

# FeSi<sub>4</sub>P<sub>4</sub> and CoSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub>: Hidden Gems of Ternary Tetrel Pnictides with Outstanding Nonlinear Optical Properties

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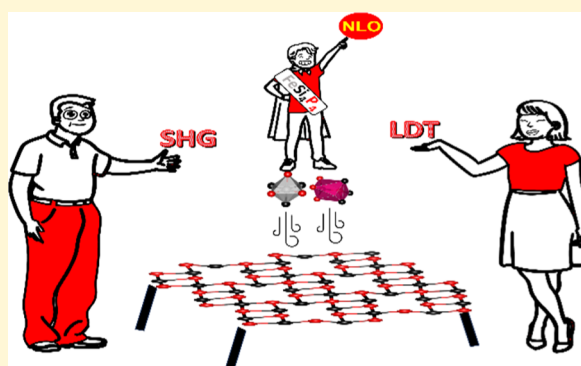


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**ABSTRACT:** Metal silicon phosphides have shown promise as nonlinear optical materials. To be practically useful and cheap, earth-abundant 3d transition metals are preferred over their scarcer and more expensive 4d and 5d counterparts. We developed a synthetic method to produce polycrystalline bulk powders and millimeter-sized single crystals of ternary compounds FeSi<sub>4</sub>P<sub>4</sub> and CoSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub>. Both studied compounds have noncentrosymmetric and chiral crystal structures with ordered Si/P arrangements as was confirmed by single-crystal X-ray diffraction and solid-state NMR. Despite the presence of the transition metal, FeSi<sub>4</sub>P<sub>4</sub> and CoSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub> are semiconductors with direct band gaps of 1.3 and 1.6 eV, respectively, indicating low-spin d<sup>6</sup> electronic configuration for octahedral Fe<sup>2+</sup> and Co<sup>3+</sup>. Relative to reported sulfide materials, FeSi<sub>4</sub>P<sub>4</sub> and CoSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub> small band gap semiconductors demonstrate an outstanding combination of second-harmonic generation (SHG) activity and laser damage threshold (LDT). Both studied materials are phase-matchable with a 2.09 μm laser and not only exhibit 2.5–3.0 times stronger SHG signal than that of the state-of-the-art AgGaS<sub>2</sub> standard but also demonstrate an LDT response of 2.3–2.5 times higher than that of AgGaS<sub>2</sub> (at 1.09 μm laser with a pulse width of 10 ns)—which is unprecedented for small band gap semiconductors.



## INTRODUCTION

The development of materials with improved performance, a sustainable nature, and cheap and abundant components is the mainstream direction of current materials research. Nonlinear optical (NLO) materials are crucial for the optics field due to their ability to upconvert frequencies of incoming light.<sup>1–5</sup> State-of-the-art NLO materials cover a significant part of the electromagnetic spectrum; however, there are still gaps, including the infrared (IR) region (2–20 μm). IR-NLO materials are important due to their application in optoelectronic devices, resource exploration, and long-distance laser communication.<sup>1–5</sup>

For second-harmonic generation activity, NLO materials must possess the following: (1) first and most crucial, noncentrosymmetric (NCS) crystal structure; (2) a semi-conducting nature with suitable band gap for good transmission at the required spectrum region; (3) large second-harmonic generation (SHG) coefficients; (4) high laser damage threshold (LDT).<sup>6–10</sup> Currently, sulfides, such as AgGaS<sub>2</sub> and LiInSe<sub>2</sub>, are used for IR-NLO applications.<sup>11,12</sup> In sulfides, a generally observed trend is that SHG is inversely proportional, and LDT is directly proportional to the band gap due to the polar nature of metal-chalcogen bonds, which

prevents properties' optimization by simply adjusting the band gap.

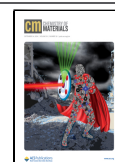
A paradigm-shift approach to IR-NLO materials was recently offered by studies of metal tetrel pnictides (tetrel, *Tt*: Group 14 elements such as Si, Ge; pnictogen, *Pn*: group 15 elements such as P, As).<sup>13–17</sup> The presence of two nonmetal elements, like Si and P, with diverse bonding modes allows for the realization of noncentrosymmetric (NCS) structures for alkali-earth and rare-earth metal cations.<sup>14–21</sup> NCS structures are crucial for realizing properties such as piezoelectricity, pyroelectricity, chiral magnetism, and superconductivity.<sup>22</sup> When considering alkali, alkaline-earth, and rare-earth tetrel pnictides, the electropositive metal cation is surrounded by the most electronegative pnictogen atoms, and the nature of the metal–pnictogen interaction is essentially ionic. In ternary tetrel pnictides with a group of 8–11 transition metals, an assortment of crystal structures is formed with a mixture of

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covalent metal–pnictogen and metal–tetrel interactions.<sup>13,16,23,24</sup> The only exception is chalcopyrite MnSiP<sub>2</sub> that does not have Mn–Si bonding.<sup>13</sup> In general, NCS metal tetrel pnictides exhibit a substantial combination of SHG and LDT.<sup>25,26</sup>

By analyzing several transition metal silicon phosphides (M–Si–P), we hypothesized that the more electropositive nature of Si leads to the  $\pi$ -electron back-donation between the filled *d*-orbitals of the transition metal and the empty antibonding Si–P orbitals, which is more effective than the  $\pi$ -electron back-donation between M and P.<sup>24</sup> These bonding preferences stabilize NCS local fragments such as linear Si–M–P, *cis*-MSi<sub>2</sub>P<sub>4</sub>, and *fac*-MSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub> units.<sup>16,24,27</sup> Similar trends were observed for heavier tetrel pnictides, with *cis*-MTt<sub>2</sub>As<sub>2</sub> and *fac*-MSi<sub>3</sub>As<sub>3</sub> building blocks.<sup>17,23</sup> The presence of direct covalent *Tt–Pn* bonding between these local units stabilizes the overall NCS crystal structure. When considering transition metal phosphides or silicides, the regular occurrence of an NCS structure is ~15% statistically; however, a vast majority (95%) of ternary M–Si–P crystal structures are NCS for compositions with  $M/(Si + P) < 1$ .<sup>28</sup> For M–Si–P with *fac*-MSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub> building blocks, the strong ligand field nature of Si resulted in a low-spin electron configuration for transition metals. In turn, this leads to the formation of semiconducting phases for *d*<sup>6</sup> low-spin electronic configurations, such as Ru<sup>2+</sup> or Ir<sup>3+</sup>.<sup>16</sup> We have shown that RuSi<sub>4</sub>P<sub>4</sub> and IrSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub> exhibit an outstanding combination of SHG and LDT despite both materials lacking phase-matching properties. Moreover, Ru and Ir are scarce and expensive metals. In this work, we developed cheaper and more earth-abundant alternative IR-NLO materials, FeSi<sub>4</sub>P<sub>4</sub> and CoSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub>. Both materials show phase-matchable properties with a 2.09  $\mu$ m laser, better SHG performance for the largest studied particle size of ~3.0 times for CoSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub> and ~2.5 times for FeSi<sub>4</sub>P<sub>4</sub>, and >2 times increase in LDT with a 1.09  $\mu$ m laser and a pulse width of 10 ns as compared to state-of-the-art AgGaS<sub>2</sub>. In addition, the growth of millimeter-sized single crystals of the Fe- and Co-containing phases has been demonstrated herein. FeSi<sub>4</sub>P<sub>4</sub> and CoSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub> are stable in acidic environments and when heated in air to at least 800 °C. The cost of the components is another advantage of the developed materials. The prices of the components to make 1 kg of NLO material based on the current element market price are FeSi<sub>4</sub>P<sub>4</sub> (\$1.87), CoSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub> (\$9.86), LiInSe<sub>2</sub> (\$82.7), and AgGaS<sub>2</sub> (\$275.2).<sup>29</sup> Therefore, materials for LiInSe<sub>2</sub> and AgGaS<sub>2</sub> are approximately 50–150 times more expensive than those for FeSi<sub>4</sub>P<sub>4</sub>.

