# ISOTHERMAL MEASUREMENT OF HEATS OF HYDRATION IN ZEOLITES BY SIMULTANEOUS THERMOGRAVIMETRY AND DIFFERENTIAL SCANNING CALORIMETRY

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Abstract—A calorimetric method for determining isothermal partial and integral heats of hydration reactions ( $\Delta \vec{H}_{R,T,P}$  and  $\Delta \vec{H}_{R,T,P}$ , respectively) in zeolites and other mineral hydrates is presented. The method involves immersing a dehydrated sample in a humid gas stream under isothermal conditions within a thermal analysis device that records simultaneous differential scanning calorimetric (DSC) and thermogravimetric analysis (TGA) signals. Monitoring changes in sample mass (corresponding to extent of reaction progress) coincident with a quantitative measurement of heat flow allows for direct detection of  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,T,P}$  as a function of the extent of hydration, which can be integrated to determine  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,T,P}$ . In addition, it eliminates uncertainties associated with imprecise knowledge of the starting and final states of a sample during hydration. Measurement under isothermal conditions removes uncertainties associated with heat capacity effects that complicate interpretations of DSC measurements of dehydration heats conducted under traditional scanning temperature conditions. Example experiments on the zeolites natrolite, analcime and chabazite are used to illustrate strategies for quantifying  $\Delta \tilde{H}_{R,T,P}$  and  $\Delta \tilde{H}_{R,T,P}$  and minimizing errors associated with baseline uncertainties. Results from this method agree well with previously published values determined by other calorimetric techniques and regression of phase equilibrium data. In the case of chabazite, the results allowed detailed measurements of the variation in  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,T,P}$  for energetically different water types encountered progressively as the sample absorbed water. This technique complements and in many cases improves the quality of thermodynamic data obtained through phase equilibrium observations and other calorimetric techniques.

Key Words—Analcime, Calorimetry, Chabazite, Enthalpy, Hydration, Natrolite, Thermal Analysis, Thermodynamics, Zeolite.

#### INTRODUCTION

The capability of many natural and synthetic zeolites to undergo reversible hydration and dehydration is an essential aspect of their technological application and stability in natural and engineered systems. For instance, heat evolution during degassing and rehydration of zeolites is increasingly utilized in heat pump cycles for refrigeration and cooling applications (e.g. Boddenberg et al., 2002; Kasai et al., 1994; Petrova et al., 2001; Tchernev, 2001). Partial dehydration of zeolites also plays a critical role in their stability in geological and engineered environments (e.g. Bish et al., 2003a; Carey and Bish, 1996; Neuhoff and Bird, 2001; Neuhoff et al., 2000; Wilkin and Barnes, 1998). This is a critical concern in geological radioactive waste repositories in zeolite-rich rock units where equilibria between zeolites and water will play a large role in water heat budgets after waste burial (Bish et al., 2003b; Long and Ewing, 2004; Smyth, 1982). Consequently, there has been considerable interest in developing thermodynamic

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models of zeolite-water equilibria over the range of temperature and pressure encountered in these environments, particularly with respect to evaluating the heat (enthalpy) evolved during these reactions.

Thermodynamic data necessary to evaluate the hydration states and heats of hydration of zeolites at elevated temperatures and pressures are predominantly derived from: (1) observations of equilibria between zeolites and gaseous water as a function of temperature and water fugacity (e.g. Carey and Bish, 1996; Fridriksson et al., 2003; van Reeuwijk, 1974; Wilkin and Barnes, 1999); (2) calorimetric determinations of the heats of formation from heat of solution measurements and transposed temperature drop techniques (e.g. Johnson et al., 1982, 1991, 1992; Kiseleva et al., 1996a, 1996b, 1997, 2001; Ogorodova et al., 1996, 2002; Shim et al., 1999; Yang and Navrotsky, 2000; Yang et al., 2001); or (3) direct calorimetric determination of the heat of hydration or dehydration (e.g. Boddenberg et al., 2002; Carey and Bish, 1997; Drebushchak, 1999; Fridriksson et al., 2003; Gatta, 1985; Kasai et al., 1994; Mizota et al., 1995; Muller et al., 1998; Petrova et al., 2001). Frequently, inconsistencies are encountered between studies, even on identical or very similar samples (Barrer and Cram, 1971; Bish and Carey, 2001). In part this can be attributed to different reference conditions for defining fully hydrated or dehydrated

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states, especially in systems where excess heats of mixing are present (Bish and Carey, 2001). Resolution of these inconsistencies must rely upon careful accounting for sample water contents before, during and after experiments. While such knowledge is an inherent aspect of phase equilibrium studies, the procedural details of many calorimetric measurements precludes direct knowledge of the state of the sample through the whole measurement process. For example, sample hydration state is typically assessed ex situ before, and more rarely after, calorimetric experiments, and complete hydration is often assumed at the end of an experiment. Especially for slow reacting systems, the assumption of complete hydration may be erroneous.

Below we report initial results from a new gas absorption calorimetric technique that employs simultaneous measurement of calorimetric response by differential scanning calorimetry (DSC) and sample mass (taken to represent hydration state) by thermogravimetric analysis (TGA). This technique expands upon previous studies of heats of hydration or dehydration in zeolites and other solid hydrates by DSC and TGA techniques (Drebushchak, 1999; Gatta, 1985; Muller et al., 1998; Pires et al., 2000; van Reeuwijk, 1972) and allows for direct assessment of the hydration state of the sample prior to, after, and during the calorimetric measurement. Example measurements and strategies for interpretation are presented for two zeolites containing only one energetically distinct water site (analcime and natrolite) as well as one that contains multiple, energetically distinct sites (chabazite). The results presented below illustrate the utility of this technique for assessing both partial and integral heats of hydration, with special emphasis on obtaining quantitative heat determinations on samples that contain multiple water types and those that rehydrate slowly.

#### THEORY

Reversible hydration in zeolites coexisting with a gas phase (i.e. where all excess water is present as a vapor) can be represented by chemical equations of the form

$$
Z + nH_2O_{(v)} = Z \cdot nH_2O \tag{1}
$$

where  $Z \cdot nH_2O$  and Z represent the homologous hydrated and dehydrated forms, respectively, of a zeolite with an aluminosilicate framework and extraframework cation content Z and water content of n water molecules. The corresponding standard states for the zeolite endmembers in reaction 1 are unit activity at all temperatures and pressures for the pure phases with water content *n* (for  $Z \cdot nH_2O$ ) and in the homologous fully dehydrated state (for Z). The standard state for  $H_2O_{(v)}$  is unit fugacity of the pure gas at 1 bar and all temperatures.

