Metallic, oxygen-containing reaction products after polarisation of iron in \( \text{H}_2\text{S} \) saturated saline solutions

Georgi Genchev\(^a\), Karsten Cox\(^a\), The Hai Tran\(^a\), Adnan Sarfraz\(^a\), Christoph Bosch\(^b\), Michael Spiegel\(^b\), Andreas Erbe\(^a\)\(^*\)

\(^a\)Max-Planck-Institut für Eisenforschung GmbH, Max-Planck-Str. 1, 40237 Düsseldorf, Germany
\(^b\)Salzgitter Mannesmann Forschung GmbH, Ehinger Str. 200, 47259 Duisburg, Germany

Abstract

Corrosion of Fe in \( \text{H}_2\text{S} \) containing solutions is a general problem in oil production. Here, layers rich in the tetragonal FeS modification mackinawite were grown by polarisation of iron 200 mV above the corrosion potential in \( \text{H}_2\text{S} \) saturated acetic saline solution. These layers have no band gap above room temperature thermal energy, hence behave metallic. The sulfide layers are duplex layers, with an inner, oxide-rich and an outer, oxide-poor region. Strain induced by differences in oxygen content may be responsible for the poor adhesion between the two layers, which leads to eventual loss of the outer layer.

Keywords: A. iron, B. potentiostatic, B. EIS, B. polarization, B. SEM, C. anodic films

1. Introduction

Crude oil and gas usually contain water, but may also contain relevant amounts of \( \text{H}_2\text{S} \) and/or \( \text{CO}_2 \) [1]. The presence of these compounds promotes corrosion of steels [2, 3], where the exact nature and mechanisms of corrosion strongly depend on conditions, such as pressure, temperature, and flow velocities [4–7]. While the corrosion in the presence of \( \text{H}_2\text{S} \) of pure iron [8–11], and different steels [12–16], has been widely investigated, there is still a lack of understanding of several peculiarities of the corrosion process, e.g. the reaction path and the electronic structure of the corrosion products [17]. Sulfide and hence related corrosion mechanisms occur also in the corrosion of iron in contact with sulfate-reducing bacteria [18, 19].

To date, there is a debate concerning the exact mechanism of the (electro)chemical process(es) involved in \( \text{H}_2\text{S} \)-triggered corrosion of iron or steel [17]. One possible reaction path is the formation of iron sulfide corrosion products in a direct heterogeneous chemical reaction, according to [17]

\[
\text{Fe} + \text{H}_2\text{S} \rightarrow \text{FeS} + \text{H}_2. \tag{1}
\]

This reaction path has been mentioned a number of times in publications on \( \text{H}_2\text{S} \) corrosion [20, 21], and favoured in a recent review of the problem [17]. In this “direct mechanism”, oxidation and reduction occur

\(^*\)Corresponding author. Tel. +49 211 6792-890; Fax +49 211 6792-218
Email address: aerbe@arcor.de, a.erbe@mpie.de (Andreas Erbe)
at the same location, hence, such a mechanism is expected to be independent of electrode potential. A second possibility is the formation of a precipitate,

\[
\text{Fe}^{2+} + \text{S}^{2-} \rightarrow \text{FeS}, \tag{2}
\]

following anodic iron dissolution,

\[
\text{Fe} \rightarrow \text{Fe}^{2+} + 2 \text{e}^- \tag{3}
\]

with concurrent electrochemical \( \text{H}_2 \) evolution as cathodic process,

\[
2 \text{H}^+ + 2 \text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2. \tag{4}
\]

A variant of this “dissolution-precipitation mechanism” is the direct sulfide formation in the anodic partial reaction, without significant amounts of \( \text{Fe}^{2+} \) going in solution,

\[
\text{Fe} + \text{HS}^- \rightarrow \text{FeS} + 2 \text{e}^- + \text{H}^+. \tag{5}
\]

Location of reduction and oxidation may be separated in this case. This separation of anodic and cathodic reaction is seen by some authors as “generally established” [22]. If corrosion follows this dissolution-precipitation mechanism, the obvious alternative to precipitation of \( \text{FeS} \) is precipitation of an iron hydroxide or oxide, e.g. according to

\[
\text{Fe}^{2+} + 2 \text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{FeO} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \tag{6}
\]

\[
\text{Fe}^{2+} + 2 \text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{Fe(OH)}_2. \tag{7}
\]

or the respective variant of Eqn. 2 via dissolved iron.

In a direct heterogeneous reaction, the oxide formation (Eqn. 6 and 7) is not an alternative to the sulfide formation, unless \( \text{H}_2\text{S} \) would catalyse a direct oxide formation.

A significant part of current understanding of \( \text{H}_2\text{S} \)-induced corrosion products is owed to work in [20]. In general, the first \( \text{FeS} \) corrosion product has been shown by X-ray diffraction to consist of the mineral mackinawite, a tetragonal, non-stoichiometric iron sulfide [8, 20]. Other crystalline monosulfide phases (e.g. troilite [20], amorphous or poorly crystalline \( \text{FeS} \) [23, 24]) have also been reported, depending on pH and electrochemical conditions. Frequently, however, diffraction techniques were used to obtain information about the corrosion/reaction products, which have a poor sensitivity to non-crystalline fractions in crystalline products. The \( \text{FeS} \) corrosion products show frequently poor adhesion to the iron substrate, on which a mackinawite base layer has been detected [20]. The result are layered crystalline iron sulfide films with cracks, partial delamination, and the imprint of the underlying metal surface clearly visible even after long exposures [17]. The corrosion product mackinawite itself is of interest because of the role it may have played in pre-biotic chemistry [25, 26].
In this work, a “what-if” approach was followed. Iron was polarised above the corrosion potential in a H$_2$S-saturated electrolyte to enhance the anodic reactions. The reaction products formed in this way have been characterised to study in detail how films are composed if anodic dissolution of the substrate is occurring. Results are compared to reaction products formed under free corrosion. Special emphasis is put on the oxygen content in the layers formed during polarisation, and the question whether resulting layers are semiconducting, i.e. have a band gap, or metallic/semimetallic, i.e. don’t have a band gap.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Materials and electrode preparation

Experiments were performed on Armco pure iron of 99.8 % purity. For corrosion experiments, coupons of 2.0 cm × 2.0 cm × 0.1 cm were cut from metal plates. Prior to each experiment, the samples were ground with 320 grid silicon carbide paper. To remove organic contaminants, the surface was subsequently cleaned with water and methanol, and dried under a nitrogen stream.

