Thermodynamic properties of minerals and fluids

Kotelnikov A.R.¹, Suk N.I.¹, Kotelnikova Z.A.^{1,2} Methods for evaluation of TPparameters of processes in the Earth's crust (according to experimental studies). UDC: 552.11, 550.4.02

¹IEM RAS, Chernogolovka Moscow district, (kotelnik@iem.ac.ru); ²IGPMG RAS, Moscow (kotelnik@igem.ru)

Abstract. This paper provides a summary of methods for estimating the TP-parameters of natural processes based on experimental study of: (1) the interphase distribution of major, minor, rare elements and isotopes; (2) the distribution of elements between nonequivalent positions in the structure of minerals; (3) phase relationships in fluid inclusions in rock-forming minerals. The complex use of various methods makes it possible to estimate the TPparameters of mineral genesis for almost all rocks of igneous and metamorphic genesis. The practical application of this approach for assessing the conditions of the genesis of various natural formations is shown.

Keywords:TP-parameters, interphase distribution of elements, mineral genesis

All thermometry methods are based on the concept of thermodynamic equilibrium. An analysis of mineral paragenesis from the point of view of the phase rule showed that the achievement of thermodynamic equilibrium in natural processes is quite common. In addition, studies of the interphase distribution of small elements and isotopes showed that they are also distributed according to the conditions of thermodynamic equilibrium. The study of the processes of crystallization of igneous rocks, mainly basalts of various genesis, showed that the distribution of elements in melt - mineral systems can also be described from the standpoint of equilibrium thermodynamics. Studies of phase equilibria in impact (ultrafast) processes show that the synthesized minerals are in a state of phase correspondence.

Thus, we can conclude that the phase correspondence method can be applied in various processes typical of petrogenesis in the lithosphere (magmatic, metamorphic, hydrothermal, etc.).

Consider the rates of chemical reactions, they are described by the following equations:

 $V_r = dC_i/dt$; where V_r – the rate of a chemical reaction, C_i – the concentration of the i-th element, t – the time.

The reaction rate depends on the concentration of the reactants:

 $V_r = k_0 * C_i^{n*} C_j^{m}$; where $C_{i,j}$ - component concentrations i,j; k_0 - reaction constant; n, m - reaction orders for the respective components.

For heterophase reactions, the reaction rate also depends linearly on the contact area of the two phases: $V_r \sim a^*S$; where S – the contact area of two phases; a – coefficient depending on the nature of the substance.

The dependence of the reaction constant on temperature is determined by the following relationship: $k_0^*e^{-E/RT}$; where E is the activation energy of the reaction.

The general dependence of the reaction rate on temperature and concentration of reagents is:

 $V_r = k_0 * \{e^{-E/RT}\} * C_i^n * C_j^m.$

On the whole, it can be concluded that the rates of distribution of elements between phases (minerals) depend on the concentration of components, temperature, and pressure.

It is clear that for the equilibria of the main rockforming elements (Na, Mg, K, Ca, Mn, Fe), which form most of the minerals – solid solutions, the reaction rates of intermineral exchange equilibria are relatively high; while for impurity (Rb, Sr, Ba, Ni, Co, Cr, ... La ... Lu, Hf) elements and oxygen isotopes ¹⁷O, ¹⁸O, often used for thermometry, the reaction rates are low.

Therefore, when the PT-parameters of mineral genesis change (for example, due to a decrease in pressure during ascent and a decrease in temperature), reactions involving macro- and microelements will reflect this change in parameters in different ways.

(1) Reactions involving small elements (and isotopes) will capture the initial stages of the process (which are characterized by higher TP-parameters).

(2) Reactions involving the main elements will make it possible to track various stages of the process, which will be recorded in the zoning of minerals, the change in mineral generations, etc.

An analysis of the experimental data on cation exchange equilibria showed a significant dependence of the reaction rates on the coordination of the isomorphic ion. Table 1 shows semi-quantitative data on the rates of reactions of minerals. It follows from the data in Table 1 that the possibility of ion exchange is limited by the coordination number CN \geq 8. Cation exchange through the recrystallization process is possible at CN=6. At CN=4 (tetrahedral position) the exchange is practically impossible, such systems can be studied only by the synthesis method.

Let us consider the methods used for the reconstruction of TPX-parameters of mineralogenesis:

- mineral thermobarometry based on the distribution of elements (isotopes) between

coexisting phases, as well as between non-equivalent positions of the structure of minerals (Table 2);

- study of fluid inclusions in minerals;

- study of the distribution of various (ore, petrogenic and volatile) components in mineral – fluid; melt – fluid; mineral – melt systems, etc.;

- experimental study of complex fluidmagmatic systems;

- a comprehensive study of characteristic natural objects.

