

Low-Fe(III) Greenalite Was a Primary Mineral from Neoproterozoic Oceans

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Contents of this file

Text S1

Figures S1 to S7

Tables S1 to S2

1 Introduction

2 Below we detail the methods used to acquire our bulk, microscale, and nanoscale analyses of the iron
3 silicate nanoparticle inclusions, and more fully describe the results we obtained. We present
4 supplemental figures and supplemental tables showing results reported in the main text.

5 Text S1.

6 Methods

7 Thick section billets of ABDP9 380.8 m and GKF 357.5 m were drilled using a Dremel power drill to
8 generate bulk powders of their ferruginous cherts; these powders were analyzed using bulk diffraction
9 and spectroscopic techniques. Thin sections were also prepared from these two samples, as well as from
10 ABDP9 222.7 m, GKF 356.6 m, and DDH44 388.3 m, to be examined optically and spectroscopically.
11 Focused Ion Beam (FIB)-prepared foils for nanoscale analyses were produced from nearby well-
12 preserved samples (ABDP9 219.3 m and 288.2 m, and GKF 327.2 m) from the same Western Australian
13 and South African cores, and from the Silvergrass core at 313.6 m.

14

15 Several iron silicate standards were obtained and analyzed to compare to the ancient nanoparticle
16 inclusions. S. Guggenheim (University of Illinois, Chicago) kindly contributed a greenalite standard from
17 the San Valentin Ore Body, Murcia, Spain (Guggenheim et al. 1982). A minnesotaite [$\text{Fe}^{2+}_3\text{Si}_4\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2$]
18 standard from Bluebell Mine, Riondel, Canada, analyzed by Fe XANES and STEM, was acquired from
19 Excalibur Mineral Corporation. G. Rossman (California Institute of Technology) helpfully provided a
20 cronstedtite standard from Kisbanya, Hungary from the Caltech Mineralogical Collection. All standards
21 were confirmed by X-ray diffraction (XRD) and all other standards shown were derived from the JADE
22 XRD database or the RRUFF online database.

23
24 Bulk powders were examined using XRD on a Siemens D500 X-ray diffractometer at the United States
25 Geological Survey in Boulder. The powders were suspended in ethanol and pipetted onto a silicon wafer
26 to form a thin layer, and then dried under gentle heating using a slide warmer. The samples were
27 analyzed from 5 to 65 degrees two theta using Cu $K\alpha$ X-ray radiation, with a step size of 0.02 degrees
28 and a dwell time of 2 seconds per step. Jade software (MDI, version 9) and the International Centre for
29 Diffraction Data (ICDD) 2001 database were used to identify the sample mineralogy, along with acquired
30 standards.

31
32 At the Stanford Synchrotron Radiation Lightsource (SSRL), we obtained Fe X-ray absorption near edge
33 spectroscopy (Fe XANES) data at Beam Line 4-1 to investigate the Fe speciation of the bulk powders and
34 obtain the Fe XANES from standards under similar conditions as our samples. We used a Si(220) $\phi=90$
35 monochromator crystal set with the beam 45% detuned. A Fe^0 foil was used for calibration with the first
36 derivative inflection set to 7112 eV. Samples were kept in a He-filled sample chamber to maximize signal
37 and decrease any potential Fe oxidation and a PIPS detector was used to collect fluorescence data from
38 6882 to 7505 eV with a 0.5 s dwell time. No change in XANES shape or position was seen over 3 repeat
39 scans, which indicated that no oxidation was occurring. Data were collected at higher energy resolution
40 through the Fe pre-edge and edge features (0.4 eV resolution from 7092 to 7108 eV; 0.1 eV resolution
41 from 7108 to 7118 eV; and 0.35 eV resolution from 7118 to 7142 eV). Duplicate spectra were collected
42 and averaged, and then normalized using Sam's Interface for XAS Package (SIXPACK) (Webb 2005).

43 Thin sections were examined using optical microscopy and synchrotron X-ray-based fluorescence
44 mapping and microscale Fe μ XANES. Regions of well-preserved chert were chosen and imaged using
45 reflected and transmission light microscopy on a Zeiss stereomicroscope. X-ray fluorescence maps were
46 then produced from these areas with an X-ray microprobe at Beam Line 2-3 at SSRL. The incident x-rays
47 were set at 11 keV or 8eV, and the beam was focused to approximately $3 \times 3 \mu\text{m}$ using Kirkpatrick Baez
48 mirrors. Fluorescence data were collected using a Vortex SII International Silicon drift detector, and
49 selected regions of interest in the fluorescence spectra were integrated over each pixel to generate
50 images of S, K, Ca, Ti, Cr, Fe, Mn, Co, Ni, Cu, and Zn. The Fe fluorescence maps were used to choose
51 pixels to collect full Fe XANES spectra, collected on the same beam line using a Si(220) $\phi=0$ and Si(111)
52 $\phi=0$ double crystal monochromator. Spectra were measured from 6882 eV to 7505 eV at the same
53 high resolution through the edge feature as used on Beam Line 4-1. Dwell times were set to 1 s, except
54 for through the pre-edge feature: with the 220 crystal set, the pre-edge feature was measured with a
55 dwell time of 5 s, while the 110 crystal set allowed greater fluorescence flux and only needed a 3 s dwell
56 time through the pre-edge feature. These spectra were normalized and averaged using the SIXPACK
57 software, using a linear fit to the pre-edge region and a quadratic fit to the post-edge region to
58 normalize to an edge step height of 1, and compared to standards as mineralogical fingerprints.

59
60 We additionally analyzed the Fe pre-edge feature, located about 15-20 eV before the absorption
61 maximum, for each μ XANES spot analysis. The Fe pre-edge is related to the 1s electron transitioning to

62 3d or 4p orbitals. Because the pre-edge feature reflects the iron coordination environment and redox
63 state, it can be used to approximate Fe(III)/Fe_{Total} ratios. The pre-edge features of internal standards
64 (siderite, olivine, staurolite, cronstedtite, and chlorite standards provided by F. Bourdelle) run at the
65 same time as the samples were used to compare against ~3x3 μm point spectra of nanoparticle-rich
66 chert.

67
68 Small areas of polished thin sections of iron-silicate nanoparticles encased in chert were selected for
69 synchrotron transmission X-ray microscopy (STXM) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM)
70 analyses. FIB techniques were used to prepare ~100 nm thick foils using a *FEI Helios NanoLab G3 CX*
71 *DualBeam* instrument located at the Centre for Microscopy, Characterisation and Analysis, the
72 University of Western Australia. The selected sample areas were first coated with a strip of Pt ~1 μm
73 thick to protect the surface, then trenches ~7 μm deep were milled on either side of the strip using a Ga
74 ion beam with 30 kV voltage and 9.3 nA current. The foil was then cut away from the sample and
75 welded to a Cu TEM grid. The foils were thinned with the Ga ion beam at 30 kV and 0.79 and 0.23 nA,
76 before cleaning at 5 kV and 41 pA, and polishing at 2 kV and 23 pA.

