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Capture of molybdenum in pyrite-forming sediments: Role of ligand-induced reduction by polysulfides

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Abstract—Capture of Mo by FeS₂ is an important sink for marine Mo. X-ray spectroscopy has shown that Mo forms Mo-Fe-S cuboidal clusters on pyrite. Reduction of Mo^{VI} must occur to stabilize these structures. Sulfide alone is a poor reductant for Mo, producing instead a series of Mo^{VI} thioanions (MoO_xS_{4-x}²⁻, x = 0-3). In solutions that contain both H₂S and S⁰-donors (i.e. polysulfides; dissolved S₈), Mo is transformed to Mo^{IV} or Mo^V₂ polysulfide/sulfide anions. This intramolecular reduction requires no external reducing agent. Remarkably, an oxidizing agent (S⁰ donor), rather than a reducing agent, stabilizes the reducible Mo^{VI} complex. Thiomolybdates and their reduction products do not precipitate spontaneously; solutions supersaturated by 10⁹ with respect to molybdenite, MoS₂, produce no precipitate in 40 days. In 10-minute exposures, pyrite can scavenge MoOS₃²⁻ and MoS₄²⁻ weakly at mildly alkaline pH but can scavenge an unidentified product of the S⁰-induced reduction of MoOS₃²⁻ very strongly. On the basis of these observations, a reaction pathway for Mo capture by pyrite is proposed. Conditions that favor Mo capture by this pathway also favor pyrite growth. Ascribing Mo capture simply to low redox potential is too simplistic and neglects the likely role of oxidizing S⁰-donors. The aqueous speciation of Mo in anoxic environments will be a function of the activity of zero-valent sulfur as well as the activity of H₂S(aq). *Copyright* © 2004 Elsevier Ltd

1. INTRODUCTION

Enrichment of Mo in anoxic sediments and black shales is of interest because it provides information on paleoredox conditions in sedimentary environments (Dean et al., 1997, 1999; Crusius et al., 1999; Morford and Emerson, 1999; Zheng et al., 2000a,b; Yarincik et al., 2000; Adelson et al., 2001; Nameroff et al., 2002; Dellwig et al., 2002). Fully exploiting the implications of Mo enrichment requires clarification of Mo-fixing mechanisms. Marine plankton negligibly bioconcentrate MoO_4^{-2-} , the dominant Mo species in seawater (Brumsack, 1989). Many solid surfaces, including those of clay minerals and Fe^{III} or Al oxyhydroxides, sorb MoO_4^{-2-} only weakly at mildly alkaline pH (McKenzie, 1983; Goldberg et al., 1998). Not surprisingly, therefore, MoO_4^{-2-} is conservative in the oxic ocean.

Prior work in our laboratory defines conditions under which MOQ_4^{2-} can be transformed in sulfidic waters into thiomolybdates, $MOO_xS_{4-x}^{2-}$ (Erickson and Helz, 2000; Vorlicek and Helz, 2002). Thiomolybdates are particle-reactive (Helz et al., 1996) and probably lie in the chemical pathway leading to fixed Mo in anoxic sediments. However, much remains to be learned about this pathway. Of particular interest are interactions of sulfidized Mo species with pyrite, which is the chief Mo hostphase in anoxic sediments and black shales (Raiswell and Plant, 1980; Coveney et al., 1987; Huerta-Diaz and Morse, 1992; Dellwig, et al., 2002; Müller, 2002).

The hexavalent oxidation state of Mo is preserved during stepwise reaction of MoO_4^{2-} with H_2S to form $MoO_xS_{4-x}^{2-}$. Yet, Bostick et al. (2003) show that when MoS_4^{2-} interacts with pyrite, Fe-Mo-S cuboidal clusters form. These structures

can be stable only if Mo undergoes reduction. Known Fe-Mo-S cuboidal structures contain Mo^{III} and Mo^{IV} (Mascharak et al., 1983; Osterloh et al., 2000). At what stage in the scavenging of Mo by pyrite does reduction occur? What are the reducing agents and mechanism? Most importantly, if reduction is required, does Mo enrichment in sediments or in black shales imply that a critical redox threshold was reached in the sedimentary environment?

Here, we investigate the effect of zero-valent sulfur (S⁰) on Mo chemistry in sulfidic solutions. Our results suggest that S⁰, present in sulfidic natural waters in the form of polysulfide ions (S_n^{2-}) and molecular sulfur (mainly S_8), promotes reduction of Mo^{VI}OS₃²⁻ to Mo^{IV} or possibly Mo^V polysulfido anions and that some product of this reduction has strong affinity for pyrite surfaces. Mo^{IV,V} polysulfido anions are well known in the laboratory (Draganjac et al., 1982; Pan et al., 1983; Harmer et al., 1986; Hadjikyriacou and Coucouvanis, 1987; Coucavanis et al., 1989), but their syntheses generally have involved geochemically inapplicable conditions (high Mo concentrations, organic counter ions, nonaqueous solvents, etc.).

This study was prompted by unexpected observations. During reaction of MoOS₃²⁻ to form MoS₄²⁻ in the presence of natural kaolinite, new dissolved Mo species, other than those in the Mo^{VI}O_xS_{4-x}²⁻ series, appeared in solution; simultaneously the suspended solids scavenged a minor fraction (5– 15%) of dissolved Mo (Vorlicek, 2002). From optical absorption spectra, it was clear that polysulfide ions were forming in the anoxic solutions, presumably because accessory ferric minerals in the kaolinite were oxidizing HS⁻. The same kaolinite had not scavenged MoS₄²⁻ and MoOS₃²⁻ in previous experiments, which contained too little Σ S²⁻ to produce significant amounts of polysulfides by reaction with accessory Fe^{III} minerals (Vorlicek and Helz, 2002). These observations led to the hypothesis that polysulfide ions facilitate Mo scavenging.

