

# Enumeration of periodic tetrahedral frameworks.

## II. Polynodal graphs.

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## Abstract

In a previous study, we developed a database of periodic 4-connected graphs (M. M. J. Treacy, K. H. Randall and S. Rao, *Zeit. Kristallogr.*, **212**, 768–791, (1997)). The database was built using a symmetry constrained intersite bonding search (SCIBS) method. This method enumerates all possible 4-connected nets within each space group type given the number of unique tetrahedral vertices,  $n_T$ . Approximately  $10^7$  graphs were obtained, mostly for  $n_T = 1, 2$ .  $n_T = 4$  was achieved for some space groups that were rich in mirror symmetry. There was a combinatorial explosion of graphs with increasing  $n_T$  in some space groups, which ultimately limited the method. The uninodal graphs,  $n_T = 1$ , were refined by simulated annealing. A simple cost function was used that favoured a regular tetrahedral arrangement of neighbouring silicon atoms to emulate zeolite frameworks. Many plausible hypothetical uninodal zeolitic frameworks were reported.

Since that report, we have improved the efficiency of the combinatorial search, and extended the range of our graph database to  $n_T = 7$  for some high mirror symmetry space groups. We have also implemented a more sophisticated Monte Carlo strategy for imbedding graphs in real space as an  $\text{SiO}_2$  composition. Plausible refinements are then further optimized using the GULP program. Presently, there are almost  $10^{10}$  graphs in our database, and the number of plausible regular tetrahedral  $\text{SiO}_2$  frameworks identified now exceeds 10,000.

## 1. Introduction

There has been significant progress in recent years in the development of efficient computer methods for discovering new hypothetical zeolite frameworks [1–13]. Several databases now exist that exhaustively list the uninodal 4-connected frameworks, which are those that contain one crystallographically unique tetrahedral atom [2, 3, 8, 9]. However, comprehensive enumeration of more complicated polynodal frameworks remains a challenging problem.

There are two main motivations behind such enumerative efforts. First, a database of hypothetical frameworks, complete with their structural attributes, can help identify interesting synthetic targets. Secondly, such a database will greatly assist the structure determination of new materials by providing a reference set of unit cell dimensions, framework densities and diffraction patterns. A third motivation relates to the intrinsic mathematical and visual beauty of these framework materials. The complexity of framework materials presents an ongoing challenge to topologists, crystallographers and structural chemists alike.

A number of framework databases now exist, typically containing fewer than about 1,000 frameworks. The Atlas of Zeolite Framework Types [14], produced under the auspices of the Structure Commission of the International Zeolite Association, is perhaps the best-known database. It lists and describes in detail most of the known microporous frameworks that have been synthesized to date, and is available online. Presently, there are 145 recognized Framework Types that are thermally stable and are sufficiently microporous to allow water to enter and leave. This number is presently growing at the rate of about 6 new frameworks per year. However, this database includes only the known, thermally stable, tetrahedrally connected microporous frameworks. Dense nets, such as quartz and cristobalite are not microporous and are not considered to be zeolites, despite possessing regular tetrahedral frameworks.

Most of the early progress in the discovery of hypothetical frameworks was based mainly on intuitive model building. Wells [15, 16] described a prodigious number of frameworks. Because they were discovered by hand, rather than by systematic algorithm, there are many omissions from the families of structures he describes. By examining ways in which sodalite

cages could interconnect, Breck [17], in his book, predicted the existence of the enigmatic “Breck Structure 6”. This recurrently twinned polytype of the **FAU** framework was an eagerly sought synthetic target for over 2 decades, until Delprato et al [18] found a creative synthetic route to produce the material EMC-2. This is now known as the **EMT** framework type.

Smith [19] has described a prolific number of frameworks that were discovered mostly by hand using systematic methods. Such methods include permutation of up-down linkages between identifiable 2-dimensional layers in zeolites, as well as permutations of linkages between identifiable polyhedra.

Significant progress has been made recently by methods that cross-link polyhedra and secondary building units. Delgado-Friedrichs and coworkers [12, 20] have built a database of graphs corresponding to space-filling tilings of polyhedra. Many of these graphs have been refined to produce low energy structures [9]. Mellot-Draznieks and coworkers [21–23] have built novel frameworks by automated assembly of secondary building units. Zwiijnenburg and coworkers [11] examine the energetics of polyhedral silicate units to predict relative stability of large pore zeolite structures.

Akporiaye and Price [24], and Shannon [25], describe an extension of the layer building method by allowing topological operators to connect sheets. Most of the known zeolite frameworks could be generated by this method. O’Keeffe and Brese [2] generated a listing of uninodal zeolite topologies (frameworks containing one crystallographically distinct tetrahedral atom, or T-atom) by systematically moving the T-atom within the crystallographic fundamental region, and looking for configurations corresponding to regular 4-connected nets. This dense-grid method is computationally prohibitive for frameworks containing more than one crystallographically unique T-atom. Koch and Fisher [26] described a combinatorial method for identifying uninodal 3-connected sphere packings by permuting all possible symmetry operators in the presence of an atom and searching for 3-dimensionally connected, 3-connected, periodic frameworks. Clearly, their methods could be extended to higher coordination numbers.

In an earlier prototypical version of the present study [8], we first described how frameworks can be systematically enumerated by permuting over all possible topological connections within the crystallographic fundamental region and identifying the purely 4-connected graphs [6]. The graphs were then imbedded in real space by distance least squares methods. The original method was applied to the problem of space group  $P6/mmm$  (No. 191) for two unique T-atoms. The presence of strong mirror symmetry limits the number of possibilities, and, in principle, made this particular problem manageable “by hand”. In that study, 2 out of 48 legitimate frameworks were overlooked, highlighting the difficulties of tackling this problem manually. The method was later generalized for all space groups and the search implemented on a computer. Klein [3] presented a similar method for enumerating the uninodal frameworks. In the study by Treacy et al [8], it was found that for more than one unique T-atom, there is a combinatorial explosion of graphs.

Since that earlier report [8] significant progress has been made. The combinatorial search has been made more efficient, allowing a complete listing of graphs up to  $n_T = 7$  for some high-symmetry space groups that are rich in mirror symmetry.  $n_T = 4$  is the practical limit for most other space groups. An improved simulated annealing method for imbedding graphs in space has been implemented, that can anneal bridging oxygen atoms as well as multiple Si atoms and the unit cell dimensions. In this report, we outline some of the methods used and highlight some of the interesting frameworks discovered.

## 2. Graph Generation

The details of our graph generation method were published elsewhere [8]. However, for completeness, we present a summary of the procedure.

The problem of graph generation depends on two input variables; the space group type, and the number of unique vertices which in this instance are 4-connected tetrahedral atoms, or T-atoms. For each space group, all possible connections between basis atoms in the fundamental region, and their images in neighbouring symmetry-generated copies of the fundamental region, are identified.

The surfaces, edges and vertices of each fundamental region generally correspond to special sites, which are the invariant subspaces of the general atom position within the volume of the fundamental region. These are known in the International tables for Crystallography as the Wyckoff sites [27]. A set of intersite connection tables are built for each space group. These list the number of bonds that are committed when a vertex on a special site makes a connection to a vertex on a second site. A distinction must be made between homobonds (connections between images of the same atoms) and heterobonds (connections between images of dissimilar atoms).

The  $n_T$  atoms are systematically distributed over the Wyckoff sites of the fundamental region. Then all combinations of bonds between atoms on their various sites are explored, carefully accounting for all symmetry-related bonds using the intersite connection tables. This is the symmetry constrained intersite bonding search (SCIBS). In our implementation of the SCIBS algorithm, we restricted the search to those images of the fundamental region that are physically in contact with the basis fundamental region (i.e. the neighbouring images of the fundamental region). Some space groups permit bonding between non-adjacent fundamental regions, and those graphs are missed by our algorithm for that particular space group. However, we conjecture that the missing graphs are captured in lower-symmetry space groups. This conjecture is supported by empirical evidence. Some space groups do not have a uniquely defined fundamental region, and it was found that viable graphs can be overlooked. The missing graphs can be recaptured by exploring all topologically distinct alternative settings of the fundamental region.

