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1	Experimental study of smectite interaction with metal iron
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20	KEYWORDS: nuclear waste disposal, engineered barrier, clay barrier, iron-clay interactions,

21 iron corrosion, clay stability, X-ray diffraction, smectite.

ABSTRACT

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Interaction between metal iron and a variety of natural and synthetic smectites samples with 24 contrasting crystal chemistry was studied by scanning electron microscopy and X-ray 25 diffraction (XRD) from experiments conducted at 80°C. These experiments demonstrate an 26 important reactivity contrast as a function of smectite crystal chemistry. An XRD 27 quantification method involving the use of an internal standard allowed quantification of the 28 relative proportion of smectite destabilized as a function of initial pH conditions as well as of 29 smectite structural parameters. In mildly acidic to neutral pH conditions, a significant 30 proportion of metal iron is corroded to form magnetite without smectite destabilization. Under 31 basic pH conditions, smectite and metal iron are partly destabilized to form magnetite and 32 newly-formed 1:1 phyllosilicate phases (odinite and crondstedtite). Systematic destabilization 33 34 of both metal iron and smectite is observed for dioctahedral smectites while trioctahedral smectites are essentially unaffected under similar experimental conditions. Smectite reactivity 35 is enhanced with increasing Fe³⁺ content and with the presence of Na⁺ cations in smectite 36 interlayers. A conceptual model for smectite destabilization is proposed. This model involves 37 first the release of protons from smectite structure, MeFe³⁺OH groups being deprotonated 38 preferentially and metal iron acting as proton acceptor. Corrosion of metal iron results from 39 its interaction with these protons. Fe^{2+} cations resulting from this corrosion process sorb on 40 the edges of smectite particles and lead to induce the reduction of structural Fe³⁺ and migrate 41 into smectite interlayers to compensate for the increased layer charge deficit. Interlayer Fe²⁺ 42 cations subsequently migrate to the octahedral sheet of smectite because of the extremely 43 large layer charge deficit. At low temperature, this migration is favored by the reaction time 44 and by the absence of protons within the di-trigonal cavity. Smectite destabilization results 45

- 46 from the inability of the tetrahedral sheets to accommodate the larger dimensions of the newly
- 47 formed trioctahedral domains resulting from the migration of Fe^{2+} cations.

INTRODUCTION

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In some of the "multi-barriers" concepts envisaged for the storage of high- and 50 intermediate-level and/or long-lived nuclear waste, metallic containers filled with vitrified 51 nuclear waste are placed in a confinement barrier itself surrounded by a geological barrier. 52 The reactive components of the engineered and geological barriers are clavs (mainly 53 smectites) while metallic containers could be made up of iron. To predict the long-term 54 properties of these clay barriers, it is thus essential to study the interactions between clay 55 minerals, and more especially smectite, and metal iron as the corrosion of the metallic canister 56 57 could induce in turn the destabilization of the clay minerals.

Studies of these iron-clay interactions have shown indeed the partial but systematic 58 destabilization of the initial clay material and the subsequent crystallization of reaction 59 products (Habert, 2000; Perronnet, 2001, 2004; Kohler, 2001; Lantenois, 2003; Guillaume et 60 al., 2003). The nature of these reaction products depends on experimental conditions such as 61 62 temperature and, to a minor extent, the nature of the initial clay material. When smectite is used, iron-rich chlorite-like species are synthesized at high temperature (300°C - Guillaume et 63 al., 2003) whereas iron-rich serpentine-like species are obtained for temperatures more 64 65 realistic in the context of nuclear waste disposal (80°C - Habert, 2000; Perronnet, 2001, 2004; Lantenois, 2003). Newly formed 1:1 phyllosilicates with low iron content were also identified 66 by Kohler (2001) after reaction between iron metal and kaolinite/smectite mixtures at 80°C. 67

As reaction pathways appear to vary significantly as a function of temperature (Guillaume *et al.*, 2003; Lantenois, 2003), it is especially important to work at temperatures similar to those expected during storage lifetimes, thus generally excluding medium-to-high temperature experiments (>200°C). Experimental conditions have been chosen to mimic those of the repository, and experiments were thus performed in an anoxic and reducing

environment. The clay materials used for this study were essentially natural smectites which
have swelling and self-healing abilities and cation retention properties suitable for engineered
barriers. To promote the reactivity of clays so that significant reaction progress could be
obtained on a laboratory-compatible timescale, the water/solid ratio was significantly
increased.

A method has been developed to quantify the amount of smectite destabilized as a result of its interaction with metal iron. The aim of the present study was to determine the role of the nature of clay minerals on the contrasting reactivity observed during their hydrothermal reaction with iron metal by using a variety of starting materials. Specifically, the structural characteristics responsible for these differences were sought, together with the mechanism of clay destabilization. The companion paper (Lantenois *et al.*, 2005) will describe the crystalchemistry of newly-formed phases.

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MATERIALS AND METHODS

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88 Materials

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A variety of natural and synthetic smectite samples with contrasting crystal chemistry were used in the present study. These samples were selected to include both di- and trioctahedral varieties, smectite with octahedral or tetrahedral substitutions, and to cover a wide range of chemical composition, focusing on the iron content. Chemical compositions of selected samples are reported in Table 1. Untreated bulk samples were ground in an agate mortar to increase their reactivity, but samples were neither size-fractionated nor purified.

96 Synthetic clays were crystallized from gels under hydrothermal conditions. Gels were
 97 prepared following a method adapted from Hamilton and Henderson (1968) using tetraethyl

orthosilicate (TEOS), Mg(NO₃)₂.6H₂O, Al(NO₃)₃.9H₂O, Fe(NO₃)₃.9H₂O, HNO₃, Na₂CO₃, 98 99 NH4OH and ethanol. All reagents had a 99% minimum grade. After dissolution of Al- and Mg-nitrates and of Na₂CO₃ in nitric acid, TEOS and ethanol were added. A precipitate was 100 obtained by neutralizing the resulting solution at $pH \sim 6$ with addition of NH₄OH. This 101 precipitate was dried at 80°C for 24 hours, ground in an agate mortar and heated to 400°C to 102 remove nitrates and carbonates and to obtain a gel composed essentially of Al, Mg, Si and Na 103 104 oxides. SapFe08 saponite was synthesized from such gels in a cold-sealed pressure vessel. Gel and deionized water were introduced in a 2:1 weight ratio in a silver tube itself placed in 105 the vessel heated at 400°C for one month at an estimated pressure of 100 MPa (Suquet et al., 106 107 1977). The SbS-1 beidellite was synthesized in an internally heated pressure vessel. 600 mg of gel were mixed to 1.3 g of a NaOH solution (0.2N) in a gold tube. The tube was then 108 sealed and heated to 350°C under 22 MPa for 10 days (Kloprogge et al., 1999). After cooling 109 110 of the vessels, the solid products were extracted from the reaction tubes, dried at 80°C overnight, and ground before structural and chemical characterization using X-ray diffraction 111 (XRD) and energy dispersive X-ray fluorescence spectroscopy (EDS) on a transmission 112 electron microscope (TEM). 113

To better assess the role of the interlayer composition on the reaction rate K-, Na-, and 114 Ca-saturated specimens were prepared for samples SWy-2, Garfield, and SAz-1. The cation 115 exchange procedure was performed at room temperature by immersing the ground clay 116 sample in 1M KCl, NaCl or CaCl₂ aqueous solutions. After 12 hours of contact, the solid was 117 extracted by centrifugation. The saturation procedure was repeated four times. The excess 118 chloride was then removed by washing the sample five times with distilled water (K- and Ca-119 saturated samples). Na-saturated samples were washed once in ethanol, and then dialysed in 120 deionized water for one week. 121

