

THE CRYSTAL STRUCTURE OF SELENOUREA

THE CRYSTAL STRUCTURE OF SELENOUREA  
AT 20°C AND AT -100°C.

By

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A Thesis

Submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies  
in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements  
for the Degree  
Doctor of Philosophy.

McMaster University

October 1967.

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY (1967)  
(Chemistry)

McMASTER UNIVERSITY  
Hamilton, Ontario.

TITLE: The Crystal Structure of Selenourea at 20°C and at -100°C.

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SUPERVISOR: Professor C. Calvo.

NUMBER OF PAGES: vii, 97

SCOPE AND CONTENTS: The trigonal form of selenourea has been examined by X-ray crystallographic methods both at room temperature and at a lower temperature (-100°C). The lattice parameters of earlier workers have been refined and the space group assignment, which requires nine crystallographically distinct  $\text{SeC}(\text{NH}_2)_2$  molecules, confirmed. The crystal structure was solved using a novel Patterson technique and differences Fourier syntheses, and was refined by least squares using three-dimensional data obtained at -100°C. Both the molecular dimensions and the crystal structure found are compared to other members of the urea series, and the similarity of the crystal structure to the urea- and thiourea-hydrocarbon complexes discussed. Evidence is presented of N-H...Se hydrogen bonds, supporting their recent discovery in chemically related compounds.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.

I would like to express my gratitude to the following persons and organisations.

Professor C.Calvo, whose supervision was an ideal blend of sound advice and encouragement to pursue my own ideas.

The very many members of the Crystallography Group who provided computer programs and helpful advice, without either of which this research would not have borne fruit.

Canadian Industries Limited and the National Research Council of Canada, who provided personal financial support.

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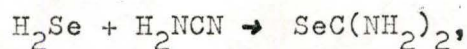


## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

The crystal structure of selenourea,  $\text{SeC}(\text{NH}_2)_2$ , has been studied by single crystal X-ray diffraction techniques at room temperature and  $-100^\circ\text{C}$ . Through this work, we intended to gain information on the structure of the selenourea molecule, the packing of these simple molecules in the solid state, and as to the existence of N-H...Se hydrogen bonds. The study was also concerned with the possibility of ferroelectricity in this molecular crystal. The structure found will be compared to those of the chemical analogues urea,  $\text{OC}(\text{NH}_2)_2$ , and thiourea,  $\text{SC}(\text{NH}_2)_2$ , and to their crystal complexes with hydrocarbons, with particular reference to the packing and degree of hydrogen bonding in these structures.

Selenourea was first prepared by Verneuil (1836) by reaction of hydrogen selenide with an aqueous solution of cyanamide,



but until recently few workers have made any consistent study of its physical properties. There is not even agreement in the

literature on the melting point, the usual criterion of purity for molecular solids. A number of reported values are:-

<u>Recrystallisation From</u>	<u>Melting Point (°C)</u>	<u>Reference</u>
Water	200 (dec.)	Verneuil (1886)
Water	213	Backer & Bos (1943)
Ethanol	210-211 (dec.)	Mautner (1956)
Water	235 (dec.)	Hope (1964)

The crystal structures of urea (Hendricks, 1928) and thiourea (Wyckoff and Corey, 1932) were among the earliest of molecular compounds to be solved. The urea structure, which has since been confirmed by both electron (Lobachev and Vainshtein, 1961) and neutron diffraction (Worsham, Levy and Peterson, 1957), contains two molecules in a tetragonal unit cell of space group  $D_{4d}^3-P4_2m$  with  $a = 5.661\text{\AA}$ ,  $c = 4.712\text{\AA}$ . The structure is illustrated in Figure I-1. The oxygen atom of each molecule is linked, by hydrogen bonds of length  $3.0\text{\AA}$ , to two nitrogen atoms on neighbouring molecules related by the  $\bar{4}$  axis, and also to the two nitrogen atoms of the molecule related by the translations along this axis. This open framework of hydrogen bonds prevents other contacts between the urea molecules. The most recent X-ray studies are due to Sklar, Senko and Post (1961) and Caron and Donohue (1964). The former is of peculiar relevance to the

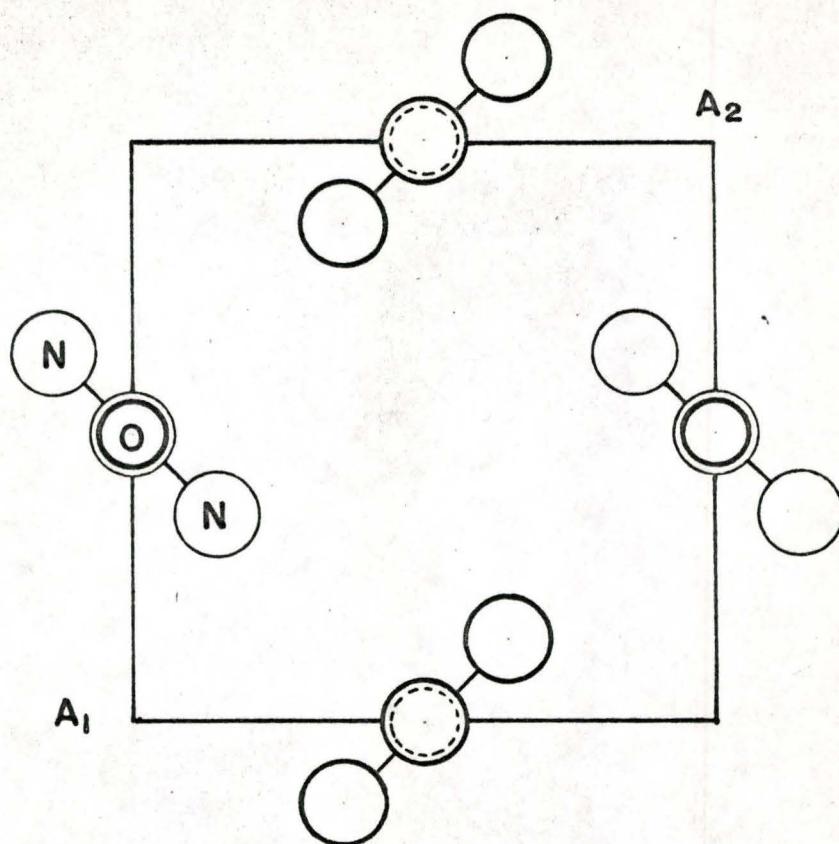


Figure I-1

The crystal structure of urea projected on (001).

present work, in being carried out at two temperatures,  $-140^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $28^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

Recent accurate X-ray determinations of the room temperature structure of thiourea have been carried out by Kunchur and Truter (1958), Zvonkova, Krivnov and Khvatkina (1966) and Truter (1967). The conclusions drawn are in agreement with an electron diffraction study by Dvoryankin and Vainshtein (1958). The structure involves four molecules in an orthorhombic cell, of space group  $D_{2h}^{16}$ -Pnma, and is illustrated in Figure I-2. The thiourea molecule has a plane of symmetry passing through the carbon and sulphur atoms, requiring the nitrogen atoms to be equivalent. The nitrogen atoms are found to be coplanar with the carbon and sulphur atoms, although this is not required by the space group symmetry.

Solomon (1957) reported that thiourea was ferroelectric at low temperatures, and Goldsmith and White (1958) showed that this results from small relative displacements of the molecules as a whole in a low temperature phase, stable below  $169^{\circ}\text{K}$ , of space group  $C_{2v}^2$ -P2<sub>1</sub>ma, where the asymmetric unit is doubled in size. These displacements occur in either of two possible ways, which result in diametrically opposite directions for the residual dipole moment in this non-centrosymmetric structure. Since these displacements from the high temperature structure are small, the two forms have

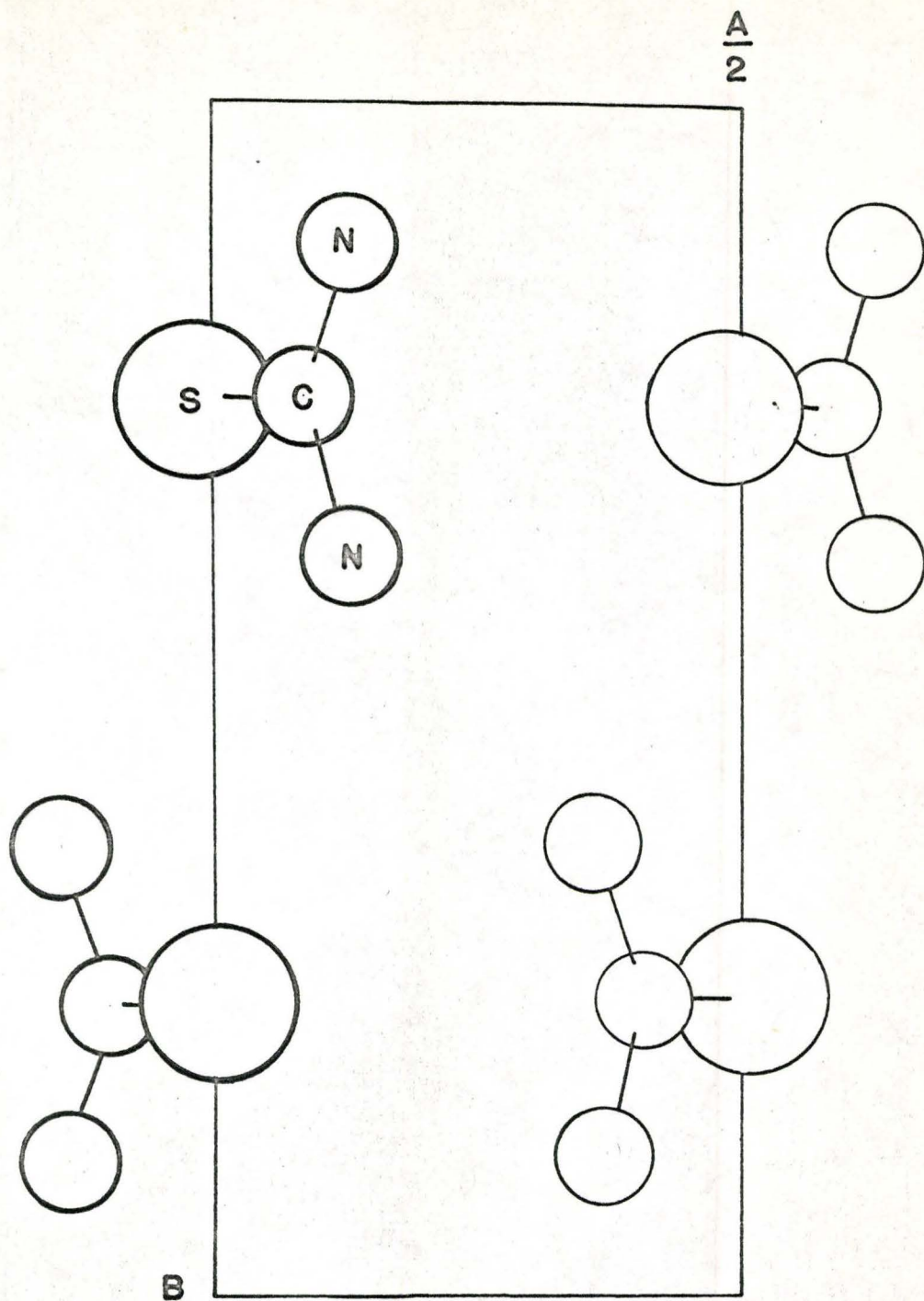


Figure I-2

The crystal structure of thiourea projected on (001).

only a small barrier to interconversion, which can be overcome by the application of an electric field of the correct polarity. Such an electric field will convert the crystal into the form with reversed moment; this phenomenon is called ferroelectric 'switching'. Again this low temperature structure has been confirmed by electron diffraction (Dvoryankin and Vainshtein, 1961) which in addition reveals the hydrogen bonding characteristics.

Kitaigorodskii (1961, 1965) is of the opinion that the determining factor in the crystal structure of organic compounds is steric, that is, the intermolecular interactions can be approximated as those arising from non-interpenetrable molecules. This 'hard molecule' model is in fact a good approximation from the point of view of lattice energy, since intermolecular forces can be shown to be not significantly affected by crystal fields in molecular crystals. Some examples substantiating this will be presented in the Discussion. The minimum free energy of the crystal then arises from the highest packing density, since the lattice energy is determined by the number of intermolecular contacts giving rise to the non-directional dispersion forces, commonly called van der Waals forces. What Kitaigorodskii has done is to derive a list of space groups which are likely to result in high packing density, through consideration of the effects of the various symmetry elements involved on a molecule of arbitrary shape.

These predictions are well borne out in practice. Dipolar

interactions have little effect on this scheme, since they appear only to single out one particular free energy minimum from several available on purely steric grounds. The same is usually true of hydrogen bonds, despite their directed nature and the fact that they are found in practice to be saturated, that is, all available groups N-H and O-H are used in hydrogen bonding. However deviations from close-packing, due to the directional requirements of strong hydrogen bonds, do sometimes occur; this is well illustrated by comparing the structures of urea and thiourea.

With regard to urea, Kitaigorodskii points out that the structure is relatively 'loose' compared with the packing in most organic crystals, and attributes this to the steric requirements of the large number of hydrogen bonds involved. He also shows that thiourea would suffer from further large losses in packing density if it assumed the urea structure; thus the structure found for thiourea is of lower symmetry, but higher packing density, and is one of those theoretically predicted by Kitaigorodskii for the close-packing of organic molecules.

Urea and thiourea form inclusion compounds with certain hydrocarbons. The structure of the crystalline compounds formed by urea with straight-chain aliphatic hydrocarbons was elucidated by Smith (1952). The space group is  $C6_12$  or the enantiomorphous  $C6_52$ . The unit cell contains six urea molecules, the lattice

constants being  $a = 8.230(4)\text{\AA}$ ,<sup>\*</sup>  $c = 11.005(5)\text{\AA}$ . These urea molecules form a honeycomb structure by hydrogen bonding among themselves, leaving six-sided channels which contain the hydrocarbon molecules. The packing density in these crystals is greater than for either component alone which is further evidence in favour of Kitaigorodskii's principles.

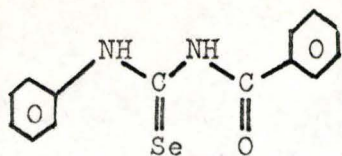
A completely analogous phenomenon was also found for thiourea; in this case the structure determination is due to Lenné (1954). The basic structure has a similar honeycomb form, but the symmetry is reduced, the space group now being the rhombohedral  $R\bar{3}c$ . The unit cell has the dimensions  $a = 15.8\text{\AA}$ ,  $c = 12.5\text{\AA}$ , contains 18 molecules of thiourea, and involves three six-sided channels, which are now large enough to contain cyclic hydrocarbons such as cyclohexane.

Recently three accurate crystal structure determinations of substituted selenoureas have been completed, phenylbenzoyl-selenourea (I) by Hope (1965), 2-selenouracil (II) by Tsernoglou (1966) and 2:4-diselenouracil (III) by Shefter, James and Mautner (1966).

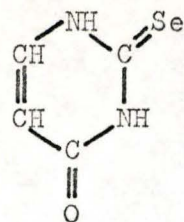
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\* Throughout this thesis errors (standard deviations where least squares is involved) will be designated by including the error in the final digit(s) in parentheses, e.g.  $8.230(4)\text{\AA}$  is equivalent to  $8.230 \pm 0.004\text{\AA}$ .

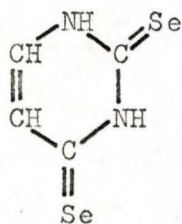




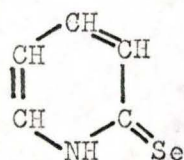
I.



II.



III.



IV.

All of these studies found the selenourea moiety, save possibly for the hydrogen atoms, to have the planar form found for the other members of the series, with Se-C-N and N-C-N angles near  $120^\circ$ . Some interatomic distances found are listed in Table I-1A. It will be shown below that these are in keeping with predictions based on the other analogues.

These three studies further produced all the crystallographic evidence to date for hydrogen bonds N-H...Se. The lengths of these hydrogen bonds are also listed in Table I-1A. For compounds II and III the interpretation is strengthened by the determination of the corresponding sulphur compounds, 2-thiouracil (Tsernoglou, 1966) and 2:4-dithiouracil (Shefter and Mautner, 1967). For example the N-H...Se distance in 2-thiouracil is  $3.32\text{\AA}$ , close

TABLE I-1

Some bond lengths and angles in compounds related to selenourea.

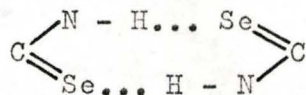
A. Substituted selenoureas.

<u>Atoms.</u>	<u>Distance (Å).</u>	<u>Compounds.</u>
C-Se	1.81	I
	1.84	II
C-N	1.32	I
	1.40	
	1.34	II
	1.34	
N-H...Se	3.83	I
	3.42	II
	3.47	III
	3.75	III

B. Urea and thiourea.

	<u>C-X(Å)</u>	<u>C-N(Å)</u>	<u>X-C-N(°)</u>	<u>N-C-N(°)</u>	<u>Reference.</u>
X=O	1.262(3)	1.341(3)	120.9(2)	118.2(2)	Sklar, Senko & Post (1961)
	1.276(8)	1.356(7)	120.5(6)	119.0(3)	Caron and Donohue (1964)
X=S	1.75	1.34	121	118	} Goldsmith and White (1959)
	1.73	1.34	121	118	
	1.720(9)	1.340(6)	120.5(5)	119.0(5)	Truter (1967)

to the value of  $3.30\text{\AA}$  found in trimethylenethiourea (Diaz and Truter, 1964). For all three compounds two molecules are linked across a centre of symmetry by these hydrogen bonds, to form the grouping



The existence of similarly hydrogen bonded dimers has been deduced for 2-pyridiselenone (IV) in solution by Krackov, Lee and Mautner (1965) on the basis of dipole moment and molecular weight measurements.

The urea series  $\text{XC}(\text{NH}_2)_2$  have been the subject of a large amount of interest, as far as accurate molecular dimensions are concerned, since the system appears to exhibit electronic delocalisation, which increases the bond order of the C-N bonds and decreases the bond order of the C-X bond. This delocalisation also leads to hydrogen positions coplanar with the rest of the molecule. Typical bond lengths and angles found in this series are given in Table I-1B.