Consider exchange equilibria of the form:

$$\begin{split} & 3Mg_{2}Al_{4}Si_{5}O_{18}+2Fe_{3}Al_{2}Si_{3}O_{12}=2Mg_{3}Al_{2}Si_{3}O_{12}\\ &+3Fe_{2}Al_{4}Si_{5}O_{18}, \end{split}$$

or:

 $Crd^{Mg} + Alm = Prp + Crd^{Fe}$,

 $NaAlSiO_4 + KAlSi_3O_8 = KAlSiO_4 + NaAlSi_3O_8$, or: Ne + San = Ks + Ab.

These equilibria have a large thermal effect and small volume effects, so they are used to determine the temperatures of mineral genesis. Exchange rates are quite high and these equilibria respond to temperature changes.

Fe-Mg-cordierite is usually stable in divariant association with *garnet, sillimanite, and quartz*:

This reaction is accompanied by a very large volumetric effect and therefore underlies one of the most important geobarometers of metamorphic rocks.

Table 1. Rates of mineral cation exchange reactions depending on the structural position (coordination number) of an isomorphic cation.

Mineral	Isomorphic cation	CN	Rate and type of cation exchange reactions
Zeolites	Na, Cs	10-12	High (ion exchange)
Feldspars	Na, K, Ca, Rb, Sr, Ba	7 – 9	Medium (ion exchange, recrystallization)
Garnets	Ca, Mg, Fe, Mn	8	Medium - ion exchange possible(?)
Garnets	Fe^{3+} , Al^{3+} , Cr^{3+} , Ga^{3+}	6	Low (recrystallization)
Epidotes	Fe^{3+}, Al^{3+}	6	Low (recrystallization)
Biotites	Mg, Fe	6	Low (recrystallization)
Cordieritis	Mg, Fe	6	Low (recrystallization)
Clinopyroxenes	Mg, Fe, Mn	6	Low (recrystallization)
Feldspars	Al, B, Fe ³⁺ , Ga, Si, Ge	4	Very low (synthesis of solid solutions)

Table 2. Various mineral thermometers and their applicability in assessing the parameters of mineral genesis

Exchange	Stages of mineralogenesis processes (with a decrease in
rates	TP-parameters fixed by this reaction)
14105	
low	High temperature
medium	High and medium temperature
medium	High and medium temperature
mearann	Then and mediant temperature
high	Medium and low temperature
	Exchange rates low medium medium high

Cordierite-garnet-quartz-sillimanite

thermobarometer has a very simple analytical expression:

P (bar) = T (12.768 - 4.312lnK_{Mg}) - 2064, where K_{Mg} – magnesium partition coefficient equal to $X_{Mg}^{\ Crd}\!/\!X_{Mg}^{\ Grt}$.

Distribution of small (impurity) elements. Mineral thermometer based on the incorporation of SiO_2 into the structure of nepheline in the presence of feldspar. This thermometer shows only the formation temperature of nepheline paragenesis in equilibrium with feldspar, since excess silica is in coordination 4 and is not capable of exchange. $T^{\circ}C = 100*(qm-1.86+15.23*XKNe)//(1.26-1.72*XKNe) \pm 30^{\circ}C; qm - mol.\% of quartz in nepheline.$

To estimate the TP-parameters of various objects (mainly metamorphic massifs, oceanic basalts, main intrusions), there are a number of software packages, such as TWQ, Petrolog, Komagmat, Putyrka's computational methods, etc.

It is rather difficult to estimate the parameters of the evolution of granite intrusions (so far, they work mainly on the basis of data from the study of melt inclusions), alkaline syenites (a relatively small number of mineral thermometers can be used there).

Fluid inclusions in minerals. The method of studying fluid inclusions in minerals makes it possible to determine the parameters of mineral genesis based on fluid samples directly captured during mineral formation. The method allows to estimate fluid density, its composition and, in correlation with the methods of mineral thermometry, to provide information on the actual conditions for the formation of minerals and their associations. Using the methods of studying fluid inclusions, we can determine: (1) the density of the mineral-forming fluid; (2) total fluid salinity (in NaCl, equiv); (3) fluid composition (semiquantitatively). Together with the data of mineral thermometry, this makes it possible to determine the TP-trend of the evolution of the object studied.

Determination of fluid composition during metamorphism processes. The following methods are used: 1) calculations of mineral equilibria; 2) assessment of the bulk composition of the fluid during the chromatographic (mass-spectral) study of various groups of fluid inclusions. Metamorphic rocks often contain inclusions of carbonate-silicate rocks (Khanka massif, Aldan massif, etc.). Carbonate-silicate parageneses contain the following minerals: calcite (CaCO₃), quartz (SiO₂), wollastonite $(CaSiO_3)$, grossular $(Ca_3Al_2Si_3O_{12}),$ scapolite $(Ca_3Al_6Si_6O_{24}*[CaCO_3])$, plagioclase $(CaAl_2Si_2O_8)$, alkaline feldspar $(KAlSi_3O_8),$ epidote (Ca₂Al₃Si₃O₁₂[OH]). Based on the reactions between these minerals, it is possible to estimate the volatility of carbon dioxide and water.

