

Interaction of Oxygen with Mo(100), Mo(110), and Mo(111) Surfaces. RHEED and AES Analyses of the Molybdenum Oxide Nucleation and Growth

N. FLOQUET AND O. BERTRAND

Université de Bourgogne, Laboratoire de Recherches sur la Réactivité des Solides, URA 23 CNRS, B.P.138, 21004 Dijon Cedex, France

Received October 9, 1990; in revised form March 4, 1991

A study of the nucleation and growth of MoO₃ generated by interaction of oxygen with Mo(100), Mo(110), and Mo(111) single crystalline surfaces is investigated at high oxygen pressure (10⁴ Pa) and low temperature (620 to 820 K). The results of RHEED and AES analyses prove that under these oxidation conditions, MoO₃ nucleates directly from the metal without intermediate formation of MoO₂ or nonstoichiometric molybdenum oxide such as Mo_xO₁₁. The structure and orientation of MoO₃ nuclei are characterized in relation with the parent molybdenum surface. On the Mo(110) and Mo(111) surfaces, which are faceting, the nucleation and growth of MoO₃ takes place by successive structural steps. On the Mo(100) surface, epitaxial relations induce the formation of MoO₃(010) plates oriented onto the Mo surface, which stabilizes and makes passive the Mo(100) surface. The features of the nucleation and growth of MoO₃ are interpreted as linked respectively to structural relations of the metal–oxide interface and to preferential diffusion paths of oxygen through MoO₃. © 1991 Academic Press, Inc.

1. Introduction

Molybdenum is an important alloying metal that is utilized in many technologies requiring high temperature. For this reason, numerous investigations relate to the interaction of molybdenum surfaces with oxygen at low pressure and high temperature. They give detailed results about oxygen chemisorption, surface faceting, and the epitaxial formation of MoO₂ crystallites (1–22). Some results of a recent work (16) establish that for long oxygen exposure, amorphous MoO₃ (presumably disordered) and intermediate oxides are formed, mixed with MoO₂ crystallites on the Mo(112) faces created on a Mo(111) surface. Other investigations do not relate more, about MoO₃ or intermediate

oxide formation, because the MoO₃ phase is highly volatile under these particular oxidation conditions.

Molybdenum oxide is an excellent catalyst for the partial oxidation of olefins and alcohols and the reduction of nitric oxide. Earlier thermodynamic studies (23–34) and our recent works (35–36) on the oxidation of molybdenum foils investigated in a temperature range from 733 to 953 K and under high oxygen pressure (2.7 × 10³ and 8 × 10⁴ Pa) prove that the oxidation of molybdenum foils leads to MoO₃ scales, with a preferential orientation of the crystallites.

In view of these previous data, the purpose of the present investigation is double. The fundamental aim is to characterize the mechanisms of nucleation and growth of

MoO₃ produced by the interaction of oxygen with a molybdenum single crystal surface. The applied aim is to control the elaboration of the MoO₃ crystals for catalytic applications, considering that the catalytic properties of MoO₃ are known to be sensitive to the superficial structures of the exposed faces of MoO₃ crystals.

We have explored oxide formation starting with the clean Mo(100), Mo(110), Mo(111) crystal faces of molybdenum in the temperature range of 620 to 820 K and in the oxygen pressure range of 2.7×10^3 and 4×10^4 Pa.

The changing surface structures were monitored by reflection high-energy electron diffraction (RHEED) and the variations of surface composition and metal oxidation states were measured by Auger electron spectroscopy (AES) peak ratios and peak shapes.

2. Experimental

2.1 Apparatus

Preparation and oxidation experiments were run in a high pressure reaction chamber equipped, among the usual equipment, with an argon ion gun and an infrared reflector heating samples at its focalization point up to 1723 K in vacuum. The sample temperature was monitored by use of a Pt-Pt (10% Rh) thermocouple which was mechanically affixed to the crystal. Research-grade argon and oxygen were admitted into the reaction chamber through variable leak valves. Low and high pressures were taken from the readings of an ion gauge and a Bourdon gauge, respectively.

Chemical and structural analyses were carried out in a standard UHV chamber with CMA-AES and RHEED equipment. The two chambers are connected through a vacuum interlock. The samples were transferred from each to other by means of a magnetic transfer system. They were placed in a high-precision manipulator which controls accurately the angular (to 1 degree) and

azimuthal (to 1/10 degree) orientation of the sample with respect to the AES and RHEED analyzers.

The CMA with a colinear electron gun operated either at 1.5 or 2.5 KeV to prevent sample damage was used for the Auger measurements. A 4-V peak-to-peak modulation amplitude was used for most measurements and gave good sensitivity without appreciable distortion of the peak shapes. Some data were collected using a 1-V peak-to-peak modulation amplitude to distinguish changes in the carbon and molybdenum peak shape.

The RHEED gun was operated at 40 kV and the electron beam was directed onto the crystal surface at a glancing angle between 5° and 1°. The sample manipulator allowed RHEED observations along a 120° azimuth of the crystal.

2.2 Preparation and Cleaning of Molybdenum Surfaces

Electron beam-melted single crystals were grown by the floating zone technique from molybdenum bars, 5 mm in diameter, by T. N. Nowicki (37). The crystals were oriented to $\pm 1^\circ$ of the Mo(*hkl*) planes by the L aue X-ray diffraction technique and were cut using a metal-bonded diamond saw. After being cut, the samples were mechanically polished with diamond paste and finally electropolished in an ethanol, methanol, sulfuric acid solution.

Following introduction into the reaction chamber, the sample was initially treated by extensive heating in oxygen at a pressure of 1.3×10^{-5} Pa and temperatures up to 1000 K to reduce bulk carbon. Repeated argon ion bombardments readily removed oxygen and sulfur, but induced bulk carbon segregation. Fine structure on the low energy side of the C(272) Auger transition proved the carbidic nature of the overlayer. Subsequent annealing at 1200 K gave rise to Mo₂C layers epitaxied on the Mo surface as characterized by RHEED patterns and AES data (see Section 3.3.1). Heating to 1000 K for

several minutes in oxygen at pressure of 1.3×10^{-5} Pa removed the Mo₂C overlayers. These cleaning procedures were repeated until AES indicated less than 0.1 monolayer of oxygen and RHEED patterns characterized a well-ordered surface.

The AES and RHEED patterns from a Mo(110) surface following these stages of cleaning are shown in Fig. 1.

2.3 Oxidation Experiments

Experimental oxidation conditions are closely linked to the thermodynamic data for the molybdenum oxygen system (38–41). Schematically, under about 10^4 Pa oxygen pressure (31–32), from 673 K molybdenum undergoes oxidation into molybdenum oxide solids. No volatile oxides are formed. From 773 K, the sublimation of MoO₃ solid is beginning. The most prominent species are the MoO₃ trimers (42–43). From 1073 K, the liquefaction of MoO₃ solid is arising.

In the explored temperature range chosen between 620 and 820 K and the oxygen pressure range at about 2.7×10^3 Pa, the phenomena of both molybdenum oxide solid formation and MoO₃ sublimation will occur.

The exposures of the Mo(100), Mo(110), and Mo(111) surfaces to oxygen were run in the reaction chamber with the following procedure: oxygen gas was first introduced at 2.7×10^3 Pa pressure, then the crystal surface was heated by means of the calibrated infrared reflector. The exposure time over, heating was stopped and gas was rapidly evacuated. The sample was then transferred in the UHV chamber for AES and RHEED analyses, successively.

3. Results and Discussions

RHEED and AES analyses of the oxidized surface are realized after each exposure lasting between several minutes and a few hours.

Molybdenum Oxides Structural Data

RHEED patterns are interpreted, comparing them with theoretical or experimental diffraction patterns obtained from known structures of the different molybdenum oxides or from natural faces of our synthesized crystals such as MoO₃, Mo₁₈O₅₂, Mo₉O₂₆, Mo₈O₂₃, Mo₄O₁₁, MoO₂ (44–47).

MoO₃ has an orthorhombic structure ($a = 3.96 \text{ \AA}$, $b = 13.86 \text{ \AA}$, $c = 3.69 \text{ \AA}$) formed by the stacking of two-level MoO₆ layers parallel to MoO₃(010). The relative displacements of the double layers are so connected that the outside oxygen atoms in one layer are placed between the outside oxygen atoms of the neighboring layers (Fig. 2). Successive layers parallel to the MoO₃(010) planes are linked together by Van der Waals interactions. In such a structure, MoO₆ octahedra are relatively distorted (48).

The MoO₂ structure built with MoO₆ octahedra is generally described as monoclinic (deformed rutile type) with the parameters $a = 5.61 \text{ \AA}$, $b = 4.85 \text{ \AA}$, $c = 5.63 \text{ \AA}$, $\beta = 120^\circ 57'$. Along MoO₂[100], the MoO₆ octahedra are joined by sharing edges to form strings (Fig. 3) (49, 50). The structure is very nearly hexagonal with an a/c ratio of 1.16. The monoclinic–hexagonal translation is made by assuming $\beta = 120^\circ$ and $a = c$.

The structure of the nonstoichiometric oxides can be described as built up of MoO₆ octahedra and MoO₄ tetrahedra, more or less distorted (51, 52). The Mo₁₈O₅₂ oxide is built up of MoO₃ orthorhombic slabs of finite width joined by crystallographic shear planes (CS planes) of MoO₄ tetrahedra. Mo₉O₂₆, Mo₈O₂₃, Mo₄O₁₁ are formed of MoO₃ cubic (ReO₃ type) slabs of finite width, joined by CS planes of MoO₄ tetrahedra. Table I gives the crystallographic data of these oxides.

