

Biotite and chlorite weathering at 25°C

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THE DEPENDENCE OF pH AND (BI)CARBONATE ON WEATHERING KINETICS, DISSOLUTION STOICHIOMETRY, AND SOLUBILITY; AND THE RELATION TO REDOX CONDITIONS IN GRANITIC AQUIFERS

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BIOTITE AND CHLORITE WEATHERING AT 25 °C:

The dependence of pH and (bi)carbonate on weathering kinetics, dissolution stoichiometry, and solubility; and the relation to redox conditions in granitic aquifers.

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Keywords:

Groundwater, Dissolution kinetics, Biotite, Chlorite, Solubility, Clay minerals, Redox potentials, Oxygen reduction, Canister stability

Abstract (english)

We have studied the kinetics and thermodynamics of biotite and chlorite weathering in the pH range $2 < \text{pH} < 10$ at 25 °C. The dissolution is highly non-stoichiometric and pH dependent in the whole pH region. By XPD we have identified a clay mineral to be the main weathering product formed. A model of biotite dissolution and the formation of secondary solubility controlling minerals, such as Fe(III)-hydroxide, Na-clay, quartz and gibbsite is used to explain experimental equilibrium concentrations of silicon, iron, aluminium and magnesium. The model predicts redox potentials in the range of -200-400 mV at neutral pH and qualitatively agrees with field data reported in the literature. We use observed iron release rates to make conservative estimates of timescales of 1) the depletion of molecular oxygen from deep aquifers (10^1 - 10^2 years); and 2) the development of characteristic Fe(II) concentrations (10^{-5} M in 10^1 years).

The Fe(II)-bearing clay minerals formed during these experiments are similar to the fracture-filling-material observed at the Äspö Hard Rock Laboratory. Such clays can provide reducing capacity to a repository. They can help maintain anoxic conditions by consuming oxygen that enters the repository during the construction and operation phases thereby helping maintain the redox stability of the repository regarding canister corrosion. The half-life of oxygen trapped in the repository at the time of closure depends on the rate of oxygen uptake by Fe(II) minerals, sulfide minerals and organic carbon. Fe(II)-clay minerals are important to the redox stability of a repository, as well as providing a sorption barrier to radionuclide migration.

Abstract (Swedish).

Vi har studerat jämvikt och kinetik av biotit och klorit vittring i pH intervallet $2 < \text{pH} < 10$ vid $25\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$. Upplösningsreaktionerna är icke-stökiometriska och vittringshastigheten såväl som jämviktskoncentrationerna av kisel, järn, aluminium och magnesium är starkt pH beroende. Vi modellerar jämvikts koncentrationerna med hjälp av lösligheten av sekundära faser såsom ett Fe(II)-lermineral, kvarts och gibbsit. Modellen ger redoxpotentialer mellan -200 -- 400 mV vid neutralt pH vilket överensstämmer med fältstudier. Vi använder data från försöken till att göra konservativa uppskattningar av tidskalor för 1) omsättning av löst syre (10^1 - 10^2 år); och 2) ackumulering av Fe(II) i djupa grundvatten (10^{-5} M inom 10^{-1} år).

De Fe(II)-haltiga lermineral som bildats under dessa försök liknar de sprick mineral som observerats på Äspö Hard Rock Laboratory. Sådana lermineral kan tillföra reducerande buffert kapacitet till ett slutförvar och på detta sätt positivt bidra till slutförvarets kemiska korrosions stabilitet. Halveringstiden för kvarvarande syre då slutförvaret stängs beror av hastigheten av reaktioner mellan syre och Fe(II)-mineral, sulfidmineral samt organiskt kol. Fe(II)-lermineral är därför viktiga för redox stabiliteten av ett slutförvar och tjänar också som en sorptions barriär mot radionuklid migration.

Summary and conclusions

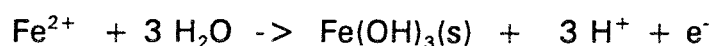
During the construction and operation of a deep repository the groundwater system will be open to oxic conditions. There is a concern that, once the repository has been closed, residual molecular oxygen will accelerate canister corrosion and enhance the mobility of redox sensitive radionuclides. The release and oxidation of structural Fe(II) in silicates, such as biotite and chlorite, is one of several processes that will serve to deplete oxygen from the deep aquifer.

We have studied the kinetics and thermodynamics of biotite and chlorite weathering in the pH range $2 < \text{pH} < 10$ at 25 °C. The elemental release rates at a specified condition are highly non-stoichiometric, with preferential release of Fe, Mg and Al at low pH and of Si at higher pH on the time scale of our experiments (~1 month). We postulate that, due to diffusion through depletion layers, the long-term dissolution will be congruent and limited by the lowest elemental release rate. The Fe, Al, Si and Mg release rates are pH dependent and resemble the behaviour of FeOOH, Al₂O₃ and SiO₂ respectively. We use a combination of the surface complexation/activated complex theory to model the observed behaviour. The accumulated release of potassium increases parabolically with time suggesting a diffusion controlled release mechanism for potassium. The dissolution rate and stoichiometry are not influenced by (bi)carbonate.

Speciation calculations indicate that equilibrium data of biotite dissolution obtained from batch and titration experiments are best explained by 1) the dissolution of biotite; 2) the formation of secondary solubility controlling minerals (i.e Na-clay, Fe(III)-(hydr) oxide, gibbsite and quartz); and 3) an ion-exchange reaction. This model predicts redox potentials that agree with field data reported in the literature and indicates the importance of Fe(II)-clays for redox potentials in deep groundwaters.

Mössbauer analyses indicate that there is an increase in the Fe(III)/Fe(total) ratio in the mineral phase during biotite weathering. XPD reflections show an expansion, typical for a clay formation, of the mineral structure at $\text{pH} > 2$ and indicate the formation of kaolinite in some samples below pH 4.6.

In the pH range $2 < \text{pH} < 4$ we measured redox potentials, using redox electrodes, in the range of 350-650 mV. We model these observed redox potentials by the following equilibrium reaction:



At higher pH we did not obtain reliable redox potentials due to the very low Fe(total) concentration.

We use observed Fe release rates to make conservative estimates of timescales of 1) the depletion of molecular oxygen from deep aquifers (10^1 - 10^2 years); and 2) the development of characteristic Fe(II) concentrations (10^{-5} M in 10^{-1} years). We use literature data on O_2 -consumption by Fe(III)-silicates to estimate the redox capacity (10^{-5} - 10^{-4} moles/m²) of common granitic minerals.

In the final section we show that there is an optimal redox potential region where the canister is chemically stable towards corrosion by molecular oxygen (to copper oxide) and where sulfate reduction is prevented, thereby stabilizing the copper towards corrosion to copper sulfide. We define redox capacities with respect to these reactions, and conclude that the evaluation of these equations for repositories requires site specific data such as abundance of redox active compounds and flow parameters. We present a conceptual model for evolution of oxidizing capacity with time during the life-time of a repository, and a methodology for estimating the half-life of oxygen in the post-closure period. The model emphasizes the importance of chemical kinetics for depletion of molecular oxygen and other redox reactions.

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1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND

During the construction and operation of a deep repository the ground water system will be open to surface water inflow and oxic conditions. The presence of molecular oxygen is expected to have adverse effects on the repository safety by a) accelerating canister corrosion; and b) increasing the mobility of redox sensitive radionuclides, which form sparingly soluble (hydr)oxides under reducing conditions but are highly soluble in their higher valence state (e.g. U, Np, Pu, Tc and, Am). Therefore it is important to quantify the rate of oxygen depletion when the repository has been closed to the atmosphere. In principal oxygen reduction will occur by respiration of organic carbon and oxidation of reduced minerals (Grenthe et al., 1992).

Fe(II)-silicates can contribute to the reduction of oxygen by oxidation of a) Fe(II)-sites at the mineral surface; and/or b) dissolved Fe(II) subsequent to release from the mineral (White and Yee, 1985). Biotite is the main Fe(II)-bearing mineral in granite. Banwart et al. (1992) showed that in a granitic fracture zone at the Äspö Hard Rock Laboratory, biotite is the most important Fe(II) mineral in the unaltered host rock. At the fracture surface chlorite is the dominating reduced mineral.

1.2 OBJECTIVES

In order to estimate the rate and extent of oxygen depletion by Fe(II) silicates we studied the kinetics and thermodynamics of biotite and chlorite weathering. Specific objectives were to:

- 1) determine the extent and rate of iron release from biotite and chlorite
- 2) measure the E_h developed during biotite weathering
- 3) determine saturation with respect to some secondary minerals, and identify solubility controlling phases
- 4) determine the rate and stoichiometry of biotite and chlorite dissolution at different pH ($2 < \text{pH} < 10$).
- 5) assess the effect of the (bi)carbonate ligand on the biotite dissolution.

We have used batch and titration experiments to study the equilibrium concentration of elements released to solution during biotite

weathering. In the near neutral to basic pH region the solution composition is highly non-stoichiometric and the elemental concentrations can be explained by equilibrium with secondary phases like gibbsite, quartz, Fe(III)-(hydr)oxide and a clay mineral. At lower pH the equilibrium composition is more closely stoichiometric and the solubility is consistent with equilibrium with Fe(III)-(hydr)oxide, and an Fe(II)-clay. XPD-patterns of reacted solids indicates an expansion, typical for a clay transformation, of the silicate structure. We identify kaolinite as a secondary weathering product at low pH.

Redox measurements, using redox electrodes, indicates the preference of Fe(II) in solution at $\text{pH} < 4$. We show that the Fe(III)-concentrations are consistent with the solubility of an Fe(III)-(hydr)oxide. At higher pH we have not been able to measure E_h .

The kinetics of biotite dissolution have been studied using a continuous flow through reactor (Bruno et al., 1991). The dissolution reaction is highly non-stoichiometric in the whole pH region ($2 < \text{pH} < 10$) studied. The release rate of Fe, Mg, Si and Al are highly pH dependent showing a minimum around neutral pH. We show that potassium release is diffusion controlled whereas the release of the other elements are surface-reaction controlled on the time-scale of the experiment. We propose that at longer time-scales the release rate of elements will be limited by the slowest elemental release rate. Our experiments indicate that iron has the slowest release rate and is surface reaction controlled. We do not observe any effects of (bi)carbonate concentrations on Fe-release rates. XPD-patterns again indicate expansion of the structure. Mössbauer analysis show a higher percentage of Fe(III) in the weathered than in the fresh biotite.

Comparative experiments show similar dissolution behaviour for chlorite and biotite.

We estimate a timescale of 10^1 - 10^2 years to reach anoxic conditions for a fracture zone initially saturated with oxygen. In contrast, the time scale to develop Fe(II) concentrations characteristic for deep ground water is 10^{-1} years.

We show that there is an optimal redox potential region where the canister is chemically stable towards corrosion by molecular oxygen (to copper oxide) and where sulfate reduction is prevented, thereby stabilizing the copper towards the formation of copper sulfide. We define redox capacities with respect to these reactions, and conclude that the evaluation of these equations for repositories requires site specific data such as abundance of redox active compounds and flow parameters. We present a conceptual model for evolution of oxidizing capacity with time during the life-time of a repository, and a methodology for estimating the half-life of oxygen in the post-closure

period. The model emphasizes the importance of chemical kinetics for depletion of molecular oxygen and other redox reactions.

1.3 BIOTITE AND CHLORITE STRUCTURE AND WEATHERING

1.3.1 Structure of Biotite and Chlorite

Biotite and chlorite are both phyllosilicates, eg. they have an infinite two-dimensional silicate-structure (Fig 1-1). The basic structural feature (Newman and Brown, 1987; Biotite: Fanning et al., 1989; chlorite: Barnhisel and Bertsch, 1989) of these two minerals is the sheet structure with octahedrally coordinated cations sandwiched between two layers of tetrahedrally coordinated cations. The octahedra are occupied by Mg^{2+} , Al^{3+} , Fe^{2+} and Fe^{3+} . The tetrahedra are mainly occupied by Si and Al, Al giving a charge deficiency to the tetrahedra and a negative charge to the sheet. Biotite maintains charge balance with K^+ ions in the silicate interlayers whereas chlorite has brucite/gibbsite-like hydroxy-interlayers.

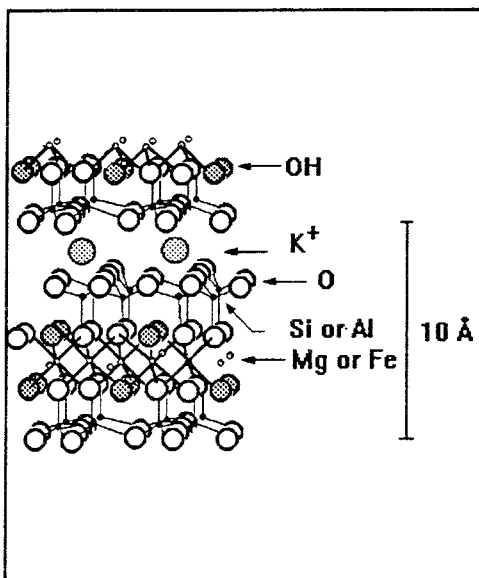


Figure 1-2a

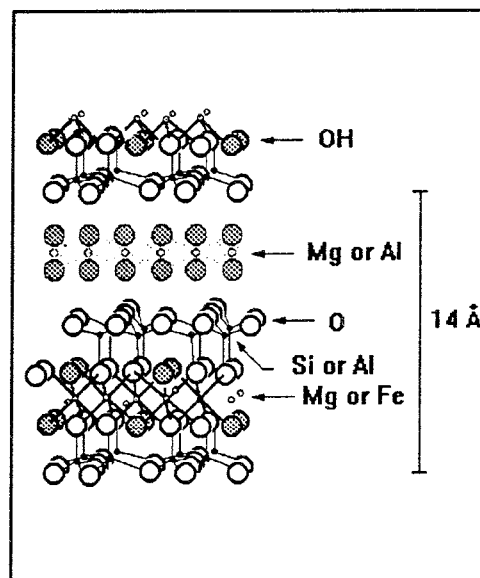


Figure 1-2b

Figure 1-2.

Idealized crystal structure (modified from Barnhisel and Bertsch (1989)) of a) biotite and b) chlorite. An octahedral sheet of cations lies between by two tetrahedral sheets of silicon and aluminium. Biotite maintains charge balance by K^+ -ions whereas chlorite has a hydroxy-interlayer.

Phyllosilicates are usually subdivided into two groups. Dioctahedral minerals have two trivalent ions in the octahedral sites for each 10 oxygens in the mineral. Trioctahedral minerals keep the same total

charge, having three divalent ions for each such unit (Fanning et al., 1989).

1.3.2 Biotite and Chlorite Weathering

Allen and Hajek (1989) concluded that biotite and chlorite are unstable under earth-surface conditions. They also pointed out that the "stability" is dependent on specimen composition and the weathering environment.

1.3.2.1 Biotite

The weathering of biotite (see review by Fanning et al., 1989; and Scott and Amonette, 1988) is usually regarded as an alteration process where the sheet structure is transformed. Kaolinite (Grant, 1964; Rausell-Colom et al., 1965; Wilson, 1966; Stoch and Sikora, 1976; Banfield and Eggelton, 1988; Fordham, 1990), amesite (Grant, 1964), smectite (Fordham, 1990), gibbsite (Wilson, 1966; Fordham, 1990) and goethite (Walker, 1949; Banfield and Eggelton, 1988) are considered to be the final weathering products. The transformation of the sheet structure and the formation of meta-stable intermediates, for example vermiculite (Walker, 1949; Bassett, 1959; Norrish, 1973; Banfield and Eggelton, 1988; Fordham, 1990); and interstratified minerals (biotite-vermiculite (Banfield and Eggelton, 1988), hydrobiotite (Bassett, 1959; Wilson, 1970; Yassoglou et al., 1972; Fordham, 1990) vermiculite-chlorite (Wilson, 1966,1970)), are considered to be dependent on the weathering situation and specimen (Wilson, 1975). Generally the following alterations of the mineral can be observed during weathering:

- * Expansion of the interlayer distance due to exchange of non-hydrated K^+ by hydrated ions or formation of hydroxy-polymer interlayers of units such as $Al_n(OH)_m$.
- * Increasing Si/Al ratios in the tetrahedral layer (reducing the layer charge.)
- * Oxidation of octahedral iron
- * Enhanced cation exchange capacity (CEC) due to expansion of the sheet.
- * Substitution of divalent for trivalent ions in the octahedral sheet.

There is no solubility product, or stability diagram valid under earth surface circumstances, published for biotite.

It is well known that the iron- content and oxidation state are of major importance for biotite weathering susceptibility (Fanning et al., 1989 and references therein), with decreasing stability with increasing iron content. Oxidation of structural iron destabilizes the mineral.

Previous laboratory investigations of biotite dissolution kinetics focused on the acid pH region (Schnitzer and Kodama, 1976; Trotignon and Turpault 1992,1994; Acker and Bricker, 1992 (up to pH 7)) or only on potassium release (Rausell-Colom et al., 1965). A few articles report laboratory studies of weathering kinetics of other micas (Clemency and Lin, 1981; Lin and Clemency, 1981a,b,c; Knauss and Wolery, 1989) at natural or near natural conditions.

Rausell-Colom et al. (1965) found that the kinetics of potassium release from biotite into salt solutions is controlled by diffusion. They concluded that the rate of diffusion is dependent on specimen and salt concentration and that the release stops at a certain solution concentration of potassium.

Acker and Bricker (1992) reported strongly pH dependent, incongruent dissolution of biotite ($3 < \text{pH} < 7$) with preferential release of magnesium and iron. They indicated the possibility of vermiculite formation during continuous-flow-experiments, but were unable to verify it by XPD.

1.3.2.2 Chlorite

The weathering of chlorite (See review by Barnhisel and Bertsch, 1989) results in a variety of different secondary minerals (vermiculite (Gilkes and Little, 1972; Ross and Kodama, 1974; Ross et al., 1982), goethite (Ross et al., 1982), interstratified minerals (chlorite-vermiculite (Johnson, 1964; Herbillon and Makumbi, 1975; Ross et al., 1982; Rabenhorst et al., 1982), corrensite (Post and Janke, 1972)), nontronite (Herbillon and Makumbi, 1975), hydroxy-interlayered minerals, smectite, goethite (Bain, 1977), Fe-oxyhydroxides (Cho and Mermut, 1992), halloysite (Cho and Mermut, 1992) and kaolinite (Herbillon and Makumbi, 1975; Cho and Mermut, 1992)). As in the case of biotite, the amount of Fe(II) and its oxidation play a significant role in the weathering susceptibility (Ross, 1975).

Commonly 1) oxidation of Fe(II); 2) loss of Fe and Mg; and 3) removal of the hydroxide sheet is observed during chlorite weathering

(Barnishel and Bertsch, 1989) . Ross and Kodama (1974) suggested the mechanistic interpretation that the irreversible oxidation of Fe(II) produces a structural disturbance, facilitating removal of the hydroxide sheet and thereby the weathering.

Ross (1969) reported stoichiometric release of metals from eight different chlorites during dissolution in Si-saturated 2 N HCl.

2. EXPERIMENTAL METHODS AND MINERAL CHARACTERIZATION

2.1 MINERAL CHARACTERIZATION AND SAMPLE PREPARATION

The natural mineral specimens used in this study (Biotite LK 5210, Chlorite 740665) were provided by Naturhistoriska Riksmuseet (Stockholm).

2.1.1 Mineral Preparation

Mineral powder was prepared by peeling small sheets from the mineral surface, size fractionating with sieves. The 53-75 μm , 75-125 μm , and 125-300 μm fractions were used in the experiments. The mineral powders used in the kinetic experiments were washed ultrasonically three times in ethanol to remove ultra fine particles (Schott et al., 1981).

2.1.2 Mineral Characterization

2.1.2.1 Chemical Composition

The elemental composition of the minerals was determined by 1) dissolution by standard methods (Bock and Marr, 1979; Pirhonen and Pikänen, 1991) and determination by ICP-AES (see section 2.2); and 2) micro-probe analysis of mineral powder. Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) and micro probe analysis were made at the department of Physical Metallurgy and Ceramics, KTH, Stockholm. The Fe(II) /Fe(III) ratio was determined by spectrophotometric analysis after dissolution (Pirhonen and Pitkänen, 1991) and Mössbauer analysis of mineral powder. Mössbauer analysis was made at the department of Physics, SU, Stockholm. Table 2-1 lists characteristics of the mineral specimens.

Table 2-1
Mineralogical data for the specimens.

	BIOTITE	CHLORITE
ELEMENTAL	RATIO	
Si	3.81 ± 0.6	34.2 ± 6
Fe	1.65 ± 0.1	1
Mg	1	26.9 ± 9
Al	1.50 ± 0.04	6.7 ± 1
K	0.95 ± 0.1	-
Fe(II)/Fe(tot)	[%]	
Spectrophotometric ^a	74.9 ± 4.8	70.9 ± 5.3
Mössbauer	76.5	52.1
X-RAY d(001) SPACING [Å]	10.00	14.40
	SPECIFIC	SURFACE
		[m²/g]
75-125 μm	1.81 ± 0.1 ^b	4.38 ^c
125-300 μm	-	3.36 ^c

Error estimates are given as one standard deviation.

a) Method modified from Pirhonen and Pitkänen (1991)

BET-areas determined from b) krypton - and c) helium adsorption.

2.1.2.1.1 Biotite Stoichiometry

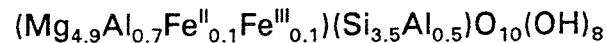
Based on the results in table 2-1, and making the assumption that the composition is given by $Y_p X_q Z_4 O_{10} (OH)_2$ (Newman and Brown, 1987) where Z (Al, Si) denotes the tetrahedral, X (Mg, Fe, Al) the octahedral and Y (K) the interlayer position the biotite composition is:



This composition deviates from the ideal $(K(Mg, Fe^{II})_3 (Si_3 Al) O_{10} (OH)_2)$ by having lower layer charge and the presence of Fe(III). However, biotites (Deer et al., 1963) typically have down to 0.8 potassium atoms per formula unit and up to 55% of the total iron as Fe(III).

2.1.2.1.2 Chlorite Stoichiometry

Based on the results in table 2-1, the correlation between X-ray diffraction $d(001)$ spacing and silicon content of tetrahedral position recommended by Bailey (1972, p. 381, equation 1) and assignments to structural positions analogous as for biotite, the chlorite composition was calculated to be:



According to the nomenclature given by Deer et al. (1963) this composition corresponds to a penninite/talc-chlorite.

2.1.2.2 BET - Surface Area

The specific surface area (table 2-1) of biotite (krypton adsorption Digisorb 2600 BET-analyzer) and chlorite (helium adsorption, Micromeritics Gemini 2370 BET-analyzer) samples was determined by the BET-method.

2.1.2.3 XPD

X-ray Powder Diffraction (XPD) was done using a Philips PW 1130/00 diffractometer, using a $\text{CoK}\alpha$ ($\lambda = 1.7902 \text{ \AA}$) target. The 2θ scan-rate was $1^\circ/\text{min}$, the current 20 mA and the voltage 40 KV. The "low-angle-cut-off" for the instrument is $2\theta \approx 4^\circ$ ($\sim 25 \text{ \AA}$). Scans were normally run in the region $4^\circ \leq 2\theta \leq 100^\circ$

Figure 2-1 shows the XPD-pattern of biotite and chlorite. The XPD-pattern confirmed the minerals to be mica and chlorite.

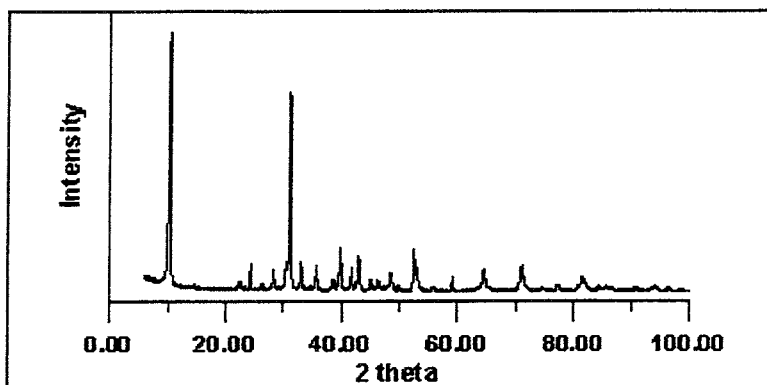


Figure 2-1a

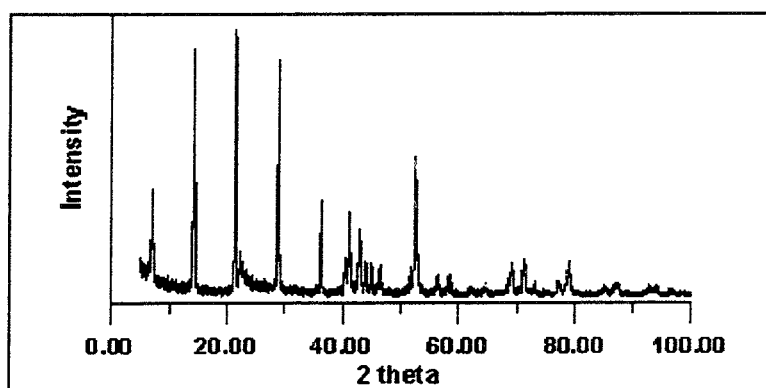


Figure 2-1b

Fig 2-1

The XPD pattern of a) biotite and b) chlorite.

2.2

EXPERIMENTAL METHODS

Experiments were carried out at 25 ± 1 °C, 1 atm pressure using the ionic medium: $[\text{Na}^+] + [\text{H}^+] = [\text{HCO}_3^-] + [\text{ClO}_4^-] + [\text{OH}^-] + 2[\text{CO}_3^{2-}] = 0.500$ M. High purity chemicals (p.a or better) and gases (99.5% purity) were used. Gases were cleaned by bubbling through an oxygen trap (amalgamated zinc/vanadous solution) followed by ionic medium to remove traces of molecular oxygen and to saturate the gas stream with water vapour at the experimental conditions. Reacted solution samples were analyzed for Si, Mg, Al, total Fe, and K where applicable, using an ARL (Applied Research Laboratory) model 3520B ICP- (Inductively Coupled Plasma emission spectrometer) analyzer. Standards were prepared by dilution of Atomic Spectral Standards (Analytical Standards, Kungsbäcka) into appropriate matrix solutions. Proton concentrations were determined using an electrochemical cell of the type:

glass electrode/test- solution//(AgNO_3 or HCl), $\text{NaClO}_4/\text{AgCl}(\text{s})$, $\text{Ag}(\text{s})$

The measuring cells were normally calibrated according to Gran (1981) before and after each experiment. Membrane filters used in the experiments were 0.2 μm pore size filters of PTFE-type (MFS J020A025A or Millex FG SLFG025BS).

2.2.1 Equilibrium Experiments

2.2.1.1 Batch Experiment

A known mass of mineral was placed in a teflon or polypropylene bottle. The bottle was filled with ionic medium at specified pH, sealed and placed onto a shaker table under $\text{N}_2(\text{g})$ atmosphere. The system was left to equilibrate. The final pH was measured, the solid phase separated by membrane filtration and the filtrate acidified (to $\text{pH} < 1$) by a small volume of nitric acid.

2.2.1.2 Continuous Titration

Two experimental setups were used. In the conventional method (Figure 2-2a) a suspension of biotite in the ionic medium was titrated in a glass vessel coated with paraffin or in a teflon vessel. In the continuous-flow-through titration (figure 2-2b) the ionic medium was pumped through a filter holder containing the biotite during the titration. The titrations were carried out by consecutive additions of base (NaOH) or acid (HClO_4). After each addition, equilibrium was assumed when the potential drift in the glass electrode assembly was $< 10^{-4}$ mV/s. At equilibrium the solution was sampled by removal of some suspension/solution, separation of the solid phase by membrane filtration (conventional experiment) and acidification (to $\text{pH} < 1$) of the filtrate by a small volume of nitric acid. The titration vessel was maintained under $\text{N}_2(\text{g})$ or $\text{Ar}(\text{g})$ ($\text{N}_2(\text{g}) + \text{CO}_2(\text{g})$ mixtures for the $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{CO}_2$ systems) atmosphere. In the conventional titration the redox potential was measured electrochemically by a cell of the type:

indicator electrode/test- solution//(AgNO_3 or HCl), $\text{NaClO}_4/\text{AgCl}(\text{s})$, $\text{Ag}(\text{s})$

Two sheet-platinum, one sheet-gold and one glassy carbon electrode were used as indicator electrodes. The redox potential measurements were stable and the agreement between different electrodes was good in the low pH region (below pH 4). At higher pH both drift in the potentials and disagreement between electrodes make the interpretation of the measurements difficult. Grenthe et al. (1992) thoroughly discuss the necessary conditions for redox potential measurements in field and laboratory systems, namely 1) the

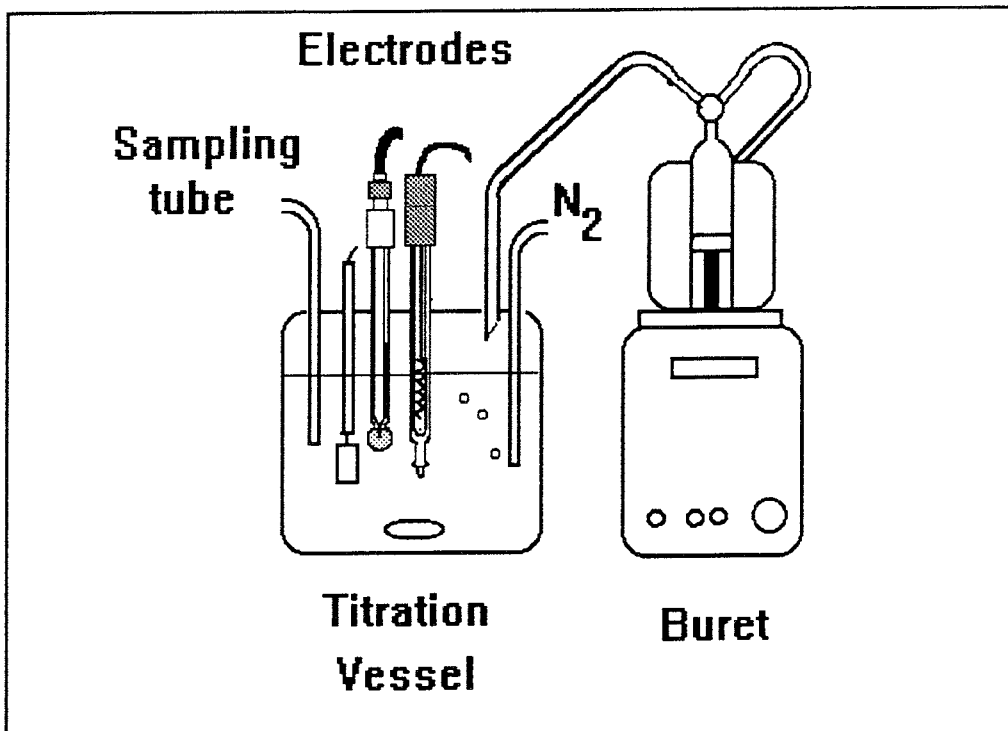


Figure 2-2a
Conventional continuous titration setup. A suspension of mineral is titrated.

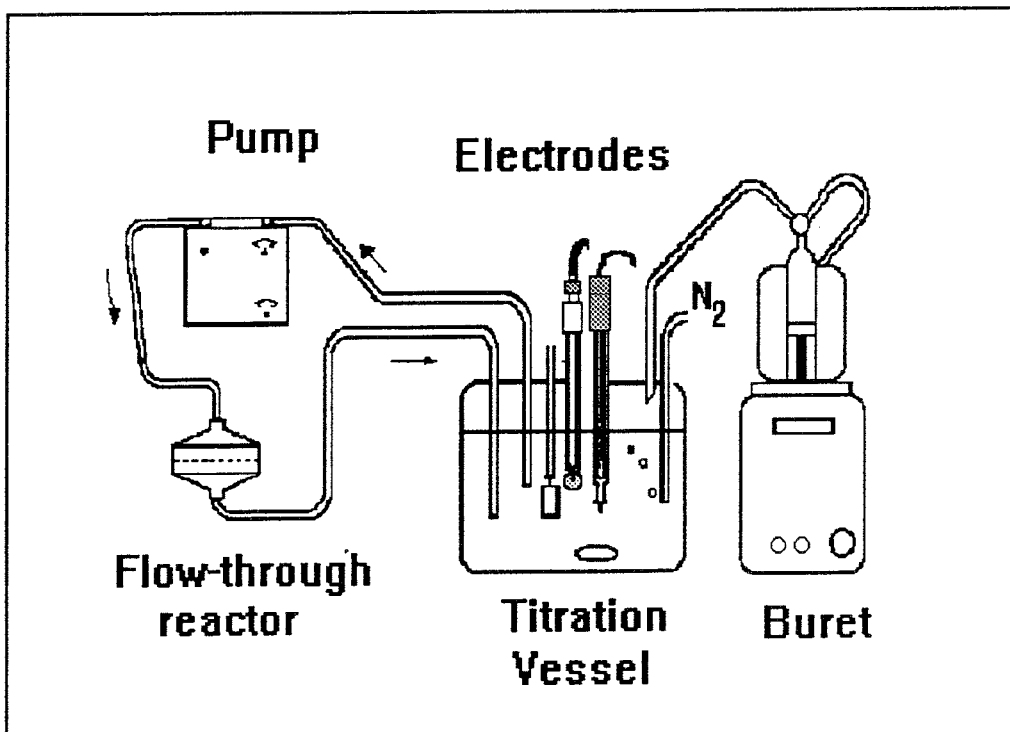


Figure 2-2b
Flow-through continuous titration setup.

presence of electrode-reactive species which are able to exchange electrons with the electrode; 2) redox reactions with one-electron transfers; 3) sufficient redox capacity in the system (for systems containing Fe(III) solid phases a minimum concentration of 10^{-6} M Fe(II) is needed). They conclude that the Fe(II)/Fe(III) redox couple can give reproducible (within 20 mV) redox potentials in natural and laboratory systems. Our experimental setup is open in the sense that it is flushed with argon. Although precautions were made to eliminate molecular oxygen from the system, an E_h equal to -200 mV (obtained at near neutral pH in the simulated rock weathering experiment reported by Grenthe et al. (1992)) would require a partial oxygen pressure of maximum 10^{-16} atm which is not likely obtained in the experiment.

2.2.2 Kinetic Experiments

The experiments were performed using a continuous flow-through reactor (Bruno et al., 1991)(figure 2-3), consisting of a thin layer (<3mm) of mineral powder of known mass, held between two membrane filters, across which test solutions of known composition were pumped at specified rates. The pH of the reactor outflow was recorded continuously. Equation (2-1) calculates the surface area normalized mineral dissolution rate from concentration (C [moles/g solution]) of element j in sample i.

$$R_{i,j} = \frac{F_i C_{i,j}}{m A P_j} \left[\frac{\text{moles of mineral}}{\text{h m}^2} \right] \quad (2-1)$$

F is flow rate [g/h]; m, mass of mineral [g]; A, specific surface area [m^2/g]; and P, a stoichiometric factor [moles of element/moles of mineral].

Equation (2-2) calculates the accumulated release of element during an experiment:

$$a_j(t_i) = \sum_i R_{i,j} (t_i - t_{i-1}) \left[\frac{\text{moles of mineral}}{\text{m}^2} \right] \quad (2-2)$$

a denotes accumulated release [moles of mineral/ m^2] and t the time [h] elapsed from the start of the experiment.

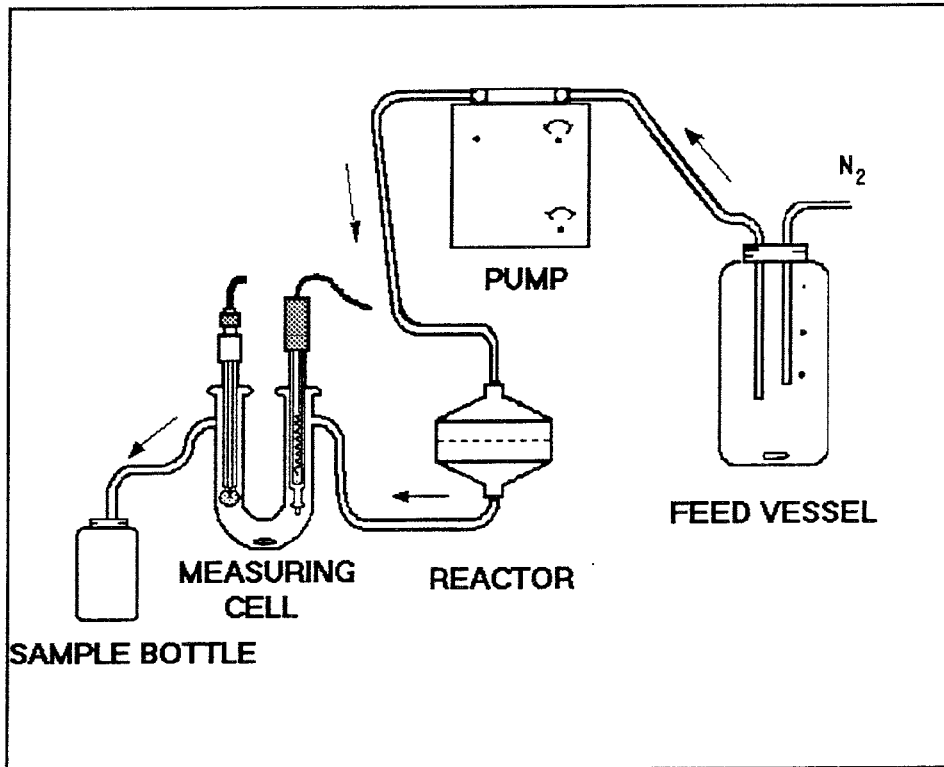


Figure 2-3

Figure 2-3. Experimental setup for the thin-film continuous flow-through system. Test solution of known composition is pumped through a thin-film reactor where the mineral powder is held between two membrane filters. The outflow solution passes a closed U-tube where pH is measured continuously. The reacted solution is collected in acid-containing polypropylene bottles.

In addition to continuously purging feed solutions with $N_2(g)$, the carbon dioxide-free experiments were carried out in a glove box under $N_2(g)$ atmosphere. In the CO_2 -free experiments at near neutral pH the buffer capacity of the system was too low to give stable pH-measurements and the proton concentrations in these feed solutions were calculated from dilution of standard acid ($HClO_4$) or base ($NaOH$) solutions in $NaClO_4$. A fresh mineral sample was used for each experiment. Solution samples were collected in polypropylene, acid washed bottles, containing a small volume of concentrated HNO_3 .

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The raw data from the solution analysis and the XPD analysis are given in appendix 7.1-7.6 and 7.9 respectively.

