

# Magnetic enhancement is linked to and precedes hematite formation in aerobic soil

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[1] Soil formation usually increases magnetic susceptibility, most often by increasing the concentrations of magnetite and maghemite, which are two ferrimagnetic iron oxides. Here we provide evidence that magnetic enhancement in aerobic soils not affected by detrital magnetic inputs or thermal transformation of other iron oxides is mostly due to the formation of maghemite, which is later transformed into hematite—the iron oxide that gives red color to soil. We show that the maghemite/hematite ratio is influenced by the particular environment and the degree of soil development, so it constitutes an effective tool for paleoenvironmental and planetary studies.

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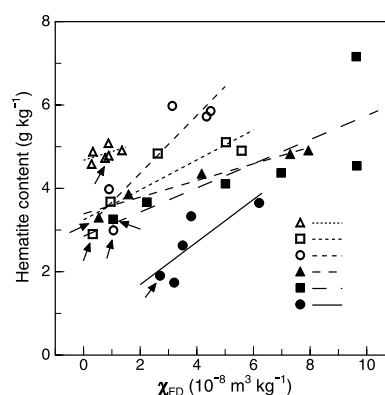
## 1. Introduction

[2] Soil formation usually increases magnetic susceptibility, most often by increasing the concentrations of ferrimagnetic minerals [Tite and Linington, 1975; Evans and Heller, 2003]. In soils not affected by detrital magnetic inputs, waterlogging, and/or thermal transformations of other iron (hydr)oxides, magnetic enhancement is ascribed to the neoformation of nanosized magnetite and/or maghemite [Dearing *et al.*, 1996a]. Both inorganic [Maher and Taylor, 1988] and bacterially mediated [Fassbinder *et al.*, 1993; Lovley *et al.*, 1987] pathways to magnetite have been proposed that require the presence of reductive conditions and the resulting accumulation of  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  in the soil solution. However, this assumption is challenged by the coexistence of pedogenic ferrimagnets and hematite in soils [Balsam *et al.*, 2004] because hematite rarely forms in significant amounts in soil environments undergoing Fe reduction [Schwertmann, 1985]. Here we test the hypothesis that maghemite and hematite form paragenetically in aerobic soils. This hypothesis is supported by (i) the *in vitro* ferrihydrite  $\rightarrow$  maghemite  $\rightarrow$  hematite transformation that is observed for ferrihydrite doped with phosphate or the anions of some low molecular weight organic acids [Barrón and Torrent, 2002], and (ii) the fact that any pedogenic magnetic enhancement in aerobic soils containing no pedogenic hematite is limited, as discussed later on.

## 2. Materials and Methods

[3] To determine the relationships between the magnetic enhancement and hematite content in soils, we characterised samples from soils and paleosols in world regions where present or past climatic conditions are believed to have favoured neoformation of hematite [Schwertmann, 1985]. Upper A horizons were excluded from study in order to avoid the potential effects of contamination with aerial magnetic inputs and maghemite resulting from the thermal transformation (by fire) of other Fe oxides. The samples we analyzed were provided by different authors. The origin and basic characteristics of these samples are reported in the references given in the captions of Figures 1 to 3.

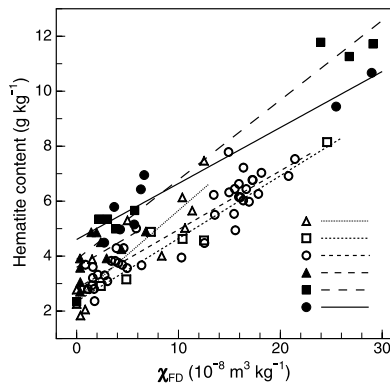
[4] The samples were ground to  $<2$  mm and analyzed for total Fe ( $\text{Fe}_t$ ) (HF –  $\text{HClO}_4$  digestion), citrate/bicarbonate/dithionite (CBD)-extractable Fe ( $\text{Fe}_d$ ) and acid oxalate-extractable Fe ( $\text{Fe}_o$ ) by standard methods [Cornell and Schwertmann, 2003]. We used  $\text{Fe}_d$  as a measure of the Fe content in Fe oxides and the  $\text{Fe}_d/\text{Fe}_t$  ratio as one of the degree of weathering of Fe-bearing minerals to secondary Fe oxides. We quantitatively estimated the contents of hematite and goethite in soil from the visible spectra of pressed fine powders, which were recorded on a Cary 1E spectrophotometer equipped with a diffuse reflectance ac-



**Figure 1.** Relationship between hematite content and frequency-dependent magnetic susceptibility ( $\chi_{\text{FD}}$ ) in soil profiles developed on loess of the Russian steppe [Maher *et al.*, 2002] in areas with mean annual precipitation (MAP) of 300 mm (open triangles), 340 mm (open circles), 380 mm (open squares), 450 mm (solid triangles) and 480 mm (solid squares) and on Argentinian Pampa loess with MAP of 1000 mm (GAO soil) [Nabel *et al.*, 1999] (solid circles). The regression line and the parent loess (arrow) for each profile are shown. In all profiles, smooth changes in the  $\text{Fe}_d/\text{Fe}_t$  ratio indicated that the parent loess was essentially homogeneous.