For the iron-clay interactions, 0.6 g of the clay powder were mixed with 0.6 g of metal 125 iron powder (10 µm maximum size, Merck[®] product for analysis) to maximize the contact 126 surface between iron and clay particles. The large amount of metal iron was intended also to 127 promote reducing conditions during the experiments. 30 mL of water were added to this 128 initial mixture. Deionized water (with a resistivity $>18M\Omega$ cm⁻¹) was used to allow studying 129 the final solution composition. Samples were prepared in a MBraun[®] glove box equipped with 130 copper catalysts to eliminate O₂, and a MBraun[®] O₂ control system. Partial pressure of O₂ was 131 lower than 1 ppm during sample preparation. Deionized water was degassed with Argon for 132 one hour prior to its introduction in the glove box and all products were allowed to stay in the 133 glove box for 24 hours to equilibrate with the glove box atmosphere. Starting products were 134 then placed in 40 mL Nalgene[®] reactors. Because these reactors are oxygen porous, a "double 135 enclosure system" was used where the Nalgene[®] reactors were inserted into larger Teflon[®] 136 137 reactors which contain metal iron powder, FeSO₄ and water. Any oxygen entering the Teflon reactors was thus eliminated according to reactions (1) and (2) with ferrous and metal iron, 138 respectively (Aogaki, 1999). 139

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$$2Fe^{2+} + 1/2O_2 + 3H_2O \rightarrow 4H^+ + 2FeOOH$$
 (1)

$$2Fe^{\circ} + 3/2O_2 + 3H_2O \rightarrow 2Fe(OH)_3$$
⁽²⁾

The two reactors were tightly closed within the glove box and subsequently heated at 80°C for 45 days outside of the glove box. Additional experiments were also performed for 5, 15, 30, 60, 90 and 120 days on selected samples (Garfield, SbId, SWy-2 and SapCa-2). At the end of the reactions, reactors were cooled down to room temperature and opened in air, the solution pH being measured immediately. The solution was subsequently filtered (0.45 μm) and acidified for chemical analysis, whereas the solid fraction was dried at 80°C overnight
and ground.

Filtered solutions were analyzed for major and trace elements (Si, Al, Fe, Mg, Ti, Na, Ca and K) with an ICP-AES Jobin-Yvon ULTIMA spectrometer. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) was performed using a JEOL 6400 microscope. Samples were covered with a Au film before observation to avoid charge build up. TEM was performed using a JEOL 2000 FX microscope operated at 200 kV. Samples were prepared as a suspension in deionized water, a drop of this suspension being dried on copper grids covered with a carbon film.

Powder XRD patterns were recorded in transmission geometry using CoK α radiation (35 mA, 35 kV) to avoid iron fluorescence. The use of an INEL CPS 120 curved position sensitive detector allowed recording simultaneously the diffracted intensity over a 4-50°20 range with a step size of 0.03°. The non-linearity of the detector was corrected (Roux and Wolfinger, 1996). A 0.5 mm diameter Lindemann glass tube was used to hold the sample powder.

Infrared (IR) spectra were recorded over the 650–4000 cm⁻¹ range with a 2 cm⁻¹ 162 resolution using a Nicolet Magna-IR Fourier transform spectrometer equipped with a Globar 163 SiC source and a DTGS detector. The spectrometer was purged with dry air prior to data 164 collection to remove most of atmospheric H₂O. The sample was finely ground in an agate 165 mortar, and 0.5 mg of the resulting powder was mixed to 150 mg of KBr previously dried at 166 167 120°C for 24 hours. The mixture was homogenized and pressed in an evacuable die to prepare a 12 mm diameter pellet. Decomposition of the IR spectra in the OH bending region 168 $(700 - 900 \text{ cm}^{-1})$ was performed with Peak-Fit (v4.05). 169

The cation exchange capacity (CEC) was measured using the copper complex method (Gaboriau, 1991). 600 mg of sample were suspended for 12 hours in 25 mL of a 0.02 N

ethylene di-amine copper complex (Cu(EDA)₂Cl₂) solution. After centrifugation, the Cu
concentration in solution was measured using a 905-GBC atomic absorption
spectrophotometer from GBC Scientific Equipment.

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176 *Quantification of the relative proportion of smectite destabilized after reaction*

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To estimate reaction progress, the amount of residual smectite was quantified by XRD 178 using the internal standard technique adapted to clays by Hillier (2000). As recommended by 179 this author, each sample was mixed with 10% of a corundum internal standard (particle size 180 181 $< 50 \mu$ m), dry ground in an agate mortar for 10 minutes and then introduced in the Lindeman glass tube. The use of a glass tube in transmission geometry allows optimizing sample 182 disorientation. Segregation due to particle size and/or particle density was minimized by 183 184 careful grinding and mixing. Absorption corrections have not been considered because absorption, which is closely related to sample chemical composition, is similar before and 185 after reaction. 186

The (001) reflection of smectite was not selected for quantification, because its 187 intensity strongly depends on smectite hydration state and thus on the chemical composition 188 of smectite interlayers, which can be modified during the reaction. The amount of residual 189 smectites was rather quantified by measuring the integrated intensity of the (02,11) band 190 (between 22.0° and 27.0°2 θ CoK α - Figure 1) before and after reaction, these intensities 191 being normalized to the (012) reflection of corundum (29.8°2 θ CoK α - Figure 1). 192 Background was assumed to be linear between 22.0 and 27.0°20 and subtracted. If quartz 193 impurities were present, the (100) reflection of quartz ($\sim 24.3^{\circ}2\theta$ CoK α) was fitted, and its 194 integrated intensity subtracted from the total integrated intensity. To assess the validity of 195 XRD results, the relative proportion of reacted smectite was also quantified from CEC 196

measurements performed before and after reaction, the observed CEC decrease being directly
linked to the amount of destabilized smectite. This assumption was made possible by the nonswelling character of the reaction products (Lantenois, 2003; Lantenois *et al.*, 2005).

The amount of residual smectite was also quantified using IR spectroscopy. Over the 200 OH bending frequency range, three bands at 912-920 cm⁻¹, 874-886 cm⁻¹, and 840-850 cm⁻¹ 201 correspond to the Al-Al-OH, Al-Fe-OH and Al-Mg-OH vibrations of smectites, respectively 202 (Farmer, 1974; Goodman et al., 1976; Russell and Fraser, 1994; Vantelon et al., 2001). The 203 position reported in the literature for the Fe-Fe-OH band scatters from 820-795 cm⁻¹ 204 (Goodman et al., 1976; Cuadros and Altaner, 1998) and overlaps with the Si-O vibrations of 205 quartz at 780 and 800 cm⁻¹ (Madejova and Komadel, 2001). To avoid using this problematic 206 band, reaction progress was quantified using IR spectroscopy for Fe-poor smectites only. The 207 quantification method itself requires subtracting a baseline which corresponds to Si-O 208 vibrations in phyllosilicates (Figure 2a - Vantelon et al., 2001). A cubic spline baseline, 209 similar for all samples, was adjusted on both sides of the region of interest (817-822 cm⁻¹ and 210 940-945 cm⁻¹, respectively). The 822-945 cm⁻¹ range of the baseline-corrected spectra was 211 then fitted with three Gaussian-shaped curves (Figures 2b) corresponding to Al-Al-OH, Al-212 Fe-OH and Al-Mg-OH vibration modes. Relative proportion of unaltered smectite was 213 estimated from the ratio between the total surface areas determined for these three 214 contributions before and after reaction. 215

RESULTS

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219 Qualitative evaluation of the reaction progress

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Long-term experiments show that the reaction progress reaches a plateau after about 30 days (see below). Except when specifically notified, reactions described in the following section were thus performed for 45 days, without constraining the solution pH. The observed reaction depends on the nature of the initial smectite sample. In particular di- and trioctahedral smectites exhibit contrasting reactivities and will be described separately.

