# The specific heat of  $[N(CH_3)_4]$ , ZnBr<sub>4</sub> around the ferro-paraelastic phase transition by adiabatic calorimetry  $<sup>1</sup>$ </sup>

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#### **Abstract**

A calorimetric study of  $[N(CH_3)_4]_2ZnBr_4$  is presented. This compound exhibits a second-order phase transition at  $287.20 \pm 0.12$  K from a high-temperature orthorhombic phase (space group *Prima)* to a monoclinic ferroelastic phase (space group P2, */a).* Specific heat measurements were carried out by automatic adiabatic calorimetry from 170 to 370 K, and the value obtained for the phase transition entropy was  $\Delta S = 1.95 \pm 0.1$ R (where R is the ideal gas constant). A simple phenomenological model is found to describe the specific heat below *T,. The* experimental set-up and procedure are also described.

#### INTRODUCTION

Tetramethylammonium tetrabromozincate (TMATB-Zn) belongs to the well-known family of  $[N(CH_3)_4]_2$ MX<sub>4</sub> crystals (X = halogen and M = Zn, Co, Fe, Mn, etc.). The chlorine derivatives of this family have been extensively investigated in recent years due to their rich variety of phases (incommensurate, ferroelectric, ferroelastic, etc.) [1,2]. However, the bromometallic compounds  $(M = Zn, Co$  and Mn) undergo only a second-order phase transition near room temperature from the normal (*Pnma*) to the low temperature ferroeleastic phase  $(P2<sub>1</sub>/a)$  [3]. Several papers on the thermodynamics of the phase transition sequences of these interesting crystals have been published by our group [4,5]. Here we present the

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preliminary results concerning the phase transition at  $287.20 \pm 0.12$  K of TMATB-Zn provided by automatic adiabatic calorimetry as part of a more extensive study using other techniques [6].

Unpublished inprovements of the calorimeter system used in these measurements, including the various experimental procedures available and the automatization of the equipment, are also described.

#### EXPERIMENTAL

With few alterations concerning the adiabatic control and programmable systems, the design of the calorimeter follows that described by Westrum et al. [7] for solid samples in the low temperature range and was briefly described in ref. 8. Although manually operated in the past, its features have been improved by full automatization of the system control, data acquisition and data processing [9]. In this paragraph, we describe the recently incorporated features of our experimental set-up successfully used in the present measurements.

# *Calorimeter vessel*

A new vacuum-tight calorimeter vessel has been employed for the specific heat measurements. It is a gold-plated copper cylinder with a volume capacity of 40  $\text{cm}^3$  and wall thickness of 0.3 mm. The main difference with respect to that described in ref. 7 is suppression of the copper vanes inside the vessel commonly used to improve thermal conduction across the powder sample. In our case, heat is basically dissipated by the low-pressure He gas (about 0.013 atm) filling the holder. No significant increase of the equilibrium rates was observed. As usual [7], both the heater and the platinum resistance thermometer are located near the cylindrical axis of the vessel to ensure symmetrical heat dissipation and a reliable equilibrium temperature value. The calorimeter was carefully calibrated from 50 to 370 K in 1 K steps. A least squares fitting to a high-degree polynomial provides the vessel heat capacity at every temperature; its value at 300 K is 18.54 J  $K^{-1}$ .

### *Temperature measurement*

A 25  $\Omega$  platinum resistance thermometer (Leeds and Northrup 1722211) calibrated from 13 to 372 K with an accuracy of 1 mK (K.O.L., Leyden) is placed inside the calorimetric vessel. The actual resistance is measured by an 8 1/2 digit DVM, HP3458A (10  $\mu\Omega$  resolution, 20 ppm accuracy), used exclusively for this purpose, in order to avoid both the thermal e.m.f.s commonly present in multiplexor systems and the transient signals related to switching of the measuring current. The small amount of heat generated in the thermometer due to this current (1 mA), together with other thermal

leaks of the calorimetric vessel, is offset by the usual temperature drift correction, as described for example by Westrum et al. [7].

Every temperature assignment is determined by the use of a mean resistance value obtained from a series of five consecutive measurements with the voltmeter operating at the highest resolution. The final temperature value is calculated by the IPTS 1968  $(T_{68})$  conversion table and from the thermometer specific calibration data. This procedure provides better than 1 mK accuracy. The final result is assigned to the mean time of the measuring interval (about 12 s). This subroutine operates continuously during the equilibrium periods and also in the thermogram technique (see below).

## *Adiabatic control*

The parts of the adiabatic shield (top, side and bottom) to which thermocouples are attached are independently controlled by three PID analog amplifiers. An additional heating current, whose value depends on the temperature range, is used to improve the PID functions. Its value is automatically switched between two prefixed levels for the equilibrium and heating periods, respectively. The temperature imbalances between the shield parts and the calorimeter vessel are monitored by analog voltmeters and also registered by a digital voltmeter to be finally recorded. The temperature is regulated to better than 1 mK.

