lattices, *C* may be used instead of *P*, or *F* instead of *I*; *cf.* Sections 1.5.4 and 2.1.1.2.

(ii) Readers who have studied Chapter 1.3 may realize that the 'lattice bases' defined here are also called 'primitive bases' and that both 'primitive bases' and 'conventional bases' are special cases of bases used in crystallography.

3.1.2. Bravais types of lattices and other classifications

By H. Burzlaff and H. Zimmermann

3.1.2.1. Classifications

By means of the above-mentioned lattice properties, it is possible to classify lattices according to various criteria. Lattices can be subdivided with respect to their topological types of domains, resulting in two classes in two dimensions and five classes in three dimensions. They are called *Voronoi types*. If the classification involves topological *and* symmetry properties of the domains, 24 *Symmetrische Sorten* (Delaunay, 1933) are obtained in three dimensions and 5 in two dimensions. Other classifications consider either the centring type or the point group of the lattice.

The most important classification takes into account both the lattice point-group symmetry and the centring mode (Bravais, 1866). The resulting classes are called *Bravais types of lattices* or, for short, *Bravais lattices*. Two lattices belong to the same Bravais type if and only if they coincide both in their point-group symmetry and in the centring mode of their conventional cells. The Bravais lattice characterizes the translational subgroup of a space group. The number of Bravais lattices is 1 in one dimension, 5 in two dimensions, 14 in three dimensions and 64 in four dimensions. The Bravais lattices may be derived by topological (Delaunay, 1933) or algebraic procedures (Burckhardt, 1966; Neubüser *et al.*, 1971). It can be shown (Wondratschek *et al.*, 1971) that 'all Bravais types of the same [crystal] family can be obtained from each other by the process of centring'. As a consequence, different Bravais types of the same crystal family (*cf.* Section 1.3.4) differ in their centring mode. Thus, the Bravais types may be described by a lower-case letter designating the crystal family and an upper-case letter designating the centring mode. The relations between the point groups of the lattices and the crystal families are shown in Table 3.1.1.1. Since the hexagonal and rhombohedral Bravais types belong to the same crystal family, the rhombohedral lattice is described by *hR*, *h* indicating the family and *R* the centring type. This nomenclature was adopted for the 1969 reprint of *International Tables for X-ray Crystallography* (1952) and for *Structure Reports* since 1975 (*cf.* Trotter, 1975).