The standard change in enthalpy across reaction 1 at temperature T and pressure P,  $\Delta H_{\text{R},T,P}^0$ , is given by

$$
\Delta H_{\rm R,T,P}^0 = \Delta H_{f(Z\cdot nH_2O),T,P}^0 - \Delta H_{f(Z),T,P}^0 - n\Delta H_{f(H_2O_{(v)}),T,P}^0
$$
\n(2)

where  $\Delta H^0_{f(i),T,P}$  is the standard enthalpy of formation of species  $i$  at  $T$  and  $P$ . The temperature dependence of  $\Delta H_{\text{R},T,1 \text{ bar}}^0$  is given by

$$
\Delta H_{\text{R},T,1 \text{ bar}}^0 = \Delta H_{\text{R},298.15 \text{ K},1 \text{ bar}}^0 + \int_{298.15}^T \Delta C_{P,\text{R},1 \text{ bar}}^0 dT \quad (3)
$$

where  $\Delta C_{P,\text{R, 1 bar}}^0$  is the standard change in heat capacity,  $C_P$ , across reaction 1. The variation in  $\Delta H_{R,T,P}$  as a function of progress of reaction 1 can be assessed by noting that this quantity represents the integral heat of reaction  $(\Delta \tilde{H}_{R,T,P})$  for complete hydration from an initially anhydrous state; the dependence of  $\Delta \tilde{H}_{R,T,P}$  on the extent of hydration is related to the partial molar enthalpy of reaction  $(\Delta \bar{H}_{R,T,P})$  by the relation

$$
\Delta \tilde{H}_{\mathrm{R},T,P} = \frac{1}{\Theta} \int_{0}^{\Theta} \Delta \bar{H}_{\mathrm{R},T,P} d\Theta \tag{4}
$$

where the integral is performed over the fractional water content,  $\Theta$ , which is equal to the number of water molecules per formula unit Z at the end of hydration divided by *n*. Note that  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,T,P}$  is often referred to as the differential heat of reaction by many authors (e.g. Gatta, 1985; Pires et al., 2000). For zeolites that contain only one energetically distinct water site, and in the absence of excess heats of mixing between  $Z$  and  $Z \cdot nH_2O$ , the quantities  $\Delta \tilde{H}_{R,T,P}$ ,  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,T,P}$ , and  $\Delta H_{R,T,P}^0$  are equal when normalized to the same number of water molecules.

Traditional measurements of the enthalpic properties of reaction 1 by DSC have employed dehydration experiments in which the sample is progressively heated at a constant rate (e.g. Drebushchak, 1999; van Reeuwijk, 1972). Typical results of such an experiment are shown in Figure 1 for the analcime sample used in this study, along with the simultaneously gathered TGA signal and its first derivative (dTGA). The broad endotherm apparent in the DSC signal in Figure 1



Figure 1. Simultaneously recorded thermogravimetric (TGA) and differential scanning calorimetric (DSC) signals for analcime as a function of temperature. The first derivative of the TG curve is given by the curve labeled dTGA. Data collected at a scanning rate of 15 K/min under ultra-pure  $N_2$ .

reflects the heat of dehydration (the inverse of  $\Delta H_{\text{R},T,P}^0$ for reaction 1). After caloric calibration, the area of this peak can be used to calculate the heat of dehydration (e.g. Drebushchak, 1999; van Reeuwijk, 1974). However, because dehydration proceeds over a protracted range of temperature in such experiments, the DSC signal contains contributions from not only the heat of reaction, but also  $C_P$  of the sample. As the stoichiometry of the sample changes progressively during dehydration, the  $C_P$  contribution to the DSC curve changes also. This introduces uncertainty in the location of the baseline used to calculate the integral (Muller et al., 1998). In addition, because these reactions are accompanied by a finite  $\Delta C_{P,\text{R,1}}$  bar that is typically on the order of  $\sim$ 4 $-25$  J/K (mole H<sub>2</sub>O) (Carey, 1993; Johnson et al., 1982, 1991, 1992), the heats of dehydration vary as a function of temperature. Heats of dehydration measured from scanning dehydration curves such as that shown in Figure 1 are thus averaged over the temperature range of the dehydration event.

An alternative approach is to measure heats of reaction isothermally, which eliminates complications associated with heat capacity effects (Muller et al., 1998). In this approach, the sample is maintained at a constant temperature of interest, and reaction is induced by changing the composition of the gas (i.e. changing the water-vapor pressure) within the DSC cell in order to induce hydration or dehydration. Under these conditions, the area of the DSC anomaly during uptake of water vapor is related only to the heat of hydration, as an essentially constant temperature is maintained by the furnace enclosing the sample. One complication is that the extent of reaction (i.e. the amount of water taken up by the sample) must be assessed independently. In some cases this has been accomplished by independent *(ex situ)* determinations of the sorption capacity at temperature (e.g. Muller et al., 1998). This technique only permits determination of the total integral heat of hydration. An alternative approach is possible in instruments with simultaneous TGA-DSC capabilities. In this case, the water uptake is monitored directly during the experiment by the TGA signal (e.g. Pires et al., 2000). This latter approach, which is employed in this study, provides considerably more information about the energetics of the hydration process.

### MATERIALS AND METHODS

# Materials and sample preparation

Experiments were conducted on phase pure samples of the natural zeolites natrolite, analcime and chabazite. The natrolite sample (NAT001 from Neuhoff et al., 2002) occurs as masses of white crystals filling veins in a metabasaltic tectonic inclusion at the Dallas Gem Mine, San Benito Co., California. The analcime sample (ANA002 from Neuhoff et al., 2003) is from a zeolitefacies metabasalt outcrop at Maniilat on the island of Qeqertarsuaq in West Greenland and prepared from a

1.5 cm euhedral crystal of opaque analcime. The chabazite sample (CHA003 from Neuhoff et al., 2003) occurs in a zeolite-facies metabasalt near Breiddalsheidi, eastern Iceland, as 1 to 2 cm penetration twins of pseudocubic chabazite.

Pure mineral separates were hand picked from slightly crushed megascopic mineral samples and then ground in an agate mortar. Sample purity was confirmed by X-ray powder diffraction (XRPD) and  $^{29}$ Si magic angle spinning nuclear magnetic resonance (MAS NMR) spectroscopy. Sample compositions (Table 1) were determined by electron probe microanalysis (EPMA) at Stanford University on an automated JEOL 733A electron microprobe (see Table 1 for analytical details).

Table 1. Compositions<sup>1</sup> (wt.%) of samples used in study.

