Mid-course checkpoint

Week	Lect.	Date	Topic
1: Structure	1	25.2.	Structure of crystalline materials. X-ray diffraction. Symmetry.
	2	26.2.	Structural databases, visualization of crystal structures.
2: Bonding	3	4.3.	Bonding in solids. Description of crystal structures.
	4	5.3.	Band theory. Band structures.
3: Synthesis	5	11.3.	Solid state synthesis. Phase diagrams.
	6	12.3.	High-pressure synthesis, crystal growth, thin films.
4: Characterization	7	18.3.	XRD, Miller indices. Powder XRD databases. Microscopies
	8	19.3.	Spectroscopies and thermal analysis.
5: Main groups	9	25.3.	Abundance of elements, geochemistry, minerals.
	10	26.3.	Main group compounds, allotropes, Zintl phases.
6: d-block metals	11	1.4.	d-block metals, ligand field theory, magnetism.
	12	2.4.	d-block metal oxides and other compounds.
7: Specialized topics I	13	15.4.	Defects, non-stoichiometric oxides.
	14	16.4.	Semiconductors, doping, electrical properties.
8: Specialized topics II	15	23.4.	Tuesday. Layered compounds, intercalation chemistry, diffusion in solids.
	16	24.4.	Wednesday. Summary of all course topics. Project work checkpoint.

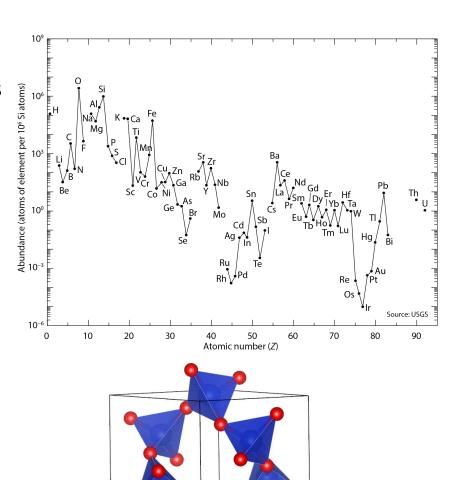
Lecture 9: Geochemistry, minerals

Geochemistry

- The origin and abundance of elements
- Goldchmidt classification
- Geophysical exploration

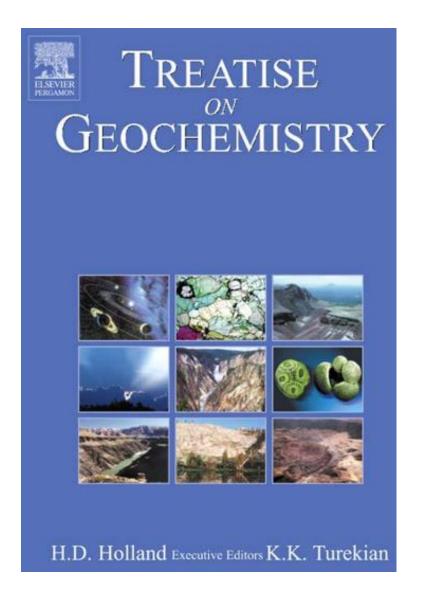
Minerals

- Systematic classification
- Silicates
- Aluminosilicates
- Hardness as an example of a physical property

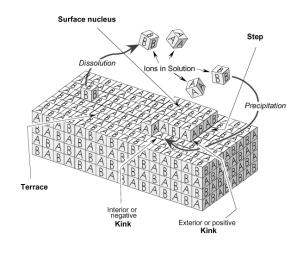


Figures: AJK

Literature



Some Fundamentals of Mineralogy and Geochemistry Link



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A web-based document for public use available at www.gly.uga.edu/railsback/FundamentalsIndex.html

The origin of chemical elements

- Big Bang nucleosynthesis (H, He, some Li)
- Stellar nucleosynthesis
 - Elements up to Ni are created by fusion reactions (see Table below)
- Elements heavier than iron are created by neutron and proton capture processes
 - Supernova nucleosynthesis and merging neutron stars (ongoing research!)

Table 1 Hydrostatic nuclear burning stages in massive stars. The table gives burning stages, main and secondary products (ashes), typical temperatures and burning timescales for a $20M_{\odot}$ star, and the main nuclear reactions. An ellipsis (\cdots) indicates more than one product of the double carbon and double oxygen reactions, and a chain of reactions leading to the buildup of iron group elements for silicon burning.

Fuel	Main products	Secondary products	T (10^9 K)	Duration (yr)	Main reaction
Н	Не	¹⁴ N	0.037	8.1×10^{6}	$4H \rightarrow {}^{4}He (CNO cycle)$
Не	O, C	¹⁸ O, ²² Ne	0.19	1.2×10^{6}	$3^4 \text{He} \rightarrow {}^{12}\text{C}$
	,	s-Process			$^{12}\text{C} + ^{4}\text{He} \rightarrow ^{16}\text{O}$
C	Ne, Mg	Na	0.87	9.8×10^{2}	$^{12}\text{C} + ^{12}\text{C} \rightarrow \cdots$
Ne	O, Mg	Al, P	1.6	0.60	$^{20}\text{Ne} \rightarrow {}^{16}\text{O} + {}^{4}\text{He}$
					20 Ne + 4 He \rightarrow 24 Mg
O	Si, S	Cl, Ar,	2.0	1.3	$^{16}O + ^{16}O \rightarrow \cdots$
		K, Ca			
Si	Fe	Ti, V, Cr,	3.3	0.031	28 Si $\rightarrow ^{24}$ Mg $+ ^{4}$ He \cdots 28 Si $+ ^{4}$ He $\rightarrow ^{24}$ Mg \cdots
		Mn, Co, Ni			$^{28}\text{Si} + ^{4}\text{He} \rightarrow ^{24}\text{Mg} \cdots$

