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HIGH PRESSURE INVESTIGATIONS OF SULFUR

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High Pressure Investigations of Sulfur

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Abstract

The high pressure investigations on sulfur are reviewed. The only unusual property exhibited by sulfur under pressure is the transformation to the rubbery form when the crystals are subjected to shear under pressure, presumably at pressures as low as 10 kbars. The electrical properties show that the energy gap in sulfur decreases with pressure, but that the element has not been found to become metallic even at pressures as high as 400 kbars. A number of measurements have been made on sulfur to high pressures and somewhat elevated temperatures. Both static and dynamic methods of generating the pressure have been used. The present paper is a review of the available data and the presentation of the measurements of the electrical resistance made by the present authors. Insofar as high pressure measurements have been made, sulfur has shown no properties or behavior that make the investigation of this element particularly interesting. It does not exhibit an abnormally high compressibility such as those of the alkali metals, nor as low as the incompressible metals such as beryllium or uranium. No one has found any polymorphic modification with a variation in pressure. In short, with one exception, to be discussed later, sulfur shows a continuous variation with pressure of all of its properties, and the variation is neither sufficiently great nor small to distinguish it from the great bulk of elements or compounds.

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Volume measurements: Rather extensive pressure-volume measurements were made by Bridgman. At room temperature, the highest pressure at which determinations were made was 98 kbars.¹ Measurements were made at 125° C up to pressures of 49 kbars.² He also investigated the directional effect of the rhombic structure to pressures of 11.8 kbars.³ None of these measurements showed any indication of any change in the crystal structure of sulfur. At room temperature, there was a 27.4% decrease in volume at 98 kbars. This volume decrement is only slightly larger than that observed for the alkaline earth metals. Bridgman also observed that the compressibility in the plane of the rhombic faces to be larger than in the direction normal to this plane. He has made many other volume measurements on sulfur, but the results of the other determinations are in accord with the three references cited. The pressure-volume determinations to 98 kbars are given in Table I.

Table I.

	··	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·
$P(Kg cm^{-2})^*$	∆v∕v _o	
0	0.000	
10,000	0.083	
20,000	0.131	
30,000	0.163	
40,000	0.188	
50,000	0.208	· · ·
60,000	0.225	· .
70,000	0.240	
80,000	0.253	
90,000	0.264	•
100,000	0.274	

Volume of Sulfur as a Function of Pressure at Room Temperature

Shear strength: In addition to the compressibility, Bridgman also investigated the shear strength of elemental sulfur as a function of pressure. In these experiments the material under study was placed between movable and fixed discs, and the force required to rotate a disc with respect to a fixed disc was measured. The minimum force required to rotate the disc was then related to the shear strength of the material.

 $(Kg cm^{-2}) = .9806 kbar$

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These experiments were carried out to pressures of 49 kbars. The results are reproduced in Table II.

Table II.

Pr	essure (Kg cm ⁻²)	Shear	Stress (Kg cm ⁻²)) **.
	10,000		1,840	
	20,000		3,300	
	30,000		4,700	e de la composición d En el composición de la composición de l
	40,000	· · · ·	6,000	•
	50,000	۰ ۱۹۹۹ - ۱۹۹۹ - ۱۹۹۹ ۱۹۹۹ - ۱۹۹۹ - ۱۹۹۹ - ۱۹۹۹ - ۱۹۹۹ - ۱۹۹۹ - ۱۹۹۹ - ۱۹۹۹ - ۱۹۹۹ - ۱۹۹۹ - ۱۹۹۹ - ۱۹۹۹ - ۱۹۹۹ - ۱۹	7,100	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·