Graphs are generated as labelled lists of connections of the type,  $i_p O_n j_q$ .  $i$  and  $j$  are the atom labels ( $1 \leq i, j \leq n_T$ ).  $p$  and  $q$  are site labels, and  $O_n$  is a label for the symmetry operator that generates the neighbouring fundamental region in which the bonded atom resides. In this study, those graphs that have exactly four connections to each atom are retained. In principle, other connectivities, such as mixed tetrahedral/octahedral could be kept. Degenerate labelling combinations are avoided by permuting the labelling to see if it can be remapped onto an earlier instance of the graph. However, degeneracies due to

special combinations of symmetry operators are not detected at this combinatorial stage. Such degeneracies can be detected by computing topological properties of the graph, such as the coordination sequences and vertex symbols of each graph. However, in this study, such apparently topologically degenerate graphs were retained because it was found that they did not always correspond to the same structure when refined under the rules of the space group. Further, graphs with the same vertex symbol and coordination sequences are not necessarily identical graphs. The SYSTRE program of Delgado-Friedrichs can establish topological uniqueness [28], but this was not used in the present study.

Not all graphs are three-dimensionally connected. Sheet, tubular and ball assemblies frequently occur. These are easily identified and listed separately. Interthreaded graphs are also easily identified.

Frequently, the same graph is found under more than one space group. These degeneracies were retained since they do not always refine to the same framework energy under the rules of each space group.

For this study, the combinatorial search algorithm was optimized, greatly accelerating its performance. Results up to  $n_T = 7$  for space group  $Pm\bar{3}m$  (No. 225) and  $n_T = 6$  for space group  $P6/mmm$  (No. 191) have now been obtained. In our earlier report, [8] the limit was  $n_T = 4$  for these space groups. For many of the lower symmetry space groups, however, results are still limited to  $n_T \leq 4$  due to the combinatorial explosion of graphs that exist.

Each successful refinement is saved as a CIF file [29], and given a numeric label that incorporates the space group number, the number of unique T-atoms, and the graph number. Thus, 191\_2\_14.cif corresponds to result number 14 in space group  $P6/mmm$  (No. 191), for two unique T-atoms. This particular instance is the **LTL** framework.

### 3. Graph Refinement

In the earlier study, the uninodal graphs were refined by simulated annealing using a cost function that favoured a regular tetrahedral arrangement of T-atoms. This method satisfactorily obtained unit cell dimensions and T-atom coordinates for the regular uninodal

4-connected frameworks. The 48 binodal graphs found for the specific case of space group  $P6/mmm$  (No. 191) for  $n_T = 2$  were refined by hand using the DLS76 distance-least-squares computer program [30]. For the present study, the simulated annealing method has been extended to handle multiple T-atoms (as silicon atoms) as well as the bridging oxygen atoms.

The refinement procedure has multiple stages. First the coordination sequence and vertex symbol for the graph are examined. If the topological density  $TD_{10}$ , as measured by the sum of the vertices out to the tenth coordination shell, exceeds that of quartz ( $TD_{10} = 1230$ ), then the graph is rejected as being an unlikely candidate for an open framework structure. Graphs corresponding to simple polyhedral tilings can be identified by examining the vertex symbols. It was noticed that there is a rough correlation between framework energy and the number of rings included in the vertex symbol. Simple polyhedral tilings tend to have the fewest rings in the vertex symbols.

The first stage of the refinement is to place each atom at the geometric center of its bonded neighbours, while maintaining the local site symmetry [28]. Next, the unit cell dimensions alone are annealed. It was found that for the low-energy uninodal graphs, this step produces excellent starting positions that are frequently close to optimal for the atom locations. However, for polynodal graphs this procedure appeared to offer no discernible advantage over the alternative method of simply placing atoms at the geometric center of its site. However, because of its elegant simplicity, we default to the first method. In some instances, there is no unique solution for the first method, in which case we revert to the second method for generating starting positions.

Once a starting configuration has been chosen, the T-atom framework positions and unit cell dimensions are annealed together. The bridging oxygen atoms are implicitly held at the mid points of each T–T bond. This step can reduce the degrees of freedom by up to a factor of three.

If a satisfactorily low energy is obtained in the T-atom only anneal, the structure is re-annealed with the oxygen atoms included. For this step we used a modified version of the cost function devised by Boisen, Gibbs and Bukowinski (mBGB) that was optimized for the



quartz structure [31]. In their function, they compute energies for all Si–O bonds shorter than 0.4 nm, and O–Si–O and Si–O–Si angles for all bond pairs that occur within a radius of 0.4 nm of each central atom. In our implementation, we considered the energy contribution only from those bonded atoms that are dictated by each graph. Our intent was to disallow bond swapping, even if such swapping leads to a lower energy topology. Eventually, all alternative bonding configurations are enumerated by our combinatorial procedure, and the lower energy frameworks are eventually captured.

Despite the compactness of the mBGB cost function, considerable computational effort is spent repelling non-codimeric oxygen atoms (those oxygen atoms that are not connected to the same Si atom). Considerable speed up can be obtained for the final low-cost stages of the anneal by limiting the repulsion effort to only those non-codimeric oxygen atoms that are likely to wander within 0.4 nm of each other. However, this speedup is not applicable to the early stages of the anneal because the atom step sizes can be large. Consequently, the early anneal stages can be slow.

Apart from a significant computational speed up, the main consequence of omitting the energy contributions from disallowed bonds is an approximately uniform reduction in the energy of the low cost frameworks by a factor of  $\sim 6$  (see Figure 4 and results section.)

Finally, those structures that anneal to a satisfactorily low framework energy, less than 1.0 eV per  $\text{SiO}_2$  unit according to the modified mBGB cost function, were further refined using the General Utility Lattice Program (GULP) [32]. The potential functions used are closely similar to those of Sanders et al. [33]. The difference in structural parameters between GULP and mBGB were usually small, but this step allows a meaningful comparison with the results of Foster et al [9], who used GULP to refine the polyhedral tilings of Delgado-Friedrichs et al [12, 20]. The potential parameters used in our  $\text{SiO}_2$  refinements are given in [34].

The simulated annealing procedure is the rate-limiting step in our search for regular 4-connected nets. Consequently, considerable efforts were made to optimize this process. The procedure we adapted was a hybrid parallel-tempering procedure of Falcioni and Deem

[13] and a simple genetic algorithm. Figure 1 outlines the procedure. A number of parallel anneals,  $n$ , are conducted at various temperatures between 0 and  $T_{\max}$ . The  $n$  initial temperatures are chosen according to  $T_m = [1 - (m - 1)/(n - 1)]^4 T_{\max}$ , ( $m = 1, \dots, n$ ), and are reduced to zero according to a similar fourth-power law as the anneal progresses. The temperatures for each anneal are randomly swapped according to a Boltzmann-type probability factor. This factor is obtained in the usual way using the ratios of the lowest energy and temperature for each anneal. Consequently, the best result tends to be annealed at zero temperature, which corresponds to a steepest descent refinement. However, it will also be annealed periodically at a higher temperature, or even replaced by a better result obtained at higher temperature by one of the other annealing processes. Testing shows that this parallel tempering method, offers no advantage over our earlier method of sequential tempering with random temperature spikes [8]. However, the parallel mode has the advantage of allowing a simple genetic algorithm to be applied as well. At a pre-ordained number of anneals, the parameters corresponding to unit cell lengths, cell angles and complete  $\text{SiO}_4$  units are swapped between anneals, and the costs are compared. Frequently, this “gene inheritance” method finds a lower cost framework and can accelerate the refinement.

Our hybrid genetic annealing method is inherently a hit-or-miss stochastic process, and it is certain that viable frameworks are overlooked. Figure 2 shows the progress of a refinement for a graph corresponding to the **LTL** framework (191\_2\_14). In this example, the refinement that put in the maximum effort, 8 parallel anneals with genetic inheritance, failed to refine satisfactorily.

To address this weakness of the annealing approach we are presently exploring tree searching methods in order to guide the initial stages of the refinement. The details of this approach will be presented in a later report.

## 4. Results

### 4.1 General observations from the combinatorics and annealing.

As reported earlier, there is a combinatorial explosion of graphs as the number of unique

T-atoms is increased. A complete listing of graphs has been obtained for all space groups up to  $n_T = 2$ , excluding space group  $P\bar{1}$  (No. 2). The accumulation of results for this space group was terminated after the results file passed 40 Gigabytes in size.