Main origin of chemical elements

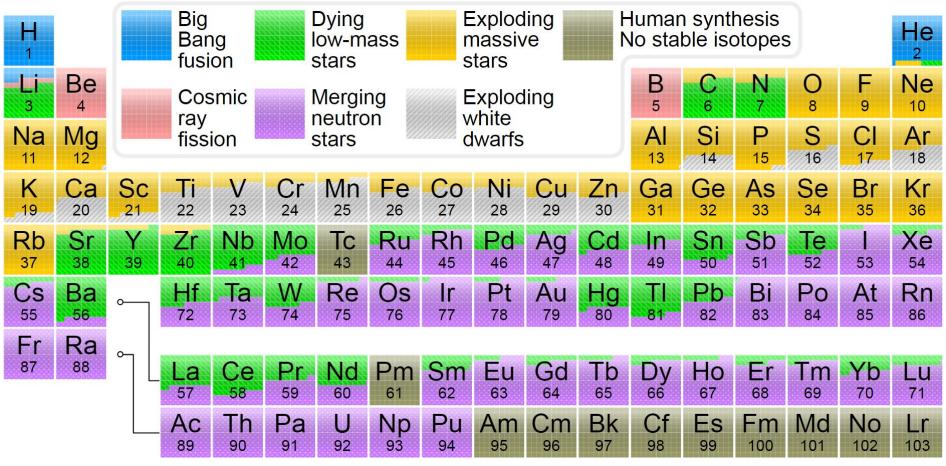


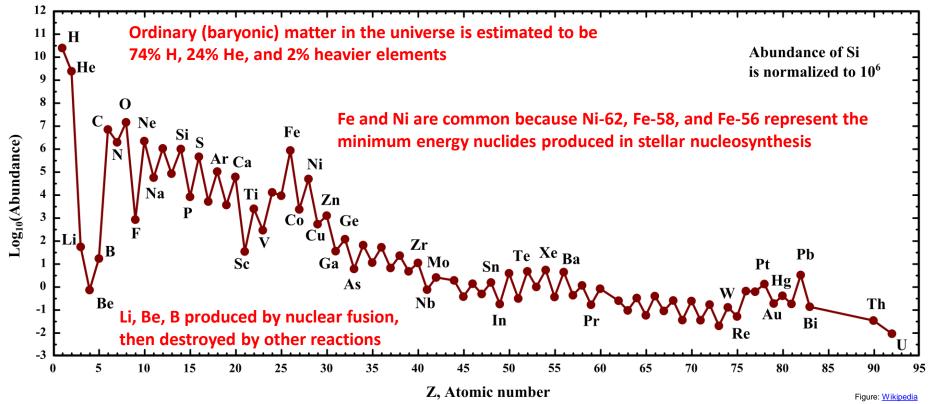
Figure: Wikipedia

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stellar_nucleosynthesis

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Supernova nucleosynthesis

http://blog.sdss.org/2017/01/09/origin-of-the-elements-in-the-solar-system/

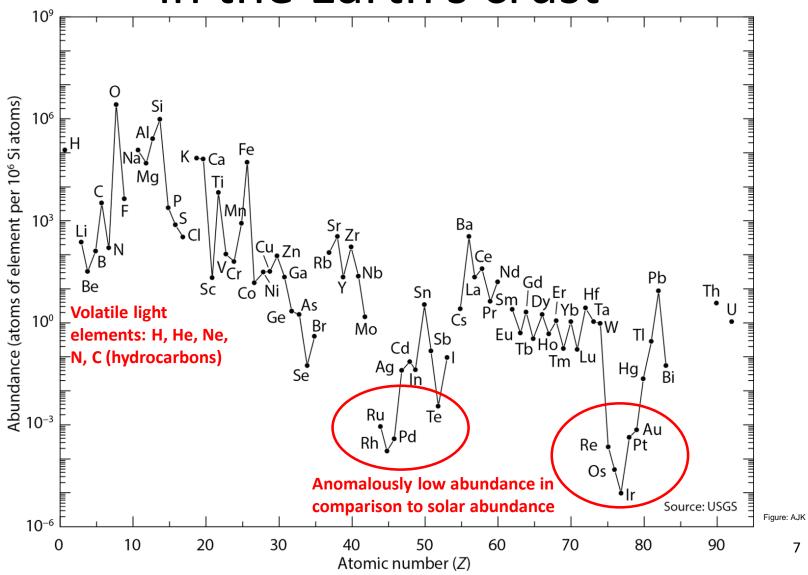
Abundances of the elements in the Solar system



Two general trends:

- An alternation of abundance in elements as they have even or odd atomic numbers (the Oddo-Harkins rule, arises from the details of the helium burning process)
- 2. A decrease in abundance as elements become heavier

Abundances of the elements in the Earth's crust



Abundan	ce and form	of the most	t abundant	elements in	Earth's continental crust.	Shannon ionic radii: $O^{2-} = 140 \text{ pm}$		
Order of abundance	Element	Weight % in crust	Molar % in crust	Volume % in crust	Typical natural form o	Si ⁴⁺ = 40 pm		
1	Oxygen	46.3	60.2	94.2	O ²⁻ in minerals and H ₂ O; small amoun	at as elemental O2 in atmosphere		
2	Silicon	28.2	20.8	0.8	Almost all as Si4+ in silicate minerals; some as H4SiO4 in seawater			
3	Aluminum	8.1	6.2	0.4	Almost all as Al ³⁺ in minerals			
4	Hydrogen	0.1	2.9	-	Almost all as H ⁺ in H ₂ O, OH ⁻ in minerals, and HCO ₃ ⁻			
5	Sodium	2.4	2.2	1.1	All as Na ⁺ , largely in minera	lls but also in seawater		
6	Calcium	4.1	2.1	1.2	All as Ca2+, largely in minera	als but also in seawater		
7	Iron	5.4	2.0	0.4	Mostly as Fe ²⁺ and F	e ³⁺ in minerals		
8	Magnesium	2.3	2.0	0.3	All as Mg ²⁺ , largely in miner	als but also in seawater		
9	Potassium	2.1	1.1	1.5	All as K ⁺ , largely in mineral	ls but also in seawater		
10	Titanium	0.5	0.2	0.04	Almost all as Ti ⁴⁺	in minerals		
11	Phosphorous	0.1	0.1	0.002	Mostly as P5+ in pho	sphate (PO ₄ ³⁻)		
12	Fluorine	0.06	0.07	0.1	All as F ⁻ , largely in mineral	s but also in seawater		
13	Carbon	0.02	0.04	0.0003	Range of valence state	es from 4- to 4+		
14	Manganese	0.1	0.04	0.007	Mostly as Mn ²⁺ , Mn ³⁺ , an	nd Mn ⁴⁺ in minerals		
15	Sulfur	0.03	0.02	0.004	Almost all as S ⁶⁺ in sulfate (S	SO_4^{2-}) or S^{2-} in sulfides		

Percentages are calculated from data for average continental crust in Appendix III of Krauskopf (1979). For a more recent but less complete compilation, see Taylor and McLennan (1985) The abundances of the first fifteen elements listed add up to 99.77 molar % of average crust. Gold is included solely to allow comparison of these 15 most abundant elements to a very scarce element. Volume percent for oxygen in boldface illustrates the paraphrase by Mason (1958) of the words of Viktor Goldschmidt that "the lithosphere may well be called the oxysphere".

