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Selenium speciation in framboidal and euhedral pyrites in shales

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6

7 ABSTRACT

8 The release of Se from shales is poorly understood because its occurrence, distribution and 9 speciation in the various components of shale are unknown. To address this gap we 10 combined bulk characterisation, sequential extractions, and spatially resolved µ-focus 11 spectroscopic analyses and investigated the occurrence and distribution of Se and other 12 associated elements (Fe, As, Cr, Ni, and Zn) and determined the Se speciation at the µ-scale 13 in typical, low bulk Se containing shales. Our results revealed Se primarily correlated with 14 the pyrite fraction with exact Se speciation highly dependent on pyrite morphology. In 15 euhedral pyrites, we found Se(-II) substitutes for S in the mineral structure. However, we also 16 demonstrate that Se is associated with framboidal pyrite grains as a discrete, independent 17 $FeSe_x$ phase. The presence of this $FeSe_x$ species has major implications for Se release, 18 because FeSe_x species oxidise much faster than Se substituted in the euhedral pyrite lattice. 19 Thus, such an FeSe_x species will enhance and control the dynamics of Se weathering and 20 release into the aqueous environment.



22 INTRODUCTION

23 Selenium (Se) is an essential micronutrient but only within a very narrow concentration range, above which it is toxic.⁽¹⁾ Selenium is an antioxidant that prevents tissue damage and 24 aids growth and metabolic processes,⁽²⁾ however, an intake dose above 450 µg/day Se can 25 disrupt dermal and neurological processes and ultimately be fatal.⁽³⁻⁴⁾ The use of Se 26 27 contaminated groundwaters for drinking and Se contaminated soils for agricultural purposes 28 introduces Se into the human food chain. Se poisoning has been reported at several locations with extreme cases in China (Yutangba),⁽⁵⁾ India (Punjab) and in Colombia (Villeta).⁽⁶⁻⁸⁾ In 29 30 order to help prevent future health hazards related to Se toxicity, we need to improve our 31 understanding of the factors and mechanisms that control its fate and mobility in the 32 environment.

33 A variety of geological and geochemical factors have been suggested as possible controls for 34 the release of Se from rocks (e.g., rock type, weathering environment, groundwater composition, organic matter content, Fe or Se speciation etc.). ^(5,9-10) In Se-enriched surface 35 environments, shales are an important source of Se to soils. ^(5,8,11-12) However, the transfer of 36 Se from shale rocks into soils and groundwaters ⁽⁵⁾ and ultimately to humans via the food 37 chain⁽⁶⁾ is poorly constrained. Furthermore, the role of geological settings or specific 38 39 geochemical reactions leading to the sequestration of Se in shale components are also poorly 40 understood. This is because Se chemistry is highly complex. Selenium occurs in four 41 principal oxidation states -II, 0, IV, VI, but Se(-I) compounds have also been found in nature 42 and Se(II) compounds can be produced synthetically. Se has also six stable isotopes and is therefore of interest as a palaeo-environmental proxy.⁽¹²⁾ The most oxidized species, Se(IV) 43 and Se(VI), occur as the oxyanions selenite (SeO₃⁻) and selenate (SeO₄⁻), and they are the 44 45 most soluble, reactive, bioavailable and therefore the most toxic Se species. Depending on 46 their molecular bonding environment, different Se species have been suggested to be 47 associated (either surface adsorbed or structurally incorporated) with various possible Se hosting phases.⁽¹³⁻¹⁵⁾ In shales, the three main host components of Se are inferred to be 48 silicates, organic matter (OM) or sulfides (primarily pyrite). Organic matter (kerogen 49 50 fraction) has been suggested as a Se host in shales that are exceptionally Se and carbon rich, and linked to coal beds.⁽¹⁵⁾ However, neither the importance of OM as a Se host, nor a clear 51 52 correlation between Se and OM in typical black shales, with average lower Se concentrations, 53 have so far been demonstrated. Conversely, several studies proposed pyrite as the possible Se host mineral in shales,^(5, 8, 16, 17) yet a mechanistic or speciation related explanation is still 54 lacking. Experimental studies ⁽¹⁸⁻²¹⁾ suggested that Se is likely either adsorbed / reduced on 55 pre-formed pyrite grains or structurally incorporated into the sulfide phase. ⁽²²⁻²³⁾ However, a 56 57 detailed mechanistic reaction pathway that addresses the uptake of Se into pyrite during 58 pyrite growth, and a Se speciation and detailed structural and molecular bonding environment 59 regardless of pyrite formation pathways, is still lacking. This is despite the fact that pyrite is a 60 well-known sink for metals and, specifically, the accumulation of Se in shales may be used as a tool to interpret palaeo-ocean chemical signals. ^(12, 21) 61

62 To better understand Se sequestration and speciation in shales, we examined the distribution 63 of Se and other elements (Fe, As, Cr, Ni, and Zn) in typical shales using bulk geochemical 64 and sequential extractions techniques and combined these with a detailed quantification of the 65 Se speciation in shale-associated pyrite grains at the μ -scale using synchrotron-based μ -X-ray 66 fluorescence (μ -XRF) and μ -X-ray absorption spectroscopy (μ -XAS). Our objectives were: 67 (1) to quantify the speciation and chemical environment of Se in shales (2) to demonstrate a 68 link between Se occurrence, distribution and sulfide morphology and (3) to derive likely 69 chemical pathways for both the accumulation and release of Se in / from shales.

