Rare-Earth-Containing Chalcohalides and Intermetallics

by

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Abstract

This thesis describes the synthesis, structures, and properties of two broad classes of inorganic solids, chalcohalides and intermetallics, with the common theme that they contain rareearth (RE) elements, which belong to the set of critical minerals essential for many technological applications.

Quaternary rare-earth chalcohalides RE-M-Ch-X (M = d- or p-block metal or metalloid, Ch = chalcogen, X = halogen) represent a growing family of mixed-anion compounds, which remain relatively scarce compared to conventional "single-anion" compounds such as oxides, but offer the possibility of greater control over physical properties. Several series of compounds $RE_3Tt_2Ch_8I$ (RE = La, Ce, Pr; Tt = Si, Ge; Ch = S, Se) were prepared by direct combination of the elements at high temperatures. By gradual substitution of different proportions of Tt or Chcomponents in solid solutions of these semiconducting compounds, the band gap can be tuned within a range of 1.9 to 3.6 eV. The Ce-containing members exhibit blue luminescence, making them suitable candidates for applications in phosphor-converted white light emitting diodes. The emission behaviour can be controlled by changing the crystal field environment of Ch vs. I anions around the luminescent Ce³⁺ centres within these compounds.

Ternary rare-earth intermetallics RE-M-X (M = d-block metal; X = p-block metal or metalloid) have long been a rich source of quantum materials with exotic electrical and magnetic properties. Nevertheless, many aspects of their chemistry, including synthesis, phase stability, crystal structures, and chemical bonding remain poorly systematized and understood. Because reliable physical measurements depend on the availability of large single crystals or pure phase samples, efforts were made to apply flux methods for crystal growth of these compounds. In

particular, ternary gallides RE-M-Ga (RE = La, Ce, Yb) were prepared in a gallium self-flux, and they were examined against a previously proposed stability diagram which predicts formation of ternary intermetallic phases. The new compound YbCu₃Ga₈ was discovered in this process, and the structure of YbNi₃Ga₉ was redetermined to resolve ambiguities in the literature. As examples of polar intermetallics, these compounds were confirmed by electronic structure calculations to exhibit multicenter covalent bonding within the anionic Ga networks. Similarly, crystal growth of ternary germanides RE-M-Ge (RE = Ce, Eu, Yb) was attempted in an indium flux to test a classification model. Crystals of $RECo_2Ge_2$ and CeIr₂Ge₂ were obtained, the latter exhibiting polymorphism with structures in two different space groups. The Yb-containing compounds Yb₅Ir₄Ge₁₀ and Yb₄Ir₇Ge₆ were also identified from the Yb-Ir-In-Ge reaction.

Preface

This thesis summarizes the research work performed in the laboratory of Prof. Arthur Mar in the Department of Chemistry at the University of Alberta from September 2017 to April 2023. My contributions and those of others are summarized below.

Chapter 2 was published as Mumbaraddi, D.; Iyer, A. K.; Üzer, E.; Mishra, V.; Oliynyk, A. O.; Nilges, T.; Mar, A. Synthesis, structure, and properties of rare-earth germanium sulfide iodides *RE*₃Ge₂S₈I (*RE* = La, Ce, Pr). *J. Solid State Chem.* **2019**, *274*, 162–167. My contribution includes synthesis, data collection, analysis, characterization, and writing of the initial draft. Dr. A. K. Iyer and Dr. E. Üzer assisted with synthesis, Dr. V. Mishra assisted with DFT calculations, Dr. A. O. Oliynyk assisted with magnetic measurement, Dr. T Nilges assisted with manuscript corrections, Dr. A. Mar revised and submitted the manuscript.

Chapter 3 is under preparation as a manuscript for publication, as Mumbaraddi, D.; Mishra, V.; Jomaa, M.; Liu, X.; Karmakar, A.; Thirupurasanthiran, S.; Meldrum, A, Grosvenor, A. P, Michaelis, V. K, Mar, A. Controlling the Luminescence of Rare-Earth Chalcogenide Iodides $RE_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ (RE = La, Ce, Pr) and Ce₃Si₂(S_{1-y}Se_y)₈I. My contribution includes synthesis, data collection, analysis, characterization, and writing of the initial draft. Dr. V. Mishra assisted with DFT calculations, Dr. M. Jomaa and S. Thirupurasanthiran assisted with synthesis and characterization. Dr. A. Karmakar assisted with initial PL measurements and Dr. V. K. Michaelis helped with manuscript corrections, X. Liu, and Dr. A. Meldrum assisted with photoluminescence measurements and analysis; Dr. A. P. Grosvenor performed the XPS measurements. Dr. A. Mar will revise and submit the manuscript.

Chapter 4 was published as Mumbaraddi, D.; Mishra, V.; Lidin, S.; Mar, A. Minority report: Structure and bonding of YbNi₃Ga₉ and YbCu₃Ga₈ obtained in gallium flux. *J. Solid State Chem.* **2022**, *311*, 123157. My contribution includes synthesis, data collection, analysis, characterization, and writing of the initial draft. Dr. V. Mishra assisted with DFT calculations. Dr. S. Lidin assisted with the structure determination. Dr. A. Mar revised and submitted the manuscript.

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List of symbols and abbreviations

θ	angle of reflection
μ	absorption coefficient
Ζ	atomic number
Ae	alkali metal or alkaline-earth metals
E_g	bandgap
V	cell volume
Ch	chalcogenide
T_c	critical temperature
COHP	crystal orbital Hamilton population
M	<i>d</i> -block elements
ρ	density
DFT	density functional theory
DOS	density of states
d_{hkl}	<i>d</i> -spacing
e	electron
EDX	energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy
E_f	Fermi level
FWHM	full width half maxima
S	goodness-of-fit
LASER	light amplification by stimulated emission of radiation
LED	light emitting diodes
LMTO	linear muffin-tin orbital
LDA	local density approximation
hkl	Miller indices
T_N	Néel temperature
1D, 2D, 3D	one-, two-, three-dimensional
l	orbital angular momentum
PPMS	physical property measurement system

rare earth
scanning electron microscope
structure factor
temperature
tetrel (Group 14 element)
thermogravimetric analysis
tight-binding
total angular momentum
triel (Group 13 element)
ultraviolet
unit cell parameters
wavelength
wavevector
X-ray diffraction

Chapter 1.

Introduction

1.1. Rare earth compounds

Rare earth metals comprise the lanthanides (La–Lu) as well as Sc and Y. Compounds containing these elements exhibit varied electronic, magnetic, and optical properties exploited in many applications for consumers, industry, and national security. The strongest permanent magnets are Nd₂Fe₁₄B, SmCo₅, and Sm₂Co₁₇, which are found in generators, electric motors, microphones, loudspeakers, and hard drives.¹ Solid state lasers in which rare-earth elements are doped in yttrium aluminum garnet, such as Nd:Y₃Al₅O₁₂, are used for industrial cutting and welding, medical treatment, and military surveillance.² Phosphors doped with rare earth elements such as europium and cerium are used in light-emitting diodes and medical imaging.^{3,4} Yellow Ca_{1-x}Eu_xZrO₃ and the new vibrant blue compound YMn_{1-x}In_xO₃ used as inorganic pigments.^{5,6}

Given these widespread applications and their increasing demand, rare earth elements have garnered geopolitical importance. In recent years, there have been serious concerns about most of the world's rare-earth mineral resources being controlled by China, so that Western governments wishing to develop their own resources must develop their own domestic markets for such extraction to be economically viable. Many rare-earth compounds remain to be discovered, which may open the door to new applications.

1.2. Mixed anion compounds

Many inorganic solids, such as oxides and halides, consist of a single type of anion. The structures and properties of these compounds are then frequently modified by introducing mixed

cations. A similar idea could be proposed that mixed anions confer additional flexibility to design new materials.⁷ In practice, this is harder to achieve because the properties of non-metallic elements, such as ionic radii, electronegativity, and polarizability, vary more drastically than they do for metallic elements. Although mixed-anion compounds have not been as well studied as single anion compounds, there is no fundamental reason that limits their formation or existence. After all, they can be commonly found as minerals such as dadsonite ($Pb_{23}Sb_{25}S_{60}Cl$), mutnovskite (Pb₂AsS₃(I, Cl, Br)), and pillaite Pb₉Sb₁₀S₂₃ClO_{0.5}.⁸ In recent years, a growing number of mixedanion compounds have now been discovered, including oxypnictides, oxynitrides, oxychalcogenides, oxyhalides, oxyhluorides, oxyhydrides, and chalcohalides (Figure 1-1). (A comment about nomenclature: Some researchers have advocated alternative terminology, such as pnictide oxides in lieu of oxypnictides, to emphasize that two distinct anionic species are present, to avoid confusion with compounds that contain polyatomic anions built from these elements, such as phosphate oxyanions, PO_4^{3-}). Some classes of mixed-anion compounds have experienced bouts of popularity, such as iron-based oxypnictide superconductors LaFeAsO and transparent p-type oxychalcogenide semiconductors LaCuSO, but others remain relatively neglected.^{9,10}

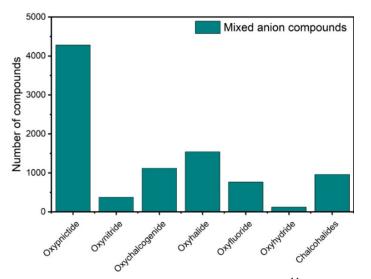


Figure 1-1. Unique entries of reported mixed anion compounds.¹¹

1.1 Chalcohalides

The term chalcogenides generally refers to compounds of the heavier group-16 elements, because their lower electronegativities (Pauling values of 2.5 for S, 2.4 for Se, and 2.1 for Te) lead to greater covalent bonding character, making them distinct from oxides (Pauling electronegativity of 3.5 for O). Many metal chalcogenides are semiconductors, with smaller band gaps than found in oxides. If anions of the highly electronegative halogens (X = F, Cl, Br, I) are introduced, there is the possibility of forming compounds containing both *Ch* and *X* anions, called chalcohalides, whose structures may be built from networks different from those found in parent chalcogenides or halides. A frequently proposed hypothesis is that band gaps of chalcohalides will be intermediate between those of chalcogenides and halides, because the bonding character will also be intermediate between covalent and ionic, but this expectation may be too simplistic without knowing details of the actual structures.¹²

Compared to other classes of mixed-anion compounds, chalcohalides remain far underrepresented. Ternary chalcohalides number around 560, and structure determinations have been performed for about 400 of them.¹¹ Very few quaternary chalcogenides have been reported. Some chalcohalides have been identified for potential applications, including Tl₆SeI₄ for hard radiation detection,¹² Li₆PS₅I for lithium ion batteries,¹³ Sn₂SbS₂I₃ for solar cells,¹⁴ BiTeI for low thermal conductivity materials,¹⁵ Ba₄Ge₃S₉Cl₂ for nonlinear optical materials,¹⁶ and BiTeBr for thermoelectric materials.¹⁵ Because quaternary chalcohalides offer substantial flexibility in accommodating not only mixed anions, but also mixed cations, they may be attractive candidates to enable further tuning of materials properties. A survey of previously reported quaternary chalcohalides is worthwhile (**Table 1-1**).

Multiple entries	Three entries		
$AeMChF$ ($Ae = Sr, Ba; M = Cu, Ag; Ch = S, Se, Te$), $BaMn_{0.5}TeF$,	$Ag_6SnS_4Br_2$, $Ag_6GeS_4X_2$ (X = Cl, Br)		
	$Hg_3AsS_4Cl, Hg_3AsSe_4X (X = Br, I)$		
MnSbSe ₂ I, MnSbS ₂ Br, CdBiS ₂ Br, MnBiS ₂ Br, CdBiSe ₂ I, MnBiSe ₂ I,	Li_6PS_5Cl , Li_6AsCh_5I ($Ch = S$, Se)		
CdSbS ₂ Br	Ba4Ge3S9Cl2, Ba4Ge3Se9Cl2,		
	Ba ₄ Si ₃ Se ₉ Cl ₂		
Ag_7SiS_5I , Ag_7GeCh_5I ($Ch = S$, Se), $Ag_{6.69}GeSe_5I_{0.69}$	$Tl_5Re_6Se_8Cl_7$, $Cs_5Re_6S_8Br_7$ ($X = Cl, Br$)		
Ba_3GaS_4Cl , Ba_3AlCh_4X ($Ch = S$, Se ; $X = Br$, Te), Ba_3FeS_4Br ,	CuHgSCl, CuHgSBr, CuHgSeCl		
Ba ₃ GaS ₄ Br, Ba ₃ GaSe ₄ Cl	$TIIn_4Se_5Br$, $TIIn_4Ch_5Cl$ ($Ch = S$, Se)		
	CuHgSeBr, $AgHgSX$ (X = Br, I)		
AlBiSCl ₄ , AlBiTe X_4 , ($X = Cl$, Br), AlBiSeCl ₄	Two entries		
Ba_2AsCh_3X ($Ch = S$, Se ; $X = Cl$, Br , I), Pb_2AsS_3I , Ba_2SbS_3I	CuBiSCl ₂ , AgBiSCl ₂		
	AgBi ₂ S ₃ Cl, AgBi ₂ Se ₃ Cl		
$Cu_6PS_5Br, Cu_6AsS_5I, Cu_6PS_5I, Cu_7GeS_5I, Cu_6PSe_5I, Cu_7SiS_5I, Li_6PS_5I, Cu_7SiS_5I, Li_6PS_5I, Cu_7SiS_5I, Cu_7SiS$	$Cs_2Re_6Se_8Br_4$, $Cs_2Re_6S_8Br_4$		
	Ag ₁₅ P ₄ S ₁₆ Cl ₃ , Li ₁₅ P ₄ S ₁₆ Cl ₃		
Li ₆ SbS ₅ I	$Ba_3InCh_4Cl (Ch = S, Se)$		
Ba ₂ Sn <i>Ch</i> ₃ F ₂ (<i>Ch</i> = S, Se), Sr ₂ Sn <i>Ch</i> ₃ F ₂ (<i>Ch</i> = S, Se) 62	$Ba_2Fe_{1.98}S_3F_2$, $Ba_2Fe_{1.78}Se_3F_2$		
	Cu ₃ Bi ₂ S ₄ Cl, Cu ₃ Bi ₂ S ₄ Br		
MnSbS ₂ Cl, CdBiSe ₂ Br, MnBiSe ₂ Br, CdBiS ₂ Cl, MnBiS ₂ Cl,	InBi ₂ S ₄ Cl, InBi ₂ S ₄ Br		
MnSbSe ₂ Br, CdSbS ₂ Cl	GaBi ₂ Te ₂ Cl ₅ , GaBi ₂ Se ₂ Cl ₅		
	SrBiS ₂ F, SrSbSe ₂ F		
$CdSb_2Se_3Br_2$, InBi ₂ Se ₄ Br, InSb ₂ Ch ₄ Br (Ch = S, Se), InSb ₂ S ₄ Cl	$Tl_3Nb_6SBr_{17}$, $Cs_3Nb_6SBr_{17}$		
$Hg_3ZrS_2Cl_6, Hg_3ZrCh_2Br_6 (Ch = S, Se), Hg_3HfCh_2Cl_6 (Ch = S, Se),$	$CsRe_6Se_8I_3$, $CsRe_6S_8Br_3$		
Hg ₃ ZrSe ₂ Cl ₆ , Hg ₃ UTe ₂ Cl ₆	$CsRe_3S_4Br_2$, $CsRe_3Se_4Br_2$		
	TlHg ₆ S ₄ Br ₅ , TlHg ₆ Se ₄ Br ₅		
$Hg_2Mg_2SF_6, Hg_2Mn_2SF_6, Hg_2Co_2SF_6, Hg_2Ni_2SF_6, Hg_2Cu_2SF_6, $	$K_3Nb_6SBr_{17}, Rb_3Nb_6SBr_{17}$		
$Hg_2Zn_2SF_6$	$Hg_3TS_2Cl_4$, ($T = Fe$, Co)		
Sn ₂ SbS ₂ I ₃ , Sn ₂ SbSe ₂ I ₃ , Sn ₂ BiS ₂ I ₃ , Pb ₂ SbS ₂ I ₃ , Pb ₂ BiS ₂ I ₃	$Cs_3Mo_6Se_{1.2}I_{12.8}, Cs_3Mo_6Se_{1.5}I_{12.5}$		
One entry			

Table 1-1. Previously reported quaternary chalcohalides (parent structure types are in blue).¹¹

AgBi₂S₂Cl₃, Ag₇SiS₅Br, Ba₇In₂Se₆F₈, Cu₆AsS₅Br, Cu₆PS₅I, β-AgHgSI, Ag₅PS₄Cl₂, AlP₃Se₄Cl₄, AlSb₂Te₂I₅, Cu₂Ga₂Se₇Cl₈, Ba₂Sb₂Se₄F₂, Sr₂Sb₂Se₄F₂, Ag₃Ge₂S₅Br, Ag₂Bi₂S₃Cl₂, Ag₁₂Bi_{17.6}S₂₃Cl₈, Ag_{4.1}Mo₉Se₁₁Cl, Ag₂HgSI₂, α-AgHgSI, Ag₅SbS₃I₂, Al₂Sb₅Se₆Br₉, Li₆PS₅I, Hg₅AsS₂I₃, Li₆AsS₅I, Ba₄Sb₃S₈Cl, Ba₄Fe₃S₆F₄, Ba₂Fe_{1.72}S₃F₂, Ba₂Fe_{1.96}S₃F₂, Ba₂Fe_{1.5}Se₃F₂, Ba₄Fe₃Se₆F₄, Ba₁₈In₈S₂₁F₁₈, Ba₉In₄S₁₀F₁₀, Ba₃MnSe₃F₂, BaSbSe₂F, Ba₄Fe₂S₄I₅, Ba3GaS4I, Cu1.49Bi2.64S3.42Br2.58, Cu1.57Bi4.69Se7.64I0.36, Cu1.5Bi2.64S3.42Br2.58, Cu1.57Bi2.37Se2.68Br3.32, Cu3Bi2S3Br2, Cu₃BiS₂Br₂, Cu7Bi6S10Cl5, Cu_{7.4}Bi₆Se₁₂Cl₇, Cu₉Bi₉S₁₆Cl₈, Cu₂₂Bi₁₂S₂₁Cl₁₆, Cu_{3.32}Bi₂S_{3.33}I_{2.67}, $Cu_{3.58}Bi_{4.42}Se_{6.84}Cl_{3.16}, \quad Ga_5Bi_3S_5Cl_{14}(S_8)_{0.5}, \quad Hg_3Bi_2S_2Cl_8, \quad Hg_3Bi_2Te_2Cl_8, \quad Cu_3Bi_6S_{10}I, \quad CuBi_2Se_3I, \quad Cu_3Bi_2S_3I_3, \quad CuBi_2Se_3I_3, \quad CuBi_2SE_3$ In2Bi3Se7I, In2BiSe4I, Ni8Bi8SI2, CdHgSBr, Na5Co2S4Br, CsNb3SBr7, CsRe3S3Br4, Cs4Re6S8Br6, Cs4Re6Se8I6, Cs5Tc6S8Br7, CsTc3Se4Br2, Cu3P4Se4Br3, Hg2SnS2Br2, CdSb6S8I4, Cs13Ga17.67Se32Cl2, Cs2.32Mo4.21S4Cl8.22, Cu₆PS₅Cl, Ga₂P₃Se₄Cl₇, GaSb₂Te₂Cl₄, GaSb₃Te₄Cl₄, Ga₇Sb₇Te₈Cl₂₆, Ga₈Sb₇Te₈Cl₂₉, Ga₂SbTe₄Cl₇, Hg₇InS₆Cl₅, $Hg_{3}ZnS_{2}Cl_{4}, \quad Pb_{3.45}Sb_{2.55}S_{6.55}Cl_{1.45}, \quad Pb_{10.38}Sb_{9.68}S_{23}Cl_{4}, \quad Pb_{12.65}Sb_{11.35}S_{28.35}Cl_{2.65}, \quad TlRe_{3}S_{4}Cl_{2}, \quad TlRe_{3}Se_{4}Cl_{2}, \quad TRe_{3}Se_{4}Cl_{2}, \quad TRe_{3}Se_{4}Cl_{2},$ TlRe₆Se₈Cl₃, Cs₃Re₃S₄I₄, Cs₂Re₃Se₄I₃, CuHgSI, Cu₅SbS₃I₂, Cu₅TeS₃I₃, Hg₃SiS₂F₆, Hg₂PbS₂I₂, Li₄PS₄I, Li₅SbS₃I₂, Pb2SbS2I3, Pb2SbS2I3, Ta4PtTe16I8, U4Ta7Se28I20, Sn2BiSI5,

The first quaternary chalcohalide, Hg₃SiS₂F₆, was synthesized in 1969; the derivatives Hg₃SiSe₂F₆ and Hg₃SiTe₂F₆ were also mentioned but no further characterization has appeared.¹⁷ Several chalcohalides containing mobile monovalent Li, Cu, or Ag ions have been of interest for their ionic conductivity. Li₅SbS₃I₂, Cu₅SbS₃I₂, and Ag₅SbS₃I₂ have closely related structures but the arrangement of Li atoms is different from those of Cu and Ag atoms, which appear to be mobile.^{18–20} Cu₂₂Bi₁₂S₂₁Cl₁₆ also shows high mobility of Cu ions.²¹ The argyrodites Li₆PS₅X (X = Cl, Br, I) are derived by replacing one of the sulfur atoms in the mineral Ag₃GeS₆ by a halogen atom and then reducing the number of Li atoms per formula unit for charge balance.¹³ Other well known ionic conductors are the related argyrodite-type compounds Ag₇Ge*Ch*₅I (*Ch* = S, Se),²² and AgHgS*X* (*X* = Br, I),²³ and the Li-containing compounds Li₄PS₄I²⁴ and Li₁₅P₄S₁₆Cl₃.²⁵

Characteristic motifs reminiscent of simpler structures emerge in some quaternary chalcohalides, depending on the size and electronegativities of the constituent anions. For example, MnSbS₂Cl and MnSbSe₂I adopt different structures despite having the same composition,^{26,27} whereas In₂BiSe₄I and In₂Bi₂Se₇I contain similar structural motifs (distorted rocksalt-type and CdI₂-type strands) despite having different compositions.²⁸ From simple electronic and geometric considerations, 2D building blocks can be envisioned which stack alternately to build new structures for BaFCl (containing fluorite-type blocks [Ba₂F₂]) and La₂O₂SnS₃ (containing [SnS₃] blocks), following analogous concepts of so-called "crystal engineering" in supramolecular chemistry and aided by electronic structure calculations. Combining this approach with the concept of phase homologies offers a way to "design" solid state compounds, as illustrated by the series Ae_2 SnCh₃F₂ (Ae =Sr, Ba; Ch =S, Se), built from fluorite [Ae_2F_2] and distorted rock salt [SnCh₃] blocks, and a new homologous series $Ae_2M_{1+n}Ch_{3+n}F_2$ (Ae =Sr, Ba; M = main group metal; n = integer).²⁹

Peculiar structural effects occur in some quaternary chalcohalides. Ag₁₅(PS₄)₄Cl₃ can be considered to be derived from Ag₃PS₄ (or Ag₁₅(PS₄)₅ if the formula unit is multiplied by five) with one of the PS₄^{3–} anions replaced by three Cl[–] ions. The structure contains not only AgS₄ and PS₄ tetrahedra, but also AgS₃Cl tetrahedra.³⁰ Cs₄Re₆S₈Br₆ and Cs₂Re₆S₈Br₄ compounds contain Re₆ clusters like those found in Chevrel phases.³¹ The magnetic properties of Ba₂Fe_{2–x}Ch₃F₂ (Ch = S, Se) were varied by controlling the level of Fe defects.³² Cs₁₃Ga_{17.67}Se₃₂Cl₂ consists of a very long stacking sequence of [Ga₅₃Se₉₆]^{33–} layers built from [Ga₂Se₆]^{6–} dimers.³³ Partial substitution of divalent S atoms by monovalent halogen atoms occurs in various known and hypothetical members of the homologous Ag–Bi–Ch–X series.³⁴ Ag_{1.2}Bi_{17.6}S₂₃Cl₈ is built by intergrowth of layers containing complex units.³⁵

Incorporating rare-earth metals into quaternary chalcohalides gives rise to diverse crystal structures and further opportunities to vary physical properties. Given the large atomic sizes and similar electronegativities, they can often be substituted for each other and are found in a wide variety of coordination geometries with high CN. The optical and magnetic properties of these compounds depend on the presence of unpaired electrons in highly localized f orbitals. Most rare-earth elements are trivalent, but a few can exhibit other oxidation states (e.g., Ce⁴⁺, Eu²⁺, Yb²⁺). Chalcohalides containing two or more metal cations are generally challenging to prepare because they may compete with thermodynamically more stable mixtures of binary and ternary phases.

An important principle governing the structures of mixed-anion compounds is that the more electropositive metal atoms will tend to form ionic bonds with the more electronegative nonmetal atoms, while less electropositive metal atoms will tend to form more covalent bonds with the less electronegative nonmetal atoms. Rare-earth-containing chalcohalides RE-M-Ch-X are still scarce, with about 50 compounds reported to date (**Table 1-2**), but they generally conform to

this principle. These structures encompass the usual range of 3D networks, 2D layers, 1D chains, and isolated molecular units.

Compounds	Structure type	Space group
EuAgSeF, EuCuChF ($Ch = S$, Se, Te)	CuZrSiAs	P4/nmm
EuAg _{0.949} TeF, SmCuSeF ^{36–38}	(or LaAgSO)	G
$Pr_3AsS_5Cl_2^{39}$	Pr ₃ AsS ₅ Cl ₂	Cc
${ m EuBiS_2F^{40}}$	CeBiS ₂ O	P4/nmm
$Eu_{3}Bi_{2}S_{4}F_{4}^{41-42}$	$Eu_3Bi_2S_4F_4$	I4/mmm
$RESbS_2Br_2 (RE = La, Ce)^{43}$	$CeSbS_2Br_2$	$P2_{1}/c$
RE_2 SbS ₅ Br (RE = La, Ce) ⁴⁴	Ce_2SbS_5Br	Pnma
$Ce_{17.67}Fe_4S_{30}X(X=Cl, Br, I)^{45}$	Ce17.67Fe4S30Cl	R3m
$La_{17.67}Fe_4S_{30}Br^{46}$	$La_{17.67}Fe_4S_{30}Br$	R3m
$La_{17.67}Fe_4S_{30}Cl^{46}$	La17.67Fe4S30Cl	R3m
$La_{17.67}Fe_4S_{30}I^{46}$	$La_{17.67}Fe_4S_{30}I$	R3m
RE_8 CrTe ₁₃ Cl (RE = Sm, Gd, Tb) ⁴⁷	Sm ₈ CrTe ₁₃ Cl	$Cmc2_1$
$Cs_6RE_{21}Ch_{34}Cl (RE = Ho, Dy; Ch = S, Se, Te)^{48}$	$Cs_6Dy_{21}S_{34}Cl\\$	C2/m
$RE_3SiS_6Cl \ (RE = Sm, Nd)^{49-50}$	Sm ₃ SiS ₆ Cl	Pnma
$RE_3Si_2S_8X$ (RE = La, Ce, Pr; X = Cl, Br, I),	La ₃ [SiO ₄] ₂ Cl	C2/c
$RE_3Si_2S_8X$ (RE = Nd, Sm; X = Br, I),		
$Tb_3Si_2S_8I$, $Gd_3Si_2S_8Br$,		
$RE_3Ge_2S_8I (RE = La, Ce, Pr)^{51-57}$		

 Table 1-2. Quaternary rare-earth-containing chalcohalides.

1.2 Structures of quaternary rare-earth-containing chalcohalides

1.2.1 CuZrSiAs- or LaAgSO-type

The compounds *REMCh*F (RE = Eu, Sm; M = Cu, Ag; Ch = S, Se, Te) crystallize in the well known tetragonal CuZrSiAs-type structure (also called LaAgSO-type) in space group P4/nmm, characterized by $[RE_2F_2]^{2+}$ and $[M_2Ch_2]^{2-}$ layers (**Figure 1-2**).^{36–38} These layers consist of edge-sharing tetrahedra, either F atoms surrounded by *RE* atoms, or *M* atoms surrounded by *Ch* atoms. The *RE* atoms are divalent, which is common for Eu but unusual for Sm. Thus it is no surprise that there exist related compounds in which these *RE* atoms are substituted by alkaline-

earth atoms: BaAg*Ch*F (*Ch* = S, Se, Te), SrAg*Ch*F (*Ch* = S, Se, Te), BaCu*Ch*F (*Ch* = S, Se, Te), BaMn_{0.5}TeF, and SrCu*Ch*F (*Ch* = S, Se, Te).^{58–61} These compounds are semiconductors with band gaps of 1.7 to 3.0 eV.

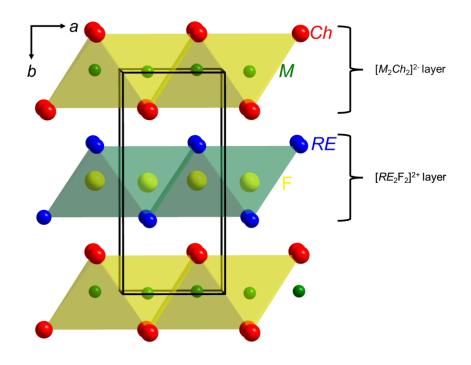


Figure 1-2. Structure of *REMCh*F (RE = Rare-earth; M = Cu, Ag; Ch = S, Se, Te).

1.2.2 CeBiS₂O type

Closely related to the LaAgSO-type discussed above, EuBiS₂F adopts the tetragonal CeBiS₂O-type structure in space group *P*4/*nmm*, with [Eu₂F₂] and [BiS₂] layers (**Figure 1-3a**).⁴⁰ The related compound Sr_{0.5}La_{0.5}BiS₂F undergoes a superconducting transition at 2.8 K, through tuning of the electron concentration within the conducting [BiS₂] layers. Eu₃Bi₂S₄F₄ is derived by doubling the thicknesses of the layers (**Figure 1-3b**), with evidence for mixed valence of the Eu atoms.^{41,42}

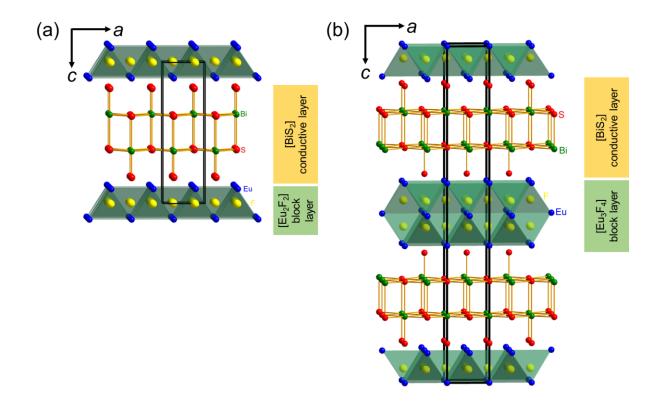


Figure 1-3. Structures of (a) EuBiS₂F and (b) Eu₃Bi₂S₄F₄.

1.2.3 Misfit layered compounds

Several rare-earth chalcohalides adopt misfit layered structures, which are built from independent layers whose periodicities do not align in registry. The compounds RE_8 CrTe₁₃Cl (RE = Sm, Gd, Tb) consist of double rock-salt-type layers [RE_6 Te₅Cl] alternating with CdI₂-type layers [RE_2 CrTe₆] in monoclinic space group $Cmc2_1$ (Figure 1-4). The RE atoms are surrounded by Te and Cl atoms, whereas the Cr atoms are surrounded by only Te atoms.⁴⁷

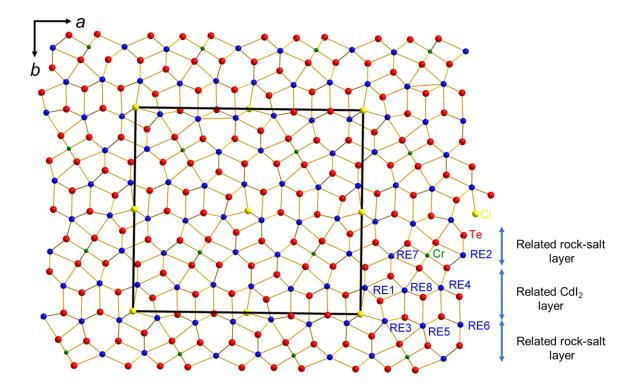


Figure 1-4. Structure of RE_8 CrTe₁₃Cl (RE = Sm, Gd, Tb).

1.2.4 Ce₂SbS₅Br-type

 RE_2 SbS₅Br (RE = La, Ce) crystallize in an orthorhombic structure in space group *Pnma* containing [RE_2 S₁₀Br₂] and [RE_2 S₈Br₂] layers, which are connected to form a 3D framework defining tunnels that run along the *a*-direction (**Figure 1-5**). The *RE* atoms are surrounded by S and Br atoms, whereas the Sb atoms are surrounded only by S atoms.⁴⁴ RESbS₂Br₂ (RE = La, Ce) are closely related but crystallize in a monoclinic structure in space group $P2_1/c$ containing [RE_2 S₆Br₈] chains aligned along the *b*-direction.⁴³ These chains are then linked to form corrugated [RE_2 S₄Br₄] layers which stack along the *c*-direction. The optical band gaps are 2.1 eV for RE_2 SbS₅Br (RE = La, Ce) and 2.4–2.7 eV for RESbS₂Br₂ (RE = La, Ce).

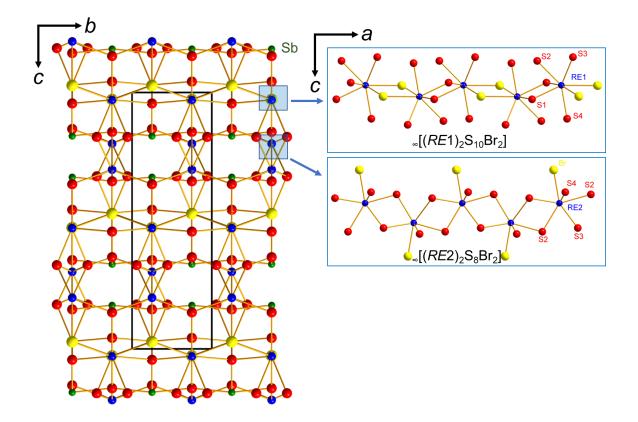


Figure 1-5. Structure of RE_2 SbS₅Br (RE = La, Ce).

1.2.5 Sm₃SiS₆Cl-type

 $RE_3SiS_6Cl (RE = Nd, Sm)$ was obtained in attempts to prepare heavier RE homologues of $RE_3[SiS_4]_2Cl (RE = La-Pr)$. They crystallize in the orthorhombic Sm₃SiS₆Cl-type structure in space group *Pnma* (Figure 1-6).^{49,50} Both types of structures contain isolated tetrahedral thiosilicate groups SiS₄, and infinite chains of Cl ions. The *RE* atoms are surrounded by S and Cl atoms. Nd₃SiS₆Cl exhibits antiferromagnetic interactions between the Nd atoms.

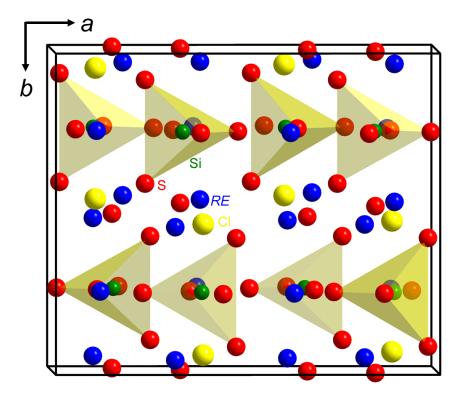


Figure 1-6. Structure of RE_3SiS_6Cl (RE = Nd, Sm) containing isolated SiS₄ tetrahedra.

1.3 Intermetallic compounds

Intermetallic compounds consist of two or more metals or metalloids bonded together, with definite structures and compositions that may vary slightly. It is unfortunate that, to this day, many chemists still cling to the misguided notion, propagated by Dalton but valiantly disputed by Berthollet, that compounds must conform to the law of definite proportions, meaning that their compositions are fixed; some of them may find it inconceivable that intermetallic compounds are legitimate compounds or, even more preposterously, they may dismiss them as being "non-chemical." In fact, many everyday inorganic solids, such as lithium-containing oxides in batteries or carbon steels in structural materials, owe their useful properties precisely to the occurrence of variable compositions. Aluminides and silicides are often strong and heat resistant, such as Ni₃Al (jet engines), TiAl (turbines), and MoSi₂ (heating elements).⁶² Lead-free solders such as stannides

Cu₆Sn₅, Cu₃Sn, and Ni₃Sn₄ are used to join copper pipes.⁶³ NMR spectrometers and magnetic resonance imaging would not be possible without superconducting Nb₃Sn used in high-field magnets.⁶⁴

Intermetallic compounds are generally distinguished from alloys in that their structures are different from the component elements, and their phase compositions vary less or are fixed (in which case they are called "line phases" because they are represented as vertical lines in phase diagrams) (**Figure 1-7**). Like alloys, however, intermetallic compounds may still exhibit some degree of disorder. Notwithstanding their name, intermetallic compounds exhibit bonding character that can combine metallic, ionic, and covalent interactions.⁶⁵

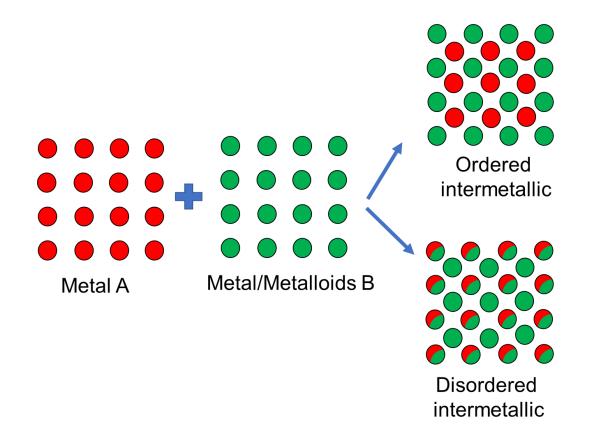


Figure 1-7. Formation of intermetallic compounds.

1.3.1 Rare-earth intermetallics

Given the major use of rare-earth compounds as magnetic materials (such as SmCo₅ and Nd₂Fe₁₄B), it is not a surprise that intermetallics containing rare-earth metals remain an attractive area of research. For crystallographers, they are interesting because they show a great variety of compositions and structures that enable systematic patterns to be revealed. For condensed matter physicists, they are a source of "quantum materials" exhibiting unusual magnetic and transport properties arising from the interactions of localized f-electrons with delocalized conduction electrons. For materials scientists, they enable control of properties through gradual changes in atomic sizes and electron counts. In addition to existing rare-earth intermetallics already used in applications, many binary rare-earth transition-metal compounds such as LaNi₅ are promising as hydrogen storage materials,⁶⁶ and ternary intermetallics such as Gd₅Si₂Ge₂ may be useful as magnetocaloric materials for magnetic refrigeration.⁶⁷

Among ternary intermetallics RE-M-X (where M = transition metal and X = main-group metal or metalloid), those that contain Ce, Eu, and Yb are unusual because they are prone to valence fluctuation or mixed valence; they are often studied in connection to exotic phenomena such as superconductivity, charge density waves, itinerant ferromagnetism, quantum criticality, heavy fermion behaviour, and Kondo effect. There are many Ce-containing compounds, but relatively fewer Eu- and Yb-containing compounds (**Figure 1-8**).¹¹ One reason might be that there are special problems in synthesizing intermetallics containing Eu and Yb. These metals are difficult to handle using conventional synthetic methods such as arc-melting because they have high vapour pressures and they react with many container materials.

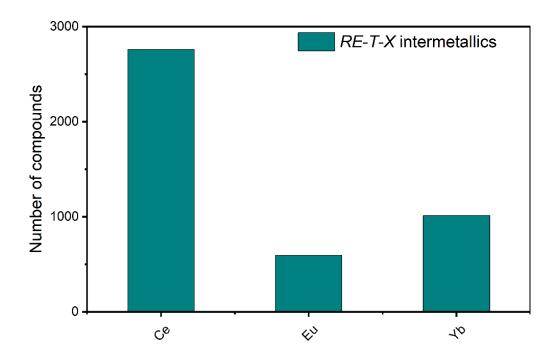


Figure 1-8. Reported ternary *RE*–*T*–*X* intermetallic compounds.

1.3.2 Crystal growth

Given their high melting points, intermetallic compounds have been synthesized by methods such as arc melting, induction heating, and direct reactions at high temperatures. These methods normally lead to polycrystalline samples. It is often desirable to obtain large single crystals for X-ray diffraction experiments and physical property measurements. Many rare-earth intermetallic compounds are quantum materials whose properties depend on orientation, such as topological materials, for which complete characterization depends on the availability of high quality single crystals.⁶⁸ Because Bridgman and Czochralski methods require investment in specialized equipment, which requires considerable experience to maintain and operate, there has been interest in developing crystal growth methods that are simpler to apply in a laboratory setting.⁶⁹ Molten salts have long been effective for single crystal growth of oxides, chalcogenides, oxychalcogenides, and some pnictides, but they generally do not work well for intermetallics.

Instead, low-melting metal fluxes have been found to be highly suitable for single crystal growth of many intermetallics. The purpose of the flux is to dissolve the components at lower temperatures than would normally be accessible, enhancing diffusion rates to promote growth of crystals.

