

Springer Mineralogy

Yuriy Litvin
Oleg Safonov *Editors*

Advances in Experimental and Genetic Mineralogy

Special Publication to 50th Anniversary
of DS Korzhinskii Institute
of Experimental Mineralogy
of the Russian Academy of Sciences

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Contents

Part I Crystallization and Properties of Minerals and Mineral-Forming Solutions

- 1 Phase Composition and States of Water-Hydrocarbon Fluids
at Elevated and High Temperatures and Pressures
(Experiment with the Use of Synthetic Fluid Inclusions) 3**
V. S. Balitsky, T. V. Setkova, L. V. Balitskaya, T. M. Bublikova,
and M. A. Golunova
- 2 Experimental Studies of Hydrothermal Fluid 35**
G. V. Bondarenko and Y. E. Gorbaty
- 3 Influence of Silicate Substance on Pyrochlore and Tantalite
Solubility in Fluoride Aqueous Solutions
(Experimental Studies) 49**
A. R. Kotelnikov, V. S. Korzhinskaya, Z. A. Kotelnikova,
and N. I. Suk
- 4 Experimental and Theoretical Studies of the Viscosity of the Fluid
Magmatic Systems in Conjunction with the Structure of Melts
at the Thermodynamic Parameters of the Earth's Crust
and Upper Mantle. 69**
E. S. Persikov and P. G. Bukhtiyarov
- 5 Crystallization of Cpx in the Ab-Di System Under the Oscillating
Temperature: Contrast Dynamic Modes at Different Periods
of Oscillation. 97**
Alexander G. Simakin, Vera N. Devyatova, and Alexey N. Nekrasov
- 6 Solubility and Volatility of MoO₃ in High-Temperature
Aqueous Solutions. 121**
A. V. Plyasunov, T. P. Dadze, G. A. Kashirtseva, and M. P. Novikov

7	Experimental Determination of Ferberite Solubility in the KCl–HCl–H₂O System at 400–500 °C and 20–100 MPa	137
	Alexander F. Redkin and Gary L. Cygan	
 Part II Genesis of Minerals and Rocks		
8	Evolution of Mantle Magmatism and Formation of the Ultrabasic-Basic Rock Series: Importance of Peritectic Reactions of the Rock-Forming Minerals	165
	Yu. A. Litvin, A. V. Kuzyura, and A. V. Spivak	
9	Formation of K–Cr Titanates from Reactions of Chromite and Ilmenite/Rutile with Potassic Aqueous-Carbonic Fluid: Experiment at 5 GPa and Applications to the Mantle Metasomatism	201
	V. G. Butvina, S. S. Vorobey, O. G. Safonov, and G. V. Bondarenko	
10	How Biopolymers Control the Kinetics of Calcite Precipitation from Aqueous Solutions	223
	L. Z. Lakshtanov, O. N. Karaseva, D. V. Okhrimenko, and S. L. S. Stipp	
11	The Evolutionary Types of Magmatic Complexes and Experimental Modeling Differentiation Trends	247
	N. I. Bezmen and P. N. Gorbachev	
12	Influence of C–O–H–Cl-Fluids on Melting Phase Relations of the System Peridotite-Basalt: Experiments at 4.0 GPa	271
	N. S. Gorbachev, A. V. Kostyuk, P. N. Gorbachev, A. N. Nekrasov, and D. M. Soultanov	
13	Inter-phase Partitioning of Pb and Zn in Granitoid Fluid-Magmatic Systems: Experimental Study	289
	V. Yu. Chevychelov	
14	Experimental Study of Amphibolization of the Basic Rocks of the Tiksheozersky Massif	337
	T. N. Kovalskaya, D. A. Varlamov, Y. B. Shapovalov, G. M. Kalinin, and A. R. Kotelnikov	

Abbreviations

Ab	Albite $\text{NaAlSi}_3\text{O}_8$
Alm	Almandine $\text{Fe}_3\text{Al}_2\text{Si}_3\text{O}_{12}$
An	Anorthite $\text{CaAl}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_8$
Ancl	Anorthoclase $(\text{Na}, \text{K})\text{AlSi}_3\text{O}_8$
And	Andalusite Al_2SiO_5
Brd	Bridgmanite MgSiO_3
CaPrv	Ca-perovskite CaSiO_3
Carb, Carb*	Assembly of several carbonates
Chr	Chromite FeCr_2O_4
Coe	Coesite SiO_2
Cpx	Clinopyroxene $(\text{Ca}, \text{Na})(\text{Mg}, \text{Fe})(\text{Si}, \text{Al})_2\text{O}_6$; $[(\text{Di}\cdot\text{Hd}\cdot\text{Jd})_{\text{ss}}]$
Crn	Corundum Al_2O_3
D	Diamond C
Di	Diopside $\text{CaMgSi}_2\text{O}_6$
Dol	Dolomite $\text{CaMg}(\text{CO}_3)_2$
En	Enstatite MgSiO_3
Fa	Fayalite Fe_2SiO_4
FBrd	Ferrob bridgmanite $(\text{Mg}, \text{Fe})\text{SiO}_3$
Fo	Forsterite Mg_2SiO_4
FPer	Ferropericlase $(\text{Mg}, \text{Fe})\text{O}$
FRwd	Ferro ringwoodite $(\text{Mg}, \text{Fe})_2\text{SiO}_4$
Fs	Ferrosilite FeSiO_3
Gros	Grossularite $\text{Ca}_3\text{Al}_2\text{Si}_3\text{O}_{12}$
Grt	Garnet $(\text{Mg}, \text{Fe}, \text{Ca})_3(\text{Al}, \text{Cr})_2\text{Si}_3\text{O}_{12}$; $[(\text{Prp}\cdot\text{Alm}\cdot\text{Gros})_{\text{ss}}]$
Hd	Hedenbergite $\text{CaFeSi}_2\text{O}_6$
Jd	Jadeite $\text{NaAlSi}_2\text{O}_6$
Kfs	K-feldspar KAlSi_3O_8
Ky	Kyanite Al_2SiO_5
L	Liquid, melt
Ma	Mathiasite $(\text{K}, \text{Ba}, \text{Sr})(\text{Zr}, \text{Fe})(\text{Mg}, \text{Fe})_2(\text{Ti}, \text{Cr}, \text{Fe})_{18}\text{O}_{38}$