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**Figure 2.** Relationship between hematite content and  $\chi_{FD}$  in loess/paleosol profiles from different sections of the Chinese Loess Plateau: Yuanbao [Liu *et al.*, 2004] (open triangles), Luochuan [Balsam *et al.*, 2004] (open squares), Yichuan [Liu *et al.*, 2004] (open circles), Huanxian [Ji *et al.*, 2004] (solid triangles), Lingtai L4/S3 (solid squares), and Lingtai L6/S5 [Spassov *et al.*, 2003] (solid circles). The regression line is shown for each profile, which comprises a paleosol and the overlying and/or underlying loess. In all profiles, smooth changes in the  $Fe_d/Fe_t$  ratio indicated that the parent loess was essentially homogeneous.

cessory. The bands of the second derivative of the Kubelka–Munk function spectrum were used for this purpose [Scheinost *et al.*, 1998]. Mass specific magnetic susceptibility ( $\chi$ ) at low (465 Hz,  $\chi_{LF}$ ) and high (4650 Hz,  $\chi_{HF}$ ) frequencies was measured with a Bartington Instrument Ltd MS2B Dual Frequency Sensor.

[5] Here we used the frequency-dependent magnetic susceptibility ( $\chi_{FD} = \chi_{LF} - \chi_{HF}$ ) as a semiquantitative measure of the concentration of pedogenic fine-grained magnetic grains. This choice is strongly supported by the high correlation we found between  $\chi_{FD}$  and the loss of  $\chi$  upon application of the CBD treatment [CBD-extractable  $\chi = 22 + 6.2 \chi_{FD} (10^{-8} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1})$ ;  $R^2 = 0.99$ ;  $P < 0.001$ ;  $n = 128$ ] as CBD can efficiently dissolve pedogenic magnetite/maghemite but not aeolian (detrital) magnetite grains [Vidic *et al.*, 2000]. To estimate the concentration of pedogenic magnetite/maghemite in soil we assumed (i)  $\sim 800 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1}$  to be a typical value of  $\chi$  for superparamagnetic magnetite/maghemite, as reported by Maher [1988], and (ii)  $\sim 12\%$  to be the relative frequency-dependent  $\chi$  value (i.e.,  $\chi_{FD}/\chi_{LF}$ ) of this magnetite/maghemite, as suggested by the work of Dearing *et al.* [1996b]. Then, the mass fraction of pedogenic magnetite/maghemite (i.e., mass of magnetite/maghemite per unit soil mass) is given by the expression:  $(\chi_{FD}/0.12)/(800 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1})$ .

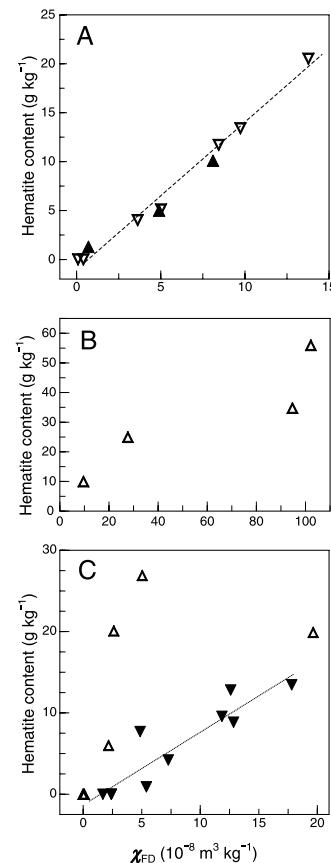
### 3. Results

[6] We present various types of hematite– $\chi_{FD}$  relationship in soils. Figure 1 shows such a relationship for six Holocene soil profiles developed on loess that generally contained little hematite (five in the Russian steppe and one in the Argentinian Pampa). Positive, significant ( $P < 0.10$ ) correlations between these variables were observed in all soils except one from an area with mean annual precipitation (MAP) of  $\sim 300$  mm, which exhibited little weathering (its  $Fe_d/Fe_t$  was constant throughout the studied profile).

The slope of the hematite– $\chi_{FD}$  regression line for the Russian soils was smaller for the soils from areas with the higher rainfall. The average slope of the regression lines in Figure 1 is  $\sim 0.4 \text{ g hematite kg}^{-1}/10^{-8} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ . This value is equivalent to a mass ratio between hematite and magnetite/maghemite of  $\sim 4$ .

