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Influence of rare earth oxides on kinetics and reaction mechanisms in CMAS silicate melts

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Abstract

Dissolution of different rare earth oxides RE₂O₃ and cyclosilicate Ca₃RE₂(Si₃O₉)₂ was studied at 1200°C in a pseudo-ternary CAS melt. This investigation is relevant to CMAS resistant thermal barrier coatings (TBC) used in aircraft engines. CMAS is a generic term for the molten siliceous deposits resulting from the ingestion of mineral particles with the intake air. The aim was to assess the influence of the rare earth on the reaction kinetics, solubility limits and underlying phase equilibria in a model CAS melt. RE₂O₃ (RE = Nd, Sm, Gd, Dy and Yb) were selected to span a wide range of trivalent lanthanide sesquioxides and Lewis basicities. Powders dispersed in CAS glass-beads were reacted at 1200°C and quenched after several durations. All the RE₂O₃ led to the formation of metastable apatite, and then to stabilization of cyclosilicate in CAS. Disilicate Yb₂Si₂O₇ was also obtained in Yb₂O₃ bead-sample during early-stage of interaction. However, RE₂O₃ oxide basicity has a direct influence on silicates (apatite, disilicate and cyclosilicate) solubility limits in CAS, on RE-apatite crystal growth as well as on induction time for RE-cyclosilicate nucleation. The results are discussed in the light of crystal chemistry, thermodynamic considerations and RE cation field strength (Z/r²) which is alternative to define oxide basicity.

Keywords: Thermal Barrier Coatings (TBC), CMAS, Rare earth, Solubility, Kinetics

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1. Introduction

Fine contaminants as sand, dust or volcanic ashes ingested by aircraft engines are well-known to induce damage in standard Thermal Barrier Coatings (TBC, ZrO₂-8wt. $%Y_2O_3$). In service, these mineral particles deposit on hot TBC surface ($\geq 1200^{\circ}C$) as molten silicate and infiltrate porous microstructure of coating [1-4]. Composition of silicate deposits closely depends on their geological source and their transport across continents when suspended in the atmosphere. Analysis of ex-service components reveal that, in addition to primary silica (SiO₂), alumina (Al₂O₃), alkaline-earth oxides (CaO, MgO), but also metallic oxides (TiO₂, FeO_x) are generally found in varying proportions [5-7].

Model silicate deposits limited to a few constituents (CMAS, i.e. CaO-MgO-Al₂O₃-SiO₂) are thus mainly employed in the laboratory to study the thermochemical interaction with novel TBC compositions which potentially inhibit CMAS infiltration. Many tests are conducted under isothermal conditions for simplicity thus neglecting thermal gradient across TBC. In addition to deposition technology (Electron-Beam Physical Vapor Deposition (EB-PVD), Atmospheric (APS) and Suspension Plasma Spray (SPS)), dense ceramic pellets or less frequently powders are also used to simulate TBC coating material. Gadolinium zirconate Gd₂Zr₂O₇ TBC has first shown efficiency to mitigate synthetic CMAS infiltration due to its reactivity with CMAS. Indeed, the dissolution reaction leads to the extremely fast and simultaneous formation, in the TBC flow channels (intercolumnar gaps for EB-PVD coatings), of a sealing-layer constituted of crystalline zirconia $Zr(Ca,Gd)O_x$ and $Ca_2Gd_8(SiO_4)_6O_2$ apatite [8]. Most of rare earth oxides RE₂O₃ can replace yttria in ZrO₂-based TBC as both zirconia and apatite phases can accommodate a broad range of lanthanide elements within their structures [9-10].

However, little is known about phase equilibria involving TBC constituents (ZrO₂, RE₂O₃) and multi-component CMAS system. In this context, Poerschke *et al.* have previously proposed a thermodynamic study of the CaO-SiO₂-RE₂O₃ subsystem (RE = Y and Gd) at 1400°C [11,12]. It appeared that Gd-cyclosilicate phase Ca₃Gd₂Si₆O₁₈ is in equilibrium with liquid phase to the detriment of Gd-apatite phase. The present work is intended to determine which precipitated phases are in equilibrium with the liquid at 1200°C (typical temperature of TBC surface) in the case of rare earths in contact with a simplified CaO-Al₂O₃-SiO₂ melt. As the identified phases do not contain alumina, although Al (like other species of CMAS and

TBC) may redirect the dissolution pathway, this study relies on the diagrams produced by Poerschke *et al.* [11,12], which indicate that low concentrations of rare earth oxide are required to remain in equilibrium with the liquid.

In a previous authors' work [13], the relative stability of the precipitated Gd-apatite and Gd-cyclosilicate phases was investigated. Their own dissolution reactions in eutectic CaO-Al₂O₃-SiO₂ (CAS) melt at 1200°C, as well as that of Gd₂O₃, systematically led to Gdcyclosilicate phase in equilibrium with CAS melt for long interaction times. Conversely, Gdapatite crystals formed at Gd₂O₃/CAS interface during early-stage were in metastable equilibrium with CAS melt. It has also been shown that other rare earth silicates may compete with apatite crystallization and a change in RE solubility limit may result depending on both RE₂O₃ and CMAS composition. Garnet silicate, orthosilicate Ca₃RE₂Si₃O₁₂ as well as disilicate RE₂Si₂O₇ phases have been previously reported as CMAS/TBC reaction product [14-17]. Re-precipitation of zirconia ZrO₂ containing RE and/or Ca in solid solution has been regularly observed when the Zr saturation limit in the melt is exceeded [15-19] whereas zircon ZrSiO₄ or Ca,Zr-rich phases were occasionally noticed [15,16,18,19]. These two kinds of crystallization reactions also induce modification of the melt composition leading to intrinsic precipitation of Zr,RE-free silicates. Anorthite CaAl₂Si₂O₈, diopside CaMgSi₂O₆ and melilite Ca₂(Mg,Al)[(Al,Si)SiO₇] are current examples of the many phases which can be precipitated [13-15]. In our previous work [13], chemical analysis of CAS melt (1200°C) composition over time also evidenced the local enrichment in Al induced by Gd-apatite formation which further led to anorthite precipitation.

Nevertheless, phase equilibria only provide information on overall crystallization reaction and are thus relevant to coating chemical durability in CMAS melts once their infiltration is stopped. Thermodynamic data, therefore, do not determine the efficiency of CMAS infiltration mitigation which occurs during early-stage of interaction. Indeed, local and non-equilibrium conditions during short times involve the appearance of metastable phase(s) before the formation of stable phase(s). Kinetics considerations are also a fundamental requirement to understand CMAS/TBC interaction.

