We here report differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) scans recorded by repeatedly heating the H$_2$O (D$_2$O) low density amorph (LDA) which was made by isothermal decompression of very high-density amorphous ice (VHDA) at 140 K from 1.1 to 0.006 GPa. These DSC scans show a glass $\rightarrow$ liquid transition endotherm with an onset temperature ($T_g$) of $\approx$ 137 (140) K at a heating rate of 30 K min$^{-1}$ accompanied by an increase in heat capacity of $\approx$ 1.7 (1.5) J K$^{-1}$ mol$^{-1}$. We establish the reversibility of this effect by thermally cycling between its glassy state below 137 K and its highly viscous liquid state at 149 K. All calorimetric signatures, including H/D isotope effect, are highly similar to the signatures in hyperquenched glassy water (HGW). We argue that the observation of almost identical calorimetric traces for HGW and LDA implies that there is no need to reassign HGW's $T_g$ to higher temperatures provided that the viscous liquid state connected to both LDA and HGW behaves as an ideally “strong” liquid in the Angell classification. We furthermore show that LDA prepared by isothermal decompression of VHDA is more crystallization-resistant than LDA made from high-density amorphous ice (HDA) by isobaric warming. We suggest that the former route via VHDA removes “nanocrystalline remnants” in LDA which are still present in the latter after pressure-amorphization of hexagonal ice to HDA at 77 K.

Introduction

The glass $\rightarrow$ liquid transition in the amorphous forms of ice is central to theories which aim to understand the anomalies in liquid water,\textsuperscript{1} e.g., the second critical point hypothesis\textsuperscript{2} or the singularity-free hypothesis.\textsuperscript{3} These hypotheses rest on the assumption that the two distinct amorphous states called high-density amorphous (HDA) and low-density amorphous (LDA) ice, which were first made by Mishima et al.,\textsuperscript{4,5} turn on heating into two distinct liquid states called high-density liquid (HDL) and low-density liquid (LDL). Thus both HDA and LDA should experience on isobaric heating a glass $\rightarrow$ liquid transition. For LDA a glass $\rightarrow$ liquid transition has been reported first by Handa and Klug by adiabatic calorimetry,\textsuperscript{6} with an onset temperature ($T_g$) at 124 K and an increase in heat capacity ($\Delta C_p$) of 0.7 J K$^{-1}$ mol$^{-1}$ for heating at 0.17 K min$^{-1}$. After some confusion regarding LDA’s $T_g$ by differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) (see footnote\textsuperscript{†} for details), Salzmann et al.,\textsuperscript{2} reported the DSC scan of LDA, with a $T_g$ of 135 $\pm$ 2 K and the same $\Delta C_p$ of 0.7 J K$^{-1}$ mol$^{-1}$ for heating at 30 K min$^{-1}$. The observation of LDA’s $T_g$ is consistent with the report that LDA deforms under load and behaves like a viscous liquid near 143 K.\textsuperscript{9} However, there is also some indication that LDA shows crystal-like behaviour. Comparison of vibrational spectra and oxygen K-edge X-ray absorption spectra of LDA with ice,\textsuperscript{10,12} an analysis of Gibb’s free energies,\textsuperscript{13} the absence of fast precursor dynamics in QENS experiments,\textsuperscript{14} crystal-like features in inelastic scattering\textsuperscript{15,16} and in the thermal conductivity\textsuperscript{17,18} suggest that LDA is not a truly amorphous material (reviewed in ref. 19). This may be rationalized by considering that LDA is always produced via HDA by mechanical collapse of hexagonal ice upon applying pressure,\textsuperscript{5,10} and so crystalline remnants, e.g., distorted nanosized crystals,\textsuperscript{20} may survive up to the LDA stage. Therefore, it is not yet fully clear whether or not LDA transforms on heating into LDL, and further experiments are important.

Here we show that LDA’s calorimetric glass $\rightarrow$ liquid transition is reversible, that is, it can be thermally cycled between its glassy state below 137 K and its highly viscous liquid state at 149 K. To enable comparison, we demonstrate reversibility in the manner shown previously for hyperquenched glassy water (HGW)\textsuperscript{21,22} and vapour-deposited amorphous ice (ASW),\textsuperscript{23} by recording two successive DSC scans of the same sample through the glass transition region and by observation of the same $T_g$ value. We note that Handa and Klug\textsuperscript{6} in their study of heat capacity and glass transition behaviour of LDA had annealed two LDA samples, one at 129 K and the other at 130 K, before recording their heat capacity and observing an endothermic peak with $T_g$ of 124 K (see Fig. 1 and 2 in ref. 6, and the curves labelled “lda (129 K)” and “lda (130 K)”.

