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High-pressure ammonium-bearing silicates: implications for nitrogen and hydrogen storage in the Earth's mantle

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Abstract

The ammonium analogues of the high-pressure potassium-bearing silicate phases K-hollandite, K-Si-wadeite, K-cymrite, and phengite were synthesized in the system $(NH_4)_2O(-MgO) - Al_2O_3 - SiO_2 - H_2O$ (N(M)ASH) using multi-anvil and piston-cylinder equipment. Syntheses included NH₄-hollandite $[NH_4AlSi_3O_8]$ at 12.3 GPa, 700 °C; NH_4 -Si-wadeite $[(NH_4)_2Si_4O_9]$ at 10 GPa, 700 °C; NH_4 -cymrite $[NH_4AlSi_3O_8 \cdot H_2O]$ at 7.8 GPa, 800 °C; and NH_4 -phengite $[NH_4(Mg_{0.5}Al_{1.5})(Al_{0.5}Si_{3.5})O_{10}(OH)_2]$ at 4 GPa, 700 °C. Run products were characterized by SEM, FTIR, and powder XRD with Rietveld refinements. Cell parameters of the new NH₄ end-members were determined to a = 9.4234(9) Å, $c = 2.7244(3) \text{ Å}, V = 241.93(5) \text{ Å}^3 \text{ (NH₄-hollandite)}; a = 6.726(1) \text{ Å}, c =$ 9.502(3) Å, V = 372.3(1) Å³ (NH₄-Si-wadeite); a = 5.3595(3) Å, c = 7.835(1) Å, $V = 194.93(5) \text{ Å}^3 \text{ (NH}_4\text{-cymrite)}.$ NH₄-phengite consisted of a mixture of $1M, 2M_1, 2M_2, 3T$, and 2Or polytypes. The most abundant polytype $2M_1$ has the cell dimensions a = 5.2195(9) Å, b = 9.049(3) Å, c = 20.414(8) Å, $\beta = 95.65(3)^{\circ}$, V = 959.5(5) Å³. All unit cell volumes are enlarged in comparison to the potassium analogues. Substitution of NH₄ for K does not cause changes in space group symmetry. NH₄ incorporation was confirmed by the appearance of NH₄ vibration modes ν_4 and ν_3 occurring in the ranges of 1397–1459 and 3223-3333 cm⁻¹, respectively.

Ammonium in eclogite facies metasediments is mainly bound in micas and concentrations may reach up to a few thousand ppm. It can be stored to greater depths in high-pressure potassium silicates during ongoing subduction. This possibly provides an important mechanism for nitrogen and hydrogen transport into the deeper mantle.

Keywords: Hollandite, wadeite, cymrite, phengite, ammonium, high-pressure synthesis, nitrogen cycle

Introduction

There is general agreement that nitrogen has been discharging for a long time from the Earth's mantle to the atmosphere through volcanic and hydrothermal activities (e.g., Javoy et al. 1986; Marty 1995; Sano et al. 2001). It is, however, controversially debated if a substantial amount of nitrogen is recycled during subduction processes. The discussion carried out in a series of recent papers mainly relies on the interpretation of the amount of molecular nitrogen and nitrogen isotope ratios measured in diamonds, mantle xenoliths, basalts, volcanic gases, hydrothermal fluids and the atmosphere, and on the question whether different nitrogen reservoirs in the mantle existed that may have been produced by input of isotopically different nitrogen from subducted sediments (e.g., Mohapatra and Murty 2000; Pinti et al. 2001; Fischer et al. 2002; Busigny et al. 2003; Cartigny and Ader 2003; Marty and Dauphas 2003a, 2003b; Mather et al. 2004; Fischer et al. 2005; Pitcairn et al. 2005; Thomassot et al. 2007).

Nitrogen in sediments has an organic origin. Under anoxic conditions at about 150 °C amino acids decompose to NH₄, which is incorporated into clay minerals, micas and feldspars substituting for K in small but significant amounts (Williams et al. 1992). It has been shown that during progressive contact and Barrovian-type metamorphism NH₄ is continuously released so that in high-grade rocks less than 10 % of the original nitrogen remains (Bebout and Fogel 1992; Bebout et al. 1999; Sadofsky and Bebout 2000; Mingram and Bräuer 2001; Pöter et al. 2004; Pitcairn et al. 2005). By contrast, Busigny et al. (2003) showed that in high-pressure low-temperature metapelites and metabasites from the Western Alps the entire nitrogen, up to 1600 ppm mainly bound as NH₄ in micas, remains in the rock up to at least 3 GPa. It would appear that there is no information about the fate of nitrogen in subducting slabs beyond that, and we do not know if and how nitrogen could be transported into the deeper mantle.

NH₄ has an ionic radius similar to Rb⁺ (Shannon 1976) and replaces K⁺ in silicates. One may reasonably assume that under slab conditions NH₄ persists in rocks as long as K-feldspar and high-pressure micas remain stable. In a status report on the stability of Kphases at mantle conditions, Harlow and Davies (2004) documented a number of K-bearing silicates that may form at higher pressure, mainly based on a summary of experimental results. In a wet system, K-feldspar may be replaced by K-cymrite [K $^{\rm IV}\!{\rm Al}^{\rm IV}\!{\rm Si}_3{\rm O}_8\cdot{\rm H}_2{\rm O}]$ above about 2.5 GPa (Fasshauer et al. 1997; Fig. 1). K-cymrite is stable up to about 9 GPa, where it decomposes to K-hollandite [KVIAlVISi₃O₈] and fluid (Thompson et al. 1998). In a dry system, K-feldspar reacts to K-Si-wadeite [K2^{VI}Si^{IV}Si₃O₉], (also termed Si-wadeite; Harlow and Davies 2004; Yong et al. 2008) + kyanite + coesite above 5 to 6.5 GPa, 400 to 1000 °C (Yagi et al. 1994; Urakawa et al. 1994). At pressures higher than about 9 GPa, the stability of K-Si-wadeite is limited by reactions that typically produce K-hollandite (Yong et al. 2008; Fig. 1). K-hollandite appears also as a reaction product of phengite breakdown in metapelitic and metabasaltic bulk compositions at pressures higher than 8 to 11 GPa, 750 to 900 °C (Domanik and Holloway 1996; Schmidt and Poli 1998; Poli and Schmidt 2002) and is probably stable up to 95 GPa, 2300 °C (Konzett and Fei 2000; Tutti et al. 2001). Therefore, K-hollandite is believed to be the main K-rich solid-phase reservoir for potassium through the transition zone to the lower mantle in silicate compositional systems because K-Al-bearing silicates react to yield K-hollandite with increasing pressure (Harlow

