

F. Directions in Crystals

Consider a lattice vector

$$\vec{R} = u_1 \vec{a}_1 + u_2 \vec{a}_2 + u_3 \vec{a}_3$$

Rule: (i) \vec{R} , of course, specifies a direction.

We represent the direction of \vec{R} as $[u_1 u_2 u_3]$

(note: use square brackets)

e.g. $\vec{R} = 3\vec{a}_1 + 2\vec{a}_2 + \vec{a}_3$ (square brackets)

The direction of \vec{R} is given by $[321]$

Recall: $\vec{a}_1, \vec{a}_2, \vec{a}_3$ are, in general, not orthogonal.

Q: What does $[111]$ mean?

(ii) A negative index is indicated by a bar above its magnitude.

e.g. $\vec{R} = 3\vec{a}_1 + 2\vec{a}_2 - \vec{a}_3$

Direction: $[32\bar{1}]$

(iii) Any common divisors of u_1, u_2, u_3 are omitted.

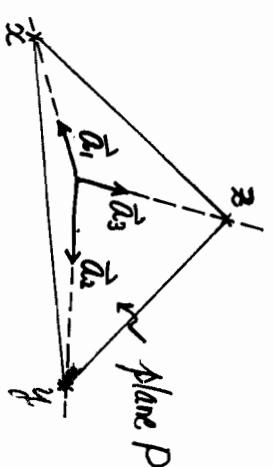
e.g. Since $(3\vec{a}_1 + 2\vec{a}_2 - \vec{a}_3)$ and $(6\vec{a}_1 + 4\vec{a}_2 - 2\vec{a}_3)$ are in the same direction, $[32\bar{1}] = [64\bar{2}]$.

$\therefore [32\bar{1}]$ represents the direction of $6\vec{a}_1 + 4\vec{a}_2 - 2\vec{a}_3$

G. Lattice Planes

- Aim: A lattice plane is a plane that passes through lattice points. A set of parallel lattice planes contain all the lattice points.
- How can we label lattice plane?
- What is the direction normal to a lattice plane?

- A lattice plane can be identified by giving 3 lattice points on the plane (recall: coordinate geometry)
- Consider a lattice plane P. Let α be the intercept of the plane in the direction along \vec{a}_1 , γ along \vec{a}_2 , ζ along \vec{a}_3 .



Note: There may or may not be lattice points at the intercepts, but this does not matter! (In most cases, the intercepts are lattice pts.)

+ Note: $\vec{a}_1, \vec{a}_2, \vec{a}_3$ are, in general, NOT mutually perpendicular.

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- 3 points (or 2 vectors) on the plane characterise a plane

$$\text{Let } \vec{R}_1 = l_1 \vec{a}_1 + l_2 \vec{a}_2 + l_3 \vec{a}_3$$

$$\vec{R}_2 = m_1 \vec{a}_1 + m_2 \vec{a}_2 + m_3 \vec{a}_3$$

$$\vec{R}_3 = n_1 \vec{a}_1 + n_2 \vec{a}_2 + n_3 \vec{a}_3$$

be 3 lattice points on plane P

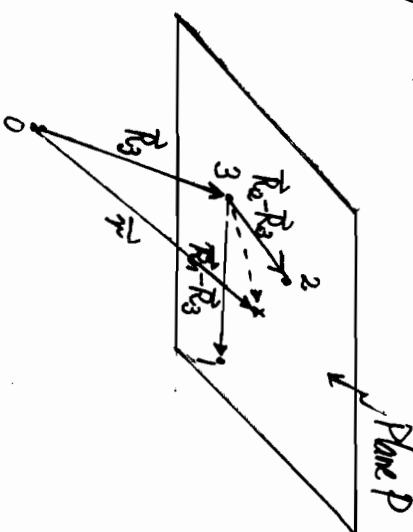
Q.: Express the intercepts x, y, z in terms of $\{\vec{a}_1, \vec{a}_2, \vec{a}_3\}$

$\vec{R}_1 - \vec{R}_3$ and $\vec{R}_2 - \vec{R}_3$ are 2 vectors on P (see figure)

- Any point (position) \vec{r} on plane P can be expressed as:

$$\vec{r} = \vec{R}_3 + \dots$$

(See figure)



- In particular, the intercept x along \vec{a}_1 -axis is a point on P given by $\vec{r} = x \vec{a}_1 + 0 \cdot \vec{a}_2 + 0 \cdot \vec{a}_3$

