## 8.3 Graphite Intercalation Compounds<sup>(76)</sup>

The large interlayer distance between the parallel planes of C atoms in graphite implies that the interlayer bonding is relatively weak. This accounts for the ready cleavage along the basal plane and the remarkable softness of the crystals. It also enables a wide range of substances to intercalate between the planes under mild conditions to give lamellar compounds of variable composition. These reactions are often reversible (unlike those with O and F discussed above) and the graphitic nature of the host lattice is retained. The compounds have quite different structures and properties from those previously encountered in this book and so will be described in some detail. They may be compared with the materials formed by intercalation into certain sheet silicates (p. 349).

The first alkali-metal graphite compound was reported in 1926: bronze-coloured C<sub>8</sub>K was formed by direct reaction of graphite with K vapour at 300°C. Rubidium and Cs behave similarly. When heated at ~360° under reduced pressure the metal is removed in stages to give a series of intercalation compounds C<sub>8</sub>M (bronze-red), C<sub>24</sub>M (steel-blue), C<sub>36</sub>M (dark blue), C<sub>48</sub>M (black) and C<sub>60</sub>M (black). The compounds can also be prepared by electrolysis of fused melts with graphite electrodes, by reaction of graphite with solutions of M in liquid ammonia or amines, and by exchange reactions using M/aromatic radical anions. Intercalation is more difficult to achieve with Li and Na though direct reaction with highly purified graphite at 500° yields C<sub>6</sub>Li (brass coloured), C<sub>12</sub>Li (copper), and C<sub>18</sub>Li (steel), and reaction with Li/naphthalene in thf yields C<sub>16</sub>Li and C<sub>40</sub>Li. Corresponding reaction of graphite and molten Na at 450° gives C<sub>64</sub>Na (deep violet) whereas Na/naphthalene gives  $C_{32}$ Na and  $C_{120}$ Na.

The crystal structure of C<sub>8</sub>K is shown in Fig. 8.15(a); the graphite layers remain intact but are stacked vertically above each other instead of in the sequence ... ABAB... found in  $\alpha$ -graphite itself. Each graphite layer is interleaved by a layer of K atoms having a commensurate lattice in which the spacing between each K is twice the spacing between the centres of the graphite hexagons (Fig. 8.15(b)). The stoichiometries of the other stages can then be achieved by varying the frequency of occurrence of the intercalated M layers in the host lattice. An idealized representation of this model is shown in Fig. 8.16. Difficulties are encountered in devising a plausible mechanistic route to the formation of these compounds since the direct preparation of one stage from an adjacent stage apparently requires both the complete emptying and the complete filling of inserted layers. It may be that the situation is more complex, with distributions of stages rather than a single uniform arrangement for each stoichiometry. Very recently a new metal-rich phase has been prepared by reacting graphite with molten potassium; the composition is very close to C<sub>4</sub>K and the structure comprises double planes of K atoms intercalated between each graphite sheet, with a consequent increase in the interplanar spacing to 850 pm. (77)

The electrical resistance of graphite intercalation compounds is even lower than for graphite itself, resistance along the a-axis dropping by a factor of  $\sim 10$  and that along the c-axis by  $\sim 100$ ; moreover, in contrast to graphite, which is diamagnetic, the compounds have a temperature-independent (Pauli) paramagnetism and also behave as true metals in having a resistivity that increases with increase in temperature. This is illustrated by the comparative data shown in Table 8.2.

These data, and the other properties of  $C_nM$ , suggest that bonding occurs by transfer of electrons from the alkali metal atoms to the conduction band of the host graphite. Consistent with

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>76</sup> L. B. EBERT, A. Rev. Materials Sci. 6, 181–211 (1976).
A. HÉROLD, in F. LEVY (ed.), Intercalated Layered Materials, pp. 323–421, Reidel, 1979. H. SELIG and L. B. EBERT, Adv. Inorg. Chem. Radiochem. 23, 281–327 (1980); a review with ~350 references.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>77</sup> M. EL GADI, C. HÉROLD and P. LAGRANGE, *Compt. Rend. Acad. Sci. Paris* 316, 763-9 (1993).

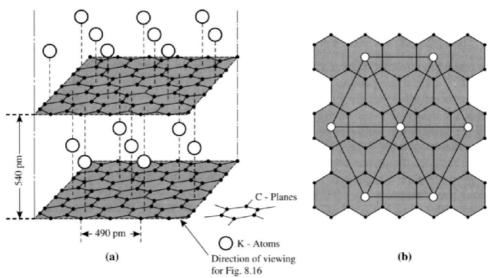


Figure 8.15 (a) Crystal lattice of C<sub>8</sub>K showing the vertical packing of graphitic layers. The C-C distance within layers almost identical to that in graphite itself but the interplanar spacing (540 pm) is much larger than for graphite (335 pm) due to the presence of K atoms. The spacing increases still further to 561 pm for C<sub>8</sub>Rb and to 595 pm for C<sub>8</sub>Cs. (b) Triangular location of K atoms in C<sub>8</sub>K showing the relation to the host graphite layers. In the other alkali-metal graphite compounds C<sub>12n</sub>M the central M atom is missing, leading to a stoichiometry of C<sub>12</sub>M if every alternate layer is M, C<sub>24</sub>M if each third layer is M, etc.

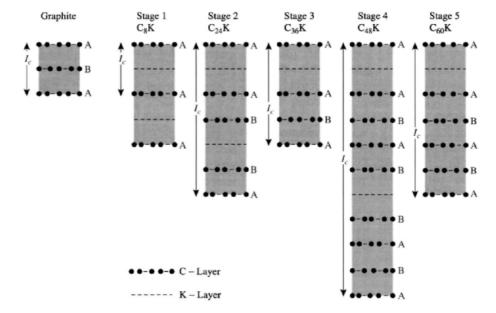


Figure 8.16 Layer-plane sequence along the c-axis for graphite in various stage 1-5 of alkali-metal graphite intercalation compounds. Comparison with Fig. 8.15 shows that the horizontal planes are being viewed diagonally across the figure.  $I_c$  is the interlayer repeat distance along the c-axis.

