The Geometry of Coincidence-Site Lattices

BY A. F. ACTON AND M. BEVIS

Department of Metallurgy and Materials Science, University of Liverpool, England

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The density of coincidence sites in cubic crystal lattice planes in coincidence-site-related crystals with a multiplicity less than or equal to 31 has been investigated. A comprehensive table of lattice planes with a high density of coincidence sites for each of the twenty-two coincidence-site relationships is presented. In addition a complete list of the alternative ways of describing the twenty-two coincidencesite relationships as defined by Friedel in 1926 is presented.

1. Introduction

There is now considerable evidence that the coincidence-site lattice defined by the common sites of two interpenetrating lattices is important in relation to the structure of grain boundaries in cubic crystals (Brandon, 1966). In particular, field-ion microscopy studies of the refractory metals (Brandon, Ralph, Ranganathan & Wald, 1964; Morgan & Ralph, 1967) have shown that the two crystals adjacent to a grain boundary often possess lattice sites defining a superlattice (the coincidence-site lattice) common to both crystal lattices. These experiments also indicate that such grain boundaries consist of a series of steps, and that the

Fig. 1. The $(1\bar{1}0)$ plane of projection of the matrix and annealing twin lattices of a face-centred cubic crystal. The matrix, twin and coincidence-site lattice sites in the plane of the paper are represented by closed squares, circles and triangles respectively, and the matrix, twin and coincidence-site lattice sites in the next parallel (1T0) plane above and below the plane of the diagram are represented by open squares, circles and triangles respectively. The traces of the (111), (112) and (117) planes are indicated by $T(111)$, $T(11\overline{2})$ and $T(117)$ respectively. The directions [112], [111] and [772] are parallel to $T(111)$, $T(11\overline{2})$ and $T(117)$ respectively.

steps are planes that contain a high density of coincidence sites. The importance of the coincidence-site lattice concept is also evident from the results of recent electron-microscopy studies. Sargent (1968) has shown that steps in annealing twin boundaries in aluminum crystals define planes of the matrix and twin crystals for which all lattice sites are sites of the coincidence site lattice defined by the matrix twin crystal orientation relationship. Similar observations in austenitic stainless steel have been reported more recently by Vaughan (1969). Schober & Balluffi (1970) have made quantitative observations of orthogonal grids of grain boundary misfit screw dislocations in (001) twist boundaries in gold. These authors have shown that in the vicinity of coincidence site relationships the geometrical properties of the grids are consistent with those predicted for a boundary structure consisting of a suitable misfit dislocation grid embedded in the appropriate high density coincidence site interface.

As an aid to the interpretation of experimental results, there is a requirement in the case of cubic crystals for a comprehensive set of tables of coincidencesite relationships and a table of planes possessing a high density of coincidence sites for each of the possible coincidence site relationships. Both of these tables are presented in this paper and apply to primitive, body-centred and face-centred cubic crystals.

When a rotational symmetry operation is applied to a point lattice, a lattice is produced which is completely coincident with the original lattice. However, the application of a rotation other than a rotation associated with a symmetry element of the lattice may result in partial coincidence of the two lattices. The lattices related by such a rotation have certain lattice sites in common, which in themselves define a lattice termed the coincidence-site lattice.

Friedel (1926) has shown that two identical cubic lattices that are related by a coincidence site lattice may be considered to be related by a rotation of 180° about the normal $[h_1h_2h_3]$ to a rational plane. The fraction of sites of each of the two interpenetrating lattices which are coincidence sites – that is sites which are common to both lattices – is equal to Σ^{-1} , where the multiplicity Σ is given by $\Sigma = (h_1^2 + h_2^2 + h_3^2)$, or

 $\sum = (h_1^2 + h_2^2 + h_3^2)/2$ for $(h_1^2 + h_2^2 + h_3^2)$ odd or even respectively.

