Raman scattering and molecular dynamics investigation of lead metasilicate glass and supercooled liquid structures

D.V. Sampaio⁵,ᵃ, A. Picinina, Benjamin J.A. Moulton⁶, J.P. Rino⁷, P.S. Pizani⁸, E.D. Zanotto⁸

ᵃ Universidade Federal de São Carlos, Departamento de Física, Caixa Postal 676, 13565-905 São Carlos, SP, Brazil
ᵇ Universidade Federal de São Carlos, Departamento de Engenharia de Materiais, Caixa Postal 676, 13565-905 São Carlos, SP, Brazil

1. Introduction

Investigation of glass and supercooled liquid structures at high temperatures is of prime importance to understand glass properties, to tailor the composition of new functional glasses, and to describe natural phenomena, such as igneous processes [1, 2]. Silicate glass structures can be described in terms of building blocks having well-established short-range order, the silica tetrahedron [SiO₄] [2]. In pure silica glass, each SiO₄ is corner linked to four other SiO₄ (Q₄ units), forming a tridimensional "molecular" network where bridging-oxygen anions (BO) are bound to adjacent Si cations, −Si−O−Si−. The addition of modifier cations (M), such as Na or Pb, induces depolymerization of the silica network through the breakdown of −Si−O−Si− linkages, forming non-bridging oxygen anions (NBO), −Si−O−M. This depolymerization process creates tetrahedra that have different proportions of BOs and NBOs. These units are called Qⁿ species, where n represents the average number of BO per tetrahedron. Therefore, the Qⁿ species distribution yields insights into the connectivity of the silica network.

The PbO-SiO₂ (PS) is an important model for the glass community and its isochemical crystal phase melts congruently [3]. Moreover, lead silicate glasses are of considerable scientific interest because they have an outstanding glass forming ability despite having equal or less than 50 mol% of SiO₂ [4], so-called inverted glasses. Several investigations have reported the Qⁿ species of lead silicate glasses (Table 1). For example, the MD simulations of Cormier et al. [5] calculated the dominant Qⁿ species as being Q₂, at 41%. Using nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) experiments, Fayon et al. [6] found that Qⁿ is 51% of the total Qⁿ, while Feller et al. [7] obtained 38% Q², and Schneider 47% (± 8%) [8]. More recently, Kacem et al. [9] obtained a population of 59% of Q² using Raman spectroscopy. Despite some numerical differences (Table 1), all these studies show that the PS glass at room temperature has a Qⁿ distribution centered on the Q² species, similar to its isochemical crystal.

In addition to the NBO and BO, some oxygen atoms may not be bound to Si atoms at all, the so-called free oxygens (O−) [10–12]. These particular oxygen atoms are referred here to as non-network oxygen (NNO); they are not bound to any Si atom but can be bound to M cations [13]. For example, an oxygen atom may be bound to two M cations via M-O-M linkages. For PS glass, Cormier et al. [5], using MD simulations, computed 36.6% of BOs, 60.0% of NBOs and 3.4% of NNOs. Based on the NMR experiments of Lee et al. [14], 36% of the total oxygen atoms are estimated to be BO, 62% are NBO and 2% are NNO, whereas Dalby et al. [15] obtained 42.6% of BOs from X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy experiments. Additionally, X-ray scattering, neutron scattering and computer simulations have also been used to study other structural parameters, e.g., first neighbor distances, coordination numbers and bond-angle distributions [4, 5, 16, 17]. Based on these parameters, it has been suggested that PS is composed by two
The length scale was verified and the potential was shifted, therefore the potential itself and its derivative were null at the cut-off distance, \( r_c = 10.0 \, \text{Å} \).

Despite the numerous studies on PS glass structure, there is a lack of knowledge about the structural modifications that take place at high temperatures above \( T_g \). Recently, Rodrigues et al. [18] showed that a combination of Raman spectroscopy and molecular dynamics simulations (MD) are a particularly good method for investigating the variation of glass structure with temperature. The Raman technique accesses the vibrational modes of the material, which for glasses are often very similar to the vibrational density of states calculated by MD. On the other hand, MD can make use of the Raman spectrum to calibrate the energy scale to describe the structural properties [18]. Moreover, Raman spectroscopy permits the determination of the \( Q^6 \) distribution [9], while MD, can also describe the atomic structure via calculation of bond-angle distributions in addition to the \( Q^6 \) population [5, 17]. As a result, it is possible to describe an insightful picture of a given glass structure and its temperature dependence.