3.1 RESULTS FROM KINETIC EXPERIMENT

3.1.1 Wet Chemistry Results

3.1.1.1 Biotite (CO₂-free system)

Figure 3-1 shows the accumulated release of biotite calculated (equation 2-2) from each element as function of time. The release of all elements is rapid at the beginning of the experiment and decreases to quasi steady-state rates with time. Such a decrease of dissolution rates with time is typical for dissolution kinetic experiments using fresh mineral samples (Furrer and Stumm, 1986; Carroll-Webb and Walther, 1988; Wieland and Stumm, 1992), and has been explained by dissolution of 1) ultrafine particles (Holdren and Berner, 1979; Schott et al., 1981); and 2) more reactive surface sites (Wherli, 1989). After an initial period of < 10 days the accumulated release of Si, Fe, Mg and Al is directly proportional to time. Linear release, obtained at a fixed flow rate, reflects constant concentration in the outflow solution. The concentration in the outflow can be controlled by 1) equilibrium with a solid phase; 2) chemical kinetics; or 3) transport phenomena. If the system is operating at equilibrium the output concentration is independent of flow rate (C in equation 2-1 is constant). If the system is controlled by chemical kinetics the dissolution rate is independent of flow rate (R in equation 2-1 is constant and a decrease of F causes a corresponding increase of C). On the other hand if the overall reaction rate is controlled by transport phenomena Fick's law of diffusion (equation 3-1) determines the concentration in the outflow solution:

$$|R_j| = \frac{D_L}{\Delta y} (C_{surface} - C_{out}) \quad (3-1)$$

where D_L is the diffusivity and Δy is the diffusion path length. At steady-state $C_{surface}$ equals $C_{equil.}$. A combination of equation 2-1 and 3-1 shows that a decrease of F causes a non-proportional increase of C_{out} . At the end of the experiments at pH 2, 7 and 10 we ran the thin-film reactor at half the initial flow rate. In the experiments at pH 2

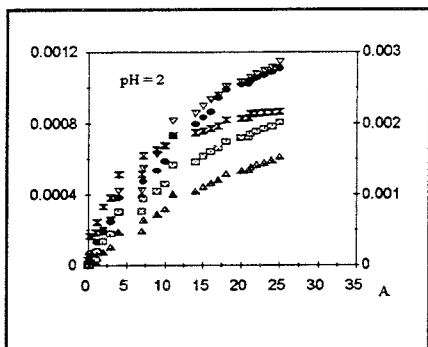


Figure 3-1a

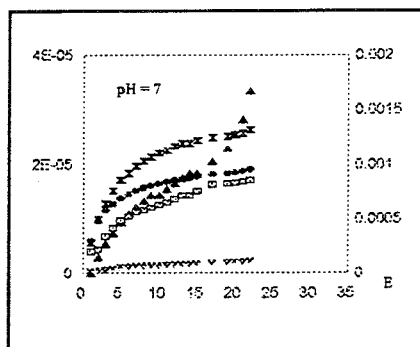


Figure 3-1e

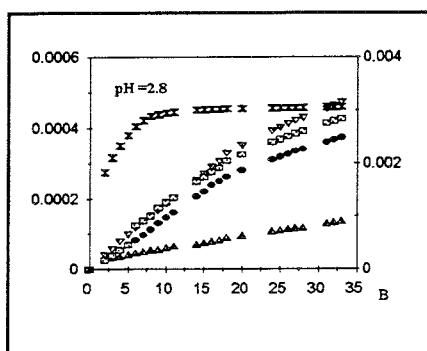


Figure 3-1b

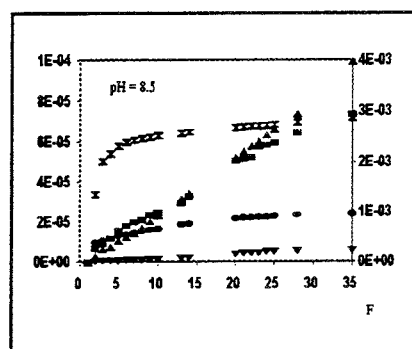


Figure 3-1f

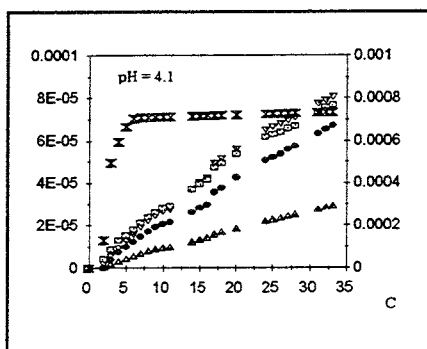


Figure 3-1c

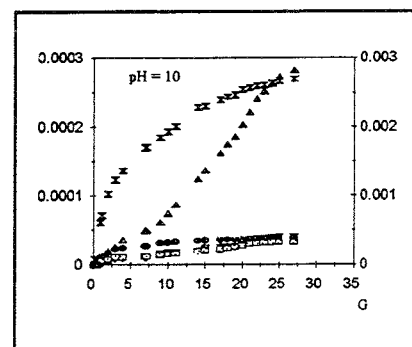


Figure 3-1g

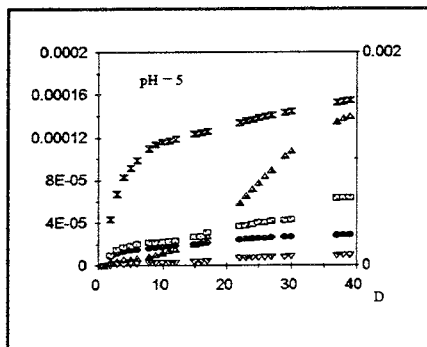


Figure 3-1d

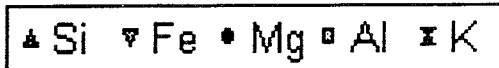


Figure 3-1
Accumulated release
[moles biotite/m²] of elements
from biotite in CO₂-free
experiments at specified pH:
a) 2; b) 2.8; c) 4.1; d) 5; e) 7;
f) 8.5; g) 10. Potassium scale
on the vertical axis at right.

and 7 this yielded approximately double concentrations of iron, aluminium, and magnesium in the outflow solution. This excludes the possibility of equilibrium conditions or transport controlled release of these elements and indicates chemically kinetics control. Steady-state kinetics is expected for a surface-chemical-reaction-controlled dissolution mechanism with concentration of reactive surface sites at steady-state (Furrer and Stumm, 1986; Blum and Lasaga, 1988; Wieland et al., 1988; Stumm and Wieland, 1990; Stumm and Wollast, 1990). The uncertainty in the analyzed concentrations in the experiment at pH 10 makes interpretations impossible.

The steady-state rates (table 3-1, figure 3-2) of release of iron, magnesium and aluminium in the biotite/H₂O system are highly pH dependent over the pH range 2-10 and in the case of iron and aluminium qualitatively similar to the simple end-member (hydr)oxides Al₂O₃ (Furrer and Stumm, 1986) and α -FeOOH (Zinder et al., 1986). The release rate of silicon is only slightly dependent on pH in the range 3 - 8.5, with higher values below and above this region. The final release rate of potassium is only slightly dependent of pH.

Table 3-1

Biotite dissolution rate [moles mineral m⁻² h⁻¹] in the CO₂-free experiment as a function of pH.

pH	Si	Fe	Mg	AL	K
2	4.79*10 ⁻⁷	6.42*10 ⁻⁷	5.82*10 ⁻⁷	5.64*10 ⁻⁷	2.36*10 ⁻⁷
2.8	1.43*10 ⁻⁷	3.91*10 ⁻⁷	3.08*10 ⁻⁷	3.06*10 ⁻⁷	1.06*10 ⁻⁷
4.1	3.61*10 ⁻⁸	6.76*10 ⁻⁸	8.09*10 ⁻⁸	7.17*10 ⁻⁸	3.38*10 ⁻⁸
5	2.43*10 ⁻⁷	4.85*10 ⁻⁹	1.21*10 ⁻⁸	3.78*10 ⁻⁸	4.83*10 ⁻⁷
7	1.10*10 ⁻⁷	2.42*10 ⁻⁹	7.83*10 ⁻⁹	7.16*10 ⁻⁹	5.60*10 ⁻⁷
8.5	1.19*10 ⁻⁷	3.13*10 ⁻⁹	8.42*10 ⁻⁹	2.91*10 ⁻⁸	6.44*10 ⁻⁷
10	5.61*10 ⁻⁷	1.87*10 ⁻⁸	1.40*10 ⁻⁸	6.11*10 ⁻⁸	2*10 ⁻⁶
10	2.56*10 ⁻⁷	1.03*10 ⁻⁷	2.24*10 ⁻⁸	9.79*10 ⁻⁸	1*10 ⁻⁶

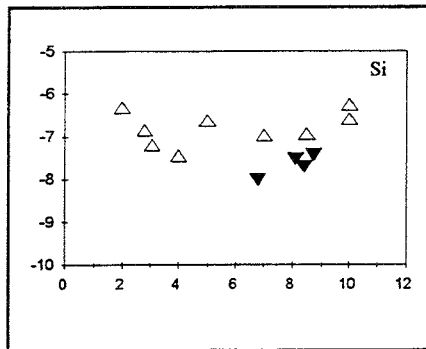


Figure 3-2a

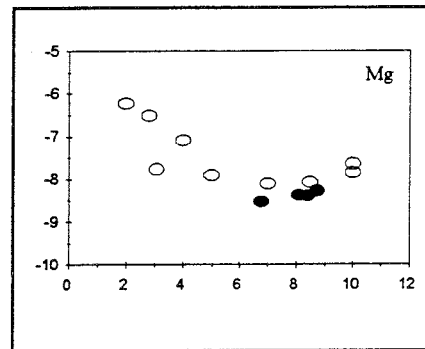


Figure 3-2c

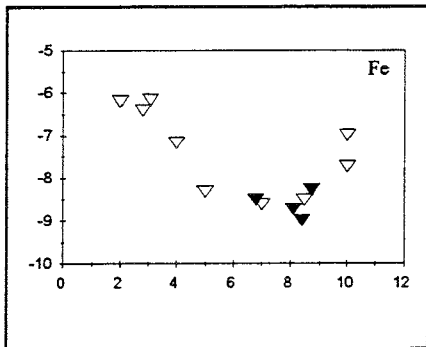


Figure 3-2b

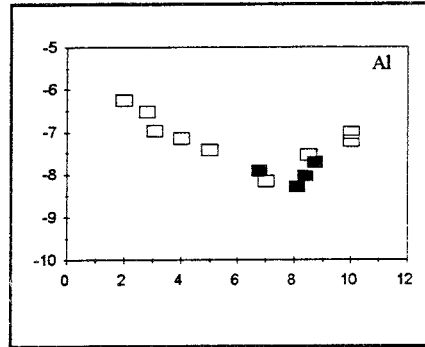


Figure 3-2d

Figure 3-2

Elemental release rates [moles biotite $m^{-2} h^{-1}$] from biotite vs pH. Open symbols are for the CO_2 -free system. Filled symbols are from the 1 % $CO_2(g)$ -system. a) Si ;b) Fe; c) Mg; D) Al.

The steady-state dissolution rate is only stoichiometric with respect to iron, magnesium, aluminium and silicon near pH 4 - 5. Below this region the metals are preferentially released whereas at higher pH silicon is released faster (Fig 3-3) .

Potassium release is very fast at the beginning and apparently becomes diffusion controlled after approximately 1-2 days as indicated by a linear plot of accumulated release against \sqrt{t} (Fig 3-4; Schott and Berner, 1985).

Figure 3-5 shows the dissolution of biotite under 0.01 atm $CO_2(g)$. The behaviour of Fe, Mg, Al, and K, is similar to the CO_2 -free experiments and shows no significant effect of (bi)carbonate on steady-state dissolution rate or stoichiometry (table 3-2, figure 3-2). The Si release rates are lower and more dependent on pH in the CO_2 -system. In the literature both acceleration (Bruno et al., 1992a; Berg

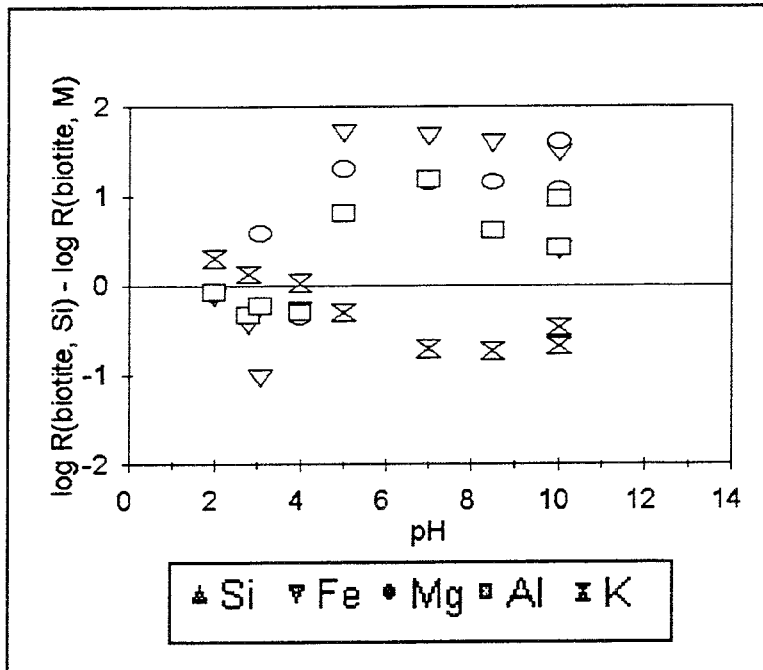


Figure 3-3
Release rates of elements compared to silicon release rates. Values above 0 mean that silicon is released faster.

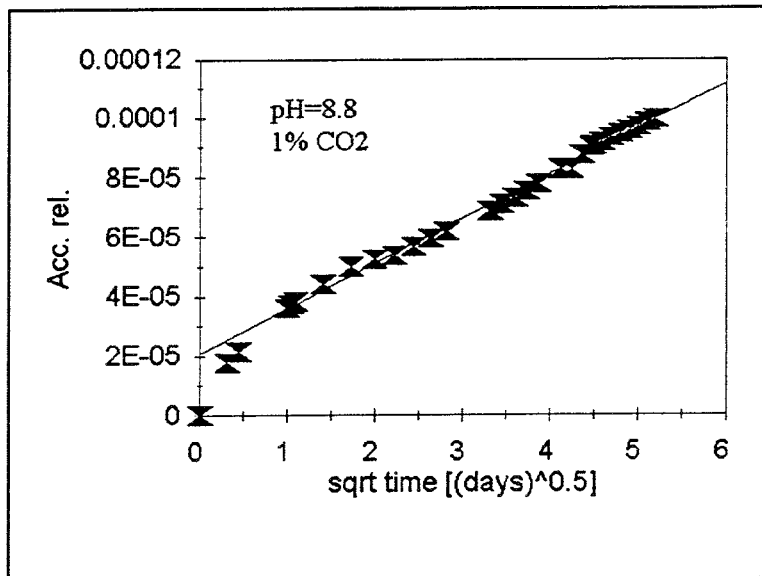


Figure 3-4
Accumulated release of potassium at pH 8.8, 1% CO₂ vs $\sqrt{\text{time}}$.

and Banwart, 1994a,b; Östhols and Malmström, 1994) and inhibition (Wogelius and Walther, 1991) of mineral dissolution by (bi)carbonate have been reported.

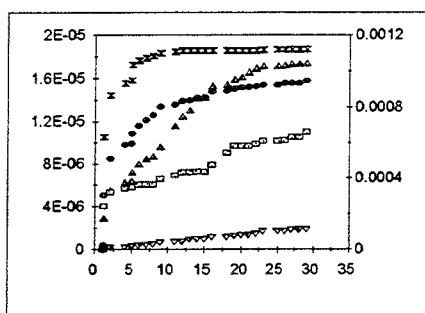


Figure 3-5a

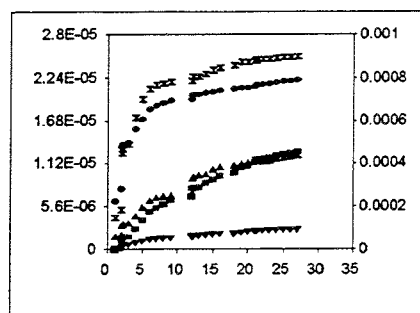


Figure 3-5c

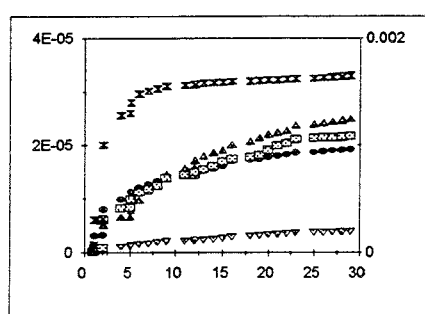


Figure 3-5b

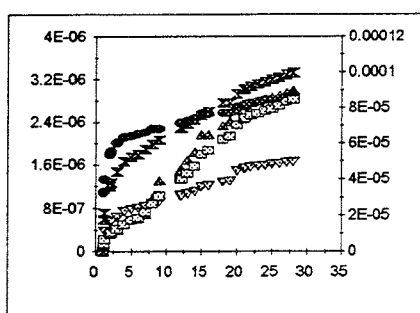


Figure 3-5d

▲ Si ▼ Fe • Mg □ Al × K

Figure 3-5.

Accumulated release of elements [moles biotite m^{-2}] vs time [days] from biotite at specified pH and 1% CO_2 . a) 6.8; b) 8.1; c) 8.4; d) 8.7. Potassium scale on the vertical axis at right.

Table 3-2

Biotite dissolution rate [moles mineral $m^{-2} h^{-1}$] in the 1% CO_2 experiment as a function of pH.

pH	Si	Fe	Mg	AL	K
6.8	$9.77 \cdot 10^{-9}$	$3.09 \cdot 10^{-9}$	$3.02 \cdot 10^{-9}$	$1.23 \cdot 10^{-8}$	$3.61 \cdot 10^{-8}$
8.1	$3.02 \cdot 10^{-8}$	$1.86 \cdot 10^{-9}$	$4.27 \cdot 10^{-9}$	$5.25 \cdot 10^{-9}$	$1.71 \cdot 10^{-7}$
8.4	$1.97 \cdot 10^{-8}$	$1.01 \cdot 10^{-9}$	$4.07 \cdot 10^{-9}$	$9.41 \cdot 10^{-9}$	$1.09 \cdot 10^{-7}$
8.8	$3.74 \cdot 10^{-8}$	$5.39 \cdot 10^{-9}$	$5.28 \cdot 10^{-9}$	$1.90 \cdot 10^{-8}$	$3.10 \cdot 10^{-7}$

The (bi)carbonate concentration ranges between $10^{-3} \leq [HCO_3^-] \leq 10^{-1}$ and $10^{-7} \leq [CO_3^{2-}] \leq 10^{-3}$ M respectively.

3.1.1.2 Chlorite

Figure 3-6 shows the accumulated release of elements from chlorite at specified pH and P_{CO_2} . The chlorite dissolution is less non-stoichiometric than the biotite dissolution. The steady-state dissolution rate is also much less pH dependent. The final accumulated release of elements is lower, mainly due to a lower initial dissolution. In the experiments at pH 7.1, 8.2 and 8.9 the solution concentration of aluminium and iron dropped below the detection limit of the ICP. However, in the near neutral pH region the final dissolution rate, calculated from silicon and magnesium release (table 3-3), is similar to the dissolution rate of biotite.

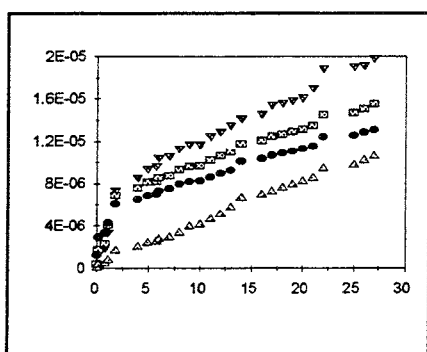


Figure 3-6a

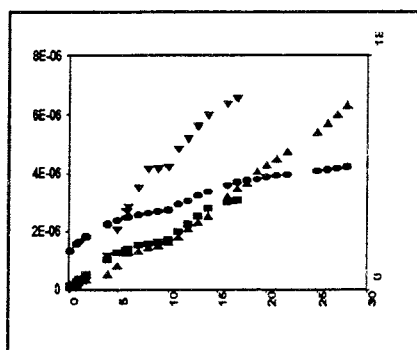


Figure 3-6d

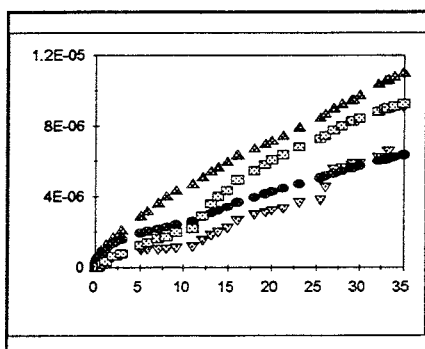


Figure 3-6b

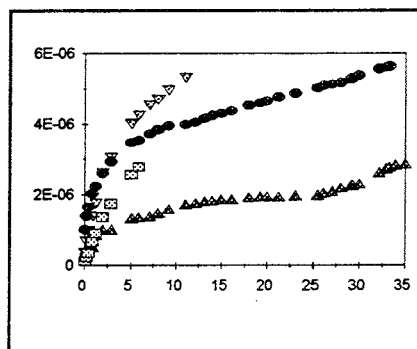


Figure 3-6e

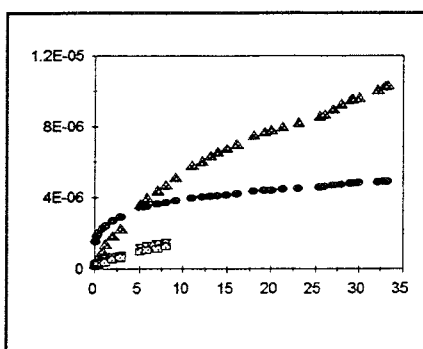


Figure 3-6c

▲ Si ▼ Fe • Mg ◻ Al

Figure 3-6. Accumulated release [moles of chlorite m^{-2}] vs time [days] of elements from chlorite at specified conditions: a) pH=2.6 CO_2 -free; b) pH=3.8 100% CO_2 ; c) pH=7.1 100% CO_2 ; d) pH=8.2 1% CO_2 ; e) pH=8.9 1% CO_2 .

Table 3-3
Chlorite dissolution rate [moles mineral m⁻² h⁻¹] at specified conditions

pH	CO ₂ -condition	Si	Fe	Mg	Al
2.6	CO ₂ -free	1.34*10 ⁻⁸	1.92*10 ⁻⁸	9.82*10 ⁻⁹	1.31*10 ⁻⁸
3.8	100 %	1.01*10 ⁻⁸	5.22*10 ⁻⁹	5.13*10 ⁻⁹	6.86*10 ⁻⁹
7.1	100 %	7.90*10 ⁻⁹	U.D.	U.D.	3.98*10 ⁻⁹
8.2	1 %	1.06*10 ⁻⁸	U.D.	U.D.	6.45*10 ⁻⁹
8.9	1 %	3.87*10 ⁻⁹	U.D.	U.D.	3.98*10 ⁻⁹

U.D. means that the concentrations of elements in the outflow solution from the continuous flow-through reactor are under the detection limit of the ICP. The (bi)carbonate concentration ranges between $10^{-5} \leq [\text{HCO}_3^-] \leq 10^{-1}$ and $10^{-11} \leq [\text{CO}_3^{2-}] \leq 10^{-3}$ M respectively in the CO₂(g)-experiments.

3.1.2 XPD -Results

3.1.2.1 Biotite

Figure 3-7 shows the XPD patterns of biotite and remaining solid phases from the thin-film-continuous flow-through reactor experiments run at specified pH. The most striking difference between the unreacted biotite and the remaining solid phases is the shift and splitting of the peak around 10 Å ($2\theta \approx 10.3$ deg). This peak d(001) corresponds to the basal spacing of the unit cell (inter-layer distance). At pH 2 this characteristic mica peak has totally disappeared in the favour of a peak around 12 Å ($2\theta \approx 8.4$ deg) reflecting an expansion of the crystal lattice. The inter-layer expands due to exchange of non-hydrated potassium ions for hydrated ions (eg Mg or Na) or hydrolysed ions (eg Fe, Mg or Al) (hydroxy inter-layers). A 12 Å peak has been ascribed to a sodium smectite (Brindley and Brown, 1980, table 5.18) or a interstratification of biotite and vermiculite ("hydro-biotite": Coleman, 1963; Farmer and Wilson, 1970).

The weak peak (figure 3-6 and appendix 6.9) around $2\theta \approx 14.7$ deg ($d \approx 7.00$ Å) together with the shoulder around $2\theta \approx 29.1$ deg ($d \approx 3.56$ Å) indicate the formation of kaolinite (Brindley and Brown, 1980 table 5.18). Kaolinite is often regarded as the final weathering product of biotite. Other minerals formed during the weathering are usually regarded as unstable intermediates. The formation of kaolinite during laboratory weathering has previously been proposed by several authors (see section 1.3.2.1).

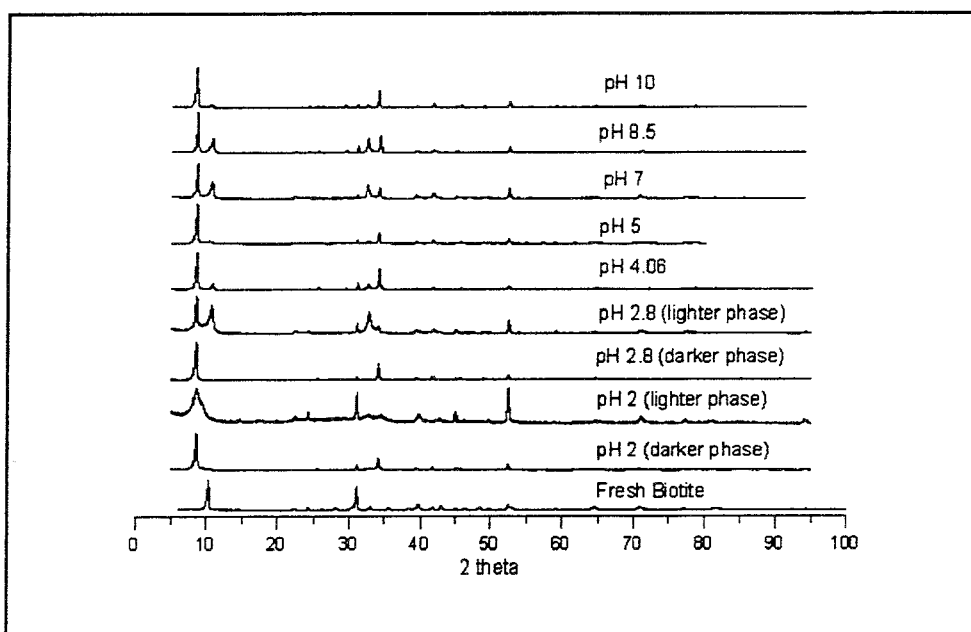


Figure 3-7
XPD reflections of minerals from the biotite kinetic experiment

There is no peak corresponding to formation of crystalline metal oxides or simple metal silicates in the XPD patterns of samples from the pH region $2 \leq \text{pH} \leq 10$. For a sample from an experiment run at pH slightly below 2, the typical d(001)-peak has totally disappeared. The remaining XPD-pattern corresponds to quartz. This does not conclusively indicate the formation of a silica phase because the quartz pattern is found as a part of the biotite pattern.

The location of the d(060) peak (1.51-1.56 Å) corresponds for all samples to a trioctahedral structure, i.e. divalent ions dominate in the octahedral layer (Fanning et al., 1989).

3.1.2.2 Chlorite

The XPD-pattern (appendix 7.9, figure 7-27 to 7-30) of chlorite reacted at $2.6 \leq \text{pH} \leq 8.9$ indicates no major structural changes nor precipitation of crystalline secondary phases during chlorite weathering.

Although the peak-locations are identical to the unreacted chlorite the relative heights of the d(001) peaks have changed. In a perfect randomized orientation of the chlorite sample this refers to changes in heavy-metal content and distribution between the silicate and the hydroxide octahedral sites (Moore and Reynolds, 1989). No attempts to orient our sample have been made, thereby introducing uncertainty

of peak intensity variation with different degree of orientation. The variation in peak heights between different samples is too small to give conclusive information on differences in iron content and distribution.

3.1.3 SEM/Micro Probe Results (Biotite)

Figure 3-8 shows SEM images of biotite reacted at specified conditions in the thin-film-continuous-flow-through reactor. The biotite reacted at pH 2.8 and 7 retains the sheet structure (Figure 3-8b and c). When biotite is reacted at very low pH (pH < 2; XPD-pattern discussed above) the structure is broken and the sheets open up (figure 3-8a).

Micro probe analysis of mineral remainder from experiments at pH 2.8 and 7 shows complete depletion of potassium and inclusion of sodium (table 3-4). No significant change in silicon, iron, magnesium or aluminium content is observed. The detection of sodium is not explained by retention of sodium perchlorate since no, or negligible amounts, of chlorine are detected.

Micro probe analysis of the pH < 2-sample shows a depletion in all metals. Silicon and oxygen are the remaining main elements.

Table 3-4

Micro probe analysis [mole-%] of unreacted biotite and mineral remainder from the CO₂-free biotite kinetic experiments.

Sample	K	Na
Unreacted	6.8	0
pH 2.8	0	6.8
pH 7	0	14.3

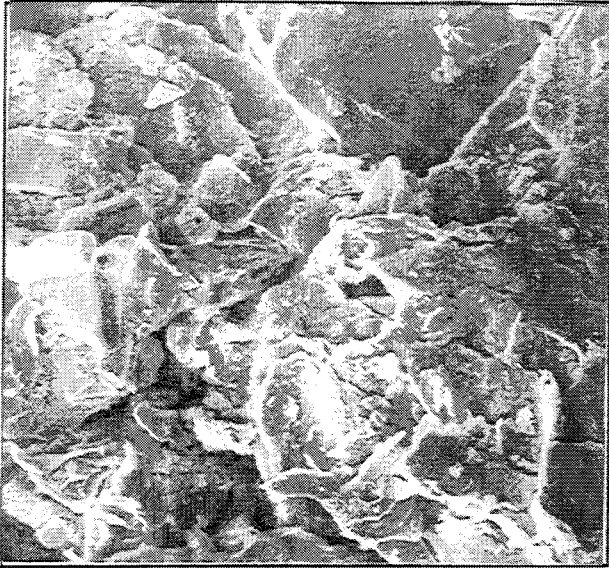


Figure 3-8a

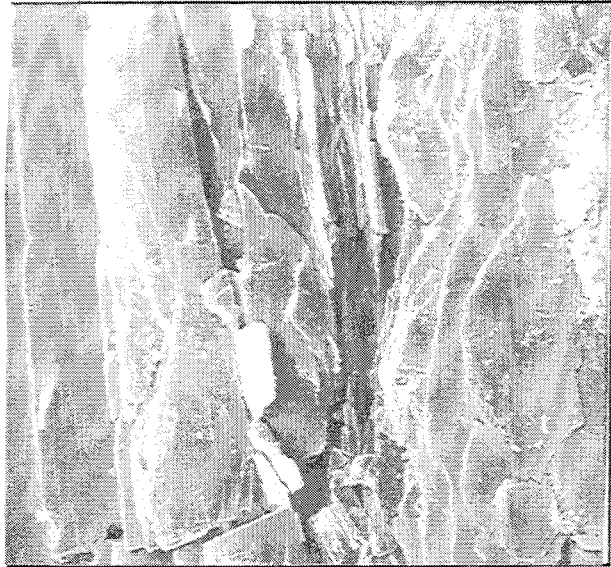


Figure 3-8c

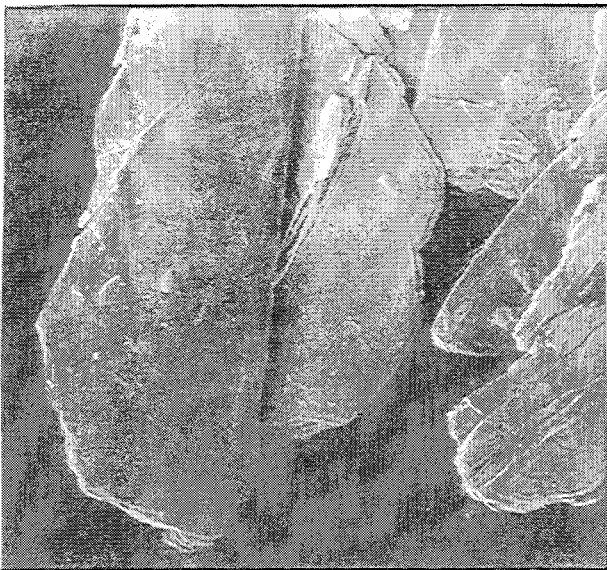


Figure 3-8b

Figure 3-8.
SEM images of mineral remainder from the kinetic experiment of biotite dissolution at different pH ($\text{CO}_2(\text{g})$ -free). a) pH < 2. The structure is broken and the sheets have opened up. (Magnification 1000) b) pH = 2.8. The sheet structure is retained. (Magnification 500) c) pH = 7. The sheet structure is retained. (Magnification 500).

3.1.4 Mössbauer Results

Table 3-5 lists the Fe(II)/Fe(III) ratio in the fresh biotite and the mineral remainder from the thin-film-continuous flow-through reactor. Throughout the weathered samples there is a decrease in the Fe(II)/Fe(III) ratio compared to the unreacted biotite. A mass-balance calculation showed that the change can not solely be explained by preferential release of Fe(II) over Fe(III). Oxidation of structural Fe(II) is normally observed during biotite weathering (Fanning et al., 1989 and references therein).

For chlorite there is no significant difference in the Fe(II)/Fe(III) ratio between weathered and fresh mineral samples.

Table 3-5

Mössbauer analysis of fresh biotite and mineral remainder from the biotite kinetic experiments at specified conditions.

	Fe(II) %	Fe(III)%
Unreacted	76.5	23.5
pH 2/CO ₂ -free	9.8	90.2
pH 3/CO ₂ -free	53.3	46.7
pH 5/CO ₂ -free	46.3	53.7
pH 7/CO ₂ -free	47.9	52.1
pH 8.8/1% CO ₂	63.4	36.6

3.1.5 Discussion (Biotite)

We interpret the kinetic behaviour of potassium as fast removal of K⁺ from the biotite interlayers, and the formation of a K-depleted region through which the K⁺ release becomes diffusion rate-limited.

The conceptual model of Schnoor (1990) for dissolution of complex oxides predicts that an initial period of incongruent dissolution will be followed by stoichiometric dissolution, rate-limited by the slowest surface controlled elemental release rate. The progression to this pseudo-steady state passes through three stages: 1) Initial fast and incongruent release of elements rate limited by the surface reaction at each type of surface site. Build up of layers depleted in the elements released at higher rates; 2) Gradually slower and transport

controlled release of depleted elements due to diffusion through a progressively thicker depletion layer. 3) Eventually the diffusion of depleted elements becomes as slow as the surface controlled dissolution of the element forming the depletion layer. The dissolution continuous congruently, rate limited by the surface reaction, with no further build up of the depletion layer.

Although the release rate of K^+ decreases with time it is still faster than that of the slowest element at the end of each experiment. The release of Si, Fe, Mg and Al is, after an initial period, linear with time throughout each experiment. This indicates that the stoichiometric stage of dissolution is not reached within the time-scale of these experiments.

The pH dependent steady-state rates of Si, Fe, Mg and Al release can be explained by:

$$R_{dissolution} = k_{acid}[H^+]^{n_{acid}} + k_{neutral} + k_{basic}[H^+]^{n_{basic}} \quad (3-2)$$

This equation implies parallel reaction mechanisms for acid- and base catalysed dissolution reactions. Similar equations have been used by Wieland et al. (1988), Brady and Walther (1989) and Stumm and Wollast (1990) to describe chemical surface-controlled dissolution kinetics of binary oxides and silicates. Table 3-6 lists the constants fitted by the least square method to equation 3-2.

Table 3-6

Least square fitted values for the constants in the empiric rate law:

$$R_{diss} = k_{acid}[H^+]^{n_{acid}} + k_{neutral} + k_{basic}[H^+]^{n_{basic}}$$

for biotite dissolution (CO_2 -free and 1 % CO_2 experiments)

	Si	Fe	Mg	Al
Lg k_{acid}	-5.75 ± 0.01	-5.10 ± 0.17	-5.27 ± 0.20	-5.31 ± 0.07
n-acid	-0.41 ± 0.01	-0.51 ± 0.04	-0.46 ± 0.04	-0.40 ± 0.02
lg $K_{neutral}$	-7.15 ± 0.24^a	-- ^c	-- ^c	-- ^c
lg K_{basic}	-10.31 ± 0.14^b	-14.22 ± 0.23	-9.97 ± 0.08	-12.58 ± 0.24
n-basic	-0.27 ± 0.09^b	0.65 ± 0.12	0.20 ± 0.04	0.54 ± 0.13

a) Valid in the CO_2 -free system. b) Valid in the 1% CO_2 system.

c) $K_{neutral}$ was too low to be determined.

The dissolution is non-stoichiometric with preferential release of Fe, Mg and Al at low pH, and Si at higher pH. Only around pH 5 is the dissolution reaction stoichiometric. The incongruent dissolution will

cause a change of composition of the mineral. This change of composition will occur only in the outermost part of the mineral, the reacting-layer. To follow the dissolution behaviour of a complex mineral like biotite it is necessary to account for the composition as well as the depth of the reacting layer. It is reasonable to assume that the rate of release of an element (Si, Fe, Mg or Al) from the mineral at a single pH is proportional not only to surface area but also to the amount of the element in the reacting-layer:

$$R_j \propto [H^+]_{aq}^n N_j A_{BET} \quad (3-3)$$

where

N	amount in the reacting-layer	A_{BET}	surface area
j	index for an element	R	dissolution rate

We have used the release of potassium as a measure of the depth of the reacting-layer. The amount of an element in the reacting-layer is then given by equation (3-4) where a_j is calculated from equation (2-2).

$$N_j = \frac{P_j}{P_{K^+}} a_{K^+} - a_j \quad (3-4)$$

P_j is the stoichiometric number of element (j) in the molecular formula of the mineral.

When the steady-state release rate is normalized to the amount in the reacting-layer according to:

$$R_j^* = \frac{R_j}{N_j} \quad (3-5)$$

the trends in the pH dependence are qualitatively similar to the end-member (hydr)oxides (fig 3-9). The normalized release rate of silicon is independent of pH in the range 3 - 8.5. As for silica (Knauss and Wolery, 1988; Brady and Walther, 1990) the dissolution reaction is faster above this region but also at lower pH. The release rate of iron and aluminium is fractional order dependent on solution proton concentration showing similarities with the simple oxides Al_2O_3 and $FeOOH$ studied by Furrer and Stumm (1986) and Zinder et al. (1986) respectively. The magnesium release rate is also fractional order dependent on pH in the acid region but independent of proton concentration above pH = 7.

3.1.5.1 Modelling of Release Rates of Non-Exchangeable Elements from Biotite

We model the observed dissolution behaviour in the CO₂-free system as three parallel reaction mechanism with the rates R_{acid} , $R_{neutral}$ and R_{basic} , each dominating in the acid, neutral and basic pH region respectively. The total dissolution rate is the sum:

$$R^* = R_{acid} + R_{neutral} + R_{basic} \quad (3-6)$$

The activated complex for proton promoted dissolution reactions is postulated by Furrer and Stumm (1986) to be a surface site surrounded by Z protons. Wieland et al. (1988) suggests that the concentration of such a activated surface site is proportional to the mole fraction of protonated surface sites raised to Z.

$$R_{acid}^* = \kappa_{acid} X_{>SOH_2^+}^Z \quad (3-7)$$

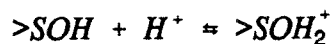
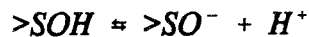
where X denotes a mole fraction, $>SOH_2^+$ denotes a protonated surface site and Z an integer value. We model the $R_{neutral}$ to be independent of proton concentration.

$$R_{neutral}^* = \kappa_{neutral} \quad (3-8)$$

For the hydroxyl promoted dissolution we treat the activated state as being a site surrounded by Y deprotonated sites. The rate will then, analogous to the acid promoted reaction, be :

$$R_{basic}^* = \kappa_{basic} X_{>SO^-}^Y \quad (3-9)$$

The acid base reactions of mineral surfaces are described by the following reactions for which the surface complexation model (Stumm and Morgan, 1981) can be used (see appendix 6.8):



In the modelling procedure we have fixed the Z=Y values for iron, magnesium, aluminium and silicon to 2, 2, 3, 4 respectively according to the postulation by Stumm and Wollast (1990) and Furrer and Stumm (1986) for Z to equal the oxidation state of the element. Then the rate and surface-acidity constants were varied to fit the data starting from acidity constants found in the literature (aluminum

oxide (8, -8.8, Carroll-Webb and Walther, 1988), iron oxide (7.3, -10, Bruno et al., 1992a) and silica (-3, -6.7, Schindler et al., 1976)). The surface speciation was calculated by the computer program C-Haltafall (Östhols, 1994) using the diffuse layer model (Dzombak and Morell, 1990) for electrostatic effects on the surface. The constants used for the model curves in figure 3-9 are listed in table 3-7. It is important to note that the model curves are adjusted to fit the data using the combination of the surface complexation- and the activated complex- theory, indicating the usefulness of such an approach for a complex mineral like biotite.

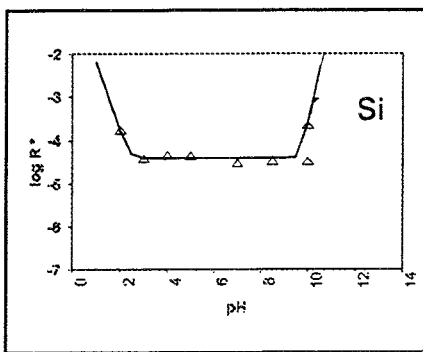


Figure 3-9a

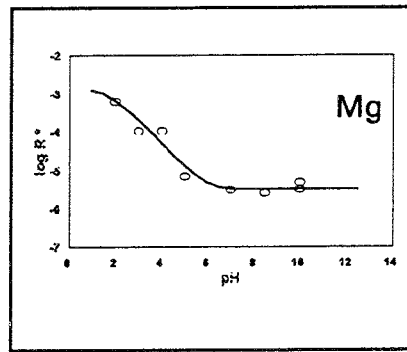


Figure 3-9c

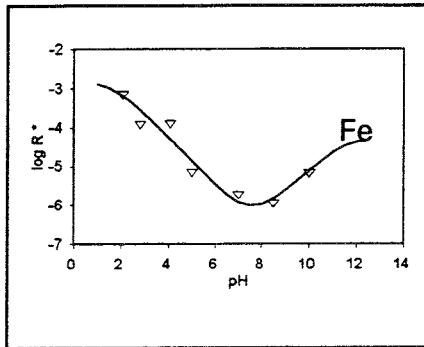


Figure 3-9b

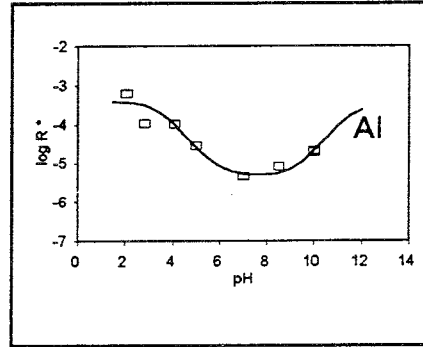


Figure 3-9d

Figure 3-9.

