

LECTURE 10 (Revised version)

Reciprocal Vector Basis for V

Its relation to the dual basis for V^*

Geometrical relation between
vectors and their linear functionals
in V^* .

2.2 The Reciprocal Vector Basis

10.1

Some text books refer to x^i and x_i as the "contravariant" and "covariant" components of one and the same vector. This can actually be misleading.

Historically the "contravariant" components are the component relative to a chosen basis, regardless of what metric the vector space V is endowed with.

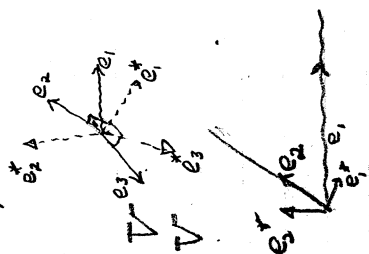
If V is endowed with a specific metric, then there exists a second well defined basis, "reciprocal" to the first one.

It turns out that the components of a vector relative to this reciprocal basis are precisely x_i , and it is these components that have been called the "covariant" components of the vector.

The reciprocal basis is actually very useful because it brings the geometrical features of the dual basis into sharper focus.

10.2

The reciprocal basis and its properties arise as follows.



Definition: (reciprocal basis)

Given $(V, g = \cdot)$, a metric on V

(ii) $\{e_i\}$, a basis for V

Then the set of vectors $\{e_1^*, e_2^*, \dots, e_n^*\}$

where

$$e_k^* \cdot e_i = \delta_{ki}$$

is the basis reciprocal to $\{e_i\}$.

This definition says that e_k^* is a vector perpendicular to the plane spanned by $\{e_1, \dots, e_{k-1}, e_{k+1}, \dots, e_n\}$, i.e.,

$$e_k^* \cdot e_i = 0 \quad i \neq k$$

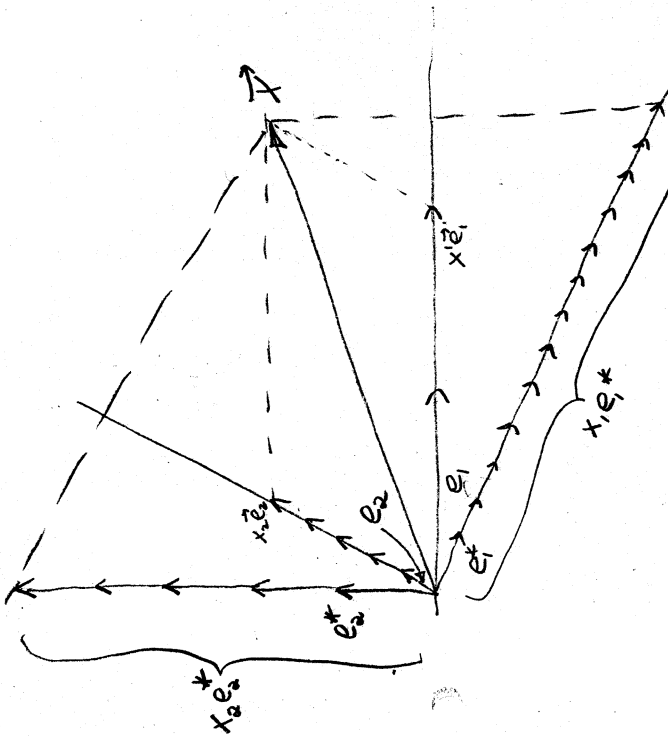
Furthermore, e_k^* is scaled such that $e_k^* \cdot e_k = 1$ (NO SUM)

It is also clear that if the basis $\{e_i^*\}$ is reciprocal to $\{e_i\}$, then $\{e_i\}$ is reciprocal to $\{e_i^*\}$.

In other words, one has

$$\vec{x} = x^i \vec{e}_i = \sum x^k \vec{e}_k$$

10,5
 $= x^1 \vec{e}_1 + x^2 \vec{e}_2 = x_1 \vec{e}_1 + x_2 \vec{e}_2$



In terms of these components the square length of a vector has the simple form.

