

Crystal Lattice

The specific properties of crystals are due to the symmetry and anisotropy of crystalline medium. A perfect crystal represents in a three-dimensional space the repetition of a small part of a crystalline lattice, which is called the *elementary cell*.

With every point of an elementary cell, a set of atoms called *basis* is associated. The crystalline structure is formed by motion of a basis in all three directions.

Translation symmetry

In accordance with it, three translations vectors **a**, **b** and **c** can be chosen in such a way that we can define the translation operator as follows:

$$\mathbf{T} = n_1\mathbf{a} + n_2\mathbf{b} + n_3\mathbf{c}$$

n_1, n_2, n_3 are arbitrary integers, **a**, **b**, and **c** are the translation vectors along the sides of elementary parallelepiped cell

The real crystal lattice is formed when the basis is connected with an arbitrary point in identical way. Thus:

Lattice plus basis = the crystalline structure

Vectors of primitive translations are often chosen as ords of *crystallographic* coordinate axes. The minimal quantity needed for determination of the crystalline structure is called the *primitive basis*.

In order to describe the structure of a crystal you are to determine the crystal lattice, to choose crystallographic coordinate axes, to find the basis and a set of symmetry operations, which can produce translation of the crystalline structure.

The set of symmetry transformations relative certain point of a lattice when the lattice is transformed in it is called the *local group of symmetry* of a crystalline lattice.

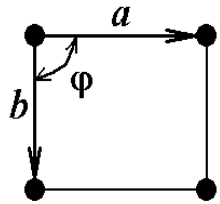
Crystal Lattice

In order to build up the two-dimensional lattice, you have to choose translation vectors **a** and **b** and an angle φ between them. The lengths of translation vectors **a** and **b** and the angle φ between them can be of any magnitude.

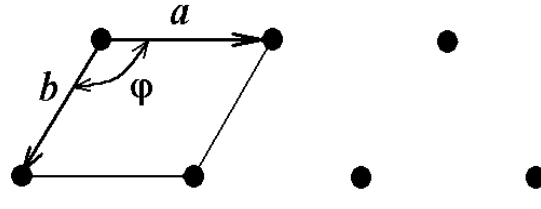
The restrictions of the vectors **a** and **b** is due to symmetry requirements and lead to a special type of a crystal lattice.

There are five types of the Bravais lattices.

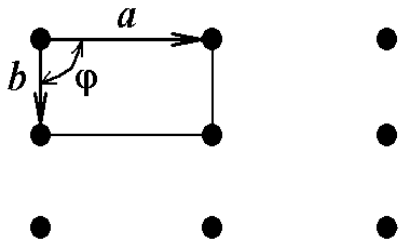
Basic two-dimensional lattices



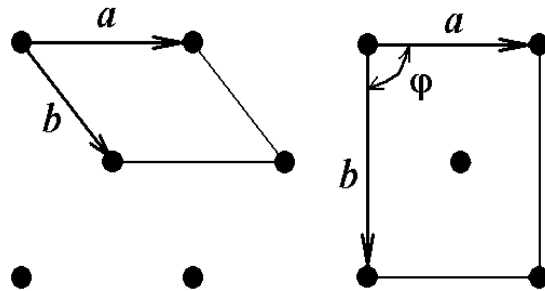
a) Square



b) Hexagon



c) Rectangular



d) Rectangular centered

Oblique:

Parallelogram

$$a \neq b, \varphi \neq 90^\circ$$

Square: $a = b, \varphi = 90^\circ$

Hexagonal:

$$60^\circ\text{-rhomb } a = b, \\ \varphi = 120^\circ$$

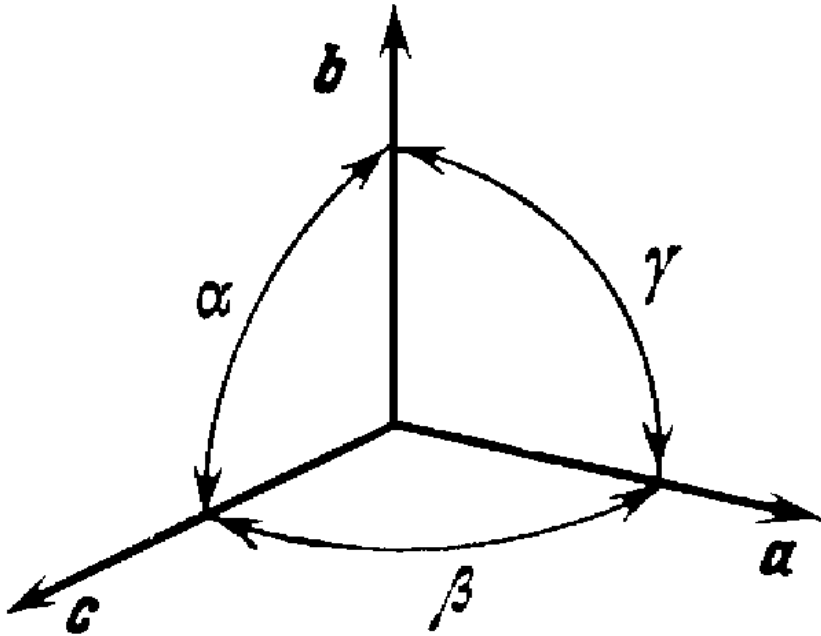
Primitive rectangular:

$$\text{rectangle } a \neq b, \varphi = 90^\circ$$

Centered rectangular:

$$\text{rectangle } a \neq b, \varphi = 90^\circ$$

Tree-Dimensional Crystal Lattice

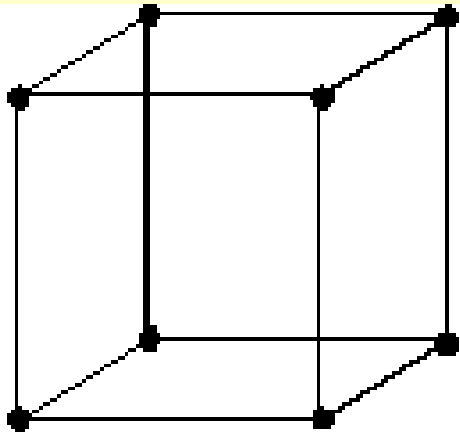


There are fourteen three-dimensional lattices called the **Brave lattices**.

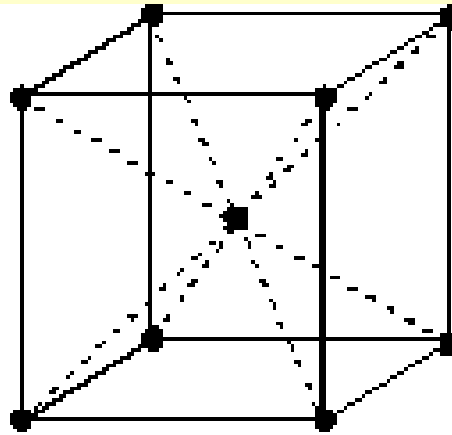
Fourteen Bravais lattices are subdivided into seven systems.

