

May 2012

The Weathering of Platinum from Nuggets and Platinum Immobilisation by *Cupriavidus* *metallidurans*

Sean Gordon Campbell
The University of Western Ontario

Supervisor
Dr. Gordon Southam
The University of Western Ontario

Graduate Program in Geology

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree in Master of Science

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THE WEATHERING OF PLATINUM FROM NUGGETS AND P
IMMOBILISATION BY AVIDUS METALLIDURANS

(Spine title: WEATHERING AND IMMOBILISATION OF PLATINUM)

(Thesis format: Integrated Article)

by

Sean Gordon Campbell

Graduate Program in ~~Deep Earth~~ Earth Sciences

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Science

The School of Graduate and Postdoctoral Studies
The University of Western Ontario
London, Ontario, Canada

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THE UNIVERSITY OF WESTERN ONTARIO
School of Graduate and Postdoctoral Studies

CERTIFICATE OF EXAMINATION

Supervisor

Examiners

Dr. Gordon Southam

Dr. Norman Duke

Dr. Desmond Moser

Dr. Richard Gardiner

The thesis by

Sean Gordon Campbell

entitled:

The Weathering of Platinum from Nuggets and P
Immobilisation by *Cupriavidus metallidurans*

is accepted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of
Master of Science

Date

Chair of the Thesis Examination Board

Abstract

Two studies were conducted to investigate the biogeochemistry of the first project. The first project was examined to evaluate mine precipitation processes occurring at the mine-grain interface. The precipitation pits and acicular, iron oxide grain surface evidence that this interface is an important site for chemical weathering. Element mapping revealed that structures can be linked to morphological features on the grain surface. In the second study, soil bacteria were reacted with aqueous platinum and rapidly immobilised platinum. XANES/EXAFS analysis demonstrated that platinum is reduced to the bacteria and platinum from chloride to carboxyl functional groups. This was revealed to precipitate colloidal platinum. Both of these studies highlight the importance of natural platinum compounds in natural systems.

Keywords: platinum, surficial weathering, Fifield Platinum Project, *Cupriavidus metallidurans*, secondary mineralisation

CoAuthorship Statement

Chapter 2, entitled Surface weathering of platinum grains, S.G Campbell, R. Gordon and E. Seitzman has been prepared as a manuscript for submission for publication. Campbell performed microscopy and analyses, drafted and prepared the figures provided technical support at Argonne National Laboratory platinum grains and Reith and Southam provided the funding and advised on all aspects of this study.

Chapter 3, entitled Immobilisation of particulates by alliduran was authored by S.G. Campbell, L. Maclean, D. Brewster, F. has been prepared as a manuscript for publication. Campbell designed the experiments, microscopy and analysed the manuscript and prepared the tables and figures. Maclean provided synchrotron data, Brewster provided technical support at Argonne and Reith and Southam provided support this research and advised on all aspects of this study.

Acknowledgments

No man is an island a thesis one man. I have to admit, I
words & I hope I didn't miss anyone, but in case I did, that

There are many people who make a thesis come to fruition.
financial, motivational and emotional support make it possible
happen in every way possible. You're simply wonderful! My
been a great supporter especially my pal Tommy Campbell. Thank you
much. Dr. Southam, thank you for believing in me, a scientist
just two years ago. You have the uncanny knack for turning
way of inspiring things. And to you lablings & Jer, Jenine,
Bird, Andrea, Nahed, Alex and Jie, I wish you the best
friendship and support. I would be remiss if I didn't mention
Maclean, and our PhD Melon, who provided instrumental support

There are many people who have made me the scientist
to Dr. Stephen Altaner. If I hadn't sat in his class a decade ago
a geologist. A special thank you to my family and friends
especially to my Grandpa Havlena who taught me to love the
me wonder as a boy. I owe my formal geology education to
Gordon Southam, Stephen Altaner, Duke Ferrel, Wally Mackenzie, and

¹Donne, J. in Meditation XVII.

Cam Tsujita and Burns Cheadle. You have all provided and nurtured my enthusiasm.

I would also like to thank my defence committee and Moser, Richard Gardinore, Robert S. H. N. and the ZEPLOtron and the beamline scientists at the Advanced Photon Source Laboratory have helped make this all happen.

I would like to thank a number of groups for funding Ontario Graduate Scholarship and the Department of Earth Science

| | |
|--|----|
| 2.3 Results and Discussion | 28 |
| References | 36 |
| Chapter 3 Mobilisation of Capnium by metallidurans | |
| 3.1 Introduction | 39 |
| 3.2. Materials and Methods | 42 |
| 3.3. Results | 51 |
| 3.4. Discussion | 67 |
| References | 72 |
| Chapter 4 Conclusions | 77 |
| References | 82 |
| Appendix to Chapter 2 | 85 |
| References | 88 |
| Curriculum | 89 |

List of figures

Chapter 2. Surficial weathering of platinum grains

- 2.1. SEM micrographs of the surface of a platinum grain
- 2.2. SEM micrographs, EDS and XANES spectra of surficial weathering features on the surface of a platinum grain
- 2.3. SEM micrographs, EDS spectra and element mapping of surficial weathering features on the surface of a platinum grain

