

**Characterization of Construction Materials**  
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**Lecture 13**  
**X-Ray diffraction Introduction to X Rays and crystallography Part 2**

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**Reciprocal Space**


$$b_1 = \frac{a_2 \times a_3}{a_1 \cdot a_2 \times a_3}$$

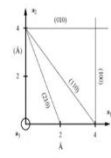
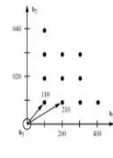
$$b_2 = \frac{a_3 \times a_1}{a_1 \cdot a_2 \times a_3}$$

$$b_3 = \frac{a_1 \times a_2}{a_1 \cdot a_2 \times a_3}$$

$$H_{hkl} = hb_1 + kb_2 + lb_3$$


$$H_{hkl} = 1 / d_{hkl}$$



Reciprocal space maps all direct space planes (hkl) onto a single point (coordinates h, k, l). The symmetry is also preserved in reciprocal space.

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It is very important to look things in reciprocal space. So, far we have been looking at the direct space. We will learn how to construct a reciprocal space. So, for an example we take the direct space on the left (in slide). So, let us see direct space here we have  $a_1, a_2, a_3$  which are the three crystallographic axis.

We do not plot  $a_3$  assuming it to coming out of board. So, you have  $a_1$  and  $a_2$  which are the two crystallographic axes and considering the plane 1 1 0 it will have one intercept with  $a_1$ , one intercept with  $a_2$  and 0 as it is not cutting  $a_3$  in reciprocal space. So, when (1 1 infinity) is reversed we get (1 1 0). Similarly 2 1 0 are known as the Miller indices.

We know that  $a_1, a_2, a_3$  are the vectors in direct space. We can say that the  $b_1$  vector in reciprocal space is expressed as

$$b_1 = \frac{a_2 * a_3}{a_1 \cdot a_2 * a_3}$$

Hence,  $b_1$  will be perpendicular to  $a_2$  and  $a_3$

$b_2$  and  $b_3$  in reciprocal space is written in the similar way as mentioned below

$$b_2 = \frac{a_3 * a_1}{a_1 * a_2 * a_3}$$

$$b_3 = \frac{a_1 * a_2}{a_1 * a_2 * a_3}$$

So now you understand how these this is in the reciprocal space. The benefit of reciprocal spaces maps all direct space planes on to a single point. So, in this case we want to map all 1 1 0 planes and points in reciprocal space which represents corresponding to 1 1 0 plane. So, you get the  $b_1$ ,  $b_2$  and which gives 2 0 0, 3 0 0 and 4 0 0.

The distance from origin of reciprocal space to the particular point is half of the inter planar spacing. Inter planar is the distance between the planes in direct space and it is shown as  $d_{hkl}$ . The length of the vector ( $H_{hkl}$ ) will be the reciprocal of  $d_{hkl}$ .

In reciprocal space distances are expressed in Angstrom inverse. This vector on the plane 1 1 0 will be perpendicular to the plane. So, the advantage is that you can map the planes to a point.

So, if there is a point 1 1 0 it will tell you all about 1 1 0 planes. Also there is a periodicity in reciprocal space which makes things easy to visualize and simpler. So, mainly reciprocal space maps all direct space planes onto the single point. The symmetry is preserved in the reciprocal space. Now same thing if we apply two different system.

Now we are talking about the perpendicular axis in direct space and we have to construct the reciprocal space by referring to the basic principle. So,  $b_1$  is  $a_2 * a_3$  hence  $b_1$  has to be perpendicular to both  $a_2$  and  $a_3$ . For  $b_2$  is  $a_3 * a_1$  so it is perpendicular to both  $a_3$  and  $a_1$ .


Because  $a_2$  it has to be perpendicular to  $a_2$  also it has to be perpendicular to  $a_3$ . So, the  $b_1$  direction is this,  $b_2$  should be perpendicular to both  $a_3$  anyone now  $a_3$  is again coming out of the slide and  $a_1$  is this direction so it has to be perpendicular that means this is the direction it has to be perpendicular to both  $a_1$  and  $a_3$  see the difference. Now once you have constructed the space; you can put the points in that.