**Table 8.2** Resistivity of graphite and its intercalates

Material	ρ (90 K)/ohm cm	$\rho$ (285 K)/ohm cm	$\rho_{90}/\rho_{285}$
α-graphite	37.7	28.4	1.33
C <sub>8</sub> K	0.768	1.02	0.75
$C_{12}K$	0.932	1.15	0.81

this, direct metal intercalation has only been observed with the most electropositive elements (Group 1) though Ba, with a first-stage ionization energy intermediate between those of Li and Na, was recently (1974) found to give C<sub>6</sub>Ba.

Alkali-metal graphites are extremely reactive in air and may explode with water. In general, reactivity decreases with ease of ionization of M in the sequence Li > Na > K > Rb > Cs. Under controlled conditions  $H_2O$  or ROH produce only  $H_2$ , MOH and graphite, unlike the alkali-metal carbides  $M_2C_2$  (p. 297) which produce hydrocarbons such as acetylene. In an important new reaction  $C_8K$  has been found to react smoothly with transition metal salts in tetrahydrofuran at room temperature to give the corresponding transition metal lamellar compounds:  $^{(78)}$ 

$$nC_8K + MX_n \xrightarrow{\text{thf}} C_{8n}M + nKX$$

Examples include reaction of  $Ti(OPr^i)_4$ ,  $MnCl_2-4H_2O$ ,  $FeCl_3$ ,  $CoCl_2.6H_2O$ ,  $CuCl_2.2H_2O$ , and  $ZnCl_2$  to give  $C_{32}Ti$ ,  $C_{16}Mn$ ,  $C_{24}Fe$ ,  $C_{16}Co$ ,  $C_{16}Cu$  and  $C_{16}Zn$ , respectively.

A quite different sort of graphite intercalation compound is formed by the halides of many elements, particularly those halides which themselves have layer structures or weak intermolecular binding. The first such compound (1932) was with FeCl<sub>3</sub>; chlorides, in general, have been the most studied, but fluoride and bromide intercalates are also known. Halides which have been reported to intercalate include the following:

MF<sub>5</sub> (M = As, Sb, Nb, Ta); UF<sub>6</sub>
MCl<sub>2</sub>: M = Be; Mn, Co, Ni, Cu; Zn, Cd, Hg
MCl<sub>3</sub>: M = B, Al, Ga, In, Tl; Y; Sm, Eu,
Gd, Tb, Dy; Cr, Fe, Co; Ru, Rh, Au; I
MCl<sub>4</sub>: M = Zr, Hf; Re, Ir; Pd, Pt
MCl<sub>5</sub>: M = Sb; Mo; U

 $\begin{aligned} &MCl_6{:}\ M=W,\ U;\ also\ CrO_2Cl_2,\ UO_2Cl_2\\ &Mixtures\ of\ AlCl_3\ plus\ Br_2,\ I_2,\ ICl_3, \end{aligned}$ 

FeCl<sub>3</sub>, WCl<sub>6</sub>

Bromides: CuBr<sub>2</sub>; AlBr<sub>3</sub>, GaBr<sub>3</sub>; AuBr<sub>3</sub>

The intercalates are usually prepared by heating a mixture of the reactants though sometimes the presence of free Cl<sub>2</sub> is also necessary, particularly for "non-oxidizing" chlorides such as MnCl<sub>2</sub>, NiCl<sub>2</sub>, ZnCl<sub>2</sub>, AlCl<sub>3</sub>, etc. Many of the compounds appear to show various stages of intercalation, the first stage usually exhibiting a typical blue colour. A common feature of many of the intercalated halides is their ability to act as electron-pair acceptors (Lewis acids). Low heat of sublimation is a further characteristic of most of the intercalating compounds. It may be that an important feature is an ability of the guest molecule to form a layer lattice commensurate with the host graphite. For example, in C<sub>6.69</sub>FeCl<sub>3</sub> the intercalated FeCl<sub>3</sub> has a layer structure similar to that in FeCl<sub>3</sub> itself with Cl in approximately close-packed arrangement though with some distortion, and with extensive stacking disorder. The "firststage" compound varies in composition in the range C<sub>~6-7</sub>FeCl<sub>3</sub>; in addition a "second-stage" compound corresponding to  $C_{\sim 12}$  FeCl<sub>3</sub> is known. and also a "third-stage" with composition in the range C<sub>24-30</sub>FeCl<sub>3</sub>. Another well-characterized phase occurs with MoCl<sub>5</sub>: layers of close-packed Mo<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>10</sub> molecules alternate with sets of 4 graphite layers along the c-axis.

There appears to be a small but definite transfer of electron charge from the graphite to the guest species and this has led to formulations such as  $C_{70}^+Cl^-$ .FeCl<sub>2</sub>.5FeCl<sub>3</sub>. Similarly, the intercalate of AlCl<sub>3</sub> (which is formed in the presence of free Cl<sub>2</sub>) has been formulated as  $C_{27}^+Cl^-$ .3AlCl<sub>3</sub> or  $C_{27}^+AlCl_4^-$ .2AlCl<sub>3</sub>. This would explain the enhanced conductivity of the graphite-metal

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>78</sup> D. Braga, A. RIPAMONTI, D. SAVOIA, C. TROMBINI and A. UMANI-RONCHI, J. Chem. Soc., Dalton Trans., 2026–8 (1979).

halide compounds, due to the formation of positive holes near the top of the valence band. However, despite extensive work using a variety of techniques, many structural problems remain unresolved and there is still no consensus on the detailed description of the bonding. Recent work includes studies on intercalation and staging in main-group element fluoride systems, e.g. (using ionic formulations)

The halogens themselves show a curious alternation of behaviour towards graphite. F2 gives the compounds CF, C<sub>2</sub>F and C<sub>4</sub>F (p. 289) whereas liquid Cl<sub>2</sub> reacts slowly to give C<sub>8</sub>Cl, and I<sub>2</sub> appears not to intercalate at all. By contrast, Br<sub>2</sub> readily intercalates in several stages to give compounds of formula C<sub>8</sub>Br, C<sub>12</sub>Br, C<sub>16</sub>Br and C<sub>20</sub>Br; the compounds C<sub>14</sub>Br and C<sub>28</sub>Br have also been well-characterized crystallographically but may be metastable phases. A notable feature of the Br<sub>2</sub> intercalation reaction is that it is completely prevented by prior coating of the basal plane of the sample of graphite with a layer impervious to Br<sub>2</sub>. The lamellar character of blue C<sub>8</sub>Br has been confirmed by X-ray diffraction and the intercalation of bromine, is accompanied by a marked decrease in the resistivity of the graphite — more than tenfold along the a-axis and twofold along the c-axis. C<sub>8</sub>ICl and C<sub>36</sub>ICl have also been prepared.