226 Dioctahedral smectites. Although reaction progress varies considerably as a function of the initial smectite sample, a similar effect was observed for all dioctahedral smectites. After 45 227 days, solution pH was not significantly modified, whereas the chemical composition of the 228 solutions was altered (Table 2). In particular, the concentration in solution of alkali and alkali-229 earth cations which were initially present in smectite interlayers (Na⁺, Ca²⁺, and K⁺) was 230 significantly increased after reaction (Table 2) together with that of silicon. For smectite 231 samples reacted without metal iron, Si was not detected in solution, and the concentration in 232 solution of alkali and alkali-earth cations after reaction was lower than in similar experiments 233 234 performed in presence of metal iron (Table 2). In all reacted samples residual metal iron was systematically present together with newly-formed phases (magnetite and 7 Å phyllosilicates 235 - Figure 1a-e). However, iron particles observed in all reacted samples appear corroded as 236 compared to their initial state (Figure 3a,b). In addition, clay particles with a distinct 237 morphology were observed in all reacted samples (Figure 3c). These particles most likely 238 correspond to the newly-formed phyllosilicate phase. Unreacted clay particles were also 239 observed for both montmorillonite and beidellite samples (Figures 3d,e). Accordingly, 240 residual smectite was identified for montmorillonite and beidellite samples from its (02,11) 241

band at $\sim 23^{\circ}2\theta$ CoK α (Figure 1a-d). The intensity of this characteristic band was much reduced after reaction for Garfield nontronite sample (Figure 1e), in agreement with the absence of unreacted clay particles in the reacted Garfield sample (Figure 3f).

Trioctahedral smectites. For saponite samples, solution pH and composition are not significantly modified after 45 days of iron-clay interactions (Table 2). Accordingly, XRD patterns recorded on both unreacted and reacted samples are alike (Figure 1f). In particular, the (02,11) band (~23°20 CoK α) is similar in both samples, an even the (001) reflection (~7°20 CoK α) is practically unaffected. In addition, no extra reflection was visible after reaction. SEM observations support this lack of reactivity as both iron (not shown) and clay particles (Figures 3g,h) appear unaltered after 45 days.

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253 *Quantification of the extent of smectite destabilization*

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A quantitative estimate of the relative proportion of smectite destabilized after reaction was obtained from XRD results using the internal standard method (Hillier, 2000). Results of this quantification are presented in Table 1. The absolute precision on the relative proportion of smectite destabilized was estimated to be $\pm 10\%$. This estimate corresponds to the standard deviation of twelve measurements obtained for 45 day experiments performed with sample SWy-2.

Using this quantitative XRD method it was possible to demonstrate the reactivity contrast as a function of the nature of initial smectite samples. For the different smectites presented in Figure 1, the relative proportion of destabilized smectite scatters indeed from 0-95%. Trioctahedral smectites (SapCa-2 and SapFe08 samples) were essentially unaffected as a result of their interactions with iron, while the dioctahedral smectites were systematically destabilized. Montmorillonite (20 and 50% of destabilized smectite for SAz-1 sample and

SWy-2 samples, respectively) and beidellites (40, 60 and 70% of destabilized smectite for CP4, SbId, and Drayton samples, respectively) were less destabilized than ferruginous smectites or nontronites (90 and 95% of destabilized smectite for SWa-1 and Garfield samples, respectively).

These quantification results were positively correlated to the estimates made using 271 CEC measurements (Figure 4a). The precision of the CEC determination $(\pm 10\%)$, which 272 corresponds to the standard deviation of six measurements obtained for 45 day experiments 273 performed with sample SWy-2, is similar to that of the XRD method. A good correlation was 274 also obtained with the IR quantification results except for the Drayton sample (Figure 4b) 275 276 which contains a significant proportion of ferric iron (0.47 per $O_{10}(OH)_2$ – Table 1). Precision was estimated from the standard deviation of six measurements obtained for 45 day 277 experiments performed with sample SWy-2. IR measurements of reaction progress were 278 found to be less precise $(\pm 15\%)$ than those using XRD and CEC methods mostly as a result of 279 the uncertainty on the baseline determination. In addition, note that IR results obtained on raw 280 materials may be correlated with XRD data only in the absence of kaolinite which exhibits a 281 band at 911 cm⁻¹ which may interfere with the Al-Al-OH, Al-Fe-OH and Al-Mg-OH vibration 282 modes. 283

284 For the three quantification methods, the possible influence of the newly-formed clay phases was neglected. This approximation was justified by the nature (crondstedtite, odinite) 285 of the newly-formed phases (Lantenois, 2003; Lantenois et al., 2005). These 1:1 286 phyllosilicates were indeed non-swelling species thus exhibiting an extremely low CEC. In 287 addition, these phases include a large amount of structural iron. As a result, the (02,11) band 288 of these iron-rich 1:1 phyllosilicates was significantly shifted towards lower angles (at 289 ~4.7 Å) as compared to the (02,11) band of initial smectite samples (at 4.45-4.56 Å for the 290 whole compositional range). In addition the intensity of the (02,11) band of these iron-rich 1:1 291

phyllosilicates was found to be extremely low, thus not affecting significantly the XRD measurements (Lantenois, 2003; Lantenois *et al.*, 2005). The OH bending bands observed for these iron-rich 1:1 phyllosilicates were also shifted towards lower frequencies (750-800 cm⁻¹ – Lantenois, 2003; Lantenois *et al.*, 2005) as compared to initial Al-rich smectites (820-940 cm⁻¹).

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298 Kinetics of smectite destabilization

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XRD quantification of the relative proportion of smectite destabilized after reaction 300 301 also allowed deriving the kinetics of this destabilization reaction. For example, XRD patterns obtained for samples SbId reacted for 0, 5, 15, 30 and 45 days are presented in Figure 5. 302 These experimental patterns are normalized to the (012) reflection of corundum so that the 303 304 relative intensity of the (02,11) band can be compared for all samples. The relative proportion of smectite destabilized was estimated from the intensity decrease of this (02,11) band as a 305 function of reaction time (0-120 days). Results are plotted in Figure 6 for four samples (SbId, 306 Garfield, SWy-2 and SapCa-2). As described qualitatively, no reaction was observed for 307 sample SapCa-2. For dioctahedral smectites, the relative proportion of destabilized smectite 308 increases with time to reach a steady-state plateau after 30-45 days. The amount of 309 destabilized smectite obtained after 45 days can be considered as the final one for all 310 smectites. As was qualitatively observed the extent of smectite destabilization varies 311 significantly as a function of the initial samples (50%, 60% and 95% of destabilized smectite 312 for the SWy-2, SbId and Garfield samples, respectively) 313

DISCUSSION

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Quantification by XRD of the relative proportion of destabilized smectite allowed demonstrating that reaction progress strongly depends on the nature of the initial smectite sample, and that reaction kinetics cannot account for the reactivity contrast between different smectite samples. In the following discussion, the origin of these contrasting reactivities will be sought, and the influence of some structural characteristics of smectites will be discussed to hypothesize reaction mechanisms for the destabilization of smectite.