The first solid state study reported for selenourea was that of Mikhailov, Lundin, Gabuda and Aleksandrov (1961), who applied nuclear magnetic resonance techniques to powdered samples. They interpreted their results, on the basis of a similar molecular

structure to thiourea, as indicating a distance of  $1.75\text{\AA}$  between protons on the same  $\text{NH}_2$  group. This is similar to urea and thiourea. They also found that there is intermittent rotation of the molecule about the C-Se axis at temperatures above  $130^\circ\text{K}$ , and, by consideration of the variation of the second moment with temperature, showed that the barrier to the rotation is around 6 kilocalories per mole, which can be compared with values of 12.7 kilocalories per mole for urea and 9 kilocalories per mole for thiourea, both determined by the same technique. It is unfortunate that there is no crystal data on the samples used by Mikhailov et al., in light of the subsequent reports by other workers of two separate crystalline modifications of selenourea.

Dvoryankin and Ruchkin (1962) reported an initial electron diffraction study of selenourea. The crystals, prepared by recrystallisation from ethanol-water solutions, were found to belong to the space group  $\text{Pnma}$ , with the lattice constants here compared to the high temperature form of thiourea, which belongs to the same space group.

	<u>a(Å)</u>	<u>b(Å)</u>	<u>c(Å)</u>	<u>v(Å<sup>3</sup>)</u>	<u>Z</u>
Selenourea	6.48	8.75	7.04	399	4
Thiourea	7.65	8.53	5.52	361	4

This phase has not been confirmed by any of the subsequent

## X-ray work.

Preliminary accounts of the unit cell dimensions and contents of a second modification have been given by Kondrashev and Andreeva (1963), Perez Rodriguez, Cubero and Lopez-Castro (1964), and Hope (1965), all using X-ray methods. Kondrashev and Andreeva studied single crystals grown from aqueous solution, and assigned them to one of the enantiomorphous pair of space groups  $P\bar{3}_1$ ,  $P\bar{3}_2$ , on the basis of the systematic absences ( $00l, l \neq 3n$ ) found in the diffraction pattern. Perez Rodriguez et al. found the crystal to have the same space group, but noted that careful examination of the intensities is required to eliminate the higher symmetry point groups  $D_3$ ,  $C_{3v}$  and  $D_{3d}$ . Hope did not venture to assign a space group in his report. The unit cell contains 27 molecules, and is very similar in dimensions to those of the urea- and thiourea- hydrocarbon inclusion compounds which contain 18  $XC(NH_2)_2$  molecules. The urea compound requires a transformation to a triply-primitive cell for comparison.

	<u>a(Å)</u>	<u>c(Å)</u>
Selenourea (Perez Rodriguez et al.)	15.34	12.99
Thiourea/cyclohexane	15.8	12.5
Urea/n-hexadecane	14.3	11.0

This suggests that perhaps 18 molecules per unit cell are

involved in a similar honeycomb structure, while the remaining nine are distributed in the channels, three to each. Kondrashev and Andreeva further report that this is born out by the hk0 Patterson function, which illustrates the position of the 18 selenium atoms of the honeycomb structure.

The study reported here was commenced in 1962. As the work described above became available, it became clear not only that there was, for various reasons, a great deal of interest in the crystal structure of selenourea, but that some duplication of effort might ensue as a result. In particular, Lopez-Castro (1965) confirmed her intention of carrying out a complete room temperature study. At this point it was decided to conduct a parallel low temperature structure determination;  $-100^{\circ}\text{C}$  was chosen as a convenient temperature considering the apparatus available.

The rationale for low temperature crystal structure determination is the following. The diffraction experiment does not record an atom in its equilibrium position, but a distribution of atoms displaced from their equilibrium positions by thermal motion. In fact the variation in intensity with temperature for a monatomic isotropic crystal involved the factor  $e^{-2B(\sin\theta/\lambda)^2}$ , where  $B = 8\pi^2\overline{\mu^2}$ , and  $\overline{\mu^2}$  is the mean square displacement of the atom from its equilibrium position.  $\overline{\mu^2}$  increases with increasing temperature, the variation being close to linear except at very low temperatures (Lonsdale and El Sayed, 1965), and makes it more

difficult to determine the true equilibrium position, and hence chemically important bond lengths. One way of looking at this effect is to note that the intensities decrease with increasing temperature, especially for large values of  $(\sin\theta/\lambda)$ , this results in a smearing out of atoms in electron density maps, because of the decrease in magnitude of these higher order Fourier coefficients. This has been illustrated by Burbank (1953), using the expressions and notation of Cruikshank (1949). The standard deviation  $\sigma(x)$  in a co-ordinate derived from such electron density maps, is given by

$$\sigma(x) = \frac{\sigma(A_n)}{A_{nn}} \quad (\text{I-1})$$

where

$$\sigma(A_n) = \frac{2\pi}{aV} \left\{ \sum_{hkl} h^2 (\Delta F_{hkl})^2 \right\}^{1/2}$$

and

$$A_{nn} = -\frac{\partial^2 \rho}{\partial x^2}$$

$\sigma(A_n)$  is simply proportional to the root mean square difference between the observed and calculated structure factors,  $\Delta F_{hkl}$ , properly weighted with respect to the co-ordinate  $x$ . Thus it depends primarily on the accuracy of the data.  $A_{nn}$ , however, is the curvature of the electron density at the peak position, and Burbank calculated this for various elements and values of  $B$ . For

example, for carbon

B	0	2	4
$A_{nn}$ (electrons/ $\text{\AA}^5$ )	-264	-119	-58

The latter two values of B correspond roughly to  $150^\circ\text{K}$  and  $300^\circ\text{K}$  for many molecular compounds; thus we should hope to obtain more accurate atomic positions, and hence interatomic distances, by a factor of about 2 from work at  $-100^\circ\text{C}$ .

Cruickshank (1960) himself has discussed the accuracy required in intensity measurement to gain sufficient accuracy in interatomic distances, and stresses the importance of low temperature work, suggesting that all molecular crystal work should be carried out at  $100^\circ\text{K}$  ( $-173^\circ\text{C}$ ) or lower. In addition to the greater resolution described above, he points out that errors can arise in the apparent equilibrium positions at high temperatures, caused by both molecular libration and anharmonicity in the lattice vibrations. It is difficult to correct for these effects without knowing the detailed nature of the crystal vibrations. This plea has gone unheeded since in practice a very small proportion of crystal structures are determined at low temperatures.



## CHAPTER II

### EXPERIMENTAL

#### General remarks.

X-ray diffraction is by now a very well established technique for the determination of the atomic arrangements in crystals. The majority of experimental apparatus and techniques, and of theoretical results, used in this study have been known for several decades, are in worldwide everyday use, and are well described in a number of standard texts (Buerger, 1942, 1960, Lipson and Cochran, 1967, etc.) I therefore feel it unnecessary to attempt a prolonged description of such methods here, and prefer to limit more detailed description to techniques which are either new or unusual.

#### The low temperature apparatus.

The low temperature work used the Nonius Weissenberg camera with low temperature attachment. This consists of an insulated tube, which passes down within, and concentric with, the layer line screen to a position just short of the crystal;

a controlled stream of cold nitrogen is passed through this tube and over the crystal. The nitrogen then passes out again through the open end of the layer line screen. The temperature is monitored by means of a copper-constantan thermocouple at the end of the tube nearest the crystal. To maintain the film at room temperature and to prevent frosting, the tube is surrounded by a heating coil, and the layer line slit is sealed with cellophane tape. With these precautions the cooling of the actual film holder amounted to only a few degrees, sufficient to cause condensation only on the most humid days. The cold nitrogen stream is produced in our apparatus by boiling liquid nitrogen by means of electrical heating. Temperatures in the range  $-150^{\circ}\text{C}$  to room temperature can be readily achieved and maintained with this apparatus, although the lowest temperatures need careful monitoring and a prodigal expenditure of liquid nitrogen.

The determination of lattice parameters.

On crystallisation from water, selenourea forms trigonal prisms, the prominent forms being  $\{001\}$ ,  $\{00\bar{1}\}$  and  $\{100\}$ . The identity of the last named prism faces was found by X-ray diffraction, which also showed the Laue symmetry  $C_{3i}$ . Since the only systematic absences observed are  $00\ell$ ,  $\ell \neq 3n$ , this leads immediately to the enantiomorphous pair of space groups  $P\bar{3}_1$  and  $P\bar{3}_2$  ( $C_3^2$  and  $C_3^3$ ). No space group with these extinctions occurs

in the centrosymmetric point group  $C_{3i}$ .

The Bragg equation

$$n\lambda = 2d \sin \theta \quad (\text{II-1})$$

relates the spacing  $d_{hkl}$  between successive planes of Miller indices  $hkl$  in the crystal lattice. We can therefore, knowing the wavelength of the radiation used, measure the dimensions of the unit cell.

The lattice parameters of selenourea were measured at  $20^\circ\text{C}$  by superimposing the diffraction pattern of a single crystal of rutile (the tetragonal modification of  $\text{TiO}_2$ ) on an  $h0l$  Weissenberg photograph for selenourea, in both cases using  $\text{CoK}\alpha$  radiation.\* The lattice parameters of rutile have been accurately determined as  $a = 4.5929(5)\text{\AA}$ ,  $c = 2.9591(3)\text{\AA}$  by Cromer and

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\* The x-radiations used in this study, with their wavelengths, as listed in International Tables for X-ray Crystallography, and corresponding KB filters, were :-

<u>Radiation</u>	<u><math>\alpha_1</math></u>	<u><math>\alpha_2</math></u>	<u>Filter</u>
CoK $\alpha$	1.78892	1.79278	Fe
CuK $\alpha$	1.54051	1.54433	Ni
MoK $\alpha$	0.70926	0.713543	Zr

Herrington (1955). These values were used to correct the selenourea measurements for camera radius and film shrinkage; the rutile measurements were all consistent with an effective camera radius of 2.848 cm. The corrected values of the angles,  $\theta$ , for 12 h0l reflections were used to determine the lattice parameters by least squares, using the values of Perez Rodriguez et al. as a starting point, and the FORTRAN program DESLS (Robertson, 1966) on the I.B.M. 7040 computer, which was used for all computations. The observed angles are tabulated (Table II-1A), together with those calculated from the lattice parameters found by least squares, namely  $a = 15.285(5)\text{\AA}$ ,  $c = 13.007(5)\text{\AA}$  at  $20^\circ\text{C}$ .

These values correspond to a unit cell whose volume is  $2631\text{\AA}^3$ . If we assume that the cell contains 27 molecules of the formula  $\text{SeC}(\text{NH}_2)_2$ , (formula weight 123.01), then the individual molecular volume is  $97.4\text{\AA}^3$ , and the calculated density is 2.09. Literature values are 2.06, 2.09 (Kondrashev and Andreeva), and 2.1 (Perez Rodriguez et al.). Since the space group  $P\bar{3}_1$  contains only 3-fold positions we have further reason to rule out other possibilities. Thus we have nine crystallographically distinct molecules in the unit cell.

If the diffraction patterns at two temperatures of a single crystal are superimposed on one film, and provided the structure and orientation are preserved in going from one temperature to the other, it is possible to determine with a very

TABLE II-1.

Observed and calculated diffraction angles in the  
lattice parameter determinations for selenourea.

## A. Room temperature.

<u>hk<math>\ell</math></u>	<u><math>\theta</math>(Obs.) degrees.</u>	<u><math>\theta</math>(Calc.) degrees.</u>
300	11.72	11.70
003	11.92	11.91
303	16.83	16.82
600	23.96	23.94
006	24.44	24.39
603	27.10	27.08
306	27.40	27.39
307	31.49	31.51
900	37.50	37.49
009	38.24	38.27
607	39.05	39.04
903	39.94	39.99

## B. Low temperature.

<u>hk<math>\ell</math>(*)</u>	<u><math>\Delta\theta</math>(Obs.) degrees.</u>	<u><math>\Delta\theta</math>(Calc.) degrees.</u>
3,3,14	0.48	0.49
6,6,11	0.58	0.56
1,1,15	0.48	0.51
990	0.70	0.70
991	0.65	0.71
2,2,15	0.58	0.57
5,5,13	0.70	0.65
7,7,10	0.68	0.71
993	0.80	0.79
888	0.80	0.82
994	0.90	0.94

(\*) In order of increasing  $\theta$ .

high degree of accuracy the changes in lattice parameters over the temperature range in question. This arises because this relative measurement of the Bragg angle not only automatically corrects for the effects of film shrinkage and camera radius mentioned above, but also, since the same crystal is used throughout, for errors resulting from crystal eccentricity and absorption.

This technique was applied to selenourea, using the Nonius Weissenberg camera. The crystal was oriented so that the  $hh\ell$  reciprocal lattice zone was recorded, and exposures were taken at  $20^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $-100^{\circ}\text{C}$  using  $\text{CuK}\alpha$  radiation with the camera displaced slightly laterally between exposures. The relative spacing of the  $\alpha_1, \alpha_2$  doublets at both temperatures were measured for 11 reflections, and these were used to determine the change in lattice parameters again using the DESLS program. These were found to be  $0.084(1)\text{\AA}$  in  $\underline{a}$  and  $0.057(1)\text{\AA}$  in  $\underline{c}$ , corresponding to coefficients of thermal expansion averaged over this temperature range of  $\alpha_a = 46 \times 10^{-6}/^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $\alpha_c = 36 \times 10^{-6}/^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Since the changes are known much more accurately than the parameters themselves, we can say that the unit cell dimensions at  $-100^{\circ}\text{C}$  are  $\underline{a} = 15.201(5)\text{\AA}$ ,  $\underline{c} = 12.950(5)\text{\AA}$ . The observed and calculated changes in angle, averaged for each doublet, are tabulated in Table II-1B.

The measurement of intensity data.

All intensity data were measured by photographic techniques, using single crystal cameras based on the Weissenberg (1924) or Buerger precession (1944) motions. The measured intensities were assigned standard deviations assuming a constant relative error of 20%, or an error equal to the minimum observable intensity on that particular set of films, whichever was greater. These standard deviations were later used in weighting observations in least squares refinements. As a weighting scheme, this is as simple to apply as that suggested by Hughes (1941), is almost identical in effect, and has the added advantages of taking account of local variations in  $F_{\min}$ , and of allowing weighted averaging of equivalent structure factors. Absorption corrections were then made as detailed below, and Lorentz and polarisation corrections were applied using the FORTRAN programs WEILPC (Weissenberg) and PRELPC (precession) written in this laboratory. All data were finally converted to structure factors with each layer scaled independently.

The data used for the room temperature study consisted of 3 reciprocal lattice zones, each gathered by a different photographic technique. All other data collected at room temperature were found to be useless for intensity measurement because of the use of twinned crystals. The nature of the twinning will be

described in the Discussion.

The  $h0\ell$  data were collected on the Supper Weissenberg camera, using  $\text{Cu-K}\alpha$  radiation, and the multiple film technique (Robertson, 1943) with Ilford Ilfex X-ray film (transmission for  $\text{CuK}\alpha$  radiation  $1/2.7$ ). Since the crystal used was extremely small (less than  $10^{-7}$  c.c.) no absorption correction was made to this data. The intensity measurements for the  $hk0$  zone used a somewhat larger crystal, yet still small enough to avoid twinning effects. This time the precession camera was used, along with  $\text{MoK}\alpha$  radiation, for which the absorption factor for selenourea is  $100\text{cm.}^{-1}$ . On the precession camera timed exposures were used rather than the multiple film technique. Approximate absorption corrections were applied to this data by assuming the crystal to be a sphere of radius  $0.02\text{cm.}$  ( $\mu_R = 2$ ) and interpolating between the values in the table in International Tables for X-ray Crystallography.

For the  $hh\ell$  data a larger crystal could be used, since for this projection the twinning does not interfere. This allowed the use of the integrating precession camera (Nordman, Patterson, Weldon and Supper, 1955), and the measurement of the intensities with a Leeds and Northrup G1 microdensitometer. The crystal used was a thin plate, oriented so that the surface of the plate was parallel to the film. Again a series of timed exposures were taken. No absorption correction was applied to this data.

The low temperature data were all taken on the Nonius



Weissenberg camera, using  $\text{CuK}\alpha$  radiation and equi-inclination geometry (Buerger 1942). The crystals used were all prisms of volume less than  $5 \times 10^{-7}$  c.c., since it had been found during the room temperature study that crystals of volume  $10^{-5}$  c.c. or greater were frequently twinned. The small crystals made the exposure time required for integrated photographs inconveniently long, considering the temperature had to be monitored at about hourly intervals, and the duration of a 25 litre can of liquid nitrogen was 10 - 12 hours. As it was, the low temperature study was accomplished entirely by non-integrated multiple film exposures, and exposure times of 10 - 12 hours were barely adequate. The dimensions of the crystals used (length and mean width) and the layers collected with each are listed in Table II-2.

It was found convenient to index the  $h, h+n, l$  data on the basis of the orthohexagonal cell, and to compute the absorption, Lorentz and polarisation corrections in this form, before transforming to the primitive cell.

The data were corrected for absorption by assuming that the crystals were cylinders ( $hkn$  data) or rectangular prisms ( $hnl$  and  $h, h+n, l$  data) of the dimensions stated, and ignoring edge effects. In this approximation the path length to and from any point in the crystal for a reflection of radial co-ordinate  $\mathfrak{S}^*$  (which equals

---

\* This co-ordinate system and nomenclature is that described in Buerger (1942).

TABLE II-2.

Details of the layer line data used in the low temperature study.

Layer Indices	Crystal Dimensions (cm.X10 <sup>3</sup> )		Number of Reflections			Weighted R Factor on Merging.
	Length	Diameter	Observed	Unobserved	Total	
hk0	15	3	107	57	164	0.178
hk1	20	4	85	243	328	0.209
hk2	20	2	97	231	328	0.088
hk3	20	2	129	97	226	0.128
h0 <del>l</del>	18	5	143	275	418	0.171
h1 <del>l</del>	18	5	146	532	678	0.208
h2 <del>l</del>	18	5	340	151	491	0.160
hh <del>l</del>	20	4	130	100	230	0.171
h,h+1, <del>l</del>	20	4	289	149	438	0.167
h,h+2, <del>l</del>	20	4	336	113	449	0.157
Total			1802	1948	3750	0.159

$2 \sin \theta$  for zero layer) and angular co-ordinate  $\bar{\varphi}$ , measured at equi-inclination angle  $\nu$ , is simply  $\sec \nu$  times the path length for the zero level reflection of co-ordinates  $\bar{\xi}$  and  $\bar{\varphi}$ . The cylindrical absorption corrections were interpolated from the values given in International Tables for X-ray Crystallography, using  $\mu R \sec \nu$  where appropriate. The correction for the rectangular prism was made using the Albrecht (1939) method, programmed on the I.B.M. 7040 computer. The program computed for each reflection the attenuation of the beam diffracted by 100 points (distributed on a regular 10 X 10 grid) within the crystal, and corrected the observed intensity by multiplying by the inverse of the mean attenuation.