The history of metal fluxes can be traced to as early as Moissan's failed attempts to prepare diamond crystals in the presence of molten iron, resulting in crystals of SiC (carborundum) instead. His colleague Lebeau grew transition metal silicides in a copper flux, a technique which is now used to prepare many borides and carbides as well. The most commonly used fluxes have low melting points and remain molten over a wide range of temperatures, including Al (660 °C), Ga (30 °C), In (157 °C), Sn (232 °C), Pb (328 °C), Sb (631 °C), and Bi (271 °C). Usually they are present in large excess, and the reaction mixture is slowly cooled to promote growth of large crystals. However, there is no guarantee of success: multiple phases can result from these processes, the crystals may not be particularly large, and metastable or kinetically stable products may also be formed. It may also not be straightforward to separate crystals from the flux. Crystal growth remains, as it has for centuries, as much an art as a science, depending sensitively on the vicissitudes of reaction conditions. These conditions include loading compositions, reaction temperatures, heating and cooling rates, and perhaps many other factors that we may still be unaware about.⁷⁰

The group-13 elements Al, Ga, and In have been used frequently to prepare many rareearth intermetallics, often acting as reactive fluxes in which these elements are also incorporated into the final product. Various aluminides have been prepared in this way: $Sm_2Ni(Ni_xSi_{1-})Al_4Si_6$,⁷¹ *RE*Fe₄Al₉Si₆ (*RE* = Tb, Er),⁷² *RE*₈Ru₁₂Al₄₉Si₉(Al_xSi_{12-x}) (*RE* = Pr, Sm),⁷³ and *RE*₆*M*₄Al₄₃ (*RE* = Gd, Yb; *M* = Cr, Mo, W).⁷⁴ However, one drawback is that aluminum is incompatible with fused-silica tubing, which is the most frequently used container in solid state reactions. Many gallides and germanides have been obtained in the presence of gallium and indium fluxes, which can be separated by filtration or chemical dissolution. Gallium flux was used to grow crystals of GdCo_{1-x}Ga₃Ge,⁷⁵ *RE*Ag_xGa_{4-x} (*RE* = La–Nd, Sm, Eu, Yb),⁷⁶ and Yb₆(CuGa)₅₀.⁷⁷ Because In forms no binary phases with Ge, it is an appropriate nonreactive flux for many germanides, including *RE*₂Ru₃Ge₅ (*RE* = La, Ce, Nd, Gd, Tb),⁷⁸ Yb₂CuGe₆,⁷⁹ EuCu₂Ge₂,⁸⁰ and *RE*₄*T*Ge₈ (*RE* = Gd, Yb; *T* = Cr–Ni, Ag),⁸¹ although in some cases, it does act as a reactive flux, to form Eu₃Ag₂In₉,⁸⁰ EuIr₄In₂Ge₄,⁸² *RE*₇*M*₄InGe₁₂ (*RE* = Y, Yb; *M* = Co, Ni, Ru),^{83–85} and Yb₃AuGe₂In₃.⁸⁶ The other elements Sn, Pb, Sb, and Bi are also commonly encountered fluxes. Sn has been frequently used to prepare many pnictides, especially phosphides. LaPd_{1-x}Bi₂ and Ce₂Rh₃Ge₅ were obtained in Bi flux,⁸⁷ and Ce₂Ru₁₂P₇ and Eu₄Ir₈As₇ were obtained in the Pb flux.^{88–89}

1.4 Synthesis

The special challenges of crystal growth of intermetallics were explained above, but it is worthwhile to review the standard techniques for synthesis of solid state compounds and to describe the experimental procedures in more detail, as they pertain to the preparation of chalcohalides and intermetallics (**Figure 1-9**). To prepare rare-earth chalcohalides, direct reactions were performed. To prepare rare-earth intermetallics, arc melting and induction heating were used to prepare bulk polycrystalline samples, and metal fluxes were used to grow single crystals.

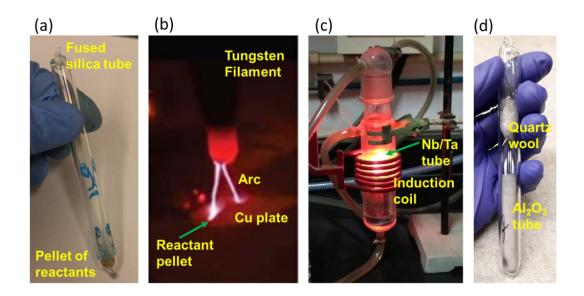


Figure 1-9. Synthetic methods: (a) direct reaction, (b) arc melting, (c) induction heating, and (d) metal flux growth.

1.4.1 Direct reaction

The reactants are typically the constituent elements, which are ground into fine powders to increase surface area and pressed into pellets to improve contact between particles, and then placed into suitable containers, depending on their compatibility with the reactants. In most cases, fused silica tubes, with dimensions of 12-mm diameter and 15-cm length, are appropriate for the small scale (a few hundred mg) of the reactions performed. Although there is a risk that rare-earth elements will react with fused silica, they usually react faster with the other elements (e.g., S, Se, Si, Ge, Sn) within the pressed pellets. The tubes are then evacuated, sealed, and heated to high temperatures within resistance furnaces (up to 1000 °C). A common question that neophytes pose is how to choose appropriate heating (and cooling) profiles. Many of these details are considered on a case-by-case basis, with knowledge of properties and reactivities of the elements. For example, when highly volatile elements such as sulfur or iodine are present, the tubes are heated gradually to avoid volatilization losses and to prevent catastrophic failure of the tubes caused by a

sudden increase in pressure. In other cases, optimized conditions reported in the literature for related compounds are used without shame or embarrassment. Of course, this does not excuse the need for analysis of the products, followed by rational adjustment of conditions to improve phase purity. It is no different from the tedious work that molecular chemists do to try different solvents, temperatures, reagents, and other adjustments. In situ monitoring of solid state reactions through X-ray diffraction experiments could help optimize reaction conditions more rapidly, but this remains a specialized technique that is not always easy to carry out.

1.4.2 Arc melting

When reactants are unreactive at the typical temperatures attainable in a resistance furnace, they can be melted in an electric arc generated by high potentials under an inert atmosphere. To ensure that traces of oxygen gas are removed from the chamber, the arc is briefly directed to a metal ingot (typically a Ti pellet), which is melted and acts as a getter. Then the arc is directed to the reactants (usually, but not always, combined in a pressed pellet). Again, careful consideration must be made of the relative melting (and boiling) points of the constituent elements; if they are too dissimilar, one reactant may volatilize before it has a chance to react. This is especially problematic for elements such as Eu, Yb, Zn, and others. Weighing the pellet before and after arc melting is good practice to monitor any mass losses. If mass losses are unavoidable, then they can be compensated by adding an appropriate excess of the volatile element. Typically, the ingots are flipped and arc melted two or more times to achieve homogeneity. Then, the arc-melted ingots can be further annealed within fused silica tubes at different temperatures to attain equilibrium conditions.

1.4.3 Induction heating

When container compatibility is a problem, induction heating can be a valuable synthetic method. The precursors are loaded into metal tubes (typically Nb or Ta), which are welded shut by arc-melting under inert atmosphere. These tubes are then placed within an induction coil, which generates an alternating electromagnetic field and heats the sample extremely rapidly (within seconds) through eddy currents. The reaction temperature can be measured using an optical pyrometer, but caution should be exercised because the readings depend on its position to the coil and the position of the sample being heated.

1.4.4 Metal flux growth

Constituent elements as well as the metal flux are loaded into crucibles (alumina, zirconia, or graphite) or metal tubes (Nb, Ta). Where possible, alumina crucibles are used because they are the least expensive. The crucibles are then enclosed within fused silica tubes, which are evacuated and sealed. A small piece of quartz wool is placed above the crucible to act as a filter for removing the flux at a subsequent stage. The tubes are heated at high temperatures, followed by slow cooling to promote crystal growth. Different heating profiles and loading ratios are investigated to optimize the crystal growth. The tubes are then inverted and centrifuged to remove excess flux while molten by filtering through the quartz wool, leaving crystals within the crucible. The resulting crystals can then be further cleaned by etching the surface with appropriate solvents, such as a dilute solution of HCl to remove Ga or In flux.

1.5 Characterization

1.5.1 X-ray diffraction

The most important technique for determining the crystal structures of inorganic solids is X-ray diffraction, either on single crystals or powder samples. Single-crystal X-ray diffraction is generally used for complete structure determination, whereas powder X-ray diffraction is used to assess phase compositions and degree of crystallinity.

X-rays are produced when electrons generated by thermionic emission strike a metal target (e.g., Cu, Mo) (**Figure 1-10**). The X-ray emission spectrum consists of intense lines superimposed on a continuum of white radiation. The characteristic X-rays are emitted when outer shell electrons relax to fill the hole created when core electrons of the target atoms are ejected, the most prominent being the K α (2p \rightarrow 1s) and K β (3p \rightarrow 1s) lines. (Each of these lines is further split into a doublet due to spin-orbit coupling). Diffraction experiments are performed with the intense K α X-rays, monochromatized by applying filters to remove the background and K β radiation, or by using a single-crystal monochromator (e.g., graphite).

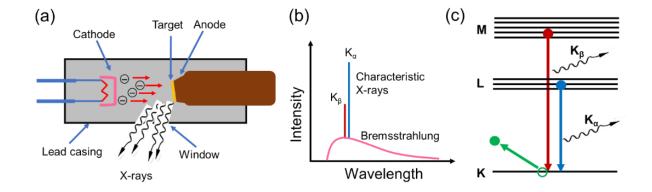


Figure 1-10. (a) Generation of X-rays, (b) emission spectrum, and (c) electronic transitions responsible for characteristic X-rays.

X-rays are scattered by the periodic arrangement of atoms in a crystal, and they undergo constructive and destructive interference to form a diffraction pattern, from which the structure can be deduced. The repeat pattern of the crystal is represented by its lattice, a set of points that define various parallel lattice planes (*hkl*), separated by a constant spacing d_{hkl} . The condition for constructive interference can be expressed in terms of intersecting cones of scattered X-rays, oriented at angles relative to each of the unit cell axes (Laue equations), or in terms of "reflections" by lattice planes (Bragg's law) (**Figure 1-11**).

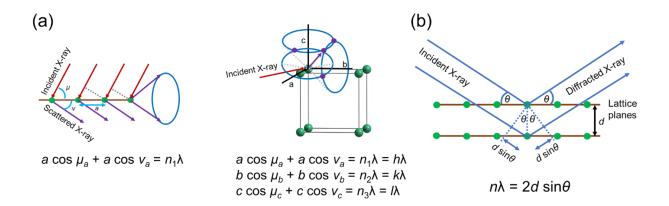


Figure 1-11. (a) Laue equations for a 1D row of atoms and for a 3D crystal and (b) Bragg's law.

For single-crystal X-ray diffraction, a typical procedure can be described. A suitable crystal, with typical dimensions ranging from 0.5 to 0.01 mm, is mounted on a glass fibre and placed on a goniometer. In this thesis, a Bruker PLATFORM diffractometer equipped with a SMART APEX II CCD area detector and a Mo K α X-ray source was used routinely, whereas a Bruker D8 Advance diffractometer was used for temperature-dependent studies. The crystal quality is screened by collecting a few frames of intensity data, and ensuring that the reflections are singular and strong (**Figure 1-12**). If the crystal is judged to be adequate, a full set of intensity

data is obtained, each frame being collected at different orientations (ω , χ , ϕ) of the crystal, with exposure times of about 10–15 s.

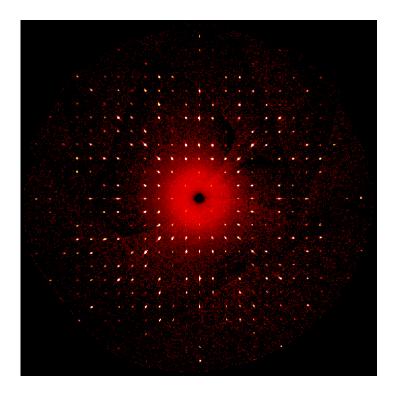


Figure 1-12. Precession image of YbCu₃Ga₈.

The data set consists of a large number of intensities I_{hkl} , from which the magnitude of the structure factor can be obtained, $|F_{hkl}| \propto \sqrt{I_{hkl}}$. Various standard corrections are applied at this data reduction stage, performed using the program SAINT. For crystals containing many heavy atoms, as is the case here, absorption corrections are essential, performed using the program SADABS. The structure factor is interpreted as the superposition of the waves scattered by atoms within the unit cell, with respect to a set of lattice planes (*hkl*). In principle, it should be possible to locate the positions of atoms (i.e., the crystal structure), which is equivalent to determining the electron density function by performing a Fourier transform of the structure factors F_{hkl} , through the summation: $\rho_{(x,y,z)} = \frac{1}{V} \sum_{hkl} F_{hkl} \cdot e^{-i2\pi(hx+ky+lz)}$, where V is the unit cell volume.

Unfortunately, these structure factors are complex-valued, but only their magnitudes (and not their phases, or orientations within the complex number plane) can be obtained in the X-ray diffraction experiment. It is a testament to modern crystallography that statistical methods to determine these phases are now so routine and quick that users barely give a thought to how powerful they are. Crystal structures are solved and refined using the program package SHELXTL. The goal is to minimize the differences between the observed and calculated structure factors based on a structural model, to attain reasonable agreement (as assessed by a conventional *R*-factor, generally being less than 0.10, and a goodness-of-fit value being close to unity). Besides atomic positions, other features of the structural model that can be considered include displacement parameters that measure the vibrational motion of atoms and site occupancies that may need to be refined if atomic disorder occurs.

For powder X-ray diffraction, a sample is ground to a fine powder and placed on a rotating sample holder. The instruments used were either an Inel powder diffractometer with a curved position-sensitive detector, or a Bruker D8 Advance powder diffractometer, both operated with a Cu K α_1 radiation source. The powder XRD pattern is measured over a range of angles, usually between 5 and 90° in 2 θ . To determine the phase composition of the sample, the experimental pattern is compared with simulated patterns for known phases, with crystallographic information available from Pearson's Crystal Database (**Figure 1-13**).⁹⁰ If a new phase is discovered, its powder XRD pattern can be indexed and its cell parameters can be refined. These patterns were analyzed with the programs in the TOPAS package.

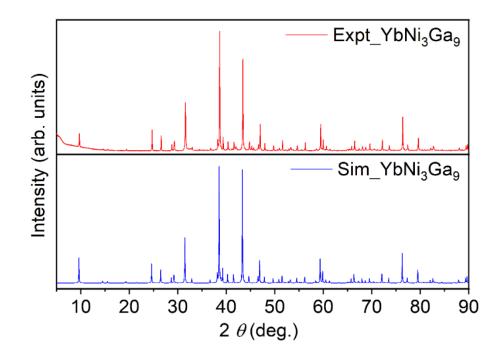


Figure 1-13. Experimental and simulated powder XRD patterns for YbNi₃Ga₉.

1.5.2 Scanning electron microscopy

Chemical compositions of inorganic solids can be determined on a scanning electron microscope. A focused beam of electrons undergoes many possible interactions with atoms at the surface of a sample (**Figure 1-14**). The primary electrons can undergo inelastic collisions with atoms near the surface of the sample to become secondary electrons with reduced energy, which are mainly used for imaging. Alternatively, the primary electrons can undergo elastic collisions with atoms over a larger interaction volume to become backscattered electrons. Because heavier atoms cause more scattering, the number of backscattered electrons is sensitive to the type of element and can be used to convey information about chemical composition, so that brighter parts of an image correspond to phases containing heavier elements. Perhaps most useful, when the primary electrons cause core electrons to be ejected, characteristic X-rays are produced by the electronic transitions to fill the hole. The energies of these X-rays are specific to the elements

present in the sample, so that the intensities of peaks in the energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) spectrum give quantitative information about chemical composition, in terms of mass or atomic percentages (**Figure 1-15**). The precision of EDX analysis is typically about 2 to 5%, depending on factors such as the type of element, peak overlap, surface topography, and other effects such as fluorescence and absorption. In this thesis, the instrument used was a JEOL JSM-6010LA InTouchScope scanning electron microscope or a Zeiss Sigma 300 VP field emission scanning electron microscope.

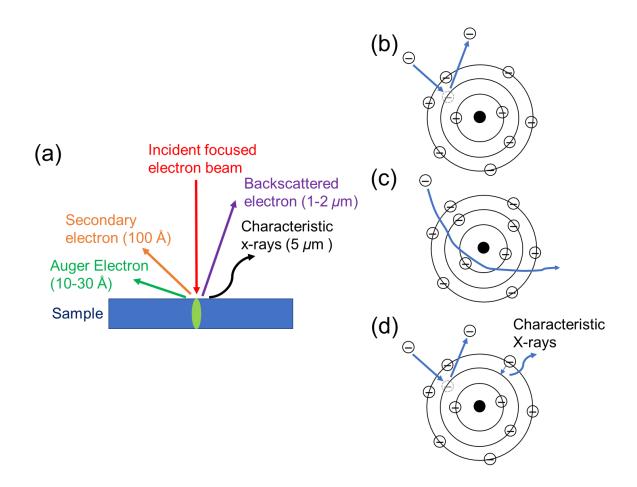


Figure 1-14. (a) Interactions of incident electron beam on a sample. (b) Secondary electrons, (c) backscattered electrons, and (d) characteristic X-rays produced in an electron microscope.

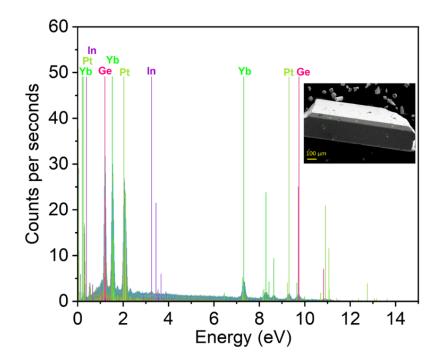


Figure 1-15. EDX spectrum for YbPtGe crystal and a secondary electron image (inset). A small amount of indium flux was observed on the surface of crystal.

1.5.3 Diffuse reflectance spectroscopy

Optical diffuse reflectance spectroscopy is used to determine the band gap of a solid. Reflection of light can be specular, with scattering occurring at the same angle to the normal as the incident beam, as occurs on a smooth surface such as a polished sample or a single crystal; or it can be diffuse, with scattering occurring at many angles, as occurs on a rough surface such as a microcrystalline sample. The scattered light originates from many processes (reflection, refraction, and diffraction) which are hard to separate. The diffuse reflectance spectrum can be converted to an absorption spectrum through a relationship called the Kubelka-Munk function:

$$F(R_{\infty}) = \frac{K}{S} = \frac{(1 - R_{\infty})^2}{2R_{\infty}}$$

where *K* is the absorption coefficient, *S* is the scattering coefficient, and R_{∞} is the reflectance assuming an infinitely thick layer.^{91,92} The instrument used was a Cary 5000 UV-Vis-NIR spectrophotometer equipped with a diffuse reflectance accessory (**Figure 1-16a**). An optical polytetrafluoroethylene disc with >98% reflectivity or a compacted pellet of BaSO₄ was used as a reflectance standard over the range from 200 nm (6.2 eV) to 2500 nm (0.5 eV). The optical band gap was estimated by extrapolating the absorption edge to the baseline (**Figure 1-16b**).

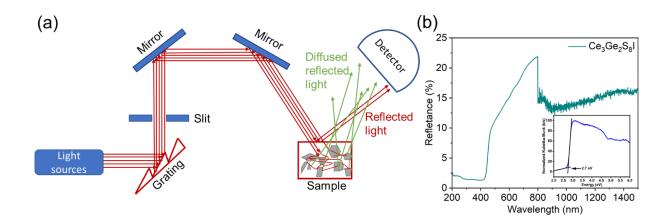


Figure 1-16. (a) UV-Vis-NIR spectrometer with light reflected by a rough sample surface. (b) diffuse reflectance spectra collected on powder sample of $Ce_3Ge_2S_8I$.

1.6 Band structure calculations

The electronic structure of extended solids can be calculated from first principles.⁹³ The appropriate electronic wavefunctions are taken as linear combinations of atomic orbitals χ_n , adapted to the translational symmetry of the crystal structure. For the simple case of a chain of atoms with unit cell repeat *a*, these symmetry-adapted wavefunctions, called Bloch functions, are of the form:

$$\psi_k = \sum_n e^{ikna} \, \chi_n$$

where k is the wavevector and is restricted to quantized values within a repeat in reciprocal space called the first Brillouin zone, $-\pi/a \le k \le \pi/a$. If the chain consists of s-orbitals on each atom, these Bloch functions and their energies, obtained through the Schrödinger equation, can be understood (**Figure 1-17**). The most bonding combination, with all orbitals in phase, is found at lowest energy at k = 0, and the most antibonding combination, with all orbitals out of phase, is found at highest energy at $k = \pi/a$. A band dispersion diagram shows how these energies vary as a function of k. These curves are quasi-continuous, with many energy levels so closely spaced that it is convenient to portray the density of states within infinitesimal energy intervals. The states are filled with electrons up to the highest energy, called the Fermi level E_f .

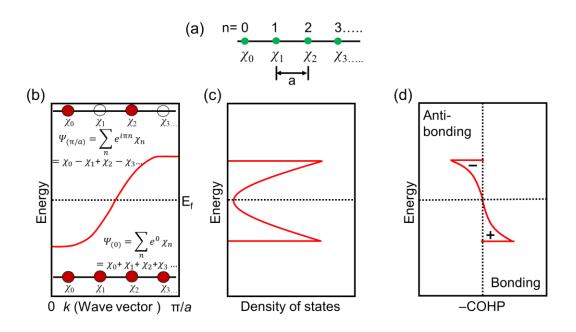


Figure 1-17. (a) Chain of atoms with orbitals χ_n , taken to be s-orbitals, (b) band dispersion diagram, (c) density of states, and (d) crystal orbital Hamilton population.

Electronic structure calculations allow conclusions to be inferred about bonding in the crystal structure. The crystal orbital Hamilton populations (COHP) are obtained by weighting the DOS by the Hamiltonian matrix elements and serve to classify interactions between specified pairs

of atoms to be bonding or antibonding at different energies. The integrated values of the COHP up to the Fermi level can be interpreted as a measure of the bond strength. Borrowed from an old concept by Wiberg and Mayer, the crystal orbital bond index (COBI) has been recently developed as a way to quantify the degree of covalent vs. ionic character within specified bonds.

The calculations performed here have made use of widely available programs, such as TB-LMTO (tight-binding linear muffin tin orbital program) and VASP (Vienna ab initio simulation package). The program LOBSTER makes use of the results from these calculations to extract COHP and COBI values.

1.7 Physical properties

The properties of potential interest investigated in this thesis are the photoluminescence and magnetic properties of rare-earth chalcohalides.

1.7.1 Photoluminescence

Modern emissive displays, fluorescent lamps, and light emitting diodes (LEDs) owe their operation to photoluminescent materials. LEDs are more energy efficient, longer lasting, and less costly to maintain than incandescent bulbs. The most common method to generate white light in an LED is by combining a blue InGaN chip with a yellow emitting phosphor such as Ce³⁺:Y₃Al₅O₁₂.⁹⁴ However, this type of LED emits a small amount of blue light, which disturbs the human sleep cycle.⁹⁵ An alternative method to produce white light is to combine red, green, and blue emitting phosphors that are excited by a UV-LED. Mixing three phosphors gives access to a wider gamut to produce tunable colours, but to reduce spectral overlap, these phosphors must give narrow emission peaks with high efficiency. Some of the currently used phosphor materials

in LEDs are CaAlSiN₃:Eu²⁺ (red), SrS:Eu²⁺(red), SrGa₂S₄:Eu²⁺ (green) β -SiAlON (Si_{6-z}Al_zO_zN_{8-z}:Eu²⁺) (green) and BaMgAl₁₀O₁₇:Eu²⁺(blue).^{96–98}

Inorganic phosphors consist of an insulating or semiconducting host (oxides, oxyhalides, chalcogenides, oxychalcogenides) and an activator (rare earth or transition metal ion). Activators are responsible for light emission, which occurs through several possible radiative decay mechanisms upon absorption of incident radiation (**Figure 1-18**). The mechanisms involve either fluorescence (electrons relaxing to the ground state by emitting photons) or phosphorescence (electrons undergoing intersystem crossing from singlet to triplet excited states). The excited electron could also undergo vibrational relaxation or internal conversion. The emission and temperature-dependent optical properties are strongly influenced by the coordination environment around the activator ions. Phosphors can degrade over time because they undergo chemical reactions or are thermally unstable. The market for white LEDs is highly lucrative, and many scientists are involved in searching for new phosphors or improving existing ones.

Although chalcohalides have not been well investigated as photoluminescent materials, a few have been previously identified. $Re_6S_8I_2$ and $Re_6Se_8I_2$ exhibit photoluminescence in a broad region from red to near infrared regions.⁹⁹ Ba₂SbS₃I emits at 350 and 468 nm.¹⁰⁰ Ba₃AGa₅Se₁₀Cl₂ (A = Cs, Rb, K) emits at 711–831 nm without metal activators.¹⁰¹ When photoluminescence occurs in the absence of activators, it arises because there are defect levels lying within the band gap.

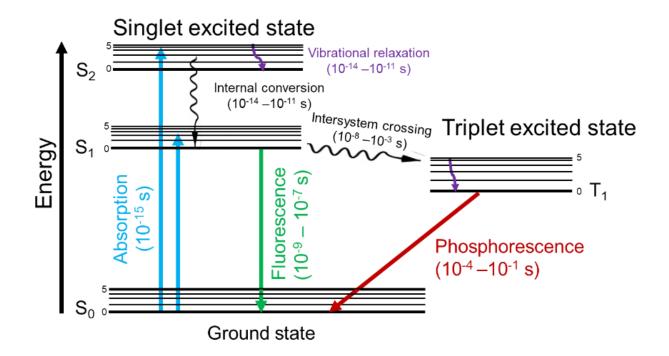


Figure 1-18. Mechanisms for fluorescence and phosphorescence.

There exists a small family of rare-earth chalcohalides $RE_3(SiS_4)_2X$ that were briefly investigated in the past for their photoluminescent properties. The series Ce₃(SiS₄)₂X (X = Cl, Br, I) were found to show strong blue luminescence, with a shift to shorter emission wavelengths upon substitution with larger halogens (478 nm for Cl, 468 nm for Br, 465 nm for I).⁵² La₃Br(SiS₄)₂:Ce³⁺ emits in the cyan region (466 nm), and La₃Br(SiS₄)₂:Eu²⁺ emits in the red-orange region (640 nm), and they have been demonstrated for use in white light-emitting diodes.¹⁰² There appears to be many unexplored opportunities to examine the impact of both cation and anion substitutions on these photoluminescent properties.

1.7.2 Magnetic properties

Magnetic properties are characterized by applying an external magnetic field H to a sample and measuring the resulting magnetization M, which can be divided by the field to give the magnetic susceptibility χ . The temperature dependence of the magnetic susceptibility (χ vs T) and the field dependence of the magnetization (M vs H) are routinely measured to infer the arrangement of magnetic moments in the solid (Figure 1-19). In a paramagnetic substance, the magnetic moments are randomly arranged but tend to align with the applied magnetic field at lower temperatures, in accordance with the Curie law, $\chi = C/T$. In a ferromagnetic substance, there is a spontaneous parallel alignment of magnetic moments below a critical temperature called the Curie temperature $T_{\rm C}$. In an antiferromagnetic substance, the magnetic moments align antiparallel to each other below the Neel temperature $T_{\rm N}$. Plots of the inverse magnetic susceptibility vs temperature can suggest the type of magnetic coupling interactions that are taking place. If the linear portion of this curve (the paramagnetic regime at high temperature) is extrapolated to the abscissa, the intercept can be related to the Weiss constant, for which a positive sign suggests ferromagnetic and a negative sign suggests antiferromagnetic coupling. Typical measurements are made on powder samples with mass of 20-100 mg, on a Quantum Design 9T-PPMS instrument, with an applied magnetic field of 0.5 T and between temperatures of 2 to 300 K.

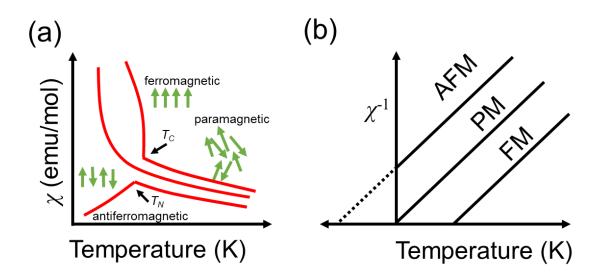


Figure 1-19. (a) Temperature dependence of magnetic susceptibility, and (b) Inverse magnetic susceptibility vs temperature.

Rare-earth compounds exhibit a wide range of magnetic behaviour, ranging from mundane to exotic. Among rare-earth intermetallics, those that adopt Th₂Zn₁₇, ThMn₁₂, CaCo₅, and BaAl₄type structures are prone to exhibit orientation-dependent magnetization. Materials with high magnetic anisotropy are of interest to condensed matter physicists, but measurements require the availability of large, high-quality single crystals.

1.8 **Objectives**

The common theme of this thesis is the investigation of rare-earth-containing compounds, including their synthesis, structures, and physical properties. As surveyed above, quaternary rareearth chalcohalides are an underrepresented class of compounds that could offer new possibilities for structural diversity by introducing both mixed cations and mixed anions. These compounds are expected to behave as semiconductors. The long term vision would be to enable control of physical properties by choosing an appropriate combination of these components. Perhaps the biggest challenge is that multicomponent phases tend to be hard to synthesize because they compete with more stable binary and ternary phases. This thesis focuses on an interesting series of rare-earth chalcohalides $RE_3Tt_2Ch_8I$ for which substitution of the *RE*, *Tt*, and *Ch* components is systematically investigated. The approach is to prepare solid solutions from different end members to examine how band gaps are affected, and subsequently to control the emission colour for photoluminescence applications such as white LEDs. Characterization methods include detailed structure determinations, extensive optical measurements, and first-principles calculations.

Rare-earth transition-metal intermetallics are an extremely diverse class that have been implicated as quantum materials because the interplay of f- and d-electrons can lead to complex magnetic behaviour. Although this research area has long been investigated by condensed matter physicists, there is an important need to develop more systematic ways to synthesize these compounds, particularly in the form of large single crystals. This thesis examines the use of metal fluxes to promote crystal growth of ternary gallides and germanides. In many cases, the crystal growth of known ternary intermetallics can be frustratingly difficult. The relative stability of the RET_2Ge_2 compounds was evaluated by conducting reactions in indium as a nonreactive flux.

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Chapter 2.

Synthesis, structure, and properties of rare-earth germanium sulfide iodides $RE_3Ge_2S_8I$ (RE = La, Ce, Pr)

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2.1. Introduction

Mixed-anion compounds, which contain more than one type of anion, offer ways to control the structures and properties of solids that are not accessible in single-anion or mixed-cation compounds.¹ The local environment around cations can be changed to create coordination polyhedra with different symmetries, the bonding character can be adjusted by introducing intermediate degrees of electron transfer, and the band gap can be varied to desired magnitudes. Well-known examples of mixed-anion compounds typically contain oxide with fluoride (e.g., LiFeSO₄F as cathode materials in batteries),² other chalcogenide (e.g., LaCu*Ch*O (*Ch* = S, Se) as transparent conductors),³ and pnictide ions (e.g., $Ca_{1-x}La_xTaO_{2-x}N_{1+x}$ as inorganic pigments,⁴ LaFeAsO as superconductors).⁵ Mixed-anion compounds containing heavier chalcogenide and halide ions are less common,⁶ but they have also emerged as attractive candidates for various applications (e.g., Ag_5Te_2Cl as ionic conductors,⁷ BiSI and BiSeI as photovoltaic materials,⁸ Ba₄ZnGa₄Se₁₀Cl₂ as infrared nonlinear optical materials,⁹ and Tl₆SI₄ as hard radiation detectors).¹⁰

Chalcogenide halides containing rare-earth metals are relatively scarce but may be interesting because of their potential as optical and magnetic materials.⁶ Narrow-band optical spectra and large magnetic moments may be expected from the presence of unpaired electrons in highly localized f-orbitals. Within the systems RE-Tt-Ch-X (RE = rare-earth metal; Tt = Si, Ge,

Sn (tetrel), Ch = S, Se, Te; X = F, Cl, Br, I), the only known quaternary phases so far are $RE_3Si_2S_8X$ (RE = early rare-earth metals; X = Cl, Br, I)^{11–17} and RE_3SiS_6Cl (RE = Nd, Sm),^{18,19} first discovered nearly 20 years ago. The compound Ce₃Si₂S₈I luminesces in the blue region and may be useful in electroluminescent devices.¹³

As part of our ongoing investigations of chalcogenides as optical materials, we examine these RE-Tt-Ch-X systems to ascertain if other quaternary phases can be found. In particular, we hypothesize that the Ge-substituted analogues of $RE_3Si_2S_8X$ may be viable targets to prepare. The existence of Ce₃Ge₂S₈I has been mentioned, but no publication has been forthcoming.¹³ Here, we present the synthesis and complete structural characterization of the Ge-containing members $RE_3Ge_2S_8I$, their electronic band structure, and their optical and magnetic properties.

2.2. Experimental

2.2.1. Synthesis

Starting materials were freshly filed rare-earth metal pieces (RE = La, Ce, Pr; 99.9%, Hefa), germanium powder (99.999%, Sigma-Aldrich), sulfur flakes (99.998%, Sigma-Aldrich), and iodine crystals (99.8%, Anachemia). The elements were combined in stoichiometric ratios on a 0.5-g scale to target the composition $RE_3Ge_2S_8I$, with a 10% excess (by weight) of I₂ added. The mixtures were finely ground, cold-pressed into pellets, and loaded into fused-silica tubes (12 mm diameter and 15 cm length), which were evacuated to 10^{-3} mbar and sealed. To minimize volatilization losses of sulfur and iodine and to avoid catastrophic failure of the tubes, the samples were heated slowly at 2 °C/min to 300 °C, held there for 2 d, heated at 2 °C/min to 900 °C, held there for 7 d, and then cooled to room temperature over 2 d. The targeted compounds formed as powders, with excess I₂ deposited at the other end of the tubes.

Products were analyzed by powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) performed on an Inel powder diffractometer equipped with a curved position-sensitive detector (CPS 120) and a Cu $K\alpha_1$ radiation source operated at 40 kV and 20 mA. The XRD patterns were analyzed with the use of the TOPAS Academic software package.²⁰ The background was modelled by a six-term polynomial function, and a Pawley fit was applied (**Figure 2-1**).

Small irregularly shaped crystals (light yellow or nearly colourless La₃Ge₂S₈I, yellow Ce₃Ge₂S₈I, and green Pr₃Ge₂S₈I) were found within the products which were examined on a JEOL JSM-6010LA InTouchScope scanning electron microscope, operated with an accelerating voltage of 15 kV. Energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) analyses performed with acquisition times of 120 s on several points of multiple crystals (insets of **Figure 2-1**) gave compositions of 19–25% *RE*, 10–16% Ge, 50–58% S, and 8–13% I, in reasonable agreement with expectations (21% *RE*, 14% Ge, 57% S, 7% I). The high I content is attributed to the surface deposition of some excess iodine which can be removed by washing the crystals with DMF.

Attempts were made to extend the *RE* substitution beyond Pr (e.g., RE = Nd, Sm, Eu, Gd, Tb, Dy, Ho, Er) and to prepare the analogous selenide series RE_3Ge_2SeI , using the same preparative conditions as indicated above, but these generally led to the formation of ternary phases $RE_3Ge_{1+x}S_7$ or $RE_3Ge_{1+x}Se_7$. Attempts were also made to prepare the Cl or Br analogues through the use of binary halide starting materials, but these were unsuccessful and led to complex multiphase mixtures.

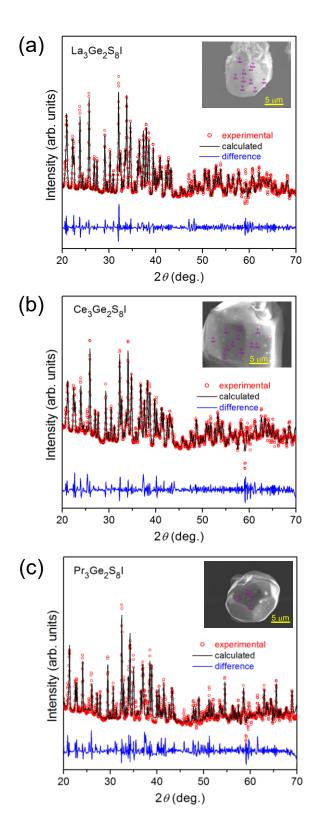


Figure 2-1. Powder XRD patterns (with Pawley fittings) and SEM images of typical crystals (insets) for RE₃Ge₂S₈I.

2.2.2. Structure determination

Intensity data for $RE_3Ge_2S_8I$ (RE = La, Ce, Pr) were collected at room temperature on a Bruker PLATFORM diffractometer equipped with a SMART APEX II CCD area detector and a graphite-monochromated Mo $K\alpha$ radiation source, using ω scans at 7–8 different ϕ angles with a frame width of 0.3° and an exposure time of 10–12 s per frame. Face-indexed numerical absorption corrections were applied. Structure solution and refinement were carried out with the use of the SHELXTL (version 6.12) program package.²¹ The centrosymmetric monoclinic space group C2/c was chosen on the basis of Laue symmetry and intensity statistics. Initial positions of all atoms were easily found by direct methods, and structure refinement proceeded in a straightforward fashion. All sites were confirmed to be fully occupied when occupancies were refined. The displacement parameters for the I atom are slightly elevated compared to those of the other atoms, but this appears to be a recurring characteristic in related $RE_3Si_2S_6X$ structures associated with its location within a large tunnel and its relatively weak bonding to only three neighbouring *RE* atoms.^{11–17} Atomic positions were standardized with the program STRUCTURE TIDY.²² Table 2-1 lists crystal data, Table 2-2 lists atomic and displacement parameters, and Table 2-3 lists interatomic distances. CCDC 1890620–1890622 contains the supplementary crystallographic data for this paper. These data can be obtained free of charge from the Cambridge Crystallographic Data Centre via www.ccdc.cam.ac.uk/structures.

formula	La ₃ Ge ₂ S ₈ I	Ce ₃ Ge ₂ S ₈ I	Pr ₃ Ge ₂ S ₈ I
formula mass (amu)	945.29	948.92	951.29
space group	<i>C</i> 2/ <i>c</i> (No. 15)	<i>C</i> 2/ <i>c</i> (No. 15)	<i>C</i> 2/ <i>c</i> (No. 15)
<i>a</i> (Å)	16.156(4)	16.054(2)	15.9760(9)
<i>b</i> (Å)	7.9776(18)	7.9233(11)	7.8786(5)
<i>c</i> (Å)	11.018(3)	10.9624(15)	10.9281(6)
$eta(^\circ)$	98.192(5)	98.262(3)	98.4525(10)
$V(Å^3)$	1405.6(6)	1379.9(3)	1360.56(14)
Ζ	4	4	4
<i>T</i> (K)	296(2)	296(2)	296(2)
$ ho_{ m calcd} ({ m g \ cm^{-3}})$	4.467	4.568	4.644
crystal dimensions (mm)	$0.05 \times 0.04 \times 0.04$	$0.07\times0.05\times0.04$	$0.05 \times 0.04 \times 0.04$
μ (Mo K α) (mm ⁻¹)	16.49	17.41	18.36
μ (NO KG) (IIIII) transmission factors	0.511-0.558	0.331–0.531	0.471-0.553
2θ limits	5.09–66.33°	5.13–66.56°	5.16–66.54°
data collected	$-24 \le h \le 24$,	$-24 \le h \le 24$,	$-24 \le h \le 24$,
data conceled	$-24 \le n \le 24$, $-12 \le k \le 12$,	$-24 \le n \le 24,$ $-12 \le k \le 12,$	$-24 \le n \le 24,$ $-12 \le k \le 12,$
	$-12 \le k \le 12,$ $-16 \le l \le 16$	$-12 \le k \le 12,$ $-16 \le l \le 16$	$-12 \le k \le 12,$ $-16 \le l \le 16$
no. of data collected	-10 ≤ <i>t</i> ≤ 10 9974	-10 ≤ <i>l</i> ≤ 10 9823	-10 ≤ <i>t</i> ≤ 10 9815
no. of unique data,	2654	2634	2605
including $F_0^2 < 0$	2004	2034	2003
no. of unique data, with $F_0^2 > 2\sigma(F_0^2)$	1767	1874	1946
no. of variables	65	65	65
$\underset{a}{R(F)} \text{ for } F_{o}^{2} > 2\sigma(F_{o}^{2})$	0.048	0.043	0.041
$R_{\rm w}(F_{ m o}{}^2)^{b}$	0.128	0.108	0.104
goodness of fit	1.02	1.02	1.07
$(\Delta \rho)_{\rm max}, (\Delta \rho)_{\rm min} (e)$ Å ⁻³)	3.70, -2.52	3.13, -2.08	3.47, -2.21

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Table 2-1. Crystallographic data for *RE*₃Ge₂S₈I.

