

Handbook on the Physics and Chemistry of Rare Earths, volume 33

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PREFACE

Karl A. GSCHNEIDNER, Jr., Jean-Claude G. BÜNZLI, and Vitalij K. PECHARSKY

These elements perplex us in our rearches [sic], *baffle us in our speculations, and haunt us in our very dreams. They stretch like an unknown sea before us – mocking, mystifying, and murmuring strange revelations and possibilities.*

Sir William Crookes (February 16, 1887)

With this volume of the *Handbook on the Physics and Chemistry of Rare Earth* Profs. Jean-Claude Bünzli, Swiss Federal Institute of Technology, Lausanne, and Vitalij K. Pecharsky, Iowa State University, Ames have joined Prof. Karl A. Gschneidner, Jr., one of the founding editors of this series, as editors. Readers of prior volumes of the Handbook will notice that the Preface format has changed with the inclusion of the title and author(s), plus an appropriate figure from each of the chapters, instead of just a brief summary of its contents.

This volume of the Handbook illustrates the rich variety of topics covered by rare earth science. Three chapters are devoted to the description of solid state compounds: skutterudites (Chapter 211), rare earth-antimony systems (Chapter 212), and rare earth-manganese perovskites (Chapter 214). Two other reviews deal with solid state properties: one contribution includes information on existing thermodynamic data of lanthanide trihalides (Chapter 213) while the other one describes optical properties of rare earth compounds under pressure (Chapter 217). Finally, two chapters focus on solution chemistry. The state of the art in unraveling solution structure of lanthanide-containing coordination compounds by paramagnetic nuclear magnetic resonance is outlined in Chapter 215. The potential of time-resolved, laser-induced emission spectroscopy for the analysis of lanthanide and actinide solutions is presented and critically discussed in Chapter 216.

211 Filled Skutterudites by Brian C. Sales, Oak Ridge, National Laboratory, Tennessee, USA

The lead chapter reviews the remarkable physical behaviors of a distinctive family of intermetallic compounds – the filled lanthanide skutterudites. These unique compounds, which have the RM_4X_{12} stoichiometry (where R = lanthanides, M = Fe, Ru, and Os, and X = P, As and Sb), are best known for their excellent high temperature (> 700 K) thermoelectric properties. But as Brian Sales points out, they also exhibit a rich variety of electronic and



magnetic ground states – heavy fermion mediated superconductivity, ferromagnetism, antiferromagnetism, hybridization gaps (Kondo insulator behavior), non-Fermi-liquid behavior and quantum critical points, quadrupolar ordering, and field-induced heavy fermion states. The Ce-based phases exhibit: heavy fermion behavior – CeFe₄Sb₁₂; non-Fermi liquid behavior and possibly a quantum critical point – CeRu₄Sb₁₂; and narrow (hybridized) gap semiconducting behavior – Ce M_4P_{12} (M = Fe, Ru, Os). However, the most exotic lanthanide skutterudite is PrFe₄P₁₂ because it has both quadrupole order and heavy fermion ground states,

which are extremely close in energy. At low temperatures, < 6 K, a magnetic field of 4 T can drive $PrFe_4P_{12}$ between the two ground states leading to some unusual physical properties. Superconductivity is observed in most LaM_4X_{12} phases, as well as two of the Pr skutterudites, while those containing Nd, Eu, Gd and Tb exhibit magnetic ordering. Interestingly enough, EuFe₄P₁₂ has the highest ferromagnetic ordering temperature, 100 K, of the RM_4X_{12} compounds.

212 Rare Earth-Antimony Systems by Oksana Sologub, University of Wien, Austria, Petro Salamakha, Institute of Nuclear Technology, Sacavem, Portugal



An extensive compilation of the structural and physical properties of rare earth-antimony and of some rare earth-uranium-antimony systems is presented. The first part of the review collects the phase diagrams of binary R-M and ternary R-M-Sb, R-R'-Sb or R-U-Sb metal antimonides, along with their crystallographic data and the experimental synthetic methods used to isolate the compounds. A few quaternary systems are also presented. The chapter then focuses on the properties of ternary systems. Atomic coordinates are given for more

than forty types of crystal structures, and magnetic susceptibility and resistivity data are tabulated. The chapter ends with a general discussion on the peculiarities of the rare earthantimony interaction. The binary systems have been systematically studied and usually yield stoichiometric compounds, R_5Sb_3 , R_4Sb_3 , RSb, and RSb_2 . Ternary systems are less well known, so that general trends are more difficult to determine, but several families of ternary antimonides crystallize with structures derived from those of binary types.

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The trivalent lanthanide halides have had and still have an important technological relevance. In the 1950s and 1960s, fluorides were studied within the frame of the molten salt nuclear reactor project and a pyrochemical process was developed for the reprocessing of metal fuel. Nowadays, these technologies find a renewed interest within the frame of

actinide-lanthanide separation for nuclear waste management. Moreover, chlorides, bromides and iodides are finding application in lighting industry to improve the performances of highpressure discharge lamps. The authors describe the thermodynamic properties of lanthanide halides in a thorough review, which emphasizes the major trends in the data. Polymorphism, low- and high-temperature heat capacity and the enthalpy of formation of the solid state trihalides are presented first while the last sections of the review deal with heat capacity of the liquids and the heat capacity and enthalpy of formation of the gaseous trihalides.

214 Rare Earth-Manganese Perovskites by John B. Goodenough, University of Texas at Austin, USA



Rare earth ions influence the physical propearth-manganese perovskites erties of rare $R_{1-x}A_x$ MnO₃ (where A is an alkaline earth cation) through a geometric factor, which determines the bending of the Mn-O-Mn angle in order to achieve a match between the Mn-O and A-O equilibrium bond lengths. The author describes how this influence, along with other subtle electronic effects due to the Jahn-Teller distortion and to interactions with σ -bonding electrons, may be used to design materials with unusual physical properties (e.g., magnetization, resistivity, thermal conductivity) that may prove technologically useful. The chapter starts with

essential concepts related to structural aspects (the so-called tolerance factor) and electronic considerations, such as ligand-field effects, interatomic interactions and localized-itinerant electronic transitions. For instance, constraining the itinerant electrons to two-dimensional planes or one-dimensional chains, restricts ferromagnetic double-exchange coupling to the metallic planes or chains. Following this introductory part, both single- and double-valent perovskites are comprehensively reviewed taking these concepts into consideration.

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215 Paramagnetic NMR Lanthanide Induced Shift for Extracting Solution Structure by Claude Piguet, University of Geneva, Switzerland, Carlos F.G.C. Geraldes, University of Coimbra, Portugal



The authors summarize the latest advances in one fascinating technique enabling chemists to unravel the solution structures of coordination and supramolecular compounds, nuclear magnetic resonance of paramagnetic species. While paramagnetism is often considered as being a handicap to interpret NMR spectra, detailed structural and electronic information can be extracted from the separation of the contact and pseudo-contact contributions to the paramagnetic NMR shifts induced by the presence of a lanthanide ion. In a

precedent chapter of the Handbook (ch. 153, vol. 23), John Forsberg has reported on the use of a one-nucleus method for determining the structure of axial compounds. Here, the authors outline the general theory and then focus on the limitations of Bleaney's approach for modeling paramagnetic anisotropies and on the description of the new two- and three-nuclei methods, which are independent of changes in crystal field parameters and hyperfine coupling constants. A comprehensive survey of the application of these methods to coordination and supramolecular compounds with three- and fourfold symmetry is presented.

216 Lanthanide and Actinide Solution Chemistry Studied by Time-Resolved Emission Spectroscopy

by Isabelle Billard, Institut de Recherches Subatomiques, Strasbourg, France



Time-resolved emission spectroscopy is gaining importance in the study of various chemical aspects of luminescent lanthanide and actinide ions in solution. Here, the author describes the theoretical background of this analytical technique and discusses potential applications. Changes in the solution composition and/or in the metal-ion inner coordination sphere induce modifications of the spectroscopic properties of the luminescent species. Both time-resolved spectra and luminescence decays convey useful information. Several models, which are commonly used to extract physico-chemical infor-

mation from the spectroscopic data, are presented and critically compared. Applications of time-resolved emission spectroscopy are numerous and range from the characterization of the

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metal ion solvation sphere, to the evaluation of reaction rate constants and equilibrium constants, and to the quantitative determination of ultra trace amounts of lanthanide and actinide ions in solution, an aspect of importance in environmental chemistry. Potential uses of the technique to study micellar systems and ionic liquids are outlined.

217 Optical Studies on Non-Metallic Rare Earth Compounds under Pressure by Thomas Tröster, University of Paderborn, Germany



In a captivating review, the author surveys the optical properties of non-metallic compounds under pressure. The relationship between the optical properties of compounds and their microscopic structure has always triggered a lot of interest and has been regarded as a fundamental problem. Rare earth ions with partially filled 4f shells provide a detailed fingerprint of the surrounding arrangement of atoms and their interaction with f-electrons. Minute effects can be evidenced by measuring the spectra in various

hosts lattices. However, the presence of impurities somewhat limits the usefulness of the empirical data. In contrast, applying high-pressure to a system usually induces continuous variations in parameters, such as interatomic distances, influencing the optical properties. That is, the experimentalists can alter the energy difference between two states, almost at will, henceforth gathering information on their mutual influence. High pressure techniques are described and experimental data on energy levels, crystal field splittings, intensities and lifetimes of f-f transitions, as well as on electron–phonon interactions, are surveyed.

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Chapter 211

FILLED SKUTTERUDITES

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List of symbols

Beq	isotropic ADP	Т	temperature
С	heat capacity	Т	magnetic field in Tesla
C_{RLM}	heat capacity from resonant level model	$T_{\rm AF}$	antiferromagnetic ordering temperature
$C_{\rm ph}$	heat capacity from phonons	$T_{\rm c}$	superconducting transition temperature
e_g	doubly degenerate 3d orbitals	$T_{\rm co}$	cold temperature of thermoelectric device
H	magnetic field	T _d	displacive ordering transition
$k_{\rm B}$	Boltzmann constant	$T_{\rm FM}$	ferromagnetic ordering temperature
k	wavevector	t_{2g}	triply degenerate 3d orbitals
me	free electron mass	$T_{\rm h}$	hot temperature of thermoelectric device
m^*	effective electron mass	$T_{\rm K}$	Kondo temperature
n-type	electron doped semiconductor	T^*	characteristic temperature
Ρ	pressure	T_0	characteristic temperature
p-type	hole doped semiconductor	$\mu_{ m B}$	Bohr magneton
$R_{\rm W}$	Wilson-Sommerfeld ratio	μ_{eff}	effective magnetic moment
S	Seebeck coefficient	Ζ	thermoelectric figure of merit

ZT	dimensionless thermoelectric figure of merit	κ	total thermal conductivity of solid
γ	electronic coefficient of heat capacity	κ _e	thermal conductivity of electrons or holes
Г	$(1+ZT)^{1/2}$	$\kappa_{\rm L}$	thermal conductivity of lattice
Γ_1	crystal field singlet	κ_{\min}	minimum lattice thermal conductivity
Γ_3	non-Kramers doublet (crystal field state)	ho	electrical resistivity
Γ_4	crystal field triplet	Θ_{D}	Debye temperature
Γ_5	crystal field triplet	χ	magnetic susceptibility
Δ	hybridization gap	Xο	magnetic susceptibility at $T = 0$
ΔC	jump in heat capacity at $T_{\rm c}$		

List of acronyms

atomic displacement parameters	HFSC	heavy-fermion superconductor
antiferromagnetic metal	LDA	local density approximation
theory of superconductivity	М	metal
crystalline electric field	M-I	metal to insulator transition
de Hass-van Alphen	NFL	non-Fermi liquid
density of states	ODS	ordered state
field-induced heavy-fermion metal	QCP	quantum critical point
ferromagnetic metal	QO	quadrupolar order
heavy-fermion state	RRR	residual resistance ratio
heavy-fermion metal	SC	superconductor
hybridization gap semiconductor	XANES	X-ray absorption near edge spectroscopy
	atomic displacement parameters antiferromagnetic metal theory of superconductivity crystalline electric field de Hass–van Alphen density of states field-induced heavy-fermion metal ferromagnetic metal heavy-fermion state heavy-fermion metal hybridization gap semiconductor	atomic displacement parametersHFSCantiferromagnetic metalLDAtheory of superconductivityMcrystalline electric fieldM-Ide Hass–van AlphenNFLdensity of statesODSfield-induced heavy-fermion metalQCPferromagnetic metalQQheavy-fermion stateRRRheavy-fermion metalSChybridization gap semiconductorXANES

1. Introduction

Skutterudite is the name of a CoAs₃-based mineral that was first extensively mined as a source of cobalt and nickel in the region of Skutterud Norway. Compounds with the same cubic crystal structure have since been known as "skutterudites". Oftedal first extensively studied the skutterudite crystal structure in 1928 (Oftedal, 1928). An example of a well-formed natural skutterudite mineral is shown in fig. 1.

The skutterudite structure has two voids in each unit cell that are large enough to accommodate a variety of atoms including most of the light lanthanides (La, Ce, Pr, Nd, Sm, Eu, Gd, Tb) and Yb. The first "filled skutterudites" were synthesized by Prof. Jeitschko and collaborators in the late 1970s (Jeitschko and Braun, 1977; Braun and Jeitschko, 1980a, 1980b, 1980c). The chemical composition of the lanthanide filled skutterudites is given by RM_4X_{12} , where R are the lanthanides noted above, M = Fe, Ru, Os and X = P, As, Sb. For each lanthanide element there is a maximum of nine distinct compounds with the skutterudite structure. In 1996 it was found that some of the lanthanide skutterudites had excellent thermoelectric properties above room temperature (Sales et al., 1996;



Fig. 1. Photograph of a natural skutterudite mineral. This extremely well crystallized specimen is from the Sandroste Mine near Bou Azzer, Morocco. (Image downloaded from Carnegie–Mellon Mineral Collection Images, Alan Guisewite's collection.)

Fleurial et al., 1996) and this greatly increased the interest in these materials for thermoelectric applications. In addition to the stoichiometric filled skutterudite compounds of the form RM_4X_{12} , a large number of related alloys were also investigated as possible thermoelectric materials. Most of the research on lanthanide skutterudites in the context of thermoelectric applications has been reviewed recently by Uher (2001), Nolas et al. (1999), and Sales (1998) and hence only a brief summary of the thermoelectric research will be presented at the end of this article. This chapter will focus on what is known about the structural, electronic and magnetic properties of the stoichiometric lanthanide skutterudite compounds of the form RM_4X_{12} . The low temperature properties will be of particular interest since these compounds exhibit a rich variety of electronic and magnetic ground states that include heavy-fermion-mediated superconductivity, ferromagnetism, antiferromagnetism, hybridization gaps (Kondo insulator behavior), non-Fermi-liquid behavior and quantum critical points, quadrupolar ordering, and field-induced heavy-fermion states.

2. Structure

The filled skutterudites crystallize in the cubic space group Im3 with two formula units (RM₄X₁₂) per unit cell. There are three unique atomic positions in the normalized unit cell. The rare earth position is (0, 0, 0), the transition metal position is (0.25, 0.25, 0.25), and the pnicogen (P, As, Sb) position (0, *y*, *z*) is variable with $y \approx 0.35$, $z \approx 0.16$ (fig. 2). The positions of the remaining 31 atoms in the unit cell are determined by the symmetry operations associated with the Im3 space group (fig. 3). As has been reviewed in detail by Uher (2001), the exact values of *y* and *z* for the unique pnicogen position depend on the particular compound, and reflect the fact the pnicogen rings (fig. 4) in the structure are not exactly square and the MX_6 octahedra are slightly distorted. If the pnicogen rings were exactly square and the octahedra symmetric, the pnicogen position would reduce to (x = 0, y = 0.25, z = 0.25). The similarities between the filled skutterudite structure and the more familiar perovskite



Fig. 2. Positional parameters for the pnicogen atoms of filled and unfilled skutterudites (figure from Kaiser and Jeitschko (1999)). The straight line indicates the condition for square pnicogen rings. In the figure T = Co, Rh or Ir; A = light lanthanides or Yb, Ca, Sr or Ba; R = light lanthanides.

Fig. 3. Model of the filled skutterudite structure. The transition metal atoms (Fe, Ru, or Os – small light blue spheres) are at the center of distorted octahedra formed by the pnicogen atoms (P, As, Sb – green spheres). The lanthanide atoms (red spheres) are located at the center of a cage formed by 12 pnicogen atoms. The skutterudite structure results if the lanthanide atoms are removed from the structure and the transition metals (Fe, Ru or Os) are replaced by transition metals with one more outer shell electron (Co, Rh or Ir).

(e.g., CaTiO₃) and ReO₃ structures have been discussed by Jeitschko and Braun (1977). In the ideal perovskite structure the eight octahedra are not tilted which results in eight voids that are filled by Ca atoms. The tilting of the octahedra in the skutterudite structure reduces the volume of six of these voids which become the centers of rectangular pnicogen (P₄, As₄ or Sb₄) groups. The remaining two voids are greatly enlarged and can accommodate lanthanide atoms (fig. 4). Each lanthanide atom is located at the center of a distorted icosahedron formed by 12 pnicogen atoms. The size of this icosahedral cage formed by the pnicogen atoms increases as the pnicogen is changed from P to As to Sb. In many of the antimonide compounds the atomic displacement parameters for the lanthanide atoms are unusually large, indicating substantial "rattling" of the R atoms about their equilibrium positions and poor bonding to the antimony atoms forming the cage (Braun and Jeitschko, 1980a; Kaiser and Jeitschko, 1999). The filled skutterudite structure does not form with the smaller



Fig. 4. Model of filled skutterudite structure that emphasizes the pnicogen-pnicogen bonding that results in nearly square pnicogen rings. The transition metal atoms (small white spheres) form a simple cubic lattice as shown. The lines connecting the transition metal atoms have been added for clarity and do not correspond to a chemical bond. The only chemical bonds shown in this model are those that form the pnicogen rings. The lanthanide atoms (large dark spheres) occupy the two voids without a pnicogen ring.

lanthanide elements (Dy–Tm) or Y or Sc because the pnicogen cage is too large for the necessary lanthanide-pnicogen bonding.

3. Lanthanide skutterudites as Zintl compounds

The qualitative electronic structure of the filled skutterudites can be understood within the framework of the Zintl concept (for a good discussion of Zintl's ideas see Corbett (1985), Muller (1993)). Zintl phases are characterized by the presence of covalently bonded anion structures similar to those found in the pure element. In the skutterudites, the pnicogen rings can be considered Zintl anions. The strongly electropositive cations (lanthanide elements and to a lesser extent the transition metal atoms), simply provide the necessary charge to complete the outer electron shell of the pnicogen anions. The Zintl concept can be applied to a huge number of compounds containing elements from the IVB, VB and VIB columns of the periodic table. Zintl compounds tend to be small gap semiconductors or bad metals. For the unfilled skutterudites, such as $CoSb_3$, each Sb atom is bonded to two Sb and two Co atoms, and each Co atom is bonded to six Sb atoms (figs. 3 and 4). The outer shell of each Sb atom is $5s^2p^3$ and so to attain a closed shell $(5s^2p^6)$ requires 3 electrons. The two covalent Sb-Sb bonds provide two of the electrons. The third electron is donated by the two Co atoms (a half an electron from each). This argument suggests that Co should have a formal valence of +3. In an octahedral site, the crystal field will result in a splitting of the five Co 3d orbitals into a ground state triplet (t_{2g}) and an excited state doublet (e_g) . (For an exceptionally clear discussion of why this occurs see Muller (1993).) The six d electrons of Co^{+3} can completely occupy the t_{2g} orbital with no net magnetic moment, which is consistent with the measured diamagnetism for CoSb₃. This argument would also suggest that CoSb₃ is a semiconductor. Although the simple Zintl concept appears to work for CoSb₃, it is important

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to realize that the Zintl picture is only a guideline and like many of the most useful guidelines they often work but sometimes they do not. In the case of $CoSb_3$ it is not clear that the Zintl picture should work well since there is not much difference in electronegativity between Co (1.88) and Sb (2.05). Detailed electronic structure calculations (Singh and Pickett, 1994; Sofo and Mahan, 1998) indicate that the electronic structure of $CoSb_3$ is rather complicated with a small gap of 0.05 eV at the Fermi energy due to a single band that crosses a much larger pseudogap (0.8 eV) between the valence and conduction bands.

The electronic structure of the lanthanide filled skutterudites can also be analyzed using the Zintl picture. The lanthanide filled skutterudites (e.g., LaFe₄Sb₁₂) form with the transition metals Fe, Ru or Os. These elements have one less outer electron relative to the elements in the next column of the periodic table (Co, Rh, or Ir). If the lanthanide elements contribute three electrons toward satisfying the bonding requirements of the pnicogen atoms, the total electron count is satisfied if each transition metal contributes on average 2.25 electrons. Although in terms of electron count an average valence of 2.25 should result in a semiconductor (within the Zintl picture), an average valence of 2.25 at each transition metal site would also imply a partially filled d band near the Fermi level. Since each transition metal is at a crystallographically equivalent site there is no reason to assume a spatial distribution of different transition metal valence states. This simple argument would suggest that the all of the lanthanide filled skutterudites should be poor metals. If the transition metal has an integer valence of +2, then a better metal should result with holes as the dominant carriers. For most of the lanthanide skutterudites the Zintl picture seems to be qualitatively correct at least as a starting point for understanding the electronic properties of these compounds. These simple ideas are useful but should only be regarded as guidelines and not a substitute for a modern electronic structure calculation. For example, density functional calculations of the electronic structure of CeFe₄Sb₁₂, and CeFe₄P₁₂ indicate that both compounds are small band gap semiconductors (Nordstrom and Singh, 1996). The gap is due to strong hybridization between the Ce 4f level and Fe 3d and pnicogen states near the Fermi energy.

4. Synthesis and crystal growth

The skutterudites do not melt congruently and involve pnicogens (P, As, Sb) that generally have high vapor pressures at the formation temperatures of the compounds. The high melting temperatures of Fe, Ru and Os coupled with the reactivity of the lanthanide metals with convenient crucible materials (e.g., SiO_2) makes the synthesis of many of these compounds difficult. As a result, variations in the reported properties of a particular lanthanide skutterudite compound can often be traced to differences in sample composition and quality.

Small single crystals of most of the lanthanide phosphides can be grown in a molten tin flux (Jeitschko and Braun, 1977; Meisner, 1981; Meisner et al., 1985; Delong and Meisner, 1985; Torikachvili et al., 1987; Watcharapasorn et al., 1999; Sato et al., 2000a, 2000b). For example, $LaFe_4P_{12}$ crystals were grown using La filings, Fe powder, red phosphorus and Sn in the atomic ratio 1:4:20:50. The mixture was sealed in an evacuated silica tube, annealed for one week at 1050 K, and slow cooled (2 K/h) to about 773 K, followed by rapid cooling to room

temperature. A 1:1 mixture of HCl and water was then used to dissolve the Sn flux (Jeitschko and Braun, 1977). Single crystals with typical dimensions from 0.1 to 2 mm can be grown by this method. Although this recipe clearly works and has been used by several authors, it may not be the optimum procedure for growing the largest phosphide crystals based on the known binary phase diagrams. A larger concentration of Sn and a carbonized silica tube along with larger pieces of lanthanide metals and cooling to lower temperatures might result in larger phosphide crystals. Polycrystalline skutterudite phosphides have also been synthesized directly from the elements using a high pressure (4 GPa) and high temperature (800–1200 °C) wedge-type cubic-anvil apparatus (Shirotani et al., 1996, 1997; Sekine et al., 1997; Uchiumi et al., 1999). This technique avoids contamination from residual Sn flux.

Lanthanide arsenides with the filled skutterudite structure were prepared by Braun and Jeitschko (1980b). Lanthanide arsenides, RAs, were first prepared by reacting lanthanide filings with As in a silica tube at 900 K for two days. The RAs material was then ground together with the transition metal and excess As (R:T:As = 1:4:20) and sealed again in evacuated silica tubes, rapidly heated to 1150 K and kept at temperature for 3 h. The samples were then annealed at 1000 K for 4–7 days. The excess As was removed through sublimation. In spite of this elaborate synthesis procedure, the overall products were only 70–90% single phase. However, small single crystals of the skutterudite phase suitable for X-ray structure refinement could often be isolated from the reaction product. A dense single phase sample of CeFe₄As₁₂ was prepared by a similar procedure followed by the densification of the powder with a hot-press (Watcharapasorn et al., 2002). Single phase arsenides with a variety of compositions have also been prepared via direct high-pressure high-temperature synthesis from the elements (Shirotani et al., 1997).

Synthesis of the lanthanide antimonides with the filled skutterudite structure have been investigated in much more detail than either the arsenides or phosphides because of the excellent thermoelectric properties of these materials at elevated temperatures. These materials were first synthesized by Braun and Jeitschko (1980a) using a procedure similar to that described above for the synthesis of the arsenides. The phase purity of the antimonides prepared in this manner was only about 80%. A better synthesis procedure was reported by Sales et al. (1996, 1997). A thin layer of carbon was deposited on the inside of a round-bottomed silica tube by the pyrolysis of acetone. Stoichiometric amounts of high purity lanthanide metal pieces (99.99% electropolished bar from Ames laboratory), Fe rod (99.9985% from Alfa Chemical Company), and Sb shot (99.999% from Alfa) were loaded into the precarbonized tube. The tube was sealed under vacuum at a pressure of 10^{-3} Pa and transferred into a programmable furnace. The silica ampoule was heated to 600 °C at 2 °C/min, left at $600 \,^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 3 h, and then slowly $(0.5 \,^{\circ}\text{C/min})$ heated to $1050 \,^{\circ}\text{C}$ and left for about 20–40 h. It is important to slowly heat the tube because of the highly exothermic reaction between the lanthanide elements (particularly Ce) and antimony. The silica ampoule containing the homogeneous molten liquid was removed from the furnace at temperature and quenched into a water bath. The same ampoule (containing the prereacted elements) was then placed in a furnace and annealed at 700 °C for 30 h to form the correct crystallographic phase. The completely reacted solid was removed from the silica tube and cleaned with a wire brush to remove small amounts of carbon from the surface. To form a completely dense polycrys-

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talline solid, the reacted material was ball milled into a fine powder in an argon atmosphere, loaded into a graphite die, and hot-pressed (5000 psi) in a helium atmosphere at 700 °C for 40 min. This procedure results in single phase and dense polycrystalline samples suitable for further investigation (transport, magnetic, optical, etc.). Single crystals of the antimonides can also be grown using excess antimony as a flux (Chakoumakos et al., 1999; Takeda and Ishikawa, 2000b; E.D. Bauer et al., 2001a, 2001b). High purity elements in the ratio R:T:Sb = 1:4:20 are loaded into an evacuated carbon coated quartz tube. The tubes are heated to 900 °C for 24 h and then cooled slowly (1–3 °C/h) to 600 °C, followed by a quench to room temperature. The excess Sb flux can be removed by etching in acid (HCl:HNO₃ = 1:1). Small quantities of new compounds with the skutterudite structure can also be synthesized using a clever non-equilibrium thin film method pioneered by D.C. Johnson and collaborators at the University of Oregon (Hornbostel et al., 1997a, 1997b). The new compounds are formed by the low-temperature interdiffusion of multilayer elemental reactants.

5. La filled skutterudites

 $LaFe_4P_{12}$ is a metal that becomes superconducting for temperatures below 4.1 K (Meisner, 1981). The residual resistance ratio (RRR) for these crystals is large RRR = 90-1500indicating good crystallographic perfection (Torikachvili et al., 1987; Sato et al., 2000a, 2000b; Sugawara et al., 2000). The resistivity at room temperature is about 250 $\mu\Omega$ cm (Sugawara et al., 2000) in fair agreement with optical conductivity data which yields a value of 85 $\mu\Omega$ cm (Dordevic et al., 1999). Superconductivity is rare in compounds that contain such high concentrations of iron. Mössbauer measurements found that each iron atom in LaFe₄P₁₂ carried a magnetic moment less than $0.01\mu_{\rm B}$ (Shenoy et al., 1982; Grandjean et al., 1984). The magnetic susceptibility data is weakly temperature dependent and saturates below 50 K at a value of 8×10^{-4} cm³/mol (emu/mol) (Meisner, 1981; Grandjean et al., 1984). If the iron moments are in a low spin configuration similar to Fe^{+2} , from the Zintl picture discussed in sect. 3, the compound should be a hole doped metal. Hall measurements (Sato et al., 2000b) and band structure calculations (Harima, 1998, 2000) both indicate hole like conduction. Band structure predicts two hole-like Fermi sheets, a nearly spherical sheet composed mainly of Fe 3d states and a multiply connected sheet of mainly P-p character (fig. 5). The band structure calculations are in good agreement with the two masses extracted from dHvA measurements on LaFe₄ P_{12} crystals (Sugawara et al., 2000). The predicted electronic specific heat coefficient, γ , from the band structure calculations, was 32 mJ/mol K² in fair agreement with the experimental value of 57 mJ/mol K² (Torikachvili et al., 1987). The relatively high density of electronic states and the absence of magnetism suggests that $LaFe_4P_{12}$ is a relatively normal BCS superconductor. The jump in the heat capacity at $T_c = 4.1$ K is about 87% of the value expected from BCS theory.

 $LaRu_4P_{12}$ is a metal that superconducts below 7.2 K (Meisner, 1981; Delong and Meisner, 1985; Uchiumi et al., 1999). The room temperature resistivity of a polycrystalline sample was 600 µ Ω cm decreasing to about 20 µ Ω cm at 8 K (Shirotani et al., 1996). Analysis of the low

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Fig. 5. The Fermi surface of $LaFe_4P_{12}$ consists of two hole-like Fermi sheets. The first sheet (a) is nearly spherical with mainly Fe 3d character while the second sheet (b) is multiply connected with mainly P–p character. Both surfaces are centered at the Γ point. Various high-symmetry directions are noted in (a) (Harima, 1998; Sugawara et al., 2000).

temperature heat capacity data yields $\gamma = 26 \text{ mJ/mol K}^2$ and a Debye temperature, $\Theta_D = 446 \text{ K}$. The magnetic susceptibility is essentially temperature independent from 7–300 K, consistent with Pauli paramagnetism (Uchiumi et al., 1999).

 $LaOs_4P_{12}$ is a metal with a room temperature resistivity of about 400 µ Ω cm, which decreases to 50 µ Ω cm at 2 K followed by superconductivity at 1.8 K (Shirotani et al., 1996; Meisner, 1981). There is a weak decrease of T_c with increasing pressure (Delong and Meisner, 1985).

 $LaFe_4As_{12}$ is a metal that shows a monotonic decrease in resistivity down to 2 K with no evidence of superconductivity (Shirotani et al., 2000).

 $LaRu_4As_{12}$ is a poor metal with the highest superconducting transition temperature (10.3 K) of all of the filled skutterudites. Polycrystalline samples can be prepared using high pressure and high temperature (Shirotani et al., 1996, 1997, 2000; Uchiumi et al., 1999). The resistivity at room temperature is 13 m Ω cm decreasing to 3 m Ω cm at 12 K. The temperature dependence of the resistivity exhibits a large positive curvature that suggests substantial structure in the electronic density of state near the Fermi energy. Low temperature heat capacity measurements yield $\gamma = 73$ mJ/mol K², and $\Theta_D = 233$ K. The normalized jump in the heat capacity at T_c is 1.75 which is slightly larger than the BCS value of 1.43. With increasing pressure T_c decreases at the rate $dT_c/dP = -0.4$ K/GPa (fig. 6).

 $LaOs_4As_{12}$ is metallic exhibiting superconductivity below 3.2 K (Shirotani et al., 2000). The resistivity (polycrystalline sample) at room temperature is 0.8 m Ω cm decreasing to 0.1 m Ω cm at 4 K.

 $LaFe_4Sb_{12}$ is a poor metal or heavily doped semiconductor with good thermoelectric properties above room temperature (700–1000 K) (Sales et al., 1996, 1997). Only polycrystalline samples have been investigated. The room temperature resistivity is about 0.5 m Ω cm de-



Fig. 6. Electrical resistivity of LaRu₄As₁₂ vs. temperature and pressure (Shirotani et al., 2000).

Fig. 7. Seebeck coefficient vs. temperature for $LaFe_4Sb_{12}$ and $CeFe_4Sb_{12}$ (Sales et al., 1997, unpublished).

creasing to 0.1 m Ω cm at 10 K. The typical carrier concentration estimated from room temperature Hall data is 2 × 10²¹ holes/cm³. The Seebeck coefficient, *S*, at room temperature is +75 µV/K which is typical for a heavily doped semiconductor (the value of *S* for a good metal is usually less than 10 µV/K in magnitude). The electronic structure near the Fermi energy has more that one type of band since the Seebeck coefficient changes sign near 100 K (fig. 7). There has been no report of superconductivity in this material above 2 K. There is no evidence of long range magnetic order. The magnetic susceptibility indicates some type of enhanced paramagnetism that is probably associated with nearly itinerant 3d electrons (Ravot et al., 2001; Dannebrock et al., 1996; Sales, unpublished). Although the temperature dependence of the susceptibility is similar for all three samples, the magnitude of the room temperature susceptibility varies substantially from 0.0019 emu/mol (Ravot et al., 2001) to 0.004 (Dannebrock et al., 1996) – note that all of the susceptibility data in Dannebrock's fig. 2 appears to be mislabeled since the susceptibility values are too high by a factor of 10). At helium temperatures the susceptibility saturates for all three samples near 0.02 emu/mol. Probably the best interpretation of the susceptibility data was given by Ravot et al. (2001) who were able to account for the nearly Curie–Weiss dependence of the susceptibility in terms of a Stoner band picture. This interpretation is also consistent with the discussion in sect. 3, which implies some type of band magnetism if the average iron valence is 2.25. However, the significant variation of the susceptibility from sample to sample and the difficulty in ruling out small amounts (< 3%) of a magnetic impurity phase suggests that the magnetism may not be intrinsic to the skutterudite phase. Susceptibility measurements should be repeated using a single crystal free of impurity phases.

Braun and Jeitschko (1980a) noted that the lanthanide site in the antimonides is too large for La, the largest trivalent lanthanide element. The poor bonding of La to the surrounding antimony atoms results in a large atomic displacement parameter (ADP) for La and corresponds to the La "rattling" about its equilibrium position. As a first approximation the rattling La atom can be treated as a localized Einstein oscillator. Slack (1995) was first to suggest that if the frequency of the Einstein oscillator is low enough, it could result in a substantial reduction in the lattice thermal conductivity of the filled skutterudites by hybridizing with the acoustic phonons that carry the majority of the heat in most solids. This idea has been experimentally verified by many authors (Morelli and Meisner, 1995; Sales et al., 1996, 1997, 2000, 2001a, 2001b; Fleurial et al., 1996; Nolas et al., 1996a, 1996b, 1998; Morelli et al., 1997; Meisner et al., 1998). A low lattice thermal conductivity, κ_L , is necessary for a good thermoelectric material. The room temperature value of $\kappa_{\rm L}$ for dense polycrystalline LaFe₄Sb₁₂ is approximately 1.5 W/mK. An estimate of the Einstein frequency for La in LaFe₄Sb₁₂ has been obtained from heat capacity, elastic constant, inelastic neutron scattering (fig. 8), ADP data and theory (Sales et al., 1997, 1999; Keppens et al., 1998; Feldman et al., 2000). All of the measurements indicate a characteristic Einstein temperature of about 75 K for the La atoms.



Fig. 8. Difference in the inelastic neutron scattering data between $LaFe_4Sb_{12}$ and $CeFe_4Sb_{12}$ vs. energy loss (Keppens et al., 1998). $CeFe_4Sb_{12}$ was used as a reference compound since the neutron scattering cross section of Ce is much smaller than that of La. The difference spectra therefore reflect the vibrational density of states (DOS) associated with the La atoms. The peak at 7 meV (78 K) corresponds to the quasi-localized La mode. The second broader peak at about 15 meV corresponds to the hybridization of La and Sb vibrational modes. Both peaks can be accounted for using lattice dynamic models based on first-principles calculations (Feldman et al., 2000).

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 $LaRu_4Sb_{12}$ is metallic and is superconducting below about 3.6 K (Uchiumi et al., 1999; Takeda and Ishikawa, 2000b; E.D. Bauer et al., 2001a). Low temperature heat capacity data yield $\gamma = 37 \text{ mJ/mol K}^2$ and $\Theta_D = 253 \text{ K}$. The residual resistivity ratio (RRR) is about 69 for the small crystals but no absolute values for the resistivity are reported (Takeda and Ishikawa, 2000b). Polycrystalline samples synthesized at high pressures have a resistivity of 0.7 m Ω cm and a much smaller RRR of 7. The T_c of the polycrystalline material is also significantly lower (2.8 K) (Uchiumi et al., 1999). The normalized jump in the heat capacity at T_c is 2.22, which suggests that LaRu₄Sb₁₂ is a superconductor with moderate coupling (Takeda and Ishikawa, 2000b). The room temperature magnetic susceptibility of LaRu₄Sb₁₂ is diamagnetic with a value of -1.93×10^{-4} emu/mol.

 $LaOs4Sb_{12}$ is presumably a metal although only heat capacity data from small single crystals have been published resulting in $\gamma = 36 \text{ mJ/mol K}^2$ and $\Theta_D = 304 \text{ K}$. There is no evidence for superconductivity above 0.5 K (E.D. Bauer et al., 2001b).

6. Ce filled skutterudites

 $CeFe_4P_{12}$ is a small gap semiconductor with the gap likely arising from the hybridization of the Ce 4f states with the Fe 3d and 5b-p states in the vicinity of the Fermi energy (Meisner et al., 1985; Nordstrom and Singh, 1996). The susceptibility of CeFe₄P₁₂ is small $(2.6 \times 10^{-4} \text{ emu/mol})$, and is roughly a factor of 2 less than its non-magnetic analog LaFe₄P₁₂. The lattice constant of CeFe₄P₁₂ (7.792 Å) is significantly smaller than would be expected for trivalent Ce based on the values for LaFe₄P₁₂ (7.8316 Å) and $PrFe_4P_{12}$ (7.8149 Å). The susceptibility data and the lattice constant suggest the possibility of Ce⁺⁴. However, XANES (X-ray absorption near edge spectroscopy) measurements (Xue et al., 1994) clearly indicate that the Ce is primarily trivalent, though with some evidence of complex electronic behavior. The resistivity increases with decreasing temperature but the behavior is complicated and somewhat sample dependent (Meisner et al., 1985; Sato et al., 2000b). Analysis of single crystal resistivity data above 250 K gives a transport gap of about 0.12 eV (Sato et al., 2000b) which is close to the value of 0.15 eV measured from infrared reflectance spectroscopy (Dordevic et al., 1999). Both values are somewhat smaller than the value of 0.34 eV calculated within the local-density approximation (LDA) (Nordstrom and Singh, 1996). The temperature dependence of the Hall coefficient from 2–300 K appears to be reproducible from crystal to crystal but is difficult to interpret (Sato et al., 2000b). The Seebeck coefficient at room temperature is large for single crystals ($\approx 0.5 \text{ mV/K}$) (Sato et al., 2000b) but is about 10 times smaller in hot-pressed polycrystalline samples with small amounts of impurity phases (Watcharapasorn et al., 1999). The room temperature thermal conductivity of a polycrystalline sample is 14 W/mK, which is about ten times larger than the typical values of good thermoelectric materials (Watcharapasorn et al., 1999).

 $CeRu_4P_{12}$ is a narrow gap semiconductor with a gap of 0.075 eV estimated from electrical transport measurements on polycrystalline samples (Shirotani et al., 1996). XANES measurements indicate trivalent Ce with strong hybridization with ligand orbitals. The gap is presumably formed from the hybridization of the Ce 4f states with the Ru d and P–p orbitals

(Kanai et al., 2002). The room temperature thermal conductivity of a dense polycrystalline sample is 8.6 W/m K (Watcharapasorn et al., 1999). The magnetic susceptibility is paramagnetic but relatively small at room temperature ($\approx 0.001 \text{ cm}^3/\text{mol Ce}$) and increases to about 0.018 cm³/mol at 2 K (Shirotani et al., 1999). These values indicate a substantial reduction in the magnetism of the Ce 4f shell due to hybridization.

CeOs₄P₁₂ is a narrow gap semiconductor with a gap of $\approx 0.036 \text{ eV}$ ($\approx 400 \text{ K}$) estimated from resistivity data (Shirotani et al., 1999). The room temperature resistivity is $\approx 10^{-2} \Omega$ cm increasing to $\approx 10^4 \Omega$ cm at 2 K. The magnetic susceptibility is similar to that of CeRu₄P₁₂ (Shirotani et al., 1999). The as-grown samples are p-type with a room temperature Hall mobility of 73 cm²/V s for a carrier concentration of $5 \times 10^{19} \text{ cm}^{-3}$. The room temperature values of the Seebeck coefficient and thermal conductivity are +147 µV/K and 10.5 W/m K, respectively (Sekine et al., 2001).

 $CeFe_4As_{12}$ is probably a narrow gap semiconductor, but little low temperature data are available for this compound. The resistivity of a polycrystalline sample indicates a small gap on the order of 0.01 eV (Grandjean et al., 1984). The high temperature thermoelectric properties of this compound were investigated by Watcharapasorn et al. (2002). They found semimetallic behavior with a room temperature resistivity of 0.49 m Ω cm, a Seebeck coefficient of 40 μ V/K, and a thermal conductivity of 3.8 W/m K. The maximum value for *ZT*, the thermoelectric figure of merit, was estimated to be 0.4 at 850 K.

 $CeRu_4As_{12}$ – only crystallography data has been reported for this compound (see table 1).

 $CeFe_4Sb_{12}$ is a moderately heavy fermion metal at low temperatures (Morelli and Meisner, 1995; Gajewski et al., 1998; E.D. Bauer et al., 2000) and has excellent thermoelectric properties at elevated temperatures (Sales et al., 1996, 1997; Fleurial et al., 1996). LDA calculations predict a small gap (0.1 eV) that is not observed experimentally (Nordstrom and Singh, 1996). The hybridization between the Ce 4f and the Fe 3d and Sb-p states at the Fermi energy is apparently not large enough to create a gap. XANES measurements (Grandjean et al., 2000) indicate a Ce valence of 3 ± 0.02 , and iron Mössbauer data show no indication of magnetic order (Long et al., 1999). All of the reported data are from polycrystalline samples. Analysis of the low temperature heat capacity and magnetization data are complicated by small amounts of impurity phases (Morelli and Meisner, 1995; Chen et al., 1997; Gajewski et al., 1998). Analysis of the low temperature heat capacity data yields $\gamma = 180 \text{ mJ/mol K}^2$ and $\Theta_D \approx 250 \text{ K}$ (Gajewski et al., 1998). The resistivity of CeFe₄Sb₁₂ has an unusual "S" shape that is characteristic of many concentrated Kondo compounds (fig. 9b). The rapid decrease in resistivity at about 100 K is caused by the coherent scattering of electrons from the lanthanide sublattice. The interpretation of the magnetic data is complicated by an enhanced Pauli contribution from the Fe (Ravot et al., 2001), a relatively high Kondo temperature, $T_{\rm K}$, of about 100 K (Gajewski et al., 1998) and the crystal field splitting of the Ce 4f level in a cubic crystal field. In spite of these complications, it is clear that the value of the Wilson–Sommerfeld ratio $R_{\rm w} = (\chi_0/\gamma)(\pi^2 k_{\rm B}^2/\mu_{\rm eff}^2)$ is of the order unity as expected for heavy fermion systems (Wilson, 1975). In the expression for R_w , χ_0 is the extrapolated Pauli susceptibility at T = 0 (0.008 emu/mol Ce), and μ_{eff} is the magnetic moment per Ce ion $(2.54 \mu_B)$.

Compound	Lattice constant	Density (g/cm ³)	Ground state/transition	Ref.
	(Å)	(X-ray density)	temperature (K)	
LaFe ₄ P ₁₂	7.8316	5.08	S, $T_{\rm c} = 4.1$	1
LaRu ₄ P ₁₂	8.0561	5.81	S, $T_{\rm c} = 7.2$	1
LaOs ₄ P ₁₂	8.0844	7.99	S, $T_{\rm c} = 1.8$	1
LaFe ₄ As ₁₂	8.3252	7.26	Μ	3
LaRu ₄ As ₁₂	8.5081	7.77	S, $T_{\rm c} = 10.3$	3
LaOs ₄ As ₁₂	8.5437	9.57	S, $T_{c} = 3.2$	3
LaFe ₄ Sb ₁₂	9.1395	7.93	Μ	2
LaRu ₄ Sb ₁₂	9.2700	8.35	S, $T_{\rm c} = 2.8$	2
LaOs ₄ Sb ₁₂	9.3029	9.74	Μ	2
CeFe ₄ P ₁₂	7.7920	5.16	HGS	1
CeRu ₄ P ₁₂	8.0376	5.86	HGS	1
CeOs ₄ P ₁₂	8.0626	8.06	HGS	1
CeFe ₄ As ₁₂	8.2959	7.34	_	3
CeRu ₄ As ₁₂	8.4908	7.83	_	3
CeOs ₄ As ₁₂	8.5249	9.64	_	3
CeFe ₄ Sb ₁₂	9.1350	7.95	HFM	2
CeRu ₄ Sb ₁₂	9.2657	8.37	NFL, QCP	2
$CeOs_4Sb_{12}$	9.3011	9.75	HGS	2
PrFe ₄ P ₁₂	7.8149	5.12	QO, $T_{\text{QO}} = 6.5$, FIHFM	1
PrRu ₄ P ₁₂	8.0420	5.86	M-I, $T_{M-I} = 60, T_{AF} \approx 0.3$	1
PrOs ₄ P ₁₂	8.0710	8.04	М	1
PrFe ₄ As ₁₂	8.3125	7.30	_	3
PrRu ₄ As ₁₂	8.4963	7.82	S, $T_{\rm c} = 2.4$	3
PrOs ₄ As ₁₂	8.5311	9.62	_	3
PrFe ₄ Sb ₁₂	9.1351	7.95	FMM, $T_{\rm FM} = 5$	2
PrRu ₄ Sb ₁₂	9.2648	8.38		2
PrOs ₄ Sb ₁₂	9.2994	9.76	HFSC, $T_{\rm sc} = 1.8$	2
NdFe ₄ P ₁₂	7.8079	5.16	FMM, $T_{\rm FM} = 5$	1
NdRu ₄ P ₁₂	8.0364	5.89	FMM, $T_{\rm FM} = 1.5$	1
NdOs ₄ P ₁₂	8.0638	8.09	_	1
NdFe ₄ As ₁₂	8.309	7.39	_	9
NdRu ₄ As ₁₂	-		_	
NdOs ₄ As ₁₂	8.5291	9.65	_	3
NdFe ₄ Sb ₁₂	9.130	8.04	_	5
NdRu ₄ Sb ₁₂	9.2642	8.39	AFM?, $T_{AF} = 1.3$	2
$NdOs_4Sb_{12}$	9.2989	9.77	$T_{\rm d} = 187$	2
SmFe ₄ P ₁₂	7.8029	5.21	Μ	1
SmRu ₄ P ₁₂	8.0397	5.96	M-I & $T_{\rm AF} = 16$	11
SmFe ₄ Sb ₁₂	9.130	8.06	FMM, $T_{FM} = 45$	5
SmRu ₄ Sb ₁₂	9.259	8.49	_	5
$SmOs_4Sb_{12}$	9.3009	9.79	-	2
EuFe ₄ P ₁₂	7.8055	5.22	FMM, $T_{\rm FM} = 100$	1
EuRu ₄ P ₁₂	8.0406	5.93	FMM, $T_{FM} = 18$	1

Table 1 Crystallography data and ground state properties of filled skutterudites^a

continued on next page

Table 1, continued				
Compound	Lattice constant (Å)	Density (g/cm ³) (X-ray density)	Ground state/transition temperature (K)	Ref.
EuFe ₄ Sb ₁₂	9.165	7.98	FMM, $T_{FM} = 84$	5
EuRu ₄ Sb ₁₂	9.2824	8.42	FMM, $T_{FM} = 3.3$	2
$EuOs_4Sb_{12}$	9.3187	9.74	-	2
GdFe ₄ P ₁₂	7.795	5.31	FMM, $T_{\rm FM} = 22$	9
GdRu ₄ P ₁₂	8.0375	6.01	AFM?, $T_{AF} = 21$	11
TbRu ₄ P ₁₂	8.0338	6.03	AFM?, $T_{\rm AF} = 20, 10$	11
YbFe ₄ Sb ₁₂	9.1580	8.09	HFM, Mixed Valence	7
$YbOs_4Sb_{12}$	9.316	9.91		6
ThFe ₄ P ₁₂	7.7999	5.83		4
ThRu ₄ P ₁₂	8.0461	6.47		4
ThOs ₄ As ₁₂	8.5183	10.24		4
UFe ₄ P ₁₂	7.7709	5.94		5
CaFe ₄ Sb ₁₂	9.162	7.5		5
SrFe ₄ Sb ₁₂	9.1782	7.67		10
SrRu ₄ Sb ₁₂	9.2891	8.15		5
SrOs ₄ Sb ₁₂	9.322	9.52		10

7.82

8.29

9.68

Table 1. continued

BaOs ₄ Sb ₁₂
^a Symbols:

BaFe₄Sb₁₂

BaRu₄Sb₁₂

9.200

9.315

9.3401

S, superconductor; HGS, hybridization gap semiconductor HFM, heavy fermion metal; M, metallic; NFL, non-Fermi liquid; QCP, quantum critical point;	FIHFN FMM, AFM, M-I, n AFM? T, di	M, field-induced heavy-fermion metal; , ferromagnetic metal; antiferromagnetic metal; netal to insulator transition; ?, unusual magnetic phase transition; celeaire transition
<i>References</i> 1. Jeitschko and Braun (1977)	5. Evers et al. (1995)	9. Jeitschko et al. (2000)
 Braun and Jeitschko (1980a) Braun and Jeitschko (1980b) Braun and Jeitschko (1980c) 	6. Kaiser and Jeitschko (197. Dilley et al. (1998)8. Stetson et al. (1991)	999) 10. Evers et al. (1994) 11. Sekine et al. (2000a)

 $CeRu_4Sb_{12}$ is an unusual metal that exhibits non-Fermi liquid (NFL) behavior in the low temperature specific heat, resistivity, and magnetic susceptibility measurements on single crystals (Takeda and Ishikawa, 2000a, 2000b, 2001; E.D. Bauer et al., 2001a). CeRu_4Sb_{12} may be near a ferromagnetic quantum critical point. The low temperature (T < 4 K) specific heat (fig. 10) and magnetic susceptibility of CeRu_4Sb_{12} are well described by a logarithmic divergence or a power law in temperature. The characteristic temperature, T^* , that is associated with the maximum in the magnetic susceptibility and with the rapid drop in the

8

5

10



Fig. 9. (a) Scaled resistivity $\rho(T)/\rho$ (300 K) vs. T/T_0 for YbFe₄Sb₁₂, where T_0 is the scaling temperature. Inset shows the pressure dependence of T_0 . (b) Scaled resistivity of CeFe₄Sb₁₂ vs. T/T_0 . Inset shows pressure dependence of T_0 . The room temperature resistivity of both compounds was about 0.8 m Ω cm at ambient pressure (E.D. Bauer et al., 2000).

Fig. 10. Electronic contribution to the heat capacity divided by temperature vs. $\log_{10} T$ for a series of La doped alloys of CeRu₄Sb₁₂. The data has been corrected for a phonon contribution, using heat capacity data from LaRu₄Sb₁₂, and a nuclear quadrupolar contribution from ¹²¹Sb and ¹²³Sb (Takeda and Ishikawa, 2001).

resistivity is about 75 K. The low temperature carrier mass, m^* , estimated from heat capacity and optical studies, is about 85 times the free electron mass (Dordevic et al., 2001). Optical measurements are able to directly measure the pseudo-gap, Δ , created by the hybridization between the Ce 4f states and the extended conduction band states. The mass enhancement scales as $m^*/m_e = (\Delta/T^*)^2$ as predicted by theory (Millis et al., 1987). The low temperature resistivity data for CeRu₄Sb₁₂ reported by Takeda and Ishikawa (2000a, 2000b, 2001) follows a power law in temperature ($\rho \alpha T^n$) with n = 1.65. A magnetic field greater than 2 T appears to restore Fermi liquid behavior (n = 2) for temperatures less than 1 K, as did the substitution of a small amount of La for Ce. The La-doping studies suggest that the parent compound, CeRu₄Sb₁₂, is near a ferromagnetic quantum critical point.

In contrast, E.D. Bauer et al. (2001a) found that the electrical resistivity is sample dependent with some specimens exhibiting NFL behavior below 5 K. For these samples the application of magnetic fields up to H = 8 T does not significantly change the non-Fermi liquid ground state. The low temperature transport properties of CeRu₄Sb₁₂ crystals are clearly sensitive to small changes in composition or small concentrations of impurities in the starting materials.

*CeOs₄Sb*₁₂ is a narrow gap semiconductor with the gap caused by the hybridization of the Ce 4f level with states near the Fermi energy. Transport data on small single crystals shows a weakly activated behavior corresponding to a gap of about 10 K (E.D. Bauer et al., 2001b). Heat capacity data give $\gamma \approx 92 \text{ mJ/mol K}^2$ and $\Theta_D = 304 \text{ K}$. No magnetic order was found above 0.5 K. The temperature dependence of the magnetic susceptibility data suggests a relatively large crystalline electric field splitting (327 K) of the Ce 4f level.

7. Pr filled skutterudites

 $PrFe_4P_{12}$ is quite an unusual compound that exhibits weak semiconducting behavior from 20–300 K followed by an even stranger phase transition near 5 K (fig. 11) (Sato et al., 2000a, 2000b; Aoki et al., 2002). Originally it was thought that the low temperature phase transition corresponded to the onset of antiferromagnetic ordering of the Pr magnetic moments (Torikachvili et al., 1987). More recent work indicates that the phase transition probably corresponds to the ordering of the Pr quadrupole moments since for temperatures below the transition each Pr ion has a low magnetic moment implying a non-magnetic ground state $(< 0.03 \mu_{\rm B}/{\rm Pr})$ (Aoki et al., 2002). No magnetic ordering is evident in neutron scattering measurements (Keller et al., 2001). The Hall coefficient changes by more than two orders of magnitude below 5 K but becomes temperature independent below 2 K. The Hall data suggests a gap structure similar to that seen in the resistivity (fig. 11) and heat capacity data. The Seebeck coefficient is extremely large below 5 K reaching a maximum value of $-130 \,\mu\text{V/K}$ at 4 K, which reflects an unusually sharp feature in the electronic density of states. The application of a magnetic field induces a transition to a heavy-fermion state (HFS) with a well-defined phase boundary as a function of magnetic field and temperature (figs. 12, 13). A metamagnetic phase transition (fig. 14) is also associated with the phase boundary (Torikachvili et al., 1987; Matsuda et al., 2000; Aoki et al., 2002). It is suggested that the quadrupolar degrees of freedom are essential for the formation of the heavy-fermion state in this material. The crystalline



Fig. 11. Electrical resistivity vs. $\log_{10} T$ for PrFe₄P₁₂. Below 3 K the resistivity is accurately described by $\rho(T) = 20 + 273T^2 \exp(-6.8/T)$, corresponding to the temperature dependence of scattering with a gap structure (Sato et al., 2000a).

Fig. 12. Total heat capacity of a single crystal of $PrFe_4P_{12}$ vs. temperature in various applied magnetic fields: (a) low fields and (b) high fields. The dashed lines in (b) correspond to the best fit of the heavy fermion state to the resonant level model (C_{RLM}). C_{ph} is the estimate of the phonon contribution to the heat capacity (Aoki et al., 2002).

electric field level schemes estimated from the anisotropy in the magnetization are consistent with this conjecture. The de Haas–van Alphen (dHvA) effect has been used to study the electronic structure of $PrFe_4P_{12}$. An enormously enhanced cyclotron effective mass of 81 m_e was found in the HFS phase. In the low field ordered phase a dHvA branch with a mass of 10 m_e was also observed (Sugawara et al., 2001).



Fig. 13. Magnetic field vs. temperature phase diagram of single crystal $PrFe_4P_{12}$ with the magnetic fields applied along the (100) direction. The labels ODS and HFS refer to ordered state and heavy fermion state, respectively. The ordered state is probably due to quadrupolar ordering of the Pr 4f ground state. The solid and broken lines represent second-order and first-order phase boundaries, respectively (Aoki et al., 2002).

Fig. 14. Magnetization vs. field at 2.5, 4.2 and 7 K with the magnetic field applied along the main symmetry directions of $PrFe_4P_{12}$. The observed magnetic anisotropy is a feature of the non-ordered state (Aoki et al., 2002).

 $PrRu_4P_{12}$ exhibits an unusual metal-insulator transition (M-I) at about 60 K (fig. 15) (Sekine et al., 1997). There is no magnetic anomaly associated with this transition and originally it was thought there is no structural change associated with the M-I. A small struc-



Fig. 15. Normalized resistivity of $PrRu_4P_{12}$ vs. temperature at pressures from 1 atm to 1.6 GPa (Sekine et al., 1997).

tural transition was subsequently detected using electron diffraction in which the space group changes from Im3 (the skutterudite space group) to probably Pm3 (Lee et al., 2001). XANES measurements give a Pr valence of +3 for temperatures between 20 and 300 K, suggesting that there is no valence transition associated with the M-I (Lee et al., 1999). The opening of a gap at the Fermi energy (Nanba et al., 1999) is either due to a small displacement of the P atoms in the structure or perhaps charge ordering on the phosphorus (Lee et al., 2001). For temperatures near 60 K, Raman measurements on PrRu₄P₁₂ indicate the softening of a mode at 380 cm⁻¹ that is associated with P vibrations (Sekine et al., 1999). There is a small jump in the thermal expansion coefficient at 63 K ($\approx 5 \times 10^{-7}$ K⁻¹) that shows no evidence of thermal hysteresis, indicating a second order phase transition. The thermal expansion anomaly is unaffected in magnetic fields up to at least 7 T (Matsuhira et al., 2000). The magnetic susceptibility data follow a Curie-Weiss law at high temperatures with an effective moment of $3.8\mu_B$ and a Weiss temperature of -7 K. The low temperature susceptibility (< 100 K) is complicated by the crystalline electric field at the Pr site that splits the J = 4 4f level (Sekine et al., 1997, 2000c). Heat capacity data suggest that the ground state of the Pr 4f shell is a Γ_3 non-Kramers doublet. Antiferromagnetic order likely occurs for T < 0.35 K (Meisner, 1981).

 $PrOs_4P_{12}$ is a metallic with a relatively temperature independent resistivity for temperatures between 50 and 300 K. Below 50 K there is a rapid drop in the resistivity similar to that observed in Pr metal or Kondo lattice Ce compounds such as CeFe₄Sb₁₂ (fig. 9). There is also a small kink in the resistivity at 7 K of unknown origin. The magnetic susceptibility
data follows a Curie–Weiss law at high temperatures with an effective moment of $3.63\mu_B$ and a Weiss temperature of -17 K. There is no evidence for magnetic order above 1 K. Magnetization measurements at 2 K indicate a non-magnetic ground state caused by the crystalline electric field (Sekine et al., 1997).

 $PrFe_4As_{12}$ – only crystallography data have been reported for this compound (see table 1). $PrRu_4As_{12}$ is a superconductor below 2.4 K. The resistivity of a polycrystalline sample changes from 1 m Ω cm at room temperature to 0.25 m Ω cm at 3 K (Shirotani et al., 1997).

*PrOs*₄*As*₁₂ – only crystallography data have been reported for this compound (see table 1).

 $PrFe_4Sb_{12}$ is likely a metal. Magnetic measurements on polycrystalline samples that were about 90% phase pure indicated ferromagnetic ordering below 5 K with a moment of $1\mu_B$ per formula unit. The only other phase detected using X-ray diffraction was FeSb₂, which has a weak Pauli paramagnetic susceptibility (Dannebrock et al., 1996).

 $PrRu_4Sb_{12}$ is a metal that becomes superconducting below 1 K. Heat capacity data confirm the bulk nature of the superconductivity with $\Delta C/\gamma T_c = 1.87$, which is larger than the 1.43 value expected from BCS theory. Values for Θ_D and γ are 232 K and 59 mJ/mol K², respectively. The magnetic susceptibility data indicates a non-magnetic ground state for the Pr⁺³ ions and a substantial crystal field splitting greater than 125 K (Takeda and Ishikawa, 2000b).



Fig. 16. (a) Resistivity and magnetic susceptibility, and (b) heat capacity data for $PrOs_4Sb_{12}$ (E.D. Bauer et al., 2002).

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 $PrOs_4Sb_{12}$ is the first known example of a heavy-fermion superconductor containing Pr (E.D. Bauer et al., 2002). Heavy-fermion behavior is inferred by the size of the jump in the heat capacity at $T_c = 1.76$ K and by the slope of the critical field near T_c . Both analyses suggest $\gamma \approx 350 \text{ mJ/mol K}^2$ and $m^* \approx 100 m_{\rm e}$. The resistivity, magnetic susceptibility and heat capacity data are shown in fig. 16. The analysis of the data is complicated by the crystal electric field (CEF) splitting of the Pr levels 4f levels. The resistivity drops by almost a factor of 2 between 7 K and the onset of the superconducting transition at 1.76 K. In many lanthanide compounds this drop is often indicative of low lying CEF levels. The broad Schottky like peak at 2.2 K is also consistent with this hypothesis. Quantitative fits to the magnetic susceptibility data plus an analysis of inelastic neutron scattering (Maple et al., 2002) and heat capacity data imply the $J = 4 \text{ Pr}^{+3}$ level is split into a non-magnetic Γ_3 doublet ground state, a Γ_5 triplet at 8.2 K, a Γ_4 triplet at 133 K and a Γ_1 singlet at 320 K above the ground state. Heavy fermion behavior likely arises in this compound due to the interaction between the charge on the conduction electrons and fluctuations of the Pr⁺³ electric quadrupole moments associated with the Γ_3 doublet ground state. The effect of Pr^{+3} quadrupole fluctuations on the superconductivity of PrOs₄Sb₁₂ is an open question.

8. Nd filled skutterudites

 $NdFe_4P_{12}$ is metallic and orders ferromagnetically below 2 K (Torikachvili et al., 1987). The resistivity decreases monotonically from a value of $\approx 150 \ \mu\Omega$ cm at room temperature to $\approx 25 \ \mu\Omega$ cm at 30 K. Below 30 K the resistivity increases with decreasing temperature (fig. 17) until the ferromagnetic phase transition is reached at 2 K. Below this transition the resistivity decreases as T^4 , rather than the T^2 expected from magnon scattering (Sato et al., 2000a, 2000b). The heat capacity data below 2 K decreases as T^3 rather than the $T^{3/2}$ expected for a simple ferromagnet (Torikachvili et al., 1987). Both the heat capacity data and the resistivity



Fig. 17. Low temperature resistivity data for $NdFe_4P_{12}$ (Sato et al., 2000b).

can be understood if the magnon energy is linear in wavevector k rather than proportional to k^2 (Sato et al., 2000a, 2000b). The magnetic susceptibility follows a Curie–Weiss law for temperatures between 180 and 300 K with an effective moment of $3.53\mu_B$, close to the Nd⁺³ free ion value of $3.62\mu_B$. Below 150 K the positive curvature in the susceptibility indicates the effects of the CEF. Neutron scattering measurements have confirmed the ferromagnetic ordering of the Nd moments below 2 K (Keller et al., 2001). The ordered moment was found to be $1.6\mu_B$ at 1.5 K. De Hass–van Alfen measurements on NdFe₄P₁₂ crystals showed a Fermi surface similar to LaFe₄P₁₂ except for the splitting of the dHvA branches due to the ferromagnetic exchange interaction (Sugawara et al., 2000).

 $NdRu_4P_{12}$ is a metal that becomes ferromagnetic below 1.5 K (Sekine et al., 1998). Room temperature Raman data have been reported for this compound (Sekine et al., 1998). Three distinct Raman modes at 370, 385, and 415 cm⁻¹ were observed, but there was no detailed analysis of exactly which vibrations should be associated with these modes.

 $NdOs_4P_{12}$ – only crystallography data have been reported for this compound (see table 1). $NdFe_4As_{12}$ – only crystallography data have been reported for this compound (see table 1). $NdRu_4As_{12}$ – has not been synthesized.

 $NdOs_4As_{12}$ – only crystallography data have been reported for this compound (see table 1). $NdFe_4Sb_{12}$ – only crystallography data have been reported for this compound (see table 1).

 $NdRu_4Sb_{12}$ is metallic and undergoes some type of magnetic transition near 1.3 K. The magnetic susceptibility follows a Curie–Weiss law above 50 K with an effective moment of $3.45\mu_B$ and a Weiss temperature of -28 K. Crystal fields likely effect the susceptibility and magnetic interactions for temperatures below 50 K. Low temperature heat capacity data confirm the bulk nature of the magnetic transition (Takeda and Ishikawa, 2000b).

 $NdOs_4Sb_{12}$ may undergo a displacive-type phase transition at -86 °C in which the Nd atoms freeze at off center positions (Evers et al., 1995). This transition was proposed on the basis of scanning calorimetry measurements and the huge room temperature value for the Nd atomic displacement parameter ($B_{eq} = 4 \text{ Å}^2$).

9. Sm filled skutterudites

 $SmFe_4P_{12}$ is a metal that shows Van Vleck paramagnetism (Jeitschko et al., 2000).

 $SmRu_4P_{12}$ undergoes a metal to insulator transition in conjunction with antiferromagnetic ordering at 16 K (Sekine et al., 1998).

 $SmFe_4Sb_{12}$ is metallic and orders ferromagnetically for temperatures below 45 K with a relatively small saturation moment of $0.7\mu_B$ (Dannebrock et al., 1996).

 $SmRu_4Sb_{12}$ and $SmOs_4Sb_{12}$ – only crystallography data have been reported for these compounds (see table 1).

10. Eu filled skutterudites

 $EuFe_4P_{12}$ is metallic and orders ferromagnetically for temperatures below 100 K (Grandjean et al., 1984). The effective moment, as determined from the high temperature magnetic sus-

ceptibility data, is $6.2\mu_B$ per formula unit which is lower than the value expected for Eu⁺² of 7.94 μ_B . The hyperfine parameters as determined from Mössbauer spectroscopy are unusual (Grandjean et al., 1983). The value of the Eu isomer shift in EuFe₄P₁₂ is -6 mm/s and the isomer shift is independent of temperature from 4 K to 300 K. An isomer shift of -6 mm/s is near the limit for Eu⁺² compounds which suggests the possibility of a Eu valence that fluctuates between Eu⁺² and Eu⁺³ configurations. If the Eu⁺³ and Eu⁺² configurations are energetically degenerate, the average valence is determined by the degeneracy of each level, which implies a temperature independent valence of about 3 - 8/9 = 2.11. Magnetic order in a mixed valence Eu compound would be extremely interesting. XANES measurements would be helpful in deciding if the Eu valence is intermediate in this material. The reduced moment for Eu⁺², however, may simply indicate an incomplete filling of the lanthanide site.

 $EuRu_4P_{12}$ is metallic and orders ferromagnetically for temperatures below 18 K (Grandjean et al., 1983; Sekine et al., 2000b). The saturation moment is about 10% smaller than the Eu⁺² value of $7\mu_B$ which could imply an intermediate Eu valence or an incomplete filling of the lanthanide site. The value of the Eu isomer shift in EuRu₄P₁₂ is -9.3 mm/s, which is compatible with Eu⁺² in a metallic compound.

 $EuFe_4Sb_{12}$ is metallic and ferromagnetic below 84 K (Dannebrock et al., 1996; E. Bauer et al., 2001a, 2001b). The low temperature saturation moment, however, is only 64% (4.5 μ_B) of the Eu⁺² value of 7 μ_B (Dannebrock et al., 1996; E. Bauer et al., 2001a, 2001b). Part of the decrease is due to the incomplete filling of the Eu site (E. Bauer et al., 2001a, 2001b) which was estimated to be 84%. The Eu Mössbauer isomer shift is -11.7 mm/s and is temperature independent, which clearly indicates divalent Eu. The remainder of the decrease in the saturation moment was attributed to some type of ferrimagnetism, possibly involving the Fe (E. Bauer et al., 2001a, 2001b). The electrical resistivity is sensitive to the exact filling of the lanthanide site and the presence of impurity phases. The room temperature resistivity has been reported as low as 38 $\mu\Omega$ cm (E. Bauer et al., 2001a, 2001b) to 420 $\mu\Omega$ cm (Kuznetsov and Rowe, 2000). The samples of Kuznetsov and Rowe appear to be of higher quality and phase purity. The room temperature Seebeck coefficient is $\approx 60 \ \mu V/K$ increasing to $\approx 120 \ \mu V/K$ at 800 K (Kuznetsov and Rowe, 2000). The thermoelectric properties of EuFe₄Sb₁₂ are not promising.

 $EuRu_4Sb_{12}$ is metallic and becomes ferromagnetic for temperatures below 3.3 K (Takeda and Ishikawa, 2000b). The low temperature saturation moment is about $6.2\mu_B$, 89% of the Eu⁺² value. Low temperature heat capacity measurements indicate that the magnetic entropy removed due to magnetic order is also only about 90% of its expected value (Rln8). It is likely that the lanthanide site is not completely filled in this compound although mixed valence behavior can not be ruled out with the available data.

11. Gd filled skutterudites

 $GdFe_4P_{12}$ is metallic and a soft ferromagnet with a Curie temperature of 22 K (Jeitschko et al., 2000).



Fig. 18. Resistivity vs. temperature for a polycrystalline sample of GdRu₄P₁₂ synthesized using high pressures and temperatures (Sekine et al., 2000a).

Fig. 19. Low temperature magnetization curves for $GdRu_4P_{12}$ that indicate a field induced phase transition (Sekine et al., 2000a).

 $GdRu_4P_{12}$ is metallic for temperatures between 30 and 300 K, but undergoes an unusual phase transition near 20 K (fig. 18) (Sekine et al., 2000a). The magnetic susceptibility follows a Curie–Weiss law at high temperatures with effective moment of $8.04\mu_B$ and a Weiss temperature of +22 K, which suggests ferromagnetic interactions. Below 22 K, however, the magnetization data are more consistent with a strange type of antiferromagnetic ordering. The magnetization data also indicate a field-induced phase transition at low temperatures for magnetic fields $\approx 5-6$ T (fig. 19).

12. Tb filled skutterudites

*TbRu*₄*P*₁₂ is metallic with unusual phase transitions at 20 K and 10 K (Sekine et al., 2000a). The resistivity data from TbRu₄P₁₂ is similar to that of GdRu₄P₁₂ shown in fig. 18. The high temperature magnetic susceptibility data indicate ferromagnetic interactions (Weiss temperature ≈ 8 K) but low temperature data are more consistent with some type of antiferromagnetic order (fig. 20). Low temperature magnetization data indicate two metamagnetic phase trans-



Fig. 20. Inverse magnetic susceptibility of TbRu₄P₁₂ vs. temperature measured at H = 1 T. Inset shows an enlarged view of susceptibility data below 20 K (Sekine et al., 2000a).

sitions. It is possible that the unusual phase transitions at about 20 K in both $GdRu_4P_{12}$ and $TbRu_4P_{12}$ are related to the freezing of the lanthanide atoms in off-center positions.

13. Yb filled skutterudites

*YbFe*₄*Sb*₁₂ was first synthesized by Dilley et al. (1998). Measurements of the lattice constant, magnetization, resistivity and heat capacity suggest an intermediate valence for the Yb ions. XANES measurements yield a Yb valence of 2.68 (Leithe-Jasper et al., 1999). The electronic specific heat coefficient is estimated to be $\gamma = 140 \text{ mJ/mol K}^2$ which indicates that the effective mass of the conduction electrons is moderately enhanced at low temperatures. The characteristic temperature, T^* , for the Yb valence fluctuations is estimated to be 50 K (see fig. 9a). The Wilson–Sommerfeld ratio, R_w , is about 2.6 in good agreement with the value of $R_w = 2$ expected for a spin 1/2 Kondo effect. The room temperature value of the resistivity is $\approx 450 \ \mu\Omega$ cm as determined from resistivity and optical measurements (Dordevic et al., 2001) and decreases to $\approx 40 \ \mu\Omega$ cm at 2 K. Optical measurements also are able to directly measure the pseudogap, $\Delta = 90 \ \text{cm}^{-1}$, created by the hybridization between the Yb 4f states and the extended conduction band states (fig. 21). The mass enhancement scales as $m^*/m_e = (\Delta/T^*)^2$ as predicted by theory (Millis et al., 1987). The thermoelectric properties of YbFe₄Sb₁₂ were investigated by Dilley et al. (1998, 2000a, 2000b), and Kuznetsov and Rowe (2000). The maximum estimated value of ZT is 0.4 at 670 K.

14. Filled skutterudite thermoelectrics

14.1. Introduction to thermoelectric materials and devices

As mentioned in sect. 1, in 1996 it was found that some of the lanthanide antimony-based skutterudites had excellent thermoelectric properties above room temperature (Sales et al., 1996;



Fig. 21. Real part of the conductivity of YbFe₄Sb₁₂. The symbols on the left axis represent dc values at different temperatures. Below T^* (\approx 50 K), a narrow peak at zero frequency and a gap-like feature at ≈ 18 meV gradually develop. Inset: Renormalized band structure calculated from the Anderson lattice Hamiltonian. ε_k and ε_f denote bands of free carriers and localized electrons, respectively. At low temperatures a direct gap Δ opens. The Fermi level, $E_{\rm F}^*$ is near the top of the lower band, E_k^- , resulting in hole-like character and enhanced effective mass of the quasiparticles (Dordevic et al., 2001).

Fleurial et al., 1996). This discovery greatly increased the interest in these materials for thermoelectric applications. In addition to the stoichiometric filled skutterudite compounds of the form RM_4X_{12} , a large number of related alloys were also investigated as possible thermoelectric materials. Most of the research on lanthanide skutterudites in the context of thermoelectric applications has been reviewed recently by Uher (2001), Nolas et al. (1999), and Sales (1998) and hence only a brief summary of the thermoelectric research will be highlighted in this section.

In a solid that conducts both heat and electricity, the thermal and electrical currents are coupled together. This thermoelectric coupling can be used to construct devices that act as refrigerators, power generators or temperature sensors. The devices work because the electrons or holes in a conducting solid also carry heat as well as electrical charge. The electrical carriers are the "working fluid" in a thermoelectric refrigerator. Thermoelectric devices are attractive for many applications as they have no moving parts (except electrons and holes), use no liquid refrigerant and last indefinitely. The major disadvantage of thermoelectric devices is poor efficiency.

The efficiency of a thermoelectric solid is found to depend on material properties through the dimensionless parameter ZT:

$$ZT = \frac{TS^2}{\rho\kappa} \tag{1}$$

where *T* is the absolute temperature, ρ is the electrical resistivity, *S* is the Seebeck coefficient, and κ is the total thermal conductivity. The total thermal conductivity is often broken up into two parts, $\kappa = \kappa_e + \kappa_L$ where κ_e is the heat carried by the electrons and holes and κ_L is the heat carried by the lattice. *Z* is defined as the figure of merit and *ZT* is often referred to as the dimensionless figure of merit. For power generation the efficiency is defined as heat in



Fig. 22. A single thermoelectric couple is illustrated that has been configured for refrigeration or power generation. The labels "p" (positive) and "n" (negative) refer to the sign of the charge carriers in each leg (open circles correspond to holes and filled circles to electrons). Refrigeration is possible in these devices because electrons (or holes) carry heat, and hot electrons (holes) can be forced away from the cold end of the device by the battery. If a temperature difference is externally imposed on the device, useful power can be extracted.

divided by work out and is given by:

$$\text{Efficiency} = \frac{(T_{\rm h} - T_{\rm co})(\Gamma - 1)}{(T_{\rm co} + \Gamma T_{\rm h})} \tag{2}$$

where T_{co} (T_h) is the temperature of the cold (hot) end and $\Gamma = (1 + ZT)^{1/2}$ varies with the average temperature T. For refrigeration, efficiency is defined as the heat pumped out divided by the work in and is called the Coefficient of Performance (COP). The COP can be greater than 1 and is given by:

$$COP = \frac{(\Gamma T_{co} - T_{h})}{[(T_{h} - T_{co})(1 + \Gamma)]}.$$
(3)

For $ZT \gg 1$, Carnot efficiency is obtained for power generation and the Carnot limit to the COP is obtained for refrigeration. Materials currently used in thermoelectric devices have ZT values between 0.4 and 1.0.

All thermoelectric devices are composed of thermoelectric couples such as illustrated in fig. 22. Each leg of the couple is a doped semiconductor (or semimetal) with one p-type and one n-type leg. P-type (n-type) means that the dominant charge carriers are positive (negative). One side of the couple is thermally and electrically shorted together using a metal like copper (brown region). Electrical and thermal contact to a heat sink and the battery or load are made through copper pads at the open end of the couple (brown regions). Since the electrons and holes in a material carry heat, a battery can be used to force the hot electrons and holes away from the cold end of the device resulting in cooling of the cold end. If the direction of the current is reversed, the hot and cold ends are also reversed. If a temperature gradient is imposed across the thermoelectric couple, useful power can be extracted. In an actual thermoelectric device, typically several tens of these couples are connected together in series. For good general reviews of thermoelectric devices, materials and theory refer to Rowe (1995), Goldsmid (1986), Mahan et al. (1997), Mahan (1998), Sales (2002), and Nolas et al. (2001).

14.2. Electron crystals and phonon glasses

In an ideal thermoelectric material the holes and electrons should have high mobilities and high effective masses. A high mobility and a high effective mass result in a large value of



Fig. 23. *ZT* vs. *T* for several state-of-the-art thermoelectric materials and for a filled skutterudite with $x \approx 1$. (Figure from T.M. Tritt, unpublished.)

Fig. 24. *ZT* vs. *T* for two rare-earth-filled skutterudites. Also shown are the results of a model calculation (squares) (Sales et al., 1997).

 S^2/ρ (see eq. (1) and Goldsmid, 1986). High mobilities are typically found in crystals with a high degree of structural perfection. The ideal thermoelectric material should also have the lowest possible lattice thermal conductivity κ_L . The lowest possible value of κ_L for a particular solid is that of a glass with the same chemical composition, κ_{\min} (Slack, 1979). The ideal thermoelectric material should therefore conduct electricity like a crystal but conduct heat like a glass. The skutterudite CoSb₃ has good electronic properties and can be doped nor p-type (Dudkin and Abrikosov, 1959; Caillat et al., 1996). However, the room temperature lattice thermal conductivity of CoSb₃ is ≈ 10 W/mK, which is an order of magnitude too large for a good thermoelectric material. Slack (1995) suggested filling the voids in the skutterudite structure with weakly bound atoms that "rattle" about their equilibrium positions. He reasoned that heavy "rattlers" with low Einstein temperatures would be effective in scattering the low frequency acoustic phonons that carry most of the heat in a solid. The "rattlers" should therefore dramatically lower κ_L . What was not clear, however, was how the "rattlers" would alter the electronic conduction. Although the electronic properties of the skutterudite antimonides were somewhat degraded by the presence of various rattlers, there was an overall increase in ZT (Morelli and Meisner, 1995; Sales et al., 1996; Fleurial et al., 1996; Nolas et al., 2000; Tang et al., 2001). Representative thermoelectric data from various filled skutterudite antimonides are shown in figs. 23-26. Some of the arsenides and phosphides have been investigated for thermoelectric applications (Watcharapasorn et al., 1999, 2002),



Fig. 25. *ZT* vs. *T* for two Yb filled skutterudite samples (Nolas et al., 2000).

Fig. 26. *ZT* vs. *T* for several filled skutterudite samples with the composition $\text{Ce}_{y}\text{Fe}_{x}\text{Co}_{4-x}\text{Sb}_{12}$ (Tang et al., 2001).

but in general these materials are limited by their κ_L values, which are significantly higher than the values for the antimonides. This is not surprising since a lower average mass usually implies a higher sound velocity and a higher κ_L .

14.3. Future of filled skutterudites as thermoelectrics

The filled skutterudite antimonides appear to represent excellent examples of electron–crystal, phonon–glass materials. The incoherent rattling of the loosely bound lanthanide atoms in these materials is inferred from the large values of the ADP parameters obtained in single-crystal structure refinements. This rattling lowers the thermal conductivity at room temperature to values within two to three times κ_{\min} .

The electrical transport in the filled skutterudites is altered by the presence of the rattlers. Relative to the analogous unfilled compounds, the filled skutterudites exhibit larger effective masses and smaller mobilities. Good overall electrical transport is maintained as indicated by the large values of ZT at elevated temperatures (figs. 23–26). The high carrier concentrations in the filled skutterudites are due mostly to the fraction of the lanthanide sites that remain

empty in samples prepared using equilibrium synthesis methods. A simple semiconductor transport model successfully reproduces most of the qualitative features of the resistivity and Seebeck data from these materials (Sales et al., 1997). By varying the extrinsic carrier concentration in the filled skutterudites, this model yields a maximum value for ZT of 1.4 at 1000 K, and a maximum ZT value of 0.3 at 300 K.

The ZT values of the filled skutterudites are too small for room temperature applications. The relatively large band gap of these compounds ($\approx 0.6 \text{ eV}$) makes it unlikely that further research will result in a skutterudite-based thermoelectric material with properties better than the Bi₂Te₃-based materials currently in use near room temperature (see fig. 23). Only at temperatures in the 600–900 K temperature range are the thermoelectric properties of the filled skutterudite antimonides of interest for use in power generation applications. Thermoelectric generators using filled skutterudite antimonides are being investigated by T. Caillat and collaborators at the Jet Propulsion Laboratory. These devices are of interest to NASA as a source of electrical power for deep space missions such as the Cassini and Voyager probes. Filled skutterudites may also be of practical use in the thermoelectric conversion of waste heat into useful electricity.

The filled skutterudite antimonides have demonstrated the validity of the "electron–crystal, phonon–glass" idea in the design of new thermoelectric materials for operation at elevated temperatures. There are many other crystal structures and compounds that contain atomic cages large enough to incorporate additional atoms. It is believed that the filled skutterudite antimonides only represent a small fraction of a more general class of "rattling semicon-ductors" and that some of these materials will undoubtedly have high values of *ZT* at room temperature.

15. Concluding remarks

A major theme of contemporary solid state physics is focused on understanding the correlated behavior of electrons in solids. The challenge of this area was succinctly summarized by Anderson's title "more is different" (1972). The low temperature properties of the lanthanidefilled skutterudites touch on many of the exciting topics at the frontier of correlated electron physics. CeFe₄Sb₁₂ and YbFe₄Sb₁₂ are moderately heavy fermion metals. CeRu₄Sb₁₂ exhibits non-Fermi liquid behavior and may be near a ferromagnetic quantum critical point. PrOs₄Sb₁₂ is the first example of a Pr compound that exhibits both superconductivity and heavy fermion behavior. PrRu₄P₁₂ and SmRu₄P₁₂ each undergo a metal-to-insulator transition and antiferromagnetic order. PrFe₄P₁₂ is an extremely unusual material in which quadrupolar order (QO) and heavy fermion ground states are extremely close in energy. At low temperatures a magnetic field (≈ 4 T) can drive PrFe₄P₁₂ between the two ground states. The density of states in PrFe₄P₁₂ is remarkably sharp in energy as evidenced by a two order of magnitude change in the Hall coefficient below 5 K and a huge value for *S* at 5 K of -130μ V/K. Most of the La-filled skutterudites and two of the Pr-filled skutterudites are superconductors with a maximum *T*_c of 10.3 K for LaRu₄As₁₂. Several of the Ce-filled skutterudites are narrow

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gap semiconductors (also called Kondo insulators) where the gap is created by a strong hybridization between the Ce 4f level and the transition metal and pnicogen states near the Fermi energy. The Nd, Eu, Gd and Tb filled skutterudites order magnetically at temperatures ranging from 2 K for NdFe₄P₁₂ to 100 K for EuFe₄P₁₂. The coupling between the lanthanide magnetic moments and the conduction electrons is large in these compounds. This large coupling results in unusual peaks in electrical transport data near the onset of magnetic ordering, and in some cases multiple magnetic transitions. Finally, the thermoelectric figures of merit for the La, Ce and Yb filled skutterudites are among the highest values reported for any material at elevated temperatures (600–1000 K). It is hoped that this article has captured some of the excitement generated by the recent research on the lanthanide filled skutterudites.

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Chapter 212

RARE EARTH – ANTIMONY SYSTEMS

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a, b, c	unit cell dimensions (in nm)	<i>x</i> , <i>y</i>	indicate variable component contents, when it
at.%	composition in atomic percent		is used as index in compound compositional
с	concentration		formula. Expressions like: $N - x$ (where N is a
С	Curie constant		number) means N minus x , the x value is given
С	specific heat		in the text
g	gram	Ζ	formula per unit cell
h	hour	\sim	is used before the composition formula of a
Hcr	critical magnetic field		compound to indicate that the composition is
LT	low temperature modification		given approximately
HT	high temperature modification	β	unit cell angle (in degrees)
Μ	s-, p-, d- element	χ	magnetic susceptibility
$M_x N_y$	where $x = 2, 3, \ldots$ and $y = 0$ or 5, M = mini-	XΟ	temperature independent susceptibility
	mum purity and N = nines	XC	diamagnetic susceptibility
R, R'	rare earth metal	γ	electronic specific heat coefficient
S	Seebeck coefficient	μ	magnetic moment
SG	space group	$\theta_{\rm P}$	paramagnetic Curie temperature
Т	temperature	$\theta_{\mathbf{R}}$	characteristic temperature
$T_{\rm C}$	Curie temperature	Q	electrical resistivity
$T_{\rm M}, T_{\rm m}$	temperature of magnetic transition	ϱ_0	residual resistivity
$T_{\rm N}$	Néel temperature		

List of symbols and abbreviations

1. Introduction

This chapter presents a review of the current data on phase diagrams and crystal structures of binary, ternary and quaternary metal antimonides with the *R* elements ($R \equiv Sc$, Y and the lanthanides).

Sections 2–4 give the overview of the literature published on these systems, i.e., the isothermal sections and crystallographic characteristics of the binary, ternary and quaternary compounds, as well as, outlines of the experimental methods that have been utilized. A description of the structure types of ternary antimonides is the subject of sect. 5. The physical properties are only briefly presented for the most common isotypic series of compounds (sect. 6). The general features and trends in the R–Sb and R–(s-, p-, d-, f- element)–Sb systems are discussed in sect. 7.

2. Binary systems

Binary systems containing antimony have been investigated by different groups of scientists, and their phase diagrams are mostly compiled by Massalski et al. (1991): Y–Sb (Schmidt and McMasters, 1976), La–Sb (Vogel and Klose, 1954; Lebedev et al., 1983), Ce–Sb (Borsese et al., 1981), Pr–Sb (Abdusalamova et al., 1988), Nd–Sb (Kobzenko et al., 1972), Sm–Sb (Sadygov et al., 1988b; Borzone et al., 1985), Gd–Sb (Abdusalamova et al., 1986), Tb–Sb

(Abdusalamova et al., 1981), Dy–Sb (Ferro et al., 1988), Ho–Sb (Abdusalamova et al., 1984), Er–Sb (Abdusalamova and Rachmatov, 2000), Tm–Sb (Abdusalamova et al., 1991), Yb–Sb (Bodnar and Steinfink, 1967), Lu–Sb (Abdusalamova et al., 1990). Recently, Borzone et al. (2000) presented modified phase diagram for the Gd–Sb system. For the other systems only individual alloys were synthesized and investigated with the aim of finding the isotypic or new compounds.

Information on binary compounds is gathered by Villars and Calvert (1985, 1991), and Villars et al. (1995).

More recently, the compound $Eu_{16}Sb_{11}$ has been prepared from the elements in Ta container by heating at 1370 K and then slowly cooled to 1270 K over 4 days (Chan et al., 2000). This compound is isotypic with the Zintl-phase $Ca_{16}Sb_{11}$ (X-ray single crystal diffraction).

The crystal structure of the compound previously called " $GdSb_2$ " was determined by Xray diffraction methods and the true composition was found to be $Gd_{16}Sb_{39}$ (Borzone et al., 2000).

The high temperature modification for the Y₅Sb₃ has been reported recently (Mozharivskyj and Franzen, 2000b).

Additionally, several compounds not presented on the phase diagrams of the corresponding systems, are listed below.

From metallographic analysis of the sample with composition $Ce_{33.3}Sb_{66.6}$, Abulkhaev and Abdusalamova (1989) observed, in addition to the expected $CeSb_2$ phase and CeSb, needle shaped single crystals of unknown composition and structure. Authors believe that this phase is a high temperature modification of $CeSb_2$.

Altmeyer and Jeitschko (1988) reported the existence of new compound with a monoclinic structure, Dy_2Sb_5 , a = 1.3066, b = 0.41627, c = 1.4584, $\beta = 102.21^\circ$. The structure was established by X-ray single crystal diffraction. The Sm₂Sb₅, Gd₂Sb₅ and Tb₂Sb₅ compounds have been found to be isotypic with Dy_2Sb_5 (Altmeyer and Jeitschko, 1988).

Altmeyer and Jeitschko (1989) observed in the Nd–Sb system at 870 K a new compound with monoclinic symmetry, $Nd_{8+x}Sb_{19+y}$, a = 2.8495, b = 0.42489, c = 1.34982, $\beta = 95.476^{\circ}$ (X-ray single crystal investigation).

Crystallographic data of the binary antimonides of rare earth are listed in table 1.

3. Ternary systems

3.1. R-M-Sb systems

3.1.1. Sc-M-Sb systems

3.1.1.1. *Sc–Co–Sb.* The crystal structure of the ScCoSb compound was investigated by Kleinke (1998) by X-ray single crystal diffraction. It was found to crystallize with the TiNiSi structure type (a = 0.6829, b = 0.42401, c = 0.7358).

3.1.1.2. *Sc–Ni–Sb*. Early investigations of the ScNiSb compound showed that it had the MgAgAs-type with a = 0.6062 (Dwight, 1974) from an X-ray powder analysis of an alloy

Compound	Structure	Space group	Lattice parameters, nm			
-	type		а	b	С	
ScSb	NaCl	Fm3m	0.58517			
Sc ₅ Sb ₃	Yb ₅ Sb ₃	Pnma	1.10792	0.87126	0.76272	
Sc ₂ Sb	Cu ₂ Sb	P4/nmm	0.42049		0.77902	
YSb ₂	HoSb ₂	C222	0.3283	0.5907	0.7981	
YSb	NaCl	$Fm\overline{3}m$	0.6165			
Y_4Sb_3	anti-Th ₃ P ₄	$I\overline{4}3d$	0.905			
Y_5Sb_3 (LT)	Mn ₅ Si ₃	$P6_3/mcm$	0.89114		0.62960	
Y ₅ Sb ₃ (HT)	Yb ₅ Sb ₃	Pnma	1.1867	0.92247	0.80977	
Y ₃ Sb	Ti ₃ P	$P4_2/n$	1.2361		0.6180	
LaSb ₂	SmSb ₂	Cmca	0.6314	0.6175	1.856	
LaSb	NaCl	$Fm\overline{3}m$	0.6490			
LaSb (HP)	HgMn	P4/mmm	0.4019		0.3279	
La ₄ Sb ₃	anti-Th ₃ P ₄	$I\overline{4}3d$	0.9649			
La ₅ Sb ₃	Mn ₅ Si ₃	$P6_3/mcm$	0.942		0.662	
La ₃ Sb ₂	unknown	5,				
La ₂ Sb	own	I4/mmm	0.4626		1.806	
CeSb ₂ (HT)	unknown	,				
CeSb ₂	SmSb ₂	Cmca	0.628	0.613	1.826	
CeSb	NaCl	$Fm\overline{3}m$	0.6429			
CeSb(HP)	HgMn	P4/mmm	0.3975		0.3244	
Ce ₄ Sb ₃	anti-Th ₃ P ₄	$I\overline{4}3d$	0.9511			
Ce ₅ Sb ₃	Mn ₅ Si ₃	$P6_3/mcm$	0.931		0.652	
Ce ₂ Sb	La ₂ Sb	I4/mmm	0.4532		1.784	
PrSb ₂	$SmSb_2$	Cmca	0.626	0.616	1.816	
PrSb	NaCl	Fm3m	0.6361			
Pr ₄ Sb ₃	anti-Th ₃ P ₄	$I\overline{4}3d$	0.948			
Pr ₅ Sb ₃	Mn ₅ Si ₃	$P6_3/mcm$	0.928		0.651	
Pr ₂ Sb	La ₂ Sb	I4/mmm	0.455		1.782	
$Nd_{8+x}Sb_{19+y}$	own	C2/m	2.8495	0.42489	1.34982	
				$\beta = 95.476^{\circ}$		
NdSb ₂	$SmSb_2$	Cmca	0.6230	0.6063	1.7892	
NdSb	NaCl	$Fm\overline{3}m$	0.6321			
Nd ₄ Sb ₃	anti-Th ₃ P ₄	$I\overline{4}3d$	0.9370			
Nd ₅ Sb ₃	Mn ₅ Si ₃	$P6_3/mcm$	0.9170		0.6460	
Nd ₂ Sb	La ₂ Sb	I4/mmm	0.4510		1.7610	
Sm ₂ Sb ₅	Dy ₂ Sb ₅	C2/m				
SmSb ₂	own	Cmca	0.6171	0.6051	1.789	
SmSb	NaCl	Fm3m	0.6268			
Sm ₄ Sb ₃	anti-Th ₃ P ₄	$I\overline{4}3d$	0.9308			
Sm ₅ Sb ₃	Mn ₅ Si ₃	$P6_3/mcm$	0.8990		0.6138	
Sm ₂ Sb	La ₂ Sb	I4/mmm	0.4468		1.746	
EuSb ₂	CaSb ₂	$P2_1/m$	0.4768	0.4299	0.8970	
-	-			$\beta = 103.01$		
Eu ₂ Sb ₃	Sr ₂ Sb ₃	$P2_1/c$	0.6570	1.2760	1.5028	
-	-			$\beta = 90.04$		

Table 1 Crystallographic characteristics of the binary antimonides

continued on next page

Compound	Structure	Space group	Lattice parameters, nm			
	type		а	b	С	
Eu ₁₁ Sb ₁₀	Ho ₁₁ Ge ₁₀	I4/mmm	1.2325		1.8024	
Eu16Sb11	$Ca_{16}Sb_{11}$	$P-42_1m$	1.2674		1.1720	
Eu ₅ Sb ₃	Yb ₅ Sb ₃	Pnma	1.29826	1.00033	0.86325	
Gd ₂ Sb ₅	Dy ₂ Sb ₅	C2/m				
Gd ₁₆ Sb ₃₉	own	C2/m	0.57395	0.4151	1.3209	
				$\beta = 99.21$		
GdSb ₂ (HT)	HoSb ₂	C222	0.3296	0.5930	0.8030	
GdSb ₂ (LT)	SmSb ₂	Cmca	0.6157	0.5986	1.783	
GdSb (α)	NaCl	$Fm\overline{3}m$	0.6218			
GdSb (β)	unknown					
Gd ₄ Sb ₃	anti-Th ₃ P ₄	$I\overline{4}3d$	0.9220			
Gd ₅ Sb ₃	Mn ₅ Si ₃	$P6_3/mcm$	0.897		0.632	
Tb ₂ Sb ₅	Dy ₂ Sb ₅	C2/m				
TbSb ₂ (HT)	HoSb ₂	C222	0.3282	0.5903	0.7990	
TbSb ₂ (LT)	SmSb ₂	Cmca	0.6123	0.5969	1.772	
$TbSb(\alpha)$	NaCl	$Fm\overline{3}m$	0.6178			
$Tb_4Sb_3(\alpha)$	anti-Th ₃ P ₄	$I\overline{4}3d$	0.917			
Tb ₅ Sb ₃	Mn ₅ Si ₃	$P6_3/mcm$	0.89324		0.62887	
Dy ₂ Sb ₅	own	C2/m	1.3066	0.41627	1.4584	
		,		$\beta = 102.21^{\circ}$		
DySb ₂ (HT)	HoSb ₂	C222	0.3273	0.5888	0.7965	
$DySb(\alpha)$	NaCl	$Fm\overline{3}m$	0.6154			
$Dy_4Sb_3(\alpha)$	anti-Th ₃ P ₄	$I\overline{4}3d$	0.9129			
Dy ₅ Sb ₃	Mn ₅ Si ₃	$P6_3/mcm$	0.8892		0.6270	
HoSb ₂	own	C222	0.3343	0.5790	0.7840	
HoSb	NaCl	$Fm\overline{3}m$	0.6130			
Ho ₄ Sb ₃	anti-Th ₃ P ₄	$I\overline{4}3d$	0.9071			
Ho5Sb3	Mn ₅ Si ₃	$P6_3/mcm$	0.8851		0.6234	
ErSb ₂ (HT)	HoSb ₂	C222	0.3259	0.5866	0.7926	
ErSb	NaCl	$Fm\overline{3}m$	0.6106			
Er ₄ Sb ₃	anti-Th ₃ P ₄	$I\overline{4}3d$	0.902			
Er ₅ Sb ₃	Yb ₅ Sb ₃	Pnma	1.1662	0.9136	0.8007	
TmSb ₂	HoSb ₂	C222	0.3252	0.5851	0.7912	
TmSb	NaCl	$Fm\overline{3}m$	0.6087			
Tm ₅ Sb ₃	Mn ₅ Si ₃	$P6_3/mcm$				
YbSb ₂	ZrSi ₂	Cmcm	0.4536	1.663	0.4271	
YbSb	NaCl	$Fm\overline{3}m$	0.6082			
Yb ₁₁ Sb ₁₀	Ho ₁₁ Ge ₁₀	I4/mmm	1.186		1.710	
Yb ₄ Sb ₃	anti-Th ₃ P ₄	$I\overline{4}3d$	0.9320			
Yb ₅ Sb ₃	Mn ₅ Si ₃	$P6_3/mcm$	0.8995		0.6870	
Yb ₅ Sb ₃	own	Pnma	1.2398	0.9562	0.8246	
LuSb ₂	HoSb ₂	C222	0.3244	0.5935	0.7885	
LuSb	NaCl	$Fm\overline{3}m$	0.6056			
Lu ₅ Sb ₃	Mn ₅ Si ₃	$P6_3/mcm$	0.890		0.633	
Lu ₃ Sb	unknown					

Table 1, continued

arc melted under argon, annealed at 973 K and furnace cooled. Pecharsky et al. (1983a) confirmed the crystal structure from X-ray powder diffraction and obtained the lattice parameter as a = 0.6055. The stoichiometric amounts of the starting components (Sc 99.5%, Ni (4N), Sb (4N) were arc melted under argon and annealed at 870 K for 200 h.

3.1.1.3. *Sc*–*Pt*–*Sb*. ScPtSb belongs to the MgAgAs-type, a = 0.6312 (Dwight, 1974) (X-ray powder analysis). Sample preparation, see ScNiSb.

3.1.2. *Y*–*M*–*Sb systems* 3.1.2.1. *Y*–*Li*–*Sb*. LaLi₃Sb₂ structure type was reported for the YLi₃Sb₂ compound, a = 0.45251, c = 0.7158 from X-ray single crystal diffraction (Grund et al., 1984).

3.1.2.2. *Y–Zr–Sb*. Morozkin and Sviridov (2001) investigated the crystal structure of the YZrSb compound using X-ray powder diffraction (CeScSi structure type, a = 0.4245, c = 1.6306).

3.1.2.3. *Y–Ni–Sb*. Figure 1 represents the isothermal section of Y–Ni–Sb phase diagram at 870 K (0–50 at.% Sb) which was studied by Zavalii (1982). The isothermal section was constructed by means of X-ray powder analysis of alloys, which were arc melted and subsequently annealed in evacuated silica tubes for 400 h and finally quenched in water. Starting materials were Y 99.8 wt.%, Ni 99.99 wt.% and Sb 99.99 wt.%. The ternary phase equilibria diagram is characterized by the existence of two ternary compounds: \sim YNi₂Sb₂ (1) and \sim YNiSb (2).



Fig. 1. Y–Ni–Sb, partial isothermal section at 870 K (0–50 at.% Sb).

YNiSb belongs to the MgAgAs-type, a = 0.6312 (Dwight, 1974) from X-ray powder analysis. For sample preparation, see ScNiSb.

Sologub et al. (1994) investigated by X-ray powder diffraction the alloy with the nominal composition $Y_{25}Ni_{25}Sb_{50}$ prepared by arc melting ingots of the elements in argon and annealed at 870 K in evacuated quartz tubes for 2 weeks and quenched in water. The sample was found to consist of two phases, namely NiSb (NiAs type, a = 0.3926, c = 0.5134) and YSb (NaCl type, a = 0.61707). The materials used were Y 99.9 wt.%, Ni 99.9 wt.% and Sb 99.9 wt.%.

One more ternary compound has been observed and studied by Mozharivskyj and Kuz'ma (1996) from the arc melted, annealed at 1070 K for 400 h, and finally quenched in cold water alloys. It crystallizes with the Mo₅B₂Si type structure, a = 0.7662, c = 1.3502 (X-ray powder diffraction). The starting metals were Y, not less than 99.8 wt.%, Ni and Sb 99.9 wt.%.

Mozharivskyj and Franzen (2000a) studied the crystal structure of $Y_5Ni_xSb_{3-x}$ ($0 \le x \le 0.38$) by the X-ray single crystal and powder diffraction. The Yb₅Sb₃ structure type (a = 1.1963, b = 0.91330, c = 0.80500) has been observed in the temperature range 1535–1670 K. After annealing the sample for 10 days at 1070 K the structure changes to a Mn₅Si₃ structure type.

3.1.2.4. *Y*–*Cu*–*Sb*. No phase diagrams exist for the Y–Cu–Sb system, however two ternary compounds have been observed and characterized.

YCuSb₂ was found to crystallize with the HfCuSi₂ type with the lattice parameters a = 0.42617, c = 0.9903 (Sologub et al., 1994). An alloy with the nominal composition Y₂₅Cu₂₅Sb₅₀ was prepared by arc melting ingots of the elements in argon and annealed at 1070 K in evacuated quartz tubes for 2 weeks and quenched in water. The materials used were Y 99.9%, Cu 99.9% and Sb 99.9%.

A ternary compound of yttrium with copper and antimony of the stoichiometric ratio 3:3:4 was identified and studied by means of X-ray analysis by Skolozdra et al. (1993). $Y_3Cu_3Sb_4$ compound was found to have the $Y_3Au_3Sb_4$ type with the lattice parameter of a = 0.9500 (X-ray powder diffraction). The sample was prepared by melting the metals (around 99.8 wt.% pure for yttrium and 99.99 wt.% for copper and antimony) in an arc furnace and annealing at 870 K for 500 h.

3.1.2.5. *Y*–*Pd*–*Sb*. Marazza et al. (1980) established that the YPdSb compound has the MgAgAs type structure with a = 0.6257 using X-ray powder diffraction and metallographic analyses. The sample which was enclosed in tantalum vessel under an argon atmosphere, was prepared by melting in an induction furnace and was then annealed at 780 K for 1 week. The metals used had purities greater than 99.9% for Y and greater than 99.99% for Pd and Sb.

YPd₂Sb was reported to be isotypic with the crystal structure of MnCu₂Al with a lattice parameter a = 0.6691 (Ishikawa et al., 1982; powder diffraction). The sample was prepared by levitation melting followed by annealing at 1173 K for several days. Riani et al. (1995) confirmed the crystallographic characteristics for this compound, MnCu₂Al type, a = 0.6691.

The Y₅Pd₂Sb crystallizes with the Mo₅B₂Si structure type, a = 0.7733, c = 1.3582 (X-ray powder diffraction; Mozharivskyj and Franzen (2000b). The sample was annealed at 1070 K for 10 days.

3.1.2.6. *Y*–*Ag*–*Sb*. YAgSb₂ compound was observed and studied by Sologub et al. (1995a). It was found to crystallize with HfCuSi₂-type structure with lattice parameters a = 0.42745, c = 1.0492 (X-ray powder diffraction of arc melted and annealed at 1070 K for 14 days alloy). The purity of starting materials was 99.9 wt.%. The existence and crystal structure of YAgSb₂ compound were independently confirmed by Brylak et al. (1995) (a = 0.42765, c = 1.0488; X-ray powder diffraction). The sample was prepared by heating of the mixture of powders of metals with starting composition 1:1:2 in sealed evacuated silica tube for 3 days at 770 K. The reaction product was ground to powder, cold-pressed, sealed again in silica tube, melted in a high frequency furnace, and annealed for 1–2 week at 1070–1170 K. Starting materials were Y 99.9%, Ag M3N, and Sb 325 mesh, M2N5.

3.1.2.7. *Y–Te–Sb.* Complete c-T diagram was presented for the Sb₂Te₃–Y₂Te₃ section by Geidarova and Rustamov (1985). The YTe₃Sb compound formed by incongruent melting was observed and it had the Bi₂Te₃ structure type, a = 0.447, c = 3.032 (Geidarova and Rustamov, 1985).

3.1.2.8. *Y*–*Pt*–*Sb*. YPtSb crystallizes with the MgAgAs-type, a = 0.6538 (Dwight, 1974) (X-ray powder analysis). For sample preparation, see ScNiSb.

Mozharivskyj and Franzen (2001) reported the crystal structure for the Y_5Pt_2Sb compound from X-ray powder diffraction and it had the Mo₅B₂Si structure, an ordered version of Cr₅B₃ structure type, a = 0.7675, c = 1.3575. The starting materials were ingots of Y elements (with purity not less than 99.8%), antimony (99.99%, Johnson Matthey GmbH), and platinum (99.9%, Materials Preparation Center, Ames Laboratory). The mixtures of the components with the initial compositions Y₅Pt₂Sb and with a total weight of 0.5 g were arc-melted in an argon atmosphere, then turned over and remelted to reach homogeneity. The samples were sealed in evacuated silica tubes and annealed at 800 °C for 10 days and then furnace cooled.

3.1.2.9. *Y*–*Au*–*Sb*. A new structure type was reported by Dwight (1977) for the $Y_3Au_3Sb_4$ alloy with a = 0.9818 from X-ray powder diffraction. The conditions of synthesis were not specified.

3.1.3. La-M-Sb systems

3.1.3.1. *La–Li–Sb.* A unique structure type was observed for the LaLi₃Sb₂ compound, a = 0.4619, c = 0.7445 from X-ray single crystal diffraction (Grund et al., 1984).

3.1.3.2. *La–Mg–Sb*. No phase diagram exists for the La–Mg–Sb system. The formation of three compounds was reported by Ganguli et al. (1993) from X-ray single crystal investigations: La₄Mg_{4.48}Sb₇, own structure type, a = 0.46201, c = 2.6069; La_{4.89}Mg_{1.539}Sb₆,

own structure type, a = 0.4616, c = 6.767; La₃Mg_{4.6}Sb₆, own structure type, a = 0.4625, c = 6.691.

3.1.3.3. *La–Al–Sb*. Muravjova (1971) has investigated the La–Al–Sb ternary system (0–33 at.% of La) at 773 K. No ternary phases have been found.

3.1.3.4. *La–Ti–Sb*. The crystal structure of the La₃TiSb₅ compound was investigated by Bollore et al. (1995). The Hf₅CuSn₅ anti-type was established (a = 0.9528, c = 0.6278, X-ray single crystal diffraction).

3.1.3.5. La-V-Sb. The only information available on the interaction of the components in the La–V–Sb system is the formation of the LaVSb₃ compound observed by Brylak and Jeitschko (1995). It was reported to adopt the CeCrSb₃ type structure, a = 1.3358, b = 0.62583, c = 0.60551 from X-ray powder diffraction.

3.1.3.6. *La*–*Cr*–*Sb*. LaCrSb₃ crystallizes with a CeCrSb₃ type, a = 1.3276, b = 0.6209, c = 0.6114 (X-ray powder diffraction; Brylak and Jeitschko, 1995). Ferguson et al. (1997) and Raju et al. (1998) confirmed the crystal structure using single crystal (a = 1.32835, b = 0.62127, c = 0.6116) and powder diffraction (a = 1.3264, b = 0.6182, c = 0.6094) respectively.

3.1.3.7. *La–Mn–Sb.* Cordier et al. (1985) reported on the crystal structure for the LaMn_{0.65–0.76}Sb₂ compound (HfCuSi₂-type, a = 0.4387-0.4372, c = 1.0780-1.0933; X-ray single crystal method). Sologub et al. (1995b) observed the ternary phase isotypic with HfCuSi₂ from the alloy with slight different metal deficiency, LaMn_{0.87}Sb₂ (a = 0.43657, c = 1.0924; X-ray powder diffraction). Sample was prepared by arc melting ingots of the elements in argon under a low electric current. The weight losses were compensated by adding beforehand an extra amount of Mn. The resulting button was annealed at 1070 K for 350 h. The purity of starting materials was 99.9 wt.%. Wollesen et al. (1996) confirmed the crystal structure using a single crystal method: a = 0.4381, c = 1.0772 for LaMn_{0.721(1)}Sb₂. The sample was prepared by annealing cold-pressed pellets of the elemental components taken with the atomic ratio of 1:1:2 in evacuated sealed silica tubes for 10 days at 1070 K followed by cooling at a rate of 100 °C/h. Purities of starting elements were La, greater than 99.9%, Mn, greater than 99.8%, Sb 99.9%.

The crystal structure of the La₆MnSb₁₅ compound was investigated by Sologub et al. (1996b) by X-ray single crystal and powder diffraction. It was found to crystallize with its own structure type, a = 1.5376, b = 1.9611, c = 0.4314. The single crystal was grown from a melt of the nominal composition LaMn_{0.25}Sb₂. The sample with a total mass 5 g was heated in a corundum crucible in an argon atmosphere to 1500 K and cooled to room temperature with at a rate of 100 K/h.

3.1.3.8. *La–Fe–Sb*. Leithe-Jasper and Rogl (1994) investigated the formation and crystal structure of the $LaFe_{1-x}Sb_2$ compound by X-ray powder analysis of the alloys

La₃₀₋₃₁Fe₁₃₋₁₄Sb₅₇₋₅₅ (HfCuSi₂-type, a = 0.44028-0.44035, c = 1.00119-1.00113). The alloys were obtained by arc melting under low electric current to minimize weight losses by vaporization of Sb, which were compensated beforehand by extra amounts of Sb. The samples were placed in alumina crucibles, sealed in evacuated quartz tubes and annealed for 7 days at 1070 K. After the heat treatment the alloys were quenched by submerging the silica tubes in water. The materials used were 99.9% pure.

The crystal structure of the LaFe₄Sb₁₂ compound was investigated by Braun and Jeitschko (1980). It was found to adopt the LaFe₄P₁₂ type structure, a = 0.91395 (X-ray single crystal method). The purities of the materials were 99.9% or better. Filings of the lanthanum were prepared under argon and annealed with the corresponding amounts of antimony in evacuated sealed silica tubes for two days at 723 K, followed by five days at 1023 K. The resulting antimonide LaSb was ground together with appropriate amounts of Fe and Sb, pressed into pellets and sealed in evacuated silica tubes. The ampules were quickly heated to 1150 K, were kept at this temperature for 3 h and were then quenched. The starting composition was La:Fe:Sb = 1:4:20. The excess antimony was removed by treating the product for several minutes with concentrated nitric acid. The oxidation products of antimony were then dissolved in concentrated hydrochloric acid.

3.1.3.9. La-Co-Sb. Cordier et al. (1985) reported on the crystal structure for the LaCo_{0.68}Sb₂ compound (HfCuSi₂-type, a = 0.4394, c = 0.9954; X-ray single crystal method). Leithe-Jasper and Rogl (1994) investigated the formation and crystal structure of the LaCo_{1-x}Sb₂ compound by X-ray powder analysis of the alloy La₃₀Co₁₅Sb₅₅ (HfCuSi₂-type, a = 0.43854, c = 0.99232). For sample preparation and purity of starting materials, see LaFe_{1-x}Sb₂. Wollesen et al. (1996) confirmed the crystal structure by using X-ray powder diffraction: a = 0.43843, c = 0.99286 for LaCo_{1-x}Sb₂. For synthesis, see LaMn_{0.721(1)}Sb₂. Purities of starting elements were La, greater than 99.9%, Co, greater than 99.8%, Sb 99.9%.

From a room temperature X-ray powder diffraction analysis $La_6Co_{13}Sb$ was found to crystallize with the ordered $La_6Co_{11}Ga_3$, i.e., the Nd₆Fe₁₃Si type structure, a = 0.8097, c = 2.3289 (Weitzer et al., 1993). An alloy was synthesized from ingots and compacted powders of the constituting elements (99.9% pure) by arc-melting, followed by annealing at 1073 for 5 days and quenched in cold water.

3.1.3.10. *La–Ni–Sb*. The isothermal section of the La–Ni–Sb phase diagram at 870 K studied by Zavalii (1982) is shown in fig. 2. The isothermal section was constructed by means of X-ray powder analysis of alloys, which were arc melted and subsequently annealed in evacuated silica tubes for 400 h and finally quenched in water. Starting materials were La 99.8 wt.%, Ni 99.99 wt.% and Sb 99.99 wt.%. The ternary phase equilibria diagram is characterized by the existence of three ternary compounds: $LaNi_{2+x}Sb_{2+x}(1)$, $LaNiSb_{2+x}(2)$ and LaNiSb (3).

LaNiSb was found to crystallize with the ZrBeSi type with lattice parameters of a = 0.4404, c = 0.8403 (Hartjes and Jeitschko, 1995; X-ray powder diffraction). Cold-pressed pellets of the ideal composition were arc melted in an atmosphere of argon and annealed at 1120 K for one week. Purities of starting materials were better than 99.9%.



Structure refinement from single crystal data established the CaBe₂Ge₂ type structure for the compound LaNi_{1.51}Sb₂: a = 0.4466, c = 0.991 (Hoffman and Jeitschko, 1988). The single crystal was selected from a sample prepared by annealing the elemental components for 5 days at 1073 K. The resulting button was melted in a high-frequency furnace and quenched. The CaBe₂Ge₂ type was confirmed from an arc melted alloy of the LaNi₂Sb₂ composition; a monoclinic distortion was observed after annealing it at 1070 K for one week (X-ray powder diffraction; Slebarski et al., 1996).

Pecharsky et al. (1981) reported the BaAl₄ type structure with a = 0.4433, c = 1.0024 for the LaNi₂Sb₂ compound obtained by arc-melting and annealing at 670 K.

LaNiSb₂ was found to adopt the HfCuSi₂ type structure with the lattice parameters of a = 0.44269, c = 0.9876 (Sologub et al., 1994). The alloy was prepared by arc melting ingots of the elements with the nominal composition La₂₅Ni₂₅Sb₅₀ in argon and annealed at 870 K in evacuated quartz tubes for 2 weeks and quenched in water. The materials used were La 99.9%, Ni 99.9% and Sb 99.9%.

Hoffman and Jeitschko (1988) investigated the antimony rich section of the ternary system La–Ni–Sb from the samples quenched from 1070 K. Except for $LaNi_{2-x}Sb_2$, no other ternary compound with a high antimony content was observed. In the various samples, $LaNi_{2-x}Sb_2$ was found to be in equilibrium with LaSb, LaSb₂, NiSb and the high temperature modification of Ni₃Sb.

3.1.3.11. *La–Cu–Sb system*. The isothermal section of the La–Cu–Sb system at 870 K was constructed by Protsyk et al. (2000) (fig. 3). The alloys were synthesized by arc-melting the starting components in an argon atmosphere. The resulting buttons were annealed at 870 K



for two weeks. Four ternary compounds were observed: $\sim LaCu_6Sb_3$ (1), $LaCu_{1-x}Sb_2$ (2), $La_3Cu_3Sb_4$ (3) and La_6CuSb_{15} (4).

A ternary compound of lanthanum with copper and antimony of the stoichiometric ratio 3:3:4 was identified and studied by means of X-ray analysis by Skolozdra et al. (1993). La₃Cu₃Sb₄ (3) compound was found to have the Y₃Au₃Sb₄ type with the lattice parameter of a = 0.9837 (X-ray powder diffraction). For experimental details, see the Y–Cu–Sb system.

A HfCuSi₂-type structure was reported for the LaCu_{0.82-0.87}Sb₂ compound (2), a = 0.4402-0.4373, c = 1.0154-1.0400 (X-ray single crystal method; Cordier et al. (1985). The crystallographic characteristics for LaCuSb₂ were confirmed by Sologub et al. (1994) from X-ray powder diffraction: HfCuSi₂ type, a = 0.43690, c = 1.0376. For experimental details, see LaNiSb₂.

The crystal structure of the La₆CuSb₁₅ (4) compound was investigated by Sologub et al. (1996b) by X-ray single crystal and powder diffraction. It was found to crystallize with a La₆MnSb₁₅ structure type, a = 1.5395, b = 1.9465, c = 0.4333. For the sample preparation, see La₆MnSb₁₅.

The crystal structure of \sim LaCu₆Sb₃ (1) compound is unknown.

3.1.3.12. *La–Zn–Sb system*. Cordier et al. (1985) reported on the crystal structure for the LaZn_{0.52}Sb₂ compound (HfCuSi₂-type, a = 0.4380, c = 1.0488; X-ray single crystal method). Wollesen et al. (1996) confirmed the crystal structure using X-ray powder diffraction: a = 0.43883, c = 1.0508 for LaZn_{1–x}Sb₂. For experimental details, see

LaMn_{0.721(1)}Sb₂. Purities of starting elements were La, greater than 99.9%, Zn, greater than 99.8%, Sb 99.9%.

Salamakha and Mudryi (2001a) studied the crystal structure of the LaZn_{0.6}Sb₂ compound. The sample was synthesized in two stages. The proper amounts of the powders were compacted and sealed in evacuated silica capsule. After slowly heating to 1070 K (1st stage), the sample was studied by X-ray powder diffraction. Afterwards, the pellet was reground under C₆H₁₂, recompacted and annealed at 870 K for 150 h (2nd stage). The purity of starting materials was 99.9 wt.%. Two modifications of LaZn_{0.6}Sb₂ compound were observed: a = 0.43794, b = 0.44022, c = 1.05044, NdAgAs₂ type structure (for the sample after 1st stage of annealing) and a = 0.43900, c = 1.0508, HfCuSi₂ type structure (for the sample after 2nd stage of annealing).

The crystal structure of the La₆ZnSb₁₅ compound was investigated by Sologub et al. (1996b) by an X-ray single crystal and powder diffraction. It was found to crystallize with the La₆MnSb₁₅ structure type, a = 1.5430, b = 1.9461, c = 0.4351. For the sample preparation, see La₆MnSb₁₅.

3.1.3.13. *La*–*Ga*–*Sb*. Mills and Mar (2000) reported on the existence of three ternary compounds: $La_{13}Ga_8Sb_{11}$, $La_{12}Ga_4Sb_{23}$ and $LaGaSb_2$. The samples have been synthesized by direct reaction of the elements in evacuated silica tubes.

The crystal structure of the La₁₃Ga₈Sb₁₁ compound was determined by X-ray single crystal diffraction: own structure type, space group P6/mmm, a = 1.7657, c = 0.43378.

The compound La₁₂Ga₄Sb₂₃ was found to adopt the Pr₁₂Ga₄Sb₂₃ type structure with the lattice parameters of a = 0.4344, b = 1.9750, c = 2.6860 (X-ray powder diffraction).

The crystal structure of the LaGaSb₂ compound is unknown.

3.1.3.14. *La*–*Ge*–*Sb*. Lam et al. (2001) determined the crystal structure of the La₆Ge_{2.8}Sb_{13.2} compound (own structure type, a = 0.43034, b = 1.0851, c = 2.7073) by X-ray single crystal diffraction. The sample had been synthesized by direct reaction of the elements at 1223 K.

3.1.3.15. *La–Zr–Sb*. The crystal structure of the La₃ZrSb₅ compound was investigated by Bollore et al. (1995). It was found to adopt the Hf₅CuSn₃ anti-type structure, a = 0.9587, c = 0.6258 (X-ray powder diffraction). Ferguson et al. (1997) confirmed the crystal structure of the La₃ZrSb₅ compound using single crystal X-ray diffraction (a = 0.95743, c = 0.63495).

3.1.3.16. *La–Nb–Sb*. Bollore et al. (1995) determined the crystal structure of La₃NbSb₅ to have the Hf₅CuSn₃ anti-type structure, a = 0.9534, c = 0.6264 (X-ray powder diffraction).

3.1.3.17. *La*–*Ru*–*Sb*. The crystal structure of the LaRu₄Sb₁₂ compound was studied by Braun and Jeitschko (1980). It was found to crystallize with the LaFe₄P₁₂ type, a = 0.92700 (X-ray powder diffraction). The purities of starting materials and experimental procedure were the same as for LaFe₄Sb₁₂.

3.1.3.18. *La*–*Rh*–*Ge*. Malik and Adroja (1991b) established the KHg₂ type structure with a = 0.4646, b = 0.7547, c = 0.7898 for the LaRhSb compound using X-ray powder diffraction of an arc melted alloy. Purities of the metals were better than 99.99%.

Accordingly to Zeng and Franzen (2000), the $La_{0.1}Rh_8Sb_{24}$ compound belongs to a $LaFe_4P_{12}$ type, a = 0.92213 (X-ray single crystal diffraction).

Menon Latica and Malik (1996) reported the existence of LaRh₂Sb₂ with a tetragonal structure, but no lattice constants were reported.

3.1.3.19. *La–Pd–Sb*. Marazza et al. (1980) established the CaIn₂ type structure with a = 0.4610, c = 0.8115 for the LaPdSb compound using X-ray powder diffraction and metallographic analyses. For the sample preparation and purity of starting components, see Y–Pd–Sb system. Malik and Adroja (1991a) confirmed the crystal structure and lattice parameters, a = 0.4596, c = 0.8094 (X-ray diffraction, arc melted alloy).

LaPdSb₂ was found to form the HfCuSi₂ type structure with the lattice parameters of a = 0.45309, c = 0.9989 (Sologub et al., 1994). For experimental details, see LaNiSb₂.

Hoffman and Jeitschko (1985) established the CaBe₂Ge₂ type structure for LaPd₂Sb₂, a = 0.4627, c = 1.0422, X-ray powder diffraction. Mixtures of the elemental components were cold pressed, melted in a high frequency furnace, annealed for 3 days at 1170 K and oven cooled.

3.1.3.20. *La*–*Ag*–*Sb*. LaAgSb₂ compound was observed and studied by Sologub et al. (1995a). It was found to crystallize with HfCuSi₂ type structure with lattice parameters of a = 0.43898, c = 1.0842 by X-ray powder diffraction of arc-melted and annealed at 870 K for 14 days alloy. The purity of the starting materials was 99.9 wt.%. The existence and crystal structure of LaAgSb₂ compound were independently confirmed by Brylak et al. (1995) (a = 0.43903, c = 1.0840; X-ray powder diffraction). For sample preparation, see YAgSb₂. The starting materials purities were: La 99.9%, Ag M3N, and Sb 325 mesh, M2N5.

3.1.3.21. *La–Cd–Sb*. Sologub et al. (1995b) reported on the crystallographic data for the LaCdSb₂ compound (HfCuSi₂ type structure, a = 0.44048, c = 1.0991; X-ray powder diffraction) obtained from a multiphase alloy. For the sample preparation and purity of the starting materials, see CeZn_{1-x}Sb₂. Wollesen et al. (1996) confirmed the crystal structure by using a single crystal method: a = 0.4399, c = 1.0997 for CeCd_{0.700(1)}Sb₂. For experimental details, see LaMn_{0.721(1)}Sb₂. Purities of starting elements were La, greater than 99.9%, Cd, greater than 99.8%, Sb 99.9%.

3.1.3.22. *La–In–Sb*. The crystal structure of the LaIn_{0.8}Sb₂ compound was investigated by Ferguson et al. (1999) using X-ray single crystal and powder diffraction: own structure type, space group $P2_1/m$, a = 0.4521, b = 0.4331, c = 1.1914, $\beta = 99.66^{\circ}$.

3.1.3.23. *La*–*Sn*–*Sb*. La₄SnSb₂ was investigated by X-ray powder diffraction; the Th₃P₄ type structure was established, a = 0.9686 (Hulliger and Ott, 1977). For synthesis, see La₄PbSb₂.

Wang et al. (1967) studied the LaSn₂–LaSb₂ section and reported the existence of a ternary compound that they tentatively identified as LaSnSb₂. Ferguson et al. (1996) has determined the crystal structure of LaSn_xSb₂ from single crystal X-ray diffraction method: own structure type, space group *Cmcm*, a = 0.42425, b = 2.3121, c = 0.45053 (for x = 0.75). The homogeneity range has been established for the LaSn_xSb₂ ($0.1 \le x \le 0.8$) compound. The samples were synthesized by the direct reaction of the elements at 1223 K.

3.1.3.24. *La*–*Hf*–*Sb*. The crystal structure of the La₃HfSb₅ compound was investigated by Bollore et al. (1995). It was found to adopt the Hf₅CuSn₃ anti-type structure, a = 0.9582, c = 0.6356 (X-ray powder diffraction). Ferguson et al. (1997) determined the crystal structure of the compound La₅HfSb₅ by using a single crystal method: a = 0.9557, c = 0.63388.

3.1.3.25. *La–Os–Sb*. Braun and Jeitschko (1980) investigated the crystal structure of the LaOs₄Sb₁₂ compound. It was found to form the LaFe₄P₁₂ type structure, a = 0.93029 (X-ray powder diffraction). The purities of starting materials and experimental procedure were the same as for LaFe₄Sb₁₂.

3.1.3.26. *La*–*Pt*–*Sb*. LaPtSb crystallizes with the CaIn₂-type structure, a = 0.4560, c = 0.8263 (Rossi et al., 1981; powder X-ray diffraction data). The starting elements (La 3N, Pt 4N, Sb 4N) were melted under argon in tantalum crucible, and annealed at 773 K for one week.

3.1.3.27. *La*–*Au*–*Sb*. LaAuSb₂ was found to adopt the HfCuSi₂ type structure with the lattice parameters as a = 0.44363, c = 1.0434 (Sologub et al., 1994). The alloy was prepared in the same manner as YCuSb₂. Wollesen et al. (1996) confirmed the crystal structure by using a single crystal method: a = 0.4436, c = 1.0432. The single crystal was isolated from the sample where the elemental components were annealed together in a NaCl/KCl (1:1) flux for 1 week at 1070 K. The purities of the starting elements were La, greater than 99.9%, Au, greater than 99.9%, Sb 99.9%.

Kasaya et al. (1991) reported an Y₃Au₃Sb₄ type structure for the compound La₃Au₃Sb₄, a = 1.0123 (powder diffraction; powder metallurgical technique).

3.1.3.28. La-Pb-Sb. La_4PbSb_2 was investigated by X-ray powder diffraction; the Th₃P₄ type structure was established, a = 0.9707 (Hulliger and Ott, 1977). The sample was obtained by heating a mixture of the starting components (with purity (3N) in sealed tantalum tube at 50–100° below the melting point for 8 h.

The formation and crystal structure of the La₅Pb₃Sb compound with the Ti₅Ga₄ type structure was observed by Guloy and Corbett (1994) from X-ray powder diffraction of the sample prepared by a powder metallurgical technique.

3.1.4. Ce-M-Sb systems

3.1.4.1. *Ce–Li–Sb*. No ternary phase diagram exists for the Ce–Li–Sb system; however the formation of one ternary compound has been reported by Fischer and Schuster (1982):



CeLi₂Sb₂, CaAl₂Si₂ type structure, a = 0.4311, c = 0.6984. The alloy was prepared by heating the elements in a Ta crucible at 870–1170 K for 24–48 h.

3.1.4.2. *Ce–Si–Sb.* The isothermal section of the phase diagram of the Ce–Si–Sb system (fig. 4) was constructed from an X-ray analysis of 55 alloys prepared by arc melting in an argon atmosphere and annealed in quartz ampoules under vacuum at 670 K for 500 h (Stetskiv, 1999). The purity of the starting metals was better than 99.9 at.%. Two ternary compounds \sim Ce₂Si₃Sb₅ (1) (unknown structure), and Ce₃SiSb (2) (La₃GeIn type structure, *a* = 1.1948, *c* = 1.5484) were found. The binary compounds CeSb₂, CeSb, Ce₂Sb and CeSi_{2-x} dissolve less than 5 at.% of Sb or Si.

3.1.4.3. *Ce–Ti–Sb.* The crystal structure of the Ce₃TiSb₅ compound was investigated by Bollore et al. (1995). It was found to form the Hf₅CuSn₃ anti-type structure, a = 0.9439, c = 0.6235 (X-ray powder diffraction).

3.1.4.4. *Ce–V–Sb*. CeVSb₃ crystallizes with the CeCrSb₃ type structure, a = 1.3119, b = 0.62392, c = 0.60303 (X-ray powder diffraction; Brylak and Jeitschko, 1995).

3.1.4.5. *Ce–Cr–Sb.* A unique type of structure was reported for CeCrSb₃, a = 1.3108, b = 0.6184, c = 0.6079 (X-ray single crystal data; Brylak and Jeitschko, 1995). Ferguson et al. (1997) confirmed the structure from X-ray powder diffraction: a = 1.3127, b = 0.6199, c = 0.6092.

3.1.4.6. *Ce–Mn–Sb*. The phase equilibria were established in the ternary system Ce–Mn–Sb for an isothermal section at 870 K (fig. 5). Three ternary compounds were observed:

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 $CeMn_{0.85}Sb_2$ (1), $Ce_{29}Mn_{13}Sb_{58}$ (2) and Ce_6MnSb_{15} (3) (Sologub et al., 1995c). The samples were generally prepared by arc melting proper amounts of constituent elements and annealing for 250 h at 870 K. Ternary alloys in the region of 30 to 50 at.% Sb were prepared by heating of compacted mixtures of powders in evacuated quartz tubes from 470 to 870 during a 75 h period, then recompacted and heated at 870 K for 150 h, and finally quenched in cold water.

Sologub et al. (1995b) reported on the crystal structure for the CeMn_{0.85}Sb₂ compound (HfCuSi₂ type structure, a = 0.43439, c = 1.0756; X-ray powder diffraction). For experimental details, see LaMn_{0.87}Sb₂. Wollesen et al. (1996) confirmed the crystal structure by using a single crystal method: a = 0.43514, c = 1.0690 for CeMn_{0.741(8)}Sb₂. For experimental details, see LaAuSb₂. The purities of the starting elements were Ce, greater than 99.9%, Mn, greater than 99.8%, Sb 99.9%.

The crystal structure of the Ce₆MnSb₁₅ compound was investigated by Sologub et al. (1996b) by X-ray powder diffraction. It was found to crystallize with the La₆MnSb₁₅ structure type, a = 1.51538, b = 1.93646, c = 0.42742. The sample was prepared by arc melting of ingots of the starting elements (purity 99.9 wt.%). Arc melted buttons were annealed at 870 K for 170 h and finally quenched by submerging the capsules into cold water.

The crystal structure of Ce₂₉Mn₁₃Sb₅₈ compound was not studied (Sologub et al., 1995c).

3.1.4.7. *Ce–Fe–Sb.* The formation and crystal structure of the CeFe_{1-x}Sb₂ compound were studied by Leithe-Jasper and Rogl (1994) from X-ray powder analysis of the alloy Ce_{30–28}Fe_{13–17}Sb_{57–55} (HfCuSi₂ type structure, a = 0.43751-0.43768, c = 0.98218-0.98271). For sample preparation and purity of starting materials, see LaFe_{1-x}Sb₂.



Fig. 6. Ce-Ni-Sb, isothermal section at 870 K.

The crystal structure of the CeFe₄Sb₁₂ compound was investigated by Braun and Jeitschko (1980). It was found to adopt the LaFe₄P₁₂ type, a = 0.91350 (X-ray powder diffraction). The purities of starting materials and experimental procedure were the same as for LaFe₄Sb₁₂.

Kaiser and Jeitschko (1999) investigated the phase relations in the Ce–Fe–Sb ternary system at 1173 K for the antimony-rich corner. They found three ternary compounds: CeFeSb₂, CeFe₄Sb₁₂ and Ce₂Fe₄Sb₅.

3.1.4.8. Ce-Co-Sb. Leithe-Jasper and Rogl (1994) investigated the formation and crystal structure of the CeCo_{1-x}Sb₂ compound from X-ray powder analysis of the alloy Ce₃₀₋₂₅Co₁₅₋₂₅Sb₅₅₋₅₀ (HfCuSi₂ type structure, a = 0.43588-0.43747, c = 0.97479-0.98214). For sample preparation and purity of starting materials, see LaFe_{1-x}Sb₂. Wollesen et al. (1996) confirmed the crystal structure by using X-ray powder diffraction: a = 0.43579, c = 0.9771 for CeCo_{1-x}Sb₂. For synthesis, see LaMn_{0.721(1)}Sb₂. The purities of starting elements were Ce, greater than 99.9%, Co, greater than 99.8%, Sb 99.9%.

3.1.4.9. *Ce–Ni–Sb.* The isothermal section of Ce–Ni–Sb phase diagram at 870 K studied by Pecharsky et al. (1983b) is given in fig. 6. For the sample preparation, see the La–Ni–Sb system. The ternary phase equilibria diagram is characterized by the existence of three ternary compounds: CeNiSb_{2±x} (1), CeNi_{2±x}Sb_{2±x} (2) and CeNiSb (3).

Pankevich et al. (1983) reported the crystal structure for the CeNiSb₂ compound, HfCuSi₂ type structure, a = 0.4409, c = 0.9750 (X-ray powder diffraction; arc melted and annealed at 870 K for two weeks). The crystallographic characteristics were confirmed by Sologub et al. (1994), a = 0.43934, c = 0.9750 and Skolozdra et al. (1994). For experimental details, see LaNiSb₂.

Early investigations of the CeNiSb compound showed that it had the AlB₂-type with a = 0.4384, c = 0.4110 (Pecharsky et al., 1983a; X-ray powder analysis). For experimental



procedure, see ScNiSb. At variance with these data, Hartjes and Jeitschko (1995) suggested the ZrBeSi type structure, a = 0.4393, c = 0.8257 from X-ray powder diffraction. For experimental details, see LaNiSb.

The CeGa₂Al₂ type structure was proposed for the CeNi₂Sb₂ compound by Pecharsky et al. (1983b), a = 0.4395, c = 0.9981 from X-ray powder diffraction of an alloy which was arc melted under argon, annealed at 870 K and quenched. The starting components were Ce 99.5%, Ni and Sb (4N). Hoffman and Jeitschko (1988) established a defect CaBe₂Ge₂ structure for CeNi_{2-x}Sb₂ alloy, a = 0.4413, c = 0.9846, X-ray powder diffraction. Mixtures of the elemental components were annealed for about one week between 1023 K and 1073 K, ground to powder, cold pressed, melted in a high frequence furnace and quenched.

A unique structure type was reported for the compound $\text{CeNi}_{2+x}\text{Sb}_{2-x}$ a = 0.4312, b = 0.4285, c = 1.0205 (Pecharsky et al., 1982; X-ray powder diffraction).

3.1.4.10. *Ce–Cu–Sb.* Isothermal section at 870 K for the Ce–Cu–Sb system was constructed by Protsyk et al. (2000) (fig. 7). For experimental procedures, see La–Cu–Sb. Four ternary compounds were observed: \sim CeCu₆Sb₃ (1), CeCu_{1–x}Sb₂ (2), Ce₃Cu₃Sb₄ (3) and Ce₆CuSb₁₅ (4).

CeCuSb₂ was found to form a HfCuSi₂ type with the lattice parameters of a = 0.43378, c = 1.02333 (Sologub et al., 1994). For experimental details, see LaNiSb₂.

A ternary compound of cerium with copper and antimony of the stoichiometric ratio 3:3:4 was identified and studied by means of X-ray analysis by Skolozdra et al. (1993). Ce₃Cu₃Sb₄ compound was found to have the $Y_3Au_3Sb_4$ type with the lattice parameters of a = 0.9721 (X-ray powder diffraction). For experimental details, see the Y–Cu–Sb system. At variance with this data, Patil et al. (1996) reported a tetragonal distortion of the cubic crystal structure $Y_3Cu_3Sb_4$ for the Ce₃Cu₃Sb₄ alloy which was prepared by arc melting the constituent ele-

ments of purity better than 99.9% in an argon atmosphere and annealed at 1070 K for one week (a = 0.971, c = 0.998; X-ray powder diffraction).

The crystal structure of the Ce₆CuSb₁₅ compound was investigated by Sologub et al. (1996b) by the X-ray powder diffraction. It was found to crystallize with a La₆MnSb₁₅ structure type, a = 1.5452, b = 1.9178, c = 0.4378. The sample was synthesized in the same manner as Ce₆MnSb₁₅.

CeCu_{1.33}Sb₂ was found to crystallize with the CaBe₂Ge₂ type structure a = 0.4341, c = 1.0256 from X-ray powder diffraction (Mentink et al., 1994). The starting materials Ce, Cu, Sb were 3 nines pure. The sample was arc melted, wrapped in Ta foil and annealed at 1073 K for 4 weeks. Guzik et al. (1996) reported the crystal structure investigation for the compound with a nominal composition CeCu_{1.8}Sb₂: CaBe₂Ge₂ type structure, a = 0.437, c = 1.023 (X-ray powder diffraction, arc melted and annealed at 970 K for one week sample).

3.1.4.11. *Ce*–*Zn*–*Sb*. Sologub et al. (1995b) reported on the crystal structure for the CeZn_{1-x}Sb₂ compound (HfCuSi₂ type structure, a = 0.43605, c = 1.0409; X-ray powder diffraction). The sample was obtained via a powder metallurgical reaction. The thoroughly mixed blends of powders were compacted and sealed in evacuated silica capsules. After slowly heating to about 870 K for a first reaction, the pellets were reground under C₆H₁₂ and recompacted for final heat treatment at 870 K for 350 h. The purity of starting materials was 99.9 wt.%. Wollesen et al. (1996) confirmed the crystal structure using X-ray powder diffraction: a = 0.43449, c = 1.05834 for CeZn_{1-x}Sb₂. For experimental details, see LaMn_{0.721(1)}Sb₂. Purities of starting elements were Ce, greater than 99.9%, Zn, greater than 99.8%, Sb 99.9%.

Salamakha and Mudryi (2001a) studied the crystal structure of the CeZn_{0.8}Sb₂ compound. The sample was synthesized in two stages. Proper amounts of powder were compacted and sealed in evacuated silica capsule. After slowly heating to 1070 K (1st stage), the sample was studied by X-ray powder diffraction. Afterwards, the pellet was reground under C₆H₁₂, recompacted and annealed at 870 K for 150 h (2nd stage). The purity of starting materials was 99.9 wt.%. Two modifications of CeZn_{0.8}Sb₂ compound were observed to form: a = 0.43493, b = 0.43742, c = 1.04763, NdAgAs₂ type structure (for the sample after 1st stage of annealing) and a = 0.43635, c = 1.04160, HfCuSi₂ (for the sample after 2nd stage of annealing).

The crystal structure of the Ce₆ZnSb₁₅ compound was investigated by Sologub et al. (1996b) by the X-ray powder diffraction. It was found to crystallize with the La₆MnSb₁₅ structure type, a = 1.5215, b = 1.9264, c = 0.43215. Sample was synthesized by repeated reaction of sintering of stoichiometric amounts of the starting elements. A proper powder blend was compacted into small pellet, sealed in evacuated quartz tube and slowly heated (within 100 h) to the annealing temperature of 870 K.

3.1.4.12. *Ce–Ga–Sb*. Mills and Mar (2000) investigated the crystal structure of the Ce₁₂Ga₄Sb₂₃ compound, with the Pr₁₂Ga₄Sb₂₃ type structure, a = 0.4308, b = 1.9509, c = 2.6667 (X-ray powder diffraction). The sample was synthesized by a direct reaction of the elements in evacuated silica tubes.



Fig. 8. Ce–Ge–Sb, isothermal section at 870 K.

3.1.4.13. *Ce–Ge–Sb.* The isothermal section of the Ce–Ge–Sb phase diagram (fig. 8) was constructed by X-ray analysis of 50 alloys prepared by arc melting in an argon atmosphere and annealed in quartz ampoules under vacuum at 670 K for 500 h (Stetskiv et al., 1998). The purity of the starting metals was better than 99.9 at.%. Three ternary compounds Ce₂GeSb₃ (1), \sim Ce₅Ge₃Sb₂ (2) and Ce₃GeSb (3) were found.

Ce₂GeSb₃ is a superstructure of the ThGe₂ type structure, a = 1.8894, b = 0.4650, c = 0.4299; Ce₃GeSb crystallizes in the La₃GeIn type structure, a = 1.2012, c = 1.5485; the crystal structure of the \sim Ce₅Ge₃Sb₂ is unknown (Stetskiv et al., 1998).

One more compound was found and investigated by Lam et al. (2000) from X-ray powder diffraction: $Ce_6Ge_{5-x}Sb_{11+x}$, a = 0.42972, b = 1.0740, c = 2.6791.

3.1.4.14. *Ce*–*As*–*Sb*. The compounds $CeAs_xSb_{1-x}$, NaCl type, were synthesized and investigated by different groups of authors: $Ce_{50}As_{10}Sb_{40}$, a = 0.6354 (Burlet et al., 1980); Ce_3AsSb_2 , a = 0.61865 (Ott et al., 1978); $Ce_4As_{0.8}Sb_{3.2}$, a = 0.6363 (Rossat-Mignod et al., 1983).

3.1.4.15. *Ce–Se–Sb.* A complete *c–T* diagram was presented for the Ce₂Se₃–Sb₂Se₃ section by Aliev et al. (1977). CeSe₃₀Sb₁₉ was found to form a S₃Sb₂ structure type, a = 1.159, b = 0.412, c = 1.183. A homogeneity field was observed for the (Ce_xSb_{1-x})₂Se₃, x = 0–0.05, a = 1.162–1.159, b = 0.396–0.412, c = 1.177–1.183. The sample was annealed at 723–773 K for 300 h.

3.1.4.16. *Ce–Zr*, *Nb–Sb*. The compounds Ce₃ZrSb₅ and Ce₃NbSb₅ belong to the Hf₅CuSn₃ anti-type. The lattice parameters are a = 0.9506, c = 0.6318, and a = 0.9438, c = 0.6219 respectively (Bollore et al., 1995; X-ray powder diffraction).

3.1.4.17. *Ce–Ru–Sb.* The crystal structure of the CeRu₄Sb₁₂ compound was investigated by Braun and Jeitschko (1980). It was found to crystallize with the LaFe₄P₁₂ type structure, a = 0.92657 (X-ray powder diffraction). The purities of starting materials and experimental procedure were the same as for LaFe₄Sb₁₂.

3.1.4.18. *Ce–Rh–Sb*. Malik and Adroja (1991b) observed a KHg₂ type with a = 0.4609, b = 0.7416, c = 0.7846 for the CeRhSb compound using X-ray powder diffraction of an arc melted alloy. The purities of the metals were better than 99.99%. Salamakha et al. (2000) reinvestigated the crystal structure of the CeRhSb compound, and found it had the TiNiSi structure type, a = 0.74150, b = 0.46185, c = 0.78570.

The existence of CeRh₂Sb₂ with a tetragonal structure was reported by Menon Latica and Malik (1996).

The $Y_3Au_3Sb_4$ structure type has been reported for the $Ce_3Rh_3Sb_4$ compound by Patil et al. (1998).

3.1.4.19. *Ce–Pd–Sb*. Marazza et al. (1980) established the CaIn₂ type structure with a = 0.4595, c = 0.7894 for the CePdSb compound using X-ray powder diffraction and metallographic analyses. For sample preparation and purity of starting components, see Y–Pd–Sb system. Malik and Adroja (1991a) confirmed the crystal structure and lattice parameters, a = 0.4594, c = 0.7913 (X-ray diffraction; arc melted alloy). CePdSb₂ was found to adopt a HfCuSi₂ type with the lattice parameters as a = 0.44899, c = 0.9893 (Sologub et al., 1994). For experimental details, see LaNiSb₂.

Hoffman and Jeitschko (1985) reported the CaBe₂Ge₂ type structure for CePd₂Sb₂, a = 0.4505, c = 1.0230, X-ray powder diffraction. The sample was synthesized in the same manner as LaPd₂Sb₂. The same structure type however with different lattice parameters values, i.e., a = 0.4482, c = 0.9860 was reported for the CePdSb₃ sample by Cava et al. (1993).

A new ternary antimonide, $Ce_3Pd_6Sb_5$ was prepared by arc melting of the elemental components and subsequent annealing at 1023 K by Gordon et al. (1995). Its orthorhombic crystal structure was determined from single crystal X-ray data: a = 1.3481, b = 0.4459, c = 1.0050. Purity of the elements was at least 99.9%.

Crystal structure of two ternary compounds Ce₈Pd₂₄Sb and Ce₂Pd₉Sb₃ was studied by Gordon and DiSalvo (1996) and Gordon et al. (1996) respectively: Ce₈Pd₂₄Sb, own structure type, space group $Pm\overline{3}m$, a = 0.8461 and Ce₂Pd₉Sb₃, own structure type, space group Cmcm, a = 1.3769, b = 0.80412, c = 0.93482 (X-ray single crystal diffraction).

3.1.4.20. *Ce*–*Ag*–*Sb*. The CeAgSb₂ compound was observed and studied by Sologub et al. (1995a). It was found to crystallize with HfCuSi₂ type structure with the lattice parameters as follows a = 0.43641, c = 1.0722 by X-ray single crystal diffraction of an arc melted and annealed at 870 K for 14 days sample. The purity of starting materials was 99.9 wt.%. The existence and crystal structure of CeAgSb₂ compound were independently confirmed by Brylak et al. (1995) (a = 0.4363, c = 1.0699; X-ray single crystal method). A single crystal was obtained by reaction of the elemental components in a NaCl/KCl flux. The starting ratio was Ce:Ag:Sb:NaCl/KCl = 1:1:2:20. The sample was annealed for 2 weeks at 1070 K, cooled to
960 K at a rate of $3 \,^{\circ}$ C/hr, and quenched in ice water. The NaCl/KCl flux was dissolved in H₂O using an ultrasonic bath. The starting metals were Ce 99.9%, Ag M3N, and Sb 325 mesh, M2N5.

3.1.4.21. *Ce*–*Cd*–*Sb*. Sologub et al. (1995b) reported the crystallographic data for the CeCdSb₂ compound (HfCuSi₂ type structure, a = 0.43751, c = 1.0900; X-ray powder diffraction) which had been obtained from a multiphase alloy. For sample preparation and purity of starting materials, see CeZn_{1-x}Sb₂. Wollesen et al. (1996) confirmed the crystal structure using X-ray powder diffraction: a = 0.43761, c = 1.0912 for CeCd_{1-x}Sb₂. For experimental details, see LaMn_{0.721(1)}Sb₂. The purities of the starting elements were Ce, greater than 99.9%, Cd, greater than 99.8%, Sb 99.9%.

3.1.4.22. *Ce–In–Sb*. The crystal structure of the CeIn_{0.8}Sb₂ compound (LaIn_{0.8}Sb₂ structure type, a = 0.4478, b = 0.4323, c = 1.1796, $\beta = 99.36^{\circ}$) was investigated by Ferguson et al. (1999) from X-ray powder diffraction.

3.1.4.23. *Ce*–*Sn*–*Sb*. Ferguson et al. (1996) studied the crystal structure of the CeSn_xSb₂ by powder diffraction, LaSnSb₂ structure type, a = 0.4228, b = 2.2868, c = 0.4478. The sample has been synthesized through direct reaction of the elements at 1223 K.

3.1.4.24. *Ce–Te–Sb*. The formation and crystal structure of $CeTe_xSb_{1-x}$ was studied by Ravot et al. (1982) and Rossat-Mignod et al. (1983) from the samples obtained by heating in molybdenum crucibles at 2273 K and slow cooling: NaCl structure type, x = 0-0.5, a = 0.6422-0.6403.

Charvillat et al. (1977) established the Cu₂Sb structure type for the CeSbTe compound, a = 0.4365, c = 0.945.

3.1.4.25. *Ce*–*Hf*–*Sb*. The crystal structure of the Ce₃HfSb₅ compound was determined by Bollore et al. (1995). It was found to adopt the Hf₅CuSn₃ anti-type structure, a = 0.9483, c = 0.6298 (X-ray powder diffraction).

3.1.4.26. *Ce–Os–Sb.* The crystal structure of the CeOs₄Sb₁₂ compound was investigated by Braun and Jeitschko (1980). It forms the LaFe₄P₁₂ type structure, a = 0.93011 (X-ray powder diffraction). The purities of starting materials and experimental procedure were the same as for LaFe₄Sb₁₂.

3.1.4.27. *Ce*–*Pt*–*Sb*. CePtSb belongs to the CaIn₂ type structure, a = 0.4550, c = 0.8077 (powder diffraction; Rossi et al., 1981). The alloy was melted in an induction furnace under argon in tantalum crucible, annealed at 773 for 1 week. The purity of starting materials was Ce (3N), Pt and Sb (4N) each.

Kasaya et al. (1991) reported the Y₃Au₃Sb₄ type structure for the compound Ce₃Pt₃Sb₄, a = 0.9820 (powder diffraction; arc melted alloy).

3.1.4.28. *Ce–Au–Sb.* The HfCuSi₂ type structure with the lattice parameters as a = 0.44081, c = 1.0339 was reported for the CeAuSb₂ compound (Sologub et al., 1994). The alloy was prepared by argon arc melting ingots of the elements with the nominal composition Ce₂₅Au₂₅Sb₅₀ and annealed at 670 K in evacuated quartz tubes for 2 weeks and quenched in water. The materials used were Ce 99.9%, Au 99.9%, and Sb 99.9%. Wollesen et al. (1996) confirmed the crystal structure using X-ray powder diffraction: a = 0.4381, c = 1.0772 for CeAuSb₂. The sample was prepared by annealing cold-pressed and arc melted mixtures of starting materials taken with the atomic ratio 1:1:2 in evacuated sealed silica tubes for 10 days at 1070 K followed by cooling at a rate of 100 °C/h. The purities of starting elements were Ce, greater than 99.9%, Au, greater than 99.9%, Sb 99.9%.

CeAuSb crystallizes with CaIn₂ type structure, a = 0.4616, c = 0.8322 after Suzuki et al. (1993) from powder diffraction of arc melted and annealed at 1273 K for 48 h alloy.

Kasaya et al. (1991) reported a Y₃Au₃Sb₄ type structure for the compound Ce₃Au₃Sb₄, a = 1.0058 (powder diffraction; powder metallurgical technique). The formation and crystal structure of this compound (Y₃Au₃Sb₄ type, a = 1.00443) was confirmed by Sologub et al. (1998) from X-ray powder diffraction of arc melted and annealed at 1070 K for two weeks alloys.

3.1.5. Pr-M-Sb systems

3.1.5.1. *Pr–Li–Sb.* The formation of one ternary compound was reported by Fischer and Schuster (1982): PrLi₂Sb₂, CaBe₂Ge₂ type structure, a = 0.4329, c = 1.0990 (X-ray single crystal data). The alloy was prepared by heating the elements in a Ta crucible at 870–1170 K for 24–48 h.

3.1.5.2. *Pr–Ti–Sb.* Bollore et al. (1995) investigated the crystal structure of the Pr₃TiSb₅ compound by X-ray powder diffraction. It crystallizes with the Hf₅CuSn₃ anti-type structure, a = 0.9401, c = 0.6224.

3.1.5.3. Pr-V-Sb. PrVSb₃ has the CeCrSb₃ structure type structure, a = 1.3121, b = 0.62380, c = 0.60182 (X-ray powder diffraction; Brylak and Jeitschko, 1995).

3.1.5.4. *Pr–Cr–Sb.* PrCrSb₃ crystallizes with the CeCrSb₃ type structure: a = 1.3043, b = 0.618831, c = 0.60738 (X-ray powder diffraction; Brylak and Jeitschko, 1995). The crystal structure was confirmed by Ferguson et al. (1997) a = 1.3127, b = 0.6199, c = 0.6092 (X-ray powder diffraction).

3.1.5.5. *Pr–Mn–Sb*. Sologub et al. (1995b) reported the lattice parameters for PrMn_{0.82}Sb₂ (HfCuSi₂-type, a = 0.43362, c = 1.0628; X-ray powder diffraction) obtained from a multiphase alloy. For experimental details, see LaMn_{0.87}Sb₂. Wollesen et al. (1996) confirmed the crystal structure using X-ray powder diffraction: a = 0.4333, c = 1.0627 for PrMn_{1-x}Sb₂. For experimental details, see LaMn_{0.721(1)}Sb₂. The purities of the starting elements were Pr, greater than 99.9%, Mn, greater than 99.8%, Sb 99.9%.

3.1.5.6. Pr-Fe-Sb. Leithe-Jasper and Rogl (1994) investigated the formation and crystal structure of the PrFe_{1-x}Sb₂ compound by X-ray powder analysis of the alloy Pr_{30-30.5}Fe_{13-14.5}Sb₅₇₋₅₅ (HfCuSi₂ type structure, a = 0.43638-0.43616, c = 0.97390-0.97552). For sample preparation and purity of starting materials, see LaFe_{1-x}Sb₂.

The crystal structure of the PrFe₄Sb₁₂ compound was studied by Braun and Jeitschko (1980). It was found to form the LaFe₄P₁₂ type structure, a = 0.91351 (X-ray powder diffraction). The purities of starting materials and experimental procedure were the same as for LaFe₄Sb₁₂.

From room temperature X-ray powder diffraction analysis the $Pr_6Fe_{13}Sb$ was found to crystallize with the ordered $La_6Co_{11}Ga_3$, i.e., the Nd₆Fe₁₃Si type, a = 0.8108, c = 2.3303 (Weitzer et al., 1993). An alloy was synthesized from ingots and compacted powders of the constituent elements, 99.9% pure, by arc melting, followed by annealing at 1273 for 2 days and quenched in cold water.

3.1.5.7. Pr-Co-Sb. Leithe-Jasper and Rogl (1994) investigated the formation and crystal structure of the $PrCo_{1-x}Sb_2$ compound by X-ray powder analysis of the alloy $Pr_{28}Co_{17}Sb_{55}$ (HfCuSi₂-type structure, a = 0.43415, c = 0.96700). For sample preparation and purity of starting materials, see LaFe_{1-x}Sb₂. Wollesen et al. (1996) confirmed the crystal structure using X-ray powder diffraction: a = 0.43463, c = 0.9694 for $PrCo_{1-x}Sb_2$. For synthesis, see LaMn_{0.721(1)}Sb₂. The purities of the starting elements were Pr, greater than 99.9%, Co, greater than 99.8%, Sb 99.9%.

3.1.5.8. *Pr–Ni–Sb.* Pankevich et al. (1983) reported the crystal structure for the PrNiSb₂ compound to have the HfCuSi₂ type structure, a = 0.4379, c = 0.9672 (X-ray powder diffraction; arc melted and annealed at 870 K for two weeks alloy). The crystallographic characteristics were confirmed by Sologub et al. (1994), a = 0.43853, c = 0.9699. For experimental details, see LaNiSb₂.

Early investigations of the PrNiSb compound showed that it had the AlB₂-type structure with a = 0.4376, c = 0.4053 (Pecharsky et al., 1983a; X-ray powder analysis). For experimental procedure, see ScNiSb. At variance with these data, Hartjes and Jeitschko (1995) suggested a ZrBeSi type structure, a = 0.4375, c = 0.8123 from X-ray powder diffraction. For experimental details, see LaNiSb.

The CeGa₂Al₂ type structure was announced for PrNi₂Sb₂ compound by Pecharsky et al. (1982), a = 0.4367, c = 0.9904 from X-ray powder diffraction. For sample preparation, see CeNi₂Sb₂. Hoffman and Jeitschko (1988) established the defect CaBe₂Ge₂ type structure for PrNi_{2-x}Sb₂, a = 0.4399, c = 0.9778, X-ray powder diffraction. For the experimental details, see CeNi_{2-x}Sb₂. CaBe₂Ge₂ type structure was confirmed from an arc melted alloy PrNi₂Sb₂: a = 0.4360, c = 0.9970; a monoclinic distortion was observed after annealing at 1070 K for one week: a = 0.4365, b = 0.4355, c = 0.9969, $\beta = 90.20^{\circ}$ (X-ray powder diffraction; Slebarski et al., 1996).

3.1.5.9. *Pr–Cu–Sb*. A ternary compound of praseodymium with copper and antimony of the stoichiometric ratio 3:3:4 was identified and studied by means of X-ray analysis by Skolozdra

et al. (1993). $Pr_3Cu_3Sb_4$ compound was found to have the $Y_3Au_3Sb_4$ type structure with the lattice parameter of a = 0.9695 (X-ray powder diffraction). For experimental details, see the Y–Cu–Sb system.

 $PrCuSb_2$ was found to form the HfCuSi₂ type structure with the lattice parameters of a = 0.43250, c = 1.0159 (Sologub et al., 1994). For experimental details, see LaNiSb₂.

The CaBe₂Ge₂ type structure was established for PrCu₂Sb₂ from an arc melted alloy: a = 0.4329, c = 1.0183 (X-ray powder diffraction; Slebarski et al., 1996).

3.1.5.10. Pr–Zn–Sb. Sologub et al. (1995b) reported on the crystallographic data for the $PrZn_{1-x}Sb_2$ compound (HfCuSi₂ type structure, a = 0.43398, c = 1.0373; X-ray powder diffraction) obtained from a multiphase alloy. For the sample preparation and the purity of the starting materials, see $CeZn_{1-x}Sb_2$. Wollesen et al. (1996) confirmed the crystal structure by using X-ray powder diffraction: a = 0.43400, c = 1.0358 for $PrZn_{1-x}Sb_2$. For experimental details, see $LaMn_{0.721(1)}Sb_2$. The purities of the starting elements were Pr, greater than 99.9%, Zn, greater than 99.8%, Sb 99.9%.

The crystal structure of the Pr_6ZnSb_{15} compound was investigated by Sologub et al. (1996b) by X-ray powder diffraction. It was found to crystallize with the La₆MnSb₁₅ structure type, a = 1.5136, b = 1.9180, c = 0.42898. For sample preparation, see Ce₆ZnSb₁₅.

3.1.5.11. *Pr–Ga–Sb*. Mills and Mar (2000) studied the crystal structure of $Pr_{12}Ga_4Sb_{23}$ by X-ray single crystal diffraction. This compound has its own structure type, space group *Immm*, a = 0.4283, b = 1.9394, c = 2.6553. The crystal was obtained from the sample synthesized through the direct reaction of the elements in evacuated silica tubes.

3.1.5.12. *Pr–Ge–Sb*. The Pr₆Ge_{5–x}Sb_{11+x} compound was observed and investigated by Lam et al. (2001) using X-ray powder diffraction and found that it had the La₆Ge_{2.8}Sb_{13.2} structure type, a = 0.42674, b = 1.0677, c = 2.6626.

3.1.5.13. *Pr–Zr*, *Nb–Sb*. The Pr₃ZrSb₅ and Pr₃NbSb₅ compounds belong to the Hf₅CuSn₃ anti-type structure with lattice parameters of a = 0.9450, c = 0.6293 and a = 0.9396, c = 0.6201 respectively (Bollore et al., 1995; X-ray powder diffraction).

3.1.5.14. Pr–Ru–Sb. Braun and Jeitschko (1980) reported the crystal structure of the PrRu₄Sb₁₂ compound to be of the LaFe₄P₁₂ type structure, a = 0.92648 (X-ray powder diffraction). The purities of starting materials and experimental procedure were the same as for LaFe₄Sb₁₂.

3.1.5.15. *Pr–Rh–Sb.* Malik and Adroja (1991b) established a KHg₂ type with a = 0.4596, b = 0.7391, c = 0.7848 for the PrRhSb compound by using X-ray powder diffraction of an arc melted alloy. The purities of the metals were better than 99.99%. Adroja et al. (1999) observed the TiNiSi structure type for the PrRhSb_{0.976} compound from metallographic analyses and powder diffraction.

The existence of $PrRh_2Sb_2$ with a tetragonal structure was reported by Menon Latica and Malik (1996).

3.1.5.16. Pr-Pd-Sb. Marazza et al. (1980) reported the CaIn₂ type structure with a = 0.4593, c = 0.7805 for the PrPdSb compound from X-ray powder diffraction and metallographic analyses. For the sample preparation and the purity of starting components, see Y-Pd-Sb system. The crystallographic characteristics were also confirmed from powder diffraction data of arc melted and annealed at 1073 K alloys (Zygmunt and Szytula, 1995): CaIn₂ type structure, a = 0.4588, c = 0.7836. Adroja et al. (1999) observed a LiGaGe structure type for the PrPdSb_{0.952} compound from metallographic analyses and powder diffraction.

 $PrPdSb_2$ was found to adopt the HfCuSi₂ type structure with the lattice parameters as a = 0.44707, c = 0.9790 (Sologub et al., 1994). For experimental details, see LaNiSb₂.

Hoffman and Jeitschko (1988) established a CaBe₂Ge₂ structure for PrPd₂Sb₂ alloy, X-ray powder diffraction. Sample was synthesized in the same manner as LaPd₂Sb₂.

3.1.5.17. *Pr–Ag–Sb*. The PrAgSb₂ compound was observed and studied by Sologub et al. (1995a). It was found to crystallize with HfCuSi₂ type structure with lattice parameters as follows a = 0.43506, c = 1.0679 by X-ray powder diffraction of arc melted and annealed at 870 K for 14 days alloy. The purity of starting materials was 99.9 wt.%. The existence and crystal structure of PrAgSb₂ were independently confirmed by Brylak et al. (1995) (a = 0.43499, c = 1.0670; X-ray powder diffraction). For sample preparation, see YAgSb₂. The starting materials purities were Pr 99.9%, Ag M3N, and Sb 325 mesh, M2N5.

3.1.5.18. *Pr–Cd–Sb*. Sologub et al. (1995b) reported on the crystallographic data for the PrCdSb₂ compound (HfCuSi₂ type structure, a = 0.43574, c = 1.0864; X-ray powder diffraction) obtained from a multiphase alloy. For the sample preparation and the purity of the starting materials, see CeZn_{1-x}Sb₂. Wollesen et al. (1996) confirmed the crystal structure using X-ray powder diffraction: a = 0.43588, c = 1.08555 for PrCd_{1-x}Sb₂. For experimental details, see LaMn_{0.721(1)}Sb₂. The purities of the starting elements were Pr, greater than 99.9%, Cd, greater than 99.8%, Sb 99.9%.

3.1.5.19. *Pr–In–Sb*. The crystal structure of the PrIn_{0.8}Sb₂ (LaIn_{0.8}Sb₂ structure type, a = 0.4465, b = 0.4303, c = 1.1733, $\beta = 99.45^{\circ}$) was investigated by Ferguson et al. (1999) by using X-ray powder diffraction.

3.1.5.20. *Pr–Sn–Sb*. Ferguson et al. (1996) investigated the crystal structure of the PrSn_xSb₂ compound by X-ray powder diffraction: LaSnSb₂ structure type, a = 0.4204, b = 2.2700, c = 0.4469. The sample was synthesized by direct reaction of the elements at 1223 K.

3.1.5.21. *Pr–Te–Sb*. Charvillat et al. (1977) reported a Cu₂Sb structure type for the PrTeSb compound, a = 0.4344, c = 0.9396.

3.1.5.22. *Pr–Hf–Sb*. The crystal structure of the Pr_3HfSb_5 compound was studied by Bollore et al. (1995). It was found to form the Hf_5CuSn_3 anti-type, a = 0.9419, c = 0.6271 (X-ray powder diffraction).

3.1.5.23. *Pr–Os–Sb*. The crystal structure of the $PrOs_4Sb_{12}$ compound was investigated by Braun and Jeitschko (1980). It belongs to the LaFe₄P₁₂ type structure, *a* = 0.92994 (X-ray powder diffraction). The purities of the starting materials and the experimental procedure were the same as for LaFe₄Sb₁₂.

3.1.5.24. *Pr–Pt–Sb*. Wenski and Mewis (1986a) reported the LiGaGe type structure for the PrPtSb compound, a = 4537, c = 0.7963 from X-ray powder diffraction. The sample was arc melted and annealed at 1273–1373 K for 3–4 weeks. The starting components were Pr (3N), Pt (3N), Sb (3N).

Kasaya et al. (1991) observed the Y₃Au₃Sb₄ type structure for the compound Pr₃Pt₃Sb₄, a = 0.9981 (powder diffraction; arc melted alloy).

3.1.5.25. *Pr*–*Au*–*Sb*. PrAuSb₂ was found to adopt a HfCuSi₂ type structure with the lattice parameters as a = 0.43933, c = 1.0290 (Sologub et al., 1994). The alloy was prepared in the same manner as YCuSb₂.

Kasaya et al. (1991) reported the Y₃Au₃Sb₄ type structure for the compound Pr₃Au₃Sb₄, a = 1.0013 (powder diffraction; powder metallurgical technique).

3.1.6. Nd-M-Sb systems

3.1.6.1. *Nd–Li–Sb.* No ternary phase diagram exists for the Nd–Li–Sb system, however the formation of one ternary compound has been reported by Fischer and Schuster (1982): NdLi₂Sb₂ with the CaBe₂Ge₂ type structure, a = 0.4280, c = 1.0910 (X-ray single crystal data). The alloy was prepared by heating the elements in a Ta crucible at 870–1170 K for 24–48 h.

3.1.6.2. *Nd–Ti–Sb*. The crystal structure of the Nd₃TiSb₅ compound was investigated by Bollore et al. (1995). It was found to form the Hf₅CuSn₃ anti-type structure, a = 0.9353, c = 0.6196 (X-ray powder diffraction).

3.1.6.3. Nd-V-Sb. The only information available on the interaction of the components in the Nd–V–Sb system is the formation of the NdVSb₃ compound observed by Brylak and Jeitschko (1995). It was reported to adopt the CeCrSb₃ type structure, a = 1.3040, b = 0.6226, c = 0.6008 from X-ray powder diffraction.

3.1.6.4. *Nd–Cr–Sb*. The partial isothermal section of the Nd–Cr–Sb system (33.0–100.0 at.% Sb) at 870 K was constructed by Sologub and Salamakha (1999) (fig. 9). The formation and crystal structure of one ternary compound NdCrSb₃ (1) has been confirmed: CeCrSb₃ type structure, a = 1.2970, b = 0.61679, c = 0.60592 (Brylak and Jeitschko, 1995 and Ferguson



Fig. 9. Nd–Cr–Sb, partial isothermal section at 870 K (33.0–100.0 at.% Sb).

et al., 1997). The solubility of third component in the binary compounds was found to be negligible. The ternary samples used to derive the phase relations in the ternary sections at 870 K, each weighting 1 g, were synthesized by arc melting the proper amounts of the constituent elements under high purity argon on a water cooled copper hearth. The starting materials were used in the form of ingots of high purity elements – Nd (99.9%), Cr (99.99%), Sb (99.999%). The alloys were annealed at 870 K in evacuated quartz tubes for 2 weeks and quenched in water.

3.1.6.5. *Nd–Mn–Sb*. Phase equilibria were established in the Nd–Mn–Sb ternary system for an isothermal section at 870 K by Sologub et al. (1996a) (fig. 10). Three ternary compounds were observed: \sim Nd₂₆Mn₈Sb₆₆ (1) (type unknown), Nd₂₉Mn₁₃Sb₅₈ (2) (type unknown) and NdMn_{1–x}Sb₂, $x = \sim 0.15$ (3). For the sample preparation, see Ce–Mn–Sb system.

Sologub et al. (1995b) reported on the crystal structure for the NdMn_{0.83}Sb₂ compound (HfCuSi₂ type structure, a = 0.43097, c = 1.0672; X-ray powder diffraction). For experimental details, see LaMn_{0.87}Sb₂. Wollesen et al. (1996) confirmed the crystal structure using X-ray powder diffraction: a = 0.43174, c = 1.0599 for NdMn_{1-x}Sb₂. For experimental details, see LaMn_{0.721(1)}Sb₂. The purities of the starting elements were: Nd, greater than 99.9%, Mn, greater than 99.8%, Sb 99.9%.

3.1.6.6. Nd–Fe–Sb. Two ternary compounds (NdFe₄Sb₁₂ (1) and NdFe_{1-x}Sb₂ (2) have been observed as a result of X-ray phase analyses of 30 ternary neodymium–iron–antimony alloys within the concentration region 33.0–100.0 at.% Sb at 870 K (fig. 11) (Sologub and Salamakha, 1999). The solubilities of third component in the binary compounds were found to be negligible. A small homogeneity range was observed for the NdFe_{1-x}Sb₂ compound. For the sample preparation, see Nd–Cr–Sb system. The starting materials were used in the form of ingots of high purity elements – Nd (99.9%), Fe (99.99%), Sb (99.999%).



Leithe-Jasper and Rogl (1994) investigated the formation and crystal structure of the NdFe_{1-x}Sb₂ compound by X-ray powder analysis of the alloy Nd₃₁₋₃₂Fe₁₄₋₁₃Sb₅₇₋₅₅ (HfCuSi₂ type structure, a = 0.43457-0.43479, c = 0.96405-0.96554). These results were confirmed by the same authors using X-ray single crystal analysis: NdFe_{0.6}Sb₂, HfCuSi₂ type structure, a = 0.43514, c = 0.96518. For the sample preparation and the purity of starting materials, see LaFe_{1-x}Sb₂.

The crystal structure of the NdFe₄Sb₁₂ compound was studied Evers et al. (1995). It was found to adopt the LaFe₄P₁₂ type structure, a = 0.9130 (X-ray powder and single crystal diffraction). The purities of the materials were 99.9% or better. Filings of the neodymium were prepared under argon and annealed with the corresponding amounts of antimony in evacuated sealed silica tubes for two days at 723 K, followed by five days at 1023 K. The resulting antimonide NdSb was ground together with appropriate amounts of Fe and Sb, pressed into pellets and sealed in evacuated silica tubes. The ampules were quickly heated to 933 K, kept at this temperature for 3 h, cooled at 1 °C/h to 873 K and then quenched. The starting composition was Nd:Fe:Sb = 2:4:13. The excess antimony was removed by treating the product for several days with concentrated hydrochloric acid.

From room temperature X-ray powder diffraction analysis Nd₆Fe₁₃Sb was found to crystallize with the ordered La₆Co₁₁Ga₃, i.e., the Nd₆Fe₁₃Si type structure, a = 0.8098, c = 2.3232(Weitzer et al., 1993). An alloy was synthesized from ingots and compacted powders of the constituent elements, 99.9% pure, by arc melting, followed by annealing at 1073 for 7 days and quenched in cold water.

Leithe-Jasper (1994) reported the single crystal investigations for two compounds with unique structure types: NdFe₃Sb₂, a = 0.42879, c = 2.57048 and NdFe_{2-x}Sb₂, a = 0.42965, b = 0.42759, c = 2.57887.

Zhang et al. (2000) reported that the Nd_2Fe_{17} binary compound dissolves about 3 at.% of Sb at 1223 K.

3.1.6.7. *Nd–Co–Sb*. The 870 K isothermal section of the Nd–Co–Sb system was reported by Sologub and Salamakha (1999) from an X-ray powder analysis of 68 alloys (fig. 12). For the sample preparation, see Nd–Cr–Sb system. The purity of the starting components



Fig. 12. Nd–Co–Sb, isothermal section at 870 K.



Fig. 13. Nd–Ni–Sb, isothermal section at 870 K.

was Nd 99.9%, Co 99.99%, and Sb 99.999%. The existence of the ternary NdCo_{1-x}Sb₂ (3) phase has been confirmed. The crystal structures of two other compounds, NdCo₃Sb₂ (1) and Nd₆CoSb₁₅ (2) have not been investigated.

Leithe-Jasper and Rogl (1994) investigated the formation and crystal structure of the NdCo_{1-x}Sb₂ compound by X-ray powder analysis of Nd₃₀₋₂₅Co₁₅₋₂₅Sb₅₅₋₅₀ (HfCuSi₂-type structure, a = 0.43306-0.43453, c = 0.96138-0.96918). For the sample preparation and the purity of the starting materials, see LaFe_{1-x}Sb₂. Wollesen et al. (1996) confirmed the crystal structure using X-ray powder diffraction: a = 0.43357, c = 0.96587 for NdCo_{1-x}Sb₂. For synthesis, see LaMn_{0.721(1)}Sb₂. The purities of the starting elements were: Nd, greater than 99.9%, Co, greater than 99.8%, Sb 99.9%.

3.1.6.8. Nd-Ni-Sb. The isothermal section of the Nd–Ni–Sb system at 870 K is shown in fig. 13, after Salamakha (1998). Three ternary compounds have been found: NdNi₂Sb₂ (1), NdNiSb₂ (2) and NdNiSb (3). The solubility of third component in the binary compounds was found to be negligible. For the sample preparation, see Nd–Cr–Sb system. The purity of the starting components was: Nd 99.9%, Ni 99.99%, and Sb 99.999%.

Pankevich et al. (1983) reported the crystal structure of NdNiSb₂ to be the HfCuSi₂ type, a = 0.4364, c = 0.9614 (X-ray powder diffraction; arc melted and annealed at 870 K for two weeks). The crystallographic characteristics were confirmed by Sologub et al. (1994), a = 0.43674, c = 0.9629. For experimental details, see LaNiSb₂.

Early investigations of the NdNiSb compound showed that it had the AlB₂-type with a = 0.4372, c = 0.3991 (Pecharsky et al., 1983a; X-ray powder analysis). For the experimental procedure, see ScNiSb. At variance with these data, Hartjes and Jeitschko (1995) suggested



Fig. 14. Nd–Cu–Sb, isothermal section at 870 K.

that the compound had the ZrBeSi type structure, a = 0.4377, c = 0.7997 from X-ray powder diffraction. For experimental details, see LaNiSb.

The CeGa₂Al₂ type structure was reported for NdNi₂Sb₂ by Pecharsky et al. (1982), a = 0.43022, c = 0.99125 from X-ray powder diffraction. For sample preparation, see CeNi₂Sb₂. Hoffman and Jeitschko (1988) established a defect CaBe₂Ge₂ type structure for NdNi_{2-x}Sb₂ alloy, a = 0.4300, c = 1.001, X-ray powder diffraction. For the experimental details, see CeNi_{2-x}Sb₂.

3.1.6.9. Nd-Cu-Sb. The isothermal section for the Nd–Cu–Sb system at 870 K was established by Zaplatynsky and Salamakha (1994) (fig. 14). For sample preparation, see Nd–Cr–Sb. The purity of the starting components was: Nd 99.9%, Ni 99.99%, and Sb 99.999%. Three ternary compounds were found to exist. No homogeneous ranges were encountered for the ternary compounds.

A ternary compound of neodymium with copper and antimony of the stoichiometric ratio 3:3:4 was identified and studied by means of X-ray analysis by Skolozdra et al. (1993). The Nd₃Cu₃Sb₄ compound (3) was found to have the Y₃Au₃Sb₄ type structure with a lattice parameter of a = 0.9661 (X-ray powder diffraction). For experimental details, see the Y–Cu–Sb system.

NdCuSb₂ (2) was found to adopt a HfCuSi₂ type structure with lattice parameters of a = 0.43118, c = 1.0111 (Sologub et al., 1994). For experimental details, see LaNiSb₂.

Crystal structure of the compound NdCu₆Sb₃ (1) has not been investigated.

3.1.6.10. *Nd–Zn–Sb*. The results of an X-ray phase analysis of 25 ternary neodymium-zincantimony alloys for the Sb-rich region (33.0–100.0 at.% of Sb) are presented in fig. 15 (Sologub and Salamakha, 1999). The alloys were obtained via a powder metallurgical reaction,



Fig. 15. Nd–Zn–Sb, partial isothermal section at 870 K (33.0–100.0 at.% Sb).

the sintering of Zn and Sb powders with fine filings of neodymium. The thoroughly mixed blends were compacted in the steel dies and then sealed in evacuated silica ampoules. After slowly heating to about 870 K for the first reaction, the hard sintered pellets were reground under C_6H_{12} and recompacted for the final heat treatment at 870 K for 300 h and finally quenched by submerging the silica capsules in cold water.

Phase field distribution is characterized by the existence of three ternary compounds. The obtained data on formation and crystal structure of two compounds $NdZn_{1-x}Sb_2$ (2) (HfCuSi₂ type structure, a = 0.43305, c = 1.03482, X-ray powder diffraction) and Nd₆ZnSb₁₅ (3) (La₆MnSb₁₅ type, a = 1.5109, b = 1.9026, c = 0.42447, X-ray powder diffraction) are in good agreement with the results of former investigations (Sologub et al., 1995b; Sologub et al., 1996b). Wollesen et al. (1996) confirmed the crystal structure for the NdZn_{1-x}Sb₂ (a = 0.43229, c = 1.03334) from the X-ray powder diffraction. The purity of the starting components and the sample preparation procedure were the same as for LaMn_{0.721(1)}Sb₂.