All electrochemical and corrosion experiments reported here were conducted in an aqueous electrolyte containing NaCl (5 wt%) and CH$_3$COOH (0.5 wt%)(NACE Test Solution A, [27]). Chemicals for preparation of the solution were purchased from Merck and were of analytical grade. The electrolyte was prepared using water from a USF ELGA (Ransbach-Baumbach, Germany) Purelab Plus UV water purification system with a conductivity of <0.055 µS cm$^{-1}$. The solution pH before contact with the test specimen was measured to be 2.6. Gaseous H$_2$S from Air Liquide (Düsseldorf, Germany) with global purity of 99.5 % (max. impurities: 500 ppm-vol CO$_2$, N$_2$, CH$_4$, and CS$_2$: 3000 ppm-vol COS) was used. The used nitrogen was of high purity grade (>99.9 %). The experiments were performed in an air tight homebuilt flat bottom PMMA cell of 500 mL capacity (see next paragraph). The electrolyte was first de-oxygenated by purging with nitrogen, and then saturated with H$_2$S. In both cases, purging lasted for at least 30 min. To minimize ingress of oxygen, purging with H$_2$S was maintained throughout the experiments. All experiments were performed at room temperature and without stirring. The pH of the complete electrolyte including anode and cathode volumes was measured before and after every set of polarisation experiments.

All electrochemical experiments have been conducted using a Gamry PCI4/Series G Family potentiostat (Gamry Instruments Inc.) in a typical three-electrode arrangement. A carbon rod (Müller & Rössner, Troisdorf, Germany) has been used as the counter electrode, and a standard Ag/AgCl/3M KCl as reference electrode (Metrohm, Filderstadt, Germany). All electrode potentials reported in this work are shown with reference to this system. A Luggin capillary arrangement has been employed with the reference electrode placed inside a tube drawn at the end to a fine capillary, allowing very close positioning relative to sample, which served as working electrode. The area of the working electrode exposed to the electrolyte was 0.785 cm$^2$. Linear sweep polarisation experiments (10 mV s$^{-1}$; 5 mV steps) have been executed separately.
for the cathodic and anodic branches and were used to determine the corrosion potential. Chronoamperometric measurements have been conducted 200 mV above the initial corrosion potential in order to grow sulfide films on the iron substrate.

Subsequently, the electrochemically grown films have been characterized by electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS). EIS measurements have been performed in the range of frequencies $\omega$ of $10^{-2}$ - $10^{5}$ Hz with 10 mV amplitude of the sinusoidal voltage, at the corrosion potential. Echem Analyst software has been used for fitting of the obtained data. In the analysis, imperfect capacitors with a distribution of relaxation times were considered as constant phase elements (CPE) with complex impedance $Q_{\text{CPE}} = Y_0^{-1}(i\omega)^{-\alpha}$ with $i = \sqrt{-1}$ and $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$ [28].

As FeS-based corrosion products are prone to partial oxidation when exposed to air, care has been taken to transfer the samples immediately after preparation under nitrogen protection to the surface analytical experiments described below. The sample environment of surface analytical experiments which use high or ultrahigh vacuum should protect the sample from oxidation during the experiments. However, no significant differences have been found for samples transferred directly after preparation and for samples which had been exposed to ambient for several hours to one day. For X-ray diffraction, two experimental protocols have been used. Samples where initially covered with Capton foil (CMC Klebetechnik, Frankenthal, Germany) on double-sided adhesive tape to limit ingress of oxygen during the long measurement times. Alternatively, samples were directly measured in air without packaging. No difference in the sample diffraction peaks were found. Because the packaged samples show a broad background from the disordered polymer materials used, analysis of the diffraction patterns is harder, which is why in this work, only diffraction patterns are shown which were obtained with air-exposed samples.

2.2. Characterisation

The resulting surface morphology has been observed using a Zeiss Leo Gemini 1550 scanning electron microscope (SEM) (Carl Zeiss NTS GmbH, Oberkochen, Germany) with energy (EHT) of 10 kV. Energy dispersive X-ray analysis (EDX) has been performed using an Oxford Instruments 7426 energy-dispersive X-Ray spectrometer integrated into the SEM.

Grazing incidence X-ray diffraction (GI-XRD) experiments have been performed on a Bruker D8 Advance diffractometer with Cu K$_\alpha$ radiation and a Sol-X solid state detector. The diffraction patterns have been collected at an angle of incidence $\alpha = 3^\circ$ within a range of the scattering angle $2\theta$ of $10^\circ < 2\theta < 75^\circ$ in steps of 0.05°, with an integration time of 60 s per step. Resulting patterns were evaluated using the DIFFRACplus EVA package. Exact peak positions for fine analysis where determined by fitting the respective diffraction peak with a single Gaussian peak function and using its maximum.

For the identification of the corrosion products via Raman spectroscopy, an alpha300M (WITec, Ulm, Germany) confocal Raman microscope was used, with an excitation wavelength of 532.1 nm. Illumination
and detection was performed through a microscope objective of 100×, numerical aperture 0.75.

Infrared (IR) spectra have been recorded on a Vertex 70v FTIR spectrometer (Bruker, Ettingen, Germany) using mid-IR and far-IR deuterated triglycine sulfate (DTGS) detectors. The spectra have been recorded co-adding 256 scans with a spectral resolution of 4 cm⁻¹. Measurements in the mid and far-IR have been joint to yield a single absorbance spectrum over the entire accessible wavenumber range. Measurements of corrosion product powder were carried out in contact with a hemispherical silicon internal reflection element using a Harrick Seagull attenuated total reflection (ATR) unit (Harrick Scientific Products, Pleasantville, NY, USA) at 45° angle of incidence.

