STRUCTURES OF SOME MERCURY COMPOUNDS IN LOW OXIDATION STATES

Ву

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SOME MERCURY COMPOUNDS

IN

LOW OXIDATION STATES .

To my parents

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY (1984)

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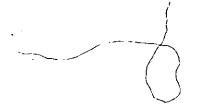
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ABSTRACT

 Structures of Hg compounds in fractional oxidation states lower than +1, $Hg_{3-\delta}MF_6$ (M = Sb, Nb, Ta), Hg_3MF_6 (M = Nb, Ta), . ${\rm Hg_4(Ta_2F_{11})_2}$ and ${\rm Hg_3(NbF_5)_2SO_4}$, were determined at room temperature and at lower temperatures using X ray and neutron diffraction. ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm MF}_6$ compounds, isostructural with ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm AsF}_6$, contain infinite chains of Hg which are incommensurate and thus disorder with the MF₆. host lattice. A comparison between the structures showed that the differences observed in the parameters of the chain compounds are completely accounted for by the difference in anion size. The chainhost lattice incommensurability also results in disorder among the chains at room temperature but an ordering develops at lower tempera-As in $\mathrm{Hg}_{\mathrm{3-\delta}}\mathrm{AsF}_{\mathrm{6}}$, short and long range order phases were observed in experiments with ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}.{\rm SbF}_6$ and ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm TaF}_6.$ The characteristics of the short range order phase are different in each compound indicating that the details of chain-chain interactions are not the same. Emery-Axe order parameter theory which predicts the development of long range order phase was tested for M = As, Sb, Ta but agreement was obtained only for $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{SbF}_6.$

A structure consisting of hexagonal closed-packed layers of Hg atoms was proposed for the ${\rm Hg}_3{\rm MF}_6^*$ compounds. The unusual 2-dimensional Hg-Hg bonding of these compounds represents an intermediate stage between the elemental solid Hg and the ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm MF}_6$ compounds which

form 3- and 1-dimensional Hg-Hg bonds respectively.

The $^4\text{Hg}_4(\text{Ta}_2\text{F}_{11})_2$ and $^4\text{Hg}_3(\text{NbF}_5)_2\text{SO}_4$ consists of finite polyatomic Hg ions. The former shows a tendency of cations to link into infinite zigzag chains, a feature also seen in $^4\text{Hg}_4(\text{AsF}_6)_2$, while the latter does not show such a tendency.

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CHAPTER I

HISTORICAL REVIEW

1.1 Introduction.

Among metals which are characterized by high electrical and thermal conductivity, mercury (Hg) is the only metal which exists in the liquid state at room temperature. High electrical conductivity of the metals including mercury is the result of the conduction (or free) electrons which are not localized within a region of the material but can drift from one part to another encountering little resistance.

When metals react with other materials to form compounds the metallic atoms usually either transfer their electrons completely to other atoms and become ions without any free electrons (ionic compounds) or use them to form bonds with nearby atoms (covalent compounds). Since free electrons become localized in either case, electronic conduction is not observed even though the compounds contain a metal atom.

One of the few ionic compounds which shows high electrical conductivity is ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm AsF}_6$. It has infinite chains of metallically bonded mercury atoms (Brown, Cutforth, Davies, Gillespie, Ireland, Vekris, 1974) and grows as large crystals with a golden metallic luster. Pure mercury solidifies below 234 K (-39°C) and behaves like a normal 3-dimensional metal. ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm AsF}_6$ differs in that the electrical conductivity

is mostly in the direction of the chains and, hence, the material is classified as an 1-dimensional conductor (Cutforth, Datars, van Schyndel, Gillespie, 1977).

Since solids with high anisotropy in their properties (known as low dimensional solids) are of considerable interest to physicists the discovery of this compound has inspired a search for new mercury compounds with unusual properties. A number have been successfully prepared over the last few years and the common feature among them is that the mercury is in oxidation states which are lower than +1, the lowest oxidation state of mercury known to chemists before 1970.

1.2 Discovery of new oxidation states of mercury

It has been known for a very long time that Hg exists in two oxidation states, 1 and 2, which can be seen in the well-known mercurous and mercuric compounds. The evidence for lower oxidation states of Hg appeared for the first time in 1970 when Torsi and Mamantov (1970) reported the preparation of $\mathrm{Hg}_3(\mathrm{AlCl}_4)_2$. The Hg_3^{2+} cation indicates that Hg can exist in an oxidation state of +2/3. The X ray structure determination of this material showed the Hg_3^{2+} ion to be essentially linear with Hg-Hg bonds of about 2.56 Å as depicted in the following 'diagram (Ellison, Levy, Fung, 1972).

About the same time preparation of a different material but with the same ion was reported by Davies, Dean, Gillespie, Ummat (1971)

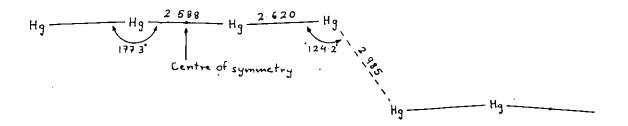
(also see Cutforth, Davies, Dean, Gillespie, Ireland, Ummat, 1973). The material was prepared by oxidizing elemental Hg at room temperature with an equimolar amount of ${\rm AsF}_5$ dissolved in liquid ${\rm SO}_2$. Immediately after the reaction was started a crystalline solid with golden luster was observed on the surface of Hg while the initially colorless solution became deep-red in color. The color of the solution then gradually changed to orange as the golden crystals slowly disappeared. Orange crystals obtained from this solution by slowly vaporizing the ${\rm SO}_2$ were characterized as ${\rm Hg}_3({\rm AsF}_6)_2$ so that the reaction that took place in the solution was

$$3Hg + 3AsF_5 \xrightarrow{SO_2} Hg_3(AsF_6)_2 + AsF_3$$

Gillespie et al. reasoned that the deep-red solution which appeared before the orange solution might contain Hg ions in lower oxidation state than $\pm 2/3$. By using a smaller amount of oxidant the reaction could be stopped at the stage where—the deep-red solution and the golden crystals coexisted in an equilibrium and the crystallization of this solution gave red-black needles. An X-ray structure determination of this product showed that the material indeed contained Hg ions in lower oxidation state (Cutforth, Gillespie, Ireland (1973) and Cutforth, Gillespie, Ireland, Sawyer, Ummat (1983)) the chemical composition being $\pm \frac{1}{2}$. The reaction may be represented by the following equation.

$$4Hg + 3AsF5 \xrightarrow{SO2} Hg4(AsF6)2 + AsF3$$

The geometry of Hg_4^{2+} ion is shown below.



The ${\rm Hg_4}^{2+}$ ion, like the ${\rm Hg_3}^{2+}$ ion, is almost linear but with the difference that the ${\rm Hg_4}^{2+}$ ions are linked by the relatively short distance of 2.985 Å between the terminal Hg atoms. Since this distance is comparable to the shortest distances in solid Hg, 2.99 Å for α -Hg (Barrett, 1957) and 2.83 Å for β -Hg (Atoji, Schirber, Swenson, 1959), it may indicate a significant interaction linking the ${\rm Hg_4}^{2+}$ ions together to form infinite zigzag chains.

By using even a smaller amount of oxidant Gillespie et al. were able to stop the reaction at the stage of the golden crystals. When these crystals were subjected to a chemical analysis yet another oxidation state of Hg, namely $\pm 1/3$, was discovered since the composition turned out to be $\pm 1/3$. In the brief report of the preparation of this new material Gillespie and Ummat (1971) expressed the reaction as

$$6Hg + 3AsF_5 \xrightarrow{SO_2} 2Hg_3AsF_6 + AsF_3$$

A subsequent X ray investigation (Brown et al., 1974), however, revealed that the composition of this material is more appropriately written as $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{Asf}_6(\delta\geqslant0)$. Moreover, the study shows that the Hg atoms link into uniform infinite chains with a Hg-Hg bond length of 2.64 Å. Since the structure of $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{Asf}_6$ is rather unusual it will be

discussed in detail in the following section.

1.3 The structure of lig₃₋₈AsF₆.

The structure of $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-8}\mathrm{AsF}_6$ was first determined by Brown et al. (1974) using X ray diffraction. Precession photographs of this material showed two distinct features.* One is a lattice of well-defined Bragg reflections consistent with the symmetry and systematic absences of the tetragonal space group $\mathrm{I4}_1/\mathrm{amd}$ and the other is a series of sheets of diffuse scattering perpendicular to \underline{a}^* and \underline{b}^* axes. The lattice parameters of the tetragonal unit cell were found to be $\underline{a}=7.538(4)$, $\underline{c}=12.339(5)$ Å. The separation of diffuse sheets, however, corresponds to a distance of 2.64 Å which is incommensurate with the tetragonal lattice parameters and led to the conclusion that the structure consists of two incommensurate components.

To explain the observed diffraction pattern Brown et al. proposed a model in which infinite chains of Hg atoms occupy straight non-intersecting tunnels in the <u>a</u> and <u>b</u> direction of an AsF $_6$ tetragonal lattice (see Fig. 1.1). The AsF $_6$ ions are ordered on a lattice with a space group I4 $_1$ /amd and give well-defined Bragg peaks. To explain the diffuse scattering sheets the Hg atoms within the chains are assumed to be separated by 2.64 Å. The incommensurability of the two components results in the chains being disordered with respect to the AsF $_6$ host lattice which, in turn, leads to disorder among the chains themselves since, due to their large separation and heavy screening by the host

^{*} An hkO precession photograph of ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm SbF}_6$, an isostructural compound with ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm AsF}_6$ is shown in fig. 3.1.

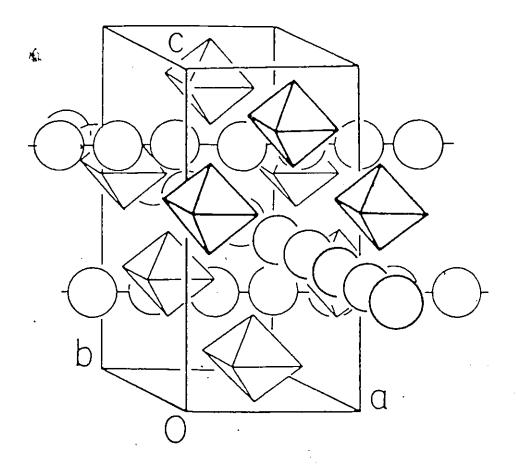


Figure 1.1

Structure of ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm AsF}_6$ proposed by Brown et al. (1974). Taken from Brown et al., 1982. The structure consists of infinite chains of Hg atoms (circles) occupying straight non-intersecting tunnels formed by a lattice of ${\rm AsF}_6$ ions (octahedra) ordered in space group I4₁/amd.

lattice, the direct interaction between the chains is weak. As a result the X rays scattered from the chains are in the form of diffuse sheets rather than well-defined Bragg peaks.

Another consequence of incommensurability between the two components is that the ratio of Hg atoms to the AsF $_6$ ions in the formula is non-integral. Since there are slightly less than three Hg atoms for each AsF $_6$ ion the composition of the material should be expressed as Hg $_{3-\delta}$ AsF $_6$ where δ = 0.14.

The model of $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{AsF}_6$ was later confirmed by Schultz, Williams, Miro MacDiarmid, Heeger (1978) using neutron diffraction. In their structure refinement an additional degree of freedom was incorporated into the model by allowing the chains to be displaced in the <u>c</u> direction since the symmetry of the space group does not fix the z coordinate of the atoms in the chains. Their refined model revealed a small undulation of the chains caused by the repulsion of the mutually perpendicular chains at the crossing points. The maximum displacement of the chains from the mean position (i.e., z = 1/4) is only 0.071 Å.

Schultz et al. also measured the density which indicated that in spite of the apparent composition of ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm AsF}_6$ implied by the crystallographic structure, the actual composition is closer to ${\rm Hg}_3{\rm AsF}_6$ due to a degree of anion deficiency.

1.4 Attempts to prepare isostructural compounds

Shortly after the preparation of ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm As}{\rm F}_6$ similar golden crystals were obtained by oxidizing Hg with ${\rm SbF}_5$ dissolved in liquid ${\rm SO}_2$. As in the case of ${\rm AsF}_5$, the reaction could be stopped at the stage of the

golden crystals by using the appropriate amount of oxidant. A preliminary X ray examination showed that this compound was isostructural with ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm AsF}_6$ (Cutforth, 1976).

Attempts to prepare other infinite Hg chain compounds (e.g. with PF $_6$ and BiF $_6$) were not successful. When the experiments for this thesis were initiated in 1980, Hg $_{3-\delta}$ AsF $_6$ and Hg $_{3-\delta}$ SbF $_6$ were the only two compounds known with the general formula Hg $_{3-\delta}$ MF $_6$.

1.5 Experiments and Theories on the inifinte chain, compounds

Because of their unusual structure the infinite chain compounds (with M = As, Sb) have been studied extensively over the last decade. The metallic character of the compounds was established by Cutforth et al., (1977) who measured the variation of low temperature conductivity. The conductivity was high in the <u>a</u> and <u>b</u> directions because of the conduction along the chains. For conductivity observed in the <u>c</u> direction was attributed to the conduction through the crossing points between the mutually perpendicular chains which are 3.24 Å apart. A temperature independent anisotropy $\rho_{\rm a}/\rho_{\rm c}$ (ratio between conductivities in <u>a</u> and <u>c</u> directions) was reported to be 100 for Hg_{3-δ}AsF₆ and 40 for Hg_{3-δ}SbF₆.

The Fermi surface of $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{AsF}_6$ has been determined by Razavi, Datars, Chartier, Gillespie (1979) using de Haas – van Alphen effect (Fermi surface of $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{SbF}_6$ has also been reported by Batalla, Razavi, Datars, 1982). It consists of rectangular cylinders with axes parallel to the <u>c</u> axis which are formed by two sets of flat 1-dimensional Fermi surfaces normal to the <u>a</u> and <u>b</u> axes. The rectangular shape confirms. that the materials have been correctly classified as 1-dimensional conductors although high conductivity is observed in two (a and b)

directions. (For a truly 2-dimensional conductor the Fermi surface would be a circular cylinder). From the positions of the flat Fermi surfaces the authors inferred that each Hg atom contributes two free electrons, but one electron for every $(3-\delta)$ Hg atoms is transferred to the AsF $_6^{1-}$ ions of the host lattice and the rest are responsible for the electronic conduction.

Other properties such as optical reflectivity and thermoelectric power have also been studied (Koteles, Datars, Cutforth, Gillespie, 1976; Scholz, Datars, Chartier, Gillespie, 1977). When the materials were examined by a low temperature DTA experiment, extrusion of Hg from the host lattice was observed indicating that the thermal contraction of the chains is smaller than that of the host lattice (Datars, van Schyndel, Lass, Chartier, Gillespie, 1978). In a neutron diffraction experiment Pouget, Shirane, Hastings, Heeger, Miro, MacDiarmid (1978) noted that the contraction of the chains is so small that it is unobservable.

Only the diffraction experiments will be described in the rest of this chapter since they are related to this thesis. For the other experiments the reader should consult the review article by Brown, Datars and Gillespie (1982).

The first low temperature neutron scattering experiment on ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm AsF}_6$ was carried out by Hastings, Pouget, Shirane, Heeger, Miro, MacDiarmid in 1977. They observed phonon-like excitations in the Hg chains with a high velocity of sound (c = 4.4×10^5 cm/sec)* indicating a strong intrachain bonding between the Hg atoms. A room temperature scan along the first order diffuse scattering sheet in the <u>a*b*</u> plane

^{*} More recent measurements give c = 3.6x10⁵ cm/sec (Heilmann et al., 1979).

gave a uniform distribution of elastically scattered neutrons from the chains. This observation confirms the conclusion of Brown et al. (1974) that there is no coherence between parallel chains at room temperature. Similar scans at lower temperatures showed intensity modulation of the sheets signalling the development of ordering between the chains. For T > 120 K broad peaks were observed but as T + 120 K new narrow peaks suddenly appeared at different locations from the broad peaks. As T was lowered below T_C (120 K) the narrow peaks grew very quickly while the original broad peaks disappeared. Hastings et al. associated the broad peaks with partial ordering between the parallel chains and the narrow peaks with a long-range three dimensional ordering of the two perpendicular sets of chains.

The nature of this order-disorder phase transition was studied thoroughly by the same workers and reported in a subsequent publication (Pouget et al./, 1978).

About the same time Emery and Axe (1978) published a theory of the disordered chains in which they argued that the chains must be in a 1-dimensional liquid state at temperatures above T_c , i.e., before they freeze into a 3-dimensional lattice, since a 14-dimensional system cannot sustain long range order at any finite temperature. Their theory made a number of predictions which can be tested by experiment. One of these was that the thickness of the diffuse scattering sheets is finite and should vary as n^2T where n is the order of the sheet. This prediction was verified by Spal, Chen, Egami, Nigrey, Heeger (1980) using X ray scattering.

Effery and Axe also proposed a theory dealing with the evolution of the long-range order phase at temperatures below $T_{\rm C}$. In thistheory an order parameter is defined so that it is proportional to the square-root of the intensity of the narrow peaks which appear on the

first order diffuse scattering sheet. By using mean field theory the order parameter was calculated as a function of T.

1.6 Discovery of more mercury compounds and further experiments

After the experimental work for this thesis was started with a structure determination of $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{SbF}_6$, two more Hg chain compounds $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{NbF}_6$ and $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{TaF}_6$ were discovered. During attempts to prepare them other new materials were also produced and some have been successfully isolated. This thesis reports X ray and neutron diffraction studies on these materials.

Basic diffraction theory underlining the experiments is described in Chapter II. Diffraction from infinite disordered chains (Emery and Axe, 1978) is also discussed in that chapter (sec. 2.5). Techniques used for X ray structure determination are given towards the end of the chapter (sec. 2.6 and on).

Chapter III reports the structures of the chain compounds at room temperature as well as at lower temperatures.

Chapter IV also deals with the chain compounds but lays emphasis on the ordering of the chains at low temperatures. Emery-Axe theory for the evolution of long-range order is described (sec. 4.6) before presenting the experiments to verify the theory (sec. 4.7).

Chapter V reports the structure of two new materials, ${\rm Hg_3NbF_6}$ and ${\rm Hg_3TaF_6}$ in which Hg exists in the form of infinite sheets rather than chains. Like the chain compounds they are also metallic but have silver luster instead of gold.

Structures of two new compounds with Hg_4^{2+} and Hg_3^{2+} ions are

described in Chapter VI.

The last chapter of this thesis, Chapter VII, provides conclusions and makes predictions about the possible existence of new oxidation state(s) of Hg and new Hg compounds.

CHAPTER II

INTRODUCTION TO DIFFRACTION THEORY AND EXPERIMENTAL TECHNIQUES

2.1 <u>General introduction to X ray and neutron scattering; dynamic,</u> static and geometrical structure factors

In the first Born approximation the cross section of a scattering process involving an unpolarized incident beam and a scattered beam into a solid angle $d\Omega$ is given by (Marshall and Lovesey, 1971)

$$\frac{d^2\sigma}{d\Omega dE'} = \frac{k'}{k} \left(\frac{m}{2\pi\hbar^2}\right)^2 \sum_{\lambda\lambda'} p_{\lambda} |\vec{k}'\lambda'| \hat{V}_{T}(\vec{r}) |\vec{k}\lambda\rangle|^2 \delta(\hbar\omega + E_{\lambda} - E_{\lambda'}) \quad (2.1)$$

where E' = energy of scattered particle

 \vec{k} , \vec{k}' = incident and scattered wave vectors

m = mass of the scattered particle

 $\lambda, \lambda' = initial$ and final states of the target

 p_{λ} = probability of having the target in state λ

 $\hat{V}_{\tau}(\vec{r})$ = interaction potential between the target and the radiation

 E_{λ} , $E_{\lambda'}$ = initial and final energies of the target.

Since this quantity represents the proportion of the intensity of the incident beam scattered with coordinates E' and \vec{k} ', it is also proportional to the intensity of the scattered beam.

To keep the analysis simple one can first consider a target consisting of N identical scattering centers for which the interaction

potential is represented by

$$\hat{\mathbf{v}}_{\mathsf{T}}(\vec{r}) = \sum_{j=1}^{\mathsf{N}} \hat{\mathbf{v}}(\vec{r} - \vec{\mathsf{R}}_{j}) \tag{2.2}$$

The lack of subscript j on $V(r-R_j)$ emphasizes that the scattering centers are identical. In this case eq. (2.1) reduces to the scattering law (Marshall and Lovesey, 1971)

$$\frac{d^2\sigma}{d\Omega dE'} = N\frac{k'}{k} \left(\frac{m}{2\pi\hbar^2}\right)^2 |V(\vec{q})|^2 S(\vec{q},..)$$
 (2.3)

where
$$\vec{q} = \vec{k}' - \vec{k}$$
 (2.4)

$$\tilde{V}(q) = \int d\vec{r} \exp(i\vec{q} \cdot \vec{r})V(\vec{r})$$
 (2.5)

and
$$S(\vec{q}, \omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi\hbar N} \int_{-\infty}^{\omega} dt \, e^{-i\omega t} \sum_{j,j} \langle \exp\{-i\vec{q} \cdot \vec{R}_{j}(0)\} \exp\{i\vec{q} \cdot \vec{R}_{j}, (t)\} \rangle$$
 (2.6)

The quantity $S(\vec{q},\omega)$ is called the dynamic structure factor which describes elastic and inelastic scattering from a sample. It is therefore used in the analysis of inelastic neutron scattering experiments and scattering from liquids. This is, however, by no means to imply that the above equations hold only for neutron scattering. They are indeed good for scattering of any kind of radiation in the limit of the first Born approximation.

In an X ray scattering experiment one usually does not analyse the scattered radiation in energy as the resolution is very poor. The cross-section or, equivalently, the observed scattered intensity is therefore proportional to the dynamic structure factor integrated over all energies.

$$S(\vec{q}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d(\hbar \omega) S(\vec{q}, \omega)$$
 (2.7)

$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j,j} \langle \exp\{-i\vec{q} \cdot \vec{R}_{j}(0)\} \exp\{i\vec{q} \cdot \vec{R}_{j}(0)\} \rangle$$
 (2.8)

The quantity $S(\vec{q})$ is called static structure factor.

It is now convenient to define a quantity $F(\vec{q})$ so that $|F(\vec{q})|$ is equal to the time averaged total amplitude of the scattered radiation from the target. By considering the interference of wavelets scattered by a system of identical scattering centers at \vec{R}_j (j=1,N) one gets (Woolfson, 1979)

$$F(\vec{q}) = \langle \sum_{j} \exp\{i\vec{q} \cdot \vec{R}_{j}\} \rangle$$
 (2.9)

 $F(\vec{q})$ is called geometrical structure factor and is widely used in X ray and elastic neutron diffraction experiments. From (2.8) and (2.9) the relation between the two structure factors is seen to be

$$S(\vec{q}) = \frac{1}{N} F^*(\vec{q}) F(\vec{q})$$
 (2.10)

The lack of a factor representing the relative scattering amplitude of each scattering center on the R.H.S. of eq. (2.9) is again a consequence of having only one type of scattering centers in the target. For the targets with more than one type of scattering centers such a factor is essential and is called form factor or scattering factor. In general, it is a complex number and a function of \vec{q} , hence is denoted by $f(\vec{q})$. The phase of $f(\vec{q})$ represents the phase shift suffered by the radiation when it is scattered from the scattering center. If the scattering centers are spherically symmetric, which is a normal assumption in practice, $f(\vec{q})$ reduces to f(q). In this case

eq. (2.9) becomes

$$F(\vec{q}) = \langle \sum_{j} f_{j}(q) \exp\{i\vec{q} \cdot \vec{R}_{j}\} \rangle \qquad (2.11)$$

An alternative way of writing eq. (2.11) can be found if one recognises that X rays are scattered by electrons and the electronic distribution in a crystal is continuous. Each point inside the crystal can therefore be viewed as a scattering center with scattering amplitude $\langle \rho(\vec{r}) \rangle$ where the latter is the time averaged electron density at that point. Therefore, (2.11) can also be written as (Woolfson, 1979)

$$F(\vec{q}) = \int_{\text{crystal}} d^3 r \langle \rho(\vec{r}) \rangle \exp\{i\vec{q} \cdot \vec{r}\}$$
 (2.12)

2.2 X ray diffraction from a 3-dimensional crystal

In the previous section the geometrical structure factor $F(\vec{q})$ was defined without giving the physical concept behind the definition eq. (2.11). The insight into this equation can be gained by considering the following elastic scattering problem.

Consider two <u>stationary</u> scattering centers which are different and are separated by a vector \vec{r} as shown in fig. (2.1). For collimated incident radiation the indicent beams are parallel. The scattered beams are also shown parallel because the detector is usually at a distance much larger than $|\vec{r}|$ (Fraunhofer diffraction).

From the diagram;

 $\text{path difference = } r(\sin\mu_1 + \sin\mu_2) = \vec{r}\cdot\hat{S}' - \vec{r}\cdot\hat{S}$ where \hat{S} and \hat{S}' are the unit vectors in the direction of incident beam and the diffracted beam.

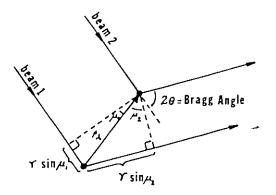


Fig. 2.1. Two scattering centers exposed to a well-collimated incident radiation. Scattering center 2 is located at vector \vec{r} from 1:

A vector \vec{s} which is called "scattering vector" is defined as

$$\vec{S} = \frac{\hat{S}' - \hat{S}}{\lambda} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \vec{q} \tag{2.13}$$

... phase difference =
$$\frac{\text{path difference}}{\lambda}$$

= $\vec{r} \cdot \vec{s}$ (2.14)

The following simple relation between $|\vec{s}|$ and the Bragg angle, 20, should also be noted.

$$|\vec{s}|^2 = (2 - 2\hat{s}' \cdot \hat{s})/\lambda^2 = \frac{2}{\lambda^2}(1 - \cos 2\theta) = \frac{4\sin^2\theta}{\lambda^2}$$

$$\therefore |\vec{s}| = 2\sin\theta/\lambda \tag{2.15}$$

By using the phase relation given in eq. (2.14) the amplitude of the resultant radiation can be calculated.

resultant amplitude =
$$f_1(s) + f_2(s)e^{2\pi i \vec{r} \cdot \vec{s}}$$
 (2.16)

where $f_1(s)$ and $f_2(s)$ are the form factors of scattering center 1 and 2.

If there are N scattering centers at \vec{r}_1 , \vec{r}_2 , ..., \vec{r}_N in a crystal

resultant amplitude
$$F(\vec{s}) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} f_j(s) e^{2\pi i \vec{r}_j \cdot \vec{s}}$$
 (2.17)

A number of approximations have been employed in generalizing eq. (2.16) into (2.17). For a real crystal, N is a very large number $(\sim 10^{23})$. The probability of multiple scattering is enhanced by having many scattering centers (Primary extinction). Moreover, scattering centers further from the source of radiation experience weaker incident radiation because some part of it has already been scattered by the centers closer to the source (Secondary extinction). As an approximation both extinction effects may be ignored when the interaction between radiation and matter is weak. The diffraction theory based on this assumption is known as the kinematic diffraction theory. The approximation is reasonably good for X rays and neutrons but the effects are not entirely negligible. (See sec. 2.11 for a discussion on methods of correcting for extinction).

One should also note that radiation absorption by the sample has been ignored in deriving eq. (2.17). This is an approximation in the theory but the effect is often too strong to be ignored in practice. (See sec. 2.10 for discussion on methods of correcting for absorption).

For a real crystal in which the atoms are oscillating about their equilibrium positions because of thermal vibrations

$$F(\vec{s}) = \langle \int_{j} f_{j}(s) e^{2\pi i \vec{R}} j^{*\vec{s}} \rangle \qquad (2.18)$$

which is the same as eq. (2.11). Note that the upper case letter \hat{R}_{j} is

used to denote the instantaneous position of the j^{th} atom. The lower case letter $\dot{r_j}$ denotes the equilibrium position of the same atom or, in the special case of static crystal, the position. $\dot{R_j}$ and $\dot{r_j}$ are related by

$$\hat{R}_{j}(t) = \hat{r}_{j} + \hat{u}_{j}(t)$$
 (2.19)

where $\vec{u}_{j}(t)$ is the instantaneous displacement of the atom.

