# Occurrence and environmental significance of sideronatrite and other mineral precipitates in acid sulfate soils

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### Introduction

Acidification occurs if the amount of acidity produced exceeds the pH buffering capacity (the overall neutralizing capacity) of the soil. For sulfuric materials, the products of the chemical reactions can: (i) remain as dissolved constituents of soil pore waters, (ii) form a range of secondary minerals in the form of salt efflorescences comprising sulfate-rich salts that accumulate due to evaporation (e.g. epsomite and hexahydrite), (iii) undergo a series of hydrolysis reactions and precipitate new minerals such as iron oxyhydroxides and iron oxyhydroxysulfates (e.g. jarosite, natrojarosite, schwertmannite and sideronatrite) and (iv) accelerate the weathering or dissolution of minerals in soils and sediments. The hydroxysulfate minerals formed are important to recognize because they store acidity and metals that can subsequently generate poor water quality. Several studies have shown that dissolution of salt accumulations along stream banks during a rainstorm temporarily lowers pH and increases metal loads in streams (e.g. Fitzpatrick et al. 2009a,b). Such water quality impacts can have damaging effects on aquatic ecosystems and can complicate efforts to remediate acid drainage. Rainfall and rewetting events can also flush salts, leading to pulses of contaminated water flowing into streams or wetlands. Such flushes mean that these various products or minerals may or may not be present at a given site on a given day, depending on weather conditions.

## **Results and Discussion**

## Lake Alexandrina, Lake Albert and adjacent tributaries (Finniss River and Currency Creek)

Due to the extreme drought conditions in south-eastern Australia that commenced in about 2006, water levels have declined in Lake Alexandrina, Lake Albert and the River Murray system, especially in the section below Blanchetown (Lock 1) (e.g. Lake Alexandrina shown in Fig. 1a; Fitzpatrick et al. 2008a; 2009a,b). The reducing hypersulfidic material once covered by water has became exposed to oxygen at the river and lake margins (Figs. 1a and 2), and in adjacent wetlands. With continued lowering of water levels, the hypersulfidic material has become progressively oxidised to greater depths in the soil profile (Fig. 1). The spatial variation of the following soil features caused by receding water levels due to current extreme drought conditions is described in Figure 2: (i) monosulfidic material in the subaqueous soils, (ii) the prominent bright yellow mineral, sideronatrite, with a pH ranging between 1.3 to 1.6 on the soil surface, which overlies black hypersulfidic material in the soil pit (see close-up views in Fig. 1) and (iii) brownish-orange coatings of the mineral schwertmannite, which forms from sideronatrite (dissolves in rainwater and re-precipitates as schwertmannite).



The widespread occurrences of bright yellowish-green surface efflorescences can be observed at a range of scales from landscape (Fig. 1a) to soil profile (Figs. 1d and 2) scales and may be present as either finely dispersed powder in sand or as a 2 to 5 mm thick, sandy friable crust (Fig. 1c). These surface efflorescences contain mainly precipitates of the minerals sideronatrite

 $(Na_2Fe(SO_4)_2OH\cdot 3H_2O)$ , tamarugite  $(Na_2Al(SO_4)_2OH\cdot 3H_2O)$  and alunogen  $(Al_2(SO_4)_3\cdot 17H_2O)$ . Sideronatrite occurs as rosettes and platelets (Fig. 3) within sulfuric material (pH 0.8 to 1.6) on the soil surface. Sideronatrite is derived from the oxidation and dissolution of pyrite framboids, which occur mainly in the form of spheroidal aggregates of pyrite crystals (Fig. 4). Sideronatrite in the yellowish-green crusts dissolves and re-precipitates as schwertmannite (Figs. 1 and 2) in immediately adjacent zones where the pH is slightly higher, to display distinct orange patches or areas on the soil surface and diffuse orange mottles to a depth of 2 to 10 cm.

