

Santabarbaraitite: a new amorphous phosphate mineral

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Abstract: Santabarbaraitite is a new amorphous ferric iron hydroxy phosphate hydrate from Valdarno, Tuscany, Italy, the type locality, and Wannon Falls, Victoria, Australia. The mineral is the result of *in situ* oxidation of vivianite, occurring as pseudomorphs after vivianite crystals that are up to 3 mm across in concretionary nodules at the type locality and somewhat larger at Wannon Falls. Santabarbaraitite is brown to light-brown in hand specimen, but appears yellowish amber under the microscope and has a similar streak. It is translucent with a distinct vitreous to greasy lustre and is nonfluorescent. It is brittle with a distinct parting along the perfect cleavage of vivianite. The hardness was not measured but the measured density of the type material is 2.42 g/cm³. Optically isotropic, the mineral has a refractive index of 1.695(5). The empirical formula for the type material is (Fe_{2.64}Mn_{0.13}Mg_{0.07}) (PO₄)₂ (OH)_{2.45} · 5.1H₂O, giving a simplified formula of Fe³⁺₃(PO₄)₂(OH)₃·5H₂O. Santabarbaraitite from both localities was analysed by several techniques of X-ray absorption (XANES and EXAFS) and infrared spectroscopy, as well as DTA, DTG and TG. The results show that all the Fe in santabarbaraitite is trivalent, associated with the presence of both H₂O and hydroxyl. This is consistent with an oxidation series from vivianite through metavivianite to santabarbaraitite, involving progressive oxidation of Fe²⁺ accompanied by conversion of H₂O ligands to OH ions. Such a process leads to a gradual collapse of the vivianite structure as hydrogen bonds are eliminated. Santabarbaraitite is the end product of this process and can be thus considered the phosphorus analogue of ferrisymplectite.

Key-words: santabarbaraitite, new mineral, amorphous, vivianite, *kertschenite*.

1. Introduction

Santabarbaraitite is a new, amorphous, ferric iron hydroxy phosphate hydrate from Valdarno Superiore (Upper Arno River Valley), Tuscany, Italy. Amorphous substances such as this new mineral are not usually thought to meet the normal requirements for mineral species. Moreover, mineralogists are often reluctant to accept amorphous substances as mineral species, so the term “mineraloid” has sometimes been applied to them. In spite of the previous approval of some amorphous minerals (Rogova *et al.*, 1974; Pollard *et al.*, 1991) by the IMA Commission on New Minerals and Mineral Names (CNMMN), perplexity on amorphous minerals could be, at least partly, shared and great prudence is required in order to confirm the presence of a true chemical compound rather than a mixture.

Nowadays, the difficulty of fully characterizing amorphous substances has been overcome by modern spectroscopic methods which, associated with a chemical analysis, can lead to an unequivocal identification of an amorphous substance. For this reason, the CNMMN criteria for a new mineral species (Nickel & Grice, 1998), clearly state that an

amorphous substance can be accepted as a mineral species provided that a set of complete quantitative chemical analyses and physical-chemical data (normally spectroscopic) demonstrates the uniqueness of the phase.

The new mineral species described here, santabarbaraitite, has not only been well characterized by appropriate spectroscopic methods (XANES and EXAFS) that reveal the three-dimensional short-range environment of iron and phosphorus atoms in the structure, but it has also been placed in a convincing genetic sequence involving the progressive oxidation of vivianite.

The name is after the mining district where the studied sample was collected. Moreover, it honours the Christian martyr Santa Barbara, the patron saint of miners, who was born in Nicomedia, now Izmit (Turkey), during the IVth century AD. Both the species and the name were approved (2000-052) by the CNMMN prior to publication. The holotype material (from the Valdarno area) is deposited at the Natural History Museum of the University of Florence, Italy, catalogue No. 2862/RI.

Another occurrence of santabarbaraitite, from Wannon Falls, Victoria (Australia), was discovered by one of us

(W.D.B), making a significant contribution to the final outcome of the approval procedure. Material from Australia is stored in Museum Victoria with catalogue numbers M22892 and M34637.

1.1 The name: a choice of clearance

Similar material to santabarbarite (*i.e.* oxidation products of vivianite not producing X-ray diffraction effects) has been reported in the past (Dormann & Poullen, 1980; Pratesi, 1993) and sometimes referred as to *oxykertschenite*. The terms *kertschenit* and *oxykerchenite* were first used by Popoff (1906) to indicate some iron phosphates from the Kerch Peninsula (German, Kertsch), Crimea. Since then, these terms have been used for several natural products and have also been the subject of a review by Rodgers (1986). As shown in Table 1, the names *kertschenite* and *oxykertschenite* are still used for metavivianite and therefore could not be used for santabarbarite. Moreover, the material from Victoria contains calcium and shows chemical similarity with a phosphate reported in the literature with the name *eguëite* (see Min. Mag. 16, 358; Dana 7th II, 955). So, while Rodgers (1986) suggested a re-examination of the triclinic ferri-ferrous hydroxy phosphate hydrate (metavivianite) in order to reinstate the name *kerchenite*, it is clear that *kertschenite* and *oxykertschenite* have never been sufficiently characterized. For sake of completeness, it should be remembered that *bosphorite* has also been used to refer to oxidized vivianite (see Spencer, 1925 and references therein). Therefore, a different name was required to identify the amorphous ferric hydroxy phosphate hydrate.