Molybdenum Oxide Auger Spectra

In the same manner, Auger spectra are systematically compared with standard spectra obtained either from natural faces

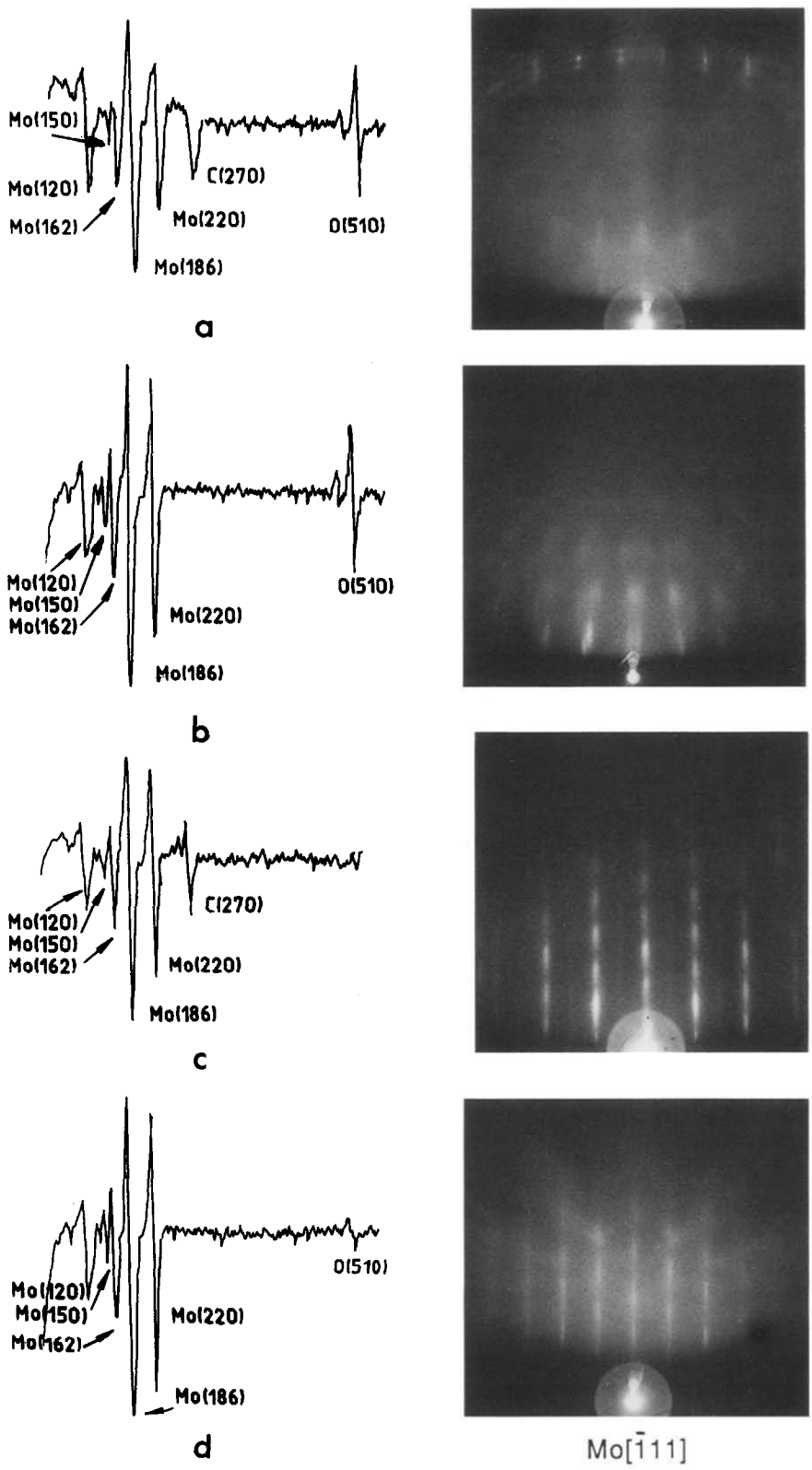


FIG. 1. AES and RHEED patterns from a Mo(110) surface at the various stages of cleaning: (a) electropolished, (b) heated 2 hr in 1.3×10^{-5} Pa oxygen at 1000 K, (c) ions argon bombarded for 10 min at 300 K, (d) cleaned and structured.

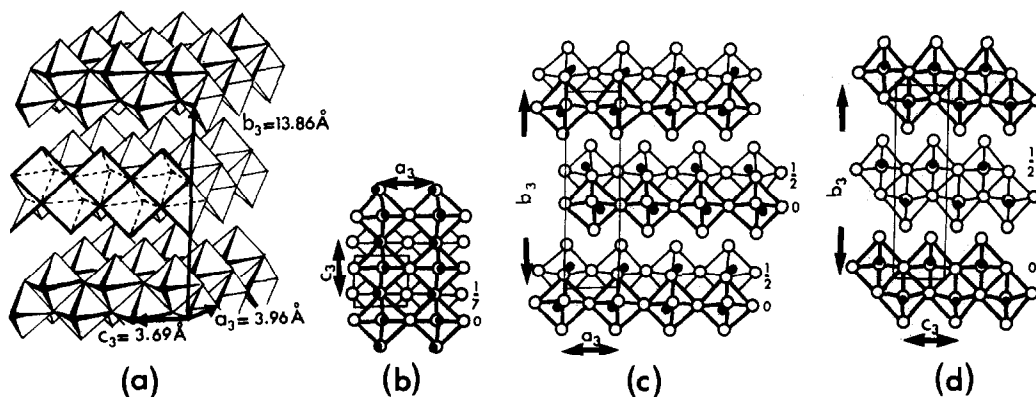


FIG. 2. (a) MoO_3 orthorhombic structure formed by two levels of MoO_6 octahedra layers linked by Van der Waals interactions, (b) [010], (c) [001], (d) [100] projections of MoO_3 structure ($a = 3.96 \text{ \AA}$, $b = 13.86 \text{ \AA}$, $c = 3.69 \text{ \AA}$).

of single crystals such as $\text{MoO}_3(010)$ and $\text{MoO}_2(001)$ faces, or from a thick film of MoO_3 and MoO_2 crystallites produced by controlled oxidation of a molybdenum sheet.

According to the results reported by Lin and Lichtmann (53) and S. Yashonath *et al.* (54), the distinctions between the standard spectra of the Mo, MoO_2 , and MoO_3 sur-

faces are relatively small, though detectable and reproducible.

In first derivation spectra, the energy and the lineshape of the molybdenum $M_{4,5}VV$ and $M_{4,5}N_{2,3}V$ Auger transitions change as reported in Fig. 4. The ratios of the peak-to-peak height of these same molybdenum Auger transitions vary systematically with the number of valence electrons or the oxidation number, Z , of the metal, as shown in

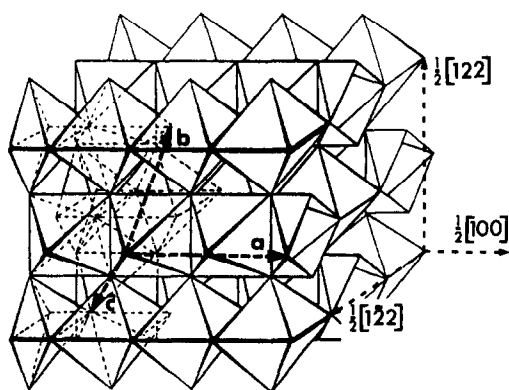


FIG. 3. MoO_2 structure. Described in the monoclinic system ($a = 5.61 \text{ \AA}$, $b = 4.85 \text{ \AA}$, $c = 5.63 \text{ \AA}$, $\beta = 120^\circ 57'$), it is too nearly hexagonal ($a \approx c$, $\beta \approx 120^\circ$). It too could be described as tetragonal by building the elementary cell from $1/2[122] = 6.86 \text{ \AA}$, $1/2[122] = 6.86 \text{ \AA}$, and $1/2[100] = 2.80 \text{ \AA}$.

TABLE I

| Systems | | Parameters | |
|-------------------------------|--------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| $\text{Mo}_{18}\text{O}_{52}$ | Triclinic | $a = 8.145 \text{ \AA}$ | $\alpha = 95.47^\circ$ |
| $\text{MoO}_{2.888}$ | | $b = 11.89 \text{ \AA}$ | $\beta = 90.39^\circ$ |
| | | $c = 19.66 \text{ \AA}$ | $\gamma = 109.97^\circ$ |
| Mo_9O_{26} | Monoclinic | $a = 16.74 \text{ \AA}$ | |
| $\text{MoO}_{2.888}$ | | $b = 4.019 \text{ \AA}$ | $\beta = 95.45^\circ$ |
| | | $c = 14.53 \text{ \AA}$ | |
| Mo_8O_{23} | Monoclinic | $a = 16.90 \text{ \AA}$ | |
| $\text{MoO}_{2.875}$ | | $b = 4.019 \text{ \AA}$ | $\beta = 106.27^\circ$ |
| | | $c = 14.53 \text{ \AA}$ | |
| Mo_4O_{11} | Orthorhombic | $a = 24.40 \text{ \AA}$ | |
| $\text{MoO}_{2.75}$ | | $b = 5.450 \text{ \AA}$ | |
| | | $c = 6.723 \text{ \AA}$ | |

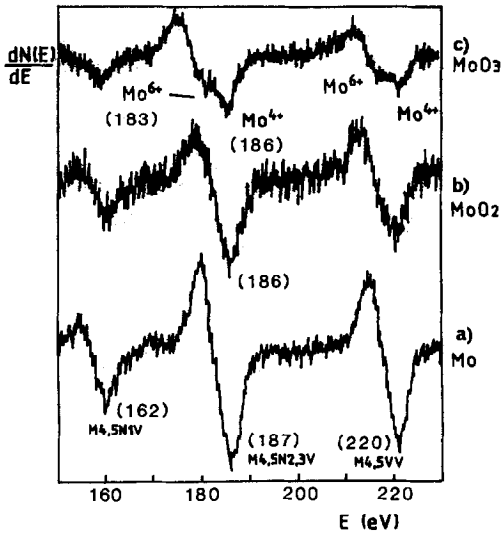


FIG. 4. Mo Auger MNN valence spectra of (a) Mo(110) surface, (b) MoO₂(001) surface, (c) nonstoichiometric MoO₃(010) surface. Beam energy $E_p = 2500$ eV, modulation voltage = 1 V peak-to-peak.

Fig. 5. Lastly, the oxygen KL_{2,3}L_{2,3} transition intensity referred to the molybdenum M_{4,5}VV transition intensity is, respectively, 3 ± 0.2 for MoO₂ and 4.1 ± 0.2 for MoO₃.

The features of the standard spectra show that the simultaneous formation of MoO₂ and MoO₃ phases should be more evidenced

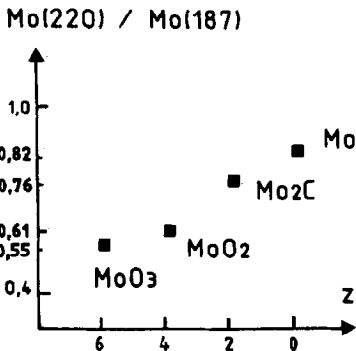


FIG. 5. Dependence of Auger intensity ratios ($R = I_{M_{4,5}VV}/I_{M_{4,5}N_{2,3}V}$) of molybdenum and its oxides on the oxidation number Z .

by the values of the ratios of the molybdenum Auger transitions.

3.1 Oxidation on the Mo(110) Surface

3.1.1 Temperature of 620 K

At oxygen pressure of 2.7×10^3 Pa, RHEED patterns of the smooth Mo(110) surface (Fig. 6a) fade in a diffuse intensity background and modifications in the Auger spectra characterize the MoO₂ presence: the peak height ratio Mo(220)/Mo(187) decreases from 0.85 to 0.62 and the ratio O(510)/Mo(220) increases from 0.1 to 2.9. There is no M_{4,5}VV splitting, no new peak lower than the M_{4,5}N_{2,3}V transition. The presence of the C(272) peak indicates the carbon adsorption in the graphite form.