Similarly, for a continuous distribution of electron density $\overline{\rho}(\vec{r})=s_0(\vec{r})>$

$$F(\vec{s}) = \int_{\text{crystal}} d^3 r_{\rho}(\vec{r}) \exp\{2\pi i \vec{r} \cdot \vec{s}\}$$
 (2.20)

Eq. (2.18) and (2.20) are extensively used in X ray determination of the structures of the crystals. To take the full advantage of these equations one must study the two basic properties of $\overline{\rho(r)}$; the periodicity and the spatial extension throughout the crystal.

2.3 Unit cell and reciprocal lattice

To a very good approximation the time-averaged electron density inside a crystal is a 3-dimensional periodic function provided the crystal does not suffer from any kind of serious disorder. As a consequence one can define a small parallelepiped with edges \vec{a} , \vec{b} and \vec{c} so that the whole crystal can be generated by translations of this unit by vectors $n_1\vec{a} + n_2\vec{b} + n_3\vec{c}$ for all possible integers n_1 , n_2 , n_3 . This is called a unit cell and \vec{a} , \vec{b} , \vec{c} and the angles between them are called the lattice parameters. The unit cell is not unique but it is normally chosen to minimize the cell volume V while maintaining as high internal symmetry as possible.

A reciprocal unit cell is defined as follows.

$$\vec{a}^* = \vec{b} \times \vec{c} / V$$

$$\vec{b}^* = \vec{c} \times \vec{a} / V$$

$$\vec{c}^* = \vec{a} \times \vec{b} / V$$
(2.21)

The following linear combination of the above vectors is known as a reciprocal lattice vector and will be denoted by \vec{k} .

$$\vec{K} = n_1 \vec{a}^* + n_2 \vec{b}^* + n_3 \vec{c}^*$$
 (2.22)
 $(n_1, n_2, n_3 \text{ are integers})$

Note that the orientations of \vec{a} , \vec{b} , \vec{c} and \vec{a}^* , \vec{b}^* , \vec{c}^* depend on the orientation of the crystal.

The equilibrium position of an atom in the crystal is usually specified by

$$\vec{r} = \chi \hat{a} + Y \hat{b} + Z \hat{c} = \chi \hat{a} + Y \hat{b} + Z \hat{c}$$
 (2.23)

where $\hat{a} = \vec{a}/|\vec{a}|$, etc. are the unit vectors.

The coordinates $x=X/|\vec{a}|$, $y=Y/|\vec{b}|$, $z=Z/|\vec{c}|$ are the fractional coordinates in the units of $|\vec{a}|$, $|\vec{b}|$, $|\vec{c}|$.

If the scattering vector \vec{s} is expressed in terms of \vec{a}^* , \vec{b}^* , \vec{c}^* ,

$$\vec{s} = h\vec{a}* + k\vec{b}* + \ell\vec{c}*,$$
 (2.24)

it is easy to prove that the phase difference $\vec{r} \cdot \vec{s}$ is,

$$\vec{r} \cdot \vec{s} = hx + ky + \ell z \tag{2.25}$$

Similarly,

$$\vec{r} \cdot \vec{K} = n_1 x + n_2 y + n_3 z$$
 (2.26)

The space spanned by vector \vec{s} is known as the reciprocal space.

2.4 The "infinite" crystal

One more approximation is introduced at this point for the sake of mathematical convenience; the periodic function $\rho(\vec{r})$ is assumed to entend from $-\infty$ to $+\infty$ in all three directions. Obviously, no real crystal even if it is a perfect single crystal free from defects, meets this condition. Most of the real crystals are divided into perfectly ordered mosaic crystallites of smaller dimension (\sim a few microns), but as long as the mosaic size is large enough to accommodate many ordered unit cells the approximation is justified.

Eq. (2.20) now becomes,

$$F(\vec{s}) = \int d^3r \rho(\vec{r}) \exp\{2\pi i \vec{r} \cdot \vec{s}\}$$
 (2.27)

The above relation between $\rho(\vec{r})$ and $\rho(\vec{s})$ is a Fourier transform. The inverse relation is given by the Fourier theorem.

$$\frac{1}{\rho(\vec{r})} = \int d^3 s F(\vec{s}) exp\{-2\pi i \vec{r} \cdot \vec{s}\} \qquad (2.28)$$

Another very important benefit of having $\rho(r)$ as an infinite periodic function is that it can be expressed as a Fourier series.

$$\overline{\rho}(\vec{r}) = \sum_{n_1 = -\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n_2 = -\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n_3 = -\infty}^{\infty} C_{n_1 n_2 n_3} \exp\{-2\pi i (n_1 \frac{x}{a} + n_2 \frac{y}{b} + n_3 \frac{z}{a})\}
= \sum_{n_1 = -\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n_2 = -\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n_3 = -\infty}^{\infty} C_{n_1 n_2 n_3} \exp\{-2\pi i (n_1 x + n_2 y + n_3 z)\}
= \sum_{n_1 = -\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n_2 = -\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n_3 = -\infty}^{\infty} C_{n_1 n_2 n_3} \exp\{-2\pi i \vec{r} \cdot \vec{k}\}, \qquad (2.29)$$

the last step using eq. (2.26).

Eq. (2.29) implies that $\overline{\rho}(r)$ is the summation of exponential

waves with wave vector $-2\pi\vec{K}$, amplitude $|C_{n_1n_2n_3}|$ and the initial phase $a_{n_1n_2n_3}$. These waves are the Fourier components of $\rho(\vec{r})$.

The Fourier transform of one of the components can be written as

$$\Gamma(\vec{s}) = \int dr C_{n_1 n_2 n_3} \exp\{-2\pi \vec{r} \cdot \vec{k}\} \exp\{2\pi i \vec{r} \cdot \vec{s}\}$$

$$= C_{n_1 n_2 n_3} \int d\vec{r} \exp\{2\pi i \vec{r} \cdot (\vec{s} - \vec{k})\}$$

In the above integral, exponential terms will sum up constructively only if $\vec{s} = \vec{K}$.

$$\therefore \Gamma(\vec{s}) = C_{n_1 n_2 n_3} \delta(\vec{s} - \vec{K}) \qquad (2.30)$$

Note that $\Gamma(\vec{s})$ is a δ -function at $\vec{s} = \vec{K}$ and is weighted by the magnitude of the corresponding Fourier component, $|C_{n_1n_2n_3}|$. Combining eq. (2.27), (2.29) and (2.30) gives,

$$F(\vec{s}) = \sum_{n_1 = -\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n_2 = -\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{n_3 = -\infty}^{\infty} C_{n_1 n_2 n_3} \delta(\vec{s} - \vec{K})$$
 (2.31)

The above equation shows that $F(\vec{s})$ is a set of δ -functions located at the reciprocal lattice points and weighted by the amplitude of the corresponding Fourier component. $F(\vec{s} \neq \vec{K}) = 0$ which implies that the amplitude (or intensity) of diffracted X rays is zero unless the scattering vector \vec{s} happens to be equal to one of the reciprocal lattice vectors \vec{K} . This is the well-known Bragg condition for X ray diffraction.

What happens to the 6 functions if the infinite crystal approximation breaks down? A complete analysis of this problem is provided by James (1958) in The Optical Principle of the Diffraction of X Rays.

He considered that there were $N_1 << \infty$ ordered unit cells along the crystal axis \vec{a} . The calculations suggested that the δ -peaks would become broader in the direction of \vec{a}^* with small diffraction ripples around and the first diffraction minima at $(h \pm \frac{1}{N_1})a^*$. (See the dotted curve of Fig. 2.2)*. Broad diffraction peaks are indeed taken as the sign of poor or short range ordering of the crystal.

Since $F(\vec{s})$ is a set of δ -functions for an ordered crystal eq. (2.28) is reduced to

$$\overline{\rho}(\vec{r}) = \sum_{h=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{\ell=-\infty}^{\infty} F(\vec{s}) \exp\{-2\pi i (hx + ky + \ell z)\}$$
 (2.32)

In crystal structure determination the crystallographer's task is to calculate $\overline{p}(\mathring{r})$ in order to find the position of the atoms. According to eq. (2.32) this can be done once the magnitude and the phase of $F(\mathring{s})$ are known.

2.5 Diffraction from one-dimensional disordered chains

The diffraction from 1-dimensional disordered chains of the ${\rm Hg_{3-\delta}MF_6}$ compounds was first systematically studied by Emery and Axe (1978). In their model the chains are assumed to be isolated chains with harmonic interaction only between nearest neighbours. All other interactions such as those between chains or between the chains and the host lattice are completely ignored. The physical picture is extremely simple, the chain consists of identical masses connected by identical harmonic springs. The strong Hg-Hg bond suggests that springs should

^{*} The same broadening will occur to all the peaks regardless of their coordinates in b* and c* directions.

be very stiff. The classical Hamiltonian for each chain can be expressed as follows.

$$H = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\alpha} \left[\frac{p_{\alpha}^{2}}{m} + mc^{2} \left(\frac{x_{\alpha+1} - x_{\alpha} - d^{2}}{d^{2}} \right) \right]$$
 (2.34)

where $\alpha = \alpha^{th}$ atom in a particular chain

d = equilibrium Hg-Hg distance = d_{Hg-Hg}

m = mass of Hg atom

c = speed of sound along the chain (longitudinal)

 x_{α} = instantaneous position of α_{α}^{th} atom (origin at 0^{th} atom)

 p_{α} = instantaneous momentum of the α^{th} atom,

and the summation is over the whole chain. All vector quantities are written as scalars in the equation since the system is 1-dimensional. The instantaneous position of the α^{th} atom at time t, $\mathbf{x}_{\alpha}(t)$, is related to its ground state position (ignoring the zero point motion of the atoms) ad by

$$x_{\alpha}(t) = \alpha d + \alpha_{\alpha}(t) \qquad \qquad (2.35)$$

where $\mathbf{u}_{\alpha}(\mathbf{t})$ is the instantaneous displacement of the atom.

To comprehend the Emery-Axe model it is essential to consider the nature of $u_{\alpha}(t)$ or its r.m.s. value σ_{α} . Although the Hg-Hg bonds are strong they are not perfectly rigid and the bond length is associated with a small uncertainty σ which is defined as the r.m.s. value of $(x_1(t)-d)$, or equivalently, σ_1 . The mean square value σ^2 is directly proportional to the temperature of the sample since it measures the

 $\left(\operatorname{amplitude}\right)^2$ of the harmonic motion of an atom with respect to its neighbours.

$$\sigma^{2}/d^{2} = \sigma_{1}^{2}/d^{2} = \frac{k_{B}T}{mc^{2}}$$

$$m = 3.35x10^{-25} \text{ kg, c} = 3.6x10^{3} \text{ ms}^{-1} \text{ (Heilmann et al., 1979)}$$

At 300 K, $\frac{\sigma}{d} = 3.1 \times 10^{-2}$

The uncertainty in the bonds adds up in a statistical manner so that for a string of α bonds

$$\sigma_{\alpha}^2 = \int \alpha |\sigma^2| \qquad (2.37)$$

Since $\alpha \to \omega$ in a real crystal the last equation implies that there is no long range ordering within a chain; a well-known characteristic of l-dimensional systems with finite interaction. The lack of long range order, however, does not prevent one from using harmonic approximation and considering phonon-like excitations and the dispersion relation, because there is very good short range ordering due to the stiff Hg-Hg bonds. In fact, the dispersion curve of the chains have been measured by Hastings et al. (1977) who found a large velocity for the longitudinal acoustic waves.

The lack of long range ordering has important consequences on the scattering of neutrons and X rays from the chains. The Debye-Waller factors along the chains are infinite due to the infinite value of $<\!u_{\alpha}^2>$ and no truly elastic scattering (Bragg scattering) is possible. The sheets of the diffuse scattering must therefore be the result of inelastic scattering.

For this 1-dimensional case the dynamic structure factor defined by eq. (2.6) reduces to*

$$S(Q,\omega) = \frac{1}{2\pi N} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dt \, e^{-i\omega t} \sum_{\alpha\alpha'} \langle \exp\{-iQx_{\alpha}(0)\} \exp\{iQx_{\alpha'}(t)\} \rangle \qquad (2.38)$$

where Q is the x-component of \vec{q} .**

Emery and Axe calculated both the static and the dynamic structure factors and obtained the former as,

$$S(Q) = \frac{\sinh(Q^2 \sigma^2 / 2)}{\cosh(Q^2 \sigma^2 / 2) - \cos Qd}$$
 (2.39)

Fig. 2.2 illustrates a plot of S(Q) vs. Q with σ = 0.1. The broadening of the high order peaks is more characteristic of the scattering from liquids rather than solids. The peaks are Lorentzian centered upon

$$Q_{n} = \frac{2\pi}{d} \cdot n \tag{2.40}$$

with the width (HWHM) of

$$K_{n} = \frac{Q_{r}^{2}\sigma^{2}}{2d} \propto n^{2}T$$
 (2.41)

The predicted proportionality of eq. (2.41) has been verified by using X ray scattering (Spal et al., 1980). The n^2T variation basically confirms the Emery-Axe model of the chains but the measured peak widths are consistantly smaller than the predicted values by $\sim 20\%$.

^{*} For a classical calculation the h in the denominator has been dropped.

For simplicity, we are considering only <u>a</u>-chains and this will be the case throughout the thesis unless otherwise stated.

In the original paper only the major results were presented without any intermediate steps. The calculation has been repeated independently by Talbot (1979) and presented in detail in his thesis.

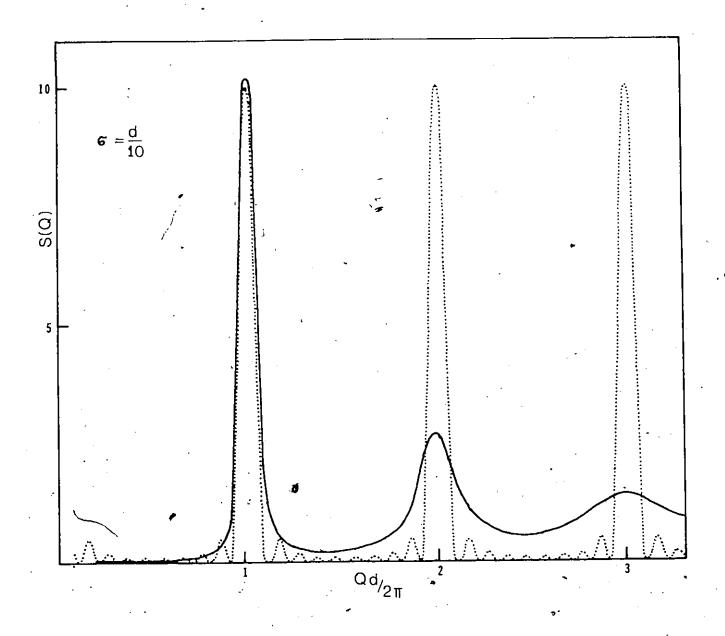


Figure 2.2

Intensity of scattered radiation from 1-dimensional harmonic liquid (solid curve) predicted by eq. (2.39). After Axe (1980). To make the broadening of the peaks visible in the plot the uncertainty in the Hg-Hg bond length is exaggerated as if $\sigma/d=0.1$ but the actual value is only 0.031 at room temperature. This is so small that the broadening of the diffuse scattering sheets is not noticeable in the precession photograph fig. 3.1. For comparison the dotted curve representing the diffracted intensity (scaled down by a factor of 10) resulted from a finite chain of 10 atoms but with no uncertainty in the bond length is shown.

The dynamic structure factor obtained by Emery and Axe is rather complicated but can be simplified for small $\Delta Q = Q - Q_n$ to

$$S(Q,\omega) \sim \frac{K_n}{[(\Delta Q - \omega/c)^2 + K_n^2]} \frac{K_n}{[(\Delta Q + \omega/c)^2 + K_n^2]}$$
 (2.42)

Note that there is no term proportional to $\delta(\omega)$ since no true elastic scattering is possible. In particular, when $\Delta Q=0$,

$$S(Q,\omega) \sim \frac{{K_1}^2}{[(\omega/c)^2 + {K_1}^2]^2}$$
 (2.43)

Since K_1 is very small, $S(Q,\omega)$ is very large only when ω is extremely close to zero. For larger values of ω , $S(Q,\omega) \to 0$. This implies that the diffuse scattering sheets arise from inelastic scattering with extremely small energy transfer.

The disordered Hg chains of the ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm MF}_6$ compounds are often referred to as "1-dimensional liquid" because the chains do not have any long range ordering and their scattering is very much like that of liquid samples.

2.6 Crystal structure determination; practical considerations

Since the intensity of radiation is proportional to the square of the amplitude the magnitude of $F(\vec{s})$ can easily be measured on an arbitrary scale.

$$I(\vec{s}) \propto F^*(\vec{s})F(\vec{s})$$

$$\therefore |F(\vec{s})| \propto \sqrt{I(\vec{s})}$$
(2.44)

where $I(\vec{s})$ is the observed diffracted intensity in the direction

corresponding to the scattering vector s.*

Note that eq. (2.44) alone is not enough to determine $F(\vec{s})$ since it does not contain any phase information. Crystallographers, therefore, have to use some indirect methods to deduce the phase of $F(\vec{s})$. The standard technique is to propose a model for $\rho(\vec{r})$, at least approximately, and then verify and improve the model by a least-squares refinement. The aim of the refinement is to improve the agreement between $|F(\vec{s})|_{\text{observed}}$ and $|F(\vec{s})|_{\text{calculated}}$ usually denoted by F_0 and F_C respectively.

The model most commonly used by crystallographers is the "Independent Atom Model" (IAM). The model consists of <u>spherical</u> atoms (or ions) which are allowed to undergo <u>harmonic</u> oscillations, <u>independently</u> and <u>anisotropically</u> about their equilibrium positions.

In the IAM the electron density is not continuous but localized at the atomic sites. Eq. (2.18) is therefore more suitable than (2.20) for calculating $F(\vec{s})$. Since the time-averaged unit cells are identical to each other the summation needs only be done for one unit cell rather than the whole crystal. This scales down all the $F(\vec{s})$ by a common factor, i.e., 1/number of unit cells, and hence the proportionality (2.44) is not affected. Evaluating the thermal average in Eq. (1.18) is also easy for the independent harmonic oscillators. In the IAM, eq. (2.18) combined with (2.19) becomes (Woolfson, 1979)

$$F(\vec{s}) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} f_n(s) \langle \exp(2\pi i \vec{u}_n \cdot \vec{s}) \rangle \exp(2\pi i \vec{r}_n \cdot \vec{s})$$

A number of corrections have to be applied to the measured diffracted intensities before using them in eq. (2.44) to get |F(s)|. These corrections are discussed in the following sections.

$$F(hk\ell) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} f_n(s) \exp\{-2\pi^{\frac{n}{2}} \cdot (\hat{u}_n \cdot \hat{s})^2 \cdot \exp(2\pi i \hat{r}_n \cdot \hat{s})$$

where N = number of atoms inside a unit cell and h, k, ℓ are the components of \dot{s} in unit of \dot{a}^* , \dot{b}^* , \dot{c}^* axes.

In the last equation the first exponential factor is called temperature factor or Debye-Waller factor. For the independent harmonic oscillators of IAM

where $\vec{s}^T = \vec{s}$ (transposed) and \hat{U}_n is a 3x3 matrix with the elements $U_{ij} = \langle u_i u_j \rangle$.

Therefore U_{11} , for example, gives the mean square displacement of the corresponding n^{th} atom in the direction of \bar{a} axis. Note that \hat{U}_n is symmetric and contains only six independent elements. In general, the thermal motion of the atom is anisotropic, i.e., $U_{11} \neq U_{22} \neq U_{33}$ and \hat{U}_n is called anisotropic temperature factor. But it is sometimes desirable to assume an isotropic motion of the atom (in order to reduce the number of adjustable parameters in the model, for example). For such an atom \hat{U}_n becomes an isotropic temperature factor $U_n\hat{I}_3$ for which U_n , a scalar, is the single adjustable thermal parameter and \hat{I}_3 is a 3x3 unit matrix.

The equation for $F(hk\ell)$ finally becomes,

$$F(hk\ell) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} f_n(s) \exp\{-2\pi^2 \vec{s}^T \hat{U}_n \vec{s}\} \exp\{2\pi i \vec{r}_n \cdot \vec{s}\}$$
 (2.45)

Standard crystallographic programs use eq. (2.45) to compute the calculated structure factor F_c . The form factors are given in the International Tables for X ray crystallography (1974), Vol. IV, p. 72 for all atoms and most of the known ions. The agreement between F_o and F_c is then improved by a least-squares refinement of \dot{r}_n (positional parameters) and \dot{U}_n (thermal parameters) which, in combination, are referred to as atomic parameters.

Success of a structure determination therefore depends on the following factors.

- (i) Accurate intensity measurements followed by a series of corrections to remove the systematic errors.
- (ii) An IAM which represents $p(\vec{r})$ to a good approximation so that it can be used as the initial model for the least-squares refinement.

The rest of this chapter is devoted to the discussion of the instruments, corrections and techniques used to meet the requirements of these factors.

2.7 Instruments to survey the reciprocal space

(i) Photographic methods; the precession camera

Photographic methods are particularly useful to survey the reciprocal space of crystal with serious disorder whose diffraction pattern consists of unusual features such as diffuse scattering regions or deformed Bragg peaks. These features can most conveniently be studied when they are mapped out on a photographic plate, a two-dimensional detector of low accuracy but very large sensitive area.

Although many different kinds of camera are available to

X ray crystallographers precession camera is perhaps the most convenient one to use since it gives a non-distorted view of a plane of reciprocal space. Construction and diffraction geometry of this camera are given in many crystallographic text books.

(ii) Four-circle X ray diffractometer

More accurate intensity measurements can be obtained from a diffractometer than from a camera at the expense of longer experimental time since, unlike the camera, the diffractometer examines only one point of reciprocal space at a time.

A four-circle diffractometer is shown schematically in fig. 2.3. The angle 2θ is the usual Bragg angle while ω , λ and ϕ are the three Euler angles determining the orientation of the crystal on the instrument. Any point of reciprocal space can be examined by setting these four angles to the appropriate positions.

The incident X ray beam is monochromatized by using a high quality pyrolytic graphite crystal. The diffracted beam from the sample is directly measured by a scintillation counter without an energy analyzer. The diffracted intensity at a point of reciprocal space is usually measured by performing a $20-\omega$ scan across the point. The scan is immediately preceded and followed by a pair of background intensity measurements.*

The diffractometer can also be used for low temperature diffraction experiments. The low temperature apparatus used consists a

Consult operating manual of Nicolet P2₁ diffractometer and LT1 low temperature apparatus for more details.

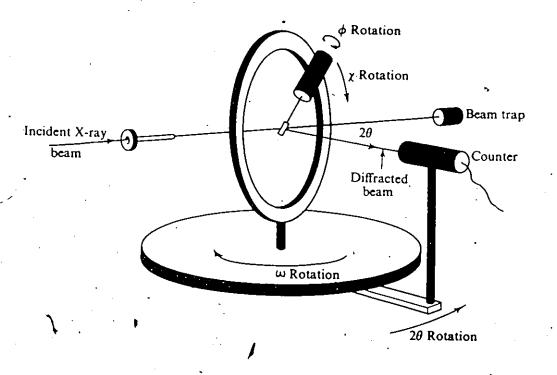


Figure 2:3

A four-circle X ray diffractometer. The angle 20 is the usual Bragg angle while ω , ϕ and $\dot{\chi}$ are the Euler angles determining the orientation of the crystal. (From Woolfson, 1979)

of a gas nozzle which blows regulated cold N_2 gas directly onto the crystal. Since the nozzle is firmly attached to the colorcle its relative orientation to the crystal does not change throughout the experiment. The lowest temperature attainable by this apparatus is about 145 K but higher temperatures can be obtained by warming up the cold gas using a stream heater. The temperature cannot be monitored during the experiments but calibration of temperature against stream heater setting before the experiments indicated that the stability and reproducibility is within ± 3 K.*

(iii) <u>Triple-axes neutron diffractometer</u>'

Fig. 2.4 shows a triple-axes diffractometer schematically. Both the monochromator for the incident beam and the energy analyzer for the diffracted beam are pyrolytic graph te crystals mounted on axes perpendicular to the plane of the instrument so that scattering angles at these crystals can be set to any desired values. The sample enclosed in an air-tight Al sample holder (see fig. 2.4) is mounted on a third axis which is parallel to the first two. Since the crystal can be rotated only about this axis (no χ circle) the diffraction is confined in the plane of the instrument and no region of reciprocal space outside this plane can be studied without remounting the sample with a different orientation.

For the low temperature experiments the sample holder is cooled by a close-cycle He refrigerator capable of stabilizing the

Consult operating manual of Nicolet P21 diffractometer and LTK low temperature apparatus for more details.

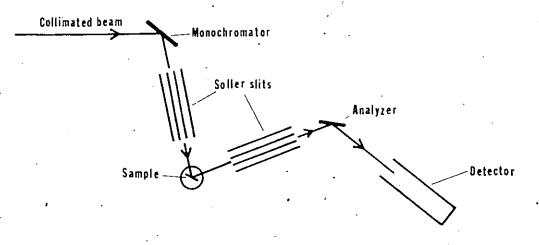


Figure 2.4(a)
Top view of a triple-axes neutron diffractometer.

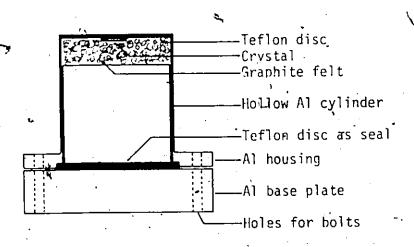


Figure 2.4(b) Sample holder

temperature within ± 0.1 K in the range of 10 to 300 K. The temperature of the sample holder is continuously monitored throughout the experiment.*

2.8 Scaling the diffractometer-measured intensities

Because output power of the X ray source fluctuates over a period of \sim 1 hour the Bragg intensities measured by a diffractometer over a period of days should be scaled based on-the systematic variations observed in a number of selected standard reflections. These reflections are measured periodically, say, every hour throughout the experiment.

Another reason to measure the standard reflections is to monitor the crystal alignment on the diffractometer. Any mechanical movement of the crystal inside the sample holder, for example, will result in a sudden decrease in the intensities of all the standard reflections.

2.9 The Lp correction

The Lorentz correction (L) is required since the time spent by the crystal in reflecting position differs from one Bragg reflection from another depending on the position in the reciprocal space. For a 4-circle diffractometer this correction is a function of 20 alone.

(Nicolet P2, and P3 reference manuals).

$$L = \frac{1}{\sin 2\theta}$$

The polarization correction (p) is required for the following reason. A certain fraction of incident beam cannot take part in

A triple-axes diffractometer and He refrigerator at Brookhaven National.

Laboratory were used for the neutron diffraction experiments. Reference
manuals may be consulted for details.

scattering if its polarization vector E happens to be in the direction of the diffracted beam. The effective incident beam intensity is thus reduced and hence the diffracted beam intensity decreases. Since this effect varies from one Bragg reflection to another the following correction is required (Nicolet reference manuals).

$$p = \left[f \frac{1 + \cos^2 2\theta_m \cdot \cos^2 2\theta_c}{1 + \cos^2 2\theta_m} + (1-f) \frac{1 + \cos^2 2\theta_m \cdot \cos^2 2\theta_c}{1 + \cos^2 2\theta_m}\right]$$

where f = 0.5 (depends on the mosaic size of monochromator)

 $2\theta_{\rm m}$ = monochromator angle = 12.160

 2θ = usual 2θ angle at the sample crystal

2.10 Absorption correction

A correction to remove the systematic errors in the measured intensities caused by radiation absorption of the sample is necessary if it contains highly radiation absorbing elements such as Hg. The following techniques were used for the structure determinations reported in this thesis.