$$x \cdot x = (x^1 \vec{e}_1 + x^2 \vec{e}_2) \cdot (x_1 \vec{e}_1 + x_2 \vec{e}_2)$$

$$= x^1 x_1 + x^2 x_2$$

$$= x^1 g_{11} x^1 + x^2 g_{22} x^2$$

$$= g_{ii} x^i x^i$$

The fact that elements of the reciprocal basis as well as the elements of the dual basis serve as projection operators suggests that there exists a more far reaching relation between these two bases. That this is indeed the case is expressed by the following Proposition: The image of e_k^* under the metric is ω^k ; in other words, the metric establishes a one-to-one relationship between the elements of the reciprocal basis and those of the

dual basis:

$$e_k^* \mapsto \omega^k$$

proof:

$$\text{we have: } g(e_k^*, \vec{x}) = e_k^* \cdot \vec{x} = e_k^* \cdot e_i \cdot x^i = x^k$$

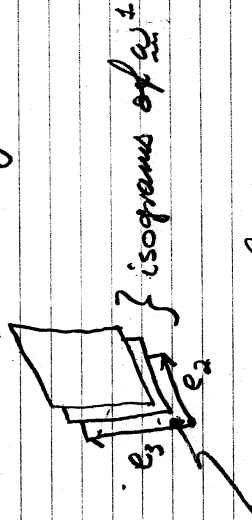
$$\text{also: } \langle \omega^k | \vec{x} \rangle = \langle \omega^k | e_i \rangle x^i = x^k$$

This holds for all vectors \vec{x} . Consequently,

$g(e_k^*, \omega^l) = e_k^* \cdot \omega^l = \delta_{kl}$
which is the same as

$$e_k^* \mapsto g(e_k^*, \omega^l) = \delta_{kl}$$

The geometrical interpretation of this result is that the vector e_k^* is perpendicular to the level surface of ω^k . This is because all basis vectors e_i where $i \neq k$, lie in the isogram $\omega^k = 0$ of the linear function ω^k . In other words, $\omega^k = 0$ is the subspace in V spanned by those e_i 's



Locus of points where $\omega^k = 0$

On the other hand, e_k^* is perpendicular to those e_i 's. Thus e_k^* is perpendicular to

the level surfaces of ω_k indeed.

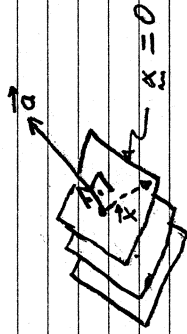
One can extend this orthogonality property to arbitrary linear functionals.

Indeed, let $\alpha = \alpha_k \omega_k$ be an arbitrarily chosen linear functional on V .

Question: Is there a unique vector \vec{a} to the level surfaces of $\alpha = \alpha_k \omega_k$?

Answer: Yes. This vector is $\vec{a} =$

$$\vec{a} = \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_k e_k^*$$



Discussion: Let \vec{x} be any vector. Then

$$\alpha(\vec{x}) = \langle \alpha_k \omega_k, \vec{x} \rangle = \alpha_k \langle \omega_k, \vec{x} \rangle = \alpha_k e_k^* \cdot \vec{x} = \vec{a} \cdot \vec{x} \quad (*)$$

Suppose that \vec{x} is any vector lying on the plane $\alpha = 0$, i.e. $\alpha(\vec{x}) = 0$.

We now have the following

Proposition

Given the linear function (covector)

$$\alpha = \alpha_k \omega_k$$

Conclusion:

(a) The preimage under the metric g is

the unique vector

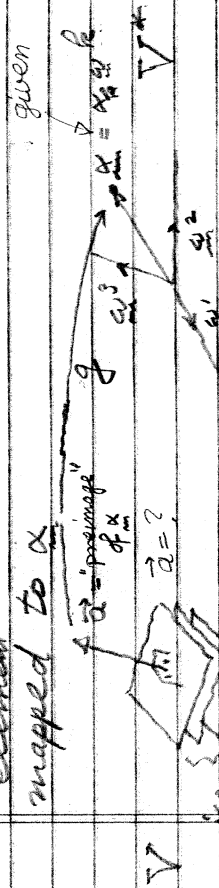
$$\vec{a} = \sum_k \alpha_k e_k^*$$

(b) This vector is perpendicular to the

isograms of α .

