

1 Formation of Carbon–Carbon Interlinkage Bonds under High 2 Pressure

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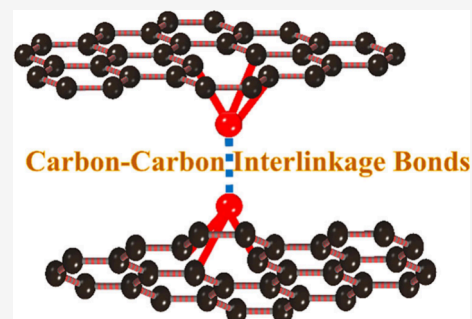


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Supporting Information

4 **ABSTRACT:** The formation of carbon–carbon interlinkage bonds (CCIBs) via the
 5 chemical binding of interlayer carbon atoms of many sp^2 -bonded carbon precursors is
 6 an essential step for synthesizing various diamond and diamond-like materials.
 7 Although the existence of CCIBs may be reasonably assumed under high-pressure
 8 conditions, direct experimental evidence has been scarce. Micro-Raman spectroscopy
 9 is here employed to track *in situ* the evolution of C–C bonds in a pressure range
 10 from ambient to 54 GPa. A pressure-induced two-stage (polynomial and linear) shift
 11 of the G peak and new generation of the CCIB peak at about 1550 cm^{-1} are observed
 12 in multiple types of layer-structured carbon precursors, including glassy carbon,
 13 natural graphite, and carbon nanotubes. The experimental discovery of CCIBs holds
 14 significance in comprehending phase transitions of sp^2 -bonded carbon materials and
 15 has implications for the advancement of novel carbon structures.



16 **T**he s and p electron orbitals of carbon atoms can hybridize
 17 in the form of linear sp , triangular sp^2 , and tetrahedral sp^3
 18 covalent bonds. Such diverse C–C chemical bonds lead to
 19 various carbon allotropes, which range from a vitreous state
 20 like glassy carbon or amorphous diamond to a para-crystalline
 21 structure with short- or medium-range order but long-range
 22 disorder^{1,2} to a complete crystal with a regular lattice
 23 periodicity such as graphite, cubic diamond, and Lonsdaleite.
 24 All of these abundant polymorphs and bonds give carbon
 25 materials a wide range of properties and applications. For
 26 instance, monolayer graphene is a promising material for
 27 modern electronic devices, and cubic diamond is commercially
 28 used in cutting tools due to its ultrahardness.^{3–5}

29 To artificially synthesize various types of diamonds with
 30 variable crystallographic arrangements of C tetrahedra (i.e.,
 31 amorphous, cubic, and hexagonal diamond) through using
 32 carbon precursors such as graphite and glassy carbon,^{5,6} the
 33 phase transition of sp^2 - to sp^3 -bonded carbon has been
 34 intensively investigated for many decades. The energy barrier
 35 to form sp^3 bonds from sp^2 bonds is up to 0.33 eV per C
 36 atom^{7–9} (this value depends on a specific reaction pathway,¹⁰
 37 selected precursor, and other factors like internal defects) and
 38 is too high to conquer without an extremely high pressure and
 39 even a simultaneous high temperature. Previous work under
 40 high pressure generated in diamond anvil cells (DACs) found
 41 that both ~ 100 GPa and a high shear force were required to
 42 form cubic and hexagonal diamond from sp^2 -bonded glassy
 43 carbon.^{6,11,12} At an intermediate pressure of ~ 45 GPa and a
 44 shear force, glassy carbon underwent a structural rearrange-
 45 ment at room temperature, but its reaction products retrieved
 46 after depressurization were still mainly composed of sp^2 bonds
 47 and had no evidence of the formation of recovered sp^3

bonds.^{13,14} Other researchers also observed that the sp^2 to sp^3
 sp^3 bond transition could not be realized at an intermediate
 pressure such as ~ 49 GPa¹⁵ or ~ 60 GPa¹⁶ but required an
 extremely high pressure of ~ 93 GPa¹⁷ or ~ 113 GPa¹⁸ at room
 temperature. The pressure for the sp^2 to sp^3 bond transition
 can be significantly decreased by the combination of a high
 temperature, for instance, to ~ 18 GPa at $1850\text{--}2000\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ¹⁹ for
 preparing nanocrystalline cubic diamond and to ~ 30 GPa at
 $950\text{--}1350\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ ¹ for synthesizing para-crystalline sp^3 -bonded
 carbon composites. Although these excellent explorations
 clearly indicate that sp^2 -bonded carbon precursors can change
 to sp^3 -bonded ones under suitable reaction conditions, it is not
 well understood how sp^2 bonds become sp^3 bonds and how sp^2
 phases evolve to sp^3 phases.