Mcl	Microlite $\text{NaCaTa}_2\text{O}_6\text{F}$
Mgs	Magnesite MgCO_3
Mic	Microcline KAlSi_3O_8
MWus	Magnesiowustite $(\text{Fe}, \text{Mg})\text{O}$
Ol	Olivine $(\text{Mg}, \text{Fe})_2\text{SiO}_4$; $[(\text{Fo}\cdot\text{Fa})_{\text{ss}}]$
Olg	Oligoclase $(\text{Na}, \text{Ca})(\text{Si}, \text{Al})_4\text{O}_8$
Omph	Omphacite, Jd-rich clinopyroxene
Opx	Orthopyroxene $(\text{Mg}, \text{Fe})\text{SiO}_3$; $[(\text{En}\cdot\text{Fs})_{\text{ss}}]$
Par	Paragonite $\text{NaAl}_3\text{Si}_3\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2$
Pchl	Pyrochlore $(\text{Ca}, \text{Na})_2(\text{Nb}, \text{Ta})_2\text{O}_6(\text{O}, \text{OH}, \text{F})$
Per	Periclase MgO
Pf	Pyrophyllite $\text{Al}_2\text{Si}_4\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2$
Phl	Phlogopite $\text{KMg}_3\text{AlSi}_3\text{O}_{10}(\text{F}, \text{OH})_2$
Pl	Plagioclase $(\text{NaAlSi}_3\text{O}_8\cdot\text{CaAl}_2\text{Si}_2\text{O}_8)_{\text{ss}}$; $(\text{Ab}\cdot\text{An})_{\text{ss}}$
Pri	Priderite $(\text{K}, \text{Ba})(\text{Ti}, \text{Fe}, \text{Mn})_8\text{O}_{16}$
Prp	Pyrope $\text{Mg}_3\text{Al}_2\text{Si}_3\text{O}_{12}$
Qz	Quartz SiO_2
Rwd	Ringwoodite Mg_2SiO_4
Srp	Serpentine $(\text{Mg}, \text{Fe}, \text{Ni}, \text{Al}, \text{Zn}, \text{Mn})_{2-3}\text{Si}_2\text{O}_5(\text{OH})_4$
Sti	Stishovite SiO_2
Tnt	Tantalite $(\text{Mn}, \text{Fe})(\text{Nb}, \text{Ta})_2\text{O}_6$
Wds	Wadsleyite Mg_2SiO_4
Wol	Wollastonite CaSiO_3
Wus	Wustite FeO
Yim	Yimendite $\text{K}(\text{Cr}, \text{Ti}, \text{Mg}, \text{Fe}, \text{Al})_{12}\text{O}_{19}$

Physical Symbols

A_{Kr}	The Krichevskii parameter
f_1^*	The pure water fugacity
f_2	The fugacity of a solute
$G^o(g)$	The Gibbs energy of a compound in the ideal gas state
G_2^∞	The Gibbs energy of a compound in the state of the standard aqueous solution
K_D	The vapor–liquid distribution constant
k_H	Henry's constant
m	Molality (a number of moles of a substance in 1000 g of water)
$N_w \approx 55.508$	The number of moles of H_2O in 1 kg of water
P_1^*	Pressure of saturated water vapor
T_c	The critical temperature of pure water

Greek Symbols

ρ_c	The critical density of pure water
$\rho_1^*(L)$	The pure water density along the liquid side of the saturation vapor–liquid curve
ϕ_1^*	The fugacity coefficient of pure water
ϕ_2^∞	The fugacity coefficient of a solute at infinite dilution in water

Chapter 6

Solubility and Volatility of MoO₃ in High-Temperature Aqueous Solutions



A. V. Plyasunov, T. P. Dadze, G. A. Kashirtseva, and M. P. Novikov

Abstract The thermodynamic properties of the neutral molybdic acid H₂MoO₄ are evaluated at 273–623 K and the saturated water vapor pressure from our own solubility data at 563–623 K and literature results at lower temperatures. Combining the Gibbs energies of H₂MoO₄ in the state of the aqueous solution with those in the ideal gas state, we calculated Henry's constants and the vapor–liquid distribution constants of H₂MoO₄ at 273–623 K, and with the use of the relevant asymptotic relations, extrapolated values of Henry's constants, k_H , and vapor–liquid distribution constants, K_D , toward the critical point of pure water. Our results show that over the whole temperature range of the existence of the vapor–liquid equilibrium of water, the neutral molybdic acid H₂MoO₄ is somewhat less volatile compared with Si(OH)₄, and the difference in volatility of these species decreases with the temperature.

Keywords Molybdenum trioxide · Molybdic acid · Aqueous solubility · Vapor–liquid distribution · Henry's constant · Krichevskii parameter

6.1 Introduction

Since the opening of the Institute of Experimental Mineralogy, one of directions of research here was the study of the solubility of minerals in hydrothermal solutions, with the aim to quantify the transport and deposition of ore minerals. The long list of studied systems and relevant publications is beyond the scope of this contribution, and we will only briefly mention several solubility investigations conducted by the authors of the current research team. These studies include the solubility of amorphous SiO₂ in water and in aqueous solutions of acids at 373–673 K and pressure of 101.3 MPa (Sorokin and Dadze 1980), of SnO₂ in water and aqueous solutions of acids and salts at 473–673 K and pressure of up to 150 MPa (Dadze et al. 1981; Dadze and Sorokin 1986); the solubility of zinc oxide ZnO in aqueous solutions of alkalis (Plyasunov et al. 1988; Plyasunov and Plyasunova 1993a), salts (Plyasunov and Ivanov 1991)

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and alkali + salt mixtures (Plyasunov and Plyasunova 1993b) at 473–873 K and pressures up to 200 MPa; investigations of solubility of gold in aqueous H₂S-bearing solutions (Dadze et al. 1999, 2000, 2001; Dadze and Kashirtseva 2004; Gorbachev et al. 2010), including solubility in low-density hydrothermal fluids (Zakirov et al. 2008, 2009).

