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1 **Swelling capacity of mixed talc-like/stevensite layers in white/green clay**
2 **infillings ('deweylite'/'garnierite') found in serpentine veins of faulted**
3 **peridotites (New Caledonia)**

4 **REVISION 2**

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17
18 **Abstract:** White (Mg-rich) and green (Ni-rich) clay infillings ('deweylite'/'garnierite') found
19 in serpentine veins of faulted peridotite formations from New Caledonia consist of an intimate
20 mixture of fine-grained and poorly ordered 1:1 and 2:1 layer silicates, commonly referred to
21 as non-expandable serpentine-like (SL) and talc-like (TL) minerals. New data on the swelling
22 and shrinking capacity of these layer silicates were gathered from X-ray diffraction (XRD)
23 after saturation of the clay fractions with different cations (Ca²⁺, Li⁺, K⁺), ethylene glycol
24 (EG) solvation, and heating treatments. Simultaneously, layer charge distribution and vacancy
25 density respectively were investigated by FTIR spectroscopy on NH₄-saturated clay fractions

26 and by XRD on Li-saturated clay fractions before and after heating (Hofmann Klemen
27 treatment). Five clay infillings, with dominant 2:1 layer silicates and variable Ni contents,
28 were selected for this study, from a large set of veinlets, according to their swelling capacity.
29 The crystal chemistry of these samples was established from FTIR spectroscopy and bulk
30 chemical analyses.

31 The swelling ability of the clay infillings is attributed to the 2:1 layer silicates. It does not
32 seem to be affected by the relative fraction of Mg and Ni in their octahedral sheets. On XRD
33 patterns, the swelling ability is linked to a slight shift of the basal reflection of the 2:1 layer
34 silicates towards low angles for bulk samples and to a split of that reflection in two
35 contributions for clay fractions saturated with Ca (or Li) and solvated with EG. The amplitude
36 of the split increases with the swelling capacity of the sample. It originates mainly from
37 octahedral-layer charge generated by vacant sites. Such results lead us to consider the 2:1
38 layer silicates of the infillings as an intimate mixture of non-expandable (TL) and expandable
39 (stevensite) phases. In agreement with previous studies which suggested a contribution of
40 hydrothermal processes in the alteration of serpentine species into 2:1 layer silicates, we
41 propose that the proportion of expandable phases in the clay infillings (or vacant sites in the
42 octahedral sheets of the 2:1 layer silicates) could be used as an efficient probe for assessing
43 their temperature of formation. Clay infillings mostly made of stevensite would have formed
44 at ambient temperatures, whereas those consisting mainly of non-expandable TL would have
45 formed at higher temperatures.

46

47

Introduction

48 Nickeliferous laterites developed on ultramafic rocks (e.g. dunite, harzburgite) in tropical
49 regions are of particular interest as they commonly contain two kinds of Ni-silicate ores: (1)
50 'clay silicate' ores, and (2) 'hydrous Mg/Ni silicate' ores (Brand et al., 1998; Gleeson et al.,

51 2004; Freyssinet et al., 2005; Wells et al., 2009, Fritsch et al. 2016). Layer silicates of the
52 ‘clay silicate’ ores are mostly composed of swelling dioctahedral 2:1 layer silicates (smectite)
53 such as Fe-nontronite, Fe-montmorillonite, and Al-beidellite (e.g. Gaudin et al., 2004). They
54 usually occur in saprolite, at the bottom of thick and poorly drained lateritic profiles
55 developed on ultramafic rocks and correspond to low-grade Ni-deposits (less than 4 wt % Ni).
56 By contrast, layer silicates of the ‘hydrous Mg/Ni silicate’ ores mostly consist of weakly
57 expandable trioctahedral 1:1 and 2:1 layer silicates of the serpentine (unit cell formula:
58 $\text{Si}_2[\text{Mg,Ni}]_3\text{O}_5(\text{OH})_4$) and talc (unit cell formula: $\text{Si}_4[\text{Mg,Ni}]_3\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2$) mineral groups (e.g.
59 Brindley and Hang, 1973; Brindley and Wan, 1979, Brindley, 1980; Manceau and Calas,
60 1985; Tauler et al., 2009; Wells et al., 2009). Because of their small size and low crystal order
61 (stacking defects and vacancies), these layer silicates are commonly referred to as serpentine-
62 like (SL) and talc-like (TL) minerals (Villanova-de-Benavent et al., 2014; 2019; Fritsch et al.,
63 2016). Because of similar ionic charge and ionic radius, Ni (0.69 Å) can replace Mg (0.72 Å)
64 in the octahedral sites of trioctahedral clay minerals leading to various mineral series with
65 large ranges in chemical composition (Faust, 1966, Faust and Murata, 1953, Brindley et al.,
66 1977). Mineral associations of trioctahedral 1:1 and 2:1 clay minerals in veinlets are termed
67 deweylite for the white Mg-rich phases (Bish and Brindley, 1978) and garnierite for the bluish
68 green Ni-rich phases (Pecora et al., 1949). Kerolite is the magnesium-rich end-member, while
69 pimelite is the nickeliferous end-member for the TL mineral series. Such layer silicates are
70 present at depth in white (deweylite) to green (garnierite) clay infillings of faulted saprock
71 and observed in both freely and poorly drained lateritic profiles (Cluzel, 2006; Cluzel and
72 Vigier 2008; Fritsch et al., 2016; 2019; Villanova-de-Benavent et al., 2014). They are widely
73 observed in peridotite massifs of New Caledonia and are related to high-grade Ni-deposits (up
74 to 32 wt % Ni).

75 The two kinds of silicate ores are therefore associated with contrasting geochemical and
76 structural environments, which suggest that they might have formed under distinct weathering
77 (or alteration) conditions. Whereas the ‘clay silicate’ ores are commonly associated with the
78 vertical development of thick lateritic profiles under poorly drained conditions (e.g. Gaudin et
79 al., 2004), recent studies in New Caledonia suggest that the ‘hydrous Mg/Ni layer silicate’
80 ores might have formed in reactivated faults from the hydrothermal alteration of serpentine
81 species into TL minerals during the dismantling and cooling of the ophiolite nappe (Fritsch et
82 al., 2016; 2019; Cathelineau et al., 2017). Hydrous Mg/Ni layer silicates were described
83 elsewhere in different climatic environments but in similar geological settings, for example in
84 serpentinite at structural contacts in Greece (Christidis and Mitsis, 2006) and in Italy
85 (Capitani and Ventruti, 2018).

86 Detailed textural and mineralogical investigations on the serpentinitised and mineralised faults
87 show that minerals of the serpentine group are predominant at the margin of the veins,
88 whereas those of the talc group prevail in association with quartz in their central part
89 (Christidis and Mitsis, 2006; Fritsch et al., 2016, 2019). In addition, TL minerals have locally
90 been described in association with stevensite (Brindley and Hang, 1973, Wiéwióra et al.,
91 1982) or as mixed layers stevensite-talc (Eberl et al., 1982; Christidis and Mitsis, 2006).
92 Stevensite is considered a swelling trioctahedral (Mg, Ni) 2:1 layer silicate (smectite) with a
93 chemical composition similar to that reported for TL minerals but with vacant sites in its
94 octahedral sheets (Christidis and Mitsis, 2006). Scarcely reported worldwide, this swelling
95 phase has most likely been overlooked in recent mineralogical studies on Ni-laterite deposits
96 (Villanova-de-Benavent et al., 2014; 2016; 2019; Fritsch et al., 2016; 2019; Cathelineau et al.,
97 2016; Capitani and Ventruti, 2017; Tauler et al., 2017; Munoz et al., 2019).

98 This paper describes, for the first time, the occurrence of stevensite in vein-infillings of
99 reactivated faults from peridotitic formations of New Caledonia. Five samples of white

100 (deweylite) and bluish green (garnierite) clay infillings, with distinct swelling abilities, were
101 selected from a large set of vein infillings to investigate the relationship between swelling
102 capacity, crystal-chemistry, charge deficiency, and structural disorder (stacking defects and
103 vacancies). Our results aim at deciphering the mechanisms involved in these changes of
104 swelling and crystallographic properties in order to better understand the conditions of
105 formation of the hydrous Mg/Ni layer silicates.

106

107

Materials and Methods

108

109 The five samples investigated in this study (Figures 1 and 2) belong to a large set of clay
110 infillings, whose texture, mineralogy and chemistry were established in previous works
111 (Fritsch et al. 2016, 2019). They were collected at depth in the saprock, more specifically, in
112 fractures of highly serpentinised zones of two peridotite formations (mainly harzburgite) of
113 the New Caledonian mainland (Figure 1): (i) the Koniambo klippe (mining site “Manguen”) on the
114 Western coast (MG1aWill, MG3aWill) and (ii) the Poro klippe (mining site “La
115 Française” of the CFTMC) on the Eastern coast (BONBR2a, BONBR2c, LFSTA5a2). Both
116 klippe are known for an abundance of fractures and associated crosscutting mineralised veins
117 (also named box-works or “Minerai quadrillé” in the French literature), which grade from
118 white (deweylite) to bluish green (garnierite) according to the relative proportion of Mg and
119 Ni. The five samples selected for this study belong to an ultimate episode of clay infillings
120 predominantly made of 2:1 layer silicates (see Fritsch et al. 2016 for a more detailed
121 description of the vein-infillings). They were selected according to their ability to swell and
122 shrink. Shrinking in the field leads to the development of cracks along the clay infillings after
123 exposure of the mining cuts to air (Figure 2b). On thin sections it is also related to the

124 occurrence of a dense network of cracks, more specifically in Ni-rich bands of the infillings
125 (Figure 2d).