The vibrational density of states was obtained from a Fourier transformation below; please check [18] for the definition of these quantities. The vibrational density of states was obtained from a Fourier transformation of the velocity-velocity auto-correlation function, whereas the \( Q^6 \) distribution as a function of temperature was calculated from the phase space trajectories. The estimated molecular dynamics glass transition temperature, \( T_g^{MD} \), is around 950 K \( \pm \) 50 K. This value was obtained by comparing the structural relaxation time (\( \tau \)) at different temperatures and the experimental observation time, \( \tau_{obs} \). The observation time was determined by \( \tau_{obs} = (\lambda \log \tau / \log dt)^{-1} \), and the relaxation time was determined through a non-exponential fit of the incoherent intermediate scattering function \( F_i(q, t) \) [21, 22]. \( T_g^{MD} \) was defined as the temperature where \( \tau \sim \tau_{obs} \).

### 2. Materials and methods

#### 2.1. Molecular dynamics simulation

The effective interaction potential proposed to describe the PS system has the same functional form as those used to study other oxide systems, like \( \text{BaSi}_2\text{O}_5 \) and \( \text{Ba}_3\text{K}_2\text{Si}_3\text{O}_8 \) [18–20]. It consists of a steric repulsion due to size effects, Coulomb interactions due to charge transfer between ions, charge-induced dipole due to the electronic polarizability of ions, and the van der Waals attraction. The interatomic potential reads

\[
V(\mathbf{r}) = A \left( \frac{\alpha + \sigma}{r} \right)^\eta + \frac{Z_i Z_j e^2}{r} \exp\left(-\frac{r}{\bar{r}}\right) - \left( \frac{\alpha \bar{Z}_i^2 + \sigma \bar{Z}_j^2}{2\bar{r}^3} \right) \exp\left(-\frac{\lambda}{\bar{r}}\right) - \frac{W_{ij}}{r},
\]

(1)

where, \( A \) is the strength of the steric repulsion, \( \sigma \) is the ionic radii of the ions \( i \) and \( j \), \( \eta \) the exponent of the repulsion term, \( Z \) the effective charge of ions, \( \alpha \) the electronic polarizability, and \( W_{ij} \) the van der Waals intensity. \( \lambda \) and \( \xi \) are the screening lengths for Coulomb and charge-dipole interactions, respectively. A cutoff distance, \( r_c \), was introduced and the potential was shifted, therefore the potential itself and its first derivative were null at the cutoff distance.

The parameters shown in Table 2 were fit to reproduce the correct energy and length scales at the experimental density and zero pressure. The length scale was verified by comparing the simulated static structure factor with reported results from neutron diffraction experiments, while Raman scattering provided the energy scale necessary to determine the effective charges.

We report here a system with 15,000 particles (3000 Pb + 3000 Si + 9000 O atoms). All simulations were done in a NPT ensemble using the LAMMPS program assuming time steps of 1.0 fs. Starting from a very hot liquid, which was thermalized by 100,000 time steps, the system was cooled down at a rate of 6.66 \( \times \) \( 10^3 \) K/s to the desired temperature where the properties were analyzed. At each temperature, the system was thermalized by 20,000 time steps, and the results were obtained from an additional 20,000 time steps.

### Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>( Q^6 )</th>
<th>( Q^7 )</th>
<th>( Q^8 )</th>
<th>( Q^9 )</th>
<th>( Q^{10} )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MD</td>
<td>Cormier et al. [5]</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NMR</td>
<td>Fayon et al. [6]</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NMR</td>
<td>Schneider et al. [8]</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NMR</td>
<td>Feller et al. [7]</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raman</td>
<td>Kim et al. [9]</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
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</table>

*These variations are partially due to the use of different techniques and fitting procedures, and also due to the glass samples being made (quenched) at different cooling rates.

### Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( \eta )</th>
<th>Pb-Pb</th>
<th>Pb-Si</th>
<th>Pb-O</th>
<th>Si-Si</th>
<th>Si-O</th>
<th>O-O</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( \lambda ) (eVÅ(^6))</td>
<td>0.63346</td>
<td>0.63346</td>
<td>0.63346</td>
<td>0.63346</td>
<td>0.63346</td>
<td>0.63346</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( W ) (eVÅ(^4))</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \mu ) (Å)</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2.2. Experimental procedure

A 100 g PbO-SiO\(_2\) glass sample was made by mixing ground quartz \( \text{SiO}_2 \) (Vitrovita, Brazil) and PbO (Sigma-Aldrich, USA) in the stoichiometric ratio. Afterwards, the mixture was melted in a platinum crucible for two hours and then quenched between two steel plates. The glass used in this study is that of batch 2 from Cassar et al. [3]. The Raman measurements were done using a Horiba-Jobin-Yvon HR800 Evolution micro-Raman spectrometer using a 532 nm wavelength laser as the excitation source and a 50 \times \) long work distance objective. All measurements were taken in-situ, using a 1 mm sized sample mounted in a Linkam TS1500 micro-furnace. The spectra were collected using the 1800 slits/mm grating between 600 and 1300 cm\(^{-1}\). A 1 mW at the sample. Each spectrum is an average of 10 measurements. Before each measurement we waited 5 min for temperature stabilization, taking 10 min at each temperature step in total.

Wavenumbers were calibrated against the position of the silicon peak (520.7 cm\(^{-1}\)), and the experimental results were normalized by the experimental \( T_g^{DMC} = 687 \, \text{K} \).

For the Raman curve fitting, we used the Fityk (0.9.8) software [23]. The high-frequency bands are assumed to have Gaussian line-shapes. The first step was to fit the baseline using a cubic function, where only the intensities of the Gaussians were left free, the Levenberg-Marquardt fitting algorithm was used. Then, the band center positions, and later the full-width at half-maximum (FWHM) were permitted to vary freely, where the Nelder-Mead Simplex fitting algorithm was used to fit them. As a result, at the last step of the curve fitting, no constraints in the Gaussians or the baseline were imposed, and all parameters were let free. However, this procedure does not mean that...
Fig. 1. - Structure factor calculated from the MD simulation (line) compared with neutron diffraction data [16, 24, 25]. The reasonable agreement, even in long range correlation, supports the reliability of the MD simulation.

The starting point to understand the glass structure from the MD simulation is to examine the atomic arrangement. This arrangement is auto-correlation [18]. The simulation reproduces most vibrational Raman spectroscopy. The calculated vibrational density of states is also act as a network former.

The second structural probe used to validate the MD model was Raman spectroscopy. The calculated vibrational density of states was obtained from Fourier transform of the velocity auto-correlation [18]. The simulation reproduces most vibrational modes of PS, especially in the high frequency region (800–1200 cm\(^{-1}\)) that is characteristic of the Q\(^2\) species.

The sequence of ions, and \(C_{ab}(r)\) that characterizes their respective coordination number for a given radius. The analysis of the first neighbor distances were carried out by fitting a lognormal function(s). When necessary, a Gaussian function was added in order to simulate the tail of the second neighbor. Table 3 shows the obtained values using the lognormal functions and the curve fits are presented in the supplementary material (S. 1). The coordination numbers were obtained from the calculation of the \(C_{ab}(r)\) based on the \(g_{ab}(r)\) curve fit for a given cutoff distance by integrating the individual contribution of each lognormal.

The \(g_{Si-O}(r)\) has only one contribution centered at 1.65 Å, which is characteristic of the Si–O distance in tetrahedra-based silicate compounds [26]. The coordination number \(C_{Si-O}\) is four, as expected of a tetrahedral geometry. The bond-angle distributions of O–Si–O and O–O–O are centered at 109° and 60°, respectively, confirming the tetrahedral geometry (Fig. 4). Additionally, the bond-angle distribution of Si–O–Si, which represents the connectivity between two SiO\(_4\) units, shows a broad band between 120° and 180° (Fig. 4). This broad distribution is characteristic of (disordered) corner-sharing tetrahedra in silicate glasses. Moreover, the Si–Si pair distribution shows two distinct distances, one centered at 3.11 Å and another at 3.25 Å, with \(C_{Si-Si}\) values of 1.11 and 0.96, respectively and corroborates the corner-sharing SiO\(_4\) network.