The number of graphs in higher symmetry space groups (i.e. excluding triclinic and monoclinic classes), also grows exponentially but at a slower rate. Space groups rich in mirror planes tend to accumulate graphs the slowest as  $n_T$  increases. These space groups have received most of the refinement effort to date. Figure 3 shows how the number of graphs increases for space group  $Pm\bar{3}m$  (No. 225) as a function of  $n_T \leq 7$ . Also plotted is the number of successful refinements for  $n_T \leq 6$ . As  $n_T$  increases, the number of degrees of freedom that must be refined increases, reducing the likelihood of success. The fraction of graphs that refine successfully (defined in this study as those frameworks with mBGB cost function energy less than 0.2 eV per  $\text{SiO}_2$  unit relative to quartz) decreases rapidly with increasing  $n_T$ . This is undoubtedly due in part to the increase in failure rate of graph refinements as the number of degrees of freedom increases with  $n_T$ . However, it appears that the likelihood of a complex (high  $n_T$ ) graph being representable as a regular tetrahedral framework also decreases.

Figure 4 presents a comparison of the modified mBGB cost versus the GULP cost, both nominally in units of eV per  $\text{SiO}_2$  relative to quartz. This data is obtained exclusively from a run for space group  $P6/mmm$  (No. 191) for  $n_T = 3$ . There were 1,150 graphs total, of which 659 refined to a mBGB cost of 1.0 eV per  $\text{SiO}_2$  and less. All of these results were further refined under GULP using conjugate gradient, of which 513 converged to produce reasonable frameworks. At low energies,  $\leq 0.1$  eV for mBGB and  $\leq 0.6$  eV for GULP there is a clear linear correlation between the two refinement procedures. The modified mBGB cost is a factor of  $\sim 6$  lower than the GULP cost per  $\text{SiO}_2$ . The principal source of this discrepancy is that we have omitted energy contributions from atoms that are not considered bonded by each graph. Apart from an approximately constant energy factor, the discrepancy appears not to be of major consequence for the low cost frameworks, since our implementation of the mBGB cost function is successfully identifying the regular tetrahedral frameworks. For

mBGB costs above 0.1 eV per  $\text{SiO}_2$  (about 0.6 eV per  $\text{SiO}_2$  in GULP), the correlation with the GULP energy is more scattered. Presumably, when the frameworks are more strained, the missing unbonded neighbour energy terms in the mBGB cost function tend to become more important. To ensure we do not inadvertently discard viable frameworks, we set the mBGB energy threshold to be quite high for retaining frameworks to be processed further by GULP, 1.0 eV per  $\text{SiO}_2$  (mBGB).

The modified mBGB cost function is more favourable to 3-rings and double 3-rings than is the GULP cost function. Differences between frameworks refined by the two programs are reflected in Figure 5 which compares the statistical distribution of Si–O bond distance and Si–Si nearest neighbour distances, codimer O–O bond distances, and Si–O–Si and O–Si–O bond angles for the 513 graphs that were successfully refined by both mBGB and GULP. The differences are subtle. The mBGB cost function allows more latitude for the Si–Si distance, but at the same time imposing a narrower distribution of Si–O–Si angles centered on the tetrahedral angle  $109.471^\circ$ . The mean Si–O distance for mBGB is  $1.624 \pm 0.020$ , whereas for the GULP refinements it is slightly shorter at  $1.615 \pm 0.022$ .

Figure 6 presents additional analysis of the 659 graphs that refined to a mBGB cost of 1.0 eV per  $\text{SiO}_2$  or less. The points distributed on the graph represent the framework density (T-atoms per  $1000 \text{ \AA}^3$ , left axis) as function of mBGB energy. The continuous line presents the histogram (right axis) of the number of frameworks that refine to a particular energy. The histogram binning window is 0.02 eV per  $\text{SiO}_2$  (mBGB). Although there is considerable scatter in the data, there appears to be a gentle increase in framework density as the refinement energy increases. There are two peaks in the distribution results. The first peak appears at low energy, at around 0.03 eV per  $\text{SiO}_2$  (mBGB) and is narrow, with a half-width of about 0.05 eV per  $\text{SiO}_2$ . A second broader peak emerges at around 0.35 eV per  $\text{SiO}_2$  (mBGB). Many zeolites incorporate Al when synthesized, suggesting that the additional degrees of freedom associated with composition variation (concentration and site location) are valuable for further lowering framework energies of formation. It is plausible that more of our graphs would refine to

lower energies if we allowed the framework composition to vary from a pure  $\text{SiO}_2$  composition, such as by the incorporation of Al. However, we have not yet explored that avenue.

## 4.2 General observations of the polynodal frameworks.

The method we have implemented finds all 4-connected graphs given a space group, fundamental region shape (which is not necessarily unique for each space group), and the number of unique T-atoms. A significant number of graphs can be found that are not in their maximum topological symmetry. For example, the **LTL** framework is found in space group  $P6/mmm$  (No. 191)  $n_T = 2$ . It could also be found (in principle) in space group  $P6$  (No. 186)  $n_T = 6$ . Supercells of the LTL framework are recovered repeatedly in  $P6/mmm$  for all  $n_T \geq 2$ . Occasionally, a framework refines to a lower energy in the lower symmetry setting, although this is not the case for **LTL**.

Similar graphs can be identified most of the time by comparing coordination sequences out to the sixteenth shell, and comparing vertex symbols. Supercells exhibit repetitions of the same coordination sequences and vertex symbols. Since similar coordination sequences and vertex symbols do not guarantee that two graphs are identical, there is a risk that some interesting unique graphs will be overlooked. For example, in trigonal space group  $P3_211$  (No. 154), two distinct uninodal graphs exist with the quartz coordination sequence (out to the sixteenth shell) and vertex symbol. The quartz framework refines to a very low energy, whereas the second graph refines to a high energy. These two topologically distinct structures are shown in Figure 7.

Of the  $\sim 400,000$  graphs refined so far, about 10,000 frameworks have refined to a low framework energy, comparable to the energies found for the known zeolite frameworks. There are too many results to present here. One noteworthy result (of many) is shown in Figure 9 for space group  $P6/mmm$  (No. 191)  $n_T = 4$  (graph number 191\_4\_5828). This graph refined to a very low energy of 0.006 eV per  $\text{SiO}_2$  unit using the mBGB cost function. The energy according to GULP is 0.212 eV per  $\text{SiO}_2$  unit relative to quartz (GULP). The coordinates refined by the GULP program are given in Table 1. This framework is shown in Figure 8.

We have given space group  $Pm\bar{3}m$  (No. 225) a lot of attention, refining all graphs up to  $n_T \leq 6$ , 303,084 graphs total (see Figure 3 for a summary of the results in this space group). The annealing effort consumed two 800 MHz G4 Macintosh computers running essentially continuously for 4 months. Generation of the graphs took about 24 hours, most of the effort being for  $n_T = 7$  (which, at the time of writing, have not yet been refined). Most of the annealing effort was focused on the  $n_T = 6$  results, mainly due to the fact that 93% of the graphs  $n_T \leq 6$  are for  $n_T = 6$ . In addition to the number increase, graphs acquire more degrees of freedom as  $n_T$  increases. Typically, there are over 60 degrees of freedom for the full  $\text{SiO}_2$  refinement for  $n_T = 6$  in  $Pm\bar{3}m$ . In practice, this level of complexity is probably close to the upper limit for this level of computing power with the algorithms presently implemented.

As can be seen from Figure 3, this space group is quite productive. All 16 graphs for  $n_T \leq 2$  refined well. Figures 9 and 10 show  $a$ -axis projections of the results for  $n_T = 1$  and  $n_T = 2$  respectively. The GULP refinement of 225\_2\_13 (Figure 10m) reports that some of the phonon eigenfrequencies are complex. It is likely that this framework will relax when represented in a lower-symmetry space group.

An interesting (and with hindsight, obvious) trend becomes apparent from some of the graphs in Figure 10. The graphs in Figures 10b and 10f are extensions of the **LTA** framework, obtained by adding more cubes between the sodalite cages. This trend continues for  $n_T \geq 3$ , where graphs with 5 cubes separating sodalite cages are found. The significance of this simple example is that many (but certainly not all) of the more complex (higher  $n_T$ ) polynodal frameworks turn out to be extended tilings of simpler frameworks.

A more complex example of this trend is shown in Figure 11. Figure 11a shows graph 225\_6\_22585, which is a hybrid of the **SOD** and **LTA** frameworks. Cubic blocks comprising eight sodalite cages interconnect via cubes (double 4-rings) in the manner of the **LTA** framework. Figure 11b shows graph 225\_6\_22665, which is a more elaborate hybrid, comprising elements of **SOD**, **LTA** and **CAN**. Inspection shows that these two frameworks can be transformed into each other by a simple bonding re-arrangement of the sodalite/double

4-ring assembly, to turn it into a cancrinite/double 6-ring/single 4-ring assembly. Each transformation involves eight sodalite/double 4-ring assemblies. In principle, the transformation could be applied aperiodically, 8 units at a time, to produce an infinite number of related frameworks.