∴

We have:

$$\begin{aligned} & m_2 + (l_2 - n_2)\alpha + (m_3 - n_2)\beta = 0 \\ & n_3 + (l_3 - n_3)\alpha + (m_3 - n_3)\beta = 0 \end{aligned} \} \Rightarrow \alpha \text{ and } \beta$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} x &= m_1 + (l_1 - n_1)\alpha + (m_1 - n_1)\beta \\ &= \frac{l_1(m_2 n_3 - m_3 n_2) + l_2(m_3 n_1 - m_1 n_3) + l_3(m_1 n_2 - m_2 n_1)}{(l_2 - n_2)(m_3 - n_3) - (l_3 - n_3)(m_2 - n_2)} \end{aligned}$$

(after substituting in α and β)

$$x = \frac{N}{\Delta_{23}}$$

where N is the numerator

$$\text{and } \Delta_{23} = \begin{vmatrix} l_2 - n_2 & m_2 - n_2 \\ l_3 - n_3 & m_3 - n_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

∴ We can write

$$\vec{r} = \vec{R}_3 + \alpha (\vec{R}_1 - \vec{R}_3) + \beta (\vec{R}_2 - \vec{R}_3)$$

any position where α, β are numbers
on plane P

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- We can also apply (*) to the intercept along \vec{a}_3 and get:

$$y = \frac{N}{\Delta_{31}} \quad \text{where} \quad \Delta_{31} = \begin{vmatrix} l_3 - n_1 & m_3 - n_3 \\ k_3 - n_1 & m_3 - n_3 \end{vmatrix}$$

- Applying (*) to the intercept along \vec{a}_3 , we get

$$z = \frac{N}{\Delta_{12}} \quad \text{where} \quad \Delta_{12} = \begin{vmatrix} l_1 - n_1 & m_1 - n_1 \\ l_2 - n_1 & m_2 - n_1 \end{vmatrix}$$

We have succeeded in expressing x, y, z in terms of $\{l_i\}, \{m_i\}, \{n_i\}$.

- Consider the ratio of the inverse of the intercepts:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{x} : \frac{1}{y} : \frac{1}{z} &= \Delta_{23} : \Delta_{31} : \Delta_{12} \\ &= h : k : l \end{aligned}$$

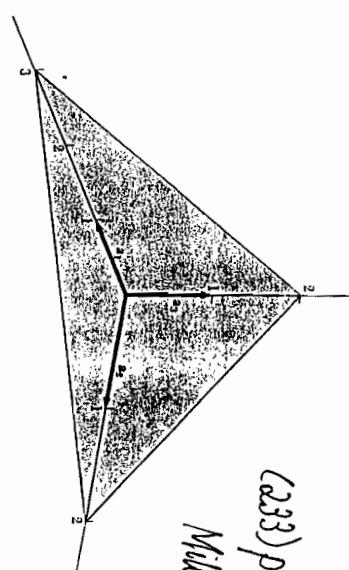
where h, k, l are the three smallest integers that satisfy these ratios, i.e., h, k, l do not have a common integer division other than 1.

These numbers h, k, l represent a plane or a set of parallel planes. They are called the Miller indices.

The notation is (hkl) .

Intercepts: 3, 2, 2

$$\frac{1}{x} : \frac{1}{y} : \frac{1}{z} = \frac{1}{3} : \frac{1}{2} : \frac{1}{2} = 2 : 3 : 3$$



(233) plane
Miller indices (233)

This plane intercepts the a_1, a_2, a_3 axes at $3a_1, 2a_2, 2a_3$. The reciprocals of these numbers are $\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}$. The smallest three integers having the same ratio are 2, 3, 3 and thus the indices of the plane are (233) .

Summary: The procedure to specify the orientation of a lattice plane by Miller indices is:

(i) Find the intercepts on the axes $\vec{a}_1, \vec{a}_2, \vec{a}_3$. (Note: for convenience, the axes are sometimes taken as those of a non-primitive cell. Thus face centred cubic and face centred hexagonal cells are used.)

(ii) If x, y, z are the intercepts, find the smallest integers such that $\frac{1}{x} : \frac{1}{y} : \frac{1}{z} = h : k : l$.

If the intercept is at ∞ , the corresponding index is zero.

(iii) (hkl) gives the Miller indices of the plane.

