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TOPICAL REVIEW

The structure of amorphous, crystalline and liquid GeO₂

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Abstract

Germanium dioxide (GeO₂) is a chemical analogue of SiO₂. Furthermore, it is also to some extent a structural analogue, as the low- and high-pressure short-range order (tetrahedral and octahedral) is the same. However, a number of differences exist. For example, the GeO₂ phase diagram exhibits a smaller number of polymorphs, and all three GeO₂ phases (crystalline, glass, liquid) have an increased sensitivity to pressure, undergoing pressure-induced changes at much lower pressures than their equivalent SiO₂ analogues. In addition, differences exist in GeO₂ glass in the medium-range order, resulting in the glass transition temperature of germania being much lower than for silica. This review highlights the structure of amorphous GeO₂ by different experimental (e.g., Raman and NMR spectroscopy, neutron and x-ray diffraction) and theoretical methods (e.g., classical molecular dynamics, *ab initio* calculations). It also addresses the structures of liquid and crystalline GeO₂, that have received much less attention. Furthermore, we compare and contrast the structures of GeO₂ and SiO₂, as well as along the GeO₂–SiO₂ join. It is probably a very timely review, as interest in this compound, that can be investigated in the liquid state at relatively low temperatures and pressures, continues to increase.

(Some figures in this article are in colour only in the electronic version)

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1. Introduction

Zachariasen [1] proposed the continuous random network model (CRN) to explain the structure of oxide glasses, and it has subsequently received wide acceptance in describing glasses that form continuous random networks. To date the majority of studies of oxide glasses have involved the investigation of silica (SiO₂) or borate (B₂O₃) glasses with, to a lesser extent, germania (GeO₂) glasses. The structure of the latter has generally been considered to be comparable to that of silica glass despite differences in bond lengths, angles and the relative size of Ge versus Si. Experimental studies of amorphous GeO₂ have generally involved either x-ray or neutron scattering and spectroscopic techniques such as x-ray absorption spectroscopy (EXAFS/XANES) and Raman spectroscopy. On the other hand, theoretical studies have generally employed classical or *ab initio* molecular dynamics calculations to gain insight into the structure of these materials. In both approaches, the results of the studies are often compared to the known crystalline polymorphs of GeO₂. Here we review the structure of amorphous GeO₂ (glass and liquid) from both an experimental and a theoretical perspective, as well as comparing their structure with that of amorphous SiO₂ (glass, liquid). Furthermore, we review the structure of the crystalline GeO₂ polymorphs, both at room temperature and pressure and at elevated temperatures and pressures.

2. Crystalline GeO₂ polymorphs

2.1. Structure

Crystalline GeO₂ exists at ambient temperatures and pressures as one of two polymorphs (figure 1): an α -quartz-like ($P3_221$) trigonal (hexagonal) structure [2] or a rutile-like tetragonal ($P4_2/mnm$) structure [3].

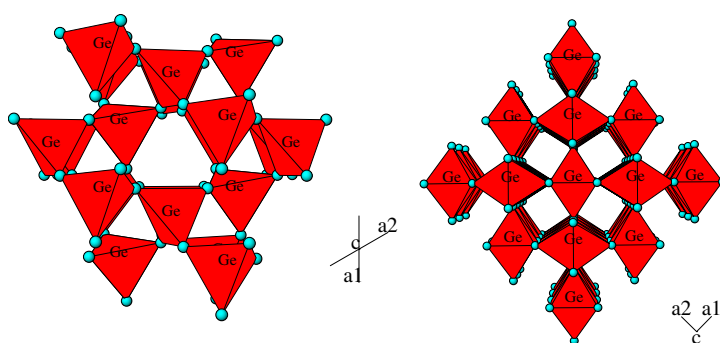


Figure 1. Projection of the α -quartz-like structure (left) and rutile-like structure (right) onto the (001) plane.

The α -quartz-like GeO_2 structure has been shown to be the stable high temperature phase [4] and, while the structure is very similar to that of α -quartz, there are some distinct differences. In particular the GeO_4 tetrahedra are more distorted due to greater variation in the O–Ge–O angles within the tetrahedron, which range from 106.3° to 113.1° with a Ge–O–Ge angle of 130.1° . This is in contrast to α -quartz where the O–Si–O angles within the SiO_4 tetrahedron are relatively uniform, ranging from 108.3° to 110.7° with a Si–O–Si angle of 144.0° [5]. These differences are important, as they result in different mechanisms being responsible for the high pressure behaviour of α -quartz and α -quartz-like GeO_2 . For α -quartz the tetrahedra are relatively rigid and compression of the structure occurs via cooperative rotation or tilting of the tetrahedra around the shared bridging oxygens. Conversely, for α -quartz-like GeO_2 , while compression does occur via tilting of the tetrahedra, distortion of each tetrahedron via changes in the individual O–Ge–O angles also plays a large role [5]. This behaviour is the reason why germanate analogues of silicate phases are useful in high pressure studies since they undergo pressure-induced phase transformations at much lower pressures than their silicate analogues. The transformation of α -quartz to the high pressure rutile structure (Stishovite) occurs at 10 GPa, while the equivalent transformation for α -quartz-like GeO_2 to rutile-like GeO_2 has been observed to occur at much lower pressures when the sample is heated: ≈ 1.8 – 2.2 GPa at 417 K [6].

As noted above, the stable room temperature GeO_2 phase is the rutile GeO_2 polymorph, which transforms to the α -quartz-like structure at 1281 K ([4, 7] and references therein). The rutile GeO_2 polymorph has a structure similar to that of stishovite [3] and, like stishovite, the two axial bonds within the GeO_6 polyhedron are longer than the four equatorial Ge–O bonds: 1.902 ± 0.001 and 1.872 ± 0.001 Å, respectively. Conversely, the two independent Ge–O distances in the α -quartz-like GeO_2 structure are similar at 1.737 ± 0.003 and 1.741 ± 0.002 Å [2].

2.2. High pressure and temperature behaviour

A number of studies have investigated the high pressure behaviour of the two GeO_2 polymorphs. Itié *et al* [8] investigated α -quartz-like GeO_2 at ambient temperature. They observed an increase in the Ge–O bond length and Ge coordination number consistent with the formation of the rutile-like GeO_2 phase between 7 and 9 GPa. However, subsequent studies have suggested that the transformation is to an amorphous phase rather than the crystalline rutile-like GeO_2 polymorph [7, 9–11]. Furthermore, it has been suggested that the

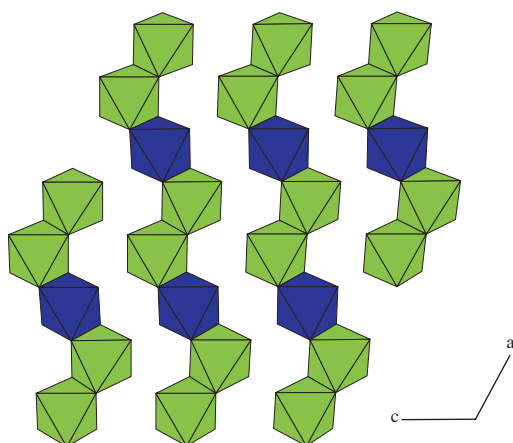


Figure 2. Polyhedral representation of the (3×2) -kinked $P2_1/c$ structure of GeO_2 determined by Haines *et al* [15]. Crystallographic axes are not to scale and are merely to show the orientation of the structure. Green (light) octahedra are the fully occupied Ge positions while the blue (dark) octahedra are the Ge octahedra which exhibit partial occupancy.

amorphization step is a precursor to subsequent transformation to the rutile polymorph [11]. More recently, Brazhkin *et al* [12–14] have shown that with compression $\alpha\text{-GeO}_2$ changes via a martensitic transition into a crystalline monoclinic ($P2_1/c$) phase. On the other hand, Haines *et al* [15] suggest that there is no evidence for amorphization of the crystal. Instead, a poorly crystalline monoclinic ($P2_1/c$) phase forms, consisting of edge sharing chains of GeO_6 octahedra (figure 2).

The monoclinic phase is metastable up to 50 GPa. However, when combined with heating, it transforms to the rutile structure at pressures up to 22 GPa and above 43 GPa forms a mixture of CaCl_2 -type and Fe_2N -type (or $\alpha\text{-PbO}_2$, see later) high-pressure phases [12, 13, 15]. This monoclinic phase was also reported by Prakapenka *et al* [16] between 7 and 52 GPa at room temperature, but with laser heating it transforms to an orthorhombic CaCl_2 -type structure above 36.4 GPa and an $\alpha\text{-PbO}_2$ -type structure at 41 GPa.

Haines *et al* [17] have also observed transformation of the rutile-like GeO_2 phase to the orthorhombic CaCl_2 -type structure above 25 GPa at ambient temperature, while Ono *et al* [18] observed the transition at high pressure and temperature. *Ab initio* calculations by Lodziana *et al* [19] suggested that rutile-type GeO_2 should transform to $\alpha\text{-PbO}_2$ -type (above $\simeq 36$ GPa) and pyrite- ($\text{Pa}\bar{3}$) type (above $\simeq 65.5$ GPa) structures and these were subsequently observed by Ono *et al* [20, 21] around 44 and 90 GPa, respectively. An Fe_2N -type (or defect NiAs) phase at pressures larger than 25 GPa has been observed by Liu *et al* [22] and Haines *et al* [15]. This type of structure is similar to an $\alpha\text{-PbO}_2$ -type structure but with the Ge sites disordered and has, more recently, been explicitly identified by Ono *et al* [20] as being the $\alpha\text{-PbO}_2$ -type structure. However, it should be noted that Prakapenka *et al* [23] observe the defect NiAs structure when amorphous GeO_2 is heated to 1000–1300 K at 6 GPa (see later).

Structural refinements of the crystalline phases have been obtained by Shiraki *et al* [24] and a phase diagram for crystalline GeO_2 is given in figure 3. In addition, another orthorhombic phase has been suggested to occur at $\simeq 28$ GPa and 1273 K by Ming and Manghnani [25]. They concluded that this phase was not the $\alpha\text{-PbO}_2$ -type structure but it has not been observed subsequently. The phase transformation sequence of rutile-like $\text{GeO}_2 \rightarrow (25 \text{ GPa}) \text{CaCl}_2$ -type $\rightarrow (44 \text{ GPa}) \alpha\text{-PbO}_2$ -type $\rightarrow (70\text{--}90 \text{ GPa})$ pyrite-type structures is consistent with the

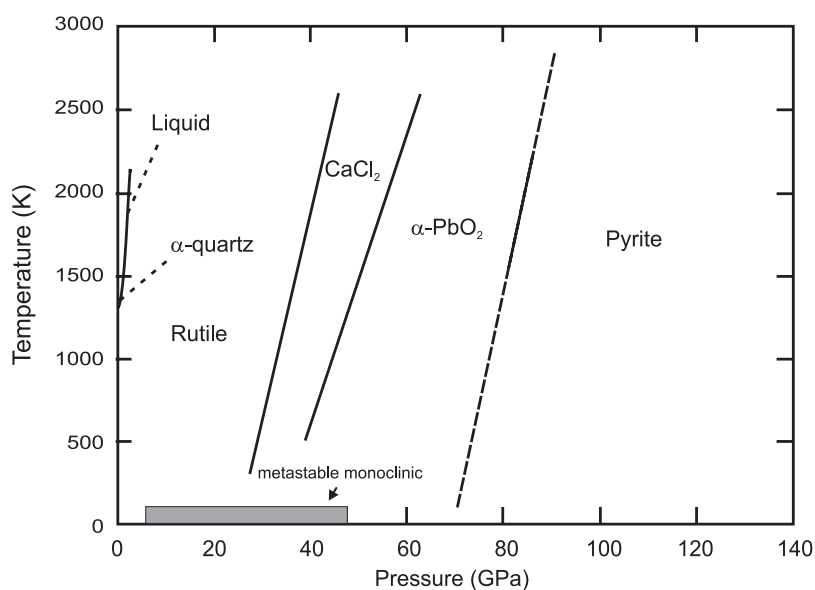


Figure 3. Phase diagram of crystalline GeO_2 (after [20]).

high-pressure behaviour of other group-IV element dioxides such as PbO_2 , SnO_2 , and SiO_2 (cf, [26, 19, 16, 23]).

