Coexistence of Different Growth Mechanisms of Sodium Chlorate under the Same Experimental Conditions

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INTRODUCTION

Different competitive growth mechanisms, which depend on supersaturation and temperature, cause possible crystal growth regimes. In an attempt to make a clear determination of the mechanism responsible for crystal growth under certain conditions, many difficulties have arisen. One of the most commonly used methods to identify the growth mechanism is to study \((R, \sigma)\) dependence, i.e., crystal growth rate, \(R\), on solution supersaturation, \(\sigma\) dependence.

In previous analysis, the authors have tested \((R, \sigma)\) dependence by using several theoretical equations. Linear dependence was found for potassium alum crystals grown at small supersaturations, while for higher supersaturations, some points lay above the linear curve, as well as for the growth of hydroxyapatite in the supersaturation range of 2.05–4.58%.

The growth rates of potash alum crystals were fitted to equations corresponding to BCF theory, the polynuclear model, and the power law. The data obtained for potassium alum crystals (supersaturation range of 2–18%) were all fitted to the BCF model. Kim and Myerson fitted the experimental data of other authors with a simple semi-empirical power law equation.

Under different growth conditions, \((R, \sigma)\) dependence for sodium chlorate crystals is found to be nearly parabolic in the supersaturation range of \((0.3–5.0) \times 10^{-5}\) and linear in the range of \((5–15) \times 10^{-5}\). In the supersaturation range of \(0.1–1.0\), the \((R, \sigma)\) dependence could be parabolic or linear, while in the range of \(3–5\), it refers to a two-dimensional nucleation mechanism. Surender et al. claimed that in the supersaturation range of 3–8% a parabolic trend emerged.

Some information about the growth mechanisms of sodium chlorate crystals was obtained by the analysis of \((R, \sigma)\) dependence, where \(R\) corresponds to the maximum of the normal distribution describing the crystal growth rate dispersion. Consequently, only the most probable behavior of the crystals was analyzed. It is shown that the \{100\} sodium chlorate crystal faces, in the supersaturation range of 0.44–1.56%, predominantly grew according to BCF theory. It is shown that when supersaturation decreases, \((R, \sigma)\) dependence is nearly parabolic, while when supersaturation increases, this dependence is almost linear, from which it is presumed that the growth mechanism probably depended on the solution history.

Growth rate dispersion (GRD), occurring for various substances, is well-known but is not a satisfactorily explained phenomenon in crystal growth. It occurs when crystals of the same material grow at different rates under the same experimental conditions. Namely, GRD is a consequence of different behaviors of individual faces, usually explained by the differences in parameters describing the configuration of dominant dislocation groups on faces, lattice strain, electrical
charge of face, $a^2$, and the presence of impurities for individual faces.

Because of GRD, the analysis of $(R,\sigma)$ dependence is additionally complicated. Earlier investigations of $(R,\sigma)$ dependence were performed at one or only several crystallites. The most probable behavior of many individual {100} crystal faces of sodium chlorate was recently analyzed.

In order to investigate the possibility of the coexistence of different growth mechanisms under the same experimental conditions, as a cause of growth rate dispersion, $(R,\sigma)$ dependence was analyzed for numerous individual {100} sodium chlorate NaClO$_3$ crystal faces, and the results of this analysis will be presented in this paper.

## EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

Primary nucleated sodium chlorate crystals grew until they reached a certain size and then partially dissolved. After dissolution and refacetting, a broad dispersion of sodium chlorate {100} face growth rates occurred as was previously noticed. Also, it was remarked that growth and dissolution of sodium chlorate crystals did not depend on their position in the bottom of the crystallization cell, crystal orientation in respect to the solution flow, and the distance between the closest neighbors, i.e., they did not depend on hydrodynamic conditions. Histograms representing changes in GRD of sodium chlorate {100} faces in the experiments with the temperature increasing from 28.0 to 30.0 °C and with the temperature decreasing from 30.0 to 28.0 °C were published earlier.