70 EXPERIMENTAL

71 Samples, bulk characterisation and Se analyses

We characterized five shale samples from West Yorkshire, UK⁽²⁴⁻²⁵⁾ (samples identified as 72 73 UK-1 to UK-5; Table S1). Powdered and homogenized samples were analysed for their mineralogical composition (by X-ray diffraction, XRD), major elemental composition (by 74 75 bulk X-ray fluorescence, XRF), and trace element concentrations (by digestion and 76 inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry, ICP-MS). Furthermore, we used elemental 77 analyses to determine total and organic carbon, total and reduced inorganic sulfur, and full 78 digestion and hydride generation atomic absorption spectroscopy (HG-AAS) to determine the 79 bulk Se content in each sample. The morphologies of sulfide grains in each sample were 80 identified using electron microscopy and Se concentrations in ~20-40 individual pyrite 81 grains, and a few control points (2-3) on the silicate and organic matter, were analysed by 82 electron microprobe (EMPA). Full details on the geological settings, the formation conditions 83 (i.e., redox etc.) and all methods employed are given in the Supplementary Information (SI).

84 Sequential extractions and total digestions

85 To quantify the Se concentrations associated with different shale fractions, we applied 86 various extraction protocols using a progressively stronger reagents that extract Se associated with specific mineral and/or organic fractions.⁽¹⁶⁾ Protocol A, consisted of a modified six-87 fraction scheme⁽¹⁷⁾: water soluble (H₂O – Se(IV), Se(VI), organic-Se), ligand exchangeable 88 89 $(K_2HPO_4/KH_2PO_4 - Se(IV)$ in oxides and clays), base soluble (NaOH - tightly bound Se(IV)) 90 and selenides), elemental selenium (Na₂SO₃ – Se(0)), acetic acid soluble (CH₃COOH- Se in 91 calcite and gypsum) and residual (HF/H₂O₂/HNO₃ - Se in sulfides, recalcitrant organic Protocol B, followed a four-fraction scheme:⁽²⁶⁾ water 92 matter and in silicates). soluble/exchangeable (H₂O - Se(IV), Se(VI), organic-Se), oxides (NH₂OH.HCl - hydrous Fe-93 94 Mn oxides), sulfides/organics (KClO₃) and residual (HF/H₂O₂/HNO₃ - silicates, carbonates and gypsum). We also carried out a one-step extraction / reduction with $Cr(II)Cl_2^{(27)}$ to 95

96 quantify Se in diselenides and sulfides. The solutions resulting from each extraction step were
97 analysed for their Se contents using HG-AAS.⁽¹⁶⁾

98 Se speciation

Based on the results from the bulk and sequential analyses described above, we selected the two samples with the highest bulk Se contents (UK-1 and UK-2) for the Se speciation analyses using synchrotron-based μ -XRF and μ -XAS. Polished sections of both samples and eleven standards (prepared as pressed pellets with 6% Se in boron nitride; CAS numbers and chemical formulas in **Table S2** in SI) representing four Se oxidation states and Se-organic species were analysed on beamline I18 at the Diamond Light Source Ltd, UK (full details of beamline set up in SI).

106 Using μ -XRF we endeavoured to map in each sample ~ 3-5 areas of interest (100x100 μ m, 107 150x150 µm or 350x450 µm). These areas contained various pre-identified pyrite 108 morphology assemblages and in each map the distribution of Se, Fe, Ni, Cu, Zn and As was 109 measured. The μ -XRF beam spot size was 5x6 μ m, and the maps were collected using a step 110 size of 5 μ m, and an integration time of 1000 ms. Despite multiple attempts we were only 111 able to collect statistically relevant data for sample UK-2, because the fluorescence signal to 112 quantify Se in sample UK-1 was too low. In the various areas of interest in sample UK-2 we 113 identified multiple points of interest (POI) representing either euhedral or framboidal pyrite 114 grains. At each of these POI twelve μ -X-ray absorption near edge spectra (μ -XANES) 115 collected at the same x and y coordinates confirmed there was no beam-induced sample 116 damage or changes in Se oxidation state as a result of µ-XANES measurement (Figure S1). 117 We then selected 14 specific POI that showed strong correlations between Se and the other 118 measured elements and recorded at each of these POI four μ -XANES scans with a step size 119 of 0.4 eV and beam spot size of 5x6 µm. From these 14 POI (**Table S3** in SI) only four gave 120 a Se absorption edge jump above 0.1 and we selected two POI for further µ-EXAFS analyses.