Of interest is the way in which the α -quartz-like and rutile-like GeO_2 structures respond to increasing pressure. As noted above, Jorgensen [5] observed that in the α -quartz-like polymorph compression up to 2.5 GPa occurs predominantly via changes in the individual O–Ge–O angles and that tilting of tetrahedra was secondary. Yamanaka and Ogata [27] carried out a series of structural refinements on the α -quartz-like GeO_2 polymorph up to 4.48 GPa and found that the GeO_4 tetrahedra are relatively rigid with little change in the Ge–O bond length, consistent with the study of Itié *et al* [8]. Yamanaka and Ogata [27] found that the dominant mechanism responsible for the observed pressure-induced unit-cell volume change in the structure involved a decrease in the Ge–O–Ge angle from 130° to 125° . Conversely, Glinneman *et al* [28] found that tetrahedral tilting was responsible for the 11% volume change of α -quartz-like GeO_2 up to 5.57 GPa.

The phase transformation of rutile-like GeO_2 to the CaCl_2 -type structure occurs via compression of the axial Ge–O bonds of the octahedron. The axial bonds are elongated relative to the equatorial bonds (see above). With increasing pressure there is increased compression of the axial relative to equatorial bonds [17] and the transformation at 25 GPa occurs during flattening of the octahedra [17, 24]. With transformation to the α - PbO_2 -type structure, the GeO_6 octahedron becomes further deformed with the Ge atom displaced from the centre of the octahedron and two of the six Ge–O bonds becoming elongated [24], as suggested by the numerical results of Lodziana *et al* [19]. Transformation to the pyrite-type structure, however, results in GeO_6 octahedra that are symmetrical with Ge in the centre.

As noted above, the α -quartz-like polymorph is the stable high-temperature phase and rutile-type GeO_2 will transform to this polymorph above 1320 K, the transformation temperature being the highest of any of the quartz-like analogues. The high-temperature (up to 1344 K) behaviour of this polymorph has been investigated by Haines *et al* [29], who found that the intertetrahedral bridging angle (Ge–O–Ge) and tilt angles exhibit thermal

stabilities that are amongst the highest observed for quartz-type analogues. With increasing temperature, expansion of the unit cell is highly anisotropic, with expansion along **a** being five times greater than along **c** [29]. However, the α -quartz-like GeO₂ polymorph is metastable at low temperatures ([30] provide a number of methods for growing the α -quartz-like GeO₂ polymorph), but does undergo transformation to the rutile-type polymorph at around 1000 K, although the reaction proceeds slowly due to the kinetics involved (cf [31]). Finally, it should be noted that a cristobalite-like polymorph for GeO₂ has been observed after long-time heating of GeO₂ glass to 873 K [32] or by dehydration of ammonium hydrogen germanate ((NH₄)₃HGe₇O_{16.4}H₂O) between 853 and 873 K [33]; however, this polymorph has not been observed in *in situ* high-pressure and temperature studies. In addition, the β -quartz-like polymorph at 1322 K mentioned by Leadbetter and Wright [34] and Desa *et al* [35] based on the work of Laubengayer and Morton [4] and Sarver and Hummel [36] has also not been observed.

3. GeO₂ glass structure

3.1. Neutron and x-ray diffraction

Neutron and x-ray diffraction data are complementary tools for inferring structural information since the chemical sensitivity is different for the two techniques; Ge–O and Ge–Ge pairs are better resolved with x-rays and Ge–O and O–O with neutrons.

GeO₂ glass structure has been studied using x-ray diffraction in the pioneering work of Warren [37], [38] and Zarzycki [39], [40]. It was found that the Ge atoms are arranged in basic tetrahedral units such as those found in the trigonal α -quartz-like GeO₂ polymorph. X-ray diffraction data with higher real space resolution ($Q_{\max} = 17 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$) confirmed these findings [34] and determined the first Ge–O and Ge–Ge distances at 1.74 and 3.18 \AA , respectively, giving an intertetrahedral angle of $\simeq 133^\circ$. The first neutron diffraction experiment ($Q_{\max} = 18 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$) on vitreous GeO₂ shows two strong peaks at 1.72 and 2.85 \AA ascribed to Ge–O and O–O correlations, which is consistent with GeO₄ tetrahedra [41]. The Ge–Ge peak, initially determined at 3.45 \AA [41, 42], was resolved in a high-resolution neutron diffraction investigation ($Q_{\max} = 35.5 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$) at 3.21 \AA , which is slightly higher than the Ge–Ge distance determined by x-ray diffraction due to the overlapping of Ge–O and O–O pairs [43, 44]. A recent neutron and x-ray diffraction investigation [35] has shown that the O–Ge–O intratetrahedral angle is more distorted in vitreous GeO₂ than in vitreous SiO₂, with a distribution probably comparable to that of GeO₂ α -quartz (106.3° – 113.1°). This is due to the larger radius of Ge than Si, allowing more accessible positions for O atoms around Ge atoms. The mean Ge–O–Ge intertetrahedral angle was estimated from the Ge–O and Ge–Ge distances to be 130.1° with a range of 121° – 147° . This mean value was confirmed at $133 \pm 8.3^\circ$ using high-energy x-ray diffraction [45]. This bond angle and its distribution are lower than in the case of vitreous silica. The smaller Ge–O–Ge angle probably results from the presence of increased numbers of three-membered rings in the GeO₂ network relative to vitreous SiO₂ (cf [35] and see later) since such planar rings have a Ge–O–Ge angle of 130.5° [46, 47]. The values for the main interatomic distances, coordination numbers and intertetrahedral angles found in these studies are reported in table 1. The structure of GeO₂ can thus be viewed as a continuous random network of corner sharing tetrahedra as in silica, but with greater distortion of the tetrahedra and larger numbers of three-membered rings.

The diffraction data (figure 4) of GeO₂ are composed of three partial functions, Ge–Ge, Ge–O and O–O. The first attempt to separate the three components was carried out using x-ray anomalous diffraction and neutron diffraction [48, 49]. The Ge–O, O–O and Ge–Ge

Table 1. Interatomic distances (R), coordination numbers (N), standard deviations (σ) and Ge–O–Ge intertetrahedral angle determined by diffraction methods. (1) $Q_{\max} = 50 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$, [57]; (2) $Q_{\max} = 50 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$, [62]; (3) $Q_{\max} = 9 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$, [51]; (4) [53]; (5) $1 \text{ \AA}^{-1} \leq Q \leq 10 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$, [50]; (6) $0.6 \text{ \AA}^{-1} \leq Q \leq 33.5 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$, [45]; (7) $0.22 \text{ \AA}^{-1} \leq Q \leq 23.6 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$, [35]; (8) [49]; (9) $0.8 \text{ \AA}^{-1} \leq Q \leq 17 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$, [34]. ND = neutron diffraction; AXS = anomalous x-ray scattering; HEXRD = high energy x-ray diffraction; XRD = x-ray diffraction.

Pair ij	R (Å)	N	σ (Å)	Method	Reference
Ge–O	1.733 ± 0.001	3.99 ± 0.1	0.042 ± 0.001	ND	(1)
	1.744 ± 0.05	4.0 ± 0.2	0.11 ± 0.01	ND	(2)
	1.73 ± 0.03			ND+AXS	(3)
	1.74 ± 0.01	3.7 ± 0.2		ND	(4)
	1.75			ND+AXS	(5)
	1.73			HEXRD	(6)
	1.739 ± 0.005	3.9 ± 0.1		D	(7)
	1.73			AXS	(8)
	1.74			XRD	(9)
O–O	2.822 ± 0.002	6.0^a	0.100 ± 0.002	ND	(1)
	2.84 ± 0.01	6.0 ± 0.3	0.26 ± 0.03	ND	(2)
	2.83 ± 0.05			ND+AXS	(3)
	2.84 ± 0.02	5.5 ± 0.5		ND	(4)
	2.82			ND+AXS	(5)
	2.838	6.0^a	0.109	ND	(7)
Ge–Ge	3.155 ± 0.01	4.0 ± 0.3	0.26 ± 0.03	ND	(2)
	3.16 ± 0.03			ND+AXS	(3)
	3.18 ± 0.05			ND	(4)
	3.18			ND+AXS	(5)
	3.17			HEXRD	(6)
	3.185	4.0^a	0.163	ND	(7)
	3.17			AXS	(8)
	3.18			XRD	(9)
Angle	Ge–O–Ge				
	$132 \pm 5^\circ$			ND+AXS	(3)
	$133 \pm 8.3^\circ$			HEXRD	(6)
	130.1°			ND+XRD	(7)
	133°			XRD	(9)

^a Fixed values.

distances are found at 1.73, 2.85 and $3.17 \pm 0.04 \text{ \AA}$, respectively, and the average Ge–O–Ge intertetrahedral bond angle is estimated to have values between 129° and 139° . Recently, by combining neutron and x-ray diffraction, together with x-ray anomalous scattering, the three partial functions were fully separated up to $Q = 9 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$ [50, 51], though problems exist due to different instrumental resolution functions that appear especially at low Q values, and the necessity to improve the anomalous scattering terms [52]. The structure factors are dominated by peaks occurring at 1.54, 2.6 and $\simeq 4.5 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$. The first feature at 1.54 \AA^{-1} (usually called first sharp diffraction peak, FSDP) corresponds to intermediate-range ordering and is stronger in x-ray than in neutron data [53]. The FSDP is associated with a positive peak in S_{GeGe} and S_{GeO} and a shallow negative peak in S_{OO} , indicating that cation correlations dominate the medium-range order (figure 5, [51]). The peak at 2.6 \AA^{-1} is strong and positive in S_{GeGe} and S_{OO} , and strong and negative in S_{GeO} , and has been attributed to chemical short-range order. The peak at 4.4 \AA^{-1} occurs predominantly in S_{GeGe} and is due to topological short-range order. The latter conclusion is usually extracted from Bhatia–Thornton structure factors [54] that show

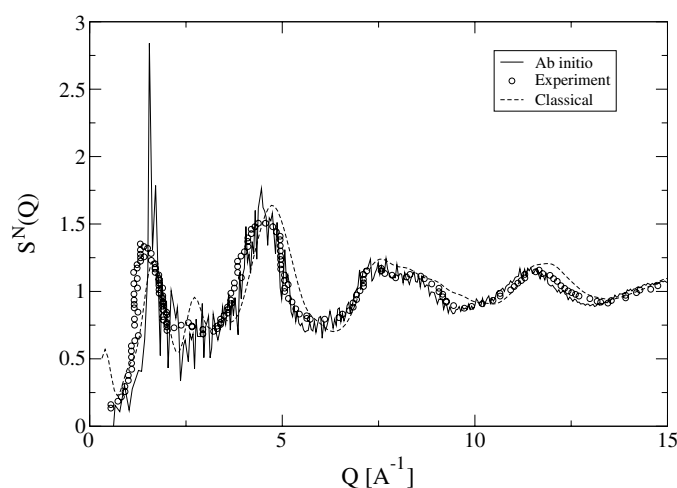


Figure 4. Measured total structure factor (circles, [57]) together with calculated $S(Q)$ from *ab initio* (solid line, [58]) and classical molecular dynamics (broken line, [59]).

the correlations between number density and concentration fluctuations [55]. On this basis, the chemical and topological ordering in GeO_2 can be rationalized in terms of an interplay between the relative importances of two length-scales that exist in the glass [56].