The \(g_{Pb-O}(r)\) shows two contributions, one intense peak centered at 2.30 Å and a small peak at 2.59 Å. The individual coordination numbers are 4.27 and 1.08, respectively. This bimodal distribution was also seen in X-ray and neutron scattering experiments [4, 16], and by MD simulations [17]. The peak positions presented here agree with these literature results, but there are small discrepancies in the individual coordination numbers. The discrepancies are attributed to the fact that the first and second coordination shells are not well defined. Consequently, the values of \(C_{Pb-O}\) reported in the literature vary from 4.0 to 5.8 [5, 16, 17, 27]. The O–Pb–O angle distribution has two peaks (Fig. 4), at 60° and 90°, with a wide distribution to higher angles, which is in agreement with published data [16, 17, 27]. This angular distribution correlates with the radial distribution results indicating that the Pb is present in distorted PbO\(_4\) polyhedra, with some PbO\(_2\) also present. This interpretation concurs with the results of Rybicki et al. [17] and Kohara et al. [16], who suggested that the majority of Pb is found in PbO\(_4\) units for the PS composition. A representative snapshot to show the Pb environment was made using the Ovito software [28] and it is shown in Fig. 5. It can be observed that Pb\(_1\) and Pb\(_2\) are coordinated by four oxygen atoms, sharing an edge, and each oxygen atom is bound to at least one Si atom.

The Q\(^n\) speciation can be obtained from the curve fit of the high-frequency Raman spectrum, where each species is found in a specific frequency range [9, 29–31]. In the present case, two different curve fit models were used (Fig. 6) and the fit parameters are in Table 4. The first (M1) was proposed by Kacem et al. [9], based on the investigation of a series of binary lead silicates. Their model assume that the high-frequency Raman band of PS can be decomposed into six Gaussians corresponding to Q\(^0\) (844 cm\(^{-1}\)), Q\(^1\) (890 cm\(^{-1}\)), Q\(^2\) (960 cm\(^{-1}\)), Q\(^3\) (1004 cm\(^{-1}\)), T\(_{2g}\) (1057 cm\(^{-1}\)), and Q\(^{3a}\) (1131 cm\(^{-1}\)) [9]. However, the assignment of the 1050 cm\(^{-1}\) band as a T\(_2g\) vibration is controversial (see next paragraph for details). Instead, some authors have assigned the 1050 cm\(^{-1}\) band as a Q\(^3\) vibration [30–32]. This controversy leads us to our model M2, where the 1050 cm\(^{-1}\) vibration is considered as an additional Q\(^3\) species (Q\(^3\)). Moreover, some constraints are considered during the curve fitting procedure of M2:

- Use the same number of Gaussians proposed by Kacem et al. [9]
- The Gaussian band parameters should be in the range observed by Kacem et al. [9].
- Each Gaussian should not be completely enveloped by another band.

Fig. 2. Comparison between the Raman spectrum (background removed) and the MD calculated vibrational density of states. The MD model reproduces most features of the Raman spectrum.
The Q\textsuperscript{3} population should agree with that obtained by other methods.

Le Losq et al. [33] have attributed the 1050 cm\textsuperscript{-1} band to a T\textsubscript{2} vibrational mode of the TO\textsubscript{4} tetrahedra, where two oxygens move closer to the central Si while the other two oxygens move away. Consequently, this contribution is not included in the Q\textsuperscript{3} calculation of M1. In contrast, McMillan et al. [30] have suggested that this band could be assigned to symmetric stretching vibrations for a range of Q\textsuperscript{3} groups in a distribution of structural environments; a second type of Q\textsuperscript{3}. This second type of Q\textsuperscript{3} was first suggested by Matson et al. [32], studying alkali-silicate glasses, where they attributed the frequency shift from the normal Q\textsuperscript{3} to the “crowd” effect, regions with a higher concentration of alkali modifiers. Recently, a similar suggestion was made by O'Shaughnessy et al. [31], when studying different compositions of Pb-Pb, Pb-Si, Pb-O, O-O, Si-Si, and O-Pb-O bonds.