The crystal structure of the \sim NdZn₂Sb₂ (1) ternary phase has not been determined yet (Sologub and Salamakha, 1999).

3.1.6.11. *Nd–Ga–Sb*. Mills and Mar (2000) investigated by X-ray powder diffraction the crystal structure of the Nd₁₂Ga₄Sb₂₃ compound, $Pr_{12}Ga_4Sb_{23}$ type structure, a = 0.4268, b = 1.308, c = 2.6425. The sample was synthesized by direct reaction of the elements in evacuated silica tubes.

3.1.6.12. *Nd–Ge–Sb*. Lam et al. (2001) determined the crystal structure of the Nd₆Ge_{3.6}Sb_{12.4} compound from X-ray single crystal diffraction, La₆Ge_{2.8}Sb_{13.2} structure type, a = 0.4210, b = 1.06362, c = 2.6536. The crystal was obtained from a sample synthesized by direct reaction of the elements at 1223 K.

3.1.6.13. *Nd–Zr*, *Nb–Sb*. The compounds Nd₃ZrSb₅ and Nd₃NbSb₅ belong to the Hf₅CuSn₃ anti-type structure with the lattice parameters a = 0.9413, c = 0.6275, and a = 0.9360, c = 0.6186, respectively (Bollore et al., 1995; X-ray powder diffraction).

3.1.6.14. *Nd*–*Ru*–*Sb*. The crystal structure of the NdRu₄Sb₁₂ compound was investigated by Braun and Jeitschko (1980). It was found to form the LaFe₄P₁₂ type, a = 0.92642 (X-ray powder diffraction). The purities of the starting materials and the experimental procedure were the same as for LaFe₄Sb₁₂.

3.1.6.15. *Nd–Rh–Ge*. Malik and Adroja (1991b) established the KHg₂ type structure with a = 0.4584, b = 0.7329, c = 0.7838 for the NdRhSb compound by using X-ray powder diffraction of an arc melted alloy. The purities of the metals were better than 99.99%.

The existence of $NdRh_2Sb_2$ with a tetragonal structure was reported by Menon Latica and Malik (1996).

3.1.6.16. *Nd–Pd–Sb*. Marazza et al. (1980) established the CaIn₂ type structure with a = 0.4580, c = 0.7716 for NdPdSb compound by using X-ray powder diffraction and metallographic analyses. For the sample preparation and the purity of starting components, see Y–Pd–Sb system. The crystallographic characteristics were confirmed from powder diffraction of arc melted and annealed at 1073 K alloys with a = 0.4577, c = 0.7676 (Zygmunt and Szytula, 1995). Mehta et al. (1995) reported an orthorhombic structure for NdPdSb at room temperature: SG *Pmma*, a = 0.45833, b = 0.77189, c = 0.7937.

NdPdSb₂ was found to crystallize with the HfCuSi₂ type structure with lattice parameters of a = 0.44647, c = 0.9738 (Sologub et al., 1994). For experimental details, see LaNiSb₂.

Hoffman and Jeitschko (1988) established the CaBe₂Ge₂ type structure for NdPd₂Sb₂, X-ray powder diffraction. The sample was synthesized in the same manner as LaPd₂Sb₂.

3.1.6.17. *Nd–Ag–Sb*. The isothermal section for the Nd–Ag–Sb system at 870 K was established by Zaplatynsky and Salamakha (1994) (fig. 16). For the sample preparation, see Nd– Cr–Sb. The purity of the starting components was: Nd 99.9%, Ag 99.99%, and Sb 99.999%. One ternary compound NdAgSb₂ (1) was found to exist. Its crystal structure was independently investigated by two groups of authors (Sologub et al., 1995a; Brylak et al., 1995). This compound was found to belong to the HfCuSi₂ type structure, a = 0.43357, c = 1.0624. The alloys were prepared in the same manner as YAgSb₂.

3.1.6.18. *Nd–Cd–Sb*. Figure 17 represents the partial isothermal section of the Nd–Cd–Sb system (33.0–100.0 at.% of Sb) at 870 K, after Sologub and Salamakha (1999). For the sample preparation, see Nd–Zn–Sb system. The phase relations are characterized by the existence of three ternary compounds: NdCdSb₂ (1), \sim Nd₆CdSb₁₅ (2) and \sim NdCdSb (3).

Sologub et al. (1995b) reported on the crystallographic data for the NdCdSb₂ (1) compound (HfCuSi₂-type structure, a = 0.43454, c = 1.0827; X-ray powder diffraction) obtained from a multiphase alloy. For the sample preparation and the purity of the starting materials,



see CeZn_{1-x}Sb₂. Wollesen et al. (1996) confirmed the crystal structure using X-ray powder diffraction: a = 0.43405, c = 1.0820 for NdCd_{1-x}Sb₂. For experimental details, see LaMn_{0.721(1)}Sb₂. The purities of the starting elements were: Nd, greater than 99.9%, Cd, greater than 99.8%, Sb 99.9%.

3.1.6.19. *Nd–In–Sb*. The crystal structure of the NdIn_{0.8}Sb₂ compound was investigated by Ferguson et al. (1999) using X-ray powder diffraction: LaIn_{0.8}Sb₂ structure type, a = 0.4445, b = 0.4297, c = 1.1677, $\beta = 99.22^{\circ}$.

3.1.6.20. *Nd*–*Sn*–*Sb*. Ferguson et al. (1996) studied the crystal structure of the NdSn_xSb₂ by using a powder diffraction method, a = 0.4195, b = 2.2606, c = 0.4449. The sample was synthesized by direct reaction of the elements at 1223 K.

3.1.6.21. *Nd–Te–Sb*. The complete c-T diagram was presented for the Nd₂Te₃–Sb₂Te₃ section by Geidarova and Rustamov (1985). The NdTe₃Sb compound, which formed incongruently, was observed to have the: Bi₂Te₃ structure type, a = 0.432, c = 2.940 (Geidarova and Rustamov, 1985).

NdSbTe has the Cu₂Sb type structure, a = 0.4312, c = 0.9371 (Charvillat et al., 1977).

3.1.6.22. *Nd–Hf–Sb*. Bollore et al. (1995) reported that Nd₃HfSb₅ (studied by X-ray powder diffraction) has the Hf₅CuSn₃ anti-type structure, a = 0.9390, c = 0.6261.

3.1.6.23. *Nd–Os–Sb*. The crystal structure of the NdOs₄Sb₁₂ compound was investigated by Braun and Jeitschko (1980). It was found to adopt the LaFe₄P₁₂ type structure, a = 0.92989 (X-ray powder diffraction). The purities of the starting materials and the experimental procedures were the same as for LaFe₄Sb₁₂. These results were confirmed by Evers et al. (1995), a = 0.9300 from X-ray single crystal analysis.

3.1.6.24. *Nd*–*Pt–Sb.* NdPtSb crystallizes with the CaIn₂ type structure, a = 0.4544, c = 0.7878 (Rossi et al., 1981; powder X-ray diffraction data). For the experimental details, see the LaPtSb. At variance with these data, Wenski and Mewis (1986a) reported the LiGaGe type structure for the NdPtSb compound, a = 0.4535, c = 0.7866 from X-ray single crystal investigation. For the sample preparation, see PrPtSb.

3.1.6.25. *Nd–Au–Sb*. The partial isothermal section of the Nd–Au–Sb system (33.0–100.0 at.% of Sb) at 870 K is shown in fig. 18 after Zaplatynsky (2000). Two ternary compounds were found to exist within investigated concentration region. For sample preparation, see Nd–Zn–Sb system.



Fig. 18. Nd–Au–Sb, partial isothermal section at 870 K (33.0–100.0 at.% Sb).

The Y₃Au₃Sb₄ type structure was reported by Dwight (1977) for the Nd₃Au₃Sb₄ alloy (2) (a = 0.9961; X-ray powder diffraction). The conditions of synthesis were not specified. The formation and crystal structure of the Nd₃Au₃Sb₄ compound (Y₃Au₃Sb₄ type, a = 1.99716) was confirmed by Sologub et al. (1998). For the sample preparation, see Nd₃Au₃Sb₄.

NdAuSb₂ (1) was found to adopt the HfCuSi₂ type structure with the lattice parameters as a = 0.43870, c = 1.0192 (Sologub et al., 1994). The alloy was prepared in the same manner as YCuSb₂.

3.1.7. Sm-M-Sb systems

3.1.7.1. *Sm*–*Ti*–*Sb*. The crystal structure of the Sm₃TiSb₅ compound was investigated by Bollore et al. (1995). It was found to form the Hf₅CuSn₃ anti-type structure, a = 0.9275, c = 0.6162 (X-ray powder diffraction).

3.1.7.2. *Sm*–*V*–*Sb*. The SmVSb₃ compound has the CeCrSb₃ type structure: a = 1.2904, b = 0.6213, c = 0.5980 (X-ray powder diffraction; Brylak and Jeitschko, 1995).

3.1.7.3. *Sm*–*Cr–Sb*. SmCrSb₃ crystallizes with the CeCrSb₃ type structure: a = 1.2838, b = 0.61594, c = 0.6032 (X-ray powder diffraction; Brylak and Jeitschko, 1995). The structure was confirmed by Ferguson et al. (1997), a = 1.2847, b = 0.6164, c = 0.6038 (X-ray powder diffraction).

3.1.7.4. *Sm*–*Mn*–*Sb*. Sologub et al. (1995b) reported on the lattice parameters for the SmMn_{0.90}Sb₂ compound (HfCuSi₂-type, a = 0.42899, c = 1.0569; X-ray powder diffraction) which was obtained from a multiphase alloy. For experimental details, see LaMn_{0.87}Sb₂. Wollesen et al. (1996) confirmed the crystal structure using X-ray powder diffraction: a = 0.4298, c = 1.0520 for SmMn_{1–x}Sb₂. For experimental details, see LaMn_{0.721}Sb₂. The purities of the starting elements were: Sm, greater than 99.9%, Mn, greater than 99.8%, Sb 99.9%.

3.1.7.5. *Sm*–*Fe*–*Sb*. Leithe-Jasper and Rogl (1994) investigated the formation and crystal structure of the SmFe_{1-x}Sb₂ compound by X-ray powder analysis of the alloy Sm₃₀₋₃₂Fe₁₃Sb₅₇₋₅₅ (HfCuSi₂ type structure, a = 0.43252-0.43261, c = 0.95025-0.95156). For the sample preparation and the purity of starting materials, see LaFe_{1-x}Sb₂.

The crystal structure of the SmFe₄Sb₁₂ compound was studied by Evers et al. (1995). It was found to adopt the LaFe₄P₁₂ type, a = 0.9130 (X-ray powder diffraction). The purities of the materials were 99.9% or better. Filings of the samarium were prepared under argon and annealed with the corresponding amounts of antimony in evacuated sealed silica tubes for two days at 723 K, followed by five days at 1023 K. The resulting antimonide SmSb was ground together with appropriate amounts of Fe and Sb, pressed into pellets and sealed in evacuated silica tubes. The ampoules were quickly heated to 913 K, kept at this temperature for 24 h, and then quenched. The starting composition was Sm:Fe:Sb = 2:4:13. The excess antimony was removed by treating the product for several days with concentrated hydrochloric acid.

From a room temperature X-ray powder diffraction analysis $Sm_6Fe_{13}Sb$ was found to crystallize with the ordered $La_6Co_{11}Ga_3$, i.e., the Nd₆Fe₁₃Si type, a = 0.8041, c = 2.3048

(Weitzer et al., 1993). An alloy was synthesized from ingots and compacted powders of the constituent elements 99.9% pure by arc melting followed by annealing at 1073 for 3 days and quenched in cold water.

The binary Sm₂Fe₁₇ compound dissolves about 6 at.% of Sb at 1223 K (Zhang et al., 2000).

3.1.7.6. Sm-Co-Sb. Leithe-Jasper and Rogl (1994) investigated the formation and crystal structure of the SmCo_{1-x}Sb₂ compound by X-ray powder analysis of the alloy Sm₂₈Co₁₇Sb₅₅ (HfCuSi₂ type structure, a = 0.43415, c = 0.96700). For the sample preparation and the purity of starting materials, see LaFe_{1-x}Sb₂. Wollesen et al. (1996) confirmed the crystal structure by using X-ray powder diffraction: a = 0.43346, c = 0.9650 for SmCo_{1-x}Sb₂. For synthesis, see LaMn_{0.721}Sb₂. The purities of the starting elements were: Sm, greater than 99.9%, Co, greater than 99.8%, Sb 99.9%.

3.1.7.7. *Sm*–*Ni*–*Sb*. Pankevich et al. (1983) reported the crystal structure for the SmNiSb₂ compound, HfCuSi₂ type structure, a = 0.4335, c = 0.9513 (X-ray powder diffraction; arc melted and annealed at 870 K for two weeks). The crystallographic characteristics were confirmed by Sologub et al. (1994), a = 0.43406, c = 0.9523. For experimental details, see LaNiSb₂.

Early investigations of SmNiSb showed that it had the AlB₂ type structure with a = 0.4372, c = 0.3843 (Pecharsky et al., 1983a; X-ray powder analysis). For experimental procedure, see ScNiSb. At variance with these data, Hartjes and Jeitschko (1995) suggested ZrBeSi type structure, a = 0.4387, c = 0.7699 from X-ray powder diffraction. For experimental details, see LaNiSb.

CeGa₂Al₂ type structure was reported for SmNi₂Sb₂ by Pecharsky et al. (1982), a = 0.4261, c = 0.9838 from X-ray powder diffraction. For sample preparation, see CeNi₂Sb₂. Hoffman and Jeitschko (1988) established a defect CaBe₂Ge₂ type structure for SmNi_{2-x}Sb₂ alloy, a = 0.4281, c = 0.9838, X-ray powder diffraction. Sample preparation, see CeNi_{2-x}Sb₂.

3.1.7.8. *Sm*–*Cu*–*Sb*. A ternary compound of samarium with copper and antimony of the stoichiometric ratio 3:3:4 was identified and studied by means of X-ray analysis by Skolozdra et al. (1993). The compound Sm₃Cu₃Sb₄ was found to have the Y₃Au₃Sb₄ type structure with a lattice parameter of a = 0.9620 (X-ray powder diffraction). For experimental details, see the Y–Cu–Sb system.

SmCuSb₂ crystallizes with a HfCuSi₂ type structure with the lattice parameters of a = 0.42939, c = 0.9999 (Sologub et al., 1994). For experimental details, see LaNiSb₂.

3.1.7.9. Sm-Zn-Sb. Sologub et al. (1995b) reported on the crystallographic data for the $SmZn_{1-x}Sb_2$ compound (HfCuSi₂ type structure, a = 0.42997, c = 1.0272; X-ray powder diffraction) which was obtained from a multiphase alloy. For the sample preparation and the purity of starting materials, see $CeZn_{1-x}Sb_2$. Wollesen et al. (1996) confirmed the crystal structure of $SmZn_{1-x}Sb_2$ by using X-ray powder diffraction: a = 0.43010, c = 1.0271.

For experimental details, see $LaMn_{0.721}Sb_2$. The purities of the starting elements were: Sm, greater than 99.9%, Zn, greater than 99.8%, Sb 99.9%.

The crystal structure of the Sm₆ZnSb₁₅ compound was investigated by Sologub et al. (1996b) by the X-ray powder diffraction. It was found to crystallize with the La₆MnSb₁₅ structure type, a = 1.5004, b = 1.8794, c = 0.41769. For sample preparation, see Ce₆ZnSb₁₅.

3.1.7.10. *Sm*–*Ga*–*Sb*. SmGaSb₂ crystallizes with the NaCl type structure, a = 0.60896 (Kuliev et al., 1990).

Mills and Mar (2000) established the crystal structure for the $Sm_{12}Ga_4Sb_{23}$ compound from X-ray powder diffraction ($Pr_{12}Ga_4Sb_{23}$ type, a = 0.4213, b = 1.9120, c = 2.6009). The sample was synthesized by direct reaction of the elements in evacuated silica tubes.

3.1.7.11. *Sm*–*Ge*–*Sb*. Lam et al. (2001) investigated the crystal structure of the Sm₆Ge_{5-*x*}Sb_{11+*x*} compound using X-ray powder diffraction (La₆Ge_{2.8}Sb_{13.2} type structure, a = 0.41942, b = 1.0537, c = 2.6350).

3.1.7.12. *Sm*–*Se*–*Sb*. Rustamov et al. (1981b) reported from X-ray powder diffraction the crystal structure of the compound $Sm_3Se_9Sb_4$ obtained by using a chemical vapour transport technique, $Eu_3S_9Sb_4$ structure type, a = 1.744, b = 0.410, c = 2.492.

3.1.7.13. *Sm*–*Nb*–*Sb*. Sm₃NbSb₅ crystallizes with the Hf₅CuSn₃ anti-type structure, a = 0.9344, c = 0.6234 (X-ray powder diffraction; Bollore et al., 1995).

3.1.7.14. *Sm*–*Ru*–*Sb*. The crystal structure of the SmRu₄Sb₁₂ compound was investigated by Evers et al. (1995). It crystallizes with the LaFe₄P₁₂ type structure, a = 0.9259 (X-ray powder diffraction). The purities of the materials were 99.9% or better. Filings of samarium were prepared under argon and annealed with the corresponding amounts of antimony in evacuated sealed silica tubes for two days at 723 K, followed by five days at 1023 K. The resulting antimonide SmSb was ground together with appropriate amounts of Ru and Sb, pressed into pellets and sealed in evacuated silica tubes. The ampules were quickly heated to 873 K, were kept at this temperature for 24 h, and were then quenched. The starting composition was Sm:Ru:Sb = 2:4:13. The excess antimony was removed by treating the product for several days with concentrated hydrochloric acid.

3.1.7.15. *Sm–Pd–Sb.* Marazza et al. (1980) established the CaIn₂ type structure with a = 0.4572, c = 0.7546 for the SmPdSb compound by using X-ray powder diffraction and metallographic analyses. For the sample preparation and the purity of the starting components, see Y–Pd–Sb system. The crystallographic characteristics were confirmed from X-ray powder diffraction of arc-melted and annealed at 1073 K alloys: CaIn₂ type, a = 0.4578, c = 0.7527 (Zygmunt and Szytula, 1995).

SmPdSb₂ was found to adopt the HfCuSi₂ type structure with lattice parameters of a = 0.44315, c = 0.9627 (Sologub et al., 1994). For experimental details, see LaNiSb₂.

Hoffman and Jeitschko (1988) established the CaBe₂Ge₂ type structure for SmPd₂Sb₂, X-ray powder diffraction. The sample was synthesized in the same manner as LaPd₂Sb₂.

3.1.7.16. *Sm*–*Ag*–*Sb*. SmAgSb₂ was observed and studied by Sologub et al. (1995a). It was found to crystallize with HfCuSi₂ type structure with lattice parameters as follows a = 0.43126, c = 1.0548 by X-ray powder diffraction of arc melted and annealed at 870 K for 14 days alloy. The purity of the starting materials was 99.9 wt.%. The existence and crystal structure of SmAgSb₂ compound were independently confirmed by Brylak et al. (1995) (a = 0.4312, c = 1.0555; X-ray powder diffraction). For sample preparation, see YAgSb₂. The starting materials were: Sm 99.9%, Ag M3N, and Sb 325 mesh, M2N5.

3.1.7.17. *Sm–Cd–Sb.* Sologub et al. (1995b) reported on the crystallographic data for the SmCdSb₂ compound (HfCuSi₂ type structure, a = 0.43301, c = 1.0782; X-ray powder diffraction) which obtained from a multiphase alloy. For the sample preparation and the purity of the starting materials, see CeZn_{1-x}Sb₂. Wollesen et al. (1996) confirmed the crystal structure by using X-ray powder diffraction: a = 0.43165, c = 1.078 for SmCd_{1-x}Sb₂. For experimental details, see LaMn_{0.721(1)}Sb₂. The purities of the starting elements were: Sm, greater than 99.9%, Cd, greater than 99.8%, Sb 99.9%.

3.1.7.18. *Sm*–*Sn*–*Sb*. The NdTe₃ type structure was reported for Sm₂SnSb₃, a = 0.4228, b = 2.299, c = 0.4478 from an X-ray single crystal investigation (Wang et al., 1967). The single crystal was isolated from a sample obtained by heating starting components at 773 K for 24 h, 973 K for 1 week and 1023 K for 15 days.

Ferguson et al. (1996) investigated the crystal structure of the $SmSn_xSb_2$ by using X-ray powder diffraction a = 0.4174, b = 2.2384, c = 0.4416. The sample was synthesized by direct reaction of the elements at 1223 K.

3.1.7.19. *Sm*–*Te*–*Sb*. The complete c-T diagrams were presented for the Sb₂Te₃–Sm₂Te₃ and Sb₂Te₃–SmTe sections by Geidarova and Rustamov (1985) and Sadygov et al. (1988a), respectively. The SmTe₃Sb compound, which formed by incongruent melting, was observed by Geidarova and Rustamov (1985) to have the Bi₂Te₃ structure type, a = 0.446, c = 3.020. Sadygov et al. (1988a) reported from X-ray powder diffraction the crystal structure for two compounds: SmTe₄Sb₂, Th₃P₄ structure type, a = 1.049 and SmTe₇Sb₄, Th₃P₄, a = 1.072. The samples were prepared by heating in evacuated quartz tubes at 1450 K and oven cooling.

SmSbTe crystallizes with the Cu₂Sb structure type, a = 0.4287, c = 0.9307 after Charvillat et al. (1977).

3.1.7.20. *Sm*–*Hf*–*Sb*. Bollore et al. (1995) studied the crystal structure of the Sm₃HfSb₅ compound. It was found to form the Hf₅CuSn₃ anti-type structure, a = 0.9340, c = 0.6230 (X-ray powder diffraction).

3.1.7.21. *Sm*–*Os*–*Sb*. The SmOs₄Sb₁₂ compound forms the LaFe₄P₁₂ type structure, a = 0.93009 after Braun and Jeitschko (1980) (X-ray powder diffraction). The purities of the starting materials and the experimental procedure were the same as for LaFe₄Sb₁₂.

3.1.7.22. *Sm*–*Pt*–*Sb*. SmPtSb crystallizes with the MgAgAs-type structure, a = 0.6554 (Rossi et al., 1981; powder X-ray diffraction data). For the experimental details, see the LaPtSb system.

3.1.7.23. *Sm*–*Au*–*Sb*. The Y₃Au₃Sb₄ type structure was reported by Dwight (1977) for the Sm₃Au₃Sb₄ alloy (a = 0.9909; X-ray powder diffraction). The conditions of synthesis were not specified.

SmAuSb₂ was found to adopt the HfCuSi₂ type structure with lattice parameters of a = 0.43653, c = 1.0134 (Sologub et al., 1994). For experimental details, see LaNiSb₂.

3.1.8. Eu-M-Sb systems

3.1.8.1. *Eu–Li–Sb*. The EuLiSb compound has the TiNiSi structure type: a = 0.7914, b = 0.4773, c = 0.8358 (Albering et al., 1997).

3.1.8.2. Eu-Mn-Sb. Rühl and Jeitschko (1979) reported the results of an X-ray powder investigation of EuMn₂Sb₂ which has the CaAl₂Si₂ type structure, a = 0.4570, c = 0.7660. The proper amounts of the starting elements were heated in an evacuated tube at 1200–1250 K for 1 week and rapidly quenched.

 $Eu_{14}MnSb_{11}$ forms the $Ca_{14}AlSb_{11}$ type structure, a = 1.7300, c = 2.2746 (X-ray single crystal diffraction; Rehr and Kauzlarich, 1994). A single crystal was isolated from a sample obtained by heating the starting components (Eu, Mn, and Sb (6N)) in a quartz tube under argon at 1523 K for 24 hours.

3.1.8.3. Eu-Fe-Sb. The crystal structure of the EuFe₄Sb₁₂ compound was investigated by Evers et al. (1995). It was found to adopt the LaFe₄P₁₂ type structure, a = 0.9165 (X-ray powder diffraction). The purities of the materials were 99.9% or better. Filings of europium were prepared under argon and annealed with the corresponding amounts of antimony in evacuated sealed silica tubes for two days at 723 K, followed by five days at 1023 K. The resulting antimonide EuSb₂ was ground together with the appropriate amounts of Fe and Sb, pressed into pellets and sealed in evacuated silica tubes. The ampules were quickly heated to 933 K, kept at this temperature for 3 h, cooled at 1 °C/h to 873 K and then quenched. The starting composition was Eu:Fe:Sb = 2:4:14. The excess antimony was removed by treating the product for several days with concentrated hydrochloric acid.

3.1.8.4. Eu-Ni-Sb. Marchand and Jeitschko (1978) investigated the crystal structure of the EuNi₂Sb₂ compound (ThCr₂Si₂ type structure: a = 0.43834, c = 1.0664; X-ray powder diffraction). Stoichiometric amounts of the elemental components (Eu, Ni better than 99.5%, Sb better than 99%) were sealed under argon in silica tubes, heated at 920 K for 12 h, followed by 4 h at 1250 K and rapid cooling. The samples were then ground to powder, cold pressed to

small pellets, resealed in silica tubes under Ar, and annealed for 15 h at 1250 K. The structure refinement from single crystal data confirmed the structure type and established the composition as $EuNi_{1.53}Sb_2$ and the lattice parameters as a = 0.4340, c = 1.0597 (Hoffman and Jeitschko, 1985). A single crystal was selected from a sample prepared by annealing the elemental components for 5 days at 1073 K. The resulting button was melted in a high-frequency furnace and quenched.

3.1.8.5. Eu-Cu-Sb. EuCuSb was found to crystallize with the ZrBeSi type structure with lattice parameters of a = 0.4512, c = 0.8542 (Tomuschat and Schuster, 1981; X-ray photographic powder method).

Dunner et al. (1995) reported the crystal structure for the EuCu₂Sb₂ compound to have the CaBe₂Ge₂ type structure, a = 0.4504, c = 1.0824 (powder and single crystal diffraction). The sample was obtained by the reaction: $2\text{Eu} + 2\text{CuCl} + 2\text{Sb} \rightarrow \text{EuCu}_2\text{Sb}_2 + \text{EuCl}_2$, and annealed at 1120 K for 100 h.

3.1.8.6. Eu–Zn–Sb. Eu Zn_2Sb_2 with the CaAl₂Si₂ type structure (a = 0.4489, c = 0.7609; X-ray powder diffraction data) was obtained by Klüfers et al. (1980) from an alloy melted in a corundum crucible at 1173–1373 K for 4–6 hours and annealed at 1373–1473 K for 4–48 hours.

3.1.8.7. Eu-Se-Sb. EuSe₄Sb₂ was found by Rustamov et al. (1977) to form PbS₄Bi₂ structure type, a = 1.14, b = 0.376, c = 1.42 in an alloy obtained by melting the starting components in evacuated quartz tube at 1373–1423 K. The crystal structure was confirmed by Aliev et al. (1978) for a sample prepared by a chemical transport reaction technique: a = 1.137, b = 0.400, c = 1.135 from single crystal X-ray diffraction.

Rustamov et al. (1981b) and Aliev et al. (1986) reported the crystal structure for the Eu₃Se₉Sb₄ compound, Eu₃S₉Sb₄ structure type, a = 1.717, b = 0.406, c = 2.488 from X-ray powder diffraction. The sample was prepared by a chemical vapour transport technique.

3.1.8.8. Eu-Ru-Sb. The crystal structure of the EuRu₄Sb₁₂ compound was investigated by Braun and Jeitschko (1980). It was found to form the LaFe₄P₁₂ type structure, a = 0.92824(X-ray powder diffraction). The purities of starting materials and experimental procedure were the same as for LaRu₄Sb₁₂. These results were confirmed by Evers et al. (1995), a = 0.9284from an X-ray single crystal analysis.

3.1.8.9. Eu-Pd-Sb. The structure refinement from single crystal data established the CaBe₂Ge₂ type structure for EuPd₂Sb₂ a = 0.4629, c = 1.0568 (Hoffman and Jeitschko, 1985). A single crystal was isolated from the sample prepared by annealing the elemental components for 10 days at 1020 K. The resulting button was oven cooled.

EuPdSb crystallizes with the TiNiSi type structure, a = 0.7627, b = 0.4695, c = 0.7925 (Malik and Adroja, 1991c; powder X-ray diffraction data). Starting elements (Eu 4N, Pd 4N, Sb 4N) were arc melted under argon.

3.1.8.10. *Eu*–*Ag*–*Sb*. EuAgSb was found to crystallize with the ZrBeSi type structure with lattice parameters of a = 0.4755, c = 0.8283 (Tomuschat and Schuster, 1981).

3.1.8.11. *Eu–Sn–Sb*. The ternary compound EuSn₃Sb₄ was synthesized at 1173 K in a tin flux, and its crystal structure was determined by X-ray single crystal diffraction methods. It crystallizes in the orthorhombic *Pnma* space group with lattice parameters a = 0.9954, b = 0.43516, c = 2.2650 (Lam et al., 2000).

3.1.8.12. *Eu–Te–Sb*. Aliev and Rustamov (1978) reported the c-T diagram for the EuTe–Sb₂Te₃ section.

EuTe₄Sb₂ belongs to a Th₃P₄ structure type, a = 1.044 after Aliev et al. (1985). The same group of authors studied the crystal structure for EuTe₇Sb₄, Th₃P₄ structure type, a = 1.062 (Aliev et al., 1986).

Hulliger and Ott (1977) reported the anti-Th₃P₄ structure type for Eu₄TeSb₂, a = 0.9814 from X-ray powder diffraction. The sample was placed in tantalum or molybdenum crucible and heated in quartz tube below 1273 K.

3.1.8.13. *Eu–Os–Sb*. The crystal structure of the EuOs₄Sb₁₂ compound was investigated by Braun and Jeitschko (1980). It belongs to the LaFe₄P₁₂ type structure, a = 0.93187 (X-ray powder diffraction). The purities of the starting materials and the experimental procedure were the same as for LaFe₄Sb₁₂.

3.1.8.14. Eu-Pt-Sb. EuPtSb was found to form the TiNiSi type structure (a = 0.7581, b = 0.4642, c = 0.7893) from X-ray single crystal diffraction by Wenski and Mewis (1986b).

3.1.8.15. *Eu–Au–Sb*. Tomuschat and Schuster (1981) reported the ZrBeSi type structure for EuAuSb, a = 0.4669, c = 0.8486 (X-ray photographic powder method). The sample was synthesized by melting the starting components in corundum crucible under argon at 1273 K 12–16 h and annealing at 1373 K 14 h. Suzuki et al. (1993) established a CaIn₂ type structure for EuAuSb, a = 0.4681, c = 0.8422. For the sample preparation, see CeAuSb.

3.1.9. Gd-M-Sb systems

3.1.9.1. Gd-Li-Sb. A systematic study of the Gd-Li-Sb system at 470 K was performed by Pavlyuk (1993) over the whole concentration region by means of X-ray powder analysis (fig. 19). The samples were prepared by arc melting under argon and annealed in evacuated quartz ampoules at 470 K for 10 days. Five ternary phases were observed, the crystal structure was established only for two of them: GdLi₃Sb₂ (2), YLi₃Sb₂ type structure, a = 0.4547, c = 0.7196 (powder diffraction) and Gd₃Li₄Sb₄ (3), Gd₆Cu₈Ge₈ type structure, a = 1.4594, b = 0.4513, c = 0.7100 (powder diffraction). Crystal structure for last three compounds ~GdLi₇Sb₂ (1), ~Gd₄Li₃Sb₄ (4) and ~Gd₂LiSb (5) have not been investigated. No homogeneous ranges were encountered for the ternary compounds. The liquid immiscibility region, existing in the Gd-Li binary system, extends to 20 at.% Ge in the ternary system.



Fig. 19. Gd–Li–Sb, isothermal section at 470 K.

3.1.9.2. *Gd–Cr–Sb*. Ferguson et al. (1997) investigated the crystal structure of the GdCrSb₃ compound (CeCrSb₃ type structure: a = 1.2760, b = 0.6153, c = 0.6004, X-ray powder diffraction).

3.1.9.3. Gd–Fe–Sb. Leithe-Jasper and Rogl (1994) investigated the formation and crystal structure of the GdFe_{1-x}Sb₂ compound by X-ray powder analysis of the alloy Gd₃₅Fe₁₀Sb₅₅ (HfCuSi₂ type structure, a = 0.43080, c = 0.94125). For the sample preparation and the purity of the starting materials, see LaFe_{1-x}Sb₂.

3.1.9.4. Gd-Ni-Sb. GdNiSb₂ is isostructural with the HfCuSi₂ type structure with lattice parameters of a = 0.43345, c = 0.9452 (Sologub et al., 1994). The alloy was prepared in the same manner as YCuSb₂.

Early investigations of the GdNiSb compound showed that it had the MgAgAs-type with a = 0.6340 (Dwight, 1974) from X-ray powder analysis of an alloy arc melted under argon and annealed at 973 K. Hartjes and Jeitschko (1995) confirmed the crystal structure and obtained the lattice parameter of a = 0.6323 by X-ray powder diffraction. For experimental details, see LaNiSb. At variance to these data, Pecharsky et al. (1983a) suggested the AlB₂ type structure with a = 0.4329, c = 0.3918 from X-ray powder analysis of an alloy arc melted under argon and annealed at 870 K.

Marchand and Jeitschko (1978) investigated the crystal structure of $GdNi_2Sb_2$ compound (ThCr₂Si₂ type structure: a = 0.4259, c = 0.9809; X-ray powder diffraction). For the sample preparation, see EuNi₂Sb₂. A later investigation (Hoffman and Jeitschko, 1988) established the defect CaBe₂Ge₂ type structure for the GdNi_{2-x}Sb₂ alloy, a = 0.4261, c = 0.9741, X-ray powder diffraction. For the experimental details, see CeNi_{2-x}Sb₂. The same authors investigated the antimony rich section of the ternary system Gd–Ni–Sb at 1070 K. Except for GdNi_{2-x}Sb₂, no other ternary compound with a high antimony content was observed. In sam-

ples quenched from 1070 K GdNi_{2-x}Sb₂ was found to be in equilibrium with GdSb, elemental antimony, NiSb and the high temperature modification of Ni₃Sb. Kaczmarska et al. (1995) confirmed the crystal structure with similar lattice parameters for GdNi₂Sb₂; CaBe₂Ge₂ type structure, a = 0.4288, c = 0.9763 from powder diffraction of arc melted alloys.

Mozharivskyj and Franzen (2000b) reported the crystal structure of the Gd₅Ni₂Sb (Mo₅B₂Si structure type, a = 0.7698, c = 1.3403) from X-ray powder diffraction of arc melted and annealed at 1070 K for 10 days alloy.

3.1.9.5. Gd-Cu-Sb. A ternary compound of gadolinium with copper and antimony of the 3:3:4 stoichiometric ratio was identified and studied by means of X-ray analysis by Skolozdra et al. (1993). $Gd_3Cu_3Sb_4$ compound was found to have the $Y_3Au_3Sb_4$ type with the lattice parameter of a = 0.9571 (X-ray powder diffraction). For experimental details, see the Y-Cu-Sb system. At variance with these data, Patil et al. (1996) reported a tetragonal distortion of the cubic crystal structure $Y_3Cu_3Sb_4$ for the $Gd_3Cu_3Sb_4$ alloy which was prepared by arc melting the constituent elements of purity better than 99.9% in an argon atmosphere and annealed at 1070 K for one week (a = 0.958, c = 0.972; X-ray powder diffraction).

GdCuSb₂ was found to form the HfCuSi₂ type structure with lattice parameters of a = 0.42783, c = 0.9946 (Sologub et al., 1994). For experimental details, see LaNiSb₂.

Kaczmarska et al. (1995) established the crystal structure for the GdCu₂Sb₂ compound; CaBe₂Ge₂ type structure, a = 0.4266, c = 0.9953 from powder diffraction of arc melted alloys.

3.1.9.6. Gd–Zn–Sb. Sologub et al. (1995b) reported on the crystallographic data for the $GdZn_{1-x}Sb_2$ compound (HfCuSi₂ type structure, a = 0.42838, c = 1.0242; X-ray powder diffraction) which was obtained from a multiphase alloy. For the sample preparation and the purity of the starting materials, see $CeZn_{1-x}Sb_2$. Wollesen et al. (1996) confirmed the crystal structure by using X-ray powder diffraction: a = 0.42748, c = 1.02614 for $GdZn_{1-x}Sb_2$. For experimental details, see $LaMn_{0.721(1)}Sb_2$. The purities of the starting elements were: Gd, greater than 99.9%, Zn, greater than 99.8%, Sb 99.9%.

The crystal structure of the Gd_6ZnSb_{15} compound was investigated by Sologub et al. (1996a) by the X-ray powder diffraction. It was found to crystallize with the La₆MnSb₁₅ structure type, a = 1.4942, b = 1.8740, c = 0.41528. For the sample preparation, see Ce₆ZnSb₁₅.

3.1.9.7. Gd–Ge–Sb. Lam et al. (2001) determined the crystal structure of the Gd₆Ge_{4.3}Sb_{11.7} compound, a = 0.41509, b = 1.04438, c = 2.6240 from X-ray single crystal diffraction data. The sample was synthesized by direct reaction of the elements at 1223 K.

3.1.9.8. Gd-Se-Sb. Aliev et al. (1977) constructed the complete c-T diagram for the Gd₂Se₃-Sb₂Se₃ section. The GdSe₃₀Sb₁₉ compound with the S₃Sb₂ type structure, a = 1.173, b = 0.412, c = 1.1846 was observed from a sample annealed at 723–773 K for 300 h. A small homogeneity field was found for $(Gd_xSb_{1-x})_2Se_3$: x = 0-0.05, a = 1.162-1.173, b = 0.396-0.412, c = 1.177-1.1846.

3.1.9.9. *Gd–Zr–Sb*. Morozkin and Sviridov (2001) investigated the crystal structure of the GdZrSb compound by X-ray powder diffraction. The CeScSi structure type was established, a = 0.4261, c = 1.6455.

3.1.9.10. *Gd–Pd–Sb*. Marazza et al. (1980) established the CaIn₂ type structure with a = 0.4566, c = 0.7452 for the GdPdSb compound by using X-ray powder diffraction and metallographic analyses. For the sample preparation and the purity of the starting components, see Y–Pd–Sb system. Malik and Adroja (1991a) confirmed the crystal structure and lattice parameters, a = 0.4565, c = 0.7443 (X-ray diffraction; arc melted alloy).

GdPdSb₂ was found to adopt a HfCuSi₂ type structure with lattice parameters of a = 0.44150, c = 0.9567 (Sologub et al., 1994). For experimental details, see LaNiSb₂.

Mozharivskyj and Franzen (2000b) established the crystal structure of Gd_5Pd_2Sb to be isotypic with Mo_5B_2Si type structure, a = 0.7812, c = 1.3645 from the X-ray powder diffraction of arc melted and annealed at 1070 K for 10 days alloy.

3.1.9.11. *Gd–Ag–Sb.* GdAgSb₂ compound was observed and studied by Sologub et al. (1995a). It was found to crystallize with HfCuSi₂ type structure with lattice parameters of a = 0.42965, c = 1.0518 by X-ray powder diffraction of arc melted and annealed at 870 K for 14 days alloy. The purity of the starting materials was 99.9 wt.%. The existence and crystal structure of GdAgSb₂ compound were independently confirmed by Brylak et al. (1995) (a = 0.42952, c = 1.0506; X-ray powder diffraction). For the sample preparation, see YAgSb₂. The purity of the starting materials was: Gd 99.9%, Ag M3N, and Sb 325 mesh, M2N5.

3.1.9.12. *Gd–Te–Sb*. The complete c-T diagram was presented for the GdTe–Sb₂Te₃ section by Rustamov and Geidarova (1984).

Charvillat et al. (1977) determined the Cu₂Sb structure type for the GdSbTe compound, a = 0.4262, c = 0.9258 from a GdSb_{0.97}Te alloy and observed the existence of a homogeneity field: GdTe_xSb, x = 0.86-0.97, a = 0.4274-0.4262, c = 0.9243-0.9258.

3.1.9.13. *Gd–Pt–Sb*. The X-ray powder analysis of the GdPtSb compound showed that it had the MgAgAs type structure with a = 0.6585 (Dwight, 1974). For the sample preparation, see ScNiSb.

Mozharivskyj and Franzen (2001) reported the crystal structure for the Gd₅Pt₂Sb compound from X-ray powder diffraction data: Mo₅B₂Si type structure, which is an ordered version of the Cr₅B₃ structure type, a = 0.7801, c = 1.3556. For the experimental procedure, see Y₅Pt₂Sb.

3.1.9.14. *Gd*–Au–Sb system. The Y₃Au₃Sb₄ type structure was reported by Dwight (1977) for the Gd₃Au₃Sb₄ alloy (a = 0.9864; X-ray powder diffraction). The conditions of synthesis were not specified.

Bi concentration, x	а
0	0.92328
0.25	0.92680
0.50	0.93072
0.75	0.93449
1.00	0.93906

Table 2 Lattice parameters of the $Gd_4(Bi_xSb_{1-x})_3$ alloys

3.1.9.15. *Gd–Bi–Sb*. Niu et al. (2001) reported on the lattice parameters for the $Gd_4(Bi_xSb_{1-x})_3$ series with x = 0, 0.25, 0.5, 0.75 and 1 (table 2).

3.1.10. Tb-M-Sb

3.1.10.1. *Tb–Li–Sb*. One ternary compound, TbLi₂Sb₂, was observed with an unknown crystal structure (Pavlyuk, 1993).

3.1.10.2. *Tb–Cr–Sb*. Ferguson et al. (1997) established the crystal structure of the TbCrSb₃ compound: CeCrSb₃ type structure, a = 1.2680, b = 0.6143, c = 0.6003 from X-ray powder diffraction.

3.1.10.3. *Tb–Ni–Sb*. Mozharivskyj and Kuz'ma (1996) investigated the crystal structure of Tb₅Ni₂Sb (Mo₅B₂Si type structure, a = 0.7641, c = 1.3266; X-ray powder diffraction). The alloy was prepared in the same manner as Y₅Ni₂Sb. The starting materials were Tb not less than 99.8 wt.%, Ni and Sb 99.9 mass%.

TbNiSb₂ was found to crystallize with the HfCuSi₂ type structure with lattice parameters of a = 0.43201, c = 0.9361 (Sologub et al., 1994). The alloy was prepared in the same manner as YCuSb₂.

An early investigation of the TbNiSb compound showed that it had the MgAgAs-type with a = 0.6327 (Dwight, 1974), from an X-ray powder analysis of an alloy arc melted under argon and annealed at 973 K. Pecharsky et al. (1983a) and Hartjes and Jeitschko (1995) confirmed the crystal structure and obtained the lattice parameters as a = 0.6302 and a = 0.6304, respectively, by X-ray powder diffraction. For experimental details, see ScNiSb and LaNiSb respectively.

Hoffman and Jeitschko (1988) established the defect CaBe₂Ge₂ type structure for TbNi_{2-x}Sb₂, a = 0.42496, c = 0.9649, X-ray powder diffraction. For the sample preparation, see CeNi_{2-x}Sb₂.

3.1.10.4. *Tb–Cu–Sb*. A ternary compound of terbium with copper and antimony of the 3:3:4 stoichiometric ratio was identified and studied by means of X-ray analysis by Skolozdra et al. (1993). Tb₃Cu₃Sb₄ was found to have the Y₃Au₃Sb₄ type structure with a lattice parameter of a = 0.9522 (X-ray powder diffraction). For experimental details, see the Y–Cu–Sb system.

TbCuSb₂ was found to adopt the HfCuSi₂ type structure with lattice parameters of a = 0.42683, c = 0.9877 (Sologub et al., 1994). The alloy was prepared in the same manner as YCuSb₂.

3.1.10.5. *Tb–Zn–Sb*. Wollesen et al. (1996) reported on the crystallographic data for the TbZn_{1-x}Sb₂ compound (HfCuSi₂ type structure, a = 0.42611, c = 1.02297; X-ray powder diffraction). For experimental details, see LaMn_{0.721(1)}Sb₂. The purities of the starting elements were: Tb, greater than 99.9%, Zn, greater than 99.8%, Sb 99.9%.

3.1.10.6. *Tb–Ge–Sb*. Lam et al. (2001) investigated the crystal structure of the Tb₆Ge_{5-x}Sb_{11+x} compound using X-ray powder diffraction: a = 0.41305, b = 1.0393, c = 2.6139.

3.1.10.7. *Tb–Zr–Sb*. Morozkin and Sviridov (2001) reported the crystal structure for the TbZrSb compound from X-ray powder diffraction data: CeScSi type structure, a = 0.4251, c = 1.6380.

3.1.10.8. *Tb–Pd–Sb*. Marazza et al. (1980) established the CaIn₂ type structure with a = 0.4550, c = 0.7384 for the TbPdSb compound by using X-ray powder diffraction and metallographic analyses. For the sample preparation and the purity of the starting components, see Y–Pd–Sb system. The crystallographic characteristics were confirmed from powder diffraction data of arc melted and annealed at 1073 K alloys: CaIn₂ type structure, a = 0.4551, c = 0.7411 (Zygmunt and Szytula, 1995).

TbPdSb₂ was found to adopt the HfCuSi₂ type structure with lattice parameters of a = 0.44097, c = 0.9480 (Sologub et al., 1994). For experimental details, see LaNiSb₂.

Mozharivskyj and Franzen (2000b) investigated the crystal structure of Tb₅Pd₂Sb, which has the Mo₅B₂Si structure type, a = 0.7730, c = 1.3508 by X-ray powder diffraction of arc melted and annealed at 1070 K for 10 days alloy.

3.1.10.9. *Tb–Ag–Sb*. TbAgSb₂ compound was observed and studied by Sologub et al. (1995a). It was found to crystallize with HfCuSi₂ type structure with lattice parameters as follows: a = 0.42774, c = 1.0477 by X-ray powder diffraction of arc an melted and annealed at 870 K for 14 days alloy. The purity of starting materials was 99.9 wt.%. The existence and crystal structure of the TbAgSb₂ compound were independently confirmed by Brylak et al. (1995) (a = 0.42833, c = 1.0476; X-ray powder diffraction). For the sample preparation, see YAgSb₂. The starting materials were: Tb 99.9%, Ag M3N, and Sb 325 mesh, M2N5.

3.1.10.10. *Tb–Te–Sb*. Rustamov and Geidarova (1984) constructed the complete c-T diagram for the TbTe–Sb₂Te₃ section.

3.1.10.11. *Tb–Pt–Sb*. An investigation of the TbPtSb compound by X-ray powder diffraction showed that it had the MgAgAs type structure with a = 0.6540 (Dwight, 1974). For the sample preparation, see ScNiSb.

Mozharivskyj and Franzen (2001) reported the crystal structure for the Tb₅Pt₂Sb compound from X-ray powder diffraction data: Mo₅B₂Si type structure, which is an ordered version of the Cr₅B₃ structure type, a = 0.7748, c = 1.3463. For the experimental procedure, see Y₅Pt₂Sb. 3.1.10.12. Tb-Au-Sb. The Tb₃Au₃Sb₄ alloy was reported by Dwight (1974) to have the Y₃Au₃Sb₄ type structure (a = 0.9834; X-ray powder diffraction). The conditions of synthesis were not specified. The same structure type was confirmed by Shaked et al. (1979) for a Tb₃Au₃Sb₄ sample obtained by arc melting the correct amounts of the elemental materials in a helium/argon atmosphere. The alloy was annealed at 960 K for one week and water quenched.

3.1.11. Dy-M-Sb systems

3.1.11.1. Dy-Cr-Sb. Ferguson et al. (1997) investigated the crystal structure of the DyCrSb₃ compound, CeCrSb₃ type structure: a = 1.229, b = 0.6135, c = 0.5978 by X-ray powder diffraction.

3.1.11.2. Dy–Ni–Sb. Mozharivskyj and Kuz'ma (1996) investigated the crystal structure of Dy_5Ni_2Sb (Mo_5B_2Si type structure, a = 0.7593, c = 1.3258; X-ray powder diffraction). The alloy was prepared in the same manner as Y_5Ni_2Sb . The starting materials were: Dy not less than 99.8 wt.%, Ni and Sb 99.9 wt.%.

DyNiSb₂ was found to adopt the HfCuSi₂ type structure with the lattice parameters of a = 0.43029, c = 0.9305 (Sologub et al., 1994). For experimental details, see LaNiSb₂.

Dwight (1974) investigated the solubility of Ni in DySb: $(DySb)_{1-x}Ni_x$, x = 0-0.26, NaCl type structure, a = 0.6155-0.6255. The same author established from X-ray powder analysis the crystal structure of DyNiSb: MgAgAs-type, a = 0.6308 (Dwight, 1974). For the sample preparation, see ScNiSb. Pecharsky et al. (1983a) and Hartjes and Jeitschko (1995) confirmed the crystal structure and obtained lattice parameters of a = 0.6279 and a = 0.6298, respectively, by X-ray powder diffraction. For experimental details, see ScNiSb and LaNiSb, respectively.

Hoffman and Jeitschko (1988) established the defect CaBe₂Ge₂ type structure for DyNi_{2-x}Sb₂ alloy, a = 0.4207, c = 0.9587, X-ray powder diffraction. For the sample preparation, see CeNi_{2-x}Sb₂.

3.1.11.3. Dy-Cu-Sb. A ternary compound of dysprosium with copper and antimony of the 3:3:4 stoichiometric ratio was identified and studied by means of X-ray analysis by Skolozdra et al. (1993). $Dy_3Cu_3Sb_4$ compound was found to have the $Y_3Au_3Sb_4$ type structure with a lattice parameter of a = 0.9503 (X-ray powder diffraction). For experimental details, see the Y-Cu-Sb system.

DyCuSb₂ was found to form the HfCuSi₂ type structure with lattice parameters of a = 0.42669, c = 0.9817 (Sologub et al., 1994). For the experimental details, see LaNiSb₂.

3.1.11.4. *Dy*–*Ge*–*Sb*. Lam et al. (2001) investigated the crystal structure of the $Dy_6Ge_{5-x}Sb_{11+x}$ compound by using an X-ray powder diffraction method: $La_6Ge_{2.8}Sb_{13.2}$ type structure, a = 0.41032, b = 1.0345, c = 2.6041.

3.1.11.5. Dy–Zr–Sb. Morozkin and Sviridov (2001) determined the crystal structure of the DyZrSb compound from X-ray powder diffraction data, CeScSi type structure, a = 0.4240,

c = 1.6349. Later Morozkin et al. (2002) from phase diagram investigation at 1070 K established that this compound has a homogeneity field: $Dy_{33-28}Zr_{33-38}Sb_{33}$.

3.1.11.6. *Dy*–*Pd*–*Sb*. Marazza et al. (1980) established the MgAgAs type structure with a = 0.6533 for the DyPdSb compound using X-ray powder diffraction and metallographic analyses. For the sample preparation and the purity of the starting components, see Y–Pd–Sb system. At variance with these data, Zygmunt and Szytula (1995) reported the CaIn₂ type structure for this compound, a = 0.4543, c = 0.7352 from powder diffraction of arc melted and annealed at 1073 K alloys. Malik and Adroja (1991c) also observed CaIn₂ type structure, a = 0.4526, c = 0.7325 for DyPdSb (powder X-ray diffraction data). Their sample also contained the MgAgAs phase. For the experimental details, see EuPdSb.

DyPd₂Sb was reported to be isotypic with the crystal structure of MnCu₂Al with a lattice parameter of a = 0.6682 (Riani et al., 1995) from powder diffraction of the induction melted alloy.

Mozharivskyj and Franzen (2000b) investigated the crystal structure of the Dy₅Pd₂Sb compound from an arc melted and annealed at 1070 K for 10 days alloy by using X-ray powder diffraction. The Mo₅B₂Si type structure was established, a = 0.7715, c = 1.3507.

3.1.11.7. Dy–Ag–Sb. DyAgSb₂ compound was observed and studied by Sologub et al. (1995a) It was found to crystallize with the HfCuSi₂ type structure with lattice parameters as follows a = 0.42733, c = 1.0453 by X-ray powder diffraction of an arc melted and annealed at 870 K for 14 days alloy. The purity of starting materials was 99.9 wt.%. The existence and crystal structure of DyAgSb₂ were independently confirmed by Brylak et al. (1995) (a = 0.42743, c = 1.0442; X-ray powder diffraction). For the sample preparation, see YAgSb₂. The starting materials were: Dy 99.9%, Ag M3N, and Sb 325 mesh, M2N5.

3.1.11.8. *Dy–Te–Sb*. The complete c-T diagrams were presented for the Sb₂Te₃–Dy₂Te₃ section by Geidarova and Rustamov (1985) and by Geydarova et al. (1985), respectively. The DyTe₃Sb compound formed by incongruent melting and has the Bi₂Te₃ structure type, a = 0.446, c = 3.020 (Geidarova and Rustamov, 1985).

3.1.11.9. Dy-Pt-Sb. An investigation of DyPtSb showed that it had the MgAgAs-type with a = 0.6531 (Dwight, 1974) from X-ray powder analysis. For the sample preparation, see ScNiSb.

Mozharivskyj and Franzen (2001) reported the crystal structure for the Dy₅Pt₂Sb compound from X-ray powder diffraction: Mo₅B₂Si type structure, which is an ordered version of the Cr₅B₃ structure type, a = 0.7686, c = 1.3420. For the experimental procedure, see Y₅Pt₂Sb.

3.1.11.10. Dy-Au-Sb. The Y₃Au₃Sb₄ type structure was reported by Dwight (1977) for the Dy₃Au₃Sb₄ alloy (a = 0.9811; X-ray powder diffraction). The conditions of synthesis were not specified.



Fig. 20. Ho–Ni–Sb, isothermal sections at 770 K (0–50 at.% Sb) and 1070 K (50–100 at.% Sb).

3.1.12. Ho-M-Sb systems

3.1.12.1. *Ho–Ni–Sb.* Information on the phase equilibria in the ternary Ho–Ni–Sb system is due to the work of Mozharivskyj et al. (1997) (fig. 20) who employed X-ray powder diffraction on samples prepared by arc melting of the pure components. The resulting alloys were annealed at 770 K (0–50 at.% Sb) and 1070 K (50–100 at.% Sb) for 300 hours. The isothermal sections are shown in fig. 20. Six ternary compounds were observed.

Mozharivskyj and Kuz'ma (1996) investigated the crystal structure for Ho₅Ni₂Sb (6) (Mo₅B₂Si type structure, a = 0.7563, c = 1.3250; X-ray powder diffraction). The alloy was prepared in the same manner as Y₅Ni₂Sb. The starting materials were: Ho not less than 99.8 wt.%, Ni and Sb 99.9 wt.%.

HoNiSb₂ (1) was found to adopt the HfCuSi₂ type structure with lattice parameters of a = 0.42989, c = 0.9257 (Sologub et al., 1994). The alloy was prepared in the same manner as YCuSb₂.

An early investigation of the HoNiSb (3) compound showed that it had the MgAgAs-type with a = 0.6290 (Dwight, 1974) from an X-ray powder analysis. For the sample preparation, see ScNiSb. Pecharsky et al. (1983a) and Hartjes and Jeitschko (1995) confirmed the crystal structure and obtained the same lattice parameter of a = 0.6262 by X-ray powder diffraction. For experimental details, see ScNiSb and LaNiSb, respectively.

Hoffman and Jeitschko (1988) established the defect CaBe₂Ge₂ type structure for the HoNi_{2-x}Sb₂ (2) alloy, a = 0.4202, c = 0.9564, X-ray powder diffraction. For the sample preparation, see CeNi_{2-x}Sb₂.

3.1.12.2. *Ho–Cu–Sb*. A ternary compound of holmium with copper and antimony of the 3:3:4 stoichiometric ratio was identified and studied by means of an X-ray analysis by Skoloz-

dra et al. (1993). Ho₃Cu₃Sb₄ compound was found to have the Y₃Au₃Sb₄ type structure with the lattice parameter of a = 0.9482 (X-ray powder diffraction). For experimental details, see the Y–Cu–Sb system.

HoCuSb₂ was found to form the HfCuSi₂ type structure with lattice parameters of a = 0.42529, c = 0.9811 (Sologub et al., 1994). For experimental details, see LaNiSb₂.

3.1.12.3. *Ho–Zr–Sb*. Morozkin and Sviridov (2001) established the CeScSi structure type, a = 0.4201, c = 1.6143, for the HoZrSb compound from X-ray powder diffraction data.

3.1.12.4. *Ho–Pd–Sb.* Mozharivskyj and Kuz'ma (1996) investigated the crystal structure for Ho₅Pd₂Sb (Mo₅B₂Si type, a = 0.76795, c = 1.3476; X-ray powder diffraction). The alloy was prepared in the same manner as Y₅Ni₂Sb. The starting materials were: Ho not less than 99.8 wt.%, Pd and Sb 99.9 wt.%.

Marazza et al. (1980) established the MgAgAs type structure with a = 0.6509 for the HoPdSb compound by using X-ray powder diffraction and metallographic analyses. For the sample preparation and the purity of the starting components, see Y–Pd–Sb system. The crystallographic characteristics were confirmed from powder diffraction of arc melted and annealed at 1073 K alloys: MgAgAs type, a = 0.6495 (Zygmunt and Szytula, 1995).

HoPd₂Sb was reported to be isotypic with the crystal structure of MnCu₂Al with a lattice parameter of a = 0.6677 (Riani et al., 1995) from powder diffraction of an induction melted alloy.

3.1.12.5. *Ho*–*Ag*–*Sb*. HoAgSb₂ was observed and studied by Sologub et al. (1995a). It was found to crystallize with HfCuSi₂ type structure with lattice parameters as follows a = 0.42665, c = 1.0427 by X-ray powder diffraction of an arc melted and annealed at 870 K for 14 days alloy. The purity of the starting materials was 99.9 wt.%. The existence and crystal structure of HoAgSb₂ compound were independently confirmed by Brylak et al. (1995) (a = 0.42662, c = 1.0422; X-ray powder diffraction). For sample preparation, see YAgSb₂. The starting materials were: Ho 99.9%, Ag M3N, and Sb 325 mesh, M2N5.

3.1.12.6. *Ho–Pt–Sb*. An X-ray powder diffraction analysis of the HoPtSb compound showed that it had the MgAgAs type structure with a = 0.6508 (Dwight, 1974). For the sample preparation, see ScNiSb.

Mozharivskyj and Franzen (2001) reported the crystal structure for the Ho₅Pt₂Sb compound from X-ray powder diffraction data: Mo₅B₂Si type structure, which is an ordered version of the Cr₅B₃ structure type, a = 0.7681, c = 1.3365. For the experimental procedure, see Y₅Pt₂Sb.

3.1.12.7. *Ho*–*Au*–*Sb*. The Ho₃Au₃Sb₄ alloy was reported by Dwight (1977) to have the $Y_3Au_3Sb_4$ type structure (a = 0.788; X-ray powder diffraction). The conditions of synthesis were not specified. These results were confirmed by Shaked et al. (1979) for a Ho₃Au₃Sb₄ sample obtained by arc melting the appropriate amounts of the elemental materials in a helium/argon atmosphere. The alloy was annealed at 960 K for one week and water quenched.

3.1.13. Er-M-Sb systems

3.1.13.1. *Er–Ni–Sb.* Mozharivskyj and Kuz'ma (1996) investigated the crystal structure of $\text{Er}_5\text{Ni}_2\text{Sb}$ (Mo₅B₂Si type structure, a = 0.7531, c = 1.3178; X-ray powder diffraction). The alloy was prepared in the same manner as Y₅Ni₂Sb. The starting materials were: Er not less than 99.8 wt.%, Ni and Sb 99.9 wt.%.

Dwight (1974) investigated the solubility of Ni in ErSb: $(\text{ErSb})_{1-x}\text{Ni}_x$, x = 0-0.27, NaCl type structure, a = 0.6105-0.6220. The same author established from an X-ray powder analysis the crystal structure of ErNiSb: MgAgAs-type, a = 0.6271 (Dwight, 1974). For the sample preparation, see ScNiSb. Pecharsky et al. (1983a) and Hartjes and Jeitschko (1995) confirmed the crystal structure and obtained lattice parameters of a = 0.6229 and a = 0.6247, respectively, by X-ray powder diffraction. For experimental details, see ScNiSb and LaNiSb respectively.

Hoffman and Jeitschko (1988) established a defect CaBe₂Ge₂ type structure for ErNi_{2-x}Sb₂, a = 0.4194, c = 0.9608, X-ray powder diffraction. For the sample preparation, see CeNi_{2-x}Sb₂.

3.1.13.2. *Er*–*Cu*–*Sb*. ErCuSb₂ was found to crystallize with the HfCuSi₂ type structure and lattice parameters of a = 0.42433, c = 0.9788 (Sologub et al., 1994). The alloy was prepared in the same manner as YCuSb₂.

A ternary compound of erbium with copper and antimony of the 3:3:4 stoichiometric ratio was identified and studied by means of an X-ray analysis by Skolozdra et al. (1993). The $Er_3Cu_3Sb_4$ compound was found to have the $Y_3Au_3Sb_4$ type structure with a lattice parameter of a = 0.9458 (X-ray powder diffraction). For experimental details, see the Y–Cu–Sb system.

3.1.13.3. *Er–Zr–Sb*. Morozkin and Sviridov (2001) investigated the crystal structure of the ErZrSb compound by using an X-ray powder diffraction method: CeScSi structure type, a = 0.4204, c = 1.6159.

3.1.13.4. *Er–Pd–Sb*. Marazza et al. (1980) established the MgAgAs type structure with a = 0.6467 for the ErPdSb compound by using X-ray powder diffraction and metallographic analyses. For the sample preparation and the purity of the starting components, see Y–Pd–Sb system.

 $ErPd_2Sb$ was reported to be isotypic with the crystal structure of MnCu₂Al with a lattice parameter a = 0.6667 (Riani et al., 1995) from X-ray powder diffraction of an induction melted alloy.

Mozharivskyj and Franzen (2000b) investigated the crystal structure of the $\text{Er}_5\text{Pd}_2\text{Sb}$ compound from arc melted and annealed at 1070 K for 10 days alloy by using X-ray powder diffraction. The Mo₅B₂Si structure type was established for this compound, a = 0.7641, c = 1.3465.

3.1.13.5. *Er*–*Ag*–*Sb*. ErAgSb₂ was observed and studied by Sologub et al. (1995a). It was found to crystallize with the HfCuSi₂ type structure with lattice parameters as follows a = 0.42541, c = 1.0413 by X-ray powder diffraction of an arc melted and annealed at 1070 K for

14 days alloy. The purity of the starting materials was 99.9 wt.%. The existence and crystal structure of the ErAgSb₂ compound were independently confirmed by Brylak et al. (1995) (a = 0.42565, c = 1.03900; X-ray powder diffraction). For sample preparation, see YAgSb₂. The starting materials were: Er 99.9%, Ag M3N, and Sb 325 mesh, M2N5.

3.1.13.6. *Er–Pt–Sb*. An investigation of ErPtSb showed that it had the MgAgAs type structure with a = 0.6498 (Dwight, 1974) from an X-ray powder analysis. For the sample preparation, see ScNiSb.

Mozharivskyj and Franzen (2001) reported the crystal structure of the Er_5Pt_2Sb compound from X-ray powder diffraction data: Mo₅B₂Si type structure, which is an ordered version of Cr₅B₃ structure type, a = 0.7666, c = 1.3391. For the experimental procedure, see Y₅Pt₂Sb.

3.1.13.7. *Er*–*Au*–*Sb*. The Y₃Au₃Sb₄ type structure was reported by Dwight (1977) for the Er₃Au₃Sb₄ alloy (a = 0.9768; X-ray powder diffraction). The conditions of synthesis were not specified. The same structure type was confirmed by Shaked et al. (1979) for an Er₃Au₃Sb₄ sample obtained by arc melting the appropriate amounts of the elemental materials in a helium/argon atmosphere. The alloy was annealed at 960 K for one week and water quenched.

3.1.14. Tm-M-Sb systems

3.1.14.1. *Tm–Ni–Sb.* An early investigation of the TmNiSb compound showed that it had the MgAgAs type structure with a = 0.6241 (Dwight, 1974) from X-ray powder analysis. For the sample preparation, see ScNiSb. Pecharsky et al. (1983a) and Hartjes and Jeitschko (1995) confirmed the crystal structure and obtained lattice parameters of a = 0.6225 and a = 0.6237, respectively, by X-ray powder diffraction. For the experimental details, see ScNiSb and LaNiSb, respectively.

Mozharivskyj and Franzen (2000b) investigated the crystal structure of the Tm₅Ni₂Sb compound of an melted and annealed at 1070 K for 10 days alloy by using X-ray powder diffraction. The Mo₅B₂Si structure type was established, a = 0.7459, c = 1.325.

3.1.14.2. *Tm*–*Cu*–*Sb*. TmCuSb₂ was found to form the HfCuSi₂ type structure with the lattice parameters of a = 0.42437, c = 0.9742 (Sologub et al., 1994). For experimental details, see LaNiSb₂.

3.1.14.3. *Tm*–*Zr*–*Sb*. Morozkin and Sviridov (2001) established the CeScSi structure type with a = 0.4174, c = 1.5997 for the TmZrSb compound from X-ray powder diffraction data.

3.1.14.4. *Tm–Pd–Sb*. TmPdSb crystallizes with the MgAgAs-type structure, a = 0.6454 (Malik and Adroja, 1991c; powder X-ray diffraction data). For the experimental details, see EuPdSb.

A Mo₅B₂Si structure type was established by Mozharivskyj and Franzen (2000b) for the Tm₅Pd₂Sb compound, a = 0.7585, c = 1.3457 (X-ray powder diffraction of an arc melted and annealed at 1070 K for 10 days alloy).

3.1.14.5. *Tm*–*Ag*–*Sb*. TmAgSb₂ was observed and studied by Sologub et al. (1995a). It was found to crystallize with the HfCuSi₂ type structure with lattice parameters as follows a = 0.42481, c = 1.0395, by X-ray powder diffraction of an arc melted and annealed at 870 K for 14 days alloy. The purity of the starting materials was 99.9 wt.%. The existence and crystal structure of TmAgSb₂ were independently confirmed by Brylak et al. (1995) (a = 0.42529, c = 1.0390; X-ray powder diffraction). For the sample preparation, see YAgSb₂. The starting materials were: Tm 99.9%, Ag M3N, and Sb 325 mesh, M2N5.

3.1.14.6. *Tm*–*Pt*–*Sb*. TmPtSb forms the MgAgAs-type with a = 0.6483, Dwight (1974) from an X-ray powder analysis. For the sample preparation, see ScNiSb.

Mozharivskyj and Franzen (2001) reported the crystal structure of the Tm₅Pt₂Sb compound from X-ray powder diffraction data: Mo₅B₂Si type structure, which is an ordered version of the Cr₅B₃ structure type, a = 0.7584, c = 1.3394. For the experimental procedure, see Y₅Pt₂Sb.

3.1.14.7. *Tm–Au–Sb.* The Y₃Au₃Sb₄ type structure was reported by Dwight (1977) for the Tm₃Au₃Sb₄ alloy (a = 0.9752; X-ray powder diffraction). The conditions of synthesis were not specified. The same structure type was confirmed by Shaked et al. (1979) for a Tm₃Au₃Sb₄ sample obtained by arc melting the stoichiometric amounts of the elemental materials in a helium/argon atmosphere. The alloy was annealed at 960 K for one week and water quenched.

3.1.15. Yb-M-Sb systems

3.1.15.1. *Yb–Li–Sb*. YbLiSb belongs to the TiNiSi structure type with the lattice parameters of a = 0.7553, b = 0.4643, c = 0.8200 (Albering et al., 1997).

3.1.15.2. *Yb*–*Al*–*Sb*. Fisher et al. (2000) reported the crystal structure of the Zintl compound Yb₁₄AlSb₁₁, to have the Ca₁₄AlSb₁₁ structure type, a = 1.6561, c = 2.2102 (X-ray single crystal diffraction).

3.1.15.3. *Yb–Mn–Sb*. Rühl and Jeitschko (1979) reported the results of an X-ray powder investigation of the YbMn₂Sb₂ compound, CaAl₂Si₂ type, a = 0.4522, c = 0.7439. For the experimental details, see EuMn₂Sb₂.

Yb₁₄MnSb₁₁ crystallizes with the Ca₁₄AlSb₁₁ structure type: a = 1.6615, c = 2.1948 after Chan et al. (1998) from X-ray single crystal diffraction. A single crystal was obtained by heating a mixture of elements to 1273–1473 K for 5–10 days and cooling the reaction to room temperature at a rate of 60 °C/h. The starting materials were: dendritic Yb metal 99.999%; Sb 99.9999%; Mn flakes 99.98%.

3.1.15.4. *Yb–Ni–Sb*. YbNiSb belongs to the MgAgAs type structure with a = 0.6238 (Dwight, 1974), from an X-ray powder analysis. For the sample preparation, ScNiSb.

3.1.15.5. *Yb–Cu–Sb*. YbCuSb₂ was found to form the HfCuSi₂ type structure with lattice parameters of a = 0.43229, c = 0.9689 (Sologub et al., 1994). For experimental details, see LaNiSb₂.

The LiGaGe type structure was established for the YbCuSb compound (a = 0.4452, c = 0.7995) by Merlo et al. (1990) by the means of powder and single crystal diffraction data of a sample obtained by melting stoichiometric amounts of the components in iron or in tantalum crucibles and arc welded shut under an argon atmosphere. After slow cooling, no further thermal treatments were applied. The purities of the metals were: Yb 99.9%, Cu and Sb 99.999%. At variance with these data, the ZrBeSi structure type was reported for the YbCuSb compound, a = 0.4456, c = 0.8006 by Flandorfer et al. (1997) from a sample prepared by high frequency melting of the components in a sealed Ta-crucible and annealed at 723 K for 168 h and finally quenched in cold water.

3.1.15.6. *Yb–Zn–Sb.* YbZn₂Sb₂ with the CaAl₂Si₂ type of structure (a = 0.4444, c = 0.7424; X-ray powder diffraction data) was observed by Klüfers et al. (1980) from an alloy melted in a corundum crucible at 1173–1373 K for 4–6 hours and annealed at 1373–1473 K for 4–48 hours. The crystal structure was refined by Salamakha and Mudryi (2001b) from an alloy obtained by a powder metallurgical reaction, a = 0.444194, c = 0.741913. The proper amounts of the respective powders were compacted and sealed in an evacuated silica capsule. After slowly heating to 870 K, the pellet was reground under C₆H₁₂, recompacted and annealed at 870 K for 400 h. The purity of starting materials was 99.9 wt.%.

According to Fisher et al. (2000), $Yb_{14}ZnSb_{11}$ compound crystallized in the Ca₁₄AlSb₁₁ structure type: a = 1.6562, c = 2.1859. The single crystal was grown from a Sn flux. Sologub et al. (2001) confirmed the crystal structure from an alloy produced by powder reaction sintering, and they obtained slightly enlarged lattice parameters, a = 1.6615, c = 2.1948 (X-ray powder diffraction).

3.1.15.7. *Yb*–*Se*–*Sb*. The YbSe₄Sb₂ compound belongs to the PbS₄Bi₂ structure type, a = 1.150, b = 0.400, c = 1.402 (Aliev et al., 1986).

3.1.15.8. *Yb–Pd–Sb*. Marazza et al. (1980) established the MgAgAs type structure with a = 0.6471 for the YbPdSb compound by using X-ray powder diffraction and metallographic analyses. For the sample preparation and the purity of starting components, see Y–Pd–Sb system.

YbPd₂Sb was reported to be isotypic with the crystal structure of MnCu₂Al with a lattice parameter a = 0.6669 (Riani et al., 1995) from powder diffraction data of an induction melted alloy.

3.1.15.9. *Yb–Cd–Sb*. Salamakha and Mudryi (2001b) observed the YbCd₂Sb₂ compound and refined its crystal structure from X-ray powder diffraction data, CeAl₂Si₂ type structure, a = 0.46494, c = 0.75673. For the synthesis, see YbZn₂Sb₂.

3.1.15.10. *Yb*–*Ag*–*Sb*. The TiNiSi type structure was established for the YbAgSb compound (a = 0.7668, b = 0.4596, c = 0.8353) by Merlo et al. (1990) by the means of powder and single crystal diffraction data on a sample obtained by melting stoichiometric amounts of the components in iron or in tantalum crucibles and arc welded shut under an argon atmosphere. After slow cooling, no further thermal treatments were applied. Purities of the metals were Yb 99.9%, Ag and Sb 99.999%. The formation and crystal structure of this compound was confirmed by Sologub et al. (1995a) from an arc melted and annealed at 870 K alloy by X-ray powder diffraction data and also by Flandorfer et al. (1997).

3.1.15.11. *Yb–In–Sb*. The ternary Yb₅In₂Sb₆ compound was obtained from a direct element combination reaction in a sealed graphite tube at 973 K, and its crystal structure was determined by X-ray single crystal diffraction methods. It crystallizes in the Ba₅In₂Sb₆ structure type with a unit cell of a = 0.73992, b = 2.3001, c = 0.45139 (Kim et al., 2000).

3.1.15.12. *Yb–Te–Sb*. Aliev et al. (1985) constructed the complete c-T diagrams for the Sb₂Te₃–Sb₃Yb₄, Sb₂Te₃–Yb, Sb₄Te₇Yb–Te and Sb₄Te₇Yb–Yb sections.

The Sb₂Te₃–TeYb section was studied by Aliev and Rustamov (1978) and Rustamov et al. (1981a). Three ternary phases were observed by X-ray powder diffraction method for samples annealed at 673–773 K: Sb₂Te₄Yb, Th₃P₄ structure type, a = 1.040; Sb₄Te₇Yb, Th₃P₄ structure type, a = 1.0625; (YbTe)_x(Te₃Sb₂)_{1-x}, x = 0-0.06, Te₃Bi₂ structure type, a = 0.425-0.425, c = 3.020-3.038.

3.1.15.13. *Yb–Pt–Sb.* An early investigation of the YbPtSb compound showed that it had the MgAgAs-type with a = 0.647 (Dwight, 1974) from X-ray powder analysis. For the sample preparation, see ScNiSb.

3.1.15.14. *Yb–Au–Sb*. The LiGaGe type was established for the YbAuSb compound (a = 0.4635, c = 0.7765) by Merlo et al. (1990) by means of powder and single crystal diffraction method on a sample obtained by melting stoichiometric amounts of the components in iron or in tantalum crucibles and arc welded shut under an argon atmosphere. After slow cooling, no further thermal treatments were applied. The purities of the metals were: Yb 99.9%, Au and Sb 99.999%. The crystal structure was confirmed by Flandorfer et al. (1997) by X-ray powder diffraction.

3.1.16. Lu-M-Sb systems

3.1.16.1. *Lu–Ni–Sb*. Mozharivskyj and Kuz'ma (1996) investigated the crystal structure of Lu₅Ni₂Sb (Mo₅B₂Si type, a = 0.7429, c = 1.3190; X-ray powder diffraction). The alloy was prepared in the same manner as Y₅Ni₂Sb. The starting materials were: Lu not less than 99.8 wt.%, Ni and Sb 99.9 wt.%.

An early investigation of the LuNiSb compound showed that it had the MgAgAs-type with a = 0.6219 (Dwight, 1974) from X-ray powder analysis. For the sample preparation, ScNiSb. Pecharsky et al. (1983a) and Hartjes and Jeitschko (1995) confirmed the crystal structure and
obtained the lattice parameters of a = 0.6187 and a = 0.6218, respectively, by X-ray powder diffraction. For experimental details, see ScNiSb and LaNiSb, respectively.

3.1.16.2. Lu-Cu-Sb. LuCuSb₂ was found to form the HfCuSi₂ type structure with lattice parameters of a = 0.42347, c = 0.9705 (Sologub et al., 1994) from an arc melted alloy. The materials used were: Lu 99.9%, Cu 99.9%, and Sb 99.9%.

3.1.16.3. *Lu–Zr–Sb*. Morozkin and Sviridov (2001) investigated the crystal structure of the LuZrSb compound by using X-ray powder diffraction. The CeScSi structure type was reported, a = 0.4178, c = 1.5952.

3.1.16.4. *Lu–Pd–Sb*. Mozharivskyj and Franzen (2000b) investigated the crystal structure of the Lu₅Pd₂Sb compound from an arc melted and annealed at 1070 K for 10 days alloy by using X-ray powder diffraction. The Mo₅B₂Si structure type was established, a = 0.75531, c = 1.3345.

3.1.16.5. Lu-Ag-Sb. The formation of LuAgSb compound with TiNiSi type was observed by Sologub et al. (1995a) from an arc melted and annealed at 870 K alloy by using X-ray powder diffraction.

3.1.16.6. Lu–Pt–Sb. The X-ray powder diffraction analysis of the LuPtSb compound showed that it had the MgAgAs type structure with a = 0.6457 (Dwight, 1974). For the sample preparation, see ScNiSb.

Mozharivskyj and Franzen (2001) reported the crystal structure for the Lu₅Pt₂Sb compound from X-ray powder diffraction data: Mo₅B₂Si type structure, which is an ordered version of the Cr₅B₃ structure type, a = 0.7519, c = 1.3326. For the experimental procedure, see Y₅Pt₂Sb.

3.1.16.7. *Lu*–*Au*–*Sb*. The Y₃Au₃Sb₄ type structure was reported by Dwight (1977) for the Lu₃Au₃Sb₄ alloy (a = 0.9723; X-ray powder diffraction). The conditions of synthesis were not specified.

3.2. R-R'-Sb systems

The ternary R-R'-Sb systems have been studied mostly with respect to the formation of compounds with specific compositions and structures (see table 3).

Ternary Nd–Pr–Sb alloys were studied by Riani et al. (1993) by using X-ray powder diffraction, and optical and electron microscopy of the samples prepared by induction melting of mixtures of the elements in small tantalum crucibles sealed by welding shut under argon. (Nd, Pr)₂Sb (La₂Sb type), (Nd, Pr)₄Sb₃ (anti-Th₃P₄ type), (Nd, Pr)Sb (NaCl type) and (Nd, Pr)Sb₂ (SmSb₂ type) show complete solubility between Nd and Pr. The variation of the lattice parameters as a function of the Nd to Pr ratio was determined. The alloy Nd_{0.475}Pr_{0.475}Sb_{0.05} was investigated by differential thermal analysis; thermal effects were

	erystanographie e	crystanographic characteristics of the compounds of the reference systems					
Compound	Structure type	Space group	Lattice parameters, nm	References			
		а					
La ₃ YSb ₃	anti-Th ₃ P ₄	$I\overline{4}3d$	0.9553	Hulliger and Ott, 1977			
Yb ₃ DySb ₃	anti-Th ₃ P ₄	$I\overline{4}3d$	0.9333	Gambino, 1967			
Eu3GdSb3	anti-Th ₃ P ₄	$I\overline{4}3d$	0.8868	Gambino, 1967			
Sm ₃ NdSb ₃	anti-Th ₃ P ₄	$I\overline{4}3d$	0.935	Gambino, 1967			
Sm ₃ GdSb ₃	anti-Th ₃ P ₄	$I\overline{4}3d$	0.930	Gambino, 1967			
Yb ₃ GdSb ₃	anti-Th ₃ P ₄	I 4 3d	0.936	Gambino, 1967			

Table 3 Crystallographic characteristics of the compounds of the R-R'-Sb systems

observed at 1090 K and 1170 K corresponding to the eutectoid ($\beta R \rightarrow R + R_2$ Sb) and eutectic ($L \rightarrow \beta R + R_2$ Sb) reactions respectively.

Abulkhaev et al. (1989) reported the formation of continuous solid solutions $Gd_x R_{5-x}Sb_3$ when R = Y, Tb, Dy, Ho with the structure of Mn₅Si₃ type which originated at the isotypic binary compounds.

3.3. R-U-Sb systems

R-U-Sb. A NaCl structure type was observed for continuous solid solution $Y_{1-x}U_x$ Sb alloys, x = 0-1, a = 0.6165-0.6208 by using X-ray powder diffraction method (Frick et al., 1984).

Schmidt and Jeitschko (1998) reported the crystallographic data for the $(R,U)_3Sb_7$, R =Gd, Tb, Dy, Ho (table 4) and (R, U)Sb₂, R = Ce–Sm, Gd–Tm (table 5).

Lattice parameters for the $(R, U)_3$ Sb ₇ ($R =$ Gd, Tb, Dy, Ho) compounds, space group <i>Immm</i>			
Compound	а	b	С
Gd _{2.31} U _{0.69} Sb ₇	0.4102	1.4643	1.8370
Gd _{1.5} U _{1.5} Sb ₇	0.4114	1.4532	1.8252
Tb _{1.5} U _{1.5} Sb ₇	0.4110	1.4517	1.8234
Dy _{1.5} U _{1.5} Sb ₇	0.4103	1.4500	1.8268
Ho _{1.47} U _{1.53} Sb ₇	0.4101	1.4477	1.8212

Table 4

Table 5

Lattice parameters for the (R, U)Sb₂ (R = Ce-Sm, Gd-Tm) compounds, space group *Pnma*

Compound	а	b	С
Ce _{0.33} U _{0.67} Sb ₂	0.7582	0.4237	1.0348
Pr _{0.33} U _{0.67} Sb ₂	0.7582	0.4231	1.0323
Nd _{0.33} U _{0.67} Sb ₂	0.7579	0.4225	1.0317
Sm _{0.33} U _{0.67} Sb ₂	0.7553	0.4203	1.0274
Gd _{0.32} U _{0.68} Sb ₂	0.7546	0.4196	1.0257
Tb _{0.33} U _{0.67} Sb ₂	0.7546	0.4186	1.0242
Dy0.33U0.67Sb2	0.7543	0.4183	1.0236
Ho _{0.33} U _{0.67} Sb ₂	0.7539	0.4179	1.0231
Er _{0.33} U _{0.67} Sb ₂	0.7533	0.4179	1.0219
Tm _{0.33} U _{0.67} Sb ₂	0.7531	0.4172	1.0209

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Composition	La	ttice parameters.	, nm
	а	b	С
CeRhSb	0.742	0.469	0.7859
$Ce_{1-x}La_x RhSb \ x = 0.1$	0.743	0.4626	0.7869
$Ce_{1-x}La_x RhSb x = 0.2$	0.7455	0.4626	0.7876
$Ce_{1-x}La_x RhSb \ x = 0.4$	0.747	0.4636	0.7888
$Ce_{1-x}La_xRhSb x = 0.6$	0.7502	0.4639	0.7892
$Ce_{1-x}La_x RhSb \ x = 0.8$	0.7521	0.4648	0.7905
LaRhSb	0.7541	0.4658	0.7924

Table 6 Lattice parameters of the $Ce_{1-x}La_xRhSb$ alloys, TiNiSi type structure

Crystallographic data for the EuCu _{1.75} As ₂ –EuCu ₂ Sb ₂ alloys				
Composition	Structure type	Lattice parameters, nn		
		а	С	
EuCu _{1.75} As ₂	ThCr ₂ Si ₂	0.4215	1.0185	
EuCu _{1.8} As _{1.5} Sb _{0.5}	ThCr ₂ Si ₂	0.4277	1.0368	
EuCu _{1.85} AsSb	ThCr ₂ Si ₂	0.4349	1.0534	
EuCu _{1.9} As _{0.85} Sb _{1.15}	ThCr ₂ Si ₂	0.4360	1.0579	
EuCu2As0.65Sb1.35	CaBe ₂ Ge ₂	0.4407	1.0619	

CaBe₂Ge₂

CaBe₂Ge₂

 $CaBe_2Ge_2$

1.0614

1.0644

1.0824

0.4410

0.4433

0.4501

Slovyanskikh et al. (1990) established the lattice parameters a = 13.67, b = 11.59, c = 7.26, and the space group $P2_12_12$ for GdU₂Sb₆.

4. Quaternary systems

Substitution of Ce by La in $Ce_{1-x}La_xRhSb$, x = 0.1-1.0, TiNiSi type structure (table 6) was investigated by Malik et al. (1995) in the course of studying of some of the physical properties of these phases.

Dunner et al. (1995) investigated the crystallographic characteristics of the alloys with modified BaAl₄ type structures within the EuCu_{1.75}As₂–EuCu₂Sb₂ region (table 7).

5. Structure types of the ternary antimonides

EuCu2As0.6Sb1.4

EuCu₂As_{0.5}Sb_{1.5}

 $EuCu_2Sb_2$

*LaFe*₄*P*₁₂ *structure type.* See fig. 21, table 8. SG $Im\overline{3}$, Z = 2, a = 0.9300 nm for NdOs₄Sb₁₂ (Evers et al., 1995).

 $Ce_2Pd_9Sb_3$ structure type. See table 9. SG Cmcm, Z = 8, a = 1.3769, b = 0.80412, c = 0.93482 (Gordon et al., 1996).



Fig. 21. Projection of the $NdOs_4Sb_{12}$ unit cell and coordination polyhedra of atoms.

		Table 8			
Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	<i>G</i> , %
Nd	2(a)	0	0	0	100
Os	8(c)	1/4	1/4	1/4	100
Sb	24(g)	0	0.34021	0.15591	100
		Table 9			
Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	G, %
Ce1	8(g)	0.34547	0.32828	1/4	100
Pd1	16(h)	0.17109	0.17061	0.08478	100
Pd2	8(f)	0	0.3323	0.5268	100
Pd3	4(c)	0	0.1457	1/4	100
Pd4	8(g)	0.09840	0.4582	1/4	100
Sb1	4(a)	0	0	0	100
Sb2	8(e)	0.32369	0	0	100
		Table 10)		
Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	G, %
Nd1	2(a)	0	0	0.1527	100
Fe1	8(g)	0	1/2	0.0517	100
Fe2	2(b)	0	0	1/2	100
Fe3	2(a)	0	0	0	100
Sb1	4(e)	0	0	0.3895	100
Sb2	4(d)	0	1/2	1/4	100

 $NdFe_3Sb_2$ structure type. See fig. 22, table 10. SG I4/mmm, Z = 4, a = 0.42879, c = 2.57048 (Leithe-Jasper, 1994).

*LaLi*₃*Sb*₂ *structure type.* See table 11. SG $P\overline{3}m1$, Z = 1, a = 0.4619, c = 0.7445 (Grund et al., 1984).



Fig. 22. Projection of the NdFe₃Sb₂ unit cell and coordination polyhedra of atoms.

		Table 11			
Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	G, %
La	1(a)	0	0	0	100
Li1	2(d)	1/3	2/3	0.658	100
Li2	1(b)	0	0	1/2	100
Sb	2(d)	1/3	2/3	0.2577	100



Fig. 23. Projection of the Ce₃Pd₆Sb₅ unit cell and coordination polyhedra of atoms.

 $Ce_3Pd_6Sb_5$ structure type. See fig. 23, table 12. SG *Pmmn*, Z = 2, a = 1.3481, b = 0.4459, c = 1.0050 nm (Gordon et al., 1995).

	Table 12					
Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	<i>G</i> , %	
Ce1	2(a)	1/4	1/4	0.75756	100	
Ce2	4(f)	0.57480	1/4	0.75467	100	
Pd1	4(f)	0.41109	1/4	0.00819	100	
Pd2	2(b)	1/4	3/4	0.01545	100	
Pd3	4(f)	0.56761	1/4	0.39730	100	
Pd4	2(b)	1/4	3/4	0.47745	100	
Sb1	4(f)	0.37627	1/4	0.47697	100	
Sb2	4(f)	0.58653	1/4	0.13700	100	
Sb3	2(a)	1/4	1/4	0.16899	100	



Fig. 24. Projection of the YbZn₂Sb₂ unit cell and coordination polyhedra of atoms.

Table	13

Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	<i>G</i> , %
Yb	1(a)	0	0	0	100
Zn	2(d)	1/3	2/3	0.3619	100
Sb	2(d)	1/3	2/3	0.7407	100

		Table 14			
Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	<i>G</i> , %
La	2(a)	0	0	0	100
X1	4(d)	0	1/2	1/4	100
X2	4(e)	0	0	0.383	100

X1 = 0.83Sb + 0.17Ni

X2 = 0.17Sb + 0.83Ni

*CaAl*₂*Si*₂ *structure type*. See fig. 24, table 13. SG $P\overline{3}m1$, Z = 1, a = 0.444194, c = 0.741913 nm for YbZn₂Sb₂ (Salamakha and Mudryi, 2001b).

BaAl₄ structure type. See table 14. SG *I*4/*mmm*, Z = 2, a = 0.4433, c = 1.0024 nm for LaNi₂Sb₂ (Pecharsky et al., 1981).



Fig. 25. Projection of the $EuNi_{1.53}Sb_2$ unit cell and coordination polyhedra of atoms.

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Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	G, %
Eu	2(a)	0	0	0	100
Ni	4(d)	0	1/2	1/4	76.6
Sb	4(e)	0	0	0.35895	99.5



Fig. 26. Projection of the LaNi $_{1.51}$ Ge₂ unit cell and coordination polyhedra of atoms.

 $CeGa_2Al_2$ structure type. See fig. 25, table 15. SG I4/mmm, Z = 2, a = 0.4340, c = 1.0597 nm for EuNi_{1.53}Sb₂ (Hoffman and Jeitschko, 1988).

 $CaBe_2Ge_2$ structure type. See fig. 26, table 16. SG P4/nmm, Z = 2, a = 0.4466, c = 0.9918 nm for LaNi_{1.51}Sb₂ (Hoffman and Jeitschko, 1988).

	Table 16							
Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	<i>G</i> ,%			
La	2(c)	1/4	1/4	0.74000	100			
Ni1	2(a)	3/4	1/4	0	89.8			
Ni2	2(c)	1/4	1/4	0.368	61.2			
Sb1	2(b)	3/4	1/4	1/2	100			
Sb2	2(c)	1/4	1/4	0.12653	100			



Fig. 27. Projection of the CeNi_{2.36}Sb_{1.64} unit cell and coordination polyhedra of atoms.

Table 17

Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	<i>G</i> , %
Ce	2(a)	0	0	0	100
X1	4(j)	1/2	0	0.256	100
X2	4(i)	0	0	0.3800	100

X = 0.59Ni + 0.41Sb

LaPt₂Ge₂ structure type. SG P21m, Z = 2, a = 0.4365, b = 0.4355, c = 0.9969 nm, $\beta = 90.20^{\circ}$ for PrNi₂Sb₂ (Slebarski et al., 1996). Atomic coordinates have not been determined.

 $CeNi_{2+x}Sb_{2-x}$ structure type. See fig. 27, table 17. SG *Immm*, Z = 2, a = 0.4285, b = 0.4312, c = 1.0205 for CeNi_{2.36}Sb_{1.64} (Pecharsky et al., 1982).

 $NdFe_2Sb_2$ structure type. See fig. 28, table 18. SG Imm2, Z = 2, a = 0.42965, b = 0.42759, c = 2.57887 (Leithe-Jasper, 1994).

 $Ce_8Pd_{24}Sb$ structure type. See table 19. SG $Pm\overline{3}m$, Z = 1, a = 0.8461 nm (Gordon and DiSalvo, 1996).



Fig. 28. Projection of the NdFe₂Sb₂ unit cell and coordination polyhedra of atoms.

Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	G, %
Nd1	2(a)	0	0	0.1526	100
Nd2	2(a)	0	0	0.8462	100
Sb1	2(a)	0	0	0.3888	100
Sb2	2(a)	0	0	0.6109	100
Sb3	2(b)	1/2	0	1/4	100
Sb4	2(b)	1/2	0	0.7499	100
Fe1	2(a)	0	0	0.5044	100
Fe2	2(a)	0	0	0.0105	100
Fe3	2(b)	1/2	0	0.0513	100
Fe4	2(b)	1/2	0	0.4490	100

Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	G, %
Ce1	8(g)	0.25140	0.25140	0.25140	100
Pd1	6(f)	0.25552	1/2	1/2	100
Pd2	6(e)	0.31118	0	0	100
Pd3	12(h)	0.26675	1/2	0	100
Sb	1(a)	0	0	1/4	100

Table 19

		Table 20				
Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	G, %	
Y	4(a)	0	0	0	100	
Sb	4(b)	1/2	1/2	1/2	100	
Pd	8(c)	1/4	1/4	1/4	100	

MnCu₂Al structure type. See table 20. SG $Fm\overline{3}m$, Z = 4, a = 0.6691 nm for YPd₂Sb (Ishikawa et al., 1982).



Fig. 29. Projection of the $CeAgSb_2$ unit cell and coordination polyhedra of atoms.

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Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	<i>G</i> , %
Ce	2(c)	1/4	1/4	0.23788	100
Ag	2(b)	3/4	1/4	1/2	99
Sb1	2(a)	3/4	1/4	0	100
Sb2	2(c)	1/4	1/4	0.67363	100

Table 22

Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	<i>G</i> , %
La	2(a)	1/4	1/4	0.74071	100
Zn	2(b)	1/4	3/4	0.00299	60
Sb1	2(b)	3/4	1/4	0.49962	100
Sb2	2(a)	1/4	1/4	0.15410	100

Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	G, %
La	2(e)	0.8440	1/4	0.2160	100
In	2(e)	0.2139	1/4	0.4846	81
Sb1	2(e)	0.6158	1/4	0.6951	100
Sb2	2(e)	0.2489	1/4	0.0016	100

*HfCuSi*₂ structure type. See fig. 29, table 21. SG P4/nmm, Z = 2, a = 0.43641, c = 1.0722 nm for CeAgSb₂ (Sologub et al., 1995a).

 $NdAgAs_2$ structure type. See table 22, SG Pmmn, Z = 2, a = 0.437935, b = 0.440222, c = 1.050438 nm for LaZnSb₂ (Salamakha and Mudryi, 2001a).

*LaInSb*₂ *structure type.* See table 23. SG *P*21/*m*, *Z* = 2, *a* = 0.4521, *b* = 0.4331, *c* = 1.1913 nm, $\beta = 99.66^{\circ}$ (Ferguson et al., 1999).

	Table 24						
Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	<i>G</i> ,%		
La	4(c)	0	0.86085	1/4	100		
Sb1	4(c)	0	0.24860	1/4	81		
Sb2	4(c)	0	0.59076	1/4	100		
Sn1	8(f)	0	0.0065	0.1238	18.6		
Sn2	4(c)	0	0.0089	1/4	18.6		
Sn3	4(a)	0	0	0	19.7		



Fig. 30. Projection of the La₆MnSb₁₅ unit cell and coordination polyhedra of atoms.

 $LaSn_xSb_2$ (x = 0.75) structure type. See table 24. SG Cmcm, Z = 4, a = 0.42435, b = 2.3121, c = 0.45053 nm (Ferguson et al., 1996).

*La*₆*MnSb*₁₅ *structure type.* See fig. 30, table 25. SG *Imm*2, Z = 2, a = 1.51538, b = 1.93646, c = 0.427422 nm for Ce₆Mn_{0.4}Sb₁₅ (Sologub et al., 1996b).

 $La_6Ge_{5-x}Sb_{11+x}$ structure type. See table 26. SG Immm, Z = 2, a = 0.43034, b = 1.0851, c = 27.073 nm (Lam et al., 2001).

Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	G, %
Cel	8(e)	0.1408	0.1322	0.0787	100
Ce2	4(d)	0	0.3232	0.0787	100
Mn	4(c)	0.2751	0	0.0787	40
Sb1	8(e)	0.2139	0.2979	0.0787	100
Sb2	8(e)	0.3595	0.1062	0.0787	100
Sb3	4(d)	0	0.1968	0.5787	100
Sb4	4(c)	0.1603	0	0.5787	100
Sb5	4(c)	0.4066	0	0.5787	100
Sb6	2(a)	0	0	0.0000	100

Table 25

	Table 26							
Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	<i>G</i> , %			
La1	4(i)	0	0	0.26676	100			
La2	8(1)	0	0.19435	0.40544	100			
Sb1	4(j)	1/2	0	0.35768	100			
Sb2	8(1)	0	0.30535	0.28862	100			
Sb3	4(g)	0	0.29207	0	100			
Sb4	4(f)	0.4300	1/2	0	50			
Sb5	4(f)	1/2	0	0.07187	100			
X1	8(1)	0	0.1205	0.14765	100			
X2	4(g)	0	0.03926	0	50			

X1 = 61% Ge + 39% Sb

X2 = 19% Ge + 31% Sb

Table 27

Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	<i>G</i> , %
Lal	6(m)	0.58274	0.16547	1/2	100
La2	6(m)	0.16800	0.33600	1/2	100
La3	1a	0	0	0	86
Gal	12(n)	0.1343	0	0.443	47
Ga2	4(h)	1/3	2/3	0.0663	47
Sb1	6(1)	0.24818	0.49636	0	100
Sb2	6(j)	0.24697	0	0	100
Sb3	6(k)	0.37508	0	1/2	100
Sb4	3(f)	1/2	0	0	100

 $La_{13}Ga_8Sb_{21}$ structure type. See table 27. SG P6/mmm, Z = 1, a = 1.7657, c = 0.43378 nm (Mills and Mar, 2000).

 $Pr_{12}Ga_4Sb_{23}$ structure type. See table 28. SG Immm, Z = 2, a = 0.42162, b = 1.94070, c = 2.63972 nm (Mills and Mar, 2000).

 $Nd_6Fe_{13}Si \ structure \ type$. See fig. 31, table 29. SG I4/mcm, Z = 4, a = 0.80978, c = 2.32317 nm for Nd₆Fe₁₃Sb (Leithe-Jasper, 1994).

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Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	G, %
Pr1	8(1)	0	0.27695	0.40559	100
Pr2	8(1)	0	0.38900	0.26312	100
Pr3	4(j)	1/2	0	0.09340	100
Pr4	4(j)	1/2	0	0.38118	100
Gal	4(i)	0	0	0.18986	96
Ga2	4(h)	0	0.181	1/2	2.7
Ga3	4(g)	0	0.43337	0	100
Sb1	8(1)	0	0.11138	0.43300	97.3
Sb2	8(1)	0	0.11584	0.14030	100
Sb3	8(1)	0	0.22151	0.28669	100
Sb4	8(1)	0	0.33456	0.14421	100
Sb5	4(i)	0	0	0.28911	100
Sb6	4(h)	0	0.38335	1/2	100
Sb7	4(g)	0	0.23336	0	100
Sb8	2(a)	0	0	0	100

Table 28



Fig. 31. Projection of the $Nd_6Fe_{13}Sb$ unit cell and coordination polyhedra of atoms.

	Table 29								
Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	G, %				
Nd1	16(l)	0.1691	0.6691	0.18595	100				
Nd2	8(f)	0	0	0.39777	100				
Fe1	16(l)	0.3824	0.8824	0.0917	100				
Fe2	16(l)	0.1767	0.6767	0.0557	100				
Fe3	16(k)	0.0652	0.2103	0	100				
Fe4	4(d)	0	1/2	0	100				
Sb	4(a)	0	0	1/4	100				



Fig. 32. Projection of the $Ce_3Au_3Sb_4$ unit cell and coordination polyhedra of atoms.

	Table 30							
Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	<i>G</i> , %			
Ce	12(a)	3/8	0	1/4	100			
Au	12(b)	7/8	0	1/4	100			
Sb	16(c)	0.0844	0.0844	0.0844	100			

		Table 31				
Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	G, %	
Sm	1(a)	0	0	0	100	
Х	2(d)	1/3	2/3	1/2	100	

X = 0.5Ni + 0.5Sb

 $Y_3Au_3Sb_4$ structure type. See fig. 32, table 30. SG $I\overline{4}3d$, Z = 4, a = 1.00443 for Ce₃Au₃Sb₄ (Sologub et al., 1998).

*AlB*₂ *structure type.* See fig. 33, table 31. SG *P*6/*mmm*, Z = 1, a = 0.4372, c = 0.3843 nm for SmNiSb (Pecharsky et al., 1983a, 1983b).

ZrBeSi structure type. See fig. 34, table 32. SG $P6_3/mmc$, a = 0.4404, c = 0.8403 nm for LaNiSb (Hartjes and Jeitschko, 1995).

*CaIn*₂ *structure type*. See table 33. SG $P6_3/mmc$, Z = 2, a = 0.4580, c = 0.7716 for NdPdSb (Marazza et al., 1980).

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Fig. 33. Projection of the SmNiSb unit cell and coordination polyhedra of atoms.



Fig. 34. Projection of the LaNiSb unit cell and coordination polyhedra of atoms.

Table 32								
Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	<i>G</i> ,%			
La	2(a)	0	0	0	100			
Ni	2(c)	1/3	2/3	1/4	100			
Sb	2(d)	1/3	2/3	3/4	100			

Table 33								
Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	G, %			
Nd	2(b)	0	0	0.25	100			
Х	4(f)	1/3	2/3	0.04	100			

 $X\,{=}\,0.5Pd\,{+}\,0.5Sb$

NdPtSb (or LiGaGe) structure type. See fig. 35, table 34. SG $P6_3mc$, Z = 2, a = 0.4534, c = 0.7866 nm (Wenski and Mewis, 1986a).



Fig. 35. Projection of the NdPtSb (or LiGaGe) unit cell and coordination polyhedra of atoms.

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Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	<i>G</i> , %
Nd	2(a)	0	0	0.000	100
Pt	2(b)	1/3	2/3	0.7137	100
Sb	2(b)	1/3	2/3	0.2635	100



Fig. 36. Projection of the YZrSb unit cell and coordination polyhedra of atoms.

*KHg*₂ *structure type.* SG *Imma* Z = 4, a = 0.4584, b = 0.7329, c = 0.7838 nm for NdRhSb (Malik and Adroja, 1991b). Atomic coordinates have not been determined.

CeScSi structure type. See fig. 36, table 35. SG *I*4/*mmm*, Z = 4, a = 0.4245, c = 1.6306 nm for YZrSb (Morozkin and Sviridov, 2001).

Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	<i>G</i> , %
Y	4(e)	0	0	0.335	100
Zr	4(c)	0	1/2	0	100
Sb	4(e)	0	0	0.143	100
		Table 36			
Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	G, %
Ce	4(c)	0.0118	1/4	0.7008	100
Rh	4(c)	0.2997	1/4	0.4172	96.6
Sb	4(c)	0.1908	1/4	0.0900	100



Fig. 37. Projection of the ScNiSb unit cell and coordination polyhedra of atoms.

Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	G, %
Sc	4(b)	1/2	1/2	1/2	100
Ni	4(c)	1/4	1/4	1/4	100
Sb	4(a)	0	0	0	100
		Table 38			
Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	G, %
Ce	4(g)	0.1406	0	0	100
Ge	2(d)	0	0	0	100
Sb1	2(b)	1/2	0	0	100
Sb2	4(h)	0.3047	0	1/2	100

TiNiSi structure type. See table 36. SG *Pnma*, Z = 4, a = 0.7581, b = 0.4642, c = 0.7893nm for CeRhSb (Salamakha et al., 2000).

MgAgAs structure type. See fig. 37, table 37. SG $F\overline{4}3m$, Z = 4, a = 0.6055 nm for ScNiSb (Pecharsky et al., 1983a, 1983b).

 Te_2Ag_3Tl structure type. See fig. 38, table 38. SG *Cmmm*, Z = 4, a = 1.8894, b = 0.4650, c = 0.4299 for Ce₂GeSb₃ (Stetskiv et al., 1998).



Fig. 38. Projection of the Ce₂GeSb₃ unit cell and coordination polyhedra of atoms.

	Table 39							
Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	G, %			
La	6(g)	0.6176	0	1/4	100			
Ti	2(b)	0	0	0	100			
Sb1	6(g)	0.2507	0	1/4	100			
Sb2	4(d)	1/3	2/3	0	100			

	Table 40							
Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	<i>G</i> , %			
La1	2(d)	1/3	2/3	0.07041	100			
La2	2(c)	0	0	0.21173	100			
Mg1	2(d)	1/3	2/3	0.4031	83			
Mg2	2(d)	1/3	2/3	0.6733	100			
Mg3	1(b)	0	0	1/2	82			
Sb1	2(d)	1/3	2/3	0.28754	100			
Sb2	2(d)	1/3	2/3	0.56417	100			
Sb3	2(d)	1/3	2/3	0.85691	100			
Sb4	1(a)	0	0	0	100			

 U_3CrSb_5 structure type (Hf₅CuSb₃-anti type). See table 39. SG P6₃/mcm, Z = 2, a = 0.95294, c = 0.62801 nm for La₃TiSb₅ (Bollore et al., 1995).

 $La_4Mg_{5-x}Sb_7$ structure type. See table 40. SG $P\overline{3}m1$, Z = 1, a = 0.46201, c = 2.6069 for $La_4Mg_{4.48}Sb_7$ structure (Ganguli et al., 1993).

 $La_{5-y}Mg_{2-x}Sb_6$ structure type. See table 41. SG $R\overline{3}m$, Z = 3, a = 0.4616, c = 6.767 for $La_{4.89}Mg_{1.539}Sb_6$ (Ganguli et al., 1993).

 $La_3Mg_{5-x}Sb_6$ structure type. See table 42. SG $R\overline{3}m$, Z = 3, a = 0.4625, c = 6.691 for $La_3Mg_{4.6}Sb_6$ (Ganguli et al., 1993).

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Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	<i>G</i> , %
La1	6(c)	0	0	0.27869	100
La2	6(c)	0	0	0.44266	94.5
La3	3(a)	0	0	0	100
Mg	6(c)	0	0	0.15230	83.0
Sb1	6(c)	0	0	0.08289	100
Sb2	6(c)	0	0	0.19509	100
Sb3	6(c)	0	0	0.36087	100

Table 41

Table 42							
Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	<i>G</i> , %		
La1	6(c)	0	0	0.38795	100		
La2	3(a)	0	0	0	100		
Mg1	6(c)	0	0	0.12927	90		
Mg2	6(c)	0	0	0.23407	100		
Mg3	3(b)	0	0	1/2	80		
Sb1	6(c)	0	0	0.08404	100		
Sb2	6(c)	0	0	0.19154	100		
Sb3	6(c)	0	0	0.30550	100		

Table 43

Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	G, %
Eu1	16(e)	1/4	0.6432	1/8	100
Eu2	32(g)	0.9565	0.6768	0.9528	100
Eu3	32(g)	0.9786	0.8741	0.1260	100
Eu4	32(g)	0.1808	0.1589	0.9679	100
Mn	8(a)	0	0	0	100
Sb1	8(b)	0	0	1/4	100
Sb2	16(f)	0.1332	0.1332	1/4	100
Sb3	32(g)	0.0034	0.8614	0.9374	100
Sb4	32(g)	0.8685	0.7244	0.0783	100

 $Ca_{14}AlSb_{11}$ structure type. See table 43. SG $I4_1/acd$, Z = 8, a = 1.7300, c = 2.2746 nm for Eu₁₄MnSb₁₁ (Rehr and Kauzlarich, 1994).

 $Ba_5Al_2Sb_6$ structure type. See table 44. SG *Pbam*, Z = 2, a = 0.73992, b = 2.3001, c = 0.45139 nm for Yb₅In₂Sb₆ (Mills and Mar, 2000).

*La*₃*InGe structure type.* SG *I*4/*mcm*, Z = 16, a = 1.2012, c = 1.5485 nm for Ce₃GeSb (Stetskiv et al., 1998). Atomic coordinates have not been determined.

 Mo_5B_2Si structure type. See table 45. SG I4/mcm, Z = 4, a = 0.7593, c = 1.3258 nm for Dy₅Ni₂Sb (Mozharivskyj and Kuz'ma, 1996).

		10010 44			
Atom	x/a	y/b		z/c	<i>G</i> , %
Yb1	0.9584	0.0895		1/2	100
Yb2	0.0269	0.2446		1/2	100
Yb3	1/2	0		1/2	100
In	0.3244	0.1202		0	100
Sb1	0.5465	0.1369		0	100
Sb2	0.05465	0.1897		0	100
Sb3	0.1989	0.9992		0	100
		Table 45			
Atom	Wyckoff notation	x/a	y/b	z/c	<i>G</i> , %
Dy1	4(c)	0	0	0	100

0.6597

0.872

0

0.1385

0

1/4

100

100

100

0.1597

0.372

0

Table 44

6. Physical properties of the ternary antimonides

6.1. RM₂Sb₂ compounds

16(i)

8(h)

4(a)

The CeNi₂Sb₂ compound was classified as Kondo system by Kaczmarska et al. (1993) from magnetic properties and resistivity measurements. The resistivity shows a maximum at 2.5 K and a minimum at 28 K (fig. 39). As reported by Skolozdra et al. (1994), it has a Curie–Weiss



Fig. 39. Resistivity vs T for LaNi₂Sb₂ and CeNi₂Sb₂.

Dy2

Ni

Sb



Fig. 40. χ in emu/g and $1/\chi$ in (emu/mole)⁻¹ vs T for PrNi_{1.8}Sb₂.

temperature θ_p of -28 K, $T_N = 2.5$ K and $\mu_{eff} = 2.60\mu_B$. The residual resistivity of LaNi₂Sb₂ is 80 $\mu\Omega$ cm after Kaczmarska et al. (1993).

Slebarski et al. (1996) measured the magnetic properties for the PrM₂Sb₂ compounds (fig. 40–42: $T_{\rm N} = 6.24$ K, $\theta_{\rm p} = -4.0$ K, $\mu_{\rm eff} = 3.60\mu_{\rm B}$, $H_{\rm cr} = 10.0$ kOe at T = 4.2 for PrNi_{1.8}Sb₂ (fig. 40); $T_{\rm N} = 6.5$ K, $\theta_{\rm p} = -3.5$ K, $\mu_{\rm eff} = 3.58\mu_{\rm B}$, $H_{\rm cr} = 10.3$ kOe at T = 4.2 for PrNi₂Sb₂ (fig. 41); $T_{\rm N} = 6.0$ K, $\theta_{\rm p} = -1.5$ K, $\mu_{\rm eff} = 3.51\mu_{\rm B}$, $H_{\rm cr} \leq 1.0$ kOe at T = 4.2 for PrCu₂Sb₂ (fig. 42). It was found from magnetic susceptibility measurements that Pr is nearly trivalent.

Guzik and Pierre (1998) presented the magnetotransport properties of LaCu₂Sb₂ (fig. 43), LaAg₂Sb₂ (fig. 43) and CeAg₂Sb₂ compounds (fig. 44). The resistivity of CeAg₂Sb₂ exhibits a very broad plateau from room temperature down to 100 K then a slight increase down to 20 K followed by a sharp drop at the Néel temperature 9 K.

Skolozdra et al. (1994) reported Kondo-like behavior for the resistivity of CeCu₂Sb₂, with a maximum at 17 K and a minimum at about 140 K of (fig. 45) and $\theta_p = -7$ K, $T_N = 3$ K and $\mu_{eff} = 2.60\mu_B$.

Gordon et al. (1995) reported the physical properties of Ce₃Pd₆Sb₅. The magnetic susceptibility exhibits significant anisotropy with an effective high temperature momentum per Ce of $2.67\mu_B$ and antiferromagnetic ordering at 6 K. The resistance shows a minimum near 17 K and an anomaly at 6 K.





Fig. 44. Resistivity of CeAg₂Sb₂.

6.2. RNiSb compounds

Hartjes and Jeitschko (1995) measured the magnetic characteristics of the RNiSb compounds (table 46). It was observed that the magnetic susceptibility of LaNiSb is nearly temperature independent. The average value of the susceptibility for the temperature range between 100



Fig. 45. Resistivity of CeCu₂Sb₂ (right hand scale) and CeCuSb₂ (left hand scale).

Compound	Structure type	μ_{exp} (μ_{B})	$\mu_{\rm eff} (R^{5+}) (\mu_{\rm B})$	θ (K)	Type of magnetism				
			(theory)						
LaNiSb	ZrBeSi	0	0	-	Pauli paramagnetic				
CeNiSb	ZrBeSi	2.59(5)	2.54	-9(1)	Curie–Weiss				
PrNiSb	ZrBeSi	3.68(4)	3.58	0(1)	Curie–Weiss				
NdNiSb	ZrBeSi	3.68(4)	3.62	16(2)	Curie–Weiss				
SmNiSb	ZrBeSi	1.58(8)	1.60	-	Van Vleck paramagnetic				
GdNiSb	MgAgAs	8.1(5)	7.94	-15(5)	Curie–Weiss				
TbNiSb	MgAgAs	10.2(4)	9.72	-13(2)	Curie–Weiss				
DyNiSb	MgAgAs	10.6(4)	10.63	-6(2)	Curie–Weiss				
HoNiSb	MgAgAs	10.7(4)	10.60	0(3)	Curie–Weiss				
ErNiSb	MgAgAs	9.5(3)	9.59	0(2)	Curie–Weiss				
TmNiSb	MgAgAs	7.6(3)	7.57	0(1)	Curie–Weiss				
LuNiSb	MgAgAs	0	0	_	Pauli paramagnetic				

Table 46 Magnetic properties of *R*NiSb compounds (Hartjes and Jeitschko, 1995)

and 300 K is $\chi = 1.8 \times (\pm 0.1) \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}^3/\text{mol}$ which is typical for the Pauli paramagnetism of metallic conductors. The lutetium compound is also assumed to be Pauli paramagnetic. The magnetic susceptibilities between 250 and 300 K are equally small as they are for LaNiSb. It



Fig. 46. Resistivity vs temperature for CeNiSb.

was also reported in the same work that for compounds with magnetic lanthanide elements, the magnetism is dominated by the magnetic moments of these elements. The samarium compound shows van Vleck paramagnetism. All other compounds exhibit Curie–Weiss behavior.

The magnetism and resistivity of CeNiSb were investigated by Skolozdra et al. (1994). The susceptibility of CeNiSb follows a Curie–Weiss law above 35 K, with an effective moment of 2.70(5) μ_B and a Curie–Weiss temperature of ~15 K. However, susceptibility deviates from this law at lowest temperatures, and diverges near $T_C = 7$ K, where spontaneous magnetization appears. The ferromagnetic moment reaches 0.48 μ_B at 1.5 K. The resistivity exhibits a maximum at about 60 K and a minimum around 200 K (fig. 46). A kink in the curve occurs at 7 K, which confirms the Curie temperature. The maximum slope of resistivity vs temperature is reached near 15 K. The magnetoresistance at low temperature is negative. The initial slope is vanishing small in the paramagnetic range, and negative in the ferromagnetic state. Based on these results, the authors announced CeNiSb to be a new ferromagnetic Kondo system. In contrast to this investigation, measurements on a sample in the later work performed by Hartjes and Jeitschko (1995) show a normal Curie–Weiss behavior, and the effective magnetic moment calculated from the linear portion of the $1/\chi$ vs T plot above 50 K of $\mu_{exp} = 2.59(5)\mu_B$

which is in good agreement with the theoretically expected effective moment for a free Ce³⁺ ion of $2.54 \mu_{\rm B}$.

Magnetic susceptibility and electrical resistivity measurements on CePdSb and GdPdSb were carried out in the temperature range of 4.2–300 K by Malik and Adroja (1991a). The measurements reveal that CePdSb orders ferromagnetically with an ordering temperature of 17 K while GdPdSb orders antiferromagnetically with a Néel temperature of 15.5 K. In the paramagnetic state, the susceptibility of CePdSb follows Curie–Weiss behavior between 50 and 300 K but deviates from it below 50 K. Its saturation magnetic moment per formula unit at 4.2 K is $1.2\mu_B$ which is reduced from the free ion value of $2.14\mu_B$ for the Ce³⁺ ion. The resistivity of CePdSb shows a broad maximum at about 150 K and a $\ln(T)$ behavior at high temperatures, indicating the combined influence of crystalline electric fields and the Kondo effect on the 4f moments. Thus the authors suggest that CePdSb is a Kondo-lattice system with ferromagnetic ordering of cerium moments.

The compound CeRhSb, which crystallizes in the orthorhombic CeCu₂-type structure, has been synthesized by Malik and Adroja (1991b). Its unit-cell volume is anomalous in relation to that of the isostructural *R*RhSb compounds. Its magnetic susceptibility is weakly temperature dependent and exhibits a broad maximum at about 113 K, characteristic of valence-fluctuating Ce compounds. The resistivity also shows a broad maximum at 113 K followed by a rapid rise below 21 K. The latter indicates gap formation in the electronic density of states. The gap energy is estimated to be about 4 K. Thus CeRhSb appears to represent a valence fluctuating cerium compound in which a pseudogap develops in the electronic density of states at low temperatures. Adroja et al. (1999) performed the neutron scattering studies on CeRhSb and Pr*M*Sb (M = Rh, Pd).

Aliev et al. (1988) reported the results of transport and magnetic measurements of *R*NiSb, R = Sc, Er, Ho, Tm, Yb. It was suggested that the gap in the electron energy spectrum in these systems is due to the specific crystal structure with a vacancy in the Ni sublattice. It was found that properties of RNiM compounds are strongly influenced by the annealing process.

Preliminary results on low temperature transport properties in YbPdSb system with MgAgAs type structure are presented by Aliev et al. (1988). Resistivity shows a maximum at T = 50-100 K and the Fermi-liquid decrease of $\rho \approx \rho_0 + AT^2$ at helium temperatures. The high value of the A coefficient 5 $\mu\Omega$ cm/K² indicates the possibility of the heavy fermion behavior with γ about 300–400 mJ/mol K². The Seebeck coefficient S is positive and shows a maximum S_{max} $\approx 22 \,\mu$ V/K at $T \approx 200$ K.

The electrical resistivity, magnetic susceptibility and magnetization for YbTSb compounds (T = Cu, Ag, Au) were measured by Katoh et al. (1997); the results are presented in table 47 and fig. 47. Also, Flandorfer et al. (1997) classified the YbCuSb and YbAgSb compounds as temperature independent Pauli-type paramagnets whereas a small magnetic moment $\approx 1\mu_B$ was observed for YbAuSb. From X-ray absorption spectroscopy at 10 and 300 K, Yb was determined to be dipositive with temperature independent valences for all compounds: 2.06 for M = Ag, 2.08 for M = Cu and 2.14 for M = Au.

Table 47

Fitting parameters of magnetic susceptibility and electrical resistivity of Yb*T*Sb: C, Curie constant; θ_P , paramagnetic Curie temperature; χ_0 , temperature independent susceptibility; χ_C , diamagnetic susceptibility; R, high temperature slope; θ_R , characteristic temperature, ϱ_0 , residual resistivity

Compound	С,	$\theta_{\rm P}$,	χο,	χс,	R,	$\theta_{\rm R}$,	<i>Q</i> 0,
	e.m.u.Kmol ⁻¹	Κ	e.m.u.mol ⁻¹	e.m.u.mol ⁻¹	$\mu\Omega$ cm K ⁻¹	Κ	μΩ cm
YbCuSb	0.0376	-35.8	1.38×10^{-4}	-4.9×10^{-5}	0.44	170	260
YbAgSb	0.00245	-4.42	-7.69×10^{-5}	-6.1×10^{-5}	0.26	150	46
YbAuSb	0.00339	-4.37	$-8.47 imes 10^{-5}$	$-7.7 imes 10^{-5}$	0.21	140	48



Fig. 47. Electrical resistivity vs for YbTSb compounds (T =Cu, Ag, Au).

6.3. RMSb₂ compounds

The magnetic data on the $RM_{1-x}Sb_2$ (R = La, Ce, Pr, Nd and Sm and M = Mn, Zn) compounds are summarized in table 48 (Sologub et al., 1995a). The magnetic behavior of the $RMnSb_2$ compounds is characterized by the onset of ferromagnetism of the Mn sublattice in the temperature range between 100 and 520 K. Ordering of the rare earth sublattice below 50 K was observed for samples containing Ce, Pr and Nd. CeZnSb₂ remains paramagnetic over the temperature range investigated (4.2–550 K). From isothermal magnetization data at 5 K (fig. 48) the magnetic structures of the $RM_{1-x}Sb_2$ phases (R = La, Ce, Pr, Nd and Sm) were thought to be rather complex (metamagnetism).

The magnetic susceptibilities of the $RMSb_2$ (M = Ni, Pd, Cu, Au) phases were generally measured over the temperature range from 4 K to 100 K (Sologub et al., 1994) (table 49, figs. 49, 50). YCuSb₂ and La MSb_2 are temperature independent paramagnets. The $RMSb_2$ compounds are found to order antiferromagnetically below T = 20 K. PrPdSb₂ and TbPdSb₂ undergo metamagnetic transitions, whereas PrCuSb₂ and ErCuSb₂ are simple fer-

	Magnetic characteristics for the $K Mn_{1-x} Sb_2$ compounds, $M = Mn, Zn$							
Compound	$T_{\rm c}$ (K)	$\sigma (\mu_a)$	$\theta_{\rm p}$ (K)	$\mu_{\rm eff/f.u}$ ($\mu_{\rm B}$)	$\mu_{\mathrm{eff}/\mathrm{Mn}}\left(\mu_{\mathrm{B}}\right)$			
LaMn _{0.87} Sb ₂	\sim 310	0.8 ^b	228	4.6	4.6			
CeMn _{0.85} Sb ₂	\sim 310	1.2 ^c	104	4.8	4.3			
PrMn _{0.82} Sb ₂ ^a	\sim 390	1.0 ^c						
NdMn _{0.83} Sb ₂	~ 250	0.6 ^c	225	5.5	4.5			
SmMn _{0.90} Sb ₂ ^a	~ 250	0.4 ^b						
$CeZn_{1-x}Sb_2$			-11	2.6				

Table 48 Iagnetic characteristics for the RMn_1 , Sb2 compounds, $M = Mn_2 Tr$

^aMultiphase samples.

 $^{\mathrm{b}}T = 5$ K, H = 2 Tesla.

 $^{c}T = 5$ K, H = 3 Tesla.





romagnets. The Sm-containing compounds are typical Van Vleck paramagnets owing to the closely spaced multiplets.

According to Skolozdra et al. (1994), the resistivity for CeCuSb₂ shows a maximum at 7 K and a minimum at 70 K, as for concentrated Kondo systems (fig. 45). The resistivity of LaCuSb₂ is that of a classical metallic system. The La_{0.4}Ce_{0.6}CuSb₂ solid solution alloy exhibits a strong increase of the resistivity at low temperature similar to that of the pure compound with a maximum at 9 K. The magnetoresistance has been measured for the CeCuSb₂ up to 5 T; a huge drop of resistivity is observed under a magnetic field. The summary of magnetic properties of CeCuSb₂, CeNiSb₂ and (Ce_{1-x}La_x)CuSb₂ obtained by Skolozdra et al.

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Compound	<i>T</i> _N (K)	$\theta_{p}(K)$	$\mu_{\rm eff}(\mu_{\rm B})$
LaNiSb ₂	TIP	ľ	
CeNiSb ₂	< 4.0	0.0	1.44
PrNiSb ₂	6.0	-4.0	4.00
NdNiSb ₂	< 4.0	-12.0	4.30
SmNiSb ₂			1.80 ^a
GdNiSb ₂	9.0	-44.0	9.60
TbNiSb ₂	12.0	-44.0	10.80
DyNiSb ₂	10.0	-27.0	12.00
HoNiSb ₂	< 4.0	-12.0	10.20
LaPdSb ₂	TIP		
CePdSb ₂	< 4.0	-65.0	3.04
PrPdSb ₂	8.0 ^b	-13.0	4.00
NdPdSb ₂	< 4.0	-30.	3.50
SmPdSb ₂			1.50 ^a
GdPdSb ₂	15.0	-41.0	7.90
TbPdSb ₂	18.0 ^b	-30.0	9.80
YCuSb ₂	TIP		
LaCuSb ₂	TIP		
CeCuSb ₂	8.0	-7.0	2.50
PrCuSb ₂	5.0 ^c	3.5	3.60
NdCuSb ₂	< 4.0	-9.0	3.70
SmCuSb ₂			1.30 ^a
GdCuSb ₂	12.0	-33.0	8.90
TbCuSb ₂	9.0	-23.0	9.40
DyCuSb ₂	6.0	-9.0	10.30
HoCuSb ₂	< 4.0	-4.0	10.40
ErCuSb ₂	$< 4.0^{d}$	-3.0	9.80
TmCuSb ₂	< 4.0	-3.0	7.30
LaAuSb ₂	TIP		
CeAuSb ₂	6.0	2.0	2.30
PrAuSb ₂	9.0	-6.0	3.90
NdAuSb ₂	< 4.0	-9.6	3.40
SmAuSb ₂			1.50 ^c

Table 49 Magnetic characteristics of the *RMSb*₂ compounds, M = Ni, Pd, Cu, Au (Sologub et al., 1994)

TIP temperature independent paramagnet.

^aEffective moment at 80 K.

^bMetamagnetism, $\mu_0 H_{\text{crit}} > 2.5$ T.

^cFerromagnetic, magnetic moment ($\mu_0 H = 3 \text{ T at } 5 \text{ K}$) = 1.7 μ_B .

^dFerromagnetic, magnetic moment ($\mu_0 H = 3 \text{ T at } 5 \text{ K}$) = 5.6 μ_B .

(1994) are presented in table 50, and the reciprocal magnetic susceptibility of the first and last compounds is shown in fig. 51.

Vijaya Lakshmi et al. (1996) performed magnetic and electrical resistivity measurements on LaMSb₂ and CeMSb₂, M = Ni, Cu (see fig. 52). CeNiSb₂ orders ferromagnetically at 6 K while CeCuSb₂ orders antiferromagnetically at 5 K. The electrical resistivity of the two La compounds, LaCuSb₂ and LaNiSb₂ show normal metallic behavior down to 5.4 K with no



Fig. 49. Molar susceptibility vs T for the $RMSb_2$, M = Ni, Pd, Cu after Sologub et al. (1994).



Fig. 50. Molar susceptibility vs *T* for the $RAuSb_2$, R = Ce, Pr after Sologub et al. (1994).

Magnetic characteristics of the $RMSb_2$ compounds, $M = Ni$, Cu (Skolozdra et al., 1994)					
Compound	$\mu_{\rm eff} \left(\mu_{\rm B} \right)$	θ_{p} (K)	$T_{\rm c}, T_{\rm N}$ (K)		
CeCuSb ₂	2.57	-11	7		
CeNiSb ₂	2.45	+6	7		
Ce _{0.8} La _{0.2} CuSb ₂	2.59	-12	4		
Ce _{0.6} La _{0.4} CuSb ₂	2.59	-11	< 2		

Table 50 Magnetic characteristics of the *RMS*be compounds M = Ni Cu (Skolozdra et al. 1004)



Fig. 51. $1/\chi$ vs T for CeCuSb₂ and (Ce_{1-x}La_x)CuSb₂ after Skolozdra et al. (1994).

superconducting transitions. The resistivity of CeCuSb₂ and CeNiSb₂ show broad minimum typical for Kondo lattice systems. There is a low temperature drop in resistivity in both the compounds due to magnetic ordering. In CeNiSb₂ a second minimum (at 10 K) followed by a maximum at 6 K is also observed. All compounds except CeNiSb₂ exhibit positive magnetore-sistance in the temperature range 1.5–4.5 K in fields up to 45 kOe. The CeNiSb₂ compound shows negative magnetoresistance.

Accordingly to Sologub et al. (1995a), magnetism of the RAgSb₂ phases over the 2.5 to 300 K temperature range is characterized by tripositive paramagnetic behavior of the lanthanide atoms (table 51, fig. 53). $RAgSb_2$ with R = Y, La are weakly temperature dependent paramagnets. In contrast, $RAgSb_2$ compounds with R = Pr, Nd, Sm, Gd, Dy, Ho, Er, Tm are weak antiferromagnets with ordering temperatures lower than $T_N \sim 13$ K, and CeAgSb₂ is a noncolinear antiferromagnet ($T_M \sim 12$ K) with a remanent magnetization $\mu = 0.15\mu_B$ per Ce atom.

André et al. (2000) reported results of neutron diffraction measurements performed on $RAgSb_2$ (R = Ce, Pr, Nd, Tb, Dy, Ho, Er, Tm). All compounds were found to be collinear antiferromagnets with the Néel temperature between 2.0 K (for TmAgSb₂) and 11.1 K (for



Fig. 52. Resistivity vs T for LaCuSb₂, CeCuSb₂, LaNiSb₂ and CeNiSb₂ after Vijaya Lakshmi et al. (1996).

TbAgSb₂), except for CeAgSb₂ which is a ferromagnet with a Ce magnetic moment equal to $0.33\mu_B$ and parallel to the *c*-axis.

Thermal expansion, magnetostriction and magnetic susceptibility under pressure have been measured on a polycrystalline CeAgSb₂ sample by Thornton et al. (1999). It was observed that in zero magnetic field the magnetic contribution to the linear thermal expansion coefficient



Fig. 53. $1/\chi$ vs T for RAgSb₂, R = Ce, Pr, Nd, Sm, Gd, Tb, Dy, Ho, Er, Tm.





Fig. 53. Continued

has a broad maximum near 17 K with the value of 7.9×10^{-6} K⁻¹ but there is no peak at the $T_{\rm N} = 9.5$ K. $T_{\rm N}$ was found to decrease under pressure at the rate -10.1 Mbar⁻¹.

Flandorfer et al. (1996) reported on the magnetic properties of CeFe_{0.6}Sb₂: $T_{\rm M} = 9.5$ K, $\theta_{\rm p} = -23$ K, $\mu_{\rm eff/f.u.} = 2.6\mu_{\rm B}$. Magnetic characteristics for the Ce M_{1-x} Sb₂ compounds, M = Mn, Ni, Pd, Cu, Ag, Au, Zn were also measured (fig. 54). The L_{III} absorption edge measurements were performed on the CeMSb₂ compounds, M = Fe, Co, Ni, Pd, Cu, Ag and Au at 10 K and 300 K. The L_{III} absorption edge spectra are similar at both temperatures and show that Ce in all compounds is in the trivalent, or nearly trivalent state.

6.4. $R_3M_3Sb_4$ compounds

Shaked et al. (1979) reported on the results of magnetic susceptibilities measurements on the $R_3Au_3Sb_4$ compounds (R = Tb, Ho, Er and Tm) between 4 and 300 K (table 52, fig. 55). The compounds were found to be paramagnetic down to 4 K.

Electrical resistivity, Hall constant, magnetic susceptibility and specific heat measurements were performed on the $R_3Au_3Sb_4$ (R = La, Ce, Pr) and the $R_3Pt_3Sb_4$ (R = Ce, Pr) com-

Compound	<i>T</i> _N (K)	$\theta_{p}(K)$	$\mu_{\rm eff} (\mu_{\rm B})$	
YAgSb ₂	$\chi_0 = 0.7 \times 10^{-6} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$			
LaAgSb ₂	$\chi_0 = 0.6 \times 10^{-6} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$			
CeAgSb ₂	12.0 ^a	-6	2.57	
PrAgSb ₂	4.3	-2	3.61	
NdAgSb ₂	4.4	-9	3.91	
SmAgSb ₂	10.0	-41	0.8 ^b	
GdAgSb ₂	14.0	-35	7.8	
TbAgSb ₂	13.0	-14	9.6	
DyAgSb ₂	12.0	-12	10.5	
HoAgSb ₂	6.0	-6	10.3 ^c	
ErAgSb ₂	4.8	-6	9.4	
TmAgSb ₂	3.1	-8	7.5	

Table 51 Magnetic data of ternary RAgSb₂ compounds

Note. Error limits on $T_{\rm N}$, $\theta_{\rm p}$ and $\mu_{\rm eff}$ are ± 0.5 K, ± 1 K and $\pm 0.05 \mu_{\rm B}$, respectively.

^aNoncolinear antiferromagnet, remanent magnetization $\mu = 0.15 \mu_B/Ce$. ^b $\chi_0 = 1.8 \times 10^{-6} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ g}^{-1}$.

^cCorrected for \sim 15 mole% of excess free (Sb) in the alloy.



Fig. 54. Reciprocal susceptibility for the $\operatorname{Ce} M_{1-x}\operatorname{Sb}_2$, $M = \operatorname{Mn}$, Fe, Ni, Pd, Cu, Ag, Au, Zn.


Fig. 55. $1/\chi$ vs *T* for $R_3Au_3Sb_4$, R = Tb, Ho, Er, Tm after Shaked et al. (1979).

Table 52The experimental effective magnetic moment of the $R_3Au_3Sb_4$ compounds (R = Tb, Ho,Er and Tm) at 300 K after Shaked et al. (1979)

	Tb ³⁺	Ho ³⁺	Er ³⁺	Tm ³⁺
$\mu_{\rm eff.}$ ($\mu_{\rm B}$)	8.94	9.30	9.42	6.91

pounds by Kasaya et al. (1991). La₃Au₃Sb₄ and Ce₃Au₃Sb₄ show semi-metallic or semiconducting behaviors whereas $Pr_3Pt_3Sb_4$ shows a metallic one. The valence of the Ce ions in Ce₃Au₃Sb₄ is 3+. The results indicate that $R_3Au_3Sb_4$ and $R_3Pt_3Sb_4$ are narrow-gap semiconductors and metals respectively. Ce₃Pt₃Sb₄ shows semiconducting behavior and that the Ce ions are in a mixed valence state. Magnetic susceptibility and inverse magnetic susceptibility vs *T* curves for Ce₃Au₃Sb₄ and Ce₃Pt₃Sb₄ are presented in fig. 56.



Fig. 56. χ and $1/\chi$ vs *T* for Ce₃Au₃Sb₄ and Ce₃Pt₃Sb₄ after Kasaya et al. (1991).

 $R_3Au_3Sb_4$ (R = Sm, Gd) showed semi-metallic behaviors (Katoh and Kasaya, 1993). They are antiferromagnets with T_N of 2 and 11 K, respectively. The same authors observed no magnetic transitions down to 1.5 K in Ce₃Au₃Sb₄ and found $C/T = 2500 \text{ mJ/mol K}^2$ at 1.5 K which makes this compound a heavy Fermion material. The $\rho(T)$ curves for $R_3Au_3Sb_4$ (R = La, Ce, Pr, Sm, Gd) given by Katoh and Kasaya (1993) are presented in figs. 57 and 58.

Kimura et al. (1995) reported on an investigation of the electronic structure of $R_3Au_3Sb_4$ (R = La, Ce, Pr) by reflectivity and resonant photoemission spectra. The hybridization between the Ce4f state and the Sb5p state valence band was found to be weak as deduced from the resonant photoemission spectra of Ce₃Au₃Sb₄. This result was found to be consistent with the electronic structure derived from an analysis of the optical data about the energy gap.



Resistivity, magnetic susceptibility, specific heat and inelastic neutron scattering were measured for Ce₃Au₃Sb₄ by Kasaya et al. (1994). The compound was found to be a semiconductor with a resistivity of 22 Ω cm at 0.13 K. Magnetic susceptibility and inelastic neutron scattering show that 4f electrons are in the localized 4f¹ state. No anomaly in the thermomagnetic curve down to 0.5 K has been observed. However, there exist a broad peak at 1.5 K in the specific heat at $C/T \sim 2500$ mJ/mole K² and the peak, which is symmetrical in a log T plot, shifts towards higher temperature values under the influence of a magnetic field.



Fig. 59. Temperature dependence of the electrical resistivity for $Ce_3Au_3Sb_4$ and $Ce_3Pt_3Sb_4$ after Katoh and Kasaya (1996).

Fig. 60. Temperature dependence of the electrical resistivity for $Ce_3Au_{3-x}Pt_xSb_4$ (x = 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 2.25).

Kasaya et al. (1994) and Katoh and Kasaya (1996) measured the electrical resistivity, Hall constant and magnetic susceptibility for the Ce₃Au_{3-x}Pt_xSb₄ (x = 0.0, 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 2.25, 3.0) (figs. 59, 60, table 53).

Resistivity and magnetic susceptibility were studied for the $R_3Cu_3Sb_4$ compounds (R = Y, La, Ce, Pr, Nd, Sm, Gd, Tb, Dy, Ho, Er) by Skolozdra et al. (1993) (table 54). Resistivity measurements indicates that all compounds are semiconductors. A linear $\rho(T)$ dependence was observed for Y₃Cu₃Sb₄, Nd₃Cu₃Sb₄ and Gd₃Cu₃Sb₄ while for Ce₃Cu₃Sb₄ a minima was observed at ~250 K. The temperature dependence of the magnetic susceptibility $\chi(T)$ for $R_3Cu_3Sb_4$, R = Ce, Pr, Nd, Gd, Tb, Dy, Er can be described by the Curie–Weiss law with

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Compound	Temperature range	C, emu/mole K	$\theta_{p}(K)$	$\mu_{\rm eff} \left(\mu_{\rm B} \right)$
Ce ₃ Au ₃ Sb ₄	$150 \sim 300$	0.79	-2.86	2.51
Ce3Au2.5Pt0.5Sb4	$150 \sim 300$	0.807	-11.0	2.54
Ce ₃ Au ₂ PtSb ₄	$80 \sim 300$	0.822	-45.6	2.56
Ce ₃ Au _{1.5} Pt _{1.5} Sb ₄	$170 \sim 300$	0.837	-100	2.59
Ce ₃ Au _{0.75} Pt _{2.25} Sb ₄	$480 \sim 720$	0.868	-236	2.63
Ce ₃ Pt ₃ Sb ₄	$450 \sim 700$	1.083	-647	2.94

Table 53 Magnetic data for Ce₃Au_{3-x}Pt_xSb₄ compounds (x = 0.0, 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 2.25, 3.0)

Table 54Magnetic data for the $R_3Cu_3Sb_4$ (Skolozdra et al., 1993)

Compound	$\theta_{p}(K)$	$\mu_{\rm eff}$ ($\mu_{\rm B}$ /atom R)
Ce ₃ Cu ₃ Sb ₄	10	2.59
Pr ₃ Cu ₃ Sb ₄	11	3.31
Nd ₃ Cu ₃ Sb ₄	11	3.61
Gd ₃ Cu ₃ Sb ₄	59	7.72
Tb ₃ Cu ₃ Sb ₄	-10	9.96
Dy ₃ Cu ₃ Sb ₄	-7	11.02
Ho3Cu3Sb4	3	11.11
Er ₃ Cu ₃ Sb ₄	24	9.50

the values of the effective magnetic moments close to that of the free R^{3+} ions. La₃Cu₃Sb₄ and Y₃Cu₃Sb₄ are diamagnets. For Sm₃Cu₃Sb₄, the $\chi(T)$ curve does not obey the Curie–Weiss law.

Ce₃Cu₃Sb₄ was found to be a semiconducting ferromagnet with ferromagnetic transition temperature, $T_{\rm m} = 10$ T while Gd₃Cu₃Sb₄ was reported to be a metallic antiferromagnet with $T_{\rm N} = 12$ K (Patil et al., 1996).

Patil et al. (1998) reported on measurements of magnetic susceptibility, electrical resistivity and magnetoresistivity for the $Ce_3Rh_3Sb_4$ in the temperature range 2 K to 300 K. The compound was found to order antiferromagnetically at 22 K. The magnetic resistivity shows a broad maximum at about 50 K.

6.5. R_6MSb_{15} compounds

Magnetic measurements were performed down to liquid helium temperature by Sologub et al. (1996a) for R = Ce, Pr, Sm, Gd and M = Mn, Zn (table 55, fig. 61). $\text{Ce}_6\text{MnSb}_{15}$ and $\text{Gd}_6\text{ZnSb}_{15}$ undergo an antiferromagnetic transition at 7 and 15 K respectively. $\text{Ce}_6\text{ZnSb}_{15}$ and $\text{Pr}_6\text{ZnSb}_{15}$ remain paramagnetic in the temperature range investigated, whereas $\text{Sm}_6\text{ZnSb}_{15}$ is a van Vleck-type paramagnet.

Magnetic and transport properties have been measured by Deakin et al. (2001) for the series of ternary rare-earth antimonides $R_6Ge_{5-x}Sb_{11+x}$ (R = La-Nd, Sm, Gd–Dy) (table 56). All are metallic, with the members containing R, other than La, displaying kinks in their resistivity vs temperature curves. Tb and Dy containing compounds exhibit Kondo-like behavior with resistivity minima occurring at 10 and 150 K, respectively. The $R_6Ge_{5-x}Sb_{11+x}$ (R = Ce-

Table 55 Magnetic data of the ternary R_6MSb_{15} compounds

Compound	<i>T</i> _N (K)	$\theta_{p}(K)$	$\mu_{\rm eff.meas.}$ ($\mu_{\rm B}$)	$\mu_{\rm eff.theor.}$ ($\mu_{\rm B}$)
Ce ₆ MnSb ₁₅	7	-6	8.9	2.54
Ce ₆ ZnSb ₁₅		-10	2.7	2.54
Pr ₆ ZnSb ₁₅		-13	3.6	3.6
Sm ₆ ZnSb ₁₅		9	0.5	
Gd ₆ ZnSb ₁₅	15	-34	7.7	7.9



Fig. 61. Reciprocal magnetic susceptibility vs temperature for Ce_6MSb_{15} , M = Mn, Zn. Inset: Molar susceptibility vs temperature for Ce_6MnSb_{15} .

Nd, Sm, Gd) members exhibit residual resistivity ratios ($\rho_{300 \text{ K}}/\rho_{2 \text{ K}}$) close to 2.0, consistent with the partial disorder of Ge and Sb found in the crystal structure of these phases. For the compounds with R = Ce, Pr, Nd, Sm, Gd, Tb, the magnetic susceptibility and electrical resistivity measurements reveal long-range antiferromagnetic ordering with $T_{\text{N}} \leq 22$ K. At 2 K, the Ce, Pr, and Nd members undergo metamagnetic transitions at critical fields between 1.0 and 4.0 T, while the Gd containing compound shows spin-flop behavior with $H_{\text{SF}} = 1.85$ T and $H_{\text{C}} = 5.75$ T.

6.6. $R_{14}MSb_{11}$ compounds

 $Eu_{14}MnSb_{11}$ was reported to be an intermetallic colossal magnetoresistive material having a metal insulator transition associated with a ferromagnetic phase transition at 92 K (Chan et al., 1997).

Temperature dependent dc susceptibility measurements were performed on the $Yb_{14}ZnSb_{11}$ compound in an applied field of 1 kOe in the [100], [110] and [001] directions (Fisher et al., 2000). For temperatures above approximately 150 K, the susceptibility follows a Curie–Weiss

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Compound	<i>Q</i> 300 к/ <i>Q</i> 2 к	$\mu_{\rm eff}$ (300 K)	$\mu_{ m RS}$	θ	$T_{\rm N}$ (K)	$H_{\rm SF}(2~{\rm K})$	$H_{\rm C}(2~{\rm K})$
		$(\mu_{\rm B}/R^{3+})$	$(\mu_{\rm B}/R^{3+})$	(K)		(T)	(T)
$La_6Ge_{5-x}Sb_{11+x}$	2.18						
$Ce_6Ge_{5-x}Sb_{11+x}$	2.23	2.58	2.54	-27	4.0		1.0
$Pr_6Ge_{5-x}Sb_{11+x}$	2.03	3.54	3.58	-8	2.7		1.5
$Nd_6Ge_{5-x}Sb_{11+x}$	1.70	3.94	3.62	-53	4.2		4.0
$Sm_6Ge_{5-x}Sb_{11+x}$	2.05	1.2	0.85		8.3		
$Gd_6Ge_{5-x}Sb_{11+x}$	1.77	7.08	7.94	-47	12.5	1.85	5.75
$Tb_6Ge_{5-x}Sb_{11+x}$	1.46	8.53	9.72	-10	22		> 7
$Dy_6Ge_{5-x}Sb_{11+x}$	0.92						

Table 56 Summary of the resistivity and magnetism data for the $R_6Ge_{5-x}Sb_{11+x}$ compounds

temperature dependence with Curie constants (4.63, 4.13 and 5.68) $\pm 0.04 \times 10^{-4}$ emu K/g and Weiss constants (-223, -294 and -474) ± 10 K for the field parallel to [100], [110] and [001] directions, respectively. An intermediate Yb valence behavior with a spin fluctuating temperature of approximately 85 K was determined from thermodynamic, magnetic and transport measurement data. The resistivity of Yb₁₄AlSb₁₁ is typical of many Zintl compounds and indicates that this material is a small gap semiconductor or a semimetal in contrast to the more metallic behavior of Yb₁₄ZnSb₁₁ and Yb₁₄MnSb₁₁ (Fisher et al., 2000).

7. Peculiarities of the interaction of the rare earths and antimony

7.1. Binary systems

Similar to other binary *R*-p-element systems, the formation of binary rare earth – antimonides with a simple stoichiometry is a characteristic feature of these systems. The largest number of structure types formed was encountered for the group of RSb_2 compounds (4 members). The polymorphic modifications were observed for GdSb₂ and TbSb₂ as well as the RSb (R = La, Ce) and R_5Sb_3 (R = Yb, Y and Sc) compounds were noted to undergo the solid state transformations.

Although the phase diagrams have been constructed for all R-Sb systems except Eu and Sc, there are many reports on the crystal structure of compounds which are not shown in the corresponding phase diagram. The systematic thermochemical investigations of the rare earth antimonides (R = Y, La, Ce, Pr, Nd, Sm and Dy) and optimization of the thermodynamic data have been carried out by Cacciamani et al. (1996) and Ferro et al. (1988) respectively. Later on, the same group of authors (Borzone et al., 2000) suggested that the poor reliability of results for most of the R-Sb phase diagrams are attributable to experimental difficulties arising from the high melting temperatures of the compounds, the high reactivity of samples, and the high volatility of the antimony.

For Gd–Sb phase diagram, as an example, the GdSb₂ (66.6 at% Sb) was reported to be the richest in Sb compound with two structural modifications, $SmSb_2$ and $HoSb_2$ (Abdusalamova et al., 1986). In more recent work, Altmeyer and Jeitschko (1998) established the existence the Gd₂Sb₅ compound (71.42 at% Sb) with the monoclinic structure of the Dy₂Sb₅ type.

Composition	Structure	La	Ce	Dr	Nd	Sm	En	Gd	Th	Dv	Но	Fr	Tm	Vh	Lu	v	Se
Composition	type	La	Ce	11	INU	SIII	Ľu	Gu	10	Dy	110	ы	1111	10	Lu	1	30
	type																
R_2 Sb	La ₂ Sb	+	+	+	+	+		-	-	-	-	-	_	-	-	-	-
	Cu ₂ Sb	_	-	_	-	-		-	-	-	-	-	_	-	-	_	+
R_5Sb_3	Mn ₅ Sb ₃	+	+	+	+	+		+	+	+	+	_	+	+	+	+	_
	Yb ₅ Sb ₃	_	_	_	_	_		_	_	_	_	+		+		+	+
R_4Sb_3	anti-Th ₃ P ₄	+	+	+	+	+		+	+	+	+	+	_	+	_	+	
$R_{11}Sb_{10}$	Ho ₁₁ Ge ₁₀	_	_	_	_	_	+	_	_	_	_	_	_	+	_	_	
RSb	NaCl	+	+	+	+	+		+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
	HgMn	+	+														
R_2Sb_5	Dy ₂ Sb ₅					+		+	+	+							
RSb ₂	SmSb ₂	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	-	_	_	-	-	-	_	
K302	HoSb ₂	_	_	_	_	_	_	+	+	+	+	+	+	_	+	+	
	CaSb ₂	-	-	-	_	-	+	-	-	-	_	_	-	-	-	_	
	ZrSi ₂	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	_	-	-	_	-	+	-	-	

Table 57 Isotypic compounds of the binary R–Sb systems^a

Borzone et al. (2000) studying the phase diagram of Gd–Sb system, observed and determined the crystal structure of Gd₁₆Sb₃₉ (70.91 at% Sb).

The structures of Eu containing binary antimonides are isotypic with binary antimonides of alkaline earth metals (Ca, Ba, Sr) and do not have the analogues, except for Eu_5Sb_3 , in other *R*–Sb systems (table 57).

7.2. Ternary systems

As is evident from the foregoing paragraphs, the interaction of the components in the ternary R-M-Sb systems have not been adequately studied. The isothermal sections (over all concentration region or partially) have been constructed for the limited number of ternary systems (22), and in other systems only the samples of specific compositions were synthesized and investigated structurally with respect to the formation of isotypic compounds. This paucity of data complicates the pursuance of a proper analysis and the derivation of regularities.

7.2.1. R-s-element-Sb

Few experimental data are available only for lithium and magnesium containing systems however the isothermal section is constructed for Gd–Li–Sb (5 ternary compounds have been observed). The replacement of R element in the RLi_2Sb_2 compounds leads to the formation of different structure type: CaAl₂Si₂ (R = Ce) \rightarrow CaBe₂Ge₂ (R = Pr, Nd) \rightarrow unknown structure (R = Tb). No comparative analysis can be made for the magnesium containing systems since only the information regarding the existence of three compounds in the La–Mg–Sb system is presented in the literature.

7.2.2. *R*-*p*-*element*-*Sb*

The isothermal sections have been constructed for the La-Al-Sb and Ce-Si(Ge)-Sb systems.

Ternary compounds have been observed for the *R*–Si, Ge, Sn, Ga, In, Se, Te–Sb systems. The systems with arsenic and bismuth are characterized by formation of substitutional solid solutions between isotypic binary pnictides. No compounds have been found in the partly investigated ternary La–Al–Sb system at 773 K (Muravjova, 1971). For the Yb–Al–Sb, the formation and crystal structure of the Yb₁₄AlSb₁₁ have been reported (Fisher et al., 2000).

7.2.3. R-d-element-Sb

In spite of the fact that the isothermal sections have been investigated for the 18 ternary systems from 448 possible R-d-element–Sb combinations, a considerable number of publications is devoted to the crystal structure investigations of ternary compounds that enables one to consider more thoroughly the effect of R-element and d-element interaction as well as the formation, composition and crystal structure of ternary antimonides.

7.2.3.1. R-Ti(V, Cr, Zr, Nb, Mo, Hf, Ta, W, Re)-Sb. For this combination of elements, the R-Mo (Ta, W, Re)-Sb systems have not been studied, and as well no information is available on the interaction of Eu and Yb with these d-elements. The R_3MSb_5 series of compounds was observed only for the light lanthanides and the RZrSb structure is typical for the yttric subgroup.

The CeVSb₃ type occurs in the *R*–V–Sb systems for the ceric subgroup and in the *R*–Cr–Sb systems for both subgroups (R = La-Sm, Gd-Dy) (table 58).

7.2.3.2. R-Mn(Cd, Zn)-Sb. Analysis of the compositions and crystal structures of the investigated R-3d-element-Sb systems established a vague similarity between R-Mn-Sb and the cadmium and zinc containing systems (table 59):

(i) the HfCuSi₂ and La₆MnSb₁₅ structures are typical for the ceric subgroup and Gd;

(ii) Eu and Yb form the CaAl₂Si₂ and Ca₁₄AlSb₁₁ types;

(iii) no compounds have been found in the Tb-Tm, Lu and Y, Sc containing systems.

7.2.3.3. R-Fe(Co, Ru, Rh, Os, Ir)–Sb. Among the ternary R–Fe(Co, Ru, Rh, Os, Ir)–Sb systems, the Nd–Fe–Sb system is the most completely studied (Sologub and Salamakha, 1999;

				r				(-	,, -	,	,, ,	j -					
Structure type		La	Ce	Pr	Nd	Sm	Eu	Gd	Tb	Dy	Но	Er	Tm	Yb	Lu	Y	Sc
U ₃ CrSb ₅	Ti	+	+	+	+	+											
	Zr	+	+	+	+	+											
	Nb	+	+	+	+	_											
	Hf	+	+	+	+	+											
CeVSb ₃	V	+	+	+	+	+											
201003	Cr	+	+	+	+	+		+	+	+							
CeScSi	Zr							+	+	+	+	+	+		+	+	

Table 58Isotypic compounds of the ternary R-Ti(V, Cr, Zr, Nb, Hf)-Sb systems^a

^aSign + means that the compound with corresponding structure type exists; - the compound was not observed.

	sotype compounds of the ternary K-Min(2h, Cu)-50 systems																
Structure type		La	Ce	Pr	Nd	Sm	Eu	Gd	Tb	Dy	Ho	Er	Tm	Yb	Lu	Y	Sc
HfCuSi ₂	Mn	+	+	+	+	+											
	Zn	+	+	+	+	+		+									
	Cd	+	+	+	+	+											
CaAl ₂ Si ₂	Mn		_		_		+							+			
24412512	Zn				_		+							+			
	Cd				_		+							+			
Ca ₁₄ AlSb ₁₁	Mn		_		_		+							+			
	Zn				_		+							+			
La6MnSb15	Mn	+	+		_												
24611115015	Zn	+	+	+	+	+		+									
NdAgSb ₂	Zn	+	+														

Table 59 Isotypic compounds of the ternary *R*-Mn(Zn, Cd)-Sb systems^a

Structure type		La	Ce	Pr	Nd	Sm	Eu	Gd	Tb	Dy	Ho	Er	Tm	Yb	Lu	Y	Sc
HfCuSi ₂	Fe	+	+	+	+	+		+									
	Co	+	+	+	+	+											
LaFe ₄ Sb ₁₂	Fe	+	+	+	+	+	+							+			
12	Ru	+	+	+	+	+	+										
	Rh	+															
	Os	+	+	+	+	+	+							+			
TiNiSi or	Co				-												+
KHg ₂	Rh	+	+	+	+	+											
Md ₆ Fe ₁₃ Si	Fe	_	+	+	+	+											
	Co	+	-														

Table 60 Isotypic compounds of the ternary *R*–Fe(Co, Ru, Rh, Os, Ir)–Sb systems^a

^aSign + means that the compound with corresponding structure type exists; - the compound was not observed.

Leithe-Jasper, 1994). Information on the systematic investigations of the interaction of rare earths and antimony with other metals of this subgroup is still lacking. The survey of the isotypic compounds is presented in table 60.

No information is available on the ternary *R*–Ir–Sb systems.

7.2.3.4. R-Ni(Pd, Pt)-Sb. Interaction of the components in these systems is the most complicated and highly diversified (table 61).

The greatest efforts have concentrated on the systematic studies of the nickel containing systems. The annealing temperature of the *R*–Ni–Sb alloys strongly affects the phase equilibria as well as the crystal structure of ternary compounds. The isothermal section of Y–Ni–Sb phase diagram at 870 K (0–50 at.% Sb) was studied by Zavalii (1982). For the La–Ni–Sb, Ce–Ni–Sb and Nd–Ni–Sb systems the isothermal sections at 870 K were constructed by Zavalii (1982), Pecharsky et al. (1983a, 1983b) and Salamakha (1998), respectively. Mozharivskyj

			21		1			5		. ,	2						
Structure type		La	Ce	Pr	Nd	Sm	Eu	Gd	Tb	Dy	Но	Er	Tm	Yb	Lu	Y	Sc
CeGa ₂ Al ₂	Ni	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	_	_	-	_					
	Pd	_	_	_	_	-	_	_									
CaBe ₂ Ge ₂	Ni	+	+	+	+	+	_	+	+	+	+	+					
	Pd	+	+	+	+	+	+								_		
AlB ₂ or ZrBeSi	Ni	+	+	+	+	+	_	_	_	_	-	_	-	-	_	_	-
CaIn ₂ or	Pd	+	+	+	+	+	_	+	+	+	_	_		_		_	
LiGaGe	Pt	+	+	+	+	-	_	_	_	_	_	_	-	_	_	_	-
MgAgAs	Ni	_	_	_	_	-	_	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
1.51.151.15	Pd	_	_	_	_	-	_	_	_	+	+	+		+		+	
	Pt	_	_	_	_	+	_	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Mo ₅ B ₂ Si	Ni	_	_		_			+	+	+	+	+	+		+	+	
	Pd							+	+	+	+	+	+		+	+	
	Pt							+	+	+	+	+	+		+	+	
HfCuSb ₂	Ni	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+					-	
	Pd	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+								
MgCu ₂ Al	Pd									+	+	+		+		+	
TiNiSi	Pd	-	-	-	-	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	Pt	_	_	_	_	-	+	_	_	_	-	_	-	-	_	_	_

 Table 61

 Isotypic compounds of the ternary *R*–Ni(Pd, Pt)–Sb systems^a

et al. (1997) investigated the phase equilibria in the ternary Ho–Ni–Sb system at 770 K (0–50 at.% Sb) and 1070 K (50–100 at.% Sb). Hoffman and Jeitschko (1988) reported some results of phase equilibria studies of the La–Ni–Sb and Gd–Ni–Sb systems at 1070 K. The compounds $RNi_{2-x}Sb_2$ with a defect CaBe₂Ge₂ structure were found and evaluated as the highest antimony content compounds. In variance to these data, Zavalii (1982), Pecharsky et al. (1983a, 1983b) and Salamakha (1998) reported on the existence and crystal structure for the *R*NiSb₂ (HfCuSi₂ type structure) and *R*Ni₂Sb₂ (CeGa₂Al₂ type structure) (R = La, Ce, Nd) compounds from the alloys annealed at 870 K. Various authors investigated the crystal structure of the *R*NiSb compounds (R = La–Sm) and found them to crystallize either with AlB₂ type (LT form) or ZrBeSi type (HT modification).

Although no phase diagram has been studied for the Ce–Pd–Sb system, seven ternary compounds were observed and their crystal structures were investigated.

In the R-Pt-Sb systems, the compounds with $Y_3Au_3Sb_4$ structure are found for both the light and heavy rare earth elements. This structure occurs typically for copper and gold containing antimonides, and unexpectedly, it was not observed for the systems with Ni and Pd.

7.2.3.5. R-Cu(Ag, Au)-Sb. The most prevailing structure types among the compounds within R-Cu(Ag, Au)-Sb systems are the HfCuSi₂ and Y₃Au₃Sb₄ types. The compounds of the Y₃Au₃Sb₄ type have not been observed for the systems with silver. Table 62 lists the isotypic series of compounds in the R-Cu(Ag, Au)-Sb systems.

			21		1			2		0, ,		<i>'</i>					
Structure type		La	Ce	Pr	Nd	Sm	Eu	Gd	Tb	Dy	Но	Er	Tm	Yb	Lu	Y	Sc
HfCuSi ₂	Cu	+	+	+	+	+	_	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	
	Ag	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	_	_	+	
	Au	+	+	+	+	+											
Y3Au3Sb4	Cu	+	+	+	+	+	_	+	+	+	+	+	_	_	_	+	-
	Au	+	+	+	+	+	-	+	+	+	+	+	+	_	+	+	-
ZrBeSi or	Cu	_	_		_		+							+			
LiGaGe	Ag				_		+							_	_		
	Au		+		_		+							+			
La ₆ MnSb ₁₅	Cu	+	+														
CeGa ₂ Al ₂	Cu	_	+	+	_		+	+									
	Ag	+	+		_												
TiNiSi	Ag				_		_							+	+		

Table 62 Isotypic compounds of the ternary *R*-Cu(Ag, Au)-Sb systems^a

7.2.4. R-f-element-Sb

Only the formation of solid solutions between isotypic compounds has been observed in the R-R'-Sb systems. For the R-U-Sb the formation of both solid solutions (Frick et al., 1984) and ternary compounds (Schmidt and Jeitschko, 1998; Slovyanskikh et al., 1990) have been reported.

7.3. Interconnection of the ternary antimonides with the binary structure types

The structure types of binary antimonides have been described by Hulliger (1984) in chapter 33 of the Handbook.

Several families of ternary antimonides crystallize with structure types derived from those of binary types by an insertion of third component in the structure of binary compounds, i.e., $LaFe_4P_{12}$ from CoAs₃, $Y_3Au_3Sb_4$ from Th₄P₃, U_3CrSb_5 from Mn₅Si₃.

Another subgroup of structure types of ternary antimonides contains the superstructures of binary structures: LiGaGe \rightarrow CaIn₂, ZrBeSi \rightarrow Ni₂In, Mo₅B₂Si \rightarrow Cr₅B₃, MgAgAs \rightarrow CaF₂, TiNiSi \rightarrow Co₂Si.

The structure of the MnCu₂Al type compound can be considered as both an insertion phase (NaCl) and a superstructure (BiF₃).

The crystal chemistry of the ternary antimonides is discussed in the original papers. Here we present only some regularities and peculiarities of the formation of ternary antimonides and their structures depending on the qualitative and quantitative composition.

7.4. Ternary antimonides with the equiatomic composition

The RMSb compounds crystallize in eight structure types, for some of them the existence of two polymorphic modifications have been reported (table 63). The crystal structure of EuMSb compounds is always different than the structure of other RMSb compounds.

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					, F											
M/R	La	Ce	Pr	Nd	Sm	Eu	Gd	Tb	Dy	Ho	Er	Tm	Yb	Lu	Y	Sc
Ni	1,2	1,2	1,2	1,2	1,2		1,3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Pd	4	4	4	4	4	5	4	4	3,4	3	3	3	3		3	
Pt	4	4	6	4,6	3	5	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Co																5
Rh	7	5,7	7	7												
Cu						2							6			
Ag						2							5	5		
Au		4				2							6			
Zr							8	8	8	8	8	8		8	8	

 Table 63

 Structure types of the *RMSb* ternary antimonides^a

^aNumber 1 corresponds to AlB₂ structure type; 2 – ZrBeSi; 3 – MgAgAs; 4 – CaIn₂; 5 – TiNiSi; 6 – LiGaGe; 7 – KHg₂; 8 – CeScSi.

7.5. Ternary antimonides with the R:Sb ratio equal to 1:2

A BaAl₄ fragment is a filled up tetragonal antiprism. The structure types of ternary antimonides related to the BaAl₄ type are presented in table 64. In the La(Ni, Sb)₄ compound (BaAl₄ structure type), the atoms of (Ni, Sb) statistical mixture occupy two different crystallographic positions. For the 1:2:2 composition, two ordered modifications of tetragonal cell – CeGa₂Al₂ and CaBe₂Ge₂ – are known. An orthorhombic deformation of the BaAl₄ with unit cell dimensions similar to the BaAl₄-type unit cell was found for the CeNi_{2+x}Sb_{2-x} compound.

The $LaPt_2Ge_2$ and $Ce_3Pd_6Sb_5$ structure types can be formed in consequence of ordering and distortion of the unit cell of the $CaBe_2Ge_2$ structure.

In the HfCuSi₂ structure, a portion of the tetragonal antiprisms is unfilled. The outer deformation of this structure leads to the formation of two new structure types - NdAgAs₂ and LaInSb₂.

Structure types	Space group	Lattice parameters			
		a	b	С	
BaAl ₄	I4/mmm	a ₁	a ₁	c1	
CeGa ₂ Al ₂	I4/mmm	a ₁	a ₁	c ₁	
CaBe ₂ Ge ₂	P4/nmm	a ₁	a ₁	c ₁	
$\operatorname{CeNi}_{2+x}\operatorname{Sb}_{2-x}$	Immm	a ₁	a ₁	c1	
LaPt2Ge2	P21	a ₁	a ₁	c ₁	
			$\beta \sim 91^{\circ}$		
Ce ₃ Pd ₆ Sb ₅	Pmmn	3a ₁	a ₁	c ₁	
HfCuSi ₂	P4/nmm	a ₁	a ₁	c1	
NdAgAs ₂	Pmmn	a ₁	a ₁	c ₁	
LaInSb ₂	$P2_1/m$	a ₁	a ₁	c ₁	
			$\beta \sim 99^{\circ}$		

Table 64 Structure types of antimonides with structures related to $BaAl_4$ type structure

The structure of the LaSnSb₂ compound (*Cmcm* space group) is related to the structure of YbSb₂ (ZrSi₂ structure type, *Cmcm* space group).

The structure of NdFe₂Sb₂ and NdFe₃Sb₂ compounds can be classified to the structures with two short (~ 4 Å) and one much more longer period (~ 25 Å). These structures contain the fragments of simple structures connected along long period.

The insertion of additional Li atom in the 0 0 0.5 site in the structure of the RLi_2Sb_2 compounds (CaAl₂Si₂ structure type) leads to the formation of the YLi₃Sb₂ structure type.

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Chapter 213

THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES OF THE LANTHANIDE(III) HALIDES

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List of symbols

Α	Madelung constant	Ttrs	transition temperature
Cp	heat capacity at constant pressure	U	energy
C_{exs}	excess heat capacity	Vm	molar volume
Clat	lattice heat capacity	Ζ	ionic charge
D	bond energy	$\Delta_{\mathrm{f}} H^{\circ}$	enthalpy of formation at 298.15 K
d, f, g	polarization functions	$\Delta_{\rm r} H^{\circ}$	enthalpy of reaction
Q	molecular partition function	$\Delta_{sub}H$	enthalpy of sublimation
R	universal gas constant	$\Delta_{\rm trs} H^{\rm c}$	enthalpy of transition
r _e	equilibrium bond distance	$\Delta_{\mathrm{fus}} S^{\circ}$	entropy of fusion
rg	thermal average distance at the temperature of	$\Delta_{\rm trs}S^\circ$	entropy of transition
	the ED experiment	ε	electronic energy
ra	distance between average nuclear positions at a	v_1	symmetric stretch
	given temperature	v_2	symmetric bend (inversion)
S°	standard entropy	v_3	asymmetric stretch
Т	temperature	v_4	asymmetric bend
$T_{\rm fus}$	fusion temperature		

List of acronyms

(aq)	aqueous	(g)	gas
BP	Becke-Perdew86 exchange-correlation func-	IR	infrared spectroscopy
	tional (Perdew, 1986; Becke, 1988)	ITS-90	International Temperature Scale of 1999
B3P	Becke3-Perdew86 exchange-correlation func-		(www.its-90.com)
	tional (Perdew, 1986; Becke, 1993)	(liq)	liquid
(cr)	crystal	Ln	lanthanide
DFT	density functional theory	MI	matrix isolation
DS	relativistic Dirac-Slater calculation	MP2	second order Møller-Plesset perturbation theory
DSC	differential scanning calorimetry		(Møller and Plesset, 1934)
ECPD	relativistic effective core potential of Dolg et al.	QC	quantum chemical computation
	(1989)	(sln)	solution
ECPS	relativistic effective core potential of Stevens et	ΤZ	triple-zeta basis set
	al. (Stevens et al., 1992; Cundari and Stevens,	VDZ	valence double-zeta basis set
	1993)	VTZ	valence triple-zeta basis set
ED	electron diffraction		

1. Introduction

The lanthanide trihalides have been subject of studies for many decades. The main incentive has been the scientific interest in the physical and chemical properties of compounds of the trivalent lanthanide ions, which are unique in the period system as they regularly vary along

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the series. This is due to the fact that the f electrons in the lanthanide ions are localised and do not actively participate in the chemical bonding. A similar effect occurs in the heavy actinide series for the elements beyond plutonium, which exhibit lanthanide-like properties. Because these heavy actinides are highly active materials, understanding of the lanthanide properties is the key to the prediction of the properties of the trivalent actinides, like americium and curium.

The lanthanide halides also have important technological relevance. In the 1950s and 1960s some interest in the fluorides originated from nuclear technology. The molten salt reactor project in the USA initiated many studies on the LnF_3 compounds as these are formed in the (LiF-BeF₂-ThF₄) fuel that was used. Separation of these fission products from the actinides during the pyrochemical reprocessing of the fuel was an important issue. A pyrochemical process was also developed for the reprocessing of the metal fuel for the fast reactor programme in the USA. This process is based on dissolution of the fuel in a high temperature molten chloride salt and selective transport to a metal cathode. In recent years, these technologies have found re-newed interest in the nuclear community, mainly in the frame of the actinide partitioning and transmutation programmes (Baetslé, 1999), for which the separation of the lanthanide fission products from the (trivalent) actinides is a key issue.

Lanthanide bromides and iodides have found important applications in a completely different field. They are added as additives in high-pressure discharge lamps in the lighting industry to improve the arc stability and the colour quality. The latter is due to the contribution of the multiline spectrum of the doped rare earths which are added to the salt mixture. Lanthanide trihalides of dysprosium, holmium, thullium, gadolinium and lutetium are used frequently for this purpose (Hilpert and Niemann, 1997).

These high temperature processes can be modelled adequately by equilibrium thermodynamics. For such calculations reliable thermodynamic data are a priority. Although numerous studies of the thermodynamic properties of the lanthanide trihalides have been published in the past, the available information is still not complete. But because the properties change regularly within the lanthanide series, estimates can help to obtain the data that are lacking.

In the present chapter the existing information is reviewed and emphasis is given to the understanding of the trends in order to establish a basis for the estimations. The cited literature is essentially from the period 1945–2002. The studies made before that period are considered to be less reliable as the separation technology to obtain the lanthanide elements in pure form was not sufficiently well developed before 1945 (Spedding and Daane, 1960).

2. Polymorphism

2.1. LnF₃

Four crystallographic modifications have been reported for the lanthanide trifluorides (Greis and Haschke, 1982; Meyer and Wickleder, 2000). The trifluorides of La, Ce, Pr and Nd have a hexagonal/trigonal structure from room temperature up to the melting point. Greis and Cader (1985) reported that these compounds undergo a λ -type second order transition before melting, which was easier to detect when the samples were heated at low heating rates. As a result



Fig. 1. The polymorphism in the lanthanide trifluorides.

the transition temperatures are not well defined. Greis and Cader (1985) argued that at low temperatures a highly ordered superstructure exits (space group $P\overline{3}c1$) whereas the aniondisordered structure (space group $P6_3cm$) dominates at higher temperatures. The trifluorides of Sm to Lu have an orthorhombic structure (space group *Pnma*) at room temperature. Transitions from the orthorhombic to a hexagonal structure at elevated temperature have been reported for all compounds in the series Sm–Lu: the LaF₃ type hexagonal structure for the trifluorides of Sm to Ho and the YF₃ hexagonal structure for the trifluorides of Er to Lu. Stankus et al. (1999) concluded that the transition involves a deformation mechanism and may occur over a broad temperature range. Pastor and Robinson (1974) and Sobolev et al. (1976a, 1976b) discussed the variation in transition temperatures in view of hydroxide, oxygen and alkaline earth impurities and argued that the transitions in TbF₃, DyF₃ and HoF₃ do not occur and that the reported claims are due to impurities. The polymorphism as a function of atomic number is shown in fig. 1, which is essentially identical to the figure of Greis and Haschke (1982) in an earlier chapter of this Handbook series.

The reported transition and melting temperatures are summarised in table A.1 of Appendix A. As follows from the discussed above, there is quite some variation in the transition temperatures, but there is generally good agreement for the melting temperatures of the lanthanide trifluorides. The selected values (considering corrections to ITS-90) are summarised in table 1. Figure 1 shows that a minimum in the melting curve of the lanthanide trifluorides occurs at ErF_3 : the melting point steadily decreases with increasing atomic number for the light hexagonal/trigonal and orthorhombic but slightly increases for the heavy hexagonal trifluorides. Since data for PmF_3 are lacking, its melting point has been interpolated.

2.2. LnCl3

The lanthanide trichlorides of La to Eu have a hexagonal crystal structure (space group $P6_3/m$) at room temperature. For GdCl₃ the hexagonal as well as the orthorhombic structures have been reported at room temperature. There is some uncertainty which of these is the

	F		(Cl		Br		I
	Ttrs	T _{fus}	T _{trs}	T _{fus}	T _{trs}	T _{fus}	T _{trs}	T _{fus}
La		1766 ± 3		1133 ± 5		1060 ± 3		1045 ± 3
Ce		1703 ± 3		1090 ± 2		1005 ± 2		1033 ± 2
Pr		1670 ± 3		1060 ± 2		965 ± 3		1011 ± 2
Nd		1649 ± 3		1032 ± 2		955 ± 2	859 ± 3	1059 ± 2
Pm		1605 ± 15		994 ± 15		930 ± 15	900 ± 10	1090 ± 10
Sm	743 ± 3	1571 ± 3		950 ± 5		913 ± 5	943 ± 10	1123 ± 5
Eu	973 ± 3	1549 ± 3		894 ± 3		978 ± 10		decomp.
Gd	1347 ± 3	1501 ± 3	872 ± 10	875 ± 2		1043 ± 5	1013 ± 5	1204 ± 3
Tb		1446 ± 3	783 ± 5	855 ± 3		1102 ± 3	1080 ± 5	1229 ± 3
Dy		1426 ± 3	611 ± 5	924 ± 3		1152 ± 3	1101 ± 5	1251 ± 3
Ho		1416 ± 3	820 ± 20	993 ± 3		1192 ± 3	1150 ± 15	1267 ± 5
Er	1388 ± 3	1413 ± 3		1049 ± 5		1196 ± 5	1195 ± 15	1288 ± 3
Tm	1325 ± 3	1431 ± 3		1095 ± 3		1228 ± 3	1240 ± 15	1294 ± 5
Yb	1267 ± 3	1435 ± 3		1138 ± 5		decomp.	1280 ± 15	decomp.
Lu	1230 ± 3	1455 ± 3		1198 ± 5		1298 ± 5	1320 ± 15	1323 ± 5

Table 1 The selected transition and melting temperatures for the lanthanide trihalides, in K

thermodynamically stable form. Because Sommers and Westrum Jr. (1977) were not able to transform the hexagonal form to the orthorhombic by annealing (367 K, 7 days) or cooling (liquid nitrogen, 7 h), they considered the hexagonal structure to be the thermodynamically stable form. This was confirmed by Raman spectroscopic studies by Daniel et al. (1989). TbCl₃ has an orthorhombic structure (space group *Cmcm*). The trichlorides of Dy to Lu have a monoclinic crystal structure (space group C2/m).

The hexagonal structure of the trichlorides of La to Eu persists up to the melting point, whereas GdCl₃ retains its hexagonal structure up to few degrees below to the melting point (Daniel et al., 1989). The high temperature behaviour of the orthorhomic and monoclinic lanthanide trichlorides is not so well known. The enthalpy increment studies for TbCl₃, DyCl₃ and HoCl₃ (Dworkin and Bredig, 1971) do not reveal any phase transformations up to the melting point (see below), but differential scanning calorimetric measurements of DyCl₃ and ErCl₃ revealed transitions at 611 K and 1025 K (Gaune-Escard et al., 1994), respectively, the nature of which was not explained. Büchel et al. (1995) claimed that in the case of ErCl₃ the DTA peak is due to the reaction with the silica crucible used by Gaune-Escard et al. (1994). Morrison et al. (2000) studied the polymorphism of TbCl₃ by Raman spectroscopy and X-ray diffraction and demonstrated that a phase change occurs around 773 K and tentatively assigned it to a tetragonal structure (space group $P4_2/mnm$), in agreement with the work of Gunselius et al. (1988).

The reported transition and melting temperatures are listed in table A.2 of Appendix A. There is general agreement between the studies and the selected values (considering corrections to ITS-90) are summarised in table 1. The polymorphism as a function of atomic number is shown in fig. 2. The minimum in the melting curve of the lanthanide trichlorides occurs at TbCl₃ where a change in structure of the $LnCl_3$ occurs, as was the case for the trifluorides. Data for PmCl₃ are lacking and its melting point has been interpolated in the $LnCl_3$ series.



Fig. 2. The polymorphism in the lanthanide trichlorides.

2.3. *LnBr*₃

The tribromides of La, Ce and Pr have a hexagonal structure (space group $P6_3/m$), the tribromides of Nd, Pm, Sm and Eu have an orthorhombic structure (space group *Cmcm*), and the tribromides of Tb to Lu have a hexagonal/rhombohedral structure (space group $R\overline{3}$). For GdBr₃ several different crystal structures have been reported: hexagonal/rhombohedral, trigonal and monoclinic, the former being the thermodynamically stable phase.

Phase transformations have not been reported for any of the rare earth tribromides, but only a few detailed studies of the high-temperature phase behaviour have been made. Brown et al. (1968) did not find evidence for polymorphism in GdBr₃ by X-ray diffraction; Dworkin and Bredig (1971) none for LaBr₃, CeBr₃, PrBr₃, NdBr₃, GdBr₃ or HoBr₃ by drop-calorimetric measurements; and Cordfunke et al. (Cordfunke and Blacquère, 1997; Cordfunke et al., 1999) none for NdBr₃ and DyBr₃ by differential scanning calorimetric measurements.

The reported melting points for the tribromides are in good agreement as shown in table A.3 of Appendix A. The recommended melting points (considering corrections to ITS-90) are listed in table 1, and shown as a function of atomic number in fig. 3. The minimum in the melting curve of the lanthanide tribromides occurs at SmBr₃ or perhaps PmBr₃. Unlike the fluoride, chloride and iodide series, no change in structure has been reported in the bromide series at this point. This observation may, however, be an indication that a high-temperature orthorhombic-hexagonal phase transformation occurs for EuBr₃ and eventually for SmBr₃, and the stability fields in fig. 3 have been drawn schematically to reflect this. Because of these uncertainties the melting point of PmBr₃ is difficult to estimate accurately.

2.4. LnI3

The triiodides of La to Nd have an orthorhombic structure (space group *Ccmm*), the triiodides of Sm to Lu have a hexagonal/rhombohedral structure (space group $R\overline{3}$). High temperature transformations have been reported for the lanthanide triiodides from NdI₃ to DyI₃. The orthorhombic NdI₃ probably transforms into the rhombohedral structure (Dworkin and Bredig,



Fig. 3. The polymorphism in the lanthanide tribromides.

Fig. 4. The polymorphism in the lanthanide triiodides.