126 Samples were air-dried and crushed with a pestle and mortar before chemical and
127 mineralogical investigations. Chemical analyses of the samples were carried out by digestion
128 of 1000 mg of the finely powdered sample in a high-pressure TFM Teflon vessel using an
129 ETHOS 1600 MILESTONE microwave system, with samples digested using a mixture of
130 3mL of HCl (37%), 2mL of HNO₃ (65%), 1.5mL of HF (40%) and 5mL of H₃BO₃ (5%).
131 After digestion the solution was diluted with osmosed water. Si, Mg, Ni, Co, Al, Fe, Ca, Cr
132 and Cu concentrations were determined using a Perkin Elmer 1100b atomic absorption
133 spectrophotometer. Loss on ignition (LOI) was determined after heating at 1000°C without
134 pre-drying at 105°C.

135 To determine the clay (<2 µm fraction) mineralogy, bulk samples were gently ground in agate
136 mortar and sieved at 50 µm. The < 50µm fractions were dispersed into 1 mol L⁻¹ NaCl and by
137 ultrasonication. This procedure was reproduced five times to ensure complete Na saturation
138 and dispersion of the samples. The clay fractions were then obtained by centrifugation
139 according to the Stokes' law. The suspended clay fractions were flocculated with 0.5 mol. L⁻¹
140 CaCl₂ and divided into aliquots for saturation with different cations (Ca²⁺, K⁺, Li⁺ and NH₄⁺).
141 The aliquots were treated five times with 0.5 mol. L⁻¹ CaCl₂, and 1 mol. L⁻¹ KCl, LiCl, and
142 NH₄Cl, and washed with osmosed water to remove excess salts until a negative test with 1 M
143 AgNO₃ was obtained. As Li⁺ and NH₄⁺ may enhance dispersion and formation of gels, the Li-
144 and NH₄-saturated samples were washed in ethanol instead of osmosed water and ultra-
145 centrifuged (30000 g). K-saturated samples were heated at 20, 150, 350 and 550°C and
146 examined by XRD. Ca-saturated and Li-saturated samples were analysed by XRD both in an
147 air-dried (AD) state and after ethylene glycol solvation (EG, vapour at 50°C overnight) to
148 assess the swelling capacity of the layer silicates. The Hofmann-Klemen (HK) treatment

149 (Hofmann and Klemen, 1950; Greene Kelly, 1953, 1955) was also applied to the five clay
150 samples to reveal the possible occurrence of octahedral vacancies in clay minerals. The Li-
151 saturated samples were heated overnight at 300°C to induce migration of Li⁺ into octahedral
152 vacancies of the phyllosilicates. For trioctahedral smectites the swelling behaviour of the
153 layers after HK treatment depends on the location of the charge. When the charge originates
154 from the octahedral sheet, the Li saturation and heating implies only partial neutralisation of
155 the charge by migration of a monovalent cation (Li⁺) in the octahedral vacancy, and the layers
156 may remain expandable in EG (Petit et al., 2008, Gaudin et al., 2004) or glycerol (Brindley
157 and Brown, 1980). Oriented clay mounts were obtained by dropping a small amount of clay
158 suspensions onto glass slides (or zero background Si wafers) and drying them at room
159 temperature. For some preparations the suspensions were made in ethanol to avoid the
160 formation of gels.

161 Bulk mineralogy of samples was determined by XRD on randomly oriented powders in the
162 step scan mode in the range 2–65° 2θ with steps of 0.025° 2θ and a counting time of 229s per
163 step using a Bruker D8 Advance diffractometer (Cu Kα radiation, 40kV and 40mA) equipped
164 with a Lynx eye detector. XRD patterns of oriented preparations were recorded in both AD
165 and EG solvated states in the step scan mode in the range 2–35° 2θ with steps of 0.016° 2θ
166 and a counting time of 229s. Background stripping was carried out on XRD patterns of
167 oriented preparations and the *00l* diffraction peaks of the layer silicates were decomposed into
168 Gaussian curves with Fityk® (Wojdyr, 2010) to determine peak positions, peak areas, and full
169 width at half maximum (FWHM), the latter being converted into coherent scattering domain
170 sizes (CSDS) in the *c* direction (defined by the statistical range of number of layers: *N*).

171 Fourier transform infrared (FTIR) spectra of bulk and <2μm samples were recorded in the
172 middle IR 400–4000 cm⁻¹ range (MIR) using a Nicolet 760 FTIR spectrometer in transmission
173 mode with a 4 cm⁻¹ resolution. The spectrometer was continuously purged with dry, CO₂-

174 depleted air. MIR spectra were recorded from disks prepared by mixing 1 mg of the sample
175 with 150 mg of KBr and pressing them at 10 tons.cm⁻². Pellets were heated overnight at
176 110°C to remove absorbed water before the FTIR spectra were recorded. Layer charge
177 distribution, (i.e. tetrahedral (Te), octahedral (Oc) and variable charges), was estimated by
178 quantifying the amount of NH₄⁺ fixed by the samples, before and after Li-saturation and
179 heating at 300°C, using the integrated intensity of the ν₄NH₄ band at 1400 cm⁻¹ of normalised
180 FTIR spectra (Petit et al., 1998, 2002, 2008; Gaudin et al., 2004, Mano et al., 2014). The
181 NH₄⁺ fixed by the swelling layers of the raw samples corresponds to the total charge of the
182 layers (permanent [Te + Oc] + variable edge charges). It is considered as the CEC at the pH
183 of the NH₄Cl solution. After Li saturation and heating at 300°C (HK test), the amount of
184 NH₄⁺ fixed by the layer silicates corresponded to the remaining charge, not neutralised by
185 migration of Li⁺ in the octahedral sites (Petit et al., 1998, 2006). FTIR spectra of the NH₄⁺-
186 saturated samples (NH₄⁺ and Li₃₀₀NH₄⁺) were recorded using the same amount of clay and
187 normalised to the OH vibration bands of the main SiO band around 1020 cm⁻¹.
188 Near infrared (NIR) spectra were recorded at a resolution of 4 cm⁻¹ from 4000 to 10,000 cm⁻¹
189 in a glass vial, with a Thermo Scientific Integrating Sphere (diffuse reflectance) with an
190 internal InGaAs detector coupled to a Thermo Scientific Nicolet 6700 FT-IR spectrometer.

191

192

RESULTS

193

194 **Mineralogy and crystal-chemistry**

195

196 Mineralogy and crystal-chemistry of hydrous Mg/Ni layer silicates from the five samples
197 selected for this study were established from XRD (Figures 3, 6 and 9), FTIR spectroscopy
198 (Figure 4, Table 2), and bulk chemical analyses (Table 1, Figure 5). XRD patterns and FTIR

199 spectra are stacked in the figures according to the ability of the samples to swell (the less
200 expandable at the bottom and the more expandable at the top).

201

202 *Bulk mineralogy*

203 In agreement with previous studies carried out on a larger set of mineralised veins (Fritsch et
204 al. 2016), powder XRD patterns of bulk samples (Figure 3) show that the clay infillings of the
205 samples consist of a mixture of 7 Å-type (1:1) layer silicates of the serpentine mineral group
206 (peaks at 7.32 to 7.38 Å and 3.64 to 3.66 Å) and 10 Å-type (2:1) layer silicates of the talc
207 mineral group (peaks at 10.01 to 11.12 Å and at 3.20 to 3.22 Å). The powder XRD pattern of
208 the less expandable sample (MG1aWill) also displays quartz (Qz). According to XRD results,
209 sample BONBR2c, which is free of Ni (white color), is the richest in SL components and
210 contains TL minerals with poorly resolved *001* reflection. Conversely, powder XRD patterns
211 of samples with greater Ni contents (bluish green colours) present better resolved *001*
212 reflection for TL minerals and smaller proportions of serpentine. The position at ~ 1.525 Å
213 for the shared 06-33 reflection of 1:1 and 2:1 layer silicates indicates that all samples consist
214 of pure tri-octahedral clay minerals with a dominance of bivalent cations (Mg^{2+} and Ni^{2+}) in
215 the octahedral sheets (Table 1, Figure 3).

216 The broad basal *001* reflections and the presence of two-dimensional hk bands (20-13) attest
217 to small coherent scattering domain sizes (CSDS), and structural disorder (stacking defects
218 and vacancies) that enable to refer the layer silicates to serpentine-like (SL) and talc-like (TL)
219 minerals (Brindley and Hang, 1973; Brindley et al., 1977; Bish and Brindley, 1978; Brindley
220 and Brown, 1980; Decarreau et al., 1987; Proenza et al. 2008; Tauler et al., 2009; Villanova-
221 de-Benavent et al., 2014; Fritsch et al. 2016). On the powder XRD patterns of the less
222 expandable (MG1aWill) and the most expandable (BONBR2c) samples, the sharp reflection
223 at ~ 2.51 Å (and to a lesser extent that at ~ 2.45 Å) is superimposed to the broad 20-13 band

224 (Figure 3). These sharp reflections, on broader reflections of cryptocrystalline SL and TL,
225 suggest additional occurrence of crystalline serpentine (Srp) as reported by Fritsch et al.
226 (2016) on XRD patterns (reflection at 2.51 Å for lizardite 1T and 2.45 Å for chrysotile 2M)
227 and on HR-TEM images (large platelets of lizardite and tubular shaped chrysotile). These
228 variations are also consistent with the presence of a peak asymmetry on the low-angle side of
229 the basal reflections. For the most expandable sample (BONBR2c), the first basal reflection
230 of the 7 Å layer silicates was fitted with two Gaussians (not shown): (i) a first one with a
231 narrow reflection at 7.32 Å (CSDS: 60-75 N) which is attributed to well-crystallised
232 serpentine residues (Srp) and (ii) a second wide one at 7.38 Å with smaller CSDS (15 N)
233 corresponding to poorly ordered SL species (Fritsch et al., 2016). The statistical range of the
234 number of layers (N) can vary widely for the 1:1 layer silicates (from 75 to 15), according to
235 the amount of serpentine residues (Srp) in the samples. By contrast, the CSDS value is
236 systematically smaller for the 10 Å-type layer silicates ($8 < N < 18$), thereby underlining the
237 small size of the poorly crystallized TL minerals.