Log of normalized dissolution rates [moles biotite $m^{-2} h^{-1} moles^{-1}$] vs pH. Model curves (See text) are derived for the biotite end-member oxides from the combination of the surface complexation model for equilibrium at oxide surfaces (Stumm and Morgan, 1981) and the activated complex theory for mineral dissolution (Furrer and Stumm, 1986; Wieland et al., 1988). a) silicon b) iron c) magnesium d) aluminium.

Table 3-7

Model constants used in the surface-chemically-controlled dissolution rate modelling in figure 3-9.

	Si	Fe	Mg	Al
K_1 (acidity constant)	1	5	5	7
K_2 (acidity constant)	-12	-8	-11	-8
K_{acid} (rate constant)	2	-2.8	-2.8	-3.4
Z = Y	4	2	2	3
$K_{neutral}$ (rate constant)	-4.4	-6.3	-5.5	-
K_{basic} (rate constant)	4.7	-4.3	-	-3.5

3.1.6

Conclusions

- * The release of Mg, Fe and Al from biotite is highly pH dependant in the region $2 < \text{pH} < 10$ and qualitatively resembles the behaviour of the binary end-member oxides. The release of Si is independent of pH in the near-neutral pH region.
- * Biotite dissolution is highly non-stoichiometric, on the time-scale of the experiment, with preferential release of Fe, Mg and Al in the acid region and Si in the near-neutral and alkaline region. The conceptual model of Schnoor (1990) for dissolution of complex oxides predicts that the dissolution will eventually be congruent and rate limited by the slowest surface controlled elemental release due to the formation of depletion layers.
- * There is no significant effect of (bi)carbonate on Fe, Mg Al or K release from biotite. Si, on the other hand is released at a slower rate in the CO_2 -system.
- * The release of elements from chlorite is less pH dependent and less non-stoichiometric than the release from biotite. In the near neutral pH region the dissolution rates of the two minerals are similar.
- * The release of potassium is diffusion controlled as indicated by a linear plot of accumulated release vs time.

We interpreted this as a formation of a potassium depleted surface-layer through which the reaction is diffusion controlled.

- * The release of Si, Fe, Mg and Al is controlled by a surface reaction mechanism on the time-scale of the experiment. The pH dependence of the dissolution rate can be explained by parallel acid- and base-catalysed reactions.

3.2 RESULTS FROM EQUILIBRIUM EXPERIMENT

3.2.1 Wet-Chemistry Results

3.2.1.1 Biotite

Figure 3-10 shows the equilibrium concentrations of elements in solutions contacted with biotite at specified conditions. Below $\text{pH} \approx 4$ the solution concentrations are weakly pH dependent and the solution composition close to stoichiometric. At higher pH the solution concentration and composition are highly pH dependent. The results from the batch experiments and the titration experiments are in fair agreement. The silicon data show the biggest discrepancy with lower concentrations obtained from the batch experiment than from the titration experiment. This may be due to extensive alteration of the solid phase at extreme pH, prior to equilibration at higher pH during the continuous titration.

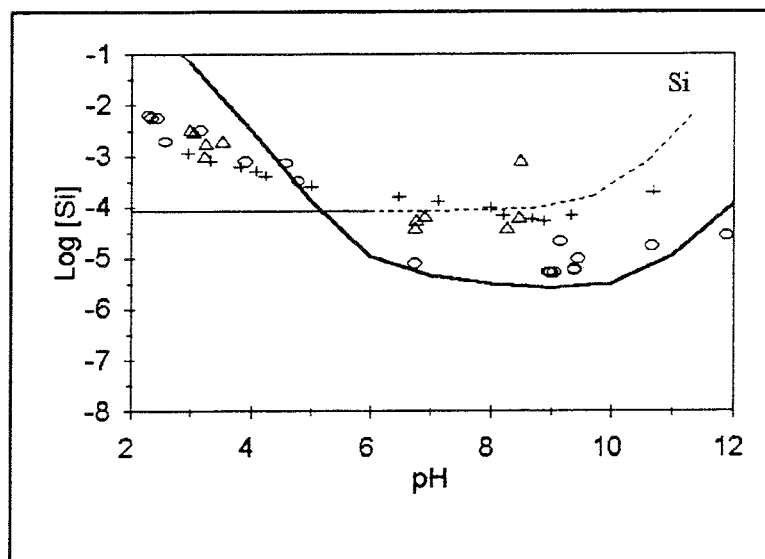


Figure 3-10a

Figure 3-10a

Solution concentrations in experiments where biotite has been reacted with ionic medium (CO_2 -free experiment). Model curves represent solubility of secondary phases calculated by Harphreeqe. \circ Batch experiments; $+$ titrations started at low pH; Δ titrations started at high pH. a) Si. - - - Quartz- — Clay-solubility. The modelling and model curves are discussed in section 3.2.4.

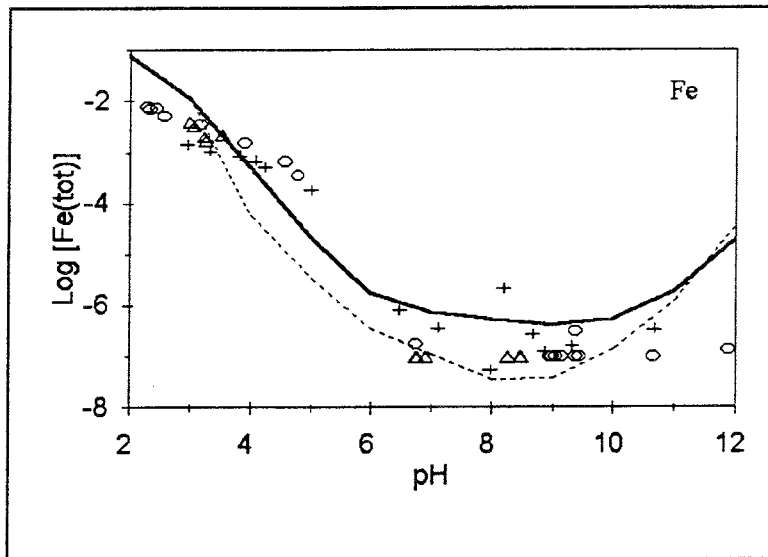


Figure 3-10b

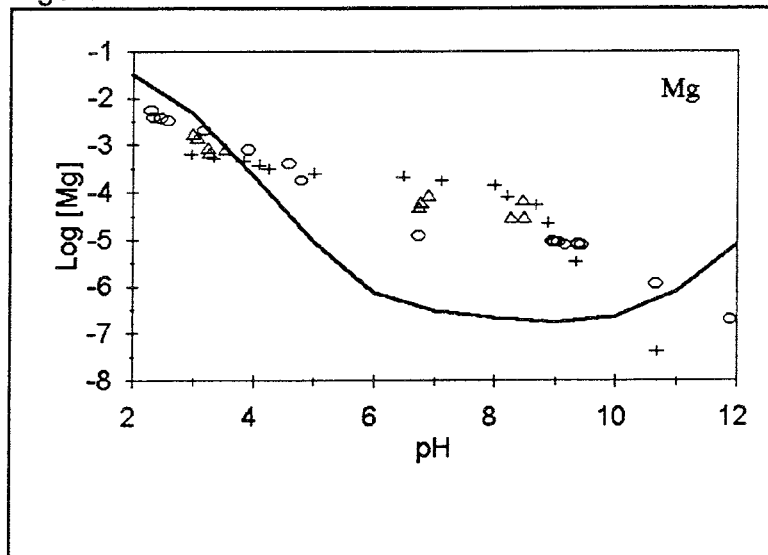


Figure 3-10c

Figure 3-10b,c.

Solution concentrations in experiments where biotite has been reacted with ionic medium (CO_2 -free experiment). Model curves represent solubility of secondary phases calculated by Harphreeqe. \circ Batch experiments; $+$ titrations started at low pH; Δ titrations started at high pH. b) Fe. - - - amorphous Fe(III)-(hydr)oxide-, — Fe(II)-clay-solubility; c) Mg — Fe(II)-clay-solubility. The modelling and model curves are discussed in section 3.2.4.

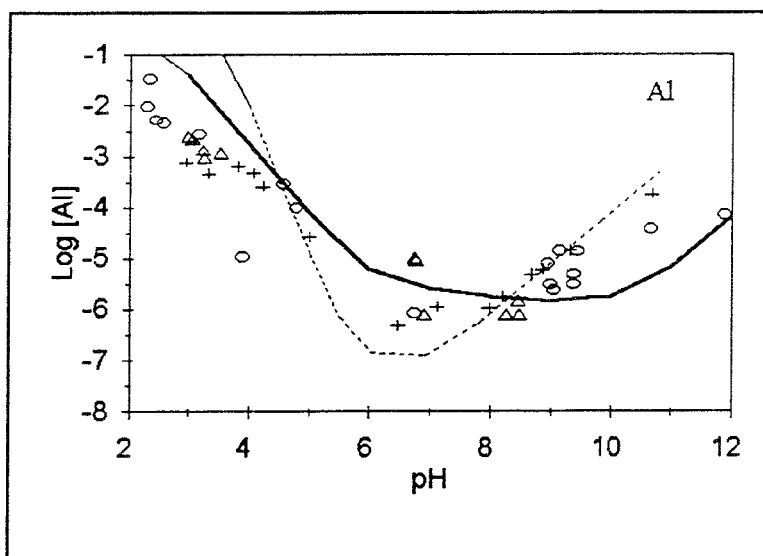


Figure 3-10d

Figure 3-10d

Solution concentrations in experiments where biotite has been reacted with ionic medium (CO_2 -free experiment). Model curves represent solubility of secondary phases calculated by Harphreeqe. \circ Batch experiments; $+$ titrations started at low pH; Δ titrations started at high pH. d) Al - - - Gibbsite — Fe(II)-Clay. The modelling and model curves are discussed in section 3.2.4.

Calculation of the saturation index, SI ($\text{SI} = \lg Q - \lg K_s$, where Q is the actual ion product corresponding to the solubility constant) for samples (pH 0.3; 1.3; 2.3; 3.2; 3.9; 4.8; 6.7; 9.0 and 10.7) from the batch experiments by the computer program Harphreeq (Brown et al., 1991) using the Hatches database (Cross and Ewart, 1989) shows that in the pH region $0.3 < \text{pH} < 3.9$ the solution is over-saturated with respect to "simple" Si-phases like quartz, cristobalite and amorphous SiO_2 . At near neutral pH the SI indicates over-saturation to several phases, for example gibbsite, kaolinite, illite, paragonite and some smectites (eg beidellite, montmorillonite, and nontronite) and some zeolites (eg heulandite and mordenite). At pH 10.7 the solution is oversaturated to chrysotile, nontronite, saponite, phlogopite and talc.

Mass balance calculations for the pH region $0.3 < \text{pH} < 3.9$ show an relative enrichment of Si in the solid material. In the near neutral pH region corresponding calculations show relative enrichment of Fe and depletion of Mg in the solid material.

In the biotite- H_2O - $\text{CO}_2(\text{g})$ -system Mg, Al and Si concentrations do not significantly differ from the CO_2 -free system. Fe shows higher solution concentrations at high pH when (bi)carbonate is present which may be due to the formation of Fe(II)- (Bruno et al., 1992b) or Fe(III)- (Bruno et al., 1992a) (bi)carbonate-complexes.

The concentration of potassium in solution is about 10^{-3} - 10^{-2} M in the entire pH/ P_{CO_2} region studied. This probably reflects an ion-exchange reaction. Table 3-8 lists the total iron concentrations and the E_h -values obtained in a continuous titration. The E_h -values are low, and indicate the preferential release of Fe(II).

Table 3-8

Total iron concentrations and E_h -values from a continuous biotite titration experiment.

pH	Log Fe(tot)	E_h (GC) [mV]	E_h (Pt) [mV]	E_h (Pt) [mV]	E_h (Au) [mV]
3.55	-3.01	214.6	392.5	412.3	371.0
3.17	-2.73	169.3	383.2	393.0	383.2
3.24	-2.76	314.9	434.3	440.5	433.0
3.53	-2.66	370.3	446.7	459.9	449.0
3.06	-2.47	385.1	470.2	470.7	470.0
2.98	-2.40	443.9	484.6	482.5	484.5
3.23	-2.69	337.6	455.1	455.8	456.4
2.91	-2.44	548.2	552.6	552.6	552.6
3.37	-2.51	545.2	547.7	547.7	547.7
2.12	-2.58	623.4	627.2	627.2	627.2
2.38	-2.61	614.6	617.8	617.8	617.8
3.31	-2.61	381.5	473.4	476.4	473.9

GC - Glassy carbon electrode; Pt - Pt-sheet electrode; Au - Au-sheet electrode.

3.2.1.2 Chlorite

A small number of batch equilibrium experiments in the H_2O/CO_2 system has been made with chlorite to make comparisons with biotite. The output concentrations of iron, magnesium and silicon are very similar to the one obtained from biotite indicating that the same secondary phases are controlling the solubility in both systems. However, the aluminium concentrations are lower in the case of chlorite at pH above 9. Another difference is the lower tendency of chlorite to buffer the pH.

3.2.2 XPD Results (Biotite)

Figure 3-11 shows the XPD pattern of mineral phases from the biotite batch equilibrium experiments. At $\text{pH} \leq 2.6$ there is no expansion of the inter-layer (compare section 3.1.2). At higher pH ($\text{pH} \geq 3.6$) the d(001) peak shifts towards longer distances, indicating an expansion of the interlayer. The main peak is found around $2\theta = 8.4$ deg (12 \AA) indicating the formation of a sodium smectite or a hydro-biotite (compare section 3.1.2), however the additional peak at $2\theta = 7.1$ deg (14 \AA) is typical for a vermiculite (Brindley and Brown, 1980, table 5.18).

Consistent with the kinetic experiments the typical peaks for kaolinite are found in several samples (up to pH 4.6). No other crystalline secondary metal oxide or simple silicate is found. However, at pH 0.3, some broad low-intensity peaks are present, indicating the formation of a semi-amorphous phase.

In some of the patterns (figure 3-11 and appendix 7.9) the existence of a peak around $2\theta = 25$ deg (5 \AA) is present. Fanning et al. (1989) ascribe such peaks to an Al-rich octahedral sheet in the mica structure. This peak can also be due to vermiculite (Brindley and Brown, 1980, table 5.18) or gibbsite (Wilson, 1966; Brindley and Brown, 1980, table 5.18).

The location of the d(060) peak ($1.51\text{-}1.56 \text{ \AA}$) corresponds for all samples to a trioctahedral structure (Fanning et al., 1989).

3.2.3 SEM/Micro Probe Analysis

Figure 3-12 shows the SEM image of some of the samples from the batch equilibrium experiment. The images of these samples ($0.3 < \text{pH} < 2.3$) indicate that there is a tendency for breaking up the structure at extremely low pH. At pH 0.3 small islands of precipitates are found on the basal plane (Figure 3-12c). The examination of this plane by micro probe reveals an enrichment of silicon (table 3-9).

Micro probe analysis (table 3-9) of these solids indicates that any sodium enrichment observed is due to sodium perchlorate retention. Consistently there is no significant depletion of potassium. At pH 0.3 there is a significant loss of K, Mg, Fe and Al. When the analysis is done with the electron beam parallel to the basal plane (\perp to the paper plane in figure 3-12) no K, Mg, Fe or Al is detected.

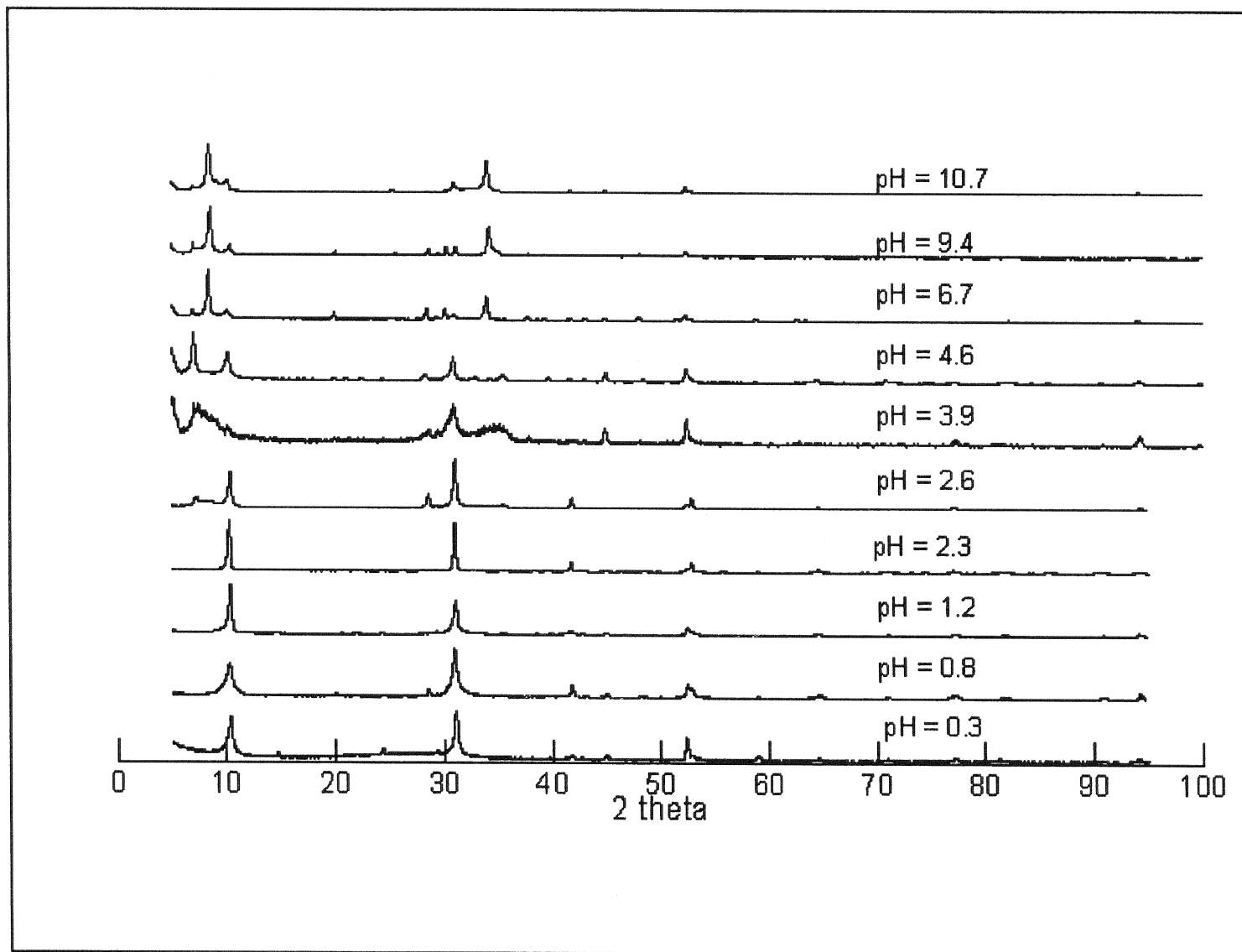


Figure 3-11
XPD reflections from mineral samples reacted in the biotite batch equilibrium experiment.

Table 3-9
Micro-probe analysis [mole %] of minerals from the biotite batch experiments.

	K	Na	Si	Fe	Mg	Al	Cl
Fresh	6.8	0	18	8	4	5.4	-
pH 2.3	6.5	0.2	19	8	4	5.4	0.3
pH 1.2	4.3	1.4	21	6	3.3	4.1	1.4
pH 0.3 (in plane)	0	0	38	0	0	0	0.3
pH 0.3 (parallel to plane)	0	0	22	4.5	0.7	1.7	0.8

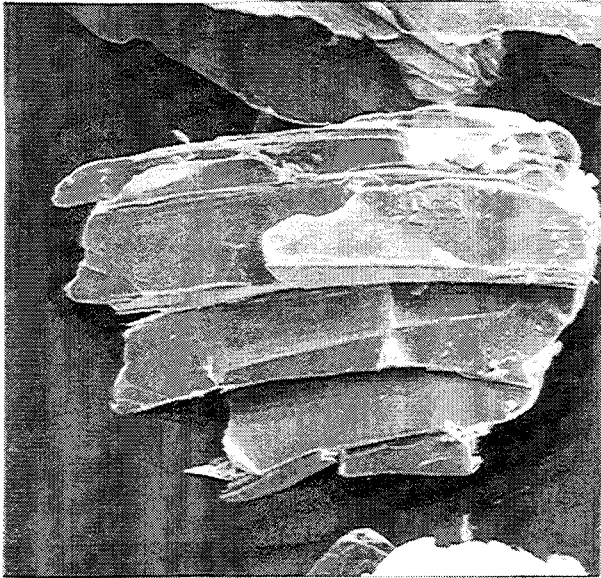


Figure 3-12a.



Figure 3-12c.

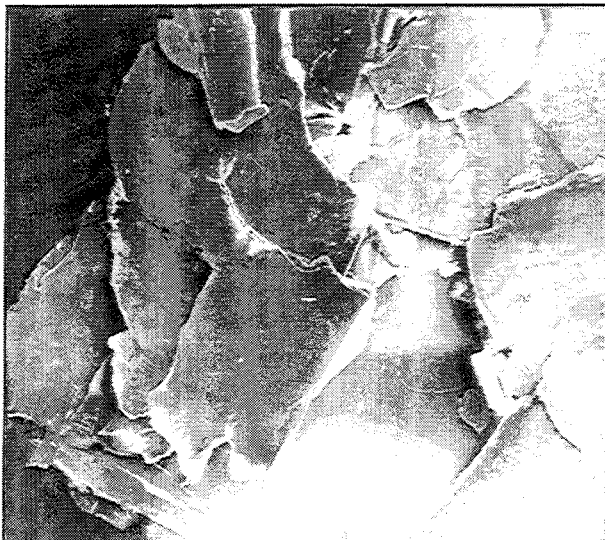


Figure 3-12b.

Figure 3-12.
SEM images of mineral remainder from the biotite batch experiments at different pH ($\text{CO}_2(\text{g})$ -free). a) pH = 2.34 (Magnification 330), b) pH = 1.18 (Magnification 200), c) pH = 0.3 (Magnification 4000). Note that even at low pH the sheets are not broken or opened up. At extreme conditions (c) small islands of precipitates are formed on the surface. The solid is highly enriched in Si according to micro probe analysis.

3.2.4 Discussion (biotite)

In the literature no solubility constant for biotite is reported. Helgeson (1978) points out the difficulties of determining thermodynamic properties of ferrous/ferric aluminosilicates due to the ambiguity concerning the redox state of iron. We have estimated (see appendix 6.7) the free energy of formation ($\Delta G_{f,298.15}^0$) for biotite ($\text{K}(\text{Mg}_2\text{Fe})(\text{Si}_3\text{Al})\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2$) using the polymer model outlined by Sposito (1986) for smectites. This model is an improvement of earlier methods ((Slaughter, 1966; Tardy and Garells, 1974; Nriagu, 1975; Chen, 1975; Mattigod and Sposito, 1978) for estimation of the $\Delta G_{f,298.15}^0$ of phyllosilicates from Gibbs free energy of formation of its end-member (hydr)oxides. The Gibb's free energy for formation of biotite was used, in combination with literature data (Sposito, 1986) on $\Delta G_{f,298.15}^0$ for aqueous species, to estimate (see appendix 6.7) the solubility constant ($\lg K_s = 40 \pm 2$) corresponding to the following reaction:



The estimated constant is reasonable compared to solubility constants of other micas given in the Hatches database (Cross and Ewart, 1989), i.e phlogopite $\lg K_s = 38.22$, muscovite $\lg K_s = 14.56$ and paragonite $\lg K_s = 18.48$. This solubility product indicates that biotite is highly unstable towards weathering. We have constructed a predominance diagram (fig 3-13) valid for our experimental conditions including several possible secondary weathering products. The diagram shows that biotite is stable only at high pH and low pe. It also shows that clay minerals are the thermodynamically most important weathering products at neutral pH and moderate pe.

Consistent with the low stability of biotite, the equilibrium data is not explained by stoichiometric dissolution of biotite (reaction given above), but rather by 1) exchange of the inter-layer ion (see section 3.2.4.3); 2) the formation of secondary solubility controlling solids by non-stoichiometric transformation of biotite and/or precipitation (see section 3.2.4.1).

In spite of the predicted instability of biotite, the XPD reflections of the reacted mineral phases all show the characteristic d(001) peak of micas. We interpret the presence of biotite as a core of unaltered biotite covered by secondary mineral phases. The biotite is prevented from further dissolution due to blocking of the reactive biotite surface by secondary weathering products.

The XPD reflections of the mineral phases from experiments at higher pH all indicate the characteristic expansion of the silicate

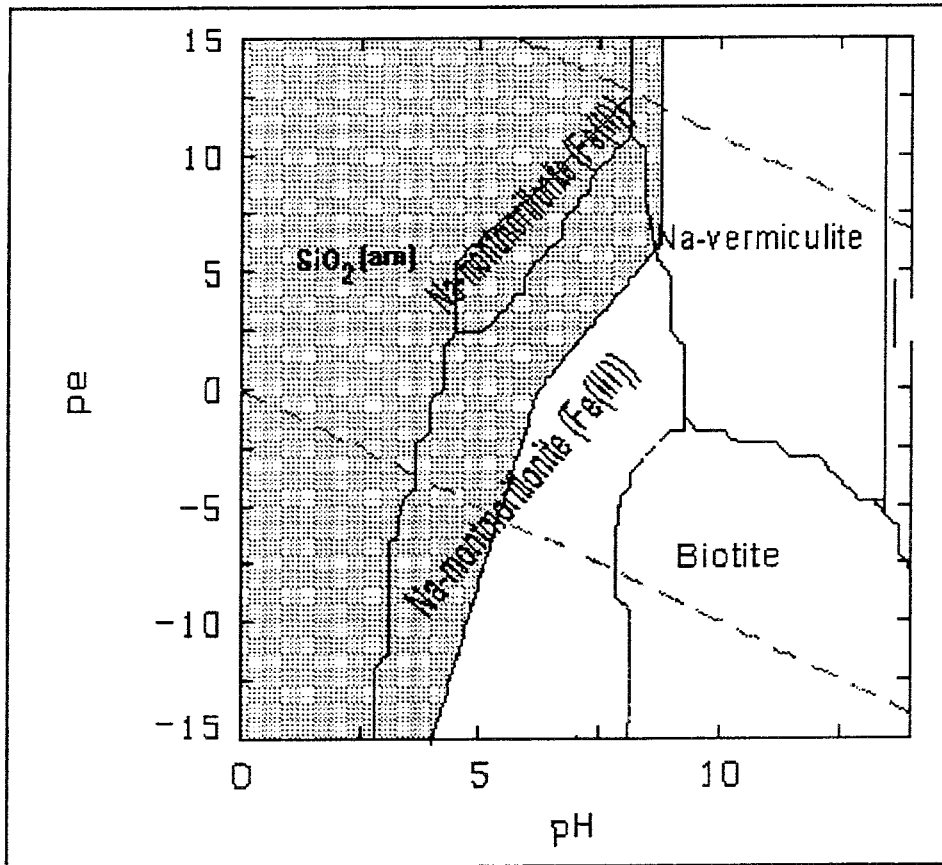


Figure 3-13.

Predominance diagram calculated, using the SED computer program (Puigdomènech and Åberg, 1987), for 1 mM biotite (ideal) in 0.5 M NaClO_4 . Si is the main component. Grey area represents quartz stability.

The following solid phases have been considered:

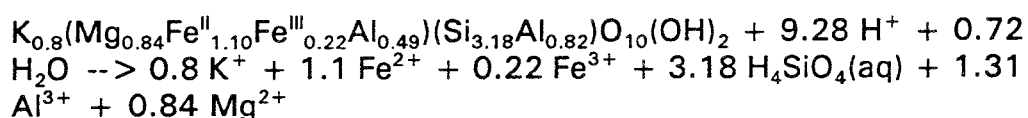
Brucite ^a, $\text{Fe}(\text{OH})_3(\text{s})$ ^b, Na-Montmorillonite (Fe(II) and Fe(III))^c, K-Montmorillonite (Fe(II) and Fe(III))^d, Na-Montmorillonite (Fe(II) and Fe(III))^c, Na-vermiculite^c, K-vermiculite^d, Biotite^c, Gibbsite^a, $\text{SiO}_2(\text{am})$ ^a, Quartz^{a,e}. Only mono-nuclear hydrolysis species^a were considered.

a) Constant taken from the Hatches database (Cross and Ewart, 1989); b) $\lg K_s = 2.5$ (see section 3.2.4.2); c) $\Delta G_{f,298.15}^0$ estimated accordingly to Sposito (1986) (See appendix 7.7); d) $\lg K_s$ taken from the Na saturated mineral; e) stability field given by the shaded area.

structure. This is due to the introduction of hydrated (or hydrolysed) ions and/or water in the interlayers, i.e formation of a clay mineral. We have not been able to identify the specific type or composition of the clay from the present data set. To determine the type of clay mineral, i.e smectite, vermiculite or inter-layered clay, specific X-ray methods are required, relating $d(00l)$ spacings to the structure of oriented mineral samples following specific chemical or heat treatments (Carroll, 1970; Brindley and Brown, 1980; Moore and Reynolds, 1989). The elemental composition of the clay could not be calculated by mass balance equations for the experimental systems since 1) the amount of biotite altered is unknown; 2) the amount of "simple" secondary phases precipitated is not determined. The micro probe analysis (table 3-9; sample pH 2.3) could not be used for calculations on the clay mineral stoichiometry since the detected amounts of Fe, Mg and Al are, within experimental uncertainties, identical to the unreacted biotite. Consistently, the X-ray pattern of the mineral remainder from the batch experiments (Figure 3-11; pH 2.3; pH 2.6; pH 3.9 and pH 4.6) reveals that biotite is the dominating phase in the low pH-region. Again, we interpret this as a core of biotite covered by secondary mineral phases.

3.2.4.1 Solubility Controlling Phases

Stoichiometric dissolution of biotite according to



would give a strong pH dependence for the solubility. However, the data show a weak pH dependence in the acid pH region indicating that secondary phases are formed.

Although SI-calculations show that the solutions are not saturated with respect to biotite below pH 10, the XPD patterns of the reacted minerals indicate that biotite is a main constituent of the solid material. We interpret this as a core of biotite covered by secondary, solubility controlling phases. Batch experiment ($2 < \text{pH} < 12$) run with different biotite to solution ratios (0.7 - 18 g/l) and equilibrated under different periods of time (7-60 days) show approximately the same element concentrations indicating that the solution composition is not kinetically controlled in this pH region.

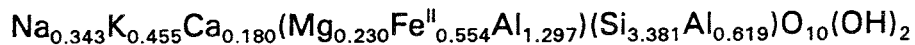
The solubility data is best illustrated by separating the data points into three pH-regions, the very acid region ($\text{pH} < 2$), the acid region ($2 < \text{pH} < 4.5$) and the near-neutral to alkaline region ($\text{pH} > 4.5$).

In the very acid region ($2 < \text{pH}$, not shown in figure 3-10, see appendix 7.4) the solution concentration and composition is most likely not controlled by solution-mineral equilibrium, but rather by kinetic effects such as slow break down of the sheet structure and diffusion through surface precipitates, causing the very low pH-dependence of solution concentration of Si, Fe, Mg and Al. This idea is supported by the SEM-images of a biotite sample reacted at pH 0.3 shown in figure 3-12c, where small islands of precipitates rich in Si (micro probe analysis; table 3-9) are seen on the cleavage plane, and figure 3-12c, where the break-up of the sheet-structure is shown. The XPD pattern of this sample has, superimposed on the pure biotite reflection peaks, some broad humps indicating the presence of substantial amounts ($> 5\%$ for detection by XPD-methods according to Carroll (1970)) of "semi-amorphous" material. Mass-balance calculations on solution/mineral composition show the solid to be rich in Si. These observations are consistent with a surface coverage of amorphous silica. It is not likely that the solution is in equilibrium with this phase since 1) SI-calculations show that the solution is oversaturated; and 2) there is a pH dependence in the Si concentration. Kittrick (1969) states that super saturation with respect to amorphous SiO_2 and quartz is often encountered in natural and laboratory systems and attributes this to the slow precipitation/dissolution rate of these phases.

In the less acid region ($2 < \text{pH} < 4.5$, figure 3-10) the solution concentrations of elements are close to stoichiometric. The pH trend in solution concentrations of Mg, Si and Al can not be explained by equilibrium with simple secondary phases (figure 3-10). The solubility is more probably controlled by a complex alteration product of biotite, i.e a clay mineral. The X-ray pattern of the mineral remainder from the batch experiments (Figure 3-11; pH 2.3; pH 2.6; pH 3.9 and pH 4.6) reveals that biotite is the dominating phase in the low pH-region. Again, we interpret this as a core of biotite covered by secondary mineral phases. Kaolinite was identified by means of its XPD pattern in some of the samples from this pH region. A plot (not shown) of $\text{pH}^{-1/3} \text{pAl}$ vs pSi yields a line with the slope 1.1 ± 0.2 which deviates from the theoretical slope of $1/3$ for solutions in equilibrium with kaolinite. This indicates that the solution composition is not controlled by the solubility of this phase. The disequilibrium with respect to kaolinite, although present, may be due to kinetic effects like 1) slow conversion of a clay into kaolinite; or 2) slow precipitation from an oversaturated solution.

Since the solution concentrations of Fe(II) are close to stoichiometric to Si, Al and Mg in this pH-region, it is probable that the same solid phase is controlling the solubility of these components. No pure Fe(II)-clay is reported in the literature. However, since most of the clays

that have been reported are found in soils, which generally are in contact with oxic surface water, Fe(II)-clays may not necessarily be as infrequent as their absence in the literature indicates. Laaksoharju et al. (1994) report elemental stoichiometry of precipitates found, at reducing conditions (characteristic $E_h = -250$ mV), in the redox zone at the Äspö Hard Rock Laboratory. They concluded that the Si/Al ratio in the examined precipitates is typical for clay minerals, and suggested the formation of a smectite or a mixed layer (illite/smectite) clay. The elemental composition of the precipitates corresponds to the formula:



The calculated content of interlayer ions (Na, K and Ca), which is very high, is probably erroneous and may be explained by the presence of sodium-, potassium- or calcium salts in the analysed samples.

We have used a sodium clay with a composition corresponding to the one given above to model our biotite data. Our experiments were carried out in 0.5 M NaClO₄ making a Na-clay the most probable to form (see section 3.2.4.3). We estimated the solubility product of the clay as we did for biotite (appendix 7.7). The model line in figure 3-10, represents the solubility of this clay ($\text{Na}_{1.19}(\text{Mg}_{0.23}\text{Fe}^{\text{II}}_{0.55}\text{Al}_{1.29})(\text{Si}_{3.38}\text{Al}_{0.62})\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2$) in 0.5 M NaClO₄ calculated by the Harphreeq-program (Brown et al., 1991). Although the experimental data does not fit the model curves exactly, the clay solubility can explain the pH trend in the solution concentrations of elements and predict the right order of magnitude for actual concentrations.

Our model is simple, it only includes the solubility of one secondary phase. A rigorous model for our laboratory system would have to include 1) dissolution of biotite; 2) precipitation of secondary phases; and 3) ion-exchange reactions. Such a model would account for the stoichiometry of the various reactions, and may, for example, better explain the observed high concentrations of magnesium. However, a simple solubility model, like the one outlined here, may be appropriate for a natural fracture zone where dissolved ions are continuously transported away.

Our redox measurements indicates that the Fe(II)/Fe(III) ratio in solution is high, 10^2 - 10^6 . The Fe(III)-concentration in solution is not stoichiometric to Fe(II) or any of the other elements. This indicates that another phenomenon than clay-solubility is controlling the Fe(III) concentration, possibly the solubility of a Fe(III)-(hydr)oxide (see section 3.2.4.2).

In the near-neutral to alkaline pH region the solution concentration of

Si (Fig 3-10a) seems to be controlled by quartz in the titration experiment. In the batch experiments a clay mineral is more likely the one controlling the solubility. The difference in results from the two experimental methods may be explained by the fact that the titrations were started at extreme pH (3 and 9 respectively) and the solution may in these cases have been quickly oversaturated with respect to both solids, quartz being the kinetically favoured to precipitate although more soluble. Aluminium concentration (fig 3-10d) seems to be controlled by gibbsite.

Equilibrium concentrations of iron from the batch and the titration experiments are similar. Since no redox speciation is available in this pH region, we can only consider the two limiting cases where the total iron concentration is dominated by one of the redox states:

- 1) If total iron reflects Fe(III), i.e Fe(II) released from the biotite has been oxidized by trace amounts of oxygen, the solubility is apparently controlled by amorphous Fe(III) hydroxide.

In the batch experiments a solution concentration of molecular oxygen on the order 0.1 mg/l would be enough to quantitatively oxidize any Fe(II)-released, assuming that Fe(II) release is stoichiometric to Mg release. In spite of the precautions to exclude oxygen from the experiments, it cannot be excluded that such low trace concentrations of oxygen were present. In titrations, going from acid pH to the alkaline pH region, the E_H measurements indicate Fe(II) to be the dominant redox species at low pH. A pathway for Fe-depletion in solution, when going towards more alkaline conditions, would then be 1) oxidation of Fe(II) followed by 2) precipitation of an Fe(III)-hydroxide. From the solution concentrations of iron at different pH, a consumption of oxygen necessary to oxidize relevant amounts of Fe(II) can be estimated on the order ≈ 3 mg/l around pH 5. Although it is possible that the gas stream purging the solution carried some trace amounts of oxygen it is not plausible that it supplied such amounts. From this we can conclude that at least in the case of the titration experiments it is not plausible that Fe(tot) reflects only Fe(III).

- 2) If, on the other hand, total iron is dominated by Fe(II), any Fe(III) released from the biotite has precipitated as a less soluble Fe(III) (hydr)oxide. This is consistent with the solubility product found for Fe(III) hydroxide formed in the less acid pH region (see section 3.2.4.2) The total

iron concentration is too low to be controlled by a Fe(II)-(hydr)oxide or simple Fe(II)-silicate (fayalite).

The concentration of magnesium (Figure 3-10c) in solution is likewise far too low to be explained by brucite ($Mg(OH)_2$) or magnesium silicate (chrysotile, sepiolite, forsterite, enstatite) equilibrium. The solution concentration of Fe(II) and Mg may instead be controlled by equilibrium with a clay mineral. Alternatively, the concentration of these elements could be kinetically controlled. When biotite dissolves in a batch or titration experiment, the solution rapidly becomes oversaturated with respect to some secondary mineral phases. These phases may precipitate on the biotite surface, yielding a biotite core covered by precipitates and alteration products. Elements that are not in equilibrium with secondary phases may be prevented from further accumulation in solution due to dissolution inhibition by weathering products blocking the reactive biotite surface.

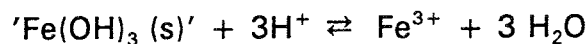
3.2.4.2 Redox Conditions

The experimental determination of redox conditions was only possible in the acid pH region. At higher pH ($pH > 4$) the solution redox buffer capacity was too low to make E_h measurements possible. The redox potential is clearly determined by the Fe(II)/Fe(III) redox couple since no other redox couple is present in the system. The redox potential is given by the expression:

$$e = e_{Fe^{2+}/Fe^{3+}}^0 + g \lg \frac{[Fe^{3+}]}{[Fe^{2+}]} \quad (3-10)$$

Where e^0 is the standard potential [mV], and g the nernstian factor (59.16 mV at 25 °C).

We test the hypothesis that the Fe^{3+} - concentration is determined by 'Fe(OH)₃ (s)' solubility :



$$\log K_s = \lg[Fe^{3+}] + 3 * pH \quad (3-11)$$

Grenthe et al. (1992) demonstrate how experimental $E_h/pH/Fe^{2+}$ data can be used to determine a solubility product for the semi-amorphous iron-hydroxide by combining equations 3-10 and 3-11:

$$e = e_{Fe^{2+}/Fe^{3+}}^0 + g \log K_s - g ([Fe^{2+}] + 3pH) \quad (3-12)$$

We do not have Fe(II) measurements in our data set. However, since the pH and E_h are low, the following approximation seems reasonable:

$$[Fe(tot)] = [Fe(II)] + [Fe(III)] \approx [Fe^{2+}] \quad (3-13)$$

Using the data in figure 3-14 we estimated $\log K_s = 2.48 \pm 0.17$ (error estimate given as one standard deviation) for $Fe(OH)_3(s)$. The slope of the fitted line in figure 3-14, which equals g , and the actual value of $\log K_s$, close to what is found for amorphous iron (hydr)oxides, validates our model.