There have been considerable efforts to compare diffraction data obtained on GeO_2 glass with equivalent calculations based on the GeO_2 crystalline polymorphs, with divergent results. Leadbetter and Wright [34] concluded that the intermediate range order in the glass closely resembles a quasi-crystalline model based on the α -quartz-like GeO_2 structure with a correlation length of 10.5 Å but discrepancies appear beyond 4 Å. Bondot [49] obtained good agreement between the glass and the α - and β -quartz GeO_2 polymorphs, which led to the conclusion that the glass contains six-membered rings. In contrast, Konnert *et al* [61] concluded that vitreous germania, like vitreous silica, possesses the same short-range order as that found in the tridymite SiO_2 polymorph. The vitreous GeO_2 structure could thus be described as randomly oriented, slightly distorted tridymite-like regions having dimensions ranging up to at least 20 Å [61]. However, these regions are not crystallographically ordered (i.e. not microcrystals) but have similar bonding topology in the glass and in tridymite. In a more recent study [35], it was shown that, though similarities exist with crystalline α -quartz-like and α -cristobalite-like GeO_2 polymorphs, diffraction data are not consistent with large volume fractions of quasi-crystalline-like regions, due to an important distribution of torsion angles.

3.2. Neutron and x-ray diffraction at high pressure and temperature

Due to the technical difficulties associated with performing *in situ* diffraction experiments, pressure effects have been mainly studied on pressure-released glasses, in which permanent densification is observed. Permanently densified glasses (up to 18 GPa) were studied by x-ray diffraction in the low- Q region (FSDP), which is sensitive to medium-range order [63]. A shift to higher Q and an increase in width of the FSDP is observed above 6 GPa, a pressure corresponding to the threshold for coordination changes observed in *in situ* experiments (see below). However, comments on this study pointed out that changes in the diffraction peaks may not necessarily be associated with a coordination change [64].

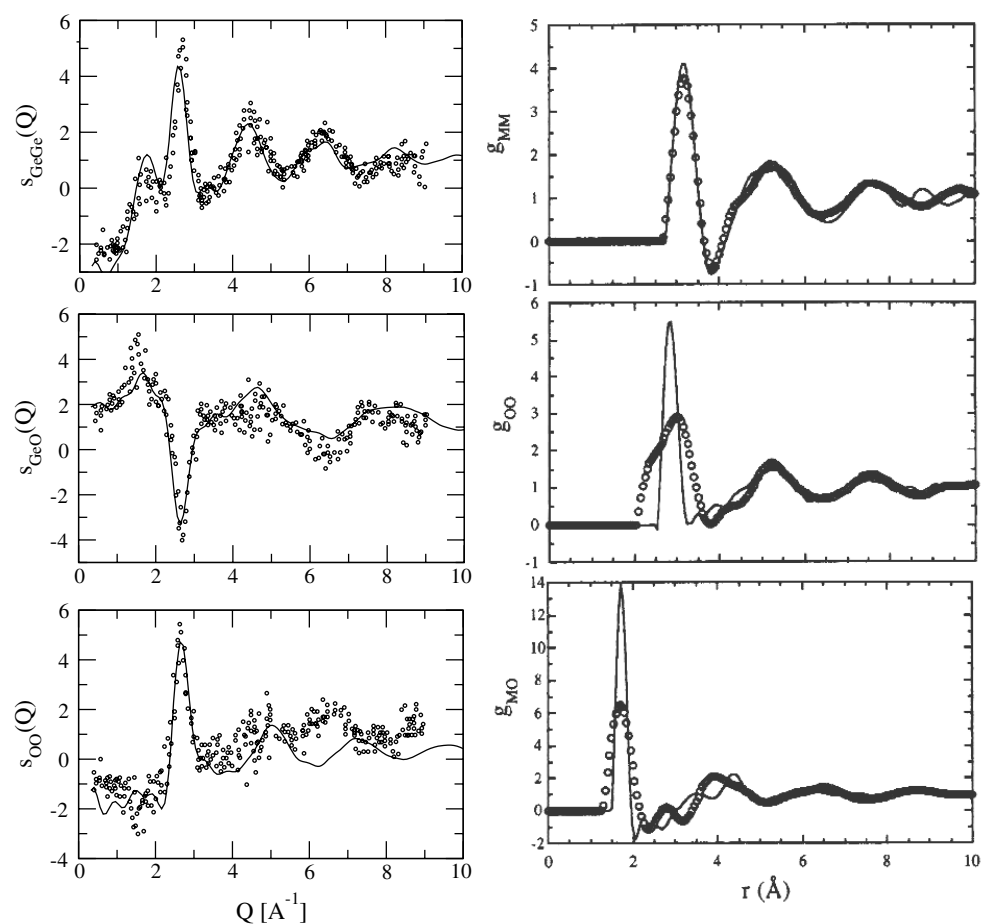


Figure 5. Left from top to bottom: measured (circles, [51]) and calculated (solid line, [60]) partial structure factors, $S_{\text{GeGe}}(Q)$, $S_{\text{GeO}}(Q)$ and $S_{\text{OO}}(Q)$. Right: partial correlation functions, $g_{\text{MM}}(r)$, $g_{\text{MO}}(r)$ and $g_{\text{OO}}(r)$ (from top to bottom), for the three atom pairs in vitreous GeO_2 at room temperature ($M = \text{Ge}$, points), together with the corresponding functions from rescaled molecular dynamics simulation of vitreous SiO_2 ($M = \text{Si}$, lines) (after [51]).

GeO_2 glasses densified up to 6 GPa at 673 K (densification of 16%) were investigated by neutron diffraction [57], while a glass densified at 10 GPa and 300 K (densification of 11%) was studied by neutron and x-ray diffraction (figure 6) [65]. No evidence of six-coordinated Ge was observed. The GeO_4 tetrahedra are distorted, with Ge–O distances increasing by 0.005 ± 0.001 \AA and O–O and Ge–Ge distances decreasing by 0.023 ± 0.002 and 0.019 ± 0.002 \AA , respectively [65]. The main change is a shift of the Ge–Ge peak (at ≈ 3.1 \AA) to lower r values with increasing pressure compaction [57]. This indicates a reduction in the mean Ge–O–Ge bond angle with increasing density. Noticeable changes are seen for the FSDP in the neutron and x-ray structure factors: the FSDP shifts towards higher Q , broadens and becomes less intense on densification. This indicates a reduction of the network connectivity. By combining neutron and x-ray diffraction up to $Q = 30$ \AA^{-1} , it was shown [65] that variations of the FSDP are mostly associated with O–O correlations rather than Ge–Ge ones. This is attributed to a decrease in the average size of the network cages (these can be considered

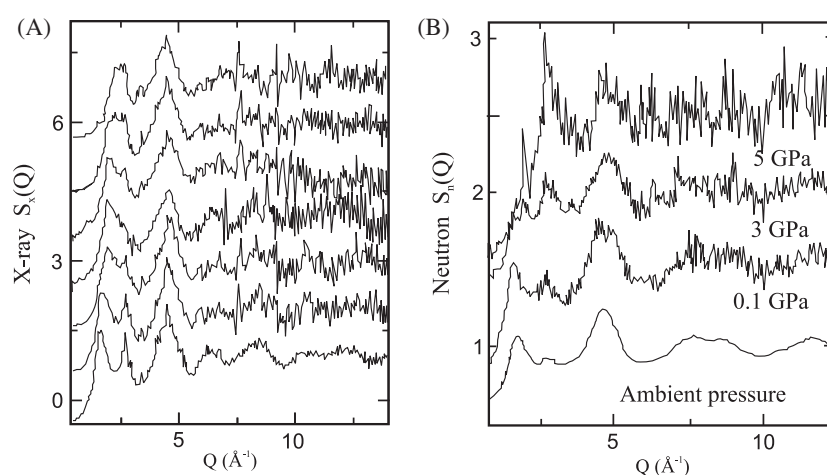


Figure 6. *In situ* structure factors (after [66]) for (A) x-ray diffraction at 0, 3, 5, 6, 7, 10 and 15 GPa (bottom to top) and (B) neutron diffraction up to 5 GPa, with ambient-pressure data from Sampath *et al* [65].

as holes in the structures, formed for instance by the ring structures), yielding better packing of the GeO_4 tetrahedra.

In situ measurements have recently been obtained (figure 6) by both neutron (up to 5 GPa) and x-ray (up to 15 GPa) diffraction [66]. The FSDP decreases and almost vanishes with increasing pressure in neutron measurements while it gradually shifts to higher Q in x-ray data. This is interpreted as a breakdown of the intermediate-range order upon compaction of the tetrahedral network associated with changes in the oxygen correlations. In the x-ray correlation functions, a reduction of the Ge–O distance is observed below 6 GPa while it increases at further pressure, corresponding to GeO_4 tetrahedra being converted to GeO_6 octahedra. Based on molecular dynamics simulations, it was argued that stable fivefold units are present in the transition region, indicating a new intermediate form of the glass. The structure of the high-pressure glass is based on edge- and corner-shared octahedra, which is not retained upon decompression.

GeO_2 in the liquid state has been investigated by x-ray diffraction [40, 67]. The Ge–O distance is unchanged, in agreement with a small thermal expansion of the Ge–O bond similar to that for Si–O bonds. The GeO_4 tetrahedra are preserved in the GeO_2 melt but Ge–Ge distances are shifted from 3.16 Å at room temperature to 3.25 Å at 1100 °C, which is interpreted as a widening of the Ge–O–Ge bond angle.

3.3. Raman spectroscopy

3.3.1. GeO_2 polymorphs. The Raman spectra of the crystalline polymorphs of GeO_2 (figure 7) were first reported by Scott [68]. The rutile-like GeO_2 spectrum exhibits three strong bands in the 150–1200 cm^{-1} range at 173, 701 and 873 cm^{-1} . The band at 701 cm^{-1} is the A_{1g} mode while the 873 cm^{-1} band is the B_{2g} mode. The B_{1g} mode is at 173 cm^{-1} . The E_g mode observed at 680 cm^{-1} by Scott [68] is not observed in the spectrum shown in figure 7. Alpha-quartz-like GeO_2 has a number of additional bands including four symmetric modes of A_1 symmetry and eight doubly degenerate modes of E symmetry all split into transverse optic (TO) and longitudinal optic modes (LO) [68]. The α -quartz-like GeO_2 spectrum of figure 7 is comparable to that first obtained by Scott [68]. Bands can be assigned following Scott [68] and Dultz *et al* [69] as A_1 modes at 263, 330, 444, and 881 cm^{-1} ; E modes at 123 (TO+LO), 166

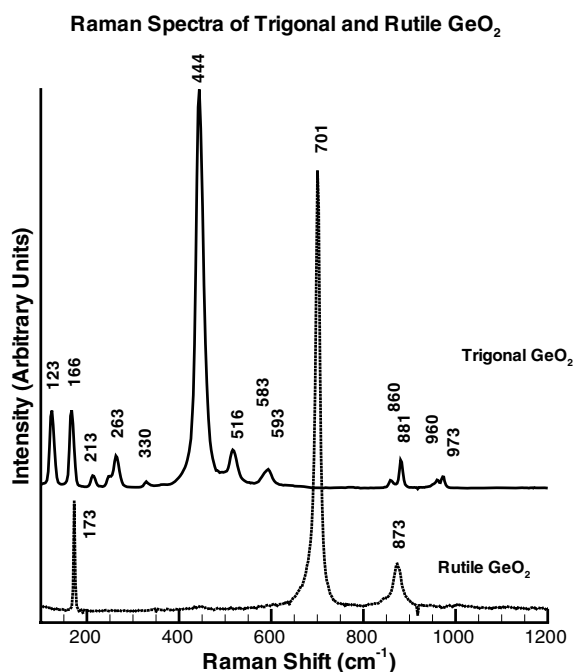


Figure 7. Unpolarized Raman spectra of the α -quartz-like and rutile-like GeO₂ polymorphs. Bands are comparable to those of Scott [68] and Madon *et al* [31]. For clarity not all bands are labelled.