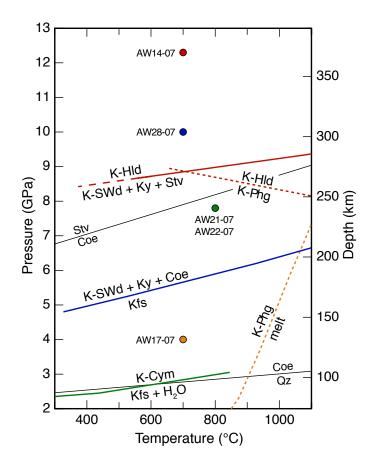


Figure 1: P-T plot showing stabilities of relevant high-pressure phases in the $K_2O-(MgO)-Al_2O_3-SiO_2-H_2O$ system. Data for K-cymrite from Fasshauer et al. (1997), for K-Si-wadeite and K-hollandite from Yong et al. (2008). Upper temperature and pressure stabilities of K-phengite determined for natural samples of metapelitic bulk compositions (Poli and Schmidt 2002), stabilities of SiO_2 polymorphs from Akaogi et al. (1995). Dots depict synthesis conditions of the NH₄-bearing analogues (Table 1). Abbreviations as in Table 1.

and Davies 2004, and references therein).

All high-pressure K-silicates constitute potential carriers of nitrogen and hydrogen into the deep mantle. The aim of this study is to show that the ammonium end-member analogues of hollandite [NH₄AlSi₃O₈], wadeite [(NH₄)₂Si₄O₉], cymrite [NH₄AlSi₃O₈ · H₂O], and phengite [NH₄(Mg_{0.5}Al_{1.5})(Al_{0.5}Si_{3.5})O₁₀(OH)₂] can be synthesized stably at high pressure. Some of their crystal chemical properties are given, along with some speculations on possible transport of nitrogen and hydrogen to greater depths of the Earth.

Experimental and analytical techniques

Experimental procedures

There are some inherent difficulties in synthesizing NH₄-bearing minerals at high pressure. Experiments performed in multi-anvil modules routinely apply heated gels as starting materials. This is impossible in the case of ammonium because it rapidly evaporates during heating. For the synthesis of NH₄-hollandite, NH₄-Si-wadeite, and NH₄-cymrite we therefore used well-characterized, hydrothermally pre-synthesized buddingtonite, [NH₄AlSi₃O₈], the NH₄-analogue of sanidine (Harlov et al. 2001a; Pöter et al. 2007) as starting solid. As stabilizing NH₄-phases requires some NH₃/NH₄⁺-gas pressure we mainly used a wet system for runs by adding an NH₄OH solution in excess, only run AW22-07 used nominally dry buddingtonite as starting material, but a small amount of water absorption on the sample surface could not be avoided during sample preparation. This produces the required partial pressure of ammonia and keeps the hydrogen fugacity sufficiently high, i.e., the redox conditions reducing, at least as long as the H-N-O fluid provides sufficient hydrogen at given P and T. However, with our setup hydrogen loss from the gold or platinum capsules cannot be completely prevented (see below). Hydrogen loss gradually shifts conditions towards more oxidizing. Molecular nitrogen, N₂, is increasingly produced, finally resulting in the complete decomposition of the ammonium-bearing phase. This behavior was demonstrated by the sliding reaction buddingtonite $[NH_4AlSi_3O_8] + O_2 \rightarrow Al_2SiO_5 + SiO_2 + N_2 + H_2O$ performed in long-run hydrothermal experiments (Harlov et al. 2001a). Run durations were therefore adapted to minimize overall hydrogen loss. For calculation of neutral fluid species and relevant equilibria in the H-N-O system at very high pressure see, e.g., Churakov and Gottschalk (2003a, b). Similarly, NH₄-phengite was synthesized from a SiO₂, γ -Al₂O₃ and MgO oxide mix with NH₄OH solution in excess. Proportions of oxides were according to a phengite composition of $[(NH_4)(Mg_{0.6}Al_{1.4})(Al_{0.4}Si_{3.6})O_{10}(OH)_2]$. The intended celadonite-component chosen here is about that determined by Melzer and Wunder (2000) for (K,Rb,Cs)-bearing phengites synthesized at identical P,T conditions. Solids and fluids were cold-welded either into Pt-capsules (run AW14-07; Table 1) or Au-capsules (runs AW28-07, AW21-07, AW22-07; Table 1) of 3 mm length, 2 mm outer diameter, and 0.2 mm wall thickness. In all but one experiment, a 25% NH₄OH-solution was given in excess to the solid starting material (Table 1). The exact amount of ammonium loaded into the capsules was unknown because of rapid evaporation of a small fraction of ammonia during welding.

Synthesis of NH₄-bearing phengite was performed in a piston-cylinder press. The high-pressure cell consisted of a steel furnace with rock salt and fired pyrophyllite as pressure media. Two Au-capsules of 10 mm length and 3 mm diameter were filled with about 16 mg of solid and fluid starting material and sealed using a plasma arc welder while partly immersed in an ice/water mixture. Pressure was calibrated according to the quartz-coesite transition. For this assembly, the estimated pressure uncertainty is approximately 1%. The temperature was monitored using a chromel-alumel thermocouple; the precision is around ± 2 °C. A detailed description of the press and the experimental method is given in Wunder (1998).

After the experiments the capsules were carefully separated from the assembly material. They were cleaned in an ultrasonic bath for 10 min in ethanol and carefully opened. To exclude that the measured ammonium in the different analytical methods was due to outside

Table 1. Starting material, experimental condition	s and run	products
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Run no.	Starting material	P (GPa)	<i>T</i> (°C)	t (h)	Run products (wt%)
AW14-07	Buddingtonite + NH ₄ OH solution	12.3	700	6	NH ₄ -Hld (31), Stv (22), NH ₄ -SWd (17), OH-Top (8), Ky (21), Egg (< 1)
AW28-07	Buddingtonite $+$ NH $_4$ OH solution	10.0	700	24	NH ₄ -SWd (34), OH-Top (39), Stv (27)
AW21-07	Buddingtonite $+$ NH ₄ OH solution	7.8	800	24	NH ₄ -Cym (70), Coe (23), Ky (7)
AW22-07	Buddingtonite (nominally dry)	7.8	800	24	NH ₄ -Cym (49), Coe (26), Ky (25)
AW17-07	Oxide mixture + NH ₄ OH solution	4.0	700	26	$\begin{array}{lll} {\rm NH_4\text{-}Phg} \ \ 2M_1 \ \ (75), \ \ {\rm NH_4\text{-}Phg} \ \ 3T \ \ (14), \\ {\rm NH_4\text{-}Phg} \ \ 2Or \ \ (4), \ \ {\rm NH_4\text{-}Phg} \ \ 1M \ \ (<1), \\ {\rm NH_4\text{-}Phg} \ \ 2M_2 \ \ (<1), \ \ {\rm Coe} \ \ (6), \ \ {\rm Ky} \ \ ({\rm tr})^* \end{array}$

^{*} Traces of kyanite only detected by EMP.