Discussion:

(a) "Preimage of α is the set of vectors that get mapped to α . Here the preimage consists of a single element mapped to α



so that

$$\alpha(\vec{a}) = \alpha_k \omega_k(\vec{a}) = \alpha_k \delta_{k1} = \alpha_k = \alpha$$

14.15.5
10.10

14.13.6
10.11

9) (cont'd)
The validation of the fact that under

g the linear function $\alpha = \sum_k \alpha_k \omega_k$ has the unique vector $\vec{a} = \sum_k \alpha_k e_k^*$ as its preimage is achieved by

the observation that

$$\begin{aligned} g(\vec{a}, x) &= \sum_k \alpha_k g(e_k^*, x) \\ &= \sum_k \alpha_k e_k^* \cdot x \\ &= \sum_k \alpha_k \sum_i e_i \cdot x_i \\ &= \sum_k \alpha_k \sum_i e_i \cdot x_i \\ &= \sum_k \alpha_k \sum_i e_i \cdot x_i \\ &= \sum_k \alpha_k \sum_i e_i \cdot x_i \end{aligned}$$

given $\alpha = \sum_k \alpha_k \omega_k$ $\forall x \in V$

On the other hand

$$g(\vec{a}, x) = \sum_i g_i \omega_i(\vec{a}) \omega_i(x) \quad \forall x \in V$$

consequently

$$\alpha_k \omega_k = \sum_i g_i \omega_i(\vec{a}) \omega_i$$

i.e. $\vec{a} = \sum_k \alpha_k e_k^* \in V$ is a preimage of α under

$$g = \sum_i g_i \omega_i \otimes \omega_i^*$$

The linear independence of $\{\omega_i \otimes \omega_i^*\}_{i=1}^m$ implies

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_k &= \sum_i g_i \omega_i(\vec{a}) \\ &= \sum_i g_i \alpha_i^2 \quad k=1, \dots, m \end{aligned}$$

The uniqueness of $\{\alpha_i\}_{i=1}^m$, and hence of $\alpha_i e_i = \vec{a} (= \sum_k \alpha_k e_k^*)$, follows from the fact that the matrix $[g_i \alpha_i^2]$ is assumed to be non-singular.

Thus, any $\alpha = \sum_k \alpha_k \omega_k$ in V^* has a unique g -induced preimage $\vec{a} = \sum_k \alpha_k e_k^*$ in V .

Moreover if expansion of \vec{a} relative to the basis $\{e_i\}$ is

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{a} &= \sum_i \alpha_i e_i = \sum_i \omega_i(\vec{a}) e_i \\ \text{then these expansion coefficients yield} \\ \alpha_k &= \sum_j g_j \alpha_j^2 \end{aligned}$$

14.134
10.13

In summary one has

$$\vec{a} = a^i e_i = \sum_R a_R \vec{e}_R \in V$$

$$\alpha_m = \alpha_R a_R \in V^*$$

where

$$\alpha_R = g_{AC} a^C$$

14.14
10.13

(b) To validate that \vec{a} with the property

that

$$g(\vec{a}, \vec{a}) = \alpha \quad (\alpha = \alpha_{\text{given}})$$

is a vector which is \perp to the isogram

of α , let \vec{x} be any vector in V . Then

$$\alpha_m(\vec{x}) = \langle \alpha_{\text{given}} | \vec{x} \rangle$$

$$= \alpha_R \langle \vec{e}_R | \vec{x} \rangle$$

$$= \alpha_R x^R$$

$$= \sum_R \alpha_R \vec{e}_R \cdot \vec{x} \quad \forall \vec{x}$$

Next let \vec{x} be any vector lying in the

isogram where α has the value zero

i.e. $\alpha_m(\vec{x}) = 0$

4.15
10.14

Consequently

$$\begin{aligned}
 \vec{x} \in \{ \vec{x} : \alpha(\vec{x}) = 0 \} &= \alpha = \sum_{k=1}^m \omega_k \\
 &= \{ \vec{x} : \vec{a} \cdot \vec{x} = 0 \} \\
 &\quad \uparrow \quad \downarrow \\
 &\quad \vec{a} = \sum_{k=1}^m \omega_k \vec{e}_k
 \end{aligned}$$

\vec{x} lies in the zero isogram of α

\vec{a} is \perp to the zero isogram of α

4.16
10.15

The fact that \vec{a} is perpendicular

to all vectors \vec{x} lying in planar

isogram $\alpha = 0$ is what is meant

by the statement that \vec{a} is the vector

perpendicular to all the level

planar isograms of α . Why? Because

they are parallel planes.