#### The solution of the structure.

The intensity of diffraction for any particular reflection, with which we can associate the reciprocal lattice point  $\underline{H}$ , for which the momentum transfer on scattering is given by the Laue equation

$$\underline{k}_0 - \underline{k} = 2\pi \underline{H} \quad (\text{II-2})$$

is proportional to the square of the structure factor  $F_{\underline{H}}$ . The structure factor is related to the electron density  $\rho$  at a point

$\underline{r}$  within the unit cell by the expression

$$F_{\underline{H}} = \int \rho(\underline{r}) e^{2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot \underline{r}} d\underline{r} \quad (\text{II-3})$$

If we assume the electron density to be composed of  $N$  spherically symmetric atoms, and, ignoring temperature effects for the moment, we have

$$F_{\underline{H}} = \sum_{j=1}^N f_j(|\underline{H}|) e^{2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot \underline{r}_j} \quad (\text{II-4})$$

where  $f_j$  is called the atomic scattering factor. The structure factor and the electron density are the Fourier transforms of each other, that is we can evaluate the electron density, knowing the  $F_{\underline{H}}$ 's, as the Fourier series

$$\rho(\underline{r}) = \frac{1}{V} \sum_{\underline{H}} F_{\underline{H}} e^{-2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot \underline{r}} \quad (\text{II-5})$$

If we do not know the phases of the complex quantities  $F_{\underline{H}}$ , we can construct another series, the Patterson function

$$\begin{aligned} P(\underline{u}) &= \frac{1}{V} \sum_{\underline{H}} F_{\underline{H}} F_{\underline{H}}^* e^{-2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot \underline{u}} \\ &= \frac{1}{V} \sum_{\underline{H}} \sum_{j=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^N f_j f_k e^{2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot (\underline{r}_k - \underline{r}_j)} e^{-2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot \underline{u}} \quad (\text{II-6}) \end{aligned}$$

This function then contains  $N^2$  peaks, of magnitude  $f_j f_k$ , located at  $\underline{r}_j - \underline{r}_k$  from the origin. If we can interpret the Patterson in terms of such a vector set (Buerger, 1959) we have a solution for the crystal structure. We can then refine the parameters in our model to improve the agreement between our observed and calculated structure factors.

When we apply this technique to selenourea, we find that we can ignore interactions other than Se-Se, so that we have  $27^2$  vectors to locate and identify. We can reduce this number by ignoring origin peaks  $j=k$ , taking account of the centre of symmetry ( $\underline{r}_k - \underline{r}_j$  must exist as well as  $\underline{r}_j - \underline{r}_k$ ) and the 3-fold axis to 117 distinct peaks. Even then, this is a problem somewhat beyond the brute force approach.

However, a marked pattern of more intense reflections was noted on the films corresponding to the indices  $-h+k = 3n$ . In the  $h0\ell$  zone, for example, the ratio of the most intense reflections of each class,  $I_{003}/I_{103}$ , is about 9. For the  $hk0$  zone it is even higher. This implies a marked pseudosymmetry, a hexagonal subcell of dimensions one third of the true cell, having the same  $c$ -axis and the orientation shown in Figure II-1. This rotation about  $\underline{c}$  involves the transformation matrix

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} 1/3 & -1/3 & 0 \\ 1/3 & 2/3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (\text{II-7})$$

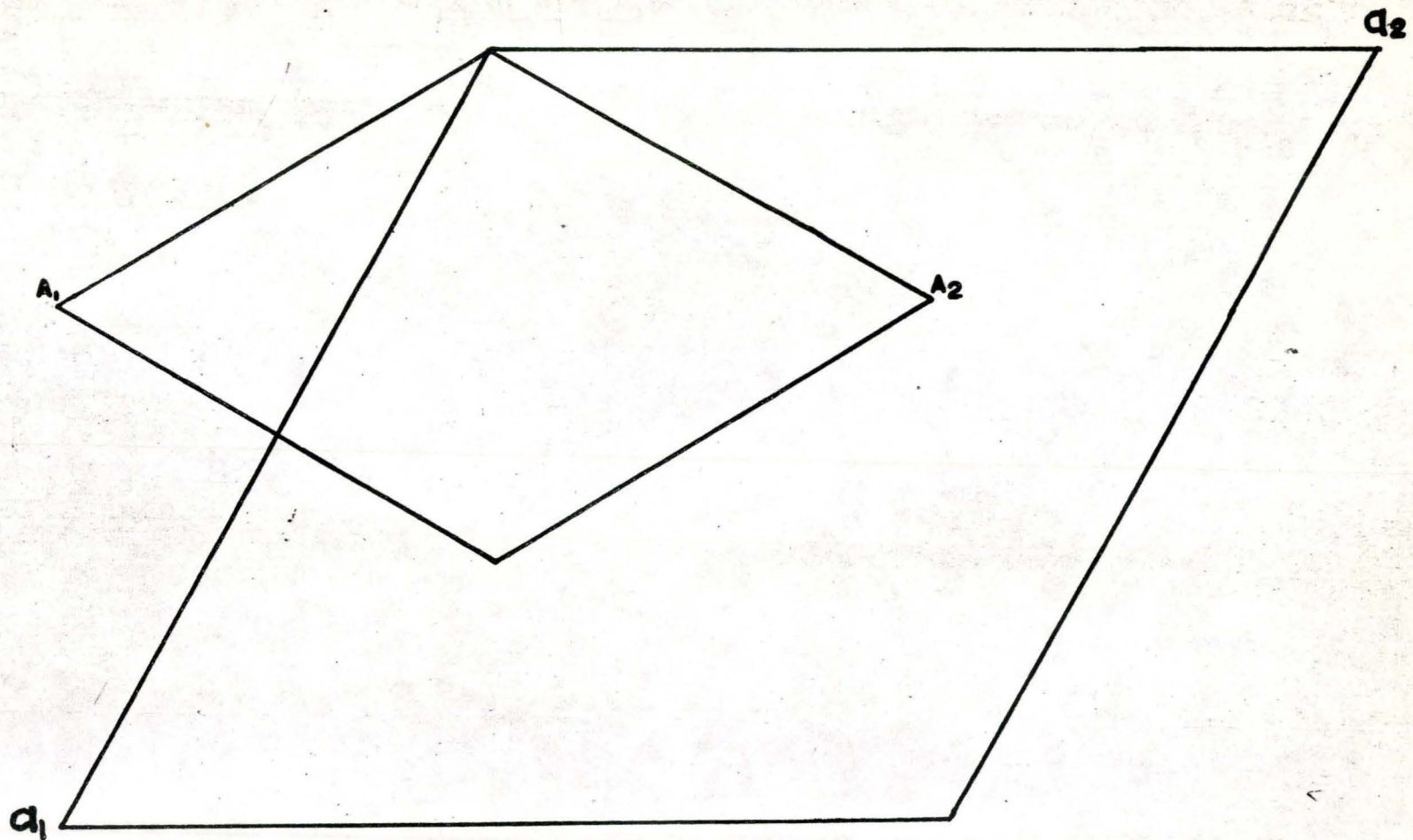


Figure II-1

The relationship in orientation and dimensions between the small pseudo-cell and the true unit cell.

where T is here quoted in the form with determinant  $1/3$ , corresponding to the 3-fold decrease in cell volume. The transpose of the inverse matrix is

$$R = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

This governs the corresponding reciprocal lattice transformation, so that we have the relationships

$$\begin{array}{ll} A = Ta & X = Rx \\ B = Rb & H = Th \end{array}$$

where  $a, b, x$ , and  $h$  are the real axes, reciprocal axes, real space co-ordinates and reciprocal space co-ordinates respectively for the superlattice, and their upper case equivalents the corresponding sublattice quantities.

Further, the layers  $hk0$ ,  $hkl$  and  $hk2$  (although the latter two were not used for intensity measurements) showed a further pattern of intense spots, as well as the rule described above. These correspond to

$$-H+K+L = 3n$$

where  $HKL$  are the indices in terms of the small cell.

This implies that within the subcell there is an approximate rhombohedral centering, that is, there are equivalent atoms at the points  $(0,0,0)$ ,  $(2/3,1/3,1/3)$  and  $(1/3,2/3,2/3)$  in terms of the subcell. Applying

$$x = R^{-1}X$$

these become  $(0,0,0)$ ,  $(1/3,0,1/3)$  and  $(2/3,0,2/3)$ .

Taken together with the translations corresponding to the subcell, we have the nine approximately equivalent positions

$$\begin{array}{lll} (0, 0, 0) & (1/3, 0, 1/3) & (2/3, 0, 2/3) \\ (2/3, 1/3, 0) & (0, 1/3, 1/3) & (1/3, 1/3, 2/3) \\ (1/3, 2/3, 0) & (2/3, 1/3, 1/3) & (0, 2/3, 2/3) \end{array}$$

We can refine this approach still further, by attempting to solve the Patterson function within the small cell. This approach is justified in the following way. We assume that the superlattice involves a set of small displacements from an ideal sublattice structure. We then have, for an M-fold increase in the unit cell

$$F_{\underline{H}} = \sum_{j=1}^N \sum_{\ell=1}^M f_j e^{2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot (\underline{r}_j + \underline{\delta}_{j\ell} + \underline{\Delta}_{\ell})}$$

where  $\underline{r}_j$  is the average position in the ideal cell of atom j, and



$\underline{\delta}_{j\ell}$  is its displacement from this position in the subcell  $\ell$ , which we always assume small, and  $\underline{\Delta}_\ell$  is the vector from the origin to the origin of subcell  $\ell$ , that is, it is a sublattice translation. For sublattice reflections, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 F_{\underline{H}} &= \sum_{j=1}^N \sum_{\ell=1}^M f_j e^{2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot \underline{r}_j} e^{2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot \underline{\delta}_{j\ell}} \\
 &= \sum_{j=1}^N \sum_{\ell=1}^M f_j e^{2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot \underline{r}_j} (1 + 2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot \underline{\delta}_{j\ell} - \frac{4\pi^2}{2!} (\underline{H} \cdot \underline{\delta}_{j\ell})^2 \dots) \\
 &\approx \sum_{j=1}^N \sum_{\ell=1}^M f_j e^{2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot \underline{r}_j} (1 - 2\pi^2 (\underline{H} \cdot \underline{\delta}_{j\ell})^2) \quad (\text{II-9})
 \end{aligned}$$

This implies that using the sublattice reflections, we can construct a Patterson function which we can attempt to solve for the ideal structure, since this approximates, especially for small  $\underline{H}$

$$M \sum_{j=1}^N f_j e^{2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot \underline{r}_j}$$

To illustrate what sort of approximation this is, I shall introduce a special case, where only a doubling of the unit cell is involved. Then  $\underline{\delta}_j = \underline{\delta}_{j1} = -\underline{\delta}_{j2}$  and

$$F_{\underline{H}} = 2 \sum_{j=1}^N f_j e^{2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot \underline{r}_j} \cos 2\pi (\underline{H} \cdot \underline{\delta}_j)$$

For the superlattice reflections, we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 \underline{F}_{\underline{H}} &= \sum_{j=1}^N \sum_{\ell=1}^M f_j e^{2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot (\underline{r}_j + \underline{\Delta}_{\ell})} (1 + 2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot \underline{\delta}_{j\ell} - \frac{4\pi^2}{2!} (\underline{H} \cdot \underline{\delta}_{j\ell})^2 \dots) \\
 &= \sum_{j=1}^N \sum_{\ell=1}^M f_j e^{2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot (\underline{r}_j + \underline{\Delta}_{\ell})} (2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot \underline{\delta}_{j\ell} - \frac{4\pi^2}{2!} (\underline{H} \cdot \underline{\delta}_{j\ell})^2 \dots) \\
 &\approx \sum_{j=1}^N \sum_{\ell=1}^M 2\pi i (\underline{H} \cdot \underline{\delta}_{j\ell}) f_j e^{2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot (\underline{r}_j + \underline{\Delta}_{\ell})} \quad (\text{II-10})
 \end{aligned}$$

For the special case above

$$\begin{aligned}
 \underline{F}_{\underline{H}} &= \sum_{j=1}^N f_j e^{2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot \underline{r}_j} \{ e^{2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot \underline{\epsilon}_j} - e^{-2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot \underline{\delta}_j} \} \\
 &= \sum_{j=1}^N 2i f_j e^{2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot \underline{r}_j} \sin 2\pi (\underline{H} \cdot \underline{\delta}_j)
 \end{aligned}$$

Now, if we construct a Patterson using only the superlattice reflections we get

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(\underline{u}) &= \frac{1}{V} \sum_{\underline{H}} \underline{F}_{\underline{H}} \underline{F}_{\underline{H}}^* e^{-2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot \underline{u}} \\
 &= \frac{1}{V} \sum_{\underline{H}} \sum_{j=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{\ell=1}^M \sum_{m=1}^M 4\pi^2 (\underline{H} \cdot \underline{\delta}_{j\ell}) (\underline{H} \cdot \underline{\delta}_{km}) f_j f_k e^{2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot (\underline{r}_k + \underline{\Delta}_m - \underline{r}_j - \underline{\Delta}_{\ell})} \\
 &\quad e^{-2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot \underline{u}} \quad (\text{II-11})
 \end{aligned}$$

which can be interpreted as a function with features at the points  $\underline{r}_k - \underline{r}_j + \underline{\Delta}_m - \underline{\Delta}_{\ell}$ , ( $\underline{\Delta}_m - \underline{\Delta}_{\ell}$  being a subcell translation) whose

magnitudes are proportional to  $(\overline{H \cdot f_{j \cdot j e}})(\overline{H \cdot f_{k \cdot km}})$  where the bar represents an average over  $H$ . The features on the normal Patterson at these points are of magnitude  $f_j f_k$ , so we can now find the value of  $(\overline{H \cdot f_{j \cdot j e}})(\overline{H \cdot f_{k \cdot km}})$ . This gives us the sign of the displacements of atoms  $j e$  and  $k m$  relative to each other, from which we may hope to solve the superlattice structure. By the way, the height of the origin peak here will be

$$\frac{1}{V} \sum_j \sum_e 4\pi^2 (\overline{H \cdot f_{j \cdot j e}})^2$$

that is, proportional to the weighted mean square displacement of all the atoms from the average structure.

The interpretation of the Patterson function for structures involving superlattices, using the two sets of reflections independently, has been suggested by Buerger (1959). His analysis, however, is unsuitable for the present case, since it is in terms of a 'complement structure' which consists of electron density added to the substructure. Mackay (1953) was the first to discuss superstructures in terms of displacements from an average structure; he found that the ratio between the average intensities of the two classes of reflections is given, for equal atoms,

$$R = 4\pi^2 (\overline{H \cdot \delta_j})^2 (*)$$

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(\*) A more accurate result is  $4\pi^2 (\overline{H \cdot \delta_j})^2 / [1 - 4\pi^2 (\overline{H \cdot \delta_j})^2]$

or assuming random displacements

$$R = 2\pi^2 d^*{}^2 \delta^2 \quad (\text{II-12})$$

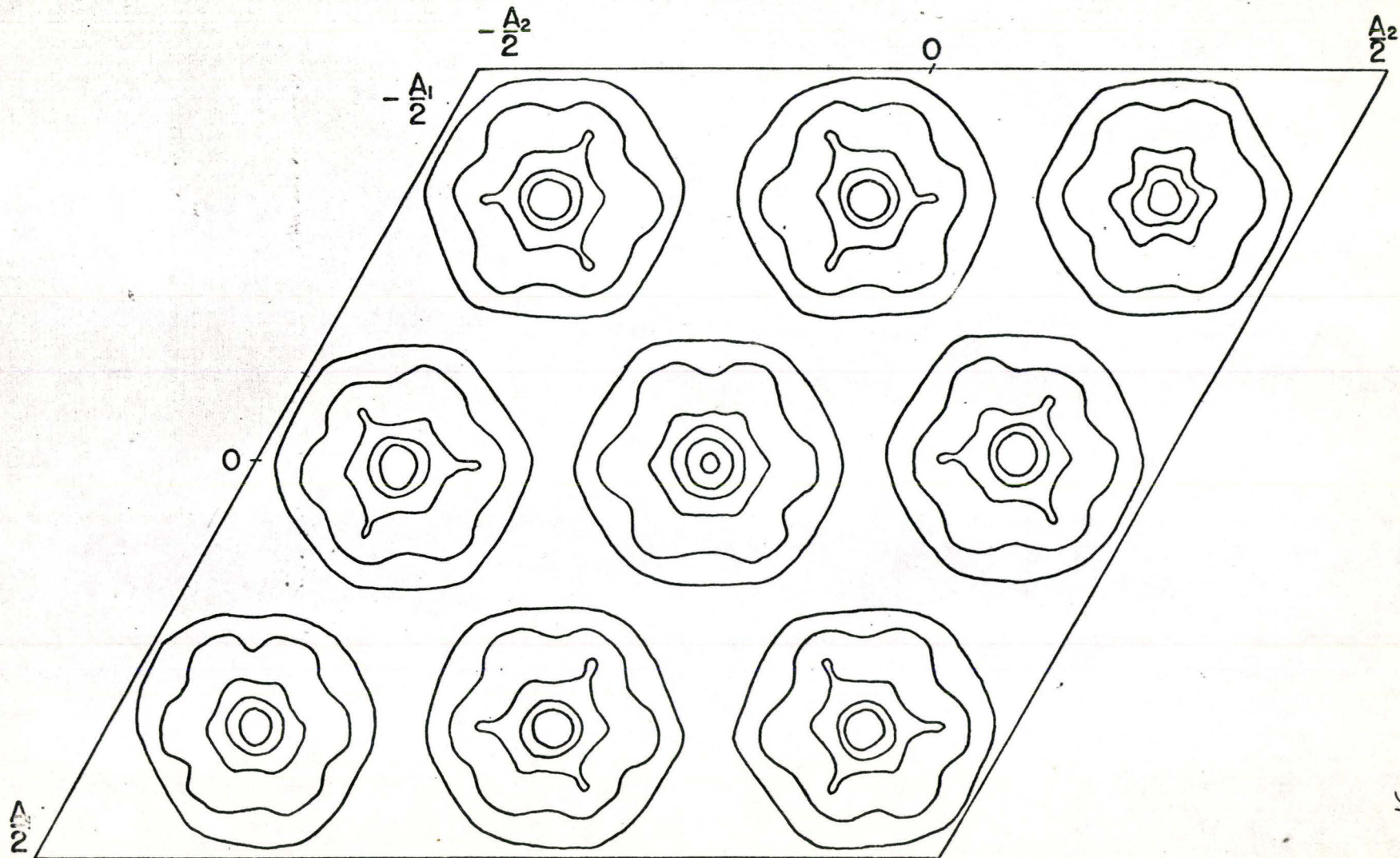
where  $\delta$  is the root mean square displacement,  $d^*$  the magnitude of the reciprocal lattice vector  $\underline{H}$ . This is equivalent to the result above for the height of the origin peak. This analysis allowed Mackay to calculate the magnitude of the displacements involved in the structure of  $\text{Ca}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2$ , where  $M$  is 2.

