1. INTRODUCTION

Mackinawite, a tetragonal sulfur-deficient iron (II) sulfide of composition FeS₁₋ₓ, with 0 < x < 0.07 (Vaughan and Craig, 1978) is an important earth mineral. First, it can contain significant amounts of Ni, Co and Cu, and is known as a major ore mineral for Ni and Co. Second, mackinawite may entrap heavy pollutant metals like Cr and As, thus playing an important role in the remediation of contaminated sites (Patterson et al., 1997; Holmes, 1999). Finally, the discovery of life forms adapted to the warm anoxic environments of sea-floor hydrothermal systems, and the known sulfur-metabolizing ancient bacteria, has suggested that the emergence of life on earth could have occurred from anoxic iron sulfide environments.

At low temperatures, the most common phases of the Fe-S systems are “amorphous FeS” that transforms on ageing into mackinawite, greigite (Fe₃S₄), pyrrhotite (Fe₇S₈), marcasite (FeS₂, orthorhombic), pyrite (FeS₂, cubic) and troilite (FeS). The importance of mackinawite lies mainly in its role as a precursor to the formation of most other iron sulfide phases (Rickard, 1969a; Patterson et al. 1997). The formation of mackinawite takes place in recent sediments (Berner, 1967) via sulphate-reducing bacteria, and in presently active hydrothermal systems or near midocean ridges (Vaughan and Craig, 1978). The biologic process is the result of the oxidation of organic matter that occurs through bacterial reduction of sulphate correlative to the production of hydrogen sulfide. Hydrogen sulfide then reacts with iron species from detritus or other sources to form an amorphous precipitate which, within days, crystallizes to the more stable mackinawite.

A direct precipitation mechanism between iron and sulfide species is also encountered in hydrothermal sulfide deposits associated with volcanic activity.

The mackinawite structure of P4/nmm space group consists of a distorted cubic-packed array of sulfur atoms with iron in some of the tetrahedral interstices but vacancies in the larger octahedral spaces (Taylor and Finger, 1970). Iron atoms are at the centre of slightly distorted tetrahedra sharing edges to form sheets (Fig. 1). These are stacked along the c axis, with only weak Van der Waals forces holding them together. Moreover, mackinawite is able to accommodate cations in excess in the large octahedral vacancies of the structure (Vaughan, 1970), thus explaining why natural mackinawite appears commonly with significant amounts of metals other than iron (Vaughan, 1970; Mukherjee and Sen, 1991).

Two major ways for synthesizing mackinawite are encountered in the literature; they involve either the precipitation of aqueous Fe(II) (Rickard, 1969a; Patterson et al. 1997) or the reaction of metallic iron (Berner, 1964, Lennie et al., 1995) with a dissolved sulfide solution. Electrochemical synthesis under an applied potential has also been reported (Yamaguchi and Moori, 1972; Bezdicka et al., 1989). Dry synthesis is less usual (Takeno et al., 1982) where dry iron sulfide melts with contents of either Co and/or Ni or Cu were heated to high temperatures and chilled; re-equilibration of the products at different temperatures then resulted in the mackinawite formation.

Up till now, most information reported in the literature concerns the more thermodynamically stable iron sulfide phases such as pyrrhotite and pyrite. In fact, mackinawite is very reactive toward oxygen and important efforts must be made to avoid oxidation making it difficult to characterize.
Therefore, there are either a lack of information or discrepancies reported in the literature that concern the surface and bulk oxidation states as well as the magnetic and structural properties of mackinawite (Morice et al., 1969; Vaughan and Ridout, 1971; Herbert et al., 1998). However, the knowledge of these data is of utmost importance in assessing the mackinawite reactivity and in particular its ability to transform to more stable phases like pyrite. In this study, mackinawite was synthesized from metallic iron and an aqueous sulfur solution and characterized by using X-ray diffraction (XRD), transmission electron microscopy (TEM), transmission Mössbauer spectroscopy (TMS) and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). The data yielded new information concerning the oxidation state and structural properties of synthetic mackinawite. They also may help for understanding the formation of the more stable phase greigite from the mackinawite structure.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

2.1. Mackinawite Synthesis

The reactivity of mackinawite with oxygen required great care for preventing its oxidation during synthesis and subsequent handling. All reagents were thus prepared using de-ionised distilled water (ca 18 MΩ−1) that had been purged by bubbling nitrogen during thirty minutes. Moreover, the mackinawite synthesis and the preparation of samples for analyses were conducted in a nitrogen-purged Jacomex® controlled atmosphere glovebox.