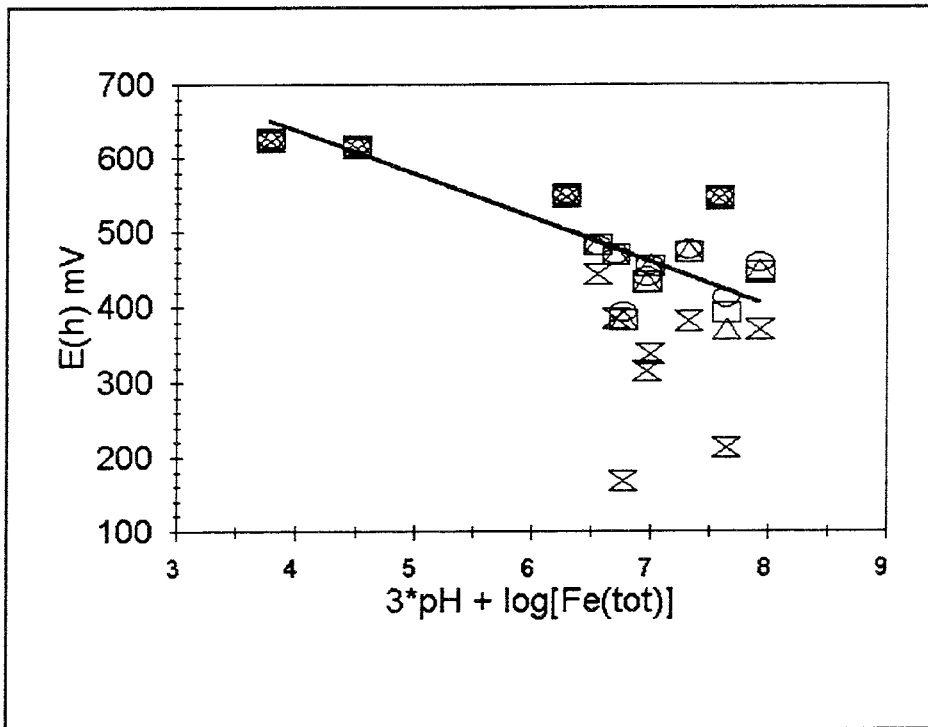
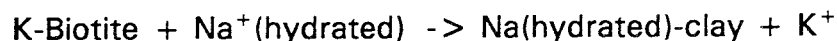


Figure 3-14.

$E(h)$ vs $\log[Fe(II)] + 3pH$ from the titration started at the acid side. The line has the theoretical slope of g and represents the best fit to the data points. Electrodes: X Glassy carbon; \square sheet Pt; \circ sheet Pt; Δ sheet Au.

3.2.4.3 Ion-exchange reactions

The concentration of potassium in solution is about 10^{-3} - 10^{-2} M in the whole pH region studied. This can be explained by an ion-exchange reaction according to:



(By definition (Fanning et al., 1989; Brindley and Brown, 1980) micas are 2:1 phyllosilicates with non-hydrated interlayer ions. Smectite and vermiculite (clays) are 2:1 phyllosilicates with hydrated interlayer ions and/or contains molecular water in the interlayer. A "Na-biotite" should rather be named "Na-clay". Usually the transformation of biotite to a clay causes changes in the silicate-structure in addition to the exchange of inter-layer ions. (Fanning et al., 1989, and references therein.))

The micro probe analysis (table 3-4 and 3-9) shows depletion of potassium and enrichment of sodium in the mineral during the experiments. This is consistent with the ion-exchange reaction suggested above. In the most acid region, protons might be competing with sodium in the exchange reaction. The equilibrium expression for the reaction given above is:

$$K_{Na} = \frac{[\text{K}^+]\{\text{Na-mineral}\}}{[\text{Na}^+]\{\text{K-mineral}\}} \quad (3-14)$$

where curved brackets refers to exchange sites [moles/l] in the mineral. The density of exchangeable sites, S_T [moles/g], is given by:

$$\frac{m}{V} S_T = \{\text{Na-mineral}\} + \{\text{K-mineral}\} \quad (3-15)$$

where m is mass [g] of mineral and V [l] is total volume in the experiment.

A mass balance on K gives the additional equation:

$$[\text{K}^+] = \{\text{Na-mineral}\} \quad (3-16)$$

K_{Na} and S_T are too strongly correlated to both be fitted from the data set. Exchange constants for monovalent metal ions on clays are usually close to 1 (Fletcher and Sposito, 1989). Using this assumption, S_T is estimated to be 0.0011 ± 0.0002 moles/g for the 75-125 μm size-fraction (error estimate is based on one standard

- Si Silicon is controlled by quartz (titration experiments) or a clay mineral (batch experiment). The difference in result from the two methods can be explained by kinetic effects.
- * E_h measurements in the low pH region ($2 < \text{pH} < 4$) indicate the preference for Fe(II) in solution, and the development of aqueous reducing capacity and reducing conditions during biotite weathering.
 - * The solution concentration of potassium is controlled by an ion-exchange reaction where sodium exchanges for potassium. In the most acid pH region, protons might compete with sodium for the exchange sites. The total exchange capacity, S_T , is estimated to be 0.0011 ± 0.0002 moles/g for the 75-125 μm size-fraction (error estimate is based on one standard deviation)

4. IMPLICATIONS FOR THE PERFORMANCE OF A DEEP REPOSITORY

4.1 TECHNICAL BACKGROUND

During the construction of a HLNW repository a large amount of oxidants will be introduced into the repository system. The amount of oxidants introduced may eventually effect the geochemical stability of the repository system by affecting both the chemical stability of the canister and the spent fuel matrix. This could eventually result in an enhanced radionuclide release. In the post-closure period most of the oxidants will be taken up by the remaining reducing capacity of the repository. The granitic bedrock constitutes the largest pool of reducing capacity in the system. Additional reducing capacity is linked to the presence and availability of organic carbon and Fe(II), both in the groundwater and the fissure fillings. In order to assess the effect of the remaining oxidants in the post-closure period it is critical to quantify the following factors:

- 1) The reducing capacity of the groundwater-rock system
- 2) The time-scale for the potential depletion of oxidants from the system.

These factors will determine two of the characteristic intensity parameters to define the geochemical stability of a repository system: low E_h and an appropriate amount of available Fe(II).

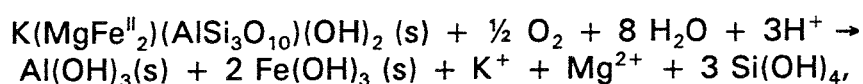
Among the various factors that define the reducing capacity of the bedrock, the weathering of Fe(II)-containing clays in the fissure fillings appears to be critical. Therefore, we have studied the kinetics and thermodynamics of the low temperature alteration of biotite and chlorite. By using the information collected in well controlled laboratory experiments we can derive estimates for the contribution of the weathering of Fe(II) clays to be compared to other potential oxidant scavenging phenomena, e.g. organic degradation and oxidant diffusion into the rock matrix. This information will be used to evaluate the contribution of Fe(II)-clay weathering to the overall reducing capacity of the repository system.

We do not imply that Fe(II)-silicate weathering will necessarily control the depletion of molecular oxygen and the development of reducing conditions. However, in order to better formulate conceptual and mathematical models for transport and reaction in deep groundwaters this process must be compared with other important processes such as hydrologic transport, diffusion in the rock matrix and microbiological activity.

4.2 CONSUMPTION OF MOLECULAR OXYGEN

4.2.1 The Capacity of Minerals for Uptake of Molecular Oxygen

Once the repository has been closed to the atmosphere, molecular oxygen will be depleted from the ground water system by reduction. In the ground water system several reductants are present (see figure 4-1), i.e. 1) organic carbon; 2) sulphide minerals (mainly pyrite) 3) minerals containing reduced transition metals (i.e. Mn(II) and Fe(II)), that potentially can react with dissolved oxygen. Grenthe et al. (1992) pointed out the importance of Fe(II)-oxidation processes, such as the oxidative weathering of biotite



to the redox reactions of groundwater systems. White and Yee (1985) studied the consumption of molecular oxygen by Fe(II)-silicate (hornblende, augite and biotite) containing laboratory systems at room temperature and pressure. They reported an initial period (~ 11 days) of rapid O₂ consumption followed by much slower steady-state uptake over a period of ~ 16 weeks. We have used the reported amount of O₂ consumed during the initial period to estimate capacities of rapid O₂ uptake (table 4-1).

Pirhonen and Pitkänen (1991) studied the long-term oxidation of ferrous iron in naturally and artificially fractured crystalline rocks and minerals at P_{O₂} = 100 bar. Naturally fractured samples generally had a greater porosity compared to the artificially fractured samples, presumably due to the greater physical alteration from higher rock strain. The weight percent of Fe(II) of the naturally and the artificially fractured samples was approximately the same before the experiments. All reacted samples showed a decrease of between 5-30% in the Fe(II)/Fe(III) ratio within a reaction zone at the sample surface. The artificially fractured samples all had a well-defined reaction layer of 10 mm depth or less. The naturally fractured samples showed between 20-30% decrease in the Fe(II)/Fe(III) ratio with a reaction that extended more than 14 mm into the sample. It was not possible to determine the full depth of the layer due to the restricted sample size. These results suggest that more porous rock provides greater access of groundwater and solutes into the rock matrix; i.e. more rapid and extensive matrix diffusion.

If diffusion is slow compared to chemical reactions that consume oxygen within the rock matrix, kinetic-enhanced mass transfer of oxygen from solution will occur (Neretnieks, 1985). If the rate of diffusion depends critically on the physical structure of the strained zone, the depth of reaction may depend only on the depth of the

strained zone (Eliasson, 1993): i.e. the reacting solution will have a negligible rate of diffusion into the unaltered rock.

Pirhonen and Pitkänen (1991) also reported that the redox capacity of whole rock samples (metadiorite, granite, metabasite, granodiorite and fracture samples) is in the range of 18-620 moles/m³. They report changes in Fe(II) and Fe(tot) contents of some mineral powders (biotite, hypersthene, hornblende, olivine, magnetite and pyrite) after 12 weeks of reaction. We have used their data to estimate the long-termed redox capacity of these minerals (table 4-1).

Table 4-1.
Estimated redox capacity of mineral powder.

Mineral	Capacity for fast O ₂ consumption ^a [moles/m ²]	Capacity of long-termed O ₂ consumption ^b [moles/m ²]
BIOTITE	1.5 * 10 ⁻⁶	2.8 * 10 ⁻⁴
HORNBLLENDE	1.1 * 10 ⁻⁶	1.9 * 10 ⁻⁵
AUGITE	5.2 * 10 ⁻⁶	na
HYPERSTHENE	na	3.2 * 10 ⁻⁵
OLIVINE	na	4.5 * 10 ⁻⁵
PYRITE	na	0 [#]
MAGNETITE	na	3.4 * 10 ⁻⁴

[#] No change in Fe(II)/Fe(tot) ratio reported. na: Data not available.

a) Estimated from White and Yee (1985, figure 12). b) Estimated from Pirhonen and Pitkänen (1991, table 4 and appendix 7. An specific surface area of 1 m²/g was assumed since only the interval 1-5 m²/g was reported.). The capacity of O₂ consumption is estimated indirectly by the changes in Fe(II) content of the mineral using a calculation method that is similar to the one Pirhonen and Pitkänen (1991) used for whole rock samples.

4.2.2 Time-Scale for Depletion of Molecular Oxygen

The time scale for depletion of dissolved oxygen by reaction with rock, or by reaction with dissolved iron(II) released from rock, can be estimated for the case of oxygen in a conductive fracture at the time of repository closure.

Equation 4-1 calculates the time scale (τ) to deplete a closed reservoir of dissolved molecular oxygen, where $R_{O_{uptake}}$ is the rate of oxygen consumption.

$$\tau_{anoxic} = \frac{[O_2]_{dissolved}}{R_{O_2 uptake}}, \quad [h] \quad (4-1)$$

We apply this equation to two different path-ways for depletion of dissolved oxygen:

- 1) First we consider the case of slow release of Fe(II) from the silicate mineral into solution followed by rapid reaction with dissolved oxygen.
 - a) Fe(II)-silicate + protons → Fe(II) (aq) + base cations + secondary minerals
 - b) Fe(II) + dissolved oxygen + protons → Fe(III) + water

The oxygen reduction rate is a zero-order reaction with respect to dissolved oxygen concentration since the overall rate is determined by the slow release of Fe(II) into solution. The reaction is also zero-order with respect to Fe(II)-minerals due to the large excess of such minerals compared to the amount of dissolved oxygen.

Equation 4-2 calculates the rate of oxygen uptake where A_w [m^2/l] is wetted surface area; f_m [moles mineral/moles total] is mole fraction of mineral m ; $P_{Fe(II)}$ [moles Fe(II)/moles mineral] is mole fraction of Fe(II) in mineral m .

$$R_{O_2 uptake} = \frac{A_w f_m R_{diss} P_{Fe(II)}}{4}, \quad \left[\frac{moles}{l h} \right] \quad (4-2)$$

Each mole of oxygen reacts with four moles of Fe(II).

Using the rate of Fe-release from Fe(II)-silicates obtained in this study, the turnover time of molecular oxygen is estimated to be in the range of 50-300 years (table 4-2).

The half-life ($t_{1/2}$) for oxygen cannot be calculated because the overall rate of oxygen depletion is only dependent on the very slow dissolution reaction, and not on the concentration of oxygen in solution.

- 2) Alternatively, in the case of direct oxygen uptake at mineral surfaces, the half-life for oxygen can be calculated assuming a first order decay for oxygen concentration in solution (equation 4-3).

$$\frac{d[O_2]_{(aq)}}{dt} = -k[O_2]_{(aq)} \quad (4-3)$$

The half-life is calculated by integrating equation 4-3 between $t=0$ and $t_{1/2}$, and setting the concentrations $C(t_{1/2})=0.5 \cdot C(t=0)$. In the experiments of White and Yee (1985), the oxygen concentration was approximately 0.25 mM when they determined R_o for slow oxygen uptake by mineral surfaces. Because the rate of uptake was slow $[O_2]_{(aq)}$ did not change dramatically during the rate determination. The first-order rate constant k is thus approximated by τ^{-1} (equation 4-4) listed in table 4-2, based on the measured rate of oxygen uptake at $[O_2]_{(aq)} = 0.25$ mM. Equation 4-5 gives the half-life for dissolved oxygen in those experiments.

$$k = \frac{1}{[O_2]_{(aq)}} \frac{d[O_2]_{(aq)}}{dt} = \frac{R}{d[O_2]_{(aq)}} = \frac{1}{\tau} \quad (4-4)$$

$$t_{1/2} = -\tau \ln(0.5) \quad (4-5)$$

Table 4-2

Characteristic Time Scales for Uptake of Dissolved Oxygen by Fe(II) in fracture minerals or groundwater.

The initial dissolved oxygen concentration was 8 mg/l (0.25 mM) in all cases. Oxygen is rapidly reduced in solution, subsequent to slow release of Fe(II) from minerals during dissolution, or can be taken up directly by Fe(II) sites at mineral surfaces. In the first case, the overall reaction is zero-order in dissolved oxygen concentration, and a half-life based on first-order decay of oxygen cannot be calculated

Mineral	Process	R_{O_2} (mole m ⁻² h ⁻¹)	f_m	P_{Fe}	A_w (m ² l ⁻¹)	τ (years)	$t_{1/2}$ (years)
Chlorite	dissolution	$4 \cdot 10^{-10}$	0.1	1	10	285	-
Biotite	dissolution	$2 \cdot 10^{-9}$	0.1	1	10	52	-
Biotite	O ₂ uptake	$5 \cdot 10^{-10}$	0.1	1	10	240	166
Hornblende	O ₂ uptake	$1.9 \cdot 10^{-9}$	0.1	1	10	59	41
Augite	O ₂ uptake	$1.4 \cdot 10^{-9}$	0.1	1	10	84	58

The results in table 4-2 compare τ and $t_{1/2}$ for various mineral or rock types. The relative abundance of reactive mineral or rock type is based on the amount of biotite present in fresh granite samples during

the Block Scale Redox Experiment (Banwart et al. (1992) p. 36). the other minerals or rock types are calculated assuming the same relative abundance. The surface area of rock in contact with the flow path ($10 \text{ m}^2 \text{ l}^{-1}$) is based on results from tracer studies carried out in a fracture at Stripa (Andersson et al., 1989). Samples of biotite and chlorite from the Block Scale Redox Experiment (Banwart et al., 1994a) show Fe(II) content of 76-84% and 56-67% respectively. For simplicity, and given the very approximate nature of these calculations we assign a value of $P_{\text{Fe}} = 1$ for all rock types and minerals.

The Fe(II) dissolution rates and oxygen uptake rates measured in this study and by White and Yee (1985), respectively, can be used as measures of R_{O_2} . Table 4-3 tabulates time scales for oxygen depletion and half-lives for dissolved oxygen as calculated by equation 4-1 to 4-5. These time scales represent the relative rate of chemical reaction to be compared with rates of other processes such as diffusion, aerobic respiration of organic carbon, and groundwater flow.

4.3 ACCUMULATION OF Fe(II) IN SOLUTION

Once anoxic conditions are reached, the dissolution of Fe(II)-minerals will accumulate dissolved ferrous iron in the ground water. Analogous to equation 4-1 and 4-2, we estimated a time scale of 10^1 months to reach a Fe(II) concentration of 10^{-5} moles/l (characteristic for undisturbed conditions in a fracture zone at Äspö, (Banwart et al., 1992)) in a granitic groundwater under anoxic conditions (table 4-3).

Table 4-3

Time-scale to reach a Fe(II) concentration in solution of 10^{-5} moles/l in an anoxic fracture zone.

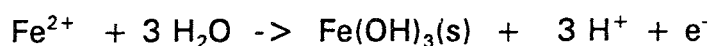
	Build up of Fe(II) in solution ^(a) [DAYS]
BIOTITE	189
CHLORITE	2083

a) We used the data from the kinetic experiments of biotite and chlorite dissolution and $A_w = 10 \text{ m}^2/\text{l}$ determined for the wetted surface area of a fracture zone during the Stripa field investigations (Andersson et al., 1989). We used $f_m = 0.1$ according to $f_{\text{biotite}} = 0.1$ in the host rock of a fracture zone at the Äspö Hard Rock Laboratory (Banwart et al., 1992). We used a characteristic concentration of Fe(II), $[\text{Fe(II)}] = 10^{-5}$ moles/l, observed in an undisturbed fracture zone at 70 m depth at the Äspö Hard Rock Laboratory (Banwart et al., 1992).

4.4 AN EQUILIBRIUM MODEL FOR REDOX POTENTIALS IN DEEP GROUND WATERS

Several redox couples are major species in natural groundwaters. However, Grenthe et al. (1992) have shown that the Fe(II)/Fe(III) redox couple is controlling measured redox potentials in deep granitic aquifers. Grenthe et al. (1992) and Smellie and Laaksoharju (1992) reported redox potentials in the range of -100 to -400 mV and a characteristic Fe(II) concentration of 10^{-5} M for such deep groundwaters. The main source of Fe(II) in these systems are Fe(II)-silicates, such as biotite and chlorite (Banwart et al. 1992). The ultimate objective of this study was to determine the solution redox conditions coupled to biotite weathering in the near-neutral pH region.

We have measured redox potentials in the range of 350-650 mV (table 3-8) developed during biotite dissolution in the pH region $2 < \text{pH} < 4$. We model these observed redox potentials by the following equilibrium reaction (see section 3.2.4.2):



Probably due to the very low total concentration ($\sim 10^{-7}$ M) of dissolved Fe(III), we did not obtain reliable and stable redox potentials at $\text{pH} > 4$. We have modelled the experimental equilibrium data by the solubility of secondary (see section 3.2.4.1), i.e an Fe(III)-(hydr)oxide and a Fe(II)-clay. This model is based on observed solution concentrations during laboratory weathering of biotite and the identification, using XPD, of kaolinite and a clay-mineral as secondary weathering products (section 3.2.4.1 and 3.2.2 respectively). The model predicts redox potentials (table 4-4) in the range of -200 to -400 mV at neutral pH and qualitatively agrees with the field data reported by Smellie and Laaksoharju (1992) and Grenthe et al. (1992). We conclude that 1) weathering of Fe(II) silicate is important for the redox condition of a granitic aquifer; and 2) Fe(II)-clays may be controlling dissolved Fe(II)-concentrations and thereby, together with the solubility of Fe(III)-(hydr)oxides, measured redox potentials in deep groundwaters.

Table 4-4
Estimated and measured E_H values developed during biotite weathering.

pH	E_H measured in biotite equilibrium experiments. [mV]	E_H estimated from $Fe(OH)_3(s)$ solubility ^a and observed $Fe(tot)$ concentrations in biotite equilibrium experiments. ^b [mV]	E_H estimated from $Fe(OH)_3(s)$ - and $Fe(II)clay$ ^c solubility ^a . [mV]
2.1	626	650	330
3.2	459	455	217
4.6	na	225	396
6.7	na	77	-195
7.1	na	-12	-261
8.0	na	na	-383
9.4	na	-408	-473
11.9	na	-828	-666

na - data not available.

a) Calculated using the Harphrq program (Brown et al., 1991).

b) We assumed $[Fe(II)] = [Fe(tot)]$ and $Fe(III)$ -control by the $Fe(III)$ -hydroxide discussed in section 3.2.4.2.

c) We assumed $Fe(II)$ -concentration control by the solubility of the $Fe(II)$ -clay discussed in section 3.2.4.1 and $Fe(III)$ solubility control by the hydroxide discussed in section 3.2.4.2. We used the Harphrq computer program (Brown et al., 1991) to calculate the solubility and speciation.

4.5 APPLICATION TO THE REDOX BUFFER CAPACITY OF A DEEP REPOSITORY

4.5.1 Redox Scales

Figure 4-1 shows a series of redox scales of relevance to groundwater chemistry and repository performance assessment. The scales are Eh-pH diagrams defined at a single pH. Here we show the electrochemical potentials of major and trace element redox couples that exist in the repository environment. On each scale, oxidized species (or phases) for each element are shown on the left side, and reduced species are shown on the right side. Reactants on the right

side of the scale are reducing relative to those above it on the left side of the scale. We represent reduced sulfur by the dominant solution species HS^- , although sulfide minerals can also represent a significant reservoir of reduced sulfur.

The dashed line extending across Figure 4.1 at about -400 mV is the potential calculated in section 4.4 of this report for oxidation of iron(II)-bearing clay to iron(III) hydroxide. The hydrothermal (chlorite) and low-temperature (clays) weathering products of biotite in granitic groundwaters thus provide significant reducing capacity to groundwater flow paths, with respect to molecular oxygen. The redox potential for the oxidative weathering of these minerals is significantly lower than the corrosion potential of copper by oxygen. If there is more mineral iron(II) than molecular oxygen, and if there is sufficient time for the redox reactions to go to completion, then the presence of these minerals will ultimately maintain redox conditions in the repository at conditions favourable to the chemical stability of the copper canisters. Under these reducing conditions, the radionuclides listed in Figure 4.1 remain confined as sparingly soluble mineral phases.

4.5.2 Redox Capacities

The relative concentrations of oxidizing and reducing major element reactants will dominate the capacity of the aquifer to oxidize other elements that are introduced (copper, spent fuel). This capacity follows a strict chemical definition (Scott and Morgan, 1990).

The redox capacity of a system is the net concentration of oxidants and reductants with respect to a chosen reference redox potential. Selecting the reference potential depends on the performance assessment issue. Reactions related to the redox stability of the copper canisters and to the confinement of radionuclides are summarized in Figure 4.1. The amount of reductant or oxidant present as a solid phase is expressed as moles of reactant, based on the total mass of mineral present, divided by the porosity of the flow path contacting the mineral. Iron(III) hydroxide can be expressed as

$$[\text{Fe}(\text{OH})_3(s)] = \frac{mf}{\theta} \quad (4-6)$$

where m has units of kg of mineral, f is the moles of Fe(III) per kg of iron(III) mineral, and θ is the flow porosity.

REDOX GEOCHEMISTRY PERFORMANCE ASSESSMENT

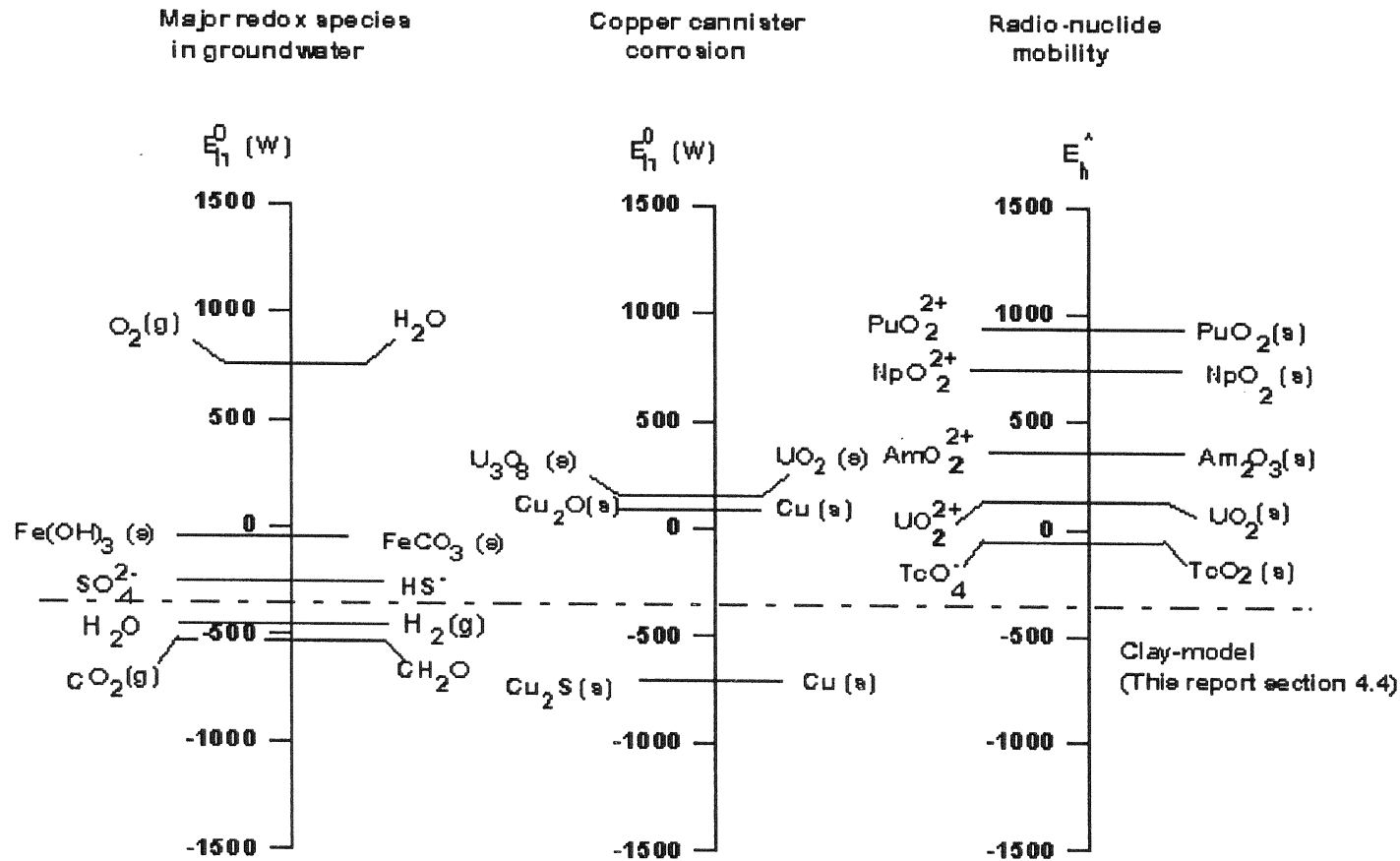


Figure 4-1.

e^0 (W) (mV) / pe^0 (W) for major redox couples in the groundwater, the copper canister, and some radionuclides (pH 7, 25 °C). The dashed line indicates predicted redox potential for an Fe(II)-clay in equilibrium with a Fe(III)-(hydr)oxide (see section 4.4). Thermodynamic data: Radio nuclides - Hatches database (Cross and Ewart, 1989); Lagerman (1990); Major aqueous redox couples (Bard et al., 1985; Stumm and Morgan, 1981); Cu-system (KBS-90 appendix B (approximate constants)). (W) denotes pH 7 and 1M concentration of other reactants. * Denotes pH 7 and 10^{-10} M concentration of radionuclides.

The oxidizing capacity (OXC) of the repository with respect to copper corrosion by molecular oxygen is the sum of electron equivalents of oxidants ($O_2(g)$) in the repository minus the sum of electron equivalents of all reductants below this potential. Equation 4-7 defines the OXC provided by the major elements in the repository. The corresponding reducing capacity (RDC) is defined as $RDC = -OXC$.

$$OXC = 4 [O_2] - [FeCO_3(s)] - 8 [HS^-] - [Fe(II) \text{ clay}] - 4 [CH_2O] \quad (4-7)$$

A net abundance of reductants buffers the repository environment against molecular oxygen, thereby preventing copper corrosion. More specifically, the oxidizing or reducing capacity of the repository defines the amount of reductants or oxidants which must be added to reach a specific E_h . The biotite hosted in the fresh granite is not explicitly considered. The main alteration products of biotite are clay minerals at low temperatures, as demonstrated in this study, and chlorite at high temperatures (Barnhisel and Bertsch, 1989). These minerals are usually present in a thick (1 - 10 cm) altered layer overlying the host granite that confines conductive fractures (Banwart et al., 1994a). Biotite is thus physically separated from the flow path by this altered layer.

Figure 4-1 shows that sulfate is oxidizing with respect to corrosion of copper metal to copper sulfide. These reactions are kinetically inhibited and do not progress at temperatures and pressures anticipated in a deep repository (KBS-3, Volume III).

In the presence of HS^- , copper metal is unstable with respect to carbon dioxide or water reduction with hydrogen production. The thermodynamic driving force for this reaction is the formation of highly insoluble copper sulfide ($CuS(s)$). The production of dissolved sulfide species by microbial sulfate reduction can therefore lead to canister instability. In this case, the reference redox potential for canister stability is that for sulfate reduction rather than copper corrosion to $CuS(s)$. Sulfate reduction represents a redox potential threshold below which $CuS(s)$ can form due to sulfide production, and thus drive the redox potential for copper corrosion to extremely low values where oxidation by water or other oxidants is possible. With respect to the potential for sulfate reduction given in figure 4-1, the reducing capacity is defined by equation 4-8.

$$RDC = + 4 [CH_2O] + [Fe(II) - Clay] - 4 [O_2] - [Fe(OH)_3(s)] \quad (4-8)$$

This formal treatment of the reducing capacity for the deep environment requires site specific data for quantitative estimate of redox capacities in the repository:

1. the relative mass abundance of organic carbon, molecular oxygen and sulfate at the time of repository closure,
2. the relative mass abundance of redox-active minerals, and their composition, in contact with groundwater flow paths.
3. the flow porosity

If canister failure occurs, radionuclides will be released into the geosphere. Redox sensitive radionuclides (Pu, Np, Am, U, Tc) are highly soluble when oxidized but form sparingly soluble solid phases when reduced. These reactions are represented by the redox-scale on the right side in figure 4-1. Under oxic conditions the soluble species predominate and the radionuclides are thus mobile with the groundwater flow. The redox potential calculated by the solubility equilibrium model for $\text{Fe}(\text{OH})_3$ (s) /Fe(II)-clay lies well below the redox potentials for the radionuclides. Fracture filling clay minerals can therefore act as reductants to 1) consume oxygen, thereby helping maintain reducing conditions, or 2) react directly with radionuclides to reduce them to insoluble, and thus immobile, solid phases. These fracture fillings can also act as adsorption barriers against migration of non-redox-sensitive radionuclides (Cs) as well (KBS-3, Section 12.6-12.7).

4.5.3 Conceptual Model for Evolution of Redox Capacity in the Repository

Because of slow reaction kinetics, major element redox couples are generally not in equilibrium with each other in natural waters. Although calculated redox potentials indicate the relative tendency for the couples to react, the distribution between species contributing to the net OXC or RDC will not be governed by chemical equilibrium. The time evolution of net OXC or RDC must be considered. Figure 4.2 represents the evolution of OXC with time during the construction, operation and post-closure phases of the repository.

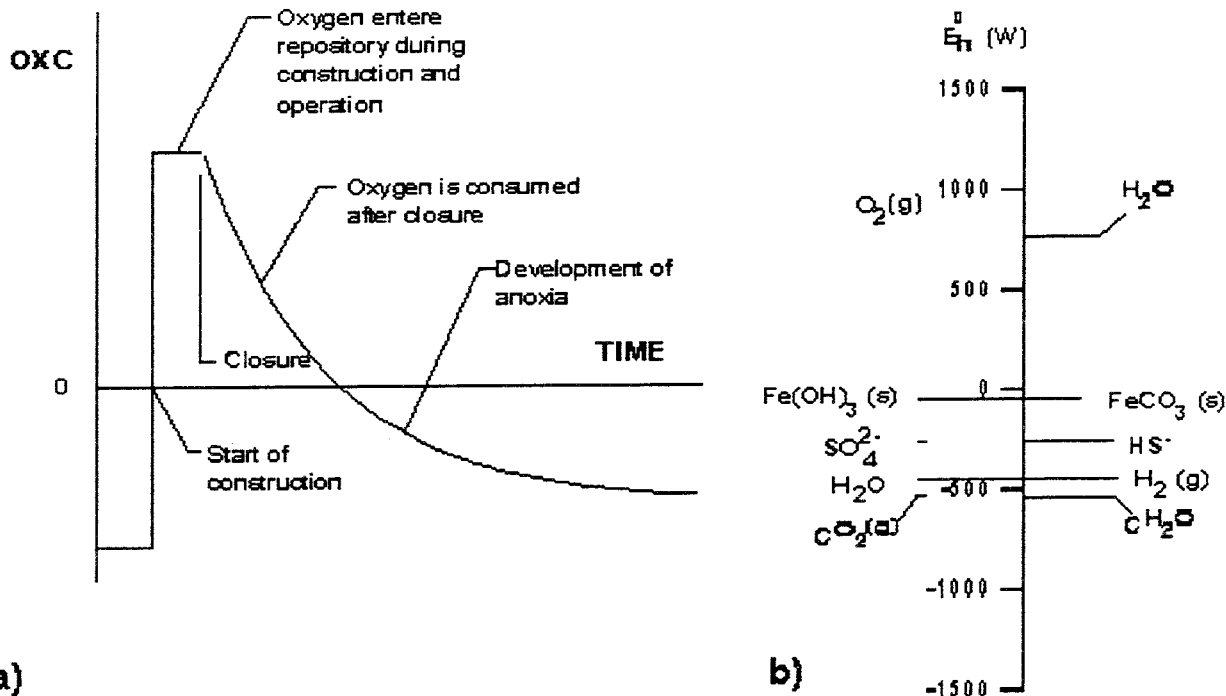


Figure 4-2

a) A conceptual representation of the evolution of oxidizing capacity with time during construction, operation and after closure of the repository. Oxygen will be introduced during the construction and operation. After closure, reaction with sulfide, iron(II) minerals and organic carbon will reduce oxygen to water, allowing the repository to again reach reducing conditions. Net oxidizing capacity ($OXC > 0$) means a remaining source of oxidants that can corrode copper metal.

b) A redox scale for major species in groundwater. This scale shows the redox intensity factor E_h [mV] that can be reached by adding or removing oxidants from the repository.

Calculating the evolution of oxidizing capacity with time requires a coupled mathematical description of the dominant transport processes and chemical reactions that influence the time evolution of the major oxidizing and reducing species and phases that contribute to net OXC:

1. oxygen reduction by iron(II) minerals, sulfides and organic carbon,
2. iron(III) mineral reduction by sulfides and organic carbon,

3. sulfate reduction by organic carbon.

Oxygen and iron(III) reduction by sulfide minerals was summarized recently by Strömberg and Banwart (1994) and Wersin et al. (1994). Iron reduction by organic carbon has been studied within the Äspö Redox Experiment in Block Scale (Banwart et al., 1994b). Sulfate reduction by organic carbon was also recently studied within the Äspö project (Laaksoharju et al., 1994b). The Äspö Redox Experiments in Detailed Scale (REX) (Banwart and Wikberg, 1994) aims to study the reduction of oxygen by iron(II) minerals in the deep environment of the Äspö Hard Rock Laboratory.

4.5.4 A Methodology for Calculating the Half-Life of Dissolved Oxygen in the Closed Repository

We apply the conceptual model of Wersin et al. (1994) for coupled diffusion and reaction of oxygen trapped in the repository. They applied dimensional analysis of the 1-D diffusion reaction equation for oxygen trapped in the bentonite backfill around the canister at the time of closure. Trace amounts of sulfide minerals present in the clay matrix provide reducing capacity with respect to dissolved oxygen. The Damköhler number (Da), a dimensionless variable, compares the rate of chemical reaction with the rate of diffusion (equation 4-9). k is the first-order decay constant for reduction of oxygen by sulfide minerals trapped in the bentonite, l is the diffusion path length, and D_e is the effective diffusion coefficient for oxygen within the clay backfill.

$$Da = \frac{kl^2}{D_e} \quad (4-9)$$

They demonstrated that for oxygen trapped in the bentonite backfill. $Da = 1500$, showing diffusion fluxes to be negligible compared to the rate of reaction. In this case, the time scale for depletion of oxygen is only dependent on the first-order chemical reaction given in equation (4-10).

$$\frac{d[O_2]_{(aq)}}{dt} = -k[O_2]_{(aq)} \quad (4-10)$$

The half-life depends only on the values of k (equation 4-11) .

$$t_{1/2} = - \frac{\ln(0.5)}{k} \quad (4-11)$$

The value of k depends on the activation energy of the reaction, which is dependent on pressure (P) and temperature (T). The reaction

rate will also depend on the relative abundance of sulfide mineral, and the ratio of wetted mineral surface area to pore water volume. k is therefore an effective (or "pseudo") first-order decay constant that lumps effects of other parameters such as the amount of sulfide mineral and the effect of aqueous species (H^+ , OH^- , etc) that may catalyse or inhibit the reaction. The values of k and $t_{1/2}$ therefore depend on site- and design-specific parameters; T, P , mineral composition of backfill, pH and ionic composition of the groundwater.

Equation 4-11 can be extended to consider reaction of oxygen with all reductants present in the backfill, fractures and rock at the time of backfill; Fe(II)-minerals, sulfides, organic carbon (See figure 4-1). We define a rate expression for first-order decay of oxygen by all reactions occurring in parallel (equation 4-12).

$$\frac{d[O_2]_{(aq)}}{dt} = -k_{Fe(II)} [O_2]_{(aq)} - k_{sulfide} [O_2]_{(aq)} - k_{org. carbon} [O_2]_{(aq)} \quad (4-12)$$

Equation (4-13) is the corresponding equation for the half-life of oxygen where Σk refers to the sum of all effective first-order constants defined in equation (4-11).

$$t_{1/2} = - \frac{\ln(0.5)}{\Sigma k} \quad (4-13)$$

The relative values of k will depend on the reaction and site-specific parameters mentioned above. Results from previous (see section 4.2) and ongoing (see section 4.5.3) investigations of these reaction processes will form the scientific basis for evaluating the fate of molecular oxygen in the repository at the time of closure. As in the study of Wersin et al. (1994) it is also necessary to consider these chemical aspects together with transport phenomena. The calculation of oxygen depletion by coupled transport- and reaction-mechanisms therefore requires design- and site-specific information on parameters for oxygen transport in the groundwater; effective diffusivities, transmittivities, dispersion coefficients, etc.

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7. **APPENDIX**7.1 **APPENDIX: Kinetic data from the biotite-H₂O-system**Table 7-1. Data from kinetic experiment M2: 0.2773 gram biotite, pH 4.06, CO₂-free system.

Day	pH	F	Si [PPB]	Fe [PPB]	Mg [PPB]	Al [PPB]	K [PPB]
0	4.96	13.32	-	7	-	478	58570
0	4.98	12.85	231	0	313	304	29386
2	5.98	2.25	294	633	-	659	18715
3	5.17	12.86	188	420	126	244	18616
4	4.58	13.04	190	464	121	228	5085
5	4.30	12.79	170	397	-	133	3611
6	4.20	13.31	145	351	79	145	1780
7	4.17	13.99	186	390	-	160	-
8	4.12	14.25	-	306	70	135	-
9	4.10		108	307	63	133	-
10	4.09	10.02	106	315	63	147	-
11	4.07	6.14	104	226	57	124	0
14	4.00	17.44	91	292	-	107	-
15	4.98	18.8	92	252	49	93	-
16	3.24	16.23	113	202	42	89	-
17	4.98	11.73	272	895	221	350	-
18	3.58		-	424.4	133.3	151.6	12
20	3.91	9.04	176	419	116	167	-
24	4.13		349	455	223	120	
25	4.09	9.44	155	265	78	94	82
26	4.98	9.41	128	221	68	73	-
27	4.096	9.72	-	250.3	97	130.1	-
28	4.10	9.87	151	199	67	78	-
31	4.09	9.93	-	-	-	-	-
32	4.08	9.54	-	255.7	93.33	176	-
33	4.05	9.84	174	235	84	96	54

Table 7-2. Data from kinetic experiment M3: 0.5102 gram biotite, pH 2.80, CO₂-free system.