(TO+LO), 212 (TO), 330 (TO), 516 (LO), 593 (LO), 860 (TO), 960 (TO), and 973 cm⁻¹ (LO). E modes at 372 (LO), 385 (TO), 492 (TO), 583 (TO) and 949 cm⁻¹ (LO) are too weak to be observed in the spectrum or are unlabelled for clarity.

The effects of increasing pressure and temperature on the vibrational spectra of the GeO₂ polymorphs has been investigated by Sharma [70], Madon *et al* [31] and Mernagh and Liu [71]. With increasing pressure the Raman bands for the α -quartz-like polymorph shift to higher wavenumber and behave in a similar manner as the IR modes [31]. The mean frequency shift is ≈ 1 cm⁻¹/0.1 GPa for bands in the 400–600 cm⁻¹ region and 0.3 cm⁻¹/0.1 GPa for the bands in the 100–330 cm⁻¹ region, and the bands in the 850–970 cm⁻¹ region do not shift at all up to 4 GPa except for the band at 961 cm⁻¹. The rutile Raman bands behave slightly differently [70], with the band at ≈ 173 cm⁻¹ shifting to lower wavenumbers and the other two bands to higher wavenumbers. With increasing temperature, the Raman bands of the rutile-like polymorph transform to the α -quartz-like spectrum at ≈ 1313 K [31] while the Raman bands of the α -quartz-like polymorph show a nonlinear shift with increasing temperature. Madon *et al* [31] observed a shift of -0.01 cm⁻¹ K⁻¹ for the bands in the low-frequency region and -0.024 cm⁻¹ K⁻¹ in the mid- and high-frequency regions. For the rutile polymorph, the Raman bands above 600 cm⁻¹ exhibit nonlinear shifts to lower wavenumbers, whereas the 173 cm⁻¹ band exhibits a shift to higher wavenumbers with increasing T [71]. In addition, Mernagh and Liu [71] detect (by deconvolution) splitting of the A_{1g} mode (701 cm⁻¹) of the rutile-like polymorph with a new band observed at 684 cm⁻¹.

3.3.2. GeO₂ glass and liquid. The first Raman spectrum of GeO₂ glass was described by Bobovich and Tolub [72] and Obukhov-Denisov *et al* [73]. A Raman spectrum for GeO₂ glass is shown in figure 8(a). The Raman band assignments for GeO₂ glass are similar to those of

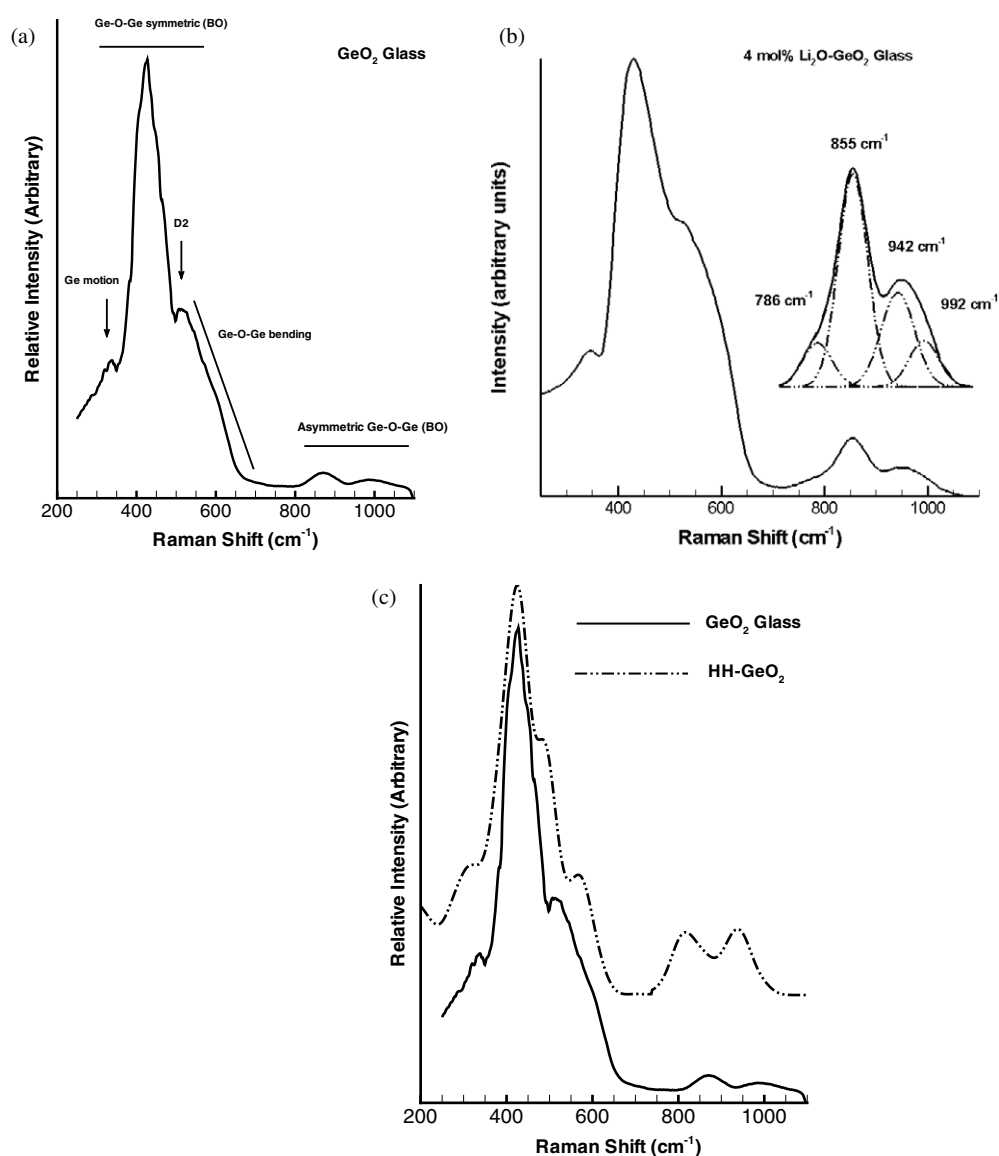


Figure 8. (a) Unpolarized Raman spectrum of GeO_2 glass showing the main vibrational bands, (b) a Raman spectrum of a Li_2O -containing germanate glass showing the high-frequency BO and NBO bands: the inset is a curve fit (deconvolution) of the high frequency envelope into its discrete vibrational bands (see table 2), (c) Unpolarized Raman spectrum of GeO_2 glass (solid line) compared with calculated HH spectrum of GeO_2 glass (dashed-dot line) from Giacomazzi *et al* [58]. The calculated spectrum has been shifted so that the main vibrational band is coincident with the equivalent band of the experimental spectrum.

SiO_2 glass but are shifted to lower frequencies (wavenumbers, cm^{-1}) because of the larger mass of Ge relative to Si. Currently accepted band assignments for GeO_2 are given in table 2 and extensive discussion of Raman assignments and earlier literature can be found in [74, 75].

The high-frequency bands observed at ≈ 860 and 998 cm^{-1} are the TO and LO split asymmetric stretching bands of the bridging oxygens (Ge–O–Ge). The Ge–O–Ge bending

Table 2. Raman band assignments for GeO₂ glass and for the different Q species observed upon addition of a network modifier such as an alkali or alkaline-earth cation.

Frequency	Attribution
$\simeq 60\text{ cm}^{-1}$	Boson peak; acoustic mode? Related to glass fragility
347 cm^{-1} (D ₁)	Ge ‘deformation’ motion within the network
420 cm^{-1}	Symmetric stretching of bridging oxygens (BO) in 6-membered GeO ₄ rings: Ge–O–Ge
520 cm^{-1} (D ₂)	‘Defect’ mode assigned to breathing motion of bridging oxygens in 3-membered GeO ₄ rings
$500\text{--}620\text{ cm}^{-1}$	Bending modes: Ge–O–Ge, TO (556 cm^{-1}) and LO split (595 cm^{-1})
$\simeq 860\text{ cm}^{-1}$	TO asymmetric stretching of bridging oxygens: Ge–O–Ge (Q^4)
$\simeq 988\text{ cm}^{-1}$	LO asymmetric stretching of bridging oxygens: Ge–O–Ge (Q^4)
Q species vibrations	NBO (non-bridging oxygen) vibrations that occur upon addition of network modifiers such as alkalis
$\simeq 865\text{ cm}^{-1}$	Q^3 GeO ₄ tetrahedra with 3 BO and 1 NBO
780 cm^{-1}	Q^2 GeO ₄ tetrahedra with 2 BO and 2 NBO

modes are observed in the broad region between $\simeq 500$ and 620 cm^{-1} and have also been assigned to TO ($\simeq 556\text{ cm}^{-1}$) and LO ($\simeq 595\text{ cm}^{-1}$) split modes associated with significant Ge and O motion [76]. A ‘defect’ band D₂ occurs at $\simeq 520\text{ cm}^{-1}$. This defect mode is the equivalent of the D₂ band observed in SiO₂ glass at 606 cm^{-1} and is assigned similarly to an oxygen-breathing mode associated with three-membered rings of GeO₄ tetrahedra, and this assignment has been recently supported by the study of Giacomazzi *et al* [58] (figure 8(c)). The intensity of this band is much stronger relative to the main vibrational band at $\simeq 420\text{ cm}^{-1}$ in comparison to the equivalent bands for SiO₂ glass. This indicates that the GeO₂ network, while being composed predominantly of six-membered rings of GeO₄ tetrahedra (see above), does have a larger proportion of three-membered rings relative to SiO₂ glass. The relatively narrow band at around 420 cm^{-1} is the symmetric stretching mode of the Ge–O–Ge bridging oxygens. Its width is much narrower than the equivalent band observed in SiO₂ glass at 440 cm^{-1} and indicates that the distribution of Ge–O–Ge intertetrahedral angles for GeO₂ glass is narrower than that for SiO₂ glass consistent with the neutron and x-ray data above.

The origin of the boson peak (BP) at 60 cm^{-1} (the peak occurs over a broad range between $40\text{--}60\text{ cm}^{-1}$) remains controversial. It has been assigned to acoustic-like harmonic modes, localized quasi-harmonic modes and the smallest-energy van Hove singularity of the crystal (cf [77, 78] and references therein). Most recently, there seems to be a consensus that the origin of the BP is due to optic-like excitations related to nearly rigid SiO₄ (or GeO₄) librations through hybridization of the acoustic waves [79]. It exhibits a dependence on the fragility of the glass (fragile glasses have weak BP intensity), as well as fictive temperature (for SiO₂ the BP shifts to higher wavenumber with increasing fictive temperature). In addition, there is a monotonic frequency shift in the BP for pure SiO₂, to lower wavenumbers with the addition of GeO₂, which may indicate that GeO₂ substitutes isomorphously into SiO₂ [78].

The Raman spectrum of GeO₂ glass indicates that the T–O–T intertetrahedral angle and its distribution are narrower for GeO₂ glass relative to SiO₂ glass, consistent with the x-ray and neutron diffraction studies (see above). These latter studies also suggest that the medium-range structure of GeO₂ glass consists of six-membered rings of GeO₄ tetrahedra, similar to those observed in the α -quartz polymorph of GeO₂, with a high proportion of small three-membered GeO₄ rings (relative to SiO₂ glass). An interesting aspect of the medium-range structure was raised by Henderson *et al* [74] and Henderson and Fleet [75] using Raman

spectroscopy. They suggested that the medium-range structure of GeO₂ may actually consist of four- rather than six-membered GeO₄ rings. This suggestion has not been explored further and there have not been any x-ray or neutron scattering studies that have compared GeO₂ glass with structures containing predominantly four-membered GeO₄ rings. However, Giacomazzi *et al* [58] recently used a model GeO₂ structure that had exclusively three- and four-membered GeO₄ rings. Their model reproduced the first sharp diffraction peak in the neutron static structure factor (indicative of medium range structure), and the infrared and Raman spectra of GeO₂ glass (figure 8(c)) reasonably well. The question of whether or not the medium-range structure of GeO₂ glass consists of six- or four-membered rings remains unanswered and open for further studies.