Table 1. Use of names *kertschenite* and *oxykertschenite* in literature.

<i>Kertschenit</i> = oxidized vivianite , Centralblatt Mineral. Geol. Paläontol. (1906)
<i>Kerchenite</i> = oxidized vivianite , Bull. Acad. Sci. St. Pétersbourg (1907)
<i>Oxykerchenite</i> = oxidized <i>kerchenite</i> , Bull. Acad. Sci. St. Pétersbourg (1907)
<i>Kertschenit</i> = oxidized vivianite , Min. Mag. (1907)
<i>Kertchenit</i> = oxidized vivianite , Chem. Abstr. (1907)
<i>Oxykertschenite</i> = oxidized vivianite , Min. Mag. (1910)
<i>Kertchenite</i> = oxidized vivianite , English (1939)
<i>Oxykertchenite</i> = oxidized vivianite , English (1939)
<i>Oxykerchenite</i> = oxidized vivianite , Min. Mag. (1946)
<i>Kertschenite-α</i> = oxidized vivianite , Dana 7th (1951)
<i>Kertschenite-β</i> = oxidized vivianite , Dana 7th (1951)
<i>Kerchenite-α, β, γ</i> = oxidized vivianite , Hey (1962)
<i>Kertschenite-γ</i> = oxidized vivianite , Hey (1962)
<i>Oxykertschenite</i> = oxidized vivianite , Hey (1962)
<i>Oxykerchenite</i> = amorphous phosphate , Bull. Min. (1980)
<i>Oxykerchenite</i> = amorphous phosphate , Bull. Min. (1987)
<i>Kerchenite</i> = metavivianite , Min. Mag. (1986)
<i>Kertschenite</i> = oxidized vivianite, metavivianite , Hey (1993)
<i>Oxykerchenite</i> = metavivianite , Hey (1993)
<i>Kerchite</i> = metavivianite(?) , Dana 8th (1997)
<i>Kertschenite</i> = metavivianite , Dana 8th (1997)
<i>Oxykertschenite</i> = metavivianite , Dana 8th (1997)

2. Occurrence

The mineral occurs in clays of the Valdarno Superiore lignite-bearing basin, in the Santa Barbara mining district (Tuscany, Italy), which contains deposits of fluvial and fluvial-lacustrine sediments up to 550 m thick (Lazzarotto & Liotta, 1991). Their age ranges from Upper Pliocene to Middle Pleistocene. The basin substrate consists of Oligocene sandstone towards the south and Miocene sandstone towards the north (Sagri & Magi, 1992). Santabarbarite can be added to other minerals recorded from this area (Corazza *et al.*, 1994) including two type minerals, grattarolaite and rodolicoite (Cipriani *et al.*, 1997).

Santabarbarite has been also found in clay underlying Tertiary (Pliocene) basalt, exposed beneath the Wannan Falls about 7 km west of Hamilton, Victoria, Australia. This is a noted locality for excellent specimens of vivianite (Birch & Henry, 1993). In particular, santabarbarite was detected during examination of some Wannan Falls specimens in the Museum Victoria collections. These specimens had been previously described as vivianite pseudomorphed by limonite, but the limonite was revealed to be santabarbarite.

3. Description and experimental procedure

3.1 Appearance, physical and optical properties

In the Valdarno area, santabarbarite appears as concretionary nodules up to 5–6 cm in diameter that show internal cavities filled by aggregates, up to 2–3 mm across, of sub-millimetric pseudocrystals with the morphology of vivianite. In places, the crystalline aggregates of santabarbarite show a core of metavivianite. At Wannan Falls, the mineral occurs as pseudomorphs after vivianite crystals, in clusters up to 9 cm across. As santabarbarite is pseudomorphous after vivianite and metavivianite, the visual aspect of santabarbarite is crystalline, with sometimes elongated and flattened prismatic habit. The colour is brown or light brown in hand specimen, but yellow-amber under the microscope; the streak is yellow-amber. Santabarbarite is translucent and displays a vitreous to greasy lustre. No fluorescence appears under UV light. Hardness was not determined. Although mineral is brittle and without distinct cleavage, it shows a good parting following the original perfect cleavage {010} of vivianite. It is neither flexible nor sectile. The measured density, using heavy liquids (by means of LST – solution of sodium heteropolytungstates in water), is 2.42 g/cm³ for the Valdarno material; however, this result could be affected by the presence of submicroscopic fractures within the material. Santabarbarite is optically isotropic, with an index of refraction, measured using white light, of $n = 1.695(5)$. According to the Gladstone-Dale relationship (Mandarino, 1981), the compatibility index $1 - (K_p/K_c) = -0.022$ (Valdarno material) is excellent.