Numerous oxides, sulfides and oxoacids have been found to intercalate into graphite. For example, lamellar compounds with SO<sub>3</sub>, N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> and Cl<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> are known (but not with SO<sub>2</sub>, NO or NO<sub>2</sub>). CrO<sub>3</sub> and MoO<sub>3</sub> readily intercalate as do several sulfides such as V<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>, Cr<sub>2</sub>S<sub>3</sub>(+S), WS<sub>2</sub>, PdS(+S) and Sb<sub>2</sub>S<sub>5</sub>. Metal nitrates and oxonitrates can also form intercalates, e.g. Cu(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, Zn(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, Zr(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>4</sub>, CrO<sub>2</sub>(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, NbO(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>3</sub> and TaO(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>3</sub>. A recent example is [C<sub>28</sub>MoO<sub>2</sub>(NO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>.0.3N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>]<sup>(82)</sup>

The reversible intercalation of various oxoacids under oxidizing conditions leads to lamellar graphite "salts" some of which have been known for over a century and are now particularly well characterized structurally. For example, the formation of the blue, "first-stage" compound with conc  $\rm H_2SO_4$  can be expressed by the idealized equation

$$24C + 3H_2SO_4 + \frac{1}{4}O_2 \longrightarrow C_{24} + HSO_4 - .2H_2SO_4 + \frac{1}{2}H_2O$$

The overall stoichiometry is thus close to C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> and the structure is very similar to that of C<sub>8</sub>K (p. 293) except for the detail of vertical alignment of the carbon atoms in the c direction which is  $\cdots$  ABAB $\cdots$ . Several later stages (2, 3, 4, 5, 11) have been established and their properties studied. Intercalation is accompanied by a marked decrease in electrical resistance. A series of graphite nitrates can be prepared similarly, e.g.  $C_{24}^{+}NO_{3}^{-}.2HNO_{3}$ (blue), C<sub>48</sub>+NO<sub>3</sub>-.3HNO<sub>3</sub> (black), etc. Other oxoacids which intercalate (particularly under electrolytic conditions) include HClO<sub>4</sub>, HSO<sub>3</sub>F, HSO<sub>3</sub>Cl, H<sub>2</sub>SeO<sub>4</sub>, H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, H<sub>4</sub>P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>, H<sub>3</sub>AsO<sub>4</sub>, CF<sub>3</sub>CO<sub>2</sub>H, CCl<sub>3</sub>CO<sub>2</sub>H, etc. The extent of intercalation depends both on the strength of the acid and its concentration, and the reactions are of considerable technological importance because they can lead to the swelling and eventual destruction of the graphite electrodes used in many electrochemical processes.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>79</sup> E. M. McCarron and N. Bartlett, J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun., 404-6 (1980).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>80</sup> E. M. McCarron, J. Grannec and N. Bartlett, J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun., 890-1 (1980).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>81</sup> G. L. ROSENTHAL, T. E. MALLOUK and N. BARTLETT, Synthetic Metals 9, 433–40 (1984).

 $<sup>^{82}</sup>$  E. Stumpp and H. Griebel, Z. anorg. allg. Chem. **579**, 205–10 (1989).

## 8.4 Carbides

Carbon forms binary compounds with most elements: those with metals are considered in this section whilst those with H, the halogens, O, and the chalcogens are discussed in subsequent sections. Alkali metal fullerides and encapsulated (endohedral) metallafullerenes have already been considered (pp. 285, 288 respectively) and metallacarbohedrenes (metcars) will be dealt with later in this section (p. 300). Silicon carbide is discussed on p. 334. General methods of preparation of metal carbides are: (83)

- Direct combination of the elements above ~2000°C.
- (2) Reaction of the metal oxide with carbon at high temperature.
- (3) Reaction of the heated metal with gaseous hydrocarbon.
- (4) Reaction of acetylene with electropositive metals in liquid ammonia.

Attempts to classify carbides according to structure or bond type meet the same difficulties as were encountered with hydrides (p. 64) and borides (p. 145) and for the same reasons. The general trends in properties of the three groups of compounds are, however, broadly similar, being most polar (ionic) for the electropositive metals, most covalent (molecular) for the electronegative non-metals and somewhat complex (interstitial) for the elements in the centre of the d block. There are also several elements with poorly characterized, unstable, or non-existent carbides, namely the later transition elements (Groups 11 and 12), the platinum metals, and the post transition-metal elements in Group 13.

Salt-like carbides containing individual C "anions" are sometimes called "methanides" since they yield predominantly CH<sub>4</sub> on hydrolysis. Be<sub>2</sub>C and Al<sub>4</sub>C<sub>3</sub> are the best-characterized examples, indicating the importance of small

compact cations. Be<sub>2</sub>C is prepared from BeO and C at 1900-2000°C; it is brick-red, has the antifluorite structure (p. 118), and decomposes to graphite when heated above 2100°. Ab initio calculations suggest that the structure is predominantly ionic with charges close to the nominal Be<sup>2+</sup><sub>2</sub>C<sup>4-</sup>. (84) Al<sub>4</sub>C<sub>3</sub>, prepared by direct union of the elements in an electric furnace, forms paleyellow crystals, mp 2200°C. It has a complex structure in which {AlC<sub>4</sub>} tetrahedra of two types are linked to form a layer lattice: this defines two types of C atom, one surrounded by a deformed octahedron of 6 Al at 217 pm and the other surrounded by 4 Al at 190-194 pm and a fifth Al at 221 pm. The closest C···C approach is at the nonbonding distance of 316 pm. Although it is formally possible to describe the structure as ionic,  $(Al^{3+})_4(C^{4-})_3$ , such a gross separation of charges is unlikely to occur over the observed interatomic distances.