3.4. Infra-red (IR) spectroscopy

There have been relatively few infra-red studies of GeO₂ glass, primarily because the IR spectra are more difficult to interpret and obtain than the Raman spectra. One of the earliest is that of Kaiser *et al* [80], while more recent studies have tended to use IR in high-pressure studies [81] for investigating the onset of amorphous to amorphous phase transitions (see below). The IR spectrum of GeO₂ glass exhibits two peaks at 560 cm⁻¹ and one at \simeq 870 cm⁻¹ with a shoulder at \simeq 1000 cm⁻¹, although the relative intensities for these two bands are reversed in the spectra of Galeener *et al* [82]. The low frequency band at 560 cm⁻¹ is the IR equivalent of the LO bending mode observed in the Raman spectrum at \simeq 595 cm⁻¹, while the bands at 870 cm⁻¹ and \simeq 1000 cm⁻¹ are the IR equivalent TO (870 cm⁻¹) and LO split asymmetric stretching of the bridging oxygens [82]. The data of Galeener *et al* [82] also show a peak in their IR reflectance spectrum at \simeq 340 cm⁻¹, which is the equivalent of the 347 cm⁻¹ Raman band. Galeener *et al* [82] assign this band however to an LO mode. In general the LO modes are more intense in the IR relative to Raman spectra, while the TO modes are more intense in the Raman relative to IR spectra.

With increasing pressure, the 560 and 870 cm⁻¹ peaks broaden and the region between the bands (\simeq 700 cm⁻¹) exhibits an increase in intensity [81], although part of this increase is due to a shift in the 560 cm⁻¹ band to higher wavenumbers with increasing pressure (up to 6 GPa). Teredesai *et al* [81] also observe with increasing pressure a decrease in wavenumber for both high wavenumber bands. Above 6 GPa, all bands shift to higher wavenumbers coincident with the onset of the pressure-induced coordination change of Ge noted by Itié *et al* [8]. However, glasses decompressed from 9.5 GPa exhibit a 30 cm⁻¹ red shift in the position of the 870 cm⁻¹ peak with no shift in position of the 560 cm⁻¹ peak [81].

3.5. Increasing pressure and temperature

The effect of pressure on GeO₂ glass at ambient temperature has been investigated by Ishihara *et al* [83] and *in situ* by Durben and Wolf [84] and Polsky *et al* [85]. Up to 6 GPa, Durben and Wolf [84] observe a shift of the main Raman band at \simeq 420 cm⁻¹ to higher frequency with concomitant broadening and loss of intensity. Between 6 and 13 GPa the main Raman band broadens and loses intensity without a shift in frequency. In addition, they observe the growth of a broad low-frequency band at \simeq 240 cm⁻¹ and no further spectral changes are observed beyond 13 GPa up to 56 GPa. However, upon decompression, the 520 cm⁻¹ D₂ band characteristic of three-membered rings is enhanced relative to uncompressed GeO₂ glass and indicates that three-membered rings are formed during decompression from high pressure. Similar results were obtained by Polsky *et al* [85] and both they and Durben and Wolf [84] observe subtle changes in the Raman spectra between 5 and 10 GPa characteristic of the pressure-induced change in Ge coordination observed by *in situ* EXAFS and XANES studies [8].

Up to 5 GPa, both Durban and Wolf [84] and Polsky *et al* [85] suggest that compression of the GeO₂ glass network is taken up by tetrahedral deformation with a smaller decrease in the intertetrahedral angle. In addition, they conclude that there is no increase in intensity of the 520 cm⁻¹ D₂ band. However, this conclusion is questionable given that the main Raman band at 420 cm⁻¹ appears to move to higher wavenumbers with increasing pressure (above 4 GPa), and as Polsky *et al* [85] themselves note any apparent decrease in the intensity of the 520 cm⁻¹ band may simply be a consequence of changes in the adjacent band at 420 cm⁻¹. Examination of figure 2 of Durban and Wolf [84] shows that above 3.7 GPa the 420 and 520 cm⁻¹ bands are merged and individual bands are unable to be discriminated. Below 3.7 GPa, the intensity of the D₂ band also cannot be determined without some knowledge of how the spectra have been normalized but a cursory examination appears to indicate that the D₂ intensity has increased relative to the maximum in the main 420 cm⁻¹ band. Furthermore, Ishihara *et al* [83], albeit using permanently densified GeO₂ glasses, note that growth of the D₂ band correlates with increasing pressure; higher pressures produce increased D₂ intensity although there are no permanent structural changes for glasses decompressed from below 4 GPa [85].

High temperature studies have been performed by Magruder *et al* [86] and Sharma *et al* [87]. With increasing temperature Magruder *et al* determined that the high-frequency TO/LO split pair undergoes a twofold loss of intensity between 1723 and 2023 K and that the D₂ band intensity remains constant. The high-frequency LO band at 988 cm⁻¹ (figure 7(a)) loses intensity as the TO/LO splitting is lost with increasing temperature [87] but even in the melt phase two bands are observed at \simeq 818 and 940 cm⁻¹, respectively. However, Sharma *et al* [87] observed an increase in intensity of the D₂ band and a shift of the main Raman band at 420 cm⁻¹ to higher wavenumbers combined with a loss of intensity, while the low-frequency band at 347 cm⁻¹ shifts to lower wavenumbers but is observed up to 1623 K. Both studies clearly show that the Raman bands observed in GeO₂ glass remain even in to the melt phase but that there are subtle changes in intensities and band positions as the glass is heated and eventually melts.

3.6. NMR spectroscopy

The coordination environment of Ge in GeO₂ and alkali-containing GeO₂ glasses remains an area of intense interest from a glass perspective because of the unusual physical properties of alkali-containing germanate glasses and the possible role of Ge coordination in this behaviour [75, 88]. Ge NMR would normally be the technique of choice to investigate the coordination environment of Ge in glasses. Germanium has five naturally occurring isotopes (⁷⁰Ge, ⁷²Ge, ⁷³Ge, ⁷⁴Ge and ⁷⁶Ge) but only ⁷³Ge is suitable for NMR studies. However, while ⁷³Ge NMR has been successfully performed on solid crystalline compounds [89–91] it has not been useful for elucidating the structure of glasses [92, 93].

The ¹⁷O MAS NMR spectra of GeO₂ glass, and the α -quartz-like and rutile-like polymorphs of crystalline GeO₂, have been obtained by Du and Stebbins [93]. The two crystalline polymorphs and GeO₂ glass all exhibit a single crystallographic oxygen site similar to previous data obtained at lower magnetic fields [94]. The oxygen site in the GeO₂ glass is comparable to that found in the α -quartz-like GeO₂ polymorph, indicating that the glass consists of a network of GeO₄ tetrahedra, consistent with x-ray and neutron scattering studies.

4. Structure of densified liquid GeO₂

Melting curves at elevated pressures were first reported by Jackson [95] in the range 1100–1700 °C and 0.5–2 GPa. The high-temperature part of the phase diagram was also studied in [96], where an observed flattening of the melting curve at $P \simeq$ 2–4 GPa seems to be an

indication of densification of the melt due to the transformation of a quartz-like liquid into a rutile-like one.

Ordering of the melt structure in the same range of temperatures and pressures as above was also reported [97] from Raman scattering. Specifically, the lowering of the Rayleigh line intensity from *in situ* high-pressure and temperature liquid Raman spectra was found to be significantly lower than for a glass quenched at ambient pressure. This suggests an increased degree of short-range order on compression in the liquid and a more ordered network structure. However, it constitutes a major obstacle to studying liquid GeO₂ at elevated pressures. Note that molecular dynamics has not tried to simulate these experiments yet (see below).

5. Structure of the binary SiO₂–GeO₂ glasses

Germania and silica are prototype glasses for continuous random network models, based on the corner sharing connection of their SiO₄ and GeO₄ tetrahedra. The variations in the intertetrahedral angles and the presence of some structural defects (for instance dangling bonds in SiO₂ glass) allows the formation of a three-dimensional disordered network.

Germanosilicate glasses are widely used as low-attenuation optical fibres, yielding numerous studies on their physical (optical) properties [98]. Structural studies are more scarce, despite the need for an understanding of the relationship between glass properties and structure, particularly with respect to variation of the local site geometry, intertetrahedral angles, ring statistics and their relationship to chemical ordering, clustering and/or substitution. A fundamental question is to determine whether or not germanosilicate glasses form a homogeneous network or if there is some sort of clustering or phase separation.

5.1. EXAFS and x-ray scattering

An early Ge *K*-edge EXAFS investigation [99] on 12.5GeO₂–87.5SiO₂ and 36.5GeO₂–63.5SiO₂ glasses calculated a Ge–O distance of 1.73 ± 0.01 Å but no second neighbours were observed. A more extensive study using a combination of Ge *K*-edge x-ray absorption and wide-angle x-ray scattering (WAXS) experiments were carried out on GeO₂–SiO₂ glasses containing 16–36 mol% GeO₂ [100]. They showed that the XANES spectra are similar with increasing GeO₂ content and that EXAFS-derived distances are 1.72 ± 0.02 Å for Ge–O. A Ge coordination number of 3.9 ± 0.2 , consistent with Ge in tetrahedral sites as in vitreous GeO₂, and a mean Si–O distance of 1.62 Å, consistent with Si remaining tetrahedrally coordinated, were obtained from their WAXS data. These results seem to be contradicted by a high-energy x-ray diffraction study on a 29GeO₂–71SiO₂ composition glass [101] that found a mean coordination number for Si and Ge of 3.4 ± 0.05 . The authors explain this low coordination number by proposing that a considerable number of Ge atoms are connected with fewer than four oxygens or are highly distorted. Except for the latter study, whose coordination number seems questionable, all structural studies are consistent with the presence of SiO₄ and GeO₄ tetrahedra in binary SiO₂–GeO₂ glasses.

The first peak observed in the x-ray radial distribution function is at higher distance than would be expected assuming standard Si–O and Ge–O distances (1.62 and 1.72 Å respectively for tetrahedral environment [100]). This suggests that the binary glasses are not a simple physical mixture of SiO₂ and GeO₂ oxides. In germanosilicate glasses, no GeO₂ clusters are observed and GeO₄ tetrahedra are thus part of the SiO₂ network. This is confirmed by the second shell of neighbours that has been observed in EXAFS data [100]. Indeed, this peak corresponds to Si and/or Ge neighbours and both its position and its intensity vary upon Si/Ge substitution. Ge atoms can thus be accommodated within the SiO₂ network. Intertetrahedral

angles were calculated from EXAFS and WAXS data and are between 139° and 149° , which is closer to 144° for SiO_2 glass (albeit the magnitude of this angle remains controversial, cf [102]) than 133° for GeO_2 glass. This suggests that at low GeO_2 content the Ge environment is constrained by the silicate network. These results are consistent with a substitutional model in which Ge substitutes randomly for Si in the vitreous SiO_2 network with little Ge clustering. A random substitution model is further supported by recent ^{17}O multiple quantum NMR spectra on GeO_2 – SiO_2 binary glasses, which show peaks for all three types of bridging oxygens (Ge–O–Ge, Ge–O–Si, Si–O–Si), in proportions at least roughly consistent with random mixing of the tetrahedral cations [103].

The binary SiO_2 – GeO_2 glass structure can be described by a continuous random network of corner sharing GeO_4 and SiO_4 tetrahedra.