 $1. \quad 3CaAl_2Si_2O_8 + CaSiO_3 + CO_2 = Ca_3Al_6Si_6O_{24}*[CaCO_3] + SiO_2 \text{ (estimation of } f_{CO2})$

2. $CaSiO_3 + CO_2 = CaCO_3 + SiO_2$ (estimation of f_{CO2})

3. $3CaAl_2Si_2O_8 + CaSiO_3 + H_2O = 2Ca_2Al_3Si_3O_{12}[OH] + SiO_2$ (estimation of f_{H2O})

4. 3CaAl_2Si_2O_8 + CaCO_3+ H_2O=2Ca_2Al_3Si_3O_{12}[OH]+CO_2 (estimation of $f_{\rm H2O}/$ $f_{\rm CO2})$

To calculate the composition of the fluid, the following assumptions are made:

- the fluid consists mainly of gases of the C-O-H system (CO₂, CO, CH₄, H₂, H₂O, O₂)

- fluid components behave as fully mobile;

- minerals are in equilibrium with the fluid phase;

- the properties of a complex fluid are described by a model of an ideal mixture of real gases.

The following reactions are used (silicate-carbonate parageneses):

 $CaSiO_3 + CO_2 = CaCO_3 + SiO_2$ (estimation of carbon dioxide fugacity)

Considering the presence of carbon (graphite) – it is common in metamorphic rocks – gas equilibria can be calculated:

 $CO_2 + C = 2CO$ (estimation of carbon dioxide fugacity)

 $CO + \frac{1}{2} O_2 = CO_2$ (estimation of oxygen potential).

Next, a system of 3 equations is solved:

$$2H_2O + C = CH_4 + C$$

$$H_2 + \frac{1}{2}O_2 = H_2O$$

 $X(CO_2)+X(CH_4)+X(H_2O)+X(CO)+X(H_2)=1$

This system is best solved by an iterative method using a computer. As a result of calculations, we obtain the mole fractions of gases in the fluid.

To calculate the composition of fluids, one can also use the parageneses of metapelitic (highalumina) metamorphic rocks: garnet + biotite + feldspar + sillimanite + quartz + magnetite + graphite.

The following calculation is used:

2. $Al_2SiO_5(sillimanite) + 2SiO_2 + Fe_3O_4(magnetite) = Fe_3Al_2Si_3O_{12}(garnet) + \frac{1}{2}(O_2)$ (estimation of f_{O2});

3. $H_2O = H_2 + \frac{1}{2}O_2$ (estimation of f_{H_2});

4. $2H_2 + C = CH_4$ (estimation of f_{CH4});

5. solving a system of 2 equations (for known values f_{H2O} , f_{O2} , f_{H2} , f_{CH4}) :

 $C + \frac{1}{2}O_2 = CO$

 $CO+\frac{1}{2}$ $O_2 = CO_2$ taking into account the balance equation $X(CO_2)+X(CH_4)+X(H_2O)+X(CO)+X(H_2)=1$ the composition of the gaseous components of the fluid can be obtained.

Conclusions

1. The rates of ion exchange reactions depend on the concentration of reagents, temperature and pressure. In addition, the dependence of the ion exchange rate on the coordination of an isomorphic atom was shown experimentally.

2. The intervals of application of various equilibria for mineral genesis temperature estimates are shown.

3. The method of studying fluid inclusions in minerals makes it possible to determine the parameters of mineral genesis based on fluid samples directly captured during mineral formation.

4. This method makes it possible to estimate the density of the fluid, its composition and, in correlation with the methods of mineral thermometry, provide information on the actual conditions for the formation of minerals and their associations.

5. The possibility of calculating the compositions of the mineral-forming fluid based on the mineral – fluid equilibria, in combination with the TP-measurement of mineral equilibria, is shown.

6. Complex approach to the assessment of TPXparameters of mineralogenesis makes it possible to determine the physicochemical conditions for the formation of various endogenous rocks. Determining the TPX-parameters of petrogenesis is extremely important for assessing the boundary conditions for conducting experiments.

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Shornikov S.I.¹, Yakovlev O.I.¹, Minaev O.I.² Thermodynamic properties of the Na₂O– Al₂O₃ melts.

¹V. I. Vernadsky Institute of Geochemistry & Analytical Chemistry RAS, Moscow (<u>sergey.shornikov@gmail.com</u>)
²Rambler Group, Moscow

Abstract. Within the framework of the developed semiempirical model, the calculations were made of thermodynamic properties of the Na₂O–Al₂O₃ melts in the temperature region 1200–2500 K. The calculated values of the oxide activities and the mixing energies of melts are compared with available information.

Keywords: thermodynamic properties of oxide melts, evaporation, the $Na_2O-Al_2O_3$ system.