Each system is characterized by axes a , b , c , and angles α , β , γ

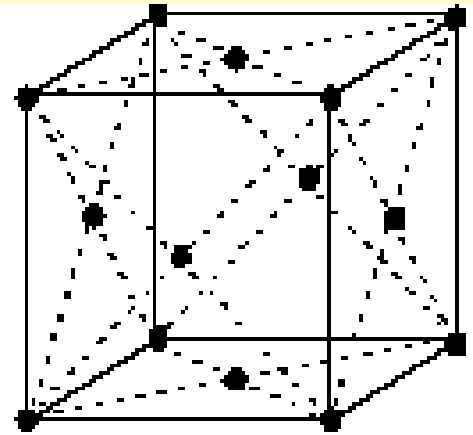
Cubic system



Cubic *P*



Cubic *I*



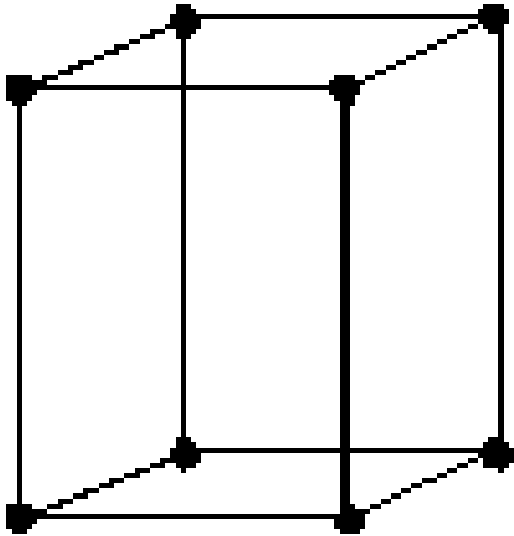
Cubic *F*

$$a = b = c; \alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$$

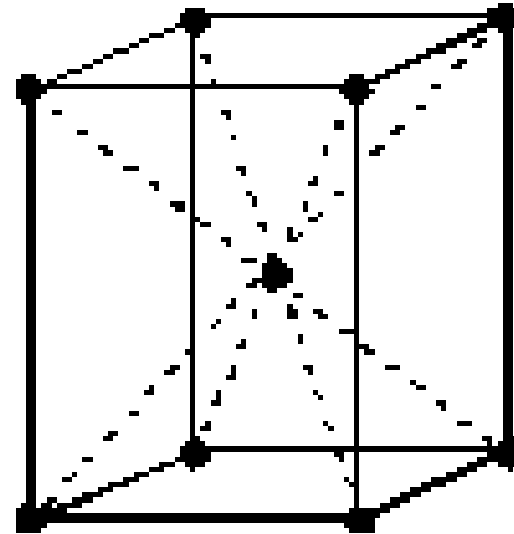
P – symbol of a primitive lattice,

I – a bulk-centered cell, *F* – a face-centered cell

Tetragonal system



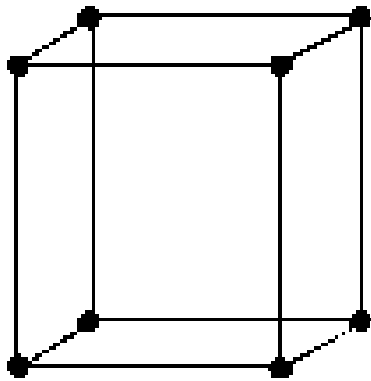
Tetragonal *P*



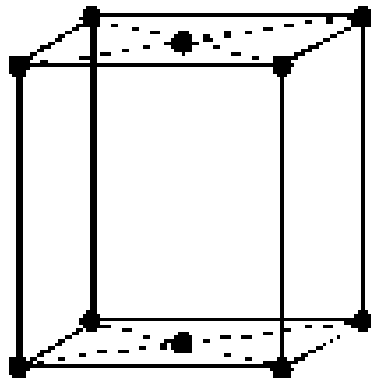
Tetragonal *I*

$$a = b \neq c; \alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$$

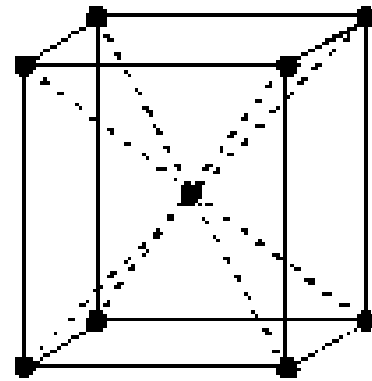
Rhombic system



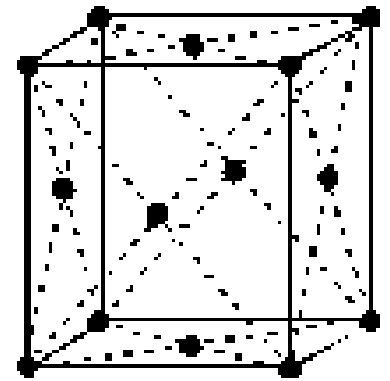
Rhombic *P*



Rhombic *C*



Rhombic *I*

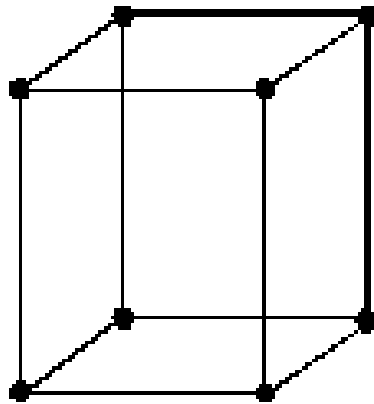


Rhombic *F*

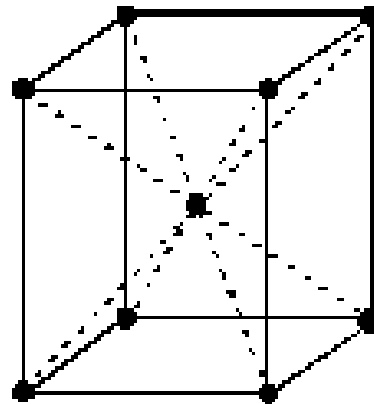
$$a \neq b \neq c; \alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$$

