

# Internal nucleation tendency and crystal surface energy obtained from bond energies and crystal lattice data

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## ABSTRACT

We present an easy-to-apply method to predict structural trends in the internal nucleation tendency of oxide glasses. The approach is based on calculated crystal fracture surface energies derived from easily accessible diatomic bond energy and crystal lattice data. The applicability of the method is demonstrated on literature nucleation data for isochemically crystallizing oxide glasses.

## 1. Introduction

One preferred option to synergistically exploit the best properties from both crystalline and amorphous solids is their co-existence in one and the same material. Examples of such materials are glass-ceramics that are known for their exceptional properties. Key to this technology is the understanding of how crystal nucleation and growth can be controlled [1] and, more specifically, how dense internal nucleation can be achieved upon heating [2].

A high crystal number density in the glass interior is frequently achieved by introducing external (foreign) nucleation sites as so-called nucleation agents or seed formers. In the absence of such sites, the driving force for crystal nucleation becomes crucial for dense internal nucleation although gases or materials for handling can still provide external sites for heterogeneous surface nucleation [3,4]. Predicting the internal homogeneous nucleation tendency is also important for the general understanding of the glass-forming ability of super cooled liquids and the thermal stability of their glasses.

A widely known approach in predicting the internal nucleation tendency is based on experimental glass transition and crystal melting temperature data,  $T_g$  and  $T_m$  [5–10]. Within this approach, the driving force of crystal nucleation in glass-forming liquids scales with  $T_g/T_m$  where  $T_g/T_m < 0.58$  indicates dominant internal nucleation. The approach utilizes that, in practice, the homogeneous nucleation rate,  $I_0$ , reaches its maximum,  $I_{max}$ , close to  $T_g$  for internal nucleation in seed former-free systems and that  $\log(I_{max})$  decreases linearly with the

increase of  $T_g/T_m$ . It was also shown that scaling  $I_0$  with  $T_g/T_m$  is, of course, limited by the experimental detection limit, which is  $\approx 10^{-8} \text{ mm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$  for a reasonable sample size and dwell time, and that  $T_g/T_m = 0.58$  corresponds with this threshold [6].

Apart from this concept, however, it remains until today a challenge to predict if a given glass will show dense internal nucleation; even if one considers only seed former-free systems and so-called isochemical transitions where the chemical composition of the parent glass and the evolving crystal are the same. In this context, it has repeatedly been shown that structural similarities between the crystal and the parent glass in terms of density [11] [10], configurational entropy [12], or frozen-in birefringence [13] favor the internal nucleation tendency.

Based on classical nucleation theory, however,  $I_0$  is expected to strongly correlate with the crystal-melt interfacial energy,  $\gamma_{CM}$ . Ideally, this quantity should therefore be used to predict  $I_0$ . However, despite many attempts to approximate its magnitude [14–19],  $\gamma_{CM}$  remains experimentally inaccessible.

On the other hand, a previous study [20] showed that the crystal fracture surface energy,  $\gamma_{CV}$ , yielded valuable hints on how  $\gamma_{CM}$  depends on crystal structure. In this study, the orientation of crystals grown from the surface of heated glass samples could be explained in terms of calculated  $\gamma_{CV}$  data assuming that the crystal surface is dominated by low-indexed lattice planes representing minimum energy cuts through the crystal structure. This latter idea is in line with the earlier postulation of Rouxel and co-workers [21] that propagating cracks do always prefer the path of breaking the weakest bonds available.

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Adopting this approach, we propose that  $\gamma_{CV}$  can also be used to predict structural trends in the internal crystal nucleation tendency. Therefore,  $\gamma_{CV}$  is calculated from bond energy and crystal lattice data for a variety of crystals growing in their isochemical glass-forming melt and compared with their nucleation behavior.

## 2. Theory

The evolving crystal surface is assumed to be equally dominated by the low indexed lattice planes (100), (010) and (001). Then, for the mean crystal fracture surface energy one has:

$$\gamma_{CV} \approx \frac{(\gamma_{(100)} + \gamma_{(010)} + \gamma_{(001)})}{3} \quad (1)$$

with  $\gamma_{(hkl)}$  = planar energy density of the surface parallel to the lattice plane ( $hkl$ ). It is further assumed that the crystal surface is the one with the lowest possible surface energy with this orientation.