238

239 *Mg and Ni speciation in the layer silicates*

240 FTIR spectra (Figure 4) confirm the mineral composition of the samples (mostly made of TL
241 and SL minerals) and reveal the distribution of divalent cations (Mg and Ni) in the octahedral
242 sites of the layer silicates (Farmer, 1974; Gerard and Herbillon, 1983; Balan et al., 2002;
243 Petit, 2005; Christidis and Mitsis, 2006; Jagannadha Reddy et al., 2009; Mano et al., 2014;
244 Baron and Petit, 2016; Baron et al., 2016). In the white and Ni-free clay sample (BONBR2c),
245 the 3697 cm^{-1} and 3650 cm^{-1} bands of the MIR spectrum belong to serpentine species (Figure
246 4a). They were assigned respectively to the inner OH stretching and the out-of-phase
247 vibrations of the inner-surface OH of lizardite (Balan et al. 2002). On the same spectrum, the
248 band at 3677 cm^{-1} can be assigned to OH stretching vibrations in $\nu\text{Mg}_3\text{OH}$ configuration of

249 TL (e.g. Baron et al. 2016). These assignments imply that the bands observed at 7239 cm⁻¹
250 and 7185 cm⁻¹ on the NIR spectrum of BONBR2c correspond to second overtone vibrations
251 (2νMg₃OH) in SL and TL minerals, respectively. The other bands reported at lower
252 frequencies on the MIR and NIR spectra of the four bluish green clay samples (BONBR2A,
253 MG3aWil, LFSTA5a2 and MG1aWil) most likely result from additional occurrence and
254 distinct distribution of Ni in octahedral sheets of these layers silicates. More specifically, the
255 3628 cm⁻¹ (MIR – Figure 4a) and 7081 cm⁻¹ (NIR – Figure 4b) bands are respectively
256 assigned to first and second overtones Ni₃OH stretching for TL minerals and trioctahedral
257 smectites (Farmer, 1974; Gerard and Herbillon, 1983; Petit, 2005; Christidis and Mitsis,
258 2006; Jagannadha Reddy et al., 2009; Mano et al., 2014; Baron and Petit, 2016; Baron et al.,
259 2016). The 3650 cm⁻¹ (MIR – Figure 4a) and 7125 cm⁻¹ (NIR – Figure 4b) bands can also be
260 attributed to first and second overtones MgNi₂OH stretching for TL minerals (Petit et al.,
261 2004; Baron and Petit, 2016). As highlighted by Fritsch et al. (2019), these results suggest
262 that TL minerals (and/or trioctahedral smectite) are the main Ni-bearing phases of the Ni-
263 silicate ores. Nevertheless, the bands at 3650 cm⁻¹ (MIR) and 7125 cm⁻¹ (NIR) could also be
264 assigned to νNi₃OH in serpentine (Baron et al., 2016). These bands are commonly poorly
265 resolved, except for sample MG1aWill, which could therefore contain Ni-rich SL minerals
266 (Nepouite) in addition to Ni-rich TL minerals (Pimelite).

267

268 *Chemical composition*

269 Bulk chemical compositions of the five samples (expressed in oxide weight %) are listed in
270 table 1. These layer silicates are mainly composed of Si with minor Fe, highly variable Mg,
271 and Ni contents (or reverse Mg and Ni variations), and are free of Al. Bulk chemical data
272 converted to number of atoms and plotted in a ternary Si/(Mg+Fe)/Ni diagram (Figure 5)
273 reveal that all five samples are within a triangle delineated by the Mg/Fe end-member of

274 serpentine species (Srp), and the Mg and Ni end-members of talc (Tlc). As outlined by Fristch
275 et al. (2016; 2019), the relative proportion of TL minerals in mixtures of both 7 Å and 10 Å
276 layer silicates can be assessed from the mole Si:ΣR ratio (with ΣR = Mg+Fe+Ni). This ratio
277 is shown on the ternary diagram by a horizontal line. Theoretically, it ranges from 2/3 in
278 samples composed exclusively of serpentine species [$R_3Si_2O_5(OH)_{4-n}H_2O$] to 4/3 in those
279 composed only of 2:1 layer silicates in the talc mineral group [$R_3Si_4O_{10}(OH)_2$] (see the two
280 horizontal solid lines in Figure 5). The ternary Si/(Mg+Fe)/Ni diagram shows, therefore, that
281 the five samples present dominant TL minerals in the mixture of 7 Å and 10 Å layer silicates,
282 which is consistent with Si:ΣR ratios greater than 1.00. This is consistent with XRD patterns
283 showing a major contribution of the basal reflections of the 2:1 layer silicates compared to
284 those of the 1:1 layer silicates (Figure 3). Samples with the highest Si/ΣR ratios and lowest Fe
285 contents (Table 1) are predominantly made of TL minerals and are, therefore, the closest to
286 the theoretical line for talc on the ternary diagram. This is the case for samples MG1aWill and
287 MG3aWill. The presence of quartz in MG1aWill, in addition to TL minerals, as highlighted
288 by XRD, may also increase the Si/ΣR and thus induce an overestimation of the proportion of
289 TL minerals. Major chemical changes are related to a right shift of the data from the Mg+Fe
290 pole to the Ni pole of the ternary diagram. In agreement with our IR data, this shift points to a
291 gradual increase of the Ni for Mg substitution in the layer silicates (mostly TL minerals) of
292 the infillings. This substitution rate is nil in the most expandable sample (BONBR2c) and
293 optimal in the less expandable sample (MG1aWill).

294

295 **Swelling and shrinking behaviour**

296 XRD patterns of oriented mounts of the < 2 μm fraction of the five samples saturated with Ca
297 or Li in AD and EG states are given in Figure 6. XRD patterns of the Ca-saturated samples in
298 AD state are very similar to the XRD patterns of the powder bulk samples (Figure 3). They all

299 present similar peak position and broadening of the basal $00l$ reflections characteristic of
300 poorly crystalline 1:1 (SL) and 2:1 (TL) layer silicates. The position of the $00l$ reflection of
301 the 2:1 layer silicates in AD state ranges from 9.92 Å (MG1aWill) to 10.20 Å (BONBR2c)
302 for the Ca-saturated samples (Figure 6a, Table 2) and from 9.92 Å (MG1aWill) to 10.82 Å
303 (BONBR2c) for the Li-saturated samples (Figure 6b, Table 2). The position of this reflection
304 at about 10 Å is slightly greater than that generally reported at 9.6 Å for non-expandable TL
305 minerals (Brindley et al., 1977).

306 XRD patterns of the Ca or Li-saturated samples in EG state (Figure 6) show no significant
307 change of peak position for the 1:1 layer silicates (Srp and SL), indicating an absence of
308 swelling phase (Figure 6). The $00l$ reflection of the 2:1 layer silicates for MG1aWill is at the
309 same position (~ 10 Å) in the AD and EG states confirming also the absence of swelling
310 phase (Figures 6 and 7; Table 2). The most expandable sample (BONBR2c) exhibits a $00l$
311 peak of 16.47 Å for CaEG and 17.04 Å for LiEG, and a 002 peak of ~ 8.80 - 8.90 Å for CaEG
312 and LiEG (Figures 6 and 7; Table 2). These harmonic peaks are close to that reported by
313 Christidis and Mitsis (2006) for stevensite (respectively 17.6 Å and ~ 9.02 Å). The other
314 samples have intermediate amounts of expandable and non-expandable layers, according to
315 the position of the first basal reflection between 10 and 17 Å in EG state. Figures 6a and 6b
316 also show that EG solvation of the two most expandable samples, BONBR2a and BONBR2c,
317 saturated with Li^+ leads to greater resolution of reflections, as well as to a greater shift of the
318 peaks towards low angles (i.e. larger d-spacing) than for samples saturated with Ca (Table 2).
319 Such differences likely result from the smaller size of Li^+ and different ionic potential
320 compared to Ca^{2+} , implying different solvation behaviours with water or ethylene glycol.

321 The swelling and the splitting of the $00l$ reflection in samples BONBR2a, BONBR2c and
322 MG3aWill are better illustrated in background stripped patterns (Figure 7). The asymmetric
323 $00l$ reflection at ~ 10.0 Å for the 2:1 layer silicates in AD state (dots in Figure 7) can be fitted

324 with two overlapping Gaussian curves (dashed lines, Figure 7). The peak asymmetry
325 disappears with EG solvation and is replaced by two contributions, which are fitted with two
326 separate Gaussian curves (plain line). From bottom to top of Figure 7, the increase of the
327 swelling ability of the three samples is linked to a shift of the first contribution (P1) towards
328 low angles (14.15 Å for MG3aWill, 15.27 Å for BONBR2c and 17.04 Å for BONBR2a) with
329 a concomitant increase of the peak area. On the opposite, the second contribution (P2) shift
330 towards greater angles (9.44 Å for MG3aWill, 9.24 Å for BONBR2c and 8.83 Å for
331 BONBR2a) and gradually collapse. These variations suggest therefore a random
332 interstratification (R0) between swelling (smectite) and non-swelling phases (TL) with a
333 variable proportion of the two components.

