11	0.00000	2122	0.001 42	211212	0.005 08	111112	0.004 07

added in this particular case. As illustrated by the full curve in figure 1, these agree with the data within the experimental error. Thus, $\rho_{\nu}^{(6)}$ can be confidently employed to determine the relative quantities of montmorillonite and illite in the sample, given, respectively, by

$$\langle N^1 \rangle = \sum_{N=1}^{10} \sum_{\nu=1}^{2^N} \rho_{\nu}^{(6)} N_{\nu}^1 \tag{4.2}$$

$$\langle N^2 \rangle = \sum_{N=1}^{10} \sum_{\nu=1}^{2^N} \rho_{\nu}^{(6)} N_{\nu}^2 + \sum_{K=11}^{50} \rho_{K}^{(6)} N_{K}^2$$
 (4.3)

and one finds 99% for illite and 1% for montmorillonite (as had been expected *a priori*). In the first and second columns of table 1, the 'most populated' configurations are shown. It can be seen that the single-phase states are the only relevant ones in this sample and that, among them, those corresponding to small numbers of layers predominate. According to this result, for the following analysis we find it reasonable to maintain the same number N_m of layers as that employed in this case.

A second sample was analysed for which convergence (53 data points) was attained by recourse to an tenth-

order approximation. The full curve in figure 2 depicts the pertinent results. In this case, the relative quantities of illite and montmorillonite in the sample were found to be 80 and 20%, respectively. In the third and fourth columns of table 1 the most populated sequences corresponding to this sample are displayed.

Figure 3 plots the 63 data points that we deal with in order to analyse a third sample. The continuous curve shows the concordance we obtain by recourse to an 11th-order approximation, which determined 30% montmorillonite and 70% illite to be in the sample. Note that, although these relative percentages are not very different from those of the second sample, the pertinent diffraction peaks have quite distinct line shapes (figures 2) and 3). This is due to the fact that (as shown in the fifth and sixth columns of table 1), whereas in the second sample illite-rich configurations are favoured, there is no such preference in the third sample. Since in this case the few configurations shown in table 1 do not provide one with a good description of the different stacking sequences in the sample, some further comments are in order: of the 80% total illite percentage present in sample 3, 22% of it exists in a separate phase (that is, not in mixed layers), being responsible for the small peak that appears at 4.4° (figure 3). The percentage of montmorillonite as a separate phase is negligible even though the main maximum in figure 3 appears at 3.1° (namely in the vicinity of the x-ray peak for a separate montmorillonite phase at 2.85°). This is due to the fact that the montmorillonite structure factor at this last angle is larger (by a factor of four) than the corresponding illite structure factor at its characteristic angle of 4.4°.

The strong influence of montmorillonite single-phase states on the diffraction peak's shape is illustrated by the fourth sample analysed in this work. Figure 4 displays the 61 data points to be dealt with here. The continuous curve of figure 4 shows the convergence to the measurements we obtained through an 11th-order approximation which determined 60% of montmorillonite and 40% of illite to be present in the sample. As displayed in the seventh and eighth columns of table 1, this sample does contain montmorillonite single-phase states and their strong contribution to the diffraction peak can be recognized in figure 4.

5. Conclusions

A model for the angular variation of the diffracted x-ray intensity from small stacks of mixed layers has been evolved. A formalism has been presented that allows one to obtain a detailed analysis of the sample by stack size and specific stacking configuration. The theoretical framework deals with all possible stacking sequences on an impartial basis. The probability to be assigned to each sequence is determined *a posteriori*, by analysing the x-ray diffraction peak produced by the sample. To this end, a maximum-entropy-based method was applied in order to obtain the probability distribution that, whilst being consistent with

the available data, is maximally noncommittal with respect to the missing information.

The proposed approach has been shown to reproduce with high accuracy previously known results (the first example). Therefore, we feel confident that our analysis can be reliably applied to different situations, some of which have been discussed in this paper.

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