

Naica Cave, Mexico 5 My, 50 °C

CaSO₄·2H₂O

1.2 × 15 m



High temperature methods

Czochralski Stockbarger and Bridgman Verneuil Zone melting

Medium temperature methods

Low temperature methods

Solution Gel Fluxes, Ionic Liquids Electrochemical from melts Hydrothermal Vapor phase transfer Sublimation

Crystallization techniques: vapor, liquid, solid phase

Single crystals

• vital for meaningful property measurements of materials

●^{**}allow measurement of anisotropic phenomena (electrical, optical, magnetic, mechanical, thermal) in anisotropic crystals (symmetry lower than cubic)

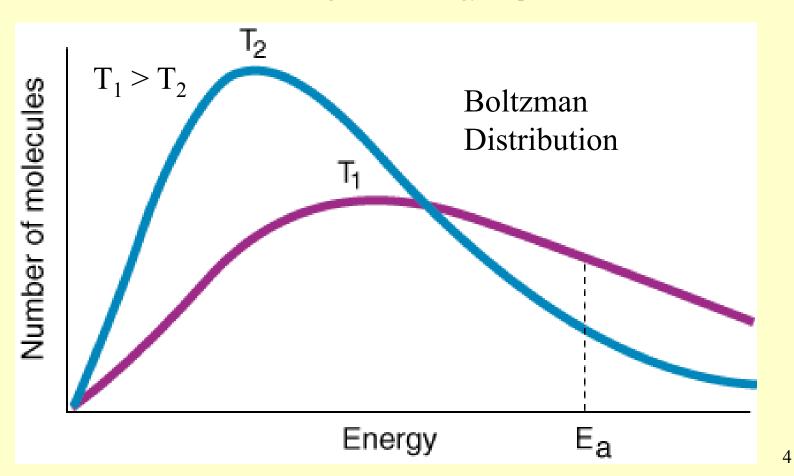
 $ullet^*$ fabrication of devices

 $Y_3Al_5O_{12}$ (YAG = yttrium aluminum garnet) and beta-beryllium borate (BBO) for doubling and tripling the frequency of CW or pulsed laser light SiO₂ (quartz) crystal oscillators for mass monitors lithium niobate for photorefractive applications

Many different crystal growing techniques exist, hence one must think very carefully as to which method is the most appropriate for the material under consideration, size of crystal desired, stability in air, morphology or crystal habit required

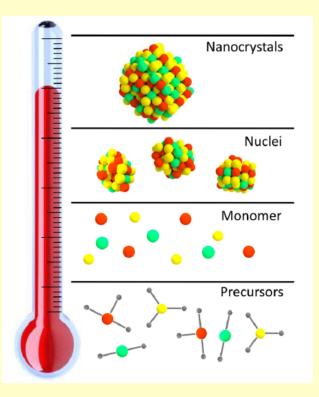
Thermodynamics and Kinetics of Crystallization

As a material cools off the average kinetic energy drops



Stages of Crystallization

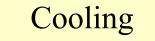
- Nucleation formation of nuclei of critical size
- Growth diffusion of material toward the critical nuclei, depositon vs. dissolution, crystal growth

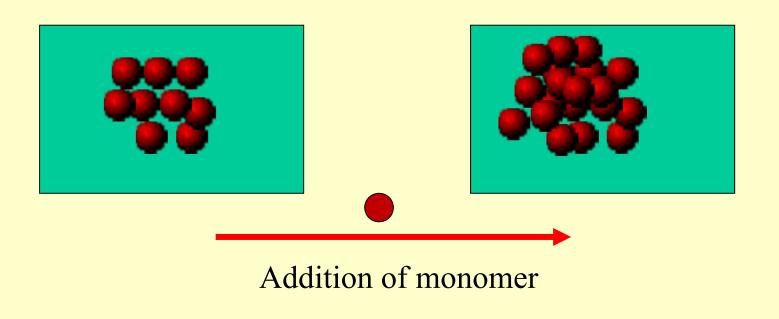


Formation of Nuclei

Molecules are always bumping into each other – sometimes they stick

At lower kinetic energies more molecules stick together = form nuclei





Transformation from Liquid to Solid

VOLUME

The energy of a crystalline phase is less than that of a liquid

The difference = the volume free energy ΔG_v (a negative value)

As the solid grows in size, the magnitude of the total volume free energy increases

The volume free energy ΔG_v drives crystallization

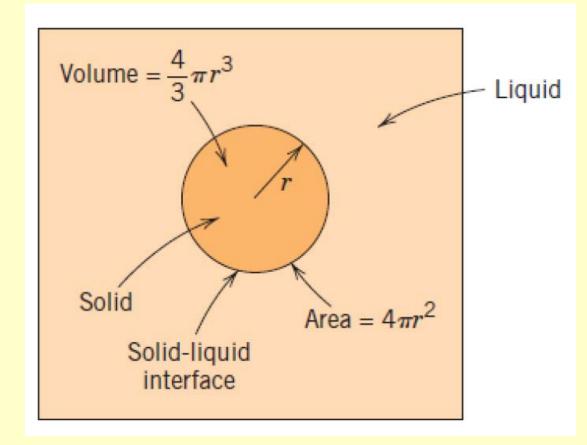
SURFACE

When solids form in a liquid there is an interface created

The surface free energy, γ_{SL} = the solid/liquid interfacial energy associated with this interface (changed in different solvents)

As the solid grows, the total surface free energy increases (a positive value) The surface free energy hinders crystallization

Transformation from Liquid to Solid



Thermodynamics of Nucleation

The driving force = the supersaturated solution is not stable in energy. The total change in free energy for the nucleating system is the sum of the two factors. For spherical nuclei

