

CHEMICAL BONDING CHARACTER OF THE NETWORK FORMING BONDS IN OXIDE GLASSES

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ABSTRACT

Chemical bonding character of the glass network forming M–O bonds (M = Si, B, Ge, and Al) was evaluated based on the Mulliken population analyses, in which the bond overlap population Q_{MO} was obtained from the molecular orbital calculations. It was found in alkali silicates that the interaction of alkali ion with bridging oxygen reduced Q_{SiO} in Si–O–Si bridging bonds, and Q_{SiO} in Si–O–Na terminal bonds was much larger than that in Si–O–Si bridges. In M–O–M bridges, that is, Si–O–Si, B₃–O–B₃, B₄–O–B₄, Ge₄–O–Ge₄ (B_n, Ge_n: n-fold coordinated boron and germanium), Q_{MO} was distributed around 0.6 ± 0.1 . In M–O–M' bridges formed by the heterogeneous combinations of B₃–O–B₄, Ge₄–O–Ge₅, Ge₄–O–Ge₆, Si–O–B₄, and Si–O–Al₄, Q_{MO} of M–O bond was larger than $Q_{M'O}$ of M'–O bond, and the difference between Q_{MO} and $Q_{M'O}$ was about 0.2. It was suggested that the disproportional sharing of electrons reflected the π -bonding character, that is, more electrons were localized on the bonds with larger π -bonding character.

INTRODUCTION

When alkali oxide such as Na₂O is added to SiO₂, bridging oxygens (BOs) in Si–O–Si bonds are consumed to form non-bridging oxygens (NBOs). NBO possesses a unit negative charge, and alkali ions interact with NBO to compensate the negative charge on NBO. Hence, it has been widely accepted that ionicity of glass increases with increasing alkali content. In Na₂O–SiO₂ glass,^{1,2} O1s core-orbital signal observed in XPS is clearly separated into two components assigned to BO and NBO. The relative intensity of the peaks varies depending on the glass composition, and at the same time the peak position also shifts continuously. In general, the peak position, that is, the binding energy of core orbitals is associated with the chemical bonding character and atomic charge.^{3,4} For instance, the shift of O1s signal to the lower binding energy side has been routinely interpreted as the increase in electron population of oxide ions which was caused by the increase in ionicity of O–M bonds. It is widely known that O1s signal in Na₂O–SiO₂ glass shifts to lower binding energy side with increasing Na₂O content. According to the conventional interpretation, the ionicity of the glass increases, that is, oxide ions get more electrons from the neighboring cations, silicon and sodium ions. Hence, the O1s chemical shift experimentally confirmed in Na₂O–SiO₂ glass is apparently consistent with the traditional recognition for the chemical bonding character of glass. If the interpretation is true, the cations should lost electrons and donate them to oxide ions, and it is hence expected that Si2p and Na1s signals shift to the opposite direction from O1s signal. Contrary to the expectation, it

is experimentally confirmed that all the signals shift to the same direction, that is, lower binding energy side with increasing Na_2O content (Figs. 1 and 2).⁵

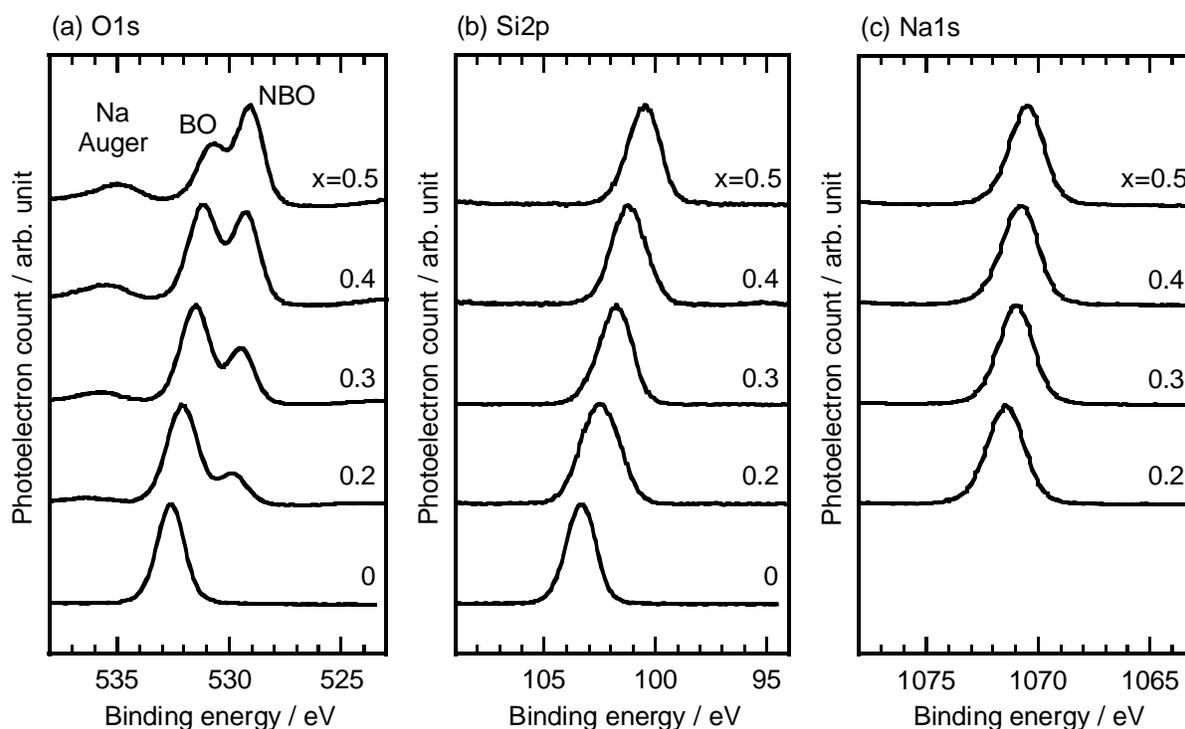


Figure 1. XPS photoelectron spectra for $x\text{Na}_2\text{O}\cdot(1-x)\text{SiO}_2$ glass.⁵