The study of the evaporation of the Na₂O–Al₂O₃ of melts is of interest for understanding the abnormally low volatility of sodium oxide in the processes of melt evaporative differentiation (Yakovlev et al., 1997). In this regard, the thermodynamic properties of refractory sodium aluminates (NaAlO₂, Na₂Al₁₂O₁₉ and NaAl₁₁O₁₇) and their melts at high temperatures (more than 1800 K) are of particular importance. In addition to the listed sodium aluminates, Na₅AlO₄, Na₇Al₃O₈, Na₁₇Al₅O₁₆ and NaAl₅O₈ are mentioned in the literature (Zintl, Morawietz, 1938; Thery, Briancon, 1962; Barker et

al., 1981, 1984). The phase diagram of the $Na_2O-Al_2O_3$ system is presented in Fig. 1. It based on the results of reviews (Lambotte, Chartrand, 2013; Utlak, Besmann, 2019), although there are other versions of this diagram (Pratskova, Tyurin, 2013).

According to Galakhov (1985), the differences in the variants of phase diagram of the Na₂O-Al₂O₃ system are due to methodological errors arising due to the peculiarities of the physicochemical properties sodium aluminates (in particular, of the chemisorption nature of the absorption of external gases by sodium aluminates, which leads to the formation of impurity compounds). It is possible that these circumstances explain the discrepancies in the definitions of the melting temperature of sodium aluminate NaAlO₂: 1923±20 K (Matignon, 1923), 2123±30 K (Schairer, Bowen, 1956), 2140±6 K (Weber, Venero, 1970).

The available experimental physico-chemical information is limited to few and contradictory studies of phase diagram (Weber, Venero, 1970) and the thermodynamic properties of NaAlO₂, as well as some compositions of the Na₂O-Al₂O₃ system (mainly by the EMF method) in the temperature range not exceeding 1300 K. The data obtained are considered in detail in theoretical reviews (Eriksson et al., 1993; Witthohn et al., 1997; Besmann, Spear, Yazhenskikh et al., 2006; Lambotte, 2002; Chartrand, 2013; Utlak, Besmann, 2019). The evaporation of NaAlO2 at 1280-1640 K was studied by the Knudsen effusion mass spectrometric method (Popkov, Semenov, 1971) and the temperature dependence of the $p_{\rm Na}$ partial pressure over the compound was determined. Petric and Chatillon (2000) used the same method to determine the Na₂O activities in the region of compositions close to corundum at 1573 K.



Fig. 1. The phase diagram of the Na₂O–Al₂O₃ system (Lambotte, Chartrand, 2013; Utlak, Besmann, 2019). List of symbols: $1 - \alpha$ -Na₂O + γ -NaAlO₂; $2 - \alpha$ -Na₂O + liquid; $3 - \gamma$ -NaAlO₂ + liquid; $4, 5 - \delta$ -NaAlO₂ + β -Na₂Al₁₂O₁₉; $7 - \delta$ -NaAlO₂ + β -Na₂Al₁₂O₁₉; $7 - \delta$ -NaAlO₂ + β ''-Na₂Al₁₂O₁₉; $8 - \gamma$ -NaAlO₂ + β ''-Na₂Al₁₂O₁₉; $9 - \beta$ ''-Na₂Al₁₂O₁₉ + NaAlO₁₁O₁₇; $10 - \beta$ -Na₂Al₁₂O₁₉ + liquid; $11 - NaAl_{11}O_{17}$; $12 - NaAl_{11}O_{17} + Al_{2}O_{3}$; $13 - Al_{2}O_{3} + liquid$; 14 - liquid

The results of calculations of oxide activity and mixing energy in the Na₂O-Al₂O₃ glasses at 1073 and 1473 K, performed by Besmann and Spear (2002) are shows in Fig. 2. They characterize the behavior of the mentioned sodium aluminates. The tendency to increase the mixing energy in the melts with increasing temperature corresponds to the accepted by Bale et al. (2016) of negative values of the enthalpies and entropies of the formation of NaAlO₂, Na₂Al₁₂O₁₉ and NaAl₁₁O₁₇ from oxides (Fig. 2b). However, the position of the minimum mixing energy does not correspond to the NaAlO₂ composition, as follows from the same data (Bale et al., 2016). Theoretical studies carried out by Eriksson et al. (1993), Yazhenskikh et al. (2006), Lambotte and Chartrand (2013) and Utlak and Besmann (2019) were devoted to the calculation of the phase diagram of the system and did not deal with the thermodynamic properties of sodium-aluminum melts.

The oxide activities and mixing energies in the Na₂O–Al₂O₃ melts at 1200–2500 K were calculated at the present study. The used semi-empirical model was described in detail earlier (Shornikov, 2019). The initial data for thermodynamic calculations were the accepted values (Bale et al., 2016) on the standard Gibbs energies of formation (ΔG°) of simple oxides (Na₂O and Al₂O₃) and sodium aluminates (Na₅AlO₄, NaAlO₂, Na₂Al₁₂O₁₉ and $NaAl_{11}O_{17}$) in the crystalline and liquid state, as well as information (Glushko et al., 1978-1982) on possible equilibria in the gas phase over the melt involving atomic and molecular forms (Na, Na₂, NaO, Na₂O, Na₂O₂, Al, AlO, Al₂O, AlO₂, Al₂O₂, Al₂O₃, O, O₂, O₃ and O₄). The ΔG° values of condensed phases and vapor species of the gas phase over the melt were used to find equilibrium conditions at a given melt composition and temperature.