Chapter 3. Immobilisation of platinum by metalliferous microorganisms

- 3.1. TEM micrographs of platinum particles
- 3.2. TEM micrographs of platinum particles exposed to 500 μM ($100 \mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) of Pt
- 3.3. TEM micrographs of platinum particles exposed to 500 μM ($100 \mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) of Pt
- 3.4. Ultrathin section TEM micrographs of platinum particles exposed to 500 μM ($100 \mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) of Pt
- 3.5. TEM micrographs of platinum particles exposed to 500 μM ($100 \mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) of Pt
- 3.6. TEM micrographs of platinum particles exposed to 5000 μM ($1000 \mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) of Pt
- 3.7. XANES spectra of bacteria exposed to 5000 μM ($1000 \mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) of Pt
- 3.8. XANES/EXAFS spectra of bacteria exposed to 5000 μM ($1000 \mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) of Pt
- 3.9. EXAFS spectra of bacteria exposed to 5000 μM ($1000 \mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) of Pt

List of Abbreviations

| | |
|-----------|--|
| °C | Celsius |
| µg | Microgram |
| µL | Microlitre |
| µm | Micron or micrometre |
| µM | Micromolar |
| µXRD | Micro-X-ray Diffraction |
| aq | Aqueous |
| ATP | Adenosine triphosphate |
| CFU | Colony forming unit |
| DDI water | Distilled-deionised water |
| EDS | Energy dispersive spectroscopy |
| EMS | Electron Microscopy Sciences |
| eV | Electron volt |
| EXAFS | Extended X-ray Absorption Fine Structure |
| FEG | Field emission gun |
| hr | Hour |
| ICP-AES | Inductively coupled plasma emission spectroscopy |
| keV | Kiloelectron volt |
| km | Kilometre |
| L | Litre |
| M | Molarity |
| mg | Milligram |

| | |
|-------|--------------------------------------|
| min | Minutes |
| mL | Millilitre |
| mm | Millimetre |
| mM | Millimolar |
| nm | Nanometre |
| g | Gram |
| PGE | Platinum group element |
| PGM | Platinum group mineral |
| pH | $-\log[H^+]$ |
| ppb | Parts per billion |
| ppm | Parts per million |
| SEM | Scanning electron microscope |
| SRB | Sulphate-reducing bacteria |
| t | Time |
| TEM | Transmission electron microscope |
| XANES | X-ray Absorption Near Edge Structure |
| XAS | X-ray Absorption Spectroscopy |

Chapter 1

Introduction

Platinum, one of the six platinum group elements (PGEs) along with rhodium, ruthenium, iridium, palladium, and rhenium, has become highly sought after because of its physical and chemical properties (Macdonald 1991, 1987; Nixson and Hammack 1991). Platinum is resistant to oxidation and corrosion and it is used in a wide range of chemical and industrial processes (Macdonald 1991). Platinum is also used in the treatment of cancer (Auerbach 2005). The price of this metal has increased over time because the supply is limited and the demand is increasing. Platinum is among the rarest elements in the lithosphere, with a concentration of only 5 ppb (parts per billion) on average (Mungall and Wood 2008). It has been estimated that there are about 10 million tonnes of platinum in the world's crust (Maier 2005).

1.1 Platinum enrichment in the crust

Platinum is enriched in the crust through a variety of processes (Macdonald 1991). The most important process is the enrichment of platinum in the melt during the differentiation of the mantle (Nixson and Hammack 1991). The genesis of platinum in ultramafic complexes is still unclear (Maier 2005).

primary deposits that are inextricably tied to sulphur chemistry and the processes that transport platinum and other metals from the mantle to the crust (Macdonald 1987; Mungall 2005; Naldrett 2008).

Platinum is deposited when sulphur concentration exceeds the available platinum from the silicate melt (Macdonald 2005; Naldrett 2008). During a metallogenic event, the sulphur ascends from the mantle where it becomes trapped. Once sulphur saturation in the magma occurs and an immiscible sulphur phase accumulates at the bottom of the magma chamber, highly chalcophile platinum is incorporated into the sulphur phase (Macdonald 2005; Mungall and Naldrett 2008; Kretz 2008). Platinum sulphide is a common product of magmatic processes often forming platinum-bearing reefs within large mafic intrusions (Macdonald 2005). Although poorly understood, normal brines can cause redistribution of PGE (Mungall and Naldrett 2008).

Alluvial PGE placens were deposited in zoned mafic-ultramafic "A-type" (and to a lesser extent "B-type") primary magmatic intrusions that were formed by processes above the mantle (Macdonald 1987; Nixon and Hamilton 2005; Kretz et al. 2010). A-type complexes intrude into continental and oceanic island arc environments and are associated with the formation of the Hamack; TDS (Kretz et al. 2005).

1.2. Platinum placer deposit formation

An important source of platinum is the Bushveld Complex in South Africa (Bassett, 2005). There are several types of alluvial placers worldwide that are major sources of platinum (Merrill, 1969). Formation of an alluvial platinum placer begins with extractions of platinum from source rocks at the surface or near the surface. Keekstra et al. (2010) describes a process where minerals from primary magmatic deposits (or primary magmatic intrusions) are dissolved in supergene and later diagenetic fluids of secondary (hydrothermal) origin. This process involves chemical and physical weathering of the primary magmatic intrusions, releasing platinumiferous minerals and complexes from the source deposits. These are then transported into streams where they are concentrated, deposited and transported by gravitational sorting. In some cases, platinum-bearing material is winnowed and lighter mineral fractions are preferentially eroded. Alluvial platinum is primarily derived from primary sources. Other types of magmatic intrusions that produce platinum minerals have been documented in igneous rocks of the Bushveld Complex, the world's largest reserve of platinum (Merrill, 2005).