(i) Numerical integration method

For a crystal with linear absorption coefficient μ the fraction by which the diffracted intensity is reduced by absorption is (Woolfson, 1979)

$$A = \frac{1}{V} \int_{\text{crystal}} \exp\{-\mu(\tau + \tau')\} dv \qquad (2.46)$$

where V = volume of the crystal

 $\tau(\tau')$ = length of incident (diffracted) beam inside the crystal, where the scattering takes place at volume element dv.

The correction factor applied to the measured intensity is A* = A-1

For a crystal of regular shape, e.g., a sphere with known radius

R, the factor A* becomes a function of 20 and its values_are tabulated
in the International Tables for X ray Crystallography (1959). Vol. II,

p. 302. But if the crystal has an arbitrary shape A* depends also on
the other diffractometer angles and it has to be calculated for each
reflection by evaluating the integral (2.46) numerically. In this case
the volume of the crystal is a nolyhedron defined by a set of crystal
planes whose orientations and distances from an arbitrarily chosen
origin inside the crystal are specified.

(ii) DIFABS correction:

This method developed by Walker and Stuart (1983a) assumes that the absorption correction factor can be factorized into two factors, one representing an isotropic absorption as if the crystal were a perfect sphere and the other a slowing varying function in the reciprocal space representing the anisotropic absorption due to the irregular shape of the crystal. The method is particularly useful if the crystal does not have well-defined faces and cannot be represented by a polyhedron. The absorption correction is applied as follows.

The measured intensities which have been scaled (sec. 2.8) and corrected by an Lp-correction (sec. 2.9) are subjected to the standard spherical absorption correction. The radius of the crystal R assumed

for this correction is the average radius. The resultant intensities are used to refine a model (IAM) in which the atoms are represented by isotropic temperature factors so that the yet uncorrected anisotropic absorption errors are not incorporated into the structure. Since the structure factors calculated from this model |F₁₅₀| are not greatly affected by the anisotropic errors they can be treated as the best estimates of absorption-free structure factors. The program DIFABS (Walker and Stuart, 1983b) is run at this stage to construct a slowly varying correction function (a Fourier series) and apply it to the all measured structure factors.

-1)

2.11 Primary and secondary extinction

Primary extinction is the weakening of the diffracted X ray intensity caused by destructive interference between the original diffracted beam and the diffracted radiation arising from multiple scattering. Its effect is therefore serious for a large crystal with small mosaic spread where a large volume of crystalline material can be brought into a Bragg scattering condition enhancing the probability of multiple scattering. Darwin (1914) has shown that for a perfect crystal the diffracted beam intensity is greatly reduced and is equal to $\sqrt{F*F}$ rather than F*F where F is given by eq. (2.20). Since the crystals used for X ray structure determination are small and usually have considerable mosaic spread primary extinction is negligible.

Secondary extinction is the weakening of the diffracted beam due to the weaker incident radiation experienced by the layers of the crystal further from the source since part of the radiation has already.

been scattered by the layers closer to the source. Its effect is usually seen if the crystal is in a strong scattering position. Instead of applying a correction to the measured structure factors an additional parameter g (Larson, 1967) representing this effect is introduced in the least-squares refinement and refined along with the parameters of the IAM.

2.12 Averaging equivalent reflections

Because of the Fourier transform relationship between $\overline{\rho}(r)$ and F(s) most of the crystal symmetry elements are reflected in the diffraction pattern. For a tetragonal crystal, for instance, any hkl reflection is symmetry-related (or equivalent) to the khl reflection due to the symmetry between \underline{a} and \underline{b} axes.

In practice, the observed intensities of equivalent reflections are not equal to each other because of the anisotropic absorption effects. The agreement between absorption-corrected equivalent reflections is used as an indicator of the accuracy of absorption correction.

Equivalent reflections are averaged after the absorption correction (if necessary). The program used for this purpose is AVER (Ng, 1978) which computes weighted average of equivalent reflections using $\sigma_{\rm C}^{-2}$ as the weights where $\sigma_{\rm C}$ is the statistical counting error of $|F_0|$ directly related to the counting error in intensity calculated and recorded by the diffractometer. New $\sigma_{\rm C}$ for the averaged $|F_0|$ and its e.s.d. $\sigma_{\rm A}$ based on the spread of the equivalent reflections are also calculated. Generally $\sigma_{\rm A} > \sigma_{\rm C}$ since it reflects errors from all sources of error while the other represents only the counting statistical error.

Variation of $\sigma_{\rm C}$ vs. $|{\rm F_0}|$ and $\sigma_{\rm A}$ vs. $|{\rm F_0}|$ are shown in fig. 2.5 and 2.6.

As an overall agreement index the following function, the internal agreement factor between equivalent reflections, is also calculated.

$$R_{int} = \frac{\sum_{hi} |\overline{F}_{h}| - |F_{h,i}|}{\sum_{hi} |F_{h,i}|}$$

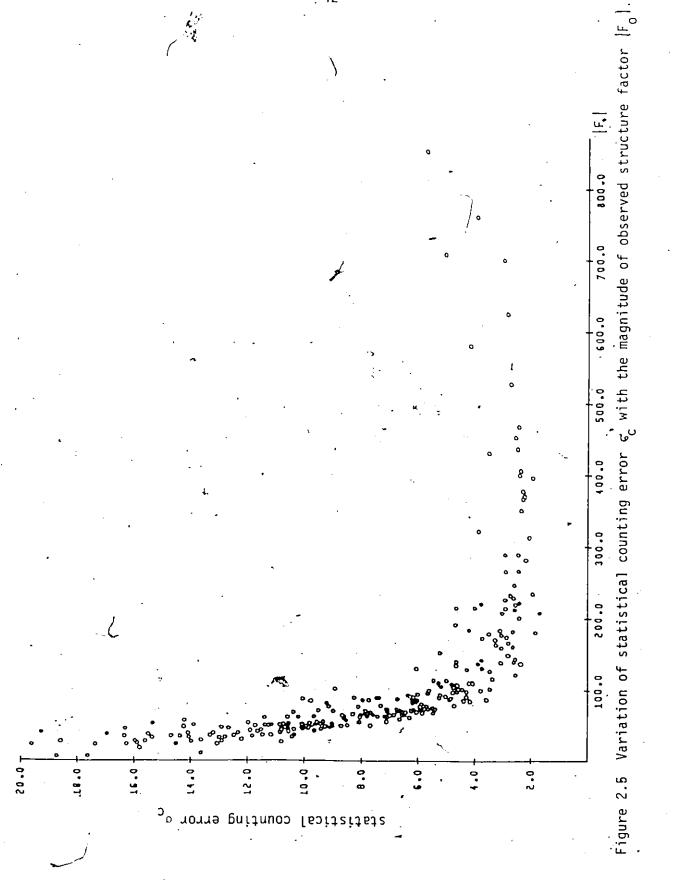
where $\frac{5}{h}$ and $\frac{5}{l}$ represent summations over independent (non-equivalent) and equivalent reflections respectively. Note that a low value of R_{int} implies good agreement between the equivalent reflections.

2.13 Methods to deduce initial IAM from the measured intensities

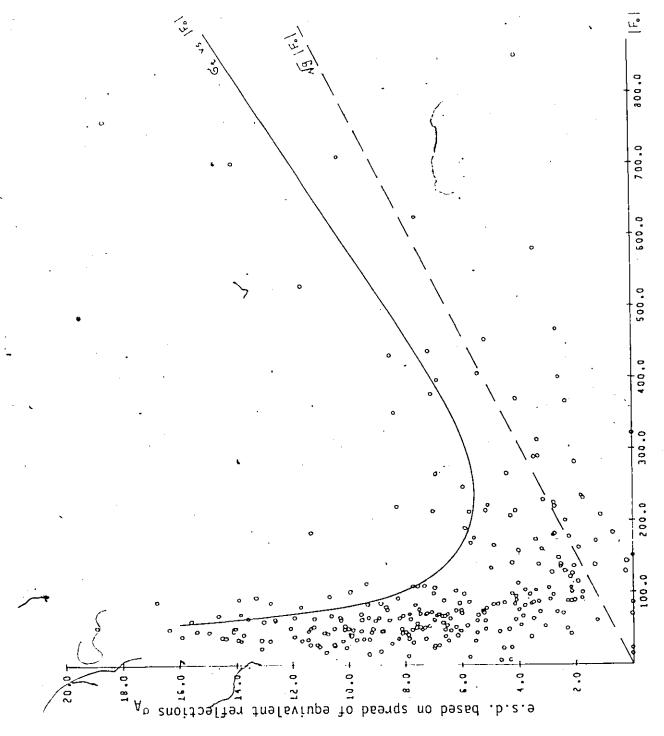
(i) Patterson function

Patterson (1934) pointed out that the information on the relative repositions of the atoms is contained in the observed Bragg intensities. He proved that the Fourier transform of the intensities (corrected for various systematic errors), $P(\vec{r})$, has peaks corresponding to all intension vectors of the structure. As an example, if a structure consists of two atoms, say, X and Y at \vec{r}_X and \vec{r}_Y of the unit cell the Patterson function will have peaks at $\vec{r}_X - \vec{r}_X$, $\vec{r}_X - \vec{r}_y + \vec{r}_y - \vec{r}_x$ and $\vec{r}_y - \vec{r}_y$. Since the first and the last vectors are null-vectors these two peaks will appear superimposed at the origin but the other peaks will remain resolved indicating the orientation of X-Y bond, a useful hint in postulating the initial model.

The Patterson function can always be calculated once the intensities are measured since the phase of I = F *F is always zero.



.5



used to establish a weighting scheme required for least-squares refinement described in sec. 2.14. Variation of $\sigma_{
m A}$ vs. $|{
m F}_{
m O}|$ (the points). The solid curve and the dashed line of slope $i^{
m G}$ are Figure 2.6

However, for a complicated structure with many atoms one might find it difficult (sometimes impossible) to interpret the Patterson function since it contains too many peaks. The aim is therefore to locate only the heaviest atoms of the structure which produce the strong Patterson peaks and then use other suitable methods to locate the lighter atoms.

(ii) Direct methods

One of the properties of the electron density distribution of the crystal $\rho(r)$ is that it is a positive quantity at every point of the unit cell. By using this property as a constraint it is possible to assign trial phases to a small number of accurately measured Bragg reflections based on the inequality relationships between the magnitudes of the structure factors (Woolfson, 1963). The phase assignment is not unique and a number of trial solutions are usually obtained by this method.

The solutions are displayed as E-maps which are the Fourier transforms of the normalized structure factors $E(hk\ell)$, a quantity directly proportional to $F(hk\ell)$ but without the reduction in magnitude produced by the small form factor values at large 20 angles.

$$E(hk\ell) = \frac{F(hk\ell)}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} f_i^2(2\theta)}$$

The crystallographer has then to decide which of the E-maps shows the most chemically plausible arrangement of the atoms. As with the Patterson function, only the heaviest atoms of the structure are usually visible on the E-maps.

(iii) Difference synthesis

This technique is used to search for the lighter atoms once the heavy atoms of the structure have been located. The difference map is obtained by Fourier transforming the quantity $(|F_0| - |F_c'|)e^{i\phi'}$ where ϕ' is the phase of the structure factor F_C' calculated by using the already found heavy atoms. Since the missing atoms are responsible for the difference between $|F_0|$ and $|F_C'|$, the map shows peaks approximately at those atomic sites.

The reliability of the map progressively improves as more and more atoms are located and added into the partial model used to calculate F'. When all the atoms have been included the difference map should ideally show no peaks. Any significant features seen on the map at this stage usually indicate that the model is incapable of representing the actual electron density of the crystal. For example, significant residual electron density is often seen in the fonding regions of the completed model (an IAM) since the model does not have any adjustable parameter to represent the bonding electron density.

2.14 Least-squares refinement

Since F_C of eq. (2.45) does not relate linearly to the parameters of the IAM a non-linear least-squares refinement is required to refine the model. Detail theory is given in many crystallographic text books (e.g., Woolfson, 1979) and highly efficient computer programs are available for this purpose. The programs used to refine the structures reported in this thesis are CUDLS (Stephens, 1964) and SHELX (Sheldrick, 1976).

The program CUDLS minimizes the following function using full-matrix refinement.*

$$\delta_{\min} = \sum_{\substack{all \\ reflections}} w(|F_0| - k|F_c|)^2$$

where w is the weight given to a reflection depending on its reliability. If σ_t represents the total standard deviation of $|F_0|$ due to all sources of error

$$w = \sigma_t^{-2}$$

is a suitable weighting scheme (Stout and Jensen, 1968). In CUDLS, $\sigma_{\mathbf{t}}$ is calculated as

$$\sigma_{t} = (\sigma_{c}^{2} + g|F_{o}|^{2})^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

where $\sigma_{\rm C}$ is the statistical counting error of averaged $|F_{\rm O}|$ calculated by the program AVER (see sec. 2:7). The second term represents the errors from other sources such as slight crystal misalignment which can be shown to be approximately linear with $|F_{\rm O}|$ (Grant et al., 1969). Fig. 2.6 shows a typical variation of $\sigma_{\rm T}$ vs. $|F_{\rm O}|$. For large $|F_{\rm O}|$ values, $\sigma_{\rm C} \rightarrow 0$ and

$$\sigma_t = \sqrt{g} |F_0|$$

where \sqrt{g} is the slope of the straight line shown in the figure.

A number of methods have been suggested to estimate the slope (e.g. see Stout and Jensen, 1968). In this thesis the parameter is chosen so that a best fit is obtained between the straight line $\sqrt{g}|F_0|$

The coefficient k of $|F_C|$ is called the overall scale factor. It is required as an adjustable parameter since the diffractometer-measured $|F_O|$ are still on an arbitrary scale.

and the variation of π_A (e.s.d. of $|F_0|$ based on the spread of equivalent reflections) against $|F_0|$ as shown in fig. 2.6.

As the indicators of agreement between $|F_0|$ and $|F_c|$ of the refined IAM the program computes the following functions. (All reflections are included in the summations)

$$R_{w} = \left[\frac{\sum_{w}(|F_{o}| - |F_{c}|)^{2}}{\sum_{w}F_{o}^{2}}\right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$R = \frac{\sum |F_0| - |F_C|}{\sum |F_0|}$$

i.e.s.d. of observations of unit weight $\sigma_1 = \left[\frac{\sum w(|F_0| - |F_c|)^2}{N_R - N_V}\right]^{\frac{1}{2}}$

where N_{R} = number of reflections

and N_V = number of parameters varied during the refinement.

Obviously, the lower the R_w and R the better the agreement. The expectation value of σ_1 is 1 since $(|F_0| - |F_c|)^2$ should approximately be $\sigma_t^2 = w^{-1}$. The value of $\sigma_1 >> 1$ suggests that the model is incapable of representing actual electron density. When $\sigma_1 << 1$ it usually implies that the weighting parameter \sqrt{g} has been over-estimated.

The program SHELX is similar to CUDLS except in the weighting scheme which has the form

$$w = k/(\sigma_c^2 + gF^2)$$

where k is a parameter to be determined after each cycle of refinement.

(g is estimated as in CUDLS). When the new set of structure factors has been calculated after the refinement k is determined by fitting

£

 $(|F_0| - |F_c|)^2$ to $(\sigma_c^2 + gF^2)$. Since the two quantities should be approximately equal, the expectation value of k is 1; i.e., the parameter k plays the role of σ_1 of CUDLS. For this reason σ_1 is not calculated by SHELX.

CHAPTER III

STRUCTURES OF Hg $_{3-\delta}MF_{6}$ (M = As, Sb, Nb, Ta) COMPOUNDS

3.1 The independent atom model for structure determination of Hg $_{3-\delta}{}^{\rm MF}_{\rm 6}$ Compounds

As described in sec. 1.3 the diffraction pattern of $Hg_{3-\delta}MF_{6}$ compounds consists of two incommensurate components, one being series of sheets of diffuse scattering in the tetragonal a* and b* directions and the other allattice of Bragg reflections with the symmetry and systematic absences of the space group_I4,/amd (see fig. 3.1). The sheets arise entirely from the Hg chains running along the two equivalent tetragonal axes while the Bragg reflections are most ₩ from the MF₆ Most lattice. Since the sheets do not coincide with the Bragg. peaks their intensity is not included in the measured Bragg reflections. However, there are certain Bragg reflections which contain contributions from the chains for the following reason. The position of the chains with respect to the host lattice is determined and commensurate with the host lattice spacing because the chains occupy the tunnels formed by the lattice. The a chains, for instance, have y and z coordinates determined by the lattice and give a Bragg scattering contribution to the Okl peaks. As the result, the measured intensities in this plane are proportional to | Fhost + Fchain | Note that the infinite U

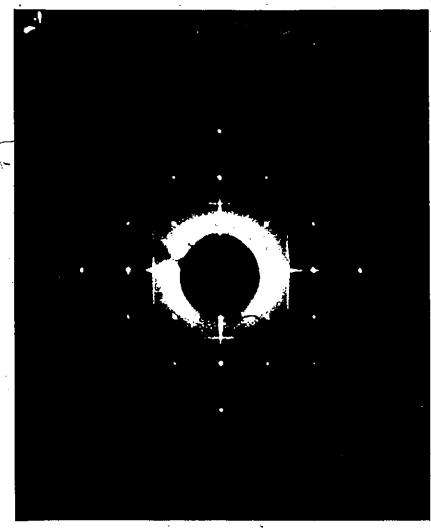


Figure 3.1.

The hkO precession photograph of $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{SbF}_6$ showing well-defined Bragg reflections from the ordered host lattice and diffuse scattering sheets perpendicular to \underline{a}^* and \underline{b}^* axes (can be seen as lines) from the disordered mercury chains.

term of the Debye-Waller factor does not quench the chain contribution to the plane with h=0, since h^2U_{11} is finite (see eq. 2.45).

It is obvious that one needs a special (and rather unusual) model to represent the electron density of the crystal $\rho(\vec{r})$ in computing F_c . All standard crystallographic computer programs assume that the unit cells are identical. One must model the chains in a way so that they contribute only to the Okl reflections and no other.

Brown, et al. (1974) modelled the chains by a closely spaced array of partial Hg atoms (16 per cell length)*. From such a chain the first non-zero contribution after the h=0 layer is on the h=16 layer (20 > 95° for MoK α radiation). Since the reflections with h > 10 have never been included in the refinements the chain contribution is effectively restricted only to the Ok ℓ plane. The partial occupancy of the atoms was held fixed throughout the refinement at the value corresponding to the actual linear density, i.e., $3-\delta/|\vec{a}|$.

With h < 10 it is possible to detect any periodic structure of the chains commensurate with the host lattice that have wavelengths > $\bar{a}/10$. The undulation of the chains described in sec. 1.3 is such a structure reported by Schultz et al. (1978).

3.2 General procedure for structure determination

For X ray structure determination ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm MF}_6$ crystals were selected inside an ultra-dry dry-box equipped with a microscope. It was desirable to use spherical crystals in order to simplify the

The rest of the model representing the host lattice is a standard independent atom model.

absorption correction but attempts to grind the crystals failed. Either the atmosphere of the dry-box or the crystal grinder was not completely moisture-free so that the crystals decomposed during grinding. Crystals with well-defined faces were therefore selected wherever possible and were inserted into glass capillaries of diameter 0.2 or 0.3 mm. Before sealing off the capillaries the crystals were pushed by using a glass fibre in order to wedge them against the tapering inside wall. This was the only means to achieve mechanical stability as the crystals were highly hygroscopic and no glue could be used.

The drystals were first examined on a precession camera to confirm that they were of good quality and isostructural with ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}^2{\rm AsF}_6$. The spacing between the diffuse scattering sheets on the photographs was measured to calculate the Hg-Hg distance within a chain.

four-circle diffractometer, either at room temperature or at a lower temperature; using the standard LTI unit supplied by the manufacturer. More information about the diffractometer and the low temperature apparatus is provided in sec. 2.7. The intensities were measured in two groups, data set (I) and (II). The former was used as usual in the least-squares refinement while the latter, chosen to include 14 complete sets of equivalent (symmetry-related) reflections, was used to improve the accuracy of absorption correction as follows.

The temperature was low enough so that the chains were in the long range order phase described in sec. 1.5. The order-disorder phase transition temperature is 120K for ${\rm Hg_{3-\delta}AsF_6}$ (Hasting et al., 1977) but it is 186K and 193K respectively for ${\rm Hg_{3-\delta}SbF_6}$ and ${\rm Hg_{3-\delta}TaF_6}$

To apply an absorption correction by using numerical integration method described in sec. 2.10 it was necessary to know the orientations and distances of the crystal faces from an arbitrarily chosen origin inside the crystal. These measurements were made on a STOE two-cirele optical goniometer. Because of the low magnification of the microscope attached to the goniometer the distance measurements were not very accurate. Any error in the distance measurements will result in poorer agreement between the absorption-corrected equivalent reflections. This effect is dramatic especially for data set II since it contains only strong low-20 reflections for which absorption is the major source of error. The distances were therefore varied within the range of their experimental uncertainties to minimize the internal agreement factor Rint of data set II after application of the absorption correction.* (Definition of R_{int} is given in sec. 2.12. A lower R_{int} represents better agreement between equivalent reflections).

The absorption correction thus obtained was applied to both data sets I and II. Other corrections applied at this stage were scaling of the measured intensities based on the fluctuations of the standard reflections (sec. 2.8) and the Lp-correction (sec. 2.9). The two data sets were then combined and the intensities were converted into magnitudes of observed structure factors $|F_0|$.

The $|F_0|$ of equivalent reflections were averaged as described in sec. 2.12 and both data sets I and II were included in the averaging.

Orientation of crystal faces and distances used for the absorption correction in each structure determination are given in Appendix I.

It was possible to calculate the estimated standard deviation σ_A of each average based on the agreement between the equivalent reflections. Since up to four equivalent reflections were included in the averaging for most of the reflections, σ_A could be assumed to be an estimate of total uncertainty in the average $|F_0|$. The parameter g of the weighting scheme used in the least-squares structure refinement was then chosen so that $\sigma_t = [\sigma_c^2 + g|F_0|^2]^{\frac{1}{2}}$ was approximately equal to σ_A . (Also see sec. 2.14)

The model to be refined by a least-squares refinement has been described in sec. 3.1. During refinement the partial Hg atoms representing the chains were allowed to move in the z-direction so that the small undulations of the chains could be determined. The initial parameters used in the refinements were those reported by Brown et al. (1974) for $Hg_{3-\delta}AsF_6$. A new feature of the present refinement was that in the final rounds U_{22} of Hg atoms (temperature factor along the chain since the chain refined is a <u>b</u> chain) was held fixed but U_{11} and U_{33} were allowed to vary separately.

The secondary extinction parameter g (Larson, 1967) was also refined in the final rounds. During the last cycle of refinement all parameters were refined and a difference map was calculated.

The magnitudes of the observed and calculated structure factors have been tabulated and deposited with McMaster University (Tun, 1984).

Table 3.1 summarizes details of the general procedure described above. Each of the next three sections discusses structure determination of the individual chain compounds with M = Sb, Nb and Ta. In each case the general procedure was followed unless otherwise stated.

Table 3.1

Summary of general procedure for structure determination $\text{ of Hg}_{3-\delta}^{\bullet} \text{MF}_6 \text{ compounds}$

The following parameters were common to all structure determinations.

Bragg intensity measurements:

Diffractometer: Nicolet P2₁

Graphite monochromated MoK α radiation, $\kappa_{\alpha} = 0.71069 \text{ Å}$

Lattice constants determined from 15 well-centered reflections

Scan procedure: $2\theta - \omega$ scan

Scan angle: 2° + angle between $K\alpha_1$ and $K\alpha_2$ peaks \prime

Background measuring time/scan time = 1

Data set (I)

Maximum $2\theta = 55^{\circ}$

 $0 \le h$, $k \le 10$, $6 \le \ell \le 16$

Data set (II)

-3 ≤ h, k, ℓ ≤ 3

Number of reflections measured: 144

Number of unique reflections: 14

Absorption correction (numerical integration method)

Program: ABSORB

Number of grid points for integration: $10 \times 10 \times 10$

Averaging:

Program: AVER

Laue group: 4/mmm

Table 3.1 (continued)

Least-squares refinement:

Program: CUDLS

Initial parameters: refined parameter of ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm AsF}_6$

Scattering factors: neutral atoms from International Tables for X ray

Crystallography (1974)

Weighting scheme: $w = [\sigma^2(\text{counting}) + gF_0^2]^{-1}$

3.3 Structure of $Hg_{3-\delta}SbF_6$ at 293K and 173K

The samples were produced at McMaster University by Dr. K.

Morgan. A crystal with well-defined faces (sample 1) was used for the room temperature (293K) structure determination. Data set II was used to establish the absorption correction but not included in the averaging. The least-squares refinement was therefore entirely based on data set I. Since the absorption affects were corrected accurately a reliable room temperature structure was obtained. Details of the structure determination are summarized in Table 3.2 while the refined atomic parameters are given in Table 3.3. The bond lengths and the important distances depicted in Fig. 3.2 and Fig. 3.3 are listed in Table 3.4.

Sample 1 was lost during an attempt to measure the Bragg intensities at low temperature. Hence, a different crystal (sample 2) was used for this experiment. It was concave on one side but the other sides had well-defined faces and the absorption correction obtained for this crystal was not very accurate. Structure refinement was based only on data set I. To permit comparisons between the low temperature and room temperature structures sample 2 was also used for a room temperature refinement but, because of the poorer absorption correction, the structure was not as accurate as that from sample 1. However, since the two structures from sample 2 suffer from the same absorption errors it is better to compare these rather than compare the sample 1 room temperature structure with the sample 2 low temperature structure. Because of the limited accuracy of the structure factors only isotropic temperature factors were used on the Hg atoms in the least-squares refinement. Details of these structure determinations, the refined

Table 3.2

Summary of structure determination of ${\rm Hg_{3-c}MF_6}$ compounds

	Hg _{3±6} SbF ₆ ; 293K	Н9 ₃₋₆ SbF ₆ ; 293К	Hg ₃₋₆ SbF ₆ ; 173K	на ₃₋₆ нь Е6; 293К	Hg ₃₋ {TaF ₆ ; 293K	Hg3-, TaF6:1150K
	Sample 1	Sample 2	Sample.2	À		-
Crystallographic composition parameter S	1 (2) 10(2)		0.134(1)	0.119(3)	0.116(4)	0.142(1)
Lattice parameter $\frac{1}{2}$ (Å)	7.711(2)	7.709(2)	7.655(1)	7.692(1)	7.711(1)	7.634(1)
	12.641(2)	12.639(3)	12.558(1)	12.679(2)	12.714(2)	12.610(2)
Volume (Å3)	751.6(5)	V	735.9(2)	750.2(2)	756.0(2)	734.9(2)
Calculated density* (Mgm^{-3})	7.22(4)		7.34(4)	6.95(1)	7.68(1)	7.847(3)
Reflections used to determine a and c	10°<26<29°	10°<20<26°	10°<26<52°	10°<28°	6°<26<26°	9°<26è27°
' Variable scan speed (deg min ⁻¹)	4.0 - 29.3	2.0 - 29.3	4.0 - 29.3	2.0 - 29.3	3.0 - 29.3	3.0 - 20.0
. Standard reflections	015, 024	015, 024	015, 024	015, 024	4 <u>2</u> 0, 008	4 <u>7</u> 0, 008
e.s.d. of standard reflections (%)	1.9, 2.1	2.3,].8	2.1, 2.3	1.1, 1.5	1.7, 1.7	2.0, 1.2
No. of standard reflection measurements	21	25	34	25	25	2.1
Data set (1): No. of reflections measured	925	933	907	933	935	912
No. of unique reflections	. 252	253	245	. 252	. 254	246
No. of uhobserved \$\$ reflections measured	504	455	596	358	221,	142
. Linear absorption, coefficient $_{ m B}$ ($_{ m mm}^{-1}$)	63.9	63.9	64.8	. 61	4.9	76.4
Maximum absorption correction; reflection	30.31; 011	430.11; 002	300.90; 101	37.78†*	141.13; 011	182.76; 011
Minimum absorption correction; reflection	11.67; 097	16.63; 4,1,15	16.68; 5,1,14	20.88	2.175; 200	2.175; 200
internal agreement factor Rintlidata set	0.146; 1	not computed	not computed	0.056; 1+11	0.181; 1+11	(see S)
before absorption correction	0.096; 11	0.173; 11	0.187; 11		0.189; 11	
Internal agreement factor	0.119; 1	0.166; 1+11	0.190; 1	(See)	0.052; 1+11	0,079; 1
after absorption correction	0.037; 11	0.101; 11	× 0:119; 11		0.023; 11	
Weighting parameter •9	0.0135	0. 0560	0.1100	0.0109	0.0180	0.0425

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Table 3.2 (continued)

			,			
	119 _{3-s} Sbf ₆ ; 293K Sample 1	14 _{3- E} SbF ₆ ; 293K Sample 2	1193-656; \$73K	! !	Н9 _{3-к} Нbг ₆ : 293к Н9 _{3-к} Гаг ₆ : 293к	1193-A Taf 6: 150).
Final R, (all reflections)	0.033	0.063	0.071	0.033	0.029	0.045
Final R [†] (all reflections)	0.040	0.057	0.058	0.031	0.4025	0.039
s.d. of an observation of unit weight	1.24	0.89	0.62	1.83	1.24	1.03
Maximum shift/error in final cycle	0.34	0.36	0.54	. 0.29	ម.០	0.11
Average shift/error in final cycle	0.03	0.03	0.14	0.04	0.04	.0.02
Secondary extinction correction g (x10 ⁷)	1.2(2)	1.0(5)	2.4(7)	0.3(2)	1.4(2)	3.8(6)
Mumber of variables refined	. 25	. 12	21	25	25	25
Residual electron density: maximum $(e^{\hat{a}^{-3}})'$	+1.7	+1.5	+2.8	+0.7	+2.0	•6.3
היחוחות:-	-1.5	-1.6	-3.0	-1.1	-1.0	6.1-
		٠				

Ignbring anion deficiency reported by Schültz et al. (1978).