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324 Influence of pH on smectite destabilization

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The initial solution pH, which is obtained by equilibrating the different smectite 326 samples in water, depends on the nature of the smectite, and varies from 7.5-10.5 (SbId-1 and 327 SWy-2, respectively – Table 2). To assess the impact of this parameter on reaction progress, 328 the relative proportion of destabilized smectite was determined as a function of the initial pH 329 for sample SWy-2. Initial pH was adjusted by adding HCl or NaOH to the initial mixture. 330 Relative proportion of destabilized smectite is reported in Table 3. When initial pH is basic 331 (8-12 pH range), the nature of the reaction products and the reaction progress are independent 332 on pH (Table 3). Conversely, reaction is dramatically different when initial pH is mildly 333 acidic to neutral. In such case, a large proportion of metal iron is dissolved, whereas iron 334 oxides, identified as magnetite using XRD (data not shown), precipitate extensively. In 335 addition, smectite appears unaffected (Table 3). A similar reaction, with the precipitation of 336 magnetite and the stability of smectite, was observed for SapCa-2 and Garfield samples when 337 initial pH was mildly acidic to neutral (Table 3). 338

Under mildly acidic to neutral pH conditions such as those of the present study (pH = 6), smectite remains unaltered in presence of metal iron whatever its nature. However, smectite plays a catalytic role as in the same experimental conditions (45 days, 80°C, initial pH = 6) metal iron is not destabilized in the absence of smectite whereas in presence of smectite metal iron is oxidized, most likely from its interaction with solution protons, to form magnetite according to the following reaction:

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$$\operatorname{Fe}^{\circ} + 2\operatorname{H}^{+} \to \operatorname{Fe}^{2+} + \operatorname{H}_{2}(\times 3)$$

 $2Fe^{2+} + 2H^+ \rightarrow 2 Fe^{3+} + H_2$

347
$$Fe^{2+} + 2 Fe^{3+} + 4 H_2O \rightarrow Fe_3O_4 + 8 H^+$$

348 $3 Fe^{\circ} + 4 H_2O \rightarrow Fe_3O_4 + 4 H_2$ (3)

In our experiments, the production of gaseous H₂ during the reaction was not observed as Nalgene[®] reactors were H₂ porous.

Under more basic pH conditions (pH > 7 obtained from the addition of NaOH if necessary), the reaction is dramatically different as dioctahedral smectites are involved in the reaction. Dioctahedral smectites are then destabilized to form new clay phases according to the following reaction:

355 Metal iron + smectite \rightarrow 1:1 iron-rich phyllosilicate + iron oxides (4)

Under these basic pH conditions, destabilization of dioctahedral smectite is systematic but the amount of destabilized smectite varies significantly from one sample to the other most likely as a function of the initial smectite crystal chemistry. Note that except for Ksaturated smectites the equilibration pH of smectite with water is basic. The pH is essentially unaffected by iron-clay interactions.

Influence of the di- or tri-octahedral character. Although initial pH values are alike, and basic, for both di- and tri-octahedral smectites, the reactivity of trioctahedral smectites is strikingly different from that of dioctahedral ones. Dioctahedral smectites are indeed systematically destabilized as the result of their interaction with metal iron whereas trioctahedral smectites remain unaffected under similar experimental conditions (Figures 1, 6). This lack of reactivity is independent on the iron content of trioctahedral smectites and on the nature of the interlayer cation.

Influence of structural Fe^{3+} . As can be seen in Figure 6 and in Table 1, nontronite and 371 ferruginous smectites are thoroughly destabilized as the result of their interaction with metal 372 iron. In both cases, Fe^{3+} is the predominant cation in the octahedral sheet of these 2:1 373 expandable phyllosilicates which exhibit mostly tetrahedral substitutions (Table 1). By 374 contrast, the extent of the destabilization is much reduced for smectites that are not iron-rich, 375 whatever the origin of the layer charge deficit. However, this decrease of reactivity is less 376 important for beidellites (tetrahedral layer charge) than for montmorillonites (octahedral layer 377 charge) for a given Fe³⁺ content. To illustrate further the influence of the amount of structural 378 iron on smectite destabilization, XRD patterns of reacted and unreacted samples are compared 379 in Figures 1 and 7 for dioctahedral smectites with predominant tetrahedral charges 380 (beidellites). Their octahedral Fe^{3+} content which ranges from 0.0-1.9 per O₁₀(OH)₂. Relative 381 proportions of destabilized smectites are reported as a function of the Fe³⁺ content in Figure 8. 382 No reaction is observed when no structural Fe^{3+} is present in dioctahedral smectites, and 383 smectite is not destabilized (Figures 7a, 8). The presence of structural Fe^{3+} is thus an essential 384 condition for the destabilization of dioctahedral smectites when in contact with metal iron. 385 The minimum amount of structural Fe^{3+} necessary to induce this destabilization is extremely 386

low as 60% of samples SbId is destabilized after 45 days of reaction with metal iron, in spite of its limited Fe³⁺ content (0.1 atom per O₁₀(OH)₂). In addition to this essential triggering role, the reactivity of dioctahedral smectite is clearly enhanced by an increased content of octahedral Fe³⁺ (Figure 8). However, this parameter is not the only structural parameter influencing smectite reactivity as, for example, the relative proportion of destabilized smectite is much higher for sample SbId than for sample CP4, in spite of the higher Fe³⁺ content in the latter sample (Figures 1c,d, 8 – Table 1).

Influence of the interlayer cation composition. The cation composition of smectite interlayers 394 appears as an additional parameter influencing the reactivity of dioctahedral smectites. All 395 samples used in the experiments reported to this point were unprocessed, and Ca²⁺ was 396 usually predominant in their interlayer spaces (Table 1). However, K⁺ was also present in CP4 397 and SbId, whereas Na⁺ was present in several samples (SbId, SWy-2, SAz-1), and Mg²⁺ in 398 Drayton sample. To assess the influence of the interlayer cation composition on smectite 399 reactivity, three smectite samples (SWy-2, SAz-1 and Garfield) were reacted with metal iron 400 following their saturation with Na⁺, Ca²⁺, and K⁺. XRD patterns of reacted SWy-2 samples 401 are presented in Figure 9, whereas the relative proportions of smectite destabilized after 45 402 days of reaction with metal iron are reported in Table 4. If Ca-saturated smectites are used as 403 a reference, smectite destabilization is enhanced for Na-saturated smectites whereas it is 404 decreased for K-saturated samples. 405

The reactivity contrast observed as a function of the interlayer cation composition is most likely related to the hydration of smectite which varies as a function of the interlayer cation (Norrish, 1954; Pons *et al.*, 1981). The $d_{(001)}$ basal spacing of K⁺-saturated smectites varies indeed from 12.5-15.5 Å in aqueous solution (Mamy, 1968; Besson and Tchoubar, 1980), whereas that of Ca²⁺-saturated smectites is 18.6-19.2 Å (Suquet, 1978). The $d_{(001)}$ basal spacing of Na⁺-saturated smectites is not limited (osmotic swelling – Suquet *et al.*, 1981). No significant collapse of smectite interlayers is expected as the ionic strength of the solutions, and more specifically the concentration of alkali and alkali-earth cations, remains low after reaction (Table 2). The enhanced reactivity observed for the most hydrated samples (Na⁺ > $Ca^{2+} > K^+$) indicates that the ability of solution cations to access smectite interlayers is a key parameter to smectite destabilization.

Accordingly, the interlayer cation composition of samples CP4 ad SbId is likely 417 responsible for their contrasting reactivity which does not seem to be consistent with their 418 respective Fe³⁺ contents (Figure 8, Table 1). Specifically, the presence of Na⁺ in the 419 interlayers of sample SbId most likely enhances its reactivity as compared to sample CP4 in 420 spite of the higher iron content in the latter sample. The influence of the cation interlayer 421 composition may also account for the different reactivity exhibited by populations of particles 422 observed in sample CP4. Using TEM-EDX, two populations of particles were indeed 423 differentiated from their morphology, as "rolled" and "flat" particles were identified in this 424 sample (Figure 10). The chemical analysis of these two types of particles revealed that 425 although the composition of the 2:1 layers was identical in both cases, the two populations 426 differed by their interlayer cation composition as the following structural formulae were 427 derived for "rolled" and "flat" particles, respectively (average values from twelve analyses): 428

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$$(Ca_{0.18} K_{0.03})[Fe^{(III)}_{0.28}Al_{1.72}][Si_{3.60}Al_{0.40}] O_{10}(OH)_2$$
(5)

$$(Ca_{0.13} K_{0.13})[Fe^{(III)}_{0.31}Al_{1.69}][Si_{3.60}Al_{0.40}] O_{10}(OH)_2$$
(6)

After reaction with metal iron, no remnant "rolled" particles were observed and only "flat" particles persisted. This is likely due to the increased proportion of K^+ in the interlayer of the latter particles which reduces their reactivity. Note that because long-term experiments were not performed on homoionic samples, it is not clear if the relative proportion of smectite ultimately destabilized varies from one cation to the other, or if the nature of the interlayer cation essentially influences the destabilization rate.

