

CHAPTER 4

GROWTH OF SINGLE CRYSTALS BY A VAPOUR PHASE METHOD

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4.1 Introduction

The growth of crystals depends on their various parameters, like melting point, vapour pressure and solubility in water. Hence, in the light of this only, different methods of crystal growth, such as,

- (i) growth from melt,
 - (ii) growth from vapour phase, and
 - (iii) growth from aqueous solution
- were considered.

Now, so far as the growth of crystals of transition metal dichalcogenide group is concerned, the methods of growth from melt as well as growth from

aqueous solution will be highly impracticable, because the compounds of transition metal dichalcogenide group are insoluble in water and moreover these techniques fail because of high melting points or premature decomposition. The only alternative or possible method for growing these crystals, is, therefore, the method of growth from vapour phase. This method can also be divided into two :

- (i) chemical vapour transport method, and
- (ii) direct vapour transport method.

First, the method of growth by chemical vapour transport is discussed.

4.2 Vapour Growth Technique

4.2.1 Chemical vapour transport method

New theoretical attempts of vapour transport of solid have been given by Lever^{1,2)}, Mandel^{3,4)} and Arizumi and Nishinaga⁵⁾. Kalidas has shown that it is possible to grow crystals up to several cm³ in size by chemical transport under well controlled nucleation conditions at small supersaturation (Cd₄GeS₆)⁶⁾ and from seeds (ZnSe)⁷⁾. The transport of solid matter through the various phase via gaseous intermediates, utilizing the temperature dependence of

heterogeneous equilibria (chemical transport reactions), has gained considerable attention in recent years.

Originally used by Van Arkel and De Boer⁸⁾ for the preparation of high purity refractory metals (iodide metals), transport reactions have been studied systematically by Schafer and coworkers⁹⁾. It enabled investigators to grow single crystals of substances hitherto known as "difficult materials".

On the solid ground, thus, the chemical vapour transport method has been reported as a reliable one for growing metal dichalcogenide single crystals¹⁰⁻¹⁵⁾. This technique relies on a chemical reaction between the compound to be crystallised and transporting agent. The reaction product is volatile and can be transported in the vapour phase at temperatures well below the melting point of the compound. Transport occurs between two zones of different temperatures. Usually the initial reaction occurs at the high temperature and is reversed at the low temperature to deposit molecules of the compounds at the most favourable crystalline sites. Initially, random deposition occurs until seed crystals are formed. Thereafter, growth should only occur on these seeds, and large single crystals should be formed.

The transport of the reaction product in the vapour phase can be achieved by a continuous gas flow from external supplies, or by its recirculation within a closed tubular ampoule.

The rate of transport of the compound in gas/sec. given by Nitsche et al.¹¹⁾ is,

$$m = L \cdot dp (T', T'', dG, Ct) \dots \quad (4.1)$$

where T' , T'' are the temperatures at the hot and cold ends respectively,

dp is the difference between the partial pressures of the reaction product at temperatures T' and T'' ,

dG is the Gibbs free energy change in the reaction,

Ct is the concentration of transport agent,

L is the "conductance" of the system, a function of the ampoule geometry and the physical process involved in the vapour transport.

These parameters of the transport equation (4.1) have the following significance.

dG

It has been found by Schafer¹³⁾ that optimum transport occurs when the reaction is not far from equilibrium, that is, dp is a maximum for values of dG not far from zero. For chalcogenides, the halogens are most commonly used as transporting agents, out of these, iodine gives the lowest dG value and is usually the best choice. However, for some compounds, bromine gives better results.¹²⁾

Ct

Nitsche¹⁵⁾ found a value of 5 mg/cc for Ct to be a good starting point for experiment.

L

The "conductance" of the system depends on the mode of transport of the reaction product. This is controlled principally by the total vapour pressure in the ampoule, most of which is due to the volatile transporting agent. Three different mechanisms are possible.

1. At low pressure and with small ampoule diameter diffusion is the only important transport mechanism.
2. As the pressure or the diameter is increased

convection currents, set up by the thermal gradient, rapidly become more important.

3. In the initial reaction equation,
 compound + transporting agent = Reaction
 products.

There are usually equal number of molecules in the vapour phase on each side. If this is not so, there will be a change in pressure gradient along the ampoule and a laminar flow of the reaction product will take place.