3.2 Chemical composition

Material from both localities were examined by optical microscopy and SEM to verify the homogeneity of the sam-

Table 2. Chemical analyses of santabarbarite from Italy and from Australia.

Constituent	Santabarbarite (Italy)		Santabarbarite (Australia)		Probe Standard
	Wt.%	Range	Wt.%	Range	
Fe ₂ O ₃	43.97	±0.35	43.22	±0.35	Ilmenite – Vivianite
P ₂ O ₅	29.48	±0.25	28.60	±0.25	Apatite – Vivianite
Mn ₂ O ₃	2.23	±0.10	--	--	Bustamite
CaO	--	--	2.93	±0.10	Diopside
MgO	0.61	±0.05	0.69	±0.05	Olivine
H ₂ O	23.90	±0.50	23.05	±0.20	
Total	100.19		98.49		

ples. Chemical compositions were obtained using a JEOL JXA 8600 electron microprobe equipped with a wavelength-dispersive system. The operating conditions were 15 kV and a beam current of 10 nA, with the beam defocused to 25 microns in order to minimise water loss and prevent damage on the sample surface. Thirty analyses were carried out on three distinct granules of the Valdarno material, and twelve analyses were performed on the Wannan Falls material. The water content was measured by three different analytical methods, namely infrared spectroscopy, thermogravimetry and loss on ignition. Two different methods were used to test for the presence of ferrous iron: titration with standard dichromate solution and X-ray absorption spectroscopy. As shown in Table 2, the analyses and chemical formulae for the mineral from the two localities show only slight differences. In particular, the analytical total is lower for the Australian material, probably due to a different water content, and the Italian sample contains about 2 % Mn, whereas the Australian sample contains about 3 % Ca. Thus, the empirical formulae, based on 2 PO₄ anionic groups, can be written as follows: (Fe_{2.64}Mn_{0.13}Mg_{0.07})(PO₄)₂(OH)_{2.45}·5.1H₂O for santabarbarite from Valdarno and (Fe_{2.69}Ca_{0.26}Mg_{0.08})(PO₄)₂(OH)_{2.75}·5.0H₂O for santabarbarite from Wannan Falls. The simplified formula for both is Fe³⁺₃(PO₄)₂(OH)₃·5H₂O.

3.3 X-ray absorption spectroscopy (XANES and EXAFS)

3.3.1 Experimental settings

Fe K-edge spectra were collected at the GILDA beamline of the ESRF storage ring (Grenoble, F), operating at 6 GeV and with ring currents ranging from 50 to 90 mA. Radiation was monochromatized by means of two Si (3 1 1) crystals, and higher harmonic rejection was achieved by detuning the second crystal. The samples were prepared as finely ground powder deposited onto a kapton tape. The fluorescence yield was measured by a 13-element high purity Ge detector, and the incident intensity by an ionisation chamber. The spectra were collected in step-scan mode ranging in energy from 7000 to 7700 eV with an energy step of 0.2 eV in the

edge region and increasing up to 3.0 eV in the high-energy part of the spectrum. Experimental resolution in this energy region is close to 0.2 eV. Taking into account both the geometrical resolution and intrinsic line-width at the Fe K-edge, the width of the spectral features amounts to about 1.1 eV in the edge region. The energy positions are reproducible to ± 0.1 eV. Energy was calibrated against an Fe-Foil (7112 eV).

P K-edge spectra were collected at the B03-3 beamline of the SSRL storage ring (Stanford, CA, USA) operating at 3 GeV and with ring currents ranging from 60 to 90 mA. Radiation was monochromatized by means of two Ge (1 1 1) crystals, and higher harmonic rejection was achieved by detuning the second crystal. The samples were prepared by allowing the finely ground powder to settle in acetone on a Ag-coated sample-holder. The total electron yield and the incident radiation intensity were measured by two channeltrons positioned, respectively, near the sample and a metallic net halfway between the monochromator and the sample chamber. Further details on the experimental set-up can be found in Wong *et al.* (1994). The spectra were collected in step-scan mode ranging in energy from 2100 to 2120 eV with an energy step of 0.5 eV. Energy resolution amounted to about 0.5 eV, and the reproducibility of the energy position of the XANES features is ± 0.25 eV.

The XANES spectra were reduced by subtracting a linear background and by normalizing the step height to unity, taking it as the mean value of the absorption coefficient in the range 50–100 eV above the absorption edge. Energy was calibrated against a standard of Fe metal (7112 eV). The threshold energy was taken as the first maximum of the first derivative of the spectra, whereas peak positions were obtained by calculating the second derivative of the spectra. Pre-edge peak analysis was carried out following the same procedure reported in Wilke *et al.* (2001). The pre-edge peak was fitted by a sum of pseudo-Voigt function, and the integrated intensities along with centroid energies were compared with those of the standards analysed here and others from the literature (Wilke *et al.*, 2001; Farges, 2001; Giuli *et al.*, 2003)¹ in order to extract information on Fe oxidation state and coordination number in the amorphous phase studied. The EXAFS spectra were analysed by means of the GNXAS code (Filipponi & Di Cicco, 2000). The amplitude factor (S₀²) was kept near 0.83 in fair agreement with the values reported in Farges *et al.* (1994) and Di Cicco *et al.* (1994). Further details on the fitting procedure of the EXAFS spectra can be found in Giuli *et al.* (2003).