77
78 At beamline 10ID-1 (SM) at the Canadian Light Source, we measured the iron redox state at a nanoscale
79 using STXM. The STXM beam size was focused to 30 nm x 30 nm using a Fresnel zone plate objective and
80 an order-sorting aperture, and the monochromator was calibrated using the 3p Rydberg peak in gaseous
81 CO₂ at 294.96 eV. After samples were loaded, the chamber was evacuated to 0.2 Torr and then filled
82 with He to ~127 Torr (~0.17 atm) to minimize beam absorption. We collected absorption at a 30nm or
83 35nm resolution to form images at 700 eV, 708 eV, 710 eV, and 718 eV. Over a subregion of the FIB foil,
84 we additionally acquired image stacks with a 35-60 nm spatial resolution through the iron L_{2,3} edge (690
85 – 730 eV) to generate an average spectrum for each sample. These spectra were generated with a 0.79
86 eV step size from 690 to 705 eV, a high energy resolution of 0.1 eV through the L₂ edge from 705 to 713
87 eV, a 0.19 eV step size from 713 to 719, a 0.15 eV step size from 719 to 726, and a 0.5 eV step size from
88 726.5 to 730 eV. Spectra from each sample were obtained from the image stacks following Cosmidis and
89 Benzerara (2014), using the masking function in Axis2000 to only select the Fe-silicate nanoparticles and
90 applying a linear and double arctan background correction to form a linear baseline for both L₂ and L₃
91 peaks.

92
93 The multiple energy absorption maps and image stacks were used to produce iron redox maps and to
94 calculate average Fe(III)/Fe_{Total} contents from subsets of sample particles. The four full-foil absorption
95 images were converted to optical density (OD) images, and the aXis2000 software (Hitchcock 2014) was
96 used to calculate the iron redox state of each pixel using the method established by Bourdelle et al
97 (2013). First, background corrections were applied by subtracting the OD image at 700 eV from both OD
98 images at 708 eV (energy of the maximum absorption of Fe(II) at the L₃ edge) and 710 eV (energy of the
99 maximum absorption of Fe(III) at the L₃ edge). A second correction was administered by subtracting the
100 718 eV OD image from the background-corrected 710 eV OD image. Subsequently, the corrected 710 eV
101 map was divided by the corrected 708 eV map using the ratio function in aXis2000 to produce a
102 Fe(III)/Fe_{Total} image calibrated for iron silicates by Bourdelle et al (2013). The background was masked to
103 appear black using the masking function in aXis2000.

104
105 STXM analyses were performed first to ensure that the TEM electron beam did not alter the iron redox
106 state, and then the same FIB foils were examined by scanning-TEM (STEM). Data were obtained at 200
107 kV using a *FEI Titan G2 80-200* TEM/STEM with *ChemI STEM* technology located at the Centre for
108 Microscopy, Characterisation and Analysis, the University of Western Australia. High-resolution TEM
109 (HRTEM) was used to confirm the identity of the particles differentiated by HAADF and EDS data, and to

110 check for beam damage in the particles. No formation of a secondary amorphous layer, which could
111 affect Fe redox state measured by STXM, was detected along edges of particles and therefore iron redox
112 data acquired by STXM is considered to reflect the original iron silicate Fe(III)/Fe_{Total} content. HRTEM
113 images of particles parallel to cleavage were analyzed using Fast Fourier Transform to quantify the
114 systematic layering distance of the particles.

115
116 We additionally constructed mineral stability diagrams for a simple Neoproterozoic ocean system. These
117 were plotted in the Geochemist's Workbench (Bethke 2002) at a temperature of 25°C, and pressure of
118 1.013 bars. The solubility constant of greenalite (K_{sp}) was set to $10^{14.01}$, calculated from the Gibbs free
119 energy of formation for greenalite estimated by Eugster and Chou (Eugster & Chou 1973). This K_{sp} is
120 estimated for Fe(II)-greenalite rather than the low-Fe(III) greenalite that we observe – which does not
121 have thermodynamic values available – but the stability lines for low-Fe(III) greenalite are expected to
122 fall close to the plotted greenalite stability field. To simulate an ocean at silica saturation, the activity of
123 $\text{SiO}_{2(aq)}$ was set to $10^{-2.71}$ M (Rimstidt & Barnes 1980). The fugacity of $\text{CO}_{2(g)}$ was set at 10^{-2} atm, after
124 Halevy et al. (2017). We plotted the Eh vs. pH of this simplified ocean system with the Fe content set at
125 10^{-6} M to show stability fields for iron minerals within the stability limits of liquid water. To plot the Fe
126 concentrations required to precipitate phases at variable pHs, the Eh was set to -0.2 V and ferrous iron
127 was plotted from 10^{-8} to 10^{-2} M against pHs. Similar diagrams were constructed using oxygen fugacity (f
128 O_2) to remove the pH dependence of the Eh axis and indicate the equilibrium O_2 constraints that
129 greenalite represents. The highest $f\text{O}_2$ that formed stable greenalite rather than stable hematite (10^{-57}
130 atm) was used in plotting Fe concentrations plotted against pH.

131 132 **Results**

133 Results from nanoscale, transmission-based results were corroborated using several different
134 techniques on multiple scales. Microdrilled powders from a representative sample from Western
135 Australia and South Africa were analyzed using X-ray diffraction (XRD) and X-ray absorption
136 spectroscopy. XRD patterns were dominated by quartz, due to the unavoidable presence of the chert in
137 the samples (Fig S1A). However, both samples additionally had two peaks coinciding with the most
138 prominent diffraction peaks from a 7 Ångstrom clay mineral (Fig S1B); these reflections were
139 distinguishable from ≥ 10 Ångstrom clay structures such as minnesotaite or stilpnomelane. The Western
140 Australian sample, ABDP9 380.8 m, had diffraction peaks corresponding to ankerite and siderite in
141 addition to peaks corresponding to a 7 Ångstrom clay.

142
143 We also examined the iron coordination environment in bulk powders using iron K-edge X-ray
144 absorption near edge spectroscopy (Fe XANES). Consistent with its diffraction pattern, the Fe XANES of
145 GKF 357.5 m had a spectral fingerprint similar to an iron silicate mineral (Fig S3). This spectrum had a
146 prominent broad edge peak with a second distinctive peak at ~7142-7144 eV, similar to the spectrum of
147 Fe-silicates such as greenalite and minnesotaite. However, the bulk Fe XANES of ABDP 380.8 m yielded a
148 complex spectrum reflecting a mixture between Fe-silicate and Fe-carbonate (Fig S3). To target only
149 nanoparticle-rich chert without interference from other Fe-bearing compounds, it was necessary to use
150 microscale and nanoscale rather than bulk techniques.

151
152 Therefore, we additionally analyzed the iron silicate nanoparticle mineralogy at a microscale using Fe
153 XANES. We collected spectra from $\sim 3 \times 3$ μm spots throughout typical chert subregions in thin sections
154 from the two representative samples analyzed in bulk (ABDP9 380.8 m and GKF 357.5 m) along with
155 three additional thin sections through BIF- and carbonate-hosted ferruginous cherts (ABDP9 222.7 m,
156 GKF 356.6 m, and DDH44 388.3 m). Regions of compacted microcrystalline (< 20-30 μm granules) chert

157 and coarser quartz crystals (20-50 μm , “mesocrystalline quartz” in Maliva et al, 2005) cemented by silica
158 were targeted using light microscopy, avoiding veins or large cross-cutting secondary minerals if possible
159 (Fig S2). These areas were mapped using iron x-ray fluorescence (XRF) and appeared to have a low
160 background of iron, representing the disperse nanoparticle inclusions in chert that do not individually
161 show up at our $\sim 3 \mu\text{m}$ resolution (Fig S2). The Fe XRF maps were used to guide the positions of $3 \times 3 \mu\text{m}$
162 point spectra, which represented the average Fe XANES from disseminated 10nm – 500nm
163 nanoparticles—approximately 30-150 particles on the surface depending on the variable particle
164 density with some contribution from deeper particles. Spectra from all five of these thin sections
165 appeared extremely similar to each other, and resembled the greenalite and minnesotaite standard
166 spectra (Fig S3). Notably, iron was extremely low in silica cements that surrounded the coarser quartz
167 euhedra, confirming that the iron silicate nanoparticles were original to the early chert precipitation and
168 later cementing fluids did not contain iron silicates.