1.3 Platinum in supergene systems

In alluvial placers and other surficial weathering profiles, the conditions for platinum mobilization can be removed from exposed primary magmatic intrusions and secondary

enrichment (Bowers 1986; Bowers et al. 2001; Hanley 2005). Supergene enrichment and laterization are processes that occur in primary ore deposits containing subeconomic sulphides (Guilbert 1986). These regions only occur in tropical and semiarid climates where high temperatures and humidity promote chemical weathering. Groundwaters above the water table are able to leach a large volume of metal and redeposit them into smaller volumes of high grade material (Guilbert 1986).

Pyrite is the most common hypogene sulphide and its oxidation leads to enrichment that takes place in the supergene state with metal sulphides (Guilbert 1986). When exposed to oxygen and iron/sulphur oxidising bacteria above the water table, pyrite forms ferric sulphate ($\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$) and ferric sulphate ($\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$) which in turn act as solvents for other sulphides, including copper, zinc, lead, and gold (Mason 1986; Guilbert 1986; Enders 2000). Ferric sulphate is reduced to ferrous sulphate during the oxidation of other metal sulphides. The oxidized metal ions will either be carried from the site of oxidation by meteoric waters or will precipitate as secondary minerals (Anderson 1982; Enders 2000). Because of its similar chemical properties, it is reasonable to think that processes responsible for the dissolution of gold are comparable for the dissolution of other metals. Iron is more easily oxidised and more soluble than gold, and is therefore more favourable for gold dissolution. However, the solubility of gold is very low (Bowers 1986; Bowers et al. 2001; Reith 2007).

Acidified and oxidised waters descend and deposit that lack the target metal. An insoluble mixture of iron sulphates including jarosite ($K_3Fe_3(OH)_6(SO_4)_2$), iron oxyhydroxides such as goethite and hematite (Fe_2O_3) are also formed during the oxidation of iron in the leach heap, giving it the characteristic appearance (Anderson 1982; Emswiler 2000; Sárnezet al 2008). As evidence of this oxidising process, iron oxyhydroxide coatings have been found on termite mounds (Augusthius 1967; 1968; 1969; 1970; 1971; 1972; 1973; 1974; 1975; 1976; 1977; 1978; 1979; 1980; 1981; 1982; 1983; 1984; 1985; 1986; 1987; 1988; 1989; 1990; 1991; 1992; 1993; 1994; 1995; 1996; 1997; 1998; 1999; 2000).

Descending surface oxidised metal below the water table where redox conditions favour reduction and precipitation mediates deposition of the ores as it readily transfers its oxygen to other metals. These metals usually have a stronger affinity for sulphur than pyrite. Much metal is lost to the atmosphere as sulphur dioxide, however, they are not reduced in the zone. The acidic waters are neutralised when they come into contact with carbonates. This process is cyclical and ongoing. Fluids are not the physical location of the ore. Oxidation of metal can form and be of economic value (Anderson, 1982; Emswiler 2000).

14. Aqueous geochemistry

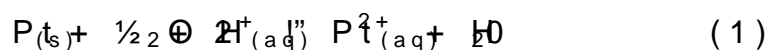
Platinum is mobile under supergene conditions (Brown 1984; 1986; Zaroc et al 2001). The platinum concentration in the leachate is 3 to 6 orders of magnitude less concentrated than in the heap leachate;

concentrations are dependent on a number of factors (Barnes 1997; Mungall and Naldrett 2008a, 2010; Kubrakov 2011). Surficial water flowing through areas with elevated elevations and/or their mine tailings, would presumably have more waters draining areas lacking platinum cementation. The solubility of platinum is also controlled by its solubility properties of an aqueous medium as well as platinum's ability to form complexes with ligands commonly found in its solution, transportation and sequestration (Barnes 1986; Coleman 2008; Kubrakov 2011). Furthermore, hydrodynamic characteristics will also influence the migration of dissolved platinum (Kubrakov 2011).

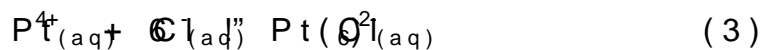
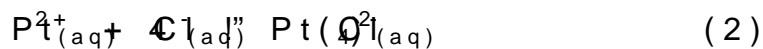
At standard surface water temperatures (25°C) and partial pressures as simple aqueous ions except at extremely high pressures, and must complex with other dissolved ligands to be stable (Wood 1988). Complexation is an important process by which platinum cations bind to one or more negatively charged anions or other complexing species, concentrations of simple metal ions in solution remain too low to form economic deposits. Platinum complexed to anions in solution, however, can be concentrated to generate profitable grades of metal (Hanley 2005).