POIa was a typical euhedral pyrite grain and POIb represented framboidal pyrite grains. At
both POI we collected 16 μ-EXAFS scans at the Se K-edge.

123 The µ-XANES spectra were averaged, normalized, calibrated and compared with standards using the inflection point of the first derivative, the position of the white line and the second 124 125 peak of the fingerprint as a reference. The energy of the monochromator was calibrated with 126 an Au foil and the K-edge energy for trigonal Se(0) was determined to be 12650 eV. Before processing and analysis, our XANES and EXAFS data were calibrated to the theoretical 127 128 value for Se(0) of 12658 eV. The µ-EXAFS spectra were averaged, background subtracted and fitted to various theoretical models. Initial fits using Se-C or Se-Se⁽²⁸⁾ bond distances 129 130 were unsuccessful and thus organic and elemental Se were discarded from the subsequent 131 fits. The remaining possibilities were either Se(-I) or Se(-II) most likely in sulphides and we 132 included several atoms (Fe, S and Se) and variable numbers of shells at close proximity to Se, similar to the approach of Ryser et al.⁽²⁹⁾ Specifically, we trial fitted our spectra using the 133 models of pyrite⁽³⁰⁾ and marcasite⁽³⁰⁾ (FeS₂) and also ferroselite⁽³¹⁾ (FeSe₂) but fits to 134 135 marcasite were not successful. We did not fit our spectra to dzharkenite (a ferroselite polymorph FeS₂)⁽²⁹⁾ because this model has Se-Se distances of 2.28Å and our very first tests 136 137 showed no fit to Se-Se distances for the first shell. Further details of the µ-XANES and µ-138 EXAFS data analysis are presented in sections 9 and 10 in the SI.

139 RESULTS

140 Bulk composition and Se distribution in the various shale fractions

The elemental and mineralogical analyses of all samples (**Tables S4-S6** and **Figure S2** in **SI**) revealed the presence of high proportions of silicates (~44-96 %), and medium to low contents of sulfides (~1-5 % pyrite, confirmed by the ~1-3 % reduced inorganic S contents) and low total organic carbon contents (TOC = 2-5 %). Sample UK-5 was lacking pyrite (or reduced S) and besides silicates, the second dominant phase was calcite. The bulk Se concentrations varied between ~0.8 and ~10 μ g/g with the highest values found in samples UK-1 (3.13 ppm), UK-2 (9.77 ppm) and UK-5 (3.84 ppm). All samples were enriched in trace elements (**Table S7** in **SI**) and Se significantly correlated with Ni (correlation coefficient: 0.79), Cu (0.76), Cr (0.83) and V (0.81).

150 Se distribution

151 The sequential extraction results (Table 1, Figure S3 and S4 in SI) are particularly 152 interesting for the samples with highest bulk Se concentrations. The base soluble and residual 153 fractions (protocol A) and the sulfide and organic fractions (protocol B) showed between 154 ~74-118% of the total bulk Se associated with sulfides or organic matter (Table 1, Figure S4 155 in SI). Sample UK-5 contained no inorganic sulfur or pyrite and was not further pursued. In 156 UK-1 and UK-2, the next extraction revealed that 50 and 74% respectively of the total Se was 157 sulfide associated, yet the remaining Se was not solely associated with organic matter (Table 158 1 and Figure S4 in SI).

159 Se in individual pyrite grains and the matrix

160 Samples UK-1 to UK-4 all contained pyrite as both euhedral and framboidal morphologies. 161 The Se concentration in individual framboidal or euhedral grains was typically ~ 1-3 orders 162 of magnitude higher than the bulk concentration (**Table 2**, and **Tables S8** in **SI**). Selenium in 163 "non-pyrite" control points (i.e., silicates and organic matter; total of 12 analyses in the 4 164 pyrite containing samples) was below detection, corroborating that pyrite was the prime 165 carrier of Se and cross-confirming the sequential extraction data (Table 1). Not surprisingly, 166 sample UK-2 (highest bulk Se content) showed the highest mean Se concentration in 167 individual grains (670 ppm). Although Se concentrations varied greatly between the two 168 morphologies or within the same morphological type in a single sample, overall Se 169 concentrations tended to be higher in euhedral grains (**Table 2** and **Table S8** in SI). Because 170 of the close link between shale pyrite weathering and Se release,^(8,12,22-23,29) hereafter we 171 focussed our Se μ -XAS analyses solely on samples UK-1 and UK-2. These represent typical 172 shales containing pyrite and organic matter (**Table S6** in SI) and the highest bulk Se 173 concentrations among the samples studied.