Thus, irreversible relaxation effects have probably been
excluded by their annealing above their $T_g$, but reversibility as shown for HGW and ASW in the manner described above has not been established so far. We also report the glass → liquid transition and crystallization of $D_2O$ LDA and show that the H/D isotope effect is remarkably similar to that of HGW.$^{24}$

We further find that the preparation route of LDA makes a crucial difference. Until now both studies of LDA's $T_g$ used LDA made in the same manner reported first by Mishima et al.,$^{5}$ by isobaric heating of HDA, which had been formed on pressure-amorphization of ice Ih at 77 K.$^4$ This HDA has been called u-HDA (for unrelaxed HDA) by Nelmes et al.$^{25}$ We recently reported two distinct structural states in LDA caused by relaxation effects and observed by neutron diffraction.$^{26}$ One, labelled LDAI, is obtained by isobaric annealing of HDA close to ambient pressure,$^4$ the other, called LDAt, is obtained by isothermal decompression of very high density amorphous ice (VHDA)$^{27}$ at 140 K from 1.1 to 0.006 GPa.$^{26,28,29}$ LDAI and LDAt are not distinct forms “in the way that LDA, HDA, and VHDA differ, but rather are two closely related, but kinetically trapped forms of what could be considered the true metastable low density amorphous ice”,$^{26}$ and they differ on intermediate length scales in the hydrogen bonded water network, but not in density. In the course of this study we noticed that LDAt is more stable towards crystallization than LDAI: LDAI can be repeatedly cycled in the DSC between 90 and 149 K without formation of crystalline ice, whereas for LDAI slow formation of ice occurs on repeated cycling. Because of that, we use in our DSC study only LDAt.

**Experimental**

The samples were pressurized and decompressed in a pressure vessel with 10 mm bore, by using a computerized universal testing machine (Zwick, model BZ100/TL3S). The sample volume is 300 μl of deionized water. Indium linings were used to avoid pressure drops during compression followed by shockwave heating and formation of ice XII.$^{28,30-33}$

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**Fig. 2** Reversibility of the glass → liquid transition of $H_2O$ LDAt as seen in DSC scans. The same sample of 5.04 mg was used and it was heated or cooled with a rate of 30 K min$^{-1}$. Scan (1) was obtained on first heating to 131 K, scan (2) on second heating to 148 K (after annealing the sample at 131 K for 90 min and cooling to 93 K). Scan (3) was obtained on third heating to 210 K (after annealing the sample again at 131 K for 90 min and cooling to 93 K), scan (4) is scan (3) plotted on a reduced (1/30th scale) to show the full exotherm from crystallization to $H_2O$ cubic ice. Scan (5) was obtained on fourth heating (after cooling the sample from 210 K to 93 K). For Fig. 2 and 3: $T_g$ and $\Delta c_p$ were evaluated as shown in scan (3) by dashed lines. Scans (1) to (3) and (5) are drawn on the same scale, but shifted for clarity. The temperature scale is not corrected for the thermal lag of the instrument.

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**Fig. 1** (a) X-Ray diffractograms (Cu K$\alpha_1$) of one LDAI and one LDAt sample quenched and recovered at 77 K after thermal treatment, and recorded at 80 K. (1) LDAI obtained from HDA (made by pressurizing ice Ih at 100 K to 1.6 GPa) by isobaric heating up to 138 K at 0.004 GPa, (2) LDAI heated in addition up to 149 K at 0.006 GPa, and (3) LDAt obtained from VHDA by isothermal decompression at 140 K to 0.006 GPa at a rate of 12 MPa min$^{-1}$, and heated subsequently to 149 K at 0.006 GPa. Bragg peaks from ice Ih are marked by asterisks, from the sample holder by a circle, and from a trace of indium by a cross. (b) DSC scans of one LDAI and one LDAt sample obtained on heating at 10 K min$^{-1}$. Curve 1 is the DSC scan of a LDAI sample and curve 2 the scan of a LDAt sample, both shown enlarged. The beginning of crystallization (marked by $T_c$) is in curve 1 at $\approx 138$ K and in curve 2 at $\approx 143$ K. Curves 3 and 4 are curves 1 and 2 shown on a reduced scale (1/10th).
VHDA was made by heating HDA at 1.1 GPa to 160 K at \( \sim 3 \text{ K min}^{-1} \).\(^{27}\)

X-Ray diffractograms were recorded in \( \theta-2\theta \) geometry on a Siemens D5000 diffractometer, equipped with a low-temperature camera from Paar. The \( \theta-\theta \) arrangement of the instrument allowed to keep the sample in a horizontal position throughout the experiment. The instrument is equipped with a “Goebel mirror”, providing monochromatic Cu K\( \alpha_1 \) radiation. This setup provides high intensity, stability of peak positions, and low background.