The literature lacks reliable experimental and stability data for platinum species and complexes in natural waters (Mumtaz and Wood 1988; Coleman 2008). The predicted oxidation state for platinum

Pt^{2+} as shown in Equation 1 (Hamley 2005). In very oxidizing conditions, platinum can exist as Pt^{4+} , but Pt^{2+} is the more common aqueous species. Experimental data relating to the thermodynamic stability systems related to this particular oxidant are given by Colombé et al. (2008). Platinum forms a wide range of covalent interactions with anions such as chloride, cyanide, amine, hydroxide, sulphides and ethylthio (Moulin and Wood 1990; Vlassopoulos 1990). Complexation, however, depends on platinum's preference for various ligands; it ultimately depends on the transporting fluids and the availability of ligands in the system (Rose 1974).

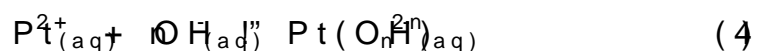


In oxidizing waters with high acidity, common chloride anions form stable complexes with Pt^{2+} (Moulin and Rose 1974; Bowles 1986; Wood 1988). These reactions are given in Equations 2 and 3 (Hamley 2005). The aqueous Pt^{2+} compounds $PtCl_2$ and $PtCl_4$ are known to exist, but $PtCl_4^{2-}$ is the predominant anion at 25°C (Moulin and Wood 2001).



In oxidizing environments with more basic (less acidic) conditions, complexation with the species PtO_2 (Colombé et al. 2008). Equation 4 shows a simplified hydration reaction (Wood 1991) which occurs in water, especially in neutral and basic waters, and platinum

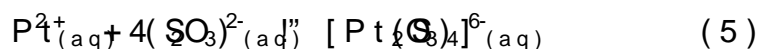
predominate in weakly acidic complexes when chloride is limiting (Mountain and Wood 1992; Azarova 2001). Aqueous hydroxide compounds, in Pt(OH)₂ and Pt(OH)₂ at pH increases, predominance of these complexes is shifted species (Mountain and Wood 1988; Wood 1991, 2001). Mixed hydroxyl complexes are considered to be unimportant for platinum mobility (Mountain and Wood 1992; Azarova 2001).



Depending on the concentration of other anions that Pt²⁺ cations, aqueous platinum carboxylic acids can mobilise platinum (Wood 1990; Hanley 2005). Humic substances are components of normally found and water-soluble functional groups in humic acids abundant oxygenated and dissolved in neutral carboxylic acids become negatively charged and react with platinum to form platinum organo complexes (Wood 1990; Hanley 2005; Kubratova 2011). Humic substances have been shown to increase the stability of Pt(OH)₂ (Wood 1990; Hanley 2005). Despite the fact that they form stable complexes with platinum, they are not abundant in natural waters, their solubility with platinum is insufficient by hydroxides (Furukawa and Wood 1988; Hanley 2005).

Bisulphide would be expected a significant portion of platinum complexes in sulphidic environments, however platinum is not mobile when conditions are favourable for bisulphide formation (Mountain and Wood 1992). There are, however, metastable bisulphide complexes that

form oxides and acid sulphate environments (Anthony and Williams 1994). Thiosulphate appears to be important during the weathering of sulphide ores as well as the formation of platinum sulphates in alluvial sediments within the Bushveld complex and adjacent areas (Anthony and Williams 1994; Mellor 1995). Equation 5 depicts the reaction (Anthony and Williams 1994).



These aqueous platinum complexes are stable in acidic solutions but when the solution encounters an environment that favours chemical precipitation. Subsequent deposition of platinum occurs (Wood 1990). Chemical transformation involves the formation of a metastable dissolved platinum complex, which is transformed to a platinum hydroxide precipitate in acidic, neutral, or basic lakes, rivers or ground water (Wood 1990). In a humic acid-rich aqueous system, an organic matter protected platinum complex is formed (Wood 1990; Wood 1992). If dissolved platinum is stable, it may be chemically reduced to elemental platinum and precipitated (Wood 1986). It is worth noting that while a number of aqueous reactions are possible, the kinetics of the reaction are generally slow, to occur unless catalysed (Wood 1990).

15. Formation of secondary platinum and platinum grains

Placer platinum is commonly associated with platinum metal and alloy platinum grains. Archaic-Jaral type complexes with weathering profiles commonly occur as platinum (Bowles 1986; Cabot 1996; Todt et al. 2005). These grains are often in deposits where no nuggets of that size are in the matrix or rock. PGE in host rocks are commonly < 5 ppm but placer grains up to several micrometers (Bowles 1986; Mall 2005). This increase in platinum nugget size from the source to the placer is evidence that platinum nuggets grow during diagenesis (Cousins and Kinloch 1976; Bowles 1990, 1996; Cabot 1996) and is thought that elemental and alloyed platinum nanoparticles grow through the continual accretion of platinum from precipitation of metal alloy Bowles (1986; Cabot 2005). As iron is freely available in the lateritic zone, platinum could form Pt-Fe alloys (Bowles 1986) but it is fair to speculate that copper and lateritic combined Pt-Fe alloys to form Pt-Fe-Cu grains in placers (Cabot et al. 1996). Primary high temperature magmatic and hydrothermal alteration, however, cannot be ruled out as a source of platinum grains (Slanket et al. 1996; Cabot et al. 1996, Telmeier et al. 2005).