X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) measurements have been carried out with a PHI Quantum 2000 ESCA (Physical Electronics, Chanhassen, MN, USA) using a monochromatic Al Kα radiation source (1486.7 eV) operating at 15 kV and 25 W. For investigation of the change of elemental composition with depth, sputtering with an Ar⁺ plasma has been applied. Sputtering time per cycle was 1 min, corresponding to 89 nm in SiO₂. No exact calibration is available for the corrosion products here, but the ratio of sputter rates of Fe₂O₃ and SiO₂ is 0.61 [29], which shows that the SiO₂ rate can serve as an order-of-magnitude estimate. Sputtering spot size was 2 mm × 2 mm. Peak fitting analysis of the spectra has been carried out with the CasaXPS (http://www.casaxps.com/) software.

A cross-section of the surface with sulfide layer has been prepared using the Hitachi Ar⁺ Ion Milling System E-3500 (Hitachi High-Technologies, Japan).

2.3. Thermodynamic analysis

For the generation of potential-pH predominance diagrams, the freely available Java program MEDUSA and its standard HYDRA database have been used [30]. MEDUSA calculates equilibrium compositions of complex systems, based on established algorithms [31–33]. MEDUSA results from previous work have been reproduced to verify correct handling of the program [34]. In extension to previous work, in total 69 soluble and 16 solid compounds were considered, containing Fe, S, Cl, O and H in all relevant oxidation states. All calculations were carried out for a temperature of 25°C, which is also the experimental temperature, and the temperature for the HYDRA data basis. In the results presented, activity coefficients were considered as 1; however, calculations including ion strength corrected activity coefficients show only slight modifications of the obtained diagrams.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Electrochemistry

Tafel plots (Fig. 1) have been engendered from linear sweep experiments, conducted on the one hand in N₂ purged electrolyte and on the other hand in H₂S purged electrolyte. As shown in Fig. 1, the saturation
of the electrolyte with $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ leads to a negative shift of the corrosion potential $E_{\text{corr}}$ of iron, which indicates an active corrosion of the metal under these conditions. Similar behaviour has been already reported e.g. in the case of pure iron in sulfide-containing $\text{HCO}_3^-$ electrolyte [35], and steel corrosion in a sulfide-containing NACE ID 182 solution [34]. The Tafel plots show very similar currents in the anodic branch, and an increase in current in the presence of $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ in the cathodic branch.

Electrochemical growth of iron sulfides is well described in the literature [20, 35, 36]. To study the behaviour of iron anodes and the corrosion products forming on them, iron sulfide has been grown by anodic polarisation at 200 mV above the initial corrosion potential. During anodic polarisation the surface got covered by black precipitates, indicating sulfide layer growth. While polarising, currents have been recorded in chrono-amperometric experiments. The results of these measurements are summarised in Fig. 2, together with the corresponding standard deviations. The standard deviations, shown as error bars in Fig. 2, have been calculated by averaging results from at least three experiments. A stationary current density is obtained after $\approx$2 h reaction time.

Nucleation and growth of new phases on an electrode surface has been discussed extensively for electrodeposition of metals [37, 38], for the growth of doped conducting polymers [39], but also for the growth of passivating films, e.g. the formation of PbSO$_4$ on Pb-alloys [40]. The typical chronoamperometric plots observed in metal deposition show an initial phase of increasing current before the current reaches a maximum and stabilises at a value below the maximum [38, 41]. For the deposition of non-conducting products, the net current reaches almost 0 in this final phase [40]. Here, no initial phase of increasing current is observed, because of the long time scale of observations and the low time resolution chosen. The phase of decreasing current observed here, however, closely resembles the situation observed for metal deposition (with the difference that cathodic currents in metal deposition are exchanged for anodic currents in the corrosion experiments here), and not the situation observed for a passivating electrode. Therefore, no layer is forming which significantly inhibits the iron dissolution. During electrochemical polarisation 200 mV above the initial $E_{\text{corr}}$, the average pH of the mixed electrolyte increases (Fig. 2). This observation is attributed to the consumption of $\text{H}^+$ at the counter electrode, and the consequent increase of pH near the cathode.

Consequently, the electric properties of the layers formed during anodic polarisation have been investigated using EIS at $E_{\text{corr}}$. Fig. 3a shows the Bode plot recorded after 5 min immersion at $E_{\text{corr}}$ of the iron sample in the $\text{H}_2\text{S}$-saturated electrolyte. The spectrum shows two time constants, which implies that an equivalent circuit to describe this spectrum must contain at least two RC elements. In accordance with other works on related systems [10, 34, 42], the equivalent circuit shown in the inset of Fig. 3 has been used to fit the data. In particular, a single RC element with an additional Warburg impedance to take into account diffusion processes is not sufficient to describe the data, and an additional Warburg element is not required when using the two RC elements. Furthermore, data do not show the presence of an inductive loop [9]. The used circuit considers the following elements: solution resistance ($R_s$), resistance of the corrosion
product film \((R_f)\), CPE of the corrosion product film \((Q_f, \alpha_f)\), charge transfer resistance \((R_{ct})\), and CPE of the electrochemical double layer \((Q_{dl}, \alpha_{dl})\). No ideal capacitive behaviour is expected for the samples which are inhomogeneously covered with corrosion product, as such an electrode will inevitably show a distribution of relaxation times [28, 43]. Hence, all capacitors have been replaced by CPEs [28, 43]. The resulting values from the fitted impedance spectrum are summarised in Tab. 1. One process is attributed to a thin iron oxide/iron sulfide layer \((Q_f \text{ and } R_f)\). The second time constant is associated with double layer charging and discharging processes. An interpretation of the impedance values of a CPE in terms of an average capacitance depends on the nature of the time constant distribution which leads to the CPE [43].