The 'M=2' problem was carried further by Sakurai (1958), who introduced what he called the  $P_{\text{odd}}$  and  $P_{\text{even}}$  functions, which are the partial Patterson functions described above. The interpretation of these functions by Sakurai (1965) for the triclinic modification of quinhydrone ( $\text{C}_6\text{H}_4(\text{OH})_2, \text{C}_6\text{H}_4\text{O}_2$ ) is close to that above, although more qualitative.

The extension of the structure factor expressions and application of the subcell Patterson function to the 'M=3' case has been discussed by Stephens (1967).

The  $hk0$  and  $hh\ell$  Patterson projections and the  $h0\ell$  partial ( $h=0 \bmod 3$  and  $h \neq 0 \bmod 3$ ) Patterson projections were constructed using the room temperature data. These calculations were performed, as were all subsequent Fourier series, using the FORTRAN language computer program MACFOU, written by the author. This program follows several of the suggestions of Rollett (1964) as to a versatile

Figure II-2.



The Patterson function of selenourea projected on (001).

basic Fourier program. These are the use of the Beevers and Lipson (1934) product form of the series and table look-up of trigonometric functions, variable grid sizes up to 1/120 of the unit cell edge, the possible choice of slant plane projections and sections, and applicability to all symmetries. This last requirement is satisfied by the generation of symmetry related reflections, together with their phase, according to the Waser (1955) formula,

$$F(\underline{RH}) = e^{-2\pi i \underline{H} \cdot \underline{t}} F(\underline{H}) \quad (\text{II-13})$$

for a space group element consisting of a point operation R and a translational component  $\underline{t}$ .

The solution of the hk0 Patterson (Figure II-2) is particularly simple in retrospect, although initial attempts to conform to the model suggested by Kondrashev and Andreeva caused difficulties in determining the positions of the nine selenium atoms within the channels. In fact this projection contains nine almost identical regions, each the vector map of an equilateral triangle, with no other major features. This can be interpreted as nine such triangular groups of selenium atoms, equally spaced in this projection. For steric reasons each member of the group of three must be near to  $c/3$  away from the others; this together with the pseudo-symmetry mentioned above yields approximate

$$\frac{A_1 + A_2}{2}$$

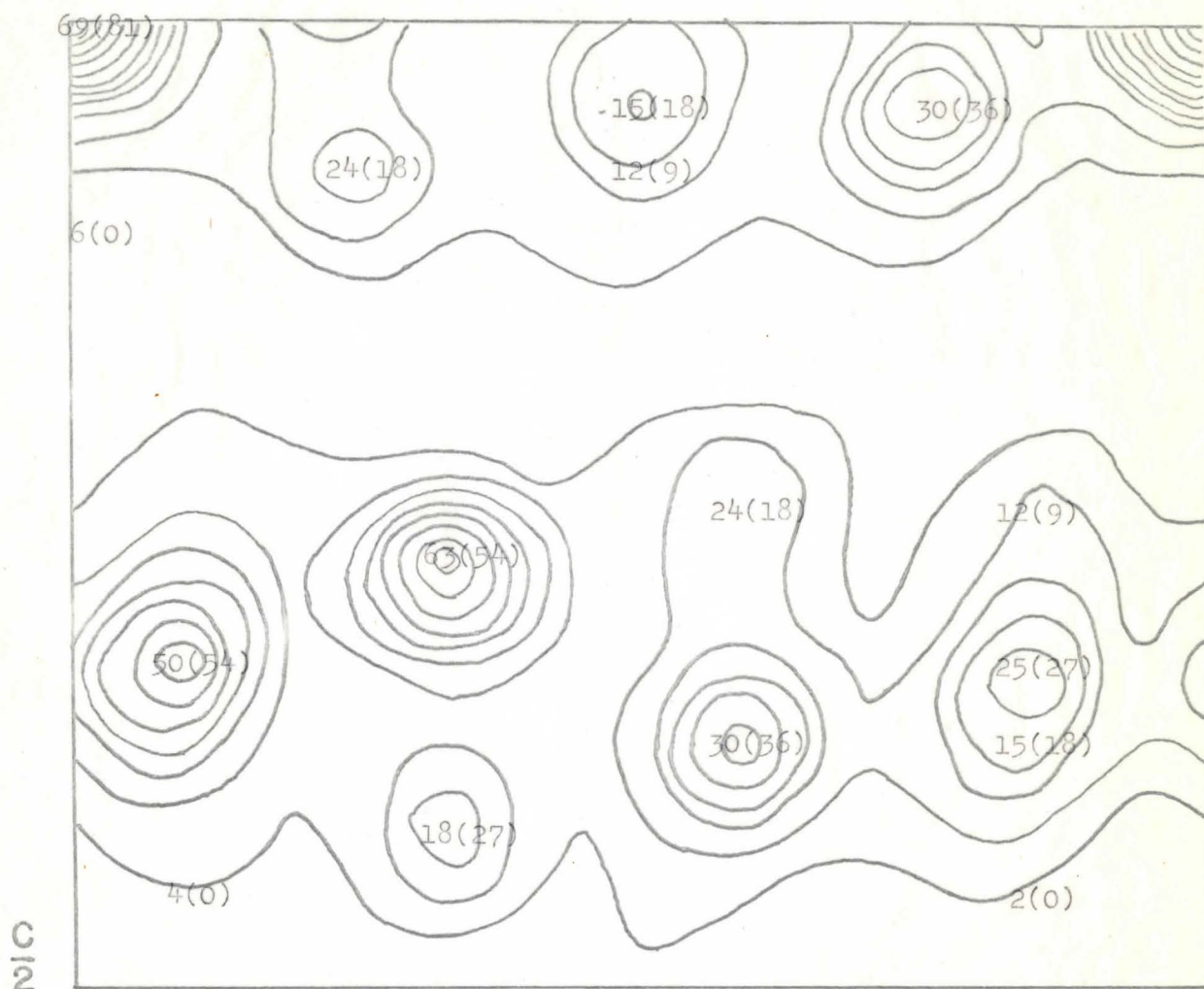


Figure II-3. The Patterson function of selenourea projected on  $(\bar{1}10)$ . The number of Se-Se vectors contributing to each peak are illustrated. In parentheses are the corresponding values based on the assumed tripled structure.

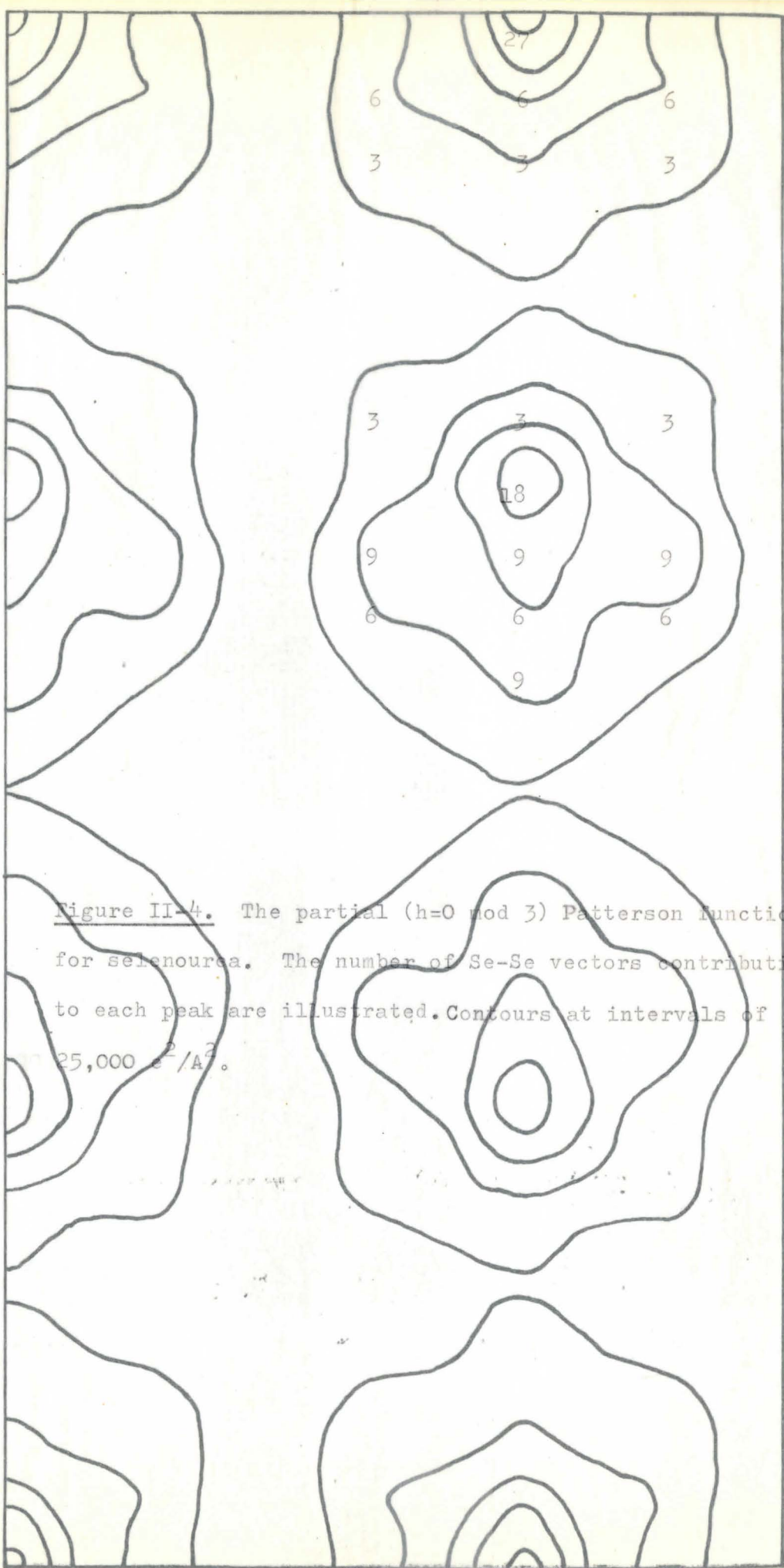


Figure II-4. The partial ( $h=0 \text{ mod } 3$ ) Patterson function for selenourca. The number of Se-Se vectors contributing to each peak are illustrated. Contours at intervals of 25,000 e<sup>2</sup>/Å<sup>2</sup>.



positions for all selenium atoms. The deviations from this rhombohedral model of the structure were subsequently found to be nowhere greater than one Ångstrom, and their nature was a major problem in the structure determination.

The next stage was the solution, within the subcell, of the  $hh\bar{2}$  (equivalent to HOL, Figure II-3) and partial  $h0\bar{2}$  ( $h=0 \pmod 3$ , HHL, Figure II-4) Patterson projections. Compatible solutions for these were found assuming a near rhombohedral cell containing nine selenium atoms, and the origin for this structure was chosen so that the two-fold axis it contained passed through that origin. The structure then belonged to the space group  $P\bar{3}_112$  (full cell,  $P\bar{3}_121$  sub cell), and for some time refinement was carried out on this basis.

Structure factors were calculated for the room temperature data with  $-h+k=0 \pmod 3$ . The scattering factors used throughout were taken from International Tables for X-ray Crystallography, and were those of Freeman and Watson (1961) for selenium and Hoerni and Ibers (1951) for carbon and nitrogen. The calculated structure factors,  $|F_c| e^{i\phi_c}$ , used to compute the corresponding electron density and difference electron density

$$D(\underline{r}) = \sum_{\underline{H}} (|F_o| - |F_c|) e^{i(\phi_c - 2\pi \underline{H} \cdot \underline{r})} \quad (\text{II-14})$$

syntheses. The carbon and nitrogen atoms were assigned positions

based on peaks found on these maps. Least squares refinement of the positional parameters of this model, using the program MACLS written by J.S. Stephens, gave an unweighted R factor of about 0.2. The structure deduced at this stage contained spiral chains of selenourea molecules similar to those in the urea and thiourea hydrocarbon adducts.

The displacements giving rise to the true structure were determined in the following manner. The partial  $h0\ell$  Patterson ( $h \neq 0 \pmod 3$ , Figure II-5) was examined and the prominent pattern of peaks on it were interpreted as arising from chains displaced as units (the within chain vectors are positive peaks) from their average positions, and in opposite directions to their subcell related chains (since the vectors between such chains correspond to minima). One subcell chain type only can be involved, since vectors between different chain types do not fall on features of this map. The vectors involved are illustrated in Figure II-5.

The particular chain involved and the extent of its displacement was found by scrutiny of the  $xxz$  electron density projection at this stage. The magnitudes of the electron density for the three independent selenium atoms on this map were 116, 100 and 100 electrons per square Angstrom, where the latter two were related by the assumed 2-fold axis. A further pair of unexplained peaks of magnitude  $19 \text{ e}/\text{\AA}^2$  were found at a distance of  $1.8\text{\AA}$  from the  $100 \text{ e}/\text{\AA}^2$  peaks. When one chain was displaced the indicated

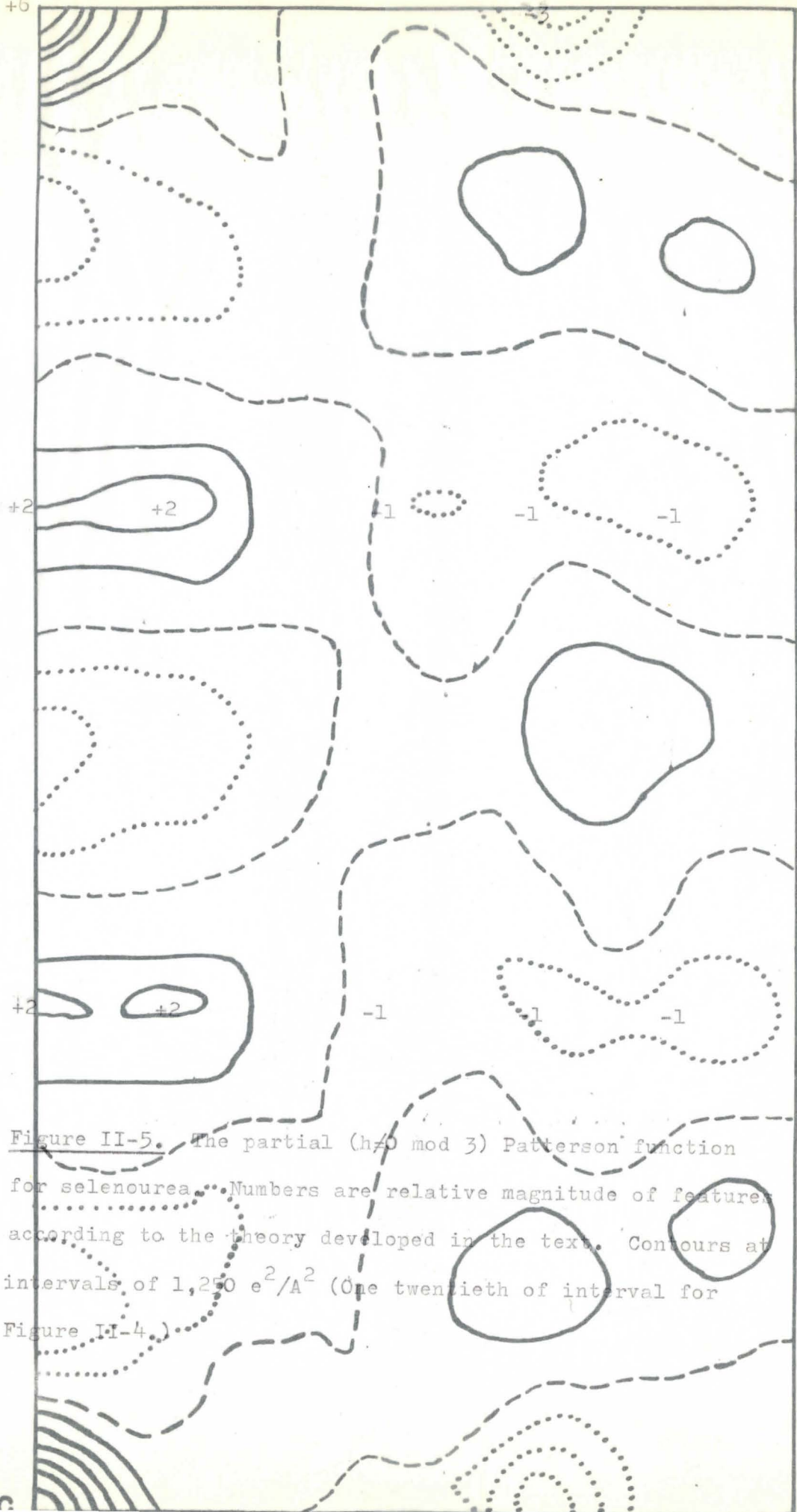


Figure II-5. The partial ( $h \neq 0 \text{ mod } 3$ ) Patterson function for selenourea. Numbers are relative magnitude of features according to the theory developed in the text. Contours at intervals of  $1,250 e^2/A^2$  (One twentieth of interval for Figure II-4.)

distance (the choice was dictated by the indexing of the other projections) the R factor of the  $hh\bar{e}$  projection was immediately reduced from 0.22 to 0.18.