Fig. 1 exemplarily illustrates minimum energy cuts through the fresnoite crystal structure of stoichiometry  $\text{Ba}_2(\text{TiO})[\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7]$  (in oxides =  $2\text{BaO} \cdot \text{TiO}_2 \cdot 2\text{SiO}_2$ , or shortly  $\text{Ba}_2\text{TS}_2$ ). For this silicate crystal, layers of mixed  $\text{SiO}_4$ -tetrahedra and  $\text{TiO}_5$ -pyramids are stacked along the  $c$ -axis and are separated by Ba-O ionic bonds [22]. Due to the lower Ba-O bond energy (Table 1), the minimum energy cut parallel to the (001) lattice planes are located between barium cations and those oxygen atoms building the top of the Si/Ti-polyhedral layer (see orange line in Fig. 1 left). Fig. 1 also indicates that minimum cuts parallel to (100) and (010) lattice planes must slice Ba-O and Ti-O bonds.

The planar energy density of each cut surface is given by:

$$\gamma_{(hkl)} = \frac{1}{N_a} \sum_i \frac{S_i(hkl) U_i}{A_{(hkl)}} \quad (2)$$

where  $N_a$  is Avogadro's constant,  $A_{(hkl)}$  is the ( $hkl$ ) surface area of the unit cell,  $i$  refers to the metal cation  $M_i$ ,  $S_i(hkl)$  is the number of broken cation-oxygen bonds  $M_i\text{-O}$  in  $A_{(hkl)}$  and  $U_i$  is their bond energy.  $A_{(hkl)}$  is calculated from the crystal structure data listed in Table 2.  $U_i$  is calculated from the diatomic bond energy of monoxides,  $D_i^0$ , taken from [23]:

$$U_i = \frac{y_i/x_i D_i^0}{CN_i} \quad (3)$$

**Table 1**

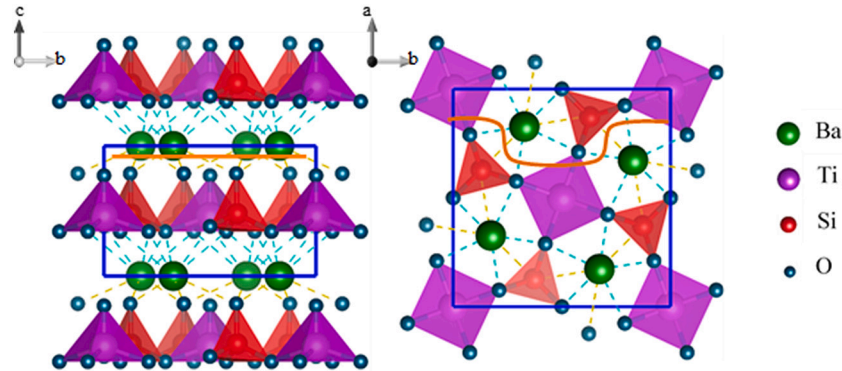
Molar diatomic bond energy for different monoxides  $D^0$  [23], oxygen coordination number (CN), oxygen to metal-cation ratio ( $y/x$ ) of the constituting oxide ( $M_xO_y$ ), and respective energy of one mole of single M-O bonds ( $U$ ).

$M$	$D^0$ (kJ mol <sup>-1</sup> )	CN	$y/x$	$U$ (kJ mol <sup>-1</sup> )
B	808.9	3	3/2	404
Si	799	4	2/1	400
Ge	659.4	4	2/1	329
Ti	672.4	5	2/1	269
Al	511	4	3/2	192
Sr	426.3	6	1	71
Ba	561.9	8	1	70
Ca	402.1	6	1	67
Pb	382	6	1	63.6
Mg	363.2	6	1	60.5
Li	333.5	4	1/2	41.7
Na	256.1	5	1/2	25.6
K	277.8	6	1/2	23.1