A complex situation such as encountered in this work, it is not a priori clear if one of the limiting cases that would enable a determination of an average capacitance applies. More likely is a mix of inhomogeneities and distribution of reaction rates. Consequently, the two limiting cases discussed in [43], namely of a distribution of capacitances parallel to the interface, \(C_{f,||}\) and \(C_{dl,||}\), as well as perpendicular to the interface, \(C_{f,\perp}\) and \(C_{dl,\perp}\), have been considered. Results from application of Eq. 10 from [43] yield the respective \(C_{||}\), while Eq. 18 from [43] yields the \(C_{\perp}\), all included in Tab. 1. These values can be interpreted as order-of-magnitude estimates of average effective capacitances.

EIS measurements have also been carried out after anodic polarisation of iron samples. Fig. 3b shows the Bode plot obtained for a sample after the anodic polarisation. The same equivalent circuit as used for the fitting of the data before polarisation has been used, though after polarisation, the process at lower frequencies dominates the spectrum. A second process is, however, still observed as “shoulder” near the dominating process. The values obtained from the fits are summarised in Tab. 1. Typical (pseudo)capacitances in the order of \(\mu\)F to mF for the formation of iron oxides, sulfides, and both, using different methods and solutions have been reported in the literature [22, 44]. The high capacitance values in this work have been considered to originate from the pseudocapacitance of porous corrosion products formed on the metal substrate with distinctive conducting properties [44].

The low charge transfer resistance shows that the formed corrosion products do not inhibit charge transport between substrate and electrolyte, though the values are higher than expected for a good electronic conductor. While the values themselves differ before and after polarisation, they remain in the same order of magnitude, \(\sim 10^2 \ \Omega \ cm^2\). Comparing the charge transfer resistance to values for system where a certain protective layer has formed [45] shows that even the few nm thick oxide layer forming on zinc has a two order of magnitude larger charge transfer resistance. Ultrathin blocking organic coatings increase this resistance further by one to two orders of magnitude. Charge transport through the layer may proceed in pores in the layer, were the electrolyte is in direct contact with the iron base material. A second possibility is a conducting nature of the corrosion products themselves as origin for the low charge transfer resistance.
3.2. Characterisation of corrosion products

Further information on the nature of the film was obtained by means of XRD, Raman spectroscopy, SEM/EDX, and XPS. The formation of iron sulfide scales has been unambiguously confirmed by GI-XRD measurements. Fig. 4 shows a diffraction pattern. The characteristic diffraction peaks of Fe-S compounds in the pattern have been compared against the ICDD PDF-2 database. The qualitative X-ray phase analysis shows that the corrosion product contains the mineral mackinawite (tetragonal FeS, ICCD number 01-086-0389) without any further detectable crystalline impurities. Besides mackinawite, only diffraction peaks from the substrate α-Fe have been detected.

The tendency of mackinawite to spall from the surface has been found to be the main challenge collecting representative diffraction patterns. For this reason, instead of washing, the substrate has been alternately dipped in distilled water and ethanol in order to remove unwanted residuals after the end of the reaction.

The intensity of the major diffraction peak of mackinawite, the \{001\} reflection shown in the left inset in Fig. 4 can be used to compare to first approximation the amount of sulfide formed after different exposure times. The increase of the \{001\} mackinawite reflection intensities after longer reaction times points to a larger thickness of the layer. The XRD patterns also show that the obtained mackinawite possesses a high degree of preferred orientation. The patterns displayed in Fig. 4 clearly show the enhanced \{001\} diffraction peaks intensity, indicating orientation with the sheets of iron atoms in the structure lying parallel to the surface. For mackinawite synthesized under different reaction conditions, a similar preferred orientation has been reported [20]. Furthermore, a representation of the XRD pattern with logarithmically plotted ordinate axis (Fig. 4, right inset) highlights the presence of further mackinawite reflections. The presence of further peaks shows that after longer polarisation times, the preferred orientation is less pronounced than for short polarisation times. Consequently, growth time and hence distance from the base material interface affect the crystal orientation of the growing corrosion product layer.

A detailed analysis of the \{001\} diffraction peak of mackinawite shows a shift by \((0.116 \pm 0.008)°\) to higher diffraction angles comparing the samples polarised for 30 min and 240 min (Fig. 4, left inset). In the intermediate sample polarised for 120 min, the peak consists of two fractions. The shift between the samples after 30 min and 240 min polarisation corresponds to an average lattice contraction along the \(c\)-axis by 0.7%. Such a lattice contraction indicates that the mackinawite grown after higher polarisation times differs from the initial mackinawite. The observed lattice contraction is likely to be one factors leading to the poor adhesion of portions of the corrosion products to the substrate, as it shows there is an additional source of strain inside the forming corrosion products.

Typical Raman spectra of the corrosion products are presented in Fig. 5. The shown spectra have been obtained after 30 min (Fig. 5A), 120 min (Fig. 5B), and 240 min (Fig. 5C) of anodic polarisation, respectively, indicating that the same compound is forming all along the corrosion process. The spectra are characteristic of the various spectra obtained via the analysis of different spots of the surface and show a good agreement.
to the spectra of the mineral mackinawite as found in the nature (Hitura, Finland; dashed line in Fig. 5) [46]. An overview over Raman bands reported in the literature and their respective assignments is given in Tab. 2. Bands have been detected at 218 cm$^{-1}$ and 280 cm$^{-1}$, in the same range as Raman bands reported in the literature for amorphous FeS in anoxic sediments [47]. The main mode described in the literature is found to be in the same frequency region as in this study [48], see also Tab. 2. Furthermore, the discussed Raman bands cannot be attributed to the presence of FeCO$_3$ [49], FeS$_2$ [50] or any well described iron oxide/oxyhydroxide [51–53]. The exposure of the corrosion product to laser light for up to 60 min did not show any indications for transformation of the compound, as has been observed for a number of iron oxides [51]. However, slight decrease of the Raman intensity of the most pronounced bands at 218 cm$^{-1}$ and 280 cm$^{-1}$ has been observed, a possible consequence of the defocusing of the laser during the measurements.

In Fig. 6, representative SEM micrographs for the anodically polarised iron sample in acidic H$_2$S environment are shown. Fig. 6A shows a layer with cracks, illustrating the above-mentioned loose and brittle character of the sulfide layer. EDX analysis reveals partial oxidation of the corrosion product surface after transfer through air, which is considered to be a consequence of the high reactivity of the corrosion product, as reported in the literature [54, 55]. A detailed view of the surface is given in Fig. 6B. The size of the particles observed on the surface is found to be $\leq$1 µm.