Conclusion:

$$\vec{a} = \sum_k \omega_k \vec{e}_k = \sum_i a_i \vec{e}_i$$

is the (unique) vector which is perpendicular

to the isograms of

$$\alpha = \sum_k \omega_k \omega_k$$

where (i) $\alpha_k = \sum_i \omega_k \omega_i a_i$

$$\text{(ii) } \omega_k \omega_i = \omega_k \omega_i; \quad \vec{e}_k \cdot \vec{e}_i = \delta_{ki}$$

and $\langle \sum_i \omega_i \vec{e}_i \rangle = \sum_i \omega_i^2$

ANOTHER APPLICATION
 Bragg Diffraction expressed in terms of
 Laue's Eq'n

Let $\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2, \vec{e}_3$ be basis ("primitive translation" vectors for a crystal lattice V).

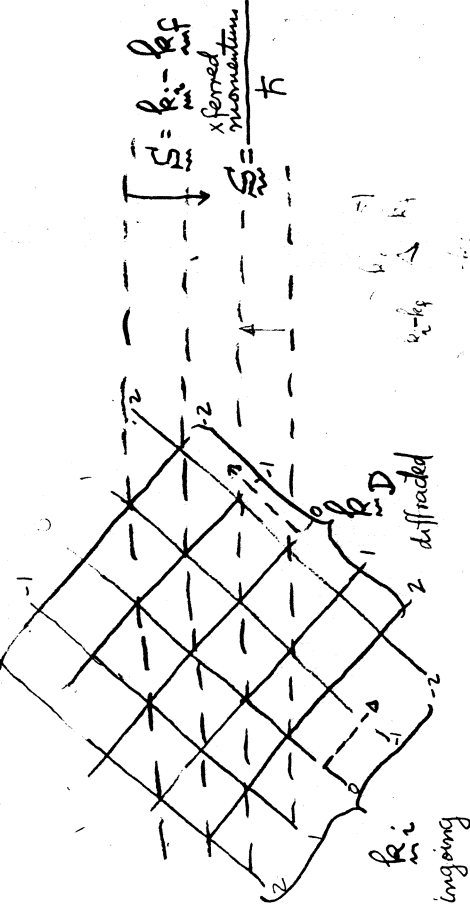
Let $\{\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3\}$ be the basis of duals: $\langle \omega_j, \vec{e}_i \rangle = \delta_{ij}$

Let $\vec{k}_i =$ incident propagation covector for the wave $\exp(i \langle \vec{k}_i, \vec{x} \rangle) = \exp[i(k_x x + k_y y + k_z z)]$

Let $\vec{k}_D =$ diffracted propagation covector

Let $\vec{S} = \vec{k}_D - \vec{k}_i$ [note: $(\vec{k}_D - \vec{k}_i)h =$ momentum transferred to the crystal]

Let h, k, l be integers, the "Miller indices" of a crystal plane



Then an incident wave $e^{i \langle \vec{k}_i, \vec{x} \rangle}$ will get diffracted by the crystal lattice into a diffracted wave $e^{i \langle \vec{k}_D, \vec{x} \rangle}$ (i.e. Bragg diffraction occurs) provided

$$\langle \vec{S}, \vec{e}_1 \rangle = 2\pi h = \text{phase along } \vec{e}_1$$

$$\langle \vec{S}, \vec{e}_2 \rangle = 2\pi k = \text{phase along } \vec{e}_2$$

$$\langle \vec{S}, \vec{e}_3 \rangle = 2\pi l = \text{phase along } \vec{e}_3$$

These are Laue's eq'ns. They can be related

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \vec{S} = h \vec{\omega}_1 + k \vec{\omega}_2 + l \vec{\omega}_3$$

$h, k, l = \text{integers}$

Laue's eq'n for Bragg diffraction

This eq'n says that Bragg diffraction \iff level surfaces of S must coincide with crystal plane (h, k, l)

For details see Charles Kittel: "Introduction to Solid State Physics."

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \vec{S} = h \vec{e}_1 + k \vec{e}_2 + l \vec{e}_3 \in \text{Reciprocal Lattice of crystal planes.}$$

used in X-Ray Crystallography & quantum theory of solids.

LECTURE 10

(Posterior)

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It turns out that the components of a relative to this reciprocal basis, are precisely x_j , and it is these components that have been called the "covariant" components of the vector.

The reciprocal basis is actually very useful because it brings the geometrical features of the dual basis into sharper focus.

10.2

The reciprocal basis and its properties arise as follows.