Abbreviations: Coe: coesite, Ky: kyanite, NH_4 -Cym: NH_4 -cymrite, NH_4 -Hld: NH_4 -hollandite, NH_4 -Phg: NH_4 -phengite, NH_4 -Si-wadeite, OH-Top: OH-topaz, Stv: stishovite, Egg: Phase Egg. Amount of run products (wt%) calculated from Rietveld refinements.

NH₄-hollandite, NH₄-Si-wadeite and NH₄-cymrite were synthesized using a rotating multianvil apparatus (Table 1). The advantage of rocking or rotating versus static systems for fluid-bearing charges is outlined in Schmidt and Ulmer (2004). To prevent separation of fluid and solid components, experiments were performed by 360°-rotation of the Walkertype module with a speed of 4° /s. The tungsten carbide anvils had a truncation edge length of 8 mm. Sample assemblies (Fig. 2) consisted of an MgO $(+5\% \text{ Cr}_2\text{O}_3)$ octahedra with an edge length of 14 mm. The inner parts of the assembly were made up of a zirconia oxide sleeve, a stepped graphite heater, a Mo-disk and ring, and an axial thermocouple with wires of different W-Re alloys. Hexagonal boron nitride around the capsules was used as inner pressure medium because it was shown to behave relatively impermeable to hydrogen in piston cylinder experiments (Truckenbrodt et al. 1997), so that the furnace would not control the hydrogen fugacity of the sample within a reasonable time-span. The temperature was measured using a W5%Re-W26%Re (Type C) thermocouple. To protect the thermocouple wires, we used coils of the same material as the wires to eliminate any influences on the EMF of the thermocouples (Nishihara et al. 2006). The precision of the thermocouple is about ± 10 °C. The pressure calibration was performed by press-load experiments based on room temperature phase transitions in Bi and high-temperature phase transitions (quartzcoesite; CaGeO₃ garnet-perovskite; coesite-stishovite; forsterite-wadsleyite). The precision along the pressure range of this study is approximately ± 0.2 GPa.

contamination of the crystals, the run products were washed with 50 ml warm bi-distilled water and afterwards dried at 100 °C for several days.

Analytical methods

Powder X-ray diffraction (XRD). The run products were ground for several minutes in an agate mortar, diluted with Elmer's White glue and spread evenly on a "zero scattering" circular foil. Preferential orientation of the crystals was minimized by constantly stirring the sample during the drying process. The sample was covered with an empty foil and mounted

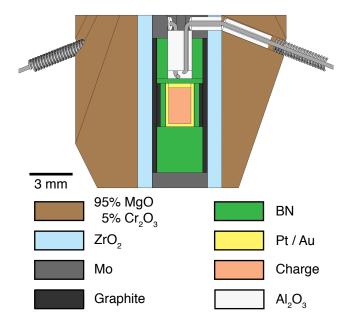


Figure 2: Schematic cross section of the 14/8 mm assembly used for multi-anvil experiments.

into a transmission sample holder. Powder XRD-patterns were recorded in transmission with a fully automated STOE STADI P diffractometer using $CuK\alpha_1$ -radiation at 40 kV and 40 mA, a take-off angle of 6°, a primary monochromator, and a 7° wide position-sensitive detector (PSD). The intensities were recorded between 5° and 125° 2θ with a detector step size of 0.1° and a resolution of 0.02°. Counting times were selected to result in a maximum intensity of around 3000 counts; this was due to about 20 s per detector step. The collected patterns were processed using the GSAS software package for Rietveld refinement (Larson and von Dreele 2004) for phase identification, phase proportions, and unit cell parameters. The refinement procedure for NH₄-bearing phases followed that of Pöter et al. (2007). Initial crystal structures were taken from the Inorganic Crystal Structure Database (ICSD, FIZ Karlsruhe, http://icsdweb.FIZ-karlsruhe.de). For input parameters, the structures of the respective potassium end-members were modified in that K was replaced by Na, because Na has the same number of electrons as NH₄. Due to the complexity of the NH₄-phengite sample (AW17-07, Table 1) with five polytypes $(1M, 2M_1, 2M_2, 3T \text{ and } 2Or)$, and coesite and kyanite as additional phases, the refinement was kept as simple as possible, i.e., common profile parameters were used for all mica polytypes by setting appropriate constraints. The statistical parameters χ^2 and Durbin-Watson (DW) of Rietveld refinements from all runs are within the ranges of $1 < \chi^2 < 1.26$ and 1.23 < DW < 1.48.

Infrared (IR) spectroscopy. About 1 mg of the run products was ground in an agate mortar and then mixed with 450 mg of dried KBr. The homogenized mixture was subsequently pressed into 13 mm diameter transparent pellets under vacuum and then dried for several days at 170 °C. Measurements were carried out in the spectral range from 4000 cm⁻¹ to 400 cm⁻¹ with a resolution of 2 cm⁻¹ using a Bruker IFS 66vFTIR spectrometer equipped

with a globar as light source, a KBr beam-splitter and a DTGS-detector. The sample chamber of the interferometer was evacuated down to 200 Pa so that the influence of atmospheric $\rm H_2O$ and $\rm CO_2$ was negligible. The measured spectra were averaged over 256 scans. The interferograms were phase-corrected after the procedure of Mertz (1965) and Griffiths and de Haseth (1986). Blackman-Harris 3-term mode was chosen as apodization function. The measured spectra were transformed into transmission spectra. After background correction the band center, FWHM, and integral intensity of each band were determined using the program PeakFit by Jandel Scientific.