Shear Strength of Sulfur as a Function of Pressure

Apart from an expected increase in shear strength, there is no indication of any phase transition in sulfur. The apparatus was loaded with crystalline sulfur. The material that was recovered was "sticky, like amorphous sulfur". Bridgman noted that since the same curves for shear were obtained at increasing and decreasing pressure, the transformation to the amorphous form must have occurred at a low pressure. This transformation to the amorphous form is certainly worthy of comment. It is also unique in that such a transformation is not noted for any other material that has been investigated. At the present time, there is no reasonable explanation for this transformation. Bridgman made several other investigations of the shear properties of sulfur, and the results are in agreement with those which have been quoted. The technique used to measure the shear may have some interesting applications which have not as yet been reasonably explored. Bridgman observed that when sulfur and copper were mixed in the apparatus that a detonation ensued at 20 kbars. The product that was recovered was black indicating the formation of copper sulfide. The transition to the amorphous form of sulfur and the reaction of sulfur with copper when the apparatus is at ambient temperature almost certainly indicates that the local temperature in the system under shear must be considerably above that of the surrounding air. Since the charge is small compared to the apparatus for making the determinations, it is possible to develop a high temperature in the sample for a short period of time without appreciably changing the temperature of the container. If such a temperature increase occurs when the sulfur is sheared under pressure, it becomes possible to understand these two observations.

Electronic Structure: Two techniques have been used to seek any possible electronic change in solid sulfur, electrical resistance and optical measurements. The electrical resistance measurements show that there is no detectable change by this measurement. The optical measurements again indicate that there is only a change in the magnitude of the gap between the valence and conduction bands.

Haman^{5,6} has investigated the electrical resistance of sulfur using shock waves. He observed that at about 230,000 atm. the resistance of the sample became less than 0.03 ohm cm, the limit of the sensitivity of his equipment. Although his sensitivity was not sufficiently good to measure a resistance which could be uniquely identified with the metallic state, Haman suggested that the sulfur might have reached the metallic state. His reasoning was based on the fact that phosphorous became metallic at a pressure somewhat over 100 kbars, and that iodine certainly

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approached this state. ⁷ It was this statement which instigated our investigation of the resistivity of sulfur.

The techniques that were used in this investigation are fully described in Ref. 7. The specific resistance of sulfur is very high, and ordinary resistance measurements are not applicable for a determination of the resistance of sulfur. The instrumentation necessary to determine high resistances such as that of sulfur has not been developed where it can be used in high pressure determinations. Consequently, the actual resistance measurements have little or no significance. However, if there had been a change to the metallic state, or to a semiconductor with a low gap energy, it would have been simple to determine the pressure at which such a change occurred. Thus, even though the individual resistance measurements are incorrect, if a change had occurred to where the resistance measurements were significant, it could be unequivocably stated that a phase change had occurred. The sulfur used in the experiments was supposedly 99.999% pure. The sulfur was used as received, and also it was heated to form the rubbery sulfur.

Since phosphorous, ⁷ selenium, ⁸ and tellurium⁹ become metallic under pressures that are accessible, it is not unreasonable to make similar measurements to determine whether the metallic transition is also accessible for sulfur. Our measurements on ordinary and μ sulfur were negative even though the pressures studied extended to 400 kbars. The only statement we can make as a result of our work is that at all pressures, for both forms of sulfur, the specific resistance is over 10^7 ohm cm.

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These results are not necessarily in contradiction to the low figure quoted by Haman at 230,000 atm. It must be remembered that the shock measurements are made under adiabatic conditions and that the temperature is increased. Since the resistance of a semiconductor decreases exponentially with an increase in temperature, the two sets of data can be in complete accord. Thus electrical conductivity indicates that there are no major electronic changes in sulfur.

Slykhouse and Drickamer¹⁰ have determined the change in the gap energy of sulfur as a function of pressure by spectroscopic methods. Their measurements extend to about 160 kbars. At this pressure, the instrumentation became too insensitive for the determination of the band edge. They found that the gap decreased linearly with pressure to about 100 kbars. They found the decrease in the gap to be 7.2×10^{-6} ev atm⁻¹ in this pressure region. Above this pressure, the gap begins to decrease more slowly with pressure. At the maximum pressure at which they made the measurements, the gap has been reduced to 60% of its value at one atmosphere.

When these authors plotted the change in gap as a function of volume instead of pressure, they found a very strong volume dependence. By extrapolating their gap measurements, and using Bridgman's volume data to 100 kbars, they estimated that sulfur would become a metal at a pressure of 400-500 kbars at room temperature.

The three different determinations which are related to the electronic structure of rhombic sulfur are not in contradiction. The only conclusion that can certainly be reached from the present data is that there is no electronic change in sulfur in the pressure-temperature region so far investigated. Acknowledgment

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