Table 3
First neighbor distances, full-width at half-maximum (FWHM) and coordination numbers (CN) for each pair of ions, calculated from lognormal decomposed g(r) functions. Cells with two values reflect the bimodal distribution for the given pair. The last two columns present the values from Ref. [16].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Atomic pair</th>
<th>First neighbor dist. (Å)</th>
<th>FWHM (Å)</th>
<th>CN</th>
<th>First neighbor dist. (Å)</th>
<th>CN [16]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pb–Pb</td>
<td>3.48, 4.20</td>
<td>0.81, 0.63</td>
<td>3.59 + 1.98</td>
<td>– –</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Si–Si</td>
<td>3.11, 3.25</td>
<td>0.26, 0.19</td>
<td>1.11 + 0.96</td>
<td>– –</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pb–Si</td>
<td>2.94, 3.58</td>
<td>0.34, 0.72</td>
<td>0.77 + 3.46</td>
<td>– –</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Si–O</td>
<td>1.65</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>4.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pb–O</td>
<td>2.30, 2.59</td>
<td>0.26, 0.44</td>
<td>4.27 + 1.08</td>
<td>2.32, 2.77</td>
<td>2.8 + 1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O–O</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Q\textsuperscript{3} population should agree with that obtained by other methods.

Le Losq et al. [33] have attributed the 1050 cm\textsuperscript{-1} band to a T\textsubscript{2} vibrational mode of the TO\textsubscript{4} tetrahedra, where two oxygens move closer to the central Si while the other two oxygens move away. Consequently, this contribution is not included in the Q\textsuperscript{3} calculation of M1. In contrast, McMillan et al. [30] have suggested that this band could be assigned to symmetric stretching vibrations for a range of Q\textsuperscript{3} groups in a distribution of structural environments; a second type of Q\textsuperscript{3}. This second type of Q\textsuperscript{3} was first suggested by Matson et al. [32], studying alkali-silicate glasses, where they attributed the frequency shift from the normal Q\textsuperscript{3} to the “crowd” effect, regions with a higher concentration of alkali modifiers. Recently, a similar suggestion was made by O'Shaughnessy et al. [31], when studying different compositions of Pb-Pb, Pb-Si, Pb-O, O-O, Si-Si, and O-Pb-O bonds.
Cs$_2$O$_e$$(100-x)$SiO$_2$ glasses. O'Shaughnessy et al. [31] assumed that each Q$n$ species has a second type, related to two distinct populations of BO, one bound only to two Si atoms, and another bound to two Si and a modifier. Consequently, the 1050 cm$^{-1}$ band is considered to be an additional Q$3$ species when calculating the Q$n$ population. Therefore, our second model (M2) interprets the 1050 cm$^{-1}$ band to be another type of Q$3$, labeled as Q$3'$(Fig. 6).

To extract the Q$n$ species from a Raman spectrum, it is common for authors to apply the Long correction for frequency and temperature effects (Eq. 2)[29, 30]. However, the literature is not clear about this correction for high frequencies [34].

$$I = I_{obs} \left\{ \gamma_0 \nu_0 \left[ 1 - \exp(-h c \nu / k T) \right] \right\}$$

where, $h$ is the Planck constant, $c$ is the speed of light, $k$ is the Boltzmann
constant, $T$ is the absolute temperature, $\nu_0$ is the wavenumber of the incident laser light, and $\nu$ is the measured wavenumber in cm$^{-1}$. To evaluate the real need for this correction for our PS glass spectra, each model is fit with and without the correction. Both corrected and uncorrected approaches yield the same results for the M1 and M2 models (Fig. 7). Therefore, we conclude that the use of the temperature-frequency correction for the $Q^n$ speciation is unnecessary for these spectra.

Several experimental data are available for the $Q^n$ population at room temperature for the PS glass (Table 1). However, it is worth noting the decrease in the number of SiO$_4$ is balanced by the appearance of SiO$_3$ units after 1.5 $T_g$ MD. All temperatures used are in Kelvin.

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mentioning that Kacem et al. [9] is the only source of Raman data, while all others were derived from NMR measurements [6–8]. The Qn distributions from M1, M2, and MD results are compared with the literature in Fig. 8 [6–9]. Note that M1 model reproduces the results obtained by Kacem et al. [9], even though the Long correction was not used by us. However, the Q3 population determined using the M1 model significantly diverges when compared with all NMR literature and also with our MD result. This discrepancy suggests that the M1 model, and therefore the interpretation of the 1050 cm$^{-1}$ band as a T2s vibration is not adequate to explain the Qn distribution. In contrast, the Qn population of our M2 model yields a very good agreement with that of the MD and NMR [7] Qn distributions within 3% or better. Therefore, the interpretation of the 1050 cm$^{-1}$ band as a Q3$'$ species yields a more realistic Qn distribution.