 $\frac{{}^{a} R(F) = \sum ||F_{o}| - |F_{c}|| / \sum |F_{o}|. {}^{b} R_{w}(F_{o}^{2}) = \left[\sum [w(F_{o}^{2} - F_{c}^{2})^{2}] / \sum wF_{o}^{4}]^{1/2}; w^{-1} = [\sigma^{2}(F_{o}^{2}) + (Ap)^{2} + Bp], \text{ where } p = [\max(F_{o}^{2}, 0) + 2F_{c}^{2}] / 3.$

Atom	Wyckoff position	x	У	Ζ	$U_{ m eq}({ m \AA}^2)$ a
La ₃ Ge ₂ S ₈ I					
Lal	8 <i>f</i>	0.30365(3)	0.12072(6)	0.32098(4)	0.0144(1)
La2	4 <i>e</i>	0	0.10242(9)	1/4	0.0166(2)
Ge	8 <i>f</i>	0.15867(6)	0.03916(11)	0.02736(8)	0.0139(2)
S1	8 <i>f</i>	0.0650(1)	0.1575(3)	0.5404(2)	0.0163(4)
S2	8 <i>f</i>	0.1446(1)	0.2501(3)	0.1496(2)	0.0166(4)
S3	8 <i>f</i>	0.2160(1)	0.4296(3)	0.4133(2)	0.0155(4)
S4	8 <i>f</i>	0.3507(1)	0.4014(3)	0.1684(2)	0.0153(4)
Ι	4 <i>e</i>	0	0.5186(1)	1/4	0.0273(2)
Ce ₃ Ge ₂ S ₈ I					
Cel	8 <i>f</i>	0.30319(3)	0.12132(5)	0.32094(4)	0.0147(1)
Ce2	4e	0	0.10510(8)	1/4	0.0173(1)
Ge	8 <i>f</i>	0.15843(5)	0.03936(10)	0.02651(7)	0.0143(2)
S1	8 <i>f</i>	0.0649(1)	0.1602(2)	0.5395(2)	0.0187(4)
S2	8 <i>f</i>	0.1445(1)	0.2522(2)	0.1496(2)	0.0179(4)
S3	8 <i>f</i>	0.2152(1)	0.4299(2)	0.4133(2)	0.0162(3)
S4	8 <i>f</i>	0.3510(1)	0.4020(2)	0.1703(2)	0.0163(3)
Ι	4e	0	0.5193(1)	1/4	0.0267(2)
Pr ₃ Ge ₂ S ₈ I					
Pr1	8 <i>f</i>	0.30270(2)	0.12199(4)	0.32111(3)	0.0131(1)
Pr2	4 <i>e</i>	0	0.10822(7)	1/4	0.0156(1)
Ge	8 <i>f</i>	0.15808(4)	0.03975(9)	0.02567(6)	0.0125(2)
S1	8 <i>f</i>	0.0647(1)	0.1618(2)	0.5380(2)	0.0165(3)
S2	8 <i>f</i>	0.1441(1)	0.2534(2)	0.1490(2)	0.0160(3)
S3	8 <i>f</i>	0.2151(1)	0.4306(2)	0.4131(2)	0.0147(3)
S4	8 <i>f</i>	0.3516(1)	0.4019(2)	0.1723(2)	0.0145(3)
Ι	4 <i>e</i>	0	0.5203(1)	1/4	0.0241(2)

Table 2-2. Atomic coordinates and equivalent isotropic displacement parameters (Å²) ^{*a*} for $RE_3Ge_2S_8I$.

^{*a*} U_{eq} is defined as one-third of the trace of the orthogonalized U_{ij} tensor.

	La ₃ Ge ₂ S ₈ I	Ce ₃ Ge ₂ S ₈ I	Pr ₃ Ge ₂ S ₈ I	
RE1–S4	2.963(2)	2.937(2)	2.914(2)	
<i>RE</i> 1–S3	2.976(2)	2.960(2)	2.948(2)	
<i>RE</i> 1–S1	3.007(2)	2.982(2)	2.967(2)	
<i>RE</i> 1–S3	3.016(2)	2.998(2)	2.988(2)	
RE1–S4	3.062(2)	3.038(2)	3.024(2)	
<i>RE</i> 1–S2	3.077(2)	3.047(2)	3.030(2)	
<i>RE</i> 1–S3	3.086(2)	3.068(2)	3.049(2)	
<i>RE</i> 1–S2	3.139(2)	3.117(2)	3.103(2)	
RE1–I	3.4708(9)	3.4565(6)	3.4499(4)	
<i>RE2</i> –S4 (×2)	2.930(2)	2.910(2)	2.896(2)	
<i>RE2</i> –S2 (×2)	2.967(2)	2.947(2)	2.928(2)	
<i>RE2</i> –S1 (×2)	3.252(2)	3.224(2)	3.193(2)	
<i>RE2</i> –S1 (×2)	3.381(2)	3.394(2)	3.415(2)	
RE2–I	3.3190(14)	3.282(1)	3.246(1)	
Ge–S2	2.187(2)	2.191(2)	2.188(2)	
Ge–S4	2.192(2)	2.191(2)	2.195(2)	
Ge–S1	2.199(2)	2.200(2)	2.197(2)	
Ge–S3	2.217(2)	2.218(2)	2.212(2)	

Table 2-3. Interatomic distances (Å) in *RE*₃Ge₂S₈I.

2.2.3. Electronic structure calculations

Tight-binding linear muffin-tin orbital (TB-LMTO) band structure calculations were performed within the local density and atomic-spheres approximation with the use of the Stuttgart TB-LMTO program.²³ The basis set consisted of La 6s/6p/5d/4f, Ge 4s/4p/4d, S 3s/3p/3d, and I 5s/5p/4d/4f orbitals, with the La 6p, Ge 4d, S 3d, and I 4d/4f orbitals being downfolded. Integrations in reciprocal space were carried out with an improved tetrahedron method over 78 irreducible *k* points within the first Brillouin zone. Crystal orbital Hamilton populations (COHP) were evaluated to analyze bonding interactions.²⁴

2.2.4. Diffuse reflectance spectroscopy

Optical diffuse reflectance spectra for all three compounds were measured from 200 nm (6.2 eV) to 2500 nm (0.50 eV) on a Cary 5000 UV-vis-NIR spectrophotometer equipped with a diffuse reflectance accessory, with a compacted pellet of BaSO₄ used as a 100% reflectance standard. These reflectance spectra were converted to optical absorption spectra using the Kubelka-Munk function, $F(R) = \alpha/S = (1-R)^2/2R$, where α is the Kubelka-Munk absorption coefficient, *S* is the scattering coefficient, and *R* is the reflectance.²⁵

2.2.5. Magnetic susceptibility measurements

Zero-field-cooled dc magnetic susceptibility measurements were made on $RE_3Ge_2S_8I$ (RE = Ce, Pr) between 2 and 300 K under an applied magnetic field of 0.5 T on a Quantum Design 9T– PPMS magnetometer. Susceptibility values were corrected for contributions from the holder and sample diamagnetism.

2.3. Results and discussion

The sulfide iodides $RE_3Ge_2S_8I$ were successfully prepared by reactions of the elements at 900 °C. They are the first quaternary phases found in the RE-Ge–S–I systems. As in the corresponding Si-containing compounds $RE_3Si_2S_8X$ (X = Cl, Br, I),^{11–17} the range of RE substitution in $RE_3Ge_2S_8I$ is limited to the lighter members (RE = La, Ce, Pr). The formula could also be written as $RE_3(GeS_4)_2I$ to emphasize the presence of thiogermanate groups, in analogy to the orthosilicate groups found in the La₃(SiO₄)₂Cl-type structure to which these compounds are isostructural.²⁶ The monoclinic structure (space group C2/c) consists of discrete anionic [GeS₄]^{4–} tetrahedra arranged in stacks along the *c*-direction and separated by RE^{3+} cations; these stacks outline large tunnels occupied by I^- anions (**Figure 2-2a**, and **b**). The Ge-centred tetrahedra are

quite regular, with nearly equidistant Ge–S bonds (2.18–2.22 Å) that fall within the usual range (2.1–2.3 Å) found in other Ge-containing sulfides.²⁷ The two types of *RE* sites are each surrounded by one I and eight S atoms in roughly tricapped trigonal prismatic geometry, but the coordination environment around *RE*2 is quite irregular (**Figure 2-2c**). These environments are asymmetric as a result of the presence of the two different kinds of ions, S^{2–} and I[–], around the *RE*³⁺ cations. The distances to the S atoms are shorter (La–S, 2.96–3.14 Å; Ce–S, 2.94–3.12 Å; Pr–S, 2.91–3.10 Å) than to the I atoms (La–I, 3.47 Å; Ce–I, 3.28 Å; Pr–I, 3.25 Å), and agree well with the sum of Shannon ionic radii (La³⁺, 1.16 Å; Ce³⁺, 1.14 Å; Pr³⁺, 1.13 Å; S^{2–}, 1.84 Å; I[–], 2.20 Å).²⁸ Bond valence sums (**Table 2-4**) support the simple charge-balanced ionic formulation (*RE*³⁺)₃(Ge⁴⁺)₂(S^{2–})₈(Γ).²⁹

	$La_3Ge_2S_8I$	$Ce_3Ge_2S_8I$	$Pr_3Ge_2S_8I$
<i>RE</i> 1	2.97	2.99	2.94
RE2	2.74	2.75	2.73
Ge	4.24	4.22	4.25
S1	1.76	1.75	1.75
S2	2.07	2.07	2.07
S3	2.07	2.06	2.06
S4	2.27	2.29	2.26
Ι	0.81	0.84	0.82

Table 2-4. Bond valence sums in $RE_3Ge_2S_8I$.

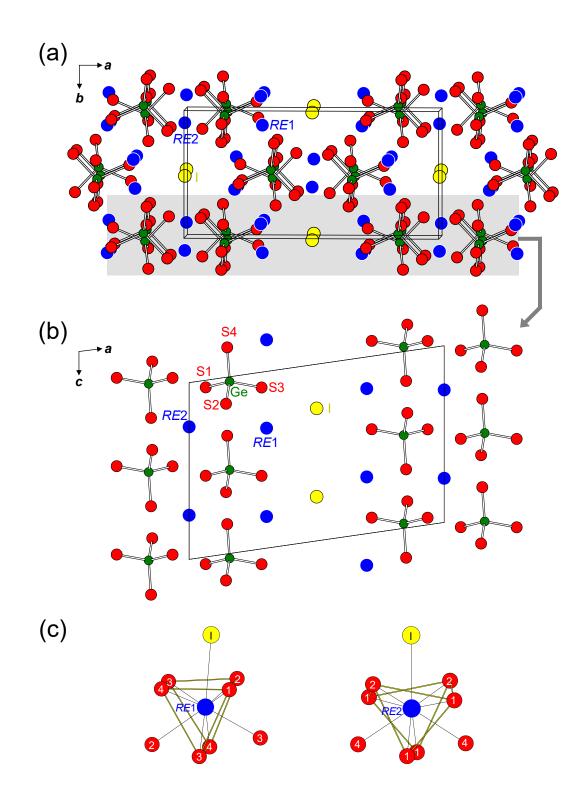


Figure 2-2. Structure of RE_3 Ge₂S₈I (RE = La, Ce, Pr) (a) viewed down the *c*-direction revealing tunnels occupied by I atoms, (b) highlighting a slice parallel to the *ac*-plane containing isolated GeS₄ tetrahedra, and (c) showing the coordination environments around *RE* atoms.

Electronic structure calculations were performed on La₃Ge₂S₈I, whose closed-shell electron configurations for all atoms imply the presence of a band gap. The density of states (DOS) curve shows a gap between filled states below the Fermi level at 0 eV and empty states above 1.0 eV (Figure 2-3a). The gap is a direct one at the Brillouin zone centre Γ , as revealed in a band dispersion diagram (not shown). The valence band results from the mixing of Ge 4p (from -6.0 to -1.2 eV), I 5p states (from -0.9 to 0 eV), and S 3p states as indicated by the atomic projections of the DOS curve (Figure 2-3b). The normal expectation is that the band gap is controlled by the strongest covalent interactions in the structure, namely that it would correspond to the separation of filled Ge-S bonding and empty Ge-S antibonding levels. As seen in the crystal orbital Hamilton population (-COHP) curves (Figure 2-3c), this is indeed the case, but the band gap is considerably narrowed by the presence of the I-based states that lie higher in energy than the Ge-based states in the valence band. This feature was also observed in the electronic structure of Ce₃Si₂S₈I.¹² Notwithstanding the ionic formulation indicated earlier, both La-S and La-I interactions bring important contributions to the covalent bonding stabilization of the structure. The integrated COHP values (-ICOHP) are 15.5 eV/cell for Ge-S, 14.0 eV/cell for La-S, and 1.5 eV/cell for La-I interactions.

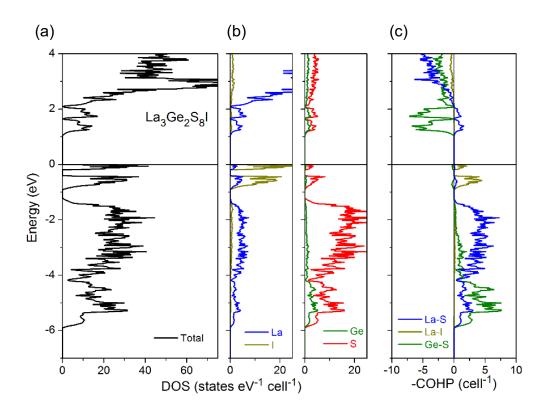


Figure 2-3. (a) Density of states (DOS) (b) atomic projections, and (c) crystal orbital Hamilton population (–COHP) curves for La₃Ge₂S₈I.

The optical band gaps are 3.1 eV for La₃Ge₂S₈I, 2.7 eV for Ce₃Ge₂S₈I, and 2.9 eV for Pr₃Ge₂S₈I, as extrapolated from the absorption edges of the UV-vis-NIR diffuse reflectance spectra, converted to absorption spectra (**Figure 2-4**). For La₃Ge₂S₈I, the observed band gap is significantly larger than found in the electronic structure calculated from the LMTO method (with a discrepancy of similar magnitude as found for Ce₃Si₂S₈I),¹² which tends to underestimate the gap, but it is consistent with the nearly colourless appearance of crystals of La₃Ge₂S₈I. For comparison, the experimental band gap of the Si-containing analogues are larger, 3.9 eV for La₃Si₂S₈I and 2.9 eV for Ce₃Si₂S₈I.¹³

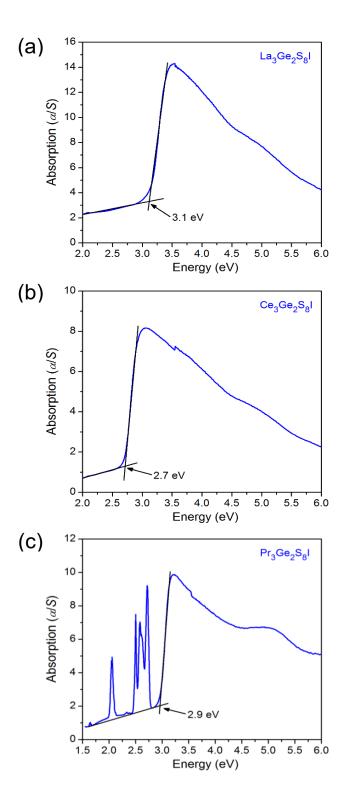


Figure 2-4. Optical absorption spectra, converted from the diffuse reflectance spectra, for (a) $La_3Ge_2S_8I$, (b) $Ce_3Ge_2S_8I$, and (c) $Pr_3Ge_2S_8I$.

Magnetic susceptibility measurements made on Ce₃Ge₂S₈I and Pr₃Ge₂S₈I, which contain *RE* components with unpaired f electrons, reveal simple paramagnetism with no obvious transitions down to 2 K (**Figure 2-5**). The linear portions of the inverse magnetic susceptibility (over the entire temperature range for Ce₃Ge₂S₈I and above ~20 K for Pr₃Ge₂S₈I) were fit to the Curie-Weiss law, $\chi = C / (T - \theta_p)$. The effective magnetic moments evaluated from the Curie constant, through $\mu_{eff} = (8C)^{1/2}$, were 4.51(1) μ_B /f.u. for Ce₃Ge₂S₈I and 6.20(1) μ_B /f.u. for Pr₃Ge₂S₈I. If the *RE* atoms are assumed to be the only contribution to the effective magnetic moment, according to $\mu_{eff} = (3\mu_{RE}^{2})^{1/2}$, the values of μ_{RE} are 2.60(1) μ_B /Ce for Ce₃Ge₂S₈I and 3.63(1) μ_B /Pr for Pr₃Ge₂S₈I, in good agreement with the theoretical free-ion values of 2.54 μ_B for Ce³⁺ and 3.58 μ_B for Pr³⁺. The paramagnetic Coupling of the *RE* atoms, which are quite far apart (4.5 Å) from each other. In comparison, Ce₃Si₂S₈I also follows the Curie-Weiss law with $\mu_{eff} = 2.45(2) \mu_B/Ce$ and $\theta_p = -4.7(3)$ K.¹²

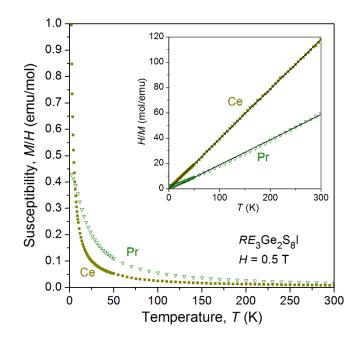


Figure 2-5. Magnetic susceptibility and its inverse (inset) for $RE_3Ge_2S_8I$ (RE = Ce, Pr).

2.4. Conclusions

The Ge-substituted analogues of $RE_3Si_2S_8I$ (RE = La-Nd, Sm, Tb) have been successfully prepared, but the range of RE substitution is even more limited to just the largest components, $RE_3Ge_2S_8I$ (RE = La-Pr). The structures can be viewed as consisting of isolated [GeS₄]^{4–} units in combination with monoatomic RE^{3+} and I[–] ions. Preliminary experiments in which powders of these samples were exposed to a handheld UV light source showed no visibly detectable luminescence.

2.5. References

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Chapter 3.

Controlling the Luminescence of Rare-Earth Chalcogenide Iodides $RE_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ (RE = La, Ce, Pr) and $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$

3.1. Introduction

Mixed-anion compounds, which contain more than one type of nonmetal anion, offer additional flexibility to control the structures and properties of an inorganic solid beyond what could be accomplished by the conventional approach of varying the metal cations alone. The challenge is that the atomic features (e.g., size, electronegativity, charge) for multiple nonmetals vary more significantly than for metals, so that it is not obvious that simple substitution strategies will succeed. Nevertheless, many promising materials for applications such as batteries, thermoelectrics, ferroelectrics, and optical materials have now been identified, especially among oxyhalides, oxychalcogenides, and oxypnictides.^{1–6}

Chalcogenide halides (or "chalcohalides") form a class of mixed-anion compounds that have recently gained popularity as energy materials, on the assumption that a combination of chalcogenide (*Ch*) and halide ions offers further ability to tune properties.⁷ Among these compounds, those containing rare-earth (*RE*) metals could exhibit interesting magnetic and optical properties arising from the localized f-electrons of the *RE* cations, but they remain relatively rare, numbering around 50.⁸ Within the family of quaternary sulfide halides *RE*₃Si₂S₈X (*RE* = early rare-earth metals; X = Cl, Br, I), the Ce-containing members were first reported to exhibit strong luminescence in the blue region.^{9–15} Subsequently, La₃Si₂S₈Br was exploited as a host to prepare phosphors that give broadband emission in the cyan region when doped with Ce³⁺ or in the redorange region when doped with Eu²⁺, demonstrating promise for applications in phosphorconverted white light emitting diodes.¹⁶ Luminescent materials based on sulfides provide advantages over oxides because their greater covalency tends to shift the emission wavelengths toward the visible region; thus, SrS, ZnS, and SrGa₂S₄ are well known to act as hosts in electroluminescent devices.^{17–19} On the other hand, these sulfides tend to be less stable and require encapsulation. There remains a pressing need for other sulfides that could act as hosts for phosphors, especially with the ability to tune the emission wavelength.

Expanding the palette of compositions for these quaternary sulfide halides $RE_3Si_2S_8X$, we recently prepared the Ge-containing analogues $RE_3Ge_2S_8I^{20}$ The environment around the two types of *RE* atoms in the structure of all $RE_3Tt_2S_8X$ [*Tt* (tetrel) = Si, Ge] compounds is highly heterogeneous, consisting of S and X atoms in the first coordination sphere and *Tt* atoms in the second coordination sphere, all within 4 Å. Given that the emission of light in the original Ce₃Si₂S₈X series results from transitions between 4f and 5d states of the cerium ions, it can be hypothesized that the centroid shift and crystal field effects on the d-orbitals are strongly influenced by changing the environment around them, thereby enabling control of the emission properties.¹⁶ To investigate these effects, we attempt the preparation of solid solutions $RE_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$, in which the tetrel cations are mixed, and Ce₃Si₂(S_{1-y}Se_y)₈I, in which the chalcogen anions are mixed. Their luminescence properties were measured and related to changes in the crystal and electronic structures.

3.2. Experimental Section

3.2.1. Synthesis

Starting materials were freshly filed rare-earth metal pieces (RE = La, Ce, Pr; 99.9%, Hefa), germanium powder (99.999%, Alfa Aesar), silicon lumps (99.9999%, Alfa Aesar), sulfur flakes (99.998%, Sigma-Aldrich), selenium powder (99.99%, Onyxmet), and iodine crystals (99.8%,

Anachemia). Various members of the solid solutions $RE_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ and $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$ were targeted by combining the elements in stoichiometric ratios on a 0.5-g scale, with a 10 wt. % excess of I₂ added. The mixtures were cold-pressed into pellets (10 mm diameter) and placed into fused-silica tubes, which were evacuated to 10^{-3} mbar and sealed (12 mm diameter and 15 cm length). The tubes were heated to 300 °C, at a slow ramp rate at 2 °C/min to minimize volatilization losses of sulfur and iodine, held at that temperature for 2 d, heated 2 °C/min to 900 °C, held there for 7 d, and then cooled to room temperature over 2 d. Most of the excess I₂ was found to be deposited at the other end of the tubes. The resulting products were ground and stored in vials under ambient conditions.

Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns of the samples were collected on a Bruker D8 Advance diffractometer equipped with a Cu $K\alpha_1$ radiation source operated at 40 kV and 40 mA. Rietveld refinements of these patterns were carried out using the TOPAS Academic software package, with the background modeled by a 12-term polynomial function (**Figure A1-1** to **Figure A1-4**).²¹ Refined cell parameters were extracted from these patterns (**Table A1-1**).

Energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) analyses were performed on a Zeiss Sigma 300 VP field emission scanning electron microscope operated with an accelerating voltage of 15 kV and equipped with a Bruker Quantax 600 system with dual X-Flash 6/60 detectors. A representative elemental map for Ce₃Si₂S₈I confirms a homogeneous distribution of all elements (**Figure A1-5**). The elemental compositions were determined from area analysis of the powder samples and multiple point analyses of several single crystals for each sample, with acquisition times of 120 s (**Table A1-2**). These compositions agree reasonably well with expectations, although in some cases, deposition of excess iodine was noted, as evidenced by dark coloration on the surface of crystals. These samples can be easily cleaned by washing with organic solvents such as hexane.

3.2.2. Structure Determination

Single-crystal X-ray diffraction experiments for various members of the solid solutions $RE_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ and $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$ were carried out on a Bruker PLATFORM diffractometer equipped with a graphite monochromated Mo K α radiation source and a SMART APEX II CCD detector. Intensity data were collected at room temperature using ω scans at eight different ϕ angles with a frame width of 0.3° and exposure times of 10 s per frame. Face-indexed numerical absorption corrections were applied to all data sets. Structure solution and refinement were carried out using the SHELXTL program package.²²

Based on the Laue symmetry, intensity statistics, and systematic absences, the monoclinic space group C2/c was chosen. Direct methods confirmed the La₃Si₂O₈Cl-type structure expected for these compounds.²³ To treat disorder of Ge and Si atoms in $RE_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$, the sum of the occupancies of these atoms in the sole tetrel site was constrained to unity and their displacement parameters were fixed to be equal. Similarly, to treat disorder of S and Se atoms in Ce₃Si₂(S_{1-y}Se_y)₈I, each of the four chalcogen sites was first examined individually, by allowing them to be fully occupied by a mixture of these atoms. Then, the refinement was relaxed with the occupancies of all four sites being freed simultaneously, with no constraint imposed on the sum of the occupancies over these sites. The refinements were stable, and the occupancies converged to reasonable values, leading to chemical formulas that agree well with the nominally loaded compositions in the syntheses.

Atomic positions were standardized using the program STRUCTURE TIDY.²⁴ No additional symmetry was detected by the ADDSYM routine in PLATON.²⁵ Full information about the structure refinement results, atomic coordinates, displacement parameters, and interatomic distances are provided in **Table A1-3 to Table A1-5**. Abbreviated crystal data and ranges of interatomic distances are listed in **Table 3-1 to Table 3-2**.

	La ₃ Ge _{1.5} Si _{0.5} S ₈ I	La ₃ GeSiS ₈ I	La ₃ Ge _{0.5} Si _{1.5} S ₈ I	$Ce_3Ge_{1.5}Si_{0.5}S_8I$	Ce ₃ GeSiS ₈ I
refined composition	$La_{3}Ge_{1.55(1)}Si_{0.45(1)}S_{8}I$	$La_3Ge_{0.98(2)}Si_{1.02(2)}S_8I$	$La_3Ge_{0.52(1)}Si_{1.48(1)}S_8I$	$Ce_3Ge_{1.55(1)}Si_{0.45(1)}S_8I$	$Ce_3Ge_{0.96(2)}Si_{1.04(2)}S_8I$
fw (amu)	923.04	900.79	878.54	926.67	908.42
<i>a</i> (Å)	16.1274(13)	16.127(2)	16.137(16)	16.0237(10)	16.014(2)
<i>b</i> (Å)	7.9621(6)	7.9458(11)	7.921(8)	7.8998(5)	7.8845(11)
<i>c</i> (Å)	10.9988(9)	10.9756(15)	10.959(11)	10.9439(7)	10.9249(15)
β (deg.)	98.0961(15)	98.019(3)	97.957(18)	98.1716(10)	98.063(3)
$V(Å^3)$	1398.26(19)	1392.7(3)	1387(2)	1371.26(15)	1365.8(3)
$ ho_{ m c}~(m g~cm^{-3})$	4.385	4.296	4.206	4.489	4.398
$\mu(\mathrm{mm}^{-1})$	15.56	14.61	13.65	16.48	15.52
$R(F)$ for $F_{o}^{2} > 2\sigma(F_{o}^{2})^{b}$	0.037	0.052	0.044	0.026	0.047
$R_{\rm w}(F_{\rm o}^2)^{c}$	0.084	0.141	0.113	0.054	0.124
	$Ce_3Ge_{0.5}Si_{1.5}S_8I$	$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.5}Se_{0.5}I$	Ce ₃ Si ₂ S ₇ SeI	Pr ₃ GeSiS ₈ I	
refined composition	$Ce_{3}Ge_{0.5}Si_{1.5}S_{8}I$ $Ce_{3}Ge_{0.43(1)}Si_{1.57(1)}S_{8}I$	$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.5}Se_{0.5}I$ $Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.55(1)}Se_{0.45(1)}I$	$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7}SeI \\ Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.00(2)}Se_{1.00(2)}I \\$	$Pr_{3}GeSiS_{8}I$ $Pr_{3}Ge_{1.01(2)}Si_{0.99(2)}S_{8}I$	
refined composition fw (amu)					
	$Ce_{3}Ge_{0.43(1)}Si_{1.57(1)}S_{8}I$	$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.55(1)}Se_{0.45(1)}I$	$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.00(2)}Se_{1.00(2)}I$	$Pr_3Ge_{1.01(2)}Si_{0.99(2)}S_8I$	
fw (amu)	$Ce_{3}Ge_{0.43(1)}Si_{1.57(1)}S_{8}I$ 882.17	Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{7.55(1)} Se _{0.45(1)} I 883.37	$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.00(2)}Se_{1.00(2)}I$ 906.82	$\frac{Pr_{3}Ge_{1.01(2)}Si_{0.99(2)}S_{8}I}{906.79}$	
fw (amu) <i>a</i> (Å)	Ce ₃ Ge _{0.43(1)} Si _{1.57(1)} S ₈ I 882.17 15.9844(11)	Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{7.55(1)} Se _{0.45(1)} I 883.37 15.9941(12)	Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{7.00(2)} Se _{1.00(2)} I 906.82 16.046(2)	Pr ₃ Ge _{1.01(2)} Si _{0.99(2)} S ₈ I 906.79 15.908(4)	
fw (amu) a (Å) b (Å)	Ce ₃ Ge _{0.43(1)} Si _{1.57(1)} S ₈ I 882.17 15.9844(11) 7.8676(6)	Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{7.55(1)} Se _{0.45(1)} I 883.37 15.9941(12) 7.8706(6)	Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{7.00(2)} Se _{1.00(2)} I 906.82 16.046(2) 7.8872(11)	Pr ₃ Ge _{1.01(2)} Si _{0.99(2)} S ₈ I 906.79 15.908(4) 7.8343(19)	
fw (amu) a (Å) b (Å) c (Å)	Ce ₃ Ge _{0.43(1)} Si _{1.57(1)} S ₈ I 882.17 15.9844(11) 7.8676(6) 10.8912(8)	Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{7.55(1)} Se _{0.45(1)} I 883.37 15.9941(12) 7.8706(6) 10.8909(8)	Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{7.00(2)} Se _{1.00(2)} I 906.82 16.046(2) 7.8872(11) 10.9161(16)	Pr ₃ Ge _{1.01(2)} Si _{0.99(2)} S ₈ I 906.79 15.908(4) 7.8343(19) 10.864(3)	
fw (amu) a (Å) b (Å) c (Å) β (deg.)	$\begin{array}{c} Ce_{3}Ge_{0.43(1)}Si_{1.57(1)}S_{8}I\\ 882.17\\ 15.9844(11)\\ 7.8676(6)\\ 10.8912(8)\\ 98.0066(14) \end{array}$	Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{7.55(1)} Se _{0.45(1)} I 883.37 15.9941(12) 7.8706(6) 10.8909(8) 97.8085(13)	Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{7.00(2)} Se _{1.00(2)} I 906.82 16.046(2) 7.8872(11) 10.9161(16) 97.689(3)	Pr ₃ Ge _{1.01(2)} Si _{0.99(2)} S ₈ I 906.79 15.908(4) 7.8343(19) 10.864(3) 98.191(5)	
fw (amu) a (Å) b (Å) c (Å) β (deg.) V (Å ³)	Ce ₃ Ge _{0.43(1)} Si _{1.57(1)} S ₈ I 882.17 15.9844(11) 7.8676(6) 10.8912(8) 98.0066(14) 1356.31(17)	Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{7.55(1)} Se _{0.45(1)} I 883.37 15.9941(12) 7.8706(6) 10.8909(8) 97.8085(13) 1358.27(18)	Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{7.00(2)} Se _{1.00(2)} I 906.82 16.046(2) 7.8872(11) 10.9161(16) 97.689(3) 1369.1(3)	Pr ₃ Ge _{1.01(2)} Si _{0.99(2)} S ₈ I 906.79 15.908(4) 7.8343(19) 10.864(3) 98.191(5) 1340.1(6)	
fw (amu) a (Å) b (Å) c (Å) β (deg.) V (Å ³) ρ_{c} (g cm ⁻³)	Ce ₃ Ge _{0.43(1)} Si _{1.57(1)} S ₈ I 882.17 15.9844(11) 7.8676(6) 10.8912(8) 98.0066(14) 1356.31(17) 4.320	Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{7.55(1)} Se _{0.45(1)} I 883.37 15.9941(12) 7.8706(6) 10.8909(8) 97.8085(13) 1358.27(18) 4.320	Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{7.00(2)} Se _{1.00(2)} I 906.82 16.046(2) 7.8872(11) 10.9161(16) 97.689(3) 1369.1(3) 4.399	Pr ₃ Ge _{1.01(2)} Si _{0.99(2)} S ₈ I 906.79 15.908(4) 7.8343(19) 10.864(3) 98.191(5) 1340.1(6) 4.494	

Table 3-1. Abbreviated Crystallographic Data for $RE_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ and $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$.^{*a*}

^{*a*} For all structures, space group C2/c (no. 15), Z = 4, T = 296(2) K, $\lambda = 0.71073$ Å. ^{*b*} $R_w(F_o^2) = \left[\sum [w(F_o^2 - F_c^2)^2] / \sum wF_o^4\right]^{1/2}$; $w^{-1} = [\sigma^2(F_o^2) + (Ap)^2 + Bp]$, where $p = \left[\max(F_o^2, 0) + 2F_c^2\right] / 3$.

	$La_3Ge_{1.5}Si_{0.5}S_8I$	La ₃ GeSiS ₈ I	$La_3Ge_{0.5}Si_{1.5}S_8I$	$Ce_3Ge_{1.5}Si_{0.5}S_8I$	Ce ₃ GeSiS ₈ I	$Ce_3Ge_{0.5}Si_{1.5}S_8I$
RE1-Ch	2.966(2)-3.131(2)	2.960(3)-3.131(3)	2.957(3)-3.129(3)	2.9368(12)-3.1118(13)	2.942(3)-3.110(3)	2.9341(17)-3.0982(18)
RE1–I	3.4636(5)	3.4610(8)	3.462(3)	3.4489(3)	3.4457(7)	3.4379(5)
RE2–Ch	2.928(2)-3.362(2)	2.931(3)-3.334(3)	2.933(3)-3.316(3)	2.9069(12)-3.3661(13)	2.909(3)-3.334(3)	2.9068(17)-3.3051(18)
RE2–I	3.3206(11)	3.3227(14)	3.322(3)	3.2820(6)	3.2852(13)	3.2910(9)
Tt–Ch	2.169(2)-2.199(2)	2.150(3)-2.172(3)	2.125(3)-2.157(3)	2.1686(13)-2.1958(13)	2.140(3)-2.170(3)	2.120(2)-2.149(2)
	$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.5}Se_{0.5}I$	Ce ₃ Si ₂ S ₇ SeI	Ce ₃ Si ₂ S ₄ Se ₄ I	Ce ₃ Si ₂ S ₇ SeI	Pr ₃ GeSiS ₈ I	
RE1-Ch	2.9263(12)-3.0958(12)	2.929(3)-3.104(3)	2.9717(5)-3.1498(5)	3.0508(11)-3.2124(12)	2.919(3)-3.090(3)	
RE1-I	3.4418(4)	3.4567(9)	3.5103(2)	3.6007(7)	3.4306(9)	
RE2–Ch	2.9126(12)-3.2972(10)	2.922(3)-3.304(2)	2.9438(6)-3.3601(4)	3.0084(11)-3.5157(11)	2.891(3)-3.342(3)	
RE2–I	3.2944(7)	3.2948(17)	3.3109(4)	3.2830(13)	3.2513(16)	
Tt–Ch	2.1085(17)-2.1552(16)	2.108(4)-2.182(4)	2.1483(10)-2.2453(9)	2.245(3)-2.272(3)	2.139(3)-2.169(3)	

Table 3-2. Ranges of Interatomic Distances (Å) for $RE_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ and $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$.

3.2.3. Property Measurements

Thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) was performed on a Perkin Elmer Pyris 1 instrument. The samples were heated under an Ar atmosphere at a rate of 10 °C/min from 25 to 950 °C.

Optical diffuse reflectance spectra were measured from 200 nm (6.2 eV) to 2500 nm (0.50 eV) on a Cary 5000 UV-vis-NIR spectrophotometer equipped with a diffuse reflectance accessory. An optical polytetrafluoroethylene disc with >98% reflectivity was used as a reflectance standard. The absorption spectra were converted from the optical reflectance data using the Kubelka-Munk function, $F(R) = \alpha/S = (1-R)^2/2R$, where α is the Kubelka–Munk absorption coefficient, S is the scattering coefficient, and R is the reflectance.²⁶

Excitation and emission spectra were obtained on a Horiba PTI QM-8075-11 fluorescence system with a 75 W Xenon arc lamp as an excitation source and equipped with an integrated sphere. The steady-state photoluminescence (PL) was excited with a 364+352-nm (combined UV lines) Arion laser source operated at a power of 2 mW. Photoluminescence spectra spectra were collected using an intensity-calibrated Ocean Optics USB2000+ miniature spectrometer with a 375-nm long-pass filter to block the scattered laser light. Time-resolved PL employed an Alphalas picopower 405-nm diode laser (nominally 25-ps pulses) at a repetition rate of 4.1 MHz to excite the sample and a Becker-Hickl HPM100-50 hybrid single photon counting detector with a measured instrument response time of ~400 ps. Data collection was performed using a single photon counting module (SPM-130-EMN) from Becker-Hickl.

X-ray photoelectron spectra (XPS) for several members of $Ce_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ and $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$ were collected using a Kratos AXIS Supra XPS instrument equipped with a monochromatic Al K α X-ray source (1487 eV) operating under high vacuum in the analytical

chamber. All samples were sputter-cleaned for nearly 1 h with an Ar^+ -ion beam (4 kV, 10 mA) to remove surface oxide contaminants, down to a level of ~5 to 6 at. % oxygen. Survey spectra confirmed the presence of all expected elements. High-resolution Ce 3d spectra were then collected with energy envelopes in the range of 60 to 20 eV, step size of 0.05 eV, and pass energy of 20 eV. The spectra were calibrated by setting the C 1s binding energy (BE) of adventitious carbon to 289.8 eV. The XPS spectra were analyzed using the CasaXPS software program.²⁷

3.2.4. Electronic Structure Calculations

Ordered models for various members of the solid solutions $Ce_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ and $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$ were generated using the program Supercell (version 2.0).²⁸ The electronic structure and density of states (DOS) were determined by first-principles calculations using the projected augmented wave (PAW) method as implemented in the Vienna ab initio simulation package (VASP, version 5.4.4).²⁹ Exchange and correlation were treated in this density functional theory (DFT) method by the generalized gradient approximation, as parameterized by Perdew, Burke, and Ernzerhof.³⁰ PAW potentials (Ce_3, Si, Ge_d, S, Se, I) were used, with the plane-wave basis cutoff energy set to 450 eV. To contend with the difficulties inherent in DFT of describing f-electrons, the Ce_3 potential was chosen in which the f-electrons in trivalent cerium are treated as core states. The first Brillouin zone was sampled by a gamma-centred $6 \times 13 \times 9 k$ -point mesh for DOS calculations. The convergence criteria were set to 10^{-6} eV for electronic optimization and $|-2 \times 10^{-2}|$ eV for ionic relaxation. Electron localization functions (ELF) were plotted using VESTA, and Bader charges were evaluated.³¹⁻³³ Projected crystal orbital Hamilton populations (-pCOHP) and crystal orbital bond indices (COBI) were determined using the program LOBSTER (version 4.1.0).³⁴⁻³⁶

3.3. Results and Discussion

3.3.1. Solid Solutions

Several solid solutions derived from $RE_3Ge_2S_8I$ (RE = La, Ce, Pr) were targeted by reactions of the elements at 900 °C. Substitution of Ge with Si led to the complete solid solutions $RE_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ ($0 \le x \le 1$) with all samples being phase pure, as confirmed by powder XRD patterns, and having elemental compositions in agreement with expectations, as confirmed by EDX analyses. They appear light yellow or nearly colourless for $La_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$, yellow for $Ce_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$, and green for $Pr_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$, with no visibly discernible difference in colours among members within each series. The unit cell volumes, as determined from the monoclinic cell parameters refined from the powder XRD patterns, shrink as the Si content (x) increases, following a nearly linear dependence in accordance with Vegard's law (Figure 3-1(a)). Other attempts were made to prepare solid solutions with different combinations of tetrel atoms, but they were unsuccessful. For example, when members of $Ce_3(Si_{1-z}Sn_z)_2S_8I$ were targeted, complex mixtures containing Ce₃Si₂S₈I, Ce₂SnS₅, SnI₄, and other phases were obtained instead. These results are understandable in terms of the classical Hume-Rothery rules for the formation of substitutional solid solutions. The solid solutions $RE_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ are feasible because the atomic radii (on whatever scale) for Ge and Si are not too different, but more importantly, the end members $RE_3Ge_2S_8I$ and $RE_2Si_2S_8I$ exist and adopt the same crystal structure. In contrast, it is not surprising that solid solutions Ce₃(Si_{1-z}Sn_z)₂S₈I do not form, even with very low Sn content, because the atomic radii are too disparate (or near the limits of formability of solid solutions for Ge and Sn, with a $\sim 14\%$ difference in covalent radii) and the end member "Ce₃Sn₂S₈I" does not exist.

It is not so obvious if mixing of the chalcogen anions would be achievable. Solid solutions derived from Ce₃Si₂S₈I were targeted in which S was gradually substituted by Se. Initially, members of the solid solution Ce₃Si₂(S_{1-y}Se_y)₈I were only prepared and characterized up to a partial substitution level of y = 0.19, because the photoluminescence (presented later) had already rapidly quenched up to this point, so no attempts were made to synthesize Se-richer members. Upon close inspection of the literature, the existence of Ce₃Si₂Se₈I has been implied but no publication has been forthcoming.¹¹ For completeness of this study, all remaining members of the solid solution Ce₃Si₂(S_{1-y}Se_y)₈I, including the all-selenium end-member Ce₃Si₂Se₈I, were subsequently targeted. They could be successfully prepared under the same experimental conditions as before. Pure phases of the complete solid solution Ce₃Si₂(S_{1-y}Se_y)₈I were obtained, with their cell volumes generally expanding as the Se content (*y*) increases (**Figure 3-1(b**)).

Single-crystal X-ray diffraction studies for several members of these solid solutions were conducted to examine the detailed structural changes taking place (**Table 3-1** and **Table 3-2**). The monoclinic crystal structure (La₃Si₂O₈Cl-type, space group C2/c)²³ of these compounds consists of two *RE*, one *Tt*, four *Ch*, and one I site (**Figure 3-2(a)**). This structure type is known so far for *RE*₃Si₂O₈Cl,^{23,37,38} *RE*₃Si₂S₈*X*(*X* = Cl, Br, I),^{9–16} and *RE*₃Ge₂S₈I,²⁰ with *RE* restricted to the early rare-earth metals. Isolated *TtCh*₄ tetrahedra are arranged in one-dimensional stacks, which are grouped in opposite-pointing pairs aligned along the *c*-direction. The three-dimensional packing of these stacks leads to large tunnels that are occupied by the I anions. The two types of *RE* atoms lie in the intervening spaces between the *TtCh*₄ tetrahedra. The coordination environment around each of these *RE* atoms consists of one I and eight *Ch* atoms in what could be approximated as tricapped trigonal prismatic geometry, but highly distorted, at distances up to 3.5 Å (**Figure 3-2(b)**). There are also *Tt* atoms slightly farther away, at distances up to 3.9 Å, three around *RE*1 and four around *RE*2.