C – a base-centered cell

Monoclinic system



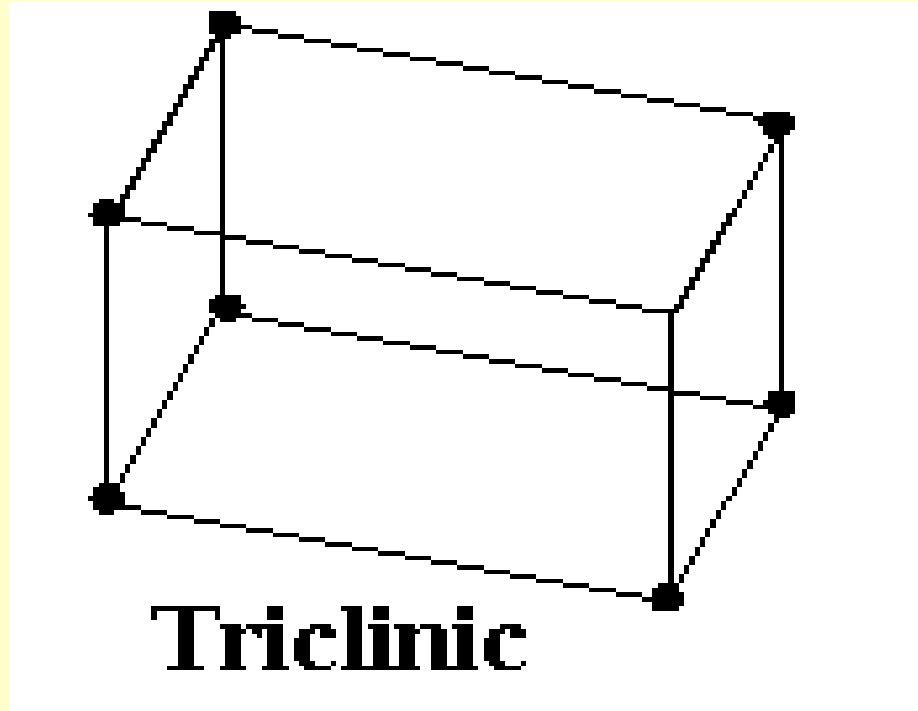
Monoclinic *P*



Monoclinic *I*

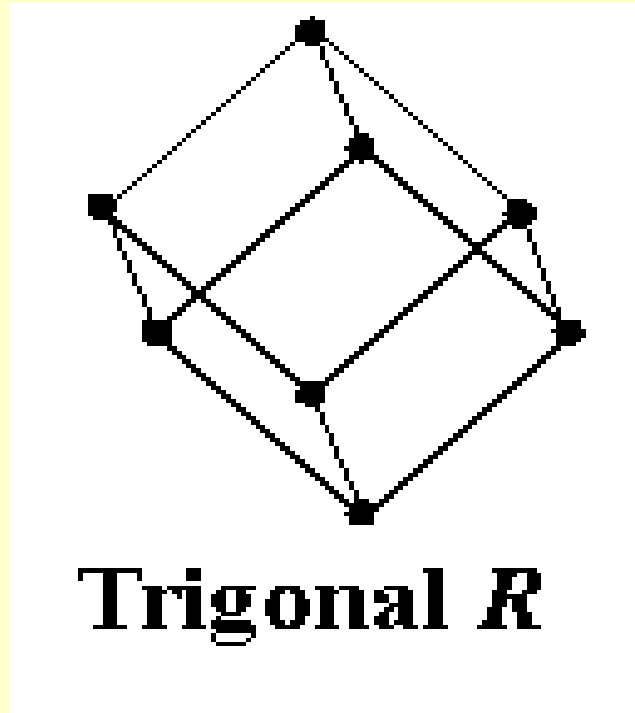
$$a \neq b \neq c; \quad \alpha = \gamma = 90^\circ \neq \beta$$