5.2. Raman spectroscopy

Information on the medium-range structure such as ring statistics and the ordering of Si and Ge atoms has been primarily obtained by Raman spectroscopic investigations of germanosilicate glasses. Important modifications appear between the Raman spectra of pure GeO_2 and SiO_2 and some specific structures are present in the spectra of the binary glasses.

The band at low frequency shifts from 437 cm^{-1} in SiO_2 to 416 cm^{-1} in GeO_2 and becomes sharper [104]. This band is attributed to the T–O–T (T = Si or Ge) symmetric stretching mode and is thus characteristic of the distribution maximum in the T–O–T intertetrahedral angles [105]. Therefore, it can be concluded that the fluctuation in the intertetrahedral angle decreases as GeO_2 is introduced into the silica network.

A complete Raman study from pure SiO_2 to pure GeO_2 was carried out by Sharma *et al* [104] in order to characterize the distribution of SiO_4 and GeO_4 tetrahedra. In the germanosilicate glasses, a weak band in the range 970 – 1010 cm^{-1} appears that is not present in pure SiO_2 or GeO_2 glasses. This band is attributed to the antisymmetric stretching motion of the bridging oxygen of Si–O–Ge linkages, while the corresponding modes for the Si–O–Si and Ge–O–Ge linkages appear at $\simeq 1110\text{ cm}^{-1}$ and $\simeq 880\text{ cm}^{-1}$, respectively. The position of the band is at $\simeq 1000\text{ cm}^{-1}$ for the 10GeO_2 – 90SiO_2 glass but decreases to $\simeq 920\text{ cm}^{-1}$ for the 90GeO_2 – 10SiO_2 glass. This shift in position towards lower frequency is attributed to a decrease in the Si–O–Ge bond angle in the GeO_2 -rich glasses [104]. In the 50GeO_2 – 50SiO_2 glass, the bands at 1100 and 880 cm^{-1} are stronger than the one at 980 cm^{-1} . This indicates the formation of Si–O–Ge bonds but also the existence of an important number of Si–O–Si and Ge–O–Ge linkages. According to these authors, the Si/Ge ordering is likely non-ideal, which supports a random distribution of SiO_4 and GeO_4 tetrahedra (see comment above regarding ^{17}O NMR). In a molecular dynamics simulation of a 50GeO_2 – 50SiO_2 glass [106], a large fraction of Ge–O–Si bonds were found, as well as Ge–O–Ge and Si–O–Si linkages. Based on the simulations, Bernard *et al* [106] proposed that Ge/Si ordering occurred but not to the extent that phase separation was evident. They also showed that non-bridging oxygens (5%) were mainly localized in the Ge environment.

With a small addition of GeO_2 , the D_1 and D_2 lines of SiO_2 glass at 495 and 606 cm^{-1} , attributed to four-membered and three-membered rings of the SiO_4 tetrahedra in vitreous silica, are still observed, but the intensity of the D_1 line decreases sharply, while that of the D_2 lines decreases slowly and broadens [107]. Nian *et al* [107] suggested that the substitution of Ge for Si in the vitreous SiO_2 network prevents the formation of these ring structures. This was explained by the disruption of the fourfold and threefold SiO_4 rings to accommodate the larger GeO_4 tetrahedra that distort the silicate network. Alternatively, the decrease in intensity of D_1 and D_2 lines could also be due to a change in polarizability of the Si–O bonds as Ge pulls

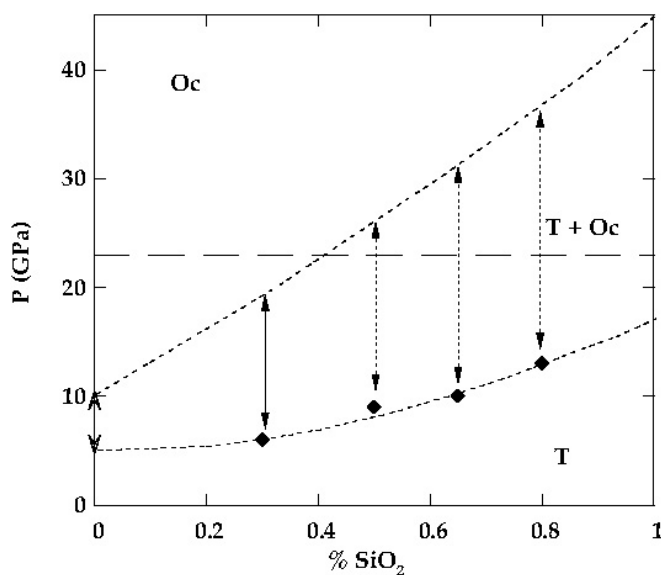


Figure 9. Pressure–composition diagram of the $\text{SiO}_2\text{--GeO}_2$ glasses (after [108]), depicting the pressure-induced Ge coordination change. The horizontal dashed line separates the pressure range explored. Diamonds are the pressure onsets of the coordination change and the dashed curves delimit the intermediate domain separating the low-density form (T for tetrahedral) and high-density form (Oc for octahedral).

electron density away from O attached to Si, which is an explanation more consistent with the preference for three-membered rings in GeO_2 relative to SiO_2 as indicated by diffraction and Raman data (see above). With small addition of GeO_2 , a new band appears at 710 cm^{-1} but its assignment is not clear [107]. Above 15 mol% GeO_2 content, weak and broad shoulders are exhibited at $\simeq 568$ and $\simeq 670\text{ cm}^{-1}$ and the band at $\simeq 800\text{ cm}^{-1}$ decreases in intensity [104].

5.3. Evolution with pressure

The Ge coordination change in the tetrahedral framework $\text{SiO}_2\text{--GeO}_2$ glasses is a reversible process that has to be studied by *in situ* high-pressure XAS measurements at the Ge *K* edge [108]. The pressure–composition diagram in figure 9 shows the existence of three regions with distinct short-range structures. At low pressure, the region corresponds to a tetrahedral framework structure (T domain), then an intermediate domain with a mixture of different sites, while, at higher pressure, the Oc region corresponds to a structure with ^{61}Ge . The ^{41}Ge to ^{61}Ge transformation is reversible with an important hysteresis (a return back to the tetrahedral site below 4 GPa). The coordination change is dependent on the mean composition of the glasses and extends over higher pressure range when the SiO_2 content increases. The remarkable dependence of the Ge coordination change on the SiO_2 content shows that the Ge local structure is strongly affected by Si. The disruption of the SiO_2 tetrahedral network begins at 10 GPa, as evaluated by Raman spectroscopy [85], which is similar to the XAS data at high SiO_2 content and indicates that Ge and Si convert to a sixfold coordination state simultaneously. This result suggests that the pressure-induced transformations occur homogeneously in the mixed network and may be driven by the oxygen atoms rather than by the Ge or Si atoms [85]. Indeed, in such fully polymerized networks, oxygens increase their coordination from two to three in the transformation. The transformation occurs at higher pressure and over a broader

pressure range when the SiO₂ content increases. A careful analysis of both XANES and EXAFS signals supports a model of a mixing of ¹⁴Ge and ¹⁶Ge states in the transition region, in agreement with a kinetically hindered first-order process for the transformation at room temperature.

6. Molecular simulations and theoretical approaches

6.1. Force field parameters

Several force field potentials have been proposed to describe either the crystalline phases of GeO₂ or amorphous germania. All these potentials contain a long-range Coulombic part, along with a short-range repulsive term and an additional van der Waals-like term

$$V_{ij}(r_{ij}) = \frac{Z_i Z_j e^2}{r_{ij}} + A_{ij} e^{-r_{ij}/\rho_{ij}} - \frac{C_{ij}}{r_{ij}^6} \quad (1)$$

where Z_i is the charge on ion i . The parameter ρ_{ij} serve to determine the steepness of the short-range repulsive potential and is known as the ‘softness’ parameter. The parameters A_{ij} and C_{ij} serve to adjust the positions of the first peak in each possible radial distribution function to experimental findings. Oeffner and Elliot [109] have fitted equation (1) to obtain cell parameters, density and elastic constants of the trigonal α -quartz-like and tetragonal rutile-like phases of GeO₂. Bond angles and bond lengths in both the low- and high-pressure phases are found to agree with experimental findings. The Raman and infrared vibrational spectra are also simulated within the harmonic approximation using the bond-polarizability model of Long [110]. Analysis from the vibrational density of states of Ge–O–Ge motions shows that for α -quartz-like GeO₂ symmetric and asymmetric bending motions are mostly confined to medium- and low-frequency bands, while symmetric stretching and bending motions can be reasonably simulated at the anticipated frequencies.

Matsui and co-workers [111] have used the same kind of approach, i.e. the fitting of equation (1), to simulate another structural phase transition, namely the pressure-induced change from α -quartz-like GeO₂ to rutile-like GeO₂, which happens at 7.4 GPa. The structure obtained at this pressure appears to be quite similar to the structure calculated for SiO₂ at 21.5 GPa [112]. Furthermore, it is shown that α -quartz-like GeO₂ close to the transition is mechanically unstable as some of the elastic moduli of the lattice become negative. Specifically, the decrease of the transverse elastic constant C_{44} leads to an unstable shear that originates the transformation to the rutile-like structure. For increased pressures, a post-rutile-like structure is found [11] that has a CaCl₂-like structure which consists of tilted GeO₆ octahedra. This appears to be in agreement with Brillouin scattering results of α -GeO₂ under pressure [113], which show that the shear constants are largely softened with respect to SiO₂ and can be related to shear instability.

More recently, an alternative model has been proposed by Van Hoang [114] for liquid and amorphous germania that is based on a Morse-like potential in a similar manner to the potential given by Kim for GeO₂ [115]. We discuss below the structural predictions of the Van Hoang potential. For completeness, we mention also the model potential proposed by Nanba [116] to account for GeO₂–PbO–PbF₂ glasses. However, it appears to show poor agreement with the rutile-like properties of GeO₂.

Topological and geometrical approaches have also been proposed [117] in order to generate continuous random network models of GeO₂ that reproduce the experimental density, bond angle distributions and neutron scattering data [35]. Araujo has used statistical mechanical techniques [118] to calculate the density of oxygen vacancies in GeO₂ and the absorption coefficient with respect to temperature.

6.2. Simulation of liquid and amorphous germania

Most of the work using the effective potentials described above has been devoted to the description of the high-temperature liquid where experimental data are lacking. Gutierrez and Rogan [119] have simulated GeO_2 at 1500 and 3000 K. At these temperatures, the system seems to be made of slightly distorted GeO_4 tetrahedra which are linked by corners and have a Ge–O–Ge angle of 130° , similar to the experimental value in the amorphous phase (GeO_2 glass). A volume collapse, in the range 4–8 GPa, is seen from the pressure–volume curve and may be the signature of a liquid–liquid phase transition, in analogy with water [120]. Van Hoang has carried out a similar study [121] under the same kind of conditions, i.e. in the high-temperature (5000 K) liquid with changing density, and has suggested that a diffusion maximum should be attained for a density of about 5 g cm^{-3} . This anomaly appears to be produced by competition between the breakdown of the tetrahedral network structure, leading to an increase in atomic mobility, and the packing effects arising from densification that tend to reduce the mobility. The simulated structure of liquid GeO_2 and SiO_2 appears to be very similar when the partial atomic correlation functions are properly rescaled [122].

Micoulaut *et al* [59] have used the Oeffner–Elliot potential to study the glass and liquid phases, which allows comparison with experiments. In the glass, the structural properties can be simulated relatively well, even though some structural limitations of the potential appear. While the first structural peak due to Ge–O interactions can be modelled very well at the expected distance of 1.72 \AA , as can the O–O distance at 2.81 \AA , the Ge–Ge correlations appear to be slightly overestimated (3.32 \AA) with respect to experimental values. This overestimation leads to a larger calculated value for the intertetrahedral angle than that obtained experimentally: 159° versus 130° , respectively. It is now well known that simple ionic potentials such as the ones reported above [109, 11] result in Ge–O–Ge angles that are too wide, a situation that has been encountered and reported already for amorphous silica [123]. However, the absence of any Ge–Ge interaction in the effective Oeffner–Elliot potential, except in the Coulombic term, may be responsible for the increased distortion in germania with respect to silica. In spite of these deficiencies, the simulation correctly describes the structure factor $S(Q)$ and the partial structure factors $S_{ij}(Q)$ (figure 5) and allows one to infer the origin of the first sharp diffraction peak (FSDP) as mostly arising from Ge–Ge correlations. However, overall the potential is found to reproduce the features of neutron scattering functions (figure 10) reported by different groups [35, 57].