To determine the mechanism of crystal growth under certain conditions, the most appropriate correlation between growth rates and solution supersaturation must be found. For this reason, experimental data obtained for each individually observed face were fitted to equations corresponding to different growth mechanisms. The data were fitted to the following equations:

1. Two-dimensional nucleation with (a) surface diffusion $R = hA\sigma_1^{1/2}\exp\left(-\Delta G_b/RT\right)$ and (b) direct integration of growth units $R = hA\sigma_1^{1/2}\exp\left(-\Delta G_b^*/RT\right)$ (both for the polynuclear model).
2. Two-dimensional nucleation with (a) surface diffusion $R = hB\sigma_1^{1/6}\exp\left(-\Delta G_b^*/3RT\right)$ and (b) direct integration of growth units $R = hB\sigma_1^{1/6}\exp\left(-\Delta G_b^*/3kT\right)$ (both for the multiple nucleation model).
3. Growth by group cooperating screw dislocations—the Chernov’s model:
   \[
   \frac{\sigma_i^2}{R} = \frac{19\gamma}{kT} \frac{1}{(m+1)\frac{\Delta H}{\Delta S}} + \frac{2\gamma}{m\frac{\Delta H}{\Delta S}}
   \]
4. Spiral growth—BCF:
   \[
   R = C^{*}\sigma^2 \tanh\left(\frac{\sigma}{\sigma_c}\right)
   \]
5. Spiral growth—diffusion regime:
   \[
   R = \frac{C^{*}\sigma^2 \ln(2\gamma/\sigma)}{k\ln(2\gamma/\sigma)}
   \]
6. Linear $(R,\sigma)$ dependence $R = \alpha_{\sigma}\sigma_c$, $R = C^{*}\sigma$.
7. Parabolic $(R,\sigma)$ dependence for $\sigma \gg \sigma_c$, $R = C^{*}\sigma^2/\sigma_c^2$.
8. Simple power law, $R = \kappa\sigma^\alpha$.

Linear (6) and parabolic (7) dependences are predicted with all three mechanisms described by equations (3–5). Because of that, these dependences are analyzed separately.

Three versions of growth by two-dimensional nucleation are possible depending on the nuclei steps displacement rate $v$: (a) mononuclear for $v = \infty$, (b) polynuclear for $v = 0$ and (c) finite $v$ (birth and spread model, also called the multiple nucleation model). In the case of finite-step velocity $v$, there are two models: polynuclear and multiple nucleation. For the face area $A$, nuclei step height $h$, and rate of two-dimensional nucleation $f$, the polynuclear model exists if $A^{1/2} < (vJ)^{1/3}$, i.e., $R = hAJ$, whereas the multiple nucleation model exists if $A^{1/2} > (vJ)^{1/3}$. The main differences between equations for $R$ for surface diffusion and direct integration of growth units lie in expressions for $J$ and $v$, which are different in these two cases. Equations that describe polynuclear and multiple nucleation models with surface diffusion and with direct integration of growth units are essentially the same. Both models predict for low $\sigma$ exponential supersaturation dependence and for high $\sigma$, $R \propto \sigma^{1/2}$ or $R \propto \sigma^{5/6}$. In the polynuclear model, the growth rate $R$ increases with the area of the growing crystal and it is expected that the exponent exceeds 1/2 because of the surface area $A$ contribution.

Spiral growth models consider that steps on a growing surface are provided by the presence of a screw dislocation. Bulk diffusion models (3) compared to surface diffusion model (4) assumed that the diffusion of growth units in the bulk medium is slower than their diffusion on the surface and integration in the kinks. Parameters in equation 4 are defined as $C^{*} = \frac{\beta}{b} \frac{\Delta N}{\kappa T}$, and $\sigma_c = \frac{hB}{k\Delta H}$, where $\beta$ is the kinertad factor (describes the influence of kinks in the steps), $A$ is step retardation factor (describes the influence of kinks on the density of steps), and $b$ is the size of the growth unit in the $y$ direction. For the diffusion regime, $\frac{\sigma_c}{\gamma} \ll \beta_1^{*}$—velocity of the step advance will be determined by the process of surface diffusion, i.e., surface diffusion is the rate controlling process, where $\beta_1^{*}$ is the kinetic coefficient of the step (rate of crystallization) and $D_1$ is the diffusion coefficient.