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2. EXPERIMENTAL METHODS

2.1. Materials

The following reagents were purchased and used as received: $Na_2B_4O_7 \cdot 10H_2O~(J.T. Baker),$ orthorhombic sulfur (Aldrich), and hexane (J.T. Baker). Cs_2MoOS_3 was synthesized as described in Erickson (1998), using a method modified after Harmer and Sykes (1980). $Na_2MoS_4 \cdot 3.5H_20$ was synthesized as described in Vorlicek and Helz (2002). Natural pyrite (MCB Reagents) was leached for 24 h in 0.1 mol/L HCl to remove oxide coatings, then filtered and washed with 0.01 mol/L EDTA, washed with 0.1 mol/L NaHS for 24 h, filtered and washed again with water, followed by methanol and finally dried. After this, the FeS_2 was stored in a N_2 -filled glove box. The BET specific surface area of this pyrite was 0.576 m^2/g (determined by Quantachrome Instruments, Boynton Beach FL).

All test solutions were prepared in deionized H₂O and were deoxygenated by bubbling with N₂ for ~30 min. The N₂ was passed through a Ridox column (Fisher) to remove traces of O₂. Stock solutions of 0.01 mol/L MoOS₃²⁻ or MoS₄²⁻ were prepared by dissolving Cs₂MoOS₃ or Na₂MoS₄ · 3.5H₂O in deoxygenated, deionized water and were standardized by UV-vis spectroscopy. Stock solutions of 1.0 mol/L HS⁻ were prepared by bubbling H₂S (Air Products) through a deoxygenated 1 mol/L NaOH solution for ~45 min. For Runs A–E, a polysulfide stock solution was prepared by adding 500 mL of 10 mM borate buffer (pH 8.2) to 1.0 g of elemental S and bringing the mixture to 1.0 mM NaHS with the 1.0 mol/L NaHS stock solution. This was stirred for 5 d in the glove box, during which excess solid S remained visibly present.

To prepare runs with different polysulfide/sulfide ratios, filtered $(0.45 \ \mu m)$ aliquots of this polysulfide stock solution were mixed with aliquots of 1.0 mM NaHS, also containing 10 mM borate buffer at pH 8.2. Runs I-M made use of similar stock solutions containing 5.0 mM NaHS. For Runs F-H, a stock polysulfide solution was prepared by adding 25 mL of 1.0 mol/L NaHS to 0.8 g orthorhombic sulfur; the suspension was capped and allowed to age in an N2-filled glove box. This solution contained $\Sigma S^{2-} = 0.94$ mol/L at pH 8.14; solid S⁰ was visibly present. Runs F-H were prepared by dilution of the filtered stock solution. All solutions were pH-adjusted to 8.2 after mixing. Runs N and O involved a stock solution containing 3.0 mM ΣS^{2-} , 0.07 mol/L NaCl, 1 mM total Borate buffer. Run O additionally included 1.2 g/L solid S whereas Run N had no added S. The pH of both solutions was adjusted to 8.5 after addition of 0.35 mMMo OS_3^{2-} . Optical absorption spectra of final mixtures were used in combination with ΣS^{2-} , pH and ionic strength to calculate ΣS^0 and the concentrations of individual polysulfide ions (see section 2.3).

2.2. Experimental Procedures

Reactions between thiomolybdates and polysulfides were conducted at room temperature $(23 \pm 2^{\circ}C)$ under N₂ in a glove box. At various times during reactions, aliquots of test solutions were filtered into plastic centrifuge tubes using 0.45 μ m syringe filters (polysulfone membrane, Pall Gelman Laboratory). After measuring the pH of the samples and withdrawing an aliquot for ΣS^{2-} analysis, the capped tubes were passed out of the glove box and UV-vis spectra were recorded. The samples were then frozen and saved for atomic absorption spectroscopy (N₂O-acetylene flame) to determine total Mo. Before AA, samples were pretreated with BrCl to oxidize sulfide. Aluminum (1000 ppm) was used as a matrix modifier.

Thiomolybdates were monitored using UV-vis spectroscopy vs. a deionized H₂O blank. Depending on absorbance levels, 0.1 cm, 1 cm, or 10 cm quartz cuvettes were used. Extinction coefficients at 2 nm intervals between 276 and 500 nm are given by Erickson (1998) for all four thiomolybdates; additional extinction coefficients up to 700 nm for MOS_4^{2-} are reported by Vorlicek (2002).

Total sulfide (ΣS^{2-}) in stock solutions was determined by titration. Test solutions were added to ~60 mL deoxygenated, deionized water, brought to pH 13 with NaOH and titrated with HgCl₂ using a Brinkmann Metrohm 716 DMS Titrino automatic titrator equipped with a Ag/Ag₂S indicating electrode and a double junction reference electrode. The indicating electrode responds to decreasing free sulfide as HgS precipitates.

Attempts to identify Mo-polysulfido species by NMR were unsuc-

Table 1. Initial concentrations in test solutions.^a

Run	pН	I (mM)	ΣS^{2-} (mM)	[HS ⁻] ^b (mM)	ΣS ^{0b} (mM)	[S ₅ ²⁻] ^b (mM)	$[{S_4}^{2-}]^b$ (mM)	$[S_8] (aq)^b$ (nM)
	<u>^</u>							
А	8.2	2.0	1.08	1.00	0.05	0.004	0.01	0.13
В	8.2	2.2	1.16	1.02	0.273	0.032	0.048	7.4
С	8.2	2.2	1.06	0.888	0.401	0.051	0.065	25
D	8.2	2.4	1.21	0.997	0.521	0.068	0.083	33
Е	8.2	2.5	1.13	0.863	0.740	0.102	0.110	102
F	8.2	0.8	0.47	0.380	0.230	0.031	0.036	54
G	8.2	1.3	0.94	0.773	0.409	0.053	0.064	38
Н	8.2	2.5	1.88	1.56	0.768	0.099	0.124	29
Ι	8.2	5.5	4.83	4.55	0.016	0.0008	0.0004	< 0.01
J	8.2	6.3	4.80	4.20	1.19	0.140	0.210	6.7
Κ	8.2	6.8	4.92	4.14	1.84	0.231	0.305	19
L	8.2	7.0	4.73	3.78	2.49	0.329	0.390	45
Μ	8.2	7.9	4.96	3.66	3.75	0.523	0.550	117
Ν	8.5	74	3.00	2.74	0.636	0.059	0.132	0.3
0	8.5	74	3.00	2.46	1.59	0.177	0.291	3.3

 $^{\rm a}$ Initial Mo composition: runs A–H, 0.040 mM MoOS₃ $^{2-}$; runs I—M, 0.040 mM MoS₄ $^{2-}$; runs O and P, 0.35 mM MoOS₃ $^{2-}$ and 0.07 M NaCl.