The current contribution is concerned with the thermodynamic properties of the neutral molybdic acid H₂MoO₄ (its real stoichiometry is likely MoO₂(OH)₂ (Akinfiev and Plyasunov 2013)) in aqueous solutions at elevated temperatures. The primary motivation for this study were the unusual results by Rempel et al. (2009), who studied the vapor–liquid distribution of Mo from (NH₄)₂MoO₄ solutions at 573–643 K, and reported that H₂MoO₄(aq) is more volatile (in terms of Henry’s constants) than, for example, Ar. As the interactions between water and nonpolar Ar are much weaker than those for H₂MoO₄, which form hydrogen bonds with H₂O molecules, such finding appears unlikely. However, an earlier publication by Khitarov et al. (1967) on the partition of Mo(VI) from dilute solutions of Na₂MoO₄ over a temperature range 523–623 K also found unexpectedly high concentrations of molybdenum in the vapor phase. Such was the situation before the start of our investigation: Mo(VI) compounds appeared to be highly anomalous in terms of their partition from aqueous solutions, challenging our knowledge of regularities in water–solute interactions. Nevertheless, one may speculate that trapping a portion of vapor phase in a two-phase system, as was done in studies (Khitarov et al. 1967; Rempel et al. 2009), is an error-prone method, especially when the incomplete separation of liquid and vapor phases is recognized as one of the major issues in the experimental studies of the vapor–liquid partitioning of aqueous solutes (Palmer et al. 2004). Indeed, in 2016, Kokh et al. (2016) published results of the study, where a direct sampling of the coexisting vapor and liquid phases at 623 K was employed. The liquid phase was ~1 m salt solution, and contained small amounts of Mo and other metals. In the S-free, CO₂-free series of experiments concentrations of Mo(VI) in steam were 3–3.5 orders of magnitude lower than in earlier experiments (Khitarov et al. 1967; Rempel et al. 2009).

Existing discrepancies in the Mo vapor–liquid partitioning from aqueous solutions were the main reasons to begin a new study of the distribution of H₂MoO₄ between the vapor and liquid phases of water. We have chosen an indirect way to obtain the values of the vapor–liquid distribution constants of the neutral form H₂MoO₄. First, we determined the thermodynamic properties of this species from the solubility of molybdite, MoO₃, in liquid acid solutions at 563–623 K. Thermodynamic properties of H₂MoO₄ in the ideal gas state are already known (Akinfiev and Plyasunov 2013). The difference of the Gibbs energies of this form in the standard aqueous solution and in the ideal gas state gives Henry’s constant of H₂MoO₄. Henry’s constant and the vapor–liquid constant are connected through a relation, which is simple, but requires the knowledge of the fugacity coefficient of the neutral molybdic acid, which can be evaluated, as will be discussed in Sect. 6.3.2.

Over the course of this work, it was found necessary to perform a series of additional experimental investigations for a proper interpretation of the obtained results. First, our studies of the solubility of MoO₃ in HCl and HClO₄ solutions at an acid molality above 0.03 m showed an increase in the solubility in HCl, but not in HClO₄

solutions, indicating the formation of chloride complex(es) of Mo(VI), in agreement with earlier works (Kudrin 1985; Borg et al. 2012). In order to address this issue, we (Dadze et al. 2018b) performed at 573 K and 10 MPa the study of solubility of MoO₃ in aqueous solutions of the mixture HCl–HClO₄–NaCl (up to 1 m of chloride ion). These data can be explained by the formation of the species MoO₂(OH)₂Cl[−], with $\log_{10}K^{\circ} = -(0.87 \pm 0.20)$ for the solubility reaction $\text{MoO}_3(\text{cr}) + \text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l}) + \text{Cl}^- = \text{MoO}_2(\text{OH})_2\text{Cl}^-$. Second, the thermodynamic interpretation of the solubility values in Na⁺-bearing solutions may be affected by the formation of the complex species NaHMoO₄(aq), as suggested by Kudrin (1989). Therefore, we (Dadze et al. 2017b) studied, at 573 K and 10 MPa, the solubility of MoO₃ in aqueous solutions of NaClO₄ up to the salt concentration of 2.21 m, and found no need to invoke a complex formation between Na⁺ and HMoO₄[−], as solubility data could be fully explained by the variations of the activity coefficients of H⁺ and HMoO₄[−] in sodium perchlorate solutions. Finally, we note that at room temperatures the Mo(VI) speciation at the metal concentrations above 0.001 m and pH < 6 is dominated by highly charged polymeric species, containing 6, 7, 8, ... up to 36 Mo atoms per polymer (Cruywagen 2000). However, we expect that at high temperatures simple monomeric species will predominate in aqueous Mo-bearing solutions, and such an assumption was explicitly used at interpretation of our MoO₃ solubility data. The reason is that highly charged polymers experience an electrostatic repulsion, which has to be overcome when polynuclear species are formed from mononuclear constituents. The high value of the dielectric constant ($\epsilon \sim 78$ at 298 K) decreases the electrostatic forces at room temperatures, however, the dielectric constant of water falls at high temperatures (for example, at 573 K $\epsilon \sim 20$), forcing highly charged polynuclear forms to dissociate into monomeric species (Plyasunov and Grenthe 1994) with the increase of temperature. Nevertheless, in order to verify the assumption that only monomers HMoO₄[−] and H₂MoO₄ dominate speciation of Mo(VI) in weakly acid aqueous solutions at elevated temperatures, we also studied (Dadze et al. 2018a) the solubility of calcium molybdate CaMoO₄ (the mineral powellite) at 573 K and 10 MPa in acid (HCl, HClO₄) and salt (NaCl, NaClO₄) solutions, because the Mo(VI) concentrations at the CaMoO₄ solubility are about 10–200 times lower than those at the MoO₃ solubility. Modeling the CaMoO₄ solubility data using the thermodynamic properties of HMoO₄[−] and H₂MoO₄(aq) evaluated from data on dissolution of MoO₃, i.e., at much higher contents of dissolved molybdenum, showed a satisfactory agreement of experimental and calculated CaMoO₄ solubility values, thus providing an indirect confirmation of our assumption that at 573 K polynuclear forms contribute insignificantly to the material balance of dissolved Mo(VI).

