Property trends (including density, refractive index, etc.) were used to develop structure/composition models before development of modern spectroscopic probes. Borate anomaly from CTE study, 1934

B[4] sites first detected in 1938 (X-ray diffraction).

Terminology:

- 1. Density mass per volume ($\rho = m/V$)
 - true density- no bubbles, inclusions, etc.
 - apparent density- with defects (bubbles can reduce apparent density, crystalline inclusions can increase apparent density).
- 2. *Molar Volume* volume occupied by one mole of material:

$$V_m = \frac{molar \ wt.}{density} = \frac{M.W.}{\rho} = \frac{g \ / \ mole}{g \ / \ cm^3} = \frac{cm^3}{mole}$$

Ex.
$$25\text{Na}_2\text{O}\ 75\text{SiO}_2\ \text{glass}$$
: M.W. = $0.25\cdot\text{MW}(\text{Na}_2\text{O}) + 0.75\cdot\text{MW}(\text{SiO}_2)$
= $0.25(61.98\ \text{g/mole}) + 0.75(60.09\ \text{g/mole})$
= $60.56\ \text{g/mole}$
Density = $2.434\ \text{g/cm}^3$
 $V_m = (60.56\ \text{g/mole})/(2.434\ \text{g/cm}^3) = 24.88\ \text{cm}^3/\text{mol}$

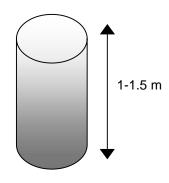
Molar volume is more sensitive to structural differences between glasses than is density because it normalizes for atomic weights of different glass constituents.

Measuring Density

- a. Archimedes' Method is most convenient
 - Determine volume of displaced liquid
 - Sample weighed in air (W_{air}) and weighed when suspended in liquid (W_{liq}) of known density:
 - $\Delta W = (W_{air} W_{liq}) = W(displaced liquid)$
 - sample volume = displaced liquid volume = $\Delta W/\rho_{liq}$
 - $\rho_{\text{sample}} = (W_{\text{air}} \cdot \rho_{\text{liq}}) / \Delta W$
 - generally accurate to ±0.001 g/cm³

b. Density Gradient Column

- Low ρ liquid (e.g., isopropyl salicylate, 1.1 g/cm²) poured onto a high ρ liquid (e.g. methylene iodide, 3.32 g/cm³); liquids interdiffuse to establish gradient. (Gravity prevents uniform mixing).
- Glass samples sink to respective density levels
- Quick, accurate (±0.0002 g/cm³) test used in manufacturing environments
- ppm accuracies if similar liquids are used



c. Sink-Float

- Unknown sample dropped into tube containing slightly denser liquid
- Tube is heated until glass sample sinks
- From the known $\rho(T)$ relationship of liquid, you get the density of the glass
- Used to determine density differences (20 ppm) between similar samples (from ΔT_{sink}): e.g., Shelby's radiation effects studies

Compositional Effects

Densities of common glass forming oxides are less than the corresponding crystalline forms-glasses have more open network structures.

v-SiO₂
$$\dot{2}$$
.20 g/cm³ α -quartz $\dot{2}$.65 g/cm³ (F

α-quartz 2.65 g/cm³ (Room T. form) β-cristobalite 2.27 g/cm³ (Hi.T. polymorph) coesite ≈ 3.0 g/cm³ (Hi pressure form)

'Free Volume' is the amount of open space in a glass structure (right). If the densest crystal represents 'ideal packing' for a composition, then the 'free volume' will be the difference in molar volumes between the glass and crystal:

$$V_f = V_q - V_x$$

The fraction of the total glass volume that is 'free' then is

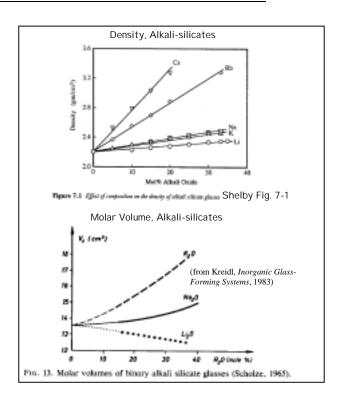
$$(V_f/V_g) = 1 - (V_x/V_g)$$
 Shelby, eq. 7.6

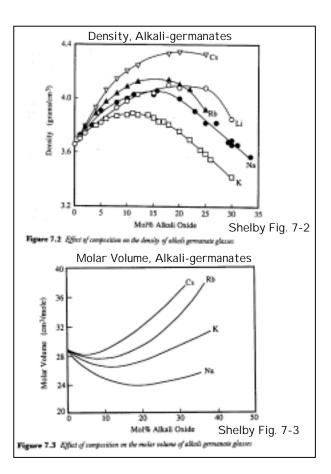
Using coesite density: the free volume in v-SiO₂ is 27%.