## EXPERIMENTAL SECTION

FeSi<sub>4</sub>P<sub>4</sub> and CoSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub> samples were synthesized in two steps: (1) arc-melting transition metal and silicon followed by (2) a reaction of metal silicide precursors with red phosphorus. Both materials were characterized by powder X-ray diffraction (PXRD), single-crystal X-ray diffraction (SCXRD), solid-state NMR (ssNMR), infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy, energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS), thermogravimetric analysis and differential scanning calorimetry (TGA/DSC), computations, diffuse reflectance spectroscopy, and NLO properties measurements (see Supporting Information for synthesis and methods details).

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The originally reported synthesis for FeSi<sub>4</sub>P<sub>4</sub> and CoSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub> included a direct reaction from elements with subsequent grindings and long annealing periods to isolate bulk powder

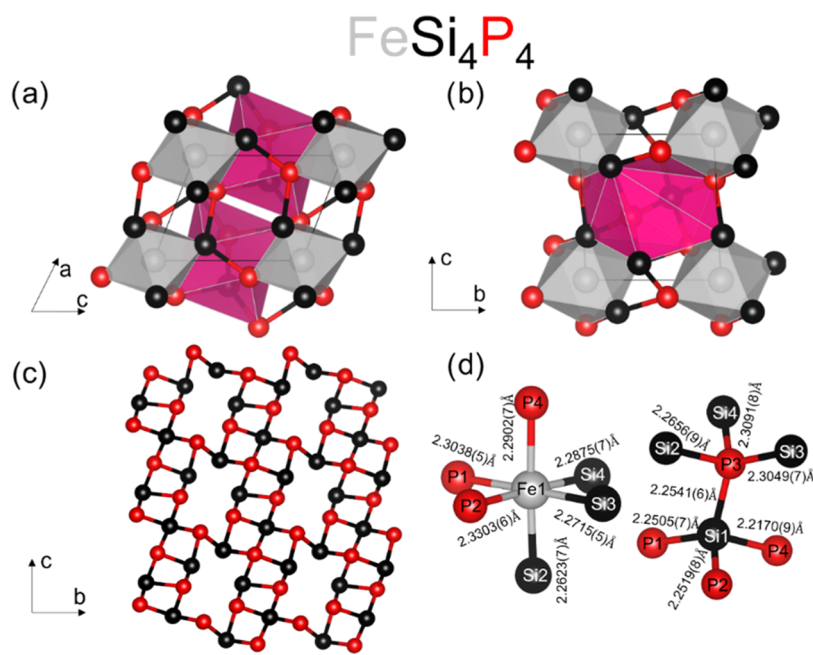
samples.<sup>30,31</sup> In addition, crystal growth using a Sn flux was reported. Cooling of the reaction mixture from 1127 to 777 °C at a rate of 1 °C/h (350h long) was reported to produce ~0.2 mm diameter crystals.<sup>30</sup> A recent report by Yu et al. demonstrated the optimization of flux growth synthesis for FeSi<sub>4</sub>P<sub>4</sub>, which resulted in the isolation of ~3 mm crystals using Sn flux and stoichiometric amounts of the respective elements.<sup>32</sup> However, there were no details of the synthetic optimization for the isolation of phase-pure bulk polycrystalline samples.

Our synthetic methods utilize arc-melted metal silicide precursors to obtain phase-pure samples.<sup>16,20,33,34</sup> This procedure guarantees the atomic mixing of the refractory constituents (M and Si), making the formation of binary M or Si phosphide admixtures less favorable. This is a new synthetic route for title materials, but similar approaches have been applied to prepare complex intermetallics.<sup>35–39</sup> FeSi<sub>4</sub>P<sub>4</sub> and CoSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub> bulk powder samples were synthesized by stoichiometric reaction of a metal silicide precursor with elemental phosphorus, i.e., FeSi<sub>4</sub> + 4 P or CoSi<sub>3</sub> + 3 P. The reactants were ground together and heated over 12 h to 1050 °C, annealed for 72 h, and then cooled to room temperature by turning off the furnace. This new synthetic route resulted in a significant reduction in reaction time from 2 weeks to 3.5 days and yielded a single-phase polycrystalline sample of FeSi<sub>4</sub>P<sub>4</sub> (Figure S1) and a sample with the majority phase being CoSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub> (Figure S2).