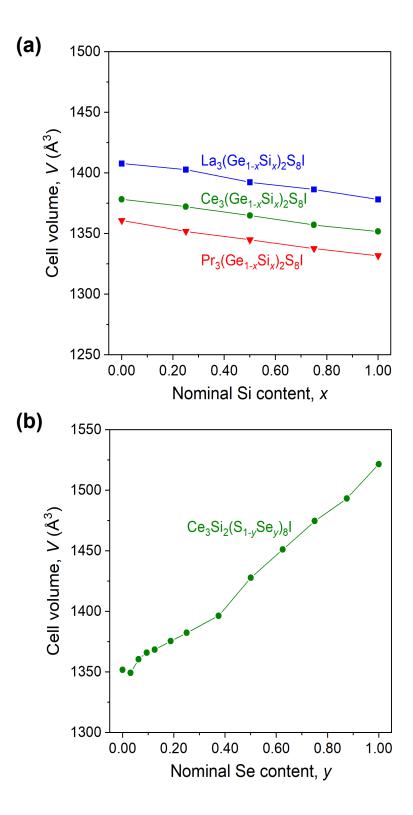


Figure 3-1. Evolution of unit cell volume for (a) $RE_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ (RE = La, Ce, Pr) and (b) $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$.

The *RE*–*Ch*, *RE*–I, and *Tt*–*Ch* interatomic distances in these compounds are generally consistent with the sum of ionic radii (IR values of 1.22 Å for La³⁺ (CN9), 1.20 Å for Ce³⁺ (CN9), 1.18 Å for Pr³⁺ (CN9), 0.39 Å for Ge⁴⁺ (CN4), 0.26 Å for Si⁴⁺ (CN4), 1.84 Å for S^{2–} (CN6), 1.98 Å for Se^{2–} (CN6), and 2.20 Å for I[–] (CN6))³⁹ (**Table 3-2**). Plots of these distances for different members of the solid solutions show the trends more clearly (**Figure 3-3**). Within the mixed-tetrel solid solutions *RE*₃(Ge_{1–x}Si_x)₂S₈I (*RE* = La, Ce, Pr), the main effects of substituting Si for Ge are to shorten the *Tt*–S bonds regularly, while the other distances remain relatively constant within a given series, and to result in a slightly less distorted coordination environment around the *RE*2 atoms. For example, for Ce₃(Ge_{1–x}Si_x)₂S₈I, the *Tt*–S distances decrease from 2.19–2.22 Å to 2.10–2.13 Å, and the Ce2–S distances change from 2.91–3.39 Å to 2.90–3.28 Å on proceeding from Ce₃Ge₂S₈I to Ce₃Si₂S₈I.

For the mixed-chalcogen solid solution $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$, structure refinements were initially performed on $Ce_3Si_2S_{7.5}Se_{0.5}I$ and $Ce_3Si_2S_7SeI$, which revealed evidence for site preference as Se substitutes for S. Only one of four *Ch* sites (labeled as *Ch*1) permits mixing of S and Se atoms, whereas the remaining three are almost exclusively occupied by S atoms (**Table A1-4**). In view of this interesting result, additional experiments were later conducted to determine the detailed structures of Se-richer members $Ce_3Si_2S_4Se_4I$ and $Ce_3Si_2Se_8I$. At the midpoint of the solid solution, the Se atoms prefer to occupy the sites following the order *Ch*1 > *Ch*3, *Ch*2 > *Ch*4. This sequence correlates strongly with the bonds to the Si atoms, with the more distant *Ch* sites being preferentially occupied by larger Se atoms. With increasing Se substitution, the Si*Ch*4 tetrahedra become more distorted, as the Si–*Ch* distances change from 2.10–2.13 Å in $Ce_3Si_2Se_8I$ ^{9–11} to 2.15–2.25 Å in $Ce_3Si_2S_4Se_4I$, and then they become more regular again, with Si–Se distances of 2.25–2.27 Å in $Ce_3Si_2Se_8I$.

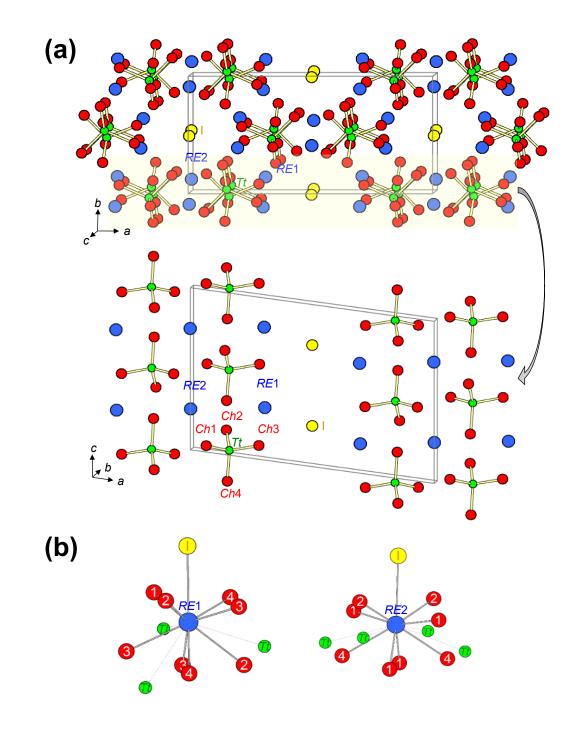


Figure 3-2. (a) Structure of $RE_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ (RE = La, Ce, Pr) and $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$ viewed down the *c*-direction (upper panel) and highlighting a slice parallel to the *ac*-plane (lower panel). (b) Coordination environments around *RE* atoms, consisting of *Ch* and I atoms at distances up to 3.5 Å, and *Tt* atoms at distances up to 3.9 Å.

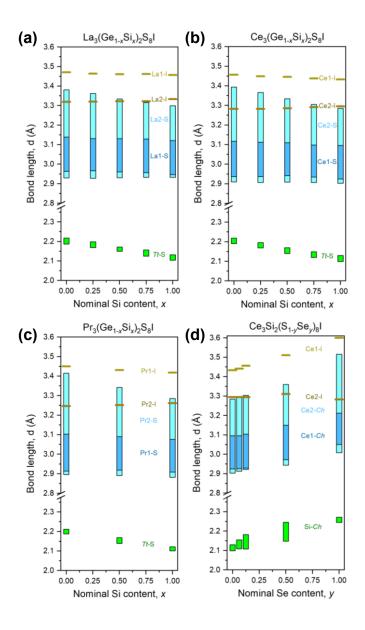


Figure 3-3. Bond length ranges within the solid solutions $RE_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ (RE = La, Ce, Pr) and $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$. Data for the end-members of $RE_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ were taken from previous reports.

All of the $RE_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ and $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$ samples were stable and suffered no degradation upon exposure to ambient conditions. For example, the powder XRD patterns of samples of $RE_3Ge_2S_8I$, which were stored with no special precautions, remained unchanged after four years. The thermal stability of one compound, $Ce_3Si_{1.5}Ge_{0.5}S_8I$, was tested by a TGA experiment (**Figure A1-6**). A small weight loss (4.5%) occurs during heating from room temperature to 200 °C, and then significant weight loss takes place at 750 °C, presumably upon formation of volatile sulfur- and iodine-containing species, as the sample decomposes rapidly. (*Caution: The platinum crucible serving as the sample holder becomes embrittled after this experiment, resulting in temporary banishment from the analysis facility.*)

3.3.2. Optical Band Gaps

The optical diffuse reflectance spectra, which were converted through the Kubelka-Munk function to absorption spectra and normalized (**Figure 3-4**). These spectra show strong absorption edges, from which optical band gaps were determined (representative examples of fittings are shown for La₃(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)₂S₈I in **Figure A1-7**) and plotted (**Table A1-6 and Figure 3-5**). The spectra are similar for La₃(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)₂S₈I and Pr₃(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)₂S₈I, except that localized f-f transitions from the unpaired electrons of rare-earth ions give rise to sharp peaks in the latter, appearing at energies lower than the absorption arising from the band gap transition (valence to conduction bands). For these two series, the band gaps shift to higher energy upon greater substitution of Ge by Si, from 3.0 to 3.6 eV for the La-containing series, or from 3.0 to 3.4 eV for the Pr-containing series. The shift progresses fairly smoothly over most of the range but is more marked over the last increment, from *RE*₃Ge_{0.2}Si_{1.8}S₈I to *RE*₃Si₂S₈I.

The spectra for the Ce-containing series $Ce_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ and $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$ show absorption edges that are assigned to transitions from localized mid-gap cerium 4f states to the bottom of the conduction band, which has contributions from cerium 5d states. Although the spectra are not identical within $Ce_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$, the energy shifts are quite small and lie in a range of 2.7–2.8 eV.^{11,} ²⁰ The profile of the absorption edge also becomes less sharp for $Ce_3Si_2S_8I$; this smearing is typically attributed to additional defect states found below the conduction band. For $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$, substitution of Se for S causes the energy gap to decrease gradually from 2.8 eV (at y = 0) to 1.9 eV (at y = 1.0). Most of the general trends in band gap energy are understandable in terms of changes to the bonding character upon substitution. Greater covalent character would be imparted by the presence of Ge instead of Si atoms, or by Se instead of S atoms, leading to smaller gaps for compounds containing more of these substituents.

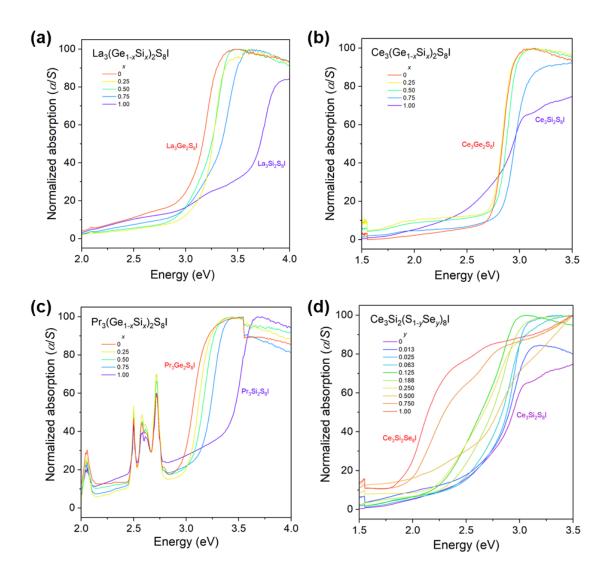


Figure 3-4. Normalized diffuse reflectance spectra for selected members of solid solutions $RE_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ (RE = La, Ce, Pr) and $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$.

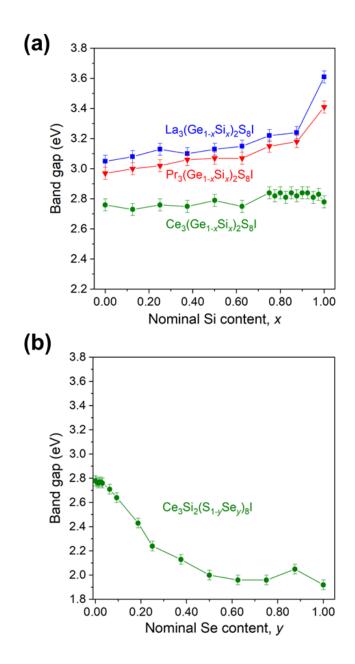


Figure 3-5. Optical band gaps for (a) $RE_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ (RE = La, Ce, Pr) and (b) $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$.

3.3.3. Electronic Structure

To gain further insight on the experimental results above, DFT calculations were performed on models of $Ce_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ (x = 0-1) and $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$ (y = 0-0.25). The band dispersion diagrams show the presence of a direct band gap, with valence band maxima and conduction band minima at the Brillouin zone centre (Γ), for Ce₃(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)₂S₈I (**Figure 3-6(a)**). The extrema do not quite coincide at the Γ -point, but the band gap remains essentially direct for Ce₃Si₂(S_{1-y}Se_y)₈I (**Figure 3-6(b**)). Although the cerium f-electrons are frozen as core states in these calculations, the general trends in the calculated band gaps can be related to the shift in absorption edges, caused by cerium 4f-to-5d transitions, in the experimental optical spectra. The calculated band gap increases from 2.05 to 2.61 eV on progressing from Ce₃Ge₂S₈I to Ce₃Si₂S₈I, and it decreases from 2.61 to 2.38 eV on progressing from Ce₃Si₂S₆Se₂I. Although the magnitudes of band gaps calculated from DFT are recognized to be inaccurate without appropriate corrections applied, the trends are in good agreement with the shift in the observed optical absorption edges.

The contributions to bonding were evaluated from the DOS, COHP, and COBI curves (Figure A1-8 and Figure A1-9). The valence band is dominated by the nonmetal states, with contributions from iodine highest near the top, and results from mixing with the metal states to form metal-nonmetal (Ce–*Ch*, Ce–I, *Tt–Ch*) bonding interactions. The conduction band is dominated by the metal states, particularly cerium d-states near the bottom, and is characterized by cerium-chalcogen and tetrel-chalcogen antibonding interactions. The integrated values of COBI serve as a means to quantify the degree of covalent vs. ionic character in bonds (Table A1-7). In agreement with expectations, the bonds to cerium atoms are more ionic (ICOBI in units of eV/bond of 0.11–0.43 for Ce–S, 0.27–0.51 for Ce–Se, 0.16–0.57 for Ce–I) whereas the bonds to tetrel atoms are highly covalent (ICOBI of 0.85–0.93 for Ge–S, 0.86–0.97 for Si–S, 0.84–0.93 for Si–Se). The ELF plots emphasize this distinction in bonding character, in which the localized electron density around the cerium atoms can be contrasted with the shared electron density between the tetrel and chalcogen atoms (Figure A1-10). The Bader charges also tend to be less extreme around Ge (0.24+ to 0.75+) compared to Si atoms

(0.36+ to 1.09+), and around Se (0.43– to 0.72–) compared to S atoms (0.57– to 1.03–), corroborating expectations noted above for the relative covalent character of bonds to these atoms.

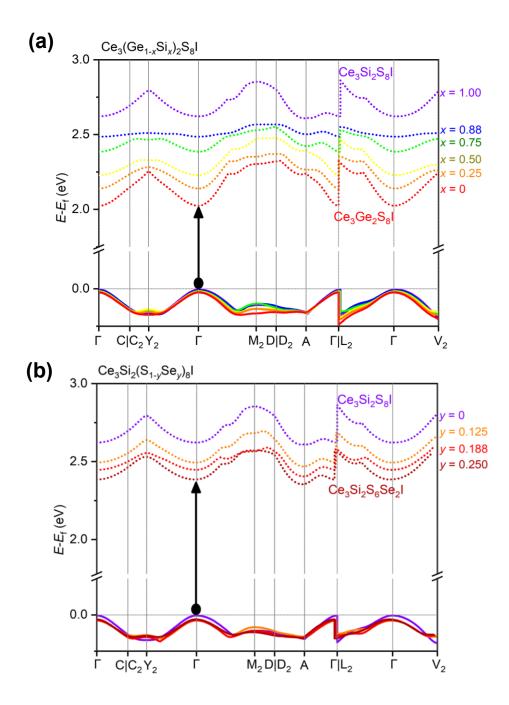


Figure 3-6. Band dispersion for (a) $Ce_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ and (b) $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$.

3.3.4. Photoluminescence

Initial excitation and emission spectra were collected for some of the Si-rich members of $Ce_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ (**Figure A1-11**). All subsequent spectra were collected using an ultraviolet Ar-ion laser source with excitation at 365+352 nm (combined UV lines), for various members of $Ce_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ and $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$ (**Figure 3-7**). The parent compound $Ce_3Si_2S_8I$ shows strong luminescence in the blue region, assigned to the parity-allowed electronic transition from the 5d to 4f orbitals of the cerium atoms. In accordance with a similar treatment for $(La_{0.90}Ce_{0.10})_3Si_2S_8Br$,¹⁶ the spectrum can be fitted to four Gaussian components, arising from spin-orbit coupling (${}^2F_{5/2}$ and ${}^2F_{7/2}$) of the 4f⁴ ground state for the two Ce sites (at 8f and 4e), which experience different environments; the splitting of 0.26 eV is typical of spin-orbit coupling interactions for Ce^{3+} ions (**Figure A1-12**).

Because the 5d orbitals are not well shielded, the expectation is that the emission spectra may be significantly influenced by the changes in the local environment around the Ce atoms. For Ce₃(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)₂S₈I, the photoluminescence intensity is rapidly quenched with greater concentration of Ge (**Figure 3-7(a**)). As indicated in the normalized spectra, the two peaks do not shift significantly in wavelength, but the component at shorter wavelength (near 450 nm) decreases in intensity relatively faster than the one at longer wavelength (near 490 nm). For Ce₃Si₂(S_{1-y}Se_y)₈I (**Figure 3-7(b**)), the photoluminescence intensity quenches with greater concentration of Se, but the peaks shift to longer wavelength, the spectral maximum increasing from 462 nm in Ce₃Si₂S₈I to 504 nm in Ce₃Si₂S_{6.5}Se_{1.5}I. This wavelength shift is consistent with the trend in the optical absorption edges found earlier in the diffuse reflectance spectra, in which the substitution of S by Se leads to a lowering of the 5d levels in the conduction band and a narrower energy gap. At a maximum concentration of 25% Ge (corresponding to Ce₃Ge_{0.5}Si_{1.5}S₈I) or 19% Se (corresponding to Ce₃Si₂S_{6.5}Se_{1.5}I), the photoluminescence intensity is less than 1% that of the parent compound Ce₃Si₂S₁₂S₁.

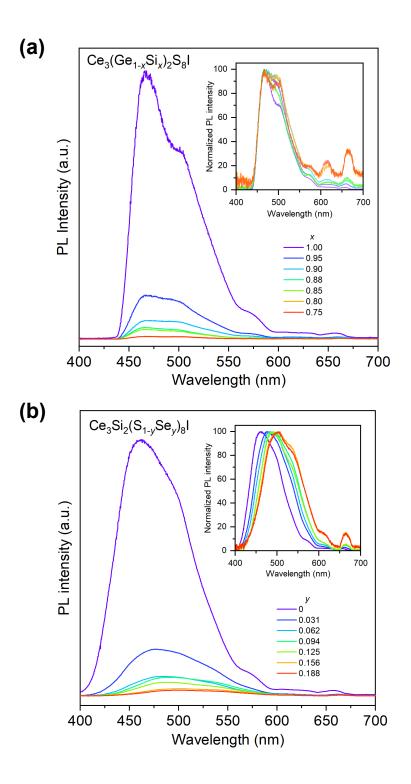


Figure 3-7. Photoluminescence emission spectra for $[\lambda_{ex} = 365+352 \text{ nm (combined UV lines)}]$ (a) Ce₃(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)₂S₈I (with filters applied to sharpen the peaks) and (b) Ce₃Si₂(S_{1-y}Se_y)₈I. Normalized spectra are shown in the insets.

The colour changes were quantified by extracting the chromaticity coordinates from the photoluminescence emission spectra. These coordinates were mapped onto the CIE 1931 colour space (**Table A1-8 and Figure 3-8**). For $Ce_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$, the shifts in the colour coordinates are small, with the Ge-richer members appearing slightly blue-green, compared to the blue colour of $Ce_3Si_2S_8I$, because the intensity of the emission peak component at shorter wavelength (near 450 nm) decreases faster relatively one at longer wavelength (near 489 nm). For $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$, there is a definite shift from blue to green with greater Se concentrations, clearly perceptible in the photographs of samples exposed to ultraviolet light. The samples do not degrade after repeated excitation (with an irradiation time around 2 min); for example, the powder XRD patterns for $Ce_3Si_2S_8I$ appear identical before and after the laser photoluminescence experiments (**Figure A1-13**).

Time-resolved photoluminescence (TRPL) experiments were performed for various members of Ce₃(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)₂S₈I and Ce₃Si₂(S_{1-y}Se_y)₈I. The decay lifetimes could not be adequately fit by a single or double exponential function, as expected on the basis of the curvature of the photoluminescence decay data on a semilog plot; instead, the curves were modeled with reasonably good results by fitting them to a lifetime distribution function (**Figure 3-9** and **Table A1-9**).⁴⁰ The observation that the photoluminescence decay functions appear to follow a distribution suggests that there are a range of emissive centres, consistent with the presence of two *RE* sites and the slightly different environments they experience due to the disorder of S and Se atoms immediately surrounding them or of Ge and Si atoms further away. The mean lifetime is longest for Ce₃Si₂S₈I (6.99 ns), and it becomes monotonically shorter as Si is substituted by Ge (1.81 ns for Ce₃Ge_{0.50}Si_{1.50}S₈I) or as S is substituted by Se (3.77 ns for Ce₃Si₂S_{6.50}Se_{1.50}I).

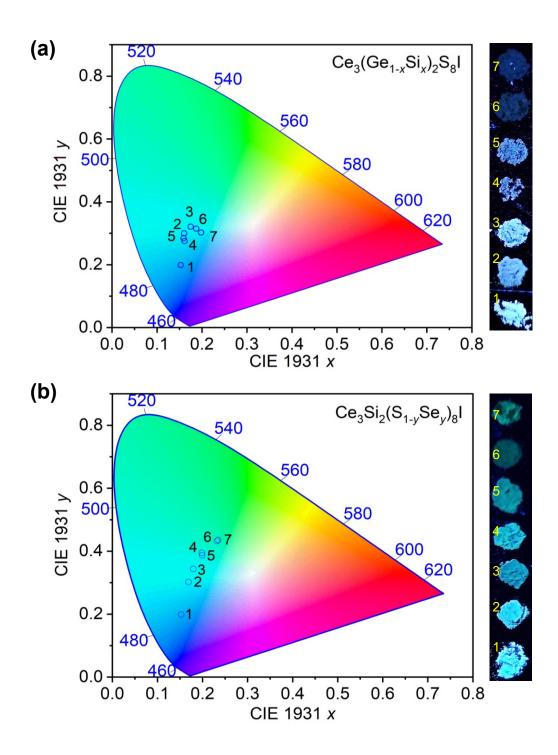


Figure 3-8. CIE 1931 colour coordinates for various members of (a) $Ce_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ and (b) $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$. The samples were exposed to ultraviolet light with wavelength of 365 nm. The brightness was adjusted to 40% and the contrast to -20% to improve visibility in the photos.

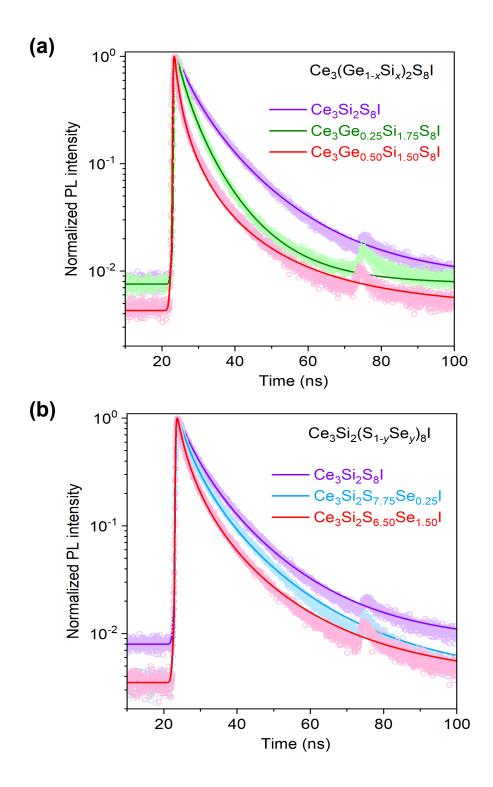


Figure 3-9. Photoluminescence decay curve ($\lambda_{ex} = 405 \text{ nm}$) for (a) Ce₃(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)₂S₈I and (b) Ce₃Si₂(S_{1-y}Se_y)₈I. The small bump near 75 ns is a reflection in the 5-meter long optical fibers.

Next, to assess the thermal quenching properties, which are important for applications in white light emitting diodes, the temperature dependence of the photoluminescence emission for Ce₃Si₂S₈I was examined. As the temperature increases from 30 to 200 °C, the emission becomes less intense. Vibrational levels within both ground and excited electronic states become increasingly populated, so that non-radiative relaxation processes become more probable (Figure 3-10(a)). The relative integrated intensity of the emission peaks is assumed to follow the relationship I(T) = $I_{o}/[1 + c \exp(-E_{a}/kT)]$, where I_{o} is the initial room-temperature intensity, E_{a} is an activation energy for thermal quenching and k is Boltzmann's constant.⁴¹ Fitting the data to this relationship gives an activation energy $E_a = 0.68$ eV for Ce₃Si₂S₈I (Figure 3-10(b)). This value is higher than $(La_{0.90}Ce_{0.10})_3(SiS_4)_2Br$ ($E_a = 0.29 \text{ eV}$).¹⁶ The thermal quenching temperature, at which the emission intensity has been reduced to half that at room temperature, is $T_{1/2} = 85$ °C. At typical working temperature in LEDs (420 K), the emission intensity remains ~ 20 % of that measured at room temperature, which suggests that the phosphor does not have good thermal-quenching properties. Preliminary experiments indicate that the photoluminescent quantum yield is 3% for Ce₃Si₂S₈I, suggesting significant migration to defect traps.



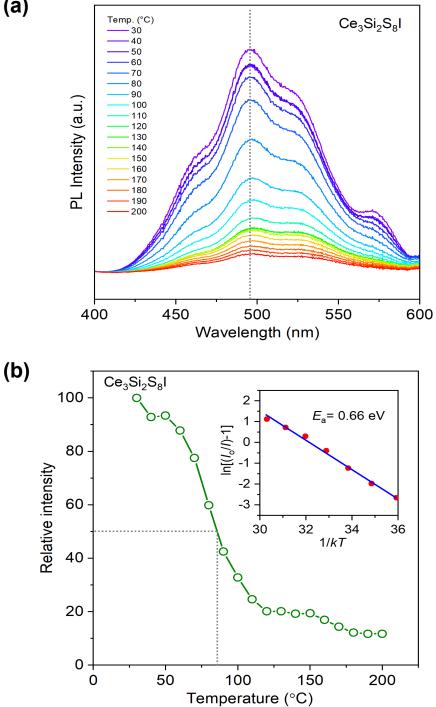


Figure 3-10. (a) Temperature-dependent photoluminescence emission spectra ($\lambda_{ex} = 365$ nm) for Ce₃Si₂S₈I. (b) Plot of relative integrated intensity of emission peaks. The inset shows an Arrhenius fitting to extract the activation energy.

Several hypotheses may be considered for the quenching of photoluminescence at higher concentrations of Ge or Se, relative to Ce₃Si₂S₈I. The electronic structure calculations presented earlier indicate that the band gap remains essentially direct for all members of $Ce_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ and $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-\nu}Se_{\nu})_8I$, so a change in the nature of the band gap can be largely ruled out. Because the cerium atoms are the only possible activator centres, a change in their oxidation states could potentially promote quenching. High-resolution cerium XPS spectra collected for several members of $Ce_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ and $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$ reveal the presence of Ce^{3+} , in accordance with expectations, but also a not-insignificant amount of Ce⁴⁺ (Table A1-10 and Figure A1-14). Ouantification of the component peaks, fit to Gaussian profiles, leads to a ratio of 75:25 of $Ce^{3+}:Ce^{4+}$. Given that the presence of Ce^{4+} species is highly improbable in a sulfide, we suggest that they may have formed from oxidation or decomposition processes over time. The more important observation is that the XPS spectra are identical for different members of $Ce_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ (Figure 3-11), indicating no change in cerium oxidation states. Thus, the most likely origin for quenching in these compounds is site disorder, which would lead to more disparate coordination environments around the cerium atoms in their excited states. Inspection of the bond distances obtained from the structure determinations (Figure 3-3) shows that Ge substitution does lead to wider ranges of Ce–S distances, whereas Se substitution necessarily leads to a mixture of Ce–S and Ce–Se bonds around the cerium atoms.

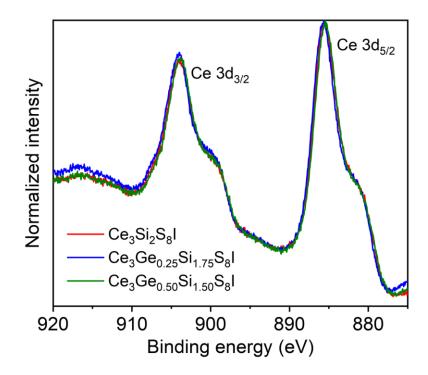


Figure 3-11. High-resolution cerium XPS spectra for various members of $Ce_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$.

3.4. Conclusions

The successful preparation of complete solid solutions $RE_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ (RE = La, Ce, Pr) and $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$ led to several observations about the effects of composition on the structures and properties, especially pertaining to the potential emissive centres in these compounds. Substituting Si for Ge atoms in $RE_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ leads to less distorted coordination environments around one of the two RE sites, with a narrower range of distances to the surrounding chalcogen atoms. Substituting a small amount of Se for S atoms in $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$ leads surprisingly to only a partially disordered environment around the RE centres, with one of the four Ch sites being preferentially occupied; at higher levels of substitution, the Se atoms tend to occupy the more distant sites to the Si atoms first. The optical band gaps evolve smoothly, generally increasing upon substitution of Si for Ge in $RE_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ and decreasing upon substitution of Se for S in Ce₃Si₂(S_{1-y}Se_y)₈I. The Ce-containing compounds Ce₃(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)₂S₈I and Ce₃Si₂(S_{1-y}Se_y)₈I act as phosphors, excitable over the range of 280 to 400 nm. The colours emitted by Ce₃(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)₂S₈I are relatively insensitive to Ge substitution, shifting slightly from blue to blue-green, but quenching occurs rapidly with small amounts of Ge. In contrast, the emission wavelengths are highly tunable in Ce₃Si₂(S_{1-y}Se_y)₈I, shifting from blue to green by substituting with small amounts of Se. This tunability may be useful for phosphor-converted white LED applications where there is a need for phosphors in the cyan-to-green region. Given that mixing of S and Se atoms has been demonstrated to be feasible in these compounds, the next steps would entail investigation of the La-containing series La₃Si₂(S_{1-y}Se_y)₈I as host materials, with doped Ce³⁺ and Eu²⁺ ions acting as activator centres.

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Chapter 4.

Minority report: Structure and bonding of YbNi₃Ga₉ and YbCu₃Ga₈ obtained in gallium flux

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4.1. Introduction

Intermetallic compounds containing rare-earth, transition-metal, and main-group metals *RE–M–X* comprise an enormous class of materials that often exhibit unusual physical properties resulting from the interplay of localized f and delocalized d electrons. Among these, Ce- and Ybcontaining intermetallics are especially sought because they are prone to revealing complex electronic structures arising from the possibility of intermediate valence and different competing magnetic ground states. However, Yb-containing intermetallics are more difficult to prepare by conventional synthetic routes, such as arc-melting, because of the relatively high volatility of ytterbium metal. To contend with this problem, reactions in metal fluxes that are low melting (e.g., Al, Ga, In, Sn, Pb) may offer alternatives to preparing intermetallics that would otherwise be inaccessible by normal routes.^{1–3} Flux methods have led to the discovery of numerous intermetallics, but the outcomes can seem to be frustratingly aleatory, depending on subtle changes in conditions (e.g., form of starting materials, heating and cooling profiles) and likely other unknown factors. Although efforts are now underway to probe the mechanisms of flux growth reactions by in situ measurements, these experiments require careful design to overcome many technical complications.⁴ The appearance of beautiful crystals in the products of metal flux reactions can also be deceiving, as these often turn out to be known binary phases instead of the desired new ternary phases. In an early thought-provoking

proposal, Westerveld et al. developed a simple stability diagram based on empirical observations and hypothesized that ternary intermetallic phases are more likely to crystallize if the melting temperatures of the pure components are similar and if the atomic radii are disparate.⁵

As a test of this hypothesis, we wish to target the preparation of ternary gallides RE-M-Ga because the very low melting temperature of gallium (30 °C) provides an extreme scenario to probe the limits of the Westerveld stability diagram. As reported herein, many of these reactions failed to yield ternary gallides, illustrating that significant challenges remain. However, crystals of two Yb-containing gallides, YbNi₃Ga₉ and YbCu₃Ga₈, were obtained and deserving of further attention. The first compound, YbNi₃Ga₉, has been previously reported to exhibit intermediate valence and undergo pressure-induced valence fluctuations.⁶⁻¹⁰ It has been proposed to be a chiral magnetic material⁹, and on the basis of powder X-ray diffraction analysis, its crystal structure was assigned to be the $ErNi_3Al_9$ -type,⁶ which differs subtly from the DyNi₃Al₉-type (both in space group *R*32) through the occurrence of additional partially occupied sites in the latter.¹¹ Contradicting this assignment, an unpublished report of the single-crystal structure of YbNi₃Ga₉, appearing in a Ph.D. thesis argues for the DyNi₃Al₉-type structure.¹² To resolve this disagreement, it would be worthwhile to redetermine the structure of YbNi₃Ga₉. The second compound, YbCu₃Ga₈, is new and does not correspond to any existing ones in the Yb–Cu–Ga phase diagram.¹³

We report here investigations of flux growth of gallides Yb–*M*–Ga. Because related gallides are frequently susceptible to undergo structural transitions,^{14,15} temperature-dependent single-crystal structure determinations of YbNi₃Ga₉ and YbCu₃Ga₈ were carried out. Given that rare-earth gallides are considered to be typical examples of polar intermetallics, in which a substantial electron transfer is assumed to take place, the electronic structures of these two compounds were also calculated and

a bonding analysis was applied using the recently developed concept of crystal orbital bond index (COBI) to test this assumption.¹⁶

4.2. Experimental

4.2.1. Synthesis

Starting materials were selected RE metals (La, Ce, and Yb pieces; 99.9%, Hefa), various transition metals M (Cr pieces, 99.99%, Alfa-Aesar; Mn powder, 99.6%, Alfa-Aesar; Fe powder, 99.9+%, Alfa-Aesar; Co powder, 99.8%, Cerac; Ni powder, 99.9%, Cerac; Cu powder, 99.5%, Alfa-Aesar; Ru sponge, 99.98%, Onyxmet), and Ga ingots (99.99%, Alfa-Aesar). The RE pieces were freshly filed before use. Reactions were performed following similar conditions as those reported for many related ternary gallides.^{14,17–19} The elements were combined in fixed stoichiometric amounts of RE:M:Ga = 1:2:20 (mole ratio), with a total mass of 1.6-1.8 g. They were loaded into thimbleshaped alumina crucibles, covered with quartz wool to serve as a filter, and placed in turn inside fused-silica tubes, which were evacuated and sealed. The tubes were placed in a furnace where they were heated to 1050 °C in 9 h, kept there for 10 h, cooled to 600 °C in 4 h, slowly cooled to 300 °C in 168 h, and then cooled to room temperature in 4 h. The tubes were reheated to 300 °C in 4 h and centrifuged to remove the majority of excess gallium flux. Initial attempts were made to remove residual gallium flux from the surfaces of single crystals by soaking them in a 3 M solution of I₂ in DMF, but visual inspection with an optical microscope indicated sluggish reaction. Instead, the single crystals were placed into vials to which 2 mL of 5% HCl was added, and they were sonicated for 15 min. The process was repeated until the surfaces were visually clean. The samples were then soaked overnight in HCl for 12 h, washed with distilled water and acetone, and dried in air.

Single crystals were examined on a JEOL JSM-6010LA InTouchScope scanning electron microscope operated with an accelerating voltage of 15 kV. Their compositions were determined by energy-dispersive X-ray (EDX) analyses, performed on several points on these single crystals, with acquisition times of 120 s each. Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD) patterns on ground samples were collected on a Bruker D8 Advance diffractometer equipped with a Cu $K\alpha$ radiation source operated at 40 kV and 40 mA.

4.2.2. Structure determination

Although crystals of YbNi₃Ga₉ were plentiful, finding specimens that led to a reasonable structure determination proved to be challenging, as discussed later. Conversely, crystals of YbCu₃Ga₈ were few, but they were of good quality and led to straightforward structure determination.

Intensity data were collected on suitable crystals of YbNi₃Ga₉ and YbCu₃Ga₈ at 100, 200, and 300 K on a Bruker D8 diffractometer equipped with a SMART APEX II CCD area detector and a graphite-monochromated Mo $K\alpha$ radiation source, using ω scans at various ϕ angles with a frame width of 0.3° and an exposure time of 10 s per frame. Face-indexed numerical absorption corrections were applied. Structure solution and refinement were carried out with use of the SHELXTL (version 2018/3) program package.²⁰

Structural models were proposed using direct methods in trigonal space group R32 for YbNi₃Ga₉ and in cubic space group $Pm\overline{3}m$ for YbCu₃Ga₈. Disorder between Ni or Cu with Ga atoms was considered in the structure refinements, which included anisotropic displacement parameters. Atomic positions were standardized with the program STRUCTURE TIDY.²¹ Full structural results are listed in **Table A2-1** to **Table A2-6** and the room-temperature results are listed in **Table 4-1** to **Table 4-3**.

formula	YbNi ₃ Ga ₉	YbCu ₃ Ga ₈
formula mass (amu)	976.65	921.42
space group	R32 (No. 155)	<i>Pm</i> 3 <i>m</i> (No. 221)
<i>a</i> (Å)	7.2294(7)	8.2818(13)
<i>c</i> (Å)	27.513(3)	
$V(Å^3)$	1245.3(3)	568.0(3)
Ζ	6	3
<i>T</i> (K)	298(2)	296(2)
$ ho_{ m calcd} ({ m g \ cm^{-3}})$	7.814	8.081
crystal dimensions (mm)	0.09 imes 0.08 imes 0.05	0.11 imes 0.08 imes 0.08
μ (Mo K α) (mm ⁻¹)	46.36	48.29
transmission factors	0.049-0.205	0.065–0.132
2θ limits	4.44–63.05°	4.92–63.41°
data collected	$-6 \le h \le 10, -10 \le k \le 10, -25 \le l \le 40$	$-12 \le h \le 12, -12 \le k \le 12, -12 \le l \le 12$
no. of data collected	3297	7600
no. of unique data, including $F_o^2 < 0$	938 ($R_{\rm int} = 0.045$)	243 ($R_{\rm int} = 0.057$)
no. of unique data, with $F_o^2 > 2\sigma(F_o^2)$	829	216
no. of variables	43	16
Flack parameter	0.14(6)	
$R(F) \text{ for } F_{o}^{2} > 2\sigma(F_{o}^{2})^{a}$	0.033	0.048
$R_{\rm w}(F_{ m o}{}^2)$ b	0.070	0.127
goodness of fit	1.02	1.13
$(\Delta \rho)_{\rm max}, (\Delta \rho)_{\rm min} ({ m e}{ m \AA}^{-3})$	2.12, -2.13	3.49, -5.08

Table 4-1. Crystallographic data for YbNi₃Ga₉ and YbCu₃Ga₈.

^a $R(F) = \sum ||F_o| - |F_c|| / \sum |F_o|$. ^b $R_w(F_o^2) = [\sum [w(F_o^2 - F_c^2)^2] / \sum wF_o^4]^{1/2}; w^{-1} = [\sigma^2(F_o^2) + (Ap)^2 + Bp],$ where $p = [\max(F_o^2, 0) + 2F_c^2] / 3.$

Atom	Wyckoff position	x	У	Ζ	$U_{ m eq}({ m \AA}^2)$ a
YbNi ₃ Ga ₉					
Yb	6 <i>c</i>	0	0	0.16692(2)	0.0088(2)
Ni	18 <i>f</i>	0.3335(3)	0.3273(3)	0.08475(6)	0.0083(3)
Gal	9e	0.0032(2)	0.3365(2)	0.10070(7)	0.0101(3)
Ga2	9 <i>d</i>	0.7901(2)	0	1/2	0.0094(4)
Ga3	6 <i>c</i>	0	0	0.05094(7)	0.0102(4)
Ga4	6 <i>c</i>	0	0	0.28317(8)	0.0100(4)
Ga5	6 <i>c</i>	0	0	0.38508(8)	0.0112(4)
YbCu ₃ Ga ₈ ^b					
Yb	3 <i>c</i>	0	1/2	1/2	0.0158(5)
<i>X</i> 1	12 <i>j</i>	1/2	0.1531(2)	0.1531(2)	0.0169(5)
X2	12 <i>i</i>	0	0.2318(2)	0.2318(2)	0.0194(5)
Х3	8g	0.3391(3)	0.3391(3)	0.3391(3)	0.0329(8)
<i>X</i> 4	1 <i>a</i>	0	0	0	0.0231(15)

Table 4-2. Atomic coordinates and equivalent isotropic displacement parameters for YbNi₃Ga₉ and YbCu₃Ga₈.

^a U_{eq} is defined as one-third of the trace of the orthogonalized U_{ij} tensor. ^b Each X site contains a disordered mixture of 0.27 Cu and 0.73 Ga.

YbNi ₃ Ga ₉				
Yb–Ga2 (×3)	2.959(1)	Ni–Ga5	2.570(2)	
Yb-Ga1 (×3)	3.022(2)	Ni–Ga6	2.617(2)	
Yb-Ga1 (×3)	3.030(2)	Ga1–Ga6	2.741(2)	
Yb–Ga4	3.191(2)	Ga1–Ga2	2.770(2)	
Yb–Ga5	3.198(2)	Gal-Ga2	2.770(2)	
Yb–Ni (×3)	3.278(2)	Gal-Ga4	2.782(2)	
Yb–Ni (×3)	3.289(2)	Gal–Ga5	2.792(2)	
Ni–Ga3	2.332(2)	Ga2–Ga2 (×2)	2.629(3)	
Ni–Ga1	2.429(2)	Ga3–Ga5 (×2)	2.779(1)	
Ni–Ga2	2.441(2)	Ga3–Ga4 (×2)	2.785(2)	
Ni–Ga1	2.460(2)	Ga3–Ga6 (×2)	2.800(1)	
Ni–Ga1	2.462(2)	Ga4–Ga4	2.803(4)	
Ni–Ga4	2.564(2)	Ga5–Ga6	2.804(3)	
YbCu ₃ Ga ₈				
Yb– <i>X</i> 1 (×8)	3.140(1)	X1–X2 (×4)	2.639(1)	
Yb– <i>X</i> 2 (×4)	3.141(2)	X2–X2 (×4)	2.715(2)	
Yb–X3 (×8)	3.382(1)	X2–X4	2.715(2)	
X1–X1 (×2)	2.536(3)	X2–X3 (×2)	3.076(3)	
X1–X3 (×2)	2.554(2)	X3–X3 (×3)	2.665(4)	

Table 4-3. Interatomic distances (Å) in YbNi₃Ga₉ and YbCu₃Ga₈.