In order to understand the specific changes of C–C
 chemical bonds and the detailed processes of the phase
 transition of carbon materials under high-pressure conditions,
 an *in situ* synchrotron X-ray diffractometer and an *in situ* X-ray
 absorption spectrometer have both been used.^{17,20–23} How-
 ever, the experimental results are still unclear given the weak X-
 ray scattering of carbon atoms, the restriction of achievable
 pressure values, and specimen sizes in DACs at a high pressure
 like above 50 GPa. The pair distribution function of glassy
 carbon indicates that interlinkages of carbon atoms between

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72 turbostatic graphene layers could possibly occur within a
73 pressure range of up to 49 GPa, but they are not in the form of
74 tetrahedral sp^3 bonds.¹⁵ Under compression, carbon atoms that
75 have higher energy due to thermal fluctuation or defective
76 structures may initiate to chemically bind with those from
77 neighboring layers until finally forming perfect tetrahedral sp^3
78 bonds.^{24–26} This assumption about the generation of carbon–
79 carbon interlinkage bonds (CCIBs) under high pressure is
80 reasonable in light of simple physical reasoning but currently
81 lacks direct experimental evidence.

82 Raman spectroscopy is a powerful tool to analyze the bond
83 vibration features and structural information about carbon
84 materials under *in situ* high-pressure conditions.^{16,18,27–31} It
85 has the advantage of being a laboratory-based technique and so
86 is more easily accessed compared with synchrotron-based
87 measurements. Raman spectroscopy probes the phonon modes
88 of the materials. The sp^2 bonds in the classic honeycomb
89 structural units of various sp^2 -bonded carbon materials are
90 known to have strong Raman signatures. However, analytical
91 results currently show a high level of discreteness, and there is
92 no one consistent conclusion about the specific evolution of
93 C–C bonds under high-pressure conditions. Moreover, it is
94 not clear whether different types of sp^2 -bonded carbon
95 precursors will experience a similar process or a distinct
96 process of high-pressure-induced chemical bond change. In
97 this work, micro-Raman spectroscopy is used to track *in situ*
98 the evolution of C–C bonds in three sp^2 -bonded carbon
99 precursors with a range of different microstructures covering
100 glassy carbon, highly crystalline natural graphite, and multiwall
101 carbon nanotubes. The specific changes in the *in situ* Raman
102 spectrum are systematically collected and carefully analyzed for
103 the three carbon precursors during their loading and unloading
104 of up to 54 GPa.

105 Three types of carbon precursors are all mainly sp^2 -bonded,
106 have layerlike structures, and are of interest as high-pressure
107 precursors for novel carbon phase formation. Glassy carbon
108 (GC, Sigradur-G-3000, HTW Hochttemperatur-Werkstoffe
109 GmbH) is composed of turbostatic graphitic layers and has
110 more than 95% sp^2 C–C bonds.^{32,33} Highly crystalline natural
111 graphite was purchased from the Graphene Supermarket Corp.
112 It has a purity of up to 99.75% and consists of hexagonal
113 regular layer structures. Multiwall carbon nanotubes
114 (MWCNTs) from Merck were also analyzed. These
115 MWCNTs are made of multiple concentric single-walled
116 carbon nanotubes through van der Waals interactions. They
117 will be flattened under high-pressure conditions and thus are
118 intrinsically similar to graphitic structures due to severe
119 compression. All three carbon precursors were used without
120 any other treatments like annealing.

121 High-pressure experiments were carried out using an Almax
122 plate diamond anvil cell (DAC) with 250 μm culets. Stainless
123 steel gaskets with a thickness of $\sim 300 \mu\text{m}$ and a diameter of
124 $\sim 1300 \mu\text{m}$ were preindented and then drilled using a Boehler
125 microDriller to make a specimen chamber with a diameter of
126 $\sim 100 \mu\text{m}$ and a thickness of $\sim 40 \mu\text{m}$. GC, graphite, and
127 MWCNTs were individually loaded into specimen chambers in
128 the center of gaskets without any pressure-transmitting
129 medium to potentially generate a large shear force for samples
130 under high-pressure conditions. The applied pressure was
131 measured through the pressure-dependent shift of the Raman
132 peak of the diamond anvils.³⁴

133 Raman spectra of samples were all measured *in situ* using a
134 Renishaw *InVia* micro-Raman spectrometer equipped with a

532 nm laser and a long working distance objective of 20 \times .
135 Raman data were collected *in situ* under both loading and
136 unloading. The collected Raman spectra were fitted using a
137 Lorentzian function using Fityk.³⁵ Considering the potential
138 errors from pressure tests and calibration (± 1 GPa) and
139 possible uncertainties during peak fitting ($\pm 3 \text{ cm}^{-1}$), error bars
140 are added to our Raman data. It should be noted that the
141 diamond anvil itself generates a strong diamond Raman band
142 from 1332 to 1450 cm^{-1} in the pressure range of ambient to 54
143 GPa. This diamond peak overlaps with the disorder peak of
144 sp^2 -bonded carbon precursors but is well separated from the
145 graphite peak (G peak) under high pressure. 146