Day	pH	F [g/h]	Si [PPB]	Fe [PPB]	Mg [PPB]	Al [PPB]	K [PPB]
0	-	-	1108	677.5	3363	650	192163
0	-	13.6	3873	3439	-	-	81512
2	3.30	12.95	815.2	3061	717.2	1313	25254
3	3.06	13.27	1035	3886	903.7	1577	20864
4	3.01	13.43	1007	3426	825	1437	103320
5	2.97	13.54	1143	3439	-	5263	-
6	2.97	13.85	1026	3179	770	1333	-
7	2.39	14.18	909	2715	-	1103	-
8	2.91	13.79	604	2457	1072	2465	2424
9	2.91	18.9	891	2617	-	1062	1891
10	2.88	-	898	2471	617	1030	-
	-	5.66	887	2355	598	1001	-
14	2.83	16.94	914	2516	628	1032	-
15	-	18.53	880	2327	748	1001	-
16	-	14.19	898	2423	630	1110	-
17	2.70	15.05	1355	3737	-	1661	-
18	2.69	-	1308	3767	955	1590	416
20	2.84	8.26	1288	2885	707	1388	109
24	2.82	-	1300	2579	-	1334	-
25	2.83	8.54	1194	2710	764	1245	914
26	-	8.54	1185	2725	759.3	1227	-
27	2.80	8.76	226	2038	536	1060	-
28	2.81	9.07	1470	2165	542	1055	-
31	2.80	9.08	1495	2631	656	1005	-
32	2.76	8.41	1395	2496	615	983	-
33	2.78	4.18	1538	2423	663	1058	734
33	2.78		1473	2595	645	1117	-

Table 7-3. Data from kinetic experiment **M4**: 0.4287 gram biotite, pH 5, CO₂-free system.

Day	pH	F[g/h]	Si [PPB]	Fe [PPB]	Mg [PPB]	Al [PPB]	K [PPB]
0	-	13.35	717.7	33.1	407.8	761.7	32839
1	-	17.13	261.9	142.9	114.6	352.2	14290
2	-	0	289.4	54.5	71.8	151.4	9880
3	-	14.71	113	21.9	46.3	106.4	6026
4	-	17.31	113	38.7	29.6	109.4	4065
5	-	17.34	160.4	18.8	20.6	32.5	-
6	-	10.34	294.8	10.5	28	17.1	-
8	-	15.12	392.2	-	-	-	-
9	-	15.11	375.6	19.8	28.9	39.3	1002
10	-	15.76	301.3	26.2	27.7	38.1	-
11	-	16.07	262.9	314.3	24.3	83.1	31
12	-	15.97	333.6	39.2	20.7	41.1	-
15	-	15.71	-	83	22	230	-
16	-	15.7	1152	81.2	27.9	84.7	-
17	-	15.24	1227.1	54	14	64.6	1033
22	-	15.77	1135	-	-	-	-
23	-	15.93	1053	10.6	12.3	100.9	-
24	-	15.61	1204	18.8	11	9.9	-
25	-	15.84	1038	22	13.4	68	-
26	-	15.93	1148	18.7	13.1	23.2	-
27	-	15.7	-	37.5	7.6	36.8	-
29	-	16.11	706.4	17.5	8.1	203	2710
30	-	7.67	-	105	7.1	21.1	-
37	-	7.91	512.3	20.2	3.9	22.5	-
38	-		609.3	25.6	6.1	29.4	1026

Table 7-4. Data from kinetic experiment **M5**: 0.4930 gram biotite, pH 8.5, CO₂-free system.

Day	pH	F	Si [PPB]	Fe [PPB]	Mg [PPB]	Al [PPB]	K [PPB]
1	-	14.3	715.8	51	-	-	-
2	-	-	620	5.2	121	252	17619
3	-	10.64	332.3	17	73.3	185	15963
4	-	18.6	584	33	60.2	159	9108
5	-	18.49	294.7	37.3	38.9	113	4876
6	-	12.56	508.5	16.7	29.1	138	-
7	-	15.99	643	4.9	35.4	57.4	-
8	-	16.15	616	29.1	35.2	103	2124
9	-	16.11	587	9.4	28.8	62.6	-
10	-	16.24	578	37.6	31	81.8	1234
13	-	15.97	577	31.9	20.1	155	-
14	-	16.09	615	55.3	21.6	150	-
20	-	16.21	664	17.1	11.2	40.7	982
21	-	16.4	504	7.2	7.8	39.3	-
22	-	16.3	508	10.4	9.1	267	-
23	-	16.1	623	106	11.3	24.7	-
24	-	15.83	555	21.7	10.7	66.2	-
25	-	16.26	507	14.8	8.6	77.1	-
28	-	16.82	723	9.3	5	64.1	-
35	-	7.91	-	36.6	8.4	33.4	-
36	-	8.1	798	28.6	7.6	22.4	-

Table 7-5. Data from kinetic experiment **M6**: 0.2599 gram biotite, pH 10, CO₂-free system.

Day	pH	F	Si [PPB]	Fe [PPB]	Mg [PPB]	Al [PPB]	K [PPB]
0	-	15.00	306	280	347	602	31066
2	-	15.00	-	-	-	-	34385
3	-	13.96	517	66.3	72.6	322	12925
4		14.25	534	46.9	49.6	391	8865
5	-	13.87	502	100	41.6	175	4818
6	-	16.13	740	161	18.9	81.9	-
7	-	12.84	1042	234	31	78.3	-
8	-	13.14	1005	122	32.1	70.4	1138
9	-	13.52	1022	130	24.1	85.7	-
10	-	13.25	931	63	26.2	71.8	494
13	-	13.4	367	68.2	204	-	-
14	-	8.83	1059	334	50.5	287	-
21	-	15.01	262	108	14.4	147	799
22	-	15.25	799	114	14.8	54.2	
23	-	14.22	-	285	13.7	145	-
24	-	14.43	392	183	12.5	58.3	-
27	-	15.91	1084	228	16	97.2	-
28	-	16.27	-	272	18.4	133	1095
35	-	7.01	-	187	16.6	40.2	-
36	-	7.57	666	83.5	15.6	21.5	-
37	-	7.47	757	36.1	16	1.7	897

Table 7-6. Data from kinetic experiment M8: 0.5249 gram biotite, pH 7, CO₂-free system.

Day	pH	F	Si [PPB]	Fe [PPB]	Mg [PPB]	Al [PPB]	K [PPB]
1	-	13.85	-	90.1	2531	1359	89259
2	-	13.4	789.3	33.9	218.4	34	19484
3	-	13.7	637	32.3	112.6	238	13586
4	-	14.17	465.3	19.5	69.6	143.3	10302
5	-	15.2	476.8	59.2	61.2	122	8187
6	-	11.22	481.6	48.5	45.7	87.7	6537
7	-	13.04	375.3	17.1	46.9	81.6	6331
8	-	10.49	351.1	13.6	36	56	5208
9	-	10.49	395.3	12.1	30.1	51.4	4560
10	-	10.25	-	16.4	29.6	72.3	4478
11	-	10.55	359.9	23.2	24.4	69.8	3067
12		10.37	336.3	15	25	78.7	4486
13	-	-	-	-	-	-	3500
14	-	-	1158	23	55.3	139.8	2675
15	-	-	700.9	-	-	-	2000
17	-	11.02	332	16.9	13	151.1	1540
19	-	11.22	758	14.8	13.9	20.5	1488
20	-	11.37	813	67.2	14	19.7	1248
21	-	11.47	828	15.3	15.8	22	1752
22	-	11.47	786	11.5	10.4	17.1	1632
24	-	11.76	902	16	8	21.6	1144
25	-	5.25	723	20.3	15.1	85.3	372
26	-	5.45	769	50.8	17.7	155.3	909
27	-	5.43	-	-	-	-	700
28	-	5.49	884	31.8	28.3	31.3	513

Table 7-7. Data from kinetic experiment **M10**: 0.3851 gram biotite, pH 2, CO₂-free system.

Day	pH	F	Si [PPB]	Fe [PPB]	Mg [PPB]	Al [PPB]	K [PPB]
0.08	-	6.18	5300	12200	4544	3735	64142
0.17	-	11.53	3452	9048	2744	3026	32380
0.25	-	11.69	3731	9135	3636	1974	27052
1	-	12.01	6678	14961	3750	5713	15837
1.2	-	11.31	6592	14035	3330	5579	13296
2	-	11.95	6895	11970	2865	5182	14971
3	-	11.9	6390	9730	2711	3992	8814
4	-	12.16	6088	9037	2295	3703	7219
7	-	3.6	-	8483	2010	3681	9074
7.2	-	15.84	5742	-	-	-	7198
9	-	16.68	-	9863	2151	2920	4163
10	-	17.27	4682	6232	1778	2633	2811
11	-	16.46	4629	5511	1760	2363	2424
14	-	14.94	3023	5494	2574	1417	2117
15	-	17.04	3820	4850	1258	2133	1028
16	-	16.26	3479	4485	1106	1678	1608
17	-	16.67	2680	2838	2815	1343	1812
18		16	2775	2945	838	1306	2088
20	-	15.59	-	3840	1027	1545	939
21	-	16.83	3026	3401	851	1367	2260
21.2	-	17.22	2977	3168	813	1436	3207
22	-	9.53	3780	4098	1049	1611	696
23	-	9.6	-	3978	1021	1599	888
24	-	9.32	3599	3998	1010	1594	413
25	-	3.96	6681	7653	1747	3093	1024
27	-	2.95	6611	6830	1780	3057	921

Table 7-8. Data from kinetic experiment M11: 0.2461 gram biotite, pH 10, CO₂-free system.

Day	pH	F [g/h]	Si [PPB]	Fe [PPB]	Mg [PPB]	Al [PPB]	K [PPB]
0.08	-	5.85	2807	72	1564	697	101452
0.17	-	10.18	1863	44.2	542	471	48205
0.25	-	10.49	1680	88	449	363	35183
1	-	11.02	1299	183	271	195	23938
1.2	-	10.49	1439	405	228	189	19237
2	-	10.65	1075	443	183	201	10256
3	-	9.76	1715	147	60	7	6856
4	-	9.54	803	16	34	30	6095
7	-	6	796	228	44	110	2996
7.2	-	14.7	731	333	66	53	2751
9	-	15.06	1444	158	19	57	3068
10	-	16.09	1361	9	16	52	2310
11	-	15.19	1386	30	12	54	3124
14	-	10.25	-	682	21	58	908
15	-	15.68	1359	38	10	25	1552
17	-	15.43	1337	36	8	60	1331
18	-	15	1282	26	6	85	1082
19	-	14.65	2006	333	12	98	2743
20	-	14.7	2155	627	32	137	903
21	-	16.31	1976	66	8	45	809
22	-	9	2005	162	13	66	746
23	-	9.01	1945	88	5	25	1954
24	-	8.78	2121	96	8	30	1677
25	-	3.56	2111	19	6	18	1793
27	-	2.68	2054	7	9	0	2706

7.2 APPENDIX: Kinetic data from the biotite-H₂O-CO₂(g)-systemTable 7-9. Data from kinetic experiment M12: 0.1960 gram biotite, pH 6.77, 1% CO₂(g) i N₂(g).

Day	pH	F [g/h]	Si [PPB]	Fe [PPB]	Mg [PPB]	Al [PPB]	K [PPB]
1.0	-	10.54	188.5	17.7	99	40.9	-
1.08	-	10.75	105.5	22.4	77.6	33	4544
1.16	-	11.26	111.9	3.2	59.7	14.1	3336
2.08	8.21	10.64	371.6	5.9	144.3	202.9	29293
4	8.01	10.31	178.3	6.4	52.5	34.2	5513
5	7.13	11.90	83.8	1.9	32.5	15.3	2605
5.08	6.78	10.90	191.1	10.1	38	57.3	7853
6	6.75	10.82	109	7.2	28.8	u.d	3803
7	6.72	10.74	92.6	5.7	20.3	11.1	1056.5
8	6.63	10.84	62.3	7.2	15.1	u.d	570.2
9	6.86	10.84	23.5	7.3	13.5	u.d	521.5
11	6.71	10.12	60.8	9.6	11.5	13.6	357.1
12	6.70	10.23	251.5	3.9	5.7	15.1	424.6
13	6.60	10.29	110.2	3.5	9.3	12.9	181.8
14	6.88	10.25	83.2	19.3	3.1	u.d	18.8
15	6.72	11.06	128.6	2.5	5.4	2.3	7.8
16	6.86	10.71	13	2.3	2.4	u.d	u.d
18	6.89	9.85	70.4	7.8	7.6	16.5	-
19	6.86	10.43	14.9	3.6	2.6	55.4	u.d
20	6.91	10.66	56.4	8.1	4.6	29.8	17.2
21	6.88	10.70	34.1	9.6	3.8	u.d	u.d
22	6.88	10.80	47.9	2.2	1.8	u.d	u.d
23	6.87	10.52	43.6	8.7	2.5	11	47.3
25	6.56	10.25	12.7	12.2	1	6.2	79.2
26	6.60	10.59	u.d	0.9	0.1	u.d	37.7
27	6.67	10.81	7.7	2	5	3.8	27
28	6.75	10.57	15.1	11.8	0.04	14.5	8.7
28.08	6.79	10.65	23.8	3.4	0.1	4	169.4
29	6.72	10.69	u.d	4.6	0.3	u.d	u.d
30	6.54	10.67	5.2	1.7	6.3	22.4	u.d

u.d - solution concentration under the detection limit of the ICP.

Table 7-10. Data from kinetic experiment M13: 0.2479 gram biotite, pH 8.11, 1% CO₂(g) i N₂(g).

Day	pH	F [g/h]	Si [PPB]	Fe [PPB]	Mg [PPB]	Al [PPB]	K [PPB]
1	-	12.47	192.8	46	410.5	89.9	35532
1.08	-	12.91	286.8	136.5	309.7	123.6	19803
1.16	-	12.30	266.4	121.1	198.9	105	21903
2	8.13	12.56	89.4	12.5	62.8	24.7	12975.9
2.08	8.12	11.99	93.6	23.3	50.3	28.2	7463.4
4	8.11	11.60	313.8	43.1	82	148.3	18039
5	8.10	12.61	198.6	8.3	55.5	112.5	12894
5.08	8.10	12.13	117.5	60.6	38.2	53.9	11319
6	8.11	12.08	176.9	37.5	44.1	95	5132
7	8.07	11.95	264.4	15.7	27.9	63.4	4023
8	8.09	11.73	248.9	12	18.6	34.9	1437.9
9	8.06	12.18	175.8	25.1	17.9	29.2	984.5
11	8.06	11.51	132.2	9.8	13.7	40.5	616.2
12	8.13	11.23	163.5	8.6	14.9	34.3	470.9
12.08	8.11	11.74	142.2	13.6	18.1	25.1	500.6
13	8.12	12.38	200.3	20.4	11.8	25.8	480.5
14	8.10	11.64	122.7	11.4	12	30	431.2
15	8.13	11.73	86.5	9.5	12	30	187
16	8.11	12.07	64.6	21.3	12.4	45.2	220.5
18	8.11	11.48	232.2	17	16.1	15	200
19	8.17	11.93	74.4	19.3	8.3	19.1	147.9
20	8.12	11.99	91	2.6	5.2	17.7	199.8
21	8.15	12	88.6	22.3	9.9	50	364.7
22	8.19	12.37	51.9	10.1	8.2	44.2	69.7
23	8.13	12.08	49.9	11.6	6.7	21.5	237.6
25	8.23	11.63	73.3	11	5.7	20.5	138.7
26	8.16	12.21	21	2.9	2.6	10	124.3
27	8.04	12.42	33.3	2.8	6.6	6.3	301.4
28	8.05	12.08	37.9	7.2	4.9	u.d	248.8
28.08	8.05	12.25	28.7	3.5	2.9	u.d	268.5
29	8.04	12.41	48.7	1.9	3.3	10.5	243.6
30	8.05	12.08	17.9	4.8	2.9	5.1	289

u.d - solution concentration under the detection limit of the ICP.

Table 7-11. Data from kinetic experiment M14: 0.4487 gram biotite, pH 8.41, 1% CO₂(g) i N₂(g).

Day	pH	F [g/h]	Si [PPB]	Fe [PPB]	Mg [PPB]	Al [PPB]	K [PPB]
1	-	10.12	5050	223.1	4273	89	153563.
1.1	-	7.35	787	144.9	1502	253	53108
1.2	-	8.62	568	101.2	552	182	40437
2	-	8.26	453	78.9	256	158	25657
2.1	-	8.28	514	79.8	206	241	27751
2.2	-	9.71	361	66.9	160	143	17254
3	8.28	9.81	347	45.5	92	131	9316
4	8.34	9.47	279	43.6	96	132	5330
5	8.36	9.7	121	19.8	35	59.4	1820
6	8.32	9.90	36	14.5	22.3	52	860
7	8.35	9.93	38	13.7	22.6	65.7	819
8	8.38	8.74	91	34	14.4	57.1	638
9	8.27	7.96	250	12.8	15.6	50.5	794
12	8.38	8.71	733	10.6	16.6	54.9	1167
12.1	8.30	9.53	653	29.1	23	64.6	1254
12.2	8.20	9.38	43	19.6	18.9	90.8	1705
13	8.26	10.22	189	15	10.6	50.8	1606
14	8.36	10.1	103	11.4	10.1	53.3	1163
15	8.39	9.52	49	10.3	16.7	54.2	1183
16	8.54	8.60	50	15.2	4.4	47.2	848
18	8.38	9.18	43	21	0.3	22	-
19	8.39	9.52	27	17.8	16.3	61.6	741
20	8.38	9.02	6	12.1	12.8	43.8	800
21	8.31	9.23	0	14.1	16.7	54.2	699
21.2	8.33	4.42	43	22.4	22.5	57.6	-
22	8.37	4.38	188	13.7	24.3	61.3	1249
23	8.39	3.93	92	14	23.8	54.4	958
24	8.4	2.92	197	16.8	16.9	53.4	-
25	8.41	3.15	123	12.7	23.9	60.6	947
26	8.41	3.95	107	13	26.2	64.2	1012
27	8.41	3.61	113	11.8	25.6	61.8	946
28	8.41	-	116	28.7	26.1	67	1101

Table 7-12. Data from kinetic experiment M15: 0.3627 gram biotite, pH 8.75, 1% CO₂(g) i N₂(g).

Day	pH	F [g/h]	Si [PPB]	Fe [PPB]	Mg [PPB]	Al [PPB]	K [PPB]
1	-	17.23	1067	1210	2506.328	308.3	62748
1.1	-	10.87	2255	2288	851.8571	910.7	20496
1.2	-	11.69	157	196.8	200.2	65.3	9408
2	-	11.67	100	128.2	104	52	6625.5
2.1	-	11.66	211	148.8	96.2	88.9	4508
2.2	-	12.45	75	94.3	62.2	43.5	3602
3	7.58	11.44	198	109	33.5	49.1	3143
4	8.63	11.46	101	41.6	10	47.3	1318
5	8.39	6.651	49	30.4	20	32.2	1142
6	8.63	12.80	102	35.8	9.7	58.6	1376
7	8.74	12.93	397	36.8	18.1	73.9	1291
8	8.43	12.16	465	35.5	0.1	80	1188
9	8.68	11.63	98	37	12.2	58.5	1181
12	8.61	-	38	26.1	14.6	43.4	1072
12.1	8.66	-	55	32.2	2.3	42.4	974
12.2	8.70	11.42	330	50.2	19.7	81	1567
13	8.85	12.39	212	34.4	12.1	69.1	1071
14	8.89	12.65	453	81.8	29.2	115.1	1085
15	8.30	12.35	-	25	2.1	38	1121
16	8.43	12.86	109	27.2	1.1	51.2	1195
18	8.63	12.00	113	22.6	u.d	34.8	-
19	8.68	12.58	279	170.2	39.1	113.1	2308
20	8.75	12.13	128	38.7	11.8	57.9	1318
21	8.85	12.50	140	66.8	13.8	61.2	1118
21.2	8.49	5.82	117	51	20.8	56.8	1574
22	8.55	5.85	110	36	18.2	45.7	1598
23	8.59	5.66	123	33.5	19.5	52.1	1323
24	8.64	5.05	121	42	2.3	57	1398
25	8.69	4.90	125	38.2	11.5	73	1358
26	8.72	6.07	130	34.6	25.2	85.4	1515
27	8.76	5.75	138	30.3	11.7	51.5	1187
28	8.81	-	46.8	24.5	-	47.2	478.5

u.d - solution concentration under the detection limit of the ICP.

7.3 APPENDIX: Kinetic data from the chlorite-H₂O-CO₂(g)-systemTable 7-13. Data from kinetic experiment Ka: 0.2519 gram chlorite (125-300 μm), pH 8.18, 1% CO₂(g) i N₂(g).

Day	pH	F [g/h]	Si [PPB]	Fe [PPB]	Mg [PPB]	Al [PPB]
0	-	6.30	780	25	7025	163
0.12	-	2.67	117	6	566	103
0.79	-	3.83	227	5	323	92
1.08	-	4.28	62	25	220	55
1.79	-	4.62	62	33	183.	59
3.91	8.16	4.36	227	81	134	61
4.91	8.17	5.01	360	57	88	23
5.79	8.17	4.82	119	56	84	32
6	8.16	4.88	14	52	66	30
7	8.17	4.99	75	50	61	14
8	8.18	4.92	50	1	49	10
9	8.19	4.12	106	4	44	25
10	8.16	3.97	154	61	212	77
11	8.18	4.67	198	29	107	62
12	8.17	4.67	169	35	156	71
13	8.17	4.79	165	30	115	58
14	8.18	4.31	280	17	104	29
16	8.19	4.20	198	17	105	19
17	8.18	4.31	165	u.d	60	u.d
18	8.20	4.71	278	u.d	53	u.d
19	8.19	5.03	153	u.d	53	u.d
20	8.19	5.13	143	u.d	39	u.d
21	8.18	4.96	165	u.d	34	u.d
22	8.17	5.13	151	u.d	31	u.d
25	8.12	9.46	110	u.d	19	u.d
26	8.14	9.80	107	u.d	20	u.d
27	8.18	9.47	115	u.d	20	u.d
28	8.13	10.59	80.887	u.d	20	u.d

u.d - solution concentration under the detection limit of the ICP.

Table 7-14. Data from kinetic experiment Kb: 0.3196 gram chlorite (125-300 μm), pH 2.60, CO_2 -free system.

Day	pH	F [g/h]	Si [PPB]	Fe [PPB]	Mg [PPB]	Al [PPB]
0	-	6.22	808	205	8430	727
0.12	-	2.52	796	324	5275	1117
0.79	-	3.69	494	181	2205	855
1.08	-	4.19	465	241	1723	833
1.79	-	4.46	418	211	1007	435
3.91	-	4.00	420	145	615	257
4.91	2.65	4.85	365	102	433	180
5.79	2.65	4.62	404	115	423	144
6	2.65	4.65	247	83	377	105
7	2.65	4.75	164	15	243	52
8	2.65	6.15	293	55	392	144
9	2.66	3.90	654	56	301	100
10	2.56	4.21	148	1	58	31
11	2.55	4.45	565	81	472	155
12	2.55	4.44	440	51	413	153
13	2.55	4.57	636	59	312	112
14	-	3.33	613	52	65	162
16	2.56	4.05	321	46	325	114
17	2.62	4.20	317	97	418	136
18	-	4.85	292	19	217	50
19	-	4.90	266	24	23	74
20	2.60	4.92	254	26	226	71
21	2.60	4.77	299	98	289	102
22	2.59	4.96	281	60	303	98
25	2.59	9.25	147	9	102	33
26	2.59	9.65	165	6	141	45
27	2.58	9.277	206	35	152	74
28	2.53	10.37	114	19	129	42

Table 7-15. Data from kinetic experiment Kc: 0.3248 gram chlorite (125-300 μm), pH 3.80, 100% $\text{CO}_2(\text{g})$.

Day	pH	F [g/h]	Si [PPB]	Fe [PPB]	Mg [PPB]	Al [PPB]
0	-	16.15	1137	45	5183	113
0.074	-	7.71	2734	13	2397	19.5
0.220	-	5.14	932	21	1241	14
0.409	-	5.85	629	12	803	24
0.87	-	6.72	455	22	468	64
1.20	-	5.72	481	50	362	91
2	-	6.23	329	11.5	279	83
2.91	4.74	5.16	318	8.7	200	39
5.08	4.57	6.15	227	10	123	43
5.87	4.87	6.11	230	1.7	92	38
7.08	4.66	6.80	236	u.d	80	37
8	4.68	6.50	245	2.1	83	22
9.12	4.50	6.83	150	3	70	42
11	4.57	5.63	144	3.5	86	25
12.12	3.79	7.20	196	21	165	121
13.08	3.78	7.49	190	19	158	140
13.91	3.86	5.37	185	18	158	109
14.91	3.86	5.64	210	17	163	79
16.08	3.79	6.18	186	25	157	100
17.95	3.83	3.11	246	20	206	99
19.20	3.78	4.13	216	14	188	95
20	3.80	5.76	184	13	151	82
21.25	3.79	3.25	267	11	208	88
23.08	3.76	5.20	219	18	136	70
25.45	3.82	4.51	203	6	156	58
26.08	3.80	5.97	218	87	124	61
27.04	3.80	5.56	224	82	132	78
28	3.77	5.87	185	9	111	58
29.08	3.76	6.37	130	10	129	49
29.25	3.76	4.48	182	63	140	51
29.95	3.789	5.57	289	0.5	129	52
32.16	-	3.37	349	18	182	70
32.91	3.81	4.47	239.	2	142	62
33.25	3.79	3.42	239	136	141	56
33.91	3.81	6.05	167	308	115	35
35	3.76	5.79	157	u.d	112	34

u.d - solution concentration under the detection limit of the ICP.

Table 7-16. Data from kinetic experiment Kd: 0.2239 gram chlorite (75-125 μm), pH 7.12, 100% $\text{CO}_2(\text{g})$.

Day	pH	F [g/h]	Si [PPB]	Fe [PPB]	Mg [PPB]	Al [PPB]
0	-	14.74	1141	97	6225	220
0.07	-	5.37	901	26	1606	55
0.22	-	5.50	635	9	1045	41
0.40	-	5.75	455	5	425	24
0.87	-	6.66	647	15	243	25
1.20	-	5.68	339	19	270	44
2	-	6.23	258	4	158	17
2.91	6.98	4.50	512	18	237	38
5.08	-	7.04	216	5	68	16
5.87	-	6.01	183	5	85	11
7.08	7.16	7.03	185	6	49	27
8	5.81	7.00	199	u.d	52	u.d
9.12	-	6.41	175	7	43	u.d
11	-	5.61	135	u.d	45	u.d
12.12	6.69	7.05	162	u.d	36	u.d
13.08	6.79	7.44	139	u.d	30	u.d
13.91	7.17	5.28	123	u.d	26	16
14.91	7.17	5.43	132	3	36	u.d
16.08	7.11	6.54	129	4	44	u.d
17.95	7.51	3.02	153	u.d	20	17
19.20	6.96	4.05	122	u.d	28	11
20	7.14	5.66	102	u.d	42	1
21.25	7.36	3.27	141	u.d	19	8
23.08	7.11	5.18	101	u.d	29	14
25.45	7.24	4.51	120	u.d	34	12
26.08	6.98	5.87	163	141	54	32
27.04	7.10	5.42	187	123	32	27
28	6.94	6.15	129	u.d	40	1.7
29.08	-	6.37	79.5	u.d	43	u.d
29.25	-	4.75	113	77	22	3
29.95	7.17	4.71	147	u.d	23	u.d
32.16	7.48	3.44	267	u.d	17	5.5
32.91	-	4.42	127	1	18	u.d
33.25	7.31	3.39	178	198	27	u.d

u.d - solution concentration under the detection limit of the ICP.

Table 7-17. Data from kinetic experiment Ke: 0.2500 gram chlorite (75-125 μm), pH 8.92, 100% $\text{CO}_2(\text{g})$.

Day	pH	F [g/h]	Si [PPB]	Fe [PPB]	Mg [PPB]	Al [PPB]
0	-	13.67	766	167.6	4908	150.7
0.07	-	6.26	522.5	150.8	1928	142.3
0.22	-	5.28	351	125	1194	162.6
0.40	-	5.90	179	67.35	687	148.9
0.87	-	7.09	560	71.2	400	133.5
1.20	-	5.83	120	80.7	376	126.2
2	-	6.25	-	34.4	267	88.7
2.91	8.99	5.37	106	36.1	214	86.7
5.08	9.13	6.20	22.5	18.7	57	49.4
5.87	8.89	6.03	4.5	15.9	107	u.d
7.08	8.93	6.74	61	11.8	96	43.8
8	9.00	6.71	61	15.5	71	29.7
9.12	8.95	6.73	39	11.1	11	u.d
11	8.96	5.83	22	u.d	51	u.d
12.12	8.75	7.46	35	u.d	70	u.d
13.08 -	8.83	7.52	9	u.d	61.3	u.d
13.91	8.84	5.50	21.6	10.2	49.6	u.d
14.91	8.90	5.82	2.5	9.9	47.1	u.d
16.08	8.93	6.23	14	8	59	u.d
17.95	8.84	3.18	22	5.5	76.2	u.d
19.20	8.86	4.22	u.d	u.d	69.4	u.d
20	8.89	5.85	u.d	9.5	72.8	u.d
21.25	8.92	3.38	17	u.d	81.7	u.d
23.08	9.02	5.35	5	5.6	58.9	u.d
25.45	9.08	5.71	76	u.d	105.5	u.d
26.08	9.07	6.08	24.5	200.5	23.3	u.d
27.04	9.10	5.61	60	188	30.7	u.d
28	8.86	6.01	38	u.d	75.6	u.d
29.08	8.90	6.70	u.d	11.9	85.9	31.9
29.25	8.91	11.13	20	u.d	49.7	u.d
29.95	8.93	5.52	99	12.3	70.75	u.d
32.16	3.75	3.84	137	16.7	63.5	u.d
32.91	8.95	4.50	138	u.d	77.1	u.d
33.25	8.92	3.54	64	u.d	u.d	u.d
33.91	8.92	6.19	18	3.7	78.9	u.d
35	8.93	1.60	113	u.d	86.6	u.d
35.41	8.88	6.57	8.5	u.d	47.25	u.d
36.20	8.89	2.41	97.5	u.d	93.1	u.d

u.d - solution concentration under the detection limit of the ICP.

7.4 **APPENDIX: Equilibrium data from the biotite-H₂O-system**
 Table 7-18. Data from batch experiments, biotite, CO₂(g)-free.

Sample	pH	log [Si]	log [Fe (tot)]	log [Mg]	log [Al]	K
6	9.43	-5.01	u.d	-5.11	-4.86	-3.14
1	9.37	-5.21	-6.50	-5.08	-5.50	-3.11
2	9.37	-5.23	u.d	-5.10	-5.31	-3.05
4	8.94	-5.27	u.d	-5.04	-5.10	-3.09
3	8.99	-5.28	u.d	-5.04	-5.50	-2.70
5	9.04	-5.28	u.d	-5.04	-5.63	-3.03
8	3.90	-3.110	-2.81	-3.10	-4.97	-2.60
13	11.88	-4.55	-6.87	-	-4.14	-3.18
12	10.67	-4.75	u.d	-5.93	-4.41	-3.13
11	9.15	-4.67	u.d	-5.10	-4.84	-3.02
7	2.57	-2.71	-2.28	-2.48	-2.34	-2.44
10	6.73	-5.10	-6.76	-4.91	-6.08	-2.94
14	0.3	-2.20	-1.75	-1.86	-1.65	-1.83
15	0.8	-2.20	-1.90	-2.05	-1.87	-1.99
16	1.88	-2.38	-2.28	-2.52	-2.33	-2.44
17	3.17	-2.50	-2.44	-2.68	-2.55	-2.44
18	4.58	-3.13	-3.16	-3.39	-3.53	-2.46
19	4.78	-3.48	-3.43	-3.73	-4.02	-3.60
21	0.3	-1.75	-1.49	-1.72	-1.54	-1.73
22	2.45	-2.24	-2.13	-2.42	-2.28	-2.18
23	1.25	-2.03	-1.91	-2.17	-1.98	-2.09
24	0.82	-1.96	-1.83	-2.08	-1.89	-2.02
25	0.6	-1.97	-1.76	-2.00	-1.81	-1.99
26	2.34	-2.25	-2.16	-2.40	-1.47	-2.25
28	1.74	-2.62	-2.67	-2.87	-2.70	-0.34
29	1.83	-2.15	-1.93	-2.17	-1.98	-2.09
30	2.31	-2.21	-2.11	-2.26	-2.01	-2.27
31	1.83	-2.21	-2.11	-2.30	-1.33	-0.38
32	1.88	-2.49	-2.51	-2.65	-2.44	-0.65
33	0.64	-1.77	-1.45	-1.67	-1.50	-1.63
34	1.35	-2.06	-1.76	-2.01	-1.81	-1.96
35	0.45	-1.57	-1.28	-1.50	-1.24	-1.50
36	1.18	-2.21	-2.24	-2.45	-2.25	-2.20

u.d - solution concentration under the detection limit of the ICP.

Table 7-19. Data from titration experiments, biotite, CO₂(g)-free.

Sample	pH	E _p [mV]	log [Si]	log [Fe]	log (Mg)	log [Al]	log [K]
b1	3.819	-	-3.21	-3.07	-3.33	-3.19	-2.91
b2	4.086	-	-3.29	-3.15	-3.41	-3.32	-3.00
b3	4.243	-	-3.39	-3.28	-3.50	-3.59	-3.00
b4	5.004	-	-3.59	-3.73	-3.58	-4.56	-3.13
b5	6.479	-	-3.8	-6.09	-3.66	-6.31	-3.16
b6	7.119	-	-3.88	-6.44	-3.74	-5.95	-3.23
b7	7.989	-	-4.01	-7.27	-3.85	-5.98	-3.31
b8	8.208	-	-4.17	-5.66	-4.08	-5.76	-3.52
b9	8.67	-	-4.22	-6.57	-4.26	-5.31	-3.20
b10	8.875	-	-4.27	-6.90	-4.65	-5.21	-3.54
b11	9.337	-	-4.17	-6.79	-5.47	-4.85	-3.37
b12	10.68	-	-3.7	-6.46	-7.38	-3.74	-3.34
t1	6.74	-	-4.4	u.d	-4.31	-4.98	-2.77
t2	6.76	-	-4.24	u.d	-4.19	-5.03	-2.76
t3	6.89	-	-4.18	u.d	-4.06	u.d	-2.75
t4	8.45	-	-4.2	u.d	-4.16	-5.83	-2.73
j1	8.26	-	-4.39	u.d	-4.51	u.d	-2.94
j2	3.34	-	-3.09	-2.98	-3.28	-3.34	-2.51
j3	2.95	-	-2.95	-2.85	-3.19	-3.12	-2.49
p1	1.91	-	-2.35	-2.32	-2.56	-2.39	-2.52
J1:920924	8.47	-	-3.07	u.d	-4.51	u.d	-1.3472
J1:921012	3.55	-	-	-3.01	-	-	-
-J1:921022	3.17	386.4.	-	-2.73	-	-	-
J1:921210	3.24	435.9	-2.74	-2.76	-3.15	-3.02	-2.75
J1:930127	3.53	451.9	-2.69	-2.65	-3.06	-2.92	-2.63
J1:930209	3.06	470.3	-2.52	-2.46	-2.81	-2.65	-2.82
J1:930223	2.98	483.8	-2.46	-2.39	-2.74	-2.60	-2.73
J1:930319	3.23	455.8	-2.9	-2.68	-3.03	-2.86	-2.98
J1:930624	2.91	551.5	-	-2.44	-	-	-2.98
J1:930915	3.37	547.1	-	-2.51	-	-	-
J1:931014	2.12	626.2	-	-2.58	-	-	-
J1:931107	2.38	617.0	-	-2.61	-	-	-
J1:931128	3.31	474.6	-	-2.61	-	-	-

u.d - solution concentration under the detection limit of the ICP.

7.5 APPENDIX: Equilibrium data from the biotite-H₂O-CO₂-systemTable 7-20. Data from batch experiments, biotite, CO₂(g)-system.

Sample	pH	tot alk [M]	Si	Fe	Mg	Al
A	9.26	0	477.7	46.9	339.4	1056.5
B	8.4	83	595.6	63.3	554	154.2
C	8.45	250	866.8	162.1	763.9	u.d
D	8.44	333	1844.2	1007.5	11124	361.7
E	8.43	500	1096.2	754.2	2279.8	128.2
F	9.16	667	1261.4	1574.2	2254	702.5
G	9.42	750	1157.55	1435.8	1594.2	1486.6
H	10.12	917	1155.15	1105	1029.5	2388.4
I	11.35	1000	4435.6	687.6	101.8	9714.7

Potassium not analysed. u.d - solution concentration under the detection limit of the ICP.

Table 7-21. Data from titration experiments, biotite, CO₂(g)-system.

Sample	pH	Gas [%CO ₂]	Si [PPB]	Fe [PPB]	Mg [PPB]	Al [PPB]
C6-931107	3.70	1	29695	54509	10364	12239
C6-931004	6.47	1	1676	382	525	38
C6-931013	3.93	1	11114	24521	4485	5225
C6-930915	8.33	1	1121	13.6	429	143
c6-930830	8.56	1	1359	74	479	218
C3-930809	7.54	10	1311	u.d	1131	73
C3-930819	7.73	10	3976	u.d	1472	45
C4-930819	8.64	10	3680	731	808	353
C5-931107	7.95	10	2938	44	672	41
C5-931013	7.51	10	2652	u.d	701	44
C5-931004	6.10	10	3068	u.d	784	19
C5-930915	4.49	10	3112	3628	876	817
C5-930830	5.48	10	2518	370	531	24
C2:1	4.68	10	1460	u.d	295	51
C1:1	5.50	10	2178	10	366	18
C1:2	8.08	10	1776	u.d	317	87

Potassium not analysed. u.d - solution concentration under the detection limit of the ICP.

7.6 APPENDIX: Equilibrium data from the chlorite-H₂O-CO₂(g)-system
Table 7-22. Data from batch experiments, chlorite, CO₂(g)-system.

Sample	pH	tot alk. [M]	Si [PPB]	Fe [PPB]	Mg [PPB]	Al [PPB]
J	8.47	250	277.75	142	1742.2	130.5
K	8.89	0	535.2	39.9	2260	-
L	8.34	83	623.8	44	5459.8	77.6
M	8.4	333	266.2	409	3919.6	-
N	8.53	500	783.2	832.4	13668.7	242.7
O	9.13	667	1943.5	592.9	2350.5	245.3
P	9.35	750	2424.7	470.6	1840.3	313.9
Q	10.13	917	3969.6	542.2	972.8	385
R	11.27	1000	4524.8	524.7	95.8	268.2

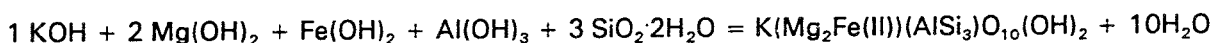
7.7 APPENDIX: Estimation of solubility-product of phyllosilicates

Due to the lack of experimental data, and the need of information on the stability of clay minerals, and phyllosilicates in general, several methods for estimating the Gibb's free energy of formation ($\Delta G_{f,298.15}^{\circ}$) of these minerals have been reported in the literature, i.e. (Slaughter, 1966; Tardy and Garells, 1974; Nriagu, 1975; Chen, 1975; Mattigod and Sposito, 1978; Sposito, 1986).

These methods all calculates the $\Delta G_{f,298.15}^{\circ}$ of the sheet mineral by summation of $\Delta G_{f,298.15}^{\circ}$ for simple (hydr)oxides. The calculated value is then modified, by theoretical or empirical methods, to compensate for the "polymerization-energy".

We have used the method outlined by Sposito (1986) to estimate the $\Delta G_{f,298.15}^{\circ}$ for ideal biotite ($\text{K}(\text{Mg}_2\text{Fe(II)})(\text{AlSi}_3)\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2$):

Biotite can be regarded as a combination of it's end-member (hydr)oxides:



The $\Delta G_{f,298.15}^{\circ}$ is then calculated as:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta G_{f,\text{biotite}}^{\circ} = & \Delta G_{f,\text{KOH}}^{\circ} + 2\Delta G_{f,\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2}^{\circ} + \Delta G_{f,\text{Fe}(\text{OH})_2}^{\circ} + \\ & + \Delta G_{f,\text{Al}(\text{OH})_3}^{\circ} + 3\Delta G_{f,\text{SiO}_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\circ} - 10\Delta G_{f,\text{H}_2\text{O}}^{\circ} - |\Delta G_{\text{corr.}}^{\circ}| \end{aligned} \quad (7-1)$$

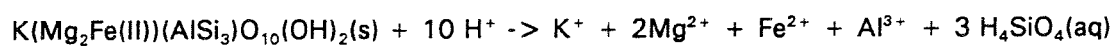
where

$$|\Delta G_{\text{corr.}}^{\circ}| = 41.34 + 921.66 \left(\frac{xR}{Z} \right) \quad (7-2)$$

where x ($x_{\text{biotite}} = 1$) is the number of -, R is the Shannon-Prewitt radii ($R_K = 0.138$ nm (Sposito (1986, table 3)) of -, and Z ($Z_K = 1$) the charge of the exchangeable ion.