 $\Delta G_{\rm T} = 4/3 \pi r^3 \Delta G_{\rm v} + 4\pi r^2 \gamma_{\rm SL}$

The volume free energy goes up with the cube of the radius

The surface free energy goes up with the square of the radius

 ΔG_{T} has a maximum at a critical radius – critical free energy ΔG_{N}

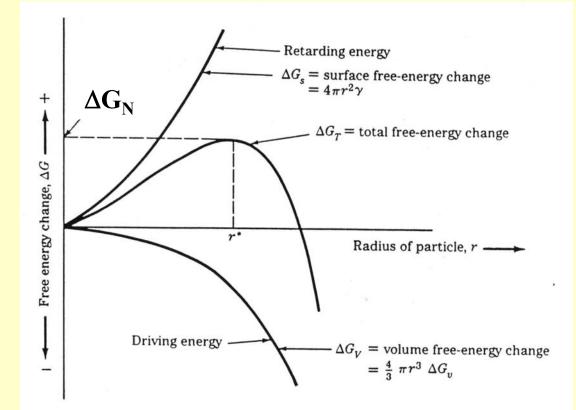
If just a few molecules stick together, they will redissolve If enough molecules stick together, the embryo will grow

Volume Free Energy $\Delta G_V = -\frac{RT \ln S}{V_m}$

- ΔG_V the free energy change between the 'monomer' in solution and in a unit volume of bulk crystal
- S supersaturation = the quotient of the actual concentration [M] and the concentration of the respective species at equilibrium with the flat crystal surface $[M_{\infty}]$, indicates how far away from equilibrium the system is: $S = \frac{[M]}{[M]}$

 V_m – molar volume of the monomer composing the bulk crystal

Nucleation



 ΔG

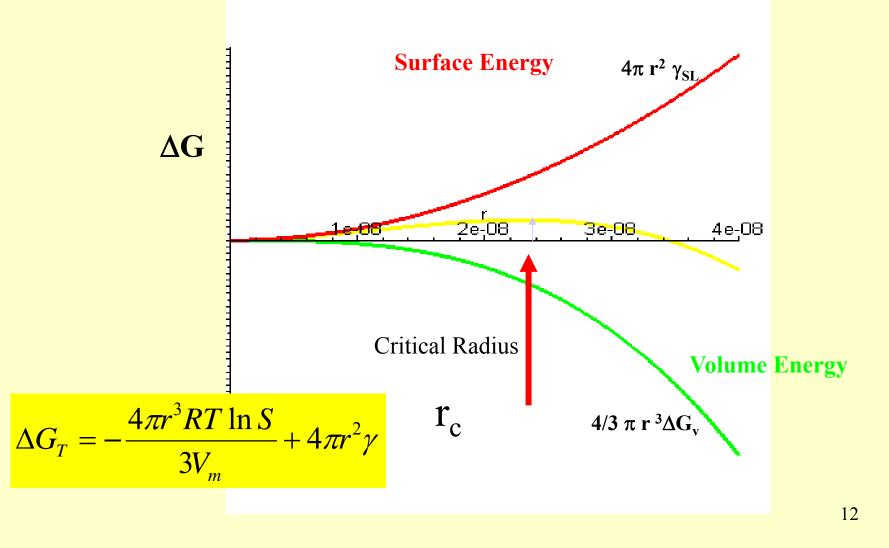
r: radius of spherical nuclei
r*: critical radius
(r>r* seed grows by itself)

 ΔG_s : <u>surface</u> free energy change ΔG_v : <u>volume</u> free energy change

 ΔG_N : <u>critical</u> free energy change (activation energy to nucleation)

 $\Delta \mathbf{G}_{\mathrm{T}} = 4\pi \mathbf{r}^{2} \gamma_{\mathrm{SL}} + 4/3\pi \mathbf{r}^{3} \Delta \mathbf{G}_{\mathrm{V}}$

Total Free Energy of a Solid-Liquid System



Supersaturated Solutions

If the liquid is just at the freezing point, only a few molecules stick, because they have comparatively high energy.

As the liquid is cooled, more molecules can form into nuclei.

When the nucleus is big enough (because of undercooling) the supercooled liquid suddenly changes to a solid.

Nucleation - Critical Radius r_c

$$\Delta G_T = -\frac{4\pi r^3 RT \ln S}{3V_m} + 4\pi r^2 \gamma \longrightarrow \frac{d(\Delta G_T)}{dr} = 0$$

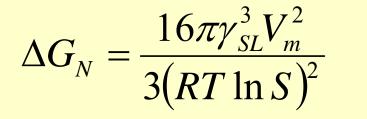
r_c critical nuclei radius is:

$$r_c = -\frac{2\gamma_{SL}}{\Delta G_V} = \frac{2\gamma_{SL}V_m}{RT\ln S}$$

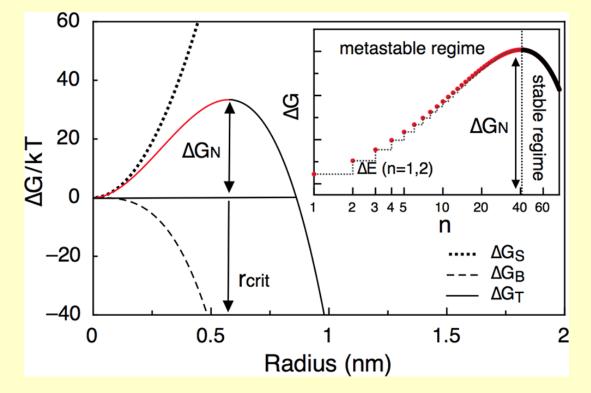
S = supersaturation

At larger supersaturation, the critical radius of nuclei is smaller

Nucleation - Critical Free Energy ΔG_N



The free energy necessary to form stable nuclei Thermodynamic barrier to nucleation