1971). The nature of the transformations in for the triiodides SmI₃ to DyI₃ is not defined and it is unclear whether this transformation also occurs in HoI₃, ErI₃, TmI₃ and LuI₃ as these compounds have hardly been studied. As the enthalpies of these transitions are small, it is most likely that they involve a rearrangement of the rhombohedral lattice. For the diagram in fig. 4 we have linearly extrapolated the transition temperatures beyond DyI₃ based on the straight line established by the LnI_3 transformation temperatures for Ln = Nd, Sm, Gd, Tb, and Er. This figure is, however, of a speculative nature.

The melting points of LaI₃ to NdI₃ have been studied by several authors and the results agree well and selected values (considering corrections to ITS-90) are given in table 1. For the heavy lanthanide triiodides only a limited number of studies has been made, but the reliability is good (see table A.4 of Appendix A). No experimental studies are known for PmI₃, EuI₃ and YbI₃. The latter two compounds start to decompose below the melting point. The melting point of PmI₃ has been interpolated in the LnI_3 series.

3. Low-temperature heat capacity and standard entropy of the solid trihalides

3.1. *LnF*₃

The heat capacity of hexagonal/trigonal LaF₃, PrF_3 and NdF_3 and orthorhombic GdF₃, DyF_3 , ErF_3 and LuF₃ was measured by Lyon et al. (1978, 1979a, 1979b) and Flotow and O'Hare (1981, 1984) using adiabatic low-temperature calorimetry in the 5 to 350 K range. The heat capacity of CeF₃ was measured by King and Christensen (1959) from 51 to 298.15 K, and by Westrum Jr. and Beale Jr. (1961) from 5 to 300 K. The heat capacity curves of all these compounds show a smooth and continuous increase up to 350 K, indicating no transitions.

The heat capacity of the trivalent lanthanide trihalides consists of a lattice component, arising mainly from the vibrations of the ions in the crystal, and an excess component (Westrum Jr. and Grønvold, 1962; Westrum Jr., 1970; Flotow and Tetenbaum, 1981; Westrum Jr., 1983):

$$C_{\rm p} = C_{\rm lat} + C_{\rm exs}.\tag{1}$$

The excess contribution is due to the distribution of the valence electrons over the energy levels, and includes the splitting of the ground term by the crystalline electric field (Stark effect) and is called the Schottky heat capacity or Schottky anomaly. It can be calculated from

compound	state	$\varepsilon_i/\mathrm{cm}^{-1}$
LaF ₃	${}^{1}S_{0}$	0
CeF ₃	${}^{2}\mathrm{F}_{5/2}$	0, 151, 280
	${}^{2}\mathrm{F}_{7/2}$	2160, 2240, 2635, 2845
PrF ₃	${}^{3}H_{4}$	0.0, 59.7, 69.4, 134.7, 202.4, 222.6, 290.4, 330.7, 500.1
NdF ₃	⁴ I _{9/2}	0, 45, 136, 296, 500
	${}^{4}I_{11/2}$	1978, 2037, 2068, 2091, 2187, 2223
PmF ₃	${}^{2}\mathrm{F}_{7/2}$	
SmF ₃	⁶ H _{5/2}	0.00, 44.5, 159.4
	⁶ H _{7/2}	1003.4, 1047.0, 1100.6, 1187.0
EuF ₃	$^{7}F_{0}$	0.00
	${}^{7}F_{1}$	313, 375, 415
	⁷ F ₂	946, 997, 1098
GdF ₃	⁸ F _{7/2}	0
TbF ₃	${}^{7}F_{6}$	0, 42, 60, 125, 140, 169, 209, 212, 217, 232, 319, 353, 488
DyF ₃	⁶ H _{15/2}	0, 42.3, 61.8, 110.9, 154.9, 210.7, 272.3, 468.5
HoF ₃	⁵ I ₈	0, 7.3. 18.7, 32.5, 54.1, 76.7, 103.5, 125.3, 149.4, 204.2, 211.1
ErF ₃	${}^{4}F_{15/2}$	0, 52.0, 64.3, 96.5, 113.7, 141.6, 181.0, 229.3
TmF ₃	${}^{3}H_{6}$	0, 67, 118, 156, 204, 235, 272, 274, 349, 354, 400, 418, 441
YbF3	${}^{3}F_{7/2}$	0, 78, 185, 401
LuF ₃	${}^{1}S_{0}$	0

 Table 2

 The crystal field energy levels for the lanthanide trifluorides (Dieke et al., 1968; Morrison and Leavitt, 1982)

the partitioning function Q, which is described by the Maxwell–Boltzmann distribution law:

$$Q_{\rm exs} = \sum_{i=0}^{n} g_i e^{-\varepsilon_i/RT},\tag{2}$$

where ε_i is the energy and g_i the degeneracy of level *i*, *R* is the universal gas constant and *T* is the absolute temperature. The excess heat capacity is then calculated from the equations:

$$C_{\rm exs} = R \frac{d}{dT} \left(T^2 \frac{d(\ln Q)}{dT} \right). \tag{3}$$

The electronic states of the lanthanide 3+ ions are characterised by (2J + 1)-fold degeneracy which is removed by the crystalline electric field. For the ground state this results in a set of energy levels generally below 1000 cm⁻¹. These crystal-field states have been identified for most of the lanthanide trifluorides, and are summarised in table 2. Examples of C_{exs} thus calculated are shown in fig. 5 for PrF₃, NdF₃, DyF₃, and ErF₃.

In LaF₃, GdF₃ and LuF₃ the excess contribution is zero which is due to the fact that these lanthanide ions have an empty, half-filled and completely filled f-shell, respectively. This is evident from a plot of the C_p values at 298.15 K as a function of the atomic number as shown in fig. 6 which indicates that the values for these three compounds form a straight line, is spite of their different crystal structures. Flotow et al. resolved the lattice and excess contribution by assuming the heat capacity of LaF₃ to represent the lattice component of the other hexagonal earth trifluorides (PrF₃, NdF₃) and GdF₃ and LuF₃ that of the orthorhombic rare earth trifluorides. Flotow et al. obtained the values in between GdF₃ and LuF₃ by an interpolation using weighing factor f based on the molar volume:

$$C_{\text{lat}} = (1 - f)C_{\text{lat}}(\text{GdF}_3) + fC_{\text{lat}}(\text{LuF}_3).$$
(4)



Fig. 5. The excess heat capacity of PrF₃, NdF₃, DyF₃ and ErF₃ as calculated from the crystal field energies.



Fig. 6. The variation of C_p (298.15 K) in the lanthanide trifluoride series (\circ). The broken line connects the values for LaF₃, GdF₃ and LuF₃ for which C_{exs} is zero at 298.15 K. The solid circles show the values of C_{lat} (298.15 K) obtained by subtracting C_{exs} (298.15 K) from the experimental values.

Fig. 7. The excess heat capacity of DyF₃; curve shows the values calculated from the crystal field energies, symbols are the values derived from the experimental data by subtracting C_{lat} , as explained in the text.

The experimental excess heat capacity thus obtained as the difference between measured C_p and C_{lat} can then be compared to the values calculated from the crystal field levels. As an example, fig. 7 shows the good agreement of the experimental and calculated excess heat capacity of DyF₃.

The standard molar entropies at 298.15 K derived from the low-temperature heat capacity measurements are summarized in table 3. Similar to the heat capacity, the entropy can be described as the sum of the lattice and excess components (Konings, 2001, 2002):

$$S = S_{\text{lat}} + S_{\text{exs}}.$$
(5)

The excess entropy is then calculated from the following equation:

$$S_{\rm exs} = R \ln Q_{\rm exs}.$$
 (6)

Combining eqs. (2) and (6) gives:

$$S_{\text{exs}} = R \ln(g_0) + R \ln\left(\sum_{i=1}^n g_i e^{-\varepsilon_i/RT}\right).$$
(7)

The first term of eq. (7) represents the temperature independent contribution of the ground state, the second term the contribution of the excited energy levels.

The lattice contribution in the lanthanide fluorides is only known with sufficient accuracy when the f shell of the metal ions is empty $(4f^0)$ or completely filled $(4f^{14})$. In these cases S_{exs} is zero and the experimental entropy corresponds to S_{lat} . Also in case the f-shell of the metal

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	Calculated			Experimental ^a		
	Slat	Sexs	Stot	Sexp	References	
LaF ₃	105.84	0.00	105.84	106.98 ± 0.11	1	
CeF ₃	104.97	13.73	118.70	115.23	2	
PrF ₃	104.10	16.75	120.85	121.22 ± 0.12	3	
NdF ₃	103.23	17.24	120.47	120.79 ± 0.12	4	
PmF ₃	102.37	18.27	120.64	-		
SmF ₃	101.50	15.00	116.50	-		
EuF ₃	100.63	9.44	110.07	-		
GdF ₃	99.76	17.29	117.05	114.77 ± 0.22	5	
TbF ₃	98.90	20.07	118.97	-		
DyF ₃	98.03	21.83	119.86	118.07 ± 0.12	6	
HoF ₃	97.16	23.18	120.34	-		
ErF ₃	96.29	22.62	118.91	116.86 ± 0.12	6	
TmF ₃	95.42	19.56	114.98	-		
YbF ₃	94.55	17.29	111.84	-		
LuF ₃	93.69	0.00	93.69	94.83 ± 0.09	5	
LaCl ₃	137.57	0.00	137.57	137.57	7	
CeCl ₃	136.71	14.71	151.42	-		
PrCl ₃	136.28	17.87	154.15	153.30	7	
NdCl ₃	135.85	18.30	154.15	153.43	7	
PmCl ₃	135.42	17.89	153.31	-		
SmCl ₃	134.99	15.27	150.26	150.12	8	
EuCl ₃	134.56	9.32	143.88	144.06	8	
GdCl ₃	134.13	17.29	151.42	151.42	8	
TbCl3	133.70	21.15	154.85	-		
DyCl ₃	155.15	22.83	177.98	175.4	9	
HoCl ₃	154.72	23.16	177.88	177.1	10	
ErCl ₃	154.29	22.60	176.89	175.1	11	
TmCl ₃	153.86	20.84	174.70	173.5	12	
YbCl ₃	153.43	15.80	169.23	169.3	13	
LuCl ₃	153.00	0.00	153.0	153.0	9	

Table 3 The entropies of the solid lanthanide(III) fluorides and chlorides at 298 15 K in $I_{\rm c}K^{-1}$ mol⁻¹

^aThe uncertainty for the standard entropies derived from the calorimetric measurements has not been given in some cases.

References

1. Lyon et al. (1970)

6. Flotow and O'Hare (1984) 2. Westrum Jr. and Beale Jr. (1961) 7. Sommers and Westrum Jr. (1976) 12. Tolmach et al. (1990c) 3. Lyon et al. (1979a) 8. Sommers and Westrum Jr. (1977) 13. Gorbunov et al. (1986) 4. Lyon et al. (1979b) 9. Tolmach et al. (1987) 5. Flotow and O'Hare (1981) 10. Tolmach et al. (1990a)

11. Tolmach et al. (1990b)

ion is half filled (4 f^7), S_{lat} can be derived easily from the experimental entropy since only a correction for the temperature independent term in eq. (7) needs to be made in the absence of a significant crystal-field splitting of the ground state.

In fig. 8 the experimental entropies for the lanthanide trifluorides are plotted as a function of the atomic number. The figure shows that S_{lat} for LaF₃, GdF₃ and LuF₃ form approximately



Fig. 8. The variation of the $S_{exp}(\circ)$ and $S_{lat}(\bullet)$ in the lanthanide trifluorides. The broken line shows S_{lat} derived from the values for LaF₃, GdF₃ and LuF₃, the solid line shows S_{exs} derived from the experimental data for the other configurations.

a straight line, as was the case for the heat capacities at 298.15 K. S_{lat} for the other lanthanide compounds is then obtained by inter- or extrapolation of the data (which is a simpler, but essentially identical approximation as the weighing factors based on the molar volume, as indicated by eq. (4)). These numbers are listed in table 3. The excess contribution is calculated from eq. (7) using the crystal field energies listed in table 2, which are mainly based on spectroscopic studies of the lanthanide ions in transparent host crystals. In case of PmF₃ the spectroscopic data are missing, and S_{exs} is calculated from the degeneracy of the ground state of the lanthanide ion. This neglect of the crystal energy splitting leads to a small overestimation of S_{exs} at 298.15 K, which increases when the energy gap of the crystal-field splitting becomes larger. For example, we obtain $S_{\text{exs}} = 17.24 \text{ J}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ at 298.15 K for NdF₃ from the known crystal field levels, whereas we obtain $S_{\text{exs}} = R \ln(10) = 19.14 \text{ J}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ at 298.15 K from the approximation.

The total entropy values thus obtained for CeF₃, PrF₃, NdF₃, DyF₃ and ErF₃ compare well with the experimental values by Flotow et al. and the difference $S_{exp} - S_{tot}$ is in the order of 1–2%. The recommended entropy values are the experimental values of Flotow et al., and the calculated values for those compounds for which no experimental data are available. An uncertainty of $\pm 3.0 \text{ J} \cdot \text{K}^{-1} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ has been assigned to the calculated values.

3.2. LnCl₃

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Heat capacity measurements in the 10 to 350 K temperature range have been reported by Sommers and Westrum Jr. (1976, 1977) for the hexagonal lanthanide trichlorides and Tolmach et al. for the monoclinic ones (Gorbunov et al., 1986; Tolmach et al., 1987, 1990a, 1990b, 1990c). No compound was measured in parallel by both groups but remarkable differences are observed between the results of the two groups. This is shown in fig. 9 in which the heat capacity curves of GdCl₃ measured by Sommers and Westrum and LuCl₃ by Tolmach et al. are plotted. It can be seen that the heat capacity curve of LuCl₃ is significantly higher than that of GdCl₃ up to about 150 K above which the heat capacity curve approach each other. This is significantly different from the situation for the trifluorides where the curves of LaF₃, GdF₃ and LuF₃ have the same shape and the heat capacity slightly decreases with increasing atomic number.

The differences in the entropy values derived for the two groups of compounds are also significant: the lattice values at 298.15 K derived from the work of Tolmach et al. are about $20 \text{ J} \cdot \text{K}^{-1} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ higher than the extrapolation of results for the hexagonal compounds, as



Fig. 9. The heat capacity of $GdCl_3$ (\Box) and $LuCl_3$ (\bigtriangledown).

Fig. 10. The variation of S_{exp} (\circ , hexagonal; \odot , monoclinic) and S_{lat} (\bullet) in the lanthanide trichloride series at 298.15 K; the broken line shows the lattice contribution (see text).

Fig. 11. The molar volumes in the LnF_3 (o) and $LnCl_3$ series (\Box) at 298.15 K.

shown in fig. 10. This suggests a distinct difference between entropies of hexagonal and monoclinic crystallographic modifications. This difference is also evident in the molar volumes (fig. 11): V_m of the lanthanide trifluorides, calculated from the lattice constants, decreases lin-

Table 4

The corrected standard entropy values at 298.15 K for the monoclinic lanthanide(III) chlorides (in $J \cdot K^{-1} \cdot mol^{-1}$) as derived from the work of Tolmach et al. (Tolmach et al., 1987, 1990a, 1990b, 1990c; Gorbunov et al., 1986); T_{min} is lower temperature limit of the measurements

	T_{\min}	$S_{\exp}(298.15 \text{ K} - T_{\min})$	$S_{\text{lat}}(T_{\min})$	$S_{\rm exs}(T_{\rm min})$	S°(298.15 K)
DyCl ₃	0	169.6	0.00	5.76	175.4
HoCl ₃	6.61	170.1	0.25	6.74	177.1
ErCl ₃	9.86	168.1	1.25	5.76	175.1
TmCl ₃	15.34	166.5	3.35	3.68	173.5
YbCl ₃	0	163.5	0.00	5.76	169.3

Table 5 The crystal field energy levels for the lanthanide trichlorides (Morrison and Leavitt, 1982; Carnall, 1982)

compound	state	$\varepsilon_i/\mathrm{cm}^{-1}$
LaCl ₃	${}^{1}S_{0}$	0
CeCl ₃	${}^{2}\mathrm{F}_{5/2}$	0, 37.5, 110
	${}^{2}\mathrm{F}_{5/2}$	2166, 2208.6, 2282.6, 2399.5
PrCl ₃	$^{3}H_{4}$	0, 33.1, 96.4, 130.2, 137.0, 199.1
NdCl ₃	${}^{4}I_{9/2}$	0, 115.4, 123.2, 244.4, 249.4
	${}^{4}I_{11/2}$	1973.85, 2012.58, 2026.90, 2044.19, 2051.60, 2058.90
PmCl ₃	${}^{2}F_{7/2}$	0, 66.6, 84.5, 110.1, 127.0, 240.0
SmCl ₃	⁶ H _{5/2}	0, 40.7, 66.1
	⁶ H _{7/2}	992.8, 1051.2, 1104.7, 1172.6
EuCl ₃	${}^{7}F_{0}$	0
	${}^{7}\mathrm{F}_{1}$	355,05, 405.27
	${}^{7}F_{2}$	1022.54, 1027.52, 1084.33
GdCl ₃	${}^{8}F_{7/2}$	0
TbCl ₃	${}^{7}F_{6}$	0, 56.8, 90.6, 97.2, 99.3, 104.6, 112.8, 118.0
DyCl ₃	⁶ H _{15/2}	0, 9.82, 9.97, 15.65, 40.8, 80.5, 121.7, 140.5
HoCl ₃	⁵ I ₈	0, 12.5, 43.8, 66.4, 89.9, 104.1, 118.4, 154.2, 155.4, 203.7, 212.8
ErCl ₃	${}^{4}F_{15/2}$	0, 37.9, 64.3, 96.5, 113.7, 141.6, 181.0, 229.43
TmCl ₃	³ H ₆	0, 29, 92, 121, 127, 181, 193, 195, 207
YbCl ₃	${}^{3}F_{7/2}$	0, 50, 185, 401
LuCl ₃	${}^{1}S_{0}$	0

early along the series due to the lanthanide contraction with almost no difference between the two crystal structures, whereas $V_{\rm m}$ of the lanthanide trichlorides shows a distinct difference between the hexagonal and the monoclinic compounds.

The data shown in fig. 10 are not the values reported by Gorbunov et al. (1986) and Tolmach et al. (1987, 1990a, 1990b, 1990c), because they did not extrapolate their measurements to 0 K in all cases. To derive S° (298.15 K) we have assumed that the heat capacity of LuCl₃ represents the lattice component, and S_{lat} at the lower temperature limit is derived from the results for this compound. The excess contribution at this temperature is calculated from the crystal field energies (see table 5) derived from spectroscopic studies of the ions in transparent host crystals (Dieke et al., 1968; Morrison and Leavitt, 1982;

Carnall, 1982). The 'experimental' standard entropy values thus obtained for the monoclinic lanthanide trichlorides are listed in table 4.

The entropies for those compounds for which no experimental data have been reported (CeCl₃, PmCl₃, TbCl₃) are calculated according to the method outlined for the trifluorides. The lattice component has been derived from linear interpolation between LaCl₃ and GdCl₃ for the hexagonal compounds and a parallel relation fitted to the LuCl₃ value for the monoclinic compounds. The excess entropies have been calculated from the energy levels of the Ln^{3+} ions. The calculated values for the standard entropy at 298.15 K (S_{tot}) are in good agreement with the calculated values obtained from the sum of the lattice and excess contribution at 298.15 K, as shown in table 3. Because there is only one 'reference' point for the lattice contribution in the monoclinic series (LuCl₃), the trend along this series is assumed to have the same slope as the hexagonal trichlorides.

3.3. $LnBr_3$ and LnI_3

Only a few low-temperature heat capacity measurements have been reported for the lanthanide tribromides and triiodides. Deline et al. (1975) measured the low-temperature heat capacity of EuBr₃, Gavrichev et al. (1992) of LuI₃. These data are insufficient to derive the lattice component as was done for the trifluorides and the trichlorides. In addition, few data on the crystal field levels for the bromides and iodides are available (Morrison and Leavitt, 1982). A number of assumptions thus had to be made. Figure 12 shows that the trends in the molar volume of the $LnBr_3$ and LnI_3 series indicate two groups, as is the case for the trichlorides. We therefore conclude that the entropies of the two groups must be derived separately. The lattice entropies of the tribromides in the La-Eu series are obtained by subtracting Sexs from the measurements for EuBr₃ and these values are used to approximate S_{lat} , assuming that this quantity will vary regularly through the orthorhombic and hexagonal series. An estimated slope for the relation of S_{lat} versus atomic number dependence was used. The same was done for rhombohedral triiodides using the experimental value for LuI₃. The lattice entropy of the rhombohedral tribromides and the orthorhombic triiodides have been derived by an extrapolation of the experimental values for the lanthanum (including the value for LaBr₃ obtained indirectly from the experimental value of EuBr₃) and lutetium trihalides, as shown in fig. 13. The entropies of these compounds correlate perfectly with the logarithm of the molecular weight of the halide ion. The crystal field levels in the tribromides and triiodides are assumed to be the same as in the trichlorides, which can be justified by the experimental data for PrBr₃,







Fig. 13. The standard molar entropy as a function of the logarithm of the molecular weight of the halide atom $\ln(M)$; LaX₃ (\odot), LuX₃ (\Box) and EuX₃ (\bigtriangledown); estimated values are indicated by \odot and \Box .

NdBr₃ and ErBr₃ doped in LaBr₃ as given by Morrison and Leavitt (1982). The entropy data thus obtained are summarised in table 6.

4. High-temperature heat capacity of the solid trihalides

4.1. *LnF*₃

Enthalpy increment measurements to derive the high-temperature heat capacity have been reported for all lanthanide trifluorides except PmF_3 , as summarised in table 7. The results of the various authors are compared using the reduced enthalpy increment function:

$${H^{\circ}(T) - H^{\circ}(298.15 \text{ K})}/(T - 298.15).$$
 (8)

Figure 14 shows a plot of this function for LaF_3 . It can be seen that the data for the enthalpy increment by Spedding and Henderson (1971) and Lyon et al. (1978) are in good



Fig. 14. The reduced enthalpy increment of LaF₃ (in J·K⁻¹·mol⁻¹); \circ , Henderson (1970); \Box Lyon et al. (1978); \bullet , value at 298.15 K derived from the low-temperature heat capacity measurements of Lyon et al. (1978).

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		Calculated			erimental ^a
	Slat	Sexs	Stot	Sexp	References
LaBr ₃	177.1	0.00	177.1		
CeBr ₃	176.5	14.71	191.2	_	
PrBr ₃	175.9	17.87	193.8	_	
NdBr ₃	175.3	18.30	193.6	_	
PmBr ₃	174.7	17.89	192.6	_	
SmBr ₃	174.1	15.27	189.4	_	
EuBr ₃	173.5	9.32	182.8	182.8	1
GdBr ₃	191.7	17.29	209.0	_	
TbBr ₃	191.1	21.15	212.3	_	
DyBr ₃	190.5	22.83	213.4	_	
HoBr ₃	189.9	23.16	213.1	_	
ErBr ₃	189.6	22.60	212.2	-	
TmBr ₃	189.3	20.84	210.2	-	
YbBr ₃	189.0	15.80	204.8	_	
LuBr ₃	188.7	0.00	188.7	-	
LaI ₃	196.3	0.00	196.3	_	
CeI ₃	195.7	14.71	210.4	-	
PrI ₃	195.1	17.87	213.0	-	
NdI ₃	194.5	18.30	212.8	_	
PmI ₃	212.7	17.89	230.6	-	
SmI ₃	212.1	15.27	227.4	-	
EuI ₃	212.5	9.32	220.8	-	
GdI ₃	210.9	17.29	228.2	_	
TbI ₃	210.3	21.15	231.5	-	
DyI ₃	209.7	22.83	232.5	_	
HoI ₃	209.1	23.16	232.3	_	
ErI ₃	208.5	22.60	231.1	_	
TmI ₃	207.9	20.84	228.7	-	
YbI ₃	207.3	15.80	223.1	_	
LuI ₃	206.7	0.00	206.7	206.7	2

Table 6 The entropies of the solid lanthanide(III) bromides and iodides at 298.15 K. in $J \cdot K^{-1} \cdot mol^{-1}$

^aThe uncertainty for the standard entropies derived from the calorimetric measurements has not been given in some cases.

References

1. Deline et al. (1975)

2. Gavrichev et al. (1992)

agreement, with the exception of the lowest data point of the former authors. The hightemperature results also reasonably fit the low-temperature results by Lyon et al. (1978). The combined results have been fitted to a polynomial equation, applying as boundary conditions $\{H^{\circ}(T) - H^{\circ}(298.15 \text{ K})\} = 0$ at 298.15 K and C_p (298.15 K) = 90.29 J·K⁻¹·mol⁻¹, as followed from the low-temperature measurements. The coefficients of the polynomial are given in table 8. The data for the other trifluorides have been evaluated in a similar way, and the results are also listed in table 8. The values for C_p (298.15 K) of those compounds for which no

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compound	T/K	number of data points	References
LaF ₃	390–1831	33	1
	425–1477	23	2
CeF ₃	398-1799	19	3
	575-1373	9	4
	400-1899	20	5
PrF ₃	390-1831	30	1
	727–1243	6	4
NdF ₃	390-1831	31	1
	727–1324	9	4
SmF ₃	400–1887	23	5
EuF ₃	400-1252	?	5
GdF ₃	390-1831	27	1
-	576-1249	8	4
	400-1803	?	5
TbF ₃	400-1793	?	5
DyF ₃	577-1173	7	4
	400–1744	?	5
HoF ₃	390-1831	27	1
	432–1588	63	6
ErF ₃	400-1841	21	5
TmF ₃	400–1794	?	5
YbF3	577-1175	7	4
-	400-1731	?	5
LuF ₃	390-1831	30	1

 Table 7

 Summary of the enthalpy increment measurements for the lanthanide trifluorides

References

1. Spedding and Henderson (1971)

2. Lyon et al. (1978)

3. King and Christensen (1959)4. Charlu et al. (1970)

Spedding et al. (1974)
 Lyapunov et al. (2000)



Fig. 15. The reduced enthalpy increment of PrF_3 (in J·K⁻¹·mol⁻¹); \circ , Henderson (1970); \Box Charlu et al. (1970); \bullet , value at 298.15 K derived from the low-temperature heat capacity measurements of Lyon et al. (1979a).

low-temperature measurements have been reported are calculated from the sum of the lattice and excess contributions (eq. (1)).

For most compounds there is good agreement between the various data sets, although the results of Henderson (1970), Spedding and Henderson (1971), that were reported as poly-
			1	1 1			_	
compound		$C_{\rm p}(298.15~{\rm K})$	$C_{\rm p}^{\rm o}(T)/$	$J \cdot K^{-1} \cdot mol^{-1}$	=a+bT+	$-cT^2 + dT^3 + eT^{-2}$	T _{max}	$\Delta_{\rm trs} H^{\circ}$
		/kJ·mol ^{−1}	а	$b \times 10^3$	$c \times 10^6$	$d \times 10^9 e \times 10^{-6}$	/K	$/kJ \cdot mol^{-1}$
LaF ₃		90.29 ± 0.09	122.1188	-22.4674	-16.3094	28.1746 -2.17138	1766	
CeF ₃		93.47 ± 0.09	103.2577	-12.9896	24.6881	-0.72087	1703	
PrF ₃		92.65 ± 0.09	130.5994	-32.5026	18.1689	-2.65559	1670	
NdF ₃		92.42 ± 0.09	103.3867	1.66688	10.3935	-1.10117	1649	
PmF ₃		92.0						
SmF ₃	hex	91.7	169.0564	-7.6809		-4.84076	743	1.784
	orth		297.1925	-370.3989	189.2022		1571	
EuF ₃	hex	97.9	117.4275			-1.73589	973	8.714
	orth		150.6658				1549	
GdF ₃	hex	88.39 ± 0.09	102.3403	6.0945		-1.40162	1347	6.029
	orth		130.834				1501	
TbF ₃		90.5	97.5769	19.8845		-1.15610	1446	
DyF ₃		88.94 ± 0.09	91.2338	28.2118	-3.1553	-0.926687	1426	
HoF ₃		88.6	131.7639	-65.0032	44.2500	-2.46383	1416	
ErF ₃	orth	90.07 ± 0.09	121.3374	-30.3149	22.7317	-2.15564	1388	29.47
	hex		135.0177				1413	
TmF ₃	orth	90.8	115.6209	-17.1827	12.9143	-1.85306	1325	30.28
	hex		97.8638				1431	
YbF ₃	orth	89.4	103.7012	9.2366		-1.51608	1267	24.46
	hex		119.5369				1435	
LuF ₃	orth	87.07 ± 0.09	89.0368	19.2857		-0.68598	1230	25.07
	hex		121.7126				1455	

Table 8 Recommended high temperature heat capacity functions for the solid lanthanide trifluorides

nomial equations only, tend to deviate at low temperatures in several of their measurements. This is evident in their tables which show a minimum in C_p around 500–600 K in those cases (e.g., fig. 15). It is very likely caused by small errors which are amplified at low temperatures by the non-constrained fitting procedure they used. In these cases the lowest temperature results have been omitted from our polynomial fitting. Only for GdF₃ and HoF₃ the reported data are discordant. The results of Charlu et al. (1970), Spedding and Henderson (1971) and Spedding et al. (1974) for GdF₃ are significantly different. Since only the latter results agree well with the low-temperature heat capacity, they have been selected here. For HoF₃ the situation is less clear. The results of Spedding and Henderson (1971) and Lyapunov et al. (2000) agree reasonably at low temperature, but the difference systematically increases with increasing temperature. The reason for this is unclear. We have preferred the results of Spedding and Henderson (1971) as their measurements on the other lanthanide trifluorides have proved to be highly reliable.

In analogy with the approach that has been described in the section on the low-temperature heat capacity, the high-temperature heat capacity of the LnX_3 compounds can be described as the sum of the lattice and excess contributions (eq. (1)). However, whereas at low temperature the lattice heat capacity mainly arises from harmonic vibrations, at high temperatures the effects of anharmonicity of the vibrations, of thermal dilation of the lattice and of thermally

induced vacancies in the lattice heat capacity have to be taken into account:

$$C_{\text{lat}} = C_{\text{har}} + C_{\text{anh}} + C_{\text{dil}} + C_{\text{vac}}.$$
(9)

According to theory, the molar harmonic contribution approaches the limit of 3R per atom, which corresponds to 12R for MX_3 compounds. Figure 14 shows that the heat capacity of LaF₃ reaches this value around 900–1000 K but then increases strongly above 1100 K, an effect that is not seen very evident in any other lanthanide trifluoride (e.g., PrF₃ in fig. 15). Lyon et al. (1978) attributed this effect to the contribution of C_{vac} , and suggested that this contribution can amount to about 60 J·K⁻¹·mol⁻¹ near the melting point. An alternative/additional and more likely explanation can be found in the observations of Greis and Cader (1985) that the hexagonal/trigonal lanthanide trifluorides undergo a λ -type second order transition before melting, whose effect is strongest for LaF₃ and becomes much weaker going from CeF₃ to EuF₃.

4.2. LnCl3

The high-temperature heat capacity data for the lanthanide trichlorides are limited. Walden and Smith (1961) measured the enthalpy increment of CeCl₃, and Dworkin and Bredig (1971) determined the enthalpy increments of GdCl₃, TbCl₃, DyCl₃, and HoCl₃ by drop calorimetry. Gaune-Escard et al. (Gaune-Escard et al., 1996; Rycerz and Gaune-Escard, 2002a, 2002b) measured the heat capacity of a selected number of compounds by differential scanning calorimetry (DSC). Only in a some cases (CeCl₃, GdCl₃, DyCl₃) a comparison can be made between these studies and the agreement with the low-temperature heat capacity data checked. In fig. 16 the results for GdCl₃ are compared in a plot of the reduced enthalpy increment, which shows that the low-temperature data of Sommers and Westrum Jr. (1976) and the high-temperature data of Dworkin and Bredig (1971) are in excellent agreement. Also the results of Gaune-Escard et al. (1996) agree well, although they indicate a somewhat different slope of the curve. Figure 17 compares the results for LaCl₃ of Gaune-Escard et al. (1996) again with the low-temperature data of Sommers and Westrum Jr. (1977), but also with the DSC data by Reuter and Seifert (1994). For this compound the results of Gaune-Escard et al. (1996) are significantly lower than those of the other two studies, which agree very well.



Fig. 16. The reduced enthalpy increment of GdCl₃ (in J·K⁻¹·mol⁻¹); •, Sommers and Westrum Jr. (1977); \circ , Dworkin and Bredig (1971); broken line, Gaune-Escard et al. (1996).



Fig. 17. The reduced enthalpy increment of LaCl₃ (in $J \cdot K^{-1} \cdot mol^{-1}$); •, Sommers and Westrum Jr. (1976); •, Dworkin and Bredig (1963a); broken line (1), Gaune-Escard et al. (1996); broken line (2), Reuter and Seifert (1994).

Fig. 18. The excess heat capacity in $LnCl_3$ compounds; •, $CeCl_3$; •, $PrCl_3$; \blacktriangle , $NdCl_3$; \bigtriangleup , $PmCl_3$; \blacksquare , $SmCl_3$, \Box , $EuCl_3$.

It is important to note that the curves for LaCl₃ and GdCl₃, both of which do not have an electronic excess term due to the stable f^0 and f^7 electron configurations, are almost identical below 1000 K. This indicates that the lattice heat capacities in the hexagonal LnCl₃ compounds between these compounds hardly vary. We thus can obtain the high-temperature heat capacity by adding C_{exs} to the lattice curve of LaCl₃ or GdCl₃. C_{exs} is calculated from the known energy levels for these compounds, where not only the ground state energy levels but also the excited states are taken into account. The latter values are not shown in table 2, but can be found in the review by Morrison and Leavitt (1982). Figure 18 shows the variation of C_{exs} with temperature for the compounds CeCl₃ to EuCl₃. Figure 19 shows that the heat capacity of CeCl₃ thus obtained is in good agreement with the results of the enthalpy increment measurements by Walden and Smith (1961), whereas the heat capacity data reported by Gaune-Escard et al. (1996) are significantly lower. Similarly, fig. 20 shows that the calculated heat capacity of $PrCl_3$ is in much better agreement with the low-temperature data than the experimental results of Gaune-Escard et al. (1996). For the monoclinic lanthanide trichlorides for which no experimental data are available we have estimated the lattice heat capacity by subtracting C_{exs} from the values of DyCl₃.

The recommended heat capacity equations for the lanthanide trichlorides are listed in table 9.



Fig. 19. The reduced enthalpy increment of CeCl₃ (in J·K⁻¹·mol⁻¹); \Box , Walden and Smith (1961); •, estimated C_p (298.15 K); broken line, Gaune-Escard et al. (1996); solid line, calculated from C_{lat} and $C_{\text{exs.}}$.

Fig. 20. The reduced enthalpy increment of $PrCl_3$ (in J·K⁻¹·mol⁻¹); •, Sommers and Westrum Jr. (1976); •, Dworkin and Bredig (1963a); broken line, Gaune-Escard et al. (1996); solid line, calculated from C_{lat} and C_{exs} .

4.3. LnBr₃ and LnI₃

Dworkin and Bredig (1971) measured the enthalpy increments of the lanthanide tribromides CeBr₃, NdBr₃, GdBr₃ and HoBr₃ and triiodides LaI₃, NdI₃, GdI₃ and TbI₃ by dropcalorimetry. The heat capacity of LaBr₃ was measured by Rycerz and Gaune-Escard (1999a), that of TmI₃ by Gardner and Preston (1991) using differential scanning calorimetry. Lowtemperature data have not been reported for these compounds. As mentioned above, such data are only available for EuBr₃ and LuI₃. We have fitted the experimental enthalpy data to polynomial equations in the usual way, using estimated C_p (298.15 K) values as constraint. The latter were deduced from the low-temperature measurements by assuming a slight change in the lattice component along the series, as was observed for the trifluorides and trichlorides. This approach was preferred to a non-constrained fitting procedure as this normally results in too high C_p (298.15 K) values. For example, the unconstrained fit of CeBr₃ results in C_p (298.15 K) = 105.1 J·K⁻¹·mol⁻¹, whereas the estimated value is 101.9 J·K⁻¹·mol⁻¹.

The heat capacities for the other compounds were derived using the estimation procedure described for the trichlorides, i.e., from the lattice and excess contributions. The former was derived from the enthalpy measurements, the latter from the crystal field energies. As the crystal energies of the tribromides and triiodides are poorly known, we have used the values for the trichlorides to approximate C_{exs} . The results thus obtained are listed in tables 10 and 11. The calculated data for TmI₃ agree within 2% with the DSC results of Gardner and Preston (1991).

compound		Ср(298.15 К)	$C_{\rm p}^{\rm o}(T)/{\rm J}$	$\cdot K^{-1} \cdot mol^{-1}$	=a+bT	$+ cT^{2} + a$	$T^3 + eT^{-2}$	T _{max}	$\Delta_{\rm trs} H^{\circ}$
		$/J{\cdot}K^{-1}{\cdot}mol^{-1}$	а	$b \times 10^3$	$c\times 10^6$	$d \times 10^9$	$e \times 10^{-6}$	/K	$/kJ \cdot mol^{-1}$
LaCl ₃		98.03	74.9288	51.6544			0.68452	1133	
CeCl ₃		98.6	90.9772	35.8123			-0.27153	1090	
PrCl ₃		98.95	85.6511	39.5240			0.13465	1060	
NdCl ₃		99.24	87.2834	38.5855			0.04021	1032	
PmCl ₃		99.6							
SmCl ₃		99.54	95.3748	33.4442			0.56135	950	
EuCl ₃		106.98	100.9736	30.0922			-0.26362	894	
GdCl ₃		97.78	88.7959	31.4441			-0.03475	875	
TbCl ₃	orth	97.8	86.2920	38.5982				783	18.68
	?		123.930					855	
DyCl ₃		100.5	104.5279	-27.0190	45.3111			924	
HoCl ₃		101.9	100.3820	5.0913				993	
ErCl ₃		99.78	101.4247	-16.3266	36.2574			1049	
TmCl ₃		100.0	102.0423	-17.9564	37.2518			1095	
YbCl ₃		101.4	104.8985	-23.8396	40.6023			1138	
LuCl ₃		96.62	98.3259	-17.9501	41.0146			1198	

 Table 9

 High temperature heat capacity functions for the solid lanthanide trichlorides

Table 10 High temperature heat capacity functions for the solid lanthanide tribromides

compound	Ср(298.15 К)	$C_{\rm p}^{\rm o}(T)/{\rm J}$	$\cdot K^{-1} \cdot mol^{-1}$	1 = a + bT	$+ cT^{2} + dT^{2}$	$T^3 + eT^{-2}$	T _{max}	$\Delta_{\rm trs} H^{\circ}$
	$/J \cdot K^{-1} \cdot mol^{-1}$	а	$b \times 10^3$	$c \times 10^6$	$d \times 10^9$	$e \times 10^{-6}$	/K	/kJ·mol ⁻¹
LaBr ₃	101.6	97.4736	17.9256			-0.10828	1061	
CeBr ₃	101.9	89.7173	31.6041			0.24534	1005	
PrBr3	102.3	93.6869	26.6878			-0.05833	965	
NdBr ₃	103.1	81.7525	42.7393			0.76491	955	
PmBr ₃	103.0							
SmBr ₃	103.1	103.2523	20.7015			-0.56223	913	
EuBr ₃	110.62 ± 0.11	100.8207	18.5433			0.37963	978	
GdBr ₃	100.2	93.8256	14.2533			0.18888	1043	
TbBr ₃	100.5	90.1490	22.3082			0.32889	1102	
DyBr ₃	100.4	92.3542	16.8413			0.26887	1152	
HoBr ₃	100.7	95.5581	15.5998			0.04363	1192	
ErBr ₃	100.7	94.3588	13.7789			0.19850	1196	
TmBr ₃	100.7	94.4929	13.6251			0.19066	1228	
YbBr ₃	101.8	96.5726	11.6884			0.15489	1250 ^a	
LuBr ₃	99.5	95.8694	12.1770				1298	

^aDecomposes before melting.

5. Enthalpy of formation of the solid trihalides

5.1. LnF₃

Three different methods have been used to determine the enthalpies of formation of the lanthanide trifluorides: fluorine combustion calorimetry, precipitation calorimetry and galvanic

		e i	1						
compound		Ср(298.15 К)	$C_{\rm p}^{\circ}(T)/{\rm J}$	$\cdot K^{-1} \cdot mol^{-1}$	= a + bT	$+ cT^{2} + c$	$lT^3 + eT^{-2}$	T _{max}	$\Delta_{\rm trs} H^{\circ}$
		$/J \cdot K^{-1} \cdot mol^{-1}$	а	$b \times 10^3$	$c \times 10^6$	$d \times 10^9$	$e \times 10^{-6}$	/K	$/kJ \cdot mol^{-1}$
LaI3		102.5	90.1970	27.5096			0.36456	1045	
CeI ₃		102.9	86.8928	35.1439			0.49150	1033	
PrI ₃		103.3	87.7509	34.7680			0.46074	1011	
NdI ₃	orth	104.1	103.6598	-19.9550	52.6734		0.15179	859	13.53
	hex?		120.450					1059	
PmI ₃		104.5							
SmI ₃		104.1	100.9741	16.8259			-0.16808	1123	
EuI ₃		111.6	106.0620	14.0032			0.12116	1100 ^a	
GdI3	hex	102.0	96.1164	13.1558			0.17434	1013	0.493
	hex?		128.189					1204	
TbI ₃	hex	102.3	89.3082	27.8840			0.41585	1080	1.15
	hex?		124.334					1229	
DyI ₃		102.3	95.8785	14.3586			0.19028	1251	
HoI ₃		102.6	97.1180	12.2577			0.16244	1267	
ErI ₃		102.7	97.4364	11.7695			0.15597	1288	
TmI ₃		102.8	97.6703	11.4701			0.15200	1294	
YbI3		103.9	99.5694	9.6833			0.12832	1300 ^a	
LuI ₃		101.7 ± 0.3	95.6752	13.5944			0.17526	1323	

Table 11 High temperature heat capacity functions for the solid lanthanide triiodides

^aDecomposes before melting.

cell studies. Combustion calorimetry is the most reliable of these three, though it is very sensitive to impurities in the starting metals. It has been applied for most of the lanthanide trifluorides and the results originate essentially from two laboratories, Argonne National Laboratory (ANL) in the USA and Kyoto University in Japan. Unfortunately the agreement between these two laboratories is variable for those cases where a comparison of the results can be made. For GdF₃ and HoF₃ the results agree very well, but for ErF₃ they differ by $\sim 25 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$, and for NdF₃ by $\sim 19 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$, which is well beyond the possible contribution of impurities.

The precipitation measurements of the equilibrium:

 $Ln^{3+}(aq) + 3F^{-}(aq) = LnF_3(cr)$

are generally hindered by insufficient knowledge of the precipitated phase, which can be amorphous instead of crystalline. The EMF measurements are in principle very accurate but unwanted electrode reactions may affect the results. Tables B.1 to B.14 of Appendix B summarise the data collected and reviewed for the lanthanide fluorides and show that the agreement between the three techniques is indeed poor.

Several methods have been proposed to check and correlate the data for the LnF_3 compounds. A semi-empirical method was proposed by Kim and Johnson (1981) who used the Born–Landé equation to estimate the lattice energy U_{lat} :

$$U_{\text{lat}} = N_{\text{A}} Z_1 Z_2 e^2 A (1 - 1/n) / r_0, \tag{10}$$



Fig. 21. The enthalpy of formation of the lanthanide trifluorides as a function of the atomic number. • and □ indicate the experimental results from fluorine combustion studies at ANL and Kyoto University, respectively; the broken curve shows the estimated values using the Born–Landé equation (Kim and Johnson, 1981); the solid curve shows the values estimated values in this study (•).

where N_A is the Avogadro's constant, Z_1 and Z_2 are the oxidation numbers of the ions, *e* is the charge of a proton, *A* is the Madelung constant, *n* is the Born exponent and r_0 is the characteristic distance of the lattice. The values that were thus obtained agree well with those derived from a Born–Haber cycle using the experimentally determined $\Delta_f H^\circ$ (298.15 K) values. Thus the calculated U_{lat} values could be used to obtain the enthalpies of formation of those trifluorides for which no or no reliable data are available. They are compared to the experimental fluorine combustion results in fig. 21, which shows good agreement for the ANL results, but not for the majority of the results of the Kyoto University.

The trend of the $\Delta_f H^\circ$ along the LnF_3 shows little variation, with the exception of the values for EuF₃ and YbF₃ which are significantly less negative. This can be understood by looking at the Born–Haber cycle for the LnX_3 compounds (fig. 22). Because Eu and Yb are divalent elements whereas the others are trivalent, the ionisation step to form Ln^{3+} in the cycle is different for these two elements as the stable 4f⁷ and 4f¹⁴ configurations have to be broken up to form the 4f⁶ and 4f¹³ configurations (Gschneidner Jr., 1969). To eliminate this effect, Morss (1976) and Fuger et al. (1983) proposed to use the quantity

$$\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}(LnX_3, {\rm cr}, 298.15 \,{\rm K}) - \Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}(Ln^{3+}, {\rm aq}, 298.15 \,{\rm K})$$
 (11)

to analyse the data for lanthanide compounds. They correlated this quantity with molar volume or ionic radius for the lanthanide and actinide trihalides. The relation with ionic radius is shown in fig. 23, using the enthalpies of formation of the aqueous ions from Cordfunke and Konings (2001a). It can be seen that the ANL results indicate two straight lines for the two crystallographic modifications (as is the case for the lanthanide trichlorides, tribromides and triiodides). The results of the Kyoto University (not shown in this figure) are widely scattered, whereas the values calculated by Kim and Johnson (1981) from the Born–Landé equation approximately agree with the trend, with strongly deviating values for SmF₃, DyF₃ and YbF₃. On the basis of these considerations we have based our recommended values (table 12) on the fluorine combustion data from ANL only, and have estimated the values for those compounds for which no data are available by inter- and extrapolation of the linear trends shown in fig. 23.



Fig. 22. The Born-Haber cycle for the lanthanide trihalides.



Fig. 23. The quantity $\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}(LnF_3, {\rm cr}) - \Delta_{\rm f} H(Ln^{3+}, {\rm aq})$ as a function of the ionic radius (coordination number 6); \oplus , hexagonal and \circ orthorhombic structure.

5.2. LnCl₃, LnBr₃ and LnI₃

A careful review of all experimental data for the lanthanide chlorides, bromides and iodides, mainly made by solution calorimetry, has been made by Cordfunke and Konings (2001b) recently, who evaluated data from the literature between 1940 and 2000. The tables of this work are reproduced in Appendix B, corrected for some small errors. The present section summarises the justification of the selected values.

Two thermochemical reaction schemes are generally used to derive the enthalpies of formation of these compounds. The first is based on the dissolution of the lanthanide metal as well

	F	Cl	Br	Ι
La	-1699.5 ± 2.0	-1071.6 ± 1.5	-904.4 ± 1.5	-673.9 ± 2.0
Ce	-1689.2 ± 5.0	-1059.7 ± 1.5	-891.2 ± 1.5	-666.8 ± 3.0
Pr	-1689.1 ± 2.6	-1058.6 ± 1.5	-890.5 ± 4.0	-664.7 ± 5.0
Nd	-1679.4 ± 1.9	-1040.9 ± 1.0	-864.0 ± 3.0	-639.2 ± 4.0
Pm	-1675 ± 20	-1030 ± 10	-858 ± 10	-634 ± 10
Sm	-1700.7 ± 5.0	-1025.3 ± 2.0	-853.4 ± 3.0	-621.5 ± 4.0
Eu	-1611.5 ± 5.0	-935.4 ± 3.0	-759 ± 10	-538 ± 10
Gd	-1699.3 ± 2.3	-1018.2 ± 1.5	-838.2 ± 2.0	-624.1 ± 3.0
Tb	-1695.9 ± 5.0	-1010.6 ± 3.0	-843.5 ± 3.0	-623.8 ± 3.0
Dy	-1692.0 ± 1.9	-993.1 ± 3.0	-834.3 ± 2.5	-616.7 ± 3.0
Ho	-1697.8 ± 2.3	-997.7 ± 2.5	-842.1 ± 3.0	-622.9 ± 3.0
Er	-1693.6 ± 1.9	-994.4 ± 2.0	-837.1 ± 3.0	-619.0 ± 3.0
Tm	-1693.7 ± 5.0	-996.3 ± 2.5	-832 ± 10	-619.7 ± 3.5
Yb	-1655.1 ± 5.0	-959.5 ± 3.0	-791.9 ± 2.0	-578 ± 10
Lu	-1679.9 ± 5.0	-987.1 ± 2.5	-814 ± 10	-605.1 ± 2.2

Table 12 Selected enthalpies of formation of the solid lanthanide trihalides, in kJ·mol⁻¹

as the lanthanide trihalide in hydrogen-saturated hydrochloric acid HCl(sln). The reaction scheme for the lanthanide trichlorides looks as follows:

$Ln(cr) + 3HCl(sln) = LnCl_3(sln) + \frac{3}{2}H_2(g)$	$\Delta_{\rm r} H_1^{\circ}$
$LnCl_3(cr) + 3HCl(sln) = LnCl_3(sln) + 3HCl(sln)$	$\Delta_{\rm r} H_2^{\rm o}$
$\frac{3}{2}H_2(g) + \frac{3}{2}Cl_2(g) = 3HCl(sln)$	$\Delta_{\rm r} H_3^{\circ}$
$Ln(cr) + \frac{3}{2}Cl_2(g) = LnCl_3(cr)$	$\Delta_{\rm r} H_4^{\circ}$

The standard molar enthalpy of formation of $LnCl_3(cr)$ equals to $\Delta_r H_4^\circ$, and can be calculated as:

$$\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}(Ln \operatorname{Cl}_3, \operatorname{cr}, 298.15 \,\mathrm{K}) = \Delta_{\rm r} H_1^{\circ} - \Delta_{\rm r} H_2^{\circ} + \Delta_{\rm r} H_3^{\circ}.$$
(12)

The value $\Delta_r H_3^\circ$ is the partial molar enthalpy of formation of HCl(sln) at the concentration given, and is calculated from the enthalpy of formation of the infinitely dilute acid (Cox et al., 1989), the enthalpy of formation of the HCl solutions (Parker et al., 1976) and the densities of the HCl solution at 298.15 K (Söhnel and Novotný, 1985), neglecting the influence of the lanthanide ion.

The second scheme involves the enthalpy of solution of the lanthanide sesquioxide and the lanthanide trihalide:

$Ln(cr) + \frac{3}{4}O_2(g) = \frac{1}{2}Ln_2O_3(cr)$	$\Delta_{\rm r} H_5^{\circ}$
$\frac{1}{2}Ln_2O_3(\operatorname{cr}) + 3HC\overline{l(sln)} = LnX_3(sln) + \frac{3}{2}H_2O(sln)$	$\Delta_{\rm r} H_6^{\circ}$
$LnCl_3(cr) + (sln) = LnCl_3(sln)$	$\Delta_{\rm r} H_2^{\circ}$
$\frac{3}{2}H_2(g) + \frac{3}{2}Cl_2(g) = 3HCl(sln)$	$\Delta_{\rm r} H_3^{\rm o}$
$\frac{3}{2}H_2(g) + \frac{3}{4}O_2(g) = \frac{3}{2}H_2O(sln)$	$\Delta_{ m r} H_7^{\circ}$
$Ln(cr) + \frac{3}{2}Cl_2(g) = LnCl_3(cr)$	$\Delta_{\rm r} H_4^{\circ}$

For this reaction sequence:

$$\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}(Ln \operatorname{Cl}_3, \operatorname{cr}, 298.15 \,\mathrm{K}) = \Delta_{\rm r} H^{\circ}_5 + \Delta_{\rm r} H^{\circ}_6 + \Delta_{\rm r} H^{\circ}_3 - \Delta_{\rm r} H^{\circ}_7 - \Delta_{\rm r} H^{\circ}_2,$$

where $\Delta_r H_7^{\circ}$ is the partial enthalpy of formation of H₂O(sln) in hydrochloric acid. Only in case the enthalpy of formation of the sesquioxide is based on the combustion of the lanthanide metal, the two schemes are really independent.

For the calculation of the enthalpies of formation of the tribromides and triiodides, the same reaction cycles were used as for the trichlorides. However, as the halide ion in the compounds are different from those in the solution (e.g., LnI_3 in HCl(aq)) the calculation of $\Delta_r H_3^\circ$ becomes a bit more complex as we have to deal with the ternary system H₂O–HCl–HX. In that case, it is assumed that the apparent enthalpy of formation of HI and HBr in HCl solutions are the same as in HBr and HI solutions of the same molality.

The results derived in this way by Cordfunke and Konings (2001b) are listed in tables B.1 to B.14 of Appendix B, the recommended values are given in table 12. For the trichlorides several studies have been reported for each compound, except, of course, PmCl₃. The results quite well agree after recalculation, often with more recent enthalpies of solution of the metals. This is especially true for the results derived from the early measurements by Bomer and Hohmann (1941a, 1941b) which generally deviate significantly when the original value for the enthalpy of solution of the metal is used. This has been explained by the fact that the metals probably contained large fraction impurities, especially of potassium (Spedding and Miller, 1952). For the tribromides and triiodides the situation is less good. Often the number of studies is limited (e.g., for PrI₃ and SmI₃ only the measurements by Bommer and Hohmann (1941b)) or no measurements have been made (EuBr₃, EuI₃, TmBr₃, YbI₃ and LuBr₃, in addition to PmBr₃ and PmI₃).

In general one can conclude that the enthalpies of solution of the metals form the major source of uncertainty. Cordfunke and Konings (2001b) tried to overcome this by combining results from different sources and by inter- or extrapolation values as a function of the molarity, which was possible in some cases because accurate determinations of the enthalpy of solution as a function of molarity were performed by Merli et al. (1998). But in some cases (e.g., the cerium trihalides) the analysis heavily relies almost completely on a single measurement.

The variation of the enthalpies of formation of the trichlorides, tribromides and triiodides are shown in fig. 24. The general patterns is the same as observed for the trifluorides. Also for the trichlorides, tribromides and triiodides the variation of the quantity $\{\Delta_f H^{\circ}(LnX_3, cr, 298.15 \text{ K}) - \Delta_f H^{\circ}(Ln^{3+}, aq, 298.15 \text{ K})\}$ with the ionic radius has been examined, as shown in figs. 25 to 27. The results for the trichlorides clearly show a difference between the two crystallographic modifications, but for the tribromides and triiodides a difference is not very evident. The trends shown in figs. 25 to 27 have been used to estimate the enthalpies of formation of those compounds for which no or no reliable experimental data are available.



Fig. 24. The enthalpy of formation of the lanthanide trichlorides, tribromides and triiodides as a function of the atomic number. Estimated values are indicated by closed symbols.

Fig. 25. The quantity $\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}(Ln {\rm Cl}_3, {\rm cr}) - \Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}(Ln^{3+}, {\rm aq})$ as a function of the ionic radius (coordination number 6); \Box , monoclinic and \circ hexagonal structure.

6. Heat capacity of the liquid trihalides

6.1. *LnF*₃

The essential thermodynamic quantity for the liquid trihalides is the heat capacity, which in combination with the data for the solid phase gives the enthalpy/entropy of fusion. With these two quantities the Gibbs energy of the liquid phase can be calculated and extrapolated to the super-cooled state, if needed.

The enthalpy increment of the lanthanide trifluorides in the liquid phase has been measured for most compounds (see table 7). The heat capacity has been derived from these results by fitting them to a 2-term equation $\{H^{\circ}(T) - H^{\circ}(298.15 \text{ K})\} = a(T/\text{K}) + b$. In



Fig. 26. The quantity $\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}(Ln {\rm Br}_3, {\rm cr}) - \Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}(Ln^{3+}, {\rm aq})$ as a function of the ionic radius (coordination number 6); O hexagonal, \oplus , orthorhombic and \odot rhombohedral structure.

Fig. 27. The quantity $\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}(Ln I_3, cr) - \Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}(Ln^{3+}, aq)$ as a function of the ionic radius (coordination number 6); \oplus , orthorhombic and \odot rhombohedral structure.

most cases a single set of data by Spedding and coworkers (Spedding and Henderson, 1971; Spedding et al., 1974) is available; only for CeF₃ and HoF₃ other measurements have been reported. For CeF₃ the results of King and Christensen (1959) and Spedding et al. (1974) are in excellent agreement, for HoF₃ the results of Spedding and Henderson (1971) and Lyapunov et al. (2000) disagree up to 6%. We have preferred the results of Spedding and Henderson (1971) for reasons given earlier.



Fig. 28. The heat capacity of the liquid lanthanide trihalides.

Figure 28 shows the trend in the heat capacity of the lanthanide trifluorides. The irregular pattern indicates a large excess term for the compounds with a partially filled lanthanide ion f-shell, suggesting that this is of an electronic nature, which is consistent with the strong ionic nature of these liquids. Not shown in fig. 28 is the value for LaF₃ derived from the experimental results. It is unrealistically high: 330.07 J·K⁻¹·mol⁻¹. This is probably due to the fact that the experiments only cover a small temperature range (60 K) in which a post-melting effect cannot be excluded, especially in combination with the anomalous rapid increase already noted for the solid phase. Figure 28 shows that the trend in the lanthanide fluorides (and other trihalides) suggests a value of about 135 J·K⁻¹·mol⁻¹ for LaF₃.

The enthalpies of fusion that have been derived from the enthalpy increment equations for the solid and liquid phase are listed in table 13 and the derived entropies of fusion are plotted in fig. 29. It can be seen that the enthalpies and entropies of fusion for ErF_3 to LuF_3 are significantly lower than those of the other lanthanide trifluorides. Because these four compounds

compound	T _{fus}	$\Delta_{\text{fus}} H^{\circ}$	$\Delta_{\text{fus}}S^{\circ}$	$\Delta V/V_{\rm cr}^{\rm a}$	$C_{p}(liq)$
-	/K	/kJ·mol ^{−1}	$/J \cdot K^{-1} \cdot mol^{-1}$	/%	$/J \cdot K^{-1} \cdot mol^{-1}$
LaF ₃	1766	55.87	31.51	29.14	135 ^b
CeF ₃	1703	56.52	33.19	32.92	130.61 ^{b,c}
PrF ₃	1670	57.28	34.30	29.13	130.76 ^b
NdF ₃	1649	54.75	33.20	30.78	172.82 ^b
PmF ₃	1605	53.4	33.3		160
SmF3	1571	52.43	33.37	25.58	148.94 ^d
EuF ₃	1549	52.9	34.2		130
GdF ₃	1501	52.44	34.94	25.81	115.20 ^b
TbF ₃	1446	58.44	40.41		151.91 ^d
DyF ₃	1426	58.42	40.97	25.35	156.92 ^d
HoF ₃	1416	56.77	40.09	26.57	135.02 ^b
ErF ₃	1413	27.51	19.47	28.37	146.83 ^d
TmF ₃	1431	28.90	20.20		140.32 ^d
YbF ₃	1435	29.74	20.73	29.99	121.70 ^d
LuF ₃	1455	29.27	20.12	31.95	126.94 ^b

Table 13 Enthalpy of fusion and heat capacity of the liquid phase for the lanthanide trifluorides

 ${}^{a}\Delta V = V_{liq} - V_{cr}$ where V_{liq} is the volume of the liquid phase at the melting point and V_{cr} the volume of the solid phase at room temperature. Data are taken from Kishenbaum and Cahill (1960), Kishenbaum and Cahill (1962) and Khairulin et al. (2000).

^bSpedding et al. (1974).

^cKing and Christensen (1959).

^dSpedding and Henderson (1971).



Fig. 29. The entropies of fusion (\circ) and the sum of the transition and fusion entropies (\bullet) of the *Ln*F₃ compounds.

undergo an orthorhombic to hexagonal transformation before melting, the sum of the transition and fusion entropies are plotted also. This quantity shows a steady but small increase along the lanthanide trihalide series, from which the enthalpies of fusion of PmF_3 and EuF_3 have been estimated.

6.2. LnCl₃

For the liquid lanthanide trihalides data from enthalpy-increment measurements and heat capacity (DSC) measurements are available, as summarised in table C.1 of Appendix C, the recommended values are given in table 14. The majority of the results have been reported by two

THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES OF THE LANTHANIDE(III) HALIDES

compound	T _{fus}	$\Delta_{\rm fus} H^{\circ}$	$\Delta_{\text{fus}} S^{\circ}$	$\Delta V/V_{\rm cr}^{\rm a}$	$C_{\rm p}({\rm liq})$
•	/K	/kJ·mol ⁻¹	$/J \cdot K^{-1} \cdot mol^{-1}$	/%	$/J \cdot K^{-1} \cdot mol^{-1}$
LaCl ₃	1133	55.0 ^b	48.54	19.1	157.7 ^b
CeCl ₃	1090	53.6 ^c	49.17	18.0	161.05 ^c
PrCl ₃	1060	49.9 ^b	47.12	21.0	155.3 ^b
NdCl ₃	1032	49.2 ^b	47.67	21.8	149.5 ^b
PmCl ₃	994	48.7	49		147
SmCl ₃	950	47.6	50.1	24.5	144.4 ^d
EuCl ₃	894	45.0	50.3		142
GdCl ₃	875	40.6 ^b	46.40	26.4	139.7 ^b
TbCl3	855	19.5 ^b	22.80	21.0	144.47 ^b
DyCl ₃	924	25.5 ^b	27.75	0.3	144.77 ^b
HoCl ₃	993	32.6 ^b	32.83	1.3	148.67 ^b
ErCl ₃	1049	32.6 ^d	31.08	4.9	141.00 ^b
TmCl ₃	1095	35.6 ^d	32.51		141
YbCl ₃	1138	37.6	33		140
LuCl ₃	1198	39.5	33		141

 Table 14

 Enthalpy of fusion and heat capacity of the liquid phase for the lanthanide trichlorides

^aData taken from Iwadate et al. (1995) and Wasse and Salmon (1999b).

^bDworkin and Bredig (1963a, 1963b, 1971).

^cWalden and Smith (1961).

^dGaune-Escard et al. (1994, 1996).

different research groups: Dworkin and Bredig (1963a, 1963b, 1971) using drop calorimetry and Gaune-Escard et al. (Gaune-Escard et al., 1996; Rycerz and Gaune-Escard, 2002a, 2002b) using differential scanning calorimetry. The early results of Dworkin and Bredig (1963a, 1963b) were reported without details and could not be recalculated, in contrast to the later results. In general, the reliability of the results of both studies is limited since the measurements cover small temperature ranges. For NdCl₃ and GdCl₃ the studied temperature range is larger than 50 K, and the agreement is excellent; for PrCl₃ and DyCl₃ it is less than 25 K for the DSC measurement and the agreement is poor.

The trend in the heat capacity of the lanthanide trichlorides is shown in fig. 28. It is clear that the variation in the values is much less pronounced than in case of the trifluorides, the (apparent) electronic excess term being small. This suggests that the structure of the liquid trichlorides is different, i.e., less ionic. The structure of the liquid trichlorides has been studied extensively in recent years (Iwadate et al., 1995; Wasse and Salmon, 1999a, 1999b; Hutchinson et al., 1999; Wasse et al., 2000) by X-ray and neutron diffraction. The results of these studies indeed show that intermediate range order exists in the liquid trichlorides through the formation of molecular species of the type $LnCl_n^{3-n}$ and eventually $Ln_2Cl_n^{6-n}$, yielding a loose ionic network. With decreasing cation size from La to Lu, the ionic character of the liquid trichlorides along the lanthanide series (Wasse and Salmon, 1999a).

As is shown in fig. 30 the variation in $C_p(\text{liq})$ of the hexagonal trichlorides can be correlated to the volume change between the solid (at room temperature) and the liquid: the heat



Fig. 30. The heat capacity of liquid lanthanide trichlorides as a function of the volume change $\Delta V/V_{cr}$.



Fig. 31. The entropies of fusion of the *Ln*Cl₃ compounds.

capacity is low when the volume change is large, indicating that part of the variation in $C_p(liq)$ arises from variation in C_{lat} . Thus the heat capacity of SmCl₃ is estimated from the known ΔV , that of PmCl₃ and EuCl₃ is interpolated. For the monoclinic trichlorides DyCl₃, HoCl₃ and ErCl₃ the volume change is quite small, which is due to the fact that these compounds undergo a solid-solid transformation before melting. The values for these compounds have been estimated from the trend suggested in fig. 28.

The entropies of fusion almost constant in the hexagonal $LnCl_3$ series LaCl₃–GdCl₃, as shown in fig. 31. From this trend we estimate $\Delta_{fus}S^\circ = 47 \text{ J}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ for PmCl₃ and SmCl₃. In the series TbCl₃ to TmCl₃ the entropy of fusion increases towards a constant value $\Delta_{fus}S^\circ = 33 \text{ J}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$ which we have taken for YbCl₃ and LuCl₃. This observation is not in agreement with the experimental DTA data by Goryushkin et al. (1990) who observed a steady increase from TbCl₃ to LuCl₃. We consider their data, however, not accurate enough.

6.3. LnBr₃ and LnI₃

There are only a few measurements of the heat capacity of the liquid tribromides and triiodides and most of them have been made by Dworkin and Bredig (1963a, 1963b, 1971) using drop calorimetry. Rycerz and Gaune-Escard (1999a) measured the heat capacity of LaBr₃(l)

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compound	$T_{\rm fus}$	$\Delta_{\rm fus} H^{\circ}$	$\Delta_{fus} S^{\circ}$	$\Delta V / V_{\rm cr}^{\rm a}$	$C_{\rm p}({\rm liq})$
	/K	/kJ·mol ^{−1}	$/J \cdot K^{-1} \cdot mol^{-1}$	/%	$/J \cdot K^{-1} \cdot mol^{-1}$
LaBr ₃	1061	54.39 ^a	51.26		144.3 ^a
CeBr ₃	1005	51.88 ^a	51.62		149
PrBr3	965	47.28 ^a	48.94		154.8 ^a
NdBr ₃	955	45.61 ^a	47.76		154.92 ^a
PmBr ₃	930	48.6	52		155
SmBr ₃	913	47.5	52		149
EuBr ₃	978	50.9	52		144
GdBr3	1043	38.07	35.98		139.46 ^a
TbBr ₃	1102	41.9	38		144
DyBr ₃	1152	46.4 ^b	40.31		149
HoBr ₃	1192	50.21 ^a	41.98		149
ErBr ₃	1196	50.2	42		149
TmBr ₃	1228	51.6	42		149
YbBr3 ^c					
LuBr ₃	1298	51.8	42		144
LaI ₃	1045	55.45 ^a	53.26		151.77 ^a
CeI ₃	1033	51.88 ^a	50.22		155
PrI ₃	1011	53.14 ^a	52.56		155
NdI ₃	1059	40.94 ^a	38.66		155.74 ^a
PmI ₃	1090	43.6	40		155
SmI ₃	1123	47.2	42		155
EuI ₃ ^c					
GdI ₃	1204	53.97 ^a	44.83		155.85 ^a
TbI ₃	1229	57.48 ^a	46.77		157.50 ^a
DyI ₃	1251	56.5 ^b	45.16		155
HoI ₃	1267	57.0	45		155
ErI ₃	1288	58.0	45		155
TmI ₃	1294	58.2	45		155
YbI3 ^c					
LuI ₃	1323	59.5	45		155

Table 15			
law of fusion and heat conceity of the liquid phase for the lotthenide.	tuihuo mi doo	and triindide	

^aDworkin and Bredig (1963b, 1971).

^bCordfunke and Booij (1997).

Enthe

^cDecomposes before melting.

in a very limited temperature range (1070–1090 K), obtaining a somewhat different value (151.12 J·K⁻¹·mol⁻¹). The results (fig. 28) show that the variation in $C_p(\text{liq})$ along the lanthanide series becomes less prominent going from F to I, indicating that the character becomes increasingly less ionic and more molecular. The heat capacity of the liquid tribromides have therefore been assumed to show a slight trend, those of the triiodides to be approximately constant (table 15).

The enthalpies of fusion of some hexagonal tribromides and orthorhombic triiodides have been measured by drop calorimetry (Dworkin and Bredig, 1963a, 1971). The en-

tropies of fusion derived from these values is about 50 $J \cdot K^{-1} \cdot mol^{-1}$ for the first group, and 52 $J \cdot K^{-1} \cdot mol^{-1}$ for the second, except for NdI₃. This compound, however, undergoes a solid state transition, as discussed before, and the sum of the entropies of transition and fusion is close (54 $J \cdot K^{-1} \cdot mol^{-1}$). For the orthorhombic tribromides no experimental data are available, and we have assumed the entropy of fusion to be close to that of the isostructural triiodides. The few data for the hexagonal/rhombohedral tribromides suggest an increase with increasing atomic number, whereas the few data for the hexagonal/rhombohedral triiodides suggest a constant value. This may be an indication that the high temperature phase behaviour for GdBr₃ and TbBr₃ is more complex. It should be noted that Goryushkin and coworkers (Goryushkin and Poshevneva, 1992, 1996; Goryushkin et al., 1999; Poshevneva et al., 2002) reported enthalpies and entropies of fusion of LuI₃, HoI₃, ErI₃, and SmI₃ that are very different ($\Delta_{fus}S^{\circ} = 22.6 \pm 3.0 J \cdot K^{-1} \cdot mol^{-1}$ for SmI₃, 18 ± 4 J · K⁻¹ · mol⁻¹ for HoI₃, 23 ± 2 J · K⁻¹ · mol⁻¹ for ErI₃ and 82 ± 20 J · K⁻¹ · mol⁻¹ for LuI₃). But since the results for the trichlorides by the same authors are in poor agreement with other experimental determinations, they have not been considered for the recommended values.

7. Heat capacity of the gaseous trihalides

7.1. LnX₃ monomers

The thermodynamic functions of the gaseous lanthanide trihalides have been calculated using standard statistical thermodynamic methods which relate the functions C_p , S, and H to the molecular partition function Q (Lewis et al., 1961):

$$Q = \sum_{i} g_i e^{-\varepsilon_i/kT},\tag{13}$$

where ε_i is the energy of state *i*, which has a statistical weight (degeneracy) g_i , *k* is the Boltzmann constant and *T* is the absolute temperature. Using the Bohr–Oppenheimer approximation, the energy can be described as the sum of the translational and the internal energies, the latter being the sum of the electronic, rotational and vibrational contributions. The total partition function thus becomes the product of the individual ones:

$$Q = q_{\rm trs} \cdot q_{\rm elec} \cdot q_{\rm vib} \cdot q_{\rm rot}.$$
(14)

The calculation of thermodynamic functions thus requires accurate knowledge of the molecular geometry, the electronic and vibrational energy levels of the gaseous molecules. The electronic levels of the gaseous LnX_3 molecules have not been determined experimentally, but are estimated from those of the Ln^{3+} ions measured in the crystal phase (Myers and Graves, 1977a). For the molecular geometry and vibrational properties experimental data are available, though incomplete for the whole LnX_3 family. For that reason the experimental data were extended by empirical estimates (Myers and Graves, 1977a) or by results from quantum chemical computations (Joubert et al., 1998) in previous thermodynamic compilations. In this section we will discuss the structural and vibrational properties to derive a consistent set of



Fig. 32. The bond length of the lanthanide trihalides; •, experimental values from ED (r_e) ; \circ , experimental values from ED (r_g) ; \Box , Adamo and Maldivi (1998) for the BP-DS/TZ, TZd level; \diamond Joubert et al. (1998) at the MP2/ECP_D, VDZd level; \diamond Dolg et al. (1991) at the CISD + Q/ECP_D f, ECP_Dd level; \bigtriangledown Adamo and Maldivi (1998) at the B3P/ECP_S, ECP_Sd level. For details of the computations see original papers.

bond distances, bond angles and vibration frequencies for the thermodynamic calculations. For a more detailed analysis see the review by Kovács and Konings (2002).

The structure and vibrational spectra of the lanthanide trihalides have been studied extensively in the past decade. Due to the recent developments in the experimental and theoretical

Table 16 $I_n = X$ equilibrium bond distances (pm)^a

En-x equilibrium bond distances (pm)					
Ln	LnF ₃	LnCl ₃	LnBr ₃	LnI ₃	
La	207.7	253.4	268.9	286.7	
Ce	206.8	252.2	267.6	285.7	
Pr	205.8	251.1	266.4	284.8	
Nd	204.9	249.9	265.2	283.8	
Pm	203.9	248.8	263.9	282.9	
Sm	202.9	247.6	262.7	281.9	
Eu	202.0	246.5	261.5	280.9	
Gd	201.0	245.3	260.3	280.0	
Tb	200.1	244.2	259.0	279.0	
Dy	199.1	243.0	257.8	278.1	
Ho	198.1	241.9	256.6	277.1	
Er	197.2	240.7	255.3	276.1	
Tm	196.2	239.6	254.1	275.2	
Yb	195.3	238.4	252.9	274.2	
Lu	194.3	237.3	251.6	273.3	

X-Ln-X equilibrium bond angles (in degrees)^a LnCl₃ LnBr₃ LnI₃ Ln LnF_3 La 118.0 118.5 109.0 118.0 Ce 109.5 118.5 118.5 119.0 Pr 110.0 119.0 119.0 119.5 110.5 Nd 119.5 119.5 120.0 111.0 Pm 120.0 120.0 120.0 Sm 111.5 120.0 120.0 120.0 Eu 112.0 120.0 120.0 120.0 Gd 112.5 120.0 120.0 120.0 Tb 113.0 120.0 120.0 120.0 Dy 113.5 120.0 120.0 120.0 Ho 114.0 120.0 120.0 120.0 Er 114.5 120.0 120.0 120.0 Tm 115.0 120.0 120.0 120.0

Table 17

^aEstimated uncertainty ± 2 pm.

^aEstimated uncertainty: for LnF_3 : $\pm 4^\circ$; for the other halides: $\pm 2^\circ$.

120.0

120.0

120.0

120.0

120.0

120.0

115.5

116.0

Yb

Lu

methods the accuracy of the data has been improved considerably. Many early experimental data have been reanalysed, and numerous computations have been performed on some "popular" LnX_3 species. The latest experimental and theoretical data, reviewed recently by the present authors (Kovács and Konings, 2002),¹ confirmed previously suggested trends (Myers and Graves, 1977a) and facilitated the estimation of the missing data of the non-investigated molecules or to correct non-reliable earlier ones. Based on the recent experimental and computed results we can make more accurate predictions than obtained previously (Myers and Graves, 1977a; Jia and Zhang, 1988).

The available experimental data on the molecular geometries of the lanthanide trihalides are compiled in tables D.1 to D.4 of Appendix D. Equilibrium geometries (r_e , α_e) from electron diffraction (ED) experiments on 13 lanthanides trihalides have been reported by Zasorin (1988). More recent studies on lanthanide chlorides and bromides by Giricheva et al. (2000a, 2000b, 2000c, 2000d) and Zakharov et al. (2001) gave slightly shorter bond distances. The difference may arise from the neglect of the (small) dimer content of the vapour by Zasorin (Hargittai, 2000). However, the data from the two sources are close and agree within the given experimental errors.

The experimental and selected computed r(Ln-X) bond lengths are presented in fig. 32. The most important trend that is obvious from the figure is the gradual decrease of r(Ln-X) along the lanthanide row as a result of the well known "lanthanide contraction". Although the computations indicate the same trend, they consistently overestimate the bond distances. The best probable values for the equilibrium geometrical parameters are given in tables 16 and 17. They take into account the opposite effects of dimer formation and the harmonic

¹ For earlier reviews on the topic see those of Hargittai (2000) (molecular structure) and Boghosian and Papatheodorou (1996) (vibrational frequencies).



Fig. 33. The computed potential energy curves for the LaX₃ molecules (Kovács and Konings, 1997a); β is the angle between the La–X bond and the symmetry axis; \Box , LaCl₃; \circ , LaBr₃; \triangle , LaI₃.

approximation in the ED analysis, information on various trends, and the floppy nature of the LnX_3 molecules derived from quantum chemical computations. The latter property is the origin of the controversial results for the molecular symmetry of most LnX_3 species. Until recently (and apart from the early works) ED studies suggested a pyramidal C_{3v} structure for all the lanthanide trihalides (see Zasorin (1988) and references therein). On the other hand, less sophisticated quantum chemical calculations (Cundari et al., 1995; Di Bella et al., 1993) suggested a planar D_{3h} arrangement. The introduction of electron correlation and extended basis sets in the computations resulted generally (although not always) in a more pyramidal character of the LnX_3 species. An application of selectivity rules for the gas-phase IR spectra (Kovács and Konings, 1997a, 1997b) and the different symmetry number (3 for C_{3v} and 6 for D_{3h}) in thermodynamic calculations were not conclusive either.

Most of the recent experimental and computed results indicate a gradual increase of the X-Ln-X bond angle (towards the planar 120°) from F to I and from La to Lu.² This is in agreement with the decreasing polarizability of the ions along the lanthanide series and the weaker polarization abilities of the heavier halides. On the basis of the presently available results (Kovács and Konings, 2002) the LnF_3 halides are most probably pyramidal (C_{3v}), as considerable pyramidal character was obtained by both experiment and computations, and the v_1 bands were found in the matrix-IR spectra. The absence of the v_1 bands in the IR spectra (Kovács and Konings, 1997a, 1997b), analysis of the shrinkage effect in CeI₃ (Molnár et al., 1996) and the computed small inversion barriers for LaCl₃, LaBr₃ and LaI₃ (fig. 33) imply a quasi-planar character for the trihalides of the light lanthanide elements. The most recent

 $^{^2}$ For a comprehensive overview of the earlier results see the paper by Molnár and Hargittai (1995).

experiments (Giricheva et al., 2000d, 2000c; Zakharov et al., 2001; Molnár et al., 1996) and sophisticated theoretical computations (Adamo and Maldivi, 1998; Adamo and Barone, 2000; Kovács, 2000; Solomonik and Marochko, 2000) indicate a D_{3h} symmetry of the trichlorides, tribromides and triiodides of the heavier lanthanides. The exact border between pyramidal and planar structures cannot be determined presently. It would require highly sophisticated calculations with (nearly) complete electron correlation treatment and saturated basis set.

The available experimental data on the molecular vibrations of lanthanide trihalides are compiled in tables D.1 to D.4 of Appendix D. Early gas-phase IR data on LaCl₃, PrCl₃, NdCl₃, and GdCl₃ (Selivanov et al., 1973) have been extended recently by modern gas-phase Fourier-transform infrared measurements on several trichlorides and on the La X_3 and Dy X_3 (X = Cl, Br, I) series (Kovács and Konings, 1997a, 1997b; Groen, 2002), providing the first experimental information on the symmetric bending v_2 frequencies of these compounds. They pointed out the error in interpretation of the early gas-phase IR spectra on NdX₃ (X = Cl, Br, I) halides by Wells Jr. et al. (1977). In addition, numerous measurements have been performed on matrix-isolated LnX₃ species using infrared spectroscopy (Hauge et al., 1971; Hastie et al., 1975; Wesley and DeKock, 1971; Bencze et al., 1996; Feltrin and Cesaro, 1996; Perov et al., 1975; Loktyushina and Mal'tsev, 1984; Loktyushina et al., 1987) and in few cases Raman spectroscopy (Lesiecki et al., 1972; Groen, 2002). The data on DyX_3 compounds (Groen, 2002) provided the first experimental information on the symmetric stretching v_1 vibrations of the trichlorides, tribromides and triiodides. Note, that because of the high evaporation temperatures of LnF_3 compounds only vibrational data of the matrix-isolated species could be obtained hitherto (Hauge et al., 1971; Hastie et al., 1975; Wesley and DeKock, 1971; Bencze et al., 1996).

The experimental and selected computed vibrational frequencies of LnF_3 and $LnCl_3$ compounds are presented in figs. 34 and 35. The data show a gradually increase along the lanthanide row for all the four fundamentals. They confirm also the earlier linear relationship suggested by Myers and Graves (1977a) for estimation of the frequencies.

Our recommended values for the gas-phase vibrational frequencies are compiled in tables 18 to 21. Most of the estimated data have been derived from the available gas-phase and matrix-isolation vibrational spectra, the latter corrected for matrix-shifts. The LnF_3 compounds deserve a special attention, because for these compounds no reference gas-phase vibrational spectra are available. Hastie et al. (1975) used the relationship $v_g = v_{Ne} + (0.8 \pm 0.4)(v_{Ne} - v_{Ar})$ for the stretching frequencies suggested by Hastie et al. (1970), where v_g is the gas-phase frequency. This formula is, however, not suited for general use as more recent experimental evidence indicates otherwise (see, e.g., the collected vibrational data by Hargittai (2000)). Furthermore, an excellent agreement is found between the gas-phase and Ar-matrix v_3 frequencies for the $LnCl_3$ species, as shown in fig. 35. In fact, the clue for the estimation of the gas-phase stretching frequencies of LnF_3 compounds was provided by the computations. The overestimation of the Ln-F bond at the most reliable BP-DS/TZ,TZd level (Adamo and Maldivi, 1998) was found to be similar to that of the Ln-Cl bonds (cf. fig. 32), thus a similar systematic error for the LnF_3 and $LnCl_3$ stretching frequencies can also be expected.

For the LnF_3 bending fundamentals v_4 and v_2 the mean of the Ne-matrix and Ar-matrix frequencies by Hastie et al. (1975) was accepted. Assumptions had to be made for the v_4



Fig. 34. The vibrational frequencies of the lanthanide trifluorides; ⊙, recommended gas-phase frequencies; ▼, experimental data for species isolated in neon matrix; ▲, in argon matrix; □, Adamo and Maldivi (1998) at the BP-DS/TZ, TZ*d* level; ◦ Joubert et al. (1998) at the MP2/ECP_D, VDZ*d* level; △ Dolg et al. (1991) for the CISD + Q/ECP_D *f*, ECP_D*d* level; \lor Adamo and Maldivi (1998) at the B3P/ECP_S, ECP_S*d* level.



Fig. 35. The vibrational frequencies of the lanthanide trichlorides; •, experimental gas-phase values; ▼, experimental data for species isolated in argon matrix; ▲, in xenon matrix; ⊙, estimated gas-phase values; □, Adamo and Maldivi (1998) at the BP-DS/TZ,TZd level; ∘ Joubert et al. (1998) at the MP2/ECP, VDZd level; △ Dolg et al. (1991) for the CISD + Q/ECP f, ECPd level; ▽ Adamo and Maldivi (1998) at the B3P/ECP, ECPd level.

Vibra	ational freque	ncies (cm ^{-1})	for <i>Ln</i> F ₃ m	olecules ^a	Vibra	tional frequen	cies (cm^{-1})	for LnCl ₃ mo	olecules ^a
Ln	$v_1(A_1)$	$v_2(A_1)$	$v_3(E)$	$v_4(E)$	Ln	$v_1(A_1)$	$v_2(A_1)$	$v_3(E)$	$v_4(E)$
La	532	79	501	123	La	318	59 ^b	317 ^b	84
Ce	536	81	506	125	Ce	320	58 ^c	321 ^c	85
Pr	540	83	511	127	Pr	322	60	320 ^d	86
Nd	544	85	516	128	Nd	324	60 ^c	327 ^c	87
Pm	548	86	521	130	Pm	326	61	328	88
Sm	552	88	526	132	Sm	327	61 ^c	331 ^c	89
Eu	556	90	531	133	Eu	329	63	332	90
Gd	560	91	536	135	Gd	331	64 ^c	337 ^c	91
Tb	564	93	541	137	Th	333	64	337	92
Dy	568	95	546	138	Dv	335	65 ^c	340°	93
Ho	572	96	551	140	Но	337	66	340	9/
Er	576	98	556	142	Fr	339	66	344	95
Tm	580	100	561	143	Tm	341	67	347	96
Yb	584	101	566	145	Vh	343	68	340	07
Lu	588	103	572	147	Lu	345	69	351	98

^aEstimated uncertainty ± 10 cm⁻¹.

Table 18

^aEstimated error for both the experimental and estimated data is $\pm 10 \text{ cm}^{-1}$.

Table 19

^bMeasured by Kovács and Konings (1997a).

^cMeasured by Kovács and Konings (1997b).

^dMeasured by Selivanov et al. (1973).

frequencies of the bromides and iodides due to the lack of experimental data. Observations made for the LnF_3 and $LnCl_3$ series (the relative magnitude of the v_4 and v_2 frequencies, and the slightly larger slope for the trend in v_4 than that of v_2) have been extended to the $LnBr_3$ and LnI_3 molecules. This explains the larger uncertainty of the v_4 data for these molecules. The uncertainty of the v_2 values is due to the fact that the frequencies occur near the lower detection limit of most infrared spectrometers, thus excluding the observation of the complete band envelope in the spectra.

On the basis of the systematic comparison of calculated and experimental results we conclude that present standard theoretical methods are not able to substitute gas-phase experiments on the geometrical and vibrational properties of the LnX_3 molecules. Systematic theoretical studies on the complete lanthanide series or on selected molecules (Cundari et al., 1995; Joubert et al., 1998; Dolg et al., 1991; Lanza and Fragalá, 1996; Adamo and Maldivi, 1997; Adamo and Maldivi, 1998; Adamo and Barone, 2000; Kovács, 2000) showed several deficiencies of the computational methods. These include the overestimation of the equilibrium Ln-X bond distance, uncertainty for the bond angles of planar/quasi-planar structures, a failure in predicting the values and trends of the v_2 mode. Moreover, the errors are not consistent for different halides, nor for the two (v_1 and v_3) stretching frequencies of an LnX_3 molecule. The less sophisticated character of the standard methods used at present shows that the computed results are quite sensitive to the theory and basis set chosen. On the other hand, the trends in the lanthanide row are predicted well by most advanced levels of theory. Furthermore, the error in the computed geometry and vibrational frequencies is strongly related.

Vibrational frequencies (cm ⁻¹) of <i>Ln</i> Br ₃ molecules ^a					
Ln	$v_1(A_1)$	$v_2(A_1)$	$v_3(E)$	$v_4(E)$	
La	207	30 ^b	232 ^b	57	
Ce	208	36	233	57	
Pr	209	36	234	58	
Nd	210	37	236	58	
Pm	211	37	237	59	
Sm	212	37	238	59	
Eu	213	38	239	60	
Gd	214	38	241	60	
Tb	215	39	242	61	
Dy	216	44 ^c	243 ^c	61	
Ho	217	39	244	62	
Er	218	40	245	62	
Tm	219	40	247	63	
Yb	220	41	248	63	
Lu	221	41	249	64	

Table 20

-1

Table 21 Vibrational frequencies (cm⁻¹) of *Ln*I₃ molecules^a

Ln	$\nu_1(A_1)$	$\nu_2(A_1)$	$v_3(E)$	$v_4(E)$
La	162	25 ^b	191 ^b	40
Ce	163	27	191 ^c	41
Pr	163	28	192	41
Nd	164	28	192	41
Pm	164	28	193	42
Sm	165	28	194	42
Eu	165	28	194	42
Gd	166	29	195	42
Tb	166	29	195	43
Dy	167	32 ^d	195 ^d	43
Ho	167	29	196	43
Er	168	29	197	44
Tm	168	30	198	44
Yb	168	30	198	44
Lu	169	30	199	45

^aEstimated error for the experimental v_3 values is 5 cm⁻¹, while for the experimental v_2 and estimated frequencies 10 cm⁻¹.

^bMeasured by Kovács and Konings (1997a).

^cMeasured by Groen (2002).

^aEstimated error for the experimental ν_3 values is 5 cm⁻¹, while for the experimental ν_2 and estimated frequencies 10 cm⁻¹.

^bMeasured by Kovács and Konings (1997a). ^cMeasured by Molnár et al. (1996).

^dMeasured by Groen (2002).

Thus, computations can be used to extend partial experimental information. This was shown in joint experimental/computational studies using advanced theoretical methods (Kovács and Konings, 1997a, 1997b; Hargittai, 2000).

7.2. Ln_2X_6 dimers

The structure of the Ln_2X_6 dimers has been derived from electron diffraction (Molnár et al., 1996; Hargittai, 2000; Giricheva et al., 2000c, 2000b; Zakharov et al., 2001) and theoretical studies (Kovács, 1999, 2000, 2002) for a few species (table D.5). They indicated a bridged structure (D_{2h} symmetry), as shown in fig. 36. In most ED investigations a few geometrical



Fig. 36. The molecular geometry of the Ln_2X_6 dimer molecules.

parameters were assumed to be identical to the monomers, the others were treated independently in the refinements (Molnár et al., 1996; Giricheva et al., 2000c, 2000b; Zakharov et al., 2001). However, the small amount of dimeric molecules in the vapour makes such an analysis uncertain and quantum chemical calculations can therefore help to obtain more reliable data (Hargittai, 2000). High-level theoretical calculations indicate shorter terminal Ln-X bonds in the dimers (by ca. 1 pm) and longer ring Ln-X bonds (by ca. 20 pm) with respect to the bond in the monomers (Kovács, 2000). The recent results of Hargittai (2000) for Dy_2Cl_6 and Dy_2Br_6 are in very good agreement with the computations.

Experimental information on the molecular vibrations of the dimers is restricted to a few, mostly, tentative assignments in matrix-IR spectra (Wesley and DeKock, 1971; Hastie et al., 1975; Feltrin and Cesaro, 1996). On the other hand, the complete vibrational spectrum has been computed for La₂ X_6 , Dy₂ X_6 , Ce₂Br₆ and Ce₂I₆ (Kovács, 1999, 2000; Kapala et al., 2002) and the data are summarised in table D.6. However, due to the failure of the computations to accurately predict the bending frequencies of the monomers at low wavenumbers, the reliability of these frequencies of the dimers may be limited also.

Here we have used a rough approximation by calculating the thermodynamic functions of the Ln_2X_6 molecules from a single set of structural and molecular parameters for the fluorides, chlorides, bromides and iodides each.

8. Enthalpy of formation of the gaseous trihalides

8.1. LnF₃

The vapour pressures of all lanthanide trifluorides have been measured, including PmF_3 . Various techniques have been used, which can be divided in indirect techniques (effusion and boiling point methods) which provide accurate data for the total vapour pressure, and direct mass spectrometric techniques, which are less precise, particularly in case of quadrupole mass spectrometry, but give information on the vapour composition and the presence of dimeric or polymeric molecules or dissociation products.

The enthalpy of formation of the gaseous compounds can be derived from the vapour pressure studies using the thermal functions for the condensed and gaseous states derived in the previous sections. Third-law and second-law thermodynamic analyses of the equilibrium

$$LnX_3(cr, l) = LnX_3(g) \tag{15}$$

have been applied, to derive the enthalpy of sublimation at 298.15 K, from which the enthalpy of formation of the gaseous compounds follows as:

$$\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}(LnX_3, {\rm g}) = \Delta_{\rm sub} H^{\circ} + \Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}(LnX_3, {\rm cr}).$$
⁽¹⁶⁾

The third-law value for the enthalpy of sublimation is preferred in view of the accuracy of the thermal functions of the condensed and gaseous states presented in the previous sections, though it should be realised that all uncertainties/errors in the thermal functions (entropy, enthalpy) of solid as well as gaseous phase accumulate in this value. The results are presented in table E.1 of Appendix E.



Fig. 37. The sublimation enthalpies at 298.15 K of the lanthanide trifluorides.

Table 22 The selected enthalpies of formation of the gaseous lanthanide trihalides, in

		kJ·mol ^{−1}		
	F	Cl	Br	Ι
La	-1254.7 ± 3.6	-734.1 ± 5.2	-596.5 ± 5.2	-366.0 ± 8.2
Ce	-1262.4 ± 5.4	-729.3 ± 3.4	-584.5 ± 5.8	-365.0 ± 5.2
Pr	-1253.6 ± 3.3	-729.3 ± 3.4	-587.5 ± 5.7	-367.9 ± 5.8
Nd	-1246.2 ± 5.3	-716.4 ± 2.2	-562.3 ± 5.0	-344.6 ± 5.0
Pm	-1245 ± 25	-710 ± 13	-560 ± 14	-342 ± 14
Sm	-1240 ± 11	-710 ± 9	-562 ± 10	-336 ± 11
Eu	-1175 ± 11	-625 ± 9	-477 ± 14	-255 ± 14
Gd	-1245.4 ± 5.5	-712.2 ± 6.2	-563.5 ± 3.6	-347.7 ± 8.5
Tb	-1245.1 ± 7.1	-712.9 ± 5.0	-570.9 ± 3.6	-350.8 ± 6.5
Dy	-1243.5 ± 3.6	-708.9 ± 3.0	-561.3 ± 5.4	-343.0 ± 5.0
Ho	-1246.3 ± 3.8	-712.9 ± 4.7	-562.1 ± 5.8	-351.0 ± 6.7
Er	-1239.3 ± 2.8	-709.4 ± 8.2	-566.0 ± 5.8	-345.5 ± 6.7
Tm	-1206.4 ± 5.8	-720.3 ± 6.5	-560 ± 11	-347.9 ± 6.9
Yb	-1115.8 ± 5.4	-683 ± 9	-522 ± 10	-308 ± 10
Lu	-1260.8 ± 5.4	-710.0 ± 2.5	-547 ± 14	-335 ± 10

Since most studies were made with indirect techniques assumptions had to be made on the fraction of dimeric molecules in the vapour. Mass spectrometric data are available only for La₂F₆ and Ce₂F₆ (Roberts and Searcy, 1972; Skinner and Searcy, 1971), and show a negligible fraction (10^{-4}) of dimeric molecules in the vapour. On the basis of these observations we have derived the enthalpies of sublimation from the vapour pressure studies assuming only monomeric molecules to be present. The sublimation enthalpy of the trifluorides does not vary much in the lanthanide series (fig. 37), but there is a small distinction between the start and the end of the LnF_3 series. The values for LaF₃ to NdF₃ group around 440–430 kJ·mol⁻¹, the values for TbF₃ to YbF₃ around 450 kJ·mol⁻¹. These two groups correspond to the two different crystallographic modifications in the LnF_3 series. The values for mass spectrometric studies are available. These also group around 430 kJ·mol⁻¹ except PmF₃ which is somewhat higher, probably due to the uncertainties in the result for that compound, that was measured on a mixed (Pr_{1/3}Pm_{1/3}Sm_{1/3})F₃ sample (Gibson and Haire, 1989).

Compared to the critical evaluation by Myers and Graves (1977b) the variation along the LnF_3 series is much more smooth, which we feel is mainly due to the improved thermodynamic functions for the solid and gaseous phases derived in the present study.



Fig. 38. The mean bond energy at 298.15 K of the lanthanide trifluorides.

The recommended enthalpies of formation of the gaseous trifluorides derived from these values are shown in table 22. From these values the mean bond energy can be derived as one third of the energy of the reaction:

$$LnX_3(g) = Ln(g) + 3X(g).$$
 (17)

Figure 38 shows the mean bond energy of gaseous trifluorides (for practical reasons expressed as the mean bond enthalpy at 298.15 K). It reveals a regular pattern: the bond energies of LaF₃, GdF₃ and LuF₃ (f^0 , f^7 and f^{14} configurations) are about equal, in between the bond energy systematically decreases reaching the lowest values at EuF₃ and YbF₃, indicating that the bond energy becomes weaker with increasing number of electrons in the first and second half of the f shell. This pattern (including the plateau for Dy–Ho–Er) is typical for many atomic properties of the lanthanide elements and ions (e.g., ionisation potential).

8.2. LnCl3

Also for the trichlorides a large number of vapour pressure studies have been made, and the results of the third-law analysis are shown in table E.2 of Appendix E.

The formation of Ln_2Cl_6 dimers in the vapours of $LnCl_3$ (Ln = La, Eu, Lu) compounds has been demonstrated by Hastie et al. (1968) by mass spectrometry. They found that the dimer fraction, as derived from the ion-intensity data, is small for LaCl₃ and EuCl₃ (< 0.01), but indicate a dimer fraction of ~ 0.02 in the vapour of LuCl₃. Kudin et al. (1997, 2000) studied the vapours of DyCl₃, TbCl₃, TmCl₃ and YbCl₃ by mass spectrometry. They concluded that for DyCl₃ and TbCl₃ the dimer fraction can be significant (around 0.10 at 1600 K) whereas for TmCl₃ and YbCl₃ it is negligible. These authors also found evidence for the existence of higher polymers (trimers and tetramers) in vapour, but their contribution to the total vapour pressure is negligible. Giricheva et al. (2000c, 2000b) found that the dimer fraction is 0.03 for ErCl₃ and 0.09 for LuCl₃ by mass spectrometry. Kapala et al. (2002) studied the vapour phase of CeCl₃, PrCl₃, NdCl₃ and DyCl₃ by mass spectrometry and found dimer fractions smaller than 0.01 for the light lanthanide trichlorides, and ~ 0.02 in the vapour of DyCl₃. The results of Pogrebnoi et al. (2001) for CeCl₃ and SmCl₃ confirm this.

In the first approximation we have neglected the dimers in the vapour pressure analysis. On the basis of the mass spectrometric results this seems to be justified for the light lanthanide trichlorides, and good agreement is found for the enthalpies of sublimation derived from the various studies. For the heavy lanthanide trichlorides a comparison to the work of Kudin et al. can be made. The enthalpies of sublimation derived from their results are, however, very discordant. For DyCl₃ and TmCl₃ the difference in the enthalpies of sublimation is far beyond the possible effect of dimers. A sensitivity analysis shows that a correction of the monomer pressure of the effusion studies for a dimer fraction of 0.1 increases the enthalpy of sublimation by $2-3 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$. But also for TbCl₃ and YbCl₃, for which the dimer effect should be small on the basis of Kudin's results, the agreement is poor. We therefore conclude that in these studies the conversion of ion intensity to pressure may not be correct for the heavy dimers. On the basis of these considerations and the absence of a reliable way to systematically quantify the dimer fraction, we have neglected the possible dimer contribution in the analysis, but have raised the uncertainty of the selected enthalpies of sublimation.

Figure 39 shows the variation in the sublimation enthalpy of the trichlorides. On first sight the values for the crystallographic modifications in the $LnCl_3$ series seem to be different, like was the case for the trifluorides. The enthalpies of sublimation of the hexagonal trichlorides LaCl₃–NdCl₃ are about 40 kJ·mol⁻¹ higher than those of the monoclinic compounds. GdCl₃ also has hexagonal crystal structure (fig. 2), but its enthalpy of sublimation is close to that of the monoclinic forms. TbCl₃ is orthorhombic, and its enthalpy of sublimation is also close to the monoclinic series though fig. 11 suggest it is crystallographically more closely related to the hexagonal series. The enthalpy of sublimation of PmCl₃, SmCl₃ and EuCl₃ have been estimated from these data assuming that the enthalpy of sublimation gradually decreases from LaCl₃ to GdCl₃. The approximate values for EuCl₃ by Moriarity (1963), although probably subjected to decomposition, and for SmCl₃ by Pogrebnoi et al. (2001) (the mass spectrometric measurements by the group of Kudin are generally discordant as can be seen for TbCl₃ and DyCl₃ in table E.2) might indicate that this leads to a small overestimation. Accurate measurements are needed to resolve this.

A distinct difference can be noted when the variation in the enthalpy of sublimation along the $LnCl_3$ series is compared to the results of the critical evaluation by Myers and Graves (1977b). The trend for the lanthanide trichlorides is almost linear in our analysis which is not the case in the analysis of Myers and Graves (1977b), who reported a pronounced difference in enthalpy at the mid of the series separating the hexagonal and the monoclinic lanthanide trichlorides. This observation can clearly be related to the distinct different entropies for the solid phase that were selected here, based on new experimental results.

The recommended enthalpies of formation of the gaseous trichlorides derived from the selected enthalpies of sublimation are shown in table 22. The mean bond energies derived from these values is shown in fig. 40, which reveals the same pattern as for the trifluorides, which should be explained by a $f^0-f^7-f^{14}$ linear base variation and an excess contribution which is related to the changes in the electronic nature of the lanthanide(III) ions.

8.3. LnBr₃

The number of vapour pressure studies of the tribromides is significantly less. Gietmann et al. (1996) systematically measured the vaporization of the lanthanide bromides using mass spectrometry, showing the importance of the dimeric molecules in the vapour. For the light lanthanide tribromides (La, Ce, Nd) the fraction of dimers is around 0.01, but for TbBr₃ it is 0.03,



Fig. 39. The sublimation enthalpies at 298.15 K of the lanthanide trichlorides. \oplus – experimental results for SmCl₃ and EuCl₃ that are not considered (see text).

Fig. 40. The mean bond en-

ergy at 298.15 K of the lan-

thanide trichlorides.

Br₃ and TmBr₃ it is 0.10. The results of Zakharov et al. (2003)

for HoBr₃ it is 0.08, and for ErBr₃ and TmBr₃ it is 0.10. The results of Zakharov et al. (2003) for NdBr₃ is in agreement with the above data (0.007) whereas Zakharov et al. (2001) found a lower fraction for ErBr₃ (0.025). As mentioned in the section for the chlorides, such fractions would lead to an error of maximum $2-3 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ in case the dimer contribution is neglected.

The enthalpies of sublimation for the monomer derived from Gietmann's results are generally in reasonable agreement with the values from the indirect measurements although they are almost systematically the lowest (contrary to what one expects), as shown in table E.3 of Appendix E. A comparison with the torsion effusion data of Piacente and coworkers (Brunetti et al., 1999, 2000; Villani et al., 2000a, 2000b; Piacente et al., 2002) for six lanthanide tribromides, shows a difference of $4-10 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$, irrespectively of the dimer fraction. It is clear that the effect of the neglect of dimers in the third-law analysis is of the same order as or even smaller than the variation between the various authors, and this has been reflected in the uncertainty. The variation in fig. 41 thus is partly due to systematic errors between the studies which are not eliminated due to the limited number of studies, which is especially true for the tribromides of Gd-Lu. Gietmann's results indicate an almost constant value for this series, as do the results of Makhmadmurodov et al. (1975).

The enthalpy of sublimation of $PmBr_3$, $SmBr_3$ and $EuBr_3$ has been estimated to decrease gradually from NdBr_3 to GdBr_3. The recommended enthalpies of formation of the gaseous tribromides derived from the selected enthalpies of sublimation are shown in table 22. The mean bond energies derived from these values are shown in fig. 42, which confirms the general patterns found for the other trihalides.



Fig. 41. The sublimation enthalpies at 298.15 K of the lanthanide tribromides.

Fig. 42. The mean bond energy at 298.15 K of the lanthanide tribromides.

8.4. LnI3

The early mass spectrometric studies for the lanthanide triiodides do not mention the dimer formation (Hirayama and Castle, 1973), but in later studies this effect was considered. Hirayama et al. (1976) found that the dimer fraction for LaI₃ is negligible. Kaposi et al. (1983, 1986) found the dimer fraction to be 0.05 and 0.03 for DyI₃ and HoI₃ respectively, whereas Gietmann et al. (1996) found it to be 0.1 for HoI₃. Struck and Feuersanger (1991), Struck and Baglio (1992) reported mass spectra for CeI₃ and TmI₃ which demonstrate the presence of dimers, with ion-intensity ratios of < 0.01 and ~ 0.03, respectively. The results for the last compound are in contrast to the large fraction of dimers reported by Dettingmeijer and Dielis (1988) for TmI₃: 0.21 at 880 K to 0.43 at 1010 K. As discussed by Struck and Feuersanger (1991) quadrupole mass spectrometry, as used by Dettingmeijer and Dielis (1988), is suspect as the conversion from ion current to equilibrium partial pressure is difficult.

In absence of a good way to quantify the dimer fraction of the triiodides and the indication that it is probably below 0.1, the dimers have been neglected in the vapour pressure analysis (table E.4 of Appendix E), similar to the chlorides and bromides. The effect of such small fractions is within the variation between the results of these studies.

The sublimation enthalpy of triiodides vary in a similar way as that of the tribromides (fig. 43), showing the same pattern as the trichlorides and tribromides. The enthalpy of sublimation of PmI_3 , SmI_3 and EuI_3 has been interpolated from the NdI_3 – GdI_3 data; that of YbI_3 and LuI_3 taken close to the values of the TbI_3 – TmI_3 series.

The recommended enthalpies of formation of the gaseous triiodides derived from these values are shown in table 22, the mean bond energies derived from these values in fig. 44.



8.5. Ln_2X_6 dimers

As was already discussed in the previous sections, dimeric molecules contribute significantly (up to 10%) to the total vapour pressure of the lanthanide trihalides. However, experimental information is only available for a few systems, which is often highly uncertain. As a result it is difficult to predict trends in the lanthanide series or estimate unknown values.

The lanthanide tribromide series is an exception as Gietmann et al. (1996) made a systematic study by mass spectrometry. The enthalpies of dimerisation derived from this work are shown in fig. 45. They are almost constant along the series, especially considering that the uncertainty (in the experimental data but also in the thermal functions of the gaseous dimers) is relatively large. Experimental data are also available for all the lanthanum trihalides (Roberts and Searcy, 1972; Hastie et al., 1968; Gietmann et al., 1996; Hirayama et al., 1976), which permits one to investigate the dimerisation enthalpies as a function of the halide atom. In fig. 46 the enthalpies of dimerisation at 298.15 K derived from these studies are plotted as a function of the atomic weight of the halide ion. It can be seen



Fig. 45. The enthalpies of dimerisation at 298.15 K of the lanthanide tribromides as derived from the work of Gietmann et al. (1996).



Fig. 46. The enthalpies of dimerisation at 298.15 K of the lanthanum trihalides.

that the dimerisation enthalpy increases linearly from F to I. These results are in excellent agreement with the dimerisation energies (0 K) for LaX_3 and DyX_3 molecules calculated by (Kovács, 2000). Although the dimerisation enthalpies seem to indicate the largest stability of the Ln_2F_6 molecules among the Ln_2X_6 dimers, it should be realised, however, that the derived dimerisation enthalpies refer to 298.15 K and the computations refer to 0 K and thus do not include the entropy contribution that is important at the high temperatures of the experiments.

In absence of more detailed information we suggest therefore that for practical reasons the enthalpies of dimerisation are treated constant in the different lanthanide halides series: $-233 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ for the trifluorides, $-213 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ for the triblorides, $-185 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ for the triblorides, and $-165 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ for the triblorides.

9. Conclusions

In the present chapter we have presented a careful evaluation of the thermodynamic and related properties of the lanthanide trihalides. It is shown that the properties of these compounds vary regularly within the four series (F to I) and in most cases clear trends are observed.

The melting points in all four lanthanide trihalide series exhibit a minimum which shift from the heavy lanthanides to the light lanthanides as the atomic number of the halide increases. In the fluoride series the minimum occurs at ErF_3 , in the chloride series at $TbCl_3$, in the bromide series probably at SmBr₃, and in the iodide series at PrI₃. This minimum concurs with a change in the stable crystallographic structure, except for the bromide series in which the high temperature polymorphic behaviour is not known.

The variation in the heat capacity and entropy of the solid lanthanide trihalides can be described by a lattice contribution that linearly varies with atomic number within each crystallographic class of compounds, and an excess contribution that depends on the electronic configuration (crystal field) of the lanthanide ions. A distinct difference is observed between the heat capacity and entropy of the hexagonal and monoclinic lanthanide trichlorides, which clearly correlates with a distinct difference in molar volume between the two modifications. Both effects are absent in the lanthanide trifluoride series. The enthalpies of formation of the solid lanthanide trihalides show a slight increase along the series, with anomalous values for the Eu and Yb compounds, which is due to the fact that Eu and Yb metals have divalent standard states and 88 and 46 kJ·mol⁻¹, respectively, is necessary to form the trivalent state (Gschneidner Jr., 1969; Johansson and Mårtensson, 1987).

The properties of the liquid lanthanide trihalides depend strongly on the atomic number of the halide. The variation in the heat capacity of the lanthanide fluorides indicates a strongly ionic behaviour of the melts with a concomittent irregular trend related to the electronic configuration of the lanthanide ions. In the lanthanide chlorides, bromides and iodides the trend becomes systematically more constant, indicating an increasing molecular nature of the melts.

The molecular parameters of the gaseous lanthanide trihalide molecules exhibit simple linear trends, with decreasing bond length and increasing vibrational frequencies as the atomic number of the lanthanide ion increases. This is in agreement with the well-known lanthanide contraction (Gschneidner Jr., 1989). The Ln-X bond energies of the lanthanide trihalide molecules are about equal for LaX₃, GdX₃ and LuX₃ (f⁰, f⁷ and f¹⁴ configurations) within each halide series, but in between the bond energy systematically decreases reaching minimum values at EuX₃ and YbX₃. This indicates that the bond energy becomes weaker with increasing number of electrons in the first and second half of the f shell. This pattern is typical for many atomic properties of the lanthanide elements and ions (e.g., ionisation potential). The enthalpies of dimerisation for the LnX_3 molecules are about constant within each halide series.

Although the literature on the thermodynamic and related properties of the lanthanide trihalides on which our evaluation and conclusions are based is extensive, it is far from complete. As we have demonstrated in many instances the gaps in the experimental information can be filled with estimates (e.g., the standard entropies and the enthalpies of formation) based on the observed systematics. However, this is not always possible for the following reasons:

- The polymorphism of the trichlorides, tribromides and triiodides is not sufficiently well known to make very reliable estimations and predictions at high temperatures. Further experiments to solve the polymorphism of the middle of the series are required.
- The experimental basis for the recommended heat capacity of the tribromides and triiodides is marginal and more low- as well as high-temperature heat capacity measurements are required.
- The lack of auxiliary data such as crystal field energies for the tribromides and triiodides further limits the value of the semi-empirical approach used here to estimate high temperature heat capacities.
- The experimental basis to derive the enthalpies of formation of the trifluorides is limited. The data selected here are based on the results of a single laboratory. Reliable experiments to verify the selected values and confirm the suggested trend are needed.
- The experimental data on the gaseous compounds are affected by the limited knowledge of the dimer fraction in the vapour. A systemic study is only available for the tribromides.

In spite of these limits, the data presented here form a consistent and reliable basis for thermochemical analysis and modelling. The information presented in this chapter will be included in the material property database for f-elements and compounds (f-MPD) of the Institute of Transuranium Elements, which is accessible through internet.³ Complete thermodynamic tables can be retrieved at that site, which will be updated regularly with new information.

Appendix A. The transition and melting points of the lanthanide trihalides

Table A.1 Transition and melting temperatures for the lanthanide trifluorides				
authors	Ttrs/K	$T_{\rm fus}/{\rm K}$		
LaF ₃	ab	103		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1766		
Porter and Brown (1962)		1763		
Robinson and Cripe (1966)		1768 ± 10		
Jones and Shand (1968) ^a		1693		
Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b		1766 ± 3		
Dworkin and Bredig (1971)		1768 ± 3		
Nafziger et al. (1973)		1760 ± 2		
Sobolev et al. (1976a)		1773		
Greis and Cader (1985)		1773		
Stankus et al. (2000)		1766		
selected value:		1766 ± 3		
CeF ₃				
King and Christensen (1959)		1732		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1703		
Porter and Brown (1962)		1710		
Robinson and Cripe (1966)		1698 ± 10		
Jones and Shand (1968) ^a		1670		
Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b		1703 ± 3		
Sobolev et al. (1976a)		1716		
Greis and Cader (1985)		1709		
selected value:		1703 ± 3		
PrF ₃				
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1668		
Robinson and Cripe (1966)		1673 ± 10		
Jones and Shand (1968) ^a		1645		
Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b		1672 ± 3		
Sobolev et al. (1976a)		1677		
Greis and Cader (1985)		1674		
selected value:		1670 ± 3		
NdF ₃				
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1647		
Robinson and Cripe (1966)		1653 ± 10		
Jones and Shand (1968) ^a		1620		
		continued on next page		

³ http://www.f-elements.net
authors	$T_{\rm trs}/{ m K}$	$T_{\rm fus}/{ m K}$
Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b		1650 ± 3
Sobolev et al. (1976a)		1645
Greis and Cader (1985)		1651
Stankus et al. (2000)		1649
selected value:		1649 ± 3
SmF ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1579
Thoma and Burton (1966)	828	
Jones and Shand (1968) ^a	852	1568
Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b	762 ± 3	1571 ± 3
Gogadze et al. (1972a)		1583 ± 5
Sobolev et al. (1976a)	743	1577
Greis and Cader (1985)	753	1582
Stankus et al. (2000)	~ 760	1572
selected value:	743 ± 3	1571 ± 3
EuF ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1549
Thoma and Burton (1966)	973	
Jones and Shand (1968) ^a	954	1536
Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b		1549 ± 3
Greis and Cader (1985)	1125	1531
selected value:	973 ± 3	1549 ± 3
GdF ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1504
Porter and Brown (1962)		1501
Thoma and Burton (1966)	1173	
Jones and Shand (1968) ^a	1074	1516
Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b	1347 ± 3	1503 ± 3
Zhigarnovskii and Ippolitov (1970a)	1338 ± 5	1478 ± 5
Gogadze et al. (1972b)	1293 ± 5	
De Kozak et al. (1973)	1348 ± 5	1523 ± 5
Pastor and Robinson (1974)		1503
Sobolev et al. (1976a)	1343	1501
Greis and Cader (1985)	1338	1508
Stankus et al. (1999)	1310	1509 ± 3
selected value:	1347 ± 3	1501 ± 3
TbF ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1445
Thoma and Burton (1966)	1223 ± 6	
Jones and Shand (1968) ^a	1235	1477
Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b		1446 ± 3
Sobolev et al. (1976a)		1439
Greis and Cader (1985)		1455
selected value:		1446 ± 3

Table A.1, continued from previous page

DyF_3 D_2 D_2 Spedding and Daane (1960) 1427 Thoma and Burton (1966) 1303 ± 6 Jones and Shand (1968) ^a 1418 Jones and Shand (1968) ^a 1418 Gogadze et al. (1972a) 1381 ± 5 Pastor and Robinson (1974) 1433 Sobolev et al. (1976a) 1420 De Kozak and Almai (1978) 1423 ± 3 Greis and Cader (1985) 1427 ± 5 Shedding and Daane (1960) 1427 ± 5 Thoma and Burton (1966) 1343 ± 6 Jones and Shand (1968) ^a 1416 Thoma and Burton (1966) 1343 ± 6 Jones and Shand (1968) ^a 1416 Thoma and Burton (1966) 1343 ± 6 Jones and Shand (1968) ^a 1416 Sobolev et al. (1976a) 1413 ± 5 Greis and Cader (1985) 1420 Stankus et al. (2000) 1416 ± 3 Sobolev et al. (1976a) 1416 ± 3 Sobolev et al. (1976b) 1348 ± 3 Jones and Shand (1968) ^a 1372 Spedding and Daane (1960) 1377 <	authors	$T_{\rm trs}/{\rm K}$	$T_{\rm fus}/{ m K}$
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	DyF ₃	ub.	105
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Spedding and Daane (1960)		1427
	Thoma and Burton (1966)	1303 ± 6	
$\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	Jones and Shand (1968) ^a	1418	1432
$\begin{array}{llllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllllll$	Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b		1428 ± 3
Pastor and Robinson (1974) 1433 Sobolev et al. (1976a) 1420 De Kozzk and Almai (1978) 1433 Greis and Cader (1985) 1433 Khairuln et al. (1998) 1427 ± 5 selected value: 1426 ± 3 HoF3 1426 ± 3 Spedding and Daane (1960) 1343 ± 6 Jones and Shand (1968) ^a 1407 Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b 1416 ± 3 Shaimuradov et al. (1974) 1343 1418 Pastor and Robinson (1974) 1433 1413 Sobolev et al. (1976a) 1413 ± 5 1416 ± 3 Sobolev et al. (1976b) 1416 ± 3 1416 ± 3 Stankus et al. (2000) 1413 ± 5 1416 ± 3 Spedding and Daane (1960) 1416 ± 3 1416 ± 3 FerF3 1404 1372 1404 Spedding and Burton (1966) 1348 1413 ± 5 Jones and Shand (1968) ^a 1372 1404 Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b 1388 ± 3 1416 ± 3 Greis and Cader (1985) 1392 1420 Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b 1388 ± 3 1413 ± 3	Gogadze et al. (1972a)		1381 ± 5
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De Kozak and Almai (1978) 1438 Greis and Cader (1985) 1423 Khairulin et al. (1998) 1427 ± 5 selected value: 1426 ± 3 HoF3 Spedding and Daane (1960) 1343 ± 6 Jones and Shand (1968) ^a 1407 Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b 1416 ± 3 Shaimuradov et al. (1974) 1343 1418 Pastor and Robinson (1974) 1343 1413 Sobolev et al. (1976c) 1413 1420 Statkus et al. (2000) 1416 ± 3 1416 ± 3 Spedding and Daane (1960) 1413 1416 ± 3 ErF3 Spedding and Daane (1960) 1413 Thoma and Burton (1966) 1348 1416 ± 3 Jones and Shand (1968) ^a 1372 1404 Spedding and Daane (1960) 1413 1418 ± 5 Sobolev et al. (1972c) 1369 ± 5 1418 ± 5 Sobolev et al. (1976c) 1377 1407 Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b 1388 ± 3 1416 ± 3 Gogadze et al. (1972c) 1369 ± 5 1418 ± 5 Sobolev et al. (1976c) 1390 1413	Sobolev et al. (1976a)		1420
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Pastor and Robinson (1974) 1423 Sobolev et al. (1976c) 1413 ± 5 Greis and Cader (1985) 1420 Stankus et al. (2000) 1416 selected value: 1416 ± 3 ErF3 Spedding and Daane (1960) 1413 Thoma and Burton (1966) 1348 1413 Jones and Shand (1968) ^a 1372 1404 Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b 1388 ± 3 1416 ± 3 Gogadze et al. (197cc) 1369 ± 5 1418 ± 5 Sobolev et al. (1976a) 1377 1407 Sobolev et al. (1976b) 1388 ± 3 1416 ± 3 Greis and Cader (1985) 1390 1413 Sobolev et al. (1976c) 1390 1413 Greis and Cader (1985) 1392 1420 Stankus et al. (2000) 1372 1414 selected value: 1388 ± 3 1413 ± 3 TmF3 Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b 1325 ± 3 1413 ± 3 Jones and Shand (1966) ^a 1303 1431 1416 ± 3 Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b 1325 ± 3 1416 ± 3 3 Spedding and Henderson (1971)	Snaimuradov et al. (1974) Destor and Debinson (1074)	1345	1418
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Sobolev et al. (1976a) 1377 1407 Sobolev et al. (1976c) 1390 1413 Greis and Cader (1985) 1392 1420 Stankus et al. (2000) 1372 1414 selected value: 1388 \pm 3 1413 \pm 3 TmF3 Spedding and Daane (1960) 1431 Thoma and Burton (1966) 1303 1415 Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b 1325 \pm 3 1416 \pm 3 Sobolev et al. (1976a) 1320 1432 Greis and Cader (1985) 1322 1431	Gogadze et al. (1972c)	1369 ± 5	1418 ± 5
Sobolev et al. (1976c) 1390 1413 Greis and Cader (1985) 1392 1420 Stankus et al. (2000) 1372 1414 selected value: 1388 \pm 3 1413 \pm 3 TmF3 Spedding and Daane (1960) 1431 Thoma and Burton (1966) 1303 1415 Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b 1325 \pm 3 1416 \pm 3 Sobolev et al. (1976a) 1320 1432 Greis and Cader (1985) 1322 1431 Selected value: 1325 \pm 3 1431 \pm 3	Sobolev et al. (1976a)	1377	1407
Greis and Cader (1985) 1392 1420 Stankus et al. (2000) 1372 1414 selected value: 1388 \pm 3 1413 \pm 3 TmF3 Spedding and Daane (1960) 1431 Thoma and Burton (1966) 1303 1415 Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b 1325 \pm 3 1416 \pm 3 Sobolev et al. (1976a) 1320 1432 Greis and Cader (1985) 1322 1431 selected value: 1325 \pm 3 1431 \pm 3	Sobolev et al. (1976c)	1390	1413
Stankus et al. (2000) 1372 1414 selected value: 1388 \pm 3 1413 \pm 3 TmF3 Spedding and Daane (1960) 1431 Thoma and Burton (1966) 1303 1415 Jones and Shand (1968) ^a 1298 1416 \pm 3 Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b 1325 \pm 3 1416 \pm 3 Sobolev et al. (1976a) 1320 1432 Greis and Cader (1985) 1322 1431 selected value: 1325 \pm 3 1431 \pm 3	Greis and Cader (1985)	1392	1420
selected value: 1388 ± 3 1413 ± 3 TmF3 Spedding and Daane (1960) 1431 Thoma and Burton (1966) 1303 Jones and Shand (1968) ^a 1298 1415 Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b 1325 ± 3 1416 ± 3 Sobolev et al. (1976a) 1320 1432 Greis and Cader (1985) 1322 1431 selected value: 1325 ± 3 1431 ± 3	Stankus et al. (2000)	1372	1414
$\begin{array}{ccc} {\rm TmF_3} & & & & & & & \\ {\rm Spedding \ and \ Daane \ (1960)} & & & & & 1431 \\ {\rm Thoma \ and \ Burton \ (1966)} & & & & 1303 \\ {\rm Jones \ and \ Shand \ (1968)^a} & & & 1298 & & 1415 \\ {\rm Spedding \ and \ Henderson \ (1971)^b} & & & 1325 \pm 3 & & 1416 \pm 3 \\ {\rm Sobolev \ et \ al. \ (1976a)} & & & & 1320 & & 1432 \\ {\rm Greis \ and \ Cader \ (1985)} & & & & 1322 & & 1431 \\ {\rm selected \ value} & & & & 1325 \pm 3 & & & 1431 \pm 3 \\ \end{array}$	selected value:	1388 ± 3	1413 ± 3
Spedding and Data (1960) 1303 Thoma and Burton (1966) 1303 Jones and Shand (1968) ^a 1298 Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b 1325 \pm 3 Sobolev et al. (1976a) 1320 Greis and Cader (1985) 1322 1431 1431 \pm 3	TmF ₃ Spedding and Daape (1960)		1/21
Initial and Entrif (1960)1305Jones and Shard (1968) ^a 1298Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b 1325 ± 3 Sobolev et al. (1976a)1320Greis and Cader (1985)132214311431 + 3	Thoma and Burton (1966)	1303	1431
Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b 1325 ± 3 1415 Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b 1325 ± 3 1416 ± 3 Sobolev et al. (1976a) 1320 1432 Greis and Cader (1985) 1322 1431 selected value: 1325 ± 3 1431 ± 3	Iones and Shand (1968) ^a	1208	1415
Spectrum and reduction (1777) 1325 ± 5 1410 ± 5 Sobolev et al. (1976a) 1320 1432 Greis and Cader (1985) 1322 1431 selected value: 1325 ± 3 1431 ± 3	Spedding and Henderson (1071) ^b	1250 1325 ± 3	1413 $1/16 \pm 2$
Greis and Cader (1985) 1322 1431 selected value: 1325 + 3 1431 + 3	Sobolev et al. (1976a)	1323 ± 3 1220	1410 ± 3
selected value: $1325 + 3$ $1431 + 3$	Greis and Cader (1985)	1320	1432
	selected value:	1322 1325 ± 3	1431 1431 + 3

Table A.1, continued from previous page

authors	$T_{\rm trs}/{\rm K}$	T _{fus} /K
YbF ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1430
Thoma and Burton (1966)	1258	
Jones and Shand (1968) ^a	1245	1445
Zhigarnovskii and Ippolitov (1970b)	1273 ± 7	
Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b	1267 ± 3	1416 ± 3
Gogadze et al. (1972c)	1273 ± 5	1418 ± 5
Labeau et al. (1974)	1251	1438
Sobolev et al. (1976a)	1251	1428
Greis and Cader (1985)	1259	1445
Stankus et al. (1999)	1256	1440 ± 5
selected value:	1267 ± 3	1435 ± 5
LuF ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1455
Thoma and Burton (1966)	1218	
Jones and Shand (1968) ^a	1152	1456
Spedding and Henderson (1971) ^b	1230 ± 3	1457 ± 3
Sobolev et al. (1976a)	1226	1455
Greis and Cader (1985)	1216	1453
Stankus et al. (2000)	1220	1461
selected value:	1230 ± 3	1455 ± 3

Table A.1, continued from previous page

^aResults published in graphical form only. ^bAlso reported by Henderson (1970).

Table A.2	
Transition and melting temperatures for the lanthanide trichlorides	

authors	$T_{\rm trs}/{\rm K}$	$T_{\rm fus}/{\rm K}$
LaCl ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1135
Dworkin and Bredig (1963a)		1131
Vogel and Schneider (1972)		1123
Nisel'son and Lyzlov (1976)		1125
Lyzlov and Nisel'son (1978)		1125
Seifert et al. (1985)		1117
Laptev et al. (1986)		1118
Igarashi and Mochinaga (1987)		1150
Gaune-Escard et al. (1994)		1127
selected value:		1133 ± 5
CeCl ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1090
Dworkin and Bredig (1971)		1090
Nisel'son and Lyzlov (1976)		1104
Laptev et al. (1986)		1092
Seifert et al. (1988a)		1104
Gaune-Escard et al. (1994)		1086
selected value:		1090 ± 2

rubie ring, communed from previous page	Table A.2,	continued	from	previous	page
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authors	T _{trs} /K	$T_{\rm fuc}/{ m K}$
PrCl ₃		Tus
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1059
Dworkin and Bredig (1963a)		1059
Nisel'son and Lyzlov (1976)		1051
Laptev et al. (1986)		1051
Igarashi and Mochinaga (1987)		1059
Seifert et al. (1987)		1062
Gaune-Escard et al. (1994)		1061
selected value:		1060 ± 2
NdCl ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1031
Druding and Corbett (1961)		1031
Dworkin and Bredig (1963a)		1032
Vogel and Schneider (1972)		1032
Nisel'son and Lyzlov (1976)		1027
Lyzlov and Nisel'son (1978)		1027
Laptev et al. (1986)		1043
Igarashi and Mochinaga (1987)		1029
Seifert et al. (1988b)		1037 ^a
Gaune-Escard et al. (1994)		1032
selected value:		1032 ± 2
SmCl ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		955
Korshunov et al. (1964)		938
Vogel and Schneider (1972)		941
Nisel'son and Lyzlov (1976)		941
Laptev et al. (1986)		948
Thiel and Seifert (1988)		941
Rycerz and Gaune-Escard (2002a)		950
selected value:		950 ± 5
EuCl ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		decomposes
Korshunov et al. (1966a)		896
Laptev et al. (1986)		893
Kiseleva et al. (1990)		905 ± 7
Seifert and Sandrok (1991)		893
Rycerz and Gaune-Escard (2002b)		894
selected value:		894 ± 3
GdCl ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		875
Harris and Veale (1965)	373 ± 10	873 ± 10
Korshunov and Drobot (1965)		882
Dworkin and Bredig (1971)		875
Vogel and Schneider (1972)		873

outhors		T /V
Nisel'son and Lyzley (1076)	$I_{\rm trs}/{\rm K}$	$I_{\rm fus}/K$
Lyzlov and Nisel'son (1978)		901
Garton and Walker (1982)		901
Jarashi and Mochinaga (1987)		002 875
Dariel et al. (1980)	870 975	015
Comushin et al. (1909)	870-873	8961 + 22
Solfart at al. (1990)		000.1 ± 3.3
Compared Examples of (1004)		0/0
Gaune-Escard et al. (1994)	872 10	8/3
selected value.	872 ± 10	873 ± 2
TbCl ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)	770	855
Korshunov et al. (1966a)		851
Dworkin and Bredig (1971)	783 ± 2	855 ± 2
Lyzlov and Nisel'son (1978)	801	868
Garton and Walker (1982)		860
Goryushkin et al. (1990)	793.1 ± 4.7	856.9 ± 4.7
Rycerz and Gaune-Escard (1999b)	790	854
Morrison et al. (2000)	\sim 783	
selected value:	783 ± 5	855 ± 3
DyCl ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		920
Korshunov and Drobot (1965)		927
Dworkin and Bredig (1971)		924 ± 2
Lyzlov and Nisel'son (1978)		921
Garton and Walker (1982)		920
Igarashi and Mochinaga (1987)		928
Goryushkin et al. (1990)		929.4 ± 6.8
Gaune-Escard et al. (1996)	611	909
Reuter and Seifert (1994)		919
selected value:	611 ± 5	924 ± 3
HoCl ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		993
Korshunov et al. (1966b)		991
Dworkin and Bredig (1971)		993 ± 2
Garton and Walker (1982)		977
Goryushkin et al. (1990)		1014.3 ± 3.4
Roffe and Seifert (1997)		973
selected value:		993 ± 3
ErCl ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1049
Korshunov et al. (1966b)		1037
Dworkin and Bredig (1971)		1049 ± 2
Vogel and Schneider (1972)		1035
Lyzlov and Nisel'son (1978)		1054
Goryushkin et al. (1990)		1064.0 ± 3.0

Table A.2, continued from previous page

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Table A 2	continued	trom	previous	nage
14010 1112,	00111111000	<i>j. c</i>	prerious	pase

authors	T _{trc} /K	T _{fue} /K
Büchel et al. (1995)	- 45	1024
Gaune-Escard et al. (1996)	1025	1046
Dudek and Seifert (2001)		1024
selected value:		1049 ± 5
TmCl ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1097
Goryushkin et al. (1990)		1110.2 ± 3.5
Gaune-Escard et al. (1996)		1092
selected value:		1095 ± 3
YbCl ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1138
Goryushkin et al. (1990)		1155.5 ± 1.6
selected value:		1138 ± 5
LuCl ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1198
Lyzlov and Nisel'son (1978)		1177
Goryushkin et al. (1990)		1179.4 ± 2.4
selected value:		1198 ± 5

^aValue taken from the graphs, in the text 1104 K is given.

authors	$T_{\rm trs}/{ m K}$	$T_{\rm fus}/{\rm K}$
LaBr ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1062
Shimazaki and Niwa (1962)		1056
Dworkin and Bredig (1971)		1061 ± 2
Rycerz and Gaune-Escard (1999a)		1058
selected value:		1060 ± 3
CeBr ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1005
Shimazaki and Niwa (1962)		1005
Thoma and Burton (1966)		995
Dworkin and Bredig (1971)		1005 ± 2
selected value:		1005 ± 2
PrBr ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		964
Dworkin and Bredig (1971)		966 ± 2
selected value:		965 ± 3

Table A.3 Transition and melting temperatures for the lanthanide tribromides

authors	$T_{\rm trs}/{ m K}$	$T_{\rm fus}/{ m K}$
NdBr ₃ Spedding and Daane (1960) Shimazaki and Niwa (1962) Dworkin and Bredig (1971) Cordfunke et al. (1999) selected value:		955 957 955 ± 2 953.2 ± 0.3 955 ± 2
SmBr ₃ Spedding and Daane (1960) selected value:		913 913 ± 5
EuBr ₃ Spedding and Daane (1960) Thoma and Burton (1966) selected value:		decomposes 978 978 ± 10
GdBr ₃ Spedding and Daane (1960) Thoma and Burton (1966) selected value:		$1043 \\ 1058 \pm 2 \\ 1043 \pm 5$
TbBr ₃ Spedding and Daane (1960) Thoma and Burton (1966) selected value:		$1101 \\ 1103 \pm 2 \\ 1102 \pm 3$
DyBr ₃ Spedding and Daane (1960) Cordfunke and Blacquère (1997) selected value:		$1152 \\ 1151.0 \pm 1.5 \\ 1152 \pm 3$
HoBr ₃ Spedding and Daane (1960) Dworkin and Bredig (1971) Gietmann et al. (1996) selected value:		$ 1192 \\ 1192 \pm 2 \\ 1202 \\ 1192 \pm 3 $
ErBr ₃ Spedding and Daane (1960) selected value:		1196 1196 ± 5
TmBr ₃ Spedding and Daane (1960) Thoma and Burton (1966) selected value:		1227 1228 ± 2 1228 ± 3
LuBr ₃ Spedding and Daane (1960) Thoma and Burton (1966) selected value:		$1298 \\ 1233 \pm 2 \\ 1298 \pm 5$

Table A.3, continued from previous page

Transition and melting temperatures for the lanthanide triiodides				
authors	$T_{ m trs}/ m K$	$T_{\rm fus}/{ m K}$		
LaI ₃				
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1045		
Corbett et al. (1962)		1051.5		
Shimazaki and Niwa (1962)		1034		
Dworkin and Bredig (1971)		1051 ± 2		
Kutscher and Schneider (1971)		1041		
selected value:		1045 ± 3		
CeI ₃				
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1039		
Corbett et al. (1962)		1033–1034		
Dworkin and Bredig (1963a)		1033 ± 2		
Konings and Kok-Scheele (1999)		1027 ± 1		
selected value:		1033 ± 2		
PrI ₃		1010		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1010		
Shimazaki and Niwa (1962)		1006		
Dworkin and Bredig (1963a)		1011 ± 2		
Kutscher and Schneider (19/1)		1003		
Corbett (1972)		1011		
selected value:		1011 ± 2		
NdI ₃				
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1057		
Druding and Corbett (1961)	847	1060		
Shimazaki and Niwa (1962)		1048		
Dworkin and Bredig (1963a)	847±2	1060 ± 2		
Kutscher and Schneider (1971)	836	1053		
Corbett (1972)		1060		
Cordfunke et al. (1999)	859.3 ± 0.6	1058.7 ± 0.6		
selected value:	859 ± 3	1059 ± 2		
SmI ₃ Spedding and Deepe (1960)		1122		
Vertexhan and Cabracidan (1900)	0.42	1020 10078		
Kutscher and Schneider (1971)	943	1089-1097*		
Molodkin et al. (1984)		1144-1155		
Posnevneva et al. (2002)	0.12 + 10	1145 ± 9		
selected value:	943 ± 10	1123 ± 5		
GdI ₃ Spedding and Deepe (1060)		1108		
Maa and Corbett (1965)		1190		
Kutscher and Schneider (1971)	1021	1204		
Dworkin and Bradia (1071)	1021	1213		
Corbett (1072)	1013 ± 2	1204 ± 2		
colocted (1972)	1012 5	1204		
selected value:	1013 ± 3	1204 ± 3		

Table A.4
 Transition and melting temperatures for the lanthanide trijodide

authors	$T_{ m trs}/ m K$	$T_{\rm fus}/{ m K}$
TbI ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1230
Dworkin and Bredig (1971)	1080 ± 2	1228 ± 2
selected value:	1080 ± 5	1229 ± 3
DyI ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1251
Kutscher and Schneider (1971)	1246	1250
Corbett (1972)	1101	1256
Cordfunke and Blacquère (1997)		1251.5 ± 1.5
selected value:	1101 ± 5	1251 ± 3
HoI ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1267
Gietmann et al. (1996)		1283
Goryushkin and Poshevneva (1996)		1266 ± 2
selected value:		1267 ± 5
ErI ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1288
Corbett (1972)		1287
Goryushkin et al. (1999)		1282 ± 10
selected value:		1288 ± 3
TmI ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1294
selected value:		1294 ± 5
LuI ₃		
Spedding and Daane (1960)		1323
Goryushkin and Poshevneva (1992)		1313 ± 15
selected value:		1323 ± 5

Table A.4, continued from previous page

^aUnder decomposition.

Appendix B. The enthalpies of formation of the solid lanthanide trihalides

 Table B.1

 The enthalpy of formation of LaX₃(cr) at 298.15 K; ΔH_1° and ΔH_2° are the enthalpies of solution of La(cr) and LaX₃(cr) in HCl(aq), respectively

authors	methoda	$\Delta H_1^{\circ}/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta H_2^{\circ}/kJ \cdot mol^{-1}$	$\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}/{\rm kJ} \cdot {\rm mol}^{-1}$
LaF ₃		•	844	
Polyachenok (1967)	Н			-1695
Kondrat'ev ^b	S			-1698.2 ± 6.3
Khanaev et al. (1977)	S			-1630.1 ± 5.0
Rezukhina et al. (1974)	Е			-1731.8 ± 5.0
Johnson et al. (1980)	С			-1699.5 ± 2.0
selected value:				-1699.5 ± 2.0
			-	optimued on part page

authors	methoda	$\Delta H_1^{\circ}/kJ \cdot mol^{-1}$	$\Delta H_2^{\circ}/kJ \cdot mol^{-1}$	$\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}/{\rm kJ} \cdot {\rm mol}^{-1}$
LaCl ₃			4	
Bommer and Hohmann (1941a, 1941b)	S (0.1)	-738.5 ± 2.6	-132.2 ± 0.1	-1105.1 ± 2.6
				-1072.2 ± 2.7^{c}
Lohr and Cunningham (1951)	S (1.5)	-695.0 ± 5.9		
Spedding and Flynn (1954)	S (0.27)	-705.7 ± 0.2	-130.3 ± 0.7	-1073.0 ± 0.9
Montgomery (1959)	S (0.51)		-129.7 ± 0.4	-1070.2 ± 0.7^{d}
				-1070.3 ± 1.6^{g}
Fitzgibbon et al. (1965)	S (1.0)	-705.5 ± 1.3		
Gvelesiani and Yashvili (1967)	S (1.0)	-708.0 ± 2.0		
	S (1.5)	-708.8 ± 1.4		
Morss (1969)	S (1.0)	-703.3 ± 3.8		
Laptev et al. (1990)	Е			-1066.9 ± 1.1
Cordfunke and Booij (1995)	S (1.0)		-126.4 ± 0.5	-1072.3 ± 1.5^{e}
				$-1071.1 \pm 1.4^{\mathrm{f}}$
Oppermann et al. (1997)	S (4.0)		-111.8 ± 0.4	-1065.9 ± 0.6^{d}
				$-1069.4 \pm 1.3^{ m g}$
Merli et al. (1998)	S (1.0)	-704.4 ± 1.2		
	S (6.0)	-707.8 ± 1.2		
selected value:				-1071.6 ± 1.5
LaBr ₃				
Hurtgen et al. (1980)	S (1.0)		-158.5 ± 0.2	-905.1 ± 1.4^{e}
				$-904.0 \pm 1.2^{\rm f}$
	S (0.1)		-163.7 ± 0.4	-902.3 ± 0.7^{c}
Oppermann et al. (1997)	S (4.0)		-146.1 ± 0.4^{i}	-902.8 ± 1.2^{d}
selected value:				-904.4 ± 1.5
LaI3				
Hohmann and Bommer (1941)	S (0.1)	-738.5 ± 2.6	-200.6 ± 0.7	-706.5 ± 2.7
	~ /			$-671.9 \pm 1.7^{\circ}$
Furkaliouk et al. (1995)	S (1.0)			-667.9 ± 1.6
· · · ·			$[-196.6 \pm 1.1]^{h}$	-673.9 ± 1.6^{e}
Oppermann et al. (1997)	S (4.0)		-167.5 ± 0.4^{j}	-689.4 ± 1.1^{d}
selected value:	. /			-673.9 ± 2.0

Table B.1, continued from previous page	зe
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^aE: e.m.f. measurements, S: solution calorimetry; values in parentheses give the concentration of the solvent in mol·dm⁻³; H: high temperature equilibria.

^bKondrat'ev Y.V., Thesis, University of Leningrad. Cited and recalculated by Johnson et al. (1980).

^cUsing ΔH_1° from Spedding and Flynn (1954).

^dCycle based on $\Delta_{f}H^{\circ}(La_{2}O_{3}(cr))$.

^eUsing ΔH_1° from Merli et al. (1998).

^fUsing ΔH_1° from Fitzgibbon et al. (1965).

^gUsing ΔH_1° extra- or interpolated from the results of Merli et al. (1998).

^hDerived from Furkaliouk et al. (1995).

ⁱIn HBr(aq).

^jIn HI(aq).

Table B.2	
The enthalpy of formation of CeX ₃ (cr) at 298.15 K; ΔH_1° and ΔH_2° are the enthalpies of solution of Ce(cr) and	١d
$CeX_3(cr)$ in HCl(aq), respectively	

authors	method ^a	$\Delta H_1^{\circ}/kJ \cdot mol^{-1}$	$\Delta H_2^{\circ}/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}/{\rm kJ} \cdot {\rm mol}^{-1}$
CeF ₃				
Kholokhova and Rezukhina (1976)	Е			-1732.6 ± 4.2
selected value:				-1689.2 ± 5.0^{b}
CeCl ₃				
Bommer and Hohmann (1941a, 1941b)	S (0.1)	-726.8 ± 2.9	-136.8 ± 0.7	-1088.8 ± 3.0
				$-1061.1 \pm 0.8^{\rm c}$
Spedding and Miller (1952)	S (0.24)	-699.2 ± 0.2	-137.1 ± 0.4	-1059.6 ± 0.5
	S (0.37)		-134.2 ± 0.9	
Montgomery (1962)	S (1.5)	-690.9 ± 0.6	-129.4 ± 0.3	-1058.9 ± 0.7
Laptev et al. (1990)	Е			-1029.2 ± 0.7
Cordfunke and Booij (1995)	S (0.24)		-136.24 ± 0.48	$-1060.5 \pm 0.6^{\rm c}$
selected value:				-1059.7 ± 1.5
CeBr ₃				
Furkaliouk and Cordfunke (1996)	S (0.25)		-168.87 ± 0.38	$-891.5\pm0.8^{\rm c}$
				$-891.4 \pm 1.0^{ m d}$
				-890.7 ± 1.7^{e}
selected value:				-891.2 ± 1.5
CeI ₃				
Hohmann and Bommer (1941)	S (0.1)	-726.8	-690.4 ± 2.9	
			-206.8	-662.8
Furkaliouk and Cordfunke (1996)	S (1.0)			-669.4 ± 0.9
			$[-200.0 \pm 0.9]^{f}$	$-667.3 \pm 1.0^{\rm c}$
				-666.4 ± 1.9^{e}
selected value:				-666.8 ± 3.0

^aE: e.m.f. measurements, S: solution calorimetry; values in parentheses give the concentration of the solvent in $^{mol}\,dm^{-3}.$ ^{b}See main text for explanation of selected value.

^cUsing ΔH_1° from Spedding and Flynn (1954).

^dRecalculation of the reaction cycle in Cordfunke and Booij (1995) based on KCl/KBr.

^eChloride cycle using ΔH_1° (CeCl₃) from Cordfunke and Booij (1995).

 $^{\rm f} Derived$ from the enthalpy of solution of a CeI_3/KCl mixture.

Table B.3 The enthalpy of formation of $PrX_3(cr)$ at 298.15 K; ΔH_1° and ΔH_2° are the enthalpies of solution of Pr(cr) and $PrX_3(cr)$ in HCl(aq), respectively

authors	method ^a	$\Delta H_1^{\circ}/kJ \cdot mol^{-1}$	$\Delta H_2^{\circ}/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}/{\rm kJ} \cdot {\rm mol}^{-1}$
PrF ₃		- I	ka.	
Polyachenok (1967)	Н			-1678
Kondrat'ev ^b	S			-1689.0 ± 6.3
Rezukhina et al. (1974)	Е			-1712.0 ± 5.0
Johnson et al. (1980)	С			-1689.1 ± 2.6
selected value:				-1689.1 ± 2.6
PrCl ₃				
Bommer and Hohmann (1941a, 1941b)	S (0.1)	-723.4 ± 1.1	-141.8 ± 2.2	-1081.1 ± 2.5
				-1061.8°
Lohr and Cunningham (1951)	S (1.5)	-687.9 ± 9.6		
Spedding and Flynn (1954)	S (0.25)	-704.1	-142.2 ± 0.6	-1059.4
	S (1.47)	-692.8	-125.6 ± 0.9	-1057.7
				-1052.6 ± 9.6^{d}
Stubblefield (1969)	S (1.0)	-687.9 ± 3.4		
Fitzgibbon et al. (1973)	S (2.0)	-692.2 ± 1.3		
Laptev et al. (1990)	E			-1035.9 ± 1.1
selected value:				-1058.6 ± 1.5
PrBr ₃				
Hurtgen et al. (1980)	S (1.0)		-171.7 ± 0.7	-874.3 ± 3.4^{e}
-	S (0.25)		$[-174.8 \pm 0.6]^{f}$	$-890.5 \pm 4.0^{\circ}$
	S (0.1)		-176.3 ± 0.4	-889.9 ^g
selected value:				-890.5 ± 4.0
PrI ₃				
Hohmann and Bommer (1941)	S (0.1)	-723.4 ± 1.1	-208.9 ± 0.1	-683.1 ± 1.1
				$-664.7 \pm 2.0^{\circ}$
selected value:				-664.7 ± 5.0

 ${}^{a}E:$ e.m.f. measurements, S: solution calorimetry; values in parentheses give the concentration of the solvent in mol·dm⁻³; H: high temperature equilibria.

^bKondrat'ev Y.V., Thesis, University of Leningrad. Cited and recalculated by Johnson et al. (1980).

^cUsing ΔH_1° from Spedding and Flynn (1954).

^dUsing ΔH_1° from Lohr and Cunningham (1951).

^eUsing ΔH_1° from Stubblefield (1969).

^fEstimated by interpolation.

^gUsing ΔH_1° from Bommer and Hohmann (1941a).

$NdX_3(cr)$ in HCl(aq), respectively					
authors	methoda	$\Delta H_1^{\circ}/kJ \cdot mol^{-1}$	$\Delta H_2^{\circ}/kJ \cdot mol^{-1}$	$\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}/{\rm kJ} \cdot {\rm mol}^{-1}$	
NdF ₃		•	L		
Polyachenok (1967)	Н			-1653	
Kondrat'ev ^b	S			-1678.1 ± 2.1	
Kholokhova and Rezukhina (1976)	Е			-1712.9 ± 4.2	
Khanaev et al. (1977)	S			-1650.6 ± 4.6	
Johnson et al. (1980)	С			-1679.4 ± 1.9	
Kim and Oishi (1980)	С			-1660.6 ± 4.9	
selected value:				-1679.4 ± 1.9	
NdCl ₃					
Bommer and Hohmann (1941a, 1941b)	S (0.1)	-717.1 ± 4.3	-150.2 ± 0.2	-1065.7 ± 4.3	
		$[-688.0 \pm 2.5]^{g}$		-1036.6 ± 2.5	
Spedding and Miller (1952)	S (0.25)	-680.3 ± 0.8	-148.7 ± 0.4	-1029.0 ± 0.9	
Polyachenok and Novikov (1963a)	S (0.2)	-685.8 ± 5.4	-154.8 ± 0.8	-1028.9 ± 5.5	
Stuve (1965a)	S (4.0)	-693.6 ± 0.9	-127.3 ± 0.3	-1041.3 ± 1.0	
Popova and Monaenkova (1989)	S (2.19)	-686.8 ± 1.0			
Tiflova (1990)	S (2.3)	-690.8 ± 1.6	-140.0 ± 0.6	-1036.6 ± 1.7	
Cordfunke et al. (1996)	S (2.3)		-137.1 ± 0.5	-1039.5 ± 1.7^{c}	
		$[-692.8 \pm 2.0]^{g}$		-1041.5 ± 2.1^{d}	
	S (4.0)		-128.3 ± 0.3	-1040.3 ± 1.0^{e}	
		$[-695.1 \pm 2.0]^{g}$		-1041.8 ± 2.0^{d}	
Merli et al. (1998)	S (1.0)	-689.6 ± 2.0			
	S (3.0)	-693.9 ± 1.3			
	S (6.0)	-695.7 ± 1.8			
Hennig and Oppermann (1998)	S (4.0)		-127.5 ± 0.3	-1037.1 ± 0.6^{f}	
				-1042.6 ± 2.0^{d}	
selected value:				-1040.9 ± 1.0	
NdBr2					
Hurtgen et al. (1980)	S (0 1)	$[-688.0 \pm 2.51^{g}]$	-1845 ± 0.6	-865.6 ± 2.6	
Hennig and Oppermann (1990)	S (4.0)g	[000.0 ± 2.0]	169.9 ± 0.0	862.3 ± 3.19	
selected value:	3 (4.0)		-109.9±0.2	-864.0 ± 3.0	
NdI ₃					
Hohmann and Bommer (1941)	S (0.1)	-717.1 ± 4.3	-215.7 ± 0.2	-670.0 ± 4.3	
		$[-688.0\pm2.5]^{g}$		-640.9 ± 2.5	
Hennig and Oppermann (2000)	S (4.0) ^h		-201.8 ± 0.6	$-637.4 \pm 1.6^{\rm h}$	
selected value:				-639.2 ± 4.0	

Table B.4 The enthalpy of formation of NdX₃(cr) at 298.15 K; ΔH_1° and ΔH_2° are the enthalpies of solution of Nd(cr) and NdX₃(cr) in HCl(aq), respectively

 ${}^{a}E$: e.m.f. measurements, S: solution calorimetry; values in parentheses give the concentration of the solvent in mol·dm⁻³; H: high temperature equilibria.

^bKondrat'ev Y.V., Thesis, University of Leningrad. Cited and recalculated by Johnson et al. (1980).

^cUsing ΔH_1° from Tiflova (1990).

^dUsing ΔH_1° (interpolated) from Merli et al. (1998).

^eUsing ΔH_1° from Stuve (1965a).

^fIn HBr(aq); cycle based on $\Delta_{f} H^{\circ}(Nd_{2}O_{3}(cr))$.

^gValue estimated by the present authors.

^hIn HI(aq); cycle based on $\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}({\rm Nd}_2{\rm O}_3({\rm cr}))$.

Table B.5 The enthalpy of formation of SmX₃(cr) at 298.15 K; ΔH_1° and ΔH_2° are the enthalpies of solution of Sm(cr) and SmX₃(cr) in HCl(aq), respectively

	5		-	
authors	method ^a	$\Delta H_1^{\circ}/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta H_2^{\circ}/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}/{\rm kJ} \cdot {\rm mol}^{-1}$
SmF ₃		· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·		
Kim et al. (1977)	С			-1669.0 ± 4.6
selected value:				-1700.7 ± 5.0^{b}
SmCl ₃				
Bommer and Hohmann (1941b)	S (0.05)		-163.2 ± 0.2	$-1025.9 \pm 1.7^{\circ}$
Machlan et al. (1955)	S (6.0)		-123.4 ± 0.8	
Montgomery and Hubert (1959)	S (0.48)		-158.5 ± 1.0	-1025.1 ± 1.8^{d}
Gvelesiani and Yashvili (1967)	S (0.7)	-683.7 ± 5.4		
	S (1.0)	-682.6 ± 2.4		
Baker et al. (1972)	S (2.0)	-690.1 ± 1.3		
	S (3.99)	-689.5 ± 3.8		
Morss and Fahey (1976)	S (2.0)		-151.9	-1025.8 ± 1.3^{e}
Khanaev et al. (1987)	S (0.05) ^f	-689.6 ± 1.7		
Hennig and Oppermann (1997)	S (4.0)		-139.2 ± 0.2	-1025.1 ± 1.4^{d}
				-1025.3 ± 3.8^{e}
selected value:				-1025.3 ± 2.0
SmBr ₃				
Hurtgen et al. (1980)	S (1.0)		-190.2 ± 0.9	-850.5 ± 2.6^{g}
		$[-689.0 \pm 2.0]^{h}$		-856.9 ± 2.2
	S (0.1)		-195.4 ± 0.8	$-856.3 \pm 2.1^{\circ}$
selected value:				-853.4 ± 3.0
SmI ₃				
Hohmann and Bommer (1941)	S (0.05)		-237.0 ± 0.7	$-621.5 \pm 1.8^{\rm c}$
selected value:				-621.5 ± 4.0

^aE: e.m.f. measurements, S: solution calorimetry; values in parentheses give the concentration of the solvent in $mol \cdot dm^{-3}$.

^bSee main text for explanation of selected value.

^cUsing ΔH_1° from Khanaev et al. (1987).

^dCycle based on $\Delta_{f}H^{\circ}(Sm_{2}O_{3}(cr))$.

^eUsing ΔH_1° from Baker et al. (1972).

 $^{\rm f}{\rm The}$ measurements were carried out in ${\rm HClO}_4({\rm aq}).$

^gUsing ΔH_1° from Gvelesiani and Yashvili (1967).

^hEstimated.

authors	methoda	$\Delta H_1^{\circ}/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta H_2^{\circ}/kJ \cdot mol^{-1}$	$\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}/{\rm kJ} \cdot {\rm mol}^{-1}$
EuCl ₃		1	4	-
Bommer and Hohmann (1941b)	S (0.1)		-172.2 ± 0.2	$-872.3 \pm 2.9^{\rm b}$
				$-1015.2 \pm 2.9^{\rm c}$
Machlan et al. (1955)	S (6.0)		-129.3 ± 0.8	$-920.8 \pm 2.6^{\rm d}$
Burnett and Cunningham (1964), Burnett (1964)	S (0.1)	-688.6 ± 2.9		
Stuve (1965b)	S (4.0)	-583.0 ± 2.5^{e}	-143.6 ± 0.4	-914.5 ± 2.5
				$-936.6 \pm 2.9^{\rm f}$
				$-936.1 \pm 2.1^{\rm g}$
Stubblefield et al. (1965)	S (6.0)	-589.9 ± 2.9		
Fitzgibbon et al. (1972)	S (4.0)	-605.2 ± 2.9		
Hennig et al. (1998)	S (4.0)		-146.9 ± 0.2	-893.6 ± 2.1^{g}
				$-911.2 \pm 2.5^{ m h}$
				$-933.4 \pm 2.9^{\rm f}$
selected value:				-935.4 ± 3.0

Table B.6 The enthalpy of formation of EuX₃(cr) at 298.15 K; ΔH_1° and ΔH_2° are the enthalpies of solution of Eu(cr) and EuX₃(cr) in HCl(aq), respectively

^aE: e.m.f. measurements, S: solution calorimetry; values in parentheses give the concentration of the solvent in $mol \cdot dm^{-3}$.

^bUsing ΔH_1° from Burnett and Cunningham (1964).

^cUsing ΔH_1° from Burnett and Cunningham (1964) neglecting the effect of oxygen in the HCl(aq) solution.

^dUsing ΔH_1° from Stubblefield et al. (1965).

^eTwo sets of measurements with different samples of Eu(cr).

^fUsing ΔH_1° from Fitzgibbon et al. (1972).

^gCycle based on $\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}({\rm Eu}_2{\rm O}_3({\rm cr}))$.

^hUsing ΔH_1° from Stuve (1965b).

Table B.7

The enthalpy of formation of $GdX_3(cr)$ at 298.15 K; ΔH_1° and ΔH_2° are the enthalpies of solution of Gd(cr) and $GdX_3(cr)$ in HCl(aq), respectively

authors	method ^a	$\Delta H_1^{\circ}/kJ \cdot mol^{-1}$	$\Delta H_2^{\circ}/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}/{\rm kJ} \cdot {\rm mol}^{-1}$
GdF ₃				
Rudzitis and Deventer (1965)	С			-1700.8 ± 1.3
Polyachenok (1967)	Н			-1628
Kondrat'ev ^b	S			-1672.2 ± 2.1
Kholokhova and Rezukhina (1976)	Е			-1713.3 ± 4.6
Storozhenko et al. (1976)	S			-1646.5 ± 3.2
Kim et al. (1978)	С			-1698.7 ± 7.1
Johnson et al. (1980)	С			-1699.3 ± 2.3
selected value:				-1699.3 ± 2.3
GdCl ₃				
Bommer and Hohmann (1941a, 1941b)	S (0.1)	-706.3 ± 2.3	-177.4 ± 0.2	-1027.7 ± 2.3
				$-1005.0 \pm 1.3^{\circ}$
Spedding and Flynn (1954)	S (0.27)	-683.6 ± 1.3	-174.1 ± 0.7	-1006.9 ± 1.5
Daire (1968)	S (1.0)	-682.8 ± 1.3		
Yashvili and Gvelesiani (1971)	S (6.0)	-694.5 ± 1.7		

authors	method ^a	$\Delta H_1^{\circ}/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta H_2^{\circ}/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}/{\rm kJ} \cdot {\rm mol}^{-1}$
Tiflova et al. (1989)	S (2.19)	-684.9 ± 0.4	-165.3 ± 0.2	-1006.1 ± 0.5
		$[-695.2 \pm 1.5]^{e}$		-1016.3 ± 1.5^{d}
Furkaliouk et al. (1992)	S (1.0)	-683.7 ± 0.7		
Laptev et al. (1993)	Е			-1009.8 ± 1.1
Merli et al. (1998)	S (1.0)	-694.9 ± 1.0	-170.5 ± 0.7	-1017.5 ± 1.3
	S (6.0)	-696.1 ± 1.1		
	S (6.1)		-136.4 ± 0.7	-1018.9 ± 1.3
selected value:				-1018.2 ± 1.5
GdBr ₃				
Hurtgen et al. (1980)	S (1.0)		-214.8 ± 0.7	$-827.0 \pm 1.6^{\circ}$
-				-838.2 ± 1.8^{d}
	S (0.27)		$[-218.4 \pm 1.1]$	-826.3 ± 2.0^{f}
	S (0.1)		-219.9 ± 1.1	
selected value:	. ,			-838.2 ± 2.0
GdI3				
Hohmann and Bommer (1941)	S (0.1)	-706.3 ± 2.3	-256.0 ± 2.5^{g}	-618.9 ± 3.4
Furkaliouk et al. (1992)	S (1.0)	-688.2 ± 0.8	-236.9 ± 0.3	-612.9 ± 0.9
	S (0.1)			-624.1 ± 1.1^{d}
selected value:				-624.1 ± 3.0

Table B.7, continued from previous page

^aE: e.m.f. measurements, S: solution calorimetry; values in parentheses give the concentration of the solvent in $mol \cdot dm^{-3}$; H: high temperature equilibria.

^bKondrat'ev Y.V., Thesis, University of Leningrad. Cited and recalculated by Johnson et al. (1980).

^cUsing ΔH_1° from Spedding and Flynn (1954).

^dUsing ΔH_1° from Merli et al. (1998).

 ${}^{e}\Delta H_{1}^{\circ}$ estimated from the results of Merli et al. (1998).

^fThe value obtained by combining ΔH_2° interpolated from the results of Hurtgen et al. (1980) and ΔH_1° from Spedding and Flynn (1954).

^gThe value corrected to 298.15 K.

authors	method ^a	$\Delta H_1^{\circ}/kJ \cdot mol^{-1}$	$\Delta H_2^{\circ}/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}/{\rm kJ} \cdot {\rm mol}^{-1}$
TbF3				
Kholokhova and Rezukhina (1976)	E			-1707.9 ± 5.0
Storozhenko et al. (1976)	S			-1623.3 ± 3.8
selected value:				-1695.9 ± 5.0
TbCl ₃				
Stuve (1967a)	S (4.0)	-689.9	-167.9	-997.1
Fitzgibbon and Holley Jr. (1968)	S (1.0)	-701.7 ± 2.5		

Table B.8 The enthalpy of formation of TbX₃(cr) at 298.15 K; ΔH_1° and ΔH_2° are the enthalpies of solution of Tb(cr) and TbX₃(cr) in HCl(aq), respectively

authors	method ^a	$\Delta H_1^{\circ}/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta H_2^{\circ}/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}/{\rm kJ} \cdot {\rm mol}^{-1}$
Morss (1976)	S (0.89)	-696.2	-181.5	-1008.6 ^b
				-1013.9°
				-1009.2^{d}
				-998.2 ^e
Bettonville et al. (1987)	S (1.0)	-697.0 ± 1.2		
Furkaliouk et al. (1993)	S (1.0)	-686.0 ± 0.6		
selected value:				-1010.6 ± 3.0
TbBr ₃				
Bettonville et al. (1987)	S (1.0)	-697.0 ± 1.2	-216.0 ± 1.5	-842.1 ± 2.0
				-841.5^{f}
				$-846.8 \pm 3.0^{\circ}$
selected value:				-843.5 ± 3.0
TbI ₃				
Furkaliouk (1993)	S (1.0)	-682.7 ± 0.4	-240.7 ± 0.3	-608.1 ± 0.5
Furkaliouk et al. (1993)	S (1.0)	-686.0 ± 0.6	-240.7 ± 0.3	-611.4 ± 0.7
				-621.8^{f}
				-627.1 ± 1.2^{c}
				-622.4 ± 2.5^{d}
selected value:				-623.8 ± 3.0

Table B.8, continued from previous page

^aE: e.m.f. measurements, S: solution calorimetry; values in parentheses give the concentration of the solvent in $mol \cdot dm^{-3}$. ^bQuoted in Morss (1976).

^cUsing ΔH_1° from Fitzgibbon and Holley Jr. (1968).

^dUsing ΔH_1° from Bettonville et al. (1987).

^eUsing ΔH_1° from Furkaliouk et al. (1993).

^fUsing ΔH_1° from Morss (1976).

Table B.9	
The enthalpy of formation of DyX ₃ (cr) at 298.15 K; ΔH_1° and ΔH_2° are the enthalpies of solution of L	Dy(cr) and
$DyX_3(cr)$ in HCl(aq), respectively	

authors	methoda	$\Delta H_1^{\circ}/kJ \cdot mol^{-1}$	$\Delta H_2^{\circ}/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}/{\rm kJ} \cdot {\rm mol}^{-1}$
DyF ₃		•		
Storozhenko et al. (1976)	S			-1640.2 ± 4.5
Kim et al. (1980)	С			-1678 ± 8
Johnson et al. (1980)	С			-1692.0 ± 1.9
selected value:				-1692.0 ± 1.9
DyCl ₃				
Bommer and Hohmann (1941a, 1941b)	S (0.1) ^b	-695.5 ± 0.2	-197.9 ± 0.4	-996.4 ± 0.5
Morss (1976) ^c	S (4.0)	-692.4	-180.4	-987.0
				$-989.9 \pm 3.0^{ m d}$

authors	method ^a	$\Delta H_1^{\circ}/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta H_2^{\circ}/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}/{\rm kJ} \cdot {\rm mol}^{-1}$
Huber Jr. et al. (1971)	S (4.0)	-695.3 ± 2.9	2	
Morss and Fahey (1976)	S (4.0)	-691 ± 9	-180.4 ± 1.1	-985.6 ± 9.1
Monaenkova et al. (1989)	S (2.19)	-704.2 ± 0.6	-190.7 ± 0.2	-999.9 ± 0.7
Tiflova (1990)	S (1.07)	-701.0 ± 0.6	-198.8 ± 0.3	-995.0 ± 0.7
	S (4.01)	-706.5 ± 0.4	-177.2 ± 0.5	-1004.4 ± 0.7
				-993.1 ± 3.0^{d}
				-992.9 ± 3.1^{e}
Cordfunke et al. (1996)	S (4.0)	-699.4 ± 1.3	-180.1 ± 0.2	-994.4 ± 1.3
				-990.0 ± 3.0^{e}
selected value:				-993.1 ± 3.0
DyBr ₃				
Bommer and Hohmann (1941a)	S (0.1) ^b	-694.0 ± 0.2		
Hurtgen et al. (1980)	S (1.0)		-218.9 ± 0.2	$-840.2 \pm 0.7^{\mathrm{f}}$
	S (0.1)		-223.2 ± 1.4	-834.4 ± 1.5^{g}
	S (0.1)		-223.2 ± 1.4	-838.3 ± 1.7^{h}
Cordfunke and Booii (1997)	S (1.0)			-835.0 ± 1.5
j ()			$[-224.9\pm0.4]^{i}$	-834.3 ± 2.2^{h}
selected value:			[-834.3 ± 3.0
DvI ₂				
Hohmann and Bommer (1941)	S (0,1) ^b	-694.8 ± 0.2	-256.7 ± 1.0	-606.7 ± 1.0
Morss and Spence (1992)	S (1.0)	-691 ± 9	-242 ± 8	-615.1 ± 12.0
Cordfunke and Booii (1997)	S (1.0)			-619.3 ± 1.8
J			$[-248.9 \pm 0.4]^{i}$	-616.7 ± 2.1^{h}
Leonidov and Furkalvuk (1999)	S (4.0)		-229.0 ± 0.6	-621.7 ± 1.4^{j}
selected value:				-616.7 ± 3.0

Table B.9, continued from previous page

^aE: e.m.f. measurements, S: solution calorimetry; values in parentheses give the concentration of the solvent in $mol \cdot dm^{-3}$.

^bThe measurements were carried out at 294 K.

^cCited in Morss (1976).

^dUsing ΔH_1° from Huber Jr. et al. (1971).

^eCycle based on $\Delta_{f} H^{\circ}(Dy_2O_3(cr))$.

^fUsing ΔH_1° from Tiflova (1990).

^gUsing ΔH_1° from Bommer and Hohmann (1941a).

^hCycle based on $\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}({\rm CeCl}_3({\rm cr}))$.

ⁱEstimated from Cordfunke and Booij (1997).

^jUsing ΔH_1° from Cordfunke and Booij (1997).

	HOX ₃ (cr)	in HCI(aq), respective	ery	
authors	method ^a	$\Delta H_1^{\circ}/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta H_2^{\circ}/\text{kJ·mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}/{\rm kJ} \cdot {\rm mol}^{-1}$
HoF ₃		•	tar	
Rudzitis and Deventer (1965)	С			-1700.8 ± 4.2
Kim and Oishi (1979)	С			-1698 ± 6
Johnson et al. (1980)	С			-1697.8 ± 2.3
selected value:				-1697.8 ± 2.3
HoCl ₃				
Bommer and Hohmann (1941a)	S (0.1)	-686.2	-209.2	-975.8
Stuve (1967a)	S (4.0)	-710.5 ± 7.1	-180.5 ± 0.3	-1005.1 ± 7.1
Morss (1976) ^b	S (0.87)	-698.3	-202.3	-980.8
				-997.4 ^d
Bettonville et al. (1987)	S (1.0) ^c	-705.9 ± 1.9		
Lezhava (1992)	S (1.07)	-704.5 ± 2.2	-199.2 ± 0.8	-998.0 ± 2.4
selected value:				-997.7 ± 2.5
HoBr ₃				
Bettonville et al. (1987)	S (1.0) ^d	-705.9 ± 2.4	-221.9 ± 1.2	-842.1 ± 2.7
selected value:	. ,			-842.1 ± 3.0
HoI ₃				
Bommer and Hohmann (1941a)	S (0.1)	-686.2	-259.4	-596.4
Lezhava (1992)	S		-255.1 ± 1.2	-622.9 ± 3.2
selected value:				-622.9 ± 3.0

Table B.10 The enthalpy of formation of HoX₃(cr) at 298.15 K; ΔH_1° and ΔH_2° are the enthalpies of solution of Ho(cr) and HoX₃(cr) in HCl(aq), respectively

^aE: e.m.f. measurements, S: solution calorimetry; values in parentheses give the concentration of the solvent in $mol \cdot dm^{-3}$.

^bQuoted in by Morss (1976).

^cTwo different samples of Ho(cr) were used.

^dUsing ΔH_1° from Bettonville et al. (1987).

Table B.11

The enthalpy of formation of $\text{Er}X_3(\text{cr})$ at 298.15 K; ΔH_1° and ΔH_2° are the enthalpies of solution of Er(cr) and $\text{Er}X_3(\text{cr})$ in HCl(aq), respectively

authors	method ^a	$\Delta H_1^{\circ}/kJ \cdot mol^{-1}$	$\Delta H_2^{\circ}/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}/{\rm kJ} \cdot {\rm mol}^{-1}$
ErF ₃				
Polyachenok (1967)	Н			-1582
Kondrat'ev ^b	S			-1635.0 ± 8.4
Kim et al. (1979)	С			-1669 ± 6
Johnson et al. (1980)	С			-1693.6 ± 1.9
selected value:				-1693.6 ± 1.9
ErCl ₃				
Bommer and Hohmann (1941a, 1941b)	S (0.1)	-680.1 ± 3.1	-207.3 ± 0.2	-971.6 ± 3.1
Spedding and Flynn (1954)	S (1.42)	-661.4 ± 0.9	-193.3 ± 0.4	-958.9 ± 1.0
Montgomery and Stuve (1961)	S (1.4)		-201.9 ± 0.9	$-994.5 \pm 1.7^{\circ}$
				-994.3 ± 2.8^{d}
Gamanovich and Glybin (1974) ^c	S (2.03)		-201.7 ± 1.2	
Fuger et al. (1980)	S (1.43)	-705.6 ± 1.4	-201.7 ± 0.2	-994.6 ± 1.4

authors	method ^a	$\Delta H_1^{\circ}/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta H_2^{\circ}/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}/{\rm kJ} \cdot {\rm mol}^{-1}$
Tiflova (1990) ^e	S (2.19)	-681.9 ± 0.7	-197.3 ± 0.2	-971.1 ± 0.8
	S (2.19)	-682.9 ± 1.8	-197.3 ± 0.2	-972.1 ± 1.8
Furkaliouk et al. (1993)	S (1.0)	-681.8 ± 0.7		
Merli et al. (1998)	S (6.0)	-707.0 ± 1.2		
selected value:				-994.4 ± 2.0
ErBr ₃				
Hurtgen et al. (1980)	S (1.0)	$[-705.0 \pm 3.0]^{\rm f}$	-226.0 ± 0.5	-837.1 ± 3.0
selected value:				-837.1 ± 3.0
ErI ₃				
Bommer and Hohmann (1941a)	S (0.1)	-680.1 ± 3.1	-261.1 ± 0.6	-587.6 ± 3.2
Furkaliouk and Cordfunke (1996)	S (1.0)	-681.8 ± 0.7	-252.1 ± 0.2	-595.8 ± 0.7
		$[-705.0 \pm 3.0]^{\rm f}$		$-619.0 \pm 3.0^{\mathrm{f}}$
selected value:		_		-619.0 ± 3.0

Table B.11, continued from previous page

^aE: e.m.f. measurements, S: solution calorimetry; values in parentheses give the concentration of the solvent in $mol \cdot dm^{-3}$; H: high temperature equilibria.

^bKondrat'ev Y.V., Thesis, University of Leningrad. Cited and recalculated by Johnson et al. (1980).

^cUsing ΔH_1° from Fuger et al. (1980).

^dBased on the enthalpy of solution of Er₂O₃.

^eTwo sets of measurements with different samples of Er(cr).

^fThe value estimated from the results of Fuger et al. (1980) and Merli et al. (1998).

Table B.12

The enthalpy of formation of $\text{Tm}X_3(\text{cr})$ at 298.15 K; ΔH_1° and ΔH_2° are the enthalpies of solution of Tm(cr) and $\text{Tm}X_3(\text{cr})$ in HCl(aq), respectively

authors	methoda	$\Delta H_1^{\circ}/kJ \cdot mol^{-1}$	$\Delta H_2^{\circ}/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}/{\rm kJ} \cdot {\rm mol}^{-1}$
TmF ₃		•	and a second	
Kim et al. (1980)	С			-1656 ± 7
selected value:				-1693.7 ± 5.0^{b}
TmCl ₃				
Bommer and Hohmann (1941a, 1941b)	S (0.1)	-675.7 ± 0.4	-212.9 ± 0.1	-961.6 ± 0.5
Stuve (1967b)	S (4.0)	-698.0 ± 1.3	-186.6 ± 0.9	-986.5 ± 1.6
Morss (1976) ^c		-705.7	-205.8	-993.8
Lezhava (1992) ^d	S (1.07)	-709.3 ± 0.8	-203.3 ± 0.4	-998.7 ± 0.9
selected value:	. ,			-996.3 ± 2.5
TmI ₃				
Hohmann and Bommer (1941)	S (0.1)	-675.7 ± 0.4	-261.9	-583.4
Lezhava (1992)	S (H ₂ O)		-261.8 ± 1.8	-619.7 ± 3.5^{e}
selected value:				-619.7 ± 3.5

^aE: e.m.f. measurements, S: solution calorimetry; values in parentheses give the concentration of the solvent in $mol \cdot dm^{-3}$.

^bSee main text for explanation.

^cQuoted in Morss (1976).

^dTwo sets of measurements with different samples of Tm(cr). ^eBased on $\Delta_f H^{\circ}$ (Tm³⁺, aq) (Cordfunke and Konings, 2001a).

	10/13(01)) in Hei(aq), respectivel	.y	
authors	method ^a	$\Delta H_1^{\circ}/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta H_2^{\circ}/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}/{\rm kJ} \cdot {\rm mol}^{-1}$
YbF ₃				
Kim et al. (1978)	С			-1569.8 ± 7.1
selected value:				-1655.1 ± 3.0^{b}
YbCl ₃				
Bommer and Hohmann (1941a)	S (0.05)		-213.2 ± 0.2	
Machlan et al. (1955)	S (6.0)		-165.7 ± 1.3	-959.4 ± 1.7^{c}
Stuve (1967b)	S (4.0)	-671.7 ± 2.8	-187.2 ± 0.8	-959.5 ± 2.9
Bettonville et al. (1987)	S (6.0)	-664.9 ± 1.1		
selected value:				-959.5 ± 3.0
YbBr ₃				
Burgess and Kijowski (1981)	S (H ₂ O)		-253.3 ± 3.2	-787.2 ± 4.4^{e}
Bettonville et al. (1987)	S (6.0)	-664.9 ± 1.1	-199.9 ± 1.4	-792.6 ± 1.8
	S (1.0)	$[-663.0 \pm 3.0]^{d}$	-229.8 ± 1.5	-791.9 ± 3.4
selected value:	-	-		-791.9 ± 5.0

Table B.13 The enthalpy of formation of YbX₃(cr) at 298.15 K; ΔH_1° and ΔH_2° are the enthalpies of solution of Yb(cr) and YbX₃(cr) in HCl(aq), respectively

^aE: e.m.f. measurements, S: solution calorimetry; values in parentheses give the concentration of the solvent in $mol \cdot dm^{-3}$.

^bSee main text for explanation.

^cUsing ΔH_1° from Bettonville et al. (1987).

^dEstimated by Cordfunke and Konings (2001b). ^eBased on $\Delta_{f}H^{\circ}(Yb^{3+}, aq)$ (Cordfunke and Konings, 2001a).

Table B.14	
The enthalpy of formation of LuX ₃ (cr) at 298.15 K; ΔH_1° and ΔH_2° are the enthalpies of solution c	of Lu(cr) and
$LuX_3(cr)$ in HCl(aq), respectively	

authors	method ^a	$\Delta H_1^{\circ}/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta H_2^{\circ}/kJ \cdot mol^{-1}$	$\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}/{\rm kJ} \cdot {\rm mol}^{-1}$
LuF ₃		•	#24	
Kholokhova and Rezukhina (1976)	Е			-1700.8 ± 5.0
selected value:				-1679.9 ± 5.0^{b}
LuCl ₃				
Bommer and Hohmann (1941a) ^b	S (0.1)	-670.7	-214.6	-954.9
Morss (1976) ^c	S (0.89)	-700.0	-208.1	-985.6
				-973.3 ^d
				-987.9 ^e
Tiflova (1990)	S (2.19)	-694.9 ± 1.0	-199.5 ± 0.3	-981.9 ± 1.1
		$[-702.7 \pm 2.5]^{\rm f}$		-989.7 ± 2.6
Furkaliouk et al. (1993)	S (1.0)	-687.7 ± 0.5		
Merli et al. (1998)	S (1.0)	-702.3 ± 2.2	-210.5 ± 0.70	-984.9 ± 2.3
	S (3.0)	-703.1 ± 1.3		
	S (6.0)	-703.9 ± 2.2	-175.9 ± 0.90	-988.2 ± 3.0
selected value:				-987.1 ± 2.5

Table B.14, continued from previous page

authors	method ^a	$\Delta H_1^{\circ}/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta H_2^{\circ}/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	$\Delta_{\rm f} H^{\circ}/{\rm kJ} \cdot {\rm mol}^{-1}$
LuI ₃		1	2	-
Hohmann and Bommer (1941) ^b	S (0.1)	-670.7	-279.8	-559.5
Furkaliouk and Cordfunke (1996)	S (1.0)	-685.0 ± 0.5	-263.3 ± 0.4	-587.8 ± 0.7
				-605.1 ± 2.2^{e}
selected value:				-605.1 ± 2.2

^aE: e.m.f. measurements, S: solution calorimetry; values in parentheses give the concentration of the solvent in $mol \cdot dm^{-3}$. ^bSee main text for explanation.

^cQuoted by Morss (1976).

^dUsing ΔH_1° from Furkaliouk and Cordfunke (1996).

^eUsing ΔH_1° from Merli et al. (1998).

^fEstimated value.