Triclinic system



$$a \neq b \neq c; \alpha \neq \beta \neq \gamma$$

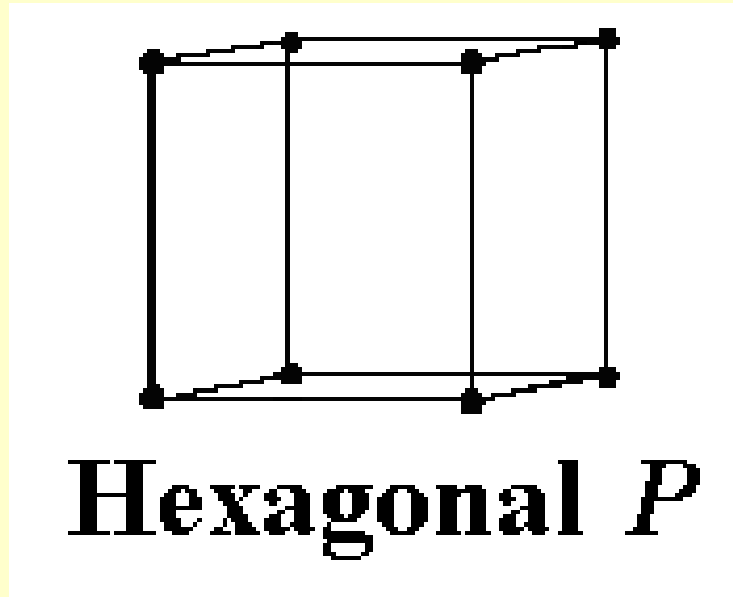
Trigonal system



$$a = b = c; \alpha = \beta = \gamma < 120^\circ, \neq 90^\circ$$

Rhombohedral R

Hexagonal system



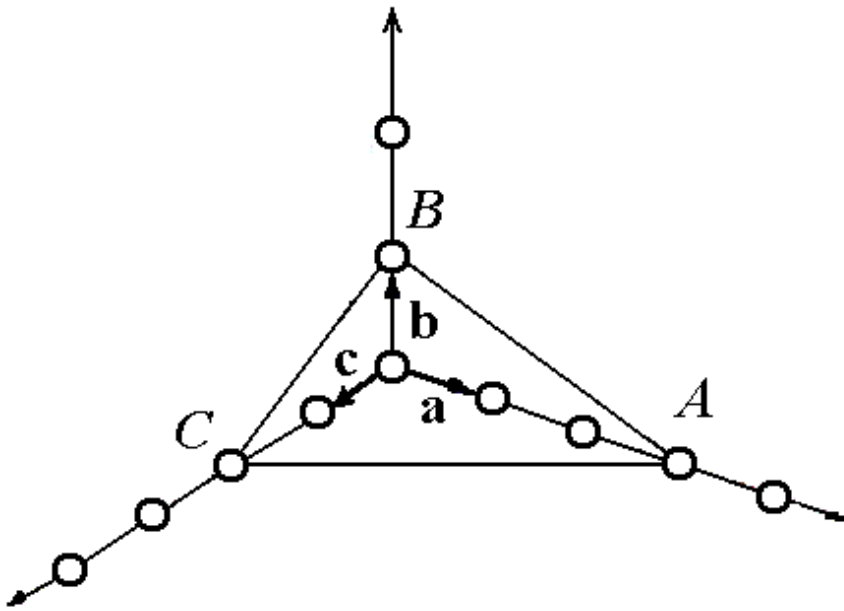
$$a = b \neq c; \alpha = \beta = 90^\circ, \gamma = 120^\circ$$

Labeling crystal planes

To describe the orientation of crystallographic planes and direction in a crystal, the *Miller indices* are used.

Having described what is meant by the crystal lattice, how can we use this concept to label a crystal plane?