A differential scanning calorimeter (model DSC 4, Perkin Elmer) with a self-written computer program was used. A base line was recorded by heating the sample subsequently to 253 K, and it was subtracted from the scans (see ref. 34 for details). The sample was transferred under liquid N\( _2 \) into a stainless steel capsule with a screwable lid. The mass of the sample was 8.03 mg and it was heated or cooled at a rate of 30 K min\(^{-1} \). Details of the experimental procedure and the sample transfer are described elsewhere.\(^{35}\)

The sample was obtained in a stainless steel capsule with a screwable lid. The mass of the sample was 8.03 mg and it was heated or cooled at a rate of 30 K min\(^{-1} \). Details of the experimental procedure and the sample transfer are described elsewhere.\(^{35}\)

Thermal lag was determined to be \(-1.8 \text{ K} \). Thermal lag is negligible on heating at 10 K min\(^{-1} \).

Results and discussion

Enhanced stability of LDA\( _{II} \) towards crystallization is demonstrated in Fig. 1a by X-ray diffractograms. LDA\( _I \) develops on heating to 149 K at 0.006 GPa intense Bragg peaks of textured ice I\( h \) (scan 1 versus scan 2), whereas LDA\( _{II} \) is still fully amorphous after heating to 149 K at 0.006 GPa (scan 3). In all three scans peak position of first broad peak is at \( 2\theta = 24.2^\circ \), and thus LDA\( _I \) and LDA\( _{II} \) cannot be distinguished by routine X-ray diffractograms. Formation of ice I\( h \) after partial crystallization of LDA\( _I \) (scan 2) instead of ice I\( c \) seems surprising, but formation of ice I\( h \) from HDA under pressure was also reported by Salzmann et al. (cf. Table 1 in ref. 36). We emphasize that the ice I\( h \) Bragg peaks in curve 2 are not caused by ice I\( h \) formed by condensation of water vapour during handling and transfer of the sample onto the precooled X-ray sample holder because we know from many experiments that this procedure is now routine and condensation of water vapour can be avoided. In addition, we observed intense texture effects such as those in curve 2 only when ice I\( h \) formed from amorphous ice under pressure, and not in ice I\( h \) formed by condensation of water vapour (see, e.g., Fig. 1b in ref. 37). DSC scans of one LDA\( _I \) and one LDA\( _{II} \) sample shown in Fig. 1b are further consistent with enhanced propensity in LDA\( _I \) toward crystallization. Curve 1 is the DSC scan of a LDA\( _I \) sample and curve 2 the scan of a LDA\( _{II} \) sample, both shown enlarged. The beginning of crystallization (marked by \( T_c \)) is in curve 1 at \( \approx 138 \text{ K} \) and in curve 2 at \( \approx 143 \text{ K} \), and thus \( T_c \) is shifted in LDA\( _{II} \) by \( \approx 5 \text{ K} \) to higher temperature in comparison to \( T_c \) of LDA\( _I \). Curves 3 and 4 are curves 1 and 2 shown on a reduced scale (1/10th), and these curves demonstrate that the peak minimum temperatures are about the same.

The reversibility of the calorimetric glass \( \rightarrow \) liquid transition features of H\( _2\)O LDA\( _{II} \) is demonstrated in Fig. 2. Scan (1) was recorded on first heating to 131 K. For scan (2) the sample was first annealed at 131 K for 90 min, cooled and then heated to 148 K at a rate of 30 K min\(^{-1} \). The beginning of the glass transition endotherm is indicated by the change of slope at 139 K. The sample was thereafter cooled to 93 K, annealed again at 131 K for 90 min, cooled to 93 K, and then heated to 210 K and its DSC scan recorded as scan (3). The change of slope occurs at the same temperature of 139 K as in scan (2) which demonstrates its reversibility. Scan (4) is scan (3) plotted on a reduced (1/30th) scale to show the intense exotherm due to crystallization to ice I\( c \). \( T_g \) and \( T_{mhp} \) are onset and midpoint temperatures of the glass transition endotherm, and \( T_c \) and \( T_{mnp} \) mark the onset and minimum temperature of the strong exotherm due to crystallization to ice I\( c \). After correction for the thermal lag of the instrument, the values are 137 and 143 K for \( T_g \) and \( T_{mhp} \), and 149 and 169 K for \( T_c \) and \( T_{mnp} \). The increase in heat capacity in the glass transition region (\( \Delta C_p \)) was determined as shown in scan (3) by dashed lines, and is about 1.7 J K\(^{-1} \) mol\(^{-1} \). The apparent width of the glass transition is 12 K. The heat of crystallization to ice I\( c \) is \(-1.30 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} \). Scan (5) is the scan of ice I\( c \) formed in scan (3)
by heating to 210 K. The absence of the glass transition endotherm ensures that the endotherm is not caused by the DSC instrument.