All these auxiliary results are described in corresponding publications (Dadze et al. 2017a, b, 2018a, b) and will not be further addressed here. The current contribution is concerned with the thermodynamic properties of the neutral molybdic acid H₂MoO₄ and its volatility from aqueous solutions.

6.2 Experimental Methods

6.2.1 Materials

Crystals of MoO_3 were prepared by the three-stage calcining of ammonium molybdate as described earlier (Dadze et al. 2017a). Calcium molybdate CaMoO_4 (the mineral powellite) was synthesized from a mixture of MoO_3 and CaCO_3 taken in equivalent proportions and heated up to $T = 1473$ K. Both the synthesized molybdate and powellite were hydrothermally treated at 573 K for several days in pure water to remove small particles, edges, defects, etc. MoO_3 formed elongated crystals with sizes of 1–50 μm , see SEM photo in Supplemental Information to Dadze et al. (2017a). The typical size of the isometric CaMoO_4 crystals used for solubility runs was 10–30 μm , see SEM photo in Dadze et al. (2018a).

X-ray powder diffraction patterns were obtained using copper or cobalt $K\alpha$ radiation on a Bruker D8 Discovery diffractometer, both before and after the experiments. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) images using secondary electrons at an accelerating voltage of 20 kV were obtained using Tescan VEGA TS 5130MM equipped with the INCAEnergy EDXS (energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy) microanalysis system. According to the averaged results of 4 electron microprobe analyses, the Ca:Mo atomic ratio in the synthesized calcium molybdate is equal to $(0.981 \pm 0.014):1.0$.

Aqueous solutions of HCl, HClO_4 , NaCl, and NaClO_4 were prepared from commercial reagents.

6.2.2 Experimental Procedure

Experiments were carried out in autoclaves made of the titanium alloy VT-8 of ~22 cm in the length and an internal volume of ~20 cm^3 . Prior to the experiments, autoclaves were loaded with 20 wt% nitric acid solution with the degree of filling of 0.72 and kept for a day at 573 K to produce a protective TiO_2 layer (Dadze et al. 2017a). The autoclaves were placed in a vertical cylindrical furnace during the experiments. The temperature gradients were less than 2 K along the autoclave in the case of a typical loading of 10 autoclaves per furnace. A temperature controller Miniterm-300 was used to monitor the temperature to an accuracy of ± 1 –2 K. Temperature was measured with a type K (chromel-alumel) thermocouple using a multilogger thermometer HH506RA (OMEGA Engineering). Temperature variations during the experiments were typically within ± 2 K. The pressure in the autoclaves was not directly measured, but determined by the degree of the filling of the autoclave with a solution. Preliminary experiments showed poor reproducibility at the two-phase (liquid + vapor) conditions. Therefore, in order to avoid the vapor phase in the experimental vessel, the experiments were performed at pressures slightly exceeding the vapor pressure of water at a given temperature. The degree of filling was typically chosen

to slightly exceed the density of liquid water at saturation at a given temperature. The necessary values of the densities of water were calculated using the Wagner and Pruß (2002) equation of state for water. Recommendations for NaCl solutions by Archer (1992) and for NaClO₄ solutions by Abdulagatov and Azizov (2003) were applied. Densities of dilute (0.2 m and less) solutions of HCl and HClO₄ were assumed to be equal to densities of NaCl solutions of the same molality.

A weighed quantity of crystalline MoO₃ (~100 mg) was placed in a titanium container, which was suspended in the upper part of the autoclave in such a way that it did not contact the liquid solution unless the latter expanded up to 95% of the volume of the autoclave. Due to this design, the solid phase was never in contact with the quenched solution. The volume of the added solution was within 12–16 cm³. After the run, the autoclaves were cooled down to room temperature under running cold water for 5–7 min. The time to reach the steady-state for studies involving MoO₃ was estimated to be 10–15 h, and for runs with CaMoO₄—4 to 7 days, based on a series of kinetic runs at 573 K and 10 MPa, see Dadze et al. (2017a, 2018a).

6.2.2.1 Stability of Dilute Aqueous Perchlorate Solutions

Experiments were performed in dilute (not more than 0.22 m) aqueous solutions of perchloric acid, HClO₄. It is well known that concentrated aqueous solutions of perchloric acid decompose when heated above 523 K according to the reaction $\text{H}^+ + \text{ClO}_4^- = 0.5 \text{Cl}_2 + 0.5 \text{H}_2\text{O} + 1.75 \text{O}_2$ (Henderson et al. 1971). Experiments of Henderson et al. (1971) in a titanium reactor showed that rates of decomposition depend strongly on initial HClO₄ concentrations, decreasing by more than 2 orders of magnitude with the decreasing molality of perchloric acid from ~4.6 to ~1.0 m. For every 10 K decrease in temperature, the rate of decomposition decreases approximately three-fold. However, the decomposition is negligibly small for 0.2 m acid at 573 K for experiments of a one-day duration (Henderson et al. 1971). In our experiments, the 0.011 m solution of perchloric acid (no solid phase present) with the initial pH = 1.98 ± 0.03 did not show any change of pH values, within errors of measurements, after being held at 573 K and 10 MPa (no vapor phase present) for 1–3 days. In contrast, a decomposition of aqueous HClO₄ was detected at 623 K. In blank runs (no solid phase present) of a one-day duration, a strong odor of chlorine from the quenched solution containing initially 0.10 m HClO₄ was detected. The pH value of the quenched solution increased from the initial value of 1.04 to 1.43, indicating significant decomposition of HClO₄. At the same temperature (623 K) in the quenched solution initially containing 0.01 m perchloric acid, no chlorine odor was detected, and the pH value of the quenched solution corresponded to that of the initial solution, pH = 2.03. In contrast, dilute aqueous HCl solutions are stable up to very high (magmatic) temperatures.