The points will be like  $1\ 0\ 0$ ,  $2\ 0\ 0$ ,  $3\ 0\ 0$  while considering the  $b_1$  axis and for  $b_2$  axis it will be like  $0\ 1\ 0$ ,  $0\ 2\ 0$ ,  $0\ 3\ 0$ ,  $0\ 4\ 0$ . For points like  $1\ 2\ 0$  means there will be 1 intercept along  $b_1$  and 2 along the  $b_2$ .

So in order to get this you should first traverse along  $b_1$  and then you go parallel to  $b_2$ . Therefore it translates all the planes to single point

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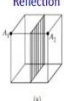
## Symmetry



- One type of repetition, lattice translation, underlines the periodicity of 1-D, 2-D and 3-D nets.
- Symmetry is the second type of repetition required to define the periodicity of 3-D assemblies of atoms, ions or molecules.
- Various symmetry operators change the orientation of the orientation of the repeated features or motifs which populate a lattice.
- A body has n-fold rotational symmetry if  $360^\circ/n$  brings it into self-coincidence.

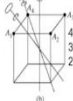
Symmetry elements of a cube

Reflection



(a)

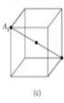
Rotation axes



(b)

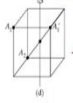
4-fold:  $A_1$  becomes  $A_2$   
3-fold:  $A_1$  becomes  $A_2$   
2-fold:  $A_1$  becomes  $A_4$

Inversion Center




(c)

Rotation-Inversion



(d)

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Now we look into symmetry, symmetry is one type of the repetitions in crystals. So, one of the repetition is lattice translation where you simply translate the lattice in one direction which gives periodicity. Symmetry is the second type of repetition required to define the periodicity of 3-D assemblies of atoms ions and molecules.

Various symmetry operators change the orientation of the repeated features or motifs which populate a lattice. For example, we are looking at the symmetry element of a cube so we have reflection symmetry in this case where  $a_1$  axis becomes  $a_2$ .

Now we talk about the rotation of the same cube in terms of 4-fold symmetry. 4 fold symmetry means if you rotate the cube by 90 degrees it brings self-coincidence which means this node at  $a_1$  after 90 degree rotation becomes  $a_2$ . Similarly  $a_2$  becomes  $a_3$  in four fold type of symmetry if you rotate by 90 degree.


Also there is threefold symmetry which means you have to rotate by 120 degrees along the marked threefold and we see that  $a_1$  becomes  $a_2$ . Now for twofold symmetry, cube is rotated by

180 degrees. Also there is a symmetry operation called inversion centre, so you can see that  $a_1$  becomes  $a_2$  which is centre inverted.

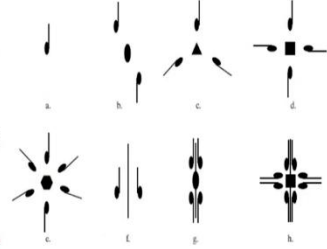
There is a rotation inversion operation where when you rotate for example there is a fourfold rotation  $a_1$  becomes  $a_2$  and then there is the inversion where  $a_1$  becomes  $a_1'$  and thereafter  $a_1'$  becomes  $a_2$  which is combination of rotation and inversion.

**(Refer Slide Time: 12:15)**

### Symmetry Operators in Crystallography



- The different symmetry operations acting through a point are termed point groups.
- In three-dimensions, the number of point groups is 32.



**Figure 9** Symmetry operators for crystallography; the point group designations are in quotations. (a)-(h) are 1-fold axis "1", two-fold axis "2", three-fold axis "3", four-fold axis "4", six-fold axis "6", mirror plane "m", mirror plus two-fold axis "2m", mirror plus four-fold axis "4m", respectively.

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The different symmetry operations acting through a point are termed as point groups. Now in the plot above what you see are the symmetry operators for crystallography with the point group designation in the quotation. So, a is one fold axis which means you have to rotate it by 360 degree to come to self-coincidence.