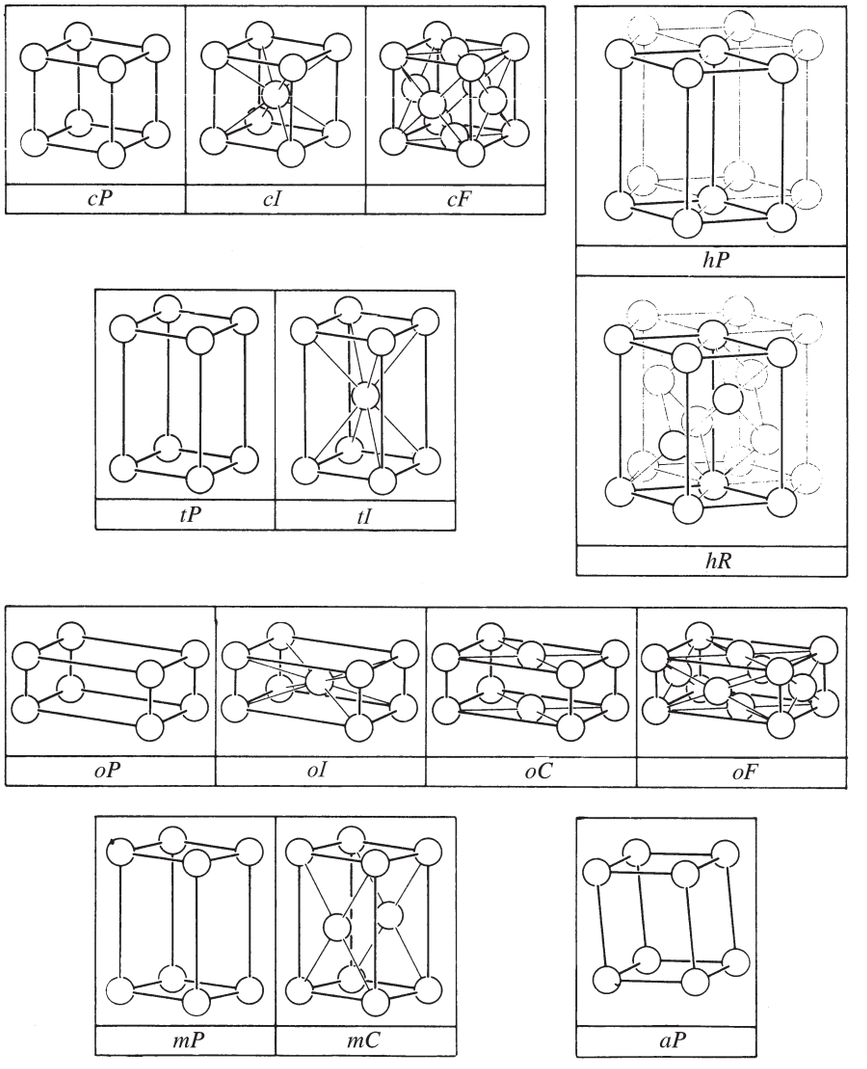


Figure 3.1.2.1
Conventional cells of the three-dimensional Bravais types of lattices (for symbols see Table 3.1.2.2).

3.1.2.2. Description of Bravais types of lattices

In Fig. 3.1.2.1, conventional cells for the 14 three-dimensional Bravais types of lattices are illustrated.

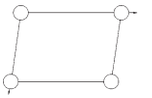
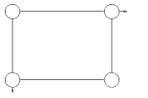
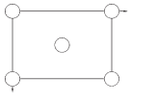
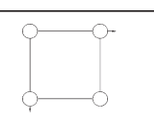
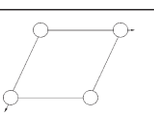
In Tables 3.1.2.1 and 3.1.2.2, the two- and three-dimensional Bravais types of lattices are described in detail. For each entry, the tables contain conditions that must be fulfilled by the lattice parameters and the metric tensor. These conditions are given with respect to two different basis systems, first the conventional basis related to symmetry, second a special primitive basis (see below). In columns 2 and 3, basis vectors not required by symmetry to be of the same length are designated by different letters. Columns 4 and 5 contain the metric tensors for the two related bases. Column 6 shows the relations between the components of the two tensors.

The last columns of Tables 3.1.2.1 and 3.1.2.2 show parallel projections of the appropriate conventional unit cells. Among the different possible choices of the primitive basis, as discussed in Section 3.1.1, the special primitive basis mentioned above is obtained according to the following rules:

(i) For each type of centring, only one transformation matrix $\boldsymbol{P}$ is used to obtain the primitive cell as given in Tables 3.1.2.1 and 3.1.2.2. The transformation obeys equation (3.1.1.2).

(ii) Among the different possible transformations, those are preferred which result in a metric tensor with simple relations among its components, as defined in Tables 3.1.2.1 and 3.1.2.2.

Table 3.1.2.1
Two-dimensional Bravais types of lattices

Bravais type of lattice†	Lattice parameters		Metric tensor			Projections
	Conventional	Primitive	Conventional	Primitive/ transformation to primitive cell	Relations of the components	
mp	a, b γ	a, b γ	$g_{11}\ \ g_{12}$ $\ \ \ g_{22}$	$g_{11}\ \ g_{12}$ $\ \ \ g_{22}$		
op	a, b $\gamma = 90°$	a, b $\gamma = 90°$	$g_{11}\ \ 0$ $\ \ \ g_{22}$	$g_{11}\ \ 0$ $\ \ \ g_{22}$		
oc		$a_1 = a_2, \gamma$		$\boldsymbol{P}(c)$‡ $g'_{11}\ \ g'_{12}$ $\ \ \ g'_{11}$	$g'_{11} = \frac{1}{4}(g_{11} + g_{22})$ $g'_{12} = \frac{1}{4}(g_{11} - g_{22})$ $g_{11} = 2(g'_{11} + g'_{12})$ $g_{12} = 2(g'_{11} - g'_{12})$	
tp	$a_1 = a_2$ $\gamma = 90°$	$a_1 = a_2$ $\gamma = 90°$	$g_{11}\ \ 0$ $\ \ \ g_{11}$	$g_{11}\ \ 0$ $\ \ \ g_{11}$		
hp	$a_1 = a_2$ $\gamma = 120°$	$a_1 = a_2$ $\gamma = 120°$	$g_{11}\ \ -\frac{1}{2}g_{11}$ $\ \ \ g_{11}$	$g_{11}\ \ -\frac{1}{2}g_{11}$ $\ \ \ g_{11}$		

† The symbols for Bravais types of lattices were adopted by the International Union of Crystallography in 1985; *cf.* de Wolff *et al.* (1985). ‡ $\boldsymbol{P}(c) = \frac{1}{2}(11/\bar{1}1)$.