Electron microprobe (EMP) analyses. Polished grain mounts of NH₄-hollandite from run AW14-07 and NH₄-phengite from run AW17-07 were measured using a JEOL JXA-8500F field emission electron probe microanalyzer in the wavelength-dispersive mode (WDS). As standards orthoclase (Al), wollastonite (Si) and periclase (Mg), only for the NH₄-phengites, were used. Attempts to obtain "good" nitrogen concentrations were not successful because crystal sizes are too small, count yields are low and NH₄-phases tend to decompose under the beam at long counting rates. Operating conditions were 10 kV, 5 nA and a beam diameter of about 50 nm. On-peak counting times were 10 s for Si and Al and 20 s for Mg. Background on both sides of the peak was measured for 5 and 10 s, respectively. Conditions were chosen carefully to reduce the damage of the mica under the electron beam. NH₄-hollandite crystals did not exceed 1 μ m in width and 800 nm in thickness, NH₄-phengite crystals 2 μ m in width and 250 nm in thickness. Calculation of the penetration depth of the focused electron beam resulted in about 1200 nm. Analyses of the NH_4 -hollandite crystals were accepted, if the oxide sum, i.e., $SiO_2 + Al_2O_3$ was between 88.6 and 92.2 wt%; 89.9 wt% would represent an ideal NH₄-hollandite having 1 (NH₄)₂O pfu. In case of the NH₄-phengites analyses were accepted, if $SiO_2 + MgO + Al_2O_3$ was between 84 and 88.3 wt%, the latter representing an ideal NH₄-phengite having additionally 1 (NH₄)₂O and 1 H₂O pfu. The composition of NH₄-hollandite was calculated on the basis of 8 oxygens and assuming full occupation of the interlayer site. The NH₄-phengite composition was calculated on the basis of 11 oxygens assuming ideal dioctahedral micas with 2/3 of the octahedral and all of the tetrahedral sites occupied, full occupation of the interlayer site by one NH₄, and two OH groups pfu. Because nitrogen was not measured, possible deficiencies in interlayer NH₄ and concomitant occurrence of some pyrophyllite or talc component in NH₄-phengite (see Pöter et al. 2007; for synthetic NH₄-muscovite) are disregarded.

Scanning electron microscopy (SEM). Reaction products were characterized using a high resolution Hitachi S-4000 instrument at the TU Berlin. Individual phases (Table 1) were identified by EDS-analysis of the respective elements.

Results

Starting materials, experimental conditions and relative amounts of run products are summarized in Table 1. All experiments produced new NH₄-phases, though always with additional phases in various amounts. Run AW14-07 (12.3 GPa, 700 °C) produced NH₄-hollandite along with NH₄-Si-wadeite, stishovite, OH-topaz, kyanite, and traces of phase Egg. Run AW28-07 (10.0 GPa, 700 °C) yielded NH₄-Si-wadeite together with OH-topaz and stishovite. Run AW21-07 (7.8 GPa, 800 °C) gave NH₄-cymrite plus coesite and kyan-

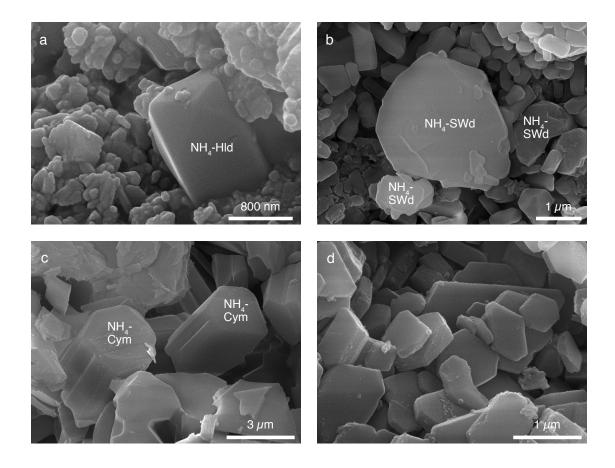


Figure 3: Scanning electron micrographs of the run products. (a) NH₄-hollandite, run AW14-07. (b) NH₄-Si-wadeite, OH-topaz, and stishovite, run AW28-07. (c) NH₄-cymrite, run AW22-07. (d) NH₄-phengite, run AW17-07.

ite. Run AW22-07, at initially dry starting conditions and identical P and T of 7.8 GPa, 800 °C also produced NH₄-cymrite plus coesite and kyanite. In AW17-07 (4 GPa, 700°C) various polytypes of NH₄-phengite were produced, along with traces of coesite and kyanite. SEM-micrographs of run products with the relevant phases NH₄-hollandite, NH₄-Si-wadeite, NH₄-cymrite, and NH₄-phengite are shown in Figure 3a-d. Grain sizes of all new NH₄-phases rarely exceed 3 μ m. NH₄-hollandite, NH₄-cymrite and NH₄-phengite form idiomorphic crystals with typical tetragonal (NH₄-Hld; Fig. 3a), hexagonal (NH₄-Cym; Fig. 3c) and pseudohexagonal (NH₄-Phg; Fig. 3d) crystal shapes. Glass or any phase resembling quenched melt was not observed in any of the experimental products.

Unit cell dimensions of NH_4 -hollandite, NH_4 -Si-wadeite and NH_4 -cymrite are given in Table 2 along with that of their potassium-bearing analogues. The substitution of NH_4 for K does not induce changes in space group symmetry of the three new NH_4 -phases when compared to their respective K-analogues. Lattice parameters, however, change significantly due to the incorporation of the larger NH_4^+ instead of the K^+ cation. The ionic radius of K^+ in VI, VIII, and XII-fold coordination is 1.38, 1.51, and 1.64 Å, respectively (Shannon

Table 2. Lattice parameters of NH_4 -bearing high-pressure phases calculated from Rietveld refinements. For comparison, respective K-phases are also given.

Phase	a (Å)	c (Å)	$V(Å^3)$	Space group
$NH_4 ext{-hollandite}$	9.4234(9)	2.7244(3)	241.93(5)	14/m
K-hollandite*	9.315(4)	2.723(4)	236.3(4)	
NH ₄ -Si-wadeite	6.726(1)	9.502(3)	372.3(1)	$P6_3/m$
K-Si-wadeite†	6.6124(9)	9.5102(8)	360.11(7)	
NH_4 -cymrite	5.359(1)	7.835(9)	194.93(2)	P6/mmm
K-cymrite‡	5.3348(1)	7.7057(1)	189.924(8)	

^{*}Zhang et al. (1993)

1976), whereas that of NH_4^+ is about 1.59, 1.68, and 1.80 Å. The latter values are estimated from composition-volume relationships of alkali-bearing silicates (M. Gottschalk, personal communication).

