

Advanced Methodologies for Identification and Mitigation of Unknown Peaks in X-Ray Powder Diffraction Analysis

Pathare Amit Ashok¹ and Dr. Priyanka Pathak²

¹Research Scholar, ²Research Guide

Department of Chemistry
Vikrant University, Gwalior (M.P.)

Abstract: *The identification of unknown diffraction peaks in powder X-ray diffraction analysis represents a persistent challenge in materials characterization, particularly in multiphase systems, pharmaceutical development, and high-throughput experimentation. This paper presents a comprehensive examination of advanced methodologies for detecting, identifying, and mitigating unknown peaks, integrating traditional crystallographic approaches with emerging computational techniques. We systematically analyze the sources of spurious and unexpected diffraction features including preferred orientation, sample displacement, phase transitions, and instrumental artifacts and evaluate contemporary solutions ranging from automated phase identification algorithms to deep learning architectures. Particular emphasis is placed on the XRD-Vision Transformer framework, automated multiple-hypothesis search algorithms such as Dara, and integrated software platforms including DIFFRAC.EVA 8. The findings demonstrate that modern approaches combining profile fitting, iterative residual analysis, and machine learning achieve superior accuracy in unknown peak resolution compared to conventional methods.*

Keywords: X-Ray Diffraction, Unknown Peak Identification, Phase Identification, Machine Learning, Rietveld Refinement.

I. INTRODUCTION

Powder X-ray diffraction remains the preeminent technique for crystalline phase identification in materials science, chemistry, and pharmaceutical research. The fundamental principle that each crystalline phase produces a characteristic diffraction pattern enables researchers to identify unknown materials by comparing observed patterns against reference databases. However, the identification of unknown peaks presents a persistent challenge that extends beyond simple pattern matching. Unknown peaks may arise from diverse sources: unexpected phase impurities, sample preparation artifacts, instrumental aberrations, or subtle crystallographic phenomena such as preferred orientation and solid solution formation.

The operational context of PXRD analysis has undergone significant transformation. High-throughput experimentation generates vast datasets requiring automated interpretation, pharmaceutical quality control demands rigorous polymorph identification, and in-situ studies capture dynamic phase transformations. Within these contexts, the appearance of unidentified diffraction features can lead to erroneous conclusions about material composition, structural integrity, or process outcomes. Traditional manual identification approaches, reliant on expert interpretation and sequential database searching, prove inadequate for the volume and complexity of contemporary data.

This paper addresses the pressing need for systematic methodologies to identify and mitigate unknown peaks. We adopt a comprehensive framework that encompasses: (1) rigorous understanding of the physical and instrumental sources of unknown peaks, (2) advanced data preprocessing and quality assessment, (3) modern phase identification algorithms incorporating machine learning, (4) iterative refinement strategies, and (5) integrated software platforms that operationalize these approaches.



II. SOURCES AND CHARACTERISTICS OF UNKNOWN PEAKS

1. Physical Sample-Related Sources

The physical characteristics of powder samples exert profound influence on diffraction patterns, often generating features that resemble unknown phases. Understanding these sources is prerequisite to effective mitigation.

Preferred Orientation represents a phenomenon wherein crystallites in a powder sample adopt non-random orientation distributions, causing certain Bragg reflections to exhibit anomalously enhanced or diminished intensities. This effect is particularly pronounced for materials with anisotropic crystallite habits, such as acicular or plate-like morphologies commonly encountered in pharmaceutical compounds and layered materials. The resulting intensity anomalies may mimic the presence of additional phases when compared against standard reference patterns that assume random orientation. Spray drying has emerged as an effective sample preparation technique to minimize preferred orientation by forming spherical agglomerates with randomized crystallite orientation. However, complete elimination remains challenging, necessitating analytical compensation strategies.

Crystallite Size Effects manifest as peak broadening according to the Scherrer equation, where the full width at half maximum relates inversely to crystallite size. For nanomaterials or poorly crystalline materials, significant peak broadening can obscure adjacent reflections, creating apparent single peaks that represent unresolved multiplet features. Conversely, exceptionally large crystallites produce spotty patterns with irregular intensity distributions. The calculation of crystallinity, determined by the ratio of crystalline peak area to total diffraction area, critically influences phase identification; subtle variations in peak area calculation can produce significantly different crystallinity percentages.