^b Values calculated (see section 2.3).

cessful despite using test solutions containing 1 mM Mo, i.e., 2–5-fold greater than in the solutions used in most of this work. Twenty hour runs with a Bruker AV-400 MHz NMR equipped with a 10 mm broad band probe produced only weak signals ascribable to thiomolybdates. Experiments with and without locking on 10% D_2O were performed.

2.3. Sulfur Speciation Calculations

In addition to reporting measured initial values of pH and ΣS^{2-} , Table 1 presents initial values of HS⁻, ΣS^0 , the two principal polysulfide ions (S_5^{2-} , S_4^{2-}) and $S_8(aq)$. The latter five values were derived as follows from optical absorption spectra covering the 300–500 nm range.

The total dissolved sulfide in a solution after equilibration with elemental sulfur but before addition of any Mo compound can be represented as follows:

$$\sum S^{2^{-}} = [H_2S] + [HS^{-}] + [S_5^{2^{-}}] + [S_4^{2^{-}}] \dots$$
(1)

Brackets designate molar concentrations. Additional polysulfide ions, including protonated forms, were included in this equation in our calculations but only S_5^{2-} and S_4^{2-} were significant. By introducing the first ionization constant for H_2S (K_{H2S}) and equilibrium constants for reactions of the type,

$$(n-1) S(s) + HS^{-} \leftrightarrow S_{n}^{2-} + H^{+} \quad K_{n} = \frac{[S_{n}^{2-}] \gamma_{2} (10^{-pH})}{[HS^{-}] \gamma_{1} a_{s}^{(n-1)}} \quad (2)$$

[HS⁻]
$$\gamma_1 = \frac{\sum S^{2^-}}{\gamma_1^{-1} + \frac{10^{-pH}}{K_{H2S}} + \frac{K_5(a_s)^4}{\gamma_2(10^{-pH})} + \frac{K_4(as)^3}{\gamma_2(10^{-pH})}}$$
 (3)

Here, γ_1 and γ_2 are activity coefficients for singly and doubly charged ions (computed from the Davies equation) and a_s is the activity of zero-valent sulfur; a value of $a_s = 1$ characterizes a system saturated with solid rhombic sulfur. Values of K_n were compiled by Shea and Helz (1988), based largely on Giggenbach (1974). The molecular solubility of sulfur is given by the following equation based on a constant by Boulegue (1978):

$$K_{S8} = 1.9 \times 10^{-8} = \frac{\gamma_0[S_8]}{a_S^8}$$
(4)

Because our experiments were performed at low ionic strength, γ_0 for uncharged species (H₂S, S₈) was set to unity.

Note that by linking the thermodynamic variable, a_s , to the molar concentration of S_8 , Eqn. 4 sheds light on the physical meaning of a_s . Like the more familiar variable, pE, a_s is a virtual quantity in the sense that its value corresponds to the concentration of no one compound. Instead, its value is linked to the concentrations of all S⁰-bearing aqueous species by thermodynamic-based relationships (e.g., Eqn. 2 and 4). The scale for a_s is such that $a_s = 1$ in a system in equilibrium with rhombic sulfur.

Absorption spectra were fit interatively: a trial value of a_s was assumed and used to calculate a provisional value of [HS⁻] using Eqn. 3. The trial value of a_s and the provisional value of [HS⁻] were then used to calculate provisional values of the polysulfides and S_8 using Eqn. 2 and 4. From these provisional values, a polysulfide absorption spectrum was calculated and compared to an observed spectrum.

Absorbance =
$$\varepsilon_{ss}[S_5^{2^-}] + \varepsilon_{s4}[S_4^{2^-}] \dots$$
 (5)

Extinction coefficients (ϵ) for polysulfide species were calculated as a function of wavelength from gaussian functions (Giggenbach, 1972). Optical absorption by S₈ was neglected because its concentration was always small. Calculated and observed spectra were compared at every 2 nm between 300 and 500 nm. In subsequent iterations, a_s was adjusted to minimize the squares of the deviations between the observed and calculated spectra. Once the optimum a_s was obtained, final concentrations of all species containing S⁰ could be calculated via Eqns. 2 and 4.

When this approach was used to estimate a_s in solutions containing $MoOS_3^{2-}$ and MoS_4^{2-} , terms were added to Eqn. 5 for the absorption due to these Mo species, and the concentrations of $MoOS_3^{2-}$ and MoS_4^{2-} were also adjusted to optimize the fit by the method of least squares.

As a test of the reproducibility of this approach, a polysulfide solution having a composition similar to that of Run G but containing no Mo was sampled five times over a 48 h period. The mean and standard deviation of the five ΣS^0 values calculated from the resulting spectra were 0.482 ± 0.008 mM. A sixth sample taken after 98 h gave a higher ΣS^0 , probably because some oxidation of HS⁻ had occurred. This test suggests that the reproducibility associated with measuring values for ΣS^0 is better than $\pm 22\%$; reproducibility of S_5^{2-} and S_4^{2-} , the principal components of ΣS^0 , is comparable. Reproducibility of S_8 is ~10%.

In another test, we checked whether the calculated ΣS^0 concentrations were consistent with dilution factors used in preparing the solutions. Based on dilution factors, ΣS^0 for runs B to E and J to M should be in the ratios, 0.67:1:1.33:2. Calculated ratios in Table 1 are 0.68:1: 1.30:1.85 for B to E and 0.65:1:1.35:2.04 for J to M. Agreement is thus reasonably good. It must be noted, however, that these tests do not account fully for systematic errors that might arise from errors in extinction coefficients, equilibrium constants or activity coefficients.