The goodness of equation fit was tested by the $\chi^2$ (chi-square) test. We note that the dislocation growth mechanism is described with different equations, which the authors used in order to describe this mechanism better. BCF equation in the original version is derived for crystal growth from vapor, but it is shown that it describes well growth from solutions (and melts).

A more general model employing the BCF growth mechanism combines surface and bulk diffusion and considers these effects in parallel or series on the crystal growth rate. These models are mathematically complex and are described in detail in the literature. The mentioned models predict that as the relative velocity between a crystal and the solution is increased, the growth will increase to a maximum value and then will remain the same. This maximum value is the value obtained when only surface diffusion limits growth. In the literature, this is known as a growth limited by interfacial attachment kinetics. When the crystal growth rate can be changed by changing the hydrodynamic conditions, it is known as a mass transfer limited growth.

An example of the {100} face displacement versus time dependence of sodium chlorate crystals when supersaturation decreases and increases is presented in Figure 1. In order to determine the corresponding average linear face growth rates after refacetting, the data corresponding to constant supersaturation were subjected to the least-squares method. Some crystals changed their growth rates during the observation.
Even though the supersaturation of the solution was constant, as described in ref 9. Those crystals were excluded from the analysis.

The examples of \((R,\sigma)\) functions that best fit certain experimental data are presented in Figure 2.

Table 1 shows the numbers of \{100\} sodium chlorate crystal faces, whose growth is best described by some of the proposed equations, for both types of experiments—with supersaturations decreasing \((\sigma_d)\) and increasing \((\sigma_i)\). \(N\) denotes the total number of observed crystal faces. The analysis was done only for crystals whose growth could be observed at all five values of supersaturations (not intergrown).

From Table 1, one may notice that most of the sodium chlorate \{100\} face growth rate versus supersaturation dependencies can be best described by power functions \(R \sim \sigma^n\) \((6, 7, 8)\). In Figure 3, histograms representing the power \((n)\) distribution are presented.

The data for sodium chlorate crystals, presented in Table 1 and Figure 3, were obtained by analyzing the experimental results partially published previously. Figure 3 shows the histograms of the obtained power \(n\) in experiments.

### Table 1. Experimental Results

| Eq  | \(N\) | \(1a, 1b\) | \(2a, 2b\) | 3    | 4    | 5    | 6    | 7    | 8    | \(n\) \((6, 7, 8)\) | \(n \leq 2\) | \(n > 2\) |
|-----|-------|----------|----------|------|------|------|------|------|------|----------------|-------------|----------|
| \(\sigma_d\) | 75    | 0        | 0        | 15   | 12   | 0    | 1    | 30   | 17   | 48             | 25          | 23       |
| \(\sigma_i\) | 85    | 0        | 0        | 7    | 15   | 5    | 16   | 6    | 36   | 58            | 56          | 2        |
(5) Only 5 of 160 crystal faces probably grew in the diffusion regime.

The simple power law is frequently used because of the difficulties in the use of eqs 1−7 for fitting experimental data. The behavior of all crystal faces, pertaining to columns 6, 7, and 8, whose power is \( n > 2 \), cannot be explained by existing crystal growth theories. Garside et al.\(^{39}\) proposed that multiple nucleation is likely to hold, besides growing spirals, in this case.

It cannot be explained by the degree of neighboring step diffusion fields overlapping either. The behavior of all crystal faces, pertaining to columns 6, 7, and 8, whose power is \( n > 2 \), cannot be explained by this phenomenon. Namely, \( n = 2 \) for a small supersaturation \((\sigma \ll \sigma_c)\) surface diffusion path is much smaller than the terrace width \((\lambda_s \ll \lambda)\), and the diffusion fields are independent. In contrast, \( n = 1 \) for a high supersaturation \((\sigma \gg \sigma_c)\) surface diffusion path is much higher than the terrace width \((\lambda_s \gg \lambda)\), and diffusion fields overlap. Higher values of \( n \) correspond to smaller diffusion field overlapping of the neighboring steps.\(^{38}\)

Coexistence of linear and parabolic dependence is impossible to explain by the diffusion fields overlap too. Namely, all crystals grew under the same conditions in the same type of the experiments performed—in the same interval of supersaturation. For all of them, only one or none of the mentioned conditions could be met, i.e., supersaturation cannot be both high and low at the same time.