174 Elemental distributions and correlations at the µ-level

From the five μ -XRF elemental maps in sample UK-2, two areas of interest (**Figure S5** in SI) were selected for higher resolution μ -XRF mapping (**Figure 1**) and revealed statistically significant correlations between Se, Fe, As, Ni and Cu (**Figure S6** and **Table S9** in SI) in the pixels on or in close vicinity to pyrite grains.

179 Se oxidation states

180 The μ -XANES spectra of the 14 POI in the highest resolution μ -XRF maps in sample UK-2 181 revealed spectral fingerprints (inflection point of the first derivative, position of the white line 182 peak at the absorption edge) qualitatively similar to the seleno-L-cysteine, Se sulfide, elemental Se and synthetic ferroselite⁽²⁹⁾ standards (Figure S7 and S8). Two particular areas 183 184 with framboidal (POIa) and euhedral grains (POIb) were selected for further µ-XANES 185 analyses (Figure 2). The X-ray energy at the inflection point in both POIa and POIb 186 (12658.5 eV) was very close to that in the Se(-II, 0) standards (12658.0 eV). The X-ray 187 energies at the peak of the white line (12660.6 eV for POIa and 12660.2 eV for POIb) were 188 also very similar to the standards (12660.2 eV for seleno-L-cysteine; 12660.2 eV for 189 elemental Se(0); 12659.7 eV for Se(-II) sulfide). On visual inspection, the spectral 190 fingerprints of POIa and POIb were very similar to the Se(-II) sulfide standard, and also 191 showed close similarity to the elemental Se(0) standard. POIa and POIb were however, less similar to seleno-L-cysteine. Comparing with the synthetic ferroselite spectra, ⁽²⁹⁾ the overall 192

fingerprint was similar. We did not align the Ryser et al.⁽²⁹⁾ spectrum with our spectra as the 193 194 details of beamline set up were unavailable, although, to the best of our knowledge, the ferroselite spectrum was collected with a step size of 0.7 eV.⁽²⁹⁾ Despite the similarities 195 196 between POIa and POIb and Se(-II) sulfide, Se(-I) ferroselite and elemental Se(0), it was not 197 possible to determine the oxidation state, or the local coordination environment, of Se in our 198 samples as the uncertainty of the data at the XANES region was 0.4 eV and the XANES 199 spectra for the Se(-II) sulfide, Se(-I) ferroselite and elemental Se(0) standards are all visually 200 similar. Based on our comparisons we concluded from the µ-XANES data that the possible 201 Se oxidation states at both POI were Se(-II), Se(-I) or Se(0). Further differentiation in Se 202 speciation was achieved by fitting the μ -EXAFS data.

203 Se chemical environment and bonding characteristics

204 The μ -EXAFS spectra in k-space (Figure 3) indicated a similar local coordination 205 environment of Se for both POI (see also Figure S9 in SI with overlaid POI spectra). The spectra are similar over the entire k-space range, with features at ~ 4.2, 5.7 and 6.5 \AA^{-1} 206 207 apparent in both spectra. However, the Fourier transforms indicate that Se was not present in 208 exactly the same bonding environment in POIa and b. Sample spectra exhibited noisier and 209 more complex oscillations compared to the standards (Figure 3 and in Figure S7 in SI) due 210 to the lower concentration of Se (max 670 ppm in euhedral grains; Table 2). The fingerprints in k-space between both POI and the synthetic ferroselite,⁽²⁹⁾ showed that both spectra were 211 212 comparable in phase but with smaller oscillatory amplitudes at low wavenumbers. The 213 sample spectra were clearly out of phase with the seleno-L-cysteine, Se sulfide and elemental Se standards (Figure S7 and S10 in SI). 214