Definition: (reciprocal basis)

Given (\mathbf{e}_i) , a metric on V

(i.e. $\{\mathbf{e}_i\}$, a basis for V

Then the set of vectors

$\{\mathbf{e}_1^*, \mathbf{e}_2^*, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n^*\}$,

where

$$\mathbf{e}_k^* \cdot \mathbf{e}_i = \delta_{ki}$$

is the basis reciprocal to $\{\mathbf{e}_i\}$.

This definition says that \mathbf{e}_k^* is a vector perpendicular to the plane spanned by $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_{k-1}, \mathbf{e}_{k+1}, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n\}$, i.e.

$$\mathbf{e}_k^* \cdot \mathbf{e}_i = 0 \quad i \neq k$$

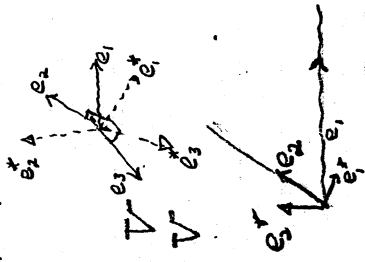
Furthermore, \mathbf{e}_k^* is scaled such that

$$\mathbf{e}_k^* \cdot \mathbf{e}_k = 1$$

NO SUM

It is also clear that if the basis $\{\mathbf{e}_i\}$ is reciprocal to $\{\mathbf{e}_i\}$, then

$\{\mathbf{e}_i\}$ is reciprocal to $\{\mathbf{e}_i^*\}$.

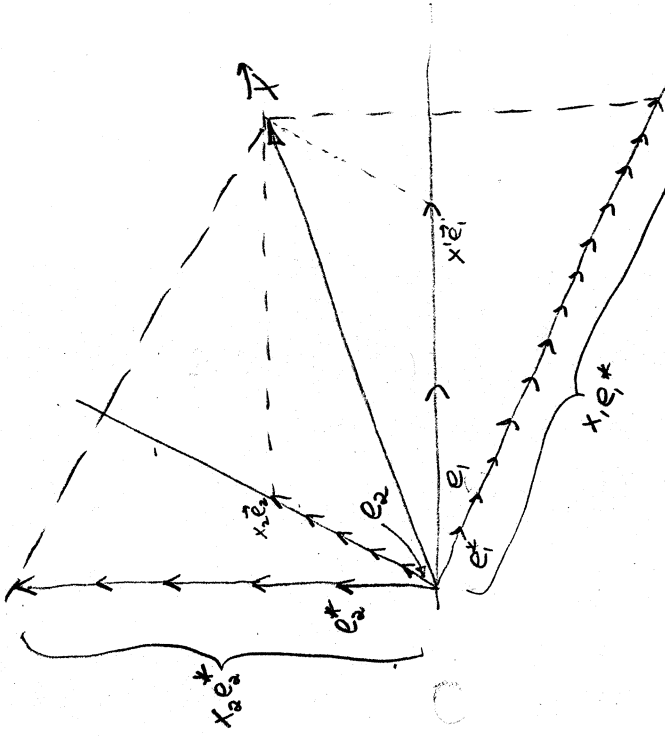


In other words, one has

10,3

$$= x_1 e_1 + x_2 e_2 = x_1 e_1 + x_2 e_2$$

$$\vec{x} = x_i e_i = \sum x_i e_i$$



In terms of these components the square length of a vector has the simple form.

$$x \cdot x = (x_1 e_1 + x_2 e_2) \cdot (x_1 e_1 + x_2 e_2)$$

$$= x_1^2 x_1 + x_2^2 x_2$$

$$= x_1^2 g_{11} + x_2^2 g_{22}$$

$$= g_{ii} x_i^2$$

10.4

We know that the elements of the dual basis $\{w_i\}$ serve as operators which project out the a vector's components relative to the given basis. The elements of the reciprocal basis serve the same function. These facts are summarized by the following

10.5

- proof: ① $e_k^* \mapsto g(e_k^*) = e_k^* \cdot = e_k^*$
- ② Evaluate Ω^k for any basis vector e_i :
 $\Omega^k(e_i) = g(e_k^*, e_i) = \delta_{ki}$
- ③ These are the properties of e_k . Hence $e_k^* \mapsto w^k (= e_k^*)$

Both the reciprocal basis vectors and the dual 1-forms are useful because they serve as projection operators. In fact we have

Proposition: (Projection operators)