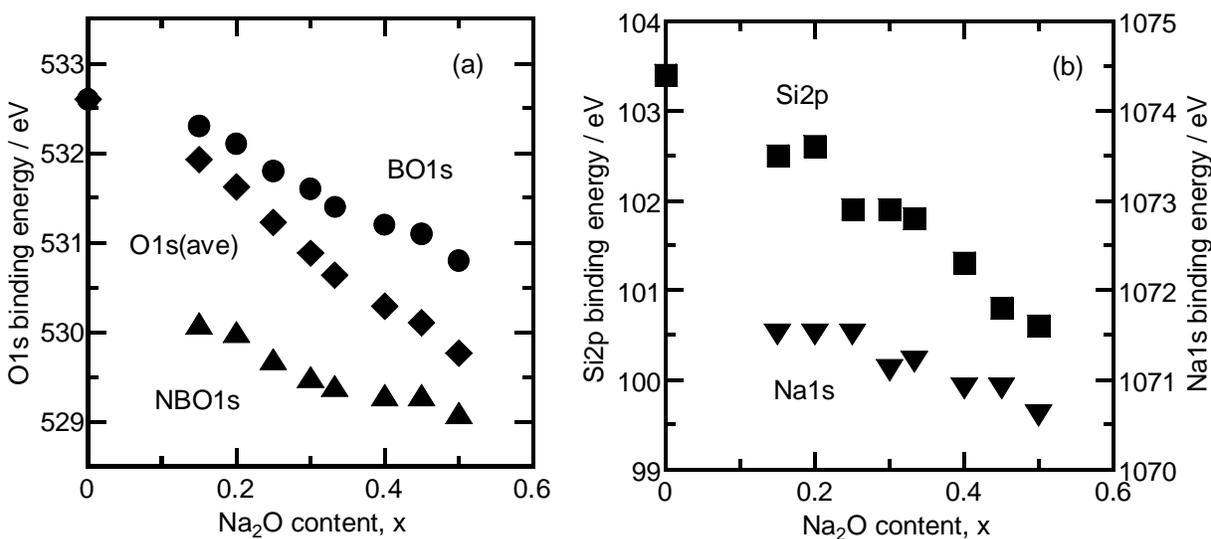


Figure 2. XPS chemical shifts for $x\text{Na}_2\text{O}\cdot(1-x)\text{SiO}_2$ glass.⁵

For the past decade, the author's research group has been working on the investigation of electronic states and chemical bonding character of various glasses on the basis of experiments and simulations. We have found some inconsistencies between the experimental findings and

conventional understandings.^{5,6} The XPS chemical shift above mentioned is an example of the inconsistencies. We have performed molecular orbital (MO) calculations, obtaining theoretical interpretations for the experimental findings.⁷⁻⁹ In the present paper, the results of the MO calculations are introduced to interpret the chemical bonding characters of the network forming bonds, such as Si–O, B–O, Ge–O, and Al–O bonds in oxide glasses.

INVESTIGATION PROCEDURES

MO calculations were performed by using the discrete variational $X\alpha$ (DV- $X\alpha$) method.¹⁰ It is based on density functional theory, and in the method the Slater's exchange-correlation potential¹¹ $V_{xc}(\mathbf{r})$ is used.

$$V_{xc}(\mathbf{r}) = -3\alpha \left\{ \frac{3}{4\pi} \rho(\mathbf{r}) \right\}^{1/3} \quad (1)$$

where $\rho(\mathbf{r})$ is the electron density at the position \mathbf{r} and α is the exchange scaling constant, fixed at 0.7. By virtue of simplicity of the approximate expression, computational time is remarkably reduced, and even in large clusters ab-initio calculations are carried out without any empirical parameters.

Cluster models were constructed from the respective crystal structures. The cluster size, that is, the number of atoms in a cluster was chosen as an objective atom was surrounded by at least two layers of MO_n network-forming polyhedra. The cluster was also embedded in Madelung potential to reduce the bond termination effects. Chemical bonding character was evaluated by the Mulliken population analysis,¹² and the population analyses were done only for the atoms around the center of the clusters in order to reduce the effects of bond termination. According to the Mulliken population analysis, chemical bonding character of a bond A–B was evaluated by net charge, ΔQ_A and bond overlap population, Q_{AB} ,

$$\Delta Q_A = Z_A - Q_A, \quad Q_A = \sum_{i \in A} Q_i, \quad Q_i = \sum_l Q_i^l, \quad Q_i^l = \sum_j Q_{ij}^l \quad (2)$$

$$Q_{AB} = 2 \sum_{i \in A, j \in B} Q_{ij}, \quad Q_{ij} = \sum_l Q_{ij}^l \quad (3)$$

$$Q_{ij}^l = n_l c_{il} c_{jl} S_{ij} \quad (4)$$

where Q_{ij}^l is the partial overlap population, that is, electronic population of the overlapped region between the atomic orbitals χ_i and χ_j in the molecular orbital ϕ_l , which is the product of n_l : the number of electrons in MO ϕ_l (usually $n_l = 2$), c_{il} and c_{jl} : the contribution of atomic orbitals χ_i and χ_j in MO ϕ_l , and S_{ij} : the overlap integral between χ_i and χ_j . In Eq. 2, Q_A is the gross atomic population or gross atomic charge on an atom A, which is given by the sum of atomic orbital population Q_i . Subtracting Q_A from atomic number Z_A , that is, the number of electrons in the neutral state, the net charge ΔQ_A is obtained.