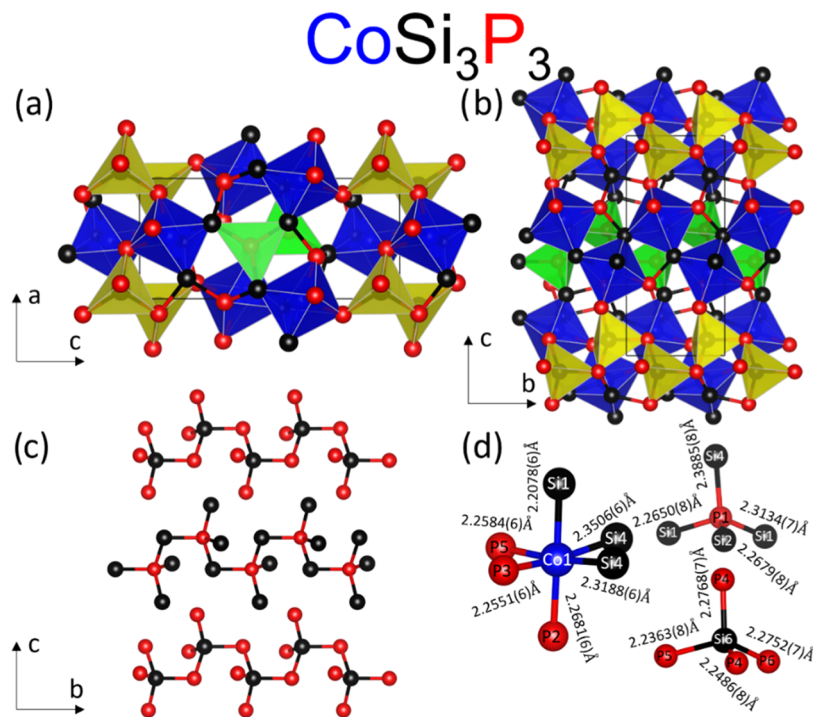
Single crystals were grown using the arc-melted precursor, phosphorus powder, and Sn flux. The reaction products after molten Sn centrifugation were washed in a 1:1 HCl solution. On average, 2 × 2 × 1 mm<sup>3</sup> and 1 × 1 × 1 mm<sup>3</sup> sized crystals of FeSi<sub>4</sub>P<sub>4</sub> and CoSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub> were isolated, respectively (Figures S1 and S2 insets). We found it necessary to go to higher temperatures and then slow cool to enhance crystal growth, which was previously utilized by Yu et al.<sup>32</sup> Since CoSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub> powder could not be produced in phase-pure form, property measurements were conducted by hand-selected single crystals, which were ground into powders for further characterizations.

FeSi<sub>4</sub>P<sub>4</sub> and CoSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub> are acid and air stable after a couple of days and after 6 months of exposure to 1:1 HCl:H<sub>2</sub>O and air, respectively. Differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) measurements in evacuated and sealed silica ampules show that both stated compounds are thermally stable up to 1100 °C (Figures S3a,b and S4a,b). Both materials also have remarkable air stability at elevated temperatures. Thermal gravimetric analysis/differential scanning calorimetry (TGA/DSC) experiments in air reveal that FeSi<sub>4</sub>P<sub>4</sub> is stable up to 900 °C. Thereafter, there is an inflection in the sample weight followed by an exponential increase up to 160 wt % (Figure S17a). The weight gain is complemented by the exothermic peak observed in the DSC (Figure S17a), which may indicate oxidation of the material, which was confirmed by PXRD analysis of the sample after the TGA experiment (Figure S17b). CoSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub> exhibits no substantial weight change to 800 °C and then a moderate increase in weight upon further heating but no visible peaks in the DSC (Figure S17a). PXRD shows that CoSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub> remains unchanged after heating in air to 1100 °C (Figure S17b). Therefore, we can state that both materials are stable against high-temperature air treatment and that CoSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub> is more stable than FeSi<sub>4</sub>P<sub>4</sub>.

FeSi<sub>4</sub>P<sub>4</sub> was reported to crystallize in the noncentrosymmetric space group *P*1 (No. 1), with 1 Fe, 4 Si, and 4 P sites.<sup>30</sup> Our crystal structure solution agrees with the previously



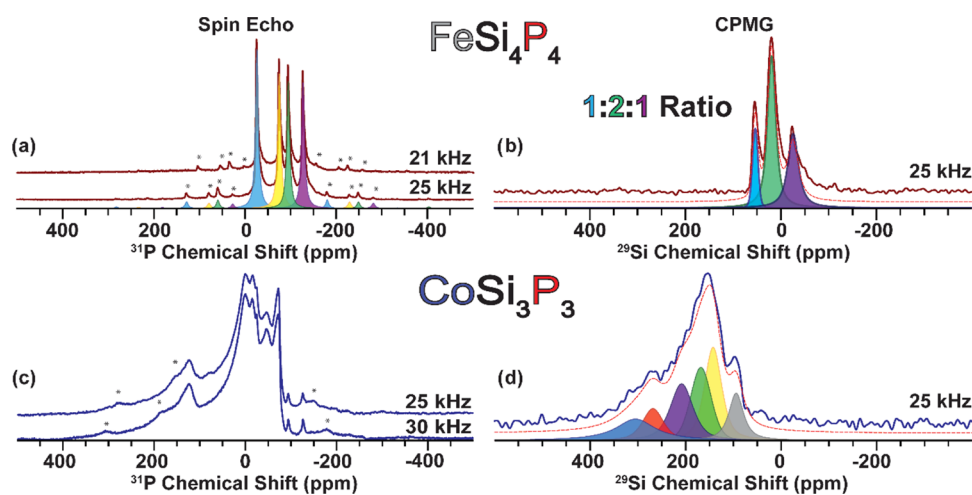
**Figure 1.** Crystal structure of FeSi<sub>4</sub>P<sub>4</sub> (Fe: gray, Si: black, P: red). The unit cell is outlined in black. (a, b) General views showing *fac*-[FeSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub>] octahedra (gray) and [−P<sub>3</sub>−Si−P−Si<sub>3</sub>−] trigonal antiprisms (dark pink). (c) Si−P network with Fe atoms omitted for clarity. (d) Isolated octahedral unit of *fac*-[FeSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub>] and trigonal antiprism units of [−P<sub>3</sub>−Si−P−Si<sub>3</sub>−] with interatomic distances.



**Figure 2.** Crystal structure of CoSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub> (Co: blue; Si: black; P: red). The unit cell is outlined in black. (a, b) General views with *fac*-[CoSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub>] octahedra shown in blue, [SiP<sub>4</sub>] tetrahedra shown in yellow, and [PSi<sub>4</sub>] tetrahedra in green. (c) Si−P network with Co atoms omitted for clarity. (d) Isolated octahedral *fac*-[CoSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub>] and tetrahedral [SiP<sub>4</sub>] and [PSi<sub>4</sub>] units with interatomic distances.

reported structure with an  $R_1$  value of 0.022 and a Flack parameter value of 0.012(7) (Table S1). In the crystal structure of FeSi<sub>4</sub>P<sub>4</sub>, *fac*-[FeSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub>] octahedral units occupy corners of the unit cell (Figure 1a,b). The octahedral units are connected via staggered ethane-like [P<sub>3</sub>−Si−P−Si<sub>3</sub>] units, composed of SiP<sub>4</sub> and PSi<sub>4</sub> tetrahedra sharing one Si−P bond between their centra. The P and Si atoms surrounding the central atom form the vertices of the *fac*-[FeSi<sub>3</sub>P<sub>3</sub>] octahedra,

forming Si−Fe and P−Fe bonds. Within the Si−P network, the layers of interconnected Si−P chains are stacked along [100]. These Si−P layers have voids where the Fe atoms reside (Figure 1c). EDS analysis confirms the composition of the Fe compound to be FeSi<sub>3.93(8)</sub>P<sub>4.39(6)</sub> averaged over several sites on different crystallites (Figure S5). The small overestimation of light element P is common for transition metal phosphides. The stability of the structure can be explained using the Zintl−



**Figure 3.** (a, c) Direct excitation of  $^{31}\text{P}$  and (b, d)  $^{29}\text{Si}$  MAS ssNMR spectra of (a, b)  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$  and (c, d)  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$ . The MAS frequency used for the acquisition of the spectra is indicated. Asterisks (\*) denote spinning sideband signals.