Many of the higher energy frameworks are fascinating, even though they are unlikely zeolite candidates. Figure 12 shows framework 191\_3\_786. Its framework energy is 1.41 eV per  $\text{SiO}_2$  relative to quartz (GULP). The framework is built from corner connected double 4-ring and double 3-ring prisms. To collect frameworks such as this it is necessary to set a high energy threshold, much higher than any actual  $\text{SiO}_2$  based material will tolerate.

## 4. Discussion and Conclusions

The symmetry constrained intersite bond search (SCIBS) method identifies all periodic 4-connected graphs given a space group type and the number of unique vertices (T-atoms). In the implementation used here, we have imposed an additional constraint that no edges (T–T bonds) starting in the fundamental region can extend beyond the immediate neighbouring images of the fundamental region. This latter restriction will cause some legitimate graphs to be missed in some space group,  $n_T$ , combinations. We conjecture that the missing graphs are found in lower symmetry space groups, or in the same space group with an increased number of unique vertices. This appears to be a reasonable claim since all graphs can be found eventually, albeit inefficiently, in space group  $P1$  (No. 1) if enough unique vertices are used.

The inevitable combinatorial explosion of graphs as  $n_T$  is increased, limits the SCIBS method, as implemented in this study, to about  $n_T = 4$  for most space groups. This number can be increased for high symmetry space groups that are rich in mirror planes. For space group  $Pm\bar{3}m$  (No. 225), graphs up to  $n_T = 7$  have been obtained. However, this success is tempered by the sobering fact that the **MFI** framework, in space group  $Pnma$  (No. 62), has  $n_T = 12$  topologically distinct T-atoms. Most zeolites in the *Atlas of Zeolite Framework Types*, 5th ed., [14] have  $n_T \leq 5$ .

Some graphs can be rejected as being geometrically unfeasible by examining their topological properties alone, prior to any imbedding procedure. Graphs with an excessively high topological density can be rejected. One way to estimate the topological density is to compute  $TD_{10}$ , which is the sum of the first ten shells of the coordination sequence (plus the atom at the origin). Most zeolites have  $TD_{10} \leq 1000$ . Quartz, which is not microporous, has  $TD_{10} = 1230$ . It is common to find graphs that have  $TD_{10} \geq 4000$ . Such graphs can not be imbedded in space as reasonable crystal structures, and can be rejected without further inspection. Graphs corresponding to packings of balls, tubes and sheets can be readily identified, and were rejected for this study. In addition, graphs whose bonding operators impose planar symmetry on all four bonded neighbors can be detected. Such graphs can never be represented as regular tetrahedral structures. However, such structures are of chemical interest [15, 16, 35], even though they are unlikely candidates as  $SiO_2$  structures. It is hoped that additional topological properties can be identified that signal unlikely imbeddings.

The rate limiting step in our present work is the imbedding by our hybrid parallel tempering and genetic algorithm. Two 800 MHz G4 Macintosh computers took 4 months to anneal 400,000 graphs. Most of the effort was focused on the  $Pm\bar{3}m$ ,  $n_T = 6$  dataset. Significant progress is anticipated with the recent acquisition of a 32-node 2.66 GHz computer cluster that is dedicated to the SCIBS and imbedding problem. It is hoped that other imbedding techniques, such as tree searches, will help speed up the process.

From our results to date, we observe that frameworks with  $n_T \geq 2$  are frequently extensions of the simpler tilings found in the known zeolites. Examples presented here are the cube extensions of the **LTA** framework (Figure 10) and the intergrowths of the **LTA** and **SOD** frameworks (Figure 11a). Delgado-Friedrichs and coworkers [9, 12, 20] have enumerated 4-connected nets by tiling simple polyhedra. Their method has been extended to encompass frameworks such as quartz and cristobalite, by considering tilings of quasi-simple polyhedra – that is, polyhedral-like tiles that possess vertices with only two edges instead of the usual three. The tiling approach is attractive since many zeolite frameworks can be decomposed into quasi-simple polyhedral tilings. Further, since the preferred geometry of the polyhedra



is known, it is relatively straightforward to confirm whether or not the tiling can be realized as a regular tetrahedral framework. It seems that the tiling method should be more efficient at finding frameworks of the type shown in Figures 11 and 12. The subset of graphs that are simple polyhedral tilings can be identified in our lists of SCIBS generated graphs since they tend to have the simplest vertex symbols, with few multiple rings subtending any one intervertex angle. However, not all low energy frameworks are simple tilings.

Clearly, the SCIBS method of this study, and the tiling method of Delgado-Friedrichs and coworkers, represent different strategies for searching the same graph space. From the viewpoint of this study, the tiling method offers an efficient pre-filter of graphs, selecting only that subset that conform to the polyhedral tilings that are commonly observed in the known zeolite frameworks. It is our observation that graphs with simple vertex symbols tend to refine well to make nice frameworks, but not always. However, graphs with complicated vertex symbols (quartz and cristobalite are examples) also refine well. Although it has been shown that tilings of quasi-simple polyhedra can capture these latter two frameworks, it is not clear if the tiling technique can effectively identify all the regular tetrahedral frameworks. The SCIBS method clearly does, but with the penalty that only a small fraction of graphs encode regular tetrahedral frameworks.

Both methods require an imbedding step. Foster and coworkers used the GULP program to refine the tilings of Delgado-Friedrichs et al [9]. Here we used a series of refinement procedures, finishing with a GULP refinement of the likely candidates. Repeated test runs of our refinement procedures on a subset of the  $Pm\bar{3}m$ ,  $n_T = 6$  graphs (with over 60 degrees of freedom), show that our refinement method is probably missing as many as 50% of the plausible graphs in this dataset. We are exploring methods to improve the starting configuration of refinements, such as the aforementioned tree searches, which may improve convergence rates of the annealing step.

The  $\sim 10,000$  successfully refined frameworks obtained in this study are being assembled into a web-based database. It is expected that this core database, along with the additional frameworks found by the computer cluster, will soon be made publicly available.

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  - Si core 4.00000
  - O core 0.86902
  - O shel -2.86902
  - buck
  - Si core O shel 1283.907 0.32052 10.66158 0.0 10.0
  - O shel O shel 22764.00 0.14900 27.87900 0.0 12.0
  - three

Si core O shel O shel 2.09724 109.47 1.9 1.9 3.5  
spring  
O 74.92.

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TABLE I: Refinement of framework No. 191\_4\_5828  $a = 18.312 \text{ \AA}$ ,  $c = 17.544 \text{ \AA}$ . 0.212 eV/SiO<sub>2</sub> relative to quartz (GULP).

Atom	$x$	$y$	$z$
Si1	0.350050	0.094353	0.086428
Si2	0.466690	0.097798	0.212057
Si3	0.498900	0.167425	0.374250
Si4	0.362464	0.096399	0.500000
O1	0.382520	0.099484	0.000000
O2	0.311584	0.155792	0.097939
O3	0.276119	0.000000	0.106155
O4	0.429821	0.124286	0.141333
O5	0.560001	0.120003	0.187515
O6	0.409460	0.000000	0.232232
O7	0.469805	0.149395	0.286724
O8	0.574516	0.149033	0.391799
O9	0.530165	0.265083	0.392088
O10	0.419047	0.107960	0.426097
O11	0.283289	0.000000	0.500000
O12	0.330168	0.165084	0.500000

