

NATURAL ZEOLITES

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NATURAL ZEOLITES
OXIDE ZONE GEOCHEMISTRY

Preface

Contemporary mankind faces an increasingly serious danger of pollution of the air and water of our planet by toxic wastes.

The serious task of the protection of civilization against ecological catastrophe confronts the scientists and specialists of the world. In this respect, undoubted interest resides in zeolites which can be utilized in various environmental protection systems against pollution with great success because of unique adsorptive, molecular sieve, ion-exchange and catalytic properties. Such interests in zeolites greatly increased in the 1960s and 1970s, when large industrial sized deposits of zeolites were discovered.

The discovery of stratified sedimentary zeolites, together with their comparative simplicity of mining, relatively low cost and more or less worldwide distribution gave easy access to these minerals for large-scale utilization. In particular this included uses for drying and purification of gases and effluents of different origin in order to trap toxic compounds and recover valuable components, for the disposal of radioactive wastes, for more rational and safe utilization of mineral fertilizers and toxic chemicals in agriculture, and so on.

This book, a joint effort of researchers from states of the former USSR and from Bulgaria, does not pretend to completely clarify all of the problems concerning the properties and utilization of natural sedimentary zeolites. Rather it considers the most important questions concerning mineralogical classification of zeolite structures, the genesis of natural sedimentary zeolites, and their occurrence. The natural sedimentary zeolites are considered as microporous adsorbents, ion-exchangers and catalysts; various uses in industry, agriculture, and in environment protection are also dealt with.

Obviously, our book is not free from deficiencies, and the authors would be happy to receive any comment. If this book is in some way useful for readers interested in the properties and utilization of natural sedimentary zeolites, the efforts of the authors will have been worthwhile.

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Names for the successor states and institutions of the former USSR are those that were in use at the time the book was being written.

The mineralogy of the zeolites

At present the zeolite group includes more than 40 naturally occurring species, and is the largest group of minerals among the silicates. Before the 1960s, zeolite minerals were thought to be mainly distributed in hydrothermal veins and geodes in basalts (Fig. 1.1), andesites and other volcanic rocks. Zeolites in such settings form large, well-shaped crystals and druses. Due to the usual small size of the veins and because of polyminerality, these deposits have no practical importance, but samples of vein origin have been used to establish the properties of the minerals and the possibility of their utilization in industry. All known zeolites have been found in hydrothermal veins; some of them are major rock forming species.

Only in recent decades, first in Japan, and later in the USA and Europe, has a wide distribution of zeolites in certain sedimentary rocks been established. These deposits differ markedly from the primary type. They are frequently monomineralic, of huge dimensions and suitable for industrial mining. Zeolite crystals in sedimentary rocks, however, are usually microscopic in size (Fig. 1.2).

1.1. CRYSTAL CHEMISTRY OF THE ZEOLITES

According to Smith [1] a zeolite is an aluminosilicate with a skeletal structure, containing voids occupied by ions and molecules of water having a considerable freedom of movement that leads to ion-exchange and reversible dehydration.

The primary building block of the zeolite framework is the tetrahedron, the centre of which is occupied by a silicon or aluminum atom, with four atoms of oxygen at the vertices. Each oxygen atom is shared between two tetrahedra. Hence, the tetrahedra form a continuous framework. Substitution of Si⁴⁺ by Al³⁺ defines the negative charge of the framework, which is compensated by monovalent or divalent cations located



Fig. 1.1. Chabazite crystals of hydrothermal vein origin.

together with water molecules in structural channels. Cations in the channels are substituted easily, and therefore they are termed exchange or extra-framework cations, unlike Si and Al which are not exchanged under ordinary conditions; the latter are termed tetrahedral (T) or framework cations.

The idealized chemical formula of the zeolites is of the type $M_{x/n}[Al_xSi_yO_{2(x+y)}]$ $_PH_2O$ where M is (Na, K, Li) and/or (Ca, Mg, Ba, Sr), n is cation charge; y/x = 1 to 6, p/x = 1 to 4. It is also convenient to express the zeolite composition by so-called oxide formulas of the type $M_{2/n}O \cdot Al_2O_3 \cdot xSiO_2 \cdot yH_2O$. The oxide formula of the widely distributed natural zeoliteclinoptilolite is thus $(K,Na,1/2Ca)_2O \cdot Al_2O_3 \cdot 10SiO_2 \cdot 8H_2O$. Unit cell contents can be expressed as $(K_2,Na_2,Ca)_3(AlO_2)_6(SiO_2)_{30} \cdot 24H_2O$, or $(K_2,Na_2,Ca)_3[(Al_6Si_{30})O_{72}] \cdot 24H_2O$. The composition of the tetrahedral framework is usually given in square brackets.