8

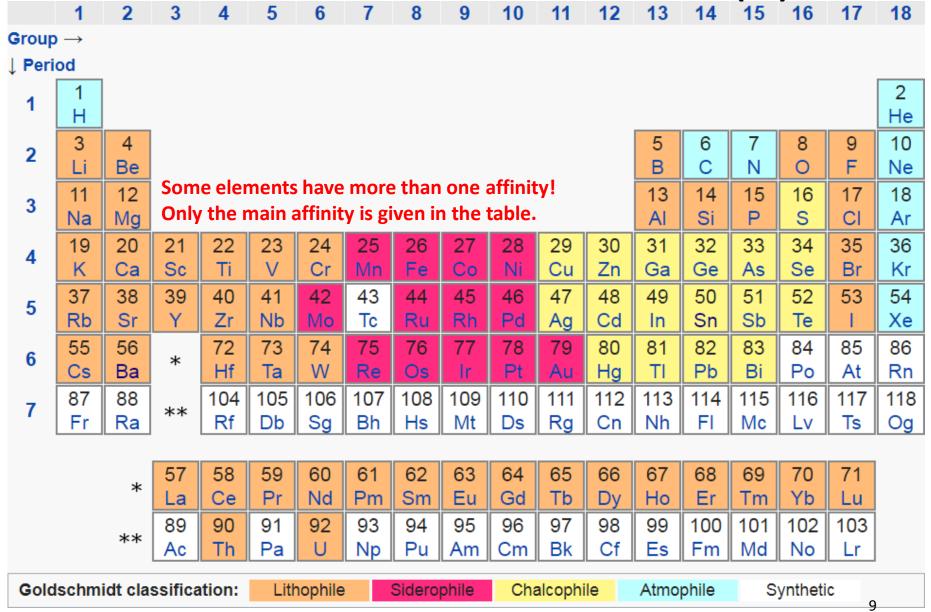
As Au⁰ and Au⁺

≥73

Gold

0.0000003 0.00000003

Goldschmidt classification (1)



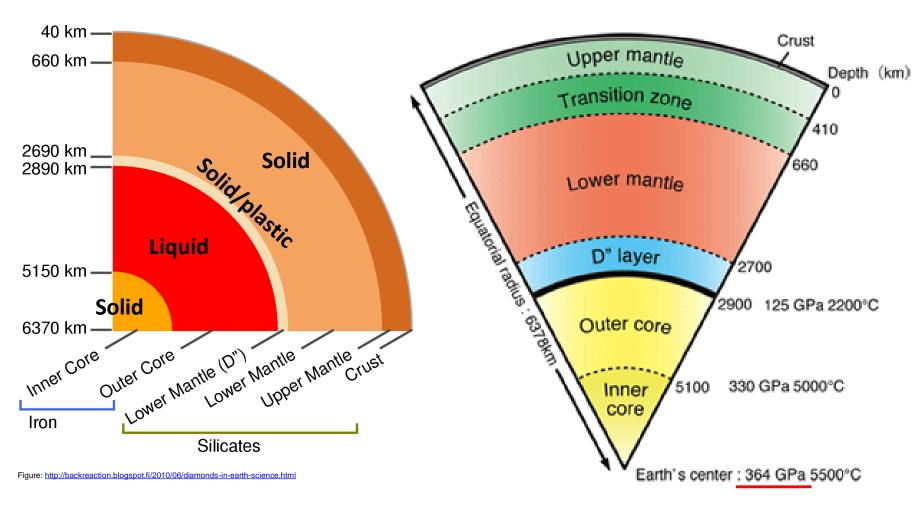
Goldschmidt classification (2)

- **Lithophile** = rock-loving elements
 - Remain on or close to the surface because they combine readily with oxygen, forming compounds that do not sink into the core
 - The strong affinity for oxygen causes them to associate very strongly with silica, forming relatively low-density minerals that thus float to the crust
 - Many lithophile metals are of considerable value as structural metals (magnesium, aluminium, titanium, vanadium), but the process of smelting these metals is *extremely energy-intensive*
- **Siderophile** = iron-loving elements
 - High-density transition metals which tend to sink into the core because they dissolve readily in iron either as solid solutions or in the molten state
 - Many siderophile elements have very small affinity for oxygen (e.g. gold)
 - Form stronger bonds with carbon or sulfur, but even these are not strong enough to separate out with the chalcophile elements
 - Include technologically highly important precious metals

Goldschmidt classification (3)

- Chalcophile = chalcogen-loving / ore-loving elements
 - Remain on or close to the surface because they combine readily with sulfur and/or some other chalcogen other than oxygen, forming compounds which do not sink into the core
 - Sulfides are much denser than the silicate minerals formed by lithophile elements and chalcophile elements separated below the lithophiles at the time of the first crystallisation of the Earth's crust
 - Because the minerals they form are nonmetallic, this depletion has not reached the levels found with siderophile elements
 - Chalcophiles can be easily extracted by reduction with coke
- Atmophile = gas-loving (volatile) elements
 - Remain mostly on or above the surface because they are, or occur in, liquids and/or gases at temperatures and pressures found on the surface
 - Strongly depleted on earth as a whole relative to their solar abundances owing to losses from the atmosphere during the formation of the Earth
 - Carbon: CO, CO₂, hydrocarbons

Structure of Earth



Example: graphite-diamond phase transition occurs at ~130 km depth for *T* = 800°C