147 **Figure 1** shows Raman spectra of GC, graphite, and
148 MWCNTs under ambient conditions before pressure treat-

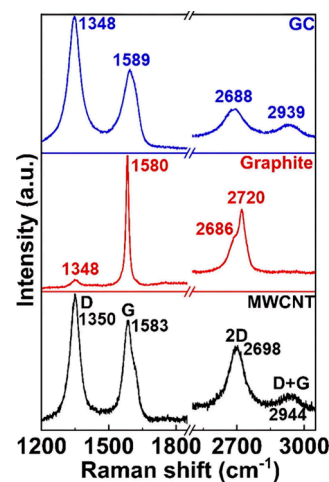


Figure 1. Raman spectra of glassy carbon (GC), graphite, and multiwall carbon nanotubes (MWCNT) collected under ambient conditions.

149 ment. GC has a strong disorder (D peak) at $\sim 1348 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ and a
150 broad G peak centered around 1589 cm^{-1} . The D peak comes
151 from the TO phonon mode near K points in the Brillouin zone
152 and strongly correlates with the disordered structure of
153 GC.^{36,37} It overlaps with the diamond peak of diamond
154 anvils under high-pressure conditions. The G peak originates
155 from the double-degenerate zone-center E_{2g} phonon mode³⁶
156 and corresponds to intralayer C–C stretching vibrations. It
157 intrinsically represents the pressure-dependent changes in C–
158 C bonds in a honeycomb structure. A tiny shoulder D* peak is
159 observed on the high-frequency side of the G peak, and it
160 could be attributed to an additional disorder-related peak from
161 the intravalley double resonance.³⁷ The second-order Raman
162 scattering 2D and D+G peaks of GC are detected at ~ 2688
163 and $\sim 2939 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, respectively. Graphite presents a sharp and
164 narrow G peak and a very weak D peak due to its high
165 crystallinity. The 2D peak of graphite is split into two Raman
166 peaks (2D and 2D') at 2686 and 2720 cm^{-1} , while its D+G
167 peak cannot be detected. MWCNTs display a Raman spectrum
168 similar to that of GC, but it has less disorder or fewer defects
169 given a higher ratio of the G to D peak in contrast to that of
170 GC. 170

171 As shown in **Figure 2a**, the G peak of GC becomes broader
172 and shifts to a higher frequency under pressurization. The peak
173 position shifts from ~ 1589 to $\sim 1685 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (at ~ 52 GPa), a
174 change of $\sim 96 \text{ cm}^{-1}$. This indicates that the intralayer C–C
175 bond length is shortened due to the high-pressure 175

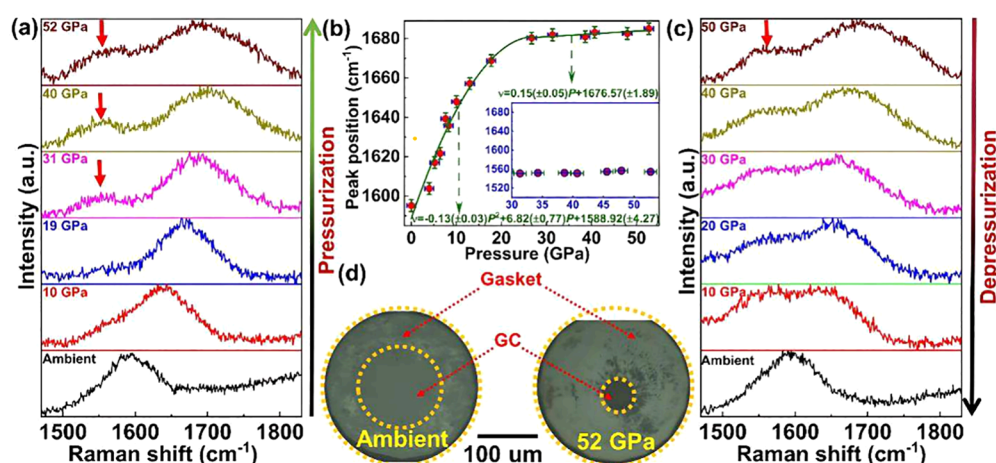


Figure 2. *In situ* Raman spectra of glassy carbon collected in the pressure range from ambient to ~ 52 GPa under (a) pressurization and (c) depressurization. Red arrows here mark the Raman peaks of C–C interlinkage bonds in GC. (b) Pressure-dependent G peak positions and associated fitting curves using a polynomial and linear function. The inset of panel b shows the peak position of the new peak from C–C interlinkage bonds as a function of pressure. (d) Optical photographs taken using both transmission and reflection light illumination.