169
170 The pre-edge features of these microscale Fe XANES of iron inclusion-bearing chert can also be
171 examined for the relative iron redox state. The pre-edge features of the nanoparticle spectra suggested
172 that there was very little Fe(III) and that the iron silicate particles are dominated by Fe(II) (Fig S5).

173
174 The iron redox state of the nanoparticles was also examined using STXM-based analyses of the Fe L-
175 edge. In addition to acquiring multiple energy maps that could be converted into Fe(III)/Fe_{Total} maps, we
176 also gathered image stacks from a subregion of each FIB foil. These enabled us to derive an average Fe L-
177 edge spectrum from areas containing approximately 10-30 particles from each sample foil (Fig S6). The
178 calculated average Fe(III)/Fe_{Total} from each of these samples ranged from $\sim 13\text{-}20\%$ (Fig S6, Table S1).

179
180 To explore the stable solution chemistries and redox space predicted by the presence of primary
181 greenalite, we constructed stability diagrams using Geochemist’s Workbench (Figure S7). Early
182 inclusions of greenalite predict an extremely low Eh, or oxidation potential, of the Neoproterozoic ocean
183 (Figure S7A). The presence of greenalite as a primary Neoproterozoic mineral is not consistent with an
184 oxidizing, or oxygenated, ocean, but rather imply an ocean Eh of $< 0.1 \text{ V}$ and likely far lower—
185 corresponding to an oxygen fugacity ($f \text{ O}_2$) $< 10^{-56} \text{ atm}$ (Figure S7C). Greenalite also constrains the
186 Neoproterozoic ocean pH to > 5.5 (consistent with estimates (Halevy & Bachan 2017)). In addition, iron
187 concentrations need only reach 30 nM to favorably precipitate greenalite. As suggested previously
188 (Tosca et al. 2016), Figure S7B and D clearly demonstrate how greenalite would set the upper range of
189 ferrous iron in the oceans and regulate the iron cycle of early oceans.

190

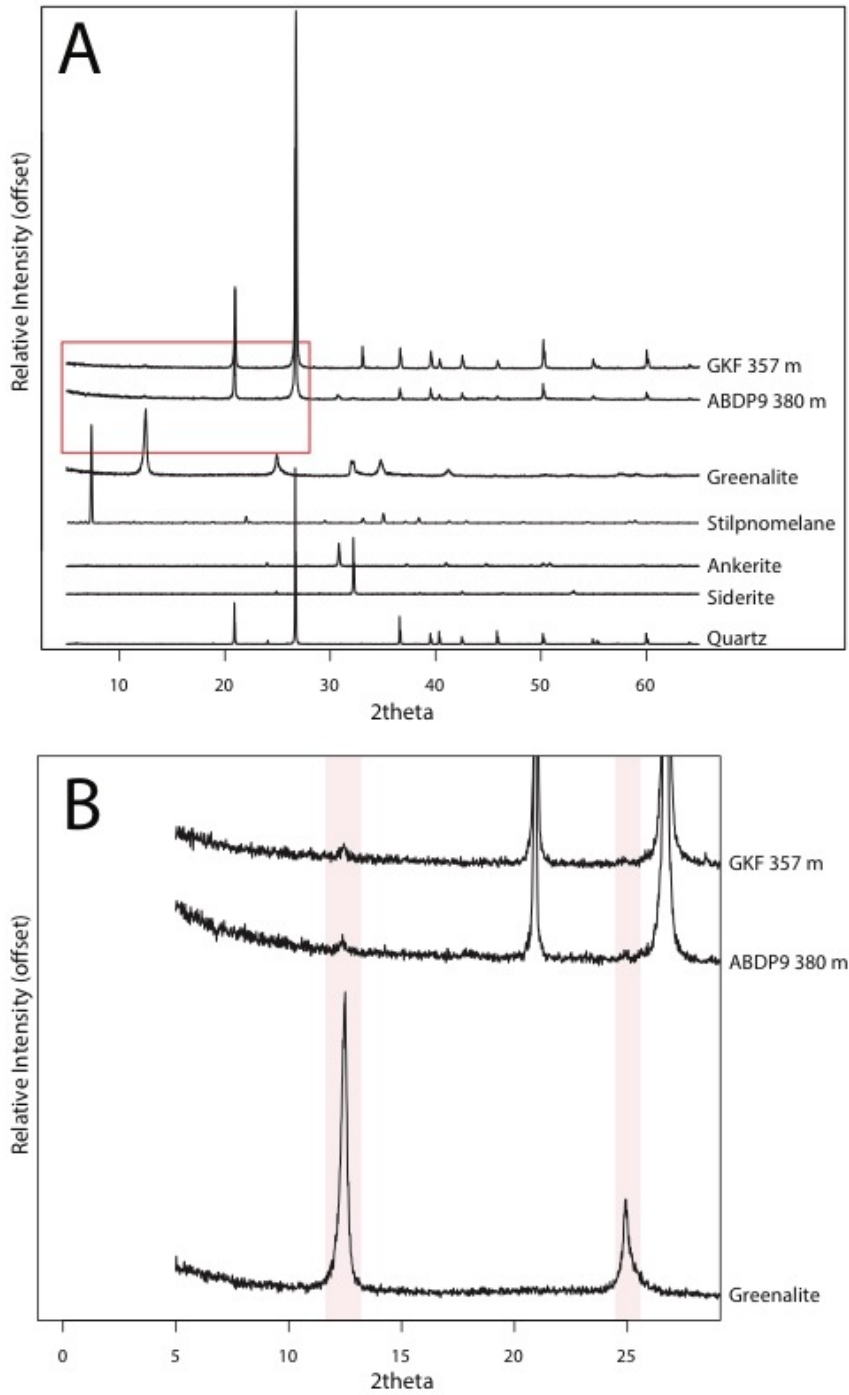


Figure S1:

A. Bulk X-ray diffraction of microdrilled samples GKF 357 m and ABDP9 380 m compared to standards.
 B. Zoom of two small sample peaks at small 2theta characteristic of clay minerals (with 7 Ångstrom d-spacings).

