

First-principles study of sulfur isotope fractionation in pyrite-type disulfides

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ABSTRACT

The sulfides are an important group of minerals. As a geochemical tracer, the sulfur isotope fractionation in sulfides can be used to analyze the ore-forming process and the ore-forming material source. Fe, Co, Ni, and Mn are the first row transition metals, and pyrite (FeS₂), cattierite (CoS₂), vaesite (NiS₂), and hauerite (MnS₂) crystallize in the pyrite-type structure. However, there are few studies on the sulfur isotope fractionation in these disulfides. So studying the isotope fractionation between them provides the opportunity to examine the various members of a structural group in which only the metal atom is changed, thereby providing information that permits a systematic development of concepts regarding sulfur isotope fractionation in transition-metal disulfides. In the present paper, the sulfur isotope fractionation parameters for pyrite, cattierite, vaesite, and hauerite with the pyrite-type structure have been calculated using first-principles methods based on density functional theory in the temperature range of 0–1000 °C. The structure parameters of these four minerals and the vibration frequencies of pyrite are in good agreement with previous experimental values. The metal-sulfur distance increases in the order FeS₂, CoS₂, NiS₂, and MnS₂, the sulfur-sulfur distance decreases in the order FeS₂, CoS₂, MnS₂, and NiS₂, these two sequences agree with the experimental results. Our calculations show that the order of heavy isotope enrichment is pyrite > cattierite > vaesite > hauerite. It seems that the sulfur isotope fractionation in disulfides depends mainly on the metal-sulfur bonds.

Keywords: Sulfur isotope fractionations, disulfides, pyrite, first-principles, DFPT

INTRODUCTION

Sulfides have great economic importance as the major source of most of metals. Among them, pyrite is the most abundant metal sulfide mineral in nature and occurs in a wide range of geological environments (metallic mineral deposits, sedimentary rocks, metamorphic rocks, granite, basic-ultrabasic magmatic rocks, and pyrolite) (Craig et al. 1981; Wang 1989; Vaughan and Lennie 1991). The pyrite structure, based on NaCl structure, is common to a complete series of first row transition metal disulfides extending from Mn to Zn (Temmerman et al. 1993). This family of minerals exhibits a fascinating diversity in structural chemistry, electrical, magnetic, and other physical properties (Wuensch 1974; Vaughan and Craig 1978). So studying the sulfur isotope fractionation of pyrite (FeS₂), cattierite (CoS₂), vaesite (NiS₂), and hauerite (MnS₂), which crystallize in the pyrite-type structure, may provide the opportunity to examine the various members of a structural group in which only the metal atom is changed, thereby providing information that permits a systematic development of concepts regarding sulfur isotope fractionation in transition-metal sulfides.

Since the work of Urey and Greiff (1935) and Urey (1947) on isotopic exchange equilibria and the thermodynamic properties of substances, using stable isotope fractionations to estimate the temperature of minerals formation in geochemical systems has been well established by experiment and theoretical calculation.

And the rapid development of new analytical techniques provide an excellent opportunity to increase the scope of isotope geochemistry: the emergence of “nontraditional” stable isotopes of metals, the invention of clumped isotope geochemistry, new capabilities for measurements of position-specific isotope effects in organic compounds, and a great expansion of mass-independent isotope geochemistry (Eiler et al. 2014). For sulfur element, it has four stable isotopes, ³²S, ³³S, ³⁴S, and ³⁶S with an average abundance of 95.02, 0.75, 4.21, and 0.02%, respectively (Macnamara and Thode 1950), and in the last decade, multiple sulfur isotopes have become a hot topic of research (Farquhar and Wing 2003; Otake et al. 2008; Danielache et al. 2008; Balan et al. 2009; Guy et al. 2012; Halevy 2013). And the recent study in determining the $\delta^{33}\text{S}$ and $\delta^{36}\text{S}$ values of terrestrial samples has stemmed from the finding by Farquhar et al. (2000) that some sulfide and sulfate minerals in sedimentary rocks older than ~2.0 Ga do not fall on the mass-dependent fractionation lines; this abnormal fractionation is termed “mass independent sulfur isotope fractionations (S-MIF).” However, the isotopic effects of the various mechanisms suggested to generate S-MIF are unclear, major theoretical and experimental efforts will be required to understand them (Eiler et al. 2014). For these reasons, this study only deals with the sulfur mass dependent sulfur isotope fractionations.