Adding alkali oxides typically increase density; alkali ions 'fill' the free volume.

- Shelby describes a 'sponge'- fill in the empty spaces without expanding the volume; so density increases.
 - Density increasing with alkali additions in the silicate glasses (top right) and that density increases in the order Li<Na<K<Rb<Cs
 - Molar volume trends (right bottom) suggest a little more complicated relationship: small ions (Li) have low coordination numbers, and so the structure collapses around them, leading to a MV decrease; whereas structure expands to accommodate the larger coordination numbers of the larger ions (Na, K, etc.)
- In the alkali germanate glasses, initial additions of modifiers increase density, then density goes through maxima because of the Ge[4]→Ge[6] transition.
- The 'just filling interstices' model breaks down when one considers that the Kgermanates are less dense than the Ligermanates, despite the greater mass of the K-ion.
- The molar volume trends are a little more straightforward than the densities. The greater MV of the K-germanates (to accommodate the larger CN of K⁺) offsets the larger atomic weight

Remember: alkalis have specific coordination environments that depend on their size. The high mobility of alkali ions near T_g ensures that alkali bonding is satisfied when the glass is cooled.





High Density Glasses: contain PbO, Bi₂O₃, Ga₂O₃, etc. →8 g/cm³.

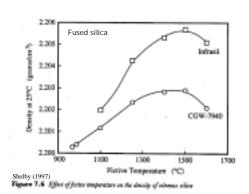
· -radiation windows, optical applications

Glasses will densify under radiation, pressure, etc.

- · structural compaction; stress generation
- up to 3%

Fictive temperature effects

- Room temperature density is sensitive to thermal history (discussed previously).
- Silica is unusual. Room temperature density of glasses heated at various temperatures above T_g (right, Shelby 7-6) goes through a maximum. The 'melt density' goes through a maximum on heating; very unusual.
 - Behavior eliminated with small additions of second oxide.
 - Water exhibits similar density maximum at 4°C.



3. Thermal Expansion Coefficient

- Rate of change in volume (and therefore, density) with temperature
- True (or instantaneous) thermal expansion coefficient:

$$\alpha_{v} = \frac{1}{V_{0}} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T} \right)_{P}$$
 Volume
$$\alpha_{v}$$
 Temp

 more common is the average (or mean) TEC (or CTE), defined by a change in volume (ΔV) over a specified temperature range:

$$\overline{\alpha}_{v} = \frac{1}{V_{0}} \left(\frac{\Delta V}{\Delta T} \right)$$

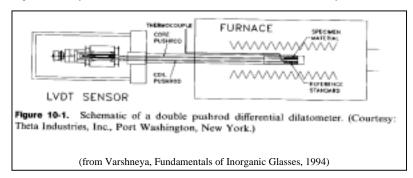
 volume changes are difficult to measure, linear changes are much more simple and a typical TEC is based on a length-change measurement:

$$\alpha_I = \frac{1}{I_0} \left(\frac{\Delta I}{\Delta T} \right)$$

- Since glasses are isotropic (and have relatively small TECs): $\alpha_v=3\alpha_l$
 - units are in (degrees)⁻¹

• Typical TEC ranges for glasses are $5x10^{-7}/^{\circ}$ C to $150x10^{-7}/^{\circ}$ C (or 0.5 to 15 ppm). Commercial silicates are in the range $70-100x10^{-7}/^{\circ}$ C.

Dilatometry is the preferred TEC measurement technique.



Single push rod dilatometer: measure absolute expansion/contraction. Dual push rod dilatometer: measure difference with known reference.