Using the $\Delta G_{f,298.15}^{\circ}$ for the (hydr)oxides given by Mattigod and Sposito (1978, table 1) the $\Delta G_{f,\text{biotite}}^{\circ}$ is calculated to be -5453 ± 11 kJ/mole. The standard deviation is taken from the mean absolute difference between $\Delta G_{f,\text{exp}}^{\circ}$ and $\Delta G_{f,\text{est}}^{\circ}$ given by Sposito (1986) for 14 smectites.

The $\Delta G^0_{\text{react.}}$ for the reaction



is estimated to -231 ± 11 KJ/mole using Hess' law and the $\Delta G^0_{f,298.15}$ given by Mattigod and Sposito (1978, table 1).

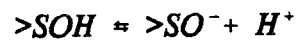
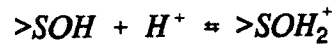
Using the relation

$$\Delta G^0_{\text{react.}} = -RT \ln K \quad (7-3)$$

the $\lg K_s$ is calculated to be 40 ± 2 .

7.8 APPENDIX: Acid-base equilibrium at mineral surfaces.

When a metal oxide or a silicate mineral comes in contact with water the surface is hydrated, i.e. surface OH-groups are formed. The acid and base reactions of mineral surfaces is (de)protonation reactions of these OH-groups i.e.:



where >S refers to a surface site.

The surface complexation model (Stumm and Morgan, 1981) describes the surface equilibrium by the following equations:

$$K_1 = \frac{\{\text{>SOH}_2^+\}}{\{\text{>SOH}\}\{\text{H}^+\}} e^{-\frac{F\Psi}{RT}} \quad (7-4)$$

$$K_2 = \frac{\{\text{>SO}^-\}\{\text{H}^+\}}{\{\text{>SOH}\}} e^{-\frac{F\Psi}{RT}} \quad (7-5)$$

where curly brackets refers to surface concentrations (moles m^{-2}) and the exponential term is a correction for surface charge effects where Ψ denotes a surface potential, F Faraday's constant, R the gas constant and T the absolute temperature. Several different models developed for describing the electric behaviour of the surface have been used in the literature (See for example review by Sposito (1983)). We use the diffuse-layer-model (also called double-layer model) (Dzombak and Morel, 1990) which describes the mineral/solution interface as comprised by two layer of charge: 1) A surface layer 2) A diffuse layer of counter ions in the solution.

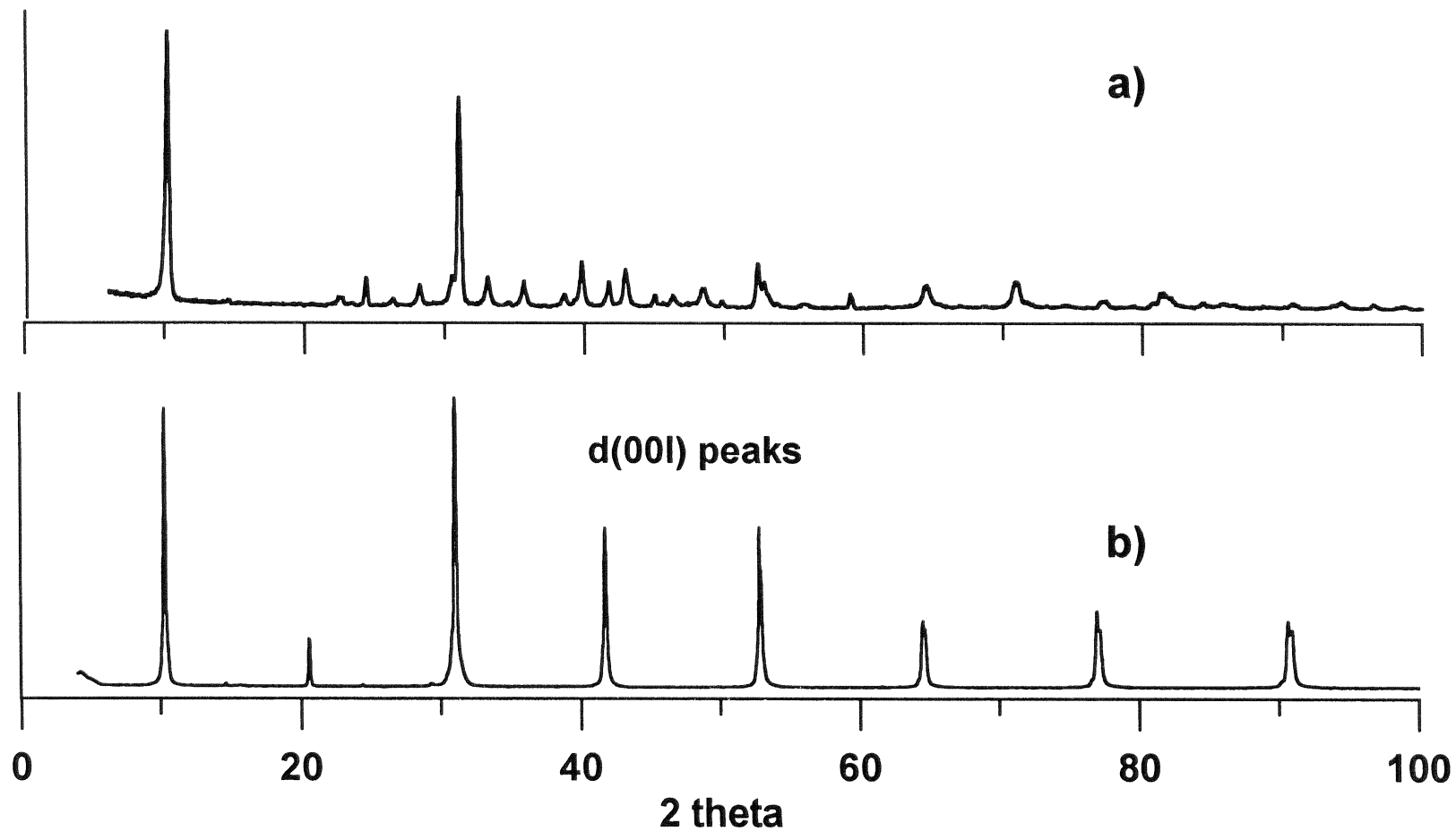


Figure 7-1.
XPD pattern of biotite. a) mineral powder (no orientation)
b) mineral flake (inter-layer plane perpendicular to the Xray beam).

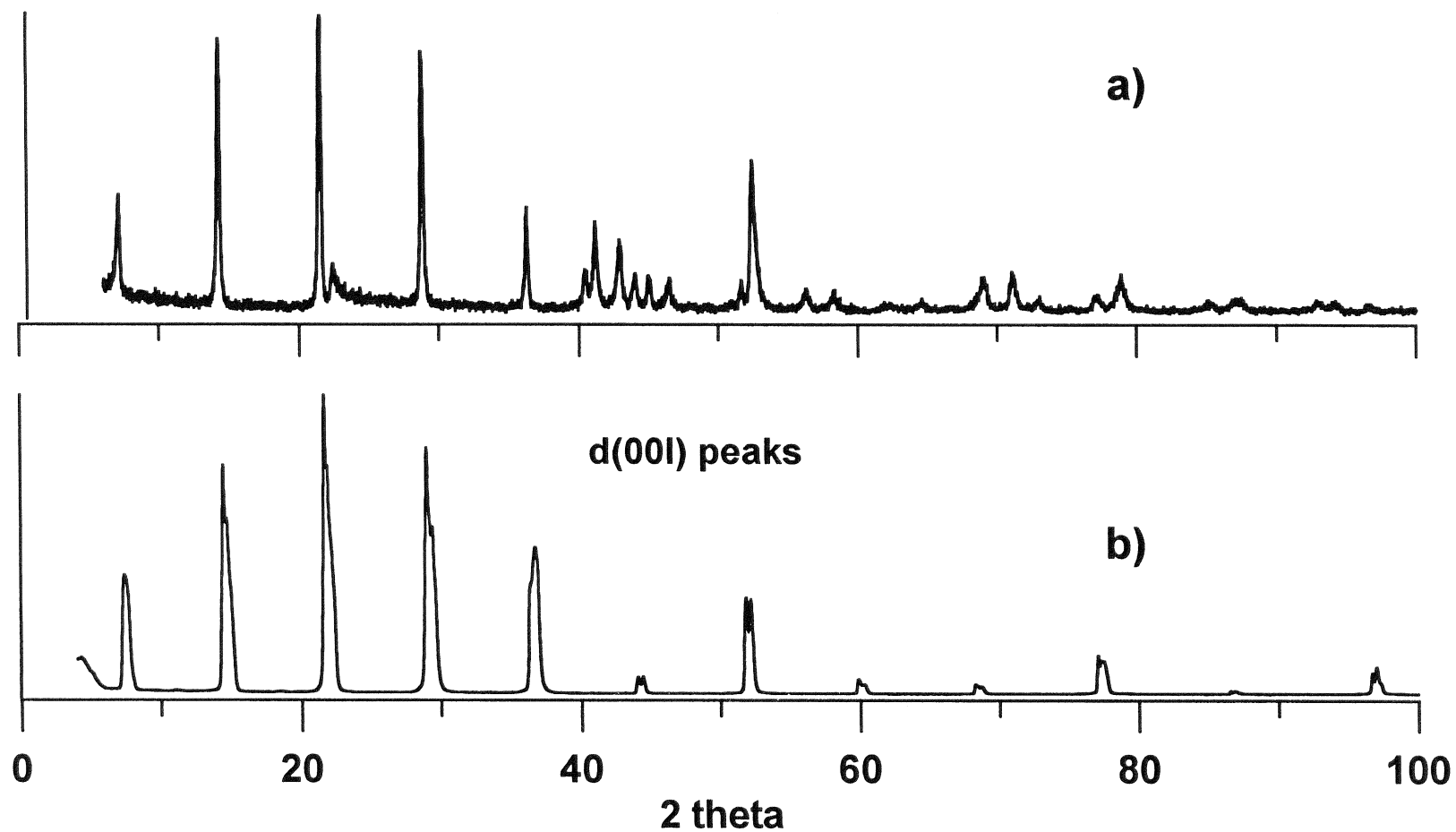
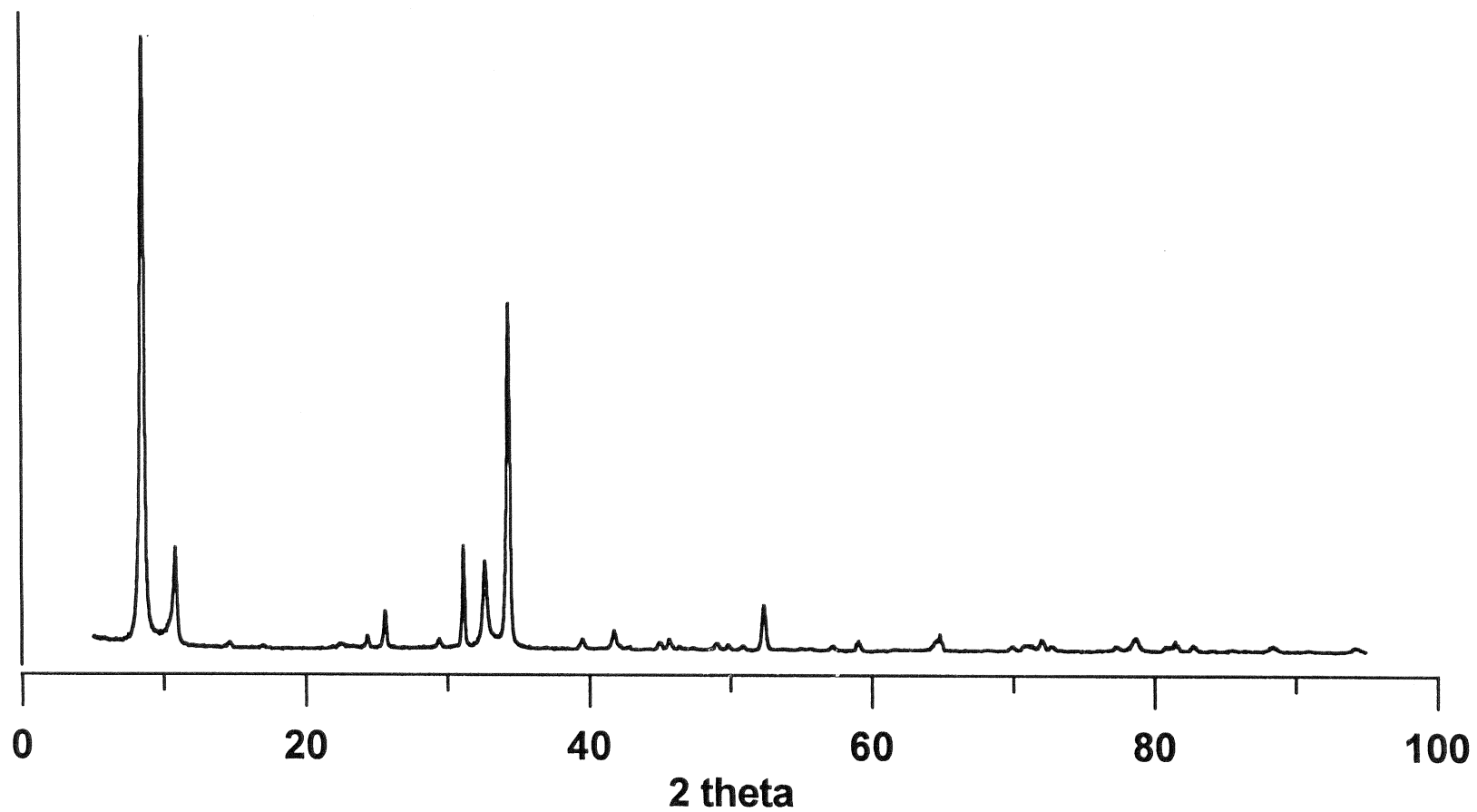


Figure 7-2.
XPD pattern of chlorite. a) mineral powder (no orientation)
b) mineral flake (inter-layer plane perpendicular to the Xray beam).



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Figure 7-3.
XPD pattern of mineral from the kinetic experiment of biotite dissolution
at pH 4.06 (M2).

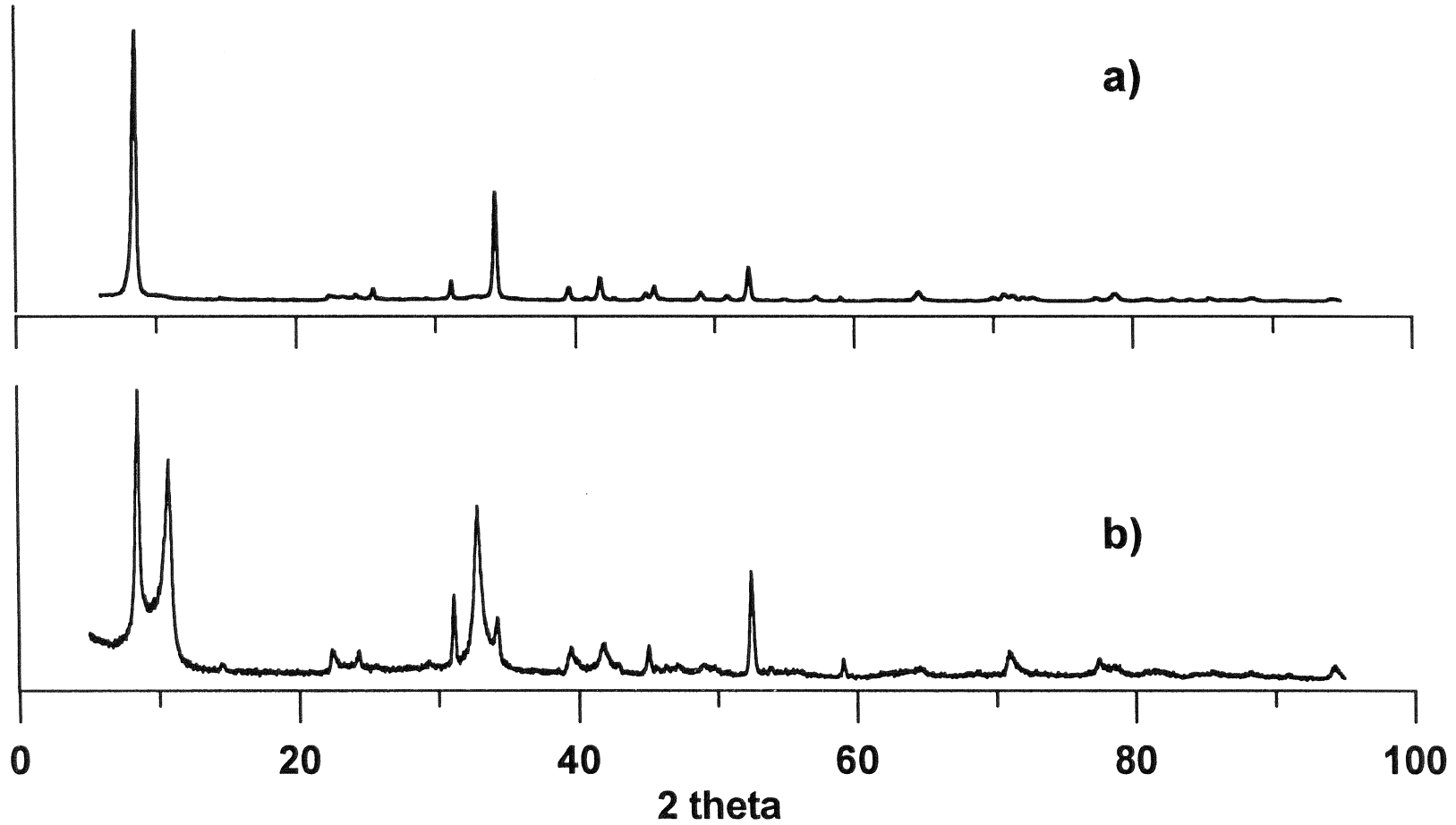


Figure 7-4.
XPD pattern of mineral from the kinetic experiment of biotite dissolution
at pH 2.80 (M3). a) darker phase b) lighter phase.

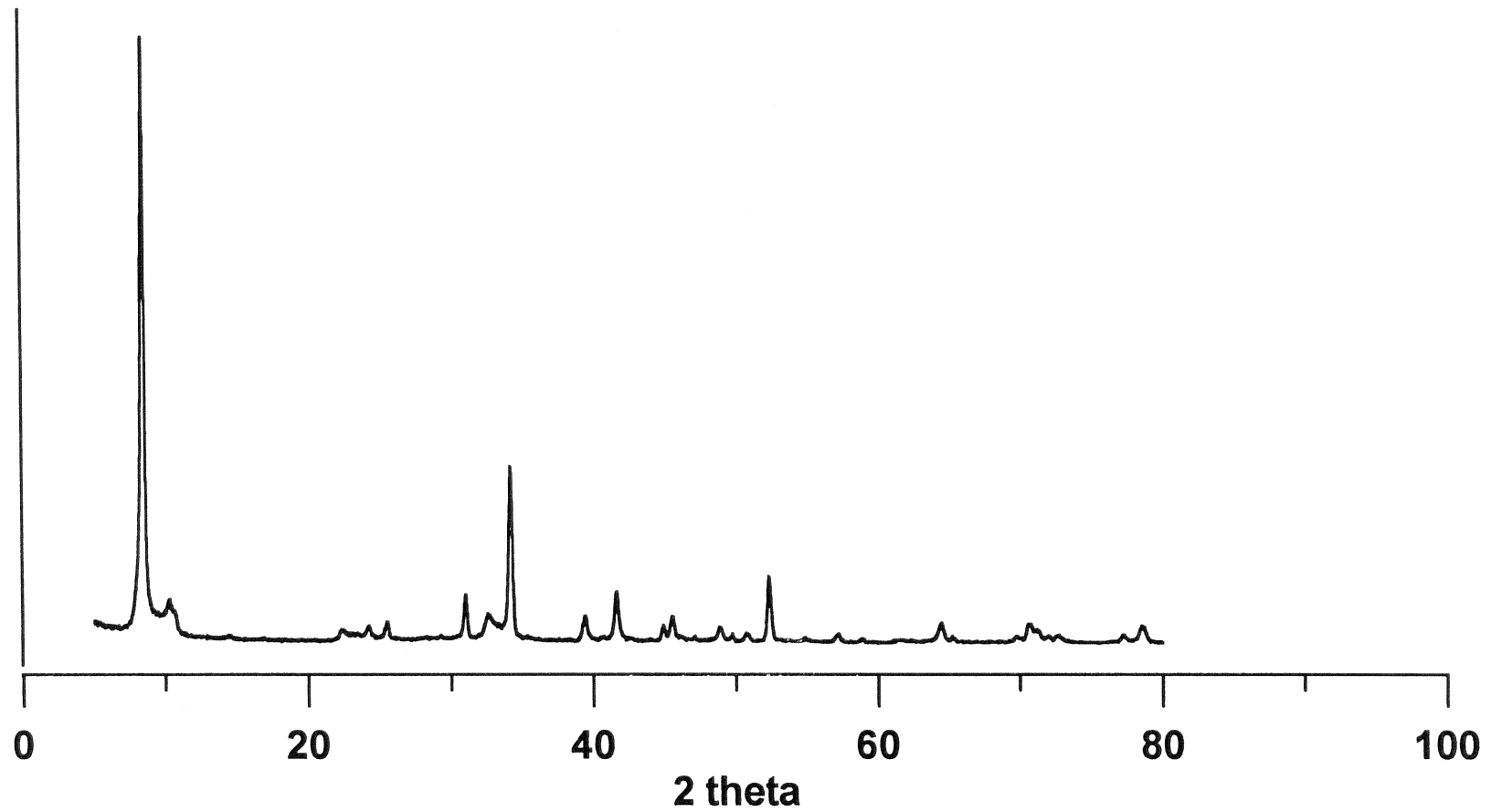


Figure 7-5.
XPD pattern of mineral from the kinetic experiment of biotite dissolution
at pH 5 (M4).

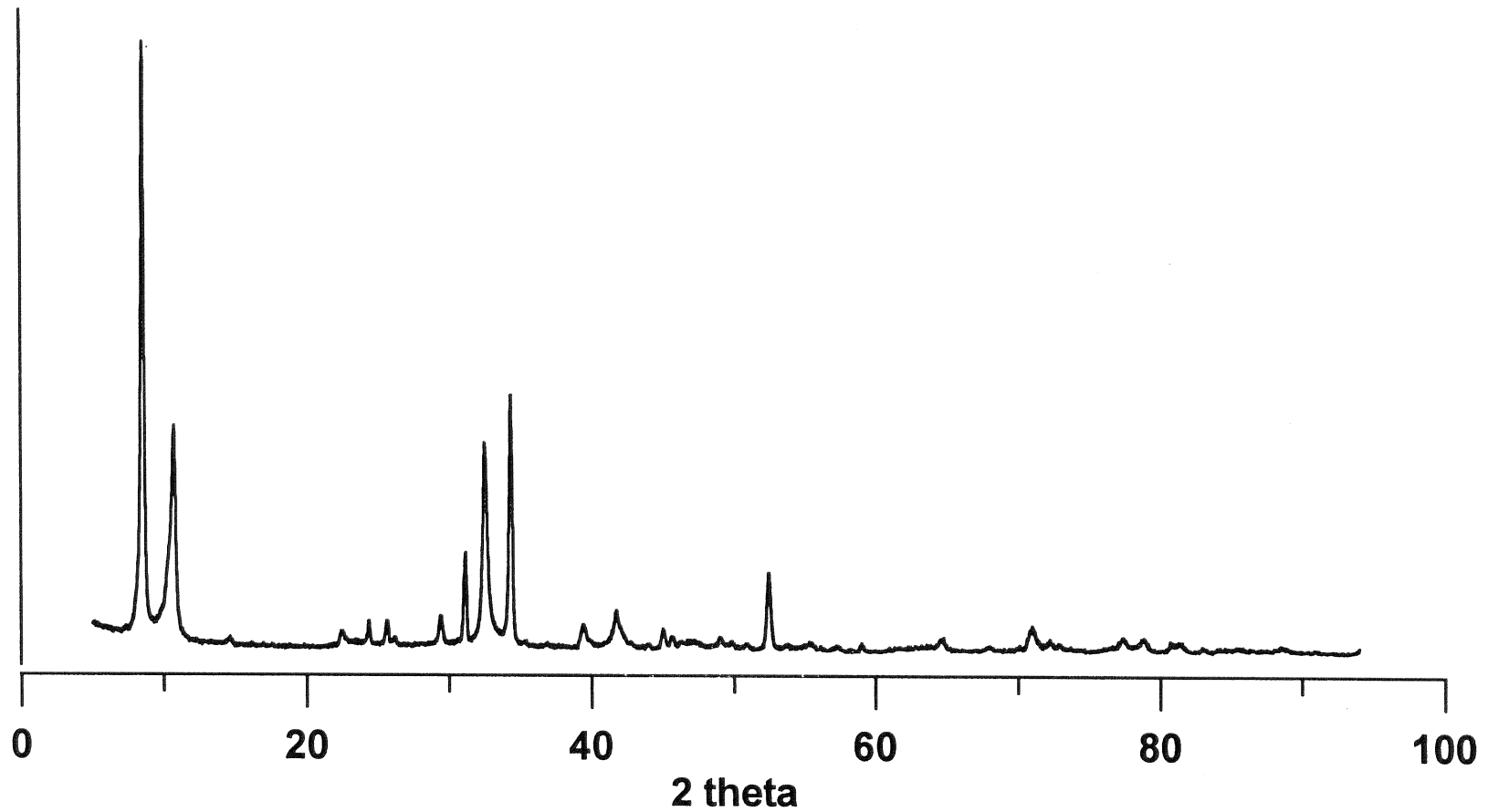


Figure 7-6.
XPD pattern of mineral from the kinetic experiment of biotite dissolution
at pH 8.5 (M5).

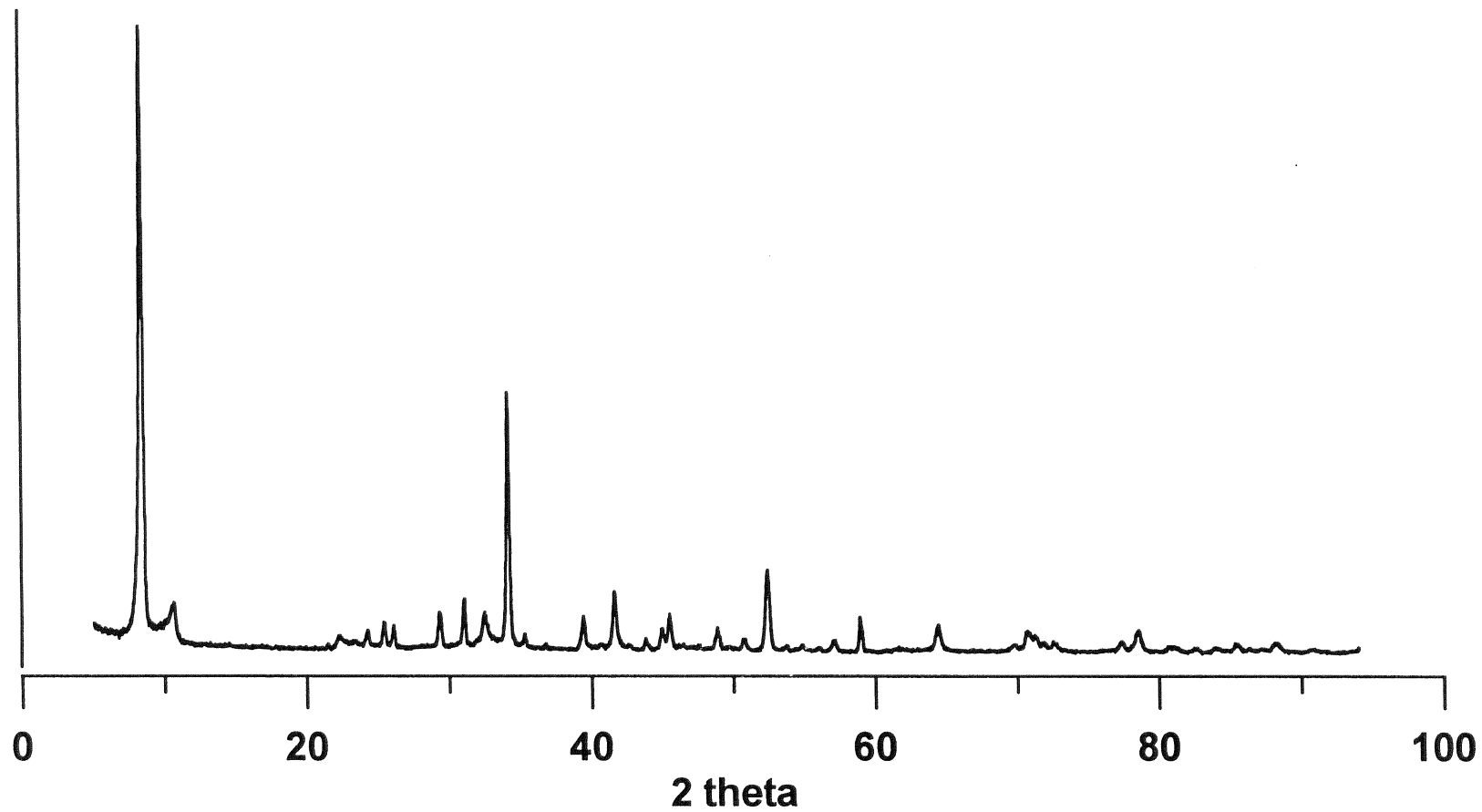


Figure 7-7.
XPD pattern of mineral from the kinetic experiment of biotite dissolution
at pH 10 (M6).

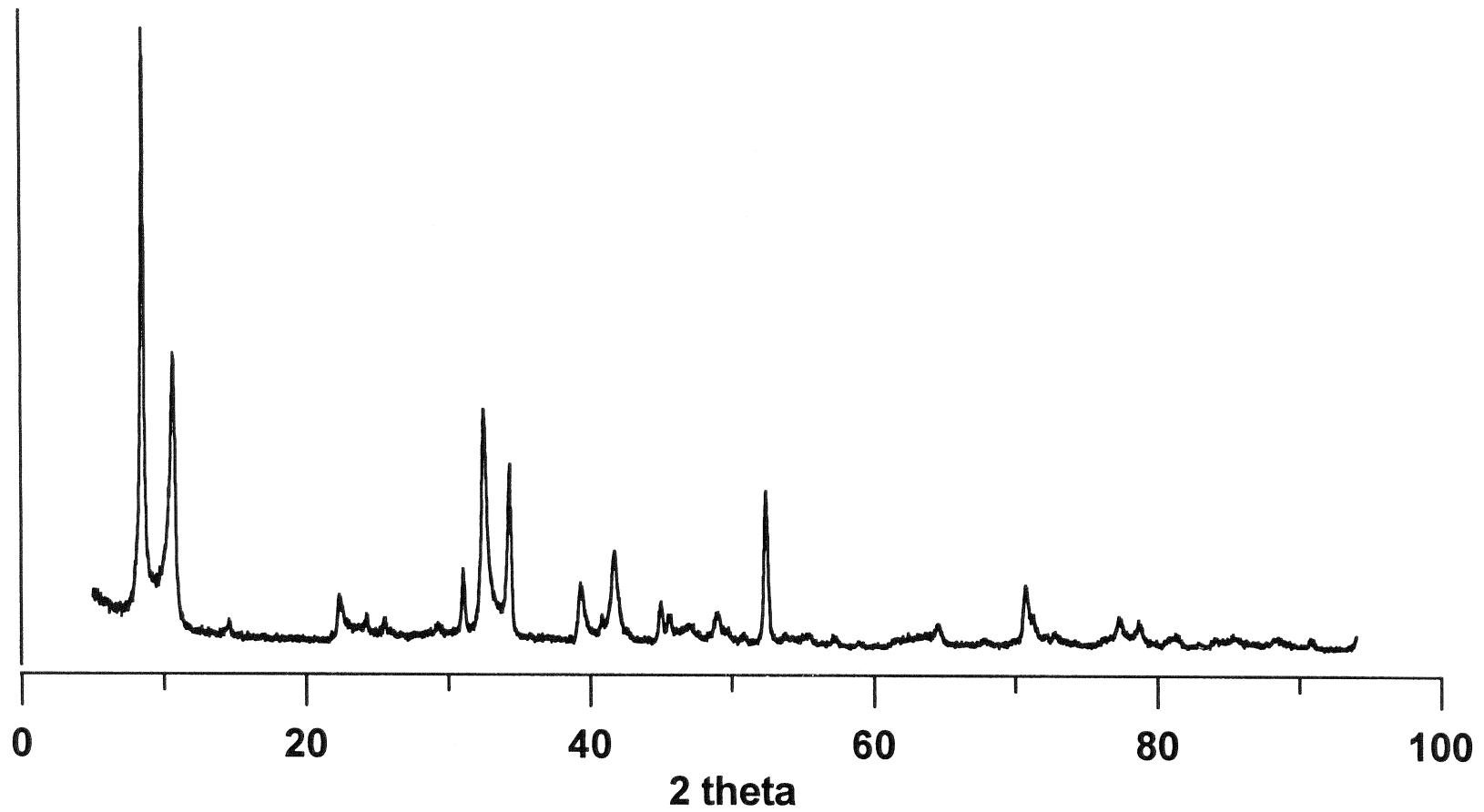


Figure 7-8.
XPD pattern of mineral from the kinetic experiment of biotite dissolution
at pH 7 (M8).

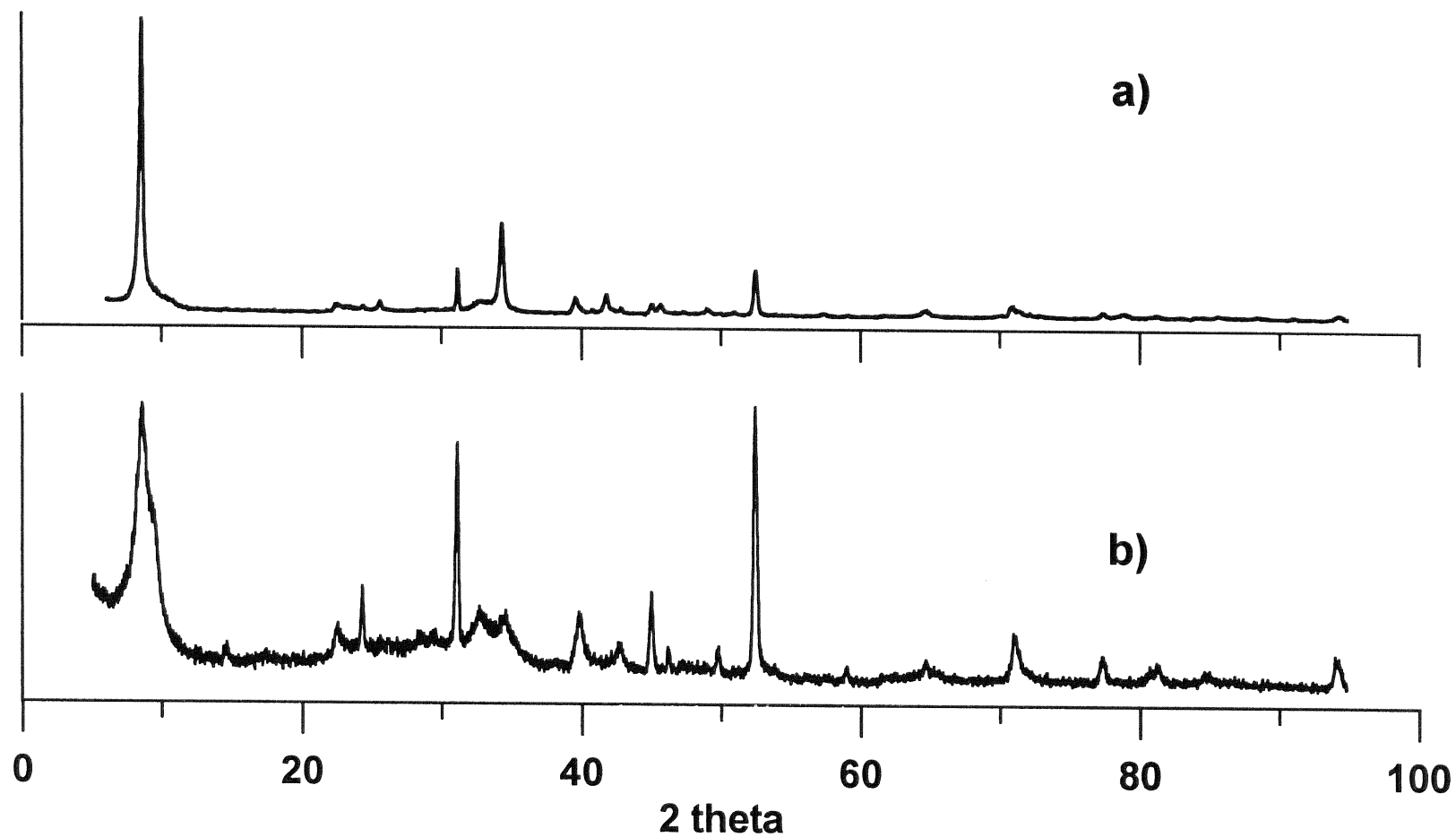


Figure 7-9.
XPD pattern of mineral from the kinetic experiment of biotite dissolution
at pH2 (M10). a) darker phase b) lighter phase.

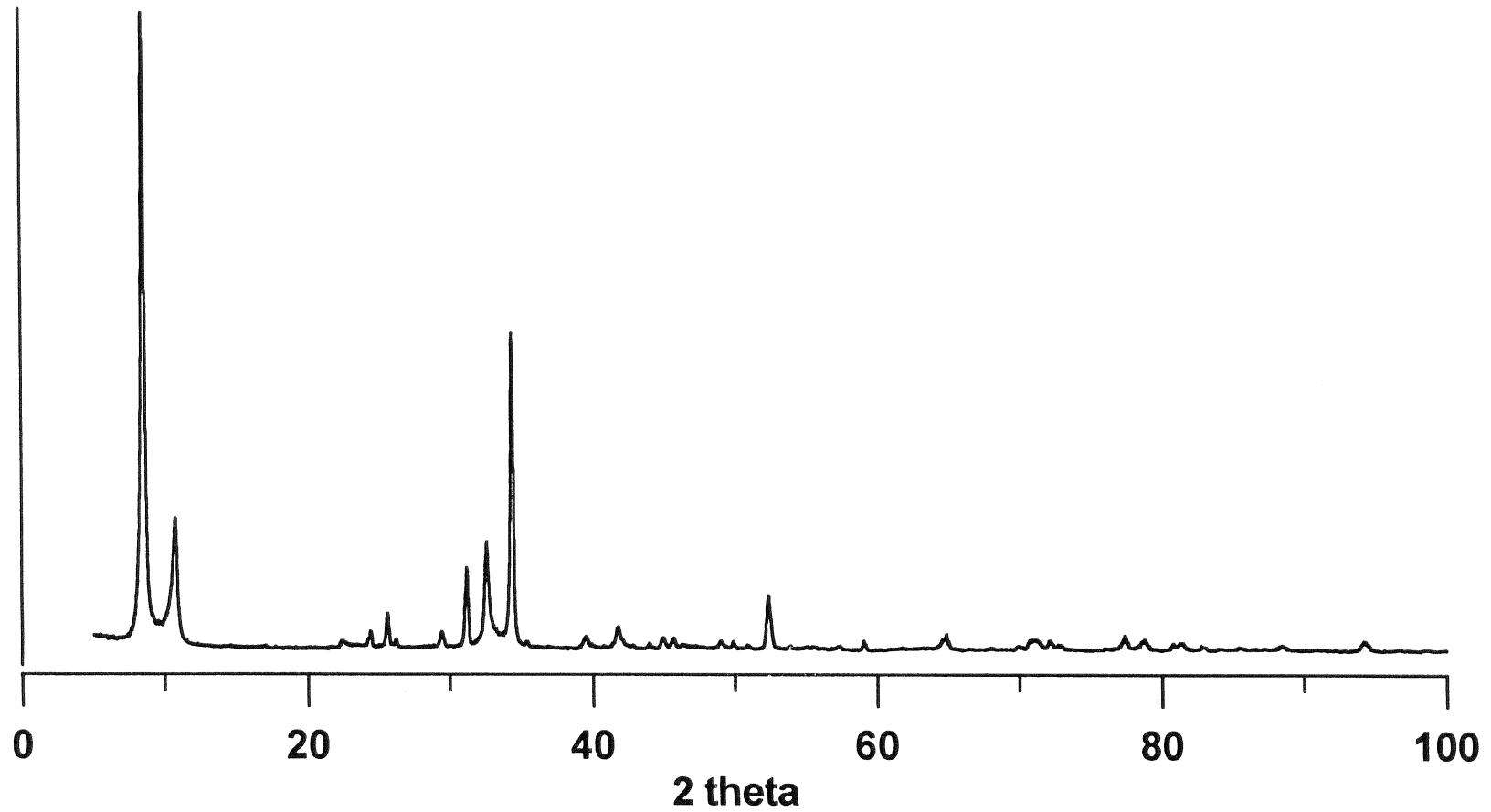


Figure 7-10.
XPD pattern of mineral from the kinetic experiment of biotite dissolution
at pH 6.77 and 1% CO₂ (M12).

