Enter title here A Space for Lattice Representation and Clustering

Authors Lawrence C. Andrews<sup>a</sup>\*, Herbert J. Bernstein<sup>b</sup>, Jean Jakoncic<sup>c</sup>, Alexei Soares<sup>c</sup>, Nicholas K. Sauter<sup>d</sup>

<sup>a</sup>Ronin Institute, Kirkland, WA, USA

<sup>b</sup>Rochester Institute of Technology, c/o NSLS-II, Brookhaven National Laboratory, Upton, NY,

<sup>c</sup>Brookhaven National Laboratory, Upton, NY, USA

<sup>d</sup>Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory, Berkeley, CA, USA

**Note** Boris Delaunay in his later publications used the Russian version of his surname: Delone. We will follow that choice.

**Synopsis** Algorithms for defining the difference between two lattices are described. They are based on the work of Selling and Delone (Delaunay).

**Abstract** Algorithms for quantifying the difference between two lattices are used for Bravais lattice determination, database lookup for unit cells, and recently for clustering to group together images from serial crystallography. A space related to the reduction algorithm of Selling and to the Bravais lattice determination methods of Delone is described. Two ways of representing the space are presented and applications of its metric are discussed.

Keywords: Unit cell; reduction; Delone; Delaunay; lattice

#### 1. Introduction

(Andrews, et al., 2018) described some of the properties of the six scalars that are treated by the Selling reduction. Considering the scalars as a definition for a metric space, rather than a simple list of numbers has advantages. We consider two representations of the space, S6 and C3. Although S6 and C3 are simply reorganizations of the same data, some operations are simpler to explain in one than the other. We will choose to show only the simpler one.

#### 2. The Space S6:

For a Bravais tetrahedron with defining vectors a, b, c, d (the edge vectors of the unit cell and the negative sum of them), a point in S6 is {b.c, a.c, a.b, a.d, b.d, and c.d}. A simple example is the unit cell {10, 12, 20, 90, 90, 90}. The corresponding S6 vector is {0, 0, 0, -100, -144, -400}. The scalars in S6 are of a single type, unlike cell parameters (lengths and angles) and G6 (squared lengths and dot products). (Delone et al, 1975) say, "The Selling parameters are geometrically fully homogeneous".

Some of the properties of S6 are simple. The six base axes are orthogonal, unlike those of G6 (Andrews and Bernstein, 2014). One consequence is that the projection matrices onto the axes are especially simple: 6x6 matrices of zero, with a single value one on the diagonal at the position of the axis projected to.

#### 2.1. The Reflections in S<sup>6</sup>:

The 24 equivalent positions in S6 have corresponding matrices to act on S6 vectors. They can be generated from any triple (except the identity). For convenience, they are listed here. The structure of the set is clearer in C3 (see below).

 The unsorted nature of Selling reduction implies that distance calculations will need to consider the effect of the reflections. Even if a usable sorting were created, at least some of the reflections would still be required.

#### 2.2. Reduction: in S6

Lattice reduction is quite simple in S6 (Andrews et al., 2018), but it has a simpler structure in C3, so it will be treated there. Due to the simple nature of S6 the inverse operations are the same set as the reduction operations. The matrices in S6 are unitary, so the metric is the same in the each region. However, the transformation matrices are not diagonal with the result that the boundaries are not simple mirrors.

We present the reductions as matrices; the second line for each is the alternate choice of which pair to exchange.

 $\begin{bmatrix} [-1,0,0,0,0,0],[1,1,0,0,0,0],[1,0,0,0,1,0],[-1,0,0,1,0,0],[1,0,1,0,0,0],[1,0,0,0,0,1] \end{bmatrix} \\ \begin{bmatrix} [-1,0,0,0,0,0],[1,0,0,0,0],[1,0,0,0,0],[-1,0,0,1,0,0],[1,0,0,0,1,0],[1,1,0,0,0,0] \end{bmatrix}$ 