** See definition in Sec. 2.12.

† See definition in Sec. 2.14.

The crystal orientation remained unchanged during the room temperature and low temperature experiments so that it was not necessary to check the validity of absorption correction by computing R_{int} before the correction. Data set II was not needed since the same absorption correction was used. †† Standard spherical absorption cgrrection. It is a function of 20 only and $R_{
m int}$ is not affected by the correction.

58 Reflections with $1 < 3\sigma_1$.

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Table 3.3 Refined atomic parameters of ${\rm Hg_{3-6}MF_6}$ compounds

	·.	*					
4	Hg ₃₋₆ AsF ₆ * room temperature	Hg ₃₋₆ SbF ₆ ; 293K sample l	Н9 ₃₋₆ 5bF6; 293К sample 2	H9 ₃₋₆ SbF ₆ ; 173K sample 2	н ₃₋₆ иъ _Б с 293к	Н9 ₃₋₆ ТаҒ ₆ ; 293К	н _{93-с} Тағ _, 6; 150к
Positional parameters:					•		
Hg(1) [†] x	(See **)	0	0	0	0	0	0
, x		1/32	1/32	1/32	1/32	1/32	1/32
2		0.0000(10)	-0.0010(10)	-0.0013(5)	-0.0011(6)	-0.0007(5)	-0.0016(4)
Hg(2) [†] x		0	0	0	. 0	0	0
×		3/32	3/32	3/32	3/32	3/32	3/32
. 7		-0.0003(8)	-0.0006(8)	-0.0003(4)	-0.0008(5)	-0.0009(4)	-0.0010(4)
н9(3) [†] х	•	0 ,	0	0	0.	0	. 0
, y,		5/32	5/32	5/32	5/32	5/32	5/32
7		0.0013(6)	0.0019(6)	0.0015(4)	0.0009(4)	0.0014(4)	0.0010(3)
н9(4) х х №		. 0	0	. 0	0	, 0	0
, ·		7/32	7/32	7/32	7/32	7/32	. 7/32
		0.0029(3)	0.0025(4)	0.0028(3)	0.0020(2)	0.0023(2)	0.0024(2)
× 2°	0	0	0	0	0	0	
X	1/4	1/4	1/4	1/4	1/4	1/4	1/4
2	3/8	3/8	3/8	3/8	3/8	3/8	3/8

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	Hg _{3-&} AsF ₆ room temperature	**************************************	Hg ₃₋₆ 5bF ₆ ; 293K sample 2	Hg _{3-&} SbF ₆ ; 173K sample 2	н _{93-б} иьг ₆ ; 293к	н ₉₃₋₆ ТаҒ _Б і 293к	н9 ₃₋₆ Тағ ₆ ; 150к
F(1) ×	0	,	. 0		0	0	0
x	1/4	1/4	4/14	1/4	1/4	1/4	1/4
. 2	0.2377(2)	0.2291(9)	0.2302(13)	0.2267(12)	0.2272(6)	0.2268(9)	0.2253(11)
F(2) x	0.6611(3)	0.672(2)	0.672(2)	0.673(2)	0.673(1)	0.673(1)	0.675(1)
, > -	*** ·	₹+x	x+*	~** **	***	ž₁+×	プ+×
. 2	1/8	1/8	1/8	7/8	7/8	7/8	7/6
Thermal Parameters (A ²	x 10 ³)		٠				J1 -
нg(1) U ₁₁ \$	(See **)	. 49(3)	57(1)	29(1)	66(2)	57(1)	23(1)
, U22		51			61	26	24
, U ₃₃		54(3)			57(2)	57(2)	25(2)
" 12		0			· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	•	0
. _{U13}					0	0	0
U23	-		,		0 .	0	
нg(2) [†] U ₁₁		57(5)	. (1)55	28(1)	(3)	56(2)	24(2)
^U 22		20			59	55	24 77
U ₃₃		47(4)		· •	57(3)	55(2)	24(2)
. 210		0		. ·	0	0	0
U ₁₃		0	•		0	. 0	0
., ida		0	•	÷~	0	0	0
	ر			٠	-	,	continued

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	•							
		Hg ₃₋₆ AsF ₆ * room temperature	Н9 ₃₋₆ SbF ₆ ; 293К sample 1	Н9 ₃₋₆ SbF ₆ ; 293К sample 2	Н9 ₃₋₆ 5bF ₆ ; 173K sample 2	н ₃₋₆ ^{НБ F} ₆ ; 293К	Н9 _{3-¢} ТаҒ ₆ ; 293х	Н9 _{3-г} Тағ ₆ ; 150қ
нд(3) И,			47(4)	51(1)	26(1)	, 62(3)	57(2)	23(2)
1 °C			. 48			56	53	23
, U			45(4)			53(2)	49(2)	23(2)
ες η ε.			0			0 .	10	0
51 U13						0	0 .	0
			0			0	0	0
			52(3)	50(1)	26(1)	64(2)	57(1)	25(1)
			47			56		22
22 لاي			43(2)			49(1)	47(1)	(1)61
ες. -(1)			°,			, 0	0	0
ביות ביות			•			0	0	0
U _{2,3}		14	0			0	0.	0
, M		32(1)	31(2)	33(2)	16(2)	45(1)	34(1)	13(1)
U22		u u	U ₁₁	U ₁₁	U)	^ل 11	11،	υ ₁₁ .
U 33 ,		22(1)	21(1)	.25(1)	. (1)11	29(1)	25(1)	12(1):
در _۱ ۱		. ♣0	0	0	0	0 .	0	0
12 U ₁₃		0	0	0	0	0	0	0,
د. ر		0	0	. 0	0	0	. 0	.0
				·		-	7	. continued

Table 3.3 (continued)

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6: 150K		<u>/</u>										
8193-11aF6:			15(6)	0	0	0	19(4)		29(4)	-5(3)	-023	3(6)
H93-6 TaF6; 293	\$6(7)	(2)	ts/or	(0,	0	s)	50(4)	, , ,	(9)68	-11(3)	-U ₂ 3	5(7)
н ₉₃₋₆ нь ₆ ; 293к	86(9)	153(13)	27(4)	0	·°	0	58(5)	Lta	89(5)	-13(3)	-023	2(6)
Hg ₃₋₆ SbF ₆ ; 173K sample 2	*43(11)	36(10)	19(7)	0.	0	0	27(6)	11 ₀	35(6)	-4(4)	-023	7(8)
Hg ₃₋₆ SbF ₆ ; 293K sample 2	45(11)	108(18)	36(8)	0.	0	0	46(7)	^U 11 .	78(9)	. (5)/-	- ^{- 0} 23	-4(10)
Hg ₃₋₆ SbF ₆ ; 293K sample l	58(1)	150(18)	15(6)	• 0	• 0	0	45(8)	. "1"	. (2)08	-14(5)	- ^U 23	3(9)
Hg ₃₋₆ AsF ₆ * room temperature	72(2)	121(3)	24(1)	0	0	0	48(1)	, n	79(2)	-13(1)	- ^U 23	.7(1)
				•			. •		,		-	
	F(1) U ₁₁	U ₂₂	U ₃₃	112	U ₁₃	r Uż₃	$F(2) = U_{11}$	U ₂₂	U ₃₃	U ₁₂	εt _η .	. U ₂₃

* Structure refined by Schultz et al. (1978) by using neùtron diffraction.

† The incommensurate chains are represented by 4 closely spaced Hg atoms with a partial occupancy corresponding to the actual linear density.

 $\mathbf{S}_{\mathbf{j}_{\mathbf{50}}}$ if isotropic temperature factor was used.

5 independent Hg atoms instead of 4 were used by Schultz at al-1978

Table 3.4 $\,\sim\,$: Bond lengths and important distances (Å) in ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}M_{\rm F}^{\rm c}$ &ompounds

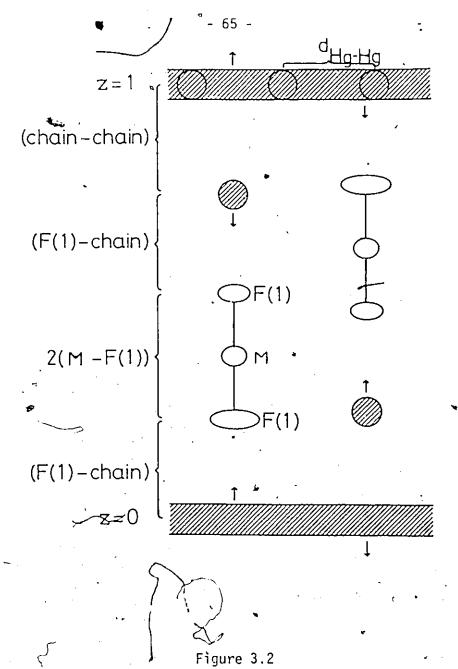
		,	•				
•	Hg ₃₋₆ AsF ₆ * room temperature	Hg ₃₋₆ SbF ₆ ; 293K sample l	Н9 ₃₋₆ SbF ₆ ; 293K sample 2	Hg ₃₋₆ SbF ₆ ; 173K sample 2	н _{д-6} мь ⁶ ; 293к	Н9 ₃₋₆ ТаF ₆ : 293К	нд ₃₋₆ Тағ ₆ ; 150к
	\$ = 0.178(6)	ξ = 0.10 (2)		6 = 0.134(1)	δ = 0.119(3)	ξ = 0.116(4)	5 = 0.142(1)
rs)	7.534(📆	7.711(2)	·	7.655(1)	7.692(1)	7,711(1)	7.634(1)
υl	12.395(8)	12,841(2)		12.558(1)	.12.679(2)	12.714(2)	12.610(2)
* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *	2.670(5)	2.66 (2)	•	2.671(1)	. 2.670(3)	2.674(4)	2.671(1)
$3-6 = a/d_{Ho-Ho}$	2.822(6)	2.90 (2)		2.866(1)	2.881(3)	2.884(4)	2.858(1)
	0.07 (1)	0.037(4)	0.032(5)	0.035(4)	0.026(3)	0.030(3)	0.030(3)
×F(1) (x2)	1.702(2)	(1) \$4 (1)	1.83 (2)	1.86 (2)	1.874(8)	1.88 (1)	1.89 (1)
M-F(2) (x4)	1.720(2)	(1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1) (1)	1.88 (2)	1.87 (1)	1,885(6)	1.884(6)	1.893(8)
chain-chain 🖰	3.24 (2)	3.20(0.)	3.22 (1)	3.210(8)	3.322(7)	3.239(6)	3.213(6)
F(1)-chain ^{\$} (xl.)	2.87 (1)	2.86 (1)	2.88 (1)	3 8:2	2.(86 (1)	2.86 (1)	2.81 (1)
F(2)-chain ^S (x2)	2.981(5)	2.98 (1)	2.98 (1)	2.959(6)	2.971(4)	2.983(4)	2.937(5)
		Ď¢.					

From Schultz et al. (1978) except a, c and d_{Hg-Hg} from Pouget et H_{g} (1978).

Room temperature values were calculated from the spacing between the diffuse scattering sheets on precession photographs. Low temperature values were determined by the diffractometer using ataleast 4 well centered darrox diffraction peaks arising from the ordered Hg chains.

For the chain with z=0 (see fig. 3.2) uo is the z coordinate of the chain at y=1: Maximum displacement of the chain from its mean position:

The closest contact distance between the two neighbouring perpendicular chains which is greater than c/4 by 2u₀. (see f1g. 3.2) Shortest distance to the neighbouring chain. (see £19. 3.2 and 3.3)



Arrangement of atoms in the x=0 plane. The shaded sections represent Hg chains seen end on (circles) or side on (bars). The undulation of the chains is too small to show on this scale but the maximum displacement, u₀, takes place in the directions indicated by the arrows.

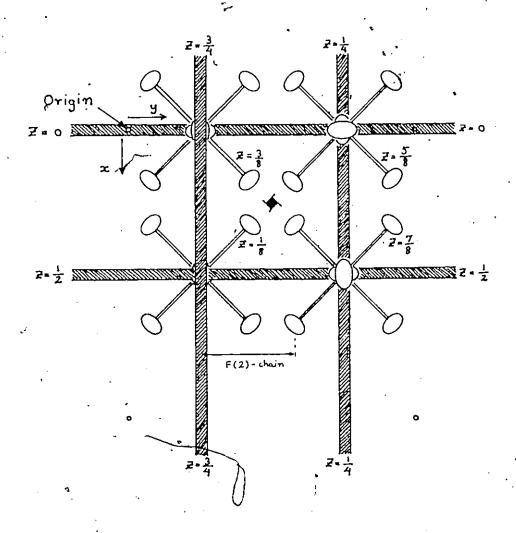


Figure 3.3 The <u>a-b</u> projection of the ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{}^{\rm MF}{}_6$ structure. The shaded regions represent the Hg chains.

atomic parameters and the bond lengths are listed respectively in Tables 3.2, 3.3 and 3.4.

3.4 Structure of Hg₃₋₅NbF₆ at 293K

Crystals prepared at McMaster University by Dr. P. Ummat were used for the X ray investigation. Since the crystals were small (about 0.1 - 0.2 mm) they could not be wedged securely inside the capillaries causing sample movement during the intensity measurements. This problem was extremely serious at low temperatures and no low temperature measurements could be made for this reason.

The small size of the crystals made the numerical integration absorption correction unsuitable since it was impossible to make sufficiently accurate measurements of the crystal size. An approximately spherical crystal with diameter of 0.1 mm was therefore used to measure the Bragg intensities which were then corrected by using the standard spherical absorption correction described in sec. 2.10. Since the internal agreement factor R_{int} of data set II was only 0.056 the spherical absorption was all that was needed. See table 3.2, 3.3 and 3.4 for details of structure determination and the resultant structure.

3.5 Structure of Hg_{3-x}TaF₆ at 293K and 150K

A crystal with well-defined faces produced by Dr. P. Ummat was used for the intensity measurements both at 293K and 153K. Data set II was only measured at 293K as it was only necessary to establish the absorption correction at one temperature. Details of structure determination, refined atomic parameters and bond lengths and other distances are given in Tables 3.2, 3.3 and 3.4 respective.

3.6 Discussion

In Table 3.4 the chain compounds are arranged in the order of increasing size of MF $_6$ ions. The ionic size variation can be seen in both M-F(1) and M-F(2) bond lengths. For the AsF $_6$ and SbF $_6$ (293K) ions M-F(1) is slightly shorter than M-F(2) but the difference is insignificant in the other cases. Brown et al.(1982) attributed this difference to the different environments of the F atoms, F(1) has a single neighbouring chain at 2.87 Å while F(2) has two such chains at 2.98 Å.

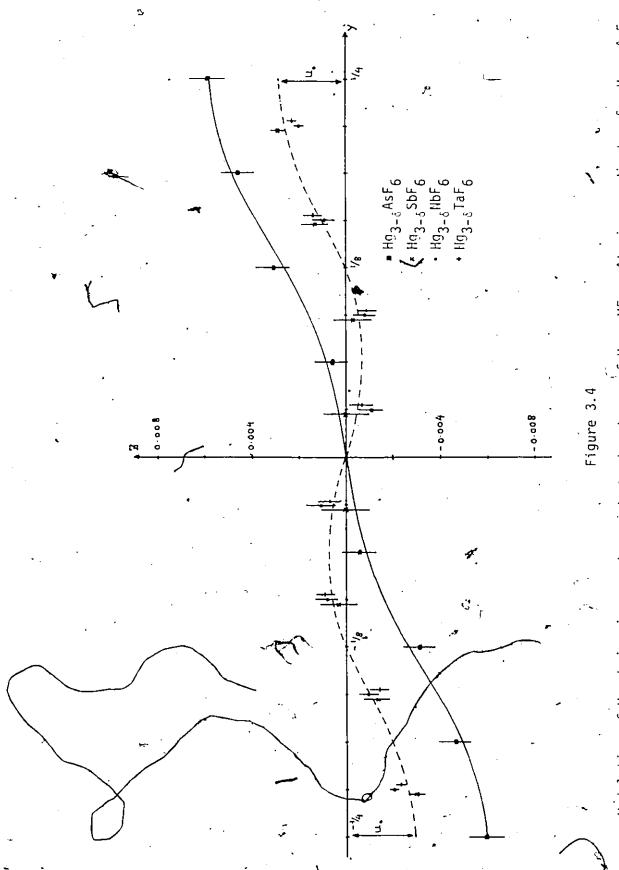
The table also shows that the other interatomic distances which do not involve the M atom (i.e., d_{Hg-Hg} , chain-chain, h(1)-chain, F(2)-chain) are constant in all the compounds at room temperature.

The undulation of the chains is observed in every compound. It is largest in the case of smallest ${\sf AsF}_6$ ion but decreases for the larger ions. Fig. 3.4 shows the chain undulation observed in the room temperature structures.

None of the room temperature a_{Hg-Hg} distances differ significantly from 2.671 Å, the value found at lower temperatures in both $Hg_{3-\delta}SbF_6$ and $Hg_{3-\delta}TaF_6$ indicating no observable thermal expansion of the chains.* Since zero expansion is a characteristic of a harmonic potential (Kittel, 1976), the ordered lattice formed by the chains below the phase transition temperature T_c must be harmonic. The temperature-independent bond length is in accordance with the inverse relation known to exist between the bond valence and the thermal

Lack of thermal expansion the chains in $Hg_{3-\delta}AsF_{6}$ was noted by Pouget et al. (1978) who measured $d_{Hg_{7}Hg}=2.670(5)^{6}$ A over the temperature range of 300 - 10 K.

Emery-Axe theory (1978) discussed in sec. 2.5 treats the chains above T_c as 1-dimensional harmonic liquid.



Undulation of Hg chains in room temperature structures of ${\rm Hg_{3-6}MF_6}$. Atomic coordinates for ${\rm Hg_{3-6}AsF_6}$

were taken from Schultz et al. (1978).

expansion coefficient of a bond (Khan, 1976). The Hg-Hg bonds are strong bonds with a high bond valence of 0.77 (Brown, Gillespie, Morgan, Tun, Ummat, submitted to Inorg. Chem.) and are expected to have very small thermal expansion.

The host lattice whose ions are linked by bonds of relatively low valence contracts significantly with temperature. The effect can be seen in low temperature structures of $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{SbF}_6$ and $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{TaF}_6$ listed in Table 3.4. Among the interatomic distances the contraction is most noticeable in the F-chain distances and chain-chain distance which are the weakest interactions of the structure. The M-F bond lengths (bond valence = $\frac{5}{6}$ = 0.83) do not change significantly. No stress is exerted on the chains by the host lattice contraction because, as argued by Sacco and Sokoloff (1978), the two components are completely decoupled and the chains are rigid enough to flow almost freely along the tunnels of the host lattice. This leads to the phenomenon of Hg extrusion from the lattice at low temperatures (Datars et al., 1978).

The anisotropic temperature factors U_{11} and U_{33} of the Hg atoms listed in Table 3.3 measure the extent of the lateral vibrations of the chains directed along the $\underline{0}$ axis. None of the compounds show significant variation of $U_{11}^{(1)}$ along the chain indicating that the lateral vibration in the a-b plane is uniform. However, U_{33} which measures the chain vibration in the \underline{c} direction does vary and becomes a minimum at the points where the chain is clamped by the neighbouring perpendicular chain and $\underline{c}(1)$ atom (see Fig. 3.2).

The thermal parameters of the M atoms show a small anisotropy with $U_{11}>U_{33}$ (see Table 3.3). The anisotropy is the largest in the case of $Hg_{3-\delta}NbF_6$ but this is probably an artifact of the simple?

spherical absorption correction which leads to larger than usual $\textbf{U}_{\mbox{\scriptsize ll}}$ values for all the atoms.

A much larger anisotropy is observed in F(1) and F(2). The U_{22}^{+} of F(1), i.e., the mean-square thermal motion of F(1) parallel to the nearest chain is \sim 3 times larger than $U_{\tilde{1}\tilde{1}}$ (see fig. 3.2) while U_{33} of F(2) is \sim 2 times larger than the corresponding U₁₁. Tun and Brown (1982) explained this unusually large amisotropy as follows. Since the chains are incommensurate with the host lattice each F(1) atom has a different arrangement of nearest Hg atoms which in general are not symmetrical about the M-F(1) bond. This asymmetric arrangement induces a static disorder of F(1) in the direction of the chain leading to a static librational disorder of the rigid MF $_{
m 6}$ ion and also the apparently large U_{33} of equatorial F(2) atoms. The argument, however, is not supported by the low temperature thermal parameters of Table 3.3. the chains remain incommensurate with the host lattice even at low temperatures, according to this argument only a small decrease is expected in U_{22} of F(1). Its dramatic decrease which is approximately proportional to k_BT suggests that the large anisotropy is due to a real thermal motion of the atoms rather than a static disorder.

CHAPTER IV

DENSITY FLUCTUATIONS OF THE CHAINS OF Hg3-8MF6 COMPOUNDS AND THE FREEZING OF THE 1-DIMENSIONAL LIQUID

4.1 · Introduction

In sec. 2.5, it was pointed out that the room temperature behaviour of the chains of $Hg_{3-\delta}MF_6$ compounds can be explained by a model in which each chains assumed to be an isolated harmonic chain, i.e., the neighbouring atoms of a chain interact with a harmonic potential but do not interact with the nearby chains, either parallel or perpendicular, or with the host lattice. The chains are completely (or almost completely) disordered with respect to each other and hence the room temperature phase is called the disorder phase or D-phase.

In the D-phase each chain is an independent 1-dimensional system. As in the other 1-dimensional systems, the chains do not have a long range internal order in spite of a good short range order resulting from the stiff Hg-Hg bonds. The X ray or neutron diffraction from the 1-dimensional chains is typical of that from a liquid sample and each chain behaves like a 1-dimensional liquid (Spal et al., 1980; also see fig. 2.2).

4.2 Prediction of low temperature phase(s)

What happens to the chains when the sample is cooled to lower temperatures? One might expect a Peierls transition because of the

large flat Fermi surfaces at $\pm k_F$. The transition will occur if the energy gained by introducing a new periodicity with the wavevector $2k_F$ is larger than the energy required to distort the Hg-Hg bonds of the chains. Since these bonds are very stiff it is unlikely that the chains will undergo a Peierls transition even at a very low temperature.

For a disordered system one generally expects to observe an increase in ordering at lower temperatures because of the lower entropy. Development of an infinite long range order within a single chain can be precluded since, as shown in sec. 2.5, the chains will never have a long range order as long as their dimensionality is not higher than one. In order to increase the dimensionality each chain must order with its surroundings, either with the host lattice or the nearby chains, and become a part of an ordered lattice of higher dimension.

Sacco and Sokoloff (1978) have demonstrated that the chains in ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm MF}_6$ crystals can flow almost freely through the host lattice. The most possible ordering process is therefore the one which involves displacement of the chains in their channels. Since the Hg-Hg bonds are associated with a high bond valence the bond length is expected to be (almost) temperature-independent (Khan, 1976). There are three possibilities of ordering between a chain and its surroundings.

- (i) chain-host lattice ordering
- (ii) ordering between parallel chains
- (iii) ordering between perpendicular chains

The rest of this section is devoted to examining the above possibilities. A theorem which will prove useful for the discussion in Axe's Theorem (Axe, 1980).

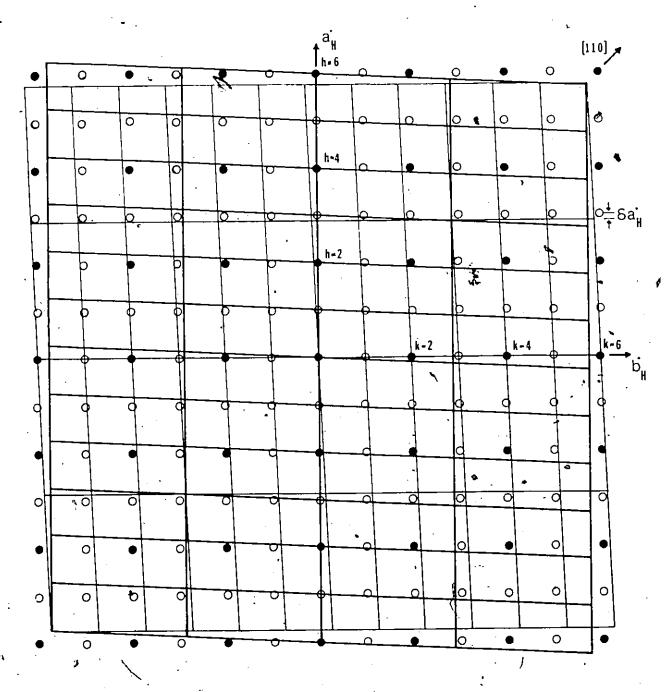


Figure 4.1

The $\underline{a*-b*}$ plane of the reciprocal space of $Hg_{3-8}MF_6$ structure. The circles represent well-defined reciprocal lattice points (black = observed, white = systematically absent) while the lattices shown by the lines arise from two sets, of ordered Hg chains coupled coherently according to Axe's Theorem (light lattice from \underline{a} chains and dark lattice from \underline{b} chains).

Axe's Theorem: Two (or more) interpenetrating sublattices

are coupled coherently only when they share

at least one set of reciprocal lattice

points.*

This theorem is the "Fourier transform" of the principle which states that two sublattices can couple coherently only if they are commensurate at least in one common direction.

(i) chain-host lattice ordering

S

Fig. 4.1 depicts the hkO plane of the reciprocal space. It is similar to the precession photograph shown in Fig. 3.1, but the systematically absent reflections are also included. The closest host reciprocal lattice points to the first order Hg sheet (n=1) are the 3kO reflections. If these reflections could be moved onto the sheet the required ordering would be achieved since the chains could then arrange themselves to form an Hg unit cell of $\vec{a} = \vec{d}_{Hg-Hg} = \frac{1}{3}\vec{a}_H$, $\vec{b} = \vec{b}_H$ and $\vec{c} = \vec{c}_H$. This however does not happen because the 3kO reflections move further from the sheet when the sample is cooled. Is it possible to achieve ordering by warming up the crystal? The required expansion of the host lattice is $\frac{\delta}{3}$ x100% or $\sim 5\%$. Because of the size of this

[&]quot;Ordering" and "coherent coupling" are not the same and are used in this chapter with the following meanings.

Two (or more) lattices are said to be ordered if they share all reciprocal lattice points, i.e., they combine into a <u>one</u> single lattice which is described by a single unit cell.

Two (or more) lattices are said to be coupled coherently if they share only some of the reciprocal lattice points.