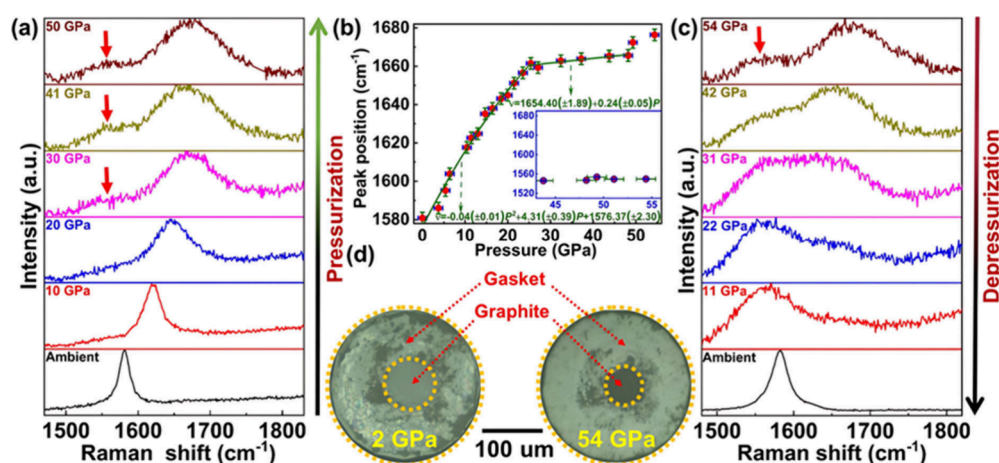


Figure 3. Raman spectra of highly crystalline natural graphite collected from ambient to 54 GPa under (a) *in situ* pressurization and (c) depressurization. Red arrows label the Raman peaks of C–C interlinkage bonds in graphite. (b) Pressure vs G peak position and associated fitting curves employing a polynomial and linear function. The inset of panel b shows the peak position of the new peak attributed to C–C interlinkage peaks as a function of pressure. (d) Optical photographs of graphite taken using both transmission and reflection visible light illumination.

176 compression. When the G peak positions of GC are fitted
 177 through the Lorentzian function (the detailed fitting process
 178 can be found in the Supporting Information) and plotted as a
 179 function of associated pressure (Figure 2b), it is found that the
 180 G peak shifting of GC can be divided into two stages. In stage
 181 1 from ambient to ~ 30 GPa, the G peak of GC migrates
 182 following a polynomial curve with a first-order pressure
 183 coefficient of about $6.82 \pm 0.77 \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ GPa}^{-1}$ ($d\nu/dp$, where
 184 ν is the Raman shift in cm^{-1} and p is the pressure in GPa) and
 185 the second-order coefficient $[(d\nu)^2/(dp)^2]$ of -0.13 ± 0.03
 186 $\text{cm}^{-2} \text{ GPa}^{-2}$. In stage 2 from ~ 30 to ~ 52 GPa, the G peak
 187 sluggishly moves following a linear function with a $d\nu/dp$ value
 188 of $0.15 \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ GPa}^{-1}$. At the maximum pressure of ~ 52 GPa,
 189 GC is still as opaque as that under ambient conditions (see the
 190 optical images in Figure 2d).

191 It is interesting to note that a new broad Raman peak at
 192 $\sim 1554 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ appears in the Raman spectra collected between
 193 ~ 30 and ~ 52 GPa (Figure 2a). This new peak becomes more
 194 visible at higher pressures such as ~ 40 and ~ 52 GPa. The new
 195 peak coincides with the transition to stage 2 of the G peak
 196 movement. Interestingly, this peak does not significantly shift

over the pressure range of 30–50 GPa (inset of Figure 2b).
 The formation of this new peak perhaps leads to a dramatic
 change in the shift of the G peak as a function of pressure. The
 new peak at $\sim 1554 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ disappears at a higher pressure like
 ~ 80 GPa (it will be reported in another paper). It is a
 characteristic Raman peak of CCIBs (i.e., carbon atoms in two
 neighboring layers interlink together under high-pressure
 conditions). The detailed discussion about CCIBs is as follows.
 The generation of this new CCIB peak perhaps leads to the
 abnormal change in G peak movement from stage 1 to stage 2
 and its subsequent sluggish migration at the latter since it
 consumes the most energy (i.e., pressure here).

When the pressure is released, the peak position of CCIBs
 does not appear to move with a decrease in pressure to ~ 10
 GPa but is not observed under ambient conditions (Figure 2c),
 suggesting that the CCIBs generated on loading between ~ 30
 and ~ 52 GPa are metastable and reversible. This is different
 from the G peak of GC that gradually moves back to its initial
 position when the pressure is released.