In this case b, it shows twofold axis which means you have to rotate it by 180 degrees to get self-coincidence. The case c has three fold symmetry which means you have to rotate by 120 degrees. Now for case f is mirror plane where it is just the mirror image of plane.

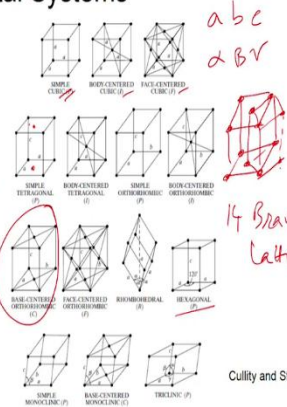
Now this case g is a mirror plus twofold axis where you see the mirror image and when you rotate by 180 degree you get the same. So, in three dimension the number of point groups is 32. So, these are the different symmetry operations acting through a point.

**(Refer Slide Time: 14:21)**

**Crystal Systems**




System	Axial lengths and angles	Bravais lattice	Lattice symbol
Cubic	Three equal axes at right angles $a = b = c, \alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$	Simple	P <sup>1</sup>
		Body-centered	I
		Face-centered	F
Tetragonal	Two equal axes at right angles, two equal $a = b \neq c, \alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$	Simple	P
		Body-centered	I
Orthorhombic	Three unequal axes at right angles $a \neq b \neq c, \alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$	Simple	P
		Body-centered	I
		Face-centered	F
Rhombohedral*	Three equal axes, equally inclined $a = b = c, \alpha = \beta = \gamma \neq 90^\circ$	Simple	R
Hexagonal	Two equal coplanar axes at 120°, third axis at right angles $a = b \neq c, \alpha = \beta = 90^\circ (\gamma = 120^\circ)$	Simple	P
		Body-centered	I
Monoclinic	Three unequal axes, one pair axes at right angles $a \neq b \neq c, \alpha = \gamma = 90^\circ \neq \beta$	Simple	P
		Base-centered	C
Triclinic	Three unequal axes, unequally inclined and none at right angles $a \neq b \neq c, \alpha \neq \beta \neq \gamma \neq 90^\circ$	Simple	P
		Body-centered	I
		Trigonal	P



14 Bravais Lattices.

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Now we talk about the crystal systems. So, there exists 7 crystal systems namely cubic, tetragonal, orthorhombic, rhombohedral, hexagonal, monoclinic, and triclinic.  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  are the length of the axis and  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $\gamma$  are the inter-axial angles.

For example, cube has 3 equal axis which means  $a = b = c$  and angles  $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90$  degrees which defines cubic system. So in total we have 7 crystal systems and 14 bravais lattices. So, in cube we can have a simple cubic structure for the aforementioned arrangement and you can also have a body centered cubic system, where we have an atom at the center.

You can also have a face centered system where you have atom on each face. So, a simple cubic is designated with letter symbols P, I, and F. In case of tetragonal system  $a$  equals to  $b$  but not equal to  $c$ . It can have body centered tetragonal system too. Similarly for orthorhombic all 3 sides are not equal.

For hexagonal,  $a$  equals to  $b$  but  $a$  is not equal to  $c$ ,  $c$  is different and two angles are 90 degrees and one angle is 120 degrees. In case of triclinic all sides and angles are unequal.

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## Interplanar Spacing



• The spacing between the planes in a crystal is known as interplanar spacing,  $d_{hkl}$

• For cubic system,  $\frac{1}{(d_{hkl})^2} = \frac{h^2+k^2+l^2}{a^2}$

• For tetragonal system,  $\frac{1}{(d_{hkl})^2} = \frac{h^2+k^2}{a^2} + \frac{l^2}{c^2}$

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Interplanar spacing is the spacing between the planes in a crystal. For cubic system the interplanar spacing is given by the relationship

$$\frac{1}{(d_{hkl})^2} = \frac{h^2 + k^2 + l^2}{a^2}$$