334 Figure 8 displays the positions of both contributions (P1 and P2) for the five Ca- and Li-
335 saturated samples in EG state. The progressive variation of the P1 and P2 positions from
336 samples MG1aWill to BONBR2c suggests a continuum between the non-expandable TL and
337 the fully expandable smectite. It also shows that the P1 and P2 positions are negatively
338 correlated and that non-expandable TL minerals and stevensite are present at the extremities
339 of the trend. More specifically, P1 and P2 are merged and located close to the *001* reflection
340 of the non-expandable TL minerals (corresponding to a d-spacing of ~ 9.6 Å) in the non-
341 swelling sample (MG1aWill) and widely dissociated and positioned close to the *001* (P1) and
342 *002* (P2) reflections of stevensite (d-spacing close to 17.6 Å and 8.8 Å, respectively) in the
343 highly swelling sample (BONBR2c). Accordingly, the position of both reflections (P1 and
344 P2) could be used to assess the relative proportion of swelling layers (stevensite) in the pool
345 of the 2:1 layer silicates.

346 Following K-saturation and gradual heating from room temperature to 550°C, the *001*
347 reflection of TL was displaced from 10.0-9.9 Å to 9.6-9.7 Å (Figure 9). Simultaneously, the
348 intensity and width of the d_{001} peaks, as well as the asymmetry on the low angle side,

349 decreased with increasing heating for all samples except MG3aWILL. These variations
350 indicate a preferential collapse of the swelling (or hydrated) layers of these clay minerals. The
351 position of the *001* reflection at ~ 9.6 Å after heating and the destruction of the swelling layers
352 therefore reveals the non-expandable TL minerals (Brindley et al., 1977). At 550 °C the
353 collapse of the *001* reflection is complete for serpentine (thermal dehydroxylation of Srp and
354 SL minerals) whereas it remains partial for TL minerals.

355

356 **Layer charge and vacancies**

357 XRD patterns of the Li-saturated samples after heating at 300°C (Hofmann Klemen
358 treatment) show a peak displacement from 10.87 Å (LiAD) to 10.44 Å (Li₃₀₀) for BONBR2c
359 and from 10.07 Å (LiAD) to 9.93 Å (Li₃₀₀) for MG1aWill (Li₃₀₀, Figure 6b). For the five
360 samples the intensity of collapse is related to the proportion of swelling layers. Following EG
361 solvation after HK treatment (Li_{300EG} Figure 6b) the *001* and *002* peaks are broad and hardly
362 discernible from the background for samples BONBR2a, BONBR2c and LFSTA5a2, and
363 their position ranges from ~ 15 Å to ~ 17 Å and from ~ 9.4 Å to ~ 8.8 Å, respectively. This
364 behaviour indicates that the layer charge is partially neutralised by migration of Li⁺ ions
365 toward vacant sites upon HK treatment, and thus that it originates from the octahedral sheet.

366 The comparison of the FTIR NH₄ band before and after the HK treatment (i.e. NH₄⁺-saturated
367 samples previously saturated with Li and heated at 300°C: Li₃₀₀NH₄) reveals a charge loss
368 that ranges from 63% in the highly expandable sample (BONBR2c) to 39% in the non-
369 expandable one (MG1aWill; Table 3). Upon Li-saturation the samples with the highest
370 swelling ability show the largest charge loss, whereas those with the lowest swelling capacity
371 show the lowest loss of charge neutralised by Li⁺. The swelling ability is thus correlated with
372 the amount of charge neutralised by Li⁺ and hence with the amount of octahedral vacancies.

373 The swelling components of these samples can thus be identified as trioctahedral 2:1 layers

374 with octahedral vacancies, and therefore as stevensite layers. The decreasing of swelling
375 ability after HK treatment indicates a loss of layer charge due to partial neutralisation of the
376 charge of the stevensite by Li^+ after heating. This is consistent with what is expected for
377 trioctahedral smectites with octahedral charge where Li-saturation followed by heating (HK
378 treatment) induces partial neutralisation of approximately half of the charge (Li^+ vs. R^{2+} ; Petit
379 et al., 2008).

380

381

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

382

383 Swelling capacity and octahedral vacancies of hydrous Mg/Ni layer silicates

384

385 The hydrous Mg/Ni layer silicates found in clay infillings of faulted peridotites have recently
386 been related to the early alteration of serpentine veins and conversion of serpentine species
387 into cryptocrystalline SL residues and newly formed TL minerals (Fritsch et al., 2016). These
388 tri-octahedral layer silicates of the serpentine and talc mineral groups have often been
389 considered as non-expandable and the occurrence of swelling layers (i.e. stevensite) has
390 scarcely been reported worldwide (Christidis and Mitsis, 2006; Capitani and Ventruti, 2018).
391 Our work suggests that such occurrence could be more systematic than initially considered. It
392 links the swelling capacity of the samples to the content of stevensite layers (or octahedral
393 vacancies) in the pool of the 2:1 layer silicates of the clay infillings, using XRD and FTIR
394 investigations on clay saturated samples (Ca^{2+} , Li^+ , NH_4^+ , K^+) submitted or not to ethylene
395 glycol and heating treatments.

396 Swelling of the 2:1 layer silicates is related on XRD patterns of Ca- or Li-saturated and air-
397 dried clay samples to a shift towards low angles of their 001 basal reflection (or development
398 of a peak asymmetry or shoulder on the low angle slopping side of that reflection), and to a

399 split of this reflection in two contributions (P1 and P2) after solvation of the saturated clay
400 samples with ethylene glycol. The amplitude of the split increases with the swelling capacity
401 of the samples. It is nil ($P1 = P2$) in samples composed of non-expandable TL minerals (*001*
402 peak close to 9.6 Å) and optimal in samples composed exclusively of stevensite within the
403 pool of the 2:1 layer silicates, (P1: *001* peak at ~ 17.0 Å, P2: *002* peak at ~ 8.8). Intermediate
404 values for P1 and P2 between these two poles (Figure 8), together with considerable peak
405 width and irrational basal reflections point to the presence of random interstratification (R0)
406 between non-expandable TL and expandable stevensite. These intermediate values could also
407 be due to three-component mixed layers (Figure 10) including non-expandable TL layers,
408 partially expanded stevensite (one sheet of EG), and fully expanded stevensite (two sheets of
409 EG) (Eberl et al., 1982; Christidis and Eberl, 2003).

410 In this study we also closely linked the swelling behaviour of the clay infillings to layer
411 charge and octahedral vacancies in the 2:1 layer silicates (Hofman Klemen test). As illustrated
412 on figure 10, larger d-spacings (or hydration) in stevensite layers originate from larger
413 numbers of vacant sites in the octahedral sheets and divalent cations (Mg^{2+} , Ni^{2+}) in the
414 interlayer spaces. The non-expandable layers with a low charge are assigned to TL (unit cell
415 formula: $Si_4[Mg, Ni]_3O_{10}(OH)_2, nH_2O$); Figure 10a). Conversely, the fully expandable layers
416 with higher charge and optimum octahedral vacancies are assigned to stevensite (unit cell
417 formula: $(Mg^{2+}, Ni^{2+})_x Si_4[Mg, Ni]_{3-x} \square_x O_{10}(OH)_2 nH_2O$ with \square being a random vacancy;
418 Figure 10 b and c). In stevensite, a fraction of divalent cations (Mg^{2+} and Ni^{2+}) no longer
419 occupy octahedral sites, but inter-layer positions (exchangeable cation). Petit et al. (2008)
420 showed for synthetic Zn-stevensite that layers having a charge $< \sim 0.2$ (per half unit cell) are
421 non-expandable while layer having a charge $> \sim 0.2$ (per half unit cell) can swell upon
422 ethylene glycol solvation.

423 The proportion of Ni in the octahedral sheets of the 2:1 layer silicates (or Ni for Mg
424 substitution rate) does not seem to affect the swelling capacity of these minerals. Although
425 the richest Ni-sample (MG1aWill) contains only non-expandable TL and the Ni-free sample
426 (BONBR2c) mostly stevensite in the pool of the 2:1 layer silicates, the relationship between
427 the Ni for Mg substitution rate and swelling capacity of the 2:1 layer silicates is not as
428 obvious with the other samples (BONBR2A, MG3aWil, LFSTA5a2). On the other hand,
429 Fritsch et al. (2019) reported an opposite trend based on the relationship established on thin
430 sections between the Ni content and anisotropy of the TL infillings. Indeed Mg-rich domains
431 in these clay infillings (kerolite) are commonly anisotropic and observed as botryoidal-shaped
432 ribbons, whereas Ni-rich domains of the same infillings (pimelite) are optically isotropic and
433 cryptocrystalline. This suggests greater amounts of crystal defects (including octahedral
434 vacancies) in pimelite (Ni-rich) compared to kerolite (Mg-rich), which is supported on thin
435 sections by the larger development of cracks in the Ni-rich parts (or bands) of the TL
436 infillings (Figure 2d). Accordingly, further investigation should be undertaken on a larger set
437 of clay infillings to better establish the relationships between Ni for Mg substitution and
438 vacancies in TL minerals.