To investigate whether the change in the shift of the G peak
 and the generation of the CCIB peak observed in GC also

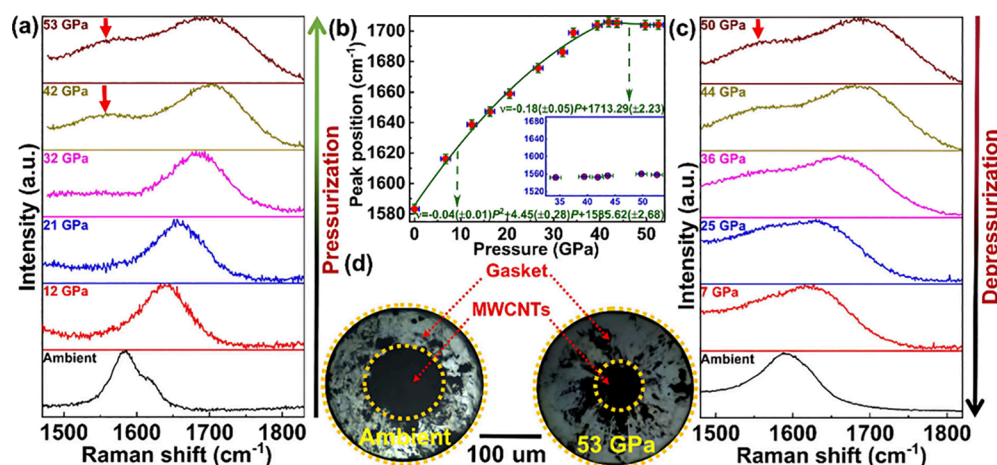


Figure 4. *In situ* Raman spectra of multiwall carbon nanotubes (MWCNTs) collected from ambient to 53 GPa under (a) pressurization and (c) depressurization. Raman peaks of C–C interlinkage bonds in MWCNTs are marked by red arrows. (b) Pressure vs G peak position of MWCNTs and associated fitting curves employing a polynomial and linear function. The inset of panel b shows the peak position of a new peak attributed to C–C interlinkage peaks as a function of pressure. (d) Optical photographs of MWCNTs taken using both transmission and reflection visible light illumination.

Table 1. Summary of the Experimental Conditions, Pressure Ranges, and Pressure Coefficients (E_{2g} Raman mode) Reported for Carbon Materials in the Literature and by Us^a

sample	DAC (culet size)	calibration	PTM	gasket	stage 1			stage 2		ref
					pressure (GPa)	dz/dp ($\text{cm}^{-1} \text{GPa}^{-1}$)	$(dz)^2/(dp)^2$ ($\text{cm}^{-2} \text{GPa}^{-2}$)	pressure (GPa)	dz/dp ($\text{cm}^{-1} \text{GPa}^{-1}$)	
GC	P250	diamond	none	steel	<30	6.82	-0.13	30–52	0.15	this work
graphite	P250	diamond	none	steel	<27	4.31	-0.04	25–54	0.24	this work
graphite	Pa300	ruby	Ne	Re (80 μm)	UKN	4.24	-0.02	–	–	27
graphite	Pa300	ruby	NaCl	Re (80 μm)	<30	4.32	-0.04	30–80	0.41	27
graphite	UKN300	ruby	MeOH and EtOH	Re (50 μm)	<30	4.32	-0.04	–	–	31
graphite	UKN	ruby	MeOH and EtOH	UKN	<14	4.7	UKN	–	–	29
graphite	UKN300/400	ruby	Ne	UKN	<54	3.6	-0.02	–	–	41
GNP	UKN300/400	ruby	He	UKN	<53	4.02	-0.03	–	–	41
GNP	UKN300/400	ruby	Ar	UKN	<53	4.49	-0.04	–	–	41
MWCNTs	P-250	diamond	none	steel	<42	4.45	-0.04	42–53	-0.18	this work

^aAbbreviations: DACs, diamond anvil cells; GC, glassy carbon; graphite; GNP, graphene nanoplatelet; MWCNTs, multiwall carbon nanotubes; PTM, pressure-transmitting medium; P in DAC column, plate DAC; Pa in DAC column, panoramic DAC; UKN, unknown.

218 happen in other carbon materials, graphite was also com-
 219 pressed in plate DACs to 54 GPa (a pressure close to that of
 220 GC). Surprisingly, the G peak of graphite is found to present a
 221 similar change as that of GC under high pressure. It gradually
 222 moves to high frequencies and becomes broad under
 223 compression as shown in Figure 3a. The pressure-dependent
 224 G peak shift of graphite is also composed of two separate
 225 stages (Figure 3b), that is, a polynomial movement from
 226 $\sim 1580 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (ambient) to 1660 cm^{-1} ($\sim 25 \text{ GPa}$) in stage 1
 227 and a nearly linear shift from ~ 1660 to 1676 cm^{-1} ($\sim 54 \text{ GPa}$)
 228 in stage 2. The first and second pressure coefficients in stage 1
 229 are $4.31 \pm 0.39 \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{GPa}^{-1}$ and $-0.04 \pm 0.01 \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{GPa}^{-2}$,
 230 respectively. The pressure coefficient in stage 2 is about $0.24 \pm$
 231 $0.05 \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{GPa}^{-1}$. At a maximum pressure of $\sim 54 \text{ GPa}$,
 232 graphite is also not optically transparent (Figure 3d). It should
 233 be pointed out that the new Raman peak of CCIBs is also
 234 detected in graphite above $\sim 30 \text{ GPa}$. Furthermore, the peak
 235 position of CCIBs is at $\sim 1550 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ and is also very close to

that of the GC (Figure 2a). When the pressure is released, this
 236 CCIB peak does not move with a decrease in pressure and
 237 finally disappears under ambient conditions (Figure 3c). The
 238 G peak of graphite recovers to its initial position but becomes
 239 slightly broader. It is thus demonstrated that pressure-induced
 240 G peak migration has two stages and CCIBs are formed under
 241 high-pressure conditions, again.