We can only propose reasons for \( n > 2 \) in the power \((R,\sigma)\) dependence. It is possible that the growth rate depends on more than two independent phenomena (events), which leads to the linear \((R,\sigma)\) dependence. As is known, the probability of independent events is a product of their probabilities. It is also known that two independent events, the velocity of the steps and their density \((1/\lambda)\) both lead to linear \((R,\sigma)\) dependence. Thanks to these phenomena, the \((R,\sigma)\) dependence can occur with \( 1 \leq n \leq 2 \). It is possible that more than two growth phenomena (events) presumed the power \((R,\sigma)\) dependence with \( n > 0 \). If so, then the \((R,\sigma)\) dependence will be a power function with the power higher than 2. Besides the velocity and density of the steps, these events can include point defects, a (random) distribution of dislocations (Frank network), the presence of grain boundaries and volume strain variations in the crystal,\(^{14}\) electrical charge of the crystal face,\(^{24}\) impurities, etc. Also, formation of inclusions during refactoring and further generation of dislocations might be responsible for different growth rates of crystals regenerated at different supersaturations.\(^{40}\)

The stress back effect\(^{41}\) and a special configuration of the growth spirals additionally complicate the \((R,\sigma)\) dependence but do not presume the power law with \( n > 2 \).\(^{31,32}\)

The fact that the power law, \( R = K\sigma^n \), with \( n > 2 \) is applicable for sodium chloride only when the supersaturation decreases confirms the assumption that the growth of sodium chloride crystals depends on the growth history.\(^{8,12}\) That the crystal growth depends on growth history is shown through the existence of crystal growth hysteresis—the crystal growth rate as the driving force (supersaturation or supercooling) increases is different from that when it decreases.\(^{42−46}\) It is possible that this phenomenon causes differences in growth mechanisms in our experiments with the supersaturation increasing and decreasing.

The existence of crystal faces with \( 0.5 < n < 5/6 \), in experiments with a supersaturation increase, indicates that these faces grow according to the two-dimensional mechanism, even corresponding data are better fitted by the power law (8) than the two-dimensional functions (1) and (2). This suggests that the polynuclear and multiple nuclear models for the two-dimensional nucleation compete. Hosoya and Kitamura\(^{7}\) shown that sodium chlorate crystals grew by a two-dimensional mechanism in the supersaturation range of 3−5%. Our results have shown that rare faces can grow by this mechanism at small supersaturation \((0.44−1.32%)\) too.

To date, the growth rate dispersion has been explained by the differences in growth parameters as presumed by the specific crystal growth theory. Our investigation showed that the growth rate dispersion might be a consequence of different growth mechanisms existing on equivalent crystal faces, i.e., a coexistence of different crystal growth mechanisms under the same experimental conditions is possible.

## Conclusions

On the basis of the analysis of \((R,\sigma)\) dependence for sodium chlorate crystal \(\{100\}\) faces, one may conclude that different faces of the same crystal could grow with different mechanisms under the same experimental conditions. Many of these crystal faces can be described by the spiral growth mechanism. The majority of the observed \(\{100\}\) sodium chlorate crystal faces grew in accordance with the power law \( R \sim \sigma^n \) with \( n \leq 2 \), about 52% in experiments with a supersaturation decrease and about 97% in experiments with a supersaturation increase. The power dependence \( R = K\sigma^n \) with \( n > 2 \) occurred for about 48% of \(\{100\}\) sodium chlorate crystal faces, in experiments with a supersaturation decrease. It is suggested that more independent phenomena and not only velocity and density of steps affect the face growth.