Figure II-6 shows the relationship between the assumed  $P3_112$  structure and the true structure. The small cell on the lower left illustrates the symmetry elements of the space group  $P3_121$ , that on the upper right the one three-fold axis of the three retained in the true structure, which is not the one at the small cell origin. The choice of large cell therefore requires the change of origin illustrated in the figure, to  $(2/3, 1/3)$  in the small cell co-ordinates. The choice of the symmetry related point  $(1/3, 2/3)$  as origin leads to the twin structure mentioned above.

#### Refinement.

The model described in the previous section was refined by least squares, using all the room temperature data and an overall temperature factor, to  $R=0.12$ . The data was then merged, that is, structure factors common to different layers were averaged, to form a set of only independent structure factors, using the layer scale constants determined by least squares. The individual measurements were weighted in these averages according to their previously assigned standard deviations, and the average values ascribed standard deviations accordingly. Even at this advanced stage of

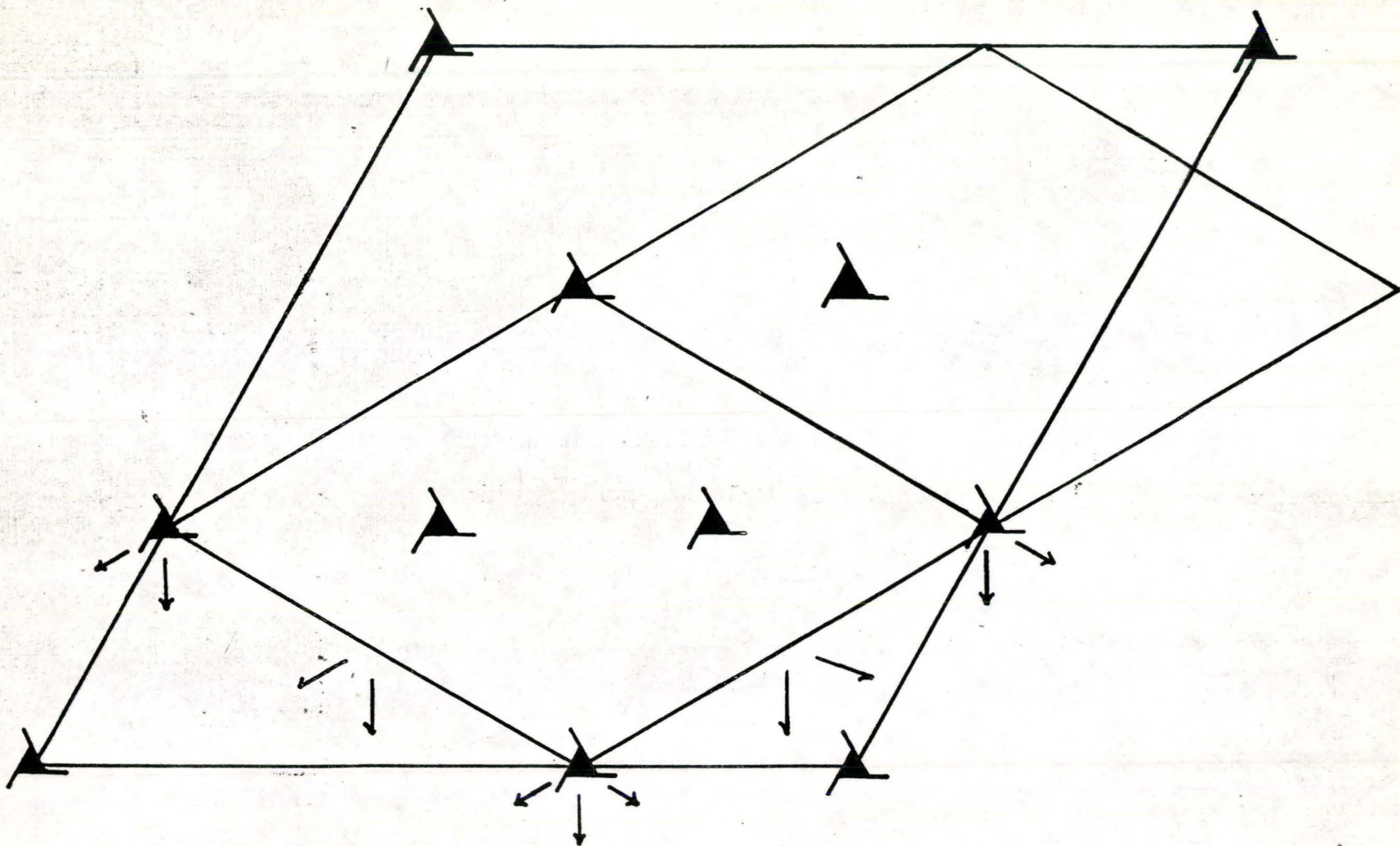


Figure II-6.

Relationship in position and symmetry between true unit cell and pseudosymmetric subcell.

refinement, the standard deviations in light atom co-ordinates were still about  $0.1\text{\AA}$ , and there appeared little hope of gaining worthwhile chemical information.

Some likely reasons for these difficulties have been discussed by Scheringer (1965). Three of the reasons he suggests for ill-conditioned least squares problems are applicable here. Foremost of course, is the smallness of the data set, consisting of 781 reflections, corresponding to projection data only. However, many crystal structures have been solved adequately with only projection data, which suggests other factors are operative. The possibility is always open to us to extend the data set, and this is exactly what we chose to do in the case of the low temperature work.

Unfortunately the other two effects are intrinsic to the selenourea structure analysis. One is the presence of atoms of widely differing scattering power; this is a more serious problem, and in earlier times would have been considered unsurmountable. But yet a third difficulty exists, that is, high correlations between parameters related by the elements of pseudo-symmetry outlined above. In this respect the structure of selenourea is very similar to that of guanidinium aluminum sulphate hexahydrate ( $\text{C}(\text{NH}_2)_3\text{Al}(\text{SO}_4)_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , commonly called GASH) which was chosen by Scheringer as an example of this effect. GASH, a ferroelectric crystal, belongs to the polar trigonal space group  $P31m$ , with cell

constants  $a = 11.75\text{\AA}$ ,  $c = 8.94\text{\AA}$  (Geller and Booth, 1959). This cell contains three formula units, and is almost triply primitive, the subcell to supercell transformation being the same as for selenourea. The difficulties encountered in the refinement were discussed in detail by Geller and Katz (1962), and only prolonged least squares reiteration, using only fractional parameter changes, gave a satisfactory structure (Lingafelter, Orioli, Schein and Stewart, 1966). A similar cautious empirical approach has been followed in the case of selenourea.

In the light of these circumstances, it was clearly advantageous to divert attention to the low temperature data. This in turn was refined by least squares, using the room temperature co-ordinates as a starting point, and individual layer scale constants. The final individual layer R factors are listed in Table II-2. The data was then merged as described for the room temperature data, but now reflections occurred up to five times, for, in hexagonal axes, such a set as the following are equivalent.

102	$h0\bar{2}$
102	$hk2$
$01\bar{2}$	$h,h+1,\bar{2}$
$01\bar{2}$	$h1\bar{2}$
$\bar{1}12$	$h,h+2,\bar{2}$

The selenium scattering curve was now corrected for the real part of the anomalous scattering for  $\text{CuK}\alpha$  radiation. Although no attempt was made to discriminate between  $hk\bar{l}$  and  $\overline{hk}l$  reflections

in the data collection, the methods used ensured a similar number of each type, and therefore a systematic error in selenium z coordinate appreciably less than the possible value of  $0.02\text{\AA}$  suggested by Cruickshank and McDonald (1967). The final cycles were carried out using anisotropic temperature factors on the selenium atoms, and with the carbon parameters fixed. This was done because high correlations with other parameters caused large shifts to be calculated for several of these atoms, which would have produced chemically unlikely atomic configurations. The detailed carbon positions were chosen on the basis of chemical considerations, although their approximate positions can be derived from electron density maps. This process was continued until a minimum weighted R factor of 0.146 was obtained. The corresponding atomic parameters (with errors derived from least squares) and structure factors are listed in Table II-3 and Table II-4 respectively.

Although the majority of the room temperature light atom co-ordinates were identical, within the errors, to their low temperature equivalents, several had to be adjusted in the light of the low temperature refinement. This was done, the light atom positions were fixed, and a subsequent two further cycles of refinement brought the weighted R factor for this data to 0.116. The final parameters can be found in Table II-5 and the corresponding structure factors in Table II-6.

The final co-ordinates mentioned above were used to compute interatomic distances and angles, using the program ERROR written



TABLE II-3.

Final atomic parameters at  $+100^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

<u>Atom</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u>x</u>	<u>y</u>	<u>z</u>	<u>B</u>
Se	1	0.9318(5)	0.9654(5)	0.4280	
	2	0.6054(5)	0.2893(6)	0.5708(6)	
	3	0.2625(6)	0.6397(6)	0.5537(6)	
	6	0.6041(6)	0.6325(6)	0.8598(7)	
	4	0.2898(6)	0.9740(6)	0.8646(7)	
	5	0.9351(6)	0.3060(6)	0.8564(7)	
	8	0.9417(7)	0.6444(6)	0.1384(8)	
	9	0.6132(6)	0.9727(6)	0.1512(7)	
	7	0.2622(6)	0.3000(6)	0.1489(7)	
C	1	0.072(6)	0.038(6)	0.426(6)	2.0
	2	0.742(6)	0.387(6)	0.577(6)	2.0
	3	0.402(6)	0.671(6)	0.540(6)	2.0
	4	0.428(6)	0.056(6)	0.855(6)	2.0
	5	0.076(6)	0.346(6)	0.852(6)	2.0
	6	0.730(6)	0.645(6)	0.851(6)	2.0
	7	0.389(6)	0.414(6)	0.152(6)	2.0
	8	0.083(6)	0.727(6)	0.148(6)	2.0
	9	0.752(6)	0.036(6)	0.144(6)	2.0
N1	1	0.112(5)	0.079(5)	0.335(4)	3.3(14)
	2	0.795(4)	0.425(4)	0.488(4)	1.6(11)
	3	0.454(4)	0.705(4)	0.443(4)	1.9(11)
	4	0.480(3)	0.103(3)	0.769(3)	0.0(7)
	5	0.123(5)	0.363(5)	0.753(4)	3.4(14)
	6	0.782(4)	0.676(4)	0.762(4)	1.8(11)
	7	0.437(3)	0.480(3)	0.075(3)	0.2(8)
	8	0.134(4)	0.793(4)	0.068(3)	0.9(9)
	9	0.806(3)	0.089(3)	0.060(3)	0.5(8)
N2	1	0.122(4)	0.041(4)	0.512(3)	0.9(9)
	2	0.810(5)	0.416(5)	0.656(4)	4.1(15)
	3	0.437(3)	0.654(3)	0.631(3)	0.6(8)
	4	0.478(5)	0.063(5)	0.947(4)	4.7(16)
	5	0.126(4)	0.357(4)	0.941(4)	2.0(11)
	6	0.779(4)	0.630(4)	0.923(3)	1.6(11)
	7	0.446(4)	0.442(4)	0.239(3)	1.1(10)
	8	0.132(4)	0.720(4)	0.233(4)	2.5(12)
	9	0.799(4)	0.032(4)	0.231(3)	1.9(11)

(Continued overleaf)

TABLE II-3Final atomic parameters at  $-100^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

(continued)

Anisotropic temperature factor components ( $\times 10^4$ ).

<u>Atom</u>	<u>Number</u>	<u><math>\beta_{11}</math></u>	<u><math>\beta_{22}</math></u>	<u><math>\beta_{33}</math></u>	<u><math>\beta_{12}</math></u>	<u><math>\beta_{13}</math></u>	<u><math>\beta_{23}</math></u>
Se	1	14(4)	26(4)	8(4)	13(4)	2(3)	-3(4)
	2	22(5)	14(5)	29(4)	0(5)	-12(4)	-10(4)
	3	17(5)	40(5)	35(4)	14(5)	-6(5)	-17(5)
	4	13(4)	23(4)	29(4)	13(4)	5(4)	9(4)
	5	4(5)	20(5)	29(5)	4(5)	-9(5)	-10(5)
	6	11(5)	29(5)	42(4)	11(5)	10(5)	-1(5)
	7	15(4)	40(4)	43(4)	11(4)	-3(4)	-5(4)
	8	18(6)	27(5)	17(6)	6(5)	-3(6)	1(5)
	9	9(5)	20(5)	17(4)	6(5)	1(5)	1(4)











TABLE II-5.

Final atomic parameters at 20°C.

Atom Number	x	y	z	Atom Number	x	y	z		
Se	1	0.933(2)	0.968(2)	0.428	N1	1	0.11	0.08	0.33
	2	0.604(2)	0.292(2)	0.569(2)		2	0.80	0.43	0.49
	3	0.264(2)	0.638(2)	0.559(2)		3	0.45	0.71	0.45
	4	0.283(2)	0.974(2)	0.862(2)		4	0.48	0.10	0.77
	5	0.941(2)	0.307(2)	0.857(2)		5	0.12	0.36	0.76
	6	0.606(2)	0.636(2)	0.857(2)		6	0.78	0.68	0.76
	7	0.269(2)	0.306(2)	0.148(2)		7	0.43	0.48	0.07
	8	0.940(2)	0.643(2)	0.140(2)		8	0.13	0.79	0.08
	9	0.610(2)	0.973(2)	0.146(2)		9	0.80	0.08	0.06
C	1	0.07	0.04	0.43	N2	1	0.12	0.04	0.51
	2	0.74	0.39	0.57		2	0.80	0.41	0.66
	3	0.40	0.67	0.55		3	0.44	0.65	0.63
	4	0.43	0.06	0.86		4	0.48	0.06	0.94
	5	0.08	0.35	0.85		5	0.13	0.35	0.94
	6	0.73	0.65	0.85		6	0.78	0.63	0.92
	7	0.39	0.41	0.15		7	0.44	0.44	0.24
	8	0.08	0.73	0.15		8	0.13	0.72	0.24
	9	0.75	0.04	0.15		9	0.80	0.03	0.23

Overall temperature factor = 4.6(1)







by J. S. Stephens. The effects of correlations were ignored, save for those resulting from the trigonal symmetry, and to the choice of origin (the z co-ordinate of Se 1 was fixed throughout both refinements at 0.428, which centred the layer at about 0.5). The resulting bond lengths and angles will be presented and considered in detail in the Discussion.

### Ferroelectricity.

Although the crystal structure found for selenourea is totally unrelated to that of thiourea, we chose to examine selenourea for the presence of ferroelectricity. A crystal belonging to the point group  $C_3$  must necessarily have its dipole moment parallel to  $\underline{c}$ . If the structure of such a crystal is close to an equivalent structure with this dipole moment reversed, so that small atomic displacements might take one into the other, we have the possibility of ferroelectricity, the ferroelectric axis being  $\underline{c}$ . This situation exists in the selenourea structure, if we choose to call displacements of  $1.8\text{\AA}$  small. The relationship between these equivalent structures is exactly that between the twins already remarked as existing in large selenourea crystals; their nature will be described more fully in the Discussion.

Since we have determined the atomic arrangement within the selenourea crystal, we are in a position to estimate the spontaneous polarisation,  $P_s$ , for selenourea. This estimate, however, cannot

be highly precise, because the contribution of any one molecule to the total dipole moment is very small (and is not always of the same sign), the Se-C axis being always nearly perpendicular to c. If we use the low temperature atomic co-ordinates and assume a dipole moment of about 5 Debyes for selenourea (the dipole moments of urea and thiourea are 4.56D and 4.89D respectively, Kumler and Fohlen, 1942), we obtain a value for  $P_s$  of 1300 e.s.u. ( $4 \times 10^{-7}$  coulombs/cm<sup>2</sup>), with +c as the negative pole. Although this is an order of magnitude less than for thiourea it still represents a readily measurable polarisation. The observed pyroelectric and piezoelectric effects (Kondrashev and Andreeva, 1963) and the tendency of the crystals to collect and retain surface dust lend credence to the suggestion that the dipole moment is not vanishingly small, which it could well be within the errors of the structure determination.

To examine the possibility of ferroelectricity, several large crystals of selenourea were ground so as to produce smooth faces, perpendicular to c and about 0.3 cm. apart. These crystals were of uniform cross-section of about 0.1 cm<sup>2</sup>. Silver paste electrodes were applied to the ground surfaces.

The apparatus used for the ferroelectricity measurements follows the design of Diamant, Drenck and Pepinsky (1957). The proper operation of this bridge was checked with samples of triglycine sulphate, a known ferroelectric, prepared in the same

way as above. The behaviour of selenourea was then examined from room temperature to  $-130^{\circ}\text{C}$ , by the simple expedient of suspending the sample within the low temperature Weissenberg camera. No sign of ferroelectricity was detected at any temperature within this range.

### CHAPTER III.

#### DISCUSSION.

##### Space group and lattice parameters.

I shall begin by remarking upon one curious feature of selenourea, namely the point group,  $C_3$ . According to Buerger (1956) no organic representative of this point group is known. Although a few examples do in fact exist ( $\alpha$ -L(+)-menthol, Ramsay and Rogers, 1952;  $\delta$ -glycine, Iitaka, 1958), this crystal symmetry is certainly a rare one.

The lattice parameters found for selenourea are here compared to the previously reported values.

<u>a(Å)</u>	<u>c(Å)</u>	<u>c/a</u>	<u>Reference.</u>
15.285(5)	13.007(5)	0.8510(4)	20°C
15.201(5)	12.950(5)	0.8517(4)	-100°C
15.37(7)	13.08(5)	0.851	Kondrashev & Andreeva.
15.34(2)	12.99(2)	0.847	Perez Rodriguez et al.

The results of Perez Rodriguez et al., which they claim

to be more precise, are probably more accurate than those of Kondrashev and Andreeva, since the former calibrated their films with the diffraction pattern of a copper wire, while the latter make no mention of a film shrinkage correction, and assign errors of a magnitude to be expected for this effect. Indeed the present work is in excellent agreement with Perez Rodriguez et al. as far as the  $c$  axis length is concerned. The results suggest that their  $a$  axis length may be slightly in error, in view of the agreement of our value of the axial ratio (which is independent of shrinkage correction) with the Russian work. Measurement of this ratio on an uncalibrated film (that used for the low temperature lattice parameters) gave the result  $c/a = 0.850_3$ , which agrees with the previous value within the errors of the determinations.