Appendix C. Experimental data for the liquid trihalides

Table C.1 Experimental results for the enthalpy of fusion and heat capacity of the liquid lanthanide trichlorides

compound	$\Delta_{\rm fus} H^{\circ}$	$C_{\rm p}({\rm liq})$
-	/kJ·mol ^{−1}	$/J \cdot K^{-1} \cdot mol^{-1}$
LaCl ₃		
Dworkin and Bredig (1963a)	54.4	157.7
Savin et al. (1979)	31.0 ± 2.1	349.4
Gaune-Escard et al. (1994)	55.7	
selected value:	55.0	157.7
CeCl ₃		
Walden and Smith (1961)	53.6	161.05
Savin and Mikhailova (1981)	33.5	
Gaune-Escard et al. (1994)	55.5	
selected value:	53.6	161.05
PrCl ₃		
Dworkin and Bredig (1963a)	50.6	133.9
Savin et al. (1979)	28.9 ± 2.1	179.9
Gaune-Escard et al. (1994)	49.1	155.28
selected value:	49.9	155.3
NdCl ₃		
Dworkin and Bredig (1963a)	50.2	146.4
Savin and Mikhailova (1981)	33.5	
Gaune-Escard et al. (1994)	48.1	149.53
selected value:	49.2	149.5
SmCl ₃		
Rycerz and Gaune-Escard (2002a)	47.6	145.26
selected value:	47.6	145.26

compound	$\Delta_{\rm fus} H^{\circ}$ /kJ·mol ⁻¹	$C_{\rm p}({\rm liq})$ /J·K ⁻¹ ·mol ⁻¹
EuCl ₃	,	
Rycerz and Gaune-Escard (2002b)	45.0	155.96
selected value:	45.0	149.5
GdCl ₃		
Dworkin and Bredig (1963b)	40.2	141.0
Dworkin and Bredig (1971)	40.6	139.52
Goryushkin et al. (1990)	60.3 ± 12	
Gaune-Escard et al. (1994)	40.6	139.89
selected value:	40.6	139.7
DvCl ₃		
Dworkin and Bredig (1971)	25.5	144.77
Goryushkin et al. (1990)	36.5 ± 7.3	
Gaune-Escard et al. (1996)	27.6	159.43
selected value:	25.5	144.77
TbCl ₃		
Dworkin and Bredig (1963b)	19.5	144.47
Goryushkin et al. (1990)	31.6 ± 6.3	
Rycerz and Gaune-Escard (1999b)	20.8	139.27
selected value:	19.5	144.77
HoCl ₃		
Dworkin and Bredig (1963b)	29.3	147.7
Dworkin and Bredig (1971)	32.6	148.66
Goryushkin et al. (1990)	37.9 ± 7.6	
selected value:	32.6	148.66
ErCl ₃	22.6	
Dworkin and Bredig (1963b)	32.6	141.0
Gaune-Escard et al. (1996)	31.1	
Goryushkin et al. (1990)	38.5 ± 7.7	
selected value:		141.0
TmCl ₃		
Goryushkin et al. (1990)	46.9 ± 9.4	
Gaune-Escard et al. (1996)	35.6	
selected value:	35.6	141.0
YbCl ₃	50.1 + 11.4	
Goryusnkin et al. (1990)	58.1 ± 11.6	
selected value:	37.6	
LuCl ₃		
Goryushkin et al. (1990)	59.3 ± 11.9	
selected value:	39.5	

Table C.1, continued from previous page

Appendix D. Molecular parameters of the lanthanide trihalides

authors	method	symmetry	r(Ln-X)	$\angle (X-Ln-X)$		vibrational	frequencies	
					$\nu_1(A_1)$	$\nu_2(A_1)$	$v_3(E)$	$v_4(E)$
LaF ₃								
Akishin et al. (1959)	ED/gas (r_a)	D_{3h}	222(3)					
Hargittai (1999)	ED/gas (r_{α})		213(6)					
Wesley and DeKock (1971)	IR/matrix (Ar)	D_{3h}				84	478	120
	IR/matrix (Kr)	D_{3h}					474	
	IR/matrix (N ₂)	D_{3h}				84	457	116
Hastie et al. (1975)	IR/matrix (Ne)	C_{3v}			527.9	81	496.6	130
	IR/matrix (Ar)	C_{3v}			513.0	83	479.0	121.1
	IR/matrix (N ₂)	C_{3v}			490	94	459	112
	IR/gas (estimated)	C_{3v}			540(10)	82(10)	510(10)	125(10)
CeF ₃								
Wesley and DeKock (1971)	IR/matrix (Ar)	D_{3h}				86	483	
•	IR/matrix (Kr)	D_{3h}					479	
	IR/matrix (N ₂)	D_{3h}				86	465	116
Hastie et al. (1975)	IR/matrix (Ne)	C_{3v}			536.9	78	505.3	
	IR/matrix (Ar)	C_{3v}			521.5	94	488.3	134
	IR/matrix (N ₂)	C_{3v}			506	82	468	121
	IR/gas (estimated)	C_{3v}			549(8)	80(15)	519(8)	115(15)
PrF ₃								
Zasorin (1988)	ED/gas (r_g)	C_{3v}	209.1(3)	102.6(28)				
	ED/gas (r_e)	C_{3v}	205.6(5)	105.0(15)				
Wesley and DeKock (1971)	IR/matrix (Ar)	D_{3h}			542	86	458	99
	IR/matrix (Kr)	D_{3h}			538		455	
	IR/matrix (N ₂)	D_{3h}				86	488	118
Lesiecki et al. (1972)	Raman/matrix (Ar)	D_{3h}			526		458	99
	IR/matrix (Ar)	D_{3h}			542	86	458	99

Table D.1 Experimental structural parameters and vibrational frequencies of the lanthanide trifluorides; bond distances in pm, bond angles in degrees, frequencies in cm^{-1}

authors	method	symmetry	r(Ln-X)	$\angle (X-Ln-X)$		vibrational	frequencies	
					$v_1(A_1)$	$v_2(A_1)$	$v_3(E)$	$v_4(E)$
NdF ₃								
Wesley and DeKock (1971)	IR/matrix (Ar)	D_{3h}				86	502	118
	IR/matrix (Kr)	D_{3h}					499	
	IR/matrix (N ₂)	D_{3h}				86	482	123
Hastie et al. (1975)	IR/matrix (Ne)	C_{3v}			544.9	81	521.4	121
	IR/matrix (Ar)	C_{3v}			529.7	87	503.7	119
	IR/matrix (N ₂)	C_{3v}			505	103	483	124
	IR/gas (estimated)	C_{3v}			557(10)	80(15)	535(10)	115(15)
SmF ₃								
Wesley and DeKock (1971)	IR/matrix (Ar)	D_{3h}				92	508	123
	IR/matrix (Kr)	D_{3h}					504	
	IR/matrix (N ₂)	D_{3h}					491	
EuF ₃								
Wesley and DeKock (1971)	IR/matrix (Ar)	D_{3h}				94	511	124
	IR/matrix (Kr)	D_{3h}					507	
	IR/matrix (N ₂)	D_{3h}					502	
Hastie et al. (1975)	IR/matrix (Ne)	C_{3v}			557.5	89	529.5	133
	IR/matrix (Ar)	C_{3v}			542.4	94.0	511.7	127
	IR/matrix (N ₂)	C_{3v}			532	101	504	120
	IR/gas (estimated)	C_{3v}			572(10)	90(15)	544(10)	120(10)
GdF ₃								
Zasorin (1988)	ED/gas (r_g)	C_{3v}	205.3(3)	108.4(24)				
	ED/gas (r_e)	C_{3v}	201.6(6)	109.9(23)				
Hastie et al. (1975)	IR/matrix (Ne)	C_{3v}			560.2	94	537.3	138
	IR/matrix (Ar)	C_{3v}			544.7	100	519.2	133
	IR/matrix (N ₂)	C_{3v}			532	116	500	143
	IR/gas (estimated)	C_{3v}			583(10)	95(15)	552(10)	130(10)
TbF ₃	•							
Hauge et al. (1971)	IR/matrix (Ne)	C_{3v}			566.7		540.1	
- · ·	IR/matrix (Ar)	C_{3v}			551.1		523.1	
	IR/matrix (N ₂)	C_{3v}					509	

Table D.1, continued from previous page

continued on next page

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authors	method	symmetry	r(Ln-X)	$\angle (X-Ln-X)$		vibrational	frequencies	
					$v_1(A_1)$	$\nu_2(A_1)$	$v_3(E)$	$v_4(E)$
DyF ₃								
Bencze et al. (1996)	IR/matrix (Ar)	C_{3v}			554.4		531.6	
	IR/matrix (N2)	C_{3v}			540.2		513	
HoF ₃								
Zasorin (1988)	ED/gas (r_g)	C_{3v}	200.7(3)	105.8(24)				
	ED/gas (r_e)	C_{3v}	197.8(10)	108.2(32)				
Hauge et al. (1971)	IR/matrix (Ne)	C_{3v}			572.4	94	554.0	122
	IR/matrix (Ar)	C_{3v}			556.7	104	535.6	119
	IR/matrix (N ₂)	C_{3v}				124	516	143
ErF ₃								
Bencze et al. (1996)	IR/matrix (Ar)	C_{3v}			560.7		539.4	
	IR/matrix (N2)	C_{3v}			546.0		524	
TmF ₃								
Bencze et al. (1996)	IR/matrix (Ar)	C_{3v}			566.2		544.8	
	IR/matrix (N2)	C_{3v}			547		529	
YbF ₃								
Hauge et al. (1971)	IR/matrix (Ne)	C_{3v}			584.1	100	564.7	144
	IR/matrix (Ar)	C_{3v}			568.5		546.4	
	IR/matrix (N ₂)	C_{3v}					526	
LuF3								
Hauge et al. (1971)	IR/matrix (Ne)	C_{3v}			585.4	101	570.5	150
	IR/matrix (Ar)	C_{3v}			569.6	112	552.2	144
	IR/matrix (N ₂)	C_{3v}				121	530	149

Table D.1, continued from previous page

authors	method	symmetry	r(Ln-X)	$\angle (X-Ln-X)$		vibrational f	requencies	
					$v_1(A_1)$	$v_2(A_1)$	$v_3(E)$	$v_4(E)$
LaCl ₃								
Zasorin (1988)	ED/gas (r_g)	C_{3v}	258.9(5)	112.8(17)				
	ED/gas (r_e)	C_{3v}	253.8(9)	115.4(20)				
Spiridonov et al. (1990)	ED/gas (r_e)	C_{3v}	256.0(6)	116.5(3)				
Girichev (2002)	ED/gas (r_g)	D_{3h}	258.9(6)	116.7(12)				
Selivanov et al. (1973)	IR/gas						316	
Perov et al. (1975)	IR/matrix (Xe)	D_{3h}				52	300	74
Kovács and Konings (1997a)	IR/gas					59	317	
CeCl ₃		a						
Krasnov (1979)	ED/gas	C_{3v}	256.9(10)	111.6(20)				
Kovács and Konings (1997b) PrCl ₃	IR/gas ^a					58	321	
Zasorin (1988)	ED/gas (r_{g})	C_{3v}	255.4(5)	112.5(15)				
	ED/gas (r_e)	C_{3v}	251.0(9)	114.3(20)				
Selivanov et al. (1973)	IR/gas	50					320	
NdCl ₃	·							
Selivanov et al. (1973)	IR/gas						324	
Wells Jr. et al. (1977)	IR/gas	D_{3h}			349	177	301	120
Feltrin and Cesaro (1996)	IR/matrix (Ar)	D_{3h}					328.3	
Kovács and Konings (1997b)	IR/gas ^a	517				60	327	
SmCl ₃	U							
Kovács and Konings (1997b)	IR/gas ^a					61	331	
GdCl ₃	U							
Zasorin (1988)	ED/gas (r_q)	C_{3v}	248.8(5)	112.3(12)				
	ED/gas (r_e)	C_{3v}	244.5(7)	113.5(21)				
Giricheva et al. (2000d)	ED/gas (r_g)	D_{3h}	247.4(5)	117.0(11)				
Selivanov et al. (1973)	IR/gas	511					326	
Perov et al. (1975)	IR/matrix (Xe)	D_{3h}				53	318	82
Kovács and Konings (1997b)	IR/gas ^a	5.0				64	337	
	č						continued on	next page

Table D.2 Experimental structural parameters and vibrational frequencies of the lanthanide trichlorides; bond distances in pm, bond angles in degrees, frequencies in cm⁻¹

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authors	method	symmetry	r(Ln-X)	$\angle (X-Ln-X)$		vibrational f	requencies	
					$v_1(A_1)$	$\nu_2(A_1)$	$\nu_3(E)$	$v_4(E)$
TbCl ₃								
Zasorin (1988)	ED/gas (r_g)	C_{3v}	247.6(5)	111.2(15)				
	ED/gas (r_e)	C_{3v}	243.8(8)	112.9(19)				
Girichev (2002)	$ED/gas(r_g)$	D_{3h}	247.1(5)	115.5(11)				
DyCl ₃	- 0							
Hargittai (2000)	ED/gas (r_g)		246.1(8)					
Feltrin and Cesaro (1996)	IR/matrix (Ar)	D_{3h}					340.2	
Groen (2002)	Raman/matrix (Xe)	511			318			
	IR/matrix (Xe)						324.2	
Kovács and Konings (1997b)	IR/gas ^a					65	340	
HoCl ₃	0							
Zasorin (1988)	ED/gas (r_{φ})	C_{3v}	246.2(5)	111.7(15)				
	ED/gas (r_e)	C_{3v}	242.5(9)	112.6(19)				
Loktyushina et al. (1987)	IR/matrix (Ar)	50					340	
ErCl ₃								
Giricheva et al. (2000c)	ED/gas (r_g)	C_{3v}	243.0(5)	112.3(12)				
	ED/gas (r_e)	C_{3v}	239.3(5)					
Perov et al. (1975)	IR/matrix (Xe)	D_{3h}					328	
TmCl ₃		511						
Giricheva et al. (2000a)	ED/gas (r_g)	D_{3h}	242.2(6)	116.2(14)				
Feltrin and Cesaro (1996)	IR/matrix (Ar)	D_{3h}					346.1	
LuCl ₃								
Zasorin (1988)	ED/gas (r_g)		241.7(6)	111.5(20)				
	ED/gas (r_e)		237.4(10)	114.5(24)				
Giricheva et al. (2000b)	ED/gas (r_g)		240.3(5)	117.9(13)				
· · ·	ED/gas (r_{α})	D_{3h}	236.7(6)	120.2(15)				
Perov et al. (1975)	IR/matrix (Xe)	D_{3h}				60	331	88

Table D.2, continued from previous page

^aRe-interpretation of the gas-phase spectra presented by Kovács et al. (1995).

authors	method	symmetry	r(Ln-X)	$\angle (X-Ln-X)$		vibrational f	requencies	
					$v_1(A_1)$	$v_2(A_1)$	$v_3(E)$	$v_4(E)$
LaBr ₃								
Giricheva et al. (1977)	ED/gas (r_g)	C_{3v}	274.1(5)	115.5(20)				
Zasorin (1988)	ED/gas (r_g)	C_{3v}	274.2(4)	114.3(17)				
	ED/gas (r_e)	C_{3v}	269.3(10)	115.0(23)				
Kovács and Konings (1997a) PrBr ₃	IR/gas					ca.30	232	
Girichev et al. (2002) NdBr ₃	ED/gas (r_g)	D _{3h}	269.6(6)	114.7(10)				
Zakharov et al. (2003)	ED/gas (r_g)	D_{3h}	267.5(6)	115.0(12)				
Wells Jr. et al. (1977) GdBr ₃	IR/gas	D_{3h}			220	120	188	80
Zasorin (1988)	ED/gas (r_{g})	C_{3v}	264.1(4)	113.7(20)				
	ED/gas (r_e)	C_{3v}	259.0(9)	115.2(23)				
Loktyushina and Mal'tsev (1984)	IR/matrix (Xe) IR/matrix (Ar)	50					255 238	
DyBr ₃								
Hargittai (2000)	ED/gas (r_{σ})		260.9(8)					
Feltrin and Cesaro (1996)	IR/matrix (Ar)	D_{3h}					243.1	
Groen (2002)	IR/gas	511				44	243	
	IR/matrix (Kr)						237.2	
	IR/matrix (Xe)						229.4	
	Raman/matrix (Kr)				210		237	
	Raman/matrix (Xe)				202		227	47
HoBr ₃								
Girichev et al. (2002)	ED/gas (r_g)	D_{3h}	259.5(6)	115.3(11)				
Loktyushina et al. (1987)	IR/matrix (Ar)						241.5	
Zakharov et al. (2001)	$ED/and(\pi)$	Dec	258 2(6)	116.0(14)				
Zakilalov et al. (2001)	$ED/gas(r_g)$ ED/gas(r_)	D_{3h}	256.2(0)	120(2)				
TmBra	$LD/gas(r_e)$	D_{3h}	230.1(9)	120(2)				
Feltrin and Cesaro (1996)	IR/matrix (Ar)	D _{3h}					249.9	

Table D.3 Experimental structural parameters and vibrational frequencies of the lanthanide tribromides; bond distances in pm, bond angles in degrees, frequencies in cm⁻¹

continued on next page

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authors	method	symmetry	r(Ln–X)	$\angle (X-Ln-X)$	vibrational frequencies			
					$v_1(A_1)$	$\nu_2(A_1)$	$v_3(E)$	$v_4(E)$
LuBr ₃								
Zasorin (1988)	ED/gas (r_g)	C_{3v}	255.7(4)	115.0(11)				
	ED/gas (r_e)	C_{3v}	251.6(8)	117.2(17)				
Loktyushina and Mal'tsev (1984)	IR/matrix (Xe)						231	
	IR/matrix (Ar)						245	

Table D.3, continued from previous page

Table D.4 Experimental structural parameters and vibrational frequencies of the lanthanide triiodides; bond distances in pm, bond angles in degrees, frequencies in cm^{-1}

authors	method	symmetry	r(Ln-X)	$\angle (X-Ln-X)$		vibrational	frequencies	
					$v_1(A_1)$	$\nu_2(A_1)$	$v_3(E)$	$v_4(E)$
LaI ₃								
Hargittai (1999)	ED/gas (r_{α})		286(3)					
Kovács and Konings (1997a)	IR/gas					ca.25	191	
CeI ₃	-							
Molnár et al. (1996)	ED/gas (r_g)	D_{3h}	294.8(9)					
	IR/gas	D_{3h}				ca.25 ^a	191(10)	
PrI ₃	C C	5.0						
Zasorin (1988)	ED/gas (r_{φ})	C_{3v}	290.1(4)	113.4(13)				
	ED/gas (r_e)	C_{3v}	285.4(7)	113.7(19)				
NdI ₃		50						
Zasorin (1988)	ED/gas (r_g)	C_{3v}	287.9(4)	113.8(11)				
	ED/gas (r_e)	C_{3v}	283.5(8)	113.9(16)				
Ezhov et al. (2000)	$ED/gas(r_g)$	D_{3h}	287.3(4)	118.6(11)				
	ED/gas (r_e)	D_{3h}	286.6(5)	118(2)				
Wells Jr. et al. (1977)	IR/gas	D_{3h}			195	98	141	72

authors	method	symmetry	r(Ln-X)	$\angle (X-Ln-X)$	vibrational frequencies			
					$v_1(A_1)$	$v_2(A_1)$	$v_3(E)$	$v_4(E)$
GdI ₃								
Zasorin (1988)	ED/gas (r_g)	C_{3v}	284.0(4)	115.4(13)				
	ED/gas (r_e)		279.4(7)	115.5(16)				
Loktyushina and Mal'tsev (1984)	IR/matrix (Xe)						183.5	
DyI ₃								
Feltrin and Cesaro (1996)	IR/matrix (Ar)	D_{3h}					189.5	
Groen (2002)	IR/gas					32	195	
	IR/matrix (Xe)						185	
	Raman/matrix (Xe)				157		184	
HoI ₃								
Loktyushina and Mal'tsev (1984)	IR/matrix (Xe)						185	
	IR/matrix (Ar)						196.5	
TmI ₃								
Feltrin and Cesaro (1996)	IR/matrix (Ar)	D_{3h}					198.9	
LuI ₃								
Zasorin (1988)	ED/gas (r_g)	C_{3v}	276.8(3)	115.6(6)				
	ED/gas (r_e)	C_{3v}	273.5(6)	116.6(10)				
Loktyushina and Mal'tsev (1984)	IR/matrix (Ar)						198	

Table D.4, continued from previous page

^aBand not assigned in Molnár et al. (1996).

Table D.5 Experimental and computed geometrical parameters of selected Ln_2X_6 dimers; bond distances in pm, bond angles in degrees

Ln_2X_6	Geometry ^a							
	r _r	r_t	α_{r1}	α_{r2}	α_t			
La ₂ F ₆ ^b	236.2	212.6	70.6	109.4	116.7			
Dy ₂ F ₆ ^b	221.9	200.8	73.0	107.0	117.2			
La ₂ Cl ₆ ^b	281.4	258.4	80.6	99.4	117.0			
Ce ₂ Cl ₆ ^c	277.5	257.0	82.7	-	116.5			
Pr ₂ Cl ₆ ^c	275.4	254.9	83.4	-	116.3			
Nd ₂ Cl ₆ ^c	273.5	253.0	81.1	99.4	116.3			
Dy ₂ Cl ₆ ^d	268.0(10)	244.9(10)	84.1(34)					
Dy ₂ Cl ₆ ^b	266.4	245.2	83.6	96.4	116.7			
Er ₂ Cl ₆ ^e	265(4)	244.4(5)	84(10)		117(5)			
Lu ₂ Cl ₆ ^f	258.9(24)	236.6(5)	84(2)		119(7)			
La ₂ Br ₆ ^b	297.1	273.9	83.7	96.3	115.0			
Ce ₂ Br ₆ ⁱ	301.3	278.1	83.9	96.1	117.0			
Dy ₂ Br ₆ ^d	281.1(9)	259.4(8)	91.7(17)					
Dy ₂ Br ₆ ^b	282.0	260.4	87.0	93.0	115.7			
Er2Br6g	275.8(20)	258.8(6)	81(7)		116(7)			
La ₂ I ₆ ^b	318.8	296.1	87.6	92.4	114.5			
Ce ₂ I ₆ ^h	320.7(23.8)	294.8(9)						
Ce ₂ I ₆ ⁱ	322.0	299.3	88.5	91.5	116.7			
Dy ₂ I ₆ ^b	303.6	282.4	90.8	89.2	115.3			

 ${}^{a}r_{r}$, α_{r1} and α_{r2} indicate the geometrical parameters of the ring, while r_{t} and α_{t} the terminal ones of the dimer (cf. fig. 36).

^bComputed by Kovács (2000).

^cComputed by Kapala et al. (2002).

^dFrom ED investigations by Hargittai (2000). e_{r_g} parameters by Giricheva et al. (2000c).

 r_{α} parameters by Giricheva et al. (2000). g_{r_g} parameters by Zakharov et al. (2001).

 h_{r_g} parameters by Molnár et al. (1996).

ⁱComputed by Kovács (1999).

	La ₂ F ₆ ^a	Dy ₂ F ₆ ^a	La2Cl6a	Ce ₂ Cl ₆ ^b	Pr ₂ Cl ₆ ^b	Nd ₂ Cl ₆ ^b	Dy ₂ Cl ₆ ^a	La2Br6a	Ce ₂ Br ₆ ^a	Dy ₂ Br ₆ ^a	La ₂ I ₆ ^a	Ce ₂ I ₆ ^a	Dy ₂ I ₆ ^a
Au	64	58	29	32	34	34	30	18	19	21	14	14	16
B_{1u}	71	67	33	32	35	38	38	23	28	29	18	21	23
	302	331	226	233	237	240	244	161	164	173	137	140	144
B_{2u}	41	40	14	12	10	12	12	7	9	8	5	5	5
	163	177	88	91	91	92	94	51	53	55	34	36	39
	518	540	333	330	334	336	345	240	239	243	195	195	195
B_{3u}	120	122	64	64	65	66	71	42	43	47	31	31	34
	386	406	230	236	236	236	237	151	151	154	110	110	113
	520	547	317	312	315	317	331	214	212	220	171	169	171
A_g	98	100	54	53	54	55	58	34	34	38	24	24	27
0	152	156	97	91	92	94	100	72	72	75	53	54	57
	352	390	234	238	241	243	253	151	152	162	112	113	120
	534	559	328	323	326	328	341	226	223	230	182	180	181
B_{1g}	55	53	32	44	45	47	36	23	25	27	19	20	23
0	511	534	329	327	330	332	341	236	236	240	193	193	193
B_{2g}	73	71	42	42	45	46	48	32	37	38	25	28	31
0	301	334	190	198	199	200	200	131	136	136	108	112	110
B_{3g}	113	124	65	74	75	76	70	36	38	39	24	26	27

Table D.6 Computed vibrational frequencies of selected Ln_2X_6 compounds, in cm^{-1a}

^aComputed by Kovács (1999, 2000). ^bComputed by Kapala et al. (2002).

Table E.1

Enthalpy of sublimation of the gaseous lanthanide trifluorides						
authors	method ^a	T/K	$\Delta_{\text{sub}} H^{\circ}(298.15 \text{ K})/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$			
LaF ₃						
Kent et al. (1966) ^b	Κ	1200-1405	446.9 ± 0.8			
	М	1303-1416	448.5 ± 0.9			
Suvorov et al. (1966)	TE	1333-1532	448.5 ± 1.0			
Mar and Searcy (1967)	L	1343-1640	440.9 ± 0.2			
	Т	1378-1573	442.0 ± 0.7			
Suvorov and Novikov (1968)	K	1097-1222	359.5 ± 2.4			
Skinner and Searcy (1971)	М	1221-1412	447.7 ± 0.6			
Roberts and Searcy (1972)	М	1326-1644	441.0			
Petzel et al. (1992)	K	1419-1661	443.0 ± 0.7			
selected value:			444.8 ± 3.0			
CeF ₃						
Lim and Searcy (1966)	K	1373-1658	439.4 ± 2.0			
Suvorov et al. (1966)	TE	1333–1532	437.8 ± 0.4			
Zmbov and Margrave (1968)	М	1301-1485	411.6			
Roberts and Searcy (1972)	М	1262-1586	437.6			
McCreary and Thorn (1973a)	М	1343-1476	447.5			
selected value:			438.3 ± 2.0			
PrF ₃						
Suvorov et al. (1966)	TE	1335-1465	435.8 ± 0.7			
Zmbov and Margrave (1968)	М	1327-1491	419.1			
Skinner and Searcy (1968)	K	1430-1586	435.2 ± 0.1			
	М	1424-1584	435.4 ± 0.3			
selected value:			435.5 ± 2.0			
NdF ₃						
Suvorov et al. (1966)	TE	1334-1490	450.7 ± 1.1			
Zmbov and Margrave (1966) ^b	М	1383-1520	433.2 ± 0.7			
McCreary and Thorn (1974a)	М	1325-1470	445.8			
selected value:			433.2 ± 5.0			
PmF ₃						
Gibson and Haire (1989)	M ^c	1373-1553	443			
selected value:			430 ± 15			
SmF ₃						
Zmbov and Margrave (1968)	М	1362-1506	428.7			
selected value:			429 ± 10			
EuF ₃						
Zmboy and Margrave (1968)	М	1382-1522	436.9			
selected value:			437 ± 10			
GdF3						
Zmboy and Margrave (1968)	М	1391-1527	414.1			
McCreary and Thorn (1973b)	M	1465 ^d	453.9			
selected value.	141	1405	454 ± 5.0			
selected value.			+J+ ± J.0			

Appendix E. The enthalpies of sublimation of the lanthanide trihalides

authors	method ^a	T/K	$\Delta_{\rm sub} H^{\circ}(298.15 \text{ K})/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$
TbF ₃			Sub X /
Zmbov and Margrave (1968)	М	992-1167	445.9
McCreary and Thorn (1973b)	М	1325-1437	450.8
selected value:			450.4 ± 5.0
DyF ₃			
Besenbuch et al. (1967)	Е	1326-1362	452.1 ± 0.3
	М	1426-1622	445.0 ± 0.5
Zmbov and Margrave (1968)	М	1002-1170	
McCreary and Thorn (1974b)	М	e	455.7 ± 0.1
Stolyarova et al. (1996)	М	1280-1380	449.5
selected value:			448.6 ± 3.0
HoF ₃			
Besenbuch et al. (1967)	Е	1328-1406	448.0 ± 0.5
	М	1278-1456	449.6 ± 0.3
McCreary and Thorn (1974b)	М	e	456.8 ± 0.4
selected value:			451.5 ± 2.0
ErF ₃			
Besenbuch et al. (1967)	Е	1311-1405	454.8 ± 0.4
	М	1374–1521	452.8 ± 0.2
McCreary and Thorn (1974b)	М	e	457.3 ± 1.5
Bencze et al. (1996)	М	1288-1635	455.3 ± 0.3
selected value:			454.3 ± 2.0
TmF ₃			
Zmbov and Margrave (1967)	Μ	1273-1415	
Biefeld and Eick (1976)	K	1349-1809	446.6 ± 0.4
Bencze et al. (1996)	K + M	1266-1624	452.6 ± 0.6
selected value:			449.6 ± 3.0
YbF ₃			
Zmbov and Margrave (1967)	М	1293-1428	437.9 ± 0.4
Biefeld and Eick (1975)	М	1342-1794	457.3 ± 2.1^{f}
Petzel and Greis (1976)	Μ	1580-1795	454.0 ± 0.5
selected value:			454.0 ± 2.0
LuF ₃			
Zmbov and Margrave (1967)	М	1287-1450	425.2 ± 0.5
Petzel et al. (1992)	K	1471–1945	440.0 ± 1.1
selected value:			440.0 ± 2.0

Table E.1, *continued from previous page*

^aB, boiling point method; E, effusion; K, Knudsen effusion; M, mass spectrometry; TE, torsion effusion. ^bAlso reported by Zmbov and Margrave (1968).

^cMade on a sample $(Pr_{1/3}Pm_{1/3}Sm_{1/3})F_3$.

^dMean temperature.

^eNo temperature range given.

^fIt was concluded by the authors that the vaporization proceeded according to the reaction $YbF_{3.00}(cr) = 0.005YbF_{2.40}(cr) + 0.95YbF_3(g) + 0.003F(g)$. We have here treated the data as if congruent vaporization took place.

authors	method ^a	T/K	$\Delta_{\rm sub} H^{\circ}(298.15 \text{ K})/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$
LaCl ₃			500 (
Harrison (1952)	Κ	1028-1192	331.9 ± 0.8
Nesmeyanov and Sazonov (1959)	Κ	842-1101	329.8 ± 1.3
Polyachenok and Novikov (1963b)	В	????-1673	333.2
Novikov and Baev (1962)	В	1397-1493	340.2 ± 1.0
Shimazaki and Niwa (1962)	Κ	1022-1110	342.7 ± 0.3
Moriarity (1963)	Κ	1173-1253	319.7 ± 4.3
Hastie et al. (1968)	М	950-1100	331.4
Nisel'son et al. (1978)	В	1373-1573	337.1
Brunetti et al. (2000)	TE	955-1045	337.8 ± 0.2
selected value:			337.5 ± 5.0
CeCl ₃			
Harrison (1952)	Κ	1013-1085	326.0 ± 1.6
Novikov and Baev (1962)	В	1366-1497	332.3 ± 0.8
Shimazaki and Niwa (1962)	Κ	1012-1071	332.8 ± 0.2
Moriarity (1963)	Κ	1043-1223	323.7 ± 1.9
Polyachenok and Novikov (1963b)	В	????-1673	312.3
Villani et al. (2000b)	TE	887-1003	329.1 ± 0.1
Pogrebnoi et al. (2001)	М	972-1075	333.5 ± 0.3
Kapala et al. (2002)	М	876-1088	327.1
selected value:			330.3 ± 3.0
PrCl ₃			
Harrison (1952)	Κ	991-1142	320.9 ± 1.8
Novikov and Baev (1962)	В	1314-1465	329.9 ± 0.7
Shimazaki and Niwa (1962)	Κ	1002-1061	330.6 ± 0.2
Moriarity (1963)	Κ	1002-1273	330.6 ± 0.2
Polyachenok and Novikov (1963b)	В	????-1673	323.3 ± 3.6
Dudchik et al. (1969a)	В	1374-1636	327.5 ± 0.2
Nisel'son et al. (1978)	В	1373-1573	336.4
Hannay and Myers (1979)	Е	914-1056	332.1 ± 0.5
Villani et al. (2000a)	TE	890-1061	327.7 ± 0.3
Kapala et al. (2002)	М	946-1106	326.1
selected value:			329.2 ± 3.0
NdCl ₃			
Harrison (1952)	Κ	964-1107	312.6 ± 2.2
Novikov and Baev (1962)	В	1314-1465	324.0 ± 0.8
Shimazaki and Niwa (1962)	Κ	973-1032	326.7 ± 0.5
Moriarity (1963)	Κ	993-1278	323.6 ± 4.2
Polyachenok and Novikov (1963b)	В	????-1673	293.0
Ciach et al. (1973)	Μ	1055-1093	339.0
Evseeva and Zenkevich (1976)	Μ		n.a.
Nisel'son et al. (1978)	В	1373–1573	329.1
Villani et al. (2002)	TE	866-1019	324.5 ± 0.3
Kapala et al. (2002)	Μ	934-1079	323.8
selected value:			324.5 ± 2.0

 Table E.2

 Enthalpy of sublimation of the gaseous lanthanide trichlorides
THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES OF THE LANTHANIDE(III) HALIDES

authors	method ^a	T/K	$\Delta_{\text{sub}} H^{\circ}(298.15 \text{ K})/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$
SmCl ₃			Sub X /
Pashinkin et al. (1962)	?	774-854	247.6
Pogrebnoi et al. (2001)	М	972-1075	299.0 ± 0.4
selected value:			315 ± 8
EuCl ₃			
Moriarity (1963)	Е	953-1188	275.8 ± 10.6
Hastie et al. (1968)	М	1145-1290	decomp.
selected value:			310.0 ± 10
GdCl ₃			
Moriarity (1963)	Κ	871-1119	291.4 ± 3.4
Dudchik et al. (1969a)	В	1369-1603	304.1 ± 0.4
Ciach et al. (1973)	М	963-1075	320.9
Myers and Hannay (1980)	Е	938-1044	307.9 ± 0.5
selected value:			306.0 ± 6.0
TbCl ₃			
Moriarity (1963)	К	1198-1313	300.5 ± 6.2
Dudchik et al. (1969a)	В	1326-1653	295.1 ± 0.3
Myers and Hannay (1980)	Κ	926-1044	300.3 ± 0.4
Kudin et al. (2000)	М	900-1100	308.6
selected value:			297.7 ± 3.0
DyCl ₃			
Moriarity (1963)	К	1023-1223	269.8 ± 1.1
Dudchik et al. (1969a)	В	1325-1620	282.6 ± 0.5
Myers and Hannay (1980)	Κ	936-1031	287.9 ± 0.4
Kudin et al. (1997)	М	850-1010	275.1
Brunetti et al. (1999)	TE	924-1214	283.7 ± 0.2
Kapala et al. (2002)	М	930-1027	282.4
selected value:			284.2 ± 4.0
HoCl ₃			
Moriarity (1963)	К	1043-1223	275.1 ± 3.2
Dudchik et al. (1969b)	В	1273-1643	279.8
Piacente et al. (2002)	TE	904-1105	284.8 ± 0.3
selected value:			284.8 ± 4.0
ErCl ₃			
Moriarity (1963)	К	1043-1283	285.8 ± 9.2
Polyachenok and Novikov (1963b)	В	????-1673	264.0
selected value:			285 ± 8
TmCl ₃			
Moriarity (1963)	Κ	1073-1228	274.6 ± 5.9
Dudchik et al. (1969b)	В	1273-1643	276.2
Kudin et al. (2000)	М	900-1100	283.2
selected value:			276 ± 6

Table E.2, continued from previous page

continued on next page

authors	method ^a	T/K	$\Delta_{\rm sub} H^{\circ}(298.15 \text{ K})/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$
YbCl ₃			
Moriarity (1963)	Κ	1148-1323	292.1 ± 1.4
Kudin et al. (1997) selected value:	М	1000-1130	$\begin{array}{c} 309.4\\ 277\pm 6\end{array}$
LuCl ₃			
Moriarity (1963)	Κ	1168-1228	283.9 ± 2.1
Dudchik et al. (1969b)	В	1273-1643	277.1
Nisel'son et al. (1978)	В	1373-1573	
selected value:			277 ± 6

Table E.2, continued from previous page

^aB, boiling point method; E, effusion; K, Knudsen effusion; M, mass spectrometry; TE, torsion effusion.

Enthalpy of sublimation of the gaseous lanthanide tribromides				
authors	method ^a	T/K	$\Delta_{\text{sub}} H^{\circ}(298.15 \text{ K})/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$	
LaBr ₃				
Harrison (1952)	Κ	915-1057	295.0 ± 1.4	
Shimazaki and Niwa (1962)	Κ	1002-1052	321.4 ± 0.1	
Dudchik et al. (1975)	В	1321-1542	318.0	
Gietmann et al. (1996)	Μ	950-1024	308.8 ± 0.6	
Brunetti et al. (2000)	TE	955-1045	316.0 ± 0.1	
selected value:			314.3 ± 5.0	
CeBr ₃				
Harrison (1952)	Κ	892-1030	286.8 ± 0.8	
Shimazaki and Niwa (1962)	Е	943-992	311.8 ± 0.4	
Dudchik et al. (1975)	В	1306-1518	308.4	
Gietmann et al. (1996)	Μ	962–968	301.1 ± 0.0	
Villani et al. (2000b)	TE	887-1003	305.9 ± 0.4	
selected value:			306.8 ± 5.0	
PrBr ₃				
Shimazaki and Niwa (1962)	Κ	924–973	307.4 ± 0.3	
Dudchik et al. (1975)	В	1280-1560	304.4	
Gietmann et al. (1996)	М	924–955	298.1 ± 0.2	
Villani et al. (2000a)	TE	890-1061	303.0 ± 0.2	
selected value:			303.3 ± 4.0	
NdBr ₃				
Harrison (1952)	Κ	849-975	274.2 ± 0.4	
Shimazaki and Niwa (1962)	Κ	889–948	305.6 ± 0.1	
Dudchik et al. (1975)	В	1258-1559	302.2	
Gietmann et al. (1996)	М	923–936	294.6 ± 0.2	
Villani et al. (2002)	TE	866-1019	304.2 ± 0.2	
selected value:			301.6 ± 4.0	
SmBr ₃				
Harrison (1952)	К	822-940	260.2 ± 1.4	
selected value:			300 ± 10	

Table E.3 Enthalpy of sublimation of the gaseous lanthanide tribromides

continued on next page

THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES OF THE LANTHANIDE(III) HALIDES

authors	method ^a	T/K	$\Delta_{\text{sub}} H^{\circ}(298.15 \text{ K})/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$
GdBr ₃			
Makhmadmurodov et al. (1975)	В	1120-1532	277.0
Gietmann et al. (1996)	М	1005-1011	272.5 ± 0.1
selected value:			274.8 ± 3.0
TbBr ₃			
Makhmadmurodov et al. (1975)	В	1219-1536	274.6
Gietmann et al. (1996)	М	964-985	270.6 ± 0.5
selected value:			272.6 ± 3.0
DyBr ₃			
Makhmadmurodov et al. (1975)	В	1220-1535	273.0
Hilpert et al. (1995)	М	953-1053	269.6 ± 0.4
Brunetti et al. (1999)	TE	878-1151	276.4 ± 0.4
selected value:			273.0 ± 5.0
HoBr ₃			
Gietmann et al. (1996)	М	971-1003	275.0 ± 0.5
Piacente et al. (2002)	TE	904-1105	285.0 ± 0.3
selected value:			280.0 ± 5.0
ErBr ₃			
Makhmadmurodov et al. (1975)	В	1242-1506	270.8
Gietmann et al. (1996)	Μ	946–995	271.4 ± 0.8
selected value:			271.1 ± 5.0
TmBr ₃			
Makhmadmurodov et al. (1975)	В	1252-1482	269.5
Gietmann et al. (1996)	М	946–995	275.4 ± 1.7
selected value:			272.5 ± 5.0
LuBr ₃			
Makhmadmurodov et al. (1975)	В	1305-1468	267.2
selected value:			267.2 ± 10

^aB, boiling point method; E, effusion; K, Knudsen effusion; M, mass spectrometry; TE, torsion effusion.

authors	method ^a	T/K	$\Delta_{\rm sub} H^{\circ}(298.15 \text{ K})/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$
LaI ₃			
Shimazaki and Niwa (1962)	K	953-1012	315.5 ± 0.4
Hirayama et al. (1976)	Μ	891-1009	302.7 ± 0.3
Brunetti et al. (2000)	TE	955-1045	307.9 ± 0.3
selected value:			307.9 ± 8.0
CeI ₃			
Hirayama and Castle (1973)	М	933 ^b	305.9
Hirayama et al. (1975)	К	870-1015	297.5 ± 0.4
Struck and Feuersanger (1999)	М	841-928	285.6
Villani et al. (2000b)	TE	887-1003	301.8 ± 0.4
selected value:			299.7 ± 5.0

Table E.4 Enthalpy of sublimation of the gaseous lanthanide triiodides

continued on next page

Table E.4, continued from previous page

authors	method ^a	T/K	$\Delta_{\rm sub} H^{\circ}(298.15 \text{ K})/\text{kJ}\cdot\text{mol}^{-1}$
PrI ₃			
Shimazaki and Niwa (1962)	E	933-1002	303.6 ± 0.7
Hirayama and Camp (1972)	E	841-1032	296.5 ± 0.7
Villani et al. (2000a)	TE	890-1061	297.1 ± 0.3
selected value:			296.8 ± 3.0
NdI ₃			
Shimazaki and Niwa (1962)	E	953-1002	298.0 ± 0.3
Hirayama and Camp (1972)	E	857-1037	289.7 ± 0.6
Villani et al. (2002)	TE	866-1019	296.0 ± 0.2
selected value:			294.6 ± 3.0
GdI ₃			
Hirayama and Castle (1973)	Μ	943 ^b	270.0
Hirayama et al. (1975)	K	912-1025	276.4 ± 0.8
selected value:			276.4 ± 4.0
TbI ₃			
Hirayama and Castle (1973)	М	931 ^b	261.0
Hirayama et al. (1975)	Κ	883-979	273.0 ± 0.4
selected value:			273.0 ± 6.0
DyI ₃			
Hirayama and Castle (1973)	М	916 ^b	266.7
Hirayama et al. (1975)	К	885-1060	272.6 ± 0.4
Kaposi et al. (1983)	М	970-1150	270.8 ± 1.7
Brunetti et al. (1999)	TE	843-1051	274.9 ± 0.4
selected value:			273.8 ± 4.0
HoI ₃			
Hirayama and Castle (1973)	М	880 ^b	280.7
Hirayama et al. (1975)	E	924-1029	276.1 ± 0.6
Kaposi et al. (1986)	Μ	935-1055	275.3 ± 0.5
Gietmann et al. (1996)	Μ	945-975	269.3 ± 0.8
Piacente et al. (2002)	TE	904-1105	267.1 ± 0.4
selected value:			272.0 ± 6.0
ErI ₃			
Hirayama and Castle (1973)	Μ	895 ^b	259.9
Hirayama et al. (1975)	K	898-1016	273.5 ± 0.6
selected value:			273.5 ± 6.0
TmI ₃			
Hirayama et al. (1975)	K	867–990	271.8 ± 0.6
Dettingmeijer and Dielis (1988)	K	874-1012	$267.5 \pm 0.4^{\circ}$
Struck and Feuersanger (1991)	Μ	775–900	258.1
selected value:			271.8 ± 6.0

^aB, boiling point method; E, effusion; K, Knudsen effusion; M, mass spectrometry; TE, torsion effusion.
 ^bOnly mean temperature is given.
 ^cRecalculated assuming momomeric species only.

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Chapter 214

RARE EARTH – MANGANESE PEROVSKITES

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List of acronyms

antiferromagnetic insulator	MCG	magnetic cluster glass
antiferromagnetic metal	NMR	nuclear magnetic resonance
charge-ordered	NQR	nuclear quadrupole resonance
canted-spin antiferromagnetic insulator	00	orbital-ordered
charge-density wave	PDF	pair-density function
colossal negative magnetoresistance	QCP	quantum critical point
electron spin resonance	SG	spin glass
field-cooled	SDW	spin-density wave
ferromagnetic insulator	SP	superparamagnetic
ferromagnetic metal	ZFC	zero-field-cooled
ferromagnetic vibronic conductor		
	antiferromagnetic insulator antiferromagnetic metal charge-ordered canted-spin antiferromagnetic insulator charge-density wave colossal negative magnetoresistance electron spin resonance field-cooled ferromagnetic insulator ferromagnetic metal ferromagnetic vibronic conductor	antiferromagnetic insulatorMCGantiferromagnetic metalNMRcharge-orderedNQRcanted-spin antiferromagnetic insulatorOOcharge-density wavePDFcolossal negative magnetoresistanceQCPelectron spin resonanceSGfield-cooledSDWferromagnetic insulatorSPferromagnetic metalZFCferromagnetic vibronic conductorST

J.B. GOODENOUGH

1. Introductory concepts

1.1. Tolerance factor

The cubic AMO₃ perovskite structure consists of an MO₃ array of corner-shared MO_{6/2} octahedra with a large A cation at the body-center position. As is illustrated in fig. 1, this structure allows formation of the Ruddlesden–Popper (1957, 1958) rock-salt/perovskite intergrowth structures MO \cdot (AMO₃)_n. In all these structures, the mismatch between the equilibrium (A–O) and (M–O) bond lengths is given by the deviation from unity of the geometric tolerance factor

$$t \equiv (A-O)/\sqrt{2}(M-O). \tag{1}$$

This factor may be calculated for room temperature and atmospheric pressure from tabulated sums of ionic radii obtained from X-ray data (Shannon and Prewitt, 1969, 1970). However, it must be recognized that the thermal expansions and the compressibilities of the (A–O) and (M–O) bonds are different, which makes t both pressure and temperature dependent. In the case of a transition-metal atom M, the thermal expansion of the (A–O) bond is the larger, which makes

$$\mathrm{d}t/\mathrm{d}T > 0. \tag{2}$$

The compressibility of the (A–O) bond is normally the larger (Goodenough et al., 1972), which makes

$$dt/dP < 0, (3a)$$

but at the crossover from localized to itinerant electronic behavior for d electrons of an MO₃ array, a

$$dt/dP > 0 \tag{3b}$$

is found. The origin of this abnormality is discussed in sect. 1.2.3.



Fig. 1. (a) The ideal cubic perovskite structure and (b) the n = 1 Ruddlesden–Popper phase AO · AMO₃.



Fig. 2. The hexagonal perovskite polytypes: (a) cubic, (b) hexagonal, (c) 6H, (d) 4H, (e) 9R after Goodenough et al. (1972).

The AMO₃ perovskites adjust to a t > 1 by the formation of hexagonal polytypes like those illustrated schematically in fig. 2. In these polytypes, the close-packed (111) AO₃ layers of the cubic phase are changed from all-cubic to cubic + hexagonal or all-hexagonal stacking. Application of hydrostatic pressure normally reduces t, changing hexagonal polytypes successively to structures with more cubic and less hexagonal stacking (Goodenough et al., 1972).

The AMO₃ perovskites adjust to a t < 1 by cooperative rotations of the MO_{6/2} octahedra. These rotations lower the M–O–M bond angle from 180° to $(180^{\circ} - \phi)$. Three of the common rotations are illustrated in fig. 3. With decreasing t, rotations about a cubic [001] axis to give tetragonal I4/mcm symmetry is followed by those about a [111] axis to give rhombohedral $R\bar{3}c$ symmetry and then about a [110] axis to give orthorhombic *Pbnm* symmetry with $c/a > \sqrt{2}$ (in the equivalent space group *Pnma*, $b/a > \sqrt{2}$). The bending angle ϕ increases with decreasing t, and ϕ increases discontinuously on going from $R\bar{3}c$ to *Pbnm* symmetry. The Ruddlesden–Popper phases also adjust to a t < 1 by cooperative rotations of the MO_{6/2} octahedra.

The ability to adjust to a t < 1 allows for extensive cation substitutions on both the A and the M sites; the structure is also tolerant of large concentrations of both oxygen and A-cation vacancies. The perovskites do not accept oxygen interstitials, but the Ruddlesden–Popper phases with a t < 1 may accept interstitial oxygen between the AO layers of the rock-salt intergrowths in order to increase t. Primary emphasis here is on the oxygen-stoichiometric perovskites containing M = Mn; the physical properties of these oxides are changed either by a progressive substitution of a lanthanide by an alkaline-earth on the A sites so as to change both t and the Mn(IV)/Mn ratio or by a progressive isovalent substitution of one rare-earth by another or one alkaline-earth by another on the A sites so as to change only t while keeping the Mn(IV)/Mn ratio fixed. The presence of two or more A-site cations of different radius r_A leads to a variance $\sigma^2 \equiv (\sum_i x_i r_{Ai}^2 - \langle r_A \rangle^2)$, where x_i is the concentration of each A-site cation of radius r_{Ai} ; σ^2 is a measure of the consequent perturbation of the periodic potential of the MO₃ array. Partial substitutions of Mn by other cations on the M sites are also discussed for a few special cases. Several interesting phenomena encountered in Ruddlesden–Popper manganites are not included here.





Fig. 3. Common MO_{6/2} cooperative rotations about (a) [001] to give tetragonal I4/mcm symmetry, (b) [111] to give rhombohedral $R\bar{3}c$, (c) [110] to give O-orthorhombic *Phnm* (or *Pnma*).

1.2. Electronic considerations

The AMO₃ perovskites with M = Mn are sufficiently ionic that the Madelung energy stabilizes filled bonding bands that have primarily O-2p character separated from empty antibonding bands of primarily cationic s and p character by a large ($\sim 6 \text{ eV}$) energy gap. Lanthanide A-site cations introduce empty 5d bands that may overlap the antibonding s bands (Oliver et al., 1972).

The 4fⁿ configurations at the A-site lanthanide ions are localized and the intraatomic electron–electron coulomb energies are large, so the separation between successive 4fⁿ configurations is $U_{fn} > 6$ eV. Moreover, the Ce⁴⁺ ion is too small to occupy an A site, the Eu³⁺/Eu²⁺ redox energy lies above the Mn(III)/Mn(II) level, and the Pr⁴⁺/Pr³⁺ redox energy lies below the Mn(IV)/Mn(III) level. As illustrated schematically in fig. 4 for NdMnO₃, the Mn(IV)/Mn(III) redox energy lies a little above the top of the O-2p bonding bands. Therefore, in the manganese perovskites to be discussed, the rare-earth ions all have R³⁺: 4f⁰ or localized R³⁺: 4fⁿ configurations with 4f-electron energies well-removed from the Fermi energy. Long-range magnetic ordering of the R³⁺: 4fⁿ configurations at low-temperatures is not considered here; the principal interest of the R³⁺ ion is its size, which influences the physical properties of the MnO₃ array through the tolerance factor *t* and variance σ^2 .



Fig. 4. Schematic one-electron energies for Nd-5d, 6s and O-2p bands of NdMnO₃ and redox energies of Nd(III) and Mn(III) in NdMnO₃.

The structural, transport, and magnetic properties of a manganese-perovskite system $R_{1-x}A_xMnO_3$ (A = alkaline-earth or alkali atom) are strongly influenced by two features of the MnO₃ array: the orbital degeneracy of the octahedral-site, high-spin Mn(III): d⁴ configuration and the possibility of a transition from localized to itinerant electronic behavior of the σ -bonding d electrons with increasing *t* and Mn(IV)/Mn ratio *x*. Therefore, we introduce a description of the d-electron manifold before we present and interpret the physical data.

1.2.1. Ligand-field considerations

The five 3d orbitals of a free Mn atom are degenerate; but with more than one electron in the 3d manifold, the spin degeneracy is removed by the ferromagnetic direct-exchange interactions between electron spins in atomic orthogonal orbitals. These exchange interactions produce the Hund intraatomic exchange field H_{ex} . The exchange splitting between spin states will be designated Δ_{ex} .

The atomic orbitals $f_m = R_{nl}(r)P_l^{|m|}(\cos\theta)\exp(\pm im\phi)$ with azimuthal angular momentum quantum number *m*, where $L_z f_m = -i\hbar(\partial f_m/\partial\phi) = m\hbar f_m$, have the angular dependencies for l = 2 (d orbitals)

$$f_{0} \sim (\cos^{2} \theta - 1) \sim [(z^{2} - x^{2}) + (z^{2} - y^{2})]/r^{2},$$

$$f_{\pm 1} \sim \sin 2\theta \exp(\pm i\phi) \sim (yz \pm izx)/r^{2},$$

$$f_{\pm 2} \sim \sin^{2} \theta \exp(\pm i2\phi) \sim [(x^{2} - y^{2}) \pm ixy]/r^{2}.$$
(4)

In an isolated octahedral site, the xy and $(yz \pm izx)$ orbitals only overlap the ligand O- $2p_{\pi}$ orbitals while the $[(z^2 - x^2) + (z^2 - y^2)]$ and $(x^2 - y^2)$ orbitals only overlap the O-2s, $2p_{\sigma}$ orbitals. The resonance integrals $b^{ca} \equiv (f_m, H'\phi_0) \approx \varepsilon_{mo}(f_m, \phi_0)$ describing the energy of a virtual charge transfer to the empty M-3d orbitals from the same-symmetry sum of near-neighbor oxygen orbitals ϕ_0 contain both an overlap integral (f_m, ϕ_0) and a one-electron energy ε_{mo} that are larger for σ -bonding than for π -bonding. Therefore, the antibonding states



Fig. 5. Octahedral-site splitting of (a) the orbitally fivefold-degenerate d^1 manifold by a cubic crystalline field and (b) the high-spin Mn(III) configuration.

of a σ -bond are raised higher in energy than those of a π -bond and, as a consequence, the cubic symmetry of the octahedral site raises the twofold-degenerate pair of σ -bonding e orbitals, the $[(z^2 - x^2) + (z^2 - y^2)]$ and the $(x^2 - y^2)$ orbitals, above the threefold-degenerate set of π -bonding *t* orbitals *xy*, $(yz \pm izx)$ by an energy Δ_c , which quenches the orbital angular momentum associated with $m = \pm 2$ (see fig. 5).

If a point-charge ionic model places the empty 3d orbitals of a degenerate manifold an energy $\Delta E_{\rm p}$ above the O-2p orbitals and $\Delta E_{\rm s}$ above the O-2s orbitals, the antibonding d-like states may be described in second-order perturbation theory to give the ligand-field wavefunctions

$$\psi_t = N_\pi (f_t - \lambda_\pi \phi_\pi),$$

$$\psi_e = N_\sigma (f_e - \lambda_\sigma \phi_\sigma - \lambda_s \phi_s),$$
(5)

provided the covalent-mixing parameters are $\lambda_{\pi} \equiv b_{\pi}^{ca}/\Delta E_{p} \ll 1$ and $\lambda_{\sigma} \equiv b_{\sigma}^{ca}/\Delta E_{p} \ll 1$. A larger ΔE_{s} keeps $\lambda_{s} \ll 1$ where eq. (5) is applicable. According to second-order perturbation theory, the antibonding states are raised an energy $\Delta E = |b^{ca}|^{2}/\Delta E_{p}$ by the Mn–O covalent bonding, and the cubic-field splitting of the e and t orbital energies is

$$\Delta_{\rm c} = \Delta \varepsilon_{\sigma} - \Delta \varepsilon_{\pi} = \Delta_{\rm M} + \left(\lambda_{\sigma}^2 - \lambda_{\pi}^2\right) \Delta E_{\rm p} + \lambda_{\rm s}^2 \Delta E_{\rm s},\tag{6}$$

where $\Delta_{\rm M}$ is a small, purely electrostatic energy of uncertain sign due to the penetration of the O^{2-} -ion electron cloud by the cation wavefunctions. In the perovskite structure, an interaction of the ψ_t electrons with the empty A-cation wavefunctions would lower ε_{π} and increase $\Delta_{\rm c}$. This latter interaction does not appear to be of primary importance in the rare-earth manganese perovskites where a $\Delta_{\rm ex} > \Delta_{\rm c}$ removes the spin degeneracy and maintains, at atmospheric pressure, a high-spin configuration on the Mn(III): t^3e^1 ions; the Mn(IV): t^3e^0 configuration contains no e electron and the high-spin Mn(II): t^3e^2 configuration has two electrons in a σ -bonding e-orbital. The mobile electrons that transport charge are electrons occupying the orbitally twofold-degenerate e orbitals.



Fig. 6. (a) Jahn–Teller octahedral-site deformations that remove the e-orbital degeneracy of a localized Mn(III) : t^3e^1 configuration. (b) Cooperative oxygen displacements that remove the orbital degeneracy of a high-spin, octahedral-site d^4 configuration: (i) disproportionation as in CaFeO₃ below room temperature and (ii) Jahn–Teller orbital ordering in LaMnO₃.

The twofold e-orbital degeneracy at a localized Mn(III): t^3e^1 configuration may be removed by cooperative oxygen displacements that either lower the site symmetry from cubic to tetragonal or orthorhombic (Jahn–Teller site distortion) as illustrated in fig. 6(a) or transfer an electron from one Mn atom to another as in the disproportionation reaction 2Mn(III) = Mn(IV) + Mn(II) that is illustrated in fig. 6(b)(i). These atomic displacements are superimposed on the cooperative rotations of the $MnO_{6/2}$ octahedra induced by a tolerance factor t < 1. In a perovskite with a large concentration of Mn(III) ions, long-range-cooperative Jahn–Teller site distortions reduce the elastic energy associated with the individual site distortions and give a global distortion of the structure. In orthorhombic LaMnO₃, for example, long-range orbital ordering stabilizes site distortions that create within (001) planes two short and two long Mn–O bonds at each site-centered Mn atom, the direction of the long Mn–O bonds alternating from (100) to (010) in a checkerboard fashion as is illustrated in fig. 6(b)(ii). The long-range orbital ordering changes the orthorhombic axial ratio from $c/a > \sqrt{2}$ to $c/a < \sqrt{2}$. Where the local site distortions are disordered, the axial ratio becomes $c/a \approx \sqrt{2}$. We distinguish the orthorhombic structures as O for a $c/a > \sqrt{2}$ due

to cooperative MnO_{6/2} rotations alone, O' for a $c/a < \sqrt{2}$ signaling a superimposed long-range-cooperative orbital ordering, and O^{*} for $c/a \approx \sqrt{2}$ signaling orbital fluctuations with only short-range-cooperative orbital ordering.

1.2.2. Interatomic interactions

In the manganese perovskites, the dominant interactions between d-like orbitals at neighboring Mn atoms are the $(180^\circ - \phi)$ Mn–O–Mn interactions. The spin-independent resonance integrals describing charge transfer between Mn atoms at positions R_i and R_j are

$$b_{\pi}^{cac} = (\psi_{ti}, H'\psi_{tj}) \approx \varepsilon_{\pi}\lambda_{\pi}^{2},$$

$$b_{\sigma}^{cac} = (\psi_{ei}, H'\psi_{ej}) \approx \varepsilon_{\sigma}\lambda_{\sigma}^{2}\cos\phi,$$
(7)

where λ_{π} varies with the acidity of the A cations as well as with the bending angle ϕ and H' describes the perturbation of the potential at R_j caused by the presence of a Mn atom at R_i . The smaller term $\varepsilon_s \lambda_s^2$ is omitted from b_{σ}^{cac} for simplicity.

The interactions between localized spins on neighboring cations are treated by a perturbation theory in which the spin-dependent resonance integrals for parallel and antiparallel coupling of spins are

$$t_{ij}^{\uparrow\uparrow} = b_{ij}^{cac} \cos(\theta_{ij}/2) \quad \text{and} \quad t_{ij}^{\uparrow\downarrow} = b_{ij}^{cac} \sin(\theta_{ij}/2) \tag{8}$$

for electron transfer between cations whose spins are rotated by an angle θ_{ij} with respect to one another; $b_{ij}^{cac} \approx \varepsilon_{ij}(\psi_i, \psi_j)$ is the spin-independent resonance integral. The spin angular momentum is conserved in an electron transfer. Rules for the sign of the interatomic spin–spin exchange interactions follow:

• **Direct exchange** between spins in orthogonal orbitals is a *potential exchange* as it does not involve electron transfer; like the intraatomic interactions, it is *ferromagnetic*.

• Superexchange interactions between spins S_i and S_j on neighboring atoms is a *kinetic* exchange that involves virtual charge transfer between crystal-field orbitals on neighboring cations; spin polarization of the electron cloud on any intervening anion is neglected in this Anderson (1959) formulation of superexchange. However, Goodenough (1963) pointed out that where the superexchange interaction is across an intervening anion, as in the $(180 - \phi)$ Mn–O–Mn interactions in a manganese-oxide perovskite, there is an additional component to the superexchange interaction, which he called "semicovalent exchange" as it involves transfer of two electrons from the intervening oxygen, one each to the two interaction; but it adds a second semicovalent-exchange term to the expression for the superexchange interaction that becomes dominant where the energy ΔE_p becomes smaller than the effective intraatomic energy U_{eff} (Zaanen and Sawatzky, 1987). We shall introduce this second term explicitly in the discussion of the single-valent compounds LaMnO₃ and CaMnO₃ (sects. 2.4 and 2.7). Here we present only the Anderson formulation and its modification to give the rules for the sign of the superexchange spin–spin coupling.

Antiferromagnetic superexchange: Transfer of an electron of α spin from a half-filled orbital to an orbital that is also half-filled is constrained by the Pauli exclusion principle to be most

probable if the spin on the acceptor atom has β spin. From second-order perturbation theory, the bonding energy gained by the virtual electron transfer is, from eq. (8),

$$\Delta \varepsilon^{S} \approx -|t_{ij}^{\uparrow\downarrow}|^{2} / U_{\text{eff}} = \text{Const} + J_{ij} S_{i} \cdot S_{j}$$
⁽⁹⁾

where $J_{ij} \approx |2b_{ij}^2|/4S^2 U_{\text{eff}}$ and U_{eff} is the total energy it costs to add an electron to the acceptor. Equation (9) with $J_{ij} \approx 2b_{ij}^2/U_{\text{eff}}$ is the Anderson expression for spin S = 1/2.

Ferromagnetic superexchange: Transfer of an electron from a half-filled orbital to an empty orbital on an acceptor atom having a spin S is not constrained by the Pauli exclusion principle, but the intraatomic exchange energy Δ_{ex} makes the transfer most probable if the spin S is parallel to the spin of the transferred electron. From third-order perturbation theory, the bonding energy gained by the virtual electron transfer is, from eq. (8),

$$\Delta \varepsilon^{S} \approx -\frac{|t_{ij}^{\uparrow\uparrow}|^{2} \Delta_{\text{ex}}}{U_{\text{eff}}^{2}} = \text{Const} - J_{ij} S_{i} \cdot S_{j}$$
⁽¹⁰⁾

where $J_{ij} \approx (2b_{ij}^2 \Delta_{\text{ex}})/4S^2 U_{\text{eff}}^2$.

A similar reasoning applies to virtual transfer of an electron from a filled orbital at an atom of spin *S* to a half-filled orbital at an acceptor atom.

Vibronic superexchange: In manganese-oxide perovskites, orbital fluctuations at the Jahn– Teller Mn(III) ions of a Mn(III)–O–Mn(III) interaction give rise, over the period of an axial oxygen vibration, to both antiferromagnetic and ferromagnetic superexchange interactions. However, electron transfer to an empty orbital is energetically favored over transfer to a halffilled orbital and the axial oxygen displacements associated with the orbital fluctuations correlate asymmetric e-orbital occupancy on either side of the oxygen atom for minimization of the elastic energy. Consequently, the net vibronic Mn(III)–O–Mn(III) superexchange interaction is *ferromagnetic*.

• **Double exchange** is also a *kinetic exchange*; it involves a *real* charge transfer between like atoms in two different valence states, each carrying a localized spin *S*. If the charge transfer requires an activation energy as occurs in polaronic conduction, then the individual atomic spins have time to relax between electron jumps and no spin–spin coupling is achieved by the real charge transfer. In this case, a superexchange coupling by virtual charge transfer is still present. Polaronic conduction in a manganese-oxide perovskite occurs where the time τ_h for an electron to hop from one atom to a neighbor is long compared to the period ω_0^{-1} of the cooperative oxygen vibrations that would trap it at the manganese atom of lower valence state. Double exchange was first postulated by Zener (1951) to occur within a Mn(III)–O–Mn(IV) pair by a double electron transfer O^{2–}–Mn(IV) = O[–]–Mn(III) accompanied by Mn(III)–O[–] = Mn(IV)–O^{2–} on the opposite side in a time $\tau_h < \omega_0^{-1}$ to give a ferromagnetic coupling between localized manganese spins since spin is conserved in the real charge transfer for and the intraatomic Δ_{ex} is operative at each Mn atom. This mechanism only provides for ferromagnetically coupled pairs

$$Mn(III)-O-Mn(IV) = Mn(IV)-O-Mn(III),$$
(11)

In order to account for an observed global ferromagnetism, Zener (1951) had to make the further assumption that these pairs do not require an activation energy to diffuse through the lattice. This model leads to a charge-carrier mobility

$$\mu = e D_0 / kT \tag{12}$$

where the diffusion coefficient D_0 is temperature-independent. We shall refer to the twomanganese polarons described by eq. (11) as Zener polarons. Following the formulation of eq. (8) by Anderson and Hasegawa (1955). De Gennes (1960) proposed a double-exchange model in which the mobile electrons of e-orbital parentage occupy a narrow σ^* band having no spin degeneracy and a spin-dependent resonance integral $t_{ij}^{\uparrow\uparrow}$ replaces the usual spinindependent integral b_{ij}^{cac} . The tight-binding band model then gives a ferromagnetic stabilization

$$\Delta_{\text{ex}}^D \approx -c(1-c)zt_{ij}^{\uparrow\uparrow} = -c(1-c)zb_{ij}^{cac}\cos(\theta_{ij}/2)$$
(13)

where z is the number of manganese near neighbors and c = Mn(IV)/Mn is the fractional occupancy of mobile charge carriers in the MnO₃ array.

• **Indirect exchange** is a coupling of localized spins at M atoms by electrons of a partially occupied broad band. Whereas the mobile spins are assumed to couple ferromagnetically to the localized spins in the De Gennes model (minority-spin electrons would couple antiferromagnetically), localized spins only induce a partial intraatomic parallel-spin magnetization of broad-band electrons. The induced magnetization is largest at the position of a localized spin and it oscillates in sign at larger distances from the localized spin. Therefore, indirect exchange may be *ferromagnetic* between close near neighbors and *antiferromagnetic* between more distant neighbors.

• Antisymmetric exchange introduces a term of the form $D_{ij} \cdot S_i \times S_j$ that may be added to the symmetric superexchange term of the form $J_{ij}S_i \cdot S_j$; it cants antiferromagnetically coupled spins so as to give a ferromagnetic component perpendicular to the vector D_{ij} . Antisymmetric exchange originates in the orbital angular momentum; it may dominate symmetric exchange in the coupling between localized $4f^n$ configurations on the lanthanide ions, but it is much weaker than the symmetric exchange in the coupling between d^n configurations in the manganese-oxide perovskites. Antisymmetric exchange was introduced by Dzialoshinskii (1958), who pointed out that a $D_{ij} \neq 0$ can only exist where spin canting leaves the system *invariant* under all symmetry operations of the unit cell. The formalism was developed further by Moriya (1960); D_{ij} is known as the Dzialoshinskii vector.

In the orthorhombic AMO₃ perovskites, canting of antiferromagnetically coupled M-atom spins to give a weak ferromagnetic component can be accomplished by any of three different mechanisms: magnetocrystalline anisotropy of cooperatively tilted MO_{6/2} octahedra, Dzialoshinskii–Moriya antisymmetric exchange, or a double-exchange component varying as $\cos(\theta_{ij}/2)$ superimposed on a superexchange component varying as $\cos \theta_{ij}$. Bertaut (1963) has described the possible spin configurations compatible with the *Pbnm* space group. Figure 7 represents the M atoms of an orthorhombic AMO₃ structure. Linear combinations of the spin components that transform into themselves are chosen as the base vectors of the



Fig. 7. Labeling of M-atom positions in the orthorhombic (*Pbnm*) structure of an AMO₃ perovskite.

irreducible representations. In the notation of Koehler et al. (1960), these base vectors are

$$F = S_1 + S_2 + S_3 + S_4,$$

$$G = S_1 - S_2 + S_3 - S_4,$$

$$C = S_1 + S_2 - S_3 - S_4,$$

$$A = S_1 - S_2 - S_3 + S_4.$$

(14)

Subjecting these vectors to the crystallographic symmetry operations generates the four possible representations of the base vectors shown in table 1. The x, y, z directions in table 1 are taken parallel to the a, b, c axes of the orthorhombic unit cell in space group *Pbnm*.

Where the MO_3 array is mixed-valent with both orbital and charge ordering, more complex spin configurations are found as is illustrated by $La_{0.5}Ca_{0.5}MnO_3$.

Extrapolation of the rules for the sign of the superexchange interaction, eqs. (9) and (10), to itinerant-electron magnetism leads to the following rules for bands containing *n* electrons per band orbital ($0 \le n \le 2$ because of spin degeneracy):

- Half-filled bands (n = 1) are antiferromagnetic.
- Bands with $0 < n \le 1/2$ or $3/2 \le n < 2$ would be half-metallic ferromagnets with full magnetization $M = Nn\mu_B$ or $N(2 n)\mu_B$ per band orbital, where N is the number of transition-metal atoms per unit volume if narrow enough for total removal of the spin de-

 Table 1

 Representations of base vectors of M-atom spins with space group Pbnm

Representations	Base	Vector for	M-atom spin
Γ ₁	A_{X}	G_y	C_z
Γ_2	F_{x}	C_{y}	G_z
Γ_3	C_x	F_{y}	A_z
Γ_4	G_X	A_y	F_z

generacy; if the intraatomic electron-electron interactions are not strong enough to remove completely the spin degeneracy of the band, a spin-density wave (SDW) may be stabilized.

• Bands with $1/2 < n < n_c$ or $n_c < n < 3/2$ would be ferromagnetic with a reduced magnetization $M = N(1-n)\mu_B$ or $M = N(n-1)\mu_B$ since only the antibonding states of the band are magnetized. At $n_c \approx 2/3$ or 4/3 (value depends on bandwidth), there is a transition to antiferromagnetic order as the filling approaches n = 1.

The transition from localized to itinerant electronic behavior occurs where the interatomic interactions become greater than the intraatomic interactions. A measure of the strength of the interatomic interactions is the bandwidth W and of the strength of the intraatomic interactions is the energy U_{eff} that separates successive redox energies. The transition from localized to itinerant electronic behavior occurs where

$$W \approx U_{\rm eff}.$$
 (15)

Itinerant-electron magnetism is found in a narrow range of bandwidths ΔW near $W \approx U_{\text{eff}}$. For broader bands, localized spins on the M atoms are suppressed, and the tight-binding bandwidths are

$$W_{\pi} \approx 2z b_{\pi}^{cac}$$
 and $W_{\sigma} \approx 2z b_{\sigma}^{cac}$ (16)

where the number of like nearest neighbors is z = 6 for 3D bands, z = 4 for 2D bands, z = 2 for 1D bands. From eq. (7), a $\lambda_{\sigma} > \lambda_{\pi}$ and a small bending angle ϕ makes

$$W_{\sigma} > W_{\pi}. \tag{17}$$

The intraatomic interactions, on the other hand, are stronger the weaker the covalent mixing, which makes the on-site coulomb energies

$$U_{\pi_{\rm eff}} > U_{\sigma_{\rm eff}}.\tag{18}$$

Equation (18) is particularly strong at a Mn(III) ion, for example, where $U_{\pi_{\text{eff}}}$ includes the exchange energy Δ_{ex} whereas U_{σ} includes neither a crystal-field splitting Δ_{c} nor an exchange splitting Δ_{ex} . A $W_{\pi} < U_{\pi_{\text{eff}}}$ can leave a t³ manifold localized in the presence of a $W_{\sigma} > U_{\sigma_{\text{eff}}}$ that transforms the e electrons of an MO₃ array into itinerant electrons occupying a narrow σ^* band. This situation is found, for example, in the mixed-valent MnO₃ array of La_{1-x}Sr_xMnO₃ with 0.17 $\leq x < 0.5$.

1.2.3. Localized-itinerant electronic transitions

A fundamental question is whether the transition between localized and itinerant electronic behavior is continuous or discontinuous. Mott (1949) was the first to point out that an on-site electrostatic energy $U_{\sigma} > W_{\sigma}$ is needed to account for the fact that NiO is an antiferromagnetic insulator rather than a metal. Hubbard (1963) subsequently introduced U formally as a parameter into the Hamiltonian for band electrons; his model predicted a smooth transition from a Pauli paramagnetic metal to an antiferromagnetic insulator as the ratio W/U decreased to below a critical value of order unity. This metal–insulator transition is known as the Mott– Hubbard transition.

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In fact, there is increasing evidence that this transition is not continuous, and independent arguments have been presented that suggest the transition is first-order (Goodenough, 1992; Dagotto et al., 1998; Rozenberg et al., 1994). The simplest argument is based on the virial theorem of mechanics for central-force fields:

$$2\langle T \rangle + \langle V \rangle = 0 \tag{19}$$

where $\langle T \rangle$ is the mean kinetic energy of a system of particles and $\langle V \rangle$ is their mean potential energy. Electrons bound in a crystal have a $\langle V \rangle < 0$. At a transition from localized to itinerant electronic behavior, the volume occupied by an electron increases discontinuously, which means that $\langle T \rangle$ decreases and therefore $|\langle V \rangle|$ decreases discontinuously. For antibonding electrons, a decrease in $|\langle V \rangle|$ is accomplished by a decrease in the equilibrium (M–O) bond length, and a discontinuous decrease in (M–O) gives a first-order transition with

$$(M-O)_{localized} > (M-O)_{itinerant}.$$
(20)

This situation leads to a double-well potential for the (M–O) bond at the crossover between localized and itinerant electronic behavior. A double-well potential for the equilibrium (M–O) bond length gives rise to lattice instabilities and phase segregation. However, the phase segregation may appear at too low a temperature for atomic diffusion. In this case, the perovskite structure accommodates a spinodal phase segregation by cooperative oxygen-atom displacements that create, on a small length scale, fluctuating regions of shorter (M–O) bond length in a matrix of larger (M–O) bond length or vice versa with complex bond-length fluctuations in between that may order at lower temperatures into a charge-density/spin-density wave (CDW/SDW); the CDW/SDW may be mobile or, if commensurate with the lattice, become pinned. A static CDW/SDW is readily observed by a diffraction experiment, a mobile CDW/SDW is not. Similarly, long-range-cooperative orbital ordering at Jahn-Teller ions induce a global lattice distortion and different equilibrium bond lengths are observed directly by neutron diffraction whereas bond-length fluctuations associated with short-range-cooperative orbital fluctuations are not. In the manganese oxides with perovskite structure, bond-length fluctuations due to the localized-itinerant electronic crossover coexist with bond-length fluctuations associated with Jahn–Teller orbital fluctuations. The fluctuations appearing at crossover may be called quantum-critical-point fluctuations.

Egami (2001) has developed pair-density-function analysis of pulsed neutron-diffraction data to determine the structure in a time interval that is short relative to a bond-length fluctuation. This method provides a direct observation of the pattern of bond-length fluctuations. Several other measurements have been shown to provide indirect signatures of the presence of bond-length fluctuations (Goodenough and Zhou, 2001). For example,

- An increase in the tolerance factor with pressure (dt/dP > 0) signals an unusually compressible M–O bond length; it has only been found at a crossover where there is a double-well potential for two equilibrium (M–O) bond lengths.
- The bandwidth W depends more sensitively on the M–O–M bond-bending angle ϕ than can be accounted for by eqs. (7) and (16), which suggests

$$W = W_b \exp(-\lambda \varepsilon_{\rm sc}/\hbar\omega_0) \quad \text{with } \lambda \sim \varepsilon_{\rm sc}/W_b, \tag{21}$$

where ε_{sc} is the energy required for an electron to transfer to a strong-correlation fluctuation from an itinerant-electron matrix and W_b is the tight-binding bandwidth of eq. (16). The period ω_0^{-1} of a bond-length fluctuation does not need to be overly sensitive to the angle ϕ to make W sensitive to ϕ .

- ¹⁸O/¹⁶O isotope exchange changes ω_0^{-1} and thereby changes W of eq. (21) to give marked changes in transition temperatures.
- The phonon contribution to the thermal conductivity is strongly suppressed by bond-length fluctuations.
- Both the room-temperature thermoelectric power and the phonon-drag component at low temperatures increase with hydrostatic pressure due to a decrease in the volume fraction of strong-correlation fluctuations in an itinerant-electron matrix.
- Where strong-correlation fluctuations are present in an itinerant-electron matrix, the magnetic susceptibility may be interpreted as a coexistence of Curie–Weiss and mass-enhanced Pauli paramagnetism.
- In mixed-valent systems, a spinodal phase segregation into fluctuating hole-rich conductive regions and hole-poor insulating regions gives rise to such unusual phenomena as a colossal magnetoresistance (CMR) in the manganese-oxide perovskites and high-*T*_c superconductivity in the intergrowth copper oxides.

2. Single-valent perovskites

2.1. LaMnO₃

The most extensively studied RMnO₃ parent compound is LaMnO₃, which contains highspin Mn(III): t³e¹ ions. It was already recognized in the 1950s that this compound is oxidized in air; oxidation changes the orthorhombic, antiferromagnetic insulator LaMnO3 into a rhombohedral, ferromagnetic metal La_{1- ζ}Mn_{1- ε}O₃ ($\zeta + \varepsilon = 0.12$ and $\zeta > \varepsilon$). Stoichiometric LaMnO₃ is stable in an inert atmosphere like N₂ or Ar or in vacuum. Wollan and Koehler (1955) reported the structure and magnetic order of LaMnO₃ at 4 K obtained by neutron diffraction; the data showed an orthorhombic axial ratio $c/a < \sqrt{2}$ and anisotropic $(180^{\circ} - \phi)$ Mn–O–Mn interactions with ferromagnetic (001) MnO₂ planes coupled antiparallel to one another. Goodenough (1955) recognized that both the magnetic order below a Néel temperature $T_{\rm N} = 135$ K and an axial ratio $c/a < \sqrt{2}$ can be accounted for by a cooperative antiferrodistortive Jahn–Teller ordering of the occupied σ -bonding e orbitals to give the structure of fig. 6(b)(ii). Each oxygen in a puckered (001) plane would be displaced so as to give $(180^\circ - \phi)$ Mn–O···Mn bonds containing one short (s) and one long (l) Mn–O bond. This order would give $e^1 \cdots O - e^0$ ferromagnetic superexchange interactions by eq. (10) that dominate the t^3 -O- t^3 interactions. Along the *c*-axis there would be no oxygen-atom displacement and equal Mn–O bonds would give antiferromagnetic t³–O–t³ superexchange interactions by eq. (9). Although the cooperative oxygen displacements were not observed at that time, this fact could be accounted for by the limited resolving power of their early powder diffractometer. Goodenough and Loeb (1955) had previously pointed out that cooperative

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ferrodistortive Jahn-Teller orbital ordering occurs in tetragonal spinels containing octahedralsite Mn(III) and Cu(II) ions, and antiferrodistortive cooperative distortions within the (001) planes of LaMnO₃ would provide an experimental demonstration of Goodenough's postulated rules for the sign of the spin-spin superexchange interactions, rules that were later shown to have general applicability (Goodenough, 1963). Kanamori (1959, 1960) subsequently refined the model; he took account of the crystalline orthorhombic symmetry by admixing the Q_3 and Q_2 deformation modes of fig. 6(a). Recent neutron (Rodríguez-Carvajal et al., 1998) and X-ray (Murakami et al., 1998) diffraction experiments on LaMnO₃ have fully corroborated the predicted oxygen displacements with opposite directions of the cooperative displacements in alternate (001) planes (out-of-phase stacking). Mizokawa et al. (1999) have argued that the degeneracy of the direction of oxygen displacements in the (001) planes is lifted by the A-O interactions to give the long-range orbital order in 3D, a larger tilting of the $MnO_{6/2}$ octahedra (smaller tolerance factor t < 1) favoring in-phase stacking of the oxygen displacements. Kataoka (2001) has extended the theory of Kanamori to include higher-order anharmonic elastic and first-order Jahn-Teller energies to account for the first-order character of the orbital order-disorder transition at $T_{JT} = 750$ K. At temperatures $T > T_{JT}$, the disordered occupied e orbitals fluctuate to give an O^{*}-orthorhombic symmetry with $c/a \approx \sqrt{2}$. Figure 8 shows the variation of the orthorhombic (Pbnm) cell parameters with temperature (Rodríguez-Carvajal et al., 1998). Louca et al. (1997), Egami et al. (1997), and Louca and Egami (1999) have shown with pulsed neutron diffraction and pair-density-function analysis that locally the Jahn-Teller distortions remain on a time scale short compared to 10^{-12} s where disorder reduces the average distortion viewed on a longer time scale. A Raman scattering study by Granado et al. (2000) also indicates that orbital disorder occurs on heating through $T_{\rm JT}$ and that considerable orbital fluctuation occurs on approaching $T_{\rm JT}$ from below. The apparent loss of ordering of the cooperative $MnO_{6/2}$ rotation in the O^{*} phase just above T_{JT} is a result of the orbital fluctuations. The cooperative rotations reappear in an O-orthorhombic phase at higher temper-



Fig. 8. Orthorhombic (Pbnm) lattice parameters of LaMnO3 as a function of temperature. The MnO_{6/2} octahedra become nearly regular in the O^* phase (T > $T_{\rm JT}$) on the time scale of the measurement, but the displacement parameter of the oxygen atoms increases significantly; after Rodríguez-Carvajal et al. (1998).

atures (T > 900 K) before transforming above ca. 1000 K to the $R\bar{3}c$ rhombohedral structure with cooperative rotations about the [111] axis (Zimmermann et al., 2001). Rhombohedral symmetry does not support removal of the e-orbital degeneracy.

The type-A antiferromagnetic order of eq. (14) is canted by Dzialoshinksii antisymmetric exchange to give a weak canted-spin ferromagnetic moment oriented along the *c*-axis (type $A_y F_z$ of table 1) (Matsumoto, 1970a); in accordance with table 1, the Dzialoshinskii vector D_{ij} is parallel to the *a*-axis and the antiferromagnetic component of the Mn-atom spins S = 2 is parallel to the *b*-axis in space group *Pbnm* (Zhou and Goodenough, 1999). Cestelli Guidé et al. (2001) have measured with muon spin rotation a cant angle of 2° and shown from the critical exponent β of $[1 - (T/T_N)]^\beta$ that LaMnO₃ is a Heisenberg system near T_N with a crossover to Ising behavior at lower temperatures due to magnetocrystalline anisotropy.

The Weiss constant of a Curie–Weiss paramagnetic susceptibility is a measure of the sign of the net spin–spin interactions in the paramagnetic state. Figure 9 shows isotropic paramagnetic data for a single crystal of LaMnO₃ taken under vacuum (Zhou and Goodenough,



Fig. 9. Magnetic susceptibility $\chi(T)$ and $\chi^{-1}(T)$ for single-crystal LaMnO₃. χ_{\parallel} and χ_{\perp} could not be resolved in the paramagnetic O' phase ($T_{\rm N} < T < T_{\rm JT}$), but they are resolved below $T_{\rm N}$; after Zhou and Goodenough (1999).

1999). Early paramagnetic data on a polycrystalline sample showed similar behavior (Jonker and van Santen, 1950). The presence of ferromagnetic interactions within (001) planes and antiferromagnetic interactions between planes in the range $T_{\rm N} = 135$ K $< T < T_{\rm IT} = 750$ K gives a Curie–Weiss paramagnetic susceptibility with a positive Weiss constant $\theta = 52.5$ K $< T_{\rm N}$. The magnetic susceptibility increases discontinuously on increasing the temperature through $T_{\rm JT}$; the Curie constant *C* remains unchanged, but a $\theta = 177$ K $> T_{\rm N}$ for temperatures $T > T_{\rm JT}$ shows that the magnetic interactions become isotropically ferromagnetic where the occupied e orbitals fluctuate. Such a change could be understood as due to the onset of a vibronic superexchange above $T_{\rm JT}$ with no change in the Mn spins provided LaMnO₃ remains an insulator at temperatures $T > T_{\rm JT}$ (Goodenough et al., 1961).

The resistivity $\rho(T)$ and thermoelectric power $\alpha(T)$, obtained under vacuum, of the single crystal of LaMnO₃ used in the magnetic study of fig. 9 are shown in fig. 10(a). These measurements (Zhou and Goodenough, 1999) were made both to determine the oxygen stoichiometry of the crystal and to test the assumption that LaMnO₃ remains an insulator at temperatures $T > T_{\rm JT}$. An initial value of $\alpha(300 \text{ K}) \approx -600 \,\mu\text{V/K}$ shows a slight oxygen deficiency; on cycling to 1100 K in vacuum, it becomes slightly oxidized to give the $\alpha(300 \text{ K}) \approx 550 \,\mu\text{V/K}$ of



Fig. 10. (a) Resistivity $\rho(T)$ and thermoelectric power $\alpha(T)$ taken on cycling a virgin single crystal of LaMnO₃ from room temperature to 1100 K measured in a vacuum of 10^{-3} torr, after Zhou and Goodenough (1999).



Fig. 10. (b) Optical conductivity spectra for E ||ab| (solid lines) E ||c| (dashed lines) of a detwinned LaMnO₃ crystal at representative temperatures: 10 K, 300 K ($T_N < T \ll T_{JT}$), 700 K ($T_N \ll T < T_{JT}$) and 800 K ($T > T_{JT}$) after Tobe et al. (2001).

fig. 10(a). The $\rho(T)$ and $\alpha(T)$ curves were reversible after the first cycle. These data show the sample is oxygen stoichiometric to within 0.1%. Nevertheless, $\rho(T)$ drops abruptly at T_{JT} to a magnitude comparable to that of a "bad metal" and $\alpha(T)$ drops to a low, nearly temperatureindependent value. The onset at T^* of a sharper decrease in $\alpha(T)$ and $\rho(T)$ with increasing temperature in the interval $T^* < T < T_{JT}$ correlates with increasing orbital fluctuations on the approach to T_{JT} . The drops in $\alpha(T)$ and $\rho(T)$ represent a change from a small to a large fraction of mobile e electrons even though the crystal remains nominally single-valent Mn(III). Given the strong coupling of the e electrons to local lattice deformations below T_{JT} and the observation that dynamic local Jahn–Teller distortions persist above T_{JT} , we may conclude that LaMnO₃ is a vibronic conductor above T_{JT} and may have double-exchange as well as vibronic superexchange ferromagnetic interactions. The optical conductivity data of fig. 10(b) show the closing of an energy gap at $\varepsilon_{\rm F}$ with increasing temperature to $T_{\rm JT}$, but the absence of a Drude term above $T_{\rm JT}$ that would be present if the conductive electrons were itinerant rather than vibronic.

The transition to a conductive state requires the generation of charge carriers and therefore thermal excitations of the disproportionation reaction

$$2Mn(III) = Mn(II) + Mn(IV).$$
⁽²²⁾

Van Roosmalen and Cordfunke (1994) have analyzed the relation between the partial pressure of oxygen and the value of δ in LaMnO_{3+ δ} to conclude that a partial disproportionation reaction is responsible for the surprisingly large oxidation of LaMnO₃ in air. This disproportionation reaction accounts for the ready oxidation of LaMnO3 in air, the Mn(II) being oxidized to Mn(III) to give $La_{1-\zeta}Mn_{1-\varepsilon}O_3$. In 10⁻³ torr vacuum, only a small percentage of the Mn(II) are oxidized to give the large $\alpha(300 \text{ K}) > 0$; but at $T > T_{\text{IT}}$, the Mn(II) give electronic charge carriers and the Mn(IV) give hole charge carriers of nearly equal concentration, so a temperature-independent $\alpha \approx 0$ is found. The fact that the Curie constant C exhibits little change from its value for $T_{\rm N} < T < T_{\rm JT}$ to its value for $T > T_{\rm JT}$ is consistent with a partial charge disproportionation; the observed value of C corresponds to a $\mu_{eff} = 5.2\mu_{B}$, which is to be compared to a spin-only value $\mu_{eff} = 4.9\mu_B$ for S = 2 and a $\mu_{eff} = 5.0\mu_B$ for a full disproportionation into Mn(II) with S = 5/2 and Mn(IV) with S = 3/2. Since the disproportionation reaction would be associated with a cooperative breathing-mode deformation that contracts equally the (Mn–O) bond lengths at Mn(IV) and expands equally the (Mn–O) bond lengths at Mn(II), we are led to the conclusion that the cooperative orbital ordering in the O'-orthorhombic phase suppresses the disproportionation reaction by localizing the Mn(III) e electrons in the long (Mn–O) bonds within the (001) planes, which hinders breathingmode displacements of the oxygen atoms at the Mn atoms. Although the O'-orthorhombic $(c/a < \sqrt{2})$ structure is retained in the interval $T^* < T < T_{\rm JT}$, which indicates the matrix retains occupied e orbitals preferentially ordered into the (001) planes, orbitally disordered fluctuations above T^* introduce charge carriers that reduce $\alpha(T)$, the volume fraction increasing discontinuously at T_{JT} . On raising the temperature through T_{JT} and in the orbitally disordered clusters in the range $T^* < T < T_{JT}$, the locally cooperative oxygen displacements become short range fluctuations in 3D that permit the formation of breathing-mode displacements of some of the Mn atoms. The formation of six short Mn-O bonds creates empty molecular e orbitals at Mn(IV) ions; the six long (Mn-O) bonds stabilize localized Mn(II): t³e² configurations. The disproportionation reaction may therefore be considered a segregation into localized electrons at Mn(II) and holes delocalized over a Mn(IV) $O_{6/2}$ cluster as the result of an approach to the condition $U_{\sigma} \approx W_{\sigma}$ from the localized electron side. From a theoretical perspective, Ahn and Millis (2001) have used a tight-binding parametrization of band theory and expressions for the elastic energies to argue that the e electrons of LaMnO₃ approach the transition to itinerant-electron behavior from the localized-electron side. Moreover, it is apparent from fig. 10(a) that real charge transfer is occurring, which introduces an isotropic, ferromagnetic double-exchange component to the spin-spin coupling. Therefore, some other experiment is required to establish the existence of a vibronic isotropic superexchange interaction.

Goodenough et al. (1961) explored the $LaMn_{1-x}Ga_xO_3$ for this purpose and Lotgering (1970) studied the system $La_{1-x}Ba_xMn_{1-x}Ti_xO_3$. In each case, all the manganese are Mn(III) and dilution of the Mn(III) by substitution of a non-magnetic ion into the MnO₃ array suppresses a static cooperative Jahn–Teller deformation. In each case a ferromagnetic superexchange in an insulator was observed, indicating the presence of a ferromagnetic vibronic superexchange. However, before turning to more recent studies of LaMn_{1-x}Ga_xO₃ and

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LaMn_{1-x}Sc_xO₃, I draw attention to evidence from high-pressure studies that the σ -bonding e electrons of LaMnO₃ approach the transition from localized to itinerant behavior.

Millis et al. (1995) proposed on theoretical grounds that the cooperative Jahn-Teller orbital ordering makes LaMnO₃ an insulator. This prediction found experimental support in the hightemperature transport measurements of fig. 10(a). Subsequently, Loa et al. (2001) concluded, from their room-temperature structural and reflectance data and from resistivity $\rho(T)$ data all taken to 400 kbar hydrostatic pressure, that (1) the cooperative Jahn-Teller distortion of the Mn(III) octahedra in LaMnO₃ disappears at about 180 kbar although the phase remains an O'-orthorhombic insulator and, therefore, (2) the insulator behavior of $LaMnO_3$ is not due to the Jahn-Teller orbital ordering. However, the quality of the structural data decreased with increasing pressure, and a closer analysis of their data in comparison with that of Pinsard-Gaudart et al. (2001) shows that these conclusions are not supported by the data. Pinsard-Gaudart et al. (2001) reported room-temperature time-of-flight neutron-diffraction data taken on crushed, oxygen-stoichiometric single-crystal LaMnO₃, a procedure that gave amazingly high-quality diffraction data. These data show that the cooperative Jahn-Teller distortion is stable to about 70 kbar; the reduction with pressure of the different Mn–O bond lengths is nearly the same and the extent of the cooperative $MnO_{6/2}$ rotations is continuously reduced. Low-temperature measurements revealed that type-A antiferromagnetic order is retained and $T_{\rm N}$ increases as a result of the greater overlap of the Mn-3d and O-2p orbitals. However, a transition to an unknown phase occurred between 70 and 80 kbar. The insulator-metal transition found at about 320 kbar by Loa et al. (2001) is consistent with the theoretical deduction by Ahn and Millis (2001) that the σ -bond e electrons of LaMnO₃ approach the transition from localized to itinerant behavior. Pressure experiments (Zhou and Goodenough, 2002a) discussed in sect. 2.7 confirm this deduction. The character of the orbital ordering in the insulator high-pressure phase $P \ge 80$ kbar has yet to be determined.

In order to show that the e-orbital degeneracy is lifted by electron-phonon interactions and not by the superexchange interaction, Allen and Perebeinos (1999) and Perebeinos and Allen (2001) have invoked the Franck–Condon process via self-trapped excitons to predict a Gaussian envelope of vibrational sidebands associated with resonant behavior of a Raman process close to the orbital excitation energy of 2 eV in LaMnO₃. Features of the Raman spectra of LaMnO₃ obtained (Björnsson et al., 2000; Romero et al., 2001) for a laser frequency around 1100 cm^{-1} are consistent with these predictions. In the first step of the Raman process, the incident photon excites an electron at a Mn(III) ion from the lower to the upper orbital state of the Jahn-Teller doublet. This orbital exciton (also called an "orbiton") is selftrapped by oxygen rearrangements from the orbitally ordered Jahn-Teller state, which creates a vibrationally excited state of the orbiton. In the second step of the Raman process, this virtual excitation decays back to the orbital ground state, but not to the vibrational ground state. A number of vibrational quanta are also excited (Franck-Condon principle) to give vibrational sidebands of significantly greater magnitude than are found with non-Jahn–Teller ions. Perebeinos and Allen (2000) have also predicted that the vibrational quanta associated with a photoexcited hole in a photoemission experiment are responsible for a ca. 0.5 eV broadening observed in angle-resolved photoemission spectra of the manganese-oxide perovskites (Dessau and Shen, 1998).

If the orbital exciton is not self-trapped by interactions with oxygen optical-mode vibrations, then it may propagate through the crystal as an orbital wave since there is inertia to slow restoration to the ground state (Ishihara et al., 1997). A quantized orbital wave is a new particle, the itinerant orbiton, analogous to the magnon corresponding to a quantized spin wave. The spin waves in a ferromagnetic crystal are detected by changes in the properties of a beam of photons or neutrons that is scattered from a single crystal. Saitoh et al. (2001) have used Raman scattering from a high-quality LaMnO3 single crystal to detect a frequency shift that weakens as the temperature is increased from 9 K until it completely disappears above $T_{\rm IT}$. They interpret this shift to be due to the presence of orbital-wave orbitons, but Allen and Perebeinos (2001) cautioned that the theory needs to introduce orbiton-phonon interactions before this demonstration can be considered "air tight". Subsequently, van den Brink (2001) has developed a theory that introduces the electron-electron correlations and lattice dynamics on the same footing. His analysis accounts for the data of Saitoh et al. (2001) with a relatively weak electron-phonon coupling that, nevertheless, narrows the itinerant orbiton dispersion by a factor of two. The theory of Allen and Perebeinos applies to the strong-coupling limit. Orbitons may influence other physical properties such as heat capacity or thermal conductivity.

Measurements (Tobe et al., 2001; Quijada et al., 2001) of the optical-conductivity spectra of detwined single crystals of LaMnO₃ from 10 K < T_N to 300 K > T_N have shown a pronounced difference in the lowest-lying 2 eV excitation for the electric field E || ab and E || c (*Pbnm* setting) that changed little on crossing T_N , but decreased gradually with increasing temperature to T_{JT} across which it collapsed. The fact that the anisotropy reflects the orbital ordering and not the spin ordering indicates a large O-2p admixture in the Mn(IV)/Mn(III) redox couple to facilitate an allowed 2p–3d transition. Quijada et al. (2001) interpret the 2 eV excitation to be the interatomic Mn(III) + Mn(III) = Mn(IV) + Mn(II) e–e transition rather than the intraatomic transition examined by Allen and Perebeinos (1999).

2.2. $LaMn_{1-x}Ga_xO_3$ and $LaMn_{1-x}Sc_xO_3$

Reexamination (Töpfer and Goodenough, 1997a) of the insulator system LaMn_{1-x}Ga_xO₃ with oxygen-stoichiometric samples confirmed the earlier study (Goodenough et al., 1961) in this system. As shown in fig. 11, the O'-orthorhombic $c/a < \sqrt{2}$ phase is retained to x = 0.5, albeit with a c/a approaching $\sqrt{2}$ monotonically with increasing x; long-range orbital order is retained in a percolating matrix to x = 0.5. However, the saturation magnetization at 4 K approaches the spin-only value of $4\mu_{\rm B}/{\rm Mn}$ for $x \ge 0.5$. Moreover, the Néel temperature $T_{\rm N}$ of the canted-spin, type-A antiferromagnetic order decreases with dilution of the Mn concentration to x = 0.25; the magnetic-ordering temperature increases to a higher ferromagnetic Curie temperature $T_{\rm C}$ at $x \approx 0.30$ that decreases monotonically with increasing x. Moreover, in a field of 100 Oe the paramagnetic Weiss constant θ increases with x, changing from $\theta \le T_{\rm N}$ for $x \le 0.20$ to a $\theta > T_{\rm N}$ for $x \ge 0.30$.

The magnetization data for these polycrystalline samples prompted a closer look with an oxygen-stoichiometric series of single-crystal samples in the range $0.15 \le x \le 0.50$ (Zhou et al., 2001a). The zero-field-cooled (ZFC) and field-cooled (FC) magnetization M(T) under applied fields of 10 Oe, 50 Oe, and 5 kOe as well as the reciprocal magnetization $M^{-1}(T)$



Fig. 11. Variation with x of the magnetic moment per Mn ion in Bohr magnetons at 4 K (straight line represents ferromagnetic spin-only value) and magnetic-ordering temperatures (crossed circles) for LaMn_{1-x}Ga_xO₃, after Goodenough et al. (1961).

in 5 kOe are shown in fig. 12 for x = 0.15, 0.25, 0.35, and 0.50 samples. Whereas the curves for x = 0.15 and 0.25 are typical of a type-A canted-spin antiferromagnet having a $\theta > 0$ because of the ferromagnetic exchange interactions in the basal planes, the low-field M(T)curves for x = 0.35 and 0.50 show a maximum in the ZFC curves near the magnetic-ordering temperature, which is typical of a spin glass (Mydosh, 1993). An *ac* susceptibility $\chi_{ac}(T)$ of the x = 0.5 crystal is also plotted; it shows a sharp peak at the spin-freezing temperature $T_{\rm f}$. On the other hand, the M(T) curve taken in 5 kOe is typical of a ferromagnet with a $T_{\rm C} \approx T_{\rm f}$. Since a saturation spin-only moment of $4\mu_{\rm B}/{\rm Mn}$ is achieved in single-crystal samples under an applied field of only a few kOe (fig. 13) and the hysteresis loop has a small remanence, it is apparent that a modest magnetic field induces a transition from a spin glass to a ferromagnetic phase in the x = 0.5 sample. From the inset of fig. 13, this transition is initiated at about H = 2500 Oe; the volume fraction of the ferromagnetic phase increases with H, saturating at $H \ge 2$ kOe.

The data of fig. 11 show that for x > 0.5 the system has the O^{*}-orthorhombic structure indicative of orbital disorder in zero field; these polycrystalline samples are ferromagnetic with a saturation magnetization at 4 K approaching $4\mu_B/Mn$ atom. Since the O'-orthorhombic phase is retained in zero field at $x \le 0.5$, these results have a straightforward interpretation. In zero field, an orbitally ordered, antiferromagnetic matrix with Néel temperature T_N percolates through the structure if $x \le 0.5$; but orbitally disordered, ferromagnetic clusters are present in the matrix for $x \ge 0.30$, and these clusters have a $T_C > T_N$. The application of a magnetic field stabilizes the orbitally disordered ferromagnetic clusters grow in a magnetic field at the expense of the antiferromagnetic matrix. In this system, there is no negative magnetoresistance associated with the growth of the ferromagnetic clusters to beyond their percolation threshold; the orbitally disordered phase remains insulating for larger values of x. On the other hand, ap-



Fig. 12. The temperature dependence of the magnetization M(T) and its reciprocal $M^{-1}(T)$ under different applied fields for single crystals of the system LaMn_{1-x}Ga_xO₃. The *ac* susceptibility $\chi_{ac}(T)$ of the x = 0.5 sample is superimposed, after Zhou et al. (2001a).

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Fig. 13. The magnetization vs. applied magnetic field at T = 5 K for single-crystal samples of the LaMn_{1-x}Ga_xO₃ system. The full hysteresis loop is shown for the x = 0.5 sample; the inset is the detail in low fields, after Zhou et al. (2001a).

plication of hydrostatic pressure appears to stabilize the orbitally ordered matrix, which has a smaller volume (Zhou et al., 2001a).

A zero-field phase diagram for the LaMn_{1-x}Ga_xO₃ system is shown in fig. 14. Four important conclusions follow from the studies made of this system: (1) An isotropic ferromagnetic, vibronic Mn(III)–O–Mn(III) superexchange interaction is found where the occupied e orbitals fluctuate. (2) A magnetic field stabilizes the orbitally fluctuating, ferromagnetic phase relative to the orbitally ordered antiferromagnetic phase; and where the two phases coexist, a magnetic field may induce a transition from a spin-glass to a ferromagnetic phase. (3) The σ -bonding e electrons of the Mn(III) ions remain localized in the orbitally fluctuating state where Ga substitutions perturb the periodic potential of the MnO₃ array. (4) Hydrostatic pressure stabilizes an ordering of the occupied e orbitals that decreases the volume fraction of disordered orbitals.

For comparison, Al(III) and Sc(III) were substituted for Mn(III) (Goodenough et al., 2002). These ions also perturb the periodic potential of the MO_3 array to maintain localized e electrons at the Mn(III) ions where the orbitals become disordered. In these solid-solution



Fig. 14. Phase diagram for the $LaMn_{1-x}Ga_xO_3$ as obtained with single-crystal samples, after Goodenough et al. (2002).

systems also, the disproportionation reaction 2Mn(III) = Mn(II) + Mn(IV) is suppressed. Single-phase $LaMn_{1-x}Al_xO_3$ was restricted to the range $0 \le x \le 0.20$ where it remained a canted-spin antiferromagnet. On the other hand, single-phase $LaMn_{1-x}Sc_xO_3$ was found over the entire range of solid solutions $0 \le x \le 1$. This system showed a smooth crossover from $c/a < \sqrt{2}$ to $c/a > \sqrt{2}$ near x = 0.35; $c/a > \sqrt{2}$ became independent of x above x = 0.75. The Sc(III) ion is larger and has a stronger octahedral-site preference than Ga(III), which makes Sc(III) more resistant to the cooperative Jahn–Teller distortion induced by the Mn(III) ions. The smaller Al(III) ion, on the other hand, offers little resistance to a cooperative Jahn–Teller distortion, and the c/a ratio changed little in the range $0 \le x \le 0.20$ of $LaMn_{1-x}Al_xO_3$.

The phase diagram of fig. 15 for LaMn_{1-x}Sc_xO₃ shows an evolution with *x* from cantedspin antiferromagnetic insulator (CAFI) to spin-glass insulator (SGI) to ferromagnetic insulator (FI) that is similar to that of the LaMn_{1-x}Ga_xO₃ system. Moreover, the spin-glass phase transforms to a ferromagnetic phase in a high magnetic field; the evolution with *x* of the magnetization at 5 K in a field of 50 kOe is shown in fig. 16. In polycrystalline LaMn_{1-x}Sc_xO₃, as in polycrystalline LaMn_{1-x}Ga_xO₃, the full theoretical spin-only moment of $4\mu_B/Mn$ is not attained for any value of *x* whereas the full moment was found in the single crystals of LaMn_{1-x}Ga_xO₃. The evolution of the magnetic ordering temperature indicates that spin-glass behavior is found where the ferromagnetic clusters within the antiferromagnetic matrix have a $T_C > T_N$. The more rapid drop-off in T_N with *x* as *x* approaches the critical value $x_c \approx 0.30$ where $T_N = T_f \approx T_C$ shows the presence of orbitally disordered clusters appearing for $x < x_c$;


Fig. 15. Phase diagram for the $LaMn_{1-x}Sc_xO_3$ system as obtained with polycrystalline samples, after Goodenough et al. (2002).

Fig. 16. The magnetization at 50 kOe vs. *x* at T = 5 K for LaMn_{1-x}Sc_xO₃, after Goodenough et al. (2002).

the clusters dilute the antiferromagnetic matrix more rapidly than a simple substitution of Sc(III) ions.

2.3. RMnO3

The stoichiometric manganites RMnO₃ with larger lanthanide ions La to Dy all form the O'orthorhombic *Pbnm* structure at room temperature while those with the smaller lanthanide ions Ho to Lu or with Y all take the hexagonal $P6_3cm$ structure of fig. 17. High-resolution electron diffraction taken on single crystals of RMnO₃ (R = Y, Yb, Lu) have demonstrated the formation of Mn trimers within the MnO *ab* planes as well as a ferroelectric distortion along the *c*-axis in the hexagonal structure (Katsufuji et al., 2001). Long-range magnetic order is frustrated by competing exchange interactions in the MnO planes, which lowers T_N and sustains spin fluctuations well below T_N . However, an O'-orthorhombic perovskite form of RMnO₃ for the smaller rare-earth ions can be prepared either by high pressure (Wood et al., 1973) or from citrate-based precursors (Szabo, 1969), which has allowed study of the entire RMnO₃ series of perovskite manganites (Szabo, 1969; Quezel-Ambrunat, 1968; Rodríguez-Carvajal et al., 1998; Troyanchuk et al., 1997; Quezel et al., 1974, 1977; Jirák et al., 1997; Matsumoto, 1970b; Brinks et al., 2001).

The cooperative rotations of the MnO_{6/2} octahedra increase with decreasing radius of the R³⁺ ion, i.e., with decreasing tolerance factor *t*. As the bending angle ϕ of the (180° – ϕ) Mn–O–Mn interactions increases, the strength of the ferromagnetic σ -bond superexchange in the (001) planes is weakened relative to that of the antiferromagnetic t³–O–t³ interactions. As a result, the Néel temperature T_N for ordering of the manganese moments decreases systematically from 141 K for R = La to 50 K for R = Eu; and for R = Tb, Ho, and Y the ferromagnetic (001) planes transform to an incommensurate spiral-spin configuration propagating along the *b*-axis in the *bc* plane, see fig. 18, with a $T_N \approx 40$ K. The propagation vector $\mathbf{k} = k_y \mathbf{b}^*$ increases with decreasing ionic radius of the R³⁺ ion. In orthorhombic HoMnO₃, it also in-



Fig. 17. Hexagonal *P*6₃*cm* structure of LuMnO₃, after Katsufuji et al. (2001).



Fig. 18. The magnetic ordering of Mn(III)-ion spins in RMnO₃, R = La, Pr, Nd, Tb, Ho (and Y), in two adjacent (001) planes. Not shown is the spin canting to give a small ferromagnetic component along the *c*-axis for R = La, Pr, Nd. The numerical values refer to the spin periodicity just below T_N, after Brinks et al. (2001).

creases with decreasing temperature from $0.395b^*$ just below T_N to $0.431b^*$ at $T_{Ho} = 11$ K, the ordering temperature of the Ho³⁺-ion moments. A dt/dT > 0 means that t decreases with temperature as well as with substitution of smaller A cations. The Ho³⁺ moments order in a spiral-spin configuration with the same propagation vector k as that of the Mn(III) spins. At lowest temperatures, a commensurate spiral-spin configuration coexists with the incommensurate configuration (Brinks et al., 2001).

2.4. *CaMnO*₃

Oxygen-stoichiometric CaMnO₃ can be prepared in a flowing O₂ atmosphere; at room temperature, it has the O-orthorhombic $(c/a > \sqrt{2})$ perovskite structure. The half-filled *t* orbitals of the Mn(IV): t³e⁰ ions give rise to antiferromagnetic t³–O–t³ superexchange interactions between all nearest neighbors. As there are no other competitive interactions, CaMnO₃ is a type G (see table 1) antiferromagnetic insulator with a Néel temperature $T_N = 125$ K and a spin-only paramagnetic moment $\mu_{eff} = 3.9\mu_B$; the atomic moment of the antiferromagnetic state, $\mu_{Mn} \approx 2.64\mu_B$ (Yudin et al., 1966) is reduced from $3.0\mu_B$ by the virtual charge transfer of the antiferromagnetic superexchange interaction.

One remarkable feature of this compound is an anomalously low thermal conductivity $\kappa(T)$ in the paramagnetic phase; $\kappa(T)$ increases abruptly on cooling through T_N (Fujishiro et al., 2000; Zhou and Goodenough, 2002b). Since CaMnO₃ is an insulator, only the magnons and phonons contribute to $\kappa(T)$; therefore, the $\kappa(T)$ data indicate that spin disorder suppresses not only the magnons, but also the phonons. Since the orbital angular momentum is quenched in a t³e⁰ configuration and there are no orbital fluctuations, the spin-lattice interactions would appear to be due to an exchange striction, antiferromagnetic coupling on opposite sides of an oxygen atom giving rise to shorter Mn–O bond lengths. In the paramagnetic phase, random exchange-strictive displacements would perturb the periodicity of the lattice and suppress the optical phonons. However, the superexchange interaction, eq. (9), involves a virtual charge transfer between cations that does not alter the Mn–O equilibrium bond length. Therefore, we

need to introduce the semicovalent-exchange component that was first introduced by Goodenough (1963), who showed it gave the same sign of the exchange coupling. Subsequently, it was given analytic form by Geertsma (1979) and quoted by Zaanen and Sawatzky (1987). This interaction involves a two-electron virtual charge transfer from the intermediate oxygen, one of one spin to one side and one of opposite spin to the other side. Each electron transfer costs an energy Δ if the on-site electrostatic energy for the oxygen 2p electrons is small, i.e., $U_{\rm pp} \ll \Delta$. Addition of the semicovalent exchange component changes the expression for the superexchange interaction from that given in eq. (9) to

$$J_{ij} \sim \frac{2|b^{ca}|^4}{\Delta^2} (1/U_{\text{eff}} + 1/2\Delta), \tag{23}$$

where the first term is just the Anderson superexchange term in which $b_{ij} \sim \Delta^2 \lambda_{\pi}^4$ with $\lambda_{\pi} = b^{ca}/\Delta$ and b^{ca} is the cation-anion resonance (electron-energy transfer) integral. The second term in eq. (23) is the semicovalent-exchange component. Where the highest occupied redox couple in the point-charge model of an ionic crystal lies below the $O^{2^{-}}: 2p^{6}$ level, a $\Delta < U_{\rm eff}$ makes the semicovalent exchange larger than the Anderson component of the superexchange interaction. A two-electron transfer from the oxygen, one to each of its neighboring Mn atoms, would increase Mn–O–Mn bonding where the Mn-atom spins on opposite sides of the oxygen are antiparallel. Accordingly, an important exchange-strictive contraction of the Mn–O bond lengths occurs on cooling through T_N (Moritomo et al., 2001). In order to test whether the semicovalent exchange striction is responsible for the surprising suppression of $\kappa(T)$ in the paramagnetic phase of CaMnO₃, the $\kappa(T)$ of single-crystal CaMnO₃ was compared to that for single-crystal LaMnO₃, LaGaO₃, large-grained YCrO₃, and SmNiO₃ (Zhou and Goodenough, 2002b). The reciprocal thermal conductivity $\kappa^{-1}(T)$ is plotted for these compounds in fig. 19 where the dotted line represents that of an oxide glass. As expected, LaGaO₃ has a normal $\kappa(T)$ behavior whereas $\kappa(T)$ is suppressed in the paramagnetic phase of the four antiferromagnetic compounds; the suppression increases progressively on going from YCrO₃ to LaMnO₃ to CaMnO₃ to SmNiO₃. This progression correlates with the magnitude of the charge-transfer gap Δ from the O-2p bands to the lowest unoccupied redox energy of the transition-metal atoms, as can be seen from the schematic energy diagrams of fig. 20. This experiment provides a confirmation of the competitive character of the semicovalent exchange component of the superexchange interaction.

2.5. SrMnO3

SrMnO₃ has a tolerance factor t > 1, which places the Mn–O–Mn bonds under tension and the Sr–O bonds under compression. These stresses are relieved by the formation of hexagonal polytypes (Goodenough et al., 1972). SrMnO₃ forms the 6H hexagonal polytype in which the (111) close-packed SrO₃ planes of the cubic structure have hexagonal stacking alternating with two cubic stackings instead of all-cubic stacking. Alternatively, loss of oxygen reduces some of the manganese to Mn(III), thereby increasing the mean ionic radius of the manganese ions to reduce t and stabilize the cubic phase. Oxygen-deficient, cubic SrMnO_{3- δ} is a mixed oxide-ion/electron conductor, but in air it picks up oxygen above 600 °C to revert to the hexagonal polytype (Tichy and Goodenough, 2002).



Fig. 19. Thermal conductivity $\kappa(T)$ and its inverse of single-crystal LaGaO₃ (LGO), LaMnO₃ (LMO), CaMnO₃ (CMO), and large grained YCrO₃ (YCO). The dotted line is that of an oxide glass. The arrows indicate the Néel temperatures T_N , after Zhou and Goodenough (2002b).

2.6. $Sr_{1-x}Ca_xMnO_3$ ($0 \le x \le 1$) and $Sr_{1-y}Ba_yMnO_3$ ($0 \le y \le 0.2$)

According to eqs. (7) and (9), the Néel temperature T_N of the system $Sr_{1-x}Ca_xMnO_3$ and $Sr_{1-y}Ba_yMnO_3$ should increase with increasing x and y as $\langle \cos^2\theta \rangle$ increases with the tolerance factor t; $\theta = (180^\circ - \phi)$ is the Mn–O–Mn bond angle. Neumeier et al. (2001) have shown that the transition at T_N in CaMnO₃ is second-order with a jump in the specific heat $\Delta C_p = -9.9 \pm 0.7$ J/mol at $T_N = 124.2$ K. Chmaissem et al. (2001) obtained T_N and, with neutron and synchrotron X-ray powder diffraction, the values of $\langle \cos^2\theta \rangle$ as a function of x and y. The system $Sr_{1-x}Ca_xMnO_3$ is O-orthorhombic (*Pbnm*) for $0.4 < x \le 1.0$, tetragonal (*I*4/*mcm*) for $0.3 \le x \le 0.4$, and cubic (*Pm* $\overline{3}m$) for $0 \le x \le 0.3$; $Sr_{1-y}Ba_yMnO_3$ is cubic for all values of $y \le 0.2$ obtained at lower temperatures under a high oxygen pressure. As shown in fig. 21, Chmaissem et al. (2001) found experimentally the relationship

$$T_{\rm N}(\theta, \sigma^2) = T_{\rm N,max}(180^\circ, 0) - C_1 [1 - \langle \cos^2 \theta \rangle] - C_2 \sigma^2,$$
(24)

where C_1 and C_2 are constants and $\sigma^2 \equiv (r_A^0 - \langle r_A \rangle)^2$ is the variance of the room-temperature ionic radii associated with different A-site cations; r_A^0 is the radius of Sr²⁺ obtained from cubic SrMnO₃. To fit the experimental variation of T_N with x and y, it was necessary to add the term $C_2\sigma^2$ to take account of the variation in the periodic potential as a result of changes in θ induced by different A-site cations bonding with the bridging oxygen atoms.



Fig. 20. (a) Schematic energy diagrams for YCrO₃, LaMnO₃, and CaMnO₃. (b) The charge transfer gap Δ measured by optical spectra, after Arima et al. (1993). (c) Virtual electron transfers for 180° t³e⁰–O–t³e⁰ in Anderson superexchange and semicovalent exchange. In Anderson superexchange, the operative transfer integrals are between the crystal-field orbitals $\psi_t = N_{\pi} (f_t - \lambda_{\pi} \phi_{\pi})$, after Zhou and Goodenough (2002b).

2.7. Bloch's rule

Bloch (1966) studied the variation of the Néel temperature T_N with volume V for numerous antiferromagnetic insulators and found the general relationship

$$\alpha_{\rm B} \equiv d\log T_{\rm N}/d\log V \approx -3.3 \pm 0.4. \tag{25}$$

This relationship, known as Bloch's rule, applies in the localized-electron limit where the interatomic spin–spin interaction is described by the superexchange perturbation theory of eq. (23) with $T_N \sim J$; *J* is the Heisenberg exchange energy. Calculations by Shrivastava and



Fig. 21. (a) Observed (filled circles) and calculated (open circles) $T_{\rm N}$ as a function of $\langle r_{\rm A} \rangle$. (b) Calculated $T_{\rm N}$ values (open circles) obtained by subtracting the individual contributions of $C_1[1 - \langle \cos^2 \theta \rangle]$ (filled squares) and $C_2 \sigma^2$ (filled triangles) from $T_{\rm N,max} = 233$ K (see eq. (24)), after Chmaissem et al. (2001).

Jaccarino (1976) and by Smith (1969) have given a $b^{ca} \sim r^{-n}$ with $n \approx 2.5-3.0$ for an equilibrium M–O bond length r. If U and Δ of eq. (23) are pressure-independent, it follows that $T_{\rm N} \sim r^{-10} \sim V^{-3.3}$. If the compressibility $K \equiv -V^{-1} \partial V / \partial P$ remains constant, the pressure dependence of $T_{\rm N}$ should conform to Bloch's rule. Therefore, any deviation from Bloch's rule would be an indication that either the superexchange perturbation approach breaks down or the assumption that U and Δ are pressure-independent is not valid.

A determination of α_B for LaMnO₃ and CaMnO₃ has been compared to α_B for YCrO₃ (Zhou and Goodenough, 2002a). Figure 22 compares T_N vs. hydrostatic pressure P for these three compounds. The data for LaMnO₃ is non-linear below 7 kbar; a first-order phase change at 7 kbar is followed by an unusually large slope $dT_N/dP = 0.55$ K/kbar for P > 7 kbar, which is to be compared to a $dT_N/dP = 0.34$ K/kbar for CaMnO₃ and 0.30 K/kbar for YCrO₃ over the entire pressure range. A neutron-diffraction study to 70 kbar by Pinsard-Gaudart et al. (2001) has shown retention over the entire pressure range of the cooperative ordering of the e electrons into the (001) planes and a compressibility $K = 0.70 \times 10^{-6}$ /bar



Fig. 22. Pressure dependence of *T*_N for LaMnO₃, CaMnO₃, and YCrO₃. Straight lines are linear fittings of the data, after Zhou and Goodenough (2002a).

that is comparable to the $K = 0.68 \times 10^{-6}$ /bar found by Bloch (1966) for other antiferromagnetic insulators. A measured $|\alpha_{\rm B}| = 5.3$ for LaMnO₃ under P > 7 kbar is to be compared with eq. (25) and an estimated (assuming $K = 0.68 \times 10^{-6}$ /bar) $|\alpha_{\rm B}| = 3.8$ and 3.0 for CaMnO₃ and YCrO₃, respectively. YCrO₃ clearly obeys the Bloch rule and CaMnO₃ is at its upper limit, but LaMnO₃ has an unusually large $|\alpha_{\rm B}|$ in the range P > 7 kbar as well as an anomalous $dT_{\rm N}/dP$ in the range P < 7 kbar and a two-phase region at $P \approx 7$ kbar.

In YCrO₃ and CaMnO₃, the t³–O–t³ interactions contain an effective on-site energy U_{π} that is augmented by the intraatomic exchange energy $\Delta_{ex} > 2.5$ eV whereas the U_{σ} for the e¹– O–e⁰ interactions in the (001) planes of LaMnO₃ is not augmented and is too small to inhibit a disproportionation reaction above T_{IT} . Moreover, the anomalous behavior of dT_N/dP in LaMnO₃ cannot be attributed to either an orbital reorientation or an anomalous compressibility. Therefore, we conclude there is a breakdown of the perturbative description of the spin– spin interactions in the (001) planes and/or the assumption that the factor $[U_{\sigma}^{-1} + (2\Delta)^{-1}]$ in eq. (23) is pressure-independent. Such a breakdown would occur on the approach to the transition from localized-electron to band magnetism. The on-site energy U collapses due to screening in the band regime where the bandwidth is W > U. This collapse at crossover is relatively sharp because the screening is feedback-enhanced on the approach to the localized





to itinerant electronic transition. Moreover, from the virial theorem of eq. (19), we can expect a double-well potential for the equilibrium M–O bondlength at crossover and therefore a firstorder phase change with a spinodal phase segregation. In perovskite-related oxides, such spinodal phase segregations set in near room temperature, which is too low for atomic diffusion. Therefore, phase segregations on a small length scale are generated by atomic displacements that give rise to either static charge-density waves or to bond-length fluctuations and dynamic phase segregation. A $dT_N/dP < 0$ is predicted for band antiferromagnetism; it has been confirmed in CaCrO₃ (Goodenough et al., 1968). Therefore, we place the exchange interaction *J* for the (001) planes of LaMnO₃ at the approach to the crossover from localized-electron to band magnetism where U_{σ} is decreasing with pressure because of a feedback enhanced screening; the first-order phase change at $P \approx 7$ kbar suggests a spinodal phase segregation into localized-electron and itinerant-electron antiferromagnetism under pressures P > 7 kbar as indicated in the schematic *J* vs. *W* diagram of fig. 23.

3. Mixed-valent perovskites

3.1. Oxygen vacancies

CaMnO₃ catalyzes the selective oxidation of hydrocarbons by accepting electrons into the MnO₃ array during a dissociative chemisorption of the reactant and then releasing oxygen to the departing species. Each oxygen vacancy captures the two electrons it introduces on the two neighboring, fivefold-coordinated Mn(III) ions. The square-pyramidal configuration of the Mn(III) ions was first detected by Poeppelmeier et al. (1982a) in polycrystalline CaMnO_{2.5} that was obtained (Poeppelmeier et al., 1982b) by reaction of CaMnO₃ in a 10% H₂/He atmosphere within the narrow temperature interval of 300–325 °C. Reller et al. (1984) subsequently demonstrated the existence of several vacancy-ordered intermediate phases in the interval $0 \le \delta \le 0.5$, all of which have the structural configuration of two square-pyramidal Mn(III) ions trapped at opposite sides of an oxygen vacancy. Wiebe et al. (2001) showed that CaMnO_{2.94} retains the G-type antiferromagnetic order of CaMnO₃ below T_N with

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 $\mu_{Mn} = 2.43 \mu_B$; the reduction of μ_{Mn} from the spin-only moment of $3.0 \mu_B$ reflects the virtual electron transfers of the Mn–O–Mn superexchange interactions. Evidence of a vacancy-ordered phase coexisting with a G-type antiferromagnetic spin configuration was found in a CaMnO_{2.89} sample; the Mn(III)– \Box –Mn(III) e^1 – \Box – e^1 superexchange interaction is antiferromagnetic, and the single Mn(III)–O–Mn(IV) e^1 –O– e^0 interaction on the opposite side does not provide a strong enough ferromagnetic coupling to overcome the six nearest-neighbor antiferromagnetic t³–O–t³ interactions at the Mn(IV) ion.

3.2. $Ca_{1-x}La_xMnO_3, 0 \le x \le 0.2$

Lanthanum substitution for Ca in Ca_{1-x}La_xMnO₃, $0 \le x \le 0.2$, has been used to introduce electrons into the MnO₃ array while keeping it intact. Each La³⁺ ion creates a shallow donor level below the Mn(IV)/Mn(III) redox level; at lowest temperatures, the electrons are trapped at one (or more) of the eight Mn nearest neighbors of a La^{3+} ion. Neumeier and Cohn (2000) have correlated the electronic resistivity $\rho(T)$ with $M_s(0)$, the saturation magnetization at T = 0 K (extrapolated from 5 K). They distinguished four compositional regions in the interval $0 \le x \le 0.2$. Region I (0 < x < 0.02) contains small-polaron Mn(III) ions that increase the saturation magnetization by $dM_s(0)/dx = 1.20 \pm 0.25 \mu_B/Mn$. Region II (0.02 < $x \le 0.07$) contains two-manganese (Zener) polarons and a $dM_s(0)/dx = 8.4 \pm 0.35 \mu_B/Mn$. $M_s(0)$ reaches a maximum in the interval 0.07 < x < 0.08, and Region III (0.08 < x < 0.17) shows a $dM_s(0)/dx \approx -4.5\mu_B/Mn$. Region IV (0.18 $\leq x \leq 0.20$) is a C-type (table 1) antiferromagnet with $M_{\rm s}(0) = 0\mu_{\rm B}/{\rm Mn}$. At low temperatures (50 K < T < 150 K), the *n*-type resistivity $\rho(T) \sim \exp(-E_a/kT)$ had an $E_a \approx 85$ meV for x = 0, an $E_a \approx 30$ meV independent of x in the interval $0.005 \le x \le 0.10$, and an $E_a \approx 85$ to 95 meV for $0.12 \le x \le 0.20$. For T > 200 K, the $\rho(T)$ curves resembled those of a degenerate semiconductor with variable range hopping below a mobility edge.

Interpretation by Neumeier and Cohn (2000) of the changes in $M_s(0)$ with x was as follows: The small polarons are coupled antiparallel to their nearest neighbors, retaining the G-type antiferromagnetic order, but the e electrons are sufficiently mobile below $T_{\rm N}$ to move to the spin sublattice parallel to the magnetizing field. This model gives a weak ferrimagnetism with a $dM_s(0)/dx = 1\mu_B/Mn$. The e¹-O-e⁰ ferromagnetic interactions do not dominate the antiferromagnetic t^3 –O– t^3 interactions in this case. On the other hand, Zener polarons have fast $(\tau_{\rm h} < \omega_{\rm o}^{-1})$ e-electron transfer between the Mn(III) and Mn(IV) ions of the pair, which introduces two-manganese ferromagnetic clusters via intrapolaron double exchange. If all the electrons formed Zener polarons, $M_s(0)$ would vary with x as $dM_s(0)/dx \approx 7\mu_B/Mn$ for spinonly moments to give $M_s(0) = 0.5 \mu_B/Mn$ at x = 0.07 instead of the observed $0.4 \mu_B/Mn$. It follows that the electrons initially introduced ($0 < x \le 0.02$) form small polarons; but as x increases, they are progressively transformed into Zener polarons. The activation energy for electron transport by a Zener polaron is smaller than that for a small polaron (0.30 meV vs. 0.85 meV). In the interval 0.08 < x < 0.17, the electrons segregate into an electronrich C-type antiferromagnetic phase with no Dzialoshinskii spin canting and an electronpoor phase dominated by small-polaron conduction. Trapping of the Zener polarons in the C-type antiferromagnetic phase causes the resistivity at 5 K, which is a minimum in the range $0.07 \le x \le 0.1$, to increase by over five orders of magnitude as x increases in the range $0.10 < x \le 0.20$. In the C-type antiferromagnetic order, ferromagnetic *c*-axis chains are coupled antiparallel to one another, and the e electrons occupy $(3z^2 - r^2)$ orbitals oriented along the *c* axis, which inhibits their mobility in 3D. The e electrons probably form a 1D charge-density wave propagating along the *c*-axis.

Granado et al. (2001) have reported an anomalous softening of the bending modes and hardening of the stretching mode of the oxygen vibrations on cooling through $T_N \approx 120$ K in $CaMnO_3$ and a complete suppression of the frequency shift on cooling through T_N after doping with only 3% La in La_{0.03}Ca_{0.97}MnO₃. The anomalous frequency shift was attributed to a spin-phonon coupling that is dramatically weakened by the introduction of Mn(III), but the origin of the spin-phonon coupling and its suppression were not identified. We attribute the frequency shift to the suppression of phonons in the paramagnetic phase and the appearance of phonons in the antiferromagnetically ordered phase. As discussed above, local exchangestrictive atomic displacements in the paramagnetic phase appear to be induced by the semicovalent component of the superexchange interactions; random atomic displacements were seen to suppress the phonon contribution to the thermal conductivity, fig. 19. Below T_N , the phonon and/or magnon contributions to $\kappa(T)$ are restored. A similar phenomenon was found in LaMnO₃. However, the system LaMn_{1-x}Ga_xO₃ shows a systematic decrease with x in the phonon contribution to $\kappa(T)$ below T_N, fig. 24, as a result of the bond-length fluctuations associated with orbital fluctuations at some of the Mn(III) ions. A similar phenomenon would occur in lightly doped $Ca_{1-x}La_xMnO_3$; the occupied e orbitals at the Mn(III) ions fluctuate for $x \leq 0.07$ so as to introduce bond-length fluctuations that suppress the formation of phonons below $T_{\rm N}$ and therefore any frequency shift of the oxygen vibrational modes due to phonon formation on cooling through $T_{\rm N}$.



Fig. 24. Temperature dependence of the thermal conductivity κ for single-crystal samples of LaMn_{1-x}Ga_xO₃. The arrows mark T_N or T_f obtained from measurement of the magnetic susceptibility, after Zhou et al. (2001a).

Moritomo et al. (2001) have confirmed the drop in polaron activation energy with electron doping in the range $0 < x \le 0.10$ and the existence of a remarkable increase with x in $M_s(0)$ in the range 0.05 < x < 0.08; they also found the jump ΔC of the lambda anomaly in the specific heat at T_N was $\Delta C \approx 1.4k$ (k = Boltzmann constant) in the range $0 \le x \le 0.03$ and increased linearly with x to $\Delta C \approx 2.3k$ in the range $0.04 \le x \le 0.08$. It thus appears that the ferrimagnetic order for small polarons gives an Ising behavior below T_N ($\Delta C = 1.5k$) whereas the spin glass regions associated with Zener polarons give a Heisenberg behavior below T_N ($\Delta C = 2.2k$).

A theoretical model (Chen and Allen, 2001) of the lightly electron-doped MnO₃ array of CaMnO₃ found bipolaron formation unstable, phase separation unlikely, small polarons trapped in seven-manganese clusters for x < 0.045, and a transition to metallic behavior at $x \approx 0.045$. The seven-manganese clusters consisted of a central Mn(III) ion and the six nearest-neighbor Mn(IV) with fluctuations of the occupied $(3z^2-r^2)$ orbital on the Mn(III) ion between the three $(180^\circ - \phi)$ O–Mn–O bond axes. Experimentally, the formation of Zener polarons having a small motional enthalpy develops in the interval 0.02 < x < 0.07 in place of a global transition to itinerant-electron behavior at temperatures T < 150 K. Phase segregation in the interval 0.08 < x < 0.18 appears to be a result of ordering of the axes of the Zener two-manganese polarons along the *c*-axis.

3.3. $LaMnO_{3+\delta}$

Early attempts to prepare the perovskite LaMnO₃ showed that it becomes oxidized on reaction in air. Although the oxidized compound is conveniently characterized as LaMnO_{3+ δ}, its structural formula is La_{1- ζ}Mn_{1- ε}O₃ ($\zeta > \varepsilon$) since the perovskite structure does not accept interstitial oxygen and tolerates A-cation vacancies more readily than Mn-cation vacancies. Experimentally, the ratio O/Mn = 3 + δ is determined chemically, and the fraction of cation sites that are vacant to give 2δ Mn(IV) is ($\varepsilon + \zeta$) $\approx 2\delta/3$. Of interest is the evolution of physical properties across the transition from a spin-canted antiferromagnet with small-polaron charge carriers to a ferromagnetic metal via a mixed ferromagnet/antiferromagnet in the interval $0 \le \delta \le 0.21$, where $\delta = 0.21$ approaches the oxidation limit.

As shown in fig. 25, there is a first-order transition at room temperature from an O'orthorhombic $(c/a < \sqrt{2})$ perovskite to a rhombohedral $R\bar{3}c$ perovskite across the interval $0.05 < \delta < 0.10$. The O' structure signals retention of cooperative Jahn–Teller Mn(III)-site distortions that order the occupied e orbitals into the (001) planes to give the canted-spin A-type antiferromagnetic order of the parent compound LaMnO₃. With the antiferromagnetic component of the spins along the *b*-axis (*Pbnm* axes) and a Dzialoshinskii vector along the *a*-axis, a weak ferromagnetic component is along the *c*-axis (see table 1). The introduction of Mn(IV) ions leaves unchanged the antiferromagnetic t³–O–t³ interactions between the ferromagnetic (001) planes. Within the (001) planes, Mn(IV) ions may create 2D orbital fluctuations and/or formation of two-manganese Zener polarons without disrupting the A-type antiferromagnetic order. On the other hand, rhombohedral symmetry does not remove the e-orbital degeneracy, and this structure is generally associated with itinerant e electrons and therefore with ferromagnetic metallic behavior via de Gennes double exchange. The coexistence of two electronic phases at the crossover from localized to itinerant electronic behavior



Fig. 25. Variation with δ of room-temperature lattice parameters of LaMnO_{3+ δ}, after Töpfer and Goodenough (1997b).

in the oxides with perovskite-related structures is a recurring theme. In order to investigate how the character of the mobile charge carriers and the magnetic order change on traversing the compositional range of the structural phase change, systematic transport and structural studies were made over the range $0.08 \le \delta \le 0.18$ (Töpfer et al., 1996; Töpfer and Goodenough, 1997b). The changes encountered in this system are to be compared with those found in the system La_{1-x}Sr_xMnO₃ in sect. 3.5.

At higher temperatures, 700–1000 K, a positive thermoelectric power $\alpha(T)$ is essentially temperature-independent and the evolution of its magnitude with δ is consistent with polaronic conduction described by the statistical component

$$\alpha = (k/e)\ln[\beta(1-c)/c], \tag{26}$$

where *c* is the fractional occupancy of the Mn atoms by mobile Mn(IV) with a spindegeneracy factor $\beta = 2$. However, a $\beta = 1$ is to be expected because of the strong intraatomic exchange coupling between the mobile e electrons and the stationary t^3 configuration. On lowering the temperature in the paramagnetic range, the mobile holes condense progressively into clusters and $\alpha(T)$ increases as

$$\alpha(T) = (k/e)(E_g/kT) \tag{27}$$

where $E_g \approx 0.02$ eV is the enthalpy required to free a hole from a hole-rich second-phase cluster. However, $\alpha(T)$ reaches a maximum value at a T_{max} near the magnetic-ordering temperature in samples with $0.12 \le x \le 0.18$; below T_{max} , $\alpha(T)$ decreases nearly linearly with decreasing temperature, reaching zero at a T_{α} as is illustrated for $\delta = 0.16$ in fig. 26. The matrix is a ferromagnetic insulator (FI) below T_{α} where $\alpha \approx 0 \,\mu\text{V/K}$. The opening of a small energy gap at the Fermi energy in a nearly flat dispersion curve by charge and orbital ordering could give an $\alpha \approx 0 \,\mu\text{V/K}$ and insulator behavior. This FI phase is to be compared to that found below a $T_{\text{OO}} < T_{\text{C}}$ in the La_{1-x}Sr_xMnO₃ system over the range 0.10 < x < 0.17. In



Fig. 26. Temperature variation of the resistivity $\rho(T)$ and thermoelectric power $\alpha(T)$ for LaMnO_{3.16}, after Töpfer et al. (1996).

that system, an orbitally fluctuating O^{*}-orthorhombic ferromagnetic vibronic (FV) phase appears in the interval $T_{OO} < T < T_C$ between the FI phase and a paramagnetic, polaronic O' phase in the interval 0.10 < $x \leq 0.15$; the FV phase transforms abruptly to a ferromagnetic metallic (FM) phase in the interval 0.15 < $x \leq 0.16$, see fig. 43. In the LaMnO_{3+ δ} system, the FM phase is stabilized in the interval 0.18 < δ < 0.20. Therefore, we can expect a FV conductive phase to appear in the interval $T_{\alpha} < T < T_C$ of LaMnO_{3+ δ}, 0.10 < δ < 0.18.

The remarkable $\rho(T)$ behavior found in the interval $T_{\alpha} < T < T_{C}$ of fig. 26 may be an artifact of the polycrystalline samples reflecting changes in grain-boundary resistance with temperature in the interval $T_{\alpha} < T < T_{\rm C}$. Support for this conclusion comes from hydrostatic-pressure measurements of Markovich et al. (2000, 2001). Their initial experiments on $La_{0.91}Mn_{0.95}O_3$ showed that the tolerance factor t increases with pressure; an unusually high compressibility of the mean Mn–O bond is characteristic of a double-well potential for the equilibrium bondlength. A subsequent study of $\rho(T)$ under pressure to 0.94 GPa was made on a La_{0.94}Mn_{0.98}O₃ single crystal. At ambient pressure, the single-crystal $\rho(T)$ curve showed a smooth insulator-metal transition on heating at a $T_{\rm FI} = 115$ K and a metal-insulator transition at the Curie temperature $T_{\rm C} = 210$ K. A minimum resistivity of about 2.53 Ω cm at $T_{\rm FI}$ shows the sample is a "bad metal" in the interval $T_{\rm FI} < T < T_{\rm C}$ typical of a FV percolating phase. Moreover, pressure stabilizes the FV phase relative to both the FI and paramagnetic polaronic phase; $dT_C/dP = 17 \text{ K/GPa}$ and a $dT_{FI}/dP < 0$ suppresses the FI phase by 0.94 GPa. The FI phase in $La_{1-x}Sr_xMnO_3$ is stabilized by pressure, which distinguishes the FI phase below T_{OO} in that system from the FI phase below T_{α} in LaMnO_{3+ δ} where cation vacancies can be expected to trap out the holes they introduce. However, a simple trapping out of holes cannot account for the suppression of $\alpha(T)$ and ferromagnetic order.



Fig. 27. Variation with δ of magnetization per Mn atom at 5 K in a field H =40 kOe (30 kOe for $\delta = 0.18$). Insert: Magnetization vs. applied field H for $\delta = 0.05$ and $\delta = 0.18$ of LaMnO_{3- δ}, after Töpfer and Goodenough (1997b).

Figure 27 shows the variation with δ of the magnetization M at 5 K in a field H = 40 kOe. M (5 K, 40 kOe) approaches the spin-only ferromagnetic value only for $0.12 \le \delta \le 0.14$. As δ increases, another hole-rich antiferromagnetic phase appears within the FV matrix to give a $dM/dT \approx 0$ at lower temperatures. The volume fraction of the antiferromagnetic clusters of the "cluster glass" increases with δ . A candidate for this hole-rich phase is the type-CE antiferromagnetic phase appearing at 50–50 Mn(III)–Mn(IV) in La_{0.5}Ca_{0.5}MnO₃ (see sect. 3.6). However, in the rhombohedral phase appearing with $\delta \ge 0.20$, the antiferromagnetic phase cannot compete with the FM phase having itinerant e electrons.

Allodi et al. (2001) found, by following the ¹³⁹La NMR signal of LaMnO_{3+ δ} samples as a function of temperature, an inhomogeneous wipeout of the NMR signal in a broad temperature interval for all the lightly doped samples; in LaMnO_{3.04} ($T_N = 125$ K) it occurred over the range 75 K $\leq T \leq 140$ K. Comparison with muon-spin-rotation data ruled out the possibility that the wipeout is due to spin fluctuations, which means it is due to electric-field-gradient fluctuations associated with orbital and/or bond-length fluctuations. These data reveal fast nuclear relaxations in a volume fraction of vibronic charge transfer and "bad-metal" behavior. This wipeout phenomenon was not observed in either the parent compound LaMnO₃ or in a hole-rich R-rhombohedral matrix; it is associated with phase segregation at the crossover from localized to vibronic behavior of the e electrons. At lower temperatures, the NMR signal was restored, indicating the charge carriers had become static in the time scale $\tau < 10^{-9}$ s as a result of orbital ordering in the FI phase.

The Weiss constant θ of the Curie–Weiss paramagnetic susceptibility plot $\chi^{-1}(T)$ reflects the mean magnitude of the interatomic exchange interactions. LaMnO₃ has a $\theta > 0$, which reveals that the ferromagnetic interactions in the (001) planes are stronger than the *c*-axis



Fig. 28. Tentative phase diagram for LaMnO_{3+ δ}, $0 \le \delta \le 0.18$. Data from Töpfer and Goodenough (1997b). PI = paramagnetic insulator, CAFI = canted-spin antiferromagnetic (A-type) insulator, SGI = spin-glass insulator, FI = ferromagnetic insulator, MCS = metamagnetic canted-spin configuration.

antiferromagnetic interaction; but a $\theta < T_N$ signals that the ferromagnetic planes couple antiferromagnetically. As δ increases, the interval T_N – θ decreases in the range $0 < \delta \leq 0.05$. For the spin-glass ferromagnetic phases $0.08 \leq \delta \leq 0.16$, we find $\theta > T_C$ with θ – T_C increasing dramatically with δ . In the paramagnetic phase, the strength and fraction of ferromagnetic interactions clearly increases with δ , and a large θ – T_C signals the presence of considerable short-range ferromagnetic order above T_C . Moreover, a slow rise of M(T) on cooling through T_C indicates the persistence of a paramagnetic volume below T_C (Töpfer et al., 1996). It is clear that the compounds are magnetically inhomogeneous, which is another reflection of the segregation of orbitally disordered and orbitally ordered volumes.

In the O'-orthorhombic $\delta = 0.05$ sample, the magnetization M(T) taken on heating after cooling in zero applied field showed a typical spin-glass behavior (Töpfer and Goodenough, 1997b) indicating the presence of ferromagnetic clusters with a $T_{\rm C} > T_{\rm N}$ in the antiferromagnetic matrix. In this insulator, the ferromagnetic coupling would be due to vibronic superexchange in regions of orbital fluctuations.

These considerations lead us to propose the tentative phase diagram of fig. 28. The orthorhombic-rhombohedral transition has been tracked by Wold and Arnott (1959). The two-phase region $0.05 < \delta < 0.10$ observed by room-temperature X-ray diffraction has been shown from the spin-glass behavior below $T_{\rm f}$ to extend over a wider compositional range below 200 K, which indicates that a spinodal phase segregation separates the O'-orthorhombic $(c/a < \sqrt{2})$ from an O^{*}-orthorhombic $(c/a \approx \sqrt{2})$ or R-rhombohedral phase. With neutron powder diffraction, Huang et al. (1997) have shown the two-phase region at 300 K in the inter-

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val $0.05 < \delta \le 0.10$ consists of an antiferromagnetic O' phase and a ferromagnetic O^{*} phase of smaller volume. At a higher value of δ , an R-rhombohedral phase transforms smoothly to a ferromagnetic monoclinic (P112₁/a) phase that corresponds to the ferromagnetic cluster glass. At lower temperatures, the transition temperature separating the orbitally fluctuating O^{*} phase from the R phase extends to a higher value of δ than the transition between the O' and R phases; percolation of the O^{*} and not the O' phase gives a ferromagnetic matrix that transforms to a ferromagnetic-insulator (FI) phase below $T_{\rm C}$ in the interval $0.11 < \delta < 0.14$ whereas the spin-glass-insulator (SGI) phase is found for $\delta \le 0.11$ where the percolating matrix is the O' phase. The O^{*}-R transition was not tracked below $T_{\rm C}$ of the metamagnetic "cluster glass" (MCG) appearing in the interval $0.15 \le x \le 0.18$.

3.4. $(La_{1-v}R_v)_{0.7}A_{0.3}MnO_3$: The CMR phenomenon

The perovskite systems $R_{1-x}A_xMnO_3$ (A = alkaline-earth) have been studied both extensively and intensively because they exhibit an intrinsic "colossal negative magnetoresistance", known as the CMR phenomenon, at and above a ferromagnetic Curie temperature T_C on application of a high magnetic field (Kusters et al., 1989; von Helmolt et al., 1993; Chahara et al., 1993). They also exhibit below T_C an extrinsic giant magnetoresistance associated with tunneling of electron spins across grain boundaries; the MnO₃ array has only majority-spin conduction electrons in the ferromagnetic state. Here we discuss the intrinsic CMR phenomenon.

In the systems $(La_{1-v}R_v)_{0.7}A_{0.3}MnO_3$, the ratio Mn(IV)/Mn = 0.3 is held constant and, by decreasing the tolerance factor t of eq. (1) by decreasing the mean ionic radius of the large A-site cations of the perovskite structure, the MnO₃ array is changed from a ferromagnetic metal with itinerant σ^* electrons of e-orbital parentage in La_{0.7}Sr_{0.3}MnO₃ to an antiferromagnetic insulator in Pr0.7Ca0.3MnO3, which has localized e electrons in ordered orbitals and charge ordering of the holes. In all these perovskites, the π -bonding t³ configuration on the Mn atoms is localized with a spin S = 3/2, and dramatic changes in physical properties are found at the crossover from localized to itinerant behavior of the σ -bonding electrons of e orbital parentage. In accordance with the virial theorem of eq. (19), the crossover compositions exhibit a dynamic spinodal phase segregation by cooperative oxygen displacements on a small length scale into either hole-rich itinerant-electron and hole-poor localized-electron regions or into regions of e-orbital and charge disorder and those of e-orbital and charge order. The itinerant-electron and/or orbitally disordered regions are ferromagnetic and conductive; the orbitally ordered, localized-electron regions are poor electronic conductors, especially where they contain ordering of the mobile holes. The ferromagnetic, conductive phase may be stabilized relative to the antiferromagnetic localized-electron phase by various externally applied forces.

The CMR phenomenon is illustrated in fig. 29, which is taken from Hwang et al. (1995) for the system $La_{0.7-x}Pr_xCa_{0.3}MnO_3$ (note: x = 0.7y of $(La_{1-y}R_y)_{0.7}A_{0.3}MnO_3$). The Curie temperatures T_C are marked by arrows. The magnetoresistance between 0 and 5 Tesla, defined here as $(\rho_{0T} - \rho_{5T})/\rho_{5T}$, increases and T_C decreases, both dramatically, as x increases in the range $0 \le x \le 0.6$ even though the variation in tolerance factor is small. Moreover,



Fig. 29. CMR at 5 T on cooling for different compositions $0 \le x \le 0.7$ in the system La_{0.7-x}Pr_xCa_{0.3}MnO₃. Arrows indicate the Curie temperatures T_{C} ; after Hwang et al. (1995).

the magnetic transition at $T_{\rm C}$ is first-order, but the resistance decreases smoothly with temperature on cooling through $T_{\rm C}$ although exhibiting a thermal hysteresis. The x = 0.7 end member $Pr_{0.7}Ca_{0.3}MnO_3$ exhibits an even more complex behavior (Roy et al., 2000; Jirák et al., 1985; Yoshizawa et al., 1995, 1996; Tomioka et al., 1995, 1996; Anane et al., 1999; Lees et al., 1996; Miyano et al., 1997; Fiebig et al., 1998, 1999; Ogawa et al., 1998; Cox et al., 1998; Moritomo et al., 1997a; Kiryukin et al., 1997; Asamitsu et al., 1997; Srivastava et al., 2000; Stankiewicz et al., 2000); it undergoes, on cooling, a charge-ordering transition at $T_{\rm CO} \approx 230$ K followed by antiferromagnetic order below $T_{\rm N} \approx 150$ K that develops at lower temperatures a canted-spin ferromagnetic component. The insulating antiferromagnetic state can be driven irreversibly to a ferromagnetic conductive state with a large release of heat not only by an applied magnetic field, but also by the application of pressure, by the irradiation with visible light or X-rays, or by a high current. The complexity is characteristic of antiferromagnetic compositions having a tolerance factor *t* at the transition from antiferromagnetic to ferromagnetic behavior below their magnetic-ordering temperature. The resistive transition occurs where the localized-electron phase forms a percolating matrix within which the ferromagnetic regions are isolated in the absence of an external input. With the application of the external input, the ferromagnetic regions grow at the expense of the antiferromagnetic volume. The situation is analogous to that found in LaMn_{0.5}Ga_{0.5}O₃, fig. 13, except that here the ferromagnetic phase is mixed-valent and conductive.

The tight-binding bandwidth $W_{\sigma} = 2zt_{\sigma}^{\uparrow\uparrow}$ for the σ^* electrons of a single-phase MnO₃ array with z = 6 like nearest neighbors is, from eqs. (7) and (8),

$$W_{\sigma} \approx 12\varepsilon_{\sigma}\lambda_{\sigma}^{2} \langle \cos\phi \rangle \cos(\theta_{ij}/2).$$
⁽²⁸⁾

The small changes in W_{σ} that result from increasing the bending ϕ of the (180° – ϕ) Mn–O– Mn bonds on substitution of Pr³⁺ for La³⁺ cannot account for the dramatic change in $T_{\rm C}$, from 250 K for x = 0 to 80 K for x = 0.6, or for that in the magnitude of the CMR phenomenon shown in fig. 29 even though the increase in $\langle \cos \phi \rangle$ is enhanced by a transition from a larger equilibrium (Mn–O)_{localized} to a smaller (Mn–O)_{itinerant} bond length, eq. (20). However, the bandwidth of eq. (21)

$$W = W_{\sigma} \exp(-\lambda \varepsilon_{\rm sc}/\hbar\omega_{\rm o}) \quad \text{with } \lambda \sim \varepsilon_{\rm s}/W_{\sigma} \tag{29}$$

is applicable where a dynamic spinodal phase segregation occurs; ε_{sc} is the energy required to transfer a hole from the hole-rich ferromagnetic phase to the hole-poor matrix and ω_0 is the frequency of the cooperative oxygen vibrations that separate the two phases. With eq. (29), we can attribute the change in physical properties with tolerance factor *t*, or bending angle ϕ , to changes in ω_0 with ϕ as well as to changes in the mean equilibrium (Mn–O) bond length. Egami and Louca (1999, 2002) have emphasized that there are two vibrational modes of the oxygen atoms that might impact the Mn–O bond length where the (180° – ϕ) Mn–O–Mn bond is bent from 180°: one is the breathing mode in which an oxygen atom moves close to one Mn nearest neighbor and away from the other; the second is a vibration perpendicular to the bond in which the two neighboring Mn atoms are impacted equally. A breathing mode would occur at the interface between localized and itinerant phases; displacements perpendicular to a bond would occur within phases.

Spinodal phase segregation and vibronic conduction occur where the time for a hole to travel from one Mn atom to another is $\tau_h \approx \hbar/W \approx \omega_0^{-1}$, or $W \approx \hbar\omega_0$. Small changes in ω_0 with bending angle ϕ can change a $W < \hbar\omega_0$ where conduction is polaronic into a $W > \hbar\omega_0$ where the electrons become itinerant. A de Gennes double exchange associated with itinerant σ^* electrons would give a much higher T_C than a vibronic superexchange augmented by a Zener double exchange, and T_C increases dramatically where the volume fraction of itinerant

electrons increases just below $T_{\rm C}$. Moreover, the first-order character of the transition at $T_{\rm C}$ signals a discontinuous change in the volume fraction of the itinerant-electron phase, but the heterogeneous character of the material makes the resistivity change smoothly on cooling through $T_{\rm C}$. As the tolerance factor *t* decreases with increasing *x*, the volume fraction of the itinerant-electron phase above $T_{\rm C}$ decreases and, therefore, the discontinuity in the volume fraction on cooling through $T_{\rm C}$ increases. Therefore, the latent heat of the transition at $T_{\rm C}$ increases with *x* in La_{0.7-x}Pr_xCa_{0.3}MnO₃.

With decreasing temperature in the paramagnetic state, polaronic holes progressively condense out below a critical temperature into an itinerant-electron phase. The hole-rich regions have a higher Curie temperature $T_{\rm C}^*$ than the $T_{\rm C}$ of the hole-poor matrix; the ferromagnetic spin-spin coupling of the matrix is progressively reduced as it becomes increasingly due to vibronic superexchange and the double-exchange component is reduced by trapping out of the mobile holes into the hole-rich clusters (Goodenough, 1997). The hole-rich clusters, on the other hand, may achieve a de Gennes double-exchange coupling that gives the higher T_c^* . As the bandwidth W decreases with increasing x, the double-exchange component of the coupling in the matrix decreases, so $T_{\rm C}$ decreases. However, as $T_{\rm C}$ decreases, more holes are trapped out in the hole-rich clusters in the paramagnetic phase, which feeds back to lower $T_{\rm C}$ even more. Therefore $T_{\rm C}$ decreases dramatically with increasing x, but not $T_{\rm C}^*$. On application of a magnetic field in the interval $T_{\rm C} < T < T_{\rm C}^*$, the ferromagnetic phase is stabilized relative to the paramagnetic phase, and growth of the conductive ferromagnetic clusters to beyond percolation gives the CMR phenomenon. Although, the increase in the volume of the ferromagnetic phase in an applied magnetic field dilutes its hole concentration, orbital disorder introduces ferromagnetic vibronic superexchange interactions. Nevertheless, the hole concentration must remain consistent with itinerant-electron or vibronic conduction in the hole-rich phase. As the temperature decreases, more holes are trapped out into the hole-rich conductive phase and the volume fraction of this phase can grow larger in an applied field of 5 T, which decreases ρ_{5T} at T_{C} . Moreover, with fewer holes in the matrix, the resistivity ρ_{0T} increases with decreasing temperature. Therefore, the magnetoresistance $(\rho_{0T} - \rho_{5T})/\rho_{5T}$ at $T_{\rm C}$ increases remarkably as $T_{\rm C}$ decreases with increasing x.

The growth of a conventional magnetic polaron in a magnetic field also leads to a negative magnetoresistance having a maximum value at $T_{\rm C}$, and serious claims have been made (Nagaev, 1999, 2001a; Emin, 1998) that his model is applicable to the CMR phenomenon in the manganese oxides. In this model also, mobile charge carriers achieve a greater stability and mobility by congregating in regions of ferromagnetic order. The analogy is, therefore, quite complete without requiring the strong electron-lattice coupling implicit in a doublewell potential at the crossover from localized to itinerant electronic behavior; it relies instead on the electron-spin interactions alone. However, the sensitivity of $T_{\rm C}$ to the tolerance factor and the data to be presented argue for a model in which the electron-spin interactions are supplemented by strong electron-phonon interactions due to a double-well potential at the crossover from localized to itinerant electronic behavior. On the other hand, phase segregation into hole-rich and hole-poor regions needs to be supplemented in the manganese-oxide perovskites by consideration of the Jahn–Teller site deformations that occur at localized-electron Mn(III): t^3e^1 configurations. It is the dynamic Jahn–Teller orbital fluctuations that give rise

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to the ferromagnetic vibronic-superexchange interactions in the hole-poor matrix. Where the cooperative deformations become long-range statically ordered, anisotropic antiferromagnetic interactions are introduced as in LaMnO₃. This type of order occurs within a percolating matrix where the tolerance factor is lower than a critical value t_c . Moreover, an applied magnetic field can stabilize an orbitally disordered ferromagnetic phase relative to an orbitally ordered antiferromagnetic phase as was seen to be the case in the single-valent compound LaMn_{0.5}Ga_{0.5}O₃, fig. 13. An antiferromagnetic to ferromagnetic transition can also be induced by a pressure that increases a $t < t_c$ to a $t > t_c$ or by a ${}^{16}O/{}^{18}O$ isotope exchange that changes t_c , as is shown below for the system $(La_{1-y}Nd_y)_{0.7}Ca_{0.3}MnO_3$. In a mixed-valent system, stabilization of a ferromagnetic phase containing orbital and charge disorder relative to an antiferromagnetic phase having ordered orbitals and charge can also be accomplished by the application of an electric field or by electromagnetic irradiation that disorders the charge and the occupied e orbitals. All these features are illustrated by Pr_{0.7}Ca_{0.3}MnO₃.

The Nd³⁺ ion is smaller than Pr³⁺, so the critical tolerance factor t_c for $(La_{1-y}Nd_y)_{0.7}Ca_{0.3}$ MnO₃ occurs at a y < 0.6 rather than at a $y \ge 0.9$ as in $(La_{1-y}Pr_y)_{0.7}Ca_{0.3}MnO_3$. Figure 30 shows (Archibald et al., 1996) the temperature dependence of the thermoelectric power $\alpha(T)$ for several compositions in the range $0.2 \le y \le 0.75$. At atmospheric pressure, the $0.55 < y \le 1$ samples with $0.946 \le t \le 0.952$ are in the O'-orthorhombic $(c/a < \sqrt{2})$ phase and undergo a second-order polaronic-polaronic transition at a Néel temperature T_N to a weakly canted antiferromagnetic spin configuration as occurs in PrMnO₃. However, a charge-ordering temperature was not noted. The $0 \le y \le 0.55$ samples are in the pseudocubic O*-orthorhombic $(c/a \approx \sqrt{2})$ phase and undergo a first-order phase change at a ferromagnetic Curie temperature T_C , from which we deduce a critical tolerance factor $t_c \approx 0.955$. The temperature dependence of the resistivity $\rho(T)$ exhibits a strong maximum at T_C in the O^{*} phase as in La_{0.7-x}Pr_xCa_{0.3}MnO₃ with $x \le 0.6$, fig. 29; $\rho(T)$ continues to increase with decreasing temperature below T_N in the O' phase, and it was not possible to obtain a stable measure of $\alpha(T)$ below T_N in this phase. The maximum in $\alpha(T)$ occurs at a T_{max} a little above T_C in the O* phase. Five other features of fig. 30 are noteworthy.

First, $\alpha(T)$ approaches a temperature-independent value of $-20 \,\mu\text{V/K}$ in the O^{*} samples at high temperatures; this value is somewhat larger in the O' sample, fig. 31. A temperatureindependent α is indicative of polaronic conduction in which the statistical term, eq. (26), dominates any transport contribution. In eq. (26), the spin-degeneracy factor is $\beta = 1$ because of the strong intraatomic exchange at the Mn atoms; *c* is the fraction of available sites that are occupied by charge carriers. For small polarons, c = xN/N = x would give a value $\alpha = +38 \,\mu\text{V/K}$ whereas a two-Mn Zener polaron would correspond to c = xN/(N/2) = 2xto give the observed $\alpha = -20 \,\mu\text{V/K}$. Therefore, we conclude that at high temperatures there is a progressive transition with increasing tolerance factor from small polarons to two-Mn polarons as *t* increases, complete conversion occurring for t > 0.995. At still higher values of *t*, a transition from two-Mn polarons to itinerant electrons can be anticipated. Indeed, in La_{0.7}(Ca_{1-y}Sr_y)_{0.3}MnO₃ the transition at $T_{\rm C}$ changes from first-order to second-order with increasing *y*, fig. 32, and both $T_{\rm C}$ and $dT_{\rm C}/dy$ change discontinuously at the crossover of $T_{\rm C}$ and the orthorhombic-rhombohedral transition temperature $T_{\rm OR}$, fig. 33; the electrons become itinerant in the paramagnetic state of La_{0.7}Sr_{0.3}MnO₃ (Tomioka et al., 2001) and



Fig. 30. Thermoelectric power $\alpha(T)$ for several compositions $0.20 \le y \le 0.75$ of the system $(\text{La}_{1-y}\text{Nd}_y)_{0.7}\text{Ca}_{0.3}$ -MnO₃; after Archibald et al. (1996).

La_{2/3}Sr_{1/3}MnO₃ (Mira et al., 1999, 2000) as well as in La_{0.65}Ba_{0.35}MnO₃, which has the highest tolerance factor *t* (McIIroy et al., 1996). Confirmation of two-Mn polarons was found in the La_{1-x}Ca_xMnO₃ system by Mössbauer spectroscopy for x = 0.20 (Chechersky et al., 1997, 1999a) and by Mn K-edge X-ray extended fine structure (EXAFS) for x = 0.25 (Lanzara et al., 1998).



Fig. 31. High-temperature thermoelectric power $\alpha(T)$ for y = 0.75 ($t = 0.952 < t_c$) and $y \le 0.55$ ($t \ge 0.957 > t_c$) of the system $(\text{La}_{1-y}\text{Nd}_y)_{0,7}\text{Ca}_{0,3}\text{MnO}_3$, after Goodenough (1999).

Second, the sharp increase in $\alpha(T)$ as T decreases to T_{max} reflects a progressive condensation of the mobile holes into a hole-rich phase; shortening of the equilibrium Mn-O bond length in the hole-rich clusters transforms the $\tau_h > \omega_0^{-1}$ of the polaronic matrix to a $\tau_h \leq \omega_0^{-1}$ of the hole-rich conductive clusters. The volume of the hole-rich phase increases with the number of holes that are trapped in it. The hole-rich clusters become superparamagnetic below a $T_{\rm C}^* > T_{\rm C}$. On cooling through $T_{\rm C}$, the Weiss molecular field increases the volume fraction of the conductive phase to well beyond percolation, releasing the trapped holes and lowering $\alpha(T)$. Independent evidence for superparamagnetic clusters in the interval $T_{\rm C} < T < T_{\rm C}^*$ appears in the inverse magnetic susceptibility χ^{-1} vs. temperature (Goodenough and Zhou, 1998) shown in fig. 34. The huge difference $\theta - T_{\rm C}$, where θ is the hightemperature Weiss constant, reveals an anomalously extensive range of short-range ferromagnetic order above $T_{\rm C}$. Further evidence for phase segregation above and below $T_{\rm C}$ has been obtained with a variety of other techniques in addition to Mössbauer (Chechersky et al., 1997, 1999a) and it has been possible to describe the structure of the low-energy optical conductivity with a two-phase model (Quijada et al., 1998). Kim et al. (1998) came to a similar conclusion from their optical-conductivity data, and Y.G. Zhao et al. (1998) used pulsed laser excitation to reveal a fast transient associated with photoionization of the polaronic phase and a slow transient associated with the hole-rich clusters in La_{0.7}Ca_{0.3}MnO₃. Sakaie et al. (1999) have confirmed with ¹³⁹La NMR a slow correlation time for the spin-spin fluctuations



Fig. 32. The resistivity vs. temperature for La_{0.7}-(Ca_{1-y}Sr_y)_{0.3}MnO₃ crystals with varying y. The anomaly at ca. 370 K for y = 0.45 is due to the orthorhombic-rhombohedral transition. Inset shows inverse susceptibility vs. $T/T_{\rm C}$, after Tomioka et al. (2001).

Fig. 33. Phase diagram for $La_{0.7}(Ca_{1-y}Sr_y)_{0.3}$ MnO₃, after Tomioka et al. (2001).



Fig. 34. Inverse magnetic susceptibility vs. absolute temperature for several samples R_{0.7}Ca_{0.3}MnO₃ compared with LaMnO₃ and La_{0.7}Ba_{0.3}MnO₃, after Goodenough and Zhou (1998).

of the ferromagnetic clusters and reported an anomalous temperature and field dependence of the spin-lattice relaxation. Lu et al. (1997) and Fäth et al. (1999) have used tunneling scanning spectroscopy on, respectively, x = 0.35 and x = 0.30 of La_{1-x}Ca_xMnO₃ films deposited epitaxially on a single crystal SrTiO₃ substrate to observe directly the coexistence of the ferromagnetic phase and a polaronic phase both above and below $T_{\rm C}$ and how the spatial extent of the ferromagnetic phase increases to beyond a percolation threshold on decreasing the temperature through $T_{\rm C}$ or on applying a magnetic field above $T_{\rm C}$.

The CMR phenomenon occurs where the conductive ferromagnetic phase reaches a percolation threshold in the paramagnetic phase (Goodenough and Zhou, 1997). De Teresa et al. (1997) with neutron scattering. Chun et al. (2000) have measured the Hall constant and Hall mobility of single-crystal La_{0.7}Ca_{0.3}MnO₃ ($T_{\rm C} = 216.2$ K) to demonstrate a transition from a low-temperature, ferromagnetic phase to a high-temperature polaronic phase in the interval $T_{\rm C} < T < 1.4T_{\rm C}$ where ferromagnetic, metallic clusters coexist with the polaronic paramagnetic phase. Chechersky et al. (2000) have used ⁵⁷Co Mössbauer spectroscopy to identify the coexistence of two distinguishable ferromagnetic phases below $T_{\rm C}$ in a well-characterized, homogeneous ceramic sample of La_{0.7}Ca_{0.3}Mn(⁵⁷Co)O₃ ($T_{\rm C} = 245$ K); the volume fraction of the minority phase decreases with decreasing temperature, and they observed a single ferromagnetic phase at lowest temperatures. Neutron-scattering data are consistent with this finding (Adams et al., 2000). Heffner et al. (2000) have used muon spin relaxation and neutron spin-echo measurements in ferromagnetic La_{1-x}Ca_xMnO₃ with x = 0.33 ($T_{\rm C} = 262$ K)

and x = 0.30 ($T_{\rm C} = 250$ K), respectively, to identify two phases below $T_{\rm C}$ that are distinguished by very different spin dynamics. The metallic matrix displayed diffusive relaxation with a diffusion coefficient correlating with that of Mn spin waves obtained (Lynn et al., 1996; Vasiliu-Doloc et al., 1997) from neutron-scattering studies of the metallic ferromagnetic phase. The second phase, which was confined to spatially separated clusters ≤ 30 Å in diameter, possessed more slowly fluctuating spins and a linewidth independent of the muon wave number q, which signals a more insulating phase. We identify the former with the holerich phase, the latter with the hole-poor phase. As the temperature decreased below $T_{\rm C}$, the matrix grew at the expense of the minority, slow-relaxation phase. X.J. Liu et al. (2001a) have observed photoinduced changes in transmission through $La_{0.7}Ca_{0.3}MnO_3$ ($T_C = 200$ K) films probed with a continuous wave (CW) Ar⁺ laser ($E_{probe} = 2.54 \text{ eV}$) and a CW Ti:Al₂O₃ laser ($E_{\text{probe}} = 1.55 \text{ eV}$). The data showed a photoinduced creation of clusters at temperatures $T < T_{\rm C}$ and a photoinduced annihilation of clusters at $T > T_{\rm C}$. X.J. Liu et al. (2001a) interpreted this finding to be the creation of charge-ordered clusters ($T < T_{\rm C}$) or annihilation of metallic clusters $(T > T_{\rm C})$ since the matrix changes from polaronic to itinerant/vibronic on cooling through $T_{\rm C}$. It is unlikely that electron excitations would create a charge-ordered phase. Therefore, we suggest that the light perturbs the periodic potential of the itinerantelectron phase by exciting electrons from narrow σ^* -band states to localized energy levels such as that of a Mn(II) ion, thereby favoring the polaronic over the itinerant-electron phase. This interpretation is supported by a similar experiment made on a La_{0.7}Sr_{0.3}MnO₃ film ($T_{\rm C} = 350$ K) at temperatures $T < T_{\rm C}$, which showed the creation of polaronic clusters from the itinerant-electron matrix (X.J. Liu et al., 2001b, 2001c).

The third feature of fig. 30 to be noted is the maximum in $\alpha(T)$ found at a T_{max} a little above $T_{\rm C}$; it increases dramatically as the tolerance factor t is lowered to the O'-O^{*} phase boundary appearing in the interval 0.952 < t < 0.957 because the concentration of mobile holes in the matrix decreases with T. Comparison of fig. 30 and fig. 35 shows a pressure dependence dt/dP > 0, which is the anomalous case of eq. (3b), indicating the presence of a double-well potential for the equilibrium (Mn–O) bond length in accordance with eq. (20) for the crossover from localized to itinerant behavior of antibonding electrons. The large compressibility of the (Mn–O) bond length in the two-phase domain has been corroborated by several experiments. Radaelli et al. (1997a) have used high-resolution neutron diffraction to show for La_{0.75}Ca_{0.25}MnO₃ an anomalous decrease in the volume on cooling through $T_{\rm C}$ where the fraction of the ferromagnetic itinerant-electron phase increases sharply. The decrease in mean cell volume occurred despite an increase in the (180° – ϕ) Mn–O–Mn bond angle because a significant decrease in the (Mn-O) bond length overcompensated for the increase in bond angle. De Teresa et al. (1996a) measured the magnetoresistance (MR) and the magnetothermal expansion (ME) for La2/3Ca1/3MnO3 and found a strong correlation between the two in the paramagnetic phase just above $T_{\rm C}$. They concluded that the increase in the volume fraction of the conductive ferromagnetic phase responsible for the MR is also responsible for the large volume contraction. Neumeier et al. (1995) and Laukhin et al. (1997) have found a $dT_C/dP > 0$ that increases as T_C decreases; the effect disappears in the O' phase where there is a $T_{\rm N}$. Fontcuberta et al. (1998) have also shown that isovalent substitutions in $(La_{1-y}R_{y})_{2/3}(Ca_{1-x}Sr_{x})_{1/3}MnO_{3}$ yield a $dT_{C}/dP > 0$ that increases with the extent of local



Fig. 35. Pressure dependence of $\alpha(T)$ for $(\text{La}_{0.6}\text{Nd}_{0.4})_{0.7}\text{Ca}_{0.3}\text{MnO}_3$ with $t = 0.960 > t_c$; after Archibald et al. (1996).

disorder at the A-site cations, but the variations with disorder were not enough to account for the large dT_C/dP that was observed. De Teresa et al. (1996b) have provided a comprehensive investigation of La_{2/3}Ca_{1/3}MnO₃ that links the large pressure dependence of T_C directly to the coexistence of two distinguishable phases, a conductive ferromagnetic phase of smaller volume and a paramagnetic polaronic phase of larger volume.

Fourth, Jaime and Salamon (1999) have pointed out that $\alpha(T)$ increases more sharply than exponentially on cooling to T_{max} in fig. 30 and that the additional entropy transported increases on crossing the O'–O^{*} phase boundary at t_c . This observation is consistent with a progressive transformation from Zener to small polarons in the hole-poor phase as the hole concentration x = 0.30 in this phase is diluted by the trapping of Zener polarons in the hole-rich phase. Such a transformation would double the number of sites available to a polaron and would therefore increase the α of eq. (26) by reducing c = (1 - r)2x toward c = (1 - r)x, where r is the ratio of trapped to free polarons. In the O' phase, most of the polarons appear to be small polarons at T_N .

Fifth, fig. 36 shows the temperature dependence of the resistivity $\rho(T)$ as a function of pressure for the y = 0.75 sample, which is just on the O' side of the O'-O^{*} phase boundary ($t < t_c$) at atmospheric pressure, and fig. 37 shows the change in $\alpha(T)$ with pressure for the same sample (Zhou et al., 1996). A resistivity maximum occurs at T_c where a long-



Fig. 36. Pressure dependence of $\rho(T)$ for (La_{0.25}Nd_{0.75})_{0.7}Ca_{0.3}MnO₃ with $t = 0.952 < t_c$; after Zhou et al. (1996). Lower inset shows $\rho(T)$ at low temperatures; upper insets show T_C and $\rho(30 \text{ K})$, $\rho(250 \text{ K})$ vs. pressure.

range Weiss molecular field increases the volume fraction of the conductive ferromagnetic phase to beyond percolation. The drop in $\rho(T)$ on cooling through $T_{\rm C}$ is continuous even though the thermal hysteresis in $\rho(T)$ shows that the magnetic transition is first-order. It has been commonly assumed that the metallic temperature dependence of $\rho(T)$ below $T_{\rm C}$ signals itinerant-electron behavior. However, fig. 36 shows that $\rho(T)$ remains above the itinerant-



Fig. 37. Pressure dependence of $\alpha(T)$ for $(La_{0.25}Nd_{0.75})_{0.7}Ca_{0.3}MnO_3$ with $t = 0.952 < t_c$; after Zhou et al. (1996). Inset details low-temperature data.

electron limit, which makes the ferromagnetic phase below $T_{\rm C}$ a "bad metal". Moreover, the drop in $\alpha(T)$ to a small, temperature-independent value, as shown in fig. 37, is not characteristic of a conventional metal. Since eq. (26) is not applicable at low temperatures, we turn to the general expression for the thermoelectric power (MacDonald, 1962):

$$\alpha = \alpha_0 + \delta \alpha, \tag{30}$$



Fig. 38. Specific heat vs. temperature for several samples with $t > t_c$ for $(La_{1-y}Nd_y)_{0.7}Ca_{0.3}MnO_3$; after Overend et al. (unpublished).

where $\delta \alpha$ is a low-temperature enhancement factor normally associated in a metal with a phonon drag having a maximum contribution at a temperature $T_{\text{max}} \approx 0.2\theta_{\text{D}}$, θ_{D} is the Debye temperature, and

$$\alpha_0(T) = -\frac{k}{e} \int \frac{(\varepsilon - \varepsilon_{\rm F})}{kT} \frac{\sigma(\varepsilon)}{\sigma} \,\mathrm{d}\varepsilon \tag{31}$$

in which $\sigma(\varepsilon) = f(\varepsilon)[1 - f(\varepsilon)]N(\varepsilon)\mu(\varepsilon)$ is the product of the Fermi distribution function $f(\varepsilon)$, the energy density of one-particle states $N(\varepsilon)$, and the particle mobility $\mu(\varepsilon)$ at an energy ε relative to the band edge. In a metallic conductor, α_0 becomes Mott's expression:

$$\alpha_0 \approx -\frac{\pi^2 k^2 T}{3e\varepsilon_{\rm F}} \left\{ \frac{\partial \ln \sigma(\varepsilon)}{\partial \ln \varepsilon} \right\}_{\varepsilon = \varepsilon_{\rm F}}.$$
(32)

Below $T_{\rm C}$, the conductive ferromagnetic phase of fig. 37 shows no phonon-drag enhancement $(\delta \alpha = 0)$ and does not vary linearly with *T* as predicted by eq. (32). It follows from eq. (31) that a temperature-independent $\alpha \approx 0 \,\mu V/K$ below $T_{\rm C}$ implies $\sigma(\varepsilon - \varepsilon_{\rm F}) \approx \sigma(\varepsilon_{\rm F} - \varepsilon)$, which means that there is little dispersion in the electron energies $\varepsilon(k)$ of the σ^* band of e-orbital parentage. Moreover, the specific-heat data of fig. 38 (Overend et al., unpublished) show that the Λ -point anomaly at $T_{\rm C}$ vanishes on the approach to the O'-O^{*} phase boundary (y = 0.55 sample), which is typical of spin-glass behavior below $T_{\rm C}$ where ferromagnetic clusters are in an antiferromagnetic matrix. At the phase boundary, the Mn(III) e orbitals of the hole-poor matrix order as in the O' phase in zero applied filed, but become disordered in a modest applied field as occurs in LaMn_0.5Ga_{0.5}O_3, fig. 13. We conclude that the charge carriers are



Fig. 39. The fraction η of Mn sites without local Jahn–Teller distortions at 10 K and the Curie temperature $T_{\rm C}$ of various R_{0.7}A_{0.3}MnO₃ compounds vs. the 9-coordinated ionic radii $r_{\rm A}$; after Louca et al. (2001).

vibronic below $T_{\rm C}$ with a probability of electron transfer from a Mn(III) to a Mn(IV) ion $\tau_{\rm h}^{-1} \approx \omega_0$; the charge carriers are strongly coupled to local oxygen-vibration modes that, if long-range ordered, could give rise to mobile stripes of alternating itinerant and localized states. Clarification of the character of the charge carriers in the ferromagnetic phase of the materials exhibiting a large CMR phenomenon remains a challenge.

An important tool for investigating the ordering of cooperative bond-length fluctuations at the crossover from localized to itinerant-electron behavior and/or those due to orbital fluctuations is the pulsed-neutron atomic pair-density-function (PDF) method developed by Egami (2001). Louca et al. (2001) have employed this method to determine the nature of the transition from polaronic to itinerant-electron behavior with changes in the mean room-temperature ionic radius (r_A) of the A-site ions for a series of R_{0.7}A_{0.3}MnO₃ compositions. They found Jahn–Teller distortions and Mn(IV) small polarons at 10 K if $\langle r_A \rangle$ is less than 1.17 Å and six equivalent (Mn–O) bonds at each Mn atom of itinerant-electron length if (r_A) is greater than 1.24 Å. In the narrow range 1.17 Å < $\langle r_A \rangle$ < 1.24 Å, the volume fraction η of the itinerantelectron phase increased continuously and the Curie temperature $T_{\rm C}$ tracked η ; fig. 39. Moreover, analysis showed that the short (Mn(IV)–O) bond length corresponded to half the Mn–Mn separation in the (001) planes for an $\langle r_A \rangle$ in the range 1.19 to 1.20 Å, indicating that an $\langle r_A \rangle$ larger than 1.20 Å would increase the Mn–O–Mn bond angle to a value that approached and then exceeded the critical angle for crossover from localized to itinerant electronic behavior. A bent $(180^{\circ} - \phi)$ bond angle allows adjustment of the Mn–O–Mn bond length in different domains without changing the Mn-Mn separation by displacements of the oxygen atoms perpendicular to the bond axis and oxygen displacements along a bond axis at a phase interface. Therefore, at the crossover angle, the first-order character of the transition from localized to itinerant electronic behavior allows phase segregation by cooperative oxygen displacement perpendicular to the Mn–O–Mn bond axis that create shorter Mn–O bonds in the itinerantelectron phase and longer Mn–O bonds in the localized-electron phase. These cooperative oxygen displacements may fluctuate to give phase fluctuations. This analysis provides insight into the sensitivity of the bandwidth W of eq. (28) to the vibrational frequency ω_0 at the crossover from polaronic to itinerant-electron behavior; the perpendicular vibrations harden as the Mn–O–Mn bond angle bends from 180°. Billinge et al. (2000) have used the PDF technique to show a similar continuous evolution from polaronic to itinerant-electron behavior on traversing the insulator-metal transition whether with increasing r_A , i.e., tolerance factor, or decreasing temperature across T_C in the La_{1-x}Ca_xMnO₃ system; polaronic behavior sets in at 20 K where $\langle r_A \rangle$ decreases below 1.15 Å. Rivadulla et al. (2001), using literature neutron-diffraction data, have shown that the polaronic, antiferromagnetic phase converts abruptly to the conductive, ferromagnetic phase where the Mn–O–Mn bond angle $\theta = (180^\circ - \phi)$ changes from 157° in Pr_{2/3}Ca_{1/3}MnO₃ to $\theta = 159.5^\circ$ in (La_{0.78}Pr_{0.22})_{2/3}Ca_{1/3}MnO₃. At this transition, the ratio Q₃/Q₂ of the tetragonal/orthorhombic Jahn–Teller distortional modes

$$\tan \Phi = \pm \left(2/\sqrt{6} \right) (2m - l - s) / \left(2/\sqrt{2} \right) (l - s)$$
(33)

changes from $\Phi = 23^{\circ}$ to $\Phi = 25^{\circ}$. In eq. (33) *s* and *l* are the short and long (Mn–O) bond lengths in the (001) planes and *m* is the intermediate-length (Mn–O) bond along the [001] axis. A $\Phi = 30^{\circ}$ is the strong-anisotropy all-Q₃ limit m = s whereas $\Phi = 0$ corresponds to the Q₂ limit where, in the perovskite structure, m = l = s and the six (Mn–O) bond lengths at a Mn atom are equivalent.