Carbides containing a C<sub>2</sub> unit are well known; they are exemplified by the acetylides (ethynides) of the alkali metals, M<sub>2</sub>C<sub>2</sub>, alkaline earth metals, M<sup>II</sup>C<sub>2</sub>, and the lanthanoids LnC<sub>2</sub> and Ln<sub>2</sub>C<sub>3</sub> i.e.  $Ln_4(C_2)_3$ . The corresponding compounds of Group 11 (Cu, Ag, Au) are explosive and those of Group 12 (Zn, Cd, Hg) are poorly characterized. M<sub>2</sub><sup>1</sup>C<sub>2</sub> are best prepared by the action of C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>2</sub> on a solution of alkali metal in liquid NH<sub>3</sub>; they are colourless crystalline compounds which react violently with water and oxidize to the carbonate on being heated in air. M<sup>II</sup>C<sub>2</sub> can be prepared by heating the alkaline earth metal with ethyne above 500°C. By far the most important compound in this group is CaC<sub>2</sub> — it is manufactured on a huge scale, 6.4 million tonnes worldwide in 1982 and is used as a major source of ethyne for the chemical industry and for oxyacetylene welding. US production peaked at 1.03 Mt in 1964 but then declined substantially as ethyne became available from petrochemical feedstocks, from the thermal cracking of hydrocarbons and as a byproduct of C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub> manufacture. US production of CaC<sub>2</sub>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>83</sup> Reference 2, pp. 841-911: Carbides (p. 841); Cemented carbides (p. 848); Industrial hard carbides (p. 861); Calcium carbide (p. 878); Silicon carbide (p. 891).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>84</sup> P. W. FOWLER and P. TOLE, J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun., 1652-4 (1989).

has been below 250 000 tonnes per annum for the past 20 years and was 236 000 tonnes in 1990 (price \$515/t). Europe (3.25 Mtpa) and Asia/Australia (2.42 Mtpa) are currently the major producers.

Industrially, CaC<sub>2</sub> is produced by the endothermic reaction of lime and coke:

CaO + 3C 
$$\xrightarrow{2200-2250^{\circ}\text{C}}$$
 CaC<sub>2</sub> + CO;  
 $\Delta H = 465.7 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ 

Subsequent hydrolysis is highly exothermic and must be carefully controlled:

$$CaC_2 + 2H_2O \longrightarrow C_2H_2 + Ca(OH)_2;$$
  
 $\Delta H = -120 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ 

Another industrially important reaction of CaC<sub>2</sub> is its ability to fix N<sub>2</sub> from the air by formation of calcium cyanamide:

$$CaC_2 + N_2 \xrightarrow{1000^{\circ} - 1200^{\circ}} CaCN_2 + C;$$

$$\Delta H = -296 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

 $CaCN_2$  is widely used as a fertilizer because of its ready hydrolysis to cyanamide,  $H_2NCN$  (p. 323).

Pure  $CaC_2$  is a colourless solid, mp 2300°C. It can be prepared on the laboratory scale by passing ethyne into a solution of Ca in liquid NH<sub>3</sub>, followed by decomposition of the complex so formed, under reduced pressure at  $\sim$ 325°:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Ca(liq NH}_3) + 2\text{C}_2\text{H}_2 &\xrightarrow{-80^{\circ}} \text{H}_2 + \text{CaC}_2.\text{C}_2\text{H}_2 \\ &\xrightarrow{325^{\circ}} \text{CaC}_2 + \text{C}_2\text{H}_2 \end{aligned}$$

It exists in at least four crystalline forms, the one stable at room temperature being a tetragonally distorted NaCl-type structure (Fig. 8.17) in which the  $C_2$  units are aligned along the c-axis. The ethynides of Mg, Sr and Ba have the same structure and also hydrolyse to give ethyne. In addition, BaC<sub>2</sub> absorbs N<sub>2</sub> from the atmosphere to give Ba(CN)<sub>2</sub> (cf. CaC<sub>2</sub> above).

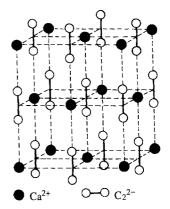


Figure 8.17 Crystal structure of tetragonal CaC<sub>2</sub> showing the resemblance to NaCl (p. 242). Above 450°C the parallel alignment of the C<sub>2</sub> units breaks down and the structure becomes cubic.

Carbides containing the essentially linear  $C_3^{4-}$  unit are known, e.g.  $Li_4C_3$ ,  $Mg_2C_3$ , and the recently characterized  $Ca_3C_3Cl_2$  and  $Sc_3C_4$ . Thus  $Ca_3C_3Cl_2$  forms as transparent red crystals when  $CaCl_2$  is heated with graphite in sealed Ta capsules at  $900^{\circ}C$  for 1 day  $(C-C 134.6 \, \text{pm})$ , angle  $169.0^{\circ}$ ). By contrast  $Sc_3C_4$  is a grey-black metallic substance with Pauli paramagnetism: it contains  $C^{4-}$  and  $C_2^{2-}$  ions, and supernumerary electrons ein addition to  $C_3^{4-}$  (C-C 134.2 pm, angle  $175.8^{\circ}$ ). It can best be represented as  $10Sc_3C_4 \equiv [(Sc^{3+})_{30}(C^{4-})_{12}(C_2^{2-})_2(C_3^{4-})_8(e^{-})_6]$ . (85)