Our fit of the POIa spectrum consisted of four single scattering paths (**Table 3** and **Figure 3**) with bond distances consistent with those of S-S and S-Fe in pyrite (where S-S₁=2.18 Å, S- $Fe_1=2.26$ Å, S-S₂=3.07 Å, and S-S₂=3.32 Å)⁽³⁰⁾, but invoking a substitution of S by Se⁽³⁰⁾ 218 that resulted in a local expansion of 8 % in the first shell (Se-S₁) and 4 % in all the others. 219 The sum of the modelled bond distances (11.351 Å) is very close to that of the pyrite 220 structure (10.830 Å), however it is expanded as a result of S substitution with Se, where Se 221 has a larger atomic radii compared to S. POIb data were fitted (Table 3) using five single scattering paths, four corresponding to the theoretical structure of ferroselite⁽³¹⁾ (Se-Fe₁=2.35222 223 Å, Se-Fe₂=2.38 Å, Se-Se₂=3.40 Å and Se-Se₃=3.58 Å) and one single scattering path (Se-S=3.07 Å) corresponding to the pyrite structure.⁽³⁰⁾ The first two Se-Fe paths contributed 224 225 entirely to the first peak of the Fourier transform (involving 3 Fe atoms, Table 3) and the 226 remaining two Se-Se paths plus the Se-S path contributed to the second peak (individual path contributions in Figure S11 in SI). The Se-Fe bond distances (average 2.31 Å) are shorter 227 than in the theoretical structure of ferroselite⁽³¹⁾ (average 2.37 Å, Se-Fe=2.35Å with one Fe 228 229 and Se-Fe=2.38Å with 2 Fe) and are also shorter than in the fit to synthetic ferroselite reported by Ryser et al. ⁽²⁹⁾ (Se-Fe average 2.38 Å). We attribute our somewhat short Se-Fe 230 231 bond distance to the fact that we are fitting a complex natural sample that likely slightly 232 differs in crystal structure to a theoretical model or indeed a synthetic precipitate. In fact, 233 Ryser et al. ⁽²⁹⁾, when fitting Se in their sample, fit to a ferroselite polymorph (dzharkenite) with a first shell attributed to Se-Se at an average bond distance of 2.28 Å but our fit showed 234 235 no Se-Se bonds in the first shell.

We performed Se speciation analysis on POI clearly identified as pyrite and expected the local coordination environment to reflect structural Se substitution for S as previously suggested. ⁽²²⁻²³⁾ However, our μ -EXAFS analysis (**Table 3** and **Figure 3**) suggested that the Se coordination environment in pyrite was dependent on the pyrite morphology. In euhedral grains (POIa) Se was substituted for S in the pyrite structure as previously suggested, but in framboidal grains (POIb) the local environment of Se was akin to Se in a discrete ferroselitelike species (FeSe_x).

		Protocol A - S	Protocol B - Se(µg/g), (%) ^a	Se(µg/g)		
		Base soluble	Residual		Sulfides + Organics	
	Bulk Se µg/g	Tightly bound Se(IV), organic and inorganic selenides	Sulfides, recalcitrant organic matter, silicates	% OM+Sulfides ^b	Sulfides and Organics	Se in Sulfides Cr(II)Cl ₂
UK1	3.13	2.48 (79)	0.29 (9.9)	88	3.70 (118)	1.57 (50)
UK2	9.77	6.51 (67)	2.80 (29)	96	9.43 (97)	7.22 (74)
UK3	1.29	0.71 (55)	0.25 (19)	74	1.00 (77)	0.59 (46)
UK4	0.83	0.27 (33)	0.49 (59)	92	0.78 (94)	0.17 (20)
UK5	3.87	3.47 (90)	0.17 (4.4)	94	3.63 (94)	

244 Cr(II)Cl₂ extraction; in brackets shown are the % Se in each fraction as a fraction of the total bulk Se.

^a Percentage of Se in the extraction in relation to the bulk Se, %= (Fraction *100)/Bulk Se

246 ^b Sum of % Se base soluble + residual

243

Table 1. Concentration of Se $(\mu g/g)$ in the principal fractions in the shale samples as derived through application of protocol A and B and the

- 248 contained no pyrite; see also SI Table S3 and S4). Left, middle and right panels include basic statistics for Se concentrations with no
- 249 differentiation in morphology, vs. framboidal and euhedral pyrites, respectively.

Sample	Se	Se, ppm individual grains			Se, ppm individual grains,			Se, ppm individual grains,		
	bulk	(undifferentiated)			framboidal aggregates			euhedral		
	ppm	Mean Min. Max. Number of analysed points (*)		Mean Min. Max. Number of analysed points (*)			Mean Min. Max. Number of analysed points (*)			

²⁴⁷ Table 2. EMPA analysis of Se (ppm) in individual pyrite grains (with morphological splits) compared to bulk Se concentrations (UK-5

UK-1	3.13	255	100	561	29 (<dl=5)< th=""><th>192</th><th>110</th><th>300</th><th>15 (<dl=5)< th=""><th>661</th><th>100</th><th>561</th><th>14</th></dl=5)<></th></dl=5)<>	192	110	300	15 (<dl=5)< th=""><th>661</th><th>100</th><th>561</th><th>14</th></dl=5)<>	661	100	561	14
UK-2	9.77	365	110	670	42 (<dl=8)< td=""><td>309</td><td>110</td><td>510</td><td>27 (<dl=6)< td=""><td>413</td><td>190</td><td>670</td><td>15 (<dl=2)< td=""></dl=2)<></td></dl=6)<></td></dl=8)<>	309	110	510	27 (<dl=6)< td=""><td>413</td><td>190</td><td>670</td><td>15 (<dl=2)< td=""></dl=2)<></td></dl=6)<>	413	190	670	15 (<dl=2)< td=""></dl=2)<>
UK-3	1.29	171	110	310	20 (<dl=12)< td=""><td>171</td><td>110</td><td>310</td><td>20 (<dl=12)< td=""><td>-</td><td>-</td><td>-</td><td>0</td></dl=12)<></td></dl=12)<>	171	110	310	20 (<dl=12)< td=""><td>-</td><td>-</td><td>-</td><td>0</td></dl=12)<>	-	-	-	0
UK-4	0.83	164	120	200	26 (<dl=17)< td=""><td>-</td><td>-</td><td>-</td><td>12 (<dl= 12)<="" td=""><td>164</td><td>120</td><td>200</td><td>11 (<dl=2)< td=""></dl=2)<></td></dl=></td></dl=17)<>	-	-	-	12 (<dl= 12)<="" td=""><td>164</td><td>120</td><td>200</td><td>11 (<dl=2)< td=""></dl=2)<></td></dl=>	164	120	200	11 (<dl=2)< td=""></dl=2)<>