Geophysical exploration

- Seismic methods
 - Example: Reflection seismology
 - When a seismic wave travelling through the Earth encounters an interface between two materials with different acoustic impedances, some of the wave energy will **reflect** off the interface and some will **refract** through the interface
 - Seismic source: dynamite, seismic vibrator ("thumper truck")
- Geodesy and gravity techniques
- Magnetic techniques (e.g. aeromagnetic surveys)
- Electrical and electromagnetic techniques
 - Magnetotellurics
 - Electrical resistivity tomography
 - Ground-penetrating radar
- The brute-force approach: drill a hole and explore what comes out (next slide)

Kola Superdeep Borehole

- Drilling began in 1970, reached 12 262 meters in 1989
 - Abandoned in 2006
 - Mariana Trench: 10 994 m
- Site of fascinating geophysical discoveries, but actually reached only 1/3 of the estimated thickness of the Baltic continental crust (35 km)



The borehole, welded shut



Accessibility and supply of elements (1)

1 H			u	Remainir Intil depl	etion o	f	75.5-50 years 2000									He He	
1.00794	4	1	known reserves (based on current rate of			10000	years see				5	6	7	8	9	4.002602	
Li	Be			extraction)			50	0-100	year	S		В	С	N	0	F	Ne
6.941	9.012182			5-50 y	ears				•			10.811	12.0107	14.00674	15.9994	18.99840	20.1797
11	12			50-100 years			10	0-500) vea	rs		13	14	15	16	17	18
Na	Mg			100-500	years							Al	Si	Р	S	CI	Ar
22.98977	24.3050		L		•	l						26.98153	28.0855	39.97376	32.066	35.4527	39.948
19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33 contr	34	35	36
K	Ca	Sc	Ti	V	Cr	Mn	Fe	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se	Br	Kr
39.0983	40.078	44.95591	47.867	50.9415	51.9961	54.93804	55.845	58.93320	58.6934	63.546	65.39	69.723	72.61	74.92160	78.96	79.904	83.80
37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45 modeli	46	47 (11/11)	48	49	50	51	52	53	54
Rb	Sr	Υ	Zr	Nb	Мо	Tc	Ru	Rh	Pd	Ag	Cd	ln .	Sn	Sb	Te	100	Хe
85.4678	87.62	88.9085	91.224	92.90638	95.94	(98)	101.07	102.9055	106.42	107.8682	112.411	114.818	118.760	121.760	127.60	126.9044	131.29
55	56	57	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86
Cs	Ba	La *	Hf	Та	W	Re	Os	lr 🦠	Pt	Au	Hg	TI	Pb	Bi	Ро	At	Rn
132.9054	137.327	138.9055	178.49	180.9479	183.84	186.207	190.23	192.217	195.078	196.9665	200.59	204.3833	270.2	208.9804	(209)	(210)	(222)
87	88	89	104	105	106	107	108	109	110	111	112	113	114	115	116	117	118
Fr	Ra	Ac‡	Rf	Db	Sg	Bh	Hs	Mt	Ds	Rq	Uub	Uut	Uuq	Uup	Lv	Uus	Uuo
(223)	226.025	(227)	(257)	(260)	(263)	(262)	(265)	(266)	(271)	(272)	(285)	(284)	(289)	(288)	(292)		

	58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70	71
Lanthanides *	Ce	Pr	Nd	Pm	Sm	Eu	Gd	Tb	Dy	Но	Er	Tm	Yb	Lu
	140.9077	144.24	(145)	150.36	151.964	157.25	158.9253	158.9253	162.50	164.9303	167.26	168.9342	173.04	174.967
	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	100	101	102	103
Actinides ‡	Th	Pa	U	Np	Pu	Am	Cm	Bk	Cf	Es	Fm	Md	No	Lr
	232.0381	231.0289	238.0289	(237)	(244)	(243)	(247)	(247)	(251)	(252)	(257)	(258)	(259)	(262)

Accessibility and supply of elements (2)

- The crustal abundance of elements is not equal to their accessibility
 - Elements are not equally distributed throughout the Earth
- Some elements have been declared to be <u>Critical Raw Materials</u> (CRM) by EU
- For example, supply Rare Earth Elements are often discussed as critical in supply
 - For REE, it is actually a question of supply and demand
 - Currently, China is producing them cheaply enough
 - If the price increases, known locations can be opened in US, Canada, ...
- So far, new supply of elements has always emerged when the price has been right
- The key question is, should we really push to find more elements at any cost?
 - Environmental problems become more severe as previously inaccessible resources are being utilized
 - Minerals are one of the most important reasons to human conflicts (e.g. Democratic Republic of the Congo)
 - It's foolish to use easily accessible resources for non-recyclable use-oncethrow-away consumer goods and leave no reserves for the future
- Possible remedies: 1) Plan the use of resources in a better way; 2) improve recycling/re-use; 3) substitute CRMs with new functional materials
 - All these tasks require chemists and materials scientists!

Minerals

- 1995 definition of a mineral from The International Association of Minerals (IMA):
 - "A mineral is an element or chemical compound that is normally crystalline and that has been formed as a result of geological processes"
- More detailed (and controversial) definition (Tasa 2007):
 - Naturally occurring
 - 2. Stable at room temperature
 - 3. Represented by a chemical formula (note: many are solid solutions!)
 - 4. Usually abiogenic (not resulting from the activity of living organisms)
 - 5. Ordered atomic arrangement
- IMA has approved over 5400 minerals (2019)



Mineral-related databases

- IMA Database of Mineral Properties: http://rruff.info/ima/
 - For instructions, see MyCourses -> Databases -> IMA cocumentation
- The RRUFF™ Project: http://rruff.info
 - Integrated database of Raman spectra, X-ray diffraction and chemistry data for minerals (> 20 000 Raman spectra)
 - For instructions, see MyCourses -> Databases -> RRUFF documentation
- American Mineralogist Crystal Structure Database (AMSCSD)
 - Over 4000 crystal structures
 - Shortcut to all structures: http://rruff.geo.arizona.edu/AMS/all_minerals.php
- Minerals are a popular topic and hence Wikipedia is also an excellent resource
 - https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Category:Minerals by crystal system