A general prescription, first suggested by William Miller in 1839, is as follows:

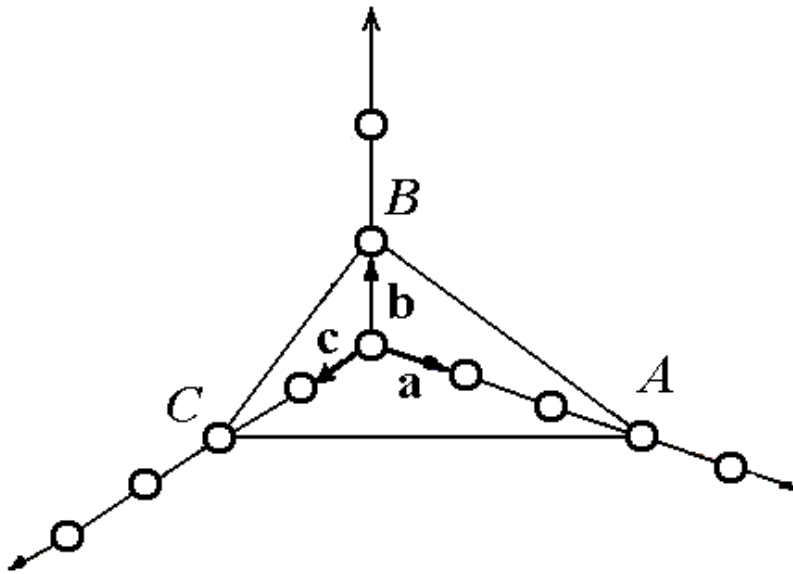


The position of the planes ABC is given by the integers ***h, k, l***, which are determined as follows

$$h : k : l = \frac{1}{n_1} : \frac{1}{n_2} : \frac{1}{n_3}$$

h, k, and l are the minimal integers that satisfy this equation. The plane that is chosen in accordance with that condition is designated by the *Miller indices (hkl)*.

A general prescription, first suggested By William Miller in 1839, is as follows:



- (1) determine the intercepts on the axes in units of the primitive vectors **a**, **b** and **c**;
- (2) take the reciprocal of each number;
- (3) reduce these numbers to the three smallest integers h , k and l , having the same ratio;
- (4) the values h , k and l are called the Miller indices and are enclosed in parentheses (hkl) to denote a crystal plane.

Determine the Miller indices for the plane shown in Fig.

Following the procedure outlined above:

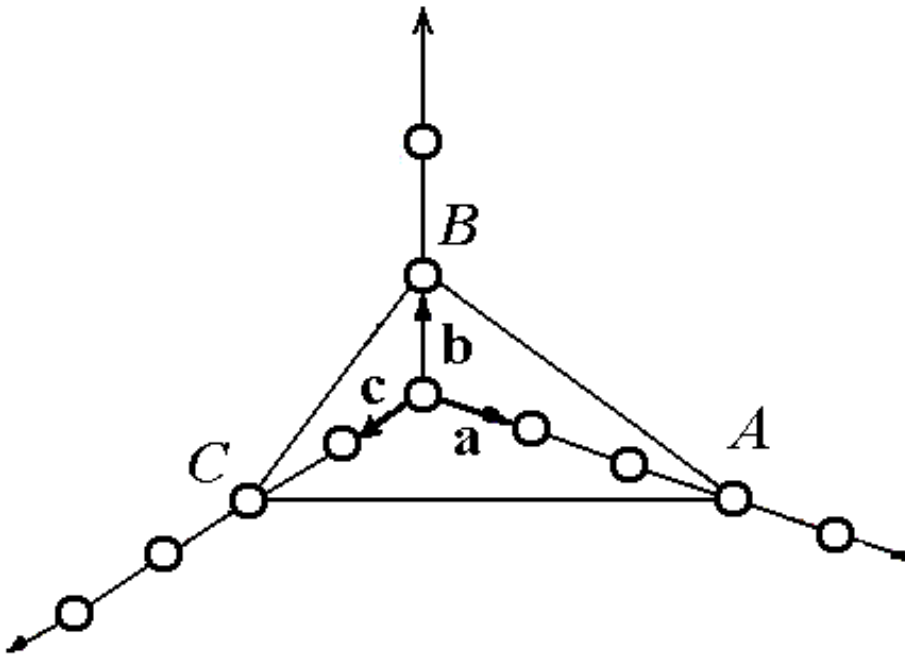
(1) The intercepts on the axes in units of **a**, **b** and **c** are 3, 1 and 2, respectively.