The carbides of the lanthanoids and actinoids can be prepared by heating  $M_2O_3$  with C in an electric furnace or by arc-melting compressed pellets of the elements in an inert atmosphere. They contain the  $C_2$  unit and have a stoichiometry  $MC_2$  or  $M_4(C_2)_3$ .  $MC_2$  have the  $CaC_2$  structure or a related one of lower symmetry in which the  $C_2$  units lie at right-angles to the c-axis of an orthogonal NaCl-type cell. (86) They are more reactive than the alkaline-earth metal

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>85</sup> R. HOFFMANN and H.-J. MEYER, Z. anorg. allg. Chem. 607, 57-71 (1992).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>86</sup> A. F. WELLS, Structural Inorganic Chemistry, 5th edn., Oxford University Press, Oxford, 1984, 1382 pp.

carbides, combining readily with atmospheric oxygen and hydrolysing to a complex mixture of hydrocarbons. This derives from their more complicated electronic structure and, indeed,  $LnC_2$  are metallic conductors (not insulators like  $CaC_2$ ); they are best regarded as ethynides of  $Ln^{III}$  with the supernumerary electron partly delocalized in a conduction band of the crystal. This would explain the evolution of  $H_2$  as well as  $C_2H_2$  on hydrolysis, and the simultaneous production of the reduced species  $C_2H_4$  and  $C_2H_6$  together with various other hydrocarbons up to  $C_6H_{10}$ :

$$LnC_2 + 3H_2O \longrightarrow Ln(OH)_3 + C_2H_2 + [H]$$

An interesting feature of the ethynides  $MC_2$  and  $M_4(C_2)_3$  is the variation in the C-C distance as measured by neutron diffraction. Typical values (in pm) are:

CaC <sub>2</sub>	YC <sub>2</sub>	CeC <sub>2</sub>	LaC <sub>2</sub>	UC <sub>2</sub>
119.2	127.5	128.3	130.3	135.0
La <sub>4</sub> (C <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> 123.6	Ce <sub>4</sub> (C <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> 127.6	$U_4(C_2)_3$ 129.5		

The C-C distance in  $CaC_2$  is close to that in ethyne (120.5 pm) and it has been suggested that the observed increase in the lanthanoid and actinoid carbides results from a partial localization of the supernumerary electron in the antibonding orbital of the ethynide ion  $[C \equiv C]^{2-}$  (see p. 932). The effect is noticeably less in the sesquicarbides than in the dicarbides. The compounds  $EuC_2$  and  $YbC_2$  differ in their lattice parameters and hydrolysis behaviour from the other  $LnC_2$  and this may be related to the relative stability of  $Eu^{II}$  and  $Yb^{II}$  (p. 1237).

The lanthanoids also form metal-rich carbides of stoichiometry  $M_3C$  in which individual C atoms occupy at random one-third of the octahedral Cl sites in a NaCl-like structure. Several of the actinoids (e.g. Th, U, Pu) form monocarbides, MC, in which all the octahedral Cl sites in the NaCl structure are occupied and this stoichiometry is also observed for several other carbides of the early transition elements, e.g. M = Ti, Zr, Hf; V, Nb, Ta; Mo, W. These

are best considered as interstitial carbides and in this sense the lanthanoids and actinoids occupy an intermediate position in the classification of the carbides, as they did with the hydrides (p. 66).

Interstitial carbides are infusible, extremely hard, refractory materials that retain many of the characteristic properties of metals (lustre, metallic conductivity). (87) Reported mps are frequently in the range 3000-4000°C. Interstitial carbides derive their name from the fact that the C atoms occupy octahedral interstices in a close-packed lattice of metal atoms, though the arrangement of metal atoms is not always the same as in the metal itself. The size of the metal atoms must be large enough to generate a site of sufficient size to accommodate C, and the critical radius of M seems to be  $\sim$ 135 pm: thus the transition metals mentioned in the preceding paragraph all have 12-coordinate radii > 135 pm, whereas metals with smaller radii (e.g. Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni) do not form MC and their interstitial carbides have a more complex structure (see below). If the close-packed arrangement of M atoms is hexagonal (h) rather than cubic (c) then the 2 octahedral interstices on either side of a close-packed M layer are located directly above one another and only one of these is ever occupied. This gives a stoichiometry M<sub>2</sub>C as in V<sub>2</sub>C, Nb<sub>2</sub>C, Ta<sub>2</sub>C and W<sub>2</sub>C. Intermediate stoichiometries are encountered when the M atom stacking sequence alternates, e.g. Mo<sub>3</sub>C<sub>2</sub> (hcc) and V<sub>4</sub>C<sub>3</sub> (hhcc). Ordered defect NaCl-type structures are also known, e.g. V<sub>8</sub>C<sub>7</sub> and V<sub>6</sub>C<sub>5</sub>, thus illustrating the wide range of stoichiometries which occur among interstitial carbides. Unlike the "ionic" carbides, interstitial carbides do not react with water and are generally very inert, though some do react with air when heated above 1000° and most are degraded by conc HNO<sub>3</sub> or HF. The extreme hardness and inertness of WC and TaC have led to their extensive use as highspeed cutting tools.

 <sup>87</sup> H. H. JOHANSEN, Survey of Progress in Chemistry 8,
 57-81 (1977). See also A. COTTRELL, Chemical Bonding in Transition Metal Carbides, Inst. of Materials, London, 1995,
 99 pp.

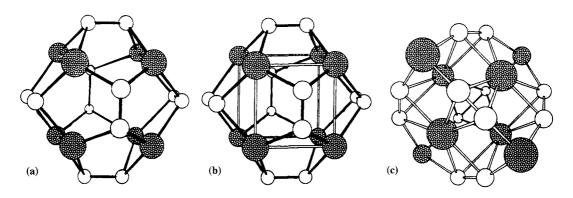


Figure 8.18 (a) Proposed pentagonal dodecahedral structure of  $Ti_8C_{12}$ . (b) The same structure viewed as a  $Ti_8$  cube with each face capped by a  $C_2$  group. (c) An alternative  $T_h$  structure (see text).