Minarala aspaiating		A table of sys	tematic mine	alogy I: basic categories				
Minerals consisting of uncharged atoms (i.e., in elemental state)	Minerals cons bonded to	sisting of cations single anions os or complex ions)	Minerals consisting of cations bonded to negatively-charged radical groups (i.e., to complex ions like CO ₃ ²⁻ or AsS ₃ ²⁻)					
		Fluorides Fluorite (CaF ₂)	Fluosalts:	Fluoborates Ferruccite (NaBF ₄) Fluosilicates Hieratite (K ₂ SiF ₆)	negative charge in mineral comes from halide anions			
	Halides	Chlorides Halite (NaCl)		char	gauve cnarge neral comes fr halide anions			
	("Group VII -ides") (and thus minerals with 1- anions)	Bromides Bromargyrite (AgBr) Iodides Iodargyrite (AgI)	Silicates form 90% of the Earth's crust					
Native elements		Oxides Hematite (Fe ₂ O ₃)	Oxysalts:	Silicates Borates Chromates Carbonates Nitrates Phosphates Sulfates Vanadates Arsenates Selenates Arsenites Antimonates Tellurates Iodates Calcite (CaCO ₃)	Negative charge in mineral comes from anions of Group VI elements. For more, see "Radical groups in minerals".			
Sulfur (S) Diamond (C) Copper (Cu)	"Group VI -ides" (and thus minerals with 2- anions)	Sulfides Galena (PbS)	Sulfosalts:	Sulfarsenates Sulfovanadates Sulfogermanates Sulfarsenites Sulfantimonates Sulfantimonites Sulfostannates Sulfobismuthites	narge in mine roup VI elem cal groups in			
		Selenides Achavalite (FeSe)	Seleniosalts:	Selenioantimonates Seleniobismuthites Permingeatite (Cu ₃ SbSe ₄)	alive cl ns of G "Radi			
		Tellurides Altaite (PbTe)	Tellurisalts:	Telluribismuthites Volynskite (AgBiTe ₂)	anioi set			
		Nitrides Osbornite (TiN) Phosphides Barringerite (Fe,Ni) ₂ P Arsenides Löllingite (FeAs ₂) & Bismuthides Sobolevskite (PdBi) Carbides Moissanite (SiC) Silicides Gupeiite(Fe ₃ Si)	abundant mi	A bit of the periodic table: A bit of the periodic table: A bit of the periodic table: B C N O F Ne Al Si P S Cl Ar Ge As Se Br Kr Sn Sb Te I Xe Pb Bi Po At Ra	regative charge in mineral comes from anions of Group IV and V elements			

This table does not show hybrid categories that would include minerals like brenkite $(Ca_2CO_3F_2)$ or kermesite (Sb_2S_2O) . It also does not show H⁺-bearing minerals; their inclusion would best be shown with a third dimension leading to hydroxides, bicarbonates, bisulfates, etc.

LBR SystematicMinTable10, 11/2007

Minerals consisting	A table of sys	ematic mineralogy II: redox implications						
of uncharged atoms (i.e., in elemental state)	Minerals consisting of cations bonded to single anions (no radical groups or complex ions)	Minerals consisting of cations bonded to negatively-charged radical groups (i.e., to complex ions like CO ₃ ²⁻ or AsS ₃ ²⁻)						
	Fluorides Fluorite (CaF ₂)	Fluosalts: Fluoborates Ferruccite (NaBF ₄) Hieratite (K ₂ SiF ₆)						
	Halides ("Group VII -ides") (and thus minerals with 1- anions) Chlorides Halite (NaCl) Bromides Bromargyrite (AgBr) Iodides Iodargyrite (AgI)	Formation of the halide minerals is indifferent to redox conditions, because the Group VII elements involved have one, or essentially only one, valence state (-1). ("Essentially only one" is required because iodine <i>can</i> also form iodate minerals).	Negative charge in mineral comes from halide anions					
Native elements	Oxides Formation of these Hematite (Fe ₂ O ₃) minerals requires at least somewhat oxi because elements involved (e.g., C, N, reduced valence states as alternatives. T commonly form in near-Earth-surface	Phosphates Tantalates Iodates Tellurites Tellurites Tellurites	neral comes VI elements					
Sulfur (S) Diamond (C) Copper (Cu) Formation of these	"Group VI -ides" Galena (PbS) (and thus minerals	Sulfosalts: Sulfosalts: Sulfostannates Sulfostannat	Negative charge in mineral comes from anions of Group VI elements					
minerals typically requires intermediate or	with 2- anions) Selenides Achavalite (FeSe)	Seleniosalts: Selenioantimonates Seleniobismuthites Permingeatite (Cu ₃ SbSe ₄)						
reducing redox conditions, because all elements that	Tellurides Altaite (PbTe)	Tellurisalts: Telluribismuthites Volynskite (AgBiTe ₂)	Ne					
	"Group V -ides" (and thus minerals with 3- anions) Antimonides & Bismuthides Sobolevskite (PdBi) "Group IV -ides" (and thus minerals with 4- anions) Nitrides Osbornite (TiN) Phosphides Barringerite (Fe,Ni) ₂ P Arsenides Cillingite (FeAs ₂) Carbides Moissanite (SiC) Silicides Gupeiite(Fe ₃ Si)	Formation of these minerals requires reducing conditions, because elements involved (e.g., C, N, P, S, As, Se, Sb) have more oxidized valence states as alternatives. For example, most nitride, phosphide, carbide, silicide, etc. minerals are known largely or only from meteorites, cosmic dust, or deep-earth samples. Likewise, many sulfides and sulfosalts are known from ore deposits that formed at depth rather than at the Earth's surface.						

The characterizations above are only generalizations about entire classes of minerals. For example, siderite (Fe²⁺CO₃) requires somewhat reducing conditions to form, whereas molysite (Fe³⁺Cl₃) would likely form in oxidizing conditions.