6.2.3 Chemical Analyses

The molybdenum concentration in quenched solutions after the experiment was determined using the spectrophotometer Spekol-11 at $\lambda = 453$ nm with the thiocyanate method, based on the formation of yellow color thiocyanate complexes of Mo(V) (Marchenko 1971), and by using thiourea as a reducing agent. The detection limit for Mo is 5 μg in a sample, i.e. at the largest aliquot, 10 ml, the minimal measurable molality of Mo is $\sim 5 \cdot 10^{-6}$ m. At 10 μg of Mo in a sample, the analytical uncertainty is about 20%, and at 20 μg and above—10%. Analytical results at relatively high solubility values (in excess of 10^{-3} m) in water and dilute acid solutions were duplicated by the weight loss (WL) method, using the WA-33 (Texma-Robot, Poland) laboratory balance with an accuracy of 0.2 mg. We found a satisfactory agreement of the analytical and WL results on the concentration of molybdenum in the solution (Dadze et al. 2017a, 2018a).

For a few runs with CaMoO_4 (Dadze et al. 2018a), analytical concentrations of Ca and Mo have been determined using ICP-MS and/or inductively coupled plasma atomic emission spectrometry (ICP-AES) using a PlasmaQuad II mass spectrometer with a quadrupole mass analyzer (VG Elemental, GB). Independent measurements of Mo concentrations in quenched solutions by either photometry/colorimetry or ICP-MS show a good agreement (within first per cent).

6.2.4 Treatment of Experimental Data

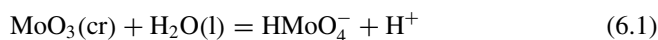
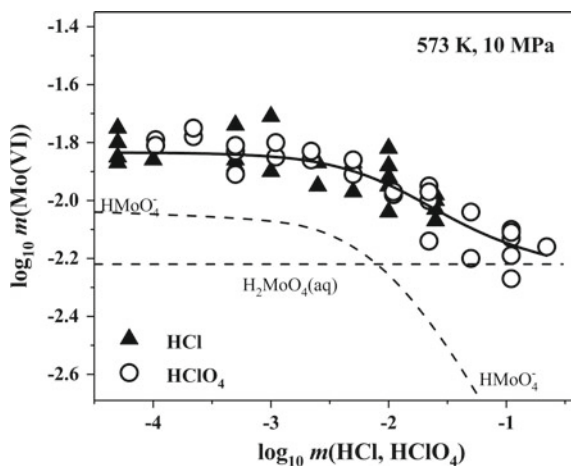
The data analysis was carried out using the program OptimA (Shvarov 2015), which processes experimental solubility data to derive the standard Gibbs free energies of specified aqueous complexes. Details of calculations, including corrections for activity coefficients, are described in our publications (Dadze et al. 2017a, b, 2018a, b).

6.3 Results and Discussion

6.3.1 Solubility Results for MoO_3 in Water and Acid Solutions

Experimental results of the solubility of MoO_3 in acid solutions, when chloride complexes do not form in appreciable amounts (i.e. at $m(\text{HCl}) < 0.03$), are shown in Fig. 6.1 for the most studied isotherm 573 K. As seen, solubility falls with the increase of the acid concentration and can be explained by the formation of two hydroxo complexes of Mo(VI) according to the reactions:

Fig. 6.1 Solubility of MoO₃ in HCl and HClO₄ solutions at 573 K, 10 MPa. Symbols designate experimental data, the solid line represents calculated solubility values, while dashed lines shows contributions of HMoO₄⁻ and H₂MoO₄(aq)



and



The most extensive set of data was obtained at 573 K and 10 MPa and it is shown in Fig. 6.1. The following values of $\log_{10}K^\circ$ have been evaluated from experimental data: $\log_{10}K^\circ(1)$ -4.25 , -4.31 , -44.20 , -4.55 ; $\log_{10}K^\circ(1)$ -2.40 , -2.22 , -2.41 , -1.95 at temperatures 563, 573, 593, 623 K. The expected uncertainty of $\log_{10}K^\circ$ values is ± 0.2 at 563–593 K and may be somewhat higher at 623 K.

In a later publication (Dadze et al. 2018a), we used both our results and the literature values to determine the temperature dependence of equilibrium constants for a number of reactions involving Mo(VI) species (the first and second ionization constants of H₂MoO₄, solubility product of powellite CaMoO₄, etc.), and to calculate the thermodynamic properties of H₂MoO₄(aq), HMoO₄⁻, and MoO₄²⁻ at 273.15–623 K at the saturated water vapor pressure. The rest of this publication will be concerned with thermodynamic values of the neutral molybdic acid H₂MoO₄ in the vapor and liquid phases of water, including recommendations of Henry's constants and vapor–liquid distribution constants over the whole temperature range of existence of the vapor–liquid equilibrium of water, from 273.15 to 647.096 K (the critical temperature of water, T_c).

6.3.2 Volatility of MoO_3 from Aqueous Solutions

It is known (Alvarez et al. 1994; Palmer et al. 2004) that overwhelmingly neutral (i.e. non-charged) species partition from aqueous solutions into a vapor phase, as it is energetically very expensive to transfer an ion from a liquid phase into a gas phase that has a much lower value of a dielectric constant. Because of this, the rest of this study will be concerned with the thermodynamic properties of the neutral molybdic acid H_2MoO_4 . The partition between the liquid and gaseous phases is described by two quantities: the vapor–liquid distribution constant, K_D , and Henry’s constant, k_H . The vapor–liquid distribution constant, K_D , is defined as

$$K_D = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} y/x, \quad (6.3)$$

where y and x stand for the mole fractions of a solute in coexisting vapor and liquid phases, respectively. In our case, the simplest way to evaluate K_D is to use the relation between the vapor–liquid distribution constant and Henry’s constant, k_H , defined as

$$k_H = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} f_2/x, \quad (6.4)$$

where f_2 stands for the solute’s fugacity. There is a simple relation between two properties (Japas and Levelt Sengers 1989; Alvarez et al. 1994):

$$k_H = \phi_2^\infty \cdot P_1^* \cdot K_D \quad (6.5)$$

where ϕ_2^∞ stands for solute’s fugacity coefficient at infinite dilution, and P_1^* is the pure solvent pressure at vapor–liquid saturation.