*DL= Limit of Detection, 90 ppm; points below DL were excluded from the statistical analyses.

- **Table 3.** Local coordination environment of Se at POIa and b as determined by Se K-edge
- 252 μ -EXAFS analysis.

	Path	N^{a}	$R (Å)^b$	σ^2 (Å ²)	R-factor	χ^2
POIa	Se-S	1	2344 ± 0.003	0.003	0.024	205
I Olaeuhedral	Se-Fe	3	2.354 ± 0.003 2.354 ± 0.003	0.003	0.024	205
	Se-S	6	3.198 ± 0.003	0.018		
	Se-Se	4	3.455 ± 0.003	0.018		
POIb _{framboidal}	Se-Fe	1	2.284 ± 0.004	0.005	0.022	92
	Se-Fe	2	2.318 ± 0.004	0.005		
	Se-S	2	2.987 ± 0.004	0.009		
	Se-Se	4	3.308 ± 0.004	0.002		
	Se-Se	6	3.479 ± 0.004	0.002		

253 ^a Degeneracy (coordination number for single paths)

^b Inter-atomic distances







Figure 1. Ligth microphotographs of the µ-XRF areas of interest and corresponding µ-XRF
elemental maps around POIa (top) and POIb (bottom). The enlarged areas next to them were
imaged using the microscope on the beamline set at 45 degrees, hence the slight offset.
Similarly, the distortion between these enlarged area images and the X-ray maps is due to the
fact that the beamline camera and the incident X-ray beam see the sample at different

261 incident angles. In the enlarged image and the X-ray maps for POI b the dotted lines are just

to guide the eye and show the distortion.

263



264

Figure 2. Se K-edge μ-XANES spectra from POI a and b and selected standards. We also
included the Se(-I) ferroselite standard from Ryser et al. ⁽²⁹⁾ but note that the spectral position
in this spectrum is offset, yet the general shape and amplitude of the spectrum can be
compared with our data.

269



Figure 3. Averaged k³-weighted (left plot) experimental data and fits (dashed lines) for POI
a (top) and POIb (bottom), real part of the Fourier transform of the spectra (middle) and fits
using a k-weight of 3 (right).

275 **DISCUSSION**

276 Se in shales and in the pyrite fraction

277 The UK samples are typical shale rocks with relatively low bulk Se concentrations (<1 to ~ 278 10 μ g/g). Sequential extractions, microprobe analyses and μ -XRF data clearly demonstrated that the main Se host in these samples was pyrite, with sequential extraction also suggesting 279 minor Se associated with organic matter. As such our results strengthen previous data (32-34) 280 that reported Se in carbonaceous shales highly associated with pyrite and organic matter. In 281 282 the highest bulk Se samples (UK-1 and UK-2), 50 and 74% of the Se (Table 1) was 283 associated with pyrite, and µ-XRF maps only showed high Se values on pyrite and low Se 284 values in the organic matter or silicates matrix, corroborating the minor Se-organic matter 285 association. The strong μ -scale correlations between Se, As, Ni and Cu in the pyrite grains 286 also confirm the Se-pyrite link, as these metalloids and metals are most often solely enriched in pyrite and not in organic matter.^(32, 35) Of crucial importance, our results also show that 287 288 variations in total Se concentrations in typical shales do not solely depend on total S and 289 organic C contents, but in addition there is a clear link between Se concentration and pyrite 290 grain morphology (**Table 2** and **Table S6**). Microprobe analyses showed that euhedral pyrites 291 contained overall far higher concentrations of Se compared to framboidal pyrites (Table 2 292 and **Table S8** in SI) and that in fact no (< 90 ppm detection limit) Se was associated with any 293 organic matter or silicate grains. There is an apparent mismatch between the proportion of Se 294 associated with non-pyrite fractions in the sequential exactions (Table 1) and the absence of 295 Se in the non-pyrite matrix measured with the microprobe. This is because sequential 296 extractions measure bulk Se which is diffusely distributed in the non-pyrite matrix, while 297 microprobe point analyses will only show high values in localised grains (i.e., pyrite), where Se is highly concentrated. In Matamoros et al.⁽¹⁶⁾ we demonstrated that even if organic C 298 299 contents (2-5 %) were higher than pyrite contents (1-3 %), Se was still preferentially associated with pyrite. Thus the data in our current study, combined with literature
knowledge about pyrite formation pathways⁽³⁵⁻⁴⁰⁾ helps us understand how Se is sequestered
into, and released from, pyrite in shales.

