

## CHAPTER EIGHT

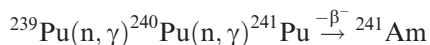
# AMERICIUM

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### 8.1 HISTORICAL

Americium, element 95, was discovered in 1944–45 by Seaborg *et al.* (1950) at the Metallurgical Laboratory of the University of Chicago as a product of the irradiation of plutonium with neutrons:



This reaction is still the best method for the production of pure  ${}^{241}\text{Am}$ . In post-World War II work at the University of Chicago, Cunningham isolated  $\text{Am}(\text{OH})_3$  and measured the first absorption spectrum of the  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  aquo ion (Cunningham, 1948). By the 1950s, the major center for americium chemistry research in the world was at Los Alamos. Since the 1970s, the majority of publications on americium have come from researchers in the former USSR and West Germany. Extensive reviews of americium chemistry can be found in Freeman and Keller (1985), Gmelin (1979), Penneman and Asprey (1955), and Schulz (1976).

### 8.2 NUCLEAR PROPERTIES OF ISOTOPES

To date, 13 americium isotopes with mass numbers 232–247 and half-lives ranging from 55 s to 7370 years are known (Table 8.1). While the isotopes with mass numbers 232, 234, and 237–247 have been known for some time, the neutron-deficient isotopes Am-233, Am-235, and Am-236 have only recently

**Table 8.1** Nuclear properties of americium isotopes.

Mass number	Half-life	Mode of decay	Main radiations (MeV)	Method of production
232	1.4 min	SF isomer		$^{230}\text{Th}(^{10}\text{B}, 8\text{n})$
233	3.2 min	$\alpha$	$\alpha$ 0.00678	$^{238}\text{U}(^6\text{Li}, 6\text{n})$
234	2.6 min	EC		$^{230}\text{Th}(^{10}\text{B}, 6\text{n})$
235	15 min	EC		$^{238}\text{Pu}(^1\text{H}, 4\text{n})$
236	4.4 min <sup>a</sup> 3.7 min <sup>b</sup>	EC EC		$^{235}\text{U}(^6\text{Li}, 5\text{n})$ $^{237}\text{Np}(^6\text{He}, 4\text{n})$
237	1.22 h	EC > 99% $\alpha$ 0.025%	$\alpha$ 6.042 $\gamma$ 0.280 (47%)	$^{237}\text{Np}(\alpha, 4\text{n})$ $^{237}\text{Np}(^3\text{He}, 3\text{n})$
238	1.63 h	EC > 99% $\alpha$ $1.0 \times 10^{-4}\%$	$\alpha$ 5.94 $\gamma$ 0.963 (29%)	$^{237}\text{Np}(\alpha, 3\text{n})$
239	11.9 h	EC > 99%	$\alpha$ 5.776 (84%) 5.734 (13.8%)	$^{237}\text{Np}(\alpha, 2\text{n})$
240	50.8 h	$\alpha$ 0.010% EC > 99% $\alpha$ $1.9 \times 10^{-4}\%$	$\gamma$ 0.278 (15%) $\alpha$ 5.378 (87%) 5.337 (12%)	$^{239}\text{Pu}(\text{d}, 2\text{n})$ $^{237}\text{Np}(\alpha, \text{n})$ $^{239}\text{Pu}(\text{d}, \text{n})$
241	432.7 yr $1.15 \times 10^{14}$ yr	$\alpha$ SF	$\alpha$ 5.486 (84%) 5.443 (13.1%)	$^{241}\text{Pu}$ daughter multiple n capture
242	16.01 h	$\beta^-$ 82.7% EC 17.3%	$\gamma$ 0.059 (35.7%) $\beta^-$ 0.667	$^{241}\text{Am}(\text{n}, \gamma)$
242 m	141 yr $9.5 \times 10^{11}$ yr	IT 99.5% SF $\alpha$ (0.45%)	$\gamma$ 0.042 weak $\alpha$ 5.207 (89%) 5.141 (6.0%)	$^{241}\text{Am}(\text{n}, \gamma)$ $^{241}\text{Am}(\text{n}, \gamma)$
243	$7.38 \times 10^3$ yr $2.0 \times 10^{14}$ yr	$\alpha$ SF	$\gamma$ 0.0493 (41%) $\alpha$ 5.277 (88%) 5.234 (10.6%)	multiple n capture
244	10.1 h	$\beta^-$	$\gamma$ 0.075 (68%) $\beta^-$ 0.387	$^{243}\text{Am}(\text{n}, \gamma)$
244 m	26 min	$\beta^-$ > 99% EC 0.041%	$\gamma$ 0.746 (67%) $\beta^-$ 1.50	$^{243}\text{Am}(\text{n}, \gamma)$
245	2.05 h	$\beta^-$	$\beta^-$ 0.895 $\gamma$ 0.253 (6.1%)	$^{245}\text{Pu}$ daughter
246 <sup>c</sup>	25.0 min	$\beta^-$	$\beta^-$ 2.38 0.799 (25%)	$^{246}\text{Pu}$ daughter
246 <sup>c</sup>	39 min	$\gamma$ $\beta^-$	$\gamma$ 0.679 (52%)	$^{244}\text{Pu}(\alpha, \text{d})$ $^{244}\text{Pu}(^3\text{He}, \text{p})$
247	24 min	$\beta^-$	$\gamma$ 0.285 (23%)	$^{244}\text{Pu}(\alpha, \text{p})$

SF, spontaneous fission; EC, electron capture; IT, isomeric transition.

<sup>a</sup> Hall (1989).

<sup>b</sup> Tsukada *et al.* (1998).

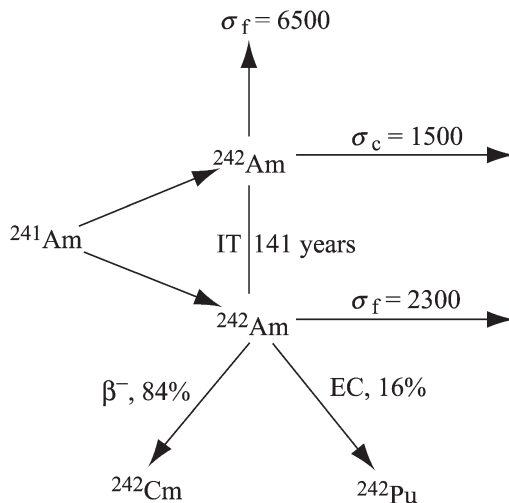
<sup>c</sup> Not known whether ground-state nuclide or isomer.

been produced and characterized (Hall, 1989; Tsukada *et al.*, 1998; Weifan *et al.*, 1999; Sakama *et al.*, 2000). The light isotopes up to  $^{243}\text{Am}$  mainly decay by electron capture, emission of alpha particles, and spontaneous fission; the isotopes beyond  $^{243}\text{Am}$  are short-lived  $\beta^-$ -emitters. Data in Table 8.1 are taken primarily from the comprehensive compilation in Gmelin (1973) and others (Hyde *et al.*, 1971; Wapstra and Gove, 1971; Skobelev, 1972; Natowitz, 1973; Schulz, 1976; Lederer and Shirley, 1978; Kuznetsov and Skobelev, 1966). Although not noted in Table 8.1, literature references (e.g. Schulz, 1976) indicate that some of the identified americium isotopes exist in more than one isomeric energy state.

### 8.3 PRODUCTION OF PRINCIPAL ISOTOPES

The most important isotopes of americium are  $^{241}\text{Am}$  and  $^{243}\text{Am}$  due to their long half-lives of 433 and 7380 years, respectively. These isotopes have been made in kilogram quantities with high purity.  $^{242}\text{Am}$  ( $t_{1/2} = 141$  years) can be produced to the extent of only a few percent in  $^{241}\text{Am}$  by neutron capture.

Americium-241 is superior to all competing radionuclides as a low-energy gamma source because of its cost, convenience, spectral purity, and half-life (Crandall, 1971) and its application as a low-energy gamma source may well be the largest of any actinide nuclide (Seaborg, 1970; LeVert and Helminski, 1973). The major use for  $^{241}\text{Am}$  is in smoke-detector alarms and in neutron sources to furnish alpha particles for the ( $\alpha, n$ ) reaction on beryllium. As a source of nearly monoenergetic alpha (5.44 and 5.49 MeV) and gamma (59.6 keV) radiation,  $^{241}\text{Am}$  is also widely used in thickness gauging and density and radiographic measurements, and is utilized to produce  $^{242}\text{Cm}$  (up to 0.65 g  $^{242}\text{Cm}$  per gram of  $^{241}\text{Am}$  (Hennelly, 1972)) by thermal neutron capture. The thermal neutron capture sequence involved in producing  $^{242}\text{Cm}$  from  $^{241}\text{Am}$  is:



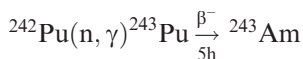
The lower specific activity of  $^{243}\text{Am}$  compared to  $^{241}\text{Am}$  makes it particularly useful in chemical studies. It is also used in the production of  $^{244}\text{Cm}$ ,  $^{249}\text{Bk/Cf}$ ,  $^{252}\text{Cf}$ , and other transcurium elements in high neutron-flux reactors.

### 8.3.1 Production of $^{241}\text{Am}$ by irradiation of $^{239}\text{Pu}$

Neutron irradiation of  $^{239}\text{Pu}$  yields  $^{241}\text{Pu}$ , which decays by beta emission with a half-life of  $14.4 \pm 0.3$  years to  $^{241}\text{Am}$ . In 1977, more than 1.5 kg of  $^{241}\text{Am}$  was isolated from reprocessing aged plutonium at the US Department of Energy (DOE) Rocky Flats site. In 1980, a similar amount was isolated at the DOE Los Alamos site.

### 8.3.2 Production of $^{243}\text{Am}$ by irradiation of $^{242}\text{Pu}$

Nearly isotopically pure  $^{243}\text{Am}$  results from irradiation of  $^{242}\text{Pu}$  with thermal neutrons:



### 8.3.3 Availability of $^{241}\text{Am}$ and $^{243}\text{Am}$ from power reactor fuel

Commercial nuclear power reactors produce kilogram quantities of both  $^{241}\text{Am}$  and  $^{243}\text{Am}$  with an isotopic composition dependent on reactor burn-up. The US DOE Savannah River site reactors produced about 9 kg of a  $^{243}\text{Am}$ – $^{244}\text{Cm}$  mixture over a period of 10 years (Baybarz, 1970). About 1 kg of mixed  $^{241}\text{Am}$  and  $^{243}\text{Am}$  was recovered at the US DOE Hanford site during reprocessing of the Shippingport reactor blanket fuel (Wheelwright *et al.*, 1968). Approximately 30 kg of americium is reported to remain in the US DOE Hanford site waste tanks (Agnew *et al.*, 1997). But, no industrial reprocessor of commercial nuclear reactor fuel anywhere in the world has opted to pursue systematic recovery of americium. However, a potentially large source of americium is the high-level Purex-process liquid waste from plutonium processing; indeed, future waste storage may require separation of americium.

### 8.3.4 Critical mass

The calculated minimum critical mass of  $^{242}\text{Am}$  in aqueous solution is 23 g at a concentration of  $5 \text{ g L}^{-1}$  (Bierman and Clayton, 1969). Note that mass separation of  $^{242}\text{Am}$  from  $^{241}\text{Am}$  is required to obtain pure  $^{242}\text{Am}$ .

## 8.4 SEPARATION AND PURIFICATION OF PRINCIPAL ISOTOPES

Most of the standard methods, aqueous and non-aqueous, for separating and purifying americium from all kinds of sources and materials were developed in the 1950s, 1960s, and 1970s; progress made in this time frame was summarized

in the second edition of this work. In contrast to the earlier time period, in the 1980s and 1990s research efforts to develop new or improved technology for recovery and/or purification of americium were largely confined to development and testing of new and improved solvent extraction processes. Worldwide, aside from purely academic investigations mainly in Russia and India, scientists and engineers were motivated by one of two main goals:

- (1) In the USA, principally, to find new or modified practicable ways of removing minor amounts of neptunium, plutonium, and americium from various stored defense wastes to convert such wastes from so-called TRU (transuranium) wastes to non-TRU wastes, thus requiring less expensive final disposal procedures and facilities.
- (2) To develop and demonstrate practicable technology for removal (partitioning) of long-lived actinides as well as certain long-lived and mobile fission products, e.g.  $^{99}\text{Tc}$ ,  $^{129}\text{I}$  from the high-level aqueous waste (HLW) generated in reprocessing of irradiated commercial nuclear power reactor fuel. Partitioning of these species from the HLW, it is believed, would greatly facilitate and simplify the many current technical and legal obstacles to final geologic disposal of the HLW. Recovered, purified, and concentrated actinides and fission products can, it is further believed, be converted (transmuted) to stable or short-lived radioisotopes by suitable neutron irradiation. Because irradiated commercial nuclear reactor fuel is being reprocessed in Japan, France, and China, investigators in these countries have been active in pursuing partitioning technology options. Several references (ANS, 1993; Prunier *et al.*, 1997; Cohen, 2000; NN, 2002) provide much additional detail concerning the incentives for and status of the development of partitioning and transmutation technology. Particular attention is called to an excellent summary article on actinide partitioning technology (Mathur *et al.*, 2001).

Americium separation technology is presented and discussed here in the same order used in the second edition of this monograph. Significant separation technology developments that have occurred since the second edition was published are incorporated and discussed at appropriate places in the text. (The knowledgeable reader will appreciate that when this text was prepared (early 2002) all the americium separations technologies described in the subsequent parts of Section 8.4 was essentially only of academic and/or historic interest. The present authors are not aware of any current significant effort in any country to actually separate and/or purify americium isotopes from any source.)

#### 8.4.1 Pyrochemical processes

A two-stage, countercurrent molten-salt extraction process was used to extract  $^{241}\text{Am}$  from many kilograms of aged plutonium, in which  $^{241}\text{Am}$  had grown-in by beta decay of  $^{241}\text{Pu}$ . The purification scheme removed about 90% of the

americium from plutonium metal, typically containing 200–2000 ppm  $^{241}\text{Am}$  (Schulz, 1976).

Mullins and Leary (1969) patented a method of separating americium from plutonium that involves bubbling a mixture of oxygen and argon gas into a molten salt containing both elements. Plutonium precipitates as  $\text{PuO}_2$ , whereas americium remains in solution.

Ferris *et al.* (1972) determined the equilibrium distribution of americium (and other transuranium elements) between liquid bismuth and molten  $\text{LiCl}$ ,  $\text{LiBr}$ , and several  $\text{LiF}$ – $\text{BeF}_2$ – $\text{ThF}_4$  solutions at temperatures of 600–750°C. Some of the americium appeared to be in the divalent state in the  $\text{Am}/\text{PuCl}_3$  system (Mullins and Leary, 1969). The distribution coefficient,  $D = (\text{g Am per g metal phase})/(\text{g Am per g salt phase})$ , of americium between molten aluminum metal and molten  $\text{AlCl}_3$ – $\text{KCl}$  is 1.96 (Moore and Lyon, 1959). Mills and Reese (1994) demonstrated that  $^{241}\text{Am}$  in aged  $\text{PuF}_4$  can be cleanly separated from plutonium by low-temperature reaction with  $\text{O}_2\text{F}$  to generate volatile  $\text{PuF}_6$ . Americium remains in the fluorination residue from which it can be recovered and concentrated by any of the several aqueous methods.

As part of their comprehensive experimental and theoretical studies of the partitioning of actinides from high-level radioactive fuel reprocessing aqueous waste, Japanese scientists, in collaboration with some US investigators, have been developing a pyrometallurgical partition process (Sakamura *et al.*, 1998). The process consists of four main steps: (1) denitration of the HLW; (2) chlorination to convert oxides to chlorides; (3) reductive extraction to reduce actinides in a molten salt by lithium metal and to extract them into liquid cadmium; and (4) electrorefining in  $\text{LiCl}$ – $\text{KCl}$  eutectic to separate actinides from the liquid cadmium anode. Preliminary experimental tests of the entire process show that uranium, plutonium, and neptunium are relatively easily separated from fission product rare earths but that americium is accompanied by some rare earth elements. In related theoretical studies of actinide partitioning technology, Yamana and Moriyama (1996) concluded that it may be feasible to separate americium and curium from lanthanide elements by electrolytic amalgamation techniques.

#### 8.4.2 Precipitation processes

Initially, only precipitation processes were available for recovery and purification of americium. Later, new ion-exchange and solvent extraction processes largely, but not completely, supplanted the early precipitation recovery/purification processes. Because of their insolubility and other special properties precipitation of certain compounds of americium, e.g.  $\text{AmF}_3$ ,  $\text{K}_8\text{Am}_2(\text{SO}_4)_7$ ,  $\text{Am}_2(\text{C}_2\text{O}_4)_3$ ,  $\text{K}_3\text{AmO}_2(\text{CO}_3)_3$ , is routinely considered for recovery or purification of a batch of americium. The latter two compounds are useful because oxalate ion prevents certain impurities from accompanying americium in the

precipitate and, also, because americium oxalate is a convenient starting point for preparation of  $\text{AmO}_2$ . The insoluble  $\text{Am}(\text{v})$  carbonate complex is particularly useful for the large-scale separation of americium from curium (Buijs *et al.*, 1973; King *et al.*, 1973).

Hermann (1956) demonstrated that a substantial separation of americium from lanthanum can be obtained by fractional precipitation of americium and lanthanum oxalates. The precipitation is effected in homogeneous solution; the precipitant is generated by slow hydrolysis of dimethyl oxalate. The oxalate precipitate is greatly enriched in americium; about 50% of the lanthanum can be rejected at each stage with only about 4% of the americium.

Stephanou and Penneman (1952) found that  $\text{Cm}(\text{III})$  could be separated from americium by oxidizing the latter to  $\text{Am}(\text{VI})$  with potassium persulfate and precipitating  $\text{CmF}_3$ ;  $\text{Am}(\text{VI})$  is soluble under these conditions. Proctor and Connor (1970) at the US DOE Rocky Flats site used precipitation of cerium peroxide to separate gram quantities of americium from cerium. Proctor (1976) also separated  $\text{Am}(\text{VI})$  from large quantities of rare earths by precipitation of their trifluorides.

Bhanushali *et al.* (1999) have recently proposed a new application of oxalate precipitation technology for separation of americium. Based on some experimental data, these workers suggest that traces of americium and plutonium remaining in the aqueous waste generated during plant-scale precipitation of plutonium oxalate can be effectively removed by simple coprecipitation with thorium oxalate. It is not known if such a coprecipitation step has been incorporated into routine processing of plutonium in India.

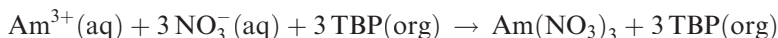
### 8.4.3 Solvent extraction processes

Solvent extraction processes and systems using amine and organophosphorus compounds are extensively used for the initial recovery and separation of gram to kilogram amounts of americium. Excellent reviews of the solvent extraction chemistry of trivalent americium have been published by Weaver (1974) and Shoun and McDowell (1980). Myasoedov *et al.* (1974a) discussed solvent extraction systems useful for the analysis of americium.

#### (a) Organophosphorus extractants (Gureev *et al.*, 1970)

##### (i) *Tri-n-butyl phosphate (TBP)*

TBP is the extractant in widest use for nuclear fuel processing. Extraction of  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  from nitrate media by TBP conforms to the reaction (Weaver, 1974):



The equilibrium constant,  $K_{\text{ex}} = [\text{Am}(\text{NO}_3)_3 \cdot 3\text{TBP}]/[\text{Am}^{3+}][\text{NO}_3^-]^3[\text{TBP}]^3$ , has the value of 0.4 at zero ionic strength (Zemlyanukhin *et al.*, 1962). While

TBP, even undiluted, extracts americium only weakly from strong nitric acid solutions, americium is extracted by TBP quite strongly from neutral (or low-acid), highly salted nitrate solutions.

As part of their intensive effort to develop feasible partitioning–transmutation technologies, Kamashida and his coworkers investigated TBP extraction of Am(VI) from nuclear reactor fuel reprocessing solutions (Kamashida and Fukasawa, 1996; Kamashida *et al.*, 1998) as a means of removal of americium while separating it from associated trivalent rare earths (good separation of americium from rare earth elements is desirable/necessary to make efficient use of neutrons in the transmutation process). In these studies, Am(VI) was produced by oxidation of Am(III) with silver-catalyzed peroxydisulfate, both in the presence and absence of  $(\text{NH}_4)_{10}\text{P}_2\text{W}_{17}\text{O}_{61}$  added to stabilize americium in the hexavalent oxidation state. By use of neat TBP to extract Am(VI) from 1 M  $\text{HNO}_3$ , an americium distribution ratio as high as 4 was realized; the separation factor from Nd(III) was 50.

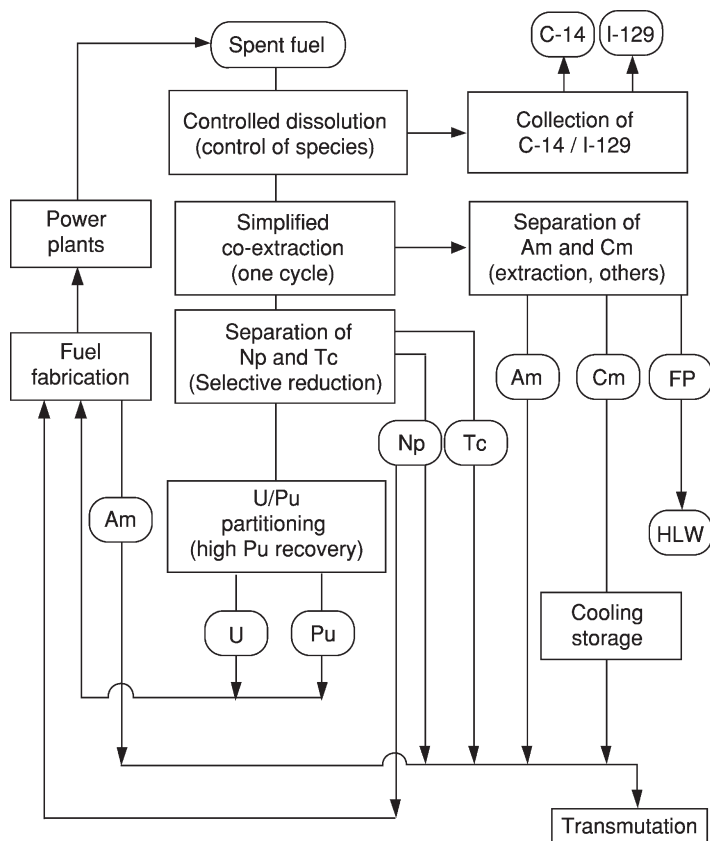


Fig. 8.1 Schematic of Japanese PARC process (Uchiyama *et al.*, 2000).



In other recent studies, Japanese scientists have developed an advanced Purex process, the PARtitioning Conundrum Key (PARC) process (Uchiyama *et al.*, 2000). Fig. 8.1 shows a schematic diagram of the PARC process concept where americium is not separated in the mainline Purex process, but from HLW generated in the Purex process. The PARC process thus provides for use of certain organic compounds to provide effective Purex process recovery and separation of uranium, neptunium, plutonium, and technetium. Uchiyama *et al.* (2000) conducted tests of parts of the PARC process with aqueous feeds resulting from nitric acid dissolution of highly irradiated (8000 MWD/tU) fuel. Important findings were:

- Np(vi) was reduced to Np(v) by *n*-butylaldehyde selectively in the presence of U(vi), Pu(vi), and Tc(vii);
- high acid scrubbing was effective for separation of technetium;
- isobutylaldehyde reduced Pu(iv) to Pu(iii) very effectively;
- *N*-butylamine compounds (carbonate and oxalate) were effective solvent-washing agents.

The French, as stated earlier, are energetically pursuing the partitioning–transmutation alternative for their Purex process HLW. Apparently for proprietary reasons, they have not widely publicized their progress. However, a recent article (NN, 2002) states: “... the Marcoule team have been able to push the current Purex processing technique to enable about 99% of uranium, plutonium, and the minor actinides of most concern, which are neptunium, americium, and curium to be isolated. The separation levels of the main long-lived fission products, which include iodine-129, technetium-99, and cesium-135, are equally impressive. The yields of iodine and technetium extracted are 95 and 90%, respectively. The process for separating cesium is nearing fruition, and technical feasibility is also expected by 2005. These levels of separation provide important benefits as the resulting vitrified waste contains fewer long-lived isotopes. According to the CEA, the radioisotopes of the advanced vitrified product – referred to as ‘light glass’ – will drop to the level of natural uranium in less than 300 years. This compares to more than 10000 years for the current vitrified HLW and hundreds of thousands for spent fuel.” The article in *Nuclear News* does not provide any detail as to the Purex process modifications used to separate americium; it may be, just as in the Japanese PARC process, that the French plan to recover americium from the Purex process HLW by any of several available procedures.

It should be noted that formation constants of complexes formed by Am(iii) with aminopolycarboxylic acids are larger than for the comparable complexes of the light lanthanides ( $Z = 57–61$ ). Thus, addition of an aminopolycarboxylic acid to a lithium or aluminum nitrate solution containing Am(iii) and rare earth enhances TBP extraction of the lanthanides relative to americium (Koehly and Hoffert, 1967). Americium can be separated from rare earths by TBP extraction from 1 M ammonium thiocyanate solution (Penneman and Keenan, 1960).

The mechanism of Am(III) and Eu(III) extraction from 1 M ammonium thiocyanate media by TBP in both the presence and the absence of a quaternary ammonium thiocyanate compound was investigated by Indian scientists (Khopkar and Narayanikutty, 1971).

(ii) *Dibutyl butylphosphonate (DBBP)*

DBBP,  $(C_4H_9O)_2(C_4H_9)PO$ , extracts Am(III) from nitrate media more strongly than TBP and was used in a production-scale process at the US DOE Hanford site for several years (Schulz, 1976).

(iii) *Trialkylphosphine oxides (TRPO)*

It is well known that the basicity of the P–O functionality increases in going from alkyl phosphates (e.g. TBP) to alkyl phosphonates (e.g. DBBP) to alkylphosphine oxides (e.g. TRPO). Corresponding to the increased basicity is increased extractive power for trivalent actinides, e.g. Am(III) and Cm(III) from aqueous 1–2 M  $HNO_3$  solutions. Chinese investigators have made use of the extractive power of TRPOs to develop a process for partitioning actinides, including americium and curium, from acidic Purex process HLW (Zhu and Jiao, 1994). Most of the results of Zhu *et al.* have been published in Chinese language journals, which, apparently, have not been translated into readily available English versions. Zhu and Jiao (1994) presented an admirable English language summary of their work up to 1994. They used a 30 vol% TRPO–kerosene solvent to extract trivalent (Am, Cm, lanthanides), tetravalent (Np, Pu), and hexavalent (U) actinides from both synthetic and actual Purex process HLW adjusted to about 1 M  $HNO_3$ . These experimenters used a mixture of  $C_6$ – $C_8$  alkylphosphine oxides available commercially (at least in the early 1990s) from operation of a fertilizer manufacturing plant. Zhu and coworkers found their particular 30% TRPO reagent to be very effective in extracting over 99% of all the actinides and lanthanides from the adjusted HLW. Extracted actinides could be stripped successively with 5.5 M  $HNO_3$ , 0.6 M oxalic acid, and 5%  $Na_2CO_3$  solution to yield Am + rare earth, Np + Pu, and U fractions, respectively. Auxiliary experiments showed the TRPO solvent to have excellent actinide extraction kinetics and to be quite resistant to radiolytic degradation. Their highly successful batch and continuous countercurrent extraction–stripping tests led the Chinese to believe (at least in 1994) that their TRPO extractant was eminently suited for use in plant-scale partitioning of actinides from Chinese defense HLW. We, the authors, were not able to establish the present status of development/utilization of the Chinese TRPO extraction process.

Very recently, Murali and Mathur in India revisited use of TRPO for partitioning actinides from Purex process HLW (Murali and Mathur, 2001). They used a 30 vol% solution of a commercially available mixture of alkyl TRPOs (Cyanex-923) in dodecane. Cyanex-923 (Cytec Canada, Inc.) is a mixture of

four alkylphosphine oxides,  $R_3PO$ ,  $R'_3PO$ ,  $R_2R'PO$ ,  $RR'_2PO$ ;  $R$  = hexyl and  $R'$  = octyl. (Murali and Mathur point out that Cyanex-923 is not the same mixture of alkylphosphine oxides used earlier by the Chinese investigators.) With dodecane as the diluent, the Indian investigators found it necessary to add TBP (5–20 vol%) to the Cyanex-923-dodecane solvent to avoid formation of a third phase even after adjusting the HLW acidity to 1 M  $HNO_3$ . Under the latter conditions, Murali and Mathur were able to both successfully extract and strip actinides, including americium, from synthetic Purex process HLW. Despite this successful performance, Murali and Mathur judged, "... the TRUEX solvent (0.2 M CMPO + 1.2 M TBP in dodecane) seems to be a superior extractant for partitioning of minor actinides from HLW solutions as there is no need for any feed adjustment and it tolerates significant amounts of sulfate, fluoride, and oxalate anions." (The TRUEX process is discussed in the later part of Section 8.4.3.)

(iv) *Bis(2-ethylhexyl)phosphoric acid (HDEHP)*

HDEHP is an excellent extractant for Am(III) from certain aqueous solutions. This extractant is commercially available in large quantities, can be readily purified, and has been widely used for both analytical purposes and plant-scale recovery and purification of americium (Peppard *et al.*, 1958, 1962; Gureev *et al.*, 1964). A countercurrent HDEHP extraction process was used at the DOE Hanford site in the late 1960s as part of the processing sequence for recovering and purifying 1 kg of americium and 50 g of curium from irradiated Shippingport reactor fuel (Boldt and Ritter, 1969). An HDEHP batch extraction–strip process (Cleanex process) was routinely used in the Transuranium Processing Plant at the DOE Oak Ridge National Laboratory to reclaim americium, curium, and other transuranium elements from rework solution and/or to convert from nitrate to chloride media (Bigelow *et al.*, 1980). The Talspeak HDEHP processes are based upon the results of Weaver and Kappelmann (1964) who were the first to show that HDEHP extracts lanthanides much more strongly than actinides from aqueous carboxylic acid solutions containing an aminopolycarboxylic acid chelating agent. Lactic acid is used to avoid precipitation of solids when the concentration of lanthanides is high. HDEHP solutions have been used to selectively extract Am(VI) from Cm(III) (Musikas *et al.*, 1980a); in such systems rapid reduction of Am(VI) to lower oxidation states is a problem.

Extraction of Am(III) is very sensitive to the nature of compounds used to dilute the HDEHP (Gureev *et al.*, 1964). The kinetics of Am(III) extraction by HDEHP solutions were studied by Choppin and Nash (1977). In 1998, Indian scientists (Mapara *et al.*, 1998) studied solvent extraction of Am(III) from aqueous 0.1–1.0 M  $HNO_3$  solutions using both HDEHP and 2-ethylhexyl phosphonic acid (PC88a in their notation). Before use, 1 M solutions of both extractants in kerosene were partially neutralized (saponified) to varying degrees with NaOH. In agreement with previously well-known chemistry of

HDEHP and PC88a, Am(III) extraction increased as more and more of the acidic extractant was converted to the sodium form.

(v) *Diisodecylphosphoric acid (DIDPA)*

Morita, Kubota, and other Japanese scientists (Morita and Kubota, 1988; Morita *et al.*, 1993) closely examined properties of solutions of DIDPA for extraction of actinides from acidic Purex process HLW. DIDPA solutions extract hexavalent (U) and tetravalent (Pu, Np) actinides quite efficiently from 1 to 3 M HNO<sub>3</sub> media. (Before extraction of <sup>237</sup>Np, however, it must be first reduced to Np(IV) by reduction of Np(V) and Np(VI) with hydrogen peroxide.) But, a disadvantage of the DIDPA extraction technique is that trivalent americium and curium do not extract well at feed acidities much above about 0.5 M HNO<sub>3</sub>. Once extracted, Am(III) and Cm(III) can be selectively stripped with a diethylenetriaminepentaacetic acid (DTPA) solution; lanthanides can be easily stripped with 4 M HNO<sub>3</sub>; and plutonium and neptunium can be removed from the organic phase by stripping with an aqueous oxalic acid solution. Japanese tests, both batch and countercurrent, of the DIDPA process with simulated Purex process HLW were generally regarded as successful.

(vi) *Neutral multifunctional organophosphorus and carbamoylphosphonate reagents*

Monofunctional organophosphorus extractants, e.g. TBP, DBBP, tri-*n*-octylphosphine oxide (TOPO), do not extract Am(III) from strongly acidic (>1 M HNO<sub>3</sub>) aqueous solutions. Such behavior is desirable when the goal decades ago was to separate and purify plutonium and uranium from nitric acid solutions of irradiated nuclear fuel, e.g. the Purex process. But, evolving nuclear waste management strategies and policies have driven an urgent need for liquid-liquid extraction agents and processes capable of effective recovery and/or removal of Am(III) and Cm(III) as well as actinides in the +4 and +6 oxidation states from strong nitric acid medium. Thus, in the USA in the 1970s and 1980s there was an economic incentive to convert so-called transuranic acidic waste solutions containing <sup>241</sup>Am and various other actinides, chiefly plutonium, to low-level waste, which could be disposed of inexpensively. And, of course, the emergence of the partitioning-transmutation philosophy for advanced nuclear waste management and disposal places a premium on solvent extraction technology for efficient removal of trivalent actinides from acidic HLW solutions.

In the early 1960s, Siddall (1963, 1964) opened the door to the desired practical solvent extraction schemes for extraction of trivalent americium and curium from concentrated nitric acid solutions. Siddall in his papers noted that certain bifunctional organophosphorus reagents, e.g. diphosphonates and carbamoylmethylphosphonates (CMPs), i.e. compounds of the type (R<sub>1</sub>O)<sub>2</sub>P(O)—(CH<sub>2</sub>)<sub>*n*</sub>—(O)C—N—(R<sub>2</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, were especially effective in extracting trivalent actinides and lanthanides from strong nitric acid solutions.

Siddall's highly significant work lay buried in the literature until resurrected by Schulz and coworkers (Schulz, 1974, 1975; McIsaac and Schulz, 1976; Schulz and Navratil, 1982) in the early and middle 1970s. Both Schulz at the US DOE Hanford site and McIsaac at the US DOE Idaho site were motivated to develop solvent extraction processes for removing Am(III) and Pu(IV) from certain site acid waste solutions to convert the large volumes of these wastes to more easily managed and disposed of low-level wastes.

Based upon Siddall's data, both Schulz and McIsaac elected to use dihexyl-*N,N*-diethylcarbamoymethyl phosphonate (DHDECMP) as the extractant for Am(III) and 4+ and 6+ actinides. Siddall's results indicated that CMPs were better extracting agents for 3+ actinides than diphosphonates. Another candidate, dibutyl-*N,N*-diethylcarbamoymethylphosphonate, was rejected for use because of its high solubility in aqueous phases. Finally, of considerable significance, DHDECMP was available in liter quantities, albeit in a highly impure state (50–70% DHDECMP), from the Wateree Chemical Co. in South Carolina.

Batch tests with the impure DHDECMP solvent at both the Hanford and the Idaho sites quickly confirmed Siddall's results and demonstrated that this particular reagent would indeed permit efficient removal of all actinides from actual candidate acidic wastes. Auxiliary tests soon showed DHDECMP were sufficiently resistant to radiolysis, both alpha and gamma, to have a long useful life in plant-scale continuous countercurrent operations, especially in short residence time contacting equipment. Kinetics of actinide extraction and stripping were sufficiently rapid for satisfactory operation of continuous countercurrent contactors. The propensity of 20–30 vol% DHDECMP–NPH (normal paraffin hydrocarbon) solvents to form a third phase (second organic phase) when contacted with some acidic (HNO<sub>3</sub>) waste solutions was overcome by either changing to an aromatic diluent, e.g. tetrachlorobenzene or decalin, or substituting TBP for a large portion of the NPH diluent. All the batch contact experiments culminated in chemical flowsheets (extraction–scrub–strip) that were very successfully demonstrated with both actual Idaho and Hanford sites acid waste solutions.

The only serious discordant note observed in tests with the impure Wateree Chemical Co. DHDECMP arose in attempts to use very dilute, e.g. ~0.01 M HNO<sub>3</sub> solutions to selectively strip 3+ actinides and lanthanides from pregnant organic phases. With as-received DHDECMP extractant  $D_{Am}$  instead of decreasing regularly upon successive strip contacts actually increased, resulting in a certain fraction of unstrippable americium. Such behavior is very symptomatic of the presence of an acidic organic compound in an otherwise neutral extractant. To overcome the deleterious effects of the acidic organic impurity, the 20–30 vol% DHDECMP solvent, before use, was subjected to various empirical chemical treatments designed to remove or at least reduce the concentration of the impurity, e.g. washing with ethylene glycol or alternate washing with HCl and NaOH solutions to hydrolyze the organic impurity. These

chemical treatments, although cumbersome, removed enough of the offending impurity to allow successful selective stripping of americium in continuous countercurrent flowsheet tests.

Tetravalent actinides and, if not previously removed, trivalent actinides were easily and effectively stripped from the DHDECMP phase with aqueous solutions containing fluoride or oxalate ions. And, as would be expected, dilute NaOH solutions effectively removed all 3+, 4+, and 6+ actinides from the DHDECMP solvent.

Following publication of the Schulz and McIsaac work, many other investigators, both in and outside the USA, conducted comprehensive experimental studies with DHDECMP and various other CMP-type reagents (Martella and Navratil, 1979; Petrzilova *et al.*, 1979; Horwitz *et al.*, 1981; Kalina *et al.*, 1981b; Hugen *et al.*, 1982; McIsaac, 1982; McIsaac and Baker, 1983; Kalina and Horwitz, 1985; Mathur *et al.*, 1991, 1992b). Indeed, as late as 1994, long after the TRUEX process had been proposed (cf. Section 8.4.3a(vi)), Rapko and Lumetta (1994) were still investigating use of a 0.75 M DHDECMP–1.05 M TBP/NPH solvent for extracting U(vi), Pu(iv), and Am(III), as well as competing metal ions, e.g. Fe(III), Zr(iv), from nitric acid solutions. And, in the late 1980s DHDECMP-based flowsheets were still under consideration for removal of all actinides from the DOE Idaho site sodium-bearing waste. Most of the work with CMP-based reagents after the early Schulz and McIsaac studies were done with DHDECMP; some investigators, however, synthesized various other CMP-type compounds to investigate their capability for extracting 3+ as well as 4+ and 6+ actinides from various acid waste solutions.

As discussed in the next section, CMP processes for efficient extraction of Am(III) and other actinides from acidic media have been supplanted and superseded by advanced organophosphorus reagent technology. Even so, the significance of the pioneering work of Schulz and McIsaac cannot be overstated. Through their efforts, scientists and engineers throughout the world became aware of Siddall's papers and the great potential of multifunctional organophosphorus reagents in actinide separation and recovery from many other sources.

#### *Carbamoylphosphine oxide reagents*

“CMPO” is a generic acronym for any carbamoylmethylenephosphine oxide. CMPO is also used here and elsewhere in the literature to denote one particular compound, namely, octylphenyl-*N,N*-diisobutylmethylenecarbamoylphosphine oxide,  $(C_8H_{17})(C_6H_5)P(O)-CH_2-(O)C-N-N-(iC_4H_9)_2$ . The actinide separation community is indebted to Dr E. P. Horwitz and his colleagues for their innovative efforts in initially synthesizing this particular CMPO and in evaluating many of its outstanding properties.

Being familiar with the Schulz and McIsaac results with DHDECMP (Section 8.4.3a(vi)), and having worked with this carbamoylphosphonate, Horwitz was motivated to find an improved trivalent actinide extractant with the following highly desirable attributes:

- Greatly increased capability for extracting 3+ actinides.
- Ease of synthesis of high-purity reagent.
- Increased solubility/compatibility with straight-chain hydrocarbon diluents.
- Excellent chemical and radiolytic stability.
- Suitability of extractant-diluent(s) solution for use in centrifugal contactors.
- Satisfactory selectivity for actinide and lanthanide extraction from aqueous media.

Horwitz's aspirations were essentially realized with the synthesis of the octylphenyl CMPO compound and the many successful tests of this reagent.

Gatrone and coworkers (Gatrone and Rickert, 1987; Gatrone *et al.*, 1987, 1989) published complete details of the synthesis of CMPO via a Grignard reaction. The crude CMPO product from the Grignard synthesis contains one or more acidic organophosphorus impurities that seriously interfere with the use of dilute nitric acid solutions to strip trivalent actinides and lanthanides. After testing various purification schemes, Gatrone and coworkers concluded that the most effective way to remove the offending acidic compounds was to first contact a heptane solution of the CMPO with 50 g L<sup>-1</sup> of a macroporous cation-exchange resin at 50°C and then, without removing the cation resin, contact the heptane-CMPO solution with 50 g L<sup>-1</sup> of a macroporous anion-exchange resin. This procedure, which Gatrone and his collaborators believe is generic and applicable to removal of acidic compounds from any neutral organophosphorus extractant, yields solvent extraction-grade CMPO, i.e.  $D_{Am} = <0.02$  in 0.01 M HNO<sub>3</sub>/CMPO.

Many different diluents have been used in bench-scale studies of the extraction properties of solvent extraction-grade CMPO. Candidate diluents used at one time or another include aromatic (decalin), chlorinated (tetrachloroethylene), and aliphatic (dodecane) commercially available mixtures of C<sub>10</sub>-C<sub>12</sub> NPHs. For plant-scale application of CMPO a mixture of NPHs is the preferred diluent. However, HNO<sub>3</sub> and metal nitrates, e.g. lanthanide nitrates, have only a very limited solubility in CMPO/NPH solutions; once the solubility limit is exceeded, the organic phase splits into two phases (familiar third-phase formation phenomenon). Horwitz *et al.* (1985b) found that a simple and highly effective way to avoid the complications of a third-phase formation is to dilute the CMPO extractant with Purex process solvent to yield, for example, a 0.2 M CMPO/1.2 M TBP/dodecane solution. This solvent composition allows the CMPO fraction to be loaded to near theoretical capacity with trivalent lanthanides without causing a second organic phase to form. And, of course, an added advantage of the latter solvent composition is that its physical properties are little changed from those of familiar Purex process solvent and, therefore, no mechanical difficulties are encountered in operating centrifugal (or other) contactors with the CMPO/TBP/dodecane (or NPH) solvent. Horwitz and

coworkers (Kalina *et al.*, 1981a; Horwitz *et al.*, 1982, 1985b, 1986; Horwitz and Kalina, 1984; Kolarik and Horwitz, 1988), as well as many other investigators (Liansheng *et al.*, 1991; Mathur *et al.*, 1992a; Rapko, 1995), conducted comprehensive bench-scale studies to establish the extractive properties of CMPO/TBP/diluent solvents for many different metal ions over a wide range of conditions. Most of these studies were concerned with the extraction of actinides and other metal ions from nitrate-based aqueous media with CMPO/TBP/dodecane (or NPH) solvent, but some work has been done with aqueous HCl solutions (Horwitz *et al.*, 1987). All these bench-scale studies confirmed that the CMPO/TBP/diluent mixture would efficiently extract trivalent actinides and lanthanides as well as 4+ and 6+ actinides from almost any strong, i.e. ca. 1 M, nitric acid solution. Indeed, the more or less constant distribution ratio values for Am(III), Pu(IV), and U(VI) between 1 and 6 M HNO<sub>3</sub> is a very valuable and unique aspect of the CMPO/TBP system.