Results of Dadze et al. (2017a) and Akinfiev and Plyasunov (2013), reporting the Gibbs energies of the species H_2MoO_4 in the state of an aqueous solution and in the ideal gas state, allow calculating Henry’s constants as described below at temperatures between 273 and 623 K at P_1^* , see Table 6.1.

The logarithm of Henry’s constant is proportional to the difference of the chemical potential of a species in the ideal gas state, $G^o(g)$, and in the state of the standard aqueous solution, G_2^∞ :

$$\ln k_H(\text{bar}) = -[G^o(g) - G_2^\infty - RT \ln N_w]/RT \quad (6.6)$$

and

$$\ln k_H(\text{MPa}) = \ln k_H(\text{bar}) - \ln 10 \quad (6.7)$$

where $N_w \approx 55.508$ is the number of moles of water in 1 kg of water, the last term in Eq. (6.6) is needed because G_2^∞ is in the molality concentration scale, while Henry’s constant is in the mole fraction scale.

Table 6.1 Thermodynamic properties of liquid water (the vapor pressure P_1^* , the fugacity f_1^* at P_1^* , the density of the liquid water $\rho_1^*(L)$ at P_1^* , and of molybdic acid in water; G_2^∞ ($\text{H}_2\text{MoO}_4(\text{aq})$), and in the ideal gas state G° ($\text{H}_2\text{MoO}_4(\text{g})$), Henry's constant, k_H , the fugacity coefficient at infinite dilution, ϕ_2^∞ , the vapor-liquid distribution constant, K_D , of molybdic acid in water)

T (K)	$\ln P_1^*$ (MPa) ^a	$\ln f_1^*$ (MPa) ^a	$\rho_1^*(L)$ (mol cm ⁻³) ^a	G_2^∞ ($\text{H}_2\text{MoO}_4(\text{aq})$) (kJ mol ⁻¹) ^b	G° ($\text{H}_2\text{MoO}_4(\text{g})$) (kJ mol ⁻¹) ^c	$\ln k_H$ (MPa) ^d	$\ln \phi_2^\infty$	$\ln K_D$ ^f
273.15	-7.400	-7.401	0.055497	-881.09	-783.04	-41.46	0.00	-34.05
283.15	-6.702	-6.703	0.055489	-881.69	-786.39	-38.77	-0.01	-32.06
293.15	-6.058	-6.059	0.055406	-882.40	-789.79	-36.28	-0.01	-30.21
298.15	-5.754	-5.756	0.055342	-882.78	-791.50	-35.11	-0.01	-29.34
303.15	-5.462	-5.463	0.055265	-883.19	-793.22	-33.98	-0.01	-28.50
313.15	-4.908	-4.911	0.055074	-884.06	-796.70	-31.84	-0.02	-26.91
323.15	-4.394	-4.398	0.054842	-885.03	-800.22	-29.85	-0.03	-25.43
333.15	-3.915	-3.920	0.054574	-886.08	-803.77	-28.00	-0.04	-24.05
343.15	-3.467	-3.474	0.054273	-887.21	-807.36	-26.27	-0.05	-22.76
348.15	-3.255	-3.263	0.054110	-887.81	-809.17	-25.45	-0.06	-22.14
353.15	-3.049	-3.058	0.053941	-888.43	-810.99	-24.66	-0.06	-21.55
363.15	-2.657	-2.669	0.053582	-889.74	-814.65	-23.15	-0.08	-20.41
373.15	-2.289	-2.304	0.053196	-891.12	-818.35	-21.74	-0.11	-19.35
398.15	-1.460	-1.486	0.052124	-894.92	-827.74	-18.58	-0.18	-16.94
423.15	-0.742	-0.783	0.050902	-899.21	-837.32	-15.88	-0.29	-14.85
448.15	-0.114	-0.174	0.049529	-903.97	-847.10	-13.55	-0.43	-13.01
473.15	0.441	0.355	0.047996	-909.18	-857.05	-11.54	-0.60	-11.38
498.15	0.936	0.819	0.046280	-914.84	-867.17	-9.79	-0.82	-9.91

(continued)

Table 6.1 (continued)

T (K)	$\ln P_1^*$ (MPa) ^a	$\ln f_1^*$ (MPa) ^a	$\rho_1^*(L)$ (mol cm ⁻³) ^a	G_2^∞ (H ₂ MoO ₄ (aq)) (kJ mol ⁻¹) ^b	G^o (H ₂ MoO ₄ (g)) (kJ mol ⁻¹) ^c	$\ln k_H$ (MPa) ^d	$\ln \phi_2^{\infty e}$	$\ln K_D^f$
523.15	1.380	1.227	0.044345	-920.93	-877.45	-8.28	-1.07	-8.59
548.15	1.783	1.588	0.042131	-927.44	-887.89	-6.96	-1.36	-7.38
573.15	2.150	1.908	0.039530	-934.35	-898.48	-5.81	-1.70	-6.27
598.15	2.489	2.193	0.036321	-941.67	-909.21	-4.81	-2.07	-5.23
623.15	2.805	2.448	0.031901	-949.36	-920.08	-3.94	-2.50	-4.24
633.15	2.927	2.542	0.029286	(-950.23)	-924.47	(-3.18)	(-3.02)	(-3.09)
643.15	3.047	2.632	0.025058	(-951.09)	-928.88	(-2.44)	(-3.57)	(-1.92)
647.096	3.094	2.667	0.017874	(-947.49)	-930.62	(-1.42)	(-4.51)	0

^aWagner and Pruß (2002); ^bDadze et al. (2018a) at 273.15–623.15 K at P_1^* , at 633.15–647.096 K—see text; ^cAkinfiev and Plyasunov (2013); ^dEqs. (6.6)–(6.7) at 273.15–623.15 K; at 633.15–647.096 K—Eq. (6.10); ^eEq. (6.8) at 273.15–623.15 K at P_1^* , at 633.15–647.096 K—see text; ^fEq. (6.5) at 273.15–623.15 K, at 633.15–647.096 K—Eq. (6.9)

The relation (6.5) can be used to calculate K_D provided that the values of ϕ_2^∞ can be estimated. Elsewhere (Akinfiev and Plyasunov 2013; Dadze et al. 2017a) we recommended for H₂MoO₄ the approximation

$$\ln \phi_2^\infty \approx k \cdot \ln \phi_1^* = 7 \cdot \ln \phi_1^*, \quad (6.8)$$

where ϕ_1^* is the fugacity coefficient of pure water (Wagner and Pruß 2002), and the rules to estimate k depending on the composition of a compound were discussed in Akinfiev and Plyasunov (2013). It was shown that Eq. (6.8) allows a satisfactory prediction of solubility of MoO₃ in steam at 573–873 K at water densities up to ~250 kg m⁻³, see Dadze et al. (2017a) for detail. Values of K_D evaluated with relations (6.5) and (6.8) at 273.15–623.15 K are given in Table 6.1.