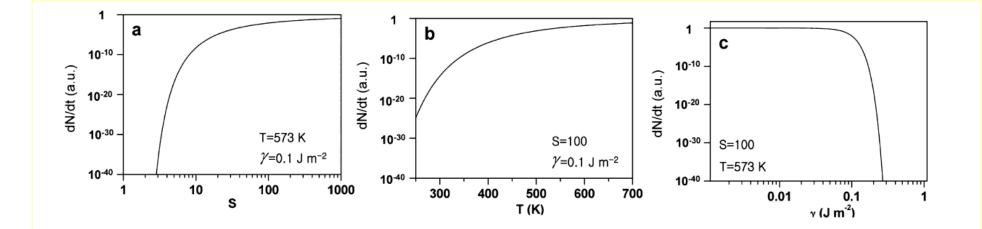
Rate of Nucleation

- ΔG_N the free energy barrier to nucleation
- **S** supersaturation
- V_m molar volume of the bulk crystal

Arrhenius equation

$$\frac{d[N]}{dt} = A \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta G_N}{kT}\right) = A \exp\left(-\frac{16\pi\gamma_{SL}^3 V_m^2}{3k^3 T^3 N_A^2 (\ln S)^2}\right)$$

Nucleation Rate



$$\frac{d[N]}{dt} = A \exp\left(-\frac{\Delta G_N}{kT}\right) = A \exp\left(-\frac{16\pi\gamma_{SL}^3 V_m^2}{3k^3 T^3 N_A^2 (\ln S)^2}\right)$$

 $V_{\rm m} = 3.29 \times 10^{-5} \,{\rm m}^3 \,{\rm mol}^{-1}$ (the value for CdSe)

Homogeneous Nucleation

The process of solid formation from liquid phase = homogeneous nucleation

It only occurs if the material is very pure

The size of the critical radius is:

$$r_c = -\frac{2\gamma_{SL}}{\Delta G_V} = \frac{2\gamma_{SL}V_m}{RT\ln S}$$

Metal crystallization from melts

 ΔT is the undercooling

Metals often experience undercooling of 50 to 500 °C

$$r^* = \frac{2\gamma_{SL}T_m}{\Delta H_f \Delta T}$$

Heterogeneous Nucleation

Homogeneous nucleation usually only occurs under very clean conditions

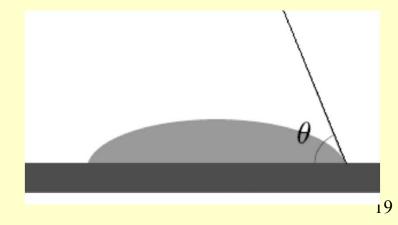
Impurities provide a "seed" for nucleation

Solidification can start on a wall

It's like cloud seeding, or water condensing on the side of a glass

Adding impurities on purpose = inoculation

 $\Delta \mathbf{G}_{N}^{\text{hetero}} = \phi \Delta \mathbf{G}_{N}^{\text{homo}}$ $\phi = \frac{(2 + \cos \theta)(1 - \cos \theta)^{2}}{4}$

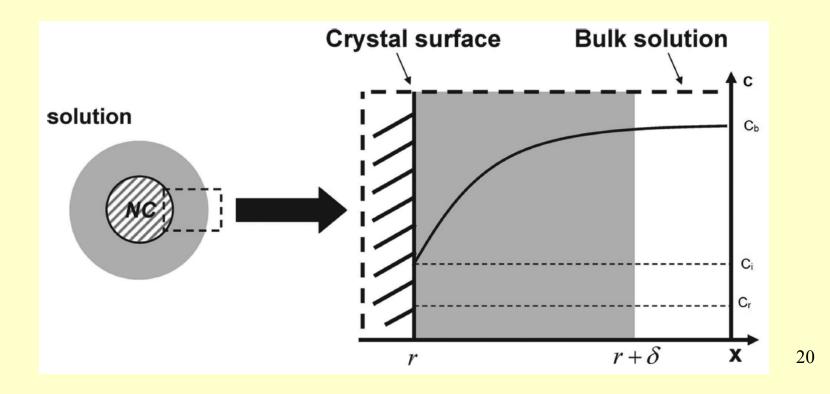


Growth

Growth = monomer diffusion + surface reaction

the growth rate of spherical particles (dr/dt) depends on:

- the flux of the monomers to the particles (J)
- the rate of surface reaction (k)



Growth

Growth by diffusion the growth rate of spherical particles (dr/dt)

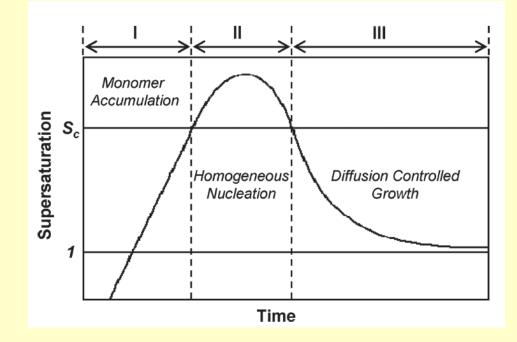
$$J = \frac{4\pi r^2}{V_m} \frac{dr}{dt} \qquad \qquad J = 4\pi x^2 D \frac{dC}{dx}$$

$$\int_{r}^{r+\delta} \frac{dx}{x^2} = \frac{4\pi D}{J} \int_{C_s}^{C_{\delta}} dC$$

$$J = 4\pi D \frac{r(r+\delta)}{\delta} [C_{\delta} - C_{s}]$$

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La Mer Mechanism

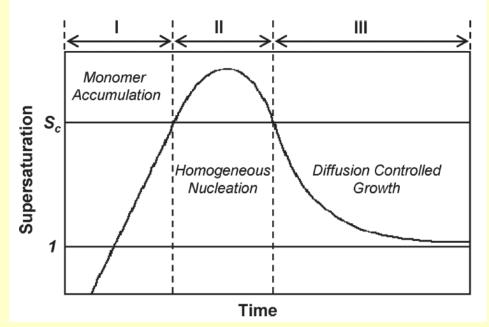


- **3 Separate stages:**
- Monomer formation
- Burst nucleation
- Growth by diffusion

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Monomer formation - concentration of monomer increases to a critical value Burst nucleation - many nuclei are generated at the same time Growth - the nuclei grow without additional nucleation, all of the particles nucleate simultaneously, their growth histories are the same

Control of the size distribution of the ensemble of particles during growth - synthesis of monodisperse nanocrystals



Stage I - The concentration of "monomer", (the minimum subunit of bulk crystal) constantly increases with time, precipitation does not occur even under supersaturated conditions (S > 1), the energy barrier for spontaneous homogeneous nucleation is too high.