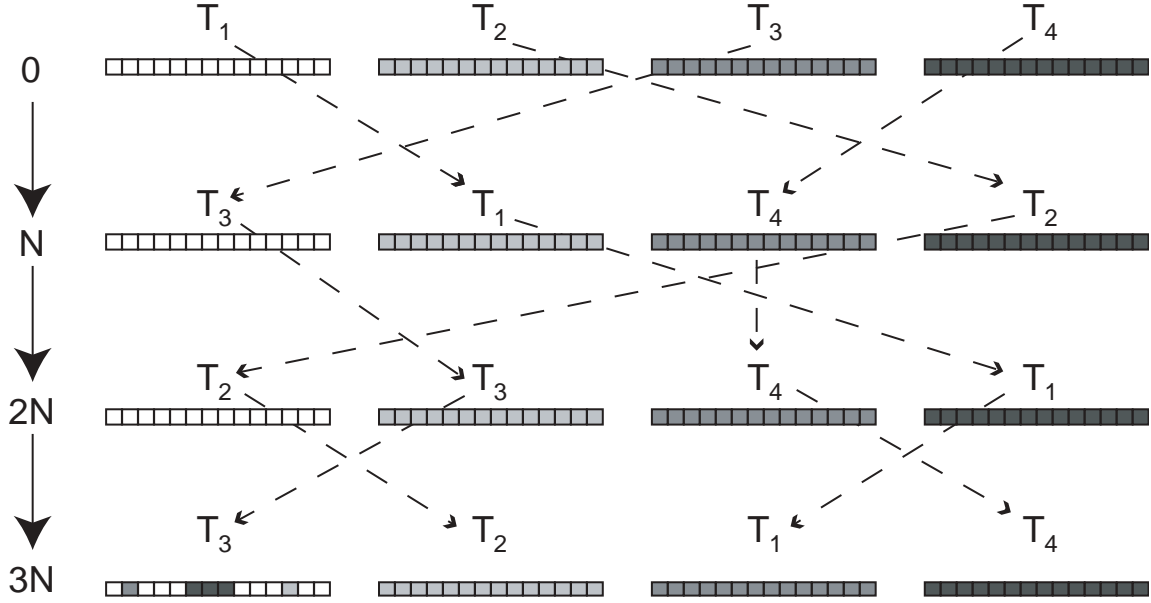


FIG. 1: Illustration of the parallel anneal with gene swapping. Each anneal is at a different temperature, and operates on a parameter list that represents the degrees of freedom for the framework (represented as a grid of boxes). After a certain number of steps,  $N$ , the temperatures of each anneal swap with a likelihood given by a Boltzmann-type factor, which depends on the temperature and energy of the best result for each anneal. Parameters corresponding to unit cell dimensions and  $\text{SiO}_4$  units (“genes”) are swapped from the higher energy lists into the lowest energy list. If the energy is lowered further by such gene inheritance, the gene-modified parameter list is kept.

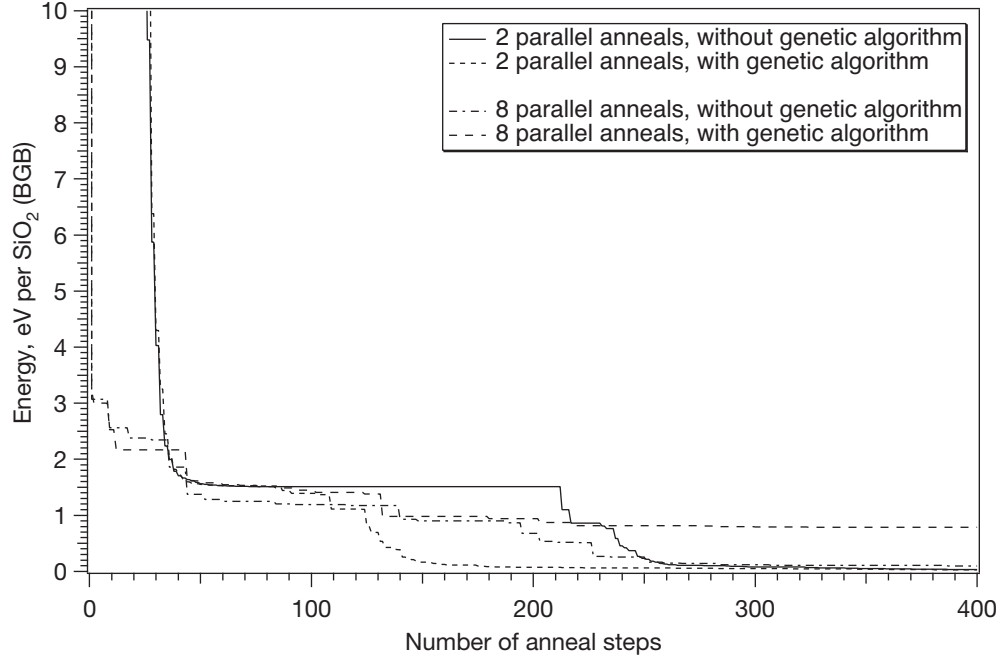


FIG. 2: Anneal progress for LTL framework (191.2\_14). Generally, increased refinement effort improves the chances of obtaining the lowest framework energy. However, as illustrated here, increased effort does not guarantee a successful refinement. However, failures such as this are unusual.



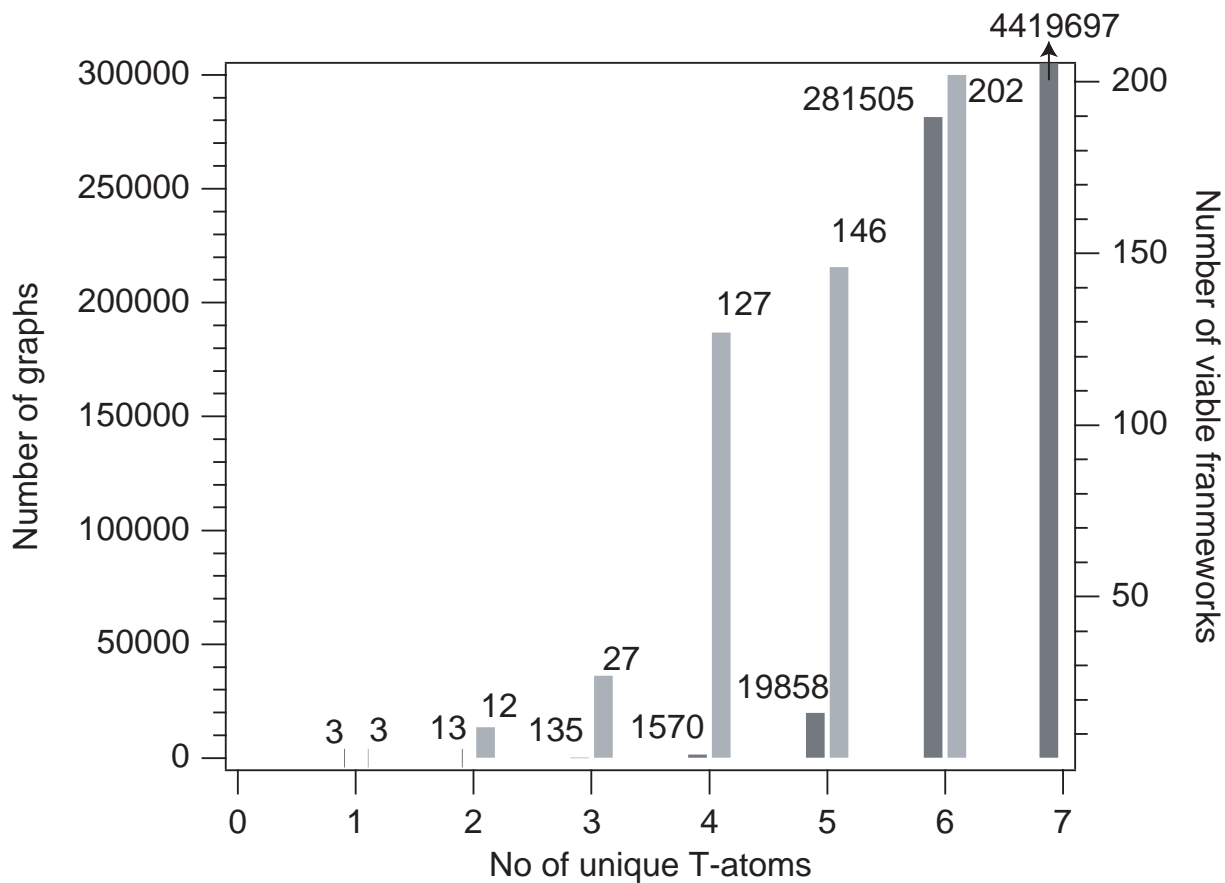


FIG. 3: Number of graphs versus the number of unique T-atoms,  $n_T$  for space group  $Pm\bar{3}m$  (No. 225). The numbers to the left at each  $n_T$  value is the number of graphs found. The number to the right is the number of graphs successfully refined to an energy below 0.1 eV per SiO<sub>2</sub> (mBGB). Graphs for  $n_T=7$  were not refined in this study.