303 Pyrite formation in shales and links to Se speciation

The grain-level concentrations and speciation of Se depended on whether pyrite was present in framboidal or euhedral morphology (**Table 2**, **Table 3** and **Table S8**). This difference can be attributed to variations in chemical environments and formation pathways of the two morphologies, or the effects of diagenesis.⁽⁴¹⁾

308 In natural settings framboidal pyrite is known to form rapidly at the chemocline where Fe and S sources are readily available.⁽³⁶⁻³⁸⁾ Here Se will be present as an oxic species, in either 309 310 aqueous or sorbed form.⁽¹⁸⁻²⁰⁾ Framboids are difficult to synthesise in the laboratory⁽³⁹⁾ and no 311 experimental evidence on Se-framboidal interactions is available. Some experimental studies used iron sulfides (e.g., mackinawite,⁽⁴²⁾ pyrite^(18-20, 43)) and sorbed Se onto them. When 312 313 synthetic pyrite was used, the Se was co-reduced leading to the formation of ferroselite Our current Se-edge μ -XAS data on natural framboids shows an $FeSe(-I)_{x}$.^(18,42,44) 314 315 independent ferroselite-like $FeSe(-I)_x$ species as the dominant Se form associated with our 316 framboids (Figure 3). Combining the experimental evidence with our μ -XAS data suggests 317 that co-reduction during framboid formation must be the dominant pathway to producing 318 ferroselite in natural framboidal pyrites formation environments.

Euhedral pyrite grains form more slowly via the supply of low levels of external, less reactive Fe and Se.^(35,45-48) The source for these Fe/Se species is diffusive transport, followed by their reduction and subsequent sequestration into the euhedral crystal structure.^(23,49) Our μ -XAS data (**Figure 3**) clearly shows a Se for S replacement in our euhedral pyrite, supporting the 323 slow growth by coupled diffusion / reduction, which also leads to higher average Se324 concentrations in euhedral grains (Table 2).

325 If such euhedral grains formed through framboidal aggregate re-crystallization, $^{(36,46-47)}$ we 326 would expect Se to retain the ferroselite, FeSe(-I)_x speciation as in the framboids. However, 327 this is not the case as our euhedral POIa μ -XAS evidences Se replacing S in the pyrite 328 structure (**Figure 3** and **Table 3**).

We demonstrated that Se speciation in pyrite in shales is dependent on pyrite morphology but further spatially resolved speciation studies in other shale samples are necessary to evaluate if such a morphology-dependent speciation is universal, or only linked to pyrites formed through similar sedimentary processes. ⁽⁴⁷⁻⁴⁸⁾

333 The formation and importance of FeSe_x species in framboidal pyrite.

In modern marine sediments the most frequent pyrite morphology is framboidal ⁽⁵⁰⁾ and we demonstrate Se in this morphology to exists as ferroselite, which is thermodynamically stable over a wide range of pH and low oxygen conditions (**Figure S12** left in **SI**).

337 The formation of ferroselite has been studied experimentally under both abiotic and biotic conditions. Naveau et al. ⁽¹⁸⁾ investigated the adsorption of aqueous Se (IV) and Se(-II) onto 338 339 natural and synthetic pyrites and showed that Se is first reduced in solution and then it adsorbs onto the pyrite surface. This reduction must be counterbalanced by the oxidation of 340 reduced iron species in pyrite. Charlet et al.⁽⁴³⁾ demonstrated that ferroselite (FeSe₂) and Se(0) 341 342 can form when reacting synthetic nanophase pyrite with Se(IV) and Se(VI) solutions. However, in another study from the same group ⁽¹⁹⁾ the reduction of aqueous Se(IV) by pyrite 343 344 was corroborated, but the formation of ferroselite was excluded, instead elemental selenium 345 was suggested as the Se species at slightly acidic and neutral pH (4.5 - 6.6). The ability of 346 other ferrous minerals (e.g., green rust, mackinawite, siderite or troilite) to reduce aqueous

Se(IV) and Se(VI) to elemental Se and selenides has been inferred to be coupled to the oxidation of S(-II)/Fe(II) to S(0)/Fe(III) in such phases.^(20,42-44,53-54) Other evidence suggests microbial metabolic processes may be responsible for the formation of selenides⁽⁵³⁻⁵⁴⁾ and ferroselite in particular. Herbel et al.⁽⁵³⁾ using XAS analyses of selenite-respiring bacteria showed initially a microbial reduction of selenite to elemental Se and a further reduction to Se(-II) species and the formation of FeSe_x precipitates.