CHANGE IN THE CHEMICAL BONDING CHARACTER DUE TO ALKALI ADDITION

As mentioned, when an alkali oxide such as Na_2O is added to SiO_2 , NBOs are formed in SiO_4 units. As shown in Fig. 1, O1s XPS signal is separated into BO and NBO components, and the NBO component increases in relative intensity with increasing Na_2O content. As also shown

in Fig. 2(a), it is noteworthy that both O1s components shift to a lower binding energy side, suggesting that the electronic state of oxide ions changes continuously along with alkali addition. It is also shown in Fig. 2(b) that Si2p and Na1s signals move in the same direction as O1s signal, indicating an increase in the atomic population, that is, electronic density at outer shells of all the glass constituents, BO, NBO, Si, and Na atoms. This phenomenon is not explainable by the conventional knowledge that the ionicity of chemical bonds in glass increases due to alkali addition. It is therefore assumed that the phenomenon is caused by the increase in bond covalency rather than the increase in bond ionicity; the increase in electrons shared between atoms leads to the increase in atomic population of all the glass constituents.

Then, MO calculations were performed to evaluate the change in the chemical bonding character of Si–O bonds due to the alkali addition,⁷ where three cluster models were constructed based on the silicate crystals, α -cristobalite SiO_2 ,¹³ α - $\text{Na}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5$,¹⁴ and Na_2SiO_3 .¹⁵ Overlap population diagrams of Si–O bonds in the clusters are shown in Fig. 3. The BOs in Si–O–Si bridges are classified into two types, that is, BOs associated with no Na atoms (BO1) and BOs associated with Na atoms (BO2). In Fig. 3, bond overlap populations Q_{SiO} are also indicated. For example, Q_{SiBO1} in SiO_2 is 0.628, which is obtained by the sum of Q_{SiO} of bonding (positive) and anti-bonding (negative) overlaps, $0.654 - 0.025$. Q_{SiO} increases in the order of Si–BO2, Si–BO1 and Si–NBO, indicating that the terminal Si–NBO bonds have higher covalency than the bridging Si–BO bonds. The contribution of anti-bonding overlap on overlap population diagram is small but clearly seen around the top of the occupied levels (~ 5 eV) in Si–BO bonds. With increasing Na_2O content, Q_{SiBO1} decreases and Q_{SiNBO} increases, but the variations are quite small. The variation in Q_{SiBO2} along is larger as compared with the other Si–O bonds. As shown in Fig. 4, BO2 in $\text{Na}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5$ is associated with one Na atom, but BO2 in Na_2SiO_3 has two Na atoms as neighbors. It is suggested that the interaction with alkali ions enhances anti-bonding overlap in Si–BO bonds and weakens Si–O–Si bridges, and it is also expected that Si–O–Si bridges are broken to form terminal Si–NBO bonds when BO meets three or more Na atoms.

According to the variation in the bond overlap population Q_{SiO} along with alkali addition, Si–NBO bonds increases slightly in Q_{SiO} , indicating an increase in bond covalency, and Si–BO bonds, however, decreases in Q_{SiO} , indicating a decrease in bond covalency. As shown in Fig. 2, both the O1s components BO and NBO move to the same direction, which tells us the XPS chemical shift is not simply interpreted by the chemical bonding character. The XPS chemical shift is also discussed based on atomic charge.⁴ According to the MO calculations, the net charge ΔQ_A estimated from Eq. 2 decreases for Si, Na and BO with increasing Na_2O content, but only NBO shows the opposite change in ΔQ_A . The decrease in ΔQ_A means acquisition of electrons which are donated from or shared with the neighbors. The decrease of ΔQ_A for Si results from the increase in the total amount of electrons shared with the neighboring oxygen atoms. The gross atomic population given by Eq. 2 is rewritten as $Q_A = Q_{\text{AA}} + \frac{1}{2}\sum Q_{\text{AB}}$, where Q_{AA} is the net atomic population, that is, the electronic population localized on atom A and is also given by Eq. 3. Si atoms in SiO_4 units have no lone pair electrons so that the variation in Q_{AA} is negligible and the total amount of shared electrons $\frac{1}{2}\sum Q_{\text{AB}}$ dominates Q_A . When NBO is formed in an SiO_4 unit, that is, Si–NBO bond replaces Si–BO bond, $\frac{1}{2}\sum Q_{\text{SiO}}$ for Si in the SiO_4 unit increases, since Q_{SiNBO} is much higher than Q_{SiBO} . Finally, the net charge of Si, ΔQ_{Si}

decreases along with the formation of NBO, resulting in the lower binding energy shift of Si2p XPS signal in glass.