While the lanthanides and actinides are extracted almost quantitatively by CMPO/TBP/diluent solutions, with only a few exceptions most common metal ions in nuclear waste solutions are not extracted by the CMPO reagent (Horwitz *et al.*, 1985b). Not unexpectedly, Zr(IV) is significantly extracted ( $D_{Zr} = \sim 1-3$ ) by CMPO/TBP/diluent solution from aqueous 1 M HNO<sub>3</sub>. Zirconium is one of the major constituents of the DOE Idaho site waste; this particular waste also contains large concentrations of fluoride ion, which, fortunately, greatly inhibits CMPO extraction of inert zirconium (McIsaac and Baker, 1983). Paralleling known Purex process experience, <sup>99</sup>Tc, if present, is also well extracted ( $D_{Tc} = 1-3$ ) from nitric acid feed solutions as the HTcO<sub>4</sub> species. (Technetium largely remains in the CMPO phase during actinide scrubbing and stripping stages and is removed when the CMPO phase is washed with alkaline carbonate solutions to remove degradation and other species.) Other metallic contaminants of some interest ( $D_M = 0.1-0.6$ ) include Mo, Ru, Pd, Ag, and Fe; these constituents are present in nearly all nuclear waste solutions that contain Am and other actinides. Adequate separation of actinides from the latter metal ions in CMPO extraction systems can be controlled by adding oxalic acid to the feed solution and/or by scrubbing the CMPO extract with a dilute oxalic solution before stripping of actinides.

To strip actinides from the CMPO/diluent or, more commonly, CMPO/TBP/NPH phase, conventional practice is to selectively strip, in order, 3+ actinides and lanthanides, 4+, and, if present, 6+ actinides. For this order of actinide stripping, preferred reagents (Mathur *et al.*, 2001) are, respectively, dilute nitric acid, e.g. <0.05 M HNO<sub>3</sub>; a dilute oxalic acid, dilute ammonium oxalate, or a mixture of HF and HNO<sub>3</sub>, e.g. 0.05 M HNO<sub>3</sub>/0.05 M HF; and dilute sodium carbonate, e.g. 0.25 M Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>. Sodium carbonate solutions do double duty and also act as a solvent cleanup reagent to remove solvent degradation products. But, in the case where it is desired to strip all the 3+, 4+, and 6+ actinides and lanthanides into a single aqueous phase, Horwitz and Schulz (1990) recommended use of a solution of either vinylidene-1,1-diphosphonic acid (VDPA)



or 1-hydroxyethylene-1,1-diphosphonic acid (HEDPA). Also, in a novel approach, Rizvi and Mathur (1997) utilized the ferrocyanide ion to co-strip actinides and lanthanides from CMPO phases. Other stripping agent studies of interest are those of Chitnis *et al.* (1998, 1999) who used a mixture of formic acid, hydrazine hydrate, and citric acid to remove Am(III) and Pu(IV) from CMPO solutions. Finally, Ozawa *et al.* (1998) reported that a mixture of hydrazine oxalate, hydrazine carbonate, and tetramethylammonium hydroxide will selectively strip 3+, 4+, and 6+ actinides from CMPO extractants.

A matter of concern for any liquid-liquid extraction process, especially one dealing with radionuclides, is the resistance of the extractant and its diluents to chemical and radiolytic degradation. Five separate studies (Chiarizia and Horwitz, 1986, 1990; Nash *et al.*, 1988, 1989; Mathur *et al.*, 1998) addressed this concern for CMPO extraction systems. Three of these investigations were concerned only with CMPO/TBP/dodecane solvents while two (Chiarizia and Horwitz, 1986; Nash *et al.*, 1988) also addressed radiolysis of CMPO diluted with decalin or tetrachloroethylene. Test solvents were irradiated both neat and while in contact with aqueous nitric acid solutions. Although results varied to some degree with the reagent used to dilute the CMPO and TBP, the general degradation behavior of CMPO/TBP/diluent solvent was independent of the nature of the diluent. Thus, the general degradation behavior is that chemical hydrolysis produces only acidic degradation products while radiolysis generates both neutral and acidic organophosphorus compounds.

The neutral organophosphorus degradation products of CMPO serve only as diluents for CMPO and TBP. But the acidic radiolytic degradation products are highly troublesome because they seriously interfere with stripping of Am(III) by dilute (<0.05 M HNO<sub>3</sub>) solutions. Mathur *et al.* (2001) have published an excellent table, based on data obtained by Mathur *et al.* (1998) that illustrates very markedly the increase in the distribution ratio for Am(III) at 0.04 M nitric acid upon irradiation of a 0.2 M CMPO/1.2 M TBP/dodecane solvent to a total absorbed dose of 26–28 Mrad. According to these data, up to a dose of about 20 Mrad the distribution ratio of Am(III) at 0.04 M nitric acid is less than 1 and, hence, stripping with 0.04 M nitric acid should still be possible. Also, up to a dose of about 20 Mrad washing the spent solvent with a dilute sodium carbonate solution will remove most of the acidic degradation products. But, at higher absorbed radiation doses, in addition to sodium carbonate washing, it is necessary to provide a secondary solvent cleanup step, i.e. treatment with macroporous anion and cation-exchange resins or treatment with basic alumina.

In 1985, Horwitz and his collaborators (Horwitz and Schulz, 1985, 1986, 1990, 1999; Horwitz *et al.*, 1985a,b; Schulz and Horwitz, 1988) proposed a generic actinide solvent extraction process, the TRUEX process (Table 8.2) based on the superior properties of CMPO to remove all 3+, 4+, and 6+ actinides from any nitrate-based aqueous nuclear waste solution. The generic

**Table 8.2** Applications of the TRUEX process.

<i>Year</i>	<i>Country</i>	<i>References</i>	<i>TRUEX process application/demonstration</i>
1985	USA	[1]	Removal of Am and Pu from Hanford complexant concentrate waste
1985	USA	[1]	Removal of Am and other actinides from Hanford single-shell tank sludges
1985–1991	USA	[2]	Removal of Am and other actinides from Hanford neutralized cladding removal waste
1988	USA	[3]	Removal Am and Pu from Hanford plutonium finishing plant waste
1988–1989	Italy	[4]	Removal of actinides from MOX fuel fabrication waste and waste from analytical laboratories
1992–1998	Japan	[5]	Removal of actinides from actual Purex process high-level waste
1993–1998	India	[6]	Removal of actinides (Am, Cm, Pu, Np, U) from synthetic pressurized water reactor reprocessing Purex process waste
1993–1998	India	[6]	Removal of actinides (Am, Cm, Pu, Np, U) from synthetic Purex process sulfate-bearing high-level waste (SBHLW)
1994–2000	India	[7]	Recovery of Pu and U from oxalate precipitation process waste
1997	USA	[8]	Removal of actinides from actual Argonne National Laboratory analytical wastes
1998	USA	[9]	Removal of actinides from Idaho site actual sodium-bearing waste
1998	USA	[10]	Removal of actinides from actual dissolved Idaho site calcine waste

[1] (Horwitz *et al.*, 1985b); [2] (Swanson, 1991; Lumetta and Swanson, 1993a,b); [3] (Schulz and Horwitz, 1988); [4] (Casarci *et al.*, 1988, 1989); [5] (Ozawa *et al.*, 1992, 1998); [6] (Deshingkar *et al.*, 1993, 1994; Chitnis *et al.*, 1998); [7] (Mathur *et al.*, 1994; Michael *et al.*, 2000); [8] (Chamberlain *et al.*, 1997); [9] (Law *et al.*, 1998a); [10] (Law *et al.*, 1998b).

TRUEX process, which utilizes a nominal 0.2 M CMPO/1.05 M TBP/dodecane (or other NPH-type diluent) solvent, is intended for use in short residence time centrifugal contactors. It typically comprises four separate operations: extraction, scrubbing of the organic phase, one or more stripping steps, and solvent cleanup. The users of the TRUEX process are free to specify whatever the number of extraction stages and organic-to-aqueous phase flow ratios are required to provide the required degree of removal of Am(III) and other actinides. Similarly, the TRUEX process operator is responsible for choosing the number of scrub stages (if any) and the composition of scrub solution(s) needed to adequately remove any co-extracted impurities, e.g. Zr(IV). The generic TRUEX process allows, by choosing particular aqueous phase strip

compositions, either selective stripping of 3+, 4+, and 6+ actinides or stripping of combinations of actinides, e.g. 3+ and 4+ or 4+ and 6+. One or two contactor stages for washing the stripped TRUEX process solvent with a dilute sodium carbonate solution are typically included to remove solvent degradation products and any traces of metal ions. Investigators in several countries have conducted continuous countercurrent demonstrations of variations of the TRUEX process with actual radioactive waste solutions of interest to them: references cited in the following list should be consulted for further details:

For various reasons, including the prolonged Cold War syndrome, Russian scientists, largely independent of Western world progress, conducted extensive studies of the actinide extraction properties of multifunctional organophosphorus reagents (Myasoedov *et al.*, 1980, 1986; Chmutova *et al.*, 1983, 1989; Myasoedov and Lebedev, 1991). A recent review paper by Myasoedov (1994) is of special interest. The Russian version of the American TRUEX process utilizes diphenyl-*N,N*-dibutylcarbamoylmethylenephosphine oxide dissolved in a commercially available (at least in Russia) fluoroether diluent (Fluoropol 732). According to Russian investigators, use of the fluoroether diluent eliminates any need to dilute the diphenyl CMPO with TBP to avoid third-phase formation; but others (Horwitz and Schulz, 1999) have expressed concern that diluent degradation under plant-scale conditions could lead to undue formation of corrosive HF. The Russian transuranium element extraction process behaves very similarly (Myasoedov, 1994) to the TRUEX process in its efficiency for extracting trivalent americium; in continuous countercurrent tests of the process in centrifugal extractors greater than 99.5% of the actinide elements in the aqueous feed were removed. In addition to the possibility of excessive generation of HF, other possible limitations to the Russian process include difficult americium stripping because of the need to use a very low concentration of nitric acid in the aqueous strip solution and complex solvent cleanup before reuse of the solvent (Horwitz and Schulz, 1999). In addition to the americium extraction results discussed earlier in Section 8.4.3a, certain other, more academically oriented studies of the extraction characteristics of novel phosphate-based reagents are of interest. For example, Paine and his research group (Bond *et al.*, 1997, 1998) investigated the extraction of Am(III) by 1,6-bis(diphenylphosphino)methyl-pyridine-*N,P,P'*-trioxide solutions from both hydrochloric and nitric acid media. And, Mishra *et al.* (1996) investigated the synergistic extraction of Am(III) by a mixture of Aliquat 336 and TOPO from acidic nitrate medium.

Rais and Tachimori (1994) studied the synergism in extraction and separation of Am(III) and Eu(III) in two systems: (1) dicarbollide anion and dibutyl-diethyl-carbamoylmethylenephosphonate (DBDECMP) and (2) dicarbollide anion and CMPO. Synergism was observed in both systems at low aqueous phase acidities but the effect was lower with CMPO than with DBDECMP.

Mohapatra and Manchanda (1995, 1999) reported on the unusual extraction behavior of Am(III) and  $\text{UO}_2^{2+}$  from aqueous picric acid solutions by TBP and TOPO extractants. Surprisingly, under these conditions, the organophosphorus compounds extract Am(III) better than the uranyl ion. Of course, from aqueous nitrate media, TBP and TOPO both extract U(VI) much better than Am(III). Mohapatra and Manchanda attribute the different extraction order from picric acid media to the formation of outer sphere rather than inner-sphere coordination complexes.

### (b) Amine extractants

Nitrogen-based extractants, especially tertiary amines and quaternary ammonium compounds, are particularly effective in separating and recovering americium and other actinide elements from aqueous media.

#### (i) Tertiary amine salts

Tertiary amine salts extract  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  poorly from concentrated nitric or hydrochloric acids but extract it very strongly from concentrated nitrate or chloride solutions of low acidity (Myasoedov *et al.*, 1974a). Marcus *et al.* (1963) and Horwitz *et al.* (1966) found that  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  is extracted from nitrate media as complex  $(\text{R}_3\text{NH})_2\text{Am}(\text{NO}_3)_5$ . A much more detailed account of the application of tertiary amine salts to extract americium is provided in Schulz (1976); indeed, essentially all the reported results obtained with tertiary amine salts in extraction of americium have been summarized in Schulz (1976).

#### (ii) Quaternary ammonium salts

Quaternary alkylammonium nitrate salts were shown by Horwitz *et al.* (1966) to extract  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  considerably more efficiently from low-acid, highly salted aqueous nitrate solutions than do tertiary alkylamines. The extraction sequence for trivalent actinides into either Aliquat 336 (a mixture of trioctylmethylammonium and tridecylmethylammonium salts made by General Mills, Inc.) nitrate or trilaurylmethylammonium nitrate is  $\text{Cm} < \text{Cf} < \text{Am} < \text{Es}$ . Horwitz *et al.* (1969) included an extraction step with Aliquat 336 in the preparation of 20–30 Ci of high-purity  $^{242}\text{Cm}$ . Koch and Schoen (Koch and Schoen, 1968; Koch, 1969) devised and tested on a laboratory scale a quaternary ammonium extraction process for the isolation of  $^{241}\text{Am}$  from aged plutonium scrap. Advantages of a quaternary ammonium nitrate extraction process over other schemes, e.g. Trames process, for isolating trivalent lanthanides and actinides were discussed by Moore (1966a). Finally, Moore (1964, 1966b) and later Gerontopoulos *et al.* (1965) found that the thiocyanate salt of Aliquat 336 preferentially extracts actinides over lanthanides in moderately concentrated  $\text{NH}_4\text{SCN}$  solutions.

### (c) Amide extraction reagents

Diamide extractants are generally organic compounds with the generic formula  $(R_1, R_2)N-C(O)-CR_3H-C(O)-N(R_1, R_2)$  where  $R_1$ ,  $R_2$ , and  $R_3$  are (typically) alkyl substituents. For various reasons, including doubtlessly their well-recognized nationalistic pride, French investigators have chosen to focus on diamides for possible application in partitioning of americium and other actinides from aqueous Purex process HLW vis-à-vis one of the more well-known and tested carbamoylphosphonates or phosphine oxides. Interestingly, various researchers including the French repeatedly extol the virtues of the carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen (CHON) principle, i.e. design and use of liquid-liquid extraction reagents that contain neither sulfur nor phosphorus. Supposedly, degraded CHON-type extractants would be easier to dispose of, e.g. incinerate, than spent extractants that contain phosphorus or sulfur; there are no economic or technical data and/or experience to support the latter claim.

Between 1987 and 2002, numerous diamide compounds have been synthesized and examined for their ability to extract actinides in various oxidation states from aqueous nitric acid solutions. Details and results of these studies were reported (Musikas and Hubert, 1983; Musikas, 1987, 1995; Charbonnel and Musikas, 1988; Cuillerdier *et al.*, 1991a,b, 1993; Musikas *et al.*, 1991; Baudin *et al.*, 1993; Madic *et al.*, 1994; Nigond *et al.*, 1994; Shen *et al.*, 1996; Tan *et al.*, 1999).

Currently, one diamide, namely, *N,N'*-dimethyl-*N,N'*-dibutyl-2-tetradecylmalonamide (DMDBTDMA) appears particularly suitable for use in plant-scale removal of actinides from Purex process HLW. In France DMDBTDMA has been chosen as the extractant in their DIAMEX process for partitioning of actinides from Purex process HLW. Experiments show that DMDBTDMA is soluble in dodecane and does not produce a third phase when dodecane solutions are contacted with 3–4 M  $HNO_3$ . Indian scientists (Mahajan *et al.*, 1998) have also studied DMDBTDMA extraction of Am(III), U(VI), Np(IV), Fe(III), Sr(II), and Cs(I) from various nitric acid solutions and also from a simulated HLW, which would result from reprocessing of commercial pressurized water reactor fuel. These latter experiments confirm that DMDBTDMA is very promising for extraction of Am(III) and other actinides from 3 to 4 M  $HNO_3$ , particularly under high solvent loadings of neodymium or neodymium plus uranium.

Even after two decades, diamide extraction of actinides from nitric acid media is a continuing fertile research area. For example, Spjuth *et al.* (2000) have recently prepared seven new malonamide extractants by placing phenyl substituents on the nitrogen atoms in the malonamide or an ether oxygen into the bridging chain. The basicity of such compounds is reported to be less than that of DMDBTDMA, which makes them slightly better extractants for Am(III).

Sasaki and Tachimori (2002) have recently synthesized diamide extractants that they term 'structurally tailored diamides.' The diamides investigated include  $(\text{CH}_2)_n\text{-(CONR}_1\text{R}_2)_2$  ( $n = 0, 1, 2,$  and  $3$ );  $\text{O-}((\text{CH}_2)_n\text{-CONR}_1\text{R}_2)_2$ ;  $\text{S-}((\text{CH}_2)_n\text{-CONR}_1\text{R}_2)_2$ ; and  $\text{SS-}((\text{CH}_2)_{n'}\text{-CONR}_1\text{R}_2)_2$ , ( $n', n'', n''' = 1, 2$ ). The diglycolamide introducing an ether oxygen into the main structure,  $\text{O-}(\text{CH}_2\text{-CONR}_1\text{R}_2)_2$ , exhibits the highest extractability for  $\text{Am(III)}$ ,  $\text{Am(IV)}$ , and  $\text{Am(VI)}$  compared with the other bidentate diamides. The results of Sasaki and Tachimori also demonstrated that the thioglycolamide, which substitutes an ether sulfur atom or oxygen in the molecule also enhances the extraction of actinides.

#### (d) Separation of americium from lanthanides

The challenge of separating  $\text{Am(III)}$  from trivalent lanthanides was first addressed and resolved by Weaver and Kappelmann (1964) as early as 1964. These investigators devised the Talspeak process that is based upon the fact that HDEHP solutions extract trivalent lanthanides much more strongly than trivalent actinides from aqueous carboxylic acid solutions containing an aminopolycarboxylic acid chelating agent.

A reverse Talspeak process involves, naturally, using an aqueous solution of an aminopolycarboxylic acid (e.g. DTPA) to preferentially strip  $\text{Am(III)}$  (and  $\text{Cm(III)}$  also if present) from an organic phase containing both trivalent actinides and lanthanides. In the DIDPA extraction process (Section 8.4.3a(v)) an aqueous lactic acid solution containing DTPA is used to strip trivalent americium and curium (Persson *et al.*, 1984); lanthanides remaining in the DIDPA phase are subsequently stripped with 4 M  $\text{HNO}_3$ .

In yet another application of the Talspeak process technology, the Japanese SETFICS (Solvent Extraction for Trivalent f elements Intragroup separation in CMPO-complexant System), a typical TRUEX process extraction stage, utilizes an aqueous 0.4 M  $\text{NaNO}_3$  solution containing DTPA (Koma *et al.*, 1998). In a countercurrent test of the SETFICS process with radioactive feed, the reported  $^{144}\text{Ce}/^{241}\text{Am}$  decontamination factor was 72.

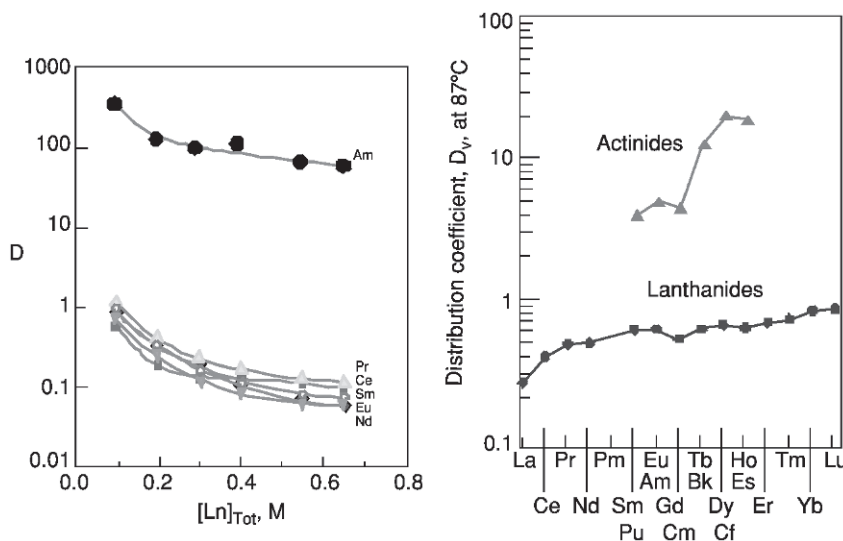
The renewed focus on partitioning-transmutation technology that began in the 1980s (and continues unabated to this day) prompted many new studies of technology for separation of trivalent actinides from trivalent lanthanides. (See the review of the subject of lanthanide/actinide separations (Nash, 1994).) The breakthrough to more efficient lanthanide/actinide separation technology originated with Musikas in France who pointed out that soft-donor extractant molecules containing nitrogen or sulfur functionalities offered great potential to achieve the desired separation (Musikas *et al.*, 1980b; Musikas, 1984). In work published in the late 1970s and mid-1980s, Musikas reported that an extractant consisting of tripyridyltriazene (TPTZ) and dinonylnaphthalene sulfonic acid (HDNNS) in carbon tetrachloride preferentially extracted  $\text{Am(III)}$  from a dilute nitric acid solution containing  $\text{Am(III)}$  and trivalent

lanthanides. In 1985, Musikas in his paper noted that the HDNNS could be replaced by bromocapric acid in an aliphatic hydrocarbon diluent.

Musikas' seminal work in the mid-1980s has triggered a cascade of studies of the ability of other nitrogen (and also sulfur)-containing extractants to provide separation of trivalent actinides from trivalent lanthanides. Noteworthy examples of such research efforts, not in chronological order, include work by Ensor and coworkers (Ensor *et al.*, 1988; Smith *et al.*, 1989), who used the synergistic combination of 4-benzoyl-2,3-dihydro-5-methyl-2-phenyl-3H-pyrazol-3-thione and 4,7-diphenyl-1,10-phenanthroline as an extractant to separate trivalent americium and europium, in the USA; Ensor *et al.* reported Am/Eu separation factors of greater than 10 with this synergistic combination of reagents. In Germany, Kolarik *et al.* (1999) investigated an extraction system based on polyaza ligands, e.g. 2,6-di-(5,6-dipropyl-1,2,4-triazin-3-yl) pyridenes for selective extraction of trivalent actinides from 1.9 M  $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3/\text{HNO}_3$  solutions. Kolarik *et al.* reported Am/Eu separation factors in the range 100–120. And, of course Madic and Hudson (1998) as late as 1998 were still investigating TPTZ extraction systems for separating trivalent actinides from associated lanthanides in France. Madic's latest efforts center around attempts to suppress the solubility of TPTZ in aqueous phases by placing alkyl substituents at the 2-pyridyl rings and in replacing bromocapric acid by other anion sources.

An effective nitrogen-based soft-donor extractant for separation of trivalent actinides and lanthanides clearly would adhere to the CHON principle. But, unfortunately, to date at least, research efforts from 1987 to 2002 do not appear to have yielded a nitrogen-based 3+ actinide extractant suitably effective and stable for use on a plant scale with radioactive aqueous nitrate media. Conversely, because of recent breakthrough research results obtained by Zhu and his coworkers, prospects for developing a sulfur-based soft-donor extractant (non-CHON-type) suitable for plant-scale application appear to be reasonably good. In 1996, Zhu and coworkers reported that the compound bis(2,3,4-trimethylpentyl)-dithiophosphinic acid dissolved in a suitable diluent, e.g. heptane, preferentially extracted Am(III) from Eu(III) in aqueous nitrate media (Zhu, 1995; Zhu *et al.*, 1996b, 1998); Zhu and his collaborators found a separation factor as high as 5900 in favor of Am(III). Of particular interest and advantage, bis(2,3,4-trimethylpentyl)-dithiophosphinic acid is marketed commercially by Cyanamide Canada, Inc. under the trade name Cyanex 301; Cyanex 301 contains 77.2% of the dithiophosphinic acid compound. The primary impurities in Cyanex 301 are 14.6%  $\text{R}_3\text{PS}$ , 3.5%  $\text{R}_2\text{POOH}$ , and 0.8%  $\text{R}_2\text{PSOH}$  (Zhu *et al.*, 1996b). Chen *et al.* (1996) developed a scheme for upgrading commercially supplied Cyanex 301 to >99% bis(2,3,4-trimethylpentyl)-dithiophosphinic acid.

The excellent results obtained by Zhu and his coworkers with as-received Cyanex 301 were quickly confirmed in work at Florida State University by Zhu *et al.* (1996a). Data in Fig. 8.2 clearly illustrate the propensity of Cyanex 301 solutions to provide clean separation of Am(III) from trivalent lanthanides in



**Fig. 8.2** Distribution ratios of Am(III) and Ln(III) in 1.0 M Cyanex 301-heptane (16 mol% of Cyanex 301 neutralized before extraction contacts) (left) (Zhu et al., 1996a). Distribution coefficients of actinides and lanthanides into Dowex 1 × 8 resin from 10 M LiCl (right) (Hulet et al., 1961).

pH 3 aqueous media. In later work, Modolo and Odoj (1998) also confirmed the initial results of Zhu and his collaborators with Cyanex 301. One very successful continuous countercurrent test of a Cyanex 301-based trivalent actinide/lanthanide separation flowsheet was made; using three extraction and two scrub stages >99.9% of Am(III) was separated from a trace amount of Eu with <0.1% extraction of Eu (Modolo and Odoj, 1998).

An immediate and continuing concern about plant-scale use of Cyanex 301 (or for that matter, any sulfur-based extractant) in a rather hostile environment, e.g. high nitrate concentration–high radiation zone, is its chemical and radiolytic stability. With respect to chemical stability, Sole *et al.* (1993) found that Cyanex 301 exhibits satisfactory resistance to chemical degradation when in contact with aqueous sulfuric acid, hydrochloric acid, and nitric acid solutions provided that the nitric acid concentration is maintained at (or less) than 2 M. With respect to radiolytic stability, one study found that irradiation of Cyanex 301 produces dialkylmonothiophosphonic acid, dialkylphosphinic acid, and other phosphorus compounds (Chen *et al.*, 1996). Purified Cyanex 301 separates tracer amounts of Am(III) from tracer amounts of Eu(III) even after irradiation to a cumulative dose of  $10^5$  gray; commercially available Cyanex 301 only performs satisfactorily at radiation doses up to  $10^4$  gray. The practical plant-scale consequences of the relatively poor resistance of Cyanex 301, even purified, to radiolysis would be reflected in the need to conduct countercurrent



extraction operations in short residence time equipment, e.g. centrifugal contactors, and, likely, frequent extractant inventory change-outs.

In addition to its relatively poor resistance to radiolytic degradation, Modolo and Odoj (1999) note another serious disadvantage to the use of Cyanex 301 to separate trivalent lanthanides and actinides, namely, the need to conduct extraction operations at an aqueous feed pH of 3 or higher. This latter need derives directly from the mechanism whereby Cyanex 301 humic acid (HA) extracts Am(III) and Eu(III):



Three protons are released during the extraction operation; thus, Cyanex 301 only becomes an effective extractant at aqueous phase pH of 3 or more.

Modolo and Odoj (1999) recently synthesized and tested a new class of aromatic dithiophosphinic acids as separating agents for trivalent actinides and lanthanides. These compounds are conveniently represented as R<sub>2</sub>PSSH with R = C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>5</sub>, ClC<sub>6</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, FC<sub>6</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, and CH<sub>3</sub>C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>4</sub>. Modolo and Odoj achieved high separation factors (>20) with  $D_{\text{Am}} > 1$  in the range 0.1–1.0 M HNO<sub>3</sub> by means of synergistic mixtures of (C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>4</sub>Cl)<sub>2</sub>PSSH with either TBP, TOPO, or tributylphosphine oxide. (Interestingly, none of the R<sub>2</sub>PSSH compounds by itself has any capacity to extract trivalent actinides.) Not only do the aromatic dithiophosphinic acids achieve satisfactory separation of trivalent actinides from trivalent lanthanides from low pH (0.1–1.0 M HNO<sub>3</sub>) aqueous solutions but they are also reported to be considerably more resistant to radiation degradation than is Cyanex 301. Thus, Modolo and Odoj demonstrated that the selectivity and capacity of all the R<sub>2</sub>PSSH–synergist combinations remained intact even at an absorbed dose as high as 10<sup>6</sup> gray. The capability of aromatic compounds to act as radiation ‘sinks’ is, of course, well known. Finally, it should be noted that none of the R<sub>2</sub>PSSH compounds synthesized and studied by Modolo and Odoj are commercially available in large amounts.

Hence, when and if any country commits to plant-scale execution of a partitioning–transmutation approach to nuclear waste management and disposal, it seems quite likely that past and ongoing research and development efforts by many investigators will have culminated in a new solvent extraction process for separation of Am(III) and Cm(III) from lanthanides that operates satisfactorily under plant-scale conditions. The usable fallback technology, even though it may be considered cumbersome, is the Talspeak process.

#### 8.4.4 Ion-exchange processes

The combination of chromatographic elution techniques with cation-exchange resins provides a powerful and sophisticated tool to purify americium from lanthanides and other trivalent actinides. Elution chromatography involves the use of organic chelating agents to produce the largest possible difference in the

distribution coefficients of the metal ions to be separated. Both elution-development and displacement-development (also known as barrier-ion or retaining-ion) chromatography have been used in cation-exchange separation and purification of americium. Ryan (1974) points out that displacement-development chromatography is capable of separating macroquantities only, whereas, unless very large columns are used, elution-development chromatography is applicable only to the separation of tracer amounts. Jenkins and Wain (1972) listed publications covering the use of ion exchange to recover and purify  $^{241}\text{Am}$  and  $^{243}\text{Am}$ .

### (a) Cation-exchange resin systems

Cation-exchange resins sorb  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  very strongly from dilute nitric acid solutions. An important application is to concentrate  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  and other trivalent and tetravalent ions from dilute acid solutions to separate them, at least partially, from many impurities (Hale and Lowe, 1969; Gmelin, 1979). Before production operations ceased at the US DOE Rocky Flats site, a cation-anion exchange process had replaced the hydroxide precipitation and thiocyanate ion-exchange system formerly used for recovering  $^{241}\text{Am}$  from solutions of spent  $\text{NaCl-KCl-MgCl}_2$  salt residues generated at the site (Proctor, 1975).

#### (i) *Distribution coefficients: separation factors*

Data for the distribution of  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  between cation-exchange resins and many aqueous solutions were analyzed in a comprehensive review by Ryan (1974). Solutions of  $\alpha$ -hydroxycarboxylic acid and aminopolycarboxylic acids are commonly used to elute americium from cation-exchange resins. When these reagents are used in a displacement elution system, they provide excellent separation of americium from trivalent lanthanides and other trivalent actinides. For example, the separation factor for americium from curium ranges from 1.2 to 1.4 for  $\alpha$ -hydroxycarboxylic acids and from 1.2 to 2 for aminopolycarboxylic acids (Schulz, 1976).

#### (ii) *Chromatographic elution schemes*

Although citric acid has found use, both lactic and  $\alpha$ -hydroxyisobutyric acids provide better separation of americium from curium. Using chromatographic elution from Dowex 50-X12 resin with  $\alpha$ -hydroxyisobutyric acid, Campbell (1970) demonstrated the effective use of high-pressure ion-exchange methods for the rapid separation of americium from curium. Highly efficient displacement chromatographic separation schemes that use nitrilotriacetic acid (NTA) and/or DTPA as eluents have been applied at the US DOE Hanford and at Savannah River sites to purify kilogram amounts of americium from curium and lanthanides (Wheelwright *et al.*, 1968; Harbour *et al.*, 1972). Wheelwright

*et al.* (1968) successfully used a two-cycle cation-exchange process to separate and purify 1 kg of  $^{241}\text{Am}$  and  $^{243}\text{Am}$ , about 60 g of  $^{244}\text{Cm}$ , and 140 g of  $^{147}\text{Pm}$  extracted from 13.5 tons of blanket fuel elements from the Shippingport nuclear reactor. Highly purified americium and curium fractions were obtained by americium–curium displacement elution at  $60^\circ\text{C}$  through a series of four  $\text{Zn}^{2+}$ -form Dowex 50 resins beds with a 0.105 M NTA solution buffered to pH 6.5 with  $\text{NH}_4\text{OH}$ . Harbour *et al.* (1972) adapted the displacement elution scheme to pressurized columns at the Savannah River site.

Nearly 20 years after Wheelwright's work, Chuveleva and some of his colleagues at the Institute of Physical Chemistry in Moscow revisited, as recently as 1999, displacement chromatography for separation of traces of americium and curium (Chuveleva *et al.*, 1999) (interestingly, in these papers Chuveleva *et al.* did not make any reference to Wheelwright's earlier work). The basic system used by the Russian scientists in 1999 utilized their KU-2 cation-exchange resin previously converted to the Ni- (or Zn) form; a NTA solution for elution, and  $\text{Cd}^{2+}$  as the separating ion. Performance of the Russian system was quite satisfactory; indeed, their results appeared to be in full accord with expectations from Wheelwright's earlier studies.

### (b) Anion-exchange resin systems

For routine, large-scale purification of americium, application of anion-exchange resins is limited to sorption from thiocyanate, chloride, and, to a limited extent, nitrate solutions (Hermann, 1956).

#### (i) Thiocyanate solutions

$\text{Am(III)}$  forms relatively strong complexes, e.g.  $\text{AmSCN}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Am}(\text{SCN})_2^+$ , and  $\text{Am}(\text{SCN})_3$  in concentrated aqueous thiocyanate solutions, and its thiocyanate species are sorbed on anion-exchange resins considerably more strongly than are the corresponding lanthanide thiocyanate complexes (Coleman *et al.*, 1955, 1957; Surls and Choppin, 1957). Thiocyanate anion-exchange systems have been used to purify americium from rare earths. For example, a plant-scale thiocyanate ion-exchange process has long been used (1960–75) at the US DOE Rocky Flats plant for routine purification of  $^{241}\text{Am}$  recovered from aged plutonium metal (Schulz, 1976).

#### (ii) Chloride solutions

$\text{Am(III)}$  is sorbed much more strongly onto anion-exchange resins from concentrated lithium chloride solutions than are the lanthanides (Hulet *et al.*, 1961). Americium distribution ratios increase with increased lithium chloride concentration whereas increased temperature enhances the separation of americium from rare earths. A lithium chloride-based anion-exchange process

for separating milligram amounts of americium and curium from lanthanide fission products and to isolate an Am–Cm fraction free of heavier actinides was routinely operated at the US DOE Oak Ridge facility (Baybarz, 1970).

### (c) Inorganic exchangers

Most studies concerned with sorption of  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  from aqueous solutions have used zirconium phosphate. The order of the distribution coefficients of trivalent actinides and lanthanides on zirconium phosphate is the reverse of the order observed with a typical strong-base cation-exchange resin (Horwitz, 1966). Both American (Moore, 1973) and Russian (Shafiev *et al.*, 1971) scientists utilized the fact that the singly charged  $\text{AmO}_2^+$  is not sorbed by zirconium phosphate from dilute acid media to separate americium from curium and other metal ions.

Inorganic exchangers formed by hydrolysis of the alkoxides of titanium, niobium, or zirconium were developed for actinide/lanthanide separation (Lynch *et al.*, 1975) and possible disposal. Schulz *et al.* (1980) investigated the use of sodium titanate [ $\text{Na}(\text{Ti}_2\text{O}_5\text{H})$ ] and bone char (a form of calcium hydroxyapatite) to decontaminate alkaline nuclear waste streams containing minor amounts of americium and other actinides and to separate trivalent curium from trivalent americium.

More recently, as part of the overall Japanese partitioning–transmutation program, Yamagishi *et al.* (1996) reported results of experiments to use the inorganic cation exchanger titanium antimonate ‘TiSb’ to separate Am(III) from trivalent lanthanides. Before Yamagishi *et al.*’s work the TiSb exchanger had been reported (Kaneko *et al.*, 1992, 1993) to have a high selectivity for  $\text{Pu}^{4+}$  and trivalent americium and a low selectivity for trivalent lanthanides from concentrated  $\text{HNO}_3$  solutions. Yamagishi *et al.* prepared TiSb according to conditions reported by Abe and coworkers (Abe and Tsujii, 1983; Abe *et al.*, 1985) and found that the TiSb exchanger exhibited superior selectivity toward trivalent americium over trivalent europium and other rare earths. The Japanese investigators concluded that TiSb is a promising material particularly for pre-concentration of  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  from  $\text{HNO}_3$  solutions containing  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  and large amounts of  $\text{La}^{3+}$  without the need for complexing or oxidizing agents.

Ritter (Ebner *et al.*, 1999) and his coworkers synthesized a new magnetic adsorbent material that combines the properties of both organic resin and inorganic material for use in actinide removal from nuclear waste solutions. This new material is called magnetic polyamine–epichlorohydrin (MPE) resin. MPE resin consists of spherical beads of polyamine–epichlorohydrin that have activated iron ferrite (magnetite) particles attached to their outer surfaces. Ferrites have been shown in previous work (Boyd *et al.*, 1986; Kochen, 1987; Kochen and Navratil, 1987; Boyd and Kochen, 1993) to be excellent adsorbents for actinide elements (including  $\text{Am}^{3+}$ ) in wastewaters at relatively low alkaline conditions ( $\text{pH} > 9$ ) and independent of a magnetic field. Results obtained by Ritter and his colleagues demonstrated that MPE resin has a significantly

enhanced capacity for actinides over conventional-based ferrite surface complexation adsorption processes (where no field is applied) and over traditional high-gradient magnetic separation processes that remove suspended particles.

#### 8.4.5 Extraction chromatographic processes

Extraction chromatography combines the best features of liquid–liquid solvent extraction and chromatographic separation techniques. Extraction chromatographic systems consist of a mobile liquid phase and a stationary liquid phase on an inert support. Separations are achieved by taking advantage of the difference in the distribution of ions between the two liquid phases.

Many systems using either HDEHP or Aliquat 336 as the stationary phase have been studied for extraction chromatographic separation of americium at tracer-level concentrations. An Aliquat 336 (nitrate-form)–kieselguhr system was used both in the USA and in Europe to separate milligram to gram amounts of americium from curium (Horwitz *et al.*, 1967; Müller, 1971).

In the two decades since the publication of the second edition of this monograph extraction chromatographic techniques for separating Am(III) and small amounts of other actinides from various aqueous media have been pursued for routine analytical purposes and for specialized process purposes. Thus far, the analytical applications have met with much greater acceptance and success than the proposed process applications.

Horwitz and his colleagues at the U.S. Argonne National Laboratory have been the prime movers in developing practical extraction chromatographic materials and procedures for analytical-scale separations and determination of Am(III) and other actinides. (Materials developed by Horwitz *et al.* are commercially manufactured and marketed by Eichrom Industries, Darien, Illinois.) Horwitz *et al.* (1990, 1993) initially developed an extraction chromatographic material, which was marketed under the name TRU™ resin; the TRU™ resin, which consisted of a solution of CMPO adsorbed on Amberchrom-CG 71 (Rohm & Haas Co.), had a number of attractive features including offering the possibility of sequential elution of individual sorbed actinide elements. However, a major weakness of the TRU™ resin was that it would not effectively sorb actinides from solutions containing significant concentrations of complexing anions such as fluoride, oxalate, or phosphate. Extraction chromatographic analytical applications of the TRU™ resin for the separation and determination of Th, U, Pu, Am, and Cm have been described in a series of papers (PilvVo and Bichel, 1998, 2000; PilvVo *et al.*, 1999).

In follow-on development work by Horwitz *et al.* the Diphonix™ resin, containing geminally substituted diphosphonic acid groups chemically bonded to a styrene-based polymer matrix, was shown to exhibit extraordinarily strong affinity for the actinides particularly the 4+ and 6+ ions. Because of its strong retention of actinides, the Diphonix™ resin found application in the characterization of mixed and transuranic waste (Chiarizia *et al.*, 1997) and in analytical

pre-concentration of actinides from a variety of biological and environmental samples (Smith *et al.*, 1995). Further tests revealed two important weaknesses of the Diphonix<sup>TM</sup> resin in extraction chromatographic applications, namely (i) insufficient uptake and retention of trivalent actinides and (ii) difficult stripping/recovery of actinides from the loaded resin.

The final important contribution to actinide element extraction chromatography of the Horwitz group at the Argonne National Laboratory was the development and introduction of the DIPEX<sup>TM</sup> resin (Horwitz *et al.*, 1997). The DIPEX<sup>TM</sup> resin consists of a new compound, bis(2-ethylhexyl)methanedi-phosphonic acid (H<sub>2</sub>DEH[MDP]) supported on an inert polymeric substrate. Horwitz and his coworkers state that this compound contains the same diphosphonic acid functional group as the Diphonix<sup>TM</sup> resin but two of the four ionizable hydrogen atoms have been replaced by a C<sub>8</sub> alkyl group to make the molecule more lipophilic. According to the experimental evidence of Horwitz and colleagues, the DIPEX<sup>TM</sup> resin exhibits stronger affinity for 3+, 4+, and 6+ actinides from acidic chloride media and superior selectivity for Am(III) over Al(III) and Fe(III) than the Diphonix<sup>TM</sup> resin. Indeed, so strongly does the DIPEX material sorb actinides that the only convenient way to strip sorbed actinides appears to be to wash the resin with isopropanol to completely solubilize the H<sub>2</sub>DEH[MDP] for subsequent wet oxidation to liberate the actinides for further treatment and analysis. Despite what appears to be a cumbersome procedure for stripping sorbed actinides, the DIPEX<sup>TM</sup> resin is considered to be eminently suited for separation and pre-concentration of actinides from complex soil and bioassay matrices.

Nowadays, extraction chromatographic materials and techniques are generally considered to be most suited for analytical aims. But, some process-scale applications of such materials and techniques continue to be proposed from time to time. For example, Akatsu and Kimura (1990) reported on the use of extraction chromatography in the DHDECMP-(XAD-4) HNO<sub>3</sub> system. Also, several investigators (Barney and Cowan, 1992; Lumetta *et al.*, 1993) studied the feasibility of using TRU<sup>TM</sup> resin and other types of extraction chromatographic supports impregnated with CMPO to separate actinide elements from stored US DOE Hanford site tank wastes including actual neutralized decladding waste and also other acidic waste solutions. Scientists in India (Gopalakrishnan *et al.*, 1995; Mathur *et al.*, 1995) have reported good success in applying an extraction chromatographic material consisting of CMPO adsorbed on Chromosorb-102 to selectively take up U(VI), Pu(IV), and Am(III) from neat nitric acid media, from synthetic sulfate-bearing high-level waste (SBHLW) and actual Purex process oxalate supernatant liquors.