The discussion of the thermal expansion coefficients will be reserved until after the description of the structure.

#### Molecular structure of selenourea.

The fractional co-ordinates listed in Tables II-5 and II-6 do, in fact, correspond to nine distinct selenourea (V) molecules per asymmetric unit. The bond lengths and angles for each such molecule, derived from the low temperature refinement, are shown in Table III-1.

However, in general, these would not be the best estimates

TABLE III-1

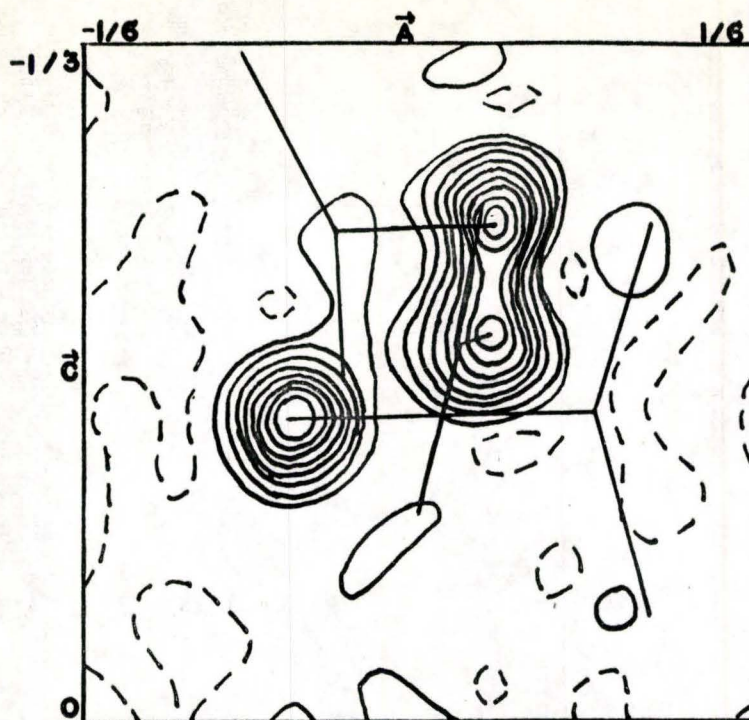
Dimensions of the individual selenourea molecules.

Molecule	Bond Lengths (Ångstroms)			Bond Lengths (degrees)		
	Se-C	C-N1	C-N2	Se-C-N1	Se-C-N2	N1-C-N2
1	1.85(8)	1.33(4)	1.34(7)	115(6)	118(6)	127(6)
2	1.86(7)	1.36(4)	1.36(7)	120(7)	131(8)	108(6)
3	1.94(9)	1.44(4)	1.37(6)	120(5)	111(5)	129(6)
4	1.83(8)	1.35(6)	1.39(4)	126(5)	113(6)	121(6)
5	1.91(7)	1.43(4)	1.38(4)	117(7)	119(6)	124(5)
6	1.83(7)	1.34(5)	1.28(6)	119(6)	128(7)	113(5)
7	1.84(11)	1.34(7)	1.35(7)	128(5)	121(6)	111(7)
8	1.87(11)	1.38(7)	1.36(7)	119(4)	119(5)	122(7)
9	1.83(11)	1.36(7)	1.35(7)	123(4)	115(5)	121(7)
Average	1.86		1.36		120	120

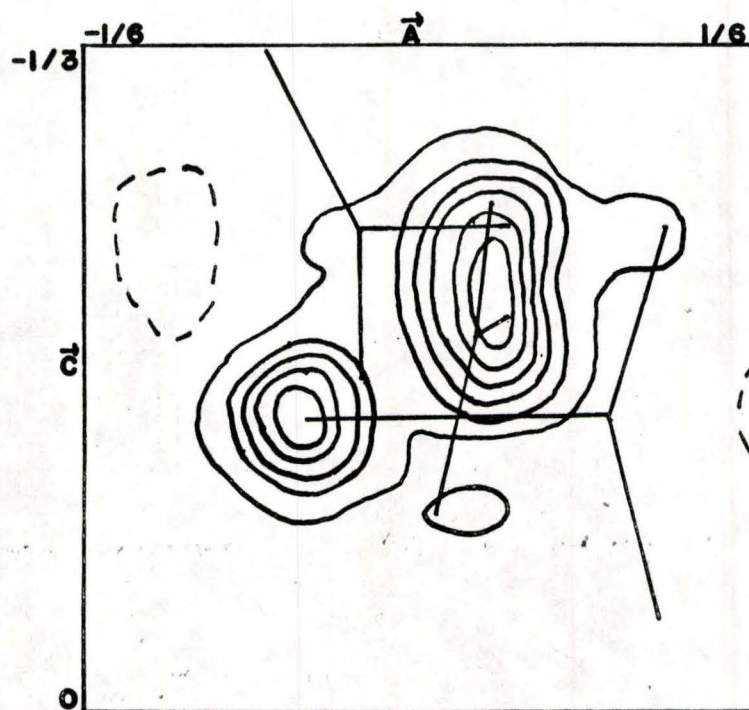


we could make of the molecular dimensions, since it is well known (see, for example, Grenville-Wells (1965)) that the main thermal motion of molecular compounds is libration about the centre of mass. Thermal motion has the effect of shortening the apparent bond length, but this can be corrected for (Busing and Levy, 1964) if the details of the motion are known. It is common practice in the particular case of rigid molecules (molecules without rotating groups) to ascribe as much of the motion as possible to translation and libration and correct for the latter (Cruickshank, 1956). In view of the reduction of this effect by use of low temperatures, and the high standard deviations both in the bond lengths themselves, and in the thermal parameters, this correction was not carried out, being insignificant and inaccurate.

The question now arises as to just how accurate an estimate of the molecular dimensions of selenourea can be made on the basis of this study. The improvement in resolution at low temperatures, discussed in the Introduction, is well illustrated by Figure III-1. Although this use of low temperatures and the three-dimensional data favour an accurate determination, the inherent inaccuracies of the intensity measuring technique, the problems in accurate refinement posed by pseudosymmetry and differences in scattering power as discussed in the Experimental, and the additional difficulties of lack of a centre of symmetry and the large number of parameters required to describe the structure, lead to standard



A.



B.

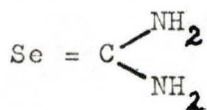
A portion of the electron density for selenourea projected on (010).

A. At  $-100^{\circ}\text{C}$ . B. At  $20^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

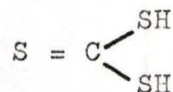
Contours at  $5e/\text{\AA}^2$ , zero contour broken.

deviations in individual bond lengths which compare unfavourably with the more careful of current work. On the other hand we have in the crystal structure of selenourea a unique situation, certainly as far as molecular crystals are concerned, namely the presence of nine crystallographically distinct molecules in the unit cell.

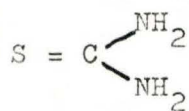
Kitaigorodskii (1961) notes that organic crystals containing crystallographically distinct molecules, although rare, are not unknown. However the majority of these contain only two distinct molecules, and, as far as I am aware, the previous record was held by trithiocarbonic acid (VI), (Krebs and Gattow, 1965) which contains 4 molecules in the asymmetric unit, 16 in the unit cell of space group  $P2_1/a$ .\* The structure was determined by use of low temperature ( $-100^\circ\text{C}$ ) projection data, and did in fact show that



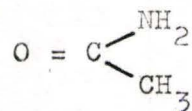
(V)



(VI)



(VII)



(VIII)

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\* 1:3:5-benzenetricarboxylic acid has 6 molecules per asymmetric unit, 48 per unit cell. D.J.Duchamp and R.E.Marsh (1965). Paper E8, A.C.A. Meeting, Gatlinburg, Tennessee.

the four molecules were essentially identical in structure. However Krebs and Gattow drew the dubious conclusion that the C-S single bonds were non-equivalent. This, and other studies of crystallographically distinct molecules, such as the low temperature structure of thiourea (VII) (Goldsmith and White, 1959) and the metastable orthorhombic modification of acetamide (VIII) (Hamilton, 1965), confirm the idea that the crystalline distortion of rigid molecules must be extremely small. Thus we can assume that an average molecular structure, based on all nine molecules, is a viable concept.

The structure, bond lengths and angles of this average molecule are displayed in Figure III-2. These are most conveniently compared with the low temperature structures of the analogues urea and thiourea, since in each case librational shortening of bond lengths is reduced. Goldsmith and White's values have been averaged over the two molecules. It is clear that the main difference is simply the increasing length of the C = X bond, and that the remainder of the molecule remains virtually identical throughout the series.

If we can now give support to the C = Se bond length quoted in Figure III-2, we can perhaps justify the choice of carbon positions used in the low temperature refinement. Figure III-3 shows suggested bond length bond order relationships for C-X bonds. If the single and double bond lengths are fitted by the Pauling

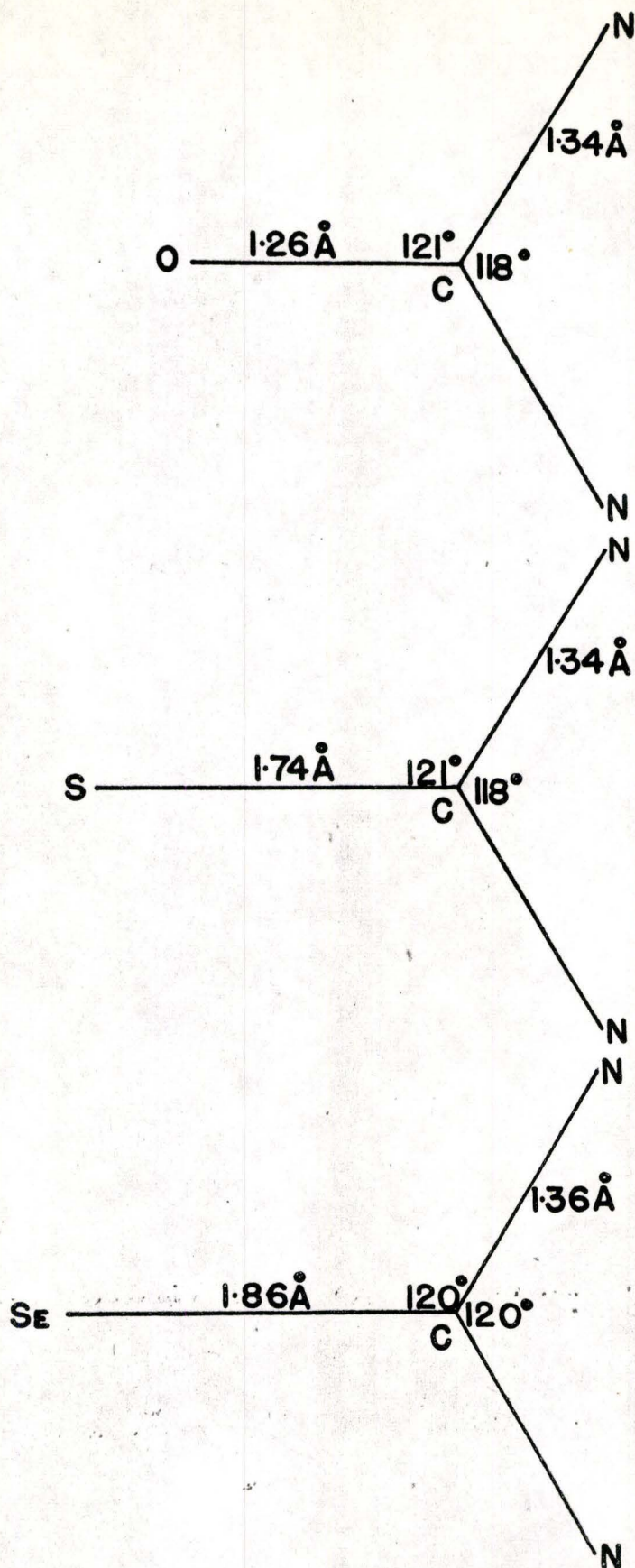


Figure III-2

Molecular geometries in the urea series.

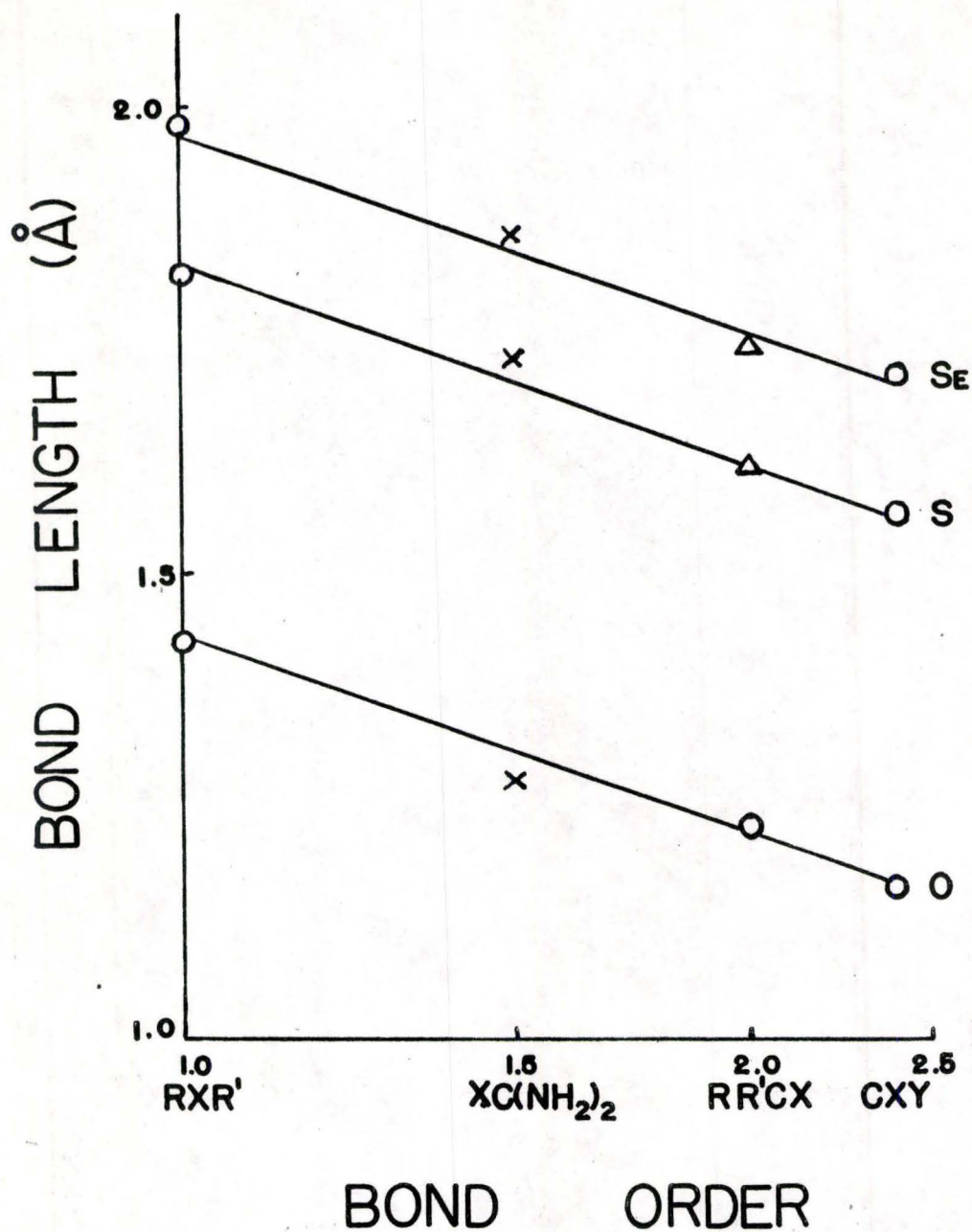


Figure III-3

Suggested bond order - bond length relationships for carbon - chalcogen bonds. (Semi-logarithmic plot).

x References of Figure III-2.

o Average values listed in Sutton (1959).

Δ Sum of covalent radii given in Pauling (1960).

(1960) expression

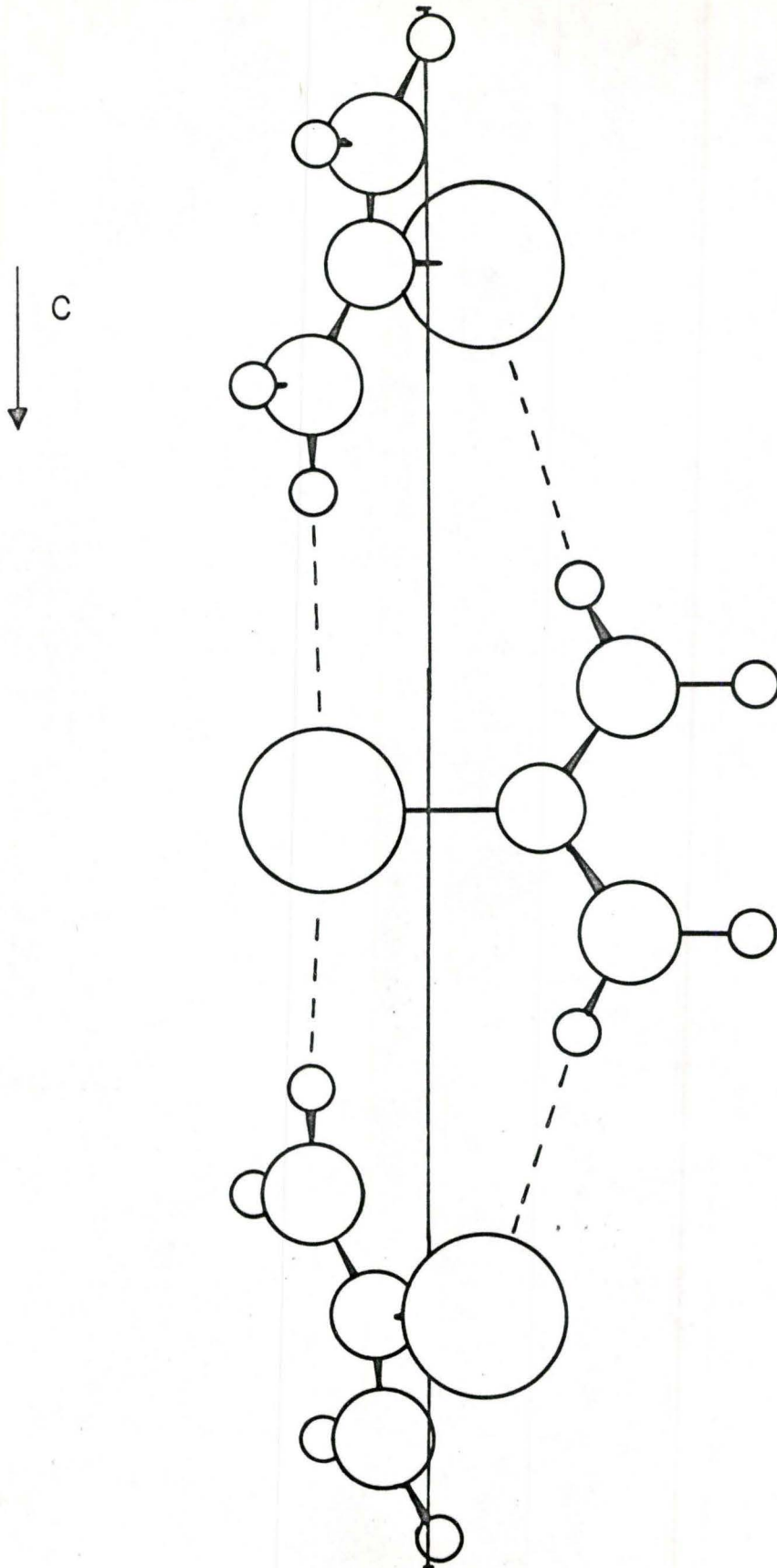
$$D(n) = D(1) - 0.71 \log n \quad (\text{III-1})$$

good agreement is found for CXY compounds assuming bond orders of 2.4. These graphs suggest C-X bond orders of about 1.5 throughout the urea series. The actual value is not so important as the support given to this determination by the identity of molecular structure found within the series. Unfortunately there seems to be no theoretical predictions of bond lengths in selenourea, and so we can only compare the experimental values to other members of the urea series, as done above, and to substituted selenoureas (Table I-2) with which the agreement is satisfactory.