Fig. 2. The Na₂O (1–4) and Al₂O₃ (5, 6) activities (a) and the mixing energy (7–9) (b) in the Na₂O–Al₂O₃ melts at 1073 (3, 5, 7), 1450 (1, 4, 6, 9), 1473 (8) and 1573 (2) K, determined experimentally: 1 (Witthohn et al., 1997) and 2 (Petric, Chatillon, 2000), as well as calculated: 3, 5, 7, 8 (Besmann, Spear, 2002) and at the present study (4, 6, 9).

As follows from Fig. 2, the results of calculations of the oxide activities in the Na₂O–Al₂O₃ system at 1450 K performed at the present study correspond to those accepted by Witthohn et al. (1997) on the basis of experimental data (Elrefaie, Smeltzer, 1981, 1984; Rog, Kozlowska-Rog, 1982; Rog et al..., 1983; Kale, Jacob, 1989; Jacob et al., 1991; Kale, 1992). They were obtained by the EMF method for compositions close to Na₂Al₁₂O₁₉ and NaAl₁₁O₁₇. The calculation results do not contradict the data obtained by Petric and Chatillon (2000). Typical changes in the concentration dependences of Na₂O and Al₂O₃ activities in melts at 1450 K indicate the position of the liquid corresponding to the phase diagram (Fig. 1). The mixing energy minimum value is in the region of compositions close to the NaAlO₂ compound and is equal to -77 kJ/mol. The Na₂O and Al₂O₃ activity values in the Na₂O–Al₂O₃ melts increase at 2300 K (Fig. 3a) at corresponding increase in the minimum mixing energy in the melt to -60 kJ/mol (Fig. 3b).



Fig. 3. The Na₂O (1, 2) and Al₂O₃ (3, 4) activities (a) and the mixing energy (5, 6) (b) in the Na₂O–Al₂O₃ melts at 1073 (1, 3), 1473 (5) and 2300 (2, 4, 6) K calculated by: 1, 3, 5 (Besmann, Spear, 2002) and at the present study (2, 4, 6).



Fig. 4. The temperature dependences of the $p_{\rm Na}$ partial pressure over Na₂O (1) and NaAlO₂ (2, 3) are determined by: 1 – according to thermochemical data (Glushko et al., 1978–1982); 2 – the Knudsen effusion mass spectrometric method (Popkov, Semenov, 1971) and 3 – calculated at the present study.

The calculated atomic sodium partial pressures over the NaAlO₂ sodium aluminate, as follows from Fig. 4, correspond satisfactorily to the experimental data obtained by the Knudsen effusion mass spectrometric method (Popkov, Semenov, 1971). Comparison of the $p_{\rm Na}$ partial pressures over sodium oxide with those over the NaAlO₂ sodium aluminate (Fig. 4) shows its excess by 10³ times, which probably causes the low volatility of sodium oxide in the processes of the melt evaporative differentiation.

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Shornikov S.I.¹, Slobodov A.A.² Thermodynamic properties of the K₂O – Al₂O₃ melts.

 ¹ V. I. Vernadsky Institute of Geochemistry & Analytical Chemistry RAS, Moscow, (sergey.shornikov@gmail.com)
 ² Saint Petersburg State Institute of Technology, St. Petersburg

Abstract. Within the framework of the developed semiempirical model, the calculations were made of thermodynamic properties of the $K_2O-Al_2O_3$ melts in the temperature region 1200–2500 K. It is shown that at 2300 K, the mixing energies of potassium–aluminum melts are minimal in a number of other aluminate melts ($Na_2O-Al_2O_3$, CaO-Al_2O_3, MgO-Al_2O_3, SiO_2-Al_2O_3, TiO_2-Al_2O_3 and FeO-Al_2O_3).

Keywords: thermodynamic properties of oxide melts, evaporation, the Na₂O–Al₂O₃ system.

The relative volatility of alkaline oxides (Na₂O and K₂O) during the melt evaporation is the subject of numerous geochemical and cosmochemical studies. The results of studies of evaporative differentiation of melts under the action of high-speed impact (Yakovlev et al., 1988) are shows the relative content of alkalis in the melt can both increase and decrease depending on the initial content of silicate and aluminate parts in the melt (Fig. 1).

The study of the thermodynamic properties of the K₂O–Al₂O₃ system is of particular interest both for understanding the abnormally low volatility of potassium oxide in the processes of melt evaporation, and for solving technical problems of hightemperature corrosion in the MHD generator operations. The existence of refractory potassium aluminates - KAlO₂, K₂Al₁₂O₁₉ and KAl₉O₁₄ has been established in the K₂O-Al₂O₃ system, but information is quite contradictory. Thus, according to the data obtained by Roth (1980) and Moya et al. (1982), the KAlO₂ melting point is above 2500 K. It seems to be an overestimated value compared to the one accepted by Glushko et al. (1982), equal to 1986±10 K. Variants of the K₂O-Al₂O₃ phase diagram are presented in Fig. 2 based on the reviews (Kim et al., 2018; Nekhoroshev, 2019; Utlak, 2019) and (Eliezer, Howald, 1978; Schamm et al., 1990). In addition to the listed potassium aluminates, K₅AlO₄ and K₃AlO₃ are mentioned in (Bon et al., 1974). They dissociate at low temperatures.