Table 8.3 Stoichiometries of some transition element carbides

$V_2C$ , $V_4C_3$	Cr <sub>23</sub> C <sub>6</sub>	Mn <sub>23</sub> C <sub>6</sub> , Mn <sub>15</sub> C <sub>4</sub>	Fe <sub>3</sub> C, Fe <sub>7</sub> C <sub>3</sub>	Co <sub>3</sub> C	Ni <sub>3</sub> C
$V_6C_5$ , $V_8C_7$	$Cr_7C_3$	$Mn_3C$ , $Mn_5C_2$	$Fe_2C$	$Co_2C$	
VC	$Cr_3C_2$	$Mn_7C_3$			

The carbides of Cr, Mn, Fe, Co and Ni are profuse in number, complicated in structure, and of great importance industrially. Cementite, Fe<sub>3</sub>C, is an important constituent of steel (p. 1075). Typical stoichiometries are listed in Table 8.3 though it should be noted that several of the phases can exist over a range of composition.

The structures, particularly of the most metalrich phases, are frequently related to those of the corresponding metal-rich borides (and silicides, germanides, phosphides, arsenides, sulfides and selenides), in which the non-metal is surrounded by a trigonal prism of M atoms with 0, 1, 2, or 3 additional neighbours beyond the quadrilateral prism faces (p. 148). e.g. Fe<sub>3</sub>C (cementite), Mn<sub>3</sub>C and Co<sub>3</sub>B; Mn<sub>5</sub>C<sub>2</sub> and Pd<sub>5</sub>B<sub>2</sub>; Cr<sub>7</sub>C<sub>3</sub> and Re<sub>7</sub>B<sub>3</sub>. Numerous ternary carbides, carbonitrides, and oxocarbides are also known.

The carbides of Cr, Mn, Fe, Co and Ni are much more reactive than the interstitial carbides of the earlier transition metals. They are rapidly hydrolysed by dilute acid and sometimes even by water to give  $H_2$  and a mixture of hydrocarbons. For example,  $M_3C$  give  $H_2$  (75%),  $CH_4$  (15%)

and  $C_2H_6$  (8%) together with small amounts of higher hydrocarbons.

## Metallocarbohedrenes (met-cars)

An entirely novel group of binary metal carbides, reminiscent of the fullerenes (p. 279), were discovered by accident in 1992. When Ti metal is vaporized in a laser plasma reactor in the presence of He gas containing a hydrocarbon such as methane, ethene, ethyne or benzene, the mass spectrum of the emerging beam contains a single dominant peak at 528 corresponding to  $Ti_8C_{12}$  [isotope <sup>48</sup>Ti 73.8% abundant: (8 × 48) + (12 × 12) = 528]. Detailed isotope distribution studies confirmed the molecular formula. The proposed structure, shown in Fig. 8.18a, is a pentagonal dodecahedron of  $T_h$  symmetry comprising 12 mutually fused  $Ti_2C_3$  pentagons.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>88</sup> B. C. Guo, K. P. Kerns and A. W. Castleman, *Science* **255**, 1411-3 (1992). B. C. Guo, S. Wei, J. Purnell, S. Buzza and A. W. Castleman, *Science* **256**, 515-6 and 818-20 (1992), *J. Chem. Phys.* **96**, 4166-8 (1992).

Property	CH <sub>4</sub>	CF <sub>4</sub>	CCl <sub>4</sub>	CBr <sub>4</sub>	CI <sub>4</sub>
MP/°C	-182.5	-183.5	-22.9	90.1	171 (d)
BP/°C	-161.5	-128.5	76.7	189.5	$\sim$ 130 (subl)
Density/g cm <sup>-3</sup>	0.424	1.96	1.594	2.961	4.32
(at $T^{\circ}C$ )	$(-164^{\circ})$	$(-184^{\circ})$	(20°)	(100°)	$(20^{\circ}) (s)$
$-\Delta H_f^{\circ}/\text{kJ mol}^{-1}$	74.87	679.9	106.7 (g) 139.3 (l)	160 (1)	_
$D(X_3C-X)/kJ \text{ mol}^{-1}$	435	515	295	235	_

**Table 8.4** Some properties of methane and CX<sub>4</sub>

Each Ti bonds to 3C via  $\sigma$  bonds and each C bonds to 2Ti and one C. The all-carbon analogue, C<sub>20</sub>, is not expected to be stable because of severe internal strain; (it would be the smallest possible fullerene, p. 280). Note, however, that dodecahedrane, C<sub>20</sub>H<sub>20</sub>, is known. (89) An alternative description of the structure (Fig. 8.18b) would be as a weakly bonded cube, Ti<sub>8</sub>, each face of which is capped by a C<sub>2</sub> unit. The calculated distances (90) are Ti · · · Ti 302 pm, Ti - C 199 pm and C - C 140 pm (implying some multiple bonding: cf. 140 pm in benzene). An alternative  $T_h$  structure for  $Ti_8C_{12}$ , which is calculated to have a lower energy, has also been proposed. (90) In this, the Ti<sub>8</sub> array is a tetracapped tetrahedron containing six Ti<sub>4</sub> faces in butterfly conformation; each of these Ti<sub>4</sub> faces can then accommodate a C2 unit as shown in Fig. 8.18c.

Other met-cars that have been detected mass spectrometrically are  $M_8C_{12}$  (M=V,Zr,Hf) and there is some evidence for higher members such as  $Zr_{13}C_{22}$ ,  $Zr_{14}C_{23}$ ,  $Zr_{18}C_{29}$  and  $Zr_{23}C_{32}$  which may feature fused clusters of clusters. The possibility of a super-pentagonal cluster,  $M_{30}C_{45}$ , of  $D_{5h}$  symmetry has also been mooted. (91)

As with the fullerenes, further detailed studies will depend on the discovery of viable bulk preparations of the met-cars. Macroscopic amounts of  $Ti_8C_{12}$  and  $V_8C_{12}$  have indeed been made by DC arc discharge techniques using electrodes of compacted metal and graphite powders and He as the quenching carrier gas. (92) The resulting soot contains about 1% of airstable  $M_8C_{12}$  plus some  $C_{60}$  (unstable in air). Solution studies have not yet been reported but there is mass spectrometric evidence for  $Ti_8C_{12}L_8$  ( $L=NH_3$ ,  $ND_3$ ,  $H_2O$ ) as well as for  $Ti_8C_{12}(MeOH)_4$ .