#### *Power measurements*

A heating current up to 40 mA is supplied to the 300  $\Omega$  constantan heater by a programable DA converter with better than 20  $\mu$ A stability. During the heating periods, the heating power (typically  $0.1-0.2$  W) is determined every 20 s by measuring the voltage across the heater and the current through a 100  $\Omega$  standard resistance. Both signals are taken through a multiplexor to a  $5 \frac{1}{2}$  digital voltmeter. The power data are finally integrated over the heating period to obtain the total energy input.

#### *Experimental procedure*

The best accuracy of the specific heat measurements is reached when the system operates in the discontinuous heating or pulse technique. The calibrated accuracy of this experimental set-up was established by  $C_n$ measurements on  $\alpha$ -A1<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> NBS sample and is better than 0.1% in the whole operating temperature range  $(50-370 \text{ K})$ . The new calibration results are similar to those obtained with the manually operated calorimeter [S]. Although the pulse technique is known to be the most accurate for specific heat measurements where solid-solid phase transitions are present, some of its intrinsic disadvantages cannot be easily avoided. The major limitation lies in the significant temperature increments needed in each heat pulse. Increments of 0.5 K are considered as the lowest limit for accuracy. Smaller steps lead to noticeable dispersion of the experimental points, mainly due to the resolution of our thermometer system (1 mK). This reduces the number of points per fixed temperature range in each series of measurements, and makes it difficult to reach a better resolution of the specific heat curve around the phase transition temperatures, just where it is required. Although other calorimetric methods, such as a.c. calorimetry, are not affected by this shortcoming, the low rate continuous heating-cooling technique [lo] (thermograms), which can also be used in our experimental system, provides a much more detailed shape of the specific heat curve in the temperature intervals of interest. Heating rates as low as 0.1 K  $h^{-1}$  avoid the presence of high thermal gradients in the sample. This has allowed us to study phase transitions with very low enthalpy changes [11] that cannot otherwise be detected.

## *Sample*

Single crystals of  $[N(CH_3)_2]_4 ZnBr_4$  were easily obtained from stoichiometric amounts of N(CH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>4</sub>Br and ZnBr<sub>2</sub> in a HBr solution (pH about 2). After two additional crystallizations, the best crystals were kept for other experiments, while the lower quality ones were used for the calorimetric measurements after powdering. Chemical analyses have shown the following percentages (with the theoretical values in parentheses): C, 18.10 (18.01); H, 4.71 (4.54); N, 5.11 (5.25); Br, 59.99 (59.94).

X-Ray powder diffraction has been also used to confirm the crystallographic quality of the sample. The best assignment of the various reflections has been attained with the following values for the cell constants:  $a = 12.62$  Å,  $b = 16.05$  Å,  $c = 9.18$  Å, in good agreement with previous results [2,12].

#### **RESULTS**

32.4308 g of a TMATB-Zn powder sample were employed for the calorimetric measurements. The pulse technique was used from 180 to 350 K with about 1 K temperature steps. In addition, two independent heating thermograms were made in the range 230-320 K with two heating rates: 1.5 and 0.6 K  $h^{-1}$ .

A final low-rate cooling thermogram (about 0.5 K  $h^{-1}$ ) around the phase transition temperature did not show any noticeable thermal hysteresis of *T,,* in agreement with the second-order character assigned to the phase transition [3,13].



Fig. 1. The specific heat of  $[N(CH_1)_4]_2ZnBr_4$  around the ferroparaelastic phase transition. The baseline (continuous line) has been established from both the harmonic and anharmanic contributions to the specific heat, from Raman, IR, elastic constants and thermal expansion data.

As usual for this kind of phase transition, the associated specific heat anomaly measured in TMATB-Zn spreads over a very wide temperature range. As shown in preliminary DSC measurements, the phase transition starts at around  $180-200 \text{ K}$  [13], about 100 K below the transition temperature. The experimental results obtained by adiabatic calorimetry are represented in Fig. 1, and the specific heat values are shown in Table 1.

As this type of behaviour usually makes it difficult to calculate the thermodynamic functions associated with the phase transition itself, we have estimated independently the harmonic and anharmonic contributions to the specific heat, following the procedures used in previous works [14]. It can be shown that above 150 K the behaviour of the harmonic specific heat in the compounds belonging to this family depends mainly on the relatively high frequencies (above 200 cm<sup>-1</sup>) associated with the internal modes of the organic and inorganic tetrahedra. The external modes, with much lower frequencies, contribute to the specific heat with practically saturated values above 150 K. From the available Raman and IR data [13], we have constructed the harmonic specific heat from 180 to 350 K by means of Einstein functions. As also shown in refs. 13 and 14, the anharmonic contribution to the specific heat can be calculated from the elastic constants and thermal expansion data.