T' , T''

dp depends strongly on the temperature gradient along the ampoule and to a lesser extent on the absolute temperature.¹⁵⁾

Many compounds, including TaS_2 , have more than one possible crystal structure, and their stability is often temperature dependent. T'' , the crystallization temperature should lie within the stability range of the required crystal type.

$T' - T''$, the temperature difference, is altered to control dp , and so to vary the vapour transport rate. However, this cannot be increased indefinitely without causing polycrystallization, as

explained below.

Molecules condensing onto a flat surface from the vapour loose potential energy, that is, they acquire a binding energy, E' . However, their thermal energy gives them a probability, P' , of evaporation.

$$P' \propto \exp (E' / kT)$$

The rate of condensation, n (molecules/sec/cm²), is controlled by the partial pressure of the vapour, P (atmosphere), and the average molecular velocity, V (cm/sec.).

$$n = L_0 P \cdot V$$

$$L_0 = \text{Loschmidts constant}$$

$$= 2.687 \times 10^{19} \text{ per (cm}^3 \cdot \text{atm).}$$

There will be a pressure, p' , when the rates of condensation and evaporation are equal.

In reality, when a molecule condenses onto a crystal, it will tend to migrate over the surface before evaporating. If, whilst migrating, it finds a site of greater binding energy, E'' , such as a step on the crystal surface, the probability of

evaporation drops. Equilibrium will occur at lower pressure, P'' ,

If the partial pressure has a value between P' and P'' molecules will only condense on the sites of greater binding energy, E'' . Under these conditions any crystals that have already formed will grow but no new crystals will form unless impurities bind some molecules more firmly to the ampoule wall to form a seed crystal.

Since the net number of molecules condensing is limited by the number of growth sites, the rate of transport must not be too great. If it is, the partial pressure of the reaction product will exceed P' and polycrystallisation will occur.

Finally, Nitsche et al.¹¹⁾ gave the following rules for the successful growth of crystals by vapour transport technique.

- (a) The rate of transport must not exceed the rate of growth of the seeds.
- (b) The optimum crystallization temperature must be evaluated empirically for each system taking into account the possibility of polymorphism.

- (c) The crystallisation chamber should be larger in order to prevent intergrowth between adjacent seeds. Asymmetric heating is sometimes useful.
- (d) The temperature distribution in the crystallisation chamber should be as uniform as possible to avoid partial re-evaporation of already grown crystals.
- (e) Well developed crystals form more easily in large diameter tubes, where transporter convection determines the rate of transport.
- (f) The temperature difference between the reaction and the growth chambers can be made smaller when wider tubes are used (thus facilitating an even distribution of growth products along the crystallisation chamber) since the gas flow here is the rate determining parameter.

4.2.2 Growth without using transport agent

Crystals grown by chemical vapour technique are sometimes several mm square in size, even though there is evidence that they suffer from the obvious disadvantage of contamination by the transporting agents which in the present case of TaS_2 were either bromine

or iodine¹⁶⁻²⁰). The possibility of the entry of bromine or iodine to the crystal lattice cannot be ignored, and as a consequence of this the electrical and chemical properties of the crystal will be affected. Since the aim of growing TaS_2 single crystals was to obtain crystals which are as pure and defect free as possible, the method of growth without using transport agent was adopted. Al-Hilli and Evans²¹) used such a method in growing single crystals of certain transition metal dichalcogenides. This method of growth of crystals without a chemical transporting agent will be called as sublimation method or the direct vapour transport method in what follows.

4.3 Experimental Set Up of Direct Vapour Transport Method

4.3.1 Two-zone horizontal furnace

The first and the foremost basic essential piece of the apparatus required for this technique is a furnace fulfilling the appropriate temperature gradient all over the ampoule. As compared to chemical vapour transport method, here in the sublimation technique, higher temperatures are required to raise the vapour pressure sufficiently

large for obtaining reasonable rate of growth. The furnace should, therefore, be capable of reaching higher temperatures with required temperature gradients over a length of about 25 cms. To ensure temperature stability during growth, electronic temperature controllers were used for the furnace.