3.3.2 Fe XANES of vivianite and santabarbarite

The Fe XANES spectra of vivianite and santabarbarite, both collected at the same locality (Santa Barbara), are shown together in Fig. 1 for direct comparison. Each peak is labeled with a letter, and the spectral features (edge energy, peak positions) are reported in Table 3. The shift of the santabarbarite spectrum towards higher energy is evident and

¹ The data of Wilke *et al.* (2001) and Farges (2001) are calibrated imposing the metal Fe K-edge at 7112.92 eV. In order to be compared with our data (calibrated at 7112.92 eV), the data of Wilke *et al.* (2001) and Farges (2001) are re-scaled accordingly.

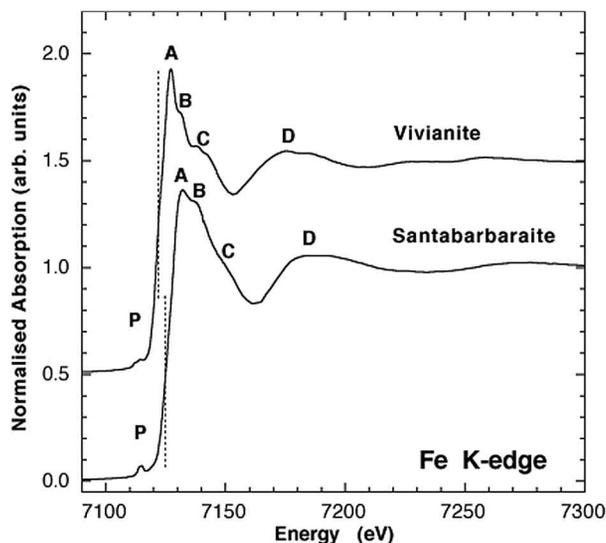


Fig. 1. Fe XANES: absorption spectra of vivianite and santabarbarite.

Table 3. Peak positions of the Fe K-edge XANES spectra.

Sample	P ^a	E ₀ ^b	A ^a	B ^a	C ^a	D ^a
Vivianite	7112.0	7120.8	7127.2	7131.7	7138.0	7173
	7114.2				7142.6	7188
Santabarbarite	7113.8	7124.5	7130.2	7137.9	7149.2	7178
	7115.1					7194

^a Deduced from the minima in the second derivative spectra.

^b Deduced from the maximum in the first derivative spectra.

results from iron oxidation. Comparison of the edge energy of the santabarbarite spectrum with those of standard compounds suggests that Fe is in the trivalent oxidation state.

The information obtainable from an accurate analysis of the pre-edge peak is more detailed than that derived from the absorption edge alone. This is because it is possible to discriminate the contributions from different Fe oxidation states and thus determine Fe oxidation state as well as coordination number (Waychunas *et al.*, 1983; Calas & Petiau, 1983; Calas *et al.*, 1984; Wilke *et al.*, 2001 and references therein). The pre-edge peaks of the vivianite and santabarbarite spectra are shown in Fig. 2, along with the contributions into which the peaks are deconvoluted. The integrated intensity and the centroid energy of these spectra are reported in Fig. 3, along with the fields found for Fe standards of known oxidation state and coordination number reported in this study and in Wilke *et al.* (2001). The integrated intensity and centroid energy position of the pre-edge peak of the santabarbarite spectrum is consistent with trivalent Fe in six-fold coordination. In contrast, the results for vivianite are consistent with a phase showing an ongoing oxidation of iron to yield a mixture of divalent and trivalent Fe in six-fold coordination. Such rapid oxidation is typical of vivianite, so it can be assumed that all vivianites contain a variable percentage of trivalent iron and the chemical formula showing all of the iron as divalent is only a theoretical formula.

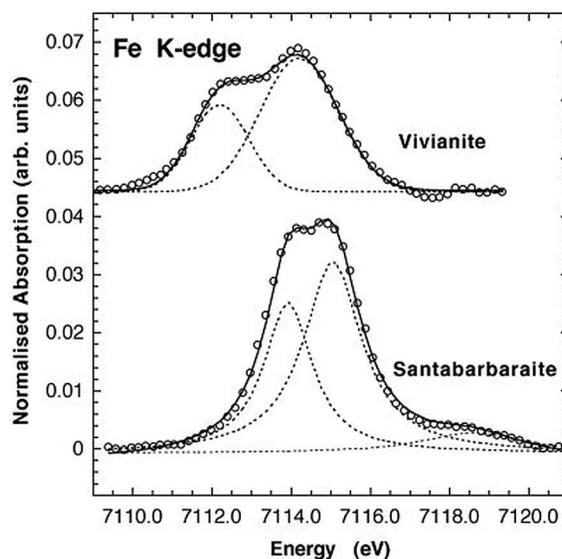


Fig. 2. Fe XANES: pre-edge peaks of the vivianite and santabarbarite spectra.