This study deals with the dissolution of different rare earth single (RE_2O_3) and multimetal oxide (RE-apatite or RE-cyclosilicate) in eutectic CAS melt (1200°C) using powders dispersed in glass-beads. These investigations are a continuation of previous work dealing with the Gd_2O_3 dissolution mechanisms in CAS. The aim is to assess the influence of rare earth (relative to Gd_2O_3) on reaction kinetics, solubility limit and underlying phase equilibria in the CAS melt. For this, Nd_2O_3 , Sm_2O_3 , Dy_2O_3 and Yb_2O_3 were first selected to cover a wide range of Lewis oxide basicity. Then, multiple annealing times and quenching were performed to provide information on kinetics in a timescale compatible with early stage of CMAS/TBC interaction as well as on phase equilibria for longer times. Powder XRD and SEM-EDS analysis were employed for phase identification while amounts of RE dissolved in CAS were measured overtime by EPMA. The results are discussed in the light of crystal chemistry, thermodynamic considerations and RE cation field strength (Z/r²) which is alternative to define oxide basicity.

2. Experimental procedures

2.1 Precursor materials

The pseudo-ternary eutectic (1170°C) composition, $58.9SiO_2-16.9AlO_{1.5}-24.1CaO$ mol. % (61.5SiO₂-15Al₂O₃-23.5CaO wt. %, CAS), was selected in this study as CMAS melt subsystem. The choice of this simplified CAS composition as well as the details on glass preparation are reported in a previous work [19]. Glass was obtained from suitable proportions of CaCO₃ (99%, Prolabo), Al₂O₃ (99.7%, Cerac) and amorphous SiO₂ (99.9%, Aldrich) raw reagents.

Commercial powders of rare-earth oxides RE_2O_3 were used as starting solute for the dissolution experiments in CAS melt. Their characteristics given by the suppliers are summarized in table 1. These compositions were selected to span a wide range of trivalent lanthanide sesquioxides and Lewis basicities.

Rare-earth cyclosilicate powders with $Ca_3RE_2(Si_3O_9)_2$ composition were prepared by solid state reaction between rare-earth oxides, calcium carbonate $CaCO_3$ and SiO_2 reagent powders. Two steps of 6h-calcination at 1400°C were performed with intermediate regrinding to achieve homogeneous mixture and promote surface contact area between particles. Finally, nitric acid HNO₃ was added to the resulting RE-cyclosilicate powders and a vacuum filtration wash was performed to remove unreacted RE₂O₃ powders [20].

2.2 Dissolution experiment and equilibration

The procedure used to study the dissolution of rare earth oxides or cyclosilicates in CAS has been described in a previous work [13]. First, CAS-glass beads containing dispersed RE₂O₃ or RE-cyclosilicate powder were elaborated at 1200°C. Then bead samples were suspended with a Pt wire and annealed in air at 1200°C, for durations from 5 min to \geq 72 h. They were finally quenched in air to retain the high-temperature configuration. Short duration intervals (from 5 min to 1h30 annealing) were performed to provide information on kinetics in a timescale compatible with the early stage of CMAS/TBC interaction. Conversely, long-term annealing (up to 160h) was performed to attempt achieving equilibrium between the liquid and the precipitated phases dictated by thermodynamics.

The ternary phase diagrams of the CaO-SiO₂-REO_{1.5} (with RE = Gd or Y) system show that the addition of low quantities of rare earth oxide is required to obtain a solid-liquid equilibrium [11,12]. Consequently, 2 to 6 mol. % of REO_{1.5} have been added to CAS beads, which corresponds to a range 10 to 15 wt. % for the different rare earths studied here and up to 60 wt. % for the RE-cyclosilicates. The latter case leads to lower Al content and equivalent RE content compared to the addition of RE₂O₃. The amount of introduced powder was adjusted in order to observe a solid-liquid equilibrium. The overall compositions of these mixtures are reported in the table 2, for Nd and Yb only, as they cover the larger range of composition for a given amount of RE₂O₃ or RE-Cyclosilicate.

2.3 Sample preparation and characterization

Cross-sections of the beads mixture containing RE-oxide were prepared after epoxy embedding, successive polishing to $\frac{1}{4} \mu m$ and carbon coating. Backscattered electron imaging (BSE, Zeiss DSM962 SEM) was used to characterize the microstructure of each RE-oxide/CAS bead after annealing, and more precisely to have a first estimation of the amount, the morphology and the size of the precipitated phases. Elemental composition of the various phases was measured using energy dispersive spectroscopy in the SEM (SEM-EDS, Kevex Quantum type EDS analyzer).

Electron Probe Micro-Analyzer (EPMA) CAMECA SX100 was employed to quantify the amount of rare earth cation RE³⁺ which was dissolved in CAS beads. For this, RE elements as

well as Ca, Al and Si were analyzed at $10 \ \mu m$ of the precipitated RE-silicates. This vicinity involves a short period of chemical diffusion and ensures the measurement of the highest RE content in the glass matrix for short times. The results of the quantification are averaged from 10 measurements and the error bars correspond to standard deviations.

When large enough, the RE-rich precipitates were also probed to establish their composition. The conditions used for microanalysis were an accelerating voltage of 15 kV, a focused beam current of 10 nA and a time analysis of 15 s per element. The used standards were andradite $Ca_3Fe_2(SiO_4)_3$ for Ca alumina for Al, albite NaAlSi₃O₈ for Si, lanthanide sesquisulfide RE₂S₃ for Yb, Dy, Gd and lanthanide phosphate REPO₄ for Sm, Nd.

X-Ray Diffraction (XRD) data were collected on a Empyrean diffractometer using Cu K α emission ($\lambda_{K\alpha}$ =0.15406 nm) in a 2 θ range from 10 to 90°(2 θ). In order to get a higher resolution of the X-ray diffractograms, the CAS samples were prepared here with addition of amounts of rare earth oxide increased to 30 wt. %, which corresponds to 11 to 13 mol. % of REO_{1.5} (depending on the considered rare earth). Indeed, the pseudo-ternary phase diagrams of the CaO-SiO₂-REO_{1.5} (with RE = Gd or Y) system [11,12] shows that a light increase of the mol. % of REO_{1.5} does not modify the nature of the phases but only their relative proportions. Anyway, the nature of the different phases was verified via SEM observation before XRD analysis, all the samples were grounded in fine powder to reduce preferential orientation. Indexation of XRD patterns using ICDD crystallographic database (PANanlytical XPERT HighScore) was first performed for crystalline phases identification. Rietveld refinement from the RE-oxide/CAS diffraction data was then performed by the mean of Fullprof Suite software. The relative volume fraction of RE-silicate phases was subsequently quantified regardless of amorphous content.