The Si/Al ratio in natural zeolites lies within the limits of 1 to 6. The lower limit is determined by Löwenstein's rule, according to which an AlO₄ tetrahedron cannot associate with another AlO₄ tetrahedron by a common oxygen atom; at Si/Al = 1, the silicon and aluminum tetrahedra alternate to form the ordered framework. Ordered location of Si and Al is also possible at other Si/Al ratios. The upper limit of the



Fig. 1.2. Clinoptilolite crystals in zeolitic tuff from Eastern Rhodopes, Bulgaria (SEM, × 600).

Si/Al ratio in the natural zeolites reaches 5 to 6 (clinoptilolite, mordenite, ferrierite, dachiardite). In synthetic zeolites the silicon can be substituted by germanium, and the aluminum by gallium, iron, chromium, boron, etc, but in natural specimens only Be and Fe is observed in tetrahedral sites, in addition to Si and Al.

The Si/Al ratio can vary considerably within the limits of one structural type, depending upon the composition of original solutions and conditions of crystallization. Zeolites are also characterized by complex substitutions of the type (Na,Al) ≠ Si and $(Ca,Al) \rightleftharpoons Na,Si$, and by the simple substitutions $Ca \rightleftharpoons 2Na$, $Na \rightleftharpoons K$, and so forth.

The water content varies within certain limits depending upon the character of the exchange cations and conditions of crystallization. Under ordinary conditions the water molecules completely fill the free volume of channels and voids in the zeolite structure. The free inner volume of the zeolite can be calculated by measuring the volume of the water released under heating in vacuo. Experience shows that the volumes calculated by this method agree well with structural data.

Chemical formulae, limits of variability of chemical composition and some crystallographic and structural data for known zeolite mineral species are given in Table 1.1. Reliable chemical analyses are presented in Gottardi and Galli's monograph [2].

Table 1.1—Basic data for the various zeolite groups

Date of discovery	Group (SBU), mineral, unit cell content	Si/Al range, exchangeable cations	Structure type	Symmetry, space group	Unit cell constants, nm	Total pore volume, %
Analcime group (4 or 6)	ıp (4 or 6)					
1784	analcime	1.8-2.8	ANA	cubic	a = 1.373	20
(1801)	Na16A116Si32O96.16H2O	$Na \gg Ca \approx K$		Ia3d b		
1955	wairakite	~2	ANA	monoclinic	a = 1.369, b = 1.364	21
	Ca, Al, Si, O, 6.16H, O	Ca ≽ Na		12/a	$c = 1.356, \beta = 90.5^{\circ}$	
1943	viseite		ANA	cubic a = 1.365		70
	Na2Ca10Al20Si6P10O60(OH)36.16H2O					
Laumontite group (4)	oup (4)					
1978	laumontite	2	LAU	monoclinic	a = 1.504, b = 1.317	32
(1808)	Ca, Al, S, CO, 16H, O			C2/m	$c = 0.771, \beta = 133.2^{\circ}$	
1952	yugawaralite	2.2	YUG	monoclinic	a = 0.673, b = 1.395	29
	Ca, Al, Si., O,,,8H,O	some Na		Pc	$c = 1.003, \beta = 111.5^{\circ}$	
1822	brewsterite	2.6-3.0	BRE	monoclinic	a = 0.677, b = 1.751	30
	(Sr,Ba,Ca),Al,Si,,O,,,10H,O	Sr > Ba > Ca		P2,/m	$c = 0.774, \beta = 94.3$ °	
1980	goosecreekite	3.0	BRE	monoclinic	a = 0.740, b = 1.744	32
	Ca ₂ Al ₄ Si ₁₂ O ₃₂ .10H ₂ O	f.		P2	$c = 0.729, \beta = 105.6^{\circ}$	
Natrolite group (4-1)	p (4-1)	7				
1758	natrolite	1.5	LAN	orthorhombic	a = 1.830, b = 1.863,	22
(1803)	Na14Al4 Si24O80.16H,O	some Ca,K		Fdd2	c = 0.66	
6961	tetranatrolite	1.6-1.7	NAT	tetragonal	a = 1.310, c = 0.663	22
(1980)	Na144Ca04Al15.3Si24.7O80.16H2O	some K		1424		
1813	mesolite	1.4-1.6	LAN	orthorhombic	a = 1.841, b = 5.665	26
(1816)	Na14CaAl16Si24O80.16H2O	Ca:Na ≥ 1		Fdd2	c = 0.655	
1801	scolecite	1.5	NAT	monoclinic	a = 0.653, b = 1.897	31
(1813)	Ca, Al, Si,, O, 0, 12H, O			Cc	$c = 0.978, \beta = 108.9^{\circ}$	
1896	gonnardite	1.1-1.4	NAT	orthorhombic	a = 1.335, b = 1.335	31
	Na Ca, AloSi, O. 12H, O	Na:Ca = 2 - 6		or tetragonal	c = 0.665	
1801	thomsonite	1.0-1.1	THO	orthorhombic	a = 1.305, b = 1.309,	31
(1820)	Na Ca Al, oSi, Oso. 24H, O	Ca:Na = 1.6 - 2.0		Penn	c = 1.322	
1835	edingtonite	1.5	EDI	tetragonal	a = 0.958, c = 0.652	36
	Ba2AI4Si6O20.8H2O	some K, Ca, Na		P42 ₁ m or orthorhom	$P42_1 m$ or orthorhombic $a = 0.955$, $b = 0.967$	
				1717171		