For NH₄-hollandite, the average of 17 EMP analyses results in NH₄Al_{1±0.03}Si_{3±0.03}O₈, assuming 1 NH₄⁺ pfu. The average of 21 EMP analyses for NH₄-phengites results in NH₄(Mg_{0.45±0.03}Al_{1.53±0.03})(Al_{0.49±0.03}Si_{3.51±0.03})O₁₀(OH)₂, also assuming 1 NH₄⁺ pfu. The NH₄-celadonite component of the NH₄-phengites is slightly lower than that given by the NMASH bulk composition. The five polytypes $1M, 2M_1, 2M_2, 3T$ and 2Or are present, with $2M_1$ (75%) and 3T (14%) as the predominant phases (Table 1). Unit cell parameters of the polytypes are presented in Table 3. They were calculated using the multi-polytype refinement model for synthetic K-phengite polytype mixtures proposed by Schmidt et al. (2001). Polytypes 2Or, 1M and $2M_2$ occur in minor or minute amounts and their cell parameters are somewhat less reliable. For comparison, unit cell parameters of synthetic $2M_1$ and 1M K-phengites with K-celadonite components similar to our NH₄-celadonite components are also given (Table 3; data for K-phengites from Massonne and Schreyer 1986).

IR spectra of run products AW14-07, AW28-07, AW22-07, and AW17-08 are presented

Table 3. Lattice parameters of NH₄-phengite polytypes produced in run AW17-07. Data calculated from Rietveld refinements.

Phase	a (Å)	b (Å)	c (Å)	β (°)	$V(\mathring{\mathbb{A}}^3)$	Space group
NH ₄ -Phg 2M ₁	5.2204(8)	9.049(2)	20.44(1)	95.71(3)	960.9(5)	C2/c
NH ₄ -Phg <i>3T</i> NH ₄ -Phg <i>2Or</i>	5.220(2) 5.220(2)	30.64(2) 8.992(7)		20.65(4)	723.2(6) 969(2)	P3 ₁ 12 Pnmn
NH ₄ -Phg 1M	5.315(4)	9.067(4)	10.46(1)	101.79(8)	493.1(7)	C2
$NH_4 ext{-}Phg\ 2M_2 \ K ext{-}Phg\ 2M_1$	8.93(1) 5.2118(6)	5.198(5) 9.041(2)	20.77(3) 19.972(1)	99.3(1) 95.44(6)	952(2) 936.3(1)	C2/c C2/c
K-Phg 1M	5.201(1)	9.026(2)	10.131(4)	101.12(2)	468.5(4)*	C2/c

Notes: Data for K-phengite are from Massonne and Schreyer (1986); their experiments V90 ($2M_1$) and V270 (1M).

[†] Swanson and Prewitt (1983)

[‡] Fasshauer et al. (1997)

^{*}calculated from lattice parameters.

Table 4. Band assignments for vibration modes (ν) with respect to the band centers in cm⁻¹ along with relative intensities.

ν	$(NH_4)^{+}*$	$NH_4 ext{-HId}$	$NH_4\text{-}SWd$	$NH_4\text{-}Cym$	$NH_4 ext{-}Phg$	Budd	Tob†
$ u_4$	1397	1402 sh (m) 1436 (s) 1459 sh (m)	1397 sh (m) 1422 (s) 1438 sh (m)	1404 sh (w) 1423 (s) 1447 sh (m)	1407 sh (m) 1433 (s)	1402 sh (w) 1423 sh (m) 1445 (m)	1430 (s) 1475 sh (m)
$\begin{array}{c} \nu_2 \\ 2\nu_4 \\ \nu_2 + \nu_4 \end{array}$	1685	1669 (w) 2878 (m) 3043 (m) 3025 (m)	1671 (w) 2842 (m) 2967 sh (m)	not obs. 2852 (w) 3091 sh (m)	1660 (w) 2825 (w) 3042 (m)	1690 (w) 2844 (w) 3065 (m)	not obs. 2825 (m) 3035 (m)
$2\nu_2$ ν_3	3134	3140 (s) 3223 (m) 3281 sh (w) 3333 sh (w)	3140 (s) 3320 (m)	3179 sh (m) 3233 sh (m) 3294 (s)	3170 (w) 3246 sh (m) 3311 (s)	3187 sh (w) 3288 (s)	3175 (m) 3300 (s) 3455 sh (w)

^{*} Values for the free NH₄ molecule from Herzberg (1966).

Abbreviations: as in Table 1; Budd: buddingtonite, Tob: tobelite, sh: shoulder, w: weak, m: medium,

in Figure 4, along with the spectra of synthetic buddingtonite and tobelite (sample 13-99 from Pöter et al. (2007)). The free ammonium ion NH_4^+ has T_d symmetry resulting in four normal vibrational modes (Herzberg 1966): symmetric (ν_1) and antisymmetric (ν_3) stretching vibrations, and symmetric (ν_2) and antisymmetric (ν_4) bending vibrations (Kearley and Oxton 1983). All fundamentals are Raman-active, but only the triply degenerated states ν_3 and ν_4 are IR-active. However, in complex structures the NH₄ symmetry is reduced by the crystal field, so that the ν_1 and ν_2 bands appear in IR spectra, and the degeneracy of the ν_2 , ν_3 and ν_4 bands may be annihilated to some extent. Positions of the NH₄ vibration modes in Figure 4 follow the assignments for buddingtonite (Harlov et al. 2001a). Table 4 summarizes band positions and relative intensities along with the fundamental frequencies of the free ammonium molecule (Nakamoto, 1986, after Landolt-Börnstein, 1951), but several studies (Likhacheva et al. 2002; Mookherjee et al. 2002a, b; Harlov et al. 2001b, c) show that in varying minerals the frequencies differ due to the crystal field and are mostly higher than the reported data for the free ion.

Ammonium incorporation into all new high-pressure phases is clearly demonstrated by the appearance of the NH₄ bending mode(s) ν_4 , occurring in the range from 1397 to 1459 cm⁻¹ (Fig. 4). Stretching mode(s) ν_3 appear at 3223 to 3333 cm⁻¹ for NH₄-cymrite and NH₄-phengite (see also Harlov et al. 2001b, for NH₄-muscovite). There are no significant ν_3 modes for NH₄-hollandite and NH₄-Si-wadeite at these wavenumbers, instead, a strong band is present at about 3130 cm⁻¹ for these two phases. One may speculate that this represents ν_3 due to a shift towards lower wavenumbers in the higher coordinated structures. A comparison between NH₄-phengite and tobelite show a wide accordance among the spectra, the small observable differences are caused by the additional Mg in the octahedral site of the phengite.

Due to the distortion of the crystal field, ν_2 appears as an additional weak band in the range from 1660 to 1690 cm⁻¹; further weak bands and shoulders arise from overtone and

[†] Values from Harlov et al. (2001b).

s: strong. For further explanation see text.