One intriguing feature of the calculated results in Table 1 is that $[S_8]$ often exceeds saturation with respect to rhombic sulfur (19 nM; Eqn. 4). Runs E and M, which involve undiluted stock solutions that had been in contact with rhombic S for a week, appear to be 5- or 6-fold supersaturated with respect to solid S_{rhom} , as judged by the concentration of S_8 . Supersaturation might have arisen either because of acidification associated with final pH adjustment after filtering off S_{rhom} or because stock solutions had equilibrated with a metastable (e.g., colloidal) form of S rather than less-soluble, thermodynamically stable S_{rhom} . Natural waters near sharp redox gradients also appear to be considerably supersaturated with respect to S_{rhom} when subjected to a thermodynamic speciation analysis similar to that used here (Wang et al., 1998). This demonstrates that equilibration of aqueous sulfide solutions with particulate S at near-neutral pH is slow.

3. RESULTS

3.1. Homogeneous Reactions of $MoOS_3^{2-}$ and MoS_4^{2-} in Polysulfide Solutions

The upper panel of Figure 1 shows spectral changes occurring during reaction of $MoOS_3^{2-}$ with HS⁻ in the presence of polysulfides. Initial sulfide is large enough that most of the



Fig. 1. (top) Changes in optical absorption observed in a 1 cm cell during the course of Run F (see Table 1 for solution composition). (bottom) Illustration of a fit to one of the spectra in the upper figure; small squares represent observed absorbances at 2 nm intervals and the heavy curve through the squares shows the fitted total absorbance. Lighter weight lines near the bottom of the lower panel show fit-generated individual absorbances of the four dissolved chromophores that contribute most of the total absorbance. According to the fit, the solution in the lower panel contains 30 μ M MoOS₃^{2–} and 4 μ M MoS₄^{2–}. Because Σ Mo is 40 μ M in this experiment, 6 μ M Mo is unaccounted for at this time in the experiment. The fraction unaccounted for, Σ Mo_{Deficit}, grows to 13 μ M by 99 h.

 $MoOS_3^{2-}$ is expected on thermodynamic grounds to transform to MoS_4^{2-} . The lower panel of Figure 1 gives a representative example of a fit to one spectrum (20 h) in the upper panel. Concentrations derived from this fit are given in the caption.

Spectral changes with time in Figure 1 differ from those found when polysulfides are negligible. Without polysulfides, MoS_4^{2-} peaks centered at 318 and 468 nm grow as the $MoOS_3^{2-}$ peaks centered at 396 nm falls (Harmer and Sykes, 1980; Brule et al., 1988; Erickson and Helz, 2000). Because the molar extinction coefficient for the 468 nm MoS_4^{2-} peak (11870) is larger than that for the 396 nm $MoOS_3^{2-}$ peak (9030), the rising MoS_4^{2-} peak would become larger than the falling $MoOS_3^{2-}$ peak if stoichiometric replacement of $MoOS_3^{2-}$ by MoS_4^{2-} were occurring. This behavior clearly is not observed in the upper panel of Figure 1. Instead, loss of $MoOS_3^{2-}$ is accompanied by much less MoS_4^{2-} production, observable only at 468 nm. By the end of the experiment (99 h), ~20 μ M $MoOS_3^{2-}$ has disappeared, but less than 8 μ M MoS_4^{2-} has appeared. In the vicinity of the 318 nm MoS_4^{2-} peak, absorbance declines, rather than rises, as $MoOS_3^{2-}$ disappeares. The general decline in absorbance at all wavelengths



Fig. 2. Decay of MoOS₃²⁻ in Runs A to E, which have similar ΣS^{2-} ; faster decay rates are associated with higher initial dissolved ΣS^0 (see Table 1 for initial concentrations). Observed rate constants, k_{obs} (h⁻¹), are equal to the slopes of the lines in this plot; uncertainties are standard deviations of the slopes. The inset shows that k_{obs} values correlate with initial S₈ concentration.

below \sim 450 nm can be attributed to loss of dissolved polysulfides.

The Mo deficit that has accumulated over the course of the experiment cannot be attributed to precipitation of Mo; atomic absorption analyses show that total dissolved Mo changes by <5%. The pattern in Figure 1 is consistent with a reaction between MoOS₃²⁻ and polysulfides, producing one or more spectrally invisible products in addition to MoS₄²⁻.

Figure 2 shows the loss of $MOOS_3^{2-}$ over time in a series of experiments in which pH and ΣS^{2-} are approximately constant but ΣS^0 is varied. Again, MOS_4^{2-} is favored thermodynamically relative to $MOOS_3^{2-}$ in all runs. Concentrations of $MOOS_3^{2-}$ were calculated from spectra like those in Figure 1. Approximate linearity of the data in Figure 2 implies that $MOOS_3^{2-}$ is decomposing by a first order process; slopes of the regression lines give values for k_{obs} . However, decay of $MOOS_3^{2-}$ during the first 24 h is faster than subsequent decay, indicating that the process is more complex than a single-step, first order decay. In the absence of added S⁰ (Run A), loss of $MOOS_3^{2-}$ is very small over 120 h or 5 d (consistent with expectations from prior experience; Erickson and Helz, 2000).

Runs A–E demonstrate that increasing the initial S^0 concentration increases the rate of loss of $MOOS_3^{2-}$. In the inset to



Fig. 3. Pseudo-first-order plots of the $MoOS_3^{2-}$ loss in experiments having similar [S₈] but differing ΣS^{2-} .

Figure 2, log k_{obs} obtained from the regression lines, has been plotted as a function of the log of the initial S₈ concentration (Table 1). An excellent correlation with a slope of 0.29 is obtained. (Note that S₈ does not change greatly during runs B-E, despite its very low initial concentration, because it is buffered by S_5^{2-}/S_4^{2-} ; total S⁰ contained in these anions is large relative to the amount of Mo reacting.) Production of MoS₄²⁻ during these experiments was far smaller than the MoOS₃²⁻ loss and was scarcely quantifiable (mostly < 0.002 mM and always <0.004 mM); MoOS₃²⁻ is decaying primarily to optically invisible products. No loss in dissolved Σ Mo was detected by atomic absorption in any of these experiments.