Annealing twins in the face-centred cubic metals for example possess a coincidence-site lattice of multiplicity $\Sigma = 3$. The parent crystal and annealing twin lattices are related by a rotation of 180° about a $\langle 111 \rangle$ direction, and the interface between the two crystals is usually the {111 } plane normal to the axis of rotation. The coincidence-site lattice associated with the twin related crystals is illustrated in Fig. 1, which shows the $(1\bar{1}0)$ plane of projection plot of both parent and twin lattices. The $(1\overline{1}0)$ face-centred cubic planes have a two-fold stacking sequence, the parent, twin and coincidence site lattice points in the plane of the diagram are represented by closed squares, circles and triangles respectively, whereas the lattice points in the next parallel $(1\bar{1}0)$ plane above and below the plane of the

diagram are represented by open squares, circles and triangles respectively. The trace of the interface plane between the twin and parent crystals is represented by a bold continuous line. It is to be noted that the interface plane may be chosen so that all lattice points in this plane are coincidence sites. Planes which consist only of coincidence sites are expected to have the lowest energy and therefore are the most likely to form the boundary between two crystals. Examples of planes in addition to the (111) plane in which all sites may be coincidence sites are the $(11\overline{2})$ and (117) planes whose traces are represented by bold broken lines in Fig. 1. These planes have also been shown to be interface planes between parent and annealing twin crystals in aluminum (Sargent, 1968). The maximum fraction of sites in the lattice plane of particular Miller indices which can be coincidence sites will be represented by

Table 1. *Planes with a high density of coincidence sites for the twenty-two coincidence-site relationships with a multiplicity less than or equal to 31*

The twenty-two coincidence-site relationships are described by a rotation of 180° about the direction with indices given in column 2 of the Table. A detailed description of the remainder of the Table is given in the text.

 σ^{-1} , where σ is a rational factor of Σ being equal to one when all sites in a lattice plane are coincidence sites. In § 2 of this paper a procedure for determining the value of σ for a particular lattice plane is described, and the planes with σ values less than $\sigma = \Sigma$ are tabulated for a wide range of Miller indices for all coincidence site relationships with $\Sigma \le 31$.

The orientation relationship between the parent and twin crystals illustrated in Fig. 1 may, for example, also be described by rotation of 180° about $[11\overline{2}]$ or 70.5° about [1 $\overline{10}$]. In general there are twenty-four different ways of describing the orientation relationship between two cubic crystals and hence twenty-four ways of describing the orientation relationship between two coincidence-site-related crystals. In § 3 of this paper the different ways of describing the orientation relationship between the coincidence-site-related crystals are tabulated for the coincidence-site relationship with $\Sigma \leq 31$. The ways in which the table may be used to aid the interpretation of experimental results is also described.

2. The density of coincidence sites in a crystal lattice plane

All coincidence-site lattices with a multiplicity Σ less than or equal to 31 have been considered, and the coincidence-site lattice relationships which arise in the range $\Sigma \le 31$ are listed in Table 1 where Σ is given in column 1 and the corresponding axis of rotation $[h_1, h_2, h_3]$ is given in column 2. For some values of Σ two coincidence-site relationships which are not crystallographically equivalent arise; they are represented by Σ_a and Σ_b . In some cases a rotation of 180° about axes of a different form give rise to crystallographically equivalent relationships, as for example when the two axes are orthogonal and together define a symmetry plane. These alternative descriptions are given in column 3 of Table 1.

The following procedure was used for determining the Miller indices of planes parallel to a plane in the crystal lattice in which all sites can be sites of the coincidence-site lattice, or in which σ^{-1} of the crystal

Table 2. The alternative ways of describing the twenty-two coincidence-site relationships with *a multiplicity less than or equal to 31*

An asterisk indicates the description associated with the smallest angle of rotation for a particular multiplicity.

lattice sites can be coincidence sites for σ a rational factor of Σ not equal to Σ . For a particular coincidence site relationship the value of σ is the same for a particular plane in all three cubic Bravais lattices. For convenience the primitive cubic lattice will be considered.