Mineralogical and petrologic studies of alloys have shown accretionary zones of platinum nuggets. Tarkenton (1976) noted the presence of platinum growth halos around platinum grains as proof that this process is as proposed by Bowles (1986) and is not a

overgrowth of PGE crystal faces on older, weathered grains (2011) find that iron hydroxides in supergene environments from the iron sulphides could preferentially scavenge inorganic PGE or adsorb them to their positively charged surfaces. Mixed platinum species could be transported as colloids in the sediments.

On the other hand, some platinum alloy grains show alteration suggesting that the nuggets are "shrinking" and undergo particular grains, the periphery has experienced selective platinum. In essence, all the platinum grains are becoming enriched as they are altered and weathered (2007, Tena (2008), et al (2008) describe highly irregular and fractured shapes of supergene platinum nuggets as a result of weathering profiles.

The alteration of platinum grains, is the subject of ongoing controversy. Further characterisation of the precipitation processes occurring at the nugget solution interface needs to be undertaken. geochemical cycling of platinumiferous material in surficial

1.6 Microbiology of platinum

Changing conditions within surficial weathering con- placers or supergene/laterite deposits are important factors

promote the abiotic dissolution and precipitation of complex minerals. The role the biosphere plays in platinum mobility and its reactivity with bacteria is largely unknown. Research has been conducted to study this interaction, and any future work could date platinum biogeochemistry done in relation to other metal-bearing reaction systems.

Microbes survive in environments with high metal concentrations have the ability to either use these as a part of their metabolism or as sources of nutrition rather than as a byproduct of toxic effects (Reith et al 2009). Metal resistance is genetically encoded and involves detoxification mechanisms (Schwartz 1996; Reith et al 2009). Heavy metal ions must first be internalised. They passively diffuse down a chemiosmotic gradient of the energy molecule adenosine triphosphate (ATP) is expended during transport. Once internalised, they are necessary for normal cell activity or compete with other physiological processes (Nies 1999). Metal resistance requires that the toxic metal ions are and/or expelled from the cell. This requires that the toxic metal ions are chemically reduced and/or complexed to other ligands at the cell surface. Commonly, these products are toxic to themselves so subsequently they may still be effective. Efflux systems pump out ions at the expense of cation/proton antiporter proteins within the cell envelope against the energy gradient that exists across the membrane and pump out in protons (Silver 1996; Nies 1999).

The ability to metabolise metallic compounds allows participate in a number of reactions in a number of environments to catalyze reactions (Singer and Stumm 1970; 2006) Acidithiobacillus, thiooxidans, oxidising and Acidithiobacillus ferriferus iron and sulphate have been shown to contribute to the formation of acid mine drainage by generating oxidising pyrite faster than the abiotic rate (Singer and Suzuki 1989; Neal 2006). Symbiotic, chemolithoautotrophic bacteria have contributed to the enrichment of copper in the Morenci Porphyry Copper Deposit. Calculations suggest kilograms of bacteria in a 10³ m² weathered rock with the potential to mobilise between 0.01-0.1 times of copper as part of their metabolism (Neal et al. 2006). Aerobic sulphate reducing bacteria in acid mine drainage sites produce sulphate as a by-product of their metabolism, forming metal sulphates (Donald and Fradette 2006). Neal et al. (2006) calculated that approximately 2% of all copper in the Morenci deposit is fixed by sulphate reducing bacteria with inorganic processes contributing to copper enrichment.

Microorganisms are involved in the biogeochemical cycling of metals, such as gold, under natural conditions (Southam et al. 2009). The formation of gold in Australia, Alaska and the famous Witwatersrand in South Africa have been attributed to bacterial activity (see references). Bacteria are also involved in the enrichment of platinum in aqueous

systems understanding interactions between and gold could guide work in platinum-microbe interactions (Bowles et al. 1990; Dasso et al. 2007; Cabral et al. 2007)

Numerous laboratory experiments have shown that bacteria are able to precipitate gold from solutions of gold (Southam and Beveridge 1994; Reich et al. 2006; Lengke et al. 2006; Lengke and Southam 2007 and Beveridge (1994) related the formation of octahedral gold grains to octahedral gold found in placer deposits in Western Australia and the Witwatersrand (1984 Mineral 1993). Lamentous cyanobacteria have been used to precipitate gold and the morphology of the mineral is similar to that of the grain found in the Witwatersrand (Mossman 1985; De Kea 2006). This morphology is similar to that of hand-canning electron (SEM) of all nuggets from gold deposits have revealed grains coated with particles that resemble gold bacteria (Reich et al. 2006; Southam 2009). Sulphate-reducing bacteria have been shown to reduce aqueous gold to elemental gold nanoparticles. Further diagenesis of the scale octahedral (Lengke and Southam 2007) in experimental studies provide evidence that bacteria can participate in the biogeochemistry of gold and could contribute to the formation of secondary gold (Reich et al. 2006; Southam 2009)

Research conducted at the University of Queensland in Australia (2006) shows that upon exposure to aqueous solutions of various species,

platinum produced by bacterial platinum (Pt) precipitation in water
 reduced to crystalline elemental Pt in a finding by (C2011)
 supports experimental evidence that precipitation is a common
 platinum nugget formation mechanism. Backscattered electron spectroscopy
 microscopy (BSE-SEM) of small alluvial platinum nuggets has
 morphologies that resemble those of the first
 evidence of bacterioformation in the literature. The authors propose that
 growth started with bioreduction of platinum covered decayed
 roots. As the nugget grew and microbial activity increased, the
 microbial activity concentrated biogenic Pt precipitated. Dissolved
 platinum and subsequent electrochemical accretion of elemental
 growing grain likely worked in conjunction with bioreduction
 and microbially mediated precipitation were not necessarily the
 mechanisms involved and both pathways may be important in
 placer deposits.