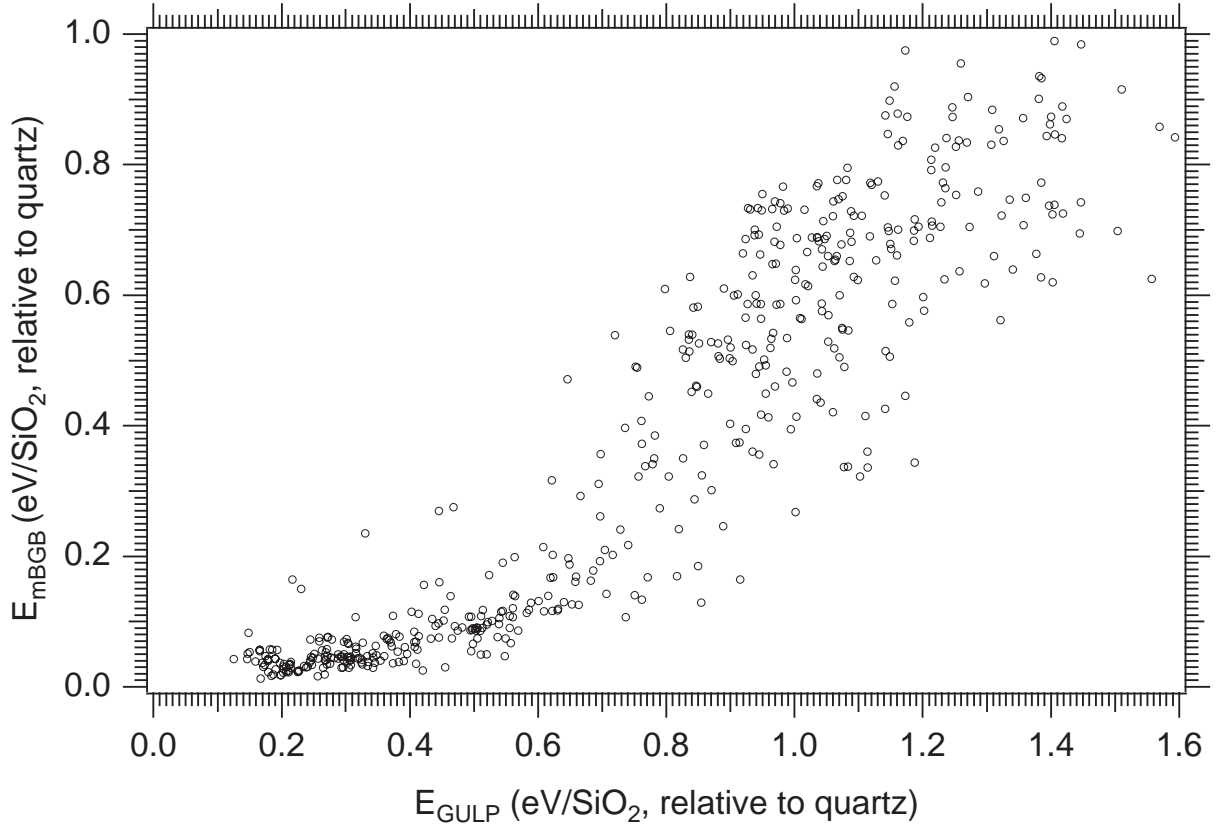


FIG. 4: mBGB energy versus GULP energy for 513 graphs in space group  $P6/mmm$  for  $n_{\text{T}}=3$ . At low energies the mBGB energy is about one-sixth of the GULP energy.

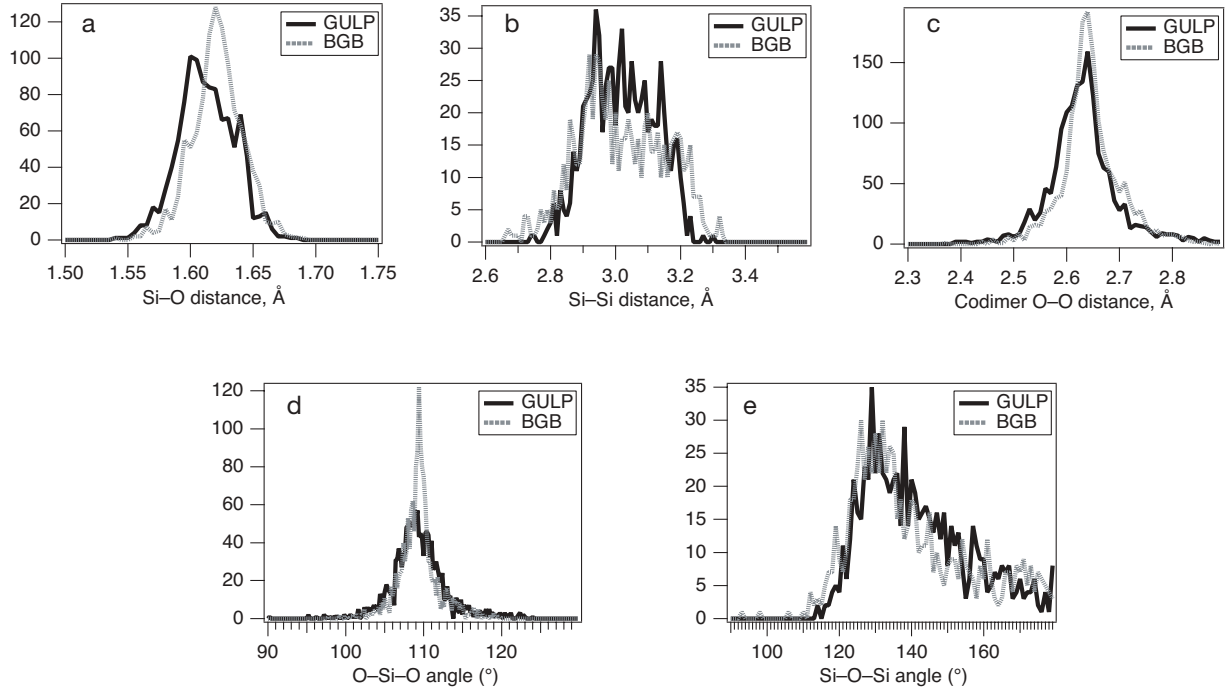


FIG. 5: Comparison of framework statistics under mBGB and GULP refinements. The mBGB cost function favors slightly longer Si-O bond distances, and a narrower spread in O-Si-O angles, than does the potential function used in GULP.

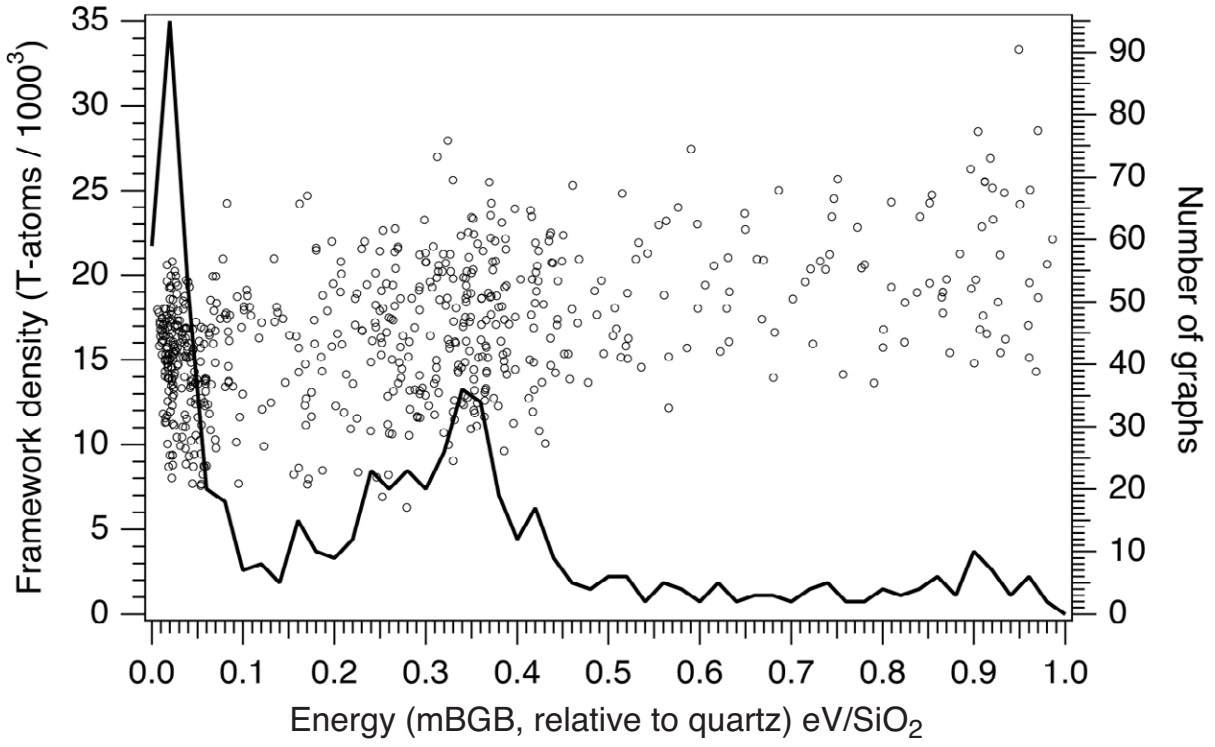


FIG. 6: Framework density and distribution of graphs as a function of mBGB energy.