## 8.5 Hydrides, Halides and Oxohalides

The ability of C to catenate (i.e. to form bonds to itself in compounds) is nowhere better illustrated than in the compounds it forms with H. Hydrocarbons occur in great variety in petroleum deposits and elsewhere, and form various homologous series in which the C atoms are linked into chains, branched chains and rings. The study of these compounds and their derivatives forms the subject of organic chemistry and is fully discussed in the many textbooks and treatises on that subject. The matter is further considered on p. 374 in relation to the much smaller ability of other Group 14 elements to form such catenated compounds. Methane, CH<sub>4</sub>, is the archetype of tetrahedral coordination in molecular compounds; some of its properties are listed in Table 8.4 where they are compared with those of the

 <sup>&</sup>lt;sup>89</sup> R. J. TERNANSKY, D. W. BALOGH and L. A. PAQUETTE,
 J. Am. Chem. Soc. 104, 4503-4 (1982).
 J. C. GALLUCCI,
 C. W. DOECKE and L. A. PAQUETTE J. Am. Chem. Soc. 108, 1343-4 (1986).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>90</sup> I. G. DANCE, *J. Chem. Soc.*, *Chem. Commun.*, 1779-80 (1992).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>91</sup> I. G. DANCE, Aust. J. Chem. 46, 727-30 (1993).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>92</sup> S. F. CARTIER, Z. Y. CHEN, G. J. WALDER and A. W. CASTLEMAN, *Science* **260**, 195-6 (1993).

corresponding halides. Unsaturated hydrocarbons such as ethene  $(C_2H_4)$ , ethyne  $(C_2H_2)$ , benzene  $(C_6H_6)$ , cyclooctatetraene  $(C_8H_8)$  and homocyclic radicals such as cyclopentadienyl  $(C_5H_5)$  and cycloheptatrienyl  $(C_7H_7)$  are effective ligands to metals and form many organometallic complexes (pp. 930–43).

Methane is unique among hydrocarbons in being thermodynamically stable with respect to its elements. It follows that pyrolytic reactions to convert it to other hydrocarbons are energetically unfavourable and will be strongly equilibrium-limited. This is in marked contrast to the boranes where mild thermolysis of  $B_2H_6$  or  $B_4H_{10}$ , for example, readily yields mixtures of the higher boranes (p. 164). Vast natural reserves of  $CH_4$  gas exist but much is wasted

by flaring (direct burning off at the petroleum production site) because of the uneconomical cost of transport. However, in convenient locations such as the North Sea, natural gas is piped ashore for use as domestic or industrial fuel or as chemical feedstock. After  $CO_2$ , methane is the most important "greenhouse gas" (p. 273) accounting for an estimated 15–20% of the atmospheric global warming ( $CO_2 > 50\%$ ). The major sources of atmospheric  $CH_4$  are natural wetlands (25%), rice cultivation (22%), animals (mainly domestic ruminants) (17%) and the mining of fossil fuels (16%), the total "production" being some 460 million tonnes per annum.

Notable recent advances in the chemistry of hydrocarbons include the synthesis and

$$H^{5}$$
 $H^{6}$ 
 $H^{2}$ 
 $H^{7}$ 
 $H^{7}$ 
 $H^{8}$ 
 $H^{8}$ 
 $H^{8}$ 
 $H^{7}$ 
 $H^{8}$ 
 $H^{8}$ 
 $H^{7}$ 
 $H^{8}$ 
 $H^{8}$ 
 $H^{7}$ 
 $H^{8}$ 
 $H^{8$ 

molecular structure determination of the tetrahedrane derivative,  $C_4Bu_4^t$  (1), (93) the carbon-rich molecules tetraethynylmethane, C(C≡CH)₄ i.e.  $C_9H_4^{(94)}$  and tetraethynylethene,  $C_2(C \equiv CH)_4$ i.e. C<sub>10</sub>H<sub>4</sub> (2),<sup>(95)</sup> the highly strained [1.1.1]propellane (3)<sup>(96)</sup> and the preparation of the largest discrete hydrocarbon molecules yet synthesized, the polyphenylethyne dendrimers C<sub>1134</sub>H<sub>1146</sub> and  $C_{1398}H_{1278}$  (mol wts 14777.6 and 18079.6). (97) There is also increasing interest in hydrocarbon salts R<sub>1</sub>+R<sub>2</sub>-. The first example was the stable, greenish-black crystalline compound  $C_{48}H_{51}^{+}C_{61}H_{39}^{-}$  (mp 230°C decomp.) obtained by mixing thf solutions of Agranat's carbocation (4) and Kuhn's carbanion (5). (98) Of special interest is the covalent molecular hydrocarbon  $R_3$ - $R_2$  (6) which exists in chloroform solution but which crystallizes on evaporation or cooling to give the ionic salt  $R_3$ + $R_2$ -(7). $^{(99)}$  This reversible ionic-covalent equilibrium is reminiscent of similar behaviour in certain halides such as AlCl<sub>3</sub> (p. 234), PCl<sub>5</sub> (p. 499) and TeCl<sub>4</sub> (p. 772), etc.

Fullerene derivatives such as  $C_{60}H_n$  (p. 283),  $C_{60}H_2$  (p. 287), and  $C_{61}H_2$  (p. 287), and hypercoordinated non-classical carbonium ions (p. 290) have already been briefly mentioned.