438 *Towards a possible model for smectite destabilization*

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Experimental constrains. From the above observations, several structural features appear as 440 essential to the destabilization of smectite when in contact with metal iron. First, the smectite 441 should be dioctahedral and should contain octahedral Fe^{3+} . In addition, the accessibility of its 442 interlayer space is a key parameter for the apparent reactivity of the dioctahedral smectite. 443 Finally, when comparing experiments run at different pH values, structural protons of the 444 smectite are likely involved in the oxidation of metal iron under neutral-to-alkaline 445 446 conditions. In mildly acidic to neutral conditions, solution protons are abundant enough so that smectite is used essentially as a catalyst but is not directly involved in the corrosion of 447 iron following Reaction (3). Under high pH conditions, protons are essentially present as OH 448 groups in smectite, as both smectite interlayer and edge sites are essentially deprotonated 449 under such pH conditions. 450

Deprotonation of these hydroxyl groups may occur under a variety of physico-451 chemical conditions for dioctahedral smectites (Russel, 1979; Jaymes and Bigham, 1987; 452 Heller-Kallai and Rozenson, 1981; Heller-Kallai, 2001 - Figure 11a). In particular, the 453 454 presence of inorganic proton acceptors, usually alkali halides or alkali hydroxides, has been reported to induce such a deprotonation reaction (Heller-Kallai, 1975a, 1975b, 2001; Russel, 455 1979; Heller-Kallai and Rozenson, 1981; Heller-Kallai and Mosser, 1995). In our case, metal 456 457 iron is likely the proton acceptor triggering smectite deprotonation. Metal iron is oxidized in turn as the result of its interaction with protons (Figure 11b) according to Reaction (3). The 458 high affinity of metal iron for smectite and their resulting interactions have for example been 459 recognized as causing the oxidation of steel pipes when using clay-containing drilling fluids 460 (Tomoe et al., 1999; Cosultchi et al., 2003). According to this model, both the oxidation of 461

metal iron and the deprotonation of smectite are strongly favored by the accessibility of metal iron to smectite interlayer. With this respect the osmotic swelling commonly observed for Nasaturated smectites significantly enhances the accessibility of metal iron particles to smectite interlayers, thus favoring the deprotonation reaction. In turn, deprotonation increases considerably the layer charge deficit in smectite octahedral sheet and thus enhances their reactivity.

Deprotonation thus appears as the driving force for the oxidation of metal ion, and for 468 the initiation of smectite destabilization. Accordingly, the presence of Fe³⁺ in the octahedral 469 sheet of smectite appears as an essential parameter for these two reactions as MeFe³⁺OH 470 groups are known to deprotonate preferentially in dioctahedral smectites (Heller-Kallai, 471 1975a, 2001; Russel, 1979; Jaymes and Bigham, 1987). It is not clear however if 472 deprotonation of Fe³⁺-free dioctahedral smectites is not occurring, or is extremely limited, or 473 if deprotonation is not the limiting step for the destabilization of Fe³⁺-free dioctahedral 474 smectites. However, although Heller-Kallai (1975a) showed that deprotonation occurs even in 475 Fe³⁺-free dioctahedral smectite, we have not observed iron corrosion resulting from this 476 process in the SbS-1 experiments. 477

Destabilization of smectite. Following its initial deprotonation, destabilization of smectite is 478 probably favored by the presence of Fe^{2+} in solution as a result of the oxidation of metal iron. 479 Specifically, the high affinity of Fe^{2+} for smectite edge surface sites (Tournassat *et al.*, 2005 – 480 Figure 11c) is likely a key factor for the subsequent destabilization of smectite. Following 481 their sorption on these edge sites, Fe^{2+} cations are readily oxidized as shown by Tournassat *et* 482 al. (2005), the electron acceptors being octahedral Fe^{3+} from smectite structure (Figure 11c). 483 Note that following their oxidation, sorbed Fe cations may also accept electrons either from 484 solution Fe²⁺ cations or from iron metal to restore their +II valency (Figure 11d). As a result 485 of both its initial deprotonation and of the subsequent reduction of its structural Fe^{3+} , the 486

charge deficit in the octahedral sheet of smectite is dramatically increased and Fe^{2+} cations likely migrate in its interlayers to compensate for the increased layer charge (Figure 11d). The inceased concentration of Fe^{2+} in solution resulting from the oxidation of the metal iron also favors a Fe^{2+} -for-Na⁺ cation exchange. Such Fe^{2+} -for-Na⁺ cation exchange has been shown to occur in reducing environments cations (Kamei *et al.*, 1999).

The effective ionic radius of Fe^{2+} cations (0.78 Å – Shannon, 1976) is smaller than the 492 limit size approximated by Heller-Kallai (2001) at 0.85 Å allowing migration of the cations 493 into the silicate layer. It is thus likely that interlayer Fe^{2+} cations actually migrate either into 494 the di-trigonal cavities of smectite tetrahedral sheets or in smectite octahedral sheet (Figure 495 11e). This migration is similar to that of Li⁺ cations (0.76 Å – Shannon, 1976) involved in the 496 Hofmann-Klemen test (Hofmann and Klemen, 1950; Greene-Kelly, 1955). The migration of 497 Li⁺ from the interlayer to the di-trigonal cavity and further to the octahedral sheet of 498 499 montmorillonites has been extensively documented (Hofmann and Klemen, 1950; Greene-Kelly, 1955; Glaeser and Fripiat, 1976; Madejova et al., 1996, 2000a, 2000b, among others). 500 Heating to 300°C for 24 hours represent optimum experimental conditions for this migration. 501 Migration of other divalent cations with an effective ionic radius similar to that of Li⁺ cations 502 has also been described. For example, Cu²⁺, Ni²⁺ and Zn²⁺ cations (0.73, 0.69 and 0.74 Å, 503 respectively) migrate from montmorillonite interlayers to the di-trigonal cavity between 100-504 300°C (Heller-Kallai and Mosser, 1995; Mosser et al., 1997; Madejova et al., 1999; Palkova 505 et al., 2003) and to the octahedral sheet at higher temperature (Brindley and Ertem, 1971; 506 McBride and Mortland, 1974; Heller-Kallai and Mosser, 1995; Emmerich et al., 1999). 507

These conditions are much more energetically favorable than those involved in our experiments. However, partial migration of Li at least to the di-trigonal cavity has been reported for Li-saturated montmorillonite heated to 105°C for 24 hours (Madejova *et al.*, 1996). In our experiments, three factors compensate for the low thermal energy available. The

first one is the extremely strong layer charge deficit which, according to the structural model 512 proposed for smectite destabilization occurring in our experiments, arises both from the 513 deprotonation of hydroxyl groups and from the reduction of structural Fe³⁺. Note that the need 514 for an octahedral layer charge deficit is the fundamental basis for the migration of Li⁺ cations 515 involved in the Hofmann-Klemen test (Hofmann and Klemen, 1950). Furthermore, the 516 positive influence of an increased layer charge deficit on the migration of divalent cations has 517 been reported by Heller-Kallai and Mosser (1995, e.g.). These authors observed indeed an 518 increased amount of Cu in samples that were deprotonated first. As described by Heller-Kallai 519 and Mosser (1995), the positive effect of the initial deprotonation is not restricted to the 520 increased layer charge deficit and the second factor favoring the migration of Fe^{2+} cations is 521 the absence of protons inside the di-trigonal cavity. As a consequence, there is no electrostatic 522 repulsion to the migration of Fe^{2+} cations into the octahedral sheet. Reaction time represents 523 the third factor compensating for the low thermal energy in our experiments. Our experiments 524 lasted indeed for 45 days whereas the common duration of experiments leading to the 525 formation of reduced-charge smectites is 24 hours. Initial migration of Fe^{2+} cations to the di-526 trigonal cavity is likely favored by an increased undersaturation of the oxygen atoms present 527 at the surface of the 2:1 layers, that is by the existence of layer charge deficit in smectite 528 tetrahedral sheets. Such location of layer charge deficit favors indeed the initial partial 529 dehvdration of interlayer Fe^{2+} cations, allowing for the formation of an inner-sphere complex 530 necessary for their migration, and thus accounts for the increased reactivity of beidellite 531 samples as compared to montmorillonite ones for a given iron content (see for example SAz-1 532 and SbId samples – Table 1). The formation of such inner-sphere complexes has been widely 533 documented in hydrated beidellites for monovalent interlayer cations, both from XRD (Ben 534 Brahim et al., 1983a, 1983b, 1984), and infrared (Pelletier et al., 2003) studies, and from 535 Monte-Carlo modeling (Chang et al., 1995; Skipper et al., 1995). 536