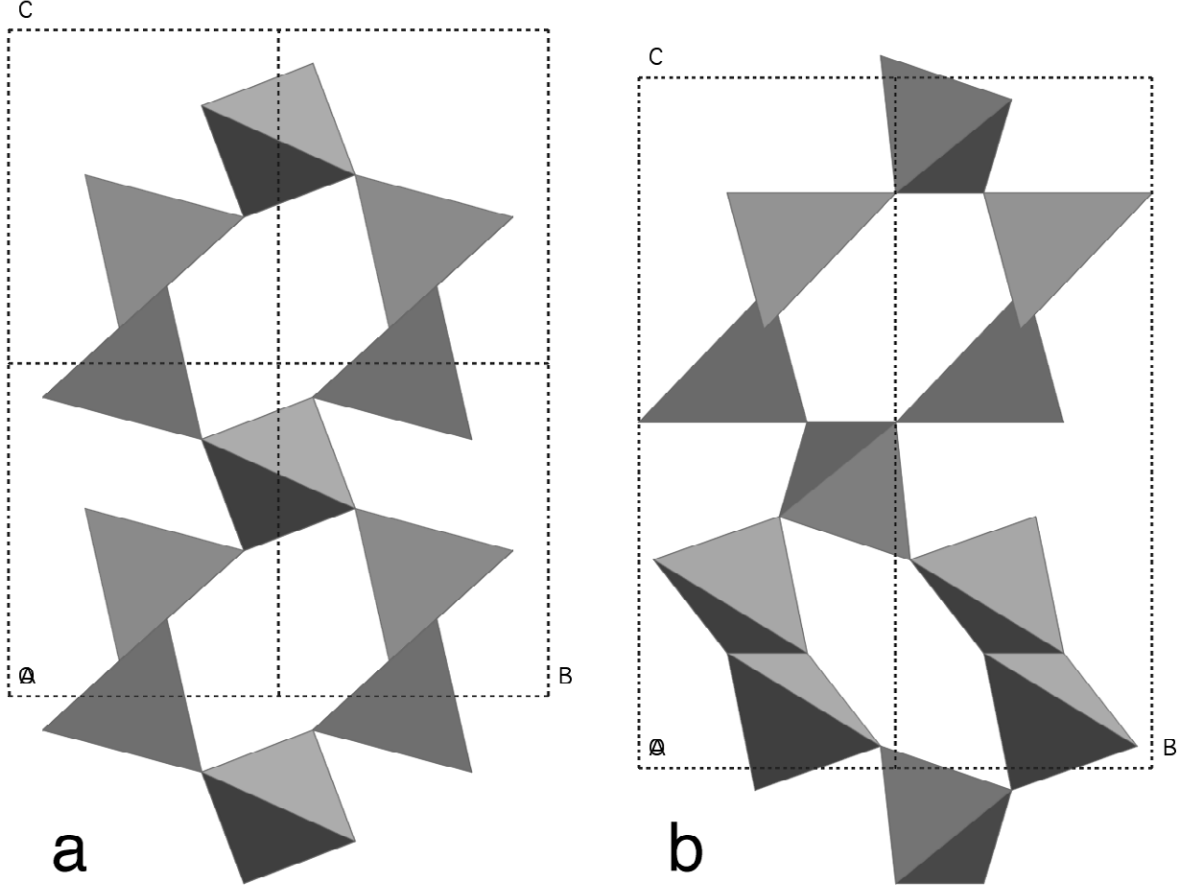


FIG. 7: Two uninodal frameworks ( $n_T = 1$ ) in space group  $P3_211$  (No. 154) that have the same coordination sequences out to the sixteenth shell, and the same vertex symbols. a) Quartz framework, graph number 154\_1\_24,  $a = 4.9051 \text{ \AA}$ ,  $c = 5.2499 \text{ \AA}$ , Si at  $(0.46116, 0.46116, 0.0)$ . Framework energy  $0.0011 \text{ eV per SiO}_2$  (mBGB). b) Framework 154\_1\_18,  $a = 4.6657 \text{ \AA}$ ,  $c = 10.878 \text{ \AA}$ , Si at  $(0.20834, 0.57485, 0.08027)$ . Framework energy  $0.785 \text{ eV per SiO}_2$  (mBGB). The tetrahedra are noticeably deformed in this latter graph.

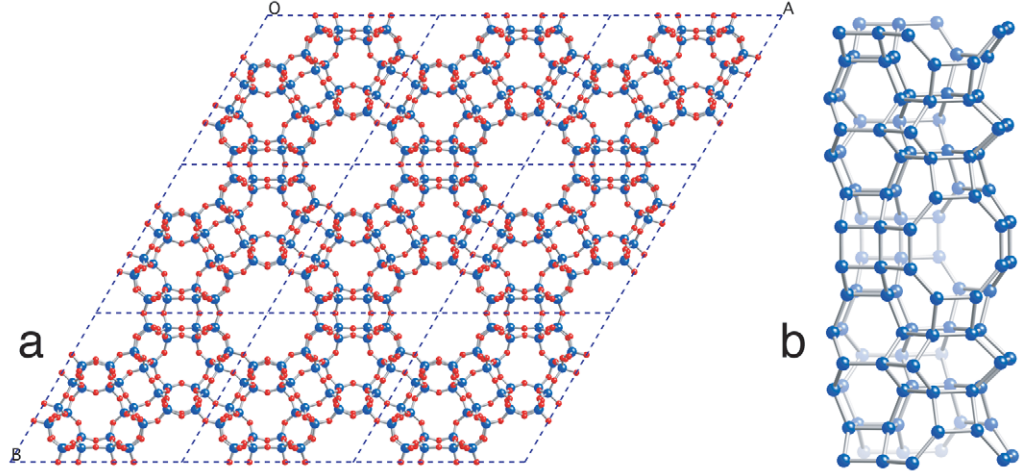


FIG. 8: View of framework 191\_4\_5828. (a)  $c$ -axis projection. (b) Side view of one of the structural columns showing the presence of cancrinite cages and double 8-ring units. The structural parameters are given in Table 1.

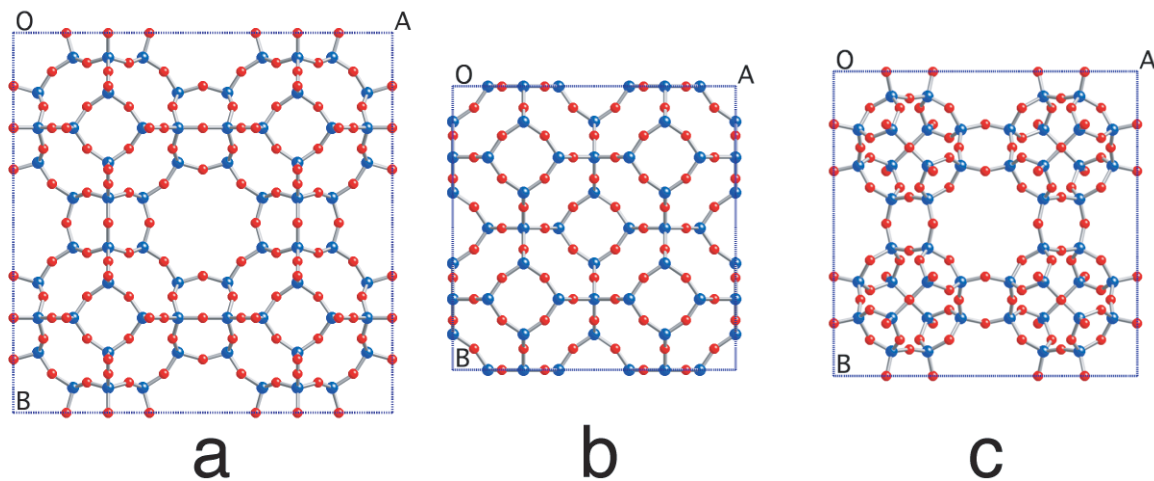


FIG. 9:  $c$ -axis views of the 3 refined uninodal graphs for  $Pm\bar{3}m$  (No. 225),  $n_T = 1$ . (a) **LTA**. (b) **SOD**. (c) Hypothetical framework 225\_1\_3, equivalent to framework #33 of the O'Keeffe uninodal database [2, 36–39], framework #89 of reference [8], and framework 1.35 in Foster et al. [40].