$y_i/x_i$  represents the stoichiometric oxygen to metal-cation ratio available for  $M_i$  bonding and was taken from the respective ratio of the constituting oxide components,  $M_{ix}O_y$ , such as BaO,  $\text{TiO}_2$  or  $\text{SiO}_2$ .  $CN_i$  in Eq. 3 represents the  $M_i\text{-O}$  coordination number. Eq. 3 thus assumes that the bond energy is equally distributed within the coordination polyhedron as a first approximation, although bond-valence bond-length correlations are generally accepted to determine the saturation of cation valence in inorganic crystals (all neighboring cation-anion distances are considered to be bonds although not all of equal strength [24]). Cations in different coordination environments are weighed according to their structure site fractions.

For the tetragonal fresnoite crystal (Fig. 1), the unit cell parameters are  $a_0 = 852$  pm and  $c_0 = 521$  pm, yielding unit cell surface areas  $A_{(001)} = 0.726$  nm<sup>2</sup> and  $A_{(100)} = A_{(010)} = 0.444$  nm<sup>2</sup>. Parallel to (001), 4 Ba cations are separated per unit cell from non-bridging oxygen of  $\text{SiO}_4$ -tetrahedra. Fig. 1 shows that each Ba cation is 3-fold coordinated to non-bridging oxygen and, thus, 12 Ba-O bonds are broken. Parallel to (100), 6 Ba-O bonds are broken: 4 at the bottom and 2 at the top of the  $\text{TiO}_5$ -pyramid, but also 2 Ti-O bonds are affected. Due to the tetragonal symmetry, the surface parallel to (010) can be equally treated. For each breakage of a  $M_i\text{-O}$  bond,  $U_i$  is taken from Table 1. For the fresnoite crystal, one obtains:

$$\gamma_{CV} = \frac{1}{3} \left( 2 \frac{6 \times 70 + 2 \times 269}{0.444} \frac{\text{kJ mol}^{-1}}{\text{nm}^2} + \frac{12 \times 70}{0.726} \frac{\text{kJ mol}^{-1}}{\text{nm}^2} \right) \frac{1}{6.023 \times 10^{23} \text{ mol}^{-1}} = 3.03 \frac{\text{J}}{\text{m}^2} \quad (4)$$



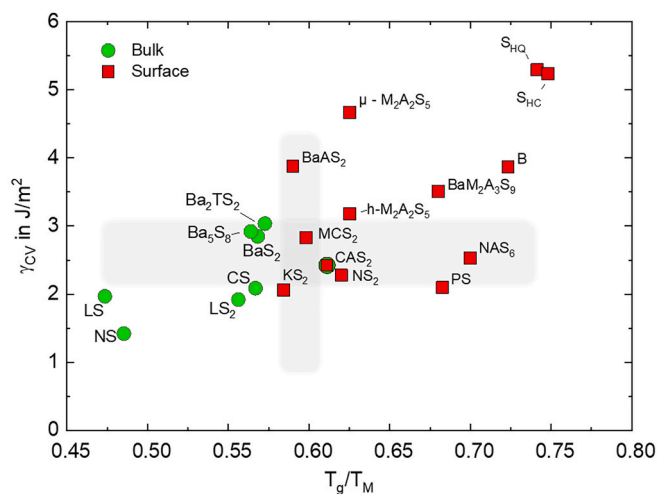
**Fig. 1.** View on the (100) (left part) and (001) (right part) lattice planes of the fresnoite crystal structure according to [22]. Minimum energy cut surfaces are indicated by orange lines. The blue box shows the unit cell containing two units of formula  $\text{Ba}_2(\text{TiO})[\text{Si}_2\text{O}_7]$ . (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

**Table 2**

Nominal composition (short oxide formula), transformation temperature ( $T_g$ ) and nucleation mechanism of glasses undergoing isochemical crystallization (internal = b, surface = s). Corresponding isochemical crystal (name), oxygen coordination numbers of constituting cations (CN), mean crystal fracture surface energy ( $\gamma_{CV}$ ) according to Eq. 1–3, and melting point ( $T_m$ ) are also shown.