				some Ba, Sr		
!		Im3m)	K > Ca ≫ Na,	(K ₂ Na ₂ Ca) ₈₆ Al ₁₇₂ Si ₅₀₀ O ₁₃₄₄ .700H ₂ O	
48	a = 3.509	P6 ₃ /mmc	PAH	30-32	K ₂ Mg ₂ Ca _{1.5} Al ₉ Si ₂₇ O ₇₂ .28H ₂ O	1960
37	a = 1.839, c = 0.765	hexagonal	MAZ	3.0	mazzite	1974
i	$c = 0.988, \beta = 88.3^{\circ}$	12	!	some Ca	Na4K4AlgSigO32.10H2O	1313
27	c = 1.010 a = 1.023, $b = 1.042$	Pnm2 monoclinic	SIS	some Ba	Na ₄ (Ca,Mg,K ₂)Al ₆ Si ₁₀ O ₃₂ .12H ₂ O	1070
53	a = 0.980, b = 1.015	orthorhombic	GIS	1.6	gobbinsite	1982
9	a = 0.985, c = 1.052	Id. (amd	25	1.3-1.7 some K Ba	garronite	1962
•	$c = 0.984, \beta = 92.4^{\circ}$	P21/c	910	some K	Ca4Al8Si8O32.16H2O	
47	a = 1.002, b = 1.062	monoclinic	GIS	1.1-1.5	gismondine	1816
	c = 0.995	Immm		K, Na, some Sr	(K,Na), (Ba,Ca), AloSi, 3O, 4.24H, O	
33	a = 1.412, b = 1.423	orthorhombic	MER	1.82.5	ba ₂ (Ca _{0.5} Na)A ₁₅ Sl ₁₁ O ₃₂ ·12n ₂ O merlinoite	1967
30	a = 0.988, b = 1.414	monoclinic	PHI	2.3-2.5	harmotome	1755
	$a_o = a, b_o = c, c_o = a + 2c$	orthorhombic		Bå	to K ₂ (Na ₂ ,Ca)Al ₄ Si ₁₂ O ₃₂ .10H ₂ O	
38	a = 0.966, b = 1.430	monocimic P2 /m or	PHI	1.3-3.4 come Cr Ma	phillipsite	1824
Ş					Phillipsite group (4-doubly connected)	Phillipsite grou
	c = 1.784	Amma		some Ca, Mg, K	Na16A116Si56O144.52H2O	
35	c = 1.784 a = 1.364, b = 1.820	Fmmm orthorhombic	STI	3.5	CagAl ₁₆ Si ₅₆ O ₁₄₄ .56H ₂ O barrerite	1974
39	9	orthorhombic	STI	3.4–3.5	stellerite	1909
000	a = 1.301, b = 1.624 $c = 1.127, \beta = 127.9$	C2/m	116	2.4-3.1 some K. Mf	Na.Ca.Al., Si., O., 30H., O	(1801)
30		C2/m		Mg = 0.2-1.1	(K ₂ ,Na ₂ ,Ca) ₃ Al ₆ Si ₃₀ O ₇₂ .21H ₂ O	(1932)
34	c = 0.743, p = 110.3 a = 1.762, b = 1.791,	C2/m monoclinic	неп	some K 4.0-5.2	Na, Ca ₄ Al ₉ Si ₂₇ O ₇₂ .24H ₂ O clinoptilolite	(1982)
35	a = 1.773, b = 1.792,	monoclinic	HEU	2.7–3.8	heulandite	1801
					up (4-4-1)	Heulandite group (4-4-1)
3	$c = 0.760, \beta = 114.5^{\circ}$	P2 ₁	NIG	0.7	Li,Al,Si,O1,2H,O	1661
00	$c = 0.747, \beta = 90.0^{\circ}$	P2 ₁ /n	BIK	20	4	2301
	a = 0.730 a = 1.889, b = 1.418,	monoclinic		Mg = 0.4-2.0	(Na ₂ ,K ₂ ,Ca,Mg) ₃ AI ₆ SI ₃₀ O ₇₂ .20H ₂ O	
27	a = 1.918, b = 1.414	orthorhombic	FER	4.3-6.2	ferrierite	. 1861
	$c = 1.022, \beta = 124.6^{\circ}$	C2/m	· i		Ca,AI,SI,8O48.16H2O	
34	$c = 1.026, \beta = 107.9$	C2/m monclinic	FPI	$Na \approx Ca > K$	(Na2, K2, Ca)2Al4Si20O48.12H2O	(1906)
26	a = 1.869, b = 0.750,	monoclinic	DAC	3.6-6.0	dachiardite	1905
87	a = 1.811, b = 2.040 c = 0.752	Cmcm	MOK	Na ≈ Ca ≽ K	(Na. Ca), Al. Sl., Oc. 28H, O	1864
-;					up (5-1)	Mordenite group (5-1)