These results have permitted us to calculate a specific heat baseline which fits the experimental points on both sides of the transition anomaly quite well (see Fig. 1). A careful estimation of the various sources of error, mainly due to the incomplete information of the low-frequency external modes, and the use of the Nernst-Lindemann law [15] for the anharmonic specific heat limit the accuracy of the calculated thermodynamic functions

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Experimental specific heats of  $[N(CH_3)_4]_2ZnBr_4$ 



of the phase transition to 5%. These values are,  $\Delta H/R = 490 \pm 30$  K and  $\Delta S/R = 1.95 \pm 0.1.$ 

These results are in good agreement with the order-disorder character

TABLE 2

The phase transition Gibbs energy of  $[N(CH_3)_4]_{2p}ZnBr_4$ 

| T(K)    | $\Delta G/R$ (K) |
|---------|------------------|---------|------------------|---------|------------------|---------|------------------|
| 249.161 | $-31.39$         | 259.685 | $-18.62$         | 269.848 | $-8.65$          | 279.579 | $-2.22$          |
| 249.696 | $-30.72$         | 260.202 | $-18.00$         | 270.346 | $-8.29$          | 280.052 | $-2.00$          |
| 250.228 | $-29.99$         | 260.719 | $-17.45$         | 270.842 | $-7.89$          | 280.524 | $-1.79$          |
| 250,762 | $-29.32$         | 261.235 | $-16.90$         | 271.338 | $-7.50$          | 280.994 | $-1.60$          |
| 251.293 | $-28.66$         | 261.749 | $-16.34$         | 271.832 | $-7.11$          | 281.461 | $-1.40$          |
| 251.824 | $-27.92$         | 262.262 | $-15.91$         | 272.324 | $-6.71$          | 281.929 | $-1.23$          |
| 252.355 | $-27.25$         | 262.776 | $-15.29$         | 272.817 | $-6.37$          | 282.394 | $-1.05$          |
| 252.884 | $-26.59$         | 263.287 | $-15.24$         | 273.307 | $-5.97$          | 282.856 | $-0.90$          |
| 253.411 | $-25.93$         | 263.798 | $-14.80$         | 273.798 | $-5.63$          | 283.319 | $-0.75$          |
| 253.940 | $-25.33$         | 264.307 | $-13.76$         | 274.286 | $-5.29$          | 283.778 | $-0.59$          |
| 254.465 | $-24.67$         | 264.816 | $-13.26$         | 274.774 | $-5.04$          | 284.236 | $-0.50$          |
| 254.992 | $-24.00$         | 265.324 | $-12.77$         | 275.261 | $-4.66$          | 284.691 | $-0.40$          |
| 255.516 | $-23.41$         | 265.831 | $-12.28$         | 275.745 | $-4.36$          | 285.145 | $-0.30$          |
| 256.040 | $-22.80$         | 266.336 | $-11.79$         | 276.229 | $-4.07$          | 285.595 | $-0.24$          |
| 256.563 | $-22.19$         | 266.841 | $-11.30$         | 276.712 | $-3.77$          | 286.044 | $-0.17$          |
| 257.085 | $-21.57$         | 267.345 | $-10.87$         | 277.193 | $-3.48$          | 286.491 | $-0.09$          |
| 257.607 | $-20.96$         | 267.848 | $-10.43$         | 277.673 | $-3.22$          | 286.934 | $-0.07$          |
| 258.127 | $-20.33$         | 268.349 | $-9.95$          | 278.152 | $-2.96$          | 287.023 | $-0.02$          |
| 258.647 | $-19.79$         | 268.850 | $-9.52$          | 278.629 | $-2.70$          | 287.110 | 0.00             |
| 259.166 | $-19.17$         | 269.349 | $-9.08$          | 279.105 | $-2.44$          | 287.199 | 0.00             |



Fig. 2. The experimental Gibbs energy (points) is compared with the phenomenological function eqn. (1). Deviations are shown in the insert. The values found for the coefficients are  $\alpha = 1$ ,  $\beta = 7.3074$ ,  $\gamma = 1.0229$ ,  $\delta = 0.7079$ . Gibbs energy is given in units of R.

assigned to the phase transition [13,16]. A comparative discussion of the thermodynamic behaviour in the various members of the family will be published elsewhere [ 131.

In addition, it has been found that the Landau theory for second-order phase transitions describes the thermodynamic behaviour of this crystal below the transition temperature quite well. For this purpose, we have used the well-known Gibbs energy expansion in powers of the order parameter

$$
G = G_0 + \frac{1}{2}\alpha Q^2 + \frac{1}{4}\beta Q^4 + \frac{1}{6}\gamma Q^6 + \frac{1}{8}\delta Q^8 + \dots
$$
 (1)

where *Q* is the order parameter.

The use of this function together with the experimental values of the Gibbs energy (shown in Table 2) have permitted an empirical fitting of the phenomenological coefficients. The results obtained are shown in Fig. 2. It should be noted that the fit is excellent in the immediate vicinity of the phase transition temperature  $|T - T_c| \approx 0.1$  K. This seems to rule out appreciable contributions due to critical fluctuations in the near proximity of the transition temperature, a common fact observed where very-longrange forces associated with ferroelastic ordering are present [17].

The general procedure described above allows accurate studies of the thermodynamics of the second-order phase transition when only incomplete experimental spectroscopic and elastic data are available.

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