Two other extraction chromatographic process-scale applications for separation of americium and other actinides are noteworthy. Mohapatra *et al.* (2000) found that the diamide DMDBTDMA adsorbed on an inert support was very efficient in taking up tracer concentrations of Am(III) and other actinide ions from 3 to 5 M HNO<sub>3</sub> solutions. Wei and his coworkers (Wei, 2000a,b) prepared

and investigated the actinide sorption properties of several novel silica-based extraction chromatographic resins by impregnating organic extractants such as CMPO, HDEHP, and Cyanex 301 into a styrene–divinylbenzene copolymer, which is immobilized in porous silica particles. Recently, these scientists have synthesized 2,6-bis-((5,6-dialkyl)-1,2–4-triazene-3-yl)-pyridine and impregnated such compounds into styrene–divinylbenzene copolymers immobilized in porous silica particles (Wei *et al.*, 2000a,b). The resulting extraction chromatographic material preferentially sorbed Am(III) over trivalent lanthanides.

A most unusual and intriguing type of extraction chromatographic separation scheme for Am(III) and other actinides was prepared by Nunez *et al.* (1996). These researchers adsorbed a layer of CMPO/TBP onto polymeric-coated ferromagnetic particles. The CMPO/TBP was very efficient in taking up actinides from 0.01 to 6 M HNO<sub>3</sub> nuclear waste solutions as expected from the results with the TRUEX process (see Section 8.4.3a(vi)). Once loaded with actinides, the ferromagnetic particles could be readily recovered from the waste solutions with a magnet.

## 8.5 ATOMIC PROPERTIES

### 8.5.1 Electron configuration

Americium is the sixth member of the actinide series, with electron configurations in its ground and ionized states analogous to those of its lanthanide homolog, europium. Note, however, that the solution chemistries of these two elements show substantial differences, with the major ones being the difficulties in preparing Am(II) and the absence of Eu(IV), Eu(V), and Eu(VI). Electronic configurations of gaseous americium species as determined from spectroscopic and atomic-beam experiments showed a  $5f^7s^2$  ground state for Am(g) and  $(5f^7)^{2+}$  state for Am<sup>2+</sup> (Tomkins and Fred, 1949).

### 8.5.2 Atomic and ionic radii

Metallic, covalent, and ionic radii of americium in various oxidation states were first calculated by Zachariasen (1948a, 1954). The radius of americium metal with a coordination number (CN) of 12 was reported to be 1.73 Å (McWhan *et al.*, 1960). On the basis of a refined single-crystal structure for AmCl<sub>3</sub>, Burns and Peterson (1970, 1971) calculated the ionic radius of Am<sup>3+</sup> (CN 6) in AmCl<sub>3</sub> to be  $0.984 \pm 0.003$  Å. Zachariasen (1978) has also deduced some highly useful bond length–bond strength relationships that provide, as a function of americium valence and coordination number, a condensation of many americium–oxygen and americium–halogen distances derived from the best-known structures. For the Am<sup>3+</sup> and Am<sup>4+</sup> ions, Zachariasen (1948a) reported crystal

radii of 1.00 and 0.85 Å, respectively. Shannon (1976) provided a list of revised effective ionic radii and reported 1.21 Å (CN 6) and 1.26 Å (CN 8) for  $\text{Am}^{2+}$ , 0.975 Å (CN 6) and 1.09 Å (CN 8) for  $\text{Am}^{3+}$ , 0.85 Å (CN 6) and 0.95 Å (CN 8) for  $\text{Am}^{4+}$ . No data are available on  $\text{Am}(\text{v})$  and  $\text{Am}(\text{vi})$ . David (1986) reported an ionic radius for  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  of 0.980 Å (CN 6) and 1.106 Å (CN 8).

### 8.5.3 Ionization potentials

Trautmann and colleagues (Trautmann, 1994; Deissenberger *et al.*, 1995) experimentally determined the first ionization potential of americium to be 5.9738 (2) eV. This determination was made with only  $10^{12}$  atoms of americium using a newly developed method based on resonance ionization mass spectroscopy in the presence of an external electric field. Before the work of Trautmann and colleagues, Carlson *et al.* (1970) calculated the ionization potential values for  $\text{Am}^0$  (5.66 eV),  $\text{Am}^+$  (12.15 eV), and  $\text{Am}^{2+}$  (18.8 eV). Penneman and Mann (1976) also estimated the same potentials based on *jj* coupling; these investigators underestimated the first ionization potential but were in good agreement on the potentials for higher ionizations.

### 8.5.4 Emission spectra

Studies of the arc and spark spectra of americium have been summarized by Carnall (1973a) in *Gmelin's Handbook of Inorganic Chemistry*. Corresponding to the absolute term value ( $48767 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) of the ground state, the ionization potential of  $\text{Am}(\text{I})$  is 6.0 eV (Carlson *et al.*, 1970). As noted above Deissenberger *et al.* (1995) refined the ionization potential to 5.9738(2) eV.

### 8.5.5 X-ray spectrum

Atomic energy levels (binding energies) of americium have been calculated from experimental measurements of X-ray emission wavelengths; for example, the value for  $\text{K}-\text{M}_{\text{III}}$  is 120.319 and 102.041 keV for the  $\text{K}-\text{L}_{\text{II}}$  transition (Carnall, 1973b). All K X-ray energies of americium correspond to electric dipole transitions. A critical literature evaluation and a listing of atomic energy levels of americium are given in Bearden (1967).

### 8.5.6 Photoelectron spectrum

In a highly important experimental measurement, Naegele and coworkers (Naegele *et al.*, 1984) at the European Institute for Transuranium Elements were able in 1984 to directly conduct X-ray and high-resolution ultraviolet photoemission spectroscopy of the conduction band of americium metal. These measurements, parallel to those successfully performed earlier with uranium metal, directly revealed that the 5f electrons in americium metal are



localized. Naegele *et al.* state that the final-state multiplet structure arises from a trivalent  $5f^6$  Am ground state. In later work, Naegele *et al.* (Martensson *et al.*, 1987) attempted an interpretation of the valence band photoelectron spectrum for americium metal.

### 8.5.7 Mössbauer spectrum

Beta decay of  $^{243}\text{Pu}$  ( $t_{1/2} = 4.98$  h) to the 83.9 keV level of  $^{243}\text{Am}$  produces an excited nuclear state ( $t_{1/2} = 2.34$  ns) of  $^{243}\text{Am}$  that is suitable for Mössbauer spectroscopy (Kalvius *et al.*, 1969; Bode *et al.*, 1976). Data obtained with a  $^{243}\text{PuO}_2$  source at 4.2 K showed the shift of the  $^{243}\text{AmF}_3$  resonance line relative to  $^{243}\text{AmO}_2$  to have an unusually large value of  $55 \text{ mm s}^{-1}$  (Kalvius *et al.*, 1969; Bode *et al.*, 1976).

## 8.6 METAL AND ALLOYS

### 8.6.1 Metal preparation

Americium metal has been prepared by the following methods: (1) reduction of  $\text{AmF}_3$  with barium (or lithium) metal; (2) reduction of  $\text{AmO}_2$  with lanthanum metal; (3) bomb reduction of  $\text{AmF}_4$  with calcium metal; and (4) thermal decomposition of  $\text{Pt}_5\text{Am}$ . Lanthanum metal (or thorium metal) reduction of  $\text{AmO}_2$  in tantalum equipment and subsequent distillation of the americium metal from the reaction mixture yields americium of very high (>99.9%) purity. Americium is about a factor of  $10^4$  more volatile than lanthanum. Extensive applications of this technique by the Euratom group led to important new measurements of the physical and thermodynamic properties of americium metal (Oetting *et al.*, 1976). Workers at the U.S. DOE Rocky Flats site also reported similar success with vacuum distillation techniques (Berry *et al.*, 1982).

Preparation of americium metal by thermal decomposition of the intermetallic compound  $\text{Pt}_5\text{Am}$  is a more recent development. Müller *et al.* (1972) produced high-purity americium metal by thermal decomposition of the intermetallic compound at  $1550^\circ\text{C}$  and  $10^{-6}$  Torr, followed by further distillation.

### 8.6.2 Properties

Americium metal is silvery, ductile, non-magnetic, and very malleable. Selected physical properties are listed in Table 8.3. There are two well-established crystalline forms of americium metal, a double hexagonal close-packed (dhcp,  $P6_3/mmc$ ) phase, stable at room temperature, and a face-centered cubic (fcc,  $Fm3m$ ) phase (McWhan *et al.*, 1960; Stephens *et al.*, 1968; Oetting *et al.*, 1976). Differential thermal analysis and dilatometric experiments on americium metal have presented (Rose *et al.*, 1979) evidence for at least three phases existing between room temperature and the melting point ( $1170^\circ\text{C}$ ): an alpha phase

**Table 8.3** Selected properties of americium metal (adopted from Schulz (1976) and Oetting et al. (1976); see also Chapter 19).

Property	Values <sup>a</sup>
Crystallographic data	
symmetry	<658°C, dhcp ( $\alpha$ ) 793–1004°C, fcc ( $\beta$ ) ~1050–1173°C, bcc (?)
space group	$P6_3/mmc$ and $Fm\bar{3}m$
lattice parameters	dhcp: $a = 3.4681 \text{ \AA}$ , $c = 11.241 \text{ \AA}$ fcc: $a = 4.894 \text{ \AA}$
density	13.671 g cm <sup>-3</sup> (calc.); 13.671 g cm <sup>-3</sup> (obs.) <sup>b</sup>
high-pressure structures <sup>c</sup>	0–5 GPa Am (i): dhcp; 5 to 8–10 GPa Am(ii): fcc; 8 to 15–23 GPa Am(iii): double body-centered monoclinic, or trigonal distortion of fcc, or monoclinic $\alpha$ -Pu; >15–23 GPa Am(iv): orthorhombic $\alpha$ -U or monoclinic ( $\alpha$ -U alloys)
metallic radius (CN 12)	1.73 $\text{\AA}$
melting point	(1149 $\pm$ 5) K
boiling point	2067°C (calc.)
coefficient of thermal expansion	$\alpha_a = 7.5 \pm 0.2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ K}^{-1}$ and $\alpha_c = 6.2 \pm 0.2 \times 10^{-6} \text{ K}^{-1}$
compressibility at 1 atm	0.00277 kbar <sup>-1</sup> at 23°C
vapor pressure <sup>d</sup>	$\log(p/\text{atm}) = (6.578 \pm 0.046) - (14315 \pm 55)/T$ at 990–1358 K
magnetic susceptibility	$\chi_{20^\circ\text{C}} = (881 \pm 46) \times 10^{-6} \text{ cm}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1}$
magnetic moment	~0
microhardness (Vickers) at 25°C	800 MN m <sup>-2</sup>
electrical resistivity	68 $\mu\Omega \text{ cm}$ (300 K), 71 $\mu\Omega \text{ cm}$ (298 K)
crystal entropy, $S^\circ_{298}$	55 J K <sup>-1</sup> mol <sup>-1</sup>
heat capacity, $(C_p)_{298}$	25.5 J K <sup>-1</sup> mol <sup>-1</sup>
heat of vaporization at boiling point	230.2 kJ mol <sup>-1</sup> (calc.)
entropy of vaporization at boiling point	100.8 J K <sup>-1</sup> mol <sup>-1</sup> (calc.)
heat of transformation	5.9 kJ mol <sup>-1</sup>
heat of fusion	14.4 kJ mol <sup>-1</sup>
heat of dissolution in aqueous HCl	1 M HCl: -616.3 kJ mol <sup>-1</sup> 1.5 M HCl: -615.5 kJ mol <sup>-1</sup> 6 M HCl: -618.0 kJ mol <sup>-1</sup>

<sup>a</sup> For the dhcp-form unless otherwise indicated.

<sup>b</sup> By immersion in monobromobenzene.

<sup>c</sup> Refer to Section 8.6.2.

<sup>d</sup> Ward et al. (1975) give the following equation for americium above its melting point:  $\log(p/\text{atm}) = 5.185 - 13191/T$ .

existing up to 658°C; a beta phase existing between 793 and 1004°C; and a gamma phase which forms at 1050°C. In studies with high-purity americium metal, Sari *et al.* (1972/73) concluded that there is no phase transition between 600 and 700°C. But, Russian scientists (Seleznev *et al.*, 1979) put forth evidence that the transition from the dhcp structure to the fcc structure occurs at  $771 \pm 15^\circ\text{C}$ ; their observation is in agreement with the conclusions reached from dilatometric and differential thermal analysis measurements.

Smith and Haire (1978) found that americium metal with the dhcp structure became superconducting between 0.55 and 0.75 K; observation of the onset of superconductivity in americium metal confirmed an earlier prediction made from theoretical considerations. In later work, Link *et al.* (1994) found that the superconductivity transition temperature of dhcp americium increases considerably with pressure, reaching a maximum value of 2.3 K at 6.6 GPa. Müller *et al.* (1978), at several laboratories in Europe and in USA, recently measured the electrical resistivity and specific heat of americium metal. These latter investigators observed binding in americium metal to be reduced compared to that in lighter actinide metals and attributed this result to the importance of 5f electrons in electrical conduction. In a later paper, Hall *et al.* (1980) used their data to generate 'best values' for the heat capacity, crystal entropy, and electrical resistivity of americium metal; these 'best values' are shown in Table 8.3.

Owing to its unique position and properties in the actinide series of elements, americium metal has proven to be, over the last quarter of a century, a material of great interest to both theoreticians and experimentalists. In the light actinide metals (Ac–Pu) the 5f electrons are known to be itinerant and not localized. But, there is much evidence, e.g. cohesive properties, magnetic properties, atomic volume, etc. to indicate that the 5f electrons in americium metal at atmospheric pressure are localized and chemically inert. (Indeed, results of recent photoemission spectral studies cited in Section 8.4 essentially prove that 5f electrons in americium metal are localized.) Once the 5f electron localization behavior was noted for americium metal, Johannson (1978) also posited that americium metal under compression will transform to a dense phase where the 5f electrons are itinerant and not localized.

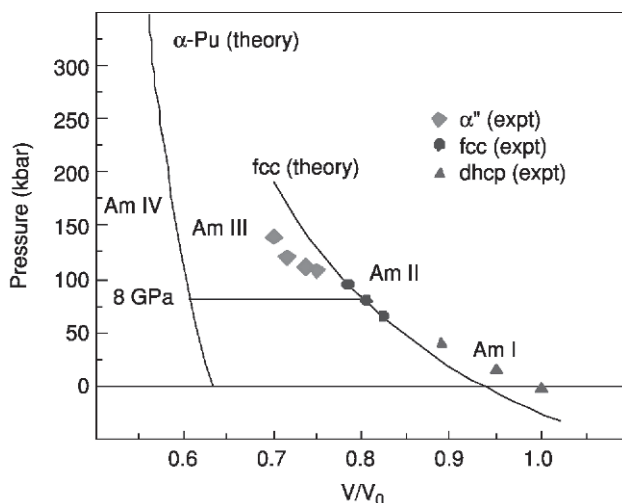
The first experimental study of the behavior and some properties of americium metal above atmospheric pressure was conducted by Stephens *et al.* (1968). These investigators determined the compressibility and electrical resistance of americium metal at room temperature over the range 3.5–12 GPa. They also made an attempt to determine the phase diagram of americium metal over this range of pressures.

Following Johannson's 1978 paper several groups of scientists in the early 1980s determined structural properties from X-ray diffraction data for americium metal at various pressures. The overall goal of these studies was to determine the number and type of different crystalline structures formed as a function of applied pressure and, thereby, obtain experimental evidence for delocalization of the 5f electrons. Thus, Akella and coworkers (Akella *et al.*, 1980;

Roof *et al.*, 1980; Smith *et al.*, 1981; Roof, 1982) established four different crystalline structures in americium metal over the pressure range from 100 kPa (1 atm) to 18 GPa: Am(I)-dhcp; Am(II)-fcc (at  $5 \pm 1$  GPa); Am(III)-not indexed ( $10 \pm 1$  GPa); and Am(IV)-not indexed ( $15 \pm 1$  GPa). Later Roof (1982) repeated and extended the pressure experiments of Akella and coworkers up to 20 GPa. Roof and his collaborators noted the same four crystalline phases as observed by Akella and coworkers. But, Roof and his collaborators indexed the Am(III) phase (10–15 GPa) as a double-body centered monoclinic structure and the Am(IV) phase (10–20 GPa) as an orthorhombic structure similar to that of alpha uranium metal.

The latest experimental studies of delocalization of 5f electrons in americium metal under pressure were performed by Benedict and colleagues (Benedict *et al.*, 1985, 1986). Benedict *et al.* conducted their experiments over the pressure range 3 to 52 GPa, and, under these conditions, also noted the Am(I)–Am(II)–Am(III)–Am(IV) phase transformation sequence. Benedict *et al.* however, state that the transitions between phases occur at higher pressures than noted by previous workers; in particular, Benedict and his fellow authors state that the Am(III) to Am(IV) transition occurs at 23 GPa, not at 15 GPa. Benedict *et al.* claim that the Am(III) phase is not a monoclinic structure, as previously indexed, but is really a trigonal distortion of the Am(II) fcc structure. Finally Benedict *et al.* state that according to their results, 5f electron delocalization occurs only at a pressure of 23 GPa or above. Lindbaum *et al.* (2001) observed the transition of the normal-pressure double hexagonal close packed ( $P6_3/mmc$ ) structure transforms at 6.1 GPa to the face centered cubic ( $Fm\bar{3}m$ ) form, which converts at 10.0 GPa to a face centered orthorhombic ( $Fddd$ ) structure. This orthorhombic form converts at 16 GPa to a primitive orthorhombic ( $Pnma$ ) form, which is stable up to at least 100 GPa. Based on the data of americium's pressure behavior the authors concluded that Am f-electrons are involved in the metallic bonding of the AmIII and IV phases.

Coincident with experiments conducted to ascertain the response of americium metal to increasing pressure, theoreticians in several countries have mounted a sustained effort to apply first-principles calculations to deduce the state of 5f electrons both in the presence and absence of applied pressure (Skriver *et al.*, 1980; Johansson, 1984; Nikolaev and Ionova, 1991; Eriksson and Wills, 1992; Eriksson *et al.*, 1993, 1995, 2000; Soderland *et al.*, 2000). The present state of the theoretical calculations is best discussed in a recent paper by Soderland *et al.* (2000). The latter investigators used density functional electronic calculations to study the high-pressure behavior of americium metal. At about 8 GPa, such calculations revealed a phase transition from the fcc structure Am(II) to a dense phase of lower symmetry that Johansson *et al.* were convinced is a monoclinic form similar to the structure of  $\alpha$ -plutonium (Fig. 8.3); they state emphatically that it does not have the orthorhombic structure called out by Roof and Benedict *et al.* According to Johansson and collaborators, their calculation results are consistent with a Mott transition;



**Fig. 8.3** Calculated equations of state for americium metal from fits to total energies (Soderland et al., 2000); equations indicate a volume decrease of 25% at 8 GPa.

the 5f electrons are delocalized and bonding on the high-density side of the transition and chemically inert and non-bonding (localized) on the low-density (fcc phase) side of the transition.

Even at this advanced time in the chemistry of americium, there are still some serious disagreements between experimentally determined and calculated (from theoretical considerations) effects of compression of americium metal. To be sure, both approaches offer strong support for the contention that upon compression the 5f electrons in americium delocalize. Both the experimentalists and the theoreticians concur that at moderate applied pressure, the dhcp structure converts to the fcc phase. And, both groups concur that at some threshold applied pressure the fcc structure transforms to a more dense phase, i.e. Am(III) and, possibly, Am(IV), in which the 5f electrons are delocalized. But, certainly the parties involved do not agree on exactly how many different dense phases (one or two) eventually form on further application of pressure or on the exact pressure of phase transformations and certainly not on the crystal structure of the new dense phase(s). (The data shown in Table 8.3 are listed so as to capture much of the present uncertainty concerning transition pressures and crystalline structures.) Another important point of disagreement and uncertainty, long known and troublesome to theoreticians, is that the experimentally observed volume decreases when the 5f electrons in americium metal are delocalized only to about 6% compared to the 30–35% decrease predicted from theory. The present disagreement between experimental and calculated results point to flaws and deficiencies in both approaches, e.g. difficulties in obtaining and accurately deciphering X-ray diffraction data from a pressurized radioactive system and

inadequacies of present calculational tools. It is hoped that future research will resolve the discrepancies between calculation and experiment.

### 8.6.3 Alloys and intermetallic compounds

Presently, alloy systems involving interaction of americium metal with some 23 different elements have been investigated. One or more intermetallic compounds of definite composition are known to exist in 16 of these systems; Table 8.4 summarizes the significant stoichiometry, structure, and synthesis information for these 16 systems and also provides relevant literature references.

No definite compounds have been observed in the Am–Ce, Am–Hg, Am–La, Am–Np, Am–Pu, Am–Th, or Am–U systems. Phase diagrams for the Am–Np, Am–Pu, and Am–U systems have recently been summarized and published by Okamoto (1998). Okamoto took careful note of the phase diagram for the Am–Pu system constructed earlier by Ellinger *et al.* (1966). Gibson and Haire (1992a) have reported phase relations in the Am–Np system while Adair (1970) prepared alloys of thorium with 0.54–5.0 wt% americium by both levitation and arc melting of prepared mixtures of americium and thorium metal.

Interaction of americium metal with two rare earth metals, lanthanum and cerium, has been investigated, respectively, by Hill and coworkers (Hill and Ellinger, 1971; Hill *et al.*, 1971) and by Connor (1982). Lanthanum–americium alloys containing 0.92–2.37 at% americium dissolved in fcc-beta lanthanum were produced by arc melting the constituent elements. Connor used both co-melting (arc) and co-reduction techniques in his studies of the Am–Ce system. Co-reduction alloy preparation involved calcium metal reduction of an appropriate mixture of AmF<sub>4</sub> and CeF<sub>3</sub> in a sealed vessel.

The Am–Hg system has been studied by Bouissières and Legoux (1965), David and Bouissières (1968), Maly (1969), and Tikhonov *et al.* (1988). A dilute americium amalgam may be prepared either by reduction of Am(III) ions with a sodium amalgam or by electroreduction of Am(III) ions on a mercury electrode. Tikhonov *et al.* also investigated some properties of a concentrated americium amalgam that was prepared electrolytically; their results indicated the formation of an Am–Hg intermetallic compound but no information on the stoichiometry or structure of such a compound was reported. Guminski (1995) recently reviewed and evaluated the equilibrium and thermodynamics of the Am–Hg system.

## 8.7 IMPORTANT COMPOUNDS

Inorganic compounds containing halides or oxygen-donor ligands are far more numerous than simple oxides, hydroxides, or other binary or ternary compounds. The structures and references to the preparation of about 180 compounds of americium with anionic inorganic ligands are listed in alphabetical order in Table 8.5; compounds of americium with organic ligand coordination are listed

in Table 8.6. A group of compounds in which americium could be considered as part of the anionic constituent appears under the heading oxides, ternary.

### 8.7.1 Inorganic compounds

#### (a) Oxides and hydroxides

The binary americium oxides are limited to  $\text{AmO}$ ,  $\text{Am}_2\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{AmO}_2$ , and non-stoichiometric phases between  $\text{Am}_2\text{O}_3$  and  $\text{AmO}_2$ . Although the  $\text{AmO}$  (fcc) phase has been reported twice (Zachariasen, 1949a,c; Akimoto, 1967), the corresponding lattice parameters, 4.95 Å (Zachariasen, 1949a,c) and 5.045 Å (Akimoto, 1967), are not consistent. Accidental exposure of  $\text{AmH}_{2+x}$  to air at 300°C yielded a fcc phase (Roddy, 1973), which agrees with Akimoto's  $\text{AmO}$  (Akimoto, 1967) but may in fact be an oxynitride similar to the corresponding 'PuO' (Larson and Haschke, 1981). The difficulty in achieving  $\text{Am(II)}$  in solution and in solid compounds makes it likely that the monoxide can only be synthesized under high pressure by conproportionation of  $\text{Am}$  metal and  $\text{Am}_2\text{O}_3$ , analogous to the preparation of the lanthanide monoxide  $\text{SmO}$  (Leger *et al.*, 1981). Recent evidence that  $\text{PuO}$  and surface-layer lanthanide monoxides are really oxycarbides or nitrides (Larson and Haschke, 1981) reinforces the uncertainty of whether any claim for  $\text{AmO}$  is valid.

Phase relationships and thermodynamic data in the  $\text{AmO}_{1.5}\text{--AmO}_2$  systems are well established. The red-brown ('persimmon') sesquioxide,  $\text{Am}_2\text{O}_3$ , is easily prepared in  $\text{H}_2$  at temperatures as low as 600°C but it oxidizes very readily in air, even at room temperature. Baybarz (1973a) summarized the transition temperatures of the low-temperature (body-centered cubic (bcc), C-phase) to medium-temperature (monoclinic, B-phase) to high-temperature (hexagonal, A-phase) sesquioxides. The C→B transition temperature appears to be sluggish, occurring between 460 and 650°C and the B→A transition occurs between 800 and 900°C (Chikalla and Eyring, 1968; Hurtgen and Fuger, 1977). The pale tan hexagonal sesquioxide phase undergoes slight swelling with time and self-irradiation causes cubic  $\text{Am}_2\text{O}_3$  to transform to the hexagonal phase at room temperature within about 3 years (Hurtgen and Fuger, 1977). It is possible that the monoclinic  $\text{Am}_2\text{O}_3$  is stabilized by small amounts of rare earth impurities (Berndt *et al.*, 1974; Keller and Berndt, 1975) and that pure  $\text{Am}_2\text{O}_3$  passes directly from the C- to the A-phase; it is also possible that the C→B transition occurs well below 650°C. The hexagonal sesquioxide is stoichiometric but the cubic form may have a lower oxygen limit of  $\text{AmO}_{1.513}$  (Chikalla and Eyring, 1968). Studies on americium oxides include the measurement of the melting point of  $\text{Am}_2\text{O}_3$ ,  $2205 \pm 15^\circ\text{C}$  (Chikalla *et al.*, 1973), and the enthalpy of formation of  $\text{AmO}_2$ ,  $-932.2 \pm 3.0 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  (Morss and Fuger, 1981).

The dioxide  $\text{AmO}_2$  was the first reported compound of americium (Zachariasen, 1949a,c). It can be prepared by heating a variety of americium compounds, e.g. hydroxides, carbonates, oxalate, or nitrate, in air or oxygen at

**Table 8.4** *Intermetallic compounds in the americium alloy system.*

Class	Formula	Symmetry	Structure type	Lattice constants		Comments	References
				$a_0$ (Å)	$c_0$ (Å)		
aluminide	AmAl <sub>2</sub>	cubic	MgCu <sub>2</sub>	7.861		arc melt	[1]
	AmSb	fcc		6.239		Am/Sb/heat	[2]
antimonides	AmSb <sub>2</sub>		LaSb <sub>2</sub>				
	Am <sub>4</sub> Sb <sub>3</sub>	bcc	anti-Th <sub>3</sub>	9.239		AmH <sub>3</sub> /Sb/heat	[3]
	AmS	fcc	Fm3m	5.880		Am/As/heat	[4]
arsenide				5.875		AmH <sub>3</sub> /As/heat	
				10.283		AmF <sub>3</sub> /Be/vac/heat	[6]
beryllide	AmBe <sub>13</sub>	fcc	Fm3c			AmO <sub>2</sub> /Be/vac/heat	[7]
				6.338		Am/Bi/heat	[8]
bismuthide	AmBi	fcc	Fm3c			AmH <sub>3</sub> /Bi/heat	[8]
						arc melt	[9]
cobaltide	AmCo <sub>2</sub>	MgCu <sub>2</sub>		7.55		AmO <sub>2</sub> /H <sub>2</sub> /Ir/1550°C	[10]
	Ir <sub>2</sub> Am	cubic	Fd3m, Cu <sub>2</sub> Mg	7.30		arc melt, ferromagnetic	[9]
iridium	Fe <sub>2</sub> Am	cubic	Cu <sub>2</sub> Mg				
	Pb <sub>3</sub> Am	not reported				PbF <sub>2</sub> /AmF <sub>3</sub> /Ca/heat	[11]
lead	Ni <sub>2</sub> Am	cubic	Fd3m, Cu <sub>2</sub> Mg	6.99		Am/Ni/arc melt	[12]
	Os <sub>2</sub> Am	hexagonal	P6 <sub>3</sub> /mmc	5.320	8.849	Am/Os/arc melt	[12]
nickel	Pd <sub>3</sub> Am	cubic	Pm3m	4.158		Am <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> /Pd/H <sub>2</sub> /heat	[13]
	Pt <sub>2</sub> Am	cubic	Fd3m	7.615		Am <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> /Pt/H <sub>2</sub> /heat	[13]
osmium	Pt <sub>5</sub> Am	cubic	CaCu <sub>5</sub>	5.312	4.411	Am <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> /Pt/H <sub>2</sub> /heat	[13]
	Rh <sub>2</sub> Am	cubic	Fd3m, Cu <sub>2</sub> Mg	7.548		AmO <sub>2</sub> /Rh/H <sub>2</sub> /heat	[13]
palladium	Rh <sub>3</sub> Am	cubic	Pm3m, Cu <sub>3</sub> A	4.098		Am <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> /Rh/H <sub>2</sub> /heat	[14]
	Pt <sub>2</sub> Am	hexagonal	MgZn <sub>2</sub>	5.26	8.73	arc melt	[9]
platinum	Ru <sub>2</sub> Am	tetragonal	P4/mbm, U <sub>3</sub> Si <sub>2</sub>				[15]
	Rh <sub>3</sub> Am	tetragonal					
rhodium	Am <sub>2</sub> Ni <sub>2</sub> Sn						
	Am <sub>2</sub> Pd <sub>2</sub> Sn						
ruthenium							
ruthenium							
tin							

[1] (Hyde *et al.*, 1971; Aldred *et al.*, 1975); [2] (Mitchell and Lam, 1970a; Roddy, 1974; Charvillat *et al.*, 1975a, 1977); [3] (Charvillat *et al.*, 1975b); [4] (Roddy, 1974); [5] (Charvillat and Damien, 1973); [6] (Runnals and Boucher, 1955, 1956; Benedict *et al.*, 1975); [7] (Brachet and Vasseur, 1969); [8] (Roddy, 1974); [9] (Hyde *et al.*, 1971; Aldred *et al.*, 1975); [10] (Erdmann, 1971; Erdmann and Keller, 1971, 1973; Rebizant and Benedikt, 1978); [11] (Connor, 1982); [12] (Lam and Mitchell, 1972); [13] (Erdmann, 1971; Rebizant and Benedikt, 1978); [14] (Erdmann and Keller, 1971); [15] (Pereira *et al.*, 1997).



**Table 8.5** Inorganic compounds of americium.

Class	Structural formula	Symmetry	Type	Lattice constants			Angle (deg)	Comments	References	
				$a_0$ (Å)	$b_0$ (Å)	$c_0$ (Å)				
Aluminates	AmAlO <sub>3</sub>	hexagonal	R $\bar{3}m$ , LaAlO <sub>3</sub>	5.336		12.91	Am(OH) <sub>3</sub> /Al(OH) <sub>3</sub> / H <sub>2</sub> /heat	[1,2]		
Arsenates	AmAsO <sub>4</sub>	monoclinic	P2 <sub>1</sub> /n	6.89	7.06	6.62	$\beta = 105.5$	Am(vi)/0.1 M H <sub>3</sub> AsO <sub>4</sub> / pH 3.5, lemon yellow	[2]	
	NH <sub>4</sub> AmO <sub>2</sub>	tetragonal	P4/nmm or I4/mmm	7.11		8.93			[3]	
	AsO <sub>4</sub> · nH <sub>2</sub> O	tetragonal	P4/nmm or I4/mmm	7.10		9.09			Am(vi)/0.1 M H <sub>3</sub> AsO <sub>4</sub> / pH 3.5, lemon yellow	[3]
	KAmO <sub>2</sub>	tetragonal	I4/mmm	7.15		17.73			Am(vi)/0.1 M H <sub>3</sub> AsO <sub>4</sub> / pH 3.5, lemon yellow	[3]
	AsO <sub>4</sub> · nH <sub>2</sub> O	tetragonal	P4/nmm or I4/mmm	7.09		17.72			Am(vi)/0.1 M H <sub>3</sub> AsO <sub>4</sub> / pH 3.5, lemon yellow	[3]
	CsAmO <sub>2</sub>	tetragonal	P4/nmm or I4/mmm	7.09		17.72			Am(vi)/0.1 M H <sub>3</sub> AsO <sub>4</sub> / pH 3.5, lemon yellow	[3]
Borates	AsO <sub>4</sub> · nH <sub>2</sub> O	tetragonal	P4/nmm or I4/mmm	7.09		17.72	Am(vi)/0.1 M H <sub>3</sub> AsO <sub>4</sub> / pH 3.5, lemon yellow	[3]		
Borates	AmBO <sub>3</sub>	orthorhombic	Pnam	5.053	8.092	5.738	AmO <sub>2</sub> /B <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> /heat	[1,2]		
Borides	AmB <sub>4</sub>	tetragonal	P4/nbm	7.105		4.006	vac. heat Am/B 1:2	[4]		
	AmB <sub>6</sub>	simple cubic	Pm $\bar{3}m$	4.115			arc melt Am/B	[4]		
Bromides	AmBr <sub>2</sub>	tetragonal	P4/n, EuBr <sub>2</sub>	11.59		7.121	Am/HgBr <sub>2</sub> /vac./heat	[5,6]		
	AmBr <sub>3</sub>	orthorhombic	Cmca, PuBr <sub>3</sub>	4.064	12.66	9.144	$\beta = 91.75$	[7,8,9]		
	AmBr <sub>3</sub> · 6H <sub>2</sub> O	monoclinic	P2/n	9.955	6.783	8.166		AmBr <sub>3</sub> · H <sub>2</sub> O vapor ethanol pptn.	[9]	
	[(C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>5</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> PH] <sub>3</sub>							[10]		
	AmBr <sub>6</sub>									
AmOBr	tetragonal	P4/nmm	3.982		7.644		[11]			
Carbides	Am <sub>2</sub> C <sub>3</sub>	bcc	I43d	8.276			Am/C arc melt	[12]		
Carbonates	AmOHCO <sub>3</sub>	orthorhombic					Am(III)/NaHCO <sub>3</sub> /0.03% CO <sub>2</sub>	[13]		
	Am <sub>2</sub> (CO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> · 2H <sub>2</sub> O						Am(III)/trichloroacetate	[14]		
	Am <sub>2</sub> (CO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> · 4H <sub>2</sub> O						Am(III)/NaHCO <sub>3</sub> /CO <sub>2</sub>	[15]		
	NaAm(CO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> · nH <sub>2</sub> O	tetragonal	NaNdO <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub>	13.07		9.93	Am(III)/Na <sub>2</sub> CO <sub>3</sub> /5 M NaCl	[16]		

**Table 8.5 (Contd.)**

Class	Structural formula	Symmetry	Type	Lattice constants			Angle (deg)	Comments	References
				$a_0$ (Å)	$b_0$ (Å)	$c_0$ (Å)			
Chlorides	$\text{NH}_4\text{AmO}_2\text{CO}_3$	hexagonal	$C6/mmc$			9.740	$\text{Am(III)}/(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{CO}_3/\text{O}_3$	[17]	
	$\text{Nd}_{2x+1}\text{AmO}_2(\text{CO}_3)_{1+x}\cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$	hexagonal	$C6/mmc$	5.112		10.46	$\text{Am(VI)}/\text{Nd}_2\text{CO}_3/\text{heat}$ $n$ is variable with $\text{H}_2\text{O}$	[17,18] [18-20]	
	$\text{RbAmO}_2\text{CO}_3$	hexagonal	$C6/mmc$	5.123		11.538	$\text{Am(III)}/10\text{ M Rb}_2\text{CO}_3/\text{O}_3$	[17,21]	
	$\text{CsAmO}_2\text{CO}_3$	hexagonal	$C6/mmc$	5.32	9.21	8.76	$\text{Am(III)}/\text{CsHCO}_3/\text{O}_3$	[22]	
	$\text{K}_3\text{AmO}_2(\text{CO}_3)_2 \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$	rhombic (a,b)	$C6/mmc$	5.29	9.11	8.83	(a) 4.7 M, (b) 2.3 M $\text{K}_2\text{CO}_3$	[20]	
	$\text{K}_2\text{AmO}_2(\text{CO}_3)_3$	orthorhombic					$\text{Am(III)}/3.5\text{ M K}_2\text{CO}_3$	[23]	
	$(\text{NH}_4)_8\text{AmO}_2(\text{CO}_3)_3$						$\text{Am(III)}/>5\text{ M K}_2\text{CO}_3/\text{O}_3$	[17,24]	
	$(\text{NH}_4)_{14}\text{AmO}_2(\text{CO}_3)_3$						$\text{Am(VI)}/\text{NH}_4\text{CO}_3$	[3]	
	$\text{Cs}_4\text{AmO}_2(\text{CO}_3)_3$						$\text{Am(VI)}/\text{NaHCO}_3/(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{CO}_3$	[25]	
							$\text{Am(VI)}/\text{NaHCO}_3/\text{Cs}_2\text{CO}_3$	[25]	
		$\text{AmCl}_2$	orthorhombic	$Pbmm$	8.963	7.573	4.532	$\text{Am}/\text{HgCl}_2/\text{heat}$	[5,6]
		$\text{AmCl}_3$	hexagonal	$P6_3/m$	7.382		4.214	$\text{AmO}_2/\text{HCl}$	[7-9,26]
		$\text{AmCl}_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$	monoclinic	$P2/n$	9.702	6.567	8.009		[26,27]
		$\text{AmOCl}$	tetragonal	$P4/mmm$	4.00		6.78		[28]
		$\text{CsAmCl}_4$							[29]
		$\text{Cs}_3\text{AmCl}_6$							[29,30]
		$\text{Cs}_2\text{NaAmCl}_6$							[31]
	$[(\text{C}_6\text{H}_5)_3\text{PH}]_3$							[29,30,32]	
	$\text{AmCl}_6$	fcc	$Fm\bar{3}m$	10.8548(8)			$\text{Am(V)}/\text{HCl}/\text{CsCl}/\text{NaCl}$ ethanol pptn.	[10,33]	
	$\text{Rb}_2\text{AmO}_2\text{Cl}_4$	monoclinic	$C2/c$	11.53	7.48	5.65		[3]	
	$\text{Cs}_2\text{AmO}_2\text{Cl}_4$	monoclinic	$C2/c$	11.92	7.61	11.67		[3]	
Chromate	$(\text{AmO}_2)_2\text{CrO}_4 \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$						20-80°C	[34]	
Fluorides	$\text{AmF}_3$	hexagonal	$P\bar{3}c1$ , $\text{LaF}_3$	7.044		7.225	m.p. 1400°C/v.p.	[35]	
	$\text{AmF}_4$	monoclinic	$C2/c$ , $\text{UF}_4$	12.538	10.516	8.204	$\text{AmF}_3/\text{F}_2/\text{v.p.}$	[36,37]	
	$\text{AmO}_2\text{F}_2$	hexagonal	$R\bar{3}m$	4.136		15.85		[38]	
	$\text{AmF}_6$						$\text{KrF}_2/\text{HF}(\text{li})$ ; dark brown	[39]	

NaAmF <sub>4</sub>	hexagonal	<i>P6</i>	6.109	3.731	AmO <sub>2</sub> /HF–H <sub>2</sub> /NaF	[40,41]
KAmF <sub>4</sub>	orthorhombic	<i>Pmma</i>	6.13	15.2		[42]
K <sub>3</sub> AmF <sub>6</sub>	hexagonal	<i>K<sub>3</sub>LaF<sub>6</sub></i>	22.75	3.71	AmO <sub>2</sub> /HF–H <sub>2</sub> /KF/ 650°C	[42]
K <sub>2</sub> AmF <sub>5</sub>	cubic	<i>K<sub>2</sub>PtF<sub>5</sub></i>	5.857			[42]
KAm <sub>2</sub> F <sub>7</sub>	monoclinic	<i>KEu<sub>2</sub>F<sub>7</sub></i>			Am(OH) <sub>3</sub> /NH <sub>4</sub> F	[41,42]
(NH <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>4</sub> AmF <sub>8</sub>		<i>C2/c</i>				[43]
LiAmF <sub>5</sub>	tetragonal	(NH <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>4</sub> UF <sub>8</sub> <i>I4<sub>1</sub>/a</i>	14.63	6.449		[44]
K <sub>7</sub> Am <sub>6</sub> F <sub>31</sub>	hexagonal	<i>R3</i>	14.938	10.293	Am(m)/KF	[44,45]
N <sub>4-7</sub> Am <sub>6</sub> F <sub>31</sub>	hexagonal	<i>R3</i>	14.48	9.665		[45]
RbAmF <sub>4</sub>	orthorhombic	<i>Pmma</i>	6.43	3.76		[42]
Rb <sub>2</sub> AmF <sub>6</sub>	orthorhombic	<i>Cmca</i>	6.962	7.579		[45,46]
KAmO <sub>2</sub> F <sub>2</sub>	rhombohedral	<i>R3m</i> , CaUO <sub>4</sub>	6.78	12.001	AmO <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup> /KF	[47]
RbAmO <sub>2</sub> F <sub>2</sub>	rhombohedral	<i>R3m</i>	6.789		AmO <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup> /RbF	[48]
AmGeO <sub>4</sub>	Tetragonal	<i>I4<sub>1</sub>/a</i>	5.04	11.03		[49]
AmH <sub>2</sub>	fcc	<i>Fm3m</i>	5.348		AmH <sub>2+x</sub> , x = 0–0.7	[50,51]
AmH <sub>3</sub>	trigonal	<i>P3c1</i>	6.68	6.75		[51]
Am(OH) <sub>3</sub> (am)	hexagonal	Nd(OH) <sub>3</sub>	6.426	3.745		[52]
Am(OH) <sub>3</sub> (cr)					Am(m)/NaOH, K <sub>sp</sub> ~ 3 × 10 <sup>-18</sup>	[53]
Am(OH) <sub>4</sub>					Am <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> (s)/H <sub>2</sub> O(g)	[54]
LiAmO <sub>2</sub> (OH) <sub>2</sub> · xH <sub>2</sub> O					Am(OH) <sub>3</sub> /NaOCl	[55]
NaAmO <sub>2</sub> (OH) <sub>2</sub> · xH <sub>2</sub> O					Am(v)/0.1–2 M LiOH	[55]
KAmO <sub>2</sub> (OH) <sub>2</sub> · xH <sub>2</sub> O					Am(v)/0.1–0.5 M NaOH	[55]
RbAmO <sub>2</sub> (OH) <sub>2</sub> · xH <sub>2</sub> O					Am(v)/0.1–0.5 M KOH	[55]
CsAmO <sub>2</sub> (OH) <sub>2</sub> · xH <sub>2</sub> O					Am(v)/0.1–0.5 M RbOH	[56]
Na <sub>2</sub> AmO <sub>2</sub> (OH) <sub>3</sub> · xH <sub>2</sub> O					Am(v)/0.1–0.5 M CsOH	[56]
K <sub>2</sub> AmO <sub>2</sub> (OH) <sub>3</sub> · xH <sub>2</sub> O					Am(v)/2 M NaOH	[55]
Rb <sub>2</sub> AmO <sub>2</sub> (OH) <sub>3</sub> · xH <sub>2</sub> O					Am(v)/2 M KOH	[55]
Cs <sub>2</sub> AmO <sub>2</sub> (OH) <sub>3</sub> · xH <sub>2</sub> O					Am(v)/>2 M RbOH	[56]
					Am(v)/>2 M CsOH	[56]
AmI <sub>2</sub>	monoclinic		7.677	8.311	Am/H <sub>2</sub> /I <sub>2</sub> /vac.	[57]
α-AmI <sub>3</sub>	orthorhombic	<i>Cmmm</i>	4.31	14.03	AmO <sub>2</sub> /AlI <sub>3</sub>	[8,58]
β-AmI <sub>3</sub>	hexagonal	<i>R3</i>	7.42	20.55		[8,58]
AmOI	tetragonal		4.011	9.204		[8,58]
Am(IO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>3</sub>	monoclinic	<i>P2<sub>1</sub>/c</i>	7.243	8.538	Am/HCl/KIO <sub>4</sub> /180°C	[59]
K <sub>3</sub> Am <sub>3</sub> (IO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> · HIO <sub>3</sub>	triclinic		22.096	22.096	Am/KIO <sub>4</sub> /180°C	[59]
					β = 98.46	
					γ = 120	
					β = 100.123	
					γ = 120	
					β = 98.46	
					γ = 120	
					β = 100.123	
					γ = 120	