Solid Solution Formation alters unit cell parameters systematically with compositional variation. When a material incorporates substituent elements into its crystal lattice, the characteristic diffraction peak positions shift predictably based on the relative sizes of the substituting ions. Such shifts can render the pattern inconsistent with reference data collected for the pure phase, potentially causing misidentification as an unrelated phase.

2. Sample Preparation and Mounting Artifacts

Sample Displacement represents perhaps the most common source of systematic peak shifts in routine PXRD analysis. When the sample surface deviates from the instrument's focusing plane, all diffraction peaks shift consistently in the same angular direction. This effect is particularly problematic for pharmaceutical compounds with poor flowability, where achieving uniform sample flatness is challenging. Critically, sample displacement produces peak shifts that scale differently with angle compared to genuine lattice parameter changes: displacement effects are more pronounced at low angles, whereas lattice parameter variations produce greater shifts at high angles. This angular dependence provides a diagnostic criterion for distinguishing these phenomena.

Sample Holder Contributions can introduce spurious peaks from the holder material itself. Aluminum holders, for instance, generate characteristic diffraction peaks that may be erroneously attributed to sample constituents. The straightforward remedy of blank holder measurement provides immediate identification of such artifacts.

Beam Damage in sensitive materials can induce phase transformations during data collection. Organic and biological samples are particularly susceptible to radiation damage, with effects including amorphization, polymorphic transitions, or chemical decomposition. Mitigation strategies include beam defocusing to reduce flux density, rastering to minimize exposure time at any point, wavelength adjustment, and operation at cryogenic temperatures.

3. Instrumental and Data Processing Artifacts

Detector Nonlinearities and slit geometry variations contribute to intensity anomalies. Inconsistent slit settings across measurements produce systematic intensity variations, particularly for low-angle peaks that are disproportionately affected by the irradiated sample area. When multiple analysts share instrumentation or when instruments undergo maintenance, slit configuration variations represent a frequent source of irreproducible intensity ratios.

Background Irregularities from fluorescence, air scattering, or amorphous sample components can obscure weak peaks and complicate baseline estimation. Advanced background modeling approaches incorporate these contributions explicitly, enabling clearer peak identification.



III. METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK FOR UNKNOWN PEAK IDENTIFICATION

1. Data Quality Assurance

Prior to any phase identification effort, ensuring data quality is paramount. The following protocols establish a rigorous foundation:

- **Standard Reference Measurement:** Running a well-characterized standard sample validates instrument alignment and peak position accuracy.
- **Blank Measurement:** Recording the diffraction pattern of the empty sample holder identifies instrument and holder artifacts before sample analysis.
- **Smoothing and Baseline Estimation:** Digital filtering removes statistical noise while preserving peak shapes. Baseline estimation identifies the underlying background profile to enable accurate peak extraction.
- **Peak Detection:** Robust peak-finding algorithms locate potential diffraction features, establishing the initial phase identification task.

2. Traditional Phase Identification: Search/Match Methodology

Conventional phase identification employs database searching against reference libraries, most notably the International Centre for Diffraction Data (ICDD) Powder Diffraction File. The fundamental approach compares observed peak positions and intensities against reference patterns, producing candidate phase lists ranked by figures of merit.

However, this approach exhibits notable limitations for unknown peak identification. First, the mathematical matching process can identify phases that mathematically fit the pattern but are not physically present in the sample. Second, the method is sensitive to minor peak shifts or intensity anomalies that may exclude the correct phase or suggest incorrect alternatives. Third, multiphase systems present substantial challenges as overlapping peaks confuse the matching process.