The dual basis as well as the reciprocal basis elements serve as projection operators that yield the coordinates of a vector:

$$\langle e_k^* | \vec{x} \rangle = \langle e_k^* | x^i e_i \rangle = x^i \delta_{ki} = x^k$$

$$e_k^* \cdot \vec{x} = x^i e_k^* \cdot e_i = x^i \delta_{ki} = x^k$$

here $x^k =$ is the parallel projection of \vec{x} onto the coordinate axis of e_k

This differs from

$$e_j \cdot \vec{x} = e_j \cdot x^i e_i = x^i g_{ji} = x_j = \text{"covariant component of } \vec{x}$$

10.6

The fact that elements of the reciprocal basis as well as the elements of the dual basis serve as projection operators suggests that there exists a more far reaching relation between these two bases. That this is indeed the case is expressed by the following Proposition: The image of e_k^* under the metric is ω^k ; in other words, the metric establishes a one-to-one relationship between the elements of the reciprocal basis and those of the

$$e_k^* \mapsto \omega^k$$

proof:

we have:

$$g(e_k^*, \bar{x}) = e_k^* \cdot \bar{x} = e_k^* \cdot \sum_i e_i \cdot x^i = x^k$$

$$\text{also: } \langle \omega^k, \bar{x} \rangle = \langle \omega^k, \sum_i e_i \cdot x^i \rangle = x^k$$

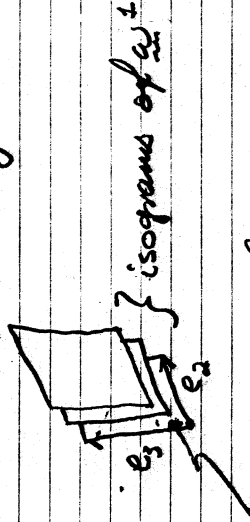
This holds for all vectors \bar{x} . Consequently,

10.7

$g(e_k^*, e_i^*) = \langle e_k^*, e_i^* \rangle = \omega^k$, which is the same as

$$e_k^* \mapsto g(e_k^*, e_i^*) = \omega^k$$

The geometrical interpretation of this result is that the vector e_k^* is perpendicular to the level surface of ω^k . This is because all basis vectors e_i where $i \neq k$, lie in the isogram $\omega^k = 0$ of the linear function ω^k . In other words, $\omega^k = 0$ is the subspace in V spanned by those e_i 's



Locus of points where $\omega^k = 0$

On the other hand, e_k^* is perpendicular to these e_i 's. Thus e_k^* is perpendicular to

the level surfaces of ω_k indeed.

one can extend this orthogonality property to arbitrary linear functionals.

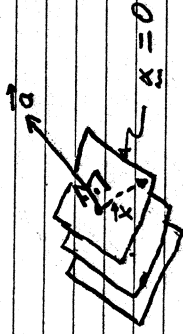
Indeed, let $\alpha = \alpha_k \omega_k$ be an arbitrarily chosen linear functional on V .

Question: Is there a unique vector

\perp to the level surfaces of $\alpha = \alpha_k \omega_k$?

Answer: Yes. This vector is $\vec{a} =$

$$\vec{a} = \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_k \vec{e}_k$$



Discussion: Let \vec{x} be any vector. Then

$$\alpha(\vec{x}) = \langle \alpha \omega_k | \vec{x} \rangle = \alpha_k \langle \omega_k | \vec{x} \rangle = \alpha_k \vec{e}_k \cdot \vec{x} = \vec{a} \cdot \vec{x} \quad (*)$$

Suppose that \vec{x} is any vector lying on the plane

$$\alpha = 0 \text{ i.e. } \vec{x} \cdot \alpha(\vec{x}) = 0.$$

We now have the following

The Proposition

Given the linear function (covector)

$$\alpha = \alpha_k \omega_k$$

conclusion:

(a) The preimage under the metric g is

the unique vector

$$\vec{a} = \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_k \vec{e}_k$$

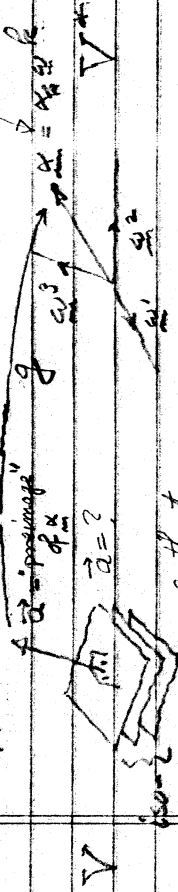
(b) This vector is perpendicular to the

isograms of α .