Glass		Crystal				
Composition	$T_g$ (K)	Nucleation mechanism	Name <sup>[lattice data source]</sup>	CN	$\gamma_{CV}$ (Jm <sup>-2</sup> )	$T_m$ (K)
S	1493 [11]	s [26]	High-quartz (S <sub>HQ</sub> ) [27]	4	5.3	1996 [28]
S	1493 [11]	s [26]	High-cristobalite (S <sub>HC</sub> ) [29]	4	5.2	1996 [28]
M <sub>2</sub> A <sub>2</sub> S <sub>5</sub>	1088 [30] [31]	s [32]	Quartz-ss <sup>#</sup> [33]	2/4/4	4.7	1740 [31]
B	523 [28]	s [10]	Boron oxide [34]	3	3.9	723 [28]
BaAS <sub>2</sub>	1198 [35]	s [35]	Hexacelsian [36]	6/4/4	3.9	2033 [35]
BaM <sub>2</sub> A <sub>3</sub> S <sub>9</sub>	1113 [37]	s [38]	Ba-Osumilite [38]	12/6/4/4	3.5	1643 [39]
B <sub>5</sub> S <sub>8</sub>	970 [40]	b [40]	Barium Silicate [41]	6–8/4	2.9	1719 [42]
BS <sub>2</sub>	962 [43]	b [11]	Sanbornite [44]	9/4	2.9	1693 [43]
MCS <sub>2</sub>	995 [45]	s [45]	Diopside [46]	8/6/4	2.8	1664 [45]
M <sub>2</sub> A <sub>2</sub> S <sub>5</sub>	1088 [45]	s [32]	Cordierite [47]	6/4/4	3.2	1740 [31]
Ba <sub>2</sub> TS <sub>2</sub>	981 [48]	b [49]*	Fresnoite [22]	8/5/4	3.0	1713 [48]
NAS <sub>6</sub>	966 [11]	s [11]	Albite [50]	5/4/4	2.5	1380 [11]
CAS <sub>2</sub>	1116 [11]	s [10]**	Anorthite [51]	6–7/4/4	2.4	1826 [11]
NS <sub>2</sub>	714 [12]	s [11]	Na-disilicate [52]	5–6/4	2.3	1147 [53]
CS	1030 [54]	b [54]	Wollastonite [55]	8/4	2.1	1817 [56]
KS <sub>2</sub>	765 [12]	s [12]	K-disilicate [57]	6–8/4	2.1	1309 [53]
PS	708 [58]	s [58]	Alamosite [59]	5–6/4	2.1	1037 [58]
LS	698 [12]	b [10,12]	Li-metasilicate [60]	5/4	2.0	1474 [61]
LS <sub>2</sub>	727 [12]	b [12]	Li-disilicate [62]	4/4	1.9	1307 [61]
NS	661 [12]	b [12]	Na-metasilicate [52]	5/4	1.4	1362 [61]

Keys: References are indicated in brackets, # quartz solid solution with cordierite composition, \*often reported to show demixing during the crystallization process, \*\*borderline case with very small internal nucleation [10]. Nominal compositions: S: SiO<sub>2</sub>, M<sub>2</sub>A<sub>2</sub>S<sub>5</sub>: 2MgO·2Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>·5SiO<sub>2</sub>, B: B<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, BaAS<sub>2</sub>: BaO·Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>·2SiO<sub>2</sub>, BaM<sub>2</sub>A<sub>3</sub>S<sub>9</sub>: BaO·2MgO·3Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>·9SiO<sub>2</sub>, BS<sub>2</sub>: BaO·2SiO<sub>2</sub>, MCS<sub>2</sub>: MgO·CaO·2SiO<sub>2</sub>, Ba<sub>2</sub>TS<sub>2</sub>: 2BaO·TiO<sub>2</sub>·2SiO<sub>2</sub>, NAS<sub>6</sub>: Na<sub>2</sub>O·Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>·6SiO<sub>2</sub>, CAS<sub>2</sub>: CaO·Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>·2SiO<sub>2</sub>, NS<sub>2</sub>: Na<sub>2</sub>O·2SiO<sub>2</sub>, CS: CaO·SiO<sub>2</sub>, KS<sub>2</sub>: K<sub>2</sub>O·2SiO<sub>2</sub>, PS: PbO·SiO<sub>2</sub>, LS: Li<sub>2</sub>O·SiO<sub>2</sub>, LS<sub>2</sub>: Li<sub>2</sub>O·2SiO<sub>2</sub>, NS: Na<sub>2</sub>O·SiO<sub>2</sub>; B<sub>5</sub>S<sub>8</sub>: 5BaO·8SiO<sub>2</sub>