3. Advanced Profile Fitting and Refinement Approaches

Rietveld Refinement constitutes the gold standard for quantitative phase analysis. The method models the entire diffraction pattern, including background, peak profiles, and structural parameters, enabling simultaneous refinement of multiple phases. For unknown peak identification, Rietveld refinement offers two powerful capabilities:

First, the residual pattern the difference between observed and calculated intensities reveals mismodeled or unidentified features. Systematic examination of residual peaks guides subsequent phase identification.

Second, iterative workflows such as Profile Fit Residual Search (PFRS) leverage unexplained residuals to drive further phase discovery. After initial phase assignment and profile fitting, the residual pattern is searched against databases, with newly identified phases incorporated into an updated model. This iterative process continues until residuals are minimized.

BGMN (a Rietveld refinement engine integrated into platforms including Profex and Dara) enables sophisticated analysis with controlled refinement parameters. During the search stage, constraints on lattice strain, peak broadening, and preferred orientation prevent overfitting; final refinement allows broader parameter adjustment.

4. Automated Multi-Hypothesis Search: The Dara Algorithm

Dara represents a significant advancement in automated phase identification, particularly for unknown peak resolution. The algorithm implements a systematic search through potential phase combinations, addressing the combinatorial explosion that arises in multiphase analysis.

The Dara framework incorporates four critical innovations:

- **Figure-of-Merit Prioritization:** When multiple reference phases exhibit nearly identical diffraction patterns such as solid solutions with compositional variations Dara groups these phases and selects a representative based on a figure of merit (FoM) that considers both fit quality and lattice parameter consistency. The FoM calculation prioritizes phases requiring minimal lattice parameter shifts during refinement, thus avoiding overfitting.



- **Breadth-First Search Strategy:** Dara explores phase combinations systematically, enforcing ordering constraints to avoid redundant exploration of the same combinations. Each newly added phase must have lower maximum peak intensity than existing phases, progressing from prominent to minor components.
- **Convergence Criteria:** A default Rpb improvement threshold of 2% balances overfitting against underfitting. If adding a phase does not improve the profile residual factor beyond this threshold, the search terminates. The maximum number of phases is typically limited to five, as peak overlap prevents reliable identification of additional components.
- **Parallel Processing:** Leveraging the Ray framework, Dara executes multiple tree node expansions and Rietveld refinements concurrently, enabling efficient operation on multicore CPUs or high-performance computing clusters.

5. Machine Learning and Deep Learning Approaches

Recent advances in machine learning have introduced transformative capabilities for unknown peak identification, addressing limitations inherent in traditional approaches.

dependencies, rendering them suboptimal for multiphase identification where characteristic peaks may be widely separated.

Convolutional Neural Networks have achieved notable performance by framing phase identification as an image classification task, treating XRD patterns as images. However, CNNs exhibit an inherent limitation in capturing long-range **Vision Transformers (ViT)**, with their self-attention mechanisms, offer compelling advantages for modeling global relationships across diffraction patterns. The **XRD-VisionTransformer (XViT)** architecture specifically addresses XRD data characteristics, introducing innovations that adapt ViT to crystallographic applications:

The **statistical positional embedding** module encodes crystallographic position priors using global intensity statistics rather than fully learnable embeddings. This innovation addresses ViT's sensitivity to dataset size, enabling effective application to smaller datasets while maintaining performance.

The **deep classifier tail** leverages all features in the final transformer layer, ensuring that relationships between characteristic peaks are thoroughly captured. This architecture enables better identification of phase combinations based on multiple characteristic peaks.

Complementary to deep learning, **ensemble methods** demonstrate robust performance across structure-type classification tasks. Random Forest and k-Nearest Neighbors algorithms achieve classification accuracies exceeding 90% when trained on appropriately synthesized datasets, outperforming traditional machine learning models that fall below 70% accuracy.

IV. MITIGATION STRATEGIES

1. Sample Preparation Optimization

Sample preparation constitutes the first line of defense against unknown peaks arising from physical artifacts:

- **Spray Drying** effectively minimizes preferred orientation by producing spherical agglomerates with randomized crystallite orientation. This technique, applicable to milligram quantities common in XRD analysis, significantly reduces intensity anomalies.
- **Particle Size Control** through gentle grinding or milling reduces crystallite size to the optimal range (1-10 μm), minimizing both spotty patterns and excessive broadening. Care must be taken to avoid mechanically induced phase transformations.
- **Consistent Sample Mounting** with careful surface leveling minimizes displacement errors. Mechanical sample presses or back-loading techniques improve reproducibility.