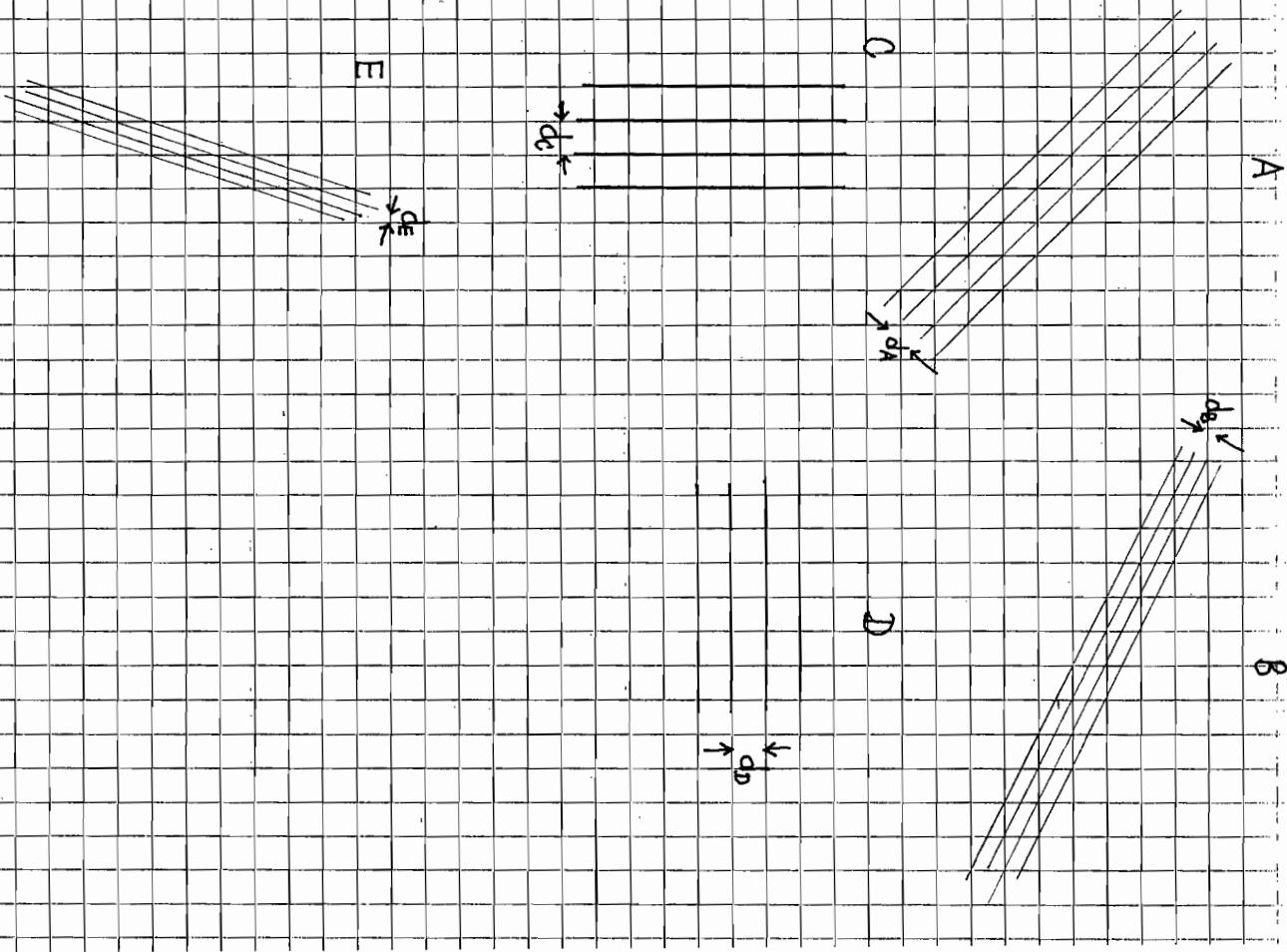
(iv) The lattice plane is normal to the vector

$$\vec{g} = h(\vec{a}_2 \times \vec{a}_3) + k(\vec{a}_3 \times \vec{a}_1) + l(\vec{a}_1 \times \vec{a}_2).$$