Economically it was considered advisable to construct such experimental furnace locally in our workshop rather than purchasing one commercially with the same specifications. In designing the furnace, special sillimanite threaded tubes (Grade KR 80 GA (HG)) closed at one end and having 45 cms. length, 70 mm outer diameter, 56 mm inner diameter and a thread pitch of 3.0 mm, imported from Koppers Fabriken Feuerfester Erzeugnisse GmbH, Germany were used. Super kanthal A-1 wire of 17 gauge (SWG 17) was wound directly on to the furnace tube in two different regions in the manner indicated in Fig. 4.1. The sillimanite furnace tube with kanthal A-1 winding was then enclosed in the hot face insulating brick slabs specially constructed locally. The complete brick-shell was, then fully encased in thick asbestos sheets, and the entire assembly was supported in a steel framework as shown

in Fig. 4.2.

As sizeable crystals require considerably long time period to grow, an accurate device to control the temperature in the furnace is a must. The control circuit used for regulating the power supply is shown in Fig. 4.3. The two regions of winding have been provided with their own independent power supplies and temperature controls, 20 ampere transformers with 240 volts in primary and with 70, 80 and 100 volts in secondary were used to supply sufficient power to reach the required temperature quickly. Controllers used are "Eurotherm controllers" which are of the "fast cycling" types, switching the power on and off regularly at every 10 cycles of main frequency. The "on" time is continuously variable, controlling the power fed to the kanthal A-1 windings. The control units have "integral" and "derivative" controls to correct changes in furnace temperature with no overshoot. Combined with cold junction compensation this gives a stability of $\pm 1^{\circ}$ C.

Generally one observes a lot of fluctuations in the local power supply and obviously this will not allow the conditions for the growth to remain uniform. This difficulty was overcome by using

voltage stabilizer with 180 to 260 V input and $230 \pm 1\%$ output volts of capacity 3 KVA. The output of this was fed to the primary of the transformer windings to ensure and maintain stable growth conditions during the growth.

By controlling the input power to the two sets of windings a required temperature gradient could be established across the length of the work-tube. The furnace was found to be capable of giving wide range of temperature gradients as and when required as per the experimental set up.

The thermocouples used were platinum (Pt) 13 % Rhodium Platinum (Rh-Pt). Actually the "Eurotherm" temperature controllers used in the furnace were calibrated for these thermocouples. It was observed that the thermocouples were quite stable over the prolonged use of the furnace. The thermocouples were supported within the furnace tube itself so that they follow the furnace tube temperature.

4.3.2 Ampoules

Transparent quartz tubes, of high purity and quality, possessing high melting point were used as ampoules. The tubes used were of various internal and external diameters. However, tubes with

internal diameter of 22 mm and length 215 mm were found to be most adequate for the growth experiments under study. One end of the tube was sealed and other drawn into a neck and joined to a silicon tube of 10 mm inner diameter to connect it to the vacuum system for evacuation after introducing the source material.

4.4 Crystal Growth

4.4.1 Cleaning the ampoule

The ampoule was first washed with boiled water and then with boiling concentrated HNO_3 and HF (49 %) taken in equal proportions i.e. (1 : 1). The ampoule was then washed with distilled water. A further washing was carried out with concentrated H_2SO_4 and HNO_3 taken in equal proportions, followed by a final washing for about half a dozen to a dozen times with doubly distilled water. The ampoule was then kept in a SICO constant temperature furnace at about 100°C and left over night for drying. It was then connected to a vacuum system and heated up for removing the adsorbed gases.

4.4.2 Compound preparation

For the compound preparation the required materials for growth are taken in a stoichiometric

ratio and filled up in a transparent quartz ampoule duly cleaned and dried by the process explained above. The ampoule containing the source materials is then connected to a vacuum system and precaution being taken that the vacuum be brought so slowly that none of the materials from the ampoule can entre the vacuum system. When the vacuum is being reached, the ampoule may be tapped slowly so that any air between the particles of the materials may be removed. When a vacuum of the order of 10^{-5} torr is reached, the ampoule is sealed off at the neck.

The sealed ampoule with the elemental powder should be shaken thoroughly to ensure proper mixing of the contents. The mixture is then distributed uniformly all over the length of the ampoule. The ampoule is thus ready for keeping it in the furnace.