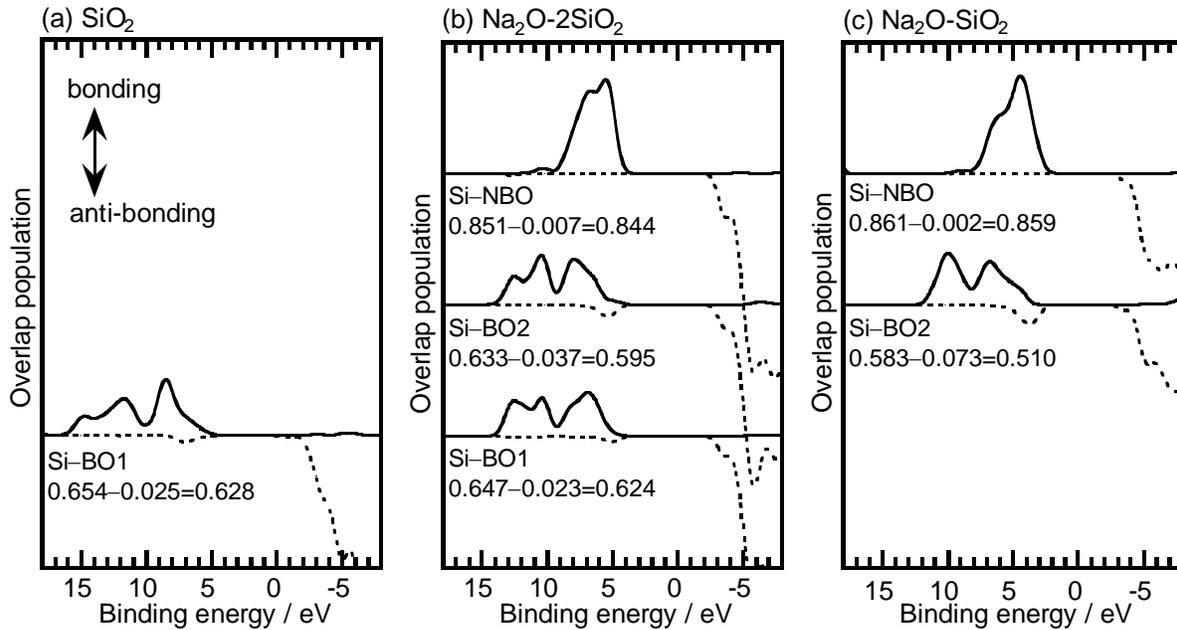


Figure 3. Overlap population diagrams of Si–O bonds in the cluster models constructed from the silicate crystals, (a) α -cristobalite SiO_2 , (b) α - $\text{Na}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5$, and (c) Na_2SiO_3 . BO1 and BO2 represent the bridging oxygen atoms associated without and with Na atoms, respectively. The continuous and broken lines indicate bonding and anti-bonding overlap, respectively. The numerical values indicate the bond overlap population, Q_{SiO} estimated from Eq. 3.

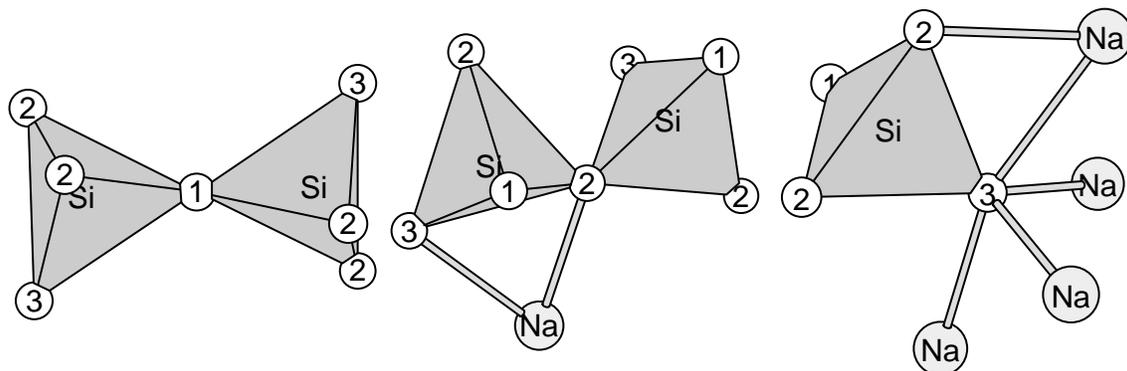


Figure 4. Three oxygen sites in α - $\text{Na}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5$. 1: bridging oxygen (BO1 in Fig. 3), 2: bridging oxygen associated with Na (BO2 in Fig. 3), 3: non-bridging oxygen (NBO in Fig. 3).

CHEMICAL BONDING CHARACTER AND COORDINATION STRUCTURE

It is well known that the coordination number of boron atoms changes along with alkali addition; in alkali-free glass, boron atoms take the coordination number of 3, and the relative amount of tetrahedral boron atoms, N_4 ($= [\text{B}_4]/[\text{B}_3]+[\text{B}_4]$), increases without forming NBOs until alkali content = 30 mol% (B_n : n -fold coordinated boron). Only at higher alkali content, N_4 decreases with the formation of NBOs. In alkali germanate glasses, the structural changes along

with the composition are quite similar to borate glasses; it has been commonly accepted that Ge atoms take the coordination numbers of 4 and 6 in glass, but recently it was reported that 5-fold coordinated Ge atoms were produced ahead of octahedral Ge atoms.¹⁶ In general, properties of glass change monotonically depending on the composition, and in the case of borate and germanate glasses, however, extrema are often observed in various properties, such as thermal expansion coefficient and electrical conductivity. Those phenomena are well-known as borate and germanate anomalies. The anomalies were initially associated with the structural changes, but it was revealed that neither the change in coordination number nor the formation of NBO were the direct cause.¹⁷ In alkali borate glasses, the coordination number of boron reaches a maximum at 30 ~ 40 mol% of alkali oxide addition, and the extrema in properties are frequently observed at much less addition around 15 ~ 20 mol%. The anomalies in borate and germanate glasses should be interpreted based on the chemical bonding character and electronic states rather than the coordination structures. It is still undoubted that the electronic structure of a material depends on the atomic structure.