Figure 3 shows $MOOS_3^{2-}$ loss for three test solutions containing varying ΣS^{2-} and ΣS^0 , but having similar $\Sigma S^{2-}/\Sigma S^0$ ratios. By breaking the data into segments taken before and after 20 h, this figure highlights the change in the rate of $MOOS_3^{2-}$ loss early in the these experiments. Note that the rate of $MOOS_3^{2-}$ loss in the 20–100 h time window is similar in all runs and similar to rates in Figure 2. Significantly, the rate of loss does not correlate with initial [HS⁻], [S₅²⁻] or [S₄²⁻], which vary by 3- to 6-fold (Table 1).

In an effort to explore the characteristics of the optically invisible intermediate components, we used hexane to extract S⁰ from a solution like that in run F after 30 h reaction time. As shown in Figure 4, lowering the ΣS^0 in this manner did not cause reversal of the MoOS₃²⁻ loss, but instead caused rapid



Fig. 4. Effect of hexane extraction on the absorption spectrum from a solution like that in Run F after 30 h reaction time (1 cm absorption cell; $V_{hexane}/V_{aqueous} = 1$). After extraction, the hexane contained 0.021 mM S⁰. Calculated $\Sigma Mo_{Deficit}$ was little changed before and after extraction (8.1 \pm 9.1 μ M), while MoOS₃²⁻ dropped (25.4 \rightarrow 19.6 μ M) and MoS₄²⁻ rose (6.5 \rightarrow 11.3).

doubling of the MoS_4^{2-} concentration (as well as loss of polysulfide absorbance). Fits of the two spectra suggest that most of the new MoS_4^{2-} formed at the expense of $MoOS_3^{2-}$. The dissolved Mo that was unaccounted for optically ($\Sigma Mo_{Deficit}$) remained nearly constant. Apparently the components of $\Sigma Mo_{Deficit}$ are not labile on a time scale of minutes. Because conversion of $MoOS_3^{2-}$ to MoS_4^{2-} is slow in the absence of hexane, rapid conversion in this experiment suggests that a nonpolar, hexane-soluble intermediate exists. Such an intermediate might be related to known solids like MoS_{3+n} , n = 0-3; these always-amorphous solids are thought to be composed of oligomers (Hibble et al., 2001; Afanasiev and Bezverkhy, 2002). It is plausible that such oligomers would form in hexane and serve as reaction intermediates even when the accompanying aqueous phase is undersaturated with respect to a MoS_{3+n} phase.

Figure 5 shows results of experiments to determine if MOS_4^{2-} reacts with polysulfides. Coyle et al. (1992) studied analogous reactions between MOS_4^{2-} and organic disulfides in dimethylformamide. Over ~15 min, they observed substantial loss of MOS_4^{2-} and formation of green monomers (λ_{max} 620 nm) which in turn transformed during a few hours to $Mo_2S_8^{2-}$ dimers (λ_{max} 572 nm). In contrast, Figure 5 shows that no peaks appear in the 550–650 nm region when MOS_4^{2-} is exposed even for hours to polysulfides in aqueous solution. Analyses of our spectra indicate presence only of MOS_4^{2-} and polysulfides during a contact time of up to 300 h.

The inset to Figure 5 presents evidence for a small amount of MOS_4^{2-} loss over the test period. This was observed in all five runs, but the amount of reaction was never large enough in relation to experimental uncertainty to permit a quantitative kinetic analysis. The degree of reaction appeared not to correlate with initial concentrations of dissolved S species and may have been controlled by extraneous factors such as oxidation, which even inside a glove box is difficult to eliminate in long experiments.



Fig. 5. Evidence of little or no reaction between MoS_4^{2-} and polysulfides (Runs I-M). Spectra taken after 25 h = reaction (1 cm cell). ΣS^0 increases from Run I to M. These spectra differ chiefly in the amount of polysulfide present. In all runs, the calculated concentration of MoS_4^{2-} changes very little in the first 100 h (one example shown in inset). At longer times, MoS_4^{2-} is lost slowly.

3.2. Scavenging of Thiomolybdates by Pyrite Surfaces

The effect of S⁰ on the tendency of aqueous Mo to attach to pyrite was explored in two experiments in which $MoOS_3^{2}$ was allowed to react with polysulfides in experiments similar to those shown in Figures 2 and 3. The two solutions contained 0.35 mM MoOS₃²⁻, 3.0 mM Σ S²⁻, 1.0 mM borate buffer and 70 mM NaCl. One solution, Run O, also received 1.2 g/L of powdered sulfur. Periodically, 5 mL aliquots of these solutions were filtered (0.45 μ m) into plastic centrifuge tubes containing 0.100 g pyrite, which had been prepared as described in Section 2.1. The resulting slurries contained 20 g/L pyrite (surface concentration, 11.5 m^2/L). The solutions were shaken by hand for 10 min and then filtered and removed from the glove box. Optical absorption spectra of the filtered aliquots were compared with similar 5 mL aliquots that had not been exposed to pyrite. Subsequently, atomic absorption analyses were done to determine Σ Mo.

Figure 6 shows the evolution of the Mo species during these experiments. Run N, containing less ΣS^0 than Run O, slowly produces a pool of optically invisible intermediates, represented by $\Sigma Mo_{Deficit}$. In Run O, a pool of intermediates forms rapidly and appears to reach a steady state concentration. Decay of MoOS₃^{2–} and formation of MoS₄^{2–} are faster than in Run N.

In both runs, AA-determined Σ Mo does not change within analytical uncertainty during a period of 965 h (40 d). Despite Σ Mo concentrations 1000-fold higher than in seawater, no precipitation occurs in either experiment. This result is even more striking if the degree of saturation with respect to molybdenite, MoS₂, is considered. From thermodynamic tables (Wagman et al., 1982), an equilibrium constant can be computed for MoO₄²⁻ in equilibrium with MoS₂. Combining this with a constant for equilibrium between MoO₄²⁻ and MoOS₃²⁻ from Erickson and Helz (2000) yields log K = -29.63 for MoS₂(s)+S(s)+H₂O(l) = 2H⁺+MoOS₃². Accord-



Fig. 6. Time-evolution of the solutions used in the pyrite-scavenging experiments. Run N: Low S⁰. Run O: High S⁰ (see Table 1 for solution compositions). Mo_{Total} determined by atomic absorption; MoOS₃²⁻ and MoS₄²⁻ determined by optical absorption; Σ Mo_{Defficit} determined by difference between Σ Mo and the sum of the two thiomolybdates. The rate of MoS₄²⁻ production is ~10-fold greater in Run O than would occur in a solution containing no S⁰ (the latter rate estimated from Erickson and Helz, 2000).

ing to this value of K, Run O initially was supersatured with respect to MoS_2 by $>10^9$.