	Analcime	Natrolite	Chabazite
SiO <sub>2</sub>	56.51	45.54	48.17
Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	22.09	26.45	22.27
Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	0.00	0.00	0.00
MnO	0.00	0.00	0.00
MgO	0.01	0.00	0.02
BaO	0.00	0.00	0.00
SrO	0.00	0.11	0.18
CaO	0.01	0.01	11.41
Na <sub>2</sub> O	13.54	15.94	0.69
K <sub>2</sub> O	0.00	0.00	0.66
Total	92.16	88.05	83.39
H <sub>2</sub> O	8.29	9.48	21.82
Formula units			
Si	2.05	2.97	7.75
A <sub>1</sub>	0.95	2.03	4.22
Fe	0.00	0.00	0.00
Mn	0.00	0.00	0.00
Mg	0.00	0.00	0.00
Ba	0.00	0.00	0.00
Sr	0.00	0.00	0.02
Ca	0.00	0.00	1.97
Na	0.95	2.02	0.22
K	0.00	0.00	0.14
$\overline{O}$	6.00	10.00	24.00
H <sub>2</sub> O	1.01	2.01	12.39
Si/Al	$2.17^{2}$	1.46	1.84
$\Sigma$ (2Ca+Na+K)	0.95	2.02	4.31

Sample compositions were determined by electron probe microanalysis (EPMA) at Stanford University on an automated JEOL 733A electron microprobe operated at 15 kV accelerating potential and 15 nA beam current. Calibration was conducted using natural geological standards. Beam widths were 30  $\mu$ m depending on grain size. Raw counts were collected for 20 s and converted to oxide weight percents using the CITZAF correction procedure after accounting for unanalyzed oxygen (Tingle  $et$  al., 1996).  $H<sub>2</sub>O$ contents determined by TGA.

Analysis of the framework content of this sample by  $29\text{Si}$ magic-angle spinning nuclear magnetic resonance spectroscopy (Neuhoff et al., 2003) indicates that the Si/Al ratio in this sample is 2.09; the composition listed in Table 3 is based on this value.

### Thermal analysis and calorimetry

Calorimetric experiments were conducted on a Netzsch STA 449C Jupiter simultaneous DSC-TGA apparatus. Gas flow was maintained at  $\sim$ 30 mL/min using mass flow controllers. All experiments were conducted in Pt-Rh crucibles with unsealed, perforated lids. Two types of experiments were conducted. The first consisted of standard dynamic heating thermal analysis from ambient temperature to 1023 K at 15 K/min. The second consisted of isothermal heat of absorption measurements. The typical temperature program for the latter measurements consisted of four steps: (1) an initial 15 K/min heating step in which the sample was completely dehydrated in the presence of dry, ultrapure  $N_2$ ; (2) cooling under dry gas to the experimental temperature; (3) equilibration (10-30 min) under dry gas at the experimental temperature until both the DSC and TGA baselines stabilized; and (4) introduction of humidity into the gas stream and reaction until the DSC and TGA baselines stabilized, signaling the end of reaction. Humidity was added to the gas stream during hydration by bubbling ultra-pure  $N_2$  gas through a saturated NaCl solution at room temperature. Mixing of a dry protective gas (introduced near the base of the microbalance) and the humidified gas into the sample chamber resulted in an average humidity of 11-14 mbar during hydration steps (humidity was monitored continuously on the gas stream exiting the system using a flow-through humidity meter manufactured by Sable Systems).

Temperature and caloric calibrations were conducted using data based on the DSC response of standard materials. A multipoint temperature calibration curve was developed using the melting points of  $H<sub>2</sub>O$ , Ga, In, Sn, Bi, Zn and Al along with the solid-solid transition points of CsCl and quartz (Cammenga et al., 1993; Gmelin and Sarge, 2000; Hohne et al., 1990; Sabbah et al., 1999). Due to the incompatibility of these materials with the Pt-Rh crucible used in the experiments, temperature calibration was conducted in identical crucibles lined with a sub-mm thick insert of alumina.



Figure 2. Simultaneously recorded TGA and DSC signals for natrolite as a function of temperature. Data collected at a scanning rate of 15 K/min under ultrapure  $N_2$ . See caption for Figure 1 for abbreviations.

Caloric calibration was accomplished by the heat-flow rate method (Gmelin and Sarge, 2000) using the DSC response of synthetic sapphire (Gmelin and Sarge, 2000; Sabbah et al., 1999; Sarge et al., 1994; Stolen et al., 1996). The background-corrected DSC response of a synthetic sapphire disc similar in mass to the experimental charges was measured at heating rates of 5, 10, 15 and 20 K/min over the range of temperatures encountered in this study. Caloric calibration factors calculated from results at each heating rate agreed within 1% and were a nearly linear function of temperature.

# RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### Natrolite

Each channel in natrolite contains two  $Na<sup>+</sup>$  ions and two water molecules with each cation site and each water site being symmetrically equivalent (e.g. Alberti and Vezzalini, 1981; Alberti and Vezzalini, 1983; Meier, 1960; Pechar et al., 1983). It thus appears likely that all water molecules in natrolite are energetically similar. This is consistent with observations from thermal analysis such as those shown in Figure 2; water loss from the sample is accompanied by only a single peak in both the DSC and dTGA signals. After an initial phase of gradual water loss, dehydration proceeds abruptly over a narrow range of temperature.

Figure 3 shows the results of an isothermal water vapor absorption experiment on dehydrated natrolite at 432 K. The natrolite sample was only heated to 673 K in order to avoid formation of the  $\beta$  phase of dehydrated natrolite that forms irreversibly at higher temperature (Baur and Joswig, 1996; van Reeuwijk, 1972, 1974). After equilibration of a dehydrated sample at temperature under dry  $N_2$  flow (signaled by a constant baseline for both the DSC and TGA signals shown in the gray region), the atmosphere was switched to a stream of humidified  $N_2$ . The total time lag between dehydration



Figure 3. Gas absorption calorimetric experiment on natrolite conducted at 432 K and 1300 mbar vapor pressure. The area of the figure encompassed by the gray box denotes initial equilibration of sample at experimental temperature under dry  $N<sub>2</sub>$ . The rest of the experiment was conducted in the presence of a flow of humidified  $N_2$ . See Figure 1 for explanation of the symbols.

and the start of rehydration was ~130 min. The sample immediately started to absorb water, which is manifested by abrupt changes in both the DSC and TGA signals. The TGA signal increases monotonically during hydration until leveling off after the reaction was complete. Total water uptake during the experiment was  $\sim 9.1\%$ , somewhat less than the ~10.5% expected for complete hydration. It is unclear to what extent this reflects the equilibrium water content of natrolite at this temperature and water-vapor pressure (both the water-vapor pressure, ~1200 mbar, and the total gas pressure, 1 bar, are well below the saturated vapor pressure at this temperature, ~6 bar) or a decrease in sorption capacity due to dehydration as noted in some zeolites (e.g. Fialips et al., 2005). The rate of absorption is reflected in the dTGA signal; in this case, the rate of mass change increases abruptly at the beginning of the experiment and then stays relatively constant until the reaction ceases. The relatively constant rate of hydration during the course of the experiment is suggestive of zero-order kinetics, as observed previously during hydration of this mineral (Otsuka et al., 1991). The behavior of the DSC signal mirrors that of the dTGA curve almost exactly, in this case decreasing abruptly due to the exothermic nature of the reaction (in fact, the temperature of the sample rises by 0.2-0.3 K during hydration), then staying relatively constant with some undulation until cessation of the reaction. Repeated cycling of the same sample through the dehydration and rehydration steps of this procedure led to a progressive decrease in sorption capacity.