[7] Figure 2 shows similar plots for six loess/paleosols profiles from five different locations in the Chinese Loess Plateau (CLP). The slopes of the regression lines differ little from those for the Russian steppe soils, suggesting that the pedogenic pathways in these two adjacent regions are identical. The greatest slope corresponds to the Yuanbao paleosol, collected in an area with a current MAP that is low relative to the other areas (500 vs.  $>600$  mm); on the other hand, the smallest slope is that for one of the Lingtai loess/paleosols profiles, in an area with a current MAP of 650 mm.

[8] The soils/paleosols shown in Figures 1 and 2 were formed in cold temperate to temperate climates; accordingly, they exhibit scarce weathering. Thus,  $Fe_d/Fe_t$  increases little from the parent loess to the most heavily weathered soil



**Figure 3.** Relationship between hematite content and  $\chi_{FD}$  in soils of Mediterranean regions. (a) A reddish brown soil profile on calcarenite in Spain [Torrent and Cabedo, 1986] (open triangles and regression line) and a reddish brown paleosol on loess in Moravia [van Oorschot *et al.*, 2002] (solid triangles). (b) Horizons of Terra Rossa developed on limestone or dolomite residuum from Italy, Portugal and USA. (c) Horizons of soils on a river terrace sequence in northern Spain [Torrent, 1976] (solid triangles, regression line) and in southern Spain [Peña and Torrent, 1984; Duiker *et al.*, 2003].

horizons (from  $\sim 0.25$  to  $< 0.33$  in the Russian soils,  $0.06$  to  $0.18$  in the Argentinian soil, and  $\sim 0.23$  to  $0.37$  in the CLP paleosols). The amount of neoformed hematite is therefore quite modest ( $< 10 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  soil) and so is that of neoformed goethite. Higher concentrations of hematite are found in soils from areas with warm temperate to hot, subhumid to humid climates, provided the soils are well-drained, poor in organic matter, and subject to seasonal drying. These conditions favour dehydration of precursor ferrihydrite to hematite rather than dissolution of ferrihydrite and nucleation of goethite [Schwertmann, 1985].

[9] Figure 3 shows the hematite contents and  $\chi_{\text{FD}}$  values for the Mediterranean soils, where rubefaction (*viz.* reddening due to pedogenic hematite) is quite commonplace. In a rubefacted soil profile (Figure 3a) formed on a homogeneous hematite-free calcarenite exhibiting negligible  $\chi_{\text{FD}}$  ( $< 2 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ ), the maximum concentration of hematite ( $> 20 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ ) is substantially higher than that of the Russian and CLP soils and so is the slope of the hematite– $\chi_{\text{FD}}$  regression line ( $1.51 \text{ g hematite kg}^{-1} / 10^{-8} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1}$ , equivalent to a hematite to magnetite/maghemite ratio of  $\sim 15$ ). Typical Terra Rossas developed on limestone residuum exhibit high ( $> 10 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$ ) hematite contents and variable hematite/ $\chi_{\text{FD}}$  ratios (Figure 3b). The B horizons of Alfisols developed on river terrace materials in two areas of Spain (Figure 3c) also illustrate the paragenesis of hematite and magnetite/maghemite in Mediterranean areas. Similarly, highly weathered soils from tropical and subtropical areas tend to exhibit significant pedogenic magnetic enhancement only when they contain pedogenic hematite, irrespective of their, sometimes high, content in goethite. For instance, in the B horizons of three Oxisols of the Brazilian cerrado region that were similar in properties except for the type of Fe oxide,  $\chi_{\text{FD}}$  was  $62 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1}$  for the one rich in hematite,  $21 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1}$  for the one that contained more goethite than hematite, and only  $2 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1}$  for the one that contained goethite but not hematite (J. Torrent, unpublished results).

#### 4. Discussion

[10] The soil hematite–magnetite/maghemite paragenesis is consistent with the ferrihydrite  $\xrightarrow{1}$  superparamagnetic (SP) maghemite  $\xrightarrow{2}$  single domain (SD) maghemite  $\xrightarrow{3}$  hematite transformation. This has previously been observed for synthetic 2-line ferrihydrite doped with phosphate or citrate and aged at  $> 150^\circ\text{C}$  [Barrón and Torrent, 2002; Q. S. Liu et al., Magnetism of the intermediate maghemite in the transformation of 2-line ferrihydrite into hematite and its paleoenvironmental implications, submitted to *Earth and Planetary Science Letters*, 2005]. Based on our model, various ligands present in the soil solution are sorbed on the surface of ferrihydrite particles, which are thus “blocked” and can undergo internal rearrangement and slow dehydration to hematite via steps 1 and 2. Experiments underway (V. Barrón) have shown that ferrihydrite becomes hematite at  $25^\circ\text{C}$  at a rate that is dictated by content in doping ligands; however, the transformation always involves a transient, significant increase in  $\chi$ .