Both ordering and coherent coupling are associated with a lowering of the total energy but the former is a special case of the latter.

expansion one may safely ignore the possibility of ordering between the host lattice and the chains at any temperature.

(ii) Ordering between parallel chains

According to Axe's Theorem the parallel ordering is possible, since it will produce reciprocal lattice points in the planes of the diffuse scattering sheets which are common to all the parallel chains. This ordering would be favoured if the temperature is low enough so that the parallel chain interaction is $\sim k_B T$. Each chain has four nearest parallel chains (~ 7.4 Å apart) and two second-nearest parallel chains (~ 7.6 Å apart). Separations of > 7 Å are too large for any kind of direct interaction except a pure Coulomb interaction which would be heavily screened by the host lattice. However, an indirect interaction through small local distortions of the host lattice is a possibility.

Any parallel chain ordering will result in replacing the diffuse scattering sheets by Bragg peaks. It is not possible to predict the exact position of the peaks without knowing details of the interaction but they must appear in the planes of the corresponding sheets since d_{Hg-Hg} remains unchanged on cooling. For example, an orthorhombic unit cell with $\vec{a} = \vec{d}_{Hg-Hg}$, $\vec{b} = \vec{b}_H$, $\vec{c} = \vec{c}_H$ will produce peaks at $n(3-\delta)\vec{a}_H^*$, $k\vec{b}_H^*$, $\ell\vec{c}_H^*$. Archange in the unit cell angles will be reflected by a displacement of the peaks in the \vec{b}_H^* or \vec{c}_H^* direction but they will remain on the $n(3-\delta)\vec{a}_H^*$ planes.

(iii) Ordering between perpendicular chains

The interaction between perpendicular chains at their points of closest approach is probably strong because of the short contact

distance (3.2 A) which is comparable to the distances found in metallic mercury. As in the case of parallel chains, indirect interactions through small local distortions of the host lattice are also possible.

However, the positions of the crossings of the chains have the host lattice spacings and will always be incommensurate with the Hg-Hg distance in the chain. A full perpendicular chain ordering is therefore prevented by the same factor which prevents the chain-host lattice ordering.

This obstruction to the ordering does not necessarily rule out the possibility of establishing coherent coupling between the perpendicular chains. According to Axe's Theorem the <u>a</u> chains and <u>b</u> chains can couple coherently if they arrange themselves to produce reciprocal lattice points at the intersections of the sheets. The resulting lattices are indicated by the light and the dark lines shown in Fig. 4.1. The ordered <u>a</u> chains and <u>b</u> chains are coupled by sharing reciprocal lattice points at $n(3-\delta)\ddot{a}_{H}^{\star}$, $n(3-\delta)\ddot{b}_{H}^{\star}$, $\ell \ddot{c}_{H}^{\star}$. The crystal may have another domain in which the chains are coupled by sharing $n(3-\delta)\ddot{a}_{H}^{\star}$, $-n(3-\delta)\ddot{b}_{H}^{\star}$, c_{H}^{\star} reciprocal lattice points.

Although Axe's Theorem predicts that both the parallel ordering and the perpendicular coherent coupling are possible it does not provide any clue to which ordering mechanism would be dominant at a given temperature since the details of the chain interactions are unknown. For this matter, one would have to resort to experimental investigations.

4.3 Early low temperature neutron scattering experiments on Hg_{3-s}AsF₆

The low temperature ordering of the Hg chains was first studied by Hastings et al., (1977). They observed both parallel ordering and perpendicular coupling between the chains. More detailed results and interpretation are provided by the same authors in a later publication (Pouget et al., 1978). Fig. 4.2(a) and (b) are the reproduction of two diagrams reported in that paper.

The first diagram shows the intensity distribution along the line $(3-\delta,\,n,\,0)$, i.e., the intersection between the first diffuse scattering sheet and the a*b*-plane. The room temperature scan gave almost a uniform intensity distribution.* When the temperature was lowered broad peaks gradually appeared at $n=\pm\,0.4$. Since they appeared at a general position rather than at the intersection of the sheets Pouget et al. identified them as arising from parallel chain ordering. The peaks grew in intensity as the temperature was decreased but remained broad. They reached a maximum intensity at T=125 K and then suddenly dropped (see Fig. 4.2(b)). At 120 K they had dropped by more than a factor of 2.

Over this same temperature range a new set of peaks appeared at $n=1+\delta$. The position of the peaks at the sheet intersections shows that they resulted from the perpendicular chain coupling predicted by the Axe's Theorem. -The peaks were narrow even at T=125 K and no critical scattering could be observed meaning that the ordered regions

The scan in fact shows a small intensity modulation which presumably will disappear at higher temperatures. For convenience in this thesis the room temperature phase will be treated as if it is completely disordered.

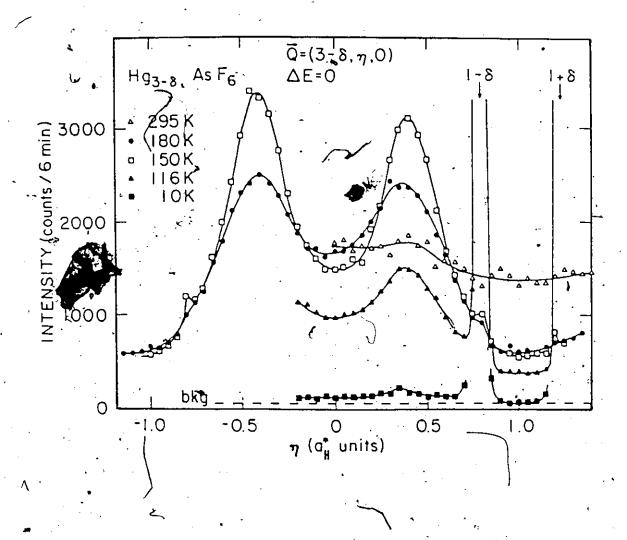


Figure 4.2(a)

The $(3-\delta, n, 0)$ scan of $Hg_{3-\delta}AsF_6$ at various temperatures. (After Pouget et al., 1978). The broad peaks observed at T > 120K signal development of a short range order between parallel chains (S-phase) while the narrow peaks at T < 120K represent a long range ordered phase (L2phase).

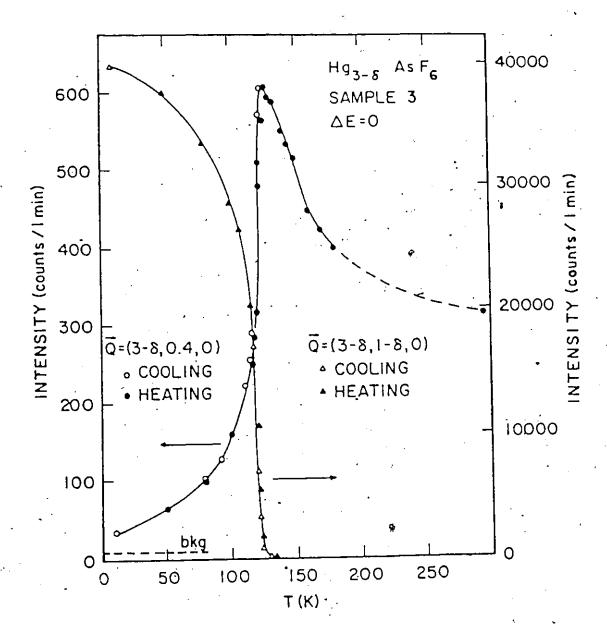


Figure 4.2(b)

Intensity variation of the broad peaks (circles) and the narrow peaks (triangles) with temperature (Pouget et al., 1978). The phase transition temperature T_c for $Hg_{3-\delta}AsF_6$ is taken to be 120K.

must have grown very quickly to macroscopic sizes. At 120 K the intensity of the narrow peaks is already higher than that of the broad peaks and this temperature is taken as the phase transition temperature, T.

The broadness of the peaks observed at T > 120 K indicates that the ordering between the parallel chains is poor and extends only over short distances. For this reason this phase of $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{AsF}_6$ is called the short range order phase or S-phase. The D-phase and S-phase are not separated by a phase boundary. The former is merely the extreme case of the latter with a vanishingly small ordering between the parallel chains.

The narrowness of the peaks at T < 120 K is characteristic of ordering over very large distances. The corresponding phase is therefore called the long range order phase or L-phase.

This thesis describes work on the S-phase (sec. 4.4) and the L-phase (sec. 4.5) of ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm SbF}_6$ and ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm TaF}_6$. To make the discussion complete the corresponding phase of ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm AsF}_6$ studied by Pouget et al. (1978) is reviewed at the beginning of each section before describing the work on the new compounds. No study has been made for ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm NbF}_6$ because the crystals were too small and could not be fixed inside the capillaries especially at low temperatures.

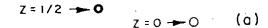
4.4 The S-phase

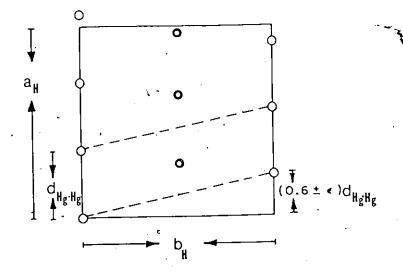
(i) Studies on Hg₃₋₈AsF₆

Pouget et al. observed broad S-phase peaks of $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{AsF}_6$ at $3-\delta$, \pm 0.4; 0 (Fig. 4.2(a)). On the ℓ =1 layer similarly broad peaks were observed 6ut at $3-\delta$, \pm 0.6, 1. Although these peaks attain a

maximum intensity at T = 125 K no intensity modulation was observed on the second order diffuse scattering sheets even at that temperature. The authors explained this diffraction pattern by assuming two domains of partially ordered parallel chains. One such domain is shown in Fig. 4.3. The chains at y = 0 (z = 0 and 1) and $y = \frac{1}{2}$ ($z = \frac{1}{2}$) are ordered so that the unit cell defined by the Hg atoms is body-centered monoclinic while the chains at y = 1 (z = 0 and 1) are shifted with respect to these at y = 0 by about 0.6 d_{Hq} giving the diffraction peak at $(3-\delta, +0.4, 0)$. The peak at $(3-\delta, -0.6, 0)$ is systematically absent because of body-centering. In order to explain the broadening of the peaks on the first diffuse scattering sheet Pouget et al. could not simply assume that the ordered regions are small since this would give broad peaks with similar width on all the higher order sheets (see sec. 2.4). The absence of the peaks on the second order sheet was explained by introducing an uncertainty ϵ in the displacement of the chains at y = 1. This uncertainty which is associated with an uncertainty in the unit cell angle γ broadens the diffraction peaks and, as shown in Fig. 4.3, the higher the order of the reflection the broader the peak $(|\vec{q}| - \text{dependent broadening})$. If the uncertainty in γ is in the right range all the peaks on the second order sheet will be sufficiently broad as to be unresolved while those on the first order sheet are still narrow enough to be resolved. The S-phase peaks shown in Fig. 4.2(a) have a width (FWHM; full-width at half-maximum) of about 0.4 \vec{a}_{H}^{\star} corresponding to an uncertainty in the relative position of the chains ϵ of about \pm 0.2 d_{Hg-Hg}.

In the other domain the shift of the y = 1 chains is about





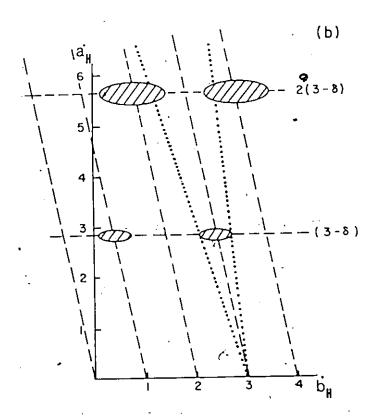


Figure 4.3

Arrangement of the chains in the S-phase of $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{AsF}_6$ (a) and the corresponding diffraction pattern (b). The S-phase peaks broadened by the $|\vec{q}|$ dependent broadening are represented by the shaded areas.

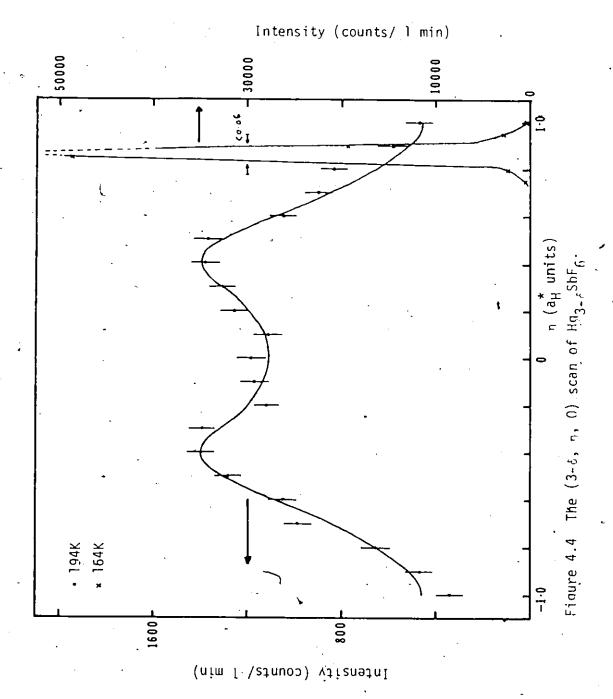
 $-0.6 \ a_{\rm H}$ producing the diffraction peak at $(3-\delta, -0.4, 0)$. The peak at $(3-\delta, 0.6, 0)$ is again systematically absent due to the body-centering of the cell. Fig. 4.2(a) shows approximately equal S-phase peaks from the two domains over the whole range of temperature indicating that the relative volumes of the domains remain approximately equal. The growth of the peaks as the temperature is lowered must be interpreted as the result of more of the crystal being in the S-phase but the value of a does not decrease with temperature as indicated by the constant width of the peaks.

(ii) Studies on Hg₃₋₈SbF₆ and Hg₃₋₈TaF₆

The S-phase of $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{SbF}_6$ was initially studied by using neutron diffraction but no intensity modulation that could be interpreted as an S-phase was found (Axe, Brown, Shirane and Tun, unpublished). The L-phase transition temperature T_{C} was measured to be 186 ± 1 K during this experiment. However, when the intensity distribution of the first order diffuse scattering sheet above T_{C} was re-examined in an X-ray diffraction experiment using a very low scan speed, a weak S-phase was found* (see Fig. 4.4). Like the case of $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{AsF}_6$, the broad peaks are centered at $(3-\delta,\pm0.4,0)$ but have a much weaker amplitude and larger width while no peak is visible on the second order sheet. The arrangement of the parallel chains of $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{SbF}_6$ must therefore also be as shown in Fig. 4.3 but with a larger uncertainty c in the relative positions of the chains. The value of c corresponding to the observed

Diffractometers and low temperature apparatus used for both X ray and neutron diffraction experiments are described in sec. 2.7.





width (FWHM \approx 0.6 a_H^*) is about \pm 0.3 d_{Hq-Hq} .

No neutron diffraction experiment can be done on $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{Taf}_6$ since the crystals are too small. This material was therefore studied by X ray diffraction and the L-phase transition temperature $\mathrm{T_C}$ was found to be 193 ± 3 K. The S-phase above $\mathrm{T_C}$ is weak and shows a different ordering from the previous cases (see Fig. 4.5). The 3-6, n, 0 scan has peaks at $\mathrm{n}=0$ and 2 in the scan range of -0.25 to +2.25. On the $\ell=1$ layer a peak centered at $\mathrm{n}=1$ was found in the same scan range. As in the previous cases no peak was found on the second order sheet. This diffraction pattern is consistent with an A-face centered orthorhombic cell as shown in Fig. 4.6. Only one domain of ordered parallel chains is required in this case but the possibility of having two domains with angle slightly deviated from 90° cannot be excluded. Since the width (FWHM) of the S-phase peaks is ~ 1.0 at the uncertainty ε in the relative position of the Hg chains is about ± 0.5 degrees.

4.5 The L-phase

(i) <u>Studies on Hg₃₋₅AsF</u>6

Pouget et al. (1978) observed sharp L-phase peaks of $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{AsF}_6$ at T << 120 K not only on the plane of the first order diffuse scattering sheet but also on the planes corresponding to the higher order sheets. However, the growth of the peaks was not uniform. When the temperature was just under 120 K only the first order peaks (i.e., peaks on the first order diffuse scattering sheet) were visible indicating that the evolution of the L-phase was initiated by development of a pure sinusoidal fluctuation in the mean atomic density of the chains. This fluctuation had a wavevector whose x-component was Q_1 defined by eq. (2.40). The

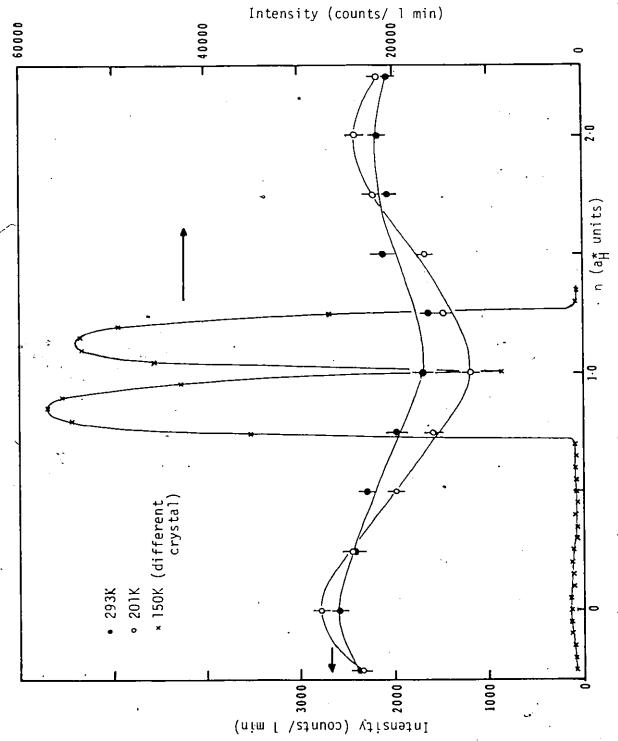


Figure 4.5 The (3-5,n , 0) scan of Hg $_{3-\delta}$ TaF . Note that the intensity modulation in S-phase is different from the previous cases.

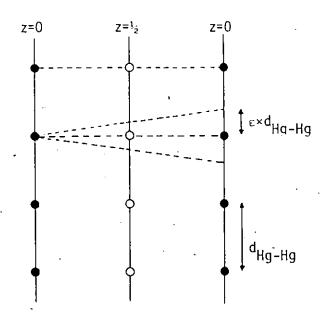


Figure 4.6

Arrangement of the chains in the S-phase of ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm TaF}_6.$ The chains partially order to form an A-face centered monoclinic lattice.

higher order peaks grew only when fluctuations having wavevectors with the x-components Q_2 , Q_3 , ... set in one after another at lower temperatures. As $T \to 0$, fully developed peaks could be seen at $n(3-\delta)$, $k + n\delta$, ℓ points where $n + k + \ell$ = even integer.

Pouget et al. pointed out that the above diffraction pattern is consistent with the two domains of the crystal predicted by Axe's Theorem if the mutually perpendicular chains couple coherently (see sec. 4.2). In the first domain $n(3-\delta)$, $n(3-\delta)$, ℓ reciprocal lattice points are shared between the two sets of the chains. The situation is depicted in Fig. 4.1 whyle the corresponding unit cells formed by the Hg atoms are shown in Fig. 4.7. Note that (130) planes of the a-chain Hg cell are parallel to\and have the same spacing as (310) planes of the b-chain Hg cell and both are perpendicular to the [110] direction of the host lattice. In order to find out the relative position of the (130) planes of one unit cell with respect to the (310) planes of the other, Pouget et al. measured intensity at the common reciprocal lattice points. The peak at $(3-\delta)$, $(3-\delta)$, 0 was found to be absent while the peak at $(6-2\delta)$, $(6-2\delta)$, 0 was four times stronger than the other reflections with similar 20 angle. This indicates that the planes of the two unit cells are out of phase for the first reflection but in phase for the second, causing its amplitude to double and intensity to increase by a factor of four. Such arrangement of the planes is shown in Fig. 4.8.

(ii) Studies on Hg₃₋₆SbF₆ and Hg₃₋₆TaF₆

The L-phase of ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm SbF}_6$ has been studied by using both neutron and X ray diffraction. In the neutron diffraction experiment the

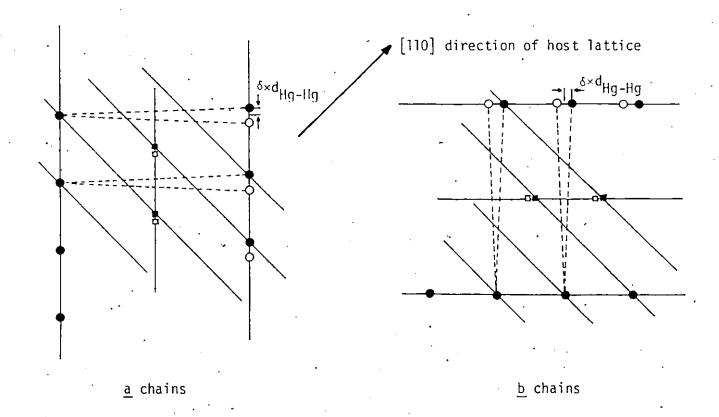


Figure 4.7

Ordered chains in the L-phase. The black atoms represent one domain while the white ones represent the other. Note that both the (310) planes of the \underline{a} chains (consider only the black atoms) and the (130) planes of the \underline{b} chains are perpendicular to the host lattice [110] direction, i.e., the two sets of ordered chains are coupled coherently by sharing reciprocal lattice points in that direction.

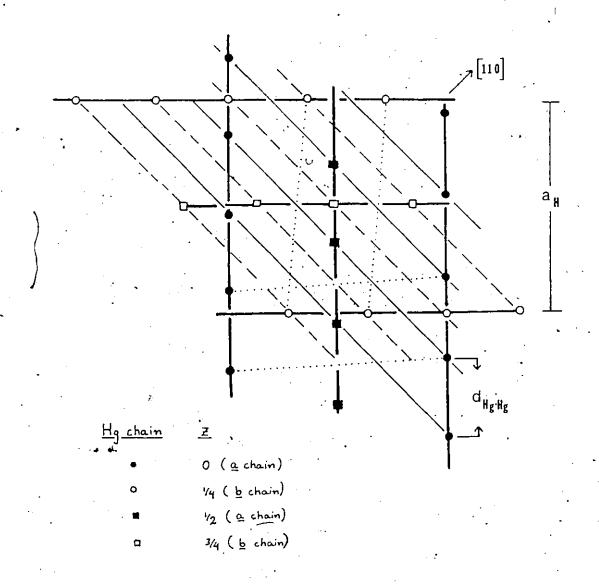


Figure 4.8

Relative position of the (310) Bragg planes of the ordered \underline{a} chains (light solid lines) with respect to the (130) Bragg planes of the ordered \underline{b} chains (dashed lines). The monoclinic unit cells defined by the Hg atoms are indicated by the dotted lines.

intensities of the first order peaks and the second order peaks were examined at various temperatures ranging from T_c (186 K) to 10 K. As in the case of $Hg_{3-\delta}AsF_6$, the ordering was initiated by the development of a pure sinusoidal fluctuation with the wavevector Q_1 (the x-component) and only the first order peaks were visible at T close to 186 K. The intensity of $(3-\delta)$, $(1-\delta)$, 0 peak was found always equal to that of $(3-\delta)$, $(1+\delta)$, 0 peak suggesting that the amount of crystal ordered in the L-phase is always equally divided between the two domains.

Fig. 4.4 obtained from an X ray diffraction experiment shows a short scan about the peak 3-6, 1-5, 0 at T = 164 K. The width (FWHM) of the peak is about 0.06 a_H^* or 0.008 \mathring{A}^{-1} . Fig. 4.9 shows a scan across the same peak but in the c_H^* direction and the width is less than 0.10 c_H^* , the size of a step of the scan, or 0.008 \mathring{A}^{-1} indicating that the ordering in the \underline{c} direction is at least as good as in the \underline{a} - \underline{b} plane. Intensities of (3-6), (3-6), 0 peak and (6-26), (6-26), 0 peak were also measured and, like the case of $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{AsF}_6$, the former was found to be absent while the latter was four times stronger than the near-by reflections. The relative arrangement of the \underline{a} -chain Hg cell and the \underline{b} -chain Hg cell must be as shown in Fig. 4.8.

L-phase studies of ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm TaF}_6$ have been carried out only by X ray diffraction experiment because of the small size of the crystal and the phase could only be studied in the neighbourhood of T_C (193 K).* As in the previous two compounds, only the first order peaks were visible

Resolution of the diffractometer is smaller than a step in the scan which is 0.05 at.

The lowest temperature available on the X ray diffractometer is 145 K. See sec. 2.7 for details.

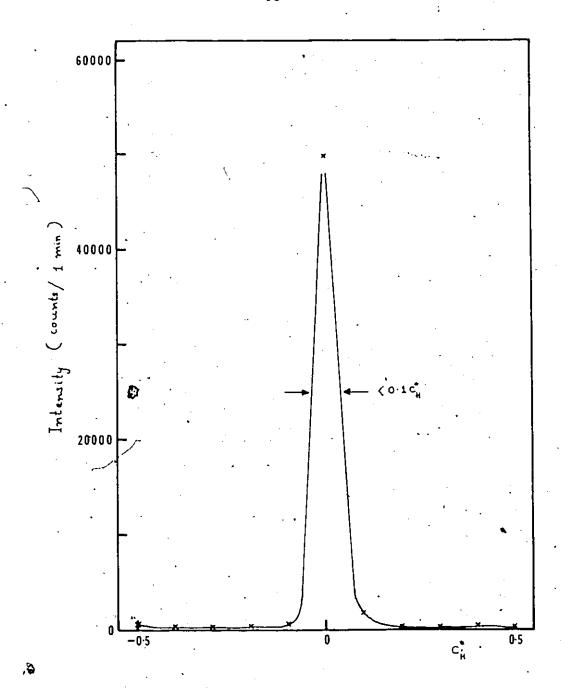


Figure 4.9 Scan across the L-phase peak of ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm SbF}_6$ in the $\underline{c^*}$ direction.

at T < 193 K but higher order peaks grew at lower temperatures. The arrangement of the chains must also be identical to the previous cases since an identical diffraction pattern was observed. Fig. 4.5 and 4.10 show scans across the L-phase peaks. The noticeably wide peaks of Fig. 4.5 could be due to the highly anisotropic shape of the crystal which was a flat plate of the dimension $0.2 \times 0.2 \times 0.01$ mm.

4.6 Emery-Axe order parameter theory

Emery and Axe have proposed a mean field theory in order to explain the evolution of the L-phase in the $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{MF}_6$ compounds (Emery and Axe, 1978; Axe, 1980). According to the experiments described in the previous section, the phase transition into the L-phase is triggered by the development of a pure sinusoidal wave in the mean atomic density of the chains. The amplitude of this fluctuation, η_1 , is employed as the order parameter in the theory.