Turning next to the simple halides of carbon: tetrafluoromethane (CF<sub>4</sub>) is an exceptionally stable gas with mp close to that of CH<sub>4</sub> (see Table 8.4). It can be prepared on a laboratory scale by reacting SiC with F<sub>2</sub> or by fluorinating CO<sub>2</sub>, CO or COCl<sub>2</sub> with SF<sub>4</sub>. Industrially it is prepared by the aggressive reaction of F<sub>2</sub> on CF<sub>2</sub>Cl<sub>2</sub> or CF<sub>3</sub>Cl, or by electrolysis of MF or MF<sub>2</sub> using a C anode. CF<sub>4</sub> was first obtained pure in 1926; C<sub>2</sub>F<sub>6</sub> was isolated in 1930 and C<sub>2</sub>F<sub>4</sub> in 1933; but it was not until 1937 that the various homologous series of fluorocarbons were isolated and identified. Replacement of H by F greatly increases both thermal stability and chemical inertness because of the great strength of the C-F

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>93</sup> H. Irngartinger, A. Goldmann, R. Jahn, M. Nixdorf, H. Rodewald, G. Maier, K.-D. Malsch and R. Emrich, Angew. Chem. Int. Edn. Engl. 23, 993–4 (1984).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>94</sup> K. S. FELDMAN and C. M. KRAEBEL, J. Am. Chem. Soc. 115, 3846-7 (1993).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>95</sup> Y. Rubin, C. B. Knobler and F. Diederich, *Angew. Chem. Int. Edn. Engl.* **30**, 698-700 (1991).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>96</sup> J. E. JACKSON and L. C. ALLEN, J. Am. Chem. Soc. **106**, 591–9 (1984).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>97</sup> Z. Xu and J. S. MOORE, Angew. Chem. Int. Edn. Engl. 32, 246-8 (1993), and Abstracts, ACS Denver Meeting, April 1993.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>98</sup> K. OKAMOTO, T. KITAGAWA, K. TAKEUCHI, K. KOMATSU and K. TAKAHASHI, J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun., 173–4 (1985).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>99</sup> K. OKAMOTO, T. KITAGAWA, K. TAKEUCHI, K. KOMATSU and A. MIYABO, J. Chem. Soc., Chem. Commun., 923-4 (1988).

bond (Table 8.4). Accordingly, fluorocarbons are resistant to attack by acids, alkalis, oxidizing agents, reducing agents and most chemicals up to 600°. They are immiscible with both water and hydrocarbon solvents, and when combined with other groups they confer water-repellance and stain-resistance to paper, textiles and fabrics. (100) Tetrafluoroethene (C<sub>2</sub>F<sub>4</sub>) can be polymerized to a chemically inert, thermosetting plastic PTFE (polytetrafluoroethene); this has an extremely low coefficient of friction and is finding increasing use as a protective coating in non-stick kitchen utensils, razor blades and bearings. PTFE is made by partial fluorination of chloroform using HF in the presence of SbFCl<sub>4</sub> as catalyst, followed by thermolysis to C<sub>2</sub>F<sub>4</sub> and subsequent polymerization:

$$CCl_3H \longrightarrow CF_2ClH \xrightarrow{\Delta} C_2F_4 \longrightarrow (C_2F_4)_n$$

As a ligand towards metals,  $C_2F_4$  and other unsaturated fluorocarbons differ markedly from alkenes (p. 931).

 $CCl_4$  is a common laboratory and industrial solvent with a distinctive smell, usually prepared by reaction of  $CS_2$  or  $CH_4$  with  $Cl_2$ . Its use as a solvent has declined somewhat because of its toxicity, but  $CCl_4$  is still extensively used as an intermediate in preparing "Freons" such as  $CFCl_3$ ,  $CF_2Cl_2$  and  $CF_3Cl$ : (100)

$$\begin{array}{c} CCl_4 + HF \xrightarrow{SbFCl_4} CFCl_3 + HCl \\ \\ CFCl_3 + HF \xrightarrow{SbFCl_4} CF_2Cl_2 + HCl \end{array}$$

The catalyst is formed by reaction of HF on SbCl<sub>5</sub>. The Freons have a unique combination of properties which make them ideally suited for use as refrigerants and aerosol propellants. They have low bp, low viscosity, low surface tension and high density, and are non-toxic, non-flammable, odourless, chemically inert and thermally stable. The most commonly used is  $CF_2Cl_2$ , bp,  $-29.8^{\circ}$ . The market for Freons

and other fluorocarbons expanded rapidly in the sixties: production in the USA alone exceeded 200 000 tonnes in 1964 (417 000 tonnes in 1990) and global production was about three times this amount. Already in 1977 there was an annual production of  $2.4 \times 10^9$  spray-cans. However, there has been growing concern that chlorofluorocarbons from spray-cans gradually work their way into the upper atmosphere where they may, through a complex chemical reaction, deplete the earth's ozone layer (p. 608). For this reason there was an enforced progressive elimination of this particular application in the USA starting 15 October 1978 and production of CFCs will effectively be completely phased out following the Montreal Protocol of September 1981.

CBr<sub>4</sub> is a pale-yellow solid which is markedly less stable than the lighter tetrahalides. Preparation involves bromination of CH<sub>4</sub> with HBr or Br<sub>2</sub> or, more conveniently, reaction of CCl<sub>4</sub> with Al<sub>2</sub>Br<sub>6</sub> at 100°. The trend to diminishing thermal stability continues to CI<sub>4</sub> which is a bright-red crystalline solid with a smell reminiscent of I<sub>2</sub>. It is prepared by the AlCl<sub>3</sub>-catalysed halogen exchange reaction between CCl<sub>4</sub> and EtI.

Carbon oxohalides are reactive gases or volatile liquids which feature planar molecules of  $C_{2v}$  symmetry; they are isoelectronic with  $BX_3$  (p. 196) and the bonding is best described in terms of molecular orbitals spanning all 4 atoms rather than in terms of localized orbitals as

implied by the formulation 
$$X \subset C = O$$
. Some

physical properties and molecular dimensions are in Table 8.5. The values call for little comment except to note that the XCX angle is significantly less (as expected) than the value of 120° found for the more symmetrical isoelectronic species BX<sub>3</sub> and CO<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>. The C-Br distance is unusually long; it comes from a very early diffraction measurement and could profitably be checked.

Mixed oxohalides are also known and their volatilities are intermediate between those of the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>100</sup> Kirk-Othmer Encyclopedia of Chemical Technology, 4th edn., Vol 11, 1994, pp. 467-729.