### Germanate

### Hydrides

### Hydroxide

### Iodides

### Iodates

**Table 8.5 (Contd.)**

Class	Structural formula	Symmetry	Type	Lattice constants			Angle (deg)	Comments	References
				$a_0$ (Å)	$b_0$ (Å)	$c_0$ (Å)			
Molybdates	$\alpha$ -Am <sub>2</sub> (MoO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>3</sub>	tetragonal	I4 <sub>1</sub> /a	5.24		11.52	AmO <sub>2</sub> /MoO <sub>3</sub> ~ 825°C	[60,61]	
	$\beta$ -Am <sub>2</sub> (MoO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>3</sub>	orthorhombic		9.095	10.527	10.820	AmO <sub>2</sub> /MoO <sub>3</sub> > 850°C	[60,61]	
	LiAm(MoO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>	tetragonal	I4 <sub>1</sub> /a	5.20		11.39	Am <sub>2</sub> (MoO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> /Li <sub>2</sub> MoO <sub>4</sub>	[61]	
	Am <sub>2</sub> (MoO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>3</sub>	tetragonal	LiGd(MoO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>					[60]	
	NaAm(MoO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub>	tetragonal	scheelite	5.25		11.55	solid-state reaction	[61]	
	Na <sub>5</sub> Am(MoO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>4</sub>	tetragonal	scheelite	11.515		11.429	solid-state reaction	[61]	
	K <sub>2</sub> Am(MoO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>4</sub>		Na <sub>5</sub> La(WoO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>4</sub>				solid-state reaction	[61]	
	K <sub>10</sub> Am(MoO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>8</sub>						AmO <sub>2</sub> NO <sub>3</sub> /K <sub>6</sub> Mo <sub>7</sub> O <sub>24</sub>	[62]	
	K <sub>3</sub> AmO <sub>2</sub>							[62]	
	(Mo <sub>5</sub> O <sub>7</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> · nH <sub>2</sub> O						AmO <sub>2</sub> NO <sub>3</sub> /(NH <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>6</sub>	[62]	
	(NH <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> AmO <sub>2</sub>						Mo <sub>7</sub> O <sub>24</sub>	[62]	
	(Mo <sub>5</sub> O <sub>7</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> · nH <sub>2</sub> O						AmO <sub>2</sub> SO <sub>4</sub> /Na <sub>2</sub> MoO <sub>4</sub>	[62]	
	AmO <sub>2</sub> Mo <sub>2</sub> O <sub>7</sub>						< 100°C	[62]	
	Nitride	AmN	fcc	<i>Fm</i> 3 <i>m</i> , NaCl	5.000			Am(AmH <sub>3</sub> )/N <sub>2</sub>	[63,64]
Nitrate	CsAmO <sub>2</sub> (NO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>3</sub>						Cs <sub>24</sub> AmO <sub>2</sub> (CO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> /2M HNO <sub>3</sub> /O <sub>2</sub> ; evap	[25]	
Oxides	AmO(?)	fcc	<i>Fm</i> 3 <i>m</i>	5.045			Am/Ag <sub>2</sub> O	[63,65]	
	A-Am <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	hexagonal	<i>P</i> 3 <i>m</i> 1	3.817		5.971	AmO <sub>2</sub> /H <sub>2</sub> /800°C	[66,70]	
	B-Am <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	monoclinic	<i>C</i> 2 <i>m</i>	14.38		8.92		[67,68]	
	C-Am <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	cubic	<i>Ia</i> 3	11.03	3.52		600°C	[66,69,70]	
	AmO <sub>2</sub>	fcc	<i>Fm</i> 3 <i>m</i>	5.374			<sup>241</sup> AmO <sub>2</sub> , <sup>243</sup> AmO <sub>2</sub>	[70,71]	
	AmO <sub>2-x</sub>							[67,74]	
	LiAmO <sub>2</sub>							[1,72,73]	
	Li <sub>2</sub> AmO <sub>3</sub>							[1,72,73]	
	Li <sub>8</sub> AmO <sub>6</sub>	hexagonal	Li <sub>8</sub> PbO <sub>6</sub>	5.62		15.96		[1,72,73]	
	Li <sub>3</sub> AmO <sub>4</sub>	tetragonal	Li <sub>3</sub> UO <sub>4</sub>	4.459		8.355		[1,72,73]	



**Table 8.5 (Contd.)**

Class	Structural formula	Symmetry	Type	Lattice constants			Angle (deg)	Comments	References
				$a_0$ (Å)	$b_0$ (Å)	$c_0$ (Å)			
Phosphates	AmPO <sub>4</sub>	monoclinic	$P2_1/n$	6.73	6.93	6.41	103.5	stable to 1000°C	[2]
	AmPO <sub>4</sub> · 0.5H <sub>2</sub> O	Hexagonal		6.99		6.39		pptn. dried at 200°C	[2]
	NH <sub>4</sub> AmO <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> · 3H <sub>2</sub> O							Am(vi)/NaHCO <sub>3</sub> / NH <sub>4</sub> H <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub>	[25]
	NH <sub>4</sub> AmO <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> · zH <sub>2</sub> O	tetragonal	$P4/nmm$ or $I4/mmm$	6.99		9.06		Am(vi)/0.1 M H <sub>3</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> / pH 3.5, lemon yellow	[3]
	KAmO <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> · zH <sub>2</sub> O	tetragonal	$P4/nmm$ or $I4/mmm$	6.91		9.00		Am(vi)/0.1 M H <sub>3</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> / pH 3.5, lemon yellow	[3]
	RbAmO <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> · zH <sub>2</sub> O	tetragonal	$P4/nmm$ or $I4/mmm$	6.94		9.02		Am(vi)/0.1 M H <sub>3</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> / pH 3.5, lemon yellow	[3]
Phosphide	Cs <sub>3</sub> AmO <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> · zH <sub>2</sub> O	tetragonal	$P4/nmm$ or $I4/mmm$	6.94		8.82		Am(vi)/0.1 M H <sub>3</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> / pH 3.5, lemon yellow	[3]
	AmP	cubic	NaCl	5.711				AmH <sub>3</sub> /P/580°C	[63,80]
Rhenate	Am(ReO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>3</sub>	hexagonal		10.11		6.26		AmO <sub>2</sub> /aq HReO <sub>4</sub> AmO <sub>2</sub> /Re <sub>2</sub> O <sub>7</sub> /850°C	[81] [81]
Scandate	AmScO <sub>3</sub>	orthorhombic	$P6mm$ , GdFeO <sub>3</sub>	5.540	5.785	8.005		AmO <sub>2</sub> /H <sub>2</sub> /Sc <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> oxidation yields fluorite	[82] [68]
Selenates	AmSe	cubic	NaCl	5.821				AmH <sub>3</sub> /Se	[63]
	AmSe <sub>2-x</sub>	tetragonal		4.096		8.347			[83]
	Am <sub>3</sub> Se <sub>4</sub>	bcc	$I43d$ , Th <sub>3</sub> P <sub>4</sub>	8.799					[63,80,86]
Silicate	AmSiO <sub>4</sub>	tetragonal	zircon	6.87		6.20		hydrothermal	[49]
Silicide	Am <sub>6</sub> Si <sub>3</sub>	orthorhombic		11.419		5.538		AmF <sub>3</sub> /Si/1050°C	[84]
	AmSi	hexagonal		8.39	4.09	6.01		AmF <sub>3</sub> /Si/1050°C	[85]
	Am <sub>3</sub> Si <sub>5</sub> · · · Am <sub>2</sub> Si <sub>3</sub>	tetragonal	Pu <sub>3</sub> Si <sub>5</sub> α-ThSi <sub>2</sub>	3.871		4.120		AmF <sub>3</sub> /Si/1050°C	[84]
	AmSi <sub>x</sub> (x < 2)			4.02		13.7			[85]

Sulfates	$\text{Am}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 \cdot 8\text{H}_2\text{O}$								[37]	
	$\text{Am}_2\text{O}_5\text{SO}_4$								[37]	
	$\text{Am}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$								[37]	
	$\text{KAm}(\text{SO}_4)_2$								[37]	
	$\text{NaAm}(\text{SO}_4)_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$								[37]	
	$\text{KAm}(\text{SO}_4)_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$								[37]	
	$\text{RbAm}(\text{SO}_4)_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$								[37]	
	$\text{CsAm}(\text{SO}_4)_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$								[37]	
	$\text{TlAm}(\text{SO}_4)_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$								[37]	
	$\text{K}_3\text{Am}(\text{SO}_4)_3 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$								[37]	
	$\text{K}_6\text{Am}_2(\text{SO}_4)_7$								[37]	
	$\text{Cs}_8\text{Am}_2(\text{SO}_4)_7$								[37]	
	$\text{Ti}_8\text{Am}(\text{SO}_4)_7$								[37]	
	$\{\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_6\}(\text{HSO}_4)_2$								[87]	
	$[\text{AmO}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3] \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$								[88]	
	$(\text{AmO}_2)_2\text{SO}_4 \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$								[88]	
	$\text{Cs}_8\text{AmO}_2\text{SO}_4 \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$								[88]	
	$\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_6\text{AmO}_2(\text{SO}_4)_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$								[88]	
	Sulfides	$\text{AmS}$	fcc	<i>Fm3m</i>	5.592					[89]
		$\text{Am}_2\text{O}_5\text{S}$	trigonal	<i>P3m</i>	3.91	6.772				[52]
$\text{AmS}_{1,9}$		tetragonal		3.938	7.981				[52]	
$\alpha\text{-Am}_2\text{S}_3$		orthorhombic	<i>Pnma</i>	3.98	6.39	15.36			[89,90]	
$\beta\text{-Am}_2\text{S}_3$									[91]	
$\gamma\text{-Am}_2\text{S}_3$		bcc	<i>I43m</i>	8.434					[91]	
$\text{Am}_{10}\text{S}_{14}\text{O}_3$									[91]	
$\text{AmTe}_2$		tetragonal		4.366	8.969				[63,92]	
$\text{AmTe}_3$		orthorhombic	<i>Bnmb</i>	4.399	25.57				[92]	
$\text{Am}_2\text{Te}_3$		orthorhombic	<i>Pbmm</i>	11.93	4.33				[93]	
Titanates	$\text{Am}_3\text{Te}_4$	bcc	<i>I43d</i>	9.394	12.12				[93,96]	
	$\text{Am}_2\text{Ti}_2\text{O}_7$	monoclinic		13.07	7.69				[94]	
	$\text{SrAm}_2\text{Ti}_4\text{O}_{12}$	tetragonal		3.89	7.75				[94]	
Tungstate	$\text{Am}_2(\text{WO}_4)_3$	tetragonal	<i>I4_1/a</i>						[60]	

$\text{AmO}_2\text{OH}/\text{aqH}_2\text{SO}_4/$

evap

aq.  $\text{Cs}_2\text{SO}_4/(\text{AmO}_2)_2$

$\text{SO}_4/\text{evap}$

$\alpha \rightarrow \gamma \sim 1300^\circ\text{C}$

$\text{AmHf}_3/\text{Te}/\text{heat}$

$\text{AmO}_2/\text{TiO}_2/$

1200–1300°C

$\text{SrCO}_3/\text{AmO}_2/\text{TiO}_2/$

1215°C

**Table 8.5 (Contd.)**

Class	Structural formula	Symmetry	Type	Lattice constants			Angle (deg)	Comments	References
				$a_0$ (Å)	$b_0$ (Å)	$c_0$ (Å)			
Vanadates	AmVO <sub>3</sub>	orthorhombic	Phmm, GdFeO <sub>3</sub>	5.45	5.58	7.76	AmO <sub>2</sub> /V <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	[1,2]	
	AmVO <sub>4</sub>	tetragonal	zircon	7.31		6.42		[1,2]	
Xenate	Am <sub>4</sub> (XeO <sub>6</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> ·40H <sub>2</sub> O							[95]	

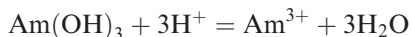
[1] (Keller and Walter, 1965); [2] (Keller, 1967); [3] (Lawaldt *et al.*, 1982); [4] (Eick and Mulford, 1969); [5] (Peterson, 1973); [6] (Baybarz, 1973b); [7] (Zachariassen, 1948b; Fried, 1951; Brown *et al.*, 1968; Pappalardo *et al.*, 1969b); [8] (Asprey *et al.*, 1965); [9] (Brown *et al.*, 1968); [10] (Ryan, 1967); [11] (Weigel *et al.*, 1979); [12] (Mitchell and Lam, 1970b); [13] (Runde *et al.*, 1992); [14] (Weigel and ter Meer, 1967); [15] (Fang and Keller, 1969); [16] (Runde and Kim, 1994); [17] (Nigon *et al.*, 1954); [18] (Coleman *et al.*, 1963); [19] (Keenan and Kruse, 1964); [20] (Volkov *et al.*, 1974); [21] (Ellinger and Zachariassen, 1954); [22] (Keenan, 1965); [23] (Burney, 1968); [24] (Yakovlev and Gorbenko-Germanov, 1955); [25] (Fedoseev and Perminov, 1983); [26] (Burns and Peterson, 1970, 1971); [27] (Lohr and Cunningham, 1951; Fuger and Cunningham, 1963); [28] (Weigel *et al.*, 1975); [29] (Bagnall *et al.*, 1968; Morss *et al.*, 1970); [30] (Bagnall *et al.*, 1967); [31] (Marcus and Shiloh, 1969); [32] (Schoebrechts *et al.*, 1989); [33] (Marcus and Borse, 1970); [34] (Fedoseev *et al.*, 1991); [35] (Jones, 1951; Carniglia and Cunningham, 1955; Burnett, 1965, 1966); [36] (Asprey, 1954; Asprey and Keenan, 1958; Chudinov and Choporov, 1970; Connor, 1971); [37] (Yakovlev and Kosyakov, 1958a, b); [38] (Keenan, 1968); [39] (Drobyshevskii *et al.*, 1980); [40] (Keller and Schmutz, 1964); [41] (Schmutz, 1966); [42] (Jove and Pages, 1977); [43] (Asprey and Penneman, 1962); [44] (Keenan, 1966); [45] (Keenan, 1967); [46] (Kruse and Asprey, 1962); [47] (Asprey *et al.*, 1954a); [48] (Keenan, 1965); [49] (Keller, 1963); [50] (Katz and Seaborg, 1957); [51] (Olson and Mulford, 1966); [52] (Weaver and Shoun, 1971; Haire *et al.*, 1977); [53] (Morss and Williams, 1994); [54] (Cunningham, 1949; Penneman *et al.*, 1961); [55] (Tananaev, 1990b); [56] (Tananaev, 1991); [57] (Baybarz and Asprey, 1972); [58] (Asprey *et al.*, 1964); [59] (Bean *et al.*, 2003b); [60] (Freundlich and Pages, 1969; Tabuteau and Pages, 1978); [61] (Tabuteau *et al.*, 1972); [62] (Fedoseev and Budantseva, 1990); [63] (UCRL, 1959; Akimoto, 1967); [63] (Charvillat *et al.*, 1975a); [64] (Charvillat and Zachariassen, 1977); [65] (Zachariassen, 1949a); [66] (Templeton and Dauben, 1953); [67] (Chikalla and Eyring, 1968; Chikalla *et al.*, 1973); [68] (Berndt *et al.*, 1974; Keller and Berndt, 1975); [69] (Eyring *et al.*, 1949, 1952); [70] (Hurtgen and Fuger, 1977); [71] (Fahey *et al.*, 1974); [72] (Keller *et al.*, 1965b); [73] (Hoekstra and Gebert, 1978); [74] (Chikalla and Eyring, 1967); [75] (Keller, 1964); [76] (Hoekstra and Gebert, 1978); [77] (Mosley, 1970); [78] (Radzewitz, 1966); [79] (Keller, 1965); [80] (Charvillat *et al.*, 1975b); [81] (Silvestre *et al.*, 1977); [82] (Keller *et al.*, 1972); [83] (Damien and Jove, 1971); [84] (Wittmann, 1980); [85] (Burns and Baybarz, 1972; Weigel *et al.*, 1977); [86] (Mitchell and Lam, 1970a; Roddy, 1974); [87] (Ueno and Hoshi, 1971); [88] (Fedoseev and Budantseva, 1989); [89] (Damien, 1971); [90] (Zachariassen, 1949d); [91] (Damien *et al.*, 1972, 1975, 1976); [92] (Burns *et al.*, 1979); [93] (Damien and Charvillat, 1972); [94] (Shoup and Bamberger, 1997); [95] (Marcus and Cohen, 1966).



temperatures of 600–800°C (Eyring *et al.*, 1952; Baybarz, 1960; Chikalla and Eyring, 1967; Hurtgen and Fuger, 1977; Morss and Fuger, 1981). This stoichiometry of the black oxide is believed to be  $\text{AmO}_{2.00}$  (Chikalla and Eyring, 1967, 1968) and is better than  $\text{AmO}_{1.99}$  even at 1000°C in oxygen (Chikalla and Eyring, 1967). It undergoes an expansion of its fcc lattice constant due to radiation damage, which reversibly broadens the diffraction lines at low temperatures in both  $^{241}\text{AmO}_2$  and  $^{243}\text{AmO}_2$  (Hurtgen and Fuger, 1977; Benedict and Dufour, 1980). Benedict and Dufour (1980) studied the variation of the lattice parameter, of the thermal linear expansion, and of the coefficient of thermal linear expansion for  $\text{AmO}_2$  in the range 38–300 K. Upon cooling,  $\text{AmO}_2$  contracts more strongly than the dioxides of the lower actinides. The lattice parameters quoted in Table 8.3 represent an extrapolation to zero time for both  $^{241}\text{AmO}_2$  and  $^{243}\text{AmO}_2$  (Fahey *et al.*, 1974; Hurtgen and Fuger, 1977).

There is no evidence for any binary oxide of americium higher than  $\text{AmO}_2$  (Katz and Gruen, 1949; Templeton and Dauben, 1953). However, ternary oxides are known for Am(III) through Am(VI) (Keller, 1964, 1965; Keller *et al.*, 1965b; Radzewitz, 1966; Mosley, 1970; Keller *et al.*, 1972; Keller and Berndt, 1975; Hoekstra and Gebert, 1978). Stabilization of high oxidation states in complex oxides is frequently observed (Keller, 1964, 1967; Morss, 1982); excellent examples are the thermally stable Am(VI) compounds  $\text{Cs}_2\text{AmO}_4$  and  $\text{Ba}_3\text{AmO}_6$ . Most complex oxides of americium have been prepared by Keller and Hoekstra and their coworkers (Keller, 1964, 1967; Keller *et al.*, 1965b; Hoekstra and Gebert, 1978).

Initially, americium was prepared in significant quantities as  $\text{Am}(\text{OH})_3$  and to date hydroxide phases are known for the oxidation states III–VI. Isostructural to its chemical analog  $\text{Nd}(\text{OH})_3$ , the Am(III) hydroxide is by far the most important americium hydroxide for separation and purification purposes and its solubility has been widely studied. The pinkish amorphous hydroxide precipitates by addition of dilute hydroxide to Am(III) solutions under ambient conditions. Rod-like microcrystalline  $\text{Am}(\text{OH})_3$ , similar to  $\text{Nd}(\text{OH})_3$ , is obtained in water after heating at 80°C for about 90 min (Milligan and Beasley, 1968). The transformation rate depends on various experimental parameters, such as solution composition, basicity, temperature, radiolysis, and the (pre)treatment of the precipitate. The crystalline phase can also be obtained by boiling a  $^{241}\text{Am}(\text{OH})_3$  suspension in 5 M NaOH (Silva, 1982) or hydration of  $\text{Am}_2\text{O}_3$  with steam at 225°C (Morss and Williams, 1994). The destruction of the crystalline phase by its own alpha-radiation depends strongly on the specific activity of the isotope used: complete degradation is obtained within 1 day using  $^{244}\text{Cm}(\text{III})$  (specific activity 3000 MBq  $\text{mg}^{-1}$ ) and 5 months with  $^{241}\text{Am}(\text{III})$  (specific activity 120 MBq  $\text{mg}^{-1}$ ) (Haire *et al.*, 1977). The complex aging behavior of  $\text{Am}(\text{OH})_3$  in aqueous solutions and the changes in particle size result in large differences in its solubility. Nevertheless, two thermodynamic solubility products for the reaction



have been recommended:  $\log K^\circ = 15.2 \pm 0.6$  for crystalline  $\text{Am}(\text{OH})_3$  and  $17.0 \pm 0.6$  for amorphous  $\text{Am}(\text{OH})_3$  (Silva *et al.*, 1995).

Few attempts to prepare and characterize  $\text{Am}(\text{OH})_4$  were reported, probably due to the instability of  $\text{Am}(\text{IV})$ . A black precipitate of  $\text{Am}(\text{OH})_4$  was obtained by heating  $\text{Am}(\text{OH})_3$  at  $90^\circ\text{C}$  in 0.2 M NaOH with NaOCl or in 7 M KOH with peroxydisulfate (Penneman *et al.*, 1961). The dissolution of this precipitate in sulfuric or nitric acid leads to a mixture of  $\text{Am}(\text{III})$ ,  $\text{Am}(\text{V})$ , and  $\text{Am}(\text{VI})$ . Structural and thermodynamic data on  $\text{Am}(\text{OH})_4$  are not known.  $\text{AmO}_2(\text{OH})$  has been suggested to precipitate in slightly basic concentrated NaCl solutions under inert atmosphere but the amorphous character of the solid phase inhibited characterization (Magirius *et al.*, 1985; Stadler and Kim, 1988; Giffaut and Vitorge, 1993; Runde and Kim, 1994; Runde *et al.*, 1996). In more concentrated hydroxide solutions ternary  $\text{Am}(\text{V})$  hydroxides, yellow  $\text{MAmO}_2(\text{OH})_2 \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$  at 0.1–0.5 M  $\text{OH}^-$  and rose-colored  $\text{M}_2\text{AmO}_2(\text{OH})_3 \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$  ( $\text{M} = \text{Na}, \text{K}, \text{Rb}, \text{Cs}$ ) at 0.5–2.0 M  $\text{OH}^-$  (Tananaev, 1990b, 1991), form, and were characterized by X-ray diffraction. Only the lithium compound appeared to be stable over the entire range of hydroxide concentrations. No information on  $\text{Am}(\text{VI})$  hydroxides is available.

### (b) Hydrides

Olson and Mulford (1966) characterized the  $^{241}\text{Am}$ –hydrogen system and found parallels to the lanthanides. The reported  $\text{AmH}_{2+x}$  (fcc) phase is isostructural with  $\text{NpH}_{2+x}$ ,  $\text{PuH}_{2+x}$ , and most of the rare earth dihydrides (Roddy, 1973). There is also a phase that approximates hexagonal  $\text{AmH}_3$ . Although the lattice parameters were reported to be  $a_0 = 3.77 \text{ \AA}$  and  $c_0 = 6.75 \text{ \AA}$  (Olson and Mulford, 1966), Keller (1971) has pointed out that recent data on  $\text{HoD}_3$  makes the most probable space group  $P3c1$  (lattice parameters are given in Table 8.3). A study by Roddy (1973) with  $^{243}\text{Am}$  essentially confirms this conclusion.

### (c) Halides

A number of americium halides have been synthesized with americium in oxidation states II–VI and the halide systems have been studied extensively. Most remarkable are the halides of americium in extreme oxidation states, i.e. divalent and hexavalent. While solid structures are rare for divalent americium compounds, the black halides,  $\text{AmCl}_2$  and  $\text{AmBr}_2$  (Baybarz, 1973b), and  $\text{AmI}_2$  (Figure 8.8) (Baybarz and Asprey, 1972) were prepared by reacting metallic americium with the corresponding mercuric halides at  $300\text{--}400^\circ\text{C}$ . The dihalides cannot be prepared by hydrogen reduction of the  $\text{Am}(\text{III})$  halides, although

hydrogen reduction is successful for the chemical analog lanthanides Sm, Eu, and Yb. Interestingly, all three compounds crystallize in different lattices: orthorhombic  $\text{AmCl}_2$ , tetragonal  $\text{AmBr}_2$ , and monoclinic  $\text{AmI}_2$ .

- (1)  $\text{Am(III)}$ : A number of  $\text{Am(III)}$  halides have been synthesized and their compositions range from binary  $\text{AmX}_3$  adducts such as  $\text{AmCl}_3 \cdot \text{MCl}$  where  $\text{MCl}$  is  $\text{LiCl}$ ,  $\text{CsCl}$ ,  $(\text{C}_4\text{H}_9)_4\text{NCl}$ , or  $(\text{C}_2\text{H}_5)_4\text{NCl}$ , to ternary complexes, i.e.  $\text{MAmX}_4$ ,  $\text{M}_2\text{AmX}_5$ ,  $\text{KAm}_2\text{F}_7$ , and  $\text{M}_2\text{AmX}_6$  and  $\text{M}_3\text{AmX}_3$ . In addition, Bagnall *et al.* (1968) and Morss *et al.* (1970) made the cubic derivative  $\text{Cs}_2\text{NaAmCl}_6$ , in which the americium atoms are surrounded by six chlorides in an octahedral environment. The iodide  $\text{AmI}_3$  is the only actinide triiodide known to be dimorphic; spectrophotometric observations indicate a pressure-induced phase transition from the rhombohedral to the orthorhombic structure (Haire *et al.*, 1985). The compound  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{AmCl}_5$  decomposes at  $300^\circ\text{C}$  under vacuum to form  $\text{AmCl}_3$  (Schleid *et al.*, 1987). Crystal structures have been reported for  $\text{AmF}_3$  (Templeton and Dauben, 1953),  $\text{AmCl}_3$  (Burns and Peterson, 1970) and  $\text{AmCl}_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (Burns and Peterson, 1971),  $\text{AmBr}_3$  and  $\text{AmI}_3$  (Zachariasen, 1948b; Baybarz and Asprey, 1972), and  $\text{AmOX}$  ( $\text{X} = \text{Cl}$  Figure 8.8 (Templeton and Dauben, 1953),  $\text{Br}$  (Weigel *et al.*, 1979) and  $\text{I}$  (Baybarz and Asprey, 1972)). Octahedral  $\text{AmCl}_6^{3-}$  and  $\text{AmBr}_6^{3-}$  can be prepared as triphenyl phosphonium salts in anhydrous ethanol (Ryan, 1967; Marcus and Bomse, 1970).
- (2)  $\text{Am(IV)}$ : Orange-pink crystals of orthorhombic  $\text{Rb}_2\text{AmF}_6$  form in concentrated aqueous fluoride solutions with  $\text{RbAmO}_2\text{F}_2$  or  $\text{Am(OH)}_4$  (Kruse and Asprey, 1962).
- (3)  $\text{Am(V)}$ : The ternary  $\text{Am(V)}$  fluorides,  $\text{KAmO}_2\text{F}_2$  (Asprey *et al.*, 1954a) and  $\text{RbAmO}_2\text{F}_2$ , precipitate from concentrated aqueous fluoride solutions of  $\text{Am(V)}$  and consist of  $\text{AmO}_2\text{F}_2^-$  connected by  $\text{K}^+$  or  $\text{Rb}^+$  cations. In contact with acidic  $\text{RbF}$  solution,  $\text{RbAmO}_2\text{F}_2$  reduces overnight to  $\text{Rb}_2\text{AmF}_6$  (Kruse and Asprey, 1962). The green chloride  $\text{Cs}_3\text{AmO}_2\text{Cl}_4$  precipitates with ethanol from 6 M  $\text{HCl}$  containing  $\text{Am(V)}$  hydroxide and  $\text{CsCl}$  (Bagnall *et al.*, 1968) and is isostructural with the analogous  $\text{Np(V)}$  compound (Bagnall *et al.*, 1967).
- (4)  $\text{Am(VI)}$ : The binary  $\text{Am(VI)}$  fluoride  $\text{AmO}_2\text{F}_2$  was prepared by reacting solid sodium  $\text{Am(VI)}$  acetate with anhydrous  $\text{HF}$  containing a small amount of  $\text{F}_2$  at  $-196^\circ\text{C}$  (Keenan, 1968). The compound is isostructural with other actinyl(VI) fluorides. Dark-red  $\text{Cs}_2\text{AmO}_2\text{Cl}_4$  is obtained by the unusual oxidation of  $\text{Cs}_3\text{AmO}_2\text{Cl}_4$  in concentrated  $\text{HCl}$  (Bagnall *et al.*, 1967). The cubic form of  $\text{Cs}_2\text{AmO}_2\text{Cl}_4$  appears to transform to a monoclinic form when washed with small volumes of concentrated  $\text{HCl}$  (Bagnall *et al.*, 1968). It is suggested that the cubic form is probably a mixed oxidation state compound of formula  $\text{Cs}_7(\text{AmO}_2)(\text{AmO}_2)_2\text{Cl}_{12}$  (Melkaya *et al.*, 1982).

Conflicting claims have been put forth concerning the existence of  $\text{AmF}_6$ . Drobysheskii *et al.* (1980) reported generating a solid by reaction of  $\text{AmF}_3$

with  $\text{KrF}_2$  in anhydrous HF and inferred its composition to be  $\text{AmF}_6$  based upon its volatility, IR spectrum, and hydrolysis to  $\text{AmO}_2^{2+}$ ; the IR absorption band at  $604 \pm 3 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  is expected for the  $\nu_3$  mode of  $\text{AmF}_6$ . Fargeas *et al.* (1986) also inferred the existence of  $\text{AmF}_6$  in their experiments from thermochromatography data. Most recently, Gibson and Haire (1992b) report that they were not able to confirm the existence of  $\text{AmF}_6$ ; in their words, "... but have not been able to identify or provide evidence for the elusive and controversial  $\text{AmF}_6$  species, despite having invoked several synthetic approaches and the sensitive analytical tool of mass spectrometry." Given these latest results, we have elected not to list  $\text{AmF}_6$  among the identified inorganic compounds of americium in Table 8.5. It is interesting to note, however, that the proposed hexachloro compound of  $\text{Am}(\text{VI})$  appears to be sufficiently stable to permit X-ray crystallographic studies.

#### (d) Chalcogenides and pnictides

The chalcogenides of americium comprise a number of compounds with the general formula  $\text{AmX}$  ( $\text{X} = \text{S}, \text{Se}, \text{Te}$ ),  $\text{AmTe}_2$ ,  $\text{Am}_3\text{X}_4$  ( $\text{X} = \text{S}, \text{Se}, \text{Te}$ ),  $\text{AmX}_3$  ( $\text{X} = \text{S}, \text{Se}, \text{Te}$ ),  $\text{Am}_2\text{X}_3$  ( $\text{X} = \text{S}, \text{Se}, \text{Te}$ ), and substoichiometric compounds  $\text{AmX}_{2-n}$  ( $\text{X} = \text{S}, \text{Se}$ ). Some structural and synthetic properties of these chalcogenides, insofar as they have been determined, are briefly listed in Table 8.5; additional details concerning these compounds are provided in this section. The authors of this chapter are not aware that the chalcogenides are of any but academic interest.

The reaction of  $\text{AmH}_3$  with stoichiometric amounts of selenium or telluride metal at  $800^\circ\text{C}$  in a vacuum yields the monochalcogenides  $\text{AmSe}$  and  $\text{AmTe}$ , respectively (Charvillat *et al.*, 1975a, 1977). Further heating of the monochalcogenides at  $1100\text{--}1200^\circ\text{C}$  produces  $\text{Am}_3\text{X}_4$  and a second phase that was identified as (probably unreacted)  $\text{AmX}$  (Charvillat *et al.*, 1975a, 1977). In contrast,  $\alpha\text{-Am}_2\text{S}_3$  and not  $\text{AmS}$  is obtained when  $\text{AmH}_3$  is heated with elemental sulfur at  $500^\circ\text{C}$ ; it decomposes to  $\gamma\text{-Am}_2\text{S}_3$  and  $\text{AmS}$  when heated in a vacuum above  $650^\circ\text{C}$  (Damien, 1971).

Americium sesquisulfide exhibits a complex structural chemistry and apparently exists in three different crystalline forms.  $\alpha\text{-Am}_2\text{S}_3$  is obtained by vapor-phase reaction for 4 days of a stoichiometric amount of sulfur with  $\text{AmH}_3$  in a quartz and Pyrex tube sealed under high vacuum (Damien, 1971). The quartz end of the tube is heated at  $500^\circ\text{C}$  and the Pyrex part is maintained at  $300^\circ\text{C}$  to prevent sulfur from condensing. According to Damien *et al.* (1972),  $\alpha\text{-Am}_2\text{S}_3$  transforms into  $\beta\text{-Am}_2\text{S}_3$  when heated at  $1100^\circ\text{C}$ . However, the existence of the  $\beta$ -form of americium sesquisulfide is seriously in doubt since the same French scientists believe that  $\beta\text{-Am}_2\text{S}_3$  is better considered an oxysulfide, namely  $\text{Am}_{10}\text{S}_{14}\text{O}$ . When heated in a vacuum at  $1300^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $\alpha\text{-Am}_2\text{S}_3$  changes to pure  $\gamma\text{-Am}_2\text{S}_3$  (Damien, 1971). The pure  $\gamma\text{-Am}_2\text{S}_3$  can also be prepared by passing a mixture of  $\text{H}_2\text{S}$  and  $\text{CS}_2$  over heated ( $1400\text{--}1500^\circ\text{C}$ )  $\text{AmO}_2$  for 5 min

(Fried, 1951). Zachariassen (1949d) determined the crystal structure of  $\gamma$ - $\text{Am}_2\text{S}_3$ .  $\text{Am}_2\text{Te}_3$  is formed by dissociation of  $\text{AmTe}_2$  at  $600^\circ\text{C}$  and is isostructural with the rare earth sesquiterellurides ( $\eta$ -form) (Damien and Charvillat, 1972). The  $\text{Am}_2\text{Te}_3$  phase is stable up to around  $850^\circ\text{C}$  and transforms into  $\text{Am}_3\text{Te}_4$  above  $900^\circ\text{C}$ . No sesquiselenide of americium has been reported.

The only americium trichalcogenide yet reported,  $\text{AmTe}_3$ , is prepared by vapor-phase reaction of  $\text{AmH}_3$  with excess tellurium for 120 h at  $350^\circ\text{C}$  (Damien, 1972; Burns *et al.*, 1979). Orthorhombic  $\text{AmTe}_3$  is isostructural with the corresponding rare earth tritellurides and is used as a precursor for the synthesis of a number of americium/tellurium compounds. In a high vacuum at  $400^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $\text{AmTe}_3$  dissociates to tetragonal  $\text{AmTe}_2$ , which is the only stoichiometric americium dichalcogenide.  $\text{AmTe}_2$  is isostructural with the rare earth ditellurides and most likely has the  $\text{Fe}_2\text{As}$ -type structure. Roddy (1974) prepared what appeared to be tetragonal  $\text{AmSe}_2$  by heating  $^{243}\text{Am}$  metal or hydride with selenium metal for 24 h at  $950^\circ\text{C}$ . However, although two research groups (Charvillat *et al.*, 1977; Burns *et al.*, 1979) reported the preparation and properties of  $\text{AmTe}_2$ , Damien and Jove (1971) state that the  $\text{AmTe}_2$  prepared as described above is rather a tellurium-deficient compound  $\text{AmTe}_{2-x}$  with a large homogeneity range between 400 and  $600^\circ\text{C}$ . The same homogeneity range seems to exist in the  $\text{Am-S}$  and  $\text{Am-Se}$  system and the dichalcogenides actually have a composition near  $\text{AmS}_{1.9}$  and  $\text{AmSe}_{1.8}$ . The black non-stoichiometric compounds are prepared by heating an excess of sulfur or selenium metal with  $\text{AmH}_3$  for 1 week at  $400^\circ\text{C}$  under high vacuum (Damien and Jove, 1971).

The americium chalcogenides  $\text{Am}_3\text{Se}_4$  and  $\text{Am}_3\text{Te}_4$  are isostructural (bcc) with  $\text{Th}_3\text{P}_4$  and are without magnetic ordering down to 4.2 K (Dunlap *et al.*, 1972). Both compounds can be prepared by heating  $^{243}\text{Am}$  metal with elemental selenium or tellurium for 24 h at  $950^\circ\text{C}$  (Roddy, 1974). However, X-ray diffraction measurements show that this synthesis contains at least one other phase (Dunlap *et al.*, 1972).  $\text{Am}_3\text{Se}_4$  (bcc) is also formed when a mixture of 50 mass% americium metal and 50 mass% elemental selenium is heated for 1 h at  $217^\circ\text{C}$  and then for 7 h at  $850^\circ\text{C}$  before cooling to room temperature (Mitchell and Lam, 1970a).  $\text{Am}_3\text{Te}_4$  also forms by decomposition of  $\eta$ - $\text{Am}_2\text{Te}_3$  at  $900^\circ\text{C}$  (Damien and Charvillat, 1972).

Compounds of americium with all group VB elements N, P, As, Sb, and Bi have been prepared. While  $\text{AmN}$  is of most interest due to its potential use as nuclear reactor fuel, the americium pnictides are mainly of academic interest. Ogawa *et al.* (1997) note that certain actinide nitrides, e.g.  $\text{UN}$ ,  $\text{NpN}$ ,  $\text{PuN}$ , can be fabricated by carbothermic reduction of their oxides in a nitrogen atmosphere. Based upon the thermodynamics of the carbothermic synthesis of  $\text{AmN}$ , calculations indicate that the carbothermic preparation of  $\text{AmN}$  would be much more difficult than preparation of either  $\text{UN}$  or  $\text{PuN}$ .

Americium nitride,  $\text{AmN}$ , was first prepared by reacting  $\text{AmH}_3$  (above  $800^\circ\text{C}$ ) or americium metal (at  $750^\circ\text{C}$ ) with nitrogen (Akimoto, 1967; Tagawa, 1971) or in a 99.9%  $\text{N}_2/0.1\%$   $\text{H}_2$  atmosphere (Radchenko *et al.*, 1982). Potter

and Tenney (1973) disclosed a cyclic process to prepare finely divided AmN, which consists of incrementally dehydrogenating AmH<sub>3</sub> and nitriding the metal. Charvillat *et al.* (1975a, 1977) prepared milligram quantities of AmN by heating AmH<sub>3</sub> at 550°C under high-purity nitrogen in a sealed tube. A review of the phase behavior and crystal structure of actinide nitrides has been published (Tagawa, 1971).

The only reported synthesis of AmP was published a quarter of a century ago. Charvillat *et al.* (1975a,b, 1977) synthesized AmP by reacting red phosphorus with AmH<sub>3</sub> in a sealed quartz tube at 580°C.

The product of the vapor-phase reaction of excess elemental arsenic with <sup>241</sup>AmH<sub>3</sub> at 330°C contains both unreacted elemental arsenic and a cubic phase that was assigned as AmAs by analogy with the corresponding NpAs and PuAs (Charvillat and Damien, 1973). Heating <sup>243</sup>Am metal and elemental arsenic for 24 h at 675°C and then 7 days at 400°C produces AmAs with slightly higher lattice parameters (Roddy, 1974). However, a slight decrease in the lattice parameters is observed after heating AmAs for 10 h at 1000°C. Weak lines that correspond to AmO are observed in the X-ray diffraction pattern of the resulting product indicating the existence of a solid solution between AmAs and AmO. The slight difference in lattice parameters may have been the result of an isotope effect or may be attributed to other minor americium oxide impurities.

The reaction of <sup>243</sup>Am metal with elemental antimony for 23 h at 775–900°C in an evacuated quartz bulb yielded cubic AmSb (Roddy, 1974). Cubic AmSb with almost the same lattice parameters was obtained by heating equimolar amounts of <sup>241</sup>Am metal and high-purity elemental antimony under vacuum for 1 h at 630°C (Mitchell and Lam, 1970a). The temperature was gradually raised to 850°C and held at this temperature for 7 h before cooling to room temperature. Finally, the resulting AmSb was heated at 1000°C for 24 h, cooled, and then heated again at 400°C for 10 days. The reaction of a 4:3 stoichiometric ratio of <sup>241</sup>AmH<sub>3</sub>: elemental antimony in a Pyrex tube at 550°C produced two phases, AmSb and a second phase with the bcc structure of anti-Th<sub>3</sub>P<sub>4</sub>-type (Charvillat *et al.*, 1975b).

Like AmP, AmBi has also been investigated. Roddy (1974) produced AmBi by reaction of metallic bismuth vapor with either americium metal or americium hydride in a sealed, evacuated quartz tube for 48 h at 975°C.

The magnetic susceptibilities of actinide chalcogenides and pnictides can be fit by the modified Curie–Weiss law:

$$\chi_{\text{measured}} = \chi_{\text{Curie+Weiss}} + \chi_0 = (C/(T - \theta_{\text{para}})) + \chi_0$$

where  $C$  is the Curie constant,  $\theta_{\text{para}}$  is the paramagnetic Curie temperature, and  $\chi_0$  is a generally temperature-independent additional term. For the americium compounds, the Curie–Weiss term vanishes and experimentally determined values for  $\chi_0$  are reported to be 777 for AmN, 550 for AmAs, 1250 for AmSb, and 500 for AmBi (Kanellakopulos *et al.*, 1975; Vogt *et al.*, 1998).

The effective magnetic moment of AmN is 136 Bohr magnetons (Nellis and Brodsky, 1974; Kanellakopoulos *et al.*, 1975) and that of AmAs is 1.14 Bohr magnetons (Kanellakopoulos *et al.*, 1975). Kanellakopoulos measured the magnetic susceptibility of AmAs between liquid helium and room temperature and observed an antiferromagnetic transition at 13 K. Magnetic susceptibility measurements on AmSb show a temperature-independent value of  $\chi_0 = (1250 \pm 100) \times 10^{-6} \text{ emu mol}^{-1}$  for the range  $4.2 \text{ K} < T < 320 \text{ K}$  (Dunlap *et al.*, 1972).