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 \begin{bmatrix} [1,1,0,0,0,0],[0,-1,0,0,0,0],[0,1,0,1,0,0],[0,1,1,0,0,0],[0,-1,0,0,1,0],[0,1,0,0,0,1] \\ [[0,1,0,0,0,1],[0,-1,0,0,0,0],[0,1,1,0,0,0],[0,1,0,1,0,0],[0,-1,0,0,1,0],[1,1,0,0,0,0] \end{bmatrix}
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 \begin{bmatrix} [1,0,1,0,0,0],[0,0,1,1,0,0],[0,0,-1,0,0,0],[0,1,1,0,0,0],[0,0,1,0,1,0],[0,0,-1,0,0,1]] \\ [[0,0,1,0,1,0],[0,1,1,0,0,0],[0,0,-1,0,0,0],[0,0,1,1,0,0],[1,0,1,0,0,0],[0,0,-1,0,0,1]] \end{bmatrix}
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 \begin{bmatrix} [1,0,0,-1,0,0],[0,0,1,1,0,0],[0,1,0,1,0,0],[0,0,0,-1,0,0],[0,0,0,1,1,0],[0,0,0,1,0,1] \end{bmatrix} \\ \begin{bmatrix} [1,0,0,-1,0,0],[0,1,0,1,0,0],[0,0,1,1,0,0],[0,0,0,-1,0,0],[0,0,0,1,0,1],[0,0,0,1,1,0] \end{bmatrix}
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 [[0,0,1,0,1,0],[0,1,0,0,-1,0],[1,0,0,0,1,0],[0,0,0,1,1,0],[0,0,0,0,-1,0],[0,0,0,0,1,1]] \\ [[1,0,0,0,1,0],[0,1,0,0,-1,0],[0,0,1,0,1,0],[0,0,0,0,1,1],[0,0,0,0,-1,0],[0,0,0,1,1,0]] \\
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 [[0,1,0,0,0,1],[1,0,0,0,0,1],[0,0,1,0,0,-1],[0,0,0,1,0,1],[0,0,0,0,1,1],[0,0,0,0,0,-1]] \\ [[1,0,0,0,0,1],[0,1,0,0,0,1],[0,0,1,0,0,-1],[0,0,0,0,1,1],[0,0,0,1,0,1],[0,0,0,0,0,-1]] \\
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#### 2.3. Boundaries in S6:

The first boundaries in S6 are the zeros of the axes. (Contrast this with G6, (Andrews and Bernstein, 2014) which has 15 boundaries.) Obviously, they correspond to unit cell angles of 90 degrees. In S6, the zeros mark the regions where the components change from negative to positive, the place where cells become not Selling-reduced. A second kind of boundary is where the "opposite" pairs of scalars are equal; more easily visualized in C3.

The consequence for distance calculations will be that the reduction operations will be involved in the distance computations.

### 3. The Space C3:

Alternatively, the space S6 can be as C3, a space of three complex axes. C3 has advantages for understanding some of the properties of the space. Where we compose S6 of the scalars s1, ... s6, the components of C3 are the pairs of "opposite" scalars. In terms of the elements of S6, a vector in C3 is  $\{(s1,s4), (s2,s5), (s3,s6)\}$ . The C3 presentation of the above vector is  $\{(0,-100), (0,-144), (0,-400)\}$ .

#### 3.1. The Reflections in C3:

The 24 reflections of the scalars correspond to 24 operations in C3. First, any pc3air of C3 coordinates may be exchanged. The other operation is the exchange of the real and imaginary parts of any pair of C3 coordinates. For example, c1(real, imag) and c3(real, imag) can transform to c1(imag, real) and c3(imag, real).

Combining the exchange operation with the coordinate interchanges in all possible combinations gives the 24 reflections (including the identity).

Representing the operation of interchanging the real and imaginary parts of a complex number by an overbar, the reflections in C3 are:

**Table 1** Reflections in  $C^3$ 

$[c_1,c_2,c_3]$	$[\mathbf{c}_1,\mathbf{c}_2,\mathbf{c}_3]$	$[c_2,c_1,c_3]$	$[c_3,c_2,c_1]$
$[c_1, c_3, c_2]$	$[c_1, c_2, c_3]$	$[c_2,c_1,c_3]$	$[c_3,c_2,c_1]$
$[c_2,c_1,c_3]$	$[c_{1,}c_{3},c_{2}]$	$[c_2,c_1,c_3]$	$[c_3,c_2,c_1]$
$[c_2,c_3,c_1]$	$[c_{1,}c_{2},c_{3}]$	$[c_2,c_3,c_1]$	$[c_3,c_1,c_2]$
$[c_3,c_1,c_2]$	$[c_{1,}c_{2},c_{3}]$	$[c_2,c_3,c_1]$	$[c_3,c_1,c_2]$
$[c_3,c_2,c_1]$	$[c_{1,}c_{2},c_{3}]$	$[c_2, c_3, c_1]$	$[c_3, c_1, c_2]$