The mean atomic density of a single chain is denoted by $<_{\rho_X}(x)> \text{ where } _{\rho_X}(x)=\sum_{\alpha} \delta(x-x_{\alpha}) \text{ and the summation is over the whole chain.*}$ The Fourier transform is,

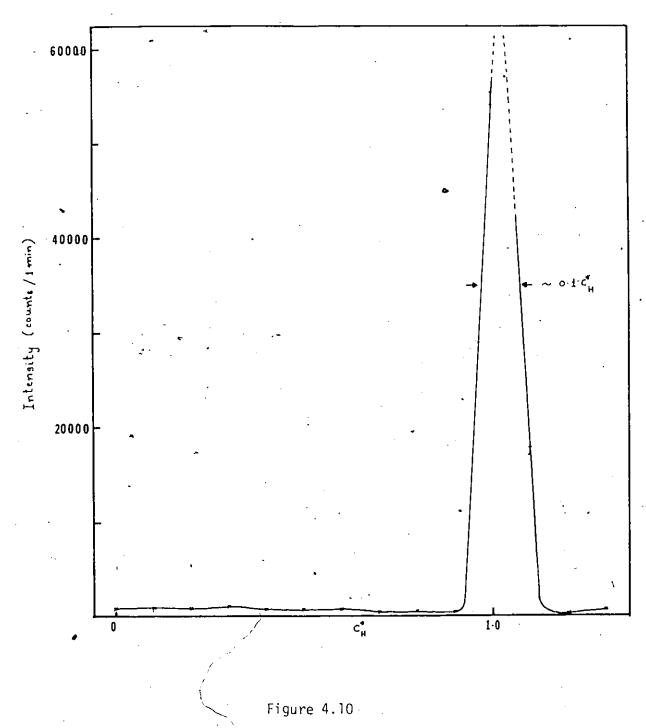
$$\langle \rho_{\mathbf{x}}(Q) \rangle = \int d\mathbf{x} \langle \rho_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{x}) \rangle e^{i\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{x}}$$
 (4.1)

When the chain does not have a long range order $<\rho_X(x)>$ is a constant function of x.

$$\therefore \langle \rho_{\mathbf{X}}(Q) \rangle = \delta(Q) \tag{4.2}$$

In the L-phase, $\langle \rho_{\chi}(x) \rangle$ shows fluctuations with amplitudes ρ_1, ρ_2, \ldots and wavevectors ρ_1, ρ_2, \ldots In general $\langle \rho_{\chi}(0) \rangle$ is a

In this section all the vectors, both in real space and reciprocal space, are written without an arrow since they are always along the direction of the chain.



Scan across the L-phase peak of ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm TaF}_6$ in the $\underline{c^*}$ direction.

complex number but for a suitable choice of origin it can be made real. For the first sinusoidal wave

$$n_1 = \langle \rho_{\mathbf{X}}(Q_1) \rangle \tag{4.3}$$

The interaction Hamiltonian for ordering can be constructed as follows. For an <u>isolated</u> chain with harmonic potential between nearest, neighbours, the Hamiltonian is

$$H_{0} = \sum_{\alpha} \left\{ \frac{p_{\alpha}^{2}}{2m} + \frac{K}{2} (u_{\alpha+1} - u_{\alpha}^{2})^{2} \right\}$$
 (4.4)

where

$$K = mc^2/d_{Hg-Hg}^2$$

See sec. 2.5 for the definition of other parameters in eq. (4.4). When the chain is ordered with respect to its neighbouring chains the isolated chain Hamiltonian H_0 is <u>perturbed</u> by an interaction potential. Emery and Axe assumed that each chain experiences a (commensurate) mean field $\overline{V}(x)$ produced by its neighbouring chains. The perturbation is given by,

$$H' = \int dx \overline{V}(x) \rho_{X}(x)$$

$$= \int dQ \overline{V}(Q) \rho_{X}(Q)$$
(4.5)

When $T \sim T_c$, the only non-zero Fourier component of $\overline{V}(x)$ is $\overline{V}(Q_1).$ Hence,

$$H'(n_1) = \overline{V}(Q_1)\rho_{\mathbf{X}}(Q_1) \tag{4.6}$$

The magnitude of the mean field $\overline{V}(Q_1)$ itself depends on the order parameter n_1 since the field is produced by the similar density fluctuations in the neighbouring chains whose amplitudes are also given

by nj. Therefore

$$\overline{V}(Q_1) = \eta_1 h(Q_1) \tag{4.7}$$

where the potential h represents the total interaction of the chain in question to its parallel and perpendicular neighbouring chains. It is not necessary to know the details of the potential h, since it can be eliminated in terms of the phase transition temperature T_c .

The atomic density $\rho_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{Q}_{\mathbf{m}})$ can be expressed as

$$P_{X}(Q_{m}) = \int dx P_{x}(x) e^{iQ_{m}x} \qquad (m = 1, 2, ...)$$

$$= \sum_{\alpha} cos(Q_{m}x_{\alpha})$$

$$= \sum_{\alpha} cos(Q_{m}u_{\alpha}) \qquad (4.9)$$

By combining eq. (4.4), (4.6), (4.7) and (4.9), the total energy $H = H_0 + H'$ can be obtained.

$$H = \sum_{\alpha} \left\{ \frac{p_{\alpha}^{2}}{2m} + \frac{K}{2} (u_{\alpha+1} - u_{\alpha})^{2} + n_{1} h \cos Q_{1} u_{\alpha} \right\}$$
 (4.10)

Because of the stiff Hg-Hg bonds, the displacement u is a slowly varying function of x. Therefore, $u_{\alpha+1}-u_{\alpha}$ can be approximated as,

$$u_{\alpha+1} - u_{\alpha} = \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} d_{Hg-Hg}$$
 (4.11)

Such a relation can be derived by applying the linear response theory to the problem of interaction between the mean field and the chains at above T_c and considering the divergence of fluctuation scattering as $T \rightarrow T_c$. See eq. (14b) of Axe, 1980. (Note a misprint in Axe's paper; the sentence after eq. (14b) should read "... setting the denominator of (11) to zero ...").

When eq. (4.11) is substituted into (4.10), the P.E. part of the total Hamiltonian (i.e., the second and the third term of eq. (4.10)) becomes the classical sine-Gordon potential. The following ensemble average is to be calculated by using this potential.

$$\eta_{m} = \langle \rho_{x}(Q_{m}) \rangle = \langle \nabla_{\alpha} \cos(Q_{m} u_{m}) \rangle$$

$$= \sum_{\alpha} \int du_{1} \dots du_{N} \cos(Q_{m} u_{m}) e^{-\beta(P.E.)}$$
(4.12)

For a sine-Gordon potential this integral has been solved exactly by Gupta and Sutherland (1976). Emery and Axe followed the same approach and obtained the amplitudes of the first three sinusoidal waves n_1 , n_2 and n_3 . The three parameters, normalized to 1 at T \rightarrow 0 K, are shown in Fig. 4.11. Since the parameters n_1 , n_2 , n_3 , ... are the amplitudes of the fluctuations in the mean atomic density of the chains (by definition) the growth of the intensities of the corresponding L-phase peaks is expected to vary as n_1^2 vs. Trand this can be tested by an experiment.

4.7 Testing the Emery-Axe order parameter theory

Emery-Axe order parameter theory can be tested by measuring the intensity of various L-phase peaks at different temperatures below T_c . Experiments have been completed on $Hg_{3-\delta}AsF_6$ and $Hg_{3-\delta}SbF_6$ by using neutron diffraction. * A preliminary X ray diffraction experiment has also been carried out on $Hg_{3-\delta}TaF_6$. Each of these experiments will be discussed separately in this section.

A project carried out by Brown and Tun (McMaster University) in collaboration with Axe and Shirane (Brookhaven National Laboratory).

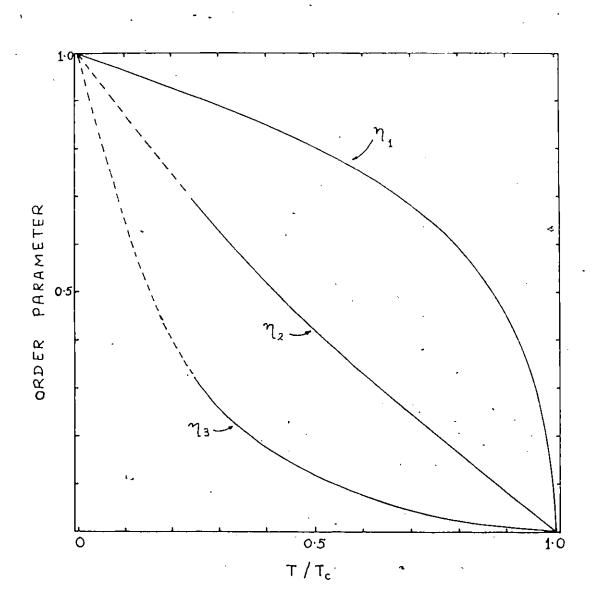


Figure 4.11 The predicted variation, of n_1 , n_2 and n_3 with temperature. (Taker from Axe, 1980).

(i) Neutron diffraction experiment on Hg₃₋₆ As F₆

The experiment was carried out by using a triple axis diffractometer at the Brookhaven High-flux Reactor (see sec. 2.7 for details). The crystal, mounted in an aluminium sample holder, was arranged so that the \underline{c} axis was perpendicular to the plane of the instrument. The approximate dimension of the crystal was 15x12x0.8 mm.

The monochromator and the analyzer of the diffractometer were set to select neutrons with $k=2\pi/\lambda=2.670$ Å . The <u>a* and b* axes</u> were located by centering on the 400 and 040 host lattice reflections at T = 125 K. Intensities of these reflections were maximized by adjusting the arcs of the goniometer. Readjustment of the arcs was not necessary as no sign of crystal movement was seen throughout the experiment. The positions of the L-phase peaks were calculated by using the host lattice unit cell and the previously measured Hg-Hg bond length of 2.670 Å.

The intensities of the (3-4), \pm (1-6), 0 and (6-26), \pm 26, 0^{\pm} peaks were measured at 15 different temperatures ≤ 125 K. The peaks (especially the second order peaks) were barely visible for two higher temperature measurements (125 K and 120 K) but became clearly visible at lower temperatures. It was therefore possible to monitor and update the centering on the peaks by doing alternate scans in the \underline{a}^* and \underline{b}^* directions. The scan range was always kept large enough so that the background intensity was recorded for at least 3 steps on either side of the peak. Since the hysteresis of the peaks is known to be small (~ 1.5 K; Pouget (1978)) no attempt was made to measure the intensities in a warming cycle.

Note that + pairs belong to different domains.

The background corrected intensity of the $(3-\delta)$, $(1-\delta)$, 0 and $(3-\delta)$, $-(1-\delta)$, 0 peaks were added to remove any error which might be caused by the redistribution of domain population as the temperature was lowered. The sums were then normalized to 1 at the extrapolated temperature T = 0 K. The intensity of $(6-2\delta)$, -2δ , 0 and $(6-2\delta)$, 2δ , 0 peaks were treated similarly.

Fig. 4.12 (a and b) compares the experimental results to the predicted variation η_m^2 . The theory clearly predicts a slower growth of the peaks. In fact, the figure shows that the intensities of both first order and second order peaks vary as η rather than η^2 .

(ii) Neutron diffraction experiment on $Hg_{3-\delta}SbF_{6}$

The experimental procedure was similar to the previous experiment but a smaller sample (2x2x0.3 mm) was used. The variations of the first order and the second order peaks with T are shown in Fig. 4.13. Unlike the case of ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm AsF}_6$, the agreement between the theory and the experimental results is good.

(iii) X ray diffraction experiment on $Hg_{3-\delta}TaF_{6}$

The four-circle diffractometer and the cold N_2 gas low temperature apparatus described in sec. 2.7 were used for this experiment and the sample had dimensions of $0.2 \times 0.2 \times 0.01$ mm. Calibration of temperature against the stream heater was done before the X-ray intensity measurements were made and the uncertainty in temperature for a given heater setting was found to be + 3 K. The crystal was centered using 15 host

No evidence of redistribution was observed, however. The two domains were equally developed at all the temperatures.

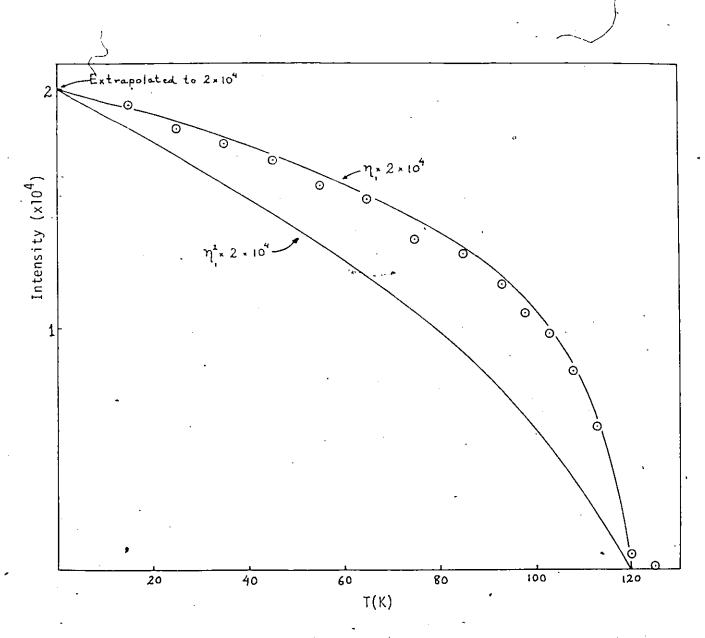


Figure 4.12(a)

Observed variation of the intensity of n=1 L-phase peak with temperature in ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm AsF}_6$. Note that the observed variation is closer to ${\rm n_1}$ vs. T rather than ${\rm n_1^2}$ vs. T.

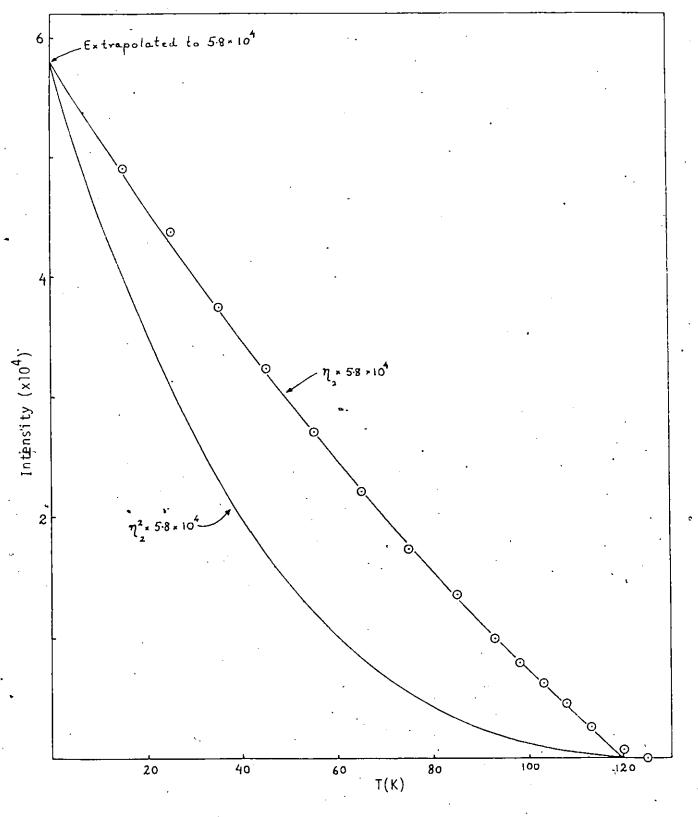


Figure 4.12(b)

Observed variation of the intensity of n=2 L-phase peak with temperature in ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm AsF}_6.$ Again, the variation is closer to ${\rm n_2}$ vs. T. Number of counts plotted on the y-axis for the n=2 peak is higher than that for the n=1 peak because of longer counting time.

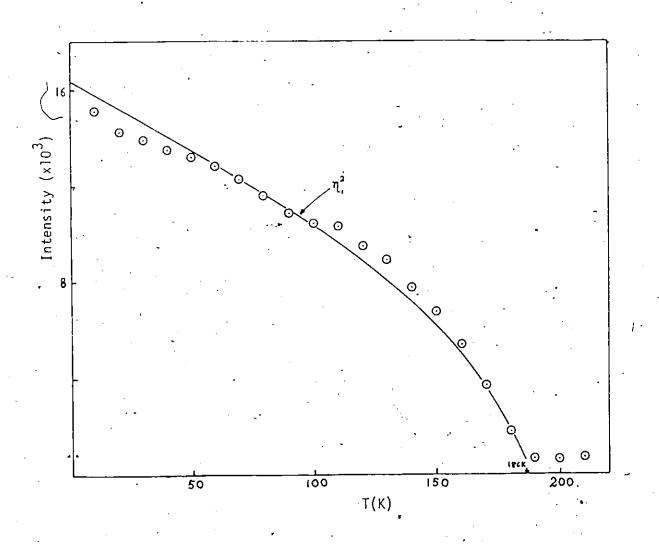


Figure 4.13(a)

Observed variation of the intensity of n=1 L-phase peak with temperature in ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm SbF}_6.$

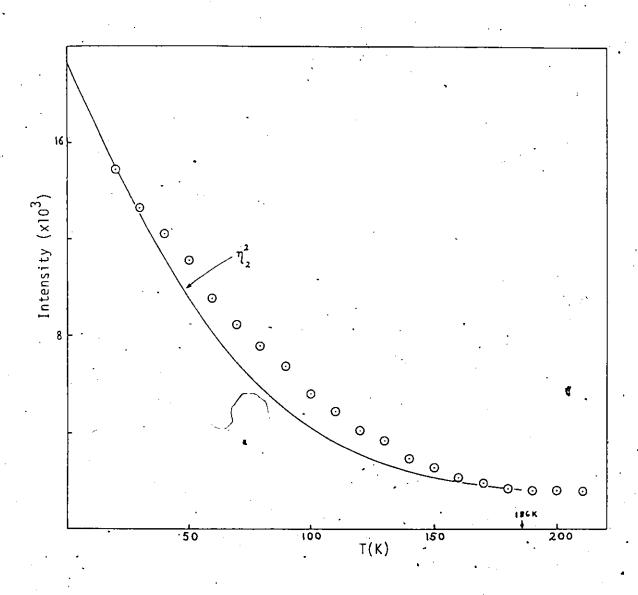


Figure 4.13(b)

Observed variation of the intensity of n=2 L-phase peak in ${\rm Hg_{3-\delta}SbF_6}$.

lattice reflections and the position of the $(3-\delta)$, $(1-\delta)$, 0 peak was calculated using the Hg-Hg distance of 2.671 Å. Crystal centering was repeated and the position of the Hg peak recalculated whenever the temperature was changed.

The peak intensity was measured at 5 different temperatures (between 150 K and 182 K) during a warming cycle. The results plotted in Fig. 4.14 show that the variation of intensity with temperature is closer to the variation of η_1 rather than η_1^2 .

,4.8 Discussion

The chain ordering is weak at room temperature in all ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{}^{\rm MF}{}_6$ compounds indicating that the interchain interactions are very much less than 300 K (300 K is equivalent to 0.026 eV). However, the different S-phases observed in the three materials studied (${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{}^{\rm AsF}{}_6$, ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{}^{\rm SbF}{}_6$ and ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{}^{\rm TaF}{}_6$) suggest that the details of these interactions are not the same. Studying the S-phases provides an insight into the parallel chain interactions.

Fig. 4.15 shows the arrangement of nearest and second nearest neighbour parallel chains in the three compounds studied. Since the third nearest neighbour parallel chains are about 12.6 Å apart, the parallel chain ordering is probably influenced only by the nearest neighbour interaction (v_1) and the second nearest neighbour interaction (v_2) . The arrangement of the atoms will be determined by the sign (+ for repulsive, - for attractive) and the relative strength of v_1 and v_2 .

For the case of $Hg_{3-\delta}AsF_6$, v_1 and v_2 have been determined by

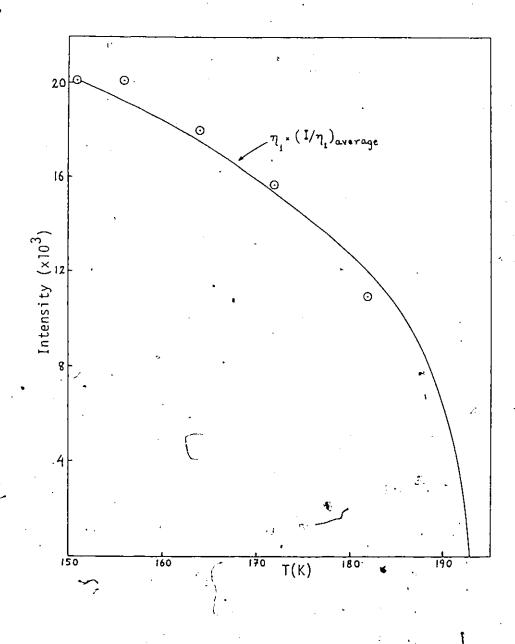
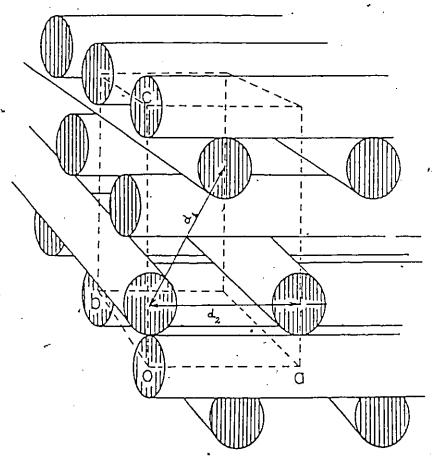


Figure 4.14

Observed variation of the intensity of n=1 L-phase peak in ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm TaF}_6$. Also in this case the variation is close to ${\rm n_1}$ vs. T.



	Hg3-6AsF6	Hg ₃₋₈ SbF ₆	Hg _{3-δ} NbF ₆	Hg _{3-δ} TaF ₆
d _l .	7.253	7.404	7.415	7.435
d ₂	7.534	7.711	7.692	7.711

Figure 4.15

Arrangement of the parallel chains and the nearest neighbour distances in ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm MF}_6$ compounds. Taken from Brown et al.(1982).

Emery and Axe (1978) using intensity fluctuations observed in the S-phase. The values they obtained are $v_2 = -2v_1 = 0.14$ K. The negative value of v_1 indicates that the interaction is not a Coulomb (bare or screened) interaction. The authors suggested that interactions through the host lattice might be important.

Attractive interchain interactions can be seen also in ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm TaF}_6$. Since the Hg atoms partially order to form an A-face centered lattice which minimizes the distance between the Hg atoms from different chains, both ${\rm v}_1$ and ${\rm v}_2$ must be attractive.

Although the S-phases are different the L-phases of the three materials studied are identical. It is partially because this is the only solution allowed by Axe's Theorem but there are certain features of the L-phase which are not required by the theorem but are seen in all three compounds. For instance, the z-coordinate of the L-phase peaks are not required to be at 0, 1, 2 ... c_H^* but sharp peaks centered at z=0 are seen in the \underline{c}^* direction scans shown in Fig. 4.9 and 4.10.

The Emery-Axe order parameter theory does not depend on the details of the interchain interactions. It is therefore expected to work in all the compounds but when the theory was tested disagreements were seen in ${\rm Hg_{3-\delta}AsF_6}$ and ${\rm Hg_{3-\delta}TaF_6}$ since the intensities of L-phase peaks vary as ${\rm Hg_{3-\delta}TaF_6}$ with temperature. Ignoring the less reliable X ray diffraction experiment on ${\rm Hg_{3-\delta}TaF_6}$, two explanations can be given for the disagreement observed in the case of ${\rm Hg_{3-\delta}AsF_6}$.

(i) The perfect agreement between the intensities and η_n rather than η_n^2 suggests that the disagreement is caused by a strong primary extinction (see sec. 2.11). The

large size of ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm AsF}_6$ crystal used in the experiment is consistent with this explanation.

(ii) Another explanation is provided by Emery and Axe (1978). It is possible that the disagreement is due to the strong S-phase of $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{AsF}_6$ which is not included in the formulation of the order parameter theory. The authors claim that they have worked out a theory (unpublished) in which the competition between the parallel chain ordering (divergence of S-phase) and the perpendicular chain coupling (the observed L-phase) is considered and this theory predicts faster growth of the L-phase peaks and a lower L-phase transition temperature. The low value of T_{C} observed in $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{AsF}_6$ is in agreement with this explanation.

However, none of these arguments can explain the disagreement observed in $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{TaF}_6$. The crystal used in this experiment was small so that a serious primary extinction cannot be expected. On the other hand, $\mathrm{T_c}$ for this material is high, 193 ± 3 K, even higher than that of $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{SbF}_6$. If the results of the experiment on $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{TaF}_6$ are assumed to be reliable then a different explanation is required for the observed disagreements.

CHAPTER V

AN ALTERNATIVE STRUCTURE FOR THE STOICHIOMETRY Hg MF 6

5.1 Introduction

When the infinite chain compounds $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\,\mathrm{NbF}_6$ and $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\,\mathrm{TaF}_6$ were prepared, it was found that the golden crystals were not the ultimate end-products of the reaction if the liquid SO_2 was not removed from the reaction vessel. Under the liquid, the golden crystals slowly transformed over a few hours into silvery plates which were apparently softer than the golden crystals and looked very much like small pieces of crumpled aluminium foil.

The silvery crystals were isolated and studied by X ray diffraction as described below. They were found to have a similar composition to the golden ones, i.e., Hg₃NbF₆ and Hg₃TaF₆, but with a different structure.

5.2 Structure determination of Hg₃NbF₆.

Crystals of $\mathrm{Hg_3NbF_6}$ were prepard by Dr. K. Morgan at McMaster University. The ultra-dry dry-box was used to select the flattest crystals and seal them in glass capillaries of 0.2 or 0.3 mm diameter. Dimensions of a typical crystal were 0.3x0.2x0.05 mm. Because of the softness of the crystals they could not be firmly wedged inside the capillaries.

The poor quality of the crystals restricted the X ray studies to photographic methods. Precession photographs of the zeroth layer reciprocal plane parallel to the flat face clearly showed hexagonal symmetry but the peaks were deformed into arcs of about 6° (see Fig. 5.1). The arcs suggested an orientational disorder of the crystal domains in the hexagonal $\underline{a}-\underline{b}$ plane of approximately $\underline{+}$ 3°. The reflections seen on the photographs can be classified into three groups as follows.

(i) Strong peaks:

These peaks, indicated by dark arcs in Fig. 5.2, are much stronger than other peaks with similar 20. They form a prominent reciprocal sublattice corresponding to a hexagonal unit cell with $\underline{a} = 2.90(1)$ Å.

(ii) Weak peaks:

These barely visible peaks of the photograph are represented by light arcs in Fig. 5.2. They, in combination with the strong peaks, form a reciprocal superlattice corresponding to a hexagonal unit cell with $\underline{a}=5.02(1)$ Å. Note that this hexagonal lattice is rotated from the sublattice of the strong peaks by 30°. When the peaks are indexed in terms of the cell of the reciprocal superlattice, the strong peaks have 2h+k=3n (n is an integer). This condition has also been found on the first layer ($\ell=1$) precession photographs. It was observed that the intensity ratio between

One sample showed two hexagonal domains one of which was rotated by 30° from the other.

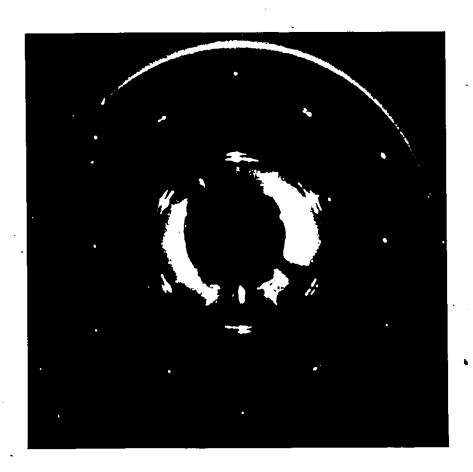


Figure 5.1

The hkO precession photograph of ${\rm Hg_3NbF_6}$.

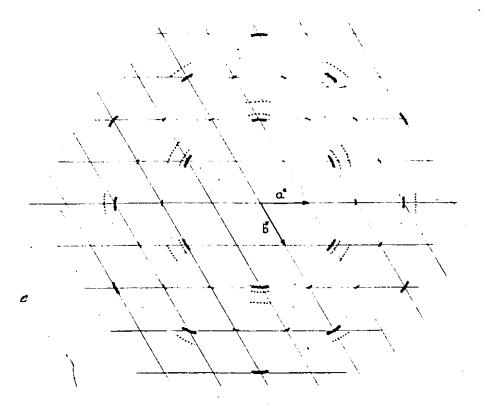


Figure 5.2

Classification of the Bragg reflections seen in the precession photograph of Fig. 5.1 as (i) strong peaks (dark arcs), (ii) weak peaks (light arcs) and (iii) extra peaks (dotted arcs). The first and the second are truly the hkO reflections and fit into a hexaongal lattice but not the third which are the tails of higher order reflections deformed into-large arcs by orientational disorder about axes in the a-b plane.

the sublattice reflections and the superlattice reflections varies from sample to sample. In two out of five samples examined the superlattice reflections were completely absent.