#### Crystal structure of selenourea.

The unit cell of selenourea contains nine spiral chains. Each chain is essentially similar in form, since it contains three molecules and runs parallel to the c axis. A typical chain is shown in Figure III-4, which also illustrates the hydrogen bonding within the chain. Each molecule has one hydrogen atom directed towards the molecule above and similarly one towards the molecule below. In this respect they are similar to the spiral chains in the urea- and thiourea- hydrocarbon adducts discussed in the

A typical chain in the selenourea structure.





Introduction. The relationship between these structures will be discussed in a subsequent section.

The distribution of the molecules within the chains is described in Table III-2. The symbols A, B, C and D refer to the detailed relative  $z$  co-ordinate of the particular chain; they fall naturally into these four groups each with a fairly constant separation, in alphabetical order, of  $0.6\text{\AA}$ . That is, the difference between A and D which distinguishes one subcell from the other two is about  $1.8\text{\AA}$ . These displacements are required to remove selenium atoms on neighbouring chains to their van der Waals contact distance of about  $3.8\text{\AA}$ . These contacts can be seen in Figure III-5, which also clearly shows the nine distinct spiral chains. The selenium atoms in contact form an approximately equilateral triangle within the layer, as do, for example,  $\text{Se1}'$ ,  $\text{Se4}$  and  $\text{Se7}''$ . Three chains (those labelled A,  $D_1$  and  $D_2$  in Table III-2) spiral around the three distinct screw axes in the unit cell. The remaining six chains form two crystallographically equivalent sets, labelled B and C. Each of these chains contains three molecules unrelated by symmetry, yet each chain comes very close to containing the symmetry element  $3_1$ , as can be seen in Figure III-5. The great similarity of these chains of unrelated molecules is even better illustrated by Figure III-6, which shows the structure projected down  $[\bar{1}10]$ , in which case these chains come close to being superimposed. The A, B, C, D relationship can also be clearly seen in

TABLE III-2.

Distribution of molecules within  
chains in the selenourea structure.

<u>Chain</u>	<u>Molecules</u>
A	M1'' M1 M1'
B	M6' M5'' M4
C	M7 M8' M9''
D <sub>1</sub>	M2'' M2 M2'
D <sub>2</sub>	M3'' M3 M3'

The positions related by the elements of the space group  
P3<sub>1</sub> are denoted throughout as

X	x, y, z
X'	-y, x-y, z+1/3
X''	y-x, -x, z+2/3



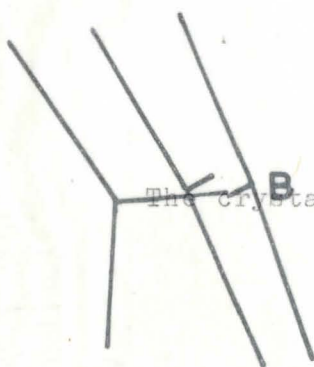
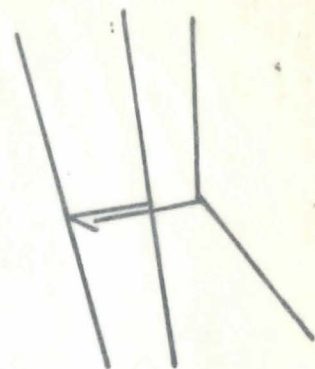
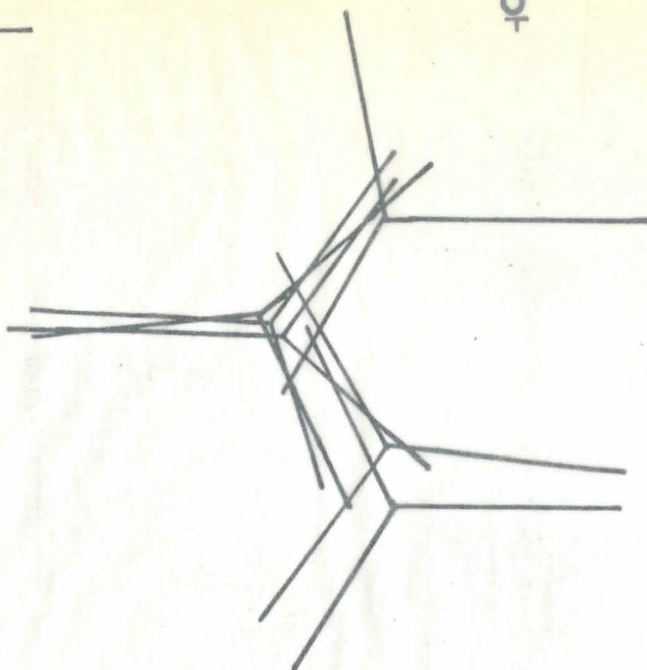
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A<sub>1</sub> + A<sub>2</sub>

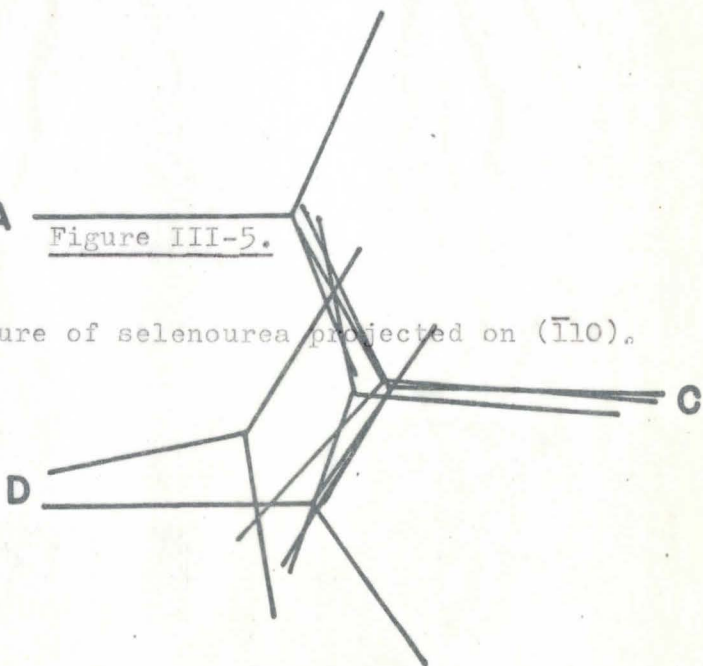
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76  
76

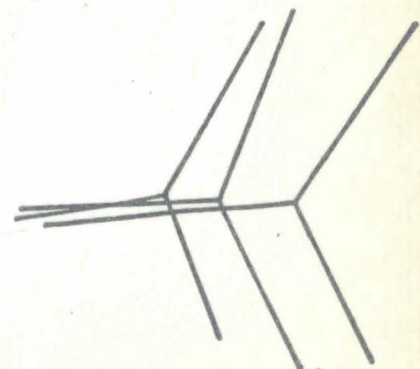
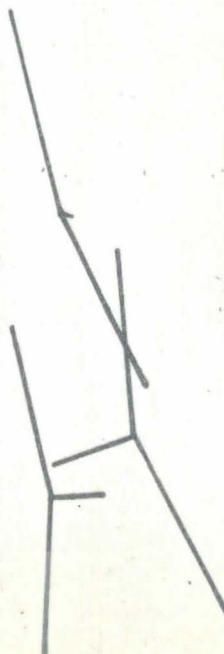
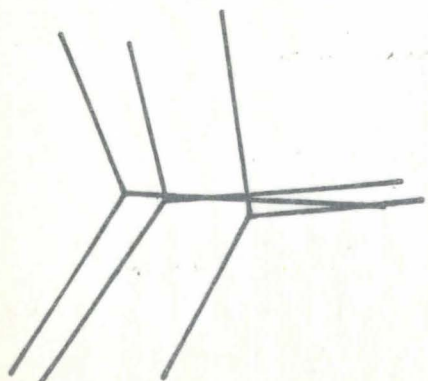


A Figure III-5.

The crystal structure of selenourea projected on (110).



D



C

this projection. As far as chains B and C are concerned the differences in z co-ordinate within the chain are only just significant. Distortions of similar magnitude seem to exist perpendicular to the chain direction, but these are difficult to estimate quantitatively, since the chain axes themselves are displaced from their ideal positions. This is the result of slight relaxations of the structure to permit more efficient packing. The chain  $D_1$  and its environment are rotated slightly counter-clockwise, while the chain  $D_2$  and the molecules surrounding it are rotated clockwise. This results in a slight lateral displacement of chains B and C.

Since each selenourea molecule has a remarkably similar orientation with respect to its chain axis, the existence of the hydrogen bonds within the chains is quite clear cut, their average length being  $3.51\text{\AA}$ .

The nature of hydrogen bonding between the chains is much more equivocal. We require the N...Se vector to be reasonable both in length and direction. The shortest distance of this type is N27''...Se5( $3.46\text{\AA}$ ) which is similar in length to the intrachain hydrogen bonds. Distances up to  $3.75\text{\AA}$  (the longest intrachain bond length is  $3.68\text{\AA}$ ) are listed in Table III-3B. These have been examined with respect to the second criterion, and the Table indicates which are proposed as hydrogen bonds. (The others are mainly between molecules in different layers as well as different chains). It can certainly be said that not all nitrogen atoms are involved in interchain

TABLE III-3

Intermolecular distances in the crystal structure of selenourea.

A. Intrachain hydrogen bonds.			B. Other Se...N distances			C. Se...Se distances.			
Se	N	Length (Å)	Se	N	Length (Å)	Se	Se	Length at -100°C (Å)	Length at 20°C (Å)
1	11'	3.31(2)	1	19'	3.66(5)	1	4''	4.05(1)	3.99(5)
	21''	3.46(2)		29	3.70(4) *	1	7'	3.57(1)	3.68(5)
2	12'	3.58(3)	2	24''	3.74(9)	4	7''	3.77(1)	3.79(5)
	22''	3.55(2)		14	3.59(4) *	2	5''	3.55(1)	3.65(5)
3	13'	3.24(3)	3	28'	3.61(7)	2	8'	4.07(1)	4.01(5)
	23''	3.47(1)	4	13'	3.64(7)	5	8''	3.71(1)	3.77(5)
4	16'	3.49(2)		23'	3.65(4)	3	6''	3.65(1)	3.68(5)
	25''	3.54(2)		18	3.69(5) *	3	9'	3.69(1)	3.76(5)
5	14'	3.51(2)	5	21'	3.62(7)	6	9''	3.77(1)	3.78(5)
	26''	3.68(2)		17''	3.71(5)				
6	15'	3.42(3)		27''	3.46(7)	Average		3.76	3.79
	24''	3.54(4)	6	18''	3.60(7)				
7	18'	3.50(3)		17	3.70(4) *	*These distances are not considered to be hydrogen bonds and are not included in the average.			
	29''	3.52(3)		28''	3.74(7) *				
8	19'	3.58(2)	7	16'	3.58(5)				
	27''	3.58(3)		26'	3.70(5)				
9	17'	3.58(2)		25	3.72(3) *				
	28''	3.56(3)	8	26	3.66(3) *				
			9	15'	3.53(5)				
				25'	3.73(4)				
Average		3.51	Average		3.64				

hydrogen bonds. Thus we have in selenourea a system in which the hydrogen bonds are so weak that some have been sacrificed in favour of compactness, that is, to gain energy by van der Waals interaction. The intrachain hydrogen bond lengths are listed in Table III-3A, and the short interchain N...Se distances are listed in Table III-3B, together with their interpretation in terms of hydrogen bonding.

Table III-3C contains the Se...Se contact distances, both at low and room temperatures. The average values are 3.79 Å at room temperature and 3.76 Å at -100°C. According to Pauling (1960) the van der Waals radius of selenium is 2.0Å. However, he chose this value in the nineteen thirties on the basis of a few structures, and recent work consistently suggests a smaller value. The distribution of 51 Se...Se distances all determined at room temperature cited in the literature\* confirm a value of about 1.9Å. The shortening of these distances with temperature is of the order of magnitude to be expected for van der Waals contacts (see section on thermal expansion), and illustrates the care required in comparing intermolecular contacts at different temperatures.

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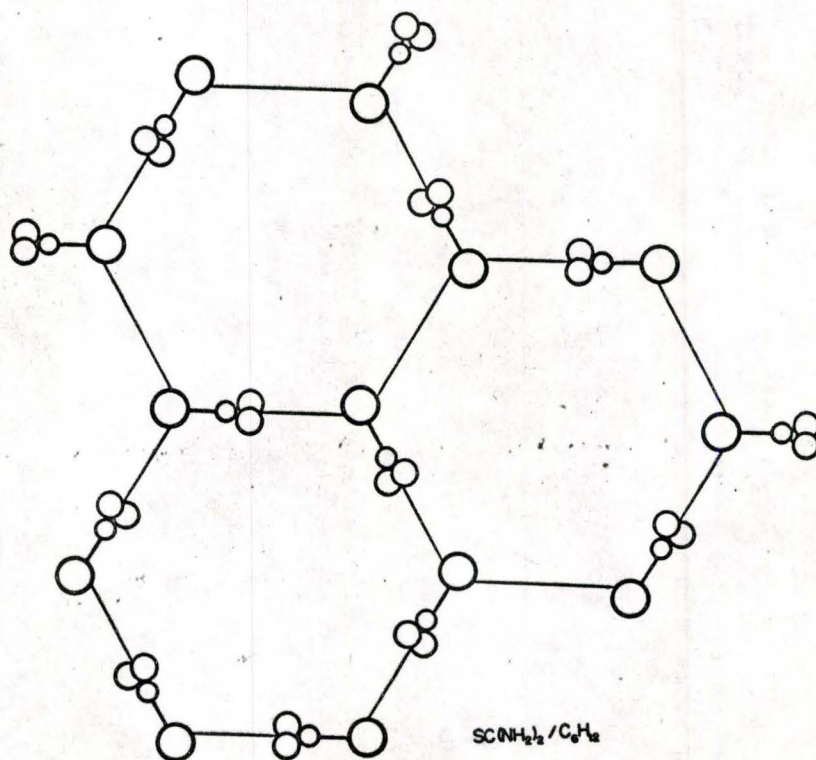
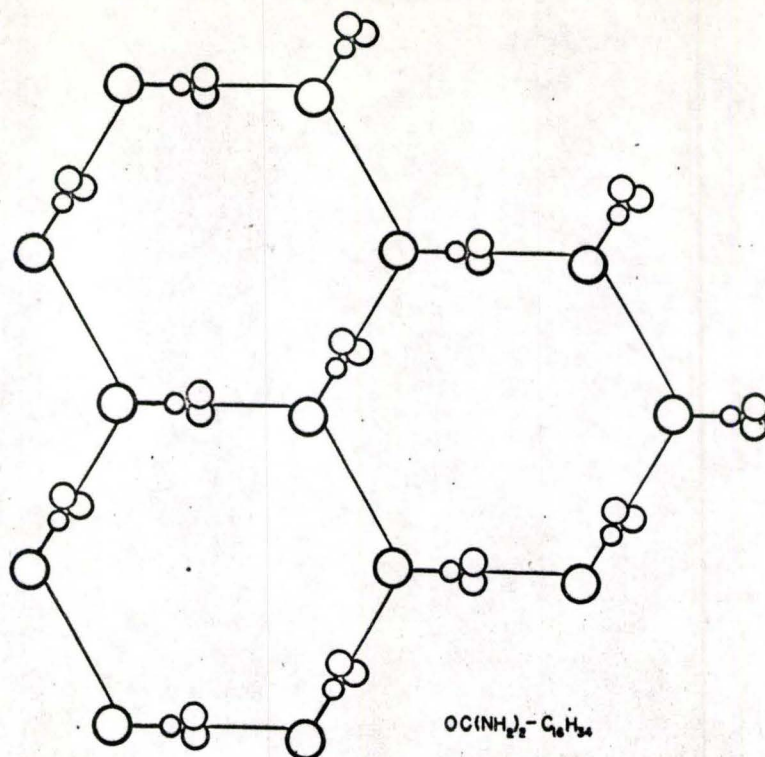
\* Ketelaar, Hart, Moerel and Polder (1939), Burbank (1951), Marsh (1952), Marsh, Pauling and McCullough (1953), Tsernoglou (1966), Barnighausen, von Volkmann and Jander (1966).

The three molecule chain in the urea series.