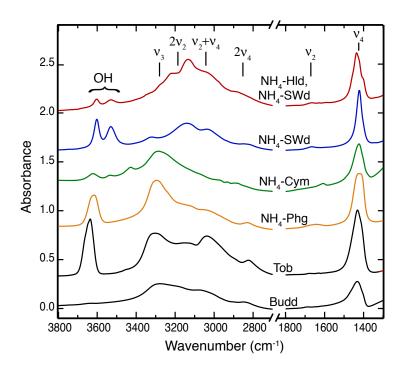


Figure 4: Mid-Infrared spectra of the run products of AW14-07 [NH₄-hollandite (31 wt%) plus NH₄-Si-wadeite (17 wt%)], AW28-07 (NH₄-Si-wadeite), AW22-07 (NH₄-cymrite), AW17-07 (NH₄-phengite), tobelite [see Pöter et al. (2007), their sample 13-99] and buddingtonite in the range from 1300 to 1800 and from 2700 to 3800 cm⁻¹. Spectra are shifted vertically. Relative proportions of NH₄-Hld and NH₄-SWd are calculated from Rietveld refinements. The normal modes on the basis of T_d symmetry for the NH₄-tetrahedron are marked as described by Harlov et al. (2001a) for buddingtonite. Additional OH-vibrations in the upper two spectra stem from OH-topaz (Table 1).

combination modes (Fig. 4, Table 4). A detailed description of the effective symmetry of the NH₄ molecule is not possible from IR spectra alone because ν_3 , overtones $2\nu_2$ and $2\nu_4$, and combination modes $\nu_2 + \nu_4$ interfere with each other at similar wavenumbers (Harlov et al. 2001b). Therefore, the band assignments (Table 4), which are based on identified bands for buddingtonite and other NH₄-bearing minerals (Harlov 2001a, b, c; Pöter et al. 2007) represent only one of several possibilities.

Bands at 3531 and 3603 cm⁻¹ as occurring in the spectra of the NH₄-hollandite and NH₄-Si-wadeite-bearing samples represent the two OH-stretching bands of OH-topaz (Wunder et al. 1993). NH₄-cymrite contains molecular water, consequently, in the NH₄-cymrite-bearing sample a H₂O bending mode at 1606 cm⁻¹ and the OH-stretching modes at 3533 and 3621 cm⁻¹ are present, the positions are the same as observed by Fasshauer et al. (1997) for K-cymrite. According to that study the shoulder, which can be observed at 3433 cm⁻¹, is also due to H₂O. The spectrum of NH₄-phengite shows the typical OH-stretching vibration of micas from 3604 to 3629 cm⁻¹ (e.g., Harlov 2001b; Pöter et al. 2007).

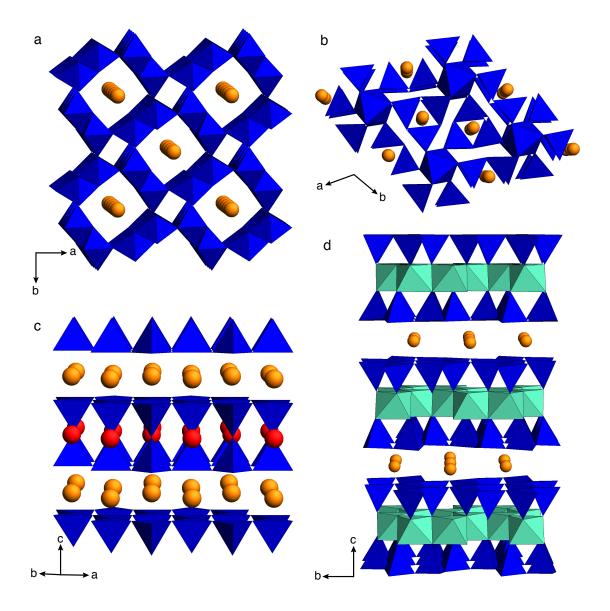


Figure 5: Projection of crystal structures of (a) NH₄-hollandite and (b) NH₄-Si-wadeite viewed down the c axis, (c) NH₄-cymrite; and (d) NH₄-phengite ($2M_1$ polytype) viewed along the a axis. The NH₄⁺ ion is illustrated as sphere in orange, a possible ordering/disordering of the NH₄⁺ cations in the crystal structures is neglected, as there was no hint from the XRD refinements. Si-containing tetrahedra and octahedra are shown in blue. The red balls in the NH₄-cymrite structure represent the H₂O-molecules. The light green octahedra in the phengite structure are occupied by Al and Mg.

Discussion

Crystal structure comparison between NH₄- and K-bearing phases

 NH_4 -hollandite $[NH_4AlSi_3O_8]$. The crystal structure of hollandite (Fig. 5a) is con-

structed of edge-sharing octahedra that form a four-sided eight-membered channel. The octahedra are randomly occupied to 3/4 with Si and 1/4 with Al. The channel is capable of incorporating low-valence large-radius cations in twelve-fold coordination, such as Na⁺ (Liu et al. 1978), K⁺ (Ringwood et al. 1967), and NH₄⁺ (this study). The space group is I4/m. Comparison with K-hollandite reveals that the c lattice parameter remains largely unchanged whereas the a lattice parameter increases from 9.315 Å (K-hollandite; Zhang et al. 1993) to 9.423 Å (NH₄-hollandite; Table 2). The larger NH₄⁺ ion significantly expands the diameter of the octahedra channels, but not the channel length. The cell volume increases from 236.3 Å³ (K-hollandite) to 241.93 Å³ (NH₄-hollandite). The same behavior can be observed in case of the smaller Na⁺-ion. The a lattice parameter of Na-hollandite (9.30 Å) shows a significant reduction compared to K-hollandite, while the channel length remains nearly unchanged (c = 2.73 Å; Liu et al. 1978).

NH₄-Si-wadeite [(NH₄)₂Si₄O₉]. The crystal structure of NH₄-Si-wadeite and its K-analogue Si-wadeite [K₂Si₄O₉] (Kinomura et al. 1975; Yagi et al. 1994) is a framework structure consisting of parallel Si₃O₉-layers in an ABAB... stacking sequence along the c axis (Fig. 5b). The layers are linked by Si-occupied octahedra. In Si-wadeite 1/4 of the total Si is octahedrally coordinated and 3/4 is tetrahedrally coordinated. K⁺ and NH₄⁺ are ninefold coordinated and sit in large cages, which occur between the A and B layers of the Si₃O₉ rings. The space group is $P6_3/m$. Comparison with K-Si-wadeite shows nearly identical c lattice parameters (Table 2), whereas the a lattice parameter increases from 6.6124 Å (K-Si-wadeite; Swanson and Prewitt 1983) to 6.726 Å (NH₄-Si-wadeite). Incorporation of NH₄ instead of K expands the diameter of the Si₃O₉-rings and hence the cages. Neither the stacking sequence of the layers nor their distance is changed. The cell volume increases from 360.1 (K-Si-wadeite) to 372.1 Å³ (NH₄-Si-wadeite).