4.2.3. Electronic structure calculations

First-principles calculations were performed using the projected augmented wave (PAW) method as implemented in the Vienna ab initio simulation package (VASP) to determine the electronic structure and density of states (DOS) of YbNi₃Ga₉ and YbCu₃Ga₈. ^{22–24} Exchange and correlation were treated in this density functional theory (DFT) method by the generalized gradient approximation, as parameterized by Perdew, Burke, and Ernzerhof (PBE). ^{25–27} For simplicity, an ordered model was used for YbCu₃Ga₈, with Cu atoms placed at 8*g* and 1*a* sites, and Ga atoms placed at 12*j* and 12*i* sites. The recommended standard PAW potentials (Yb_2, Cu, Ni, Ga_d) were used, with the plane-wave basis cutoff energy set to 400 eV. The first Brillouin zone was sampled by a

Monkhorst-Pack *k*-mesh for YbNi₃Ga₉ ($18 \times 18 \times 4$) and YbCu₃Ga₈ ($12 \times 12 \times 12$). The convergence criteria were set to 10^{-8} eV for electronic optimization, and $|-2 \times 10^{-2}|$ eV for ionic relaxation. Chemical bonding was examined by evaluating projected crystal orbital Hamilton populations (–pCOHP), electron localization functions (ELF), Löwdin charges, and COBI using the program LOBSTER (version 4.1.0).^{16,28–30}

4.3. **Results and discussion**

4.3.1. Flux growth

Mixtures of Yb and various transition metals M in a large excess of Ga, serving as a flux, were reacted at 1050 °C, followed by slow cooling. Crystals of binary or ternary gallides were obtained after the flux was removed, as determined by EDX analyses of samples examined on a scanning electron microscope (Table 4-4 and Figure A2-1) and powder XRD patterns of the ground crystals (Figure A2-2). The composition from EDX agreed with the expected results within a 2-3% standard deviation. The Yb-Ni-Ga reaction yielded exclusively crystals of YbNi₃Ga₉. The majority of the crystals resulting from the Yb–Cu–Ga reaction correspond to a tetragonal Yb(Cu,Ga)₁₂ phase (space group *I4/mmm*), which has been reported to adopt partially disordered ThMn₁₂-type structures for YbCu_{5.4}Ga_{6.6} and YbCu₅Ga₇, or an ordered CeMn₄Al₈-type structure for YbCu₄Ga₈.^{17,31,32} The observed EDX composition matches closely with YbCu-5Ga-7. However, embedded within this collection of mostly YbCu~5Ga~7 crystals, there were other crystals that tended to have cubic habits (Figure 4-1a). These minority crystals exhibit a Cu-poorer and Ga-richer composition, close to YbCu₃Ga₈. SEM images of YbNi₃Ga₉ and YbCu₃Ga₈ are shown (Figure 4-1b). The powder XRD patterns of ground crystals of YbNi₃Ga₉ and YbCu₃Ga₈ agree well with patterns simulated from the structure determinations, discussed later, of these compounds (Figure 4-2).

Loading composition	Crystals obtained	Composition (mol%) from EDX analysis
YbCr ₂ Ga ₂₀	CrGa ₄	17.2% Cr, 82.8% Ga (expected 20.0% Cr, 80.0% Ga)
YbMn ₂ Ga ₂₀	MnGa4	20.2% Mn, 79.8% Ga (expected 20.0% Mn, 80.0% Ga)
YbFe ₂ Ga ₂₀	FeGa ₃	23.9% Fe, 76.1% Ga (expected 25.0% Fe, 75.0% Ga)
YbCo ₂ Ga ₂₀	YbCo ₂ Ga ₈	11.7% Yb, 17.8% Co, 70.4% Ga (expected 9.1% Yb, 18.2% Co, 72.7% Ga)
YbNi ₂ Ga ₂₀	YbNi ₃ Ga ₉	7.2% Yb, 22.8% Ni, 70.0% Ga (expected 7.7% Yb, 23.1% Ni, 69.2% Ga)
YbCu ₂ Ga ₂₀	YbCu _{~5} Ga _{~7} (major)	6.4% Yb, 40.8% Cu, 52.8% Ga (expected 7.7% Yb, 38.5% Cu, 53.8% Ga)
	YbCu ₃ Ga ₈ (minor)	7.9% Yb, 28.6% Cu, 63.4% Ga (expected 8.3% Yb, 25.0% Cu, 66.7% Ga)
YbRu ₂ Ga ₂₀	RuGa ₃	26.0% Ru, 74.0% Ga (expected 25.0% Ru, 75.0% Ga)

Table 4-4. Compositions, as determined by EDX analyses, of crystals obtained in Ga flux reactions.

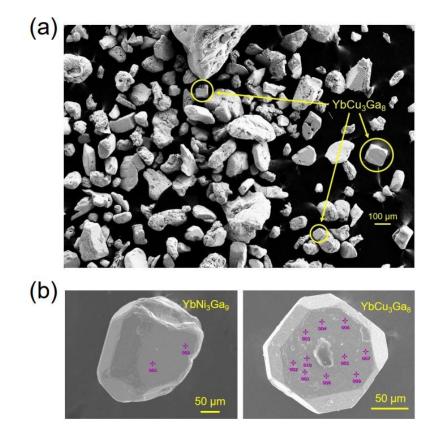


Figure 4-1. SEM images: (a) YbCu₃Ga₈ crystals (circled) within a larger collection of mostly Yb(Cu,Ga)₁₂ crystals grown in gallium flux. (b) Single crystals of YbNi₃Ga₉ and YbCu₃Ga₈.

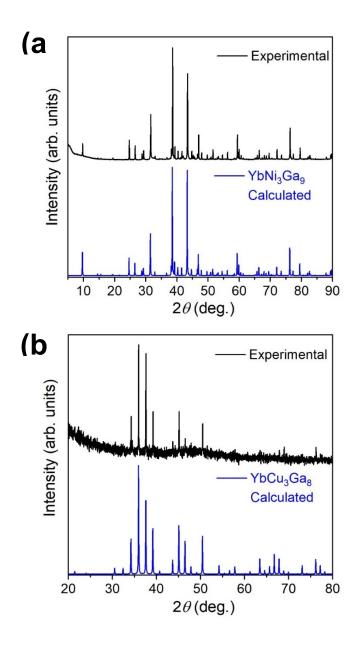


Figure 4-2. Powder XRD patterns of ground crystals of (a) YbNi₃Ga₉ and (b) YbCu₃Ga₈ grown by gallium flux.

It is interesting to evaluate the outcomes of these flux-growth experiments in the context of a previously developed stability diagram which attempts to classify whether a ternary, quasi-ternary, or binary phase will crystallize when two metals A and B are combined in the presence of excess metal flux C (selected among Ga, In, Sn, Pb).⁵ This diagram is based on two parameters that relate

to disparities in radii, $|\Delta R_{AB}| + |\Delta R_{AC}| + |\Delta R_{BC}|$, and in melting temperatures of the components, $T_A/T_B + T_A/T_C + T_B/T_C$ (Figure 4-3). The general trend is that crystals of ternary intermetallic compounds are most likely to be obtained when the radii are not too similar and when the melting temperatures are not too different. In addition to the Yb-containing reactions as described above, three other reactions were performed with La and Ce, with the same nominal compositions of REM_2Ga_{20} and an identical heat treatment as before. These reactions yielded crystals of binary phases (Ni₂Ga₃ from La–Ni–Ga) and ternary phases (Ce₂NiGa₁₀ and Ce₂NiGa₁₂ from Ce–Ni–Ga; Cu₂CuGa₁₂ from Ce–Cu–Ga). When plotted on the diagram, the new results give mixed agreement. The violations seen for the Yb–*M*–Ga systems could be rectified if the critical value for the melting temperature parameter is not fixed at 14, but allowed to vary with the radius parameter (i.e., the boundary indicated by the dashed line is not vertical, but sloping).

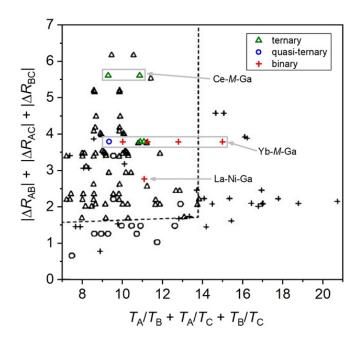


Figure 4-3. Stability diagram showing the crystal growth of ternary, quasi-ternary, or binary phases as promoted by metal fluxes within intermetallic systems A–B–C, with new results overlaid on the plot previously reported by Westerveld et al.⁵

4.3.2. YbNi3Ga9

Many crystals of YbNi₃Ga₉ were screened for single-crystal X-ray diffraction analysis. All of them gave diffraction patterns exhibiting broad reflections and diffuse scattering. The apparently hexagonal symmetry in the intensity pattern was suspected to arise from twinning of the crystals, with the true symmetry assumed to be trigonal and the possible space groups being R3, $R\overline{3}$, R32, R3m, or $R\overline{3}m$. Initial attempts were made to analyze these data based on a rhombohedral superstructure in R3with twinning (see discussion in Appendix 2). After significant efforts were made to synthesize new batches of this compound and to ensure that only small fragments of crystals were selected for screening, a good data set was eventually obtained on an untwinned crystal.

The structure of YbNi₃Ga₉, which was successfully refined in the noncentrosymmetric space group *R*32, contains one Yb, one Ni, and five Ga sites. Typical of intermetallic compounds, the structure consists of densely packed atoms, but it can be built up in terms of three types of nets, with compositions of Yb₂Ga₃, Ni₃Ga₆, and Ga₃, stacked along the *c*-direction in a 12-layer sequence (**Figure 4-4**). All of these nets can be derived from close-packed arrangements of atoms (3⁶ in Schläfli notation). The Yb₂Ga₃ nets are formed by replacing one-third of the nodes in a close-packed arrangement of Yb atoms by Ga₃ triangles. Similarly, in the Ni₃Ga₆ nets, which are highly puckered, Ni atoms occupy one-third and Ga atoms occupy two-thirds of these close-packed arrangements. The Ga₃ nets are half as dense and are almost flat. The 12-layer stacking sequence results from a tripling of a basic four-layer sequence, (Ga₃–Ni₃Ga₆–Yb₂Ga₃–Ni₃Ga₆)₃, in which the Yb₂Ga₃ nets are successively shifted in their relative orientation parallel to the *ab*-plane, in accordance with rhombohedral centring. The interatomic distances of 2.9–3.2 Å for Yb–Ga, 3.2–3.3 Å for Yb–Ni, 2.3–2.6 Å for Ni–Ga, and 2.6–2.8 Å for Ga–Ga contacts agree well with typical ranges found in Pearson's Crystal Data.³³ If distances up to a cutoff of 3.5 Å are considered, the local environments around atoms have high coordination numbers (CN) and irregular geometries: CN17 for Yb, CN10 for Ni, and CN8–11 for Ga atoms (**Figure A2-3**).

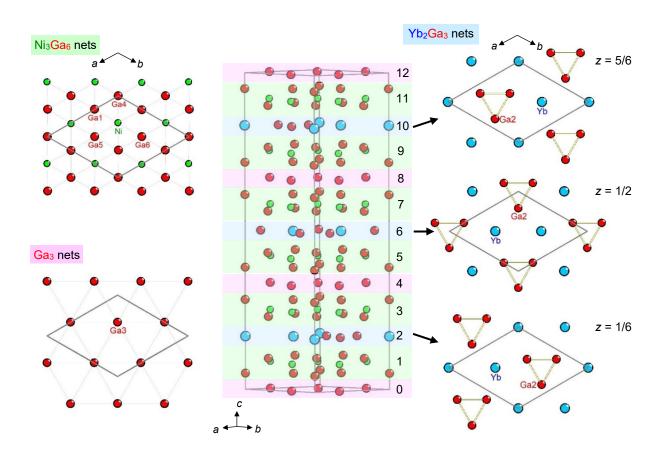


Figure 4-4. Structure of YbNi₃Ga₉ in terms of nets.

These results support the proposal that YbNi₃Ga₉ adopts the ordered ErNi₃Al₉-type structure instead of the partially disordered DyNi₃Al₉-type structure. In retrospect, the discrepancies reported previously are perhaps unsurprising given that related ternary rare-earth nickel aluminides and gallides $RENi_3Tr_9$ (Tr = Al, Ga) are prone to exhibit stacking faults of the RE_2Tr_3 nets, manifested as disorder and partial occupancy of the RE sites and Tr_3 triangles, which gives rise to apparently unphysical short distances between sites. Complete disorder leads to the Yb_{0.67}Ni₂Al₆-type structure ($P\overline{6}m2$, a = 4.2 Å, c = 9.1 Å),³⁴ partial disorder to the DyNi₃Al₉-type structure (R32, a = 7.3 Å, c = 27.4 Å),^{11,35} and complete order to the ErNi₃Al₉-type structure (R32, a = 7.3 Å, c = 27.3 Å).^{11,15,36-38}

Many of the structural assignments were inferred on the basis of powder XRD patterns, but it is likely that most of these compounds exhibit the same problems of diffuse scattering as observed in the present study, as well as in previous reports of quaternary intermetallics RE-Ni-Ga-(Si or Ge).³⁹

YbNi₃Ga₉ has been previously shown by magnetic susceptibility measurements and X-ray photoemission spectroscopy to exhibit intermediate Yb valence, which evolves to a greater proportion of the divalent state upon cooling. ^{6–10} Because Yb²⁺ has a nominally larger radius than Yb³⁺, it is worthwhile to see if this change in valence state will be reflected in the structural data. Temperature-dependent measurements of the cell parameters, refined from single-crystal diffraction data from 200 to 100 K (**Table A2-7**), reveal a gradual contraction of the unit cell (**Figure 4-5**). However, this contraction is quite weak, the cell lengths changing by only 0.1%. Moreover, single-crystal structure refinements show that while the Ni–Ga and Ga–Ga bonds generally shorten on proceeding from 300 to 100 K, most of the Yb–Ga and Yb–Ni bonds are little changed (**Table A2-3**). These observations can be understood in terms of the competing trends in which cell expansion arising from greater proportions of divalent Yb is counteracted by cell contraction due to diminished thermal vibration effects.

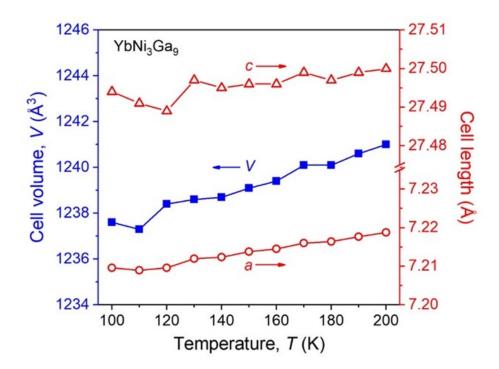


Figure 4-5. Cell parameters of YbNi₃Ga₉ as a function of temperature.

4.3.3. YbCu₃Ga₈

The structure of the cubic crystals of YbCu₃Ga₈, which constituted the minority of the Yb–Cu–Ga reaction product, was determined in space group $Pm\overline{3}m$ and corresponds to the BaHg₁₁-type.⁴⁰ In the structural model, the Yb atoms occupy the 3*c* sites, and the Cu and Ga atoms are assumed to be disordered within four sites (12*j*, 12*i*, 8*g*, 1*a*) because they cannot be distinguished based on their similar X-ray scattering factors (**Table 4-2**). Although it is possible to propose ordered models that are consistent with the formula YbCu₃Ga₈ (Cu in 8*g* and 1*a*; Ga in 12*j* and 12*i*), there were no statistically meaningful improvements in the refinement results.

The BaHg₁₁-type structure of YbCu₃Ga₈ can be described in terms of three types of polyhedra: X_{12} cuboctahedra centred by X atoms, empty X_8 cubes, and large X_{20} polyhedra centred by Yb atoms, where X represents the disordered mixture of Cu and Ga atoms (**Figure 4-6**). Within the cubic unit cell, the $X@X_{12}$ cuboctahedra are located at the corners, the Yb@ X_{20} polyhedra at the faces, and the empty X_8 cubes at the centre, analogous to the arrangement of atoms in a perovskite structure. The Yb-X distances are 3.1-3.4 Å and the X-X distances are 2.5-3.1 Å within these polyhedra. Characteristic of this structure type, there are also kagome nets formed by the Yb atoms, but at rather long distances (5.86 Å).

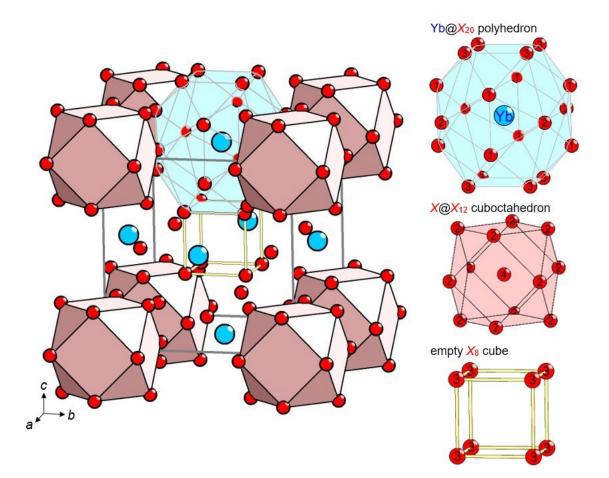


Figure 4-6. Structure of YbCu₃Ga₈ in terms of polyhedra. The Cu and Ga atoms are disordered within sites labelled X.

Although many Ga-rich phases in the Yb–Cu–Ga system have been previously reported,^{17,19,31,32} YbCu₃Ga₈ appears to be a new ternary phase. The cubic BaHg₁₁-type structure of YbCu₃Ga₈ contrasts with the tetragonal BaCd₁₁-type structure adopted by ternary *RE*(Cu,Ga)₁₁ phases

known for RE = Ce-Nd, Sm, Gd-Dy, Y.³¹ The two structure types formed by these ternary derivatives compete with each other, with the BaHg₁₁-type favoured at higher electron concentrations than the BaCd₁₁-type in order to optimize heteroatomic contacts.⁴¹ If divalent Yb is assumed, the electron concentration for YbCu₃Ga₈ is 29/11 = 2.6 e⁻ per electronegative metal atom, within the ranges of 2.3–2.7 e⁻ found for other ternary aluminides $AAg_{3-4}Al_{8-7}$ (A = Ca, Ce, Eu, Yb) and gallides YbPd_{2.1–3.4}Ga_{8.9–7.6} adopting the BaHg₁₁-type structure. In contrast, the electron concentration is 2.0 e⁻ for gallides *RE*Cu₇Ga₄ (*RE* = Sm, Gd, Dy) adopting the BaCd₁₁-type structure, where a composition has been estimated.³³

Given that other BaHg₁₁-type structures have been observed to undergo temperaturedependent distortions,^{14,18} the structure of YbCu₃Ga₈ was also examined at lower temperatures below 300 K (**Table A2-4** to **Table A2-6**). No low-temperature transitions were observed down to 100 K (near the limits of the variable temperature capability of the diffractometer) although this does not preclude that they do not occur at higher temperatures above 300 K. For example, CePd_{3+x}Ga_{8-x} has been shown to undergoes complex transitions at high temperature, including a transition at 640 °C from orthorhombic to cubic structure.¹⁴

4.3.4. Electronic structure

Rare-earth gallides are classified as polar intermetallics in which the electronegativity differences are sufficiently large to impart polar character in the bonds, although such pronouncements are often made without quantitative support. An intuitive assessment of the bonding in YbNi₃Ga₉ and YbCu₃Ga₈ suggests that electron transfer takes place from electropositive Yb to electronegative Ga atoms. However, this expectation is not obvious given that the electronegativity of Ni and Cu is greater than Ga in some scales (Pauling, Allred-Rochow) and not in others (Mulliken).

DFT calculations were performed on YbNi₃Ga₉ and an ordered model of YbCu₃Ga₈, and plots of the DOS, -pCOHP, and COBI curves are shown (Figure 4-7). Metallic behaviour is confirmed by the absence of an energy gap in the DOS at the Fermi level, where the main contributions are Ga 4p states. Filled Ni or Cu 3d states are found below the Fermi level and dominate the DOS (down to -4 eV). The -pCOHP and COBI curves reveal that the Ga-Ga contacts are the critical bonding interactions in both compounds, given the prominent crossover from bonding to antibonding states at the Fermi level. Optimization of these homoatomic Ga–Ga bonds, which are the strongest in both structures as gauged by the integrated -pCOHP values (-IpCOHP), prevails over the heteroatomic Ni-Ga or Cu-Ga bonds, for which some antibonding interactions are present. The degree of covalency in these bonds can be quantified using the concept of COBI. Values of COBI range from 0 for fully ionic to 1 for fully covalent character, but will be scaled down when multicentre interactions are present, as occurs in many extended inorganic solids, including intermetallic compounds.⁴² With this caution in mind, it is reassuring that the homoatomic Ga–Ga bonds, which would be expected to be the most covalent, do show the highest COBI values (0.3–0.4) compared to the heteroatomic Ni-Ga (0.2-0.3) or Cu-Ga (0.1-0.2) contacts. The COBI values for Yb-Ni, Yb–Cu, and Yb–Ga contacts are all less than 0.1, but this could be a reflection of high electronic delocalization (which is an extreme expression of multicentre bonding) just as much as greater ionicity.

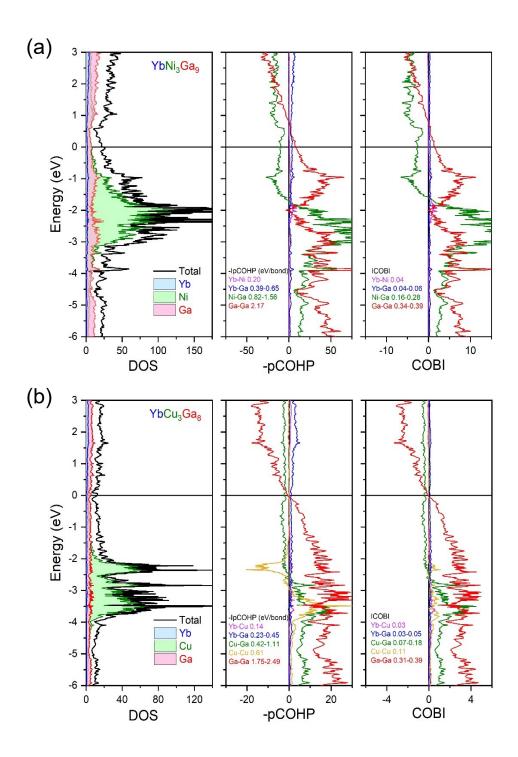


Figure 4-7. Density of states (DOS), projected crystal orbital Hamilton population (–pCOHP), and crystal orbital bond index (COBI) for (a) YbNi₃Ga₉ and (b) ordered model of YbCu₃Ga₈.

To visualize the bonding in more detail, ELF plots were extracted from the electronic structure calculations, and Löwdin charges were calculated for the atoms in YbNi₃Ga₉ and YbCu₃Ga₈ (Figure 4-8). The most striking feature is the presence of intermediate electron density (green colours) defining the multicentre bonding network of Ga atoms. Greater electron density (yellow colours) builds up between these atoms, indicative of the covalent bonding character and consistent with the higher COBI values for Ga–Ga contacts described above. These bonding networks are anionic, as indicated by the negative charges on the Ga atoms (0.1– to 0.5– in YbNi₃Ga₉; 0.2– to 0.5– in YbCu₃Ga₈). Interestingly, the charges around the Ni (0.6+) or Cu atoms (0.5+) remain positive, so that the direction of electron transfer is from these transition metal atoms to the Ga atoms. The buildup of electron density between Ni or Cu and Ga atoms is not as prominent, implying more ionic character in the Ni–Ga and Cu–Ga bonds than in the Ga–Ga bonds. On the other hand, the electron density is highly localized around the Yb atoms, which have high positive charges of 1.3+ in both compounds, corroborating expectations for significantly greater ionic character in the bonds to these atoms.

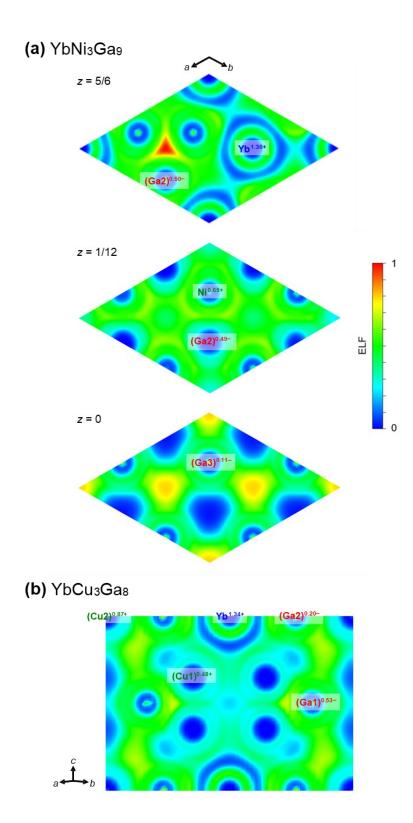


Figure 4-8. ELF plots and Löwdin charges for (a) YbNi₃Ga₉ (projected parallel to (001) plane at z = 0, 1/12, and 5/6) and (b) ordered model of YbCu₃Ga₈ projected on (110) plane.

4.4. Conclusions

To test the hypothesis that the crystal growth of ternary intermetallic phases in flux reactions can be related to simple descriptors of the components, Yb-M-Ga reactions were performed. The results were not entirely conclusive, because there were several violations within the stability diagram, but the general trends suggest that melting temperatures and atomic radii are certainly important factors. Nevertheless, it would be worthwhile to apply more modern machine-learning approaches, such as the sure independence screening and sparsifying operator (SISSO) method,⁴³ to develop a more accurate and unbiased descriptor that would be able to predict the results of such flux growth experiments. YbNi₃Ga₉ was confirmed to adopt the ordered ErNi₃Al₉-type structure, but the significant effort required to find an untwinned crystal suggests that stacking faults are likely an inherent feature of related aluminides and gallides $RENi_3Tr_9$ (Tr = Al, Ga). This may have important implications for the interpretation of chiral magnetism in these compounds, for which helical magnetic ordering has been proposed,^{8,9,37} given that the noncentrosymmetry in this structure depends on the occurrence of long-range ordering of the RE2Tr3 nets. YbCu3Ga8 was discovered as a new phase in the Yb–Cu–Ga system from the flux growth reactions, but in small amounts, suggesting that it is probably metastable. Efforts to prepare this phase through other methods, such as induction heating and direct reaction, have so far been unsuccessful. As confirmed by DFT calculations, the bonding in both YbNi₃Ga₉ and YbCu₃Ga₈, which are Ga-rich phases, can be viewed in terms of electron transfer from Yb to Ga atoms, which then participate in multicentre bonding with significant covalent character.

4.5. References

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Chapter 5.

Crystal growth of Ce, Eu, and Yb-containing germanides in metal flux

5.1. Introduction

Intermetallic compounds containing Ce, Eu, and Yb possess diverse structures and physical properties, some of which suggest intermediate valence.^{1–5} It is desirable to obtain single crystals of these compounds to enable more detailed measurements of magnetic and transport properties. Unfortunately, such crystals are often challenging to grow using conventional synthetic methods such as arc melting, inducting heating, and direct reactions. Fluxes of low-melting metals (Al, Ga, In, Sn, Pb, Bi) can aid in crystal growth of intermetallic compounds by lowering the reaction temperatures and sometimes by promoting the formation of phases that may be metastable or kinetically stable compared to the thermodynamically favoured phase at high temperatures.⁶ In some cases, the flux may be incorporated into the desired product, so it acts a reactive flux.

Among ternary rare-earth transition-metal germanides *RE–M–*Ge, two of the most commonly occurring types of phases have the composition *REM*₂Ge₂, adopting the closely related tetragonal ThCr₂Si₂-type (space group *I4/mmm*) and CaBe₂Ge₂-type (space group *P4/nmm*) structures, both of which are derived from the BaAl₄-type structure.⁷ Some examples of *REM*₂Ge₂ crystals grown by metal fluxes have been previously reported: CeRh₂Ge₂ showing an antiferromagnetic transition at 15 K (Bi flux),⁸ CeAu₂Ge₂ showing magnetic anisotropy (Sn flux),⁹ EuCu₂Ge₂ showing intermediate Eu valence (In flux),¹⁰ EuZn₂Ge₂ showing two low-temperature antiferromagnetic transitions (Pb flux),¹¹ and YbCu₂Ge₂ (Sn flux) and YbZn₂Ge₂ (Zn flux).^{12,13}

In early investigations of these germanides, an empirical classification model for *RE–M–*Ge phases was developed to predict which of three closely related U₄Re₇Si₆-, ThCr₂Si₂-, and CaBe₂Ge₂-

type structures were likely to form based on the simple radius ratio r_{RE}/r_M .¹⁴ If $r_{RE}/r_M \le 1.3$, the U₄Re₇Si₆-type structure is favoured, whereas if $r_{RE}/r_M \ge 1.3$, the ThCr₂Si₂- and CaBe₂Ge₂-type structures are favoured. It is surprising that, nearly 40 years later, the existence of many of these ternary germanides remains inconclusive.

Here, some of the missing REM_2 Ge₂ phases were targeted, focusing on the Ce-, Eu-, and Ybcontaining members, with the intent of using In as a nonreactive flux. Ultimately, the hypothesis failed, but in the course of the investigation, crystals of various other ternary germanides were obtained and characterized, including the previously unknown compound CeIrGe₂, and several previously known compounds $RECo_2Ge_2$ (RE = Eu, Yb), CeCoGe₂, CeIr₂Ge₂, Yb₄Ir₇Ge₆, and Yb₅Ir₄Ge₁₀.

5.2. Experimental

5.2.1. Synthesis

In a typical procedure, mixtures of *RE* metals (Ce, Eu, and Yb pieces; 99.9%, Hefa), transition metals (Cr pieces, 99.99%, Alfa-Aesar; Fe powder, 99+%, Alfa Aesar; Co powder, 99.5%, Alfa-Aesar; Zn powder, 99.8%, Onyxmet; Pd powder, 99.95%, Alfa-Aesar; Ag powder, 99.99%, Sigma-Aldrich; Pt sponge, 99.99%, Alfa-Aesar), Ge ingot crushed into powder (99.9999%, Alfa-Aesar) and In shot (99.9%, Alfa Aesar) were loaded with different ratios into alumina crucibles. Each crucible was placed within a fused silica tube, with quartz wool on top of the crucible. The tubes were evacuated and sealed. The tubes were heated to 1000 °C over 12 h, kept there for 12 h, cooled to 550 °C over 48 h, kept there for 48 h, removed from the furnace, and immediately centrifuged to filter the In flux while molten. The samples were transferred to vials, to which 2 mL of 5% HCl(aq) was added. The samples were sonicated for 10 min and soaked in HCl over 12 h to ensure that all excess In was

removed from the surface of crystals. The crystals were washed with water and acetone, and then dried in air. These processes were performed in a fume hood.

Chemical compositions of selected single crystals were determined by EDX analysis on a Zeiss Sigma 300 VP field emission scanning electron microscope operated with an accelerating voltage of 15 kV and equipped with a Bruker Quantax 600 system with dual X-Flash 6/60 detectors. In general, these compositions are within 3% of expected values. Powder XRD patterns of crushed crystals were collected on a Bruker D8 Advance diffractometer equipped with a Cu K α radiation source operated at 40 kV and 40 mA.

5.2.2. Structure determination

Crystals of EuCo₂Ge₂, YbCo₂Ge₂, CeCoGe₂, CeIrGe₂, Yb₄Ir₇Ge₆, and Yb₅Ir₄Ge₁₀ were obtained. They were mounted on quartz fibres, attached with epoxy. Intensity data were collected at 296 and 193 K on a Bruker PLATFORM diffractometer equipped with a graphite-monochromated Mo K α radiation source and a SMART APEX II CCD detector, using ω scans at 6–8 different ϕ angles with a frame width of 0.3° and an exposure time of 10–15 s per frame. Face-indexed numerical absorption corrections were applied. Sructures solution and refinement were carried out using the SHELXTL (version2018/3) program package.¹⁵ All anisotropic displacement parameters were well-behaved, and all occupancy factors were 0.98–0.99 when refined. Atomic coordinates were standardized using the program STRUCTURE TIDY.¹⁶ The ADDSYM routine within the PLATON suite of programs revealed no additional symmetry. Crystal data are listed in **Table A3-3** to **Table A3-8**, atomic positions and displacement parameters are listed in **Table A3-11**, and selected bond distances are listed in **Table A3-12** to **Table A3-12**.

5.3. Results and discussion

5.3.1. Flux growth

Many reactions to prepare ternary germanides RE-M-Ge in the presence of In flux were attempted, but in most cases, they were unsuccessful. Only a few reactions led to formation of crystals of ternary germanides, and in one case, a quaternary germanide containing In was obtained (**Table 5-1**).

Loading composition	Crystal obtained	Composition (mol%) from EDX analysis				
CeCoGeIn ₃₀	CeCo ₂ Ge ₂	22% Ce, 41% Co, 37% Ge				
EuCoGeIn ₃₀	EuCo ₂ Ge ₂	18% Eu, 40% Co, 42% Ge				
YbCoGeIn ₃₀	YbCo ₂ Ge ₂	22% Yb, 42% Co, 36% Ge				
CeCo ₂ Ge ₂ In ₃₀	CeCo ₂ Ge ₂	22% Ce, 41% Co, 37% Ge				
	CeCo _{0.93} Ge ₂	22% Ce, 24% Co, 53% Ge				
YbCo ₂ Ge ₂ In ₃₀	YbCo ₂ Ge ₂	19% Yb, 41% Co, 40% Ge				
YbPtGe ₂ In ₃₀	YbPtGe	31 % Yb, 34 % Pt, 35 % Ge				
ColrGoolnee	CeIr ₂ Ge ₂	21% Ce, 40% Ir, 39% Ge				
CelrGe ₂ In ₂₈	CeIrGe ₂	27% Ce, 29% Ir, 44% Ge				
EuIrGe ₂ In ₂₈	EuIr ₄ In ₂ Ge ₄	11% Eu, 33% Ir, 23% In, 34% Ge				
	EuIrGe ₃	26% Eu, 20% Ir, 53% Ge				
YbIrGe ₂ In ₂₈	Yb ₄ Ir ₇ Ge ₆	24% Yb, 39% Ir, 37% Ge				
1 01100211128	Yb5Ir4Ge10	26% Yb, 19% Ir, 54% Ge				

 Table 5-1. Compositions of crystals obtained in indium flux reactions.

Most of the crystals obtained were prismatic (**Figure 5-1**). The RE-Co-Ge-In (RE = Ce, Eu, Yb) reactions yielded crystals of CeCo₂Ge₂, CeCoGe₂, EuCo₂Ge₂ and YbCo₂Ge₂, all with prismatic morphology. The Ce-Ir-Ge-In reactions led to prismatic crystals of CeIr₂Ge₂ and plate-shaped crystals of CeIrGe₂. The Yb-Ir-Ge-In reactions led to prismatic crystals of Yb₄Ir₇Ge₆ and needle-shaped crystals of Yb₅Ir₄Ge₁₀. Although most of these crystals are relatively small, with typical

dimensions of about 0.1–0.2 mm, they are suitable for single-crystal diffraction analysis and are much larger than would be achievable in conventional syntheses such as arc-melting.

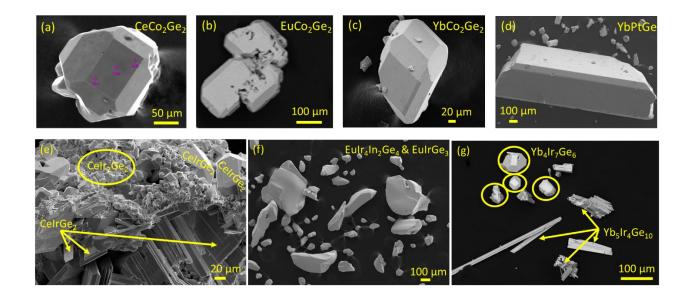


Figure 5-1. SEM images of single crystals obtained from In flux.

Analysis of the powder XRD patterns of the samples of ground crystals enabled identification of their phase composition (**Figure A3-1** to **Figure A3-2**). The structure map of RE-M-Ge phases based on the radius ratio r_{RE}/r_M has been updated to include new results since it was first proposed (**Figure 5-2**). In general, the U₄Re₇Si₆-type phase is favoured by smaller *RE* atoms ($r_{RE}/r_M \le 1.3$). The ThCr₂Si₂-type phase is overwhelmingly dominant, but note that in a few cases (RE-Rh-Ge), the U₄Re₇Si₆-type phase can be formed as an alternative polymorph, near the threshold radius ratio of $r_{RE}/r_M = 1.3$.

3d 4d 5d 1.32 Sc 1.22 1.22 🗖 1.21 1.23 🗖 Lu 1.29 🗖 Yb \diamond Ó Tm \diamond Er \diamond 1.29 🗖 Ho \diamond RE elements Dy \diamond Y п Tb 1.31 Gd Eu Sm Nd O $\mathbf{\Delta}$ Pr Ce La Cr Mn Fe Co Ni Cu Zn Ru Rh Pd Ag Cd Re Os Ir Pt Au Hg M elements

♦ Th Cr_2Si_2 CaBe₂Ge₂ U₄Re₇Si₆ GdIr₂Ge₂

Figure 5-2. Structure map of RE-M-Ge phases based on radius ratios r_{RE}/r_M .

The *RE*–Ir–Ge systems are interesting because they exhibit the most diverse structures depending on the *RE* component. The flux reactions confirm the assignments expected from this structure map. CeIr₂Ge₂ was found to adopt the CaBe₂Ge₂-type structure.^{17–19} EuIr₂Ge₂ was not obtained from the flux reaction, which resulted in EuIrGe₃ and EuIr₄In₂Ge₄ instead. Yb₄Ir₇Ge₆ was formed, in agreement with expectations, but in the presence of Yb₅Ir₄Ge₁₀ crystals.^{20,21} Single-crystal X-ray diffraction data were collected on Yb₄Ir₇Ge₆ at various temperatures down to 193 K, but no unusual effects were observed and the cell lengths simply contract.

5.3.2. Structures

The compounds EuCo₂Ge₂ and YbCo₂Ge₂ have been previously reported to adopt ThCr₂Si₂type structures, based on powder XRD data.²² Because only cell parameters were reported, full single-crystal structure determinations for them have been undertaken here (**Table A3-3**, **Table A3**- **4, Table A3-9, Table A3-12**). Temperature-dependent data show no unusual transitions down to 193 K. The structure consists of [CoGe] layers, built from edge-sharing Co-centred tetrahedra; these layers are connected by Ge–Ge bonds to form a framework with the intervening spaces occupied by *RE* atoms (**Figure 5-3**). These Ge–Ge bonds are relatively long for EuCo₂Ge₂ (2.76 Å) but significantly shorter and within a single-bond distance for YbCo₂Ge₂ (2.51 Å).²³

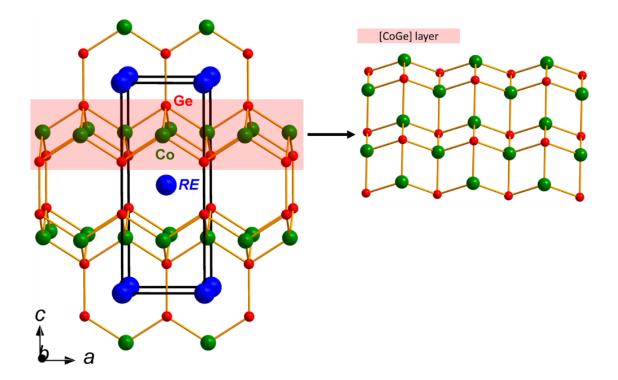


Figure 5-3. Structure of $RECo_2Ge_2$ (RE = Eu, Yb).

The Ce–Ir–Ge–In reactions gave crystals with compositions of CeIr₂Ge₂ and CeIrGe₂. The latter actually occur in two orthorhombic polymorphs, occurring as a result of a peritectoid reaction: CeIr₂Ge₂ + α -CeIrGe₂ (CeNiSi₂-type, *Cmcm*) $\rightarrow \beta$ -CeIrGe₂ (YIrGe₂-type, *Immm*). A similar peritectoid reaction was observed in Er–Ni–Ge system.²⁴ Single-crystal structure determinations were performed here for both forms of CeIrGe₂, given that prior analyses were limited to powder XRD data for α -CeIrGe₂. Moreover, previously reported determinations of YIrGe₂-type phases tended to exhibit high displacement parameters for one of the Ge atoms, suggesting that twinning may be occurring. However, a temperature-dependent study of β -CeIrGe₂ carried out here shows no anomalies down to 193 K. The structures of α - and β -CeIrGe₂ are closely related (**Figure 5-4**). Both contain Ir-centred square pyramids linked to form a framework within which Ce atoms lie. A key difference is that α -CeIrGe₂ containts isolated Ge atoms and zigzag Ge chains, whereas β -CeIrGe₂ contains Ge–Ge dimers.

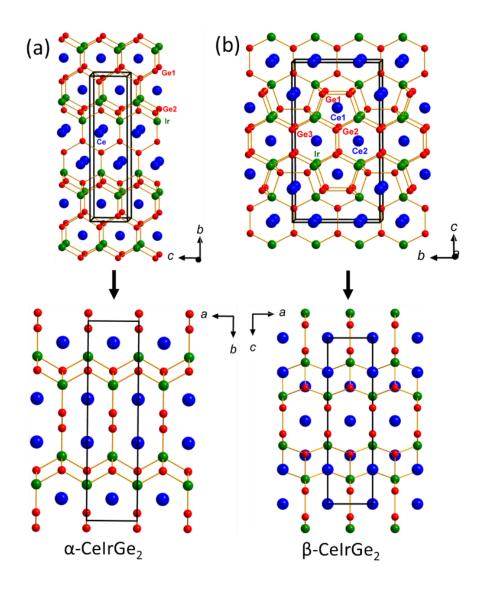


Figure 5-4. Structures of α - and β -CeIrGe₂.