439

440 *Conditions of formation*

441 Recent mineralogical and chemical studies on the white and green clay infillings
442 (deweylite/garnierite) found at depth (saprock) in reactivated faults of peridotite formations
443 from New Caledonia have suggested the contribution of temperature and pressure (i.e.
444 hydrothermal processes) in the alteration of serpentine veins into clay infillings
445 predominantly made of TL minerals (Fritsch et al., 2016, 2019; Cathelineau et al., 2017).
446 More precisely, Fritsch et al. (2019) emphasised that temperature in the clay infillings could
447 have affected the size and crystallinity of the 2:1 layer silicates that we assign in this work to

448 TL minerals, interstratified TL/stevensite and stevensite. On the other hand, laboratory
449 experiments carried out by Decarreau et al. (1987) have shown that the stability fields of talc,
450 kerolite and Mg or Ni-stevensite are temperature-dependent. Stevensites can be synthesised
451 below 100°C, kerolites between 100 and 170°C, and talc at higher temperatures (above
452 500°C). We conclude then that the proportion of stevensite (or vacant sites) in the pool of the
453 2:1 layer silicates could be used as an efficient probe for assessing their temperature of
454 formation. Vein infillings exclusively composed of non-expandable TL as 2:1 layer silicates
455 would have precipitated well above 100°C, whereas those composed of almost pure stevensite
456 would have formed below that temperature (i.e. closer to ambient temperature). This
457 interpretation suggests that temperature could have controlled the distribution of non-
458 expandable TL and expandable stevensite along reactivated faults during the early alteration
459 of the peridotite formations. Both mineral phases would have precipitated simultaneously but
460 at different places along the fault network. However, stevensite could also have been
461 produced later during the interaction of meteoric fluids with faulted peridotites and the
462 development of thick lateritic profiles by weathering and hydration of TL minerals into poorly
463 ordered and highly swelling smectite.

464

465 **Some possible technological implications**

466

467 Nickel is widely used in industry, because of its chemical and physical properties and
468 resistance to corrosion, for the production of stainless steel, alloys and plating (~70% of Ni
469 consumption), for the production of electric batteries (~30% of Ni consumption), and to a
470 lesser extent as a catalyst. The demand for Ni increases at a rate of ~4 % per year and it will
471 continue to rise in the near future with the development of electrical vehicle/batteries. Nickel
472 is mainly exploited from sulphide and lateritic ores which respectively correspond to 30-40%

473 and 60-70% of the world resource (Schnebele, 2017). Sulphide ores with high Ni grades have
474 been the dominant source of Ni because processing is simple and cheaper than for laterites. In
475 the recent years, the proportion of Ni extracted from sulphide ores gradually decreased
476 (currently 60-65% of Ni production) with the rarefaction of these deposits (Bergmann, 2003;
477 Gleeson, et al., 2003; Dalvi et al., 2004; Butt and Cluzel, 2013), while that of lateritic ore
478 increased (currently 35-40% of Ni production) and will continue to rise. Because of the
479 progressive decrease in the Ni grade of available laterite ores, the environmental issues, and to
480 help the economically co-exploitation of associated trace metals (e.g. Co in limonitic ores),
481 industrial processes of Ni extraction are becoming more and more complex. Pyrometallurgical
482 processes are predominant for sulphides but the use of hydrometallurgical processes, such as
483 Acid Leaching (AL) or High-Pressure Acid Leaching (HPAL) is increasing for both sulphide
484 and laterite ores (Diaz et al., 1998, McDonald and Whittington, 2008; Rice, 2016; Ucyildiz
485 and Girgin, 2017, Mano et al., 2019). These processes work better for low-grade ores and
486 have better Ni, and other metal, recoveries. To improve these processes, detailed knowledge
487 of the actual mineralogy and crystal-chemistry of Ni-bearing clay silicates is becoming more
488 and more mandatory for economically viable (Ni recovery) and environmentally sustainable
489 (acid consumption) Ni mining.

490 There is also an increasing interest in the use of Ni-bearing phyllosilicates as catalysts
491 because Ni is one of the most active metals for the dry reforming of methane (activation of C-
492 H bond) and the cleavage of C-C bonds (Wang et al., 1998; Vogels et al., 2005; Iwasa et al.
493 2006; Sivaiah et al., 2010; Yoshida et al. 2015; Akri et al., 2017). These Ni-clays can be
494 natural or easily synthesised (Iwasa et al. 2006, Baron et al., 2016). The Ni-based catalysts are
495 reduced to between 500 and 800 °C to produce active metal Ni. The Ni content of the Ni-
496 phyllosilicates, their crystal-chemistry (octahedral vs. exchangeable Ni) and resistance to
497 temperature are key parameters in the catalytic efficiency.

498

499

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512

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674

Table captions675 **Table 1:** Chemical analyses of the five samples.

676

677 **Table 2:** Peak position (in Å) of the < 2 µm fraction after saturation with Ca or Li in AD and
 678 EG states. For EG state the position of the peak at low angle (P1: 4-7 °2θ) and at high angle
 679 (P2: 7-10 °2θ) are given.

680

681 **Table 3:** Estimation of the layer charge loss of the samples using NH₄⁺ saturation and
 682 measurement of the area of the band at 1400 cm⁻¹ on MIR spectra before and after Li
 683 saturation and heating.

684

685

686

Figure captions

687 **Figure 1:** Peridotite formations of New Caledonia and location of the sampling sites for the
 688 Mg/Ni silicate ores of the Koniambo and Poro massifs (arrows).

689

690 **Figure 2: (a)** General view of reactivated cross-cutting faults with white (Dew: deweylite)
 691 and bluish green (Gar: garnierite) coatings (or infillings) along black serpentine network of
 692 saprock (SR_{HZ}) of thick Ni-lateritic profiles (Poro, Fatma), **(b)** Close up of **(a)** showing olive
 693 green (STL) and turquoise (TL) infillings of a garnierite vein (Gar) with numerous cracks
 694 (note also at the periphery of the vein remains of black serpentines and in its central part a
 695 thin white silica infilling, Qz), **(c)** Densely cracked turquoise (sample BONBR2a) and white
 696 infillings (sample BONBR2c) along serpentine veins (Srp) of hazburgite saprolite (SAP_{HZ}),
 697 **(d)** BSE image of a garnierite vein showing the whole sequence of clay (STL, TL) and silica

698 (Qz) infillings. In this vein, the development of cracks (due to drying) is mostly observed in
699 the Ni-rich (light grey) part of the TL infilling.

700

701 **Figure 3:** XRD patterns of randomly oriented powders of the five samples showing broad
702 diffraction peaks of the serpentine-like (SL – 1:1) and talc-like (TL – 2:1) mineral phases and
703 sharp and smaller peaks for residual serpentine species (Srp: mainly lizardite Lz and
704 chrysotile Ctl) and quartz (Qz).

705

706 **Figure 4:** FTIR spectra of the < 2 µm fractions of the five samples **(a)** in the OH-stretching
707 region (Middle Infrared) and **(b)** in the first OH overtone region (Near Infrared) of the 1:1 and
708 2:1 layer silicates.

709

710

711 **Figure 5:** Plot of the molar chemical composition of the five samples selected for this study
712 (arrows) (see also table 1 for the chemical composition of the five samples in oxides wt %) in
713 a ternary Si vs Mg+Fe vs Ni diagram within the set of samples investigated by Fritsch et al.
714 (2016, 2019) for Mg/Ni layer silicates of the serpentine (Srp) and talc (Tlc) groups from New
715 Caledonia.

716

717 **Figure 6:** XRD patterns of oriented clay preparation of the five samples submitted to Ca
718 saturation (a) and Li saturation (b) in the air-dried (AD) and ethylene glycol solvated (EG)
719 states. Plain line CaAD or LiAD, dashed line: CaEG or LiEG. (b) two additional XRD pattern
720 per sample: dotted line: Li₃₀₀ after heating at 300°C (Hofman Klemen treatment), dash-dotted
721 line: Li₃₀₀EG after heating at 300°C and solvation with EG.

722

723

724 **Figure 7:** Decomposition of XRD patterns of Li saturated clay fractions in AD and EG states
725 of the three most expandable samples (MG3aWill, BONBR2a and BONBR2c) in the angular
726 domain $3\text{-}13^\circ 2\theta$ after background stripping. Dots: experimental values, plain lines: best fit,
727 dashed lines: elementary Gaussian contributions (in the EG state the Gaussian contribution is
728 identical with the best fit).

729

730 **Figure 8:** Position of the reflection at low angle (P1: $4\text{-}7^\circ 2\theta$) and at high angle (P2: $7\text{-}10$
731 $^\circ 2\theta$) of the 2:1 component in CaEG and LiEG states, determined by XRD decomposition of
732 most swelling samples (MG3aWill, BONBR2a and BONBR2c).

733

734 **Figure 9:** XRD patterns of oriented preparation of the five clay samples saturated with K at
735 room temperature (AD 20°C , plain line) and after heating at 150°C (dashed line), 350°C
736 (dotted line) and 550°C (dash-dotted line).

737

738 **Figure 10:** Structure of the three components (a-TL, b-partly expanded stevensite and c-fully
739 expanded stevensite) of the interstratified 2:1 layer silicates. The increase of the d-spacing
740 from left to right is closely linked to an increase of vacant sites in the octahedral sheets and
741 hydrated cations (Mg, Ni) in the interlayer spaces.