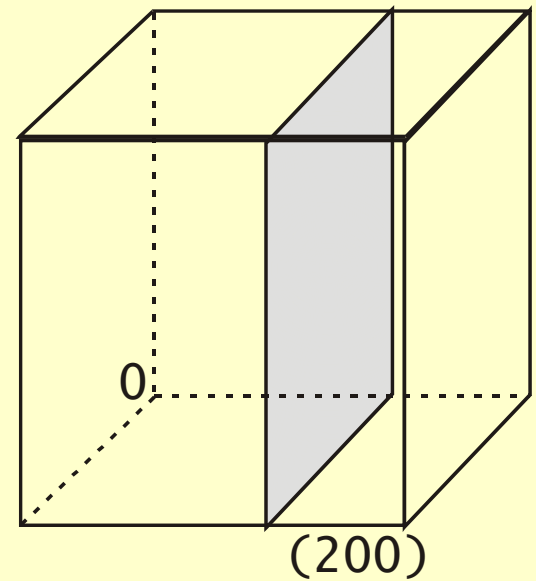
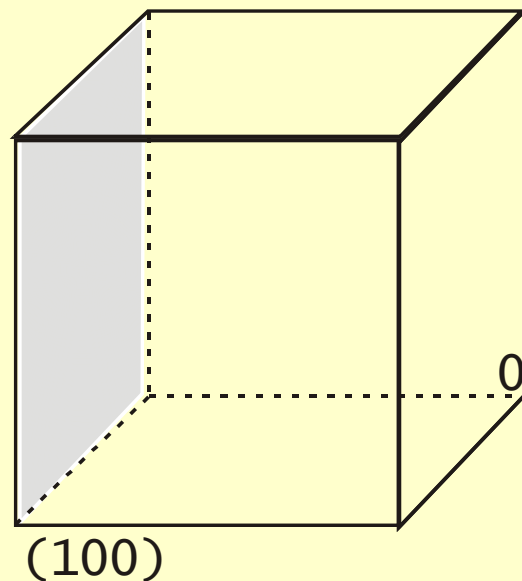
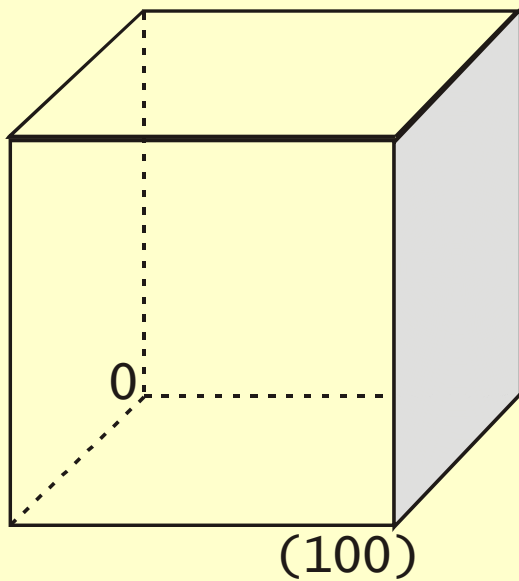
(2) The reciprocals are

$$h:k:l = \frac{1}{3} : \frac{1}{1} : \frac{1}{2} = 2:6:3$$

(3) The smallest set of integers with the same common ratio are 2, 6, 3.

(4) Consequently, we can label the plane a (263) plane.

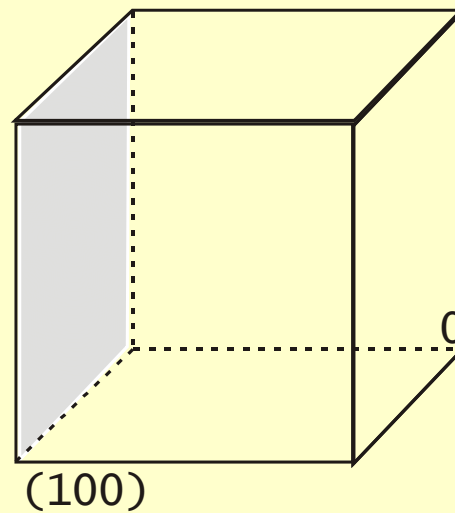




If a plane is parallel to a particular axis, the corresponding Miller index is zero. (In effect, we are saying that the intercept with the axis occurs at infinity and the reciprocal of infinity is zero.)

If a plane intercepts an axis at a negative value, this is denoted by placing a bar over the corresponding Miller index, i.e.

$$(\bar{1}00)$$



The Miller indices (hkl) do not actually denote a single plane but a set of parallel planes.