Mackinawite was synthesized according to the method described by Lennie et al. (1995). An iron wire of 5 g was immersed in 500 cm³ of a 0.5M acetic acid/acetate buffer (pH = 4.6). Partial dissolution of the iron wire by reaction with the acetate buffer (~3.5 h) evolved H₂ gas and provided a reducing environment. 30 cm³ of a 0.45M Na₂S solution was then slowly added to the reaction vessel and black particles immediately precipitated. This solution was allowed to stand open for 24 h. The remnant iron wire was then removed and the supernatant discarded. The formed mackinawite was washed and filtered several times with de-aerated and de-ionised water before being freeze-dried. To limit the storage time of mackinawite samples, analyses were performed immediately after synthesis.

2.2. Instrumentation

2.2.1. X-ray diffraction analysis (XRD)

X-ray powder diffraction patterns were obtained from a classical powder diffractometer with transmission geometry, equipped with a Mo tube (Kα, radiation, λ=0.070930 nm), a quartz monochromator and a scintillation counter. Mackinawite powder was poured into a Lindemann glass tube (1 mm diameter and 0.01 mm thick), that was sealed immediately. The mackinawite sample was step-scanned from 2 to 40°(2θ) using a step of 0.05°(θ). The angular resolution was 0.04°. However it was increased up to 0.08° due to the thickness of the Lindemann glass.

2.2.2. Transmission electron microscopy (TEM)

A Philips® CM20 transmission electron microscope operating at 120 kV and equipped with an energy dispersive spectrometer was used to examine the synthetic mackinawite sample. A suspension of mackinawite prepared in ethanol was quickly dispersed in the air onto an amorphous carbon-coated grid and loaded into the analysis holder of the microscope. Identification of mackinawite was made from both selected-area diffraction patterns and energy-dispersive analysis.

2.2.3. Transmission Mössbauer spectroscopy (TMS)

The Mössbauer spectra by transmission (TMS) were obtained by use of a constant acceleration Mössbauer spectrometer with a 50 mCi source of ⁵⁷Co in Rh. The spectrometer was calibrated with a 25 μm foil of α-Fe at room temperature and the isomer shifts δ are relative to this reference. The cryostat consisted of a closed-cycle helium Mössbauer cryogenic workstation with vibrations insulation stand manufactured by Cryo Industries of America®. Helium exchange gas was used to thermally couple the sample to the refrigerator, allowing variable temperature operation from 11 to 300 K. Computer fittings were done using Lorentzian-shape lines. The parameters that result from any computer fitting must be both mathematically (χ² minimisation) and physically significant; in particular the width of all lines must be small enough. The samples were prepared for TMS measurements in a nitrogen atmosphere in the glovebox and quickly transferred to the sample holder in a cryostat at room or low temperatures in an inert He atmosphere.

2.2.4. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS)

X-ray photoelectron spectra were obtained with a VSW HA150 MCD® electron energy analyser using a MgKα non-
monochromatic source (1253.6 eV). Energy resolution was 0.8 eV. The base pressure in the analytical chamber was of the order of $10^{-9}$ mbar. The energy scale was calibrated using the Au(4f 7/2) (84.0 eV) and Ag(3d 5/2) (368.2 eV) lines. Survey and narrow XPS spectra were obtained with an analyser pass energy of 90 and 22 eV, respectively. Raw spectra were smoothed before being fitted using a Shirley base line and a Gaussian-Lorentzian shape peak. The aliphatic adventitious hydrocarbon C(1s) peak at 284.6 eV was adopted as a check for surface charging. The mackinawite sample was pressed on a copper tape in the glovebox and quickly transferred to the XPS spectrometer under a continuous nitrogen flow. Narrow scanned spectra were used to obtain the chemical state information for iron ($E_k = 546$ eV), sulfur ($E_k = 1093$ eV) and oxygen ($E_k = 724$ eV). The inelastic mean free paths derived from the kinetic energies are in the range $10$ to 20 Å.