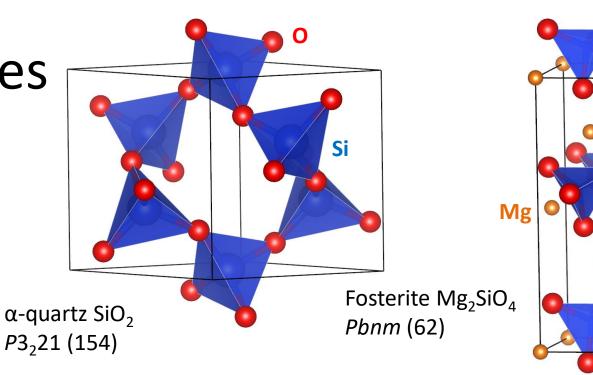
A table of systematic mineralogy IV: numbers of minerals

Minerals consisting		natio initioralogy ivi iraniboro of initioralo				
of uncharged atoms (i.e., in elemental state)	Minerals consisting of cations bonded to single anions (no radical groups or complex ions)	Minerals consisting of cations bonded to negatively-charged radical groups (i.e., to complex ions like CO ₃ ²⁻ or AsS ₃ ²⁻)				
	Halides ("Group VII -ides") (and thus minerals with 1- anions) Halides ("Group VII -ides") (and thus minerals with 1- anions) Halite (NaCl) Bromides Bromargyrite (AgBr) Iodides Iodargyrite (AgI)	Fluosalts: 6 Fluosilicates Ferruccite (NaBF ₄) Hieratite (K ₂ SiF ₆)	Negative charge in mineral comes from halide anions			
Native elements	Oxides Hematite (Fe ₂ O ₃)	Oxysalts: Silicates Vanadates Arsenates Sulfites Borates Chromates Selenates Arsenites Carbonates Niobates Antimonates Selenites Nitrates Molybdates Tellurates Antimonites Phosphates Tantalates Iodates Tellurites Sulfates Tungstates Calcite (CaCO3)	nes ents			
Sulfur (S) Diamond (C) Copper (Cu)	"Group VI -ides" (and thus minerals with 2- anions) Sulfides Galena (PbS) 138	Sulfosalts: Sulfoyanadates Sulfosalts: Sulfogermanates Sulfarsenites Sulfantimonates Sulfantimonites Sulfostannates Sulfobismuthites Sulfosalts: Sulfobismuthites Sulfosalts: Sulfobismuthites	charge in m ons of Group			
Only 31 elements occur as native minerals. The number above includes	Selenides Achavalite (FeSe) Tellurides	Seleniosalts: Selenioantimonates Seleniobismuthites Permingeatite (Cu ₃ SbSe ₄) Tellurisalts: Volynskite	Negative from ani			
polymorphs (e.g., diamond, graphite, chaoite, and lonsdaleite) and naturally occurring alloys.	"Group V -ides" Nitrides (and thus minerals with 3- anions) Altaite (PbTe) Nitrides Osbornite (TiN) Phosphides Barringerite (Fe,Ni) ₂ P Arsenides Löllingite (FeAs ₂) 21	Number of minerals known in each category The number shown for oxides does not include minerals that are solely hydroxides. The numbers shown here can be taken at face value as an indication that there	Negative charge in mineral comes from anions of Group IV and V elements			
Room for update!	Antimonides & Bismuthides Sobolevskite (PdBi) "Group IV -ides" (and thus minerals with 4- anions) Table 14100 minerals had been been formally recognized	The numbers shown here can be taken at face value as an indication that there are more oxysalt and oxide minerals than any other kinds. That would not be surprising, given that oxygen is the most abundant element in Earth's crust. Alternately, the numbers shown here can be taken to reflect the greatest human access to oxidizing environments at Earth's surface, and our inability to sample the reducing environments in Earth's deep interior to any significant extent.				

As of 2004, a total of about 4100 minerals had been been formally recognized by the International Mineralogical Association. For the list, see Mandarino, J.A., and Back, M.E., 2004, Fleischer's Glossary of Mineral Names: Tuscon, The Mineralogical Record Inc., 309 p.

LBR SystematicMinTable10 11/2007 21

Silicates



Ref: West p. 81

Table 1.27 Relation between chemical formula and silicate anion structure

	Number o	f oxygens per Si		
Si:O ratio	Bridging	Non-bridging	Type of silicate anion	Examples
1:4	0	4	Isolated SiO ₄ ⁴ -	Mg ₂ SiO ₄ olivine, Li ₄ SiO ₄
1:3.5	1	3	Dimer Si ₂ O ₇ 6-	Ca ₃ Si ₂ O ₇ rankinite, Sc ₂ Si ₂ O ₇ thortveite
1:3	2	2	Chains $(SiO_3)_n^{2n-}$	Na ₂ SiO ₃ , MgSiO ₃ pyroxene
			Rings, e.g. $Si_3O_9^{6-}$	CaSiO ₃ ^a , BaTiSi ₃ O ₉ benitoite
			$Si_6O_{18}^{12-}$	Be ₃ Al ₂ Si ₆ O ₁₈ beryl
1:2.5	3	1	Sheets $(Si_2O_5)_n^{2n-}$	Na ₂ Si ₂ O ₅ "Tectosilicates", Quartz family +
1:2	4	0	3D framework	SiO_2^b aluminosilicates: 75% of the crust

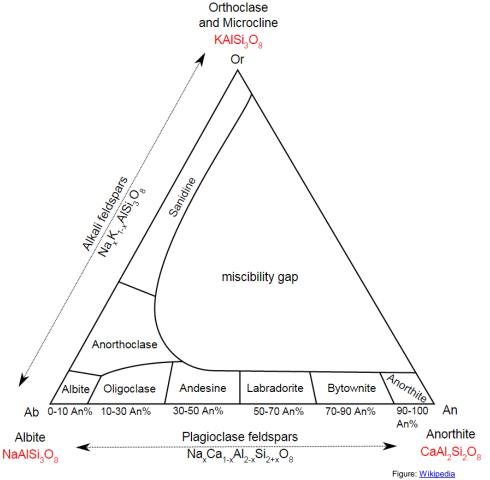
 $[^]a$ CaSiO $_3$ is dimorphic. One polymorph has Si $_3$ O $_9^{6-}$ rings and the other has infinite (SiO $_3$) $_n^{2n-}$ chains.