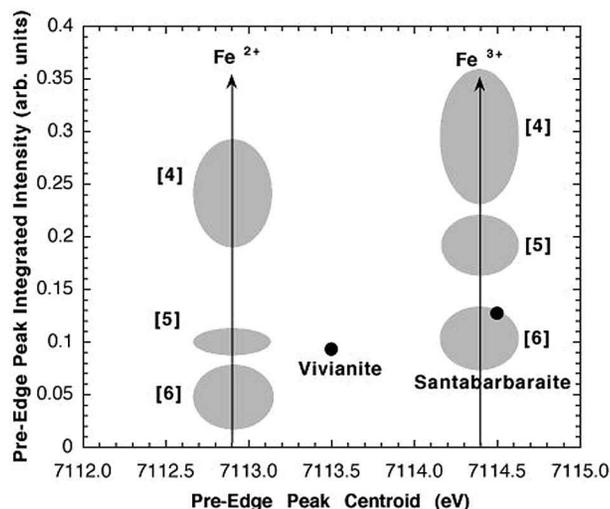


Fig. 3. Integrated intensity and centroid energy position of the Fe XANES pre-edge peaks of vivianite and santabarbarite.

3.3.3 Fe K-edge EXAFS spectrum of santabarbarite

Fig. 4 shows the experimental, theoretical and residual K² weighted $\chi(K)$ signals (upper panel) along with their Fourier Transforms (lower panel). The experimental signal is well reproduced by the theoretical one up to a wave vector $K=12 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$. In addition, the Fourier Transforms of the two signals are in good agreement. Several trials were performed to fit the experimental spectrum by assuming a regular geometry around iron (tetrahedron, trigonal dipyramid, or octahedron), but none of them was satisfactory. Refining the coordination number only yielded good results with a coordination number equal to 6.0; thus, the experimental spectrum was fitted with theoretical signals calculated assuming a distorted octahedral environment around iron. Several strategies were employed, using a two-shell model (two sets of

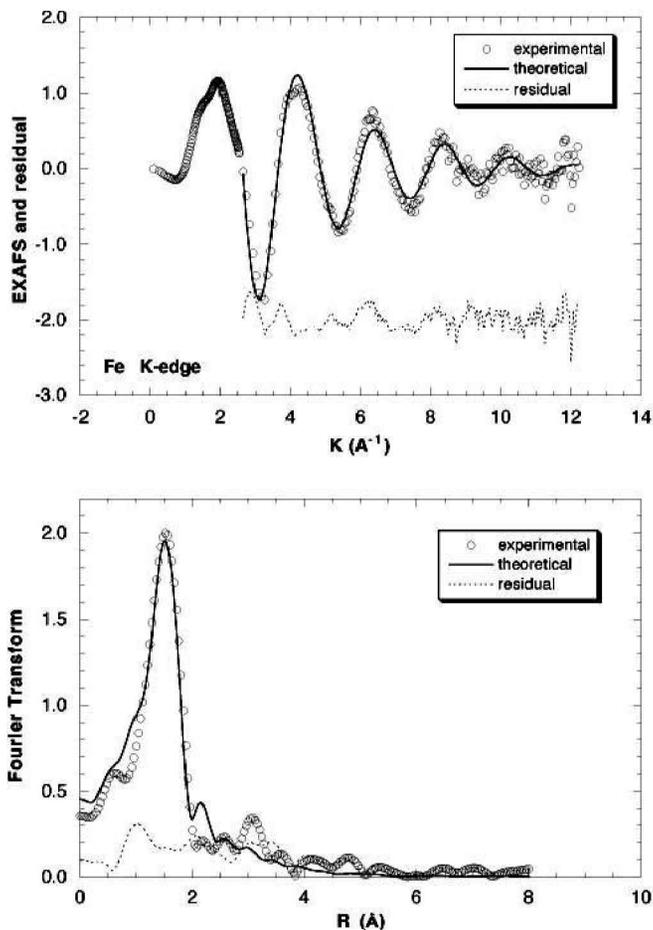


Fig. 4. Fe K-edge EXAFS spectrum of santabarbarite: experimental, theoretical and residual K^2 weighted $\chi(K)$ signals (upper panel) and their Fourier Transform (lower panel).

distances, one short and one long) and a three-shell model (three sets of distances). Both models resulted in good agreement between experimental and theoretical signals, so that at present it is not possible to evaluate the exact Fe-O distance distribution in the amorphous phase. However, the mean $\langle\text{Fe-O}\rangle$ distance obtained using different models always clusters near $2.045 \text{ \AA} \pm 0.02$. Table 4 shows the best fit obtained by considering three different distances.