(iii) Extra peaks:

There are some peaks which do not fit either of the lattices of (i) and (ii). They are indicated by dotted arcs in Fig. 5.2 and arise from the large orientational disorder about axes lying in the <u>a-b</u> plane. This disorder causes the tails of the reflections from the nearby higher layers to be visible on the hkO precession photograph. For instance, Fig. 5.3 depicts the appearance of an hkl reflection in the photograph since the arc spread out by the disorder is large enough to intersect the hkO plane.

Photographs of the hol projection showed few reflections for $|\ell| > 1$ except for a complete series of weak 00l reflections corresponding to the <u>c</u> axis length of 7.68(7) Å. Since the radiation absorption was extremely serious in this projection for a thin flat crystal it was expected that only the strongest reflections would be visible. The reflections were deformed into large arcs with a 20° apex indicating that the orientational disorder about axes in the <u>a-b</u> plane is about \pm 10°. The size of the arcs varies from sample to sample since it depends not only on the orientational disorder but also on the extent to which the sample is crumpled.

The observed diffraction pattern is consistent with the model shown in Fig. 5.4 (also see Fig. 5.5). The model consists of layers of

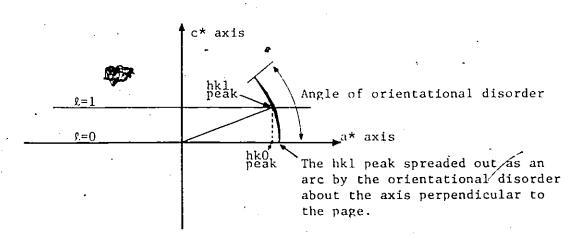


Figure 5.3

An hkl reflection will appear as an extra peak on the hkO precession photograph if the angle of orientational disorder about the axis perpendicular to the page is larger than $\tan^{-1}(s_{001}/s_{hk0})$ where $s_{hk\ell}$ is the magnitude of the scattering vector $\vec{s}_{hk\ell}$.

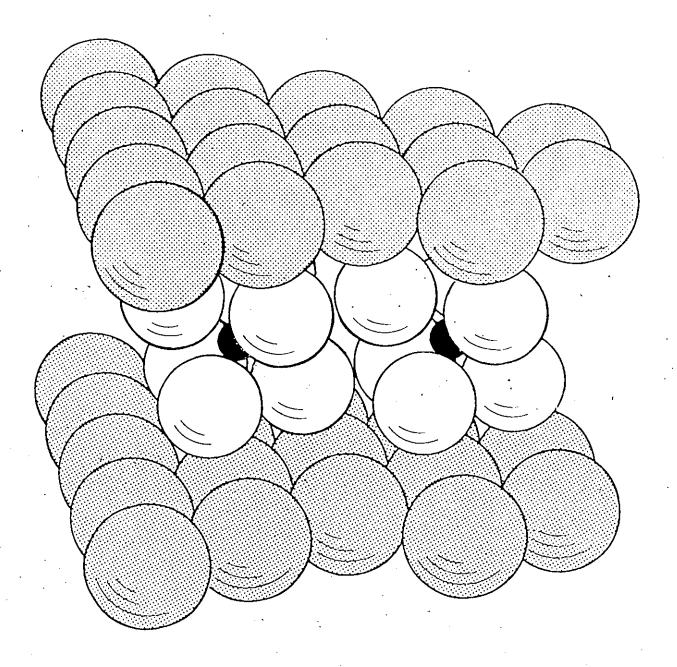
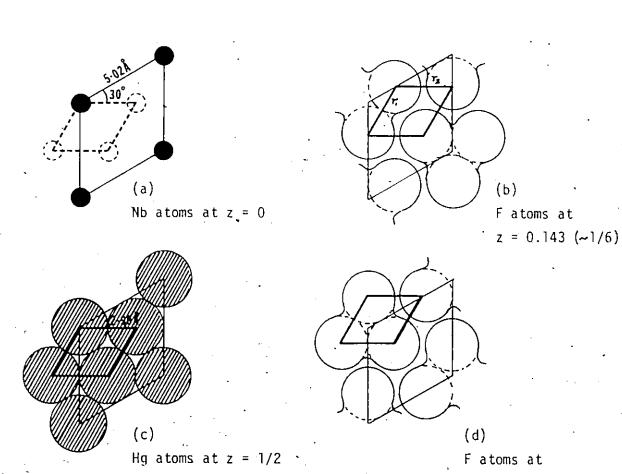


Figure 5.4

Proposed model of ${\rm Hg}_3{\rm NbF}_6$. The Hg, F and Nb are represented by grey, white and black atoms respectively.



z = 0.857 or

-0.143 (~-1/6)

Figure 5.5

The proposed model (Fig. 5.4) shown in various atomic layers. Note that the sublattice of Hg in (c) is 30° rotated from the unit cell defined by the Nb atoms in (a). In some samples the Nb atoms may as well occupy the sites shown as ().

hexagonally close-packed Hg atoms which are separated by layers of hexagonally close-packed NbF $_6$ octahedra. The space group of the model is $P\overline{3}$ lm and the hexagonal lattice parameters are $\underline{a}=5.02(1)$, $\underline{c}=7.68(7)$ Å. In this model all the atoms except F are located at fixed special positions (see Table 5.1). The position of the F atoms was calculated by assuming a regular octahedron with an Nb-F bond length of 1.90 Å as observed in various NbF $_6$ ions. For this Nb-F bond length, the distance between the F atom and its neighbouring Hg atoms is about 3.2 Å, a distance comparable to those seen in other Hg compounds. Note that the calculated x coordinate of F is close to 1/3 and could indeed be that value if the NbF $_6$ ion were slightly larger. In such a case the F atoms, like the Hg atoms, would form an exact hexagonal close-packed layer with an interlayer distance and orientation the same as in the Hg layers (compare Fig. 5.5(b) and (d) to (c)).

Fig. 5.5(c) shows that the intralayer Hg-Hg bond length is $a/\sqrt{3}=5.02/\sqrt{3}=2.90$ Å and the Hg sublattice is 30° rotated from the unit cell defined by the Nb atoms. Diffraction from the Hg atoms therefore results only in the strong sublattice peaks. Also the F atoms contribute mostly to the sublattice peaks since their intralayer arrangement is almost identical to that of the Hg atoms. Therefore, apart from the small contribution from the F atoms as a result of their not being exactly at 1/3, the weak superlattice reflections arise entirely from the Nb atoms.

This model predicts a high intensity ratio between the sublattice and superlattice peaks, namely $(3f_{Hg} + 6f_F + f_{Nb})^2$: $f_{Nb}^2 = 67$ where f_X represents the scattering factor of atom X. Such a large ratio explains the apparent difference in intensities of the strong peaks and the weak

$$Hg_3NbF_6$$
, $M_r = 808.67$, trigonal, space group $P\overline{3}1m$, $z = 1$, $a = 5.02(1)$, $c = 7.68(7)$ \mathring{A} , $D_{\dot{X}} = 8.0(1)$ Mg m⁻³

Atomic coordinates:

atom	site	<u>x</u>	义	 . <u>Z</u>
Hg(1)	16	.0	0	. 1/2
Hg(2)	2d .	1/3	2/3	 1/2
Ńb	la*•	0	0	0
F .	6k	0.309 [†] .′	0 .	0.143 [†]

In some samples the Nb atom is disordered over the 3 sites la and 2c (1/3, 2/3, 0; $\frac{2}{3}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, 0).

[†] Calculated assuming an undistorted NbF₆ octahedron with Nb-F = 1.90 Å.

peaks seen in the precession photograph (Fig. (5.1)). The absence of superlattice peaks as found in some samples indicates that the Nb atoms randomly occupy different positions in different layers, i.e., the position of the Nb atom in the nth layer is not necessarily 0,0,n but might be $\frac{2}{3},\frac{1}{3}$,n or $\frac{1}{3},\frac{2}{3}$,n (see Fig. 5.5(a)). This occupational disorder is equivalent to having $\frac{1}{3}$ of a Nb atom at each of the positions and since the dimension and the orientation of such a Nb layer are identical to those of the Hg layer diffraction from Nb results only in the sublattice peaks, causing the total absence of the superlattice reflections.

5.3 Structure of Hg, Tak

::

When the crystals of the $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{TaF}_6$ chain compound are prepared and the crystals are left under the SO_2 solution for a few hours they also transform into silver platelets. The hkO precession photographs of these crystals are essentially identical to those of $\mathrm{Hg}_3\mathrm{NbF}_6$ layer compounds suggesting that the materials are isostructural. Because of the extremely poor quality of the crystals no photograph of the hOl projection was taken but the <u>c</u> axis length could be estimated from the position of the hkl extra peaks seen on the hkO photographs. The lattice parameters thus obtained, $\underline{a} = 5.03(1)$ and $\underline{c} = 7.4(4)$ Å, are indistinguishable from those of $\mathrm{Hg}_3\mathrm{NbF}_6$. Because of the poor quality of these crystals no further work could be done on them.

5.4 Discussion

The proposed structure for the layer compounds ${\rm Hg_3MF_6}$ (M = Nb, Ta) is consistent with the morphology of the soft thin crystals whose metallic luster arises from the sheets of metallically bonded ${\rm Hg}$

atoms. Since the location of F atom is close to $\frac{1}{3}$,0, $\frac{1}{6}$ the structure can be approximately described as a cubic close-packed array of Hg and F atoms arranged with hexagonal sheets of Hg atoms separating two similar sheets of F atoms and $\frac{1}{3}$ of the octahedral cavities between the F sheets occupied by the M atoms.

In most compounds Hg shows strong tendency to form strangth bonds. For instance, $\mathrm{Hg_3(AsF_6)_2}$ and $\mathrm{Hg_4(AsF_6)_2}$ consist of essentially straight $\mathrm{Hg_3}^{2+}$ and $\mathrm{Hg_4}^{2+}$ ions (Cutforth, Davies, Dean, Gillespie, Ireland, Ummat, 1973 and Cutforth et al., 1983). As in the limiting case, the Hg atoms of $\mathrm{Hg_{3-6}MF_6}$ (M = As, Sb, Nb, Ta) compounds form infinite straight chains (Brown et al., 1974). The $\mathrm{Hg_3MF_6}$ layer compounds are unusual since the Hg atoms are bonded into sheets rather than chains. The Hg-Hg bond length observed in the sheets, 2.90 Å, is larger than that in the chains, 2.671 Å. The formal charge on Hg atoms, however, is very similar in the two cases since it is $\frac{1}{3}$ for the sheets and $\frac{1}{3}$ for the chains. The bond length difference can be attributed to the difference in coordination, each Hg atom in the sheets forms six bonds to its nearest Hg neighbours while in the chains these are only two such bonds.

Sheets of Hg atoms have been found in the graphite intercalate. KHgC $_4$ (Lagrange, Makrini, Herold, 1983). The Hg-Hg distance observed in this intercalate is the same as in the Hg $_3$ MF $_6$ compounds, i.e., 2.90 Å, but each Hg atom in the intercalate has only three Hg neighbours instead of six and a formal charge of zero instead of $+\frac{1}{3}$.

The layer ${\rm Hg_3MF_6}$ compounds and the chain ${\rm Hg_{3-\delta}MF_6}$ compounds may be considered as different structures of essentially the same stoichiometry. The packing is more condensed in the layer compounds as suggested by

the calculated densities. The density of $\mathrm{Hg_3MF_6}$ is 8.0(1) $\mathrm{Mg\ m^{-3}}$ while it is only 6.95(1) $\mathrm{Mg\ m^{-3}}$ for $\mathrm{Hg_{3-\delta}NbF_6}$. Such a large density difference and the completely different arrangement of the atoms between the two structures indicate that the transformation of the chain compounds to layer compounds under liquid $\mathrm{SO_2}$ is a reconstructive transition.

Attempts have been made to prepare the layer compounds ${\rm Hg_3AsF_6}$ and ${\rm Hg_3SbF_6}$ by leaving the corresponding chain compounds under liquid ${\rm SO_2}$ for an extended period but no transformation has been observed.

CHAPTER VI

MERCURY IN HIGHER OXIDATION STATES

6.1 Introduction

The structures of two compounds, one with ${\rm Hg_4}^{2+}$ ion and the other with ${\rm Hg_3}^{2+}$ ion, which were discovered during attempts to prepare the new infinite chain compounds are reported in this chapter. The formation of the first compound, ${\rm Hg_4}({\rm Ta_2F_{11}})_2$, was observed in the following stoichiometric reaction.

$$3Hg + HgF_2 + 4TaF_5 \xrightarrow{SO_2} Hg_4(Ta_2F_{11})_2$$

The crystals usually grow as small black needles on the surface of liquid Hg.

The second compound, $\mathrm{Hg_3(NbF_5)_2SO_4}$, is always formed along with the silvery platelet crystals of $\mathrm{Hg_3NbF_6}$ (layer structure) if the reaction is left undisturbed for an extended period (about two months).

Crystals of these compounds have been isolated and subjected to X ray structure determination as described in the following sections.

6.2 Structure determination of $Hg_4(Ta_2F_{11})_2$

The crystals of $\mathrm{Hg_4(Ta_2F_{1.1})_2}$ prepared by Dr. P.K. Unmat at McMaster University were mounted in glass capillaries of 0.3 mm diameter. Since these crystals do not have well-defined faces an approximately spherical crystal was chosen for X ray studies so that

the measured Bragg intensities could be corrected by using the DIFABS absorption correction described in sec. 2.10. The precession photographs showed symmetry and systematic absences characteristic of the monoclinic space group I2/c or Ic. The non-standard I-setting was chosen in order to make the monoclinic angle β close to 90°.

The initial phase determination was done by using the direct method routines (sec. 2.13) of program SHELX (Sheldrick, 1976). The space group was assumed to be centrosymmetric I2/c. Seven solutions plotted as E-maps were found but only the first solution showed a sensible arrangement of the Hg and Ta atoms. A difference map based on this partial model clearly revealed the F atoms around the Ta atoms and the anion was identified as $({\rm Ta}_2{\rm F}_{11})^{1-}$. Refer to Tables 6.1 and 6.2 for details of the structure determination. The refined structure is illustrated in Fig. 6.1. The final atomic parameters are listed in Table 6.3 while the important bond lengths and angles are given in Table 6.4.

The magnitudes of the observed and calculated structure factors have been tabulated and deposited with McMaster University (Tun, 1984).

6.3 Structure determination of Hg₃(NbF₅)₂SO₄

The crystals prepared by Dr. K. Morgan at McMaster University were mounted in sealed glass capillaries of diameter 0.2 mm. The symmetry and systematic absences observed on the precession photographs were consistent with the orthorhombic space group Fdd2. The procedure for structure determination was intentical to that of $\mathrm{Hg}_4(\mathrm{Ta}_2\mathrm{F}_{11})_2$ except in the phase determination. Instead of using direct methods

Table 6.1

Common parameters for the structure determination of $Hg_4(Ta_2F_{11})_2$ and $Hg_3(NbF_5)_2SO_4$

Bragg intensity measurements:

Diffractometer: Nicolet P3

Graphite monochromated MoK α radiation, $\lambda = 0.71069$ Å

Lattice constants determined from 15 well-centered reflections

Scan procedure: $2\theta - \omega$ scan

Scan angle: $\sqrt{2}^\circ$ + angle between $K\alpha_1$ and $K\alpha_2$ peaks

Background measuring time/scan time = 1

Absorption correction:

Program: DIFABS

Averaging:

Program: AVER

Least-squares refinement:

Program: SHELX

Scattering factors: neutral atoms from International Tables for X ray

Crystallography (1974)

Weighting shceme: $w = [\sigma^2(counting) + gF_0^2]^{-1}$

Table 6.2 Summary of structure determination of ${\rm Hg_4(Ta_2F_{11})_2}$ and ${\rm Hg_3(NbF_5)_2SO_4}$

Compound	Hg ₄ (Ta ₂ F ₁₁) ₂	Hg ₃ (NbF ₅) ₂ SO ₄
Space group	<pre>I2/c (monoclinic; origin on l on glide plane c)</pre>	Fdd2 (orthorhombic origin on 2)
Lattice parameter $\frac{a}{\frac{b}{C}}$ (deg)	18.556(8) 7.528(3) 14.714(8) 91.72(4)	18.068(6) 15.734(5) 9.176(4)
Volume (\mathring{A}^3)	2054(2)	2609(2)
Formulae/unit cell	. 4	3
Calculated density (Mg m ⁻³)	6.285(5)	5.467(4)
Reflections used to determine lattice parameters	24° < 20 < 30°	18° < 20 < 47°
Variable scan speed (deg min ⁻¹)	2.0 - 20.0	4.0 - 29.3
Standard reflections	040; 408	10,0,2; 0,10,2
e.s.d. of standard reflections (%)	2.1; 1.5	1.3; 1.2
No. of standard reflection measurements*	62	63
Maximum 20	55°	55°
Range of indices	$\begin{array}{ccccc} 0 & \leqslant & h & \leqslant & 25 \\ -10 & \leqslant & k & \leqslant & 10 \\ 0 & \leqslant & \ell & \leqslant & 20 \end{array}$	$0 \le h \le 23$ -20 \le k \le 20 -11 \le \mathcal{L} \le 11
No. of reflections measured	2394	2974
No. of unique reflections	1248	1515
No. of unobserved reflections measured (I $<$ 3 $\sigma_{\rm I}$)	767	551
Linear absorption coefficient μ (mm ⁻¹)	52.9	37.9

continued

- 128 - Table 6.2 (continued)

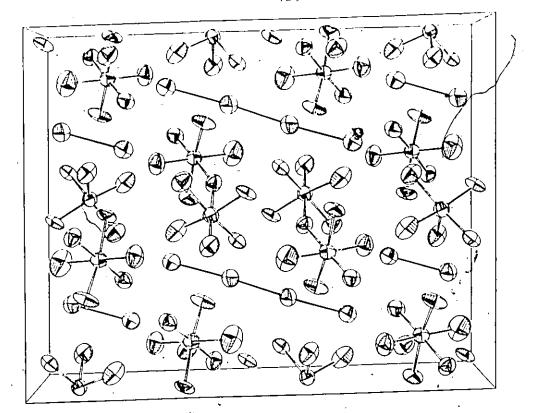
•	-	
μR value for spherical absorption correction	6.9	4.3
R^{\dagger} of model used to calculate $ F_{iso} $	0.109	0.139
Reflections used to construct Fourier series	1743	2676
Maximum DIFABS absorption correction factor	0.934	1.496
Minimum DIFABS absorption correction factor	0.481	0.702
Internal agreement factor: R\$ (before DIFABS) R\$ (after DIFABS)	0.070 0.043	0.084 0.036
Weighting parameter g (see sec. 2.14) k (see sec. 2.14)	0.0004 0.7791	0.00035 0.9077
Final R _W (all reflections)	0.049	0.045
Final R [†] (all reflections)	0.056	0.048
Maximum shift/error in final cycle	0.089	0.071
Averaged shift/error in final cycle	0.022	0.014
Secondary extinction correction $g(x10^5)$	3(1)	3(1)
No. of variables refined	137	¹ 92
Residual electron density:** maximum ($e\mathring{A}^{-3}$) minimum ($e\mathring{A}^{-3}$)	+1.2	+3.6 -6.1

 $^{^{\}star}$ No systematic variation in the standard reflections were observed.

 $^{^{\}circ}$ See definition in sec. 2.14.

^{\$} See definition in sec. 2.12.

See the text for location. If not mentioned the peak does not coincide with any atomic or bonding region.



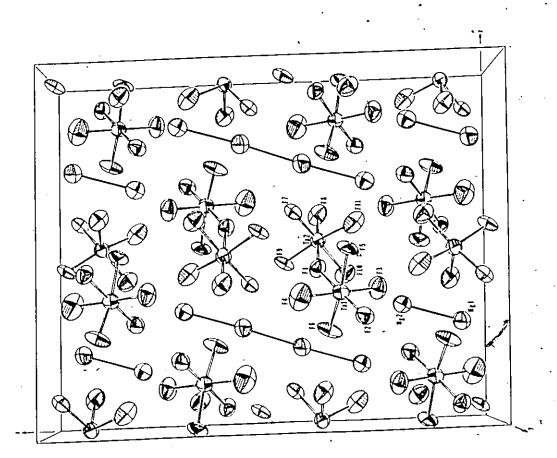


Figure 6.1 Refined model of ${
m Hg_4(Ta_2F_{11})}$

Table 6.3

Refined atomic parameters of ${\rm Hg_4(Ta_2F_{11})_2}$ (x10 4 for positional parameters of Hg and Ta; 'x10 3 for positional parameters of F and temperature factors ($^{\circ}$ 2) of all the atoms)

	×	. >	2	ιη.	U ₂₂	U ₃₃	. U ₁₂	U ₁₃	U ₂₃
7 Hg(1) d	— 664(1) [°]	2669(2)	2799(1)	63(1)	68(1)	60(1)	-1(1)	5(1)	-2(1)
भ <u>े</u> षु(2)	2031(1)	. 2625(2)	3324(1)	£8(1)	72(1)	65(1)	-7(1)	4(1)	-2(1)
Ta(1)	3510(1)	7290(1)	3673(1)	48(1)	43(1)	42(1)	0(1)	1(1)	1(1)
Ta(2)	3947(1)	3057(1)	5224(1)	43(1)	43(1)	45(1)	-3(1)	2(1)	1(1)
F(1)	398(1)	522(2)	438(1)	49(11)	59(8)	61(14)	-2(8)	-6(14)	20(9)
F(2)	303(1)	906(2)	302(1)	58(13)	54(8)	53(14)	15(8)	8(16)	2(9)
F(3)	268(1)	591(2)	378(2)	53(14)	70(10)	93(22)	-16(10)	-1(20)	11(12)
F(4)	440(1)	835(3)	358(2).	82(20)	91(13)	127(30)	-23(14)	-12(28)	40(17)
F(5)	337(1)	816(3)	486(1)	75(17)	89(12)	37(14)	30(13)	17(19)	-22(11)
F(6)	374(2)	593(2)	266(2)	111(23)	50(8)	46(15)	11(12)	35(23)	-10(10)
F(7)	451(1)	449(2)	(1)109	54(13)	26(9)	49(14)	-4(6)	18(17)	-2(8)
F(8)	393(1)	114(2)	601(2)	4 68(15)	67(9)	82(19)	-31(10)	-16(18)	25(11)
• F(9)	472(1)	225(2)	461(1)	70(17)	(6)59	41(13)	10(10)	29(18)	-3(10)
F(10)	332(1)	214(2)	-426(2)	75(16)	(6)(9)	72(17).	-13(10)	-15(18)	5(10)
F(11)	315(1)	425(2)	566(2)	81(18)	84(12)	86(21)	0(12)	-27(21)	-8(12)
					-	•			

Table 6.4

Important bond lengths (\mathring{A}) and angles (deg) in $\mathrm{Hg_4(Ta_2F_{11})_2}$. Values given in brackets are the corresponding values observed in $\mathrm{Hg_4(AsF_6)_2}$.

€3.

Hg(1) - Hg(2) Hg(1) - Hg(1) Hg(2)Hg(2) Ta(1) - F(1) Ta(1) - F(2) Ta(1) - F(3) Ta(1) - F(4) Ta(1) - F(5) Ta(1) - F(6) Hg(2) - F(10) Hg(2) - F(11) Hg(2) - F(5) Hg(2) - F(2) Hg(2) - F(3)	2.630(2) 2.593(2) 3.033(2) 2.05(2) 1.86(2) 1.88(2) 1.84(3) 1.89(2) 1.86(2) 2.74(2) 2.97(2) 2.82(2) 3.18(2) 2.82(2)	[2.620(2)] [2.588(2)] [2.985(3)] Ta(2) - F(1) Ta(2) - F(7) Ta(2) - F(8) Ta(2) - F(9) Ta(2) - F(10) Ta(2) - F(11) Hg(1) - F(7) Hg(1) - F(9) Hg(1) - F(6) Hg(1) - F(8)	2.05(2) 1.88(2) 1.86(2) 1.83(2) 1.94(2) 1.86(2) 2.99(2) 3.23(2) 3.01(2) 3.22(2)
Hg(2) - Hg(1) - Hg(1) Hg(1) - Hg(2) Hg(2) Ta(1) - F(1) - Ta(2) F(1) - Ta(1) - F(2) F(1) - Ta(1) - F(3) F(1) - Ta(1) - F(4) F(1) - Ta(1) - F(5) F(1) - Ta(1) - F(6) F(2) - Ta(1) - F(3) F(2) - Ta(1) - F(4) F(2) - Ta(1) - F(5) F(2) - Ta(1) - F(6) F(3) - Ta(1) - F(6) F(4) - Ta(1) - F(6) F(4) - Ta(1) - F(6) F(5) - Ta(1) - F(6) Hg(1) - Hg(2) - F(11) Hg(1) - Hg(2) - F(2)	177.2(1) 109.7(1) 153(1) 176.2(7) 82.9(8) 89.7(9) 82.1(8) 83.2(8) 93.4(8) 94(1) 98.9(9) 95.7(9) 171.9(9) 88(1) 89(1) 94(1) 87(1) 165.3(9) 92.1(5) 78.0(4)	F(1) - Ta(2) F(1) - Ta(2) F(1) - Ta(2) F(1) - Ta(2) F(7) - Ta(2) F(7) - Ta(2) F(7) - Ta(2) F(7) - Ta(2) F(8) - Ta(2) F(8) - Ta(2) F(8) - Ta(2) F(9) - Ta(2) F(9) - Ta(2) F(10) - Ta(2) Hg(1) - Hg(2) Hg(1) - Hg(2)	- F(7) 83.4(7) - F(8) 178.1(7) - F(9) 85.5(8) - F(10) 82.5(7) - F(11) 82.5(8) - F(8) 93.6(9) - F(10) 165.4(7) - F(11) 86.9(9) - F(10) 99.4(8) - F(11) 87.4(9) - F(10) 89(1) - F(11) 167.8(9) - F(11) 88(1) - F(10) 165.1(5) - F(5) 90.0(5) - F(3) 117.3(4)

heavy atoms (Hg) were located by solving a Patterson map (sec. 2.13) which suggested that either three or four heavy atoms separated by ~ 2.56 Å were almost in a straight line. Both ${\rm Hg_3}^{2+}$ and ${\rm Hg_4}^{2+}$ ions were tested but only the model with ${\rm Hg_3}^{2+}$ gave a good agreement between the observed and calculated structure factors. The lighter atoms (Nb, F, S, O) were located using difference syntheses.

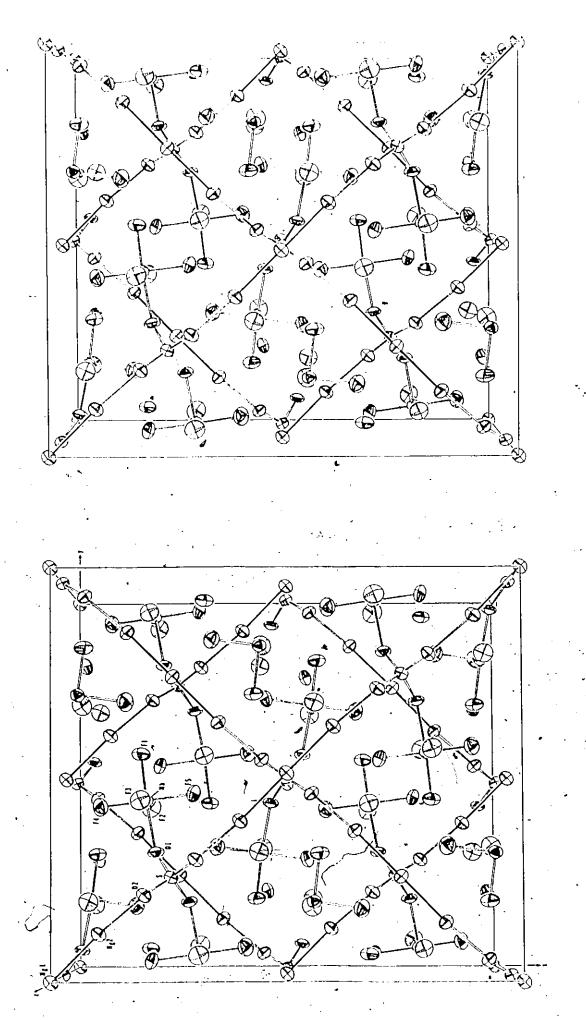
Details of the structure determination are summarized in Table 6.1 and 6.2. The difference map calculated at the end of the refinement showed a maximum residual peak of $+3.6~\text{eÅ}^{-3}$, 0.9 Å away from the atom Hg2 in the \underline{c} direction while the minimum peak, $-6.1~\text{Å}^{-3}$, was found on the 2-fold axis, 0.9 Å away from the atom Hg1. The resultant structure is illustrated in Fig. 6.2.