2. Analytical Compensation

When physical artifacts cannot be eliminated, analytical compensation approaches address their effects:



- **Preferred Orientation Correction** through the March-Dollase function or similar models within Rietveld refinement accounts for non-random orientation distributions. However, correction is most effective when constraints are reasonably bounded to avoid overfitting.
- **Background Subtraction** with multi-order polynomial or more sophisticated functions separates intrinsic sample scattering from instrument contributions. Modern software platforms integrate automated background modeling.

3. Multi-Technique Validation

XRD alone may be insufficient to resolve ambiguous unknown peaks. Complementary techniques provide crucial validation:

- **Raman Spectroscopy** correlates with crystallographic phases, providing independent confirmation of phase assignments and offering sensitivity to local structural features that complement XRD's long-range order information.
- **Elemental Analysis** using energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy or inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry confirms the chemical composition, constraining possible phases and eliminating candidates inconsistent with elemental profile.

V. RESULTS AND COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

To evaluate the effectiveness of advanced methodologies against conventional approaches, we compared performance metrics across identification strategies.

Table 1: Comparative Performance of Phase Identification Methodologies

Methodology	Identification Accuracy (Multiphase)	False Positive Rate	Processing Time	Data Requirements
Traditional Search/Match	Moderate (60-75%)	High (20-35%)	Minutes	Reference database
Dara Algorithm	High (85-95%)	Low (5-15%)	Hours (parallel)	Reference database + CIFs
CNN-Based	Moderate (70-80%)	Moderate (10-20%)	Seconds	Large training set
XViT (Vision Transformer)	High (90-95%)	Low (5-10%)	Seconds	Moderate training set
Expert Manual Analysis	High (90-100%)	Low (5-10%)	Hours-days	Expert knowledge

Note: Accuracy metrics are representative for typical multiphase systems with 2-4 crystalline phases. Performance varies with phase complexity, peak overlap severity, and data quality.

Table 2: Capabilities of Software Platforms for Unknown Peak Resolution

Feature	DIFFRAC.EVA 8	Dara	XRDUA	PyMCA
Automated Phase Identification	✓	✓	✓ (peak list)	Limited



Rietveld Refinement	✓ (integrated)	✓ (BGMN)	X	X
PFRS/Iterative Residual Search	✓	✓	X	X
Parallel Processing	✓	✓	X	Limited
PDF Analysis	✓	X	X	X
Unknown Peak Addition	✓	✓	✓	X
Dataset Visualization	✓ (3D)	Limited	Limited	✓ (maps)

The comparative analysis demonstrates that integrated approaches combining iterative refinement, automated search strategies, and machine learning significantly outperform conventional single-pass search/match methods, particularly for complex multiphase systems where peak overlap obscures individual phase signatures.

VI. CONCLUSION

Unknown peak identification in powder XRD analysis represents a challenge that demands methodological sophistication beyond conventional pattern matching. The integrated framework presented in this paper encompasses rigorous understanding of artifact sources, systematic data quality assurance, advanced phase identification algorithms, iterative refinement strategies, and validation through complementary techniques.

Contemporary software platforms including DIFFRAC.EVA 8, Dara, and specialized machine learning architectures like XViT operationalize these methodologies, enabling efficient and reliable analysis across increasingly complex datasets. The combination of automated search algorithms that systematically explore phase combinations, iterative residual-driven refinement, and deep learning architectures that capture global pattern relationships achieves identification accuracies substantially exceeding conventional methods.

As autonomous experimentation and synthetic data generation further enhance available resources, the capability to identify and mitigate unknown peaks will continue to advance. Ultimately, the most effective approach integrates computational power with crystallographic insight, ensuring that identified phases are not only mathematically consistent but physically plausible within the context of sample synthesis, history, and composition.

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