After a few minutes exposure, no noticeable changes occur in the Auger spectra, but new RHEED patterns (Fig. 6b) appear: reflection spots are large and elongated perpendicular to the crystal surface, resulting from flat MoO₂ crystallites, in epitaxial relation with the Mo(110) surface:



Similar epitaxial MoO₂ crystallites were reported by Kennet (12) for exposure of 3×10^{-2} Pa · sec oxygen at 900 K and by Brückner (10) for 1.3×10^{-5} and 1.3×10^{-1} Pa · sec oxygen exposure at 1000 K onto the Mo(110) surface.

The Auger spectra and the new RHEED patterns are stable under any further oxygen exposure. Exposures at 4×10^{-4} Pa oxygen and higher temperature (820 K) result in the same Auger spectra and more diffuse RHEED patterns. These results show that MoO₃ is not formed; the overlayers of MoO₂ crystallites seem to impede the molybdenum oxidation.

3.1.2. Temperature of 720 K

At the first oxygen exposure, the Auger spectra change markedly, which character-

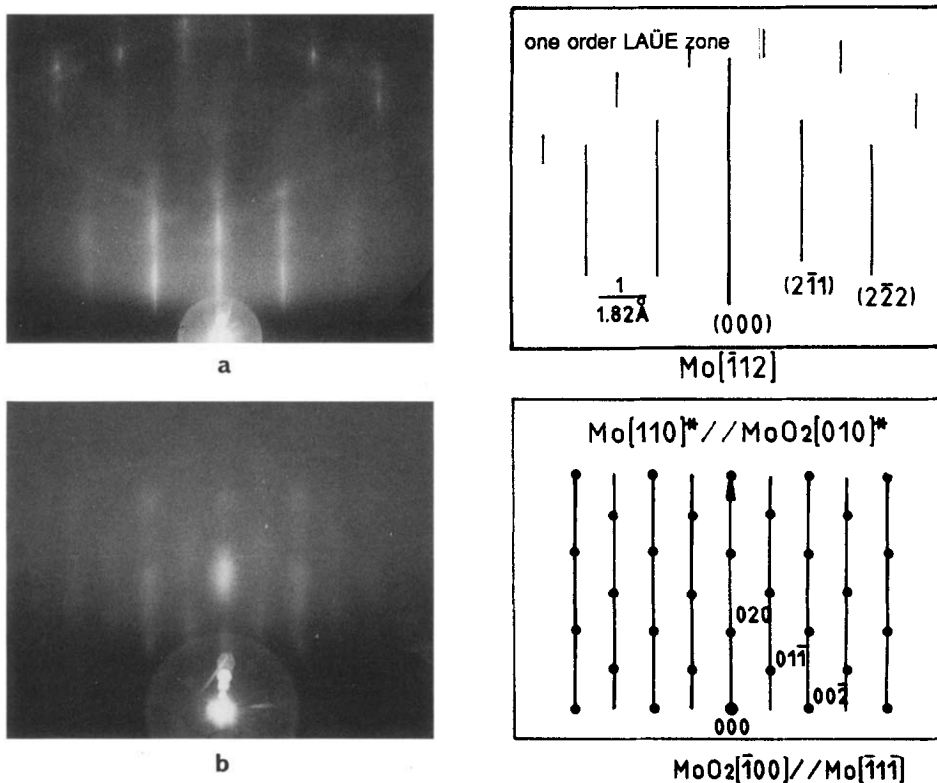


FIG. 6. RHEED patterns from a Mo(110) surface oxidized at 620 K and 2.7×10^4 Pa oxygen pressure for increasing exposure time: (a) initial Mo(110) surface, (b) after 5 min.

ize the MoO₃ formation: M_{4,5}VV peak splitting, a new peak at 183 eV lower than the M_{4,5}N_{2,3}V peak by about 4 eV. The peak height ratio Mo(220)/Mo(187) decreases to 0.56 and the ratio O(510)/Mo(220) increases to 4.1. For further exposures no noticeable changes occur in these Auger spectra.

RHEED patterns (Fig. 7) evidence the formation of MoO₃ crystallites on the Mo(110) surface by successive structural steps.

At the first exposure, streak patterns of the Mo(110) surface disappear for a set of thin rings of uniform intensity, at any azimuth (Fig. 7a). This set of rings corresponds to the (100), (110), (210), and (230) rings of the orthorhombic MoO₃ structure. It does not correspond to the strong rings of the

MoO₃ structure that are (021), (110), and (040) rings. It is interpreted as the formation of MoO₃[100] whiskers in random orientation on the Mo(110) surface.

After a 1-hr exposure, RHEED patterns change and become differentiated for a specific azimuth of the initial Mo(110) surface (Fig. 7b): previous MoO₃ rings become modulated in intensity and less or more diffuse arcs of new MoO₃ rings appears. The maxima of intensity are arranged in three networks of parallel lines which have the same MoO₃[100] periodicity (4 Å) and are parallel to the Mo(100), Mo(101), and Mo(112) faces of the Mo crystal. These diffraction patterns are interpreted by the growth of MoO₃[100] rods perpendicularly to each Mo(100), Mo(101), and Mo(112) facet simultaneously

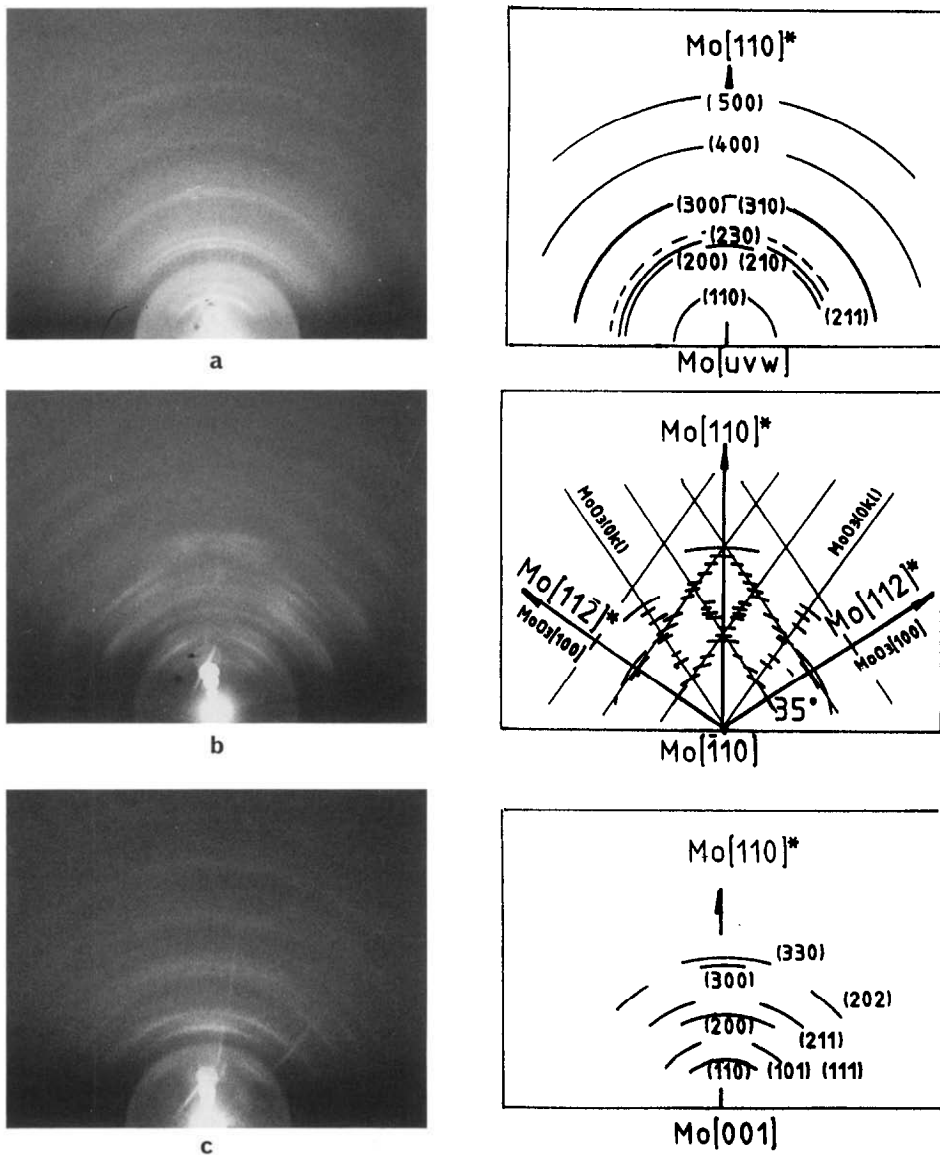


FIG. 7. RHEED patterns from a Mo(110) surface oxidized at 720 K and 2.7×10^4 Pa oxygen pressure for increasing exposure time: (a) after 5 min, (b) after 1 h, (c) after several hours.

formed onto the Mo(110) surface during the oxidation process.

Further exposures, until 8 hr and more, result in a final modification of the RHEED patterns. The maxima of intensity of the MoO₃ rings are arranged on a set of lines

with MoO₃[100] periodicity and parallel to the Mo(110) surface. The patterns in the Mo[001] and Mo[110] azimuths are distinguished (Fig. 7c). These last diffraction features characterize MoO₃ rods whose elongated MoO₃[100] axes grow perpendicular

to the initial Mo(110) surface and MoO₃[001] rows are parallel to the Mo[110] direction of the molybdenum surface:



Compared with RHEED patterns of MoO₃ single crystals, all these observed patterns reveal that the structure of the grown MoO₃ crystallites is never well organized. Accurate analyses specify their structural evolution: first MoO₃[100] rows, oriented perpendicular to the molybdenum facets, are short range ordered in the perpendicular MoO₃[010] row, which is preferentially epitaxially along a metallic row of the molybdenum facet. During their growth, MoO₃[100] rows become oriented perpendicular to the initial molybdenum surface, while MoO₃(010) planes are built up by periodic arrangement of these MoO₃[100] rows. The periodic stacking of these MoO₃(010) planes never seems to be obtained.

3.1.3. Temperature of 820 K

At 820 K, for a pressure of 2.7×10^3 Pa oxygen, molybdenum oxidizes immediately in volatile MoO₃ as revealed by the blue color of the sample holder. Under 4×10^4 Pa oxygen, MoO₃ sublimation is lower. Auger spectra and RHEED patterns prove the formation of MoO₃ onto the Mo(110) surface at an oxidation stage which corresponds to the last oxidation stage observed at 720 K.