Discussion:

(a) "Preimage" of α is the set of vectors that get mapped to α . Here the preimage consists of a single element

mapped to α



isograms of α

so that $\vec{a} \cdot \alpha(\vec{a}) = \alpha(\vec{a}) = \alpha_k \omega_k(\vec{a}) = \alpha$ given

14.155
10.10

a) (cont'd)

To validate the claim that g maps

$$\vec{a} = \sum_k \alpha_k \vec{e}_k \quad \text{to} \quad \alpha = \sum_k \alpha_k \omega_k$$

one observes that

$$\begin{aligned} g(\vec{a}, X) &= \sum_k \alpha_k g(\vec{e}_k, X) \\ &= \sum_k \alpha_k \sum_l \vec{e}_l \cdot \vec{e}_k \cdot X \\ &= \sum_k \alpha_k \sum_l \delta_{kl} X \\ &= \sum_k \alpha_k \omega_k(X) \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand
 $g(\vec{a}, X) = \sum_k g_{ij} \omega^i(\vec{a}) \omega^j(X) \quad \forall X$
 consequently,

$$g_{ij} \omega^i(\vec{a}) \omega^j(X) = \sum_k \alpha_k \omega_k(X) \quad (*)$$

i.e. $\vec{a} = \sum_k \alpha_k \vec{e}_k$ is a preimage of α under

14.136
10.11

$$g = \sum_{ij} g_{ij} \omega^i \otimes \omega^j$$

Having identified

$\vec{a} = \sum_k \alpha_k \vec{e}_k$ as the preimage of $\alpha = \sum_k \alpha_k \omega_k$ under g , one needs to determine the expansion coefficients α^i of \vec{a} relative to the given basis $\{\vec{e}_i\}$; in other words, one needs to solve $\vec{a} = \sum_i \alpha^i \vec{e}_i$.

for α^i . This is done with the help of Eq. (*) at the bottom of P.10.10, namely

$$g_{ij} \alpha^i(\vec{a}) \omega^j = \sum_k \alpha_k \omega_k$$

These expansion coefficients, we recall, are the coordinate components of \vec{a} , namely,

$$\alpha^i = g^i(\vec{a})$$

Thus one concludes obtains

$$g_{ij} \alpha^i = \alpha^j \quad j=1, \dots, n$$

which can be solved for α^i whenever $[g_{ij}]$ is a non-singular matrix.

Summarizing, the covector $\alpha = \sum_k \alpha_k \omega_k \in V^*$ has under g the unique preimage $\vec{a} = \sum_k \alpha_k \vec{e}_k \in V$.

Moreover, if one expands \vec{a} relative

to the basis $\{\vec{e}_i\}$

$$\vec{a} = \sum_i \alpha^i \vec{e}_i = \omega^i(\vec{a}) \vec{e}_i$$

then these expansion coefficients yield

$$\alpha_k = g_{kj} \alpha^j$$

14/13/24
10.12

In summary one has

$$\vec{a} = a^i e_i = \sum_k a_k \vec{e}_k \in V$$

$$a_m = a_k a^k \quad \dots \quad \in V^*$$

where

$$a_k = g_{kc} a^c$$

14/14
10.13

(a) To validate that \vec{a} with the property

that

$$g(\vec{a}, \vec{a}) = a_m (= a_{km} a^k + g_{mm})$$

is a vector which is \perp to the isoplane of a_m , let \vec{x} be any vector in V . Then

$$a_m(\vec{x}) = \langle a_{km} | \vec{x} \rangle$$

$$= a_{km} \langle e_k | \vec{x} \rangle$$

$$= a_{km} x^k$$

$$= \sum_k a_{km} e_k \cdot \vec{x} \quad \forall \vec{x}$$

Next let \vec{x} be any vector lying in the

isoplane where a_m has the value zero

i.e. $a_m(\vec{x}) = 0$

11/15
10.14

Consequently,

$$\vec{x} \in \{ \vec{x} : \sum_{k=1}^m \alpha_k (\vec{x} \cdot \vec{e}_k) = 0 \} = \{ \vec{x} : \alpha \cdot \vec{x} = 0 \}$$

$$\vec{a} = \sum_{k=1}^m \alpha_k \vec{e}_k$$

\vec{x} lies in the
zero isogram
of α

\vec{a} is \perp to the
zero isogram
of α

11/16
10.15

The fact that \vec{a} is perpendicular to all vectors \vec{x} lying in planar isogram $\alpha = 0$ is what is meant by the statement that \vec{a} is the vector perpendicular to all the level planar isograms of α . Why? Because they are parallel planes.