For further evidence of strong electron coupling to oxygen vibrations in a system that has two electronic phases, we turn to studies of ¹⁸O/¹⁶O isotope exchange. Isotope exchange does not change the Mn–O–Mn bond angle (180°– ϕ), which would leave W_{σ} of eq. (27) unchanged; but it does change $\omega_0 \sim M_0^{-1/2}$, where M_0 is the oxygen mass, and therefore Wof eq. (28) and $\tau_h \approx \hbar/W$. G.-M. Zhao et al. (1996, 1997a, 1997b) were the first to show a dramatic decrease of T_C on the exchange of ¹⁸O/¹⁶O. If on cooling through T_C the transition was from a global polaronic phase with $\tau_h > \omega_0^{-1}$ to a global itinerant-electron phase with $\tau_h \approx \hbar/W < \omega_0^{-1}$, then the exchange of ¹⁸O/¹⁶O, which decreases $\omega_0 \sim M_0^{-1/2}$, should favor the itinerant-electron phase with $\tau_h < \omega_0^{-1}$ and therefore raise T_C . The fact that ¹⁸O/¹⁶O exchange decreases T_C is, therefore, evidence that T_C depends on a bandwidth W described by eq. (28) as a result of the two-phase character of the electronic system; a decrease in Wwith increasing M_0 favors the polaronic phase and lowers T_C if the transition is governed by the bandwidth W rather than by W_{σ} .

If the dramatic change in $T_{\rm C}$ with tolerance factor t in fig. 29 is due to a change in $\omega_0(\phi)$, as is suggested by a $T_{\rm C} \sim W$ and eq. (29), then the critical ambient tolerance factor $t_{\rm c}$ for the ${\rm O'-O}^*$ transition should increase and $T_{\rm C}$ decrease accordingly on the exchange of ¹⁸O for ¹⁶O whereas pressure should have the opposite effect. In order to probe this deduction, Zhou and Goodenough (1998) undertook additional isotope-exchange experiments. Figure 40 compares the $\alpha(T)$ curves at atmospheric pressure for the ¹⁸O and ¹⁶O (La_{0.25}Nd_{0.75})_{0.7}Ca_{0.3}MnO₃ samples ($t < t_c$) of figs. 36 and 37. Comparison of these two curves with fig. 31 shows that the change in $\alpha(T)$ on exchanging ¹⁸O for ¹⁶O is equivalent to reducing t. This experiment provides direct evidence that the sensitivity with respect to t of the magnetic and transport properties of fig. 29 depends more on the sensitivity of t to $\omega_0(\phi)$ than to W_{σ} . Nagaev (2001b) has argued that the isotope effect is due to oxygen off-stoichiometry, but this position does not appear to be tenable. Chechersky et al. (1999b) have provided further confirmation of our conclusion. They followed with Mössbauer spectroscopy the temperature dependence through $T_{\rm C}$ of the two-phase character of La_{0.8}Ca_{0.2}MnO₃ and found the strength of the exchange interactions at 78 K were not changed by ¹⁸O/¹⁶O exchange whereas a considerable softening



Fig. 40. Comparison of $\alpha(T)$ for ¹⁸O and ¹⁶O at atmospheric pressure for (La_{0.25}Nd_{0.75})_{0.7}Ca_{0.3}MnO₃ samples of figs. 36 and 37; after Zhou and Goodenough (1998).

of the anharmonic $Mn-{}^{18}O-Mn$ vibrations reduced the volume fraction of the ferromagnetic phase at a given temperature.

To obtain information on the variation of $T_{\rm C}$ with pressure for ¹⁸O vs. ¹⁶O, Zhou and Goodenough (1998) used the fact that $\rho(T)$ for (La_{0.25}Nd_{0.75})_{0.7}Ca_{0.3}MnO₃ in fig. 36 has its maximum value near $T_{\rm C}$. Three additional features of fig. 36 are noteworthy:

- 1. The $\rho(T)$ curves are relatively insensitive to pressure for $T > T_{\rm C}$, but they change dramatically for $T < T_{\rm C}$ on crossing a transition at $P_{\rm c} < 4$ kbar. The transition, not shown in fig. 36, is sharply defined.
- 2. There is no thermal hysteresis in the $\rho(T)$ curve at atmospheric pressure where $(La_{0.25}Nd_{0.75})_{0.7}Ca_{0.3}MnO_3$ is in the O' phase at the magnetic-ordering temperature, but a pronounced thermal hysteresis appears at pressures $P > P_c$.
- 3. The thermal hysteresis, which marks a change from a second-order transition at $T_{\rm N}$ to a first-order transition at $T_{\rm C}$ on crossing the O'–O^{*} phase boundary, decreases as $T_{\rm C}$ increases with pressure $P > P_{\rm c}$.

Figure 41 (top) compares the evolution with pressure of $T_{\rm C}$ and thermal hysteresis at $T_{\rm C}$ of the (La_{0.25}Nd_{0.75})_{0.7}Ca_{0.3}MnO₃ sample with ¹⁶O and ¹⁸O. A shift of $\Delta P_{\rm c} \approx 9$ kbar on isotope exchange reflects the increase in effective $t_{\rm c}$, and a giant isotope coefficient d ln $T_{\rm C}/d\ln M_{\rm o} \approx 4.9$ appears abruptly on conversion from the O' to the O^{*} phase; no measurable isotope shift was found in the antiferromagnetic O' phase containing small-polaron holes. Ordering of the occupied e-electron orbitals into the (001) planes in the O' phase is stabilized by a softer $\omega_{\rm o} \sim M_{\rm o}^{-1/2}$, which shows it is not the bending angle $\theta = (180^{\circ}-\phi)$ of the Mn–O–Mn bond *per se* that controls the O'–O^{*} transition; it is the dependence of $\omega_{\rm o}$, and hence of W of eq. (28), on ϕ that makes the polaronic to itinerant-electron transition vary so sensitively with θ . The large isotope shift of $T_{\rm C}$ is clearly associated with an instability of the static Jahn–Teller orbital ordering on the approach to a transition from localized to itinerant electronic



Fig. 41. Variation of $T_{\rm C}$ with increasing and decreasing pressure for ¹⁶O and ¹⁸O for three samples of $(\text{La}_{1-y}\text{Nd}_y)_{0.7}\text{Ca}_{0.3}\text{MnO}_3$, of figs. 36 and 37: y = 0.75 (#1, top) and y = 0.8 and 0.85 (#2 and #3, respectively, bottom); after Zhou and Goodenough (1998).

behavior where the (Mn–O) bond length has a double-well potential. It is at such a transition that we find the coexistence of two phases, one hole-rich with itinerant electrons and the other hole-poor with cooperative Jahn–Teller distortions that may be static or fluctuating.

The magnitude of $\Delta T_{\rm C}$ in the O^{*} phase on ¹⁸O/¹⁶O exchange increases with the magnitude of $dT_{\rm C}/dt > 0$, which is a maximum just above $t_{\rm c}$. The isotope shifts of $T_{\rm C}$ in samples with $t > t_{\rm c}$ at ambient pressure were similar to those reported by G.-M. Zhao et al. (1996, 1997a, 1997b). Franck et al. (1999, 2001) have reported an analogous finding in La_{1-x}Ca_xMnO₃ for 0.2 < x < 0.3 and an increase of $\Delta T_{\rm C}$ in the oxygen-excess x = 0.2 compound that does not support the Nagaev (2001b) calculation, but is due to the perturbation of the periodic potential of the MnO₃ array as a result of the cation vacancies present.

In the O' phase, T_N is determined only by superexchange interatomic interactions; the small-polaron hopping rate is too slow relative to a spin-relaxation time for a double-exchange coupling to be operative. However, the charge carriers are more mobile in the O^{*} phase and they contribute a double-exchange component to the vibronic ferromagnetic superexchange interactions of the matrix that increases with the volume fraction of the conductive ferro-

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magnetic phase. The $dT_C/dt > 0$ reflects an increase with tolerance factor t in the doubleexchange contribution to the magnetic interactions as the $(180^\circ - \phi)$ Mn–O–Mn bond angle increases. The larger mass M_0 of an ¹⁸O softens $\omega_0 \sim M_0^{-1/2}$, which lowers $\omega(\phi)$ for a given value of ϕ ; the volume fraction of the conductive ferromagnetic phase decreases as ω_0 softens and the effective t_c increases. Above the temperature of condensation of the itinerant-electron phase, the small polarons break down first by forming two-Mn Zener polarons and then, as Wincreases further, become itinerant holes. On cooling, the Zener polarons may order or may condense into a 1D or 2D itinerant-electron σ^* band where a 3D σ^* band would be narrow enough for orbital ordering. The reduction of W on ¹⁸O substitution for ¹⁶O increases the small-polaron/Zener-polaron ratio as is made evident by the increase in the high-temperature magnitude of $\alpha(T)$ in fig. 40.

In order to identify any dependence on M_0 of the character of the charge carriers in the majority conductive phase below $T_{\rm C}$, we minimized any pressure dependence by examining a ¹⁶O sample of lower *t* having a $P_{\rm c}$ close to that of the ¹⁸O-substituted (La_{0.25}Nd_{0.75})_{0.7}Ca_{0.3}MnO₃ sample. For this purpose, Zhou and Goodenough (1998) measured the pressure dependence of $\rho(T)$ for two additional ¹⁶O samples, 2 and 3 with (La_{0.2}Nd_{0.8}) and (La_{0.15}Nd_{0.85}) corresponding, respectively, to t = 0.951 and 0.949. Figure 41 (bottom) shows that the ¹⁶O sample 3 has nearly the same $P_c \approx 11$ kbar as the ¹⁸O sample having a t = 0.952. It follows that the exchange of ¹⁸O for ¹⁶O is equivalent to a shift of tolerance factor $\Delta t \approx -0.03$; hydrostatic pressure is equivalent to an increase of t by $dt/dP \approx 2.7 \times 10^{-3}$ per kbar. From fig. 41, they also observed at $P_c = 11$ kbar for ¹⁶O (La_{0.15}Nd_{0.85}) and ¹⁸O (La_{0.25}Nd_{0.75}), respectively, a thermal hysteresis $\Delta T_{\rm C} = 27$ K and 19 K; on cooling, a $dT_{\rm C}/dP = 4.0$ K/kbar and 2.7 K/kbar. The thermal hysteresis $\Delta T_{\rm C}$ should be proportional to the volume change ΔV at the first-order transition, which in turn would be proportional to the change in the mean electronic potential energy $\Delta \langle V \rangle$. From the virial theorem, eq. (19), it follows that

$$\Delta T_{\rm C} \sim \Delta \langle T \rangle | T_{\rm C} \tag{34}$$

is a measure of the change $\Delta \langle T \rangle$ in the mean kinetic energy of the charge carriers at the firstorder transition at $T_{\rm C}$. At temperatures $T > T_{\rm C}$, the charge carriers are polaronic and the ratio of small to Zener polarons is larger for the ¹⁸O sample at $P_{\rm c}$. Since itinerant electrons would have a mean kinetic energy essentially independent of $M_{\rm o}$, a $\Delta T_{\rm C}(^{18}{\rm O}) > \Delta T_{\rm C}(^{16}{\rm O})$ would follow from eq. (34), which is just the opposite to what is observed. Therefore, these data also lead to the conclusion that in the O^{*} phase near the O'-O^{*} phase boundary, the charge carriers below $T_{\rm C}$ are not conventional itinerant electrons, but interact strongly with the lattice to form "vibronic" states with a bandwidth described by eq. (29) rather than eq. (28). We also note that a larger $dT_{\rm C}/dP$ of the ¹⁶O vs. ¹⁸O sample is consistent with a smaller trapping energy of the polarons in the paramagnetic state of the ¹⁶O sample evident in fig. 40.

G.-M. Zhao et al. (2001) have subsequently shown an isotope shift of the intrinsic resistivity of the conductive ferromagnetic state of high-quality epitaxial films of two CMR manganites, La_{0.75}Ca_{0.25}MnO₃ and Nd_{0.7}Sr_{0.3}MnO₃, that supports a polaronic charge-carrier effective mass $m^* = m \exp(\lambda \varepsilon_x / \hbar \omega_0)$ below T_C as also follows from the vibronic bandwidth W of eq. (29). Alexandrov et al. (2001) have developed a theory of a "polaronic Fermi liquid" in which $m^* = m \exp(A/\omega_0)$; their model corresponds to the "vibronic" state.



Fig. 42. Magnetic phase diagrams of $(La_{0.25}Pr_{0.75})_{0.7}Ca_{0.3}$ Mn¹⁸O₃ after (a) ZFC and (b) FC procedures; open circles from M(T) and closed circles from NMR. PS = phase separation, after Yakubovskii et al. (2000).

Babushkina et al. (2000) examined the effect of partial ¹⁸O/¹⁶O exchange on the x = 0.525 sample of La_{0.7-x}Pr_xCa_{0.3}MnO₃, see fig. 29. On cooling, they found the first-order transition at $T_{\rm C}$, and $T_{\rm C}$ decreased linearly with ¹⁸O content from 95 K for all ¹⁶O to 50 K for 39% ¹⁸O; the residual resistivity increased. The $\rho(T)$ curves changed with increasing ¹⁸O content like those of fig. 36 with decreasing pressure. Above 40% ¹⁸O, the conductive ferromagnetic phase failed to percolate and remained as isolated clusters within an antiferromagnetic matrix, showing that the effective tolerance factor became $t = t_c$ at about 40% ¹⁸O. Above 90% ¹⁸O, the antiferromagnetic transition at $T_{\rm N}$ became second-order. Yakubovskii et al. (2000) performed magnetization and NMR studies on the ¹⁸O sample of La_{0.7-x}Pr_xCa_{0.3}MnO₃, x = 0.525. They showed that with increasing magnetic field, the conductive ferromagnetic phase grows irreversibly to beyond percolation. As shown in fig. 42, the zero-field-cooled (ZFC) ¹⁸O sample exhibits a magnetic-field range in which the ferromagnetic volume fraction grew to beyond percolation whereas a sample field-cooled (FC) in H = 7 T has the ferromagnetic phase-separation (PS) region intersecting the temperature axis.

An intrinsic capacitance associated with the charge-ordered phase below $T_{\rm CO} = 225$ K in Pr_{0.67}Ca_{0.33}MnO₃ was noted in the *ac*-impedance data by Rivadulla et al. (1999a); a drop in the paramagnetic susceptibility on cooling through $T_{\rm CO}$ would be consistent with a preferred crystallographic orientation of two-Mn Zener polarons below $T_{\rm CO}$. Saraf et al. (2000) subsequently showed that strong dielectric anomalies also appear at $T_{\rm N} \approx 133$ K, at the onset of spin
canting near 116 K, and at an unidentified transition at about 125 K. These anomalies appear to reflect slow reorganization responses of a cooperative lattice deformation and/or charge distribution in an electric field in the neighborhood of a transition where reorganization is occurring.

Freitas et al. (2001) have studied the dynamic properties of the magnetization of $La_{0.7-x}Y_xCa_{0.3}MnO_3, 0 \le x \le 0.15$, below a first-order metal-polaronic transition at T_C. As yttrium is added, there is a progressive appearance of cluster-glass behavior with a freezing temperature $T_{\rm f} < T_{\rm C}$. This behavior is characteristic of the coexistence of a ferromagnetic and an antiferromagnetic phase below Tf. Savosta and Novák (2001) have shown the coexistence of two different ferromagnetic phases below $T_{\rm C}$ in several R_{0.7}A_{0.3}MnO₃ compositions, including La_{0.7}Ca_{0.3}MnO₃. Both phases are conducting, but one contains fast charge carriers and the other slower charge carriers. We would interpret the former to be itinerant charge carriers that give a de Gennes double-exchange ferromagnetism and the latter to be polaronic charge carriers of a vibronic (polaron Fermi liquid) phase containing a large component of vibronic-superexchange ferromagnetism. The characteristic dimension of the vibronic phase was a few nm in La_{0.7}Ca_{0.3}MnO₃, and its volume fraction decreased with decreasing temperature. Moreover, the volume fraction of this phase at a given temperature decreased with increasing Mn–O–Mn bond angle $\theta = (180^\circ - \phi)$ for a fixed hole concentration. These data are consistent with the following interpretation of the system $La_{0,7-x}Y_xCa_{0,3}MnO_3$ in which θ decreases with increasing x. The volume fraction of the vibronic ferromagnetic phase below $T_{\rm C}$ grows with increasing x. Ordering of the Mn(III) e orbitals below $T_{\rm f}$ transforms the vibronic ferromagnetic phase to a type-A antiferromagnetic polaronic phase. Isolated antiferromagnetic clusters create a cluster glass; they reduce the spontaneous magnetization of the sample and introduce a frustration of the magnetic interactions that increases progressively with the volume fraction of the antiferromagnetic phase. A high magnetic field may disorder the Mn(III) e orbitals so as to convert the antiferromagnetic phase back to a ferromagnetic phase.

Consistent with this interpretation is a study of the La_{2/3}(Ca_{1-x}Sr_x)_{1/3}MnO₃ system by Mira et al. (2002) that, together with literature data for $(La_{1-y}R_y)_{0.7}A_{0.3}MnO_3$ compounds, indicates a second critical tolerance factor $t_c^* \approx 0.98$ (based on 12-fold rather than 9-fold coordination of A sites) for the O^{*}-orthorhombic to R-rhombohedral transition, a first-order magnetic transition occurring at T_C in the O^{*} phase (t < 0.98) and a second-order magnetic transition occurring at T_C in the R phase (t > 0.98). This critical tolerance factor is to be contrasted with the $t_c = 0.955$ for the change from the second-order magnetic transition at T_N to the first-order transition at T_C that was investigated by pressure and by ¹⁸O/¹⁶O isotope exchange, fig. 41. The large CMR phenomenon as well as a first-order magnetic transition occurs in the range $t_c < t < t_c^*$ where T_C increases dramatically with t; a discontinuous increase in the volume fraction of the more conductive ferromagnetic phase at T_C makes the magnetic transition first-order in accordance with the virial theorem, eq. (19).

In summary, the magnetic and transport properties of the $(La_{1-y}R_y)_{0.7}Ca_{0.3}MnO_3$ perovskites near the O'-O^{*} phase boundary are extraordinarily sensitive to the tolerance factor *t*, the oxygen mass M_0 , temperature, and pressure as well as to magnetic and electric fields. This sensitivity can be attributed to strong electron-lattice coupling associated with not only orderdisorder transitions of cooperative Jahn-Teller deformations, but also with an accompanying crossover from localized to itinerant electronic behavior of σ -bonding e electrons in the presence of localized t^3 configurations on the Mn atoms. At crossover, a hole-rich, conductive ferromagnetic phase segregates from a hole-poor polaronic phase that is antiferromagnetic where the cooperative Jahn-Teller distortions are long-range ordered, but is ferromagnetic where the distortions fluctuate. Condensation of two-Mn Zener polarons into a hole-rich, conductive ferromagnetic phase with a $T_{\rm C}^*$ higher than the $T_{\rm C}$ or $T_{\rm N}$ of its matrix and growth of the hole-rich phase to beyond its percolation threshold in an applied magnetic field in the interval $T_{\rm C} < T < T_{\rm C}^*$ results in the CMR phenomenon. A discontinuous increase in the volume fraction of the hole-rich phase on cooling through $T_{\rm C}$ contracts the volume discontinuously and makes the magnetic transition first-order; retention of two fluctuating ferromagnetic phases below $T_{\rm C}$ suppresses the phonons and makes the conductivity vibronic rather than itinerant. Orbital ordering in the hole-poor minority phase may occur at low temperatures to introduce magnetic frustration and cluster-glass behavior. The O'–O^{*} phase boundary depends upon the oxygen-vibration frequency; $\omega_0 > \tau_h^{-1}$ gives polaronic conduction and $\omega_0 < \tau_h^{-1}$ gives itinerant-electron behavior. The $O'-O^*$ boundary and phase segregation occur where $\omega_0 \approx \tau_{\rm b}^{-1}$. The oxygen vibrations of interest have two components, perpendicular and parallel to a Mn–O–Mn bond axis, that harden as the bond angle $\theta = (180^\circ - \phi)$ decreases, and an $\omega_0(\phi)$ enters the vibronic bandwidth W of eq. (29) for the two-phase region. Moreover, the transitions occur where $W \approx \hbar \omega_0$, which means that the phenomena vary sensitively with the tolerance factor t. The CMR phenomenon and a first-order magnetic transition are found for 30% holes in the MnO₃ array in the interval 0.955 < t < 0.98 where T_C increases dramatically with t; this critical range of tolerance factors does not change significantly in systems with varying hole concentration.

3.5. The system $La_{1-x}Sr_xMnO_3$

The phase diagram of $La_{1-x}Sr_xMnO_3$, fig. 43, has been constructed from data taken from several different sources (Urushibara et al., 1995; Kawano et al., 1996; Zhou et al., 1997, 2001b; Moritomo et al., 1997b; Dabrowski et al., 1999a; Xiong et al., 1999; Zhou and Goodenough, 2000; G.-L. Liu et al., 2001). Measurements of the temperature dependence of the transport properties and magnetic susceptibility under hydrostatic pressure have proved particularly helpful in determining, without changing composition, the nature of the transitions between competing phases that have been found in the range $0.10 \le x \le 0.20$.

In the range 0 < x < 0.1, the canted-spin antiferromagnetic phase is a small-polaron conductor, which classifies it as an insulator (CAFI). Below T_N , the antiferromagnetic component of the type-A magnetic order, eq. (14) and table 1, is oriented along the *b*-axis, the weak ferromagnetic component along the *c*-axis, and the Dzialoshinskii vector D_{ij} is along the *a*-axis in space group *Pbnm*. A ¹³⁹La study by Kumagai et al. (1999) has revealed the presence below T_N of ferromagnetic droplets appearing as a second phase by x = 0.05. Hennion et al. (2000) have observed with elastic and inelastic neutron scattering from an untwinned x = 0.06 single crystal the presence of ferromagnetic droplets three (001) layers thick with an in-plane diameter of about 17 Å; the droplets are separated by distances ≤ 38 Å within the (001) planes.



Fig. 43. Phase diagram for $\text{La}_{1-x}\text{Sr}_x\text{MnO}_3$, $0 \leq x \leq 0.20$, after Zhou and Goodenough (2001a).

These hole-rich droplets represent a ferromagnetic second phase having a $T_{\rm C} < T_{\rm N}$; the volume fraction of this minority phase grows with increasing *x*, and in the range $0.1 \le x \le 0.13$ the droplets are condensed into large clusters having $T_{\rm C} > T_{\rm N}$. The crossover from $T_{\rm C} < T_{\rm N}$ to $T_{\rm C} > T_{\rm N}$ occurs at about x = 0.10 near a point where the 2D orbital order–disorder transition (or onset of orbitally disordered clusters) at T^* (same T^* as in fig. 14) crosses $T_{\rm N}$.

The compositional dependence of the structural O'–O^{*} transition at T_{JT} and the O^{*}–R transition at T_{OR} can be clearly followed by monitoring the temperature dependence of the resistance (Mandal et al., 2001); monitoring the variation with x of the higher-order transition at T^* from the resistance curve R(T) is more subtle and has been accomplished with further aid from the thermoelectric power $\alpha(T)$ measured on single crystals (Zhou and Goodenough, 2000). The transition from polaronic to itinerant electronic behavior in the paramagnetic R-rhombohedral phase has not been studied.

In the narrow compositional range $0.10 \le x \le 0.13$, a spin-glass behavior is found in very low applied magnetic fields below a spin-freezing temperature $T_{\rm f}$. The spin-glass character of the magnetic ordering is manifested in the magnetic susceptibility (Skumryev et al., 2000) as well as in the collapse of the Λ anomaly in the specific heat of the x = 0.10 sample at the magnetic-ordering temperature, fig. 44. However, the spin glass is converted to a ferromagnetic phase in a modest applied magnetic field with $T_{\rm C} \approx T_{\rm f}$; the volume fraction of the ferromagnetic phase grows at the expense of the O' antiferromagnetic phase in an applied magnetic field, and the sample becomes "ferromagnetic" where the volume fraction of the ferromagnetic phase exceeds the percolation threshold. It is only below a $T_{\rm OO}$ that the samples become fully ferromagnetic. The transition at $T_{\rm OO}$ is first-order, see the $C_{\rm p}$ data for x = 0.11and x = 0.12, where there is a discontinuous change in the ferromagnetic volume fraction on



Fig. 44. Magnetization M(T) in H = 20 Oe and 5 kOe; specific heat $C_p(T)$ for $\text{La}_{1-x}\text{Sr}_x\text{MnO}_3, 0 \le x \le 0.19$: $O = C_p; \Delta = M(T)$ in 5 kOe; simple solid line = M(T) in 20 Oe. Arrows indicate warming vs. cooling curves, after G.-L. Liu et al. (2001).







cooling through T_{OO} . For $x \ge 0.13$, the system becomes ferromagnetic below T_C in zero applied magnetic field, and the transition at T_{OO} becomes second-order. In fig. 43, the FI phase appearing below T_{OO} is labeled O"-orthorhombic.

The ferromagnetic-insulator (FI) phase appearing below T_{OO} is both charge and orbitally ordered. Klingeler et al. (2002) who have also tracked the changes in the specific-heat anomalies appearing in the range $T_{OO} \leq T \leq T_{C}$, pointed out that the entropy changes can be accounted for with only the calculated changes in spin entropy and concluded that the phase changes must be driven by the exchange interactions. Therefore, the character of the orbital and charge order below T_{OO} and how it supports 3D ferromagnetic interatomic interactions is an important question that remains controversial. Whether the first-order transition at $T_{\rm OO}$ in x = 0.125 is due to charge ordering as originally reported by Yamada et al. (1996) or to an orbitally ordered state as proposed by Endoh et al. (1999) appears to have been resolved by Yamada et al. (2000), who provided evidence for both orbital and charge ordering, but with the charge ordering appearing as a c-axis charge-density wave (CDW) of opposite phase on neighboring c-axis Mn–O–Mn columns to give a unit-cell size $(\sqrt{2} \times \sqrt{2} \times 4)_{cubic}$. Ordering of long and short Mn–O bonds in the (001) planes as in LaMnO₃ gives the ferromagnetic planar interactions of the type-A antiferromagnetic structure. Ordering of the holes into static CDWs along the *c*-axis rows can give ferromagnetic coupling along the *c*-axis as well. In the interval $0.05 \le x \le 0.10$, the ferromagnetic plate-like second phase consists of hole-rich regions in which ferromagnetic coupling between ferromagnetic planes replaces the antiferromagnetic coupling of the type-A antiferromagnetic matrix.

Transitions between the competing phases existing at x = 1/8 have been tracked by high-frequency conductivity measurements (F. Mayr et al., 2000) and exposure to X-rays has been shown (Casa et al., 2001) to induce conductive transitions with memory at temperatures $T < T_{OO}$.

In the range $0.13 \le x \le 0.15$, T_C and T_{OO} increase with x; T_C undergoes a first-order jump where it crosses T_{JT} . In the paramagnetic range $T_C < T < T_{JT}$, the O' structure signals an ordering of the occupied e orbitals of the matrix into the (001) planes, but either the in-plane order fluctuates or there are orbitally disordered clusters within the matrix ($T > T^*$). Threedimensional orbital fluctuations dominate in the interval $T_{OO} < T < T_C$ where the system is a ferromagnetic vibronic conductor (FV). The greater orbital disorder is stabilized by ferromagnetic vibronic superexchange that supplements the Zener double exchange.

The resistivity data of fig. 45(a) reflect the transitions T_{JT} , T_C , T_{OO} , and T_{OR} . On cooling, the step increase at T_{JT} shows the transition changes from second-order for x = 0.12 and 0.13 to first-order at x = 0.14 where it approaches T_C . This change is also evident in the specific-heat anomaly of fig. 44. Rozenberg et al. (1994) have predicted that such a change should occur at a transition from localized to itinerant electronic behavior. The resistivity drops on cooling through T_C as a result of reduction of the spin-disorder scattering; it increases abruptly on cooling through the first-order transition at T_{OO} in the x = 0.11 and 0.12 samples. By x = 0.14, the transition at T_{OO} is no longer first-order and is only marked by a smooth minimum in $\rho(T)$. For x > 0.15, the minimum in $\rho(T)$ at T_{OO} is less sharp and drops sharply with increasing x. Moreover, the metallic conductivity in the interval $T_{OO} < T < T_C$ changes abruptly from vibronic to itinerant; a pressure experiment on a single-



Fig. 45. (a) Resistivity vs. for temperature melt-grown single-crystal samples of $La_{1-x}Sr_xMnO_3$. Critical points; $\blacklozenge = T_{\text{JT}}$ where $|d\rho/dT|$ is a maximum; $\Delta \approx T_{\rm f}$ or $T_{\rm C}$ where $d\rho/dT$ is a maximum; $O = T_{OO}$ where $\rho(T)$ is a local minimum. T_{OR} = midpoint of thermal hysteresis below $T_{\rm C}$ for $0.17 \le x \le 0.19$. Arrows indicate heating and cooling at thermal hysteresis loops, after G.-L. Liu et al. (2001).

crystal x = 0.14 sample (Zhou and Goodenough, 2000) showed the transition from vibronic to itinerant electronic behavior is first-order, which conforms to prediction from the virial theorem of eq. (19), see fig. 45(b). Although the FI phase below T_{OO} changes character on crossing the vibronic-itinerant electronic transition in the O^{*} phase, becoming more conductive in the range 0.15 < x < 0.17 where the temperature of the transition from FI to ferromagnetic metal (FM) decreases with increasing *x*, nevertheless a spinodal segregation into FI and FM phases at this first-order transition was only detected in pressure measurements made on a single-crystal x = 0.16 sample (Zhou et al., 2001b). In the interval $0.13 \le x \le 0.15$, the FV to FI transition occurs over an extended temperature interval where the magnetic-exchange driving force for orbital order is sharply reduced at a ferromagnetic ferromagnetic transition.



Fig. 45. (b) Pressure-temperature phase diagram below room temperature for $La_{0.86}Sr_{0.14}MnO_3$, after Zhou and Goodenough (2000).

The CMR phenomenon, not indicated in fig. 43, occurs above $T_{\rm C}$ in the O' phase; it is largest at $x \approx 0.12$ where isolated FV O^{*} clusters in a paramagnetic O' matrix grow to beyond percolation in an applied magnetic field. This evolution with x of physical properties bears a striking resemblance to that which occurs with δ in the LaMnO_{3+ δ} samples. Uhlenbruch et al. (1999) and Nojiri et al. (1999) have shown that the FI phase below $T_{\rm OO}$ is stabilized relative to the FV phase by an applied magnetic field as can be expected for an exchange-driven transition. Senis et al. (1998) and Martínez et al. (2000) report that the FI phase is also stabilized by pressure whereas the FI phase in the LaMnO_{3+ δ} system was suppressed by pressure. This observation signals that the charges are more localized in the FI phase of LaMnO_{3+ δ}.

The data of fig. 43 reveal three distinguishable ferromagnetic phases: FV, FI, and FM. The ferromagnetic interactions in the FV phase are composed of vibronic superexchange supplemented by Zener double exchange; the interactions in the FM phase may be classified as de Gennes double exchange. Those in the (001) planes of the FI phase appear to be conventional superexchange interactions whereas those along the *c*-axis CDWs are unconventional.



Fig. 46. Magnetization at 5 K in 50 kOe for La_{1-x} Sr_xMnO₃, $0 \le x \le 0.35$. Solid line: $(4-x)\mu_B/Mn$. Dashed line is a guide to the eye. Inset: *M* (5 K) vs. applied magnetic field, after G.-L. Liu et al. (2001).

Figure 46 shows the evolution with *x* of the magnetization at 5 K in 50 kOe. The abrupt change from canted-spin to frustrated ferromagnet at x = 0.10 is dramatic. Significant also is the observation that the saturation magnetization *M* (5 K, 50 kOe) has the spin-only theoretical value $M_{\rm S} = (4 - x)\mu_{\rm B}/{\rm Mn}$ for the FM phase $x \ge 0.18$, but it is larger in the O" phase in the range 0.11 < x < 0.18, reaching a maximum value of $4.4\mu_{\rm B}/{\rm Mn}$ at x = 0.15. This enhancement of the saturation magnetization is unique to the O" phase of the La_{1-x}Sr_xMnO₃ system; it has not been observed in the La_{1-x}Ca_xMnO₃ system where the insulator O" phase does not occur. Although the orbital angular momentum is quenched in lowest-order perturbation theory at both Mn(III) and Mn(IV) in octahedral sites, the data indicate that where the Mn(III) e electrons are localized, an orbital contribution to the atomic moment is introduced by higher-order terms; where the electrons of e-orbital parentage are itinerant, the orbital contribution is progressively suppressed as the mean hole mobility in the O" phase increases with *x* in the range 0.15 < x < 0.18.

Neutron-scattering experiments by Vasiliu-Doloc et al. (1998a) on an x = 0.15 sample showed the ferromagnetic order below $T_{\rm C} = 235$ K developed a canted-spin structure below



Fig. 47. Temperature dependence of the thermal conductivity $\kappa(T)$ for selected single-crystal compositions of the system La_{1-x}Sr_xMnO₃. (a) x = 0, 0.08 and LaMnO_{3+ δ} ($\delta = 0$ and 0.07); the lines in κ^{-1} vs. *T* for x = 0 are linear fitting.

a $T_{CA} = 205$ K. Pressure experiments on an x = 0.14 single crystal showed a first-order jump in T_C where T_{JT} crosses T_C at about 2 kbar (Zhou and Goodenough, 2000) see fig. 45(b); at ambient pressure the two ferromagnetic phases would have $T_C \approx 205$ K and 235 K on either side of the transition at T_{JT} . Therefore, the change at 205 K may be attributed to crossing T_{JT} in a phase a little more hole rich than x = 0.14. The long-wavelength magnetic excitations were conventional spin waves, but an anomalously strong quasielastic component developed at small wave vector above about 200 K where the two magnetic phases coexist. Asamitsu et al. (1995, 1996) have shown that an x = 0.170 sample can be switched from the O^{*}-orthorhombic to the R-rhombohedral structure by the application of an external magnetic field; the switching is reversible or irreversible depending on the temperature. Campbell et al. (1997) have confirmed the phenomenon on a single-crystal x = 0.165 sample with neutron diffraction. The x = 0.17 composition sits in the FI-FM two-phase region.

The temperature dependence of the thermal conductivity for selected single-crystal compositions over the range $0 \le x \le 0.12$ are shown in fig. 47 (Zhou and Goodenough, 2001a, 2001b). They were chosen to probe the changes occurring on crossing the several phase transitions shown in fig. 43. Whereas the x = 0 compound exhibits a strong phonon component, $\kappa(T)$ is strongly suppressed at all temperatures in the x = 0.08 samples where holes, partic-



Fig. 47. (b) x = 0.12, 0.14, 0.15, 0.16, 0.17, 0.19: open circles for $\kappa(T)$, dashed line is $\kappa - \kappa_e$ where the electronic component κ_e was obtained from the Wiedermann–Franz Law, solid line is for resistivity $\rho(T)$, after Zhou and Goodenough (2001a).

ularly mobile holes, introduce orbital fluctuations that eliminate the phonon contribution. In the x = 0.12 sample, $\kappa(T)$ is extremely small in the O^{*} phase above T_{OO} ; there is only a small increase in $\kappa(T)$ on cooling through $T_{\rm JT}$ where the orbital disorder changes from 3D to 2D on entering the O' phase above T^* and there is a smooth decrease on cooling through $T_{\rm C}$ where two-phase fluctuations and vibronic superexchange retain Mn–O bond-length fluctuations. However, on cooling through the first-order transition at T_{OO} , a phonon contribution to $\kappa(T)$ is restored as a result of orbital and charge ordering in the FI phase. The x = 1/8phase below T_{OO} appears to have a charge commensurability; where the transition at T_{OO} is second-order (0.14 $\leq x \leq 0.16$), the phonons are only restored at the lower transition temperature T_{LO} of fig. 43 where charge commensurability probably occurs. In the x = 0.14 sample, a $T_{JT} \approx T_C$ masks the jump in $\kappa(T)$ on cooling through T_{JT} . In the x = 0.16 sample, $\kappa(T)$ is suppressed in the orbitally fluctuating O^* phase above T_{C} , but it increases on cooling through $T_{\rm C}$ into the FM phase where the electrons become itinerant rather than vibronic. However, on cooling through the insulator-metal transition at $T_{\rm IM}$, $\kappa(T)$ is again suppressed, which contrasts with cooling through T_{OO} in x = 0.12. In the x = 0.17 crystal, spin-lattice interactions suppress $\kappa(T)$ above $T_{\rm C}$, see fig. 19 (Zhou and Goodenough, 2002a); the decrease in $\kappa(T)$ on cooling below 110 K is due to the appearance of two-phase fluctuations, see fig. 43. There is also a drop in $\kappa(T)$ on cooling through T_{OR} ; the rhombohedral phase does not support any orbital fluctuations within the metallic matrix. Note the change of scale for the x = 0.19 crystal where $\kappa(T)$ exhibits a strong phonon component below $T_{\rm C}$. These data demonstrate the utility of monitoring $\kappa(T)$ to determine the existence of bond-length fluctuations.

Figure 48 extends the phase diagram of $La_{1-x}Sr_xMnO_3$ to include the region $0.2 \leq$ $x \leq 1.0$. Optical studies of the ferromagnetic ground state of single-crystal samples with $0.15 \le x \le 0.4$ have revealed that the low-energy optical conductivity changes with decreasing x from Drude-like for x > 0.2 to incoherent broad features for x < 0.2 with spectral weight transferred to the mid-infrared region (Saitoh et al., 2000). Temperature-dependent reflectivity spectra on a single-crystal x = 0.175 sample showed a crossover with decreasing temperature from incoherent to coherent behavior (Takenaka et al., 1999, 2000). Analysis of the relaxation of the uniform-precession magnons into other spin-wave modes in an electronspin-resonance (ESR) experiment on x = 0.33 samples did not require the introduction of magnetocrystalline anisotropy or chemical inhomogeneities; the data could be fit to a model in which the relaxation was due to demagnetizing fields at pores or between grains in polycrystalline materials or from surface irregularities in single crystals (Rivadulla et al., 1999b). Vasiliu-Doloc et al. (1998b) have used cold-neutron triple-axis measurements of single-crystal x = 0.2 and 0.3 samples to investigate the long-wavelength spin dynamics. They found that both systems behave like isotropic ferromagnets at low temperatures. However, an anomalously strong quasielastic central peak develops and dominates the fluctuation spectrum as $T \rightarrow T_{\rm C}$. It appears that the coexistence of spin-wave excitations and spin diffusion is a common characteristic in manganese-oxide perovskites and may be related to phase fluctuations responsible for the CMR phenomenon. These data are consistent with earlier studies of the magnetization M(T) in the FM phase near x = 0.3 that showed a decrease of M(T) with increasing temperature compatible with spin-wave excitations (Smolyaninova et al., 1997) but the spin dynamics near $T_{\rm C}$ showed evidence of strong electron-lattice interactions (Fernández-



Fig. 48. Phase diagram of $La_{1-x}Sr_xMnO_3$, $0 \le x \le 0.7$, after Zhou and Goodenough (2001a); B. Dabrowski (private communication).

Baca et al., 1998). The volume of an x = 0.3 sample showed a smooth contraction on cooling through $T_{\rm C}$ (Martin et al., 1996).

Several research groups place the boundary between the FM and AFM phases beyond x = 0.5; this boundary varies sensitively with the method of sample preparation. Fujishiro et al. (1998) place it in the range 0.48 < x < 0.50. As discussed in more detail in sect. 3.7, several phases compete with one another in the $R_{0.5}A_{0.5}MnO_3$ samples (R =lanthanide, A =alkaline earth), the more stable varying with the tolerance factor *t*. In the $R_{1-x}Sr_xMnO_3$ system, a relatively large tolerance factor stabilizes a competition between the FM phase with 3D itinerant electrons and a type-A AFM phase in which the occupied e orbitals become ordered into the (001) planes to give 2D itinerant electrons in these planes and antiferromagnetic superexchange coupling between planes as in the type-A (CAFI) insulating phase in LaMnO₃. Dho et al. (2001) investigated the thermal hysteresis of magnetization and resistivity at T_N in the range $0.5 \le x \le 0.6$. They observed a normal counter-clockwise hysteresis (T_N higher on heating, lower on cooling) for the magnetic transition, but the resistivity $\rho(T)$ showed an anomalous clockwise thermal hysteresis in the compositional range where a $T_N < T_C$ is found. From these experiments, it is apparent that a two-phase region extends either side of the magnetic AFM-FM transition temperature T_N .

As the tolerance factor increases with x to t = 1, the room-temperature symmetry changes from orthorhombic to rhombohedral to tetragonal to cubic. With $x \ge 0.8$, a t > 1 stabilizes a

hexagonal polytype, but the cubic phase may be obtained by quenching a reduced LaMnO_{3- δ} to room temperature and then oxidizing at lower temperatures. A type-C antiferromagnetic order reported for the range 0.65 < x < 0.95 includes two-phase regions on either sides of a narrower single phase, but the boundaries of the fluctuating two-phase regions have not been mapped. The type-C antiferromagnetic order, table 1, consists of ferromagnetic Mn–O– Mn chains along the *c*-axis with antiferromagnetic coupling between the chains. This type of magnetic order reflects an ordering of the e electrons into a 1D *c*-axis majority-spin σ^* band below T_N that is occupied by (1 - x) electrons per formula unit; the 1D band may support a charge-density wave.

3.6. The system $La_{1-x}Ca_xMnO_3$

The relative stabilities of the competing phases in the manganese-oxide perovskites depend critically on the tolerance factor *t*, which is smaller in the $La_{1-x}Ca_xMnO_3$ system than in $La_{1-x}Sr_xMnO_3$. A smaller *t* generates a greater bending of the $(180^\circ - \phi)$ Mn–O–Mn bond, and the R-rhombohedral phase is only found at higher temperatures. The O^{*}–R transition temperature T_{OR} of the phase diagram of fig. 49 is taken from Uehara et al. (private communication) and Cheong and Chen (1998). Early studies of the properties of the system were plagued by a variable oxygen stoichiometry, particularly for compositions with smaller *x*. Dabrowski et al. (1999b, 1999c) have made a careful study of the conditions under which cation vacancies are formed and their influence on the physical properties of the $La_{1-x}Ca_xMnO_3$ system.

As in the La_{1-x}Sr_xMnO₃ system, the O'-O^{*} transition at T_{JT} decreases sharply with x. Although the disproportionation reaction occurring at T_{JT} in LaMnO₃ is retained at smaller values of x, it is found at a $T_D > T_{JT}$. Unlike the La_{1-x}Sr_xMnO₃ system, the concentration of mobile small polarons and the activation energy of their mobility change little at T_{JT} . Therefore, T_{JT} is not tracked by monitoring the resistivity, but by following the evolution with x of the O'-O^{*} structural transition or the associated specific-heat anomaly. The O^{*} phase is pseudocubic, but the MnO_{6/2} octahedra are rotated ca. 20° about the *b*-axis (space group *Pbnm*) relative to the ideal cubic-perovskite structure (Faaland et al., 1998) and locally cooperative Jahn–Teller deformations sustain a $c/a \approx \sqrt{2}$. High-resolution neutron powder diffraction (Radaelli et al., 1996, 1997a; García-Muñoz et al., 1997) extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) (Subías et al., 1998) and optical-conductivity spectra (Jung et al., 1998) have established the presence of dynamic distortions of the MnO_{6/2} octahedra in the O^{*} phase above T_C and a dramatic suppression of these distortions in the ferromagnetic metallic (FM) phase below T_C .

Above T_N or T_C , the conductivity of the O' and O^{*} phases fit the adiabatic dielectric-polaron model $\alpha = (A/T) \exp(-E_a/kT)$ over the entire doping range (Worledge et al., 1998). However, thermoelectric-power data show that the charge carriers evolve from small polarons to two-manganese Zener polarons with increasing x (see discussion of fig. 31). These polarons are to be distinguished from the second phase into which they progressively condense on cooling as a result of a spinodal phase segregation into hole-rich ferromagnetic, vibronic (FV) clusters within a paramagnetic O' or O^{*} matrix. (These clusters are mistakenly referred to as conventional magnetic polarons in some of the literature.) The speckled area of fig. 49 denotes the spinodal region, but this region has not been systematically mapped by experiment.



Fig. 49. Temperature -x phase diagram of $La_{1-x}Ca_xMnO_3$.

The hole-rich clusters grow with x and with decreasing temperature; and below a critical temperature $T_{sp} > T_N$ or T_C , they become superparamagnetic FV clusters. An external magnetic field stabilizes the FV phase relative to the paramagnetic matrix in the interval $T_C < T < T_{sp}$; and where the clusters grow to beyond percolation in the applied field, the resistance drops to give a "colossal negative magnetoresistance", which is known as the CMR phenomenon. Moreover, the volume fraction of the FV phase grows to beyond percolation on cooling to a $T_C > T_N$, and a first-order phase change occurs at T_C due to a discontinuous increase in the volume fraction of the FV phase in the internal molecular field present below T_C . As the volume fraction of the FV phase at a given T grows with increasing x, T_C increases until the magnetic transition at T_C becomes second-order.

The initial substitution of Ca for La is charge-compensated by the introduction of Mn(IV) ions that, at lower temperatures, become trapped at one of the 8 nearest neighbors to a Ca²⁺ ion (Matsumoto, 1970b; Alonso et al., 2001). Elastic and inelastic neutron scattering have indicated that by x = 0.05, hole-rich ferromagnetic droplets form within the CAFI matrix with a correlation length $\xi \approx 8-10$ Å (Hennion et al., 1997). Local ferromagnetic order only requires an inversion of the *c*-axis interactions within a droplet, which can occur for hole-rich droplets. The existence of ferromagnetic clusters within the CAFI O' matrix was found below T_N over the range $0.05 \le x \le 0.10$ with evidence that the phase segregation extends into the paramagnetic phase (Moussa et al., 1999). Direct evidence for phase segregation above as well as below T_C or T_N in the interval $0.05 \le x \le 0.3$ has also been found with Mössbauer

spectroscopy (Chechersky et al., 1997, 1999a, 2001; Nath et al., 2000; Hannoyer et al., 2000) and Mn K-edge EXAFS (Lanzara et al., 1998). Allodi et al. (1997, 1998a), Papavassiliou et al. (1999), and Dho et al. (1999a) have used ¹³⁹La and ⁵⁵Mn NMR to show the growth of the volume fraction of a ferromagnetic phase in the paramagnetic matrix with increasing x. Heffner et al. (2001) used muon-spin-relaxation measurements on a series of samples in the range $0 \le x \le 0.10$; fast relaxation rates were assigned to the ferromagnetic regions, which is consistent with FV behavior, and a slow Mn relaxation rate to the antiferromagnetic matrix. Markovich et al. (2002) employed several techniques on an x = 0.18 single crystal to demonstrate the existence of a ferromagnetic second phase both above and below T_C and growth of the ferromagnetic volume fraction not only in an applied magnetic field, but also under hydrostatic pressure. Hydrostatic pressure stabilizes the phase of smaller volume, which indicates the ferromagnetic phase has vibronic σ -bonding states, i.e., it is an FV phase, whereas the matrix contains localized electrons in orbitally ordered states. However, the CMR phenomenon only occurs where the volume fraction of the ferromagnetic FV phase approaches percolation in the paramagnetic phase and achieves percolation on cooling through a $T_{\rm C} > T_{\rm N}$ (Biotteau et al., 2001). On the other hand, Congeduti et al. (2001) found, with Raman spectroscopy from a polycrystalline x = 0.25 sample, an abrupt transition at ca. 7.5 GPa to an orbitally ordered phase, and Meneghini et al. (2002) monitored the resistance of the same sample to show that the transition prevents transformation under pressure from the FV to the FM phase. Although pressure increases the tolerance factor, the FM phase was not reached because pressure also stabilizes orbital order, but probably as an ordering of two-manganese Zener polarons as in the low-temperature O'' phase of the $La_{1-x}Sr_xMnO_3$ system. The transition to poorer conductivity at higher pressures was also noted by Okuda et al. (2000) and by J.-M. Li et al. (2001).

On cooling through $T_{\rm C}$ in the range $0.10 \le x \le 0.30$, there is a first-order volume contraction associated with a discontinuous increase in the volume fraction of the more conductive FV and FM phases (Radaelli et al., 1996; Huang et al., 1998) where electrons tunnel from Mn(III) to Mn(IV) neighbors in a time $\tau_h \leq \omega_0^{-1}$. In contrast, the transition from the paramagnetic phase to the CAFI phase at T_N is second-order with a smooth evolution of the volume. The charge carriers in the CAFI matrix remain polaronic. On cooling through $T_{\rm C}$ in the range $0.25 \le x \le 0.45$, the FV phase changes to the ferromagnetic metallic (FM) phase, but no study has been made of whether this transition is first-order as in $La_{1-x}Sr_xMnO_3$. However, Lynn et al. (1996), Erwin et al. (1997), and Dai et al. (2000) have used inelastic neutron scattering to study the evolution with temperature of the spin dynamics in the ferromagnetic phase; they found that the FM phase behaves as an ideal isotropic ferromagnet at low temperatures, but it develops an anomalous spin-diffusion component above ca. 200 K that progressively dominates the spin-fluctuation spectrum as the temperature increases to $T_{\rm C}$. This behavior signals a transition from the FM toward the FV state as T increases to $T_{\rm C}$. Dai et al. (2001) also studied the evolution of diffuse scattering from magnetic and lattice fluctuations in single-crystal x = 0.15, 0.20, and 0.30 compositions. The x = 0.30 sample showed an unambiguous transition to a FM phase on cooling through $T_{\rm C}$ whereas the x = 0.15 and 0.20 crystals exhibited a transition on cooling through $T_{\rm C}$ to a phase with strong electron-lattice interactions, which we identify with the FV phase. The FV-FM transition occurs near the crossover of T_{JT} and T_C



Fig. 50. Type-CE antiferromagnetic order in a-b planes; antiferromagnetic coupling above *c*-axis in space group *Pbnm*; (a) ordering of localized occupied e orbitals after Goodenough (1955), and (b) ordering of Zener polarons.

in the range 0.20 < x < 0.25, which is at a higher x than in the La_{1-x}Sr_xMnO₃ as expected for smaller tolerance factor t.

As in the La_{1-x}Sr_xMnO₃ system, the percolating conductive FV matrix containing an antiferromagnetic second phase converts to a ferromagnetic-insulator (FI) phase below a T_{OO} in the compositional range 0.10 < x < 0.25. A sound-velocity anomaly at T_{OO} and at T_{C} allows tracking of these temperatures vs. x (Fujishiro et al., 1999). Transport measurements (G. Zhao et al., 2000; Hong et al., 2001) have revealed polaronic conduction in the FI phase, but not in the FM phase.

The coexistence of two competing phases sensitive to light, to external magnetic or electric fields, and to pressure has led to many studies by a variety of techniques of the peculiar properties of samples in the range $0.10 \le x \le 0.35$ (Ilisavskii et al., 2001; Fisher et al., 2001; Gordon et al., 2002; Cordero et al., 2002; Ren et al., 2001; Hudspeth et al., 2002; Zuo and Tao, 2001; Reutler et al., 2000; Raquet et al., 2000; Zhu et al., 1999; Hueso et al., 1999; Causa et al., 1998; Kumar et al., 2002; Lobad et al., 2001; Mayr et al., 2001; Yoon et al., 1998; Papavassiliou et al., 2001; Huhtinen et al., 2000; Yuzhelevski et al., 2001).

On the opposite side of the maximum in $T_{\rm C}$ vs. *x* at x = 3/8, the FM phase competes with a type-CE antiferromagnetic phase having the magnetic and charge order of fig. 50(a). In the range 0.4 < $x \le 0.5$, the FM and type-CE phases coexist (Moritomo, 1999). The phase diagram shows a $T_{\rm CO} < T < T_{\rm C}$. Here also an external magnetic field stabilizes the conductive FM phase relative to the type-CE antiferromagnetic-insulator (AFI) as is illustrated in fig. 51 for Nd_{0.5}Sr_{0.5}MnO₃ (Shimomura et al., 1999). The metamagnetism of the CE phase provides another type of CMR phenomenon.



Fig. 51. (a) Temperature dependence of the resistivity $\rho(T)$ of Nd_{0.5}Sr_{0.5}MnO₃ under various magnetic fields. (b) Temperature-field phase diagram; after Shimomura et al. (1999).

Whereas the type-CE AFI phase competes with the FM phase in the range $0.4 < x \le 0.5$ of $La_{1-x}Ca_xMnO_3$, reduction of the tolerance factor by substitution of Pr for La in $La_{5/8-x}Pr_xCa_{3/8}MnO_3$ introduces already at small x a charge-ordered second phase (Kim et al., 2000a); $Pr_{5/8}Ca_{3/8}MnO_3$ undergoes charge ordering below a $T_{CO} \approx 225$ K that becomes an AFI phase below a $T_N \approx 175$ K (Dediu et al., 2000). In this sample, the Curie temperature of any FM minority phase is $T_C < T_{CO}$. The $(La_{1-y}Pr_y)_{0.67}Ca_{0.33}MnO_3$ system shows a similar percolation transition from a FM for y = 0 to an orbital and charge-ordered insulator for y > 0.75, see sect. 3.4; the volume fraction of the conductive, ferromagnetic phase grows on lowering the temperature (Kim et al., 2000a; Dediu et al., 2000; Uehara et al., 1999; Podzorov et al., 2000; Babushkina et al., 1999). Smolyaninova et al. (2002) have studied the influence of isotope exchange on a number of samples in the $La_{1-x}Ca_xMnO_3$ and $(La_{1-y}Pr_y)_{0.67}Ca_{0.33}MnO_3$ systems. The most prominent isotope shift of the transition temperatures is in the two-phase compositions; the two-phase fluctuations are thus shown to be accommodated by cooperative, dynamic oxygen displacements perpendicular and/or along the $(180^\circ - \phi)$ Mn–O–Mn bond axes.

The predicted charge and orbital ordering of fig. 50(a) for the CE phase (Wollan and Koehler, 1955; Goodenough, 1955) was thought to be fully corroborated (Radaelli et al., 1995, 1997b). However, as discussed in detail in sect. 3.7 for the $R_{0.5}A_{0.5}MnO_3$ compositions, it is necessary to distinguish the type-CE phase appearing below a $T_N \leq T_{CO} < T_C$

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from that stabilized below a $T_N < T_{CO}$ where the Curie temperature for the competing FM phase is $T_C < T_{CO}$. Rivadulla et al. (2002) predicted that the charge and orbital ordering of fig. 50(a) occurs where there is a $T_{CO} > T_C$, but that the ferromagnetic zig-zag chains contain the two-manganese Zener pairs of fig. 50(b) where a dominant FM phase makes $T_C > T_{CO}$. La_{0.5}Ca_{0.5}MnO₃ has a $T_N \leq T_{CO} < T_C$, and a recent single-crystal neutron-diffraction study (Daoud-Aladine et al., 2002) has shown independently that indeed the CE phase below T_N contains the ordering of Zener polarons indicated in fig. 50(b). However, the competition in La_{0.5}Ca_{0.5}MnO₃ between the FM phase with $T_C > T_{CO}$ and the charge-ordered phase with $T_{CO} > T_C$ is made complicated by an extreme sensitivity of the critical temperatures and the respective volume fractions on the oxygen stoichiometry (Y.G. Zhao et al., 2002; Levy et al., 2000), the grain size of the polycrystalline samples (Levy et al., 2000; Freitas et al., 2002), and thermal cycling (Uehara and Cheong, 2000) as well as on the Ca concentration *x*. A variety of techniques have been used to characterize this situation.

Huang et al. (2000) examined with neutron diffraction three polycrystalline samples with x = 0.47, 0.50, and 0.52. They reported single-phase paramagnetic materials with a spinodal phase segregation occurring below a first-order orbital-ordering (OO) transition at $T_{OO} < T_{C}$. In the interval $T_{\rm OO} < T < T_{\rm C}$, the FM phase coexisted with a paramagnetic phase that underwent the first-order transition at T_{OO} . The x = 0.47 sample had a $T_{C} = 265$ K and a $T_{\rm OO} = 230$ K. The OO phase had the smaller volume fraction, and the volume fraction of the FM phase increased on the formation of the OO phase. Below a Néel temperature $T_{\rm N} = 160$ K of the OO phase, the diffraction peaks sharpened and the structure could be indexed as that of the type-CE AFI phase. The volume fraction of the FM phase remained 0.6 to lowest temperatures in the x = 0.47 sample; it decreased with increasing x, but was still present as a minority phase in the x = 0.52 sample. However, a diffraction experiment does not detect phase fluctuations that may be occurring in the paramagnetic phase above $T_{\rm C}$. Kim et al. (2000b) noted a suppression of the conductivity $\sigma(T)$ and of the phonon component of the thermal conductivity as well as a broadening of the diffraction peaks to temperatures as high as 900 K, and Naler et al. (2002) used inelastic light scattering to show strong fluctuation effects persisting in an x = 0.50 sample to at least $2T_{OO}$. In another experiment, Kim et al. (2002) used optical spectroscopy to monitor the gap Δ that is opened at the Fermi energy by stabilization of the CE AFI phase. They found a $2\Delta/kT_{OO} \approx 30$ for x = 0.5 that decreased rapidly with increasing x even though T_{OO} had a broad maximum at about x = 0.62. They also noted that an optical pseudogap is present well above $T_{\rm CO}$, setting in below a $T^* \approx 600$ K where independent evidence for phase fluctuations had been found. The existence of two-phase fluctuations persisting well into the paramagnetic temperature range appears to be well-established.

The coexistence of the two phases to lowest temperatures near x = 0.5 has also been demonstrated indirectly by ultrasonic sound velocity (Zheng et al., 2001) as well as by magnetization and conductivity measurements (Y.G. Zhao et al., 2002; Levy et al., 2000; Xiao et al., 1996; Schiffer et al., 1995; Roy et al., 1998, 1999) and more directly by ¹¹⁹Sn and ⁵⁷Fe Mössbauer spectroscopies (Simopoulos et al., 2001; Kallias et al., 1999), electron diffraction (Chen and Cheong, 1996; Mori et al., 1998a), NMR (Dho et al., 1999b; Allodi et al., 1998b, 2000; Yoshinari et al., 1999; Papavassiliou et al., 1997), and infrared (Liu et al., 1998) spectroscopies. Mori et al. (1998a) showed that in their x = 0.5 sample the length scale of the two

phases increased on cooling from 100-120 Å at 200 K to 500-600 Å at 125 K before converting below 95 K to an OO type-CE AFI matrix. The critical magnetic field for conversion of the metamagnetic CE AFI phase to the FM phase was found to be about 8 T on increasing an external magnetic field H and 3 T on lowering the field (Freitas et al., 2002). Moreover, Huang et al. (2000) reported that the volume fraction of the FM phase increased more for a given H field if the sample was cooled in the magnetic field than if warmed in that field after cooling in zero field. Uehara and Cheong (2000) showed that the extent of the first-order conversion from one phase to another in an applied field depends on the rate of cooling or heating and on aging to relieve the internal stresses associated with the volume changes that occur; the phase transition is not martensitic. The electron-diffraction study of Chen and Cheong (1996) revealed domains of incommensurate charge ordering in the FM matrix in the range $T_{\rm OO} < T < T_{\rm C}$ with a first-order change at $T_{\rm OO}$ to long-range ordering of the commensurate OO phase below T_{OO} . The existence of two phases was not due to any inhomogeneity in the Ca-ion distribution and did not appear to be due to a segregation into hole-rich and hole-poor domains; it reflects a competition between orbital order and disorder similar to that found in LaMn_{0.5}Ga_{0.5}O₃. Dark-field images at 95 K showed CE domains a few thousand angstroms in diameter separated by twin boundaries parallel to a Mn–O–Mn bond axis. The OO phase was found (Smolyaninova et al., 1998) to have a large excess specific heat compared to the FM phase; this excess entropy can only originate from excitations of nonmagnetic origin. Application of a magnetic field of 8.5 T, which transformed the resistivity to a metallic temperature dependence, left the specific heat unchanged with no evidence of a kT term from mobile charge carriers. The mobile charge carriers apparently remain strongly coupled to the oxygen vibrations and therefore behave as vibrons. Further evidence of the strong electron coupling to the oxygen vibrational modes comes from ${}^{18}\text{O}/{}^{16}\text{O}$ isotope exchange, which increases T_{CO} of La_{0.5}Ca_{0.5}MnO₃ by 9 K in zero magnetic field (Zhao et al., 1999) and of Nd_{0.5}Sr_{0.5}MnO₃ by 21 K (Mahesh and Itoh, 1999). Raman spectra show an anomalous softening of the 494 $\rm cm^{-1}$ and 604 cm⁻¹ modes below T_{CO} (Granado et al., 1998).

The two-manganese Zener polarons appear to order in a charge-ordered (CO) phase in the range $0.5 < x \le 0.75$. Mori et al. (1998a, 1998b) have observed in thin films planes of a La_{0.5}Ca_{0.5}MnO₃-type phase alternating with planes of a CaMnO₃-type phase, see fig. 52, in a series of x = n/(n + 2) planes, where *n* is the number of Mn(IV) planes in the CaMnO₃ slab. On the other hand, high-resolution synchrotron X-ray and neutron powder diffraction on bulk x = 0.67 samples suggested an ordering of Mn³⁺ ions separated as far apart as possible in the basal planes (Radaelli et al., 1999; Fernández-Díaz et al., 1999); however, such a "Wigner crystal" model is inconsistent with the formation of Zener polarons, which can be accommodated in the model of Mori et al. (1998a, 1998b).

The superlattice reflections of the CO phase for x = 0.80 were noticeably broader than those of the lower-*x* compositions (Chen and Cheong, 1996; Chen et al., 1997; Li et al., 1999). Therefore Pissas et al. (2002) used powder neutron diffraction to study whether charge ordering was actually present in x = 0.80 and 0.85 samples. They found a transition from the O^{*}-orthorhombic paramagnetic phase to a monoclinic $P2_1/n$ antiferromagnetic phase containing two distinguishable Mn sites below a $T_N = T_{OO} = 210$ K for x = 0.80 and 160 K for x = 0.85; the low-temperature data showed ferromagnetic Mn–O–Mn chains coupled antipar-



Fig. 52. Charge and orbital ordering in the orthorhombic basal plane for (a) x = 0, (b) x = 0.5 for localized e orbitals, and (c) Mori et al. (1998a, 1998b) model for x = 2/3.

allel to one another (type-C antiferromagnetic order of table 1) with the magnetic moment of ca. $2.5\mu_B$ oriented along the chains. They found no evidence of charge ordering as Mn(III) ions, but the magnetic order signals an ordering of the e electrons into the ferromagnetic chains. A contraction of the Mn–O bonds along the ferromagnetic chains on cooling through T_N implies, therefore, an ordering of the e electrons along the *c*-axis above T_N ; the contraction can then be understood from the virial theorem if the transition at T_N involves a transition from localized e to 1D itinerant σ_{\parallel}^* electrons along the chains; these electrons appear to stabilize, in addition, a commensurate charge-density wave. The reduction in the magnitude of the measured magnetic moment on the Mn atoms is characteristic of antiferromagnets.

3.7. R_{0.5}A_{0.5}MnO₃

The R_{0.5}A_{0.5}MnO₃ compositions with A = alkaline earth have a fixed ratio Mn(IV)/Mn(III) = 1, but it is possible to pass from localized to itinerant electronic behavior on the MnO₃ array by varying the mean size of the A-site cations and hence the geometric tolerance factor t. In this family, the evolution of the competing phases at the crossover tolerance factor $t = t_c$ is made complex by the existence of charge and orbital ordering of localized electrons competing with ordering of Zener pairs in the crossover region $t = t_c \pm \Delta t$. In addition, an orbital ordering at $t = t_c + \Delta t'$ constrains itinerant σ^* electrons to the (001) planes to give a type-A antiferromagnetic metallic (AFM) phase that competes with ordering of Zener pairs in a type-CE AFI phase on one side and a FMM phase on the other side that has 3D itinerant σ^* electrons.

Several groups have presented temperature vs. tolerance factor phase diagrams (Rivadulla et al., 2002; Kuwahara and Tokura, 1998; Rao et al., 1998; Damay et al., 1999; Krupicka et al., 1999). Kuwahara and Tokura (1998) and Rivadulla et al. (2002) had stoichiometric singlecrystal data and were the only groups to recognize the existence of a critical tolerance factor t_c separating localized from itinerant electronic behavior; their two phase diagrams are shown in fig. 53. Tokura et al. (1996) were also the first to report the existence of a narrow, ferromag-



Averaged Ionic Size of A site $< r_{a} > (Å)$

Fig. 53. Temperature-tolerance factor phase diagrams for $R_{0.5}A_{0.5}MnO_3$ from (a) Kuwahara and Tokura (1998), and (b) Rivadulla et al. (2002). In (a), PI = paramagnetic insulator, COI = charge-ordered insulator, FM = ferromagnetic metal. In (b), SP = superparamagnetic, SRCO = short-range charge-ordered fluctuations, I = CE AFI of figs. 50(a) and 52(b), II = ferromagnetic metal (FMM), FMV = ferromagnetic vibronic, PM = paramagnetic, III = CE AFI of figs. 50(b) and 57, IV = Type-A antiferromagnetic metal (AFM), V - EMM: chaded boundaries are estimates

= FMM; shaded boundaries are estimates.



netic metallic (FMM) phase inserted between two antiferromagnetic type-CE insulator phases that they identified as COI in their diagram. They made no distinction between the two COI phases as they assumed the type-CE antiferromagnetic order necessarily implied a charge ordering as Mn(III) and Mn(IV) ions. Therefore, they considered the FMM phase to represent a metastable state appearing at a quantum critical point (QCP) where two-phase fluctuations suppress not only charge order (CO), but also orbital order (OO) and magnetic order. But such a critical point occurs at a crossover from localized to itinerant electronic behavior, so the assumption that the two CE AFI phases either side of $t = t_c$ both contain CO turns out to be invalid. Burgy et al. (2002) have modeled the QCP behavior by introducing quenched disorder into the Hamiltonian describing the competition between the COI and FMM phases. Rivadulla et al. (2002) chose to study the system $Pr_{0.5}(Ca_{1-x}Sr_x)_{0.5}MnO_3$ having a smaller variance σ^2 of the A-site-cation sizes; they found a stable FMM phase of larger volume at the critical tolerance factor t_c .

We interpret the more complete phase diagram of fig. 53(b) within the framework of a transition from localized to itinerant electronic behavior in the range 0.972 < t < 0.992 that includes $t = t_c \approx 0.975$. (We calculate t using 12-fold coordination of the A-site cations.) Although such a transition is first-order in accordance with deduction from the virial theorem, nevertheless orbital ordering and cooperative bond-length adjustments allow it to occur in steps, beginning with the formation of molecular orbitals within two-Mn Zener polarons, transforming next to 1D metallic chains and then to 2D metallic planes before 3D itinerant-electron behavior is achieved. In the R_{0.5}A_{0.5}MnO₃ family, the 1D itinerant-electron chains are replaced by a charge-density-wave zig-zag chain of ordered Zener polarons.

Above T_{sp} of fig. 53(b), the paramagnetic susceptibility has Curie–Weiss behavior with a Weiss constant $\theta > 250$ K, which is indicative of ferromagnetic exchange interactions where there are orbital fluctuations and/or Zener double exchange. A deviation of the susceptibility from Curie–Weiss behavior on cooling below T_{sp} is characteristic of short-range ferromagnetic order or the onset of superparamagnetism. The thermoelectric-power data $\alpha(T)$ indicate the presence of about 20% two-Mn Zener polarons, which would have a strong ferromagnetic double-exchange coupling within a pair. We therefore conclude that ferromagnetic order within Zener polarons gives rise to superparamagnetism below T_{sp} . This phenomenon is characteristic of all compositions in a range of *t* spanning the critical tolerance factor $t_c \approx 0.975$.

On cooling samples with t < 0.972, a charge-ordering transition occurs at $T_{CO} \approx 225$ K; an orbital ordering below T_{OO} is accompanied by the onset of type-CE antiferromagnetic order below a $T_N = T_{OO} \approx 160$ K. In this phase I of fig. 53(b), a CO of Mn(III) and Mn(IV) ions breaks up the Zener pairs to stabilize localized electrons. Therefore, the orbital and charge ordering of this CE AFI phase is expected to have the classical (Goodenough, 1955) localized-electron order of fig. 50(a). Samples with $t \ge 0.992$ are metallic ferromagnets (FMM) below T_C to lowest temperatures, phase V. Between phases I and V there is a transition from localized to itinerant electrons of e-orbital parentage.

The transition temperatures T_{CO} for the CO phase and T_C for the FM phase cross at the critical tolerance factor $t_c \approx 0.975$ where a unique FMM phase II appears. As can be seen in fig. 54, the room-temperature volume of phase II is larger than anticipated for a smooth evolution of unit-cell volume with increasing t; at $t = t_c$ with Mn(IV)/Mn(III) = 1, A-cation



Fig. 54. Evolution of the room-temperature volume vs. tolerance factor of single-crystal $Pr_{0.5}(Ca_{1-x}Sr_x)_{0.5}MnO_3$ (open circles) after Rivadulla et al. (2002), and $(Nd_{1-x}Sm_x)_{0.5}$ -Sr_{0.5}MnO₃ (closed triangles) after Kuwahara et al. (1997).

displacements apparently stabilize a larger volume so as to straighten the Mn–O–Mn bond angle sufficiently to give an effective tolerance factor $t_{\text{eff}} \ge 0.992$. Comparison of figs. 53(a) and (b) shows that a larger variance σ^2 of the A-site-cation size suppresses T_C of phase II and, indeed, may suppress all order to lowest temperatures. Rivadulla et al. (2002) have shown that small deviations from unity of the Mn(IV)/Mn(III) ratio and hydrostatic pressure also suppress phase II.

Near t = 0.980, there is a discontinuous change in $T_{\rm C}$; by analogy with the transition at x = 0.15 in La_{1-x}Sr_xMnO₃, this discontinuity probably represents a change from vibronic to itinerant electronic behavior in the ferromagnetic phase, i.e., FMV to FMM. Vibronic conduction occurs where there are cooperative bond-length fluctuations associated with the coexistence of two phases, a minority paramagnetic (PM) phase that undergoes a CO transition below $T_{\rm CO}$ and a majority FMV phase having a $T_{\rm C} > T_{\rm CO}$. The FMM phase II appearing at $t = t_{\rm c}$ is single-phase.

On lowering the temperature in the range 0.980 < t < 0.992, the FMM phase transforms completely, or partially, to a type-A antiferromagnetic metallic (A AFM) phase IV in which orbital order constrains itinerant σ^* electrons and de Gennes double exchange to the (001) planes; the interactions between (001) planes are antiferromagnetic by t^3 –O– t^3 superexchange as occurs in LaMnO₃ where all the 3d electrons at Mn(III) remain localized.

In the range 0.972 < t < 0.980, the competition between stable phases is greatest; this competition results in the coexistence of two fluctuating phases. The phase fluctuations may suppress all long-range order at $t = t_c$ or, if the atomic displacements become static, may stabilize a unique single phase having 3D itinerant electrons of e-orbital parentage in a single FMM phase, phase II. The suppression of all long-range order corresponds to QCP behavior. QCP behavior or the appearance of phase II of larger volume at $t = t_c$ occurs at the crossover from a minority FMV phase in a majority CO matrix to a minority CO phase in a majority



Fig. 55. Effects of hydrostatic pressure on the temperature dependence of the thermoelectric power $\alpha(T)$ for $Pr_{0.5}(Ca_{0.9}Sr_{0.1})_{0.5}MnO_3$, after Rivadulla et al. (2002).

FMV matrix. Although pressure increases *t* in the crossover region because of the larger compressibility of the Mn–O bond where it has a double-well equilibrium bond length, it was not possible to obtain the higher volume FMM phase II by applying pressure to a $t = 0.973 < t_c$ sample (Rivadulla et al., 2002). Figure 55 shows the evolution with pressure of the thermoelectric power $\alpha(T)$; a crossover from a $T_{CO} > T_C$ at 8.7 kbar to $T_C > T_{CO}$ at 15.4 kbar is evident, crossover occurring near 13 kbar (fig. 56). In this experiment, the magnitude of $\alpha(T)$ increases in the CO insulator phase and decreases in the conductive FMV phase. This situation indicates that a distinction must be made between the CE AFI phase I below $T_N = T_{OO}$ and the CE AFI phase III appearing below $T_N = T_{OO}$. Whereas the classical model of fig. 50(a)



Fig. 56. Evolution with pressure of the critical temperatures for $Pr_{0.5}(Ca_{0.9}Sr_{0.1})_{0.5}MnO_3$, after Rivadulla et al. (2002).

should apply to phase I, phase III appears on the itinerant-electron side of t_c and represents the next step in the break-up with decreasing bandwidth from 3D to 2D σ^* bands to Zener polarons. Therefore phase III was predicted to represent an ordering of Zener polarons (Rivadulla et al., 2002). Independent direct evidence for such an ordering in a CE AFI phase has been provided by Daoud-Aladine et al. (2002) with neutron diffraction on a Pr_{0.6}Ca_{0.4}MnO₃ crystal; on lowering t, the 2D $(x^2 - y^2)\sigma^*$ bands of the type-A AFM phase IV breaks up into the charge-density-wave pattern of ordered Zener polarons shown in fig. 57.

The competition between the FMM phase and paramagnetic CO phase is already manifest in phase I where a modest applied magnetic field stabilizes the FMM phase relative to the CO paramagnetic phase. Figure 58 shows typical magnetization, M(T), resistivity, $\rho(T)$, and thermoelectric power, $\alpha(T)$, curves for Pr_{0.5}(Sr_{0.9}Ca_{0.1})_{0.5}MnO₃ ($t \approx 0.973$). The sharp drop in M(T) for H = 0 on cooling through $T_{CO} \approx 225$ K reflects a break-up of the superparamagnetic Zener polarons in the CO phase I, and the smaller maximum in M(T) at $T_{\rm N} = T_{\rm OO} = 150$ K marks the onset of the CE AFI magnetic and orbital order. The thermal hysteresis in the $\rho(T)$ curve (inset) shows that the transition at T_{CO} is first-order and therefore cannot be described as a simple order-disorder transition. The $\alpha(T)$ curve is temperatureindependent above $T_{\rm CO}$, which is characteristic of polaron conduction; and from eq. (26), $\alpha = -28 \,\mu V/K$ corresponds to about 20% Zener polarons above T_C. The abrupt increase in the magnitude of $\alpha(T)$ on cooling through $T_{\rm CO}$ and $T_{\rm N} = T_{\rm OO}$ is due to a progressive trapping out of mobile electrons with increasing charge ordering. The maximum in $|\alpha(T)|$ appears to correspond to a growth with decreasing T in a conductive FM minority phase below 100 K. Figure 58(b) shows the change in M(T) in an applied magnetic field in the range 3 T \leq H \leq 5 T. In an H = 4.5 T, long-range CO is completely suppressed in the range $T_{\rm N} < T < T_{\rm CO}$ for H = 0; the saturation magnetization approaches the spin-only $3.5\mu_{\rm B}/{\rm Mn}$ just above $T_{\rm N}$. However, orbital ordering below $T_{\rm OO} = T_{\rm N}$ stabilizes the CE AFI phase, which



Fig. 57. Inverse magnetic susceptibility $1/\chi(T)$ of $Y_{0.5}Ca_{0.5}MnO_3$ and schematic picture of the magnetic state: (a) PM above T_{CO} with formation of Zener polarons setting in below 450 K; (b) PM Zener polarons order between T_{CO} and T_N ; (c) CE AFI structure below T_N , after Daoud-Aladine et al. (2002).

probably means it reestablishes the static CO. A similar behavior was found by Kuwahara and Tokura (1998) in $Pr_{0.5}Ca_{0.5}MnO_3$, but in higher magnetic fields as a consequence of a smaller tolerance factor *t*.

Like $Pr_{0.5}Ca_{0.5}MnO_3$, Nd_{0.5}Ca_{0.5}MnO₃ corresponds to phase I with $T_{CO} = 250$ K and $T_{\rm N} = T_{\rm OO} = 160$ K (Millange et al., 2000). In this compound, ESR data showed no trace of a FM second phase imbedded in the CO phase in zero magnetic field (Dupont et al., 2001). Nevertheless, a high-temperature Curie–Weiss paramagnetism with a positive Weiss constant shows ferromagnetic correlations are present above $T_{\rm CO}$ in this compound also. Moreover, a ferromagnetic phase is stabilized by an applied magnetic field in the temperature interval $T_{\rm N} = T_{\rm OO} < T < T_{\rm CO}$. Millange et al. (2000) used neutron diffraction, magnetic susceptibility, and resistivity of polycrystalline samples to study, in particular, the magnetic behavior in the range $T_{\rm N} = T_{\rm OO} < T < T_{\rm CO}$; they found the low-field susceptibility was typical of an antiferromagnet whereas no magnetic order could be detected by neutron diffraction, which suggests the presence of short-range antiferromagnetic fluctuations. Joshi et al. (2002) found a progressive motional narrowing of their ESR linewidth on heating in the interval $T_{\rm N} = T_{\rm OO} < T < T_{\rm CO}$ and deduced a polaron activation energy $E_{\rm a} = 0.1$ eV associated with the orbital fluctuations that suppress the long-range magnetic order. The introduction in zero applied magnetic field of microdomain FM clusters at oxygen vacancies or Cr-atom dopants has also been studied in $Nd_{0.5}Ca_{0.5}MnO_{3+\delta}$ and $Nd_{0.5}(Ca_{0.5-x}Cr_x)MnO_3$ (Frontera et al., 2000; Kimura et al., 1999; Machida et al., 2000, 2002; Chang et al., 2002).

 $Pr_{0.5}Sr_{0.5}MnO_3$ corresponds to phase IV with a type-A AFM phase appearing below a $T_N = T_{OO} < T_C$ (Kawano et al., 1997; Damay et al., 1998; Llobet et al., 1999). In this phase,





the FMM phase is stabilized to low temperatures by an applied magnetic field of a few Tesla. Allodi et al. (2000) have shown with ⁵⁵Mn NMR that the FM phase develops from zero field by the nucleation of microscopic ferromagnetic domains. At the threshold field, the NMR spectrum changes discontinuously into that of a homogeneous, fully aligned ferromagnetic state.

Substituting smaller rare-earth ions in $R_{0.5}Sr_{0.5}MnO_3$ increases the A-site variance as well as reducing *t*. Whereas $La_{0.5}Sr_{0.5}MnO_3$ is a phase V FMM, $Pr_{0.5}Sr_{0.5}MnO_3$ corresponds to phase IV, stabilizing the type-A AFM phase below $T_N = T_{OO}$, and $Nd_{0.5}Sr_{0.5}MnO_3$ contains the coexistence of phases III and IV below $T_N = T_{OO} \approx 150$ K (Kajimoto et al., 1999; Kuwahara et al., 1995), but an insulator-metal transition to the FMM phase is still induced by an applied magnetic field. Zvyagin et al. (2000) have observed with ultrasonic measurements a significant acoustic-mode softening in the FMM phase, which signals the presence of orbital and/or phase fluctuations in the FMM phase. $Sm_{0.5}Sr_{0.5}MnO_3$ and $Gd_{0.5}Sr_{0.5}MnO_3$ have a $T_{CO} \approx 250 \text{ K} > T_N = T_{OO}$ characteristic of $t < t_c$ in the two phase region I + II (Shames et al., 2002; García-Landa et al., 1998). A neutron-diffraction study has shown that $Tb_{0.5}Sr_{0.5}MnO_3$ has the CE AFI magnetic structure of phase I at 10 K (Machida et al., 2001). On the other hand, $Ho_{0.5}Sr_{0.5}MnO_3$ shows only short-range order below $T_N = T_{OO} \approx 90 \text{ K}$ as a result of the internal strains associated with the large A-site-cation variance (Autret et al., 2002).

The coexistence of two phases in the interval 0.972 < t < 0.980 has been demonstrated by several techniques. For example, Krupicka et al. (2001) found, with ⁵⁵Mn NMR, FM inclusions within the CE AFI phase for Pr_{0.5}Ca_{0.35}Sr_{0.15}MnO₃ whereas they observed a PM phase coexisting with a FM phase just below $T_{\rm C}$. The volume fraction of the FM phase IV increased with decreasing temperature until it abruptly vanished below $T_{\rm N} = T_{\rm OO}$; the CE AFI phase below $T_{\rm N} = T_{\rm OO}$ would be phase III consisting of ordered Zener polarons. The PM phase corresponds to the minority phase having a $T_{\rm CO}$.

A Pr_{0.5}(Ca_{0.85}Sr_{0.15})_{0.5}MnO₃ crystal with t = 0.974 probes the two-phase region below $T_{\rm CO}$ at the approach to t_c from the localized-electron side. The $\rho(T)$ curve, inset of fig. 59, shows a $T_{\rm CO} \approx 220$ K. However, unlike the t = 0.973 sample of fig. 58, the M(T) curve



Fig. 59. Magnetization M(T) in H = 10 Oe after ZFC and FC in 10 Oe (closed circles) and thermoelectric power $\alpha(T)$ (open circles) for single-crystal Pr_{0.5}(Ca_{0.85}Sr_{0.15})_{0.5}MnO₃. Inset: Resistivity $\rho(T)$ on cooling and warming, after Rivadulla et al. (2002).

for t = 0.974 in an H = 10 Oe reveals a ferromagnetic minority phase appearing below $T_{\rm C} = 210$ K. The volume fraction of this phase grows as the temperature is lowered, reaching a percolation threshold at a $T_{\rm p} \approx 100$ K below which M(T) increases more sharply with decreasing temperature. The $\rho(T)$ curve shows a change to a lower resistivity below $T_{\rm p}$, which is consistent with percolation of a more conductive phase below $T_{\rm p}$. The onset of type-CE antiferromagnetic order below $T_{\rm N} = T_{\rm OO} \approx 150$ K of the CO phase retards the growth of the FM minority phase and introduces a thermal hysteresis into M(T) and $\rho(T)$. The change in $\alpha(T)$ at $T_{\rm CO}$ is reduced because the volume fraction of the majority phase is reduced; inflections in $\alpha(T)$ are found at $T_{\rm OO} = T_{\rm N}$ and $T_{\rm p}$ as expected from this model.

Figure 60 shows that the ferromagnetic phase is more easily stabilized by a magnetic field relative to the CE AFI phase at temperatures $T < T_p$; in the t = 0.973 phase, the CE AFI phase remains stable in applied fields that are strong enough to convert the CO phase to a FM phase in the interval $T_N = T_{OO} < T < T_{CO}$ whereas the t = 0.974 crystal has its CE AFI phase less stable relative to the FM phase than the CO phase in the interval $T_N = T_{OO} < T < T_{CO}$. This inversion of the relative stabilities of the two phases relative to a disordering in an applied magnetic field as t approaches t_c from the localized-electron side is noteworthy; it suggests that the stability of ordering of localized orbitals as against the formation of Zener polarons decreases more rapidly as t approaches t_c than the coulombic stabilization associated with ordering of localized Mn(III) and Mn(IV) ions. However, application of an H = 4 T completely



Fig. 60. Effect of an applied magnetic field on the magnetization M(T) of $Pr_{0.5}(Ca_{0.85}Sr_{0.15})_{0.5}$ MnO₃. Upper inset: Open circles measured during cooling in H = 1 T after ZFC from 320 K down to 5 K and warming up to 150 K in zero field; solid circles measured in the same way after warming up to 210 K. Lower inset: M vs. H at different temperatures $T < T_p$, after Rivadulla et al. (2002).

suppresses phase I; this phase is metamagnetic below $T_N = T_{OO}$ with an AF-FM insulatorconductor transition occurring at T_p on cooling in H = 2 T whereas the FM phase is retained on heating in H = 2 T to the zero-field magnetic transition at $T_{OO} = T_N$.

The upper inset of fig. 60 shows two M(T) curves taken on cooling in a field H = 1 T after a rapid ZFC to 5 K and warming to 150 K or to 210 K. After warming to 150 K before H = 1 T is applied, the field-cooled (FC) magnetization remains very small (open circles); the crystal remains in the AF state. However, after warming to 210 K before H = 1 T is applied, the FC M(T) curve (closed circles) increases sharply on cooling through T_p . The metamagnetism of the AF phase at H = 1 T is then seen to require nucleation within it of a FM phase that grows below T_p . Rapid cooling to 5 K in zero field apparently does not provide time for the ferromagnetic clusters to nucleate to an irreversible size. Uehara and Cheong (2000) have shown how cooling rate and aging in a magnetic field can drastically influence the volume fraction ratio of FM/CO phases that coexist in a wide temperature interval in the system La_{5/8-v}Pr_vCa_{3/8}MnO₃.

The lower inset of fig. 60 shows M vs. H hysteresis for $0 \le H \le 5$ T at three different temperatures after a ZFC. At 10 K, the metamagnetic transition occurs in the interval 2 T $\le H \le 3$ T on increasing H; it returns to a spin-glass or canted-spin-AF state on decreasing H below 1 T. At 50 K, the metamagnetic transition occurs in the interval 0.5 T < H < 1.5 T in conformity with the upper inset. At 100 K $\approx T_p$, the metamagnetic transition occurs at a larger magnetic field, 1.5 T < H < 1.8 T on increasing H and returns to a spin-glass or canted-spin-AF state at about H = 1 T on reducing H. This remarkable shift confirms that growth of the FM phase at the expense of the AF phase is greatly facilitated below T_p .



Fig. 61. Magnetization M(T) in H = 10 Oe after ZFC and FC in 10 Oe (closed circles); thermoelectric power $\alpha(T)$ (open circles) for Pr_{0.5}(Ca_{0.8}Sr_{0.2})_{0.5} MnO₃ (t = 0.975). Inset: $\rho(T)$ showing abrupt metal–insulator transition at $T_{\rm C} \approx 215$ K, after Rivadulla et al. (2002).

Figure 61 shows the ZFC and FC M(T) curves for the FMM phase II, which show a firstorder transition at $T_{\rm C}$ where the bond-length fluctuations become frozen out to restore the phonon contribution to the thermal conductivity, fig. 62. In the I + II two-phase samples t =0.973 and t = 0.974, phase II is suppressed and phase fluctuations inhibit phonon formation below $T_{\rm CO}$ or $T_{\rm C}$. Tokura et al. (1996) applied hydrostatic pressure to the FM phase II of $(Nd_{0.125}Sm_{0.875})_{0.5}Sr_{0.5}MnO_3$ having $t \approx t_{\rm c}$; they reported the appearance of a CE AFI second phase having a volume fraction that increased with pressure below $T_{\rm OO} = T_{\rm N}$. Since pressure



Fig. 62. Thermal conductivities $\kappa(T)$ for Pr_{0.5}-(Ca_{1-x}Sr_x)_{0.5}MnO₃, x = 0.10, 0.15, 0.20. The electronic component κ_e for the most conductive sample (x = 0.20) is also shown, after Rivadulla et al. (2002).

Fig. 63. Magnetization M(T) in H = 10 Oe after ZFC and FC in 10 Oe (closed circles); thermoelectric power $\alpha(T)$ (open circles) for Pr_{0.5}(Ca_{0.75}Sr_{0.25})_{0.5}MnO₃ (t = 0.976), after Rivadulla et al. (2002).



Fig. 64. Thermoelectric power $\alpha(T)$ and magnetization M(T) in H = 1 T after ZFC and FC for Pr_{0.5}(Ca_{0.5}Sr_{0.5})_{0.5}MnO₃ (t = 0.980) (open squares) and Pr_{0.5}-(Ca_{0.25}Sr_{0.75})_{0.5}MnO₃ (t = 0.985) (open circles), after Rivadulla et al. (2002).

increases t and suppresses phase II, pressure stabilizes phase III in the two-phase domain FMV + III.

Figure 63 shows $\alpha(T)$ and both ZFC and FC M(T) in 10 Oe for a t = 0.976 crystal lying in the two-phase region between phases II and III. This figure is to be compared with figs. 58 and 60. A $T_{\rm C} \approx 230$ K for the FMV matrix is only a little higher than the $T_{\rm CO}$ of the minority phase; below $T_{\rm CO}$, the volume fraction of the CO phase competes with that of the FM phase and appears to become dominant in the interval $T_{\rm p} < T < T_{\rm OO} = T_{\rm N}$ of that phase.

Finally, fig. 64 shows M(T) in H = 1 T and $\alpha(T)$ curves for samples $Pr_{0.5}(Ca_{0.5}Sr_{0.5})_{0.5}$ -MnO₃ (t = 0.980) and $Pr_{0.5}(Ca_{0.25}Sr_{0.75})_{0.5}$ MnO₃ ($t \approx 0.9846$). The former has a majority phase III with a minority phase IV; a sharp increase in $|\alpha(T)|$ occurs between T_p and $T_{OO} = T_N$. The latter is primarily phase IV with a small volume fraction of phase III. The apparent suppression of M(T) in the t = 0.980 sample is due to the smaller temperature interval $T_{OO} = T_N < T < T_C$.

4. Conclusions

The rare-earth ions in the $R_{1-x}A_xMnO_3$ perovskites have their primary influence on physical properties through the geometric tolerance factor *t* that determines the bending of the $(180^\circ - \phi)$ Mn–O–Mn bond angle to achieve matching of the equilibrium A–O and Mn–O bond lengths. The variance σ^2 of the A-site-cation size plays an important, but secondary role. In this family, the tolerance factor can be varied so as to change the character of the σ -bonding electrons of e-orbital parentage at high-spin Mn(III) ions from localized to itinerant behavior while the π -bonding t^3 configurations remain localized with a spin S = 3/2.

The twofold orbital degeneracy of the e electrons at octahedral-site Mn(III) induces local Jahn–Teller site distortions that may locally fluctuate cooperatively or order into a longrange, cooperative static deformation of the lattice. The orbital degeneracy may also be removed where the σ -bonding electrons are itinerant. Whereas itinerant electrons of e-orbital parentage would normally occupy 3D σ^* bands, orbital ordering may constrain these electrons (1) to 2D $x^2 - y^2 \sigma^*$ bands or (2) to 1D $(3z^2 - r^2)\sigma^*$ bands that tend to form chargedensity waves, or (3) to two-Mn Mn^{3.5+}–O–Mn^{3.5+} Zener polarons. Electrons in 3D σ^* bands couple the localized S = 3/2 spins ferromagnetically via de Gennes double exchange. Constraining the itinerant electrons to 2D planes or 1D chains allows de Gennes ferromagnetic double-exchange coupling only in the metallic planes or chains; perpendicular superexchange interactions couple the ferromagnetic units antiferromagnetically. Ferromagnetic double-exchange coupling within a Zener polaron may result in superparamagnetic clusters where the polarons are disordered in a paramagnetic phase, and ordering of the Zener polarons into linear or zig-zag chains gives ferromagnetic superexchange interactions between polarons of a chain, but antiferromagnetic superexchange interactions perpendicular to the chains.

Where the e electrons are localized, orbital fluctuations introduce vibronic ferromagnetic Mn(III)–O–Mn(III) and Mn(III)–O–Mn(IV) interactions, but long-range cooperative orbital ordering constrains the ferromagnetic interactions to planes or chains with antiferromagnetic superexchange interactions between the ferromagnetic elements. Moreover, localized electrons in mixed-valent MnO₃ arrays experience strong coulomb interactions that give short-range charge-order fluctuations or long-range charge ordering. Optimization of the exchange and coulomb forces produces long-range charge and orbital ordering at lower temperatures.

The crossover from localized to itinerant electronic behavior is first-order, and the consequent double-well potential for the equilibrium Mn–O bond length can be accommodated in the perovskite structure by cooperative oxygen displacements perpendicular and/or along a Mn–O–Mn bond axis. Cooperative bond-length fluctuations permit the coexistence of competing phases in what appears to a diffraction experiment to be a single phase. Where an external input stabilizes one competing phase relative to another, the bond-length fluctuations allow one phase to grow at the expense of another at lower temperatures. Bond-length fluctuations may also suppress long-range order altogether to give quantum critical behavior at a QCP. In addition, bond-length fluctuations are associated with disorder of a cooperative Jahn–Teller distortion, and these fluctuations can allow partial, fluctuating disproportionation of 2Mn(III) into Mn(IV) and Mn(II). The result of all these competitions is a rich array of physical phenomena to be explored and exploited. An appropriate choice of rare-earth and alkaline-earth A-site cations can change physical properties dramatically and allow the design of materials with unusual physical properties that may prove technologically useful.

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Chapter 215

PARAMAGNETIC NMR LANTHANIDE INDUCED SHIFTS FOR EXTRACTING SOLUTION STRUCTURES

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List of symbols

A_i	Fermi hyperfine constant for a nucleus <i>i</i>	$\langle S_Z \rangle$	expectation value of S_z
B_q^k	crystal-field parameters of rank k	T_1	longitudinal nuclear relaxation time
C_q^k	spherical tensor operators of rank k	T_2	transversal nuclear relaxation time
C_j	Bleaney's factor of lanthanide j (scaled to -100	$Tr(\chi)$	trace of the magnetic susceptibility tensor
	for Dy(III))	β	Bohr magneton
F_i	contact term of the nucleus <i>i</i>	х	magnetic susceptibility tensor
ge	Landé factor	XΟ	isotropic part of the magnetic susceptibility ten-
G_i	axial geometrical factor of the nucleus i		sor
H_i	rhombic geometrical factor of the nucleus i	Χαβ	$\alpha\beta$ component of the magnetic susceptibility
H_0	applied magnetic field		tensor
J	total angular momentum quantum number	δ_i^{bulk}	bulk paramagnetic shift induced by a lanthanide
$\langle J_Z \rangle$	expectation value of J_z	5	j
k	Boltzmann constant	δ_{ii}^{exp}	hyperfine chemical shift for a nucleus i in a
$N_{\rm A}$	Avogadro's number	- 5	complex of a lanthanide j
r _i	R-nucleus i distance	δ_i^{dia}	diamagnetic shift in ppm for a nucleus i
S	spin quantum number	•	

$\delta_{ii}^{\text{para}}$	paramagnetic hyperfine chemical shift in ppm	ϕ_i	spherical coordinate of nucleus i
.,	for a nucleus i in a complex of a lanthanide j	μ_{eff}	effective electronic magnetic momentum in $\mu_{\rm B}$
δ_{ii}^{c}	paramagnetic contact shift in ppm for a nucleus	θ_i	spherical coordinate of nucleus i
.,	i in a complex of a lanthanide j	$\tau_{\rm c}$	characteristic correlation time
$\delta_{ij}^{\rm pc}$	paramagnetic pseudo-contact shift in ppm for a	$ au_{ m e}$	electron spin relaxation characteristic time
5	nucleus i in a complex of a lanthanide j	$ au_{ m r}$	rotational characteristic time
$\Delta E_{\rm CF}$	crystal-field splitting of the ground J multiplet	$ au_{ m m}$	chemical exchange characteristic time
	in cm ⁻¹	ω	Larmor precession frequency in Hz
γ	magnetogyric ratio	ζ	spin orbit coupling constant

1. Introduction

Intense research activities during the last decade have demonstrated that a judicious combination of dative bonds (i.e., coordination bonds) with non-covalent interactions (i.e., electrostatic, hydrogen bonds, hydrophobic forces, etc.) provides well-defined and structurally rigid metal-containing architectures in which the geometrical and electronic structures can be finely tuned (Piguet et al., 1997; Lehn, 2000; Steed and Atwood, 2000; Swiegers and Malefetse, 2000; Holliday and Mirkin, 2001). Planned chemical, mechanical and electronic functions may be further implemented to produce supramolecular devices and machines (Piguet and Bünzli, 1998; Kahn, 2000; Balzani et al., 2000). The pronounced stereoelectronic preferences of d-block transition metal ions associated with their peculiar dⁿelectronic configurations have been systematically exploited to control the final molecular or supramolecular architectures according to the Lock and Key concept (Leininger et al., 2000; Fujita et al., 2001). The versatile coordination properties of 4f-block ions (i.e., the lanthanides R(III)) often prevent their use as templating agents in sophisticated molecular or supramolecular assemblies and the structural programming of the metallic sites remains challenging. On the other hand, the Induced fit concept takes advantage of specific non-covalent interstrand interactions to control the size, the shape and the geometry of the metallic site, thus leading to discrete lanthanide-containing edifices in which a rational design of the associated functions relies on the chemist's capacity (i) to impose specific metallic environments and supramolecular structures and (ii) to extract reliable electronic and geometric informations in order to iteratively improve molecular programming (Piguet and Bünzli, 1999; Fu and Turro, 1999; Bruce et al., 2000; Parker, 2000; Piguet et al., 2000; Zhang et al., 2001; Bünzli and Piguet, 2002). The latter point is crucial because minute structural variations may induce (i) drastic size-discriminating effects along the lanthanide series (Petoud et al., 1997), (ii) new optical properties (Gamelin and Güdel, 2000) and huge magnetic anisotropies (Mironov et al., 2001). The characterisation of solid state structures of intermediate sizes has benefited from the recent development of array detectors and the crystallization processes leading to large semi-rigid supramolecular edifices remains the limiting factor for extracting reliable geometrical informations in this context. However, considerable structural changes may occur between solid-state and solution (solvation, relaxation of packing constraints, dissociation, etc.) and it is crucial to extract reliable structural and electronic data in solution if self-assembly processes are to be improved. As a result of their peculiar inner-shell $4f^n$ electronic configurations, the lanthanides display electrostatic metal–ligand bonds with minor covalency and unpaired spin delocalisation is very limited. R(III) (R = Ce-Yb) can be thus considered as paramagnetic dots which affect the magnetic properties of the molecular or supramolecular edifices in a predictable way. For a synthetic chemist, paramagnetism is often considered as a severe handicap for interpreting NMR spectra because (i) the bulk magnetic susceptibility translates the NMR spectrum by a constant (Löliger and Scheffold, 1972), (ii) the NMR signals are severely broadened by the increased nuclear relaxation induced by the electronic magnetic momentum and (iii) the hyperfine chemical shift of each proton *i* drastically depends on its topological and geometrical location with respect to the paramagnetic centre (Bertini and Luchinat, 1996). However, detailed structural and electronic informations can be gained from paramagnetic contributions to the NMR data if an adequate modeling of the magnetic properties is available.

Firstly, Evans (1959) and Evans et al. (1971) have established that the bulk paramagnetic susceptibility for a complex of a lanthanide j affects the chemical shifts of all nuclei by a constant value δ_{j}^{bulk} (in ppm) which is given by eq. (1)

$$\delta_j^{\text{bulk}} = \left(\frac{\mu_{\text{eff}}}{2.828}\right)^2 \cdot \frac{s_f \cdot c}{T} \cdot 10^3,\tag{1}$$

 μ_{eff} is the effective electronic magnetic momentum (in Bohr magnetons), *T* is the absolute temperature (in K), *c* is the molar concentration of the paramagnetic lanthanide complex (in mol \cdot dm⁻³) and s_f is the shape factor of the magnet ($s_f = 4\pi/3$ for a cylindrical sample in a superconducting magnet (Baker et al., 1988)) and $2.828 = \sqrt{3k/(N_A\beta^2)}$. This term vanishes when a frequency-locked spectrometer is used together with an internal standard as a reference for chemical shifts, two conditions which are usually met when recording NMR spectra (Peters et al., 1996). However, δ_j^{bulk} can be of interest for the determination of effective electronic magnetic momenta (μ_{eff}) and associated isotropic paramagnetic susceptibilities ($\chi_0 = (1/3) \operatorname{Tr}(\chi)$, eq. (2)) of lanthanide complexes in solution after corrections for solvent effects (Grant, 1995) and diamagnetic contributions (Piguet, 1997). Recently, the measurement of δ_j^{bulk} induced by paramagnetic lanthanide MRI contrast agents has been used for addressing their in vivo concentrations (Corsi et al., 2001).

$$\mu_{\rm eff} = 2.828 \sqrt{\chi_0 \cdot T}.\tag{2}$$

Secondly, the lanthanide induced relaxation (LIR) responsible for the broadening of the NMR signals (i.e., the decrease of characteristic longitudinal (T_1) and transversal (T_2) nuclear relaxation times) can be traced back to fluctuations of the magnetic field induced by variations of the electronic magnetic momenta due to electronic relaxation, molecular tumbling and chemical exchange processes. Theoretical background has been given by Solomon (1955) and Bloembergen and Morgan (1961), and the recent developments of slow-relaxing Gd(III) complexes working as contrast agents for magnetic resonance

imaging (MRI) have contributed to improve theoretical modeling (Peters et al., 1996; Aime et al., 1998; Babailov and Krieger, 1998; Caravan et al., 1999; Geraldes, 1999; Sharp, 2001). As far as the elucidation of molecular structures of lanthanide complexes in solution is concerned, fast-relaxing paramagnetic ions (R = Ce-Yb, except Gd) are better candidates for extracting lanthanide-nucleus *i* distances from the electronic-induced paramagnetic dipolar and spin-Curie contributions to the nuclear relaxation processes (Bertini et al., 1993a; Aime et al., 1992a). A short description of this technique together with relevant applications for exploring the solution structures of axial lanthanide complexes is proposed in the next section, although the relaxation processes are not the central theme of this review. Finally, the hyperfine paramagnetic lanthanide induced shift (LIS, $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}$) contains crucial informations about (i) electronic structures and spin delocalisation (via the contact contribution δ_{ii}^{c}) and (ii) molecular structures and magnetic anisotropies (via the pseudo-contact contribution δ_{ij}^{pc}) (Sherry and Geraldes, 1989; Bertini and Luchinat, 1996; Peters et al., 1996; Forsberg, 1996). The experimental hyperfine shift of a nucleus *i* in a paramagnetic complex of a lanthanide j (δ_{ij}^{exp} in ppm) can be partitioned according to eq. (3) in which δ_i^{dia} corresponds to the underlying diamagnetic shift measured for the analogous $4f^0$ (R = La, Y) or $4f^{14}$ configurations (R = Lu) and δ_j^{bulk} is the bulk paramagnetic susceptibility ($\delta_j^{\text{bulk}} = 0$ when an internal reference is used)

$$\delta_{ij}^{\exp} = \delta_i^{\text{dia}} + \delta_j^{\text{bulk}} + \delta_{ij}^{\text{para}} = \delta_i^{\text{dia}} + \delta_j^{\text{bulk}} + \delta_i^{\text{c}} + \delta_{ij}^{\text{pc}}.$$
(3a)

The hyperfine paramagnetic contribution (LIS, $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}$) corresponding to the sum of contact (through-bond) and pseudo-contact (through-space) effects is easily obtained from the experimental NMR data:

$$LIS = \delta_{ij}^{\text{para}} = \delta_{ij}^{\text{c}} + \delta_{ij}^{\text{pc}} = \delta_{ij}^{\text{exp}} - \delta_{i}^{\text{dia}}.$$
(3b)

Since the first observations by Hinckley (1969) demonstrating the ability of lanthanide chelates to induce paramagnetic LIS shifts, theoretical modeling has established the physical origins of the contact (Golding and Halton, 1972; Pinkerton et al., 1985) and pseudo-contact (Bleaney, 1972; Bleaney et al., 1972; Golding and Pyykkö, 1973; Stout and Gutowsky, 1976; Horrocks, 1977; McGarvey, 1979) contributions. Interestingly, for a given paramagnetic lanthanide, δ_{ii}^{c} depends exclusively on the magnitude of the spin delocalisation mediated by scalar Fermi interactions, and thus reflects the topology and the nature of the chemical bonds separating the paramagnetic lanthanide and the nucleus under investigation. On the other hand, δ_{ii}^{pc} results from the residual isotropic dipolar coupling between the electronic and nuclear magnetic momenta which depends on the molecular magnetic anisotropy induced by the lanthanide and the geometrical position of the nucleus under investigation. This second term contains the geometrical informations required to extract molecular structures in solution and much efforts have been focused on reliable and physically-meaningful separations of these two contributions from the experimental LIS (Reilley et al., 1975, 1976; Desreux and Reilley, 1976; Kemple et al., 1988; Forsberg et al., 1995; Lisowski et al., 1995a). Once reliable pseudocontact terms are at hand, the complicated dependence of δ_{ii}^{pc} on the internal coordinates and

on the anisotropic part of the magnetic susceptibility tensor (see sect. 2.3) requires some preliminar assumptions. If (i) a large number of reliable pseudo-contact shifts are accessible and (ii) an efficient modeling of the three-dimensional structure is accessible (as in proteins), the calculation of the magnetic susceptibility tensors from an initial structural model followed by iterative non-linear least-squares fits provides the desired structural and magnetic informations (structure-dependent method: Kemple et al. (1988), Forsberg et al. (1995), Lisowski et al. (1995a)). For lanthanide complexes of intermediate size, contact contributions are rarely negligible and it is necessary to use a reliable a priori model of the magnetic anisotropy produced by the lanthanide site in order to extract the missing structural informations (modelfree method, Bleaney (1972)). Both approaches have been addressed in two recent reviews by Forsberg (1996) and Peters et al. (1996) who conclude that structure-dependent techniques are better suited for solving solution structures since the magnetic anisotropy is obtained as a fitted parameter. However, the difficult structural and geometrical modeling of semi-rigid supramolecular edifices of intermediate size containing numerous weak noncovalent interactions and dative bonds (Fraternali and Wipff, 1997; Ulrich et al., 1997; Berny et al., 1999) combined with the extreme sensitivity of programmed functions to minor structural changes in lanthanide complexes have led to a revival of the model-free techniques for detecting crystal-field variations and structural changes (Ren and Sherry, 1996; Platas et al., 1999; Rigault et al., 2000a, 2000b). Since the seminal reviews of Forsberg (1996) and Peters et al. (1996), the application of the classical structure-independent one-nucleus method for axial lanthanide complexes has shown some limitations (Rigault and Piguet, 2000) and further developments including two- and three-nuclei techniques (Platas et al., 1999; Geraldes et al., 2001) based on original concepts previously introduced by Reuben (1982) and Spiliadis and Pinkerton (1982) have been implemented for establishing isostructurality and electronic structures (Ren and Sherry, 1996; Platas et al., 1999; Rigault et al., 2000a, 2000b).

This review focuses on the use and limitations of the model-free methods in axial paramagnetic supramolecular mono- and polymetallic lanthanide-containing complexes. A comprehensive survey of the systems with three- and fourfold symmetry for which these techniques have been applied is proposed together with a detailed discussion of the limitations of Bleaney's approach for the modeling of paramagnetic anisotropies and the detection of structural changes along the lanthanide series.

2. Theory

2.1. Nuclear relaxation in paramagnetic lanthanide complexes for extracting *R*-nucleus distances

For any nucleus *i* of a paramagnetic lanthanide complex in the absence of significant chemical exchange, the experimental longitudinal $(1/T_{1i}^{\exp})$ and transversal $(1/T_{2i}^{\exp})$ nuclear relaxation rates are given by eqs. (4), (5) in which T_i^{dia} corresponds to the characteristic relaxation times of the same nucleus *i* in the analogous diamagnetic complex (R = La, Y, Lu) and T_i^{para} are

the paramagnetic contributions induced by the lanthanide metal ion (Peters et al., 1996),

$$\frac{1}{T_{1i}^{\exp}} = \frac{1}{T_{1i}^{\operatorname{dia}}} + \frac{1}{T_{1i}^{\operatorname{para}}},\tag{4}$$

$$\frac{1}{T_{2i}^{\exp}} = \frac{1}{T_{2i}^{\text{dia}}} + \frac{1}{T_{2i}^{\text{para}}}.$$
(5)

The paramagnetic contributions $1/T_i^{\text{para}}$, often termed as lanthanide-induced relaxation (LIR), arise from inner-sphere and outer-sphere mechanisms, the latter being negligible for molecular or supramolecular complexes in which the nuclei under investigation are embedded into bulky and semi-rigid organic ligand strands exhibiting slow chemical exchange (Peters et al., 1996; Platas et al., 1999). The paramagnetic inner-sphere relaxation may be traced back to the fluctuating magnetic field produced by the electronic magnetic momentum which induces nuclear spin transitions for nuclei whose magnetic momentum interacts with the electronic magnetic momentum (Solomon, 1955; Bloembergen and Morgan, 1961; Bertini and Luchinat, 1996; Peters et al., 1996). This electron–nucleus interaction is randomly modulated by a characteristic correlation time τ_c which depends on the electron spin relaxation (τ_e , Sharp et al. (2001)), molecular tumbling (τ_r) and chemical exchange (τ_m). Since only the rate constants are additive, τ_c is given by eq. (6), and it is dominated by the shortest correlation time, τ_c being even smaller than this one (Clementi and Luchinat, 1998)

$$\frac{1}{\tau_{\rm c}} = \frac{1}{\tau_{\rm e}} + \frac{1}{\tau_{\rm r}} + \frac{1}{\tau_{\rm m}}.$$
(6)

For semi-rigid molecular and supramolecular complexes considered in this review, the nuclei under investigation only exhibit slow chemical exchange and τ_m does not significantly contribute to τ_c ($\tau_m \gg \tau_e, \tau_r$). It will not be considered further in the discussion. The interaction between the electronic and nuclear magnetic momenta has two physical origins: contact (through-bond) and dipolar (through-space) effects, but three different mechanisms (one for contact and two for dipolar effects) are responsible for the increase of both the longitudinal (i.e., the decay of the *z*-component of the nuclear magnetisation) and the transversal nuclear relaxation rates (i.e., the loss of coherence of nuclear magnetisation in the *xy*-plane control-ling the line width of the NMR signals $\Delta_v^{1/2} = 1/(\pi T_{2i}^{exp})$).

2.1.1. Lanthanide-induced contact relaxation

Unpaired electronic density can be delocalized onto the various nuclei of the complex via through-bond scalar hyperfine interactions involving occupied orbitals containing s-character (direct interaction or polarization according to the Fermi mechanism, Wertz and Bolton (1986)). Random electron relaxation thus produces a flip–flop mechanism which affects the nuclear spin and increases nuclear relaxation processes (Bertini and Luchinat, 1996). Since these interactions are isotropic, they do not depend on molecular tumbling and τ_e is the only relevant correlation time for non-exchanging semi-rigid complexes. Moreover, only electronic spin can be delocalized via hyperfine interactions (no orbital contribution) and the contact re-

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laxations given by eqs. (7), (8) involve the spin quantum number S (Bloembergen, 1957).

$$\frac{1}{T_{1i}^{\text{para-contact}}} = \frac{S(S+1)}{3} \left(\frac{A_i}{\hbar}\right)^2 \left(\frac{2\tau_e}{1+\omega_S^2 \tau_e^2}\right),\tag{7}$$

$$\frac{1}{T_{2i}^{\text{para-contact}}} = \frac{S(S+1)}{3} \left(\frac{A_i}{\hbar}\right)^2 \left(\tau_e + \frac{\tau_e}{1 + \omega_S^2 \tau_e^2}\right),\tag{8}$$

 A_i is the Fermi hyperfine constant (in Hz) and ω_S is the Larmor precession frequency of the unpaired electrons (in Hz). As a result of the very limited covalency of the lanthanide–ligand bonds, A_i are small and only nuclei close to the metallic centre are significantly affected. Along the lanthanide series, R(III) = Gd(III) (S = 7/2 and $\tau_e \approx 10^{-8} - 10^{-9}$ s, tables 1, 2) is the unique metal ion for which spin momenta (S) and electronic relaxation time (τ_e) are large enough to produce significant contact contributions. Since $\omega_S^2 \tau_e^2$ is extremely large for Gd(III) complexes, the contact contribution to the longitudinal relaxation ($1/T_{1i}^{\text{para-contact}}$) is negligible, but the existence of a non-dispersive term for the transverse contact contribution (eq. (8)) implies that this mechanism may dominate the transverse relaxation of water molecules bound to MRI contrasts agents (Aime et al., 1998, 1999a; Caravan et al., 1999). For the other lanthanides (R = Ce-Yb except Gd), the fast electronic relaxation ($\tau_e \approx 10^{-13}$ s, table 2) strongly limits contact contributions which can be neglected for the modeling of nuclear relaxation processes in theses complexes.

Config.	Ions	Ground state	g_J^a	$\mu_{\rm eff}$ /B.M.	$\zeta^{\rm b}$ /cm ⁻¹	1st excited state	Energy state separation /cm ⁻¹	
$4f^1$	Ce ³⁺	$^{2}F_{5/2}$	6/7	2.54	737	$^{2}F_{7/2}$	2200	
$4f^2$	Pr ³⁺	$^{3}H_{4}$	4/5	3.58	879	$^{3}H_{5}$	2100	
$4f^3$	Nd ³⁺	$^{4}I_{9/2}$	8/11	3.62	1030	$^{4}L_{11/2}$	1900	
$4f^4$	Pm ³⁺	${}^{5}I_{4}$	3/5	2.68	1190	⁵ I ₅	1600	
$4f^5$	Sm ³⁺	${}^{6}\text{H}_{5/2}$	2/7	0.85	1361	${}^{6}\mathrm{H}_{7/2}$	1000	
$4f^{6}$	Eu ³⁺	${}^{7}F_{0}$	5	0	1436	${}^{7}F_{1}$	300	
$4f^7$	Gd ³⁺	$8S_{7/2}$	2	7.94	1755	$^{6}P_{7/2}$	30000	
4f ⁸	Tb^{3+}	${}^{7}F_{6}$	3/2	9.72	1965	$^{7}F_{5}$	2000	
4f ⁹	Dy ³⁺	$^{6}H_{15/2}$	4/3	10.65	2189	⁶ H _{13/2}	3300	
$4f^{10}$	Ho ³⁺	⁵ I ₈	5/4	10.61	2436	⁵ I ₇	5300	
$4f^{11}$	Er ³⁺	$4I_{15/2}$	6/5	9.58	2700	$^{4}I_{13/2}$	6500	
$4f^{12}$	Tm ³⁺	${}^{3}H_{6}$	7/6	7.56	2817	${}^{3}H_{5}$	5700	
$4f^{13}$	Yh ³⁺	${}^{2}F_{7/2}$	8/7	4.54	3288	$^{2}F_{5/2}$	10000	

Table 1
Electronic characteristics of $R(III)$ free ions

 ${}^{a}g_{J} = 1 + \frac{J(J+1)+S(S+1)-L(L+1)}{2J(J+1)}$. The latter formula is not valid for J = 0 and the mathematical limit $g_{J} = 5$ is given for Eu(III) in its ground state ⁷F₀ (Kahn, 1993).

^bTaken from Golding and Halton (1972).

PARAMAGNETIC NMR LANTHANIDE INDUCED SHIFTS

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Config.	Ions	$ au_{ m e}$	$ au_{ m e}$	$ au_{ m r}$
		(10 ⁻¹² s, 312 K) ^a	(10 ⁻¹² s, 298 K) ^b	(10 ⁻¹² s, 298 K) ^b
$4f^1$	Ce ³⁺	0.09	-	-
$4f^2$	Pr ³⁺	0.057	0.082	63
$4f^3$	Nd ³⁺	0.115	-	-
$4f^4$	Pm ³⁺	_	_	_
$4f^5$	Sm ³⁺	0.045	0.079	67
4f ⁶	Eu ³⁺	0.009	-	-
$4f^7$	Gd ³⁺	_	$10^{3}-10^{4c}$	41 ^d
4f ⁸	Tb ³⁺	0.203	_	_
4f ⁹	Dy ³⁺	0.299	0.39	63
$4f^{10}$	Ho ³⁺	0.194	0.27	65
$4f^{11}$	Er ³⁺	0.238	0.31	61
$4f^{12}$	Tm ³⁺	0.369	-	_
4f ¹³	Yb ³⁺	0.137	0.22	68

Table 2 Electronic ($\tau_{\rm e}$) and rotational ($\tau_{\rm r}$) correlation relaxation times for *R*(III) aqua-complexes

^aTaken from Alsaadi et al. (1980c, 1980d).

^bTaken from Bertini et al. (1993a).

^cTaken from Bertini et al. (1993b).

^dTaken from Powell et al. (1996).

2.1.2. Lanthanide-induced dipolar relaxation

According to the classic description of the through-space coupling between two point dipoles, the nuclear and electronic magnetic momenta produce a dipolar interaction which depends on their separation and orientation (Bertini and Luchinat, 1996). Since the electronic magnetic momentum is 2–3 orders of magnitude larger than the nuclear momenta, the interest is restricted to the fluctuation of the magnetic field provided by the unpaired electron spins which can induce nuclear transitions via dipolar coupling. The modulation of this interaction results from electronic relaxation (τ_e) and molecular tumbling (τ_r) leading to the correlation time $\tau_c^{-1} = \tau_e^{-1} + \tau_r^{-1}$ in the absence of chemical exchange. The Solomon equations (eqs. (9), (10)) model this dipolar contribution assuming that the nuclear Larmor procession frequency (ω_I) is negligible with respect to the electronic Larmor frequency ($\omega_S \gg \omega_I$) (Solomon, 1955; Bertini and Luchinat, 1996)

$$\frac{1}{T_{1i}^{\text{para-dipolar}}} = \frac{2}{15} \left(\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi}\right)^2 \frac{\gamma_I \mu_{\text{eff}}^2 \beta^2}{r_i^6} \left(\frac{3\tau_c}{1+\omega_I^2 \tau_c^2} + \frac{7\tau_c}{1+\omega_S^2 \tau_c^2}\right),\tag{9}$$

$$\frac{1}{T_{2i}^{\text{para-dipolar}}} = \frac{1}{15} \left(\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi}\right)^2 \frac{\gamma_I \mu_{\text{eff}}^2 \beta^2}{r_i^6} \left(4\tau_{\text{c}} + \frac{3\tau_{\text{c}}}{1 + \omega_I^2 \tau_{\text{c}}^2} + \frac{13\tau_{\text{c}}}{1 + \omega_S^2 \tau_{\text{c}}^2}\right),\tag{10}$$

 $\mu_0/4\pi$ is the magnetic permeability of vacuum, γ_I is the nuclear magnetogyric ratio, β is the Bohr magneton and r_i is the *R*(III)-nucleus *i* distance. For molecular and supramolecular complexes of intermediate size discussed in this review, $\tau_r \approx 10^{-11}$ – 10^{-9} s (Aime et al., 1992a; Caravan et al., 1999; Rigault et al., 2000b) and $\tau_e \ll \tau_r$ for all lanthanide com-

plexes except those with R = Gd. However, the electron-nuclear spin coupling is so effective for Gd(III) complexes that high-resolution NMR spectra cannot be recorded as a result of the considerable dipolar paramagnetic contribution to the nuclear relaxation processes. This lanthanide is thus never used for the analysis of hyperfine shift data (LIS) discussed in this review and its peculiar effect on relaxation processes will not be further considered here. Detailed and comprehensive treatments of relaxation processes in Gd(III) complexes can be found in excellent recent reviews by Peters et al. (1996), Aime et al. (1998) and Caravan et al. (1999). For R = Ce-Yb (except R = Gd), the modulation of the dipolar electron-nuclear interaction by molecular tumbling is thus negligible and $\tau_c \cong \tau_e$. Finally, τ_e is usually so short for fast-relaxing R(III) that $\omega_I^2 \tau_c^2 \ll 1$ and $\omega_S^2 \tau_c^2 \ll 1$ (low-field or fast-motion limit, Bertini and Luchinat (1996)) and eqs. (9), (10) simplify to eq. (11)

$$\frac{1}{T_{1i}^{\text{para-dipolar}}} = \frac{1}{T_{2i}^{\text{para-dipolar}}} = \frac{4}{3} \left(\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi}\right)^2 \frac{\gamma_I \mu_{\text{eff}}^2 \beta^2}{r_i^6} \tau_{\text{e}}.$$
(11)

This equation justifies the qualitative statement that the shorter the electronic relaxation times, the smaller paramagnetic effects on nuclear relaxation. It also predicts that the dipolar contribution is maximum for strongly paramagnetic lanthanides (via μ_{eff}) and for nuclei located close to the metal ion (via r_i).

2.1.3. Lanthanide-induced Curie-spin relaxation

In deriving the contact and dipolar contributions induced by the unpaired electrons (eqs. (7)–(11)), the small difference in the population of the electron spin levels according to the Boltzmann distribution has been neglected (Bertini and Luchinat, 1996). However, this difference accounts for the existence of a time-average magnetic momentum $\langle \mu \rangle$. The time-average excess of spin along the quantization *z*-axis $\langle S_z \rangle$ is called the expectation value of the S_z operator and is given by eq. (12) (Bertini and Luchinat, 1996; Bertini et al., 2002)

$$\langle S_z \rangle = \frac{\sum_{M_S=-S}^{S} \langle S, M_s | S_z | S, M_s \rangle \exp(-g_e \beta H_0 M_S / kT)}{\sum_{M_S=-S}^{S} \exp(-g_e \beta H_0 M_S / kT)} = -\frac{g_e \beta H_0 S(S+1)}{3kT}, \quad (12)$$

 g_e is the Landé factor and H_0 is the applied magnetic field responsible for the removing of the degeneracy of the M_S spin levels. For lanthanide complexes, $\langle S_z \rangle$ must be replaced by $\langle J_z \rangle$ because of the considerable orbital contribution to the total angular momentum. The associated static electronic magnetic momentum is given by $\langle \mu \rangle = -g_e \beta \langle S_z \rangle$ and it interacts with the nuclear spins via dipolar mechanism. Random modulation of this interaction through molecular tumbling (τ_r) may induce nuclear spin transitions and contributes to nuclear relaxation. This second dipolar mechanism described by eqs. (13), (14) is termed Curie-spin relaxation in order to reflect its relationship with the static magnetic susceptibility given by the Curie law

$$\frac{1}{T_{1i}^{\text{para-Curie}}} = \frac{6}{5} \left(\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi}\right)^2 \frac{\gamma_I^2 \mu_{\text{eff}}^4 \beta^4 H_0^2}{r_i^6 (3kT)^2} \left(\frac{\tau_{\text{r}}}{1 + \omega_I^2 \tau_{\text{r}}^2}\right),\tag{13}$$

$$\frac{1}{T_{2i}^{\text{para-Curie}}} = \frac{1}{5} \left(\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi}\right)^2 \frac{\gamma_I^2 \mu_{\text{eff}}^4 \beta^4 H_0^2}{r_i^6 (3kT)^2} \left(4\tau_r + \frac{3\tau_r}{1 + \omega_I^2 \tau_r^2}\right).$$
(14)

The mathematical forms of the Curie-spin contributions are similar to those found for transient dipolar contributions (eqs. (9)–(11), dependence on r_i^{-6}) except that (i) they increase with magnetic field (via H_0^2) and (ii) they are more sensitive to the nuclear magnetogyric ratio and electronic magnetic momentum. The Curie-spin contribution is often much smaller than the dipolar contribution except for ¹H NMR experiments (large γ_I) performed at high magnetic field (large H_0) for bulky (large τ_r) and strongly paramagnetic (large μ_{eff}) complexes. However, fast-relaxing lanthanide complexes (i.e., possessing very short τ_e , R = Ce-Yb, except Gd) of intermediate size considered in this review often fulfill these criteria and the Curie contributions (eqs. (13), (14)) become comparable with transient dipolar contributions (eq. (11)). The associated total paramagnetic contribution $1/T_i^{para}$ to the nuclear relaxation processes (eqs. (4), (5)) in the absence of chemical exchange thus corresponds to the sum of these two dipolar contributions and is given by eqs. (15), (16).

$$\frac{1}{T_{1i}^{\text{para}}} = \frac{4}{3} \left(\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi}\right)^2 \frac{\gamma_I \mu_{\text{eff}}^2 \beta^2}{r_i^6} \tau_{\text{e}} + \frac{6}{5} \left(\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi}\right)^2 \frac{\gamma_I^2 \mu_{\text{eff}}^4 \beta^4 H_0^2}{r_i^6 (3kT)^2} \left(\frac{\tau_{\text{r}}}{1 + \omega_I^2 \tau_{\text{r}}^2}\right),\tag{15}$$

$$\frac{1}{T_{2i}^{\text{para}}} = \frac{4}{3} \left(\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi}\right)^2 \frac{\gamma_I \mu_{\text{eff}}^2 \beta^2}{r_i^6} \tau_{\text{e}} + \frac{1}{5} \left(\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi}\right)^2 \frac{\gamma_I^2 \mu_{\text{eff}}^4 \beta^4 H_0^2}{r_i^6 (3kT)^2} \left(4\tau_{\text{r}} + \frac{3\tau_{\text{r}}}{1 + \omega_I^2 \tau_{\text{r}}^2}\right).$$
(16)

When τ_r is determined by an independent experiment such as dipolar relaxation measurements in analogous diamagnetic complexes (Wasylishen, 1987), the magnetic field dependence of $1/T_i^{\text{para}}$ is relevant for extracting *R*-nuclei distances (r_i) at a fixed temperature in solution. Least-squares fits of $1/T_{1i}^{\text{para}}$ vs $H_0^2/(1 + \omega_I^2 \tau_r^2)$ (eq. (15), Burns and LaMar (1982)) or $1/T_{2i}^{\text{para}}$ vs $H_0^2(4\tau_r + 3\tau_r/(1 + \omega_I^2 \tau_r^2))$ (eq. (16), or vs H_0^2 when $\omega_I^2 \tau_r^2 \ll 1$, Allegrozzi et al. (2000)) allow the simultaneous estimation of r_i from the slope and τ_e from the intercept. A linear combination of eqs. (15) and (16) has been proposed to remove τ_e from the fitting process thus leading to the determination of r_i at a single magnetic field (eq. (17), Aime et al. (1992a)), but this technique requires the accurate determination of T_{2i}^{para} which is often prevented by unresolved scalar coupling in supramolecular lanthanide complexes (Carr–Purcell–Meiboon–Gill pulse sequence (Meiboom and Gill, 1958) or line-width analysis (Rigault et al., 2000b)).

$$\frac{1}{T_{2i}^{\text{para}}} - \frac{1}{T_{1i}^{\text{para}}} = \frac{1}{5} \left(\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi}\right)^2 \frac{\gamma_i^2 \mu_{\text{eff}}^4 \beta^4 H_0^2}{r_i^6 (3kT)^2} \left(4\tau_r + \frac{3\tau_r}{1 + \omega_l^2 \tau_r^2}\right).$$
(17)

When τ_r is unknown, it can be adjusted together with τ_e and r_i by using non-linear leastsquares fits of eqs. (15), (16) as similarly described for the treatment of NMRD profiles (Bertini et al., 1995; Ruloff et al., 1998; Toth et al., 1998), but a much simpler approach considers that both dipolar and Curie-spin contribution depend on r_i^{-6} . When a nucleus for which the *R*-nucleus distance r_{ref} can be estimated either from crystal structure or gas-phase modeling is used as a reference, eq. (15) reduces to its simplest form (eq. (18)) and relative *R*-nucleus *i* distances are accessible without estimations of τ_e and τ_r (Barry et al., 1971; Forsberg, 1996; Brink et al., 1996)

$$\frac{T_{1i}^{\text{para}}}{T_{1\text{ref}}^{\text{para}}} = \left(\frac{r_i}{r_{\text{ref}}}\right)^6.$$
(18)

The latter technique is particularly appreciated by coordination chemists because of its simple mathematical formulation and the limited amount of experimental data to be collected (longitudinal relaxation times at a single magnetic field obtained by the inversion–recovery method (Vold et al., 1968)). However, the a priori choice of a reference distance (r_{ref}) requires a partial modeling of the complex and the extracted distances strongly depend on the accuracy of this original choice.

2.2. Contact shifts and through-bond spin delocalisation in paramagnetic lanthanide complexes

Since electrons relax orders of magnitude faster than nuclei, the nucleus in each of its M_I energy level only senses an average static magnetic momentum $\langle \mu \rangle = -g_e \beta \langle S_z \rangle$ which results from the slight excess of electron population in the $M_S = -1/2$ state. In paramagnetic NMR, the nucleus under investigation is rarely that bearing the unpaired electrons. Delocalisation of the spin density occurring either through direct Fermi hyperfine interaction or polarization of occupied s-containing molecular orbitals (Wertz and Bolton, 1986; Lisowski et al., 1995b), produces an additional magnetic field ΔH generated at the nucleus by the fraction of electron magnetic momentum located at the nucleus itself. Since the nuclear resonance frequency (i.e., the chemical shift) depends on the total magnetic field, this mechanism provides a contact contribution to the paramagnetic shift of a nucleus *i* (δ_i^c) which is given by eq. (19) (Bertini and Luchinat, 1996).

$$\delta_i^c = \frac{\Delta H}{H_0} = \frac{A_i}{\hbar \gamma_I H_0} \langle S_z \rangle.$$
⁽¹⁹⁾

Substituting the value $\langle S_z \rangle$ given by eq. (12) for a pure spin contribution arising from the metallic centre into eq. (19) gives eq. (20) which predicts (i) a T^{-1} dependence of δ_i^c and (ii) large contact shifts for strongly paramagnetic complexes possessing efficient spin delocalisation

$$\delta_i^{\rm c} = \frac{A_i}{\hbar} \cdot \frac{g_{\rm e}\beta S(S+1)}{3\gamma_I kT}.$$
(20)

Strictly speaking, δ_i^c is not isotropic when g_e varies with molecular orientation (i.e., the magnetic susceptibility tensor is anisotropic), but typical values for proton hyperfine anisotropy amounts to $\approx 10^5$ Hz which is much smaller than τ_r^{-1} in solution, thus leading to the observation of average isotropic contact shifts (g_e should be therefore replaced by \bar{g} in eq. (20), Bertini and Luchinat (1996)). For lanthanides, the contact contribution is strongly limited by the minute covalency of the metal–ligand bonds and only weak spin delocalisation involves the 6s metal orbital which in turn slightly polarizes the 4f orbitals (Lewis et al., 1962; Lisowski et al., 1995b). Therefore contact contributions only affect nuclei topologically close

to the lanthanide metal ion and the hyperfine constants A_i rapidly decrease with increasing separation (A_i is usually negligible for a R(III)-nucleus separation larger than three bonds). Equation (19) holds for lanthanide complexes because the spin expectation value $\langle S_z \rangle$ explicitly considers the populations of the ground and excited J manifold levels together with second-order terms mixing excited states with the ground state (Golding and Halton, 1972). For each J manifold, the expectation value $\langle S_z \rangle_J$ is given by eq. (21) and a Boltzmann distribution for the populations of the involved levels allows the calculation of $\langle S_z \rangle$ (eq. (22), $\lambda = \pm \zeta/2S$ in which ζ is the spin orbit coupling constant collected in table 1)

$$\langle S_{z} \rangle_{J} = -\frac{\beta H_{0}}{3kT} \bigg[g_{J} (g_{J} - 1) J (J + 1) + \bigg(\frac{2kT}{\lambda}\bigg) (g_{J} - 1) (g_{J} - 2) \bigg],$$
(21)

$$\langle S_z \rangle = \frac{\sum_J \langle S_z \rangle_J (2J+1) \exp(-\lambda J (J+1)/2kT)}{\sum_J (2J+1) \exp(-\lambda J (J+1)/2kT)}.$$
(22)

Numerical calculations of $\langle S_z \rangle$ at 300 K obtained with eq. (22) for all *R*(III) free ions are collected in table 3 (Golding and Halton, 1972). Pinkerton et al. (1985) have demonstrated that $\langle S_z \rangle$ are relatively insensitive to the choice of various sets of reported spin-orbit coupling constants. Moreover, except for R = Sm and Eu, $\langle S_z \rangle$ displays a minor dependence on the temperature and the data calculated at 300 K (table 3) are amenable for a reliable treatment of contact shifts in solution around room temperature. The close proximity of excited states possessing different *J* manifolds for Sm(III) requires a precise calculation of $\langle S_z \rangle$ at each temperature as is the case for R = Eu. However, the latter metal brings some specific complications associated with the absence of a well-defined g_J value for its J = 0 ground state. Golding

Table 3
Spin expectation values ^a $\langle S_z \rangle$ and Bleaney's factors ^b C for R(III) free ions a
300 K, and rhombic proportionality factors ^c C ^{rhombic}

Config.	Ions	$\langle S_z \rangle$	С	Crhombic
$4f^1$	Ce ³⁺	-0.98	-6.3	-
$4f^2$	Pr ³⁺	-2.97	-11.0	-0.6
$4f^3$	Nd ³⁺	-4.49	-4.2	-2.3
$4f^4$	Pm ³⁺	-4.01	2.0	_
4f ⁵	Sm ³⁺	0.06	-0.7	_
4f ⁶	Eu ³⁺	10.68	4.0	3.4
$4f^7$	Gd ³⁺	31.50	0.0	_
4f ⁸	Tb^{3+}	31.82	-86	7.7
4f ⁹	Dy ³⁺	28.55	-100	-55.7
4f ¹⁰	Ho ³⁺	22.63	-39	-13.6
$4f^{11}$	Er ³⁺	15.37	33	-3.8
4f ¹²	Tm ³⁺	8.21	53	-34.0
4f ¹³	Yb ³⁺	2.59	22	4.7

^aTaken from Golding and Halton (1972).

^bValues relative to $C_{\text{Dy}} = -100$ including mixing with excited states (Bleaney, 1972; Bleaney et al., 1972).

^cValues relative to $C_{\text{Dy}} = -100$ (Reuben and Elgavish, 1980).

and Halton (1972) used the mathematical limit $g_J = 5$ for Eu(⁷F₀) (Kahn, 1993) in order to obtain $\langle S_z \rangle = 10.68$ reported in table 3. Pinkerton et al. (1985) proposed $g_{J=0} = 4.4$ from experimental fits of contact contributions, thus leading to $\langle S_z \rangle = 7.57$ at 300 K. This incertitude may limit the determination of hyperfine constants for Eu(III) complexes. Interestingly, $\langle S_z \rangle$ can be positive or negative for R(III) ions and may considerably differ from the spin-only value owing to the large orbital contributions. On the other hand, the use of $\langle S_z \rangle$, and not $\langle J_{z} \rangle$, is adequate because only the spin is delocalized onto the molecules (Bertini and Luchinat, 1996). Equations (21), (22) assume that (i) kT > Zeeman splitting and (ii) crystal-field effects are negligible ($\Delta E_{CF} < kT$). The first hypothesis is justified for NMR measurements around room temperature, but the second one is more debatable, particularly for lanthanide complexes with 'soft' donor ligands providing large crystal-field effects $\Delta E_{\rm CF} > 400 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (Mironov et al., 2000). However, the extremely narrow range of μ_{eff} observed at room temperature for lanthanide complexes displaying various structures and geometries (Kahn, 1993; Bünzli, 1998; Kaltsoyannis and Scott, 1999) suggest that crystal-field splitting has only minor effects on $\langle S_z \rangle$. The recent success of the application of the two-nuclei crystal-field independent method (eq. (51)) for the evaluation of isostructurality in rigid axial supramolecular complexes also supports this conclusion (Rigault et al., 2000a, 2000b), but, to the best of our knowledge, a detailed modeling of $\langle S_z \rangle$ for specific crystal-field potentials has not been considered in the literature.

2.3. Pseudo-contact shifts and through-space interactions in paramagnetic lanthanide complexes

Since the spin delocalisation in lanthanide complexes is small (see sect. 2.1), the unpaired electrons can be considered as spatially confined onto the metal, thus producing an electronic magnetic point dipole which may interact with peripheral nuclear magnetic momenta via dipolar interactions (eq. (23), Bertini and Luchinat (1996)).

$$E_{\rm dip} = -\left(\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi}\right) \frac{1}{r^3} \left[3 \frac{(\langle \mu \rangle \cdot r)(\mu_{I\kappa} \cdot r)}{r^2} - \left(\langle \mu \rangle \cdot \mu_{I\kappa}\right) \right],\tag{23}$$

 E_{dip} is the energy of the dipolar interaction between the electronic magnetic momentum of the electron (represented by its average value $\langle \mu \rangle$) and the nuclear magnetic momentum (represented by its projection along the magnetic field $\mu_{I\kappa}$) and *r* is the separation between the two magnetic point dipoles. E_{dip} varies for two nuclear spin states differing by $\Delta M_I = \pm 1$ ($\mu_{I\kappa}$ depends on the orientation of the nuclear spin vector) which affects the condition of resonance of this nucleus, and thus produces a dipolar contribution δ^{dip} to the chemical shift given by eq. (24), which reduces to eq. (25) for a magnetically isotropic compound

$$\delta^{\rm dip} = \frac{E_{\rm dip}(M_I) - E_{\rm dip}(M_{I+1})}{\hbar \gamma_I H_0},\tag{24}$$

$$\delta^{\rm dip} = \frac{1}{4\pi N_{\rm A} r_i^3} \chi \left(3\cos^2(\gamma) - 1 \right), \tag{25}$$

 χ is the magnetic susceptibility tensor, γ is the angle between the metal-nucleus vector \mathbf{r} and the external magnetic field. Integration of eq. (25) over all molecular orientations averages

zero and no dipolar shift is expected for molecules possessing an isotropic magnetic susceptibility tensor ($\chi_{xx} = \chi_{yy} = \chi_{zz}$) in solution. However, for an axially anisotropic electronic magnetic momentum ($\chi_{II} \neq \chi_{\perp}$), eq. (25) becomes eq. (26) and integration over all molecular orientations is no longer zero (Bertini et al., 2002). In the latter equation α is the angle of the *z* axis with the external field direction, θ is the angle between the metal-nucleus vector and the *z* axis and Ω defines the position of the metal-nucleus vector on the basal plane of the revolution cone defined by the rotation of the metal-nucleus vector about the *z*-axis (Bertini and Luchinat, 1996)

$$\delta^{\rm dip} = \frac{1}{4\pi N_{\rm A} r^3} \Big[\chi_{\rm II} \cos^2 \alpha \big(3\cos^2 \theta - 1 \big) + \chi_{\perp} \sin^2 \alpha \big(3\sin^2 \theta \cos^2 \Omega - 1 \big) \\ + \frac{3}{4} (\chi_{\rm II} - \chi_{\perp}) \sin 2\alpha \sin 2\theta \cos \Omega \Big].$$
(26)

Since this dipolar interaction remains in isotropic media as similarly found for the contact shift (see sect. 2.1), it is often termed as the pseudo-contact shift. For the general case of a complex possessing an anisotropic magnetic susceptibility tensor, Kemple et al. (1988) show that the pseudo-contact shift δ_i^{pc} of a nucleus *i* is given by eq. (27) where r_i , θ_i and ϕ_i are the spherical coordinates of the resonating nucleus in an arbitrary axes system with the lanthanide metal ion *R*(III) located at the origin (fig. 1)

$$\delta_i^{\rm pc} = \frac{1}{2N_{\rm A}r_i^3} \Big[\left(\chi_{zz} - \frac{1}{3} \operatorname{Tr} \chi \right) \left(3\cos^2 \theta_i - 1 \right) + \left(\chi_{xx} - \chi_{yy} \right) \left(\sin^2 \theta_i \cos 2\phi_i \right) \Big] + \frac{1}{N_{\rm A}r_i^3} \Big[\chi_{xy} \left(\sin^2 \theta_i \sin 2\phi_i \right) + \chi_{xz} (\sin 2\theta_i \cos \phi_i) \chi_{yz} (\sin 2\theta_i \sin \phi_i) \Big].$$
(27)

In the principal magnetic axes system, the magnetic susceptibility tensor is diagonal and the three last terms of eq. (27) vanish, thus leading to eq. (28) for the pseudo-contact shifts (Horrocks and Sipe, 1972; Bertini et al., 2002).

$$\delta_i^{\rm pc} = \frac{1}{2N_{\rm A}r_i^3} \Big[\big(\chi_{zz} - \frac{1}{3} \,{\rm Tr}\,\chi \big) \big(3\cos^2\theta_i - 1 \big) + (\chi_{xx} - \chi_{yy}) \big(\sin^2\theta_i \cos 2\phi_i \big) \Big]. \tag{28}$$

Finally, for axial complexes (i.e., complexes possessing a C_4 axis), $\chi_{xx} = \chi_{yy}$ and eq. (28) reduces to eq. (29) in the principal magnetic axes system (Forsberg, 1996).

$$\delta_i^{\rm pc} = \frac{1}{3N_{\rm A}r_i^3} \Big[(\chi_{zz} - \chi_{xx}) \big(3\cos^2\theta_i - 1 \big) \Big].$$
⁽²⁹⁾



Fig. 1. Spherical coordinates r_i , θ_i and ϕ_i for a nucleus *i* in an arbitrary *xyz* reference frame with the lanthanide metal ion *R*(III) located at the origin.

Equations (27)–(29) imply that pseudo-contact shifts δ_i^{pc} are maximum for complexes displaying large molecular magnetic anisotropies and that structural and geometrical informations can be extracted from the so-called non-linear geometrical factors G_i (eq. (30)) and H_i (eq. (31)) (Forsberg, 1996; Peters et al., 1996)

$$G_{i} = \frac{3\cos^{2}\theta_{i} - 1}{r_{i}^{3}},$$
(30)

$$H_i = \frac{\sin^2 \theta_i \cos 2\phi_i}{r_i^3}.$$
(31)

Interestingly, Hawkes et al. (1973) suggested that eq. (29) also holds for stereochemically labile lanthanide complexes exhibiting fast dynamic interconversions in solution, an experimental observation theoretically justified by Horrocks (1974) for lanthanide shift reagents existing in solution as a set of rapidly interconverting isomers. In a seminal paper, Briggs et al. (1972) demonstrated that the use of the simplified eq. (29) is justified for complexes displaying fast equilibria between at least three rotamers. In the latter case, δ_i^{pc} is proportional to G_i by a factor which is a complicated combination of axial ($\chi_{zz} - (1/3) \operatorname{Tr} \chi$) and rhombic ($\chi_{xx} - \chi_{yy}$) magnetic anisotropies. The term 'effective axial symmetry' is used for describing these complexes.

2.3.1. Origin and modeling of magnetic anisotropy in paramagnetic lanthanide complexes

Large paramagnetic anisotropies and associated pseudo-contact shifts are expected when orbital contributions to the ground state is considerable because such contributions are orientation dependent (Bertini and Luchinat, 1996). For lanthanide metal ions, the combination of spin (*S*) and orbital (*L*) contributions to the total angular momentum (*J*) (modulated via the spin-orbit coupling) produces considerable magnetic anisotropy when crystal-field effects due to coordinated ligands remove the spherical symmetry around the metal. The terms of the magnetic susceptibility tensors $\chi_{\alpha\beta}$ can be obtained by using eq. (32) (Gerloch and McMeeking, 1975) which corresponds to the general form of the Van Vleck formula, the latter being defined in the principal magnetic axes system (Kahn, 1993)

$$\chi_{\alpha\beta} = \frac{N_{\rm A}}{\sum_{i} \exp(-E_{i}/kT)} \sum_{i} \left\{ \sum_{j} \frac{\langle i | \mu_{\alpha} | j \rangle \langle j | \mu_{\beta} | i \rangle}{kT} - \sum_{j} \frac{\langle i | \mu_{\alpha} | j \rangle \langle j | \mu_{\beta} | i \rangle + \langle i | \mu_{\beta} | j \rangle \langle j | \mu_{\alpha} | i \rangle}{E_{i} - E_{j}} \right\} \exp(-E_{i}/kT),$$
(32)

 $\alpha, \beta = x, y \text{ or } z, E_i$ is the energy of the crystal-field state $|i\rangle$ produced by the non-spherical arrangement of the donor atoms coordinated to R(III) and μ_{α} ($\alpha = x, y, z$) are the components of the operator of the total magnetic momentum μ . The energies of the wave functions $|i\rangle$ of crystal-field states in a lanthanide complex are obtained from the diagonalisation of the model Hamiltonian $H = H_0 + H_{\text{CF}}$ where H_0 is the free-ion Hamiltonian and H_{CF} is the crystal-field Hamiltonian (Mironov et al., 2001, 2002). The latter is usually written in terms of phenomenological B_a^k crystal-field parameters and C_a^k spherical tensor operators (eq. (33),

Görller-Walrand and Binnemans (1996))

$$H_{\rm CF} = \sum_{kq} B_q^k C_q^k. \tag{33}$$

Mironov et al. (2001, 2002) have followed this approach to compute theoretical magnetic anisotropies

$$\Delta \chi = \chi_{zz} - \frac{1}{2}(\chi_{xx} + \chi_{yy}) = \frac{3}{2}\left(\chi_{zz} - \frac{1}{3}\operatorname{Tr} \chi\right)$$

at 298 K for eight-coordinate (Mironov et al., 2001) and nine-coordinate (Mironov et al., 2002) lanthanide complexes possessing arbitrary (but reasonable) crystal-field parameters. Figure 2 shows typical magnetic anisotropies $\Delta \chi$ calculated for various distortions of an eight-coordinate cubic lanthanide complex.

Such exact calculations require accurate structural, geometric and electronic parameters for the *R*-ligand bonds and for the metallic coordination spheres which are usually not accessible for coordination complexes in solution. Only solid-state structures for which X-ray crystal structures and B_q^k parameters have been determined, can be satisfyingly modeled with this approach (Görller-Walrand and Binnemans, 1996; Hopkins et al., 1996, 1998). Moreover, no analytical formula expressing $\Delta \chi$ as a function of B_q^k and metal-centred electronic properties can be introduced into eqs. (27)–(29) for extracting solution structures from NMR pseudocontact shifts. In order to overcome this limitation, Bleaney (1972) has proposed a hightemperature expansion of the magnetic susceptibility tensor given by eq. (32) in a power series in the inverse temperature. The first term in T^{-1} corresponds to the isotropic magnetic susceptibility $\chi_0 = (1/3) \operatorname{Tr} \chi$ of the free lanthanide ion (eq. (34))

$$\chi_0 = \frac{1}{3} \operatorname{Tr} \chi = \frac{N_{\rm A} g_J^2 \beta^2}{3kT} J(J+1).$$
(34)

The second terms in T^{-2} (eqs. (35)–(37)) correspond to the anisotropic part of the magnetic susceptibility related to the C_q^k operators of rank two (k = 2) associated with crystal field parameters $A_2^0 \langle r^2 \rangle$ and $A_2^2 \langle r^2 \rangle$ (which are related to conventional B_q^k parameters by $B_0^2 = 2A_2^0 \langle r^2 \rangle$ and $B_2^2 = (2/3)^{1/2} A_2^2 \langle r^2 \rangle$ (Görller-Walrand and Binnemans, 1996))

$$\chi_{xx} - \chi_0 = \frac{N_A \beta^2}{30(kT)^2} \langle r^2 \rangle (A_2^0 - A_2^2) (1+p)\xi,$$
(35)

$$\chi_{yy} - \chi_0 = \frac{N_A \beta^2}{30(kT)^2} \langle r^2 \rangle (A_2^0 + A_2^2) (1+p)\xi,$$
(36)

$$\chi_{zz} - \chi_0 = -\frac{N_{\rm A}\beta^2}{30(kT)^2} \langle r^2 \rangle 2A_2^0 (1+p)\xi.$$
(37)

The quantity ξ is given in eq. (38) where $\langle J \| \alpha \| J \rangle$ is a numerical coefficient tabulated by Bleaney (1972) for each 4f^{*n*}-electronic configuration

$$\xi = g_J^2 \langle J \| \alpha \| J \rangle J (J+1)(2J-1)(2J+3).$$
(38)



Fig. 2. Variations of the computed magnetic anisotropies $\Delta \chi$ with respect to the distortion of a cube toward (a) elongated and compressed tetragonal prisms, (b) a tetragonal antiprism and (c) a dodecahedron (adapted from Mironov et al. (2001)).

The factor (1 + p) in eqs. (35)–(37) reflects the contribution of thermally populated excited multiplets of the lanthanide ion which is small for all lanthanides at 300 K except for Sm(III) and Eu(III). In the latter case, the energy of the first excited states are close enough from the ground state to require specific calculations at each temperature. Combinations of eqs. (35)– (37) allows the calculation of the magnetic anisotropy in eq. (39) which predicts that $\Delta \chi$ depends only on the B_0^2 crystal-field parameter. The sign and the magnitude of the magnetic anisotropies along an isostructural series of lanthanide complexes possessing identical B_0^2 parameter only depend on ξ which is positive for R = Eu, Er, Tm, Yb, negative for Ce, Pr, Nd, Tb, Dy and maximum for R = Dy (Bleaney, 1972),

$$\Delta \chi = \chi_{zz} - \frac{1}{2}(\chi_{xx} + \chi_{yy}) = \frac{3}{2} \left(\chi_{zz} - \frac{1}{3} \operatorname{Tr} \chi \right) = -\frac{N_A \beta^2}{10(kT)^2} \langle r^2 \rangle A_2^0 (1+p) \xi$$

= $-\frac{N_A \beta^2}{20(kT)^2} B_0^2 (1+p) \xi.$ (39)

If the energy of the crystal-field splitting $\Delta E_{\rm CF}$ produced by the B_q^k parameters is much smaller than the thermal energy ($kT \approx 200 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ at 300 K), all the crystal-field levels of the ground state have comparable thermal populations and the T^{-2} term of the power series is adequate for modeling the magnetic anisotropy (Bleaney, 1972; Mironov et al., 2002). Substitution of eqs. (35)–(37) into eq. (28) gives eq. (40) in terms of $A_2^q \langle r^2 \rangle$ which can be transformed into eq. (41) with conventional B_q^2 parameters

$$\delta_i^{\rm pc} = -\frac{\beta^2 (1+p)\xi}{60(kT)^2} \left(\frac{1}{r_i^3}\right) \left[A_2^0 \langle r^2 \rangle (3\cos^2\theta_i - 1) + A_2^2 \langle r^2 \rangle (\sin^2\theta_i \cos 2\phi_i)\right],\tag{40}$$

$$\delta_i^{\rm pc} = -\frac{\beta^2 (1+p)\xi}{120(kT)^2} \left(\frac{1}{r_i^3}\right) \left[B_0^2 \left(3\cos^2\theta_i - 1\right) + \sqrt{6}B_2^2 \left(\sin^2\theta_i \cos 2\phi_i\right) \right]. \tag{41}$$

The first numerical terms $C = -\beta^2(1+p)\xi/(120(kT)^2)$ are often referred to as Bleaney's factors and their relative values (scaled to $C_{\text{Dy}} = -100$) have been tabulated at 300 K for any 4fⁿ configurations including excited states contributions (table 3, Bleaney et al. (1972)). Finally, the introduction of the geometrical factors defined by eqs. (30), (31) together with *C* into eq. (41) gives the classical eq. (42) for the pseudo-contact shifts according to Bleaney's approach (Forsberg, 1996)

$$\delta_i^{\rm pc} = C \left(B_0^2 G_i + \sqrt{6} B_2^2 H_i \right). \tag{42}$$

However, a systematic survey of the crystal-field splitting in lanthanide complexes shows that $\Delta E_{\rm CF} \approx 300-400~{\rm cm}^{-1}$ is usual and the high-temperature assumption $\Delta E_{\rm CF} < kT$ is not fully satisfied. Therefore, C_q^k operators of rank four (k = 4) and rank six (k = 6) cannot be neglected (Morrison and Leavitt, 1982; Görller-Walrand and Binnemans, 1996; Mironov et al., 2000). According to Bleaney's approach, the T^{-n} series does not converge at T^{-2} and further terms must be considered. Golding and Pyykkö (1973) included rank four and rank six crystal-field parameters $(B_q^k, k = 4, 6)$ for the specific calculations of the magnetic susceptibilities in crystal-field potentials with D_{3h} and C_{3v} symmetries. They found that corrections to the T^{-2} term are within 20% for RCl_3 compounds. Later, McGarvey (1979) derived the complete forms of the T^{-3} terms which depend on B_q^k , k = 2, 4, 6. Since these equations would occupy almost one complete printed page, the reader is referred to the original publication. Application to RCl_3 and $R(O_3SOEt)_3$ shows less than 10% deviation from classical Bleaney's approach (i.e., a power series limited to T^{-2}) and it was concluded that the T^{-3} term (or higher order terms) can be neglected (Stout and Gutowsky, 1976). However, the crystal-field splittings experienced by R(III) in RCl_3 or in $R(O_3SOEt)_3$ are among the smallest reported (Görller-Walrand and Binnemans, 1996) and high-temperature Bleaney's

hypothesis $\Delta E_{CF}/kT < 1$ is satisfied. The recent exact calculations of $\Delta \chi$ by Mironov et al. (2001, 2002) with eqs. (32), (33) for lanthanide complexes with arbitrary crystal-field parameters and geometries show that Bleaney's approach is insufficient to model cases for which $\Delta E_{CF} > kT$. For instance, the distortion of an eight-coordinate tetragonal prismatic complex toward a tetragonal antiprism does not affect B_0^2 and no variation of $\Delta \chi$ is expected from eq. (39). The computed changes of $\Delta \chi$ for R = Dy, Tm and Yb (fig. 2b) are thus clearly beyond Bleaney's theory (fig. 2b, Mironov et al. (2001)) as is the significant deviation of the magnetic anisotropy from the predicted T^{-2} behaviour noticed by Horrocks (1977) for solid Yb(III) complexes. It can be concluded that Bleaney's approach is restricted to complexes with small crystal-field splitting in a narrow temperature range around 300 K, the reference temperature at which the *C* factors have been computed (table 3). However, to the best of our knowledge, no systematic investigation of the corrections resulting from T^{-3} terms has been investigated except for the seminal work of McGarvey (1979).

2.4. Separation of contact and pseudo-contact contributions in paramagnetic lanthanide complexes

The substitution of eqs. (19) and (28) into eq. (3) shows that the paramagnetic shift induced by a lanthanide j at a nucleus i is given by eq. (43)

$$LIS = \delta_{ij}^{para} = \delta_{ij}^{c} + \delta_{ij}^{pc}$$

= $\frac{A_i}{\hbar \gamma_I H_0} \langle S_z \rangle_j + \frac{1}{2N_A r_i^3} \bigg[\bigg(\chi_{zz}^j - \frac{1}{3} \operatorname{Tr} \chi^j \bigg) (3 \cos^2 \theta_i - 1) + \big(\chi_{xx}^j - \chi_{yy}^j \big) (\sin^2 \theta_i \cos 2\phi_i) \bigg].$ (43)

The use of the definitions of the geometrical factors G_i (eq. (30)) and H_i (eq. (31)) together with the contact term $F_i = A_i / (\hbar \gamma_I H_0)$ for the nucleus *i* leads to the well-established eq. (44) in the principal magnetic axes system

$$\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}} = \delta_{ij}^{\text{c}} + \delta_{ij}^{\text{pc}} = F_i \langle S_z \rangle_j + \frac{1}{2N_{\text{A}}} \left[\left(\chi_{zz}^j - \frac{1}{3} \operatorname{Tr} \chi^j \right) G_i + \left(\chi_{xx}^j - \chi_{yy}^j \right) H_i \right].$$
(44)

The contact and the pseudo-contact contributions are constituted by the product of two terms depending respectively on the lanthanide j ($\langle S_z \rangle_j$ and χ^j) and on the nucleus i (F_i , G_i and H_i). Since $\langle S_z \rangle_j$ is poorly affected by crystal-field effects, the values tabulated for the free ions (Golding and Halton, 1972; table 3) hold for all complexes and the contact term is easily factorized. On the other hand, χ^j depends on the specific electronic structure of the lanthanide ion (4fⁿ configuration) combined with specific crystal-field potentials produced by the surrounding ligands. Except for Bleaney's approach (see sects. 2.3.1 and 2.4.2), no straightforward a priori prediction can be made for χ^j and the treatment of pseudo-contact terms requires an initial assumption of the molecular structures in order to calculate a set of G_i and H_i which are then used to extract the anisotropic part of the paramagnetic susceptibility tensor ($\chi_{zz} - (1/3) \operatorname{Tr} \chi$, $\chi_{xx} - \chi_{yy}$) via least-squares fitting processes (Forsberg, 1996). Non-linear least-square fits may be further applied in order to simultaneously

refine the geometrical factors and the components of the magnetic tensor (Forsberg, 1996; Peters et al., 1996).

2.4.1. Calculation of the anisotropic part of the magnetic susceptibility tensor with structural models

In the absence of contact contribution ($F_i = 0$), the LIS purely reflects the pseudo-contact contributions and eqs. (27), (28) are ideally suited for extracting the experimental anisotropic part of the magnetic susceptibility tensor as long as a reasonable structural model is available. Kemple et al. (1988) reported a detailed ¹H NMR study of lanthanide complexes [R(indole-EDTA)] (R = La, Pr, Nd, Er, Yb) and [R(benzyl-EDTA)] (R = La, Pr, Yb, Lu; fig. 3). Decoupling experiments, 2D-COSY spectra and relaxation measurements (T_1, T_2) allowed an unambiguous assignment of the protons and reasonable molecular structures were obtained by molecular mechanics (MM2 force field). Using an arbitrary Cartesian frame (x, y, z axes) with R(III) at the origin, the geometrical factors G_i and H_i were calculated from the polar coordinates (r_i , θ_i and ϕ_i , fig. 1). As a first approximation, all contact contributions were set to zero and linear least-squares fits according to eq. (27) for 13 aliphatic protons used as a basis gave the five components of the traceless part of the magnetic susceptibility tensor ($\chi_{zz} - (1/3) \operatorname{Tr} \chi$, $\chi_{xx} - \chi_{yy}$, χ_{xy} , χ_{yz} ; 13 × 5 fit). Diagonalisation of the latter tensor gave a set of Euler angles that relates the principal magnetic axes system to the original arbitrary Cartesian frame.

The quality of the fitting process for the complex of a lanthanide j is measured by the agreement factor AF_j defined in eq. (45) (Wilcott et al., 1972)

$$AF_j = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_i (\delta_{ij}^{\text{obs}} - \delta_{ij}^{\text{calc}})^2}{\sum_i (\delta_{ij}^{\text{obs}})^2}}.$$
(45)

Kemple et al. (1988) found $AF_{Pr} = 0.147$, $AF_{Nd} = 0.346$ and $AF_{Eu} = 0.765$ which were not satisfying and required corrections for the contact contributions of protons close to the metal centre. By introducing a minimal set of five different contact shifts for the protons of the acetate arms and of the ethylene bridge as fitting parameters ($\delta_{ij}^c = F_i \langle S_z \rangle_j$), the original 13 observables × 5 fitted parameters were transformed into a 13 × 10 fit and multilinear least-squares fits with eq. (44) gave $AF_{Pr} = 0.032$, $AF_{Nd} = 0.031$ and $AF_{Eu} = 0.031$. Since the contact contributions are obtained and adjusted as scalar parameters in eq. (44), any proton for which contact is allowed does not contribute to the determination of the magnetic



Fig. 3. Structures of substituted EDTA ligands.

susceptibility tensor. Therefore, this approach requires a large number of protons sufficiently remote from the paramagnetic lanthanide and for which $F_i = 0$, but no assumption regarding the orientation of the molecular coordinates system and the principal magnetic axes system is required, a great advantage for low-symmetry complexes. Significant rhombic distortions was observed for [R(indole-EDTA)] and [R(benzyl-EDTA)] (i.e., $\chi_{xx} - \chi_{yy} \neq 0$) and the orientation of the principal magnetic axes with respect to the molecular coordinates system varied for the different lanthanide complexes. Recently, Bertini et al. (2001) have applied this procedure for extracting the anisotropic part of the magnetic susceptibility tensor of the dicalcium protein calbindin D_{9k} in which a lanthanide metal ion has been incorporated into the C-terminal calcium binding site. From 1097 pure pseudo-contact shifts ($F_i = 0$) combined with molecular modeling obtained by molecular mechanics, the anisotropic part of the magnetic susceptibility tensor $\chi_{zz} - (1/3) \operatorname{Tr} \chi$ and $\chi_{xx} - \chi_{yy}$ (two parameters), together with the orientation of the principal magnetic axes (three parameters) have been determined for R = Ce-Yb, except Pm and Gd. Non-linear least-squares fits simultaneously provide refined positions for the NMR active nuclei. The average agreement factor $\overline{AF} = (1/n) \sum_{i=1}^{n} AF_i$ for all lanthanides amounts to $\overline{AF} = 0.16$. Forsberg et al. (1995) have developed a computer program which allows the systematic permutation of the observed pseudo-contact shifts (δ_{ii}^{pc}) to different sets of protons when assignment is problematic. Basically following the procedure of Kemple et al. (1988), a structural model obtained by molecular mechanics is used for calculating the magnetic susceptibility tensor according to eq. (27) for each possible permutation. The associated agreement factors AF_j (eq. (45)) are then used as criteria for selecting the most probable assignment which minimizes AF_i . Subsequent diagonalisation or reorientation of the magnetic axes provides the anisotropic part of the magnetic susceptibility tensor in the principal magnetic axes system. Application to the axial C_4 -symmetrical complexes $[R(L^{11})]^{3+}$ (see sect. 3.2.3) by Forsberg et al. (1995) (R = Pr-Yb except Gd) has demonstrated that, as expected from symmetry arguments, the magnetic tensor is axially symmetric $(\chi_{zz} - (1/3) \operatorname{Tr} \chi = 3269 \cdot 10^{-6} \operatorname{cgs} \cdot \operatorname{mol}^{-1} \text{ and } \chi_{xx} - \chi_{yy} = 0)$ and the z axis coincides with the molecular C_4 axis (0.001° deviation). Ultimate refinements of the molecular geometry requires the explicit consideration of contact contributions to the observed LIS and Forsberg et al. (1995) used a complicated approach in which $\chi_{zz} - (1/3) \operatorname{Tr} \chi$, G_i and F_i are simultaneously varied in eq. (44) in order to minimize the agreement factor AF for *n* nuclei in *m* lanthanide complexes ($n \times m$ simultaneous equations). When one structural factor G_1 is known from the structural model, a set of F_i values could be obtained which were used to extract pure pseudo-contact shifts according to $\delta_{ij}^{pc} = \delta_{ij}^{para} - \delta_{ij}^{c} = \delta_{ij}^{para} - F_i \langle S_z \rangle_j$. The final refinement of the structure then used least-squares fits of eq. (29) in the principal magnetic axes system. In a parallel contribution, Lisowski et al. (1995a) used a closely related strategy for investigating the solution structures of the pseudo-axial texaphyrin complexes [$R(\text{texa})X_2$] ($X = \text{NO}_3^-$, diphenylphosphate; R = Ce-Yb except Pm and Gd) shown on fig. 4. Pure ¹H NMR pseudocontact shifts δ_{ii}^{pc} were fitted with eq. (28) by using the crystal structure of [Gd(texa)(NO₃)₂] as a structural model. Since the principal magnetic z and x axes were fixed in the molecular symmetry C_s plane, only three parameters $\chi_{zz} - (1/3) \operatorname{Tr} \chi$, $\chi_{xx} - \chi_{yy}$ and an angle α defining the location of the lanthanide metal above the average macrocyclic plane were varied by



Fig. 4. Structure and reference frame for the dimethoxy tetraethyl dimethyl trivalent lanthanide texaphyrin. The α angle measures the out-ofplane location of R(III) with respect to the mean macrocyclic plane (adapted from Lisowski et al. (1995a)).

using non-linear least-squares techniques in order to obtain the best fit which minimized AF_j for each complex (α is the angle between the x axis and the R-N_{central pyrrole} bond, fig. 4).

Systematic calculations with different sets of protons belonging to the complexes showed that the incorporation of the imino protons in the fitting process significantly increased AF_i because contact contributions could not be neglected for these nuclei. Exclusion of the latter protons from the fitting process gave $0.07 \leq AF_j \leq 0.26$, α angles in the range 5–30° and magnetic parameters $\chi_{zz} - (1/3) \operatorname{Tr} \chi$ and $\chi_{xx} - \chi_{yy}$ of comparable magnitudes pointing to considerable rhombic distortion in each lanthanide complex. The latter result demonstrated that the intuitive assignment of pseudo-axial symmetry (i.e., C₄-symmetry) to the $[R(\text{texa})X_2]$ is not justified. Computation of pure pseudo-contact shifts δ_{ii}^{pc} for the imino protons by using eq. (28) and the experimental magnetic anisotropy tensor in the principal magnetic axes system, allowed the separation of their contact contribution according to eq. (44) $(\delta_{ij}^c = \delta_{ij}^{para} - \delta_{ij}^{pc} = F_i \langle S_z \rangle_j)$. Interestingly, plots of δ_{ij}^c vs free-ions $\langle S_z \rangle_j$ values (table 3) showed the expected straight line (slope = F_i) which confirmed (i) the good quality of the calculated anisotropic part of the magnetic susceptibility tensor and (ii) the negligible dependence of $\langle S_z \rangle_i$ on the crystal-field splitting around room temperature. Lisowski et al. (1995b) proposed identical calculations for non-H atoms in $[R(texa)X_2]$ and were able to obtain reliable contact shifts for all ¹³C and ³¹P nuclei. Detailed σ and π -mechanisms for spin delocalisation could be addressed with this technique, but the main conclusions concerned the extreme sensitivity of both ³¹P and ¹H chemical shifts to changes in axial ligations (X = nitrate or diphenylphosphate) which was mediated by the variation of the crystal-field parameters affecting the magnetic susceptibility tensor.

The direct experimental determination of the anisotropic part of the magnetic susceptibility tensor from a set of pure pseudo-contact shifts according to eqs. (27), (28) has the considerable advantage of requiring no assumption on the symmetry of the magnetic susceptibility tensor. Paramagnetic LIS for axial and rhombic complexes can be satisfyingly modeled. The estimation of the contact contributions either by simultaneous fitting processes (Kemple et al.,

1988) or by comparison with experimental LIS (Lisowski et al., 1995a, 1995b) allows a reliable separation of contact and pseudo-contact contributions. However, this approach requires (i) a large number of nuclei displaying pure pseudo-contact contributions and (ii) an accurate a priori structural model for the complex in solution, two conditions which are often limiting when considering supramolecular lanthanide complexes of intermediate size.

2.4.2. The model-free methods

When no assumption is made on the solution structure, the determination of the desired geometrical factors G_i and H_i requires the a priori separation of the contact and pseudo-contact contributions to the LIS. Bleaney's approach limited to the T^{-2} term and summarized by eqs. (40)-(42) (see sect. 2.3.1) is well-suited for this purpose since the anisotropic part of the magnetic susceptibility tensor can be modeled by a judicious combination of an electronic factor depending only on the electronic configuration of the lanthanide *j* (i.e., Bleaney's factors C_i in table 3) and the crystal-field parameters of rank two for the complexes. Substituting the pseudo-contact contribution of eq. (42) into eq. (44) gives eq. (46) which reduces to eq. (47) for axial systems ($B_2^2 = 0$, Reilley et al. (1975), Bryden and Reilley (1982)). Interestingly, the spherical crystal-field operator C_2^2 and the associated B_2^2 parameter are not involved for systems possessing at least a C_3 axis (Görller-Walrand and Binnemans, 1996) and eq. (47) also holds for lanthanide complexes displaying trigonal symmetry. We have consequently limited the complexes considered in this review to those possessing at least a C_3 or a C_4 axis and for which effective axial symmetry can be applied (eq. (47)). It is worth noting that the assignment of axial symmetry to trigonal complexes is valid when the T^{-n} series is limited to n = 2 (Bleaney's hypothesis, Bleaney (1972)), but it can be extended for n = 3 because the third-order coefficient of the rhombic term (H_i) still vanishes when all B_q^k are zero except B_2^0 , $B_0^4, B_0^6, B_3^4, B_3^6$ and B_6^6 (McGarvey, 1979)

$$\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}} = \delta_{ij}^{\text{c}} + \delta_{ij}^{\text{pc}} = F_i \langle S_z \rangle_j + C_j \left(B_0^2 G_i + \sqrt{6} B_2^2 H_i \right), \tag{46}$$

$$\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}} = F_i \langle S_z \rangle_j + C_j B_0^2 G_i.$$
⁽⁴⁷⁾

2.4.2.1. *Reilley's method.* Since $\langle S_z \rangle_j$ and C_j do not depend on the crystal-field splitting (see sects. 2.2 and 2.3.1), Reilley et al. (1975) first proposed to rearrange eq. (46) into two linear forms (eqs. (48), (49)) for testing isostructurality along the lanthanide series

$$\frac{\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}}{\langle S_z \rangle_j} = F_i + \frac{C_j}{\langle S_z \rangle_j} \left(B_0^2 G_i + \sqrt{6} B_2^2 H_i \right), \tag{48}$$

$$\frac{\delta_{ij}^{\text{prime}}}{C_j} = \left(B_0^2 G_i + \sqrt{6}B_2^2 H_i\right) + F_i \frac{\langle S_z \rangle_j}{C_j}.$$
(49)

Although these two equations are mathematically identical, eq. (48) should be used when $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}$ is dominated by the pseudo-contact contribution and eq. (49) should be used when $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}$ is dominated by contact effects, thus maximizing the slopes of the resulting straight lines (Reuben and Elgavish, 1980). Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) or $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs

 $\langle S_z \rangle_j / C_j$ (eq. (49)) along the lanthanide series at a fixed temperature are expected to give straight lines and any deviations point to structural changes affecting the 'structural term' $B_0^2 G_i + \sqrt{6}B_2^2 H_i$ (Reilley et al., 1975; Sherry and Geraldes, 1989). However this simple interpretation assumes that (i) the hyperfine constant (A_i and hence the F_i term) and the crystal-field parameters B_0^2 and B_2^2 do not vary along the lanthanide series, (ii) the T^{-2} term is sufficient for describing the molecular magnetic anisotropy and (iii) the stepwise lanthanide contraction occurring when going from R = Ce to Yb has negligible effects on the structural term. Peters (1986) has theoretically addressed the last point and geometrical G_i factors for axial complexes modeled with molecular mechanics have been computed. The smooth contraction of the R-ligand distances often results in a minor break occurring between R = Euand R = Tb in the plot of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ because the monotonous change in G_i is amplified by the large values of C_j characterising the second part of the lanthanide series (table 3). It is thus concluded that both linear plots $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) and $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (49)) should simultaneously display a break along the lanthanide series to be indicative of a significant structural change (fig. 5).

2.4.2.2. Crystal-field independent methods. The invariance of crystal-field parameters is more problematic since the experimental B_q^k parameters of lanthanide complexes in the solid state usually exhibit significant variations along the lanthanide series resulting from the contraction of the 4f orbitals (Freeman and Watson, 1962; Görller-Walrand and Binnemans, 1996). Moreover, an abrupt change around the middle of the series, sometimes referred to as the 'gadolinium break' effect has been evidenced in Na₃[Yb_{1-x}R_x(L⁷-2H)₃]·NaClO₄·10H₂O (see sect. 3.1.7, Hopkins et al. (1996)), and Na₃[R(L¹-2H)₃]·2NaClO₄·6H₂O (see sect. 3.1.1, Hopkins et al. (1998)). Related effects are thus expected for lanthanide complexes in solution and efforts have been made to remove the influence of crystal-field parameters (Reuben, 1982; Spiliadis and Pinkerton, 1982). In axial complexes (i.e., possessing at least a C₃ axis),¹ the simultaneous consideration of the chemical shifts of two nuclei *i* and *k* provides two equations (eqs. (47), (50)) from which Bleaney's factor C_j and the crystal field parameter B_0^2 can be removed by a judicious mathematical substitution in order to give eq. (51) (Spiliadis and Pinkerton, 1982; Platas et al., 1999)

$$\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}} = F_k \langle S_z \rangle_j + C_j B_0^2 G_k, \tag{50}$$

$$\frac{\delta_{ij}^{\text{parad}}}{\langle S_z \rangle_j} = \left(F_i - F_k \frac{G_i}{G_k}\right) + \frac{G_i}{G_k} \cdot \frac{\delta_{kj}^{\text{parad}}}{\langle S_z \rangle_j}.$$
(51)

Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ are ideally suited for testing structural changes occurring along the lanthanide series in axial complexes because straight lines are expected as long as the slope $R_{ik} = G_i/G_k$ and the intercept $F_i - F_k R_{ik}$ do not vary. Structural changes affect the slope

$$R_{ik} = \frac{G_i}{G_k} = \frac{(3\cos^2\theta_i - 1)}{(3\cos^2\theta_k - 1)} \cdot \frac{r_k^3}{r_i^3}$$

¹ All complexes for which effective axial symmetry can be applied (eq. (47), see sect. 2.4.2).



Fig. 5. Plots of (a) $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) and (b) $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (49)) for the carboxylate carbons in simulated nine-coordinate tricapped trigonal prismatic [$R(\text{OOCCH})_3(\text{OH}_2)_3$] complexes (redrawn from Peters (1986)).

and can be easily detected, but crystal-field changes which are not associated with significant structural variations have no effect. Changes in the intercept are more difficult to interpret since $F_i - F_k R_{ik}$ depends on geometrical factors (via R_{ik}) and hyperfine constants (via F_i and F_k). In favourable cases, the prior analysis of the slope R_{ik} allows to draw reliable conclusions concerning possible variations of the hyperfine constants along the lanthanide series (Platas et al., 1999; Rigault et al., 2000b). Although $\langle S_z \rangle_j$ is relatively independent from crystalfield effects around room temperature (see sect. 2.2), Geraldes et al. (2001) have proposed to remove it by solving simultaneously eqs. (47), (50), (52) for three different nuclei *i*, *k*, *l* in the same lanthanide complex. Straightforward algebraic substitutions and transformations give eq. (53) where $R_{ik} = G_i/G_k$ and $S_{ik} = F_i/F_k$

$$\delta_{lj}^{\text{para}} = F_l \langle S_z \rangle_j + C_j B_0^2 G_l, \tag{52}$$

$$\frac{\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}}{\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}} = \frac{(S_{lk}R_{ik} - S_{ik}R_{lk})}{(S_{lk} - R_{lk})} + \frac{(S_{ik} - R_{ik})}{(S_{lk} - R_{lk})} \cdot \frac{\delta_{lj}^{\text{para}}}{\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}}.$$
(53)

Plotting $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ against $\delta_{lj}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ along the lanthanide series should yield a straight line of slope

$$\alpha = \frac{(S_{ik} - R_{ik})}{(S_{lk} - R_{lk})}$$

and an intercept

$$\beta = \frac{(S_{lk}R_{ik} - S_{ik}R_{lk})}{(S_{lk} - R_{lk})}$$

provided that S_{ik} , S_{lk} , R_{ik} and R_{lk} are invariant. Since the simple eq. (53) only requires experimental LIS data for testing isostructurality, its use seems promising as long as three different NMR-active nuclei are available in the complex. However, both the slope (α) and the intercept (β) are complicated non-linear combinations of geometrical G_i factor and contact F_i terms. Deviations from linearity are difficult to interpret and accidental compensation effects cannot be ruled out when strict linear behaviours are observed (Ouali et al., 2002).