3.1.4. Conclusion

From these results, some important features of the oxidation process emerge. The molybdenum oxides grown by interaction of oxygen at high pressure on a Mo(110) surface are the stoichiometric and stable MoO₂ and MoO₃ oxides. Nonstoichiometric molybdenum oxides and even the more stable Mo₄O₁₁ oxide are not evidenced at any stage of the oxidation process.

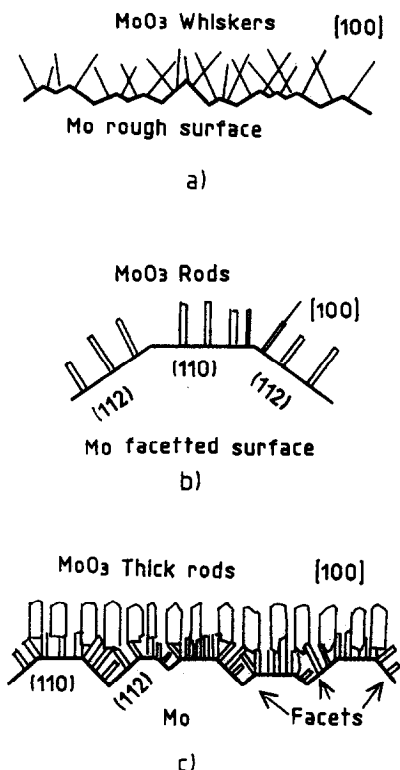


FIG. 8. Schematic pictures of the three main oxidation steps of the Mo(110) surface: (a) formation of perpendicular MoO₃[100] whiskers onto the rough surface, (b) growth of the whiskers normal to the surface facets, (c) far from the metal-oxide interface, growth of thick MoO₃[100] rods, well structured, normal to the Mo(110) surface.

MoO₂ is generated at the lower temperature which corresponds to carbon adsorption, as flat crystallites epitaxially on the Mo(110) surface and in the same orientation to those observed at low oxygen pressure (1.3×10^{-5} Pa). It constitutes a passive film toward the process of molybdenum oxidation.

MoO₃ is built up by successive structural steps (Fig. 8), from MoO₃[100] rows which order farther from the metal-oxide interface, in the layered structure of orthorhombic MoO₃, with some stacking faults of the MoO₃(010) layers. The MoO₃[100] rows first

grow perpendicular to the metallic facets formed during the oxidation process. Such faceting was previously observed during MoO₂ formation onto the Mo(110) surface (10).

The formation of MoO₂ associated with carbon adsorption and of MoO₃ and simultaneous metallic facets on the Mo(110) surface questions whether MoO₃ grows directly from the metal without intermediate formation of MoO₂, whether the MoO₂ formation is induced by the carbon adsorption as a reducing element.

To bring out the oxidation mechanism at the Mo(110) surface at those moderate temperature and high oxygen pressure ranges, oxidation experiments are carried out from a Mo(110) surface covered either partially with MoO₂ crystallites, or with a Mo₂C film.

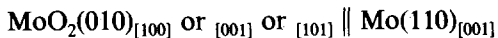
3.2 Oxidation on the Mo(110) Surface Partially Covered with MoO₂ Crystallites

3.2.1. Characterization of the MoO₂ Crystallites on Mo(110) Surface

MoO₂ is obtained by interaction of oxygen at 2.6×10^{-5} Pa pressure, for a 5-hr exposure, with the Mo(110) surface at 1023 K.

The Auger spectra attest of the formation of a noncovered film of MoO₂ onto the Mo surface (about 40%): the ratios of the peak-to-peak heights Mo(220)/Mo(187) = 0.75 and O(510)/Mo(220) = 1.5 lie between the standard ratios of a Mo surface (0.85 and 0) and a MoO₂ surface (0.61 and 3).

Likewise, RHEED patterns (Fig. 9a) characterize simultaneously the slightly rough Mo(110) surface (modulated streaks) and the MoO₂ crystallites (network of spots) which are in epitaxial relationships:



Some stacking faults in the MoO₂[100] or [001] or [101] rows are evidenced by reciprocal planes of diffuse intensity in the diffraction patterns.

Note that, in the monoclinic MoO₂ structure, both the MoO₂(010)_[001] and the MoO₂(010)_[101] orientations are equivalent. Figure 10 shows one of these epitaxial relations: the close MoO₂[100] row of molybdenum atoms lies parallel to the close Mo[111] row. The parametric misfit of 2.9% expresses the interfacial coherence between the Mo(110) surface and the MoO₂(010) plane, which explains that this epitaxial growth of MoO₂ from the Mo(110) surface is readily obtained.

3.2.2. Oxidation of the "MoO₂-Mo(110)" Surface

The oxidation of the "MoO₂-Mo(110)" surface is realized at 720 K and 2.7×10^3 Pa oxygen pressure.

For a few minutes exposure, the Auger spectra characterize MoO₃ formation and RHEED patterns (Fig. 9b) prove the simultaneous presence of the previous MoO₂ crystallites and the new MoO₃[100] whiskers grown perpendicular to the Mo(110) surface and generated Mo(112) facets.

Compared with the MoO₃[100] whiskers grown from the clean Mo(110) surface during the first exposure:

—the faceting of the Mo(110) surface appeared,

—MoO₃ grew from the Mo(110) surface, irrespective of the MoO₂ crystallites: the epitaxied MoO₂ crystallites do not induce any modification in the structure and the orientation of MoO₃.

Further exposure leads to the fading out of the diffraction spots of MoO₂ crystallites until their disappearance after about 10 hr of exposure (Fig. 9c). The concomitant evolution of the MoO₃ diffraction patterns is interpreted by the progressive change of the perpendicular orientation of the MoO₃[100] whiskers, from the Mo(110) surface and Mo(112) facets to only the Mo(110) surface (Fig. 9d), and by the lateral growth of the MoO₃[100] whiskers in the MoO₃ lamellar structure after a few tens of hours.

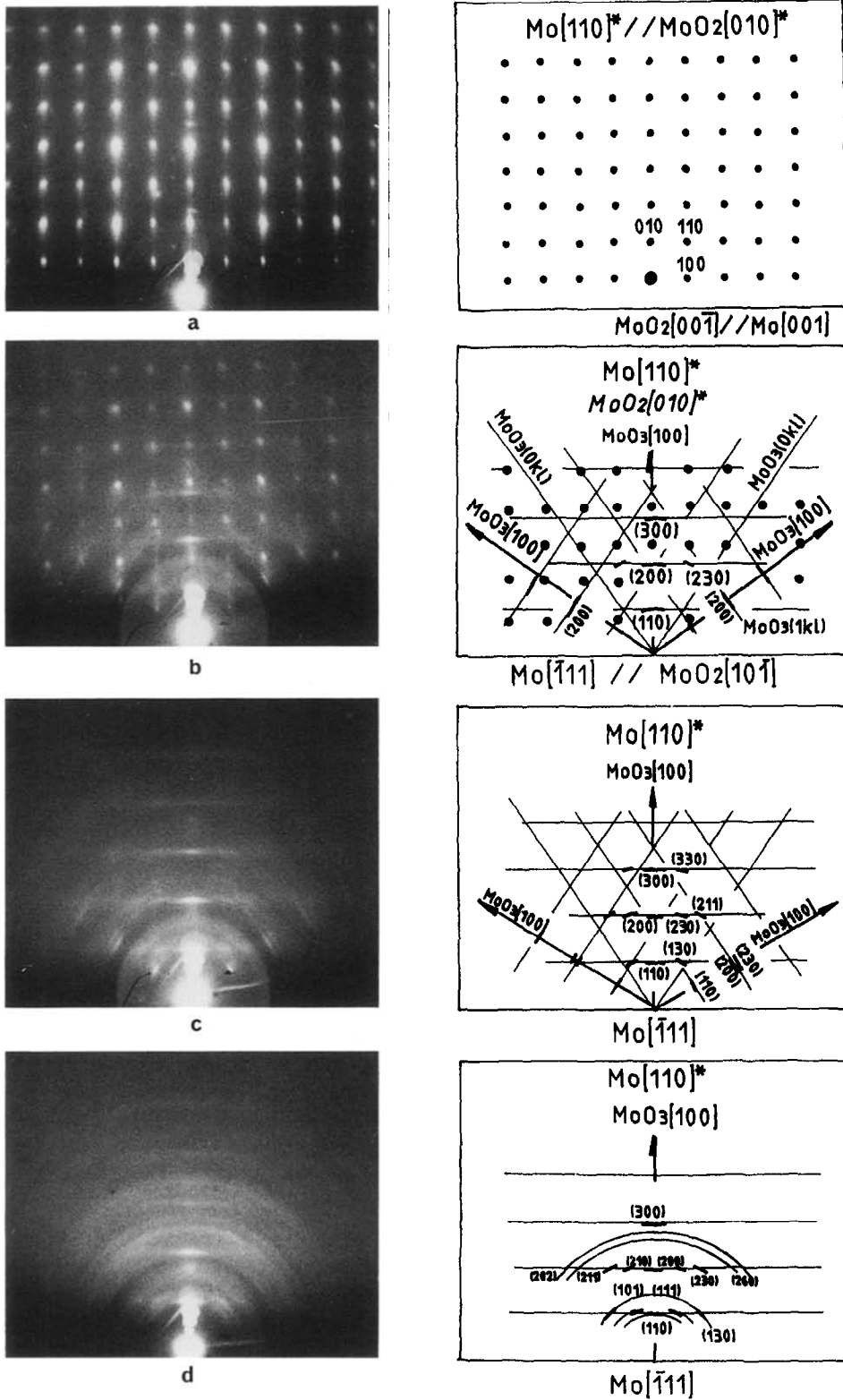


FIG. 9. RHEED patterns from a Mo(110) surface covered partially with MoO₂ crystallites, then oxidized at 720 K and 2.7×10^4 Pa oxygen pressure for increasing exposure time: (a) initial surface, (b) after 5 min, (c) after 10 hr (d) after a few tens of hours.

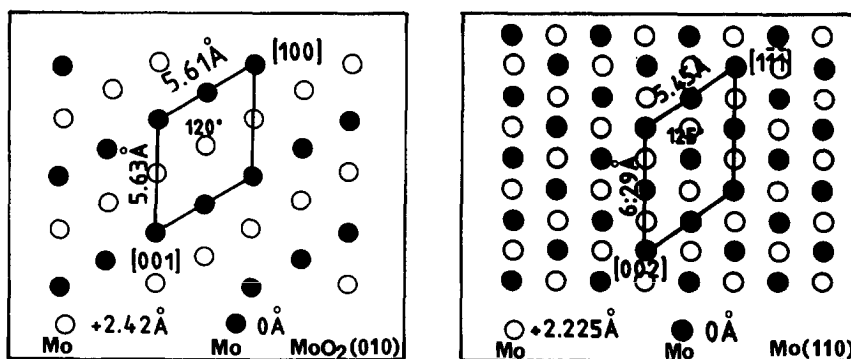


FIG. 10. Positions of molybdenum and oxygen ions in the $\text{MoO}_2(010)$ plane with respect to molybdenum atoms in the $\text{Mo}(110)$ plane.