The Miller indices of planes and directions in one of the crystal lattices (lattice 1) of the coincidencesite-related lattices will be referred to the orthonormal cubic lattice basis c_1 , c_2 , c_3 . For convenience the two basis vectors d_1 and d_2 of the basis d_1 , d_2 , d_3 defining a primitive cell of the coincidence lattice are chosen to be in the plane with normal $[h_1 h_2 h_3]$, and hence in cubic crystals the plane with Miller indices $(h_1 h_2 h_3)$. This plane is a lattice plane of the two crystal lattices and of the coincidence-site lattice. Procedures for determining the two vectors $\mathbf{d}_1 = l_i \mathbf{c}_i$ and $\mathbf{d}_2 = m_i \mathbf{c}_i$ which must define a primitive cell in the (h_1, h_2, h_3) plane have been described by Jaswon (1965) and Bevis (1969). When the lattice planes $(h_1 h_2 h_3)$ have an odd stacking sequence (Jaswon & Dove, 1955) the vector \mathbf{d}_3 is chosen to be normal to this plane, so that $d_3 = h_i c_i$. In **the** case of a plane with an even stacking sequence the vector \mathbf{d}_3 may be taken to be any primitive vector of the vectors $\frac{1}{2}(l_i + m_i + h_i)\mathbf{c}_i$, $\frac{1}{2}(l_i + m_i)\mathbf{c}_i$, $\frac{1}{2}(l_i + h_i)\mathbf{c}_i$ or $\frac{1}{2}(m_i+h_i)c_i$, and in general will be represented by $d_3 = n_i c_i$. The relationship between components of a vector referred to the orthonormal crystal lattice basis and the coincidence site lattice basis, represented by $\mathbf{x}=u_i\mathbf{c}_i$ and $\mathbf{x}=v_i\mathbf{d}_i$ respectively is given by $v_i=w_{ij}u_j$ where

$$
w_{ij} = \begin{pmatrix} l_1 \ m_1 \ n_1 \\ l_2 \ m_2 \ n_2 \\ l_3 \ m_3 \ n_3 \end{pmatrix}.
$$

The corresponding transformation of Miller indices is given by

$$
b_i = w_{ji} a_i , \qquad (1)
$$

where (a_i) and (b_i) are the Miller indices of a plane referred to the crystal lattice and coincidence site lattice bases respectively. If the vector $b_i \mathbf{d}_i$ is a primitive lattice vector, then the interplanar spacing of the planes (b_1, b_2, b_3) is equal to the interplanar spacing of the parallel planes $(a_1 a_2 a_3)$, so that only $1/\Sigma$ sites in the plane (a_1, a_2, a_3) are coincidence sites. If however $b_i \mathbf{d}_i$ is not a primitive reciprocal lattice vector, and is equal to $b_i \mathbf{d}_i = pb'_i \mathbf{d}_i$, where p is an integer and $b'_i \mathbf{d}_i$ is a primitive reciprocal lattice vector, then the interplanar spacing of the planes $(a_1 a_2 a_3)$ is then $1/p$ that of the planes $(b'_1 b'_2 b'_3)$. In this case a fraction $p/\Sigma = 1/\sigma$ sites in the plane $(a_1 a_2 a_3)$ are coincidence sites. When $p = \Sigma$ then all sites are coincidence sites.

The densities of coincidence sites in parallel lattice 1 and lattice 2 planes are in general not equal. The density of coincidence sites in a lattice 2 plane can be determined in exactly the same way as for lattice 1 planes. The Miller indices of the plane in lattice 2 parallel to the $(a_1 a_2 a_3)$ plane in lattice 1 has the Miller indices (e_1 , e_2 , e_3) with respect to the lattice 2 basis given by $e^i = r_{ji}a_j$ where $r_{ij} = -\delta_{ij} + 2h_ih_j(h_kh_k)^{-1}$. The same matrix w_{ij} applies for lattice 2 and lattice 1.

With the aid of a digital computer the authors have used equation (1) to determine the density of coincidence sites in crystal lattice planes for the coincidence site relationships given in column 2 of Table 1. The three rows of the matrices w_{ij} for the twenty-two coincidence site relationships are given in columns 4, 5 and 6 of Table 1. For each coincidence-site relationship the Miller indices of the following crystal lattice planes are given:

(a) planes $(a_1 a_2 a_3)$ in which all sites can be coincidence sites, but with the limitation that only the fifty-four most densely packed primitive cubic lattice planes are considered, (b) planes (a_1 , a_2 , a_3) in which a fraction $1/\sigma$ sites can be coincidence sites, but with the limitation that only the first nine most closely packed primitive, body-centred and face-centred cubic lattice planes are considered. The variants of planes given in Table 1 apply for the description of the coincidence-site relationship given in column 2 of the Table. The planes are given in columns 7-18 of Table 1 and are listed across the page, the planes with a fraction $1/\sigma$ of coincidence sites are preceded by : σ :. A difference in the density of coincidence sites in parallel lattice 1 and lattice 2 planes is indicated in the following way. If the density of coincidence sites in the lattice 2 plane parallel to the lattice 1 plane given in Table 1 is equal to $1/\Sigma$, then the indices of the lattice 1 plane are followed by a dot. If the Miller indices of a lattice 1 plane are followed by a number, then the reciprocal of the number is the density of coincidence sites in the parallel lattice 2 plane. In general the indices of the parallel lattice 2 planes do not fall within the range of planes investigated. However in cases where both planes fall within the range investigated the pairs of planes are followed by the same letter.