The results shown in Figure 3 can be used to directly assess  $\Delta \tilde{H}_{R,T,P}$  (normalized to one mole of H<sub>2</sub>O absorption) from the area of the DSC peak  $(A; \text{ in } \mu\text{Vs})$ through the relation

$$
\Delta \tilde{H}_{\text{R},T,P}^0 = kA(\Delta m)^{-1} \text{ (MW}_{\text{H}_2\text{O})} \tag{5}
$$

where k is the caloric calibration factor (in  $W/\mu V$ ; note that this is already factored into the results shown in Figure 3),  $\Delta m$  is the mass change measured by TGA, and  $MW_{H_2O}$  is the molecular weight of water. The results of this calculation are shown in Table 2  $(-98.0 \pm 1.0 \text{ kJ/mol})$ along with various determinations of  $\Delta H_{R,TP}$  from the literature. It can be seen in Table 2 that data from this technique agree within error with those of Guliev et al. (1989) determined by immersion calorimetry at a similar temperature. Although the other values for  $\Delta \tilde{H}_{R,TP}$  listed in Table 2 were obtained at temperatures either significantly lower or higher than those in this study (and thus might be expected to deviate from our results and those of Guliev *et al.* (1989) if the heat capacity change across the reaction is non-negligible), all are similar in magnitude (and mostly within error) to the results from this study.

The striking similarity in curve shape between the DSC and dTGA signals in Figure 3 suggests that these signals are strongly correlated (in fact, linear regression of these two signals against each other produced an  $R^2$ value of 0.995). This suggests that  $\Delta H_{\rm R, T,P}$  and  $\Delta H_{\rm R, T,P}$ are insensitive to  $\Theta$  and should be similar in magnitude. Due to the fact that both the extent of reaction and the heat evolved during reaction are simultaneously recorded in this experiment, the data in Figure 3 can be used to directly assess  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,TP}$ . Figure 4 shows the total heat evolved during the course of the experiment as a function of mass absorbed; these data are linearly related  $(R^2$  indistinguishable from 1.0). The slope of the linear regression shown in Figure 4 represents the average  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,T,P}$  over the course of the experiment, and is in excellent agreement with  $\Delta H_{\text{R},T,P}$  (Table 2). Figure 5 shows  $\Delta H_{R,T,P}$  during the course of this

Composition	Method <sup>1</sup>	Temperature (K)	$\Delta H_{\rm R. T.P}$ (kJ/mol H <sub>2</sub> O)	
$(NaAl)_{2}Si_{2}O_{10}$ $2H_{2}O$	TTD	298.15	$-101.7\pm3.6^2$	
$(NaAl)2Si2O10·2H2O$	РE	900	$-108^{3}$	
not reported	PE	684.15	$-102.9\pm4.0$ <sup>4</sup>	
not reported	DSC.	623.15	$-89.1^{5}$	
$(NaAl)_{2}Si_{2}O_{10}$ $2H_{2}O$	IM	453.15	$-100.0 \pm 5.0^6$	
$(NaAl)2Si2O10·2H2O$	DSC-I	432	$-98.0 \pm 1.0^7$	
$(NaAl)_{2}Si_{2}O_{10}$ $2H_{2}O$	DSC-PE	432	$-97.6 \pm 1.0$	

Table 2. Enthalpy of hydration of natrolite.

<sup>1</sup> Methods – HF: determination of enthalpies of formation of hydrated and dehydrated homologs by HF solution calorimetry; TTD: transposed temperature drop calorimetry; PE: retrieval from phase equilibrium observations; DSC: calculated from scanning DSC measurement; IM: heat of immersion in water; DSC-I: integral heat of hydration from water-vapor measurement by DSC calculated from peak area; DSC-PE: average partial enthalpy of hydration from water vapor calculated from finite difference derivatives of DSC and DTGA signals.

<sup>2</sup> Kiseleva *et al.* (1997)<br>
<sup>3</sup> Hey (1932)<br>
<sup>4</sup> van Reeuwijk (1974)<br>
<sup>5</sup> van Reeuwijk (1972)<br>
<sup>6</sup> Guliev *et al.* (1989)<br>
<sup>7</sup> This study



Figure 4. Cumulative heat evolved during absorption of water into natrolite as a function of mass absorbed calculated from the experimental data shown in Figure 3. The error on each datapoint is smaller than the symbol.

experiment calculated by taking finite difference derivatives of the area under the DSC curve in Figure 3 with respect to the mass change given by the concurrent TGA signal. With the exception of the very beginning of the hydration reaction (*i.e.* at low values of  $X_{\text{hydrated narticle}}$ ),  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,TP}$  undulates around the value found by linear regression of the data in Figure 4.

The relatively less energetic values at the very beginning of the hydration step probably do not reflect the energetics of hydration in natrolite, but rather are related to some other phenomenon occurring at the beginning of the reaction. In general, water molecules incorporated into zeolites at low degrees of hydration are more energetic (stable) than those entering the structure at higher water contents (e.g. Carey and Bish, 1996; Fialips et al., 2005) rather than the distinctly non-



Figure 5. Partial molar enthalpy of hydration ( $\Delta \bar{H}_{\text{R},T,P}$ ) as a function of the mole fraction of hydrated natrolite  $(X_{\text{hydrated narticle}})$ calculated by taking finite difference derivatives of the experimental results shown in Figure 3. The average  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,T,P}$  shown by the horizontal line in the figure is the mean of the data for  $X_{\text{hydrated narticle}} > 0.1$ . The error on each data point is smaller than the symbol.

energetic water values depicted in Figure 5. This phenomenon, which is clearly anomalous, precludes quantification of  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,T,P}$  at very low degrees of infilling. The net effect on  $\Delta H_{R,TP}$  is minimal in this case, however, as this portion of the DSC response only accounts for a few tenths of a percent of the total heat evolved.

There are several possible explanations for the nonenergetic results obtained at low degrees of infilling. The first is that the initial uptake of water involves some distinctly non-energetic species like adsorbed water. While there may be some component of heat of adsorption onto the natrolite surface at the induction of the hydration step recorded in this signal, it is important to note that the DSC signal changes before the TGA signal does during the reaction. As surface adsorption would still involve an increase in mass, this suggests that some process is occurring in the sample prior to a detectable mass gain. A second possibility is that the earlier induction of the DSC signal might reflect a lag in the TGA signal relative to the DSC signal. However, in the current experimental setup, the reverse is more likely as the mass change is recorded instantaneously, while one might expect heat transport through the sample to produce a lag in the heat signal. The early induction of the DSC signal also contradicts the possibility that thermal lag in the DSC signal (which would produce an apparent low heat signal per change in mass) is not the cause of the non-energetic values. Our preferred explanation is that the initial absorption of  $H_2O$  is coupled to another, less energetic, process. A likely candidate is exchange of  $N_2$  for  $H_2O$  at low degrees of hydration, which would potentially result in only a minimal net mass change until the rate of hydration significantly outpaces the loss of  $N_2$  (or the latter is completely purged from the zeolite channels). Positive enthalpy of desorption of  $N_2$  from natrolite (-37 kJ/mol  $N_2$ ; Neuhoff and Wang, 2007) would offset the negative enthalpy of hydration, causing the overall heat effect to be less negative, as observed (Figure 5).