Stage II - Nucleation occurs, the degree of supersaturation is high enough to overcome the energy barrier for nucleation, the formation and accumulation of stable nuclei. The rate of monomer consumption exceeds the rate of monomer supply, the monomer concentration decreases until it reaches the level at which the nucleation rate is zero.

Stage III - The growth stage, nucleation stopped, the particles keep growing as long as the solution is supersaturated by diffusion of monomer towards crystals

Growth and Solidification - Grain Size

Solidification caused by homogeneous nucleation occurs suddenly, and only produces a few grains

In heterogeneous nucleation, solidification occurs on many "seeds", so the grains are smaller, and more uniform

If a melt is cooled slowly, and the temperature is the same throughout, solidification occurs with equal probability everywhere in the melt.

Metals are usually cooled from the container walls – so solidification starts on the walls

Nucleation vs. Crystal Growth (solution or melt)

Undercooling – cooling below the melting point relations between undercooling, nucleation rate and growth rate of the nuclei

large undercooling:	<u>many</u> small nuclei (spontaneous nucleation) growth rate <u>small</u>
small undercooling:	<u>few</u> (evtl. small) nuclei growth rate <u>high</u>

Nucleation vs. Crystal Growth

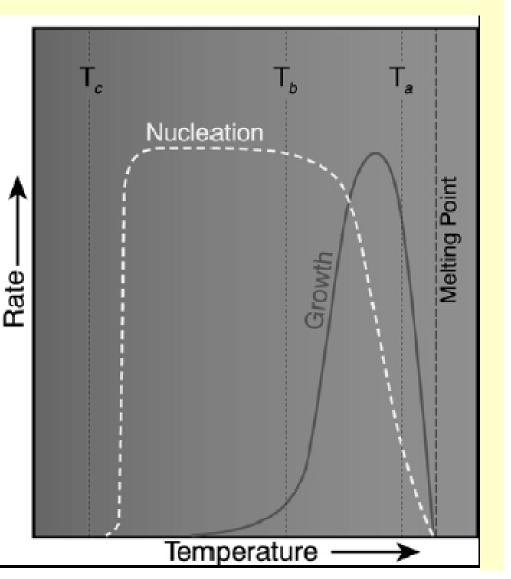
Rate of nucleation Rate of growth

 $T_a =$ small undercooling, slow cooling rate

Fast growth, slow nucleation = Few coarse crystals

 T_b = larger undercooling, rapid cooling rate Rapid nucleation, slow growth = many fine-grained crystals

T_c = very rapid cooling Nearly no nucleation = glass



Heat of Fusion

When the liquid solidifies, energy must be removed.

In planar growth the energy is conducted into the solid and out through the walls of the container

If the melt is not well inoculated

Solidification starts on the walls

The surrounding liquid is supercooled, so the solid quickly grows

All heat that is evolved is hard to conduct away

Some of it is absorbed by the surrounding liquid which then heats up

CZOCHRALSKI or KYROPOULOS METHOD

1917

Crystal pulling technique

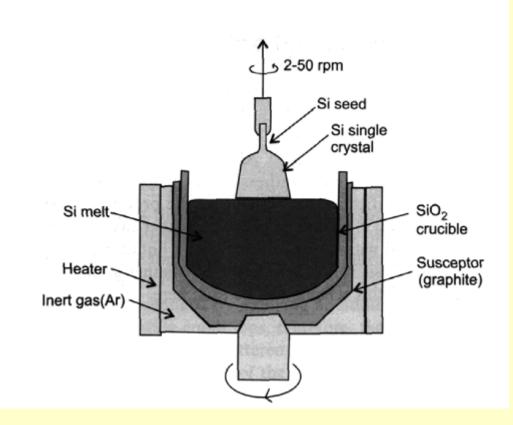
Single crystal growth from the melt precursor(s) Crystal seed placed in contact with surface of melt Temperature of melt held just above melting point = highest viscosity, lowest vapor pressure Seed gradually pulled out of the melt, 1 mm per hour Melt solidifies on surface of seed Melt and seed usually rotated counterclockwise with respect to each other to maintain constant temperature and to facilitate uniformity of the melt during crystal

growth, 10 rpm Produces higher quality crystals, less defects Inert atmosphere, often under pressure around growing crystal and melt to prevent any materials loss



Jan Czochralski (1885 – 1953)

CZOCHRALSKI or KYROPOULOS METHOD





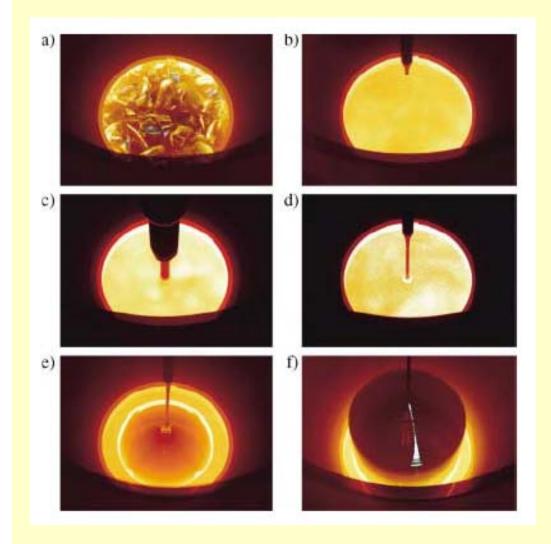
Diam 300 mm Length 2 m Weight 265 kg

Growing bimetallic crystals like GaAs

Layer of molten inert oxide like B_2O_3 spread on to the molten feed material to prevent preferential volatilization of the more volatile component of the bimetal critical for maintaining precise stoichiometry for example $Ga_{1+x}As$ and $GaAs_{1+x}$ which are respectively rich in Ga and As, become p-doped and n-doped