3. Alternative descriptions of coincidence-site relationships

In an experimental determination of the orientation relationship between two crystals of interest, for example in the case of two coincidence-site related crystals, the orientation relationship could be that described by column 2 of Table 1 or in twenty-three other ways which describe the same orientation relationship (Lange, 1967), and which result when any particular original rotation is combined with the twenty-four proper symmetry rotations associated with a cube having identical faces. Thus, unless the twenty-four ways of describing the orientation relationship determined experimentally are deduced, and then compared with the relationships of column 2 of Table 1, it is not possible to establish readily that a coincidence site relationship is operative. Only a limited number of the alternative ways of describing the orientation relationships of column 2 of Table 1 have been given previously. The

most comprehensive list, which is, however, limited in extent, has been given by Ranganathan (1967), and are the results of an application of a procedure (Ranganathan, 1966) for determining the possible Σ values and corresponding angles of rotation associated with a particular axis of rotation. The authors have determined the axes of rotation and the corresponding angles of rotation (ω) for all twenty-four ways of describing each of the twenty-two coincidence-site relationships given in column 2 of Table 1. These results are presented in Table 2 with the limitation that only the form of the axes of rotation are given. However, an experimentally determined orientation relationship may be compared with the relationships presented in Table 2, thus allowing the operative coincidence-site relationship to be determined readily. The more convenient orientation relationship given in column 2 of Table 1 may then be adopted, and the further crystallographic information contained in Table 1 utilized directly.

In Table 2 the results are presented in multiples of three colums, the first, second and third column in every three gives the axis of rotation, the multiplicity and the angle of rotation (ω) respectively. For the [100], [110] and [111] symmetry axes the angles of rotation (90- ω , 90+ ω , 180- ω), (180- ω) and (120 $-\omega$, 120+ ω) respectively also give rise to the coincidence-site relationships indicated in column 2. The relationship which gives the smallest value of ω for a particular value of Σ is indicated by an asterisk. Table 2 effectively gives the results of an application of the procedure described by Ranganathan (1966) for all possible rotations about axes with indices $[I_1 I_2 I_3]$ for $\{(l_1)^2 + (l_2)^2 + (l_3)^2\} < 123$ which give rise to the coincidence site relationships with \sum \leq 31.

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The Effect of Refraction in the Small-Angle Diffraction of X-rays from Stacked Lamellae

BY J. M. SCHULTZ*

Department of Material Science, Stanford University, Stanford, California 94305, *U.S.A.*

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An expression for the scattering of X-rays from a regular stack of lamellae is developed, releasing the prior restraint that no refraction may occur. The effect of refraction is to cause deviations from the classical Bragg condition. Further, a condition of total reflection is shown to occur within systems whose lamellar spacings are greater than a critical value.

Statement of the problem-

The analysis of X-ray scattering data generally proceeds through a consideration of the amplitude of scattering $A(S)$ as given by

$$
A(\mathbf{S}) = A_e(\mathbf{S}) \int \varrho(\mathbf{X}) \exp \{2\pi i \mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{X}\} d v_{\mathbf{x}} . \quad (1)
$$

Here, $A_e(S)$, ϱ , **X**, **S**, and v_x have their usual meanings: amplitude of scattering by an isolated electron, electron

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density, real space vector, reciprocal space vector, and real space volume. This expression is rigorously correct (in the kinematic approximation) only if (a) the medium is non-absorbing and (b) the vector S is permitted to vary as the X-ray beam traverses regions of differing refractive index. Indeed, absorptive and refractive corrections are not needed in the analysis of diffraction line breadths and peak positions; *e.g.,* the relative errors in atomic positional analysis are of the order of 10-5 and can safely be ignored. However, for the particular case of diffraction from a lamellar system whose elements are 100 Å or more in thickness both absorptive and refractive effects can become large. The under-

^{*} On leave from Department of Chemical Engineering, University,of Delaware, Newark, Delaware 19711, U.S.A.