# Analcime

Analcime at full hydration contains water molecules distributed across only one crystallographic site both at room temperature (e.g. Mazzi and Galli, 1978) and at elevated temperatures during dehydration (Cruciani and Gualtieri, 1999). During heating of analcime (Figure 1) these water molecules are lost during a single, but protracted dehydration event accompanied by a single peak in both the DSC and dTGA signals. This is consistent with lead borate solution calorimetric observations that there is little or no excess enthalpy of mixing between hydrated and dehydrated analcime (Ogorodova et al., 1996) suggesting that all water molecules in analcime are energetically similar. Consequently, it appears that  $\Delta \tilde{H}_{R,T,P}$  and  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,T,P}$  in analcime should be equivalent over the whole range of

solution between the dehydrated and hydrated endmembers.

Results of an isothermal (490 K) hydration experiment are shown in Figure 6 for the same sample of analcime as depicted in Figure 1. The sample was dehydrated by scanning heating to 745 K, and total time lag between dehydration and the hydration step in Figure 6 was ~130 min. After introduction of  $H_2O$ vapor, the sample immediately started to absorb water, leading to abrupt changes in both the DSC and TGA signals. The initially relatively rapid (dTGA is relatively large) rate of hydration begins to decrease shortly after reaction starts. After ~160 min of reaction with the humid atmosphere, the reaction had slowed to a point where the DSC signal decayed to near baseline levels and was essentially invariant with respect to time even though the sample continued to absorb  $H<sub>2</sub>O$  (the TGA signal continued to increase) through the cessation of the experiment 850 min later. The slow rate of the reaction at this point is reflected in the near-zero value of dTGA. During the portion of the experiment shown in Figure 6, the sample reabsorbed  $\sim$ 4.5% of its mass (and only 5.6%) at the cessation of the experiment), as opposed to  $\sim$ 9.1% mass gain expected for complete rehydration. Repeated tests on the same sample indicate that our analcime sample can be reversibly dehydrated and rehydrated without loss of sorption capacity or changes in hydration energetics.

The slow rehydration rate exhibited by analcime, which has been noted previously (Chipera and Bish, 1991), presents considerable complications for quantifying the enthalpy of reaction. Because the reaction effectively never goes to completion, a stable DSC baseline is not established at the end of the experiment for use as a basis for integrating the area under the curve. The change in gas input at the beginning of the hydration step leads invariably to some fluctuations in signals and, in some cases, a change in both the TGA and DSC baselines that is quantitatively important. One way around this problem in materials such as analcime, for which there is no excess enthalpy of mixing across the hydrated-dehydrated analcime solid-solution, is to take advantage of the fact that the DSC signal and the dTGA signals are strongly correlated, as can be seen in Figure 6. These signals are plotted against each other in Figure 7. The strong correlation  $(R^2 = 0.998)$ indicates that, as is also the case in natrolite, the dependence of the background-corrected DSC signal on dTGA is directly proportional to  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,T,P}$ . This value is represented by the slope of the regression line through the data of Figure 7. In addition, the y intercept of this regression represents the DSC signal when  $dTGA = 0$ ; i.e. the baseline at the end of reaction. The value of  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,TP}$ , consistent with the regression in Figure 7, is given in Table 3 along with values of  $\Delta H_{R,TP}$  for analcime from the literature. It can be seen that the data in Figures 6 and 7, if one assumes that  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,T,P}$  and



Figure 6. Gas absorption calorimetric experiment on analcime conducted at 490 K and 1400 mbar vapor pressure. The area of the figure encompassed by the gray box denotes initial equilibration of the sample at experimental temperature under  $\text{dry N}_2$ . The rest of the experiment was conducted in the presence of a flow of humidified  $N_2$ . See the caption of Figure 1 caption for an explanation of the symbols.

 $\Delta H_{\text{R},T,P}$  are equivalent, are in excellent agreement with previous studies.

The data of Figures 6 and 7 were used to calculate cumulative heat evolved as a function of mass absorbed (Figure 8) and  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,T,P}$  as a function of the mole fraction of hydrated analcime  $(X_{\text{hydrated analogue}};$  Figure 9) in a manner similar to the natrolite example shown above. These calculations required assumption of a baseline for the DSC curve, which was taken to be the y intercept of the regression line in Figure 7. From Figure 8 it can be seen that there is excellent linear correlation between the cumulative area under the DSC curve and the amount of H<sub>2</sub>O absorbed ( $R^2$  indistinguishable from 1.0), suggesting that no excess heat of mixing over the range of water contents produced in this experiment. As in the case of natrolite,  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,TP}$  at low degrees of absorption is less energetic than observed at higher degrees of absorption. This portion of the experiment accounts for  $\sim$ 1% of the total heat evolved during the reaction. While this effect



Figure 7. Plot of the heat flow (DSC signal) vs. dTGA for the experimental results shown in Figure 5. The slope of the linear regression shown in the figure corresponds to  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,T,P}$ .

Composition	Method <sup>1</sup>	Temperature (K)	$\Delta \tilde{H}_{\mathrm{R},T,P}$ (kJ/mol H <sub>2</sub> O)
$(NaAl)_{0.96}Si_{2.04}O_6·H_2O$	ΗF	298.15	$-84.9 \pm 4.0^2$
$(NaAl)_{0.95}Si_{2.05}O_6·H_2O$	<b>TTD</b>	298.15	$-85.7 \pm 1.9^{3}$
$(NaAl)_{0.96}Si_{2.04}O_6·H_2O$	ΗF	298.15	$-73.9\pm4.4^{4}$
$NaAlSi2O6·H2O$	PE.	298.15	$-80.4^{5}$
not reported	PE.	569.15	$-83.7 \pm 4.0^6$
	PE.	660.15	$-86.6 \pm 4.0^6$
$(NaAl)_{0.97}Si_{2.03}O_{6} \cdot 1.015H_{2}O$	DSC-PE	490.15	$-85.5 \pm 0.3^7$
$(NaAl)_{0.97}Si_{2.03}O_{6} \cdot 1.015H_{2}O$	<b>DSC-APE</b>	490.15	$-85.5 \pm 2.1^7$

Table 3. Enthalpy of hydration of analcime.