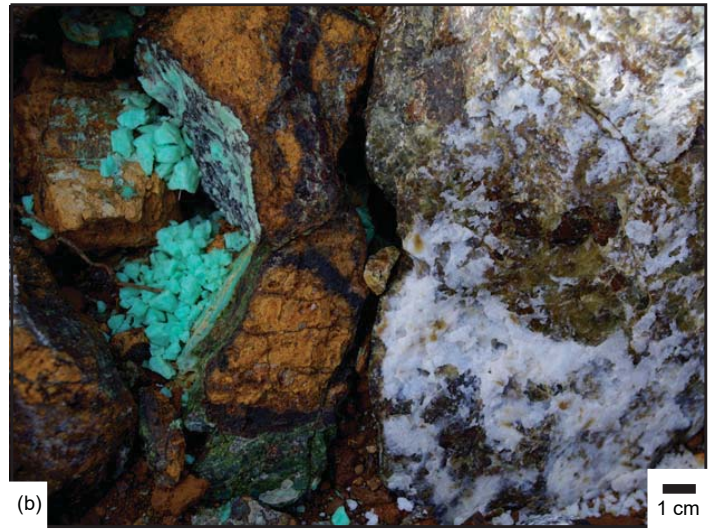
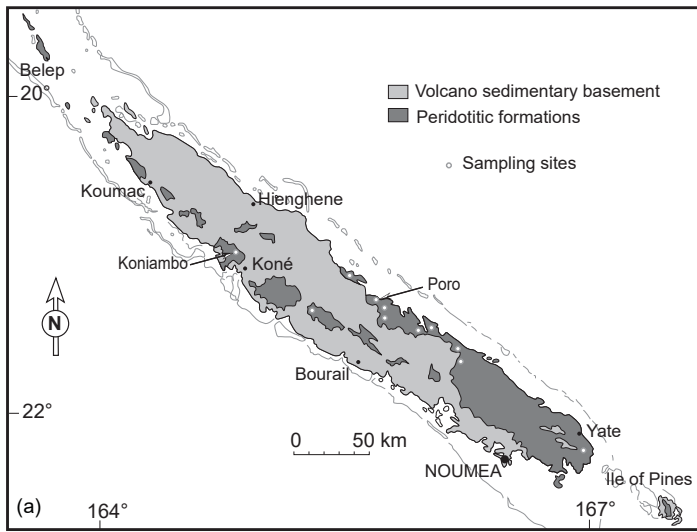