Klemm counting scheme, assuming the ionic nature of the Fe–Si and Fe–P interactions. One Si atom forms four covalent bonds to P, thus being  $\text{Si}^0$ , and three Si atoms form three covalent bonds to P, thus being  $\text{Si}^{1-}$  each. In addition, one P atom is bonded to four Si atoms, thus being  $\text{P}^{1+}$ , and three P atoms form three bonds to Si, thus being  $\text{P}^0$  each. This leads to a 2+ oxidation state for iron, yielding an electronic balanced and semiconducting composition:  $(\text{Fe}^{2+})(\text{Si}^0)(\text{Si}^{1-})_3(\text{P}^0)_3(\text{P}^{1+})$ . Si is a strong field ligand; thus, a low-spin closed-shell  $d^6$  configuration for Fe is expected.

$\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$  was originally reported to crystallize in monoclinic noncentrosymmetric chiral and polar space group,  $P2_1$  (No. 4), with the acknowledgment of a possibility to refine the crystal structure in the orthorhombic chiral and nonpolar space groups  $P2_12_12_1$  (No. 19).<sup>31</sup> The subtle difference between the two models lies in the assignment of P and Si sites, which have similar X-ray scattering factors. After refinement, the authors concluded the crystal structure to be monoclinic  $P2_1$  with 2 Co, 6 Si, and 6 P sites.<sup>31</sup> Initial refinements of our own data showed that  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$  could be solved in both space groups stated above. However, the refined  $\beta$  angle was clearly different from  $90^\circ$  being  $90.125(2)^\circ$ . We refined the crystal structure in  $P2_1$ , which resulted in an  $R_1$  value of 0.031 and a Flack parameter value of 0.035(7) (Table S1). The crystal structure of  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$  is composed of the *fac*- $[\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3]$  distorted octahedra,  $[\text{SiP}_4]$  tetrahedra occupying the corners of the unit cell, and  $[\text{PSi}_4]$  tetrahedra occupying the center of the unit cell (Figure 2a,b). Unlike in the structure of  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$ , the  $\text{SiP}_4$  and  $\text{PSi}_4$  tetrahedra do not overlap, and they share two corners with tetrahedra of the same kind forming one-dimensional  $\infty^1[\text{SiP}_2\text{P}_{2/2}]$  and  $\infty^1[\text{PSi}_2\text{Si}_{2/2}]$  chains running along the [010] direction (Figure 2c).

EDS confirmed the composition to be  $\text{CoSi}_{2.83(3)}\text{P}_{3.14(6)}$  averaged over several sites on different crystals (Figure S6). Zintl–Klemm formalism can be applied as follows: one Si atom forming four covalent bonds to P ( $\text{Si}^0$ ), another Si atom forming two bonds to P ( $\text{Si}^{2-}$ ), and four Si atoms forming three Si–P bonds ( $\text{Si}^{1-}$ ); one P atom forming four bonds to Si assigned as  $\text{P}^{1+}$ , another P atom forming two bonds to Si ( $\text{P}^{1-}$ ), and four P atom forming three bonds to Si ( $\text{P}^0$ ). Thereby, an electron-balanced formula can be written as  $(\text{Co}^{3+})_2(\text{Si}^0)(\text{Si}^{2-})(\text{Si}^{1-})_4(\text{P}^{1+})(\text{P}^{1-})(\text{P}^0)_4$ . Low-spin  $\text{Co}^{3+}$  is expected to have a closed-shell  $d^6$  electronic configuration.

$\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$  and  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$  contain transition metals and main group elements that have a small difference in electronegativities. The Pauling electronegativities<sup>40</sup> of Fe (1.8), Co (1.9), Si (1.9), and P (2.2) are comparable, which give the metal the ability to form covalent bonds with Si and P. In the crystal structure of  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$ , the Fe–Si distances (2.26–2.29 Å) are shorter than the Fe–P ones (2.29–2.33 Å) (Table S2). This is unexpected based on the covalent radii trend because Si (1.17 Å) is larger than P (1.11 Å). The observed difference can be explained assuming that  $\pi$ -electron back-donation between Fe and Si is more effective than that between Fe and P. A similar M–Si distance shortening was observed in other metal silicon phosphides.<sup>16,24</sup> For  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$ , larger ranges for distances were observed, Co–Si (2.20–2.35 Å) and Co–P (2.23–2.32 Å) (Table S2), yet the average Co–Si and Co–P distances are close (2.27 Å) in contradiction with the covalent radii trend.

Following the original discussion, the crystal structure of  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$  was also refined in the orthorhombic  $P2_12_12_1$  space group mentioned by Perrier et al.<sup>31</sup> In this case, the structure displayed *mer*- $[\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3]$  octahedral units and  $[\text{Si}@\text{SiP}_3]$  and  $[\text{P}@\text{PSi}_3]$  tetrahedral units (Figure S7), neither of which were observed in other transition metal silicon phosphides. All reported transition metal silicon phosphides show no homoatomic Si–Si or P–P bonding, while such homoatomic bonds are common in alkaline-earth and rare-earth silicon phosphides.<sup>15,20,24,41–45</sup> Solid-state NMR (ssNMR) was further applied to corroborate the two structural models derived from X-ray diffraction. SCXRD is a dominant technique for the characterization of long-range ordering in solids. In SCXRD, there is a prominent reliance on chemical knowledge to identify elements with similar scattering factors, such as Si and P, which may lead to incorrect structural models.<sup>16,46</sup>