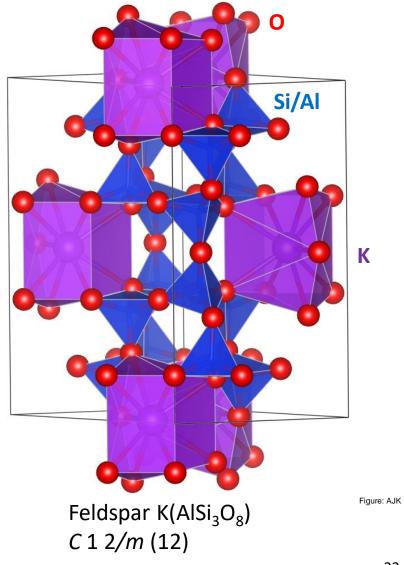
Figures: AJK

^bThe three main polymorphs of silica, quartz, tridymite and cristobalite, each have a different kind of 3D framework structure.

Aluminosilicates: Feldspars

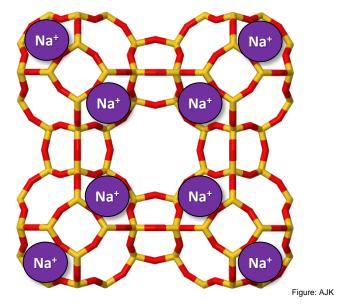
 By far the most abundant group of minerals in the earth's crust, forming about 60% of terrestrial rocks





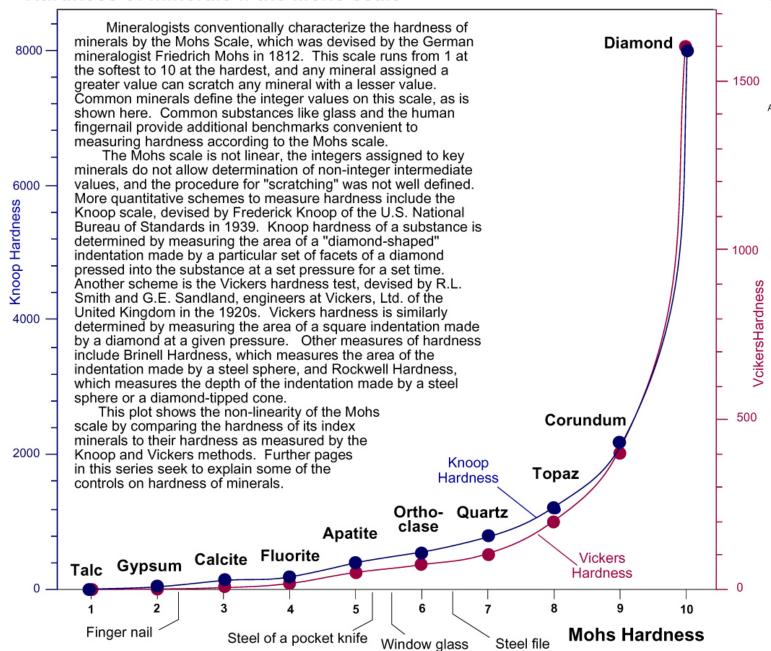
Aluminosilicates: Zeolites

- Microporous aluminosilicate minerals
 - Cronstedt 1756: heating *stilbite*,
 NaCa₄(Si₂₇Al₉)O₇₂·28(H₂O), produced steam
 - $Z\dot{e}\bar{o}$ -> to boil
 - Líthos -> rock
- Can be considered as molecular sieves, with actual industrial applications in:
 - lon-exhange (e.g. water purification and softening)
 - Catalysis (e.g. In petrochemical industry)
- http://www.iza-structure.org/databases/
- http://www.hypotheticalzeolites.net/