**Fig. 2.** Oxide glasses isochemically crystallizing via internal (green dots) or surface nucleation (red squares) presented versus  $T_g/T_M$  (abscissa) and  $\gamma_{CV}$  (ordinate). Labels show the short oxide formula of the crystal and its isochemical parent glass melt. See Table 2 caption for nominal compositions. The diffuse vertical bar indicates the range of  $T_g/T_M$  at  $\approx 0.58$  above which the internal nucleation rate is not detectable under reasonable experimental conditions and surface nucleation therefore dominates. The diffuse horizontal bar indicates the respective transition range of  $\gamma_{CV}$ . (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

### 3. Results

To emphasize that  $\gamma_{CV}$  can be used to predict internal crystal nucleation tendency, calculations as explained above were performed for a variety of crystals using the crystal structure models provided by VESTA [25] (Table 2).

Fig. 2. shows these calculated  $\gamma_{CV}$  data on its ordinate for these crystals. The nucleation mechanism experimentally observed for these

crystals in their isochemical melt is indicated by different symbols. Green dots stand for internal nucleation and red squares for surface nucleation. The horizontal grey bar denotes the overlap range of  $\gamma_{CV}$  for which no clear prediction of nucleation mechanisms seems possible. For  $\gamma_{CV} < 2$  and  $\gamma_{CV} > 3$  J m<sup>-2</sup>, however, either internal or only surface induced nucleation has been reported, respectively.

To compare the predictive power of our approach with that of the well-known discrimination via  $T_g/T_M$ , all data are presented versus  $T_g/T_M$  as well (abscissa). The vertical grey bar indicates the respective overlap range of  $T_g/T_M$ , for which both nucleation mechanisms have been observed experimentally.

### 4. Discussion

Fig. 2 demonstrates that deriving  $\gamma_{CV}$  as a single crystal-based parameter and discriminating via  $T_g/T_M$ , reflecting glass and crystal properties, independently allows to roughly predict the mode of crystal nucleation.

The dominance of bulk nucleation in isochemical glass-forming systems for small  $T_g/T_M$  is understandable as it indicates that large undercooling is necessary to promote internal nucleation [10]. The correlation between  $\gamma_{CV}$  and the internal nucleation tendency, however, is surprising and not intuitive as the glass fracture surface energy is known to be up to ten times larger than typical glass melt surface energies [63]. Previous work [64] offers insights into this discrepancy, attributing it to the surface enrichment of Na, K, Pb and B due to their low bond energy and high polarizability. Further, preferred orientation of planar BO<sub>3</sub>-groups parallel to the melt surface are reported to account for the decrease of the melt surface energy [64].

On the other hand, these relaxation effects indicate that the glass-forming melt can adopt its surface chemistry and structure and it is expected that this remains effective in case of the crystal melt interface as such broken crystal bonds (regardless of the given crystal face) may easily find their structural counterparts in the melt. The adjustment mechanism, which substantially decrease  $\gamma_{CM}$ , however, cannot reach full completeness due to specific volume and entropy differences between melt and crystal. Then, assuming a similar degree of completeness

of this interfacial adjustment at  $T > T_g$ , the remaining structural and chemical misfits can explain why  $\gamma_{CM}$  scales with  $\gamma_{CV}$ , even though their absolute magnitudes differ significantly.