$^{31}\text{P}$  and  $^{29}\text{Si}$  ssNMR spectroscopy were used to characterize both  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$  and  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$  (Figure 3a,b). The SCXRD model for  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$  shows four unique crystallographic sites for the Si and P atoms. Therefore, we expect to see at most four unique peaks in each of the  $^{31}\text{P}$  and  $^{29}\text{Si}$  ssNMR spectra. The  $^{31}\text{P}$  ssNMR spectrum of  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$  unambiguously shows there are four peaks with an isotropic chemical shift of  $-26.3$ ,  $-75.0$ ,  $-95.0$ , and  $-127.8$  ppm (Figure 3a). The  $^{29}\text{Si}$  ssNMR spectrum shows three resolved peaks with chemical shifts of 53.9, 19.0, and  $-23.9$  ppm. Fitting the  $^{29}\text{Si}$  NMR spectrum results in a

1:2:1 integrated intensity ratio for the 3 peaks (Figure 3b and Table S3). Therefore, the  $^{29}\text{Si}$  NMR spectrum is also composed of four peaks, with two of them overlapping due to similar chemical shifts. To improve the sensitivity of  $^{29}\text{Si}$  NMR experiments, we used the Carr–Purcell–Meiboom–Gill (CPMG) pulse sequence. CPMG acquisition provides a significant boost in the signal-to-noise ratio as compared to a spin echo spectrum (Figure S8). While CPMG is a nonqualitative technique, we find that peak intensities in the CPMG spectrum and a spin echo spectrum closely matched (Table S4).  $^{31}\text{P}$  and  $^{29}\text{Si}$  chemical shift ranges for  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$  are similar to those of other semiconducting transition metal silicon phosphide phases of isostructural  $\text{RuSi}_4\text{P}_4$  (space group  $P1$ ) and  $\text{IrSi}_3\text{P}_3$  (space group  $Cm$ ).

The previously reported chemical shift for  $\text{RuSi}_4\text{P}_4$  was  $-70.6$ ,  $-93.1$ ,  $-121.4$ , and  $-135.5$  ppm ( $^{31}\text{P}$ ) and  $52.8$ ,  $39.2$ ,  $28.1$ , and  $-12.3$  ppm ( $^{29}\text{Si}$ ). The  $\text{IrSi}_3\text{P}_3$  chemical shift range is also similar to  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$ ,  $-160.2$  to  $-184.9$  ppm ( $^{31}\text{P}$ ) and  $-1.7$  to  $-29.2$  ppm ( $^{29}\text{Si}$ ).<sup>16</sup> The analysis of  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$  required thoughtful consideration of both SCXRD models in the  $P2_1$  and  $P2_12_12_1$  space groups. In the monoclinic  $P2_1$  model, there are 6 P and 6 Si unique crystallographic sites. In comparison, the orthorhombic  $P2_12_12_1$  model has only 3 P and 3 Si unique crystallographic sites. The  $^{31}\text{P}$  ssNMR spectrum of  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$  exhibits at least eight distinguishable peaks with chemical shifts ranging from 200 to  $-150$  ppm (Figure 3c). We anticipate that the signals between 50 and  $-150$  ppm in the  $^{31}\text{P}$  NMR spectra correspond to  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$  based on the chemical shift range for previously studied transition metal silicon phosphides.<sup>17–49</sup> The peaks outside this range are attributed to unidentified admixtures. The  $^{29}\text{Si}$  NMR spectrum of  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$  consists of several broad signals with chemical shifts ranging from 400 to 50 ppm (Figure 3d). The  $^{29}\text{Si}$  NMR spectrum was fitted to six peaks with chemical shifts of 305.2, 268.5, 208.5, 168.2, 142.7, and 94.5 ppm and a consistent 1:1:1:1:1:1 ratio of the integrated intensities. Although the  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$   $^{31}\text{P}$  NMR and  $^{29}\text{Si}$  NMR spectra contain significant peak broadening and show multiple overlapping peaks, they suggest that  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$  crystallizes in the  $P2_1$  space group rather than in the alternative  $P2_12_12_1$  space group. The latter model predicts that there should be only three unique P signals, which is inconsistent with the observed data. Further NMR investigations are currently in progress to validate this hypothesis and to assign the P NMR signals. Further information on the experimental parameters can be found in Table S5.

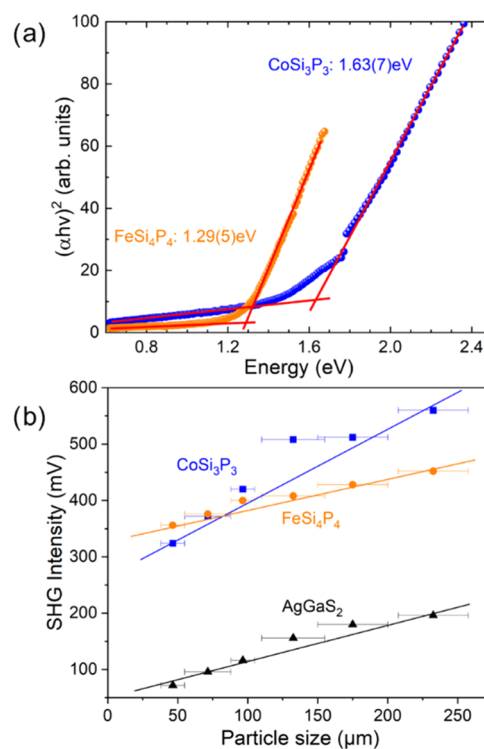
Perrier and co-workers utilized Raman spectroscopy to confirm the monoclinic nature of  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$  with multiple bands observed in the  $100$ – $550$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$  frequency range.<sup>31</sup> Raman studies of  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$  also indicated that most of the framework Fe–Si–P vibrations occur in the  $100$ – $550$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$  range.<sup>32</sup> We performed FTIR characterization of both materials in the accessible spectrometer range of  $400$ – $4000$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$  (Figure S18a). In the  $400$ – $550$   $\text{cm}^{-1}$  frequency range, the observed FTIR spectra qualitatively agree with the reported Raman spectra (Figure S18b) (note that for  $P1$  and  $P2_1$ , all vibrational bands are Raman and IR active).

The proposed from the Zintl–Klemm formalism charge-balanced semiconducting nature of the studied materials was confirmed with electronic structure calculations (vide infra) and experimental optical measurements. The UV–vis measurements showed that  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$  and  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$  are indirect band gap semiconductors. From the analysis of Tauc plots, the indirect and direct band gaps were estimated (Table 1 and Figures 4a

and S9). The direct band gaps of  $1.3$  eV ( $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$ ) and  $1.6$  eV ( $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$ ) are consistent with observed black and deep red colors of the corresponding material.