2.4.2.3. The special case of rhombic systems. The removal of crystal-field parameters according to the two-nuclei (eq. (51)) and the three-nuclei (eq. (53)) methods is strictly limited to axial complexes for which eq. (47) holds (i.e., possessing at least a C_3 axis). The explicit consideration of the rhombic term $C_j \sqrt{6}B_2^2 H_i$ in Bleaney's approach (eq. (42)) significantly complicates the derivation of crystal-field independent equations which requires at least three different nuclei. To the best of our knowledge, no analytical form has been reported in the literature for rhombic systems. Reuben and Elgavish (1980) have suggested that eq. (42) is only a poor approximation for rhombic systems and a better modeling of the pseudo-contact contribution requires two experimental factors C_i^{axial} and $C_i^{rhombic}$ (eq. (54)),

$$\delta_i^{\rm pc} = C_j^{\rm axial} G_i + C_j^{\rm rhombic} H_i.$$
(54)

Since C_j^{axial} is proportional to $\chi_{zz} - (1/3) \operatorname{Tr} \chi$ and C_j^{rhombic} is proportional to $\chi_{xx} - \chi_{yy}$ in the principal magnetic axes system (eq. (28)), Reuben and Elgavish (1980) used the experimental diagonalised magnetic susceptibility tensors reported by Horrocks and Sipe (1972) for solid-state [$R(\text{dipivaloymethane})_3(4\text{-picoline})_2$] complexes in order to compute the proportionality factors C_j^{axial} and C_j^{rhombic} scaled to $C_{\text{Dy}}^{\text{axial}} = -100$. Interestingly they notice that the axial factors C_j^{axial} satisfyingly match original Bleaney's C_j factors, but C_j^{rhombic} have only poor correlations with C_j pointing to the limit of theoretical Bleaney's approach which predicts a single factor ($C_j^{\text{axial}} = C_j^{\text{rhombic}}$, eq. (42), table 3). Two linear forms (eqs. (55), (56)) can be derived from eq. (54) for nuclei displaying no contact contributions ($F_i = 0$)

$$\frac{\delta_i^{\rm pc}}{C_j^{\rm axial}} = G_i + H_i \frac{C_j^{\rm rhombic}}{C_j^{\rm axial}},\tag{55}$$

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$$\frac{\delta_i^{\text{pc}}}{C_j^{\text{rhombic}}} = H_i + G_i \frac{C_j^{\text{axial}}}{C_j^{\text{rhombic}}}.$$
(56)

Plots of $\delta_i^{pc}/C_j^{axial}$ vs $C_j^{rhombic}/C_j^{axial}$ (eq. (55)) or $\delta_i^{pc}/C_j^{rhombic}$ vs $C_j^{axial}/C_j^{rhombic}$ (eq. (56)) are expected to be linear within an isostructural series. The fitting process has been applied to non-axial lanthanide shifts reagents and leads to improved linear correlations (Reuben and Elgavish, 1980), but the origin of the deviation from the strict T^{-2} terms was not addressed. We can infer that the different behaviours of C_j^{axial} and $C_j^{rhombic}$ along the lanthanide series result from higher-order T^{-n} terms ($n \ge 3$) which are neglected in original Bleaney's approach, but which are required to reliably model complexes possessing large crystal-field splittings ($\Delta E_{CF}/kT < 1$). Since the $C_j^{rhombic}$ factors proposed by Reuben and Elgavish (1980) originate from the specific crystal-field splitting of one reference complex [$R(\text{dipivolymethane})_3(4\text{-picoline})_2$], their systematic use for all lanthanide complexes is doubtful and this approach, to the best of our knowledge, has not been put on again for the structure-independent analysis of LIS data.

3. Application of the model-free methods to axial monometallic lanthanide complexes with sterically rigid ligands

The three following criteria have been selected for discussing the application of the model-free methods to lanthanide complexes.

- (1) Lanthanide complexes with axial symmetry (i.e., possessing at least a threefold axis, see sect. 2.4.2) are exclusively considered because the principal magnetic z axis coincides with the molecular symmetry axis (Forsberg et al., 1995) and the $C_{\pm 2}^2$ spherical tensor operators do not contribute to the crystal-field potentials (Görller-Walrand and Binnemans, 1996). The rhombic term of Bleaney's approach $\sqrt{6B_2^2}H_i$ (eqs. (42), (46)) thus vanishes and the crystal-field independent methods (eqs. (51), (53)) can be used without complications.
- (2) The use of sterically rigid ligands ensures the formation of well-defined coordination spheres which strongly limit dynamic behaviours occurring in solution on the NMR time scale.
- (3) Multidentate chelating ligands produce stable lanthanide complexes in solution. At concentrations compatible with NMR measurements, partial decomplexation is negligible and exchange processes involving either the free ligand or complexes with different stoichiometries are ignored because highly unequally populated sites do not significantly affect NMR spectra (Pons and Millet, 2001). Under these conditions, the experimental paramagnetic lanthanide-induced chemical shifts δ_{ij}^{para} are obtained directly from the NMR spectra recorded under the slow-exchange regime at a single concentration. When significant decomplexation occurs (see sect. 3.1.1), the shifts for bound ligands can be extrapolated from fast-exchange NMR spectra recorded upon successive additions of small portions of *R*(III) to the ligand solution (Peters et al., 1996).

3.1. Complexes with threefold symmetry

3.1.1. $[R(L^1-2H)_3]^{3-}$ $(L^1 = oxydiacetic acid)$

The thermodynamic properties of the successive complexes $[R(L^{1}-2H)_{n}]^{(3-2n)+}$ (n = 1, 2, 3) in water have been studied extensively by Grenthe (1973) and the associated cumulative stability constants β_{n} show only limited stability for the D_{3} -symmetrical triple-helical complexes $[R(L^{1}-2H)_{3}]^{3-}$ in solution (Martell and Smith, 1977). For a total ligand concentration of 0.2 mol \cdot dm⁻³ and a stoichiometric ratio La/ $[L^{1}-2H]^{2-} = 0.33$, one calculates the following ligand distribution: $[La(L^{1}-2H)_{3}]^{3-}$ (91%), $[La(L^{1}-2H)_{2}]^{-}$ (6%) and $[L^{1}-2H]^{2-}$ (3%). As decomplexation cannot be completely neglected, Peters (1988) has extrapolated experimental paramagnetic shifts for bound ligands $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}$ for $[R(L^{1}-2H)_{3}]^{3-}$ (R = La-Lu, except Pm and Gd) from fast-exchange spectra at 346 K (0.067 mol \cdot dm⁻³ in water). The observed ¹H, ¹³C and ¹⁷O NMR data confirm the formation of D_{3} -symmetrical triple-helical complexes $[R(L^{1}-2H)_{3}]^{3-}$ in solution in agreement with the solid-state crystal structures reported for Na₃ $[R(L^{1}-2H)_{3}]\cdot 2NaClO_{4}\cdot 6H_{2}O$ (R = La-Lu) which show R(III) to be coordinated by nine oxygen donors in pseudo-tricapped trigonal prismatic arrangements (Hopkins et al., 1998; fig. 6).

Interestingly, Peters (1988) notices that the methylene protons are enantiotopic for the light lanthanides (R = Ce-Dy) and become diastereotopic for R = Ho-Yb which implies a dynamic intramolecular interconversion between the two helical enantiomers $P \cdot [R(L^{1} - 2H)_{3}]^{3-} \rightleftharpoons M \cdot [R(L^{1} - 2H)_{3}]^{3-}$ occurring at a moderate rate on the NMR time scale. The observation of two resolved signals for the methylene protons for the heavy lanthanides R = Ho-Yb reflects the larger pseudo-contact contributions induced in the second part of the lanthanide series and a slower exchange rate due to stronger lanthanide–ligand bonds. A rough estimate of $\Delta G^{\neq} = 54$ kJ/mol is obtained from the measurements of the coalescence temperatures for R = Tm, Yb. In excess of ligand ($R/[L^1-2H]^{2-} < 0.33$), fast dynamic intermolecular processes involving ligand exchanges in the first coordination sphere are also detected on the NMR time scale. At a given temperature, the rate of ligand exchange de-



Fig. 6. Schematic formation of the D_3 -symmetrical complexes $[R(L^1-2H)_3]^{3-}$ in water. The representation of $[R(L^1-2H)_3]^{3-}$ corresponds to the crystal structure of Na₃[Eu(L¹-2H)₃]·2NaBF₄·6H₂O (adapted from Fronczek et al. (1981)).



Fig. 7. Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) and $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (49)) along the lanthanide series for various nuclei in $[R(L^1-2H)_3]^{3-}$ (water, 346 K). (a) Carbon of the carbonyl group, (b) carbon of the methylene group, (c) protons of the methylene groups (redrawn from Peters (1988)).

creases with decreasing size of R(III). Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) and $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (49)) along the lanthanide series for $[R(L^1-2H)_3]^{3-}$ show scattered diagrams for which unambiguous linear correlations are limited to $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ with R = Ce-Eu (fig. 7).

Surprisingly, Bleaney's factors C_j determined at 300 K (table 3) are used without corrections for the treatment of the experimental NMR data recorded at 343 K. This approximation is probably justified for most R(III) except for R = Sm and Eu (see sect. 2.3), but the poor correlations exhibited by the $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ plots might result from inadequate values of C_j (the Sm(III) data have been excluded from the mathematical analysis, but the Eu(III) data have been considered, fig. 7). The abrupt break of the plots according to eq. (48) occurring near the middle of the series (i.e., between R = Eu and R = Tb) is ascribed to a structural change involving nine-coordinate D_3 -symmetrical complexes $[R(L^1-2H)_3]^{3-}$ similar to those found in the crystal structure for R = Ce-Eu, and eight-coordinate complexes $[R(L^1-2H)_3]^{3-}$ with low symmetry for R = Tb-Yb. Since the three ligands remain equivalent on the NMR time scale for R = Tb-Yb, Peters (1988) proposes fast on-off equilibria of the non-coordinated carboxylate group (fig. 8).


 $[R(L^{1}-2H)_{3}]^{3-} \qquad [R(L^{1}-2H)_{3}]^{3-} \\ R = Ce-Eu \qquad \qquad R = Tb-Yb$

Fig. 8. Schematic representation of the two different solutions structures observed by NMR for $[R(L^1-2H)_3]^{3-}$ (adapted from Peters (1988)).

These results strongly contrast with solid-state structures of Na₃[$R(L^1-2H)_3$]·2NaClO₄· 6H₂O (R = La-Lu) in which similar nine-coordinate R(III) ions are located at sites of D_3 point-group symmetry along the complete lanthanide series (Hopkins et al., 1998). On the other hand, detailed spectroscopic investigations performed on these crystals provide crystalfield parameters B_q^k (k = 2, q = 0; k = 4, q = 0, 3; k = 6, q = 0, 3, 6; R = Nd, Sm, Eu, Gd, Tb, Dy, Ho, Er) which exhibit the expected monotonous decrease of the crystal-field interaction strength S_{CF} along the lanthanide series (contraction of the 4f electron charge distribution, Carnall et al., 1989). However, an unexpected abrupt variation of S_{CF} (mainly due to B_q^k of rank four and six) is detected near the middle of the lanthanide series (Hopkins et al., 1998; fig. 9).



Fig. 9. Plot of the crystal-field interaction strength quantities $S_{CF} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}\sum_{k} \left(\frac{1}{2k+1} \left[(B_0^k)^2 + 2\sum_{m>0} |B_m^k|^2 \right] \right)}$ for eight Na₃[*R*(L¹-2H)₃]·2NaClO₄·6H₂O systems (redrawn from Hopkins et al. (1998)).



Fig. 10. Crystal-field independent plot of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (51)) for the carbon (CH₂) and the protons (CH₂) of the methylene groups in $[R(L^1-2H)_3]^{3-}$ (D₂O, 346 K, drawn from data reported by Peters (1988)).

Although the B_q^k parameters obtained in the solid state are only indicative for those relevant in solution, their abrupt variations near the middle of the series is expected to produce a break in the linear plot $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ according to eq. (48) without resorting to a major structural change. To the best of our knowledge, no analysis of these data using the crystalfield independent two-nuclei technique (eq. (51)) has been reported, but plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ based on the data reported by Peters (1988) suggest the existence of a single straight line for R = Ce-Yb compatible with an approximate isostructural series in solution (fig. 10). Since geometrical factors G_i calculated from the crystal structure of Na₃[Ce(L¹– 2H)₃]·2NaClO₄·6H₂O closely match those found in solution for R = Ce-Eu (Peters, 1988), we can tentatively infer that no major structural change indeed occurs in solution and the ninecoordinate D_3 -symmetrical structure found in the solid-state is a satisfying model for $[R(L^1–$ $2H)_3]^{3-}$ along the complete lanthanide series in water. The abrupt break near the middle of the series originates from variations of the crystal-field parameters which parallel those evidenced in the solid-state.

3.1.2. $[R(L^2)_3]^{3+}$ ($L^2 = 2,6$ -bis(benzimidazole)pyridine)

The tridentate ligand L² possesses heterocylic nitrogen donors exhibiting only a limited affinity for R(III), and no complexation occurs in water. However, efficient coordination is restored in less competing solvents leading to the successive formation of $[R(L^2)_n]^{3+}$ (n = 1, 2, 3) in acetonitrile (Piguet et al., 1993). The two first successive stability constants K_n (n = 1, 2) show only minor variations along the lanthanide series, while K_3 increases with increasing atomic number, reaches a maximum around R = Gd(III) and suddenly decreases, eventually producing poorly stable $[R(L^2)_3]^{3+}$ complexes for the smaller lanthanides (Petoud et al., 1997). This fascinating size-discriminating effect favouring the complexation of mid-range R(III), results from the modulation of intramolecular interstrand interactions involving $\pi - \pi$ stacking between aromatic benzimidazole groups in the D_3 -symmetrical $[R(L^2)_3]^{3+}$ complexes (fig. 11). For the large lanthanides (R = La-Gd), attractive interstrand π -stacking stabilizes the final triple helical complexes, but further contraction of the ionic radii for R = Tb-Lu induces considerable repulsive van der Waals interactions.



Fig. 11. Schematic formation of the D_3 -symmetrical complexes $[R(L^2)_3]^{3+}$ in acetonitrile with numbering scheme. The representation of $[R(L^2)_3]^{3+}$ corresponds to the crystal structure of $[Eu(L^2)_3](ClO_4)_3$ (Piguet et al., 1993).

For large concentrations of ligand compatible with NMR measurements ($\ge 0.015 \text{ mol} \cdot$ dm⁻³), the stability constants predict that $[R(L^2)_3]^{3+}$ are quantitatively formed (> 98%) for R =Ce–Tb. For smaller lanthanides, partial decomplexation occurs as demonstrated by the appearance of small new peaks in the spectrum of $[Dy(L^2)_3]^{3+}$ (Petoud et al., 1997). Although NMR spectra show three sets of resolved signals corresponding to $[Dy(L^2)_3]^{3+}$, $[Dy(L^2)_2]^{3+}$ and L² under slow-exchange regime at 298 K, the authors have restricted their analysis to R = Ce-Dy. As inferred from the crystal structure of $[\text{Eu}(\text{L}^2)_2]^{3+}$, the ¹H and ¹³C NMR data demonstrate that the threefold symmetry is maintained in solution. Moreover, the replacement of methyl groups in L² by ethyl groups in L^{2a} provides diastereotopic probes in $[R(L^{2a})_3]^{3+}$ which systematically display two separated signals for the methylene protons in complete agreement with the expected helical wrapping of the strands and an average D_3 point group symmetry in solution. Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) and $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (49)) for $[R(L^2)_3]^{3+}$ (R = Ce-Dy) give linear correlations arising from a single isostructural series (fig. 12). Multi-linear least-square fits of eq. (47) using $\langle S_z \rangle_j$ and C_j factors of table 3 provide contact F_i and pseudo-contact $B_0^2 G_i$ terms collected in table 4. The agreement factor AF_i for a nucleus *i* for an isostructural series of *n* different lanthanide complexes is given by eq. (57) (Wilcott et al., 1972)

$$AF_{i} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} (\delta_{ij}^{\text{obs}} - \delta_{ij}^{\text{calc}})^{2}}{\sum_{j=1}^{n} (\delta_{ij}^{\text{obs}})^{2}}}.$$
(57)

The AF_i factors for $[R(L^2)_3]^{3+}$ (R = Ce-Dy) are satisfying except for C2 and C3 which undergo minor to negligible paramagnetic shifts (table 4). Interestingly, the sizeable F_i terms (i.e., hyperfine constants) observed for H1 and H5 suggest significant spin delocalisation for nuclei separated by four bonds from the paramagnetic centre, an effect ascribed to efficient delocalisation within heterocylic N-donor ligands (Petoud et al., 1997). For H3 and C3, the pseudo-contact terms $B_0^2G_i$ are only marginally different from zero in complete agreement with their location close to the magic angle $\theta_i = 54.7^\circ$ for which $G_i = 0$ ($\theta_{C3} = 57.8^\circ$ and



Fig. 12. Plots of (a) $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) and (b) $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (49)) for H5 in $[R(L^2)_3]^{3+}$ ($R = \text{Ce-Dy}, \text{CD}_3\text{CN}, 298$ K, drawn from data reported by Petoud et al. (1997)).

Table 4 Computed values for contact (F_i) , pseudo-contact $(B_0^2G_i)$ terms and agreement factors (AF_i) for ¹H- and ¹³C-nuclei in complexes $[R(L^2)_3]^{3+}$ (R =Ce–Dy, CD₃CN, 298 K, Petoud et al. (1997)). See fig. 11 for the atom-numbering

	H1	H2	H3	H4	H5	H6	CH3				
F _i	-0.41(12)	-0.05(2)	-0.006(5)	0.16(1)	0.42(6)	0.26(4)	0.14(3)				
$B_0^2 G_i$	0.87(4)	0.094(7)	-0.008(2)	-0.111(3)	-0.30(2)	-0.22(1)	-0.25(1)				
AF_i	0.04	0.06	0.05	0.06	0.10	0.08	0.05				
	C1	C2	C3	C4	C5	C6	CH3				
F_i	0.26(10)	-0.26(4)	0.07(3)	0.33(2)	3.38(19)	-0.93(14)	0.36(3)				
$B_0^2 G_i$	0.25(3)	0.11(1)	0.002(9)	-0.124(7)	-0.46(6)	-0.30(5)	-0.28(1)				
AF_i	0.08	0.25	0.25	0.12	0.07	0.06	0.06				

 $\theta_{\rm H3} = 59^{\circ}$ in the crystal structure of $[{\rm Eu}({\rm L}^2)_3]^{3+}$). Although no analysis of these data using the crystal-field independent two-nuclei technique (eq. (51)) has been reported, plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\rm para}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\rm para}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ based on the data reported by Petoud et al. (1997) suggest the existence of a single straight line for R =Ce–Dy, thus confirming isostructurality (fig. 13).

Finally, the anisotropic part of the axial magnetic susceptibility tensor $\chi_{zz}^{j} - (1/3) \operatorname{Tr} \chi^{j}$ has been computed following the method of Kemple et al. (1988) applied to axial complexes for which the principal magnetic *z* axis corresponds to the molecular threefold axis. Equation (44) reduces to eq. (58) and multi-linear least-squares fits based on geometrical factors G_i obtained from the crystal structure of $[\operatorname{Eu}(L^2)_3]^{3+}$ and using 13 paramagnetic shifts and eleven contact contributions (all carbons and five protons, 13×11 fits) give magnetic anisotropies $\chi_{zz}^{j} (1/3) \operatorname{Tr} \chi^{j}$ which display only qualitative agreement with Bleaney's factor C_j (Petoud et al., 1997). This poor correlation is not diagnostic for the rejection of Bleaney's approach, but it can be assigned to the very limited set of nuclei (H2 and H3) for which pure pseudocontact contributions are observed and which are prominent for the calculation of the magnetic



Fig. 13. Crystal-field independent plot of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (51)) for the C5–H5 pair in $[R(L^2)_3]^{3+}$ (R = Ce-Dy, CD₃CN, 298 K, drawn from data reported by Petoud et al. (1997)).

anisotropy

$$\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}} = \delta_{ij}^{\text{c}} + \delta_{ij}^{\text{pc}} = \delta_{ij}^{\text{c}} + \frac{1}{2N_{\text{A}}} \left[\left(\chi_{zz}^{j} - \frac{1}{3} \operatorname{Tr} \chi^{j} \right) G_{i} \right].$$
(58)

The authors conclude that $[R(L^2)_3]^{3+}$ (R = Ce-Dy) are isostructural in solution and adopt a structure reminiscent to that found in the crystal structure of $[Eu(L^2)_3]^{3+}$. The aromatic backbone acts as an efficient relay for spin delocalisation and/or spin polarization which allows contact contributions to operate at long distances.

3.1.3. $[R(L^3)_3]^{3+}$ $(L^3 = 2, 6$ -pyridinedicarboxylic acid-bis-diethylamide)

The replacement of the two benzimidazole side arms of L² by two neutral carboxamide groups in L³ provides a tridentate NO₂ chelate which exhibits significant affinity for R(III) in acetonitrile despite its increased flexibility (Renaud et al., 1997). The stability constants for the complexes $[R(L^3)_n]^{3+}$ (R = La-Lu, n = 1, 2, 3) are comparable to those found for light lanthanides with L² ($[R(L^2)_n]^{3+}$, R = La-Gd, n = 1, 2, 3), but K_3 for $[R(L^3)_3]^{3+}$ monotonously increases when going from Gd to Lu in agreement with the well-known electrostatic trend (Choppin, 1989). No specific size-discriminating effect is detected and the triple helical complexes $[R(L^2)_3]^{3+}$ are quantitatively formed ($\ge 98\%$) in acetonitrile for a total ligand concentration of 0.15 mol \cdot dm⁻³ and $R/L^3 = 0.33$ (Renaud et al., 1997). The ¹H and ¹³C NMR data imply the existence of three equivalent ligand strands on the NMR time scale and the separated ¹H NMR signal detected for the methylene protons of the ethyl groups of the carboxamide side arms (R = Y, Lu) points to the formation of D_3 -symmetrical complexes in solution reminiscent of the crystal structures obtained for $[R(L^3)_3]^{3+}$ (R = La, Eu, fig. 14).

Variable-temperature NMR measurements for $[R(L^3)_3]^{3+}$ (R = La, Sm, Y, Lu) in acetonitrile firmly establish dynamic interconversion between the D_3 -symmetrical helical enantiomers $P - [R(L^3)_3]^{3+} \rightleftharpoons M - [R(L^3)_3]^{3+}$. The coalescence temperature increases with de-



Fig. 14. Schematic formation of the D_3 -symmetrical complexes $[R(L^3)_3]^{3+}$ in acetonitrile with numbering scheme. The representation of $[R(L^3)_3]^{3+}$ corresponds to the crystal structure of $[Eu(L^3)_3](CF_3SO_3)_3(THF)_2$ (Renaud et al., 1997).

creasing ionic radii and the calculated free energies of activation at these temperatures follow the same trend $\Delta G^{\neq}(\text{Sm}, T = 263 \text{ K}) = 55 \text{ kJ/mol}, \Delta G^{\neq}(\text{Y}, T = 318 \text{ K}) = 73 \text{ kJ/mol}$ and $\Delta G^{\neq}(\text{Lu}, T = 333 \text{ K}) = 78 \text{ kJ/mol}$. For R = La, the coalescence temperature lies below 233 K and only a maximum activation energy can be estimated ($\Delta G^{\neq}(\text{La}) < 55 \text{ kJ/mol}$). Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) and $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (49)) for ¹H and ¹³C NMR data of $[R(\text{L}^3)_3]^{3+}$ (R = Ce-Yb, except Pm, Gd, Dy, Ho) display an abrupt deviation from linearity between R = Tb and R = Er and require two different straight lines (fig. 15). Two different isostructural series are considered for R = Ce-Tb and Er–Yb, and two sets of contact F_i and pseudo-contact $B_0^2G_i$ terms are obtained according to least-squares fits of eq. (47) (table 5, Renaud et al. (1997)).



Fig. 15. Plots of (a) $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) and (b) $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (49)) for H2 in $[R(L^3)_3]^{3+}$ ($R = \text{Ce-Yb}, \text{CD}_3\text{CN}, 298$ K, redrawn from Renaud et al. (1997)).

n complex	es $[R(L^3)_3]^{3+}$ (<i>F</i>	$R = Ce - Yb, CD_3C$	CN, 298 K, Renau scheme	id et al. (1997)). S	ee fig. 14 for the	e atom-numbering
			Series $R = Ce$ -	-Tb		
	H2	H3	H6	H8	C1	C2
F_i	0.129(4)	0.11(1)	0.023(7)	0.00(2)	0.25(9)	3.01(9)
$B_0^2 G_i$	-0.177(2)	-0.160(5)	-0.006(3)	0.118(6)	-0.53(4)	-0.40(3)
AF_i	0.01	0.04	0.49	0.05	0.07	0.04
	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8
F_i	-1.02(3)	0.6(1)	0.31(5)	-0.07(3)	0.23(5)	-0.11(3)
$B_0^2 G_i$	-0.22(1)	0.16(5)	0.00(2)	0.064(9)	0.02(2)	0.06(1)
AF_i	0.02	0.11	0.13	0.20	0.16	0.31
			Series $R = \text{Er}$ -	Yb		
	H2	H3	H6	H8	C1	C2
F_i	0.110(1)	0.14(1)	0.01(1)	-0.26(9)	0.9(4)	2.495(1)
$B_0^2 G_i$	-0.054(1)	-0.044(4)	-0.003(4)	-0.01(3)	-0.14(9)	-0.034(1)
AF_i	0.00	0.02	0.33	0.20	0.13	0.00
	C3	C4	C5	C6	C7	C8
F_i	-0.82(2)	1.1(4)	-0.21(2)	-0.267(4)	0.19(6)	0.30(4)
$B_0^2 G_i$	-0.072(1)	-0.4(1)	-0.045(4)	-0.014(1)	0.03(2)	0.09(1)
AF_i	0.01	0.08	0.06	0.01	0.24	0.13

Computed values for contact (F_i) , pseudo-contact $(B_0^2G_i)$ terms and agreement factors (AF_i) for ¹H- and ¹³C-nuclei

The significant hyperfine constants (F_i terms) observed for the protons of the pyridine ring (H2 and H3) parallel those reported for $[R(L^2)_3]^{3+}$ and confirms efficient spin delocalisation onto the heterocyclic aromatic ring. Attempts to extract the axial magnetic anisotropies $\chi^{j}_{zz} - (1/3) \operatorname{Tr} \chi^{j}$ with eq. (58) and using the crystal structure of $[\operatorname{Eu}(L^{3})_{3}]^{3+}$ as a model only fail because pure pseudo-contact contributions are limited to the two terminal methyl protons. Their versatile locations within each strand in the crystal structure of $[Eu(L^3)_3]^{3+}$ do not allow the calculation of reliable D_3 -average geometrical G_i factors. The crystal-field and structure-independent method (eq. (51)) has been applied for unambiguously demonstrating that a structural change occurs along the lanthanide series. Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{ki}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ indeed display systematic abrupt breaks between R = Tb and Er leading to two different sets of structural terms $R_{ik} = G_i/G_k$ (fig. 16, Rigault et al. (2000a)). Comparison between R_{ik} terms observed in solution and those calculated from the crystal structure of $[Eu(L^3)_3]^{3+1}$ shows only limited agreement (table 6), but quantitative statistical analyses suggest that the regular triple-helical arrangement of the strands observed in the solid state better fits the solution structure of the light lanthanides (R = Ce-Tb, Rigault et al. (2000a)). It was noticed that the dramatic discrepancies observed for pairs involving the C4 atom result from its location close to the magic angle ($\theta_{C4} = 54.9^{\circ}$ in the crystal structure of $[Eu(L^3)_3]^{3+}$). Since $G_{C4} \approx 0$, extreme sensitivity of $R_{C4,k}$ terms for minor structural changes is expected. Finally, Renaud et al. (1997) have used relaxation measurements and eq. (18) to extract $R-H_i$ and $R-C_i$ distances which indeed slightly differ for R = Ce and R = Yb. Renaud et al. (1997) and Rigault et al. (2000a) conclude that a structural change is firmly established for $[R(L^3)_3]^{3+}$ near the



Fig. 16. Crystal-field independent plot of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (51)) for the C2–H2 pair in $[R(L^3)_3]^{3+}$ (R = Ce-Yb, acetonitrile, 298 K, redrawn from Rigault et al. (2000a)).

Table 6 Minimal set of structural term $R_{ik} = G_i/G_k$ obtained from plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ according to eq. (51) for $[R(L^3)_3]^{3+}$ (CD₃CN, 298 K) (Rigault et al., 2000a).^a See fig. 14 for the atom-numbering scheme

			•		-
	H2–H3	H2C1	H2-C2	H2-C3	H2C4
R_{ik} (Ce–Tb) ^b	0.93(5)	0.33(3)	0.39(3)	0.91(4)	-0.7(3)
R_{ik} (Er–Yb) ^c	1.02(9)	0.14(8)	1.38(6)	0.65(4)	0.08(2)
$R_{ik} ([Eu(L^3)_3]^{3+})^d$	1.018	0.213	0.499	0.591	16.321

^aA complete set of R_{ik} data can be generated according to $R_{ik} = R_{im} \cdot R_{mk}$.

^bValues for the first isostructural series (Sm has been removed because of its faint paramagnetism).

^cValues for the second isostructural series.

^dCalculated from the crystal structure of [Eu(L³)₃](CF₃SO₃)₃(THF)₂.

middle of the lanthanide series. Its assignment to specific variations of structural parameters in the triple-helical complexes has been delayed until a similar behaviour observed by Ouali et al. (2002) for $[R(L^7-2H)_3]^{3-}$, could be ascribed to fast oscillations of the central pyridine ring occurring for large R(III) ions, R = Ce-Tb, a process which also affects $[R(L^3)_3]^{3+}$ (see sect. 3.1.7 and fig. 33).

3.1.4. $[R(L^4)]^{3+}$ and $[R(L^4+H)]^{4+}$ $(L^4 = tris\{2 - [N-methylcarbamoyl-(6-(N, N-diethylcarbamoyl)pyridine-2)ethyl]amine\})$

In order to limit flexibility, three tridentate binding units similar to L³ have been connected to a covalent tri(2-aminoethyl)amine (TREN) tripod to give the nonadentate podand L⁴. Upon reaction with R(III) (R = La-Eu, Yb, Lu, Y) in acetonitrile/nitromethane (1:1), the NMR spectra confirm the formation of the expected C_3 -symmetrical complexes $[R(L^4)]^{3+}$ (Renaud et al., 1999). The methylene protons are systematically diastereotopic at 298 K. For the diamagnetic cations R = Y, Lu, no coalescence is observed in the accessible temperature range (233–343 K), but the rate of helical interconversion increases with increasing ionic radii and $[\text{La}(L^4)]^{3+}$ shows coalescence at 323 K, thus pointing to a fast P- $[\text{La}(L^4)]^{3+} \rightleftharpoons M$ - $[La(L^4)]^{3+}$ isomerisation process on the NMR time scale. Compared to the parent complexes $[La(L^3)_3]^{3+}$ which display enantiotopic methylene protons for T > 233 K (see sect. 3.1.3), the introduction of the covalent TREN tripod in $[La(L^4)]^{3+}$ significantly slows down the helical interconversion process. Protonation of the apical nitrogen atom produces the C_3 -symmetrical podates $[R(L^4+H)]^{4+}$ which display only marginally faster racemisation processes. Although some steric constraints induced by the tripod limit the thermodynamic stability of the podates $[R(L^4)]^{3+}$ and $[R(L^4+H)]^{4+}$, stability constants confirm their quantitative formation for a total ligand concentration of 0.05 mol \cdot dm⁻³ and a stoichiometric ratio $R: L^4 = 1.0$ (Renaud et al., 1999; fig. 17).

Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) and $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (49)) for ¹H and ¹³C NMR data of $[R(L^4)]^{3+}$ and $[R(L^4+H)]^{4+}$ (R = Ce, Pr, Nd, Sm, Eu, Yb) show linear cor-



 $[R(L^{4}+H)]^{4+}$

Fig. 17. Schematic formation of the C_3 -symmetrical podates $[R(L^4)]^{3+}$ and $[R(L^4+H)]^{4+}$ in acetonitrile with numbering scheme. The representation of $[R(L^4+H)]^{4+}$ corresponds to the crystal structure of $[Eu(L^4+H)](CF_3SO_3)_3(PF_6)(CH_3CN)_{0.5}$ (Renaud et al., 1999).



Fig. 18. Plots of (a) $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) and (b) $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (49)) for C5 in $[R(L^4)]^{3+}$ (**■**) and $[R(L^4+H)]^{4+}$ (\triangle) (R = Ce-Eu, Yb, CD₃CN/CD₃NO₂ (1:1), 298 K, redrawn from Renaud et al. (1999)).

Table 7 Computed values for contact (F_i) , pseudo-contact $(B_0^2G_i)$ terms and agreement factors (AF_i) for ¹H- and ¹³Cnuclei in the podates $[R(L^4)]^{3+}$ and $[R(L^4+H)]^{4+}$ (R =Ce–Eu, Yb, CD₃CN/CD₃NO₂ (1:1), 298 K, Renaud et al. (1999)). See fig. 17 for the atom-numbering scheme

			[R	$(L^4)]^{3+}$			
	Н3	H4	Н5	H6	H8	H10	
F_i	0.04(1)	0.13(4)	0.10(4)	0.17(3)	0.01(1)	0.001(2)	
$B_0^2 G_i$	0.016(6)	-0.02(2)	-0.03(2)	0.01(1)	-0.002(3)	-0.004(7)	
AF_i	0.44	0.36	0.46	0.27	0.61	0.93	
	C1	C3	C4	C5	C6	C8	C10
F_i	0.09(8)	0.08(3)	3.4(4)	-1.1(4)	3.2(3)	-0.1(2)	-0.06(3)
$B_0^2 G_i$	0.11(4)	0.01(2)	0.2(2)	-0.04(2)	0.0(1)	0.002(7)	0.01(1)
AF_i	0.54	0.39	0.18	0.06	0.15	0.08	0.44
			[<i>R</i> (I	$(4^{+}H)]^{4+}$			
	H3	H4	H5	H6	H8	H10	
F_i	-0.01(1)	0.08(7)	0.04(5)	0.1(4)	0.01(1)	0.03(6)	
$B_0^2 G_i$	-0.00(1)	0.20(4)	0.13(2)	0.10(2)	-0.024(4)	-0.2(3)	
AF_i	0.97	0.31	0.31	0.31	0.24	0.25	
	C1	C3	C4	C5	C6	C8	C10
F_i	0.2(2)	0.3(6)	2.8(2)	-1.1(1)	3.0(2)	-0.13(1)	-0.01(5)
$B_0^2 G_i$	-0.41(9)	-0.04(3)	0.4(1)	0.24(4)	0.28(9)	0.00(1)	-0.16(2)
AF_i	0.33	0.30	0.15	0.11	0.12	0.15	0.24

relations for all the paramagnetic lanthanides studied (fig. 18). The separation of the contact and pseudo-contact contributions according to eq. (47) for each nuclei in the two complexes show very similar contact F_i terms, but significantly different pseudo-contact $B_0^2G_i$ terms which explains the different slopes obtained on fig. 18a (table 7). Calculation of geometrical factors G_i from the crystal structure of $[\text{Eu}(\text{L}^4+\text{H})]^{4+}$ combined with a detailed analysis of the sign of the $B_0^2 G_i$ terms in the two complexes suggest that the position of R(III) is slightly shifted toward the lone pair of the apical nitrogen in $[R(\text{L}^4)]^{3+}$, while R(III) is moved away from the apical site upon protonation in $[R(\text{L}^4+\text{H})]^{4+}$. Although possible variations of B_0^2 have not been considered by the authors, the existence of a single isostructural series for $[R(\text{L}^4)]^{3+}$ and $[R(\text{L}^4+\text{H})]^{4+}$ strongly contrasts with the structural change assigned to the parent complexes $[R(\text{L}^3)_3]^{3+}$. This peculiar behaviour of the podates has been ascribed to the improved structural control imposed by the rigid tripod (Renaud et al., 1999). The limited available set of paramagnetic shifts collected for $[R(\text{L}^4)]^{3+}$ and $[R(\text{L}^4+\text{H})]^{4+}$ in the second part of the lanthanide series (R = Yb) prevents the application of the crystal-field independent technique (eq. (51)), but attempts to estimate magnetic anisotropies $\chi_{zz}^j - (1/3) \text{ Tr } \chi^j$ with eq. (58) give only poorly reliable results because, among the available 13 LIS for protons and carbons, the contact contributions of only three carbons C1, C8 and C10 can be neglected.

3.1.5. $[RM(L^5)_3]^{5/6+}$ (M = Zn, Co; $L^5 = 2-\{6-[N, N-diethylcarboxamido]-pyridin-2-yl\}$ -1,1'-dimethyl-5,5'-methylene-2'-(5-methylpyridin-2-yl)bis(1H-benzimidazole)

The use of unsymmetrical tridentate binding units for the complexation of nine-coordinate R(III) is strongly limited by the head-to-head-to-head (HHH) \leftrightarrow head-to-head-to-tail (HHT) isomerism resulting from the two different possible arrangements of the strands in $[RL_3]$ complexes. Covalent tripods are rarely used in this context because severe steric constraints often prevent the regular wrapping of the strands required for meridional tri-coordination (Renaud et al., 1999; Bretonnière et al., 2000; see sect. 3.1.4). Piguet et al. (1996) have taken advantage of the virtues of thermodynamic self-assembly for preparing pure d-f heterobimetallic complexes in which threefold symmetry (i.e., a strict HHH arrangement of the tridentate binding units) results from the use of a flexible non-covalent tripod. The segmental ligand L^5 has been designed for this purpose since it possesses a NN bidentate binding unit coded for the coordination of soft d-block ions and an unsymmetrical NNO tridentate binding unit coded for the coordination of 4f-block ions (Piguet et al., 2000). Upon stoichiometric mixing of L^5 (3 eq.) with Zn(II) (1 eq.) and R(III) (1 eq.) in acetonitrile, the C_3 -symmetrical triple-stranded helicates (HHH)- $[RZn(L^5)_3]^{5+}$ are quantitatively formed for total ligand concentrations larger than 10^{-4} mol \cdot dm⁻³ (fig. 19). In these systems, the d-block ions is pseudo-octahedrally sixcoordinated by the three bidentate binding unit, thus providing a non-covalent tripod which organizes the helical wrapping of the three tridentate chelates for their coordination to the pseudo-tricapped trigonal prismatic lanthanides.

When diamagnetic Zn(II) is introduced into the non-covalent tripod, R(III) is the only source of paramagnetism and the paramagnetic NMR data can be analyzed with the usual model-free methods. As a result of (i) the tight wrapping of the three ligand strands in (HHH)- $[RZn(L^5)_3]^{5+}$ and (ii) the strong metal–ligand interactions associated with multiple interactions (Prins et al., 2001; Swiegers and Malefetse, 2001), the dynamic interconversion between the helical enantiomers PP- $[RZn(L^5)_3]^{5+} \rightleftharpoons MM$ - $[RZn(L^5)_3]^{5+}$ is blocked on the NMR time scale in the temperature range accessible in acetonitrile (233–343 K). All methylene protons remain diastereotopic and the ¹H NMR spectra reflect the quantitative formation of



Fig. 19. Self-assembly of L^5 with La^{III} and Zn^{II} in acetonitrile. The stability constant for each defined equilibrium is given as log(K). The representation of $[LaZn(L^5)_3]^{5+}$ corresponds to the crystal structure of $[EuZn(L^5)_3](CF_3SO_3)_3(CIO_4)(CH_3CN)_4$ (Piguet et al., 1996).



Fig. 20. Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) for H13 in $[RZn(L^5)_3]^{5+}$ (R = Ce, Pr, Nd, Eu, Tm, Yb, 298 K, drawn from data reported by Piguet et al. (1996)).

Table 8

Computed values for contact (F_i) , pseudo-contact $(B_0^2G_i)$ terms and agreement factors (AF_i) for ¹H-nuclei in the complexes $[RZn(L^5)_3]^{5+}$ (R = Ce, Pr, Nd, Eu, Tm, Yb, CD₃CN, 298 K, Piguet et al. (1996)). See fig. 19 for the atom-numbering scheme

	Bidentate binding unit											
	Me1 Me2 H1 H2 H3 H4 H5 H										H6	
F_i	-0.0	-15 -	-0.018	-0.029	-0.	020	-0.024	-0.02	9 -0	.022	-0.105	
$B_0^2 G_i$	0.0	37	0.055	0.067	0.	038	0.061	0.05	1 0	.030	0.0304	
AF_i	0.1	3	0.13	0.12	0.	10	0.11	0.09	C	.08	0.14	
				Г	ridentate	binding u	ınit					
	Me3	H9	H10	H11	H12	H13	H14	H17	H18	H19	H20	
F_i	0.060	-0.248	-0.03	0.143	0.335	0.178	0.337	0.144	-0.003	-0.039	-0.255	
$B_0^2 G_i$	-0.202	0.903	0.017	-0.078	-0.250	-0.207	-0.242	-0.118	-0.030	0.057	0.737	
AF_i	0.17	0.15	0.27	0.09	0.11	0.09	0.10	0.10	0.14	0.11	0.14	

the C_3 -symmetrical complexes $[RZn(L^5)_3]^{5+}$ (R = La, Ce, Pr, Nd, Sm, Eu, Tm, Yb, Lu) in solution (Piguet et al., 1996). Although plots of $\delta_{ij}^{para}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) and δ_{ij}^{para}/C_j vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (49)) for ¹H NMR data suggest that R = Tm, Yb do not belong to the straight line found for R = Ce-Eu (fig. 20), multi-linear least-squares fits of eq. (47) considering a single isostructural series (R = Ce-Yb) have been applied for the separation of contact and pseudo-contact contributions (F_i and $B_0^2G_i$ terms are collected in table 8).

It is thus not surprising that only poor agreement factors AF_i are obtained, but the triplestranded helical complex possesses enough protons with negligible contact contributions to allow reliable calculations of the magnetic anisotropies $\chi_{zz}^j - (1/3) \operatorname{Tr} \chi^j$ for each studied lanthanide (eq. (58)). Among twelve available aromatic protons, six are connected to the bidentate binding unit and exhibit no contact contribution. Multi-linear 12 × 6 fits using the geometrical factors G_i obtained from the crystal structure of $[\operatorname{EuZn}(L^5)_3]^{5+}$ give $\chi_{zz}^j - (1/3) \operatorname{Tr} \chi^j$ values for $R = \operatorname{Ce}$, Pr, Nd, Eu, Tm, Yb which are in qualitative good agreement with Bleaney's C_j factors (Piguet et al., 1996). It was concluded that (i) the crystal structure of $[\operatorname{EuZn}(L^5)_3]^{5+}$ is a satisfying structural model for the complete lanthanide series and (ii) helication of the strands and coordination to d-block ions ensures a rigid and well-defined coordination site for



Fig. 21. Self-assembly of (HHH)-[RCo^{II}(L⁵)₃]⁵⁺ followed by oxidation (post-modification) to give (HHH)-[RCo^{III}(L⁵)₃]⁶⁺. The representation of [RCo(L⁵)₃]⁶⁺ corresponds to the crystal structure of [LaCo(L⁵)₃](ClO₄)_{5.5}(OH)_{0.5}(CH₃CN)₄(H₂O)₂ (adapted from Rigault et al. (1998)).

R(III). The latter point has been exploited for investigating possible variations of crystal-field parameters within isostructural series of rigid complexes. In order to design highly rigid helicates programmed for displaying a single isostructural series in solution, the kinetically inert diamagnetic Co(III) (d⁶ low spin) has been introduced into the non-covalent tripod by using a self-assembly process with oxidative post-modification (Rigault et al., 1998; fig. 21).

No decomplexation occurs in acetonitrile $(10^{-1}-10^{-5} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{dm}^{-3})$ and the almost identical crystal structures obtained for lanthanide ions of extreme sizes (HHH)-[RCo(L⁵)₃]⁶⁺ (R = La, Lu) strongly suggest that the considerable rigidity of the wrapped ligand strands minimizes structural variations associated with the lanthanide contraction (fig. 22, Rigault et al. (2000b)).

The ¹H NMR spectra of (HHH)-[$RCo(L^5)_3$]⁶⁺ (R = La-Lu, except Pm, Gd) confirm the quantitative formation of rigid C_3 -symmetrical complexes displaying systematic diastereotopic methylene protons between 233–343 K in acetonitrile. Field-dependent T_1 and T_2 relaxation measurements for (HHH)-[$RCo(L^5)_3$]⁶⁺ (R = Tb, Tm) fitted with eq. (15) (fig. 23a) and eq. (16) (fig. 23b) respectively give R-Hi distances very close to those found in the solid state in agreement with negligible structural changes occurring along the lanthanide series in solution (Rigault et al., 2000b).

Magnetic anisotropies $\chi_{zz}^{j} - (1/3) \operatorname{Tr} \chi^{j}$ for $R = \operatorname{Ce-Yb}$ except Pm, Gd $(0.002 \leq AF_{j} \leq 0.06, \text{ table 9})$ have been computed with eq. (58) and using five contact contributions δ_{ij}^{c} $(i = \operatorname{H9}, \operatorname{H11-H14})$ and the geometrical G_{i} factors obtained from the crystal structures of (HHH)- $[R\operatorname{Co}(L^{5})_{3}]^{6+}$ ($R = \operatorname{La}$, Lu). A qualitative good agreement (AF = 0.23) is obtained between the experimental magnetic anisotropies (scaled to -100 for Dy(III) and corrected for the variation of the crystal-field parameter near the middle of the series (*vide supra*), table 9) and Bleaney's factors (table 3). Further non-linear least-squares refinements of the molecular



Fig. 22. Perspective views of (a) (HHH)- $[LaCo^{III}(L^5)_3]^{6+}$ and (b) (HHH)- $[LuCo^{III}(L^5)_3]^{6+}$ perpendicular to the pseudo-C₃ axis in the crystal structures of $[LaCo(L^5)_3](CIO_4)_{5,5}(OH)_{0,5}(CH_3CN)_4(H_2O)_2$ and $[LuCo(L^5)_3](CF_3SO_3)_6(H_2O)(CH_3CN)_2$ (adapted from Rigault et al. (2000b)).



Fig. 23. Plot of (a) $1/T_{1i}^{\text{para}}$ vs $(H_0^2/(1 + \omega^2 \tau_r^2))$ (eq. (15)) and $1/T_{2i}^{\text{para}}$ vs H_0^2 (eq. (16)) for H12 in (HHH)-[TbCo^{III}(L⁵)]⁶⁺ (acetonitrile, 298 K, redrawn from Rigault et al. (2000b)).

structure using the crystal structure of (HHH)-[LuCo(L⁵)₃]⁶⁺ as the initial model and simultaneously varying the axial coordinates θ_i and r_i and $\chi_{zz}^j - (1/3) \operatorname{Tr} \chi^j$ (the contact contribution for H9, H11–H14 are fixed and calculated from the F_i terms of table 10: $\delta_{ij}^c = F_i \langle S_z \rangle_j$) show only minor changes for minimizing the square of the error between calculated and experimental pseudo-contact shifts. However, the final agreement of the computed magnetic anisotropies (corrected for the variation of the crystal-field parameter) and Bleaney's factors slightly improves (AF = 0.20). Rigault et al. (2000b) conclude that no significant structural change

	(HHH)- $[RCo^{III}(L^5)$	3] ⁶⁺	$(\text{HHH}) - [R \text{Co}^{\text{II}}(\text{L}^5)_3]^{5+}$			
	$\chi_{zz}^{j} - (1/3) \operatorname{Tr} \chi^{j} / \mathrm{ppm} \cdot \mathrm{\AA}^{3}$	Scaled C_i^{b}	$\chi^j_{zz} - (1/3) \operatorname{Tr} \chi^j / \mathrm{ppm} \cdot \mathrm{\AA}^3$	Scaled C_i^{b}		
Ce	413(10)	-5.2(1)	597(185)	-6(2)		
Pr	666(13)	-8.0(2)	866(196)	-10(2)		
Nd	300(8)	-3.8(1)	501(131)	-5.5(1.4)		
Eu	-342(9)	4.3(1)	-532(169)	6(2)		
Tb	4518(92)	-91(2)	5330(126)	-94(3)		
Dy	4941(150)	-100(3)	5668(189)	-100(3)		
Ho	2660(44)	-53(1)	3258(143)	-57(3)		
Er	-562(18)	11.4(4)	-664(113)	12(2)		
Tm	-1614(44)	32.7(9)	-2107(54)	37(1)		
Yb	-651(19)	13.2(4)	-764(81)	13(2)		

Table 9 Axial magnetic anisotropies for (HHH)- $[RCo^n(L^5)_3]^{(3+n)+}$ (n = 2, 3) in acetonitrile (Rigault et al., 2000b)^a

^aValues corrected for crystal-field effects.

^bRatios relative to $C_{\rm Dy} = -100$.

occurs along the lanthanide series and that both crystal structures $((\text{HHH})-[R\text{Co}(\text{L}^5)_3]^{6+}, R = \text{La}, \text{Lu})$ are satisfying structural models.

The analyses of the ¹H-NMR data with the crystal-field independent technique (eq. (51)) display straight lines for plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ in complete agreement with isostructurality along the complete lanthanide series and no significant change of the G_i factors (fig. 24).

Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) and $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (49)) using crystal-field dependent techniques show systematic abrupt breaks near the middle of the lanthanide series (between R = Eu and R = Tb) which imply a concomitant change of the contact F_i and pseudo-contact $B_0^2 G_i$ terms (table 10, fig. 25). Since G_i is essentially invariant, an abrupt variation of the crystal-field parameter B_0^2 is required to rationalize the NMR data.



Fig. 24. Crystal-field independent plot of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (51)) for the H9–H12 pair in (HHH)-[$RCo^{III}(L^5)_3$]⁶⁺ (R = Ce–Yb, acetonitrile, 298 K, redrawn from Rigault and Piguet (2000)).

Table 10 Computed values for contact (F_i), pseudo-contact ($B_0^2G_i$) terms for ¹H nuclei in the complexes (HHH)-[$RCo^{III}(L^5)_3$]⁶⁺ and (HHH)-[$RCo^{II}(L^5)_3$]⁵⁺ (R = Ce-Eu and R = Tb-Yb, CD₃CN, 298 K, Rigault et al. (2000b)). See fig. 19 for the atom-numbering scheme

Bidentate binding unit											
Compd		Me1	Me	2 F	H1	H2	H3	H4	H5	H6	
$[R\mathrm{Co}^{\mathrm{III}}(\mathrm{L}^5)_3]^{6+}$	Fi	-0.01(1)) -0.01((1) -0.	01(1) -0.	01(1)	-0.01(1)	-0.01(1)	-0.01(1)	-0.05(1)	
R = Ce-Eu	$B_0^2 G_i$	0.035(3) 0.060	0(3) 0.07	(1(3) 0.	038(1)	0.058(2)	0.068(1)	0.060(1)	0.29(1)	
$[RCo^{III}(L^5)_3]^{6+}$	F_i	0.03(1)) 0.05((1) 0.06	i(1) 0.	03(1)	0.05(1)	0.05(1)	0.04(1)	0.22(2)	
R = Tb-Yb	$B_0^2 G_i$	0.021(1) 0.038	8(1) 0.04	5(5) 0.	024(1)	0.036(1)	0.046(1)	0.043(3)	0.177(1)	
$[RCo^{II}(L^5)_3]^{5+}$	F_i	0.07(2)) -0.01((1) 0(0)	0.	01(1)	0.07(5)	0.02(2)	-0.02(1)	-0.15(7)	
R = Ce-Eu	$B_0^2 G_i$	0.08(2)) 0.027	7(6) 0(0)	0.	022(5)	-0.10(4)	0.01(2)	0.058(6)	0.48(6)	
$[RCo^{II}(L^5)_3]^{5+}$	F_i	0.03(1)) 0.03((1) 0.05	i (1) 0.	026(5)	-0.01(2)	0.02(1)	0.04(1)	0.30(5)	
R = Tb-Yb	$B_0^2 G_i$	0.026(3) 0.044	4(2) 0.05	0(3) 0.	030(2)	0.053(6)	0.051(3)	0.037(2)	0.20(2)	
Tridentate binding unit											
Compd		H9	H10	H11	H12	H1	3 H	14 Me3	Me4	Me5	
$[R\mathrm{Co}^{\mathrm{III}}(\mathrm{L}^5)_3]^{6+}$	F_i	-0.07(3)	-0.01(1)	0.12(1)	0.24(1)	0.09	(2) 0.17	(1) 0.00(1)	-0.02(2)	0.00(2)	
R = Ce-Eu	$B_{0}^{2}G_{i}$	0.93(3)	0.067(4)	-0.019(6)	-0.33(1)	-0.23	(1) -0.15	(1) -0.149(2) 0.33(2)	-0.09(2)	
$[RCo^{III}(L^5)_3]^{6+}$	$\vec{F_i}$	0.79(4)	0.06(1)	0.09(1)	-0.11(3)	0.06	(2) -0.02	(3) -0.16(1)	0.29(3)	-0.04(2)	
R = Tb-Yb	$B_{0}^{2}G_{i}$	0.58(1)	0.038(2)	-0.007(3)	-0.20(1)	-0.13	2(8) -0.09	7(9) -0.096(5)) 0.20(1)	-0.041(7)	
$[RCo^{II}(L^5)_3]^{5+}$	$\vec{F_i}$	-0.11(5)	-0.03(1)	0.10(1)	0.24(2)	0.09	(2) 0.17	(1) -0.06(2)	0.02(2)	-0.06(3)	
R = Ce-Eu	$B_0^2 G_i$	0.94(4)	0.080(7)	0.001(6)	-0.35(1)	-0.24	(2) -0.16	(1) -0.16(1)	-0.11(2)	0.38(3)	
$[RCo^{II}(L^5)_3]^{5+}$	F_i	0.76(7)	0.05(1)	0.10(1)	0.02(1)	0.08	(3) 0.06	(3) -0.16(2)	-0.06(2)	0.31(4)	
R = Tb-Yb	$B_0^2 G_i$	0.64(2)	0.041(2)	-0.001(2)	-0.276(5)	-0.20	(1) -0.13	3(9) -0.109(6) -0.038(6)	0.24(1)	



Fig. 25. Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) for H10 in (HHH)-[$RCo^{III}(L^5)_3$]⁶⁺ (\bullet) and (HHH)-[$RCo^{II}(L^5)_3$]⁵⁺ (\bullet) (R = Ce-Yb, acetonitrile, 298 K, redrawn from Rigault et al. (2000b)).

A plot of $B_0^2 G_i(R = \text{Ce-Eu})$ vs $B_0^2 G_i(R = \text{Tb-Yb})$ gives a straight line whose slope corresponds to the ratio of the crystal-field parameters

$$\frac{B_0^2(R = \text{Ce-Eu})}{B_0^2(R = \text{Tb-Yb})} = 1.6(2)$$

(Rigault and Piguet, 2000). The decrease of B_0^2 with the lanthanide contraction matches the expected reduced interaction between metal-centred 4f and ligand donor orbitals. The observation of an abrupt change in the crystal-field parameters near the middle of the lanthanide series, sometimes referred to as the 'gadolinium break' is reminiscent of related changes established for B_q^k in crystals of Na₃[$R(L^1-2H)_3$]·2NaClO₄·6H₂O (Hopkins et al., 1998; Görller-Walrand and Binnemans, 1996; Rigault and Piguet, 2000; fig. 9). For six-rank parameters (k = 6), the remarkable discontinuity between the first and second half of the lanthanide series is an indication for the need to include two-electron operators in the crystal-field Hamiltonian (Judd, 1979), but its origin remains obscure for second-rank parameters (Görller-Walrand and Binnemans, 1996; Rigault and Piguet, 2000). It is difficult to simply assign this abrupt variation of the B_0^2 parameters to deviation from Bleaney's approach, because the experimental magnetic anisotropies determined for (HHH)-[$RCo(L^5)_3$]⁶⁺ satisfyingly match the C_i factors, a strong support for limiting the T^{-n} series to the second-order term. Surprisingly, the concomitant change of the contact term F_i observed according to eqs. (48), (49) (table 10) has negligible effects on the intercept $F_i - F_k R_{ik}$ of linear plots obtained according to eq. (51) (fig. 24). Specific compensation effects have been demonstrated for (HHH)- $[RCo(L^5)_3]^{6+}$ (Rigault et al., 2000b), but variations of F_i terms are expected to produce two parallel straight lines for $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ as demonstrated for the cryptate $[R(L^6)]^{3+}$ (see sect. 3.1.6, Platas et al. (1999)).

Reduction of Co(III) into Co(II) provides a second fast-relaxing paramagnetic centre (Co(II), d⁷ high spin, S = 3/2) within the triple-stranded helicates (HHH)-[RCo(L⁵)₃]⁵⁺ and this strongly affects the ¹H-NMR spectra. Since no intermetallic R-Co(II) magnetic coupling can be detected at 298 K, the paramagnetic shifts induced by the two metallic centres are additive and eq. (59) holds if no major structural change occurs between (HHH)-[RCo^{II}(L⁵)₃]⁵⁺ and (HHH)-[RCo^{III}(L⁵)₃]⁶⁺ (Rigault et al., 2000b)

$$\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}(R\text{Co(II)}) = \delta_i^{\text{para}}(\text{LaCo(II)}) + \delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}(R\text{Co(III)}).$$
(59)

Satisfying predictions for the NMR spectra of (HHH)- $[RCo^{II}(L^5)_3]^{5+}$ are obtained which allow the complete assignment of the ¹H NMR signals in strongly paramagnetic lanthanidecontaining complexes. Detailed model-free analyses (eqs. (48), (49), (51)) using the complex (HHH)- $[LaCo^{II}(L^5)_3]^{5+}$ as the 'diamagnetic' reference (eq. (3)), evidence very similar structural properties for (HHH)- $[RCo^{II}(L^5)_3]^{5+}$ and (HHH)- $[RCo^{III}(L^5)_3]^{6+}$ despite the relative 36% increase of the ionic radius when going from Co(III) (d⁶ low spin) to Co(II) (d⁷ high spin, Shannon (1976)). As far as paramagnetic lanthanide induced shifts are concerned, a closely related concomitant abrupt change of the hyperfine constants (via F_i) and of the crystal-field parameter

$$\frac{B_0^2(R = \text{Ce-Eu})}{B_0^2(R = \text{Tb-Yb})} = 1.6(3)$$

is observed for (HHH)- $[RCo^{II}(L^5)_3]^{5+}$ (table 10, fig. 25), together with comparable magnetic anisotropies (table 9). Rigault et al. (2000b) conclude that the triple-stranded helicates are rigid enough to maintain very similar solution structures when the size of the f- and d-block

ions is varied within an acceptable range. However, the one-nucleus crystal-field dependent methods (eqs. (48), (49)) cannot be used for detecting structural changes because of unpredictable abrupt variations of the crystal-field parameter along the lanthanide series. The twonuclei crystal-field independent technique (eq. (51)) should be preferred and systematically applied when using model-free analyses.

3.1.6. $[R(L^6)]^{3+}$ ($L^6 = azacryptand$, see fig. 26)

The capping of both termini of three tridentate chelating units with covalent tripods provides highly rigid macrobicyclic receptors (i.e., cryptands), which are ideally suited for investigating variations of crystal-field parameters within isostructural series. Platas et al. (1999) have iso-



Fig. 26. Template formation of the C_3 -symmetrical cryptates $[R(L^6)]^{3+}$ in water with numbering scheme. The representation of $[R(L^6)(NO_3)]^{2+}$ corresponds to the crystal structure of $[Eu(L^6)(NO_3)](NO_3)_2(H_2O)_4$ (Platas et al., 1999).

lated the monometallic cryptates $[R(L^6)(NO_3)](NO_3)_2$ from the one-pot template reaction of tris(2-aminoethyl)amine (TREN) tripods with tridentate 2,6-diformyl-4-methylphenol in the presence of $R(NO_3)_3$. Crystal structures of $[R(L^6)(NO_3)](NO_3)_2$ (R = Ce, Nd, Eu, Y) show the formation of pseudo-trigonal complexes in which the lanthanide is placed asymmetrically at one end of the cavity, the four nitrogen atoms of one TREN tripod, three oxygen of the protonated phenols and two oxygen atoms of a bidentate nitrate ensuring nine-coordination (fig. 26). No major structural change is observed in the solid state for a relative lanthanide contraction of 11% (i.e., Y(III) displays an ionic radius comparable to that of Ho(III), Shannon (1976)), but threefold symmetry is removed by the coordination of the nitrate counter-anion.

Dissolution of the complexes in D₂O ($5 \cdot 10^{-3} \text{ mol} \cdot \text{dm}^{-3}$, pD = 5.8, 298 K) provides strict C_3 -symmetry on the NMR time scale in line with decomplexation of the nitrate anion or fast on-off exchange mechanisms. Since no decomplexation of the macrobicyle occurs under these conditions, relaxation and hyperfine NMR shifts have been collected at a single concentration. Dynamic intramolecular $\delta \rightleftharpoons \lambda$ conformational interconversion of the five-membered chelate rings rapidly exchange H2_{axial} with H2_{equatorial} on the NMR time scale. A detailed Eyring analysis of the line shape for $[\text{La}(\text{L}^6)]^{3+}$ gives $\Delta G^{\neq} = 70(3) \text{ kJ/mol}$ at 298 K, a kinetics barrier comparable to that found for the same conformational interconversion occurring in $[\text{La}(\text{L}^{10}-4\text{H})]^-$ (60.7 kJ/mol, see sect. 3.2.2). Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) and $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j C_j$ (eq. (49)) for ¹H NMR data of $[R(\text{L}^6)_3]^{3+}$ (R = Ce-Yb, except Pm, Gd) display an abrupt deviation from linearity between R = Eu and R = Tb and require two different straight lines (fig. 27). Two different isostructural series are considered for R = Ce-Tb and Er-Yb, and two sets of contact F_i and pseudo-contact $B_0^2G_i$ terms are obtained according to least-squares fits of eq. (47) (table 11, Platas et al. (1999)).

The simultaneous least-squares fits of lanthanide induced relaxation (LIR, T_1) according to eq. (18) and lanthanide induced shifts (LIS) according to eq. (47) with the crystal structures of $[R(L^6)(NO_3)](NO_3)_2$ as starting molecular models display only minor shift of R(III) from its original location. For the lighter lanthanides (R = Ce-Eu), the best fit shows a slight shift



Fig. 27. Plots of (a) $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) and (b) $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (49)) for H3 in $[R(L^6)]^{3+}$ ($R = \text{Ce-Yb}, D_2O, 298$ K, adapted from Platas et al. (1999)).

	Yb, D ₂ O, 298 K, Platas et al. (1999)). See fig. 26 for the atom-numbering scheme												
Series $R = Ce-Eu$													
	$H1_{ax}$ $H1_{eq}$ $H2_{ax}$ $H2_{eq}$ $H3$ $H4$ $H5$												
F_i	1.81(28)	1.30(25)	0.55(13)	0.4(1)	3.48(6)	0.25(4)	0.01(2)						
$B_{0}^{2}G_{i}$	-2.05(22)	-1.78(15)	-0.06(4)	-0.01(4)	1.03(5)	0.49(4)	0.18(1)						
	H6	H7	H8 _{ax}	H8 _{eq}	H9 _{ax}	H9 _{eq}							
F_i	0.21(1)	0.06(1)	0.15(6)	0.11(6)	0.21(6)	0.65(6)							
$B_0^2 G_i$	0.13(1)	-0.13(1)	-0.75(5)	-0.50(7)	-0.54(6)	-0.44(7)							
			Series R	= Tb-Yb									
	H1 _{ax}	H1 _{eq}	H2 _{ax}	H2 _{eq}	H3	H4	H5						
F_i	0.33(32)	0.42(34)	0.79(13)	0.33(5)	0.57(17)	0.40(15)	-0.11(1)						
$B_0^2 G_i$	-1.06(9)	-0.95(11)	-0.09(5)	-0.05(2)	0.52(5)	0.55(5)	0.06(1)						
	H6	H7	H8 _{ax}	H8 _{eq}	H9ax	H9 _{eq}							
F_i	a	a	a	a	а	a							
$B_0^2 G_i$	а	а	а	a	а	а							

Table 11 Computed values for contact (F_i), pseudo-contact ($B_0^2G_i$) terms for ¹H-nuclei in the complexes [$R(L^6)$]³⁺ (R = Ce-Yb, D₂O, 298 K, Platas et al. (1999)). See fig. 26 for the atom-numbering scheme

^aNot determined.

of R(III) toward the apical nitrogen atom of the TREN tripod (0.3 Å) and an angle of 5° between the principal magnetic *z* axis and the R-N_{apical} vector (0° is expected for an axial system). Similar results are obtained for the heavy lanthanides R = Tb-Yb except for a strict alignment of the magnetic *z* axis and the R-N_{apical} direction. Platas et al. (1999) conclude that the cryptates $[R(\text{L}^6)_3]^{3+}$ are rigid in solution and no major structural change occurs in solution near the middle of the series. The break observed according to eqs. (48), (49) is thus assigned to a concomitant variation of F_i and B_0^2 as similarly suggested for (HHH)- $[RCo(\text{L}^5)_3]^{6+}$ (see sect. 3.1.5). The application of the crystal-field independent technique (eq. (51)) supports this statement and two parallel straight lines corresponding to the R = Ce-Eu and R = Tb-Yb series are observed for plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (fig. 28). Since the slopes correspond to $R_{ik} = G_i/G_k$, no structural change occurs near the middle of the lanthanide series, but the variations of the hyperfine constants result in different intercepts $F_i - F_k R_{ik}$. Finally, a plot of $B_0^2 G_i(R = \text{Ce}-\text{Eu})$ vs $B_0^2 G_i(R = \text{Tb}-\text{Yb})$ gives a straight line whose slope corresponds to the ratio of the crystal-field parameters

$$\frac{B_0^2(R = \text{Ce-Eu})}{B_0^2(R = \text{Tb-Yb})} = 1.9(1).$$

The strict analogy between the behaviours of the rigid helicates (HHH)- $[RCo(L^5)_3]^{5/6+}$ and the cryptates $[R(L^6)]^{3+}$ strongly suggest that the 'gadolinium break' effect is a common trend when analysing paramagnetic NMR data (Rigault and Piguet, 2000).



Fig. 28. Crystal-field independent plot of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (51)) for the H1–H3 pair in $[R(L^6)]^{3+}$ (R = Ce-Yb, D₂O, 298 K, adapted from Platas et al. (1999)).

Finally, plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ vs $\delta_{lj}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ according to the three-nuclei method (eq. (53)) confirm the break occurring near the middle of the series and the experimental slopes

$$\frac{(S_{ik} - R_{ik})}{(S_{ik} - R_{ik})}$$

and intercepts

$$\frac{(S_{lk}R_{ik} - S_{ik}R_{lk})}{(S_{lk} - R_{lk})}$$

can be satisfactorily predicted from F_i terms obtained with eqs. (48), (49) and R_{ik} terms obtained with eq. (51) (fig. 29, Geraldes et al. (2001)).

3.1.7. $[R(L^7-2H)_3]^{3-}$ $(L^7 = 2,6$ -pyridinedicarboxylic acid and derivatives)

According to the systematic observation of abrupt variations of the second-rank crystalfield parameter near the middle of the lanthanide series in rigid threefold complexes on one side (see sects. 3.1.5 and 3.1.6) and the structural change evidenced in $[R(L^3)_3]^{3+}$ between R = Tb and R = Er on the other side (see sect. 3.1.3), the strict isostructurality combined with the invariance of B_0^2 proposed by Donato and Martin (1972) and Reilley et al. (1975) for the closely related complexes $[R(L^7-2\text{H})_3]^{3-}$ in D₂O become suspicious and deserve to be re-examined. As discussed for $[R(L^1-2\text{H})_n]^{(3-2n)+}$ (n = 1, 2, 3) have been extensively studied by Grenthe (1961) leading to calculated ligand speciations of $[R(L^7-2\text{H})_3]^{3-}$ (95%), $[R(L^7-2\text{H})_2(\text{OH}_2)_3]^-$ (3%) and $[L^7-2\text{H}]^2^-$ (2%) for a total ligand concentration of 0.03 mol · dm⁻³ and a stoichiometric ratio $R/L^7 = 0.33$ (water, pH = 6, 298 K). In excess of ligand $(R/L^7 = 0.25)$, fast intermolecular ligand-exchange processes on the NMR time scale are detected for $[La(L^7-2\text{H})_3]^{3-}$ (D₂O, 283–353 K), while the stronger *R*-ligand



Fig. 29. Plot of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}} / \delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ vs $\delta_{lj}^{\text{para}} / \delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ according to the three-nuclei method (eq. (53)) for the triad H2_{ax}-H3-H5 in [*R*(L⁶)]³⁺ (*R* = Ce–Yb, D₂O, 298 K, redrawn from Geraldes et al. (2001)).

dative bonds with smaller rare earth ions (R = Y, Lu) provide distinct ¹H NMR signals at 283 K for free and complexed ligands (Alsaadi et al., 1980a). Ouali et al. (2002) have obtained $\Delta G^{\neq}([Y(L^7-2H)_3]^{3-}) = 68(1)$ and $\Delta G^{\neq}([Lu(L^7-2H)_3]^{3-}) = 74(1)$ kJ/mol at the coalescence temperatures (318 and 348 K respectively) for this intermolecular ligand-exchange process together with a smaller value $\Delta G^{\neq}([La(L^7-2H)_3]^{3-}) \leq 59 \text{ kJ/mol in agreement}$ with the original trend proposed by Peters (1988) for the closely related oxydiacetate complexes $[R(L^1-2H)_3]^{3-}$. However, the equilibrium quantities of $[R(L^7-2H)_2(OH_2)_3]^{-}$ and $[L^7-2H]^{2-}$ are small enough to be neglected for NMR measurements obtained at high concentration and for $R/L^7 = 0.33$ (Pons and Millet, 2001). The observed ¹H and ¹³C NMR data confirm the formation of D_3 -symmetrical triple-helical complexes $[R(L^7-2H)_3]^{3-}$ and $[R(L^{7a}-2H)_3]^{3-}$ in solution (Reilley et al., 1975) in agreement with the numerous solidstate crystal structures reported for $(\operatorname{cation})_3[R(L^7-2H)_3]$ along the complete lanthanide series which show R(III) in pseudo-tricapped trigonal prismatic sites, six oxygen atoms of the carboxylate groups occupying the vertices of the trigonal prism and the three nitrogen atoms of the pyridine rings capping the rectangular faces (Hopkins et al., 1996; Harrowfield et al., 1995; fig. 30).

The introduction of diastereotopic probes in $[R(L^{7b}-2H)_3]^{3-}$ shows two separated ¹H NMR signals for the methylene protons for R = Eu, Tm and Yb which coalesce around 298 K (Ouali et al., 2002). The associated free energies of activation $\Delta G^{\neq}([\text{Eu}(L^{7b}-2H)_3]^{3-}) = 63(1) \text{ kJ/mol}, \Delta G^{\neq}([\text{Tm}(L^{7b}-2H)_3]^{3-}) = 64(1) \text{ kJ/mol} \text{ and } \Delta G^{\neq}([Yb(L^{7b}-2H)_3]^{3-}) = 60(1) \text{ kJ/mol}$ point to a minor dependence of the racemisation process P- $[R(L^{7b}-2H)_3]^{3-} \Rightarrow M$ - $[R(L^{7b}-2H)_3]^{3-}$ on the size of R(III) as similarly observed by Peters (1988) for $[R(L^1-2H)_3]^{3-}$. The first-order rate constants for the ground-state helical racemisation process $(k_{\text{rac}}^{298 \text{ K}} = 50-200 \text{ s}^{-1})$ are in good agreement with those obtained in the excited state by polarized luminescence for $[R(L^7-2H)_3]^{3-}$ (R = Eu, Tb, Huskowska and Riehl (1995)). Finally, ¹H relaxation measurements (Alsaadi et al., 1980b) and time-resolved luminescence (An et al., 2000) for $[R(L^7-2H)_3]^{3-}$ demonstrate that no water molecule interacts



Fig. 30. Schematic formation of the D_3 -symmetrical complexes $[R(L^7-2H)_3]^{3-}$ in water with numbering scheme. The representation of $[R(L^7-2H)_3]^{3-}$ corresponds to the crystal structure of $[Cr(sarcophagine)][La(L^7-2H)](H_2O)_8$ (Harrowfield et al., 1995).

with *R*(III) in the first coordination sphere along the complete lanthanide series, thus leading to well-defined D_3 -symmetrical triple helices in solution. Original plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) and $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (49)) for ¹H and ¹³C NMR data of $[R(L^7-2H)_3]^{3-}$ (R = Pr, Eu, Tb–Yb) reported by Reilley et al. (1975, 1976) suggested linear behaviours compatible with isostructurality (i.e., invariance of G_i) and invariances of F_i and B_0^2 along the complete lanthanide series. Moreover, least-squares fits of the molecular structure based on G_i calculated for the crystal structures of (cation)₃[$R(L^7-2H)_3$] showed only minor variations between solid-state and solution structures. Similar conclusions have been proposed by Platas-Iglesias et al. (2001) for ¹H NMR data of [$R(L^{7c}-2H)_3$]³⁻ (R = Nd, Eu, Tb–Yb) except that the existence of a single isostructural series is further supported by linear correlations obtained with the crystal-field independent technique (eq. (51), fig. 31a), and minor variations of F_i between R = Dy and R = Ho are detected according the one-nucleus techniques (eqs. (48), (49), fig. 31b).

In both model-free analyses of $[R(L^7-2H)_3]^{3-}$ (Reilley et al., 1975) and $[R(L^{7c}-2H)_3]^{3-}$ (Platas-Iglesias et al., 2001), only two members of the first part of the lanthanide series are considered (R = Pr, Eu for Reilley et al. (1975) and R = Nd, Eu for Platas-Iglesias et al. (2001)), which strongly limits detection of breaks between light and heavy lanthanides according to eqs. (48), (49) and (51). Moreover, these reports contrast with the significant variations of the ratio of pseudo-contact contributions $\delta_{H2j}^{pc}/\delta_{H3j}^{pc}$ noticed by Alsaadi et al. (1980a) between light and heavy lanthanides in their original treatment of NMR data collected for $[R(L^7-2H)_n]^{(3-2n)+}$ (n = 1, 2, 3) at different stoichiometric ratios. A new complete set of ¹H and ¹³C NMR data for $[R(L^7-2H)_3]^{3-}$ (R = Ce-Yb, except Pm, Gd, 298 K, pD = 6.0, 300 MHz) has been collected by Ouali et al. (2002) and analyzed with eqs. (48), (49), (51). Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{para}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{para}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (51)) systematically display two different straight lines



Fig. 31. (a) Crystal-field independent plot of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (51)) for the H5–H6 pair and (b) plot of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ for H6 in $[R(L^{7c}-2H)_3]^{3-}$ ($R = \text{Nd}, \text{Eu}, \text{Tb-Yb}, D_2O, 298 \text{ K}, \text{redrawn from Platas-Iglesias}$ et al. (2001)).



Fig. 32. Crystal-field independent plot of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (51)) for the H2–C2 pair in [*R*(L⁷– 2H)₃]^{3–} (*R* = Ce–Yb, D₂O, 298 K, redrawn from Ouali et al. (2002)).

for R = Ce-Eu and R = Tb-Yb (fig. 32) in contrast with the original treatment of Reilley et al. (1975), but in line with the observation of Alsaadi et al. (1980a). Two different isostructural series are observed and the R_{ik} terms calculated from the crystal structures of $[R(L^7-2H)_3]^{3-}$ (R = La, Lu, Harrowfield et al. (1995)) compare well with those found in solution for R = Tb-Yb, but not for R = Ce-Eu (table 12). Extensive molecular modeling shows that the latter R_{ik} terms result from oscillations of the central pyridine rings displaying considerable amplitude for light R(III) ($|\alpha(\text{O}-\text{C4}-\text{C1}-\text{N})| \ge 46^\circ$, fig. 33). For R = Tb-Yb, the stronger $R-\text{N}_{\text{pyridine}}$ bonds limit oscillations and only minor displacements from the equilibrium position can be detected. Although related distortions are not observed in the crystal structures of $[R(L^7-2H)_3]^{3-}$ (R = La, Lu), large torsions of the pyridine rings are exemplified in the



Fig. 33. Oscillations of the pyridine rings in the complexes of $[R(L^7-2H)_3]^{3-}$ with large lanthanides (R = Ce-Eu, adapted from Ouali et al. (2002)).

Table 12 Minimal set of geometric ratio $R_{ik} = G_i/G_k$ obtained from plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ according to eq. (51) for $[R(L^7-2H)_3]^{3-}$ (D₂O, 298 K, pD = 6, Ouali et al. (2002)).^a See fig. 30 for the atom-numbering scheme

	H2–H3	H2C1	H2C2	H2-C3	H2C4
R_{ik} (Ce–Eu) ^b	0.98(4)	0.23(1)	0.28(3)	0.36(4)	1(1)
R_{ik} (Tb–Yb) ^c	1.15(1)	0.20(1)	0.60(2)	0.64(2)	1(5)
R_{ik} ([La(L ⁷ -2H) ₃] ³⁻) ^d	1.13	0.22	0.53	0.65	1.22
$R_{ik} ([Lu(L^7-2H)_3]^{3-})^d$	1.11	0.21	0.51	0.63	2.66

^aA complete set of R_{ik} data can be generated according to $R_{ik} = R_{im} \cdot R_{mk}$. Errors obtained according to multilinear least-squares fits are given between parentheses.

^bValues for the first isostructural series (Sm has been removed because of its faint paramagnetism).

^cValues for the second isostructural series.

^dCalculated for the crystal structures of $[Cr(sarcophagine)][R(L^7-2H)_3]$ after averaging to D₃-symmetry.

crystal structure of the analogous complex $[La(L^3)_3]^{3+}$ (26.8° $\leq |\alpha(O-C4-C1-N)| \leq 43.8^\circ$, Renaud et al. (1997)).

Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) and $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (49)) for ¹H and ¹³C NMR data of $[R(L^7-2H)_3]^{3-}$ (R = Ce-Yb, except Pm, Gd) show an abrupt break near the middle of the lanthanide series assigned to concomitant variations of the contact F_i and pseudo-contact $B_0^2 G_i$ terms (table 13, fig. 34, Ouali et al. (2002)). Since eq. (51) has established the existence of a structural change (oscillation of the pyri-

Since eq. (51) has established the existence of a structural change (oscillation of the pyridine rings) between R = Eu and R = Tb for $[R(L^7-2H)_3]^{3-}$, the origin of the concomitant changes of F_i and $B_0^2G_i$ does not require further justifications. However, the geometrical fac-

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Computed values for contact (F_i), pseudo-contact ($B_0^2G_i$) terms and agreement factors (AF_i) for 'H- and 'SC-nuclei									
in complexes [R($[L^7 - 2H)_3]^3$	^{3–} (D ₂ O, 298 I	K, $pD = 6$, Oua	li et al. (2002))). See fig. 30 fo	r the atom-num	bering scheme		
Compd		H2	H3	C1	C2	C3	C4		
R = Ce-Eu	F_i	-0.28(1)	-0.30(3)	-0.75(4)	-3.7(2)	0.98(9)	-0.6(1)		
	$B_{0}^{2}G_{i}$	-0.32(1)	-0.30(2)	-1.32(3)	-1.2(2)	-0.80(8)	-0.1(1)		
R = Tb-Yb	F_i	0.03(7)	0.02(6)	0.3(4)	-2.6(2)	1.2(1)	-1.2(2)		
	$B_{0}^{2}G_{i}$	-0.36(2)	-0.31(2)	-1.7(1)	-0.58(7)	-0.59(3)	-0.53(6)		
	AF_i^{a}	0.09	0.09	0.10	0.14	0.05	0.22		

Table 13

^a AF_i is calculated by using $\delta_{ii}^{\text{calc}}$ obtained for R = Ce-Eu and R = Tb-Yb.



Fig. 34. Plots of (a) $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) and (b) $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (49)) for C2 in $[R(L^7 - C_j + C_j)]$ $(2H)_3^{3-}$ (R = Ce-Yb, D₂O, 298 K, adapted from Ouali et al. (2002)).

tor G_i can be calculated from the molecular models and changes of the crystal-field parameter can be addressed. The use of G_{C3} as a reference taken from the two structural models allows the estimation of all remaining G_i factors from the experimental R_{ik} terms obtained for the two isostructural series (table 12). B_0^2 are computed from the pseudo-contact terms $B_0^2 G_i$ collected in table 13, thus leading to

$$\frac{B_0^2(R = \text{Ce-Eu})}{B_0^2(R = \text{Tb-Yb})} = 1.5(1).$$

The latter ratio parallels a similar trend observed for $[R(L^7-2H)_3]^{3-}$ doped in single hexagonal crystals of Na₃[Yb_{1-x} R_x (L⁷-2H)₃]·NaClO₄·10H₂O, and for which $B_0^2 = -272 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (R = Eu), $B_0^2 = -140 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (R = Tb) and $B_0^2 = -198 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (R = Dy) which correspond to an average ratio

$$\frac{B_0^2(R = \text{Eu})}{B_0^2(R = \text{Tb-Dy})} = 1.6(1)$$

(Hopkins et al., 1996). Finally, plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ vs $\delta_{lj}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ according to the three-nuclei method (eq. (53)) confirm the abrupt break occurring near the middle of the series (Ouali et al., 2002). The experimental slopes

$$\frac{(S_{ik} - R_{ik})}{(S_{lk} - R_{lk})}$$

and intercepts

$$\frac{(S_{lk}R_{ik} - S_{ik}R_{lk})}{(S_{lk} - R_{lk})}$$

depend on F_i and G_i parameters and they can be satisfactorily predicted from F_i terms obtained with eqs. (48), (49) and G_i terms resulting from the combination of structural modeling and eq. (51). Compared to the original report of Reilley et al. (1975) proposing the invariance of G_i , F_i and B_0^2 along the complete lanthanide series, the recent re-examination of the new complete set of NMR data by Ouali et al. (2002) reaches opposite conclusions and eventually establishes a concomitant change of G_i , F_i and B_0^2 between R = Eu and R = Tb. This discrepancy originates from (i) the too limited set of data collected by Reilley et al. (1975) for the light lanthanides and (ii) by fortuitous compensation effects produced by the concomitant variations of G_i and B_0^2 for H2, H3 and C3 which indeed provide invariant pseudo-contact terms $B_0^2G_i$ along the complete series for these NMR signals. A similar treatment applied to the analogous complexes $[R(L^3)_3]^{3+}$ indicates that related oscillations of the pyridine rings are responsible for the observed structural changes. Although only a rough molecular modeling has been proposed for $[R(L^3)_3]^{3+}$, a similar behaviour is evidenced with a concomitant change of G_i , F_i and B_0^2 between R = Tb and R = Er and an approximate ratio

$$\frac{B_0^2(R = \text{Ce-Tb})}{B_0^2(R = \text{Er-Yb})} = 3(1)$$

(Ouali et al., 2002).

3.1.8. $[R(L^8-3H)](L^8 = 1,4,7-triazacyclononane-N,N',N''-triacetic acid)$

The potentially hexadentate triaza macrocyclic ligand L^8 (its trianion form is also known as NOTA³⁻) forms thermodynamically quite stable $[R(L^8-3H)(H_2O)_q]$ complexes in aqueous solution, with log β_1 values increasing from 13.4 for R = La to 15.9 for R = Lu (Cacheris et al., 1987). Although none of the complexes of the series has so far been isolated and characterized in the solid state by X-ray crystallography, the ligand structure makes these chelates good candidates for C_3 symmetry. A study of the lanthanide(III) induced ¹⁷O shifts of water solutions of these complexes has shown that their hydration number q changes across the lanthanide series, from q = 3-4 in the first half (R = Ce-Eu) to q = 3 in the second half of the series (R = Dy-Yb) (Bryden et al., 1981). This is consistent with the fluorescence data available for the Eu³⁺ complex in aqueous solution, where two different species are observed in equilibrium (Bryden et al., 1981).

The ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectra of the whole series of $[R(L^8-3H)(H_2O)_q]$ complexes have been also analyzed in terms of their structure and dynamics in solution (Geraldes et al., 1985;



Fig. 35. Schematic representation of L^8 (NOTA) coordinated to a lanthanide ion (one of the acetate arms is not shown for clarity) with a geometry in accordance with the best fit of the LIR and LIS data, illustrating the dipolar angle effect (+ and – indicate the sign of the geometric factor G_i) (Sherry et al., 1986).

Sherry et al., 1986). In particular, the ¹H and ¹³C LIS values have been reported for all the paramagnetic ions except Ce, Pm and Gd in D₂O (10^{-1} mol \cdot dm⁻³, pH = 6.0 and 343 K, Sherry et al. (1986)). The symmetry of the spectra obtained shows that the chelates indeed have C_3 symmetry in solution, and the absolute values and signs of the LIS values are clear indication that *R*(III), although bound to the three N-atoms and to the carboxylate oxygens, does not fit inside the macrocyclic cavity but is located well above (2.2 Å) the plane of the three nitrogens (fig. 35). All ethylenediamine groups in the 9-membered macrocyclic ring adopt an identical gauche conformation, either δ or λ , leading to one of two possible square [333] conformations. The fast interconversions between the two gauche conformations of the ethylene bridges, corresponding to a high conformational flexibility of the macrocycle, explain their AA'XX' proton spectrum at all temperatures. Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{para}/(S_z)_j$ vs $C_j/(S_z)_j$ (eq. (48)) and δ_{ij}^{para}/C_j vs $(S_z)_j/C_j$ (eq. (49)) for ¹H and

Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) and $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (49)) for ¹H and ¹³C NMR data of $[R(L^8-3H)(H_2O)_q]$ (R = Pr-Yb, except Pm, Gd) show an abrupt break near the middle of the lanthanide series reflecting variations of the F_i and $B_0^2G_i$ parameters (table 14, fig. 36, Sherry et al. (1986)). On the basis of these results, as well as of the ¹⁷O NMR and luminescence data, the original work assumed that B_0^2 did not change and that two groups of solution structures were present, with a change of ligand coordination number or hydration number at Tb. The simultaneous least-squares fits of lanthanide induced relaxation (LIR, T_1) according to eq. (18) and lanthanide induced shifts (LIS) according to eq. (47) with a chemical model for the $[R(L^8-3H)(H_2O)_q]$ chelates based on the modified crystal structure of the Cr^{3+} complex gave different best fit structures. While for the later ions (R = Dy-Yb) the ligand is hexa-coordinated with three inner-sphere water molecules (fig. 35), it is concluded that the earlier chelates (R = Pr-Eu) adopt a structural mixture of hexa- and penta-coordinate (with one free acetate arm) ligands with three and four inner-sphere water molecules, respectively.

The application of the two-nuclei crystal-field independent technique and the three-nuclei method provide convincing evidence for the proposed structural subdivision of the $[R(L^8- 3H)(H_2O)_q]$ complexes (Geraldes et al., 2003). All the plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$

Table 14

Computed values for contact (F_i) , pseudo-contact $(B_0^2 G_i)$ terms and R^2 values, according to eq. (48), comparison of R_{ik} and $(F_i - R_{ik} F_k)$ parameters calculated directly according to eq. (51), and α and β parameters calculated directly according to eq. (53), with those obtained from the above F_i and $B_0^2 G_i$ terms, for ¹H- and ¹³C-nuclei in complexes $[R(L^8-3H)(H_2O)_q]$ (R = Pr-Yb, D_2O , pD = 6.0, 343 K, Sherry et al. (1986)). See fig. 35 for the atom-numbering scheme

Compd		Ha	H _N ,		H _N "	CO	Ca	CN
$R = Pr - Tb^a$	F_i	0.37	0.36		0.38	-3.19	-2.37	-4.15
	$B_0^2 G_i$	-0.12	-0.23	_	1.18	3.37	0.30	-2.32
	R^2	0.914	0.704	4	0.552	0.999	0.881	0.985
Compd		Ha	H _N ,		H _N "	CO	Ca	CN
$R = Dy - Yb^b$	F_i	0.75	0.15		0.97	-4.15	-3.00	-0.58
-	$B_0^2 G_i$	0.04	-0.08		0.43	2.06	0.33	-0.27
	R^2	0.799	0.73	0	0.905	0.914	0.704	0.552
Compd			C _N -C _O	Ca-CO	Ca-CN	H _{N'} -Ha	$H_{N'}-H_{N''}$	H _N "–Ha
$R = Pr - Tb^a$	$R_{ik}(\exp)$		-0.69	0.11	-0.16	1.02	0.15	7.35
	$(F_i - F_k R)$	(exp)	-6.35	-2.18	-3.18	-0.13	0.25	-2.62
	R^2		0.976	0.917	0.958	0.956	0.991	0.970
	$R_{ik}(calc)$		-0.69	0.09	-0.13	1.92	0.20	9.83
	$(F_i - F_k R)$	(calc)	-6.32	-2.09	-2.91	-0.35	0.28	-3.26
Compd			C _N -C _O	Ca-CO	Ca-CN	H _{N'} -Ha	$H_{N'}-H_{N''}$	H _N "–Ha
$R = Dy - Yb^b$	$R_{ik}(\exp)$		-0.17	0.18	-1.05	-0.22	0.05	-3.71
	$(F_i - F_k R)$	(exp)	-0.90	-2.42	-3.36	0.36	-0.11	3.87
	R^2		0.901	0.937	0.958	0.908	0.953	0.962
	$R_{ik}(calc)$		-0.13	0.16	-1.22	-2.00	0.19	-10.75
	$(F_i - F_k R)$	R_{ik})(calc)	-1.12	-2.34	-3.71	1.65	-0.14	8.99
Compd			$i = C_N$; $k = C_a$; l	$=C_0$		$i = H_{N^{\prime\prime}}; k = 1$	$H_a; l = H_{N"}$
$R = Pr - Tb^a$	$\alpha(\exp)$			-0.97			16.7	6
	$\beta(\exp)$			2.96			-10.4	3
	R^2			0.981			0.8	395
	α (calc)			-1.38			9.3	3
	β (calc)			2.99			8.7	2
Compd			$i = C_N$; $k = C_a$; l	$=C_0$		$i = H_{N^{\prime\prime}}; k = 1$	$H_a; l = H_{N"}$
$R = Dy - Yb^b$	$\alpha(\exp)$			-0.24			16.0)5
	$\beta(\exp)$			0.31			-1.5	8
	R^2			0.960			0.9	61
	α (calc)			-0.21			5.6	5
	β (calc)			0.40			-6.3	9

^aValues for the first isostructural series (except Ce and Sm).

^bValues for the second isostructural series.

(eq. (51)), which eliminate the effect of any changes of B_0^2 , either involving the three types of carbon nuclei or the three types of protons, systematically display two different straight lines for R = Pr-Tb and R = Dy-Yb (fig. 37a), confirming that the F_i and G_i parameters change abruptly at Tb. There is generally a good agreement of experimental and calculated R_{ik} and



vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ and (b) $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j / C_j$ for C_N in $[R(L^8-3H)$ $(H_2O)_q$] (R = Pr-Tb, Dy-Yb, D₂O, 343 K, redrawn from Sherry et al.

 $(F_i - F_k R_{ik})$ parameters (table 14). Since in the present system G_i values change, B_0^2 ratios,

$$\frac{B_0^2(R = \text{Ce-Tb})}{B_0^2(R = \text{Dy-Yb})},$$

could not be obtained. Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ vs $\delta_{lj}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ (eq. (53)) (see fig. 37b) confirm the abrupt break near the middle of the series. The experimental slope

$$\alpha = \frac{(S_{ik} - R_{ik})}{(S_{lk} - R_{lk})}$$



Fig. 37. (a) Crystal-field independent plot of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ for the C_N-C_O pair; (b) plot of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ vs $\delta_{lj}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ according to the three-nuclei method for the triad C_N, C_O and C_a in [*R*(L⁸-3H)(H₂O)_{*q*}], *R* = Ce–Yb, D₂O, 298 K (redrawn from Geraldes et al. (2003)).

and intercept

$$\beta = \frac{(S_{lk}R_{ik} - S_{ik}R_{lk})}{(S_{lk} - R_{lk})}$$

parameters are in satisfactory agreement with those calculated from predicted from F_i and G_i terms obtained form the other methods (table 14).

The results described here firmly support the literature conclusion of a structural change between the light and heavy $[R(L^8-3H)(H_2O)_q]$ complexes. In this case, the breaks in the plots likely reflect a change in the geometric terms, G_i and F_i , as they are independent of any concomitant changes of the crystal field parameter.

3.2. *Complexes with fourfold symmetry*

3.2.1. $[R(L^9-H)_4]^ (L^9 = dithiomethylphosphinic acid and dithiophosphorus acid and dithiophosphorus acid derivatives)$

A large number of lanthanide complexes of the type $[R(L^9-H)_4]^-$ have been isolated and characterized in the solid state by X-ray crystallography, where the ligand $[L^9-H]^-$, with two sulphur donor atoms and general formula $R_2PS_2^-$, is a dithiophosphinate (e.g., R = Me) or a dithiophosphonate (R = OMe, OEt, OPrⁱ) (Pinkerton and Schwarzenbach, 1981; Spiliadis et al., 1982, 1983). The crystal structures show that the lanthanide is coordinated to eight sulphur atoms with coordination geometries ranging between the regular D_{2d} dodecahedron, favored by alkoxy substituents at phosphorus, and a dodecahedron distorted towards the D_2 square antiprism, favored by alkyl substituents. However for each ligand no structural change was observed along the lanthanide series in the solid state.

³¹P and ¹H LIS data have been reported for these $[R(S_2PR_2)_4]^-$ complexes in CD₂Cl₂ solution (R = Ce-Yb, except Pm and Gd). Measurements were carried out at 299 K for all complexes ($R = \text{OEt} (S_2P(\text{OEt})_2^- = \text{O},\text{O'-diethyl}$ dithiophosphate) (Pinkerton and Earl, 1978); $R = \text{CH}_3$, Spiliadis and Pinkerton (1982); R = OMe, OPr^i , Spiliadis and Pinkerton (1983)) and also at 233 K for R = OEt (Pinkerton and Earl, 1978). The observed NMR data fit an effectively axial symmetric coordination model in which the lanthanide ion is chelated by four $S_2PR_2^{2-}$ molecules in a bidentate fashion (through the two sulfur atoms). These data were analysed using a simplified version of eq. (51) by plotting $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$, where *i* is the ³¹P nucleus and *k* are the CH₂ and CH₃ protons and assuming no contact contribution to the LIS values of these protons. In this case $F_k = 0$ and eq. (51) reduces to eq. (60) and the plots gave directly as intercepts the values of the hyperfine coupling constant to the ³¹P nucleus, F_P , and as slopes the geometric ratios $R_{Pk} = \frac{G_P}{G_k}$.

$$\frac{\delta_{P_j}^{\text{para}}}{\langle S_z \rangle_j} = F_{\text{P}} + \frac{G_P}{G_k} \cdot \frac{\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}}{\langle S_z \rangle_j}.$$
(60)

Breaks were observed in such plots for all the compounds studied, between Tb and Dy for the R = Me compound, and between Dy and Ho for the alkoxy derivatives. These breaks were assigned to structural (R_{Pk} values) and ³¹P coupling constant (F_P) changes along the lanthanide series, although no difference in the solid state structures of the complexes along the series has been detected (Pinkerton and Earl, 1978; Spiliadis and Pinkerton, 1982, 1983). Large decreases of coupling constants were observed, e.g., from 1.52 MHz to 0.86 MHz for the R = OEt derivative, while for R = Me the values were smaller but still decreasing along the series (1.09 MHz to 0.51 MHz). The R_{Pk} values also decreased very much along the lanthanide series due to a substantial decrease of the dipolar shift of the ³¹P nucleus, consistent with a change in solution of the coordination polyhedron from a dodecahedral to a square antiprismatic structure.

Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) and $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (49)) for the LIS data of the $[R(S_2P(\text{OEt})_2)_4]^-$ complexes at 299 K and 233 K show breaks at Tb, reflecting variations of the F_i and $B_0^2G_i$ terms (table 15, fig. 38, Geraldes et al. (2003)). It can be seen

Table 15

Computed values for contact (F_i) , pseudo-contact $(B_0^2G_i)$ terms and R^2 values, according to eq. (48), comparison of R_{ik} and $(F_i - R_{ik}F_k)$ parameters calculated directly according to eq. (51), and α and β parameters calculated directly according to eq. (53), with those obtained from the above F_i and $B_0^2G_i$ terms, for ¹H- and ³¹P-nuclei in complexes $[R(L^9-H)_4]^ (R = Ce-Yb, [L^9-H]^- = S_2P(OEt)_2^-, CD_2Cl_2$, Pinkerton and Earl (1978))

			T = 253 K			T = 296 K	
Compd		CH ₂	CH ₃	Р	CH ₂	CH ₃	Р
$R = Ce - Eu^a$	F_i	0.35	0.12	56.43	0.18	0.07	49.38
	$B_0^2 G_i$	0.37	0.13	22.65	0.21	0.07	14.83
	R^2	0.928	0.920	0.923	0.950	0.931	0.962
Compd		CH ₂	CH ₃	Р	CH ₂	CH ₃	Р
$R = Tb - Yb^b$	F_i	-0.35	-0.13	49.90	-0.23	-0.09	38.90
	$B_0^2 G_i$	0.56	0.20	-0.10	0.28	0.10	-0.48
	R^2	0.988	0.986	0.994	0.967	0.947	0.994
Compd			CH ₃ -CH ₂	P-CH3	CH	I ₃ -CH ₂	P-CH3
$R = Ce - Eu^a$	$R_{ik}(\exp)$		0.36	с		0.37	86.03
	$(F_i - F_k R)$	(ik)(exp)	-0.01	с	_	0.01	56.31
	R^2		0.999	с		0.998	0.826
	$R_{ik}(calc)$		0.34	с	0.35		200.4
	$(F_i - F_k R)$	(calc)	0.00	с		0.00	36.16
$R = Tb - Yb^b$	$R_{ik}(\exp)$		0.37	с		0.37	-3.31
	$(F_i - F_k R_{ik})(\exp)$		-0.01	с	-	0.01	39.81
	R^2		0.998	с	0.998		0.276
	$R_{ik}(calc)$		0.35	с		0.37	-1.07
	$(F_i - F_k R)$	(alc)	0.00 c		-0.01		38.74
Compd			$i = CH_3; k = I$	$P; l = CH_2$		$i = CH_3; k = I$	$P; l = CH_2$
$R = Ce - Eu^a$	$\alpha(\exp)$		0.36			0.36	5
	$\beta(\exp)$		0.00			0.00)
	R^2		0.999			0.99	19
	α (calc)		0.34			0.35	i
	β (calc)		0.09			0.00)
$R = Tb - Yb^b$	$\alpha(\exp)$		0.36			0.36	5
	$\beta(\exp)$		0.00			0.00)
	R^2		0.999			0.99	9
	α (calc)		0.37			0.37	
	β (calc)		0.00			0.00	

^a Values for the first isostructural series (except Sm).

^bValues for the second isostructural series.

^cNot determined.

that proton F_k values are very small and F_P values, as well as R_{Pk} values indeed decrease drastically at Tb, in particular, the large F_P couplings by about 50% in the second part of the R series.

The plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (51)) for $i = \text{CH}_3$ and $k = \text{CH}_2$ give a single straight line identical at both temperatures indicating that the structural change is not reflected



Fig. 38. Plot of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ for CH₃ and CH₂ protons in $[R(L^9-H)_4]^-, [L^9-H]^- = S_2P(\text{OEt})_2^-$ ($R = \text{Ce-Yb}, \text{CD}_2\text{Cl}_2, 253 \text{ K}, \text{ adapted from Pinkerton and Earl (1978), Geraldes et al. (2003)).$

in the proton G_i and F_i parameters, e.g., G_{CH_3}/G_{CH_2} is constant (fig. 39a). However, plots with i = P and $k = CH_2$ or CH_3 , identical to those discussed above using eq. (60) (fig. 39b), gave breaks at Tb, confirming that the F_i and G_i parameters change abruptly at Tb. There is generally a good agreement of experimental and calculated R_{ik} and $(F_i - F_k R_{ik})$ parameters (table 15). In the fitting of the early R plots, Eu and Sm are excluded due to the contribution of excited states to the $\langle S_z \rangle$ and C_j parameters. Since in the present system G_i values change, the B_0^2 ratios

$$\frac{B_0^2(R = \text{Ce-Tb})}{B_0^2(R = \text{Dy-Yb})}$$

could not be obtained.

Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ vs $\delta_{lj}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ (eq. (53)) with $i = \text{CH}_3$, $l = \text{CH}_2$ and k = P give a single straight line along the lanthanide series (fig. 39c), with experimental slopes and intercepts identical at both temperatures ($\alpha = 0.366$; $\beta = 0$) (table 15). This is not surprising given that the temperature-dependent parameters, B_0^2 , $\langle S_z \rangle_j$ and C_j , are all absent from eq. (53). The experimental

$$\alpha = \frac{(S_{\text{CH}_3\text{P}} - R_{\text{CH}_3\text{P}})}{(S_{\text{CH}_2\text{P}} - R_{\text{CH}_2\text{P}})}$$

and

$$\beta = \frac{(S_{\text{CH}_2\text{P}}R_{\text{CH}_3\text{P}} - S_{\text{CH}_3\text{P}}R_{\text{CH}_2\text{P}})}{(S_{\text{CH}_2\text{P}} - R_{\text{CH}_2\text{P}})}$$

parameters are in satisfactory agreement with those calculated from F_i and G_i values obtained by the other methods (table 15). However, plots according to eq. (53) with other combinations, such as for i = P, $l = CH_3$ and $k = CH_2$, give breaks, and thus confirm the structural and coupling constants change. The reason why the first plot is not sensitive to the structural



Fig. 39. Crystal-field independent plot of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (a) for the CH₃–CH₂ pair; (b) for the P–CH₂ pair; (c) Plot of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ vs $\delta_{lj}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ for the CH₃, CH₂, P triad at 253 K (Δ) and 296 K (\blacklozenge). Data for [*R*(L⁹–H)₄]⁻, [L⁹–H]⁻ = S₂P(OEt)₂⁻ (*R* = Ce–Yb, CD₂Cl₂, 296 K, adapted from Pinkerton and Earl (1978), Geraldes et al. (2003)).

change is that $\beta = 0$ which implies that

$$\frac{F_{\rm CH_2}}{F_{\rm CH_3}} = \frac{G_{\rm CH_2}}{G_{\rm CH_3}}$$

and these ratios do not change along the series. This example illustrates that both the two nuclei and three nuclei methods may accidentally not reflect structural and/or F_i changes for


some of the combinations of nuclei used in the plots. Thus, it is important to analyse all the possible combinations.

3.2.2. $[R(L^{10}-4H)]^ (L^{10} = 1,4,7,10$ -tetraazacyclododecane-N,N',N",N"'-tetraacetic acid)

The eight donor atoms of the macrocyclic ligand L¹⁰ (usually know as DOTA) may produce square antiprismatic eight-coordinated structures, with the four ring nitrogens defining one of the square faces in the coordination polyhedron and the four coordinated pendant arm oxygens defining the other one (fig. 40). The twist angle α between the planes formed by the four oxygens and the four nitrogens can be positive or negative, leading to two possible isomers, the square antiprismatic (SAP) (designated M') and the inverted SAP (m'). In these two isomers, the macrocyclic rings have the same conformation and the difference between them is in the layout of the pendant arms. In these structures two structurally independent elements of chirality are present defined by the pendant arm $C_4-C_3-N-C_1$ and ring $N-C_1-C_2-N$ torsion angles (fig. 41). The 12-membered macrocyclic ring may adopt two enantiomeric square [3333] conformations, given as $\delta\delta\delta\delta$ and $\lambda\lambda\lambda\lambda$ (with respect to each five-membered ring chelate), and the pendant arms may be arranged in either a clockwise (Δ) or counterclockwise (Λ) manner, leading to four possible stereoisomers. These constitute two diastereoisomers each with enantiomeric pairs which are not distinguishable by NMR spectroscopy in solution: M' with enantiomers $\Lambda(\delta\delta\delta\delta)$ and $\Delta(\lambda\lambda\lambda\lambda)$, and m' with enantiomers $\Delta(\delta\delta\delta\delta)$ and $\Lambda(\lambda\lambda\lambda\lambda)$ (fig. 42).

X-ray crystal structures have been determined for a series of $[R(L^{10}-4H)]^-$ chelates, defining nine-coordinate capped square antiprismatic (CSAP) or inverted capped square antiprismatic structures. The acetate arms of the L¹⁰ or DOTA ligand are arranged in a propeller-like fashion above the basal plane made up of the four N donor atoms, which encompass the









Fig. 40. Schematic representation of the M and m isomers, as well as of the M' and m' isomers, for tetraazamacrocyclic complexes of R(III) (adapted from Geraldes et al. (2003)).



Fig. 41. Model of a part of the structure of complexes $[R(L^{10}-4H)]^-$ in the $\Delta(\lambda\lambda\lambda\lambda)$ enantiomeric form of the M isomer. Symmetry-related atoms are not shown for clarity. The numbering scheme for hydrogen and carbon/phosphorous atoms is also shown. H5 denotes the pro-R and H6 the pro-S pendant arm methylene proton (adapted from Ren et al. (2002)).

R(III) ion, defining another plane above it, and thereby generating a C_4 symmetry axis in these complexes. The X-ray structures of the $[R(L^{10}-4H)]^-$ complexes with R = Eu, Gd, Y and Lu are CSAP, with twist angles α of *ca* 39° (Spirlet et al., 1984; Dubost et al., 1991; Chang et al., 1993; Parker et al., 1994; Aime et al., 1996; Benetollo et al., 1999), whereas the La complex adopts an inverted CSAP structure in which $\alpha = -22^{\circ}$ (Aime et al., 1997a). The



Fig. 42. Schematic representation of the structures and dynamics of $[R(L^{10}-4H)]^-$ complexes, looking down along the *R*-water O bond. The water molecule is omitted for clarity (adapted from Frullano et al. (2002)).

numbering scheme for the hydrogen and carbon atoms is shown in fig. 41, which schematically represents part of the structure of the complexes in the $\Delta(\lambda\lambda\lambda\lambda)$ enantiomeric form of the M isomer, where H5 denotes the pro-R and H6 the pro-S pendant arm methylene protons. This notation is in agreement with solution NMR work for the L¹⁰ (DOTA) complexes (Aime et al., 1992b; Marques et al., 1995).

The ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectra of the $[R(L^{10}-4H)]^-$ (R = La-Lu, except Pm and Gd) complexes in D₂O at pH = 7 at different temperatures have been published and the LIS values for both ¹H and ¹³C nuclei were reported (Desreux, 1980; Aime et al., 1992a, 1992b, 1997b; Hoeft and Roth, 1993; Marques et al., 1995). The ¹H and ¹³C NMR spectra exhibit two sets of resonances corresponding to the presence of two slowly interconverting coordination isomers, one set of resonances having constantly larger frequency shifts than the other group. The isomer displaying larger shifts corresponds to a nine-coordinate CSAP structure M, while the isomer displaying smaller shifts is either a nine-coordinate inverted CSAP m (from La to Ho), or an eight-coordinate inverted SAP m' structure (Er to Lu) (Aime et al., 1992a, 1992b, 1997b). In addition to the frequency difference, the two isomers also differ in population. The relative intensities observed for the two sets of NMR resonances showed that while the m isomer dominates for the larger cations, La–Nd, the M isomer becomes the most stable for the smaller cations Sm–Ho, with a gradual increase of the M/m ratio from



small, neg. tilt anglesmall, neg. tilt angleCN = 9, q = 1CN = 8, q = 0

Fig. 43. Conformational and coordination equilibria for the $[R(L^{10}-4H)]^-$ complexes in aqueous solution (adapted from Aime et al. (1997a)).

La to Ho. In all these cases, the isomerization process is purely conformational, as shown by the near zero reaction volumes obtained by high-pressure NMR (Aime et al., 1997b). Then, a steady decrease of the M population occurs from Er to Lu. The large positive isomerization volumes obtained show that the minor isomer results now from a fast water dissociation process superimposed on the conformational rearrangement leading to an eight-coordinate square antiprismatic (SAP) geometry, m' and a decrease of the M/m' ratio (fig. 43) (Aime et al., 1997b). Besides the size of the R(III) ion, the relative concentrations of the two species, also depend on temperature, pressure and on the concentration of added inorganic salts. High concentrations of non-coordinating salts stabilize the m form relative to M.

The solution structure of the CSAP isomer M is consistent with the X-ray crystal structures of the Eu, Gd, Y, Ho and Lu complexes of L¹⁰, while the structure of the inverted CSAP isomer is consistent with the X-ray structures of its La complex. This similarity between the solid state and the solution structures of the isomers was initially shown by the excellent agreement between the Yb induced ¹H shifts (of the M isomer), which are assumed to be almost purely of pseudocontact origin (eq. (29)), and shifts calculated from the X-ray structure of the Eu complex, applying the axial model, since that structure has a C_4 symmetry axis (Desreux, 1980). Later, this approach was extended to the shifts of the m' isomer of the Yb complex, supported by the comparison of the experimental distances between the R(III) ion and the ligand protons in the M and m' isomers of the Tb-Yb complexes, evaluated through the Curie relaxation contribution (eqs. (15)–(17)), and calculated from structural models (Aime et al., 1992a, 1992b). It was concluded that the structure of the macrocyclic rings is the same in both isomers, and that the difference between the two is in the layout of the acetate arms. This difference in the arrangement of the acetates leads to a twisted capped square antiprismatic structure (twisted or inverted CSAP) which contains a layout of the acetate arms that is inverted with respect to that in the main isomer, corresponding to a negative and smaller twist angle between the N₄ and O₄ planes. The use of variable temperature ¹³C NMR on the Nd³⁺-complex and ¹H EXSY on the Yb-complex (Aime et al., 1992b), and for the Eu and Yb complexes (Hoeft and Roth, 1993), demonstrated the exchange processes occurring between the isomers in solution. The dynamics of this system is summarized in fig. 42. The four stereoisomers (two pairs of enantiomers) can interconvert in solution by either ring inversion $((\delta\delta\delta\delta) \Leftrightarrow (\lambda\lambda\lambda\lambda))$ or acetate arm rotation ($\Delta \Leftrightarrow \Lambda$). Either process alone results in exchange between the CSAP and twisted CSAP geometries and both processes combined, either in succession or concerted, result in an exchange between enantiomeric pairs (see fig. 42). A thorough quantitative analysis of variable temperature ¹H EXSY and variable temperature ¹³C NMR studies were performed on [Yb(L¹⁰)]⁻ by completely solving the dynamic matrix (Jacques and Desreux, 1994). It was shown that each species in the dynamic equilibrium is exchanging with all other species and that, for this system, arm rotation is faster than ring inversion, reflecting the high rigidity of the *R*(III) complexes of DOTA.

The ¹H and ¹³C LIS data available for the M and m isomers of the $[R(L^{10}-4H)]^-$ complexes were analyzed by plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) and $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (49)) (Ren et al., 2002). Because Sm, as usual, was excluded from these plots, and, due to population limitations, ¹H and ¹³C LIS values of the M isomer were only available for R =Nd–Eu in the first half of the lanthanide series, and ¹³C LIS values for m in the second half of the series were only available for Yb (m'), in these cases not enough R(III) data were available for a definite conclusion. However, with the available data, breaks between light and heavy lanthanide ions were observed in most of these plots (see fig. 44 for some examples), as reported before (Marques et al., 1995), reflecting variations of the contact F_i and pseudocontact $B_0^2 G_i$ parameters. Systematic deviations were also observed for Tm and Yb from the linear correlations defined by the other R(III) ions within the second half of the series. The linear correlation coefficient R^2 and the values of F_i and $B_0^2 G_i$ were evaluated for each proton and ¹³C nucleus using those equations by subdivision of the lanthanides into two subgroups (Ce-Eu and Tb-Yb) and without such a subdivision (Ce-Yb) (table 16). All the protons and ¹³C nuclei of the m isomer show poor linear correlations for the (Ce–Yb) data ($R^2 < 0.83$), which, due to the breaks, improve significantly when the data is divided in two groups, although the deviations at Tm and Yb give relatively low R^2 values except for H1, H5 and H6 of the m isomer, where the improvement is much better ($R^2 \sim 0.94-0.97$ for (Tb–Yb)). The M isomer shows less significant breaks, as $0.98 > R^2 > 0.92$ for (Ce–Yb) does not improve much in the (Tb-Yb) data.

The same sets of LIS data were also plotted according to eq. (51), as $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$, which eliminate the effect of any changes of B_0^2 (fig. 45). These plots again often do not follow a single linear correlation, but show breaks between light and heavy lanthanide ions, although much less significant than for the previous plots. The R_{ik} and $(F_i - R_{ik}F_k)$ parameters were evaluated using that equation by subdivision of the lanthanides into two subgroups (Ce–Eu and Tb–Yb) and without such a subdivision. Their values (and R^2 values) are shown in table 17. Without subdivision, the (Ce–Yb) data gave poor R^2 values for H2, H3, C2 and C4, good R^2 values for H4 and C3, and very good R^2 values (> 0.99) for H5 and H6. For all the complexes studied, R^2 values for all nuclei improved upon separation of the data in two groups (e.g., (Tb–Yb) data gave $R^2 > 0.985$ in all cases), but the breaks are only statistically significant for H4, H3, H2, C4 and C2. The R_{ik} and $(F_i - R_{ik}F_k)$ parameters evaluated directly with eq. (51) (table 17) and indirectly using the F_i and $B_0^2G_i$ values from eq. (48) (table 16) were compared. The agreement is extremely good for all the R_{ik} ratios and only reasonably good for $(F_i - R_{ik}F_k)$, due to larger errors in the calculated F_i values.



Fig. 44. Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ for H4 (\bigstar) and H6 (\blacktriangle) of (a) M isomer (R = Nd-Yb); (b) m/m' isomer (R = Ce-Yb) of $[R(\text{L}^{10}\text{-}4\text{H})]^-$ (D₂O, pH = 7, adapted from Geraldes et al. (2003)).

The breaks observed in these plots indicate that the F_i and R_{ik} parameters change at the middle of the series, together with changes of B_0^2 . The breaks of the plots according to eq. (51) are smaller relative to the plots according to eq. (48) because of the absence of B_0^2 in the later plots, as well as the presence of geometric ratios R_{ik} , which may be significantly less affected by smaller structural effects on G_i values due to the lanthanide contraction (Ren et al., 2002).

Various plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ vs $\delta_{lj}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ (eq. (53)) were made for the ¹³C shifts of the M isomer. With i = C3 or C4, l = C1 and k = C2, single straight lines are obtained along the R (R = Pr, Nd, Sm Eu, Tb, Dy, Ho, Er, Yb) series. For example, for i = C4, a good linear correlation with $R^2 = 0.999$ is obtained (fig. 45b) with $\alpha = -2.408$ and $\beta = 2.799$ values (table 18). Other plots of this type give a single line along the R series, such as for i = C2, l = C1 and k = C3, but other combinations give more or less pronounced breaks, such as for

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Table	16
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Computed values for contact (F_i) , pseudo-contact $(B_0^2G_i)$ terms and R^2 values, according to eq. (48), for ¹H- and ¹³C-nuclei in complexes $[R(L^{10}-4H)]^-$, for the M isomer (R = Nd-Yb) and m/m' isomer (R = Ce-Yb) (D₂O, pH = 7, Ren et al. (2002)). See fig. 41 for the atom-numbering scheme

Compd		H1	H2	Н3	H4	H5	H6
M isomer	F_i	-0.48	-0.49	-1.41	0.95	-0.78	-2.15
$R = Nd-Eu^{a}$	$B_0^2 G_i$	-1.48	0.40	1.48	5.27	-3.05	1.37
	R^2	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000	1.000
Compd		H1	H2	H3	H4	H5	H6
M isomer	F_i	-2.14	-0.63	-0.25	3.77	-3.37	-2.53
$R = Tb-Yb^b$	$B_0^2 G_i$	-2.64	1.01	1.20	6.88	-4.75	-2.13
	R^2	0.934	0.983	0.984	0.969	0.943	0.938
Compd		H1	H2	H3	H4	H5	H6
m isomer	F_i	-0.52	-0.59	-1.09	0.53	-0.41	-1.18
$R = Ce - Eu^a$	$B_0^2 G_i$	-0.68	-0.12	0.39	2.19	-0.51	-0.98
	R^2	0.947	0.115	0.832	0.989	0.968	0.923
Compd		H1	H2	H3	H4	H5	H6
m isomer	F_i	-2.04	-0.47	-0.08	4.50	-1.95	-2.75
$R = Tb-Yb^b$	$B_0^2 G_i$	-1.77	0.64	0.76	4.45	-1.50	-3.10
	R^2	0.963	0.548	0.871	0.919	0.971	0.943
Compd			C1	C2	(23	C4
M isomer	F_i	-0	.10	2.54	5.	.51	3.56
$R = Nd-Eu^{a}$	$B_0^2 G_i$	8	.51	1.59	-8.	.39	-2.94
	R^2	1	.000	1.000	1.	.000	1.000
Compd			C1	C2	(23	C4
M isomer	F_i	3	.63	3.27	2.	.53	-1.54
$R = Tb-Yb^b$	$B_0^2 G_i$	4	.09	1.11	-4.	.68	-6.70
	R^2	0	.979	0.959	0.	.940	0.985
Compd			C1	C2	(23	C4
m isomer	F_i	4	.64	3.33	1.	.87	2.41
R = Ce-Eu	$B_{0}^{2}G_{i}$	4	.93	2.59	0.	.23	0.42
	R^2	0	.985	0.984	0.	.050	0.166

^aValues for the first isostructural series (except Sm).

^bValues for the second isostructural series.

i = C4, l = C1 and k = C3, and for i = C2 or C3, l = C1 and k = C4 (see table 17 for the experimental α and β values, Geraldes et al. (2003)). This is in agreement with the detected changes of F_i and G_i parameters at the middle of the *R* series and again illustrates the fact that in this case still some of the plots according to eq. (53) may be accidentally linear. In the case of the ¹³C shifts of the m isomer, the data available only for Pr, Nd and Eu gives linear plots within the first half of the *R* series (see table 18).

plots within the first half of the *R* series (see table 18). Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ vs $\delta_{lj}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ (eq. (53)) obtained for the ¹H LIS data of the M and m isomers, e.g., for i = H3, H5 and H6, l = H1 and k = H4 support these conclusions (see fig. 45c for the m isomer). All these plots show two linear parts with breaks in the middle of the series and table 18 compares the α and β values calculated for the two isomers.

Table 17

Comparison of R_{ik} and $(F_i - R_{ik}F_k)$ parameters calculated directly according to eq. (51), with those obtained from the F_i and $B_0^2G_i$ values obtained from eq. (48) (table 16) for the ¹H- and ¹³C-nuclei in complexes $[R(L^{10}-4H)]^-$, for the M isomer (R = Nd-Yb) and m/m' isomer (R = Ce-Yb) (D₂O, pH = 7, Ren et al. (2002)). See fig. 41 for the atom-numbering scheme

Compd		H2-H1	H3-H1	H4–H1	H5-H1	H6H1	C2C1	C3C1	C4C1
M isomer	$R_{ik}(\exp)$	-0.27	-1.00	-3.56	2.06	-0.93	0.19	-0.99	-0.35
$R = Pr - Eu^a$	$(F_i - F_k R_{ik})(\exp)$	-0.62	-1.89	-0.78	0.22	-2.60	2.56	5.42	3.52
	R^2	0.960	0.973	0.989	0.999	0.997	1.000	1.000	1.000
	$R_{ik}(calc)$	-0.27	-1.00	-3.56	2.06	-0.93	0.19	-0.99	-0.35
	$(F_i - F_k R_{ik})$ (calc)	-0.62	-1.62	-0.75	0.21	-2.60	2.56	5.42	3.53
Compd		H2-H1	H3–H1	H4–H1	H5-H1	H6-H1	C2C1	C3-C1	C4–C1
M isomer	$R_{ik}(\exp)$	-0.37	-0.44	-2.56	1.79	0.81	0.26	-1.15	-1.63
$R = Tb - Yb^b$	$(F_i - F_k R_{ik})(\exp)$	-1.34	-1.10	-1.42	0.42	-0.84	2.36	6.77	4.33
	R^2	0.963	0.972	0.990	0.999	0.999	0.924	0.977	0.998
	$R_{ik}(\text{calc})$	-0.38	-0.45	-2.61	1.80	0.81	0.27	-1.14	-1.64
	$(F_i - F_k R_{ik})$ (calc)	-1.44	-1.21	-1.82	0.48	-0.80	2.29	6.67	5.05
Compd		H2–H1	H3–H1	H4–H1	H5–H1	H6–H1	C2C1	C3–C1	C4–C1
m isomer	$R_{ik}(\exp)$	-0.42	-0.59	-3.12	0.73	1.46	0.53	0.07	0.11
$R = Ce - Eu^a$	$(F_i - F_k R_{ik})(\exp)$	-1.29	-1.43	-0.90	-0.05	-0.39	0.89	1.36	1.72
	R^2	0.871	0.941	0.980	0.988	0.998	1.000	0.118	0.267
	$R_{ik}(\text{calc})$	0.18	-0.57	-3.22	0.75	1.44	0.53	0.05	0.09
	$(F_i - F_k R_{ik})$ (calc)	-0.50	-1.39	-1.14	-0.02	-0.43	0.87	1.63	1.99
Compd		H2–H1	H3–H1	H4–H1	H5–H1	H6–H1	C2–C1	C3–C1	C4–C1
m isomer	$R_{ik}(\exp)$	-0.37	-0.44	-2.57	0.85	1.77	с	с	с
$R = Tb - Yb^b$	$(F_i - F_k R_{ik})(\exp)$	-12.4	-1.02	-0.85	-0.23	-0.90	с	с	с
	R^2	0.979	0.966	0.990	0.999	0.997	с	с	с
	$R_{ik}(calc)$	-0.36	-0.43	-2.51	0.85	1.75	с	с	с
	$(F_i - F_k R_{ik})$ (calc)	-1.20	-0.96	-0.62	-0.22	-0.82	с	c	с

^a Values for the first isostructural series (except Sm).

^bValues for the second isostructural series.

^cNot determined.

3.2.3. $[R(L^{11})]^{3+}$ $(L^{11} = 1,4,7,10$ -tetraazacyclododecane -1,4,7,10-tetrakis(N, N-diethylacetamide))

Although no crystal structure is available for any of the $[R(L^{11})]^{3+}$ complexes, where L^{11} is the DOTA-like tertiary tetraamide derivative DOTEA, the known crystal structures of R(III) complexes for various DOTA-like achiral primary and secondary tetramide derivatives (fig. 46) are available. These structures are variable, with m structures for $[La(DOTAM)(H_2O)]^{3+}$ (Morrow et al., 1993) and $[Eu(DOTAM)(H_2O)]^{3+}$ (Amin et al., 1994) (twist angles between the planes of the O₄ and N₄ atoms of -26.5° and -30° , respectively), and M structures for $[R(DTMA)(H_2O)]^{3+}$ (R = Gd, Dy, twist angles of *ca* 40°) (Bianchi et al., 2000; Aime et al., 1999b). However, in solution it was found that the m/M isomer ratio increased from 0.19 for $[Eu(DOTA)]^{-}$, to 0.25 for the primary tetraamide derivative $[Eu(DOTAM)]^{3+}$, to 0.31 for the secondary tetraamide $[Eu(DTMA)]^{3+}$, and to 2 for the tertiary tetraamide $[Eu(DOTTAM)]^{3+}$, indicating that increasing steric demand at the bound metal ion favors the inverted square antiprismatic structure m (Aime et al., 1999b).

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Fig. 45. (a) Crystal-field independent plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ for the H5–H1 (\blacklozenge) and H6–H1 (\blacksquare) pairs of the M isomer; Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ vs $\delta_{lj}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$; (b) for the C4, C1, C2 triad of the M isomer; (c) for the H*i*, H1, H4 triads (Hi = H3 (\blacklozenge), H5 (\blacklozenge), H6 (\blacklozenge)) of the m isomer ([$R(L^{10}-4H)$]⁻, D₂O, pH = 7, adapted from Geraldes et al. (2003)).

The ¹H and ¹³C LIS values of the $[R(L^{11})]^{3+}$ (R = Ce-Yb except Pm and Gd) complexes, were obtained in CD₃CN at 253 K (the ¹³C LIS data are available only for Pr, Nd, Sm and Eu complexes) (Forsberg et al., 1995), where only one set of NMR signals was found in solution. The ¹H LIS data were first analysed using plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) and $\delta_{ii}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (49)). The shift data for the Tm complex significantly deviated from those of other complexes, and the plots showed breaks near the middle of the lanthanide series, reflecting variations of the F_i and $B_0^2 G_i$ parameters. The geometric factor values derived from the two subgroups differed by as much as 30% for the six protons located three bonds





away from the lanthanide ions (H1-H6) and the corresponding differences in the hyperfine coupling constant were as much as 600% (Forsberg et al., 1995). The ¹H LIS data were also analysed taking the magnetic anisotropy constant $D_1 = (\chi_{zz} - (1/3) \operatorname{Tr} \chi) = C_i B_0^2$ as a variable and comparing the data with the geometric factor values obtained from a structure of these complexes derived by a MM2 calculation using specified geometric restrictions. This calculated structure was of the CSAP (M) type, with a twist angle of 47° between the planes of the O₄ and N₄ atoms. The results further suggested a significant difference in G_i values between the light and heavy $[R(L^{11})]^{3+}$ complexes. The derived $(\chi_{zz} - (1/3) \operatorname{Tr} \chi)$ values for the series of $[R(L^{11})]^{3+}$ complexes did not follow the trend of Bleaney's C_j constants, which was interpreted as due to a change of the crystal field parameter B_0^2 along the lanthanide series, with the largest value for Tm.

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Table 18

Comparison of α and β parameters calculated directly according to eq. (53), with those obtained from the F_i and $B_0^2G_i$ values obtained from eq. (48) (table 16) for the ¹H- and ¹³C-nuclei in complexes $[R(L^{10}-4H)]^-$, for the M isomer (R = Nd-Yb) and m/m' isomer (Ce–Yb) (D₂O, pH = 7, Ren et al. (2002), Geraldes et al. (2003)). See fig. 41 for the atom-numbering scheme

			k = H4	; $l = H1$		k = C2	; $l = C1$	k = C3; l = C1	k = C4	; $l = C1$
Compd		i = H2	i = H3	i = H5	i = H6	i = C3	i = C4	i = C2	i = C2	i = C3
M isomer	$\alpha(\exp)$	с	с	с	с	-2.04	-2.41	0.67	с	с
$R = Pr - Eu^a$	$\beta(\exp)$	с	с	с	с	2.50	2.80	0.42	с	с
	R^2	с	c	c	с	0.999	1.00	0.98	с	c
Compd		i = H2	i = H3	i = H5	i = H6	i = C3	i = C4	i = C2	i = C2	i = C3
M isomer	$\alpha(\exp)$	3.11	2.17	0.80	3.00	-2.04	-2.41	0.67	1.43	0.64
$R = Tb - Yb^b$	$\beta(\exp)$	1.28	0.97	-0.37	0.80	2.50	2.80	0.42	0.59	1.13
	R^2	0.975	0.976	0.976	0.97	0.999	1.00	0.98	0.712	0.50
			k = H4; l = H1 $k = C3; l = C1$							
Compd		i = H2	i = H3	i = H5	i = H6		i = C	2	i = C4	
m isomer	$\alpha(\exp)$	1.48	1.88	2.20	0.40		0.7	3	0.22	
$R = Ce - Eu^a$	$\beta(\exp)$	0.44	0.74	0.22	-0.12		-0.9	4	-0.39	
	R^2	0.67	0.93	1.00	0.98		0.9	3	0.72	
			k = H4	; $l = H1$				k = C3; l = C1		
Compd		i = H2	i = H3	i = H5	i = H6		i = C	2	i = C4	
m isomer	$\alpha(\exp)$	1.74	1.54	-0.01	1.25		с		с	
$R = Tb-Yb^b$	$\beta(\exp)$	0.86	0.80	-0.72	0.17		с		c	
	R^2	0.60	0.69	0.11	0.96		с		с	

^aValues for the first isostructural series (except Sm).

^bValues for the second isostructural series.

^cNot determined.

Despite this analysis of the observed LIS values, which led to a solution structure of these complexes of the CSAP (M) type, there is some conflicting evidence from the solution structure analysis of the other tertiary tetraamide complex $[Eu(DOTTA)]^{3+}$, with a m/M isomer ratio of 2 (Aime et al., 1999b). Therefore we re-analyzed the ¹H LIS data, as well as the ¹³C LIS data (R = Pr, Nd, Eu, excluding Sm) for the $[R(L^{11})]^{3+}$ complexes, first through plots of $\delta_{ij}^{para}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) and δ_{ij}^{para}/C_j vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (49)) (Ren et al., 2002), and using the H5 and H6 assignments of fig. 41, which led to some re-assignments of the original data (Forsberg et al., 1995). Again breaks between light and heavy lanthanide ions were observed in most of those plots (see fig. 47) reflecting variations of the contact F_i and pseudocontact $B_0^2G_i$ parameters. Systematic deviations were also observed for Tm and Yb from the linear correlations defined by the other R(III) ions within the second half of the series. The evaluated values of F_i and $B_0^2G_i$ (and R^2 values) are shown in table 19. The LIS data were also plotted according to eq. (51), as $\delta_{ij}^{para}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{para}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$, eliminating the effect of any changes of B_0^2 (fig. 48a). These plots again show much less significant breaks between light and heavy lanthanide ions than for the previous plots. The evaluated R_{ik} and $(F_i - R_{ik}F_k)$ parameters (and R^2 values) are shown in table 19. Again relative sensitivity of the nuclei to the breaks was H5, H6 \ll H4 < H2, H3. Their values evaluated directly by eq. (51) and indirectly



Fig. 47. Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ for H4 (\blacklozenge) and H6 (\blacktriangle) of $[R(L^{11})]^{3+}$ (R = Ce-Yb, D₂O, pH = 7, adapted from Forsberg et al. (1995), Geraldes et al. (2003)).

using the F_i and $B_0^2 G_i$ values from eq. (48) (table 19) gave extremely good agreement for all the R_{ik} ratios and only reasonably good for $(F_i - R_{ik}F_k)$. Still, the breaks observed in the plots indicate that the F_i and R_{ik} parameters change at the middle of the series, together with changes of B_0^2 .

Figure 48b shows ¹H LIS data plotted according to $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ vs $\delta_{lj}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ (eq. (53)) for i = H3, H5 and H6, l = H1 and k = H4, which exhibit a break between the light (Pr–Eu) and the heavy lanthanide (Tb–Yb) complexes, thereby confirming the changes of the proton F_i and/or G_i parameters at the middle of the series. Table 19 summarizes the α and β values calculated from the ¹H LIS data of the $[R(\text{L}^{11})]^{3+}$ complexes for the light and heavy subseries of lanthanide ions.

3.2.4. $[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$ $(L^{12} = 1,4,7,10$ -tetraazacyclododecane-1,4,7,10-tetrakis(methylenephosphonic acid))

The ¹H, ¹³C and ³¹P LIS for the $[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$ complexes (except R = Pm, Gd) (where $L^{12}-8H$ is DOTP⁸⁻, the tetrakis(methylenephosphonate) analog of DOTA, fig. 40) have been reported at 298 K in D₂O at pH = 10 (Geraldes et al., 1992). Water ¹⁷O NMR shift measurements of $[Dy(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$ revealed that this complex lacks an inner-sphere water molecule (Ren and Sherry, 1996), which is in agreement with the crystal structure of the $[Tm(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$ complex (Paulus et al., 1995), where the coordination polyhedron of Tm is described as a twisted square antiprism (TSAP), m', with the four ring nitrogens defining one of its square faces and the four coordinated phosphonate oxygens defining the other one. Structurally very similar to the $[R(L^{10}-4H)]^{-}$ complexes, the methylene phosphonate arms of the

Computed values for contact (F_i) , pseudo-contact $(B_0^2G_i)$ terms and R^2 values, according to eq. (48), comparison of R_{ik} and $(F_i - R_{ik}F_k)$ parameters calculated directly according to eq. (51), and α and β parameters calculated directly according to eq. (53), with those obtained from the above F_i and $B_0^2G_i$ terms, for ¹H- and ¹³C-nuclei in complexes $[R(L^{11})]^{3+}$ (R = Ce-Yb, D₂O, pH = 7, Forsberg et al. (1995), Ren et al. (2002), Geraldes et al. (2003)). The stom-numbering scheme is similar to that of fig. 41

Compd		H1	H2	H3	;	H4	H	5	H6
$R = Ce - Eu^a$	F_i –	-0.31	-1.18	-1.5	6	0.74	-1.5	6	-0.95
	$B_0^2 G_i -$	-1.43	0.80	0.6	2	4.15	0.6	52	-1.08
	R^2	0.999	0.996	0.9	77	0.998	0.9	77	0.998
Compd		H1	H2	H3	3	H4	H:	5	H6
$R = Tb - Yb^b$	F_i –	-4.06	0.05	-0.6	2	7.44	-0.6	52	-3.69
	$B_0^2 G_i -$	-3.28	1.17	0.9	0	7.38	0.9	0	-2.58
	R^2	0.706	0.790	0.7	44	0.718	0.7	44	0.704
Compd		C1		C2		С	3		C4
$R = Ce - Eu^a$	F_i	4.25		3.56		3.	11		2.99
	$B_0^2 G_i$	3.59		1.56		-2.4	44		-2.54
	R^2	0.978		0.920		0.9	992		0.934
Compd		C1		C2		С	3		C4
$R = Tb - Yb^b$	F_i	с		с		C			с
	$B_0^2 G_i$	с		с		C	;		с
	R^2	с		с		c	;		с
Compd		H2-H	1 H3–H1	H4–H1	H5-H1	H6-H1	C2C1	C3C1	C4C1
$R = Ce - Eu^a$	$R_{ik}(\exp)$	-0.65	-0.52	-2.97	1.92	0.86	0.44	-0.66	-0.66
	$(F_i - F_k R_{ik})($	exp) -1.61	-1.95	-0.36	0.72	-0.42	1.62	5.75	5.55
	R^2	0.99	9 0.998	1.000	1.000	1.000	0.980	0.940	0.840
	$R_{ik}(\text{calc})$	-0.56	-0.43	-2.90	-0.43	0.76	0.43	-0.68	6.01
	$(F_i - F_k R_{ik})(F_k - F_k R_{ik})$	calc) -1.35	-1.69	-0.16	-1.69	-0.71	1.73	6.00	3.53
Compd		H2-H	1 H3–H1	H4–H1	H5–H1	H6–H1	C2C1	C3-C1	C4C1
$R = Tb - Yb^{D}$	$R_{ik}(\exp)$	-0.33	-0.27	-2.27	1.61	0.79	с	с	c
	$(F_i - F_k R_{ik})(F_k - F_k R_{ik})$	exp) -1.20	-1.66	-1.49	1.04	-0.49	c	c	c
	R^2	0.98	6 0.994	0.999	1.000	1.000	c	c	c
	$R_{ik}(\text{calc})$	-0.36	-0.27	-2.25	-0.27	0.79	c	c	c
	$(F_i - F_k R_{ik})(F_i)$	(calc) -1.51	-1.72	-1.70	-1.72	-0.48	t	t	t
			110		k = H	4; l = H1	115		. 116
	()	1=	H2	1 =	H3	i	= H5		i = H6
$R = Ce - Eu^{\alpha}$	$\alpha(\exp)$	14.0	19	1/.	40	_	0.35		8.01
	p(exp) p^2	4.9	14 13/1	0. 0	01 026	_	0.015		2.42 0.94
	Λ	0.5	54	0.	120 k - H	$4 \cdot l - H1$	0.015		0.94
Compd		i =	H2	<i>i</i> =	H3	$\frac{1}{i}$	= H5		i = H6
$R = Tb - Yb^b$	$\alpha(\exp)$	1.4	0	1.	91		0.16		1.41
	$\beta(\exp)$	0.7	8	0.	98	_	0.64		0.27
	R^2	0.9	0	0.	832		1.000		0.91

^aValues for the first isostructural series (except Sm).

^bValues for the second isostructural series.

^cNot determined.



Fig. 48. (a) Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ for the H3–H1 (\blacksquare) and H4–H1 (\blacklozenge) pairs; (b) Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ vs $\delta_{lj}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ for the H*i*, H1, H4 triads (H*i* = H3 (\blacktriangle), H5 (\blacklozenge), H6 (\diamondsuit)) of [*R*(L¹¹)]³⁺ (*R* = Ce–Yb, D₂O, pH = 7, adapted from Geraldes et al. (2003)).

DOTP ligand are arranged in a propeller-like fashion above the basal plane made up of the four N donor atoms which encompass the R(III) ion, thereby generating a C_4 symmetry axis in these complexes (fig. 40). Four of the residual negative charges are localized on the phos-

phonate oxygen atoms, which are directed away from the lanthanide coordination site with the fifth averaged over the bound oxygens in the coordination cage. These highly charged anionic complexes have four protonation steps over the pH range of 3–10, such that $[R(L^{12}-7H)]^{4-1}$ is the predominant species at pH = 7.4, leading to significantly pH dependent LIS values (Sherry et al., 1996). Thus, besides pH = 10, the LIS values at pH 7 and 3 were also analyzed. Unlike the DOTA complexes, only one set of resonances was observed in solution by ¹H, ¹³C and ³¹P NMR for the $[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$ complexes, which thus exist in solution as racemic mixtures, M' (square antiprism, SAP) ($\Lambda(\delta\delta\delta\delta)$ and $\Delta(\lambda\lambda\lambda\lambda)$) or m' (twisted square antiprism, TSAP) ($\Delta(\delta\delta\delta\delta)$ and $\Lambda(\lambda\lambda\lambda\lambda)$) (fig. 42), the two enantiomers of either case furnishing indistinguishable NMR signals at room temperature using conventional NMR techniques. Chiral NMR resolution, using the formation of diastereomeric adducts between the two enantiomers of $[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$ and a chiral substrate, has provided indirect, albeit conclusive, evidence for the existence of these two enantiomers. The ion-pair interactions between $[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-1}$ and the chiral organic base, N-methyl-D-(-)glucamine (MEG), were investigated using ¹H, ¹³C and ³¹P NMR. Addition of MEG to a solution of $[Eu(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$ lifted the signal degeneracy of the NMR spectra, resulting in doubling of the corresponding signals (Aime et al., 1999c). Similar spectral resolution in the ¹H NMR spectrum of $[Eu(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$ was achieved by the addition of the chiral transition metal complex, $(+) - [Co(en)_3]^{3+}$ (Sherry et al., 1996; Ren et al., 1997).

The ¹H, ¹³C and ³¹P LIS data (pH = 10) were analysed by plotting the data for the [$R(L^{12}-8H)$]⁵⁻ according to eq. (48), $\delta_{ij}^{para}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$, and eq. (49), δ_{ij}^{para}/C_j vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (Geraldes et al., 1992). Breaks between light and heavy lanthanide ions were observed in those plots, reflecting variations of the contact F_i and pseudo-contact $B_0^2 G_i$ terms. Systematic deviations were also observed for Tm and Yb from the linear correlations defined by the other R(III) ions within the second half of the series. These parameters were evaluated from those plots by subdivision of the lanthanides into two subgroups (Ce-Eu and Tb-Yb) and without such a subdivision (but excluding the Tm data). In the initial analysis, the B_0^2 values were considered to be constant, and the G_i values, obtained without the lanthanide subdivision, were used together with distance ratios obtained from ¹H NMR T_1 relaxation data. The geometric factors G_i for each nucleus were calculated from the minimized structure of $[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$ using a MMX force field (average R-N and R-O bond lengths of 2.70 and 2.35 Å, respectively) and an axial symmetry model, as well as the R(III)-proton distance ratios. An optimum fit of the LIS and relaxation data was obtained for a SAP configuration, M' (Geraldes et al., 1992), in disagreement with the later reported m' single crystal structure of the $[Tm(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$ complex (Paulus et al., 1995). However, in this NMR study the assignments of the H5 and H6 protons was opposite to the one adopted in the present review for all the tetraazamacrocyclic compounds (fig. 41), and therefore their reassignments have to be made. With this reassignment, the ¹H and ¹³C LIS data available for the $[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-1}$ complexes at pH = 10, 7 and 3 were reanalyzed (Ren et al., 2002). First, plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) and $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (49)) were obtained, giving breaks at Tb (fig. 49), reflecting variations of F_i and $B_0^2 G_i$. The values obtained from these plots are shown in table 20. Then plots according to eq. (51), $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$, again show



Fig. 49. Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ for H1 (\blacklozenge) and H3 (\blacktriangle) of $[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$ (R = Ce-Yb, D₂O, pH = 10, adapted from Ren et al. (2002)).



Fig. 50. Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ for the H3–H1 (\blacksquare) and H4–H1 (\blacktriangle) pairs of $[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$ (R = Ce-Yb, D₂O, pH = 10, adapted from Ren et al. (2002)).

Table 20

Computed values for contact (F_i) , pseudo-contact $(B_0^2G_i)$ terms and R^2 values, according to eq. (48), comparison of R_{ik} and $(F_i - R_{ik}F_k)$ parameters calculated directly according to eq. (51), and α and β parameters calculated directly according to eq. (51), and α and β parameters calculated directly according to eq. (51), and α and β parameters calculated directly according to eq. (53), with those obtained from the above F_i and $B_0^2G_i$ terms, for ¹H, ¹³C and ³¹P-nuclei in complexes $[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$ (R = Ce-Yb, D₂O, pH = 10, Geraldes et al. (1992, 2003), Ren et al. (2002). The atom-numbering scheme is similar to that of fig. 41

Compd		H1	H2	H3	3	H4	H	5	H6
$R = Ce - Eu^a$	F_i	-0.31	-0.44	-0.5	4	1.15	-0.3	6	-0.52
	$B_0^2 G_i$	-1.52	0.47	0.2	6	2.95	-1.1	3	-2.80
	R^2	0.991	0.831	0.6	43	0.985	0.9	83	0.998
Compd		H1	H2	H3	3	H4	H	5	H6
$R = Tb-Yb^b$	F_i	-1.19	0.29	-0.1	5	3.75	-1.3	0	-2.49
	$B_0^2 G_i$	-2.08	1.17	0.9	5	5.85	-1.6	5	-4.33
	R^2	0.815	0.876	0.8	74	0.846	0.8	14	0.812
Compd		C1		C2		С	3		Р
$R = Ce - Eu^a$	F_i	3.99		2.98		1.	71		4.34
	$B_0^2 G_i$	2.28		0.92		-1.3	88		-1.06
	R^2	0.990		0.985		0.9	999		0.796
Compd		C1		C2		C	3		Р
$R = Tb-Yb^b$	F_i	3.91		1.85		-1.	15		-2.16
	$B_0^2 G_i$	3.71		1.00		-4.3	54		-4.59
	R^2	0.817		0.760		0.3	834		0.893
Compd		H2–H1	H3–H1	H4–H1	H5–H1	H6–H1	C2–C1	C3-C1	C _P –C1
$R = Ce - Eu^a$	$R_{ik}(\exp)$	-0.34	-0.21	-1.86	0.73	1.84	0.41	-0.82	-0.47
	$(F_i - F_k R_{ik})$	(exp) = -0.81	-0.91	1.05	-0.22	0.03	1.35	4.97	6.25
	R^2	0.795	0.715	0.963	0.988	0.994	0.995	0.999	0.825
	$R_{ik}(\text{calc})$	-0.54	-0.17	-1.94	0.74	1.84	0.40	-0.82	-0.46
	$(F_i - F_k R_{ik})$	(calc) -0.54	-0.61	0.57	-0.13	-0.01	1.34	4.98	6.22
Compd		H2–H1	H3–H1	H4–H1	H5–H1	H6–H1	C2C1	C3C1	C _P -C1
$R = Tb - Yb^b$	$R_{ik}(\exp)$	-0.54	-0.44	-2.76	0.79	2.08	0.28	-1.21	-1.18
	$(F_i - F_k R_{ik})$	$(\exp) -0.28$	-0.62	0.65	-0.36	-0.01	0.71	3.51	2.10
	R^2	0.992	0.993	0.998	1.000	1.000	0.995	0.999	0.987
	$R_{ik}(\text{calc})$	-0.56	-0.46	-2.81	0.79	0.28	0.27	-1.22	-1.24
	$(F_i - F_k R_{ik})$	(calc) -0.19	-0.67	0.47	-0.36	-0.01	0.76	3.58	2.45
			k = I	H4; $l = H$	1			k = C2; l	=C1
Compd		i = H2	i = H3	<i>i</i> =	H5	i = H6	<i>i</i> =	= C3	i = P
$R = Ce - Eu^a$	$\alpha(\exp)$	1.07	0.99	1.	25	0.64	-2.	.42	-2.15
	$\beta(\exp)$	0.56	0.47	-0.	28	-0.05	4.	.04	4.12
	R²	0.393	0.26	0.	977	0.925	0.	.997	0.981
	α (calc)	-2.21	-1.55	0.	29	2.15	-2.	.30	-2.29
	β (calc)	-0.98	-1.08	-0.	24	0.09	3.	.68	4.62

			k = H4		k = C2	; $l = C1$	
Compd		i = H2	i = H3	i = H5	i = H6	i = C3	i = P
$R = Tb - Yb^b$	$\alpha(\exp)$	1.07	0.99	1.25	0.64	-2.42	-2.15
	$\beta(\exp)$	0.56	0.47	-0.28	-0.05	4.04	4.12
	R^2	0.393	0.263	0.977	0.925	0.997	0.981
	α (calc)	-3.15	-3.22	1.64	1.95	-2.45	-2.45
	β (calc)	-4.59	-1.06	-0.88	0.09	4.57	4.57

Table 20, continued

^aValues for the first isostructural series (except Sm).

^bValues for the second isostructural series.

less significant breaks at Tb (fig. 50). The calculated R_{ik} and $(F_i - R_{ik}F_k)$ parameters (and R^2 values) are also shown in table 20. Again, the relative sensitivity of the various nuclei to the breaks was: H5, H6 \ll H4, C3 < H2, H3, C2 and P. The R_{ik} and $(F_i - R_{ik}F_k)$ parameters evaluated directly by eq. (51) and indirectly using the F_i and $B_0^2G_i$ values from eq. (48) were compared (see table 20). The agreement is extremely good for all the R_{ik} ratios and only reasonably good for $(F_i - R_{ik}F_k)$. Again, the breaks observed in these plots indicate that the F_i and R_{ik} parameters change at the middle of the series, together with changes of B_0^2 .

A previous analysis of the ¹H, ¹³C and ³¹P LIS data for the $[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$ complexes within the second half of the series (R = Tb-Yb) using Reuben's crystal-field parameter independent method (Reuben, 1982) has come to the conclusion that these complexes are isostructural (G_i constant) and that F_i are invariant along the second half of the series (Ren and Sherry, 1996), showing that the deviations in the plots according to eqs. (48) and (49) (fig. 49) in Tb–Yb, in particular for Tm and Yb, also reflect changes of B_0^2 within this halfseries. Assuming that H4 has no contact shift contribution, F_i and $R_{iH4} = G_i/G_{H4}$ values were obtained for i = C1, C2, CP and P nuclei, as well as the B_0^2 values for the Tb–Yb complexes. The results have shown that B_0^2 changes significantly along the Tb–Yb half-series of complexes, with the largest value for Tm and the smallest for Yb (Ren and Sherry, 1996).

complexes, with the largest value for Tm and the smallest for Yb (Ren and Sherry, 1996). Figure 51a shows the ¹³C LIS data of C3 when plotted according to $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ vs $\delta_{lj}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ (eq. (53)) for i = C3, l = C1 and k = C2, where all data points (n = 11) fall on a straight line. The ³¹P LIS data when plotted in the same way (i = P, l = C1 and k = C2) also show a good linear relationship. Table 20 summarizes the α and β values obtained directly from these plots, which agree quite reasonably with those calculated from the F_i and $B_0^2G_i$ parameters obtained from Reilley's plots (table 20). However, like before, plots using other combinations give more or less pronounced breaks, such as for i = C4, l = C1 and k = C3, and for i = C2 or C3, l = C1 and k = C4 (Geraldes et al., 2003). This is again in agreement with the detected changes of F_i and G_i parameters at the middle of the R series and it illustrates the appearance of accidentally linear plots according to eq. (53).

These conclusions are supported by plots of the ¹H LIS data according to eq. (53), obtained for i = H2, H3, H5 and H6, l = H1 and k = H4. While the plots are reasonably linear for i = H5 and H6 (fig. 51b), they show large deviations from linearity for i = H2 and H3 (see table 21 for the α and β values).



Fig. 51. Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ vs $\delta_{lj}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ (a) for the C3, C1, C2 triad; (b) for the H*i*, H1, H4 triads (H*i* = H5 (), H6 (**●**)) of $[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$ (R = Ce-Yb, D_2O , pH = 7, adapted from Geraldes et al. (2003)).

3.2.5. Comparison of the structures of the $[R(L^{10}-4H)]^{-}$, $[R(L^{11})]^{3+}$ and $[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$ complexes

As described in the previous sections, the solution LIS data analysis for $[R(L^{10}-4H)]^-$ (M and m isomers), $[R(L^{11})]^{3+}$ and $[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$ (pH = 10, 7 and 3) using the one nucleus, two nuclei and three nuclei methods gave quite comparable results. Their solution structures were systematically compared using the parameter data obtained from the last two graphical methods and listed in table 21 (Geraldes et al., 2003; Ren et al., 2002). In this table,

			(Geraldes et	al., 200	3)				
Compd.	R ₂₁	$F_2 - R_{21}F$	$r_1 R_{31}$	$F_3 - R_{31}F_{31}$	$r_1 R_{41}$	$F_4 - R_{41}F_1$	R_{51}	$F_5 - R_{51}F_1$	<i>R</i> ₆₁	$F_6 - R_{61}F_1$
R = Ce-Eu										
$[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$	-0.34	-0.81	-0.21	-0.91	-1.86	1.05	0.86	-0.22	0.86	0.03
$[R(L^{10}-4H)]^{-}(M)$	-0.27	-0.62	-1.00	-1.89	-3.56	-0.78	0.86	0.22	-0.93	-2.60
$[R(L^{10}-4H)]^{-}(m)$	-0.42	-1.29	-0.59	-1.43	-3.12	-0.90	0.86	-0.05	0.86	-0.39
$[R(L^{11})]^{3+}$	-0.65	-1.61	-0.52	-1.95	-2.97	-0.36	1.92	0.72	0.86	-0.42
R = Tb-Yb										
$[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$	-0.54	-0.28	-0.44	-0.62	-2.76	0.65	0.79	-0.36	2.08	-0.01
$[R(L^{10}-4H)]^{-}(M)$	-0.37	-1.34	-0.44	-1.10	-2.56	-1.42	1.79	0.42	0.81	-0.84
$[R(L^{10}-4H)]^{-}(m)$	-0.37	-1.24	-0.44	-1.02	-2.57	-0.85	0.85	-0.23	1.77	-0.90
$[R(L^{11})]^{3++}$	-0.33	-1.20	-0.27	-1.66	-2.27	-1.49	1.61	1.04	0.79	-0.49
k = H4; l = H1	i = H2		i = 1	H3		i = H	5		i = H6	
	α		β	α	β	α		β	α	β
R = Ce - Eu										
$[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$	1.0	7 0.:	56	0.99	0.47	1.25		-0.278	0.64	-0.05
$[R(L^{10}-4H)]^{-}(M)$	а		a	а	а	а		а	а	а
$[R(L^{10}-4H)]^{-}(m)$	1.4	8 0.4	444	1.88	0.74	2.20		0.22	0.40	-0.12
$[R(L^{11})]^{3+}$	14.0	9 4.9	94	17.40	6.01	-0.35		-0.72	8.01	2.42
R = Tb-Yb										
$[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$	1.0	7 0.:	56	0.99	0.47	1.25		-0.28	0.64	-0.05
$[R(L^{10}-4H)]^{-}(M)$	3.1	1 1.	28	2.17	0.97	0.80		-0.37	3.00	0.80
$[R(L^{10}-4H)]^{-}(m)$	0.8	6 0.	60	1.54	0.80	-0.01		-0.72	1.25	0.16
$[R(L^{11})]^{3+}$	1.4	0 0.	78	1.91	0.98	0.16		-0.64	1.41	0.27

Table 21 Comparison of the parameters for the ¹H LIS of the *R*-tetraazamacrocyclic complexes $[R(L^{10}-4H)]^-$ (M and m), $[R(L^{11})]^{3+}$ and $[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$ obtained using the graphical methods based on eqs. (51) and (53) (Ren et al., 2002;

^aNot determined.

the R_{ik} geometric ratios for the H1–H6 protons, relative to H1, and the R'_{ik} ratios for the C1–C4 carbons (C4 replaced by P atom in $[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$), relative to C1 are of high structural importance. The sign of R_{ik} is different for the H1, H5 and H6 relative to H2, H3 and H4, and of C1 and C2 relative to C3 and C4(P), showing that these two groups of protons and carbon/phosphorus nuclei have distinct locations in the complexes relative to the dipolar shift cone defined by $3 \cos^2 \theta = 1$. The absolute magnitude of the ring R_{ik} ratios follow the order H4 > H1 > H2 > H3 for the $[R(L^{11})]^{3+}$ and $[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$ complexes, and H4 > H1 > H3 > H2 for the M and m isomers of the $[R(L^{10}-4H)]^-$ complexes. The acetate proton ratios also differ significantly, with H5 > H6 for the $[R(L^{10}-4H)]^{-}$ (M) and $[R(L^{11})]^{3+}$ complexes, and H6 > H5 for the $[R(L^{10}-4H)]^-$ (m) and $[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$ complexes. Although the proton shifts of the $[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$ complexes are significantly pH dependent, with a decrease of the dipolar shifts when the pH drops from 10 to 3 (Ren et al., 2002), the four protonation steps undergone by the phosphonate groups at their unbound oxygens does not cause a variation of the complex geometry, as the R_{ik} are nearly invariant from pH = 10 to pH = 3 (< ±4%). Such large decreases of dipolar shifts with pH decrease are attributed to a decrease of the crystal field parameter B_0^2 upon protonation. As described before,

the B_0^2 values for the Tb–Yb complexes of $[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$ have been obtained assuming that H4 has no contact shift contribution, showing that B_0^2 changes significantly along the Tb–Yb half-series of complexes, with the largest value for Tm and the smallest for Yb (Ren and Sherry, 1996). However, these quantitative values must be seen with some caution, as the assumption that $F_{\rm H4}$ is negligible for the $[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$ complexes is doubtful (see table 20). On the other hand, calculation of B_0^2 ratios,

$$\frac{B_0^2(R = \text{Ce}-\text{Eu})}{B_0^2(R = \text{Dy}-\text{Yb})},$$

which is obtained by assuming constant G_i values along the series and taking the slope of a linear plot of $B_0^2 G_i$ (R = Ce-Tb) vs $B_0^2 G_i$ (R = Ce-Tb), could not be undertaken, since in the present systems G_i values display only small changes along the R(III) series.

Comparing the experimental and calculated R_{ik} values for each proton in the four complexes studied (table 22), in particular for the two isomers, M and m, of $[R(L^{10}-4H)]^-$, which result from different arrangements of the four pendant arms around the R(III) ion, one concludes that these ratios are quite constant for the ring protons in all complexes, in accordance with very similar macrocyclic ring conformations. The differences between M and m forms occur in the H5 and H6 protons of the pendant arms, with very good agreement of experimental and calculated data for the $[R(L^{10}-4H)]^-$ complexes (also with the X-ray results) and for the $[R(L^{11})]^{3+}$ complexes, where the calculated structure is M (Forsberg et al., 1995). For the $[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$ complexes, the re-assignment of these protons indicates that they have a m' solution conformation, in agreement with calculated values for models of the M' and m' conformations and with the X-ray crystal structure.

Further information about the structure of these macrocyclic complexes is provided in table 23, which compares the experimental Yb–H distances normalized to H1 $(r_{\text{H}i}/r_{\text{H}1})$ ob-

Table 22 Comparison of experimental and calculated geometric ratios $R_{k1} = G_k/G_{H1}$ for H1–H6 protons of $[R(L^{10}-4H)]^-$ (M and m), $[R(L^{11})]^{3+}$ and $[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$

		H1	H2	H3	H4	H5	H6
$[R(L^{10}-4H)]^{-}(M)$	Exp. ^a	1.00	-0.31	-0.44	-2.56	1.79	0.81
	Calc. ^a	1.00	-0.41	-0.45	-2.73	1.82	0.86
$[R(L^{10}-4H)]^{-}(m)$	Exp. ^a	1.00	-0.37	-0.44	-2.57	0.85	1.77
	Calc. ^a	1.00	-0.26	-0.29	-2.26	0.89	1.63
$[R(L^{11})]^{3+}$	Exp. ^b	1.00	-0.33	-0.27	-2.27	1.61	0.79
	Calc. ^b	1.00	-0.35	-0.27	-2.29	1.65	0.79
$[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$	Exp. ^c	1.00	-0.54	-0.44	-2.76	0.79	2.08
(M')	Calc. ^d	1.00	-0.65	-0.51	-3.15	2.29	0.92
(m')	Calc. ^d	1.00	-0.63	-0.46	-2.89	0.87	2.41

^aAime et al. (1992b).

^bForsberg et al. (1995).

^cGeraldes et al. (1992).

^dCalculated for models of M' and m' structures (Ren et al., 2002). The m' structure was obtained based on the crystal structure of $[Tm(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$ and the M' structure by changing m' to give a twist angle of $+39^{\circ}$.

	$[K(L^{2}-4\Pi)]$	(ivi and m)	$(\mathbf{K}(\mathbf{L}^{22}))$		-80)]*		
		H1	H2	H3	H4	H5	H6
$[R(L^{10}-4H)]^{-}(M)$	Exp. ^a	1.00	1.19	1.21	0.96	1.04	1.16
	Calc. ^a	1.00	1.17	1.17	0.99	0.99	1.15
$[R(L^{10}-4H)]^{-}$ (m)	Exp. ^a	1.00	1.17	1.19	0.95	1.02	1.05
	Calc. ^a	1.00	1.17	1.17	0.99	0.99	0.98
$[R(L^{11})]^{3+}$	Exp. ^b	1.00	1.13	1.13	0.90	1.01	1.19
	Calc. ^b	1.00	1.19	1.19	0.99	0.98	1.16
$[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$	Exp. ^c	1.00	1.16	1.16	0.95	1.22	0.98
(M')	Calc.d	1.00	1.19	1.19	1.01	0.96	1.17
(m')	Calc. ^d	1.00	1.21	1.21	1.04	1.18	0.93

Table 23 Comparison of experimental and calculated Yb–Hi distance ratios relative to H1, $r_{\text{H}i}/r_{\text{H1}}$, for H1–H6 protons of $[R(L^{10}_{-4}\text{H})]^{-}$ (M and m), $[R(L^{11})]^{3+}$ and $[R(L^{12}_{-8}\text{H})]^{5-}$

^aAime et al. (1992b).

^bForsberg et al. (1995).

^cGeraldes et al. (1992).

^dCalculated for models of M' and m' structures (Ren et al., 2002).

tained using the proton T_1 relaxation times from the literature and eq. (18), with the relative distances calculated for the M and m/m' forms of the $[R(L^{10}-4H)]^-$ complexes and the M form of the $[R(L^{11})]^{3+}$ complex. There is no significant differences in the relative distances of the ring protons for all these Yb complexes, which also agree with the calculated values. Due to the different arrangements of the pendant acetate arms around the Yb ion, the calculated Yb–H distances of H5 and H6 in the M and m/m' forms differ quite substantially: while H5 is closer to Yb than H6 in M, their distances to Yb are about the same in m/m'. The experimental results for the $[R(L^{10}-4H)]^-$ M and m/m' isomers agree very well with the predicted values, and the experimental results for the $[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$, the experimental data also agrees with the values calculated for a m' form (Ren et al., 2002).

Finally it is worth noting that a comparison of the α and β values, obtained from plots of the ¹H LIS for the acetate protons in the three complexes according to eq. (53), for i = H5 and H6, with l = H1 and k = H4 (table 21), is not indicative of their structure being either SAP (M) or TSAP (m or m'), despite these structures only differ in the arrangement of the pendant arms around the metal ion. Those α and β parameters do not reflect those structural changes directly, probably as a result of their very indirect structural dependence on the R_{iH4} (i = H5 and H6) geometric ratio (eq. (53)), which is mixed with dependence on the R_{H1H4} geometric ratio and hyperfine coupling constants ratios S_{iH4} and S_{H1H4} , which significantly change for the various complexes (table 21). This reduces the structural diagnostic power of the three nuclei method based on eq. (53).

3.2.6. $[R(L^{13}-2H)_2]^- (L^{13} = phtalocyanine)$

Considerable interest has been focused on the physico-chemical properties of sandwich complexes of lanthanide(III) ions with two macrocyclic conjugated rings such as phtalocyanine. Several X-ray crystallographic studies on Nd(III) (Kasuga et al., 1980) and Lu(III) (Mous-



Fig. 52. The structure of $[R(L^{13}-2H)_2]^-$, with the twist angle α , $\alpha = 45^{\circ}$ for the D_{4d} form, and 0° for the D_{4h} form (adapted from Konami et al. (1989)).

savi et al., 1988) complexes have been carried out for H[Nd(L¹³–2H)₂], [N(ⁿBu)₄][Lu(L¹³–2H)₂] and H[Lu(L¹³–2H)₂]. These reveal quite similar solid-state structures, where the R(III) cation is 8-coordinated by the isoindole nitrogen atoms of the two phtalocyanine rings in quasi square antiprismatic geometries (D_{4d} symmetry), with staggering angles α between the two stacked phtalocyanines (fig. 52) of 45°, 43° and 41°, respectively. The benzimidazole groups are somewhat tilted, giving a slightly bowl-type deformation of the phtalocyanine macrocycles towards the lanthanide ion. Slight distortions of some of these sandwich structures, with small deviations of the mean planes of the two phtalocyanines from parallel positions, were assigned to ion packing in the crystals.

The proton NMR spectra of the $[N(^{n}Bu)_{4}][R(L^{13}-2H)_{2}](R = Pr-Lu except Pm, Gd)$ complexes in CD₃CN solution at room temperature are very simple in the aromatic region, with only one H1 and one H2 resonance of the phtalocyanine rings, indicating that the complexes have a C_4 axis in solution (Konami et al., 1989). This is compatible with a D_{4h} square prismatic or a D_{4d} square antiprismatic geometry, depending whether the two stacked phtalocyanines are eclipsed or staggered, or fast interconversion between the two. The splitting of the Q band observed in the UV-vis absorption spectra of the R = Pr, Lu complexes in CD₃CN solution excludes the D_{4h} structure. From the LIS values of the H1 and H2 protons in the paramagnetic complexes, plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (48)) and $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (49)) were obtained, which showed breaks near the middle of the lanthanide series and also significant deviations from linearity within each of the two subfamilies of lanthanides, reflecting variations of the coupling constant F_i and the pseudo-contact term $B_0^2 G_i$ (fig. 53a and table 24). In the original work, $B_0^2 G_i$ values were identified with G_i and single F_i and G_i values were obtained for H1 and H2 along the lanthanide series which did not fully agree with our analysis (table 24, Konami et al. (1989)). Fitting of the geometrical dependence of the experimentally derived R_{ik} ratios to a chemical model of the $[R(L^{13}-2H)_2]^-$ complexes based on the crystal structures of the Nd and Lu compounds gave an average distance between the two rings in the sandwich compound of 2.54 Å and an average R–N distance of 2.31 Å (Konami et al., 1989). However, the data analysis available does not prove isostructurality in solution.

A plot of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (51)) for i = H2 and j = H1, according to the two-nuclei crystal-field independent technique, which eliminates the effect of any changes



Fig. 53. (a) Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ for H1 (\blacklozenge) and H2 (\blacksquare) and (b) plot of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ for the H1–H2 (\blacklozenge) pair in $[R(L^{13}-2H)_2]^-$ (R = Pr-Yb, CD₃CN, adapted from Konami et al. (1989), Geraldes et al. (2003)).

in B_0^2 , gives a single straight line along the lanthanide series (fig. 53b), confirming that the complexes are isostructural and that the B_0^2 parameter and F_i change along the series. There is generally a good agreement between experimental and calculated R_{ik} and $(F_i - F_k R_{ik})$ parameters (table 24).

Table 24

Computed values for contact (F_i) , pseudo-contact $(B_0^2G_i)$ terms and R^2 values, according to eq. (48) and comparison of R_{ik} and $(F_i - R_{ik}F_k)$ parameters calculated directly according to eq. (51) with those obtained from the above F_i and $B_0^2G_i$ terms, for ¹H-nuclei in complexes $[R(L^{13}-2H)_2]^ (R = Pr-Yb, CD_3CN, Konami et al. (1989), Geraldes$ et al. (2003)). See fig. 52 for the atom-numbering scheme

Parameter	Compd	H1	H2	Compd	H1	H2	Compd	H1	H2
F _i	$R = Pr - Eu^a$	0.34	0.16	$R = Tb - Yb^b$	0.59	0.33	R = Pr-Yb	0.44	0.24
$B_0^2 G_i$		0.09	0.06		0.23	0.11		0.22	0.11
R^2		0.380	0.426		0.649	0.652		0.601	0.600
	Compd	H2-	H1	Compd	H2	-H1	Compd	Hź	2–H1
$R_{ik}(\exp)$	$R = Pr - Eu^a$	0.:	52	$R = Tb - Yb^b$	0.4	48	R = Pr-Yb	0	.49
$(F_i - F_k R_{ik})(\exp)$		0.0	01		0.0	02		0	.03
R^2		0.9	994		0.9	994		0	.993
$R_{ik}(\text{calc})$		0.	57		0.4	48		0	.50
$(F_i - F_k R_{ik})$ (calc)		-0.	07		0.0	05		0	.02

^aValues for the first isostructural series (except Sm). ^bValues for the second isostructural series.

4. Application of the model-free methods to axial bimetallic lanthanide complexes with sterically rigid ligands

Axial symmetry according to Bleaney's approach is maintained in polymetallic lanthanide complexes when the metals lie on the molecular threefold or fourfold axes. For *n* magnetically non-coupled lanthanide ions packed along the symmetry axis, contact and pseudo-contact contributions can be considered as additive and the original model-free equation (eq. (47)) is transformed into eq. (61) in which the sum runs over the n paramagnetic centres, each being located at the origin of its own reference frame associated with a specific set of axial coordinates θ_i^m and r_i^m (the z axis corresponds to the molecular symmetry axis, fig. 54),

$$\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}} = \delta_{ij}^{\text{c}} + \delta_{ij}^{\text{pc}} = \sum_{m=1}^{n} \left[F_i^m \langle S_z \rangle_j^m + C_j^m B_0^{2^m} G_i^m \right].$$
(61)

For homopolymetallic axial complexes, the spin expectation values and Bleaney's factors are identical for all metallic sites $(\langle S_z \rangle_j^m = \langle S_z \rangle_j$ and $C_j^m = C_j)$ and can be factorized out to give eq. (62) which can be linearized according to the method proposed by Reilley et al. (1975) for monometallic complexes (eqs. (63), (64), Elhabiri et al. (1999)),

$$\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}} = \left(\sum_{m=1}^{n} F_i^m\right) \langle S_z \rangle_j + \left(\sum_{m=1}^{n} B_0^{2^m} G_i^m\right) C_j, \tag{62}$$

$$\frac{\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}}{\langle S_z \rangle_j} = \left(\sum_{m=1}^n F_i^m\right) + \left(\sum_{m=1}^n B_0^{2^m} G_i^m\right) \frac{C_j}{\langle S_z \rangle_j},\tag{63}$$

$$\frac{\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}}{C_j} = \left(\sum_{m=1}^n B_0^{2^m} G_i^m\right) + \left(\sum_{m=1}^n F_i^m\right) \frac{\langle S_z \rangle_j}{C_j}.$$
(64)



Fig. 54. Axial coordinates considered in bimetallic axial lanthanide complexes (adapted from Rigault et al. (2000a)).

The derivation of a general crystal-field independent method for polymetallic lanthanide complexes related to eq. (51) is precluded by the consideration of variable numbers of different crystal-field parameters (maximum n) depending on the exact symmetry of the axial complex (see sect. 4.1.1, Rigault et al. (2000a)).

4.1. Complexes with threefold symmetry

4.1.1. $[R_2(L^{14}-2H)_3](L^{14} = bis\{1-ethyl-2-[6'-carboxy)pyridin-2'-yl]$ benzimidazol-5-yl}methane)

Reaction of the bis-tridentate receptor $[L^{14}-2H]^{2-}$ with $R(\text{CIO}_4)_3$ in water produces the highly stable homobimetallic triple-stranded helicates $[R_2(L^{14}-2H)_3]$ (R = La-Tb except Pm and R = Er-Yb-Lu, $\log \beta_{[R_2(L^{14}-2H)_3]} = 51(4)$, Elhabiri et al. (1999)). ¹H NMR spectra point to rigid D_3 -symmetrical complexes for which exchange between the helical enantiomers is slow on the NMR time scale (i.e., the methylene protons of the ethyl residues are systematically diastereotopic, fig. 55).

The considerable intermetallic separation (8.81–8.83 Å in the crystal structures of $[Eu_2(L^{14}-2H)_3]$ and $[Tb_2(L^{14}-2H)_3]$) prevents magnetic coupling and the 'isolating' methylene spacer separating the two tridentate units restrict through-bond contact interactions for a given nucleus *i* to a single paramagnetic centre. Under these conditions and for D_3 -symmetrical bimetallic lanthanide complexes (i.e., $B_0^{21} = B_0^{22} = B_0^2$), eqs. (62)–(64) simplify to eqs. (65)–(67)

$$\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}} = F_i \langle S_z \rangle_j + B_0^2 (G_i^1 + G_i^2) C_j, \tag{65}$$



Fig. 55. Schematic formation of the D_3 -symmetrical complexes $[R_2(L^{14}-2H)_3]$ in water with numbering scheme. The representation of $[R_2(L^{14}-2H)_3]$ corresponds to the crystal structure of $[Eu_2(L^{14}-2H)_3](H_2O)_{20.5}$ (Elhabiri et al., 1999).

Table 25

Computed values for contact (F_i) , pseudo-contact $(B_0^2(G_i^1 + G_i^2))$ terms and agreement factors (AF_i) for ¹H-nuclei in complexes $[R_2(L^{14}-2H)_3]$ (D₂O, 298 K, Elhabiri et al. (1999)). See fig. 55 for the atom-numbering scheme

Commed		II1	110	112	114	115	116	117
Compa		пі	П2	пэ	П4	пз	по	П/
R = Ce-Tb	F_i	0.32(4)	0.21(4)	0.36(5)	0.13(1)	0.011(2)	-1.7(2)	-0.02(1)
	$B_0^2(G_i^1 + G_i^2)$	-0.38(3)	-0.32(1)	-0.35(2)	-0.05(3)	0.032(8)	0.76(7)	0.086(4)
	AF_i	0.03	0.04	0.08	0.04	0.06	0.35	0.11
R = Er - Yb	F_i	-0.47(2)	-0.15(3)	-0.46(2)	0.07(3)	0.07(5)	1.99(2)	-0.11(4)
	$B_0^2(G_i^1 + G_i^2)$	-0.41(6)	-0.30(4)	-0.42(7)	0.058(9)	-0.004(9)	2.07(4)	0.11(1)
	AF_i	0.20	0.18	0.19	0.08	0.04	0.002	0.06

$$\frac{\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}}{\langle S_z \rangle_j} = F_i + B_0^2 \left(G_i^1 + G_i^2 \right) \frac{C_j}{\langle S_z \rangle_j},\tag{66}$$

$$\frac{\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}}{C_j} = B_0^2 \left(G_i^1 + G_i^2 \right) + F_i \frac{\langle S_z \rangle_j}{C_j}.$$
(67)

Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (66)) and $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (67)) for the ¹H NMR data of $[R_2(L^{14}-2H)_3]$ (R = Ce-Tb except Pm and R = Er-Yb) display an abrupt deviation from linearity between R = Tb and R = Er and require two different straight lines (fig. 56). Two different isostructural series have been considered for R = Ce-Tb and Er-Yb, and two sets of contact F_i and pseudo-contact $B_0^2(G_i^1 + G_i^2)$ terms are obtained according to least-squares fits of eq. (65) (table 25, Elhabiri et al. (1999)).



Fig. 56. Plots of (a) $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (66)) and (b) $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (67)) for H6 in $[R_2(L^{14} - 2H)_3]$ ($R = \text{Ce-Eu}, \text{Er-Yb}, D_2O, 298 \text{ K}$, adapted from Rigault et al. (2000a)).

The crystal-field parameter B_0^2 can be removed when eq. (65) is expressed for two different nuclei *i* and *k* (Rigault et al., 2000a). The resulting crystal-field independent eq. (68) is very similar to eq. (51) except that global geometrical factors $(G_i^1 + G_i^2)$ replace G_i .

$$\frac{\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}}{\langle S_z \rangle_j} = \left(F_i - F_k \frac{(G_i^1 + G_i^2)}{(G_k^1 + G_k^2)}\right) + \frac{(G_i^1 + G_i^2)}{(G_k^1 + G_k^2)} \cdot \frac{\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}}{\langle S_z \rangle_j}.$$
(68)

Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (68)) for the various pairs of paramagnetic NMR shifts in $[R_2(L^{14}-2H)_3]$ show three different behaviours depending on the protons involved (fig. 57, Rigault et al. (2000a)). Firstly, no obvious correlation is observed for pairs involving H5 which can be explained by the peculiar location of this proton in the triple-stranded helicate. According to the D_3 -averaged crystal-structure of $[Eu_2(L^{14}-2H)_3]$, the axial coordinates amount to $\theta_{H5}^1 = 54.1^\circ$ and $\theta_{H5}^2 = 55.0^\circ$ which are both close to the magic angle (54.7°) and lead to a dramatic sensitivity to faint structural changes along the lanthanide series as similarly observed for H11 in $[RCo(L^5)_3]^{6+}$ (see sect. 3.1.5) and C4 in $[R(L^3)_3]^{3+}$ (see sect. 3.1.3). Nevertheless, this observation points to possible minor geometrical changes from one lanthanide to the other, but it is not diagnostic for significant structural variations occurring along the lanthanide series. Secondly, pairs involving protons H1-3,6,7 display a single straight line for the complete lanthanide series (Ce–Yb, fig. 57a) which indicates that (i) no significant structural variation occurs along the complete lanthanide series and (ii) changes in the crystal field parameters affect the linearity of the one-nucleus methods.

Thirdly, related plots according to eq. (68) involving H4 clearly exhibit two straight lines, one for the large (Ce–Tb) and one for the small (Er–Yb) lanthanide ions with an abrupt transition between them (fig. 57b). This behaviour contrasts with that observed for H1-3,6,7 and apparently leads to opposite conclusions in which two different structural arrangements should be invoked. However, both metallic centres significantly contribute to the paramagnetic shift

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Fig. 57. Crystal-field independent plots of (a) $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (68)) for the H2–H3 and (b) H2–H4 pairs in $[R_2(L^{14}-2H)_3]$ (R = Ce-Tb, Er–Yb, D₂O, 298 K, adapted from Rigault et al. (2000a)).

of H4 $(G_{H4}^1/G_{H4}^2 = 0.58)$ and the θ_{H4}^i angles (i = 1, 2) are distributed on both sides of the magic angles (49.1° and 63.0° according to the crystal structure of $[Eu_2(L^{14}-2H)_3]$). The paramagnetic shift of H4 is thus particularly sensitive to minor structural variations as a result of its peculiar geometrical location. Theoretical computed R_{ik} factors obtained when the $R \cdots R$ distance is increased by stepwise increment of ≈ 0.2 Å from 8.4 Å to 9.2 Å indeed show small variations for H*i*-H*k* pairs ($i \neq k$ and i, k = 1, 2, 3, 6, 7), but H*i*-H4 pairs ($i \neq 4$) exhibit drastic changes which confirm their extreme sensitivity to minor structural changes (fig. 58).



Fig. 58. Computed R_{ik} factors for pairs H3-Hk (k = 1, 2, 4, 6, 7) in the crystal structure of $[Eu_2(L^{14}-2H)_3]$ (the intermetallic distance *d* varies from 8.4 to 9.2 Å, adapted from Rigault et al. (2000a)).