3. Results

3.1 Phase evolution during CAS / RE₂O₃ interaction

3.1.1 Short-times interaction

Back-Scattered SEM images resulting from interaction of different RE_2O_3 powders with CAS melt are shown in Fig. 1 and Fig. 2 after 5 min dwell-time at 1200°C. Based on overall observation, it can be first noticed that RE_2O_3 agglomerates (bright contrast) never coexist directly with the CAS melt. Indeed, a solid interphase composed of RE-apatite separates all RE_2O_3 powders from the melt. This phase was identified by the combination of XRD and EDS analysis. Hexagonal structure with P6₃/m space group was obtained for all RE-apatite. Indeed, the alkaline-earth (Ca²⁺) apatite structure is well-known to accommodate complete lanthanide series [9]. Both cations Ca²⁺ and RE³⁺ are distributed within the 4f (CN 9) and 6h (CN 7) sites. A wide range of Ca²⁺/RE³⁺ substitution in RE-apatite may also be obtained considering the existence of cation vacancies and/or oxygen vacancies [9].

Variation in the size and the morphology of RE-apatite precipitates can also be observed between the different RE₂O₃. The SEM micrographs display a change in the shape of RE-apatite from a thin-nearly continuous layer for Yb₂O₃ (Fig. 2b) to a conglomerate of needle-like crystals for Nd₂O₃ (Fig. 1a). This latter acicular arrangement for apatite was commonly found in various glass-ceramic and is often associated with a preferential growth aligned along the c axis [21]. An intermediate RE-apatite microstructure was obtained for Dy₂O₃ (Fig. 1d), Gd₂O₃ (Fig. 1c) and Sm₂O₃ (Fig. 1b). It consists in elongated crystals growing outwardly from a thin denser layer at the RE₂O₃ interface. After 5 min, several stages of apatite crystal growth (in terms of acicularity) can be observed between the different RE_2O_3 and appear to be enhanced in the following order $Yb_2O_3 < Dy_2O_3 < Gd_2O_3 < Sm_2O_3 < Cd_2O_3 < Sm_2O_3 < Sm_2O$ Nd_2O_3 . Moreover, it can be noticed that the amount of RE_2O_3 that already reacted globally increases on the whole sample according to $Yb_2O_3 < Dy_2O_3 < Gd_2O_3 < Sm_2O_3 < Nd_2O_3$. For the CAS-bead mixture containing Nd₂O₃, almost all the initial powder was already converted into Nd-apatite. This is another evidence of the relative trend in forming RE-apatite in CAS melt. It can be concluded from these short time interactions that the formation of apatite is favored for rare earths with larger ionic radius.

In addition to RE-apatite, a second RE-rich silicate phase was detected in both Dy_2O_3 and Yb_2O_3 samples. This phase was identified as RE-cyclosilicate $Ca_3RE_2(Si_3O_9)_2$ crystallizing in the monoclinic structure with C2/c space group. Only a limited amount of Dycyclosilicate was noticed in CAS compared to Yb-cyclosilicate crystals which were abundantly found. Previous work already showed that Gd_2O_3 indirectly dissolved in CAS by first forming very rapidly Gd-apatite, which gradually redissolved in CAS before precipitating stable $Ca_3Gd_2(Si_3O_9)_2$ cyclosilicate [13]. The same kind of mechanism is here observed for the Dy_2O_3 and Yb_2O_3 samples. The location, for short times, of Yb and Dy-cyclosilicate around RE-apatite crystals is suggestive of very fast cyclosilicate germination kinetics (less

than 5 min for Yb and Dy-cyclosilicate). For Yb₂O₃ samples, another Yb-silicate with same BSE chemical contrast as Yb-apatite was observed as well as a Yb-free aluminosilicate (crystals in darker contrast than CAS matrix) (Fig. 2a-b). These both phases located in the apatite-rich regions were respectively identified as Yb₂Si₂O₇ disilicate and CaAl₂Si₂O₈ anorthite using EDS elemental maps (Fig. 2c-d) and XRD analysis. Some Yb₂O₃ was also found as inclusions inside disilicate phases suggesting a competitive crystallization between Yb-disilicate and Yb-apatite at the Yb₂O₃/CAS interface. The crystalline structure of the disilicate phase was indexed with the monoclinic C2/m space group and the anorthite crystallizes with a triclinic (P-1) structure. After 5 min, Yb₂O₃, Yb-apatite, Yb₂Si₂O₇ and CaAl₂Si₂O₈ solid phases are thus coexisting with residual CAS melt in a limited area entirely surrounded by Yb-cyclosilicate. Anorthite intrinsic precipitation from CAS melt has already been observed after a local enrichment in Al₂O₃ induced by CaO and SiO₂ depletion during RE-silicate formation [13, 18]. Disilicate $(Y_2Si_2O_7)$ formation was already reported elsewhere, resulting from 1300°C isothermal interaction between yttria and CAS melt (70SiO₂-15AlO_{1.5}-15CaO mol.%) with lower content of CaO [15]. Thermodynamics Y₂O₃- Al_2O_3 -SiO₂ phase diagram also reveals that $Y_2Si_2O_7$ is in equilibrium with the liquid phase in the Al₂O₃-lean region [22]. Therefore, a decrease in CaO and Al₂O₃ activity in CAS melt arising from concomitant crystallization of Ca and Al-rich phases may explain Yb-disilicate formation.

3.1.2 long-times interaction

Results from the dissolution sequence of the different RE_2O_3 after 72h annealing time at 1200°C are shown in Fig. 3. Yb_2O_3 is not presented here as no changes in the phase identity and the local arrangement could be noticed after 5 min. Indeed, the Yb-cyclosilicate phase is surrounding the various Yb-silicates and thus limits their contacts with the melt, consequently leading to a much slower evolution.