**Table 1. Experimental and Calculated Band Gaps (eV)**

compound	$\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$		$\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$		
	band gap	direct	indirect	direct	indirect
experimental		1.29(5)	1.18(5)	1.63(5)	1.46(5)
calculated (LDA)		1.26	0.96	1.36	1.23
calculated (HSE)		2.10	1.80	2.05	1.90

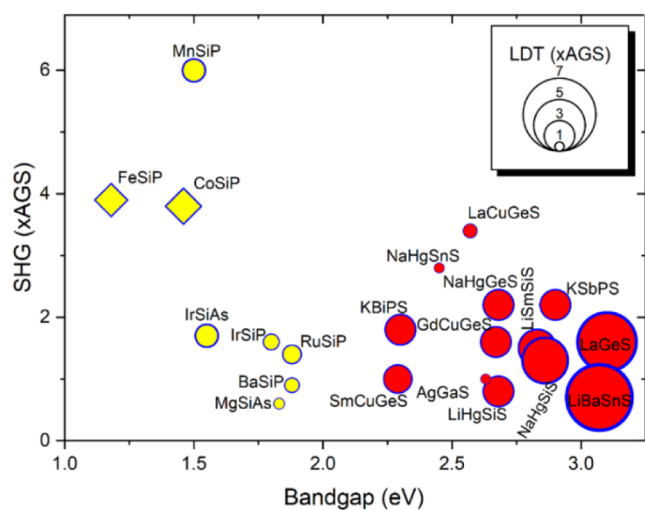


**Figure 4.** (a) Direct band gap Tauc plots for  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$  and  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$ . (b) Second harmonic generation of  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$ ,  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$ , and  $\text{AgGaS}_2$  powders measured in identical conditions at various particle sizes.

Both materials have NCS structures and relatively narrow band gaps. The Kurtz and Perry method was utilized for second-harmonic generation (SHG) powder measurements for both  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$  and  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$  compounds using a Q-switch 2.09  $\mu\text{m}$  laser source (3 Hz, 50 ns).<sup>50</sup> The SHG response may be weakened due to their narrow optical band gap, so reflectance SHG signals were collected. Both materials exhibit strong SHG activity,  $\sim 3.0$  times for  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$  and  $\sim 2.5$  times for  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$  higher than that of our grown by Bridgman technique  $\text{AgGaS}_2$  (AGS) state-of-the-art standard in the  $207$ – $257$   $\mu\text{m}$  particles size range (Figure 4b and Table S6).

$\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$  and  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$  performance in the  $54$ – $88$   $\mu\text{m}$  particles size range is better than most ternary silicon pnictides such as  $\text{IrSi}_3\text{P}_3$  ( $1.6\times$  AGS),<sup>16</sup>  $\text{IrSi}_3\text{As}_3$  ( $1.7\times$  AGS),<sup>17</sup>  $\text{RuSi}_4\text{P}_4$  ( $1.4\times$  AGS),<sup>16</sup>  $\text{MgSiAs}_2$  ( $0.6\times$  AGS),<sup>14</sup> and  $\text{Ba}_2\text{Si}_3\text{P}_6$  ( $0.9\times$  AGS)<sup>15</sup> (Figure S10 and Table S6). The only silicon phosphide with a higher SHG signal is  $\text{MnSiP}_2$  ( $6\times$  AGS), but  $\text{MnSiP}_2$  was measured at different excitation wavelengths.<sup>13</sup> All previously reported silicon-phosphide materials were not phase-matchable, which prevents their practical application as NLO materials. In turn,  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$  and  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$  demonstrated a linear

increase in SHG response with particle size, i.e., phase-matching, which further makes them attractive for practical applications. In addition, these materials have strong SHG responses that outperform the majority of chalcogenide NLO materials (Figure 5).



**Figure 5.** Diagram showing the dependence of SHG signal (vertical scale) to band gap (horizontal scale) with LDT (symbol diameter).  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$ ,  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$ , and metal silicon phosphide materials are labeled in yellow symbols.  $\text{AgGaS}_2$  and other selected chalcogenide materials are labeled with red symbols. Expansions for abbreviations can be found in Table S6.

First-principles calculations were used to investigate the optical properties of both  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$  and  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$  in the framework of density-functional theory (DFT) and density-functional perturbation theory (DFPT).<sup>51</sup> The exchange-correlation energy was modeled with the local-density approximation (LDA).<sup>52</sup> The relaxation of the crystal structure yielded cell parameters within 2% of the experimental parameters, following the usual underestimation inherent to LDA functionals. More details on the computations can be found in the Supporting Information. The calculated electronic band structures are reported in Figure 6. As proposed in the structural analysis discussion, the covalency of M–Si and M–P interactions manifests in good mixing of M-3d states with P-3p and Si-3p states in the band structures of the studied compounds. The corresponding band gaps can be found in Table 1. The excellent agreement of the direct band gaps with their experimental counterpart is quite surprising. Usually, local or semilocal functionals tend to severely underestimate the experimental value. For both compounds, the fundamental gap is indirect, which agrees with the experiment. When adopting the Heyd–Scuseria–Ernzerhof (HSE) exchange-correlation functional,<sup>53</sup> the calculated fundamental gap remained indirect, but the incidental agreement of the direct gaps with the experiment was lost, as shown in Table 1. The direct band gap of both materials heavily influences their optical properties. Thereby, we decided to keep the calculated LDA band gaps for the subsequent calculations.

The nonlinear optical properties were then investigated. The static high-frequency SHG tensor  $d_{ij}^\infty$  was computed using DFPT, and for  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$ , it yielded

$$d_{ij}^\infty = \begin{bmatrix} 24.26 & -6.13 & 9.00 & 7.11 & 18.38 & 15.85 \\ 15.85 & 54.82 & 19.49 & 17.27 & 7.11 & -6.13 \\ 18.38 & 17.27 & 27.96 & 19.49 & 9.00 & 7.11 \end{bmatrix}$$

while for  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$ , it was

$$d_{ij}^\infty = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & -33.44 & 0 & 3.76 \\ 3.76 & -92.62 & 3.82 & 0 & -33.44 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3.82 & 0 & -33.44 \end{bmatrix}$$

Equation 1 demonstrates that the ratio of the experimental SHG intensities,  $I$ , can be linked to a ratio of effective coefficients,  $d_{\text{eff}}$ , derived from the tensors and the superscript ( $R$ ) indicates the reference sample.<sup>50,54</sup>