### (e) Carbides and carbonates

The binary Am(III) carbide,  $\text{Am}_2\text{C}_3$ , is the only known carbide of americium and is prepared by arc melting americium metal with high-purity graphite in an argon–helium atmosphere (Mitchell and Lam, 1970b). The compound is isostructural with  $\text{Pu}_2\text{C}_3$ .

Carbonate compounds of Am(III) and Am(V) have been synthesized and characterized. They are applied in separation processes and also may form under environmental conditions. No solid carbonates of Am(IV) or Am(VI) are known.

- (1) Am(III): The binary Am(III) carbonate,  $\text{Am}_2(\text{CO}_3)_3$ , precipitates from a  $\text{CO}_2$ -saturated solution of  $\text{NaHCO}_3$  (Meinrath and Kim, 1991b; Runde and Kim, 1994). Thermogravimetric analysis of the precipitated binary compound suggests the formula  $\text{Am}_2(\text{CO}_3)_3 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (Weigel and ter Meer, 1967) or  $\text{Am}_2(\text{CO}_3)_3 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (Keller and Fang, 1969). The ternary compounds  $\text{NaAm}(\text{CO}_3)_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{Na}_3\text{Am}(\text{CO}_3)_3 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$  precipitate from 0.5 M  $\text{NaHCO}_3$  and 1.5 M  $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3$  solutions, respectively (Keller and Fang, 1969). In analogy to neodymium and europium hydroxycarbonates, orthorhombic  $\text{AmOHCO}_3$  was characterized by X-ray powder diffraction data (Meinrath and Kim, 1991b; Runde *et al.*, 1992), but the formation of its hexagonal form (Standifer and Nitsche, 1988) could not be confirmed.
- (2) Am(V): A number of ‘double carbonates’ of general formula  $\text{MAmO}_2\text{CO}_3$  where M = K (Nigon *et al.*, 1954; Volkov *et al.*, 1974), Na (Nigon *et al.*, 1954; Runde and Kim, 1994), Rb, Cs,  $\text{NH}_4$  (Nigon *et al.*, 1954) have been synthesized by precipitation of Am(V) in dilute bicarbonate solutions of the corresponding cation. The use of large excess of alkali carbonate yields the  $\text{K}_3\text{AmO}_2(\text{CO}_3)_2$  and  $\text{K}_5\text{AmO}_2(\text{CO}_3)_3$  solids (Yakovlev and Gorbenko-Germanov, 1955; Volkov *et al.*, 1981).

### (f) Phosphates and sulfates

Light pink  $\text{AmPO}_4 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$  precipitates by adding dilute solutions of  $\text{H}_3\text{PO}_4$ ,  $\text{Na}_2\text{HPO}_4$ , or  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{HPO}_4$  to a weakly acidic  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  solution (Lawaldt *et al.*, 1982; Fedoseev and Perminov, 1983; Rai *et al.*, 1992). Rai and coworkers

suggest the precipitation of  $\text{AmPO}_4 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$  from dilute acidic solution but the study lacks characterization of the solid phase. Dehydration of the hydrous precipitate yields hexagonal  $\text{AmPO}_4 \cdot 0.5\text{H}_2\text{O}$  at  $200^\circ\text{C}$  and  $\text{AmPO}_4$  at higher temperatures up to  $1000^\circ\text{C}$ . The anhydrous compound can also be obtained by reacting  $\text{AmO}_2$  with stoichiometric amounts of  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{HPO}_4$  at  $600\text{--}1000^\circ\text{C}$ .

Because of the tendency of Am(vi) towards reduction to Am(v) at near-neutral pH, Am(vi) phosphates can be precipitated only in the narrow pH range of 3.5–4. Four ternary Am(vi) phosphates  $\text{MAmPO}_4 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$  with  $\text{M} = \text{NH}_4, \text{K}, \text{Rb}, \text{Cs}$  have been prepared by Lawaldt *et al.* (1982) by precipitating Am(vi) in 0.1 M  $\text{H}_3\text{PO}_4$  after adjusting the pH with the corresponding carbonate solution.

Binary sulfate compounds are known for Am(III), Am(v), and Am(vi), especially a large number of double sulfates of Am(III).

(1) Am(III): Evaporation of a neutral solution of  $^{243}\text{Am(III)}$  sulfate yields thick, up to 0.5 mm long, tabular, pale yellow-pink crystals of  $\text{Am}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 \cdot 8\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (Burns and Baybarz, 1972). Crystals of the octahydrate, after being dried in air, are stable to change in their degree of hydration for several days. On the basis of analyses for americium, sulfate, and water, Yakovlev *et al.* (1958) assign the formula  $\text{Am}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$  to the precipitate obtained by adding ethanol to a solution of Am(III) in 0.5 M  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ . The white anhydrous Am(III) sulfate,  $\text{Am}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ , is prepared by heating the hydrate to a temperature of  $500\text{--}600^\circ\text{C}$  in air (Hall and Markin, 1957). Anhydrous americium sulfate does not take up water when cooled to room temperature in air.

A number of double sulfates of Am(III) with formulas  $\text{MAm}(\text{SO}_4)_2 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$  ( $\text{M} = \text{K}, \text{Na}, \text{Rb}, \text{Cs}, \text{Tl}; x = 0, 1, 2, 4$ ),  $\text{K}_3\text{Am}(\text{SO}_4)_3 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , and  $\text{M}_8\text{Am}_2(\text{SO}_4)_7$  ( $\text{M} = \text{K}, \text{Cs}, \text{Tl}$ ) have been prepared by adding a metal sulfate solution to a solution of  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  in 0.5 M  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ . The concentration ratios  $\text{M}^+/\text{Am}^{3+}$  for the preparation of the various double sulfates as well as the absorption spectra of some Am(III) double sulfates at 80, 200, and 300 K are given by Yakovlev *et al.* (1958). Surprisingly, no X-ray diffraction data were reported for these double sulfates. Coprecipitation of trace amounts of Am(III) with  $\text{K}_2\text{SO}_4$  and  $\text{La}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$  has also been published (Grebenshchikova and Babrova, 1958, 1961; Grebenshchikova and Cheinyavskaya, 1962).

(2) Am(v): Fedoseev and Budentseva (1989) claimed the preparation of three solid sulfates of Am(v).  $(\text{AmO}_2)_2(\text{SO}_4) \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$  crystallizes upon evaporation of an Am(v)-containing sulfuric acid solution. Am(v) sulfate also crystallizes from an ozonated solution of  $\text{Am}(\text{OH})_3$  after addition of sulfuric acid and subsequent evaporation. Two double salts have been reported: Large light green crystals of  $\text{CsAmO}_2\text{SO}_4 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$  were obtained by evaporating a solution containing  $(\text{AmO}_2)_2(\text{SO}_4)$  and  $\text{Cs}_2\text{SO}_4$  in a 3:1 ratio. According to Fedoseev and Budentseva  $\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_6\text{AmO}_2(\text{SO}_4)_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$  can be easily



made by simply including Am(v) among the reagents used to prepare  $\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_6(\text{SO}_4)_2$ .

- (3) Am(vi): Addition of hexamine cobalt(III) ions to an aqueous sulfate solution containing hexavalent americium yields orange cubic crystals of  $\text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_6(\text{HSO}_4)_2(\text{AmO}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3) \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (Ueno and Hoshi, 1971). The compound is isostructural with the corresponding uranyl and neptunyl compounds. No precipitate forms, however, in an ammonium sulfate solution containing Am(III) and hexamine cobalt(III) ions.

### (g) Other inorganic compounds

Shirokova *et al.* (2001) reported the complexation of Am(III) with *N,N*-dimethylacetamide and the Keggin-type heteropolyanion  $\text{PW}_{12}\text{O}_{40}^{3+}$ . Lawaldt *et al.* (1982) applied the same procedures as used to prepare Am(vi) phosphates for the precipitation of Am(vi) arsenates. The obtained compounds were isostructural to the analogous Am(vi) phosphates.

Only two phases,  $\text{AmB}_4$  and  $\text{AmB}_6$ , have been reported in the boride system in contrast to the richer Np–B system with four phases (Eick and Mulford, 1969).

Weigel *et al.* (1977, 1984) reported the formation of several silicide phases upon reacting  $\text{AmF}_3$  with elemental Si at different temperatures. Up to 950°C, the phases  $\text{Am}_5\text{Si}_3$ ,  $\text{AmSi}$ ,  $\text{Am}_2\text{Si}_3$ , and  $\text{AmSi}_2$  have been characterized by X-ray powder diffraction. Orthorhombic  $\text{AmSi}$  is also prepared at 1050°C and the substoichiometric tetragonal phase  $\text{AmSi}_x$  ( $1.87 < x < 2.0$ ) forms at 1150–1200°C.

The only silicate known to date,  $\text{AmSiO}_4$ , is obtained as a brown solid by reacting  $\text{Am}(\text{OH})_4$  with excess  $\text{SiO}_2$  in 1 M  $\text{NaHCO}_3$  solution at 230°C for 1 week (Katz and Seaborg, 1957).  $^{241}\text{AmSiO}_4$  is patented for the use in manufactured alpha sources.

Large orange needle-like crystals thought to be  $\text{AmO}_2\text{CrO}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$  were prepared by slowly evaporating a chromic acid ( $\text{H}_2\text{CrO}_4$ ) solution containing Am(v) (Fedoseev *et al.*, 1991). Although there is some spectroscopic evidence for the presence of Am(v) in the solid chromate (electronic absorbances at about 518 and 728 nm) the suggested formula of  $\text{AmO}_2\text{CrO}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$  appears to be erroneous and should rather be  $(\text{AmO}_2)_2\text{CrO}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ .

Tabuteau and coworkers (Tabuteau *et al.*, 1972; Tabuteau and Pages, 1978) investigated the Am–molybdate and Am–tungstate systems. The solid state reaction of stoichiometric amounts of  $\text{AmO}_2$  and  $\text{MoO}_3$  or  $\text{WO}_3$  at 1080°C resulted in the formation of monoclinic  $\text{Am}_2(\text{MoO}_4)_3$  and  $\text{Am}_2(\text{WO}_4)_3$ . Two ternary phases,  $\text{KAm}(\text{MoO}_4)_2$  and  $\text{K}_5\text{Am}(\text{MoO}_4)_4$ , were found to form at 650°C in the presence of potassium. Fedoseev and Budantseva (1990) report the synthesis of  $\text{AmO}_2\text{Mo}_2\text{O}_7 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$  at 100°C, however, no information on the phase characterization was provided.

### 8.7.2 Compounds of americium with organic ligands

Relatively few solid compounds of americium with organic ligands have been prepared; these are listed in Table 8.6. For detailed reviews of this chemistry see Kanellakopulos (1979) and also Chapters 23 and 25.

#### (a) Oxalate

Because of its importance for americium separation chemistry  $\text{Am}_2(\text{C}_2\text{O}_4)_3 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (Weigel and ter Meer, 1967) is the most important organic compound of americium. The pink solid precipitates from slightly acidic or neutral solutions of  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  on addition of oxalic acid or alkali oxalate solution. The hydration number  $x$  was previously thought to vary with conditions of preparation and drying and values of 7 (Markin, 1958), 9 (Yakovlev and Kosyakov, 1958a), and 11 (Staritzky and Truitt, 1954) have been reported. Based on their X-ray diffraction studies and in analogy to Nd(III), Pu(III), and Cm(III), Weigel and ter Meer (1967) concluded that the hydration number  $x$  is 10. The decahydrate decomposes to the anhydrous form at  $340^\circ\text{C}$  through several hydrates and further decomposes to carbonate  $\text{Am}_2(\text{CO}_3)_3$  at about  $430^\circ\text{C}$ . The oxalate complexes with general formula  $\text{MAm}(\text{C}_2\text{O}_4)_2 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$  have been prepared from Am(III) oxalate and  $\text{M}_2\text{C}_2\text{O}_4$  ( $\text{M} = \text{NH}_4, \text{Na}, \text{K}, \text{Cs}$ ) in neutral solution (Zubarev and Krot, 1982, 1983a,b).

#### (b) Formate

Pink crystals of hexagonal  $\text{Am}(\text{HCOO}) \cdot 0.2\text{H}_2\text{O}$  form upon evaporation of a concentrated formic acid solution (Weigel and ter Meer, 1967). The formate decomposes at  $300\text{--}350^\circ\text{C}$  to  $\text{AmO}(\text{HCOO})$ , and at  $400\text{--}500^\circ\text{C}$  to the oxycarbonate  $\text{Am}_2\text{O}_3\text{CO}_3$ , which forms at  $520^\circ\text{C}$  the sesquioxide  $\text{Am}_2\text{O}_3$  (Weigel and ter Meer, 1971).

#### (c) Acetate

Addition of sodium acetate to an acidic Am(VI) solution precipitates lemon-yellow cubic crystals of  $\text{NaAmO}_2(\text{OOCCH}_3)_3$  (Asprey *et al.*, 1950, 1951). The force constant of the Am–O bond in  $\text{NaAmO}_2(\text{OOCCH}_3)_3$  is determined to be 6.12 megadynes/Å (Jones, 1953). The refractive index is  $1.528 \pm 0.002$  (Asprey *et al.*, 1951).

#### (d) Acetone derivate compounds

Addition of ammonia to aqueous  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  solution that contains a small amount of acetylacetone precipitates pale-rose  $\text{Am}(\text{C}_5\text{H}_7\text{O}_2)_3 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$  at pH 6. The precipitate can be recrystallized in ethanol and dried in air over silica gel or  $\text{P}_2\text{O}_5$  (Keller and Schreck, 1969). Dropwise addition of aqueous  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  (pH 4.5) to warm, slightly less than stoichiometric amounts of ammonium benzoylacetone yields pale-rose  $\text{Am}(\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_6\text{F}_3\text{O}_2)_3 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$ . Both compounds decompose in air at

Table 8.6 Organic compounds of americium.

Organic ligand	Formula of compound	Comments	References
acetate	$\text{NaAmO}_2(\text{OOCCH}_3)_3$	lemon yellow	[1]
acetylacetone	$\text{Am}(\text{C}_5\text{H}_7\text{O}_2)_3 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$	pale rose	[2]
benzoyltrifluoroacetone	$\text{Am}(\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_6\text{F}_3\text{O}_2)_3 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$	pale rose	[2]
cyclooctatetraene	$\text{KAm}(\text{C}_8\text{H}_8)_2 \cdot 2\text{THF}^a$	yellow	[3]
cyclopentadiene	$\text{Am}(\text{C}_5\text{H}_5)_3$	flesh	[4]
dipivalomethane	$\text{Am}(\text{C}_{11}\text{H}_{19}\text{O}_2)_3$		[5]
formate	$\text{Am}(\text{HCOO})_3 \cdot 0.2\text{H}_2\text{O}$	pink	[6]
hexafluoroacetylacetone	$\text{CsAm}(\text{C}_5\text{HF}_6\text{O}_2)_3 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$	yellow	[7]
hexafluoroacetyl-acetone/TBP	$\text{Am}(\text{C}_5\text{HF}_6\text{O}_2)_3 \cdot 2(\text{C}_4\text{H}_9\text{O})_3\text{PO}$	volatile, 175°C	[8]
8-hydroxyquinoline	$\text{Am}(\text{C}_9\text{H}_6\text{NO})_3$	yellow-green	[9]
5-chloro-8-hydroxyquinoline	$\text{Am}(\text{C}_9\text{H}_5\text{ClNO})_3$	dark green	[9]
5,7-dichloro-8-hydroxyquinoline	$\text{Am}(\text{C}_9\text{H}_4\text{Cl}_2\text{NO})_3$	green	[9]
oxalate	$\text{Am}_2(\text{C}_2\text{O}_4)_3 \cdot 10\text{H}_2\text{O}$	pink	[10]
	$\text{KAmO}_2\text{C}_2\text{O}_4 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$	color varies from pink to brick red depending on preparation conditions	[11]
	$\text{CsAmO}_2\text{C}_2\text{O}_4 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$	green, cubic ( $a = 12.5 \text{ \AA}$ )	[11]
	$\text{MAmO}_2\text{C}_2\text{O}_4 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$	$\text{M} = \text{NH}_4, \text{Na}$	[11]
phthalocyanine	$\text{Am}(\text{C}_{32}\text{H}_{16}\text{N}_2)_2$	dark violet	[12]
pyridine-2-carboxylate	$\text{AmO}_2(\text{C}_5\text{H}_4\text{NCOO})_2$	red-brown	[13]
	$\text{HAMO}_2(\text{C}_5\text{H}_4\text{NCOO})_3$	red-brown	[13]
pyridine- <i>N</i> -oxo-carboxylate	$\text{AmO}_2[\text{C}_5\text{H}_4\text{N}(\text{O})\text{COO}]_2$		[14]
salicylate	$\text{Am}(\text{C}_7\text{H}_5\text{O}_3)_3 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$		[15]
thenoyltrifluoroacetate	$\text{Am}(\text{C}_5\text{H}_4\text{F}_3\text{O}_2\text{S})_3 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$	pale rose	[2]

<sup>a</sup> THF, tetrahydrofuran.

[1] (Asprey *et al.*, 1950, 1951, 1954b); [2] (Keller and Schreck, 1969); [3] (Karraker, 1975, 1977); [4] (Baumgärtner *et al.*, 1966a, 1977; Kanellakopoulos *et al.*, 1970, 1978; Seaborg, 1972); [5] (Danford *et al.*, 1970; Moore, 1970; Sakanoue and Amano, 1975); [6] (Lebedev *et al.*, 1960b, 1962); [7] (Burns and Danford, 1969; Danford *et al.*, 1970; Bagnall, 1972; Sakanoue and Amano, 1975); [8] (Davydov *et al.*, 1975); [9] (Keller *et al.*, 1965a, 1966); [10] (Eyring *et al.*, 1952; Yakovlev and Kosyakov, 1958b; Lebedev *et al.*, 1960a; Weigel *et al.*, 1966; Burney and Porter, 1967; Chikalla and Eyring, 1967; Weigel and ter Meer, 1967, 1971); [11] (Zubarev and Krot, 1982, 1983a); [12] (Kirm *et al.*, 1967; Lux, 1973); [13] (Eberle and Robel, 1970; Robel, 1970); [14] (Robel, 1970); [15] (Burns and Baldwin, 1977).

above 200°C to AmO<sub>2</sub>. Yellow CsAm(C<sub>5</sub>HF<sub>6</sub>O<sub>2</sub>)<sub>4</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O crystallizes from AmCl<sub>3</sub> solution after addition of excess cesium hexafluoroacetylacetonate in 50 vol% ethanol (Burns and Danford, 1969; Danford *et al.*, 1970).

### (e) Cyclooctatetraene and cyclopentadiene

Reaction of <sup>241</sup>AmI<sub>3</sub> with K<sub>2</sub>C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>8</sub> in tetrahydrofuran (THF) solution yields the adduct KAm(C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>8</sub>)<sub>2</sub>·2THF, which is isostructural with its plutonium analog KPu(C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>8</sub>)<sub>2</sub>·2THF (Karraker, 1975). The compound decomposes in water and burns in air. Reacting the halides AmF<sub>3</sub> (Moore, 1970) or AmCl<sub>3</sub> (Baumgärtner *et al.*, 1966a,b; Kanellakopoulos *et al.*, 1970; Seaborg, 1972) with molten Be(C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>5</sub>)<sub>2</sub> at 65–70°C produces Am(C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>5</sub>)<sub>3</sub> (Moore, 1970). The pure compound can be obtained by fractional sublimation at 10<sup>-5</sup> Torr and 160–205°C (Baumgärtner *et al.*, 1966a,b). Unlike Pu(C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>5</sub>)<sub>3</sub>, Am(C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>5</sub>)<sub>3</sub> is not pyrophoric and decomposes only slowly in air. The IR and absorption spectra of Am(C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>5</sub>)<sub>3</sub> have been reported (Pappalardo *et al.*, 1969a; Kanellakopoulos *et al.*, 1970).

### (f) Others

Reaction of AmI<sub>3</sub> at 200°C with phthalodinitride in 1-chloronaphthalene yields the dark violet phthalocyanine compound Am(C<sub>32</sub>H<sub>16</sub>N<sub>8</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, which was the first synthesized Am(IV) compound with an organic ligand (Lux, 1973). There is evidence that americium also forms the monophthalocyaninato complex.

Danford *et al.* (1970) precipitated the dipivaloylmethane compound Am(C<sub>11</sub>H<sub>19</sub>O<sub>2</sub>)<sub>3</sub> by adding aqueous Am(III) sulfate to a solution of dipivaloylmethane and NaOH in 70% aqueous ethanol. Sakanoue and Amano (1975) determined the volatility of Am(C<sub>11</sub>H<sub>19</sub>O<sub>2</sub>)<sub>3</sub> and several lanthanide and actinide analog complexes at 180°C and 10<sup>-3</sup> torr and observed that Am(C<sub>11</sub>H<sub>19</sub>O<sub>2</sub>)<sub>3</sub> is less volatile than its analog compounds of Th, Pu, Cf, or Eu, Gd, or Sc.

The only recorded aliphatic compounds of americium appear to be the citrates Am(C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>5</sub>O<sub>7</sub>)·xH<sub>2</sub>O and [Co(NH<sub>3</sub>)<sub>6</sub>][Am(C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>5</sub>O<sub>7</sub>)<sub>2</sub>]·xH<sub>2</sub>O (Bouhlassa, 1983), and the salicylate Am(C<sub>7</sub>H<sub>5</sub>O<sub>3</sub>)<sub>3</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O (Burns and Baldwin, 1976); its structure is described in Section 8.9.2.

Hölgge (1982) studied the coprecipitation of Am(III) with various metal cupferrates. With cupferrates of lanthanides and Sc(III), Am(III) coprecipitated quantitatively. But Am(III) coprecipitated only partially with cupferrates of Fe(III), Cu(II), Al(III), In(III), Pb(II), and Bi(III).

## 8.8 AQUEOUS SOLUTION CHEMISTRY

### 8.8.1 Oxidation states

In aqueous solutions, americium exhibits the III, IV, V, and VI oxidation states. All four oxidation states can coexist under certain conditions in carbonate media (Bourges *et al.*, 1983). In dilute acid, only the aquo ions Am<sup>3+</sup> and

$\text{AmO}_2^{2+}$  ions are stable, whereas in alkaline solution, americium can exist in all four valence states. In the III and IV oxidation states, americium forms  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  and  $\text{Am}^{4+}$  ions in solution, respectively. The highly charged ions in the V and VI states are unstable and hydrolyze instantly to form the linear *trans*-dioxo americyl cations,  $\text{AmO}_2^+$  and  $\text{AmO}_2^{2+}$ , respectively. Analogous to Np(VII) and Pu(VII), americium reportedly can be oxidized to the VII oxidation state in highly alkaline media (Krot *et al.*, 1974a,b; Myasoedov and Kremliaikova, 1985).

### (a) Preparation

- (1) Am(II): In contrast to its chemical analog of the lanthanide series, europium, the divalent state of Am is unstable in aqueous solution. Conditions that stabilize  $\text{Yb}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Eu}^{2+}$ , or  $\text{Sm}^{2+}$  do not reduce  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  to  $\text{Am}^{2+}$  (Keenan, 1959). Milyukova *et al.* (1980) claimed electrochemical evidence for unstable Am(II) in acetonitrile; they found that Am(II) was rapidly oxidized to Am(III) by water in the solvent. Sullivan *et al.* (1976, 1978) formed transient Am(II) by pulse radiolysis with an absorption maximum at 313 nm and  $t_{1/2} \sim 5 \times 10^{-6}$  s for disappearance. Am(II) can be accessed in the solid state and as dilute solution in  $\text{CaF}_2$  (Zachariasen, 1948b; Fried, 1951; Pappalardo *et al.*, 1969b; Baybarz, 1973b; Peterson, 1973). The solid compounds  $\text{AmCl}_2$  (Baybarz, 1973b),  $\text{AmBr}_2$  (Baybarz, 1973b), and  $\text{AmI}_2$  (Baybarz and Asprey, 1972) have been prepared and characterized.
- (2) Am(III): Trivalent americium is the most common and stable oxidation state in aqueous solution. It can be easily prepared by dissolving the metal in acid, dissolving  $\text{AmO}_2$  in hot HCl, or by reducing higher valent americium compounds with most common reducing agents, such as  $\text{NH}_2\text{OH}$ ,  $\text{SO}_2$ , or KI (Coleman *et al.*, 1963). Acidic solutions of  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  are pink in mineral acids but are yellow in concentrated  $\text{HClO}_4$  or when the  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  concentration exceeds 0.1 M. Numerous solid compounds of Am(III) have been prepared and characterized.
- (3) Am(IV): Tetravalent americium is unstable in non-complexing solutions and is reduced spontaneously to its more stable III oxidation state. Stable Am(IV) can be prepared by dissolving  $\text{Am}(\text{OH})_4$  in concentrated  $\text{NH}_4\text{F}$  solutions (Asprey and Penneman, 1962). Yanir *et al.* (1969) demonstrated that Am(IV) remains stable in phosphoric and pyrophosphate media. Myasoedov *et al.* (1977) reported that pure Am(IV) is obtained in 8–15 M phosphoric acid by anodic oxidation, while at lower phosphoric acid concentrations impurities of Am(VI) are formed. Similar stability of Am(IV) was reported in an oxidizing mixture of  $\text{Ag}_3\text{PO}_4$  and  $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_8$ . Electrolytic oxidation of  $^{243}\text{Am}(\text{III})$  (<1 V) in 2–5.5 M carbonate solutions resulted in the formation of a golden-yellow Am(IV) carbonate species, which was slowly reduced to Am(III) (Hobart *et al.*, 1982). At potentials exceeding 1.1 V, Am(IV) is oxidized to Am(V) and Am(VI). Am(IV) can be stabilized with heteropolyanions and reduction to Am(III) is caused solely by radiolytic effects

- (Saprykin *et al.*, 1976; Kosyakov *et al.*, 1977; Erin *et al.*, 1979). Transient Am(IV) has been observed by pulse radiolysis (Sullivan *et al.*, 1976, 1978).
- (4) Am(v): Am(III) can be oxidized to Am(v) in near-neutral and alkaline solution. In acidic media, oxidation of Am(III) yields only Am(VI) because Am(v) is more easily oxidized to Am(vi) than Am(III) is oxidized to Am(v). Solutions of Am(v) can be prepared by oxidation of Am(III) with ozone (Keenan, 1965), hypochlorite (Yakovlev and Gorbenko-Germanov, 1955), and peroxydisulfate (Nigon *et al.*, 1954), or by reduction of Am(vi) with bromide, or by electrolysis (Hobart *et al.*, 1983b). Solid sodium Am(v) carbonate can be precipitated by heating a 2 M Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> Am(vi) solution for 60 min to 60°C (Coleman *et al.*, 1963). Dissolution of the solid in near-neutral solutions yields pure Am(v) solution free of Am(III) and Am(vi). AmO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> solutions free of Am<sup>3+</sup> can be prepared by first extracting AmO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> from buffered 1 M acetate (pH 3) solutions into 0.1 M thenoyltrifluoroacetone in isobutanol and back-extraction into an aqueous phase (Hara, 1970). More exotic methods include the dissolution of solid Li<sub>3</sub>AmO<sub>4</sub> in dilute perchloric acid or the electrolytic oxidation of Am(III) in 2 M LiIO<sub>3</sub>/0.7 M HIO<sub>3</sub> solutions (pH 1.5) (Keller, 1971).
- (5) Am(vi): Powerful oxidants, i.e. peroxydisulfate or Ag(II), oxidize Am(III) and Am(v) in dilute, non-reducing acidic solution to Am(vi) (Myasoedov and Kremliakova, 1985). At acidities above 0.5 M, peroxydisulfate will not oxidize Am(III) completely to Am(vi) because of the interference of acid hydrolysis of S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub><sup>2+</sup> (Penneman and Asprey, 1955). Ce(IV) oxidizes Am(v) to Am(vi) but only partially oxidizes Am(III) to Am(vi) (Penneman and Asprey, 1955). Electrolytic oxidation of Am(III) in 2 M H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub> and 6 M HClO<sub>4</sub> leads to Am(vi) (Myasoedov *et al.*, 1977) while ozone does not oxidize Am(III) to Am(vi) in acidic medium. In aqueous 2 M carbonate solutions oxidation of Am(III), Am(IV), or Am(v) with ozone or oxidation with Na<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> yields an intensely colored red-brown carbonate complex of Am(vi) (Coleman *et al.*, 1963). This complex is also obtained electrolytically at a potential of 1.3 V vs NHE in sodium carbonate solutions (Hobart *et al.*, 1982) or by dissolution of sodium americyl(vi) acetate in sodium carbonate solutions. Ozone oxidation in carbonate solution yields Am(vi) only at 25°C or below while at 90°C oxidation does not proceed past Am(v). Ozone does not oxidize Am(OH)<sub>3</sub> or KAmO<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> in 0.1–0.5 M KHCO<sub>3</sub> and K<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> does not oxidize Am(OH)<sub>3</sub> or NaAmO<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> in 0.1 M NaHCO<sub>3</sub> (Coleman *et al.*, 1963). This difference to the easy oxidation by Na<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub> is attributed to the lower solubility of KAmO<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> compared to NaAmO<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>. In 0.1–0.5 M NaHCO<sub>3</sub>, Am(vi) is stable at 90°C to reduction by H<sub>2</sub>O, Cl<sup>-</sup>, or Br<sup>-</sup>, but is easily reduced by I<sup>-</sup>, N<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>, H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>, NO<sub>2</sub><sup>-</sup>, and NH<sub>2</sub>OH. Very slow reduction of Am(vi) occurs in 2 M Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>. Yellow-colored solutions of Am(vi) in any alkali hydroxide solutions can be prepared by oxidation of solid Am(OH)<sub>3</sub> with ozone (Cohen, 1972). Am(vi) in alkali hydroxide solutions undergoes

gradual reduction to form a light-tan solid, which yields Am(v) when dissolved in mineral acid. It is claimed that Am(vi) disproportionates into Am(vii) and Am(v) in  $>10$  M NaOH (Nikolaevskii *et al.*, 1975).

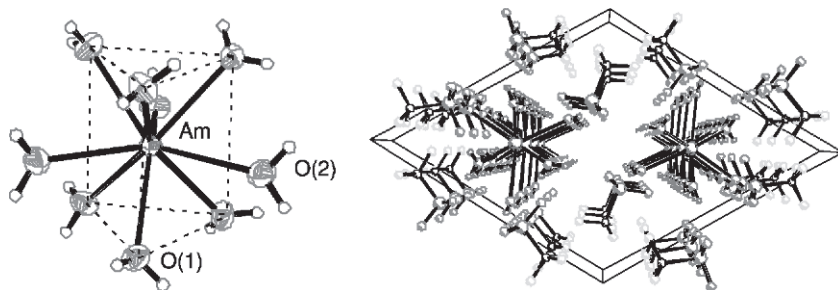
The reaction of  $\text{Krf}_2$  with  $\text{AmF}_3$  in anhydrous HF yields a dark-brown solid of  $\text{AmF}_6$  with a vapor pressure that is similar to that of  $\text{UF}_6$  (Drobyshevskii *et al.*, 1980).

- (6) Am(vii): While attempts to synthesize Am(vii) from  $\text{Li}_2\text{O}-\text{AmO}_2$  mixtures at 300–400°C failed, oxidation of 3–4 M NaOH solutions containing 0.001–0.002 M Am(vi) with ozone at 0–7°C yields a green-colored solution of Am(vii) (Krot *et al.*, 1974a,b; Myasoedov and Kremliaikova, 1985). A similar green-colored solution can be obtained by  $^{60}\text{Co}$  gamma irradiation at 0°C of a  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ -saturated 3 M NaOH solution. ( $\text{N}_2\text{O}$  scavenges hydrated electrons by the reaction  $\text{N}_2\text{O} + e^- (\text{aq}) \rightarrow \text{N}_2 + \text{O}^-$ ;  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$  may be substituted for  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ .) Spectrophotometric studies showed the oxidation of Np(vi) to Np(vii) and Pu(vi) to Pu(vii) under similar conditions, which provides strong evidence that the green solutions indeed contain a powerful oxidant such as Am(vii) (Krot *et al.*, 1974a,b).

### (b) Hydration and coordination numbers

Information on the structure of the  $\text{Am}^{3+}(\text{aq})$  ion has been obtained indirectly from a variety of spectroscopic techniques. From the similar absorption spectra of  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  in aqueous solution,  $\text{AmCl}_3$ , and  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  doped into  $\text{LaCl}_3$ , Carnall (1989) concluded that there were nine inner-sphere water molecules associated in  $\text{Am}^{3+}(\text{aq})$ . Horrocks and Sudnick (1979, 1981) and Choppin and coworkers (Barthelemy and Choppin, 1989; Choppin and Peterman, 1998) developed a linear relationship between the decay rate of the lanthanide(III) and the Am(III) fluorescence and the number of inner-sphere water molecules:  $n_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} = (x/\tau) - y$ . Kimura and Kato (Kimura and Kato, 1998) determined  $x = 2.56 \times 10^{-7}$  s and  $y = 1.43$  for Am(III) by measuring the fluorescence lifetime of  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  in  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  and  $\text{D}_2\text{O}$  and using Carnall's proposed nine hydration waters. Runde *et al.* (2000) used Kimura's parameters and calculated from the fluorescence lifetime 11 coordinated water molecules for the  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  ion. Allen *et al.* (2000) determined ten coordinated water molecules around the  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  aquo ion in dilute aqueous chloride solution using X-ray absorption fine structure (XAFS) spectroscopy. Recently, Matonic *et al.* (2001) crystallized the isostructural Am(III) and Pu(III) triflate (trifluoromethanesulfonic acid) salts where the  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  ion bonds to nine water molecules in a tricapped, trigonal prismatic geometry (Fig. 8.4).

Shilov and Yusov (1999) analyzed reported variations in the Am(v)/Am(vi) potentials and the stability constants of the actinyl(v) oxalate complexes and proposed that the  $\text{NpO}_2^+(\text{aq})$  and  $\text{AmO}_2^+(\text{aq})$  ions are coordinated with five water molecules in the equatorial plane, in contrast to the coordination of four waters by  $\text{PuO}_2^+(\text{aq})$  and  $\text{UO}_2^+(\text{aq})$ .



**Fig. 8.4** Coordination environment of  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  and crystal packing in  $[\text{Am}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_9][\text{CF}_3\text{SO}_3]$  (Matonic *et al.*, 2001).

### (c) Electrode potentials and thermodynamic properties

A critical evaluation of available enthalpy and electromotive force (EMF) data were reported (Musikas, 1973b; Fuger and Oetting, 1976; Schulz, 1976; Fuger *et al.*, 1992; Silva *et al.*, 1995). Table 8.7 lists the electrode potentials for americium couples in various aqueous media. The diagram reflects the latest values and data evaluation of Martinot and Fuger (1985), which were accepted with minor changes by the recent Nuclear Energy Agency (NEA) review (Silva *et al.*, 1995). Except for the standard electrode potential ( $E^\circ$ ) of the  $\text{Am}(\text{VI}/\text{V})$  couple, the electrode potentials of all redox couples were measured indirectly.

- (1)  $\text{Am}(\text{III})/(\text{0})$ : Fuger *et al.* (1972) measured the enthalpy of dissolution of Am metal (dhcp) in hydrogen-saturated HCl solutions and, using the estimated entropy of  $\text{Am}^{3+}(\text{aq})$ , estimated  $E^\circ$  to be  $-2.06 \pm 0.01$  V in 1 M  $\text{HClO}_4$ ; later Martinot and Fuger (1985) recommended  $-2.07$  V.
- (2)  $\text{Am}(\text{III})/(\text{II})$ : Nugent *et al.* (1973a) estimated the potential to be  $-2.3$  V as a best value by comparing the properties of lanthanide and actinide chloro complexes in relation to their  $\text{M}(\text{II})/\text{M}(\text{III})$  potentials. The estimated value is close to the  $-2.4$  V estimated by Bratsch and Lagowski (1986).
- (3)  $\text{Am}(\text{IV})/(\text{III})$ : Due to the difficulties in preparing  $\text{Am}(\text{IV})$  in appreciable amounts, estimating its thermodynamic properties is difficult. The originally estimated 2.44 V in 1 M  $\text{HClO}_4$  appeared to be too small compared to data on the reduction of  $\text{Am}(\text{OH})_4$  to  $\text{Am}(\text{OH})_3$  (Penneman *et al.*, 1961). While the reported electrode potentials in concentrated  $\text{H}_3\text{PO}_4$  are in agreement,  $1.75 \pm 0.03$  V (Marcus *et al.*, 1972) and 1.78 V in 10 M  $\text{H}_3\text{PO}_4$  (Nugent *et al.*, 1971a), their extrapolated values,  $E^\circ = 2.50 \pm 0.06$  and  $2.34 \pm 0.22$  V, respectively, differ significantly, most likely due to uncertainties in solution speciation. A value of  $2.6 \pm 0.09$  V has been calculated from enthalpy measurements (Morss and Fuger, 1981), and has been confirmed by electrochemical data in carbonate solutions (Hobart *et al.*, 1982). Stabilization by carbonate and phosphotungstate decreases the electrode





The following enthalpies of formation, free Gibbs energies of formation, and standard entropies for the americium aquo ions have been accepted by the NEA review (Silva *et al.*, 1995):

	$\Delta_f H_m^\circ(298.15 \text{ K})$ (kJ mol <sup>-1</sup> )	$\Delta_f G_m^\circ(298.15 \text{ K})$ (kJ mol <sup>-1</sup> )	$S_m^\circ(298.15 \text{ K})$ (kJ mol <sup>-1</sup> )
Am <sup>2+</sup> (aq)	-355 ± 16	-377 ± 15	-1 ± 15
Am <sup>3+</sup> (aq)	-616.7 ± 1.5	-598.7 ± 4.8	-201 ± 15
Am <sup>4+</sup> (aq)	-406 ± 6	-346 ± 9	-406 ± 21
AmO <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup> (aq)	-804.3 ± 5.4	-739.8 ± 6.2	-21 ± 10
AmO <sub>2</sub> <sup>2+</sup> (aq)	-650.8 ± 4.8	-585 ± 5.7	-88 ± 10

A correlation function of  $P(M)$  that connects the trivalent gaseous lanthanide atoms with their aqueous ions changes systematically as a function of atomic number (Nugent *et al.*, 1973b). The same property is moderately well-behaved for trivalent actinides (Nugent *et al.*, 1973b; David *et al.*, 1978; Morss, 1983). The calculated  $P(\text{Am})$  is about 20 kJ greater than expected from neighboring actinides. This anomaly was attributed to the large positive change in entropy of vaporization of Am (Ward and Hill, 1976).

#### (d) Auto-reduction

Radiolytically produced species in aqueous solution, e.g. H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and HO<sub>2</sub> radicals, reduce the higher oxidation states of americium to Am(III). Because of its lower specific activity, the rates of auto-reduction of <sup>243</sup>Am species are much less than those of <sup>241</sup>Am. Zaitsev *et al.* (1960b) account for the auto-reduction kinetics of aqueous AmO<sub>2</sub><sup>2+</sup> and AmO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> ions by assuming that H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> is consumed only in reducing Am(VI) and Am(V) is reduced only by HO<sub>2</sub> radicals, but that Am(V) may be oxidized to Am(VI) by OH radicals.

All investigators concur that auto-reduction is kinetically zero order with respect to the AmO<sub>2</sub><sup>2+</sup> ion and first order with respect to the total americium concentration:

$$-d[\text{Am(VI)}]/dt = d[\text{Am(V)}]/dt = k_1[\text{Am}_{\text{total}}]$$

In both perchloric and sulfuric acid media, the value of the rate constant  $k_1$  decreases with increasing acid concentration, 0.04 h<sup>-1</sup> in dilute acid to zero in 12 M HClO<sub>4</sub> (Zaitsev *et al.*, 1960b). The auto-reduction rate of <sup>241</sup>Am(VI) approaches 10% per hour in 9 M HNO<sub>3</sub> (Zaitsev *et al.*, 1960b); a slower rate was found in a later study (Myasoedov *et al.*, 1974b). The rate of auto-reduction of <sup>243</sup>Am(VI) in 2 M HClO<sub>4</sub> solution at 76°C is about six times greater than that at room temperature (Zaitsev *et al.*, 1960b).

The auto-reduction of Am(V) to Am(III) is usually stated to depend only on the total americium concentration but to be independent of the Am(V) concentration.

Zaitsev *et al.* (1960b) disagreed and found that under some conditions the rate of autoreduction of Am(v) to Am(III) does depend on the Am(v) concentration. The autoreduction of  $^{241}\text{AmO}_2^+$  proceeds more slowly in 0.5 M HCl than in 0.2 M HClO<sub>4</sub>. The maximum reduction rate of AmO<sub>2</sub><sup>+</sup> is about 1% per hour in 0.5 M HNO<sub>3</sub> and 0.8% per hour in 3 M HNO<sub>3</sub> (Zaitsev *et al.*, 1960b).

In 13 M NH<sub>4</sub>F,  $^{241}\text{Am(IV)}$  is autoreduced at a rate of about 4% per hour (Asprey and Penneman, 1962), increasing to 10% per hour in 3 M fluoride solution (Yanir *et al.*, 1969). Self-reduction of Am(IV) to Am(III) in phosphoric acid solution follows first-order reaction kinetics (Yanir *et al.*, 1969; Myasoedov *et al.*, 1973, 1975). In acidic peroxydisulfate solution, no Am(III) is observed until all Am(VI) is reduced to Am(V). In the presence of S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>8</sub><sup>2-</sup> ions, the radiolytic reduction of Am(v) proceeds more slowly than that of Am(vi) (Rykov *et al.*, 1970).

### (e) Disproportionation

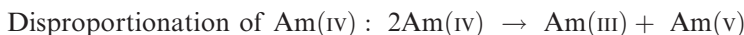
1. Am(IV): Tetravalent americium rapidly disproportionates in nitric and perchloric acid solutions according to the following reaction (Penneman *et al.*, 1961):



Assuming a reaction that is second order in Am(IV) concentration, Penneman *et al.* (1961) estimated  $k_1$  in the equation

$$-d[\text{Am(IV)}]/dt = k_1[\text{Am(IV)}]^2$$

to be greater than  $3.7 \times 10^4 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$  in 0.05 M HNO<sub>3</sub> at 0°C. The dissolution of Am(OH)<sub>4</sub> in 0.05–2 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> at either 0 or 25°C or of AmO<sub>2</sub> in 1 M H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> yields solutions containing Am<sup>3+</sup> and AmO<sub>2</sub><sup>2+</sup> (Yakovlev and Kosyakov, 1958b; Penneman *et al.*, 1961). These results are explained by the following mechanism:

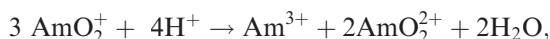


and



The AmO<sub>2</sub><sup>2+</sup> fraction increases with SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and HSO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> concentrations at constant H<sup>+</sup> concentration, possibly as a result of SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> (or HSO<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup>) stabilization of an Am(IV) complex. Am(IV) is stable only in concentrated H<sub>3</sub>PO<sub>4</sub>, K<sub>4</sub>P<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>, phosphotungstate, and fluoride (NH<sub>4</sub>F, KF) solutions. The average oxidation number of americium remains IV when Am(OH)<sub>4</sub> is dissolved in either perchloric, nitric, or sulfuric acids (Penneman *et al.*, 1961), indicating no significant reduction by water, in contrast to the reduction of Cm(IV) (Kosyakov *et al.*, 1977).