In our experiments, migration of Fe^{2+} cations in the octahedral sheet of smectite does 537 not induce a collapse of smectite interlayers as these new octahedral Fe^{2+} compensate 538 essentially for the layer charge deficit resulting from the deprotonation of hydroxyl groups 539 and from the reduction of structural Fe^{3+} , but not for the initial charge deficit of the 2:1 layers. 540 The presence of hydrated interlayer cations, part of which are Fe²⁺, still compensates for this 541 initial charge deficit, and keeps the smectite interlayers expanded. The migration of Fe^{2+} 542 cations in the octahedral sheet of smectite is rather thought to be responsible for the 543 destabilization of smectites induced by their interaction with metal iron. Destabilization is 544 indeed thought to result from the presence of trioctahedral domains in the octahedral sheet of 545 546 reacted smectite (Figure 11e). The coexistence of both dioctahedral and trioctahedral domains is widely reported in natural 1:1 phyllosilicates but is limited in 2:1 phyllosilicates (Bailey, 547 1980). The existence of 2:1 phyllosilicates with a mixed di- and tri-octahedral occupancy is 548 indeed essentially limited to mica species exhibiting a tetrahedral charge (muscovite-549 zinnwaldite or muscovite-phlogopite series - Monier and Robert, 1986). In such species the 550 increased dimensions of the octahedral sheet in the ab plane is accommodated by the 551 reduction of the tetrahedral tilt angle. In smectites, and more especially in montmorillonites, 552 the amount of tetrahedral substitutions is limited and the tetrahedral tilt angle is thus 553 minimum. As a consequence, such 2:1 phyllosilicates are unable to accommodate the 554 presence of trioctahedral domains containing large cations and are thus destabilized by the 555 migration of Fe^{2+} cations in their octahedral sheet. 556

According to the conceptual model hypothesized for smectite destabilization, the lack of reactivity of trioctahedral smectites results from three main factors. The first two are related to the absence of Fe^{3+} cations in the octahedral sheet of these smectite samples. The first effect of this absence is to make deprotonation of hydroxyl groups more difficult as, in dioctahedral smectites, MeFe³⁺OH groups are known to deprotonate preferentially (Heller-

Kallai, 1975a, 2001; Russel, 1979; Jaymes and Bigham, 1987). The second effect is the absence of cations that may be reduced in the octahedral sheet of trioctahedral smectites. The combination of these two effects prevents building a strong layer charge deficit in the octahedral sheet of trioctahedral smectites. The third factor leading to the lack of reactivity of trioctahedral smectite is the obvious impossibility for cations to migrate in this octahedral sheet which is fully occupied.

Influence of structural Fe on smectite destabilization. In the above conceptual model for 568 smectite destabilization, the effect of an increased proportion of structural iron on smectite 569 destabilization is dual. The first effect arises from the increased proportion of MeFe³⁺OH 570 groups that will readily deprotonate when in contact with metal iron. The larger number of 571 deprotonated hydroxyl groups requires in turn the presence of a larger number of Fe²⁺ cations 572 in smectite interlayers to balance the charge. The second effect is directly related to the 573 increased proportion of structural Fe³⁺ in smectite octahedral sheet. This allows for a larger 574 proportion of smectite octahedral sheets to present dramatic charge deficit leading to the 575 migration of interlayer Fe^{2+} in the 2:1 layer, thus destabilizing it. On the other hand, the 576 presence of Fe^{3+} in smectite tetrahedral sheet does not enhance smectite reactivity as these 577 cations cannot be reduced because of steric constrains arising from their tetrahedral 578 environment. 579

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- 581

CONCLUSION

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The present study aimed at assessing the stability of smectites, which represent the reactive components of engineered and geological barriers, when in contact with metal iron at temperatures realistic in the context of nuclear waste disposal (80°C). Dioctahedral smectites are thoroughly destabilized under such conditions, leading to the precipitation of magnetite

and of 1:1 iron-rich phyllosilicates [odinite, crondstedtite – Lantenois (2003), Lantenois *et al.* (2005)]. Smectite destabilization is systematic for neutral-to-basic pH conditions (pH > 7), whereas in mildly acidic to neutral pH conditions, a significant proportion of metal iron is corroded to form magnetite without smectite destabilization.

An XRD method was developed to quantify the extent of smectite destabilization. This 591 method was validated against CEC measurements and IR spectroscopy results. Structural and 592 crystal-chemical factors favoring smectite destabilization were thus determined. These 593 parameters include the amount of octahedral iron, the presence of tetrahedral substitutions, 594 and the nature of interlayer cations, and a conceptual model was hypothesized to account for 595 smectite destabilization. According to this model, the formation of trioctahedral clusters 596 resulting from the migration of Fe^{2+} cations into the octahedral sheet of the 2:1 layer is 597 responsible for smectite destabilization as tetrahedral sheets are unable to accommodate the 598 larger dimensions of these domains. 599

In agreement with experimental results, the dioctahedral character of the initial smectite is an essential condition for its destabilization in the proposed model. As a result the non-reactivity of trioctahedral smectites appears as an important point for the conception of engineered barriers for nuclear waste disposal, although natural deposits of trioctahedral smectite are uncommon.

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FIGURE CAPTIONS

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Figure 1. XRD patterns obtained on unreacted and reacted smectite samples (upper and lower 775 patterns, respectively). Montmorillonite, beidellite, nontronite and saponite samples were 776 reacted for 45 days with metal iron at 80°C (see text for details) (a) Sample SWy-2 ,(b) 777 Sample SAz-1, (c) Sample SbId, (d) Sample CP4, (e) Sample Garfield, (f) Sample SapCa-2, 778 and (g) Sample SapFe08. Scale factor (x3) over the 20-35°20 CoKa range. Patterns were 779 normalized by pairs to the integrated intensity of corundum (012) reflection (solid line, S). 780 781 The (001) reflection and the (02,11) band of the clay samples are labeled. Q indicates the presence of quartz impurities in some samples (dashed lines). Dotted lines indicate the 782 reflections of newly-formed phases. These phases are labeled M, L, and P for magnetite 783 (Fe₃O₄), lepidocrocite (γ -FeOOH), and a newly formed 1:1 phyllosilicate, respectively. 784

Figure 2. Method for quantifying the relative proportion of destabilized smectite using IR spectroscopy. (a) IR spectrum of sample SWy-2 (unreacted) before subtraction of the baseline. Si-O indicates the Si-O vibrations in phyllosilicates whereas Al-Al-OH, Al-Fe-OH and Al-Mg-OH refer to the OH bending mode of the respective hydroxyl groups. Q denotes the two vibrations bands of quartz. (b) Decomposition assuming three Guassian-shaped contributions of the OH bending zone after baseline subtraction (sample SWy-2 unreacted).