The structures can be conceptually converted to each other by breaking the bonds within the Ge–Ge dimers in β -CeIrGe₂, shearing the resulting slabs, and then reassembling them to form Ge zigzag chains in α -CeIrGe₂ (**Figure 5-5**).

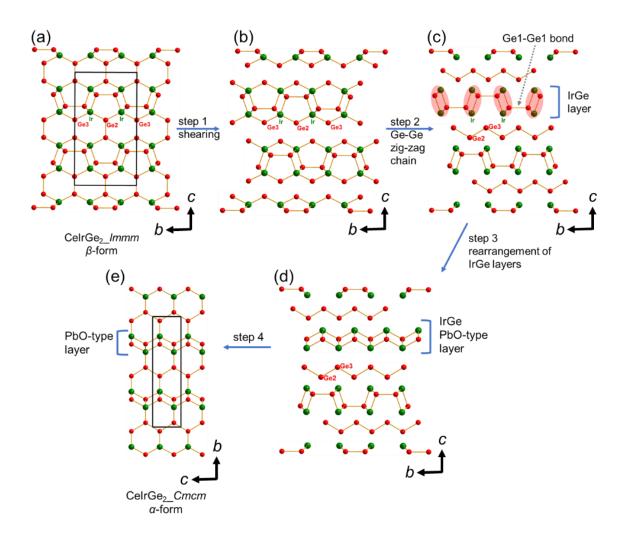


Figure 5-5. Conceptual structural conversion between α - and β -CeIrGe₂.

Yb₅Ir₄Ge₁₀ was previously characterized by powder XRD data alone, and assigned to have a tetragonal Sc₅Co₄Si₁₀-type structure.^{25,26} This is a relatively complicated structure for which singlecrystal diffraction is worthwhile performing. Compared to other members of the *RE*₅Ir₄Ge₁₀ series, the c/a ratio for Yb₅Ir₄Ge₁₀ is anomalously large (**Table A3-2** and **Figure A3-3**). Temperature dependent single-crystal studies reveal that the cell parameters actually increase on cooling down from room temperature to 193 K. These observations do seem to support the presence of divalent Yb, but further magnetic characterization will be required to confirm this proposal.²⁷ The structure consists of an [Ir₄Ge₁₀] framework defining three types of tunnels, with pentagonal, hexagonal, and octagonal cross-sections, that propagate along the *c*-direction and are filled with Yb atoms (**Figure 5-6**). Ge–Ge dimers with distances of 2.42 to 2.53 Å are also present in the structure. Given that the Rh-containing analogue exhibits strong magnetic anisotropy, as is evident from the tunnel structure, it would be interesting to perform single-crystal magnetization experiments on Yb₅Ir₄Ge₁₀.

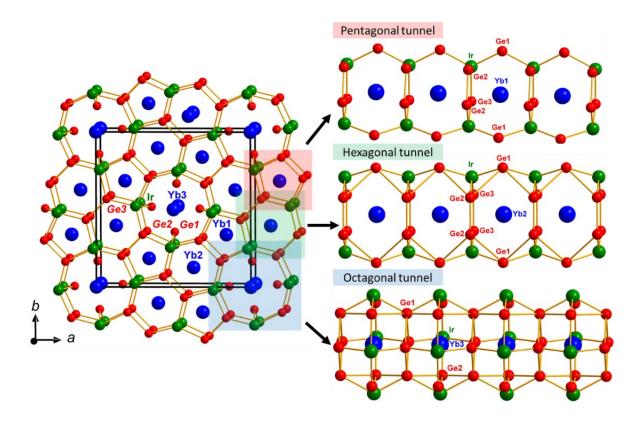


Figure 5-6. Structure of Yb₅Ir₄Ge₁₀, with tunnels propagating along the *c*-direction.

5.4. Conclusions

Many synthetic attempts were made to prepare crystals of ternary rare-earth germanides within an In flux. Crystals of $RECo_2Ge_2$ (RE = Ce, Eu, Yb), CeIr₂Ge₂ CeCoGe₂, CeIrGe₂, EuIr₄In₂Ge₄, EuIrGe₃, Yb₄Ir₇Ge₆, and Yb₅Ir₄Ge₁₀ were obtained. Although many of these compounds were previously known, their structural characterization had been limited to powder XRD data. The availability of good quality crystals thus enabled single-crystal structures to be determined accurately. CeIrGe₂ was obtained as two orthorhombic polymorphs, with a clear structural relationship between them in which Ge–Ge dimers are converted to zigzag Ge chains. Yb₅Ir₄Ge₁₀ exhibits a complex tunnel structure with indications from temperature-dependent data that Yb may be divalent.

5.5. References

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Chapter 6.

Conclusions

This thesis set out to investigate two broad classes of rare-earth compounds, chalcohalides and intermetallics. In the first part, the aims were to expand the number of examples of rare-earth chalcohalides because doing so offers greater possibilities to vary both cations and anions, allowing physical properties to be controlled more finely. In the second part, the aims were to develop ways to grow larger single crystals of rare-earth intermetallics because they are not easily obtained by conventional methods.

Chapters 2 and 3 described efforts to expand a nascent series of chalcohalides, $RE_3Tt_2Ch_8X$ (Tt = Si, Ge; Ch = S, Se; X = Cl, Br, I). The Si-containing series was known previously, and here, the Ge-containing series was prepared in conjunction with early RE metals (La–Nd). These compounds are semiconductors with band gaps ranging from 2.7 to 3.6 eV. Because Ce₃Si₂S₈I was previously noted to be photoluminescent, a systematic study was made to understand how cation and anion substitutions affect the optical properties. The solid solutions $RE_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ and Ce₃Si₂(S₁₋ $_ySe_y)_8I$ were prepared. Substitution with Ge tended to quench the photoluminescence, whereas substitution with Se shifted the emission from blue to green. Because Ce³⁺ ions are the source of the photoemission, a more realistic system to investigate to avoid self-quenching would be to use La₃Si₂(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I as a host material that can be gradually doped with Ce³⁺ as activator ions.

Chapters 4 and 5 described efforts to exploit metal fluxes to grow single crystals of ternary rare-earth gallides and germanides. In particular, some rare-earth metals, such as Eu and Yb, are not easily amenable to conventional methods of synthesis because of their high volatility during arc-melting or high reactivity with containers. Reactions in the Yb–M–Ga systems were performed using

excess Ga as a self or reactive flux. Most of these reactions lead to frequently encountered binary gallides, but a few were successful in giving ternary gallides, including YbNi₃Ga₉ and YbCu₃Ga₈. A somewhat well hidden paper had suggested that crystal growth of ternary intermetallic phases in flux reactions can be related to simple descriptors of the components, as summarized in a stability diagram. The results obtained here tend to support the suggestion that melting temperatures and atomic radii are important factors, but it is probably too early to generalize given the limited breadth of reactions examined. YbNi₃Ga₉ was confirmed to adopt the ordered $ErNi_3Al_9$ -type structure, but the significant effort required to find an untwinned crystal suggests that stacking faults are likely an inherent feature of related aluminides and gallides $RENi_3Tr_9$ (Tr = Al, Ga). This may have important implications for the interpretation of chiral magnetism in these compounds, for which helical magnetic ordering has been proposed, given that the noncentrosymmetry in this structure depends on the occurrence of the long-range ordering of the RE₂Tr₃ nets. YbCu₃Ga₈ was discovered as a new phase but in small amounts, suggesting that it is probably metastable. Efforts to prepare this phase through other methods, such as induction heating and direct reaction, have so far been unsuccessful. As confirmed by DFT calculations, the bonding in both YbNi₃Ga₉ and YbCu₃Ga₈, which are Ga-rich phases, can be viewed in terms of electron transfer from Yb to Ga atoms, which then participate in multicentre bonding with significant covalent character.

Similar reactions in the germanide systems RE-M-Ge were performed in In fluxes for the much the same reason that crystals are not easily obtained by conventional methods. There is strong interest in preparing crystals because many of these compounds have been implicated as quantum materials, some of which are expected to display anisotropic behaviour given their low-dimensional arrangement of *RE* atoms. Moreover, many of the presumed structures of these ternary germanides are assigned on the basis of powder XRD patterns, so it is desirable to confirm these structures through

more reliable single-crystal XRD studies. Most of these reactions yielded crystals of binary germanides, but a few were successful in leading to reasonably sized crystals of $RECo_2Ge_2$ (RE = Ce, Eu, Yb), CeCoGe₂, CeIrGe₂, Yb₄Ir₇Ge₆, and Yb₅Ir₄Ge₁₀, for which full structure determinations were performed. An unusual peritectoid reaction was observed in which two different polymorphs of CeIrGe₂ were observed. Most of these compounds did not show structural transitions or unusual behaviour when cooled to low temperature, but the unit cell of Yb₅Ir₄Ge₁₀ was found to actually expand slightly, suggesting perhaps a valence change.

Although most of these ternary rare-earth gallides and germanides have no immediately useful technological applications, they are of intense interest to the condensed matter physics community, given the highly correlated electron behaviour that they often exhibit. Preparing suitable samples remains challenging. Many of the physical property measurements are made on powder samples, for which a nagging concern is that secondary or minor phases may obscure conclusions, or worse, mislead. Measurements made on single crystals can help alleviate these concerns because they are, by necessity, single phase. The conditions for crystal growth depends on a case-by-case basis on the particular compound being studied, and it is still not easy to make generalizations on which conditions are best. The work presented in this thesis serve as the first tentative steps to understanding how to optimize these conditions. It would be beneficial to apply techniques, such as in situ X-ray diffraction, to examine more closely what is happening during crystal growth, but these remain very challenging experiments to conduct.

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Appendix 1.

Supplementary Data for Chapter 3

nominal composition	<i>x</i> or <i>y</i>	a (Å)	<i>b</i> (Å)	<i>c</i> (Å)	β (deg.)	$R_{ m p}$	$R_{ m wp}$
$La_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$							
La ₃ Ge ₂ S ₈ I	0	16.1616(1)	7.9812(1)	11.0259(1)	98.17(1)	0.095	0.146
$La_3Ge_{1.50}Si_{0.50}S_8I$	0.250	16.1523(2)	7.9691(2)	11.0086(2)	98.11(1)	0.088	0.134
$La_{3}Ge_{1.00}Si_{1.00}S_{8}I$	0.500	16.1229(2)	7.9458(2)	10.9770(2)	98.04(1)	0.101	0.155
$La_{3}Ge_{0.50}Si_{1.50}S_{8}I$	0.750	16.1112(1)	7.9312(1)	10.9563(1)	97.99(1)	0.084	0.120
$La_3Si_2S_8I$	1.000	16.0917(1)	7.9130(1)	10.9292(1)	97.96(1)	0.067	0.095
Ce3(Ge1-xSix)2S8I							
Ce ₃ Ge ₂ S ₈ I	0	16.0436(1)	7.9184(1)	10.9640(1)	98.27(1)	0.087	0.126
$Ce_{3}Ge_{1.50}Si_{0.50}S_{8}I$	0.250	16.0272(1)	7.9040(1)	10.9439(1)	98.16(1)	0.095	0.155
$Ce_{3}Ge_{1.00}Si_{1.00}S_{8}I$	0.500	16.0077(1)	7.8869(1)	10.9192(1)	98.06(1)	0.099	0.150
$Ce_{3}Ge_{0.50}Si_{1.50}S_{8}I$	0.750	15.9870(1)	7.8693(1)	10.8937(1)	97.98(1)	0.072	0.109
$Ce_3Si_2S_8I$	1.000	15.9739(1)	7.8574(1)	10.8744(1)	97.94(1)	0.061	0.081
Ce ₃ Si ₂ (S _{1-y} Se _y)8I							
Ce ₃ Si ₂ S ₈ I	0	15.9739(1)	7.8574(1)	10.8744(1)	97.94(1)	0.061	0.081
Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{7.75} Se _{0.25} I	0.031	15.9657(1)	7.8520(1)	10.8654(1)	97.86(1)	0.052	0.076
$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.50}Se_{0.50}I$	0.062	16.0102(1)	7.8734(1)	10.8947(1)	97.80(1)	0.044	0.066
$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.25}Se_{0.75}I$	0.094	16.0317(1)	7.8838(1)	10.9071(1)	97.72(1)	0.050	0.076
$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.00}Se_{1.00}I$	0.125	16.0413(1)	7.8882(1)	10.9120(1)	97.67(1)	0.050	0.076
$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{6.50}Se_{1.50}I$	0.188	16.0666(1)	7.9017(1)	10.9308(1)	97.61(1)	0.071	0.102
$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{6.00}Se_{2.00}I$	0.250	16.0929(3)	7.9146(2)	10.9484(2)	97.56(1)	0.051	0.075
Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{5.00} Se _{3.00} I	0.375	16.1394(4)	7.9415(3)	10.9885(4)	97.48(1)	0.057	0.077
Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{4.00} Se _{4.00} I	0.500	16.2308(3)	8.0005(2)	11.0896(3)	97.45(1)	0.063	0.091
$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{3.00}Se_{5.00}I$	0.625	16.2955(4)	8.0403(3)	11.1708(4)	97.47(1)	0.070	0.098
$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{2.00}Se_{6.00}I$	0.750	16.3643(3)	8.0774(2)	11.2539(2)	97.54(1)	0.064	0.090
Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{1.00} Se _{7.00} I	0.875	16.4218(2)	8.1028(2)	11.3232(2)	97.67(1)	0.069	0.092
Ce ₃ Si ₂ Se ₈ I	1	16.5277(7)	8.1430(5)	11.4193(7)	98.06(1)	0.064	0.091
$Pr_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$							
Pr ₃ Ge ₂ S ₈ I	0	15.9810(5)	7.8786(3)	10.9272(5)	98.47(1)	0.059	0.092
$Pr_{3}Ge_{1.50}Si_{0.50}S_{8}I$	0.250	15.9533(2)	7.8577(1)	10.8986(2)	98.30(1)	0.111	0.160
$Pr_{3}Ge_{1.00}Si_{1.00}S_{8}I$	0.500	15.9329(3)	7.8426(2)	10.8730(3)	98.17(1)	0.082	0.124
Pr3Ge0.50Si1.50S8I	0.750	15.9116(4)	7.8260(3)	10.8495(4)	98.06(1)	0.111	0.172
Pr ₃ Si ₂ S ₈ I	1.000	15.8956(1)	7.8131(1)	10.8281(1)	97.99(1)	0.107	0.166

Table A1-1. Cell Parameters and Refinement Agreement Factors for RE₃(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)₂S₈I and Ce₃Si₂(S_{1-y}Se_y)₈I

nominal composition	x or y	RE	Ge	Si	S	Se	Ι
La3(Ge1-xSix)2S8I							
La ₃ Ge ₂ S ₈ I	0	22.0	14.1	0	54.6	0	9.3
La3Ge1.75Si0.25S8I	0.125	23.9	13.2	3.5	42.4	0	17.1
La3Ge1.50Si0.50S8I	0.250	25.3	11.8	5.4	39.7	0	17.8
La3Ge1.25Si0.75S8I	0.375	22.1	8.3	6.2	44.4	0	18.9
La3Ge1.00Si1.00S8I	0.500	24.5	7.8	8.0	43.4	0	16.3
La3Ge0.75Si1.25S8I	0.625	24.1	6.3	10.6	45.6	0	13.3
La3Ge0.50Si1.50S8I	0.750	25.2	4.7	13.0	43.6	0	13.4
La3Ge0.25Si1.75S8I	0.875	24.3	2.5	14.5	44.8	0	13.8
La ₃ Si ₂ S ₈ I	1.000	23.2	0	15.5	53.6	0	7.7
$Ce_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$							
Ce ₃ Ge ₂ S ₈ I	0	23.0	16.0	0	50.9	0	10.1
Ce ₃ Ge _{1.75} Si _{0.25} S ₈ I	0.125	25.5	13.8	3.6	50.0	0	7.0
$Ce_{3}Ge_{1.50}Si_{0.50}S_{8}I$	0.250	27.6	13.4	4.2	45.2	0	9.6
$Ce_3Ge_{1.25}Si_{0.75}S_8I$	0.375	23.1	11.9	7.4	44.0	0	13.6
$Ce_3Ge_{1.00}Si_{1.00}S_8I$	0.500	31.6	8.5	8.2	43.8	0	7.8
$Ce_3Ge_{0.75}Si_{1.25}S_8I$	0.625	25.0	6.8	10.5	49.7	0	8.0
$Ce_{3}Ge_{0.50}Si_{1.50}S_{8}I$	0.750	26.3	2.9	10.1	53.5	0	7.2
Ce3Ge0.45Si1.55S8I	0.775	26.2	2.8	13.0	50.5	0	7.5
$Ce_{3}Ge_{0.40}Si_{1.60}S_{8}I$	0.800	26.6	2.5	13.7	49.0	0	8.2
Ce3Ge0.35Si1.65S8I	0.825	25.7	2.8	13.2	49.7	0	8.6
Ce3Ge0.30Si1.70S8I	0.850	27.1	3.2	16.4	45.3	0	8.0
$Ce_{3}Ge_{0.25}Si_{1.75}S_{8}I$	0.875	27.1	1.4	12.1	51.4	0	8.1
Ce3Ge0.20Si1.80S8I	0.900	26.1	2.5	14.7	49.3	0	7.5
Ce3Ge0.15Si1.85S8I	0.925	25.0	1.1	15.1	50.6	0	8.3
$Ce_{3}Ge_{0.10}Si_{1.90}S_{8}I$	0.950	24.8	1.7	16.0	49.6	0	7.8
Ce3Ge0.05Si1.95S8I	0.975	24.3	1.0	17.0	50.3	0	7.4
Ce ₃ Si ₂ S ₈ I	1.000	25.2	0	15.2	52.3	0	7.3
$Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$							
Ce ₃ Si ₂ S ₈ I	0	25.2	0	15.2	52.3	0	7.2
$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.95}Se_{0.05}I$	0.006	24.0	0	13.6	51.6	0.1	10.6
Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{7.90} Se _{0.10} I	0.012	24.7	0	17.9	47.0	0.2	10.2
Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{7.85} Se _{0.15} I	0.019	23.8	0	15.2	52.2	0.5	8.4
$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.80}Se_{0.20}I$	0.025	23.9	0	15.2	48.2	2.2	10.5
Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{7.75} Se _{0.25} I	0.031	24.3	0	15.4	51.3	1.1	7.9

Table A1-2. EDX Analyses (mol. %) for $RE_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ and $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$

$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.50}Se_{0.50}I$	0.062	26.6	0	15.4	42.7	4.0	11.2
Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{7.25} Se _{0.75} I	0.094	25.4	0	16.0	42.9	6.5	9.2
Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{7.00} Se _{1.00} I	0.125	26.4	0	17.8	38.1	8.5	9.3
$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{6.75}Se_{1.25}I$	0.156	26.9	0	16.6	39.6	6.8	10.2
Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{6.50} Se _{1.50} I	0.188	25.0	0	17.2	39.8	9.0	9.0
Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{6.00} Se _{2.00} I	0.250	19.4	0	16.3	36.2	12.4	15.7
Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{5.00} Se _{3.00} I	0.375	19.6	0	22.1	27.7	18.3	12.3
Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{4.00} Se _{4.00} I	0.500	17.6	0	18.0	25.7	29.8	8.6
Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{3.00} Se _{5.00} I	0.625	17.9	0	15.2	22.1	34.7	10.0
$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{2.00}Se_{6.00}I$	0.750	18.6	0	15.5	13.8	44.6	7.5
Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{1.00} Se _{7.00} I	0.875	20.2	0	14.8	5.9	43.0	16.1
Ce ₃ Si ₂ Se ₈ I	1.000	18.8	0	14.9	0	54.4	11.8
$Pr_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$							
Pr ₃ Ge ₂ S ₈ I	0	20.0	13.8	0	48.2	0	18.0
Pr3Ge1.75Si0.25S8I	0.125	16.2	18.0	3.8	51.8	0	10.2
Pr3Ge1.50Si0.50S8I	0.250	22.8	15.8	6.6	37.9	0	16.8
Pr3Ge1.25Si0.75S8I	0.375	17.4	12.4	7.4	52.2	0	10.5
Pr3Ge1.00Si1.00S8I	0.500	23.2	7.4	9.2	44.8	0	15.4
Pr3Ge0.75Si1.25S8I	0.625	21.2	5.5	13.0	44.0	0	16.3
$Pr_{3}Ge_{0.50}Si_{1.50}S_{8}I$	0.750	22.4	3.9	12.2	41.4	0	20.1
Pr3Ge0.25Si1.75S8I	0.875	23.0	1.6	16.2	45.9	0	13.2
Pr ₃ Si ₂ S ₈ I	1.000	17.6	0	16.0	57.8	0	8.6

nominal composition	$La_3Ge_{1.5}Si_{0.5}S_8I$	La ₃ GeSiS ₈ I	$La_3Ge_{0.5}Si_{1.5}S_8I$	$Ce_3Ge_{1.5}Si_{0.5}S_8I$	Ce ₃ GeSiS ₈ I
refined composition	$La_{3}Ge_{1.55(1)}Si_{0.45(1)}S_{8}I$	$La_{3}Ge_{0.98(2)}Si_{1.02(2)}S_{8}I$	$La_{3}Ge_{0.52(1)}Si_{1.48(1)}S_{8}I$	$Ce_3Ge_{1.55(1)}Si_{0.45(1)}S_8I$	$Ce_3Ge_{0.96(2)}Si_{1.04(2)}S_8I$
formula mass (amu)	923.04	900.79	878.54	926.67	908.42
space group	<i>C</i> 2/ <i>c</i> (No. 15)				
<i>a</i> (Å)	16.1274(13)	16.127(2)	16.137(16)	16.0237(10)	16.014(2)
<i>b</i> (Å)	7.9621(6)	7.9458(11)	7.921(8)	7.8998(5)	7.8845(11)
<i>c</i> (Å)	10.9988(9)	10.9756(15)	10.959(11)	10.9439(7)	10.9249(15)
β (deg.)	98.0961(15)	98.019(3)	97.957(18)	98.1716(10)	98.063(3)
$V(Å^3)$	1398.26(19)	1392.7(3)	1387(2)	1371.26(15)	1365.8(3)
Ζ	4	4	4	4	4
$T(\mathbf{K})$	296(2)	296(2)	296(2)	296(2)	296(2)
$ ho_{ m calcd} ({ m g \ cm^{-3}})$	4.385	4.296	4.206	4.489	4.398
crystal dimensions (mm)	$0.09\times0.08\times0.04$	$0.10 \times 0.10 \times 0.07$	$0.14 \times 0.10 \times 0.08$	$0.16 \times 0.10 \times 0.06$	$0.13 \times 0.10 \times 0.06$
μ (Mo K α) (mm ⁻¹)	15.56	14.61	13.65	16.48	15.52
transmission factors	0.384-0.628	0.446-0.515	0.422-0.494	0.231-0.464	0.347–0.460
2θ limits	5.10–57.83°	5.10-61.84°	5.10-61.70°	5.14-61.26°	5.14-61.37°
data collected no. of data collected	$-21 \le h \le 21, -10 \le k \le$ 10, -14 $\le l \le 14$ 7078	$-23 \le h \le 23, -11 \le k \le$ 11, -15 $\le l \le 15$ 8412	$-23 \le h \le 23, -11 \le k \le$ 11, -15 $\le l \le 15$ 8281	$-22 \le h \le 22, -11 \le k \le$ 11, -15 $\le l \le 15$ 8154	$-22 \le h \le 22, -11 \le k \le$ 11, -15 $\le l \le 15$ 8155
no. of unique data,	1848 ($R_{\rm int} = 0.057$)	2189 ($R_{\rm int} = 0.093$)	2174 ($R_{\rm int} = 0.066$)	2122 ($R_{int} = 0.040$)	2121 ($R_{int} = 0.094$)
including $F_o^2 < 0$ no. of unique data, with $F_o^2 > 2\sigma(F_o^2)$	1431	1512	1689	1806	1484
no. of variables	67	66	66	66	66
$R(F)$ for $F_{o}^{2} > 2\sigma(F_{o}^{2})^{a}$	0.037	0.052	0.044	0.026	0.047
$R_{\rm w}(F_{ m o}{}^2)^{b}$	0.084	0.141	0.113	0.054	0.124
goodness of fit	1.12	1.03	1.12	1.11	1.06
$(\Delta \rho)_{\rm max}, (\Delta \rho)_{\rm min} (e {\rm \AA}^{-3})$	2.39, -1.66	3.35, -2.45	2.75, -2.66	1.52, -1.35	3.00, -2.36

Table A1-3. Crystallographic Data for $RE_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ and $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$

Table A1-3. (Cont.)

nominal composition	$Ce_3Ge_{0.5}Si_{1.5}S_8I$	Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{7.5} Se _{0.5} I	Ce ₃ Si ₂ S ₇ SeI	Ce ₃ Si ₂ S ₄ Se ₄ I	Ce ₃ Si ₂ Se ₈ I
refined composition	$Ce_3Ge_{0.43(1)}Si_{1.57(1)}S_8I$	$Ce_3Si_2S_{7.55(1)}Se_{0.45(1)}I$	$Ce_3Si_2S_{7.00(2)}Se_{1.00(2)}I$	$Ce_3Si_2S_{4.21(1)}Se_{3.79(1)}I$	Ce ₃ Si ₂ Se ₈ I
formula mass (amu)	882.17	883.37	906.82	1047.52	1235.12
space group	<i>C</i> 2/ <i>c</i> (No. 15)	<i>C</i> 2/ <i>c</i> (No. 15)	<i>C</i> 2/ <i>c</i> (No. 15)	<i>C</i> 2/ <i>c</i> (No. 15)	<i>C</i> 2/ <i>c</i> (No. 15)
<i>a</i> (Å)	15.9844(11)	15.9941(12)	16.046(2)	16.2256(8)	16.5161(18)
<i>b</i> (Å)	7.8676(6)	7.8706(6)	7.8872(11)	7.9960(4)	8.1336(9)
<i>c</i> (Å)	10.8912(8)	10.8909(8)	10.9161(16)	11.0865(5)	11.4124(12)
β (deg.)	98.0066(14)	97.8085(13)	97.689(3)	97.4601(7)	98.100(2)
$V(Å^3)$	1356.31(17)	1358.27(18)	1369.1(3)	1426.19(12)	1517.8(3)
Ζ	4	4	4	4	4
<i>T</i> (K)	296(2)	296(2)	296(2)	296(2)	296(2)
$ ho_{ m calcd} ({ m g \ cm^{-3}})$	4.320	4.320	4.399	4.879	5.405
crystal dimensions (mm)	$0.08\times0.08\times0.06$	$0.10\times0.09\times0.05$	$0.12 \times 0.07 \times 0.07$	$0.14 \times 0.11 \times 0.10$	$0.07 \times 0.06 \times 0.05$
μ (Mo K α) (mm ⁻¹)	14.58	14.78	15.92	22.50	30.18
transmission factors	0.446-0.569	0.312-0.634	0.378-0.491	0.133-0.252	0.266-0.457
2θ limits	5.15-63.63°	5.14–57.83°	5.12-61.60°	5.06-63.33°	4.98–63.66°
data collected no. of data collected	$-23 \le h \le 23, -11 \le k \le$ 11, -16 $\le l \le 16$ 8916	$-21 \le h \le 21, -10 \le k \le 10, -14 \le l \le 14$ 6861	$-22 \le h \le 23, -11 \le k \le$ 11, -15 $\le l \le 15$ 8223	$-23 \le h \le 23, -11 \le k \le$ 11, -16 $\le l \le 16$ 9254	$-24 \le h \le 24, -12 \le k \le$ 12, -16 $\le l \le$ 16 9919
no. of unique data,	2322 ($R_{\rm int} = 0.060$)	1789 ($R_{\rm int} = 0.031$)	2144 ($R_{int} = 0.116$)	2404 ($R_{\rm int} = 0.026$)	2596 ($R_{\rm int} = 0.082$)
including $F_o^2 < 0$ no. of unique data, with $F_o^2 > 2\sigma(F_o^2)$	1786	1599	1399	2190	1834
no. of variables	66	70	69	70	66
$R(F)$ for $F_{o}^{2} > 2\sigma(F_{o}^{2})^{a}$	0.040	0.025	0.055	0.018	0.047
$R_{\rm w}(F_{\rm o}^{2})^{b}$	0.098	0.052	0.155	0.039	0.120
goodness of fit	1.10	1.13	1.04	1.11	1.04
$(\Delta \rho)_{\text{max}}, (\Delta \rho)_{\text{min}} (e \text{ Å}^{-3})$	3.72, -1.73	1.70, -1.05	3.49, -2.75	1.01, -0.84	2.56, -2.11

nominal composition	Pr ₃ GeSiS ₈ I
refined composition	$Pr_3Ge_{1.01(2)}Si_{0.99(2)}S_8I$
formula mass (amu)	906.79
space group	<i>C</i> 2/ <i>c</i> (No. 15)
a (Å)	15.908(4)
<i>b</i> (Å)	7.8343(19)
<i>c</i> (Å)	10.864(3)
β (deg.)	98.191(5)
$V(Å^3)$	1340.1(6)
Ζ	4
<i>T</i> (K)	296(2)
$ ho_{ m calcd} ({ m g \ cm^{-3}})$	4.494
crystal dimensions (mm)	$0.06 \times 0.06 \times 0.06$
μ (Mo K α) (mm ⁻¹)	16.53
transmission factors	0.485–0.604
2θ limits	5.17–56.30°
data collected	$-21 \le h \le 20, -10 \le k \le 10, -10$
no. of data collected	$14 \le l \le 14$
	6304 1(4((P = 0.072))
no. of unique data, including $F_o^2 < 0$	1646 ($R_{\rm int} = 0.073$)
no. of unique data, with $F_0^2 >$	1209
$2\sigma(F_o^2)$ no. of variables	66
$R(F) \text{ for } F_o^2 > 2\sigma(F_o^2)^a$	0.042
$R_{\rm w}(F_{\rm o}^{2})^{b}$	0.108
goodness of fit	1.07
$(\Delta \rho)_{\text{max}}, (\Delta \rho)_{\text{min}} (e \text{ Å}^{-3})$	2.98, -1.64

 $\overline{{}^{a} R(F) = \sum ||F_{o}| - |F_{c}|| / \sum |F_{o}|. \ {}^{b} R_{w}(F_{o}^{2}) = \left[\sum [w(F_{o}^{2} - F_{c}^{2})^{2}] / \sum wF_{o}^{4}\right]^{1/2}; \ w^{-1} = [\sigma^{2}(F_{o}^{2}) + (Ap)^{2} + Bp], \text{ where } p = \left[\max(F_{o}^{2}, 0) + 2F_{c}^{2}\right] / 3.$

atom	Wyckoff position	occupancy	x	У	Ζ	$U_{ m eq}({ m \AA}^2)^{a}$
La3Ge1	1.55(1)Si0.45(1)S8I					
Lal	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.30362(3)	0.12033(6)	0.32070(4)	0.01348(15)
La2	4 <i>e</i>	1	0	0.10071(9)	1/4	0.01595(18)
Tt	8 <i>f</i>	0.777(6) Ge, 0.223(6) Si	0.15880(6)	0.03898(13)	0.02779(8)	0.0134(3)
S1	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.06590(13)	0.1564(3)	0.54088(19)	0.0170(4)
S2	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.14491(13)	0.2489(3)	0.1489(2)	0.0169(4)
S3	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.21673(12)	0.4298(3)	0.41356(18)	0.0148(4)
S4	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.35054(13)	0.4006(3)	0.16631(19)	0.0151(4)
Ι	4 <i>e</i>	1	0	0.51776(10)	1/4	0.0266(2)
La3Ge0).98(2)Si1.02(2)S8I					
La1	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.30365(4)	0.12004(7)	0.32042(5)	0.01805(17)
La2	4 <i>e</i>	1	0	0.09876(11)	1/4	0.0207(2)
Tt	8 <i>f</i>	0.488(8) Ge, 0.512(8) Si	0.15911(9)	0.0383(2)	0.02850(13)	0.0164(5)
S1	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.06671(16)	0.1544(3)	0.5417(2)	0.0227(5)
S2	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.14474(16)	0.2472(3)	0.1483(2)	0.0205(5)
S3	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.21783(16)	0.4307(3)	0.4141(2)	0.0194(5)
S4	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.35017(16)	0.3999(3)	0.1638(2)	0.0198(5)
Ι	4 <i>e</i>	1	0	0.51693(13)	1/4	0.0316(3)
La3Ge0	0.52(1)Si1.48(1)S8I					
La1	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.30361(3)	0.11979(6)	0.32033(4)	0.01409(13)
La2	4e	1	0	0.09689(8)	1/4	0.01662(16)
Tt	8 <i>f</i>	0.260(6) Ge, 0.740(6) Si	0.15929(9)	0.0379(2)	0.02908(13)	0.0136(5)
S1	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.06758(12)	0.1530(3)	0.54198(19)	0.0177(4)
S2	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.14488(12)	0.2451(2)	0.14756(18)	0.0164(4)
S3	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.21855(12)	0.4305(3)	0.41452(17)	0.0155(4)
S4	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.34991(12)	0.3994(2)	0.16171(18)	0.0154(4)
Ι	4e	1	0	0.51631(10)	1/4	0.0274(2)
Ce ₃ Ge ₁	1.55(1)Si0.45(1)S8I		-			
Cel	8f	1	0.30317(2)	0.12106(3)	0.32060(2)	0.01185(7)
Ce2	4 <i>e</i>	1	0	0.10296(5)	1/4	0.01448(9)
Tt	8f	0.775(4) Ge, 0.225(4) Si	0.15862(3)	0.03890(7)	0.02716(5)	0.01112(17)
S1	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.06563(7)	0.15873(15)	0.54033(11)	0.0155(2)
S2	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.14444(8)	0.25031(15)	0.14893(11)	0.0150(2)
S2 S3	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.21603(7)	0.43015(15)	0.41366(11)	0.0133(2)
S4	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.35086(7)	0.40105(15)	0.16808(11)	0.0133(2)
I.	4e	1	0	0.51841(6)	1/4	0.02387(12)
- Ce3Geo).96(2)Si1.04(2)S8I	-	~	0.01011(0)	<i>·</i> ·	0.02007(12)
Ce1	8f	1	0.30316(3)	0.12078(7)	0.32035(5)	0.01589(16)
Ce2	8) 4e	1	0.50510(5)	0.10061(10)	¹ / ₄	0.01337(10)
Tt	4e 8f	0.480(8) Ge, 0.520(8) Si	0.15892(9)	0.03847(19)	0.02778(13)	0.0183(2) 0.0147(5)
S1	8) 8f	1	0.06644(16)	0.1563(3)	0.5412(2)	0.0147(3) 0.0199(5)
S1 S2	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.14456(16)	0.1303(3)	0.1476(2)	0.0199(3) 0.0184(5)
S2 S3	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.21709(16)	0.2480(3)	0.1470(2) 0.4143(2)	
S3 S4	8j 8f	1	0.35037(16)	0.4309(3) 0.4005(3)	0.4143(2) 0.1655(2)	0.0166(5) 0.0175(5)
		1				
Ι	4 <i>e</i>	l	0	0.51727(12)	1⁄4	0.0285(3)

Table A1-4. Atomic Coordinates and Equivalent Isotropic Displacement Parameters for $RE_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ and $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$.

	1-4. (Cont.)					
atom	Wyckoff position	occupancy	x	У	Ζ	$U_{ m eq}({ m \AA}^2)^{a}$
Ce ₃ Ge	0.43(1)Si1.57(1)S8	3I				
Cel	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.30315(2)	0.12043(5)	0.32000(3)	0.01335(11)
Ce2	4 <i>e</i>	1	0	0.09819(7)	1/4	0.01582(13)
Tt	8 <i>f</i>	0.216(6) Ge, 0.784(6) Si	0.15909(9)	0.03785(18)	0.02843(12)	0.0133(4)
S1	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.06748(11)	0.1544(2)	0.54204(16)	0.0164(3)
S2	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.14466(11)	0.2459(2)	0.14744(16)	0.0158(3)
S3	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.21794(11)	0.4311(2)	0.41437(15)	0.0144(3)
S4	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.35021(11)	0.3995(2)	0.16246(15)	0.0142(3)
Ι	4 <i>e</i>	1	0	0.51649(9)	1⁄4	0.02550(18)
Ce ₃ Si ₂ S	S7.55(1)Se0.45(1)	[
Cel	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.30275(2)	0.11983(3)	0.31899(2)	0.01166(9)
Ce2	4 <i>e</i>	1	0	0.09622(5)	1/4	0.01370(10)
Si	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.15990(8)	0.03695(16)	0.02887(12)	0.0103(2)
Ch1	8 <i>f</i>	0.829(4) S, 0.171(4) Se	0.06648(6)	0.15703(13)	0.54235(9)	0.0152(3)
Ch2	8 <i>f</i>	0.973(4) S, 0.027(4) Se	0.14478(7)	0.24476(14)	0.14665(11)	0.0138(4)
Ch3	8 <i>f</i>	0.973(4) S, 0.027(4) Se	0.21820(7)	0.43108(14)	0.41467(10)	0.0127(4)
Ch4	8 <i>f</i>	1.000(4) S, 0.001(4) Se	0.34982(7)	0.39936(15)	0.16059(11)	0.0120(4)
Ι	4e	1	0	0.51479(6)	1⁄4	0.02421(13)
Ce ₃ Si ₂ S	S7.00(2)Se1.00(2)	I		~ /		
Cel	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.30228(4)	0.11952(9)	0.31829(6)	0.0202(2)
Ce2	4 <i>e</i>	1	0	0.09609(13)	1/4	0.0220(3)
Si	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.1600(2)	0.0371(4)	0.0283(3)	0.0184(7)
Ch1	8 <i>f</i>	0.661(11) S, 0.339(11) Se	0.06552(14)	0.1584(3)	0.5422(2)	0.0241(7)
Ch2	8 <i>f</i>	0.932(10) S, 0.068(10) Se	0.14463(18)	0.2448(4)	0.1460(3)	0.0220(9)
Ch3	8 <i>f</i>	0.932(10) S, 0.068(10) Se	0.21776(18)	0.4307(4)	0.4149(3)	0.0208(9)
Ch4	8 <i>f</i>	0.976(10) S, 0.024(10) Se	0.35006(19)	0.3988(4)	0.1605(3)	0.0206(10)
I	4 <i>e</i>	1	0	0.51384(16)	1/4	0.0328(3)
	S4.21(1)Se3.79(1)		-			
Cel	8f	1	0.30106(2)	0.12193(2)	0.31574(2)	0.01393(5)
Ce2	6 <i>j</i> 4 <i>e</i>	1	0	0.09876(3)	1/4	0.01557(6)
Si	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.16046(5)	0.03706(10)	0.02729(7)	0.01237(15)
Ch1	8 <i>f</i>	0.181(3) S, 0.819(3) Se	0.06470(2)	0.16151(4)	0.54365(3)	0.01237(13)
Ch2	8 <i>f</i>	0.565(3) S, 0.435(3) Se	0.14373(3)	0.25007(6)	0.14425(4)	0.01521(15)
Ch2	8 <i>f</i>	0.558(3) S, 0.442(3) Se	0.21435(3)	0.43059(6)	0.41589(4)	0.01321(13)
Ch4	8 <i>f</i>	0.800(3) S, 0.200(3) Se	0.35105(4)	0.40115(7)	0.41389(4) 0.16273(5)	0.01420(14)
I I	8 <i>j</i> 4e	1	0.33103(4)	0.40113(7) 0.51283(4)	$1/4^{1/2}$	0.01404(18)
T Ce3Si2S		1	0	0.51205(4)	/4	0.020/1(0)
Ce35125 Ce1		1	0.30051(3)	0 123/2(6)	0.31709(5)	0.01615(15)
	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.30051(3)	0.12342(6)	0.31798(5)	0.01615(15)
Ce2	4e 8f	1	-	0.11068(10) 0.0252(2)	$\frac{1}{4}$	0.01857(19)
Si Sal	8f	1	0.15966(15)	0.0352(3)	0.0280(2) 0.54227(0)	0.0150(5)
Se1	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.06555(6)	0.16154(13)	0.54327(9)	0.0183(2)
Se2	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.14351(6)	0.25245(12)	0.14392(9)	0.0177(2)

Table	A1-4.	(Cont.)
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Se3	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.21342(6)	0.43079(12)	0.41399(8)	0.0166(2)			
Se4	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.35310(6)	0.40140(12)	0.16580(8)	0.0167(2)			
Ι	4 <i>e</i>	1	0	0.51431(12)	1⁄4	0.0276(2)			
Pr ₃ Ge	Pr3Ge1.01(2)Si0.99(2)S8I								
Pr1	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.30274(4)	0.12134(8)	0.32031(6)	0.01578(18)			
Pr2	4 <i>e</i>	1	0	0.10301(11)	1/4	0.0187(2)			
Tt	8 <i>f</i>	0.506(9) Ge, 0.494(9) Si	0.15865(10)	0.0386(2)	0.02736(15)	0.0159(6)			
S1	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.06610(17)	0.1584(4)	0.5405(3)	0.0197(6)			
S2	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.14399(17)	0.2493(4)	0.1478(3)	0.0185(6)			
S3	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.21642(17)	0.4310(4)	0.4140(2)	0.0164(5)			
S4	8 <i>f</i>	1	0.35072(17)	0.4008(4)	0.1668(3)	0.0173(6)			
Ι	4 <i>e</i>	1	0	0.51802(14)	1⁄4	0.0275(3)			

^{*a*} U_{eq} is defined as one-third of the trace of the orthogonalized U_{ij} tensor. ^{*b*} Fixed during refinement.