The refined atomic parameters and bond lengths and angles are given respectively in Table 6.5 and 6.6. A list of the magnitudes of the observed and calculated structure factors have been deposited with McMaster University (Tun, 1984).

6.4 <u>Discussion</u>

 ${\rm Hg_4(Ta_2F_{11})_2}$ contains essentially the same ${\rm Hg_4^{2+}}$ ion as . ${\rm Hg_4(AsF_6)_2}$ reported by Cutforth et al. (1983). In both compounds the ions are almost linear (see Table 6.4) and have interionic distances between the terminal atoms of the neighbouring ions (${\rm Hg(2)}$... ${\rm Hg(2)}$ about 3.0 Å) which are comparable to the shortest bond lengths observed in the solid Hg, 2.99 Å in α -Hg (Barrett, 1957) and 2.83 Å in β -Hg (Atoji et al. 1959).

The internal geometry of the ${\rm Hg}_3^{2+}$ ion is not exactly the same in all known compounds. The significant difference occurs in the Hg-Hg-Hg



6.2 Refined model $\mathrm{Hg_3(NbF_5)_2^{SO_4}}$

. Table 6.5

Refined atomic parameters of $\rm Hg_3(NbF_5)_2S0_4$ (x10⁴ for positional parameters and $\rm ^2x10^3$ for temperature factors)

			•			,			
	×	۸	Z	U11	. y ₂₂	U ₃₃	Ulz	U ₁₃	U23
Hg(1)		0	0	.32(1)	33(1)	34(1)	-6(1)	0	10
. Hg(2)	994(1)	1146(1)	9672(1)	35(1)	. 33(1)	36(1)	-8(1)	-3(1)	3(1)
NP	1927(1)	4409(1)	.7436(2)	31(1)	26(1)	28(1)	1(1)	-2(1)	3(1)
. v	1/4	1/4	8536(7)	30(3)	25(3)	29(3)	-3(2)	. 0	0
F(1)	1809(7)	5570(7)	J 7277(18)	58(7)	27(6)	(6)19	-3(5)	-1(8)	6(7)
F(2)	1959(8)	4263(10)	5428(15)	(6)09	63(6)	39(7)	(1)	4(6)	. 9(7)
F(3)	1885(8)	4379(9)	9482(16)	63(8)	58(9)	.37(7)	3(7)	4(6)	6(7)
F(4)	911(6)	4250(9)	7352(17)	(39(6)	. 54(3)	57(9)	-2(6)	11(7)	11(7)
F(5)	2961(6)	4567(8)	7532(18)	29(5)	48(7)	71(9)	7(5)	-13(7)	7(7)
0(1)	2139(8)	3118(§)	7551(18).	43(7)	18(6)	(6)65	4(5)	-12(7)	4(6)
0(2)	1954(7)	2073(94)	9441(15)	34(7)	32(7)	33(8)	(9)6-	4(6)	-3(6)

Table 6.6

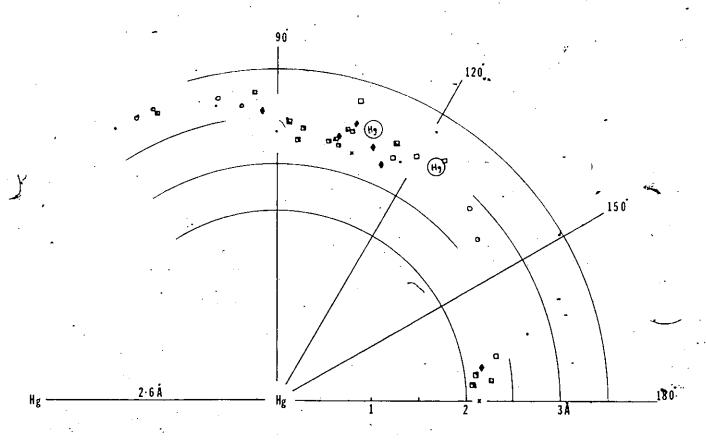
Important bond lengths (\mathring{A}) and angles (deg) in ${\rm Hg_3(NbF_5)_2SO_4}$. Values given in brackets are the corresponding values observed in

	Hg ₃ (A1C1 ₄) ₂ and	1 Hg ₃ (AsF ₆) ₂ .	•
Hg(1) - Hg(2) -(x2)	2.562(1)	[2.56; 2.552(5)]	
S - O(1) (x2)	1.48(2)	S = O(2) (x2)	1.46(1)
Nb - 0(1)	2.07(1)	Nb - F(1)	1.84(1)
Nb - F(2)	1.86(1)	Nb - F(3)	1.88(1)
Nb - F(4)	1.85(1)	Nb - F(5)	1.89(1)
Hg(2) - O(2)	2.28(1)	Hg(2) - F'(5)	2.99(1)
Hg(2) - F(3)	. 2.81(1)	Hg(2) - F(2)	3.25(1)
Hg(2) - F(5)	2.95(1)	Hg(1) - F(4)	2.96(1)
Hg(2) - F(1)	. 2.95(2)	/Hg(1) - O(2)	3.05(1)
Hg(2) - Hg(1) - Hg(2) 166.5(1)	[174.42(4); 180]	35
0(1) - S - 0(1)	$\int 106(1)$	0(2) - S - 0(2)	110(1)
0(1) - S - 0(2)	110.6(9)		
Nb - 0(1) - S	139(2)	Hg(2) - O(2) - S	150(3)
O(1) - Nb - F(1)	175.7(8)	0(1) - Nb - F(2)	85.6(8)
O(1) - Nb - F(3)	86.1(8)	O(1) - Nb - F(4)	93.0(7)
O(1) - Nb - F(5)	86.8(7)	*F(1) - Nb - F(2)	· 92 _. 7(9)
F(1) - Nb - F(3)	95.7(8)	$F(1)$ $\rightarrow Vb - F(4)$	91.0(7)
F(1) - Nb - F(5)	89.3(8)	F(2) - (b - F(3))	171.4(8)
F(2) - Nb - F(4)	88.5(8)	F(2) - Nb - F(5)	91.8(9)
F(3) - Nb - F(4)	89.9(9)	F(3) - Nb - F(5)	89.8(8)
F(4) - Nb - F(5)	179.6(6)		.
Hg(1) - Hg(2) - O(2)	,	Hg(1) - Hg(2) - F(1)	
Hg(1) - Hg(2) - F(3)		. Hg(1) - Hg(2) - F'(5)	145.0(3)
Hg(1) - Hg(2) - F(5)	105.0(4)	Hg(1) - Hģ(2) - F(2)	85.8(4)

angle. The ${\rm Hg}_3^{2+}$ in ${\rm Hg}_3({\rm AsF}_6)_2$ is the straightest, since the central Hg atom is located on a center of symmetry and the ion is required to be linear. ${\rm Hg}_3({\rm AlCl}_4)_2$ features a slightly bent ${\rm Hg}_3^{2+}$ ion $({\rm Hg-Hg-Hg}=174.42(4), Ellison et al., 1972)$ while that of ${\rm Hg}_3({\rm NbF}_5)_2{\rm SO}_4$ is even more bent with an Hg-Hg-Hg angle of 166.5(1). The case of the last compound is unusual also because each ${\rm Hg}_3^{2+}$ ion is linked to another ${\rm Hg}_3^{2+}$ ion by the ${\rm SO}_4^{2-}$ ion residing on a neighbouring two fold axis. The Hg(2)-0 bond (2.28 Å) is the shortest bond formed by the terminal Hg(2) atom to the nearby X atoms (X being either 0 or F):

There is a correlation between the Hg-X bond length and the Hg-Hg-X angle. The correlation can be seen in the environments of all the polyatomic Hg cations as illustrated in the polar diagram of Fig. 6.3 where all the known ${\rm Hg_4}^{2+}$ and ${\rm Hg_3}^{2+}$ compounds and two representative ${\rm Hg_2}^{2+}$ compounds are included. Hg-Cl distances have been reduced by 0.45 Å (Source: Pauling, 1960, pp. 514), the difference between the ionic radii of F and Cl, but no correction has been applied to the Hg-O bonds. The diagram indicates that the bonding between the terminal Hg atom and the X atoms is directional since the Hg-X bonds with large Hg-Hg-X angles (close to 180°) are generally shorter than those with smaller angles.

For comparison, the short Hg...Hg interionic distances observed in both Hg_4^{2+} compounds are also shown on the diagram. Although the ionic radius for Hg is larger than for F, the Hg...Hg distances are comparable to the lengths of those Hg-F bonds that have a similar Hg-Hg-X angle.



- $\operatorname{Hg}_{4}(\operatorname{AsF}_{6})_{2}$ Cutforth et al.(1983)
- Hg₄(Ta₂F₁₁)₂
- $\lg_3(AlCl_4)_2$ Ellison et al.(1972)
- Hq3(AsF6)2 Cutforth, Davies, Dean, Gillespie, Ireland, Ummat(1973)

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- Hg₃(NbF₅)₂SO₄
 Hg₂F₂ Dorm (1971)
- ,Hg₂SiF₆.2H₂O Dorm (1971)

Figure 6.3

Correlation between Hg-X bond length (X = 0, F, C1) and Hg-Hg-Xangle. The Hg-Cl distances have been reduced by 0.45 Å, the difference between the ionic radii of Cl and F. For comparison the short interionic Hg...Hg distances seen in the ${\rm Hg_4}^{2+}$ compounds are also shown.

CHAPTER VII . CONCLUSIONS

7.1 Structural analysis on the chain and the layer compounds

It was pointed out in Chapter III that although the known $Hg_{3-\delta}MF_6$ (M = As, Sb, Nb, Ta) compounds are very similar to each other, small but significant differences can be seen by comparing their room temperature structures. Differences occur, for instance, in the tetragonal lattice parameters <u>a</u> and <u>c</u>, the crystallographic composition parameter δ and the undulation of the chains u_0 . Among the bond lengths and other interatomic distances, the principle difference occurs in the M-F bond lengths while the other distances, d_{Hg-Hg} , (F-chain) and (chain-chain), remain unchanged from one compound to another (see Table 3.4).

Interrelation between the various parameters and the bond lengths can best be expressed in terms of the following equations which can be derived from Fig. 3.2 and 3.3.

From Fig. 3.2 it can be seen that

$$c = 2[F(1)-chain] + 2[M-F(1)] + (chain-chain)$$
 (7.1)

where
$$(chain-chain) = \frac{c}{4} + 2u_0$$
 (7.2)

and from Fig. 3.3

$$a = 2\{[F(2)-chain]^{2} - (c/8)^{2}\}^{\frac{1}{2}} + \sqrt{2}[M-F(2)]$$
 (7.3)

The composition parameter δ is related to the lattice parameter \underline{a} as

$$3-\delta = a/d_{Hg-Hg}$$
 (7.4)

From Table 3.4 the following distances, the same in all the known compounds, are obtained.

$$d_{Hg-Hg} = 2.67 \text{ Å}$$
 $F(1)$ -chain = 2.86

 $F(2)$ -chain = 2.98

(7.5)

chain-chain = 3.23

Substituting these values into eq. (7.1-7.4) gives predictions for \underline{a} , \underline{c} , \underline{u}_0 and δ for any chain compound once the M-F bond lengths are known. Table 7.1 lists the predicted and, where known, the observed values of these four parameters for the compounds with M = P, As, Sb, Nb, Ta, Bi. The small values of δ and \underline{u}_0 expected in $\mathrm{Hg}_{3-\delta}\mathrm{BiF}_6$ suggest that it might exist as a stoichiometric compound with almost straight Hg chains.

Similar arguments can be applied to the case of the ${\rm Hg_3MF_6}$ layer compounds reported in Chapter V. In this structure the metallically bonded Hg atoms in the hexagonal sheets are located at fixed special positions so that the hexagonal lattice parameter \underline{a} is completely determined by the $d_{\rm Hg-Hg}$ distance within the sheet. From Fig. 5.5(c),

$$a = \sqrt{3}d_{Hg-Hg}$$

For the unknown compounds M-F bond lengths are assumed to be the values of

the corresponding known ${\rm MF}_6$ ions.

	Hg ₃₋₆ PF ₆	Hg3-6AsF6	Hg3-6SbF6	Hg3-6NbF6	Hg3-6TaF6	Hg _{3-c} BiF ₆
M-F(1) (Å)	1.57	[1.70]	[1.84]	[1.87]	[1.88]	1.98
M-F(2) (Å)	. 1.61	[1.72]	[1.88]	[1.89]	[1.88]	1.98
<u>a</u> (Å)	7.41	7.53 [7.534(7)]	7.72 [7.71(2)]	. 7.72 . [7.692(1)]	7.70 [7:711(1)]	7.85
<u>c</u> (Å)	12.09	12.35 [12.395(8)]	12.63 [12.641(2)]	12.69 [12.679(2)]	12.71 [12.714(2)]	12.91
u _o (Å)	0.104	0.071 [0.07(1)]	0.036 [0.037(4)]	0.029 [0.026(3)]	0.026 [0.030(3)]	0.009
40	0.22	0.18	0.11 [0.10(2)]	0.11 [0.119(3)]	0.12	90.0

In both existing compounds d_{Hg-Hg} bond length is found to be 2.90 Å. Since the Hg atoms are in the same oxidation state, it is reasonable to suppose that this bond length does not vary for different MF₆ ions. All compounds which crystallize in the Hg₃MF₆ structure are therefore expected to have the same a axis length, namely 2.90 x $\sqrt{3}$ = 5.02 Å. The M atoms located at the hexagonal lattice points would then be separated by 5.02 Å in each layer. This leaves only M-F bond length and F-M-F angles as unknown parameters to determine the exact positions of F atoms.

The ideal structure is the one in which the F atoms form a hexagonal sheet of 2.90 \mathring{A} spacing without introducing any distortion in the MF $_6$ ions. As an indicator of how close the F sheet is to this ideal arrangement a parameter ε can be defined as follows.

 $\xi = \frac{\text{closest F-F distance bonded to different M atoms}}{\text{closest F-F distance bonded to same M atom}}$

$$=\frac{r_2}{r_1} \tag{7.7}$$

(The distances r_1 and r_2 are shown in Fig. 5.5(b)). For the ideal hexagonal arrangement $\xi = 1$.

Table 7.2 lists the values of ξ for $\mathrm{Hg_3NbF_6}$, $\mathrm{Hg_3TaF_6}$ and various hypothetical compounds calculated by assuming typical values of known M-F bond lengths and setting all K-M-F angles = 90°. In the first three entries ξ is larger than the value corresponding to $\mathrm{Hg_3NbF_6}$ and $\mathrm{Hg_3TaF_6}$ which might be the reason why layer structures of $\mathrm{Hg_{3-\delta}AsF_6}$ and $\mathrm{Hg_{3-\delta}SbF_6}$ have not been observed. The table suggests an upper threshold value of ξ for layer compound formation between 1.12 and 1.17. On the other

Table 7.2

Value of ξ calculated for the known and hypothetical ${\rm Hg_3^{MF}_6}$ compounds assuming a distortion-free ${\rm MF_6}$ ion

Compound	M-F bond length (Å)	ξ,
Hg ₃ PF ₆	1.60	1.44
Hg ₃ AsF ₆	1.70	1.32
Hg3SbF6	1.85	1.17
Hg ₃ NbF ₆	1.90	1.12.
Hg ₃ TaF ₆	1.90	1.12
Hg ₃ BiF ₆	1.98	1.05

Ideal M-F bond length = 2.05 Å



hand, the unknown ${\rm Hg}_3{\rm BiF}_6$ might be expected to have a stable layer phase.

7.2 Geometry of polyatomic mercury ions in low oxidation states

The two compounds reported in Chapter VI, $\mathrm{Hg_4(Ta_2F_{11})_2}$ and $\mathrm{Hg_3(NbF_5)_2SO_4}$, contain Hg in higher oxidation states than the chain and the sheet compounds, i.e., $+\frac{1}{2}$ and $+\frac{2}{3}$ respectively. The former compound shows the tendency of Hg ions to link together into infinite zigzag chains while the latter does not show such a tendency. These observations are in good agreement with the structures of $\mathrm{Hg_4(AsF_6)_2}$, $\mathrm{Hg_3(AlCl_4)_2}$ and $\mathrm{Hg_3(AsF_6)_2}$ (Cutforth et al. (1983); Ellison et al. (1972); Cutforth, Davies, Dean, Gillespie; Ireland, Ummat (1973)). Many compounds containing the $\mathrm{Hg_2}^{2^+}$ are known, e.g., $\mathrm{Hg_2X_2}$ (X = E', Cl, Br, I). They feature Hg in a higher oxidation state than $+\frac{2}{3}$ and also do not exhibit any tendency to link into infinite chains (Dorm, 1971). On the other end, the elemental solid Hg with an oxidation state of zero crystallizes in two phases with three dimensional Hg linkages.

Table 7.3 lists compounds with Hg in various oxidation states. The table shows that the internal Hg-Hg bonds of the polyatomic ion gets shorter with increasing oxidation state. A systematic trend in the geometry of Hg atoms can also be seen in the table.

The oxidation states of Hg in these compounds given in Table 7.3 can be written in the series

$$\frac{2}{\infty}$$
, $\frac{2}{6}$, $\frac{2}{6-2\delta}$, $\frac{2}{4}$, $\frac{2}{3}$, $\frac{2}{2}$, $\frac{2}{1}$

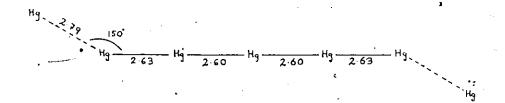
The missing member of the series is ${\rm Hg}_5^{2+}$ ion. This ion was not observed in the series of reactions between elemental Hg and ${\rm AsF}_5$

Table 7.3

The distances which may represent significant interactions are given in brackets. The Hg-Hg distances and geometry of Hg observed in various oxidation states.

Matérial	. Oxidation State	Hg-Hg distance (Å)	Geometry of Hg
α-solid Hg β-solid Hg	0 6	2.99(x6) 2.83(x2), 3.16(x8)	3-dimensional structure
Hg ₃ MF ₆ (M = Nb,Ta)	1/3	2.90(x6)	2-dimensional infinite sheets
Hg₃-ĞMF ₆ (M = As,Sb,Ñb,Ta)	> 1/3	2.671(x2)	l-dimensional straight chains
Hg ₄ (AsF ₆) ₂ Hg ₄ (Ta ₂ F ₁₁) ₂	1/2	2.588, 2.620(x2), [2.985] 2.593, 2.630(x2), [3.033]	Non-uniform zigząg chains
Hg3(AlCl ₄) ₂ Hg3(AsF ₆₎ ₂ Hg3(NbF ₅) ₂ SO ₄	2/3 2/3 2/3	2.551, 2.562 2.552(x2) 2.562(x2)	Terminal Hg atoms covalently bonded to central atom but no short interionic distances
Hg ₂ F ₂		2.507 (Dorm, 1971)	Each Hg atom covalently bonded to nearest Hg atom but Hg-F bonds have partial ionic character
HgF ₂	. 2	_1	Isolated ion

under SO_2 and may not be stable with respect to the chain compounds. However if the Hg_5^{2+} ion is ever prepared it is expected to be almost linear with the structure shown in the following diagram



where the Hg-Hg distances predicted are according to the trend seen in Table 7.3.

Another trend seen in Table 7.3 is that the Hg-Hg bonding becomes more and more directional as the oxidation state of the atom increases. In the lowest oxidation state, i.e., zero, Hg forms metallic Hg-Hg bonds in all three directions (α -Hg and ρ -Hg) but as the oxidation state increases to +1/3 the metallic Hg-Hg bonds occur only in two-dimensional layers while bonding to the atoms outside the layers (i.e., bonding to the six nearest F atoms about 3.2 Å away) becomes that of ionic character. When the oxidation state further increases the dimensionality of the Hg-Hg bonding is reduced to one, leading to the formation of infinite chains of the Hg $_{3-\delta}$ MF $_{6}$ compounds. In these chains each Hg atom forms two metallic Hg-Hg bonds of equal strength along the chain direction but the interaction in the other directions is ionic. The anisotropy of the Hg-Hg bonding increases as the oxidation state increases to +1/2 (Hg $_4$ compounds) for, in this case, the terminal Hg atoms form a strong bond towards the central atom but the interionic

interaction with the terminal atom of the nearby Hg_{1}^{2+} ion is weak. At this point the continuous path for electronic conduction is broken and the materials, although containing metal atoms, become insulators and loose their metallic luster. The internal bonds of the $\mathrm{Hg}_{\Lambda}^{-2+}$ ion should more appropriately be called covalent rather than metallic since the electronic charges are localized within each ion as explained in Sec. 1.1. The trend continues for oxidation state of $\pm 2/3$ (Hg₃²⁺ compounds) where the Hg 32+ ions are well-separated from each other and no short interionic distances can be found. Although the central atom 1 of the Hg_{3}^{2+} ion still forms Hg-Hg bonds of equal strength in two opposite directions the terminal atoms form only one such bond. As the oxidation state increases to +1 each Hg atom forms only one Hg-Hg bond with its nearest neighbour. The example given in Table 7.3, Hg, f, consists of Hg-Hg bonds of covalent character (2.51 Å) while the other bonds, namely Hg-F bonds, have partial ionic character as suggested by the bond length of 2.14 Å (Dorm, 1971). In the extreme case of oxidation state +2, Hg-Hg bonding does not occur at all. Hg2E3 listed in Table 7.3 as an example represents complete electronic transfer from Hg to F and the material is a simple ionic insulator.

APPENDIX I

DETAILS OF ABSORPTION CORRECTION

This appendix provides detailed information on the numerical integration absorption corrections used for some of the structure determinations of ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm MF}_6$ compounds reported in Chapter III. The corrections were applied using the program ABSORB, a routine of XRAY76 edited by Stewart (1976). Table A.l summarizes the input parameters to program ABSORB and wherever five entries separated by semi-colons are given they correspond respectively to the structure determination of the (i) ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm SbF}_6$ (sample 1) at 293K, (ii) ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm SbF}_6$ (sample 2) at 293K, (iii) ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm TaF}_6$ at 150K.

Table A.1

Input parameters to ABSORB

Linear absorption coefficient μ : 63.9; 63.9, 64.8; 74.9; 76.4 mm⁻¹

Radiation wavelength λ : 0.71069 Å ()

. Number of grid points for integration: 10x10x10

Primary orientation reflection hk ℓ : 200; 200; 200; 200; 200 χ : 68.47; 281.38; 279.07; 0.37; 0.11 ϕ : 21.05; 52.50; 49.73; 293.61; 294.22

Secondary orientation reflection hkl: 002; 002; 002; 008; 008 χ : 21.05; 11.40; 9.06; 1.50; 0.72 ϕ : 213.80; 48.90; 50.82; 203.58; 204.18

The following tables list the orientation and distances of the crystal faces from an arbitrarily chosen origin inside the crystal.

The room temperature and low temperature orientations are slightly different (in tables A.3 and A.4) because of small crystal movements during cooling. Only the room temperature orientations were measured as described in Sec. 3.2. The low temperature orientations were deduced from the difference between the crystal orientation matrices printed by the diffractometer. The distances (d) were adjusted to minimize the internal agreement factor R_{int} between the equivalent reflections of data set II.

Table A:2

Crystal face orientations and distances for ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm SbF}_6$ (sample 1)

x(293K)	ф(293К)	d(mm) x 10 ³ measured	d(mm) x 10 ³ adjusted
217.4	30.1	48±10	45
195.0	. 153.6 /	32 -	. 34
196.2	242.6	81	81
م 187.3	271.7	65	* 63 ·
173.6	213.5	39	37
174.4	95. 4	48	48
167.1	332.3	26	27
144'.0	210.1	55	52
10.4	58.4	. 65	58

Table A.3 Crystal face orientations and distances for ${\rm Hg}_{3\text{--}\delta}{\rm SbF}_6$ (sample 2)

_X (293K)	ф(293К)	χ(173K)	ф(173К)	d(mm) x 10 ³ measured	d(mm) x 10 ³ adjusted
12.2	51.6	10.1	53.3	-45±15	32.3
354.2	57.8	352.0	59.3	52±15	38.7
353.5	288.5	355.3	290.0	97±10	96.8
-6.8	229.9	8.9	231.4	65±10	51.6
16.6	228.1	18.6	229.4	65±10	64.5
22.8	226.0	25.0	268.1	90±10	90.3
22.8	140.9	22.0	141.7	81±10	80.6
355.4·	157.9	355.2	159.7	68±10	67.7
87.8	251.8	90.0	0:0	97 <u>±</u> 10	100.0
272.2	71.8	270.0	70.0	65±10	64.5

Table A.4 Crystal face orientations and distances for ${\rm Hg}_{3-\delta}{\rm TaF}_6$

_X (293K)	φ(293K) _.	χ(150K)	φ(150K)	d(mm) x 10 ³ measured	d(mm) x 10 ³ 'adjusted
178.4	25.1	179.2	25.7	5±10	5.2
181.6	205.1	180.8	205.7	5	5.2
180.0	115.1	180.2	115.7	97	96,8
180.0	295.1	179.8	295.7	97	96.8
90.0	0.0	90.8	43.3	97	96.8
270.0	0.0	269.2	223.3	97	96.8

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McMASTER UNIVERSITY THESIS TABLES #1.

This report contains magnitudes of observed and calculated structure factors for refined models described in the Ph.D. These:

STRUCTURES OF SOME MERCURY COMPOUNDS

IN LOW OXIDATION STATES .

Ву

Zin Tun, B.Sc.

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The Thesis was submitted to

the School of Graduate Studies, McMaster University, in

October, 1984.

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- TABLE 7 Observed and calculated structure factors of $Hg_4(Ta_2F_{11})_2$
- TABLE 8 Observed and calculated structure factors of ${\rm Hg_3(NbF_5)_2SO_4}$

Н	K	L	FO	_e FC	SIG	Н	K	L	۴O	FC	SIG	Н	K	L	FO	FC	SIG
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TABLE 1. OBSERVED AND CALCULATED STRUCTURE FACTORS OF HG3-858F6
(UNOBSERVED REFLECTIONS ARE MARKED +)

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FACTORS HG3-853F6 AT 293K **£DC**TURE 0 = ALCULATE O DBSERVED AND TABLE 2. PAGE 1 OF COND BEERVED REFLECTIO MARKED =0 FC F ) FC SIG Н K F₀ FC SIG Н ĸ L SIG Κ Н

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TABLE 2. DBSERVED AND CALCULATED STRUCTURE FACTORS OF HG3-853F6 AT 293K PAGE 2 OF 2

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TABLE 3. OBSERVED AND CALCULATED STRUCTURE FACTORS OF HG3-853F6
PAGE 1 OF 2
(UNOBSERVED REFLECTIONS ARE MARKED +)

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TABLE 3. OBSERVED AND CALCULATED STRUCTURE FACTORS OF HG3-6SBF6

PAGE 2 OF 2

(UNOSSERVED REFLECTIONS ARE MARKED +)

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67558649589474504869646475400254930454765064766005440716065644679765797159	SIG

TABLE 4. OBSERVED AND CALCULATED STRUCTURE FACTORS FOR HGT-8 N3F6.

(UNOBSERVED REFLECTIONS ARE MARKED +)

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TABLE 6. DESERVED AND CALCULATED STRUCTURE FACTORS OF HG3-STAF6 AT 150K (UNDOSSERVED REFLECTIONS ARE MARKED +)

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TABLE 6. 03SERVED AND CALCULATED STRUCTURE FACTORS OF HG3-8TAF6 AT 150K PAGE 2 OF 2 (UNOBSERVED REFLECTIONS AFE MARKED +)

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