3.3.4 P K-edge XANES of vivianite and santabarbarite

The P K-edge XANES spectra of vivianite and santabarbarite are shown in Fig. 5. It can be easily seen that the santabarbarite spectrum is shifted to higher energy in comparison to vivianite. Moreover, the intensity of the white line is clearly lower in the santabarbarite spectrum. In the absence of a precise energy calibration, no quantitative information can be obtained from these P K-edge spectra. Moreover, since there is no evidence that the topology of the structure maintains unaltered during the transformation to santabarbarite, no indications can be obtained from Natoli's rule as regards the P-O distances. However, the energy shift observed for the white line is consistent with a change in the P second-coordination shell: *i.e.* corresponding to the oxida-

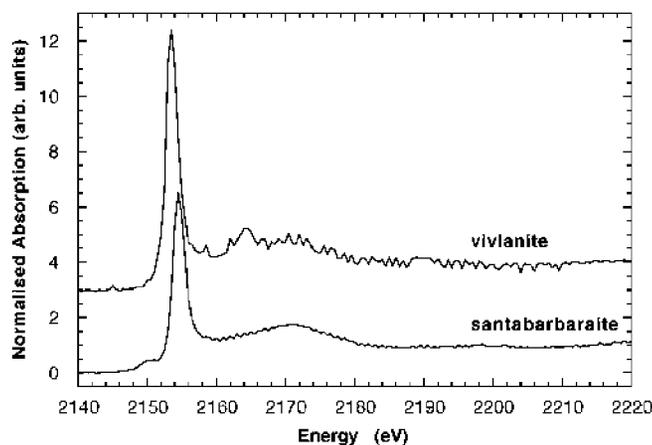


Fig. 5. P K-edge XANES spectra of vivianite and santabarbarite

tion of Fe from divalent to trivalent. According to Franke & Hormes (1995), there is a negative relation between the energy of the white line and its intensity: thus, both variations observed in the experimental spectra are compatible with a change in the oxidation state of the cations in the second coordination sphere of P (in our case Fe) from 2+ to 3+.

3.4 Infrared spectroscopy

Reflectance FTIR spectra of small (mm size) polished grains of the mineral were collected on a Perkin-Elmer Spectrum 2000 Fourier-transform infrared spectrometer using a liquid nitrogen cooled HgCdTe (MCT) detector. The spectra were taken, at a resolution of 4 cm^{-1} , in the wavenumber range $5000\text{--}700 \text{ cm}^{-1}$; the number of scans was 32 for each spectrum.

In the $1300\text{--}5000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ region of the FTIR spectra of santabarbarite from Valdarno (Fig. 6), one main band and three minor bands can be observed. The first, at 3570 cm^{-1} , is quite broad and strong, whereas the others at 4455 , 1675 and 1475 cm^{-1} are weak. The band at 3570 cm^{-1} also appears in vivianite and represents the main vibrational modes related to the water molecules. Following the suggestion of Piriou & Poullen (1987), this band, which in vivianite is composed of three bands at 3485 cm^{-1} ($\nu_3(W_{II})$), 3140 cm^{-1} ($\nu_3(W_I)$) and 3280 cm^{-1} ($\nu_1(W_{II})$), changes progressively in shape and energy as alteration proceeds. Such a change can be ascribed to the appearance of hydroxyl groups that form at the expense of water molecules. The bands at 4455 and 1675 cm^{-1} can be related, respectively, to the $\nu_2 + \nu_3(W_I)$ and ν_2 mode of deformation of H_2O . Finally, the bands at 2360 and 2341 cm^{-1} , that are visible in both the spectra, are due

Table 4. EXAFS refined structural parameters.

contribution	multiplicity	R (\AA)	σ (\AA^2)
Fe-O	3	1.98 (0.02)	0.005
Fe-O	2	2.00 (0.02)	0.019
Fe-O	1	2.29 (0.02)	0.011
$\langle\text{Fe-O}\rangle$	6.0 (0.4)	2.04 (0.02)	

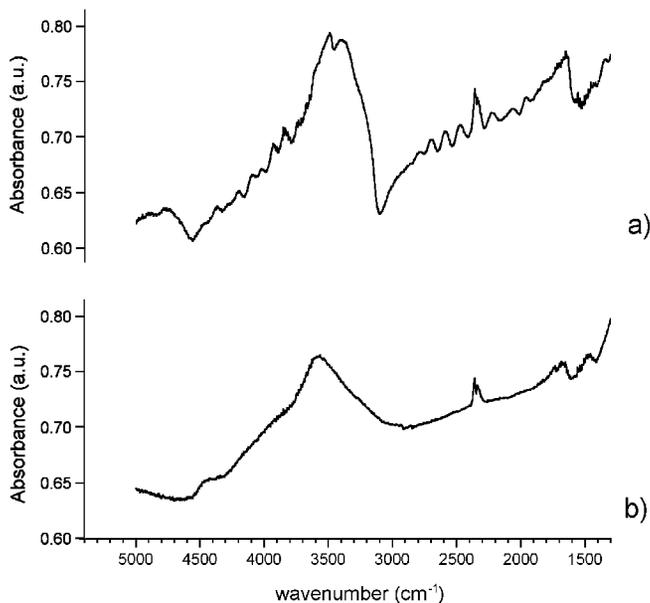


Fig. 6. FTIR spectra of vivianite(a) and santabarbarite(b) from Valdarno (Italy), in the range 1300–5000 cm^{-1} .

to the absorption of CO_2 molecules, because the measurements were performed in air.