<sup>1</sup> Methods: see footnote to Table 2 plus DSC-APE: partial molar enthalpy of hydration from water vapor calculated from correlation between DSC and dTGA  $^{2}$  Johnson *et al.* (1982)

<sup>3</sup> Ogorodova *et al.* (1996)<br><sup>4</sup> Calculated from data of Barany (1962) as recalculated by Johnson *et al.* (1982)<br><sup>5</sup> Retrieved by Bish and Carey (2001) from observations of Balgord and Roy (1973)<br><sup>6</sup> van Reeuwijk (1974)

is large enough to significantly affect the quality of  $\Delta H_{R,T,P}$  data calculated from this experiment, it does not influence calculation of  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,T,P}$ . In fact, the average value of  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,TP}$  consistent with the bulk of the data in Figure 9 is in excellent agreement with that obtained from the regression in Figure 8 (Table 3).

# Chabazite

Unlike analcime and natrolite, water molecules within the structure of chabazite are distributed over several (up to seven depending on the cation contents and the refinement; e.g. Alberti et al., 1982; Gualtieri, 2000) crystallographically distinct sites. These sites differ in both their position within the channel structure of chabazite and in the number of extraframework cations in their coordination shell. Consequently, different water molecules in the chabazite structure are likely to be energetically distinct. This is borne out by results of both thermal analysis and thermodynamic analysis of chabazite dehydration (cf. Valueva and Goryainov, 1992; Fialips et al., 2005). Figure 10 shows the results of a scanning-heating dehydration of the chabazite sample used in this study. Although the mass appears to decrease continuously with increasing temperature, inspection of the DSC signal suggests the presence of three separate dehydration events during this experiment: a prominent peak centered around 450 K corresponding to the steepest part of the TGA curve, a considerably less prominent peak in the vicinity of 780 K and a small shoulder on the low-temperature side



0  $-20$  $-40$  $\bar{H}_\text{R}$  (kJ/mol)  $-60$  $-80$  $-100$ average  $\Delta \bar{H_R}$  = -85.5 ± 2.1 kJ/mol  $-120$  $-140$  $-160$  $0.00$  $0.05$  $0.10$  $0.15$  $0.20$  $0.25$  $0.30$  $X_{\hbox{\scriptsize hydrotated}}$  analcime

Figure 8. Cumulative heat evolved during absorption of water into analcime as a function of mass absorbed calculated from the experimental data shown in Figure 6. The error on each data point is smaller than the symbol.





Figure 10. Simultaneously recorded TGA and DSC signals for chabazite as a function of temperature. The data were collected at a scanning rate of 15 K/min under ultra-pure  $N_2$ . See the caption of Figure 1 for abbreviations. Symbols S1, S2 and S3 refer to water types discussed by (Fialips et al., 2005).

of the main peak in the vicinity of 400 K. These features are also expressed to varying degrees in the dTGA signal shown in Figure 10. These three dehydration features are also observed in the stepwise behavior of the heat of hydration and Raman spectra as a function of water content (Valueva and Goryainov, 1992) and variations in sorption isotherms as a function of water content (Fialips et al., 2005). The latter authors used this inference to develop a three-site thermodynamic model to describe the dehydration behavior of chabazite (the sites being named S1, S2 and S3 with S1 corresponding to water molecules associated with the feature at 400 K in Figure 10, S2 the feature at 450 K, and S3 the dehydration step centered at 780 K). The relationship of these water types to the distinct crystallographic sites observed in refinements of the chabazite structure is unclear.

The results of an isothermal hydration experiment at 374 K on the chabazite sample from this study are shown in Figure 11. The sample was dehydrated by scanning heating to 980 K, followed by a time lag of  $\sim$ 170 min prior to rehydration. Total water uptake during



Figure 11. Gas absorption calorimetric experiment on chabazite conducted at 374 K, and 1100 mbar vapor pressure. The area of the figure encompassed by the gray box denotes initial equilibration of the sample at experimental temperature under  $\frac{dy}{dx}$ . The rest of the experiment was conducted in the presence of a flow of humidified  $N<sub>2</sub>$ . See Figure 1 for an explanation of the symbols.

this experiment was only  $\sim$ 16.2% of the initial hydrated mass of the chabazite, in contrast to  $\approx$ 21.8% total mass loss during the experiment shown in Figure 10. This is consistent with the equilibrium observations of Fialips et al. (2005) who observed  $\sim$ 75% hydration under similar temperature-humidity conditions. Based on comparison with Figure 10, and the calculations of Fialips et al. (2005), the water content attained in the experiment shown in Figure 11 should reflect occupancy of S2 and S3 but probably not S1. Repeated tests on the same sample indicate that our chabazite sample can be reversibly dehydrated and rehydrated without loss of sorption capacity or changes in hydration energetics. Unlike the natrolite and analcime experiments shown in Figures 3 and 6, there is a marked departure in curve shape between the DSC and dTGA signals that suggests that  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,T,P}$  is a function of water content during the sample. While the DSC signal decreases steadily after the initial induction of the experiment (slowly at first, and then more rapidly after  $\sim$ 150 min), the rate of mass change increases abruptly at  $\sim$ 125 min, leading to a secondary peak in the dTGA curve. The net consequence of these two contrasting behaviors is that  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,T,P}$  must become less energetic with progress of the reaction in light of the decreasing DSC signal and increasing dTGA signal.

Calculated values of  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,T,P}$  determined by taking finite difference derivatives of the dTGA curve and the area under the DSC curve in Figure 11 are shown in Figure 12. Determinations of  $\Delta \bar{H}_{\text{R},T,P}$  as a function of water content from Fialips et al. (2005), Shim et al.



Figure 12. Partial molar enthalpy of hydration  $(\Delta \bar{H}_{R,TP})$  of chabazite as a function of the number of water molecules per 24 framework oxygens. Open symbols calculated by taking finite difference derivatives of the experimental results shown in Figure 10. Closed symbols with error bars are 'model independent' partial molar enthalpies of hydration calculated from transposed temperature drop calorimetric observations on a Ca-rich chabazite by Shim et al. (1999). Calculation procedures used to derive the curves describing the data of Shim (1999), Valueva and Goryainov (1992) and Fialips et al. (2005) are discussed in the text. The error on each data point is smaller than the symbol.

(1999), and Valueva and Goryainov (1992) are shown for comparison. The curves representing the results of Shim et al. (1999) and Valueva and Goryainov (1992) are calculated from regressions reported by Shim et al. (1999). These curves and the data points of Shim et al. (1999) were adjusted from a liquid water reference state at 298.15 K to a water-vapor reference state at 374 K by accounting for the enthalpy of vaporization of water reported by Robie and Hemingway (1995) and the heat capacity of reaction, taken to be 3R (where R is the gas constant) independent of temperature as proposed by Fialips et al. (2005). The heat capacity correction makes the data of Shim et al. (1999) and Valueva and Goryainov (1992) ~1.8 kJ/mol H<sub>2</sub>O less stable (i.e. have a greater value of  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,T,P}$ ). The curve representing the data of Fialips et al. (2005) was calculated at 374 K using the regressed thermodynamic properties and equations presented by these authors (calculation kindly supplied by J.W. Carey).