Figure 7 shows the percentage of Σ Mo that can be scavenged by pyrite from the solutions in Figure 6. After 965 h, approximately 80 μ M Σ Mo in Run O has been transformed to one or more chemical species that sorb quickly to FeS₂. The maximum surface concentration is 7×10^{-6} moles/m² or ~4 Mo atoms/ nm², a high degree of coverage. These experiments differ from those of Bostick et al. (2003) in that the contact time with the pyrite surface was kept very brief to minimize the effect of the surface on dissolved Mo species.

Early in both Run N and O, scavengable Mo appears to be negligible (experimental uncertainty is large because the plotted points represent small differences between much larger numbers). Negligible scavenging implies that neither $MoOS_3^{2-}$ nor the early-formed components of $\Sigma Mo_{Deficit}$ in Run O strongly sorb to pyrite. Over a reaction period of 965 h, ~0.08 mM of Σ Mo becomes scavengable in S⁰-saturated Run O but <0.01 mM becomes scavengable in Run N. Because similar amounts of MoS_4^{2-} are produced in both runs but a scavengable form of Mo is produced mainly in Run O, it further appears that MoS_4^{2-} is not the form of dissolved Mo sorbed to



Fig. 7. Percent of dissolved Mo scavenged by pyrite in 10 min plotted vs. the time of $MOOS_3^{2-}$ decay before introduction of the pyrite. Run N: Low S⁰. Run O: High S⁰ (see Table 1 for solution compositions). Evolution of the dissolved Mo species distribution for these runs is shown in Figure 6.

pyrite. Instead, the scavengable form of Mo appears to be one of the optically invisible components formed slowly in the $\Sigma Mo_{Deficit}$ pool. Under limited ΣS^0 conditions (Run N), very little Mo is converted to a scavengable form, but under S^0 -saturated conditions (Run O) a scavengable species gradually appears.

4. DISCUSSION

4.1. Ligand-Induced Reduction

Polysulfide ligands bound to dissolved Mo^{VI} species are known to promote reduction, forming Mo^{IV} and Mo^{V} species. This phenomenon, ligand-induced reduction, was first discovered in the case of Mo about two decades ago (Müller et al., 1978; Draganjac, et al., 1982; Pan et al., 1983). The phenomenon has been recognized also in the chemistry of V^{V} , W^{VI} and Re^{VII} (Cohen and Stiefel, 1985; Halbert et al., 1986; Müller et al., 1991; Murray et al., 1995; McConnachie and Stiefel, 1999). Conceivably, it plays an as yet unexplored role in the geochemistry of a number of thioanion-forming, redox sensitive trace elements.

In ligand-induced reduction of Mo^{VI} , a S⁰-donating reactant in net effect converts a pair of S²⁻ ligands in a thiomolybdate ion to a bidentate S_n^{2-} ligand (Harmer et al., 1986; Coucouvanis, 1998). The S⁰-donating reactant may be a polysulfide ion, an S₈ molecule or an organic di- or polysulfide. In this process, an electron pair is transferred from one S²⁻ ligand to the Mo^{VI} center, reducing it to Mo^{IV}. Subsequently, the new Mo^{IV} species often combines with another Mo^{VI} thiomolybdate to form a Mo^V₂ dimer, which is stabilized by Mo-Mo bonding. Ligand-induced reduction has been described as seemingly paradoxical (Harmer et al., 1986) because reduction of the Mo^{VI} center is induced by an oxidizing agent (S⁰ donor), rather than by a reducing agent.



trithiomolybdate

Fig. 8. Reaction scheme to explain the rate of $MoOS_3^{2-}$ loss in Figures 2, 3 and 6.

Known products of the reactions of S^0 -donors with thiomolybdates are numerous but many can be classified into monomeric (Mo^{IV}) and dimeric (Mo^V₂) series:

 $MoS_4^{2-} + \frac{n}{8}S_8 (aq) \rightarrow Mo^{IV}S_{4+n}^{2-}$

$$MoOS_3^{2^-} + \frac{n}{8}S_8(aq) \rightarrow Mo^{IV}OS_{3+n}^{2^-}$$
 (6)

$$2MoOS_{3}^{2-} + {}^{n}\!\!/_{8}S_{8}(aq) + H^{+} \rightarrow Mo^{V}_{2}O_{2}S_{5+n}^{2-} + HS^{-}$$
(7)
$$2MoS_{4}^{2-} + {}^{n}\!\!/_{8}S_{8}(aq) + H^{+} \rightarrow Mo^{V}_{2}S_{7+n}^{2-} + HS^{-}$$

Larger oligomers also are known but will not be discussed here. Well-known examples of monomers include $Mo^{IV}O(S_4)_2^{2-}$ and $Mo^{IV}S(S_4)_2^{2-}$. In these monomers, 5-coordinated Mo is bonded to two bidentate S_4^{2-} ligands and a third = O or = S ligand. Well-known examples of dimers include $Mo^V_2O_2S_2(S_2)_2^{2-}$ and $Mo^V_2S_4(S_2)_2^{2-}$. Here, each Mo atom is coordinated by one bidentate disulfide ligand, one = O or = S ligand and is bridged via two S²⁻ ligands to the other Mo atom, producing a symmetrical dimer. With addition of more S⁰ to this series of dimers, the disulfide ligands expand to larger, bidentate polysulfide ligands. See Coucouvanis (1998) for a review of this chemistry.

Dimers are less likely to form in dilute solutions, and it remains to be seen if Mo_2^{V} dimers are significant at Mo concentrations found in nature. Several known dimers have optical extinction coefficients >10⁴ (Draganjac et al., 1982; Hadjikyriacou and Coucouvanis, 1987); these would have been detected if they had formed in our experiments.

4.2. Chemical Interpretation of Results

The $MoOS_3^{2-}$ behavior that we observe in the presence of polysulfides (Figs. 1–3 and 6) is consistent with ligand-induced reduction. Our inferred mechanism (see below) is portrayed in Figure 8.