Figure 3. SEM micrographs of unreacted and reacted samples. Metal iron particles in unreacted and reacted SWy-2 sample are shown on (a) and (b), respectively. (c) and (d) Smectite particles in the reacted sample SWy-2. (e) Smectite particles in the initial sample SWy-2. (f) Smectite particles in the reacted Garfield sample. (g) Smectite particles in the initial sample SapCa-2. (h) Smectite particles in the reacted sample SapCa-2.

Figure 4. Relative proportion of destabilized smectite calculated by XRD and CEC methods(a) and by XRD and infrared methods (b). Solid square: sample SapCa-2; solid triangle:

- sample SAz-1; solid circle: sample SWy-2; solid diamond: Garfield sample; open diamond:
 Drayton sample. The (1:1) line is shown as a solid line.
- **Figure 5**. XRD patterns obtained for unreacted SbId sample (a) and for reacted SbId sample (b-e). (b), (c), (d) and (e) correspond to 5, 15, 30 and 45 day experiments, respectively. Scale factor (x3) over the 20-35°2 θ CoK α range. Patterns were normalized as in Figure 1. Other labels and patterns as in Figure 1.
- **Figure 6**. Evolution of the relative proportion of destabilized smectite as a function of reaction time. Symbols as in Figure 4. Open triangles: sample SbId.

Figure 7. XRD patterns obtained on unreacted and reacted beidellite samples (upper and lower patterns, respectively). Patterns are ranked as a function of their structural Fe^{3+} content (Table 1). Samples were reacted for 45 days with metal iron at 80°C without controlling the initial pH. (a) Sample SbS-1, (b) Drayton sample, and (c) sample SWa-1. Scale factor (x3) over the 20-35°20 CoK α range. Patterns were normalized as in Figure 1. Other labels and patterns as in Figure 1.

Figure 8. Relative proportion of destabilized smectite after reaction with metal iron as a function of their content of structural Fe^{3+} (Table 1) Relative proportion of destabilized smectite amounts was estimated using XRD on 45 day experiments.

Figure 9. XRD patterns recorded on sample SWy-2 reacted with metal iron after K-, Ca-, and Na-saturation (b, c, and d, respectively). Unreacted Na-saturated sample corresponds to the raw SWy-2 sample (a). Scale factor (x3) over the 20-35°20 CoK α range. Patterns were normalized as in Figure 1. Other labels and patterns as in Figure 1.

- Figure 10. Transmission electron micrographs of smectite particles from sample CP4.
 "rolled" and "flat" particles are labeled (1) and (2), respectively.
- Figure 11. Conceptual model leading to the destabilization of dioctahedral smectites as a result of their interaction with metal iron. (a) Deprotonation of $MeFe^{3+}OH$ groups. (b)

Oxidation of metal iron as a result of its interaction with released protons. (c) Sorption of Fe^{2+} cations on the edges of smectite particles and reduction of structural Fe^{3+} cations. (d) Migration of solution Fe^{2+} cations in smectite interlayers to compensate for the layer charge deficit. Part of this migration results from a Fe^{2+} -for-Na⁺ exchange. With time, interlayer Fe^{2+} cations migrate to the di-trigonal cavity and further to the octahedral sheet to compensate locally for the charge deficit. (e) Coexistence of di- and tri-octahedral domains in the octahedral sheet of smectite leads to its destabilization.

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Sample	Garfield ^a	SWa-1 ^ª	Drayton ^b	CP4 ^b	Sbld ^c	SbS-1 ^{c,d}	SWy-2 ^c	SAz-1 ^c	SapCa-2 ^c	SapFe08 ^{c,c}
Nature ^e	Ν	FS	В	В	В	В	М	М	S	S
Tetrahedral										
Si	3.51	3.70	3.69	3.60	3.71	3.66	3.95	4.00	3.58	3.62
AI	0.49	0.30	0.31	0.40	0.29	0.34	0.05	-	0.39	-
Fe ³⁺	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	0.03	0.38
charge	-0.49	-0.30	-0.31	-0.40	-0.29	-0.34	-0.05	-	-0.42	-0.38
Octahedral										
AI	0.11	0.55	1.11	1.70	1.80	2.00	1.56	1.37	-	-
Fe ³⁺	1.86	1.31	0.47	0.30	0.12	-	0.21	0.07	-	0.00
Mg	0.02	0.13	0.44	-	0.08	-	0.23	0.56	3.00	3.00
occupancy	1.99	1.99	2.02	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	3.00	3.00
charge	-0.05	-0.16	-0.38	0.00	-0.08	0.00	-0.23	-0.56	0.00	0.00
Interlayer										
Na	0.09	0.03	-	-	0.08	0.33	0.14	0.05	0.34	0.39
Ca	0.20	0.20	0.17	0.15	0.10	-	0.05	0.24	0.05	-
Mg	-	-	0.18	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
К	0.04	0.05	-	0.09	0.08	-	0.01	0.01	0.02	-
charge	0.53	0.48	0.70	0.39	0.36	0.33	0.25	0.54	0.46	0.39
Smectite destab. (wt %)	95	90	70	40	60	0	50	20	0	0

Table 1: Chemical composition of the initial smectite materials (structural formulae calculated per $O_{10}(OH)_2$) and relative proportion of smectite destabilized after reaction with metal iron for 45 days.

Note: ^a From Gates *et al.* (2002). Interlayer composition of raw materials was determined from electron microprobe analysis, ^b EDX analysis on a transmission electron microscope, ^c electron microprobe analysis, ^d synthetic clays. ^e N, FS, B, M, S correspond to nontronite, ferruginous smectite, beidellite, montmorillonite and saponite respectively.

	Si	Al	Fe	Mg	Na	Ca	К	Initial pH	Final pH
SapCa-2	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	10.0	4.0	0.0	9.5	10.0
SapCa-2 Ref	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	7.0	2.0	0.0	9.5	9.5
SWy-2	6.5	0.1	0.0	0.3	115	3.5	3.0	10.0	10.5
SWy-2 Ref	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	11.0	0.0	0.0	10.0	10.0
Sbld	2.0	0.4	0.0	0.3	17.0	28.0	14.0	7.5	7.5
Sbld Ref	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1.0	2.0	1.0	7.5	7.5
Garfield	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	17.5	22.5	1.0	8.5	9.5
Garfield Ref	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	10.0	1.0	2.0	8.5	9.0

Table 2: Chemical composition of the solution after reaction of smectite samples with metal iron for 45 days.

Note: Concentrations are given in mg.L⁻¹. Initial and final pH values were measured before and after reaction, respectively. Regular sample names correspond to the reaction of a given smectite sample with metal iron for 45 days at 80°C. Ref samples correspond to the reaction of a given smectite sample for 45 days at 80°C without metal iron.

Table3: Relative proportion of smectite destabilized (weight %) as a function of the initial solution pH.

pН	SWy-2	SapCa-2	Garfield
6	0%	0%	0%
8	50%	-	95%
10	50%	0%	-
12	50%	-	-

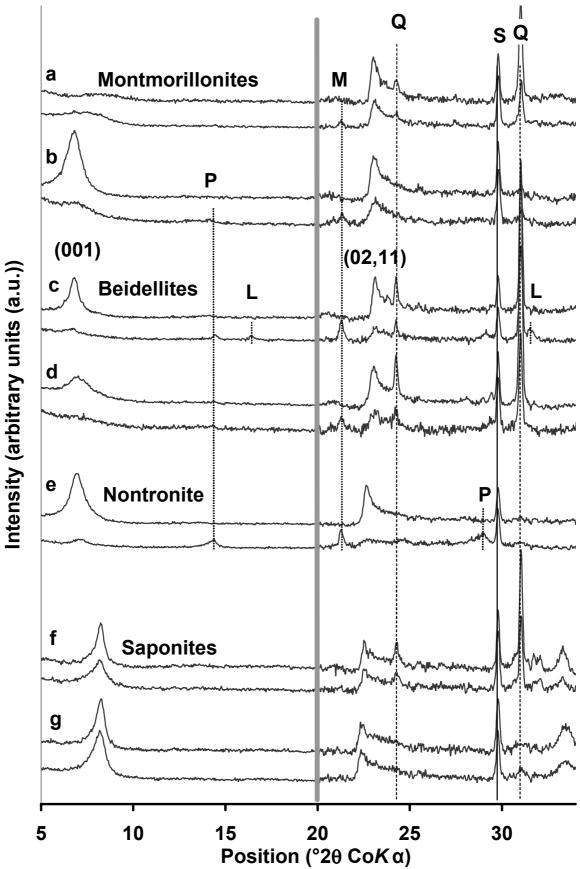
Note: Relative proportion of destabilized smectite is estimated using the XRD method.