 NH_4 -cymrite $[NH_4AlSi_3O_8 \cdot H_2O]$. NH_4 -cymrite and K-cymrite display a sheet-like crystal structure (Fig. 5c). Si and Al are randomly distributed on symmetrically equivalent tetrahedrally coordinated sites. The tetrahedra form hexagonal rings, which are further connected to double-layers via common opposite vertices. NH₄ and K in twelve-fold coordination are situated in the middle of the rings between two of these double-layers. Molecular water is located within the double six-membered tetrahedral rings, whereas its orientation along the c axis is yet unknown. The space group is P6/mmm. Compared to K-cymrite $(c = 7.7057 \text{ Å}; \text{Fasshauer et al. } 1997), \text{NH}_4\text{-cymrite} (c = 7.835 \text{ Å}) \text{ shows the major increase}$ in the c lattice parameter, whereas the a lattice parameter increases only by 0.5% (Table 2). This is typical for sheet-like structures, where substitution of larger monovalent interlayer cations for smaller ones drastically enlarges the distance between the sheets, whereas the six-membered tetrahedral rings are only slightly expanded. It has been argued that there is only one crystallographic site for molecular water in K-cymrite, due to the occurrence of only two peaks in the OH-stretching region (Thompson et al. 1998). The IR spectrum of NH₄-cymrite shows the same two peaks at the respective wavenumbers, so that no variation in the order of the water molecules is indicated.

NH₄-phengite [NH₄(Mg_{0.5}Al_{1.5})(Al_{0.5}Si_{3.5})O₁₀(OH)₂]. Comparison of the lattice parameters of $2M_1$ NH₄-phengite (Fig. 5d) with that of $2M_1$ K-phengite having nearly identical celadonite component (Massonne and Schreyer 1986) reveals that the c lattice parameter and angle β are significantly enlarged (19.972 Å vs 20.44 Å; 95.44° vs 95.71°) whereas the a and b lattice parameters show only a very slight increase (Table 2). In case

of the 1M polytypes the c lattice parameter is likewise increased but the angle β contracts by about 0.1%. There is a much larger difference in the a lattice parameters for the 1Mpolytypes compared to that for the $2M_1$ polytypes. This holds also for b, though to a minor extent. Similar variations in cell parameters between 1M and $2M_1$ polytypes of muscovite and tobelite, i.e., NH₄-muscovite, are documented in Pöter et al. (2007). The tetrahedral distortion due to tetrahedral rotation in dioctahedral micas is described by the rotation angle α , where $\cos \alpha = b/(9.051 + 0.254N)$ (Radoslovich and Norrish 1962; Bailey 1984). N is the number of tetrahedral Al atoms pfu and b is the lattice parameter. The tetrahedral rotation angle of $2M_1$ K-phengite with the celadonite component given above is calculated to 9.9° , that of $2M_1$ NH₄-phengite to 9.5° (Massonne and Schreyer 1986; Table 4). The larger NH₄⁺ ion stretches not only the distance between the sheets but also reduces the extent of tetrahedral rotation in the NH₄- relative to the K-phengite. Differences may also exist in the development of the respective polytypes. Schmidt et al. (2001) synthesized K-phengites in the KMASH system at similar conditions and report that there is no clear dependence of the polytype distributions on their celadonite component, however, in the K-bearing system the 1M is much more abundant than the 3T-polytype. This is quite the contrary to our NH_4 -pengites (3T: 13.6 wt%; 1M: 1 wt%) indicating that the larger NH_4^+ ion might favor formation of the 3T-polytype.

Stabilities compared to K-analogues

The stability of NH₄-phases depends on the redox conditions. Conditions must be reducing to allow the formation of NH₃/NH₄ in the mineral-fluid system and to prevent oxidation to N₂. There is little information on the speciation of H-N-O fluids at very high pressures. Calculations using the perturbation theory-based equation of state of Churakov and Gottschalk (2003b) reveal that H-N-O fluids buffered by QFM in the relevant P-T range will consist almost exclusively of H_2O and N_2 (see also Simakov 1998; 2006). An abrupt transition is indicated at f_{O_2} between -2 and -3 log units below QFM so that towards more reducing conditions NH₃ and H₂O become the main species. Data on the dissociation constant log(K) of $(NH_3)H_2O \leftrightarrow NH_4^+ + OH^-$ only exist for very dilute solutions up to 700 °C and 400 MPa (Quist and Marshall 1968). Log(K) ranges from about 10–9 at fluid densities of 0.5 g/cm³ to about 10–3 at 1.15 g/cm³. Fluid densities in our experiments are much higher, up to 1.5–1.6 g/cm³ (Churakov and Gottschalk 2003a, 2003b), and one may expect much stronger dissociation, the extent of which remains unknown. In any case, redox conditions in our experiments were sufficiently reducing to enable the formation of NH₄-silicates in presence of NH₃-bearing fluid, albeit some oxidation and formation of N₂ due to hydrogen loss may have occurred during the course of the experiments.

In the NASH system, the stabilities of high-pressure NH₄-silicates in the presence of fluid in P-T space broadly correspond to their K-analogues. K-cymrite is stable from 2.5 GPa, 400 °C to about 9 GPa, 1200 °C (Fasshauer et al. 1997; Thompson et al. 1998; Harlow and Davies 2004). The two experiments at 7.8 GPa, 800 °C on buddingtonite bulk composition are well located within the stability field of K-cymrite and produced NH₄-cymrite plus some coesite and kyanite as additional phases. Run AW22-07 was performed on nominally dry buddingtonite, without adding fluid. Even the breakdown of nominally dry buddingtonite along with a little amount of absorbed surface water, which could not be