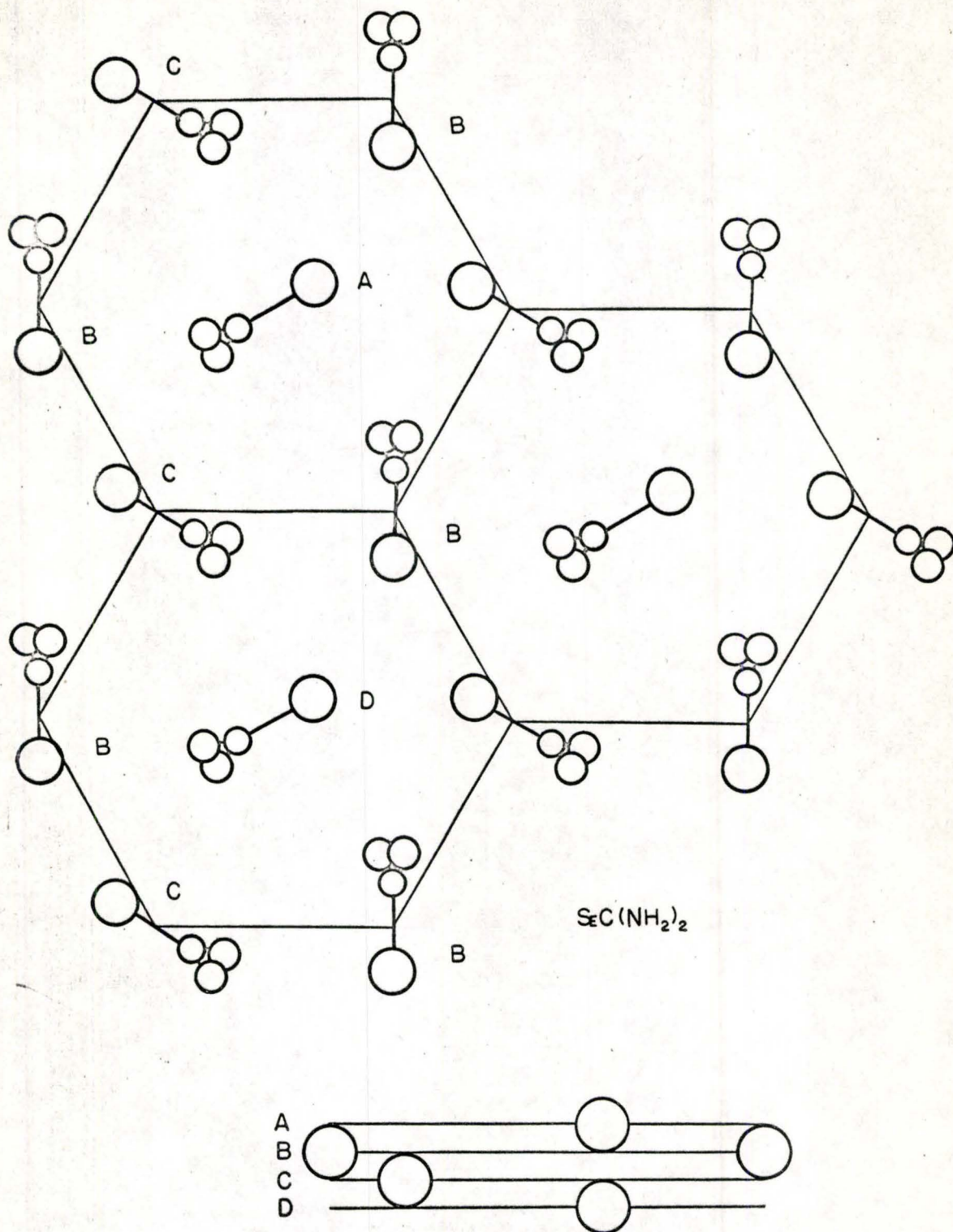
The three molecule hydrogen bonded chain occurs both in the inclusion compounds and in selenourea. The chains are so similar that the increase in c-axis length in the series is a direct measure of the increasing diameter of the chalcogen. However, the situation is complicated because direction of tilt of the molecules in the thiourea adduct is uncertain, although the angle involved is well determined, being about ten degrees. This arises because the sense of this tilt only has an effect on the  $h \neq 0 \pmod 3$  structure factors, and even then the contribution is small. Lenné chose the direction to be opposite to that in the urea compounds, where the angle of tilt is about seven degrees, on the basis of slightly better agreement for the hkl layer line. Since the sense of tilt found in the urea compounds recurs in selenourea, where the corresponding angle averages seventeen degrees, this choice now forms a stumbling block to a comprehensive structural description of these compounds, which I shall nevertheless attempt to present.

When we attempt to draw further analogies between these structures, we find the mode of cross-linking of the chains differs for each compound. Figure III-7 is based on part of Lenné's paper, and represents a  $c/3$  deep slice of the urea- and thiourea-hydrocarbon complexes projected on the (001) plane. Each spiral





The crystal structures of the urea- and thiourea- hydrocarbon complexes.



The crystal structure of selenourea, idealised for comparison with Figure III-7.

contains a three-fold screw axis parallel to c. The urea and thiourea molecules form the honeycomb arrangement described previously and the hydrocarbon molecules, the honey, are left out for clarity. In these crystals the between chain hydrogen bonding from any molecule is to two oxygen (or sulphur) atoms on different molecules of the same adjacent chain. Alternate chains point in opposite directions in the (001) projection. The basic difference between the two inclusion compounds is that in the thiourea case alternate chains also have the opposite sense of screw, which imposes a centre of symmetry and a rhombohedral centering on the lattice.

If we compare Figure III-8, which represents a similar slice of the selenourea structure, we find that the individual chains have been rotated, so that all nine have an identical orientation in the (001) plane and differ only in z co-ordinate. Thus all nine chains in selenourea stand in the same relationship to one another, and we cannot describe the structure by assigning a specific chain to the basic structure or to the channel. A further illustration of this rearrangement of the chain orientation in the (001) plane is provided by Figure III-9, where the a and c axis lengths for the three crystals are compared to the van der Waals radii (Pauling, 1960) of the corresponding chalcogens. This shows clearly that the increase in c axis length results simply from the greater chalcogen diameter. However the a axis lengths only

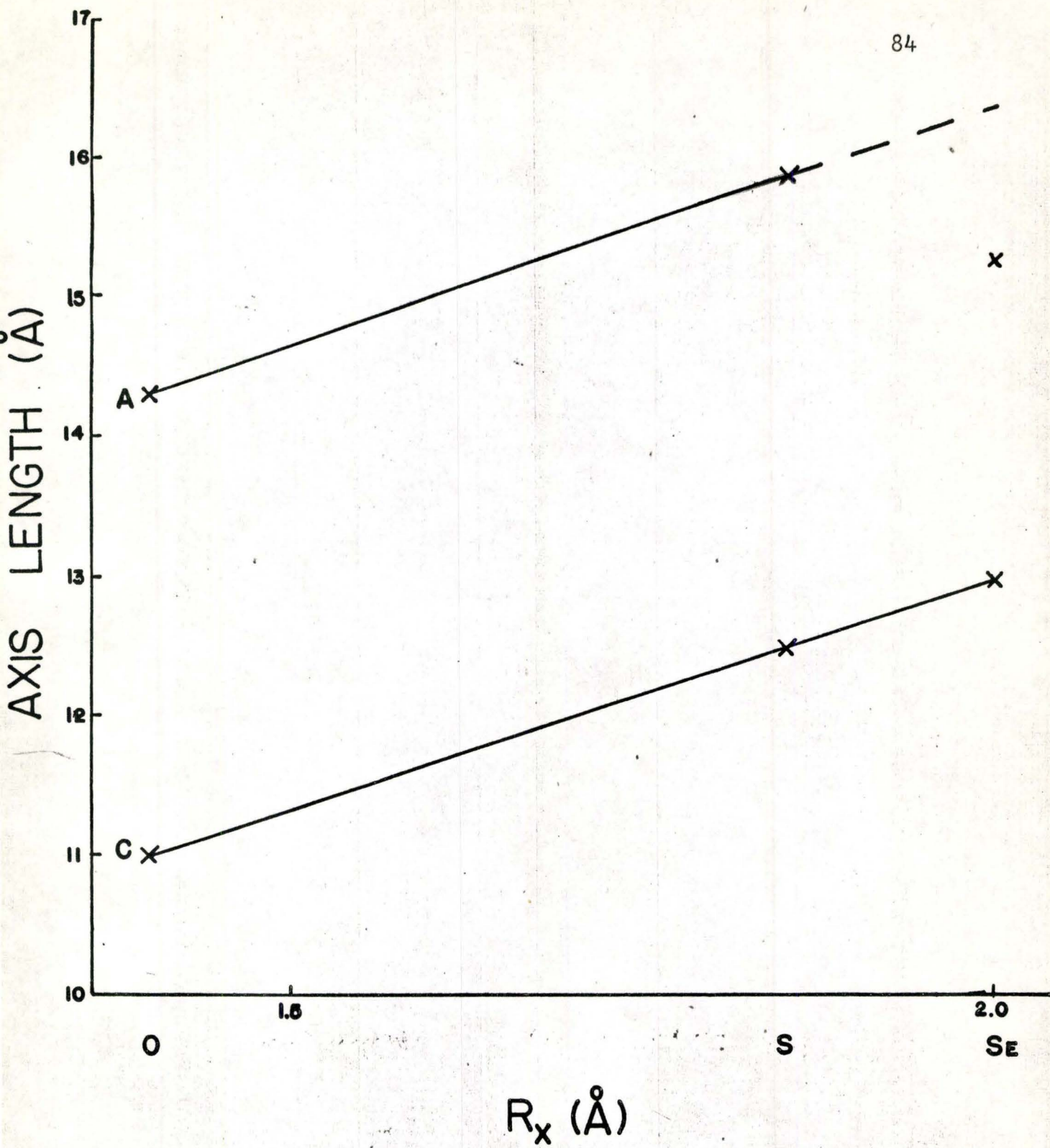


Figure III-9

The axis lengths in the spiral chain compounds compared to the corresponding chalcogen radii.

follow this trend for the inclusion compounds, whereas selenourea has a markedly shorter (by about one Ångstrom) a-axis than would have been expected based on an 18 molecule honeycomb structure. It therefore appears that the axial ratio is a reflection of the orientation of the chains in the (001) plane for all these compounds. In this connection it is interesting to note the report (Mima, 1959) that the thiourea/8-oxocamphor adduct ( $C_{10}H_{14}O_2 \cdot 3SC(NH_2)_2$ ) has an axial ratio of 0.81, compared to the usual value of 0.774. This suggests the possibility of rotation of the chains, to allow hydrogen bonding to the oxygen atoms of the terpene.

Another aspect of the propensity of the urea series to form these three molecule spiral chains is the high solubility of thiourea in the selenourea structure. Crystallisation of a solution of both compounds in water yielded mixed crystals with the selenourea structure. These showed diffuse spots, near the Bragg reflections, which corresponded to the pure selenourea spacing (see Wooster, 1964). The Bragg reflections themselves corresponded to an apparently isotropic reduction in lattice parameter of one per cent, or a volume per molecule of  $94.5\text{Å}^3$ . Since the corresponding values for the pure components are  $90.3\text{Å}^3$  (thiourea) and  $97.4\text{Å}^3$  (selenourea), this mixed crystal contains a large mole fraction, about 0.4, thiourea.

We can also calculate, considering the molecules to be 'hard', the volume of the voids in the crystal structure, and hence

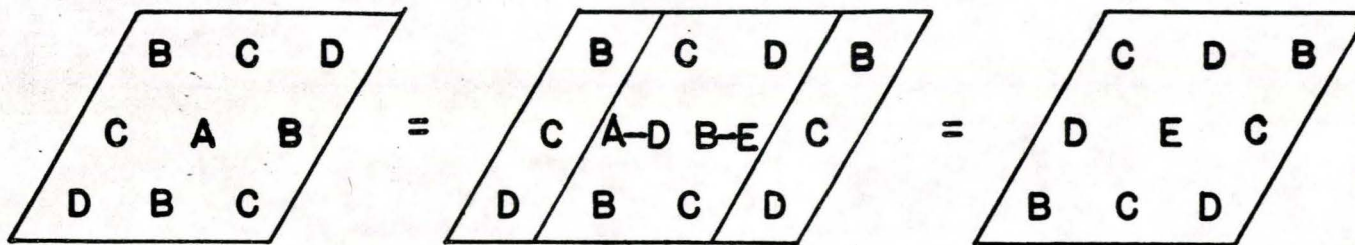
the efficiency of the packing in the crystal. Using the Kitaigorodskii (1960) formula, we can show that the molecular volume increase in going from thiourea to selenourea is  $5.7\text{\AA}^3$ . Since packing coefficients for molecular crystals are commonly about 0.65, we expect a crystal volume increase of about  $9\text{\AA}^3$  ( $5.7/0.65$ ). That the actual increase is less than this reflects the more efficient packing in the selenourea structure.

This expected increase of about  $9\text{\AA}^3$  is close to that reported by Dvoryankin and Ruchkin (1962) for the orthorhombic modification (volume per molecule  $99.7\text{\AA}^3$ ). If this thiourea-type phase exists for selenourea, then, if we accept Kitaigorodskii's arguments, we can predict it to be metastable with respect to the trigonal form.

#### Twinning in selenourea.

The relative z co-ordinates of the various chains in selenourea are indicated in Figure III-10, using the nomenclature of Table III-2. Figure III-10 also contains a similar description of the twin configuration, which can be considered as the same enantiomorph of selenourea rotated about  $[100]$  so that  $\underline{c}$  becomes  $-\underline{c}$ . (No attempt was made in this study to distinguish between the enantiomorphs represented by the space groups  $P3_1$  and  $P3_2$ , which probably occur equally frequently. Instead  $P3_1$  was assumed

Figure III-10



A hypothetical switching mechanism for selenourea, showing the structural relationship between the twins. The letters identify the individual chains according to the scheme of Table III-2.

throughout.) One of several possible transformations from one twin to the other are indicated, involving movement of two chains by about  $1.8\text{\AA}$ . This distance is large compared to that involved in known ferroelectrics, and such a movement of chains would require a gross change in the hydrogen bonding arrangement, so ferroelectricity is precluded. However, the similarity described encourages the production of such twins during the growth of crystals.

#### Thermal expansion of selenourea.

Thermal expansion coefficients for molecular crystals are of interest, in view of their relationship to the detailed crystal structure, particularly the strength and direction of interatomic interactions (Lonsdale, 1959). The magnitude of the thermal expansion coefficient  $\alpha_x$  is related to the extent of anharmonicity of lattice vibrations propagating in the direction  $x$ , which in turn depends on the strength of the interatomic interaction, whether covalent bond, hydrogen bond or van der Waals forces, and increases in the order just outlined. Some examples of the magnitudes involved are listed in Table III-4, together with the selenourea values.

Of particular interest to the present study are the thermal expansion coefficients for urea (Gilbert, 1955), the structure of



TABLE III-4.

Some typical coefficients of thermal expansion.

<u>Substance</u>	<u>Temperature Range (°C)</u>	<u><math>\alpha \times 10^6 / ^\circ\text{C}</math></u>	<u>Bond Type</u>
Diamond	23... 55	1	Covalent.
Ice	-120...-90	$\alpha_a$ 52 $\alpha_c$ 46	Hydrogen bonds.
Benzene	-193... -3	$\alpha_a$ 119 $\alpha_b$ 106 $\alpha_c$ 221	van der Waals.
Urea	-183... 20	$\alpha_a$ 76 $\alpha_c$ 24	Hydrogen bonds.
Selenourea	-100... 20	$\alpha_a$ 46 $\alpha_c$ 36	Hydrogen bonds.

which (see Introduction) is characterised by a fairly open arrangement of hydrogen bonds. They result from a large librational amplitude about the C-O bond axis, along with an increased vibration of all the atoms of the molecule perpendicular to its plane. This latter effect is found in general for planar molecules; in crystalline benzene, for example, the expansion in the c direction (almost perpendicular to the molecular plane) is about twice its value at right angles. Gilbert's conclusions were confirmed by the diffuse X-ray scattering for urea (Gilbert and Lonsdale, 1956). The nuclear magnetic resonance study also indicated motion about the C-O axis.

The thermal expansion co-efficients for selenourea are within the range common for small hydrogen bonded molecules (ice, urea, for example). However the interpretation here is complicated by the existence of Se...Se van der Waals contacts which are nearly perpendicular to c and which expand by one per cent over the temperature range used. This, coupled with the fact that the normals to the molecular planes are also almost perpendicular to c, results in  $\alpha_a$  being somewhat greater than  $\alpha_c$ , and comparison of interatomic distances at the two temperatures suggest that their relative increase does follow the predicted order: van der Waals contacts, hydrogen bonds, covalent bonds, with insignificant changes in the last. The insensitivity of covalent bond lengths to thermal expansion has been found by all workers in this field, a particularly careful study being that of Lonsdale, Milledge and El Sayed (1966) for

anthraquinone, where the structure was determined at five temperatures in the range  $-170^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $20.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Sklar, Senko and Post (1961) showed that the same was also true of urea, and that the expansion in that case simply resulted in increases in the hydrogen bond lengths.

#### Refractive index of selenourea.

Bunn (1945) points out that the anisotropic form of index of refraction can be related to crystal structure in the following way. For chain molecules the highest index will be along the chain direction, and for planar molecules, the present case, the lowest refractive index will be perpendicular to the molecular plane. Knowing the structure of selenourea this would predict  $n_c > n_a$ . This is in fact the case, for the necessary measurements have been performed by Kondrashev and Andreeva, who simply quote the indices as larger and smaller,  $n_g = 1.84$ ,  $n_p = 1.79$ . However their calculated value of the molar refractivity identifies these as  $n_c = n_g$ ,  $n_a = n_p$ , since  $\bar{n} = (n_c n_a^2)^{1/3}$  for trigonal crystals.

#### Conclusion.

The crystal structure of selenourea contains nine independent but identical molecules, the geometry of which is consistent with

the analogues urea and thiourea, and with the substituted selenoureas so far studied. The structure confirms the existence of N-H...Se hydrogen bonds. It also suggests that in the urea series a three-fold spiral chain is a particularly stable configuration. However, perhaps the most intriguing problem to the crystal chemist - the rationale behind the large number of non-equivalent molecules - has also proved to have perhaps the most interesting solution. The directional hydrogen bonding and the non-directional van der Waals forces in selenourea reached a complex compromise which sheds light on the competing roles of these effects in molecular crystal structures.

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