Table 4: Relative proportion of smectite destabilized (weight %) as a function of the cation interlayer composition.

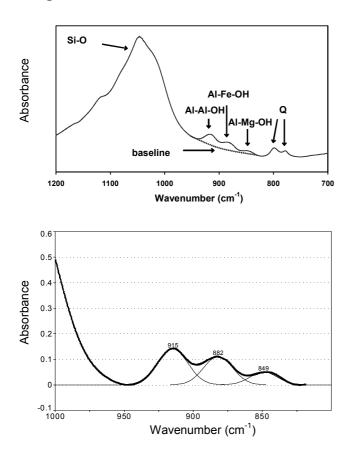
	SAz-1	SWy-2	Garfield
K	-	0%	50%
Ca	20%*	20%	95%*
Na	40%	50%*	-

Note: Relative proportion of destabilized smectite is estimated using the XRD method. * indicate raw samples, with the corresponding predominant interlayer cation.





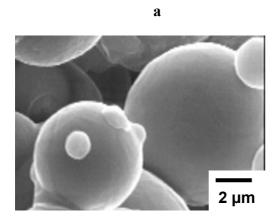




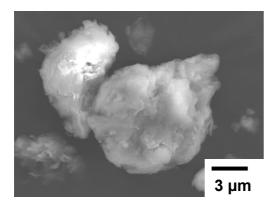
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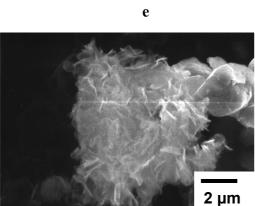
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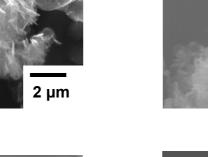


c

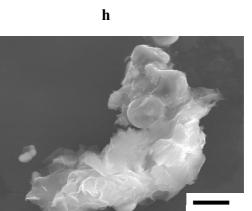


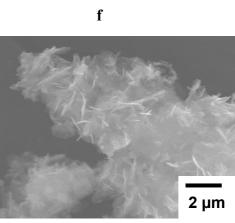




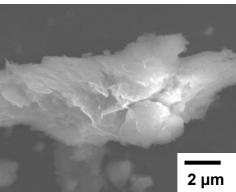


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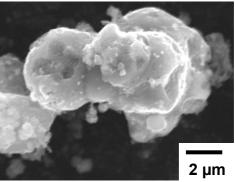








d



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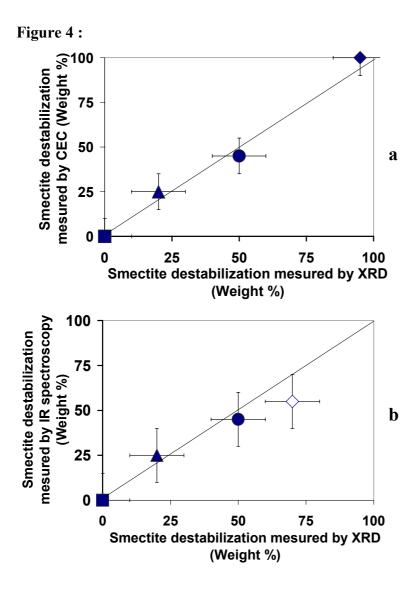


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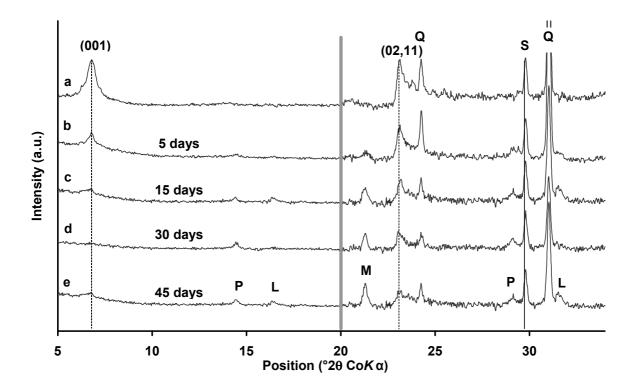


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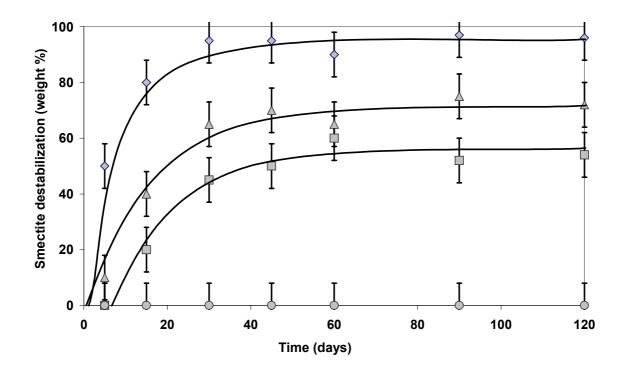


Figure 7 :

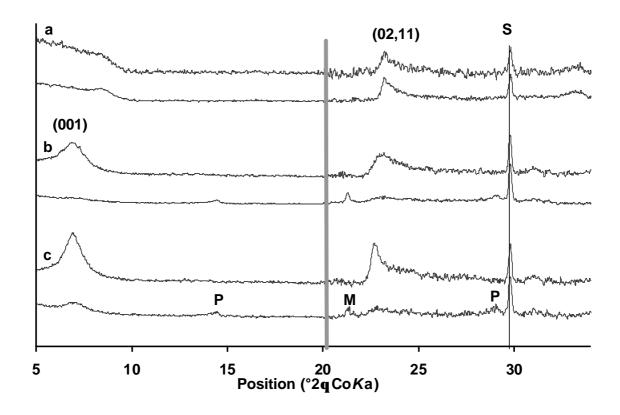
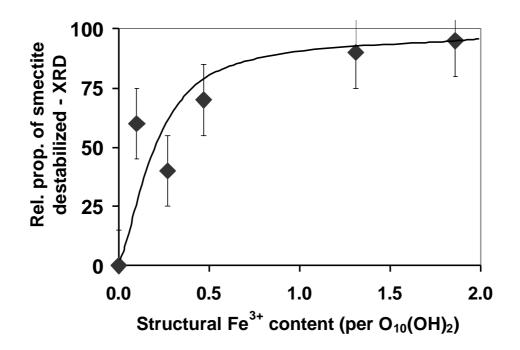


Figure 8 :





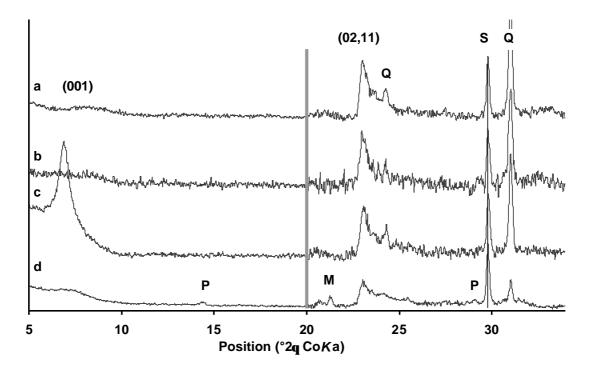


Figure 10 :