3. RESULTS

3.1. X-ray Diffraction Analysis (XRD)

The initial identification of synthetic mackinawite was performed using XRD. The lines of the diffraction pattern, presented in Figure 2, are indicative of a crystalline phase, with line intensities and positions in good agreement with previously reported data for mackinawite (Rickard, 1969a). Unit cell parameters derived from the diffraction pattern of Figure 2 are $a = b = 0.367$ nm and $c = 0.505$ nm. Lennie et al. (1997) observed additional reflections due to $\alpha$-Fe remaining from synthesis.

3.2. Transmission Electron Microscopy (TEM)

The synthetic mackinawite was further characterized using TEM. The examination of mackinawite particles (Fig. 3) shows irregular shape single crystals of approximately 1 to 2 μm; these particles appeared often in aggregates on the carbon grid. The quantitative dispersive energy analysis, performed on several individual particles, indicated only the presence of Fe and S with an average S:Fe atomic ratio of 0.99 and an estimated standard deviation of 0.08. This mackinawite composition agrees with that reported in the literature, that is FeS$_1-x$ with $0 < x < 0.07$ (Vaughan and Craig, 1978). Single crystals showed characteristic electron diffraction patterns consistent with mackinawite crystals lying with (001) plane parallel to the carbon grid. One example of this pattern is shown in Figure 4. No other phases were observed in TEM experiments.

3.3. Transmission Mössbauer Spectroscopy (TMS)

Transmission Mössbauer spectroscopy was used to investigate the oxidation states, structural and magnetic properties of synthetic mackinawite. Until now, few TMS data have been available for this mineral and no general agreement exists between various authors. According to Morice et al. (1969), the Mössbauer spectrum of synthetic mackinawite at room temperature is rather complex, having at least three sextets. In contrast, Vaughan and Ridout (1971) obtained one singlet, even down to 4 K (Table 1) and magnetic lines of relatively low intensity on either side of the singlet, attributed to remaining iron and greigite impurities. The Mössbauer spectrum of synthetic mackinawite obtained in the present study at room temperature over a wide velocity range ($\pm 11$ mm s$^{-1}$) is presented in Figure 5a. Although it shows good agreement with those of Vaughan and Ridout (1971), the Mössbauer spectrum presented here cannot be fitted as only one singlet that results from low spin Fe(II) in tetrahedral sites since the line looks asymmetrical. The fitting of the Mössbauer spectrum over a smaller velocity range ($\pm 3$ mm s$^{-1}$) can reasonably be described as a superimposition of elemental subspectra: one singlet $S_1$ and two doublets $D_1$ and $D_2$ as shown in Figure 5b. Corresponding hyperfine parameters are given in Table 2. According to the structure of mackinawite derived from both XRD and TEM
experiments, iron cations are only located in tetrahedral sites. Thus, singlet $S_1$, characterized by an isomer shift $\delta$ of $\sim 0.4$ mm s$^{-1}$, corresponds to low spin Fe(II) in common tetrahedral sites (Vaughan and Ridout, 1971). However, $S_1$ represents only 52% of the whole area of the spectrum and two quadrupole doublets $D_1$ and $D_2$ are superimposed to it with respective relative abundance of 19 and 29%. The isomer shift $\delta$ of the first doublet $D_1$ is different from that of the singlet $S_1$, thus characterizing iron atoms in a different oxidation state. Its $\delta$ value likely characterizes low spin Fe(III). The discrimination between octahedral and tetrahedral sites from quadrupole splitting $\Delta$ is known to be very complex for low spin compounds like mackinawite. Besides, Fe(III) could be located both in tetrahedral sites in substitution of Fe(II) atoms and in large octahedral vacancies in the structure. Although it is not possible to definitely eliminate one of these two assumptions, only tetrahedral coordination of Fe by S has been observed in EXAFS spectra of mackinawite synthesized from metallic iron and sulfide solution (Lennie and Vaughan, 1996). The second doublet $D_2$, which has the same isomer shift as singlet $S_1$, characterizes also a low spin Fe(II) but its $\Delta$ value of 0.6 mm s$^{-1}$ indicates a new environment which may be caused by the presence of an Fe(III) ion as next nearest neighbour. Thus, we interpret singlet $S_1$ as low spin Fe(II) atoms in tetrahedral sites with no Fe(III) as nearest neighbour, found in bulk mackinawite, doublet $D_1$ as Fe(III) atoms likely in tetrahedral sites and doublet $D_2$ as Fe(II) atoms in tetrahedral sites close to an Fe(III) ion. About 80% of the whole relative abundance in the Mössbauer spectrum correspond to Fe(II) atoms in tetrahedral sites and $\sim 20\%$ to Fe(III) ions if Lamb-Mössbauer factors $f$ are assumed to be equal.