These structural features of the MoO_3 growth are similar to those reported previously from the clean $\text{Mo}(110)$ surface, only the rate of their evolution seems reduced by the presence of the epitaxied MoO_2 crystallites.

3.2.3. Conclusions

A comparison of the oxidation of a $\text{Mo}(110)$ surface and a $\text{Mo}(110)$ surface partially covered with MoO_2 crystallites emphasizes the protective nature of the MoO_2 crystallites for further oxidation as soon reported for $\text{Mo}(110)$ oxidation at lower temperature (620 K) and supports the oxidation process of the molybdenum leading to the direct formation of MoO_3 , without any intermediate formation such as that of MoO_2 or nonstoichiometric molybdenum oxide.

3.3 Oxidation on the $\text{Mo}(110)$ Surface Covered with a Mo_2C Film

3.3.1. Characterization of the Mo_2C Film on the $\text{Mo}(110)$ Surface

The Mo_2C phase is obtained during the cleaning procedure of the $\text{Mo}(110)$ surface, when sputtered by argon ions and annealed at 1200 K under vacuum (see Section 2.2).

Auger spectra (Fig. 1c) reveal the molybdenum carbide formation by the characteristic shape of the carbon KL_2L_2 transition peak (55). The molybdenum $\text{M}_{4,5}\text{VV}$ and $\text{M}_{4,5}\text{N}_{2,3}\text{V}$ transition peaks have the same shape and energy as those characteristic of a clean Mo surface but their intensity ratio, $\text{Mo}(220)/\text{Mo}(187) = 0.76$, is lower. The intensity ratio $\text{C}(272)/\text{Mo}(220) = 0.6$.

RHEED patterns (Fig. 11a) consist of a network of slightly modulated streaks, normal and oriented in relation with the $\text{Mo}(110)$ surface. Quantitative interpretation yields a pseudohexagonal network with a rectangular surface unit cell ($a = 3 \pm 0.05 \text{ \AA}$ and $c = 4.66 \pm 0.05 \text{ \AA}$ with the ratio $a/c = 0.643$) and an interplanar distance of $2.62 \pm 0.05 \text{ \AA}$ close to the hexagonal value $a\sqrt{3}/2 = 2.60 \text{ \AA}$. This network is compared with the hexagonal Mo_2C network of a very close unit cell: $a = 3.0124 \text{ \AA}$ and $c = 4.7352 \text{ \AA}$ with the ratio $a/c = 0.636$) (ASTM 35-587). It is interpreted by the formation of a slightly rough film of Mo_2C in the epitaxial strain onto the $\text{Mo}(110)$ surface with the orientation relationships $\text{Mo}_2\text{C}(100)_{[010]} \parallel \text{Mo}(110)_{[001]}$.

Diffuse diffraction lines observed at the $\text{Mo}_2\text{C}[001]$ azimuth attest to stacking faults of the hexagonal $\text{Mo}_2\text{C}(001)$ planes which are perpendicular to the $\text{Mo}(110)$ surface along the $\text{Mo}[001]$ directions.

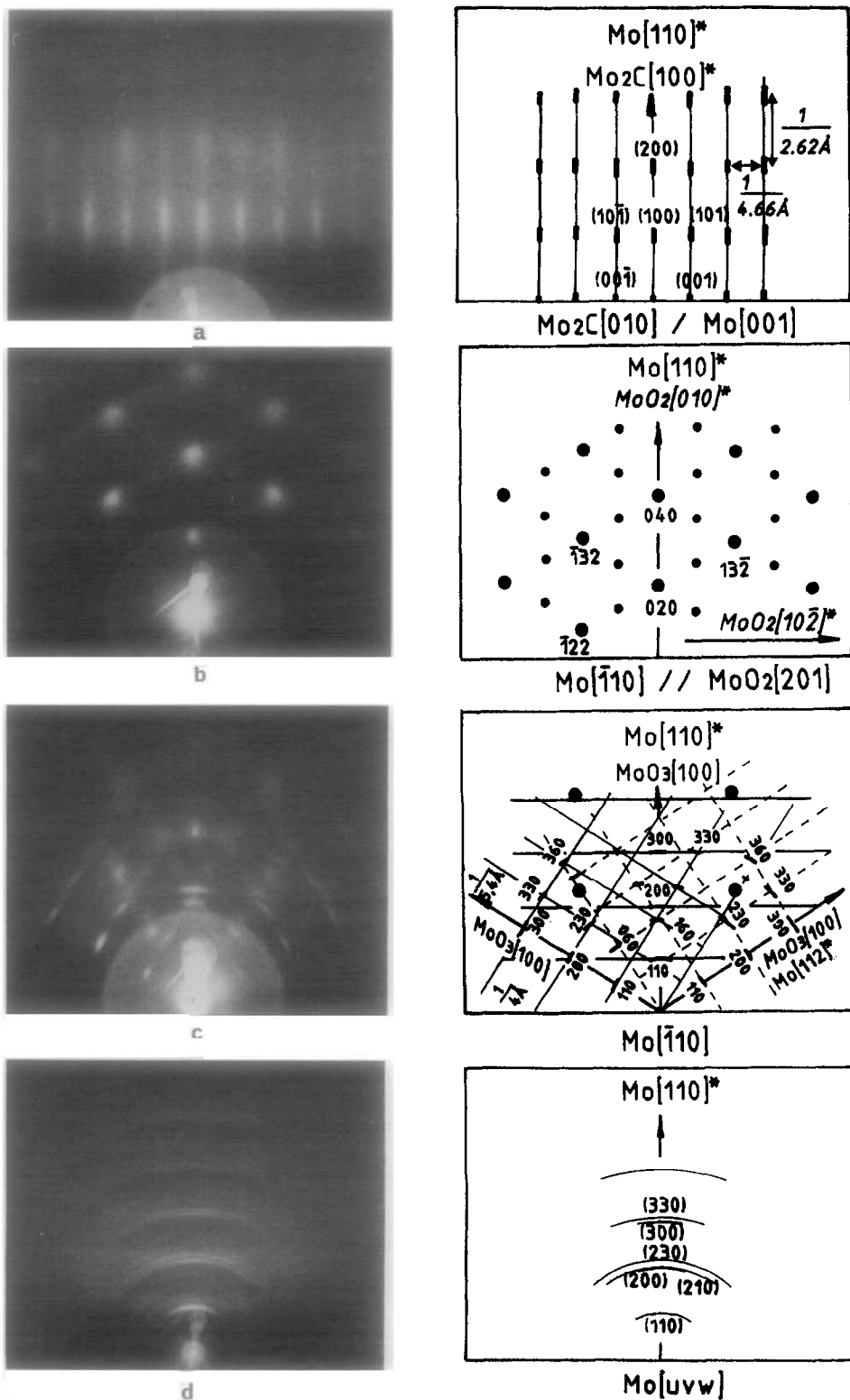


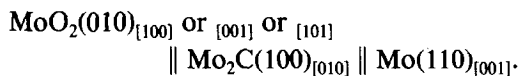
FIG. 11. RHEED patterns from a Mo(110) surface covered with Mo₂C film, then oxidized at 720 K and 2.7×10^4 Pa oxygen pressure for increasing exposure time: (a) initial surface, (b) after a half hour, (c) after 7 hr (d) after several hours.

3.3.2. Oxidation of the "Mo₂C(100)–Mo(110)" Surface

The oxidation of the Mo(110) surface covered with the epitaxied Mo₂C(100) film is realized in the same conditions at 720 K and 2.7×10^3 Pa oxygen pressure.

After a half hour exposure, RHEED patterns (Fig. 11b) attest to the disappearance of Mo₂C(100) film (no streaks are visible) and the presence of MoO₂ crystallites (network of rather large and diffuse spots).

The MoO₂ crystallites are oriented in relation with the Mo₂C(100) film and precisely in the same epitaxial relations as related previously for MoO₂ crystallites from clean Mo(110) under 10^{-5} Pa oxygen pressure:

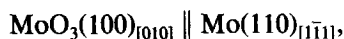


Note that the larger and more diffuse diffraction spots reveal a very small size or structural defects of these MoO₂ crystallites. Auger spectra confirm the formation of MoO₂ and both intensity drop and shape change of the carbon KL₂L₂ transition peak prove the carbon removal by oxidation.

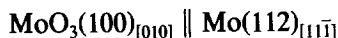
For 7-hr exposure (Fig. 11c), while the MoO₂ crystallites are still present on the surface, MoO₃ becomes visible in the form of MoO₃[100] whiskers perpendiculary oriented in relation to the Mo(110) surface and Mo(112) facets.

At this oxidation step, the structural features are roughly similar to those reported for the Mo(110) surface partially covered with MoO₂ crystallites. Yet detailed analysis of the RHEED patterns gives more structural information on the growth mode of MoO₃:

on the Mo(110) surface, the MoO₃[100] whiskers have the preferential orientation



on the Mo(112) and Mo(11 $\bar{2}$) facets, the observed epitaxial relation



is associated with an ordered stacking of the MoO₃[100] rows (5.4 Å periodicity) along the Mo[111] direction (5.45 Å parameter).

After several hours exposure (Fig. 11d), there are no more MoO₂ crystallites and the growth of MoO₃[100] whiskers goes on, as described at the first oxidation step from the clean Mo(110) surface.

3.3.3. Conclusion

For oxidation at moderate temperature and high oxygen pressure, it appears that the formation of MoO₂ is always associated with carbon. The oxidation of the clean Mo(110) surface leads only to the formation of MoO₃.

The comparative analysis underlines the fundamental differences between the formation mechanism of the MoO₂ and MoO₃ oxides. These differences seem inherent in the nature of both oxides and are expressed structurally as well as by their specific physicochemical properties.

MoO₂ grows in the form of epitaxied crystallites with few structural defects. The MoO₂ crystallites are generated until the formation of a covered film which stops the oxidation process of the molybdenum.

MoO₃ builds up by progressive structural steps, perpendicular to the Mo(110) surface and the principal Mo(112) facets with little interfacial relationship. Its formation induces the faceting of the molybdenum surface.

3.4. Oxidation of the Mo(100) Surface

The oxidation of the Mo(100) surface is realized at 2.7×10^3 Pa oxygen pressure and at both 620 and 720 K.