After keeping the ampoule at an appropriate place in the two-zone horizontal furnace, the temperature is slowly increased. The temperature upto which and the period for which the ampoule is kept in the furnace depends upon the material which is being grown. The slow heating is necessary to avoid any possibility of explosion due to the strong exothermic reaction between the elements. Comparatively large size of the

ampoule and well uniform distribution of the powder will minimise the temperature rise to prevent an explosion. After specific time of heating at the required temperature the furnace is switched off and after bringing it to room temperature it will be seen that the ampoule has a fine free flowing, shining homogeneous polycrystalline material.

4.4.3 Growth procedure

Just as the specified conditions of temperature and reaction time are different for compound preparation, in the same way actual growth procedure varies from material to material. The methods of crystal preparation used by some of the workers^{10-13,22)} are found to yield crystals of very high crystallographic quality.

The growth procedure and conditions for the growth of TaS_2 single crystals are well described and discussed in the next chapter.

4.5 References

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Captions of the figures

Figure 4.1 Kanthal A-1 wire windings for the two-zone crystal growth furnace.

Figure 4.2 Schematic representation of the furnace.

Figure 4.3 Control circuits for regulating the power.

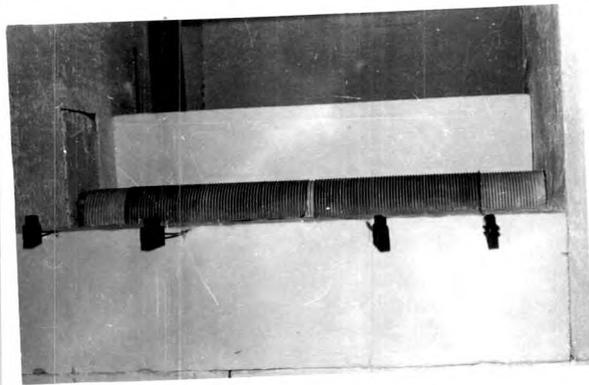


Fig. 4.1

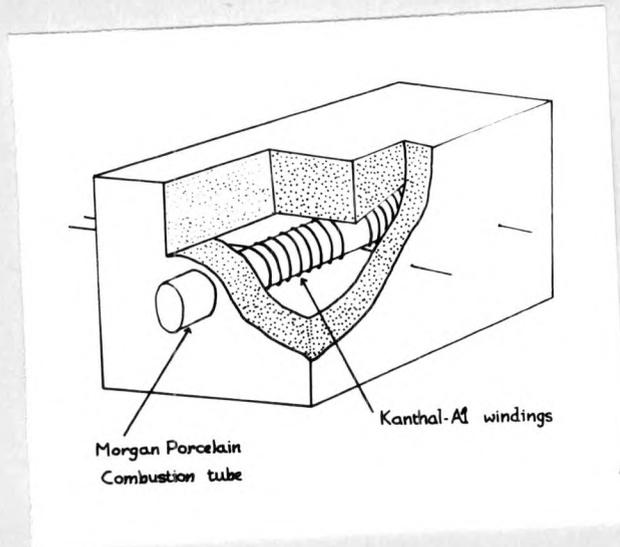


Fig. 4.2

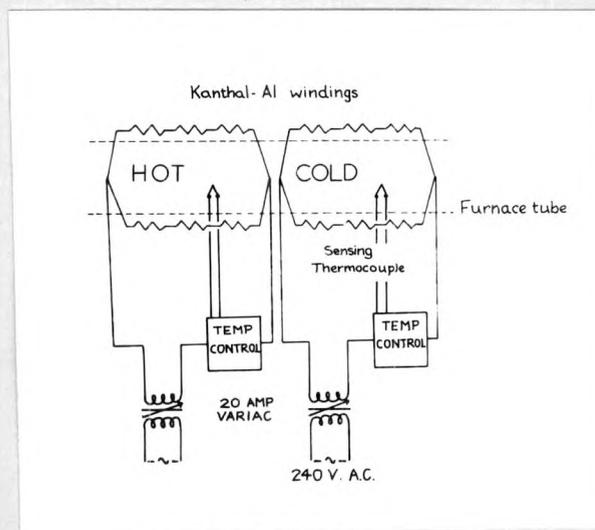


Fig. 4.3