242
 243 Given common phenomena are observed in the *in situ*
 244 Raman spectra of GC and graphite, it is interesting to explore if
 245 another sp^2 -bonded carbon precursor exhibits a similar
 246 behavior under high pressure. MWCNTs, which have a layer
 247 structure with sp^2 C–C bonds, are subsequently pressurized to
 248 about 53 GPa. One can see that the G peak of MWCNTs shifts
 249 from $\sim 1583 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (ambient) to $\sim 1700 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ($\sim 41 \text{ GPa}$)
 250 (Figure 4a) and also presents a two-stage movement (Figure
 251 4b). The first and second pressure coefficients of the sublinear
 252 curve in stage 1 are 4.45 ± 0.28 and $-0.04 \pm 0.01 \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{GPa}^{-1}$,
 253 respectively. The two values are close to that of graphite 253

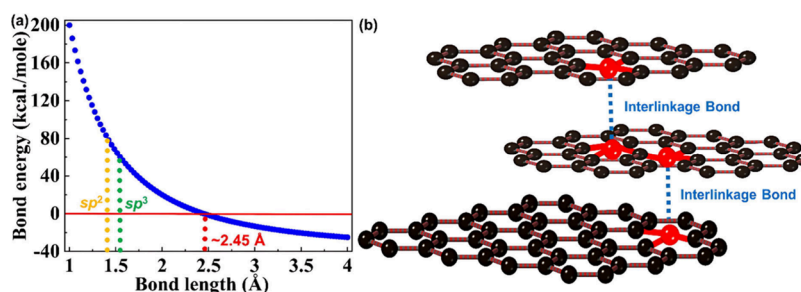


Figure 5. (a) Binding energy vs bond length of a carbon–carbon single bond. (b) Atomic motif depicting carbon–carbon interlinkage bonds formed under high-pressure conditions.

254 (Figure 3b). Further increasing the pressure nearly does not
 255 change the position of the G peak and leads to a pressure
 256 coefficient of $-0.18 \pm 0.05 \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ GPa}^{-1}$ in stage 2. The new
 257 Raman peak at $\sim 1550 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ is also found in MWCNTs (e.g.,
 258 Raman spectra collected at ~ 42 and $\sim 53 \text{ GPa}$). It stands still
 259 with increasing pressures as that of GC and graphite (inset of
 260 Figure 4b). Under decompression, the CCIB peak does not
 261 alter its position and completely disappears under ambient
 262 conditions (Figure 4c). Meanwhile, the G peak gradually shifts
 263 to its initial position and also becomes broader, which is similar
 264 to the case for graphite. MWCNTs do not become transparent
 265 even though they are compressed to $\sim 53 \text{ GPa}$ (Figure 4d).

266 Through *in situ* Raman spectra of GC, graphite, and
 267 MWCNTs, one solid conclusion regarding the high-pressure-
 268 induced two-stage shift of the G peak can be reached for the
 269 three different types of sp^2 -bonded carbon precursors. The
 270 two-stage movement of the G peak was also observed by other
 271 researchers in their compression of graphite,^{27,38} glassy
 272 carbon,¹⁸ and MWCNTs.^{38,39} Table 1 summarizes our
 273 experimental conditions, pressure ranges, and pressure
 274 coefficients of the E_{2g} Raman mode. Experimental data taken
 275 from the literature are also listed here. The critical pressure for
 276 the transition from stage 1 to stage 2 measured here is also
 277 close to that reported in the literature, i.e., about 30 GPa for
 278 graphite and glassy carbon and about 40 GPa for MWCNTs.
 279 Although the exact reason why MWCNTs have a higher
 280 critical pressure is unclear, it is possibly related to their larger
 281 bulk modulus of a few hundred gigapascals in contrast to that
 282 of 38 GPa for GC⁴⁰ and 34 GPa for graphite.²⁹ The change of
 283 the G peak shift indicates a possible beginning of a structural
 284 transition³⁹ or bonding of interlayer carbon atoms in carbon
 285 precursors. In the following stage 2, we indeed observe the
 286 softening of the E_{2g} Raman mode (i.e., the peak position of the
 287 Raman mode does not change with pressure) and the
 288 generation of one new Raman peak at about 1550 cm^{-1} .