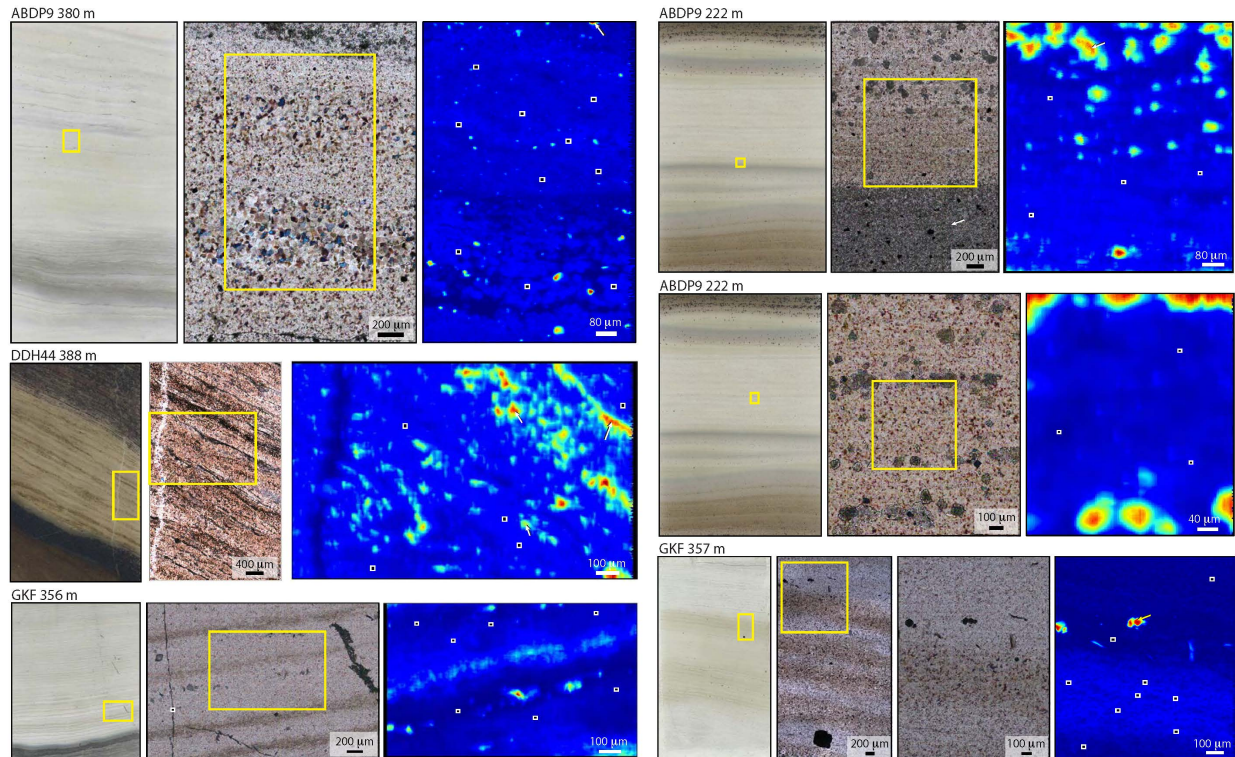


Figure S2:

Thin section photos and optical transmission images indicating positions of adjacent iron X-ray fluorescence maps acquired at 8000 eV or 11,000 eV. Black rectangles with white borders indicate positions of Iron X-ray Absorption Near Edge Spectroscopy (Fe-XANES) point spectra of “background” iron in chert, targeting disperse iron-rich inclusions in chert. White arrows indicate positions of Fe-XANES point spectra of larger high-iron minerals.

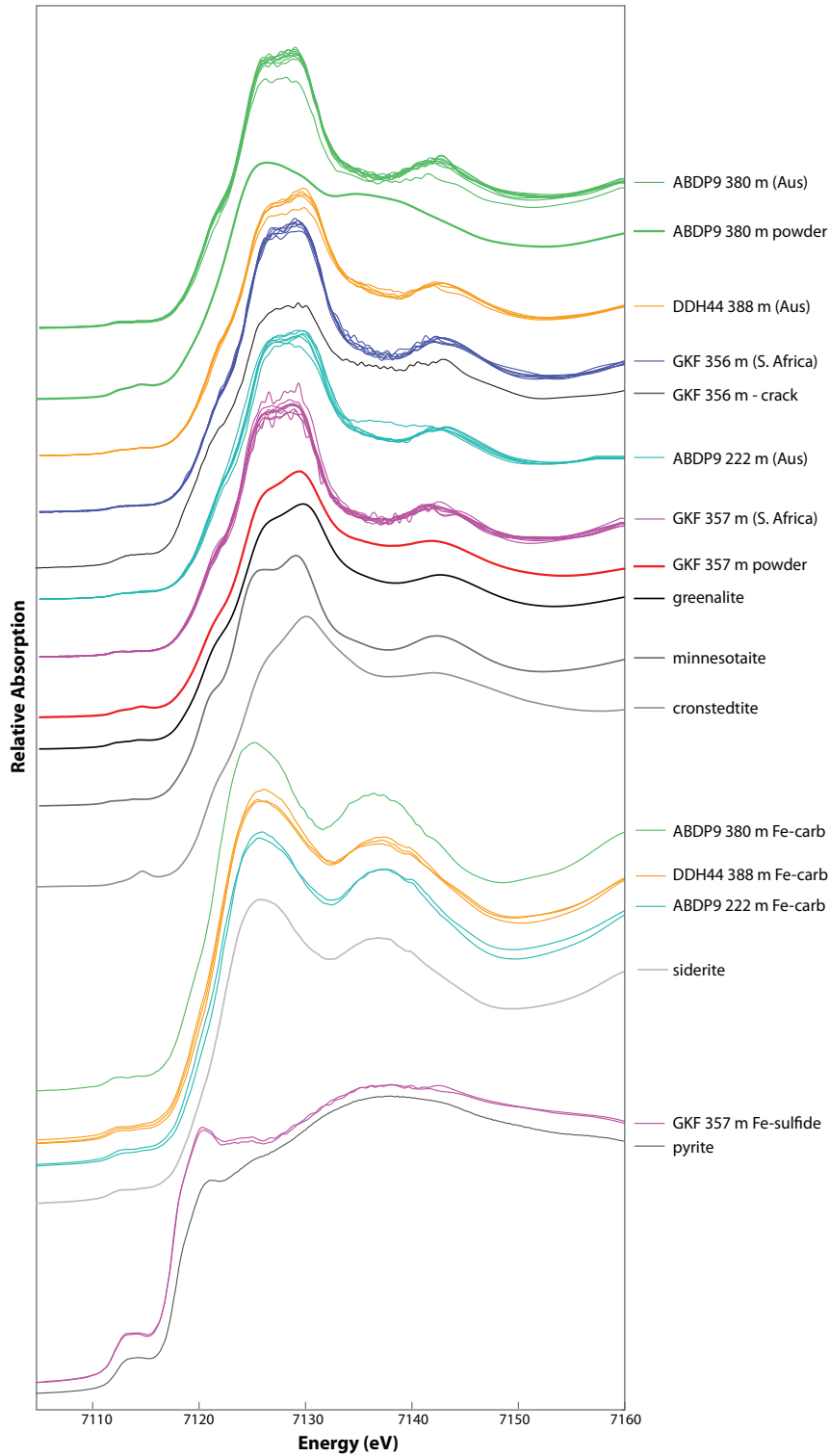
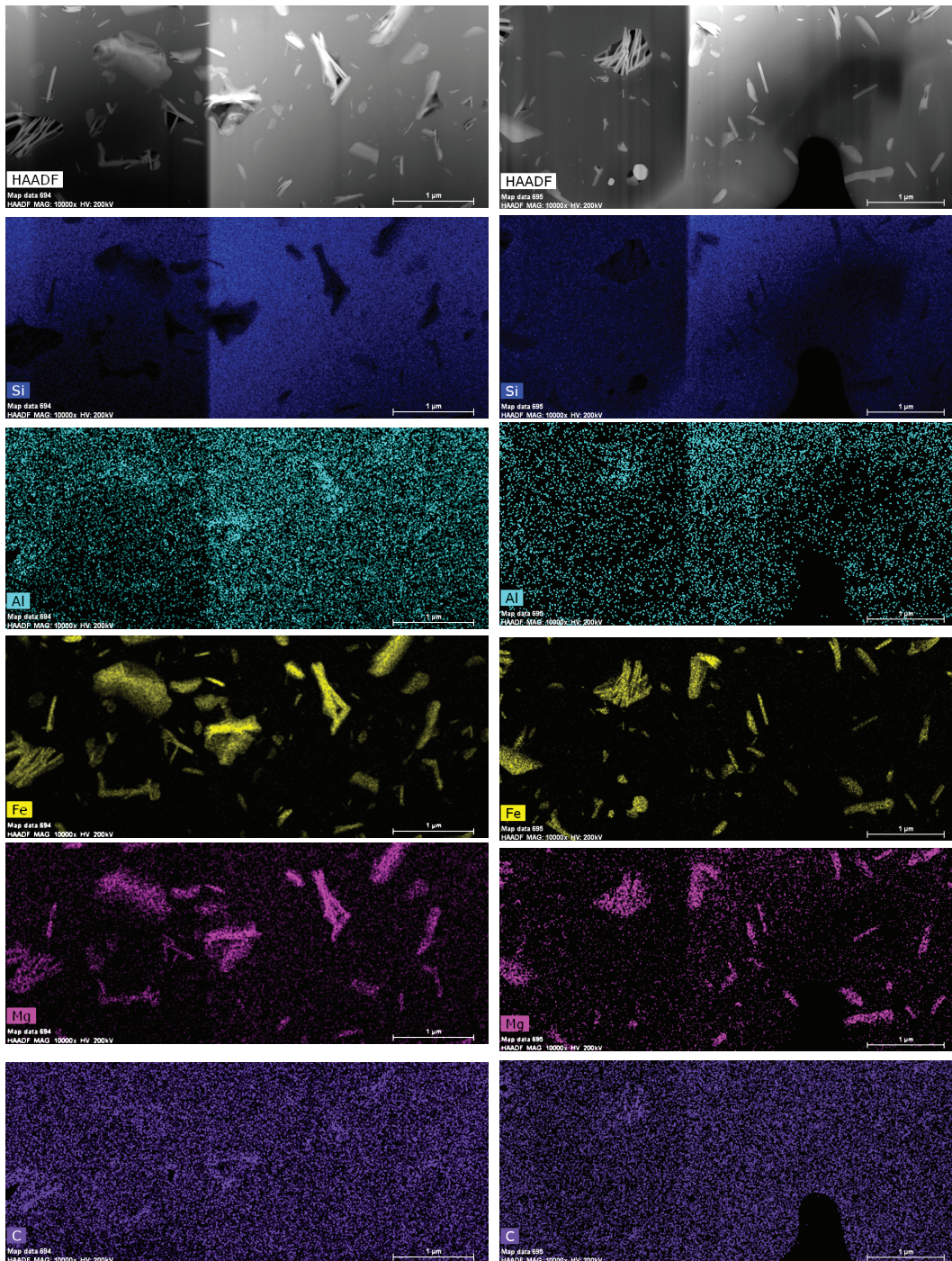