Figure 3 indicates that the initial consumption rate of $Mo^{VI}OS_3^{2-}$ is directly proportional to polysulfide ion concentrations. A reaction that would explain this behavior is:

$$Mo^{VI}OS_3^{2-} + S_5^{2-} \rightarrow Mo^{VI}O(S_2)S_2^{2-} + S_4^{2-}$$
 (8)

Because the rate of $Mo^{VI}OS_3^{2-}$ loss slows markedly during the first 20 h (Figs. 2 and 3), reaction 8 must become curtailed by its reverse reaction:

$$Mo^{VI}O(S_2)S_2^{2-} + S_4^{2-} \rightarrow Mo^{VI}OS_3^{2-} + S_5^{2-}$$
 (9)

As these reactions come into equilibrium, further loss of $MoOS_3^{2-}$ becomes limited by consumption of the new product.

After 20 h, the rate of the latter process is proportional to

 $(S_8)^{\sim 0.29}$, as implied by the inset to Figure 2. It is significant that this rate is proportional to $[S_8]$ and not to concentrations of polysulfide ions. One way of explaining these facts is to propose that once the first product, $Mo^{VI}O(S_2)S_2^{2-}$, has formed a second S⁰ atom is added rapidly:

$$Mo^{VI}O(S_2)S_2^{2^-} + S_5^{2^-} \leftrightarrow Mo^{VI}O(S_2)(S_2)S^{2^-} + S_4^{2^-}$$

(10)

After ${\sim}20$ h, the second product will also have approached equilibrium with ${\rm MoOS_3}^{2-}$ according to the net reaction:

$$Mo^{VI}OS_3^{2-} + 2S_5^{2-} \leftrightarrow Mo^{VI}O(S_2)(S_2)S^{2-} + 2S_4^{2-}$$

(11)

Because ${S_5}^{2-}$ and ${S_4}^{2-}$ are themsleves in equilibrium with S_8 and buffer it,

$$S_5^{2-} \leftrightarrow S_4^{2-} + \frac{1}{8}S_8 \quad K_{12} = 0.14$$
 (12)

reaction 11 can be reformulated as the following equilibrium:

$$Mo^{VI}OS_3^{2-} + \frac{2}{8}S_8 \leftrightarrow Mo^{VI}O(S_2)(S_2)S^{2-}, \quad K_{13} = K_{11}/K_{12}^2$$

(13)

We posit that the rate-controlling step after 20 h involves the ligand-induced reduction step:

$$\operatorname{Mo}^{\operatorname{VI}}O(S_2)(S_2)S^{2-} \to \operatorname{Mo}^{\operatorname{IV}}O(S_4)S^{2-}$$
 (14)

Writing the rate law for this elementary reaction and employing the mass action law for Eqn. 13:

$$Rate = -k_{14}[Mo^{VI}O(S_2)(S_2)S^{2^-}] = -k_{14}K_{13}[MoOS_3^{2^-}][S_3]^{2/8}$$
(15)

Eqn. 15 rationalizes why, beyond 20 h, the observed rate of $MoOS_3^{2-}$ loss is 1st order in $MoOS_3^{2-}$, $\sim 0.29^{th}$ order in S_8 and independent of the concentrations of individual polysulfide ions, even though polysulfides are the main carriers of S⁰ in solution. The reaction scheme on which Eqn. 15 is based (see Fig. 8) is concordant with similar proposals in the literature (Coucouvanis et al., 1989; Coyle et al., 1992; Coucouvanis, 1998). From observed rate constants in Figures 2 and 3, $k_{14}K_{13}$ is estimated to be $0.30\pm0.04 \text{ mol/L}^{-0.25}h^{-1}$ (based on the assumption that [S₈] is constant during the course of the reaction owing to the large excess of ΣS^0 relative to ΣMo). The value of K₁₃ is estimated to be $10^{1.5\pm0.3}$.

Subsequently, the Mo^{IV} product in reaction 14 might be subject to nucleophilic substitution by a second polysulfide ligand, replacing the O or the S ligand, and/or it might react with $MoOS_3^{2-}$ to produce a Mo^V dimer. Because these steps lie beyond the rate controlling steps for $MoOS_3^{2-}$ loss and produce no optical signals, our evidence reveals little about them. However, the evidence in Figures 6 and 7 indicates that further reactions indeed occur on a time scale >100 h. One leads to MoS_4^{2-} , which is only a minor product in the first 100 h. Another leads to a product that is quickly scavenged from solution by pyrite surfaces (Fig. 7).

Gradual appearance of MOS_4^{2-} over the longer time period covered in Runs N and O (Fig. 6) implies that the polysulfido products formed from $MOOS_3^{2-}$ are unstable intermediates under the conditions of our experiments. Negligible reaction between polysulfides and MOS_4^{2-} , shown in Figure 5, supports this interpretation. Thus MOS_4^{2-} appears to be the thermodynamically stable product when $[H_2S]$ is high enough to destabilize MOO_4^{2-} (i.e., above the action point of the geochemical switch as described by Erickson and Helz, 2000). Note that decomposition of Mo polysulfido complexes to MOS_4^{2-} must involve reversion of the oxidation state of Mo to +VI.

The ultimate stability of MoS_4^{2-} in our experiments is not necessarily in conflict with evidence for ligand-induced reduction of MoS_4^{2-} in dimethylformamide solvent (Coyle et al., 1992) or in aqueous solvent in the presence of a high concentration of $(NH_4)_2S_3$ (Draganjac et al., 1982). In both these cases, MoS_4^{2-} may have become unstable with respect to polysulfido complexes because of the high concentrations of S_8 achievable in organic solvents or metastably in short-duration experiments in water. Over longer durations, precipitation of colloidal S^0 limits $[S_8]$ in aqueous solution to ~125 nM (LaMer and Dinegar, 1950). In run M (Fig. 5), $[S_8]$ was near this upper limit but MoS_4^{2-} was nonetheless negligibly consumed.