The Mössbauer spectrum of synthetic mackinawite at 11 K (Fig. 5c) shows that the sample orders magnetically by lowering the temperature. An acceptable fit to the data is obtained with one singlet and two sextets. The $\delta$ value of singlet $S_1$ at 11 K is increased to 0.53 mm s$^{-1}$ by second order Doppler shift. The presence of the singlet at low temperature agrees with the literature data reported by Bertaut (1965) and Vaughan and Ridout (1971) and is still attributed to Fe(II) ions in tetrahedral sites of bulk mackinawite. The two sextets are discriminated by their values of hyperfine field, 181 and 329 kOe, and could be interpreted as iron (II) and iron (III) in agreement with the
interpretation of the Mössbauer data at room temperature. The hyperfine parameters of those sextets at 11 K deviate drastically from those of all iron oxides, which have magnetic hyperfine fields close to 500 kOe at 11 K.

3.4. X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS)

In contrast to TMS, which allows an analysis of the bulk material, XPS is only sensitive to the sample surface. The XPS survey scan of the synthetic mackinawite indicated the presence of O, C, S and Fe at the sample surface. Even by taking precautions during the synthesis and preparation of the sample for analysis, it was not possible to completely eliminate oxygen that adsorbed at the surface. Otherwise, carbon was a ubiquitous contaminant. The semiquantitative surface composition that adsorbed at the surface. Otherwise, carbon was a ubiquitous contaminant. The semiquantitative surface composition (±10%) was calculated from the peak areas (Fe(2p), S(2p) and O(1s)) and theoretical cross-sections (Scofield, 1976), which yielded approximately 19 (atomic) % O, 37% Fe and 44% S.

The narrow region spectra for Fe(2p3/2), S(2p) and O(1s) are shown in Figure 6. No charge correction was necessary. The broadband Fe(2p3/2) spectrum (Fig. 6a) presents a major contribution occurring near 707 eV, which corresponds to the binding energy of Fe(II)-S compounds (Myers et al., 1990; Nesbitt et al., 1998). The shape of this peak is very similar to that obtained by Pratt et al. (1994a) for fresh fractured pyrrhotite or by Herbert et al. (1998) for mackinawite (Herbert et al. 1998) and as calculated for the free Fe3+ ion (Gupta and Sen, 1975). Utilising only these Fe(II)-S and Fe(III)-S components to fit the Fe(2p3/2) spectrum does not achieve a good fit. Attempts to fit the data with a Fe(III)-O component proved to be unsuccessful, but a favourable fit is obtained with a Fe(II)-O component. Another contribution to the breadth of the Fe(2p3/2) spectrum (Fig. 6a) towards high binding energies may result from a Fe(II)-O environment; in fact, the Fe(II) surface may be partially coordinated by oxygen, after a brief contact with air but before oxidation occurs (Eggleston et al., 1996). Moreover, non-oxidatively Fe(II)-O sites may also result from the hydroxylation of the surface. The Fe(2p3/2) peak for Fe(II)-O is located near 709 eV (Thomas et al., 1998). For comparison, the Fe(III)-O environments, resulting from oxidation, have higher binding energies i.e., ~711 to 712 eV (Thomas et al., 1998). Therefore, inclusion of the three contributions, Fe(II)-S, Fe(II)-O and Fe(III)-S provides a good fit to the Fe(2p3/2) XPS spectrum; the interpretation is adopted as the most reasonable and demonstrates the consistency between XPS and TMS.