As for sulfides, the complexities of the sulfide system and the difficulty in making experiments on sulfur isotopic fractionations between sulfides make the studies on sulfur isotope fractionation in sulfides relatively weak. So far, the experimental

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research, which aims at sulfur isotope fractionations in sulfides, has focused on a few minerals, such as ZnS, PbS, FeS₂, CuFeS₂, CuS, CuS₂, AgS, and Bi₂S₃ (Grootenboer and Schwarcz 1969; Kajiwarra et al. 1969; Rye and Czamanske 1969; Czamanske and Rye 1974; Kajiwarra and Krouse 1971; Salomons 1971; Kiyosu 1973; Smith et al. 1977; Hubberten 1980; Bente and Nielsen 1982). And the theoretical calculations of sulfur isotope fractionation are also few. Sakai (1968) used Debye-Einstein model calculating the isotopic properties of sulfur compounds in hydrothermal processes; Hulston (in Groves et al. 1970) also used Debye-Einstein model calculating the reduced partition function ratios (β -factors) of ZnS and PbS; Elcombe and Hulston (1975) obtained the sulfur isotope fractionation between ZnS and PbS by lattice dynamical model; Li and Liu (2006) calculated the sulfur isotope fractionation of ZnS, PbS, FeCuS₂, FeS, CdS, Cu₅FeS₄, Cu₃VS₄, CuFe₂S₃, and FeNi₂S₄ over a temperature range from 0 to 1000 °C using the modified increment method; Blanchard et al. (2009) computed the sulfur isotope fractionation of FeS₂, ZnS, and PbS using first-principles density functional method.

In this paper, we use first-principles calculations based on density functional theory to calculate the reduced partition function ratios of pyrite-type FeS₂, CoS₂, NiS₂, and MnS₂ as a function of temperature.

CALCULATION METHODS

In the present study, sulfur isotope fractionation is assumed to be mass dependent, driven by changes in vibrational energies in crystals (Urey 1947; Bigeleisen and Mayer 1947; Kieffer 1982). Other potentially isotope-dependent effects on lattice energy are ignored, since they are expected to be insignificant for moderate-mass elements (Schauble 2011). Fractionation can be considered in terms of isotopic exchange reactions, which are driven thermodynamically toward equilibrium. Thus, isotopic equilibrium of one exchangeable atom, between two substances, *AY* and *BY*, can be described by an isotopic exchange reaction such as



where, Y_l and Y_h refer to the light and heavy isotopes of an element, respectively. The isotope fractionation factor of the element *Y* between the substances *AY* and *BY*, α_{AY-BY} , is defined as the ratio of their isotope ratios. It can also be written as the ratio of the reduced partition functions (also called β -factors)

$$\alpha_{AY-BY} = \beta_{AY}/\beta_{BY} \quad (2)$$

where β_{AY} is the isotopic fractionation factor of *Y* between the substance *AY* and a perfect gas of *Y* atoms (Richet et al. 1977).

The β -factors of each substance can be calculated from their harmonic vibrational frequencies (Méheut et al. 2007, 2009; Blanchard et al. 2009) as following:

$$\beta_{AY} = \left[\prod_{i=1}^{3N_A} \prod_{\{q\}} \frac{\nu_{hq,i}}{\nu_{lq,i}} \frac{e^{-h\nu_{hq,i}/(2kT)}}{1 - e^{-h\nu_{hq,i}/(2kT)}} \frac{1 - e^{-h\nu_{lq,i}/(kT)}}{e^{-h\nu_{lq,i}/(2kT)}} \right]^{1/(N_q N)} \quad (3)$$

where, N_A is the number of atoms in the unit cell; N_q is the number of *q*-vectors in the Brillouin zone; N is the number of sites for the *Y* atom in the unit-cell; $\nu_{lq,i}$ and $\nu_{hq,i}$ are the frequencies of the phonon with wavevector *q* and branch index *i* = 1, 3 N_A , and the italic subscripts *l* and *h* mean the vibrational frequencies in *AY* with the light and heavy isotopes, respectively, *T* is the temperature, *h* is the Planck constant, and *k* is the Boltzmann constant. In Equation 3, the three translational modes at the center of the Brillouin zone, where $\nu_{lq,i}^0 = 0$ and $\nu_{hq,i}^0 = 0$, are not considered.