These minerals not only form seasonally during summer heat and high evaporative conditions in soils exposed by drought, but also during: (i) the winter rainfall cyclic wetting and drying events and (ii) the cyclic rewetting of the sulfidic materials due to lake level changes associated with seiching, which is likely to be an important acidity transfer mechanism from ASS to lake water. Seiching has a tidal effect, and occurs when wind blows shallow lake water onshore. Typical water level variations in Lake Alexandrina during seiching can be tens of centimetres according to wind strength and direction,

and may advance the waterline many tens of metres inland (i.e. up the beach) due to the shallow bathymetric gradient. The rewetting of sideronatrite by rainwater and seiching causes mineral dissolution and the resultant mobilisation of acid, iron, sulfate and sodium ions to immediately adjacent, temporary ponded areas, where orange coloured schwertmannite rapidly crystallises. This process has also been simulated in the laboratory by adding rainwater to both natural samples of the sideronatrite-rich crusts and synthetically prepared sideronatrite. A remarkably similar dissolution and precipitation mechanism was previously observed by Fitzpatrick et al. (2000) in sandy sulfuric materials in eroded river banks in the Mount Lofty Ranges. This was the first identification of the formation of sideronatrite (and tamarugite) in sulfuric materials on eroded stream banks and the subsequent formation of schwertmannite in immediately adjacent stream waters.

In addition, a wide range of highly soluble whitish coloured sulfate-containing evaporite minerals in sulfuric materials were identified in Lake Albert and Lake Alexandrina (i.e. pickeringite-halotrichite and redingtonite together with hexahydrite and epsomite – Fig. 4) that crystallise in micron thick layers on the exposed sandy soil surfaces during the winter rainfall cyclic wetting and drying events.



Fig. 3. Scanning electron micrograph, of bladed sideronatrite crystals [Na<sub>2</sub> Fe<sup>3+</sup>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>2</sub>(OH)·3(H<sub>2</sub>O)]. Sample as subsampled from Lake Alexandrina sample AA 32.1, 0-0.05 cm – from Fitzpatrick et al. 2008c). The image was taken in the secondary electron imaging mode, using a Phillips XL30 SEM, at a magnification of 6.50 kX. The approximate composition as analysed by Energy Dispersive X-ray analysis is illustrated in Fitzpatrick et al. 2008c.



Fig. 4. Scanning electron micrograph, of small, bladed sideronatrite crystals  $[Na_2Fe^{3+}(SO_4)_2(OH)\cdot 3H_2O]$  mixed with fine grained pyrite crystals (Pyr) [FeS<sub>2</sub>], redingtonite (Red) [(Fe<sup>2+</sup>, Mg, Ni) (Cr, Al)<sub>2</sub>(SO<sub>4</sub>)<sub>4</sub>·22H<sub>2</sub>O], and epsomite (Eps) [MgSO<sub>4</sub>·7H<sub>2</sub>O] infiltrating the conglomerate. Sample as sub-sampled from Lake Alexandrina; sample AA 29.2, 0-0.2 cm. The image was taken in the BSE imaging mode, using a Phillips XL30 SEM, at a magnification of 1.5kX (from Fitzpatrick *et al.* 2008c).

#### Conclusions

Soil-surface salt accumulations are unique in the region, which results from a combination of the characteristic Mediterranean type climate, hydrogeology, saline seepages, and salt crusting formed above sulfidic materials. These salt efflorescences are often dominated by the widespread occurrences of sideronatrite and tamarugite together with a large number of soluble minerals, including halite, gypsum, thenardite (Na<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>), hexahydrite and epsomite, and range in morphology from thin, powdery, very transient efflorescences to thicker, more persistent, soil-cementing crusts. The salt crusts form by the upward wicking of Na, Mg, Cl and SO<sub>4</sub> containing groundwaters and their subsequent surface evaporation. These Fe/Al oxyhydroxysulfate and oxyhydroxide minerals are indicators of very acidic soil conditions (i.e. the presence or former presence of oxidised pyrite), and as such their presence provides important environmental indicators of ASS (e.g. Fitzpatrick and Self 1997).

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