The data shown in Figure 12 from this study clearly indicate the presence of energetically-distinct water types in chabazite. After the initial induction phase of the experiment, in which  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,T,P}$  decreases rapidly from very non-energetic values (presumably representing the same phenomena as observed above in natrolite and analcime), the data appear to indicate sequential absorption of water into two energetically distinct sites. The first occurs between water contents of 0 and 4 water molecules per mol of chabazite, for which  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,TP}$  increases gradually from  $\sim$  -133 kJ/mol of H<sub>2</sub>O to  $\sim$  -117 kJ/mol. Between water contents of  $~4$  and  $~5.5$  water molecules per mol,  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,T,P}$  increases more rapidly to ~-77 kJ/mol, where it stays relatively constant until reaction ceases. The scatter in the data at the highest water contents is a consequence of the relatively large errors associated with integrating and differentiating the small DSC and dTGA signals, respectively, at the end of the experiment. The transition from the more stable water type encountered at low degrees of loading to the less stable water at higher degrees of loading is not apparent in the DSC signal in Figure 11, but corresponds to the sudden increase in dTGA at ~125 min in the experiment. By comparison with the results shown in Figure 10 and the observations of Fialips et al. (2005), it appears that the more stable water type probably roughly corresponds to S3, and the less stable water type is S2. However, as discussed below, the relative proportions of S3 and S2 in our sample is significantly different than in that of Fialips et al. (2005). As suggested by the calculations of Fialips et al. (2005), the third, and least stable, water type (S1) did not absorb in appreciable amounts under the conditions employed in this experiment.

In general, the results from this study shown in Figure 12 agree well with those from previous calorimetric studies at relatively high degrees of hydration but differ significantly at low degrees of hydration. At between 6 and 8 water molecules per mol, our data are

essentially coincident with those of previous studies. Even though these four different datasets were generated through four different techniques (i.e. DSC-based gas absorption calorimetry in this study, transposed temperature drop (TTD) calorimetry by Shim et al. (1999), traditional immersion calorimetry by Valueva and Goryainov (1992), and phase equilibrium observations by Fialips et al. (2005)), they all give remarkably similar results for water contents over which data from each study were constrained. However, the four datasets disagree markedly at lower water contents, with the results of this study and that of Fialips et al. (2005) being considerably more exothermic than those of Valueva and Goryainov (1992) and Shim et al. (1999). As discussed by Fialips et al. (2005), the discrepancy between the regressed results of Shim et al. (1999) and those of their study and ours is probably due to a lack of constraints at very low water contents in the transposed temperature drop results. The discrepancy between the data of Valueva and Goryainov (1992) and this study are less easy to explain.

Valueva and Goryainov (1992) determined  $\Delta \tilde{H}_{\text{R},T,P}$ directly at low water contents (from 0 to 7 mol  $H_2O$  per mol chabazite) through measurements of the heat of immersion in liquid water. Their data are very similar to the immersion calorimetric results of Barrer and Cram (1971) down to water contents of  $\sim$ 2 mol H<sub>2</sub>O per formula unit (see comparison in Fialips et al., 2005). Barrer and Cram's (1971) results indicate that  $\Delta \tilde{H}_{R,T,P}$  is relatively invariant when the sample is hydrated from initial water contents of  $\sim 0-2$  mol H<sub>2</sub>O per mol chabazite to complete hydration. Fialips et al. (2005) suggested that the disparity between the results of earlier calorimetric studies and the regressed parameters from their study was a consequence of irreversible changes to chabazite during the preparation of the dehydrated sample. The dehydrated sample in this study was prepared under similar conditions to those of Valueva and Goryainov (1992) and Barrer and Cram (1971), yet exhibits considerably more exothermic results than those obtained in the earlier calorimetric studies and exhibits no loss in sorption capacity after dehydration. Thus, our sample is not irreversibly modified to the extent that earlier samples were, or the explanation lies elsewhere.

It is important to note that the discrepancy noted by Fialips et al. (2005) between their sample and those of previous studies was most pronounced in calculated values of  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,T,P}$  and was less pronounced in  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,T,P}$ . The significant discrepancy between  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,TP}$  determined from previous calorimetric results and those of Fialips et al. (2005) and this study in large part reflects the modeldependent nature of this property as regressed from raw  $\Delta H_{R,TP}$  such as those obtained by immersion or TTD calorimetry. The form of equation used to regress the compositional dependence of  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,TP}$  may well lead to erroneously less negative values, especially where constraints at low degrees of filling are sparse. When the raw

 $\Delta H_{R,T,P}$  calorimetric results are compared to the calculated values of Fialips et al. (2005), the discrepancy is considerably smaller and largely restricted to samples that were rehydrated from a completely dehydrated state (cf. Figure 11 in Fialips et al., 2005; a similar analysis is not possible with the data of the current study as full hydration was not achieved). It is important to note that the discrepancy between the immersion calorimetric results and those of Fialips et al. (2005) decreases considerably as the degree of infilling increases, and that the immersion calorimetric results of Barrer and Cram (1971) indicate a negligible heat of hydration below water contents of 2 mol of  $H_2O$  per formula unit. One possible explanation for these observations may lie in the phenomenon causing the relatively non-energetic values of  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,TP}$  at the start of the hydration reaction (Figure 11). If this phenomenon is related to exchange of  $H_2O$  for  $N_2$  as suggested above, the heat effect should be present in any calorimetric heat of hydration measurement. This effect would preferentially affect  $\Delta \tilde{H}_{R,T,P}$ measured at low degrees of infilling, causing these values to appear less negative as the relatively low enthalpy effects at the beginning of reaction would be averaged with the very energetic water molecules that initially absorb into chabazite. This may in part explain the discrepancy between the results of this study (and Fialips et al., 2005) and the immersion calorimetric results of Barrer and Cram (1971) and Valueva and Goryainov (1992). Other possibilities exist, however, including irreversible modification during dehydration and intersample differences that can only be resolved through study of the same sample by different techniques.