Date of discovery	Group (SBU), mineral, unit cell content	Si/Al range, exchangeable cations	Structure type	Symmetry, space group	Unit cell constants, nm	Total pore volume, %
Erionite group (6+(6-6)) 1890 erionite (1898) (K ₂ Na ₂	(6+(6-6)) erionite (K ₂ Na ₂ CaMg) ₄ Al ₈ Si ₂₈ O ₇₃ .28H ₂ O	3-4 Mg to 1, K 1-3,	ERI	hexagonal P6 ₃ /mmc	a = 1.315 c = 1.505	38
1890	offretite	2.2–2.6	OFF	hexagonal	a = 1.329, b = 0.758	40
1825	(N ₂ ,C4,M ₂) ₂ ,S41 ₅ S1 ₁₃ O ₃₆ ,1511 ₂ O ₃₆ ,1511 ₂ O ₃₆ ,1511 ₂ O ₃₆ ,1511 ₂ O ₃₆ ,1811 ₂ O	$R \approx 1$, $Ca \approx Mg$ 1.6–2.0 some K	LEV	rhombohedral R3m	$a = 1.084$, $\alpha = 75.95$ °	45
Chabarite group (9-9) 1772 chab (1972) (Ca,) (K2,)	chabazite* (Ca,Na ₂ K ₂) ₂ Al ₄ Si ₈ O ₂₄ .12H ₂ O (K ₂ ,Na ₂ O _{1,3} Al ₃ Si ₉ O ₂₄ .10H ₂ O	1.5-4.0 some Sr, Ba	СНА	rhombohedral or triclinic PT	$a = 0.941$, $\alpha = 94.3$ ° $a = 0.941$, $b = 0.942$ $c = 0.942$, $\alpha = 94.2$ ° $a = 0.920$, $b = 0.918$	4
1001	O ₂ H01.	şå.			c = 0.949 $\alpha = 92.7^{\circ}, \beta = 92.4^{\circ},$	40
1808 (1825)	22H2O	2.0-2.2 Na > Ca	GME	hexagonal P6 ₃ /nmc	a = 1.375, c = 1.006	4
raujasite grou 1842	Faujastic group (9-6) or p-cage [0-4] 1842 faujastic (Na ₂)Ca,Mg) ₂₉ Al ₅₈ Si ₁₃₄ O ₃₈₄ .240H ₂ O	$2.2-2.6$ Ca \approx Na	FAU	cubic Fd3m	a = 2.460	51
Unknown structure 1979 pa Ca 1975 co Ca 1984 pe	cture partheite Ca ₈ Al ₁₆ Si ₁₆ O ₆₄ ·16H ₂ O cowlesite Ca ₆ Al ₁₂ Si ₁₈ O ₆₀ ·30H ₂ O perlialite K ₉ Na(Ca,Sr)Al ₁₂ Si ₂₄ O ₇₂ ·15H ₂ O	1.0 some K, Na ∼1.5 · some Na 2	LTL(?)	monoclinic C2/c orthorhombic hexagonal	a = 2.159, b = 0.878 $c = 0.931, \beta = 91.3^{\circ}$ a = 1.127, b = 1.525 $c = 1.261, \beta = 91.5^{\circ}$ a = 1.849, c = 0.751	32 47 20

"The year it received its present name. bOften pseudocubic (*Ibca*, $14_1/acd$). Exposed to air, it loses $2H_2O$ and turns reversibly into lconhardite. "Ba-predominant phillipsite is wellsite. "The term herschelite is used for chabazites with Na > Ca.