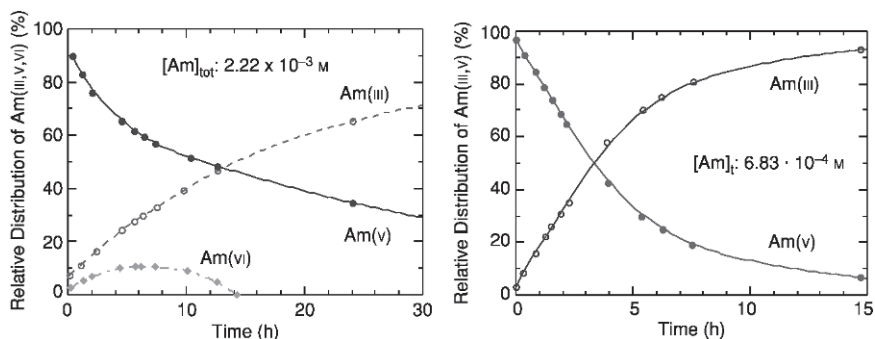
2. Am(v): The most thorough study of the disproportionation kinetics of Am(v) was performed by Coleman (1963), who used  $^{243}\text{Am}$  to minimize the radiolytically induced redox reactions associated with  $^{241}\text{Am}$ . Coleman investigated the disproportionation of Am(v) in 3–8 M HClO<sub>4</sub> at 25°C, in 1–2 M HClO<sub>4</sub> at 75.7°C, and in about 2 M HCl, H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>, and HNO<sub>3</sub> solutions at 75.7°C. The disproportionation of Am(v) in 5 M HClO<sub>4</sub> and 5 M HCl at 25°C is shown in Fig. 8.5. The disproportionation of Am(v) in all media except HCl follows the reaction



reflecting the fourth power dependence on the H<sup>+</sup> concentration. The rate law for this disproportionation reaction is

$$-d[\text{Am(v)}]/dt = k_1 [\text{AmO}_2^+]^2 [\text{H}^+]^4 = k_2 [\text{AmO}_2^+]^2 [\text{H}^+]^2 + k_3 [\text{AmO}_2^+]^2 [\text{H}^+]^3,$$

with  $k_2 = (6.94 \pm 1.01) \times 10^{-4} \text{ L}^3 \text{ mol}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$  and  $k_3 = (4.63 \pm 0.71) \times 10^{-4} \text{ L}^3 \text{ mol}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . The disproportionation rates at 75.7°C in 2 M HNO<sub>3</sub>, HCl, and H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> are, respectively, 4.0, 4.6, and 24 times greater than in 1 M HClO<sub>4</sub>, whereas at 25°C the reaction rate increased 450 times in going from 3 to 8 M HClO<sub>4</sub>. Using the temperature-dependence data from Coleman, Newton (1975) estimated thermodynamic quantities of activation for the disproportionation of Am(v). Note that the formation of Am(vi) in HClO<sub>4</sub> reaches a maximum after 5–6 h and then decreases successively with the main end product being Am(III). In 0.5 and 5 M HCl, Am(v) disappears much faster than in the non-complexing perchlorate medium. The formation of Am(vi) has not been observed in HCl media, indicating a fast reduction of Am(vi) by chloride (Hall and Herniman, 1954; Runde and Kim, 1994).



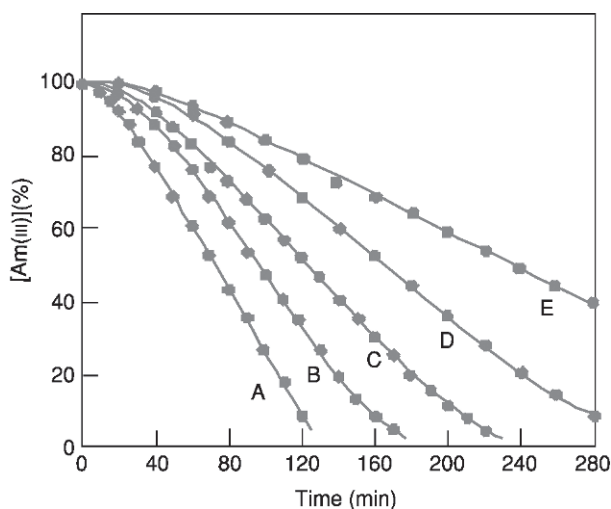
**Fig. 8.5** Disproportionation of Am(v) in 5 M HClO<sub>4</sub> (left) and 5 M HCl (right) (Runde and Kim, 1994).

**(f) Kinetics of oxidation–reduction reactions**

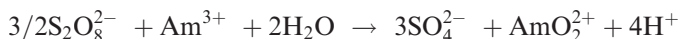
Data for the few oxidation–reduction reactions that have been studied in detail can now be summarized. This summary supplements information presented by Hindman (1958), Newton and Baker (1967), and Gourisse (1966). An important recent reference on this subject is the critical review by Newton (1975).

*(i) Peroxydisulfate oxidation of Am(III) in acid media*

Early exploratory work by Asprey *et al.* (1950), the discoverers of the reaction between  $S_2O_8^{2-}$  and Am(III) that produces Am(VI), established that the reaction proceeded in the concentration range from  $10^{-8}$  to  $10^{-1}$  M Am(III), implying a low-order dependence of the rate on Am(III) concentration. They further found that acidities greater than a few tenths molar were deleterious, presumably due to the acid-catalyzed decomposition path of  $S_2O_8^{2-}$  (Penneman and Asprey, 1955). The general pattern of the oxidation (Fig. 8.6) represents an induction period and a linear region of constant rate followed by a region of gradually decreasing rate at high nitric acid concentrations. Reaction rates are dependent on temperature and on the concentration of  $HNO_3$ ,  $S_2O_8^{2-}$ , and, when present,  $Ag^+$ . Newton (1975) states that the stoichiometry of the oxidation reaction is



**Fig. 8.6** Kinetics of Am(III) oxidation by peroxydisulfate in nitric acid at 50.6°C ( $[S_2O_8^{2+}]_0 = 0.40$  M (Ermakov *et al.*, 1971a, 1973, 1974)).  $HNO_3$  concentrations: A, 0.09 M; B, 0.14 M; C, 0.19 M; D, 0.24 M; E, 0.28 M.

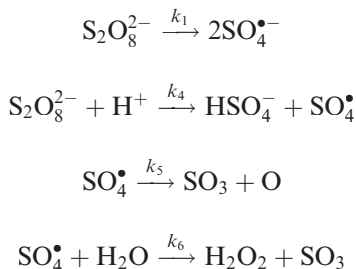


All researchers concur that the oxidizing agent is not the  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$  ion itself but its thermal decomposition products (e.g.  $\text{SO}_4^{\bullet-}$  or  $\text{HS}_2\text{O}_8^-$ ).

In contrast to conclusions from studies using micromolar Am(III), Ermakov *et al.* (1971a, 1973, 1974), on the basis of studies with millimolar amounts of  $^{243}\text{Am(III)}$ , claim that (in the absence of  $\text{Ag}^+$ ) the rate of oxidation of Am(III) in the linear portion of kinetic curves does not depend on the Am(III) concentration and that the rate is given by:

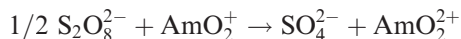
$$\begin{aligned} -d[\text{Am(III)}]/dt &= (a + b[\text{H}^+])[\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}][\text{Am(III)}]_0 \\ &= 2/3k_1 - (k_4[\text{H}^+]/(1+x))[\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}]_0 = k_{\text{III}} \end{aligned}$$

At  $50.6^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $a = 4.9 \times 10^{-5} \text{ min}^{-1}$  and  $b = 0.9 \times 10^{-4} \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ . In this equation  $[\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}]_0$  is the initial concentration of the peroxydisulfate ion,  $x = k_5/k_6[\text{H}_2\text{O}]$ , and  $k_1$ ,  $k_4$ – $k_6$  are rate constants for the following reactions:



(ii) Peroxydisulfate oxidation of Am(v) in  $\text{HNO}_3$

Ermakov *et al.* (1971a, 1973, 1974) also investigated the kinetics of the oxidation of Am(v) by  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$  ion in 0.09–0.6 M  $\text{HNO}_3$  media at  $45.6$ – $60^\circ\text{C}$ . According to Newton (1975) the stoichiometry of this reaction is



Ermakov gives the law:

$$-d[\text{Am(v)}]/dt = (a' + b'[\text{H}^+])[\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}][\text{Am(v)}]_0$$

At  $50.6^\circ\text{C}$ ,  $a' = 15 \times 10^{-5} \text{ min}^{-1}$  and  $b' = 2.7 \times 10^{-4} \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ . It follows from this result and the rate data given in the preceding section that

$$-d[\text{Am(III)}]/dt = -(1/3)d[\text{Am(v)}]/dt$$

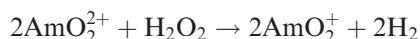
The results of Rykov *et al.* (1970) indicate that the mechanism of reduction of Am(vi) in the presence of  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$  ions is identical with that proposed for the oxidation of Am(v).

## (iii) Peroxydisulfate oxidation of Am(III) in carbonate media

Peroxydisulfate oxidation of Am(III) in carbonate solutions proceeds through the intermediate formation of Am(V). Ermakov *et al.* (1971a, 1973, 1974) found that the rate of oxidation of Am(III) to Am(V) is independent of the total Am and  $\text{K}_2\text{CO}_3$  concentrations and is equal to the rate of decomposition of  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$  ions. However, the rate of oxidation of Am(V) to Am(VI) is directly proportional to both the total americium concentration and the  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$  concentration, and is inversely proportional to the  $\text{K}_2\text{CO}_3$  concentration. The effective activation energy of the  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$  oxidation of Am(III) to Am(V) in  $\text{K}_2\text{CO}_3$  solutions is close to the activation energy ( $140 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ ) of the thermal decomposition of  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$  ions. Recall that  $\text{Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_8$  will oxidize either Am(III) or Am(V) to Am(VI) in  $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3$  or  $\text{NaHCO}_3$ .

## (iv) Reduction of Am(VI) by hydrogen peroxide

Using  $^{243}\text{Am}$  in  $\text{LiClO}_4\text{-HClO}_4$  media, Woods *et al.* (1974) studied the kinetics of the reaction of  $\text{AmO}_2^{2+}$  with  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  and found the reduction of Am(VI) to be first order in both Am(VI) and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  concentrations:



## (v) Reduction of Am(VI) by other reductants

Woods and Sullivan (1974) studied the reaction between  $\text{AmO}_2^{2+}$  and  $\text{NpO}_2^+$  in 1 M (H,Li)ClO<sub>4</sub>. The rate law is:

$$-d[\text{Am(VI)}]/dt = k[\text{Am(VI)}][\text{Np(V)}]$$

At 25°C,  $k$  is  $(2.45 \pm 0.4) \times 10^4 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ; for this reaction,  $\Delta H^* = 27.87 \pm 0.33 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  and  $\Delta S^* = -67.8 \pm 1.3 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$ . Oxalic acid reduces Am(VI) rapidly to approximately equal mixtures of Am(III) and Am(V), whereas reagents such as  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ , HCl, HCOOH, HCHO, etc., reduce Am(VI) initially only to Am(V). The reduction of Am(VI) by nitrous acid is first order in each (Woods *et al.*, 1976).

(vi) Reduction of Am(V) by  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ 

From studies of the reduction of  $\text{AmO}_2^+$  to  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  by  $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$  in 0.1 M HClO<sub>4</sub>, Zaitsev *et al.* (1960a) deduced the rate law:

$$-d[\text{AmO}_2^+]/dt = k[\text{AmO}_2^+][\text{H}_2\text{O}_2]$$

where  $k = 14.8 \pm 1.5$ ,  $21.6 \pm 2.2$ , and  $30.3 \pm 3.01 \text{ mol}^{-1} \text{ h}^{-1}$  at 25, 30, and 35°C, respectively. The activation energy deduced for the reduction reaction is  $55.2 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ . The only other reported studies of the Am(III)–Am(V)– $\text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ –HClO<sub>4</sub> system have been made by Damien and Pages (1969, 1970). They reported

that the rate at which  $\text{AmO}_2^+$  is reduced is inversely proportional to the perchloric acid concentration and is also strongly dependent on the initial  $[\text{Am}^{3+}]_0/[\text{AmO}_2^+]_0$  and  $[\text{H}_2\text{O}_2]_0/[\text{AmO}_2^+]_0$  concentration ratios.

(vii) *Reduction of Am(v) in NaOH solutions*

Shilov *et al.* (1997) investigated the reduction rate of Am(v) in 1.5 and 3 M NaOH at room temperature. Slow reduction of Am(v) is observed in the presence of 0.005–0.4 M of dithionite ( $\text{Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_4$ ), sulfite ( $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_3$ ), or thiourea dioxide ( $(\text{NH}_2)_2\text{CSO}_2$ ) with a half-reduction time ranging between 0.2 and 9 h. The reduction of Am(v) in 3–14 M NaOH with about 0.01 M hydrazinium nitrate or hydroxylamine is accelerated with reductant concentration and temperature.

(viii) *Reduction of Am(v) by Np(IV) in perchloric acid media*

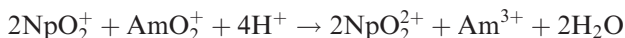
Blokhin *et al.* (1973) used spectrophotometry to study the kinetics of the Np(IV)–Am(v) reaction in 0.23–1.97 M  $\text{HClO}_4$  at temperatures in the range 35.0–54.6°C. Depending on the initial concentrations of Np(IV) and Am(v), the reaction products are either Np(V) and Am(III) or Np(VI) and Am(III). The reaction rate falls rapidly with increasing acidity. Under the assumption of constant Am(IV) concentration, the kinetic data follow the rate law:

$$d[\text{Am}^{3+}]/dt = k'1[\text{Np}^{4+}][\text{AmO}_2^+] + k'2[\text{NpO}_2^+][\text{AmO}_2^+]$$

The authors report the following thermodynamic activation parameters:  $\Delta H^* = 126 \pm 4 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ ,  $\Delta G^* = 87 \pm 4 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ , and  $\Delta S^* = 130 \pm 13 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$ .

(ix) *Reduction of Am(v) by Np(V) in perchloric acid*

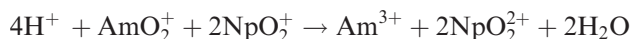
Rykov *et al.* (1973) determined spectrophotometrically the rate of the reaction:



Kinetic data were collected in perchlorate ( $\mu = 2.0 \text{ M}$ ) at temperatures in the range 24.7–44.1°C. These researchers claim that reduction of Am(v) by Np(V) is an irreversible second-order reaction.

(x) *Reduction of Am(v) by Np(V) in  $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3$*

Kinetics of the reduction of Am(v) by Np(V) in  $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3$  solutions were investigated spectrophotometrically (Chistyakov *et al.*, 1974). The stoichiometry of the reduction is

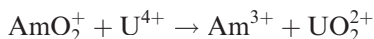




The kinetics of the Am(v) reactions in aqueous Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> follow the same rate law as in HClO<sub>4</sub> media.

(xi) *Reduction of Am(v) by U(IV) in perchloric acid*

At 11.2 and 3.60°C in 0.51–2.60 M HClO<sub>4</sub>, the reaction between Am(v) and U(IV) proceeds according to the equation:



Blokhin *et al.* (1974) derived the following rate law:

$$d[\text{Am}^{3+}]/dt = k[\text{AmO}_2^+][\text{U}^{4+}]$$

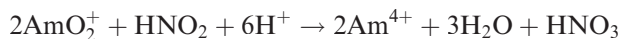
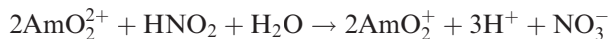
In 2.0 M HClO<sub>4</sub> at 9.5°C,  $k = 725 \pm 30 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ min}^{-1}$ . Standard thermodynamic activation parameters are  $\Delta H^* = 75 \pm 4 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ ,  $\Delta G^* = 63.6 \pm 0.8 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ , and  $\Delta S^* = 37.7 \pm 12.5 \text{ J K}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}$ .

(xii) *Oxidation of Am(II) by water*

In an elegant experiment carried out at the U.S. Argonne National Laboratory, the absorption spectra of both divalent americium and tetravalent americium were obtained (Sullivan *et al.*, 1976, 1978). This technique involved irradiation of Am(III) solutions with single electron pulses and recording the spectra with a streak camera at postirradiation times of 50 μs for Am(II) and 100 μs for Am(IV). Am(II) disappeared via reaction with water, while the Am(IV) species disproportionated to yield Am(III) and Am(V).

**(g) Radiolysis**

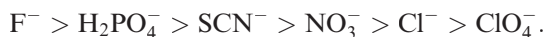
The most commonly used americium isotopes, <sup>241</sup>Am and <sup>243</sup>Am, decay primarily by emitting high-energy alpha particles of about 5.4 and 5.2 MeV, respectively (see Table 8.1). In solution, the energy (1 mg <sup>241</sup>Am releases about  $7 \times 10^{14} \text{ eV s}^{-1}$ ) is released in dense tracks producing radicals, ions, and electrons; thus can impact the stability of americium oxidation states in aqueous solutions. There are numerous reports on the effect of the intense alpha radiation of transuranium elements on their chemical behavior in acidic, basic, and highly concentrated chloride solutions. In acidic media, Am(III) is the most stable oxidation state and Am(V) and Am(VI) are rather rapidly reduced (Vladimirova *et al.*, 1977; Kornilov *et al.*, 1986). The reduction rate is closely related to the dose rate and electrolyte concentration. Vladimirova and co-workers (Vladimirova *et al.*, 1977; Vladimirova, 1986) suggested that Am(V) and Am(VI) reduction in nitric acid solutions cannot be explained by involving only radiolytically produced radicals but also require consideration of chemical reactions with radiolytically produced H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> and HNO<sub>2</sub>:



In perchlorate solutions, alpha-radiolysis produces multiple species, such as  $\text{Cl}_2$ ,  $\text{ClO}_2$ , or  $\text{Cl}^-$  that are effective reductants for  $\text{Am}(\text{VI})$  (Kornilov *et al.*, 1986). A radiolytically enhanced chemical oxidation of  $\text{Am}(\text{III})$  to  $\text{Am}(\text{V})$  and  $\text{Am}(\text{VI})$  (at large gamma doses) is observed in perchlorate solutions at pH 3–6 in the presence of excess of  $\text{N}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$ , or  $\text{XeO}_3$  (Pikaev *et al.*, 1977). As expected the stability of higher oxidation states increases with pH and  $\text{Am}(\text{III})$  is radiolytically oxidized to  $\text{Am}(\text{V})$  in carbonate solutions under the exposure of intense alpha-radiation from  $^{244}\text{Cm}$  ( $3\text{--}8 \text{ KCi L}^{-1}$ ) (Osipov *et al.*, 1977). The formation of oxidizing species in concentrated chloride solutions, i.e.  $\text{Cl}_2$  and  $\text{ClO}^-$ , leads to the autoradiolytical oxidation of  $\text{Am}(\text{III})$  to  $\text{Am}(\text{V})$  (Magirius *et al.*, 1985; Runde and Kim, 1994). The radiolytical formation of hypochlorite in basic 5 M NaCl is directly correlated with the alpha-specific activity of  $^{241}\text{Am}$ .

### 8.8.2 Complexation reactions

A critical review of the chemical thermodynamics of experimental data and chemical thermodynamics for americium inorganic compounds was recently published by the NEA (Silva *et al.*, 1995). Nearly all formation constants listed in Table 8.8 are for complexes formed by  $\text{Am}(\text{III})$ , as little work has been done on complexes with Am in higher oxidation states. Color changes of  $\text{Am}(\text{III})$ -containing solutions indicate existence of  $\text{Am}(\text{VI})$  nitrate, sulfate, and fluoride complexes. Some spectroscopic evidence exists for a  $\text{Am}(\text{V})$  peroxide complex in 1 M NaOH (Musikas, 1973a). In agreement with the behavior of other actinide (III) and (IV) ions, the stability of  $\text{Am}(\text{III})$  complexes with monovalent inorganic ligands follows the sequence:



As a Chatt–Ahrland ‘A’ type or Pearson ‘hard’ cation,  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  association with inorganic ligands proceeds initially through electrostatic interactions to form outer-sphere complexes, such as chlorides or perchlorates. Spectrophotometric results suggested the inner-sphere formation of chloride and nitrate ions in concentrated Na/LiCl and  $\text{LiNO}_3$  solutions (Marcus and Shiloh, 1969; Allen *et al.*, 2000). Inner-sphere complexes are also found to form with harder ligands, such as fluoride or sulfate. In most cases, the stability of  $\text{Am}(\text{III})$  complexes is similar to those that contain lanthanide ions with similar ionic radii, e.g.  $\text{Nd}(\text{III})$  and  $\text{Eu}(\text{III})$ . In some cases, the stability of the  $\text{Am}(\text{III})$  complex is slightly greater than that of the corresponding lanthanide complex presumably because of the participation of f-electrons in the bonding (Moskvin, 1967, 1971, 1973). As discussed earlier, this difference in stability can be used to separate  $\text{Am}(\text{III})$  effectively from lanthanide elements.

**Table 8.8** Selected formation constants and solubility products of inorganic americium complexes (Silva et al., 1995).

Complex	$\log \beta^\circ$ or $\log K_{sp}$	$\Delta_f G_m^\circ(298.15\text{K})$ (kJ mol <sup>-1</sup> )	$\Delta_f H_m^\circ(298.15\text{K})$ (kJ mol <sup>-1</sup> )
Solution species			
AmOH <sup>2+</sup>	-6.4 ± 0.7	-799.31 ± 6.21	
Am(OH) <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup>	-14.1 ± 0.6	-992.49 ± 5.86	
Am(OH) <sub>3</sub> (aq)	-25.7 ± 0.5	-1163.42 ± 5.55	
Am(CO <sub>3</sub> ) <sup>+</sup>	7.8 ± 0.3	-1171.12 ± 5.07	
Am(CO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	12.3 ± 0.4	-1724.71 ± 5.33	
Am(CO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> <sup>3-</sup>	15.2 ± 0.6	-2269.16 ± 5.98	
AmSCN <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup>	1.3 ± 0.3	-513.42 ± 6.45	
AmF <sup>2+</sup>	3.4 ± 0.4	-899.63 ± 5.32	
AmF <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup>	5.8 ± 0.2	-1194.85 ± 5.08	
AmCl <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup>	1.05 ± 0.1	-735.91 ± 4.77	
AmSO <sub>4</sub> <sup>+</sup>	3.85 ± 0.03	-1364.68 ± 4.78	
Am(SO <sub>4</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	5.4 ± 0.8	-2117.53 ± 6.27	
AmNO <sub>3</sub> <sup>+</sup>	1.33 ± 0.2	-717.08 ± 4.91	
AmH <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> <sup>2+</sup>		-1752.97 ± 5.76	
Solid phases			
Am(OH) <sub>3</sub> (am)	-17.0 ± 0.6		
Am(OH) <sub>3</sub> (cr)	-15.2 ± 0.6		
AmO <sub>2</sub> (cr)		-874.49 ± 4.27	-932.20 ± 3.00
Am <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> (cr)		-1613.32 ± 9.24	-1690.40 ± 8.00
AmF <sub>3</sub> (cr)		-1518.83 ± 13.10	-1588.00 ± 13.00
AmF <sub>4</sub> (cr)		-1616.83 ± 20.06	-1710 ± 20.00
Am <sub>2</sub> (CO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> (cr)	16.7 ± 1.1	-2971.74 ± 15.79	
Am(OH)CO <sub>3</sub> (cr)	21.2 ± 1.4	-1404.83 ± 9.31	
AmPO <sub>4</sub> (am)	24.8 ± 0.6	-1752.97 ± 5.76	

**(a) Hydrolysis**

(1) Am(III): The hydrolysis of Am(III) has been studied extensively, partly because the hydrolysis reactions are strongly favored in aqueous systems. It is established that Am(III) is complexed by hydroxide above pH 5 to form complexes of general formula Am(OH)<sub>n</sub><sup>3-n</sup> where  $n = 1-3$ . Thermodynamic stabilities of these complexes were calculated from data obtained by a variety of methods, such as solubility studies, solvent extraction, and potentiometric and electromigration measurements. Spectroscopic characterization or structural information of these complexes is absent because of their low solubilities. The existence of the anionic species Am(OH)<sub>4</sub><sup>-</sup> has been postulated, which would increase the Am(III) solubility at high pH. However, an increase in solubility is not observed at pH > 13 and contamination of the solution by carbonate may have produced anionic carbonate complexes that increase

the overall Am(III) solubility. There is substantial uncertainty about the formation of polynuclear complexes, as common in the U(VI) hydrolysis system.

- (2) Am(V): Kim and coworkers (Magirus *et al.*, 1985; Stadler and Kim, 1988) measured the solubility of autoradiolytically formed  $^{241}\text{AmO}_2(\text{OH})$  (s) in 3 and 5 M NaCl. Runde and coworkers (Runde and Kim, 1994; Runde *et al.*, 1996) reported an increased solubility of  $^{241}\text{AmO}_2(\text{OH})$ (s) over  $^{237}\text{NpO}_2(\text{OH})$ (s) in 5 M NaCl. Slope analysis of the solubility data indicated formation of only two americium(V) hydrolysis products in solution,  $\text{AmO}_2(\text{OH})(\text{aq})$  and  $\text{AmO}_2(\text{OH})_2^-$ . Tananaev (1990a) suggested the formation of  $\text{AmO}_2(\text{OH})_3^{2-}$  (with an absorption peak at 750 nm) and  $\text{AmO}_2(\text{OH})_4^{3-}$  in highly alkaline media based on spectroscopic measurements of Am(V) in 0.001–1 M LiOH solutions. Because of the radiolytic formation of oxidizing species (such as  $\text{OCl}^-$ ) and the subsequently increased stability of Am(V), the few solubility studies of Am(V) were performed in concentrated chloride solutions. The reported apparent stability constants for  $\text{AmO}_2(\text{OH})(\text{aq})$  and  $\text{AmO}_2(\text{OH})_2^-$  are close to those for the analogous Np(V) species (Runde *et al.*, 1996). However, the solubility of  $^{241}\text{AmO}_2\text{OH}$  appears to be higher than that of  $^{237}\text{NpO}_2\text{OH}$ , probably due to higher alpha-radiation damage of the Am(V) solid.
- (3) Am(IV) and Am(VI): The hydrolysis of Am(IV) and Am(VI) remains rather unexplored because of the instabilities of these oxidation states in aqueous solutions under ambient conditions. There is spectroscopic evidence for the formation of Am(VI) hydrolysis species of general formula  $\text{AmO}_2(\text{OH})_n^{2-n}$  where  $n = 1-4$ .

### (b) Carbonate complexation

- (1) Am(III): The carbonate complexation of Am(III) has been widely investigated using a variety of methods, such as solvent extraction, spectrophotometry, electromigration, and solubility. Meinrath and Kim (1991a) monitored the solubility and complexation reactions of Am(III) in carbonate-containing solutions spectroscopically. Three solution species,  $\text{Am}(\text{CO}_3)_n^{3-2n}$  with  $n = 1-3$ , were characterized by their distinct absorbances at 505.4 nm ( $\epsilon = 385 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ), 506.5 nm ( $\epsilon = 350 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ), and 507.8 nm ( $\epsilon = 330 \text{ L mol}^{-1} \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ), respectively. Wruck *et al.* (1999) determined the formation constant of the monocarbonato complex,  $\text{Am}(\text{CO}_3)^+$ , at 25, 50, and 75°C at 0.1 M ionic strength using laser-induced photoacoustic spectroscopy. There is no experimental or spectroscopic proof for the proposed formation of bicarbonato complexes,  $\text{Am}(\text{HCO}_3)_n^{3-2n}$ , and mixed hydroxocarbonato species,  $\text{Am}(\text{OH})_m(\text{CO}_3)_n^{3-m-2n}$  (Bernkopf and Kim, 1984). These complexes were used to explain extraction and solubility data although the experimental data can be explained by pure carbonato

and hydroxo species. The solid phases  $\text{AmOHCO}_3$  and  $\text{Am}_2(\text{CO}_3)_3$  were found as solubility-controlling phases in aqueous carbonate solutions (Meinrath and Kim, 1991b; Runde *et al.*, 1992). The double carbonate  $\text{NaAm}(\text{CO}_3)_2 \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$  was identified by X-ray diffraction to form at increased NaCl concentrations (Runde and Kim, 1994; Rao *et al.*, 1996).

- (2) Am(IV): There is only one carbonate complex of Am(IV) discussed in the literature. From combined spectroscopy and cyclic voltammetry data in bicarbonate/carbonate solutions (Bourges *et al.*, 1983), it was concluded that  $\text{Am}(\text{CO}_3)_5^{6-}$  is the limiting carbonate complex of Am(IV). Its logarithmic stability constant,  $\log \beta_5^0 = 39.3 \pm 2.1$  (Silva *et al.*, 1995), is comparable to those of the analogous U(IV) ( $34.0 \pm 0.9$  (Grenthe *et al.*, 1992)) and Np(IV) complexes ( $33.9 \pm 2.6$  (Kaszuba and Runde, 1999)).
- (3) Am(V): Giffaut and Vitorge (1993) studied the solubility of  $\text{NaAmO}_2\text{CO}_3$  in carbonate-containing 4 M NaCl solution and claimed the formation of two Am(V) carbonate complexes,  $\text{AmO}_2(\text{CO}_3)^-$  and  $\text{AmO}_2(\text{CO}_3)_2^{3-}$ . Runde and coworkers (Runde and Kim, 1994; Runde *et al.*, 1996) reported identical solubility and speciation behavior of Am(V) and Np(V) in carbonated 3 and 5 M NaCl solutions. In analogy to the well-characterized Np(V) system in 5 M NaCl, the solubility data were interpreted with the formation of  $\text{AmO}_2(\text{CO}_3)_n^{1-2n}$  ( $n = 1-3$ ) in solution and  $\text{NaAmO}_2\text{CO}_3 \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$  as the solid equilibrium phases. Spectroscopic evidence suggests that an Am(V) carbonate complex in  $\text{NaHCO}_3$ , presumably the triscarbonato complex  $\text{AmO}_2(\text{CO}_3)_3^{5-}$ , has an absorbance at 727 nm (Tananaev, 1990a).
- (4) Am(VI): The appearance of a burgundy-red color upon introducing Am(VI) into carbonate-containing solutions indicates the coordination of  $\text{AmO}_2^{2+}$  with carbonate ions. However, spectroscopic studies of the carbonate complexation of Am(VI) are few. Based on electrochemical measurements, it is assumed that the limiting complex is the  $\text{AmO}_2(\text{CO}_3)_3^{4-}$  anion (Bourges *et al.*, 1983; Silva *et al.*, 1995).

### (c) Organic ligands

With few exceptions, the data in Table 8.9 are for complexes of Am(III). Generally, the higher oxidation states of americium are reduced by organic complexing agents. Aminopolycarboxylic acids complex Am(III) more strongly than either hydroxycarboxylic or aminoalkylpolyphosphoric acids (e.g. ethylenediamine bis(methylene)phosphonic acid). Keller (1971) observed that in the series of  $\alpha$ -hydroxycarboxylic acids (e.g. glycolic and lactic), the stability of the Am(III) complex decreases with increasing number of carbon atoms. The logarithm of the stability constant of the Am(III) complexes with aminopolycarboxylic acids increases linearly (Fig. 8.7) with the number of bound donor atoms of the ligand.

**Table 8.9** Complexes of Am(III) with organic ligands (unless otherwise noted, see the compilation by Schulz (1976) and references therein).

Ligand	Method	Temp. (°C)	Ionic strength, medium $\mu$ (mol L <sup>-1</sup> )	Log of formation constants		References
				$\beta_1$	$\beta_2$	
acetic acid (HAc)	IX	20	9.0 M HAc	2.28 (AmAc <sup>2+</sup> )	3.84 (AmAc <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup> )	$\beta_3 = 4.78$ (AmAc <sub>3</sub> ) [1]
$\alpha$ -alanine (Ala)	PT	20	1.0 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	1.81	3.20	$\beta_5 = 6.66$ (AmAc <sub>5</sub> <sup>+</sup> ) [1]
	SX	25 ± 0.1	2.0 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	1.95 ± 0.11		$\beta_3 = 4.57$ ; $\beta_4 = 5.7$ [1]
				1.99 ± 0.01		$\beta_5 = 6.73$ ; $\beta_6 = 7.73$ [1]
	IX	25	$\mu = 0.2$	2.15		$\beta_3 = 3.9$ [2]
				2.30		
	IX	25	$\mu = 0.5$	2.08		
				2.30		
	SX	~25	0.1–1.0 M Ac	1.40 (AmO <sub>2</sub> Ac)		
				2.39 ± 0.05		
anthranil- <i>N,N</i> -diacetic acid (H <sub>3</sub> ADA)	Spec	18 ± 2	2.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	0.79 (AmAla <sup>2+</sup> )		
				1.0 M KCl	2.51 (AmO <sub>2</sub> Ac <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> )	
arginine	IX	25	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	8.92 (AmADA)	14.5 (Am(ADA) <sub>2</sub> <sup>3-</sup> )	[26,52]
aspartic acid	Spec	18 ± 2	1.0 M KCl	3.8 ± 0.3		[8]
				5.1 ± 0.02		[8]
Benzoyltrifluoroacetone (HBTA)	SX	25	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>			[9]
citric acid (H <sub>3</sub> Cit)	Spec	25	1.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	6.96 (AmCit)	10.3 (Am(Cit) <sub>2</sub> <sup>3-</sup> )	[10,11]
citric acid (H <sub>3</sub> Cit)	SX	25	0.1 M (H <sub>4</sub> Li)ClO <sub>4</sub>		12.15	[12]
citric acid (H <sub>3</sub> Cit)	IX	25	0.1 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	9.16 ± 0.03		[11]
				8.73 ± 0.066		[11]
citric acid (H <sub>3</sub> Cit)	IX	25	1.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	6.72 ± 0.05		[11]
				6.74	11.55	[13]
citric acid (H <sub>3</sub> Cit)	IX	25	0.1 M NaH <sub>2</sub> Cit			[13]
citric acid (H <sub>3</sub> Cit)	IX	25	1.0 M NH <sub>4</sub> Cl	7.11	14.0	[14]
citric acid (H <sub>3</sub> Cit)	PEP	25	0.04 M		9.66	[15]
citric acid (H <sub>3</sub> Cit)	SX	25	0.1 M LiClO <sub>4</sub>	10.1 (Am(HCit) <sup>+</sup> )		[16]

Other constants  
 $\beta_3 = 14.84$  (Am(BTA)<sub>3</sub>)  
 $\beta_3' = 4.53$  (AmHCit<sup>+</sup>)  
 $\Delta G^\circ = 44.98$  kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> (AmHCit<sup>+</sup>)  
 $\beta_3' = 7.00$   
 $\beta_3' = 6.29$   
 $\beta_3' = 4.24$   
 $\beta_3' = 5.31$   
 $\beta_3' = 8.23$   
 $\beta_3' = 8.29$  (Am(H<sub>2</sub>Cit)<sub>3</sub>)

				8.0 (Am(Cit))	[16]
				20 (Am(HcCit) <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> )	[16]
				16.3 (Am(HCit)(Cit) <sup>2-</sup> )	[16]
				12.1 (Am(Cit) <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> )	[16]
				11.36 (Am(HCit) <sup>+</sup> )	[16]
				8.69 (Am(Cit))	[16]
				18.97 (Am(HCit)(Cit) <sup>2-</sup> )	[16]
				14.29 (Am(Cit) <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> )	[16]
				10.53 (Am(OH)(Cit) <sup>-</sup> )	[16]
				22.80 (Am(OH)(Cit) <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> )	[16]
				5.9 ± 0.1	[17]
				5.2 ± 0.1	[17]
				5.0 ± 0.1	[17]
				4.84 ± 0.04	[17]
				5.38 ± 0.06	[17]
				5.10 ± 0.15	[17]
				0.21 ± 0.02	[18]
				0.55 ± 0.06	[18]
			4.3 ± 0.3		[8]
				18.34 (AmDCTA <sup>-</sup> )	[19]
				18.79	[20]
				18.79 <sup>c</sup>	[21]
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				0.001 M H <sub>4</sub> DCTA	
				+0.02 M ammonium- $\alpha$ -hydroxyisobutyrate	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> Cl	
				18.21	[22]
				17.69 (AmDTPrA <sup>-</sup> )	[11]
				0.1 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	[23]
				1.0 M NaCl	
				1.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	[24]
				1.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				0.1 M (NH <sub>4</sub> , H)ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	[25]
				18.34 (AmDCTA <sup>-</sup> )	
				18.79	
				18.79 <sup>c</sup>	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				0.001 M H <sub>4</sub> DCTA	
				+0.02 M ammonium- $\alpha$ -hydroxyisobutyrate	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> Cl	
				18.21	
				17.69 (AmDTPrA <sup>-</sup> )	
				0.1 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				1.0 M NaCl	
				1.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				0.1 M (NH <sub>4</sub> , H)ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				18.34 (AmDCTA <sup>-</sup> )	
				18.79	
				18.79 <sup>c</sup>	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				0.001 M H <sub>4</sub> DCTA	
				+0.02 M ammonium- $\alpha$ -hydroxyisobutyrate	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> Cl	
				18.21	
				17.69 (AmDTPrA <sup>-</sup> )	
				0.1 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				1.0 M NaCl	
				1.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				0.1 M (NH <sub>4</sub> , H)ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				18.34 (AmDCTA <sup>-</sup> )	
				18.79	
				18.79 <sup>c</sup>	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				0.001 M H <sub>4</sub> DCTA	
				+0.02 M ammonium- $\alpha$ -hydroxyisobutyrate	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> Cl	
				18.21	
				17.69 (AmDTPrA <sup>-</sup> )	
				0.1 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				1.0 M NaCl	
				1.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				0.1 M (NH <sub>4</sub> , H)ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				18.34 (AmDCTA <sup>-</sup> )	
				18.79	
				18.79 <sup>c</sup>	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				0.001 M H <sub>4</sub> DCTA	
				+0.02 M ammonium- $\alpha$ -hydroxyisobutyrate	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> Cl	
				18.21	
				17.69 (AmDTPrA <sup>-</sup> )	
				0.1 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				1.0 M NaCl	
				1.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				0.1 M (NH <sub>4</sub> , H)ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				18.34 (AmDCTA <sup>-</sup> )	
				18.79	
				18.79 <sup>c</sup>	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				0.001 M H <sub>4</sub> DCTA	
				+0.02 M ammonium- $\alpha$ -hydroxyisobutyrate	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> Cl	
				18.21	
				17.69 (AmDTPrA <sup>-</sup> )	
				0.1 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				1.0 M NaCl	
				1.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				0.1 M (NH <sub>4</sub> , H)ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				18.34 (AmDCTA <sup>-</sup> )	
				18.79	
				18.79 <sup>c</sup>	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				0.001 M H <sub>4</sub> DCTA	
				+0.02 M ammonium- $\alpha$ -hydroxyisobutyrate	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> Cl	
				18.21	
				17.69 (AmDTPrA <sup>-</sup> )	
				0.1 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				1.0 M NaCl	
				1.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				0.1 M (NH <sub>4</sub> , H)ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				18.34 (AmDCTA <sup>-</sup> )	
				18.79	
				18.79 <sup>c</sup>	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				0.001 M H <sub>4</sub> DCTA	
				+0.02 M ammonium- $\alpha$ -hydroxyisobutyrate	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> Cl	
				18.21	
				17.69 (AmDTPrA <sup>-</sup> )	
				0.1 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				1.0 M NaCl	
				1.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				0.1 M (NH <sub>4</sub> , H)ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				18.34 (AmDCTA <sup>-</sup> )	
				18.79	
				18.79 <sup>c</sup>	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				0.001 M H <sub>4</sub> DCTA	
				+0.02 M ammonium- $\alpha$ -hydroxyisobutyrate	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> Cl	
				18.21	
				17.69 (AmDTPrA <sup>-</sup> )	
				0.1 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				1.0 M NaCl	
				1.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				0.1 M (NH <sub>4</sub> , H)ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				18.34 (AmDCTA <sup>-</sup> )	
				18.79	
				18.79 <sup>c</sup>	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				0.001 M H <sub>4</sub> DCTA	
				+0.02 M ammonium- $\alpha$ -hydroxyisobutyrate	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> Cl	
				18.21	
				17.69 (AmDTPrA <sup>-</sup> )	
				0.1 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				1.0 M NaCl	
				1.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				0.1 M (NH <sub>4</sub> , H)ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				18.34 (AmDCTA <sup>-</sup> )	
				18.79	
				18.79 <sup>c</sup>	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				0.001 M H <sub>4</sub> DCTA	
				+0.02 M ammonium- $\alpha$ -hydroxyisobutyrate	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> Cl	
				18.21	
				17.69 (AmDTPrA <sup>-</sup> )	
				0.1 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				1.0 M NaCl	
				1.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				0.1 M (NH <sub>4</sub> , H)ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				18.34 (AmDCTA <sup>-</sup> )	
				18.79	
				18.79 <sup>c</sup>	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				0.001 M H <sub>4</sub> DCTA	
				+0.02 M ammonium- $\alpha$ -hydroxyisobutyrate	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> Cl	
				18.21	
				17.69 (AmDTPrA <sup>-</sup> )	
				0.1 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				1.0 M NaCl	
				1.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				0.1 M (NH <sub>4</sub> , H)ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				18.34 (AmDCTA <sup>-</sup> )	
				18.79	
				18.79 <sup>c</sup>	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				0.001 M H <sub>4</sub> DCTA	
				+0.02 M ammonium- $\alpha$ -hydroxyisobutyrate	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> Cl	
				18.21	
				17.69 (AmDTPrA <sup>-</sup> )	
				0.1 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				1.0 M NaCl	
				1.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				0.1 M (NH <sub>4</sub> , H)ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				18.34 (AmDCTA <sup>-</sup> )	
				18.79	
				18.79 <sup>c</sup>	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	
				0.001 M H <sub>4</sub> DCTA	
				+0.02 M ammonium- $\alpha$ -hydroxyisobutyrate	
				0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> Cl	
				18.21	
				17.69 (AmDTPrA <sup>-</sup> )	
				0.1 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
				6.05 ± 0.3	
				1.0 M NaCl	
				1.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	
		</			