Comparison between the results of this study and those of Fialips et al. (2005) is complicated by differences in sample composition and the assumptions used to plot the latter data. The sample used in this study is considerably more Si- and Ca-rich than that used by Fialips et al. (2005), which will undoubtedly affect the energetics of water in the samples, the relative abundances of different water types, and potential irreversible transformation of the chabazite structure upon dehydration (Bish and Carey, 2001). In addition, the representation of the results of Fialips et al. (2005) in Figure 12 assumes an equilibrium distribution of water molecules for each water content (calculated by varying the vapor pressure at temperature). Sorption of  $H_2O$  from the gas phase into chabazite in the present study is a non-equilibrium process, and equilibrium is only possible at the end of the reaction. Compositional variations and equilibrium vs. non-equilibrium distributions of energetically distinct water molecules undoubtedly affect the relative magnitudes of  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,TP}$  as a function of water content between these two studies. Nonetheless, both studies indicate a component of step-wise change in  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,TP}$  as the nature of the water sites changes with increasing hydration, in contrast to the interpreted behavior of the immersion and TTD calorimetric data in Figure 12. However, our results in

Figure 12 indicate significant differences between both the abundance and energetics of S3 water in chabazite. The regression presented by Fialips et al. (2005) suggests a maximum content of S3 water in chabazite of ~1.8 molecules per mol, in contrast with the results of our study which suggest that this site is at least twice as abundant. As noted above, the crystallographic nature of the water-type-I chabazite is not resolved. However, Valueva and Goryainov (1992) observed a difference in the nature of water below and above 3.8 water molecules per formula unit in Raman spectra of variously hydrated chabazites. This change in behavior probably represents a change from chabazites containing only S3 water (below 3.8 water molecules) to those containing both S2 and S3 (above 3.8 water molecules). If this is the case, then the relative site stoichiometries implied by the results of the present study are more consistent with Raman observations than are those of Fialips et al. (2005). In addition, except at very low water contents, our data are considerably more energetic than their results for S3 and the least energetic values for S2.

Figure 13 shows  $\Delta \tilde{H}_{R,T,P}$  on a per mol chabazite basis as a function of water content calculated from  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,T,P}$ depicted in Figure 12. Shown for comparison are calculated values derived from the raw calorimetric results of Shim et al. (1999) and the thermodynamic model presented by Fialips et al. (2005) based on  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,TP}$  shown in Figure 12. It can be seen that the integral heat results of this study are very similar in magnitude to those of Fialips et al. (2005). The topology is somewhat different, with the results of this study exhibiting a break in slope at ~4 water molecules per mol of chabazite, whereas those of Fialips et al. (2005) produce a smooth curve. This difference probably reflects the irreversible nature of the present results, as opposed to the equilibrium water molecule distribution assumed in the calculation from Fialips et al. (2005).



Figure 13. Integral molar enthalpy of hydration ( $\Delta \tilde{H}_{R,T,P}$ ) of chabazite as a function of the number of water molecules per 24 framework oxygens based on the results of this study (solid curve), of Fialips et al. (2005; dashed curve), and of Shim et al. (1999; symbols).

The results of Shim et al. (1999) define a smooth curve almost parallel to that of this study and Fialips et al. (2005), though they are systematically less exothermic. Although the other results are more exothermic than those of Shim et al. (1999), it can be seen in Figure 13 that the topology of either the curve from this study or that of Fialips et al. (2005) would satisfy the constraints presented by the TTD data. This highlights the insensitivity of  $\Delta H_{R,T,P}$  to energetic distinctions between sites, as the smooth fit suggested by Shim et al. (2005) to explain their data does not accurately depict the energetic distinctions present in water molecules at different degrees of infilling. This emphasizes the need to obtain direct  $\Delta \bar{H}_{R,T,P}$  results, as is possible with the present technique or through regression of phase equilibrium observations.

# **CONCLUSIONS**

The techniques of the present study afford a new and relatively easy approach for obtaining both partial and integral molar heat of hydration data for zeolites and other mineral hydrates as a function of composition and temperature. The accuracy of the results obtained through the present method is indicated by the favorable comparisons with existing data obtained through other calorimetric and phase equilibrium techniques. While each material presents its own set of challenges due to differences in the nature of water sites, the rate of hydration, and the range of hydration state obtainable under a given set of temperature and humidity conditions, judicious application of the data-handling techniques presented above affords a significant complement, and in many cases, an improvement to the quality of information about hydration energetics available with other techniques. This technique could also be adopted to measure heats of dehydration for materials whose hydration state varies appreciably within the range of vapor pressures attainable in the experimental setup. Specific strengths of this technique are: (1) unambiguous determination of the degree and range of hydration associated with calorimetric observations. This is typically a major source of error and uncertainty in other techniques (e.g. Muller et al., 1998). (2) Direct, model-independent determination of partial molar heats of hydration as a function of hydration state. Most other calorimetric techniques (traditional liquid immersion calorimetry, heat of solution measurements) can only obtain this information through laborious measurement of integral heats over a range of composition. This technique can obtain this information at a given temperature in one experiment, without complications due to the choice of equation used to describe the compositional dependence of the integral heat data. (3) Heats of hydration in materials like analcime that absorb water very slowly can be determined with reasonable precision. (4) The variation in the heats of hydration with temperature can be determined directly through measurements at different temperatures. This application of the technique is explored in forthcoming papers on the materials described above. (5) Additional information can ideally be obtained from these experiments, including reaction rates as a function of degree of hydration and the equilibrium water content at the experimental temperature and water vapor pressure.

One main limitation of the present technique is that the range of humidity conditions obtainable in the DSC-TGA device is effectively limited by the equilibrium vapor pressure of  $H_2O$  at room temperature (~32 mbar; in practice lower vapor pressures are preferable so as to preclude condensation within the instrument). As saturated vapor pressure increases dramatically with increasing temperature (up to  $\sim$ 220 bar at the critical point), experiments at elevated temperature conducted with this technique are limited to vapor pressures far below saturation. This limits the extent of hydration possible for some materials at elevated temperatures, as observed in chabazite. Currently available simultaneous DSC-TGA instruments are all limited by this phenomenon, but future advances may extend this technique to higher vapor pressures. Until then, assessment of hydration states obtainable at higher humidity conditions must rely on extrapolation of results from lower temperature or regression of equilibrium observations at higher pressures, such as those obtained by Wilkin and Barnes (1999).

The limited humidity range accessible by the present technique also controls whether measurement of both hydration and dehydration heats at the same temperature is possible. In minerals like chabazite that exhibit a range of hydration states at elevated temperatures between 0 and 32 mbar (e.g. Fialips et al., 2005), such measurements should be possible and would allow assessment of the reversibility. In minerals like natrolite that dehydrate over a very small range of temperature (e.g. van Reeuwijk, 1974), measurement of both hydration and dehydration heats is generally not feasible.

Another limitation is that partial molar heats of hydration at very low degrees of hydration are not possible, as shown by the very non-energetic values obtained at early stages in the hydration experiments (cf. Figures 5, 9, 12). The cause of this behavior is unclear, but probably, at least partly, reflects the energetics of exchange of  $N<sub>2</sub>$  gas (with which the samples were saturated) and  $H_2O$  at early stages of the experiments. This complication would be present in any gas absorption experiment on materials that absorb  $N_2$ , and in any equilibrium measurement made at very low water contents.

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