Then, the chemical bonding character was evaluated for the various bonding groups in borate and germanate crystals. Among borate crystals, pure B_2O_3 and diborate compositions were chosen. As for the pure B_2O_3 , the crystals so-called " B_2O_3 -I" and " B_2O_3 -II" were investigated. B_2O_3 -I¹⁸ is constructed by BO_3 triangles, but the boroxol rings which are confirmed in glass are not present in this crystal. B_2O_3 -II¹⁹ is a high pressure form, in which only tetrahedral BO_4 units form the network sharing their corners. In B_2O_3 -II, there are two oxygen sites; one is coordinated by two B4 atoms forming B4–O–B4 bridges, and the other is coordinated by three B4 atoms forming B4–O(–B4) \times 2, so-called "tricluster" units (Fig. 5). The tricluster oxygen has not been confirmed experimentally in borate glasses. It was assumed in borosilicate glasses,²⁰ but it should not be abundant even if present. Among the diborate crystals, Li, Na and K diborates were examined. Besides the boroxol group, various borate groups are found in borate glasses; for instance, diborate group in $Li_2OB_4O_7$,²¹ dipentaborate group and triborate group with NBO in $Na_2OB_4O_7$,²² and ditriborate group in $K_2OB_4O_7$.²³ These borate groups are formed by B3–O–B3, B3–O–B4, and B4–O–B4 bridges. Chemical bonding character of these bonds was evaluated by the MO calculations.

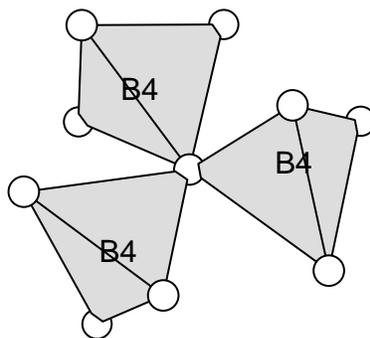


Figure 5. BO_4 "Tricluster" unit present in B_2O_3 - II.¹⁹

The bond overlap population Q_{B3O} of B3–O bonds in B3–O–B3 bridges is 0.64 in B_2O_3 -I and 0.59 in $Na_2B_4O_7$ (Fig. 6). As shown in Fig. 3, Q_{SiO} of Si–O bonds in Si–O–Si bridges decreases along with the Na_2O addition, which is due to the interaction with Na ions. In $Na_2B_4O_7$ crystal, oxygen atoms in B3–O–B3 bridges have an average of 1.5 Na ions as

neighbors, and it is therefore concluded that the decrease in Q_{B3O} in B3–O–B3 bridges is also caused by the interaction with alkali ions. Unfortunately, B3–O–B3 bridges are absent in $Li_2B_4O_7$ and $K_2B_4O_7$ crystals so that the dependence of alkali species on Q_{B3O} is not discussed. B4–O–B4 bridges are, however, commonly present in the diborate crystals, in which the difference in Q_{B4O} is smaller than 0.5 and Li-diborate shows higher Q_{B4O} than the other Na- and K-diborates. Except for B4–O–B4 in B_2O_3 -II, Q_{B4O} in B4–O–B4 bridges is smaller than Q_{B3O} in B3–O–B3 bridges. In general, Q_{AB} decreases with lengthening a bond A–B. The average B–O bond length is 0.139 nm in B3–O–B3 bridges and 0.145 nm in B4–O–B4 bridges. The general trend in Q_{AB} is also applicable to B–O bonds.

As compared with Q_{B3O} in B3–O–B3 bridge and Q_{B4O} in B4–O–B4 bridge, the difference between Q_{B3O} and Q_{B4O} in B3–O–B4 bridge is quite large; $0.68 - 0.48 = 0.20$ in Li-diborate, $0.67 - 0.50 = 0.17$ in Na-diborate, and $0.67 - 0.49 = 0.18$ in K-diborate. It means unequal electron sharing between B3–O and B4–O bonds in a B3–O–B4 bridge. In addition, Q_{B3O} in B3–O–B4 which is shown by B3–O(–B4) in Fig. 6 is higher than that in B3–O–B3, and Q_{B4O} in B3–O–B4 is smaller than that in B4–O–B4. As mentioned, B4–O bonds are longer than B3–O bonds, but the difference in bond length between B3–O and B4–O is significantly developed in B3–O–B4 bridge. It is supposed that the disproportion of Q_{BO} in B3–O–B4 bridge results from the difference in bonding character between B3–O and B4–O; in the conventional notation, B3 is in sp^2 hybrid, and hence the vacant B3 $2p_z$ overlaps with the neighboring O2p lone pairs, forming π -bonds. B4 is in sp^3 hybrid, and the π -bonding character of B4–O is therefore much smaller than that of B3–O. Consequently, electrons are disproportionately distributed between B3–O and B4–O bonds in B3–O–B4 bridge.