Fig. 11. Selected in-situ high temperature Raman spectra and their respective curve fit using M2 model. Legends are used throughout all curves. Other temperatures are in supplementary material.

Fig. 12. Variation of the frequency (a) and FWHM (b) with temperature. The frequency shift displays a small decrease for all Qn species whereas the FWHM show different behaviors depending on the Qn species. Temperatures are in Kelvin.

Fig. 13. Qn population as a function of temperature determined from the M2 model (full dots) and MD simulations (empty symbols). The general behavior of Qn shows a depolymerization of the glass with temperature. Temperatures are in Kelvin, normalized by Tg$^{DSC}$ and Tg$^{MD}$ for Raman and MD results, respectively.
The curve fit of the previous temperature was used as the starting point for the next higher temperature.

- No abrupt change in the curve parameters is expected from one temperature to the next. This includes the frequency and FWHM of each Gaussian band.

- We maintained a constant number of Gaussians for the entire temperature range.

Both M1 and M2 models reproduce the high temperature Raman data and show similar qualitative Q^n behaviors (see Supplementary material S.2 and S.3). However, quantitatively, the discrepancies between the M1 and MD are even greater at high temperature. Therefore, only the M2 and MD results are reported in the high temperature curve fits (Fig. 11), the Q^n distribution (Fig. 13) and the oxygen speciation (Fig. 14).

All curve fit reproduces the experimental Raman spectra from room temperature to 1093 K (Fig. 11). The peak center frequency of all Gaussian curves shows a small linear decrease as temperature increases due to anharmonic effects (Fig. 12a). FWHMs also show a linear behavior as temperature increases, where the strongest variation is observed in the Q^3 species (Fig. 12b). The Q^3 speciation, obtained from the Raman curve fits and MD (Fig. 13), show similar behaviors as a function of temperature. In both, Raman and MD, the Q^3 abundance decreases while Q^1 and Q^0 increase without significant changes in the proportion of Q^4. The major discrepancy is that the Q^3 species decreases in the M2 model while it slightly increases in the MD simulation. Despite this discrepancy, these results show a depolymerization of the silicate network resulting from an increase in the overall number of NBO with increasing temperature (Fig. 14).

In order to elucidate the depolymerization process, the oxygen speciation was computed (Fig. 14). First, from the Raman Q^n speciation using the total oxygen given by the stoichiometry, and second, computed directly from the MD simulations accounting for all 9000 oxygen atoms in the system. Details about the calculations are provided in the supplementary material (S. 4). The MD calculations yield 64.2%, 34.6% and 1.2% for the proportion of BO MD, NBO MD and NNO MD, respectively. On the other hand, the Raman analysis shows that 33% are BO and 67% are NBOs without any NNOs required. These values are in good agreement with previous MD study of Cormier et al. [5] and recent NMR experiments from Lee et al. [14] (Table S.5). The temperature dependence of these species shows a consumption of BO to produce NBOs (Fig. 14). Additionally, the NNO MD show only a small variation with temperature, from 1.2% to 2.6%. These results confirm a depolymerization in the lead metasilicate glass as the temperature increases and may explain the non-Arrhenius viscosity decrease reported in the literature, e.g. Cassar [3].

## 4. Conclusions

The combination of Raman spectroscopy and molecular dynamics simulations provided a detailed description of the PS glass structure and its temperature dependence throughout he SCL state. We suggest that PS glass and supercooled liquid have two distinct Q^3 species and that these two Q^3 species are related to the bimodal distribution of the Pb–Si pair correlation function. Additionally, we also show that the Q^3 species can also have BOs bound to Pb ions. In fact, to correctly calculate the Q^n distribution from the Raman spectra it is necessary to include both Q^3 species. With increasing temperature, there is a decrease in the Q^3 species to the benefit of Q^1 and Q^0 species indicating the (expected) depolymerization of the network. Our results show that this depolymerization process is observed from the consumption of BOs to form NBOs and minor amounts of NNOs, which may explain the stunningly non-Arrhenius viscosity decrease reported in the literature.

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Appendix A. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jnoncrysol.2018.07.048.

References