1.7 Hypothesis and study objectives

In order to improve our understanding of the biogeochemical
 studies were conducted as part of this thesis. As a periglacial
 environment, signs of physical weathering should be identifiable
 surface of placer grains. Microorganisms have proven successful
 immobilising aquifers and should be able to play a role in
 weathered placer material. For example, metal ions

negative precipitating, a bacterium found to be living on the grains obtained from auriferous soils in northern Queensland (the Hit or Miss Gold Mine and the Hit or Miss Gold Mine), was cultured on platinum chloride (Richey 2006; 2009)

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Chapter 2

Surficial weathering of platinum grains

2.1. Introduction

Platinum, of the six platinum group elements (PGEs), is resistance to oxidation and corrosion has made it an ideal and automobile catalytic converters; yet, platinum is not (Nixon and Hammack 1991). Platinum is mobile under some environments. It can be oxidised, dissolved, complexed with ligands, transported, precipitated and deposited (Fuchs and Azarova 2001; Hyslop 2005). Proper conditions for platinum recovery commonly occur in alluvial systems and environments (Barnes 1986; Azarova 2001; Freytsa 2005; Hanley 2005)

Alluvial platinum typically occurs as platinum alloys and are associated with Alaskan primary magmatic intrusions (Barnes and Macdonald 1987; Nixon and Hammack 1991; Freytsa 2005; Koehn 2010). These sub mafic/ultramafic complexes are 10 km in diameter and are located in tectonic arc sutures (Nixon and Hammack 1991; Teluk 2001, 2005). When platinum bearing host rock weathered, platiniferous material is physically broken and transported in fluvial systems. Alternatively, in some cases, platiniferous material is weathered in situ and eroded away, leaving a residue of PGEs (Koehn 2010).

Favourable chemical and biological conditions for metal weathering commonly prevail in arid tropics (Anderson 1971; Sillitoe 2005). Mobilisation can occur when the chemical processes enrich and then extract metal from source rock exposed at the surface. Pyrite (FeS_2) is a common mineral in supergene environments exposed to water and sulphur oxidising bacteria, it can be oxidised to sulphuric acid (H_2SO_4) and ferric sulphate ($\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$), the latter of which mobilises metal sulphides including copper, silver and gold (Mann 1984; Enders 2000; Sillitoe 2005). Surficial waters dissolve metal and carry it with the water table where it is possible to find economic concentrations (Guilbert 1986).

The acidic and oxidising supergene waters that mobilise metal could presumably solubilise platinum because it is more soluble than gold (Bowling 1976; Bickel 2017). To date, however, mineralogical and petrologic analyses of platinum grains have not explained the alteration processes affecting them. Platinum grains commonly larger than the source rock they are believed to be derived from platinum grains undergo secondary mineralisation (Coulson 1976; Stumpfl and Tarkian 1976; Bowring 1994; Sillitoe 2006). Conversely, other studies indicate that platinum is susceptible to dissolution and weathering in supergene environments (Coulson 2007; Tertilt 2008).

In order to fully understand the basic principles of sulfation in weathering environments, further characterization of the processes occurring at the weathering interface needs to be based on chemical evidence of these processes and should be identifiable and detectable using electron microscopy.

2.2. Material and Methods

Platinum nuggets by gravity separation from platinumiferous and auriferous soils near Fifield, New South Wales, Australia examined to characterise surface weathering products, e.g. grains were immersed in 2% formaldehyde to chemically fix any biological material.

Description of Fifield, New South Wales, Australia

The Fifield Province (Figure 1) is an area of past and current exploration and excavation located 380 km WNW of Sydney, Australia (Johannes 1989; Aldred 1995, Teluk 2001). Alluvial and platinum and gold may be genetically linked to a 500 Ma Devonian ultramafic pluton that intrudes Ordovician Cambrian metasedimentary rocks. An Ordovician paleosuture reopened as a result of crustal extension during the Orogeny in the Alaska/Ural dunitic and peridotitic belts (Aldred 1995; Teluk 2001; Gray and Florko 2004). Subsequent period of alluvial weathering and fluvial erosion have reworked platinumiferous material throughout the Cenozoic (Teluk 2001) thought to be primary, having been eroded directly from the primary source of mineralisation has not been found (Slansky 1991; Teluk 2001).

Scanning electron microscope

Platinum grains were dehydrated at 50%, 75%, and 100% X 100% ethanol series for 15 minutes at each step. Grains were using a Tousimis® VS-30B drier and placed onto 12 mm carbon (Electron Microscopy Sciences [EMS]). Samples were osmium 5 nm with a CFIG-80 osmium plasma coater. Osmium coating reduce sample charging. A LEO 1530 field emission scanning electron microscope SEM (University of Western Ontario, Western Facility) Zeiss 1540-SXM (University of Western Ontario, Nanofabrication Facility) SU 6600 Analytical SEM (University of Western Ontario, Department of Earth Sciences) (ZAF) platinum grains and resolution high secondary electron images representing the diversity of morphology and features of in SEM, were selected for further analysis. An Instruments INCA sight energy dispersive spectrophotometer (EDS) on the Zeiss Xmax Silicon Drift Detector EDS on the SEM were used for elemental identification.