It can be first observed that anorthite crystals (dark contrast) in the CAS matrix were present in all samples. As discussed for short times, its formation is the consequence of an Alenrichment of CAS melt due to the precipitation of RE silicates.

For Gd_2O_3 and Dy_2O_3 , RE-apatite phase (Fig. 3a-b) was fully converted into REcyclosilicate during 72h interaction time. Dy-cyclosilicate crystal growth was observed between 5 min and 72h (Fig. 1-d compared to Fig. 3-b) with a crystal size increasing from few microns to several tens microns. In our previous work, a similar change in Gd-cyclosilicate crystal size was noticed between 1h30 and 72h dwell-time at 1200°C [13].

Conversely, RE-apatite in Sm_2O_3 and Nd_2O_3 samples (Fig. 3c-d) was still remaining in CAS melt with a characteristic needle shape in both cases. Cyclosilicate crystals rich in Sm and Nd were still not detected in CAS melt after 72h. With increasing time, some Sm-cyclosilicate crystals finally appeared after 160h of isothermal treatment (1200°C) and were located relatively far away from the apatite-rich region (Fig. 3f). The size of these cyclosilicate crystals was larger than Yb, Gd and Dy-isomorphs and nearly reached the hundred microns. No Nd-cyclosilicate crystals could be detected in the Nd₂O₃/CAS bead after 160h which may suggest a delayed nucleation over time.

The duration of the different steps in the reaction sequence during RE₂O₃ dissolution (1200°C) are summarized in table 3. It can be seen first that the annealing times required to completely dissolve initial RE₂O₃ powders globally decreases from Yb₂O₃ to Nd₂O₃. For Yb₂O₃, competitive formation of Yb-apatite and Yb₂Si₂O₇ disilicate occurred during the early-stage of interaction between the oxide powder and the CAS melt. Moreover, Yb-cyclosilicate crystals were also observed in a great extent in less than 5 min. Thus, many initial oxide powders remain trapped in those solid phases, resulting in longer time to be dissolved. Conversely, Nd₂O₃ powders were fully converted into Nd-apatite in short time interaction and no Nd-cyclosilicate crystals could be detected after 160h. The reactivity of Dy₂O₃, Gd₂O₃ and Sm₂O₃ with CAS to crystallize RE-apatite and then precipitate cyclosilicate from the melt was intermediate. It appears here that for long time CAS/RE₂O₃ interactions the formation of cyclosilicate is favored for rare earths with smaller ionic radius.

3.1.3 Cyclosilicate crystallization kinetics

To confirm the trends observed above on RE-cyclosilicate crystallization kinetics in CAS melt, the relative proportions (in volume fraction and weight fraction) of crystalline RE-silicates (1200°C) were also quantified after 1h-annealing by XRD Rietveld refinement regardless of the amorphous phase. In figure 4a, an example of XRD pattern after refinement is given for Gd₂O₃ sample. It can be seen from the residual curve that the calculated pattern accurately fits experimental data in the 10-80° (20) range. The other refinements performed on the different RE₂O₃/CAS diffractograms were also suitable for phase indexation and phase quantification. Recalculated Bragg peaks position for RE-cyclosilicate compounds was

consistent with the available $Ca_3Y_2(Si_3O_9)_2$ crystalline structure data [23]. The volume fraction of the different RE-silicates dispersed in the whole sample is reported in a diagram (Fig. 4b). In addition, it can be noticed that the increase in the amount of RE₂O₃ to 30 wt.% does not modify the nature of the precipitated phases compared to the previous CAS-bead samples.

For Nd₂O₃ and Sm₂O₃, quantification results in 100 vol. % of crystalline RE-apatite which is consistent with the observed absence of RE-cyclosilicate precipitation in glass beads in this time scale. The RE-apatite proportion in Gd₂O₃ and Dy₂O₃ samples decreases respectively to 83 and 51 vol. % fraction (i.e. 89 and 63 wt. %). Conversely, the volume fraction of RE-cyclosilicate which crystallizes increases to respectively 17 and 49 vol. % (i.e. 11 and 37 wt. %) for Gd₂O₃ and Dy₂O₃. Phase quantification for Yb₂O₃ yields the highest amount of precipitated Yb-cyclosilicate (52 vol. % i.e. 40 wt. %) and the presence of Yb₂Si₂O₇, Yb-apatite at 20 vol. % and 29 vol. % (i.e. 23 wt. % and 37 wt. %) respectively. This clearly confirms the favorable tendency toward forming RE-cyclosilicate in the order Nd₂O₃<<u>Sm₂O₃<<u>Gd₂O₃</u><<u>Yb₂O₃</u>.</u>

3.2 Dissolution kinetics and solubility limits

3.2.1 Indirect RE₂O₃ dissolution

The RE content (in at. %) dissolved in CAS melt in RE_2O_3/CAS samples was measured by EPMA for durations comprised between 5 min and 72h. The evolution of this content as a function of the square root of time was then plotted in figure 5. Due to differences in crystallization kinetics previously described, spot analyses were performed in the vicinity of different RE-silicates (at 10 µm) according to the considered RE_2O_3 .

The high dispersion in the values of RE amount for all RE_2O_3 during early stage of dissolution can be noticed from standard deviation (resulting from 10 analyses) in figure 5 ab. This indicates that RE is still not homogeneously incorporated on the whole sample within the 10 μ m area. For longer times, local equilibrium conditions between CAS melt and RE-silicates are attained resulting in very low dispersion values.

The evolution of Gd amount in CAS melt with time (Fig. 5a) has already been described and analysed in a previous work [13]. The rapid rise in Gd content during short times durations is associated with Gd-apatite dissolution as it quickly surrounds the initial

 Gd_2O_3 . This metastable phase sufficiently remains in contact with CAS melt over time to reach a saturation concentration i.e. Gd-apatite solubility limit. For longer times (> 4h) Gd-cyclosilicate precipitation and growth lead to a drop in Gd amount in CAS melt tending toward new equilibrium concentration. Measurements for Nd₂O₃ and Sm₂O₃ (Fig. 5a), only provide information on RE-apatite crystals dissolution. For both oxides, a concentration plateau is quickly reached before 4h indicating that dissolution kinetics is relatively high. This saturation value is related to metastable equilibrium between RE-apatite and CAS melt. A drop in RE amount induced by RE-cyclosilicate precipitation would be expected for longer times, as for Gd₂O₃. For Dy₂O₃ and Yb₂O₃ (Fig. 5b), a rapid crystallization of RE-cyclosilicate occurs for very short times in addition to the precipitation of apatite. The kinetics thus corresponds to a slower equilibration process. Saturation plateau is reached after 4h and 8h for Dy₂O₃ and Yb₂O₃ respectively. The RE saturation concentration in the melt for the different RE₂O₃ as well as CAS composition are reported in table 4.