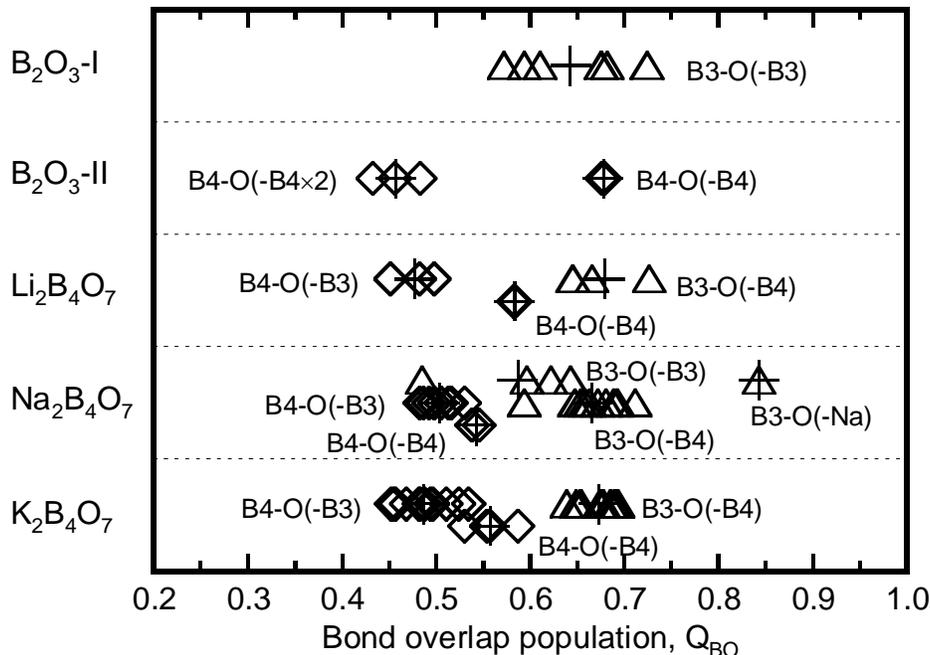


Figure 6. Bond overlap population of boron–oxygen bonds, Q_{BO} , obtained from the MO calculations. B_n represents n -fold coordinated boron, and B_n –O(– B_m) indicates B_n –O bond in B_n –O– B_m bridge. Cross markers indicate the average of open markers.

It is expected that there exists a similarity in the bonding character between the borate and germanate systems, because the compositional dependence of coordination number is in a similar fashion. If the bonding character is different, it is probably due to the difference in π -bonding character. In borates, B3–O bonds in trigonal BO_3 units have higher π -bonding character than B4–O bonds in tetrahedral BO_4 units, which is due to the overlap between vacant $\text{B}2p_z$ and $\text{O}2p$ perpendicular to the BO_3 triangle. In germanates, high π -bonding character in Ge4–O bonds in GeO_4 units is not expected, but Ge6–O bonds in GeO_6 units may have a higher π -bonding character than Ge4–O bonds, because Ge has a vacant 4d orbital which is available to form π -bonds. On the other hand, octahedral Ge6 atoms are sometimes regarded as a network modifier; if such the perspective is appropriate, Ge6–O bonds should have much smaller bond overlap population than Ge4–O bonds.

MO calculations were performed for the cluster models constructed from the germanate crystals with various coordination structures. Quartz- GeO_2 ²⁴ consists of tetrahedral GeO_4 units sharing their corners. Rutile- GeO_2 ²⁵ is formed by octahedral GeO_6 units sharing their edges, where oxygen atoms are coordinated by three Ge6 atoms. Among the alkali germanate binary crystals, $\text{K}_2\text{Ge}_8\text{O}_{17}$ ²⁶ is the only crystal containing 5-fold coordinated Ge5 atoms, in which two GeO_5 units share an edge between the units forming a dimeric $[\text{Ge}_2\text{O}_8]^{8-}$ unit (Fig. 7b). Oxygen atoms shown by Ge5–O(–Ge5) in Fig. 8 are located on the edge. $\text{Na}_4\text{Ge}_9\text{O}_{20}$ ²⁷ is formed by GeO_4 and GeO_6 units, where four GeO_6 units gather together forming a large tetragonal tetramer $[\text{Ge}_4\text{O}_{16}]^{16-}$ unit (Fig. 7c).

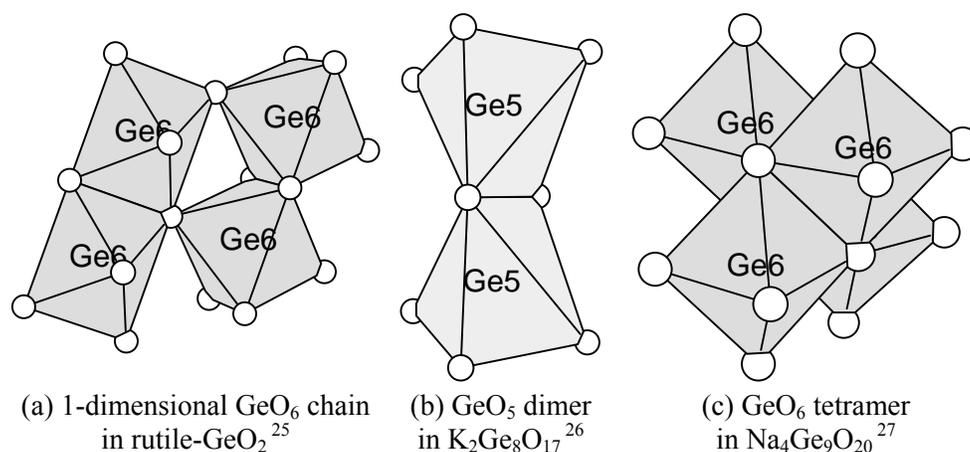


Figure 7. Various edge sharing units present in the germanate crystals.

The bond overlap population of Ge–O bonds, Q_{GeO} is summarized in Fig. 8. Except for rutile- GeO_2 , Ge4–O–Ge bridges are commonly present in the crystals investigated, and the difference in Q_{Ge4O} between the crystals is quite small, indicating the small influence of alkali ions on the bonding character of Ge4–O bonds. Q_{Ge6O} in Ge6–O(–Ge6 \times 2) is different between rutile- GeO_2 and $\text{Na}_4\text{Ge}_9\text{O}_{20}$ crystals, which is probably due to the difference in coordination structures rather than the interaction of alkali ions; in rutile- GeO_2 , GeO_6 units form 1-dimensional chains sharing their edges (Fig. 7a). As for the oxygen atoms coordinated by the Ge atoms with different coordination numbers, such as Ge4–O–Ge5 and Ge4–O–Ge6, a similar trend is observed, which is previously seen in B3–O–B4 bridges. In Ge4–O–Ge5 bridge, Q_{Ge4O}

is larger than Q_{Ge5O} , and is also larger than Q_{Ge4O} in Ge4–O–Ge4 bridge. A similar result is observed in Ge4–O–Ge6 bridge, but the difference in Q_{GeO} between Ge4–O–Ge4 and Ge4–O–Ge6 bridges in $\text{Na}_4\text{Ge}_9\text{O}_{20}$ is quite small as compared with $\text{K}_2\text{Ge}_8\text{O}_{17}$. Higher π -bonding character of Ge6–O bonds may be a reason for the difference in chemical bonding character between Ge6–O–Ge4 and Ge5–O–Ge4 bridges, and the actual reason is, however, still unexplained.