Simulation using a Morse-like potential [114] provides a somewhat better agreement with the experimental partial atomic correlation functions (figure 10) as the Ge–Ge distance is found to be 3.21 \AA at 300 K with correct bond angles ($\theta_{\text{O–Ge–O}} = 108^\circ$ and $\theta_{\text{Ge–O–Ge}} = 133^\circ$) whereas both Ge–O and O–O distances are slightly underestimated (1.69 and 2.78 \AA respectively) relative to experimentally derived values.

6.3. Glass transition problem of strong glasses

Enthalpy and glass transition temperature can be simulated rather well [59] with respect to calorimetric measurements [124]. With the Oeffner–Elliot potential, a T_g of 900 K is found from the inflexion point of the potential energy. This value is close to the experimental derived T_g (850 K, [125]). This appears to be rather unusual, as MD simulations on similar systems [126, 127] predict much higher glass transition temperatures than the corresponding experimental ones. This is partially due to the high quench rates applied. In the present simulated systems, onset of slow dynamics at the nanosecond scale occurs in the same range of temperatures (920 K) which corroborate the calculated T_g from the inflexion point of the energy profile.

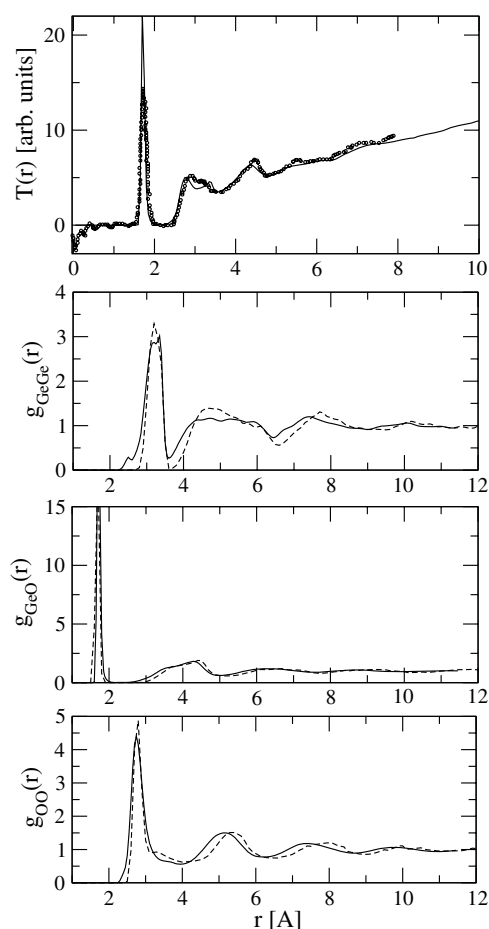


Figure 10. Upper panel: simulated (dashed) neutron structure [59] factor $T(r)$ compared to experimental findings [57]. Lower panels: partial structure factors of 300 K amorphous GeO_2 using the Oeffner–Elliot (solid line) [109] and the Morse-like potential (broken line) [114].

When put in contrast with silica, a more careful inspection of the self-diffusion coefficient D with respect to the viscosity behaviour [128] shows that the agreement between the simulated and experimentally measured T_g reveals an underlying failure of the simulation technique. The self-diffusion coefficient D is computed from the mean-squared displacement of the germanium and oxygen atoms, and shows Arrhenius-like behaviour $D = D_0 \exp[E_i/T]$ at low temperatures, whereas at higher temperatures ($T > 1600$ K) some curvature appears (figure 11), similar to that found for molten silica [129]. However, the calculated oxygen diffusion constant for GeO_2 at 1440 K is several orders of magnitude larger than the reported data for oxygen diffusion ($D_O = 7 \times 10^{-14} \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$, [130]). A predicted diffusion constant D from viscosity data η using the Eyring relation $k_B T / \eta D = \lambda$ (where λ is a hopping length of about several ångströms [131]) shows that both silica and germania overestimate the diffusion constants with respect to their simulated T_g values, thus allowing the system to remain in a liquid-like behaviour to lower temperatures. This underscores both the limitation of the employed potentials and the size of the simulated systems (actually up to several thousand atoms) to accurately describe the glass transition of strong glass formers.

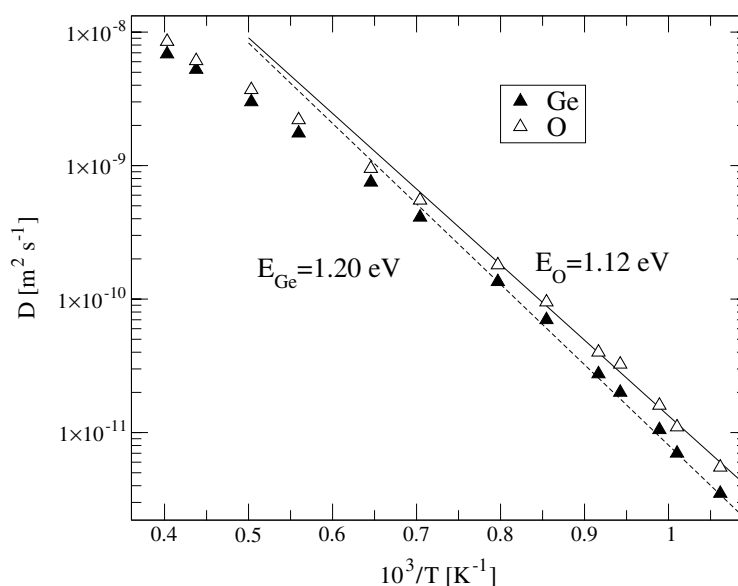


Figure 11. Simulated diffusion for germanium and oxygen using the Oeffner–Elliot potential [59].

6.4. Equation of state

The equation of state (EOS) of GeO_2 has been reported by different authors, either on the basis of simulations [119] or from empirical models based on simple structural arguments [132]. In the latter, Smith and co-workers have shown that a two-state function, taking into account the effect of the tetrahedral and octahedral character at low and high pressures, is able to describe the experimental equation of state at 300 K, whereas molecular dynamics simulations only succeed in simulating the EOS in the low pressure range.

At higher temperatures and higher densities, Gutierrez and Rogan [119] have shown that for simulated GeO_2 in the $3.5\text{--}5.6\text{ g cm}^{-3}$ and $T = 1500\text{--}3000\text{ K}$ range, pressure displays a monotonic decrease with molar volume. In the same context, a Birch–Murnaghan type [133] of EOS has been used [59] to fit a set of 269 simulated state points in the thermodynamic diagram. The method allows the extraction of the isothermal compressibility κ_T as a function of temperature and density for density ranges lying between the ordinary glass density at 300 K ($\rho = 3.66\text{ g cm}^{-3}$, [67]) and about 2.5 g cm^{-3} . Progressive deviation of the Birch–Murnaghan EOS with respect to the simulated thermodynamic points appear for $\rho < 2.5\text{ g cm}^{-3}$ at high temperatures. At 2000 K, the computed compressibility ($\kappa_T = 9.13 \times 10^{-11}\text{ Pa}^{-1}$) is rather close to the experimentally measured value of Dingwell *et al* ($\kappa_T = 12.4 \times 10^{-11}\text{ Pa}^{-1}$, [134]).

Micoulaut and Guissani [59] have used a direct molecular dynamics method [135] to follow the equation of state at zero pressure, in order to predict the liquid–vapour coexistence curve of germania on the low- (vapour) and high-density (liquid) side in order to compare it with experimental results in the liquid up to 1440 K [67]. Furthermore, the method highlights the quality of the effective potentials employed at low temperature. At zero pressure and low temperature (300 K), the density of a simulated Oeffner–Elliot GeO_2 glass [109] is indeed 3.70 g cm^{-3} , whereas the density of a simulated GeO_2 glass using an alternative potential [11] substantially disagrees with the experimental low-temperature density of the liquid ($\rho = 4.25\text{ g cm}^{-3}$ as compared to the experimental $\rho = 3.66\text{ g cm}^{-3}$). Note however that this potential was used to study pressure-induced rigidity in GeO_2 (see below, [136])

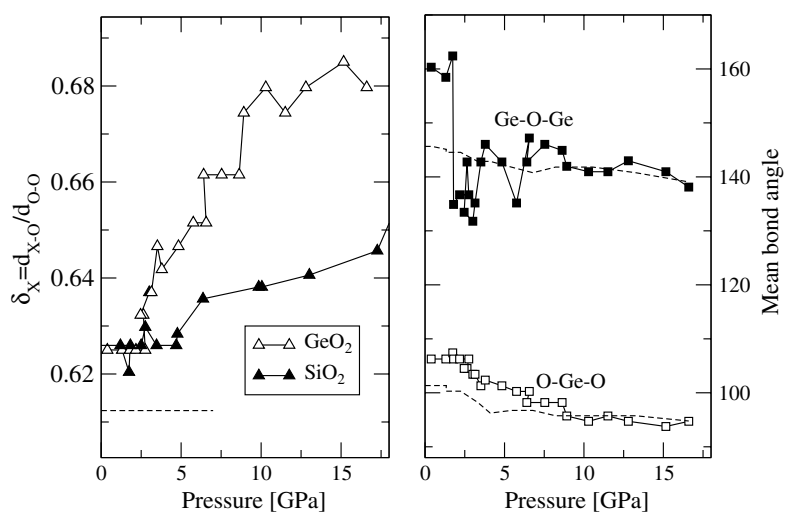


Figure 12. Local structure of germania with applied pressure [60]. Left panel: distortion parameter δ_X of regular GeO_4 and SiO_4 tetrahedra, as a function of applied pressure ($X = \text{Ge}$, open triangles). For comparison, the same parameter for SiO_2 ($X = \text{Si}$, filled triangles) is shown. The broken horizontal line represents the value of the perfect tetrahedron $\delta = \sqrt{3}/8$. Right panel: mean bond angles Ge-O-Ge and O-Ge-O with respect to compression (open and filled symbols) and decompression (broken curves).

and the density at zero pressure was found [137] to be 3.9 g cm^{-3} , i.e. much closer to the experimental value. The thermal history of the simulation appears therefore to be crucial in this case.

Using a Wegner type expansion [138], a critical point for germania is predicted and is located at $T_c = 3658 \text{ K}$, $\rho_c = 0.59 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$ and $P_c = 40 \text{ MPa}$ [139]. For the Tsuchiya potential [11], the location of the critical point seems to be much higher in temperature [140]. This shift may arise from the increased charges used in the effective potential.

6.5. Pressurized germania

The application of pressure to amorphous germania seems to affect the structure stepwise. Experimentally, a jump in bond distance from 1.72 to 1.86 \AA is observed at around 9 GPa , signalling the conversion of tetrahedral to octahedral local structure as already described. However, numerical simulations show [60], at least in the low pressure range, that this conversion is somewhat more subtle. For pressures up to 2 GPa , long-range correlations are reduced, as seen from the shift to higher wavevector of the position of the FSDP, similar to experimental observations [141]. In addition, a reduction is observed in the intertetrahedral bond angle (Ge-O-Ge) and then for $P = 3 \text{ GPa}$ a sharp distortion of the GeO_4 tetrahedron occurs (figure 12). These results are accompanied by a global increase in the number of oxygen neighbours in the vicinity of a germanium atom that parallel the increase in density [59].