These saturation values may be associated to RE-apatite solubility limit in CAS for Gd_2O_3 , Sm_2O_3 and Nd_2O_3 . For Yb₂O₃ and Dy₂O₃ the saturation values cannot be reliably assigned to the RE-cyclosilicate solubility limit. Indeed, successive and independent measurements around RE-apatite and RE-cyclosilicate were not achievable as both RE-silicate phases were present for short times. The RE amount incorporated in CAS melt at 1200°C increases in the order Yb₂O₃ < Dy₂O₃ < Gd₂O₃ < Sm₂O₃ < Nd₂O₃. In addition, it must be noted that the composition of the CAS melt is lightly modified due to the dissolution of rare earth oxides and to the precipitation of silicate phases. However, no significant variation in CAS melt composition is observed between the different RE₂O₃ despite the precipitation of different silicate phases (RE-apatite or RE-cyclosilicate). This is in agreement with the 1200°C isothermal section of CAS diagram predicting a narrow liquid region around eutectric composition [24]. For all RE₂O₃, anorthite is precipitated and observed to be in equilibrium with CAS melt containing up to 6.50 at. % of Al.

3.2.2 Direct dissolution of synthetic RE-cyclosilicate

Experiments in section 3.1 showed that interactions between RE_2O_3 and CAS led to the stabilization of RE-cyclosilicate whatever the considered RE was (assuming Nd_2O_3 would also form Nd-cyclosilicate in CAS). However, RE-cyclosilicate solubility limit could not be properly determined in the timescale. Indeed, RE-cyclosilicate precipitation is never observed for Nd, and after a very long duration (160h) for Sm. For Yb and Dy samples, the RE content in melt is the result of the different RE-silicates dissolution, which might also involve important changes in the CAS composition. Thus, the melt composition may correspond to RE oversaturation due to apatite or disilicate dissolution and uncertainties remain if the RE equilibrium saturation for cyclosilicate is reached in such device after long-term exposure at 1200°C.

It is therefore required to also study RE-cyclosilicate crystals dissolution in CAS melt. For this, CAS-bead mixtures containing the different RE-cyclosilicate powders (previously elaborated via solid state synthesis) were annealed at 1200°C for various durations.

SEM observations (not shown here) reveal that direct dissolution took place between the synthesized RE-cyclosilicate and CAS melt. Moreover, the dissolution of the different RE-cyclosilicates did not lead to intrinsic crystallization of CAS melt. For longer times up to 144h, RE-cyclosilicate was the unique phase finally coexisting with CAS melt in all samples. This may confirm previous observations made on RE₂O₃/CAS beads which suggested a thermodynamic equilibrium between RE-cyclosilicate and CAS melt at 1200°C. However, the final CAS melt composition has to be comparable in both cases to validate such a statement.

Therefore, EPMA measurements were also performed in the vicinity of REcyclosilicate during dissolution process. The evolution of RE content dissolved in CAS melt *vs.* square root of time is reported on Fig. 6 a-b for various RE-cyclosilicate/CAS mixtures. For all samples, time to reach RE equilibrium concentration varies according to the considered RE-cyclosilicate. Indeed, equilibration kinetics of Yb and Dy-cyclosilicate in CAS (Fig. 6b) are faster than for Nd, Sm-cyclosilicate and in a lesser extent than for Gdcyclosilicate (Fig. 6a). An increasing saturation value referring to RE-cyclosilicate solubility limit is noticed from Yb to Nd isomorph compounds.

These values are reported in table 5 as well as local CAS composition around the REcyclosilicate crystals. Contrary to the compositions established from the dissolution of RE_2O_3 powders (table 4), this CAS melt composition becomes richer in Ca and lower in Si and Al. This is in accordance with the dissolution of Ca-rich Ca₃RE₂(Si₃O₉)₂ cyclosilicate. However, the differences in CAS composition resulting from RE₂O₃/CAS and RE-cyclosilicate/CAS experiments (table 4 vs table 5) are relatively low due to the limited liquid field in CaO-Al₂O₃-SiO₂ system at 1200°C [24]. This implies that both systems may reasonably be considered as comparable and that RE-cyclosilicate is stable in CAS whatever the RE-oxide mixed with $(RE_2O_3 \text{ or RE-cyclosilicate})$.

4. Discussion

The discussion of the results is based on the CaO-SiO₂-REO_{1.5} produced by Poerschke *et al.* at 1400°C (with RE = Gd and Y) [11,12]. Indeed, the nature of the precipitated phases observed here is the same for all the rare earths considered in this study, and none of them contains Al. However, the reader must keep in mind that the liquid domains of the phase diagrams might be modified as (i) the results discussed here were produced at 1200°C, and (ii) the initial molten silicate contains alumina Al₂O₃. Indeed, in the case of this study, the existence of a liquid domain enriched in SiO₂ is possible at 1200°C, due to the existence of a eutectic in the CaO-SiO₂-Al₂O₃ system.

The dissolution mechanism for all the rare earths is the same as that of Gd_2O_3 [13] and results in a very fast formation of RE-apatite at the interface with RE₂O₃. The apatite phase is locally in equilibrium with the oxide but not with the melt. This drives soon thereafter the REapatite dissolution into the unsaturated CAS to form the more stable cyclosilicate phase overtime. However, differences can be observed between the various RE₂O₃ on the solubility limits in CAS melt, as well as on the reaction kinetics and the RE-silicates crystal growth.

In nuclear aluminoborosilicate glasses [25, 26], in addition to the spontaneous precipitation of RE-apatites, they **also** noticed the more favorable formation when the ionic radius of the incorporated rare earth is close to that of Ca^{2+} . Indeed, apatite structure offers two types of sites for cationic species with high coordination numbers (i.e. more favorable for large cations): 6h sites and 4f sites with coordination numbers of 7 and 9 respectively. All 6h sites are occupied by 6 RE³⁺ cations whereas 4f sites are occupied by both RE³⁺ and Ca²⁺ cations. The two types of cations occupy 4f sites, and the larger the RE³⁺ cations are, the more favorable the formation of apatite phase is. The values reported in Table 6 clearly show that the difference of ionic radii between Ca²⁺ and RE³⁺ is maximum for Yb³⁺ and minimum for Nd³⁺. This can explain, here, the favored precipitation of RE-apatite when ionic radii are increasing from Yb to Nd. Furthermore, assuming the same trend in stability as that of Ca-free apatites (with RE = La, Sm, Nd and Gd) [27], the formation enthalpy for Ca₂RE₈(SiO₄)₂ would effectively become lower (more favorable) when the ionic radius of rare earth increases (from Yb to Nd).