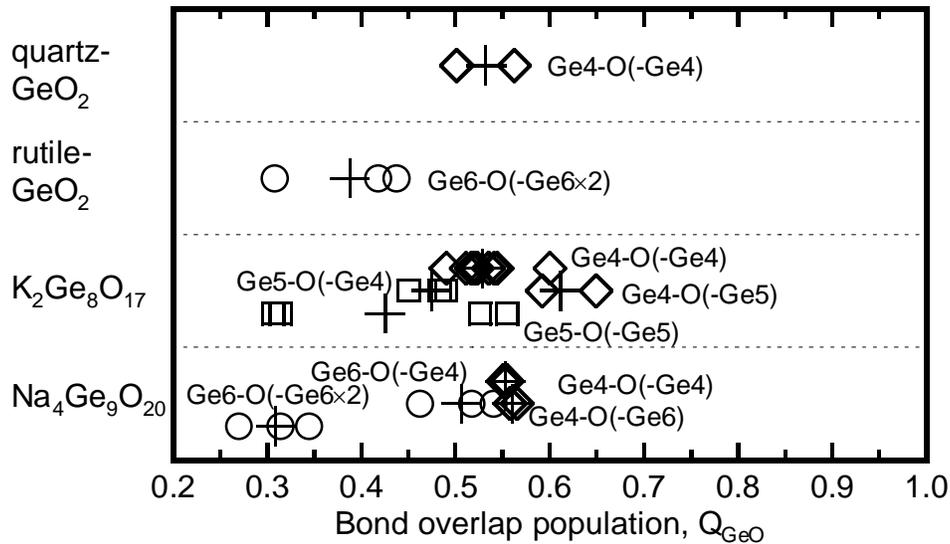
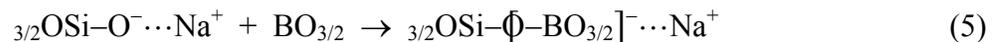


Figure 8. Bond overlap population of germanium–oxygen bonds, Q_{BO} , obtained from the MO calculations. Ge_n represents n -fold coordinated germanium, and $\text{Ge}_n\text{--O}(\text{--Ge}_m)$ indicates $\text{Ge}_n\text{--O}$ bond in $\text{Ge}_n\text{--O--Ge}_m$ bridge. Cross markers indicate the average of open markers.

MIXED NETWORK FORMER EFFECT ON THE CHEMICAL BONDING CHARACTER

It is widely known that NBO reduces chemical durability and mechanical strength of glass. As compared with BO, more electrons are localized on NBO as non-bonding lone pair electrons in O2p orbitals, which are located at around the HOMO levels. With increasing NBO concentration, the gap between the HOMO-LUMO levels decreases and the reactivity of a material increases. For the purpose of improving the chemical durability and mechanical strength, B_2O_3 or Al_2O_3 is often added to a glass, reducing the NBO concentration.



where Si–O terminal bonds are replaced by Si–O–B4 or Si–O–Al4 bridging bonds. Eq. 5 is based on the assumption that boron and aluminum atoms added occupy tetrahedral site, and the tetrahedral B4 and Al4 atoms are exclusively coordinated by BOs.

Subject to Eq. 5, NBO concentration decreases with increasing B_2O_3 and Al_2O_3 contents, and it is expected that NBO disappears at $\text{B}_2\text{O}_3/\text{Na}_2\text{O}$ or $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{Na}_2\text{O} = 1$. In practice, the NBO elimination was confirmed at $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{Na}_2\text{O} = 1$ in aluminosilicate glasses,²⁸ and in borosilicate glasses, however, NBO remained at $\text{B}_2\text{O}_3/\text{Na}_2\text{O} = 1$.²⁹ It is known that Al atom takes the coordination numbers of 4, 5, and 6 in glass, and tetrahedral Al atoms have been conventionally

regarded as a network former. At $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3/\text{Na}_2\text{O} \leq 1$ in aluminosilicate glasses, all Al atoms take 4-fold coordination. As described, boron takes 3- and 4-fold coordination, and to the authors' knowledge, N_4 (fraction of B4) in glass has never attained to 1.0, indicating that boron atoms in glass preferentially occupy the trigonal sites. The difference in preferential coordination structures between B and Al is probably caused by the difference in chemical bonding character. Then, the chemical bonding characters of B–O and Al–O bonds in borosilicate and aluminosilicate materials were investigated by MO calculation.

According to Yun and Bray,³⁰ a structural group, $\text{B}(\text{SiO}_4)_4$ are commonly present in borosilicate glasses. In $\text{B}(\text{SiO}_4)_4$ unit, a BO_4 unit is surrounded by four SiO_4 units, and the unit is present in a borosilicate mineral, reedmergnerite NaBSi_3O_8 . Then, cluster models were constructed based on the crystal, NaBSi_3O_8 .³¹ According to Aoki et al.,³² $\text{Na}_2\text{O} \cdot \text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 2\text{SiO}_2$ glass has a very similar structure to an aluminosilicate mineral, nepheline $\text{KNa}_3\text{Al}_4\text{Si}_4\text{O}_{16}$ among the several aluminosilicate minerals. Cluster models were therefore constructed based on the nepheline structure.³³ In the crystal, SiO_4 and AlO_4 units are alternately arranged, and Si–O–Al4 bridging bonds are exclusively present.