Cross-sections of the iron covered by sulfide layers have been prepared by ion milling. The corresponding SEM image is presented in Fig. 7. This image shows the presence of two different layers on top of the iron substrate. One layer appears tightly bound to the iron surface, while between the inner and the outer part of the layer, a gap is clearly visible. Semiquantitative EDX analysis shows that the inner layer contains both oxygen and sulfur in an atomic ratio of $\approx$ 2 : 1. This thin, inner layer will be termed “oxide-rich” film or scale and is formed most likely during the initial stages of exposure to the H$_2$S saturated electrolyte. The second layer contains oxygen and sulfur as well. The detected atomic ratio of oxygen to sulfur is 1:1.5, pointing to a higher amount of sulfide compounds in the upper layer. To obtain such layers, the product of the anodic reaction, the Fe$^{2+}$ ions, react with the dissolved sulfide, either directly in their state of formation, or after dissolution as fully hydrated species. The reaction product is the black mackinawite scale. The SEM micrograph recorded here suggests that the breaking of the mackinawite corrosion products from the iron surface does not occur directly at the metal, but rather between the oxide-rich and the sulfide-rich part of the layer. The partial spallation of the outer layer observed in micrograph does, however, agree with the poor adhesion of the corrosion products on a macroscopic scale.

Surfaces with corrosion products have been analysed using XPS sputter depth profiling. Oxygen, sulfur and iron are present in the corrosion product layer. Carbon is present in low levels as a ubiquitous contaminant. Within the layer, the iron content is approximately constant at $\approx$50 %. Fig. 8 shows the atomic ratio of oxygen to sulfur at different sputtering depths. Directly at the surface, a large oxygen content is observed, as a consequence of the sample transfer through air and subsequent oxidation. In the second to
fourth sputtering step onwards, sulfur is dominating over oxygen. However, from the fifth sputtering step, the layers contain more oxygen than sulfur. The oxygen content even increases with increasing sputtering depth. This increase and also the large oxygen fractions observed indicate that the oxygen observed near the interface to the base material is not originating from the sample transfer, but is genuinely present in the layer.

Fig. 9 depicts high resolution scans of the O 1s, S 2p, Fe 2p energy regions after different sputtering times, probing different regions of the corrosion product layer. The O 1s spectrum has been best fitted with two components, assigned to oxide (O$^{2-}$, 529.7 eV) and hydroxide (OH$^-$, 530.6 eV). The ratio between those two changes only slightly throughout the layer. Inner regions contain $\approx$60% oxidic O, close to the surface the fraction of oxidic O is $\approx$50%, i.e. slightly lower. Oxygen is still observed after long sputtering times, after which sulfur has already been completely removed, but with a decreased intensity. The species found in the S 2p spectrum have been fitted with doublets due to the spin-orbit splitting (S 2p$^{3/2}$ and S 2p$^{1/2}$, with energy separation of 1.1 eV and intensity ratio 1:2) [56]. Two such doublets are needed to describe the spectra sufficiently, the major component ($\approx$3/4) with S 2p$^{3/2}$ at 161 eV and the minor component with S 2p$^{1/2}$ at 161.9 eV. The major component is assigned to monosulfide species, S$^{2-}$, as expected for mackinawite [57, 58]. The minor component is assigned to oligosulfides, e.g. S$_2^{2-}$ [56, 59].

More complicated to understand is the Fe 2p spectrum. Systematic literature data is available for the exact peak positions in iron oxides and for pure iron [60, 61]. Quantitative analysis is complicated because of a shoulder already found in pure metallic iron and because of satellites which occur in different spin states and oxidation states [61]. Here, the Fe 2p$^{3/2}$ peak shall mainly be discussed, because more literature is available for this part of the spectrum compared to the Fe 2p$^{1/2}$ peak. Interpretation can be at best semiquantitative, because of complications in peak fitting on a baseline with a steep slope, and because of differences in the literature concerning exact peak positions (see Tab. 3). The simplest of the Fe 2p$^{3/2}$ spectra is the spectrum after long sputtering times, deep inside the layer. Three components centred at 706.3, 706.8 and 709.3 eV are needed to model the spectra. The first two components are assigned to metallic iron [61]. As also oxygen is observed in the same spectrum, the component at 709.3 eV must belong to a residual Fe$^{II}$ oxide/hydroxide. No satellites are observed after sputtering deep into the material. The Fe 2p$^{3/2}$ spectrum at intermediate sputtering times in the centre of the layer contains 5 components centred at 706.4 ($\approx$15%), 707.0 (<5%), 707.2 ($\approx$50%), 709.3 ($\approx$20%) and 711.4 eV ($\approx$10%). With the deeper measurements and literature data, the first two components can be assigned to metallic iron, and the component at 709.3 eV is again the oxidic Fe$^{II}$. In good agreement with literature (Tab. 3), the component at 711.4 eV can be assigned to oxidic Fe$^{III}$. As sulfur is present in this region, the main component at 707.2 eV must be assigned to sulfidic Fe$^{II}$, again in good agreement with literature (Tab. 3). As mackinawite FeS and pyrite FeS$_2$ have very similar peak positions, both sulfide species are likely to contribute to this peak. Finally, the spectrum after short sputtering, i.e. on top of the layer, where sulfide is dominating over oxygen (Fig. 8), contains
components centred at 706.7 (≈10%), 708.2 (≈35%), 709.9 (≈40%) and 712.4 eV (≈15%), and in addition
the typical high spin Fe$^{II}$ satellite at 715.5 eV. The component at 712.4 eV can straightforwardly be assigned
to oxidic Fe$^{III}$. Based on literature and the deep sputtering experiments, the component at 706.7 eV must be
assigned to Fe$^{0}$, though the detection of metallic Fe from base material on top of a thick corrosion product
layer is rather unexpected. The remaining, dominating components must again be sulfidic Fe$^{II}$ (708.2 eV)
and oxidic Fe$^{III}$ (709.9 eV). When comparing peak area ratios, one must remember that during sputtering,
Fe$^{III}$ may be reduced. Finally, it must be mentioned here that extensive sputtering as performed here leads
to surface roughening and inhomogeneous removal of surface components, which affects the ratios observed
here, and explains e.g. the detection of oxygen even after long sputtering times.