Generally accurate to 0.5%

Shelby's Fig. 7-8 shows examples of TEC curves

 $T_{\rm g}$ defined as the temperature at which the expansion behavior changes from 'solid-like' to 'liquid-like'. Determined from the crossover of the extended lines.

T_d is the dilatometric softening point, the temperature at which the spring-loaded pushrod deforms the sample because the glass viscosity is too low to withstand the applied load.

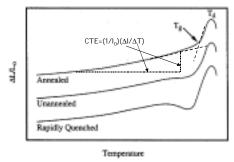


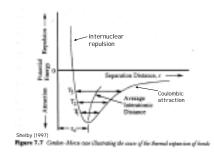
Figure 7.8 Thermal expansion curves for amounted and quenched glasses

Relaxation of the high fictive temperature (unannealed) sample produces the dip in the CTE curve as the glass structure rearranges in the transformation range. (This is a good test for the degree of annealing in a sample).

More accurate TEC's (to 20 nm displacements) can measured by laser interferometry.

Concepts of Thermal Expansion

Condon-Morse potential: interaction energy between a cation and anion is a balance between the Coulombic attraction and the internuclear repulsion (the latter occurs because of overlapping electron orbitals if ions are brought too closely together.)



- Ideal separation distance (r₀) at 0 K.
- The well determines how the atoms vibrate- can't come to close together because of the repulsion, too far apart or there will be no 'restoring' Coulombic attraction.
- Increase temperature, initiate thermal vibrations, progress 'further up the well'.
- Deep wells- high dissociation energies (high melting/boiling points).
- Because of the asymmetry of the potential well, the average separation distance, due to thermal vibrations, increases with temperature, representing an expansion in the lattice (TEC).
 - Deep wells are more symmetric, and so represent low TEC materials
 - Shallow wells become asymmetric at smaller ΔT:
 - Lower melting materials generally have greater TEC's

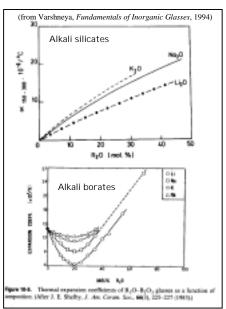
Shelby relates compositional changes that affect bond symmetry (i.e., formation of NBO's with alkali additions) to changes in the symmetry of a C-M well:

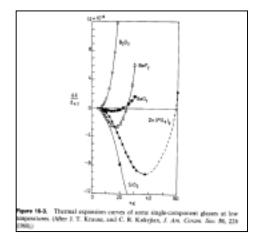
- Alkali additions to silicate glasses increase TEC
- Alkali additions to borate glasses decrease TEC

Changes in 'free volume' can also affect TEC. High free volume allows bonds to rotate and flex instead of stretch with increasing temperature, yielding low (or negative) TEC's (i.e., f-SiO₂). Filling up the 'free volume' (adding alkalis) eliminates this mechanism, increasing TEC.

Oxide glass TEC's can be varied from 0 (SiO₂-TiO₂ 'ULE' glasses for mirror blanks) to over 200x10⁻⁷/°C for specialty phosphate sealing glasses.

- Wide range of glasses available for sealing applications, compatible with metals, ceramics with different TEC (matched, compression seals.)
- Note: The quoted TEC for a glass is over a specified temperature range. TEC will vary with ΔT- must be known when selecting an appropriate sealing glass.



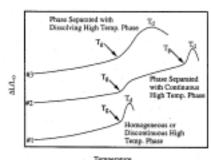


Phase Separation can be characterized by TEC curves (Shelby Fig 7-11, right).

- Bottom curve- homogeneous glass (or phase separated where high temp. phase is discontinuous)
- Middle curve: phase separated, with a continuous high temp. phase.
- Top curve, broad softening region from glasses where rising sample temp. passes immiscibility or spinodal limits- changing morphologies.
- Practical Note: (T_d-T_g)<50 K, glass is probably phase separated

Crystallization will also alter TEC properties-

- Low-expansion glass-ceramics: cookware, mirror blanks, etc.
- High expansion glass-ceramics (right).
 - Cristobalite, a high expansion silica polymorph (note transition near 150°C); also note residual glass transition for 700°C heat treatment, no residual T_g (top) for 800°C heat treatment.



Shelby (1997)