On the contrary, data concerning the formation enthalpies of RE-cyclosilicate $Ca_3RE_2Si_6O_{18}$ phases (which is isotype of $Ca_3Y_2Si_6O_{18}$ [23]) are not available. Due to its crystal structure, the precipitation of cyclosilicate might involve a complicated rearrangement of the silicate network to three-fold rings of Si₃O₉. This may explain the much faster crystallization of apatite over cyclosilicate. In the case of nuclear glasses [25], the formation of a phase with formula $Ca_{1-3x}RE_{2x}SiO_3$ (with x ~ 0.18) has been observed and may be similar to cyclosilicate. The precipitation of this phase seems to be favored for the rare earths with smaller ionic radii (from Y to Lu), which is consistent with the results observed here. In cyclosilicate phases, the cations can occupy 3 kinds of sites with coordination numbers of 6 (1 site), 7 (2 sites) and 8 (3 sites) [23]. The 3 types of sites are occupied by both Ca^{2+} and Y^{3+} cations: the smallest sites (CN = 6) are preferentially occupied by the small cations (i.e. Y^{3+}), and the largest sites (CN = 8) are preferentially occupied by the large cations (i.e. Ca^{2+}).

The late formation of cyclosilicate for the rare earths with larger ionic radius might be due (i) to the antagonist effects of the RE^{3+} cations size on the crystal structure and on the stability of both apatite and cyclosilicate phases, (ii) to kinetics aspects linked for instance to a modification of the glass network (number of three-fold rings of Si₃O₉) depending of the amount and the nature of RE^{3+} dissolved in the melt.

The reactivity of RE₂O₃ in silicate melts can also be discussed in considering the oxobasicity theory [29], which is linked to the polarization of the M-O bond. Many equivalent criteria based on the RE effective charge (Z) and ionic radius (r) account for bond strength such as cation polarizability, RE ionic potential (Z/r) or RE³⁺ cation field strength (Z/r²) [30]. The optical basicity concept can also be used to define metal oxides weakly bonded [31]. Cation field strength (Z/r²) of the different RE³⁺ cations has thus been evaluated and reported in table 6. In a first approach, ionic radii corresponding to a coordination number equal to 6 have been chosen [32]. On figure 7, we have reported the solubility limits of RE in CAS, determined from RE₂O₃ and RE-cyclosilicate dissolution experiments (tables 4 and 5), as a function of RE³⁺ field strength. When starting from cyclosilicate powders, Ca₃RE₂(Si₃O₉)₂ is the unique and the stable phase overtime, the reported values (filled circles) are thus the solubility limit of this phase in CAS at 1200°C.

When starting from RE_2O_3 , with RE = Nd, Sm or Gd, only RE-apatite is in contact with CAS for several hours. Consequently, the at. %(RE) values reported in figure 7 (filled

squares) are the solubility limits of the corresponding RE-apatites. Those values are higher than that for the stable cyclosilicate, which is characteristic of a RE oversaturation in the CAS. For Dy and Yb, the situation is different as several phases simultaneously precipitate: the measured RE contents can thus not be compared to those obtained with the other rare earths. Additional experiments have therefore been performed at higher temperatures (from 1250°C to 1400°C) to promote RE-apatite crystallization. Durations of 4 hours have been chosen, with addition of 20 wt. % RE₂O₃ in CAS. The aim was to measure the solubility limit of the high temperature phase and then to extrapolate it down to 1200°C assuming Arrhenius temperature dependence. Linear correlation between ln (at. %(RE)) and the reciprocal temperature has been found (Fig. 8). In the case of dysprosium, only apatite is detected at high temperature, and the value extrapolated at 1200°C (1.10 at. %(Dy)) is close to the measured one (1.17 at. %(Dy), table 4). This confirms that the measured value, despite the presence of precipitated cyclosilicate, is a dysprosium oversaturation in the melt, corresponding to metastable equilibrium between Dy-apatite and CAS melt.

The behavior of ytterbium is different as the stable phase observed at high temperature is not Yb-apatite but disilicate Yb₂Si₂O₇. The extrapolation of Yb content down to 1200°C leads to a value of 1.75 at. %(Yb) which is much higher than the measured one (0.99 at. %(Yb), table 4). Considering the high difference between these values, it can be assumed that the measured Yb content is not the solubility limit of Yb-disilicate. However, it cannot be really stated that it corresponds to the Yb-apatite solubility limit.

Thus, the two sets of data displayed on figure 7, are associated to the solubility limit in CAS melt at 1200°C of the different RE-apatites and RE-cyclosilicates. It can be first observed that the RE equilibrium concentration in the liquid with respect to RE-cyclosilicate is systematically lower than that of RE-apatite phase. This is in accordance with the greater stability of cyclosilicate in this system. In addition, the figure 7 clearly shows that the driving force for both apatite and cyclosilicate dissolution process significantly increases with its basicity.

Indeed, to dissolve in melts, RE_2O_3 reacts with silicate network according to an acidbase reaction, RE_2O_3 and CaO are basic oxides and SiO₂ is an acidic oxide. In the case of this CAS, which is peralkaline (CaO/Al₂O₃ >1), silica SiO₂ and alumina Al₂O₃ are network formers whereas RE_2O_3 and CaO are network modifiers. The latter, would convert Si-O bridging oxygen (B.O) into non-bridging oxygen (NBO) to enter in the glass structure. Consequently, the dissolution of RE_2O_3 in acidic CAS will increase with its basicity. The link between acido-basicity and cation solubility has also been highlighted on the dissolution of chromium species in molten silicates [33]. On one hand, Cr^{VI} which has a small radius and a high electric charge (and thus a high Z/r^2) is very acidic and exhibits a higher solubility limit when it is dissolved in silicate melts of increasing basicity. On the other hand, basic Cr^{II} (low Z/r^2) sees its solubility limit increasing in melts with low basicity. In the same way, similar behavior is observed for cerium (Ce^{III} and Ce^{IV}) in borosilicate melts [34, 35].