The β -factors were obtained from Equation 3 using the phonon frequencies, $\nu_{lq,i}$ and $\nu_{hq,i}$, computed based on the density-functional perturbation theory (DFPT) (Baroni et al. 2001) and the linear response method. They were derived from the second-order derivative of the total energy with respect to atomic displacements. Pseudopotentials were generated using Vanderbilt's method (Vanderbilt 1990). The generalized gradient approximation (GGA) proposed by Perdew et al. (1996) have

been used for the exchange-correlation functional. Local density approximation (LDA) (Perdew and Zunger 1981) was also used for the exchange correlation functional to calculate the crystal structures of the four minerals. Dynamical matrices were computed on regular *q* mesh and then interpolated in a dense *q* mesh to obtain the vibrational density of state of minerals. For all of the four minerals, the plane wave cutoff is set to be 50Ry and the Brillouin zones are sampled on 4×4×4 meshes (Monkhorst and Pack 1976). On the other hand, dynamical matrices are computed at 4×4×4 *q*-vectors in the Brillouin zone. The effects of using the larger cutoff, *K* points and *q* points on the calculated properties are found insignificant.

Atomic relaxations were performed with the PWSCF code (Baroni et al. 2001) until the residual forces on atoms became less than 10⁻⁴ Ry/a.u. The cell parameters were also optimized.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Crystalline structure

The pyrite-type structure has cubic structures and belongs to the space group *Pa*3, and there are four formula units per unit cell. The primitive cell in our calculations includes 12 atoms. Its crystal structure is based on that of NaCl, where the Na and Cl sites are occupied by metals atom and S₂ dimers, respectively. In the pyrite-type structure, the metal atoms occupy the face-centered cubic lattice positions, and the sulfur atoms lie in pairs along the trigonal axes of the lattice, with each S located about three-eighths of the length of the diagonal from a metal atom (Berry et al. 1983). Each Fe atom is coordinated by six S atoms in a slightly distorted octahedron, and each S atom is tetrahedrally coordinated to three Fe atoms and one S atom.

The four minerals exhibit a rich diversity of magnetic properties: MnS₂ is an antiferromagnetic semiconductor (Hastings et al. 1959), FeS₂ is a nonmagnetic semiconductor (Antonov et al. 2008), CoS₂ is a ferromagnetic metal (Miyahara and Teranishi 1968; Antonov et al. 2008), NiS₂ is an antiferromagnetic insulator (Antonov et al. 2008). So for MnS₂, CoS₂, and NiS₂, calculations were spin-polarized. In addition, for MnS₂ and NiS₂, calculations were set up to the antiferromagnetic, and for CoS₂ calculations were set up to the ferromagnetic structure. Magnetic moments were free to relax.

Our calculated structures of pyrite, cattierite, vaesite, and hauerite are given in Table 1 together with experimental results. It is found that the calculated lattice constants from GGA are closer to the experimental results. For pyrite, cattierite, vaesite, and hauerite, our calculations by GGA underestimate the experimental lattice parameters by 0.2, 0.4, 1.1, and 0.7%; but the LDA underestimates the experimental lattice parameters by 2.4, 3.4, 3.7, and 2.5%. This indicates that our results based on GGA are in good agreement with experimental values (Brostigen and Kjekshus 1969; Andresen et al. 1967; Nowack et al. 1991; Hastings et al. 1959). It is also found that the calculated interatomic distances by GGA are consistent with the available experiments much better. Therefore, GGA is a good exchange correlation for the structures and β -factors of the minerals.

Vibrational properties of pyrite

The number and symmetries of the Raman and infrared-active modes of pyrite have been determined using group theoretical methods (Lutz and Willich 1974). The irreducible representations of the vibrations of pyrite are

$$\Gamma = A_g + E_g + 3T_g + 2A_u + 2E_u + 6T_u \quad (4)$$

TABLE 1. Comparison of the calculated and experimental structure of pyrite, cattierite, vaesite, and hauerite

	This study-GGA	This study-LDA	Experimental
Pyrite^a			
<i>a</i> (Å)	5.405	5.287	5.418
<i>V</i> (Å ³)	157.902	147.784	159.044
Fe-S (Å)	2.255	2.204	2.262
S-S (Å)	2.189	2.165	2.177
Cattierite^b			
<i>a</i> (Å)	5.506	5.341	5.528
<i>V</i> (Å ³)	166.920	152.359	168.929
Co-S (Å)	2.307	2.224	2.319
S-S (Å)	2.138	2.208	2.126
Vaesite^c			
<i>a</i> (Å)	5.613	5.469	5.6765
<i>V</i> (Å ³)	176.842	163.578	182.912
Ni-S (Å)	2.365	2.297	2.394
S-S (Å)	2.073	2.081	2.074
Hauerite^d			
<i>a</i> (Å)	6.054	5.946	6.097
<i>V</i> (Å ³)	221.885	210.220	226.646
Mn-S (Å)	2.568	2.525	2.590
S-S (Å)	2.097	2.044	2.087

^a Brostigen and Kjekshus (1969); ^b Andresen et al. (1967); ^c Nowack et al. (1991); ^d Hastings et al. (1959).