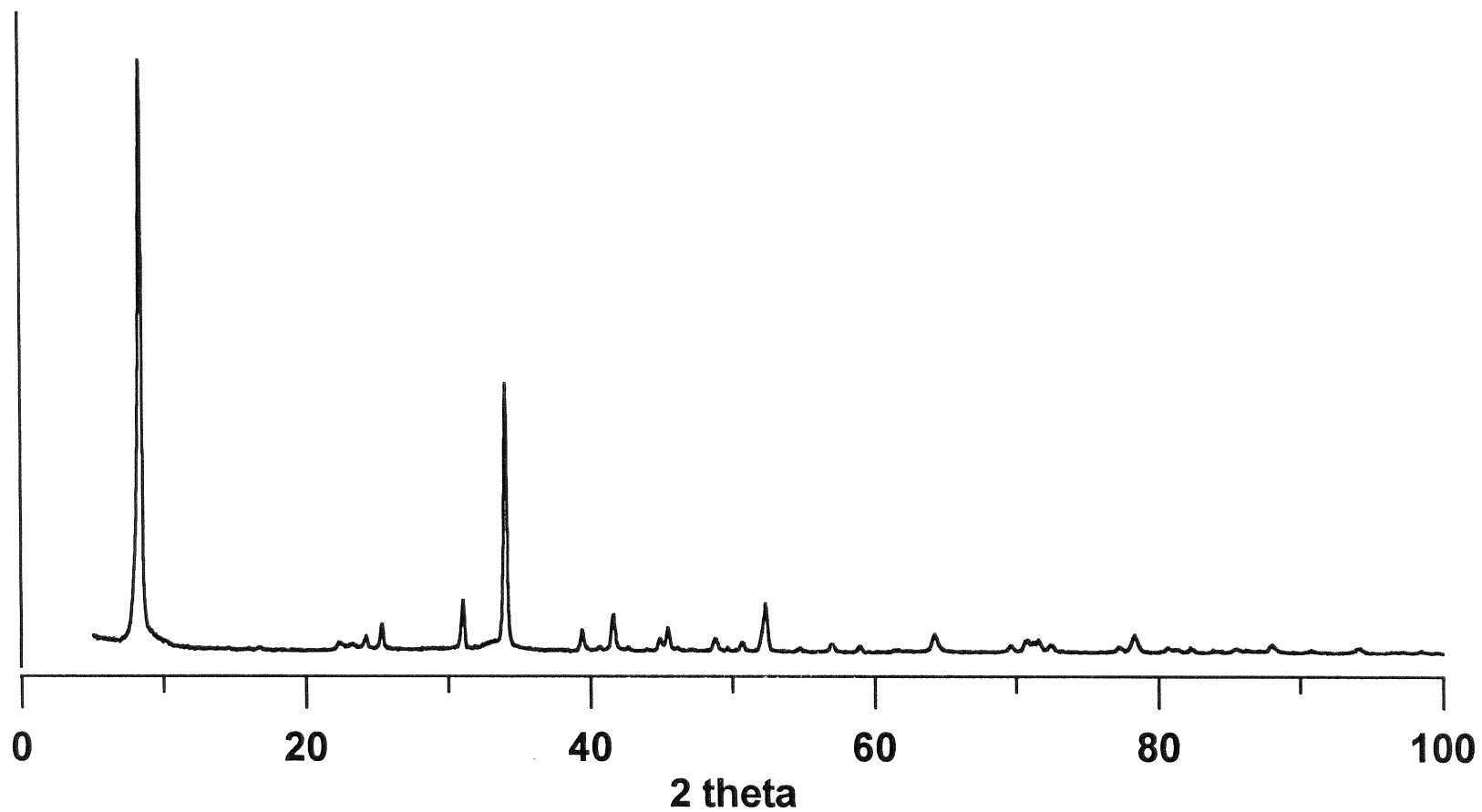


Figure 7-11.
XPD pattern of mineral from the kinetic experiment of biotite dissolution
at pH 8.11 and 1% CO₂ (M13).

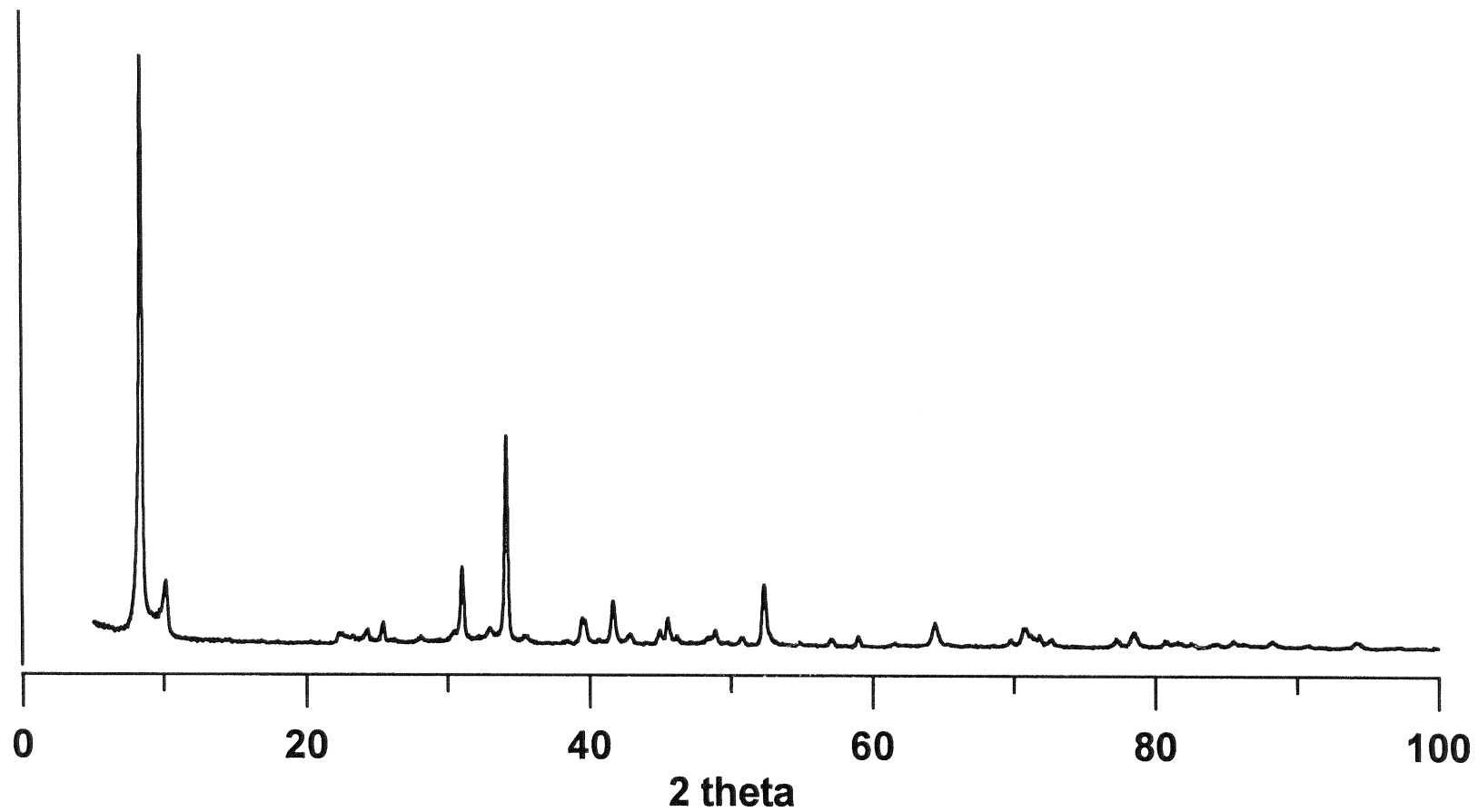


Figure 7-12.
XPD pattern of mineral from the kinetic experiment of biotite dissolution
at pH 8.41 and 1% CO₂ (M14).

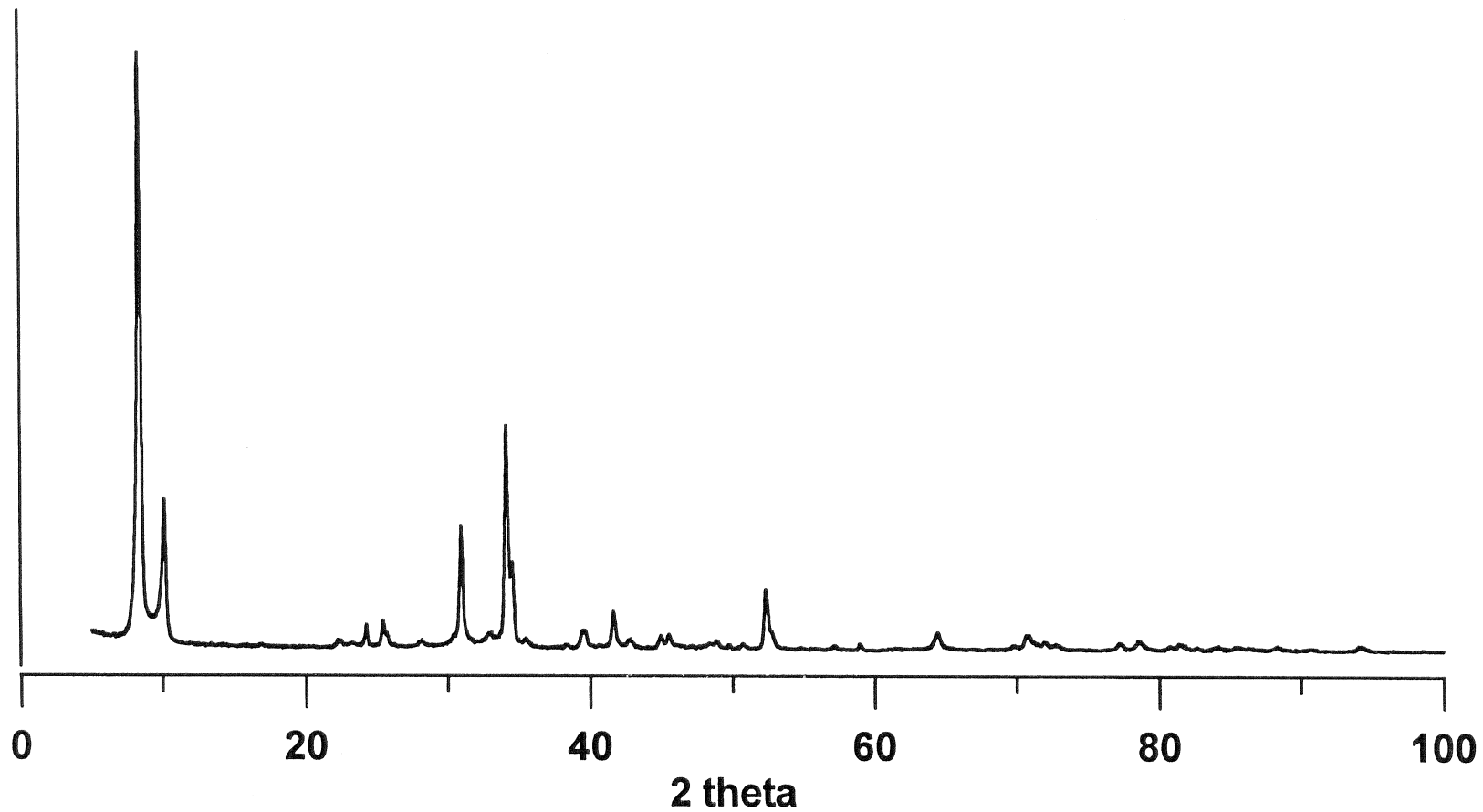
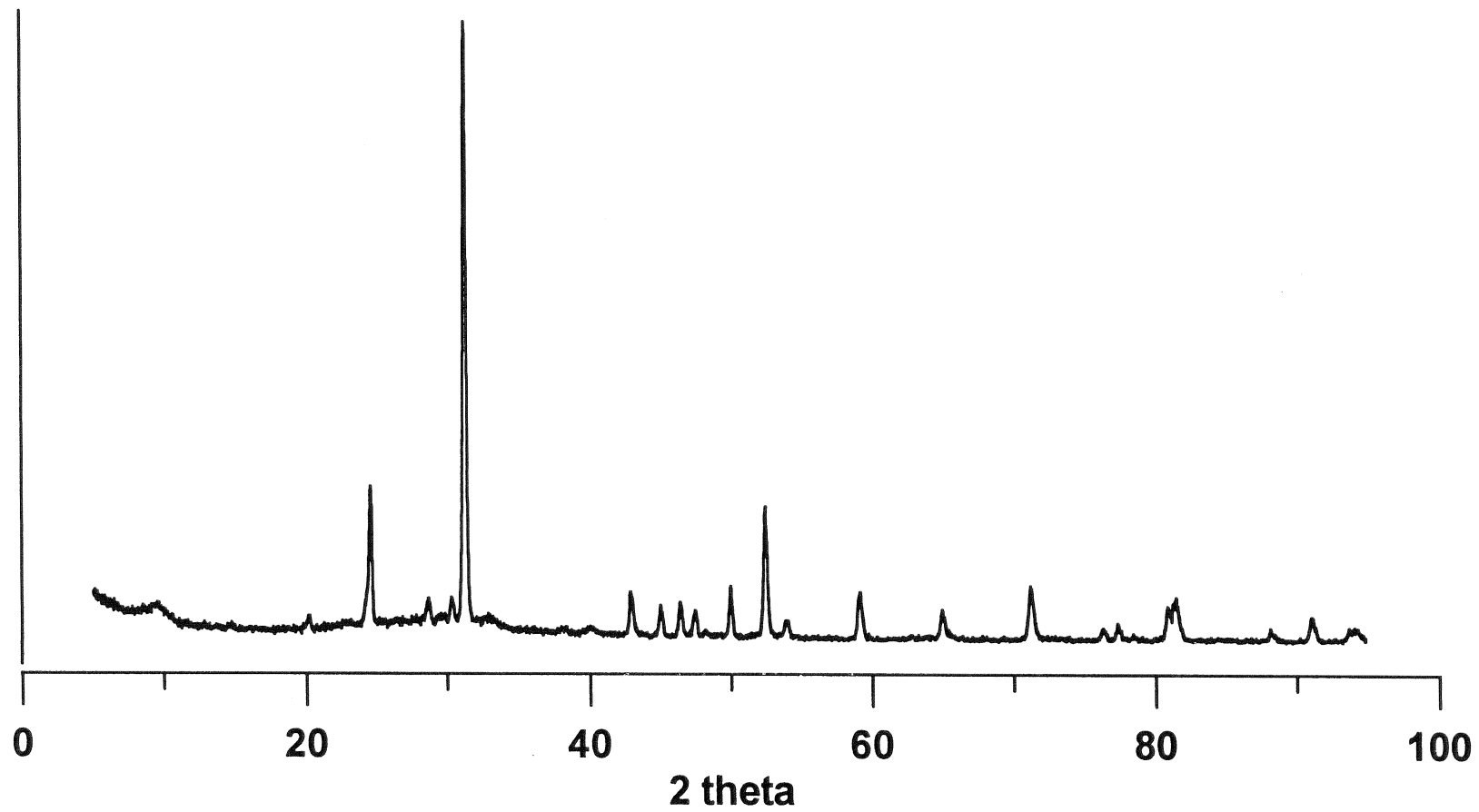


Figure 7-13.
XPD pattern of mineral from the kinetic experiment of biotite dissolution
at pH 8.75 and 1% CO₂ (M15).



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Figure 7-14.
XPD pattern of mineral from the kinetic experiment of biotite dissolution
at pH <2 (M1).

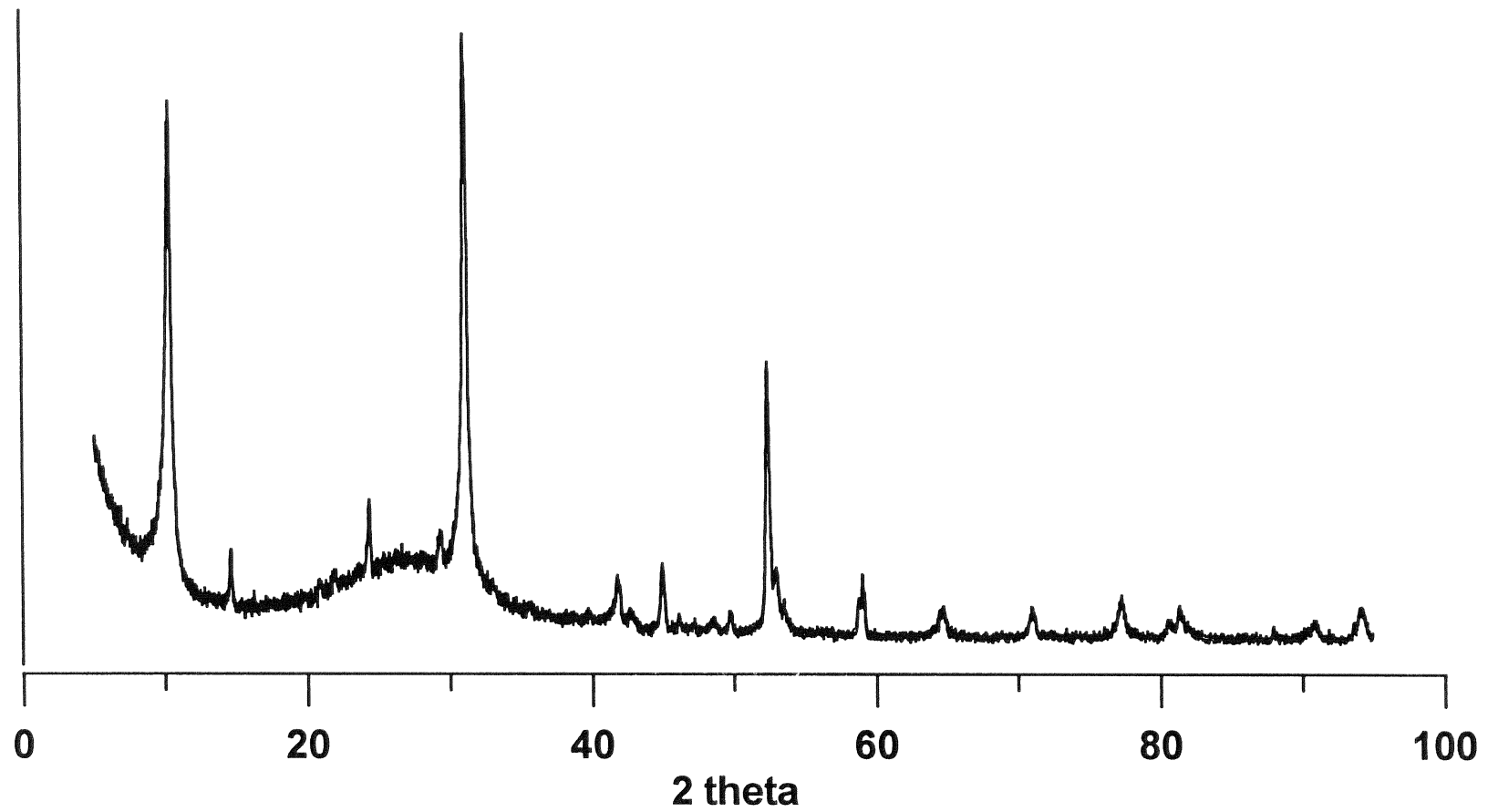


Figure 7-15.
XPD pattern of mineral from the biotite batch experiment at pH 0.3 (sample 37).

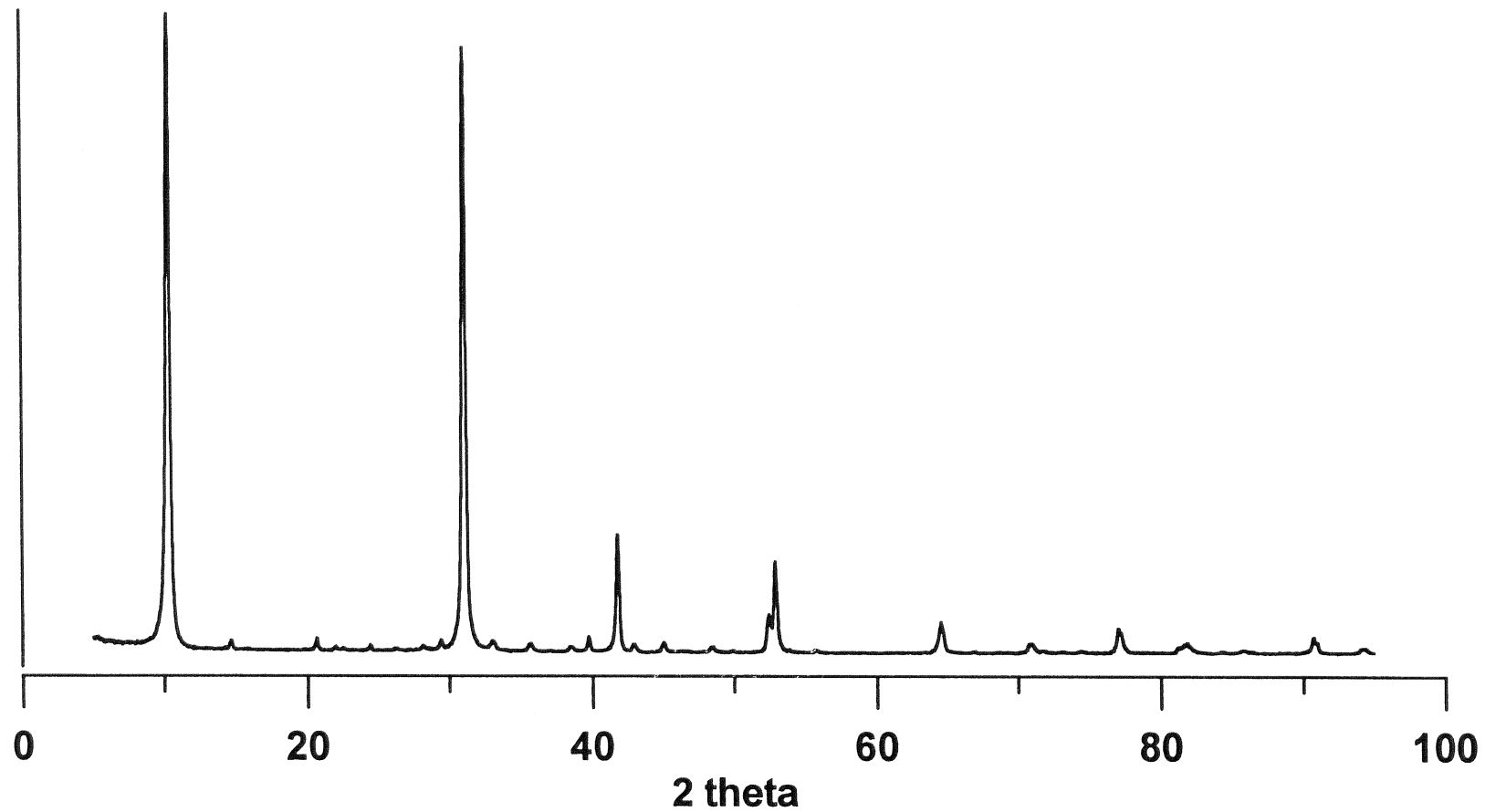


Figure 7-16.
XPD pattern of mineral from the biotite batch experiment at pH 0.64 (sample 33).

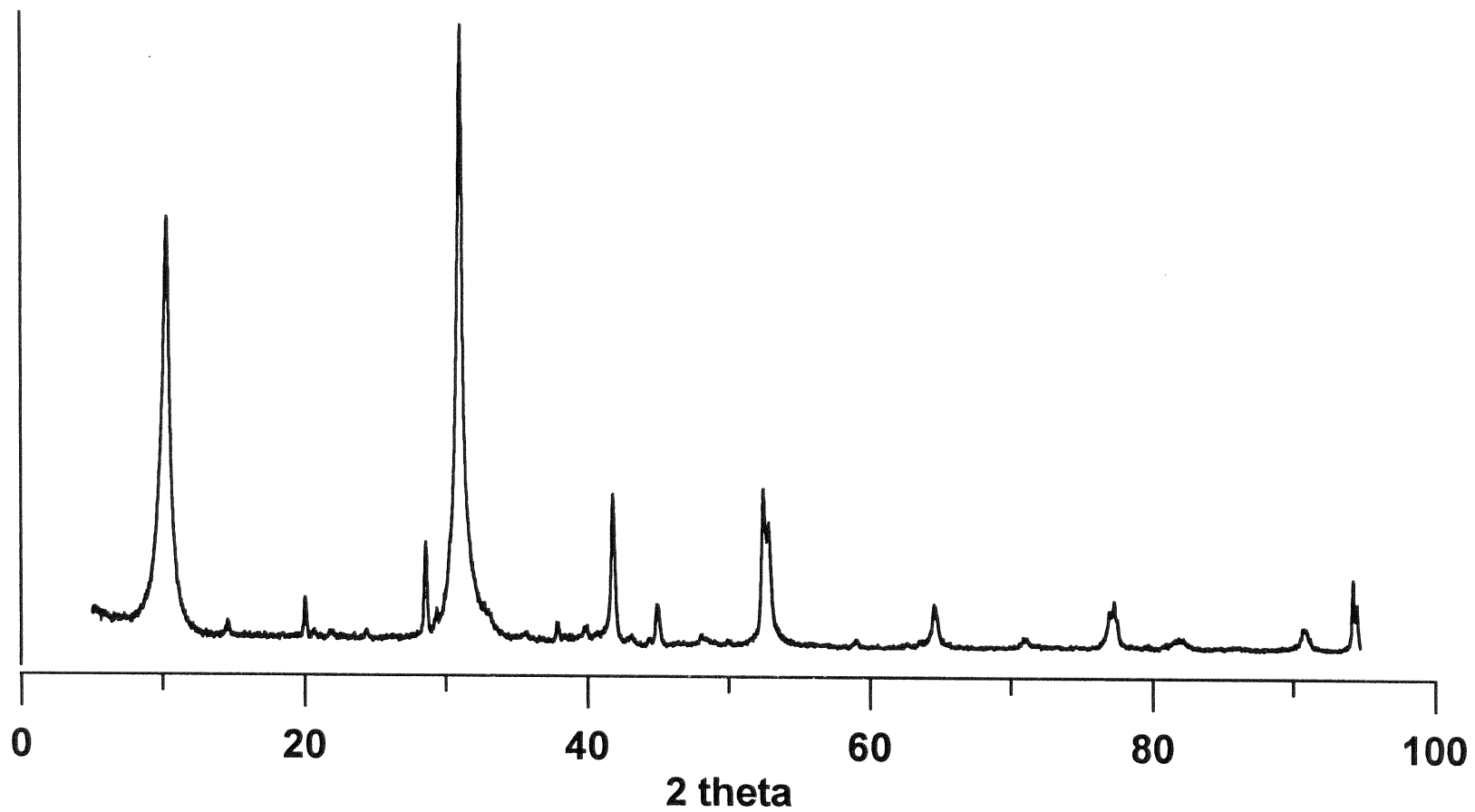


Figure 7-17.
XPD pattern of mineral from the biotite batch experiment at pH 0.82 (sample 24).

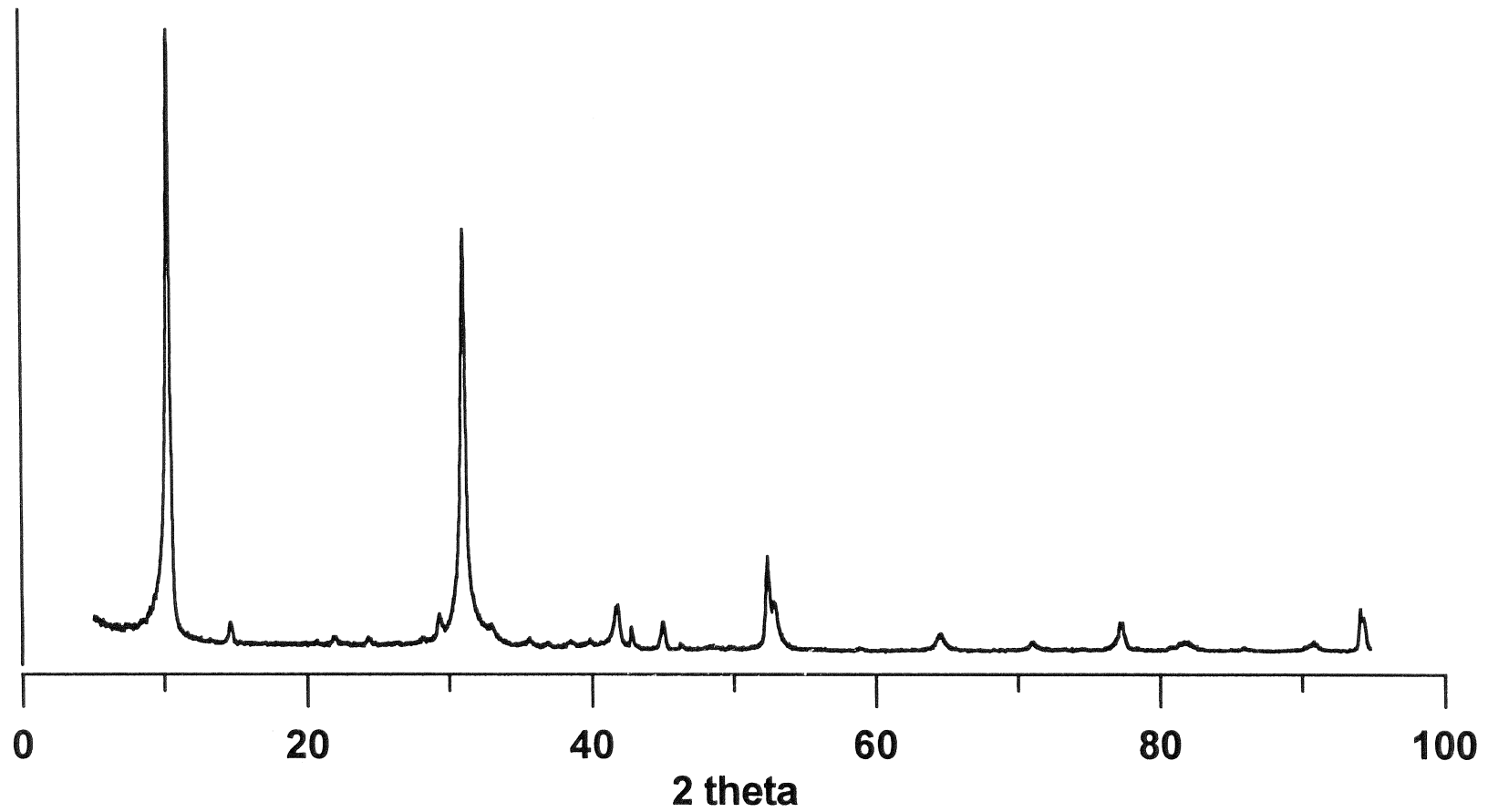


Figure 7-18.
XPD pattern of mineral from the biotite batch experiment at pH 1.18 (sample 36).

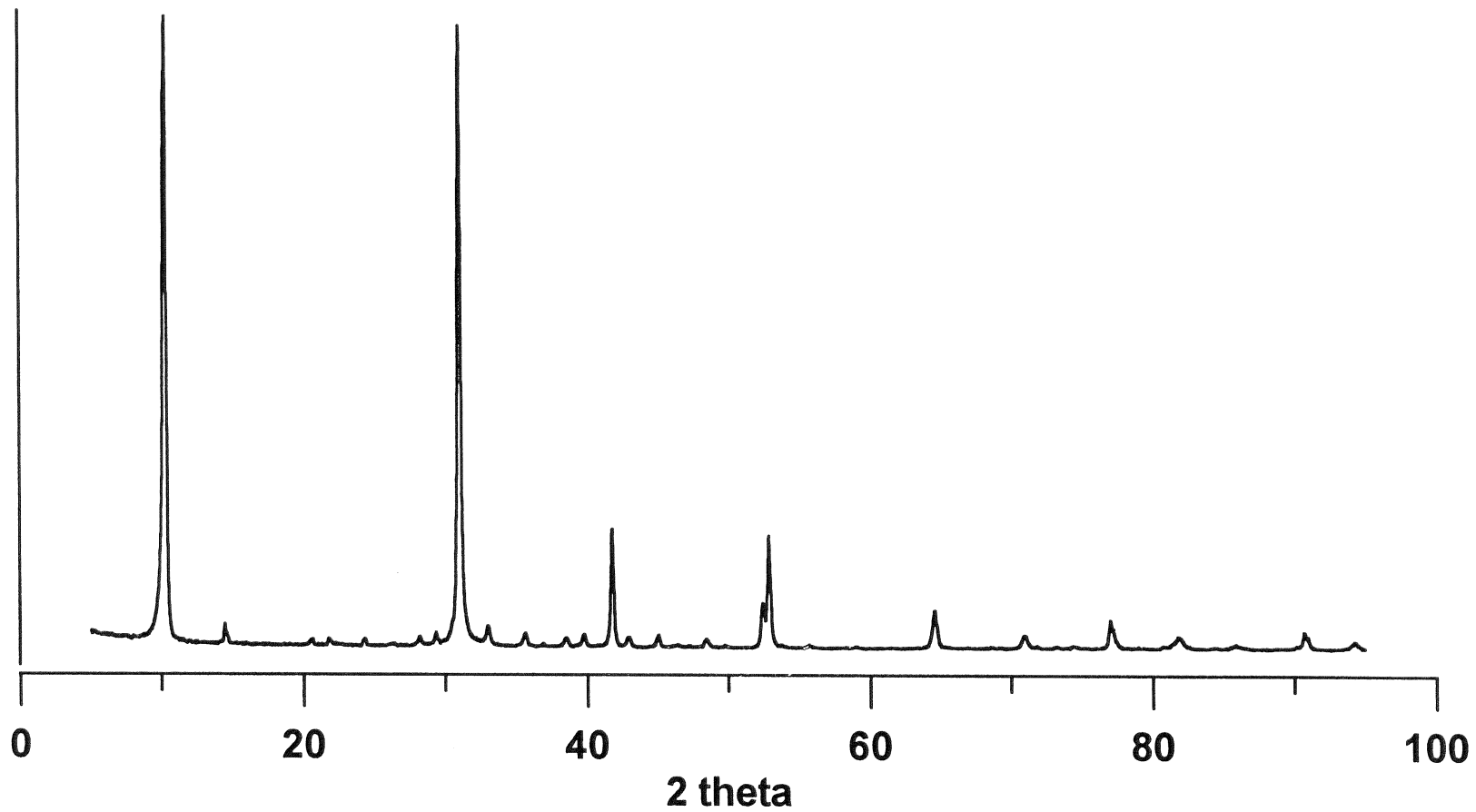


Figure 7-19.
XPD pattern of mineral from the biotite batch experiment at pH 2.34 (sample 26).

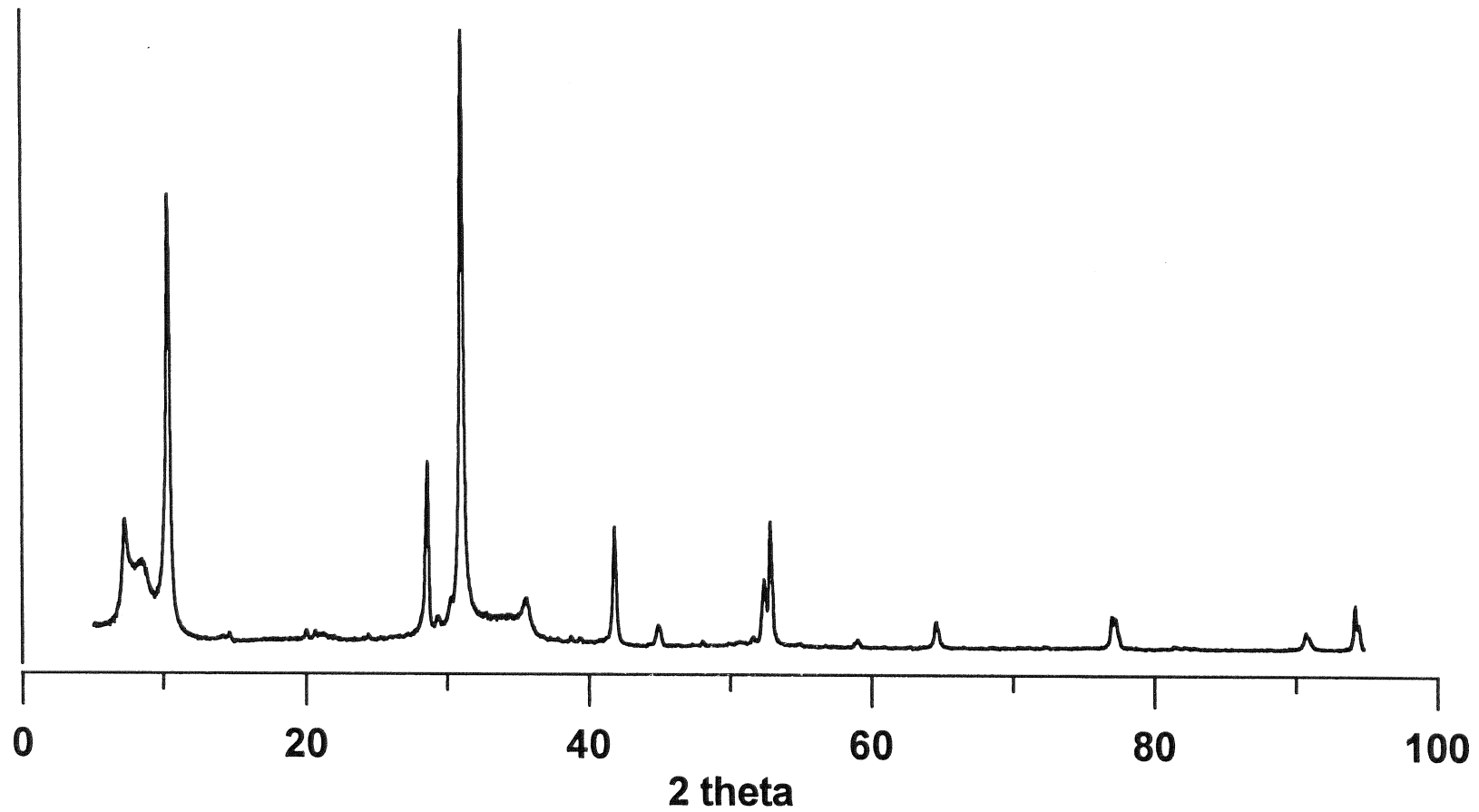


Figure 7-20.
XPD pattern of mineral from the biotite batch experiment at pH 2.57 (sample 7).