6.3.2.1 Extrapolation of K_D and k_H Toward the Critical Point of Water

The value of the vapor–liquid distribution constant at the critical point of water is equal to 1, as the liquid and the vapor phase became indistinguishable here. The question is, what is the law governing the course of K_D toward the critical point of a solvent? This question was solved theoretically by Japas and Levelt Sengers (1989) and confirmed by the reliable data (Fernández-Prini et al. 2003): at temperatures above ~500 K and up to the critical temperature of water, variations of K_D can be quantitatively described by the relation:

$$RT \ln K_D = A_{Kr} \cdot \frac{2(\rho_1^*(L) - \rho_c)}{\rho_c^2}, \quad (6.9)$$

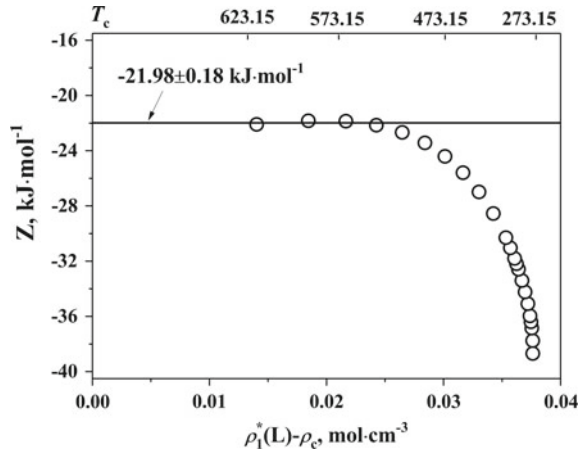
where A_{Kr} is the Krichevskii parameter, the main thermodynamic characteristic of a solute close to the critical point of a solvent, see Levelt Sengers (1991) for the corresponding discussion; ρ_c stands for the critical density of the solvent (322 kg m⁻³ for water), $\rho_1^*(L)$ is the pure water density along the liquid side of the saturation vapor–liquid curve (note that in order to obtain values of A_{Kr} in MPa, density values should be in cm⁻³ mol). Equation (6.9) was employed by us earlier (Dadze et al. 2017a) to evaluate $A_{Kr} = -228 \pm 33$ MPa for H₂MoO₄ in water. The relation (6.9) was used to estimate K_D at 633.15, 643.15 and T_c , see values in parentheses in the corresponding column of Table 6.1.

The theoretically-based asymptotic (i.e. valid in the neighborhood of the critical point of a solvent) relation was derived (Japas and Levelt Sengers 1989) for Henry's constant as well

$$RT \ln \frac{k_H}{f_1^*} = C_o + A_{Kr} \cdot \frac{(\rho_1^*(L) - \rho_c)}{\rho_c^2}, \quad (6.10)$$

The evaluation of the constant C_o for H₂MoO₄ can be made in the same way as for Si(OH)₄ (Plyasunov 2012), i.e. by plotting the values of the auxiliary function Z

Fig. 6.2 Evaluation of C_o for H_2MoO_4 from k_H data



$$Z = RT \ln \frac{k_H}{f_1^*} - A_{Kr} \cdot \frac{(\rho_1^*(L) - \rho_c)}{\rho_c^2} \quad (6.11)$$

versus $\rho_1^*(L) - \rho_c$, see Fig. 6.2. According to Eq. (6.10), the auxiliary function Z close to the critical point of water should approach the constant value equal to C_o , and data for H_2MoO_4 confirm that at temperatures above 550 K with $C_o = -21.98 \pm 0.18$ (2σ) kJ mol^{-1} . With relation (6.10) we estimated k_H at 633.15, 643.15 and T_c , see values in parentheses in the corresponding column of Table 6.1.

6.3.2.2 Temperature Dependence of K_D and k_H from 273.15 K to T_c

The asymptotic relations, given by Eqs. (6.9)–(6.10), should serve as foundations for the equations for k_H and K_D covering the whole temperature range of the vapor–liquid equilibrium for water, from 273.15 to the critical temperature of water, $T_c = 647.096$ K (Wagner and Pruß 2002). After some trials, the following forms were selected for the regression of K_D and k_H data from Table 6.1:

$$RT \ln K_D = A_{Kr} \cdot \frac{2(\rho_1^*(L) - \rho_c)}{\rho_c^2} \cdot \{1 + a_1(1 - T/T_c) + a_2(1 - T/T_c)^2\}, \quad (6.12)$$

and

$$RT \ln \frac{k_H}{f_1^*} = C_o + A_{Kr} \cdot \frac{(\rho_1^*(L) - \rho_c)}{\rho_c^2} \cdot \{1 + b_1(1 - T/T_c) + b_2(1 - T/T_c)^2\}, \quad (6.13)$$

Fig. 6.3 Temperature dependence of K_D : the solid line—Eq. (6.12) for H₂MoO₄, solid circles—values from Table 6.1 at 273–623 K, empty circles—values evaluated from the asymptotic relation (6.9) data at 633.15, 643.15 and T_c . The dashed and dotted lines show the corresponding dependences for Si(OH)₄ (Plyasunov 2012) and Ar (Fernández-Prini et al. 2003)