Fig. 2. The phase diagram of the $K_2O-Al_2O_3$ system: (a) – according to Kim et al. (2018), Nekhoroshev (2019) and Utlak (2019), and (b) – according to Eliezer and Howald (1978) and Schamm et al. (1990). List of symbols: $1 - K_2O + KAlO_2$; 2, $3 - KAlO_2 + liquid$; $4 - KAlO_2 + KAl_9O_{14}$; $5 - KAlO_2 + K_2Al_{12}O_{19}$; $6 - K_2Al_{12}O_{19}$ (solid solution); $7 - K_2Al_{12}O_{19} + KAl_9O_{14}$; $8 - KAl_9O_{14}$ (solid solution); $9 - KAl_9O_{14} + Al_2O_3$; $10 - KAlO_2 + KAl_9O_{14} + liquid$; $11 - Al_2O_3 + liquid$; 12 - liquid.



Fig. 3. The temperature dependences of the $p_{\rm K}$ partial pressure over K₂O (1), K₂Al₁₂O₁₉ (2, 4) and KAl₉O₁₄ (3, 5) are determined by: 2 and 3 – the Knudsen effusion mass spectrometric method (Plante et al., 1975) and 1, 4, 5 – calculated at the present study.



Fig. 4. The K₂O (1–3) and Al₂O₃ (4, 5) activities (a) and the mixing energy (6, 7) (b) in the K₂O–Al₂O₃ melts at 1450 (1, 2, 4, 6) and 2300 (3, 5, 7) K, determined experimentally: 1 (Witthohn et al., 1997), as well as calculated at the present study (2–7).

The available physicochemical data on the compounds and the K₂O–Al₂O₃ melts are reviewed in (Glushko et al., 1982; Berezhnoy, 1988; Eriksson et al., 1993; Witthohn et al., 1997; Yazhenskikh et al., 2006; Bale et al., 2016). The evaporation of compositions close to K₂Al₁₂O₁₉ and KAl₉O₁₄ was studied by the Knudsen effusion mass spectrometric method at 1273–1773 K and the temperature dependences of the $p_{\rm K}$ partial pressures (Fig. 3) were determined (Plante et al., 1975).

The oxide activities and mixing energies in the K₂O-Al₂O₃ melts at 1200-2500 K were calculated at the present study. The used semi-empirical model was described in detail earlier (Shornikov, 2019) The initial data for thermodynamic calculations were the standard Gibbs energies of formation (ΔG°) of simple oxides (K₂O and Al₂O₃) and potassium aluminates (K₅AlO₄, KAlO₂, K₂Al₁₂O₁₉ and KAl₉O₁₄) in the crystalline and liquid state (Beyer et al., 1980; Glushko et al., 1982; Bennington, Daut, 1988; Bale et al., 2016), as well as information on possible equilibria in the gas phase over the melt involving the vapor species (K, K₂, KO, K₂O, K₂O₂, Al, AlO, Al₂O, AlO₂, Al₂O₂, Al₂O₃, O, O₂, O₃, O₄ and KAlO). Thermodynamic data characterizing the KAlO vapor specie were taken from (Farber et al., 1986). The ΔG° values of condensed phases and the vapor species of the gas phase over the melt were used to find equilibrium conditions for a given melt composition and temperature.

The results of calculations of the oxide activities in the $K_2O-Al_2O_3$ system at 1450 K correspond to those accepted by Witthohn et al. (1997) on the basis of experimental data (Itoh, Kozuka, 1988; Kale, Jacob, 1989) obtained by the EMF method for the KAl₉O₁₄ compound (Fig. 4a). The minimum value of the mixing energy in the $K_2O-Al_2O_3$ system is close to the KAlO₂ composition and is equal to -95 kJ/mol (Fig. 4b). The K₂O and Al₂O₃ activities in the K₂O–Al₂O₃ melts at 2300 K are increase (Fig. 4a) and we can see a corresponding increase in the mixing energy minimum in the KAlO₂ melt to -65 kJ/mol (Fig. 4b).

The calculated atomic potassium partial pressures over the $K_2Al_{12}O_{19}$ and KAl_9O_{14} potassium aluminates (Fig. 3) correspond satisfactorily to the experimental data obtained by the Knudsen effusion mass spectrometric method (Plante et al., 1975). The partial pressures of the KAIO vapor specie over the $K_2O-Al_2O_3$ melts are increase significantly with temperature increasing, however do not exceed 3.5×10^{-9} atm at 2300 K.



Fig. 5. The mixing energy in the aluminate melts at 2300 K: FeO-Al₂O₃ (1), TiO₂-Al₂O₃ (2), SiO₂-Al₂O₃ (3), MgO-Al₂O₃ (4), CaO-Al₂O₃ (5), Na₂O-Al₂O₃ (6) and K_2O -Al₂O₃ (7).