Sharma and co-workers [142] have studied both the pressure-induced structural changes of the α -quartz-like GeO_2 polymorph and amorphous GeO_2 using the Oeffner–Elliott potential in the (N, P, T) ensemble. The results show that both the average bond distance (Ge-O) and the average Ge coordination in α -quartz-like GeO_2 undergo a sharp change at around 8 GPa under compression, similar to the experimental findings of Itié *et al* [8]. On decompression, the denser phase transforms back to a lower-density phase at $\approx 2 \text{ GPa}$. The details of the number of oxygen neighbours around a Ge atom show, however, that the high-density phase is not

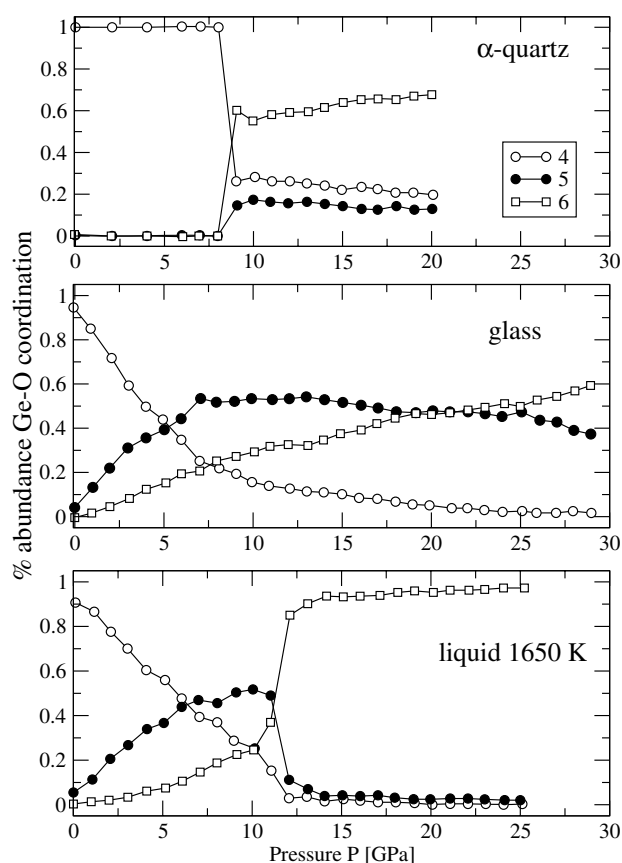


Figure 13. Calculated variation with pressure [142] of the fractional abundance of Ge coordination in the α -quartz-like GeO_2 polymorph, glassy (300 K) and liquid GeO_2 (1650 K).

fully sixfold coordinated, as about 15% fivefold and 20% fourfold germanium can be found (figure 13). Less abrupt changes are expected for vitreous GeO_2 (figure 13), where a majority of sixfold germanium only occurs for pressures larger than 20 GPa.

The structural changes with pressure are more dramatic in liquid (1650 K) GeO_2 as a sudden loss of fivefold germanium atoms and an almost sixfold coordinated structure is obtained for pressures larger than 12 GPa.

Finally, it appears that the evolution of the intermediate-range order with pressure or density is selective as MD simulated ring statistics [143] show that rings with more than six germania tetrahedra tend to disappear for densities larger than 5 g cm^{-3} , whereas the growth of edge-sharing GeO_6 octahedra signals a behaviour similar to TiO_2 .

6.6. Pressure-induced rigidity and intermediate phases

Trachenko *et al* [144, 145] have been investigating the network rigidity of GeO_2 and SiO_2 under pressure. Rigidity usually appears when the number of mechanical constraints per atom, arising from interatomic interaction (mostly bond stretching and bond bending), becomes greater than the number of degrees of freedom [146]. In network glasses, this is generally achieved by the addition of cross-linking elements such as germanium into a basic flexible structure containing

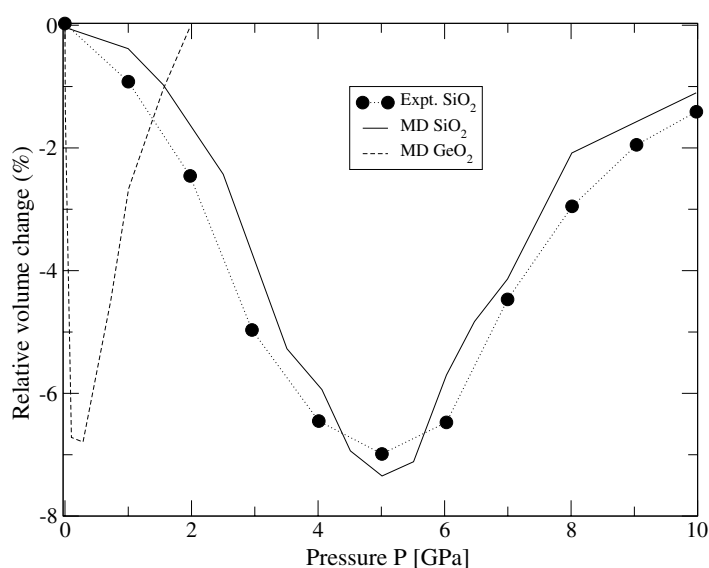


Figure 14. Relative variation in volume in GeO₂ and SiO₂ glasses under pressure compared with experiments on SiO₂ [136].

e.g. selenium chains. This leads to an increase of the network mean coordination number \bar{r} (and to the increase of constraints) and produces a stiffening of the structure and ultimately a floppy to rigid transition. The onset of rigidity and the way it percolates has been documented for various glass-forming systems. In recent years, however, a reversibility window [147, 148] has been discovered located between the floppy and rigid phases, which manifests itself by the loss of irreversibility (and hysteresis) of the heat flow when cycling through the glass transition temperature region. A similar state can be found in glassy GeO₂ and SiO₂ under pressure.

Pressure-induced rigidity in GeO₂ glass using MD simulations has been addressed recently [136]. Here the increase in connectivity (or mean coordination number \bar{r}) is achieved with the increase of the glass density or the application of pressure that produces a tetrahedral to octahedral conversion. Thus pressure introduces locally rigid higher-coordinated units in an otherwise flexible tetrahedral network of GeO₄ tetrahedra. Densification with temperature under pressure can take place in a pressure window, centred around the rigidity percolation transition. The density change is about 7%. This new effect has been rather well documented for silica [144, 145] and compared successfully with experimental results [149] and additional simulations showing the loss of low-frequency modes in the effective vibrational densities of states at the same pressure where densification occurs. However, it has only been shown that the pressure window in germania is centred around 0.5 GPa, i.e. considerably lower than for silica (5 GPa) (figure 14). However, it is another signature of the increased sensitivity to pressure change of GeO₂ with respect to SiO₂. Indeed, the tetrahedral to octahedral conversion of amorphous SiO₂ manifested by the jump in Si–O bond distances is found to be around 13 GPa [150], whereas the same jump is found to be at 8 GPa for GeO₂ glass [8]. It is therefore not surprising at all that onset of rigidity manifests at lower pressures in GeO₂.

6.7. *Ab initio* studies of *c*-GeO₂ and germania

One way to circumvent the possible failures of the above mentioned semi-empirical potentials is the use of *ab initio* methods, especially under extreme conditions where the potentials are not

necessarily reliable. Hafner and co-workers [19] have studied the high-pressure transformations up to 70 GPa of crystalline GeO₂, using density functional theory with a pseudopotential method, and a local density approximation. It appears from this computation that several high-pressure phases can exist in GeO₂, which are a tetragonal CaCl₂ type at 40 GPa, an α -PbO₂-type at 40 GPa and finally a pyrite-type crystal at 70 GPa, similar to those observed experimentally (see above) (figure 3). These transformations highlight the analogy of the phase transition sequence between SiO₂ and GeO₂ polymorphs at high pressure. Additional studies concerning the electronic properties of these polymorphs have been reported by Christie *et al* [151], using the same tools. This allows determination of the lattice parameters, cohesive energy and bulk modulus by minimizing the total energy of the solid. In addition, an equation of state for the polymorphs can be fitted with a Birch–Murnaghan EOS [133, 152] or the density of states.

Ab initio studies of amorphous germania have been only reported recently [58] using the same numerical scheme but with an improved density approximation (generalized gradient). This enables determination of the neutron structure factor (figure 4), the infrared and the Raman spectra, all of which show good agreement with experimentally derived data (cf, figure 8(c)). It furthermore provides insight into the three-membered ring distribution and the so-called D₂ line first described by Galeener and workers [82]. The projection of vibrational eigenmodes onto natural or isotopic substituted oxygen breathing motions in these rings shows that a broad peak centred at 520 cm⁻¹ and corresponding to the experiment is blueshifted with ¹⁸O by 26 cm⁻¹. The number of these rings is found to be about 20% of the oxygen atoms. On the other hand, similar calculations do not seem to support the assignment of four-membered rings to the D₁ line found at 347 cm⁻¹. Instead, this band seems to arise from coupled motions of Ge and O atoms.

7. Summary and conclusions

Studies on the structure of crystalline, liquid and glassy GeO₂ continue to be of interest to a number of researchers in physics and glass, materials and geological sciences. This breadth of interest stems from the fact that while there are close similarities between GeO₂ and SiO₂ there are also distinct differences, which make GeO₂ useful as an analogue for studying the high-pressure behaviour of oxide glasses. Crystalline GeO₂ polymorphs behave, with increasing temperature and pressure, in a manner similar to crystalline SiO₂ polymorphs. However, pressure-induced phase transformations generally occur at much lower pressures than equivalent SiO₂ phases. This is because the larger GeO₄ tetrahedron (relative to the SiO₄ tetrahedron) is more distorted due to greater variability in the O–Ge–O angles. This makes the use of GeO₂ polymorphs attractive as SiO₂ analogues in high-pressure studies for studying possible pressure-induced structural changes, since the pressure ranges required are much more accessible.

GeO₂ glass has also been considered as being somewhat similar to SiO₂ glass. The first three interatomic distances in the glass are reasonably well resolved and indicate that, like SiO₂ glass, the network is composed of tetrahedra linked together through their corner bridging oxygens. However, there are significant differences between the two glass networks. GeO₂ glass has a much smaller mean Ge–O–Ge angle and a much higher proportion of three-membered rings, relative to SiO₂ glass. Furthermore, there may be differences in the intermediate-range structure, with GeO₂ glass possibly being composed of four-membered rings, rather than the currently accepted six-membered rings similar to SiO₂ glass. In addition, application of high pressure readily converts fourfold Ge to sixfold Ge, via a transitional fivefold coordination, at much lower pressures than found for SiO₂ glass. In the liquid state GeO₂ retains fourfold geometry to high temperature but with broadened Ge–O–Ge angles,

although numerical studies of liquid GeO₂ indicate that while the GeO₄ tetrahedra are distorted the Ge–O–Ge angle remains similar to that found in the α -quartz-like GeO₂ polymorph. Furthermore, simulation of pressure effects indicates that the pressure-induced transformation from four- to sixfold Ge observed experimentally at $\simeq 9$ GPa may be quite subtle. Onset of the simulated transition occurs at 2 GPa with loss of long-range correlations, a reduction in the Ge–O–Ge angle, followed by a sharp distortion of the GeO₄ tetrahedra at 3 GPa. This is accompanied by the onset of rigidity at much lower pressure than observed for SiO₂ glass. When Ge substitutes for Si along the GeO₂–SiO₂ binary, there is no evidence for clustering or phase separation of the glass network and it is composed of SiO₄ and GeO₄ tetrahedra. The substitution is random, with no heterogeneity induced in the combined network. However, with increasing pressure Ge undergoes a coordination change from four- to sixfold coordination. The pressure at which this occurs is dependent upon the SiO₂ composition, indicating that Si has an influence on the local structure of Ge. In addition, there is a broad pressure–composition range over which Ge is in both four- and sixfold coordination.

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