The Czochralski crystal pulling technique for growing large single crystals in the form of a rod subsequently cut and polished for various applications

Si Ge GaAs LiNbO₃ SrTiO₃ NdCa(NbO₃)₂



Six steps in the CZ growth of a silicon single crystal:

a) Evacuation and heating of the polycrystalline silicon ("pumping")

b) Setting the temperature of the Si melt just above 1414 °C ("melting")

c) Dipping the thin Si seed crystal into the homogeneous Si melt ("dipping")

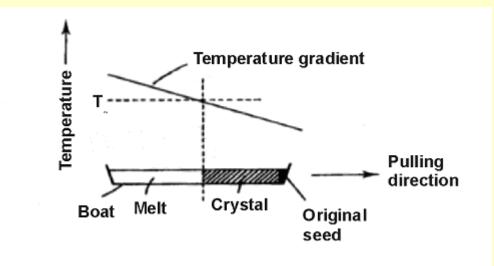
d) Initiating crystallization at the neck of the thin Si seed ("necking")

e) Adjustment of the shoulder of the desired single crystal diameter ("shoulder"; four positions which portray the fourfold drawing axis [100] are visible at the hot, light marginal zone of the single crystal)

f) Growing phase of the single crystal with constant diameter ("body").

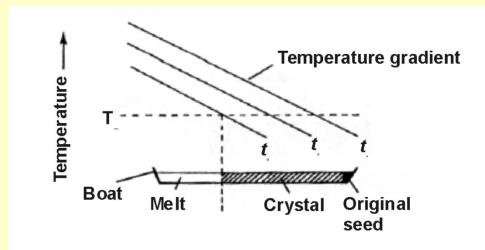
STOCKBARGER AND BRIDGMAN METHODS

Stockbarger method is based on a crystal growing from the melt, involves the relative displacement of melt and a temperature gradient furnace, fixed gradient and a moving melt/crystal



STOCKBARGER AND BRIDGMAN METHODS

Bridgman method is again based on crystal growth from a melt, but now a temperature gradient furnace is gradually cooled and crystallization begins at the cooler end, fixed crystal and changing temperature gradient

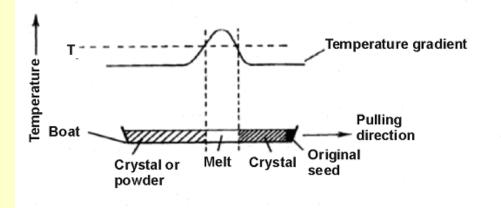


Both methods are founded on the controlled solidification of a stoichiometric melt of the material to be crystallized Enables oriented solidification Melt passes through a temperature gradient Crystallization occurs at the cooler end Both methods benefit from seed crystals and controlled atmospheres (sealed containers)

crystal	mp (°C)	velocity of grad.	container material
Al ₂ O ₃	2037	2-8 mm h ⁻¹	Мо
FeAl ₂ O ₄	1790	5-10	Ir
Cu	1083	6-60	graphite
AgBr	434	1-5	Pyrex
Ar (!)	-189	0.5-1.5	Mylar

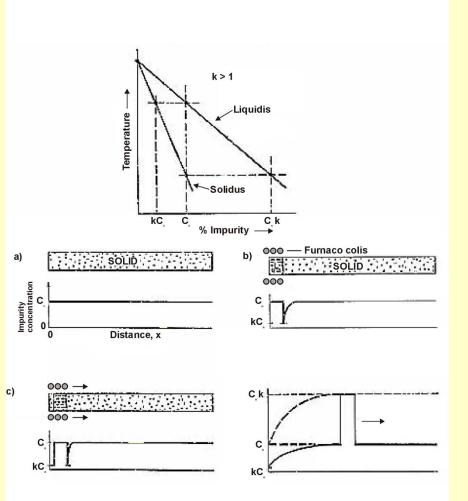
Purification of solids Crystal growth

Thermal profile furnace, RF, arc, electron beam heating Material contained in a boat (must be inert to the melt) Only a small region of the charge is melted at any one time Initially part of the melt is in contact with the seed Boat containing sample pulled at a controlled velocity through the thermal profile furnace - zone of material melted Oriented solidification of crystal occurs on the seed



Zone refining methods for purifying solids Partitioning of impurities occurs between melt and the crystal Impurities concentrate in liquid more than the solid phase, swept out of crystal by moving the liquid zone

Used for purifying materials like W, Si, Ge to ppb level of impurities, often required for device applications

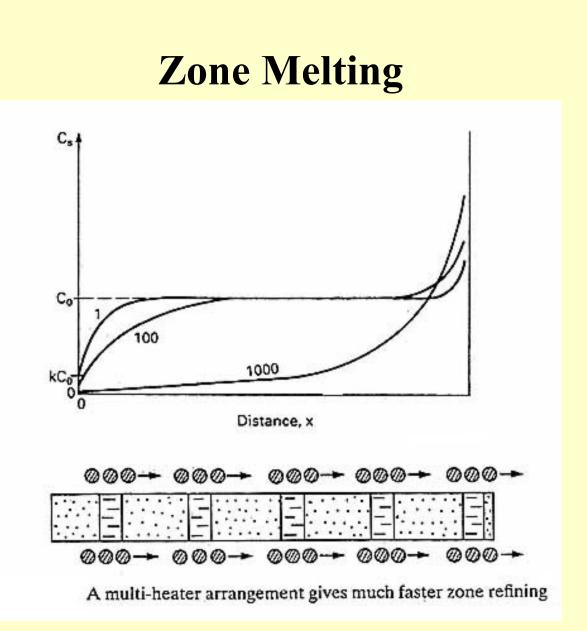


- a small slice of the sample is molten and moved continuously along the sample
- impurities normally dissolve preferably in the melt (!! icebergs in salt water don't contain any salt !!)
- segregation coefficient k:

 $\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{c}_{\text{solid}} / \mathbf{c}_{\text{liquid}}$

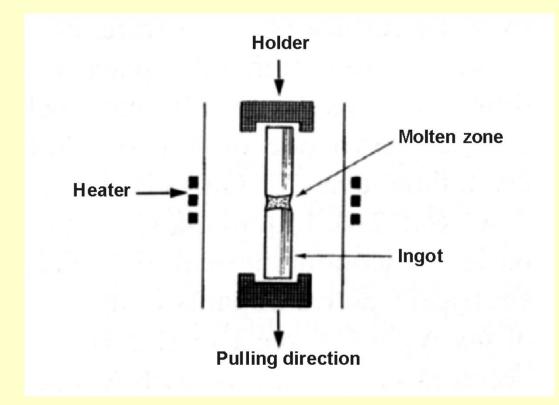
(c: concentration of an impurity)

only impurities with k < 1 can be removed by zone melting !!



FLOATING ZONE METHOD

Molten zone is confined by surface tension between a polycrystalline ingot and a single-crystal seed



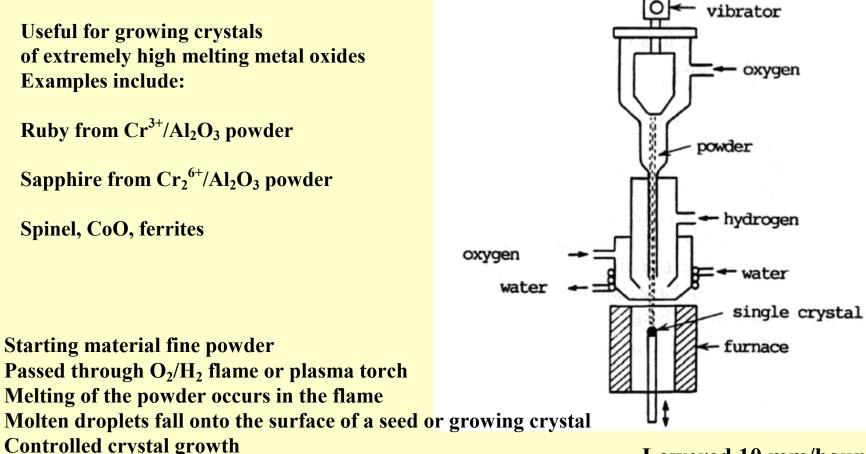
Verneuil Fusion Flame Method

1902 - French chemist Auguste Verneuil

the first commercially successful method of manufacturing synthetic gemstones - ruby, sapphire, diamond simulants rutile and strontium titanate



Verneuil Fusion Flame Method



Lowered 10 mm/hour

THE FLUX METHOD

Material dissolved in a suitable flux = solvent (metals, fluorides, oxides), lower melting point than the pure solute Single crystals grown from supersaturated solution Suitable for materials which:

- ◆ vaporize or dissociate at temperatures above their mp
- there are no suitable containers at elevated temperatures

Material	Flux
As	Ga
В	Pt
Si, Ge	Pb, Zn, Sn
GaAs, GaP	Pb, Zn, Sn
BaTiO ₃	KF
ZnO	PbF ₂
ZnS	SnF ₂
MgFe ₂ O ₄	NaF
Co_3O_4	$B_2O_3 - PbO$
Fe ₂ O ₃	$Na_2B_4O_7$
TiO ₂	$Na_2B_4O_7 - B_2O_3$

THE FLUX METHOD

AlF₃

2.0 g of AIF₃, 25.0 g of PbCl₂, 2.5 g PbF₂

24 h at 1200 K, cooled at 4 deg h⁻¹ down to 723 K

thick platelets and small cubes

THE SOLUTION METHOD

Suitable for materials with a reasonable solubility in the selected solvent: water, organic solvents, NH₃(l), HF, SO₂(l) Nucleation homogeneous heterogeneous Dilute solution, solvent with low solubility for given solute Supersaturated solution, seed crystals Single crystals grown at constant supersaturation

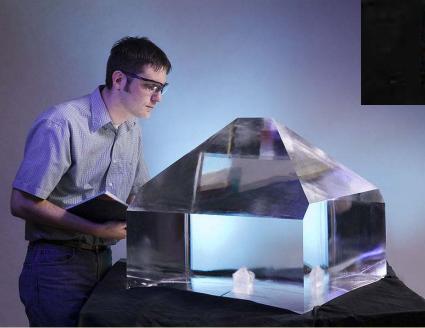
Techniques:

- ◆ slow evaporation
- **♦** slow cooling
- **•** vapor diffusion
- solvent diffusion
- reactant diffusion
- ◆ recirculation, thermal differential, convection
- cocrystallants (OPPh₃ for organic proton donors)
- ◆ counterion, similar size of cation and anion least soluble
- ionization of neutral compounds, protonation/deprotonation, hydrogen bonding

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Rochelle salt: d-NaKC<sub>4</sub>H<sub>4</sub>O<sub>6</sub>.4H<sub>2</sub>O (tartrate)
KDP
alum
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KDP crystals (KH₂PO₄) grown from supersaturated solution crystal seed slow cooling





a frequency converter converts the infrared light at 1053 nm into the ultraviolet at 351 nm

Hydrothermal Synthesis

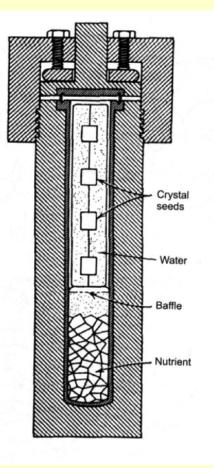
1957 - Bell Labs

Water medium

High temperature growth, above normal boiling point Water acts as a pressure transmitting agent Water functions as solubilizing phase Often a mineralizing agent is added to assist with the transport of reactants and crystal growth Speeds up chemical reactions between solids Crystal growth hydrothermally involves:

Temperature gradient reactor = autoclave (a bomb !!) Dissolution of reactants at one end Transport with help of mineralizer to seed at the other end

Crystallization at the other end



Hydrothermal Synthesis

Useful technique for the synthesis and crystal growth of phases that are unstable in a high temperature preparation in the absence of water materials with low solubility in water below 100 °C

Some materials have negative solubility coefficients, crystals can grow at the hotter end in a temperature gradient hyrdothermal reactor Example: α -AIPO₄ (Berlinite) important for its high piezoelectric coefficient (larger than α -quartz with which it is isoelectronic) used as a high frequency oscillator

Hydrothermal growth of quartz crystals

Water medium, nutrients 400 °C, seed 360 °C, pressure 1.7 kbar Mineralizer 1M NaOH

Uses of single crystal quartz: Radar, sonar, piezoelectric transducers, monochromators, XRD Annual global production hundreds of tons of quartz crystals

Hydrothermal Synthesis

Hydrothermal crystal growth is also suitable for growing single crystals of:

Ruby: Cr³⁺/Al₂O₃ Corundum: α-Al₂O₃ Sapphire: Cr₂⁶⁺/Al₂O₃ Emerald: Cr³⁺/Be₃Al₂Si₆O₁₈ Berlinite: α-AlPO₄ Metals: Au, Ag, Pt, Co, Ni, Tl, As

Role of the mineralizer:

Control of crystal growth rate: choice of mineralizer, temperature and pressure Solubility of quartz in water is important

 $SiO_2 + 2H_2O \leftrightarrow Si(OH)_4$

0.3 wt% even at supercritical temperatures >374 °C

A mineralizer is a complexing agent (not too stable) for the reactants/precursors that need to be solublized (not too much) and transported to the growing crystal

Some mineralizing reactions:

NaOH mineralizer, dissolving reaction, 1.3-2.0 kbar

 $3SiO_2 + 6OH^- \leftrightarrow Si_3O_9^{-6-} + 3H_2O$

Na₂CO₃ mineralizer, dissolving reaction, 0.7-1.3 kbar

 $SiO_2 + 2OH^- \leftrightarrow SiO_3^{2-} + H_2O$

 $\mathrm{CO_3}^{2-} + \mathrm{H_2O} \leftrightarrow \mathrm{HCO_3}^{-} + \mathrm{OH}^{-}$

NaOH creates growth rates about 2x greater than with Na₂CO₃ because of different concentrations of hydroxide mineralizer

Examples of hydrothermal crystal growth and mineralizers

Berlinite α-AlPO₄ Powdered AlPO₄ cool end of reactor negative solubility coefficient!!! H₃PO₄/H₂O mineralizer, AlPO₄ seed crystal at hot end

Emeralds Cr³⁺/Be₃Al₂Si₆O₁₈ SiO₂ powder at hot end 600 °C, NH₄Cl or HCl/H₂O mineralizer, 0.7-1.4 kbar, cool central region for seed, 500 °C, Al₂O₃/BeO/Cr³⁺ dopant powder mixture at other hot end 600 °C

 $6\mathrm{SiO}_2 + \mathrm{Al}_2\mathrm{O}_3 + 3\mathrm{BeO} \rightarrow \mathrm{Be}_3\mathrm{Al}_2\mathrm{Si}_6\mathrm{O}_{18}$

Beryl contains Si₆O₁₈¹²⁻ six rings

Metal crystals Metal powder at cool end 480 °C, Mineralizer 10M HI/I₂ Metal seed at hot end 500 °C. Dissolving reaction that also transports Au to the seed crystal:

 $Au + 3/2I_2 + I^- \leftrightarrow AuI_4^-$

Metal crystals grown this way include Au, Ag, Pt, Co, Ni, Tl, As at 480-500 °C

Diamonds

 $Ni + C + H_2O \xrightarrow{800 \circ C, 140 \text{ MPa}} diamond$

Carbon films on SiC fibers

SiC + 2 H₂O $\xrightarrow{100 \text{ MPa}}$ C + 2 H₂ + SiO₂

Zeolites

Al(OH)₃, SiO₂, NaOH, template

 $M_{x/n} [(AlO_2)_x (SiO_2)_y]. mH_2O$

necessitates knowledge of what is going on in an autoclave under different degrees of filling and temperature

Pressure, volume, temperature tables of dense fluids like water

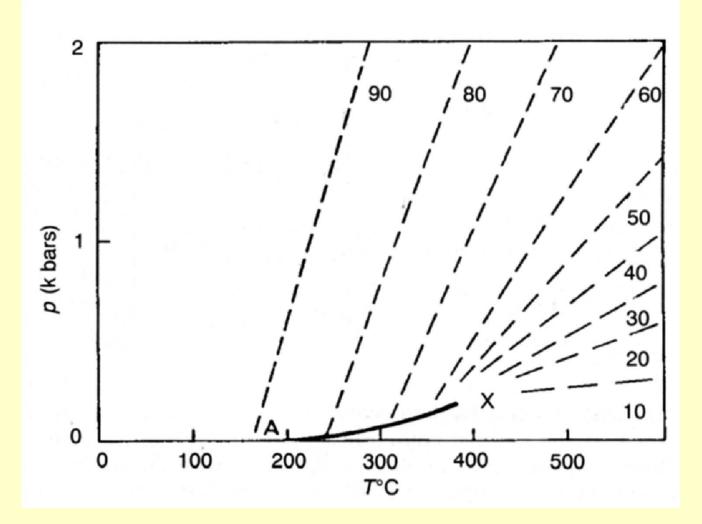
Critical point of water: 374.2 °C, 218.3 bar

Density of liquid water decreases with T Density of water vapor increases with T

Density of gas and liquid water the same 0.32 gcm⁻³, at the critical point

Liquid level in autoclave rises for > 32% volume filling Autoclave filled at 250 °C for > 32% volume filling

For 32% volume filling liquid level remains unchanged and becomes fluid at critical temperature



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Tables of pressure versus temperature for different initial volume filling of autoclave must be consulted to establish a particular set of reaction conditions for a hydrothermal synthesis or crystallization

Safety: if this is not done correctly, with proper protection equipment in place, you can have an autoclave explosion that can kill!!!