	$La_3Ge_{1.55(1)}Si_{0.45(1)}S_8I$	$La_3Ge_{0.98(2)}Si_{1.02(2)}S_8I$	$La_3Ge_{0.52(1)}Si_{1.48(1)}S_8I$
La1–S3	2.968(2)	2.960(3)	2.957(3)
La1–S4	2.966(2)	2.970(3)	2.974(3)
La1–S1	3.000(2)	2.998(3)	2.995(3)
La1–S3	3.013(2)	3.009(3)	3.003(3)
La1–S4	3.060(2)	3.060(3)	3.059(3)
La1–S3	3.079(2)	3.076(3)	3.066(3)
La1–S2	3.077(2)	3.083(3)	3.089(3)
La1–S2	3.131(2)	3.131(3)	3.129(3)
La1–I	3.4636(5)	3.4610(8)	3.462(3)
La2–S4 (×2)	2.928(2)	2.931(3)	2.933(3)
La2–S2 (×2)	2.970(2)	2.968(3)	2.972(3)
La2–S1 (×2)	3.256(2)	3.262(3)	3.265(4)
La2–S1 (×2)	3.362(2)	3.334(3)	3.316(3)
La2–I	3.3206(11)	3.3227(14)	3.322(3)
Tt-S2	2.169(2)	2.150(3)	2.125(3)
Tt–S4	2.173(2)	2.152(3)	2.134(3)
Tt–S1	2.179(2)	2.156(3)	2.134(3)
Tt-S3	2.199(2)	2.172(3)	2.157(3)
	$Ce_3Ge_{1.55(1)}Si_{0.45(1)}S_8I$	Ce ₃ Ge _{0.96(2)} Si _{1.04(2)} S ₈ I	Ce ₃ Ge _{0.43(1)} Si _{1.57(1)} S ₈ I
Ce1–S3	2.9526(12)	2.947(2)	2.9341(17)
Ce1–S4	2.9368(12)	2.942(3)	2.9478(17)
Ce1–S1	2.9753(12)	2.975(3)	2.9675(18)
e1–S3	2.9951(12)	2.990(3)	2.9864(17)
Ce1–S4	3.0356(12)	3.032(3)	3.0328(17)
Ce1–S3	3.0582(12)	3.054(3)	3.0456(18)
Ce1–S2	3.0520(12)	3.063(3)	3.0694(18)
Ce1–S2	3.1118(13)	3.110(3)	3.0982(18)
Ce1–I	3.4489(3)	3.4457(7)	3.4379(5)
Ce2–S4 (×2)	2.9069(12)	2.909(3)	2.9068(17)
Ce2-S2 (×2)	2.9433(12)	2.947(3)	2.9436(17)
Ce2-S1 (×2)	3.2320(12)	3.240(3)	3.2434(18)
Ce2–S1 (×2)	3.3661(13)	3.334(3)	3.3051(18)
Ce2–I	3.2820(6)	3.2852(13)	3.2910(9)
Tt-S2	2.1686(13)	2.140(3)	2.120(2)
Tt–S4	2.1728(13)	2.150(3)	2.122(2)
Tt–S1	2.1771(13)	2.153(3)	2.125(2)
Tt–S3	2.1958(13)	2.170(3)	2.149(2)
	Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{7.55(1)} Se _{0.45(1)} I	Ce ₃ Si ₂ S _{7.00(2)} Se _{1.00(2)} I	$Ce_3Si_2S_{4.21(1)}Se_{3.79(1)}I$
Ce1–Ch3	2.9263(12)	2.929(3)	2.9717(5)
Ce1–Ch4	2.9557(12)	2.960(3)	2.9795(6)
Ce1–Ch1	2.9803(10)	3.004(2)	3.0481(4)
Ce1–Ch3	2.9917(12)	2.999(3)	3.0471(5)
		3.035(3)	3.0689(6)

Table A1-5. Interatomic Distances (Å) for $RE_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ and $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$.

Ce1–Ch3	3.0494(12)	3.059(3)	3.1160(5)
Ce1–Ch2	3.0779(12)	3.086(3)	3.1204(5)
Ce1–Ch2	3.0958(12)	3.104(3)	3.1498(5)
Ce1–I	3.4418(4)	3.4567(9)	3.5103(2)
Ce2– <i>Ch</i> 4 (×2)	2.9126(12)	2.922(3)	2.9438(6)
Ce2–Ch2 (×2)	2.9503(11)	2.959(3)	2.9978(5)
Ce2–Ch1 (×2)	3.2522(10)	3.259(2)	3.3264(4)
Ce2–Ch1 (×2)	3.2972(10)	3.304(2)	3.3601(4)
Ce2–I	3.2944(7)	3.2948(17)	3.3109(4)
Si–Ch4	2.1085(17)	2.108(4)	2.1483(10)
Si–Ch2	2.1126(17)	2.116(4)	2.1789(9)
Si–Ch3	2.1325(17)	2.148(4)	2.2170(9)
Si–Ch1	2.1552(16)	2.182(4)	2.2453(9)
	Ce ₃ Si ₂ Se ₈ I		
Ce1–Se4	3.0508(11)		
Ce1–Se3	3.0568(11)		
Cel-Sel	3.0778(11)		
Ce1–Se3	3.1309(11)		
Ce1–Se4	3.1407(11)		
Ce1–Se3	3.1566(11)		
Ce1–Se2	3.1678(11)		
Ce1–Se2	3.2124(12)		
Ce1–I	3.6007(7)		
Ce2–Se4 (×2)	3.0084(11)		
Ce2–Se2 (×2)	3.0367(10)		
Ce2-Se1 (×2)	3.3947(10)		
Ce2–Se1 (×2)	3.5157(11)		
Ce2–I	3.2830(13)		
Si–Se2	2.245(3)		
Si–Se4	2.252(3)		
Si–Se1	2.254(3)		
Si–Se3	2.272(3)		
	$Pr_3Ge_{1.01(2)}Si_{0.99(2)}S_8I$		
Pr1–S4	2.919(3)		
Pr1–S3	2.928(3)		
Pr1–S1	2.953(3)		
Pr1–S3	2.974(3)		
Pr1–S4	3.010(3)		
Pr1–S3	3.034(3)		
Pr1–S2	3.042(3)		
Pr1–S2	3.090(3)		
Pr1–I	3.4306(9)		
Pr2–S4 (×2)	2.891(3)		
Pr2–S2 (×2)	2.918(3)		
Pr2-S1 (×2)	3.210(3)		

Pr2-S1 (×2)	3.342(3)	
Pr2–I	3.2513(16)	
Tt–S2	2.139(3)	
Tt–S4	2.147(3)	
Tt–S1	2.152(3)	
Tt–S3	2.169(3)	

nominal composition	x	$La_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$	$Ce_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$	$Pr_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$
$RE_3Ge_2S_8I$	0	3.05	2.76	2.97
$RE_3Ge_{1.75}Si_{0.25}S_8I$	0.125	3.08	2.73	3.00
$RE_{3}Ge_{1.50}Si_{0.50}S_{8}I$	0.250	3.13	2.76	3.02
RE3Ge1.25Si0.75S8I	0.375	3.10	2.75	3.06
$RE_{3}Ge_{1.00}Si_{1.00}S_{8}I$	0.500	3.13	2.79	3.07
$RE_3Ge_{0.75}Si_{1.25}S_8I$	0.625	3.15	2.75	3.07
$RE_{3}Ge_{0.50}Si_{1.50}S_{8}I$	0.750	3.22	2.84	3.15
$RE_3Ge_{0.45}Si_{1.55}S_8I$	0.775		2.82	
$RE_{3}Ge_{0.40}Si_{1.60}S_{8}I$	0.800		2.84	
$RE_3Ge_{0.35}Si_{1.65}S_8I$	0.825		2.81	
RE3Ge0.30Si1.70S8I	0.850		2.84	
RE3Ge0.25Si1.75S8I	0.875	3.24	2.82	3.18
$RE_{3}Ge_{0.20}Si_{1.80}S_{8}I$	0.900		2.84	
$RE_3Ge_{0.15}Si_{1.85}S_8I$	0.925		2.84	
RE3Ge0.10Si1.90S8I	0.950		2.81	
RE3Ge0.05Si1.95S8I	0.975		2.83	
$RE_3Si_2S_8I$	1.000	3.61	2.78	3.41
nominal composition	У	$Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$		
Ce ₃ Si ₂ S ₈ I	0	2.78		
$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.95}Se_{0.05}I$	0.006	2.77		
$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.90}Se_{0.10}I$	0.012	2.76		
$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.85}Se_{0.15}I$	0.019	2.77		
$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.80}Se_{0.20}I$	0.025	2.77		
$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.75}Se_{0.25}I$	0.031	2.76		
$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.50}Se_{0.50}I$	0.062	2.71		
$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.25}Se_{0.75}I$	0.094	2.64		
$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.00}Se_{1.00}I$	0.125	2.39		
$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{6.75}Se_{1.25}I$	0.156	2.42		
$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{6.50}Se_{1.50}I$	0.188	2.43		
$Ce_3Si_2S_6Se_2I$	0.250	2.24		
$Ce_3Si_2S_5Se_3I$	0.375	2.13		
$Ce_3Si_2S_4Se_4I$	0.500	2.00		
$Ce_3Si_2S_3Se_5I$	0.625	1.96		
$Ce_3Si_2S_2Se_6I$	0.750	1.96		
Ce ₃ Si ₂ SSe ₇ I	0.875	2.05		
Ce ₃ Si ₂ Se ₈ I	1.000	1.92		

Table A1-6. Optical Band Gaps (eV) for $RE_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ and $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$.

model	Ce–S	Ce–Se	Ce–I	Ge–S	Si–S	Si–Se
Ce ₃ Ge ₂ S ₈ I	0.22-0.40		0.30-0.55	0.85-0.93		
$Ce_3Ge_{1.5}Si_{0.5}S_8I$	0.21-0.42		0.29-0.56	0.85-0.93	0.87-0.95	
Ce ₃ GeSiS ₈ I	0.21-0.41		0.29-0.55	0.85-0.93	0.86-0.94	
$Ce_3Ge_{0.5}Si_{1.5}S_8I$	0.21-0.41		0.30-0.57	0.85-0.93	0.87-0.95	
$Ce_{3}Ge_{0.25}Si_{1.75}S_{8}I$	0.20-0.41		0.28-0.54	0.85-0.93	0.87-0.95	
$Ce_3Si_2S_8I$	0.22-0.41		0.31-0.53		0.87-0.94	
Ce ₃ Si ₂ S ₇ SeI	0.13-0.43	0.30-0.47	0.24-0.51		0.86-0.96	0.84-0.93
$Ce_3Si_2S_{6.5}Se_{0.5}I$	0.11-0.43	0.27-0.47	0.26-0.49		0.86-0.97	0.85-0.91
$Ce_3Si_2S_6Se_2I$	0.26-0.50	0.27-0.51	0.16-0.40		0.86-0.96	0.84-0.92

 $\textbf{Table A1-7. Integrated COBI (eV/bond) for Bonding Interactions in Ce_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I and Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I.}$

sample	composition	CIE 1931 <i>x</i>	CIE 1931 <i>y</i>
Ce3(Ge1-xSix)2S8I		
1	Ce ₃ Si ₂ S ₈ I	0.153	0.199
2	$Ce_3Ge_{0.1}Si_{1.9}S_8I$	0.160	0.300
3	$Ce_3Ge_{0.2}Si_{1.8}S_8I$	0.175	0.321
4	$Ce_{3}Ge_{0.25}Si_{1.75}S_{8}I$	0.161	0.276
5	$Ce_3Ge_{0.3}Si_{1.7}S_8I$	0.159	0.285
6	$Ce_3Ge_{0.4}Si_{1.6}S_8I$	0.187	0.315
7	Ce ₃ Ge _{0.5} Si _{1.5} S ₈ I	0.198	0.303
Ce ₃ Si ₂ (S _{1-y} Se	ey)8I		
1	Ce ₃ Si ₂ S ₈ I	0.153	0.199
2	$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.75}Se_{0.25}I$	0.169	0.302
3	$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.5}Se_{0.5}I$	0.180	0.344
4	$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.25}Se_{0.75}I$	0.199	0.395
5	Ce ₃ Si ₂ S ₇ SeI	0.199	0.387
6	$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{6.75}Se_{0.25}I$	0.232	0.433
7	$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{6.5}Se_{0.5}I$	0.235	0.436

Table A1-8. CIE Coordinates for Ce₃(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)₂S₈I and Ce₃Si₂(S_{1-y}Se_y)₈I

Table A1-9. Fitting Parameters for Photoluminescent Decay for Ce₃(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)₂S₈I and Ce₃Si₂(S_{1-y}Se_y)₈I ^a

sample	k	sigma	mu	c1	decay lifetime (ns)
Ce ₃ Si ₂ S ₈ I	-1648	0.6791	1.714	0.008	6.99
Ce ₃ Ge _{0.25} Si _{1.75} S ₈ I	-1646	0.6745	1.167	0.008	4.03
$Ce_{3}Ge_{0.50}Si_{1.50}S_{8}I$	-1651	1.316	-0.272	0.005	1.81
$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.75}Se_{0.25}I$	-1646	0.8107	1.385	0.004	5.55
$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{6.50}Se_{1.50}I$	-1648	0.9969	0.831	0.004	3.77

^{*a*} Decay curves were fit to lognormal functions.

					Peak posit	ion and %	area				
sample	v0 (Ce ³⁺)	v (Ce ⁴⁺)	v' (Ce ³⁺)	v'' (Ce ⁴⁺)	v''' (Ce ⁴⁺)	u0 (Ce ³⁺)	u (Ce ⁴⁺)	u' (Ce ³⁺)	u'' (Ce ⁴⁺)	u''' (Ce ⁴⁺)	Ce ³⁺ :Ce ⁴⁺
$Ce_3Si_2S_8I$	880.88	883.04	885.33	886.71	896.82	899.37	901.57	903.91	906.38	915.24	75:25
	13.60	6.74	30.37	5.56	1.97	9.95	4.76	21.17	3.55	2.33	
$Ce_{3}Ge_{0.25}Si_{1.75}S_{8}I$	881.33	883.49	885.91	886.01	897.98	899.55	901.60	904.19	906.62	915.72	76:24
	12.99	6.63	31.95	4.13	5.46	8.49	4.76	22.19	3.05	1.86	
$Ce_{3}Ge_{0.50}Si_{1.50}S_{8}I$	881.02	883.42	885.66	886.19	898.63	899.48	901.83	904.08	906.57	915.68	74:26
	13.24	8.28	30.67	4.00	4.31	8.73	4.96	21.21	2.66	1.94	
$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{7.75}Se_{0.25}I$	880.45	882.65	884.22	886.05	897.50	899.03	902.81	902.56	905.18	914.86	73:27
	21.05	5.50	20.93	9.25	3.43	13.59	3.86	16.99	3.47	1.92	
$Ce_{3}Si_{2}S_{6.50}Se_{1.50}I$	880.74	883.19	884.67	886.46	899.00	898.48	902.90	903.04	905.87	915.12	76:24
	22.37	5.98	20.18	5.53	4.63	15.62	3.49	18.07	1.00	3.14	

Table A1-10. XPS peak position and % area.

 $\overline{^{a}$ Refer to Figure. A1-13 for labels of the peak components in the spectra.

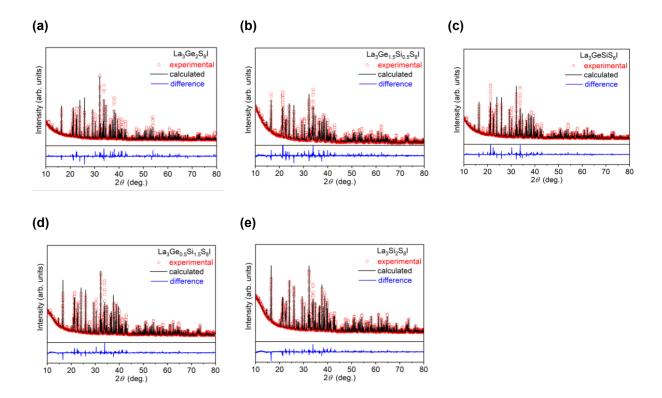


Figure A1-1. Powder XRD patterns for La₃(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)₂S₈I.

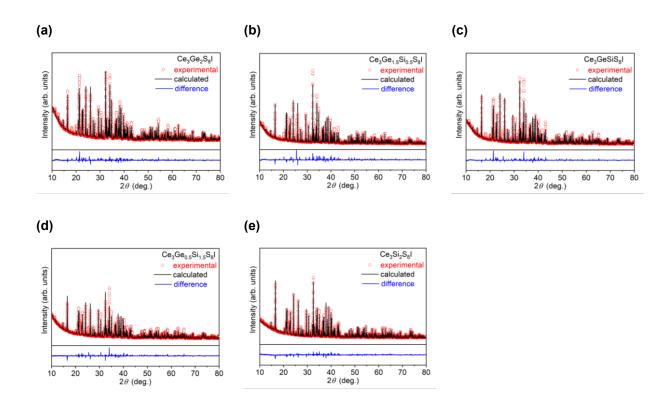
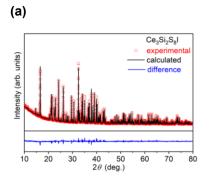


Figure A1-2. Powder XRD patterns for $Ce_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$.



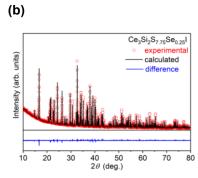
Ce₃Si₂S_{7.25}Se_{0.75}I

experim

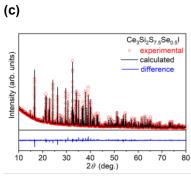
60 70

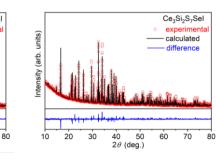
calculated

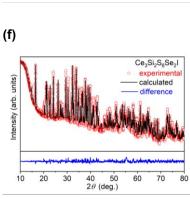
difference











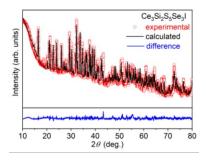


10

20 30

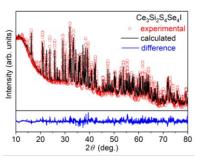
(d)

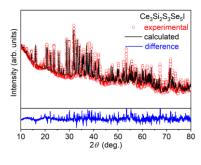
Intensity (arb. units)



40 50 2θ (deg.)



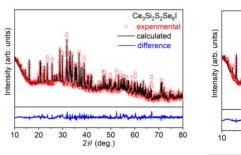




(i)

(I)

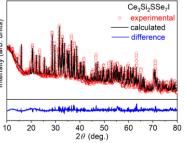
(j)











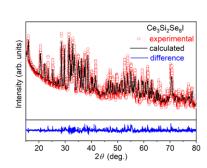


Figure A1-3. Powder XRD patterns for Ce₃Si₂(S_{1-y}Se_y)₈I.

174

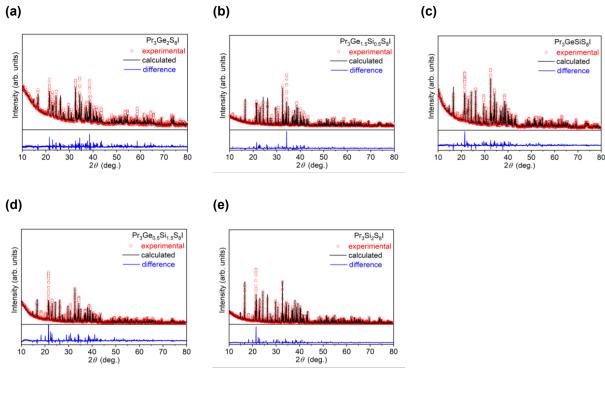


Figure A1-4. Powder XRD patterns for $Pr_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$.

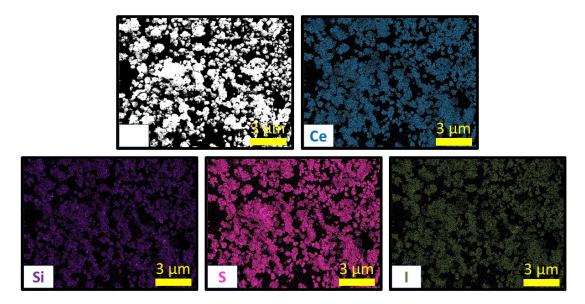


Figure A1-5. EDX elemental mapping for Ce₃Si₂S₈I sample

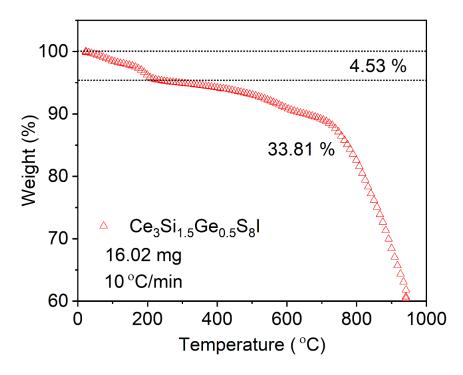


Figure A1-6. TGA analysis for sample of Ce₃Si_{1.5}Ge_{0.5}S₈I.

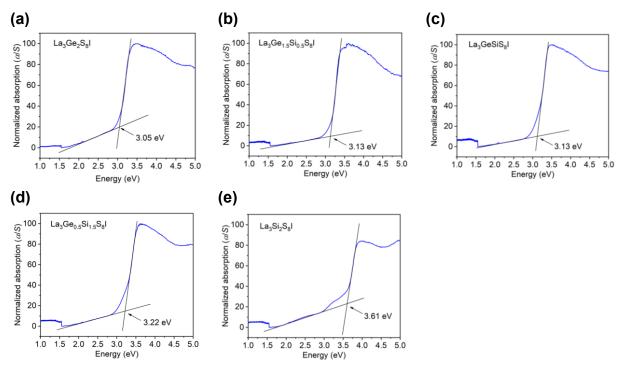


Figure A1-7. Normalized diffuse reflectance spectra for $La_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$, showing fittings to extract band gaps.

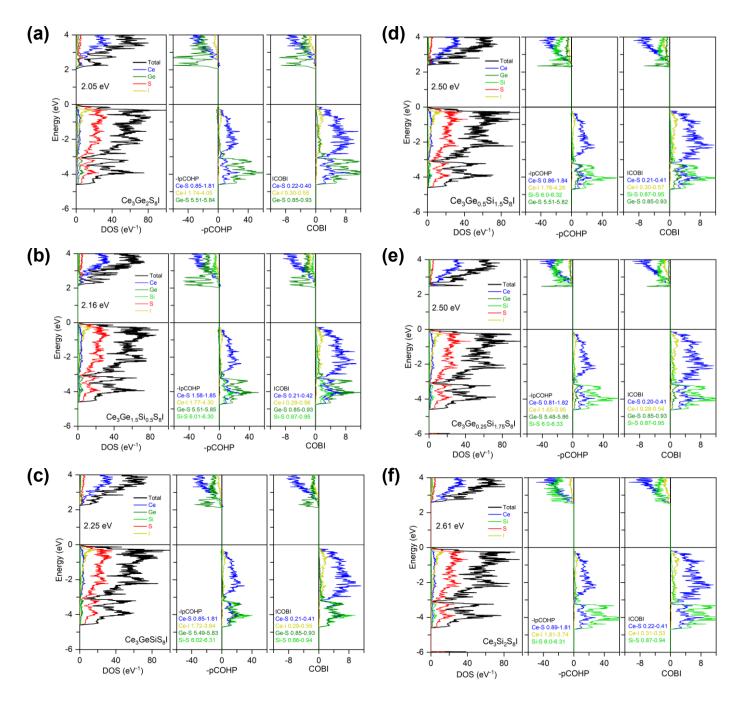


Figure A1-8. Density of states (DOS), projected crystal orbital Hamilton populations (pCOHP), and crystal orbital bond index (COBI) for models within the solid solution $Ce_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$.

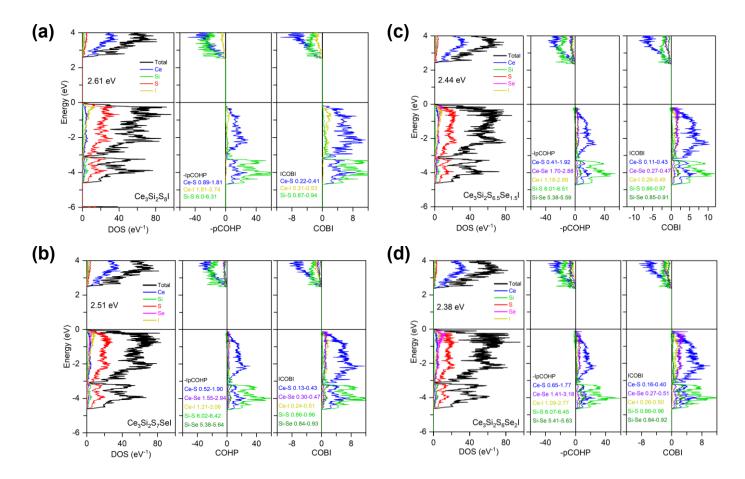


Figure A1-9. Density of states (DOS), projected crystal orbital Hamilton populations (pCOHP), and crystal orbital bond index (COBI) for models within the solid solution $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$ (up to y = 0.25).

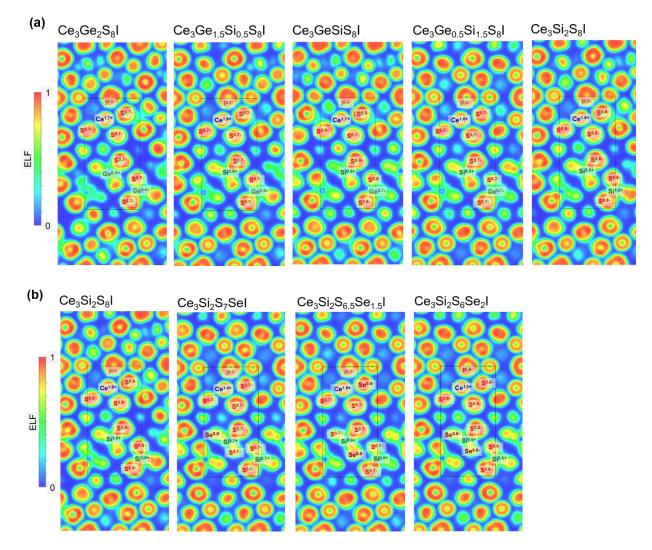


Figure A1-10. Electron localization function (ELF) plots, taken as slices parallel to (001), for (a) $Ce_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$ and (b) $Ce_3Si_2(S_{1-y}Se_y)_8I$. Bader charges are shown on selected atoms.

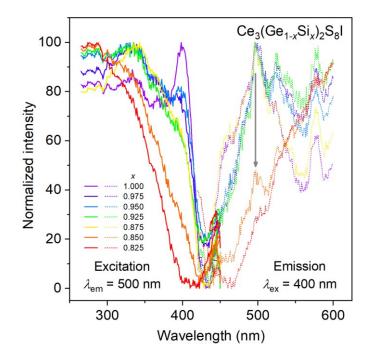


Figure A1-11. Excitation and emission spectra for Si-rich members of $Ce_3(Ge_{1-x}Si_x)_2S_8I$, measured on a Horiba PTI QM-8075-11 fluorescence system. The grey arrow shows quenching of the luminescence with lower Si concentrations.

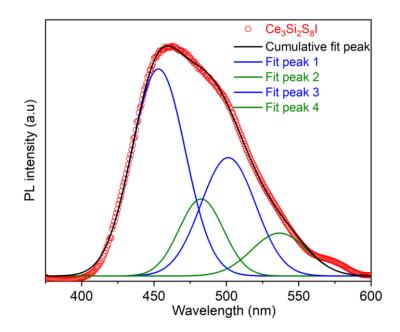


Figure A1-12. Emission spectrum of $Ce_3Si_2S_8I$, measured with an 365+351-nm Ar-ion laser source. The profile was fit to two sets of Gaussian peaks centred at 453 and 501 nm for the first sets (blue line) and 489 nm and 536 nm for the second set (green line).

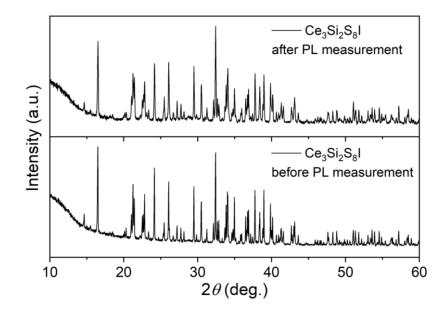


Figure A1-13. Powder XRD patterns of Ce₃Si₂S₈I sample before and after photoluminescence measurements made with a laser source.

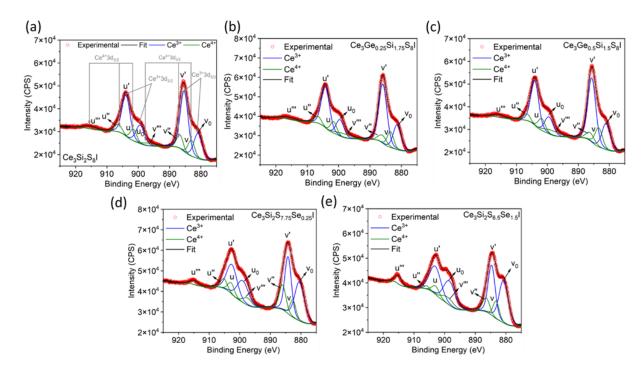


Figure A1-14. High-resolution cerium XPS spectra for (a) $Ce_3Si_2S_8I$, (b) $Ce_3Ge_{0.25}Si_{1.75}S_8I$, (c) $Ce_3Ge_{0.50}Si_{1.50}S_8I$, (d) $Ce_3Si_2S_{7.75}Se_{0.25}I$ and (e) $Ce_3Si_2S_{6.50}Se_{1.50}I$.

Appendix 2.

Supplementary Data for Chapter 4

Structure determination of twinned crystal of YbNi₃Ga₉. Initial attempts were made to determine the crystal structure of YbNi₃Ga₉ based on data collected on a twinned crystal. The diffraction pattern is characterized by the presence of diffuse lines of scattering containing strongly marked maxima (Figure A2-1). In a trigonal/hexagonal setting, these maxima lie on the positions $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{2}{3}$, l and $\frac{2}{3}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, l; although the component along c^* is diffuse, there is a clear tendency for splitting of the main maxima, making these positions $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{2}{3}$, $\frac{1}{3}$ and $\frac{2}{3}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{2}{3}$. This is a strong indication of a rhombohedral superstructure with twinning. The diffuse scattering implies that there is significant disorder in the superstructure. The rhombohedral cell is not the only possibility, but it is the most prevalent.

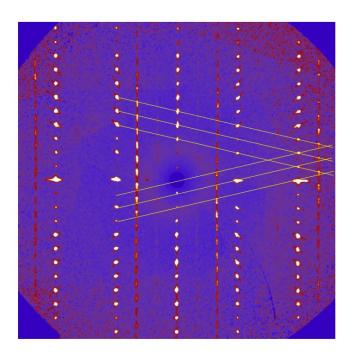


Figure A2-1. Reciprocal lattice section of YbNi₃Ga₉ viewed on the *hhl* plane. Note how the reciprocal space diagonals go through the most prominent parts of the diffuse scattering.

An automatic indexing routine yields the expected supercell with lattice parameters of a = 7.2572 Å, b = 7.2572 Å, and c = 27.6403 Å (hexagonal setting), but fails to pick up the rhombohedral centring because of the twinning. The twinning also leads to additional symmetry in the diffraction pattern, identified as *P6/mmm* from an automated routine. Imposing the rhombohedral centring reduces the expected (maximal) symmetry to $R\overline{3}m$. A structure solution in this space group leads to no refinable model (with R_w of 0.50). The model is nicely atomic, as indicated by the presence of strong main maxima in the electron density, but there are many unphysically short interatomic distances. Most prominently, one of the expected Yb positions lies close to, but not at, the unit cell origin, generating a forbidden self-contact (**Figure A2-2**).

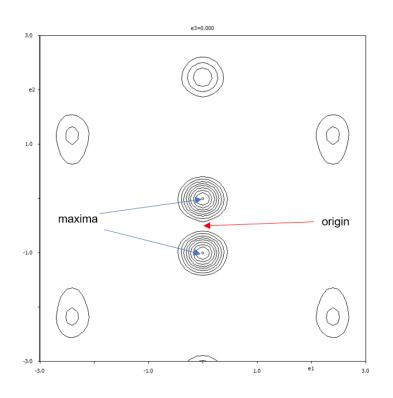


Figure A2-2. Note the twin maxima of electron density (blue arrows). The locus of their barycentres (red arrow) is the origin of the unit cell. The axes in the image are a (horizontal) and c (vertical).

These results clearly suggest a misassigned symmetry. The centre of symmetry and the twofold rotation axes along *x* and *y* all map the position 0, 0, *z* onto 0, 0, \bar{z} . The subgroup that removes these symmetry elements is R3m (and not R32). The logical procedure is to recast the present solution (high *R*-value, many short interatomic distances, good atomicity) into this lower symmetry space group, and to remove one of the two copies of the Yb position to seed the lowering of symmetry. The refinement is promising, but far from good, with R_w of 0.25 and some problematic features (**Figure A2-3**).

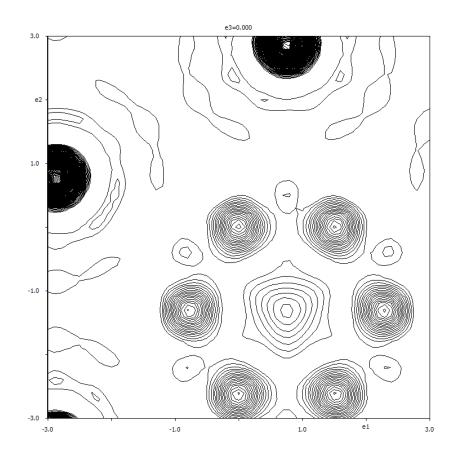


Figure A2-3. Electron density from the model in R3m. The section is the *ab*-plane and the *a*-axis is horizontal. The centre of the hexagon of electron density is at $\frac{2}{3}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, 0.

Again, this signals a symmetry that is too high. The mirror plane lies between the maxima, generating a hexagon rather than a triangle generated by the threefold axis alone. There are several other short interatomic distances in the model that can be resolved if the proper position is chosen after lower the symmetry to R3. This symmetry reduction resolves all short interatomic distances, but there remain challenges to assigning the proper identity of the atomic positions. The *R*-value is still high and many atomic positions are modeled by non-positive definite displacement parameters. The key to improving the refinement is to allow the sizes of the twin domains to be refined. In the present model, there are four domains. The first pair is the twinning, evident from the diffraction pattern, generated by obverse and reverse rhombohedral centring. The second pair is generated by removal of the mirror planes on proceeding from R3m to R3. These domains are initially all the same size. However, the strong diffuse scattering in the diffraction pattern is expected to be manifested as an imbalance in the intensity relationship between the superstructure reflections and the basic reflections. This can be modeled by freeing the twin domain sizes, or by refining the main reflections with a separate scale factor. All that remains is to distinguish between the Ni and Ga atoms. The simplest way to do this is to refine the occupancies of all non-Yb sites. If these non-Yb sites are initially assigned to be Ga atoms, those that have the lowest occupancies will be revealed to be Ni atoms. The resulting model corresponds to approximately the correct chemical composition of YbNi₃Ga₉. Anisotropic displacement parameters were not applied for atoms other than Yb, because the rather heavy twinning leads to correlations. The final *R*-values are reasonable ($R_1 = 0.035$, $R_w = 0.054$, GOF = 1.0).

formula	YbNi ₃ Ga ₉	YbNi3Ga9	YbNi ₃ Ga ₉
formula mass (amu)	976.65	976.65	976.65
space group	R32 (No. 155)	R32 (No. 155)	R32 (No. 155)
a (Å)	7.2137(16)	7.2180(4)	7.2294(7)
<i>c</i> (Å)	27.509(6)	27.4975(15)	27.513(3)
$V(Å^3)$	1239.7(6)	1240.67(15)	1245.3(3)
Ζ	6	6	6
<i>T</i> (K)	99(2)	199(2)	298(2)
$\rho_{\rm calcd} ({ m g \ cm^{-3}})$	7.849	7.843	7.814
crystal dimensions (mm)	$0.07 \times 0.06 \times 0.04$	$0.08\times0.07\times0.04$	$0.09 \times 0.08 \times 0.05$
μ (Mo K α) (mm ⁻¹)	46.56	46.53	46.36
transmission factors	0.204-0.389	0.100-0.320	0.049-0.205
2θ limits	4.44–63.14°	4.44-63.00°	4.44-63.05°
data collected	$-10 \le h \le 10,$ $-10 \le k \le 10,$ $-40 \le l \le 40$ 3570	$-10 \le h \le 10,$ $-10 \le k \le 10,$ $-40 \le l \le 40$ 5505	$-6 \le h \le 10,$ $-10 \le k \le 10,$ $-25 \le l \le 40$ 3297
no. of unique data,	938 ($R_{\rm int} = 0.040$)	934 ($R_{\rm int} = 0.034$)	938 ($R_{\rm int} = 0.045$)
including $F_o^2 < 0$ no. of unique data, with $F_o^2 > 2\sigma(F_o^2)$	840	880	829
no. of variables	43	43	43
Flack parameter	0.17(5)	0.13(3)	0.14(6)
$R(F)$ for $F_{o}^{2} > 2\sigma(F_{o}^{2})^{a}$	0.029	0.018	0.033
$R_{ m w}(F_{ m o}{}^2)$ b	0.059	0.038	0.070
goodness of fit	1.04	1.10	1.02
$(\Delta \rho)_{\text{max}}, (\Delta \rho)_{\text{min}} (e \text{ Å}^{-3})$	1.93, -1.59	2.19, -1.05	2.12, -2.13

Table A2-1. Crystallographic data for YbNi3Ga9	
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^a $R(F) = \sum ||F_o| - |F_c|| / \sum |F_o|$. ^b $R_w(F_o^2) = \left[\sum [w(F_o^2 - F_c^2)^2] / \sum wF_o^4\right]^{1/2}$; $w^{-1} = [\sigma^2(F_o^2) + (Ap)^2 + Bp]$, where $p = [\max(F_o^2, 0) + 2F_c^2] / 3$.

Atom	Wyckoff position	x	у	Ζ	$U_{ m eq}({ m \AA}^2)$ a
99 K					
Yb	6 <i>c</i>	0	0	0.16689(2)	0.0039(2)
Ni	18 <i>f</i>	0.3335(2)	0.3274(2)	0.08457(5)	0.0040(3)
Gal	18 <i>f</i>	0.0033(2)	0.3366(2)	0.10058(5)	0.0041(2)
Ga2	9e	0.7902(2)	0	1/2	0.0044(3)
Ga3	9 <i>d</i>	0.6673(2)	0	0	0.0048(3)
Ga4	6 <i>c</i>	0	0	0.05082(6)	0.0041(3)
Ga5	6 <i>c</i>	0	0	0.28325(6)	0.0044(3)
Ga6	6 <i>c</i>	0	0	0.38479(6)	0.0042(3)
199 K					
Yb	6 <i>c</i>	0	0	0.16691(2)	0.0060(1)
Ni	18 <i>f</i>	0.3333(1)	0.3273(1)	0.08468(3)	0.0058(2)
Gal	18 <i>f</i>	0.0033(1)	0.3366(1)	0.10068(3)	0.0066(2)
Ga2	9e	0.7900(1)	0	1/2	0.0065(2)
Ga3	9 <i>d</i>	0.6671(1)	0	0	0.0085(2)
Ga4	6 <i>c</i>	0	0	0.05080(4)	0.0067(2)
Ga5	6 <i>c</i>	0	0	0.28325(4)	0.0066(2)
Ga6	6 <i>c</i>	0	0	0.38492(4)	0.0072(2)
298 K					
Yb	6 <i>c</i>	0	0	0.16692(2)	0.0088(2)
Ni	18 <i>f</i>	0.3335(3)	0.3273(3)	0.08475(6)	0.0083(3)
Gal	9e	0.0032(2)	0.3365(2)	0.10070(7)	0.0101(3)
Ga2	9 <i>d</i>	0.7901(2)	0	1/2	0.0094(4)
Ga3	6 <i>c</i>	0	0	0.05094(7)	0.0102(4)
Ga4	6 <i>c</i>	0	0	0.28317(8)	0.0100(4)
Ga5	6 <i>c</i>	0	0	0.38508(8)	0.0112(4)

Table A2-2. Atomic coordinates and equivalent isotropic displacement parameters for YbNi₃Ga₉.

^a $U_{\rm eq}$ is defined as one-third of the trace of the orthogonalized U_{ij} tensor.