Optical transmission measurements in the mid and far IR have been used to obtain more detailed
information about the electronic structure of the electrochemically synthetized FeS. The black colour of the
corrosion product is a clear indication that it is not a high band gap insulator, as light over the complete
visible spectral range is absorbed. The infrared spectrum of the investigated corrosion products, shown in
Fig. 10 in the range of 4000 - 50 cm$^{-1}$ (0.68 - 0.006 eV) shows high, structureless absorption throughout the
complete spectral range. In particular, no vibrational modes are visible, which is characteristic of a strong
absorption from electronic transitions. Consequently, the corrosion products investigated here do not have
a band gap above the thermal energy at room temperature, which corresponds to 25.6 meV. The corrosion
products are hence metallic, semimetallic, or semiconducting with an extremely low band gap.

In this series, one experiment has been conducted exposing iron under conditions of free corrosion for
48 h to an H$_2$S saturated electrolyte. An SEM micrograph after this exposure is shown in Fig. 11. EDX
measurements on several points and subsequent averaging of the results yields a composition of of ≈45
atom% Fe, ≈35 atom% S and ≈20 atom% O. Significant levels of oxygen are hence also observed in the
corrosion product layer under conditions of free corrosion.

3.3. Discussion of the nature of corrosion products

The optical absorption spectrum recorded here is typical for a system without band gap, or at least with
band gap below thermal energy. (For simplicity, we will refer to them as “metallic” in the course of the
discussion.) This result is in agreement with results of the electrochemical experiments: the anodic branch
of the linear polarisation experiments does not show formation of a protective layer (though layer formation
clearly takes place), and the charge transfer resistance determined by EIS is low. Indeed, several studies
have shown that FeS films behave as metallic conductors [5, 62]. Computational studies of mackinawite also
indicate a metallic behaviour for at least one spin channel [63–66]. On the other hand, absence of metallic
conductivity of mackinawite has been reported [67]. Nevertheless, systems which are iron-poor, e.g. Fe$_7$S$_8$,
are metallic, because of the mixed valence states of iron in these systems [68]. The metallic nature of the
corrosion products observed here may therefore be caused by the presence of Fe$^{III}$ in the corrosion product,
which is indeed detected by XPS. XPS measurements also show a peculiar position of the Fe 2p$_{3/2}$ peaks, which is \( \approx 2 \) eV lower in sulfidic compared to oxidic compounds. This shift is in complete agreement with available literature (Tab. 3). In a naive interpretation, the Fe 2p$_{3/2}$ peak in sulfidic Fe$^{11}$ is located where an Fe$^{1}$ peak is to be expected, pointing to larger electron density near the iron atom, which may be caused by the metallic nature of the sulfide. For a full quantitative interpretation of the XPS, however, experiments with clean sulfidic model compounds and ab initio calculations are required. While for XPS and optical absorption measurements, oxidation may have happened in the post-preparation phase, the electrochemical results were obtained under conditions of formation of the corrosion products. It is therefore concluded that corrosion products are metallic in the state of formation as well. However, this result does not contradict the statement that stoichiometric mackinawite single crystals, as used e.g. for diffraction studies elsewhere [67], are semiconducting.

Analysing the chemical composition of the corrosion products, oxygen has been detected in EDX and XPS, i.e. in post-preparation analyses. The reaction vessel and solution have been de-aerated prior to the electro-chemical reactions. During the reactions, the solutions remained clear, indicating the absence of colloidal sulfur, which would be a sign of O$_2$ presence in the solution [27]. Furthermore, a post-preparation oxidation at the level observed here can be excluded as the major source of oxygen. While indeed after transfer through air, surface oxidation of the FeS is observed by XPS, the observation of an oxide-rich inner layer cannot be accounted for by this phenomenon. However, electrochemical oxide formation is in principle possible under the conditions used in this work, as will be discussed below.

During anodic polarisation, iron dissolution (reaction 3) will be enhanced. Dissolved Fe$^{2+}$ may form FeS according to reaction 2. The alternative, direct formation of FeS according to reaction 5 should follow the same thermodynamic rules, as initial reactants and final product are the same. The competing reaction is oxide/hydroxide formation, according to reactions 6 and 7.

Full thermodynamic analyses of the reactions have been conducted elsewhere, including an assessment of the data available on the second dissociation constant of H$_2$S [34, 69, 70]. Without going into detail, an at-a-glance principle analysis is carried out using the program MEDUSA to calculate chemical equilibrium diagrams, with its default HYDRA database of equilibrium constants [30]. This analysis is carried out with the understanding that according to the current knowledge about nucleation of a new phase, a thermodynamic driving force is required for nucleation to occur [71]. Results are presented in Fig. 12. Four different scenarios regarding total sulfide and iron concentration in solution were investigated. The saturation concentration of H$_2$S in aqueous solution corresponds to a total sulfide concentration of \( \approx 100 \) mM, defining the upper limit of the total sulfide concentration [69, 70]. The concentration of iron ions is rather-ill defined, however, is expected to reach rather high values near the iron/electrolyte interface. As an example, a total Fe$^{2+}$ concentration of 1 M is used in Fig. 12c. This case, which is expected to describe the situation at the interface fairly, shows FeS as dominant phase above a certain electrode potential under slightly to medium
acidic conditions, while Fe(OH)$_2$ and Fe$_3$O$_4$ dominate around neutral and alkaline pH. Decreasing the Fe$^{2+}$ concentration, as shown for the case of 1 mM concentration in Fig. 12a, leads to the complete absence of stable oxidic phases. Such a situation should occur in regions further away from the iron interface, to where Fe$^{2+}$ ions need to be transported. Keeping the Fe$^{2+}$ concentration high and lowering the sulfide concentration (Fig. 12d) limits the stability of FeS towards lower pH - this situation is expected after sulfide depletion in solution through precipitation near the interface under constant iron dissolution. Having both low Fe$^{2+}$ and sulfide concentrations (Fig. 12b) again removes the region of oxidic predominance, and limits FeS stability towards lower pH.