5. Conclusion

The influence of rare earth on the reaction kinetics, solubility limits and phase equilibria of RE_2O_3 and $Ca_3RE_2(Si_3O_9)_2$ (RE = Nd, Sm, Gd, Dy, Yb) was studied at 1200°C in pseudo-ternary CAS melt using powders enclosed in glass-beads. This investigation follows previous work on Gd_2O_3 dissolution mechanisms in CAS, which is relevant to the development of CMAS resistant TBC.

For all RE₂O₃, indirect dissolution in CAS melt first occurred and was controlled by interface reaction resulting in RE-apatite formation. The kinetics of RE-apatite crystal growth and their solubility limit was found to be enhanced for Nd, Sm and Gd compared to Yb and Dy. During early-stage of interaction, Yb-disilicate was competitively crystallized around Yb₂O₃ powders. For longer durations, RE-cyclosilicate phase, which precipitates at the expanse of metastable RE-apatite, was observed to be in equilibrium with CAS melt. Delay in RE-cyclosilicate phase nucleation increases from few minutes for Yb and Dy, to few hours for Gd and to hundred hours for Sm (and probably more for Nd). This delayed nucleation might be purely kinetic and/or linked to the respective stabilities of RE-apatites and RE-cyclosilicates.

The dissolution of synthetic RE-cyclosilicate in CAS melt was then investigated, exhibiting direct dissolution. The solubility limit and the time to reach equilibrium conditions were noticed to increase from Yb to Nd. RE-cyclosilicate solubility limits were also found to be lower than that of RE-apatite and disilicate phases. Relative stabilities of RE-apatite and RE-cyclosilicate were discussed in the light of crystal chemistry as well as thermodynamic considerations such as free energy of formation. The network modifier role of RE cations and

the cation field strength (Z/r^2) - which accounts for RE-O bond strength in crystals - were also used to describe RE-silicates (RE-apatite and RE-cyclosilicate) acid-base dissolution in CAS melt. Indeed, the RE solubility of the apatites or cyclosilicates coexisting with CAS melt was found to be inversely related to the magnitude of the different RE cation field strengths.

The results obtained on the behavior of rare-earth oxides in CAS melt may help in a comparative study of rare-earth zirconates interaction with CMAS. Indeed, it has been shown that RE cations with large radius will provide the larger volume of apatite during early stage of the reaction with CAS, which would be more effective to limit CMAS infiltration. However, as the RE-apatite solubility limit would be high, increasing from Gd to Nd, (considering also that large RE cations rather partition into the apatite than into the fluorite phase [14]), the amount of RE₂O₃ required to initiate RE-apatite precipitation would be higher, resulting in a higher TBC coating recession. The appearance of secondary phases with lowers RE solubility in melt, such as RE-cyclosilicates, may however be beneficial as they act as diffusion barriers between the sealing layer and the CMAS, thus limiting apatite redissolution.

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Figures

Figure 1. SEM micrographs of different RE_2O_3/CAS beads section annealed at 1200°C for 5 min. $RE_2O_3 = Nd_2O_3$ (a), Sm_2O_3 (b), Gd_2O_3 (c) and Dy_2O_3 (d).



Figure 2. Low (a) and high (b) magnification SEM micrograph of a Yb₂O₃/CAS bead section annealed at 1200°C for 5 min. And corresponding Yb (L α) (c) and Ca (K α) (d) EDS elemental maps. The insert in figure 2a shows Yb₂O₃ surrounded by Yb-apatite crystals.



Figure 3. SEM micrographs of different RE_2O_3/CAS beads section annealed at 1200°C for 72 h: Gd_2O_3 (a), Dy_2O_3 (b), Nd_2O_3 (c) and Sm_2O_3 (d). And annealed at 1200°C for 160 h: Nd_2O_3 (e) and Sm_2O_3 (f).



Figure 4. Rietveld refinement on XRD pattern of a 30/70 % wt. Gd_2O_3/CAS powder mixture annealed at 1200°C for 1 h (a). And RE-silicates (RE-apatite, RE-cyclosilicate and $RE_2Si_2O_7$) quantitative phase analysis of the different 30/70 % wt. RE_2O_3/CAS powder mixture ($RE_2O_3 = Nd_2O_3$, Sm_2O_3 , Gd_2O_3 , Dy_2O_3 and Yb_2O_3) annealed 1 h at 1200°C (b).



Figure 5. Evolution of the RE dissolved content in CAS melt at 1200°C as a function of the square root of time for Gd_2O_3 , Sm_2O_3 and Nd_2O_3 (a) and Yb_2O_3 , Dy_2O_3 (b) CAS beads mixture.



Figure 6. Evolution of the RE dissolved content in CAS melt at 1200°C as a function of the square root of time for Gd, Sm and Nd-cyclosilicate (a) and Yb, Dy-cyclosilicate (b) CAS beads mixture.



Figure 7. RE solubility limits in CAS melt at 1200° C of the different RE-silicate phases (REapatite and RE-cyclosilicate) determined from RE₂O₃ and RE-cyclosilicate dissolution experiments, as a function of cation field strength. Optical basicity (OB) values of RE₂O₃ have also been reported on the X-axis.



Figure 8. Arrhenius plot of the RE content dissolved in CAS (ln(At.%RE)) as a function of the reciprocal temperature (1/T) for Yb₂O₃ and Dy₂O₃/CAS beads mixture annealed at 1400, 1350, 1300 and 1250°C for 4 h and then extrapolated down to 1200°C.