Such a strong difference is in fact indicated by  $\gamma_{CM}$  data derived from fitting internal nucleation experiments, where  $\gamma_{CM}$  at  $\approx T_g$  ranges between 0.068 J/m<sup>2</sup> for N<sub>2</sub>CS<sub>3</sub> [65] (0.08 J/m<sup>2</sup> for LS<sub>2</sub> [66]) and 0.31 J/m<sup>2</sup> for N<sub>2</sub>CS<sub>3</sub> [67] (0.28 J/m<sup>2</sup> for CS [68]). The direct prove, whether or not these  $\gamma_{CM}$  data scale with  $\gamma_{CV}$ , however, is difficult due to the large scatter of reported  $\gamma_{CM}$  data.  $\gamma_{CM}$  for N<sub>2</sub>CS<sub>3</sub> varies over the whole data range between (0.068–0.31 J/m<sup>2</sup>) and  $\gamma_{CM}$  for LS<sub>2</sub> scatters between 0.08 J/m<sup>2</sup> [66] and 0.24 J/m<sup>2</sup> [69].

In a recent paper, however, Abyzov et al. [65] could show for  $\gamma_{CM}$  data consistently obtained from nucleation experiments on several stoichiometric glass-forming silicates, that  $\gamma_{CM}$  tends to increase with  $T_g/T_M$ . Interestingly, Fig. 2 reveals the same trend for  $\gamma_{CV}$ . This trend might reflect similar structural effects on  $\gamma_{CV}$  and  $T_g/T_M$ . In fact, less polymerized crystal structures dominate the lower left corner of Fig. 2 (i.e. small  $\gamma_{CV}$  and  $T_g/T_M$ ), whereas more polymerized crystals dominate the upper-right corner. This finding seems reasonable, as crystals possessing highly polymerized structures and strong chemical bonds would lead to expect large  $\gamma_{CV}$  as well as a high viscosity ( $T_g$ ) and  $T_M$  values. The degree of structural complexity might even affect  $T_g/T_M$  itself. Thus,  $T_g/T_M \approx 2/3$  is known as the empirical Beaman-Kauzmann rule for one component glass-forming melts, whereas  $T_g/T_M \approx 1/2$  is found for metallic alloys [70].

Whilst such structural trends give some credit to the  $\gamma_{CV}$  data summarized in Fig. 2, the precise values should not be overinterpreted. The large overlap range  $\gamma_{CV} \approx 2\text{--}3$  J/m<sup>2</sup> between surface and internal nucleation dominated crystallization might reflect the strong simplifications of our approach and may illustrate given range of uncertainty. In the light of an increasing interest in the bottom-up modeling of glass properties, however, our approach is fundamental as it is based on easily accessible crystal structure and chemical bond energy data and is applicable even for systems where  $T_g$  and  $T_M$  are not known, difficult to be measured, or modelled.

## 5. Summary

We derived a method to predict the internal nucleation tendency of oxide glasses. Our approach is based on calculated crystal fracture surface energies derived from diatomic bond energy and crystal lattice data and crystal surfaces. The novel method has been demonstrated on the available set of nucleation data of isochemically crystallizing oxide glasses. This finding indicates that the calculated vacuum fracture energy scales with the crystal-melt interfacial energy, which actually governs the nucleation kinetics. Although the  $\gamma_{CV}$  transition range between surface and internal nucleation dominated glass crystallization is less sharp as that of  $T_g/T_M$ , our criterion is accessible even in cases where  $T_g$  and  $T_M$  are lacking.

## CRedit authorship contribution statement

**C. Tielemann:** Conceptualization, Data curation, Formal analysis, Investigation, Methodology, Software, Validation, Visualization, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing. **S. Reinsch:** Conceptualization, Data curation, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Methodology, Project administration, Resources, Supervision, Validation, Writing – review & editing. **R. Maaß:** Resources, Writing – review & editing. **J. Deubener:** Funding acquisition, Validation, Writing – review & editing. **R. Müller:** Conceptualization, Formal analysis, Funding acquisition, Investigation, Methodology, Resources, Supervision, Validation, Visualization, Writing – original draft, Writing – review & editing.

## Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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## Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.nocx.2022.100093>.

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