In the zeolite structure three relatively independent components are found: the aluminosilicate framework, exchangable cations, and zeolitic water. This independence is expressed in the existence of the same structure with varying components. For example, cations can exchange and water molecules can be removed completely or be substituted by other molecules. The independence is relative, since any change of one component causes change of the other two. While the cations are mobile, the framework is more or less deformed and stressed upon dyhydration; the distribution of water molecules depends upon the character, the quantity and distribution of cations and this in turn is defined by the density and distribution of anionic sites in the structure.

1.1.1. The aluminosilicate framework

The aluminosilicate framework is the most conserved and stable component and defines the structure type. The topology of the framework, the numbers and distribution of charges (aluminum sites) and stacking faults are basically formed at the crystal growth stage and define a series of technologically important properties of zeolites. Framework topology forms the basis of contemporary classification of the zeolites.

For a mathematical description of the topology, the atomic pattern is reduced to its simplest characteristics. The tetrahedron is considered as a structural point, i.e. only the centre of the tetrahedron is taken into account. The centres of neighbouring tetrahedrons are connected with straight lines (T-T) and the whole framework is represented as a three-dimensional lattice; each centre is connected with four others and the oxygen atoms are located near but not on the connecting line (T-T). After such simplification, separate polygonal and polyhedral sub-units are easily located in the structure.

On the basis of structural sub-units such as combinations of parallel fouror six-membered rings and Archimedean polyhedra, one classification of zeolites was suggested [3]. Later, Meyer [4] introduced the notion of "secondary building units" (SBU). An SBU is the simplest configuration of tetrahedra out of which a given tetrahedral framework can be built. Figure 1.3 shows these structural units: four-, sixor eight-membered ordinary rings (4, 6, 8), double rings (4-4, 6-6, 8-8) and complexes (4-1, 5-1, 4-4-1).

From any SBU one can construct numerous frameworks, including those of all the natural and synthetic zeolites found to date. Figure 1.4 shows two linked SBUs (4-4-1), which are found in minerals with the heulaudite and stilbite structures.

The structural type of any given zeolite is defined by the topology of the framework. At present the nomenclature used (and respective three-letter codes for structural types) are those designated by a Commission of IUPAC (Table 1.2). In each structural type there are several structures with similar topology differing by various orderings of tetrahedron cations, small deviations from ideal symmetry, and the composition and distribution of the exchangeable cations. Fine stereoscopic pictures of all structural types are given in the "Atlas of Zeolite Structure Types" [5].

Table 1.2.—Basic data for zeolite structure types

		Secondary	Polyhedral		Chann	Channel systems in hydrated		Average	
IUPAC	Maximum	building	cage			zeolite		framework	_
epoo	cymmetry	units	type					density,	
	Symmetry		-16	D,	ź	free aperatures	direction	T/nm3	
						uu		of apertures	res
ANA	Lard	4 or 6		-	9	0.26	(111)	18.6	9
ANA	Cmcm	-		_	00	0.32×0.49	[100]	20	2
BIK	P2. /m	. 4		7	000	0.23×0.50	[100]	17.5	2
DNE	/1-				∞	0.27×0.41	[100]		
CHA	RIm	6-6 or 4	[8662412], 62467	3	∞	0.36×0.37	L[0001]	14.5	2
DAC	C2/m	5-1		2	10	0.37×0.67	[010]	17	2
					00	0.36×0.48	[100]		
FDI	P42,m	4-1		3	8	0.35 - 0.39	<100>	16.6	9
					∞	variable	[001]		
FPI	C2/m	5-1		7	10	0.3, 0.53	[001]	17.7	7
					· 00	0.37×0.44	[001]		
ERI	P6,/mmc	6 or 4	[6246], [8665412],	3	00	0.36×0.52	1.[0001]	16.0	0
			[6 ⁵ 4 ⁶]					•	
FAU	Fd 3m	6-6 or 4	$[12^46^44^{18}], [6^84^6]$	3	12	0.74	(III)	12.9	6
FER	IMMM	5-1	7	7	10	0.43×0.55	[001]	17	7
					∞	0.34×0.48	[010]		
GIS	I 4, /amd	4 or 8		7	∞	0.31×0.44	[100]	15.3	3
!	*				00	0.28×0.49	[010]	:	
GME	P6,/mmc	6-6 or 4	$[8^{3}6^{2}4^{9}], [6^{2}4^{6}]$	3	12	0.70	[1000]	14.0	0
	ì				00	0.36×0.39	1[000]		,
HEU	C2/m	4-4-1		7	10	0.44×0.72	[100]	17.2	2
)					∞	0.41×0.47	[001]		
					00	0.40×0.50	[001]		
LAII	A2/m	4		_	10	0.40×0.56	[00]	17.7	7
LEV	R3m	9	[83649], [6346]	7	∞	0.33×0.53	1[0001]	5	
ITI	P6/mmm	9	[6546]	-	12	0.71	[1000]	10	4
MAZ	P63/mmc	4 or 5-1	[836249]	-	12	0.74	[1000]	91	_
			970						