Tables

Table 1. Purity, median granulometry and crystalline structure of the different RE_2O_3 commercial powders

	Nd ₂ O ₃	Sm ₂ O ₃	Gd_2O_3	Dy ₂ O ₃	Yb ₂ O ₃
Supplier	Treibacher	Treibacher	Cerac	Ampere	Treibacher
Purity (%)	99.87	99.99	99.90	>99.90	99.99
$d_{50}(\mu m)$	2.20	3.60	/	3.00	1.03
Crystal. structure	Hexagonal	Mono + cubic	Cubic	Cubic	Cubic

Table 2. Overall composition in mol. % of single cation oxide for the CAS+RE-oxidemixtures (RE = Nd & Yb) and correlation with the wt. % of solute added to CAS

Solute	W/+ 0/	Composition in mol. % of singe cation oxide				
	VV L. 70	CaO	AlO _{1.5}	SiO ₂	REO _{1.5}	
/	/	<mark>24.1</mark>	<mark>16.9</mark>	<mark>58.9</mark>	/	
Yb_2O_3	10	<mark>23.4</mark>	<mark>16.4</mark>	57.1	<mark>3.1</mark>	
Nd_2O_3	<mark>15</mark>	22.8	<mark>16.0</mark>	<mark>55.6</mark>	<mark>5.7</mark>	
Yb-Cy	15	<mark>24.4</mark>	<mark>15.4</mark>	<mark>58.5</mark>	1.7	
Nd-Cy	<mark>60</mark>	<mark>25.1</mark>	11.8	<mark>57.6</mark>	<mark>5.5</mark>	

Table 3. Timeline of the different RE_2O_3/CAS reactive sequence after annealing beads mixtures at 1200°C.

Silicate melt	Solute	RE ₂ O ₃ entirely converted	RE-apatite formation	RE- cyclosilicate formation
CAS	Nd_2O_3	\leq 5 min	\leq 5 min	>160 h
CAS	Sm_2O_3	15 min	$\leq 5 \min$	160 h
CAS	Gd_2O_3	90 min	$\leq 5 \min$	90 min
CAS	Dy_2O_3	4 h	\leq 5 min	\leq 5 min
CAS	Yb_2O_3	24 h	$\leq 5 \min$	$\leq 5 \min$

Table 4. EPMA elemental composition of CAS glasses (averaged from the 4 latest points at the plateau) in contact with RE-apatite or RE-cyclosilicate obtained from RE_2O_3 indirect dissolution reaction.

Silicate	Solute	Phase in	CAS comp. at the plateau (at. % and mol % of single cation oxide)				
melt		with CAS	Ca	Al	Si	RE	0
CAS th	eoretical co	mposition	9.0	6.3	22.1	0.00	62.6
en is u	leoreneur et	inposition	24.1	<mark>16.9</mark>	<mark>58.9</mark>	<mark>0.00</mark>	4
CAS	Nd_2O_3	Ар	8.75 (0.07)	6.24 (0.03)	21.00 (0.04)	1.54 (0.02)	62.47 (0.07)
			23.32 (0.17)	16.63 (0.07)	55.94 (0.14)	4.11 (0.06)	/
CAS	Sm_2O_3	Ap	8.70 (0.05)	6.25 (0.05)	21.14 (0.05)	1.41 (0.02)	62.49 (0.08)
			23.20 (0.12)	16.66 (0.12)	56.37 (0.15)	3.77 (0.05)	/
CAS	Gd_2O_3	Ap	8.80 (0.03)	6.50 (0.02)	21.00 (0.02)	1.30 (0.03)	62.40 (0.04)
			23.31 (0.06)	17.18 (0.05)	56.05 (0.08)	3.46 (0.08)	4
CAS	Dy_2O_3	Су	8.60 (0.13)	6.47 (0.07)	21.21 (0.15)	1.17 (0.03)	62.54 (0.13)
			22.86 (0.25)	17.21 (0.09)	56.82 (0.20)	3.11 (0.04)	/
CAS	Yb_2O_3	Су	8.94 (0.05)	6.25 (0.02)	21.33 (0.03)	0.99 (0.07)	62.48 (0.11)
			23.82 (0.12)	16.66 (0.04)	56.85 (0.10)	2.66 (0.18)	/

Table 5. EPMA elemental composition of CAS glasses (averaged from the 3 latest points at the plateau for Yb, Dy and Gd-cyclosilicate/CAS beads) obtained from direct dissolution of synthetic RE-cyclosilicate.

Silicoto		Phase in	CAS complete the plateau (at $\frac{1}{2}$ and mol $\frac{1}{2}$ of single cation oxide)				
Sincate	Solute	I hase hi	CAS comp	. at the plateau (at. // and mor /	o of single cau	on oxide)
melt		contact	Ca	Al	Si	RE	0
		with CAS					
CAS th	eoretical co	mnosition	9.0	6.3	22.1	0.00	62.6
C/ 15 ti		mposition	<mark>24.1</mark>	<mark>16.9</mark>	<mark>58.9</mark>	<mark>0.00</mark>	4
CAS	Nd-Cy	Су	9.31 (0.05)	5.26 (0.06)	21.52 (0.06)	1.18 (0.06)	62.73 (0.08)
			24.98 (0.14)	14.11 (0.17)	57.75 (0.20)	3.16 (0.16)	X
CAS	Sm-Cy	Су	9.27 (0.07)	5.79 (0.19)	21.18 (0.27)	1.10 (0.11)	62.66 (0.25)
			24.83 (0.14)	15.51 (0.49)	56.72 (0.83)	2.95 (0.28)	<mark>/</mark>
CAS	Gd-Cy	Су	9.11 (0.03)	5.84 (0.04)	21.65 (0.03)	0.91 (0.03)	62.49 (0.05)
			24.30 (0.07)	15.53 (0.09)	57.74 (0.09)	2.43 (0.08)	<u>/</u>
CAS	Dy-Cy	Су	9.38 (0.05)	5.64 (0.11)	21.68 (0.16)	0.77 (0.05)	62.53 (0.11)
			25.04 (0.17)	15.05 (0.31)	57.86 (0.37)	2.05 (0.13)	<u>/</u>
CAS	Yb-Cy	Су	9.42 (0.06)	5.59 (0.07)	21.82 (0.04)	0.69 (0.03)	62.48 (0.07)
			25.10 (0.13)	14.90 (0.19)	58.16 (0.09)	1.83 (0.07)	X

Table 6. Optical basicity of the different RE₂O₃, RE ionic radius in coordination number VI and relative difference with Ca ionic radius $\Delta r/r_0$ (%), RE cation field strength Z/r² (Z : effective charge and r : ionic radius).

	Optical Basicity (OB)	Ionic (+III) radius (VI, Å)	%∆r/r ₀ (Ca-RE/Ca)	Z/r² (VI)
Nd_2O_3	1.01	0.983	1.7	3.10
Sm_2O_3	0.98	0.958	4.2	3.27
Gd_2O_3	0.97	0.938	6.2	3.41
Dy_2O_3	0.95	0.912	8.8	3.61
Yb_2O_3	0.89	0.868	13.2	3.98
CaO	1.00	1.000	/	2.00