Overall, this leads to the following qualitative picture. During iron dissolution, local Fe$^{2+}$ concentrations near the interface become so high, that both FeS and an oxidic component, presumably initially Fe(OH)$_2$ can precipitate; solvated Fe$^{2+}$ present already the precursor of oxide/hydroxide formation. Due to the lower concentration of Fe$^{2+}$ in regions further away from the iron/solution interface, pure FeS precipitates on the outside. Depletion of sulfide near the interface limits the total thickness. Quantitative statements are beyond the scope of this work. It is worth noting that the equilibrium constant for the reaction

$$\text{Fe}^{2+} + \text{HS}^- \rightarrow \text{FeS} + \text{H}^+$$

(8)

used in the HYDRA database is one order of magnitude higher than currently used best estimates [69, 70, 72]. Replacing the implemented equilibrium constant with the one from [72] leads to a replacement of the initially crystalline FeS with amorphous FeS. Quantitative statements hence strongly depend on the validity of the employed thermodynamic data.

The mackinawite FeS observed here and frequently observed in multiple works is, however, metastable with respect to other polymorphs [73]. Furthermore, mackinawite is generally stated to be non-stochiometric with a 10% excess of Fe [74], making the classical concept of solubility constants only an approximation.

4. Conclusions

Anodic polarisation on iron in de-aerated H$_2$S saturated acetic saline solutions leads to the growth of an oxide-rich, metallic or semimetallic corrosion product with the tetragonal FeS modification mackinawite as the only crystalline component. The mackinawite grows with the 001 direction perpendicular to the base material surface. The corrosion products form a duplex layer, where the inner part, which is close to the iron surface, is oxide-rich, while the outer layer is oxide poor. The formation of the oxide-rich inner layer can be explained by large concentration of Fe$^{2+}$ near the interface during dissolution, and the consequent supersaturation for oxide and sulfide. Analysis of cross sections prepared by ion milling indicates that adhesion is poor between the inner, oxide-rich and outer, oxide-poor layer. Diffraction shows that the distance between layers in mackinawite is slightly lower for the mackinawite formed in later stages.
of the polarisation experiments; the difference may therefore be the difference between oxide-rich and oxide-
poor mackinawite, and contribute to strain which leads to deadhesion. Such a result extends the previous
interpretation stating that adhesion between inner mackinawite layer and outer parts consisting of other
sulfide phases is poor [8]. As XRD shows no crystalline oxide-containing compound, amorphous fractions,
or strongly disordered regions, must be present in the corrosion products. These amorphous regions are
expected to contribute to the Raman spectra, however, due to lack of availability of a normal mode analysis
for mackinawite, the interpretation of these spectra is still challenging.

Oxide-containing corrosion products also have been found under conditions of free corrosion, which
is treated as a sign that an anodic dissolution of iron is part of the ongoing reaction, because a direct
heterogeneous reaction between iron and the electrolyte would not result in increasing amounts of oxide.

In contrast to the formation of frequently insulating oxides, a metallic corrosion product does not essen-
tially slow down electron transfer reactions, hence does not protect the base material in the same fashion as
an insulating corrosion product. Thorough understanding of corrosion processes in H₂S-containing media
hence require the analysis of the electrochemical properties of the mackinawite-containing corrosion product.

5. Acknowledgements

G.G. and A.E. thank Salzgitter Mannesmann Forschung GmbH, Duisburg, for funding this collabora-
tive research project. MPIE workshop is acknowledged for building the electrochemical cell. The authors
thank P. Schneider for assistance with the setup, F.U. Renner and M. Todorova for helpful discussions.
Prof. M. Stratmann is acknowledged for his continuous support.

References

sion Cracking in H$_2$S Environments, NACE International, Houston, TX, USA, 2005.


[41] A. Bonnel, F. Dabosi, C. Deslouis, M. Duprat, M. Keddam, B. Tribollet, Corrosion study of a carbon steel in neutral