For the PO_4^{3-} group, it should be borne in mind that the free ion has T_d symmetry, giving rise to four normal modes of vibration, namely A_1 (ν_1), E (ν_2), and $2 \times T_2$ (ν_3 and ν_4). The P–O stretching vibrations are clearly visible in the range 900–1100 cm^{-1} . In the spectra shown in Fig. 7, the differences between santabarbarite and vivianite are reported: the santabarbarite band is simple and unique, whereas the vivianite bands are multiple. It is noteworthy that the shift in the main absorption band of santabarbarite, from 1125 cm^{-1} of vivianite to 1180 cm^{-1} , probably reflects a slight variation in the P–O bond strength.

3.5 Thermal data

Thermal analyses were performed on the santabarbarite from Valdarno as well as from Wannan Falls. Fig. 8 shows DTA, DTG and TG data obtained with a heating rate of 3°C/min. The differential thermal analysis (DTA) shows a broad endothermic peak, spanning 100–250°C, due to loss of water. Santabarbarite does not show the exothermic peak visible in vivianite at 130°C (due to the oxidation of Fe^{2+}) because here the iron is already oxidized to Fe^{3+} . The strong exothermic peak at about 650°C represents the recrystallization of two ferric iron anhydrous phosphates corresponding to the minerals grattarolaite and rodolicoite. Thermal gravimetry (TG) and differential thermal gravimetry (DTG) analyses show evidence for both water molecules and hydroxide groups, which are lost in the ranges 100–250°C and 300–450°C, respectively.

For the Wannan Falls material, thermal data confirm both the H_2O and OH^- contents. The spectra strongly resemble those of the Valdarno santabarbarite. In particular, TG

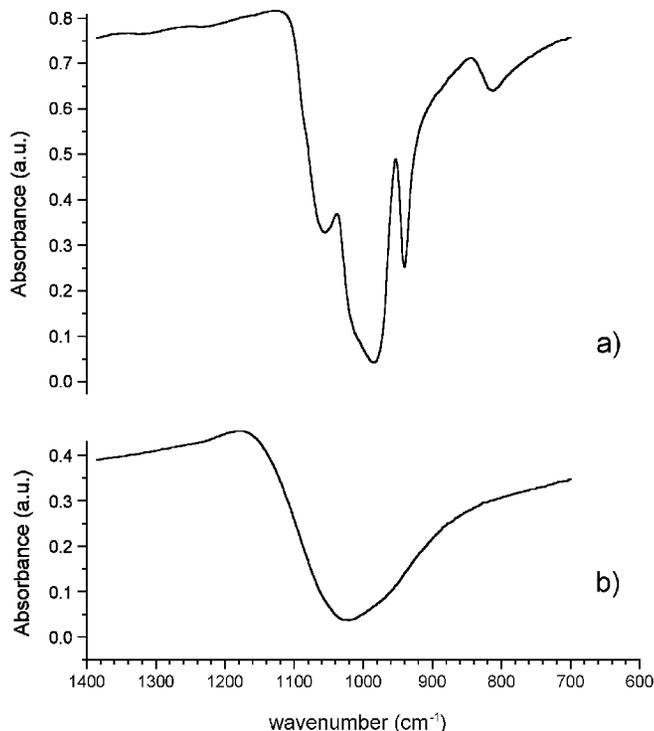


Fig. 7. P–O stretching vibrations of vivianite (a) and santabarbarite (b), in the range 900–1100 cm^{-1} .

analyses on the Australian occurrence, where more material was available, allowed confirmation of the relative percentage of H_2O and OH^- . It is worth mentioning that the OH^- content necessary for charge balance is the actual amount of OH^- calculated from thermogravimetry, where the two distinct effects (one for H_2O and the other for OH^-) are clearly visible.

4. Discussion and conclusions

As stated by the CNMMN (Nickel & Grice, 1998), a naturally occurring amorphous phase can be accepted as a new mineral provided that complete quantitative chemical analyses and spectroscopic data are available to demonstrate the uniqueness of the phase. Nickel (1995) stated that “noncrystalline substances can be divided into two categories: (1) amorphous substances that have never been crystalline and do not diffract X-rays or electrons and (2) metamict, those that were crystalline at one time, but whose crystallinity has been destroyed by ionizing radiation”. Santabarbarite has never been crystalline as $\text{Fe}^{3+}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2(\text{OH})_3 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$, but it previously existed in a crystalline form as vivianite $\text{Fe}^{2+}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2 \cdot 8\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (monoclinic) and metavivianite $\text{Fe}^{2+}_{3-x}\text{Fe}^{3+}_x(\text{PO}_4)_2(\text{OH})_x \cdot (8-x)\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (triclinic).