TABLE 2. Calculated and experimental frequencies of the transverse optical modes of pyrite (cm⁻¹)

Mode	Active mode	Symmetry	Calculated ^a	Calculated ^b	This study	Experimental ^c
4		<i>A_u</i>	217	203	214	199
5-7	IR	<i>T_u</i>	220	215	215	215
8-9		<i>E_u</i>	244	236	240	225
10-12	IR	<i>T_u</i>	289	283	287	289
13		<i>A_u</i>	334	323	327	310
14-15	Raman	<i>E_g</i>	346	328	332	344
16-18	IR	<i>T_u</i>	348	331	339	343
19-21	Raman	<i>T_g</i>	351	341	343	344
22-23		<i>E_u</i>	371	355	361	396
24	Raman	<i>A_g</i>	372	359	363	382
25-27	IR	<i>T_u</i>	374	368	368	402
28-30	Raman	<i>T_g</i>	390	378	379	387
31-33	IR	<i>T_u</i>	395	387	390	407
34-36	Raman	<i>T_g</i>	430	427	421	433

^a Blanchard et al. (2009); ^b Spagnoli et al. (2010); ^c Bührer et al. (1993)

The gerade vibrations ($A_g + E_g + 3T_g$) are all active in the Raman spectrum and the ungerade vibrations are divided into the IR-active ($5T_u$) and optically inactive ($2A_u + 2E_u$) modes, plus the three acoustic modes. The harmonic phonon frequencies of pyrite, computed at the center of the Brillouin zone (Γ -point) using GGA, are shown in Table 2. There is good agreement between our calculated frequencies with the experimental data and previous DFT studies of the pyrite phase (Bührer et al. 1993; Blanchard et al. 2009; Spagnoli et al. 2010). The majority of the phonon frequencies are lower than the corresponding experimental values. In general, theoretical frequencies underestimate by a few percents the measured infrared and Raman frequencies. This systematic error is typical of the GGA approximation.

Uncertainty in theoretical β -factors

Figure 1 shows the comparison of the three sets of computed phonon frequencies at the center of the Brillouin zone (Γ -point) of pyrite with experimental data. In the three sets of calculations, a good agreement with measurements can be obtained by a uniform scaling of the GGA frequencies. To quantify the scaling factor, we consider the slope of the best linear fit of our calculated points

in Figure 1. The scaling factor is 1.028.

It found that a systematic correction of $n\%$ on the phonon frequencies induces a relative systematic correction on the logarithmic β -factors ($\ln\beta$) varying between $n\%$ (at low temperatures) and $2n\%$ (at high temperature) (Méheut et al. 2009). Therefore, a uniform scaling of +2.8% to the phonon frequencies of pyrite, is expected to induce a similar relative correction on $\ln\beta$ at maximum +5.6%. Since the fractionation ($\ln\alpha$) results from the difference of two logarithmic β -factors, a systematic error of 2.8% on all the phonon frequencies will lead to a relative error of at most 5.6% on the total fractionation. However, in the present study, we do not choose to apply any frequency correction, because there is an important uncertainty in the value of the applied scaling factors and we are not able to estimate analogous scaling factors for other minerals.

Concluding, errors arising from the computational approach (density functional theory within the GGA approximation) are expected to the results in an underestimation of the fractionation factors between 5 and 10% (Méheut et al. 2009).

β -factors

For sulfide minerals, the principal ratio of concern is $^{34}\text{S}/^{32}\text{S}$ (Seal 2006). In the present study, we only calculated the reduced partition function ratios of $^{34}\text{S}/^{32}\text{S}$ ($10^3\ln\beta_{34-32}$) in the range of 0–1000 °C. We fit the calculated data to least-squares polynomial; a second power polynomial is sufficient to accurately fit the data over the temperature range. Because mass-dependent isotopic fractionations vanish at infinite temperature, the origin has been included as one of the points in the least-squares analysis. The slope of the straight lines is listed in Table 3 and $10^3\ln\beta_{34-32}$ as a function of temperature is shown in Figure 2. We also show our calculated $10^3\ln\beta$ data for pyrite, together with the previous theoretical calculations by Polyakov et al. (2007) and Blanchard et al. (2009) in Figure 2. As shown in Figure 2, disparity exists between the previous calculation, and our calculations are in between the previous results. The apparent discrepancy for $10^3\ln\beta_{34-32}$ between our results and the data of Blanchard et al.