									1	*											
16.0				17.2		17.8		15.5		15.3		15.8			16.3		17.7			18.3	
			×																		
									_	,											
[00]	[010]	[00]	[00]	[00]	[010]	(101)	[100]	[1000]	[000]	<100>	<1001>	[001]	[010]	[00]	[001]	[101]	[101]	[010]	[100]	[100]	[001]
	GM. S								7				,								
				_		_						1		a and	(
× 0.35	× 0.35	× 0.51	× 0.33	× 0.70	× 0.57	× 0.39	able	64	× 0.52	39	39	× 0.44	× 0.48	33	× 0.62	× 0.57	× 0.39	× 0.39	variable	0.31×0.33	0.31×0.35
0.31	0.35	0.34	0.33	0.67	0.29	0.26×0.39	var	0	0.36	0	0	0.42	0.28	0	0.41	0.27	0.26	0.26	vari	0.31	0.31
					,																`
00	∞	∞	∞	12	00	∞	∞	12	∞	00	∞	00	00	00	10	œ	∞	∞	∞	∞	∞
3				7		3		3		3	3	3			7		3			7	
		-																			
								[6 ² 4 ⁶], [6 ⁵ 4 ⁶]	$[8^{3}6^{2}4^{9}]$	$[8^{2}4^{8}], [8^{6}4^{12}]$	[8668412]										
4 or 8-8															_						
4 or				5-1		4-1		9		4		4			4-4		421			4	
-		•																			
I4/mmm				Стст		$I4_1/amd$		P6m2		Im3m		Стст		-	Fmmm		Pmma			C2/m	
			*																		
MER				MOR		NAT	-	OFF		PAU		PHI		į	STI		THO			YUG	

*One-, two- or three-dimensional system. *Number of tetrahedra in the rings.

10 The mineralogy of the zeolites

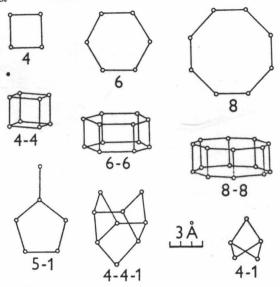
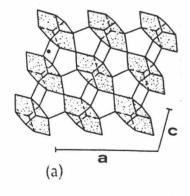


Fig. 1.3. The secondary building units (SBU) of the zeolite structures.

Apart from SBUs, various numbers and shapes of rings according to the components of the tetrahedra, as well as different channels and voids in the zeolite frameworks (Table 1.2), can be identified. Generally, voids are polyhedral in shape (Fig. 1.5). Certain zeolite structures can be elaborated by alteration of such polyhedra. In this sense, the cancrinite, sodalite and gmelinite cells can also be considered as SBUs.

Inside the polyhedra rather large voids are found. In faujasite a 26-hedron spherical free volume 1.18 nm in diameter is found, whereas that in sodalite has a diameter of 0.66 nm. In chabazite the inner void is 1.1 nm along the c axis and 0.65 nm perpendicular to it. It can also be seen from Figure 1.5 that the polyhedra have "windows" made by 6-8- and 12-membered rings, through which small molecules



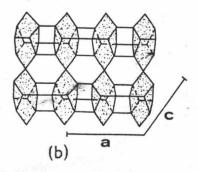


Fig. 1.4. Arrangement of the 4-4-1 units in the framework structures of (a) heulandite and (b) stilbite.