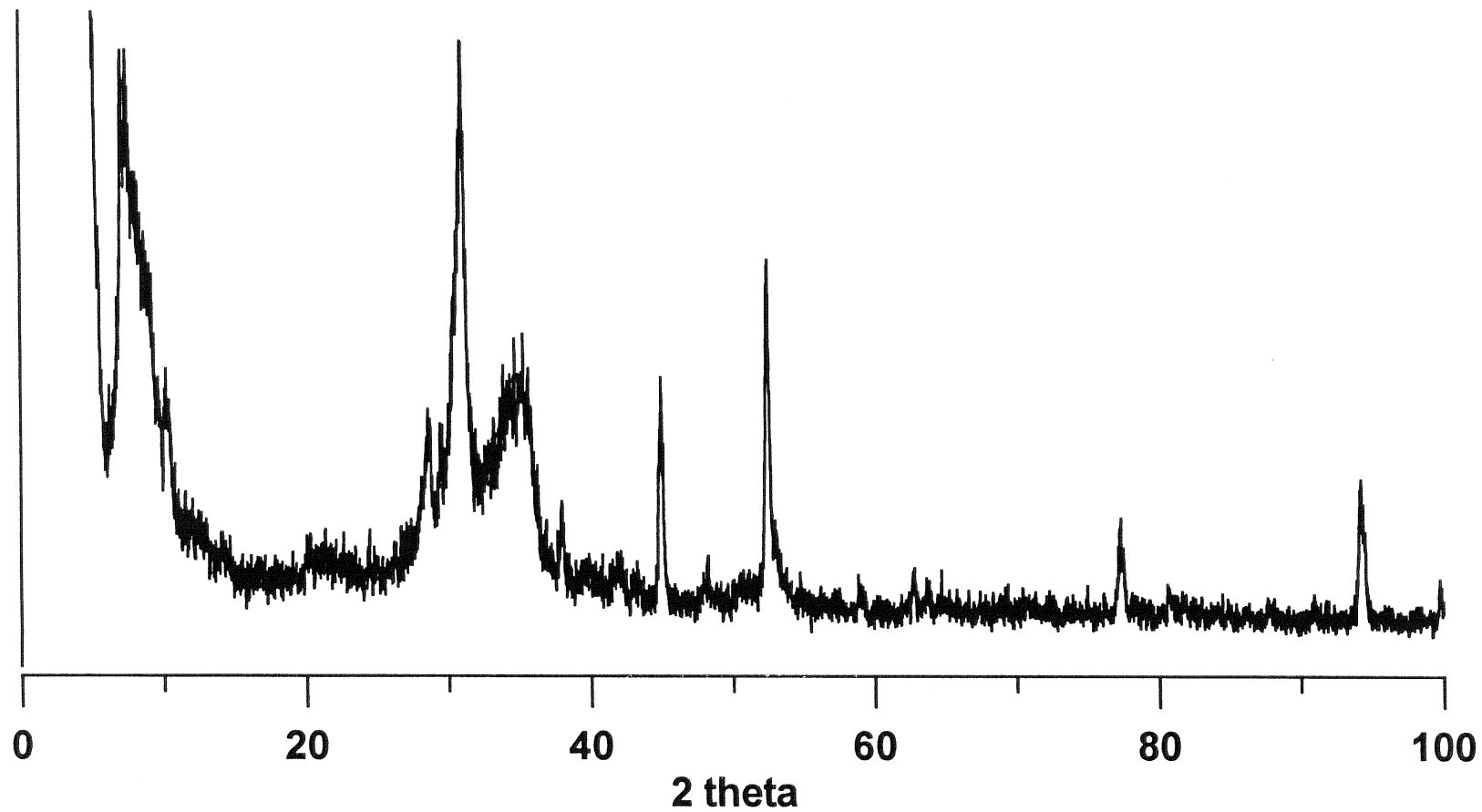


Figure 7-21.
XPD pattern of mineral from the biotite batch experiment at pH 3.9 (sample 8).

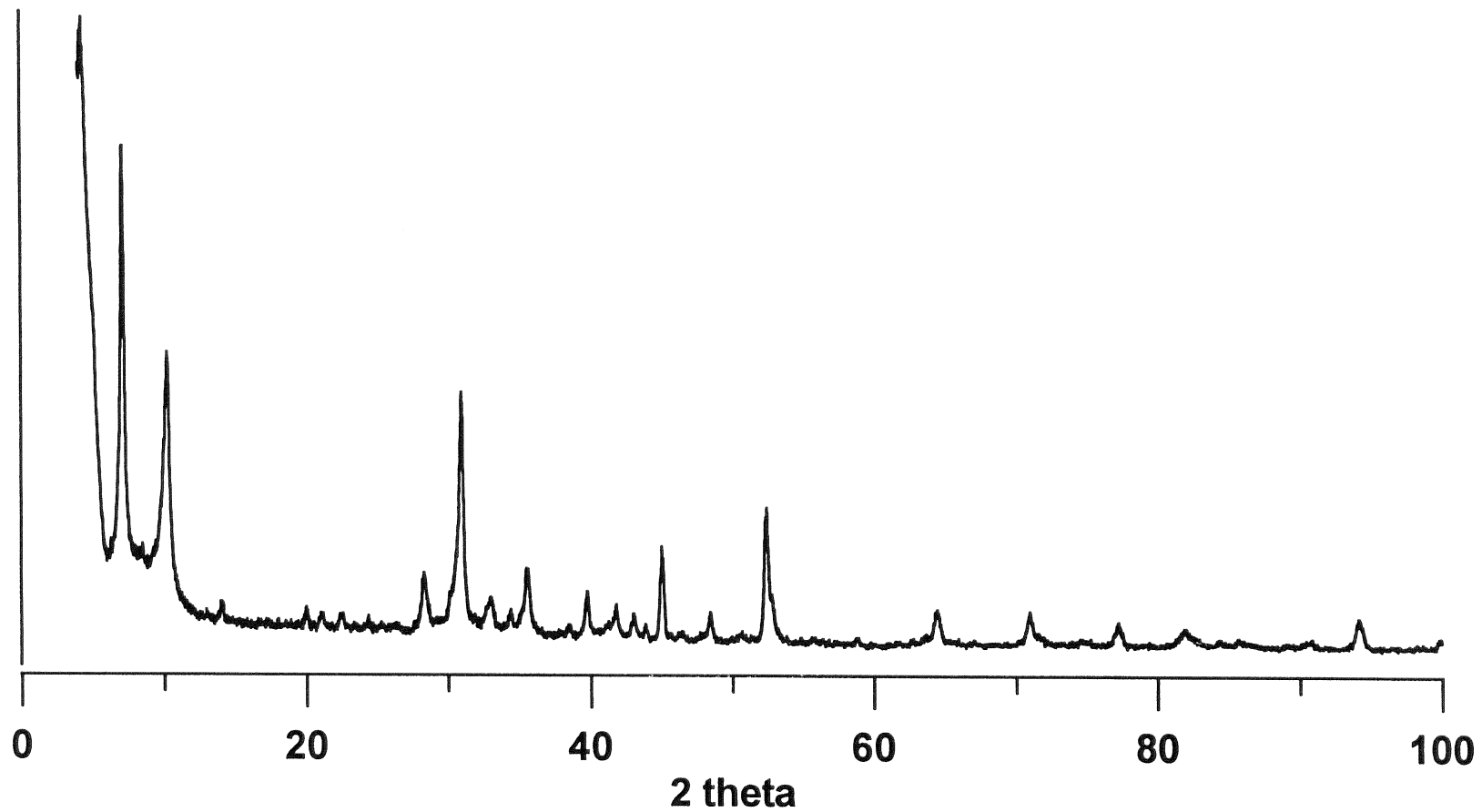
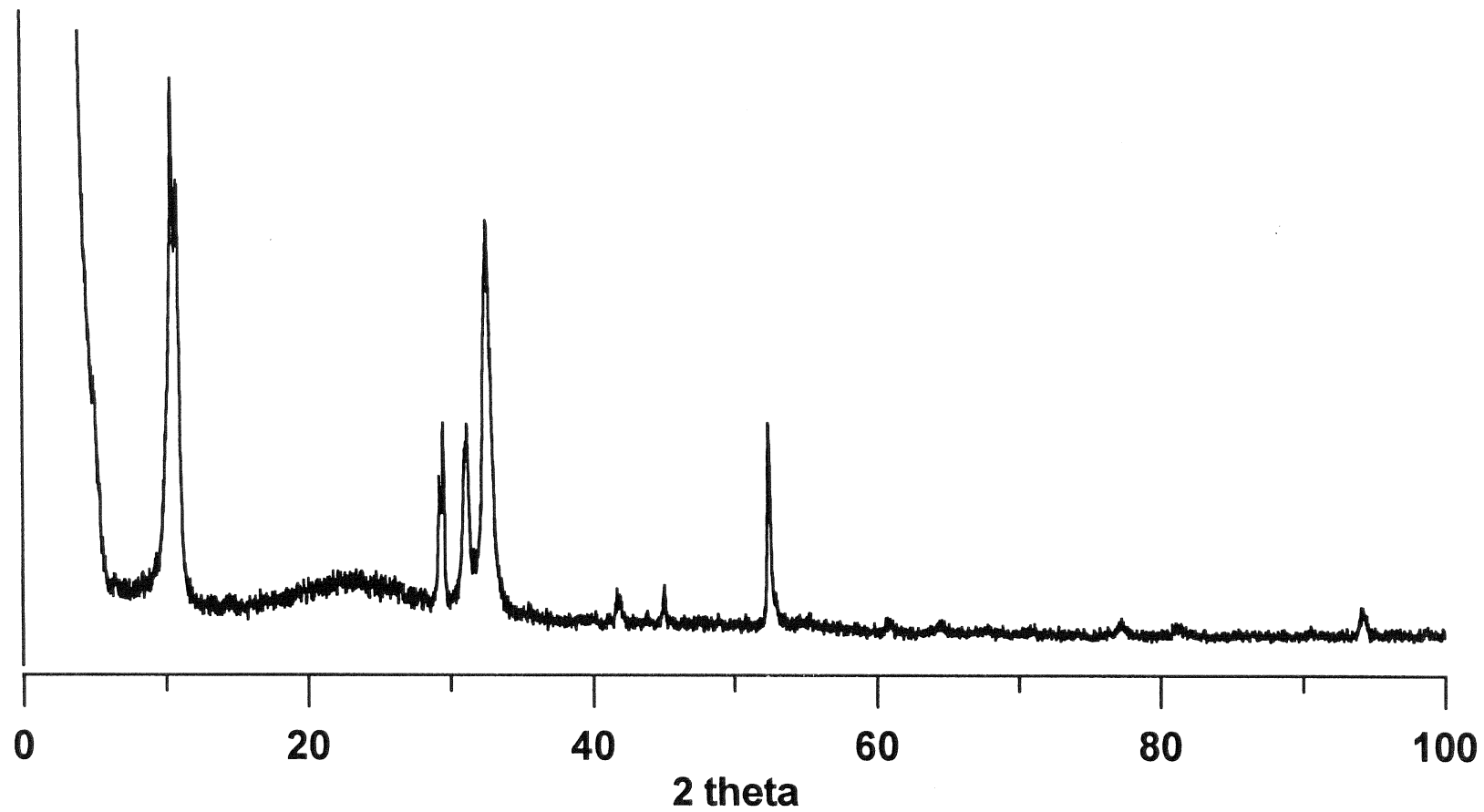


Figure 7-22.
XPD pattern of mineral from the biotite batch experiment at pH 4.58 (sample 18).



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Figure 7-23.
XPD pattern of mineral from the biotite batch experiment at pH 4.78 (sample 19).

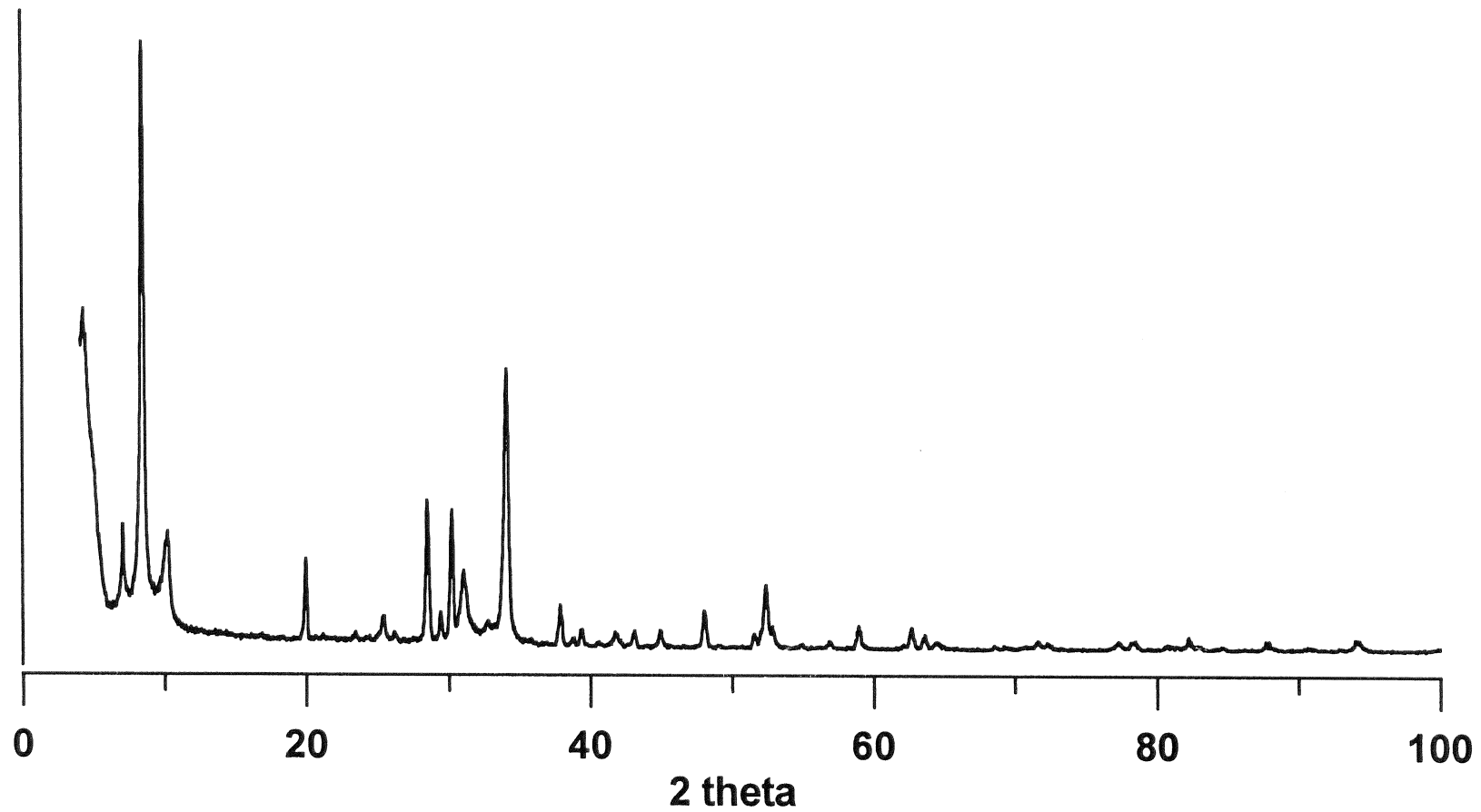


Figure 7-24.
XPD pattern of mineral from the biotite batch experiment at pH 6.73 (sample 10).

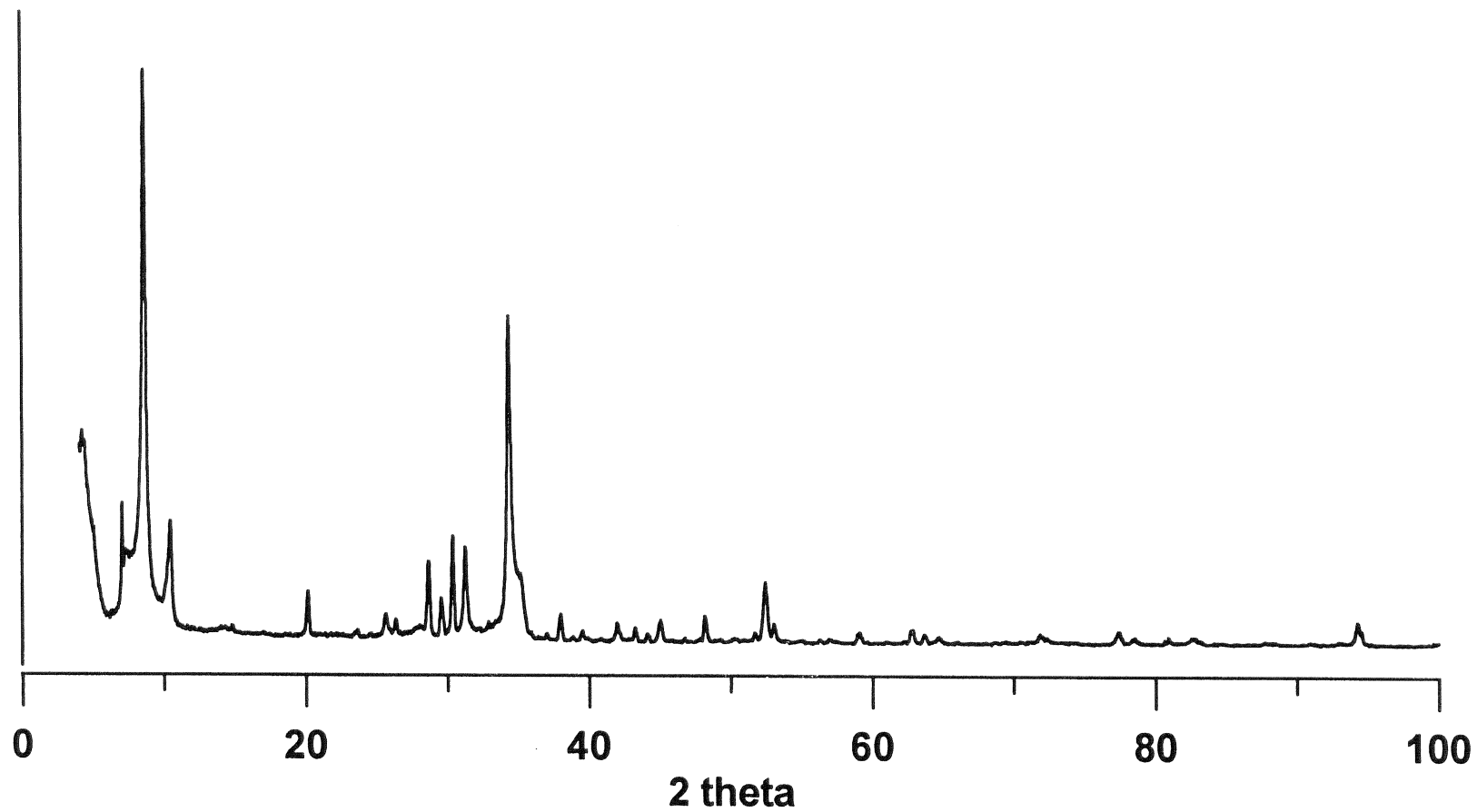


Figure 7-25.
XPD pattern of mineral from the biotite batch experiment at pH 9.43 (sample 6).

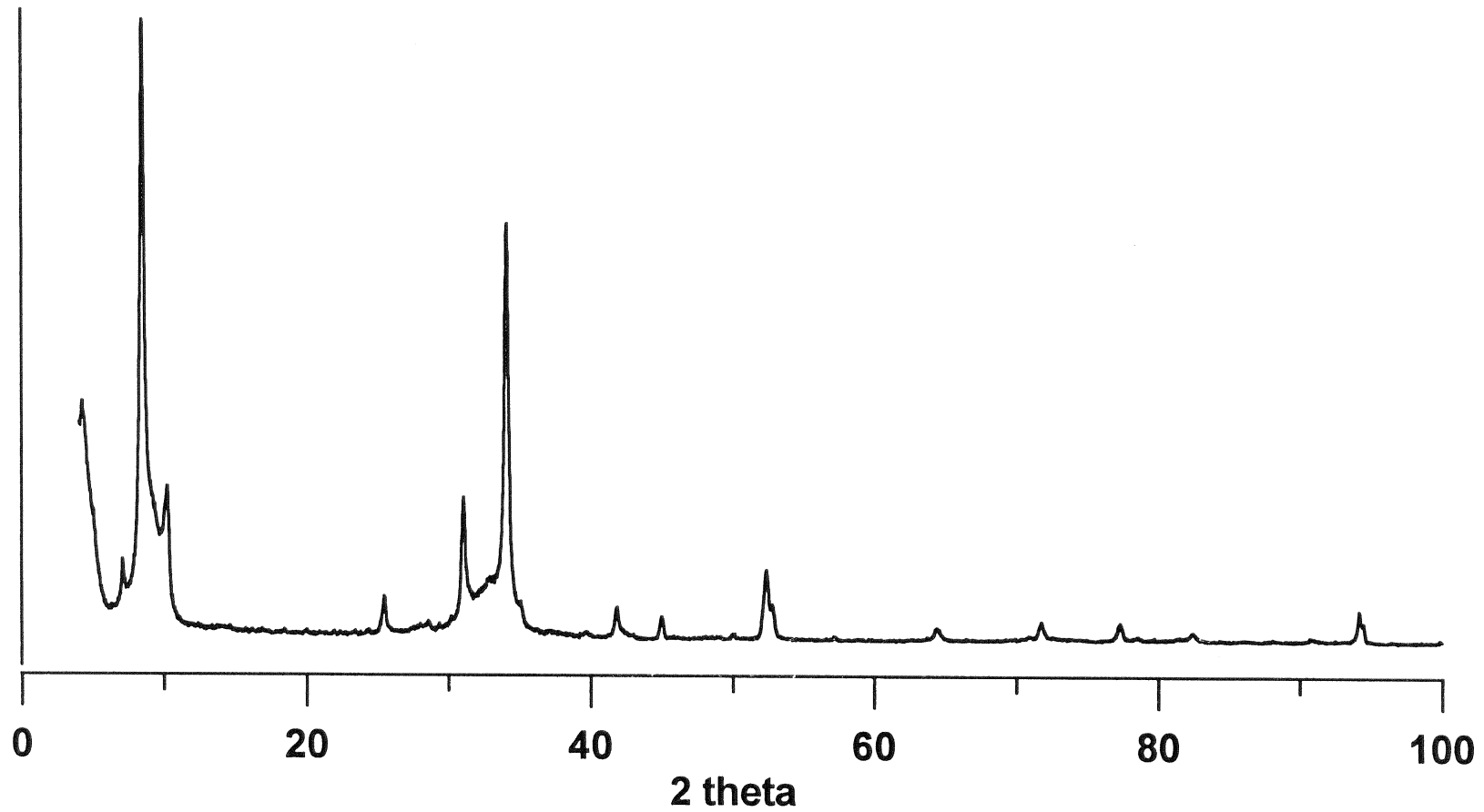


Figure 7-26.
XPD pattern of mineral from the biotite batch experiment at pH 10.67 (sample 12).

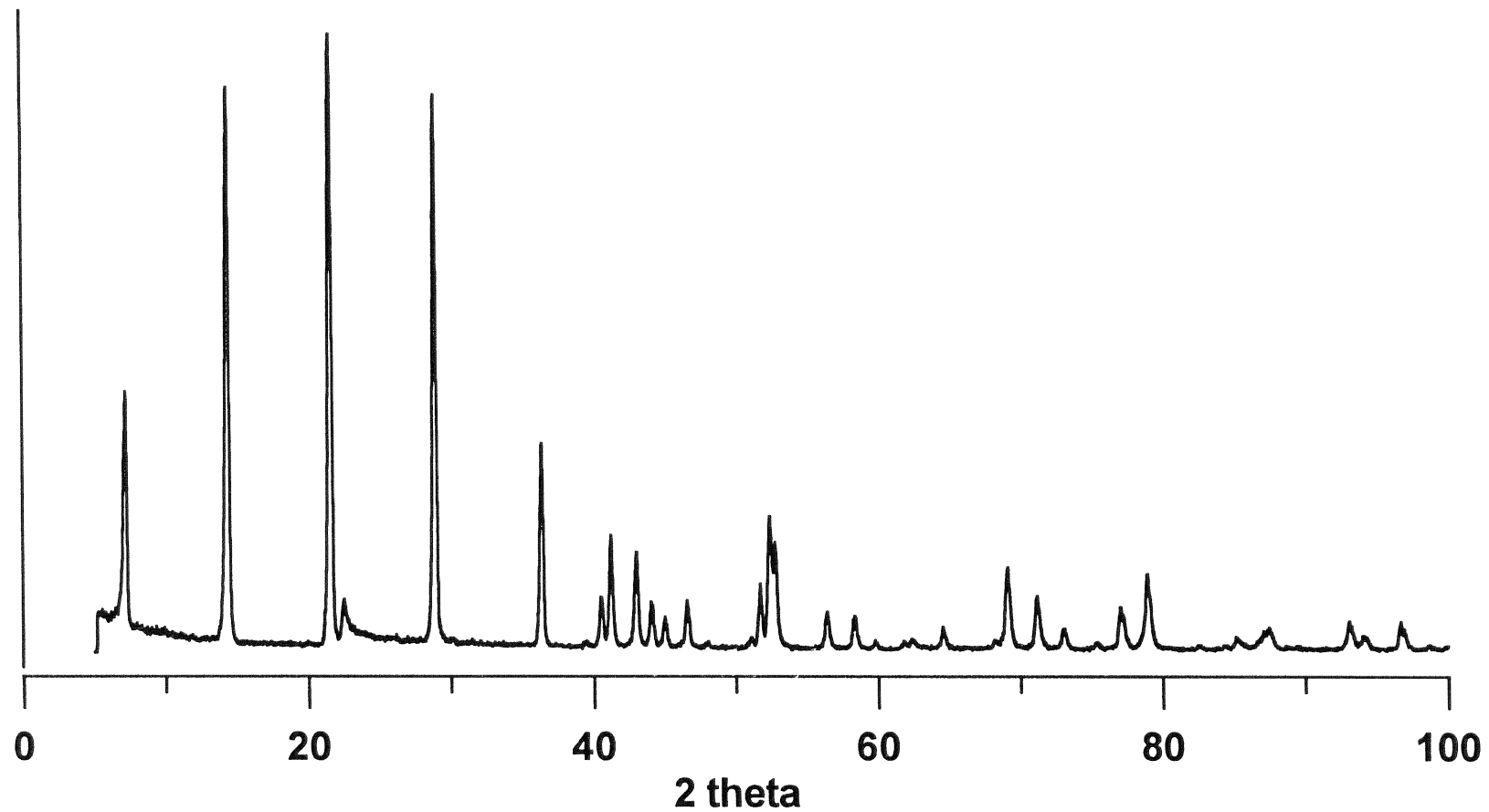


Figure 7-27.
XPD pattern of mineral from the kinetic experiment of chlorite dissolution
at pH 8.18 and 1% CO₂ (Ka).

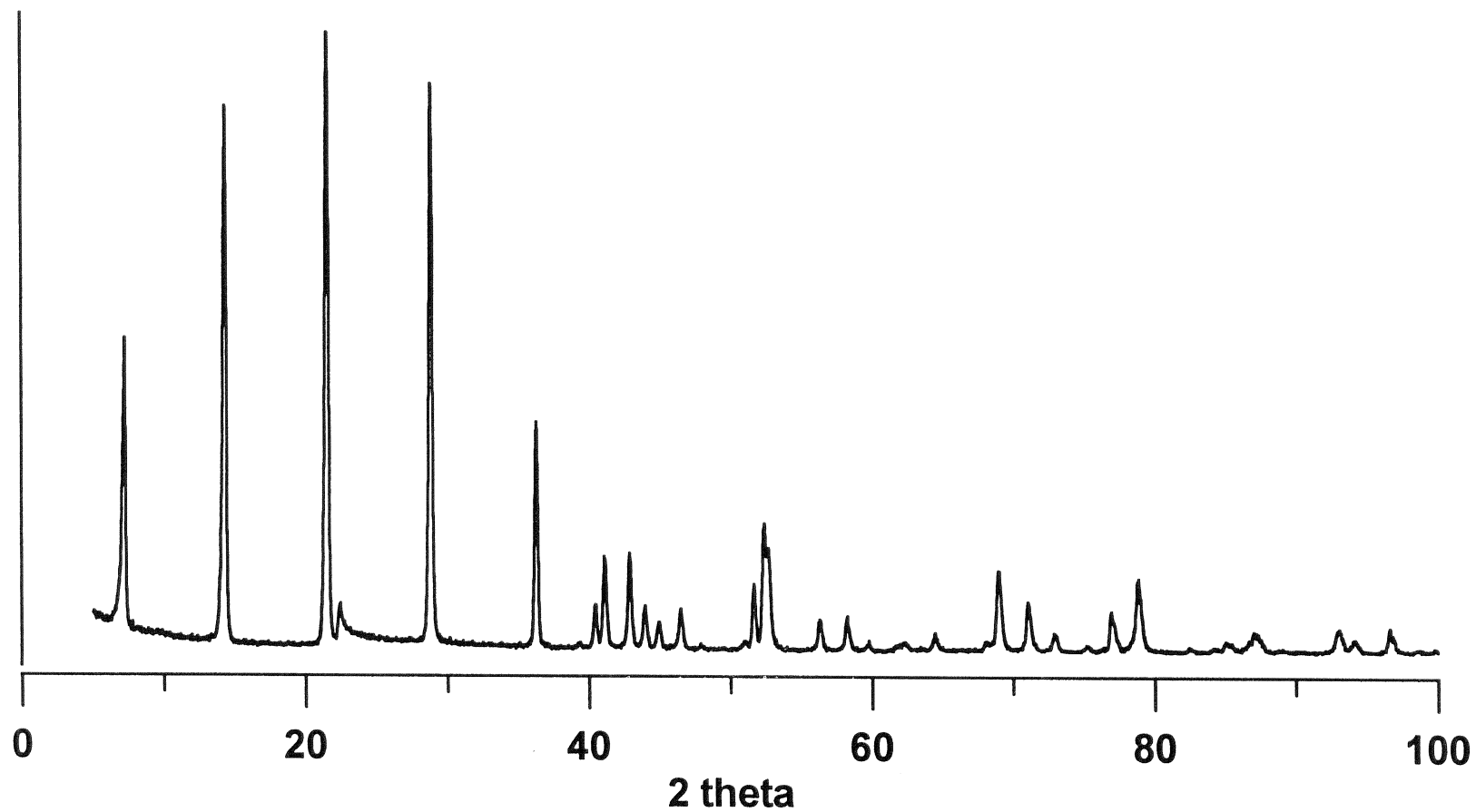


Figure 7-28.
XPD pattern of mineral from the kinetic experiment of chlorite dissolution
at pH 2.60 (Kb).

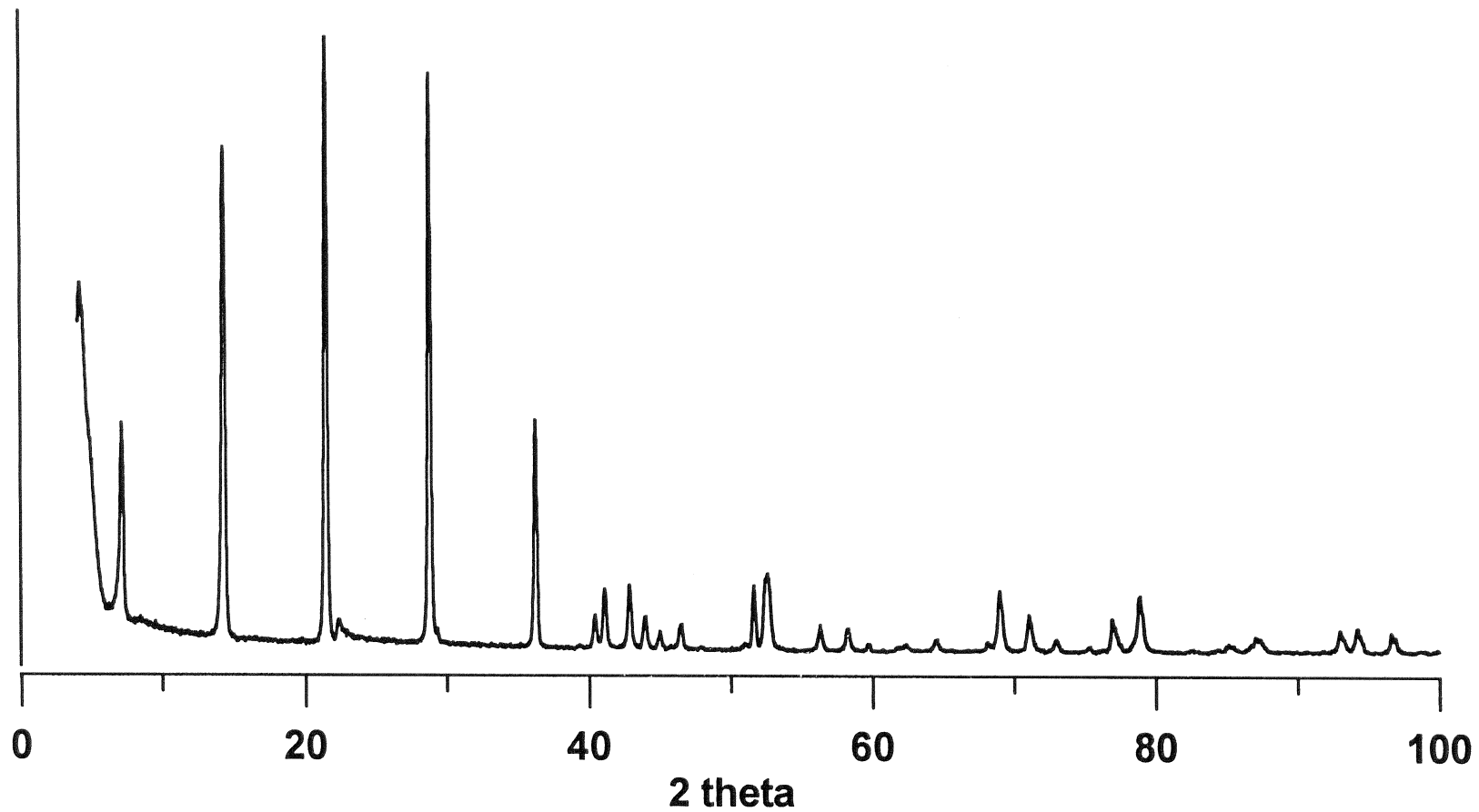


Figure 7-29.
XPD pattern of mineral from the kinetic experiment of chlorite dissolution
at pH 3.8 (Kc).

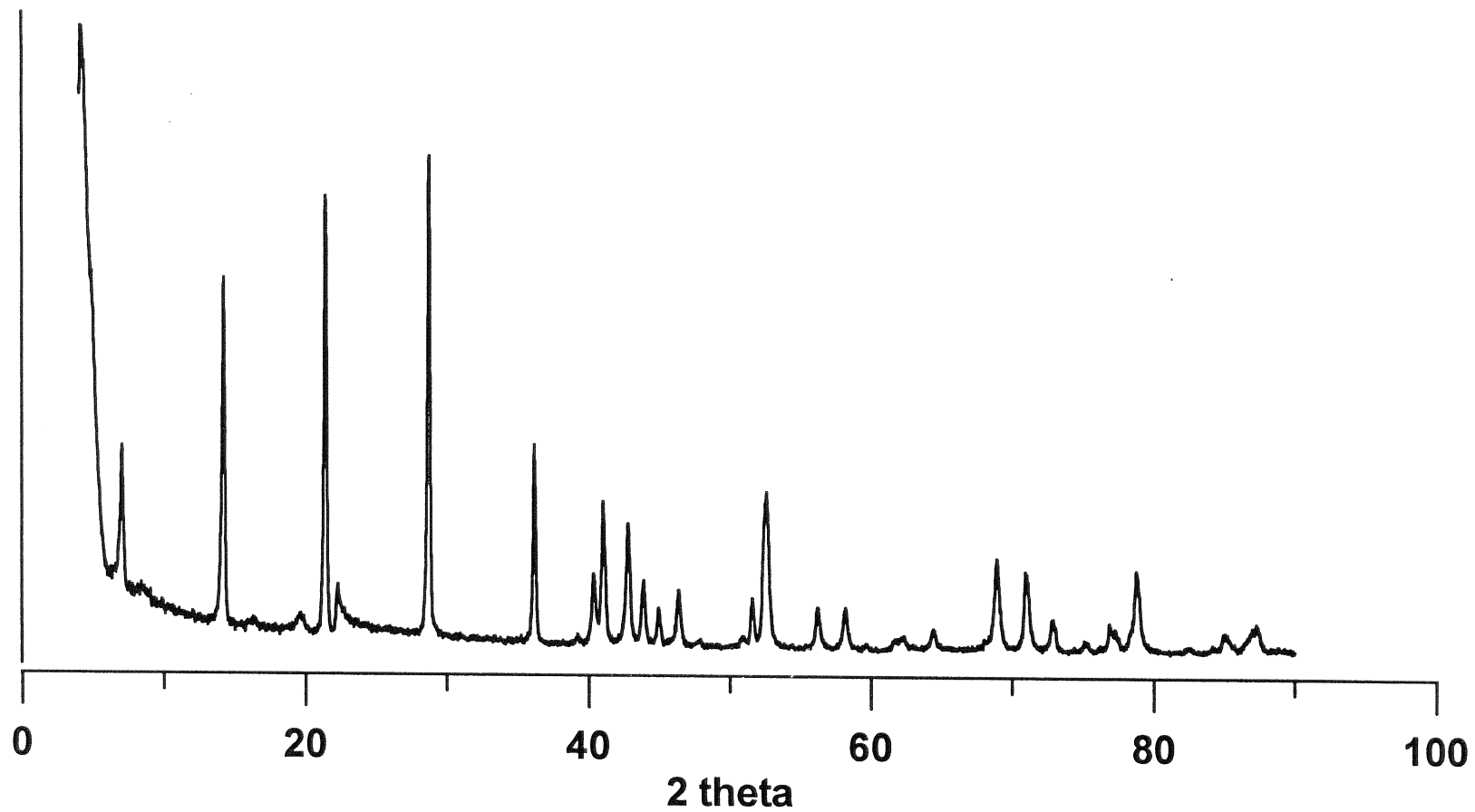


Figure 7-30.
XPD pattern of mineral from the kinetic experiment of chlorite dissolution
at pH 7.12 and 100% CO₂ (Kd).

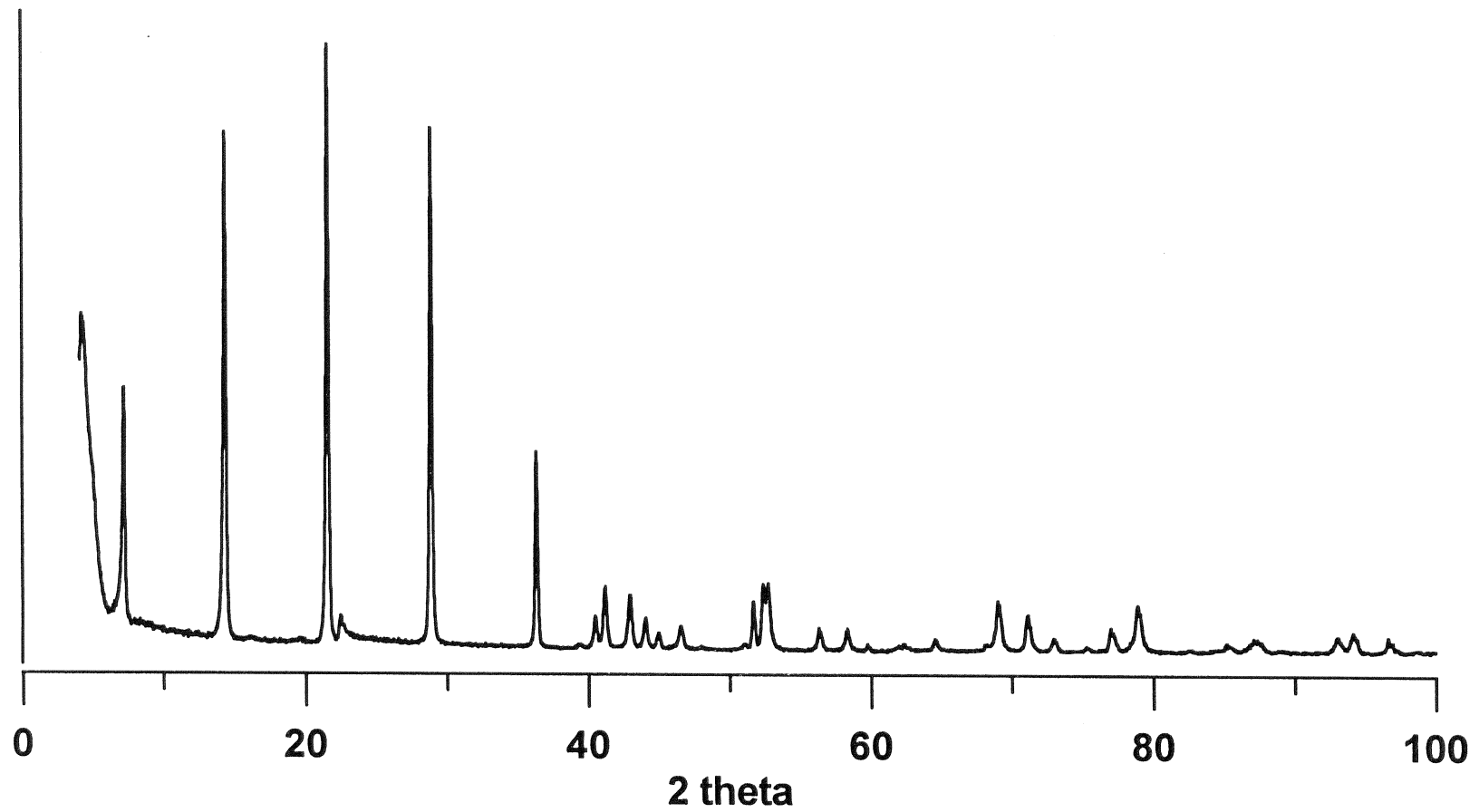


Figure 7-31.
XPD pattern of mineral from the kinetic experiment of chlorite dissolution
at pH 8.92 and 100% CO₂ (Ke).

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