avoided in sample preparation, provided sufficient NH₃- and H₂O-bearing fluid to stabilize NH₄-cymrite along with coesite and kyanite. At the given conditions and in presence of pure H_2O -fluid ($a_{H_2O} = 1$) OH-topaz is stable (Wunder et al. 1993); we, however, observe kyanite + H₂O. A possible interpretation is that due to the significant amounts of nitrogenbearing species in the fluid the water activity is reduced, thus expanding the stability field of kyanite relative to OH-topaz. Towards higher pressure of 10 GPa at 700 °C, NH₄-Siwade ite is formed, along with stishovite and OH-topaz, the latter stably replacing kyanite + H₂O (Wunder et al. 1993). This is similar to the K-bearing system, where K-Si-wadeite + kyanite + silica replaces K-cymrite as pressure increases (Davies and Harlow 2002). K-Si-wadeite + kyanite + stishovite produce K-hollandite at pressures higher than 8 to 9 GPa by a water-absent univariant reaction (Yong et al. 2008; Fig. 1). In the NH₄-bearing system, NH_4 -Si-wadeite (+ OH-topaz + stishovite) persists at least up to 10 GPa. NH_4 hollandite appears at 12.5 GPa, 700 °C, together with NH₄-Si-wadeite, OH-topaz, kyanite, and stishovite. Taking the NH₄-bearing system as an analogue to the K-bearing system, it appears that both the low-pressure assemblage (NH₄-SWd + OH-Top/Ky + Stv) and the high-pressure phase (NH₄-Hld) were concurrently formed. This may indicate that our experimental conditions happened to meet the NH₄-hollandite-forming reaction curve and that the NH₄-hollandite-in reaction occurs at pressures a few GPa higher than that for K-hollandite. On the other hand, the reaction is not univariant because of shifts in the fluid composition due to hydrogen loss, and it may well be that the produced assemblage is transitional in response to changing activities of fluid phase components. The latter is somewhat supported by the presence of both kyanite and OH-topaz, probably resulting from changing water activity during the course of the experiment. In any case, stability relations of the high-pressure NH₄-silicates closely resemble that of their K-analogues in that the same sequence of K- and NH₄-cymrite, K- and NH₄-Si-wadeite, and K- and NH₄-hollandite occurs from lower to higher pressures along approximately the same pressure range.

In fluid-saturated metabasaltic and metapelitic model systems it has been experimentally shown that K-phengite is stable up to about 9.5 GPa, 750 to 1000 °C. At higher pressures, it breaks down to K-hollandite + clinopyroxene-bearing assemblages (Domanik and Holloway 1996; Schmidt 1996; Schmidt and Poli 1998; Poli and Schmidt 2002). Clinopyroxene formed at these conditions incorporates about 1 wt% of K₂O (Schmidt and Poli 1998; Bindi et al. 2006). We synthesized NH₄-phengite at 4 GPa, 700 °C. There is again no information on its upper pressure stability, however, given the strong similarities between the KASH and NASH systems one may reasonably assume that NH₄-phengite in natural systems would react to NH₄-hollandite + clinopyroxene-bearing assemblages at similar pressure. If so, incorporation of significant amounts of NH₄ into high-pressure clinopyroxene is possible. As K-hollandite may persist up to 95 GPa, 2300 °C (cf. above) it is conceivable that NH₄-hollandite is also stable at conditions through the transition zone to the lower mantle.

Implications for nitrogen and hydrogen transport into Earth's mantle

At conditions of 500 to 600 °C, 0.2 to 0.4 GPa the binaries K-muscovite-NH₄-muscovite (to-belite), K-feldspar-NH₄-feldspar (buddingtonite), and K-phlogopite-NH₄-phlogopite form complete solid solution series (Bos et al. 1988; Pöter et al. 2004, 2007). Given the similarities in structure and stability relations, this probably holds also for the high-pressure

end-members. In any case, high-pressure K-phases are expected to be able to incorporate large amounts of NH₄ into their structures. If so, NH₄ can be continuously redistributed into solids when high-pressure K-phases are successively generated at conditions of subducting slabs. This provides an important means for nitrogen transport into the deep mantle (see also Busigny et al. 2003; Thomassot et al. 2007).

Incorporation of ammonium into K-hollandite and possibly high-pressure clinopyroxene and transport into the deeper mantle may have another important implication. There is a wealth of experimental work addressing the actual concentrations and the storage capacity of H₂O in nominally anhydrous minerals in the upper mantle down to the transition zone (for summaries see Hirschmann et al. 2005; Keppler and Bolfan-Casanova 2006). There is overall agreement that the H₂O storage capacity in nominally anhydrous mantle assemblages just above the transition zone amounts to about 0.4 wt% (Hirschmann et al. 2005) and to at least 5 times higher when wadslevite becomes stable. Bromiley and Keppler (2004) argued that omphacitic clinopyroxene is the main OH-bearing phase in subducted eclogites after breakdown of hydrous minerals with maximum concentrations of a few hundred wt-ppm of H₂O, dependent on clinopyroxene composition and pressure. Natural omphacites usually have several hundred with maximum concentrations of about 1000 wt-ppm H₂O (Skogby 2006). It would thus appear that omphacites and their breakdown products were unable to feed the transition zone with large amounts of water. If, on the other hand, most of the available NH₄ in eclogite-facies rocks can be stored in K-rich phases such as clinopyroxene and hollandite to greater depth, this would provide a formidable mechanism of hydrogen transport into the transition zone and beyond. If so, the fate of any possible NH₄-silicate component at depths of the transition zone would be subject to the redox conditions, of which no sound information is currently available. Hypothetical oxidation reactions of the type NH₄-component in solid + $O_2 \rightarrow \text{solid(s)} + N_2 + H_2O$ would produce water and molecular nitrogen, forming two H₂O molecules from one NH₄; under reducing conditions NH₄ component in solids would form ammonia and water by reaction to solid(s) + $NH_3 + H_2O$; and one may even speculate that under very reducing conditions nitrides or oxonitride component in oxides and hydrogen could possibly be generated. The latter is certainly speculative, however, if one accepts that highly reduced phases such as moissanite and Fesilicides included in deep-seated diamonds (e.g., Moore et al. 1986; Otter and Gurney 1989; Leung et al. 1990, 1996) or in kimberlitic rocks (Mathez et al. 1995; Di Pierro et al. 2003) represent redox conditions of certain, albeit limited regions of the mantle, oxygen fugacities of 5 to 6 log units below the iron-wuestite buffer were indicated (e.g., Mathez et al. 1995). At about that conditions nitrides or oxonitrides may also become stable, and it may well be that they provide another solid sink for nitrogen in the deep Earth, aside from nitrogen in diamonds.

Sediments and metasediments may contain several thousands of wt-ppm of ammonium present in clay minerals, micas and feldspars, which is continuously redistributed into newly formed high-pressure K-bearing phases along rocks' P-T path during subduction. This provides the means for nitrogen and hydrogen transport down to the transition zone of the Earth's mantle and possibly to even greater depth. Ammonium as a component is potentially very important for long-time, large-scale recycling of hydrogen and nitrogen between the Earth's surface and the deep mantle.

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