3.4.1. Temperature of 620 K

For the first minutes of exposure, modifications in the Auger spectra characterize the MoO₃ formation and the outside carbon adsorption in the graphite form. At the same time, RHEED patterns of the smooth

Mo(100) surface (Fig. 12a) fade into a diffuse intensity background.

After another exposure, no noticeable changes occur either in the Auger spectra or in the RHEED patterns.

These results prove the formation of MoO₃ nuclei, of amorphous structure or of nanometric size. At the 620 K temperature, the oxidation reaction does not progress more over this oxidation stage.

3.4.2. Temperature of 720 K

For the first exposure and further exposures the AES analysis attests to the immediate and lasting formation of MoO₃ as observed from the Mo(110) surface.

Arising from the first few minutes exposure, the first modification of the RHEED patterns consists of the fading of diffraction streaks of the initial Mo(100) surface into a diffuse intensity background.

After about 2 hr exposure, two new superimposed diffraction patterns become apparent (Fig. 12b):

(1) The set of MoO₃(*hk*0) arcs ordered into lines with MoO₃[100] periodicity (4 Å) and parallel to the Mo(100) surface. It characterizes the presence of the MoO₃[100] whiskers perpendicular to the Mo(100) surface.

(2) A double network of streaks, perpendicular and oriented in relation to the Mo(100) surface. These diffraction features are due to MoO₃(010) plates parallel to the Mo(100) surface and oriented in the two equivalent relations

$$\text{MoO}_3(010)_{[001]} \parallel \text{Mo}(100)_{[011]} \text{ and } [0\bar{1}1].$$

For 10 hr exposure, a new modification in the RHEED patterns (Fig. 12c) arises: the set of MoO₃(*hk*0) arcs disappears, while the double network of streaks characteristic of the MoO₃(010) plates fades. A new set of large MoO₃(*h*0*l*) and MoO₃(*h*1*l*) arcs ordered into parallel lines with the MoO₃[100] periodicity (4 Å) is visible at any azimuth. At both the Mo[011] and the Mo[0 $\bar{1}$ 1] azimuth,

these MoO₃ arcs intersect precisely the MoO₃(010) streaks, which are MoO₃[001] spaced. These new diffraction features characterize perpendicular MoO₃(010) plates, whose MoO₃[100] axes are at $\pm 10^\circ$ around the normal of the Mo(100) surface.

After several tens of hours exposure, RHEED patterns (Fig. 12d) consist of the whole disappearance of the MoO₃(010) streaks and the presence of a set of MoO₃(*hkl*) rings, with intensity modulations. The intensity maxima of the previous MoO₃(*h*0*l*) and MoO₃(*h*1*l*) rings are still visible.

This last evolution is interpreted by the growth in thickness of the MoO₃(010) plates which are oriented perpendicular to the Mo(100) surface in the relations

$$\text{MoO}_3(010) \perp \text{Mo}(100)$$

$$\text{MoO}_3[100] \text{ at } \pm 10^\circ \text{ Mo}[100].$$

3.4.3. Conclusion

The initial oxidation stage of the Mo(100) surface corresponds to the formation of MoO₃ nuclei of amorphous structure or nanometric size. It is the only stage observed at 620 K, corresponding to the check of the oxidation reaction.

At 720 K, the molybdenum oxidation progresses only to the formation of the orthorhombic MoO₃, excluding the MoO₂ or the nonstoichiometric molybdenum oxides (Fig. 13).

The properties of the metal–oxide interface, between the Mo(100) surface and the MoO₃(010) layer, induce:

—the formation of MoO₃(010) plates epitaxied onto the Mo(100) surface,

—the stability of the metallic Mo(100) surface: no surface faceting arises during the oxidation reaction, while Mo(100) faceting is reported by several authors at ambient temperature and low oxygen pressure (3, 9).

The oxidation mechanism favors the formation of MoO₃ crystals whose MoO₃(010)

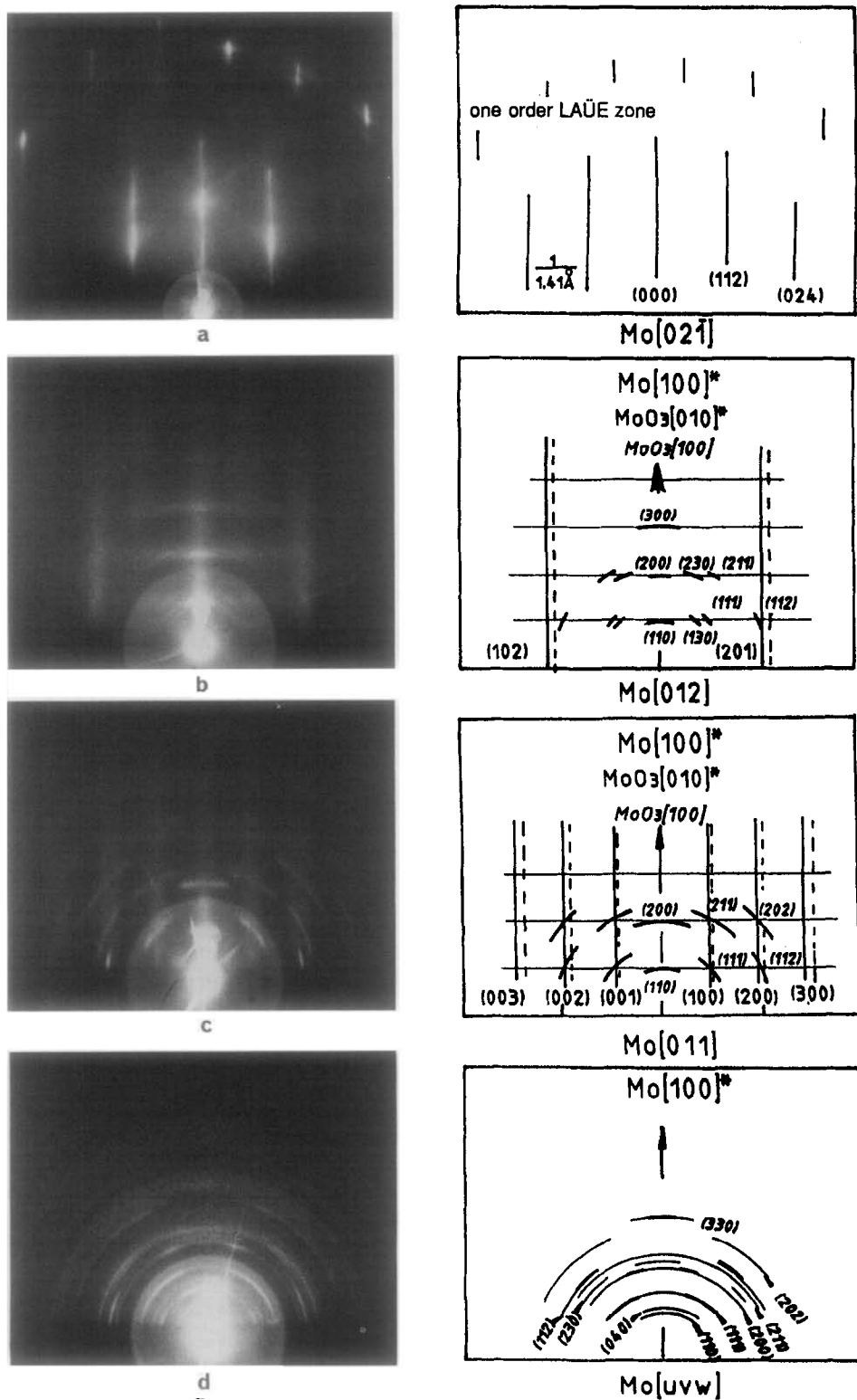


FIG. 12. RHEED patterns from a Mo(100) surface oxidized at 720 K and 2.7×10^4 Pa oxygen pressure for increasing exposure time: (a) initial Mo(100) surface, (b) after 2 hr, (c) after 10 hr (d) after several tens of hours.

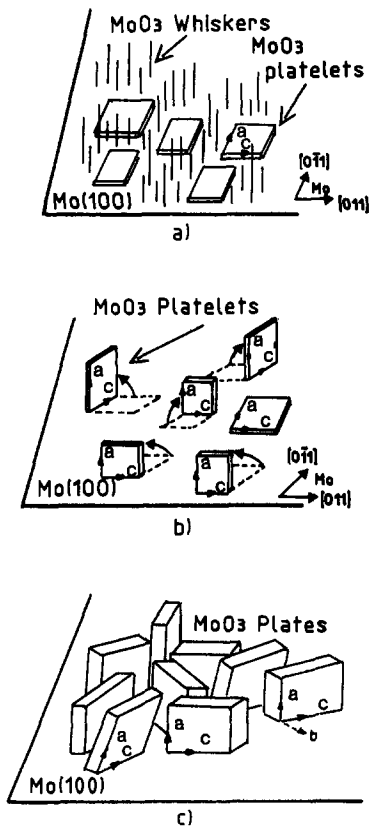


FIG. 13. Schematic pictures of the three main oxidation steps of the Mo(100) surface: (a) formation of perpendicular $\text{MoO}_3[100]$ whiskers and epitaxial $\text{MoO}_3(010)$ platelets onto the smooth Mo(100) surface, (b) orthogonal orientation of the $\text{MoO}_3(010)$ platelets, (c) growth of thick $\text{MoO}_3(010)$ plates normal to the Mo(100) surface.

layers and $\text{MoO}_3[100]$ rows grow perpendicular to the molybdenum surface.

This preferential growth gives rise to the tilting at about 90° of the $\text{MoO}_3(010)$ plates initially epitaxial onto the surface.

3.5 Oxidation on the Mo(111) Surface

The oxidation on the Mo(111) surface is realized at 2.7×10^3 Pa oxygen pressure and at the one 720 K temperature.

3.5.1. Initial Mo(111) Surface

The Mo(111) surface, known as an instable surface (16, 19), is obtained slightly rough, with little oxygen chemisorption.

The Mo(111) surface produces Auger spectra, characteristic of a molybdenum surface, identical to those obtained from the Mo(110) and Mo(100) surfaces. The oxygen chemisorption, less than one monolayer, is evidenced by the oxygen peak O(550) of relative peak-to-peak height $\text{O}(550)/\text{Mo}(220) = 0.2$.

The RHEED patterns, reproduced in Fig. 14a, attest to a slightly rough surface by the slight intensity modulation of the diffraction streaks and oxygen chemisorption by the presence of diffuse diffraction lines which form $\text{Mo}(\bar{1}\bar{1}0)^*$, $\text{Mo}(\bar{1}01)^*$, and $\text{Mo}(0\bar{1}\bar{1})^*$ diffuse planes. The oxygen chemisorption produces defects in the arrangement of the three equivalent Mo $[\bar{1}\bar{1}0]$, Mo $[\bar{1}01]$, and Mo $[0\bar{1}\bar{1}]$ rows of the Mo(111) surface.