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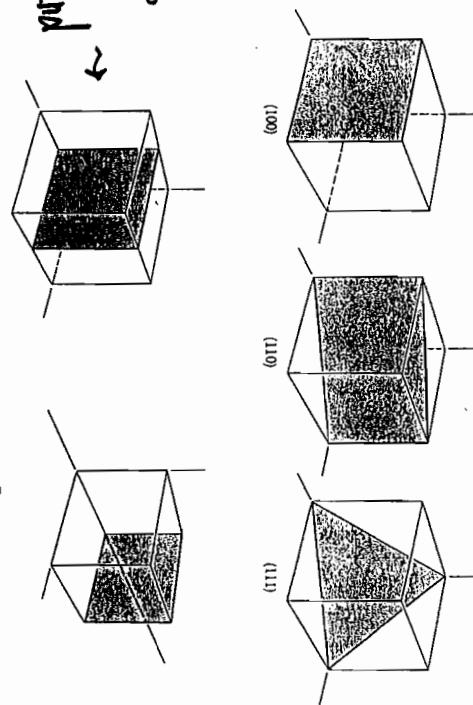
Cubic lattices +

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Indices of important planes in a cubic crystal. The plane (200) is parallel to (100) and to

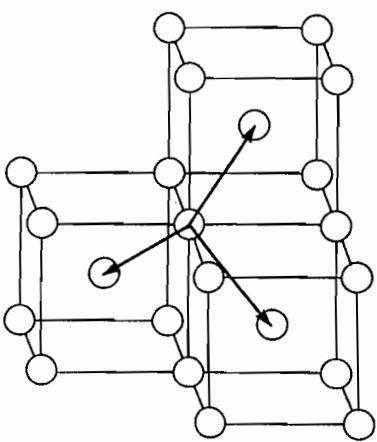


- Here, the (001) plane means a plane parallel to (100) but cutting the x-axis at $\lambda/2$. (Useful in bcc and fcc)

Very often, the cube is also used for bc and fcc as it has better geometry. But then it should be noted that it is [use] an ⁺ conventional (non-primitive cell).

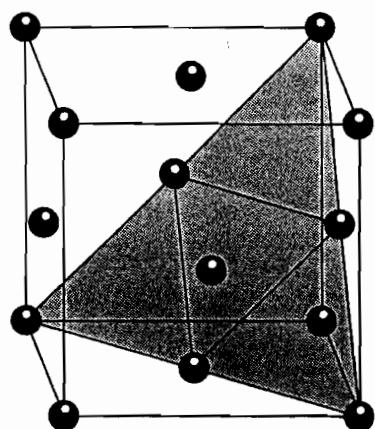
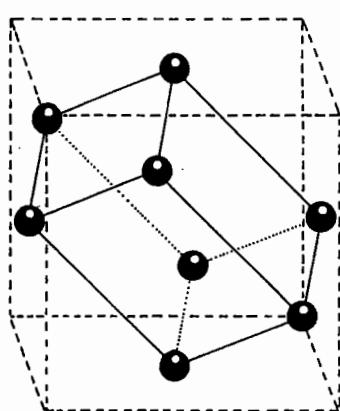
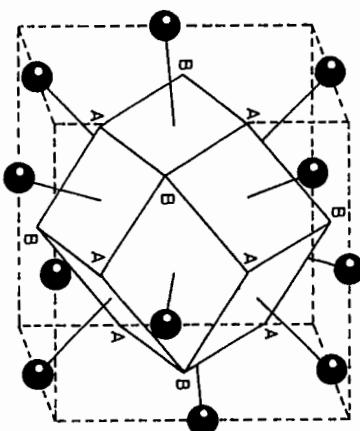
BCC

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- Three neighboring conventional unit cells
- primitive vectors shown

The shape outlined by the solid lines is the Wigner-Seitz cell of a bcc lattice.



The shape outlined by the solid lines is the Wigner-Seitz cell of a fcc lattice.

- The shaded plane is then the (111) plane.
- shows the primitive unit cell of fcc.

• a conventional unit cell is shown

• Conventionally, for cubic lattices, we use the conventional unit cell to determine the Miller indices.

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Distance between adjacent parallel planes

a lattice plane P having Miller indices $(h k L)$.