The oxidation of vivianite to metavivianite is a well-known process investigated with several methods and described by many authors (Dormann & Poullen, 1980; McCammon & Burns, 1980; Dormann *et al.*, 1982). The crystal structure of vivianite contains Fe^{2+} ions in isolated Fe_A^{2+} octahedra and in paired Fe_B^{2+} octahedra. Spectral

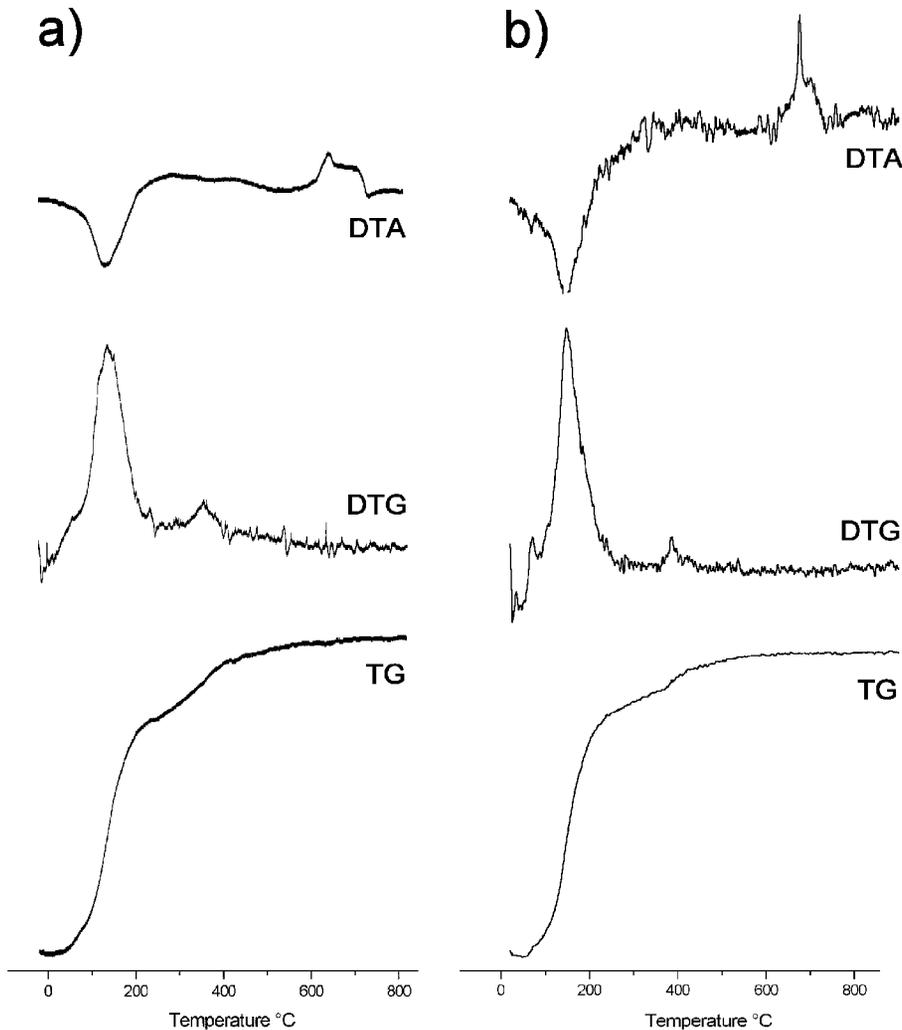


Fig. 8. Thermal analysis of santabarbarite: a) sample from Valdarno (Italy); b) sample from Wannan Falls (Australia).

measurements (McCammon & Burns, 1980) demonstrated that Fe_B^{2+}/Fe_A^{2+} increases with rising Fe^{3+} concentration, suggesting that the remaining Fe_A^{2+} ions can be more easily oxidized than the second Fe_B^{2+} ion of an $Fe_B^{2+}-Fe_B^{3+}$ pair. The mechanism of oxidation of Fe^{2+} ions involves H_2O ligands, which are converted to OH^- ions, producing a progressive collapse of the vivianite structure due to the elimination of hydrogen bonds (Moore, 1971). Dormann & Poulten (1980) stressed that the monoclinic structure of vivianite is maintained until 40 % of the total iron is oxidized. Further oxidation leads to the formation of the triclinic phase metavivianite, in which the Fe_A site is completely oxidized, whereas the oxidation of the Fe_B ranges from 20 % up to almost 100 %. When all of the iron is oxidized, santabarbarite can then form. In spite of the amorphous state of this phase, the genetic relationship between santabarbarite and vivianite is straightforward. Moreover, its chemical composition is narrowly confined, since santabarbarite is the oxidized amorphous ferric end-member arising from the alteration of vivianite. Thus, the full sequence can be shown as follows: monoclinic vivianite \rightarrow triclinic metavivianite \rightarrow

amorphous santabarbarite \rightarrow recrystallization to grattaroite and rodolicoite.

Acknowledgements: The authors are grateful to Mirko Bonichi and Lido Boanini for providing the samples and for some collaborative field campaigns. Thanks are also due to Dr. Andrea Tombesi (C.I.G.S. – University of Modena) for his help in IR analyses, and to the staff of BM-08 (ESRF) and B03-3 (SSRL) for their help during the data collection. Moreover, we acknowledge two anonymous referees for useful suggestions. This research has been supported by the financial support of the Consiglio Nazionale delle Ricerche, Italy.

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Received 3 April 2002

Modified version received 15 July 2002

Accepted 18 October 2002