Each species in the S(2p) spectrum (Fig. 6b) is fitted with doublets that characterize the spin-orbit splitting of the S(2p3/2) and S(2p1/2) peaks. To adequately fit the S(2p) spectrum, three doublets with 2p3/2 component at 161.3 ± 0.1 eV and 3 multiplet peaks, each separated by ~1 eV and with peak area ratio relative to the first ferric sulfide component equal to 0.68, 0.24, and 0.11 (Table 4); this multiplet fit was in agreement with Fe(III) multiplet splitting for pyrrhotite (Pratt et al., 1994a), for mackinawite (Herbert et al. 1998) and as calculated for the free Fe3+ ion (Gupta and Sen, 1975). Utilising only these Fe(II)-S and Fe(III)-S components to fit the Fe(2p3/2) spectrum does not achieve a good fit. Attempts to fit the data with a Fe(III)-O component proved to be unsuccessful, but a favourable fit is obtained with a Fe(II)-O component. Another contribution to the breadth of the Fe(2p3/2) spectrum (Fig. 6a) towards high binding energies may result from a Fe(II)-O environment; in fact, the Fe(II) surface may be partially coordinated by oxygen, after a brief contact with air but before oxidation occurs (Eggleston et al., 1996). Moreover, non-oxidatively Fe(II)-O sites may also result from the hydroxylation of the surface. The Fe(2p3/2) peak for Fe(II)-O is located near 709 eV (Thomas et al., 1998). For comparison, the Fe(III)-O environments, resulting from oxidation, have higher binding energies i.e., ~711 to 712 eV (Thomas et al., 1998). Therefore, inclusion of the three contributions, Fe(II)-S, Fe(II)-O and Fe(III)-S provides a good fit to the Fe(2p3/2) XPS spectrum; the interpretation is adopted as the most reasonable and demonstrates the consistency between XPS and TMS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>References</th>
<th>T a (K)</th>
<th>δ b (mm s -1)</th>
<th>ΔEr c (mm s -1)</th>
<th>H d (kOe)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Morice et al. (1969)</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>0.65 ± 0.04</td>
<td>0.09 ± 0.06</td>
<td>298 ± 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.59 ± 0.04</td>
<td>0.06 ± 0.06</td>
<td>262 ± 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.62 ± 0.04</td>
<td>0.09 ± 0.06</td>
<td>228 ± 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vaughan and Ridout (1971)</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>0.2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a T, Temperature.  
b δ, Isomer shift relative to metallic iron.  
c ΔEr, Quadrupole splitting.  
d H, Hyperfine magnetic field.
S(2p) signal, is typically attributed to monosulfide species (Table 3); the second doublet is located at 163.2 eV and may correspond to polysulfides \( \text{S}_n^2 \) species (Table 3). The third doublet, which was fitted to take into account the high energy tail of the S(2p) spectrum, is attributed to elemental sulfur S(0): the sum of these two last species is 20%. A low temperature measurement (liquid nitrogen) that was performed to limit the volatilisation of sulfur clearly confirmed the contribution of elemental sulfur and polysulfides to the S(2p) spectrum. These species reveal that some oxidation of the surface may have occurred (Benning et al. 2000, Taylor et al. 1979, Boursiquot et al. 2001).