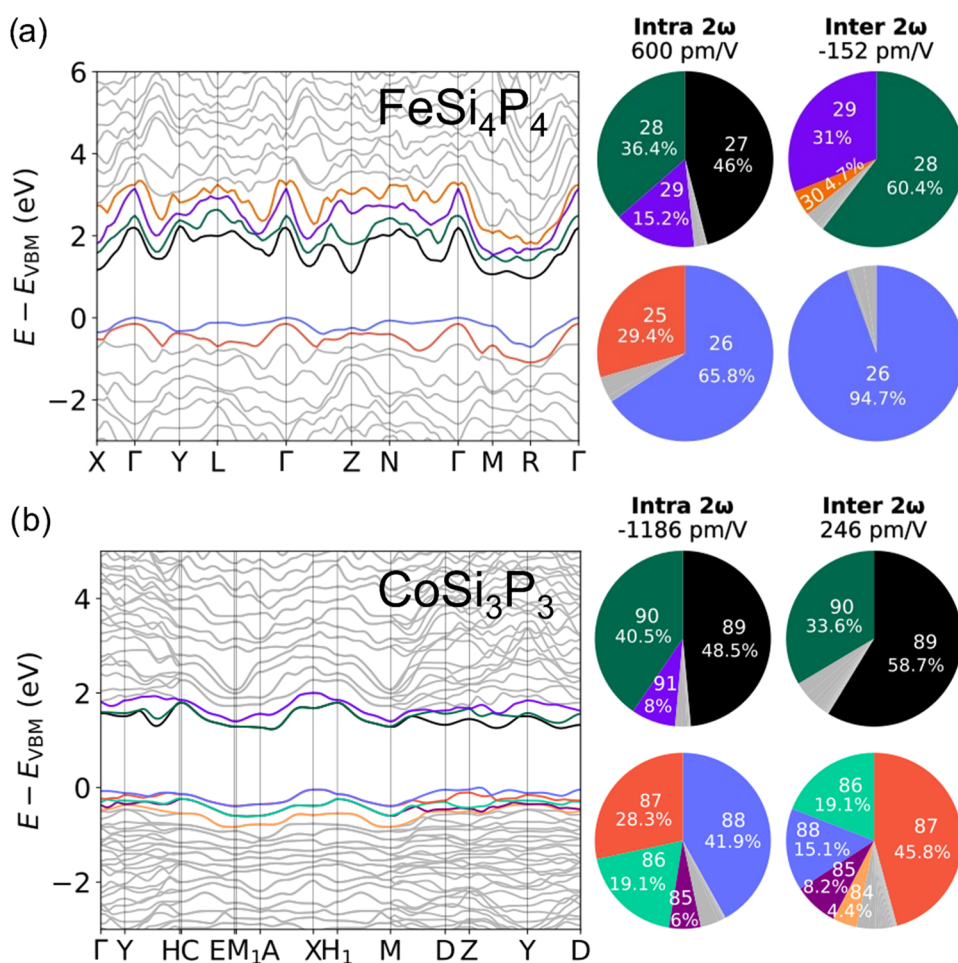
$$\left( \frac{d_{\text{eff}}}{d_{\text{eff}}^{(R)}} \right)^2 = \frac{I}{I^{(R)}} \quad (1)$$

It was decided that the root-mean-square of the SHG components was an effective coefficient. This value constitutes an invariant of third-rank tensors while embodying the averaging concept of the powder technique.<sup>55</sup> As a result,  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$  and  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$  possess effective coefficients of 18.09 and 23.86 pm/V, respectively. The only nonzero component of  $\text{AgGaS}_2$ ,  $d_{36}$ , can vary quite drastically in the literature. For this reason, the DFPT SHG tensor of  $\text{AgGaS}_2$  was also computed in this work following the same procedure as for  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$  and  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$ , except that a scissor of 1.7 eV was applied to match the experimental band gap of 2.64 eV.<sup>56</sup> Using the ratio of effective coefficients, we can calculate the different SHG values between our reference,  $\text{AgGaS}_2$ , and the studied ternary tetrel pnictides (Table S7). In practice, a ratio of intensities of  $\sim 4$  is equivalent to an effective coefficient in-between 6.6 and 32.8 pm/V for  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$  and  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$ , which is in line with the DFPT results.

The frequency-dependent  $d_{22}$ , the largest component of the SHG tensor, was also computed (see Figures S11 and S12). A band-resolved analysis was further performed to understand the origin of the SHG response for the two compounds at hand.<sup>57</sup> The total frequency-dependent SHG response is the sum of two- or three-band contributions. In a band-resolved analysis, the latter are isolated and then partially summed over, such that the total contribution of each individual valence and conduction band is recovered. This allows one to quantify the contribution of each band to the SHG response at a given frequency, as illustrated in Figure 6. The investigated frequency was chosen based on the following sum rule:

$$\Re(\chi^{(2)}(0, 0, 0)) = \frac{2}{\pi} \int \frac{\Im(\chi^{(2)}(-2\omega, \omega, \omega))}{\omega} d\omega$$

which dictates that the magnitude of the static real part of a coefficient is directly related to the main peak of its imaginary spectrum.<sup>58</sup> It is thus interesting to perform a band-resolved analysis of this peak to understand  $\chi^{(2)}(0,0,0)$ . As can be seen in Figures S13 and S14, this peak is located at 1.06 and 0.87 eV for  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$  and  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$ , respectively. The “Intra  $2\omega$ ” and “Inter  $2\omega$ ” denominations refer to the  $2\omega$ -resonant intra- and interband transitions, respectively. Together with the “IntraS” term, i.e., the modulation of the interband terms by intraband ones, and their  $1\omega$ -resonant counterpart, they constitute the total SHG response as introduced by Sipe and Ghahramani.<sup>59</sup> The origin of these three terms lies in the mathematical



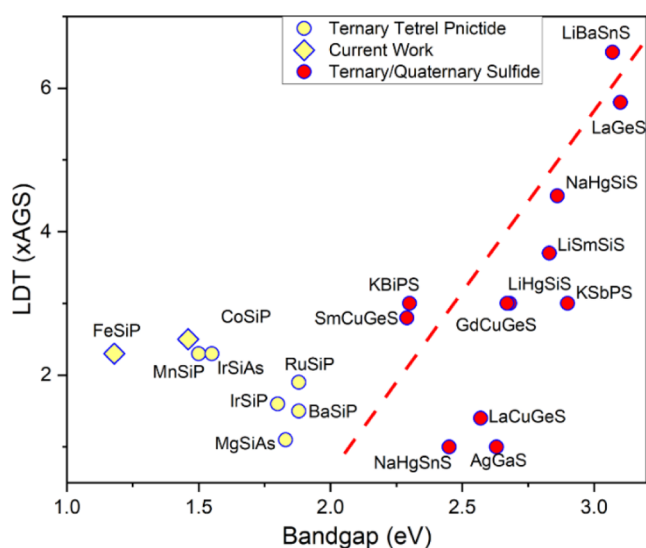
**Figure 6.** (a) Band-resolved analysis of the imaginary part of the  $d_{22}$  coefficient of  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$  at 1.06 eV. (b) Band-resolved analysis of the imaginary part of the  $d_{22}$  coefficient of  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$  at 0.87 eV. The electronic structure bands are color-coded (left) to relate with the pie charts (right), which are associated with the individual contributions of the most important bands to the SHG response. Only the three-band interactions were considered as the two-band ones are negligible. The bands are shifted to set the valence band maximum (VBM) at 0 eV.

development of the Hamiltonian when deriving the sum-overstates equation.