X-ray emission spectroscopy Absorption Near Edge Structure (XANES) spectroscopy data collection and analysis

Two platinum grains selected for further analysis Pacific Northwest Laboratory/XScience (PNNL) Sector-20 Insertion Device beamline at the Photon Source, Argonne National Laboratory, Argonne X-ray emission spectroscopy

conducted to map the element distribution of the grains. X-ray energy reference values from Kortright and Thompson (2001) for 20 elements present in the sample. X-ray Near Edge Structure (XANES) measurements were conducted to determine the oxidation state of iron. XANES energy measurements were collected from each spot and were compared to the inflection of an iron foil (Williams 2001). Beam energy was set to 10.0 keV so that the iron would not be excited.

Element maps and X-ray emission spectra were analysed using Instruments VIEW D Scan Plot v. 4 and Instruments VIEW D Scan Plot v. 3. XANES data was processed by Athena (Ravel and Newville 2005). The edge of the samples was compared to the reference foil. Sample edge energy shift of 0.7 eV (with the reference foil) indicated iron.

Micro-Ray Diffraction (μ XRD)

Micro-Ray diffraction (μ XRD) patterns were collected using the Bruker AXS D8 Discover microdiffractometer in the Debye-Scherrer mode at the University of Western Australia X-ray source. An omega scan was performed from 7.5 to 45 degrees, with a step size of 0.5 degrees and a beam size of 300 μ m. Data was collected using a GADDS (General Area Detector Diffraction System) using Bruker's DIFFRACplus software for analysis.

2.3. Results and discussion

Examination of the weathering texture around the periphery of the plagioclase grains generally in good agreement with that of (1991), concluded that plagioclase grains in the Fife field are primary (magmatic) in nature.

The overall morphology of the nuggets varies considerably. This heterogeneity suggests that the grains were subjected to differing degrees of chemical weathering. A number of fluvial and eolian features are visible throughout the Cenozoic era and the data are consistent with this and previous work indicative of those conditions (Telusio et al., 2001). The grains in Figure 2.1A and Figure 2.2A exhibit more rounding and higher sphericity, while the grain in Figure 2.1C is rounded but has low sphericity. Roundness projections dominated the grain in Figure 2.2A shows a sub-angular/rounded grain with low sphericity, a distinct crystal face or a plane of weakness. The grain in Figure 2.1C and Figure 2.2A indicate impressions of micro-crystals that have been removed from the grain.

Pitting, cavities and striations are common on the surface and demonstrate that the grain is an important site of mechanical and chemical weathering. These features are dissolution pits and cavities observed in the field with some grains from the Fife field (Figures 2.1D and 2.3A). Long parallel scars on the surface may relate to