If a primitive basis is chosen according to these rules, basis vectors of the conventional cell have parallel face-diagonal or body-diagonal orientation with respect to the basis vectors of the primitive cell. For cubic and rhombohedral lattices, the primitive basis vectors are selected such that they are symmetry-equivalent with respect to a threefold axis. In all cases, a face of the 'domain of influence' is perpendicular to each basis vector of these primitive cells.

3.1.2.3. Delaunay reduction and standardization

Further classifications use reduction theory. There are different approaches to the reduction of quadratic forms in mathematics. The two most important in our context are

(i) the Selling–Delaunay reduction (Selling, 1874),

(ii) the Eisenstein–Niggli reduction.

The investigations by Gruber (*cf.* Section 3.1.4) have shown the common root of both crystallographic approaches. As the Niggli reduction will be discussed in detail in Sections 3.1.3 and 3.1.4, we shall discuss the Delaunay reduction here.

We start with a lattice basis $(\mathbf{b}_i)_{1\le i\le n}$ $(n = 2, 3)$. This basis is extended by a vector

$$\mathbf{b}_{n+1} = -(\mathbf{b}_1 + \ldots + \mathbf{b}_n).$$

All scalar products

$$\mathbf{b}_i \cdot \mathbf{b}_k \ (1 \le i < k \le n+1)$$

are considered. The reduction is performed minimizing the sum

$$\sum = \mathbf{b}_1{}^2 + \ldots + \mathbf{b}_{n+1}{}^2.$$

It can be shown that this sum can be reduced by a sequence of transformations as long as one of the scalar products is still positive. If *e.g.* the scalar product $\mathbf{b}_1 \cdot \mathbf{b}_2$ is still positive, a transformation can be applied such that the sum $\sum'$ of the transformed $\mathbf{b}'^2_i$ is smaller than $\sum$:

$$\mathbf{b}'_1 = -\mathbf{b}_1,\ \mathbf{b}'_2 = \mathbf{b}_2,\ \mathbf{b}'_3 = \mathbf{b}_1 + \mathbf{b}_3 \text{ and } \mathbf{b}'_4 = \mathbf{b}_1 + \mathbf{b}_4.$$

In the two-dimensional case, $\mathbf{b}'_3 = 2\mathbf{b}_1 + \mathbf{b}_3$ holds.

If all the scalar products are less than or equal to zero, the three shortest vectors of the reduced basis are contained in the set $\{\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \mathbf{b}_3, \mathbf{b}_4, \mathbf{b}_1 + \mathbf{b}_2, \mathbf{b}_2 + \mathbf{b}_3, \mathbf{b}_3 + \mathbf{b}_1\}$, called the *Delaunay set*, which corresponds to the maximal set of faces of the Dirichlet domain (at most 14 faces).

The result of a reduction can be presented by a graphical symbol, the Selling tetrahedron. The four corners of the tetrahedron correspond to the vectors $\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2, \mathbf{b}_3, \mathbf{b}_4$, the mutual scalar products are attached to the edges. A scalar product that is zero is indicated by '0'; equal scalar products are designated by the same graphical symbol (*cf.* Table 3.1.2.3).

Delaunay's classification is based on Voronoi types. Voronoi distinguishes five classes of Dirichlet domains. To describe these, the following symbols are used to represent particular topological features: s is used for a hexagon and for v for a quadrangle, s^2 indicates an edge between two hexagons and v^2 an edge between two quadrangles, v^4 is a vertex where four quadrangles meet and v^3 is a vertex where three quadrangles meet. The five types are topologically characterized by: V1 ($8s$, $6v$, $12s^2$), V2 ($4s$, $8v$, $4s^2$), V3 ($12v$, $24v^2$, $8v^3$, $6v^4$), V4 ($2s$, $6v$, $6v^2$) and V5 ($6v$, $12v^2$, $8v^3$). The numbers give the multiplicities of each feature.

Delaunay combined the topological description with the rotation groups of the crystallographic holohedries. He used upper-case letters for these groups (K – cubic, H – hexagonal, R – rhombohedral, Q – tetragonal, O – orthorhombic, M – monoclinic, T – triclinic) followed by a incremental number if more than one Voronoi type with the same symmetry exists. The results are presented in Table 3.1.2.3. In each row a '*Symmetrische Sorte*' is described.