Figure 1: Tafel plots extracted from linear sweep polarisation experiments, showing the negative shift of the $E_{\text{corr}}$ after saturation of the electrolyte with $\text{H}_2\text{S}$. Inset: Overlay representation of the Tafel-Plots, presented as difference to corrosion potential. An increase in current density while polarising in $\text{H}_2\text{S}$ saturated solutions has been observed in both cathodic and anodic branches.
Figure 2: □ Current densities during polarisation at 200 mV above initial $E_{\text{corr}}$, averaged at certain polarisation times (scale on the left). ● Measured average pH of the overall mixed solution after polarisation at 200 mV above initial $E_{\text{corr}}$ (scale on the right). - - - pH at the start of the experiments.
Figure 3: Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy. a: Bode plot recorded at initial $E_{corr}$ for the iron sample before anodic polarisation, immersed in H$_2$S saturated electrolyte for 5 min (□, measured and —, fitted curve). b: Bode plot of iron sample after 120 min of anodic polarisation at 200 mV above $E_{corr}$ (□, measured and —, fitted curve) Inset: equivalent circuit to fit both datasets. All capacitors have been substituted by CPEs. Used elements: solution resistance ($R_s$), resistance of the corrosion product film ($R_f$), CPE of the film ($Q_f$), charge transfer resistance of the electrochemical double layer ($R_{ct}$), and CPE of the electrochemical double layer ($Q_{dl}$). Parameters for the fit are displayed in Tab. 1.
Figure 4: GI-XRD patterns of the product scales obtained by anodic polarisation of iron 200 mV above the initial $E_{\text{corr}}$ for (A) 0 min, (B) 30 min, (C) 120 min, and (D) 240 min. The reflections at 44.5° and 65° have been assigned to the substrate material α-Fe. Left inset: enlarged view of the major {001} diffraction peak of mackinawite at 17.5°. Right inset: GI-XRD pattern for sample after 240 min of anodic polarisation with logarithmic intensity scale, highlighting peaks with low intensity.
Figure 5: Raman spectra of the product scales obtained after exposing pure iron to H₂S-saturated electrolyte for (A) 30 min, (B) 120 min, and (C) 240 min. The dashed line at the bottom of the figure represents the Raman spectrum of mackinawite from the RRUFF database (ID: R060388) [46].
Figure 6: SEM micrographs of a sulfide layer grown after polarisation for 120 min at 200 mV above $E_{corr}$. (A) ETH = 10 kV, Magnification = 1500×; (B) ETH = 10 kV, Magnification = 20000×.
Figure 7: SEM micrograph of the cross-section of electrochemically formed sulfide film on top of pure iron substrate. ETH = 10 kV, Magnification = 5000×.
Figure 8: Atomic ratio of oxygen to sulfur obtained from an XPS sputter depth profile.
Figure 9: High resolution XP spectra after different sputtering times, in the Fe 2p, O 1s and S 2p regions. Solid lines represent the measured data, dashed lines the individual peaks used for fitting, and dotted lines the fits.
Figure 10: ATR-IR absorption spectrum of electrochemically synthesized iron sulfide measured through a Si hemisphere from the far-IR to the mid-IR region. Two regions (450-630 cm$^{-1}$ and 710-960 cm$^{-1}$) in which absorption from the Si and the detector efficiency limit the total intensity have been excluded. The dashed line at an energy of 25.6 meV corresponds to the thermal energy at room temperature.
Figure 11: SEM micrograph of sample exposed for 48 h to H$_2$S saturated electrolyte.
Figure 12: Predominance potential pH diagrams for the Fe/H$_2$S system in the presence of aqueous 1.5 M Cl$^-$ obtained using MEDUSA [30]. The total concentration of sulfide ions and Fe ions are indicated above the respective graph. The species labelled (FeCl$^+$)$^*$ are in a region where S$_2^{2-}$ can be oxidised. The intermediate oxidation states before sulfate (e.g. polysulfides, thiosulfate) were not included in the analysis, but are likely to be present in this region.
Table 1: Results of the fits to EIS data before and after anodic polarisation (Fig. 3). The equivalent circuit is given as inset in Fig. 3. Values in brackets indicate the single standard deviation in the last significant digit, as obtained from the fit of data from a single sample. Limiting equations from [43] have been used to calculate effective capacitance values from the CPE data for two different cases, see text.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>sample</th>
<th>$R_s/\Omega \text{ cm}^2$</th>
<th>$R_f/\Omega \text{ cm}^2$</th>
<th>$Q_f$ $Y_0/\Omega^{-1}\text{cm}^{-2}s^{-\alpha}$</th>
<th>$R_{ct}/\Omega \text{ cm}^2$</th>
<th>$Q_{dl}$ $Y_0/\Omega^{-1}\text{cm}^{-2}s^{-\alpha}$</th>
<th>$\alpha$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>before</td>
<td>16.1(3)</td>
<td>19(4)</td>
<td>1.5(7) $\times 10^{-3}$</td>
<td>0.83(6)</td>
<td>230(7)</td>
<td>0.75(2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>after</td>
<td>14.9(1)</td>
<td>25(20)</td>
<td>5(2) $\times 10^{-3}$</td>
<td>0.93(1)</td>
<td>470(20)</td>
<td>0.92(11)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>$C_{f,\parallel}/F \text{ cm}^{-2}$</th>
<th>$C_{f,\perp}/F \text{ cm}^{-2}$</th>
<th>$C_{dl,\parallel}/F \text{ cm}^{-2}$</th>
<th>$C_{dl,\perp}/F \text{ cm}^{-2}$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>before</td>
<td>$3.8 \times 10^{-9}$</td>
<td>$4.5 \times 10^{-9}$</td>
<td>$1.7 \times 10^{-4}$</td>
<td>$4.3 \times 10^{-4}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>after</td>
<td>$4 \times 10^{-3}$</td>
<td>$4 \times 10^{-3}$</td>
<td>$3 \times 10^{-3}$</td>
<td>$4 \times 10^{-3}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2: Reported Raman peak positions for mackinawite and other relevant iron sulfur-containing phases.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compound and composition</th>
<th>Position / cm&lt;sup&gt;−1&lt;/sup&gt;</th>
<th>Ref.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nanocryst. mackinawite, FeS</td>
<td>207, 283</td>
<td>[75]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nanocryst. mackinawite, FeS</td>
<td>208, 283</td>
<td>[76]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amorph. mackinawite, “FeS”</td>
<td>214, 282</td>
<td>[47]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mackinawite, FeS</td>
<td>208, 282</td>
<td>[35]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mackinawite, FeS</td>
<td>254, 302, 362</td>
<td>[77]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mackinawite, FeS</td>
<td>218, 281, 395</td>
<td>here</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sulfur, S&lt;sub&gt;8&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>153, 219, 472</td>
<td>[78]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Troilite, FeS</td>
<td>160, 290, 335</td>
<td>[79]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pyrite, FeS&lt;sub&gt;2&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>343, 376</td>
<td>[50]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3: Comparison of binding energies reported for Fe 2p$_{3/2}$ peaks in selected compounds in the literature.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BE / eV</th>
<th>Chemical species</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>706.7</td>
<td>Fe$^0$</td>
<td>[61]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>707.1</td>
<td>Fe$^{II}$-S; pyrite, FeS$_2$</td>
<td>[80]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>707.2</td>
<td>Fe$^{II}$-S; mackinawite, tetragonal FeS</td>
<td>[58]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>707.2</td>
<td>Fe$^{II}$-S; pyrite, FeS$_2$</td>
<td>[81]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>707.3</td>
<td>Fe$^{II}$-S; mackinawite, tetragonal FeS</td>
<td>[82]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>709.0</td>
<td>Fe$^{II}$-O; Fe$_2$SiO$_4$</td>
<td>[60]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>710.0</td>
<td>Fe$^{II}$-S; troilite, hexagonal FeS</td>
<td>[58, 83]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>711.0</td>
<td>Fe$^{III}$-O</td>
<td>[60, 84]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>