BULK-MATERIAL DISSOLUTION TECHNIQUE

large zeolite crystals: up to 3 mm, SOD, MFI, ANA, CAN, JBW autoclave, PTFE liner

quartz tube (SiO2)TPAOH, HF, H2O200 °C, 25-50 daysceramic tube (SiO2, Al2O3)NaOH, H2O100-200 °C, 7-20 days

Small surface area, low dissolution rate, saturation concentration maintained, only a few nuclei are produced at the beginning, no large crystals formed in the stirred reactions, concentration gradients

DECOMPLEXATION CRYSTALLIZATION

crystallization under ambient conditions, low temperature and pressure, provides kinetic products, control of crystal size and morphology, habit

AgX, X = Cl, Br, IMX, $M = H, Na, K, NH_4$

AgI + HI \longrightarrow H⁺ + [AgI₂]⁻ aqueous solution overlayer absolute ethanol, HI diffusion, decomplexation of AgI, hexagonal plates 5 mm

AgX + 2 NH₃ \longrightarrow [Ag(NH₃)₂]⁺ + X⁻ X = Cl, Br, slow evaporation (3-5 days), AgX crystals AgI + KI → K⁺ + [AgI₂]⁻ © concentration gives K[AgI₂] crystals © dilution by slow diffusion gives 20 mm AgI crystals © warming gives AgI crystals (inverse temperature dependence of AgI solubility in KI)

$$CuCl + HCl \longrightarrow H^+ + [CuCl_2]^- \longrightarrow CuCl$$

 $HgI_2 + KI \longrightarrow [HgI_3]^{-} \longrightarrow [HgI_4]^{2-} \longrightarrow HgI_2$

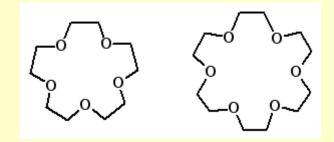
PbO + hot KOH solution, slow cooling provides PbO as 2 mm yellow needles and 1 mm red blocks

COMPLEXATION-MEDIATED CRYSTALLIZATION

Salts with high lattice energy fluorides, carbonates, acetates

Solubilized in organic solvents by crown ethers Crystallization provides uncomplexed salts

NaOOCCH₃.3H₂O dissolves in cyclohexane with 15-crown-5 prismatic crystals



COMPLEXATION-MEDIATED REACTION CRYSTALLIZATION

Two soluble salts react to produce an insoluble phase

© aqueous solutions

© nonaqueous solvents

CaCO₃ calcite TD stable phase at room temp., in H₂O vaterite kinetic product aragonite TD stable at high temperature

CaCl₂ (in MeOH) + NaHCO₃ (in MeOH, 18-crown-6) microcrystalline calcite upon aging converts to nanocrystalline vaterite, surface stabilization by surface chelatation

THE GEL METHOD

Large single crystals

◆ hydrogels: silicagel (water glass), polyvinyl alcohol, gelatin, agar

Silicate gel Impregnation with metal or ligand, setting the gel = condensation, crosslinking, pH control of the condensation rate Layered with the solution of ligand or metal Slow diffusion, xtal growth

CuSO₄ + [NH₃OH]Cl \longrightarrow Cu Pb(OAc)₂ + Zn \longrightarrow Pb + Zn(OAc)₂ Pb(OAc)₂ + KI \longrightarrow PbI₂ + 2 KOAc Liesegang rings, agates RbSnBr₃, CsSb₂I₅ semiconductors

THE GEL METHOD

♦ nonaqueous gels
PEO (MW = 100 000) in 1,2-dichloroethane + MeOH, EtOH, PrOH, DMF, CH₃CN, DMSO
Impregnation with metal or ligand
Layered with the solution of ligand or metal
Slow diffusion, crystal growth
U-tube, counter-diffusion
Concentration programming, increasing concentrations

Ostwald rippening = larger xtals grow, smaller dissolve

ELECTROCHEMICAL REDUCTIVE SYNTHESIS, CRYSTAL GROWTH

Molten mixtures of precursors, product crystallizes from melt Melt electrochemistry: Electrochemical reduction CaTi(IV)O₃ (perovskite)/CaCl₂ (850 °C) → CaTi(III)₂O₄ (spinel) Na₂Mo(VI)O₄/Mo(VI)O₃ (675 °C) → Mo(IV)O₂ (large crystals) Li₂B₄O₇/LiF/Ta(V)₂O₅ (950 °C) → Ta(II)B₂ Na₂B₄O₇/NaF/V(V)₂O₅/Fe(III)₂O₃ (850 °C) → Fe(II)V(III)₂O₄ (spinel) Na₂CrO₄/Na₂SiF₆ (T °C) → Cr₃Si

 $Na_2Ge_2O_5/NaF/NiO \rightarrow Ni_2Ge$

ELECTROCHEMICAL REDUCTIVE SYNTHESIS, CRYSTAL GROWTH

Phosphates → phosphides Carbonates → carbides Borates → borides Sulfates → sulfides Silicates → silicides Germanates → germides

Synthesis of Amorphous Materials

Quenching of molten mixture of metal oxide with a glass former (P₂O₅, V₂O₅, Bi₂O₃, SiO₂, CaO, ...), large cooling rates required (>10⁷ K s⁻¹)

Ion beam sputtering

Thermal evaporation

Thermal decomposition of organometallic precursors (Fe(CO)₅, ...) Cr₂O₃, MnO₂, PbO₂, V₂O₅, Fe₂O₃

Sonochemical decomposition of organometallic precursors (Fe(CO)₅, M(acac)_n,...

Precipitation on metal hydroxides, transformation to hydrous oxides

MW heating of metal salt solution Cr₂O₃, Fe₂O₃