353 Combining these observations with our results, we suggest that in our shale sample the FeSe_x 354 species formed coevally with the framboids at the chemocline where microbial processes 355 dominate and through reduction of local aqueous Se. During subsequent diagenesis or 356 weathering FeSe_x will be highly soluble at low pH and intermediate redox conditions (**Figure** 357 **S12** in **SI**), thus allowing for easy Se release and subsequent transport or re-adsorption onto 358 other minerals.

359 Implications for Se release

360 Our Se mobility data from the sequential extractions showed Se easily liberated from oxides, 361 clay minerals and carbonates. When reacting our samples with mildly acidic reagents 362 (Protocol A: water, exchangeable, Se(0) and acetic extractions – Figure S3 in SI) 10 % of the 363 total Se was easily released. In a weathering environment characterised by slightly acid to 364 neutral pH's, this will certainly release Se from shales into local groundwaters. The largest 365 proportion of Se however, was associated with pyrite, which is the largest and most reactive 366 Se host phase in shales. Oxidative pyrite weathering from shales together with dissolution of 367 the more soluble FeSe_x will therefore control the delivery of Se to aquifers and/or soils. 368 Specifically, such dissolution processes result in the redistribution of iron into Fe 369 oxyhydroxides (e.g., ferrihydrite) or Fe oxyhydroxide sulfates (e.g., schwertmannite) and the production of sulfuric acid leading to acidic⁽⁵⁵⁾ soils. The associated Se species (FeSe_x and Se 370 371 in the euhedral pyrite structure) will co-oxidise to form elemental Se and with further 372 oxidation these will convert to more toxic and bioavailable selenite or selenate species^(6,8)
373 (Figure S12 right in SI). Selenite species behave analogously to As species⁽⁵⁶⁻⁵⁸⁾ when
374 interacting with minerals and thus once in the aqueous medium, selenite may re-adsorb onto
375 FeOOH particles at acidic pH conditions, or remain bioavailable as free aqueous species in
376 aquifers and thus be transferred to the human food chain with harmful effects.

The rates at which the different pyrite morphologies are oxidised during shale weathering will govern the release rates of Se, because framboidal pyrites (made of microcrysts with a large surface area) are weathered faster than euhedral often larger pyrites crystals. Thus, in shales with high framboidal pyrite contents⁽⁵⁰⁾ that are oxidatively weathered, Se release will be maximal where secondary iron minerals that can sequester the released Se are limited and/or where ambient pH is neutral to alkaline.

383 Se as potential proxy for past environmental conditions

384 Framboid size distribution is an often used proxy for redox conditions in marine sediments⁽⁵⁰⁾. Recently, the use of Se isotopes was suggested as another powerful palaeo-385 environmental proxy.^(5,12,59) Specifically, Mitchell et al.⁽¹²⁾ suggested a link between bulk 386 387 Se/TOC ratios (mol/mol) and Se isotopic values as a first step towards such a proxy. They 388 also noted that the lack of Se speciation information is hindering the full use of Se isotopes as 389 a palaeo-proxy. We did not analyse the Se isotope compositions in our shales, but our bulk Se/TOC ratios (**Table S6** in **SI**) varied between 2.48×10^{-6} and 8.74×10^{-5} , which lie within 390 the typical range suggested for shales⁽¹²⁾ Our data shows a clear link between Se and pyrite 391 392 and a clear difference in Se speciation in framboidal and euhedral grains. Such a host-fraction 393 differentiation and a morphology-resolved speciation analyses, albeit difficult and time 394 consuming, could much improve the use of Se as a palaeo-environmental proxy. Therefore, 395 we infer that to demonstrate the power of Se as a potential proxy in both modern and ancient 396 settings, measuring only bulk Se isotopic values of rocks are insufficient. In a first step towards a better Se palaeo-proxy, we propose that bulk Se isotopic analyses need to be combined with spatially and morphologically resolved Se speciation analyses as described in the current study. A further step – that may currently not yet be feasible technologically would be a spatially and host-fraction differentiated and also pyrite morphology-resolved Se isotopic fingerprinting, combined with co-resolved Se speciation analyses. Such a combined approach would indeed pave the way to a very powerful Se palaeo-oceanographic proxy.

403 ASSOCIATED CONTENT

404 Supporting Information

405 Sample details; bulk characterisation; Se distribution from sequential extractions and trace 406 elements; euhedral and framboidal pyrite microprobe analyses; correlation plots of μ -XRF 407 areas; details of μ -XANES and μ -EXAFS analyses; thermodynamic modelling. This 408 information is available free of charge via the Internet at http://pubs.acs.org.

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