[11] Our model postulates the direct formation of a phase that exhibits most of the characteristics of maghemite rather than magnetite. This is supported by the fact that samples of

various Mediterranean soils and paleosols from the CLP exhibited a decrease in  $\chi_{\text{FD}}$  upon oxalate extraction that was less than 40% of the result obtained by CBD extraction. We observed that this maghemite is resistant to oxalate extraction in contrast to magnetite in the submicron size range, which is quantitatively dissolved as a result of the well-known  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$ –induced autocatalytic effect [Reyes and Torrent, 1997].

[12] Many observations indicate that little or no hematite—and, based on our model, maghemite—is formed when the soil environmental conditions favour dissolution of ferrihydrite (whether by reduction, acidification or complexation with organic matter). Then, the hydrolysis of Fe ions in solution results in the formation of goethite or—less frequently—lepidocrocite [Schwertmann, 1985]. The fact that goethitic (*i.e.*, hematite-free, but goethite-containing) soils exhibit limited substantial magnetic enhancement contradicts currently prevailing hypotheses that ascribe the enhancement mostly to the inorganic or biotic synthesis of magnetite [Dearing et al., 1996a]. This process requires the presence of  $\text{Fe}^{2+}$  in solution, a condition that is met in soil horizons and environments that are water saturated, and hence undergo reduction, in some periods. This moisture regime is likely to favour the transformation of ferrihydrite (via dissolution) into goethite rather than hematite. A typical example is provided by the river terrace soils of Figure 3c, which contain  $10$ – $60 \text{ g goethite kg}^{-1}$ : the goethitic,  $\chi_{\text{FD}}$ –poor soils exhibit some field properties suggesting somewhat imperfect drainage in winter, whereas their hematitic counterparts do not [Peña and Torrent, 1984; Torrent, 1976]. If these hypotheses were fulfilled on a significantly large scale, then one could expect magnetic enhancement in goethitic soils to exceed that in similar hematitic soils, which is obviously not the case. Indeed, magnetite formation to significant extent in anaerobic microenvironments in otherwise well-drained soils cannot be excluded [Maher and Taylor, 1988].

[13] A long-sustained, alternative explanation for the strong link between hematite formation and magnetic enhancement in soil undergoing wet/dry cycles (*e.g.*, Mediterranean soils) is reductive dissolution of hematite/goethite in the wet season followed by magnetite formation and then oxidation to maghemite in the dry season [Maher, 1998]. This however clashes with the fact that maghemite is more soluble than either hematite or goethite [Cornell and Schwertmann, 2003], and thus likely to be redissolved with the onset of wet conditions after the dry season. Moreover, the positive correlation between hematite and maghemite concentrations in our studied soil profiles does not support a genetic transformation of hematite to magnetite through reduction and then to maghemite through reoxidation.

[14] Our results indicate that the soil hematite/ $\chi_{\text{FD}}$  ratio relates, among other factors, to pedoclimate and the degree of weathering. Such factors are likely to influence the rates of ferrihydrite formation from weatherable Fe-bearing minerals and steps 1 to 3 of the proposed pathway in a predictable way. In soils remaining moist, but not saturated most of the year, and warm enough for significant mineral transformation, the rates of ferrihydrite formation, and of steps 1 and 2, are likely to be relatively fast compared to step 3, which involves both ion rearrangement and dehydration. By contrast, soils in areas with lower rainfall and



longer dry seasons are likely to exhibit a faster step 3 and higher hematite/ $\chi_{FD}$  ratios than the previous ones. Thus, as noted earlier, the hematite/ $\chi_{FD}$  ratio tends to increase with decreasing rainfall in the Russian steppe soils (Figure 1) and CLP paleosols (Figure 2), consistent with previous findings [Balsam *et al.*, 2004]. Similarly, in tropical regions, Oxisols undergoing seasonal drying tend to exhibit higher hematite/ $\chi_{FD}$  ratios than those that do not. So, J. Torrent (unpublished results) found this ratio to be  $>2 \text{ g hematite kg}^{-1}/10^{-8} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1}$  for a group of Brazilian Oxisols subjected to a dry season (Ustoxs), but only  $<1 \text{ g hematite kg}^{-1}/10^{-8} \text{ m}^3 \text{ kg}^{-1}$  for another group of Brazilian Oxisols that were moist for most of the year (Udoxs). It must also be noted that highly weathered hematitic soils are likely to be poor in  $\chi_{FD}$  relative to other soils as the intermediate products formed in the conversion of Fe-bearing minerals to hematite are gradually depleted. Hence the potential use of our findings for characterizing soil formation environments. This applies not only to terrestrial soils and paleosols, but also to the Fe oxide-rich Martian soils and dusts [Barrón and Torrent, 2002].

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