Figure S3:

Iron X-ray Absorption Near Edge Spectroscopy (Fe-XANES) point spectra from thin sections (positions shown in Figure S2) compared to iron standard minerals. “Background” iron in chert is most consistent with an iron silicate such as greenalite or minnesotaite, while high-iron minerals are spectrally fingerprinted to be siderite and pyrite.

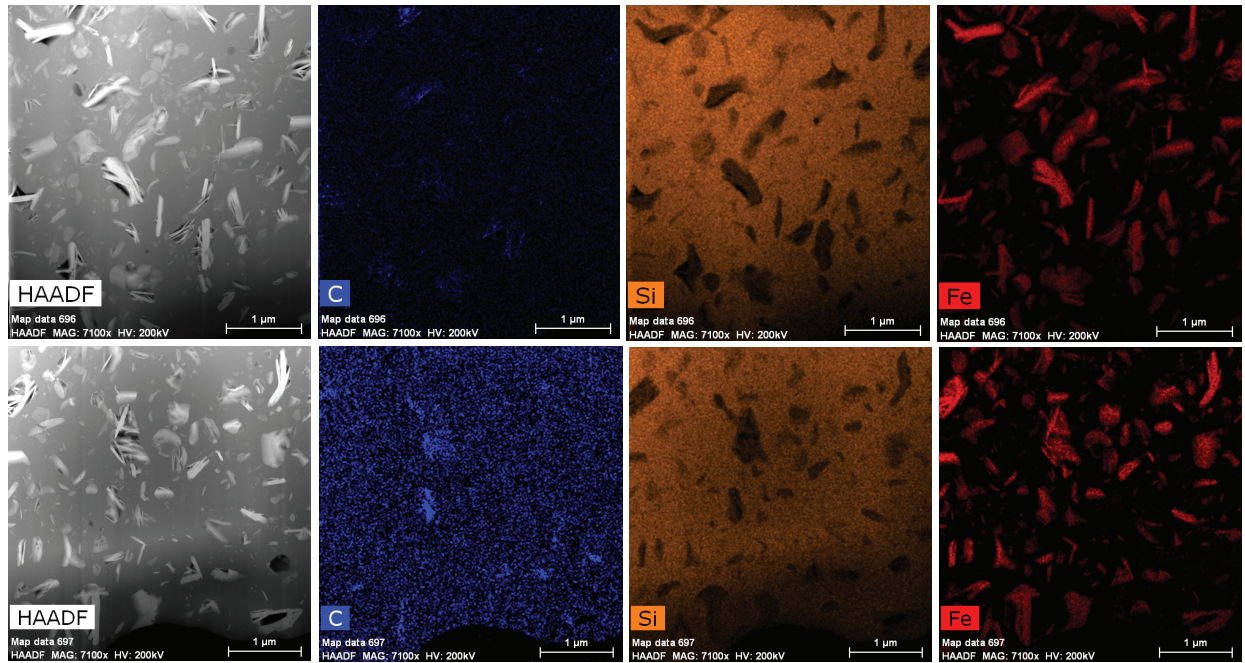
Figure S4:

A. ABDP9 219 m



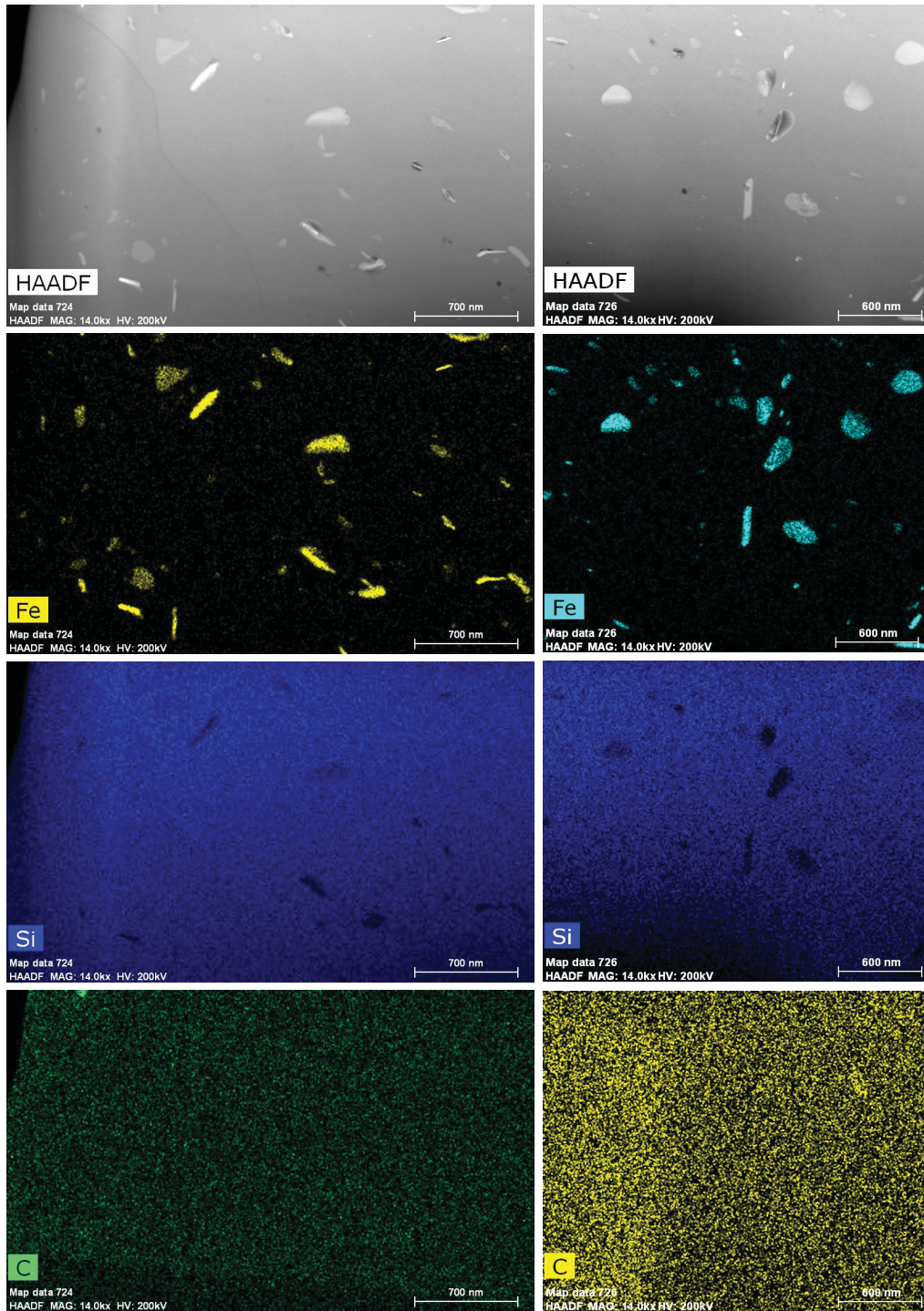
Scanning Transmission Electron Microscopy (STEM) images of ABDP9 219 m shown on top row, with elemental maps of Si, Al, Fe, Mg, and C acquired from qualitative Energy Dispersive Spectroscopy (EDS) mapping on the TEM.