Figure 1

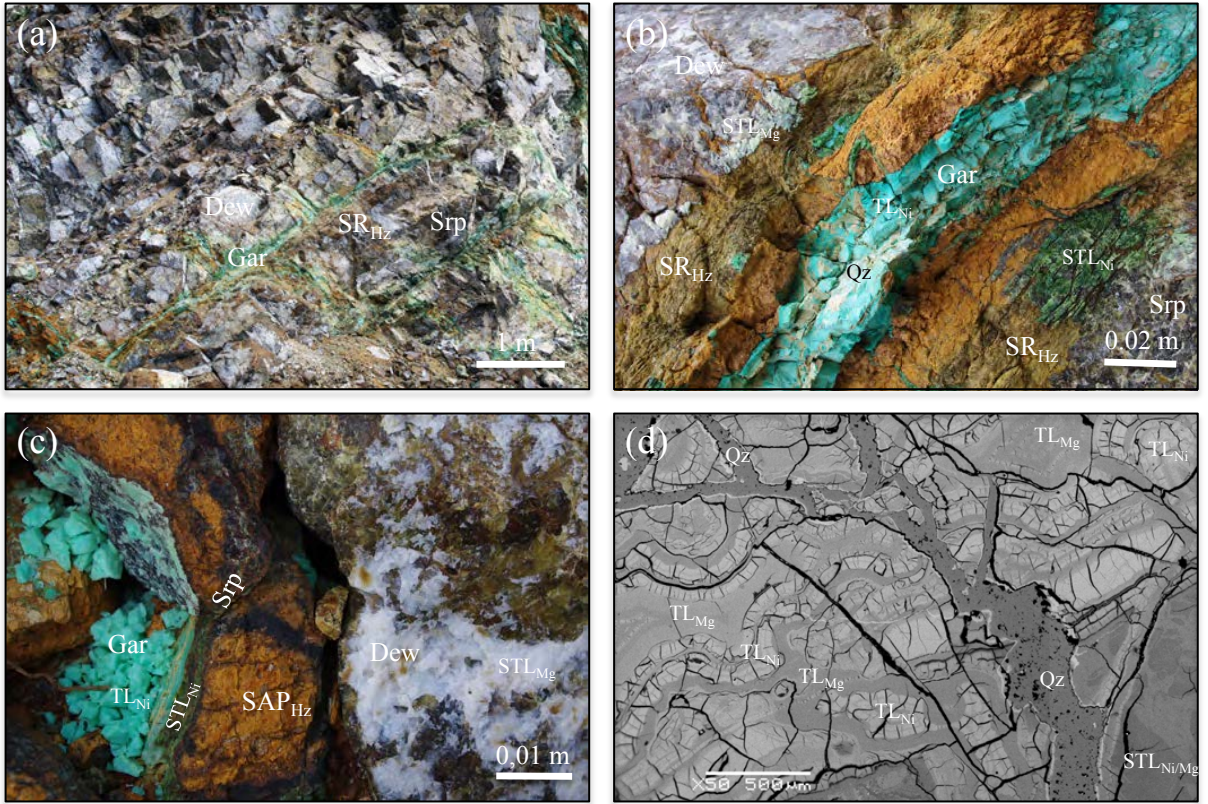


Figure 2

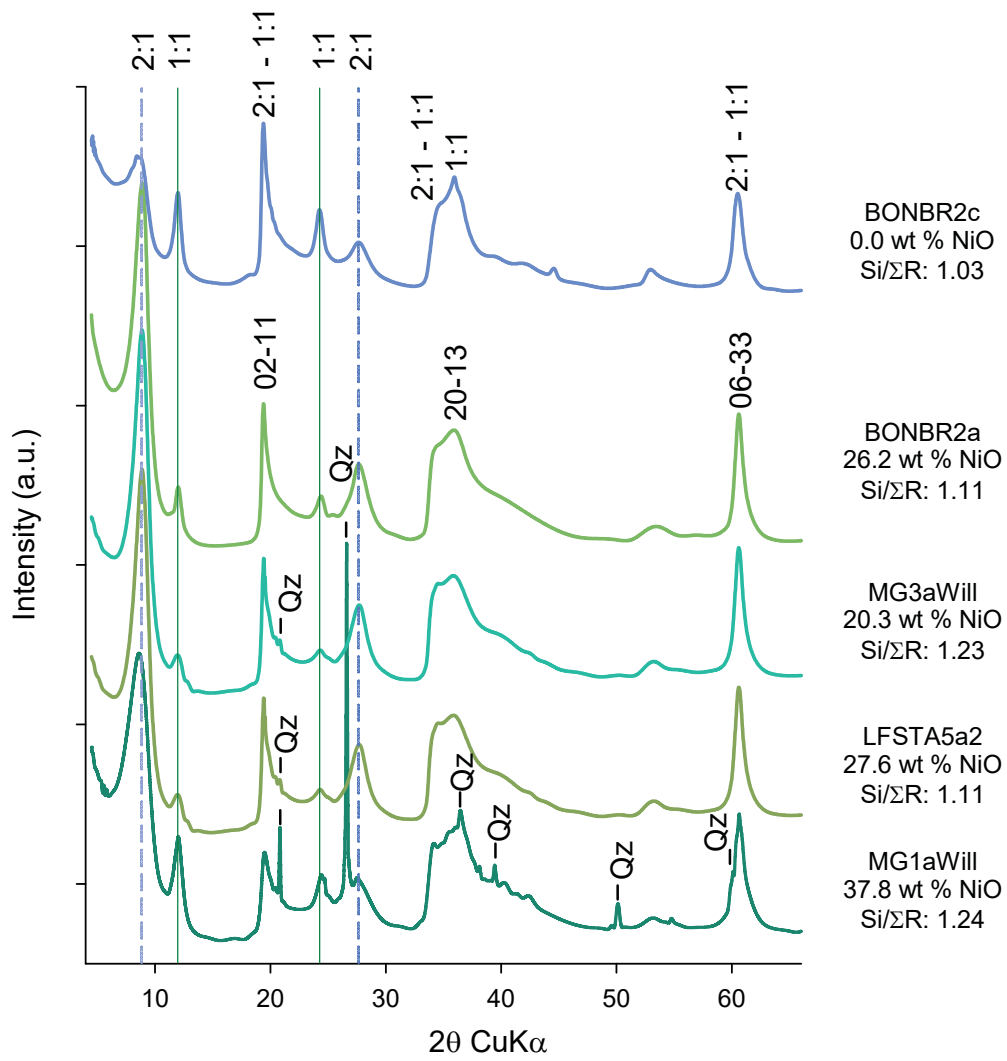


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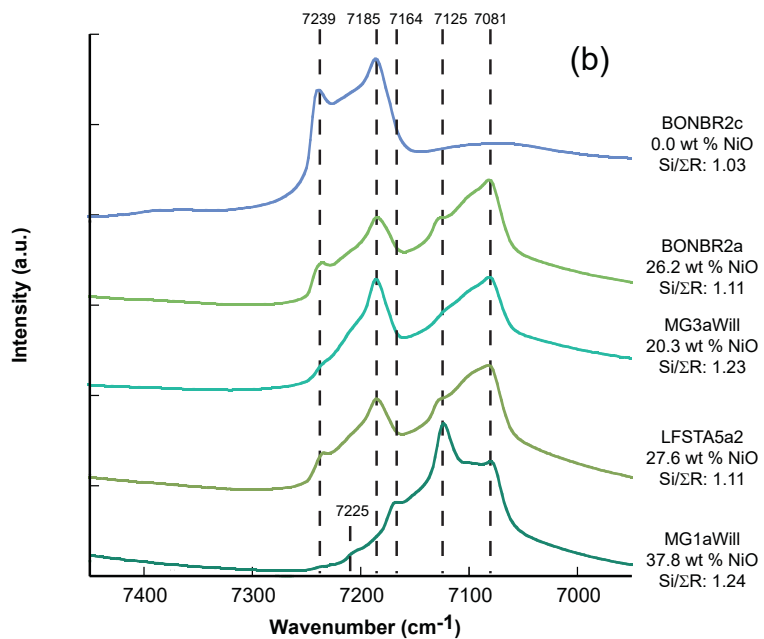
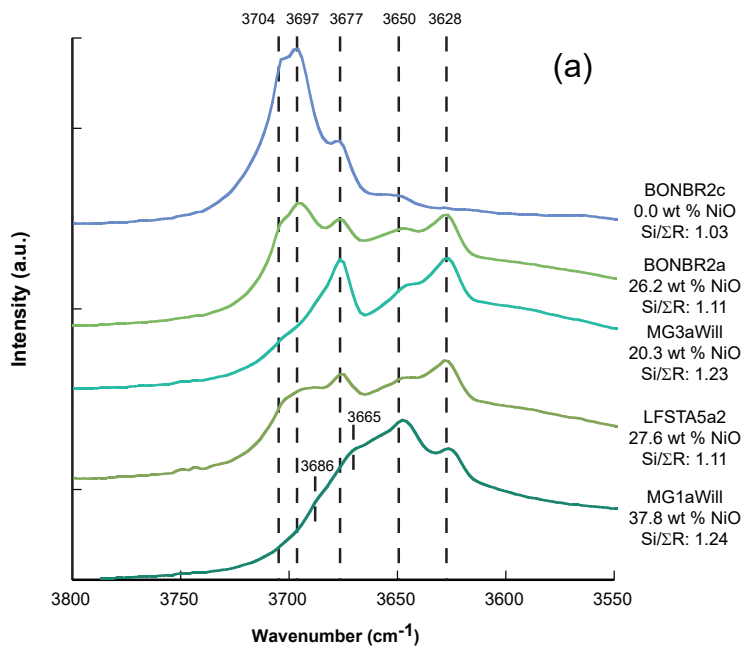