**Table 8.9** (Contd.)

Ligand	Method	Temp. (°C)	Ionic strength, medium $\mu$ (mol L <sup>-1</sup> )	Log of formation constants		Other constants	References
				$\beta_1$	$\beta_2$		
diethylenetriaminepentaacetic acid (H <sub>5</sub> DTPA)	IX	25	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	23.07 (AmDTPA <sup>2-</sup> )		$\beta'_1 = 14.06$ (AmHDTPA <sup>+</sup> )	[26]
	IX	25	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	22.92			[27]
	EM	25 ± 0.2	0.1 M KNO <sub>3</sub>	22.74			[28]
	SX		$\mu = 0.1$	23.2		$\beta'_1 = 14.3$	[29]
	Spec	25	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	23.2			[30]
	Spec	25	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	24.03			[31]
diethylphosphinypropionic acid (HDEPP)	Spec	20 ± 0.1	0.5 M HClO <sub>4</sub> /HNO <sub>3</sub>	22.09			[32]
	IX	25	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	23.32			[33]
	IX	25	1.0 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	21.3		$\beta'_1 = 15.46$	[1]
	IX	25	0.5 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub> ; HClO <sub>4</sub>	1.76 (AmDEPP <sup>2+</sup> )	3.16 (Am(DEPP) <sup>1+</sup> )		[34]
diglycolic acid (H <sub>2</sub> DGA)	Spec	25.2	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	6.47 (AmDGA <sup>+</sup> )	10.96 (Am(DGA) <sup>2-</sup> )	$\beta'_3 = 13.83$ (Am(DGA) <sup>3-</sup> )	[35]
diocetyl-P,P'-ethane-1,2-diphosphonic acid (H <sub>2</sub> O <sub>2</sub> EDPP)	SX	25	1.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>			$\beta'_1 = 19.53$ (Am(HO <sub>2</sub> EDPP) <sup>3-</sup> )	[24]
diphosphine dioxides (1,1-DiPO=(C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>11</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> P(O)CH <sub>2</sub> (O)P(C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>13</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> ; 1,4-DiPO=(C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>11</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> P(O)(CH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>4</sub> (O)P(C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>11</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> ; 1,5-DiPO=(C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>11</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> P(O)(CH <sub>2</sub> ) <sub>5</sub> (O)P(C <sub>6</sub> H <sub>11</sub> ) <sub>2</sub> )	SX	2.0	2.0 M NaNO <sub>3</sub>	1.43 (Am(NO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> · (1,1-DiPO))			[36]
				6.56 (Am(NO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> · 2(1,4-DiPO))			[36]
				5.92 (Am(NO <sub>3</sub> ) <sub>3</sub> · 2(1,5-DiPO))			[36]
ethylenediaminebis(isopropyl)phosphonic acid (H <sub>4</sub> EDIP)	EM	25	0.1 M KNO <sub>3</sub>	18.00 (AmEDIP <sup>-</sup> )		$\beta'_1 = 6.26$ (AmH <sub>3</sub> EDIP <sup>2+</sup> ) $\beta'_2 = 8.94$ (AmH <sub>5</sub> EDIP <sup>+</sup> ) $\beta'_1 = 13.95$ (AmHEDIP)	[28]



ethylenediaminebis(methyl)phosphonic acid (H <sub>4</sub> EDMP)						
EM	25	0.1 M KNO <sub>3</sub>	16.52 (AmEDMP <sup>-</sup> )	$\beta'_1 = 6.3$ (AmH <sub>3</sub> EDMP <sup>2+</sup> )	[37]	
				$\beta'_1 = 8.48$ (AmH <sub>2</sub> EDMP <sup>+</sup> )	[37]	
				$\beta'_1 = 12.3$ (AmHEDMP)	[37]	
				$\beta'_1 = 6.12$ (AmH <sub>2</sub> EDMP <sup>+</sup> )	[38]	
ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid (H <sub>4</sub> EDTA)						
IX	25	0.5 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>		$\beta'_1 = 9.68$ (AmHEDTA)	[11]	
		0.1 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	18.15 (AmEDTA <sup>-</sup> )		[11]	
		0.5 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	16.36			
		1.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	15.72			
		1.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub> /HClO <sub>4</sub>	15.33	22.10 (Am(EDTA) <sup>5+</sup> )	[11]	
Spec	25 ± 0.2					
SX	20	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> Cl	16.91 ± 0.04		[39]	
Spec	25	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	18.06		[31]	
IX	25 ± 0.02	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	18.16 ± 0.10		[40]	
		1.0 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	18.03 ± 0.13		[41]	
EM	25 ± 0.5	0.1 M HCl/KCl	17.0	$\beta'_1 = 10.29$ (AmHEDTA)	[42]	
				$\beta'_1 = 9.21$ (AmHEDTA)		
IX	80	0.001 M H <sub>4</sub> EDTA + 0.2 M <i>α</i> -hydroxyisobutyrate	17.14		[43]	
EM	25 ± 0.1	0.1 M KNO <sub>3</sub>	17.00 ± 0.09	$\beta'_1 = 9.21$ (AmHEDTA)	[22,44]	
				$\beta = 19.98$ (AmO <sub>2</sub> HEDTA <sup>2+</sup> )	[22,44]	
Spec	25	$\mu = 0.1$		$\beta'_1 = 4.88 \pm 0.05$ (AmO <sub>2</sub> HEDTA <sup>2+</sup> )	[22,44]	
ethylenediaminetetramethylphosphonic acid (H <sub>8</sub> EDTMP)						
EM	25 ± 0.1	0.1 M KNO <sub>3</sub>	22.47 ± 0.08 (AmEDTMP <sup>5-</sup> )	$\beta'_1 = 4.8 \pm 0.6$ (AmH <sub>3</sub> EDTMP)	[44]	
				$\beta'_1 = 7.33 \pm 0.09$ (AmH <sub>4</sub> EDTMP)	[44]	
				$\beta''_1 = 11.17 \pm 0.07$ (AmH <sub>3</sub> EDTMP)	[44]	
				$\beta'''_1 = 14.90 \pm 0.06$ (AmH <sub>2</sub> EDTMP)	[44]	
				$\beta''''_1 = 18.45 \pm 0.08$ (AmHEDTMP)	[44]	

**Table 8.9 (Contd.)**

Ligand	Method	Temp. (°C)	Ionic strength, medium $\mu$ (mol L <sup>-1</sup> )	Log of formation constants		Other constants	References
				$\beta_1$	$\beta_2$		
ethylenediaminetetrapropionic acid (H <sub>4</sub> EDTP)	Spec	25 ± 0.2	1.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub> /HClO <sub>4</sub>	18.84 ± 0.02 (AmEDTP <sup>-</sup> )	$\beta'_1 = 12.31$ (AmHEDTP)		[11]
ethyleneglycolbis(2-aminoethyl)tetraacetic acid (H <sub>4</sub> EGTA)	IX	25	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	18.22 (AmEGTA)			[26]
formate	Sol	25	2.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	2.54 (lg $\beta_1$ )	4.02 (lg $\beta_2$ )	log $\beta_3 = 4.64$ log $\beta_4 = 4.5$	[45]
formate (Am(v))	Spec	25	2.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	1.22 ± 0.3			[46]
fulvic acid	Spec	25	0.1 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	5.78 ± 0.07			[22]
	SX	25	3 M NaCl	4.7 ± 0.1			[13]
			6 M NaCl	6.0 ± 0.7			
glutamic acid	Spec	18 ± 2	1.0 M KCl	5.6 ± 0.1			[8]
glycine (HGly)	SX	25	2.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	0.69 ± 0.02 (AmGly <sup>2+</sup> )			[47]
	Spec	18 ± 2	1.0 M KCl	4.1 ± 0.02			[8]
glycolic acid (HGlyc)	IX	0.5	0.5 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	2.82 (AmGlyc <sup>2+</sup> )	4.85 (Am(Glyc) <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup> )	$\beta_3 = 6.30$ (Am(Glyc) <sub>3</sub> )	[3]
	SX	25	2.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	2.59			[48]
	Spec	25 ± 0.2	1.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub> /HClO <sub>4</sub>	2.44 ± 0.02	4.29 ± 0.2	$\beta_3 = 5.20$	[11]
histadine	IX	25	0.5 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	2.57 ± 0.02	4.01 ± 0.1		[11]
hydrazine- <i>N,N</i> -diacetic acid (H <sub>2</sub> HyDA)	Spec	18 ± 2	1.0 M KCl	4.8 ± 0.2			[8]
	IX	25	0.1 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	10.74 (AmHyDA <sup>+</sup> )	20.20 (Am(HyDA) <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup> )		[11]
	EM	25	$\mu = 0.1$	11.01	19.78		[37]
hydrazineimino diacetic acid (H <sub>2</sub> HyIDA)	EM	25	0.1 M KNO <sub>3</sub>	10.98 (AmHyIDA <sup>+</sup> )	19.97 (AmHyIDA) <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup>	$\beta'_1 = 4.13$ (AmHHyIDA <sup>2+</sup> )	[49]
2-hydroxyvelohexylethlenediaminetriacetic acid (H <sub>3</sub> HCEDTA)	IX	25	0.1 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	16.09 (AmHCEDTA)		$\beta'_1 = 7.44$ (AmHHCEDTA <sup>+</sup> )	[11]



**Table 8.9 (Contd.)**

Ligand	Method	Temp. (°C)	Ionic strength, medium $\mu$ (mol L <sup>-1</sup> )	Log of formation constants		Other constants	References
				$\beta_1$	$\beta_2$		
lactic acid (HLact)	SX	25	2.0 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	2.52 (AmLact <sup>2+</sup> )	4.77 (Am(Lact) <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup> )	$\beta_3 = 5.98$ (Am(Lact) <sub>3</sub> )	[63]
	IX		0.5 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	2.77	4.64		[64]
	SX	20	0.5 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>			$\beta_3 = 5.71 \pm 0.03$	[65]
	IX	20	0.5 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>			$\beta_3 = 5.73$	[66]
methionine	PEP	10	1.5 M KCl/HLact	2.57	4.21		[8]
N-methyliminodiacetic acid (H <sub>2</sub> MIDA)	Spec	18 ± 2	1.0 M KCl	4.8 ± 0.2			
	IX	25	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	7.01 (AmMIDA <sup>+</sup> )	12.51 (Am(MIDA) <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> )		[26]
6-methyl-2-picoline acid (HMAPS)	IX	25 ± 0.2	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	4.26 (AmMAPS <sup>2+</sup> )			[61]
6-methyl-2-picolyliminodiacetic acid (H <sub>3</sub> MPIDA)	IX	25	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	8.38 (AmMPIDA <sup>+</sup> )			[26]
methylolethylphosphoric acid (HMEPA)	IX	25	0.2 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	1.79 ± 0.12 (AmMEPA <sup>2+</sup> )			[59]
(methylphenylphosphinyl)methylphenylphosphinic acid (HMPPA)	SX	25	0.2 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	3.35 (AmMPPA <sup>2+</sup> )			[59]
methylphosphinic acid (HMPPA)	IX	25 ± 0.2	0.5 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	2.79 (AmMPA <sup>2+</sup> ), at $\mu = 0$			[67]
naphthoiltrifluoroacetone (HNFTA)	SX	25	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>			$\beta_3 = 18.31$ (Am(NTA) <sub>3</sub> )	[9]
nitrilodiacetomonobutyric acid (H <sub>3</sub> NDMBA)	IX	25	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>			$\beta'_1 = 3.53$ (AmHNDMBA)	[68,69]
nitrilodiacetomonopropionic acid (H <sub>3</sub> NDAPA)	IX	25	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	10.54 (AmNDAPA)	17.83 (Am(NDAPA) <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> )	$\beta'_1 = 4.02$ (AmHNDAPA)	[68,69]
nitrilodiacetomonovaleric acid (H <sub>3</sub> NDAVA)	IX	25	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>			$\beta'_1 = 3.47$ (AmHNDAVA)	[68,69]

nitriiotriacetic acid (H <sub>3</sub> NTA) IX	25 ± 0.2	0.1 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	11.72 ± 0.02 (AmNNTA)		[11]
		0.5 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	10.84 ± 0.06		[11]
	20	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	10.70	19.71(Am(NTA) <sub>3</sub> <sup>3-</sup> )	[39]
	20	1.0 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	10.87		[1]
	25.6	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	11.91	20.18	[35]
	25	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub> -HClO <sub>4</sub>	11.52	20.24	[68]
	25	0.1 M (NH <sub>4</sub> , HClO <sub>4</sub> )	11.68	20.47	[69]
	24.6	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	11.99	21.1	[70]
	20		11.65	19.52	[71]
		20	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> Cl 1.0 M NH <sub>4</sub> Cl	8.3 (Am(Ox) <sup>-</sup> ) 9.95	β <sub>3</sub> = 13.56 (AmNNTA(HNTA) <sup>2-</sup> ) β <sub>3</sub> = 11.8 (Am(Ox) <sub>3</sub> <sup>3-</sup> ) β <sub>4</sub> = 11.0 (Am(HOx) <sup>-</sup> ) β <sub>3</sub> = 12.3
Sols EM SX IX Spec	25	HClO <sub>4</sub> /H <sub>2</sub> Ox	7.10 (AmOx <sup>+</sup> )	11.2	[72]
	20–25	0.2 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	5.99	10.1	[73]
	25	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> Cl/HCl	6.45	10.5	[73]
	25	1.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	4.63	8.35	[74,75]
	25	0.5 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	3.8 ± 0.02	8.61 ± 0.01	[28]
	25 ± 0.1	μ = 0.25; oxalate, pH1–5	3.27 (AmO <sub>2</sub> Ox <sup>+</sup> )	2.09 (AmO <sub>2</sub> (Ox) <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> )	[75]
	21	0.7 M Na NaCl	4.58 ± 0.05 (pH 6.0) 3.95 ± 0.15 (pH 8.05)	7.91 ± 0.10 (pH 6.0) 7.54 ± 0.20 (pH 8.05)	[76]
	25 ± 0.2	I = 0	6.68	9.94	[77]
	25	0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub> 0.01 M NaClO <sub>4</sub> 0.05 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>		9.6 9.0 8.3	[78] [78] [78]
	SX	25.0	0.1 M NaClO <sub>4</sub> 1.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub> 3.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub> 5.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub> 7.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub> 9.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	4.61 ± 0.06 4.65 ± 0.04 4.83 ± 0.06 4.93 ± 0.11 4.54 ± 0.06	8.39 ± 0.12 8.67 ± 0.13 9.24 ± 0.09 9.42 ± 0.06 8.77 ± 0.05
		1.0 M KCl	5.1 ± 0.3		[8]
18 ± 2		phenylalanine			[80]
25		1-phenyl-3-methyl-4-acetylpyrazolone-5 (HPMAP)			[80]
25		1-phenyl-3-methyl-4-benzoylpyrazolone-5 (HPMBP)			[80]
25		1-phenyl-3-methyl-4-trichloroacetylpyrazolone-5 (HPMTCP)			[80]
SX	25	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>			[80]
					[80]

**Table 8.9** (Contd.)

Ligand	Method	Temp. (°C)	Ionic strength, medium $\mu$ (mol L <sup>-1</sup> )	Log of formation constants		Other constants	References
				$\beta_1$	$\beta_2$		
1-phenyl-3-methyl-4-trifluoroacetylpyrazolone-5 (HPMTFP)	SX	25	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>			$\beta_3 = 9.70$ (Am(PMTFP) <sub>3</sub> )	[80]
phosphonoacetic acid (H <sub>3</sub> PAA)	IX	0.2 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>				$\beta_1' = 2.75$ (Am(H <sub>2</sub> PAA) <sup>2-</sup> )	[81]
						$\beta_2'' = 5.15$ (AmHPAA <sup>+</sup> )	[81]
						$\beta_2'' = 8.5$ (Am(HPAA) <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> )	[81]
pyridine-2-carboxylic acid (HAPS)	IX	25 ± 0.2	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	4.28 ± 0.05 (AmAPS <sup>2+</sup> )	7.99 ± 0.03 (Am(APS) <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup> )	$\beta_3 = 10.51 \pm 0.05$ (Am(APS) <sub>3</sub> )	[61]
$\alpha$ -picolinic acid- <i>N</i> -oxide (HAPSNO)	IX	25 ± 0.2	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	3.09 ± 0.07 (AmAPSNO <sup>2+</sup> )	5.49 ± 0.07 (Am(APSNO) <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup> )		[61]
2-picolyliminodiacetic acid (H <sub>2</sub> PIDA)	IX	25	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	8.96 (Am(PIDA <sup>+</sup> ))	17.71 (Am(PIDA) <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup> )		[26,52]
	Spec	25	0.1 M	0.94 ± 0.01 (Am(PIDA <sup>+</sup> ))			[82]
				1.24 ± 0.001 (Am(PIDA) <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> )			[82]
propanetricarboxylic acid (H <sub>3</sub> PTA)	Spec	25	1.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	5.61 ± 0.07 (AmPTA)		$\beta_1' = 4.96 \pm 0.02$ (AmHPTA <sup>+</sup> )	[10,11]
$\alpha$ -pyridylacetic acid (HAPAA)	IX	25 ± 0.2	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	3.63 ± 0.07 (AmAPPA <sup>2+</sup> )			[61]
pyridine-3-carboxylic acid (Nicotinic acid) (HNIC)	IX	25 ± 0.2	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	3.18 ± 0.07 (AmNIC <sup>2+</sup> )			[61]
pyridine-2,6-dicarboxylic acid (H <sub>2</sub> PDA)	IX	25 ± 0.2	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	9.33 ± 0.09 (AmPDA <sup>+</sup> )	16.51 ± 0.09 (Am(PDA) <sub>2</sub> <sup>-</sup> )		[61]
pyruvic acid (HPruv)	SX	25	2.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	2.03 (AmPruv <sup>2+</sup> )	3.34 (Am(Pruv) <sub>2</sub> <sup>+</sup> )	$\beta_3 = 3.87$ (Am(Pruv) <sub>3</sub> )	[63]

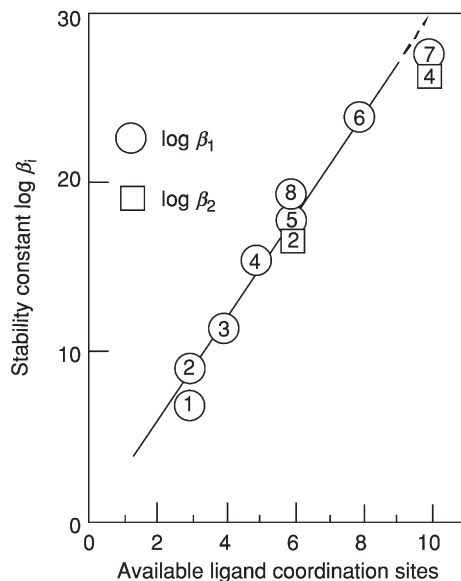
bis(3-methoxyxalicylidenedialdehyde)ethylenediamine (B3MOXSEDI)	SX	25	0.3 M KNO <sub>3</sub>			$\beta'_5 = 0.59$ (AmH (B3MOXSEDI) <sub>2</sub> )	[83]
bis(salicylidenedialdehyde)ethylenediamine (BSEDI)	SX	25	0.3 M KNO <sub>3</sub>			$\beta'_5 = 4.94$ (AmH (BSEDI) <sub>2</sub> )	[83]
serine	Spec		18 ± 2	1.0 M KCl		4.3 ± 0.1	[8]
squaric acid (H <sub>2</sub> Sq, Diketocyclobutenediol)	IX	25	1.0 M (H <sub>2</sub> NH <sub>4</sub> )ClO <sub>4</sub>	2.17 (AmSq <sup>+</sup> )		3.10 (Am(Sq) <sub>2</sub> )	[84]
5-sulphosalicylic acid	PT	25	1.0 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	8.06 ± 0.02		15.34 ± 0.02	[85]
tartaric acid (H <sub>2</sub> Tart)	IX		1.0 M NH <sub>4</sub> Cl	3.9 (AmTart <sup>+</sup> )		10.7 (Am(Tart) <sub>2</sub> ) <sup>†</sup>	[14,86]
	SX	20	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> Cl	1.14 ± 0.005		6.8	[39]
	PEP	(?)	(?)	4.20 ± 0.06		7.88	[87]
	SX	25 ± 0.5	0.5 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	8.08 (AmTDA)		6.84 ± 0.07	[6]
taurine- <i>N,N</i> -diacetic acid (H <sub>3</sub> TDA)	IX	25	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	0.89 ± 0.001 (Am(H <sub>3</sub> TDA))			[26]
	Spec	25	0.1 M	1.14 ± 0.005 (Am(H <sub>3</sub> TDA) <sub>2</sub> <sup>3-</sup> )			[82]
<i>N,N,N',N'</i> -tetraakis(2-pyridylmethyl)ethylenediamine (TPEN)	PT	25	0.1 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	6.69 ± 0.03 (Am(TPEN) <sup>+3</sup> )			[88]
	Spec	25	0.1 M NaClO <sub>4</sub>	6.77 ± 0.01 (Am(TPEN) <sup>+3</sup> )			[88]
thenyltrifluoroacetone (HTTA)	SX	25	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	3.4 (AmTTA <sup>2+</sup> )		8.5 (Am(TTA) <sub>2</sub> <sup>†</sup> )	[9]
	SX	10.40	0.1 M HClO <sub>4</sub> /ClO <sub>4</sub>				[12]
thiodiglycolic acid (H <sub>2</sub> TDGA)	Spec	25.6	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	3.52 ± 0.08 (AmTDGA <sup>+</sup> )		5.66 ± 0.07 (Am(TDGA) <sub>2</sub> <sup>†</sup> )	[35]
thioglycolic acid (HTGlyc)	IX	20	0.5 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	1.55 (AmGlyc <sup>2+</sup> )		2.60 (Am(TGlyc) <sub>2</sub> <sup>†</sup> )	[3]
<i>p</i> -toluenesulfonic acid (pTSAH)	SX	25	2.0 M HClO <sub>4</sub> /pTSAH	-0.028 ± 0.028 (AmpTSA2 <sup>+</sup> )			[89]
	SX	25	2.0 M HBF <sub>4</sub> /pTSAH	0.075 ± 0.018			[89]

**Table 8.9** (Contd.)

Ligand	Method	Temp. (°C)	Ionic strength, medium $\mu$ (mol L <sup>-1</sup> )	Log of formation constants		Other constants	References
				$\beta_1$	$\beta_2$		
triethylenetetraaminehexaacetic acid (H <sub>6</sub> TTHA) IX	Spec	25	0.1 M NH <sub>4</sub> ClO <sub>4</sub>	27.61 (AmTTHA <sup>3-</sup> )		$\beta'_1 = 18.13$ (AmHTTHA <sup>2+</sup> )	[26]
						$\beta'_2 = 11.85$ (AmH <sub>2</sub> TTHA <sup>-</sup> ) $\beta = 30.97$ (Am2TTHA) $\beta = 9.15$ (Am <sub>2</sub> H <sub>2</sub> (TTHA) <sub>3</sub> <sup>-</sup> )	[1,31] [1,31] [62] [8]
Tropolene	SX	25	0.1 M HClO <sub>4</sub>	4.7 ± 0.2			
Tryptophan	Spec	18 ± 2	1.0 M KCl				

[1] (Moskvin, 1967, 1971, 1973); [2] (Choppin, 1965, 1970, 1975); [3] (Grenthe, 1962); [4] (Gureev *et al.*, 1970); [5] (Hara, 1970); [6] (Rao *et al.*, 1987); [7] (Aziz and Lyle, 1971); [8] (Rogozina *et al.*, 1974); [9] (Keller and Schreck, 1969); [10] (Eberle and Moattar, 1972); [11] (Moattar, 1971); [12] (Hubert *et al.*, 1974, 1975); [13] (Ohyoshi and Ohyoshi, 1971); [14] (Moskvin *et al.*, 1962); [15] (Marcu and Samochocka, 1966); [16] (Bouhlassa and Guillaumont, 1984); [17] (Wall *et al.*, 2002); [18] (Mohapatra and Manchanda, 1991); [19] (Stepanov *et al.*, 1967); [20] (Baybarz, 1966); [21] (Elesin and Zaitsev, 1971a); [22] (Shilov *et al.*, 1976); [23] (Mohapatra and Manchanda, 1995); [24] (Zur Nedden, 1969); [25] (Keller *et al.*, 1965a, 1966); [26] (Bayat, 1970); [27] (Baybarz, 1965); [28] (Lebedev and Shalimets, 1968; Lebedev *et al.*, 1968); [29] (Burch, 1964); [30] (Hafez, 1968); [31] (Delle Site and Baybarz, 1969); [32] (Piskunov and Rykov, 1972); [33] (Brandau, 1971); [34] (Elesin and Zaitsev, 1972); [35] (Grigorescu-Sabau, 1972); [36] (Goffart and Kuyckaerts, 1969; Vorob'eva *et al.*, 1973a); [37] (Shalimets and Stepanov, 1971, 1972); [38] (Elesin *et al.*, 1973); [39] (Stary, 1966); [40] (Fuger, 1958); [41] (Moskvin *et al.*, 1959); [42] (Lebedev *et al.*, 1967); [43] (Elesin and Zaitsev, 1971b); [44] (Shalimets, 1972a,c); [45] (Anan'ev and Krot, 1985; Anan'ev and Shilov, 1985); [46] (Buckau *et al.*, 1992); [47] (Tanner and Choppin, 1968); [48] (Choppin and Degischer, 1972); [49] (Levakov and Shalimets, 1971); [50] (Eberle and Bayat, 1967); [51] (Mering and Duyckaerts, 1967); [52] (Eberle and Bayat, 1969); [53] (Ermakov *et al.*, 1971c); [54] (Shalimets, 1972b); [55] (Dedov *et al.*, 1961); [56] (Graus Odenheimer and Choppin, 1956); [57] (Stary, 1965); [58] (Vorob'eva *et al.*, 1973b); [59] (Elesin *et al.*, 1972a,b); [60] (Ermakov *et al.*, 1971b); [61] (Al Rifai, 1970); [62] (Cilindro and Keller, 1974); [63] (Aziz and Lyle, 1971); [64] (Lebedev and Yakovlev, 1961); [65] (Ermakov and Starr, 1967); [66] (Sakanque and Nakatani, 1972); [67] (Borisov *et al.*, 1967); [68] (Eberle and Ali, 1968); [69] (Ali, 1968); [70] (Eberle and Sabau, 1972); [71] (Gedeonov *et al.*, 1963); [72] (Lebedev *et al.*, 1960a); [73] (Stepanov and Makarova, 1965; Stepanov, 1971); [74] (Sekine, 1965); [75] (Shilov *et al.*, 1974); [76] (Cacci and Choppin, 1983); [77] (Pazukhin *et al.*, 1987); [78] (Rosch *et al.*, 1989); [79] (Choppin and Chen, 1996); [80] (Backer and Keller, 1973); [81] (Elesin *et al.*, 1972c); [82] (Bayat and Moattar, 1982); [83] (Stronski and Rekas, 1973); [84] (Cilindro *et al.*, 1972); [85] (Nair and Chander, 1983); [86] (Gel'man *et al.*, 1967); [87] (Marcu and Samochocka, 1965); [88] (Jensen *et al.*, 2000); [89] (Baisden *et al.*, 1972).





**Fig. 8.7** Correlation of stability constants with number of available coordination sites. 1, iminodiacetic acid; 2, *N*-hydroxy-ethyliminodiacetic acid; 3, nitrilotriacetic acid; 4, *N*-hydroxyethylenediaminetriacetic acid; 5, ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid; 6, diethylenetriaminepentaacetic acid; 7, triethylenetetraaminehexaacetic acid; 8, diaminocyclohexanetetraacetic acid (Keller, 1971).

Methods are being sought to estimate and correlate the strengths of Am(III) complexes and other trivalent actinides and lanthanides with various organic ligands. Shalinetz and Stepanov (1971, 1972) suggests a 'rule of additivity of the strength of rings' according to which, under similar conditions, the logarithm of the thermodynamic formation constant of the complex is proportional to the sum of the strengths of the individual rings. In a few cases, formation constants of americium chelates calculated by Shalinetz are in good agreement with experimental data. For a more detailed discussion of the nature and stability of organic complexes of americium, refer to Chapters 23 and 25.

It is not surprising that a number of studies focus on the complexation of Am(III) with natural organic substances because of its importance for the assessment of nuclear waste disposal in geologic formations. The majority of naturally occurring organic materials derive from the decomposition of organic matter to soluble polymeric HA and fulvic acid (FA). The surfaces of these substances have a number of hydrophilic functional groups, such as amine, hydroxyl, carboxyl, and phenolic. As a hard cation,  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  interacts predominantly with the oxygen-donating phenolic and carboxylic groups. A large number of experimental data exist that are usually interpreted by the charge neutralization

model or a polyelectrolyte model (Choppin and Labonne-Wall, 1997). The charge neutralization model is based on the cation complexation by a number of carboxylate groups expressed as an experimentally determined loading capacity of the organic substance. The polyelectrolyte model can better accommodate the chemical behavior of the humic/fulvic acids and takes into account the nature of the binding functional group (carboxylate). The concentration of binding sites and the ionization degree is determined experimentally via pH titration. For a more detailed discussion of these two models and of the impact of humate and fulvate complexation on the environmental behavior of americium, refer to Chapters 27 and 29.

Choppin and coworkers (Bertha and Choppin, 1978) performed ion-exchange studies at pH 4.5 to determine  $\log \beta_1 = 6.83$  and  $\log \beta_2 = 10.58$  for a Lake Bradford, Florida (USA), humic substance. These results agree well with  $\log \beta_1 = 6.4$  and  $\log \beta_2 = 10.58$  determined for HA from Mount Kanmuri, Japan (Yamamoto and Sakanoue, 1982). Applying a degree of ionization of the HA, Choppin and coworkers (Torres and Choppin, 1984) reported  $\log \beta_1 = 6.8$ – $11.6$  and  $\log \beta_2 = 11.9$ – $14.3$  for the Am(III)–HA (Lake Bradford) complex determined at pH 3.75–5.7. Using UV–VIS and laser-induced photoacoustic spectroscopy Kim *et al.* (1993) determined  $\log \beta_1 = 6.4 \pm 0.1$  at pH = 6 ( $I = 0.1$ ) for HAs obtained from natural water at the German Gorleben (Gohy-573) site and from a commercial HA (Aldrich Chemical Co.). For the calculation of the Am(III)–HA stability constant, Kim *et al.* determined a loading capacity of 62.2% for Gohy-573 HA and of 81.5% for Aldrich HA. The Am(III) absorption band at 506 nm was assigned to an Am(III)–HA complex and was used for data analysis. Moulin *et al.* (1987) spectroscopically monitored the complexation of Am(III) with Aldrich HA at pH 4.65 ( $I = 0.1$ ) and calculated  $\log \beta_1 = 7$ – $7.5$ .

The stability constants found for Am(III) fulvate are slightly smaller than those found for humate. Buckau *et al.* (1992) determined  $\log \beta_1 = 5.9$  for FA extracted from the Gohy-573 groundwater using UV–VIS absorption spectroscopy. This FA is characterized by a proton exchange capacity of  $5.7 \text{ meq g}^{-1}$  and a loading capacity of 64.9% at pH 6.0. Interestingly, the stability constant of the Am(III)–FA complex is constant in the Am(III) concentration range of  $4 \times 10^{-5}$  to  $5 \times 10^{-8} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$  at  $[\text{HA}] = 10^{-6} \text{ mol L}^{-1}$ .

Complexation of Am(III) with the hexadentate ligand *N,N,N',N'*-tetrakis (2-pyridylmethyl)ethylenediamine (TPEN) in 0.1 M NaClO<sub>4</sub> at 25°C to form Am(TPEN)<sup>3+</sup> is about two orders of magnitude higher than that of Sm(III), reflecting the stronger bonding of the trivalent actinide cations with softer ligands as compared to lanthanides (Jensen *et al.*, 2000).

#### (d) Others

The stability constants of Am(III) fluoride complexes are much larger than for the other halides (Silva *et al.*, 1995). Positive enthalpies for the reaction of Am<sup>3+</sup> with F<sup>−</sup> anions indicate that the AmF<sub>*n*</sub><sup>3−*n*</sup> are inner-sphere complexes.

Two Am(III) fluoride solution species have been identified,  $\text{AmF}^{2+}$  and  $\text{AmF}_2^+$ , with recommended formation constants of  $\log \beta_1^0 = 3.4 \pm 0.4$  and  $\log \beta_2^0 = 5.8 \pm 0.2$ , respectively. In contrast, the recommended formation constant for  $\text{AmCl}^{2+}$ ,  $\log \beta_1^0 = 1.05 \pm 0.06$ , suggests a very weak bonding of chloride ions.

Few reliable data have been reported for the sulfate complexation of Am(III). Stability constants for two complexes,  $\text{AmSO}_4^+$  ( $\log \beta_1^0 = 3.85 \pm 0.03$ ) and  $\text{Am}(\text{SO}_4)_2^-$  ( $\log \beta_2^0 = 5.4 \pm 0.7$ ), were recommended (Silva *et al.*, 1995). There is no evidence for the formation of Am(III) –  $\text{HSO}_4^-$  complexes.

The formation of Am(III) thiocyanate complexes was studied intensively because of the use of such complexes in separation of lanthanide and actinide elements. Three complexes of general formula  $\text{Am}(\text{SCN})_n^{3-n}$  ( $n = 1-3$ ) have been identified from spectroscopic and solvent extraction data. The complexation of Am(III) by thiocyanate is quite weak and the accepted thermodynamic constant for the 1:1 complex is  $\log \beta_1^0 = 1.3 \pm 0.3$  (Silva *et al.*, 1995).

Nitrate complexes of Am(III) are weak complexes and two complexes,  $\text{AmNO}_3^{2+}$  and  $\text{Am}(\text{NO}_3)_2^+$ , have been used to interpret solvent extraction data in nitric acid media. The recommended formation constant of the 1:1 complex is  $\log \beta_1^0 = 1.33 \pm 0.20$  (Silva *et al.*, 1995).

A number of studies of Am(III) complexation in phosphate media have been reported with only a few reliable data interpretations and complex characterizations. The system is complicated by the presence of multiple (hydrogen) phosphate species in solution. The solution complexes  $\text{AmHPO}_4^+$  and  $\text{Am}(\text{H}_2\text{PO}_4)_n^{3-n}$  ( $n = 1-4$ ) have been used to interpret cation exchange, solvent extraction, and spectroscopic data. Lebedev *et al.* (1979) attributed the changes of the characteristic absorption band of  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  at 503 nm to the formation of Am(III) –  $\text{H}_2\text{PO}_4^-$  complexes. With increasing phosphoric acid concentration (up to 13 M), the absorbance maximum is shifted to about 502 nm and the characteristic shoulder in the  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  band at 506 nm almost disappears. It remains unclear if these changes are due to inner-sphere complexation with phosphate or to changes in the number of coordinated water molecules in these extreme experimental conditions. The NEA recommends a stability constant only for the complex  $\text{AmH}_2\text{PO}_4^{2+}$ ,  $\log \beta_1^0 = 3.0 \pm 0.5$  (Silva *et al.*, 1995).

Am(IV) can be stabilized in acidic media by complexation with heteropolyanions. Chartier *et al.* (1999) reported spectroscopic evidence for the formation of  $\text{AmP}_2\text{W}_{17}\text{O}_{66}^{16-}$  and  $\text{Am}(\text{P}_2\text{W}_{17}\text{O}_{61})_2^{16-}$  via their absorbance bands at 789 and 560 nm, respectively. Chartier *et al.* reported  $\log \beta_1 = 19.2 \pm 0.2$  and  $\log \beta_2 = 22.8 \pm 0.2$  in 1 M  $\text{HNO}_3$ . The rate of autoradiolytic reduction of Am(IV) in these complexes is independent of the complex composition. Th(IV) causes the destruction of the complexes and subsequent disproportionation of free Am(IV) into Am(III) and Am(VI). Complex formation of Am(III) with  $\text{W}_{10}\text{O}_{36}^{12-}$ ,  $\text{PW}_{11}\text{O}_{39}^{7-}$ , and  $\text{SiW}_{11}\text{O}_{39}^{8-}$  was discussed qualitatively by Yusov (1989). Chartier *et al.* (1999) determined the apparent formation constants for  $\text{AmSiW}_{11}\text{O}_{39}^{4-}$  and for  $\text{Am}(\text{SiW}_{11}\text{O}_{39})_2^{12-}$  in 1 M  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\log \beta_1 = 21.3 \pm 0.3$  and  $\log \beta_2 = 26.2 \pm 0.2$ ,

respectively. In contrast, Williams *et al.* (2000) used extended X-ray absorption fine structure (EXAFS) to determine that the Am center cation is trivalent when integrated in the Preyssler anion,  $\text{AmP}_5\text{W}_{30}\text{O}_{110}^{12-}$ .

Sullivan *et al.* (1961) discovered cation–cation interaction between pentavalent and hexavalent actinides. Subsequently, Guillaume *et al.* (1981) found spectroscopic evidence for the Am(v)–U(vi) interaction in perchlorate medium where the interaction between  $\text{AmO}_2^+$  and  $\text{UO}_2^{2+}$  shifts the main absorbance peak of  $\text{AmO}_2^+$  at 716–733 nm and a new band appears at 765 nm. Both bands are close to the absorbances reported for the solid  $\text{KAmO}_2\text{CO}_3$  (733 and 770 nm (Varga *et al.*, 1971)). Upon interaction of Am(v) with U(vi), the symmetrical stretching (Raman) frequency of  $\text{AmO}_2^+$  at  $732\text{ cm}^{-1}$  is shifted to  $719\text{ cm}^{-1}$  (Guillaume *et al.*, 1982). The Am(v)–U(vi) ( $K = 0.35 \pm 0.07$  at  $I = 10$ ) and Am(v)–Np(vi) ( $K = 0.095 \pm 0.03$  at  $I = 6$ ) (Guillaume *et al.*, 1981, 1982) complexes appeared to be much weaker than the corresponding Np(v) complexes: Np(v)–U(vi) ( $K = 3.7 \pm 0.1$  at  $I = 7$ ) and Np(v)–Np(vi) ( $K = 3.0 \pm 0.1$  at  $I = 7$  (Madic *et al.*, 1979)).

## 8.9 COORDINATION CHEMISTRY AND COORDINATION COMPLEXES

Although over 250 compounds of americium have been synthesized and characterized, the coordination chemistry of americium is relatively unknown. As of 2001, the crystal structures of 39 americium compounds with inorganic ligands and only seven americium compounds with organic ligands have been structurally characterized. However, the majority of phase identification and characterization relied on X-ray powder diffraction and comparison to isostructural lanthanide, neptunium, or plutonium compounds. Certainly, the application of EXAFS provides useful insight into coordination and bonding of solution complexes and amorphous solid phases. As hard metal ions Am(III to VI) have a high affinity for hard donor atoms, such as O or N, and the light halides, and their coordination will be discussed in this section. Because of its high redox stability, trivalent americium coordination complexes are the most common. Generally, higher dimensional structures are found containing  $\text{Am}^{2+}$ ,  $\text{Am}^{3+}$ , or  $\text{Am}^{4+}$  while the introduction of the linear americyl unit forces Am(v) and Am(vi) to form layered structures.

### 8.9.1 Compounds with inorganic ligands

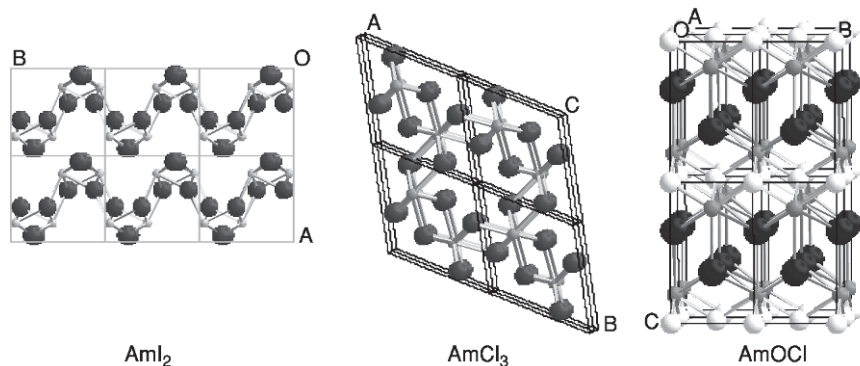
#### (a) Halides

Americium exhibits different coordination environments in halide complexes with coordination numbers of 7, 8, 9, and 11. In the orthorhombic  $\text{M}_2\text{AmCl}_5$  ( $\text{M} = \text{K}, \text{NH}_4, \text{ or Rb}$ ) trivalent americium is seven-coordinate in  $\text{AmCl}_5^{2-}$  chains with two of the five chlorides bridging to adjacent Am atoms. In the monoclinic

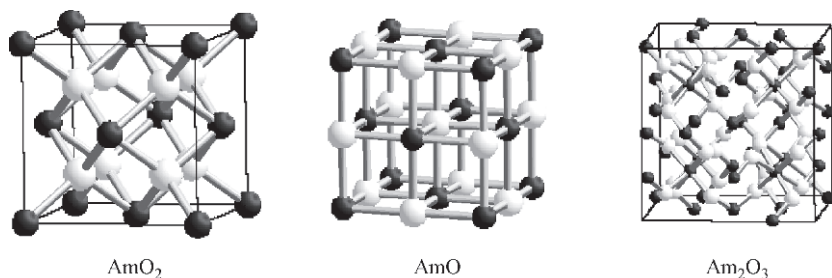
hexahydrate,  $\text{AmCl}_3 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ , americium is coordinated to two chlorides and six water molecules forming  $\text{AmCl}_2(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6^+$  cations that are linked through chloride anions in the lattice and an extensive hydrogen bond network (Burns and Peterson, 1971). Considering the inner-sphere bonding of the water molecules, the formula of this compound is better represented by  $\text{AmCl}_2(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6 \cdot \text{Cl}$ . Eight-coordinate americium is also found in the tetrafluoride  $\text{AmF}_4$ .  $\text{AmO}_2\text{F}_2^-$  layers held together by  $\text{K}^+$  ions form the rhombohedral  $\text{KAmO}_2\text{F}_2$ , in which americium is eight-coordinate with two axial oxygen atoms ( $\text{Am}-\text{O} = 1.936 \text{ \AA}$ ) and six fluorides ( $\text{Am}-\text{F} = 2.473 \text{ \AA}$ ) in the equatorial plane (Asprey *et al.*, 1954a). The isostructural oxyhalides  $\text{AmOCl}$  (Weigel *et al.*, 1975) and  $\text{AmOI}$  (Asprey *et al.*, 1964, 1965) also contain nine-coordinate americium that is surrounded by four oxygen ( $2.343 \text{ \AA}$ ) and five iodine atoms (4  $\text{Am}-\text{I}$  of  $2.994 \text{ \AA}$  and 1  $\text{Am}-\text{I}$  of  $3.0035 \text{ \AA}$ ). Interestingly,  $\text{AmOBr}$  (Weigel *et al.*, 1979) is reported to be built up from linear  $\text{Br}-\text{Am}-\text{O}$  units stacked along the *c*-axis with reported interatomic distances of  $2.415 \text{ \AA}$  for  $\text{Am}-\text{O}$  and  $3.21$  and  $3.36 \text{ \AA}$  for  $\text{Am}-\text{Br}$ . Using the atomic coordinates reported for  $\text{AmOBr}$ , we calculate  $2.339$  and  $2.979 \text{ \AA}$  for  $\text{Am}-\text{O}$  and  $3.145$  and  $3.801 \text{ \AA}$  for  $\text{Am}-\text{Br}$  bond distances. Considering the discrepancies in the bond distances and the structural anomaly within the  $\text{AmOX}$  series, there are serious doubts about the reported structure of  $\text{AmOBr}$ . The trifluoride  $\text{AmF}_3$  crystallizes in the 11-coordinate  $\text{LaF}_3$  structure (Templeton and Dauben, 1953). In the anhydrous  $\text{AmCl}_3$ , the americium atom is bonded to six chlorine atoms at  $2.874 \text{ \AA}$  and three chlorine atoms at  $2.915 \text{ \AA}$  (Burns and Peterson, 1970) (Fig. 8.8).