Conclusion:

$$\vec{a} = \sum_{k=1}^m \alpha_k \vec{e}_k^* = \sum_{k=1}^m \alpha_k^2 \vec{e}_k$$

is the (unique) vector which is perpendicular to the isograms of

$$\alpha = \sum_{k=1}^m \alpha_k \omega_k$$

where $(i) \alpha_k = \sum_{k=1}^m \alpha_k \omega_k$

(ii) $\sum_{k=1}^m \alpha_k \omega_k = \sum_{k=1}^m \alpha_k \omega_k$; $\vec{e}_k \cdot \vec{e}_i = \delta_{ki}$

and (iii) $\langle \omega_i, \omega_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$

ANOTHER APPLICATION

Bragg Diffraction expressed in terms of

Laue's Eq'n

Let $\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2, \vec{e}_3$ be basis ("primitive translation" vectors for a crystal lattice V).

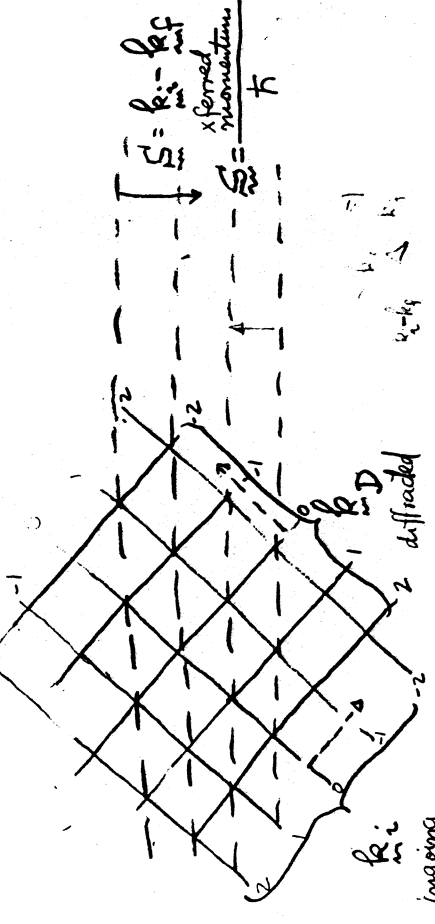
Let $\{\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3\}$ be the basis of duals: $\langle \omega_j, \vec{e}_i \rangle = \delta_{ij}$

Let \vec{k}_i = incident propagation vector for the wave $\exp(i \langle \vec{k}_i, \vec{x} \rangle) = \exp[i(k_x x + k_y y + k_z z)]$

Let \vec{k}_0 = diffracted propagation vector

Let $\vec{S} = \vec{k}_i - \vec{k}_0$ [note: $(\vec{k}_i - \vec{k}_0)h$ = momentum transfer to the crystal]

Let h, k, l be integers, the "Miller indices" of a crystal plane



Then an incident wave $e^{i \langle \vec{k}_i, \vec{x} \rangle}$ will get diffracted by the crystal lattice into a diffracted wave $e^{i \langle \vec{k}_0, \vec{x} \rangle}$ (i.e. Bragg diffraction occurs) provided

$$\langle \vec{S}, \vec{e}_1 \rangle = 2\pi h = \text{phase along } \vec{e}_1$$

$$\langle \vec{S}, \vec{e}_2 \rangle = 2\pi k = \text{phase along } \vec{e}_2$$

$$\langle \vec{S}, \vec{e}_3 \rangle = 2\pi l = \text{phase along } \vec{e}_3$$

These are Laue's eq'ns. They can be restated

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \vec{S} = h \vec{\omega}_1 + k \vec{\omega}_2 + l \vec{\omega}_3$$

$h, k, l = \text{integers}$

Laue's eq'n for Bragg diffraction

This eq'n says that Bragg diffraction \iff level surfaces of \vec{S} must coincide with crystal plane (h, k, l)

For details see Charles Kittel: "Introduction to Solid State Physics."

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \vec{S} = h \vec{\omega}_1 + k \vec{\omega}_2 + l \vec{\omega}_3 \in \text{Reciprocal Lattice planes.}$$

used in X-Ray Crystallography & quantum theory of solids.