S⁰-mediated reduction probably occurs only after MoO₄²⁻ in sulfidic water has been sulfidized as far as MoOS₃²⁻. According to Harmer et al. (1986) reduction of thiomolybdates, $MoO_xS_{4-x}^{2-}$, becomes easier as the degree of sulfidation increases (i.e., x becomes smaller). They report that an organic disulfide reacts with $MoO_2S_2^{2-}$ to produce a Mo^{VI} anion containing a disulfide ligand rather than a Mo^{IV} or Mo^V species.

4.3. Geochemical Implications of Results

The key finding from this work is that Mo speciation in sulfidic natural waters will be controlled not only by the activity of H_2S , as we have proposed in previous papers, but also by the activity of zero-valent sulfur. Few determinations of $[S_8]$ in anoxic natural waters are available, but they suggest that the concentrations employed in our experiments are representative of those in nature. For example, Wang et al. (1998) describe pore waters from lake sediments that contain the equivalent of 25–100 nM $[S_8]$ (compare with values in Table 1). These solutions were all supersaturated with respect to rhombic S, but probably undersaturated with respect to colloidal S. Polysulfides often exceed micromolar concentrations in sulfidic saltwaters (Boulegue et al., 1982; Luther et al., 1985; Shea and MacCrehan, 1988).

Our results suggest a model for how marine MoO_4^{2-} might come to be fixed in Mo-Fe-S cuboidal structures associated with pyrite in anoxic sediments and black shales. The reaction

pathway would involve stepwise conversion of MoO_4^{2-} to MoO_3S^{2-} , $MoO_2S_2^{2-}$ and $MoOS_3^{2-}$ in the presence of $>10^{-5}$ M biogenic H₂S (see Erickson and Helz, 2000). In the absence of S⁰-donors, sulfide would eventually also replace the final O ligand, producing MoS_4^{2-} , but this last nucleophilic substitution could take decades to reach completion at seawater pH and temperature without mineral-surface catalysts. In the presence of S⁰-donors, a faster homogeneous reaction pathway to thermodynamically stable MoS_4^{2-} is available through Mo polysulfido intermediates. Spontaneously, Mo reduction occurs in these intermediates, lowering the coulombic resistance to forming cuboidal structures on pyrite. Coulombic resistance arises from short intercation distances in cuboidal structures (Bostick et al., 2003). Thus, as appropriate polysulfido species form, they can be scavenged by pyrite, diverting Mo from the stable, soluble product, MoS_4^{2-} . Existence of cuboidal Mo-Fe-S in Paleozoic black shales implies that these structures are extremely stable, once formed (Helz et al., 1996).

No critical redox potential or threshold that could control Mo fixation exists in the proposed reaction pathway (so long as redox conditions are appropriate for biologic sulfate reduction). The data in Figure 2 show that $MoOS_3^{2-}$ is consumed on geochemically rapid time scales over a broad S_8 concentration range, i.e., 1–2 orders of magnitude. A broad S_8 concentration range implies flexibility with respect to Eh, which tends to be controlled by the $\Sigma S^0 / \Sigma S^{2-}$ ratio at a given pH in sulfidic waters (Boulegue and Michard, 1979).

It is possible that other reaction pathways exist for producing Mo-Fe-S cuboidal structures associated with pyrite. Nonetheless, we note two attractive features of the pathway proposed here. First, optimal conditions for ligand-induced reduction of Mo and for pyrite growth (Benning et al., 2000) are similar: both are favored in polysulfide-rich sulfidic waters. Second, the polysulfido ligand in a species such as $Mo^{IV}O(S_4)S^{2-}$ is expected to be labile to insertion of S⁰ from donors that might include disulfide groups on pyrite surfaces. It is easy to imagine that an $Mo^{IV}O(S_4)S^{2-}$ ion could become doubly tethered by covalent linkages to pyrite when two adjacent disulfides on the mineral surface insert into and break open the polysulfide ring. Tethering would facilitate formation of cuboidal structures.

More remains to be learned about mineral surface processes leading to Mo fixation. Classic work (Sugawara et al., 1961; Bertine, 1972) showed that FeS precipitates scavenge Mo. Vorlicek (2002) extended these observations, demonstrating that many freshly precipitated metal sulfides indiscriminantly sorb $MOO_xS_{4-x}^{2-}$ species. Slightly sulfidized MOO_4^{2-} (possibly mostly MOO_3S^{2-}) as well as fully sulfidized MOS_4^{2-} are scavenged by FeS, CoS, ZnS, HgS and PbS precipitates to a significant degree; CuS scavenges MOS_4^{2-} very effectively but scavenges sulfidized MOO_4^{2-} weakly.

These processes may influence Mo concentrations ephemerally in sediment pore waters but probably do not explain Mo enrichments that are preserved over geologic time in black shales. Monosulfide precipitates, especially FeS, are not durable geologically. Sugawara et al. (1961) demonstrated that O_2 quickly recycles FeS-scavenged Mo to solution by oxidizing the substrate.

Pyrite is the principal sulfide mineral preserved in sedimentary rocks. Pyrite is known to capture Mo during diagensis (Huerta-Diaz and Morse, 1992; Dellwig et al., 2002; Müller, 2002) and to retain it in sedimentary rocks (Raiswell and Plant, 1980; Coveney, 1987). Bostick et al. (2003) show that pyrite sorbs both MoO_4^{2-} and MoS_4^{2-} effectively. The sorbed MoO₄²⁻ occurs at least partly as an outer-sphere complex that is readily displaced by OH⁻ and that gives an X-ray absorption spectrum nearly identical to MoO_4^{2-} . They point out that this kind of sorption also is unlikely to produce geologically robust Mo fixation. On the other hand at pH<6, they observed that MoS_4^{2-} reacts irreversibly with pyrite. The bound product no longer gives an X-ray absorption spectrum of MoS_4^{2-} , but instead resembles that of a Mo-Fe-S cuboidal structure. Why such strongly bound Mo forms rapidly at pH <6 but very slowly at pH 8.5 in our experiments remains an open question. Possibly ligand-induced reduction occurs as a heterogeneous process directly on pyrite surfaces owing to S⁰ normally found there (Nesbitt and Muir, 1994). Understanding mechanistically the interactions of dissolved Mo species with sulfide mineral surfaces is a rich field for future exploration.

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