3.5.2. Oxidation at 720 K

Since the first exposure, Auger spectra attest to the formation of MoO_3 as observed from the Mo(110) and Mo(100) surfaces.

The RHEED patterns prove the formation of oxide nuclei of amorphous structure or of nanometric size by the fading of Mo(111) diffraction streaks into a diffuse intensity background.

This oxidized state of the surface changes after about 3 hr exposure, as characterized by the RHEED patterns. A set of $\text{MoO}_3(hkl)$ rings appears with less or more diffuse intensity. Intensified arcs order into two networks of lines with the $\text{MoO}_3[100]$ periodicity (4 \AA). At the three equivalent azimuths, Mo $[\bar{1}\bar{1}0]$, Mo $[0\bar{1}\bar{1}]$, and Mo $[\bar{1}01]$ (Figs. 14b, and 14d), the two networks of lines are tilted respectively at 35° and 20° to the Mo(111) surface, which is parallel to the Mo(110) and Mo(112) facets and their equivalent facets. At the intermediate azimuths Mo $[\bar{2}\bar{1}\bar{1}]$, Mo $[\bar{1}\bar{2}\bar{1}]$, and Mo $[\bar{1}\bar{1}\bar{2}]$ (Fig. 14c), they are symmetric and tilted at 35° to the Mo(111) surface, which is parallel to the Mo(110), Mo(011), and Mo(101) equivalent facets.

These diffraction features are comparable to the previous ones observed from the Mo(110) surface. They are interpreted by

the formation of crystalline MoO_3 [100] rods growing perpendicular to the main Mo(110), Mo(011), and Mo(101) facets and the Mo(211), Mo(121), and Mo(112) facets produced on the Mo(111) surface.

No evolution of this oxidized state of the molybdenum surface appears, even after several hours exposure.

3.5.3. Conclusion

The interaction of oxygen with a Mo(111) surface leads simultaneously to the faceting of the initial surface onto the more stable Mo(110) and Mo(112) planes and to the direct formation of crystalline MoO_3 [100] rods perpendicular to each metallic facet, which is with the orientation observed on a Mo(110) surface.

The formation of one molybdenum oxide, other than MoO_3 trioxide, is not observed. The presence of an epitaxied oxide film, such as MoO_3 (010) plates formed onto Mo(100) surface, is also not observed.

The immediate faceting of the Mo(111) surface associated with the MoO_3 crystallite formation is related to the unstable nature of the Mo(111) plane compared to that of the Mo(110) plane and to the nonformation of an epitaxied oxide film at the first oxidation stage, as onto the Mo(100) plane.

3.6. Discussion—Conclusion

From the main results reported in Table II, fundamental points should be emphasized:

3.6.1 Stability of the Metallic Surfaces and MoO_3 Formation

In the experimental conditions of MoO_3 [100] whisker formation (620–820 K and 2.7×10^4 Pa oxygen pressure), the Mo(110) and Mo(111) surfaces are faceted in the Mo(100), Mo(110), and Mo(112) planes. Such faceting is also observed in the (T, P_{O_2}) conditions of oxygen chemisorption and MoO_2 formation, at higher temperatures

(800–1050 K) and lower oxygen pressures (5×10^{-6} Pa to 10^{-4} Pa) (10, 12, 16, 19). Between the two mechanisms of faceting generally proposed (4, 7), the facets seem rather generated by sublimation of atoms in the molybdenum oxide form along preferential crystallographic directions: indeed, in such a (T, P_{O_2}) domain where MoO_3 is formed, the mobility of $(\text{MoO}_3)_{3n}$ species is important (42, 43). Moreover this $(\text{MoO}_3)_{3n}$ hypermobility seems related to the fact that MoO_3 is generated as MoO_3 [100] whiskers instead of well-structured MoO_3 crystallites.

3.6.2 Chemical State of the Metallic Surface and Steps of MoO_3 Formation

The MoO_2 formation as an intermediate step of MoO_3 formation has been previously reported from thermogravimetric studies on the oxidation of polycrystalline molybdenum foils by interaction of oxygen at about 10^4 to 10^5 Pa pressure at the 673–998 K temperature range (27).

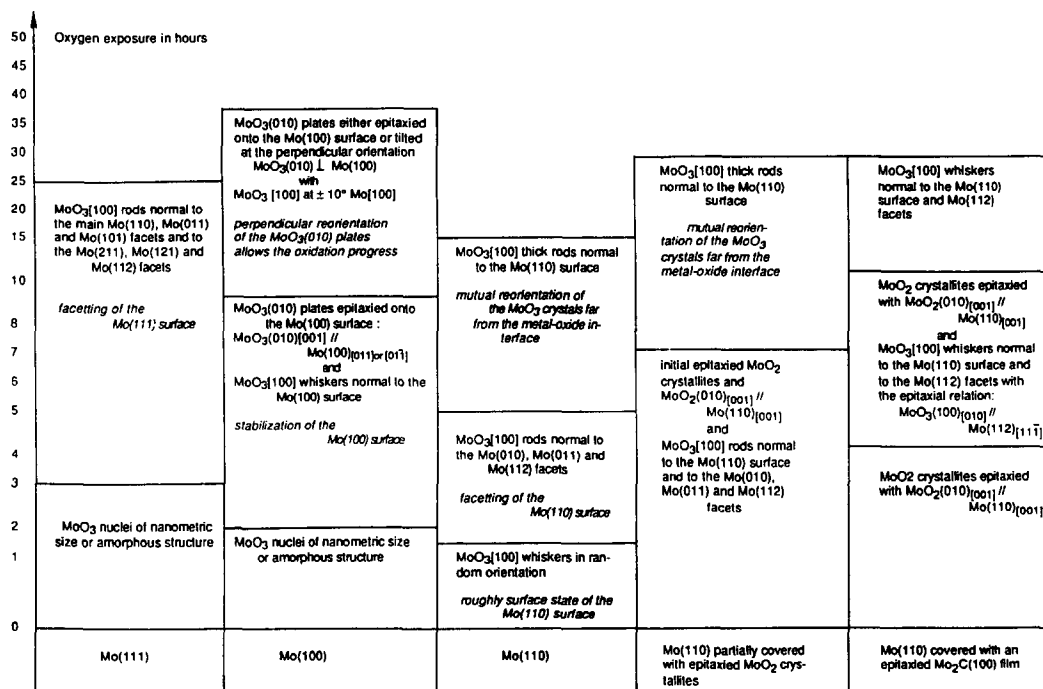
The results seem to prove that MoO_3 is formed directly by interaction of oxygen with molybdenum. MoO_2 is growing either from oxidation of a Mo_2C film or when there is carbon adsorption at lower temperature. In any case, the formation of MoO_2 crystallites is not an intermediate step of the MoO_3 formation; moreover, its presence on molybdenum impedes the oxidation of molybdenum into MoO_3 .

3.6.3 Crystalline Orientation of the Molybdenum Surface, Oriented MoO_3 Nucleation and Growth

(a) *Structural relations within the metal–oxide interface: epitaxial factor in the oxide nucleation.* The structural features of the first MoO_3 nuclei which depend on the crystalline orientation of the molybdenum surface (see Sections 3.1.2, 3.4.2, 3.5.2), express the specific properties of the metal–oxide interface.

TABLE II

MAIN STRUCTURAL STEPS OF MOLYBDENUM OXIDE GROWN BY OXYGEN INTERACTION ONTO THE THREE MOLYBDENUM SURFACES ($P_{O_2} = 2.7 \times 10^3$ Pa AND $T = 720$ K) IN FUNCTION OF EXPOSURE TIMES



The Mo(100) surface produces oriented MoO₃(010) plates, inducing its stabilization. In this case only, there is a 2D interfacial relation between the metallic and the oxide surface. Figure 15 represents both interfacial planes by the relative atomic positions of molybdenum and oxygen. It evidences that:

(1) the closest molybdenum rows in MoO₃, the zig-zag MoO₃[001] rows, are along the Mo[011] rows, that is along the zig-zag Mo1/2[111]–Mo1/2[111] close rows in the molybdenum.

(2) the pseudosquare subnetwork of oxygen of MoO₆ octahedra (2.71 Å side) is along the square network of molybdenum (3.147 Å side).

The epitaxy relationships between the oxygen network and molybdenum close row

could explain the formation of MoO₃(010) plates oriented onto the Mo(100) surface as



The Mo(110) and Mo(111) surfaces generate MoO₃[100] whiskers normal to the facets simultaneously produced. A short range order of the MoO₃[100] rows is always observed in the MoO₃[010] direction lying on the metallic surface.

Marked preferential orientation of the MoO₃[010] rows of these MoO₃[100] whiskers onto Mo(110) and Mo(111) surfaces is not well observed, except for the Mo(112) facets, where the epitaxial relation MoO₃[010] ∥ Mo[111] is well evidenced. Moreover, in this case, the initial MoO₃[010] periodicity fits the Mo[111] one, which could be explained by the nature of the

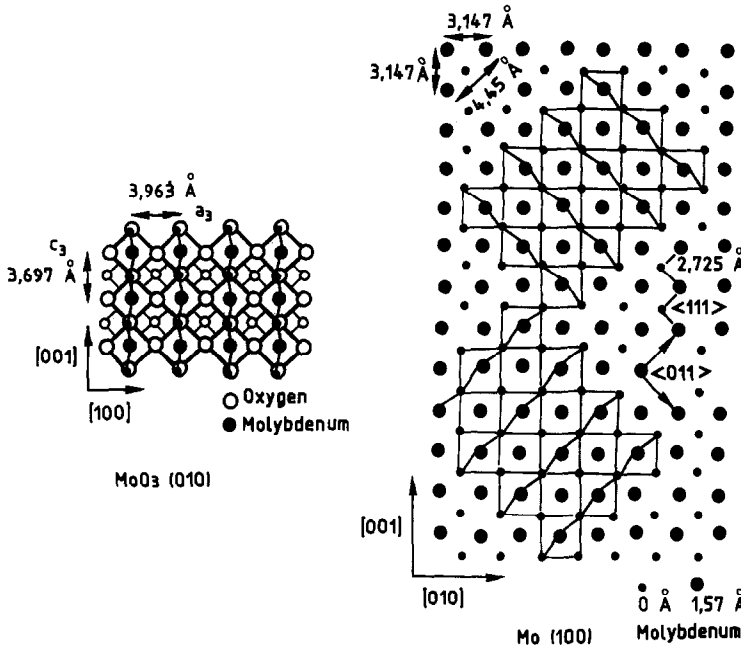


FIG. 15. Positions of molybdenum and oxygen ions in MoO₃(010) plane with respect to molybdenum atoms in Mo(100) plane.

bonds in these MoO₃[010] directions, which are Van der Waals interactions (see Fig. 2).