289 It should be pointed out that the polynomial migration of
 290 the G peak in stage 1 has also been previously
 291 reported.^{27,29,31,38,39,41} This movement could not be attributed
 292 to the rehybridization of carbon atoms from π -bonds to σ -
 293 bonds²⁷ since the interlayer distance in the pressure range of
 294 stage 1 is more than 2.8 Å.^{15,17,21,22} Such a long distance makes
 295 it difficult to form σ -bonds through binding interlayer carbon
 296 atoms (the details are shown in Figure 5). The polynomial
 297 shift highly possibly originates in the strong anisotropy of local
 298 and average structures in these layer-like carbon precursors.
 299 We further find that the unit cell volume of these carbon
 300 materials follows a polynomial change under high-pressure
 301 conditions.^{17,42,43} Based on the relationship of the pressure-
 302 dependent Raman frequency and unit cell volume,

303 $\frac{\nu_p}{\nu_0} = \left(\frac{V_p}{V_0}\right)^{-\gamma_G}$ (where ν_p , ν_0 , V_p , and V_0 are the E_{2g} Raman
 304 frequency and unit cell volume of sp^2 -bonded carbon materials
 305 at ambient and variable pressure, respectively, and γ_G is the
 306 mode Grüneisen parameter and a constant),²⁹ the sublinear
 307 shrinkage of the unit cell volume would inevitably lead to the
 308 same shift trend of the Raman peaks. More interestingly, the
 309 polynomial movement of Raman modes under high pressure
 310 was also observed in other layered materials with strong
 311 structural anisotropy, including $2H\text{-MoX}_2$ ($X = \text{S, Se, and Te}$),⁴⁴
 312 $\text{Ti}_3\text{C}_2\text{T}_x$ MXene,⁴⁵ and $\text{Mo}_{0.5}\text{W}_{0.5}\text{S}_2$ ternary com-
 313 pounds.⁴⁶ It thus seems that the polynomial shift of Raman
 314 peaks prior to the pressure-induced phase transition and
 315 chemical reaction should be a common feature of layered
 316 materials. It should also be pointed out that a larger first-order
 317 pressure coefficient of $6.82 \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ GPa}^{-1}$ is observed for GC
 318 and is much larger than that of graphite ($4.31 \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ GPa}^{-1}$).
 319 Such a large deviation could be attributable to a lower
 320 volumetric density (that of GC is about 1.5 g/cm^3 , and that of
 321 graphite is about 2.26 g/cm^3).^{33,47}

322 We now discuss the possible origin of the new Raman peak
 323 observed at about 1550 cm^{-1} and in the stage 2 shift of the G
 324 peak and why it can be detected under high-pressure
 325 conditions. We find that the 1550 cm^{-1} Raman peak appears
 326 in other high-pressure experiments during the compression of
 327 graphite^{27,28,48} and glassy carbon.^{28,49} This peak is also usually
 328 detected in tetrahedral amorphous carbon^{50–52} and bundled
 329 single-wall carbon nanotubes^{53,54} under ambient conditions. It
 330 could be attributed to many possible reasons such as the
 331 fluorescence and contamination from diamond anvils, the
 332 visibility of the F band, the splitting of the G peak, the
 333 generation of new carbon structures, and the formation of C–
 334 C interlinkage bonds.

335 Diamond mounted in our DACs exhibits ultralow
 336 fluorescence. There is no visible fluorescence peak at about
 337 1550 cm^{-1} in the Raman spectra collected at a lower pressure
 338 such as 10 or 20 GPa (Figures 2–4). Even if the intensity of
 339 diamond fluorescence is dependent on pressure, it is normally
 340 detected above 100 GPa and disappears at 280 GPa, relying on
 341 specific diamond, the frequency of excitation, and the window
 342 of detection.⁵⁵ Our pressure is much lower than that of
 343 diamond to activate fluorescence. Furthermore, the new 1550
 344 cm^{-1} Raman peak is not detected in our experiments of
 345 compressing some other materials such as oxides and
 346 hydroxides when the same diamond anvil cells are used.
 347 Therefore, the Raman peak at about 1550 cm^{-1} should not be
 348 related to the diamond fluorescence of DACs.

349 This new Raman peak could not originate from the F band
 350 as observed in the pressurization of glassy carbon micro-

balls.^{16,30} We note that the Raman peak of the F band arises at about 1420 cm⁻¹ and linearly shifts to about 1620 cm⁻¹ at ~60 GPa. Such a large shift of about 200 cm⁻¹ should be clearly observed in our experiments if it also exists here. Actually, the peak positions of the new Raman bands of GC, graphite, and MWCNTs are all unchanged under high-pressure conditions (insets of Figures 2b–4b). In addition, the merging of the F and G bands above 45 GPa leads to the downshifting of the G peak. This phenomenon is also not seen in our Raman spectra. The strain-driven splitting of the G peak⁵⁶ could be also responsible for the origin of the new 1550 cm⁻¹ Raman peak. However, we carefully checked our Raman spectra and did not find any clue about G peak splitting in the pressure range of up to 54 GPa. More importantly, two Raman peaks split from the G peak both red-shift with an increase in strain, and the separation between the new peak and the G band should increase with pressure. These phenomena are inconsistent with our observation here.