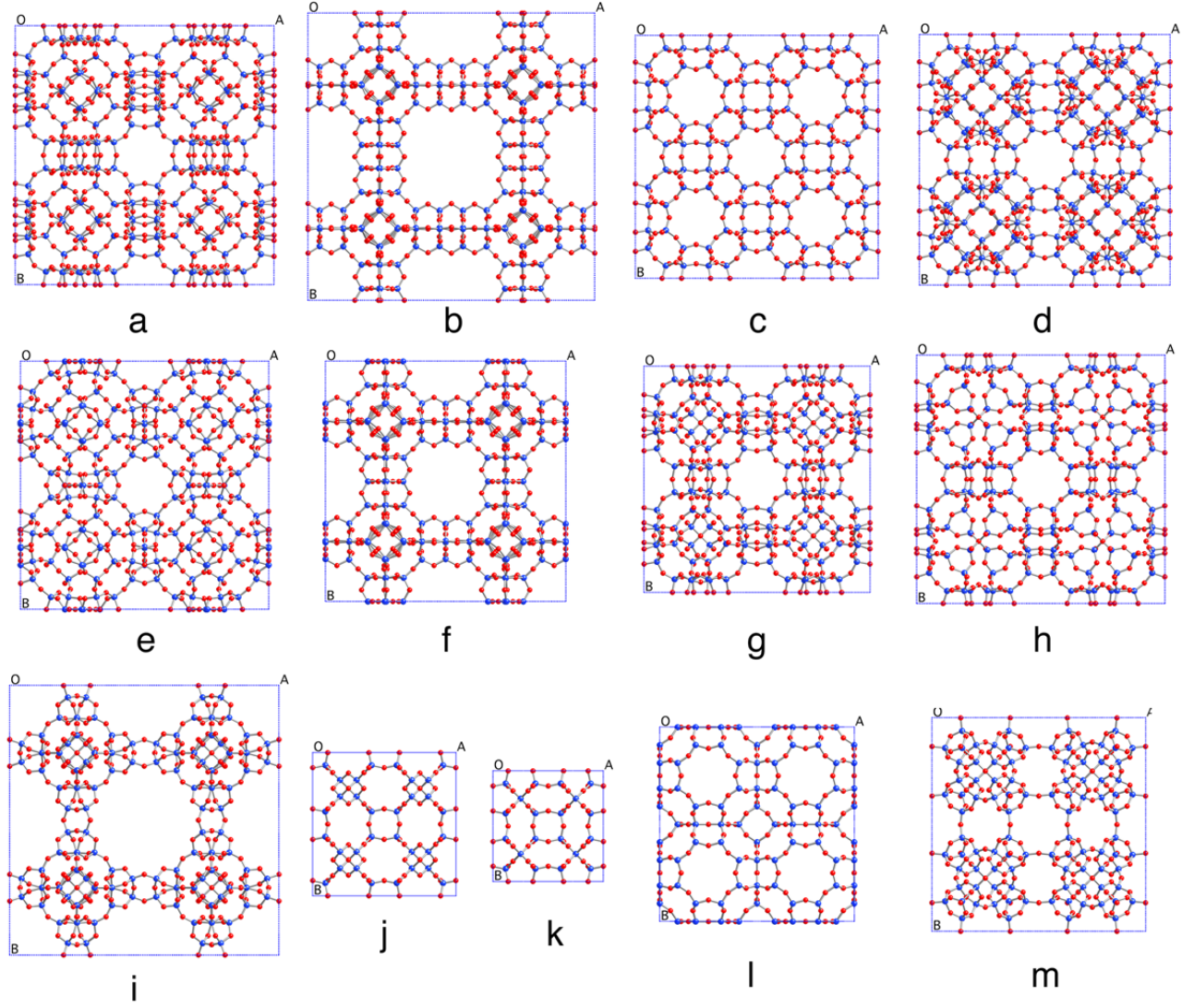


FIG. 10:  $c$ -axis views of the 13 refined graphs 225\_2.1 to 225\_2.13 for space group  $Pm\bar{3}m$  (No. 225),  $n_T = 2$ .



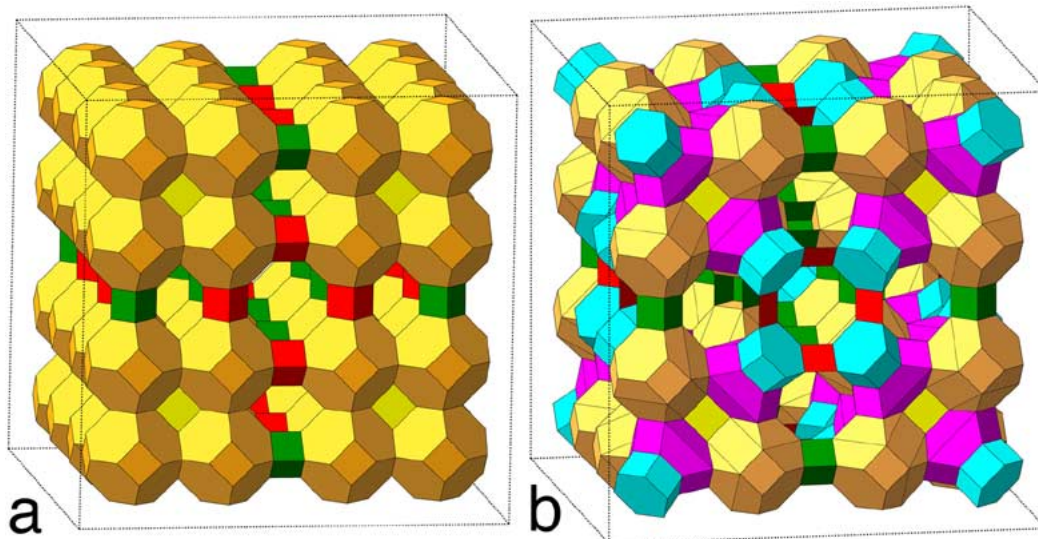


FIG. 11: (a) Framework 225\_6\_22585, a hybrid of the **SOD** and **LTA** frameworks. (b) Framework 225\_6\_22665, a hybrid of the **SOD**, **LTA** and **CAN** frameworks. A simple transformation converts one framework into the other.

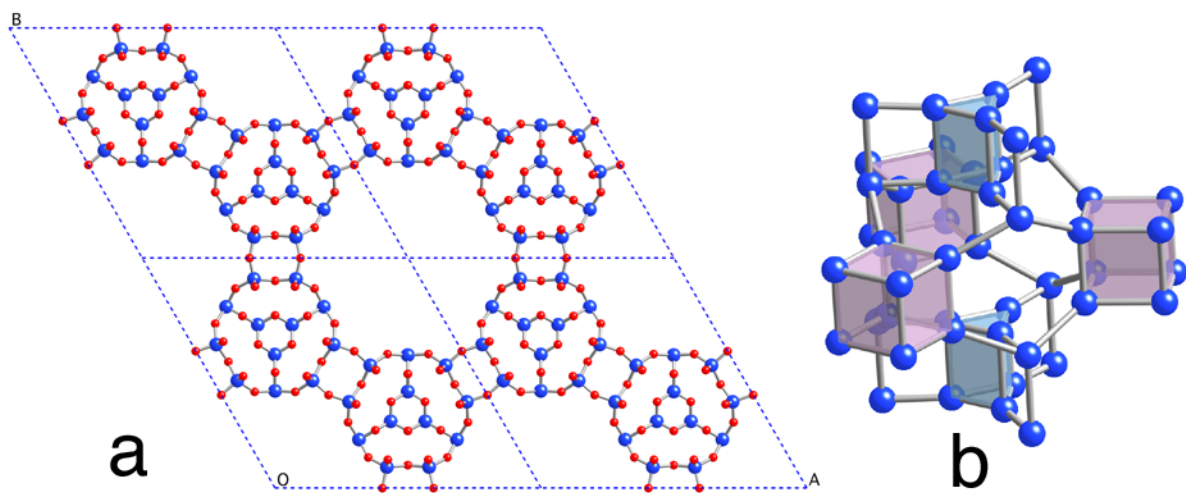


FIG. 12: Framework 191\_3-786, a high energy framework (1.41 eV per  $\text{SiO}_2$  (GULP)) built from double 4-ring cubes and double 3-ring prisms.