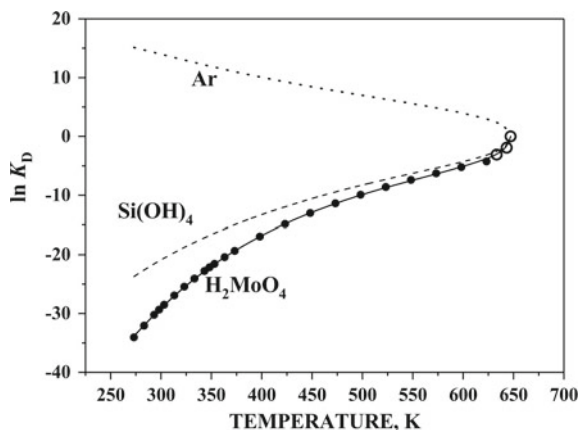
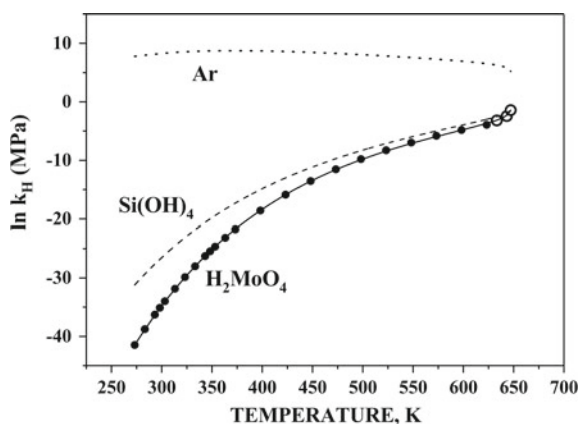


Fig. 6.4 Temperature dependence of k_H . The legend is the same in Fig. 6.3



where the Krichevskii parameter $A_{Kr} = -228$ MPa; $a_1 = -0.373912$, $a_2 = 1.93796$; the constant $C_o = -21,980$ J mol⁻¹, $b_1 = -0.516457$, $b_2 = 4.06929$. The fitted values of K_D and k_H are shown in Figs. 6.3 and 6.4. The combination of $G^o(g)$ and k_H allowed evaluating G_2^∞ for H₂MoO₄ at 633.15, 643.15 and T_c , see the corresponding column of Table 6.1.

6.3.2.3 Comparison with Literature Data for Mo and Some Other Solutes

A comparison of K_D values recommended in this study, and those reported in the literature (Khitarov et al. 1967; Rempel et al. 2009; Kokh et al. 2016) is not straightforward. Indeed, the literature partition values are reported as stoichiometric distribution constants, i.e. as ratios of analytical concentrations of elements in coexisting

phases. However, as briefly discussed in Sect. 6.1, the partitioning solute is a non-charged species, H_2MoO_4 in the case of Mo(VI) solutions, and its concentration is a strong function of pH of the liquid solution. Nonetheless, a semi-quantitative estimation of K_D values in terms of H_2MoO_4 concentrations in coexisting vapor and liquid phases at 623 K based on data of Khitarov et al. (1967), Rempel et al. (2009), Kokh et al. (2016) was undertaken in Dadze et al. (2017a). It was found that the difference with the experimental results (Khitarov et al. 1967; Rempel et al. 2009) exceeded 8 and ~ 3 orders of magnitude, respectively. By contrast, a relatively close agreement (0.5–1 \log_{10} units) was found with vapor phase concentrations measured by Kokh et al. (2016). Considering a complicated composition of the liquid phase in experiments of Kokh et al. (2016)—0.5 m NaCl, 0.5 m KCl, 0.1 m HCl, 0.01 m ZnCl_2 , 0.01 m CuCl, 0.01 m Na_2MoO_4 , plus solid phases SnO_2 , SiO_2 , Fe_2O_3 , Fe_3O_4 , Pt, Au and simplifications in calculations, this level of agreement appears to be as good as it gets. We remind that Kokh et al. (2016) applied a direct sampling of the coexisting vapor and liquid phases, while Khitarov et al. (1967) and Rempel et al. (2009) attempted to trap a portion of a vapor phase in a two-phase system, which appears to be an error-prone method.

As was discussed in Sect. 6.1, Henry's constants of H_2MoO_4 reported in Rempel et al. (2009) exceed those for Ar. According to Fig. 6.4, this result appears grossly in error. Previously we (Dadze et al. 2017a) suggested that $\text{Si}(\text{OH})_4$ would be a good proxy for H_2MoO_4 . As Figs. 6.3 and 6.4 show this is a better, but still not a perfect approximation for H_2MoO_4 .

6.4 Conclusions

Experimental results of the solubility of MoO_3 in acid aqueous solutions at 563–623 K were used to determine the thermodynamic properties of the neutral molybdic acid H_2MoO_4 at these temperatures (Dadze et al. 2017a). The joint treatment of our own and literature data resulted in a recommendation of the thermodynamic properties of this species at 273–623 K and the saturated water vapor pressure (Dadze et al. 2018a). Combining the Gibbs energies of H_2MoO_4 in the state of the aqueous solution with those in the ideal gas state (Akinfiev and Plyasunov 2013), we calculated Henry's constants and the vapor–liquid distribution constants of H_2MoO_4 at 273–623 K, and with the use of the relevant asymptotic relations (Japas and Levelt Sengers 1989) extrapolated values of K_D and k_H toward the critical point of pure water. Our results show that over the whole temperature range of existence of the vapor–liquid equilibrium of water, the neutral molybdic acid H_2MoO_4 is somewhat less volatile compared with $\text{Si}(\text{OH})_4$, and that the difference in volatility of these species decreases with the temperature, see Figs. 6.3 and 6.4.

Finally, we note that many vapor–liquid partitioning results in the geochemical literature are reported as ratios of analytical concentrations of elements in coexisting phases, often having multicomponent compositions. The rigorous thermodynamic

treatment of such data is usually not possible, leaving such results suitable for semi-quantitative modeling at best (or littering the literature with improbable thermodynamic values at worst). If the quantitative modeling of geochemical processes is a goal, even a remote one, than the experimental investigation of the simplest systems, which are easiest for rigorous thermodynamic interpretation, will be of value.

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