Another possibility of generating a new 1550 cm⁻¹ Raman peak is related to the formation of new carbon structures. *In situ* synchrotron X-ray diffraction patterns of sp²-bonded carbon materials like GC have been measured in our pressure range.^{14,15,17,21,22,42,43} The average interlayer distance shortens to about 2.4–2.7 Å with an increase in pressure to ~50 GPa; the C–C–C bond angle remains at ~120° of a honeycomb structure, and the coordination number of carbon atoms is close to 3.¹⁵ No clear evidence shows that an sp³ structure can be synthesized below 54 GPa. In further combination of theoretical calculation and simulation,^{7,57–59} a high pressure of up to 70–80 GPa is required to form permanent interlayer sp³ bonds. Most sp³ allotropes (e.g., monoclinic, body-centered tetragonal, and orthorhombic carbon) do not present one nonshifted Raman band at around 1550 cm⁻¹ between 30 and 50 GPa. This solid structural information and theoretical support make us believe that the new Raman peak observed in the pressurization of GC, graphite, and MWCNTs does not originate in a new sp³ carbon phase.

In order to further understand the origin of this new Raman peak at about 1550 cm⁻¹, the binding energy (*E*) of a C–C single bond at variable bond lengths (*R*) is calculated based on the formula $E = 240/R^2 - 40$.⁵⁰ It is plotted in Figure 5a. Under ambient conditions, interlayer carbon atoms could have a distance of 3.35 Å (e.g., graphite and MWCNTs) and interact with each other through van der Waals force. At this long distance, the interaction of interlayer carbon atoms nearly does not contribute to phonon vibrations and thus is not considered in conventional phonon mode calculations. However, high pressure will seriously shorten the interlayer distance of sp²-bonded carbon materials to about 2.4–2.7 Å in the pressure range of 30–50 GPa.^{15,17} The bond length to chemically bind two interlayer carbon atoms for forming CCIBs is about 2.45 Å, as shown in Figure 5a. It is reasonably consistent with the measurement results of synchrotron XRD. In this scenario, the contribution of CCIBs to phonon vibrations cannot be neglected and leads to the appearance of a new Raman band at 1550 cm⁻¹ in the high-pressure Raman spectra of GC, graphite, and MWCNTs.

Figure 5b presents an atomic motif of CCIBs based on the experimental results of Raman spectroscopy and available structural data. Given that the bond of CCIBs is much longer than normal sp² bonds (~1.42 Å), its Raman peak should appear at a much lower frequency than that of the G peak, which is consistent with our experimental results. The

formation of CCIBs softens the E_{2g} phonon mode and thus keeps its Raman peak position between 30 and 54 GPa. In light of further E_{2g} Raman mode softening and the formation of CCIBs in this pressure range, both of their Raman peaks should not shift with a change in pressure. Additionally, it should be noted that the binding energy of CCIBs is rather low compared to that of C–C bonds in honeycomb structures of GC and graphite (~82.5 kcal/mol) as well as those in tetrahedral units of diamonds (~62.5 kcal/mol).⁵⁸ Meanwhile, the bond of CCIBs is also much longer than that of diamonds (1.54 Å), GC, and graphite. CCIBs thus would disappear once the pressure was released and present a metastable and reversible feature. The formation of CCIBs under high-pressure conditions can well interpret why a significant percentage of sp³ bonds could not be discovered in carbon samples retrieved from 50 GPa and carbon materials like GC can only graphitize in such a pressure range.

In summary, carbon–carbon interlinkage bonds are discovered in the compression and decompression of multiple types of sp²-bonded carbon precursors, including glassy carbon, graphite, and multiwall carbon nanotubes, using micro-Raman spectroscopy. These carbon–carbon interlinkage bonds have a metastable characteristic, maintain their peak position under high-pressure conditions, and completely disappear once the pressure is released. The G peak of all three precursors presents a similar two-stage (polynomial and linear) migration with an increase in pressure, but the first pressure coefficient of glassy carbon is much higher than those of the other two due to its softness. The formation of carbon–carbon interlinkage bonds leads to a two-stage shift of the G peak and is an intermediate step for the transition of sp² to sp³ bonds. This discovery will benefit the synthesis of various sp³-rich carbon structures and advances our understanding of the high-pressure-induced phase transition of carbon materials.

ASSOCIATED CONTENT

Supporting Information

The Supporting Information is available free of charge at <https://pubs.acs.org/doi/10.1021/acs.jpcllett.5c01578>.

Fitting of Raman spectra (PDF)

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482 Notes

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