The O(1s) spectrum presented in Figure 6c is broad and is best fitted with three components at 529.5, 531.3 and 532.5 eV (Table 4). These correspond to oxide oxygen, hydroxyl groups and adsorbed water, respectively (Table 3). The oxide component supports the interpretation of the Fe(2p3/2) spectrum with a Fe(II)-O contribution.

### Table 3. Binding energies for Fe(2p3/2), S(2p) and O(1s) peaks in various model compounds in comparison with fitted peaks in Fig. 6.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Species</th>
<th>Binding energy (eV)</th>
<th>References</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fe(2p3/2)</td>
<td>707.0</td>
<td>Mycroft et al., 1990</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe(II)-S</td>
<td>707.1</td>
<td>Pratt et al., 1994b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe(II)-S</td>
<td>707.3</td>
<td>Herbert et al., 1998</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe(II)-O</td>
<td>709.5</td>
<td>McIntyre and Zetaruk, 1977</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe(III)-S</td>
<td>709.2</td>
<td>Pratt et al., 1994b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe(III)-S</td>
<td>709.7</td>
<td>Herbert et al., 1998</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe(III)-O</td>
<td>711.6</td>
<td>McIntyre and Zetaruk, 1977</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe(III)-O</td>
<td>711.7</td>
<td>Thomas et al., 1998</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe(III)-O</td>
<td>712.5</td>
<td>Thomas et al., 1998</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe(III)-O</td>
<td>714.1</td>
<td>Thomas et al., 1998</td>
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<tr>
<td>S(2p3/2)</td>
<td>161.3</td>
<td>Pratt et al., 1994b</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>O(1s)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>O(1s)</td>
<td>531.3</td>
<td>McIntyre and Zetaruk, 1977</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O(1s)</td>
<td>532.6</td>
<td>Pratt et al., 1997</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 4. Binding energies (BE), peak full width at half maximum (FWHM) and peak areas for Fe(2p3/2), S(2p3/2) and O(1s) photoelectron spectra (this study).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BE (eV)</th>
<th>FWHM (eV)</th>
<th>Area (%)</th>
<th>Chemical species</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fe(2p3/2)</td>
<td>706.8</td>
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<td>47.7</td>
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<td>Fe(2p3/2)</td>
<td>708</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
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<td>Fe(2p3/2)</td>
<td>708.5</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>21.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>163.2</td>
<td>1.5</td>
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<tr>
<td>S(2p3/2)</td>
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<td>1.5</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O(1s)</td>
<td>529.5</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>19.9</td>
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<td>O(1s)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>O(1s)</td>
<td>532.5</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>31.7</td>
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</table>

* Binding energy values are accurate to ± 0.1 eV.
* Area for S(2p) spectrum includes 2p3/2 and 2p1/2 contributions.
4. DISCUSSION

Iron monosulfide (FeS) can be produced through the reaction between metallic or ferrous iron and aqueous sulfide solutions, at low temperatures (Rickard, 1969a; Berner, 1964; Lennie et al., 1995). The synthesis in media containing sulphate-reducing bacteria has been also reported (Rickard, 1969b). Some discrepancies appear in the XRD literature data relative to this precipitated iron monosulfide. It is reported as amorphous FeS (Patterson et al., 1997; Berner, 1964), poorly crystalline FeS with only the most intense X-ray line corresponding to the (001) plane (Rickard, 1995) and finally, as well crystallized mackinawite, that is with most X-ray lines developed (Rickard, 1969a; Lennie et al., 1995). In this study, both TEM and XRD results indicate that the major reaction product between metallic iron and an aqueous sulfide solution, in acidic conditions, is a crystalline phase. The X-ray diffraction analysis gives all the strongest characteristic lines of the natural mineral (Kouvo et al., 1963). The dependence of XRD pattern upon the method of preparation explains probably the different data reported in the literature. We tried to synthesize mackinawite from both metallic iron and ferrous iron, but it clearly appeared that the better-crystallized product was obtained using metallic iron, as already observed by Lennie and Vaughan (1996).