B. GKF 327 m



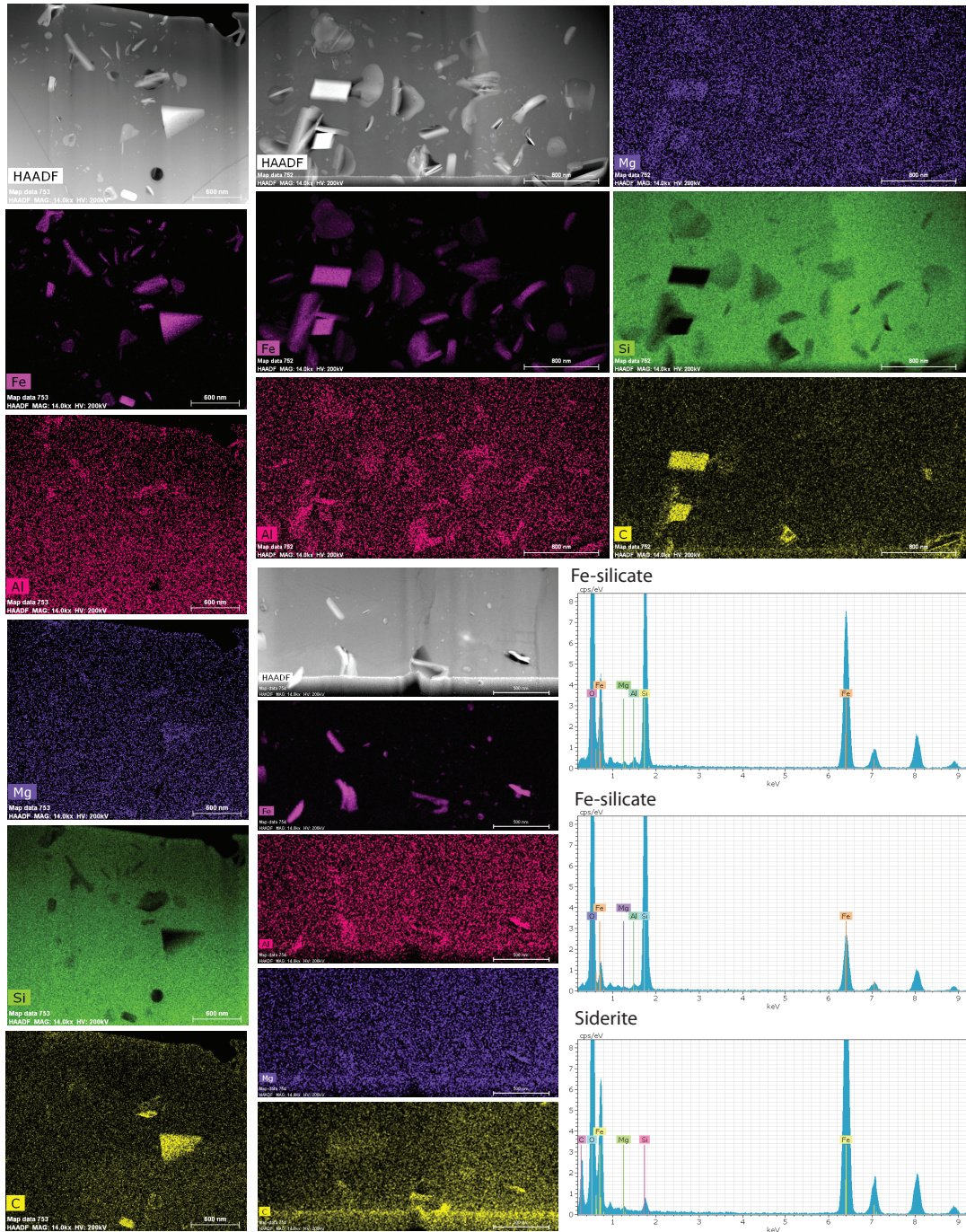
Scanning Transmission Electron Microscopy (STEM) images of GKF 327 m shown on left, with elemental maps of C, Si, and Fe acquired from qualitative Energy Dispersive Spectroscopy (EDS) mapping on the TEM.