[[1,0,0],[0,1,0],[0,0,1]][[1,0,0],[0,1,0],[0,0,1]][[0,1,0],[1,0,0],[0,0,1]][[0,0,1],[0,1,0],[1,0,0]][[1,0,0],[0,0,1],[0,1,0]][[1,0,0],[0,1,0],[0,0,1]][[0,1,0],[1,0,0],[0,0,1][[0,0,1],[0,1,0],[1,0,0]][[0,1,0],[1,0,0],[0,0,1]][[1,0,0],[0,1,0],[0,0,1]] [[0,1,0],[1,0,0],[0,0,1]][[0,0,1],[0,1,0],[1,0,0]][[0,1,0],[0,0,1],[1,0,0]][[1,0,0],[0,1,0],[0,0,1]][[0,1,0],[0,0,1],[1,0,0]][[0,0,1],[1,0,0],[0,1,0]][[0,1,0],[0,0,1],[1,0,0]] [[0,0,1],[1,0,0],[0,1,0]][[1,0,0],[0,1,0],[0,0,1]][[0,0,1],[1,0,0],[0,1,0]][[0,0,1],[0,1,0],[1,0,0]] [[1,0,0],[0,1,0],[0,0,1]][[0,1,0],[0,0,1],[1,0,0]] [[0,0,1],[1,0,0],[0,1,0]]

**Table 2** Matrix versions of reflections in C3

#### 3.2. Reduction: in C3

We can write a vector in S6  $\{s1, ..., s6\}$  and the corresponding vector in C3 is  $\{(s1,s4), (s2,s5), (s3,s6)\}$  or  $\{c1, c2, c3\}$ . For the case where s1 is the positive element we will reduce, the C3 vector after that step will be:

where the underlined pairs have been exchanged. The rule (in terms of C3) is that from the pair of C3 coordinates that have sums, one real and one imaginary part are exchanged. Either choice is valid, and both lead toward the reduced cell.

The reduction operations do not commute, which will add complexity to distance calculations (see distance measure below).

#### 3.3. Boundaries in C3:

In C3, there are two types of boundaries. Referring to S6, any C3 real or imaginary part that is zero marks a boundary. Also, the interchange of real and imaginary parts in reflections marks another type

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of boundary: where the real part equals the imaginary part. This boundary is not so easily apparent in

S6.

3.4. A Fundamental Unit in C3:

C3 provides the possibility to choose a particular one of the 24 reflections as the fundamental unit

(similar to an asymmetric unit in a space group). The three components can be sorted by their

magnitude. The second step is to interchange the real and imaginary parts of c1 such that the real part

is less than or equal to the imaginary part (if necessary); that requires also interchanging c2 or c3.

Finally, c2 has its real and imaginary parts interchanged (if necessary).

S6 does not provide a comparable suggestion for a fundamental unit. It is necessary to note that the

fundamental unit defined this way in C3 is compact, but the same unit in S6 is not compact.

4. Measuring Distance:

We require a distance metric that defines the shortest path between all the representations of two

points (lattices). Common uses of a metric for lattices are finding possible Bravais lattice types,

searching in databases of unit cell parameters, and, recently, clustering of the images from serial

crystallography.

A simple example of the complexity of the task is that we must decide which of the 24 reflections of

one point is the closest to the other. Adding the reduction operations so that other paths are examined

is also required. That the reduction operations do not commute means that the order of operations is

important.

The non-diagonal reduction operations in this space means that measuring the distance between point

in different regions of space is not as simple as finding the Cartesian distance. Reduction of a value of

zero generates a new point that is also the same boundary. We present two algorithms.

4.1. Measuring Distance: Virtual Cartesian Point

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# 4.2. Measuring Distance: Tunneled Mirrored Boundaries

## Figure 1 Virtual Cartesian Point

# Figure 2 Tunnelled Mirrored Boundaries

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