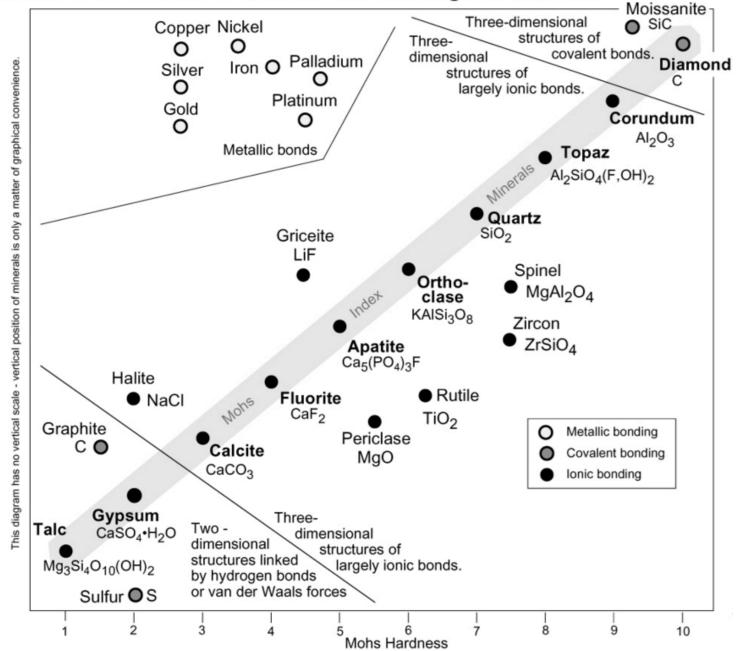


LTA zeolite (Pm-3m) [$Na_{12}(H_2O)_{27}]_8[Al_{12}Si_{12}O_{48}]_8$

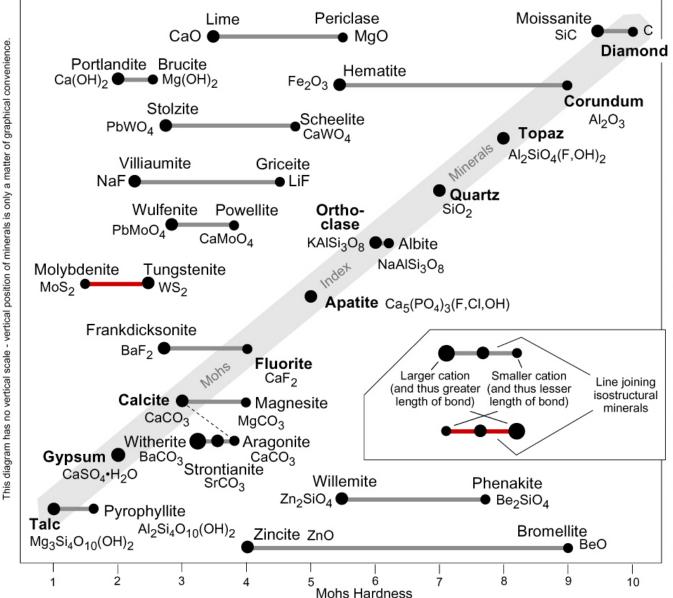
Extra slides: Hardness of minerals



Hardness of minerals II: variation with bonding and structure



Hardness of minerals IVa: variation with bond length and cation size

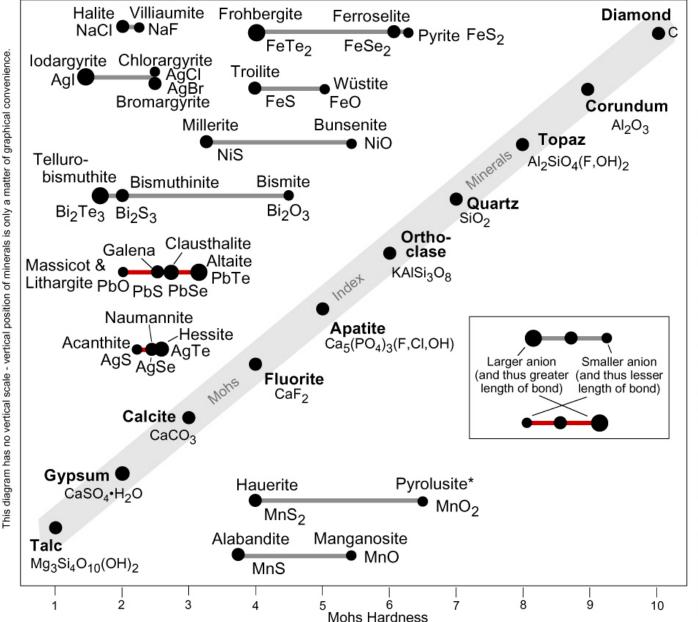


One control on hardness of a mineral is the length of bonds within that mineral. To illustrate this point, this diagram shows pairs or sets of isostructural minerals. In almost all of the examples shown on this diagram, minerals with larger cations, and thus greater bond lengths, are softer than their counterparts with smaller cations and thus shorter bonds. Much the same point can be made with regard to anion size, as is shown in Part IVb of this series.

One pair of isostructural minerals shown here, the one joined by a red line, has hardnesses opposite the pattern described above. Those minerals are molybdenite and tungstenite, the sulfides of the relatively soft cations Mo4+ and W4+. Bonding in these two minerals may be sufficiently covalent, and bonding in tungstenite more covalent, that the more covalent bond causes greater hardness of tungstenite. The same sort of trend can be seen with regard to Ag⁺ and Pb²⁺ minerals in Part IVb of this series.

Hardness data are from Nickel, E.H., and Nichols, M.C., 1991, Mineral Reference Manual: New York, Van Nostrand Reinhold, 250 p.

Hardness of minerals IVb: variation with bond length and anion size



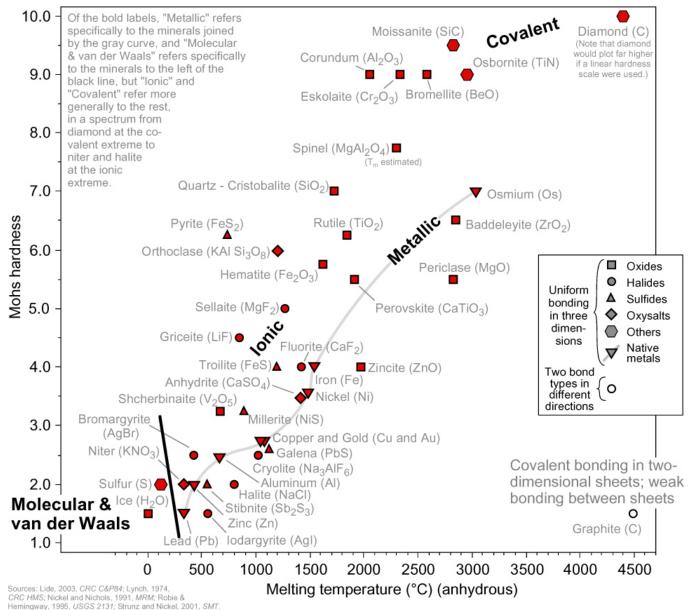
One control on the hardness of a mineral is the length of bonds within that mineral. To illustrate this point, this diagram shows pairs of chemically analogous minerals that differ only in their anions. In most of the examples shown on this diagram (the ones joined by light gray lines), minerals with larger anions, and thus greater bond lengths, are softer than their counterparts with smaller anions and thus shorter bonds.

However, in two cases shown here (the ones joined by red lines), larger anions lead to harder minerals. These are the examples where soft cations, Ag⁺ and Pb²⁺, bond to 2- anions. In these cases, the bonds of soft cations to increasingly large and thus increasingly soft anions may lead to sufficiently covalent bonds to cause greater hardness of minerals.

Hardness data are from Nickel, E.H., and Nichols, M.C., 1991, Mineral Reference Manual: New York, Van Nostrand Reinhold, 250 p.

* The hardness of pyrolusite is commonly listed as 2, but that is the value for earthy masses of minute crystals. The hardness of a single crystal of pyrolusite is 6.5 (Gaines et al., 1997, *Dana's New Mineralogy:* New York, John Wiley & Sons, 1819 p.).

Melting temperature and hardness of minerals



The plot at left shows that there is a general correlation between melting temperature of minerals and their hardness. This relationship is most striking for the native metals, which are connected by a curve here. However, the correlation holds for all the minerals shown with filled symbols $(r^2 = 0.733)$.

The reason for this relationship is that both melting temperature (a measure of susceptibility to thermal destruction) and hardness (a measure of susceptibility to mechanical destruction) depend on bond strength. Minerals with three-dimensional frameworks of covalent bonds have great hardness and high melting temperatures: diamond is the ultimate example. At the other extreme. minerals of molecules held together by weak bonds like van der Waals forces (for sulfur) and hydrogen bonds (the molecular bond for ice) have low hardness and melting temperature.

Graphite falls off this trend, for good reason. Its strong covalent bonds in two dimensions preclude disintegration and melting except at extremely high temperature, but the weak bonds between sheets (i.e., in the third dimension) allow mechanical deformation that we recognize as a low hardness.

LBR HardnessMeltingPlot06 2/2008