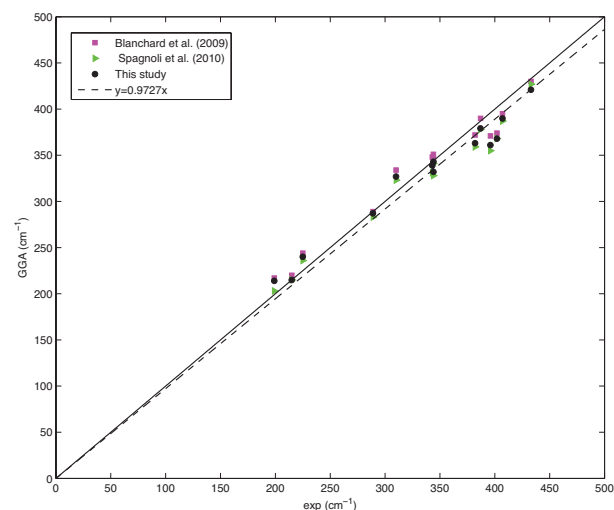
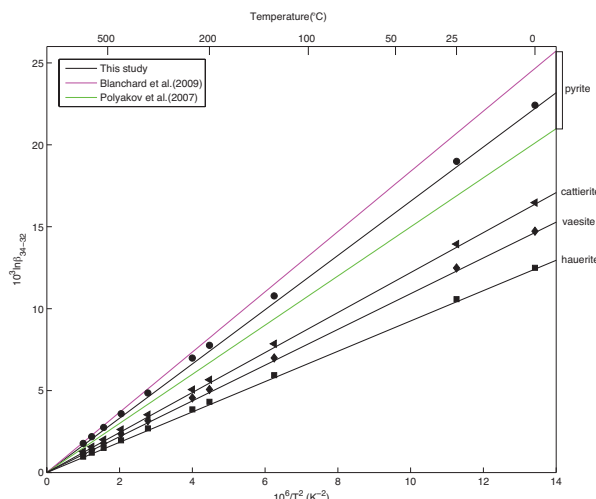
**FIGURE 1.** Comparison of experimental and theoretical vibrational frequencies. The dashed line is a linear fit to this study. (Color online.)

TABLE 3. Fits of $10^3 \ln \beta$ based on the function $ax + bx^2$, with $x = 10^6/T^2$ (T in K) for $^{34}\text{S}/^{32}\text{S}$ isotope fractionation

Mineral	Chemical formula	a	b
Pyrite	FeS_2	1.7702	-0.0075
Cattierite	CoS_2	1.2833	-0.0041
Vaesite	NiS_2	1.1458	-0.0036
Hauerite	MnS_2	0.9755	-0.0033

**FIGURE 2.** Comparison of reduced partition function ratios ($10^3 \ln \beta_{34-32}$) values for pyrite, cattierite, vaesite and hauerite. (Color online.)

(2009), comes from the fact that in Blanchard et al. (2009) the theoretical frequencies were multiplied by a scaling factor for determining the β -factors but not in the present study. Otherwise, these two sulfur β -factors would be in good agreement. As for Polyakov et al. (2007), the data must be revised (Blanchard et al. 2012). The sulfur β -factor of Polyakov et al. (2007) is an indirect estimation from the experimental heat capacity of pyrite and the iron β -factor that they derived using Mössbauer measurements. The Mössbauer-derived iron β -factor of pyrite has recently been revised leading to a good agreement with the DFT iron β -factor (Blanchard et al. 2012; Polyakov et al. 2013). Therefore the sulfur β -factor proposed by Polyakov et al. (2007) must also be revised. The revised β -factor would be in better agreement with DFT results. $10^3 \ln \beta_{34-32}$ of all minerals decrease dramatically with increasing temperature. The DFPT calculations by us show that the order of heavy isotope enrichment is pyrite > cattierite > vaesite > hauerite.