To the best of our knowledge, a clear physical interpretation of those terms is still lacking. Fortunately, it is not required in the context of the present band-resolved analysis. In line with expectations, the first bands on both sides of the gap are the major contributors to the SHG response, which is expected (Figure 6). To complement this analysis, a projected density of states (PDOS) was computed (Figures S15 and S16). In  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$ , the SHG response mainly comes from the Fe-3d, Si-3p, and P-3p contributions. Similarly, in  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$ , the orbitals Co-3d, Si-3p, and P-3p are mainly responsible for the SHG. Our computational exploration supports the experimentally observed linear and nonlinear optical properties of  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$  and  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$  as well as the hypothesis regarding strong covalent bonding interactions between transition metal, silicon, and phosphorus.

Besides phase-matchability and SHG intensity, the laser damage threshold (LDT) is an important characteristic of the NLO material. LDT measurements are less standardized than SHG ones, and different values of LDT were reported for the powders of AGS standard, ranging from 1 to 30  $\text{MW cm}^{-2}$  even for the same laser wavelength of 1.06  $\mu\text{m}$ . The different pulse sequences and varying quality of the AGS standard may be responsible for the large discrepancy in the LDT reports for

AGS. Nevertheless, single crystals of AGS were reported to have LDT of  $\sim 30 \text{ MW cm}^{-2}$ . To avoid comparing apples to oranges, we limited the following discussion to such examples of reported LDTs where measurements of AGS LDT at the same setup and identical conditions generated an LDT of 28–32  $\text{MW cm}^{-2}$ . Generally, chalcogenide materials have an established trend of a positive relationship between band gap and LDT, i.e., small band gap materials show high SHG activity but low LDT and *vice versa*. For example,  $\text{Li}_2\text{BaSnS}_4$  has a 3.07 eV band gap, which exhibits a low SHG intensity ( $0.7\times$  AGS) but a high LDT value ( $192 \text{ MW cm}^{-2}$ )<sup>60</sup> (Figures 5, 7, and S10). The LDT values for  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$  ( $68 \text{ MW cm}^{-2}$ ,  $2.3\times$  AGS) and  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$  ( $74 \text{ MW cm}^{-2}$ ,  $2.5\times$  AGS) are particularly exceptional for small band gap semiconductors (Table S6). Due to strong covalent M–P and M–Si bonds, transition metal silicon phosphides exhibit higher LDT values, such as  $\text{MnSiP}_2$  ( $70 \text{ MW cm}^{-2}$ ),<sup>13</sup>  $\text{IrSi}_3\text{P}_3$  ( $48 \text{ MW cm}^{-2}$ ),<sup>16</sup>  $\text{IrSi}_3\text{As}_3$  ( $68 \text{ MW cm}^{-2}$ ),<sup>17</sup> and  $\text{RuSi}_4\text{P}_4$  ( $58 \text{ MW cm}^{-2}$ ),<sup>16</sup> than alkaline-earth silicon phosphides,  $\text{MgSiAs}_2$  ( $33 \text{ MW cm}^{-2}$ ),<sup>14</sup> and  $\text{Ba}_2\text{Si}_3\text{P}_6$  ( $45 \text{ MW cm}^{-2}$ )<sup>18</sup> (Figures 7 and S10 and Table S6). Transition metal silicon-phosphides break the trend observed in chalcogenide materials by showing consistent LDT even for materials with small band gaps,  $< 2 \text{ eV}$ . As confirmed by our calculational evaluations, the strong covalency of {Co,Fe}-{Si,P} bonds contributes to the high LDT of the



**Figure 7.** Band gap dependence of the normalized LDT values for ternary phosphides (labeled in yellow) and selected ternary and quaternary sulfides (labeled in red) that were experimentally verified to be phase-matching materials. Expansions for abbreviations can be found in Table S6.

studied compounds. We hypothesized that the higher ionic component of M–S and M–Se bonding makes chalcogenides more susceptible to laser irradiation, and a higher band gap is required for chalcogenides to achieve high LDT.

## CONCLUSIONS

We developed a synthetic approach to produce powdered samples and millimeter-sized crystals of  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$  and  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$ . The crystal structures of these NCS moderate band gap semiconductors were redetermined through SCXRD and  $^{29}\text{Si}$ ,  $^{31}\text{P}$  MAS NMR techniques.  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$  is confirmed to crystallize in the  $P1$  space group, while  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$  is confirmed to crystallize in the  $P2_1$  space group with no homoatomic Si–Si or P–P bonds in either structure.  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$  and  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$  demonstrate strong SHG activity and exceptional LDT as compared to the  $\text{AgGaS}_2$  state-of-the-art standard. First-principles computations confirm the high SHG for these phases and provide their full  $d_{ijk}$  tensor. The calculations attribute the strong NLO response of the title compounds to the covalency of  $\{\text{Fe,Co}\}-\{\text{P-Si}\}$  interactions. When compared to chalcogenide NLO materials,  $\text{FeSi}_4\text{P}_4$  and  $\text{CoSi}_3\text{P}_3$  are acid stable, have high oxidation resistance, are composed of inexpensive and earth-abundant elements, and exhibit a healthy balance of SHG response and LDT values with phase-matching.

## ASSOCIATED CONTENT

### Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.chemmater.4c01688>.

Experimental and computational methods and additional figures and tables pertaining to powder X-ray diffraction, scanning electron microscopy/energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy, ssNMR, TGA/DSC, FTIR, diffuse reflectance spectroscopy, and electronic structure calculations. (PDF)

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K.K. conceived of and supervised the project. E.S., S.J.L., N.H., and G.A. conducted the synthesis and majority of experiments. E.S. organized all the data and wrote the manuscript with K.K. G.V. conducted diffuse reflectance experiments. K.W. conducted nonlinear optical studies. A.P.P. and A.J.R. conducted



ssNMR studies. V.T., G.B., G.H., and G.-M.R. conducted the calculations.

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### Notes

The authors declare no competing financial interest.

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