From the same structural considerations, it could be explained that the lamellar MoO₃(010) plane is not initially built. Indeed the close MoO₃[001] rows, the zig-zag rows in the MoO₃(010) planes, do not fit any Mo row in the interfacial molybdenum planes (8.5% mismatch for the best parametric agreement) (Fig. 16).

(b) *Structural relations between the oxide nucleation and its growth: dynamic factors of the reaction.* During their growth, from any parent metallic surface, the oxide nuclei build up in the orthorhombic MoO₃ structure and orientate their lamellar MoO₃(010) planes perpendicular to the metallic surface and their close MoO₃[001] rows onto close Mo rows of the metallic surface. The results obtained from the Mo(100) surface underline these growth factors, because of an orthogonal reorientation of the initial

MoO₃(010) plates epitaxied onto the Mo(100) surface.

These structural features of the nucleation and growth, and their relationships, allow the dissociation of factors related to the metal-oxide interfacial relations to factors of the dynamic of the oxidation reaction:

—the interfacial forces induce the non-well-structured oxide nuclei, as MoO₃[100] rows normal to the metallic surface. Some order of the MoO₃[100] rows along MoO₃[010] direction could be explained by structural relationships in the metal-oxide interface.

—the preferential diffusion of oxygen along the lamellar MoO₃(010) planes through the orthorhombic MoO₃ structure induces their orientation normal to the reaction plane.

Such interpretation of nucleation and growth mechanisms of MoO₃ produced by

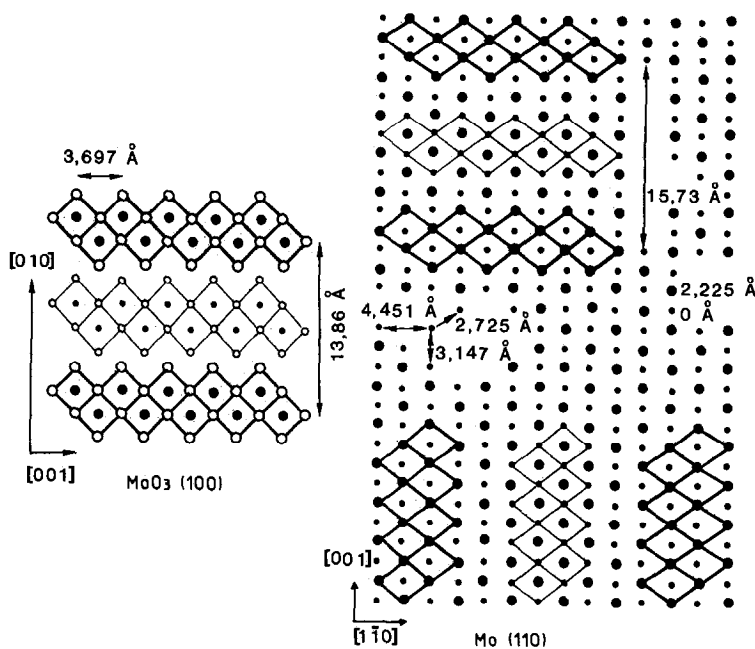


FIG. 16. Positions of molybdenum and oxygen ions in $\text{MoO}_3(100)$ plane with respect to molybdenum atoms in $\text{Mo}(110)$ plane.

the interaction of oxygen with a molybdenum surface explains previous (35) and further (36) results of the morphological and structural study of the MoO_3 layer generated from polycrystalline molybdenum foils.

References

1. T. W. HAAS AND A. G. JACKSON, *J. Chem. Phys.*, **44**(8), 2921 (1966).
2. J. FERRANTE AND G. BARTON, NASA Technical Note TN D-4735, p. 1449 (1968).
3. K. HAYEK, H. E. FARNSWORTH, AND R. L. PARK, *Surface Sci.* **10**, 429 (1968).
4. J. C. TRACY AND J. M. BLAKELY, *Surface Sci.* **13**, 313 (1969).
5. H. K. A. KAN AND S. FEUERSTEIN, *J. Chem. Phys.* **50**(8), 3618 (1969).
6. G. J. DOOLEY III AND T. W. HAAS, *J. Chem. Phys.* **52**, 461 (1970); *J. Vacuum Sci. Technol.* **7**, 1570 (1970).
7. A. E. LEE AND K. E. SINGER, *Proc. R. Soc. London A* **323**, 523 (1971).
8. D. TABOR AND J. M. WILSON, *J. Crystal Growth* **9**, 60 (1971).
9. H. M. KENNETT, A. E. LEE, AND J. M. WILSON, *Proc. R. Soc. London A* **331**, 429 (1972).
10. J. BRÜCKNER, *Krist. Tech.* **9**(6), 647 (1974).
11. R. RIWAN, C. GUILLOT, AND J. PAIGNE, *Surface Sci.*, **47**, 183 (1975).
12. H. M. KENNETT AND A. E. LEE, *Surface Sci.* **48**, 591 (1975).
13. E. BAUER AND H. POPPA, *Surface Sci.* **88**, 31 (1979).
14. E. I. KO AND R. J. MADIX, *Surface Sci.* **109**, 221 (1981).
15. E. BAUER AND H. POPPA, *Surface Sci.* **127**, 243 (1983).
16. C. ZHANG, M. A. VAN HOVE, AND G. A. SOMORJAI, *Surface Sci.* **149**, 326 (1985).
17. J. L. GRANT, T. B. FRYBERGER, AND P. C. STAIR, *Surface Sci.* **159**, 333 (1985).
18. TS. S. MARINOVA, P. K. STEFANOV, AND N. NESHEV, *Surface Sci.* **164**, 196 (1985).
19. C. ZHANG, A. J. GELLMAN, M. H. FARIAS, AND G. A. SOMORJAI, *Mater. Res. Bull.* **20**, 1129 (1985).
20. J. L. GRANT, T. B. FRYBERGER, AND P. C. STAIR, *Appl. Surf. Sci.* **26**, 472 (1986).
21. E. MINNI AND F. WERFEL, *Surf. Interface Anal.* **12**, 385 (1988).

22. P. K. STEFANOV AND TS. S. MARINOVA, *Surface Sci.* **200**, 26 (1988).
23. E. A. GULBRANSEN AND W. S. WYSONG, *Met. Technol.* **14**, 2226 (1947).
24. J. W. HICKMAN AND E. A. GULBRANSEN, *Met. Technol.* **14**, 2144 (1947).
25. B. LUSTMAN, *Met. Prog.* **57**, 629 (1950).
26. R. C. PETERSON AND W. M. JR. FASSEL, Techn. Report VI Army Ordnance. Contract DA.04.495, ORD 237 (1954).
27. M. SIMNAD AND A. SPILNERS, *Trans. AIME* **203**, 1011 (1955).
28. M. GLEISER, W. L. LARSEN, R. SPEISER, AND J. W. SPRETNAK, ASTM Special Publication 171, p. 65 (1955).
29. E. S. JONES, J. F. MOSHER, R. SPEISER, AND J. W. SPRETNAK, *Corrosion* **14**, 20 (1958).
30. R. W. BARTLETT AND D. M. WILLIAMS, *Trans. Met. Soc. AIME* **212**, 280 (1958).
31. E. A. GULBRANSEN, K. F. ANDREW, AND F. A. BRASSART, *J. Electrochem. Soc.* **110**(9), 952 (1963).
32. E. A. GULBRANSEN *Corrosion-Nace* **26**(1), 19 (1970).
33. V. YA. KOLOT, V. I. TATUS, V. F. RYBALKO, YA. M. FOGEL, V. V. VODOLAZHCENKO, AND V. M. EVSEEV, *Soviet Physics-Solid State* **13**(6), 1275 (1972).
34. G. M. RAYNAUD, *J. Mater. Sci. Lett.* **3**, 965 (1984).
35. B. MINGOT, N. FLOQUET, O. BERTRAND, M. TREILLEUX, J. J. HEIZMANN, J. MASSARDIER, AND M. ABON, *J. Catal.* **118**, 424 (1989).
36. N. FLOQUET AND O. BERTRAND, Oxidation of Metals, to be published.
37. T. N. NOWICKI AND B. M. BIRONDI, J. de Physique, Proc. Conf. Lake Placid (ISE87) (1987).
38. B. A. STASLIEWICZ, J. R. TRUCKER, P. E. SNYDER, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **78**, 1553 (1956).
39. O. KUBASCHEWSKI, E. L. EVANS, AND C. B. ALCOK, "Metallurgical Thermochemistry," pp. 182-195, Pergamon Press, London (1958).
40. L. KIHNBORG, *Ark. Kemi* **21**, 473 (1963).
41. L. L. Y. CHANG, B. PHILLIPS, *J. Am. Ceram. Soc.* **52**(10) (1969).
42. J. BERKOWITZ, M. G. INGRAM, AND W. A. CHUPKA, *J. Chem. Phys.* **26**(4), 842 (1957).
43. Y. IKEDA, M. ITO, I. MIZUNO, K. AMIOKA, AND G. MATSUMOTO, *High Temp. Sci.* **16**, 1 (1983).
44. O. BERTRAND, N. FLOQUET, AND D. JACQUOT, *J. Crystal Growth* **96**, 708 (1989).
45. O. BERTRAND, P. DUFOUR, N. FLOQUET, AND L. C. DUFOUR, *Phys. Status Solidi. (a)* **71**, 511 (1982).
46. L. C. DUFOUR, O. BERTRAND, AND N. FLOQUET, *Surface Sci.* **147**, 396 (1984).
47. O. BERTRAND, N. FLOQUET, AND D. JACQUOT, *Surface Sci.* **164**, 305 (1985).
48. L. KIHNBORG, *Ark. Kemi* **21**, 357 (1963).
49. A. MAGNELI, *Ark. Kemi Mineral. Geol. A* **24** 2 (1946).
50. B. G. BRANDT AND A. C. SKAPSKI, *Acta. Chem. Scand* **21**, 661 (1967).
51. A. MAGNELI, *Acta. Crystallogr.* **6**, 495 (1953).
52. L. KIHNBORG, *Arkiv. Kemi.* **21**, 471 (1963).
53. T. T. LIN AND D. LICHTMAN, *J. Vacuum Sci. Technol.* **15**(5), 1689 (1978).
54. S. YASHONATH, P. SEN, M. S. HEDGE, AND C. N. RAMACHANDRA RAO, *J. Chem. Soc. Faraday Trans. 1* **79**, 1229 (1983).
55. T. W. HAAS AND J. T. GRANT, *Phys. Lett. A* **30**, 272 (1969).