Comparison of mixing energies in the binary aluminate melts at 2300 K shows the minimum values for alkaline systems in the following series: FeO-Al₂O₃ (Shornikov, 1997), TiO₂-Al₂O₃ (Shornikov, Shornikova, 2018), SiO₂-Al₂O₃ (Shornikov, Archakov, 2000), $MgO-Al_2O_3$ (Shornikov, 2018), CaO-Al_2O_3 (Shornikov et al., 1997), Na₂O-Al₂O₃ and K₂O-Al₂O₃ (Fig. 5).

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Voronin M.V., Osadchii E.G., Brichkina E.A., Osadchii V.O. The thermodynamic properties of krennerite (AgAu₄Te₁₀ or AgAu₃Te₈): EMF method with solid electrolyte Ag₄RbI₅. D.S. Korzhinskii Institute of Experimental Mineralogy of Russian Academy of Sciences: brichkina@iem.ac.ru

Abstract. For the first time, the thermodynamic properties of krennerite (AgAu₄Te₁₀ and AgAu₃Te₈) were determined. The calculations of the thermodynamic functions were made from the temperature dependence of the electromotive force (EMF). The measurements were carried out in the field of Ag-Au-Te system by the method of EMF in a completely solid-state electrochemical cell with a common gas space:

 $\begin{array}{l} (-) \mbox{ Pt} | \ C_{(graphite)} | \ Ag | \ RbAg_4I_5 | \ Te, \ AuTe_2, \ AgAu_4Te_{10} \\ (AgAu_3Te_8) | \ C_{(graphite)} | \ Pt \ (+) \\ that \ corresponds \ the \ next \ virtual \ chemical \ reaction: \\ Ag + 2Te + 4AuTe_2 = \ AgAu_4Te_{10} \\ or \\ Ag + 2Te + 3AuTe_2 = \ AgAu_3Te_8. \end{array}$

The temperature range of measurements is 332 K – 485 K and the atmospheric pressure of pure argon. The standard thermodynamic properties of krennerite at standard pressure 1 bar (10⁵ Pa) have the next values: $\Delta_r G^0 = -96.11 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$; $S^0 = 724.4 \text{ J} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1} \cdot \text{K}^{-1}$; $\Delta_r H^0 = -97.08 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ for AgAu₄Te₁₀ composition and $\Delta_r G^0 = -78.91 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$; $S^0 = 582.7 \text{ J} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1} \cdot \text{K}^{-1}$; $\Delta_r H^0 = -78.46 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ for AgAu₃Te₈ composition.

Keywords: $AuTe_2$, calaverite, $AgAu_4Te_{10}$ ($AgAu_3Te_8$), krennerite, electromotive force method, Ag-Au-Te system.

Introduction

In crystallographic studies, krennerite has a chemical formula Au_{0.8}Ag_{0.2}Te₂ and belongs to orthorhombic system with space group Pma2 and lattice parameters a=1.658 nm; b=0.8849 nm; c=0.4464 nm (Pertlik, 1984), which corresponds to the composition AgAu₄Te₁₀. In mineralogical studies, natural krennerite has a variable composition with the same structural data and the mineral formula AgAu₃Te₈ (Dye and Smyth, 2012). But this composition is in disagreement with the phase relationships in the calaverite (AuTe₂)-krenneritesylvanite (AgAuTe₄) section of the Ag phase diagram Au-Te (Cabri, 1965), based on the composition of krennerite of AgAu₄Te₁₀. At the same time, the krennerite has a region of homogeneity that varies with temperature (Cabri, 1965), but the composition of AgAu₃Te₈ is realized only at the peritectic temperature of sylvanite. These contradictions were the reason that the obtained experimental results were recalculated for two compositions in this work.

Theoretical background

For the Gibbs energy of any compound formation it is necessary to get a EMF-temperature dependence of electrochemical reaction. For the different mineral formulas the electrochemical process can be written as follows:

 $Ag = Ag^{+} + e^{-}$ left electrode (reference system), $Ag^{+} + e^{-} + 2Te + 4AuTe_{2} = AgAu_{4}Te_{10}$ or $Ag^+ + e^- + 2Te + 3AuTe_2 = AgAu_3Te_8$ right electrode (sample system)

 $Ag + 2Te + 4AuTe_2 = AgAu_4Te_{10}$ total potential-forming reaction (R1a)

Ag + 2Te + 3AuTe2 = AgAu3Te8total potential-forming reaction (R1b).

The reaction (R1) was carried out in an electrochemical cell:

(-)Pt | C(graphite) | Ag | $RbAg_4I_5$ | Te, AuTe₂, AgAu₄Te₁₀ (AgAu₃Te₈) | C(graphite) | Pt(+)(A)

Experiment

Reagents. The next reagents were used for synthesis: powder from Te of zone melting (99.9999%), gold (99.99%), and 0.2 mm thick silver sheet (99.99%). The polycrystalline superionic RbAg₄I₅ (99.99%) was fabricated at the Institute for Microelectronics Technology and High-Purity Materials of the Russian Academy of Sciences (Chernogolovka).