The factors that influence the magnitude of equilibrium stable isotope fractionations are temperature, chemical composition, crystal structure and pressure (O'Neil 1986). For the present discussion, pressure will not be discussed. The effect of chemical composition on stable isotope fractionations depend most upon the nature of the chemical bonds within the mineral (O'Neil 1977). And heavy stable isotope fractionations in minerals depend principally on the nature of the bonds between the atoms of an element and the nearest atoms in the crystal. So bonds with small interatomic distances and thus large bond strengths, tend preferentially to incorporate heavy isotopes (Zheng 1995). In general, shorter bond lengths correlate with higher reduced

partition function ratios (Hill and Schauble 2008). Also variations in $^{34}\text{S}/^{32}\text{S}$ distributions among coexisting sulfides are systematic and consistent with the relative strengths of metal-sulfur bonds (Bachinski 1969). As shown in Table 1, the metal-sulfur distance increases in the order FeS_2 , CoS_2 , NiS_2 , and MnS_2 ; but the sulfur-sulfur distance decreases in the order FeS_2 , CoS_2 , MnS_2 , and NiS_2 . The two sequences agree with the experimental results (Elliott 1960) very well. Sulfur-sulfur and metal-sulfur distances can give some indication of bond strengths, shorter distances indicating larger bond strengths, the metal-sulfur bond strength decrease in the sequence $\text{FeS}_2 > \text{CoS}_2 > \text{NiS}_2$, and sulfur-sulfur bond strength increase in the sequence $\text{FeS}_2 < \text{CoS}_2 < \text{NiS}_2$ (Nickel et al. 1971). So according to our results of the sulfur-metal bond length, the fractionation order would be pyrite > cattierite > vaesite > hauerite. But according to our results of the sulfur-sulfur bond length, the fractionation order would be pyrite < cattierite < vaesite < hauerite, and this sequence is not consistent with the fractionation sequence of these four sulfides, so the sulfur fractionation mechanism in disulfides is much complex and the effects of sulfur-sulfur bond seems to be unclear. Nevertheless, there may be some errors for Bachinski (1969) to estimate the sulfur-metal bond strength of NiS_2 , CoS_2 , and FeS_2 , and according to his estimates of the metal-sulfur bond strength sequence, the sulfur isotope fractionation order would be $\text{NiS}_2 > \text{CoS}_2 > \text{FeS}_2$, which is opposite to the results by us and Nickel.

The crystal structures can influence isotope fractionations to an extent depending on how different the interatomic interactions are between the various structural forms, and the heavy isotope apparently concentrates in the more closely packed or well-ordered structures (O'Neil 1977). Pyrite, cattierite, vaesite, and hauerite have the same structure (pyrite-type structure), and the unit-cell volume increases through the series $\text{FeS}_2 < \text{CoS}_2 < \text{NiS}_2 < \text{MnS}_2$. According to O'Neil, the heavy isotope apparently concentrates in the more closely packed structures, the fractionation order would be pyrite > cattierite > vaesite > hauerite.

In conclusion, our calculated reduced partition function ratios of pyrite, cattierite, vaesite, and hauerite are reasonable. It seems that the sulfur isotope fractionations mainly depend on metal-sulfur bond strength, and the effect that sulfur-sulfur bond strength on the sulfur isotope fractionations is unclear.

IMPLICATIONS

Our study shows that in pyrite-type disulfides, the variations of the metal-sulfur bond length are roughly out of accord with those of the sulfur-sulfur bond length. So the influence on sulfur isotope fractionation from sulfur-sulfur bond and metal-sulfur bond seems to be different according to the relationship of bond length, bond strength and the enrichment of heavy isotopes. And intuitively, the variation of metal atoms in disulfides makes the metal-sulfur bond length and sulfur-sulfur bond length different, and then results in the sulfur isotope fractionation among disulfides. In mineralogy, the pyrite group AX_2 is very complex, in which X may be S, Se, Te, As, or Sb, and X_2 can be different atoms, such as FeS_2 , CoS_2 , and CoAsS . CoS_2 and CoAsS have different crystal structure; however, CoS_2 and FeS_2 have the same crystal structure. So the impact on sulfur isotope fractionation caused by the substitution of metalloid element for sulfur seems to be much more complicated.

Disulfides can exist in most of metal sulfide deposit, e.g., pyrite and arsenopyrite coexist in some gold deposits. Therefore, it seems to be useful for study of the ore deposits dealt with different disulfides to figure out the influence of the substitution of S by other metalloid element on the sulfur isotope fractionation, which is of particular interest in low-temperature hydrothermal sulfide deposits.

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