Idea: If \vec{r}_1 and \vec{r}_2 are vectors on P, then $\vec{r}_1 \times \vec{r}_2 \perp \text{plane } P$

We note that: $\vec{r}_1 = y\vec{a}_2 - x\vec{a}_1$

$\vec{v}_1 = y\vec{v}_2 - x\vec{v}_1$
 $\vec{v}_2 = z\vec{v}_3 - x\vec{v}_1$

are vectors on P

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$$\vec{r}_1 \times \vec{r}_2 = xy \left[\frac{\vec{a}_x \times \vec{a}_y}{x} + \frac{\vec{a}_y \times \vec{a}_x}{y} + \frac{\vec{a}_z \times \vec{a}_z}{z} \right]$$

$$= \oint [h(\vec{t}_2 \times \vec{t}_3) + k(\vec{t}_3 \times \vec{t}_1) + l(\vec{t}_1 \times \vec{t}_2)]$$

some → = a few

Some number a vector normal to plane P characterized by (hkl)

\therefore The vector $\vec{g} = h(\vec{a}_2 \times \vec{a}_3) + k(\vec{a}_3 \times \vec{a}_1) + l(\vec{a}_1 \times \vec{a}_2)$ is normal to the set of planes (hkl)

Remark.

The vectors $\vec{a}_2 \times \vec{a}_3$, $\vec{b}_3 \times \vec{b}_1$, $\vec{c}_1 \times \vec{c}_2$ play a special role in SSP. They are so important that we will define three 'intrinsic' forms by the

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$$b_1 = \frac{2\pi \vec{t}_1 \times \vec{t}_3}{\Omega_c} ; \quad \vec{t}_2 = \frac{2\pi \vec{t}_3 \times \vec{t}_1}{\Omega_c} ; \quad \vec{b}_3 = \frac{2\pi \vec{t}_1 \times \vec{t}_2}{\Omega_c} ; \quad \Omega_c = |\vec{t}_1|(\vec{t}_2 \times \vec{t}_3)$$

and go into reciprocal lattice generated by $\vec{b}_1, \vec{b}_2, \vec{b}_3$.

Proof: Take a lattice point as origin. There must be

Take a lattice point as origin. There must be a plane (hkl) that passes through the origin.

An adjacent plane has intercepts $x = \frac{1}{h}$, $y = \frac{1}{k}$, $z = \frac{1}{l}$.

$\vec{x_{A_1}}$ = vector from origin to intercept on \vec{r}_1 -axis

$\frac{\vec{q}}{|\vec{q}|}$ = unit vector normal to plane

d = separation between plane through origin and adjacent plane

$$\frac{|\beta|}{|\alpha|} = \frac{|\beta|}{\left|(\beta_1 x^{\alpha_1}) \cdot (\beta_2 x^{\alpha_2})\right|} = \left| x^{\alpha_1} \cdot \beta_1 \cdot x^{\alpha_2} \cdot \beta_2 \right| =$$

E.g. SC : (hkl) planes

$$d = \frac{a^3}{|\vec{q}|} = \frac{a}{\sqrt{h^2 + k^2 + l^2}}, \quad \text{since } \vec{q} = h a_1^{2,1} x + k a_2^{2,1} y + l a_3^{2,1}$$

Summary

- Students should be able to :

- state the definition of primitive vectors, primitive cell, lattice vectors, Wigner-Seitz cells, Miller indices
- identify $\vec{a}_1, \vec{a}_2, \vec{a}_3$ and calculate D_e
- realize that only finite types of lattices exist
- specify directions in a lattice using $[u_1, u_2, u_3]$
- specify crystal planes by Miller indices (hkl)
- show that $\vec{g} = h(\vec{a}_1 \times \vec{a}_2) + k(\vec{a}_2 \times \vec{a}_3) + l(\vec{a}_1 \times \vec{a}_3)$
- is a vector normal to the set of planes (hkl)
- calculate separation between adjacent planes
- work out various properties in SC, BCC, and FCC lattices
- realize that the description of the structure of a crystal amounts to : Lattice + basis

$\overbrace{\text{mathematical}}$
 $\overbrace{\text{atoms decr.}}$
 $\overbrace{\text{(symmetry)}}$
 $\overbrace{\text{each lattice point}}$

References:

- Kittel: Chapter 1
- Christman: Chapters 1, 2
- Hook and Hall: Sect. 1.1 - 1.3
- ~~Ex~~ : Sect. 1.1 - 1.3, 1.5, 1.7

- Write down 4 possible sets of primitive vectors \vec{a}_1, \vec{a}_2 and illustrate them in the figure
- For each set of \vec{a}_1, \vec{a}_2 , illustrate the primitive cell and find the area of the primitive cell.
- Does the area depend on the choice of primitive vectors?