The H/D isotope effect on the glass transition and crystallization of D2O LDAII is shown in Fig. 3. Scan (1) was recorded on first heating to 131 K. For scan (2) the sample was first annealed at 131 K for 90 min, cooled and then heated to 148 K at a rate of 30 K min\(^{-1}\). The beginning of the glass transition endotherm is indicated by the change of slope at about 142 K. The sample was thereafter cooled to 93 K, annealed again at 131 K for 90 min, cooled to 93 K, and then heated to 210 K and its DSC scan recorded as scan (3). The change of slope occurs at the same temperature of 142 K as in scan (2) which demonstrates its reversibility. Scan (4) is scan (3) plotted on a reduced (1/20th) scale to show the intense exotherm due to crystallization to D2O cubic ice. After correction for the thermal lag of the instrument, the values for \(T_g\) and \(T_{npd}\) are 140 and 147 K, and for \(T_c\) and \(T_{min}\) 154 and 176 K. The increase of heat capacity in the glass transition region (\(\Delta c_p\)) was determined as shown in scan (3) by dashed lines, and is about 1.5 J K\(^{-1}\) mol\(^{-1}\). The apparent width is 14 K. The heat of crystallization to D2O ice \(T_g\) is \(-1.22\text{ KJ mol}^{-1}\).

The reversibility of the glass \(\rightarrow\) liquid transition endotherm established in this study for both H2O and D2O LDAII shows that it can be thermally cycled between its glassy state below 137 K (140 K for D2O), and its highly viscous liquid state at 148 K. This means that the structural states of glassy LDAII and of highly viscous liquid water are thermodynamically continuous in the glass \(\rightarrow\) liquid transition range. Furthermore, irreversible relaxation effects can be excluded as a cause of LDA’s endothermic feature at \(T_g\).

We next compare the glass \(\rightarrow\) liquid transition features of LDAII (H2O and D2O) with those of hyperquenched glassy water (HGW).\(^{21,22,24,34,38}\) To make this comparison meaningful, the same heating and cooling rate of 30 K min\(^{-1}\) and the same annealing conditions were used for this study of LDAII as for the previous ones of HGW. We find that the glass \(\rightarrow\) liquid transition features of annealed LDAII are remarkably similar to those of annealed HGW with respect to \(T_g\), \(\Delta c_p\), width and H/D isotope effect (see Table 1 in ref. 24 for thermal effects on reheating H2O and D2O HDA). Even the effect of isotopic substitution, observed first for H2O and D2O HGW, where \(T_g\) increases on deuteration much less than \(T_c\), and so the width increases from \(\approx 12\) K to \(\approx 15\) K (see Table 1 in ref. 24) is observable for LDAII, although to a slightly lesser extent (from \(\approx 12\) K to \(\approx 14\) K). Thus \(T_g\) and \(T_c\) become more separated in both D2O HGW and LDAII and the width of the glass transition region increases in comparison to the H2O samples. This unexpected isotope effect is discussed for HGW in detail in ref. 24 and need not be repeated here. We conclude that LDAII and HGW are highly similar states which are thermodynamically connected by heating to the same highly viscous liquid state.

The structural relaxation time, \(\tau_c\), calculated from a DSC scan obtained by heating at a rate of 30 K min\(^{-1}\) has been revised from \(\approx 70\) s at \(T_g\)\(^{39}\) to \(\approx 33\) s by considering both the non-exponentiality of structural relaxation and the structure dependence of \(\tau_c\).\(^{40,41}\) Johari\(^{41}\) determined the dielectric relaxation time, \(\tau\), of ultraviscous bulk water by analyzing its loss tangent data, which had been obtained in earlier studies on heating ASW\(^{42}\) and HGW.\(^{43}\) He concludes that \(\tau\) at 136 ± 1 K is \(42 ± 14\) s “when a distribution of relaxation times, a characteristic of viscous liquids, is assumed”.\(^{44}\) This value for \(\tau\) agrees nicely with \(\tau_c\) of \(\approx 33\) s estimated for \(T_g\) from the DSC endotherm on heating at 30 K min\(^{-1}\). Johari concludes that “water is an ultraviscous liquid of viscosity of the order of 10\(^{12}\) poise at 136 K, and remains a viscous liquid until it crystallizes to cubic ice”.\(^{40}\) The same holds for H2O (D2O) LDAII with a \(T_g\) of 137 (140) K, and so we consider it justified to describe the state of LDAII above its \(T_g\) as that of a highly viscous liquid. This is further consistent with the report that LDA deforms under load and behaves like a viscous liquid near 143 K.\(^9\)