C. ABDP9 288 m1



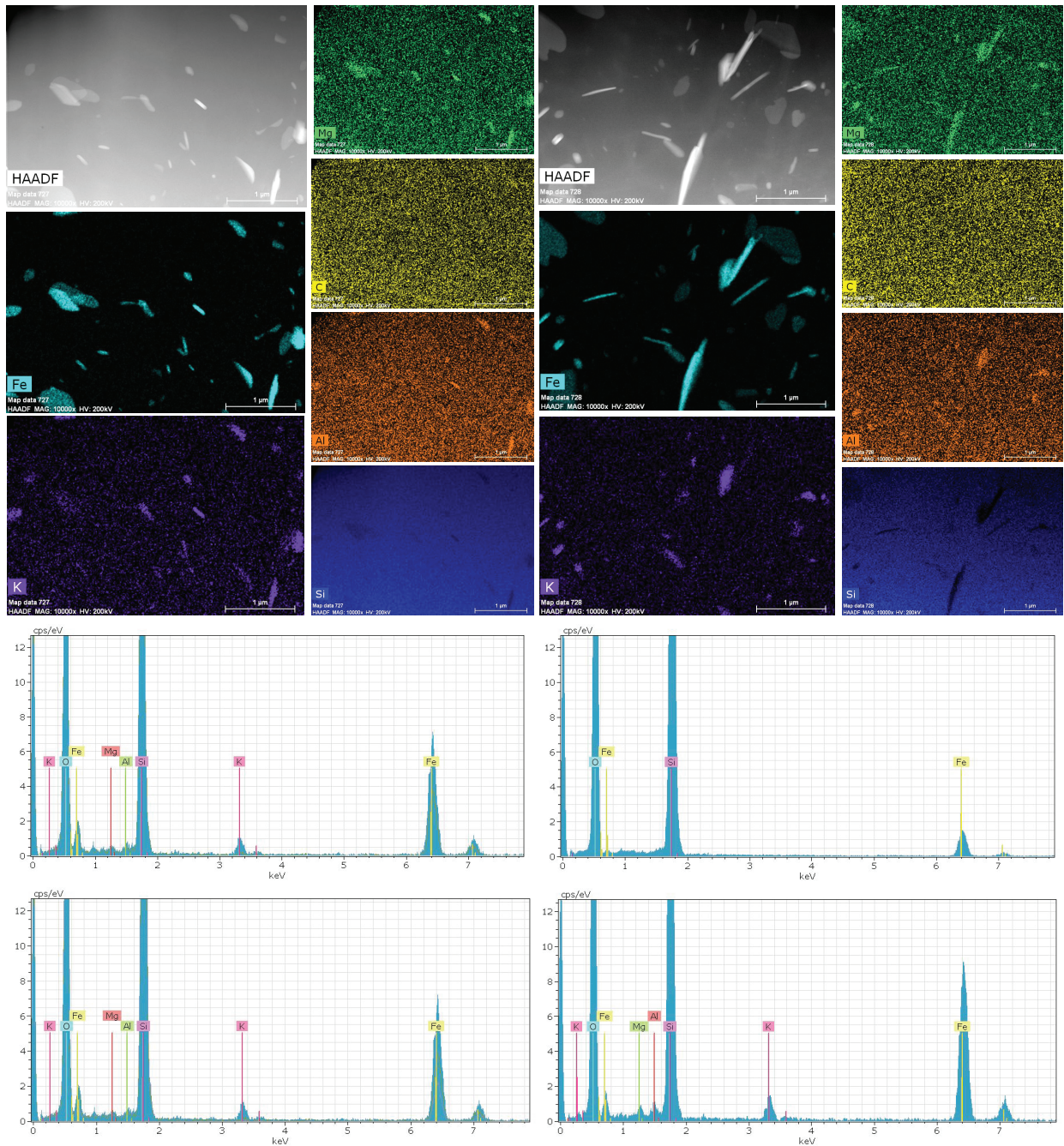
Scanning Transmission Electron Microscopy (STEM) images of ABDP9 288 m1 shown on top row, with elemental maps of Fe, Si, and C acquired from qualitative Energy Dispersive Spectroscopy (EDS) mapping on the TEM.

D. ABDP9 288 m2



Scanning Transmission Electron Microscopy (STEM) images of ABDP9 288 m2 shown alongside corresponding elemental maps of Fe, Al, Mg, Si, and C acquired from qualitative Energy Dispersive Spectroscopy (EDS) mapping on the TEM. Two EDS spectra are shown from particles that did not contain significant carbon and appear to be mainly comprised of Fe, Si and O – suggesting these are some form of iron silicate. One EDS spectra from a particle with high C is also presented, and the lack of Si and high Fe, C, and O suggests these particles are siderite.

E. Silv 313 m

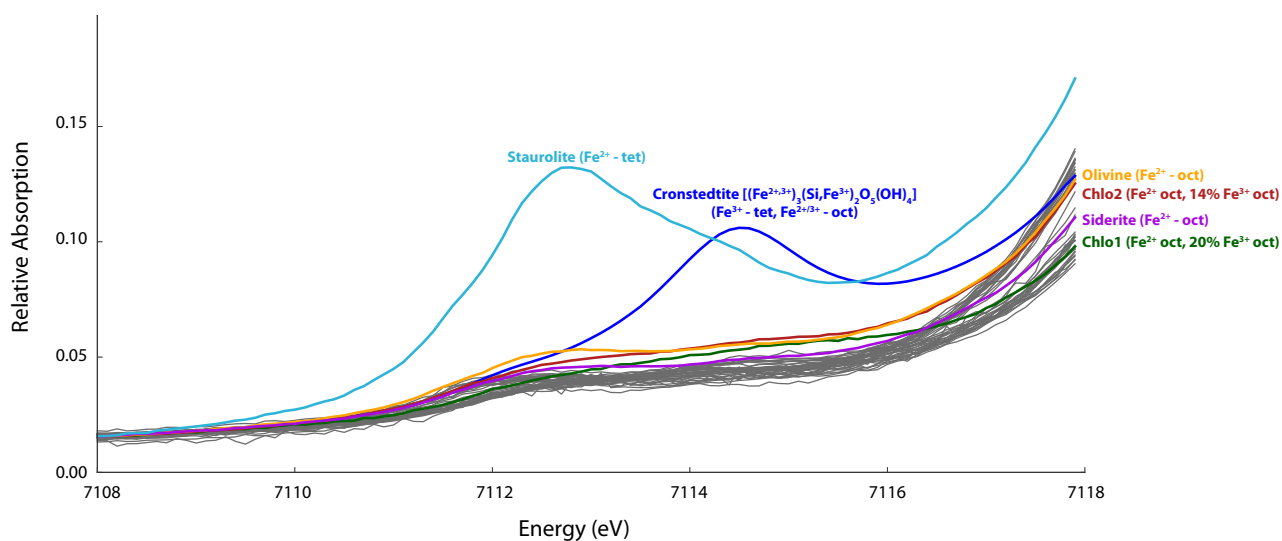


Scanning Transmission Electron Microscopy (STEM) images of Silv 313 m shown on top left, alongside corresponding elemental maps of Fe, K, Mg, C, Al, and Si acquired from qualitative Energy Dispersive Spectroscopy (EDS) mapping on the TEM. Two minerals appear to be present from their contrasting elemental signatures. Three EDS spectra from the K-bearing mineral are shown below, which also has higher Al and Mg. One EDS spectra from a particle without high K is shown on the upper right and only has measurable Fe, Si, and O.

Table S1:

All elements	Point 1	Point 2	Point 3	greenalite Fe ₃ Si ₂ O ₅ (OH) ₄
Si	17.48	16.21	16.68	15.1
Al	0.51	0.66	0.87	
Fe	41.09	39.75	39.01	45.1
O	40.91	43.37	43.44	38.7
TOTAL (norm)	99.99	99.99	100.00	371.70

Energy dispersive X-ray spectrometry analyses on several particles from GKF 327.2, normalized to 100, as compared to the weight % distribution among elements in ideal greenalite. These values are consistent with the greenalite identification of the nanoparticles, with slight excess in Si and O possibly due to the surrounding chert and/or water contamination. Analyses were quantified using the Bruker ESPRIT software and the Cliff-Lorimer correction procedure.

**Fig S5:**

The Fe K-edge pre-edge feature is useful for understanding redox state and coordination environment of Fe. Nanoparticles (Fe “background” in chert) from each thin section are plotted in gray, and are comparable to standards for Fe(II) in octahedral coordination in olivine and siderite, Fe(II) and Fe(III) octahedrally coordinated in chlorite standards with 14-20% Fe(III). The nanoparticle pre-edges contrast with tetrahedrally coordinated Fe(II) in a staurolite standard and the Fe(III)-rich 2-layer silicate cronstedtite. These measurements are consistent the nanoparticles having low Fe(III)/Fe_{Total}.