The R_{ik} factors found in solution are in good agreement with those calculated from the averaged D_3 -symmetrical crystal structure leading to an agreement factor AF = 0.17, and to the conclusion that the crystal structure of $[Eu_2(L^{14}-2H)_3]$ is a satisfying model for the complexes in solution along the complete lanthanide series. The breaks observed according to the one-nucleus methods (eqs. (66), (67), fig. 56) have been assigned to concomitant changes of F_i and B_0^2 occurring between R = Tb and R = Er, but the minor variation of the slopes for the two straight lines obtained for $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ plots (eq. (66), fig. 56a) suggests a ratio of crystal-field parameters close to unity (Rigault et al., 2000a). A plot of $B_0^2(G_i^1 + G_i^2)_{R=\text{Ce-Tb}}$ vs $B_0^2(G_i^1 + G_i^2)_{R=\text{Er-Yb}}$ excluding H5 gives a rough linear correlation with

$$\frac{B_0^2(R = \text{Ce-Tb})}{B_0^2(R = \text{Er-Yb})} = 0.8(2).$$

Finally, global geometrical factors $G_i^1 + G_i^2$ calculated from the crystal structure of $[\text{Eu}_2(\text{L}^{14}-2\text{H})_3]$ have been used for estimating magnetic anisotropies $\chi_{zz}^j - (1/3) \text{ Tr } \chi^j$ with eq. (69) and using four contact contributions δ_{ij}^c (*i* = H1, H2, H3, H6, Elhabiri et al. (1999)). Since only three protons display no contact contribution, only rough estimations of $\chi_{zz}^j - (1/3) \text{ Tr } \chi^j$ are obtained and no comparison with Bleaney's factors has been performed,

$$\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}} = \delta_{ij}^{\text{c}} + \frac{1}{2N_{\text{A}}} \bigg[\bigg(\chi_{zz}^{j} - \frac{1}{3} \operatorname{Tr} \chi^{j} \bigg) \big(G_{i}^{1} + G_{i}^{2} \big) \bigg].$$
(69)

Isostructurality along the complete lanthanide series has been ultimately confirmed by relaxation measurements. For the bimetallic complexes $[R_2(L^{14}-2H)_3]$, each nucleus undergoes the sum of two dipolar and two Curie-spin paramagnetic contributions to their longitudinal relaxation rate. Thus eq. (18) is no longer valid and must be replaced with eq. (70) which takes into account the effect of the two paramagnetic centres (fig. 54, Elhabiri et al. (1999)),

$$\frac{T_{1i}^{\text{para}}}{T_{\text{lref}}^{\text{para}}} = \left(\frac{(r_{\text{ref}}^1)^6 + (r_{\text{ref}}^2)^6}{(r_i^1)^6 + (r_i^2)^6}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{(r_i^1)^6 \cdot (r_i^2)^6}{(r_{\text{ref}}^1)^6 \cdot (r_{\text{ref}}^2)^6}\right).$$
(70)

Taking the r_i^n distances observed in the crystal structure of $[Eu_2(L^{14}-2H)_3]$ and H3 as an internal reference, the calculated ratios

$$\left(\frac{(r_{\text{ref}}^1)^6 + (r_{\text{ref}}^2)^6}{(r_i^1)^6 + (r_i^2)^6}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{(r_i^1)^6 \cdot (r_i^2)^6}{(r_{\text{ref}}^1)^6 \cdot (r_{\text{ref}}^2)^6}\right)$$

closely match the experimental terms $T_{1i}^{\text{para}}/T_{\text{1ref}}^{\text{para}}$ obtained for R = Ce, Pr, Nd, Yb, henceforth confirming that $[\text{Eu}_2(\text{L}^{14}-2\text{H})_3]$ is a satisfying structural model.

4.2. Complexes with fourfold symmetry

4.2.1. $[R_2(L^{15}-2H)_3](L^{15} = octaethylporphyrin)$

Early efforts in the synthesis and characterisation of lanthanide(III) porphyrin coordination compounds led to monoporphyrinates such as $[R(TPP)(acac)(H_2O)_2]$ (where $(TPP)^{2-}$



Fig. 59. Configurations of (A) mono-tetrapyrroles $[R(L_{15}-2H)LL'L'L'']$, (B) bis-tetrapyrroles $[R(L^{15}-2H)_2]$ and (C) tris-tetrapyrroles $[R_2(L^{15}-2H)_3]$ (adapted from Buchler et al. (1986)).

is 5,10,15,20-tetraphenylporphyrin and H(acac) is acetylacetone) representing coordination type A of square antiprismatic geometry (fig. 59) (Wong et al., 1974; Wong and Horrocks, 1975). A protonated bis-porphyrinate, H[Pr(TTP)₂], was also obtained but could not be crystallised and characterised structurally (Buchler et al., 1983). However, the use of octaethylporphyrin ([L¹⁵–2H]^{2–} or (OEP)^{2–}) afforded the entire series of double-decker sandwich compounds [$R(L^{15}-2H)_2$] (R = La-Lu except Pm) (coordination type B) and triple-decker dimetallic compounds [$R_2(L^{15}-2H)_3$] (R = La-Gd except Pm) (coordination type C) of square antiprismatic geometry (fig. 59) (Buchler et al., 1986).

The crystal structures of the Ce compounds of both series, $[Ce(L^{15}-2H)_2]$ and $[Ce_2(L^{15}-2H)_3]$, were obtained by X-ray crystallography. In the first compound, the Ce(IV) ion has a square antiprismatic coordination polyhedron formed by the eight nitrogen atoms of the two staggered porphyrin rings, with rotational angle $\alpha = 41.8^{\circ}$ (fig. 60a). The crystal structure of the dimetallic compound $[Ce_2(L^{15}-2H)_3]$ consists of a small stack of three ligand dianions separated by two Ce(III) ions, which define a C_4 symmetry axis. Due to the presence of an inversion center located between the two Ce(III) ions, the two external rings have the same orientation with respect to the internal macrocycle. Each ion is surrounded by eight nitrogen atoms, four of which belonging to the external and four to the internal porphyrinate ring. The coordination polyhedron is more distorted from the ideal square antiprism than in the monometallic compound, as the mean rotational angle of the two macrocycles is $\alpha = 24.5^{\circ}$ (fig. 60b). Furthermore, the Ce(III) ions are closer to the 4N_p mean planes of the external rings (1.394 Å) than of the internal ring (1.876 Å) and the 4N_p mean-plane separation is



Fig. 60. Stick bond model projection of $[Ce(L^{15}-2H)_2]$ (A) and $[Ce_2(L^{15}-2H)_3]$ (B), showing the respective relative rotations of the different macrocyclic units (adapted from Buchler et al. (1986)).

approximately 3.27 Å (Buchler et al., 1986). There is also a strong C_{4v} doming of the outer rings, which also helps to relax inter-ring alkyl crowding.

The ¹H NMR spectra of the dimetallic compounds $[R_2(L^{15}-2H)_3]$ (R = La-Eu except Pm) were reported in CCl₄ at 293 K (Buchler et al., 1986, 1988, 1989), while the ¹³C NMR spectra of the corresponding R = La, Ce and Pr compounds were recorded in CCl₄/CD₂Cl₂ or CCl₄/C₆D₆ mixtures (Buchler et al., 1992). The LIS values of the methyl (CH₃), methylene (CH₂) and methine (CH) proton resonances of the outer- and inner rings were obtained for the paramagnetic complexes, relative to the diamagnetic La complex. Since the outer rings do not possess a symmetry plane, the outer ring CH₂ protons are diastereotopic and two resonances result. As all nuclei of these complexes experience additive LIS effects from the two paramagnetic centers, which have negligible electron spin interactions between them, it is not surprising that the relative LIS values were larger for all the protons of the inner ring, which experience the closer magnetic influence of the two paramagnetic centers.

In a structural analysis of the observed proton LIS values for the Ce(III) dimetallic complex, the contact contribution was neglected (Buchler et al., 1989). Axial dipolar contributions from the two Ce ions were added using eq. (65) which reduces to eqs. (71), (72) for the outer ring and inner ring protons, respectively (Ce(1) is proximal to and Ce(2) is distal to the outer ring)

$$\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}} = \delta_{ij}^{\text{dip,Ce}(1)} + \delta_{ij}^{\text{dip,Ce}(2)} = B_0^2 (G_i^1 + G_i^2) C_j,$$
(71)

$$\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}} = 2\delta_{ij}^{\text{dip,Ce}(1)} = 2B_0^2 G_i^1 C_j.$$
⁽⁷²⁾

As $\delta_{ij}^{\text{dip,Ce}(1)} > \delta_{ij}^{\text{dip,Ce}(2)}$, the inner ring dipolar shifts are larger than those of the outer ring. A solution geometry for $[\text{Ce}_2(\text{L}^{15}-2\text{H})_3]$ was searched for which there was a reasonable agreement between experimental dipolar shift ratios and calculated geometric factor ratios, using as geometrical model the single crystal structure of the compound. The degree of doming of the outer rings and the outer Ce positions were increased systematically, as well as alkyl group bond rotation. The geometric factors were calculated for the protons and used in the solution structural search. This procedure gave compelling evidence for inter-ring steric crowding and subsequent limited rotation of the outer ring alkyl groups such that the outer β -CH₃ groups stay far away from the inner ring alkyl groups to minimize inter-ring steric crowding.

We proceeded to verify if the approximation of neglecting the contact contribution to the ¹H LIS values is warranted. Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (66)) and $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (67)) for the ¹H NMR data of $[R_2(L^{15}-2H)_3]$ (R = Ce, Pr, Nd, Eu) do not give very good linear correlations (fig. 61a). The irregularities are possibly due to deviations of the relative dipolar shift values from relative Bleaney's constants C_j , in particular for the Ce and Pr ions and inner-ring protons, as observed before (Buchler et al., 1992). The contact F_i and pseudo-contact $B_0^2(G_i^1 + G_i^2)$ terms, obtained according to least-squares fits of eq. (65), indicate that some of the protons do have non-negligible contact shifts (table 26). All the plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (68)) for the various pairs of proton LIS val-

All the plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (68)) for the various pairs of proton LIS values of $[R_2(L^{15}-2H)_3]$ give good linear correlations (fig. 61b) indicating that the complexes are isostructural and that the irregularities of the LIS values are due to changes of the crystal field



Fig. 61. Plots of (a) $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ for CH_(i) (\blacksquare) and CH_(o) (\blacklozenge); (b) $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ for the CH_{3(o)}-CH_(i) (\blacklozenge) and CH_{3(i)}-CH_(i) (\blacksquare) pairs; (c) $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ vs $\delta_{lj}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ for the CH_{3(i)}-CH_{2(i)}-CH_(i) (\blacksquare) and CH_{3(o)}-CH_{2(i)}-CH_(i) (\blacktriangle) triads (data for the complexes $[R_2(L^{15}-2H)_3]$ (R = Ce-Eu), CCl₄, 293 K, adapted from Buchler et al. (1992), Geraldes et al. (2003)).

parameter B_0^2 . However, the agreement of experimental and calculated R_{ik} and $(F_i - F_k R_{ik})$ parameters is not always good, in particular for the CH₂ protons (table 26). All the calculated geometric terms G_i have the same sign except the outer-ring CH₃ protons (outside the dipolar cone). The R_{ik} values obtained by the above method give very good agreement with the calculated geometric factors (Buchler et al., 1989) except for CH_{2(i)}. Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}} / \delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ vs



Fig. 61. Continued.

 $\delta_{lj}^{\text{para}}/\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}$ (eq. (53)) according to the three nuclei method are also affected by the irregularities of the dipolar shifts found in the Reilley method (fig. 61c and table 26).

The ¹³C NMR spectra of the $[R_2(L^{15}-2H)_3]$ (R = La, Ce, Pr) complexes were obtained in a CCl₄/CD₂Cl₂ mixture, yielding ¹³C LIS values for the α , β , methine (CH), methylene (CH₂) and methyl (CH₃) carbons of the inner and outer rings (Buchler et al., 1992). ¹³C LIS values in aromatic systems can have three contributions:

$$\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}} = \delta_{ij}^{\text{c}} + \delta_{ij}^{\text{MCdip}} + \delta_{ij}^{\text{LCdip}},\tag{73}$$

where the presence of a significant contact shift, δ_{ij}^{c} , reflects spin density delocalization onto the porphyrin carbon atoms, leading to a ligand-centered dipolar shift, δ_{ij}^{LCdip} , besides the traditional metal-centered dipolar shift, δ_{ij}^{MCdip} . The δ_{ij}^{MCdip} term is the easiest to estimate assuming axial magnetic symmetry (a) the geometric terms from the solution geometry established above (Buchler et al. (1989) were used) (b) the magnetic anisotropy for the Ce(III) complex was obtained from plots of the proton LIS values, assumed to be purely metal-centered dipolar, versus the respective geometric terms, yielding $(\chi_{\parallel} - \chi_{\perp}) = 2980 \times 10^{-6} \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ per Ce, which is then valid for the ¹³C LIS. Comparison of the calculated δ_{ij}^{MCdip} values with the observed LIS shows very good qualitative agreement, except for the α -carbon nuclei, the closest to the Ce ions, in particular for the outer rings. This is indicative of the presence of contact shifts and ligand-centered dipolar shifts, from direct 4f orbital overlap and/or indirect spin polarization of the 6s or 6p orbitals involving a low-lying (π or π^*) porphyrin molecular orbital. However separation of the contact and ligand-centered dipolar contributions was not possible (Buchler et al., 1992). Table 26

Computed values for contact (F_i) , pseudo-contact $(B_0^2(G_1^1 + G_i^2))$ terms and R^2 values, according to eq. (65) and comparison of R_{ik} and $(F_i - R_{ik}F_k)$ parameters calculated directly according to eq. (68) with those obtained from the above F_i and $B_0^2(G_i^1 + G_i^2)$ terms, for ¹H-nuclei in complexes $[R_2(L^{15}-2H)_3]$ (R = Ce-Eu, CCl₄, 293 K, Buchler et al. (1992), Geraldes et al. (2003))^a

Compd		CH ₃₍₀₎	CH _{3(i)}	CH ₂₍₀₁₎	CH ₂₍₀₂₎	CH _{2(i)}	CH ₍₀₎	CH _(i)
$R = Ce - Eu^b$	F_i	-0.18	-0.75	0.31	0.02	0.03	0.08	-1.40
	$B_0^2(G_i^1 + G_i^2)$	0.10	1.18	0.13	0.08	0.02	0.71	2.50
	R^2	0.892	0.896	0.829	0.535	0.535	0.991	0.894
Compd			CH ₃₍₀₎ -CH _(i)		CH _{3(i)} -CH _(i)		CH ₂₍₀₁₎ -CH _(i)	
$R = Ce - Eu^b$	= Ce-Eu ^b $R_{ik}(exp)$ $(F_i - F_k R_{ik})(exp)$ R^2 $R_{ik}(calc)$ $(F_i - F_k R_{ik})(calc)$		-0.07		0.47		0.26	
			0.00		-0.08		-0.11	
			0.999		0.999		0.997	
			0.04		0.47		0.07	
			-0.12		-0.09		0.33	
	$R_{ik}(\text{calc})^{\mathrm{b}}$		-0.07		0.47		0.23	
Compd			CH ₂₍₀₂₎ -CH _(i)		CH _{2(i)} -CH _(i)		CH ₍₀₎ -CH _(i)	
$R = Ce - Eu^b$	$R_{ik}(\exp)$		0.10		0.03		0.26	
	$(F_i - F_k R_{ik})(\exp)$ R^2 $R_{ik}(\text{calc})$		-0.17		-0.09		0.69	
			0.974		0.793		0.944	
			0.03		0.00		0.28	
$(F_i - F_k R_{ik})(c)$		calc)	0.06		0.03		0.47	
	R_{ik} (calc) ^b		0.18	0.18 0.1		0.32		
			$k = CH_{2(i)}; l = CH_{(i)}$					
Compd	<i>i</i> :	$= CH_{(0)}$	$i = CH_{3(i)}$	i = 0	CH ₃₍₀₎	$i = CH_{2(o1)}$	i =	CH ₂₍₀₂₎
$R = Ce - Eu^b$	$\alpha(\exp)$ –	1.45	0.27	0	0.11	1.06		-0.25
	$\beta(\exp)$	1.19	0.31	-0	.13	-0.35		0.28
	R^2	0.499	0.706	0	.499	0.862		0.254

^aThe following numbering scheme is used: o = outer ring, i = inner ring, $CH_3 = methyl$, $CH_2 = methylene$ (labels 1 and 2 correspond to the different diastereotopic protons) and CH = methine.

^bValues for the first isostructural series (except Sm).

5. Application of the model-free methods to axial trimetallic lanthanide complexes with sterically rigid ligands

Axial symmetry in trimetallic lanthanide complexes requires the location of the metal ions along the molecular threefold or fourfold axes. Since the terminal coordination sites are different from the central coordination site for symmetry reasons, two different crystal-field parameters $B_0^{2^{\text{central}}}$ and $B_0^{2^{\text{central}}}$ must be considered. Equation (61) holds for the general case of three (n = 3) magnetically non-coupled lanthanide metal ions packed along the symmetry axis and eqs. (62)–(64) can be used for homotrimetallic axial complexes. To the best of our knowledge, only one partial study of the NMR data for a D_3 -symmetrical axial trimetallic complex has been reported (Bocquet et al., 2002; Floquet et al., 2003; see sect. 5.1.2). The D_{3h} -symmetrical complexes [$R_3(L^{16}-3H)_2(OH_2)_6$]³⁺ do not fit the requirements for axial symmetry since the metal ions are located on mirror planes and not on the threefold axis, but the authors have applied pseudo-axial symmetry for their mathematical treatment (Chapon et al., 2001; see sect. 5.1.1).

5.1. Complexes with threefold symmetry

5.1.1. $[R_3(L^{16}-3H)_2(OH_2)_6]^{3+}$ ($L^{16} = 1,3,5$ -triamino-1,3,5-tridesoxy-cis-inositol) The ligand 1,3,5-triamino-1,3,5-trideoxy-cis-inositol (L^{16}) reacts with R(III) in water to give quantitatively the D_{3h} -symmetrical trinuclear sandwich-type complexes $[R_3(L^{16}-3H)_2(OH_2)_6]^{3+}$ (Hedinger et al., 1998; fig. 62). Toth et al. (1998) have used the gadolinium complex $[Gd_3(L^{16}-3H)_2(OH_2)_6]^{3+}$ as a model for investigating polymetallic MRI contrast agents and the selective formation of heterometallic analogues with lower symmetries $[R_2R'(L_{16}-3H)_2(OH_2)_6]^{3+}$ (C_{2v} point group) and $[RR'R''(L^{16}-3H)_2(OH_2)_6]^{3+}$ (C_s point group) has been demonstrated by Chapon et al. (2002).

As far as NMR studies are concerned, 2D-EXSY spectra show that the complexes exhibit fast intramolecular rotation of the ligand with respect to the lanthanide ions on the NMR time scale, which corresponds to the rotations of the cyclohexane backbones about the threefold axis in the homotrimetallic complexes $[R_3(L^{16}-3H)_2(OH_2)_6]^{3+}$ (Chapon et al., 2002). Only two ¹H NMR signals are detected for protons H1 and H2, and plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j \text{ vs } C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (74)) and $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j \text{ vs } \langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (75)) for $[R_3(L^{16}-3H)_2(OH_2)_6]^{3+}$ (R = Pr-Yb except Pm and Gd) display linear correlations which have been assigned to isostructurality along the complete lanthanide series (Chapon et al., 2001; fig. 63),

$$\frac{\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}}{\langle S_z \rangle_j} = \sum_{m=1}^3 F_i^m + \left[\sum_{m=1}^3 \left(B_0^2 G_i^m + \sqrt{6} B_2^2 H_i^m \right) \right] \frac{C_j}{\langle S_z \rangle_j},\tag{74}$$

$$\frac{\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}}{C_j} = \sum_{m=1}^3 \left(B_0^2 G_i^m + \sqrt{6} B_2^2 H_i^m \right) + \left[\sum_{m=1}^3 F_i^m \right] \frac{\langle S_z \rangle_j}{C_j}.$$
(75)



Fig. 62. Schematic formation of the D_{3h} -symmetrical complexes $[R_3(L^{16}-3H)_2(OH_2)_6]^{3+}$ in water with numbering scheme. The representation of the complex corresponds to the crystal structure of $[Gd_3(L^{16}-3H)_2(H_2O)_6]Cl_3\cdot 3H_2O$, but the water molecules (two per R(III)) have been omitted for clarity (Hedinger et al., 1998).


Fig. 63. Plot of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (74)) for H1 in $[R_3(L^{16}-3H)_2(OH_2)_6]^{3+}$ (R = Pr-Yb, D₂O, 298 K, adapted from Chapon et al. (2001)).

Since in the crystal structure the metallic sites are not located on the threefold axis (but on mirror planes), the rhombic term $\sqrt{6}B_2^2H_i$ in eqs. (46), (48), (49) cannot be neglected and eqs. (74), (75) hold. However, it is worth noting that the $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $\delta_{kj}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ plot for H1–H2 in $[R_3(L^{16}-3H)_2(H_2O)_6]^{3+}$ (R = Pr-Yb except Pm and Gd) indeed gives a straight line which strongly suggest that the rotation of the cyclohexane backbone provides 'effective axial symmetry' in solution (Chapon, 2001; Briggs et al., 1972).

5.1.2. $[R_3(L^{17})_3]^{9+}$ $(L^{17} = 2,6-bis{\{1-ethyl-2-[6-(N,N'-diethylcarbamoyl)-pyridin-2-yl]}$ benzimidazol-5-methylene $\}-(2-ethyl-benzimidazol-5-yl)]pyridine$

Strict axial symmetry results from the alignment of the three lanthanide ions defining the threefold axis in the self-assembled D_3 -symmetrical triple-stranded helicates $[R_3(L^{17})_3]^{9+}$. Thermodynamic studies display the quantitative formation of the trimetallic helicates in acetonitrile at concentrations compatible with NMR measurements. Variable-temperature ¹H NMR spectra of $[R_3(L^{17})_3]^{9+}$ (R = La, Y, Lu, 233–343 K) show diastereotopic methylene protons, in line with the formation of the expected rigid D_3 -symmetrical structure on the NMR time scale (Bocquet et al., 2002; fig. 64). Paramagnetic spectra for R = Ce–Eu, Yb have been assigned with classical NOE and COSY techniques, but detailed assignments for R = Tb–Tm require more sophisticated relaxation measurements which have limited structural analyses to the paramagnetic light lanthanides (R = Ce–Tb, Floquet et al. (2003)).

Since (i) no magnetic coupling occurs at room temperature between the *R*(III) ions lying at distances larger than 4 Å and (ii) the tridentate binding units are separated by methylene bridges in L¹⁷ which are poor electronic relays, the contact contributions δ_{ij}^c result from through-bond *Fermi* interactions with a single metallic center and eq. (61) reduces to eq. (76) for $[R_3(L^{17})_3]^{9+}$ in which S_i is defined in eq. (77). Different crystal-field parameters for the central RN_9 ($B_0^{2^{\text{central}}}$) and the two terminal RN_6O_3 ($B_0^{2^{\text{terminal}}}$) metallic sites are required together with three geometrical factors $G_i^m = (3 \cos^2(\theta_i^m) - 1)/(r_i^m)^3$ defined in fig. 65 (m = 1, 2, 3). Equations (78), (79) correspond to the linear forms of eq. (76) used for testing



 $[R_3(L^{17})_3]^{9+}$

Fig. 64. Schematic formation of the D_3 -symmetrical complexes $[R_3(L^{17})_3]^{9+}$ in acetonitrile. The representation of the complex corresponds to the crystal structure of $[Eu_3(L^{17})_3](CF_3SO_3)_9(CH_3CN)_9(H_2O)_2$ (Bocquet et al., 2002).

isostructurality (Floquet et al., 2003),

$$\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}} = F_i \langle S_z \rangle_j + C_j S_i, \tag{76}$$

$$S_{i} = \left(B_{0}^{2^{\text{central}}}G_{i}^{1} + B_{0}^{2^{\text{terminal}}}\left(G_{i}^{2} + G_{i}^{3}\right)\right),\tag{77}$$

$$\frac{\delta_{ij}^{\text{prime}}}{\langle S_z \rangle_j} = F_i + S_i \frac{C_j}{\langle S_z \rangle_j},\tag{78}$$

$$\frac{\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}}{C_j} = S_i + F_i \frac{\langle S_z \rangle_j}{C_j}.$$
(79)

Plots of $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (78)) and $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (79)) are linear for all aromatic protons (H1–H11) and for the methyl groups (Me17–Me20) along the series R = Ce-Eu in agreement with the existence of an isostructural series (fig. 66). A first set of F_i and S_i factors obtained with eq. (76) has been used for predicting the ¹H NMR spectra of $[R_3(L^{17})_3]^{9+}$ for the strongly paramagnetic lanthanides (R = Tb-Yb). Comparison between predictions and experimental data is only satisfying for the first member of the second series $[\text{Tb}_3(L^{17})_3]^{9+}$, thus allowing a complete assignment for this complex and its consideration



Fig. 65. Axial coordinates considered in trimetallic axial lanthanide complexes (adapted from Floquet et al. (2003)).

Table 27 Computed values for contact (F_i) and pseudo-contact $S_i = (B_0^{2\text{ central}}G_i^1 + B_0^{2\text{ terminal}}(G_i^2 + G_i^3))$ terms and agreement factors (AF_i) for aromatic and methyl protons in complexes $[R_3(L^{17})_3]^{9+}$ (R = Ce-Tb, CD₃CN, 298 K, Floquet et al. (2003)). See fig. 64 for the atom-numbering scheme

	H1	H2	H3	H4	H5	H6	H7	H8
F_i	-0.18(3)	-0.42(6)	-0.10(1)	0.043(4)	0.45(7)	0.6(1)	0.031(3)	-0.26(3)
S_i	-0.08(1)	-0.03(2)	0.025(2)	0.095(1)	1.20(2)	1.20(3)	0.068(1)	0.05(1)
AF_i	0.23	0.12	0.07	0.02	0.04	0.05	0.02	0.05
	H9	H10	H11	Me17	Me18	Me19	Me20	
F_i	-0.28(5)	-0.07(4)	-0.16(3)	0.01(4)	-0.01(2)	-0.02(1)	0.11(2)	
S_i	-0.27(1)	-0.23(1)	-0.17(1)	-0.06(1)	-0.158(4)	-0.025(4)	0.470(5)	
AF_i	0.18	0.04	0.04	0.29	0.05	0.33	0.01	

for the calculations of the final set of F_i and S_i factors collected in table 27. For R = Dy-Yb, the experimental ¹H NMR spectra do not fit those predicted with eq. (76), which indicate a change of F_i and S_i near the middle of the lanthanide series. Detailed analyses using crystal-field independent equations related to eq. (51), but extended to trimetallic complexes, are currently in progress to detect possible changes of crystal-field parameters occurring near the middle of the series.

For R = Ce-Tb, the *Wilcott* agreement factors (eq. (57)) are acceptable for all aromatic protons (0.02 < AF_i < 0.23, table 27), but the large AF_i values observed for Me17 and Me19 result from minor paramagnetic shifts associated with negligible spin delocalization (F_i) and dipolar effects (S_i). The F_i values are negligible for protons separated from the



Fig. 66. Plots of (a) $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ vs $C_j/\langle S_z \rangle_j$ (eq. (78)) and (b) $\delta_{ij}^{\text{para}}/C_j$ vs $\langle S_z \rangle_j/C_j$ (eq. (79)) for H10 in $[R_3(L^{17})_3]^{9+}$ (R = Ce-Tb, CD₃CN, 298 K, adapted from Floquet et al. (2003)).

paramagnetic center by more than five bonds, thus justifying that the contact contribution can be limited to a single magnetic center in $[R_3(L^{17})_3]^{9+}$. Interestingly, F_i for the central pyridine protons H1 and H2 are larger than those found for the related protons of the terminal pyridine groups H9–H11 which strongly suggests improved spin delocalization onto the bis(benzimidazole)pyridine units. The structural factor S_i is difficult to interpret because it combines two crystal-field and three geometrical parameters. The maximum values found for H5 and H6 confirm the tight helical wrapping of the strands which forces them to point inside the triple helix and close to the metal ions (i.e., $(r_i^n)^{-3}$ are large). The larger values of S_i observed for H9–H11 compared with those obtained for the central pyridine (H1–H2) are responsible for the strong paramagnetic shift experienced by the terminal pyridine ring, but its eventual assignment to specific geometrical parameters requires the evaluation of the crystalfield parameters. Taking the crystal structure of $[Eu_3(L^{17})_3]^{9+}$ as a structural model for the solution structure, the geometrical factors G_i^m (m = 1, 2, 3) have been calculated and a multi-linear least-squares fit of S_i versus G_i^1 and $G_i^2 + G_i^3$ for the eleven aromatic protons H1–H11 gives $B_0^{2^{\text{central}}} = -48(3)$ and $B_0^{2^{\text{terminal}}} = -70(3)$. The quality of the linear correlation is satisfying leading to an agreement factor $AF_S = 0.06$ between calculated and experimental S_i factors which indicates that only minor structural changes occur between the solid-state and the solution structures in these rigid polymetallic helicates. We can now rationalize the origin of the larger values observed for S_{H9-H11} compared to S_{H1-H2} which results from a combination of (i) the larger crystal-field effects associated with the terminal sites $(|B_0^{2^{\text{terminal}}}| > |B_0^{2^{\text{central}}}|)$ and (ii) the larger compensation effect resulting from opposite paramagnetic contributions in the central metallic site (i.e., G_i^1 and $G_i^2 + G_i^3$ display opposite signs for all pyridine protons, but the absolute value of the ratios $|B_0^{2^{\text{central}}}G_i^1/B_0^{2^{\text{terminal}}}(G_i^2 + G_i^3)| = 1.7-1.8$ are smaller for H1–H2 than $|B_0^{2^{\text{terminal}}}(G_i^2 + G_i^3)/B_0^{2^{\text{central}}}G_i^1| = 5.8-6.9$ for H9–H11). We conclude from the analysis of NMR data that the triple-stranded helical structure is maintained in solution for R = La to Lu and that isostructurality characterizes the first part of the lanthanide series (R = Ce-Tb). However, an abrupt change of the crystal-field parameters near the middle of the lanthanide series prevents the analysis of strongly paramagnetic complexes (R = Dy-Yb) with the one-nucleus technique (eq. (76), Floquet et al. (2003)).

6. Conclusions

This survey of the applications of the model-free methods to axial lanthanide complexes with semi-rigid multidentate chelates demonstrates that any behaviour may occur along the lanthanide series. Structural changes are usually observed for flexible complexes in which dynamic motions produce significant distortions whose magnitude is controlled by the strength of the *R*-ligand interactions $([R(L^3)_3]^{3+}, [R(L^7-2H)_3]^{3-})$. On the other hand, the considerable rigidity imposed by podand ($[R(L^4)_3]^{3+}$), non-covalent podand $[RM(L^5)_3]^{5/6+}$ or macrobicyclic ($[R(L^6)_3]^{3+}$) ligands ensures well-defined coordination sites and isostructurality along the complete lanthanide series. Surprisingly, the branched macrocyclic complexes $[R(L^{10}-4H)]^{-}$, $[R(L^{11})]^{3+}$ and $[R(L^{12}-8H)]^{5-}$ are rigid enough to display different conformational isomers existing as non-interconverting species on the NMR time scale, but they adapt their cavity to the lanthanide contraction to such an extent that minor but significant variations of the F_i and R_{ik} parameters are systematically detected near the middle of the series. However, the most striking observations concern the rather systematic detection of concomitant changes in the crystal-field parameter B_0^2 and hyperfine constants (A_i) near the middle of the lanthanide series for rigid, semi-rigid and flexible complexes. At first sight, such break could be traced back to the failure of Bleaney's approach for modeling magnetic anisotropies. Although one cannot exclude that some specific amplifications of minor structural changes result from the larger C_j factors in the second part of the lanthanide series, the parallel variations of B_q^k observed by eletronic spectroscopy in the solid state and the good correlations obtained between the C_i factors and the experimental anisotropic parts of the susceptibility magnetic tensors $(\chi_{zz}^{j} - (1/3) \operatorname{Tr} \chi^{j})$ for axial complexes, strongly support the view that Bleaney's approach (i.e., a series limited to T^{-2}) is a satisfying approximation. It remains that the multidentate ligands considered in this review often provide large crystalfield splittings which probably do not satisfy the high-temperature hypothesis $\Delta E_{CF}/kT < 1$. To the best of our knowledge, no attempt has been made to introduce the next T^{-3} term for the treatment of paramagnetic NMR data, despite the solid theoretical background proposed by McGarvey (1979). Further experimental justifications of the use of the limited hightemperature expansion for the magnetic susceptibility tensor is now required, but the recent successful applications of crystal-field independent techniques (eqs. (51), (53), (68)) in axial complexes bring some support to the classical model-free approach (i.e., limited to T^{-2}) because the removal of the crystal-field parameter is only justified within Bleaney's approach. We are convinced that further extensions toward rhombic systems and supramolecular polymetallic complexes are within reach and recent applications to bi- and trimetallic systems

open fascinating perspectives for the design of lanthanide-containing paramagnetic probes with tuneable anisotropies.

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Chapter 216

LANTHANIDE AND ACTINIDE SOLUTION CHEMISTRY AS STUDIED BY TIME-RESOLVED EMISSION SPECTROSCOPY

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List of symbols

<i>I</i> , <i>I</i> ₀	luminescence intensity	NEA	Nuclear Energy Agency
	at time <i>t</i>		and ML
$[M^{*}](t)$	concentration of the excited state M*	$k_{\rm M}, k_{\rm ML}$	experimental lifetimes of species M
Q, Q_0	luminescence quantum yield	K, K_{app}	equilibrium constants
	diative process	ε	dielectric constant
$k_{\rm rad}, k_{\rm nrad}$	decay rate of the radiative and non ra-	η	viscosity
	vent is indicated as a superscript	Т	temperature
	cent probe. When necessary, the sol-	kB	Boltzmann constant
$k_{\rm obs}, k_{\rm obs}^{\rm H_2O}, k_{\rm obs}^{\rm D_2O}$	experimental decay rate of a lumines-		tion
	vent is indicated as a superscript		contribution and activation contribu-
	cent probe. When necessary, the sol-	$k_{\rm SV}, k_{\rm diff}, k_{\rm act}$	Stern-Volmer reaction rate, diffusion
$\tau_{\rm obs}, \tau_{\rm obs}^{\rm H_2O}, \tau_{\rm obs}^{\rm D_2O}$	experimental lifetimes of a lumines-	$N_{\rm H_2O}$	hydration number

1. Introduction

Time-Resolved Emission Spectroscopy (TRES) is being increasingly used for the study of various chemical aspects of lanthanides and actinides in solution. These studies are related to deactivation mechanisms, luminescence enhancement, determination of equilibrium reaction rate constants, hydration numbers and analytical aspects such as the detection of trace amounts of species. In the case of actinides, the studies mainly deal with problems related to questions of nuclear fuel reprocessing and waste disposals. In this frame, some lanthanides, especially europium, are also studied as some of them are considered as good analogues of actinides. On the other hand, uranyl photophysics in solution has long been studied on more fundamental grounds. These include kinetic aspects of the Stern–Volmer type and non-radiative deactivation mechanisms. As a whole, lanthanide and actinide luminescence in solution as studied by TRES is of interest to a large community of scientists for both fundamental and applied aspects.

This chapter deals with experimental TRES results and theoretical approaches that are relevant to the question of lanthanides and actinides solution chemistry. In this sense, this chapter does not intend to present a comprehensive bibliography but details publications that are of interest either from a theoretical or an experimental viewpoint. Publications dealing with solids will not be reviewed, except in few cases where such studies are of great interest for the general topics of this chapter.

In principle, the luminescent species relevant to this work are:

Lanthanides: Ce(III), Nd(III), Sm(III), Eu(II), Eu(III), Gd(III), Tb(III), Dy(III), Ho(III), Er(III), Yb(III).

Actinides: U(VI), Np(VI), Am(III), Cm(III), Bk(III), Cf(III), Es(III).

However, for many of these species, some peculiarities strongly limit the number of published data. From the actinide list above, Np(VI) luminescence has been observed and characterized only in solid matrix (Dewey and Hopkins, 2000). Bk, Cf and Es are hardly available in large quantities and few papers have appeared on Am(III), due to its very short luminescence lifetime, so that in practice, actinide luminescence studies are more or less restricted to U(VI) and Cm(III). Similarly, the extensive lanthanide list above is restricted mostly to Eu(III), Gd(III) and Tb(III), with fewer papers devoted to the other lanthanides. Note that Eu(II), although luminescent, is not stable in solution under "normal" conditions which limits the number of studies. As a consequence, this chapter reflects the tendencies described above by presenting examples mostly from Eu(III), Gd(III), Tb(III) and from U(VI) and Cm(III) studies. In solution, these ions are solvated so that either the subscript "aq" or "solv" will be used, depending on the solvent of interest.

Finally, it is understood that the reader is aware of the basic principles of solution chemistry of lanthanides and actinides. Besides all the information published in the previous issues of this Handbook for lanthanides, excellent reviews exist on these topics, either on a general (Katz et al., 1986; Bünzli and Choppin, 1989; Grenthe, 1992; Choppin, 1997; Bünzli, 1998) or an historical perspective (Morss and Fuger, 1992).

2. Basic principles of Time-Resolved Emission Spectroscopy (TRES)

2.1. Physical basis

For the general notions required, the reader is referred to a comprehensive publication (Birks, 1970). The brief presentation in this section aims only at setting basic principles.

Once a species, M, has absorbed a photon of energy hv, an excited state is created, M^{*}. Deactivation back to the ground state occurs through multiple steps, including very fast non-radiative processes that schematically correspond to energy transfers to the solvent. Radiative deactivation may also occur, leading to the emission of a photon of energy hv'. Due to the non-radiative processes, hv' < hv (Stokes shift). The emission spectrum is composed of bands, that are characteristics of the species.

Besides the emission spectrum, the lifetime of the excited state is an important feature. Many organic fluorescent molecules display "very short" lifetimes, in the pico- to nanosecond range, while the species of interest in this chapter (except Am(III) and Eu(II)) have rather "long" lifetimes, in the micro- to millisecond range. This lifetime value results from the combination of the two types of processes evoked above (radiative and non-radiative), together

with the selection rules prevailing (e.g., "forbidden" transitions). This is described through eq. (1):

$$\tau_{\rm obs}^{-1} = k_{\rm obs} = k_{\rm rad} + k_{\rm nrad},\tag{1}$$

where τ_{obs} is the lifetime of the excited state, k_{obs} the global deactivation rate. The term k_{rad} in eq. (1) corresponds to an intrinsic phenomenon which is due to the electronic configuration, while the term k_{nrad} stands for non-radiative deactivation processes, which depend on many factors, such as temperature, solvent etc. This aspect will be detailed in sect. 3. In the following, either τ or k values will be used. The fluorescent quantum yield, Q, is defined as:

$$Q = \frac{k_{\rm rad}}{k_{\rm rad} + k_{\rm nrad}}.$$
 (2a)

From eqs. (1), (2a) one easily derives the following equations that are of practical use:

$$k_{\rm nrad} = \frac{k_{\rm rad}(1-Q)}{Q}, \quad k_{\rm rad} = Qk_{\rm obs}.$$
 (2b)

In practice, it is very difficult to measure an *absolute* fluorescent quantum yield and experimentalists usually limit themselves to measure the *relative* fluorescence yields.

Turning to the basic kinetic aspects of the deactivation process, the equation describing the time-dependence of the excited species population, noted $M^*(t)$, is:

$$\frac{d[M^*](t)}{dt} = -(k_{\rm rad} + k_{\rm nrad})[M^*](t),$$
(3)

from which one readily derives:

$$[\mathbf{M}^*](t) = [\mathbf{M}^*](0) \exp[-(k_{\text{rad}} + k_{\text{nrad}})t],$$
(4)

where $[M^*](0)$ is the amount of excited state at time zero. The time dependence of $[M^*](t)$ is a decaying exponential and $k_{obs} = (k_{rad} + k_{nrad})$ is the decay rate of the excited state. However, the experimentalist has not directly access to $[M^*](t)$ but only to the photons emitted by M^* . The time dependence of the measured signal is therefore:

$$S(t) = \frac{\mathrm{d}h\nu'}{\mathrm{d}t} = k_{\mathrm{rad}}[\mathrm{M}^*](t).$$
(5)

This signal is also an exponential of rate k_{obs} but the instantaneous amount of photons collected by the detector is related to k_{rad} , not to $(k_{rad} + k_{nrad})$. The global fluorescence intensity of M*, defined as the integral of all photons emitted is equal to:

$$I = \int_0^\infty \frac{dhv'}{dt} dt = \frac{k_{\rm rad}}{(k_{\rm rad} + k_{\rm nrad})} [M^*](0) = Q[M^*](0).$$
(6)

The measured intensity is a function of the total number of excited species created by the excitation pulse and of the luminescence quantum yield, Q. In other words, for a given lifetime, the Q value determines the ease of detection of a given species. The notion of radiative vs. non radiative pathways is in fact very important as will be detailed below (sects. 3–5).

In conclusion of this very brief description, the signature of an excited species in a given solution is composed of the emission spectrum and the lifetime value. This corresponds to 3D experimental data (intensity, wavelength, time) as is schematically depicted in fig. 1.

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Fig. 1. Schematic view of the 3D experimental data collected in Time-Resolved Emission Spectroscopy.

2.2. Experimental

Most of the time-resolved emission spectroscopy setups are "home made" in the sense that they are built from individual devices (laser, detection system, ...) hence they are not of a "plug and press" type, so that their exact characteristics may vary from one installation to the other. Some of these differences have no impact on the overall capabilities of the system but some have a drastic influence on the way the collected data are processed and analysed. This aspect will be detailed in the next section, while this section deals with a general description of the apparatus. The most basic type of apparatus will be described, with no reference to sophisticated techniques such as Time Correlated Single Photon Counting or Circularly Polarized Luminescence devices.

The excitation is performed by use of a pulsed laser delivering an appropriate wavelength. Due to the intense beam delivered, care should be taken to avoid multiple photon absorption and filter effects, due to a too large absorption of light. For lanthanide ions, as their absorption spectra are composed of rather narrow bands, an exact match between the laser wavelength and the absorption band is requested, so that a dye (liquid) or OPO (solid) laser is needed (for a complete set of absorption spectra of the lanthanides, see Carnall (1979)). For lanthanide complexes the absorption spectra partially overlap with those of the free ions, so that usually the same excitation wavelength can be used to induce the fluorescence of both species. Fine tuning across the excitation spectra is possible (Wu and Horrocks, 1996). In this sense, Cm(III) is very similar to Eu(III). The particular case of excitation through energy transfer (antenna effect) will be discussed in sect. 5. In the case of the uranyl ion, the absorption spectrum is rather broad, so the third (355 nm) or fourth (266 nm) harmonic of a Nd:YAG laser can be used. The emission at 337 nm from a N_2 laser is also possible. For all these lasers, the duration of the pulse is of the order of a few nanoseconds, which is three or more orders of magnitude below the lifetime of the fluorescent probe under study. Therefore, the excitation process can be considered as instantaneous. The liquid sample, in a quartz cuvette, is kept in a thermoregulated chamber. The luminescence is emitted isotropically and its intensity is small

as compared to the laser excitation pulse. Therefore, detection should be performed at right angle with respect to the laser beam direction, in order to avoid detector saturation.

Schematically, two main systems can be used to collect 3D fluorescence data (time, wavelength, number of photons, see fig. 1). In a first type of system, light is directed into a monochromator connected to a photomultiplier tube and then to a fast oscilloscope (PM detection). The experimentalist thus collects luminescence decays at various wavelengths. This system is known to be very efficient for luminescence decay acquisition but is very time-consuming for the acquisition of emission spectra. In the second type of system, light is directed to a diode array detector (or CCD camera) and a subsequent electronic detection device (diode detection). The experimentalist collects emission spectra at various delay times (time zero for the pulse entering in the sample). This system is very efficient for emission data acquisition but, on the other hand, time-consuming for luminescence decay acquisitions. From this very schematic description, it appears that a system combining the two types of detections would be the optimum.

Finally, it has to be noted that whatever the detection chain used, the overall efficiency of the system is rarely constant over the whole acquisition range. The wavelength-dependent efficiency is not always taken into account in the published data. This has *a priori* no effect on the lifetime values but renders difficult any comparison of emission spectra from one laboratory to another. Certified data are increasingly needed and requested by institutions, customers and the public. In the future more attention should be paid to corrected spectra, controlled data etc, even in basic research.

2.3. Data analysis

In principle, emission spectra are easy to characterize through the position of the maxima. In contrast, luminescence decay analysis is not straightforward. As will be detailed later in this chapter, luminescence decays may be either mono- or multi-exponential and the determination of their exact nature is of paramount importance (see sect. 5). In the case of diode detection systems, the "physical" signal, as provided by the sample, is modified by the detection chain. In particular, it is integrated over short time delays, so that the ability of computer programs to extract lifetime values from such data set depends on the choice of these time delays and on the way they cover the time range of interest. Other difficulties may arise from the chemical nature of the sample: In some cases, the luminescence decay should be multiexponential, because of the phenomena involved in the solution under study, but the decay seems monoexponential, because some of the luminescent species emit with a very low intensity, as compared to the others. Another possible intricate situation is when the lifetime values are close to one another. A complete description of the difficulties possibly encountered is out of the scope of this chapter and the reader is referred to a specific publication on this question (Sharman et al., 1999). Other methods for multiexponential decay analysis are summarized in Bare et al. (2002). Furthermore, a recent round-robin test performed on aqueous solutions of U(VI) evidenced that, at least for the programs tested, improvements are required when more than two components are observed, in decays or emission spectra (Billard et al., 2003a). In this context, mathematical methods such as chemometrics (Adams, 1995) or global analysis (Janssens et al., 1990) or mixed methods (Al-Soufi et al., 2001) appear to be very promising in the field.

3. Physico-chemical modifications of the solution: Influence on the spectroscopic parameters

3.1. Introduction

In this section, experimental data on the spectroscopic changes observed upon modifications of the medium surrounding the luminescent probe will be first presented. These changes do *not* include inner-sphere complexation of the probe itself, a topic examined in detail in sect. 5. However, the term "luminescent probe" may refer to a complex, for which the lifetime changes induced by modifications of the surrounding medium are investigated. The various models and empirical approaches that have been used to interpret the data will then be presented and discussed.

3.2. Changes of solvent: Experimental data

The lifetime values of the luminescent probe in various solvents (either as a solvated ion or in a complexed form) are taken from the literature. However, considering the numerous publications available on lanthanide organic complexes (mostly of Eu(III)) that have been studied in water and in D_2O or some other solvents, it is out of the scope of this work to cite them all. Only some studies, which lead to very general conclusions of interest for the discussions below, are presented. In some cases, experiments have been performed in mixtures of two solvents, in various proportions. When specified in the publications, the decays are said to be strictly monoexponential.

For the aqueous or solvated Eu(III) ion, tremendous variations of the lifetime are observed by changing the solvent as well as by using a deuterated analog of a given solvent. Some lifetime values are displayed in table 1. Similarly, strong modifications of the Eu³⁺_{solv} lifetime are observed in mixtures such as H₂O/CH₃COCH₃, H₂O/acetonitrile, H₂O/dioxane (Tanaka et al., 1988), H₂O/D₂O (Haas and Stein, 1971b), H₂O/DMF, H₂O/DMSO (Lis and Choppin, 1991) as a function of the water content. In H₂O/ethanol mixtures, modifications of both the lifetime and the emission spectrum are observed when EuCl₃ is used, while no modifications of the emission spectra are detected for Eu(ClO₄)₃ (Lochhead et al., 1994). Such modifications of the lifetime when passing from water to another solvent are also observed for the other solvated lanthanide ions (Carnall, 1979; Bünzli and Choppin, 1989; Kimura et al., 2001b). Some recent results are displayed in table 2. In the case of R(III) complexes, a strong influence of deuteration or solvent changes are observed (Bryden and Reilley, 1982; De Sa et al., 1993; Klink et al., 2000; Schuurmans and Lagendijk, 2000). Actually, in the case of Eu(III) complexes, it happens that the lifetime in D₂O is always larger than the lifetime in H₂O.¹ In some cases, modifications of the emission spectra are also observed.

¹ In the paper by Balzani and Sabbatini (1986), table 3, the larger lifetime in H_2O as compared to D_2O is a typing error.

Solvent	τ (μs)	Ref.
H ₂ O	110	а
D ₂ O	3600 or 4100	a or d
CH ₃ OH	267 or 230	a or c
CH ₃ OD	1408	а
CD ₃ OD	4100	с
CH ₃ CN	191 ^a or 775 or 210	a or b or d
CD ₃ CN	1400	b
Dioxane	159	а
Dimethylformamide (DMF)	1567 or 1700	a or c
DMF-d7	2300	с
(CH ₃) ₂ SO	1500 or 1700	b or c
$(CD_3)_2SO$	2850 or 3200	b or c
CH ₃ COCH ₃	182	а

Table 1 Lifetime values of Eu³⁺ solv in various solvents

^aPresence of crystallised water.

References

(a) Tanaka et al. (1988)

(b) Haas and Stein (1971a)

(c) Kimura et al. (2001b) (d) Bünzli and Choppin (1989)

Experimental conditions

(a) T = 25 °C, hydrated EuCl₃ salt in D₂O or H₂O, Eu(ClO₄)₃ in CH₃CN and CD₃CN, [Eu³⁺] = 10⁻² M; (b) room temperature, perchlorate salt, $[Eu^{3+}]$ from 0.01 to 0.05 M; (c) T = 25 °C, perchlorate salt, $[Eu^{3+}] = 10^{-2}$ M; (d) room temperature, perchlorate salt, $[Eu^{3+}] < 0.1$ M.

Table 2

Experimental lifetimes (µs) of some lanthanide ions in various solvents (from Kimura et al. (2001b)). Experimental conditions: $T = 25 \,^{\circ}$ C, perchlorate salt, [R(III)] = 10^{-2} M. Theoretical radiative lifetimes (τ_{rad} , in µs) from Carnall (1979)

	H ₂ O	D ₂ O	MeOH	MeOD- d_4	DMF	DMF-d7	DMSO	DMSO- d_6	$\tau_{\rm rad}$
Nd	0.032	0.17	0.054	0.40	0.49	2.0	2.0	12	420
Sm	2.7	64	4.6	93	20	250	22	610	6260
Tb	430	4100	890	5200	1900	2000	2800	3200	9020
Dy	2.5	43	3.6	69	14	170	12	330	1850

Table 3 Lifetime of solvated Cm³⁺ in various solvents. From Kimura et al. (2001b)

Solvent	τ (μs)
H ₂ O	60
D_2O	1200
MeOH	190
MeOD- d_4	800
DMF	420
DMF-d7	770
DMSO	870
DMSO-d ₆	1100



Fig. 2. Variations of k_{obs} (μs^{-1}) for Cm(III) as a function of X_s , the mole fraction of the solvent in water. (•) methanol/water. (•) DMF/water. (•) DMSO/water. Redrawn from Kimura et al. (2001b).

Fewer papers have appeared for U(VI). In the case of the solvated ion, the solvent effect onto the lifetime is not drastic, with a factor of roughly two between H₂O and D₂O (Allsopp et al., 1979). For uranyl complexes in various solvents, see Yayamura et al. (1994). For Cm(III) and Am(III), the bibliography is somewhat scarce (Beitz, 1991; Kimura and Choppin, 1994; Kimura et al., 2001b). In the case of Cm³⁺_{solv}, see table 3 for some recent values.

In general, the variations of $k_{obs} = \tau_{obs}^{-1}$ are not a linear function of the molar fraction of one of the solvents in the mixture, whatever the ion studied. Typical curves are displayed in fig. 2 for curium, considered as a typical example, also representative of Eu(III). From the wealth of data measured so far, it appears that linear variations of k_{obs} are obtained only in the case of H₂O/D₂O mixtures, whatever the luminescent ions. In particular, in the case of H₂O/DMF or H₂O/DMSO mixtures, a linearity is obtained for τ_{obs} , not for k_{obs} , up to 5 mol% (Lis and Choppin, 1991).

3.3. Addition of supporting electrolytes: Experimental data

In this section, lifetime values (and in few cases, data on emission spectra) are collected for a luminescent probe in a given solvent, to which variable amounts of supporting electrolytes have been added. To the best of our knowledge, such experiments have been performed only for aquo ions (never for complexes), in H_2O or D_2O , but in two cases. Although the term "supporting electrolyte" implies no chemical reactivity towards the probe, results involving chloride based electrolytes, for which a complexation process is sometimes evoked in the case of lanthanides, are also presented in this section. When discussed at all in the literature, decay spectra are said to be monoexponential.

In the case of lanthanides, all authors agree that the addition of perchlorate salts (NaClO₄, LiClO₄ or HClO₄) leads to a lifetime decrease for Sm³⁺, Eu³⁺, Tb³⁺ or Dy³⁺ in H₂O (Breen and Horrocks, 1983; Lis and Choppin, 1992; Kimura and Kato, 1998; Nehlig et al., 2003). In D₂O, the Eu(III) lifetime in presence of perchlorate based electrolytes decreases from roughly 4 ms (0.01 M) to 2.7 ms (above 8 M) (Lis and Choppin, 1992). The situation is more controversial in the case of chloride salts. According to some authors, the Eu(III) lifetime slightly decreases in H₂O solutions by addition of NaCl, LiCl or HCl (Lis and Choppin, 1992; Nehlig et al., 2003; Arisaka et al., 2002), while other authors observed no variation for

 Eu^{3+} and Tb^{3+} and a very slight increase for Sm^{3+} or Dy^{3+} (Tanaka and Yamashita, 1984; Kimura and Kato, 1998). An effect of the cation associated to the chloride ion has been observed, as lifetime increases for increasing amounts of CsCl (Nehlig et al., 2003) while it decreases with LiCl in H₂O solutions (Nehlig et al., 2003; Arisaka et al., 2002). Spectral modifications (excitation and emission) parallel these lifetime changes in the few publications where these spectroscopic parameters have been measured (Breen and Horrocks, 1983; Nehlig et al., 2003). Finally, we note two publications where the effects of chloride based electrolytes have been examined in a H₂O/CH₃OH mixture for Eu³⁺ (Arisaka et al., 2001, 2002).

In the case of U(VI) in H₂O, drastic lifetime changes are observed in the case of perchlorate based electrolytes (NaClO₄, HClO₄ and mixtures of both), that have been experimentally studied in detail (Bouby et al., 1999; Rustenholtz et al., 2001). For example, the UO₂²⁺ lifetime increases from $\approx 2 \,\mu s$ ([HClO₄] = 10⁻² M) to 90 μs ([HClO₄] = 10 M). Similarly to the europium case, an effect of the electrolyte cation has been observed: HClO₄ induces a lifetime increase, while NaClO₄ leads to a lifetime decrease. Furthermore, the effect of a given amount of NaClO₄ depends on the amount of HClO₄. In such experiments, no spectral shift is observed. To our knowledge, no such experiments are available for Am³⁺ or Cm³⁺, apart from one study for the system Cm³⁺_{aq}/LiCl (Arisaka et al., 2002). Note however that chloride ions are known to form inner-sphere complexes with Cm³⁺ and Am³⁺ (Allen et al., 2000) so that chloride based salts cannot be considered as supporting electrolytes in this case.

3.4. Temperature changes: Experimental data

Surprisingly, studies devoted to temperature effects (in the liquid range) as such are very limited.

Interesting results were obtained on the temperature dependence of the lifetime of an Eu(III) amino-diphosphonate complex, in H_2O and D_2O (Holz et al., 1990b). In both solvents, the lifetime decreases as temperature increases and this was ascribed to an additional (photoinduced) deexcitation pathway due to some ligand energy levels.

In the case of uranyl, most of the available studies have been performed using rather high concentrations of nitrate salts of U(VI) (e.g., 0.2 M in Allsopp et al. (1979)) for which temperature-dependent complexation occurs (Grenthe, 1992). In addition, NO_3^- is liable to complex radiolysis reactions that are also temperature-dependent (Mack and Bolton, 1999) so that the results of such studies may be an intricate combination of various temperature effects on the solvated UO_2^{2+} ion. Only one recent study has been performed with U(VI) using perchlorate salts, in sufficiently acidic solution (by use of HClO₄) so that no anion complexation occurs. Thus, the results appear strictly ascribable to temperature effects onto UO_2^{2+} (Eliet et al., 1995). The lifetime changes follow a typical Arrhenius plot in the range 288–333 K, with an activation energy of (43.5 ± 1.8) kJ mol⁻¹, independent of the total HClO₄ concentration. A very interesting feature of the decays is their non-exponential behavior at 288 K. Unfortunately, such studies have not been further detailed and the overall conclusions are rather limited, especially with respect to the emission spectra.

3.5. General comments on the experimental data

From the wealth of data outlined in the above sections, it can be seen that the lifetime is very sensitive to many physico-chemical changes in the surrounding medium of the luminescent probe (that should not lead to inner-sphere complexation, treated apart, see sect. 5), while the emission spectra are more or less not affected. Considering the brief theoretical approach of sect. 2.1, such changes are most probably only ascribable to changes in the k_{nrad} term of eq. (1), which substantiates the absence of significant changes in the emission spectra.

It is therefore tempting to search for a relationship linking the observed decay rate, k_{obs} , to one basic physico-chemical parameter that is varied in a given experimental series. If possible, in order to be "user-friendly", such a relationship should be as simple as possible, i.e., linear. Unfortunately, such an approach, to our opinion, is most of the time hopeless and may be misleading in certain cases. The nature of the effects observed will hamper any establishment of such a relationship, as the problem is obviously multiparametric in nature. Actually, changing the solvent or adding supporting electrolytes leads to modifications of many (if not all) physico-chemical properties of the medium, such as viscosity, density, dielectric constant, refractive index, conductivity, ion mobility, etc. However, usually one focusses on only one of these parameters will most likely lead to smooth or even linear variations, that may have no physical meaning, however. None of these parameters can be considered as the only "good" parameter and the joint variation of any physico-chemical parameter of any real physical correlation.

We would like, however, to moderate the pessimistic view that has been developed above by noting that actually, one-to-one correlations *are* experimentally obtained and that a first approach to the problem, by seeking for linear correlations, is a necessary step towards the comprehensive understanding of the multiparametric phenomena involved.

In the following, interpretation of the experimental variations detailed in sects. 3.2 and 3.3 are presented and discussed.

3.6. First interpretation: Solvent effects onto the first hydration sphere

This interpretation has been first proposed in the mid 1960s by three groups of authors and since that time has been modified and extended in several steps that will be presented in a chronological order.

3.6.1. Initial model: Solvated Eu^{3+} (or other lanthanide ions) in various solvents

Depending on the group of authors, such an interpretation is strictly limited to the lifetime variations of solvated lanthanides $(Sm^{3+}{}_{solv}, Eu^{3+}{}_{solv}, Tb^{3+}{}_{solv}$ and $Dy^{3+}{}_{solv})$ in D₂O/H₂O mixtures (Heller, 1966) or in other mixed solvents (Haas and Stein, 1971a, 1971b). For the latter, in addition to studies of ions such as $Eu^{3+}{}_{solv}$ and $Gd^{3+}{}_{solv}$ (Kropp and Windsor, 1965), attempts have been made to also include the case of europium complexes with sulfate or acetate (Kropp and Windsor, 1967) and this will be quoted in sect. 3.6.2. Two groups developed very similar reasonings (Kropp and Windsor, 1965; Haas and Stein, 1971a, 1971b).

In D₂O/H₂O mixtures (Heller, 1966), the k_{obs} variations are ascribed to changes in the deactivation processes induced by OH and OD vibrations, which in turn leads to a decomposition of the expression of k_{nrad} (see eq. (2)) in a sum of terms:

$$Q = \frac{k_{\text{rad}}}{k_{\text{rad}} + k_{\text{nrad}}} = \frac{k_{\text{rad}}}{k_{\text{rad}} + k_{\text{H}}[\text{H}]^n + k_{\text{D}}[\text{D}]^m + \sum k_i[\text{Q}_i]},\tag{7}$$

where $k_{\rm H}$ and $k_{\rm D}$ correspond to the contributions of H and D atoms to the overall value of $k_{\rm nrad}$, respectively; [H]ⁿ and [D]^m are the concentrations of these atoms with empirical powers and the last term takes into account the effect of other quenching species Q_i , if present (e.g., impurities). Such an approach will be also used for the Stern–Volmer equation, see sect. 4.1.1. This equation is purely phenomenological, since it does not assume any particular quenching mechanism. Assuming that $\sum k_i [Q_i]$ is negligible and denoting Q_0 the fluorescence quantum yield in a solution of D_2O , one obtains readily:

$$\frac{Q_0}{Q} = 1 + \frac{k_{\rm H}}{k_{\rm rad} + k_{\rm D}[{\rm D}]^m} [{\rm H}]^n.$$
(8)

In this publication (Heller, 1966), the author measured the luminescence intensity ratio, denoted by I_0/I , which is proportional to Q_0/Q (cf. eq. (6) and sect. 2.1). For the experiments described, the I_0/I plot as a function of the H₂O concentration is linear in the very narrow range investigated (up to 8% of H₂O). On this basis, the author concluded that n = 1 and m = 0 in eq. (8). From the value n = 1, it is then deduced that "the radiationless relaxations studied involve only a single hydrogen atom", which "leaves the OH bond as the only acceptable species". Other species, like H₂O, HDO, H₂O·nD₂O and other aggregates are therefore not taken into consideration.

The other group of publications corresponds to a two-step reasoning which is summarised as follows. In the first step, the authors studied various pure solvents, such as H₂O, D₂O, CH₃CN, CH₃OH (Haas and Stein, 1971a; Kropp and Windsor, 1965). Using perchlorate salts of europium(III), the authors obtained the value k_{nrad} for various solvents by use of eq. (2b). From the values obtained, the authors divide the solvents into three groups, according to their quenching efficiencies, which are tentatively related to their chemical formula. In the second step, the authors restrict their study to the case of Eu(ClO₄)₃ in CH₃CN, in which variable amounts of water are added (Haas and Stein, 1971b). The quantum yield of such solutions depends on the water concentration and is written as:

$$Q = \frac{k_{\rm rad}}{k_{\rm rad} + k_{\rm Hrad} + k_{\rm H}[{\rm H_2O}]}.$$
(9)

In this equation, it is assumed that the effect of the added water can be simply described through the term $k_{\rm H}[{\rm H_2O}]$, where $k_{\rm H}$ is the bimolecular rate of deactivation of excited europium through OH bonds and $[{\rm H_2O}]$ is the water concentration. Again, Q and $k_{\rm rad}$ are experimentally measured so that:

$$\frac{k_{\rm rad}}{Q} - k_{\rm rad} = k_{\rm nrad} + k_{\rm H}[{\rm H}_2{\rm O}].$$
⁽¹⁰⁾



Fig. 3. Variations of $k_{obs}^{H_2O}$ (ms⁻¹) for some Eu(III) solid compounds as a function of the number of water molecules in the first coordination sphere (X-ray measurements). Solid line: linear regression for the data. Redrawn from Horrocks and Sudnick (1983).

The experimental parameter $[k_{rad}/Q] - k_{rad}$ is not a linear function of the water content in the whole range of concentration so that the authors restricted the fit to the narrow range for which a linear plot is obtained, assuming that k_{nrad} is independent of the water content. The derived value² is $k_{\rm H} = 1100 \,{\rm M}^{-1} \,{\rm s}^{-1}$ (Haas and Stein, 1971b). This value is then related to the global quenching ability of water towards Eu(III), as determined in the first step. Assuming that the deactivation mechanism quantified in the first step can be only ascribed to the water molecules in the first hydration sphere, the average hydration number of Eu(III) in pure water is thus equal to 9, which is in good agreement with the values obtained by other techniques.

3.6.2. First extension: Lanthanide and curium complexes in solution

Since the 1980s, the concepts of the previous studies have been extended on the basis of a detailed experimental work (Horrocks and Sudnick, 1983). Note however that such an extension was clearly envisioned in a former paper (Kropp and Windsor, 1967).

First, various solid state compounds of Eu(III) and Tb(III) have been synthesized with a known number of coordinated water molecules in the first hydration sphere. X-ray diffraction experiments lead to the characterization of the structure of each compound. The decay rates of these solids, $k_{obs}^{H_2O}$, have been measured and plotted as a function of the number of water molecules in the first hydration sphere (see fig. 3). As can be seen from fig. 3, the $k_{obs}^{H_2O}$ values are a linear function of the number of water molecules in the first hydration sphere (see fig. 3).

As can be seen from fig. 3, the $k_{obs}^{H_2O}$ values are a linear function of the number of water molecules, up to 9, to a good approximation. Thus, on the basis of the publications discussed in sect. 3.6.1, Horrocks and co-workers derive:

$$k_{\rm obs}^{\rm H_2O} = k_{\rm rad} + k_{\rm nrad} + N_{\rm H_2O}k_{\rm H_2O},$$
(11)

where k_{rad} is the intrinsic decay rate and k_{nrad} represents all the deactivation pathways other than energy transfers through OH vibrations. The deactivation processes occurring through OH vibrations are described in the last term, where N_{H_2O} is the number of water molecules in the first coordination sphere, and k_{H_2O} is the decay rate due to one water molecule. Assuming

² In the cited publication, the unit (s^{-1}) is erroneous and has been corrected in this text.

that the term $(k_{rad} + k_{nrad})$ is equal to the decay rate of the luminescent probe in D₂O, $k_{obs}^{D_2O}$, this allows the determination of k_{H_2O} for Eu(III) and Tb(III):

$$k_{\rm H_2O} = \frac{(k_{\rm obs}^{\rm H_2O} - k_{\rm obs}^{\rm D_2O})}{N_{\rm H_2O}},$$
(12a)

$$N_{\rm H_2O} = \alpha \left(k_{\rm obs}^{\rm H_2O} - k_{\rm obs}^{\rm D_2O} \right).$$
(12b)

The conclusion drawn is that for solid compounds, eqs. (11), (12) apply and may be used for the determination of the number of water molecules in an unknown solid compound. The authors estimate the uncertainty to ± 0.5 water molecule.

Second, Horrocks and coworkers, and after them many others, have applied eq. (11) to Eu(III) or Tb(III) compounds *in aqueous solutions*, in order to determine the number of water molecules in the first hydration sphere. The measurements were performed with TRES assuming that the decay rate is a function of the water molecules in the first hydration sphere only. Similar studies leading to calibration laws of the type of eq. (12b) have been performed for Sm, Tb and Dy (Kimura and Kato, 1995, 1998) or Cm (Beitz, 1991; Kimura and Choppin, 1994). For Cm, the decay rate is measured in water/D₂O mixtures of known composition and for solid compounds doped with Cm. The crystallographic structures of these compounds have not been determined but assumed (Kimura and Choppin, 1994). Following this method, non-integer values of $N_{\rm H_2O}$ are often found. Besides the uncertainty of the method, this is ascribed to the fact that $N_{\rm H_2O}$ is an average of the dynamical equilibrium occurring in solution between water molecules of the first hydration sphere and of the bulk.

The method described above requires two measurements of the same compound: one in D_2O and one in H_2O . Therefore, in a third step, the method has been simplified by using a general calibration law for which only the experimental value in H_2O is needed:

$$N_{\rm H_2O} = Ak_{\rm obs}^{\rm H_2O} + B.$$
(13)

A and B are constants that can be determined for a given luminescent probe (i.e., Eu or Tb). Various values of A and B can be found in the literature and are presented in table 4. In this table, each expression is only referenced once, although it may have been used in numerous papers. More sophisticated expressions (see sect. 3.6.4) have not been included. Table 4 also displays the numerical values used in eq. (12b) (derived from Horrocks and Sudnick (1983)) for Eu(III) and Tb(III). The studies by Bryden and Reilley (1982), Wang and Horrocks (1997), Wang et al. (1999), already cited in the experimental section and others (Albin et al., 1984; Barthelemy and Choppin, 1989; Shin and Choppin, 1999), correspond to this approach, either in its "exact" (eq. (12b)) or "simplified" (eq. (13)) version. Finally, note that the authors using this method ascribe the decay rate changes mostly to the "water molecules" but that some authors use the more general term of "OH bonds".

This method has been further extended to non aqueous solvents, such as C_6H_6 , where the number of H_2O molecules in the first hydration sphere is deduced from the measurement of decay rates of some Eu complexes extracted in C_6H_6 (Lis et al., 1991). In another paper, eq. (12b) has been adapted to methanol, by replacing $k_{obs}^{H_2O}(k_{obs}^{D_2O})$ by $k_{obs}^{MeOH}(k_{obs}^{MeOD})$ (Holz et

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	in ms^{-1})	
Ion	$N_{ m H_2O}$	Ref.
Nd(III)	$3.58 k_{\rm obs} - 1.97$	a
Sm(III)	$0.026 k_{\rm obs} - 1.6$	b
	$0.0254 k_{\rm obs} - 0.37$	a
Eu(III)	$1.1 k_{\rm obs} - 0.71$	b
	$1.05 k_{\rm obs} - 0.44$	a
	$1.07 k_{\rm obs} - 0.62$	С
	$1.05 k_{\rm obs} - 0.70$	d
	$1.05 (k_{obs}^{H_2O} - k_{obs}^{D_2O})$	e
Tb(III)	$4.0 k_{\rm obs} - 1.0$	b
	$4.03 k_{\rm obs} - 0.87$	а
	$4.2 (k_{obs}^{H_2O} - k_{obs}^{D_2O})$	e
	$0.024 k_{\rm obs} - 1.3$	b
	$0.021 k_{\rm obs} - 0.6$	a
Am(III)	$2.56 \times 10^{-4} k_{\rm obs} - 1.43$	a
Cm(III)	$0.65 k_{\rm obs} - 0.88$	с
	$0.612 k_{\rm obs} - 0.48$	а

Table 4 Numerical expression of eqs. (12b) and (13) used in the literature for various ions in water solutions (k_{obs} expressed

References

(a) Kimura et al. (2001b) (c) Kimura et al. (1998) (e) Horrocks and Sudnick (1983). (b) Kimura and Kato (1995) (d) Barthelemy and Choppin (1989)

al., 1991) and the same method has been used in CHCl₃ (Hasegawa et al., 1999). Numerical values obtained for H_2O/D_2O mixtures have been directly applied to $H_2O/DMSO$, H_2O/DMF , H₂O/MeOH and other mixtures (Kimura et al. 2001a, 2001b).

It is interesting to note that the same type of interpretation (i.e., the role of OH oscillators in the k_{nrad} term) has been proposed for the Eu²⁺ lifetime changes induced by complexation with various cryptands and crown-ethers in methanol (for a review of this question, see Jiang et al., 1998). The experimental data are presented in sect. 5, which is devoted to spectroscopic changes induced by complexation. In the case of Eu²⁺ luminescence in solution, data are scarce because Eu(II) is easily oxidised into Eu(III). Thus, the quantitative interpretation of the data in terms of an equation such as eq. (12b) has not been performed. However, in view of the interesting discussion that has been initiated by Jiang and co-workers, these results will be discussed below in sect. 3.6.4.

3.6.3. Second extension: Solutions with supporting electrolytes

Some authors attempted a description of the lifetimes changes induced by the addition of supporting electrolytes (sect. 3.3) by use of either the "exact" or "simplified" method proposed by Horrocks (Lis and Choppin, 1992; Kimura and Kato, 1998). By using eq. (12b) or eq. (13), one obtains an apparent increase in the calculated hydration number $N_{\rm H_2O}$ as a function of the electrolyte concentration, which is surprising (from 9 to 11 in the case of Eu³⁺ in HClO₄/H₂O solutions, for example). In order to overcome this difficulty, it was suggested that the inner hydration number remains constant with an increasing quenching of the excited state as a

function of the salt concentration. The increase would be due to stronger interactions of the Eu(III) ion with the OH oscillators already present in the inner coordination sphere (Lis and Choppin, 1992). This stronger metal-water interaction in the primary sphere would result from smaller interaction with water molecules in the outer hydration sphere caused by the increasing concentration of ions.

3.6.4. Discussion: Determination of the hydration number by TRES

In the original papers, the important question of the possible hydrolysis of the solvated ion in the D_2O/H_2O mixtures is not addressed. It is assumed however that whatever the composition of the solvent, the aquo ion is, by far, the dominating species. From an experimental viewpoint, the initial D_2O concentration in the D_2O/H_2O mixture is controlled but the existence of HDO is not discussed. In one of these papers (Heller, 1966), the OH bond is considered as the only acceptable species responsible for the decay rate changes while H₂O, H₂O.nD₂O and aggregates are not considered at all; it is therefore somewhat difficult to conceive the exact nature of these OH bonds. In two papers (Haas and Stein, 1971a, 1971b), the attribution of the non radiative effects to the water molecules in the first hydration sphere is (strictly speaking) restricted to the case where the k_{obs} variations are linear, which corresponds to a somewhat limited number of experiments, as was discussed in the experimental section. Finally, in the last paper (Kropp and Windsor, 1965), the deactivation process is clearly ascribed to OH and CH bonds. To conclude on this first interpretation, it should be emphasised that these studies are the first ones addressing a difficult question, as the experimental section has shown. The physical bases included in eq. (7) appear reasonable, as it explicitly states that *all* the solvent molecules participate in the deactivation process. Furthermore, the assumption of specific deactivation efficiencies for all types of solvents is realistic. It should be noted that the absence of linearity of the k_{obs} plots above a few water percents (except for the H₂O/D₂O mixtures) is a strong indication that all solvent molecules do not interact in an identical and independent way.

Therefore, the extension made by Horrocks and collaborators (Horrocks and Sudnick, 1983) and by many other authors appears questionable. First, note that the interpretation of the lifetime values in solids is a rather difficult task. Tremendous Eu(III) lifetimes changes in solids (from 1–2 ms to 50 μ s, for example) have been ascribed to changes in the symmetry of the emitting center, a higher symmetry inducing a slower decay (Gaft et al., 2000a; 2000b, 2001). Second, all the studies based on eq. (13) rely on the assumption that the non-radiative deactivation process in solution is solely due to the water molecules in the first hydration sphere, while by use of eq. (12b), which requires the measurement of $k_{obs}^{D_2O}$ and $k_{obs}^{H_2O}$, the assumption is that the other non-radiative contributions are equal in H₂O and D₂O (and thus may not be negligible). The assumption embedded in eq. (13) is clearly an abusive extension of the results obtained by Haas and Stein (1971a, 1971b) and is in contradiction with the work of Kropp and Windsor (1965). This assumption totally neglects the role of other solvent molecules and anions as well as the non-linear variations of k_{obs} in the case of non-aqueous mixtures. This last criticism applies to a limited number of papers but the general tendency with time evolves towards an extension of the so-called Horrocks' method to various media such as non-aqueous liquid systems (Hasegawa et al., 1999; Holz et al., 1991;

Lis et al., 1991), ion-exchange resins (Takahashi et al., 1997; Kimura et al., 1998; Arisaka et al., 2001, 2002) or hydrated zeolites (Suib et al., 1984) for which the direct use of eq. (12b) should be considered with caution.

Actually, if H_2O were the only cause of deactivation, this would imply that the lifetime of a given R(III) ion in all solvents (except water) should be close to its radiative lifetime. Table 1 shows that the solvated Eu(III) lifetime is solvent dependent (radiative Eu³⁺ lifetime: 9.7 ms, from Carnall, 1979), tables 2 and 3 give a similar information for other R(III) solvated ions and Cm³⁺_{solv}, respectively. Examination of these tables shows that the contribution of D₂O molecules to the deactivation pathways cannot be neglected, as that of any other solvent.

Turning to the case of R(III) complexes, it should be first noted that the theoretical radiative lifetime of a given R(III) complex may be (very) different from that of the solvated ion (Werts et al., 2002). Therefore, the lifetime values of R(III) complexes in various solvents should be interpreted with caution. However, some experimental facts are in contradiction with eq. (13): (i) the deactivation efficiency of a ligand can be even lower than that of D₂O: in one case, an Eu(III) complex in D₂O has a lifetime ($\tau_{obs} = 4.66$ ms) larger than that of Eu³⁺_{aq} in D₂O (Elhabiri et al., 1999); (ii) the lifetime of a Tb complex in D₂O is *decreased* by further complexation with various anions such as OH⁻, NO₃⁻, CH₃CO₂⁻, HCO₃⁻, citrate or CO₃²⁻ (Dickins et al., 1998). In fact, the radiative lifetime value of a given complex is rather difficult to derive and very few calculations (or data) are available so that comparison between k_{rad} and k_{obs} values is only possible for Eu-dipicolinate complexes (Werts et al., 2002) (see table 5). Nevertheless, it can be seen that the ligand has an important impact onto the lifetime, even in D₂O (see table 5). In particular, it was shown in a very detailed study on Eu, Gd, Tb and Yb (Beeby et al., 1999), that the –OH, –NH and –CH bonds have an effect. A similar study has

Complex	$ au_{ m obs}^{ m D_2O}$ (µs)	τ_{rad} (µs) theoretical/(experimental)
Eu ³⁺ aq	3970 (a)	7700/(9500) (d)
[Eu(dpa)] ⁺	3560 (a)	4900/(6000) (d)
$[Eu(dpa)_2]^-$	3270 (a)	
$[Eu(dpa)_3]^{2-}$	3320 (a)	3100/(4300) (d)
[Eu(dota)] ⁻	2400 (b)	
[Eu(nota)]	1700 (b)	
[EuL] ⁻	2083 (c)	
[EuL']-	1850 (c)	

Table 5
Experimental lifetime values of various Eu(III) complexes in pure D ₂ O. Radiative lifetime values for some species

dpa: dipicolinate;

dota: 1,4,7,10-tetraazacyclododecane-1,4,7,10-tetraacetate;

nota: 1,4,7-triazacyclononane-1,4,7-triacetate;

L: 1,4,7,10-tetrakis(benzylphosphinate)-1,4,7,10-tetraazacyclododecane;

L': 1,4,7,10-tetrakis(methylphosphinate)-1,4,7,10-tetraazacyclododecane.

References

(a) An et al. (2000)	(c) Beeby et al. (1999)
(b) Supkowski and Horrocks (1999)	(d) Werts et al. (2002)

been limited to the -NH bond (Hnatejko et al., 2000). It was also shown that closely diffusing second-sphere solvent molecules have an influence onto the lifetime (Dickins et al., 1996; Beeby et al., 1999). A study considering all these effects can be found in Supkowski and Horrocks (1999). As a matter of fact, for a given ion, the large variations observed in the numerical values of *B* in eq. (13)—which is in units of (water) molecules—shed some doubts on the reliability of such a formulation (see table 4), unless a careful calibration is made and the equation used only for a given type of complex in a given solvent.

In the case of solutions of supporting electrolytes, the use of the calibration relationship appears inadequate. The fact that the Eu³⁺ lifetime is changing by addition of NaClO₄ in D_2O (see sect. 3.3) is by itself an indication that the H_2O molecules are not the only cause of the non-radiative deactivation process or, at least, that this is an indirect effect of the water molecules. As is quoted in sect. 3.6.3, in some cases, the calculated hydration number is increasing when the electrolyte concentration is increasing, which is difficult to link to other experimental findings, although some doubts on that question have been raised (Kanno and Hiraishi, 1982; Kanno and Yokoyama, 1996). The qualitative explanation suggested an increasing quenching ability of each OH bond as a function of salt concentration is not in line with the physical concept of eq. (13) which is based on a quenching contribution of each OH oscillators independent of all others and limited to the first hydration sphere. In the case of chloride based electrolytes, a detailed discussion on this point can be found in Nehlig et al. (2003). Recent experiments show that the structure of electrolyte solutions (in H_2O or D_2O) is very complex so that the notion of a single type of first hydration sphere appears somewhat doubtful (Laenen and Thaller, 2001; Max and Chapados, 2002; Stangret and Gampe, 2002). Similarly, in the specific case of ethanol/H₂O mixtures, it is well-known that hydrophobic aggregation takes place and is strongly dependent on the nature of the various introduced ions (Sacco and Holz, 1997; Sacco et al., 1998) so that the rather naive image of an homogeneous medium, which is actually embedded in eq. (13), has to be revised.

Another fundamental questionable point can be raised by considering the temperaturedependent lifetime data of an Eu(III) complex (Holz et al., 1990b) (see section 3.4). One can take advantage of the $k_{obs}^{D_2O}$ and $k_{obs}^{H_2O}$ values that have been measured in the temperature range 278–363 K, in order to calculate the N_{H_2O} variations as a function of T, by use of eq. (12b). While N_{H_2O} is equal to 2.15 at T = 278 K, it raises as a function of T and reaches a value of 12 at T = 363 K. This latter value seems unphysically large. This most probably means that other deactivation pathways are available at high T. Conversely, it means that at *any* temperature, one has to discriminate between the contribution of such a phenomenon and of the envisioned OH oscillator effect, which appears a very difficult task that has never been discussed, to our knowledge.

In the case of the Eu(II) luminescence in methanol, the available data, that refer to the lifetime increase through complexation (see sect. 5) have been tentatively explained within the frame of OH bonds exclusion from the first Eu(II) solvation shell. Interestingly, the values of τ_{obs} and τ_{rad} for various Eu(II) complexes in methanol were obtained. The discussion above has shown the great interest of such measurements which, in the case of Eu(II), are difficult to perform due to the instability of divalent europium, and which should be more systematically performed in the case of trivalent europium. As compared to the solvated Eu²⁺ ion in methanol, the various complexes studied (mainly crown-ethers) display rather similar radiative decay rates and lower non-radiative deactivation rates. From these results, the authors concluded that water molecules in the first solvation sphere are responsible for the deactivation pathways (Jiang et al., 1998). However, we do not agree with this conclusion: Similarly to the case of Eu³⁺ luminescence, comparison has to be made, for a given complex, between τ_{obs} and τ_{rad} values, whilst the comparison between the τ_{obs} values of the complex and of Eu²⁺_{solv} does not provide insight into this question, as explained above. The experimental data in methanol evidence a large effect of the type of ligand (for a given stoichiometry) onto the lifetime, as in the Eu(III) case.

3.7. Second interpretation: Förster mechanism

3.7.1. General theoretical approach

The work of Förster deals with the problem of the energy transfer (non-radiative pathway) from a donor D* (created by absorption of a photon) to an acceptor A (see Förster (1959) for a good start in this theory, see Blasse (1990) for general aspects on the influence of ligands on luminescence and for a deeper look at the mathematics, see Voltz (1968)). Depending on the energy level matches between D* and A, such a transfer is more or less efficient so that by modifications of the energy levels of A, either an inhibition or an enhancement of the fluorescence of D* can be envisioned. The main physical parameters that are derived from the mathematical treatment are the energy transfer rate and *R*, the mean distance of interaction between D* and A. The transfer efficiency varies, in a first approximation, as $(1/R)^6$. Other parameters of importance are the refractive index of the medium and the overlap between the emission spectrum of D* and the absorption spectrum of A. Although this theory is very general, Förster clearly stated that the following two cases can be described within this framework:

- (i) Energy transfer between independent species in solution (no chemical bond).
- (ii) Energy transfer between independent electronic systems of a given species.

Therefore, the effect of a solvent onto the lifetime of a luminescent probe is ascribable to case (i) and the ligand effect to case (ii). In the first case, experiments have shown that the typical interaction distance is of the order of 70 Å while it is 5 to 10 Å in the second case. The Förster theory is more accurate than the empirical formulation discussed in sect. 3.6.2. The following sections discuss the use that has been made of the Förster formalism.

3.7.2. Use of a simplified formalism

Based on the experimental evidences discussed in sect. 3.6.4 of an effect of the ligand onto the lifetime, numerous publications have appeared that refer to the Förster's theory (De Sa et al., 1993; Beeby et al., 1999; Supkowski and Horrocks, 1999; An et al., 2000). However, this theory is not applied in order to derive the transfer rate constant or the mean interaction distance value but only to justify the search for relationships between the observed decay rate and the number of OH, CH or NH bonds of the ligand, plus a global parameter for the solvent. Thus, although based on a very different theoretical approach, one deals with equations similar to eq. (11), with more terms, as in the following example (Beeby et al., 1999):

$$k_{\rm obs} = k_{\rm rad} + k_{\rm sol} + k_{\rm CH} + k_{\rm NH} + k_{\rm OH} + k_{\rm C=O}.$$
 (14)

3.7.3. Explicit use of the Förster mechanism

In other studies, the aim is to determine whether the non-radiative deactivation mechanism is actually a Förster mechanism (other mechanisms, that have not been detailed in this paper, may lead to lifetime changes, especially at short interaction distances: Dexter mechanism or electron transfer, for example), and, if so, to derive the physical parameters relevant to this approach. For example, in the case of some heteronuclear lanthanide complexes, it was shown that the decrease of the donor quantum yield is not ascribable to a Förster mechanism (Tanaka and Ishibashi, 1996). In this very interesting study, both the fluorescence decrease of the donor and the increase of the acceptor luminescence have been followed versus time. For other lanthanide complexes, a Förster mechanism has been assumed, in order to derive the mean interaction distance (Clarkson et al., 2000). Similarly, impressive results are obtained in the case of proteins (or other biological molecules) bound to lanthanides (Tb or Eu), where the distance between the absorbing chromophore and the luminescent metallic center has been measured (Horrocks and Sudnick, 1981). In one case, an unusual energy transfer (Förster's theory) from a counter-ion towards Eu, Tb or Dy has been proposed, although the possible effect of the crown-ether cage was not fully ruled out (Tran and Zhang, 1990). Finally, although the mechanism is a Dexter transfer according to the authors, it is worth mentioning a study in xerogels doped with lanthanides (Buddhudu et al., 1999).

Note that in the case where the Förster mechanism concerns an organic species transferring its energy to the lanthanide center to which it is bound, this is often referred to as the "antenna effect" and the ligand is sometimes called a sensitiser. Such an effect becomes efficient provided that the organic chromophore possesses a triplet excited state close to but at least 1700 cm^{-1} above that of the lanthanide emissive state (Parker and Williams, 1996).

3.7.4. Discussion on the use of a Förster mechanism

Although the theoretical approach appears to be valid, one may regret that some studies lead to equations that are not, *in nature*, very different from the empirical Horrocks' method. In addition, as quoted by the authors of a very detailed work on this question (Beeby et al., 1999), the values of the k_{HX} parameters in eq. (14) (X = O, C or N), were obtained for a specific donor-acceptor distance. They should be corrected for the $(1/R)^6$ term for other ligands, which considerably lowers the general interest of eq. (14).

In contrast, studies aiming at determining the exact nature of the non-radiative deactivation mechanism and the corresponding mean distance of interaction appear to be more in line with the Förster theory spirit and may be regarded as a fascinating attempt in this field. However, applications appear rather limited as far as the question of the hydration sphere determination is concerned.

3.8. Third interpretation: Empirical law for long range interactions

It may appear very tempting to apply the Förster's formalism to the question of electrolyte effects onto the lifetime. However, some features of this effect render the use of the Förster's theory difficult: experiments with Eu have shown that the observed variations cannot be reproduced solely on the basis of the refractive index changes, a term included in the Förster's

expression (Schuurmans and Lagendijk, 2000). In addition, the non additive effect of anions and cations (see sect. 3.3, UO_2^{2+} case) is not included in the theory, which does not explicitly lead to an expression for the lifetime variations as a function of the electrolyte concentration. Therefore an empirical expression for the k_{nrad} variations has been proposed in the specific case of UO_2^{2+} in perchlorate based electrolyte solutions (Billard et al., 2001). It is based on the physical input of the Förster's mechanism, i.e., on long-range interactions and energy transfers between the probe and the surrounding medium. The proposed expression contains a polynomial basis, which accounts for the increase in τ_{obs} as a function of [H⁺], together with additional polynomial, logarithmic and exponential terms involving $[ClO_4^-]$ and $[H^+]$ in order to reproduce the effect of electrolytes composed of a mixture of HClO₄ and NaClO₄ (Billard et al., 2001). This empirical law was shown to be compatible with quenching experiments (see sect. 4 for a definition), thus demonstrating that this effect is actually due to k_{nrad} changes only. Similarly, empirical laws may also be found for the lanthanide case, although no study of this type has been performed yet. Considering the rather smooth k_{obs} variations observed (Nehlig et al., 2003), it is most probable that second order polynomial expressions relating the concentration of the electrolyte ions to the k_{obs} value would be sufficient to reproduce the $k_{\rm obs}$ variation observed in the lanthanide case. However, such empirical formulations have little interest as such: the important fact is that this electrolyte effect has been identified as being of physical instead of chemical nature. Obviously, such an approach is of no help for the determination of hydration sphere numbers and a comprehensive theoretical treatment of such effects is still needed.

3.9. Conclusion on the question of hydration numbers and related topics

The spectroscopic characteristics of actinide and lanthanide luminescent probes are sensitive to numerous parameters, such as modifications of solvent composition, addition of supporting electrolytes, temperature changes etc. Therefore, TRES appears as an interesting tool for the chemist, because it provides sensitive experimental data. However, the interactions between the probe and the surrounding medium (in a wide sense) appear to be intricate and difficult to handle. In this sense, attempts to describe lifetime variations as a function of a unique parameter, the hydration sphere number, have shown their limitations. On the other hand, the open questions related to Förster's mechanism are a vivid and still not fully explored field.

4. Reaction rate constants as studied by TRES

In this section, the use of TRES for the study of a reaction rate constant will be discussed. In a first step, the theoretical aspects will be presented and in a second step, the experimental data, mostly concerning U(VI), will be detailed.

4.1. Theoretical approach

4.1.1. Stern–Volmer formula

The general frame is that of a reaction between an excited luminescent probe, M*, and another species, denoted by Q, following the scheme:

$$\begin{array}{c}
\mathbf{M}^{*} + \mathbf{Q} \xrightarrow{k_{SV}} Z \\
 & h_{\nu} \bigwedge^{*} \left| \begin{array}{c} k_{obs} = \tau_{obs}^{-1} \\
 & (h_{\nu'}) \end{array} \right| \\
\mathbf{M}
\end{array}$$

It will be assumed that Q does not absorb the excitation light and does not react with the ground-state M. The decay rate of M^* in the absence of Q will be denoted k_M . Such a chemical scheme is independent of any effective mechanism for the interaction between M^* and Q (Birks, 1970). It only states that, in the presence of Q, an additional deactivation pathway is present, through the creation of Z, which may be non-luminescent. By use of classical kinetic laws, one derives:

$$\frac{d[M^*]}{dt} = -k_{\rm M}[M^*] - k_{\rm SV}[Q][M^*].$$
(15)

Supposing, which is correct most of the time, that Q is in large excess as compared to M^* , and that k_{SV} is time-independent, one obtains:

$$[M^*](t) = [M^*](0) \exp(-[k_{\rm M} + k_{\rm SV}[Q]]t).$$
(16)

Therefore, in the presence of Q, the observed decay rate of M* is equal to:

$$k_{\rm obs} = k_{\rm M} + k_{\rm SV}[Q]. \tag{17}$$

This is known as the Stern–Volmer equation, where k_{SV} is the bimolecular reaction rate constant (in units of $M^{-1} s^{-1}$). From an experimental viewpoint, the plot of k_{obs} as a function of [Q] is a straight line, of slope k_{SV} : the lifetime decreases as a function of [Q]. The global luminescence intensity of M^* as a function of [Q] is equal to:

$$I = \int_0^\infty \frac{\mathrm{d}h\nu'}{\mathrm{d}t} \,\mathrm{d}t = \int_0^\infty k_{\mathrm{M}}[\mathrm{M}^*](t) \,\mathrm{d}t = \frac{k_{\mathrm{M}}}{k_{\mathrm{M}} + k_{\mathrm{SV}}[\mathrm{Q}]}[\mathrm{M}^*](0) = \frac{k_{\mathrm{M}}}{k_{\mathrm{obs}}}[\mathrm{M}^*](0).$$
(18)

This shows that the luminescence intensity decreases as a function of [Q] (Q is called a luminescence inhibitor or "quencher"), in parallel to the lifetime variation: no additional information is obtained by measurement of I as compared to lifetime measurements. In particular, the emission spectrum of M* is not distorted (no spectral shift) when Q is added to the solution. The exact chemical nature of Z cannot be deduced from the luminescence measurement of M* because the spectroscopic characteristics of Z do not appear in eqs. (15)–(18). Finally, it should be noted that, strictly speaking, the term "luminescence inhibition" and the Stern–Volmer equation should apply solely to experiments for which *both* the lifetime and the luminescence intensity decrease in parallel as a function of the concentration of a "quencher". Finally, note that Stern–Volmer constants having a negative value have no physical meaning (Kessler, 1998).

4.1.2. Diffusion or activation-controlled reaction

Solution reaction kinetics may be decomposed into two contributions. The first one arises from the diffusion of the reactants and the second one corresponds to the chemical reaction itself.

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When the chemical reaction step occurs very rapidly (virtually instantaneously upon collision of the reactants), one speaks of a diffusion-controlled reaction and in this case, the reaction rate constant is typically on the order of $10^{10} \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$. When the chemical reaction is slow as compared to the collisional process, the reaction is often called an activation-controlled reaction because a high activation energy is needed to yield the products. The rate constant is thus on the order on $1 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$. In the general case, the reaction rate constant is a combination of the two processes and is described by the following expression:

$$\frac{1}{k_{\rm SV}} = \frac{1}{k_{\rm diff}} + \frac{1}{k_{\rm act}},$$
(19)

where k_{diff} and k_{act} are the reaction rates of the diffusion and activation steps, respectively.

4.1.3. Diffusion-controlled reaction: Smoluchowsky approach

A detailed presentation can be found in Steinfeld et al. (1999). In the case of neutral reactants, at infinite dilution, the expression of k_{diff} is:

$$k_{\rm diff} = \frac{2k_{\rm B}T(r_1 + r_2)^2}{3\eta r_1 r_2} \tag{20}$$

where $k_{\rm B}$ is the Boltzmann constant, *T* is the temperature, η stands for the viscosity and r_1 and r_2 are the ionic radii of the reactants. This equation is often called the Smoluchowsky relation but may present some slight differences from one author to the other, due to the various approximations made in the calculations. If the reactants are charged moieties, one has to consider the potential between them, which leads to another expression, sometimes referred to as the Debye expression:

$$k_{\rm diff} = \frac{2k_{\rm B}T(r_1 + r_2)^2}{3\eta r_1 r_2} \frac{-z_1 z_2 e^2}{\varepsilon k_{\rm B}T \left[1 - \exp\left(\frac{z_1 z_2 e^2}{\varepsilon k_{\rm B}T(r_1 + r_2)}\right)\right]} \frac{1}{(r_1 + r_2)},\tag{21}$$

where ε is the dielectric constant of the solution and z_1, z_2 the charges of the moieties. Some numerical applications allow to set limits for the k_{diff} values. For neutral species, the maximum value of k_{diff} (cf. eq. (20)) is on the order of $6 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$. For charged reactants, this value is increased by a factor 2 to 5 if the charges are of the same sign and is decreased by a factor of 0.2 for moieties of opposite sign.

4.1.4. Ionic strength effects

If the two reactants are embedded in an electrolyte solution, the effects of the Coulomb attraction/repulsion terms are to be taken into account in the k_{SV} expression. These correction terms are different in nature whether one considers the diffusion or activation contributions to k_{SV} or not.

For diffusion-controlled reactions the global effect of the electrolyte is to counterbalance the electrostatic effects between the reactants: the reaction rate will be increased for moieties of the same sign and will be decreased for moieties of opposite sign. The work of Debye and Hückel, based on the approximation that the solution is diluted enough to consider that





the electrolyte ions are not "too close" to each other, leads to the extended Debye-Hückel expression:

$$\log_{10} k_{\rm SV} = \log_{10} k_0 + 1.02 z_1 z_2 \sqrt{I},\tag{22}$$

where k_0 is the k_{SV} value as calculated in the absence of supporting electrolyte and *I* is the ionic strength of the solution. Considering the approximations made to obtain this expression, its limit of validity is roughly equal to 0.1 M.

In the case of an activation-controlled process, the supporting electrolyte modifies the activation coefficients of the reactants and it is out of the scope of this work to enter in the mathematical treatment. A detailed approach of this case can be found in Simonin and Hendrawan (2001).

4.1.5. Electron transfer: Rehm–Weller equation

In the above sections, nothing was said about the type of reaction between M* and Q. This is because the Stern–Volmer equation is model independent, as explained above and also because eqs. (20)–(22) are for a diffusion-controlled reaction. Some information can be obtained regarding an electron transfer from various quenchers of similar chemical structures towards M*. In this case, one may derive a relationship between k_{SV} (as obtained from eq. (17)) and the ionization potential of these inhibitors. This is the Rehm–Weller equation, which is schematically depicted in fig. 4. In this plot, the plateau value corresponds to k_{diff} . For a general overview of problems related to electron transfers, see Pouliquen and Wintgens (1988) (in French).

4.1.6. Time-dependent reaction rate constant and other modifications of the Stern–Volmer formula

One of the basic hypotheses which sustains the Stern–Volmer equation is that the reaction rate constant, k_{SV} , is time-independent. This is clearly an approximation. By assuming a time-dependent k_{SV} , integration of eq. (15) becomes tedious. Fortunately, this time-dependence is

effective only at very short times as compared to the lanthanide and actinide excited state lifetimes, which allows one to neglect this dependence. However, this fundamental question (and also the spatial dependence of the reaction rate constant) is of great interest and is the subject of numerous theoretical and experimental works. In particular, Marcus' theory shows that, for very negative ionization potentials, the plateau of the Rehm–Weller semi-empirical approach is no longer valid (inverted Marcus region) and that the electron transfer rate should display a bell shape as a function of the ionization potential. The reader will find some recent advances on this questions in Scully et al. (1992), Tachiya and Murata (1992), Molski (1994), Berezhkovskii et al. (1998), Molski et al. (1998), Sikorski et al. (1998), Agmon and Gopich (1999).

It is also possible that the properties of the solution induce some modifications of eq. (17). This is the case for example of a fluorescent probe attached onto a polyelectrolyte: in this case, the high local concentration of ions strongly influences the rate constant so that eq. (17) is no longer valid. For one typical recent example of such a phenomenon with phenanthrene, see Morrison et al. (1996).

4.2. Experimental data and links to theory

Numerous ions quench either the R(III) or U(VI) luminescence but most of the data available concern uranyl probes. Table 6 displays a selection of k_{SV} values. Numerous additional k_{SV} values for various alcohols/U(VI) systems can be found in the very comprehensive and interesting work of Cunningham and Srijaranai (1990), where k_{SV} values vary from $\sim 10^6 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ to $1.5 \times 10^9 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ in H₂O. Other values can also be found for an impressive list of quenchers of $[\text{UO}_2\text{F4}]^{2-}$ (Billing et al., 1991). A wealth of data can be found in Moriyasu et al. (1977b) for U(VI) in various complexing media such as H₃PO₄ 1 M. Among the somewhat unusual media in which such studies have been performed with U(VI), one can find concentrated HNO₃ aqueous solutions (Katsumura et al., 1989) and supercritical CO₂ (Addleman and Wai, 1999). Note a very interesting study on enantioselective quenching for Eu(III), by use of the rather confidential time-resolved chiroptical luminescence technique (Metcalf et al., 1990). Nothing on this topics is known for Cm³⁺.

Although experimental k_{SV} values of some ions (NO₂⁻ with Ce³⁺ or I⁻ with UO₂²⁺, for example) come close to the maximum value calculated from the Smoluchowsky equation (cf. eq. (21)), most of the inhibitors presented in table 6 do not correspond to diffusion-controlled reactions, as the k_{SV} values are more than two orders of magnitude below the maximum (N₃⁻ with Eu³⁺ or Dy³⁺ with UO₂²⁺, for example). A solvent effect has been observed, with a k_{SV} value in D₂O higher by a factor of two than that in H₂O for Eu³⁺ quenched by N₃⁻ ions, but no explanation has been provided (Lis et al., 2001). No isotope or solvent effect has been found for alcohols and U(VI) (Cunningham and Srijaranai, 1990). Attention is drawn on the beautiful work about k_{SV} values for various U(VI) complexes (Park et al., 1990) and also on a similar work, devoted to a more limited series of inhibitors (Lopez and Birch, 1997). Note that the smaller values obtained for uranyl complexes as compared to UO₂²⁺_{aq} are ascribable to a larger radius of this reactant, which limits its diffusion. Finally, some publications have presented k_{SV} values for UO₂²⁺ using NO₃⁻ or SO₄²⁻ as U(VI) counter-ions. As these anions

Probe	Inhibitor	Experimentals	$k_{\rm SV} ({\rm M}^{-1}{\rm s}^{-1})$	Ref.
	NO_2^-	$[R^{3+}] = 0.1$ M; chloride salt; $T = 25 \degree C$	6.4×10^{6}	а
Eu ³⁺ aq	N_3^-	$[R^{3+}] = 10^{-2}$ M; perchlorate salt	$2.6 \times 10^5 (H_2O)$	b
1		-	$5.3\times10^5~(D_2O)$	
Ce ³⁺ aq			2.8×10^{10}	
$Dy^{3+}aq$	NO_2^{-}	$[R^{3+}] = 0.1 \text{ M};$	4.7×10^{8}	а
Sm ³⁺ aq	2	chloride salt; $T = 25 ^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$	3×10^8	
Gd ³⁺ aq	N_3^-	$[\mathbb{R}^{3+}] = 10^{-2} \text{ M};$ perchlorate salt	7×10^6	b
	N_3^-	$[R^{3+}] = 10^{-2}$ M; perchlorate salt	5.7×10^4	b
Tb ³⁺ aq	NO_2^-	$[R^{3+}] = 10^{-3}$ M; chloride salt	1.3×10^{9}	а
	Cl-		1.8×10^{9}	
	Br	I = 3 M; pH = 3.4;	4.1×10^{9}	
	SCN ⁻	$T = 25 ^{\circ}\text{C}; [\text{UO}_2^{2+}] = 10^{-2} \text{M};$	4.8×10^{9}	с
UO2 ²⁺ aq		perchlorate salt	6.2×10^{9}	
	I-	perchloric medium	4.8×10^{9}	d
		$[\text{HClO}_4] = 1 \text{ M}; T = 25 ^{\circ}\text{C};$	3.3×10^{9}	e
	Ag^+	$[UO_2^{2+}] = 10^{-2} M$		
		$[UO_2^{2+}] = 4.6 \times 10^{-2}$ M; perchloric media	2×10^{9}	d
	Dy ³⁺	$I = 3 \text{ M}; [\text{UO}_2^{2+}] = 5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ M}$	3.5×10^{6}	
	Gd^{3+}	$[\text{HClO}_4] = 2.5 \text{ M}; [\text{UO}_2^{2+}] = 5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ M}$	6.4×10^{6}	f
	Eu ³⁺	$[\text{HClO}_4] = 0.4 \text{ M}; I = 1 \text{ M}; [\text{UO}_2^{2+}] = 5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ M}$	3×10^{5}	
	Cl-	pH = 3.4; I = 3 M;	2.2×10^8	
	Br ⁻	$T = 25 ^{\circ}\mathrm{C};$	2.2×10^{9}	
$[(UO_2)_2(OH)_2]^{2+}$	Ι-	perchlorate salt;	5.8×10^{9}	с
	SCN-	$[UO_2^{2+}] = 10^{-2} M$	4.1×10^{9}	
	Ag^+	$[\mathrm{UO_2}^{2+}] = 4.6 \times 10^{-2} \mathrm{M}$	2.6×10^{9}	d
	NO_2^-		2.6×10^{8}	
	I-		1.5×10^{9}	
	Br ⁻	room temperature;	1.5×10^{9}	
	Cl ⁻	$[UO_2^{2+}] = 10^{-2} M$	3.5×10^{6}	g
$[UO_2F_4]^{2-}$	SCN ⁻		1.4×10^{9}	-
	N_3^-		3.5×10^{8}	
	Cl ⁻		1.8×10^{7}	
	Br ⁻	$I = 1.13 \text{ M}; [\text{UO}_2^{2+}] = 10^{-2} \text{ M}$	8.9×10^{8}	
	I-	-	3×10^{9}	
	SCN ⁻		1.9×10^{9}	
	Cl-		4.5×10^{7}	
	Br		8.5×10^{8}	
UO2(H2PO4)2	I ⁻	$I = 2.2 \text{ M}; [UO_2^{2+}] = 10^{-2} \text{ M}$	2×10^{9}	с
212 4/2	SCN-	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,	1.6×10^{9}	-

Table 6 k_{SV} values (M⁻¹ s⁻¹) for various luminescence inhibitors. The solvent is H₂O, unless specified

continued on next page

Probe	Inhibitor	Experimentals	$k_{\rm SV} ({\rm M}^{-1}{\rm s}^{-1})$	Ref.
	Cl-		3.8×10^{8}	
	Br		2.5×10^{9}	
UO ₂ SO ₄	I^-	$I = 1.03 \text{ M}; [\text{UO}_2^{2+}] = 10^{-2} \text{ M}$	4.6×10^{9}	
	SCN ⁻		3.8×10^9	

Table 6, continued from previous page

References

(a) Tanaka et al. (1993)(b) Lis et al. (2001)

(c) Park et al. (1990)

(d) Lopez and Birch (1997)(e) Moriyasu et al. (1977b)(f) Yamamura et al. (1999)

(g) Billing et al. (1991)



Fig. 5. Logaritmic plot of k_{SV} as a function of $(I)^{1/2}$ for various UO_2^{2+} inhibitors: (•) I⁻; (•) Br⁻; (•) Cl⁻. Redrawn from Yokoyama et al. (1976).

are well-known U(VI) complexing agents, caution should be paid on the exact attribution of the k_{SV} constant to UO₂²⁺_{aq} or to a complex species (Burrows, 1990). In some publications about the fluorescence of Eu(III) complexes, reference is made to the Stern–Volmer equation, although the authors clearly state that only the luminescence intensity decreases as a function of the "inhibitor", while the lifetime remains constant (Parker et al., 1998; Parker, 2000).

Ionic strength effects onto the k_{SV} constant, as described by eq. (22), have been observed long ago, mainly for U(VI) (Yokoyama et al., 1976; Moriyasu et al., 1977b; Yamamura et al., 1999) but also for various lanthanides in the excellent work of Tanaka et al. (1993). Over the limited range of ionic strength investigated, it appears that eq. (22) is able to reproduce the experimental k_{SV} variations, as illustrated in fig. 5 for the UO₂²⁺ case. A recent work dealing with a wide range of ionic strength (10⁻² to 9 M) shows that the k_{SV} variations cannot be reproduced by this simple equation in this whole concentration range (Simonin et al., 2003).

The ionic strength effect is not limited to k_{SV} variation as described by eq. (22). The addition of large amounts of electrolytes may also modify the quencher solubility and thus its efficiency. This effect has been used by some authors, in systems very different from those examined in this work, in order to determine the association constant of the inhibitor salt (Mac, 1997; Mac and Tokarczyk, 1999): as the electrolyte concentration is increased, the quencher ion associates, so that the effective concentration of the inhibitor ion decreases, leading to a downward curvature of the Stern–Volmer plot. Such a curvature can be quantitatively related


Fig. 6. Rehm–Weller plots for halogenide and pseudohalogenide inhibitors of some uranyl complexes. Redrawn from Park et al. (1990).

to the association constant of the inhibitor salt. This idea sustains the study of the inhibition of Eu(III) by NO_2^- , which may be present in its associated HNO_2 form (no quenching efficiency) or in its dissociated NO_2^- form (maximum quenching efficiency) depending on pH (Tanaka et al., 1993).

Numerous authors have shown that the Rehm–Weller equation is valid for the fluorescence inhibition of various U(VI) species with alcenes (Park and Tomiyasu, 1992), heteroatomic (Park and Tomiyasu, 1993) or halogenated compounds (Burrows, 1990), as is illustrated in fig. 6. This corresponds to the so-called normal Marcus region (which is thus also correctly described through the Rehm–Weller equation). This implies that an electron transfer occurs in such systems, from the inhibitor to the U(VI) species, leading to U(V), which disproportionates into U(IV) and U(VI). In one case at least, U(IV) has been observed, which strongly supports the proposed mechanism (Park et al., 1991; Park and Tomiyasu, 1992). Finally, lanthanides inhibit the UO_2^{2+} fluorescence, most probably through an electron transfer (Yamamura et al., 1993, 1999). Apart from electron transfers at short distances that have been evidenced for some lanthanides (Tanaka et al., 1993), energy transfers through a Förster-type mechanism can also be responsible for the quenching (Tanaka et al., 1993). Finally, note an unusual paper where a theoretical approach related to the Marcus' theory is applied to the reduction of lanthanide ions by hydrated electrons (Lee et al., 1998).

4.3. Conclusion on the study of reaction constants with TRES

TRES is a valuable method to determine rate constants in the very specific case of a reaction between an excited species and a quencher. The theoretical approaches are easily applicable and lead to interesting results on various aspects of such reactions. Another type of reaction rate constant can be studied by TRES but is rather anecdotal: in the case where a ligand, L, reacts very slowly (on the order of hours to months) with the luminescent probe, the formation of the complex can be followed by TRES (for example, see Wu et al. (1996), Bazzicalupi et al. (2001)).

5. Equilibrium constants and complexation as studied by TRES

The measurement of equilibrium constants is a crucial aspect in lanthanide and actinide chemistry. Several techniques are available for such determination (spectrophotometry, potentiometry, solvent extraction, electrospray mass-spectrometry, ...), among which TRES is commonly used in the case of reaction studies of luminescent lanthanides with organic ligands (Richardson, 1982; Parker and Williams, 1996). The high sensitivity of TRES (see sect. 6) allows quantitative measurements of very dilute solutions, which facilitates the handling of highly radioactive materials such as Cm.

In this section, the experimental changes in the luminescence characteristics of lanthanides and actinides upon complexation will first be presented. Most of the work reviewed deals with aqueous solutions. The theoretical background will then be detailed and linked to the experiments. The consequences will be discussed in the last part of this section.

5.1. Solvation/complexation: A brief introduction

As noted previously in this chapter, an ion in solution is not "free" but is solvated by solvent molecules. Usually, one refers to the first solvation sphere but one may also define, for the sake of convenience, a second, a third etc solvation spheres, which are looser than the first one. In fact, besides the first solvation sphere, this notion is highly dependent on the technique used to determine it and the reader is referred to a review on this subject (Hinton and Amis, 1971). As explained before, in this chapter, we adopt the notation X_{solv} for the solvated ion X. Strictly speaking, a solvated ion is *complexed* by the solvent molecules and this is particularly true for water as a solvent (Spencer et al., 1999). However, usually speaking, the term complexation only refers to the chemical acts that lead to an ion surrounded by at least one moieties different from the solvent, as long as a chemical interaction exists between them. Note that this new entity, which is called a complex, is *also* solvated but the subscript "solv" is usually omitted in this case (and is indeed omitted in this chapter). The notion of solvation and complexation are dynamic ones, as the ligand and the solvent molecules exchange with the bulk. Turning to the mechanism of complexation, two types of complexes can be envisioned: outer- and innersphere complexes. In the former case, the ligand and the central ion are separated by at least one solvent molecule. To form an inner-sphere complex, the entering ligand can expulse a solvent molecule (monodentate case) from the first solvation sphere, so that the coordination number remains constant but a change in the coordination may also occur (reorganisation of the solvation sphere). Reviews exist on this subject for lanthanides (Bünzli and Milicic-Tang, 1995; Choppin, 1997; Bünzli, 1998) and for actinides (Nash and Sullivan, 1998).

5.2. Experimental data: Effects of complexation on the spectroscopic parameters

For lanthanides, the wide question of the changes in the spectroscopic characteristics upon complexation has been already detailed in other publications (Bünzli and Choppin, 1989; Choppin and Peterman, 1998) but, to our knowledge, no similar work exists for actinides. Thus, in this chapter, the general trends will be presented for the various spectroscopic parameters with some emphasis on the actinide case, whenever possible.

5.2.1. Absorption

As was stressed above, in case of direct excitation of the lanthanides, the differences in the absorption spectra between the solvated ion and the complex formed are usually considered as slight but allow nevertheless the use of spectrophotometry for speciation purposes (for a recent example, see Giroux et al. (2000)). In the case of U(VI), the absorption changes observed upon complexation have often been used to determine equilibrium constants (for the classical example of U(VI) hydrolysed species, see Dai et al. (1998), Meinrath (1998)). For curium, no information of this kind is available: the low molar absorption coefficient implies the use of solutions with high total curium concentrations, which are almost impossible to handle nowadays due to safety reasons. The absorption spectra of curium are known only for aqueous solutions of HClO₄ (Carnall et al., 1958), HCl, H₂SO₄ and HNO₃ (Pascal, 1962).

Another way of exciting the probe of interest in its complexed form is through the so-called "antenna-effect", a notion relevant only for lanthanides and curium complexed to organic ligands. The basic principle is that of a Förster mechanism (see sect. 3.7.3): the ligand is excited with UV light and the energy is transferred to the metallic center, which then emits its specific luminescence. For very good publications on this aspect in the lanthanide case, the reader is referred to Parker and Williams (1996) and Bünzli (2003) and for an example in the case of curium, see Panak et al. (1995). Some applications of this phenomenon will be presented in sect. 6.

5.2.2. Lifetime values and decay spectra

As can be deduced from sect. 2.1, complexation leads to lifetime changes. Again, due to the large number of studies devoted to very specific organic ligands of the lanthanides (for some examples, see Klink et al. (2000), Latva et al. (1997), Steemers et al. (1995), Wang and Horrocks (1997), Elhabiri et al. (1999) and others cited elsewhere in this chapter), it is out of the scope of this chapter to review them all. A short list of lifetime values for some Eu(III) complexes (in D_2O) has already been presented in table 5. The general trend is an increase of the lifetime through complexation. The range available is very large: for Eu(III) in H₂O solution for example, values from 119 µs (with terephtalate, 1:1 complex, Wang et al. (1999)) to 1 ms (with a macrocyclic ligand, Wang and Horrocks (1997)) or 3.9 ms (dipicolinate ligand, An et al. (2000)) can be found. Similarly, large variations in lifetime values can be found for a series of Eu(III) complexes extracted in C₆H₆ (Lis et al., 1991).

Eu²⁺ luminescence deserves a special mention (see sect. 3.6.4 for a discussion of the data presented here). While Eu²⁺_{aq} is known to be non-luminescent in water (Sabbatini et al., 1982), it emits weakly in methanol and the luminescence is greatly enhanced through complexation in this solvent (Jiang et al., 1998). In one case, a very weak emission has been observed in water for a Eu(II) complex (Sabbatini et al., 1984). As compared to the Eu³⁺ luminescence characteristics, Eu²⁺ always displays a rather short lifetime in methanol (in the range of 2 ns for solvated Eu²⁺ and up to 800 ns when complexed with 15C5).³ The detailed studies by Jiang and co-workers also provide data for the quantum yields, the radiative and non radiative contribution to τ_{obs} together with the emission spectra (Jiang et al., 1998).

³ Furthermore, the emission range is in the green part of the visible spectrum (roughly from 380 to 500 nm).

For actinides, the general trend is also to an increase in the lifetime value upon complexation but the available range is more limited: for example, the 1:1 sulfato complex of U(VI) displays $\tau_{obs} = 4.3 \,\mu s$ (Geipel et al., 1996), UO₂F_{2aq} is quoted with $\tau_{obs} = 250 \,\mu s$ (Beitz and Williams, 1997), while the first two sulfato Cm³⁺ complexes present lifetimes equal to 88 μs and 95 μs (Fanghänel and Kim, 1998). However, this lifetime increase is not systematic and some carbonato U(VI) complexes have short lifetimes or exhibit no fluorescence (Bernhard et al., 2001). In fact, a recent study on the application of TRES to U(VI) aqueous speciation has revealed that the lifetime of U(VI) complexes depends on the nature of the electrolytes added to the solution (Billard et al., 2003a). This effect is most probably similar to that discussed for solvated ions (see sect. 3.3) but has never, to our knowledge, been examined in details for lanthanide complexes. Nothing is known for Cm complexes on that question. In conclusion, the lifetime measured in solution is not an intrinsic (i.e., characteristic) parameter of a given species and precise indications should be given on the exact composition of the solution for the sake of comparison.

The question of the decay behavior is not unimportant and will be discussed in the theoretical part in details (see also the discussion on data analysis in sect. 2.3). It is therefore of interest to review the experimental evidences on this point. For europium, depending on the ligand, the luminescence decays are either mono- or multi-exponential in the range of ligand concentration where both the solvated ion and the complex exist in solution (Ermolaev and Gruzdev, 1984; Horrocks and Sudnick, 1983; Wang et al., 1999). For all the (inorganic) ligands investigated with U(VI), the decay spectra are multiexponential, although two studies indicate a monoexponential behavior for U(VI)/ F^- (Beitz and Williams, 1997) and U(VI)/OH⁻ (Meinrath et al., 2000). Note however that for these last two systems, such a monoexponential behavior was not confirmed in a recent round-robin test (Billard et al., 2003a). For Cm³⁺, it seems that inorganic ligands lead to a monoexponential behavior in solution (a bi-exponential behavior has been observed for Cm³⁺ embedded in a calcite lattice (Stumpf and Fanghänel, 2002)), while organic ones lead to a multiexponential behavior, whatever the ligand concentration is (Panak et al., 1995; Klenze, 2001).

5.2.3. Excitation spectra and luminescence quantum yield

Due to the modifications of the electronic cloud induced by complexation, the quantum yield and the excitation spectrum are also modified. As the direct determination of the absolute quantum yield is very difficult to achieve, one usually finds in the literature quantum yield values determined by comparison to well-known standards, such as quinine sulfate. For example, some values can be found in Georges (1993) or in Klink et al. (2000) for some europium complexes but may be found also in many other papers on lanthanide luminescence. Studies on the correlations between the photophysical properties of a given type of europium complexes and the energy levels can be found in Latva et al. (1997), Klink et al. (2000). A correlation has been found between the excitation properties and the stoichiometry of various Eu(III) complexes (Choppin and Wang, 1997). Note that the changes in the excitation maximum induced by complexation usually amount to a few tenths of nanometers, which requires high resolution for detection. In the case of Eu(III), a correlation has been found between the frequency

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of the ${}^{5}D_{0} \leftrightarrow {}^{7}F_{0}$ transition and the nephelauxetic parameters of the coordinating atoms (Frey and Horrocks, 1995).

Very little is known on these topics for actinides, as it seems that the determination of quantum yields is not a common feature in this case: To the best of our knowledge, a single publication gives a few values of luminescence quantum yields in various media for uranyl (Katsumura et al., 1989) and nothing is known for Cm.

5.2.4. Emission spectra

In parallel to these lifetime changes, complexation induces tremendous modifications of the emission spectra, that have been examined for lanthanides in dedicated papers (for example, Hnatejko et al., 2000) or reviewed (Bünzli and Choppin, 1989). Briefly, for Eu(III), taken as a typical example of R(III) ions, the emission arises from the ${}^5D_0 \rightarrow {}^7F_J$ transitions, from which the ${}^5D_0 \rightarrow {}^7F_2$ (around 616 nm) exhibits hypersensitivity. Therefore, the wealth of information experimentally obtained is highly dependent on the scanning step used and a high resolution is needed to make the best of an emission spectrum (Bünzli and Choppin, 1989). However, even in the case of a low resolution, the changes are spectacular, as illustrated in fig. 7.

When specific information on the symmetry of the complex is not sought (or needed), the ratio, R, of the intensity of the ${}^{5}D_{0} \rightarrow {}^{7}F_{2}$ transition to that of the ${}^{5}D_{0} \rightarrow {}^{7}F_{1}$ (around 592 nm) can be used as an indicator of complexation. For Eu³⁺_{aq}, this ratio is equal to 0.36 (Kim et al., 1994). The R value depends on the symmetry of the complex (Bünzli and Choppin, 1989), and values around 10 for complex with low symmetry are not rare (Lis et al., 1991). Conversely, low R value can be obtained, such as 0.67 for a centrosymmetric complex at room temperature (Klink et al., 2000) or 0.21 for a T_h symmetry (T = 77 K) (Bünzli et al., 1999).

For U(VI), complexation usually induces a red shift (typically of 3 to 5 nm) of the emission spectra. For Cm(III), complexation also induces red-shifts of a few nm of the whole spectra so that complexation is observed mainly as a shoulder of increasing importance as the ligand concentration is increased (Fanghänel and Kim, 1998).



Fig. 7. Emission spectrum of Eu^{3+}_{aq} in slightly acidic aqueous (pH = 2) solution (Δ) and of its 1:1 complex with acetate (solid line). Units are arbitrary and the two spectra have been normalised at 592 nm.

5.3. General considerations

Obviously, TRES, by creating excited species, may be a very useful tool to study excited state chemistry (kinetics, equilibrium, etc.) but, as these excited species arise from the ground state ones, TRES may also give an insight into the ground-state speciation.

In the case of lanthanides studied by TRES, it has always been considered that the reactivity of the excited-state simply mimic that of the ground-state (Horrocks and Sudnick, 1983; Ermolaev and Gruzdev, 1984). To our knowledge, a single group raised some doubts on this question (Marcantonatos et al., 1982) but the experimental evidences on which this hypothesis was proposed appear somehow thin. In contrast, diverging opinions are found for the uranyl case: photophysicists have long been interested in the UO_2^{2+*} reactivity, which is considered to be *very* different from the reactivity of the UO_2^{2+} ground-state (Jørgensen and Reisfeld, 1982; Baird and Kemp, 1997). In the radiochemistry field, however, it is mostly assumed that ground-state uranyl reactions only govern the speciation and that the various species formed, once excited, *do not* interact: the hypothesis of the UO_2^{2+} excitedstate reactivity has hardly been evoked in radiochemical studies (Beitz and Williams, 1997; Meinrath et al., 2000). Finally, for Cm³⁺, although studies are relevant to the radiochemistry field only, it is assumed that Cm excited-state reactivity exists and is similar to that of the ground-state.

These opinions may appear rather contradictory at first glance and it is the hope of the author to show in the following sections that they are in fact just two faces of a same problem. Therefore, before presenting the general theoretical treatment which allows to actually reconcile these various approaches, the experimental evidences on which these opinions are based will be shortly presented and their main basis summarized.

5.3.1. Photophysical point of view and related experimental data

One of the main reasons of the interest in uranyl photophysics is that the photoexcited uranyl ion is one of the most oxidizing species known. Thus, two types of studies can be performed, either focussing on the photoreduction of U(VI) or on the oxidation of various moieties by U(VI)*. NMR (Rykov et al., 1991) or UV-Visible spectrophotometry can be used to follow the photoreduction/oxidation process. The species U(V) and/or U(IV) have been observed in various solutions such as $H_2SO_4/H_2O/XeO_3$ (Khamidullina et al., 1994), lactic acid in water (Yokoyama et al., 1974) or in dry acetone (Sandhu et al., 1990). A special mention should be made on the ease of U(VI) photoreduction by alcohols (Bell and Billings, 1975; Katsumura et al., 1989; Cunningham and Srijaranai, 1990; Nagaishi et al., 2002) and on the complexity of the envisioned schemes (Arvis et al., 1983; Katsumura et al., 1989). Large effects of dissolved oxygen (Cunningham and Srijaranai, 1990; Rykov et al., 1991), of NO₃⁻ (Katsumura et al., 1989) and of the irradiation time are found (Burrows et al., 1992; Khamidullina et al., 1994), which render the overall phenomenon difficult to describe. Catalytic oxidation of cyclohexane has been observed (Mooney et al., 1988). Although very interesting, such studies are not perfectly in line with the general topic of this chapter and will not be discussed further.

Pioneer studies have been performed in the late 1970s about various aspects of uranyl luminescence in solution, which appears to be sensitive to pH, temperature and to the addition

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of quenchers (in a wide sense). For a recent review on this subject (including solid state) see Baird and Kemp (1997). Below pH = 2, the decay spectra were claimed to present a biexponential behavior, correlated to significant changes in the emission spectra. This was ascribed to the appearance of a new emitting center (Deschaux and Marcantonatos, 1979). The exact nature of this new emitting center was the subject of numerous publications, both on theoretical and experimental aspects (Marcantonatos, 1977, 1978, 1980; Marcantonatos and Pawlowska, 1989). Two models were put forward to describe the experiments: the group of Marcantonatos and co-workers suggested an exciplex, $(U_2O_4H^{4+})^*$, and the group of Burrows and co-workers proposed a distinct excited state, noted X^{*}, linked to UO_2^{2+*} by a reversible crossing mechanism (Miguel et al., 1984). The experiments on which this last hypothesis relied were made at higher pH value, typically from 3 to 4.5. A discussion was therefore started whether the observed changes at low and high pH values could possibly be due to the same phenomena. The theoretical aspects were rather detailed, including in some cases over 30 parameters in order to reproduce the entire set of data (Marcantonatos, 1980). Arguments in favor of either of the two models were proposed, based on the experimental emission spectra and oscillator strength theory, and electronic assignments were suggested. However, none of these publications paid enough attention to three problems related to the way the experiments were performed and which severely hamper the discussion on the possible existence of an exciplex or any other excited species: (i) most of these experiments were performed with high uranyl concentrations (0.1 M in Miguel et al. (1984) or 1 M in Azenha et al. (1991), for example) and the counter-ion was usually NO_3^- , which is a well-known complexing agent of uranyl (Grenthe, 1992); (ii) the NO₃⁻ ion is known to absorb the excitation wavelengths used, leading to the creation of radicals with a complex photophysics (Mack and Bolton, 1999); (iii) above pH = 3, the hydrolysis of the groundstate UO_2^{2+} ion is a well-known phenomenon, which has not been considered at all in the first studies. All these problems shed doubts on the interpretations implying the formation of an exciplex or a reversible crossing mechanism, although the theory by itself is perfectly correct. In a very courageous paper, the group of Burrows admitted that its interpretation was misleading and that it is not necessary to consider an exciplex to interpret TRES data above pH 3, which were most probably ascribable to the excitation of hydrolysed groundstate species (Azenha et al., 1991). On the other hand, the experimental data of Marcantonatos and co-workers at low pH could not be reproduced by other groups (Park et al., 1990; Eliet et al., 1995) when NO₃⁻ counter-ions were avoided so that the hypothesis of an exciplex formation $(U_2O_4H^{4+})^*$ was abandoned in the early 1990s.

Finally, on more general grounds, it is important to note that numerous photophysical studies are devoted to the determination of rate constants reactions between excited species (for two examples, see Laws and Brand (1979), Al-Soufi et al. (2001)). In such studies, it is taken for granted that if only ground-state chemistry is involved, simple relationships are to be found between the amplitudes of the emission spectra and the concentrations of the ground-state species and that the observed lifetimes represent the distinct decay rates of the non-interacting species. In contrast, in the case of excited state reactions, it is clear that neither of these simple relationships exist (Beechem et al., 1985).

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5.3.2. Chemical point of view and related experimental data

From the experimental data briefly described in sect. 5.1, one sees that TRES has considerable potential for the study of complexation reactions and thus for the determination of the equilibrium constant K. This objective has been the subject of a large number of publications so that only some of them will be reviewed here and the main aspects of this question, together with the so far unanswered questions, will be discussed.

The determination of equilibrium constants from TRES experiments for lanthanide systems was first described independently by Horrocks and Sudnick (1983) and Ermolaev and Gruzdev (1984). Based on the hypothesis of the similarity of the excited and ground state reactivity, it was said that TRES easily gives access to the equilibrium constant of the ground-state, K, for fast and slow photochemical processes; for intermediate rates of photochemical processes, it was said that no information on K can be derived. However, the original papers did not provide a clear experimental evidence of this statement. Nevertheless, the method has been extensively used for K-determination and some studies, by displaying excellent agreements between the equilibrium constants derived from TRES and by other means, have clearly shown the great interest of the method for lanthanide systems (see table 7 for some values). However, it has to be noted that the number of comparative studies of this kind for the lanthanide case is, actually, very limited, as comparison is often made with values for Sm or Gd (Gruzdev, 1983; Albin et al., 1984) or for chemical conditions that differ significantly (Wu and Horrocks, 1997).

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System M/L	Experimentals	K by TRES	K by other means	Ref.
Eu ³⁺ /hemimellitate Eu ³⁺ /pyromellitate	TRES: pH ≤ 5.5 other: potentiometry, $I = 0.1$ M; $T = 298$ K	$\begin{array}{l} \beta_1 = 10^{5.25} \\ \beta_1 = 10^{5.81} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{l} \beta_1 = 10^{5.08} \\ \beta_1 = 10^{4.86} \end{array}$	TRES: (a) other: (b)
UO_2^{2+}/SO_4^{2-}	TRES: recalculated at $I = 0$ M other: recalculated at $I = 0$ M	$\begin{array}{l} \beta_1 = 10^{3.35} \\ \beta_2 = 10^{4.21} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{l} \beta_1 = 10^{3.15} \\ \beta_2 = 10^{4.14} \end{array}$	TRES: (c) other: (e)
UO ₂ ²⁺ /NO ₃ ⁻	TRES: <i>I</i> from 0.3 to 6.4 M other: recalculated at $I = 0$ M	$\beta_1 = 10^{-0.47}$	$\beta_1 = 10^{0.3}$	TRES: (d) other: (e)
UO2 ²⁺ /HPO4 ²⁻	TRES: $T = 20 ^{\circ}\text{C}$; recalculated at $I = 0 \text{ M}$ other: potentiometry; $T = 22 ^{\circ}\text{C}$; recalculated at $I = 0 \text{ M}$	$\beta_1 = 10^{19.53} \\ \beta_2 = 10^{22.31}$	$\beta_1 = 10^{19.87} \\ \beta_2 = 10^{22.58}$	TRES: (f) other: (f)

Table 7 Equilibrium constants, β_x , as determined by TRES and other techniques for some Eu(III) and U(VI) systems. β_x is defined for the reaction: $M + xL \rightleftharpoons ML_x$ (unless specified); $\beta_x = (ML_x)/[(M)(L)^x]$

^a β_x is defined for the reactions: $UO_2^{2+} + PO_4^{3-} + H^+ \hookrightarrow UO_2(HPO_4)$

	$UO_2^{2+} + PO_4^{3-} + 2H^+ \cong UO_2(H_2)$	$PO_4)^+$
References		
(a) Wang et al. (1999)	(c) Geinel et al. (1996)	(e) Grenthe (1997)

(a) Wang et al. (1999)	(c) Geipel et al. (1996)	(e) Grenthe (1992)
(b) Choppin et al. (1994)	(d) Couston et al. (1995)	(f) Brendler et al. (1996)

Table 8
Equilibrium constants, β_x , as determined by TRES and other techniques for some Cm(III) systems. β_x is defined for
the reaction: $M + xL \hookrightarrow ML_x$; $\beta_x = (ML_x)/[(M)(L)^x]$

System M/L	Experimentals	K by TRES	K by other	Ref.
			means	
Cm ³⁺ /SO ₄ ²⁻	TRES: $I = 2$ M; $T = 25$ °C other: extraction, pH = 3; $I = 2$ M; $T = 25$ °C	$\beta_1 = 6.68^a$ $\beta_2 = 2.51$	$\beta_1 = 22$ $\beta_2 = 73$	TRES: (a) other: (b)
Cm ³⁺ /Cl ⁻	TRES: <i>I</i> from 2.27 to 6 molal Other: ion exchange	$\begin{array}{l} 0.02 < \beta_1 < 0.046 \\ 7 \times 10^{-4} < \beta_2 < 10^{-2} \end{array}$	$\beta_1 = 1.6$ $\beta_2 = 0.9$	TRES: (g) other: (b)
Cm ³⁺ /F ⁻	TRES: $T = 25 \text{ °C}$; $I = 0.5 \text{ molal}$ Other: extraction; pH = 3.6, $I = 0.5 \text{ M}$	$\beta_1 = 316^{\rm b}$	$\beta_1 = 2.2 \times 10^3$	TRES: (c) other: (b)
Cm ³⁺ /OH ⁻	TRES: recalculated at $I = 0$ M; $T = 25 \degree$ C other: diluted medium; $T = 25 \degree$ C	$\beta_1 = 10^{6.44}$	$\beta_1 = 10^{6.3}$	TRES: (a) other: (e)

^aThis system has been studied by TRES in the range of ionic strength from 10^{-2} to 6 molal, but β_x values are displayed only for I = 2 M, to allow comparison with other data from the literature.

^bThe β_1 value at I = 0.5 M has been interpolated from the data provided in Ref. (c) to allow comparison with other data from the literature.

References

(a) Fanghänel and Kim (1998)	(d) Wimmer et al. (1992)	(g) Fanghänel et al. (1995)
(b) Katz et al. (1986)	(e) Fuger (1992)	
(c) Aas et al. (1999)	(f) Grenthe (1992)	

In more recent years, the method has been directly applied to various systems containing curium: complexing anion such as F⁻ (Aas et al., 1999), OH⁻ (Wimmer et al., 1992; Fanghänel et al., 1994), 5-sulfo-salicylate (Klenze et al., 1998), CO₃²⁻ (Fanghänel et al., 1998a, 1998b) and SO_4^{2-} (Paviet et al., 1996) have been investigated. In these papers, reference to the theoretical result obtained on lanthanide systems is clear. Unfortunately, comparison between equilibrium constants as determined by TRES and other techniques is very difficult for curium systems: in the past, solvent extraction or ion exchange were used (Katz et al., 1986) but these techniques require a large amount of radioactive material. Thus, TRES appears nowadays to be the only available technique, so that comparison with determinations performed using other techniques is only possible for a very limited number of systems. The comparison reveals some discrepancies, as illustrated in table 8. In the case of the Cm^{3+}/Cl^{-} system, the rather large discrepancies are attributed to the fact that TRES is sensitive to innersphere complexes only, while other techniques do not make distinction between inner- and outer-sphere complexes, thus leading to an enhanced equilibrium constant, as compared to TRES (Fanghänel et al., 1995). However, this argument is not valid for sulfate complexation. In order to overcome the lack of stability constant data for Cm³⁺, tentative comparisons have been made with known values for Pu or Am ($\text{Cm}^{3+}/\text{Cl}^{-}$ system, Fanghänel et al. (1995)) or with values for Tb, Sm, Am and Pu (Cm³⁺/sulfosalicylate system, Klenze et al. (1998)).

At the same time, uranyl reactivity has been studied by TRES without any reference to the theoretical results mentioned above for the lanthanides, as it was more or less clearly assumed that the uranyl excited-state reactivity is negligible (Geipel et al., 1996; Lopez and Birch,

1997; Moulin et al., 1998; Rutsch et al., 1999; Eliet et al., 2000). As a matter of fact, the value of the equilibrium constant as determined by TRES for some uranyl systems are in very good agreement with the value obtained by other means (see table 7). A very limited number of papers on uranyl reactivity as followed by TRES suggested that the photoreactivity is not negligible $(U(VI)/F^-)$ in Beitz and Williams, 1997 and $U(VI)/OH^-$ in Meinrath et al., 2000) but these results were not firmly assessed in a recent round-robin test (Billard et al., 2003a).

5.4. General kinetic scheme

Considering the literature review above, it is necessary to develop a comprehensive view that may apply to any system, whatever the luminescent probe is, each system being considered as one specific case of a more general theory. In this section, we first discuss the general scheme of (photo)chemical equations needed to describe a TRES experiment as well as a simplified scheme without photophysical reactions. The theoretical conditions to derive equilibrium constants from TRES data are discussed for the R(III), U(VI), and Cm(III) cases and are related to the experimental data presented above.

A solution is supposed to contain two species, M and L, which form a 1:1 complex. The general reaction scheme after pulsed laser excitation of M can be described as in scheme 1.

K is the equilibrium constant in the ground state, $k_{1,2}$ are the reaction rate constants in the excited state and $k_{M,ML}$ are the intrinsic fluorescence decay rates of M* and M*L, respectively. In this scheme, M is the fluorescent probe and it is assumed that complexation, although modifying the electronic configuration of M, still allows for luminescence to occur. In contrast, L is assumed not to absorb at the excitation wavelength. A typical TRES experiment consists in measuring time-resolved emission spectra as a function of the ligand concentration up to a large excess with respect to the concentration of the metal ion. Scheme 1 corresponds to the general situation where both ground-state and excited state reactions occur. One of the questions raised by Horrocks and Sudnick (1983) or Ermolaev and Gruzdev (1984) is under which conditions scheme 1, which leads to rather complicated rate equations, can be approximated by scheme 2, which neglects excited state reactions.

In this model, K_{app} stands for the *apparent* equilibrium constant. Whether or not K_{app} is a good approximation for the constant K in scheme 1 is clearly an important question for experiments studying ground-state complexation reactions. As a whole, these two schemes and the conditions under which model 2 is a good approximation for model 1 (with the advantage



Scheme 1. Comprehensive photochemical kinetic scheme describing a TRES experiment.



Scheme 2. Simplified kinetic scheme without photochemical processes.

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of an easier manipulation) correspond to the photophysical and chemical points of view discussed in sects. 5.3.1 and 5.3.2. The detailed mathematical treatment of these two schemes can be found elsewhere (Billard et al., 2003a) for time-independent reaction rate constants k_1 and k_2 and, for example, in Molski and Boens (1997), Molski et al. (1998) for time-dependent reaction rate constants. Note that the question of time and space-dependence of k_1 and k_2 , although very important and difficult to solve (see sect. 4.1.6 for a insight onto this question), does not have to be considered here because such a phenomenon occurs on the pico- and subpicosecond time scale, which is far below the time resolution of usual TRES setups and the usual lifetimes of the luminescent probes of interest in this chapter. Therefore, this point will not be discussed further. It is out of the scope of this text to enter into the minute analysis of the mathematics and only the main results will be presented, focussing on the physical implications.

5.5. Main results and physical implications

The time dependences of M* and M*L for schemes 1 and 2 are:

Scheme 1:
$$[M^*](t) = A \exp(\Lambda_1 t) + B \exp(\Lambda_2 t)$$
 (23a)
 $[M^*L](t) = C \exp(\Lambda_1 t) + D \exp(\Lambda_2 t)$
Scheme 2: $[M^*(t)] = [M^*](0) \exp(-k_M t)$ (23b)
 $[M^*L(t)] = [M^*L](0) \exp(-k_{ML} t)$

where Λ_1 and Λ_2 have negative values and are given by the roots of a second order polynomial, which depends on [L], k_M , k_{ML} , k_1 and k_2 in a complex way:

$$\Lambda_{1,2} = -\frac{1}{2}(k_{\rm M} + k_{\rm ML} + k_2[{\rm L}] + k_1) \pm \sqrt{(k_{\rm M} + k_{\rm ML} + k_2[{\rm L}] + k_1)^2 - 4[(k_{\rm ML} + k_1)(k_{\rm M} + k_2[{\rm L}]) - k_1k_2]}.$$
 (24)

For scheme 1, the luminescence decay, i.e. the time dependence of the sum of M^* and M^*L , reflects two decaying modes that are not specific to the two luminescing moieties M^* and M^*L : the two excited species both decay with two different lifetime values, $(-1/\Lambda_1)$ and $(-1/\Lambda_2)$, that are a function of [L] (eq. (24)).⁴ In contrast, in the case of model 2, each decaying species is characterized by its own lifetime, $1/k_M$ or $1/k_{ML}$, both independent of [L]. Conversely, one may consider the emission spectra and the intensities, J_i^1 or J_i^2 , associated with the emitting species M^* and M^*L under the frame of model 1 or 2:

Scheme 1:
$$J_1^1 = -\frac{Ak_{\text{rad},1}}{\Lambda_1} - \frac{Bk_{\text{rad},1}}{\Lambda_2}$$

$$J_2^1 = -\frac{Ck_{\text{rad},2}}{\Lambda_1} - \frac{Dk_{\text{rad},2}}{\Lambda_2}$$
(25a)

⁴ As a consequence, attempt to use eq. (12b) to get an insight into the hydration number in this case is meaningless (Holz et al., 1990a).

Scheme 2:
$$J_1^2 = \frac{k_{\text{rad},1}\alpha[M]}{\lambda_1}$$

 $J_2^2 = \frac{k_{\text{rad},2}\beta[ML]}{\lambda_2}$

where α and β are defined as follows:

$$[M^*](0) = \alpha[M],$$

 $[M^*L](0) = \beta[ML].$

In both models, the two species M^* and M^*L have their own characteristic emission spectra, the intensities of which depend upon [L]. In other words, the total emission spectrum is the weighted sum of the individual contributions, which have very different expressions whether one considers model 1 or 2 (see eqs. (25a) and (25b)).

Therefore, the emitting species M^* and M^*L can in principle be identified from a decomposition of the total emission spectrum, and thus TRES experiments are mainly based on the evaluation of emission spectra rather than luminescence decays. However, a detailed analysis of the decays allows one to derive important information that cannot be obtained through the emission spectra, as will be explained below. In the frame of model 2, it is easily shown that the expressions of the relative contributions of the two species to the global emission spectrum contain only one unknown parameter, K_{app} , while the equivalent expressions under the frame of model 1 are much more complex. This raises the question as to whether model 2 can be considered a reasonable approximation of the more complex scheme 1. This issue can be discussed qualitatively on the basis of three distinct cases of model 1, depending on the importance of photochemical reactions.

(i) If reactions in the excited state are negligible, i.e., if k_1 and k_2 are small as compared to the decay rates of the excited species (regime A), model 2 is obviously expected to be a good approximation of model 1. In this case, no significant mixing occurs before the majority of excited species has decayed to their respective ground states. One obtains:

$$K_{\rm app} = K. \tag{26}$$

This result is in agreement with those obtained by Horrocks and Sudnick (1983) and Ermolaev and Gruzdev (1984). Furthermore, under the frame of model 1 for slow excited state processes, the decays are multiexponential and the lifetimes do not vary significantly with [L].

(ii) If the rate constants of the photochemical processes are on the same order of magnitude as those of the intrinsic decays (regime B), model 2 is not expected to be a good approximation for model 1. Again, this qualitative result is in agreement with the study of Horrocks and Sudnick (1983), even though the mathematical expressions presented in their work do not seem to be correct (Billard et al., 2003a). Under the frame of model 1, the decays are multiexponential but the photochemical processes induce a non negligible scrambling of the excited species, so that the lifetimes depend on [L], one decreasing and the other one increasing as [L] increases.

(iii) The third case corresponds to rapid photochemical processes, where the equilibrium between the excited species is attained before a noticeable amount has decayed (regime C).

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(25b)

In this case, it can be shown that one of the two lifetimes $(-1/\Lambda_1)$ or $(-1/\Lambda_2)$ vanishes, so that the luminescence decays appear monoexponential (model 1). Although this scenario differs considerably from the assumptions of model 2, one can nevertheless fit the experimental emission spectra by use of model 2 in order to obtain an apparent equilibrium constant K_{app} . The question remains as to the relationship between the derived K_{app} value and the various parameters of the kinetic scheme 1. An expression of K_{app} , based on a qualitative reasoning, can be obtained, by successively considering the three important steps of light absorption, equilibrium and decay to the ground state: the quantities of $[M^*]$ and $[M^*L]$ generated by laser excitation depend upon the equilibrium constant K and the photoabsorption coefficients α and β , a point already mentioned in Moriyasu et al. (1977a). The information on K which is contained in the values $[M^*](0)$ and $[M^*L](0)$ is then lost due to the rapid photochemical processes defined by the equilibrium constant in the excited state, K^* , which instantaneously leads to new values of [M^{*}] and [M^{*}L]. Therefore, K_{app} is proportional to K^* . For given values of K and K^{*}, an increase in α (all other parameters being unchanged) will create an increased amount of $[M^*](0)$ which will be counterbalanced by an increased complexation through K^* . Conversely, an increase in β will induce an enhanced dissociation of M*L. Therefore, K_{app} is proportional to the ratio (α/β) . Finally, the time dependence of [M^{*}] and $[M^*L]$ is governed by two processes, the depletion by deactivation (k_M and k_{ML}) and the equilibrium reaction ($K^* = k_2/k_1$). Assuming $k_M > k_{ML}$, deactivation occurs predominantly via the channel $M^* \to M$. Thus, more photons come from the M^* decay than expected if no dissociation of M*L would occur. With these considerations in mind, model 2 can be regarded as an approximation of scheme 1 with the following expression of K_{app} :

$$K_{\rm app} = K^* \frac{\alpha}{\beta} \frac{\tau_{\rm M}}{\tau_{\rm ML}}.$$
(27)

This qualitative result can be applied to any luminescent chemical system. It differs from the relation proposed in Horrocks and Sudnick (1983), which does not include the term $(\alpha/\beta)(\tau_M/\tau_{ML})$. Finally, in the case of fast photochemical processes, the decays are monoexponential but the single lifetime is a function of [L] (see eq. (24)), and varies from $\tau_M([L] = 0 \text{ M})$ to τ_{ML} (L in large excess).

In conclusion, the behavior of the luminescence decays allows one to determine to which regime (A, B or C) corresponds the system under study. For A and C regimes, the analysis of the emission spectra allows one to derive a value of K_{app} , which can be easily related to K^* in the latter case and to K in the former.

5.6. Discussion: Application to lanthanides and actinides

In the case of lanthanides, the 4f electrons, which are involved in the photoexcitation process, are strongly shielded. Hence one may assume that:

$$K^* \approx K.$$
 (28)

This yields:

$$K_{\rm app} \approx K \frac{\alpha}{\beta} \frac{\tau_{\rm M}}{\tau_{\rm ML}}.$$
 (29)

From the literature review proposed in sect. 5.2.3 regarding the decay behavior, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- (i) Uranyl systems correspond to regime A or B, with the possible exception of the F⁻ ligand.
- (ii) Europium systems belonging to either one of the three regimes have been reported.

(iii) Curium systems fall within regime C for all inorganic ligands investigated so far.

Depending on the element of interest (R(III), U(VI) or Cm(III)), these results lead to different implications for the K_{app} values as determined by TRES and how they can be related to *K* (eqs. (26)–(29)).

For the uranium systems (except for F^- , which is a doubtful case), the value of K_{app} , determined by TRES and calculated according to model 2, is in fact equal to K (see eq. (26)). This is confirmed in the case of the UO_2^{2+}/SO_4^{2-} system (Geipel et al., 1996) by the very good agreement between the equilibrium constants as recommended by the Nuclear Energy Agency (NEA) and the value from TRES (table 7).

In the case of europium complexation, depending on the type of ligand, TRES experiments give access directly to K (regime A) or cannot be used to derive K (regime B). For a system that falls within regime C, the determination of K is feasible, provided that the term $(\alpha/\beta)(\tau_M/\tau_{ML})$ is measured or known: in fact, for the very few Eu(III) systems for which the K_{app} value derived by TRES has been compared to the value derived by other techniques (see table 7), it happens that τ_{ML} values are below 140 µs (Albin et al., 1984; Wang et al., 1999) while $\tau_M \approx 110 \ \mu s$ (lifetime of Eu³⁺_{aq}). This yields $\tau_M / \tau_{ML} \approx 1-1.3$. In addition, the strong shielding of the 4f electrons in lanthanide elements results in small variations of the absorption coefficient upon complexation (Bryden and Reilley, 1982; Clarkson et al., 2000; Giroux et al., 2000), which would give $\alpha/\beta \approx 1$ for the excitation wavelengths used in these studies. Hence, the term $(\alpha/\beta)(\tau_M/\tau_{ML})$ is expected to be close to unity. This explains the agreement obtained between equilibrium constants measured by TRES and other techniques (Wang et al., 1999). Finally, it is often noted in the literature, as a general remark, that the emission lifetimes in water for Eu (but also for Gd or Tb) are long enough, as compared to the ligand and water exchange rates, to consider that the lanthanide ion in its excited state reaches thermodynamic equilibrium with the ligand in solution. This remark is perfectly correct for regime C but is not applicable to regime A: as europium systems are found for which the luminescence decays are multiexponential, this means that k_1 and k_2 are small enough to avoid equilibrium between the excited species taking place within their lifetimes. Again, attention should be paid to the decay behavior in order to characterise the system.

For the systems curium/inorganic ligands studied, on the other hand, the K_{app} values derived by TRES are proportional to K^* rather than to K (see eq. (27)). To our knowledge, no simple relationship between K^* and K has been derived for 5f elements and the assumption $K^* \approx K$ simply relies on the similarities in the chemistry of 4f and 5f elements, a point which does not appear to be straightforward (Choppin, 1983). However, the question of a difference between K and K^* is not unimportant, as this difference can be very large in some systems, e.g., $K^* = 10^{-2.8}$ and $K = 10^{-9.5}$ for deprotonation of 2-naphtol (Laws and Brand, 1979).

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In addition, even under the assumption $K^* \approx K$, the needed (α/β) value is difficult to determine experimentally, because of the large amounts of Cm required for such a measurement. As a whole, although no precise information on possible differences between K^* and K can be given presently for Cm, it appears that the question of estimating the possible difference between these two quantities remains unanswered. This point is of a certain relevance for calculations of the migration of curium in the environment (Nitzsche et al., 2000). In this respect, some doubts have been shed on the K values determined by TRES for the two systems $\text{Cm}^{3+}/\text{CO}_3^{2-}$ and $\text{Cm}^{3+}/\text{SO}_4^{2-}$ by some authors (Felmy and Rai, 1999).

5.7. Conclusion on the determination of equilibrium constants by TRES

TRES appears to be a sensitive tool to follow lanthanide and actinide complexation in solution, because most of the spectroscopic parameters are influenced by complexation. It has been shown that caution should be paid to the type of photochemical processes occurring in solution in order to correctly analyse the data. Taking account this important point, TRES is an interesting technique for the determination of equilibrium constants. From a more fundamental viewpoint, one may wonder why inorganic ligands lead to regime A with U(VI) and to regime C with Cm(III).

However, the effective experimental problems encountered in the determination of Kvalues with TRES have not been discussed yet. These problems are of two distinct types. First, as already stressed, the correct analysis of a luminescence decay (i.e., mono- or multiexponential behaviour) is not a straightforward task, as has been shown in the case of welldefined U(VI) systems (Billard et al., 2003a). In the case where more than two luminescent species are present in solution, overlap of the different emission spectra is also a problem, which limits the number of "ideal" systems to be studied. As a whole, it should be emphasized that TRES, although attractive, is not an "easy" technique and requires much effort, patience and great caution in data analysis. Second, nothing has been said in this section about the possible bias that can be generated by the photodegradation of the ligand, due to too intense irradiation. This point has to be avoided in TRES experiments but cannot be foreseen for a given ligand, especially organic or biological ones. A few publications of general interest are suggested on this point: Lao (1996), Holz et al. (1999), Nijegorodov and Mabbs (2000), together with publications directly related to this problem for lanthanide or actinide systems (Matsumoto and Azuma, 1988; Bouby et al., 1998; Morgenstern et al., 2000; Monsallier et al., 2001).

6. Analytical applications of TRES: A few examples

6.1. Trace amount determination of lanthanides and actinides

When looking for R(III) determination, use can be made of the "antenna effect" already discussed in sect. 3.7, provided the lanthanide of interest is luminescent. The basic principle is to add a given organic ligand, which will ensure a high complexation constant with the lanthanide together with an efficient UV absorption and energy transfer to the R(III)

ion. The lanthanide luminescence can thus be detected down to the 10^{-10} M range, depending on the ligand and on the lanthanide. Note that the luminescence is so intense in most cases that time-resolved devices are usually not needed to achieve detection. A previous review has collected a large number of data on this question, to which the reader is referred (Horrocks and Albin, 1984); more recent papers on this topics present detection limits in the range 10^{-8} to 10^{-9} M, depending on the element (Berregi et al., 1999; Peter et al., 1992) and down to 0.11 ppt in the case of co-luminescence (Jenkins and Murray, 1996). Table 9 displays selected detection limits obtained for various lanthanides and actinides.

Another possibility is to take advantage of the effect of various supporting electrolytes (in a wide sense) that act as luminescence enhancers, as discussed in sect. 3.3, such as phosphoric acid. This method has been investigated in details both for lanthanides and actinides

Element	Experimentals	Limit of detection	Ref.
All RE (but Pm),	calcein complexation;	5.2×10^{-8} M (Lu); 9×10^{-8} M (Ho);	
La, Yb	6.0 < pH < 9.2,	6.9×10^{-7} M (La)	
Mixtures of RE	depending on the element	$4.5 \times 10^{-8} \text{ M}$	(a)
		(total concentration)	
	DPA complexation; $7 < pH < 11$	14 ppt	
Eu	DPA plus columinescence (Yb)	0.11 ppt	(b)
	$3 \text{ M K}_2 \text{CO}_3 \text{ medium}$	$0.1 \mu g l^{-1}$	(c)
	DPA complexation; $7 < pH < 11$	2.4 ppt	(b)
Tb	DPA plus columinescence (Yb)	0.056 ppt	
	DPA plus columinescence (Yb)	1 μg l ⁻¹	(c)
	DPA complexation; $7 < pH < 11$	140 ppt	(b)
Sm	$3 \text{ M K}_2 \text{CO}_3 \text{ medium}$	$1.5 \mu g l^{-1}$	(c)
	DPA complexation; $7 < pH < 11$	640 ppt	
Dy	DPA plus columinescence (Yb)	53 ppt	(b)
	$3 \text{ M K}_2 \text{CO}_3 \text{ medium}$	$0.5 \mu g l^{-1}$	(c)
U		10 pptr	(d)
	concentrated H ₃ PO ₄	1 ng l ⁻¹	(e)
Am	TTA-TOPO/triton X-100	$pprox 10^{-8}~{ m M}$	(f)
	$3 \text{ M K}_2 \text{CO}_3 \text{ medium}$	$5 \times 10^{-11} \text{ M}$	(g)
Cm	TTA-TOPO/triton X-100	$4 \times 10^{-13} \text{ M}$	(h)

 Table 9

 Detection limits for the determination of lanthanides and actinides as determined by TRES

DPA: 2,6-pyridinedicarboxylic acid; TTA: thenoyltrifluoroacetone; TOPO: tri-n-octylphosphine oxide.

References

(a) Berregi et al. (1999)	(d) Kaminski et al. (1981)	(g) Decambox et al. (1989)
(b) Jenkins and Murray (1996)	(e) Brina and Miller (1992)	
(c) Berthoud et al. (1989)	(f) Thouvenot et al. (1993)	(h) Moulin et al. (1991b)

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in various media of interest to the nuclear fuel cycle industry, such as solutions containing U and Pu (Berthoud et al., 1988; Moulin et al., 1996), human urines (Decambox et al., 1991) or blood (Scapolan et al., 1998) but also for natural waters (Moulin et al., 1990). The commercial complexing agent called "fluran", which is widely used for uranium detection, is a purified (uranium free) mixture of Na₄P₂O₇ and NaH₂PO₄ (buffer at pH = 7).⁵ For lanthanides, depending on the element, the detection limit is from 0.1 μ g1⁻¹ to 50 μ g1⁻¹ (Berthoud et al., 1989). For Cm, detections limits as low as 5 × 10⁻¹¹ M (carbonated medium, Decambox et al., 1989) or 5 × 10⁻¹³ M (micellar system, Moulin et al., 1991b) were obtained. A summary of some detection limits can be found in Moulin et al. (1991a).

In the specific case of the determination of trace amounts of actinides, it is interesting to compare the results obtained by TRES to those obtained by other techniques. This very brief presentation is based on a very detailed and comprehensive lecture on radioactive ultra-trace determination in the environment (Aupiais, 2001, in French). In order to detect radioactive traces in environmental samples, various techniques are available (α and β liquid scintillation, γ spectrometry, mass spectrometry, ...), which most of the time are coupled to a preconcentration of the sample. Such methods allow isotope discrimination, which is impossible with TRES. Another restriction of TRES as compared to the other techniques available is that TRES is strictly limited to luminescent elements. On the other hand, liquid scintillation is a rather time-consuming method as compared to TRES. For example, detection limits with α liquid scintillation are equal to 2×10^{-10} mol for ²³⁸U and 9×10^{-19} mol for ²⁴⁴Cm but the acquisition time is on the order of a few days, to be compared with TRES acquisition times of a few minutes. In the case of Cm, the advantage of α liquid scintillation is clear but TRES appears to be competitive in the case of U, if no isotopic discrimination is required.

6.2. Trace amount determination of other ions

The Stern–Volmer equation (see sect. 4) may be used to determine small amounts of a species which would behave as an inhibitor of a given luminescent probe. The detection limit depends, among other parameters, on $k_{\rm M}$ and on the detection limits of the setup. The potentials of this method for analytical purposes are discussed, on a general aspect, in Borissevitch (1999), Rakicioglu et al. (1998) and the specific cases of Eu(III) or U(VI) are presented in Georges (1993), Lopez and Birch (1996), Kessler (1998). For example, a detection limit of 7 ng l⁻¹ for Cu²⁺ is obtained (Lopez and Birch, 1996). Numerous factors may render the method difficult to apply: besides the variations of $k_{\rm SV}$ as a function of ionic strength, if more than one quencher is present in solution, it becomes difficult to determine their individual concentrations. This problem has been studied in the case of solutions that more or less mimic the nuclear fuel solutions in Katsumura et al. (1989).

6.3. Luminescent lanthanide sensors

This subject is very important, vivid and passionating and has generated a wealth of specific publications and reviews. Although related to the main topics of this chapter, because of the

⁵ Mix equal volumes of solution A (Na₄P₂O₇ C = 5 × 10⁻³ M) and solution B (NaH₂PO₄ C = 0.4 M) before use. If necessary, adjust to pH = 7.

use of lanthanide luminescence, it is out of the scope of this chapter to make a comprehensive presentation of this subject. Therefore, we will restrict ourselves to a short presentation, making reference to a limited number of recent reviews on the subject to which the reader is referred to gain deeper information. For an historical perspective, see Soini and Lövgren (1987).

The basic idea is to take advantage of the antenna effect (as described in sect. 3.7). The sensitiser, owing to its specific chemical structure, may be sensitive to changes in the solution (for example, protonation/deprotonation as a function of pH, presence/absence of a given moiety which will modify energy levels of the antenna through complexation). The energy transfer to the lanthanide will reflect these changes, and therefore the complex (antenna + lanthanide) will act as a sensor of some specific physico-chemical changes. This principle is very general and can be used with other metal ions than lanthanides. A recent review on this aspect for heavy and transition metal ions can be found in Rurack (2001). The physical principles detailed elsewhere in this chapter (Förster–Dexter mechanism, Stern– Volmer law, electron transfer, ...) directly apply to lanthanide sensors as detailed in two recent reviews on the subject (Parker, 2000; Bazin et al., 2001). Usually, the changes in the luminescence intensity is monitored but in the case of fluoroimmunoassays, detection by use of time-resolved setups can also be of great interest (Hemmilä and Webb, 1997; Hemmilä and Mukkala, 2001). Note that detection through lifetime changes is also possible (Bare et al., 2002). In some cases, detection limits are very good (10^{-18} mol) (Hemmilä and Webb, 1997). In order to improve the sensitivity and the panel of sensors, the question then remains on how to design specific sensors.

So far, lanthanide-based sensors have been successfully used for drug screening, assays and diagnostics as reviewed in Hemmilä and Webb (1997). Sensors for pH, pO₂ and some anions $(Cl^-, CO_3^{2-}, ...)$ have been tested as examplified in Parker et al. (1998), Bazzicalupi et al. (2001). In the case where protonation/deprotonation of part of the ligand (in its excited state) is the sensor basis, the pK_a of interest is that of the excited state, which may differ from that of the ground-state, as explained in sect. 5 (Parker et al., 1998; Blair et al., 2001).

7. General conclusion

Through the various aspects treated here, the author hopes she has convinced the reader of the wide interest of TRES both for applied and fundamental aspects of lanthanide and actinide chemistry in solution. In particular, it was shown that theoretical approaches can be confronted to experimental data in fields as different as electron and energy transfers, ion interactions or photochemistry for example. In addition, TRES can be of great interest to the determination of equilibrium constants. Although nothing has been said in this chapter about micellar systems, colloids, solids and interfaces (in a wide sense), TRES is also a tool of large potential for the analysis of these media. TRES has been demonstrated to be of great interest for the study of U(VI) dissolved in supercritical CO₂ (see, for example, the very good paper of Addleman and Wai, 1999). Other systems with high interest for TRES studies are Room Temperature Ionic

Liquids (RTILs) and molten salts, two types of liquid media gaining increasing interest in various fields of chemistry: in addition to their general interest in "green chemistry" (RTILs) and in the nuclear fuel reprocessing industry (molten salts), their characteristics render them attractive for TRES experiments: they are transparent, photostable, and they can dissolve rather large amounts of various salts. Under such conditions, it is very probable that TRES will be used in the near future for the study of these liquids (Billard et al., 2003b).

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Chapter 217

OPTICAL STUDIES OF NON-METALLIC COMPOUNDS UNDER PRESSURE

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List of symbols and abbreviations

$\overline{B}_k(R)$	intrinsic crystal-field parameters	HOMO	Highest Occupied Molecular Orbital
B_q^k	crystal-field parameters	Ι	intensity
$C_q^{(k)}$	tensor operators	J	total angular momentum
CFCM	central-field covalency model	L	total orbital angular momentum
CTS	charge transfer state	LUMO	Lowest Unoccupied Molecular Orbital
DAC	diamond anvil cell	n	refractive index
$D_{\rm ED}$	electric dipole strength	Ν	renormalisation coefficient
$D_{\rm MD}$	magnetic dipole strength	р	pressure
е	elementary charge	$R_j, \vartheta_j, \varphi_j$	ligand coordinates
F^k	Slater parameters	S	crystal-field strength
G_{iO}^K	correlation crystal-field parameters	S	total spin angular momentum

SCCF	spin-correlated crystal field	κ	isothermal compressibility
SRCM	symmetry-restricted covalency model	Г	linewidth
t_k	power law exponent	$\Gamma_{\rm i}$	irreducible representation
W	transition rate	λ	wavelength
Z^*	effective nuclear charge	μ	crystal quantum number
α, β, γ	two-body configuration interaction parame-	ν	wavenumber
	ters	ω	phonon frequency
α_P	polarizability	τ_R	radiative lifetime
β_R	branching ratio	ζ	spin-orbit coupling parameter
ε	dielectric function	$\Omega_{2,4,6}$	Judd-Ofelt intensity parameters

1. Introduction

Ever since the foundations of spectroscopy were laid the problem of the relationship between the optical spectra emitted or absorbed by matter and the microscopic properties of the matter has been regarded as a fundamental problem. A class of very interesting systems with this regard is provided by non-metallic compounds of rare-earth ions with partially filled 4f shells. Their rich electronic structure is only weakly perturbed by the environment and provides a detailed fingerprint of the surrounding arrangement of atoms and their interactions with the f-electrons.

Valuable insight has been obtained by measuring the spectra of rare-earth ions in various host lattices. However, with respect to the relation of energy levels and host lattice structure, the presence of different ligands and local distortions around the impurity ion in each host lattice and the limited number of isostructural crystals available for spectroscopic studies restrict the empirical information thus obtainable.

High pressure techniques, in contrast, offer a more powerful method for such studies. By applying pressure one can vary the interatomic distances continuously and thereby study the crystal structure dependence of the f-electron states directly. A second, equally interesting possibility is based on the different sensitivities of the energies of electronic states on interatomic distances. These specific sensitivities allows the experimentalist to alter the energy difference between two states and thus to get unique information about their mutual influence.

The first published work on the pressure dependence of optical spectra of solids seems to be of Paetzold (1940), who has studied the effect of pressure on absorption spectra of praseodymium nitrate, ruby, and other minerals between 1938 and 1939. To generate a maximum pressure of 0.1 GPa the samples were subjected to pressurised nitrogen. Using the same high pressure apparatus, Hellwege and Schröck-Vietor (1955) studied the pressure dependence of the absorption spectra of EuZn-nitrate. These authors, for the first time, applied the crystal-field Hamiltonian formalism for the analysis of the high pressure spectroscopic results.

The development of a squeezer apparatus for optical studies by Drickamer and his coworkers (Fitch et al., 1957) and almost at the same time the development of the diamond anvil cell (DAC) (Weir et al., 1959; Jamieson et al., 1959) provided real breakthrough in the experimental study of lanthanide crystal fields under high pressure in general. Since then, different rare-earth ions in various compounds have been investigated and in many studies the pressure dependence of the crystal-field and free-ion parameters were determined and interpreted. Recently, Bray (2001) has compiled several examples of luminescence properties of transition metal and lanthanide systems under pressure.

The aim of this chapter is to present a review of the high pressure optical studies on rareearth ions in non-metallic compounds. Other methods, as for example neutron scattering, magnetic resonance techniques or Mößbauer spectroscopy will not be considered here, unless they provide additional valuable information to the optical studies. It will be demonstrated that the problem of host lattice structural dependence of $4f^N$ states can be effectively tackled by high pressure techniques and hopefully the interest for further, more refined high pressure studies of this problem can be stimulated.

In the next section the rare-earth compounds that have been studied by optical means under pressure so far will be reviewed. Then, after a brief introduction of the most commonly used high pressure device, the diamond anvil cell, sect. 4 presents a discussion of the pressure-induced changes of the crystal-field levels and their interpretation. In sects. 5 and 6 some aspects of the dynamical effects under pressure are discussed. These include lifetime and intensity measurements, the influence due to excited configurations and charge transfer bands, and the electron–phonon coupling.

2. High pressure technique

A huge variety of different approaches to generate high pressures has been developed in the last century. In general, the devices depend on the type of materials under consideration (gas, liquid or solid), the desired temperature and pressure ranges, the pressure-generating mechanisms, and the experimental methods that are to be used. For detailed information about different types of high-pressure systems, the interested reader is referred to some very good text books and reviews dealing with various high-pressure techniques and methods (Eremets, 1996; Holzapfel and Isaacs, 1997).

Roughly, one can distinguish between three different categories of high-pressure devices. Hydraulic systems are used for the compression of fluids where the fluid either acts as the sample itself or as a pressure-transmitting medium. The pressure range for these systems is usually limited to pressures below 2 GPa. Second, piston-cylinder devices are used for the compression of large-volume (> 1mm³) solid samples. Pressures of around 10 GPa are achievable with this method.

The third and most important category contains all types of opposed-anvil systems. The underlying idea in this case is quite simple. Because pressure is defined as force per area, a given force applied to the large sides of opposed conical anvils will result in an enlarged pressure between the small sides of the anvils. To reach very high pressures, the anvil material of course should be as hard as possible. Thus, starting in the 1970s, diamonds were used as the anvils which allowed for extending the pressure range up to several hundred GPa. At the same time, diamonds exhibit superior features as optical windows. They are transparent from



Fig. 1. Principle of the pressuregenerating method with opposed diamond anvils. The enlargement on the right side shows the central hole of the gasket filled with rubies, a sample, and a pressuretransmitting medium.

the far infrared to the vacuum ultraviolet and their intrinsic luminescence can be negligible when carefully selected.

Meanwhile, the diamond anvil cell (DAC) has become the dominant device in high-pressure research. Although optical studies build up a big part of research performed with DACs, nearly every method used to study physical properties of matter has been successfully employed also in high-pressure DACs. Examples are electrical measurements (Gonzalez et al., 1986), X-ray diffraction (Hazen and Finger, 1982; Holzapfel, 1989), X-ray absorption (Tolentino et al., 1990), Mössbauer spectroscopy (Lübbers et al., 2000), neutron scattering (Vettier, 1989), resonance techniques (Sakai and Pifer, 1985).

The principle of pressure-generation with opposed diamond anvils is shown in fig. 1. A gasket with a central hole is placed between the two diamond tips to provide a sample chamber which can be filled with a pressure-transmitting medium to maintain hydrostatic conditions. Furthermore, the sample chamber is loaded with the sample and some pressure sensor.

Different materials have been used for the gasket, depending on the maximum pressure desired and the experimental method to be employed. Common materials are all sorts of stainless steels, as for example Inconel X750. For pressures in the 100 GPa region, Re or Mo gaskets are used because of their higher strength. In the case of X-ray experiments, Be with its low atomic number has the advantage of low absorbance.

The most common pressure sensor for optical studies is ruby $(Al_2O_3:Cr^{3+}, Piermarini et al. (1975))$, whose strong R_1 and R_2 luminescence line shifts under pressure have been calibrated up to 180 GPa at room temperature (Mao et al., 1978; Mao, 1989). At low temperatures the line position has to be corrected by a known temperature-induced shift (Noack and Holzapfel, 1979). Besides ruby also other sensors utilizing rare-earth ions have been proposed and discussed in literature (Shen et al., 1991). In most of these cases the pressure induced shifts of luminescence lines are used to determine the pressure (see sect. 4.5).

One of the problems that has to be tackled in high pressure physics is the difficulty to provide truly hydrostatic or at least nearly hydrostatic conditions at very high pressure. In a DAC this requirement is fulfilled by the encapsulating fluid. As soon as this fluid solidifies at a certain pressure, however, the pressure and stress distribution within the medium can become non-uniform. The same applies in the case of solids with low shear strengths, as for example



Fig. 2. Intersection of a miniature diamond anvil cell (from Michael (2000)). The pressure range extends up to 35 GPa at room as well as at low temperatures. 1 – Screws for pressure generation, 2 – cell body, 3 – piston, 4 – adjustment screws, 5 – diamond support, 6 – diamond, 7 – tilting diamond mount hemisphere.

NaCl, which are sometimes used as the pressure transmitting medium. The unknown magnitude of the deviant stresses in such systems has often cast serious doubts on the interpretation of the measurements.

Piermarini et al. (1973) have studied the hydrostatic limits of different liquids and solids by measuring the pressure gradient in the medium across the anvil diameter and observing the line shape of the R_1 , R_2 -lines of ruby. In the case of the line shape a broadening indicates local uniaxial components of the stress, due to its influence on the position of the lines. Thus, the broadening is a measure for the deviations from purely hydrostatic conditions. Other indicators for estimating the value of hydrostaticity are the splitting of the R_1 and R_2 lines of ruby and the lattice parameters of a crystal relative to the loading direction (Asaumi and Ruoff, 1986).

The best medium with regard to hydrostatic conditions found by Piermarini et al. (1973) was a 4:1 methanol–ethanol mixture. In this case hydrostatic conditions were maintained up to a pressure of around 10 GPa. Other common media are a 16:3:1 mixture of methanol–ethanol–water with a hydrostatic limit of 14.5 GPa (Fujishiro et al., 1982), argon or neon with limits of 9 GPa and 16 GPa, respectively (Bell and Mao, 1981) or helium with a maximum value of 70 GPa (Eremets, 1996).

A serious limitation is imposed to high-pressure experiments by the small size of the samples. Typical dimensions of the samples are in the range $200 \times 200 \times 40 \,\mu\text{m}$. This small size causes weak signals and, especially in the case of absorption spectroscopy, it can be very difficult or even impossible to study doped samples.

Various types of DACs have been developed within the past decades. An overview of different cells is given for example by Jayaraman (1983). As an example to demonstrate the capabilities of DACs, fig. 2 presents an cutaway view of a miniature cell used at the University of Paderborn. The cell was designed for magnetic resonance studies with maximum pressures of up to 35 GPa. To use it within magnetic fields, it is completely made of a non-magnetic Be–Co alloy. The small size and mass permits the efficient use also in standard cryostats. The support of the diamond anvils is made from boron carbide, a material which is nonconductive at low temperatures and allows the micro wave to enter the cell without significant attenuation.

3. Survey of experimental data

By far the largest part of the experimental results presented in this work, has been obtained with the aid of optical studies. Only in exceptional cases other methods, like electron-spin resonance or neutron scattering, have been employed to get information about energy levels under pressure. Obviously, these methods must be used in the case of non-transparent materials, where optical methods are not suitable.

Before continuing, some words must be said with regard to the terms "rare earths" and "f elements" used in this chapter. The term rare earths includes the elements Sc, Y and the lanthanides La through Lu. However, this chapter solely deals with divalent or trivalent rareearth ions which are optically active, i.e., possess a partially filled f-shell. Thus, although the term rare earths is used in this chapter, it should be kept in mind that the elements Sc, Y, La, and Lu are excluded. In some exceptional cases the more general term f elements will be used, as for example when high pressure studies on actinide ions with a partially filled 5f shell are discussed. There are only few studies on 5f elements in non-metallic compounds under pressure, however, it seems interesting to compare the results found for these ions with those for the 4f-elements.

To provide an overview of the rare-earth compounds which have been studied under pressure so far, table 1 lists the compounds, with respect to the doped ion and with the respective references. Obviously, Eu has been studied under pressure in much more host matrices than any of the other elements. This situation is similar to the observations made by Görller-Walrand and Binnemans (1996), who reviewed the experimental data on spectroscopic properties of trivalent lanthanide ions doped into crystalline host matrices at ambient pressure. They found that Nd and Eu alone built up around 50% of all studies.

The optical studies performed on most samples of table 1 were aimed at different aspects of the f-electron properties. A considerable amount of the work was concerned with the energy level shifts under pressure. From these shifts, variations of free-ion parameters, crystal-field parameters or crystal-field strengths with pressure have been deduced. Other studies concentrated on changes in lifetimes or intensities, the efficiency of energy transfer between rare earths or rare earths and other impurities or on electron–phonon coupling effects under pressure. The various aspects investigated under high pressure will be presented within the next sections.