		5	
	99 K	199 K	298 K
Yb–Ga2 (×3)	2.953(1)	2.954(1)	2.959(1)
Yb-Gal (×3)	3.020(2)	3.019(1)	3.022(2)
Yb-Ga1 (×3)	3.028(2)	3.026(1)	3.030(2)
Yb–Ga4	3.193(2)	3.193(1)	3.191(2)
Yb–Ga5	3.201(2)	3.199(1)	3.198(2)
Yb–Ni (×3)	3.279(2)	3.277(1)	3.278(2)
Yb–Ni (×3)	3.288(2)	3.286(1)	3.289(2)
Ni–Ga3	2.327(1)	2.329(1)	2.332(2)
Ni-Ga1	2.425(2)	2.426(1)	2.429(2)
Ni-Ga2	2.444(2)	2.440(1)	2.441(2)
Ni-Ga1	2.454(2)	2.457(1)	2.460(2)
Ni-Ga1	2.456(2)	2.456(1)	2.462(2)
Ni–Ga4	2.558(2)	2.560(1)	2.564(2)
Ni–Ga5	2.564(2)	2.567(1)	2.570(2)
Ni–Ga6	2.612(2)	2.613(1)	2.617(2)
Ga1–Ga6	2.738(2)	2.738(1)	2.741(2)
Ga1–Ga2	2.768(2)	2.767(1)	2.770(2)
Ga1–Ga2	2.768(2)	2.766(1)	2.770(2)
Ga1–Ga4	2.778(2)	2.780(1)	2.782(2)
Ga1–Ga5	2.787(2)	2.790(1)	2.792(2)
Ga2–Ga2 (×2)	2.621(3)	2.625(2)	2.629(3)
Ga3–Ga5 (×2)	2.773(1)	2.774(1)	2.779(1)
Ga3–Ga4 (×2)	2.778(2)	2.779(1)	2.785(2)
Ga3-Ga6 (×2)	2.792(1)	2.794(1)	2.800(1)
Ga4–Ga4	2.796(3)	2.794(2)	2.803(4)
Ga5–Ga6	2.793(3)	2.796(2)	2.804(3)

Table A2-3. Interatomic distances (Å) in YbNi₃Ga₉.

formula	VhCu Ca	VhCu Ca	YbCu ₃ Ga ₈
	YbCu ₃ Ga ₈	YbCu ₃ Ga ₈	
formula mass (amu)	921.42	921.42	921.42
space group	<i>Pm</i> 3 <i>m</i> (No. 221)	<i>Pm</i> 3 <i>m</i> (No. 221)	<i>Pm</i> 3 <i>m</i> (No. 221)
<i>a</i> (Å)	8.2542(8)	8.2684(6)	8.2818(13)
$V(Å^3)$	562.37(16)	565.28(12)	568.0(3)
Ζ	3	3	3
<i>T</i> (K)	100(2)	200(2)	296(2)
$ ho_{ m calcd} ({ m g \ cm^{-3}})$	8.162	8.120	8.081
crystal dimensions (mm)	$0.11 \times 0.06 \times 0.06$	$0.07 \times 0.07 \times 0.06$	$0.11\times0.08\times0.08$
μ (Mo K α) (mm ⁻¹)	48.78	48.53	48.29
transmission factors	0.060-0.181	0.112-0.216	0.065-0.132
2θ limits	4.93–63.17°	4.93–64.23°	4.92–63.41°
data collected	$-12 \le h \le 12,$ $-12 \le k \le 12,$ $-12 \le l \le 12$	$-12 \le h \le 12,$ $-12 \le k \le 12,$ $-12 \le l \le 12$	$-12 \le h \le 12,$ $-12 \le k \le 12,$ $-12 \le l \le 12$
no. of data collected	7487	7627	7600
no. of unique data, including $F_0^2 < 0$	236 ($R_{\rm int} = 0.031$)	247 ($R_{\rm int} = 0.035$)	243 ($R_{\rm int} = 0.057$)
no. of unique data, with $F_o^2 > 2\sigma(F_o^2)$	230	233	216
no. of variables	16	16	16
$R(F)$ for $F_{o}^{2} > 2\sigma(F_{o}^{2})^{a}$	0.041	0.041	0.048
$R_{ m w}({F_{ m o}}^2)$ b	0.076	0.076	0.127
goodness of fit	1.08	1.08	1.13
$(\Delta \rho)_{\text{max}}, (\Delta \rho)_{\text{min}} (e \text{ Å}^{-3})$	4.77, -5.52	4.54, -5.49	3.49, -5.08

 Table A2-4.
 Crystallographic data for YbCu₃Ga₈.

^a $R(F) = \sum ||F_o| - |F_c|| / \sum |F_o|$. ^b $R_w(F_o^2) = [\sum [w(F_o^2 - F_c^2)^2] / \sum wF_o^4]^{1/2}; w^{-1} = [\sigma^2(F_o^2) + (Ap)^2 + Bp], \text{ where } p = [\max(F_o^2, 0) + 2F_c^2] / 3.$

Atom	Wyckoff position	x	у	Ζ	$U_{ m eq}({ m \AA}^2)^{ m b}$
100 K	*				
Yb	3 <i>c</i>	0	1/2	1/2	0.0057(3)
<i>X</i> 1	1 <i>2j</i>	1/2	0.1530(1)	0.1530(1)	0.0079(4)
X2	12 <i>i</i>	0	0.2318(2)	0.2318(2)	0.0092(4)
Х3	8g	0.3389(2)	0.3389(2)	0.3389(2)	0.0227(6)
<i>X</i> 4	1 <i>a</i>	0	0	0	0.0179(15)
200 K					
Yb	3 <i>c</i>	0	1/2	1/2	0.0081(3)
<i>X</i> 1	12 <i>j</i>	1/2	0.1529(1)	0.1529(1)	0.0100(4)
X2	12 <i>i</i>	0	0.2319(1)	0.2319(1)	0.0114(4)
Х3	8g	0.3390(2)	0.3390(2)	0.3390(2)	0.0255(6)
<i>X</i> 4	1 <i>a</i>	0	0	0	0.0193(14)
296 K					
Yb	3 <i>c</i>	0	1/2	1/2	0.0158(5)
<i>X</i> 1	12 <i>j</i>	1/2	0.1531(2)	0.1531(2)	0.0169(5)
X2	12 <i>i</i>	0	0.2318(2)	0.2318(2)	0.0194(5)
Х3	8g	0.3391(3)	0.3391(3)	0.3391(3)	0.0329(8)
<i>X</i> 4	1a	0	0	0	0.0231(15)

Table A2-5. Atomic coordinates and equivalent isotropic displacement parameters for YbCu₃Ga₈.^a

^a Each *X* site contains a disordered mixture of 0.27 Cu and 0.73 Ga. ^b U_{eq} is defined as one-third of the trace of the orthogonalized U_{ij} tensor.

	100 K	200 K	296 K	
Yb–X1 (×8)	3.130(1)	3.136(1)	3.140(1)	
Yb–X2 (×4)	3.130(2)	3.135(2)	3.141(2)	
Yb–X3 (×8)	3.371(1)	3.376(1)	3.382(1)	
X1–X1 (×2)	2.526(2)	2.529(2)	2.536(3)	
X1–X3 (×2)	2.545(2)	2.551(2)	2.554(2)	
X1–X2 (×4)	2.630(1)	2.634(1)	2.639(1)	
X2–X2 (×4)	2.706(2)	2.711(2)	2.715(2)	
X2–X4	2.706(2)	2.711(2)	2.715(2)	
X2–X3 (×2)	3.064(3)	3.070(3)	3.076(3)	
X3–X3 (×3)	2.659(4)	2.662(4)	2.665(4)	

Table A2-6. Interatomic distances (Å) in YbCu₃Ga₈.

 Table A2-7. Cell parameters for YbNi₃Ga₉ at different temperatures.

T(V)	a (Å)	a (Å)	$V(Å^3)$	
<i>T</i> (K)	a (Å)	<i>c</i> (Å)	V (A)	
200	7.2188(6)	27.500(2)	1241.0(3)	
190	7.2177(7)	27.499(3)	1240.6(3)	
180	7.2164(7)	24.497(3)	1240.1(3)	
170	7.2160(7)	24.499(3)	1240.1(3)	
160	7.2145(7)	24.496(3)	1239.4(3)	
150	7.2138(7)	27.496(3)	1239.1(3)	
140	7.2124(7)	27.495(3)	1238.7(4)	
130	7.2120(8)	27.497(3)	1238.6(4)	
120	7.2096(9)	27.489(3)	1237.4(4)	
110	7.2090(10)	27.491(3)	1237.3(5)	
100	7.2096(10)	27.494(4)	1237.6(5)	

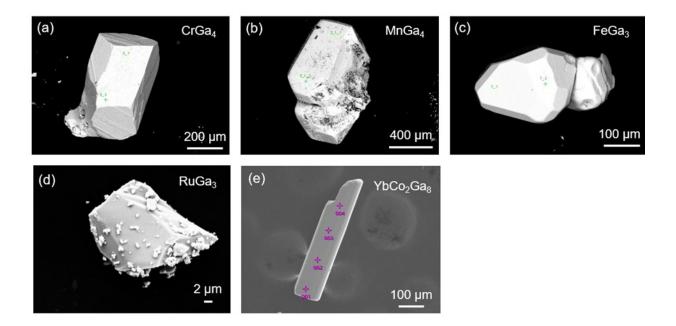


Figure A2-4. SEM images of crystals grown in gallium flux.

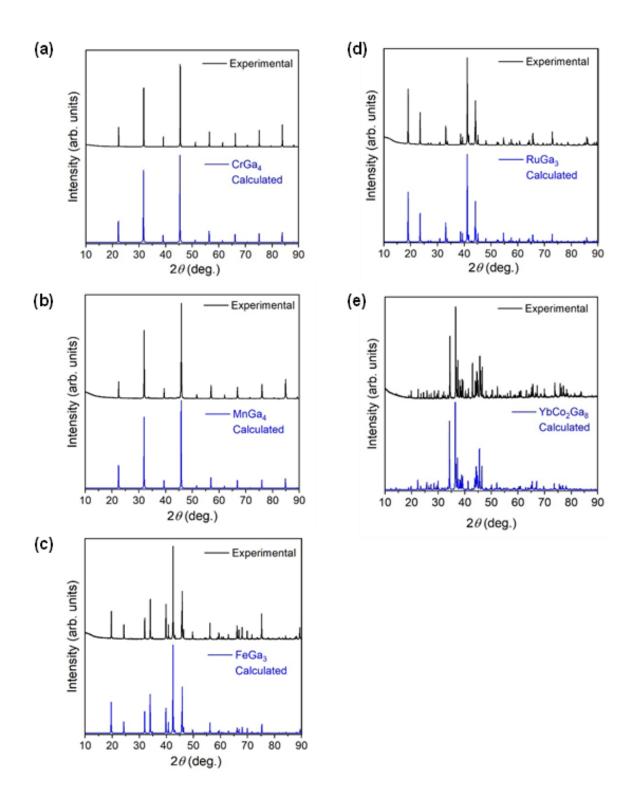


Figure A2-5. Powder XRD patterns of ground crystals grown in gallium flux.

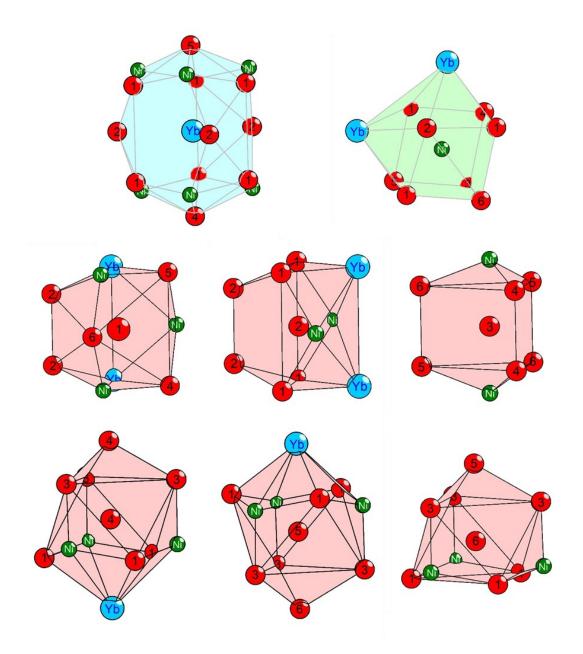


Figure A2-6. Coordination polyhedra around Yb (blue), Ni (green), and Ga (red) atoms in YbNi₃Ga₉.

Appendix 3

Supplementary Data for Chapter 5

Compound	a (Å)	Compound	<i>a</i> (Å)	
Sc ₄ Co ₇ Ge ₆	7.850(1)	Mn ₄ Ir ₇ Ge ₆	8.0248(4)	
Ti ₄ Co ₇ Ge ₆	7.673(4)	Tb ₄ Ir ₇ Ge ₆	8.345(5)	
Zr ₄ Co ₇ Ge ₆	7.886(2)	Y4Ir7Ge6	8.324(7)	
Hf ₄ Co ₇ Ge ₆	7.831(2)	Dy ₄ Ir ₇ Ge ₆	8.322(5)	
		Ho ₄ Ir ₇ Ge ₆	8.311(7)	
		Er4Ir7Ge6	8.295(8)	
Lu ₄ Ru ₇ Ge ₆	8.239(1)	Tm ₄ Ir ₇ Ge ₆	8.273(6)	
Sc ₄ Ru ₇ Ge ₆	8.129	Yb ₄ Ir ₇ Ge ₆	8.262(7)	
		Lu ₄ Ir ₇ Ge ₆	8.258(5)	
Dy ₄ Rh ₇ Ge ₆	8.326(7)	Sc ₄ Ir ₇ Ge ₆	8.136(2)	
Ho ₄ Rh ₇ Ge ₆	8.305(7)			
Er4Rh7Ge6	8.296	Er ₄ Os ₇ Ge ₆	8.314(6)	
Tm ₄ Rh ₇ Ge ₆	8.276(5)	Tm ₄ Os ₇ Ge ₆	8.297(6)	
Yb ₄ Rh ₇ Ge ₆	8.253(1)	Yb ₄ Os ₇ Ge ₆	8.288(6)	
Lu4Rh7Ge6	8.243	Lu ₄ Os ₇ Ge ₆	8.276(6)	
Sc ₄ Rh ₇ Ge ₆	8.1255(8)	Sc ₄ Os ₇ Ge ₆	8.146(1)	

 Table A3-1. Ternary germanides with U4Re7Ge6-type structure.

Compound	a (Å)	c (Å)	Compound	a (Å)	c (Å)
Y ₅ Co ₄ Ge ₁₀	12.944(9)	4.270(3)	Gd5Ir4Ge10	12.949(9)	4.333(3)
Tm5Co4Ge10	12.622(9)	4.139(4)	Tb ₅ Ir ₄ Ge ₁₀	12.935(9)	4.318(3)
Yb5Co ₄ Ge ₁₀	12.6369(18)	4.1378(8)	Y ₅ Ir ₄ Ge ₁₀	12.927(5)	4.308(5)
Lu5Co4Ge10	12.606(8)	4.125(3)	Dy ₅ Ir ₄ Ge ₁₀	12.910(8)	4.304(3)
			Ho5Ir4Ge10	12.875(2)	4.283(1)
Yb5Ni4Ge10	12.6716(18)	4.1598(8)	Er5Ir4Ge10	12.865(9)	4.278(3)
			Tm5Ir4Ge10	12.846(8)	4.267
Gd ₅ Rh ₄ Ge ₁₀	12.984(5)	4.296(5)	Yb5Ir4Ge10	12.877(9)	4.285(3)
Tb ₅ Rh ₄ Ge ₁₀	12.954(5)	4.285(5)	Lu ₅ Ir ₄ Ge ₁₀	12.831	4.252(3)
Y5Rh4Ge10	12.953(3)	4.272(2)			
Dy5Rh4Ge10	12.944(9)	4.270(3)	Y5Os4Ge10	13.006(8)	4.297(5)
Ho5Rh4Ge10	12.881(7)	4.240(2)	Dy5Os4Ge10	13.0340(4)	4.2950(4)
Er ₅ Rh ₄ Ge ₁₀	12.843(3)	4.225(1)	Ho ₅ Os ₄ Ge ₁₀	12.984(3)	4.2820(16)
Tm5Rh4Ge10	12.845(2)	4.2095(7)	Y ₄ TmOs ₄ Ge ₁₀	12.9126(63)	4.2613(23)
Yb5Rh4Ge10	12.886(9)	4.234(3)	Tm5Os4Ge10	12.929(6)	4.253(2)
Lu5Rh4Ge10	12.827(5)	4.209(5)	Y4TmOs4Ge10	12.9621(53)	4.2792(25)
Ca1.15Lu3.85Rh4Ge10	12.8567(35)	4.2279(13)	Y2Dy3Os4Ge10	13.0220(4)	4.2938(4)

Table A3-2. Ternary germanides with $Sc_5Co_4Si_{10}$ -type structure.

formula	EuCo ₂ Ge ₂	EuCo ₂ Ge ₂
formula mass (amu)	415.00	415.00
space group	I4/mmm	I4/mmm
<i>a</i> (Å)	4.0377(7)	4.0313(6)
<i>b</i> (Å)	4.0377(7)	4.0313(6)
<i>c</i> (Å)	10.4780(19)	10.4624(17)
$V(Å^3)$	170.82(7)	170.03(6)
Ζ	2	2
$ ho_{ m calcd} ({ m g \ cm^{-3}})$	8.068	8.106
<i>T</i> (K)	296(2)	193(2)
crystal dimensions (mm)	$0.116 \times 0.079 \times 0.065$	$0.081\times0.038\times0.033$
μ (Mo K α) (mm ⁻¹)	44.701	44.910
transmission factors	0.531-0.746	0.165-0.375
2θ limits (°)	7.778-63.258	7.79-62.832
data collected	$-5 \le h \le 5,$	$-5 \le h \le 5,$
	$-5 \le k \le 5,$	$-5 \le k \le 5,$
	$-15 \le l \le 15$	$-15 \le l \le 15$
no. of data collected	2976	2220
no. of unique data, including $F_0^2 < 0$	$110 (R_{int} = 0.169)$	$109 (R_{int} = 0.162)$
no. of unique data, with $F_o^2 > 2\sigma(F_o^2)$	102	102
no. of variables	9	9
$R(F)$ for $F_o^2 > 2\sigma(F_o^2)^a$	0.031	0.0242
$R_{\rm w} (F_{ m o}{}^2)^{ m b}$	0.076	0.0578
goodness of fit	1.149	1.249
$(\Delta \rho)_{\text{max}}, (\Delta \rho)_{\text{min}} (e^{-} \text{Å}^{-3})$	3.534, -3.014	2.187, -2.361

 Table A3-3. Crystallographic data for EuCo₂Ge₂.

 ${}^{a}R(F) = \sum ||F_{o}| - |F_{c}|| / \sum |F_{o}|. {}^{b}R_{w}(F_{o}^{2}) = \left[\sum [w(F_{o}^{2} - F_{c}^{2})^{2}] / \sum wF_{o}^{4}\right]^{1/2}; w^{-1} = [\sigma^{2}(F_{o}^{2}) + (Ap)^{2} + Bp], \text{ where } p = [\max(F_{o}^{2}, 0) + 2F_{c}^{2}] / 3.$

formula	YbCo ₂ Ge ₂	YbCo ₂ Ge ₂
formula mass (amu)	436.08	436.08
space group	I4/mmm	I4/mmm
<i>a</i> (Å)	3.9378(4)	3.9317(6)
b (Å)	3.9378(4)	3.9317(6)
<i>c</i> (Å)	10.0655(10)	10.0641(16)
$V(Å^3)$	156.08(4)	155.57(4)
Ζ	2	2
$\rho_{\text{calcd}} (\text{g cm}^{-3})$	9.279	9.309
<i>Т</i> (К)	296(2)	193(2)
crystal dimensions (mm)	$0.068 \times 0.041 \times 0.032$	$0.087\times0.068\times0.055$
μ (Mo K α) (mm ⁻¹)	58.791	58.982
transmission factors	0.385-0.555	0.275-0.363
2θ limits (°)	8.098-62.772	8.10-62.836
data collected	$-5 \le h \le 5,$	$-5 \le h \le 5,$
	$-5 \le k \le 5,$	$-5 \le k \le 5,$
	$-14 \le l \le 14$	$-14 \le l \le 14$
no. of data collected	2873	1425
no. of unique data, including $F_0^2 < 0$	101 [$R_{int} = 0.1336$]	101 [$R_{int} = 0.1287$]
no. of unique data, with $F_o^2 > 2\sigma(F_o^2)$	101	100
no. of variables	9	9
$R(F)$ for $F_o^2 > 2\sigma(F_o^2)^a$	0.018	0.017
$R_{\rm w} (F_{ m o}{}^2)^{ m b}$	0.039	0.042
goodness-of-fit	1.299	1.188
$(\Delta \rho)_{\rm max}, (\Delta \rho)_{\rm min} (e \cdot {\rm \AA}^{-3})$	2.065, -1.980	2.127, -1.498

Table A3-4. Crystallographic data for YbCo₂Ge₂

 ${}^{a} R(F) = \sum ||F_{o}| - |F_{c}|| / \sum |F_{o}|. {}^{b} R_{w}(F_{o}^{2}) = \left[\sum [w(F_{o}^{2} - F_{c}^{2})^{2}] / \sum wF_{o}^{4}\right]^{1/2}; w^{-1} = [\sigma^{2}(F_{o}^{2}) + (Ap)^{2} + Bp], \text{ where } p = [\max(F_{o}^{2}, 0) + 2F_{c}^{2}] / 3.$

formula	CeCo _{0.94} Ge ₂	CeIrGe ₂
formula mass (amu)	681.09	477.50
space group	С	тст
a (Å)	4.2594(5)	4.3312(16)
b (Å)	16.7802(19)	17.101(6)
<i>c</i> (Å)	4.2114(5)	4.3803(16)
$V(Å^3)$	301.00(6)	324.4(2)
Ζ	2	2
$ \rho_{\text{calcd}} (\text{g cm}^{-3}) $	7.515	4.888
<i>T</i> (K)	29	96(2)
crystal dimensions (mm)	$0.066 \times 0.054 \times 0.046$	$0.081 \times 0.077 \times 0.056$
$u(Mo K\alpha) (mm^{-1})$	39.361	36.345
transmission factors	0.577-0.746	0.3568-0.7462
20 limit	4.856 to 63.248°	4.764 to 63.462°
data collected	$-6 \le h \le 6,$	$-6 \leq h \leq 6$,
	$-24 \le k \le 24,$	$-25 \leq k \leq 23,$
	$-6 \le l \le 6$	$-6 \le l \le 6$
no. of data collected	2977	1965
no. of unique data, including $F_0^2 < 0$	$319 [R_{int} = 0.0705]$	$345 [R_{int} = 0.2168]$
no. of unique data, with $F_0^2 > 2\sigma(F_0^2)$	288	270
no. of variables	19	17
$R(F) \text{for } F_{o}^{2} > 2\sigma (F_{o}^{2})^{a}$	0.022	0.062
$R_{\rm w} (F_{ m o}{}^2)^{ m b}$	0.047	0.143
goodness-of-fit	1.118	0.992
$(\Delta \rho)_{\rm max}, (\Delta \rho)_{\rm min} (e \cdot {\rm \AA}^{-3})$	3.030, -2.198	9.859, -7.572

Table A3-5. Crystallographic data for $CeTGe_2$ (T = Co, Ir).

^a $R(F) = \sum ||F_o| - |F_c|| / \sum |F_o|$. ^b $R_w(F_o^2) = \left[\sum [w(F_o^2 - F_c^2)^2] / \sum wF_o^4]^{1/2}; w^{-1} = [\sigma^2(F_o^2) + (Ap)^2 + Bp], \text{ where } p = [\max(F_o^2, 0) + 2F_c^2] / 3.$

formula	CeIrGe ₂	CeIrGe ₂
formula mass (amu)	477.50	477.50
space group	In	nmm
<i>a</i> (Å)	4.3842(7)	4.3809(6)
b (Å)	8.8960(14)	8.8882(12)
<i>c</i> (Å)	16.258(3)	16.250(2)
$V(Å^3)$	634.09(17)	632.77(15)
Ζ		8
$\rho_{\text{calcd}} (\text{g cm}^{-3})$	10.004	10.025
<i>T</i> (K)	297(2)	193(2)
crystal dimensions (mm)	$0.079 \times 0.067 \times 0.050$	$0.077 \times 0.072 \times 0.052$
μ (Mo K α) (mm ⁻¹)	74.387	74.542
transmission factors	0.162-0.265	0.190-0.270
20 limit	5.012-63.45	5.014-63.218
data collected	$-6 \le h \le 6, \\ -13 \le k \le 13,$	$-6 \le h \le 6, \\ -12 \le k \le 13,$
	$-24 \leq l \leq 24$	$-23 \leq l \leq 23$
no. of data collected	11386	7339
no. of unique data, including $F_0^2 < 0$	653 [$R_{int} = 0.1661$]	645 [$R_{int} = 0.1468$]
no. of unique data, with $F_0^2 > 2\sigma(F_0^2)$	554	565
no. of variables	29	29
$R(F)$ for $F_o^2 > 2\sigma(F_o^2)^a$	0.0368	0.0305
$R_{\rm w} (F_{\rm o}^2)^{\rm b}$	0.0854	0.0716
goodness-of-fit	1.151	1.101
$(\Delta \rho)_{\rm max}, (\Delta \rho)_{\rm min} (e \cdot {\rm \AA}^{-3})$	7.525, -5.338	6.517, -4.349

 Table A3-6. Crystallographic data for CeIrGe2.

 $a R(F) = \sum ||F_o| - |F_c|| / \sum |F_o|. \ b R_w(F_o^2) = \left[\sum [w(F_o^2 - F_c^2)^2] / \sum wF_o^4]^{1/2}; \ w^{-1} = [\sigma^2(F_o^2) + (Ap)^2 + Bp], \text{ where } p = [\max(F_o^2, 0) + 2F_c^2] / 3.$

formula	Yb ₄ Ir ₇ Ge ₆	Yb ₄ Ir ₇ Ge ₆		
formula mass (amu)	2473.10	2473.10		
space group	Im-3m			
a (Å)	8.2709(16)	8.2677(15)		
$V(Å^3)$	565.8(3)	565.1(3)		
Ζ		2		
$\rho_{\text{calcd}} (\text{g cm}^{-3})$	14.517	14.533		
<i>T</i> (K)	296(2)	193(2)		
crystal dimensions (mm)	0.171 imes 0.167 imes 0.061	$0.060 \times 0.056 \times 0.053$		
μ (Mo K α) (mm ⁻¹)	130.217	130.368		
transmission factors	0.017-0.107	0.014-0.055		
20 limit	6.968-63.028	6.97-63.054		
data collected	$-12 \le h \le 12$,	$-12 \le h \le 12$,		
	$-12 \leq k \leq 12,$	$-10 \le k \le 12,$		
	$-12 \leq l \leq 12$	$-11 \le l \le 11$		
no. of data collected	7398	2634		
no. of unique data, including $F_0^2 < 0$	120 [$R_{int} = 0.2173$]	$120 [R_{int} = 0.1568]$		
no. of Unique data, with $F_0^2 > 2\sigma(F_0^2)$	108	102		
no. of Variables	10	10		
$R(F)$ for $F_o^2 > 2\sigma(F_o^2)^a$	0.0375	0.0415		
$R_{\rm w} (F_{\rm o}{}^2)^{\rm b}$	0.0890	0.101		
goodness-of-fit	1.105	1.178		
$(\Delta \rho)_{\rm max}, (\Delta \rho)_{\rm min} (e \cdot {\rm \AA}^{-3})$	3.861, -5.529	4.262, -5.912		

 Table A3-7. Crystallographic data for Yb4Ir7Ge6.

^a $R(F) = \sum ||F_o| - |F_c|| / \sum |F_o|$. ^b $R_w(F_o^2) = \left[\sum [w(F_o^2 - F_c^2)^2] / \sum wF_o^4]^{1/2}; w^{-1} = [\sigma^2(F_o^2) + (Ap)^2 + Bp], \text{ where } p = [\max(F_o^2, 0) + 2F_c^2] / 3.$

formula	Yb ₅ Ir ₄ Ge ₁₀	Yb5Ir4Ge10	
formula mass (amu)	2359.90	2359.90	
space group	P4/mbm		
a (Å)	12.867(3)	12.8754(17)	
b (Å)	12.867(3)	12.8754(17)	
<i>c</i> (Å)	4.2777(9)	4.2819(6)	
$V(Å^3)$	708.2(3)	709.8(2)	
Ζ		2	
$\rho_{\text{calcd}} (\text{g cm}^{-3})$	11.067	11.041	
<i>T</i> (K)	297(2)	193(2)	
crystal dimensions (mm)	$0.145 \times 0.114 \times 0.046$	$0.118 \times 0.052 \times 0.022$	
μ (Mo K α) (mm ⁻¹)	90.852	90.641	
transmission factors	0.027-0.314	0.029-0.216	
20 limit	4.476-63.444	4.474-63.65	
data collected	$-19 \leq h \leq 18,$	$-19 \leq h \leq 18$,	
	$-19 \leq k \leq 19,$	$-19 \le k \le 19,$	
	$-6 \leq l \leq 6$	$-6 \leq l \leq 6$	
no. of data collected	17587	12779	
no. of unique data, including $F_0^2 < 0$	711 [$R_{int} = 0.2411$]	717 [$R_{int} = 0.1687$]	
no. of unique data, with $F_o^2 > 2\sigma(F_o^2)$	546	537	
no. of variables	34	34	
$R(F)$ for $F_o^2 > 2\sigma(F_o^2)^a$	0.039	0.042	
$R_{\rm w} (F_{\rm o}^2)^{\rm b}$	0.086	0.092	
goodness-of-fit	1.026	1.042	
$(\Delta \rho)_{\rm max}, (\Delta \rho)_{\rm min} ({\rm e} \cdot {\rm \AA}^{-3})$	4.960, -6.432	4.940, -5.974	

 Table A3-8. Crystallographic data for Yb5Ir4Ge10.

 ${}^{a} R(F) = \sum ||F_{o}| - |F_{c}|| / \sum |F_{o}|. {}^{b} R_{w}(F_{o}^{2}) = \left[\sum [w(F_{o}^{2} - F_{c}^{2})^{2}] / \sum wF_{o}^{4}\right]^{1/2}; w^{-1} = [\sigma^{2}(F_{o}^{2}) + (Ap)^{2} + Bp], \text{ where } p = [\max(F_{o}^{2}, 0) + 2F_{c}^{2}] / 3.$

Label	Wyckoff position	x	у	Ζ	OCC	$U_{ m eq}({ m \AA}^2)^{ m a}$
EuCo2Ge2_29	6 K					
Eu	2 <i>a</i>	0	0	0	1	0.012(1)
Co	4d	0	1/2	1/4	1	0.011(1)
Ge	4 <i>e</i>	0	0	0.3682(2)	1	0.010(1)
EuCo2Ge2_19	3 K					
Eu	2a	0	0	0	1	0.007(1)
Co	4 <i>d</i>	0	1/2	1/4	1	0.006(1)
Ge	4 <i>e</i>	0	0	0.3681(2)	1	0.006(1)
YbCo2Ge2_29	96 K					
Yb	2a	0	0	0	1	0.008(1)
Co	4 <i>d</i>	0	1/2	1/4	1	0.007(1)
Ge	4 <i>e</i>	0	0	0.3751(1)	1	0.007(1)
YbCo2Ge2_19	93 K					
Yb	2a	0	0	0	1	0.006(1)
Co	4 <i>d</i>	0	1/2	1/4	1	0.005(1)
Ge	4 <i>e</i>	0	0	0.3752(1)	1	0.005(1)
CeC00.94Ge2_2	296 K					
Ce	4 <i>c</i>	0	0.3917(1)	1/4	1	0.008(1)
Co	4 <i>c</i>	0	0.1814(1)	1/4	0.937(5)	0.011(1)
Gel	4 <i>c</i>	0	0.0438(1)	1/4	1	0.010(1)
Ge2	4 <i>c</i>	0	0.7499(1)	1/4	1	0.010(1)
CeIrGe ₂ _296	K					
Ce	4 <i>c</i>	0	0.3911(1)	1/4	1	0.014(1)
Ir	4 <i>c</i>	0	0.1793(1)	1/4	1	0.017(1)
Ge1	4 <i>c</i>	0	0.0385(2)	1/4	1	0.019(1)
Ge2	4 <i>c</i>	0	0.7508(2)	1/4	1	0.015(1)

Table A3-9. Atomic coordinates and equivalent isotropic displacement parameters $(Å^2)^a$ for RCo_2Ge_2 (R = Eu, Yb), CeCoGe_2 and CeIrGe_2 (*Cmcm*).

 $^{a}U_{eq}$ is defined as one third of the trace of the orthogonalized U_{ij} tensor.

Label	Wyckoff position	x	у	Ζ	OCC	$U_{ m eq}({ m \AA}^2)^{ m a}$
CeIrGe ₂ _296	K					
Cel	4 <i>i</i>	0	0	0.2073(1)	1	0.009(1)
Ce2	4g	0	0.2394(1)	0	1	0.009(1)
Ir	81	0	0.2489(1)	0.3516(1)	1	0.008(1)
Gel	81	0	0.3456(2)	0.1986(1)	1	0.010(1)
Ge2	4 <i>j</i>	1/2	0	0.0776(2)	1	0.010(1)
Ge3	4 <i>i</i>	0	0	0.4206(2)	1	0.012(1)
CeIrGe ₂ 193	K					
Ce1	4 <i>i</i>	0	0	0.2073(1)	1	0.007(1)
Ce2	4g	0	0.2390(1)	0	1	0.006(1)
Ir	81	0	0.2489(1)	0.3516(1)	1	0.006(1)
Gel	81	0	0.3456(2)	0.1987(1)	1	0.007(1)
Ge2	4 <i>j</i>	1/2	0	0.0775(1)	1	0.007(1)
Ge3	4 <i>i</i>	0	0	0.4206(1)	1	0.008(1)
Yb4Ir7Ge6_29	6 K					
Yb	8 <i>c</i>	1/4	1/4	1/4	1	0.009(1)
Ir1	2 <i>a</i>	0	0	0	1	0.005(1)
Ir2	12 <i>d</i>	1/4	0	1/2	1	0.007(1)
Ge	12 <i>e</i>	0.03150(4)	0	0	1	0.007(1)
Yb4Ir7Ge6_19	3 K					
Yb	8 <i>c</i>	1/4	1/4	1/4	1	0.009(1)
Ir1	2 <i>a</i>	0	0	0	1	0.006(1)
Ir2	12 <i>d</i>	1/4	0	1/2	1	0.008(1)
Ge	12e	0.03146(5)	0	0	1	0.009(1)

Table A3-10. Atomic coordinates and equivalent isotropic displacement parameters (Å²) for CeIrGe₂ (*Immm*), Yb₄Ir₇Ge₆.

 $^{\mathrm{a}}U_{\mathrm{eq}}$ is defined as one third of the trace of the orthogonalized U_{ij} tensor.

Label	Wyckoff position	x	у	Ζ	осс	$U_{ m eq}({ m \AA}^2)$ a
Yb5Ir4Ge10	296 K					
Yb1	4h	0.01731(1)	0.6731(1)	1/2	1	0.011(1)
Yb2	4h	0.06148(1)	0.1148(1)	1/2	1	0.012(1)
Yb3	2a	0	0	0	1	0.011(1)
Ir	8 <i>i</i>	0.2454(1)	0.0219(1)	0	1	0.009(1)
Gel	8 <i>j</i>	0.1556(2)	0.0062(2)	1/2	1	0.012(1)
Ge2	8 <i>i</i>	0.1630(2)	0.2002(2)	0	1	0.013(1)
Ge3	4g	0.0672(2)	0.5672(2)	0	1	0.011(1)
Yb5Ir4Ge10	193 K					
Yb1	4h	0.01730(1)	0.6730(1)	1/2	1	0.010(1)
Yb2	4 <i>h</i>	0.06148(1)	0.1148(1)	1/2	1	0.011(1)
Yb3	2a	0	0	0	1	0.010(1)
Ir	8 <i>i</i>	0.2452(1)	0.0222(1)	0	1	0.009(1)
Gel	8 <i>j</i>	0.1554(2)	0.0063(2)	1/2	1	0.011(1)
Ge2	8 <i>i</i>	0.1629(2)	0.2003(2)	0	1	0.012(1)
Ge3	4g	0.0672(2)	0.5672(2)	0	1	0.010(1)

Table A3-11. Atomic coordinates and equivalent isotropic displacement parameters $(Å^2)$ for Yb₅Ir₄Ge₁₀.

^a U_{eq} is defined as one third of the trace of the orthogonalized U_{ij} tensor.

Label	296 K	193 K		296 K	193 K
EuCo ₂ Ge ₂			YbCo2Ge2		
Eu–Ge (×8)	3.1718(8)	3.1672(6)	Yb–Ge (×8)	3.0551(5)	3.0509(6)
Eu–Co (×4)	3.3072(4)	3.3022(4)	Yb –Co (×4)	3.1951(2)	3.1930(4)
Ge–Co (×4)	2.3682(8)	2.3641(7)	Ge–Co (×4)	2.3371(5)	2.3348(6)
Ge–Ge	2.763(3)	2.761(2)	Ge–Ge	2.5144(19)	2.5129(19)
Co–Co (×4)	2.8551(5)	2.8506(4)	Co–Co (×4)	2.7844(3)	2.7801(4)
Label	296 K			296 K	
CeCo _{0.94} Ge ₂			CeIr0.94Ge2		
Ce–Ge2 (×2)	3.1754(7)		Ce–Ge2 (×2)	3.231(2)	
Ce–Ge1 (×4)	3.1842(4)		Ce–Ge1 (×4)	3.3069(14)	
Ce–Ge2 (×2)	3.1929(7)		Ce–Ge2 (×2)	3.269(3)	
Ce–Co (×4)	3.2363(5)		$Ce-Ir(\times 4)$	3.3071(10)	
Gel-Co	2.3080(15)		Ge1–Ir	2.408(3)	
Ge1–Ge1 (×2)	2.5688(10)		Ge1–Ge1 (×2)	2.556(3)	
Ge2– Co (×2)	2.4004(7)		Ge2– Ir (×2)	2.4870(17)	
Ge2– Co (×2)	2.4206(7)		Ge2– Ir (×2)	2.4945(16)	

Table A3-12. Interatomic distances (Å) for RCo_2Ge_2 (R = Eu, Yb), $CeTGe_2$ (T = Co, Ir).

Label	296 K	193 K	Label	296 K	193 K
CeIrGe ₂			Yb5Ir4Ge10		
Cel–Gel (×4)	3.0050(11)	3.0025(9)	Yb1–Ge3 (×2)	2.879(2)	2.880(2)
Ce1–Ge2 (×2)	3.0418(16)	3.0403(14)	Yb1–Ge2 (×4)	3.0243(16)	3.0286(17)
Cel–Gel (×2)	3.0780(14)	3.0748(12)	Yb1–Ir (×4)	3.0760(7)	3.0764(7)
Ce1–Ir (×2)	3.2257(9)	3.2240(8)	Yb1–Ge1 (×2)	3.077(2)	3.080(2)
Ce1–Ir (×2)	3.2731(6)	3.2702(5)	Yb2–Ge3 (×4)	3.2296(13)	3.2325(14)
Ce2–Ir (×4)	3.2613(5)	3.2597(4)	Yb2–Ge2 (×4)	3.2602(18)	3.2610(19)
Ce2–Ge2 (×4)	3.3066(10)	3.3012(9)	Yb2–Ir (×4)	3.3020(7)	3.3080(7)
Ce2–Ge1 (×2)	3.3642(15)	3.3654(13)	Yb3–Ge1 (×8)	2.9309(14)	2.9316(15)
Ce2–Ge3 (×2)	3.4417(11)	3.4414(9)	Yb3–Ir (×4)	3.1696(9)	3.1688(13)
Ir–Ge3	2.4824(10)	2.4807(9)	Ir–Ge1	2.4391(11)	2.4416(11)
Ir–Ge1 (×2)	2.4858(7)	2.4843(6)	Ir–Ge2	2.448(2)	2.452(2)
Ir–Ge2	2.5125(10)	2.5114(9)	Ir–Ge3	2.4813(17)	2.4845(18)
Ir–Ge1	2.6324(15)	2.6286(13)	Ir–Ge2	2.527(2)	2.527(2)
Ge1–Ge1	2.746(3)	2.745(2)	Ge1–Ge1 (×2)	2.834(3)	2.832(3)
Ge2–Ge2	2.524(4)	2.520(3)	Ge2–Ge2	2.490(4)	2.491(5)
Ge3–Ge3	2.581(4)	2.579(3)	Ge3–Ge3	2.445(6)	2.446(6)
Label	296 K	193 K			
Yb4Ir7Ge6					
Yb–Ir2 (×6)	2.9242(6)	2.9231(5)			
Yb–Ge (×6)	2.9732(8)	2.9714(10)			
Ir1–Ge (×6)	2.605(3)	2.601(4)			
Ir2–Ge (×4)	2.572(2)	2.573(3)			
Ir2–Ir2 (×4)	2.9242(6)	2.9231(5)			

Table A3-13. Interatomic distances (Å) for CeIrGe₂ (*Immm*), Yb₄Ir₇Ge₆ and Yb₅Ir₄Ge₁₀.

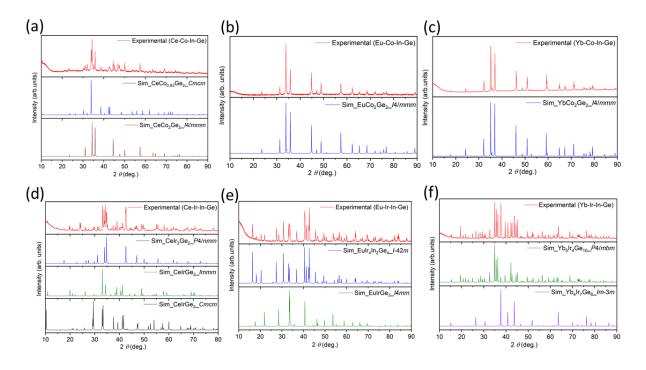


Figure A3-1. Powder X-ray diffraction patterns compared with simulated patterns.

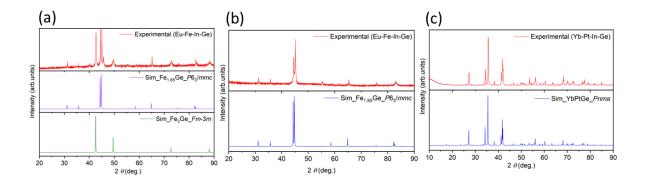


Figure A3-2. Powder X-ray diffraction patterns compared with simulated patterns.

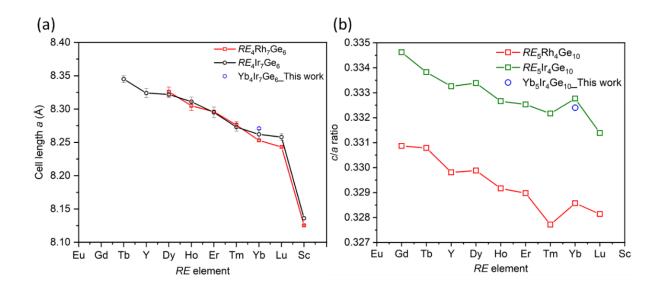


Figure A3-3. (a) Cell length of RE_4T_7 Ge₆ (T =Rh, Ir) compounds, and (b) c/a ratio of RE_5T_4 Ge₁₀ (T = Rh, Ir) compounds.