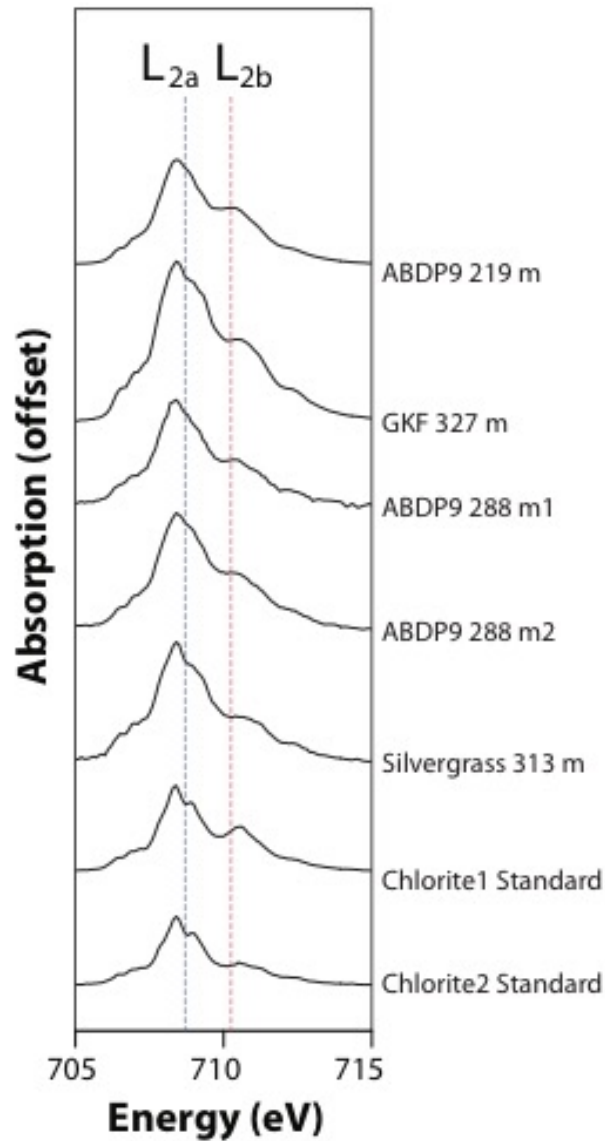


Fig S6:

L-edge X-ray absorption spectra of Fe, averaged across particles from a subregion of each sample FIB foil. The ratio of L_{2b}/L_{2a} can be used to quantify Fe^{3+} content using an iron silicate calibration established by Bourdelle et al (2013). For ease of comparison, ABDP9 288 m1 was vertically multiplied by 3 and ABDP9 288 m2 was vertically multiplied by 1.5. Also shown are chlorite standards measured during the same beam time as internal standards. Analytical results from these spectra are presented in Table S2.

Table S2:

Standard/sample	% Fe(III) calculated	Actual, if known
Chlorite1 standard	20.6	20
Chlorite2 standard	9.8	14
ABDP9 219 m	20.2	
GKF 327 m	18.6	
ABDP9 288 m1	15.7	
ABDP9 288 m2	17	
Silv 313 m	12.7	

Fe(III) content calculated from Fe L-edge spectra acquired by averaging a subregion of particles for each sample; also shown are internal calibration standards with their known Fe(III) values.

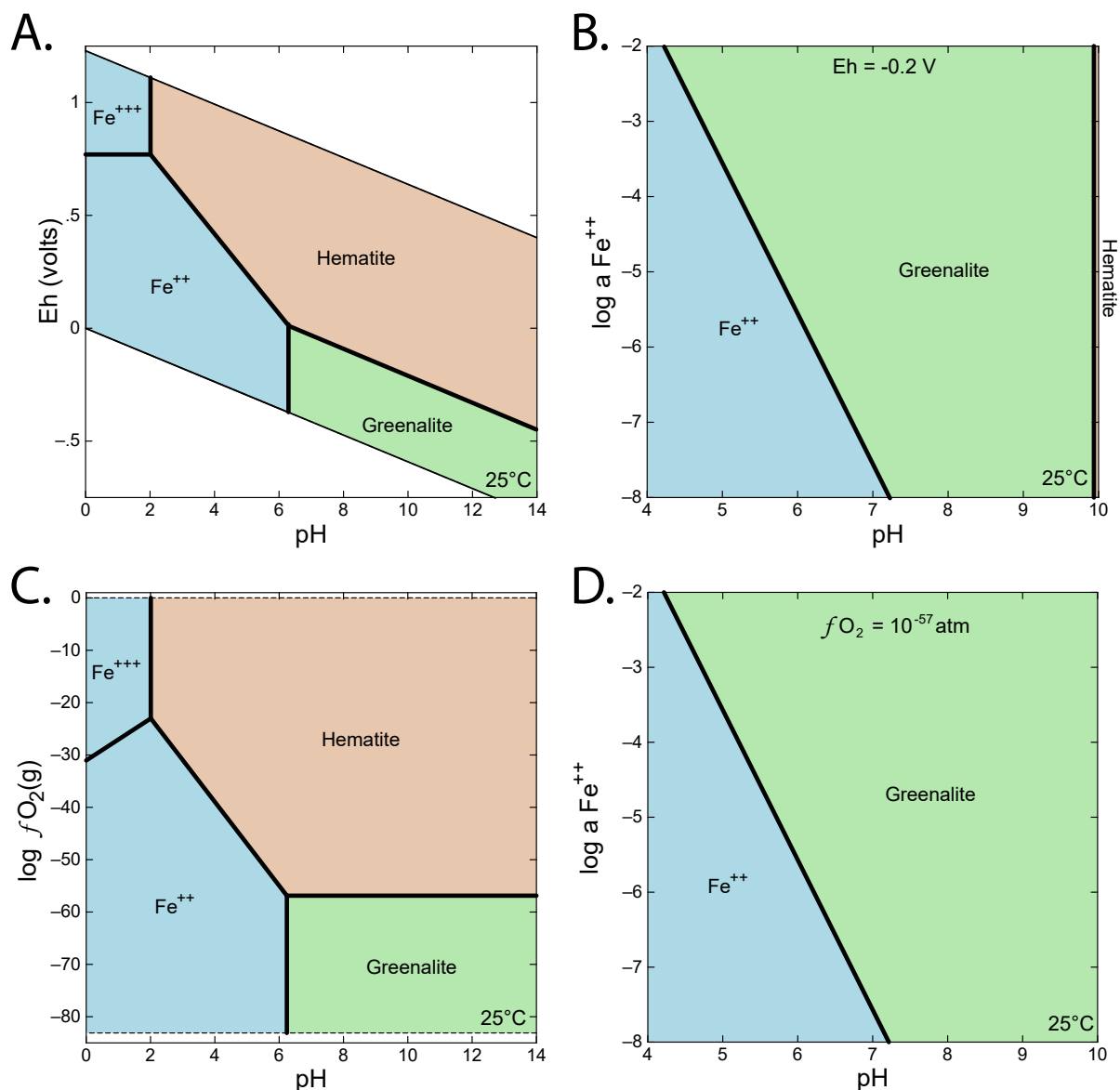


Fig S7:

Mineral stability diagrams for iron made in Geochemist's Workbench, with $[\text{SiO}_2]_{(\text{aq})}$ set to $10^{-2.71}$ M (amorphous silica saturation) and $[\text{CO}_2]_{\text{total}}$ set to 10^{-2} M. A. Eh vs. pH with boundaries set by the stability of water and $\text{Fe}^{2+} = 10^{-6}$ M. Solid lines constructed using solubility constant for greenalite calculated from Eugster and Chou (1973). B. The activity of Fe^{2+} plotted against pH at a set Eh = -0.2. Greenalite has a large stability field in this chemical space, and hematite would also be predicted to form at high pHs > ~10. C. Mineral stability diagram plotted by the fugacity of oxygen (f_{O_2}) vs pH. The stability field of greenalite encompasses a large pH range but constrains f_{O_2} to $< 10^{-56}$ atm. D. The activity of Fe^{2+} plotted against pH at $f_{\text{O}_2} = 10^{-57}$ atm.