For both HGW and LDAII, the weak endothermic increase in \(c_p\) is followed by the intense exothermic feature from the beginning of crystallization to ice Ic, and this exotherm masks the \(c_p\) curve of the deeply supercooled liquid following the glass \(\rightarrow\) liquid transition which is observable in less rapidly crystallizing glasses. The apparent peak of the \(T_g\) endotherm is therefore an artefact from superposition of the crystallization exotherm and the glass-softening endotherm. Thus, the end temperature of LDA’s (and HGW’s) glass \(\rightarrow\) liquid transition and the \(c_p\) value at this temperature are not directly observable.\(^{34}\)

The remarkable similarity between the glass \(\rightarrow\) liquid transition features of LDAII and HGW has implications for claims to reassign HGW’s \(T_g\) to higher temperatures. First, Velikov \textit{et al.} demand that HGW’s \(T_g\) should be reassigned from 136 K to 165 ± 5 K.\(^{44}\) Their claim is based on the intense enthalpy relaxation exotherm observed on reheating HGW, and the magnitude of the unrelaxed enthalpy remaining when crystallization occurred.\(^{38}\) Their argument does not hold for LDAII because an intense exotherm is not observable even on first heating (see scans 1 in Fig. 2 and 3). Second, Yue and Angel\(^{45}\) compare HGW’s glass transition behaviour with that of other inorganic hyperquenched glasses and conclude that “small endothermic effects, such as the one attributed to the glass transition of water, are only a “shadow” of the real glass transition occurring at higher temperatures, and that the glass transition of water cannot be probed directly”. Since LDAII has not been made by hyperquenching, an interpretation as a “shadow transition” is not possible. Later on, it was clarified that \(T_g\) for HGW can remain at 136 K, provided water experiences a fragile-to-strong transition upon cooling and behaves as an almost ideally strong liquid at 148 K,\(^{46–48}\) which is consistent with our data.

In conclusion, the calorimetric features of both H2O and D2O LDAII are fully consistent with a reversible glass \(\rightarrow\) liquid transition, and these features and the effect of isotopic substitution are about the same as those observed for HGW. We thus need to discuss what causes the above-mentioned crystal-like behaviour of LDA in the studies of ref. 10–18. These studies have all been made with LDA formed on isobaric heating of HDA, what we now call LDAI. We had attributed above the enhanced propensity of LDAI towards crystallization to crystalline remnants, \textit{e.g.}, distorted nanosized crystals, which are still present in unrelaxed HDA after pressure-amorphization of ice Ih, and which can act as seeds for formation of cubic and/or hexagonal ice. In this context it
is interesting to note that in the two previous calorimetric studies of annealed LDAI, $\Delta H$ was observed to be only about half the value (0.7 J K$^{-1}$ mol$^{-1}$) reported here for LDAII. This lower value could be caused by a considerable amount of crystalline remnants in LDAI. The enhanced stability of LDAII toward crystallization (see Fig. 1, curve (2) versus curve (3)) could be caused by the disappearance of such crystalline remnants during formation of VHDA at 1.1 GPa and 160 K. This is consistent with Klotz et al.'s$^{49}$ conclusion from in situ neutron diffraction studies of high-density amorphous ice under pressure that possible crystal-like grain size has to be below $\approx 2$ nm and therefore VHDA has to be amorphous. Measurements of the dielectric relaxation time of HDA under pressure obtained from VHDA$^{30,35}$ give at 1 GPa a relaxation time of a few seconds at 130 K. This is consistent with HDA at 1 GPa being a highly viscous liquid in which crystalline remnants can be removed (e.g., dissolve). It might seem surprising that such crystalline remnants do not induce further crystallization, as pointed out by one of the reviewers. However, at 1 GPa and 140 K we are in the stability field of ice VI,$^{34}$ and it is not at all clear to us whether crystalline remnants can be removed (e.g., dissolve). It seems that it is possible that crystal-like behaviour of LDAI in ref. 10–18 is caused by crystalline remnants, e.g., distorted nanosized crystals. We therefore suggest to repeat these measurements with samples of LDAII prepared in the manner reported here.

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