Figure 4

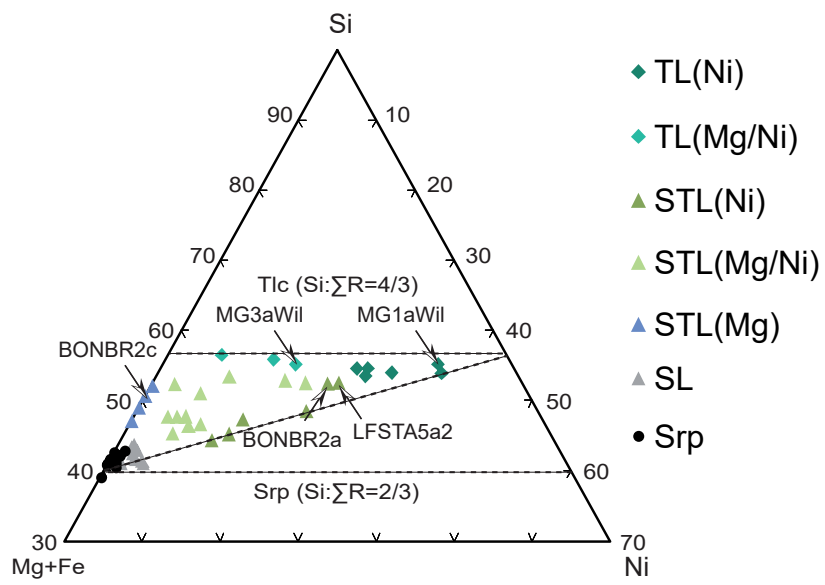


Figure 5

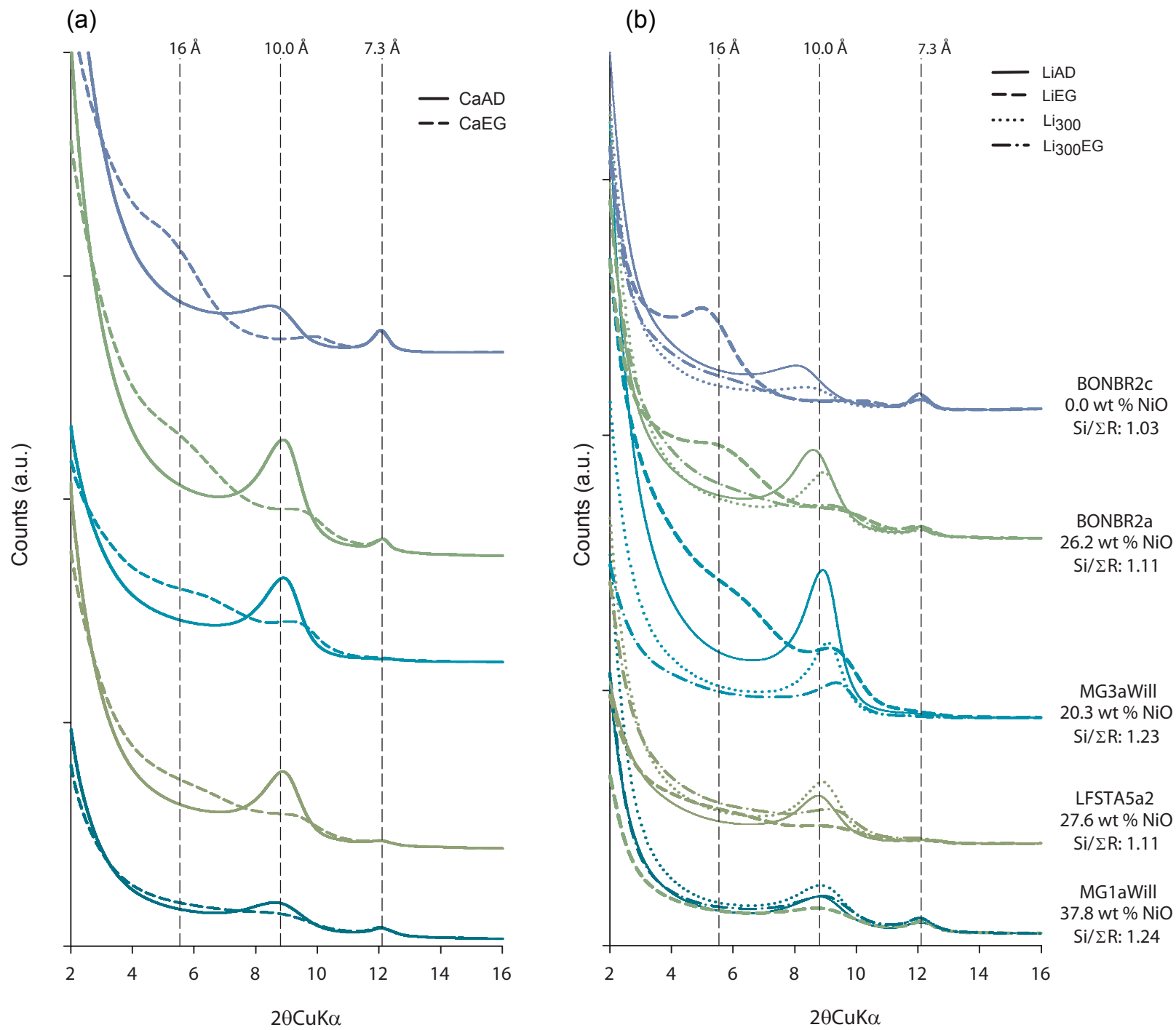


Figure 6

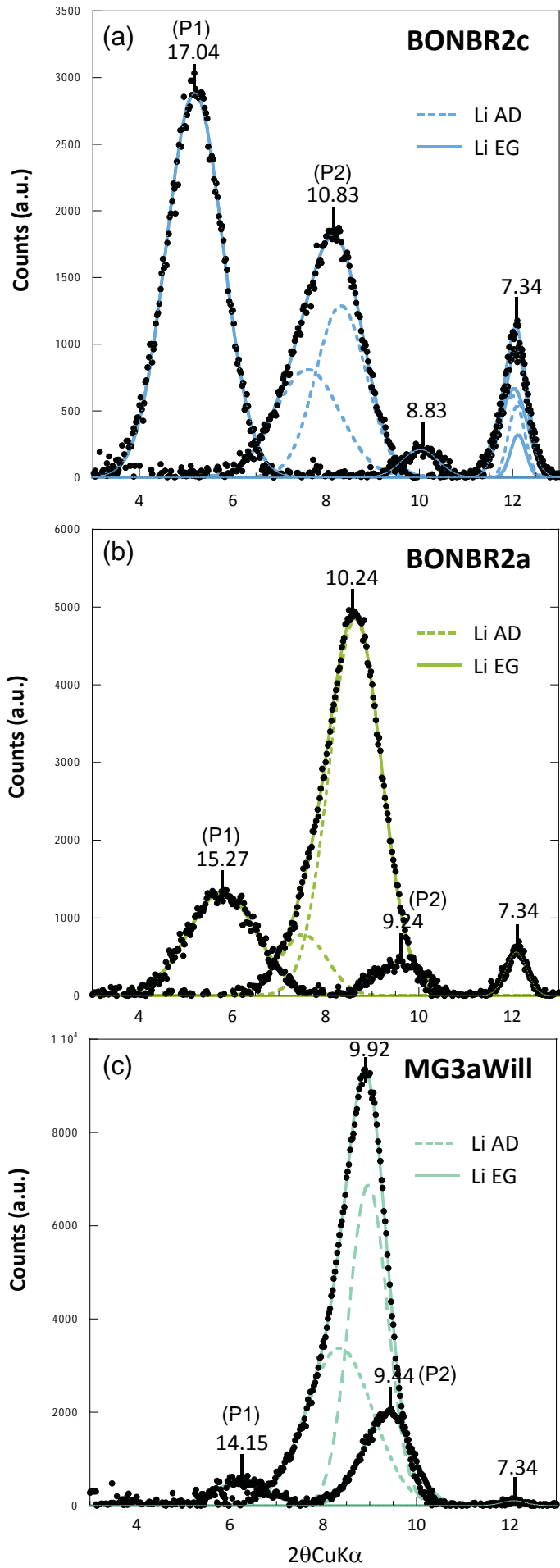


Figure 7

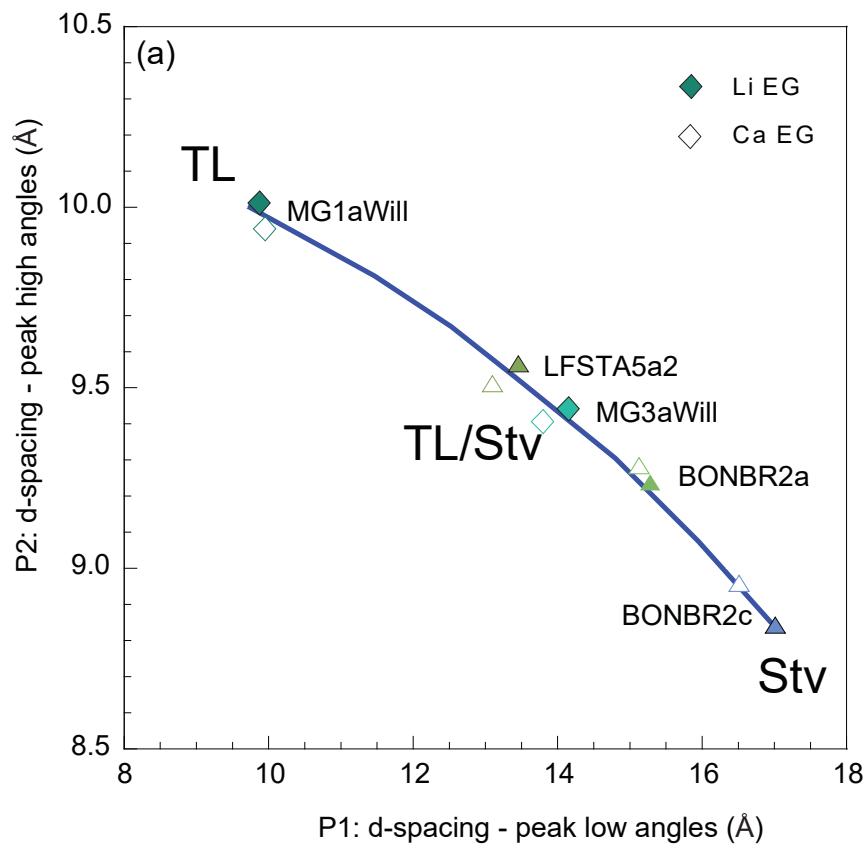


Figure 8

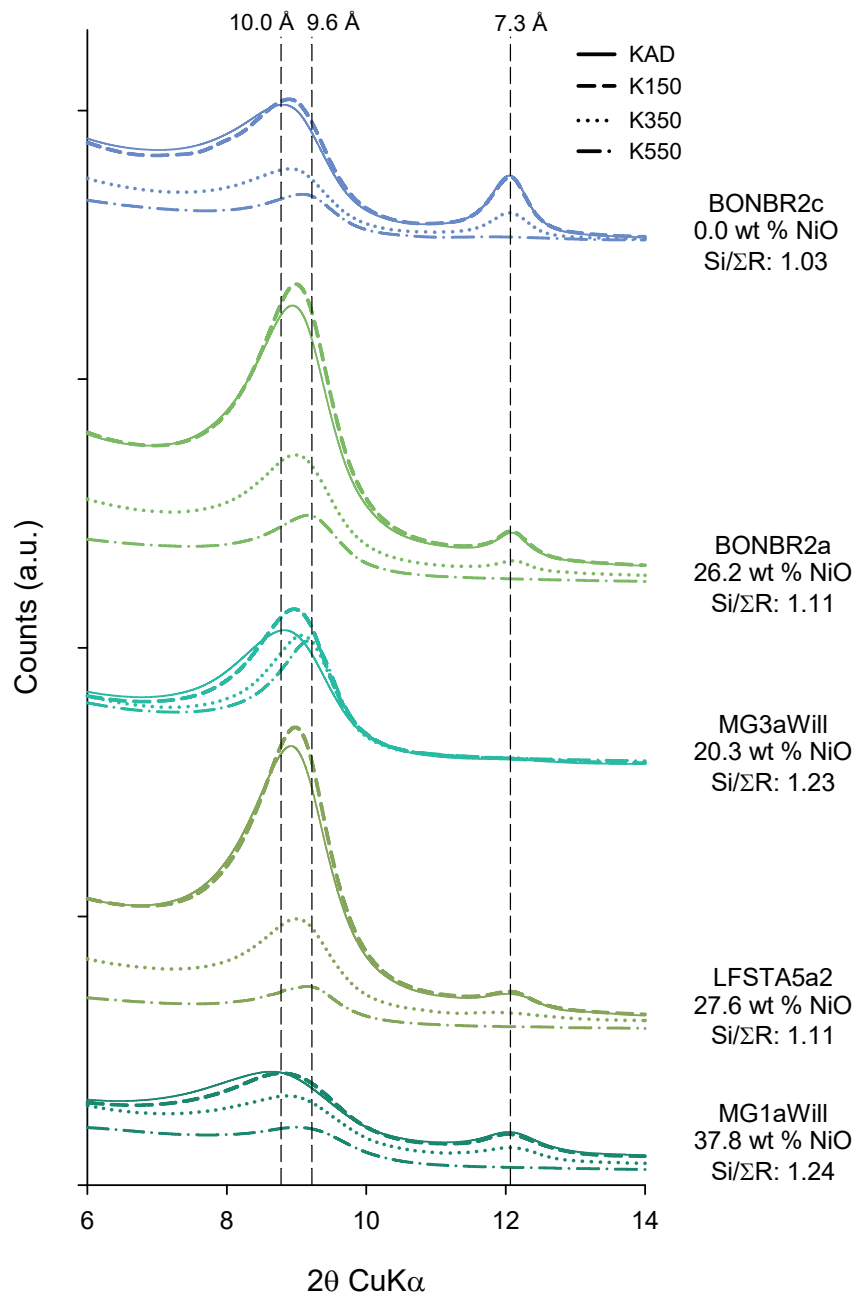
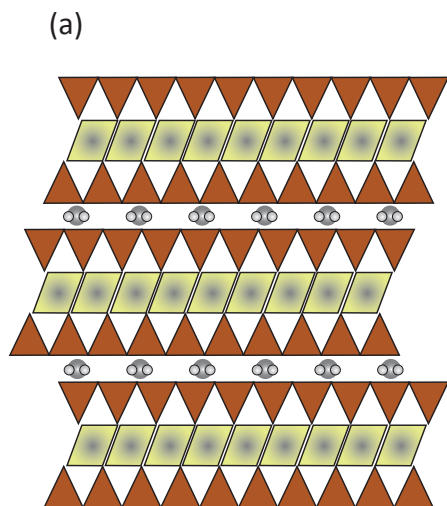
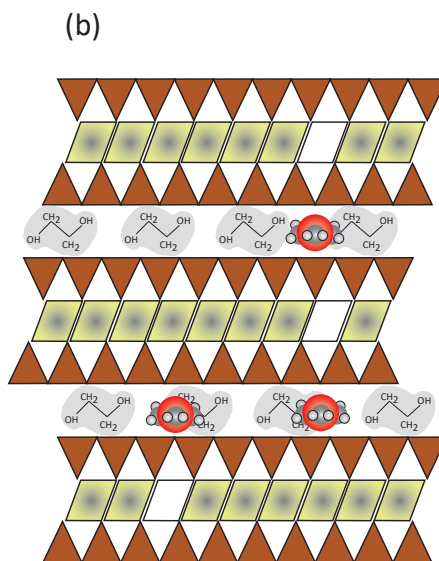
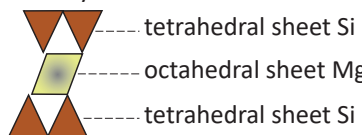


Figure 9



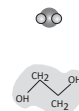
TL
non-swelling
~10 Å

2:1 layer

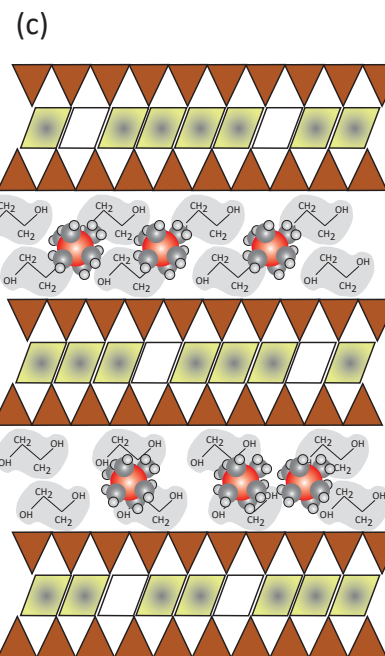


Stevensite
partially expanded
~14-16 Å (1EG sheet)

octahedral
vacancy
(charge)



water
molecule
EG
molecule



Stevensite
fully expanded
~17 Å (2EG sheet)

interlayer
cation 1w
interlayer
cation 2w