## (b) Oxides

Several americium oxides of varying stoichiometry have been prepared and structural data rely principally on X-ray powder diffraction powder data. The binary oxide  $\text{AmO}$  (CN 6) crystallizes in a cubic structure with octahedral O and Am atoms (Zachariasen, 1949b). Interatomic distances are calculated to be  $2.480 \text{ \AA}$  for  $\text{Am}-\text{O}$  and  $3.507 \text{ \AA}$  for  $\text{Am}-\text{Am}$ . However,  $\text{AmO}$  may be an oxynitride, as discussed in Section 8.7.1. As discussed in Section 8.7.1, three  $\text{Am}_2\text{O}_3$  phases are known. Templeton and Dauben (1953) report the lattice parameters  $a = 11.03 \pm 0.01 \text{ \AA}$  for the low-temperature cubic form and  $a = 3.817 \pm 0.005 \text{ \AA}$ ,  $c = 5.971 \pm 0.010 \text{ \AA}$  for the high-temperature hexagonal form. In the cubic phase two crystallographically different americium atoms exist: distorted  $[\text{Am}(1)\text{O}_6]$  octahedra with  $\text{Am}(1)-\text{O}$  bond lengths of  $2.369 \text{ \AA}$  are bridged through their oxygens to six  $\text{Am}(2)$  atoms. The  $\text{Am}(2)$  atoms are centered within a distorted octahedral environment of six oxygen atoms with  $\text{Am}-\text{O}$  distances of  $1.984$ ,  $2.678$ , and  $2.774 \text{ \AA}$ . The  $\text{Am}(2)-\text{O}$  distances of  $1.984 \text{ \AA}$  are unusually short for trivalent actinide-oxygen bonds and only slightly longer than the reported bond lengths of about  $1.935 \text{ \AA}$  for the linear  $\text{Am}=\text{O}$  bonds in  $\text{Am}(v)$  compounds (Asprey *et al.*, 1954a; Ellinger and Zachariasen, 1954). The intermediate-temperature monoclinic  $\text{AmO}_2$  is isostructural with



**Fig. 8.8** Structures of americium halide compounds:  $\text{AmI}_2$  (Baybarz and Asprey, 1972),  $\text{AmCl}_3$  (Burns and Peterson, 1970), and  $\text{AmOCl}$  (Templeton and Dauben, 1953).



**Fig. 8.9** Unit cells of americium oxides:  $\text{AmO}_2$  (Templeton and Dauben, 1953; Chikalla and Eyring 1967, 1968),  $\text{AmO}$  (Zachariasen, 1949a,b), and  $\text{Am}_2\text{O}_3$ , (Templeton and Dauben, 1953).

$\text{PuO}_2$  with eight Am–Am distances of 3.803 Å and a tetrahedral arrangement of four Am atoms around each oxygen atom (Am–O is 2.480 Å) (Templeton and Dauben, 1953). The three-dimensional ternary oxide  $\text{BaAmO}_3$  (cubic perovskite structure,  $a = 4.35$  Å, although possibly distorted as are  $\text{BaPuO}_3$  and  $\text{BaLnO}_3$ ) is built from edge-sharing  $[\text{AmO}_6]$  octahedra with large  $\text{Ba}^{2+}$  cations in 12-coordinated sites (Keller, 1964). Each  $\text{AmO}_6$  octahedron shares all oxygen atoms with six adjacent octahedra. The Am–O distances are calculated to be 2.175 Å (Fig. 8.9).

### (c) Chalcogenides and pnictides

The americium monochalcogenides  $\text{AmX}$  ( $X = \text{S}, \text{Se}, \text{Te}$ ) crystallize in the cubic NaCl-type structure (CN 6) with the lattice parameters increasing with chalcogen atomic number. Early work of Zachariasen (1949d) concluded from powder

X-ray diffraction data that the sesquisulfide  $\text{Am}_2\text{S}_3$  is isostructural with cubic  $\text{Ce}_2\text{S}_3$  and contains 16 sulfur atoms and  $10^{2/3}$  americium atoms per unit cell. The calculated interatomic Am–S distances of 2.94 Å are indicative of an ionic bonding between  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  and  $\text{S}^{2-}$  and compare well with the value of 2.93 Å reported by Damien and Jove (1971) in the substoichiometric compound  $\text{AmS}_{1.9}$ . The substoichiometric ditelluride,  $\text{AmTe}_{1.73}$  (CN 9), crystallizes in a tetragonal anti- $\text{Fe}_2\text{As}$ -type structure (Burns *et al.*, 1979). Layers of Te atoms are interleaved with puckered double layers of AmTe. The bond length between Te atoms in the pure Te layer is much shorter than the  $\text{Te}^{2-}$  interionic distances, suggesting some covalency within the pure Te layer. Random vacancy at sites within the pure Te layers causes the variable stoichiometry in Am– $\text{Te}_2$ . The Am–Te bond lengths within the AmTe layers are only slightly shorter (3.258 and 3.208 Å) than the 3.269 Å from the Am atoms to the nearest Te atoms in the pure Te layer.

The structural information on the known pnictides of general formula  $\text{AmX}$  ( $\text{X} = \text{N}, \text{P}, \text{Sb}, \text{As}$ ) was obtained from X-ray powder diffraction data. All binary pnictides crystallize in the cubic NaCl-type structure; both lattice parameters and Am–X bond length increase along the series: in  $\text{AmN}$  ( $a = 5.005$  Å) Am–N is 2.503 Å, in  $\text{AmP}$  ( $a = 5.711$  Å) Am–P is 2.856 Å, in  $\text{AmAs}$  ( $a = 5.875$  Å) Am–As is 2.938 Å, and in  $\text{AmSb}$  ( $a = 5.624$  Å) Am–Sb is 3.120 Å.

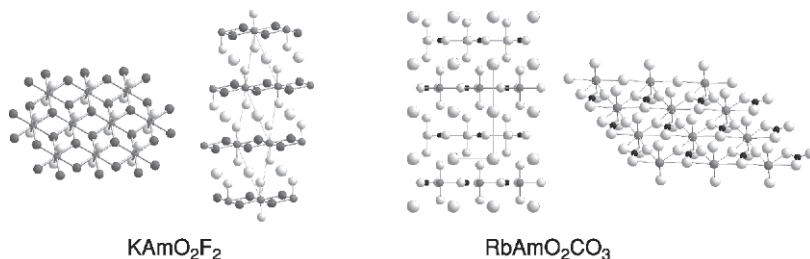
#### (d) Silicides

Weigel *et al.* (1977, 1984) reported structural information of several silicide phases. The layered structure of the binary AmSi is built up from corner-sharing  $[\text{AmSi}_3]$  pyramids with  $\mu_3$ -Si atoms and Am–Si distances of 2.56 and 2.66 Å. The tetragonal  $\text{AmSi}_2$  is isostructural with  $\alpha$ - $\text{ThSi}_2$  and Am–Si distances range between 2.01 and 2.70 Å. In the sesquisilicide  $\text{Am}_2\text{Si}_3$  americium atoms are coordinated to Si atoms at Am–Si distances of 3.04 Å.

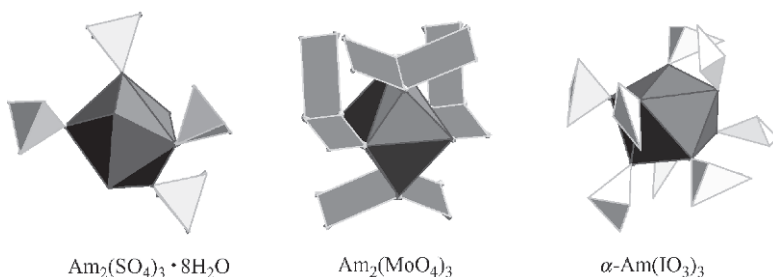
#### (e) Oxoanionic ligands

Six oxygen atoms from three bidentately bonded carbonate ligands in the equatorial plane and two axial americium oxygens form the inner coordination sphere of Am(v) in  $\text{RbAmO}_2\text{CO}_3$  (Ellinger and Zachariasen, 1954) (Fig. 8.10). The Am=O and Am– $\text{O}_{\text{eq}}$  bond distances are calculated from X-ray powder diffraction data to be 1.935 and 2.568 Å, respectively. Both distances are significantly longer than those in the Np(v) compounds, i.e. 1.75 Å for Np=O and 2.46 Å for Np– $\text{O}_{\text{eq}}$  in aqueous  $\text{NpO}_2(\text{CO}_3)_n^{1-2n}$  complexes (Clark *et al.*, 1996).

In the pseudotetragonal molybdate  $\text{Am}_2(\text{MoO}_4)_3$  one-third of the Am sites are replaced by ordered vacancies (Tabuteau and Pages, 1978). The molybdate is isostructural to several lanthanide molybdates that crystallize in the pseudoscheelite structure. The Am(III) tungstate,  $\text{Am}_2(\text{WO}_4)_3$ , is structurally analogous to  $\text{Eu}_2(\text{WO}_4)_3$  and is built up from  $[\text{AmO}_8]$  dodecahedra and  $[\text{WO}_4]$  tetrahedra.



**Fig. 8.10** Sheet structures and crystal packing of the  $\text{Am(V)}$  compounds  $\text{KAmO}_2\text{F}_2$  (Asprey et al., 1954a) and  $\text{RbAmO}_2\text{CO}_3$  (Ellinger and Zachariasen, 1954).



**Fig. 8.11** Coordination of oxyanions in the  $\text{Am(III)}$  compounds  $\text{Am}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 \cdot 8\text{H}_2\text{O}$  (Burns and Baybarz, 1972),  $\text{Am}_2(\text{MoO}_4)_3$  (Tabuteau and Pages, 1978), and  $\alpha\text{-Am}(\text{IO}_3)_3$  (Bean et al., 2003).

Burns and Baybarz (1972) reported the synthesis and single-crystal structure analysis of  $\text{Am}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3 \cdot 8\text{H}_2\text{O}$ . Eight-coordinate americium bonded to eight O atoms from four sulfate ligands (Am–O distances range from 2.381 to 2.951 Å) and four water molecules (Am–O range from 2.406 to 2.553 Å). The sulfate tetrahedra share edges and bridge americium atoms within the layers; extensive hydrogen bonding involving the lattice waters occurs between the layers.

Very recently, Bean *et al.* (2003) synthesized the anhydrous  $\text{Am(III)}$  iodate,  $\alpha\text{-Am}(\text{IO}_3)_3$ , which is isostructural to the  $\text{Gd(III)}$  compound (Liminga *et al.*, 1977), and a new f-element iodate of composition  $\text{K}_3\text{Am}_3(\text{IO}_3)_{12} \cdot \text{HIO}_3$  (Runde *et al.*, 2003) (Fig. 8.11). In both compounds, oxygens from eight iodate pyramids and  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  ions are located within a distorted  $[\text{AmO}_8]$  dodecahedron that form a three-dimensional network with Am–O bond distances ranging from 2.34 to 2.60 Å and averaged I–O distances of 1.80 Å. Runde and coworkers also reported the synthesis of  $\beta\text{-Am}(\text{IO}_3)_3$ , that exhibits a novel two-dimensional architecture type within the f-element iodates. The nine-coordinate Am atoms are coordinated with only 7 iodate ligands via a combination of edge-sharing and corner-sharing  $[\text{IO}_3]$  groups (Bean *et al.*, 2003).



**(f) Others**

The hydride  $\text{AmH}_3$  crystallizes in a cubic structure with eight hydrogen atoms surrounding each Am atom and a tetrahedral arrangement of four Am atoms around each H atom. The bond lengths for Am–H and Am–Am are calculated to be 2.316 and 3.782 Å (Olson and Mulford, 1966).

**8.9.2 Compounds with organic ligands**

Only seven compounds of americium are listed in the Cambridge Structural Database (version 5.22, October 2001) that compiles complexes of metal cations with organic molecules. However, it is noteworthy that structures obtained from single crystal X-ray diffraction are reported only for two compounds. For the other five compounds, only cell constants and space groups were obtained from X-ray powder patterns and information on bond distances remains unavailable. Information on the overall structure was obtained by analogy to the corresponding compounds of rare earth elements. For a more detailed discussion of the preparation and reactivity of organic americium compounds, refer to Chapters 23 and 29.

**(a) Oxygen-donor ligands**

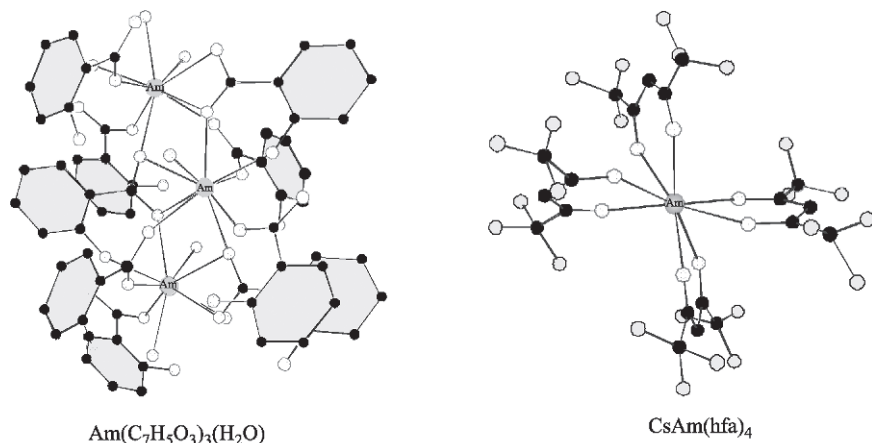
A wide variety of oxygen-donor ligands have been used to complex and separate americium. The most synthesized compounds of Am(III) are those with carboxylic acids, because of their applications in separation (Weigel and ter Meer, 1967). However, only the single-crystal structure of the hydrated Am(III) salicylate,  $\text{Am}(\text{C}_7\text{H}_5\text{O}_3)_3(\text{H}_2\text{O})$ , has been reported. In this compound, americium is nine-coordinate to one water molecule and six salicylato ligands (Burns and Baldwin, 1976). The six salicylato ligands display three different coordination modes: (i) monodentate binding through the carboxylic oxygens of four ligands; (ii) bidentate binding through its carboxyl group; and (iii) and bidentate binding through a combination of carboxylic and phenolic oxygens. Salicylato complexes have been reported for rare earths and plutonium and are important because the ligands contain carboxylic and hydroxo functional groups, which are typical for the more complex natural humic materials.

The sodium acetate,  $\text{NaAmO}_2(\text{CH}_3\text{CO}_2)_3$ , is the only characterized complex of americium(VI) (Jones, 1955). Lychev *et al.* (1980) synthesized the cesium salt of Am(V),  $\text{CsAmO}_2(\text{CH}_3\text{CO}_2)_3$ , but solved the crystal structure only of the isostructural analogous Np(V) compound. In both americium acetate compounds, three carboxylates are coordinated bidentately in the equatorial planes of  $\text{AmO}_2^+$  and  $\text{AmO}_2^{2+}$ . Burns and Danford (1969) obtained single crystals of orthorhombic  $\text{CsAm}(\text{hfa})_4$  (hfa = hexafluoro-acetylacetonone) when recrystallizing monoclinic  $\text{CsAm}(\text{hfa})_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$  (Danford *et al.*, 1970) in 1-butanol. The

compound is composed of  $\text{Am}(\text{hfa})$ -chains that interact with  $\text{Cs}^+$  ions. The  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  ion is chelated by the eight acetone–oxygen atoms of the four hfa ligands with  $\text{Am}–\text{O}$  bond distances between 2.36 and 2.45 Å.  $\text{CsAm}(\text{hfa})_4$  and  $\text{CsAm}(\text{hfa})_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$  sublimates at about 135°C. Both hydrated and the anhydrous compounds are metastable and degrade after about 1 week with  $\text{AmF}_3$  identified as one of the degradation products (Fig. 8.12).

EXAFS studies of the structure of the solvent-containing  $\text{Am}(\text{NO}_3)_3(\text{TEMA})_2$  complexes (TEMA =  $N,N,N,N'$ -tetraethylmalonamide) resulted in  $\text{Am}–\text{O}$  distances of  $2.52 \pm 0.01$  Å and a coordination polyhedron similar to that of the corresponding Nd compound, where Nd is ten-coordinate (DenAuwer *et al.*, 2000).

In recent years, the reactions of americium ions with a number of organic molecules were studied in the gas phase. As an example, the gas-phase reaction of laser-ablated americium ions with alcohols yields a mixture of hydroxides and alkoxides, i.e.  $\text{Am}(\text{OR})^+$  and  $\text{Am}(\text{OR})^{2+}$  (Gibson, 1999b). The reaction with dimethylether yields the methoxy ion  $\text{Am}(\text{OCH}_3)^+$  as the primary product. Although these reactions do not reveal any structural details, they provide some understanding of potential interaction mechanisms in americium organometallic chemistry. Other products of laser-ablated  $\text{Am}^+$  or  $\text{AmO}^+$  ions reacting with polyimide, nitriles, or butylamines are  $\text{AmC}_2\text{H}^+$ ,  $\text{AmC}_2\text{H}_4^+$ ,  $\text{AmC}_2\text{H}_2^+$ , several cations of general formula  $\text{AmC}_x\text{H}_y\text{N}_z^+$ , and metal oxide clusters such as  $\text{Am}_2\text{O}^+$  and  $\text{Am}_2\text{O}_2^+$  (Gibson, 1998a, 1999a). An interesting anomaly was the observation of dimeric  $\text{Am}_2^+$  clusters that were not formed by any other actinides studied (Gibson, 1999a).



**Fig. 8.12** Nine-fold coordination of  $\text{Am}(\text{III})$  in  $\text{Am}(\text{C}_7\text{H}_5\text{O}_3)_3(\text{H}_2\text{O})$  (Burns and Baldwin, 1976) and eight-coordinate  $\text{Am}(\text{III})$  in  $\text{CsAm}(\text{hfa})_4$  (Burns and Danford, 1969).

**(b) Nitrogen donors**

Only a few complexes of americium with N-donating ligands have been studied yet; structural details are limited. The bis-phthalocyanine complex has been synthesized and displays a sandwich-type complex with eight-coordinate americium (Moskalev *et al.*, 1979). Yaita *et al.* (2001) studied the Am(III) benzimidazole complex using XAFS spectroscopy and found a bidentate coordination of Am through two nitrogen atoms with the bond distance Am–N of 2.63 Å. The overall coordination number of Am(III) is reported to be close to 10.

**(c) Sulfur donors**

Only few structural studies are reported involving compounds with Am–S bonds. Gibson (1999b) observed SH abstraction from thiols and formation of the hydrosulfide Am(SH)<sup>+</sup> in the gas phase. The gas-phase reaction with propanethiol yielded the thiolate Am(PrS)<sup>+</sup>. Tian *et al.* (2002) used EXAFS to study the structure of extraction complexes of Am(III) with di-*n*-octyldithiophosphinic acid and di(2,4,4-trimethylpentyl)dithiophosphinic acid in kerosene. The two extraction complexes appear to be similar in coordination with eight sulfur atoms in the inner sphere and four phosphorus atoms in the second shell with average Am–S and Am–P bond distances of 2.9 and 3.5 Å, respectively.

**(d) Cyclopentadienyl and cyclooctatetraenyl compounds**

The organometallic chemistry of americium remains essentially unstudied. The most studied compound is the cyclopentadiene complex, Am(C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>5</sub>)<sub>3</sub>, which crystallizes in the orthorhombic *Pbcm* space group and is isostructural with, but not pyrophoric like Pu(C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>5</sub>)<sub>3</sub> (Baumgärtner *et al.*, 1966a). Pappalardo *et al.* (1969a) reported the absorbance spectrum of Am(C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>5</sub>)<sub>3</sub> films from which Nugent *et al.* (1971b) calculated a bond covalency of only 2.8 ± 0.2% (relative to the corresponding bands of Am(aq)<sup>3+</sup>) indicating that the organometallic bonding in Am(C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>5</sub>)<sub>3</sub> is highly ionic. Consequently, Nugent *et al.* suggested that the compound should be designated as a tris-cyclopentadienide rather than a tricyclopentadienyl compound. Bursten and coworkers (Bursten *et al.*, 1989; Li and Bursten, 1997) calculated the electronic structure of AnCl<sub>3</sub>, An(C<sub>7</sub>H<sub>7</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, and An(C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>5</sub>)<sub>3</sub>, and discussed the relative role of the 5f and 6d atom orbitals. Karraker (1975, 1977) reported the synthesis of the potassium salt of a bis-cyclooctatetraenyl Am(III) complex, KAm(C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>8</sub>)<sub>2</sub>, and obtained the absorbance spectrum in THF. The compound KAm(C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>8</sub>)<sub>2</sub> · 2THF decomposes in water and burns when exposed to air. The X-ray powder diffraction data show that Am(C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>8</sub>)<sub>2</sub> is isostructural with the analogous Np and Pu compounds and the sandwich complex uranocene. The gas-phase reaction of Am<sup>+</sup> ions with 1,5-cyclooctadiene and cyclooctatetraene produced the dehydrogenation complexes Am–C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>8</sub><sup>+</sup> and Am–C<sub>8</sub>H<sub>6</sub><sup>+</sup> that were detected by mass spectrometry

(Gibson, 1998b). The gas-phase reaction of laser-ablated  $\text{Am}^+$  with pentamethylcyclopentadiene ( $\text{HCp}^*$ ) yielded the fragments  $\text{AmC}_8\text{H}_{14}^+$ ,  $\text{AmC}_9\text{H}_{12}^+$ , and  $\text{AmC}_{10}\text{H}_{14}^+$  (Gibson, 2000). In contrast to the multiple dehydrogenation reactions observed with  $\text{Np}^+$  and  $\text{Pu}^+$ , the  $\text{Am}^+$  ion appeared unreactive and induced exclusively single hydrogen loss. Gibson concludes from this finding that the valence 5f electrons of  $\text{Am}^+$  are too inert to form  $\sigma$ -bonds with carbon or hydrogen atoms and therefore do not participate in the  $\text{Am-HCp}$  interaction.

## 8.10 ANALYTICAL CHEMISTRY AND SPECTROSCOPY

### 8.10.1 Radioanalytical chemistry

#### (a) Alpha spectroscopy

Common analytical procedures include alpha spectrometry for the detection of  $^{241}\text{Am}$  and  $^{243}\text{Am}$ . The typical alpha-spectrum of  $^{241}\text{Am}$  exhibits a peak at 5.49 MeV. The energy of the main alpha particles of  $^{243}\text{Am}$  (5.28 MeV) differs by only about 0.2 MeV, which can result in peak broadening and overlap with  $\alpha$ -peaks of other radionuclides (Lin *et al.*, 2002). Quantitative analysis by alpha spectrometry requires extensive radiochemical purification, preparation of a high-quality americium source by a skilled radiochemist, and correction for absorption and backscattering from the planchet. Scintillation counting has largely replaced alpha spectrometry in many radioanalytical procedures.

#### (b) Gamma spectroscopy

Nuclide identification and analysis of biological and environmental samples mainly use high-sensitivity gamma counting in a germanium multichannel detector.  $^{241}\text{Am}$  emits two main  $\gamma$ -rays at 59.5 (36%) and 26.3 keV (2.4%). Scintillation counting is also commonly used when only one  $\gamma$ -emitting isotope is in the sample.

### 8.10.2 Spectroscopy

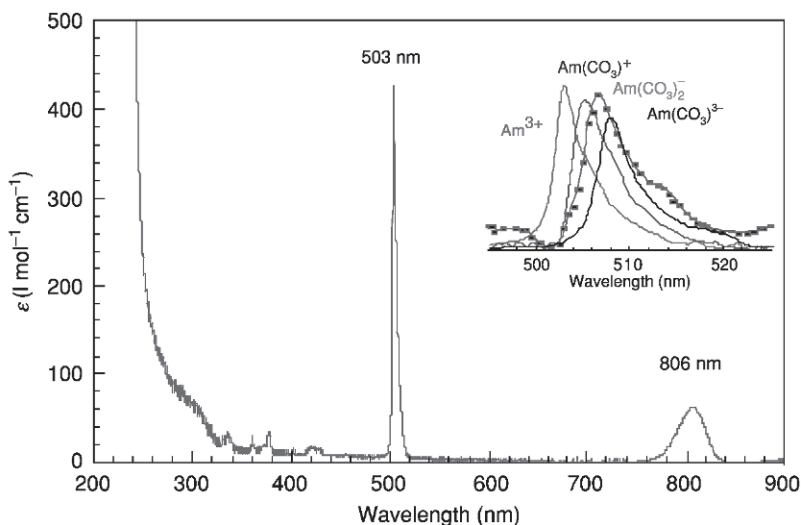
#### (a) Solution absorption

(1)  $\text{Am(III)}$ : UV-VIS-NIR absorption spectroscopy has been widely used to characterize americium solution species. The major absorbance that has been measured to speciate  $\text{Am(III)}$  corresponds to the transition  ${}^7\text{F}_0 \rightarrow {}^5\text{L}_6$  with its maximum at 503.2 nm ( $\epsilon \sim 410 \text{ L mol cm}^{-1}$ ) for  $\text{Am}^{3+}(\text{aq})$ . The molar absorptivity may change with spectral slit widths, temperature, and ionic strength of the solution. Shifts in the position of the absorbance bands

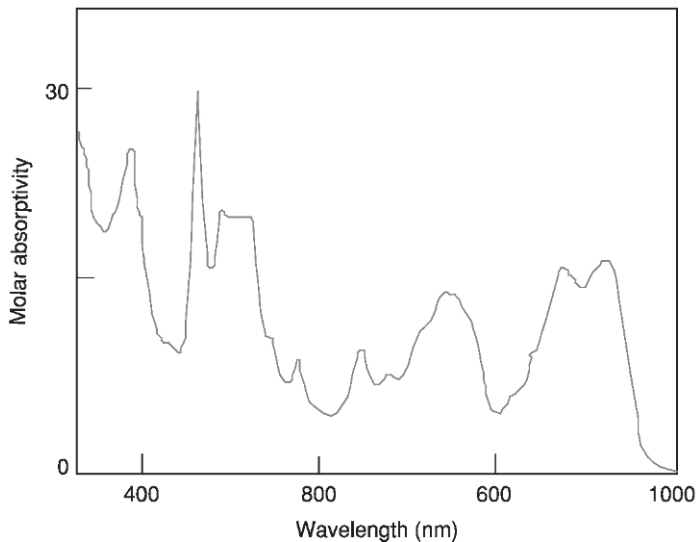
and changes in molar absorbance are evidence of changes in the number of inner-sphere coordinated water molecules and/or coordination of ligands, i.e. carbonate or sulfate. Theoretical calculations of the electronic energy bands in the  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  ion have been performed by a number of investigators (Conway, 1963, 1964; Carnall and Wybourne, 1964; Carnall *et al.*, 1964; Carnall and Fields, 1967). An unexpected predicted  ${}^7\text{F}_0 \rightarrow {}^5\text{D}_1$  transition was found in more concentrated Am(III) solution. Carnall (1989) analyzed the energy levels of the  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  ion by comparing the absorption spectra of  $\text{AmCl}_3$  and  $\text{LaCl}_3$  that was doped with Am(III).

Barbanel *et al.* (1997, 2001) studied the transitions in the octahedral complexes  $\text{AmX}_6^{3+}$  in the  $\text{Cs}_2\text{NaLuX}_6$  ( $\text{X} = \text{Cl}, \text{Br}$ ) crystal. The absorption spectra showed excitation to the ground level states  ${}^7\text{F}_2$ ,  ${}^7\text{F}_4$ ,  ${}^7\text{F}_6$  and to the excited states  ${}^5\text{L}_6$ ,  ${}^5\text{G}_2$ , and  ${}^5\text{D}_2$ . Absorbance spectra have been recorded in  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$ ,  $\text{H}_3\text{PO}_4$ ,  $\text{HNO}_3$ ,  $\text{HCl}$ ,  $\text{HClO}_4$ , and in carbonate media (Keenan, 1959; Marcus and Shiloh, 1969; Shiloh *et al.*, 1969; Stadler and Kim, 1988; Meinrath and Kim, 1991a; Runde and Kim, 1994) (Fig. 8.13).

- (2) Am(IV): The spectrum of Am(IV) in acid media is characterized by broad absorption features and has been measured in 13 M HF (Asprey and Penneman, 1961, 1962), 12 M KF (Varga *et al.*, 1973), 12 M  $\text{H}_3\text{PO}_4$  (Myasoedov *et al.*, 1977), and in 2 M  $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3$  (Bourges *et al.*, 1983; Hobart *et al.*, 1983b). The spectrum of Am(IV) in concentrated fluoride solution resembles very closely that of solid  $\text{AmF}_4$  (Fig. 8.14).

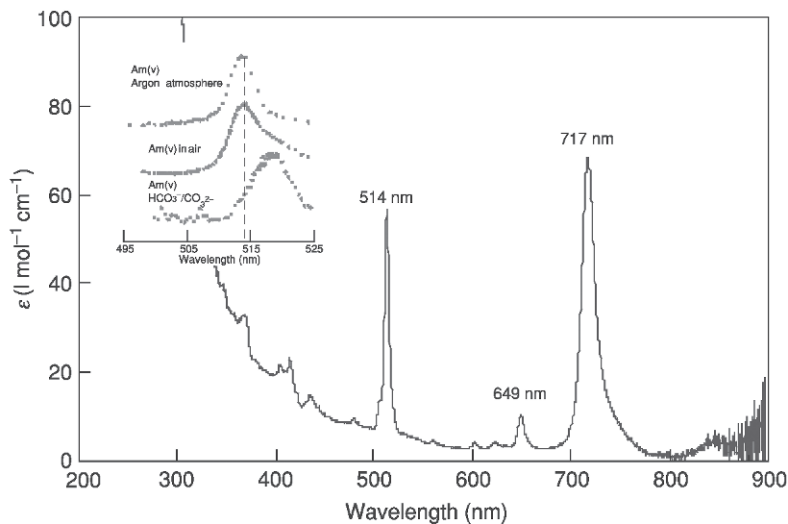


**Fig. 8.13** Electronic absorption spectra of  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  in 1 M  $\text{HClO}_4$  and of the predominant Am(III) species in carbonate-containing solutions (inset) (Meinrath and Kim, 1991a).

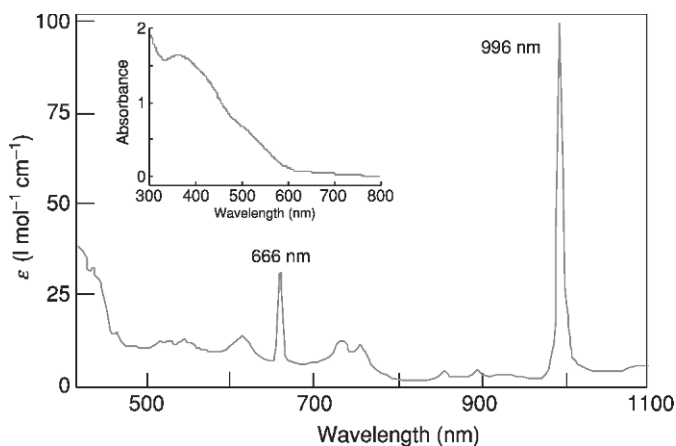


**Fig. 8.14** Absorption spectrum of  $\text{Am(IV)}$  in 13 M  $\text{NH}_4\text{F}$  (Asprey and Penneman, 1962).

- (3)  $\text{Am(V)}$ : The  $\text{Am(V)}$  transitions  $^5\text{I}_4 \rightarrow ^3\text{G}_5$  and  $^5\text{I}_4 \rightarrow ^3\text{I}_7$  with their absorbance peaks at 513.7 nm ( $\epsilon \sim 45 \text{ L mol cm}^{-1}$ ) and 716.7 nm ( $\epsilon \sim 60 \text{ L mol cm}^{-1}$ ), respectively, are the main absorbance bands of the  $\text{AmO}_2^+$  ion in aqueous solutions. Absorbance spectra of  $\text{Am(V)}$  have been recorded in  $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4$  (Werner and Perlman, 1950),  $\text{HCl}$  (Hall and Herniman, 1954; Stadler and Kim, 1988; Runde and Kim, 1994),  $\text{HClO}_4$  (Asprey *et al.*, 1951; Stephanou *et al.*, 1953),  $\text{NaCl}$  (Stadler and Kim, 1988; Runde and Kim, 1994), and in 2 M  $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3$  (Bourges *et al.*, 1983; Hobart *et al.*, 1983b) (Fig. 8.15).
- (4)  $\text{Am(VI)}$ : The spectrum of  $\text{Am(VI)}$  in acid media is characterized by the sharp absorption band at about 996 nm with  $\epsilon \sim 100 \text{ L mol cm}^{-1}$  in  $\text{HClO}_4$  and  $\sim 100 \text{ L mol cm}^{-1}$  in  $\text{H}_3\text{PO}_4$ . A less intense absorbance appears at 666 nm. Bell (1969) has compared band positions of transuranium actinyl spectra, including those of  $\text{AmO}_2^+$  and  $\text{AmO}_2^{2+}$ , with the spacings between positions of the  $\text{UO}_2^{2+}$  bands. His results indicate that a single molecular orbital model can represent any of the actinyl ions when the uranyl ion is assumed to have the bonding orbitals exactly filled; the transuranium actinyl ions are represented with the uranyl core and a progressive increase of electrons in the first two lowest unoccupied molecular orbitals (LUMOs). Although the  $\text{Am(VI)}$  absorbance appears when  $\text{Am(V)}$  disproportionates in  $\text{HClO}_4$ , the absorbance is absent in  $\text{HCl}$  media potentially because of the formation of chloride complexes of lower molar absorptivity or due to the instability of  $\text{Am(VI)}$  in acidic chloride media (Fig. 8.16).

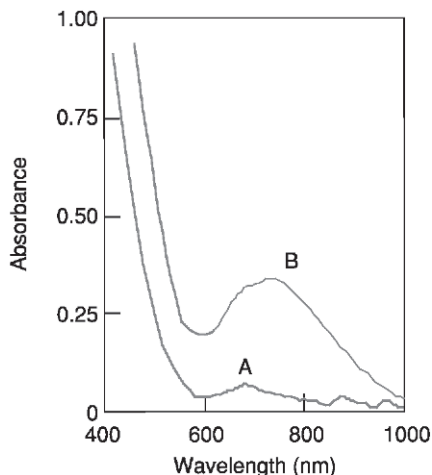


**Fig. 8.15** Electronic absorption spectra of  $AmO_2^+$  in 1 M  $HClO_4$  and in carbonate-containing solutions (inset) (Stadler and Kim, 1988).



**Fig. 8.16** Absorption spectrum of  $Am(vi)$  in 1 M  $HClO_4$  and in carbonate solution (inset) (Penneman and Asprey, 1955).

- (5)  $Am(vii)$ : Green-colored solutions, believed to be  $Am(vii)$ , are prepared by oxidation of  $Am(vi)$  in 3–5 M NaOH at 0–7°C with either ozone or the  $O^-$  radical. The spectrum of  $Am(vi)$  and  $Am(vii)$  was measured in 3.5 M NaOH solution by Krot *et al.* (1974a,b) and exhibited a broad absorbance



**Fig. 8.17** Absorption spectra of Am(vi) and Am(vii) in 3.5 M NaOH (Krot *et al.*, 1974a). A, 0.0194 M Am(vi); B, 0.0194 M Am<sub>tot</sub> with 50% Am(vi) and 50% Am(vii).

at 740 nm (Fig. 8.17). Heptavalent americium is unstable and reduces to Am(vi) within minutes. It can be easily reduced by hydrogen peroxide, hydrazine, hydroxylamine, sulfite, and ferrocyanide ions, and Np(vi) and Pu(vi) (Shilov, 1976). A review on the chemistry of heptavalent transplutonium elements can be found in Mikheev and Myasoedov (1985).

### (b) Luminescence

Luminescence has been observed only for Am(III). Reviews of Am(III) luminescence studies can be found in Beitz (1994) and Yusov (1993). The first study on the luminescence properties of Am(III) was reported by Beitz *et al.* (1989). Excitation of Am(III) from the  $^7F_0$  ground state to the  $^5L_6$  state at 503 nm results in the emission from the lowest luminescent level to the  $^7F_J$  ground-state manifold. From seven expected transitions only two are experimentally accessible. The two most populated transitions are the  $^5D_1 \rightarrow ^7F_1$  band at 685 nm and the  $^5D_1 \rightarrow ^7F_2$  band at 836 nm. These transitions can be used for the determination of trace concentrations of Am(III) in solution or solid-state matrices (Thouvenot *et al.*, 1993). Beitz and coworkers (Liu *et al.*, 1997) investigated the crystal field splitting and hyperfine energy level structure in the  $^5D_1$  level of  $^{243}\text{Am}^{3+}$  in  $\text{LaCl}_3$  and  $\text{CaWO}_4$ .

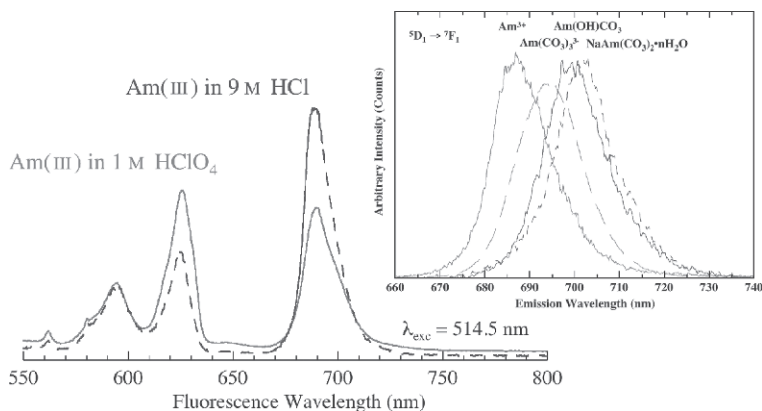
The fluorescence lifetime of the  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  ion(aq) is reported to be  $20.4 \pm 2.1$  ns (Runde *et al.*, 2000),  $24.6 \pm 0.6$  ns (Kimura and Kato, 1998), and  $22 \pm 3$  ns (Beitz, 1994) in aqueous systems. The lifetime increases dramatically to  $155 \pm 4$  ns (Beitz, 1994) in  $\text{D}_2\text{O}$ . Complexation of the  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  ion changes the position of the emission bands and the duration of the fluorescence lifetime; e.g. the



fluorescence of the triscarbonato complex,  $\text{Am}(\text{CO}_3)_3^{3+}$ , is observed at 693 nm with a lifetime of  $34.5 \pm 2.4$  ns (Runde *et al.*, 2000). The luminescence spectra of  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  have been also measured in Am-doped powdered  $\text{ThO}_2$  (Hubert and Thouvenot, 1992),  $\text{Cs}_2\text{NaLuCl}_6$  (Barbanel *et al.*, 1998),  $\text{LiYF}_4$  (Cavellec *et al.*, 1997), heavy metal fluoride glass containing  $\text{AmF}_3$  (Beitz, 1994), and in fluorozirconate glass (Valenzuela and Brundage, 1990; Brundage, 1994) (Fig. 8.18).

### (c) Vibrational (IR and Raman)

There are few data on the IR spectra of americium compounds. Tananaev (1991) reported the antisymmetric vibration frequency of the  $\text{AmO}_2^+$  group in  $\text{CsAmO}_2(\text{OH})_2 \cdot n\text{H}_2\text{O}$  at  $802 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . Hobart *et al.* (1983a) reported the Raman spectra of  $\text{AmPO}_4$  and  $\text{Am}(\text{PO}_3)_3$  with the most intense Raman frequencies for the symmetric stretching mode of  $\text{PO}_4^{3-}$  at  $973 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  and of  $\text{PO}_3^-$  groups at  $1195 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ . Jones and Penneman (1953) studied the infrared absorption assigned to the infrared O–An–O asymmetric stretch of actinyl(v) and (vi) ions, concluding that these ions were linear or very nearly so. For the solid  $\text{NaAmO}_2(\text{CH}_3\text{COO})_2$  the vibrational frequencies  $\nu_1 = 749$  and  $\nu_2 = 914 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  were reported (Jones, 1955). Data on Raman scattering of americyl(v) and (vi) ions have been reported in non-complexing perchloric acid and complexing carbonate solutions (Basile *et al.*, 1974). The values for the polarized symmetric stretching frequencies ( $\nu_1$ ) of  $\text{AmO}_2^+$  and  $\text{AmO}_2^{2+}$  were found to be  $730$  and  $796 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ , respectively (Basile *et al.*, 1974). The Raman scattering in carbonate solutions showed a shift of  $\nu_1$  to  $747 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for Am(v) (Madic *et al.*, 1983) and to  $760 \text{ cm}^{-1}$  for Am(vi) (Basile *et al.*, 1978). A study of the correlation of the Raman spectra of actinyl(v) and (vi) ions in perchlorate and carbonate



**Fig. 8.18** Luminescence spectrum of  $\text{Am}^{3+}$  in acidic media and of  $\text{Am}(\text{III})$  carbonate complexes. (Runde *et al.*, 2000, 2002).

solutions, as well as the spectra of solid actinide(v) double carbonate compounds,  $\text{Na}_3\text{AnO}_2(\text{CO}_3)_2 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}$ , was published by Madic *et al.* (1983).

#### (d) X-ray absorption

Although X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XAS, see Chapter 28) has been increasingly used since 1990 to obtain structural information of actinide compounds, only a small number of XAS studies on americium compounds have been reported. Bearden and Burr (1967) reported the edge energy of americium metal at 18504 eV. Soderholm *et al.* (1996) observed the Am edge energy at 18515 eV in the Am(IV) compound  $\text{Pb}_2\text{Sr}_2\text{AmCu}_3\text{O}_8$ , which is about 4 eV higher in energy compared to the solid Am(III) reference compounds  $\text{AmF}_3$  and  $\text{Cs}_2\text{NaAmCl}_6$ . EXAFS has been used to study the coordination of americium in organic complexes (DenAuwer *et al.*, 2000; Yaita *et al.*, 2001) and inorganic complexes with  $\text{P}_5\text{W}_{30}\text{O}_{110}^{15-}$  (Williams *et al.*, 2000), chloride (Allen *et al.*, 2000), and carbonate (Runde *et al.*, 2002).

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