Phase synthesis. Calaverite and krennerite were obtained by direct synthesis from the elements ("dry synthesis"). The reagents mixture was placed into a quartz glass ampoule that was pumped out to 0.15 Pa and evacuated in the flame of an oxygen burner. Then the substance was heated to melting in the flame of an oxygen burner. The resulting alloy was annealed in a horizontal resistance furnace at a temperature of 623 K during 5 days and cooled at air temperature.

The phase composition of the sample system before and after the experiment was confirmed by X-ray phase analysis: map #85-1310 for AuTe₂ (Schutte and De Boer, 1988) and map #75-1413 for AgAu₄Te₁₀ (AgAu₃Te₈) (Pertlik, 1984).

Electrode preparation. Inert electrodes were made from a graphite rod for spectral analysis with a diameter of 6 mm and were connected with a platinum wire. For the reference system electrode a silver pellet ~6 mm in diameter and 3 mm high was used.

A polycrystalline $RbAg_4I_5$ was used as a solid electrolyte. Approximately 0.4 grams of electrolyte powder were pressed at a load of 2.5 tons into a tablet 6 mm in diameter and 3 mm high.

For an electrode of the sample system, the AuTe₂ + AgAu₄Te₁₀ (AgAu₃Te₈) + Te mixture was ground (homogenized) together in an agate mortar and pressed under a load of 2.5 tons into a tablet with a diameter of \sim 6 mm and a height of 3–4 mm.

Galvanic cell device. The cell was assembled in a cell holder in the form of a quartz glass tube (internal

diameter ~ 6.1 mm). A detailed description of the experimental setup with solid electrolytes and the procedure for working are given in (Voronin, Osadchii, 2011). The measurements were carried out

in a flow of dry argon $(2-3 \text{ cm}^3 \cdot \text{min}^{-1})$ to prevent oxidation of cell parts.

Results

The experimental values of E(T) of cell (A) are shown in Figure 1.



E(T) dependence has the form of a smooth logarithmic curve:

 $E(A), mV = 157.48 + 1.8886 T - 0.25743 T \ln(T), (1)$ (332 < T/K < 485), k = 59, R² = 0.9896.

Table 2. Standard thermodynamic values of krennerite (different compositions) and auxiliary data for elements and $AuTe_2$ at 298.15 K and 1 bar pressure.

Substance	$\Delta_{\rm f} { m G}^{\circ}$ (kJ·mol ⁻¹)	${ m S^{\circ}} ({ m J} \cdot { m mol}^{-1} \cdot { m K}^{-1})$	$\Delta_{\rm f} {\rm H}^{\circ}$ (kJ·mol ⁻¹)	Reference
Ag	0	42.677	0	Barin, 1995
Au	0	47.497	0	_//_
Те	0	49.497	0	_//_
AuTe ₂	-17.194	141.712	-18.619	_//_
$AgAu_4Te_{10}$	-96.11	724.4	-97.08	reaction (R1a)
AgAu ₃ Te ₈	-78.91	582.7	-78.46	reaction (R1b)

Under the equation there are the measurement temperature range, the number of experimental E/T points (k) and the coefficient of determination (R2). Equation (1) was obtained from the results of 59 E/T points processing by the least squares method.

The next thermodynamic functions can be determined from the temperature dependence of the EMF of the cell (A) using the basic equations of thermodynamics:

 $\begin{aligned} \Delta_{\rm r}G \ (J \cdot {\rm mol}^{-1}) &= -{\rm n}FE \times 10^{-3} \\ \Delta_{\rm r}S \ (J \cdot {\rm K}^{-1} \cdot {\rm mol}^{-1}) &= {\rm n}F \cdot ({\rm d}E/{\rm d}T) \times 10^{-3} \\ \Delta_{\rm r}H \ (J \cdot {\rm mol}^{-1}) &= -{\rm n}F \cdot [E - ({\rm d}E/{\rm d}T) \cdot T] \times 10^{-3} \end{aligned}$

where n = 1 is the number of electrons involved in the reaction (R1), F= 96485.33289 C·mol⁻¹ is the Faraday constant, and E is the EMF value in millivolts.

Using auxiliary data for elements and calaverite taken from (Barin, 1995) (Table 2), the standard thermodynamic properties of krennerite formation from elements at 1 bar (10^5 Pa) pressure were calculated:

for $AgAu_4Te_{10}$: $\Delta_f G^0 = -96.11 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$; $S^0 = 724.4 \text{ J} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1} \cdot \text{K}^{-1}$; $\Delta_f H^0 = -97.08 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ and for $AgAu_3Te_8\Delta_f G^0 = -78.91 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$; $S = 582.7 \text{ J} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1} \cdot \text{K}^{-1}$; $\Delta_f H^0 = -78.46 \text{ kJ} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$.

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