The S:Fe ratio derived from TEM experiments agrees with the bulk mackinawite composition reported in the literature, i.e., from FeS0.93 to FeS (Vaughan and Craig, 1978). However, the semiquantitative surface composition calculated from the XPS survey scan yields to a S:Fe ratio of 1.2. Probably, elemental sulfur and polysulfide species detected in the XPS S(2p) spectrum explain this ratio. Moreover, the lack of a suitable background function for transition metal sulfides (McIntyre and Zetaruk, 1977; Pratt et al., 1994a) may also contribute to the overestimation of the S:Fe ratio. However, Berner (1964) and Rickard (1995) reported a S:Fe ratio of 1.1 for synthetic mackinawite suggesting the adsorption or coprecipitation of sulfide during synthesis.

The XPS results indicate the presence of Fe(II)-S and Fe(III)-S bond types at the mackinawite surface. The fit of the Fe(2p3/2) XPS spectrum with a Fe(III)-O component appeared unlikely and the Fe(II)-O component is the result of oxygen adsorption that probably occurred during the transfer of the mackinawite sample from the glovebox to the XPS spectrometer vacuum chamber. The presence of both Fe(II) and Fe(III) coordinated with monosulfide at the surface of mackinawite (Herbert et al., 1998) as well as at the surface of other iron (II) sulfides like pyrite FeS2 (Nesbitt and Muir, 1994) and pyrrhotite (Pratt et al., 1994a) has been previously discussed in the literature. In particular, Herbert et al. (1998) suggested that the mackinawite surface acquired a composition similar to greigite, the iron sulfide thiospinel FeS$_{2+x}$ (Fe$_{1-x}$Fe$_{2+}$)$^{2+}$S$_{2-x}$). It was even claimed that the broadness of the Fe(2p3/2) peak at the higher binding energy side of this peak could arise from the high conductivity in the (001) plane of mackinawite due to Fe-Fe interactions (Lennie and Vaughan, 1996).

The TMS analysis suggests the presence of both Fe(II) and Fe(III) in the mackinawite structure, thus supporting the XPS results. Mackinawite is a metastable iron sulfide, which transforms into sulfide phases like greigite and elemental sulfur (Posfai et al., 1998; Boursiquot et al. 2001) as well as iron (oxyhydr)oxide phases like goethite and magnetite (Benning et al. 2000; Boursiquot et al. 2001) in the presence of an oxidising agent (i.e., O$_2$, S(0), . . . ). Oxygen is not detected in the elemental analysis, despite the low sensitivity of this technique towards this light element, which is in agreement with the absence of a Fe(III)-O component in the Fe(2p3/2) component. Consequently, the formation of iron oxides to explain the presence of Fe(III) in the mackinawite structure must be discarded.

Lennie et al. (1996) postulated that greigite is formed by the partial oxidation and rearrangement of some Fe(II) atoms within the cubic close packed sulfur array of mackinawite. The Fe(III) detected in the TMS experiments reveals the presence of a weathered layer encapsulating the bulk mackinawite crystals, which would consist of both Fe(II)-S and Fe(III)-S. This layer may be poorly ordered, thus explaining why it cannot be observed in diffraction experiments. The present study is not able to discriminate if this weathering layer is formed during synthesis or sampling. In particular, every operation that consists to separate the solid phase from the solution, i.e., vacuum drying or syringe filtering, may alter the properties of the surface (Morse and Arakaki, 1993, Herbert et al. 1998).

The whole results suggest that the iron monosulfide phase synthesized in the present study by reacting metallic iron and dissolved sulfide is composed of Fe(II) and S(II) atoms with the presence of a weathered layer covering the mackinawite crystals that consists of both Fe(II) and Fe(III) bonded to S(II) atoms and in a less extent of polysulfide and elemental sulfur. The presence of Fe(III)-S should be important to understand later the mackinawite-greigite transformation from mackinawite.

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