4. Energy levels

4.1. Theoretical background

When an f-element ion is embedded in a crystal, the free-ion energy levels, characterized by the total angular momentum J, are affected in two different ways. On one hand the energy

Table 1

Non-metallic rare-earth compounds studied under high pressure. In almost all cases the energy level shifts as a function of pressure have been determined. The second column gives details concerning the measurements and evaluations made. In particular the following abbreviations are used: L: Luminescence-, A: Absorption-, E: Excitation-, S: Site-selective spectroscopy, O: Other methods, EPC: Electron–Phonon Coupling, Int: Intensities, LT: Lifetime, CFP: Crystal-Field Parameters, FIP: Free-Ion Parameters, IP: Intrinsic Parameters, ET: Energy Transfer

Compound	Studies	Reference
Ce ³⁺		
CaF ₂ :Ce ³⁺	А	Drotning and Drickamer (1973)
CeAs	0	Okayama et al. (1993), Yoshizawa et al. (1995), Oohara et al. (1995)
Ce(C ₂ H ₅ SO ₄) ₃ ·9H ₂ O	O, EPC	Krygin and Prokhorov (1987a)
CeP	0	Kohgi et al. (1993), Naka et al. (1994), Yoshizawa et al. (1995)
$Eu(C_2H_5SO_4)_3 \cdot 9H_2O:Ce^{3+}$	O, CFP	Krygin et al. (1983), Krygin and Prokhorov (1984)
$Y(C_2H_5SO_4)_3 \cdot 9H_2O:Ce^{3+}$	O, CFP	Krygin et al. (1983), Krygin and Prokhorov (1984)
Pr ³⁺		
CaF ₂ :Pr ³⁺	L, CFP, IP	Kennedy (1980), Kennedy and Campbell (1980)
CeF ₃ :Pr ³⁺	A, FIP	Voloshin and Krimnus (1977)
GdOCl:Pr ³⁺	L, E, FIP, CFP, IP	Bungenstock et al. (2000a, 2000b)
$La(C_2H_5SO_4)_3\cdot 9H_2O:Pr^{3+}$	L, A, FIP, CFP, EPC	Voloshin and Krimnus (1977), Voloshin and Ivchenko (1980), Voloshin (1986)
LaCl ₃ :Pr ³⁺	L, A, E, Int, FIP, CFP, IP	Keating and Drickamer (1961a), Gregorian and Holzapfel (1984), Urland et al. (1985, 1986), Grego- rian et al. (1986, 1989, 1991), Voloshin (1988), Ur- land (1989), Tröster et al. (1993), Tröster (1999)
LaOCl:Pr ³⁺	L, E, FIP, CFP, IP	Bungenstock et al. (1998, 2000b), Tröster and Holzapfel (1998)
PrBr ₃	А	Wilmarth et al. (1989)
PrCl ₃	L, A, Int, FIP, CFP, IP	Keating and Drickamer (1961a), Wilmarth et al. (1989), Tröster et al. (1993)
$Pr(C_2H_5SO_4)_3.9H_2O$	A, Int	Keating and Drickamer (1961a), Voloshin and Ivchenko (1980), Voloshin (1982), Krygin et al. (1984)
PrF ₃	A, Int	Keating and Drickamer (1961a)
$Pr(NO_3)_3 \cdot 6H_2O$	А	Paetzold (1940)
PrO ₂	0	Hu et al. (1994)
PrOCl	L, A, FIP, CFP, IP	Bungenstock et al. (2000b)
PrSb	O, CFP	Vettier et al. (1977), Vettier (1989)
$\Pr X (X = N, P, As, Sb, S, Se)$	0	Schirber et al. (1978)
SrF ₂ :Pr ³⁺	L, CFP, IP	Kennedy (1980), Kennedy and Campbell (1980)
YBa2Cu3O7:Pr3+	O, EPC	Voloshin (1990)
Nd ³⁺		
Gd ₃ Ga ₅ O ₁₂ :Nd ³⁺	L, O	Hua et al. (1996)
Gd ₃ Sc ₂ Ga ₃ O ₁₂ :Nd ³⁺	L, O	Hua et al. (1996)
$La(C_2H_5SO_4)_3 \cdot 9H_2O:Nd^{3+}$	O, CFP	Krygin et al. (1986), Krygin and Prokhorov (1987b)

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Compound	Studies	Reference
LaCl ₃ :Nd ³⁺	L, E, O, FIP, CFP, IP	Tröster et al. (1990, 1993), Gregorian et al. (1991),
		Krygin et al. (1992), Jayasankar et al. (1993), Tröster (1999)
LaF3:Nd ³⁺	L, FIP	Voloshin et al. (1975)
NdBa2Cu3O7	O, EPC	Goncharov et al. (1994)
NdBr ₃	А	Wilmarth et al. (1989)
$Nd(C_2H_5SO_4)_3.9H_2O$	A, Int	Keating and Drickamer (1961a)
NdCl ₃ ·6H ₂ O	L, A, Int, FIP	Keating and Drickamer (1961a), Voloshin et al. (1975)
NdCl ₃	L, A, Int, FIP, CFP, IP	Keating and Drickamer (1961a), Peterson et al. (1986), Tröster et al. (1993)
NdF ₃	A, Int	Keating and Drickamer (1961a)
NdP5O14	A, L, LT	Merkle et al. (1981)
Pb2Sr2NdCu3O8	O, EPC	Goncharov et al. (1994)
$Y_3Al_5O_{12}:Nd^{3+}$	L, O	Hua et al. (1996), Hua and Vohra (1997)
YAlO ₃ :Nd ³⁺	L	Barnett et al. (1973), Hua and Vohra (1997)
$Y(C_2H_5SO_4)_3 \cdot 9H_2O:Nd^{3+}$	O, CFP	Krygin et al. (1986), Krygin and Prokhorov (1987b)
YP5O14:Nd ³⁺	L, A, LT	Merkle et al. (1981)
Sm ²⁺		
BaF ₂ :Sm ²⁺	L, CFP	Kennedy (1980)
BaFCl:Sm ²⁺	L, CFP, IP, EPC	Shen et al. (1990), Shen and Holzapfel (1993, 1995a, 1995c, 1995d, 1996), Shen and Bray (1998a, 1999)
CaF ₂ :Sm ²⁺	L, A, CFP, EPC	Wang and Drickamer (1973), Kennedy (1980), Kennedy and Campbell (1980)
CaFCl:Sm ²⁺	L, O, CFP, IP	Oppenländer et al. (1989), Shen and Holzapfel (1995a, 1995b, 1995c, 1996), Shen and Bray (1998a, 1999)
CsSmI ₃	L	Chen et al. (1994c)
SmFCl	A, X-ray	Bolduan et al. (1985)
SmSe	0	Neuenschwander and Wachter (1990)
SmS	0	Neuenschwander and Wachter (1990)
SrB ₄ O ₇ :Sm ²⁺	L, E, LT	Lacam and Chateau (1989), Leger et al. (1990), Uro- sevic et al. (1992), Datchi et al. (1997)
SrF ₂ :Sm ²⁺	L, CFP, IP, EPC	Kennedy (1980), Kennedy and Campbell (1980), Yoo et al. (1991)
SrFClo 5 Bro 5: Sm ²⁺	L. LT	Jovanić (2001)
SrFCl:Sm ²⁺	L, Int, LT, FIP, CFP, IP	Shen et al. (1990, 1991, 1997), Gregorian et al.
		(1991), Lorenz et al. (1994), Shen and Holzapfel (1995a, 1995c, 1995d, 1996), Jovanic et al. (1997a, 1997b), Shen and Bray (1998a, 1999)
Sm ³⁺		
Chelates:Sm ³⁺	L, Int, ET	Hayes and Drickamer (1982)
49.5 H ₃ BO ₃ -49.5 LiF- 1.0 Sm ₂ O ₃	L, LT	Jayasankar et al. (2000), Lavin et al. (2002a)

Table 1, continued

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Compound	Studies	Reference
Sm(C ₂ H ₅ SO ₄) ₃ ·9H ₂ O	A, Int	Keating and Drickamer (1961a)
Sm2[Pt(CN)4]3.18H2O	L, Int, ET	Yersin and Stock (1982)
Y ₃ Al ₅ O ₁₂ :Sm ³⁺	L, Int	Hess and Exarhos (1989), Bi et al. (1990), Hess and Schiferl (1990, 1992), Liu and Vohra (1993, 1994), Yusa et al. (1994)
Eu ²⁺		
BaBr ₂	L	Tröster et al. (2002)
Ba ₂ SiO ₄ :Eu ²⁺	L, Int, LT	Tyner and Drickamer (1977)
$CaAl_2O_4:Eu^{2+}$	L. Int. LT	Tyner and Drickamer (1977)
CaBPO ₅ :Eu ²⁺	L, Int, LT	Tyner and Drickamer (1977)
$Ca_2P_2O_7:Eu^{2+}$	L, Int, LT	Tyner and Drickamer (1977)
CdF ₂ :Eu ²⁺	O, CFP	Rewaj and Krupski (1980)
EuF ₂	A	Wang and Drickamer (1973)
EuO	Α, Ο	Zimmer et al. (1984)
SrAl ₂ O ₄ :Eu ²⁺	L, Int, LT	Tyner and Drickamer (1977)
SrBPO5:Eu ²⁺	L, Int, LT	Tyner and Drickamer (1977)
ZnS:Eu ²⁺	L, Int	Wang et al. (1984)
Eu ³⁺		
90B2O3-10Na2O-	L	Soga et al. (1988)
$1Eu_2O_3$ (glass)		
$Ca(PO_3)_2$:Eu ³⁺ (glass)	L, CFP, Int	
CaF ₂ :Eu ³⁺	S, O, CFP	Radliński and Silversmith (1986), Wright et al. (1995), Olsen et al. (1996)
Chelates:Eu ³⁺	L, Int, ET	Hayes and Drickamer (1982)
$Eu[Au(CN)_2]_3 \cdot 3H_2O$	L, Int, ET	Yersin et al. (1998)
Eu benzoylacetonate	L, LT, Int, ET	Voloshin et al. (1976), Voloshin and Savutskii (1976)
Eu ₂ O ₃	L, FIP	Chen et al. (1992b, 1992c, 1994b), Stump et al. (1993)
EuOCl	L, A, LT	Del Cul et al. (1991)
Eu(OH) ₃	L, CFP	Chen et al. (1994a, 1995)
EuPO ₄	L, LT, CFP	Chen et al. (1997)
EuP5O14	L, LT, FIP, ET	Huber et al. (1977), Blanzat et al. (1984)
$Eu_2[Pt(CN)_4]_3 \cdot 18H_2O$	L, Int, ET	Yersin et al. (1979)
EuSe	0	Neuenschwander and Wachter (1990)
EuVO ₄	L	Chen et al. (1994d)
$Eu_2Zn_3(NO_3)_{12} \cdot xH_2O$	A, CFP	Hellwege and Schröck-Vietor (1955)
EuZrF7	L	Lavin et al. (2002b)
GdOBr:Eu ³⁺	L, FIP, CFP	Chi et al. (1997)
GdOCl:Eu ³⁺	L, FIP, CFP	Liu et al. (1998a)
$Gd_2O_2S:Eu^{3+}$	L, FIP, CFP	Chi et al. (1998a, 1998b)
LaOBr:Eu ³⁺	L, FIP, CFP	Chi et al. (1990), Wang and Bulou (1995), Shen and Holzapfel (1995a)
LaOCI:Eu ³⁺	L, FIP, CFP, Int	Fonger and Struck (1970), Chi et al. (1986), Wang and Bulou (1993), Shen and Holzapfel (1995a)

Table 1, continued

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Table 1, continued				
Compound	Studies	Reference		
La ₂ O ₂ S:Eu ³⁺	L, LT, CFP	Fonger and Struck (1970), Webster and Drickamer (1980a, 1980b), Wang et al. (1992), Gleason et al. (1993)		
Na5Eu(MoO4)4	L, CFP	Guo et al. (1991)		
Na5Eu(WO4)4	L, CFP	Guo et al. (1991)		
$Na_2O-2SiO_2:Eu^{3+}$ (glass)	L, S, LT, CFP, EPC	Lochhead and Bray (1995), Monteil et al. (2000)		
Y ₃ Al ₅ O ₁₂ :Eu ³⁺	L	Arashi and Ishigame (1982)		
SrF ₂ :Eu ³⁺	S	Wright et al. (1995)		
Y ₂ O ₃ :Eu ³⁺	L, LT	Jovanić et al. (1996)		
Y ₂ O ₂ S:Eu ³⁺	L, Int, FIP, CFP	Fonger and Struck (1970), Webster and Drickamer (1980a), Wang et al. (1984), Liu et al. (1988, 1998b), Nishimura et al. (1991)		
YVO ₄ :Eu ³⁺	L, LT	Chen et al. (1992a, 1992d)		
Gd ³⁺				
$CaF_2:Gd^{3+}$	A, O, CFP	Wang and Drickamer (1973), Kasatochkin and Yakovlev (1977)		
$CdF_2:Gd^{3+}$	O, CFP	Rewaj and Krupski (1978)		
Chelates:Gd ³⁺	L, Int, ET	Hayes and Drickamer (1982)		
CsCaF ₃ :Gd ³⁺	O, CFP	Rewaj et al. (1992)		
Gd benzoylacetonate		Voloshin et al. (1976)		
$La(C_2H_5SO_4)_3 \cdot 9H_2O:Gd^{3+}$	O, CFP	Lukin et al. (1981)		
RbCaF ₃ :Gd ³⁺	O, CFP	Rewaj et al. (1992)		
RbCdF ₃ :Gd ³⁺	O, CFP	Rewaj et al. (1992)		
TlCdF ₃ :Gd ³⁺	O, CFP	Rewaj et al. (1992)		
Tb ³⁺				
CaF ₂ :Tb ³⁺	А	Drotning and Drickamer (1973)		
Chelates:Tb ³⁺	L, Int, ET	Hayes and Drickamer (1982)		
La ₂ O ₂ S:Tb ³⁺	L, E, Int, LT	Gleason et al. (1993)		
TbP ₅ O ₁₄	L, LT, CFP, ET	Blanzat et al. (1984), Chi et al. (1988)		
Tb^{3+} in solutions	L, Int, LT	Baumann and Bilal (1986)		
Y ₃ Al ₅ O ₁₂ :Tb ³⁺	L, CFP	Liu et al. (1986)		
Dy ²⁺				

Wang and Drickamer (1973)

Keating and Drickamer (1961a)

Keating and Drickamer (1961a)

Keating and Drickamer (1961a)

et al. (1997), Hogg et al. (1997a, 1997b)

Mesot et al. (1990)

Kennedy (1980), Kennedy and Campbell (1980)

Takarabe et al. (1995, 1997), Takarabe (1996), Culp

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CaF₂:Dy²⁺

 $ErBa_2Cu_3O_x$

GaAs:Er³⁺

 $Er(C_2H_5SO_4)_3{\cdot}9H_2O$

Ho³⁺ HoCl₃

Er³⁺ CaF₂:Er³⁺

ErCl₃

Α

A, Int

O, CFP

A, Int

A, Int

L, Int, ET

L, CFP, IP, EPC

Compound	Studies	Reference
GaP:Er ³⁺	L, E, Int, ET	Culp et al. (1996)
LiNbO3:Er3+	S, CFP	Dierolf et al. (2000, 2003)
Si:Er ³⁺	L, Int, ET	Jantsch et al. (1996), Przybylinska et al. (1996)
SrF ₂ :Er ³⁺	L, EPC	Kennedy (1980), Kennedy and Campbell (1980)
Tm ²⁺		
CaF ₂ :Tm ²⁺	А	Wang and Drickamer (1973)
SrF ₂ :Tm ²⁺	А	Wang and Drickamer (1973)
TmSe	0	Neuenschwander and Wachter (1990)
TmTe	0	Neuenschwander and Wachter (1990)
Tm ³⁺		
Cs ₂ NaTmCl ₆	O, EPC	Mak et al. (2002)
LiTmF ₄	O, EPC	Kupchikov et al. (1982)
TmCl ₃	A, Int	Keating and Drickamer (1961a)
Y ₃ Al ₅ O ₁₂ :Tm ³⁺	L, ET	Wamsley and Bray (1994a, 1994b, 1995), Shen et al. (2000)
Yb ³⁺		
InP:Yb ³⁺	L, Int, ET	Stapor et al. (1991), Taguchi et al. (1994), Takarabe et al. (1994), Takarabe (1996)
YbO	Α, Ο	Syassen et al. (1985)
YbS	Α, Ο	Syassen et al. (1985)

Table 1, continued

levels are shifted to lower energies (a so-called red shift) and on the other hand the (2J + 1)-fold degeneracy is partially or totally lifted. Although the term "crystal" has been used here, these effects are not restricted to crystals only. Any surrounding that breaks the spherical symmetry of the free ion can lead to a shift and splitting of the energy levels. Thus, the following considerations apply also to other materials like glasses or liquids where a long-range order does not exist.

The first step to calculate the energy levels of f-element ions is the calculation of the freeion energy levels. Within the central field generated by the nucleus and the closed shells, all f-states are still degenerated. However, various interactions occurring in the f-electron system lead to a partial splitting of these states. The most important interaction is the Coulomb interaction, giving rise to terms characterized by the spin quantum number *S* and the angular momentum quantum number *L*. A further splitting occurs through the spin–orbit interaction which couples different terms and generates the ${}^{2S+1}L_J$ multiplets, where *J* denotes the total angular momentum. Due to the coupling of different terms, the quantum numbers *S* and *L* loose their meaning. However, because in most cases a large part of the intermediate coupled wavefunction is determined by one single term, the *S*-*L*-classification is usually still preserved. In a phenomenological scheme the various interactions contributing to the Hamiltonian are split into unknown radial parts which are treated as adjustable parameters and the angular parts which can be calculated exactly. The matrix elements of the free-ion Hamiltonian $H_{\rm FI}$ can then be written as follows:

$$\langle |H_{\rm FI}| \rangle = \sum_{k} F^{k} f_{k} + \zeta \left\langle \left| \sum_{i} s_{i} l_{i} \right| \right\rangle + \alpha L(L+1) + \beta G(G_{2}) + \gamma G(R_{7}) + \sum_{\lambda} T^{\lambda} t_{\lambda} + \sum_{k} P^{k} p_{k} + \sum_{k} M_{k} m_{k}.$$

$$(1)$$

The radial parts of the Hamiltonian which are treated as free parameters are represented by the Slater parameters F^k (k = 0, 2, 4, 6) (Coulomb interaction), the spin–orbit coupling parameter ζ , two-body and three-body configuration interaction parameters α , β , γ and T_{λ} ($\lambda = 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8$), respectively, the spin–spin and spin–other-orbit interactions parameters M_k (k = 0, 2, 4), and the electrostatically correlated spin–orbit interaction parameters P^k (k = 2, 4, 6). The corresponding expectation values of the angular parts are denoted by f_k , t_{λ} , p_k , and m_k . l_i and s_i are the spin and orbital angular momentum of the *i*th electron, and $G(G_2)$ and $G(R_7)$ are the eigenvalues of Casimir's operators for the groups G_2 and R_7 . For a detailed description of the free-ion Hamiltonian see, for example, Wybourne (1965) or Goldschmidt (1978).

In the second step, the crystal-field potential is introduced to the Hamiltonian. The potential in the one-electron approximation can be written as follows:

$$H_{\rm CF} = \sum_{k,q} B_q^k C_q^{(k)}.$$
(2)

The $C_q^{(k)}$ are tensor operators, whose matrix elements again can be calculated exactly, whereas the crystal-field parameters B_q^k are regarded as adjustable parameters. The number of parameters for this potential is greatly reduced by the parity and triangular selection rules and finally by the point symmetry for the f-element ion in the crystal. Detailed information about the crystal-field potential has been given for example by Görller-Walrand and Binnemans (1996).

Due to the so-called *J*-mixing within the crystal field, multiplets with different *J* values are coupled. However, similar to the free-ion case, the levels are still designated by the principal ${}^{2S+1}L_J$ component of the crystal-field wavefunction. For the further labeling of levels split by the crystal field, either the irreducible representation Γ_i (Bethe, 1929) to which the particular wavefunction belongs or the crystal quantum number μ defined by Hellwege (1949) are most commonly used.

The parametrization of the total Hamiltonian discussed above is utilized in almost all studies on energy levels of f elements in crystals at ambient as well as at high pressure. However, taking into account only the free-ion Hamiltonian from eq. (1), one already would have to determine not less than 20 parameters from the energy levels. Practically, this is not possible for the limited data sets available under pressure. Thus, in almost all cases only the most important Slater and spin–orbit coupling parameters in addition to the crystal-field parameters have been determined. This procedure turned out to give an adequate description of the pressure-induced energy level shifts in most cases. In the following sections the effect of pressure on these parameters is presented. Extensions of the crystal-field model towards relaxing the one-electron approximation or including configuration interactions will be considered in sects. 4.4.5 and 4.4.6.

Before discussing the changes of free-ion and crystal-field parameters, it should be mentioned that pressure in principle is not the most suitable quantity to characterize the observed changes. Actually, the cause for the increasing interaction strength under pressure is more directly related to the decreasing distances between f-electrons and ligands. Decreasing distances are related to a decreasing volume V which is related to pressure through the isothermal compressibility κ of the material:

$$\kappa = -\frac{1}{V} \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial P} \right)_T. \tag{3}$$

Applying the same pressure to different materials results in different changes of the volume and distances. The larger κ , the larger will be the reduction of volume and thus the effect of pressure. Therefore, if a comparison of different materials is made, it is not appropriate to compare the pressure shifts, but one should compare them for the same changes of interatomic distances.

4.2. Line shifts

In almost all cases, the absorption and luminescence lines of f elements shift to lower energies under pressure (one of the very few exceptions is presented in sect. 4.5 and fig. 10). This general trend is caused by an overall contraction of the f configuration and thus by a reduction in the energy difference between ground and excited state multiplets. This effect is related to decreasing Coulomb and spin–orbit interactions under pressure which will be discussed quantitatively in the next sections. Superimposed on the reduction in multiplet splittings is a change in their individual splittings. Usually, these crystal-field splittings increase under pressure, however, in many cases also decreasing splittings have been observed.

An example of observed line shifts for LaCl₃:Pr³⁺ is given in fig. 3. In this case excitation spectra have been recorded up to around 8 GPa at 20 K (Tröster, 1994). The dominant red shift of the ${}^{3}\text{H}_{4} \rightarrow {}^{1}\text{D}_{2}$ transition lines and a slighter change in the respective splittings is clearly visible. The assignment of the various lines can be gathered from the energy level scheme schematically depicted on the right side of fig. 3. The changes in the splittings are the reason for different shifts of transitions between the same two multiplets.

From the line shifts, the corresponding variations of the energy levels can be derived. Thereby, the shift of the center of gravity (CG) of the ¹D₂ multiplet with respect to the ground state ³H₄(2) and the changes of the ¹D₂ crystal-field splittings with respect to the CG can be treated separately. The variations of the crystal-field splittings of ¹D₂ with respect to the CG are shown in fig. 4. The CG shift of ¹D₂ can be described by the polynomial function $E_{CG} = a_0 + a_1p + a_2p^2$ with $a_0 = 16730.4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, $a_1 = -17.18 \text{ cm}^{-1}/\text{GPa}$, and $a_2 = 0.246 \text{ cm}^{-1}/\text{GPa}^2$. The total shift up to 8 GPa thus amounts to -122 cm^{-1} .

Typical values for the observed red shifts of f-element transitions range between a few cm^{-1}/GPa and some tenth of cm^{-1}/GPa . The particular value strongly depends on the energy of the luminescent multiplet and the f element under consideration. Some characteristic


Fig. 3. Shift of the excitation line peaks of $LaCl_3:Pr^{3+}$ under pressure at 20 K. The assignment of the lines can be gathered from the level diagram on the right side. CG denotes the center of gravity of the 1D_2 multiplet.



Fig. 4. Crystal-field split levels of the ${}^{1}D_{2}$ multiplet of LaCl₃:Pr³⁺ under pressure, drawn with respect to the center of gravity fixed to zero (dashed line).

Ion	Host	Transition	$v_0 ({\rm cm}^{-1})$	$d\nu/dp$ (cm ⁻¹ /GPa)	Pressure range (GPa)	Reference
Pr ³⁺	LaCl ₃	${}^{3}P_{0} \rightarrow {}^{3}H_{4}$	20473.0	-22.9	0–8	1
	LaOCl	${}^{3}P_{0} \rightarrow {}^{3}H_{4}$	20267.8	-20.5	0-21	2
Nd ³⁺	LaCl ₃	$^{2}D_{3/2} \rightarrow ^{4}I_{9/2}$	21161.9	-11.2	0–8	3
Sm ²⁺	SrB ₄ O ₇	${}^{5}\mathrm{D}_{0} \rightarrow {}^{7}\mathrm{F}_{0}$	14589.8	-5.4	0–20	4
	SrFCl	${}^{5}D_{0} \rightarrow {}^{7}F_{0}$	14486	-22.4	0–20	5
Sm ³⁺	Y ₃ Al ₅ O ₁₂	Y1	16189.1	-8.0	0–20	6
Eu ³⁺	EuPO ₄	${}^{5}\text{D}_{0} \rightarrow {}^{7}\text{F}_{0}$	17274.0	-2.1	0–6	7
	Y ₃ Al ₅ O ₁₂	${}^{5}\text{D}_{0} \rightarrow {}^{7}\text{F}_{1}$	16932	-5.7	0–7	8
Er ³⁺	LiNbO ₃	${}^{4}F_{9/2} \rightarrow {}^{4}I_{15/2}$	15143.7	-2.8	0–10	9
Tb ³⁺	Y ₃ Al ₅ O ₁₂	${}^{5}\text{D}_{4} \rightarrow {}^{7}\text{F}_{6}$	20146	-3.5	0–8	10
U ³⁺	LaCl ₃	$^{2}D_{3/2} \leftarrow ^{4}I_{9/2}$	15822.6	-65.3	0–8	3
Refere	nces					

 Table 2

 Selected average values for line shifts of different f elements under pressure. In all cases only the average linear coefficient is given, slight deviations are neglected

1. Gregorian et al. (1989)	5. Shen et al. (1991)	8. Arashi and Ishigame (1982)
2. Bungenstock et al. (1998)	6. Bi et al. (1990)	9. Dierolf et al. (2003)
3. Tröster (1994) 4. Lacam and Chateau (1989)	7. Chen et al. (1997)	10. Liu et al. (1986)

average values are summarized in table 2. The specific case of the actinide ion U^{3+} doped into LaCl₃ has been included in table 2 to demonstrate the much larger shifts observable for this 5f element. This difference simply corresponds to the more extended 5f wavefunction with respect to the 4f wavefunctions of the lanthanides.

4.3. Nephelauxetic effect

In sects. 4.1 and 4.2 the red shift of the free-ion levels due to either the incorporation of the f element into the crystal or due to the application of high pressure has been discussed. This effect is called nephelauxetic effect (Jørgensen and Reisfeld, 1977) and can be accounted for by a reduction of the free-ion parameters. Effectively, the transition from the free ion to the ion in the crystal can be thought of as increasing the spherically symmetric part of the crystal field from zero to one. In high-pressure experiments, the interaction between the f-electrons and their environment and thus the spherically symmetric part of the crystal fields is increased further, which thus should cause a continued decrease of the free-ion parameters. Actually, this is what has been observed in all high-pressure experiments performed till now. Following these considerations, the high-pressure induced decrease of free-ion parameters is the same as the nephelauxetic effect and can thus be used to learn more about the nature of this effect.

The reduction of the free-ion parameters has been ascribed to different mechanisms, where in general two types of models can be distinguished. On the one hand, one has the most often used wavefunction renormalisation or covalency models, which consider an expansion of the open-shell orbitals in the crystal (Jørgensen and Reisfeld, 1977). This expansion follows either from a covalent admixture with ligand orbitals (symmetry-restricted covalency mechanism) or from a modification of the effective nuclear charge Z^* , due to the penetration of the ligand electron clouds into the metal ion (central-field covalency mechanism). The symmetry-restricted covalency model (SRCM) leads to:

$$\Delta F^k \propto N^4$$
 and $\Delta \zeta \propto N^2$, (4)

where N is a renormalisation coefficient, expressible as a sum including overlap integrals and covalency parameters (Newman et al., 1984). The central-field covalency model (CFCM) predicts (Goldschmidt, 1978):

$$\Delta F^k \propto Z^*$$
 and $\Delta \zeta \propto Z^{*3}$. (5)

On the other hand, electrostatic models regard the ligands or the whole crystal as polarizable units and thereby lead to weaker Coulomb and spin–orbit interactions. In a dielectric screening model (DSM) from Morrison et al. (1967) the f element is placed within an empty sphere with radius R_S which is embedded into an infinite medium with dielectric constant ε . This leads to a reduction ΔF^k of the Slater parameters (Newman, 1973):

$$\Delta F^k = \frac{(\varepsilon - 1)\langle r^k \rangle^2}{\left(\frac{k}{k+1} + \varepsilon\right) R_S^{2k+1}}.$$
(6)

In most high-pressure experiments, only the covalency models have been taken into account. The likely reason for this is the arbitrary nature of the sphere radius R_S used in the electrostatic model.

One of the first studies on the changes of free-ion parameters under pressure has been performed by Huber et al. (1977). They investigated the luminescence of EuP₅O₁₄ up to 40 GPa at room temperature. From the energy level variations the change of the Slater parameter F_2 and the spin–orbit coupling parameter ζ was determined, whereby the analysis was restricted to pressures below 10 GPa due to uniaxial stresses at higher pressures. According to their results, both free-ion parameters decreased under pressure, though the Slater parameter F_2 showed a much weaker change than the spin–orbit coupling parameter ζ . This result supports the CFC model for the nephelauxetic effect. However, the quantitative results should be taken with some precaution because the theoretical analysis neglected contributions as for example intermediate coupling effects or *J*-mixing.

A further system which has been studied under high pressure is R_2O_2S (R = Y, La, Gd) doped with Eu³⁺. Wang et al. (1992) have measured the luminescence spectra of La₂O₂S:Eu³⁺ under pressures up to 13 GPa at room temperature. In the analysis of the observed energy level shifts, Wang et al. (1992) used the intermediate coupling wavefunctions and partly included *J*-mixing effects. The relative shifts of the Slater parameters F_k (k = 2, 4, 6) and the spin–orbit coupling parameter ζ up to 13 GPa were about -0.38% and -0.20%, respectively. Thus, the shift for the F_k parameters was twice as large as for ζ , which supports the SRC model, in contrast to the results for EuP₅O₁₄.

Nearly identical results were obtained also for $Y_2O_2S:Eu^{3+}$ (Liu et al., 1998a) and $Gd_2O_2S:Eu^{3+}$ (Chi et al., 1998a, 1998b). In both cases the reduction of the free-ion parameters was about -0.40% for F_2 and -0.20% for ζ up to pressures of 13 GPa and 14.8 GPa, respectively. Considering the two different covalency models, the authors concluded that the SRC model describes the nephelauxetic effect more reasonably than the CFC model.

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The rare-earth trichlorides belong to the best studied systems at ambient as well as at high pressure. Voloshin et al. (1975) studied the effect of pressure on the free-ion parameters of NdCl₃·6H₂O up to 2.3 GPa. They found reductions of -0.26%, -0.29%, -0.12%, and -0.25% for F_2 , F_4 , F_6 , and ζ , respectively. Such variations can be explained neither by the CFC nor by the SRC model alone.

In a study on LaCl₃:Pr³⁺ the corresponding changes up to 8 GPa were -1.2%, -0.6%, -0.7%, and -0.3% (Gregorian et al., 1986, 1989). It was pointed out that these changes could be described by the SRC but certainly not by the CFC model. However, Gregorian et al. (1989) discussed several weak points of the SRC model, which could not describe other experimental observations. One problem for example is, that the "nephelauxetic ratio" $\beta = (F_k)_{\text{complex}}/(F_k)_{\text{free}}$ from which the so-called "covalency factors" are determined, is defined to be independent of k, in contrast to the experimentally observed distinct differences in the relative decreases of F_2 , F_4 , and F_6 parameters. Furthermore, ab initio calculations for Pr^{3+} in PrCl_3 predicted that these covalency contributions are an order of magnitude too small to account for the reduction (Newman, 1973). In view of these problems, Gregorian et al. (1989) also considered the DS model. They assumed a proportionality between the spherical cavity radius R_S and the mean $\text{Pr}^{3+}-\text{Cl}^-$ distance under pressure and found that up to about 70% of the change of the F_k could be accounted for by the 3% variation of this radius in the pressure range up to 8 GPa.

Further high pressure studies concerning this problem have been performed on the compounds NdCl₃, LaCl₃:Nd³⁺, PrCl₃, LaCl₃:Pr³⁺ (Tröster et al., 1993), and LaCl₃:U³⁺ (Tröster et al., 1995). The results for the changes in the free-ion parameters for these materials are summarized in table 3.

The results for the pure material PrCl₃ have larger uncertainties because of a very small data set available under pressure (Tröster et al., 1993). The actinide ion U^{3+} provides an interesting possibility to compare 5f with 4f elements and thus has been included in table 3. The essential quantitative differences to the lanthanide ion Nd³⁺ are due to the more extended 5f-wavefunctions and result mainly in smaller Coulomb interactions, a larger spin–orbit coupling and larger crystal-field splittings. Corresponding to the more extended wavefunction, a larger shift of the energy levels is observed for U³⁺, as mentioned already in the beginning of sect. 4.2.

According to table 3 some trends which are valid for all these systems can be noted:

(1) the shifts of the Slater parameters are larger or comparable to the shift of the spin–orbit coupling parameter,

1995) in different hosts up to a pressure of 8 GPa										
Parameter	LaCl ₃ :Nd ³⁺	NdCl ₃	LaCl ₃ :Pr ³⁺	PrCl ₃	LaCl ₃ :U ³⁺					
$\Delta F^2/F^2$	-0.7(1)	-0.7(1)	-1.1(1)	-2.0(4)	-6.6(8)					
$\Delta F^4/F^4$	-0.3(2)	-0.4(2)	-0.8(2)	-0.2(15)	-5.3(14)					
$\Delta F^6/F^6$	-0.4(1)	-0.3(1)	-0.9(2)	-3.9(17)	-3.2(19)					
$\Delta \zeta / \zeta$	-0.4(1)	-0.3(1)	-0.4(1)	-0.5(1)	-1.0(7)					

Table 3 Relative changes $\Delta P/P$ of free-ion parameters (in %) for Nd³⁺, Pr³⁺ (Tröster et al., 1993) and U³⁺ (Tröster et al.,

Table 4

Experimental results for the Slater parameter reductions of Nd^{3+} , Pr^{3+} , and U^{3+} (Tröster et al., 1995) in LaCl₃ under pressure up to 8 GPa in comparison with results from the dielectric screening model. All values in cm⁻¹

Parameter Expt. Calc. Expt. Calc. Expt. ΔF^2 -477 -298 -683 -323 -2622 ΔF^4 -204 -109 -398 -129 -1766	U ³⁺	
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Calc.	
$\Delta F^4 = -204 = -109 = -398 = -129 = -1766$	-659	
	-435	
ΔF^6 -155 -150 -198 -195 -737	-750	

(2) distinct differences in the shifts of the Slater parameters with different *k* are present, and (3) the total shift increases according to the order $Nd^{3+} < Pr^{3+} \ll U^{3+}$.

The last point is not very surprising because it proves that pressure effects are stronger the more extended the wavefunction is. Thus, the order $Nd^{3+} < Pr^{3+} < U^{3+}$ simply reflects an increasing extension of the f-wavefunction. Point (1) can be explained if the SRC model is valid in these cases, because it predicts a stronger variation of the F_k compared to ζ . However, following the discussion by Gregorian et al. (1989), the SRC model has some drawbacks, for example it cannot explain the different shifts for different k parameters as noted in point (2).

Tröster et al. (1995) also considered the DS model, whereby the radius R_S was assumed to be proportional to a mean metal ion – chloride ion distance R_M . As ambient pressure values they used ratios R_S/R_M of 0.417 for Nd³⁺, 0.424 for Pr³⁺, and 0.500 for U³⁺. With these values the absolute changes of the Slater parameters have been calculated up to 8 GPa as shown in table 4.

It must be emphasized that both the absolute values for the ΔF^k and the ratios $\Delta F^{k'}/\Delta F^k$ depend strongly on the choice of R_S at ambient pressure. Nevertheless, it can be seen from table 4 that this simple model can partly produce shifts that are in the correct order of magnitude. However, these calculations can not be regarded as a definite prove for the relevance of the DS model since in fact a "true" value for R_S could be completely different to the value used here, which then may result in even negligible shifts. Furthermore, the relatively large discrepancies for U³⁺, where covalency effects can be expected to be especially important, indicate that precisely these cannot be disregarded.

Similar to the rare-earth trichlorides, also different ternary *MYX* compounds have been studied thoroughly under high pressure. The results for the pressure-induced changes of the Slater parameter F^2 and the spin–orbit coupling parameter ζ of these and other compounds are presented in table 5. Due to the difficulties with the DS model, the evaluation of the parameter shifts has been performed only in terms of the two covalency models. Assuming small changes for the free-ion parameters, the relative changes were approximated by:

$$\frac{\Delta F^{k}}{F^{k}} = 4\frac{\Delta N}{N} + \frac{\Delta Z^{*}}{Z^{*}} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\Delta \zeta}{\zeta} = 2\frac{\Delta N}{N} + 3\frac{\Delta Z^{*}}{Z^{*}}.$$
(7)

The first parts are derived from the SRC model, the second parts from the CFC model. A useful quantity to distinguish both models is the covalency ratio *CR* (Bungenstock et al., 2000b):

$$CR = \frac{\Delta F^k}{F^k} \bigg/ \frac{\Delta \zeta}{\zeta}.$$
(8)

Table 5

Relative decrease of the free-ion parameters F_2 and ζ , the renormalisation factor N and the effective nuclear charge Z^* for Pr^{3+} , Nd^{3+} , Eu^{3+} , Sm^{2+} , and U^{3+} in different host lattices under pressures up to 8 GPa. The covalency ratio CR is a measure of the relative importance of the CFC or SRC models (see text). Rows 0–5 GPa, 5–10 GPa, and 10–15 GPa give the CR value of LaOCI:Pr³⁺ for different pressure regions

Ion	Compound	$\Delta F^2/F^2$	$\Delta \zeta / \zeta$	CR	$\Delta N/N$	$\Delta Z^*/Z^*$	Ref.
		(%)	(%)		(%)	(%)	
Eu ³⁺	LaOX	-0.31	-0.62	0.49	-0.03	-0.19	Shen and Holzapfel (1995a)
	(X = Cl, Br)						
	LaOCl	-0.78	-0.73	1.07	-0.16	-0.14	Wang and Bulou (1995)
	LaOBr	-0.96	-0.84	1.14	-0.20	-0.14	Wang and Bulou (1995)
	GdOCl	-0.30	-0.38	0.79	-0.05	-0.09	Liu et al. (1998a)
	GdOBr	-0.26	-0.45	0.56	-0.03	-0.13	Chi et al. (1997)
	Gd_2O_2S	-0.26	-0.18	1.44	-0.06	-0.02	Chi et al. (1998a)
Nd ³⁺	LaCl ₃	-0.70	-0.40	1.75	-0.17	-0.02	Tröster et al. (1993)
	NdCl ₃	-0.70	-0.30	2.33	-0.18	0.02	Tröster et al. (1993)
Pr ³⁺	LaOCl	-0.77	-0.60	1.28	-0.17	-0.09	Bungenstock et al. (1998)
	0–5 GPa			1.22			-
	5-10 GPa			1.48			
	10-15 GPa			1.99			
	PrOCl	-0.90	-0.52	1.74	-0.21	-0.03	Bungenstock et al. (2000b)
	GdOCl	-0.91	-0.46	1.95	-0.23	-0.01	Bungenstock et al. (2000a)
	LaCl ₃	-1.00	-0.50	2.00	-0.25	0.00	Tröster et al. (1993)
Sm^{2+}	MFCl	-1.17	-0.39	3.00	-0.31	0.08	Shen and Holzapfel (1995a)
	(M = Ba, Sr, Ca)						
U ³⁺	LaCl ₃	-6.60	-1.00	6.60	-1.88	0.92	Tröster et al. (1995)

If only the CFC model is responsible for the decrease of the free-ion parameters, *CR* should be equal to 0.33, if only the SRC model is important, *CR* should be equal to 2. An intermediate value between 0.33 and 2 would indicate that both types of contributions are essential.

According to table 5, in all cases except for some Eu^{3+} compounds, the decrease for F^2 is larger than for ζ . Thus, the SRC model plays the dominant role. In the case of some Eu^{3+} compounds on the contrary, the spin–orbit coupling parameter decrease more strongly than the Slater parameter, which leads to the conclusion that the CFC model is dominating here.

The Eu³⁺ ion is, compared with Pr³⁺, Nd³⁺, Sm²⁺, and U³⁺, the ion with the least expanded 4f wavefunction. Therefore, one can conclude that the SRC model becomes increasingly more important when the wavefunction is expanded. This view is supported very strikingly by the data for U³⁺, whose 5f wavefunction is much more expanded than the 4f wavefunctions of the other ions in table 5. For U³⁺, the decrease of F^2 with respect to ζ is very large indicating that the classical CFC model does not play any significant role anymore.

These observations fit also to the behavior in different pressure regions, as indicated in table 5 for the three regions 0–5 GPa, 5–10 GPa, and 10–15 GPa for LaOCI: Pr^{3+} . The increasing influence of the SRC model with increasing pressure is a consequence of the progressive expansion of the wavefunctions. The different values for the same ion in different host crystals also confirm this general trend. For example, the sequence LaOCI: Pr^{3+} , PrOCI: Pr^{3+} , and GdOCI: Pr^{3+} of isostructural hosts corresponds to decreasing local distances around the Pr^{3+}

ion and thus to an increasing internal pressure. The wave functions of the f-electrons are thus expanding throughout this sequence, as shown by a decrease in the free-ion parameters at ambient pressure (Bungenstock et al., 2000b). Accordingly, the value *CR* increases from LaOCI: Pr^{3+} to PrOCI: Pr^{3+} and to GdOCI: Pr^{3+} and the same trend is observed also under pressure.

An open question concerns some positive values for $\Delta Z^*/Z^*$ listed in table 5. Positive values for this quantity are related to a value larger than two for *CR*. A value larger than two means, that even the SRC model cannot account for the much stronger changes in the Slater parameters with respect to the spin–orbit coupling parameter. These unusually strong changes can be described in the combined model only if the effective nuclear charge increases.

It is not clear whether an increase in the effective nuclear charge is reasonable. In principle, such an increase could be explained by an increased covalency between the inner shell electrons and the ligands, leading to a charge transfer from inner shells to the ligands and thus to an increase of the effective nuclear charge Z^* for the f-electrons. This effect could be called "anti-screening".

On the other hand, if the effective nuclear charge does not change at all at high pressures, it would mean that the SRC model cannot describe the situation at strong compression or for strongly expanded wave functions.

Some exceptions from the general trends have to be commented on. First, the results from Wang and Bulou (1995) are quite different to the results from Shen and Holzapfel (1995a) for LaOX:Eu³⁺ (X = Cl, Br). Although the value for *CR* found by Wang and Bulou (1995) is still lower than for all the other ions, it is distinctly larger than the value found by Shen and Holzapfel (1995a). One possible explanation is the fact that Wang and Bulou (1995) did not assume fixed ratios for F_4/F_2 and F_6/F_2 but allowed the parameters to vary independently. However, because only two different terms, namely ⁵D and ⁷F have been observed under pressure, a large uncertainty is imposed on the parameters F_4 and F_6 , which was emphasized also by the authors. Thus, in principle only one Slater parameter can be determined. The pressure-induced variations of F_4 and F_6 found by Wang and Bulou (1995) are much smaller than the variation of F_2 . This means, that a fixed ratio would lead to a smaller variation of F_2 which in turn would bring the *CR* values closer to the values from Shen and Holzapfel (1995a).

Large values for *CR* are also found in the case of $Gd_2O_2S:Eu^{3+}$ (Chi et al., 1998a). However, in this case the spin–orbit coupling parameter shows a strong nonlinear behavior with a steep drop in the beginning and a nearly constant value at higher pressures. The reason for this peculiar behavior was not addressed but should give rise to some care when using these values.

An interesting improvement of the SRC model has been discussed by Wang and Bulou (1995). They considered simplified expansion factors used in the Hartree–Fock radial wave-functions for the f-electrons. With these factors it was possible to introduce a k dependence for the pressure-induced change of different Slater parameters. This procedure would remove the weak point of the model which could not account for the observed k-dependence of the parameters under pressure.

In summary, the analysis of the free-ion parameters of different materials under pressure have led to a coherent picture. The nephelauxetic effect can be described by a combination of the CFC and SRC models and depends on the expansion of the f-electron wavefunctions. Only at very high pressures or in the case of strongly expanded wavefunctions the SRC and CFC models could not provide a completely adequate description of the observed variations.

4.4. Crystal-field splittings

By far most work on the optical properties of the f shells under pressure concentrated on the mechanisms that cause the crystal-field splittings of the free-ion levels. Whereas in the case of the nephelauxetic effect pressure always reduces the free-ion parameters and thus generates a red shift of the multiplets, it is not straightforward to explain how the crystal field and thus the splittings change with increasing pressure. In principle, pressure moves the ions in the lattice closer to each other, which increases the interactions between the f-electrons and their ligands. Correspondingly, an increase of the crystal-field splitting can be expected. In actual high-pressure experiments, however, it was also observed that the crystal-field splittings decreased with increasing pressure (see, for example, Bungenstock et al. (1998)).

At first glance such a result seems peculiar, but a closer look to the crystal-field parameters introduced in sect. 4.1 reveals that not only the interaction strength of f-electrons and ligands but also structural information is contained therein. Actually, it is a change in the structural parameters which can be responsible for an overall decreasing crystal-field strength, although the pure interactions between f-electrons and ligands monotonically increase with decreasing ion separations. In the following section the changes of the crystal-field parameters and the crystal-field strength under pressure is presented for various compounds. To extract the physical origin of the crystal fields, the subsequent sections will discuss the problem of local distortions, extract the structural information from the parameters by using the superposition model and finally relate the intrinsic parameters of this model to ab initio calculations. A last part will be devoted to the special case of glasses, where a strong inhomogenous broadening makes the evaluation of the data much more difficult.

4.4.1. Crystal-field parameters

Crystal-field parameters have been determined under pressure in a large amount of f-element compounds. Besides the optical methods, which have been employed in most cases, some work has been done using neutron scattering or magnetic resonance methods. These methods do not allow for the determination of more than the ground states, however, they can be used also in cases of non-transparent materials. For example, neutron scattering was used under pressure to study the high- $T_{\rm C}$ compounds ${\rm ErBa_2Cu_3O_x}$. In these materials charge redistributions in the CuO₂ planes led to distinct changes of the 2nd order crystal-field parameter under pressure (Mesot et al., 1990). A further example is a high-pressure study on PrSb, where it was demonstrated that a simple point charge model approach to the crystal-field parameters appeared to break down (Vettier et al., 1977).

Magnetic resonance studies have been performed in a number of different materials. In most cases the pressure dependence of the spin-Hamiltonian crystal-field parameters have

been determined, as for example for Gd^{3+} in fluoroperovskite crystals (Rewaj et al., 1992), Gd^{3+} and Eu^{2+} in CdF_2 (Rewaj and Krupski, 1978, 1980), and Eu^{2+} in CaF_2 (Radliński and Silversmith, 1986). This method was also employed in the case of some ethylsulfate (ES) compounds, in particular for lanthanum ES doped with Gd^{3+} (Lukin et al., 1981), yttrium and europium ES doped with Ce^{3+} (Krygin et al., 1983), and yttrium and lanthanum ES doped with Nd^{3+} (Krygin et al., 1986).

A much more detailed picture about the crystal-field splittings and in turn about crystal-field parameters is provided by optical means. In some cases much more than a hundred spectral lines can be observed and assigned at ambient pressure. The situation is usually worse in highpressure experiments because very small dimensions of the samples prevent the detection of weaker lines. In addition, pressure-induced broadening can lead to a strong overlapping and consequently to difficulties to resolve the lines. Nevertheless, in general the number of transitions and energy levels determined under pressure still exceed the number of crystalfield parameters by far. Thus, in many studies the pressure dependence of the crystal-field parameters was readily determined.

In the previous section it was shown that the changes of the free-ion parameters within a common pressure range between atmospheric pressure and 10 GPa do not exceed a few percent. On the contrary, the changes of the crystal-field parameters often are one or even two orders of magnitude larger within the same pressure range. For example, Chi et al. (1988) studied TbP₅O₁₄ up to a pressure of 8 GPa. The site symmetry of the Tb³⁺ ion is $C_{4\nu}$, thus 5 crystal-field parameters B_0^2 , B_0^4 , B_4^4 , B_0^6 , and B_4^6 were considered. Their respective changes of the absolute values under pressure up to 8 GPa were 38%, 30%, 19%, 22%, and 89%. These changes demonstrate the strong effect of pressure in general and also the distinct differences for individual parameters.

A well-known and thoroughly studied system at ambient as well as at high pressure is LaCl₃ doped with various rare-earth ions. Anhydrous LaCl₃, as well as other lanthanide trichlorides, crystallizes in the hexagonal UCl₃ type structure. The lanthanum ion is coordinated by 9 chloride ions arranged on a tricapped trigonal prism as illustrated in fig. 5. The capping anions are referred to as equatorial, whereby an angle δ denotes the angular deviation of the equatorial ions from the normal to the prism faces. If δ is not equal to zero, the site symmetry of the lanthanide ion is C_{3h} . However, in the case of LaCl₃ δ is very small, therefore, an effective site symmetry D_{3h} is commonly used. According to D_{3h} symmetry, the crystal-field potential can be written as:

$$H_{\rm CF} = B_0^2 C_0^{(2)} + B_0^4 C_0^{(4)} + B_0^6 C_0^{(6)} + B_6^6 \left(C_6^{(6)} + C_{-6}^{(6)} \right).$$
(9)

The pressure-induced variations of these crystal-field parameters for LaCl₃:Pr³⁺ (Gregorian et al., 1989; Tröster et al., 1993) are represented in fig. 6 by the solid lines. The dashed lines show the effects due to configuration interaction. These effects will be discussed later in sect. 4.4.6. Further high-pressure studies on LaCl₃:Nd³⁺ (Tröster et al., 1990, 1993) and LaCl₃:U³⁺ (Tröster et al., 1995) were aimed at testing the transferability of crystal-field parameter shifts for different f elements. In this series, the relatively simple 4f² configuration of Pr³⁺ is compared with the more complicated 4f³ configuration of Nd³⁺ and the formally equivalent 5f³ configuration of the actinide ion U³⁺. Indeed the high pressure investigations for Nd³⁺ and



Fig. 5. Coordination polyhedron of the Cl ligands around La in LaCl₃. $R_{\rm E}$ and $R_{\rm A}$ denote the equatorial and apical La–Cl bond distances. The angle Θ denotes the polar angle of the apical anions and δ the deviation from the normal to the prism faces of the equatorial anions (from Gregorian et al. (1989)).

 U^{3+} in LaCl₃ resulted in very similar shifts as those depicted in fig. 6. In all cases the absolute values of B_0^6 and B_6^6 increased. Furthermore, the parameter B_0^4 is the least affected parameter with a slight decrease in all cases. Distinct differences exist only for the parameter B_0^2 , which shows a minimum for the lanthanides, but a simple increase for the actinide ion.

Comparing only the two lanthanides, a very similar behavior under pressure could be established. In the case of U^{3+} at least the qualitative behavior, except for B_0^2 , also matched that of the lanthanides. Quantitatively, the absolute shifts for the actinide ion were larger, a result that could be expected from the much more expanded wavefunctions of the 5f shell. It should be noted, however, that the relative changes were also very similar compared to the lanthanides.

Further interesting and intensively studied systems are provided by *MYX* compounds. In particular, the crystal-field parameters have been determined for $ROY:Eu^{3+}$ (R = La, Gd; Y = Br, Cl), $ROCI:Pr^{3+}$ (R = La, Pr, Gd) and $MFCI:Sm^{2+}$ (M = Ba, Ca, Sr). For the corresponding references see table 1. As an example for these compounds, fig. 7 shows the crystal-field parameter shifts up to 16 GPa for $ROCI:Pr^{3+}$ (R = La, Pr, Gd) obtained by Bungenstock et al. (2000b). The Pr^{3+} ion in ROCI is surrounded by four O^{2-} and five CI^{-} ions. According to the site symmetry $C_{4\nu}$ five crystal-field parameters must be taken into account:

$$H_{\rm CF} = B_0^2 C_0^{(2)} + B_0^4 C_0^{(4)} + B_4^4 (C_4^{(4)} + C_{-4}^{(4)}) + B_0^6 C_0^{(6)} + B_4^6 (C_4^{(6)} + C_{-4}^{(6)}).$$
(10)

The qualitative as well as quantitative changes of the parameters shown in fig. 7 are very similar in the three cases. Striking is the apparent continuation of the parameter shifts found for LaOCI: Pr^{3+} in PrOCI or GdOCI: Pr^{3+} . This behavior can be related to the fact that the doped Pr^{3+} ion is smaller than the replaced La ion in LaOCI. This causes a "negative" internal pressure compared to the pure substance PrOCI. Similarly, in GdOCI the Pr^{3+} ion is larger than Gd³⁺, resulting in a "positive" internal pressure compared to PrOCI. The application of external pressure to LaOCI: Pr^{3+} then subsequently creates a structural environment similar to the ambient pressure environments of PrOCI and GdOCI: Pr^{3+} .



Fig. 6. Variation of the crystal-field parameters of LaCl₃:Pr³⁺ under pressure. Solid lines correspond to the conventional one-electron crystal field, utilizing only the 4f² wavefunctions as the basis set. δ denotes the mean deviation as defined in the text. Dashed lines represent the results derived from the inclusion of the 4f¹5d¹ configuration interactions.

Although it is not possible to directly compare the individual crystal-field parameters obtained for different hosts, it is possible to define an overall scalar crystal-field strength *S* which is independent of the specific crystal structure. The strength parameter *S* can be calculated according to (Chang et al., 1982):

$$S = \left\{ \frac{1}{3} \sum_{k} \frac{1}{2k+1} \left[B_{k0}^2 + 2 \sum_{q>0} (\Re B_{kq}^2 + \Im B_{kq}^2) \right] \right\}^{1/2}.$$
 (11)

In a good approximation the maximum splitting of distinct ${}^{2S+1}L_J$ multiplets depends linearly on the crystal-field strength. Due to enhanced interactions between f-electrons and ligands, *S* is expected to increase under pressure, a behavior, which indeed was found for many materials. Wang et al. (1992) have studied the crystal-field strength for Eu³⁺ in La₂O₂S and found an increase from 314 cm⁻¹ to 363 cm⁻¹ up to 13 GPa. Similarly, for Y₂O₂S:Eu³⁺ an increase from 364 cm⁻¹ to 395 cm⁻¹ up to 10 GPa was noticed. In the case of YAG:Tb³⁺ *S* changed from 711 cm⁻¹ at ambient pressure to 768 cm⁻¹ at 8.2 GPa. A much stronger variation of the crystal-field strength from 269 cm⁻¹ at ambient pressure to 380 cm⁻¹ at 5 GPa



Fig. 7. Variation of the crystalfield parameters and the crystalfield strength of $ROCI:Pr^{3+}$ (R =La, Pr, Gd) under pressure. The dashed lines show a superposition model calculation of the crystalfield strength.

was observed for $Na_5Eu(MoO_4)_4$ (Guo et al., 1991). Although this simply seems to indicate distinct differences with respect to La_2O_2S or YAG, definite conclusions can be drawn only after the specific changes of the interatomic distances, due to the particular compressibilities, have been taken into account.

Besides the crystal-field parameter shifts, fig. 7 also shows the variation of the crystal-field strength for $ROCl:Pr^{3+}$. Obviously, the crystal-field strength is distinctly decreasing in the case of LaOCl: Pr^{3+} up to 15 GPa and slightly decreasing for GdOCl: Eu^{3+} up to 10 GPa. The initial decrease for GdOCl: Eu^{3+} was observed also by Liu et al. (1998b). In addition, a similar behavior was found for LaOBr: Eu^{3+} up to 13 GPa (Chi et al., 1990) and GdOBr: Eu^{3+} up to 12 GPa (Chi et al., 1997).

The possibility of a decreasing crystal-field strength with increasing pressure has been mentioned in the beginning of sect. 4.4. There it was argued that a change in the structural parameters can occur in such a way that the overall crystal-field strength decreases although the interactions between f-electrons and ligands increase with decreasing distances. This assumption is confirmed by a calculation of the crystal-field strength, shown by the dashed lines in fig. 7. For the calculation, the superposition model (sect. 4.4.3) and the pressure-induced structural changes of the *R*OCl host lattices (Bungenstock et al., 2001) have been utilized. In the superposition model the crystal-field parameters are calculated as a sum of products of so-called intrinsic parameters and geometrical factors. The intrinsic parameters represent the interactions between the f-electrons and one ligand and indeed were found to increase under pressure. However, the geometrical factors compensated this increase and in fact resulted in the calculated decrease under pressure.

4.4.2. Local distortions

To relate the f-element spectra or equivalently the crystal-field parameters to the structure of the host lattice, a detailed knowledge of the distances and angles of the atomic arrangement is required. In this respect, local distortions arising from a size mismatch between doped and substituted ions impose serious limitations on the determination of the parameter-structure relationship. Usually, at ambient pressure different hosts are used to generate different structural environments around the same f element. This enables the experimentalist to deduce a parameter-structure relation from the spectral data of the particular hosts. This procedure, however, suffers from the problem of unknown and in particular different local distortions for each host.

On the other hand, parameter-structure relations determined from shifts under pressure are somewhat more reliable, because one and the same local distortion is present which in addition affects the parameter changes only if the distortions themselves considerably change under pressure. Nevertheless, the problem of local distortions cannot be neglected in high-pressure experiments. Local distortions are present, if the distances or angles from the doped rare-earth ion to the ligands deviate from those of the pure sample. In principle, the whole information about the local distortions is contained in the spectra of the doped ions themselves. Thus, once the problem of the dependence of spectra on the distances is solved, it should be possible to derive the distortions directly from the spectra. The application of high pressure is directed towards the solution of exactly this problem, therefore high pressure could provide possibilities to determine local distortions.

With these considerations in mind, Gregorian et al. (1989) proposed a model which allows to derive the local distortions for Pr^{3+} in LaCl₃ from high-pressure experiments. The basic assumption of this model is that the local coordination polyhedra of the Pr^{3+} ion in two different host lattices with the same type of ligand complexes should be identical, as soon as all multiplet centroids of the Pr^{3+} ion are energetically equal in both hosts.

To illustrate this method, fig. 8 shows the dependence of the ${}^{3}P_{0}$ multiplet of Pr^{3+} in RCl_{3} (R = La, Pr, Nd, Gd) on the host lattice equatorial bond distances R_{E} and apical bond distances R_{A} (see fig. 5) at ambient pressure (circles) as well as at high pressure for LaCl₃:Pr³⁺ (triangles). The structural data under high pressure have been determined by single-crystal X-ray diffraction studies (Gregorian et al., 1989). According to fig. 8, the energies of the ${}^{3}P_{0}$ multiplet of Pr^{3+} in LaCl₃ at 0.9 GPa and PrCl₃ at ambient pressure coincide with one another. Simultaneously, the distances R_{E} are equal in both lattices, but a distinct difference exists for the distance R_{A} . However, according to the assumption that identical energies are synonymous with an identical local geometry, it must be concluded that the local distance R_{A}



Fig. 8. Energy of the ${}^{3}P_{0}$ multiplet of LaCl₃:Pr³⁺ as a function of the host lattice equatorial and apical La–Cl distances (from Gregorian et al., 1989). The circles correspond to the multiplet energies of Pr³⁺ in *R*Cl₃ (*R* = La, Pr, Nd, Gd) and the respective host-lattice bond distances at ambient pressure. Triangles denote the high-pressure data for LaCl₃:Pr³⁺.

for Pr^{3+} in LaCl₃ at 0.9 GPa is identical with the distance in PrCl₃ at ambient pressure. Thus, the local distortion δR_A can be simply read from the difference of the two host lattice values.

The same considerations were used by Gregorian et al. (1989) to determine the local distortions for all structural parameters for LaCl₃:Pr³⁺ and for GdCl₃:Pr³⁺. This model has been applied also for LaCl₃:Nd³⁺ (Tröster et al., 1993), *ROC*I:Pr³⁺ (R = La, Gd) (Bungenstock et al., 2000b). In both cases the optical high-pressure studies have been compared to results for the pure substances NdCl₃ and PrOCl.

A further possibility to derive local distortions can be based on models like the superposition model, which explicitly relate the crystal-field parameters to structural parameters. This has been done for CaFCl:Sm²⁺ (Shen and Holzapfel, 1995b) and *M*FCl:Sm²⁺ (M = Ba, Sr, Ca) (Shen and Holzapfel, 1996). These results will be discussed in the next section.

4.4.3. Superposition model

The crystal-field parameters introduced in sect. 4.1 still contain all the structural information about the local environment. Therefore, a direct comparison of crystal-field parameters derived from different hosts, even with the same site symmetry, is not reasonable. In addition, the crystal-field parameters cannot be directly related to the distance and angle variations induced by the high-pressure application. Widely used models which extract the structural information from the crystal-field parameters are the angular-overlap (Jørgensen et al., 1963) and superposition model (Bradbury and Newman, 1967). In the case of f elements, the superposition model has been employed widely for the analysis of crystal-field parameters.

The underlying assumption of the superposition model is that the one-electron crystal field is additive and can be regarded as a superposition of the contributions from individual ions

in the crystal. No specific assumptions are made on the kind of interactions between the felectrons and their ligands. Within this model, the crystal-field parameters can be related to so-called intrinsic parameters \overline{B}_k and geometrical factors K_{kq} :

$$B_q^k = \sum_j \overline{B}_k(R_j) K_{kq}(\vartheta_j, \varphi_j).$$
⁽¹²⁾

The intrinsic parameters \overline{B}_k depend only on the distance R_j and on the kind of ligand *j* located at $(R_j, \vartheta_j, \varphi_j)$. The effect of pressure on the geometrical factors can be calculated once the structural changes under pressure have been determined for example by X-ray diffraction experiments. For the distance dependence of the intrinsic parameters \overline{B}_k a simple power law is commonly assumed:

$$\overline{B}_{k}^{L}(R^{L}) = \overline{B}_{k}^{L}(R_{0}^{L}) \left(\frac{R_{0}^{L}}{R^{L}}\right)^{t_{k}^{L}}.$$
(13)

The quantities $\overline{B}_k^L(R_0^L)$ and t_k^L are treated as adjustable parameters and R_0^L is a reference distance that can be chosen arbitrarily. In principle, the number of ligand shells considered for the calculation of intrinsic parameters is not limited, however, it is usually assumed that only the nearest neighbors of the rare-earth ion contribute significantly to the crystal-field potential. Thus, especially long-range interactions like electrostatic interactions are not accounted for explicitly. Because these interactions are most important for k = 2 parameters, in many cases only the k = 4, 6 intrinsic parameters have been considered.

At ambient pressure a large amount of work has been done to derive intrinsic parameters of rare-earth ions doped into different host crystals. For a detailed account of the superposition model and the ambient pressure results see, for example, Newman (1971), Newman and Ng (1989) and Garcia and Faucher (1995). According to eq. (13), the intrinsic parameters for a given ligand depend only on the distance between the rare-earth ion and the ligand. The determination of intrinsic parameters thus requires a variation of this distance, which naturally favors the application of high pressure. Despite this obvious possibility, only a limited number of intrinsic parameter studies under pressure has been published. This is simply explained by the number of different and partly sophisticated methods (optical spectroscopy, X-ray diffraction, extended X-ray absorption fine structure) that must be employed simultaneously at high pressure to one and the same sample to get all the information necessary.

The systems that have been studied in detail under pressure are LaCl₃ doped with Pr^{3+} , Nd^{3+} (Tröster et al., 1995), and U^{3+} (Tröster et al., 1995), ROCl (R = La, Pr, Gd) doped with Pr^{3+} (Bungenstock et al., 2000b), and MFCl (M = Ba, Ca, Sr) doped with Sm^{2+} (Shen and Holzapfel, 1995c, 1995d). In the case of LaCl₃ only one type of ligands exists and thus only one set of intrinsic parameters has to be determined. The results for this system for the intrinsic parameters $\overline{B}_k^{Cl}(R_0^{Cl})$ and t_k^{Cl} for Pr^{3+} , Nd^{3+} and U^{3+} are summarized in table 6.

As can be seen from table 6 the crystal-field strength for U^{3+} at ambient pressure, represented by $\overline{B}_k^{Cl}(R_0^{Cl})$, is about twice as large as the value for the lanthanides. In spite of this remarkable difference, the distance dependences are nearly the same in all cases. The apparent difference in the case of t_4 for LaCl₃:Nd³⁺ is either due to uncertainties in the determination Table 6 Intrinsic crystal-field parameters $\overline{B}_{4,6}(R_0)$ (in cm⁻¹) and power law exponents $t_{4,6}$ for chloride ligands for Pr³⁺, Nd³⁺, and U³⁺ in LaCl₃. $R_0 = 295$ pm

	$\overline{B}_{A}(R_{0})$	t_A	$\overline{B}_6(R_0)$	t ₆
Pr ³⁺	287(22)	5(4)	258(28)	7(2)
Nd ³⁺	254(28)	2(4)	271(32)	6(2)
U ³⁺	507(47)	7(4)	585(52)	5(2)
U ³⁺	507(47)	7(4)	585(52)	

Table 7

Intrinsic crystal-field parameters (in cm⁻¹) for chloride and oxygen ligands for Pr³⁺ in ROCl (R = La, Pr, Gd). ΔB_q^k represent special shifts for B_0^4 and B_4^4

$R_0^{\rm Cl} = 316 \rm pm$	$\overline{B}_2^{\text{Cl}}(R_0^{\text{Cl}})$	t_2^{Cl}	$\overline{B}_{4}^{\text{Cl}}(R_{0}^{\text{Cl}})$	t_4^{Cl}	$\overline{B}_{6}^{\text{Cl}}(R_{0}^{\text{Cl}})$	t_6^{Cl}	ΔB_0^4	ΔB_4^4
LaOCl:Pr ³⁺	906(26)	5(2)	172(25)	10(2)	181(43)	11(2)	351	327
PrOCl:Pr ³⁺	908(36)	5(2)	189(28)	13(2)	308(28)	10(2)	205	226
GdOCl:Pr3+	898(84)	5(2)	163(31)	12(2)	298(43)	9(2)	150	190
$R_0^{\rm O} = 235 \text{ pm}$	$\overline{B}_2^{O}(R_0^{O})$	t_2^{O}	$\overline{B}_4^{\rm O}(R_0^{\rm O})$	t_4^{O}	$\overline{B}_6^{\rm O}(R_0^{\rm O})$	t_6^{O}		
LaOCl:Pr ³⁺	2229(177)	-1(1)	722(69)	8(3)	214(24)	12(2)		
PrOCl:Pr ³⁺	1819(189)	-1(2)	705(47)	7(3)	272(50)	10(2)		
GdOCl:Pr ³⁺	1607(70)	-1(2)	693(23)	9(2)	236(22)	11(3)		

of the local distortions according to the model described in sect. 4.4.2 (Tröster et al., 1995) or to the neglect of correlation effects (see sect. 4.4.5).

In contrast to the LaCl₃ case, for ROCl two different ligands must be taken into account. In this host the Pr^{3+} ion is surrounded by four O^{2-} and five Cl^- ions. The four O^{2-} ions are located in a plane below the central ion at a distance R_0 , four Cl^- ions in a plane above the central ion at a distance R_{Cl} , and one Cl^- ion above the Cl^- plane at a distance $R_{Cl'}$. Within the superposition model, the sum of the contributions from these ligands for the crystal-field parameters B_a^k can be written as:

$$B_{0}^{k} = 4\overline{B}_{k}^{O}(R_{O})K_{k0}^{O} + 4\overline{B}_{k}^{Cl}(R_{Cl})K_{k0}^{Cl} + \overline{B}_{k}^{Cl'}(R_{Cl'})K_{k0}^{Cl'} \quad \text{and} \\ B_{4}^{k} = 4\overline{B}_{k}^{O}(R_{O})K_{k4}^{O} + 4\overline{B}_{k}^{Cl}(R_{Cl})K_{k4}^{Cl}.$$
(14)

For every ligand (Cl and O) a set of three intrinsic parameters exists. The results for the intrinsic parameters determined from the crystal-field parameter shifts up to 10 GPa are presented in table 7. Local distortions have been estimated according to the model described in sect. 4.4.2. Although only the immediate neighbors of the Pr^{3+} ion have been considered, the k = 2 parameters have also been derived by Bungenstock et al. (2000b). The results for these parameters, however, have to be taken with some precaution due to the problems of long-range interactions mentioned before.

Within the estimated uncertainties, table 7 shows that a common set of intrinsic parameters for k = 6 can be found which describes all samples studied there. One remarkable difference is observed only in the case of $\overline{B}_{6}^{Cl}(R_{0}^{Cl})$ for LaOCI:Pr³⁺. However, this difference was caused simply by the use of different data sets in the determination of the crystal-field parameters.

Table 8

Intrinsic crystal-field parameters $\overline{B}_{4,6}(R_0)$ (in cm⁻¹) and power law exponents $t_{4,6}$ for chloride and fluoride ligands for Sm²⁺ in BaFCl and SrFCl. $R_0 = 311.4$ pm for chloride and $R_0 = 249.6$ pm for fluoride ions

<i>I</i> 6	
10(3)	$m^{2+}-Cl^{-}$
5(1)	$m^{2+}-F^{-}$
	$m^{2+}-F^{-}$

Once identical data sets for all three samples were used, very similar values were also obtained for $\overline{B}_6^{\text{Cl}}(R_0^{\text{Cl}})$.

More serious difficulties were encountered in the case of the intrinsic parameters \overline{B}_4^L . In that case two further parameters ΔB_0^4 and ΔB_4^4 had to be introduced into the fitting procedure to get a reasonable description of the experimental crystal-field parameters. The additional parameters represent pressure independent constants, added to the calculated crystal-field parameters. Bungenstock et al. (2000b) discussed various possible sources of this problem and finally concluded that their high pressure data for hosts with two different ligands required modifications of the superposition model, possibly related to long-range electrostatic or ligand–ligand interactions which are not included in the model.

Similar results were obtained by Shen and Holzapfel (1995d). They studied Sm²⁺ in BaFCl and SrFCl under pressures up to 8 GPa. The structure of both hosts is identical to LaOCl and thus eq. (14) can be applied also in this case, with the only difference of fluoride ions replacing the oxide ions. The results for the k = 4, 6 intrinsic parameters for both types of ions are listed in table 8. When they compared their results with other literature values, they noted much larger t_k exponents for the chloride but much smaller intrinsic parameters for the fluoride ions. Shen and Holzapfel (1995d) argued that ligand–ligand interactions could remove these discrepancies by increasing the values of \overline{B}_k^{Cl} and simultaneously decreasing the values of \overline{B}_k^{F} . They also pointed out that on the basis of some investigations for PrCl₃ which included ligand–ligand overlap effects (Curtis and Newman, 1970), one can expect contributions to the intrinsic parameters on the order of 10%. However, it would not be surprising if the interactions show up more strongly in systems like *M*FCl or LaOCl, where two kinds of ligands contribute to the crystal-field parameters.

Though some limitations of the superposition model have been revealed by the high pressure studies, in general a reasonable description of the crystal-field parameters can be achieved. In particular this is the case when results for isostructural hosts are compared, where a common set of parameters usually is sufficient to describe the pressure variations for all hosts. This fact has been used to derive local distortions for Sm^{2+} in CaFCl (Shen and Holzapfel, 1995b) and Sm^{2+} in BaFCl (Shen and Holzapfel, 1996). In both cases, the intrinsic crystal-field parameters determined from a high-pressure study on SrFCl:Sm²⁺ were used as a starting point. In this sample, local distortions could be safely neglected due to the facts that the ionic radii of Sm²⁺ and Sr²⁺ are almost identical and the structural parameters for SmFCl and SrFCl are very similar.

According to the superposition model the intrinsic parameters found for SrFCl:Sm²⁺ were simply transferred to either CaFCl:Sm²⁺ or BaFCl:Sm²⁺. Then, combining the intrinsic parameters with crystal-field parameters gained from optical high pressure studies on CaFCl:Sm²⁺

and BaFCl:Sm²⁺, it was possible to adjust the local structural parameters around the Sm²⁺ ion. As the result a shortening of the Sm²⁺–Cl⁻ and Sm²⁺–F⁻ distances by -7 pm and -6 pm in BaFCl (Shen and Holzapfel, 1996) and a lengthening by +3.4 pm and +3.5 pm in CaFCl (Shen and Holzapfel, 1995b) was found. These results are fully consistent with the expectation of shorter distances in BaFCl because of the smaller ionic radius of Sm²⁺ compared to Ba²⁺ and longer distances in CaFCl because of the larger ionic radius of Sm²⁺ compared to Ca²⁺.

As a last remark, it should be mentioned that also a few evaluations of the crystal-field parameters of Pr^{3+} in LaCl₃ in the scope of the angular overlap model have been made. Urland et al. (1985) and Urland (1989) used the angular overlap model to calculate the crystal-field splittings of LaCl₃: Pr^{3+} under pressure. In addition, Gregorian et al. (1989) derived the parameters of both models and found that both approaches were capable to successfully describe the high-pressure results.

4.4.4. Ab initio calculations

The intrinsic parameters discussed in the previous section open a practicable possibility to analyze the fundamental interactions occurring between the f-electrons and the ligands. In an ab initio calculation for the system $Pr^{3+}-Cl^-$, Newman and Ng (1986) took into account five different mechanisms contributing to the intrinsic crystal-field parameters at various $Pr^{3+}-Cl^-$ distances. These were point charges, charge penetration, exchange, *p* and *s* overlap, and *p* and *s* covalency.

Gregorian et al. (1989) compared the theoretical results from Newman and Ng (1986) with their experimentally determined intrinsic parameters from a high-pressure study. They found that the theoretical values $\overline{B}_k^{Cl}(R_0^{Cl})$ at ambient pressure were significantly smaller than the experimental values. However, the variation of the theoretical values agreed very well with the experimental results, especially if the large cancellations between the different theoretical contributions are taken into account.

Following the approach suggested by Newman and Ng (1986), an improved ab initio calculation of the intrinsic crystal-field parameters for the systems $Pr^{3+}-Cl^-$ (Shen and Holzapfel, 1994) and $Nd^{3+}-Cl^-$ (Shen, 1994) has been presented. The comparison of these results with experimental intrinsic parameters derived for LaCl₃:Pr³⁺ and LaCl₃:Nd³⁺ (Tröster et al., 1993) is shown in fig. 9. Similar to the observations made by Gregorian et al. (1989), it is obvious that the ambient pressure values of the theoretical calculations are too small, yet the distance dependence is reasonably reproduced.

Shen and Bray (1998b) also performed ab initio calculations of the intrinsic crystal-field parameters for the systems $\text{Sm}^{2+}-\text{Cl}^-$ and $\text{Sm}^{2+}-\text{F}^-$. Again the same formalism as in the case of the LaCl₃ calculations was used. The calculated parameters were compared with experimental results from high pressure studies on *M*FCl:Sm²⁺ (*M* = Sr, Ba). The slight differences observed between theoretical and experimental parameters were attributed to the use of free-ion 4f wavefunctions, which are less expanded compared to the actual wavefunctions in the crystal (see sect. 4.3) and neglect of ligand–ligand and 4f⁵5d¹ configuration interactions.

Despite small deviations between the ab initio calculations and experimental high-pressure results, in general it can be noticed that the contributions considered in the calculations ac-



Fig. 9. Ab initio calculations of the intrinsic parameters for the systems $Pr^{3+}-Cl^-$ (Shen and Holzapfel, 1994) and $Nd^{3+}-Cl^-$ (Shen, 1994). Dashed lines denote the individual contributions: CP – Charge Penetration, Ex – Exchange, PC – Point Charges, O - s, p Overlap, Co - s, p Covalency. Σ marks the sum of all contributions. The experimental results were taken from table 7 (Tröster et al., 1993; Tröster, 1994).

count for the primary effects responsible for the crystal-field potential. These observations point to the importance of overlap and covalency contributions and in addition justify the assumptions of the superposition model as reasonable approximations of the given situation.

Finally, the interesting case of a negative exponent t_2^{O} found for the $Pr^{3+}-O^{2-}$ system (see table 7) in ROCI: Pr^{3+} (R = La, Pr, Gd) (Bungenstock et al., 2000b) should be mentioned. Shen (1994) also performed ab initio calculations for this system and in fact he found a negative value for t_2^{O} (for details, see Bungenstock, 1999). This agreement can be regarded as

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an interesting confirmation of the ab initio calculations as well as the superposition model. However, these results should not be taken too seriously, because of the problems connected especially with the k = 2 parameters, as discussed in the previous section. In addition, the same calculation produced a much too small ambient pressure value $\overline{B}_2^{O}(R_0^{O})$ compared to the experimental value.

4.4.5. Correlation crystal fields

In sect. 4.1 the one-electron crystal-field model for the f^N configurations was introduced. Though this model is very successful in providing a description of the crystal-field splittings, certain "anomalous" multiplets are poorly fitted. Prominent examples are the ${}^{1}D_{2}$ multiplet of Pr^{3+} , the ${}^{2}H(2)_{11/2}$ multiplet of Nd³⁺, and the ${}^{3}K_{8}$ multiplet of Ho³⁺. Almost independent of the host crystal, the calculated crystal-field levels of these multiplets show a much larger deviation from the experimental ones than all the other levels.

Improvement of the crystal-field splitting calculation has been achieved by two different approaches. On one hand the basis set of wavefunctions was extended to include also excited configurations. This approach will be dealt with in sect. 4.4.6. On the other hand, the oneelectron approximation has been relaxed to take into account electron correlation effects. The original formulation of the correlation crystal-field parameterization has been proposed by Bishton and Newman (1968). Judd (1977) and Reid (1987) redefined the operators to ensure their mutual orthogonality:

$$H_{\text{OCCF}} = \sum_{i,K,Q} G_{iQ}^K g_{iQ}^{(K)}.$$
(15)

As for the one-electron crystal field, the G_{iQ}^{K} are treated as parameters, whereas the angular parts $g_{iQ}^{(K)}$ can be calculated exactly. Again, the number of terms which have to be considered can be reduced by the site symmetry. However, this number is much larger here than for the one-electron crystal field. Actually, even for an octahedral site symmetry, 41 parameters are left, which cannot be determined from the experimental data. To tackle this problem, different approaches have been proposed. On one hand, it is possible to assume a certain type of interaction that is mainly responsible for the correlation effects. This leads to special correlations with less parameters, as for example the spin- or orbitally-correlated crystal fields or the δ -function model. For a more detailed description of such models see, for example, Reid and Newman (2000).

On the other hand, a more practical approach is to analyze the various parameters with respect to their influence on the "anomalous" multiplets. According to this procedure Li and Reid (1990) could show that taking into account only the parameters G_{10AQ}^4 , a pronounced improvement for the description of the ²H(2)_{11/2} multiplet of Nd³⁺ could be achieved. To study the dependence of correlation effects on the interatomic distances, Jayasankar et al. (1993) analyzed spectroscopic data for LaCl₃:Nd³⁺ at pressures up to 10 GPa. Using the superposition model, they could derive the distance dependences of the intrinsic parameters \overline{B}_4 and \overline{G}_{10A}^4 which are multiplied by the same geometrical factor. In contrast to earlier assumptions (Reid, 1987), Jayasankar et al. (1993) could show that the correlation intrinsic parameters

ter changed much more with pressure than the one-electron intrinsic parameter. Assuming a power law dependence of the correlation intrinsic parameter, an exponent of $t_4^{\text{OCCF}} \approx 15$, compared to a value of $t_4 \approx 5$ for the one-electron intrinsic parameter, was found.

Another possibility to address the problem of the correlation crystal fields is an approach based on different wavefunctions for the spin-up and spin-down electrons. This spin-correlated crystal-field model merely doubles the number of crystal-field parameters and thus can be applied in most cases. Shen and Holzapfel (1995c) presented a high pressure study on spin-correlated crystal fields in *M*FCl:Sm²⁺ (M = Ba, Sr, Ca). In particular, they considered the splitting ratio R of the ⁵D₁ and ⁷F₁ multiplets, which should be equal to 0.298 within the conventional one-electron crystal-field theory and independent of the host crystal. In a first step, Shen and Holzapfel (1995c) considered ambient pressure as well as high pressure data of the isoelectronic Eu³⁺ ion. In this case they found a ratio of R = 0.238, which could be explained by taking into account a spin-correlated crystal-field parameter $c_2 = -0.007(3)$.

However, applying the same model to the high-pressure results for Sm^{2+} , extreme deviations were encountered. The authors attributed these deviations to a breakdown of the spin-correlated crystal-field model for Sm^{2+} . As the reason for this failure, configuration interactions with the 4f⁵5d¹ configuration were determined. These interactions are expected to be much stronger for Sm^{2+} , because the energy of the excited configuration is much lower (at about 20 000 cm⁻¹) than in the case of Eu³⁺ (at about 50 000 cm⁻¹).

Recently, the δ -function model has also been employed to analyze high-pressure results on LaCl₃:Pr³⁺ and LaCl₃:Nd³⁺ (Burdick and Tröster, 2003). This model assumes the dominant contributions to the correlation crystal field interactions arising from paired electrons within the same orbital. It has been shown that this model is capable to greatly improve the description of "anomalous" multiplets like the ¹D₂ multiplet of Pr³⁺ at ambient pressure (Burdick and Richardson, 1997).

Applying the model to the high-pressure data also distinctly improved the quality of the fits for both samples and at all pressures. A striking example is the ${}^{1}D_{2}$ multiplet of Pr^{3+} , where the rms error rises from 14.8 cm⁻¹ at ambient pressure to a maximum value of 20.1 cm⁻¹ at 8 GPa, when using solely the one-electron crystal-field parameters. On the contrary, if the δ -function model is included, a maximum rms error of only 0.9 cm⁻¹ is found at ambient pressure and even smaller values are found at higher pressures.

Furthermore, a very interesting property of these fits concerns the one-electron crystal-field parameter B_0^4 of Nd³⁺ in LaCl₃. In this case large difficulties were encountered in deriving the intrinsic parameter \overline{B}_4 because of much too small variations of B_0^4 of only 1% from ambient pressure to 8 GPa (see sect. 4.4.3 and table 6). On the other hand, taking into account the δ function model, the change of B_0^4 distinctly increases to more than 10% from ambient pressure to 8 GPa. This clearly improves the values of the intrinsic parameter and points out the ability of the model to significantly improve the energy level calculations.

4.4.6. *Excited states*

High-pressure research on trivalent f elements is mostly concerned with the energy levels of the f^N configurations. This is mainly due to the fact that the energies necessary to access higher-lying states are within the VUV region, where the diamonds start to absorb the ra-

diation. The situation is much better in the case of divalent f elements whose excited states

are much lower in energy. In principle, two different kinds of high energy states have been observed, on one hand charge transfer states, involving the excitation of an electron from a ligand orbital to the f^N configuration and, on the other hand, excited configurations of the f element itself, like the $f^{N-1}d^1$ configurations.

Besides the general interest on excited states, they can also strongly affect the properties of the f-electrons. For example, the two-body and three-body configuration interaction parameters α , β , γ and T_{λ} ($\lambda = 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8$), which are used in the free-ion Hamiltonian describe the influence of excited configurations on the centroids of the f^N multiplets. A further prominent influence of excited states is the interaction with $f^{N-1}d^1$ configurations, which is accepted to be responsible for the observed intensities of f-f transitions. In the past, high pressure studies have been performed especially on the influence of the 4f^{N-1}5d¹ configurations. After presenting these studies, a brief discussion about the few high pressure studies on charge transfer states will follow.

The outstanding properties of f electrons stem from the fact that they are shielded from the crystal fields by outer closed sub-shells. For d electrons the situation is different, their wavefunction is much more expanded which causes a much stronger interaction with the lattice. Consequently, the $4f^{N-1}5d^1$ configurations show broad absorption and luminescence bands, in contrast to the sharp f-f transitions. The stronger interaction with the lattice also causes more pronounced pressure effects. Especially the energy shifts of the excited $4f^{N-1}5d^1$ configuration are usually an order of magnitude larger than in the case of the f-electrons. Shifts of the luminescence lines from $4f^{N-1}5d^1 \rightarrow 4f^N$ transitions are summarized in table 9.

According to table 9 an average shift of the f-d configuration can be determined to be around $-130 \text{ cm}^{-1}/\text{GPa}$. This is approximately five times larger than the average shift of the f-f transitions which is on the order of $-25 \text{ cm}^{-1}/\text{GPa}$. The f-d configuration of U⁴⁺ shifts faster compared to the 4f elements, a result which is not unexpected if the already larger shift of the f-f transitions (see sect. 4.2) is taken into account.

It is conspicuous that the excited configurations always shift to lower energies, with the only exception of CsSmI₃. In this sample, the f-d configuration of Sm²⁺ is lower in energy than the ⁵D₀ multiplet and thus the luminescence is completely quenched at ambient pressure. However, at a pressure of 16.4 GPa Chen et al. (1994c) observed some new lines which they assigned to f-f transitions. According to this assignment the authors argued that the f-d configuration must have shifted to energies above the ⁵D₀ multiplet to allow f-f transitions to become visible. However, from the results presented by Chen et al. (1994c) it is not quite clear whether the f-d configuration really shows a continuous shift, because only a single spectrum recorded at 16.4 GPa is discussed. In addition, the authors assume a reversible first-order phase transition to occur under pressure which of course could be made responsible for a discrete jump of the f-d configuration. Thus, the positive value of the shift given in table 9 requires some further confirmation.

A similar effect as in the case of $CsSmI_3$ has been observed by Yoo et al. (1991). In their study on the Sm^{2+} ions in SrF_2 they could demonstrate an electronic crossover connected with a phase transition starting at pressures around 4.5 GPa. At this pressure, the f-d configuration shifted below the 5D_0 multiplet.

Table 9

Ambient pressure luminescence peaks and their pressure shifts for transitions from the $4f^{N-1}5d^1$ configurations to the ground state of the $4f^N$ configuration. Values marked with an asterisk correspond to the onset of the lowest energy luminescence line. In the case of UO₂, excitation energies were determined

Ion	Ground	Host	$E(cm^{-1})$	Shift	Pressure range	Reference	
	State			(cm^{-1}/GPa)	(GPa)		
Ce ³⁺	$4f^{1}$	CaF ₂	32900	-143	0–7	1	
Pr ³⁺	$4f^{2}$	LaOCl	45000	-30*	0-10	2	
Sm ²⁺	$4f^{6}$	CaF ₂	16100	-113	0–8	3	
		_	23500	-106	0–8	4	
			35150	-113	0–8	5	
		CsSmI ₃	12500*	$+200^{*}$	0–16	4	
		SmFCl	16600*	-200^{*}	0–9	5	
		SrF ₂	14800^{*}	-149^{*}	0-13	6	
Eu ²⁺	$4f^{7}$	BaBr ₂	24700	-225	0-10	7	
		Ba2SiO4	19600	-127	0-10	8	
		CaAl ₂ O ₄	22900	-290	0-10	8	
		CaBPO ₅	24800	-150	0-10	8	
		$Ca_2P_2O_7$	23300	-70	0-10	8	
		EuF ₂	30300	-175	0–8	3	
Dy ²⁺	$4f^{10}$	CaF ₂	14000	-156	0–8	3	
•			17250	-138	0–8	3	
			21800	-94	0–8	3	
			35500	-119	0–8	3	
Tm ²⁺	$4f^{13}$	CaF ₂	16850	-106	0–8	3	
		-	24400	-119	0–8	3	
		SrF ₂	17500	-100	0–8	3	
		-	24850	-150	0–8	3	
U ⁴⁺	$5f^{2}$	UO ₂	20160	-282	0–15	9	

References

1. Drotning and Drickamer (1973)

4. Chen et al. (1994c)5. Bolduan et al. (1985)

2. Tröster and Holzapfel (1998)
 3. Wang and Drickamer (1973)

6. Yoo et al. (1991)

Tröster et al. (2002)
 Tyner and Drickamer (1977)

9. Syassen et al. (1986)

Apart from the interest in the properties of the excited configurations themselves, their influence on the f-electrons has been studied extensively. As mentioned in the beginning of this section, mixing with excited configurations is responsible for the observed intensities of f-f transitions. This feature will be discussed in sect. 5.3.1. The influence on the center of gravity of the multiplets is also taken into account in most studies via the two-body and three-body configuration interaction parameters.

However, relatively new is the inclusion of excited configurations to improve the description of the crystal field split levels within the f configuration.

In this respect, it was demonstrated for example for Pr^{3+} (Garcia and Faucher, 1989) and Nd^{3+} (Faucher and Moune, 1997), that the crystal-field level calculations both in general and for the "anomalous" multiplets, could be greatly improved by taking into account the $4f^{N-1}5d^1$ and $4f^{N-1}6p^1$ configurations. The effects due to configuration interactions are specifically interesting for high-pressure experiments because the large red shift of the excited configurations should lead to a distinct increase in the interactions.

In sect. 4.4.1 the pressure-induced variations of the crystal-field parameters of LaCl₃:Pr³⁺ were shown in fig. 6. In this case the "anomalous" multiplet ¹D₂ could also be measured under pressure (Tröster et al., 1993), which opened a possibility to study the configuration interactions as a function of pressure. Including the 4f¹5d¹ configuration in the energy level fits and leaving only the energy distance to the 4f² configuration as an adjustable parameter, the mean deviation δ decreased from around 8 cm⁻¹ to less than 4 cm⁻¹ at ambient pressure (Tröster and Holzapfel, 2002).

Furthermore, the observed increase of δ under pressure completely vanishes (see fig. 6). The mean deviation is defined as:

$$\delta = \sqrt{\frac{(E_{\text{Calc.}} - E_{\text{Exp.}})^2}{N}},\tag{16}$$

where N is the number of energies measured. The energy distance between both configurations was found to decrease with increasing pressure, however, the rate of around 1000 cm⁻¹/GPa seems to be too large compared to the typical values given in table 9. Nevertheless, this basically reasonable behavior points to the importance of configuration interactions also for the energies of the 4f² levels. It should be stressed that the conventional crystal-field parameters within the f-configuration partly show distinct changes when including the configuration interaction. The strongest deviation is found for B_0^4 , where a distinct pressure-induced change of its value is observed only if the configuration interaction is taken into account (see fig. 6). This behavior is very similar to what was observed in the case of the δ -function model as discussed in sect. 4.4.5 and may also remove the difficulties encountered for the determination of the k = 4 intrinsic parameters.

Further high-pressure studies on configuration interactions have been performed for LaOCI: Pr^{3+} taking into account the $4f^{N-1}6p^1$ configuration (Bungenstock, 1999) and LiYF₄: Pr^{3+} taking into account the $4f^{N-1}5d^1$ and $4f^{N-1}6p^1$ configuration (Tröster and Lavin, 2003). In both cases distinct improvements of the rms deviations at ambient as well as at high pressures have been obtained. The absolute values of the crystal-field parameters within the 4f configuration changed up to 50%, however, their pressure variations showed only minor differences.

The only system that has been studied in some detail with respect to charge transfer states under pressure is $R_2O_2S:Eu^{3+}$ (R = La, Y). Webster and Drickamer (1980a) observed a blueshift of the absorption maximum of the charge transfer band in La₂O₂S:Eu³⁺ with a rate of approximately 200 cm⁻¹/GPa. The charge transfer state is believed to be formed here with the transfer of an electron from the sulfide S²⁻ to the Eu³⁺ ion. The shift of the charge transfer state in Y₂O₂S:Eu³⁺ was found to be larger than in La₂O₂S:Eu³⁺ with a rate of approximately 250 cm⁻¹/GPa.

Further studies on these bands by Wang et al. (1984) and Gleason et al. (1993) mainly concentrated on the influence on the intensities and lifetimes of the f-f transitions. These effects will be discussed in sect. 5.3.2. The influence on the energy levels within the f configuration was not addressed.

4.5. Pressure sensors

The line shifts of f-f transitions discussed in sect. 4.2, offer an interesting possibility to establish high pressure gauges. As mentioned in sect. 2, ruby is still the most widely used gauge for pressure determination. However, some deficiencies caused a continuous search for improved sensor materials. Especially the temperature induced broadening and quenching limits the application of ruby to below 500 °C.

New sensors should solve this problem, but at the same time should still preserve the advantages of ruby, namely the strong luminescence efficiency and the strong line shift with increasing pressure relative to the given linewidth.

Some general requirements for a luminescence pressure sensor can be formulated as follows:

- the lines should show a large shift with pressure (measure: $d\lambda/dp$),
- the temperature dependent line shift should be as small as possible (measure: $d\lambda/dT$),
- for high sensitivity and precision, the linewidth Γ should be small compared to the line shift (measure: $\Gamma^{-1} d\lambda/dp$),
- the spectrum should consist of a single line,
- no significant broadening or weakening of the line should occur.

Due to these requirements, special attention has been paid to rare-earth sensors because the shielding of the f-electrons produces very sharp lines which are less sensitive to the environment compared to the 3d electrons of Cr^{3+} .

One of the first studies taking into account rare-earth ions as a pressure sensor by Barnett et al. (1973) used Nd³⁺ doped into YAlO₃. The pressure coefficients $d\lambda/dp$ and temperature coefficients $d\lambda/dT$ were compared there for several potential luminescence sensors up to 10 GPa. As expected, the temperature shift of the $R_2 \rightarrow Z_2$ line at 875.3 nm, belonging to the ${}^4F_{3/2} \rightarrow {}^4I_{9/2}$ transitions of Nd³⁺ (for the nomenclature see, for example, Dieke, 1968), was indeed approximately an order of magnitude smaller than for the Cr^{3+} doped samples. However, at the same time the pressure coefficient for Nd³⁺ was found to be much smaller.

As shown in sect. 4.2, in almost all cases of rare earth doped compounds a red shift of the optical transitions is observed, due to decreasing spin–orbit and Coulomb interactions under pressure. However, in the case of Nd³⁺ doped into YAlO₃, Barnett et al. (1973) observed a blue shift of the ${}^{4}F_{3/2} \rightarrow {}^{4}I_{9/2}$ transitions. This peculiar behavior was taken up by Hua and Vohra (1997), who studied the ${}^{4}F_{3/2} \rightarrow {}^{4}I_{9/2}$ transitions in the same host YAlO₃ as well as in Y₃Al₅O₁₂ (YAG) in the extended pressure range up to 80 GPa. From the observed line shifts they deduced the energies of the two crystal-field levels of ${}^{4}F_{3/2}$, R₁ and R₂, as a function of pressure as shown in fig. 10. Corresponding to the blue shift of the luminescence lines, both levels showed a continuous shift to higher energies in YAlO₃, in contrast to the case of YAG, where both levels shift to lower energies, as expected.

Hua and Vohra (1997) did not give an explanation why the levels in $YAIO_3$ behave completely different to what is usually observed. In principle, the observed blue shift of these levels point to increasing Coulomb and spin–orbit coupling interactions, which should be connected with an increasing local volume (see also sect. 4.3). Whether such a behavior is reasonable or not could be answered only by further investigations as for example using



Fig. 10. Effect of pressure on the ${}^{4}F_{3/2}$ crystal-field levels in YAIO₃ and Y₃Al₅O₁₂. The solid lines are polynomial fits to the data (from Hua and Vohra (1997)).

high-pressure X-ray diffraction studies. In any case, Hua and Vohra (1997) noted that the ${}^{4}F_{3/2} \rightarrow {}^{4}I_{9/2}$ transitions may be suitable as a pressure gauge in diamond anvil research at ultrahigh pressure. One of the main advantages of this system is that there is no interference with the diamond luminescence as in the case of ruby above 100 GPa.

A further requirement for a pressure sensor is the stability of the host lattice at high pressures and temperatures. This requirement strongly narrows the range of possible candidates for high-pressure sensors. From X-ray diffraction experiments under pressure, it was found that YAG is stable at least up to 69 GPa at room temperature (Liu and Vohra, 1993). This is one of the reasons why doped YAG was chosen by many researchers as a promising host for pressure calibrants.

One of the best studied sensor material is YAG doped with Sm^{3+} , whose most intense luminescence feature is a doublet at 16186.5 cm⁻¹ and 16231.5 cm⁻¹ (Y₁ and Y₂ lines). This doublet has been studied at room temperature up to a maximum pressure of 180 GPa (Bi et al., 1990; Yusa et al., 1994; Liu and Vohra, 1994) and it was found that the pressure-induced peak shift is comparable to the R₁ shift of ruby. At the same time, the temperature-induced shift is almost two orders of magnitude smaller than the observed shift for the R₁ peak. In fact, measurements at elevated temperatures up to 900 °C and 10 GPa (Hess and Exarhos, 1989; Hess and Schiferl, 1990) as well as studies at temperatures above 400 °C up to 25 GPa, indicated that the pressure could be determined from the Sm³⁺ luminescence without any temperature correction in this range (Hess and Schiferl, 1992).

Besides the Sm³⁺ ion, the Eu³⁺ ion was also studied in YAG (Arashi and Ishigame, 1982). In this case the ${}^{5}D_{0} \rightarrow {}^{7}F_{1}$ transitions were monitored up to a temperature of 700 °C and a pressure of 7 GPa. The results for the temperature and pressure-induced line shifts were

Material	Transition	$\lambda(nm)$	$d\lambda/dp$	$d\lambda/\Gamma dp$	$d\lambda/dT$	$(d\lambda/\Gamma dp)$	Reference
			(nm/GPa)	(1/GPa)	$(nm/10^{3}K)$	$/(d\lambda/dT)10^3$ K	
						/nm GPa	
$Cr^{3+}:Al_2O_3$	$^{2}E \rightarrow ^{4}A_{2}$	694.2	0.365	0.49	6.8	0.072	1
Cr ³⁺ :YAlO ₃	$^{2}E \rightarrow ^{4}A_{2}$	722.8	0.70	0.7	7.6	0.092	1
Nd ³⁺ :YAlO ₃	${}^{4}F_{3/2} \rightarrow {}^{4}I_{9/2}$	875.3	-0.13	-0.065	0.001	65	1
Eu ³⁺ :YAG	${}^{5}\mathrm{D}_{0} \rightarrow {}^{7}\mathrm{F}_{1}$	590.6	0.197	(0.8)	-0.54	0.002	2
Sm ³⁺ :YAG	Y1	617.8	0.30	0.23	0.23	1	3
Sm ²⁺ :SrB ₄ O ₇	${}^5D_0 \rightarrow {}^7F_0$	685.4	0.255	1.7	-0.1	17	4
Sm ²⁺ :SrFCl	${}^{5}D_{0} \rightarrow {}^{7}F_{0}$	690.3	1.10	5.8	-2.3	2.5	5

Table 10 Selected characteristic values for different pressure sensors. Values in parentheses are estimated

References

1. Barnett et al. (1973)

2. Arashi and Ishigame (1982)

3. Hess and Exarhos (1989)4. Lacam and Chateau (1989)

5. Shen et al. (1991)

similar to YAG:Sm³⁺. However, the two strongest lines in the luminescence spectrum were approaching each other with increasing pressure, resulting in a strong overlap and thus an increased error in the line position determination already at 6 GPa.

Another luminescence sensor, $\text{SrB}_4\text{O}_7:\text{Sm}^{2+}$ has been suggested by Lacam and Chateau (1989). The advantage of using Sm^{2+} instead of Sm^{3+} is the occurrence of the well-isolated singlet transition ${}^5\text{D}_0 \rightarrow {}^7\text{F}_0$ at 685.41 nm at ambient conditions. Also in this case the pressure-induced shift was similar to ruby, whereas the temperature-induced shift was much smaller. The stability of the host was proven up to 108 GPa (Leger et al., 1990) and the shift of the ${}^5\text{D}_0 \rightarrow {}^7\text{F}_0$ transition has been calibrated in a hydrostatic medium (helium) up to 124 GPa (Datchi et al., 1997).

Another promising material is SrFCl:Sm²⁺. Shen et al. (1991) and Lorenz et al. (1994) have studied the pressure-induced shift of the ${}^{5}D_{0} \rightarrow {}^{7}F_{0}$ transition of the Sm²⁺ ion up to 20 GPa at room temperature and determined also the temperature-induced line shift up to 370 °C at ambient pressure. According to these studies the line shift under pressure is approximately three times larger than for ruby. At the same time, the temperature dependence was found to be about three times smaller. From the point of view of sensitivity SrFCl:Sm²⁺ is the best sensor studied so far. However, the main drawback here is the intensity decrease under pressure, which is due to an enhanced interaction of the ${}^{5}D_{0}$ energy level with the $4f^{5}5d^{1}$ configuration. The decrease already starts at around 10 GPa, limiting the use of this sensor to this lower pressure range.

Some characteristic values of the pressure sensors mentioned here have been summarized in table 10. As mentioned before, the value $\Gamma^{-1}d\lambda/dp$, denoting the sensitivity of the sensor with respect to a pressure change, is the highest for SrFCl:Sm²⁺. However, if an experiment requires high pressures and high temperatures, a closer look at the value of $\Gamma^{-1}d\lambda/dp/(d\lambda/dT)$ is necessary. This value can be regarded as a measure for the overall performance of the sensor with respect to pressure and temperature. From this point of view YAlO₃:Nd³⁺ would be the best sensor due to its extremely low temperature shifts.

4.6. Structural probes

In many cases the crystal structure of a rare-earth compound studied under high pressure is a priori known. In such studies the quality of the theoretical link between structure and spectra can be tested. However, a different possibility would be to use the experimentally determined spectral variations in connection with a theoretical approach to derive information about the local structure of the rare-earth ions. Such an attempt has been made in sect. 4.4.2, where the local distortions have been derived either directly from the spectra or by applying the superposition model. Similarly, high pressure studies have been used to get information about the structure in more complicated cases of multiple sites or glasses. In addition, the spectra of rare-earth ions have been used to detect phase transitions that often occur under pressure. Results of such studies will be discussed in the next two sections.

4.6.1. Multiple sites/glasses

The high pressure studies presented so far only considered compounds with a single, welldefined site for the rare-earth ion. However, in contrast to this case, many materials exhibit either a discrete variety of different sites or even a continuous distribution of sites, a situation typically encountered in glasses.

In the case of different, but spectroscopically still resolvable sites, it is possible to study the effects of pressure on each individual site. Such an attempt has been made by Dierolf et al. (2000) for Er^{3+} ions doped into stoichiometric LiNbO₃. In this case a special spectroscopic technique, a combined excitation-emission spectroscopy, allowed to observe the pressure shifts of slightly different sites. From the shifts, the variations of the crystal-field parameters could be determined. These variations include all the information necessary to derive characteristics of the structure of each site (Dierolf et al., 2003).

Also in the case of semiconductors rare-earth ions often occupy different sites. For example, in GaAs at least 10 different types of Er^{3+} centers can be present simultaneously within the sample (Wolford and Bradley, 1985). Hogg et al. (1997a, 1997b) have studied the luminescence spectra of different Er^{3+} centers under hydrostatic pressures. They recognized some new centers which became optically active under pressure. In addition, it was shown that one center exhibited a configurational change at an elevated pressure (Hogg et al., 1997a).

Further work mainly concentrated on high-pressure effects on glasses doped with f elements. Soga et al. (1988) investigated densified glass specimens of 90 B_2O_3 –10 Na_2O_1 Eu₂O₃ obtained by applying pressures up to 6 GPa. They noted that pressure first eliminates the atomic scale voids, usually appearing when the glass is quenched from high temperatures. Above 2 GPa no voids were formed during the quenching process. Furthermore, the fluctuation of local fields around Eu³⁺ was increased by high-pressure application. This behavior was attributed to the distortion of the glass network, which was accompanied with wide variations of bond length and angle.

Lochhead and Bray (1995) studied Eu^{3+} doped sodium disilicate glass with a high-pressure fluorescence line-narrowing technique. This technique was used to characterize the local structure of the Eu^{3+} ions up to a pressure of 21 GPa. For the crystal-field analysis they assumed a $C_{2\nu}$ site symmetry which allowed for a complete splitting of the crystal-field components. The crystal-field strength was determined according to eq. (11). The effect of pressure

on the ${}^{7}F_{0} \rightarrow {}^{5}D_{0}$ excitation was strongly dependent on the pressure range. From ambient pressure to ~ 4.7 GPa a red shift of approximately 0.12 nm/GPa was observed. From this pressure up to around 15 GPa the peak position remained unchanged and above 15 GPa a further small red shift was noticed. The bandwidth was constant up to around 7 GPa and increased above that pressure.

The interpretation of the high-pressure results presented by Lochhead and Bray (1995) was different for the two characteristic pressure regions below and above 4 GPa. Besides the already mentioned red shift, characteristic features below 4 GPa were an overall crystal-field strength decrease, and a lengthening of the luminescence lifetimes. Lochhead and Bray (1995) explained these results by minor structural changes like simple distortions of the Si–O–Si intertetrahedral angles and a small increase of the overall Eu–O bond covalency. They also noted a possible increase of higher-lying d-state energies relative to those of the f states under pressure.

The high-pressure regime from 4 GPa to 21 GPa is characterized by a simultaneous increase of the overall crystal-field strength and the ${}^{7}F_{0} \rightarrow {}^{5}D_{0}$ linewidth, along with a shortening of the luminescence lifetimes. In addition, the nearly unchanged ${}^{7}F_{0} \rightarrow {}^{5}D_{0}$ peak position up to 15 GPa suggested that high-field Eu³⁺ sites are created in this pressure range. These high-field sites appear on the high-energy side of the ${}^{7}F_{0} \rightarrow {}^{5}D_{0}$ band, which explains the broadening of the band while the peak position remains the same.

The application of pressure to silicate glasses results in a gradual coordination change to five- and six-coordinate species of Si. A proposed mechanism for this coordination increase is through the consumption of nonbridging oxygens. Nonbridging oxygens are covalently bonded to one Si atom (Si–O⁻) rather than to two Si atoms (Si–O–Si). In analogy to this process, Lochhead and Bray (1995) argued that a decrease in the nonbridging oxygen concentration should lead to an increase in the Eu³⁺ site crystal-field strength and thus to a blue shift or broadening of the $^{7}F_{0} \rightarrow ^{5}D_{0}$ band.

Because of the decreasing concentration, the number of coordinating nonbridging oxygens is decreasing. At the same time, the few remaining nonbridging oxygens are drawn closer to the Eu^{3+} ions than they would be in the ambient pressure high coordination state to satisfy its overall electrostatic and covalent energy requirements. As the result the high crystal field Eu^{3+} sites are associated with a low local concentration of nonbridging oxygens, low coordination numbers, and short Eu–O bonds. Conversely, weak field sites are characterized by a high local concentration of nonbridging oxygens, and long Eu–O bonds. These experimental results were completely confirmed by a molecular dynamics simulation by Monteil et al. (2000).

4.6.2. Phase transitions

The splitting of free-ion levels by the action of a crystal field depends on the symmetry of the crystal field which in turn reflects the symmetry of the arrangement of the neighboring ions. This property can thus be used to get evidence about the point group symmetry of a site in a given solid once the splitting of the free-ion multiplets have been determined (see, for example, sect. 5.8 of Görller-Walrand and Binnemans (1996)). This can be a very useful

feature in high-pressure experiments because many materials undergo phase transitions which usually alter the site symmetry.

In a stoichiometric compound, the symmetry reflected by the splitting is identical with the point symmetry of the site occupied by the rare-earth ion in the solid. However, in the case of rare-earth ions being dopants, the reflected symmetry can, but must not, be identical with the point group symmetry of the substituted ion (Denning et al., 1976). This problem arises because the splitting is dominated mainly by the crystal-field potential due to the nearest neighbors of the f element (Mishimura and Kushida, 1991). Thus, the splitting mainly reflects the symmetry of the arrangement of the ligand ions. Their positions, however, can deviate from the usual positions in the undoped material especially if the rare-earth ion replaces an ion of a distinctly different size. Therefore, the optical site symmetry deduced from the energy level splittings of the doped ion can be different from the real site symmetry of the host.

Numerous studies about phases and phase transitions detected by optical investigations of f elements have been published by Haire, Peterson, and co-workers. In many cases they used the Eu^{3+} ion to correlate the luminescence properties with structural changes. The Eu^{3+} ion exhibits a variety of characteristic transitions serving as a fingerprint for the structure (Chen et al., 1992e). However, in view of the problematic situation with respect to the local symmetry in the case of doped ions mentioned above, there has been some discussion on whether the Eu^{3+} ion or f elements in general can be used as indicators of the actual host structure or not (Tanner and Rudowicz, 1993; Stump et al., 1993). In summary, it must be concluded that the spectral/structural correlation has limitations especially in the case of doped ions where deviations between local and real site symmetry may readily occur.

To test the feasibility of the Eu^{3+} ion luminescence method to identify phase transitions, Chen et al. (1992b, 1994b) have performed high-pressure studies on the lanthanide sesquioxide Eu_2O_3 under pressure. In this stoichiometric compound the problem of local distortions is ruled out. The lanthanide sesquioxides show only three different crystal structures at ambient conditions, denoted by A, B, and C. The sesquioxides of the larger lanthanide cations tended to be hexagonal (A-type), those of the smallest cubic (C-type), and that of the intermediatesized cations monoclinic (B-type). Some of the sesquioxides, including Eu_2O_3 , can exhibit both the B and C structures at ambient conditions.

In a high pressure study on C-type Eu_2O_3 at room temperature, Chen et al. (1992b) observed distinct changes in the luminescence spectrum of the Eu^{3+} ion at around 8 GPa. From a comparison with the ambient pressure spectrum of B-type Eu_2O_3 , they concluded that the observed changes were due to a phase transition to the B-type monoclinic structure. Such a transition had already been observed by Hoekstra (1966). In a further study, starting with B-type Eu_2O_3 , Chen et al. (1994b) observed spectral changes at pressures around 4 GPa. The spectra taken above 4 GPa were found to be similar to the spectrum of the Eu^{3+} ion in an A-type hexagonal La_2O_3 host crystal. Therefore, the observed changes were attributed to a phase transition from B- to A-type structure.

Another interesting example is a crystalline to amorphous phase transition in $Eu(OH)_3$ (Chen et al., 1994a) at room temperature. The initial structure is the UCl₃-type structure (space group $P6_3/m$) which was confirmed by X-ray diffraction. Figure 11 shows that broad bands appear under pressure and completely replace the former sharp lines at around 5.5 GPa. The



Fig. 11. Luminescence spectra from initially crystalline $Eu(OH)_3$ at different pressures (from Chen et al. (1994a)). Amorphization is observed at 5.5 GPa. The transition is reversible as shown by the spectrum quenched from 11 GPa.

broad bands are characteristic for a sample in an amorphous state (Chen et al., 1995). The transition is completely reversible which can be seen by the spectrum quenched from 11 GPa in fig. 11.

As in the case of Eu(OH)₃ the UCl₃-type structure can be found in various lanthanide and actinide (lanact) trihalide compounds. Excluding the trifluorides, only four different crystal structures can be observed in lanact trihalides. These structures can be ordered according to an increasing M^{3+} : X^- radius ratio such as: Bil₃-type rhombohedral [6] \rightarrow AlCl₃-type monoclinic [6] \rightarrow PuBr₃-type orthorhombic [8] \rightarrow UCl₃-type hexagonal [9] (Beck and Gladrow, 1979). The numbers in brackets give the respective coordination numbers of the lanact ion. With increasing pressure the radius ratio increases because of the much softer halide ions compared to the metal ions. Thus, according to this increase and the pressure-coordination rule from Neuhaus (1964), it can be expected that high pressure phase transitions should follow the same order.

With high pressure X-ray diffraction experiments Beck and Gladrow (1979, 1983) could reproduce a part of this series. In particular, they observed transitions from the AlCl₃-structure and BiI₃-structure to the PuBr₃-structure. Several optical studies, utilizing the f-element luminescence or absorption, could also support phase transitions of lanact trihalides following this sequence: AlCl₃-type \rightarrow PuBr₃-type: CfBr₃ (Peterson et al., 1985, 1987); BiI₃-type \rightarrow PuBr₃-type: AmI₃ (Haire et al., 1985); PuI₃, CmI₃ (Haire et al., 1987). Beck and Gladrow (1979) pointed out that a transition from the PuBr₃-structure to the UCl₃-structure can not be realized due to the higher packing efficiency ($\Sigma V_{\text{ions}}/V_{\text{cell}}$) in the PuBr₃-structure.

Deviating from the above structural series, Wilmarth et al. (1989) reported phase transitions from the UCl₃-structure to the PuBr₃-structure in the case of PrCl₃ and PrBr₃, deduced from high pressure absorption and Raman studies. The same transition was observed also in the case of CfCl₃ (Peterson et al., 1986; Young et al., 1990) and CmCl₃ (Del Cul et al., 1992). In

principle, such a transition promotes a higher packing efficiency, however, it does not fit to the pressure-coordination rule nor to the radius ratio order of the structures. In all cases the phase transitions were proposed because of slight changes in the absorption spectra in connection with Raman spectra. For example, in the case of PrCl₃ (UCl₃-structure) above 15.5 GPa a more symmetric shape of the ${}^{3}H_{4} \rightarrow {}^{1}D_{2}$ band and a loss of intensity in and a lack of resolution of the ${}^{3}H_{4} \rightarrow {}^{1}I_{6}$ absorption band in relation to the ${}^{3}H_{4} \rightarrow {}^{3}P_{1}$ absorption band resulted in a spectrum very similar to the orthorhombic PrBr₃ (PuBr₃-structure) spectrum. In addition, Raman spectra gave further evidence that a phase transition had occurred around 15 GPa. However, from the very slight changes in the absorption spectra under pressure alone, it seems to be difficult to unambiguously propose an UCl₃ to PuBr₃ phase transition in these cases.

In several optical studies on PrBr₃, NdBr₃, CfBr₃, and CmCl₃ a new higher pressure phase beyond the PuBr₃-type structure has been observed (Peterson, 1994). Further studies on LaCl₃:Pr³⁺ (Gregorian et al., 1989) and La($C_2H_5SO_4$)₃·9H₂O (lanthanum ethylsulfate) doped with Pr³⁺ (Voloshin and Ivchenko, 1980; Voloshin, 1982), both exhibiting the UCl₃structure at ambient conditions, also revealed phase transitions to a yet unidentified highpressure structure. The interpretation of this new structure has been tackled in different ways. Gregorian et al. (1989) used the critical ionic radii which mark the stability ranges of the six different lanthanide halide structures (Greis and Petzel, 1974; Beck and Gladrow, 1979). Relating these radii to the structural data obtained under pressure, they found indications of a possible phase transition to the LaF3-structure at around 10 GPa. This result fitted well to the first observation of new unknown lines at around 8 GPa. On the contrary, Voloshin (1988) interpreted the results for LaCl₃: Pr^{3+} and also for lanthanum ethylsulfate: Pr^{3+} (Voloshin, 1986) in terms of vibronic states. He argued that the reduction in the distance between f element and its ligands leads to a participation of the f orbitals in the chemical bond. This would cause a vanishing of the pure electronic transitions and the appearance of vibronic lines. In the general case the symmetry should be lowered and all degeneration should be lifted.

In summary, these examples clearly show that the luminescence spectra of the f elements definitely have the ability to indicate a phase transition, however, unambiguous conclusions about the structure of the new phases are quite difficult to draw and may be restricted to special cases.

5. Intensities and lifetimes of f-f transitions

5.1. General considerations

Most electronic transitions between different states of the f-electrons are dominated by electric dipole transitions. Only in exceptional cases like Eu(III), magnetic dipole transitions are found to be as strong as electric dipole transitions. However, in the case of an f element, electric-dipole transitions between the $4f^N$ states are forbidden because the parity of initial and final state is conserved. Only when the f element is embedded in a crystal providing a point group symmetry that does not contain the inversion operation, these transitions can be observed readily.

In an actual experiment, two different physical quantities connected with electric (or magnetic) dipole transitions are accessible via optical studies, on the one hand the intensities of the

transitions and on the other hand the lifetimes of the excited levels. For transitions between different J multiplets, where the crystal-field split levels of the initial multiplet are equally occupied, the experimental quantities can be easily related to the oscillator strengths used in the parameter calculations. In the case of absorption spectroscopy the integrated area of a transition peak I_0 can be compared directly to the experimental oscillator strength P according to (Görller-Walrand and Binnemans, 1998):

$$I_{0} = \frac{8\pi^{3}}{hc} \frac{N_{A}}{2303} \nu_{0} \frac{1}{3} \left[D_{ED} \frac{(n^{2}+2)^{2}}{9n} + D_{MD} \cdot n \right] \frac{1}{2J+1} \text{ and}$$

$$P = \frac{8\pi^{2}m_{e}c\nu_{0}}{he^{2}} \frac{1}{3} \left[D_{ED} \frac{(n^{2}+2)^{2}}{9n} + D_{MD} \cdot n \right] \frac{1}{2J+1} = 2303 \frac{m_{e}c^{2}}{\pi N_{A}e^{2}} I_{0}, \quad (17)$$

where *h* is Planck's constant, *c* the speed of light, N_A Avogadro's constant, v_0 the wavenumber at the absorption maximum, *n* the refractive index of the material, *J* the total angular momentum of the ground multiplet, m_e the electron mass, *e* the elementary charge, and *D* the dipole strength in a randomly oriented system. The dipole strength can be calculated from the matrix element of the dipole operator $\hat{\mathbf{O}}$ (MD or ED operator):

$$D = \left| \left\langle \Psi_i \left| \widehat{\mathbf{O}} \right| \Psi_f \right\rangle \right|^2. \tag{18}$$

In the case of luminescence transitions it is usually not appropriate to use the absolute intensities because non-radiative processes such as multiphonon decay or energy transfer processes can effectively change the observed intensities. Similarly, also the experimentally measured lifetime is not suitable because non-radiative processes can effectively shorten the lifetime. However, the radiative branching ratios β_R can still be compared with the calculations. These ratios denote the relative intensities for transitions from the same initial to different final multiplets.

Only if non-radiative processes can be discarded, as for example in cases of diluted f elements with multiplets lying well above the next lowest levels, the radiative lifetimes τ_R can be compared with theoretical calculations. In this case the radiative lifetime is inversely proportional to the oscillator strength of the transition.

The remaining problem in the calculation of intensities and radiative lifetimes is the calculation of the dipole or, in other words, the oscillator strength matrix element in eq. (18). To calculate this element, Judd (1962) and Ofelt (1962) proposed the transition oscillator strengths being due to the mixing of the $4f^{N-1}nd^1$ and $4f^{N-1}ng^1$ configurations into the $4f^N$ configuration by the crystal field. Because this mixing introduces components of different parities, the transitions become allowed. Although this theory has been widely and successfully employed to describe the total oscillator strengths of transitions between different *J* multiplets, it has been pointed out that also other mechanisms as for example mixing with ligand states will contribute to the observed oscillator strengths (Poon and Newman, 1984).

In the scope of the Judd–Ofelt theory three parameters Ω_2 , Ω_4 , and Ω_6 are commonly used to describe the transitions between J multiplets. For this case, the contributions from individual crystal field split levels of a given multiplet are simply summed up. To account for individual transitions, effective transition operators can be used to derive a parametrization analogous to the crystal-field Hamiltonian. This procedure introduces parameters A_{tp}^{λ} , which can be used to calculate the Judd–Ofelt parameters. For a detailed account of this subject see, for example, Görller-Walrand and Binnemans (1998) and Reid (2000).

As discussed, intensities and lifetimes are related to the oscillator strengths of the f-f transitions which in turn are connected to the mixing of excited configurations $4f^{N-1}nd^1$, $4f^{N-1}ng^1$ or ligand states to the $4f^N$ configuration. The mixing results from configuration interactions due to the odd-parity crystal-field components in the first case and overlap and covalency contributions in the second case. These considerations form the starting-point of high-pressure experiments.

The application of high pressure to f-element compounds should change the configuration interaction as well as the interactions with the ligands. Thus, both intensities and lifetimes should be influenced by pressure. The direction and magnitude of this influence, however, is difficult to forecast because pressure will act in different ways. The mixture with excited configurations is determined by the energy difference and the size of the matrix elements of the crystal-field potential between the configurations.

Obviously, the intensity of a transition depends on the amount of this mixing which can be increased (decreased) by decreasing (increasing) the energy difference to the excited configurations or increasing (decreasing) odd-parity components of the crystal-field potential. Overlap and covalency contributions can be expected to increase under pressure, leading to enhanced mixing and oscillator strengths. However, the increased interaction with the ligands may also lead to enhanced non-radiative decay in case of luminescence measurements, which then would diminish the intensities and lifetimes.

It should be noted that also the refractive index in eq. (17) will change under pressure. This change can be estimated by the Lorenz local-field model, where the refractive index *n* is related to the atomic polarizability α_P and the density of the material ρ by the Lorentz–Lorenz relation:

$$\frac{n^2 - 1}{n^2 + 1} = \frac{4\pi N_{\rm A}}{3} \alpha_P \rho.$$
(19)

According to eq. (19) the refractive index increases with increasing density (increasing pressure) and increasing polarizability. However, this model is exactly valid only for point dipoles in a cubic arrangement. Therefore, the reliability of this model with respect to quantitative predictions is limited in many cases (Eremets, 1996). A further difficulty here is to estimate the change of the polarizability under pressure.

Johannsen (1997) performed high-pressure experiments on alkali halides to determine the changes of the refractive index with increasing density. According to his results, an increase of the density by around 20% causes an increase of the refractive index of less than 3%. Such a change would increase the intensity of a transition by less than 10% and can thus explain only slight changes in the intensities.

In the following sections it will be shown that a careful analysis of the high pressure effects on intensities and lifetimes can yield valuable information about various aspects of physical interactions leading to the observed intensities and lifetimes. At first, absorption studies will be presented which have the advantage that the observed intensities can be related directly to the oscillator strengths. In the subsequent section luminescence studies will be discussed where it is possible to study effects due to configuration interactions or energy transfer processes.

5.2. Absorption studies

Only a few absorption studies under pressure with respect to the intensities of f-f transitions can be found in the literature. A systematic and comprehensive study of rare-earth ions in ionic crystals has been performed by Keating and Drickamer (1961a). They studied rare-earth trichlorides, trifluorides, and ethylsulfates at room temperature up to pressures of 18 GPa by means of absorption spectroscopy. The rare earths studied were Pr^{3+} , Nd^{3+} , Sm^{3+} , Ho^{3+} , Er^{3+} , and Tm^{3+} . In all cases they observed an increase of the intensities by approximately 40%. To explain this result, they assumed the crystal-field potential arising from point charges only. In this case the potential contains odd-parity terms proportional to R_i^{-4} , R_i^{-5} , and R_i^{-6} , where R_i is the distance between the nucleus of the rare-earth ion and the charge e_i of a ligand ion. Estimating a volume reduction of 15–20% at 10 GPa and taking into account only the most important R_i^{-4} term, Keating and Drickamer (1961a) could obtain a theoretical intensity increase of about 45%, in good agreement with the experimentally determined increase. Therefore, they concluded that the increase in intensity was due to an increased mixing of 5d and 4f orbitals due to an increase of the mixing potential.

To extend these studies, Keating and Drickamer (1961b) also investigated UF₃ and UF₄. In the case of UF_3 the results were similar to the rare-earth fluorides, in particular an increase in intensity could be observed for all transitions. However, for UF₄ they observed increasing as well as decreasing intensities for different lines under pressure. The U^{4+} ion in UF₄ is situated in a position which is only slightly distorted from having a center of symmetry. Thus, the oddparity components of the crystal-field potential can be quite small and one has to search for other mechanisms contributing to the intensities which can cause the observed decrease under pressure. One mechanism is the mixing of f- and d-orbitals by lattice vibrations. According to Keating and Drickamer (1961b) the mixing is proportional to $(r_0/r)^2 V_e$, where V_e is the even part of the crystalline potential, r_0 denotes the amplitude of vibration of the metal nucleus, and r is the radius of the f orbital. The intensity is proportional to the square of this quantity. Under pressure, V_e and r can be expected to increase, whereas r_0 can be assumed to decrease. In total, this quantity may therefore increase or decrease, depending on the size of the various contributions. Because at the same time the mixing via the odd-parity components of the crystal field can be quite small, it may easily occur that some of the intensities, which are dominated by the lattice vibration mixing show a decreasing intensity under pressure.

5.3. Luminescence studies

In luminescence studies it can often be observed that intensities decrease with increasing pressure. A decreasing luminescence intensity can be ascribed to two main effects. On one hand, the excitation efficiency can decrease due to a pressure-induced shift of absorption bands away from a fixed excitation energy. This effect can be minimized either by a tunable excitation source or by exciting into a band, whose shift is negligible compared to its width.

On the other hand, the luminescence quantum efficiency can decrease. Apart from a decrease of the oscillator strengths themselves, many other mechanisms can cause such reduced quantum efficiencies, as, for example, enhanced electron–phonon coupling, generation of new paths for deexcitation or energy transfer processes. In fact, these processes will not affect the oscillator strengths of the transition but simply influence the occupation of the excited level. Therefore, the oscillator strength of a given transition may still increase under pressure, however, this increase is completely covered up by a fast depletion of the excited level.

The lifetime of an excited level can be used here to distinguish between a change in the oscillator strength or the occupation of an excited level. A decreasing oscillator strength is connected with an increasing lifetime and vice versa. Thus, if the lifetime of a level is decreasing under pressure, the intensity must increase. However, if on the contrary a decreasing intensity is observed, some depletion process must be present and dominate a possible increase in the oscillator strength. Besides depletion also filling processes may occur under pressure. Such a process would require some long-living reservoir which slowly fills the excited level. As a result, a strong enhancement of the intensity may be observed, independent of a change in the oscillator strengths.

The measurement of a lifetime is much more accurate and reliable than the measurement of the absolute luminescence intensity under pressure. Therefore, the majority of studies on f-element compounds reported on pressure-dependent lifetimes only. The compounds studied so far can be found in table 1. In most cases a decrease of the lifetime under pressure has been observed. The following sections will treat the changes in lifetimes or intensities according to the mechanisms responsible for the observed variations.

5.3.1. Influence of $4f^{N-1}5d^1$ configurations

Excited $4f^{N-1}5d^1$ configurations can influence the f-f transitions in two different ways: first, a thermal excitation from excited $4f^N$ states to the $4f^{N-1}5d^1$ configuration can lead to a quenching of the f-f luminescence and decreasing lifetimes, and second, an increased (decreased) mixing of $4f^{N-1}5d^1$ to the $4f^N$ wavefunctions can cause increasing (decreasing) intensities and decreasing (increasing) lifetimes.

One of the best studied systems is SrFCl doped with Sm^{2+} . Jovanić et al. (1997a) studied the lifetime of the ${}^5\text{D}_0 \rightarrow {}^7\text{F}_0$ transition of the Sm^{2+} ion as a function of pressure and found a pronounced exponential decrease from approximately 1.4 ms to 0.5 ms up to 10 GPa. In a subsequent paper they used the Lorentz–Lorentz equation (eq. (9)) to attribute the observed decrease of the lifetime to changes of the refractive index under pressure (Jovanić et al., 1997b). The same explanation was also applied to the case of the mixed crystal SrFCl_{0.5}Br_{0.5}:Sm²⁺, where a similar decrease of the lifetime was noted (Jovanić, 2001). Although in both cases a good agreement between calculated and experimental values was reached, the model used is clearly oversimplified. Despite many assumptions on polarizabilities, dipole matrix elements and others, Jovanić et al. (1997b) neglected all other radiative transitions from ${}^5\text{D}_0$. Taking into account these transitions, which contribute to the overall transition probability and henceforth to the lifetime, one would have to consider for example different factors for the energies, the wavelength dependence of the refractive index, and a completely different factor for the magnetic dipole transition ${}^5\text{D}_0 \rightarrow {}^7\text{F}_1$ (see eq. (17)).
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In addition, from structural data for SrFCl (Shen et al., 1994) under pressure, the increase of the density of SrFCl up to 10 GPa can be calculated to be approximately 13%. Comparing this increase with the high-pressure experiments on the refractive index of the alkali halides (Johannsen, 1997), one can expect a small change of perhaps 2% of the refractive index. Such a change should decrease the lifetime by no more than a few percent. Nevertheless, the studies from Jovanić and coworkers at least indicate that the change of the refractive index under pressure may give rise to some corrections of quantitative evaluations of pressure effects.

The lowest state of the $4f^55d^1$ configuration of SrFCl:Sm²⁺ is located only at around 19 000 cm⁻¹ above the 7F_0 ground state of the $4f^6$ configuration (Shen and Bray, 1998a). Under pressure, the energy distance between both configurations is rapidly decreasing. This should provide a unique possibility to study the influence of this configuration on intensities and lifetimes of the f-f transitions. Following these considerations, Shen et al. (1997) and Shen and Bray (1998a, 1999) have presented a detailed investigation on SrFCl:Sm²⁺ and CaFCl:Sm²⁺.

They considered two effects, on one hand the mixing of the wavefunctions of the 4f⁶ and 4f⁵5d¹ configurations and on the other hand the nonradiative crossover between levels of both configurations. To analyze the nonradiative crossover, they used the single configurational coordinate (SCC) energy level diagram for Sm²⁺ in SrFCl depicted in fig. 12. The missing ⁷F_J (J = 0, ..., 6) multiplets would be placed directly below the ⁵D_J (J = 0, ..., 2) multiplets with the minimum of the ⁷F₀ parabola at the zero of energy. The ⁵D_J (J = 0, ..., 2) multiplets have small Franck–Condon offsets relative to the ground ⁷F₀ multiplet, in contrast to the much larger Franck–Condon offset for the excited 4f⁵5d¹ configuration.



Fig. 12. Single configurational coordinate energy level diagram for SrFCI:Sm²⁺ (from Shen and Bray (1998a)). For details see text.

The quantities used in fig. 12 are the energies *E* relative to the ground state ${}^{7}F_{0}$, the energy differences $p\hbar\omega$ between different states, where $\hbar\omega$ is the energy of the single optical phonon associated with the diagram and *p* is the number of phonons bridging the respective energy gaps, the populations *N*, and radiative W^{r} and nonradiative W^{nr} transition rates. All quantities are characterized by indices d, *J* or *J'* or combinations thereof, where d denotes the $4f^{5}5d^{1}$ configuration and *J*, *J'* different ${}^{5}D_{J}$ multiplets.

Studying the intensities and lifetimes as a function of temperature first, Shen and Bray (1998a) could fit the radiative and nonradiative rates depicted in fig. 12 to the experimentally observed variations. They obtained excellent agreement of calculated and experimental results. In particular, it was shown that quenching of the ${}^{5}D_{2}$ luminescence with increasing temperature between 50 K and 100 K is due to a thermally induced ${}^{5}D_{2} \rightarrow 4f^{5}5d^{1} \rightarrow {}^{5}D_{1,0}$ crossover. Further quenching of the ${}^{5}D_{1}$ luminescence at temperatures above 100 K, could be assigned to a thermally induced ${}^{5}D_{1} \rightarrow 4f^{5}5d^{1} \rightarrow {}^{5}D_{0}$ process and a direct ${}^{5}D_{1} \rightarrow {}^{5}D_{0}$ multiphonon relaxation process.

In a second step, Shen and Bray (1998a) studied the changes of the ${}^{5}D_{0}$ and ${}^{5}D_{1}$ lifetimes of SrFCI:Sm²⁺ and CaFCI:Sm²⁺ under pressure. In both systems they observed an exponential decrease as shown in fig. 13 for the case of the ${}^{5}D_{0}$ lifetime at room temperature. According to their analysis of the temperature effects, the measured lifetime of the ${}^{5}D_{0} \rightarrow {}^{7}F_{0}$ transition represents an almost pure radiative lifetime. A strong decrease under pressure therefore indicates an increase in the radiative rate W_{I}^{r} . This in turn was attributed to an increased elec-



Fig. 13. Calculated and experimental results for the pressure dependence of the RT ${}^{5}D_{0}$ lifetimes of SrFCI:Sm²⁺ and CaFCI:Sm²⁺ (from Shen and Bray (1998a)). The data for CaFCI:Sm²⁺ are shifted with respect to those of SrFCI:Sm²⁺ by a pressure of 2.2 GPa. The solid and dashed curves were calculated as explained in the text.

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tronic $4f^55d^1$ admixture resulting from a shift of the $4f^55d^1$ configuration to lower energy with pressure.

To study this admixture in detail, Shen and Bray (1998a) calculated the radiative rates taking into account electric and magnetic dipole transitions. While magnetic dipole transitions are allowed within the 4f shell, electric dipole transitions depend on the size of the wavefunction mixing due to odd crystal-field terms. In their calculation, Shen and Bray (1998a) considered the conventional Judd–Ofelt electric dipole contribution, designated as the 2nd electric dipole contribution, as well as a 3rd electric dipole contribution suggested by Wybourne (1968). This contribution takes into account the spin–orbit coupling of multiplets with different spin states in the excited configuration. This coupling, in connection with the odd crystal-field terms, is capable of mixing different spin states to the multiplets of the 4f⁶ configuration, thus relaxing the spin selection rule for the ${}^5D_0 \rightarrow {}^7F_0$ transition.

Only three quantities, two odd crystal-field parameters B_0^1 and B_0^3 and the energy distance E_d between the two configurations, were used as parameters in the calculations to describe the changes of the ⁵D₀ lifetime. Performing the fits, Shen and Bray (1998a) assumed a linear dependence of B_0^1 , B_0^3/B_0^1 , and E_d on pressure. As the result for the pressure dependence of these quantities they finally found (*p* in GPa, E_d and B_0^h in cm⁻¹):

$$E_{\rm d} = 18630 - 230(2)p,$$

$$10^{10}B_0^1 = 56(2) + 6.4(6)p,$$

$$B_0^3/B_0^1 = 104(8) - 7.0(8)p.$$
(20)

The calculated lifetimes, taking into account these shifts, are included in fig. 13 as dashed and solid lines. They show an excellent agreement with the experimental values. The pressure shift of $-230 \text{ cm}^{-1}/\text{GPa}$ of the excited $4f^55d^1$ configuration, deduced from the lifetime calculations, also agrees well with the experimental value of $-200 \text{ cm}^{-1}/\text{GPa}$ for pure SmFCl given by Bolduan et al. (1985). This gives strong evidence that taking into account magnetic and the two electric dipole contributions is necessary to completely describe the behavior of the 5D_0 lifetime. In particular, this result shows that the spin–orbit coupling within the excited configuration gives an important contribution for the mixing of the wavefunctions via the odd crystal-field parameters. More difficulties arose in the case of the calculated 5D_1 lifetime under pressure, which showed only poor agreement with experiment. The reasons for this disagreement were not understood, but were tentatively related to a breakdown of the closure approximation used in the model.

Gleason et al. (1993) presented a study on $La_2O_2S:Tb^{3+}$ and $Gd_2O_2S:Tb^{3+}$ under pressure. Tb³⁺ has a similar energy level structure to Sm²⁺, the main difference is a reversed order of the multiplets with respect to the total angular momentum *J*. Accordingly, the ground state is ⁷F₆ and the multiplet with the highest energy of the ⁷F term is ⁷F₀, located at approximately 6000 cm⁻¹ above the ground state. The next highest multiplets are ⁵D₄ and ⁵D₃, at around 20000 cm⁻¹ and 26500 cm⁻¹, respectively. The 4f⁷5d¹ configuration lies only about 2000 cm⁻¹ above the ⁵D₃ multiplet.

Under pressure, Gleason et al. (1993) observed a strong decrease of the ${}^{5}D_{3}$ lifetime, which was attributed to a nonradiative transfer to the excited $4f^{7}5d^{1}$ configuration. This configuration

was shown to rapidly shift with a rate of $-460 \text{ cm}^{-1}/\text{GPa}$ to lower energies. Considering the nonradiative transfer in the SCC model, they could successfully describe the pressure-induced variation of the lifetime of the ⁵D₃ multiplet.

The lifetime of the lower-lying, isolated ${}^{5}D_{4}$ multiplet of Tb³⁺ should be determined mainly by radiative transitions, similar to the case of the ${}^{5}D_{0}$ multiplet of Sm²⁺. However, in the case of Tb³⁺ no change of the lifetime and hence of the radiative rate, was observed under pressures up to 5 GPa. This indicates that the mixing with the excited 4f⁷5d¹ configuration does not change, despite of the large shift with pressure. One reason may simply be that the energy difference between the ${}^{5}D_{4}$ multiplet and the 4f⁷5d¹ configuration for Tb³⁺ is larger at ambient pressure than in the case of SrFCl:Sm²⁺. However, due to the strong shift, this difference becomes comparable to Sm²⁺ at around 5 GPa. Thus, a change of the lifetime should have been observed in this pressure range. The obvious differences may indicate for example a different variation of the odd crystal-field parameters for La₂O₂S:Tb³⁺. Another possibility is that the spin–orbit coupling contribution, which was very important for the change in the lifetime of ${}^{5}D_{0}$ of Sm²⁺, does not play any significant role in the case of the ${}^{5}D_{4}$ multiplet of Tb³⁺. This could mean that the spin–orbit coupling contribution is not important either specifically for the ${}^{5}D_{4}$ multiplet or for Tb³⁺ in general.

5.3.2. Influence of charge transfer states

Similar to the influence of the excited $4f^{N-1}5d^1$ configurations, charge transfer states (CTS) can affect the lifetimes and intensities of f-f transitions in two different ways. On one hand the possibility for nonradiative energy transfer from an excited level of the $4f^N$ configuration to the CTS is enabled and on the other hand the wavefunctions of the CTS can be mixed to the $4f^N$ configuration. The lifetimes of the f-f transitions should decrease with increasing nonradiative energy transfer or increasing wavefunction mixing. Furthermore, the intensities should decrease with increasing nonradiative transfer but increase with enhanced wavefunction mixing.

A system which has been studied in some detail under pressure is $R_2O_2S:Eu^{3+}$ (R = Y, La). The configurational coordinate diagram of $Y_2O_2S:Eu^{3+}$ is shown in fig. 14. In many regards the energy level scheme is similar to the isoelectronic Sm²⁺ in SrFCl (see sect. 5.3.1). The main difference is that the first excited state is not an intrinsic ionic state of the rareearth ion itself, but an extended state involving the wavefunctions of the ligand orbitals. It is therefore interesting to look for possible differences in the high pressure behavior.

A detailed analysis of this system at ambient pressure has been performed by Fonger and Struck (1970) and Struck and Fonger (1970). They studied the intensities and lifetimes of the ⁵D_J multiplets as a function of temperature and attributed the observed changes to thermally promoted transitions ⁵D \rightarrow CTS followed by return crossovers to lower ⁵D states. Such a process is indicated by arrows in fig. 14. On the contrary, Wickersheim et al. (1968) have reported similar measurements, but tried to explain the successive quenching of the ⁵D states through multiphonon emission.

To get further evidence about which model is more appropriate, Webster and Drickamer (1980a) have measured the luminescence efficiency of $La_2O_2S:Eu^{3+}$ and $Y_2O_2S:Eu^{3+}$ and the lifetimes of the lanthanum compound under pressures up to 12 GPa. Intensities and life-



Fig. 14. Configurational coordinate diagram for La₂O₂S:Eu³⁺ showing the position of the charge transfer state (CTS) at ambient and high pressure (from Webster and Drickamer (1980a)). The arrows indicate the ⁵D_J \rightarrow CTS \rightarrow ⁵D_{J'} (*J* > *J'*) relaxation pathway. (10 kbar = 1 GPa).

times of La₂O₂S:Eu³⁺ and Y₂O₂S:Eu³⁺ were also measured by Gleason et al. (1993) and Wang et al. (1984), respectively, who got mainly the same results as Webster and Drickamer (1980a). To exclude effects due to energy transfer between different Eu³⁺ ions, Webster and Drickamer (1980a) their discussion on the results for the sample with the lowest Eu³⁺ concentration of 0.1%. For higher concentrations up to 3% they could prove that a damping of the pressure effects occurred, however, the basic findings were the same.

To explain the high-pressure results, Webster and Drickamer (1980a) slightly modified the model from Struck and Fonger (1970). They took into account an activation energy $E_{i \text{ act}}$, related to the energy difference between the ${}^{5}D_{i}$ level and the CTS, and various nonradiative processes. To determine the crucial position of the CTS under pressure, Webster and Drickamer (1980a) performed absorption studies and found a blue shift of the CTS at a rate of approximately 180 cm⁻¹/GPa. The position of the CTS at 12 GPa is shown in fig. 14. Taking into account this large shift, the ${}^{5}D \rightarrow \text{CTS} \rightarrow {}^{5}D$ high-pressure model predicts distinct changes of the ${}^{5}D_{I}$ lifetimes and intensities.

Actually, the main effects on the intensities of the ${}^{5}D_{J} \rightarrow {}^{7}F_{0}$ (J = 0, 1, 2, 3) transitions of La₂O₂S:Eu³⁺ under pressure are found to perfectly match with the ${}^{5}D \rightarrow CTS \rightarrow {}^{5}D$ model. In particular, Webster and Drickamer (1980a) found that the emissions from ${}^{5}D_{0}$ and ${}^{5}D_{1}$ decreased in intensity with increasing pressure. On the contrary, the very weak ${}^{5}D_{2}$ emission increased by a large factor, stayed approximately constant between 2 GPa and 8 GPa and finally decreased above 8 GPa. The emission of ${}^{5}D_{3}$ appeared at about 5–6 GPa and increased rapidly in intensity.

The results for $Y_2O_2S:Eu^{3+}$ differed quantitatively from the results for $La_2O_2S:Eu^{3+}$, but this could be explained simply by the difference in location of the charge transfer state and

its shift with pressure. Finally, it should be noted that the changes in the lifetimes of the ${}^{5}D_{J}$ multiplets could also be described with the above model. The high-pressure results therefore clearly support the model of luminescence quenching due to a ${}^{5}D \rightarrow \text{CTS} \rightarrow {}^{5}D$ crossover in favor of nonradiative decay.

Further systems in which the nonradiative energy transfer from ligand states to f elements has been studied in detail are the $[Pt(CN)_4]_3$ and $[Au(CN)_2]_3$ complexes. In particular, Yersin and coworkers have studied Eu₂ $[Pt(CN)_4]_3\cdot18H_2O$ (Yersin et al., 1979), Sm₂ $[Pt(CN)_4]_3\cdot18H_2O$ (Yersin and Stock, 1982), and Eu[Au(CN)₂]_3·3H₂O (Yersin et al., 1998).

These systems are of great interest to energy transfer investigations since they exhibit extraordinary properties which mainly result from the unusual arrangement of the $[Pt(CN)_4]_3^{2-}$ and $[Au(CN)_2]_3$ complexes, acting as donors. In the case of $R_2[Pt(CN)_4]_3 \cdot 18H_2O$, the $[Pt(CN)_4]_3$ complexes are arranged in linear stacks, leading to highly coupled electronic wavefunctions along the stacking axis (*c*-axis). The rare-earth ions are the acceptors located between the stacks. The $[Au(CN)_2]_3$ complexes in Eu $[Au(CN)_2]_3 \cdot 3H_2O$ form two-dimensional layers alternating with layers of rare-earth ions. The low-energy states of the dicyanoaurates(I) as well as the tetracyanoplatinates(II) can be traced to the Au (Pt) 5d, 6s HOMO and the Au (Pt) 6p, CN π^* LUMO, respectively (Yersin and Gliemann, 1978). Due to the strong electronic interaction between the complexes, valence and conduction bands develop. Finally, strong electron–hole interactions lead to excitonic states with a binding energy of up to 4000 cm⁻¹ (Eichhorn et al., 1981).

One of the outstanding properties of these substances is the extreme tunability of the electronic states under high pressure. In many cases a red shift on the order of $2000 \text{ cm}^{-1}/\text{GPa}$ has been observed (Yersin and Riedl, 1995). In addition, an effective nonradiative energy transfer from the cyano donor complexes to the f elements has been observed. In the case of Eu[Au(CN)₂]₃·3H₂O this process even totally quenches the otherwise very intense and broad emission from the [Au(CN)₂]⁻ layers. However, because of the very strong red shift of the donor electronic states, it is possible to shift the donor states over different levels of the f element. Especially, resonant and nonresonant energy transfer conditions can be achieved to study the transfer mechanism.

Figure 15 shows the emission spectra of single crystal Eu[Au(CN)₂]₃·3H₂O at various pressures (Yersin et al., 1998). At ambient pressure only luminescence from the Eu³⁺ ion $({}^{5}D_{0} \rightarrow {}^{7}F_{J}$ and some weak transitions from ${}^{5}D_{1}$) but no luminescence from the donor can be observed. However, at pressures above approximately 1 GPa at 20 K, a very weak emission occurs and grows in with increasing pressure. This effect is a consequence of a pressure-induced tuning off of the nonradiative energy transfer from the dicyanoaurate(I) donors to the Eu³⁺ acceptors. Taking into account the pressure dependence of the donor emission band, it is possible to extrapolate the ambient pressure position to be about 23600 ± 300 cm⁻¹.

The transfer rate P_{D-A} between donor D and acceptor A can be expressed by (Förster, 1951; Dexter, 1953):

$$P_{\mathrm{D-A}} = F(R) \int f_{\mathrm{D}}^{e}(\bar{\nu}) f_{\mathrm{A}}^{a}(\bar{\nu}) d\bar{\nu}.$$
(21)



Fig. 15. Luminescence spectra of single-crystal Eu[Au(CN)₂]₃·3H₂O at various pressures (T = 20 K, $\lambda_{\text{exc}} = 363.8 \text{ nm}$). With increasing pressure, the energy transfer from the dicynoaurates donors to the Eu³⁺ acceptors can successively be tuned off. The vertical lines characterize positions of Eu³⁺ absorptions and emissions, respectively (from Yersin et al. (1998)). (10 kbar = 1 GPa).

The integral is the spectral overlap integral of the donor emission $f_D^e(\bar{v})$ with the acceptor absorption profile $f_A^a(\bar{v})$ for resonance condition. F(R) summarizes the essential mechanisms, like the Dexter (1953) exchange or the Förster (1951) multipole mechanism with their specific R distance dependences.

According to eq. (21), resonance energy transfer can occur only if the spectral overlap integral differs from zero. At ambient pressure, this is the case for only two multiplets of Eu³⁺, ${}^{5}L_{6}$ and ${}^{5}D_{3}$, with estimated barycenters near 25100 cm⁻¹ and 24300 cm⁻¹, respectively. With increasing pressure, the spectral overlap integral with these multiplets is tuned to zero, leading to the appearance of the donor emission. With further increasing pressure, the overlap integral is continuously tuned on and subsequently off with the lower lying multiplets of Eu³⁺ in the order ${}^{5}D_{2}$ (maximum overlap at around 1.6 GPa), ${}^{5}D_{1}$ (3.9 GPa) and ${}^{5}D_{0}$ (5.3 GPa). At 1.6 GPa the intensity of the donor emission increased by a factor of 10, although the spectral overlap with ${}^{5}D_{2}$ reached its maximum. This clearly reveals that the energy transfer is much more efficient to ${}^{5}D_{3}$ than to ${}^{5}D_{2}$. At the highest pressures the overlap is zero with all but the lowest ${}^{5}D_{0}$ multiplet. Under these conditions no f-f luminescence could be observed at all, showing that no energy transfer from the donor to the ${}^{5}D_{0}$ multiplet occurs.

Similar examples for energy transfer from ligand localized levels to highly localized 4f levels are represented by the rare-earth chelates. Voloshin and Savutskii (1976) studied europium benzoylacetonate under pressures up to 6 GPa. Exciting the triplet level they could observe the luminescence from the Eu³⁺ ion. It was possible to describe the observed initial increase in the quantum yield of the Eu³⁺ luminescence up to 2.5 GPa and the following decrease by the exchange resonance theory (Dexter, 1953). A more detailed study on different *Tris* chelates of Sm³⁺, Eu³⁺, Gd³⁺, and Tb³⁺ with β -diketonates was performed by Hayes and Drickamer (1982), where the most dramatic effects of pressure on energy transfer phenomena were found for the Eu³⁺ chelates.

A schematic diagram of the ligand localized and Eu^{3+} excited energy levels are shown in fig. 16. The ligand levels are denoted with *S* and *T* for the singlet and triplet states, respec-



Fig. 16. Energy transfer processes in Eu chelates (from Hayes and Drickamer (1982)). Wiggly arrows represent nonradiative processes. Solid and dashed arrows represent radiative processes, with a lesser probability for the dashed arrows; a, b, c, d: see text.

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tively. Under pressure both levels show a strong red shift. The shift of the lower-lying triplet levels was 1400 cm⁻¹ for Thenoyltrifluoroacetylacetone (TTF) and 1000 cm⁻¹ for Dibenzoylmethide (DBM) up to 4 GPa. The simultaneous shift of the ${}^{5}D_{J}$ multiplets of Eu³⁺ is more than one order of magnitude smaller.

Figure 16 also indicates the various optical processes that were observed in europium chelates in the study of Hayes and Drickamer (1982). Part (a) illustrates the excitation of the singlet ligand state, followed by a relaxation to the triplet state and a subsequent energy transfer process which induces the emission of the Eu^{3+} ion. Part (c) shows the situation at higher pressures, when the triplet level lies between ${}^{5}D_{1}$ and ${}^{5}D_{0}$. In this case a relaxation from the excited ${}^{5}D_{1}$ to the ${}^{5}D_{0}$ multiplet can occur via the intermediate triplet level under proper conditions. Finally, part (b) and (d) indicate a thermal deactivation process back to the ligand localized levels. This process already occurs with the triplet level above ${}^{5}D_{0}$ (see part d) and is responsible for a pronounced quenching of the ${}^{5}D_{0}$ luminescence at higher pressures for EuDBM.

One of the aims of the high pressure studies of Hayes and Drickamer (1982) was to test this triplet quenching hypothesis (Sato and Wada, 1970). According to part (d) of fig. 16, an activation energy E_A is needed to transfer the energy stored in 5D_0 to the triplet level. This energy can be slightly larger than the energy difference ΔE between 5D_0 and the triplet level (Struck and Fonger, 1975). Assuming that the quenching of the 5D_0 luminescence in EuDBM can be related with this process, a one-to-one correspondence of the red shift of the triplet energy and the change in the activation energy should be found. Under pressure exactly this behavior was found, which definitely confirmed the triplet quenching process as the main mode of thermal deactivation in these systems.

5.3.3. Energy transfer processes in insulators

In the preceding section the pressure effects on the energy transfer from electronic states of constituents of the host lattice to the f element have been discussed. Different to this case, another source of energy transfer can be the electronic state of some point defect in the host lattice which will be considered now. As simple examples, the point defect can be another f element (either of the same or a different kind) or a transition metal element.

Pressure effects on the energy transfer between f elements of the same kind were studied by Merkle et al. (1981) for the case of $Nd^{3+}-Nd^{3+}$ pairs in $Nd_xY_{1-x}P_5O_{14}$ (x = 1, 0.1). This material was studied in detail because of its potential use as a stoichiometric laser material. An outstanding property is a very weak concentration quenching of the luminescence. The total luminescence decay rate of the ${}^4F_{3/2}$ multiplet in $Nd_xY_{1-x}P_5O_{14}$ (x = 1, 0.1) under pressure is shown in fig. 17. Obviously the stoichiometric compound shows a much larger increase of the decay rate than the doped compound.

Merkle et al. (1981) discussed three possible mechanisms of the pressure-enhanced decay rate: an increase of the radiative decay rate of each Nd^{3+} ion, an increase of the nonradiative decay rate of each Nd^{3+} ion, or an increase in the interaction between Nd^{3+} ions leading to luminescence quenching. The nonradiative decay rates for the ${}^{4}F_{3/2}$ multiplet were estimated to contribute less than 20% to the total decay rate (Powell et al., 1980) at ambient pressure.



Fig. 17. Total luminescence decay rate of ${}^{4}F_{3/2}$ in Nd_xY_{1-x}P₅O₁₄ for x = 0.1 and 1.0, as a function of pressure (from Merkle et al. (1981)).

Because it is very unlikely that pressure can cause an increase of this small contribution to the extent necessary to explain the NdP₅O₁₄ data, the second possibility was ruled out.

The increase in the radiative decay rate of ${}^{4}F_{3/2}$ under pressure was estimated from the measured absorption strength of the ${}^{4}I_{9/2} \rightarrow {}^{4}F_{3/2}$ transitions and the relative luminescence intensities for NdP₅O₁₄. It was found that an increase by a factor of about 1.2(4) can be expected. However, this value is much smaller than the observed increase (see fig. 17) and thus cannot be used to explain the experimental results. Because it has been shown that the oscillator strengths for Nd³⁺ transitions in Nd_xLa_{1-x}P₅O₁₄ are independent of the Nd³⁺ concentration (Auzel, 1976), it can be assumed that the change in the radiative decay rate with pressure should also depend little on concentration. Therefore, the same estimated increase of 1.2(4) for the stoichiometric compound can be expected also in the case of the doped sample. Indeed, in this case the experimental result agrees well with the prediction. This clearly reveals that in the case of the stoichiometric compound a further mechanism, which is not due to single-ion processes, must contribute to the increased decay rates.

Merkle et al. (1981) considered two multi-ion quenching processes that are possible in this case, namely a cross-relaxation between pairs of Nd³⁺ ions and energy migration to sinks. A possible strong increase of the cross-relaxation mechanism Nd(${}^{4}F_{3/2}$) + Nd(${}^{4}I_{9/2}$) \rightarrow Nd(${}^{4}I_{15/2}$) + Nd(${}^{4}I_{15/2}$) could be ruled out because of various spectral properties observed under pressure. The final possibility therefore was an increased energy migration to traps. To check the plausibility of this hypothesis, Merkle et al. (1981) used a simple diffusion model, where the rate of energy transfer to traps is proportional to the energy diffusion coefficient, *D*, which can be calculated for resonant dipole–dipole interaction by (Trlifaj, 1958):

$$W^{\rm mig} \propto D \propto a^{-4} W_{\rm ion}^2 \Delta \nu_{\rm hom}^{-1}.$$
(22)

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Here the average lattice spacing is denoted by a, W_{ion} is the single-ion transition rate and Δv_{hom} is the homogeneous linewidth which is used to approximate the spectral overlap integral between the two interacting ions. As the result, the decay rate due to migration should increase by a factor of 2.4(1.0) up to 6.8 GPa. Correcting the data from fig. 17 for the change of the radiative decay rate one finds an experimental increase by a factor of 2.2(3). This value is in close agreement with the prediction from eq. (22). Therefore, Merkle et al. (1981) concluded that energy migration is the dominant effect leading to an increase in the decay rates of NdP₅O₁₄ under pressure.

Similar conclusions were drawn by Blanzat et al. (1984) who studied $Tb_x La_{1-x}P_5O_{14}$, $Eu_x La_{1-x}P_5O_{14}$ and mixed single crystals $Tb_x Eu_{1-x}P_5O_{14}$ under pressure. By selective excitation of the 5D_4 multiplet of Tb^{3+} the luminescence of Eu^{3+} could be observed due to an efficient $Tb^{3+} \rightarrow Eu^{3+}$ energy transfer. Under pressure the lifetime of the Eu^{3+} luminescence decreased which was interpreted by a weak back-transfer from Eu^{3+} to Tb^{3+} due to the increased overlapping of the 5D_4 multiplet of Tb^{3+} with the 5D_2 multiplet of Eu^{3+} .

The decay of the Tb³⁺ luminescence in the mixed crystals is dominated by a very fast energy diffusion process to the Eu³⁺ acceptors at ambient pressure, leading to a singleexponential decay. The decay time increases with increasing Tb³⁺ concentration which is characteristic for a diffusion-limited relaxation mechanism since the average distance required for energy to migrate to an Eu³⁺ ion is increased. At higher pressures the direct Tb³⁺ \rightarrow Eu³⁺ energy transfer is strongly enhanced, resulting in an initial non-exponential decay. Consistent with a dominant energy diffusion process, the decay time of the following exponential part decreases with increasing pressure due to decreasing average distances to the Eu³⁺ ions. In summary, the work of Blanzat et al. (1984) supports the conclusions of Merkle et al. (1981) who identified the energy migration mechanism as the dominant energy transfer mechanism in NdP₅O₁₄.

In the beginning of sect. 5.3 it was mentioned that besides depletion processes due to enhanced non-radiative decay, filling processes due to some long-living reservoir may also occur. La₂O₂S doped with Eu³⁺ represents such a case. Two types of traps are responsible there for the slow energy release, one type forming a shallow and the other a deep storage. The phosphorescence of this material was studied by Webster and Drickamer (1980b) under pressures up to 6 GPa. They approximated the decay curves of the Eu³⁺ luminescence as the sum of two exponential terms, belonging to the shallow and deep traps, respectively. Under pressure they observed an increase of both lifetimes of the detrapping processes. These lifetimes depend on the activation energy necessary for detrapping and thus can be used to determine the activation energies increased under pressure. It was argued that the formation of the charge transfer state represents the detrapping process. This assumption is supported by the high pressure studies where energy could be stored in the traps at high pressure for an apparently indefinite length of time and appeared as emission from the Eu³⁺ ion on the sudden release of pressure, a phenomenon similar to thermoluminescence.

A technological interesting possibility is the energy transfer from transition-metal ions to f elements. Transition-metal ions offer broad absorption bands which can be easily excited by flashlamps. A subsequent energy transfer to an f element can then result in a sharp emission



Fig. 18. Schematic energy level diagrams of Cr³⁺ and Tm³⁺ in YAG showing the energy transfer from Cr³⁺ to Tm³⁺. The absorption and luminescence spectra of YAG:Cr³⁺ (0.5 at.%) are shown at ambient pressure and room temperature (from Shen et al. (2000)).

in the near infrared. Such a process may be used to develop efficient laser materials. A typical system of this type is $Cr^{3+}:Tm^{3+}:Y_3Al_5O_{12}$ (YAG). This material has been studied under high pressure by Wamsley and Bray (1994a, 1995) and Shen et al. (2000).

high pressure by Wamsley and Bray (1994a, 1995) and Shen et al. (2000). A schematic energy-level diagram of Cr^{3+} and Tm^{3+} in YAG together with the luminescence and absorption spectra of Cr^{3+} are shown in fig. 18. Three primary $Cr^{3+} \rightarrow Tm^{3+}$ energy transfer pathways can be identified: thermally activated energy transfer from the ${}^{4}T_{2}$ state (${}^{4}T_{2}$ ET), thermally activated energy transfer from the ${}^{2}E$ anti-Stokes phonon sidebands (${}^{2}E$ anti-Stokes ET), and temperature-independent energy transfer from the zero phonon and Stokes phonon sidebands of the ${}^{2}E$ state (${}^{2}E$ Stokes ET).

In a first step Shen et al. (2000) studied the temperature dependence of the Cr^{3+} luminescence. Setting up the dynamic rate equations for the $Cr^{3+}-Tm^{3+}$ system, the number N_D of Cr^{3+} donor ions in the thermally coupled ${}^{4}T_{2}-{}^{2}E$ excited states can be calculated according to

$$N_{\rm D}(t) = N_{\rm D}(0)e^{-W_{\rm D}t}e^{-P_{\rm DA}(t)}$$

with $P_{\rm DA}(t) = \sum_{s} N_{s} \ln(1 - C_{\rm A} + C_{\rm A}e^{-W_{\rm DA}(R_{s})t}).$ (23)

Here $N_D(0)$ is the number of donors excited at t = 0, W_D is the intracenter decay rate of the coupled ${}^4T_2 - {}^2E$ states of Cr³⁺, C_A is equivalent to the acceptor doping concentration, N_s is

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the number of equivalent acceptor sites in the coordination shell *s* at a distance R_s from the donor, and $W_{DA}(R_s)$ is the donor–acceptor transfer rate which is assumed to be the same for all acceptor ions in the same shell *s*. In their analysis, Shen et al. (2000) took into account the first eight acceptor coordination shells of the Cr³⁺ ion and a dipole–dipole energy transfer mechanism. For an accurate description of the decay curves of the Cr³⁺ luminescence, it was shown that all three transfer pathways described above had to be taken into account. In particular, three temperature regions could be distinguished by the relative weight of the pathways: at temperatures below ~ 75 K neither the ⁴T₂ state nor the ²E anti-Stokes phonon sidebands contributed significantly to the decay, resulting in a constant W_{DA} transfer rate due to ²E Stokes ET. With increasing temperature the increasing ²E anti-Stokes phonon sidebands lead to an enhanced transfer rate. With further increasing temperature above ~ 175 K the thermal population of the ⁴T₂ state becomes appreciable, resulting in a even stronger increase of the energy transfer rate.

The temperature dependence of the energy transfer rate W_{DA} is related to a changing occupation of the ²E anti-Stokes phonon sidebands and the ⁴T₂ state. On the contrary, pressure significantly increases the energy separation Δ between the ⁴T₂ and ²E states, whereas the energy of the zero phonon and the vibronic ²E \rightarrow ⁴A₂ transitions of Cr³⁺ change only weakly with pressure. Thus, pressure almost solely influences the occupation of the ⁴T₂ state and with it its contribution to the energy transfer rate, but does not affect the other contributions connected with the ²E state.

According to these considerations, Shen et al. (2000) took advantage of this situation by artificially eliminating the energy transfer due to the ${}^{4}T_{2}$ state by the application of high pressure. They first studied the decay curves of the Cr^{3+} luminescence under pressure at room-temperature and analyzed them with eq. (23). Assuming again a dipole–dipole transfer mechanism and taking into account the first eight acceptor coordination shells, they obtained the $Cr^{3+} \rightarrow Tm^{3+}$ transfer rate W_{DA} as a function of pressure, as shown in fig. 19.



Fig. 19. Room temperature $Cr^{3+} \rightarrow Tm^{3+}$ transfer rate W_{DA} in Cr^{3+} (0.7 at.%): Tm^{3+} (2 at.%):YAG as a function of pressure (from Shen et al. (2000)). W_{DA} was obtained from fits to the experimental decay curves at different pressures assuming dipole–dipole energy transfer. The solid line has been calculated as described in the text. (10 kbar = 1 GPa).

The pressure dependence of W_{DA} can be divided into different regions. From ambient pressure to around 4 GPa a very fast decrease of the transfer rate can be noted. This range corresponds to the decreasing occupation of the ${}^{4}T_{2}$ state with increasing energy separation Δ under pressure. Above approximately 6 GPa a leveling off can be observed, indicating that now only the temperature and pressure independent part of the ${}^{2}E$ Stokes ET contribute to the transfer rate. The solid curve in fig. 19 represents a calculation of the transfer rate taking into account the three pathways for energy transfer and the pressure-induced increase of the energy separation Δ (Wamsley and Bray, 1994b). Obviously a very good agreement with the data was obtained.

The importance of the three different pathways for energy transfer can now be isolated by considering three cases:

- (1) The limiting transfer rate at ambient pressure and low temperatures $W_{DA} \sim 10 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ can be regarded as a measure for ²E Stokes ET.
- (2) The limiting high-pressure transfer rate at room temperature $W_{DA} \sim 95 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ contains ²E Stokes ET as well as ²E anti-Stokes ET. Because both contributions do not change with pressure, they can be directly related to ambient pressure room temperature conditions.
- (3) The ambient pressure, room temperature rate of $W_{DA} \sim 400 \text{ ms}^{-1}$ represents a sum of all three contributions. Subtracting the value obtained in case two directly indicates the importance of the ${}^{4}\text{T}_{2}$ ET part.

Finally, in a last step Shen et al. (2000) also analyzed the spectra and decay curves of the Tm^{3+} ions. On the basis of the luminescence spectra they noted that Tm^{3+} ions located in the first coordination shell of the Cr^{3+} ions (C-type) showed a distinctly different spectral pattern compared to the almost similar patterns of more distant Tm^{3+} ions (N'-type). Studying the decay curves of both types of Tm^{3+} ions at different temperatures, they could show that the energy transfer from the Cr^{3+} ions to the C-type ions is much faster than to the N'-type ions. However, at room temperature the energy transfer to the N'-type ions dominate, which is due to an overall strongly increased energy transfer (participation of the 4T_2 state) and a saturation of the transfer to C-type ions. This case is described by the Inokuti–Hirayama model for energy transfer, where a random distribution of acceptor sites is assumed (Inokuti and Hirayama, 1965). At higher pressures, where the energy transfer due to the 4T_2 state is eliminated again, the overall transfer rate decreases and thus the energy transfer to the C-type ions gains importance. Similar to the low-temperature case, the Inokuti–Hirayama model then starts to breakdown because the inherent assumptions of the model are no longer fulfilled.

5.3.4. Energy transfer processes in semiconductors

In the case of semiconductors doped with f elements a different kind of an energy transfer process can be observed, namely from extended band states or excitonic states to the highly localized f-element states. Such a process is different from the cases discussed in the preceding sections, where the energy transfer from point defects (or at the most molecular states) was considered. The interest in semiconductors doped with f elements is obvious, because of their potential to combine sharp f-element luminescence with the possibility of simple electrical excitation via the semiconductor host. However, a quenching of the luminescence with



Fig. 20. Energy back-transfer model describing the energy transfer between the semiconductor host and the lanthanide ion R^{3+} (Culp et al., 1997; Takarabe et al., 1995).

increasing temperature and the very low efficiencies found for f elements in semiconductors already at room temperature, prevented them from the use as opto-electronic devices.

To address the problem of low efficiencies, one needs a better understanding of the nature of f-element centers in the semiconductor lattice, their energy level structure in relationship to the host band structure and the relevant excitation mechanisms. In this respect, high pressure offers the unique possibility to study energy transfer processes while continuously shifting the host band edges with respect to the f-element energy levels. Despite this advantage, only few systems have been studied under pressure so far. These include some systems doped with the Er^{3+} ion, where the technological interest is due to the emission in the infrared region at 1.54 µm, a wavelength which matches the minimum loss of silica fibers. Another system is InP:Yb³⁺ which has the advantage that the Yb³⁺ ions form only one kind of luminescence centers in the InP host and in addition, with only one f-electron missing in the 4f shell, Yb³⁺ possesses the simplest electronic structure of all f elements.

The excitation mechanism of the f elements in semiconductors can be illustrated by fig. 20. Through carrier injection or a host photoexcitation process electrons and holes are created. The f element, acting as an electron or hole trap catches a carrier and becomes negatively or positively charged. The Coulombic potential of the charged center subsequently attracts a further carrier of opposite charge, leading to an exciton bound at the f-element center. Finally, the exciton transfers its energy to the 4f-shell by a nonradiative recombination.

Taking into account an energy back-transfer mechanism as indicated in fig. 20 it was also possible to explain the observed temperature quenching of the f-f luminescence in InP:Yb³⁺ as well as in GaAs: Er^{3+} . During the energy back-transfer process at higher temperatures, the energy of the excited rare-earth ion is used to once again create an e-h pair by phonon-assisted nonradiative recombination (a variety of the Auger effect) at the rare-earth ion (Taguchi et al., 1994). This e-h pair can then recombine or completely dissociate and thus quench the f-f luminescence.

A first test of this model was performed with pressure experiments on InP:Yb³⁺. Here the Yb³⁺ ion introduces an electron trap to the semiconductor host. The pressure-induced shift of the ${}^{2}F_{5/2} \rightarrow {}^{2}F_{7/2}$ intra 4f shell transitions amounts to 0.96 meV/GPa up to 4 GPa (Stapor et al., 1991), while the bandgap energy of InP increases by 85 meV/GPa (Trommer et al., 1980).



Fig. 21. Change of the Yb^{3+} trap level under pressure. The Yb^{3+} ground state is arbitrarily aligned with the valence band (Culp et al., 1997; Takarabe et al., 1995).

This behavior is schematically shown in fig. 21, where the change in the ${}^{2}F_{5/2}-{}^{2}F_{7/2}$ splitting, being about two orders of magnitude smaller than the bandgap rise, has been neglected.

Two energies in fig. 21 are important quantities for the luminescence behavior. First, the energy $E_{\rm T}$ represents the binding energy of the rare earth bound exciton with respect to the conduction band and second, $E_{\rm BT}$, the necessary energy for back-transfer, corresponds to the difference between the bound exciton recombination energy and the ${}^{2}F_{5/2} \rightarrow {}^{2}F_{7/2}$ transition energy of the ${\rm Er}^{3+}$ ion. Assuming a thermal equilibrium between the bound e-h pairs and the excited Yb³⁺ ions, the intensity ratio of the band-edge related emission $I_{\rm InP}$ due to the bound e-h pairs and the Yb³⁺ luminescence $I_{\rm Yb}$ depends on the energy $E_{\rm BT}$ (Takarabe, 1996).

Measuring the variations of the intensity ratio I_{InP}/I_{Yb} under pressure, Takarabe (1996) was able to determine the energy difference E_{BT} and found a pressure-induced shift of 70 meV/GPa which is close to the shift of the band-edge related luminescence due to the bound e-h pairs. Furthermore, under pressure it was possible to completely recover the thermally quenched luminescence of the Yb³⁺ ion at temperatures of 220 K and 260 K (Takarabe et al., 1994) as well as at room temperature (Takarabe, 1996). The minimum pressure at which the luminescence could be observed again was shown to increase with increasing temperature. All these facts fitted well to the proposed back-transfer model, which was thus strongly supported by the pressure experiments.

The same model has been applied also to GaAs: Er^{3+} (Takarabe et al., 1995, 1997; Hogg et al., 1997b; Culp et al., 1997) under pressure. In addition to the intensity measurements, Culp et al. (1997) also studied the lifetime of the ${}^{4}I_{13/2} \rightarrow {}^{4}I_{15/2}$ transition of Er^{3+} in GaAs. At ambient pressure, a temperature study revealed that the lifetime at first did slightly increase with increasing temperature, although the intensity was already decreasing. Only above 150 K did the lifetime start to decrease. This result is still consistent with the back-transfer model if additionally the dissociation of the bound exciton is taken into account. This process requires a second different activation energy which is needed to remove the Coulombic bound hole from the negatively charged trap. The dissociation can occur already at lower temperatures, preventing the energy transfer from the exciton to the f element. Accordingly, only the intensity, but not the lifetime changes. At higher temperatures the back-transfer process is added to the dissociation which then decreases both intensity and lifetime. To account for both processes under pressure, Culp et al. (1997) considered a two-process quenching model

of the form:

$$X = \frac{X_0}{1 + A_1 \exp(-\frac{E_1}{kT}) + A_2 \exp(-\frac{E_2}{kT})},$$
(24)

where E_1 and E_2 denote the activation energies and X is either the intensity or the lifetime of the Er^{3+} luminescence. As the result they obtained $E_1 = 13.4 \pm 0.3$ meV, which was assigned to the exciton dissociation process and $E_2 = 115.8 \pm 3.4$ meV, which was assigned to the back-transfer process. Under a pressure of 4.2 GPa, the quenching of the luminescence was reduced by nearly an order of magnitude at room temperature, an observation which is identical to the case of InP:Yb³⁺ (Takarabe, 1996). A further fit of the activation energies at 4.2 GPa gave an almost constant value for $E_1 = 10.4 \pm 3.0$ meV, a result which fits to the assumption of this activation energy being due to the Coulombic electron-hole binding energy. The change of the second activation energy was estimated to lie between +6 and +50 meV/GPa. This value is very uncertain due to the already weak effects of the backtransfer process. However, it is comparable to the experimental shift found for the Er^{3+} related trap in GaAs:Er,O of 36 meV/GPa (Takarabe et al., 1995) and to theoretical calculations, giving values of 24 meV/GPa (Chadi and Chang, 1988) and 10–40 meV/GPa (Ren et al., 1982).

The luminescence intensity of the Er^{3+} ion under pressure has also been studied in Si. This semiconductor possesses an indirect bandgap, contrary to the cases discussed above. At ambient pressure, the 4f-4f luminescence of the Er^{3+} ion in Si is quenched at temperatures exceeding 100 K, but contrary to the case of direct bandgaps, indirect bandgaps decrease with increasing pressure. Therefore, provided the energy back-transfer model can be applied here, the observed quenching temperature for the Er^{3+} ion should decrease under pressure. In high-pressure experiments, Przybylinska et al. (1996) and Jantsch et al. (1996) observed exactly the opposite, namely an increase of the quenching temperature with pressure. However, this behavior was not attributed to a breakdown of the back-transfer model but to the existence of deep oxygen related levels which mediated the energy transfer process.

As in the case of Si, GaP is also a semiconductor with an indirect bandgap. Culp et al. (1996) have studied the Er^{3+} ion doped into GaP under pressures up to 5 GPa. Contrary to the cases discussed above, the Er^{3+} luminescence does not show a pronounced quenching with increasing temperature. In addition, the Er^{3+} emission intensity is considerably stronger when exciting with below-bandgap energies, which promotes carriers directly to the Er^{3+} related trap, than with above-bandgap energies, where the free carriers which are created subsequently have to be captured by the Er^{3+} trap. Under pressure, the above-bandgap excitation became as effective as the below-bandgap excitation. This behavior was explained by the fact that competitive capture of free carriers by deep levels, responsible for the lower efficiency for above-bandgap excitation at ambient pressure, is significantly reduced with increasing pressure.

6. Electron-phonon interaction

In general, due to the localized and screened nature of the 4f-electrons, their interaction with phonons is weak. However, this interaction affects the 4f states in many different ways and

can give important contributions in specific cases. In principle, the interaction influences the energy levels as well as the transition probabilities between different states. A quite common feature is the thermal line broadening, however, the energy levels can also be shifted or split by the electron–phonon interaction. Furthermore, transitions between 4f states involving the creation or annihilation of phonons (phonon sidebands) can be observed. A pronounced effect on the intensities can be noted also for specific transitions where the luminescence can be quenched completely via nonradiative transitions through multiphonon relaxation or a quenching process involving charge transfer states or $4f^{N-1}5d^1$ configurations (see sects. 5.3.1 and 5.3.2). On the other hand, phonons in crystals with a rare-earth site symmetry including an inversion center, can be the only source to mix configurations with an odd parity to the 4f-states and thus allow for the zero-phonon transitions.

In sects. 5.3.1 and 5.3.2 the electron–phonon coupling was necessary to mediate an energy transfer process but no attempt was made to discuss the coupling strength between an electronic level and a lattice vibration itself. In fact, this coupling strength has been the subject of very few high pressure studies and thus will be considered only briefly in this section. One of the first studies was performed by Voloshin (1986), who reported on the intensity changes of vibronic lines for Pr^{3+} in lanthanum ethylsulfate under pressures up to 2.5 GPa. Furthermore, a qualitative experiment has been presented by Shen and Holzapfel (1993), who studied the phonon sidebands of the transitions ${}^5D_0 \rightarrow {}^7F_{1,2}$ and ${}^5D_1 \rightarrow {}^7F_1$ of the Sm²⁺ ion in BaFCl under pressures up to 8 GPa at 20 K. The bandshape of the sidebands was similar for all transitions, however, they noted a strong enhancement of the phonon sidebands under pressure solely for the ${}^5D_1 \rightarrow {}^7F_1$ transition. This enhancement reflected an increasing electron–phonon coupling under pressure.

Changing electron–phonon couplings have been observed also for Cs₂NaTmCl₆. In this case the relative intensities of different Raman lines showed an anomalous behavior under pressure, which has been qualitatively interpreted as due to an electron–phonon coupling of the a Γ_5 electronic state with the $\Gamma_1 + \nu_5(t_{2g})$ vibronic state (Mak et al., 2002).

Likewise qualitative studies have been performed for two different glasses. Lochhead and Bray (1995) used high pressure to characterize the local structure of Eu³⁺ ions in sodium disilicate glass. Their luminescence and lifetime studies revealed two different pressure regimes with different behavior of intensities and lifetimes. In the high-pressure regime from 4 GPa to the maximum pressure of 21 GPa achieved in their experiment, a decrease of the ${}^5D_0 \rightarrow {}^7F_0$ lifetime from approximately 2.5 ms down to 1.4 ms is accompanied by a decrease in the luminescence signal and an increase in the linewidth. These observations could be explained by an enhanced nonradiative decay under pressure, which in turn was related to an increased coupling to local vibrations because of shorter Eu–O bonds. Similar results were reported by Jayasankar et al. (2000) in a high pressure study on Sm³⁺ in lithium fluoroborate glass. They also attributed a decrease in the decay time of the ${}^4G(4)_{5/2} \rightarrow {}^6H_J$ transition from 1.3 ms at ambient pressure to 0.6 ms at 21 GPa to an increased coupling to local vibrations.

The electron–phonon interaction has been studied also in a LiTmF₄ crystal by Kupchikov et al. (1982). They have measured Raman and infrared reflection spectra under pressures up to 1.2 GPa and at temperatures ranging from 4.2 K to 300 K. The interaction of optical phonons with electronic excitations in this system of rare-earth ions was detected by anomalous tem-

Bare crystal-field (CF) and phonon (ph) energies and the CF-phonon coupling constant V at ambient pressure and
the corresponding pressure coefficients for the compounds NdBa2Cu3O7 and Pb2Sr2NdCu3O8 (Goncharov et al.,
1994). CE and SC refer to ceramic and single-crystal samples, respectively

Substance	VCF	$dv_{\rm CF}/dP$	$v_{\rm ph}$	$dv_{\rm ph}/dP$	V	dV/dP
	(cm^{-1})	(cm^{-1}/GPa)	(cm^{-1})	(cm^{-1}/GPa)	(cm^{-1})	(cm ⁻¹ /GPa)
Pb ₂ Sr ₂ NdCu ₃ O ₈ SC	319	3.47	293	2.67	25.5(4)	0.29(7)
NdBa ₂ Cu ¹⁸ O ₇ CE	295	3.0	293	3.0	25	_
NdBa ₂ Cu ¹⁶ O7 CE	300	2.68	308	2.37	26.7(3)	0.16(3)
NdBa2Cu3O7 SC	297	2.46	307	2.80	28.1(3)	0.26(4)

perature and pressure dependences of some lines in the lattice vibration spectra. Using a microscopic theory, Kupchikov et al. (1982) could determine binding parameters between rareearth ions and optical phonons and use these parameters to estimate shifts in lattice vibrational lines as a function of temperature and pressure.

A quantitative analysis of the electron–phonon coupling was performed by Goncharov et al. (1994) on the Nd-containing cuprates NdBa₂Cu₃O₇ and Pb₂Sr₂NdCu₃O₈. Here the effect of pressure on the coupling between a Nd³⁺ crystal-field excitation and a CuO₂-plane oxygen phonon (B_{1g}) near 300 cm⁻¹ was investigated up to 14 GPa. In both samples the interaction between an excited level of the ⁴I_{9/2} ground multiplet and the out-of-plane oxygen vibration leads to a doublet structure in the Raman spectra. While in the case of NdBa₂Cu₃O₇ the bare crystal-field excitation is lower in energy than the phonon frequency, the opposite is found for Pb₂Sr₂NdCu₃O₈.

The motivation of the high-pressure experiments arose from the fact that the application of pressure results in simultaneous changes of the crystal-field and phonon energies and their energy differences. From the frequencies and intensities of the coupled excitations under pressure, it is possible to derive the pressure dependence of the bare crystal-field energy level and the coupling constant using a two-level coupling model (Thalmeier and Fulde, 1982). The change of the coupling constant can subsequently be related to the corresponding changes of the interatomic distances. According to the two-level coupling model, the bare crystal-field excitation $\omega_{\rm CF}$ and phonon $\omega_{\rm ph}$ frequencies and the coupling constant V can be expressed as

$$\omega_{\rm CF} = \frac{\nu_1 k + \nu_2}{1+k}, \quad \omega_{\rm ph} = \frac{\nu_1 + \nu_2 k}{1+k} \quad \text{and} \quad V = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \sqrt{(\nu_1 - \nu_2)^2 - (\omega_{\rm ph} - \omega_{\rm CF})^2},$$
(25)

where v_1 and v_2 denote the line positions and k is their oscillator strength ratio. The results for the pressure-induced changes of the bare energies and the coupling constant are summarized in table 11. It is obvious that the crystal-field splittings as well as the electron-phonon coupling increase with increasing pressure for both samples, regardless of the relative ordering of the bare crystal-field level and the phonon energy.

7. Conclusions

The development of the diamond anvil cell opened an easy, fast, and reliable possibility to study optical spectra as a function of applied pressure. With this elegant method, the energy

level scheme, transition probabilities and intensities, energy transfer processes and many other properties of ions in crystals can be related to the structural parameters of the host lattice. Besides the structural relationship, an important feature concerns the ability of pressure to "tune" energies of various electronic states in a different manner. This allows to alter energy differences and to explicitly study their respective influence on the state under investigation.

While ambient pressure studies must rely on discrete changes of crucial parameters, the high pressure method is capable of generating continuous changes of interatomic distances or relative energies of different electronic states. Moreover, at the same time the chemical composition of the rare-earth compound is conserved under pressure, while ambient pressure studies usually have to consider different compounds. In this sense, the application of high pressure can solve physical problems which can not be accessed by any other method.

The main emphasis in this chapter was put on the optical investigations under high pressure. These studies reveal a considerable part of the energy level scheme and can be used also to study lifetimes and intensities. All these quantities are related to and influenced by the electronic states of the other constituents in the crystal. However, it should be noted that many other physical methods have been employed in connection with high-pressure devices.

Although the high-pressure method itself is rather simple to use, high-pressure physics is still a somewhat "exotic" tool for investigating rare-earth compounds. This seems rather surprising if the unique possibilities for example for the determination of intrinsic crystalfield parameters are considered. In many cases, theories explicitly predict certain distance dependences, which can be verified straightforward by the application of pressure, which continuously alters the interatomic distances.

The knowledge of fundamental relations between the properties of rare earths and the electronic and physical structure of the host compound is essential for the development of improved or new materials. However, up to now only a rather small amount of high-pressure studies compared to ambient pressure studies has been performed. It is hoped that this chapter has demonstrated the ability of high-pressure physics in exploring fundamental relationships especially for rare-earth ions and will stimulate further experimental and theoretical work in this area.

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