## Experimental Procedure

The idea behind experiments was to determine the correlation between the \(\{100\}\) face growth rates of sodium chlorate crystals and the solution supersaturation. The relative solution supersaturation is defined as \( \sigma = (c - c_0) / c_0 \) where \( c \) is the concentration and \( c_0 \) is the saturated solution concentration. The concentrations were calculated using the empirical formula\(^{47}\)

\[
c_0 = 0.226t + 44.38 \text{ (g NaClO}_3/100 \text{ g solution)}
\]

where \( t \) is the temperature of the solution.

Crystals were grown in a cylindrical cell (diameter 36 mm, height 15 mm). A detailed description of a crystallization cell in which crystals were nucleated and grown was described in ref \(48\). Crystals were nucleated by introducing air bubbles into the cell until small crystals appeared at the bottom. A transmitted light microscope was used to measure \(\{100\}\) crystal face displacement (accuracy of \(\pm 5 \mu m\)). The solution flow rate through the cell (capacity 15 mL) was about 0.5 mL/s. The velocity of the solution around the crystals, at the bottom of the cell, was about 0.05 mm/s. The solution temperature in the cell was kept constant within \(\pm 0.02 ^\circ\text{C}\). We had three experimental runs for the supersaturation increase and also for the supersaturation decrease. During each growth run, 15−35 crystals were observed. Only crystals which did not intergrow with neighbor crystals on all five measured supersaturations were used for analysis. In all experiments, a solution saturated at 31.0 ± 0.1 \(^\circ\text{C}\) was used, and nucleation was performed at 29.0 \(^\circ\text{C}\). At this temperature, crystals grew...
for about 2 h (Figure 4a). Then, the solution temperature was slowly increased to 34.0 ± 0.1 °C, approximately 0.5 °C/min. In about 25 min, the crystals were partially dissolved, at least 20% in the ⟨100⟩ direction (Figure 4b). Undissolved crystals were used as seeds for further growth in two types of experiments; the first with a solution supersaturation decrease and the second with a supersaturation increase. Both types of experiments were carried out in the supersaturation range of 0.44–1.32%.

In the first type of experiments with a supersaturation decrease, the solution with partially dissolved crystals was rapidly cooled to 28.0 °C followed by a temperature increase to 30.0 °C. In the second type of experiments with a supersaturation increase, the solution was rapidly cooled to 30.0 °C followed by a temperature decrease to 28.0 °C. The temperature is changed within 5 min in steps of 0.5 °C. At the first temperature reached after cooling, crystals were refaceted for about 30 min. Visible seeds’ borders enabled measurements of face displacement, i.e., growth rates in the ⟨100⟩ directions (Figure 4c).

To stabilize the growth conditions (constant supersaturation), the solution was kept for about 15 min at each growth temperature, prior to growth rate measurements. The average growth rate in the ⟨100⟩ directions for each supersaturation was determined by the least-squares method. To provide a growth rate measurement error smaller than 3%, measurements lasted 1–3 h, depending on supersaturation.

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Notes
The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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■ NOTATION (NOMENCLATURE)

| Symbol | Description |
|--------|-------------|
| $\beta_f$ | kinetic coefficient for steps |
| $\beta_k$ | kink retardation factor |
| $f$ | surface free energy |
| $\Delta G^*_f$ | free energy change, corresponding to the formation of a stable circular nucleus on the perfect surface |
| $\lambda_1$ | surface diffusion path |
| $\Lambda$ | terrace width |
| $\Lambda_R$ | step retardation factor |
| $\sigma$ | relative solution supersaturation |
| $\sigma_c$ | critical value of relative solution supersaturation |
| $\Omega$ | specific molecular volume of growth units |
| $A$ | surface area |
| $b$ | size of the growth unit in the y direction |
| $C, C_1, C_2, C_3, C_4, C_5, K$ | growth constants |
| $D_0$ | diffusion coefficient |
| $h$ | height of steps of the nuclei |
| $J$ | rate of two-dimensional nucleation |
| $k$ | Boltzmann’s constant |
| $m$ | number of cooperating spirals in the dominant dislocation group with perimeter $2L$ |
| $n$ | supersaturation exponent |
| $N_0$ | concentration of growth units at the crystal surface |
| $R$ | linear growth rate |
| $T$ | temperature |
| $v$ | nucleus step displacement rate |

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