Fig. 9 shows the bond overlap population, Q_{MO} . As for Si–O bonds, when the second neighboring atom, M of Si, (Si–O–M) is different (M = B4 and Al4), the Si–O bonds show different Q_{SiO} ; Q_{SiO} in Si–O–B4 is larger than that in Si–O–Al4. In Si–O–B4 bridge, the Si–O and B4–O bonds show different Q_{MO} , and it is also the case in Si–O–Al4 bridge. Such the disproportion in Q_{MO} was also found in B3–O–B4 (Fig. 6), Ge4–O–Ge5, and Ge4–O–Ge6 bridges (Fig. 8). It was tentatively concluded that the difference in π -bonding character was responsible for the electronic disproportion. The disproportion in Si–O–B4 bridge is explainable by the difference in π -bonding characters between Si–O and B4–O bonds. Tetrahedral boron has no vacant atomic orbitals, such as $\text{B}2p_z$ in trigonal boron, which are available for π -bonds. According to Uchino et al.,³⁴ electrons are delocalized through Al3d orbitals in aluminosilicates. If Al4–O bonds had higher π -bonding character than B4–O bonds, the difference between Q_{Al4O} and Q_{SiO} in Al4–O–Si bridge would be smaller than the that between Q_{B4O} and Q_{SiO} in B4–O–Si bridge. As shown in Fig. 9, however, the differences of Q_{MO} in these bridges are not so different (~ 0.2).

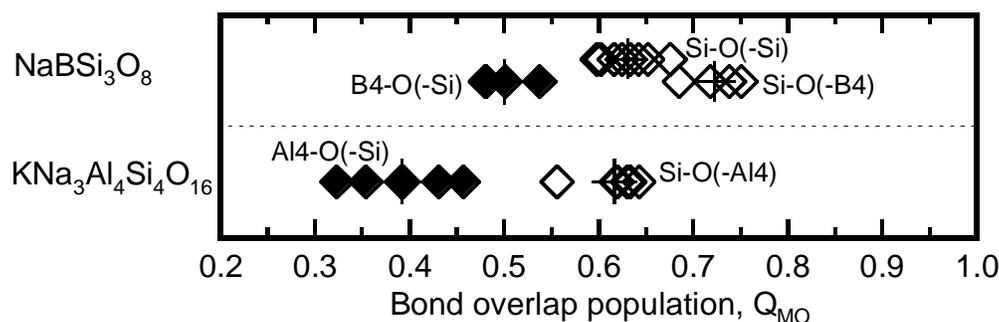


Figure 9. Bond overlap population of M–O bonds, Q_{MO} , (M = Al4, B4, and Si) obtained from the MO calculations. Cross markers indicate the average of open markers.

According to Lippmaa et al.,³⁵ ^{29}Si NMR chemical shift in aluminosilicates ranges over $-86 \sim -110$ ppm, and it depends on the number of Al atoms at the second neighboring sites. The chemical shift for Si atoms which have 3 or 4 Al atoms as second neighbors overlaps with that of

Si atoms associated with one NBO (so-called Q^3 Si) ($-85 \sim -92$ ppm in alkali silicate glasses³⁶). It is interpreted that more electrons are localized on the Si–O bonds in Si–O–Al4 bridge than the Si–O bonds in Si–O–Si bridge, and hence ^{29}Si NMR peak moves to the higher relative frequency side with increasing the number of Al atoms at the second neighboring sites. It is likely to happen in borosilicates, because, as shown in Fig. 9, more electrons are localized on the Si–O bonds in Si–O–B4 bridge than the Si–O bonds in Si–O–Si bridge. In ^{29}Si NMR analyses of borosilicate glasses, the peak assignments should be done with enough care.

CONCLUSION

Chemical bonding character of the glass network forming M–O bonds (M = Si, B, Ge, and Al) was evaluated based on the bond overlap population Q_{MO} estimated from the molecular orbital calculations. In alkali silicates, Q_{SiO} in Si–O–Si bridging bonds decreased and Si–O–Si bridges gradually weakened with increasing alkali content, which resulted from the increase in anti-bonding overlap due to the interaction between bridging oxygen and alkali ions. In Si–O–Na terminal bonds, however, Q_{SiO} increased with increasing alkali content. It was finally concluded that the bonding character of Si–O networks as a whole increased in covalency and strengthened, which was opposite to the conventional understanding.

The disproportionate sharing of electrons was commonly observed in the bridging bonds formed by the heterogeneous combinations, B3–O–B4, Ge4–O–Ge5, Ge4–O–Ge6, Si–O–B4, and Si–O–Al4, and Q_{MO} in the bridging bonds of the homogeneous combinations, Si–O–Si, B3–O–B3, B4–O–B4, Ge4–O–Ge4, was observed at the intermediate positions between Q_{MO} and $Q_{M'O}$ in M–O–M' bridge. It was tentatively concluded that the disproportion was caused by the difference in bonding character, and many electrons were localized on the bonds with larger π -bonding character. In M–O–M bridges, Q_{MO} ranged at 0.6 ± 0.1 , and the distribution seemed to be narrow as compared with the covalency expected from electronegativities. This might be another glass forming condition, that is, only the M–O bonds with $Q_{MO} \sim 0.6$ participated in glass networks.

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