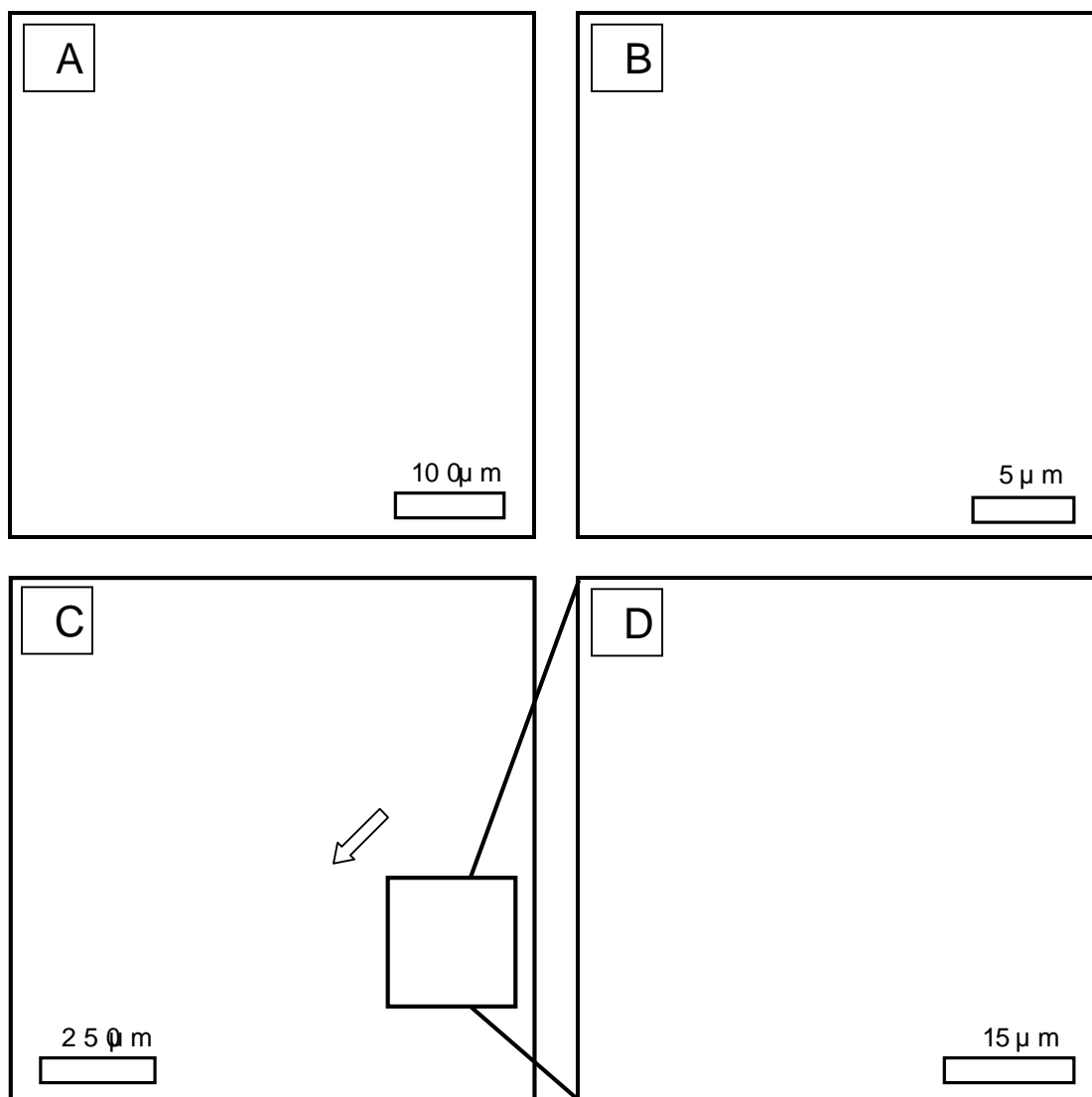


Figure 2.1. A: SEM micrograph of a scratched surface with clay and organics (darker regions). B: Higher magnification SEM micrograph of a region from within the relatively deep crevice with secondary mineral grains from

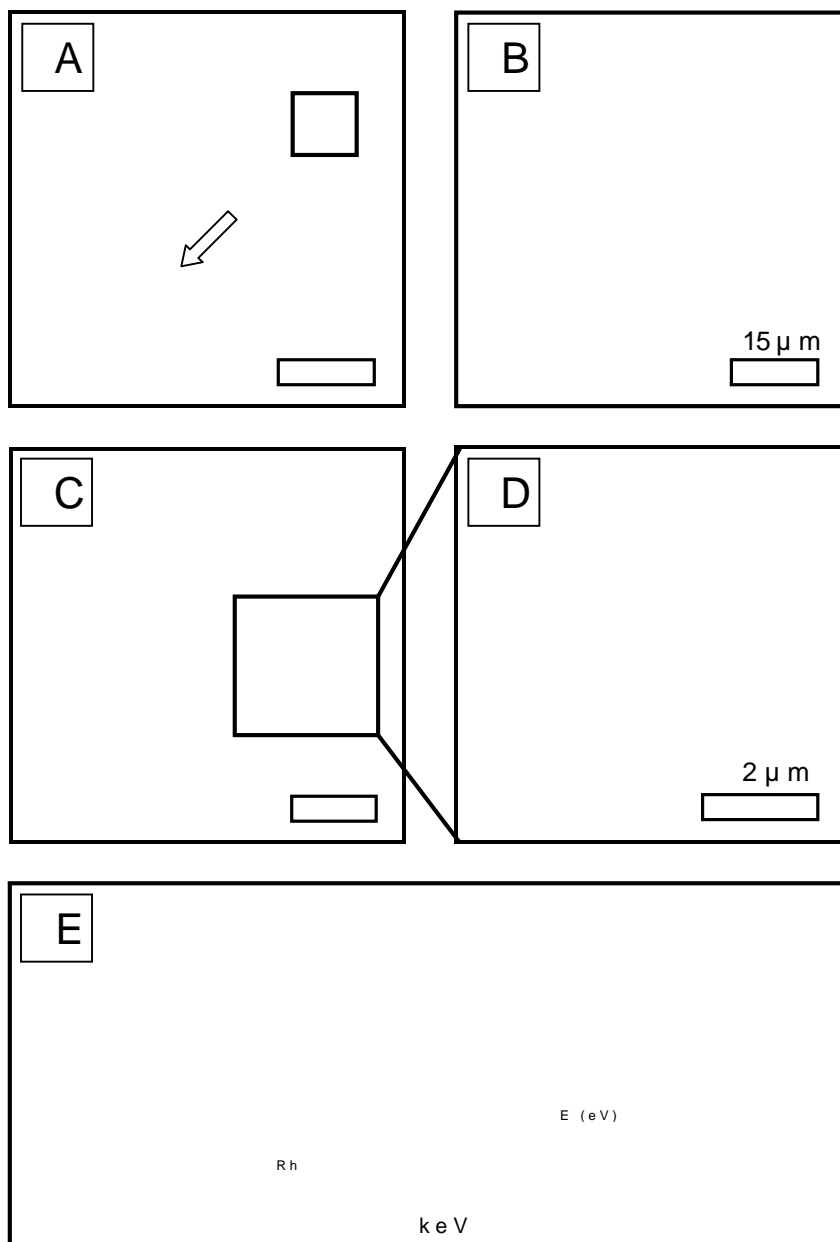


Figure 2. A: SEM micrograph of a heavily weathered platinum alloyed grain. Note the absence of deep oxides and cubic Cr₂O₃ in the grain. B: SEM micrograph of squared area in A. A acicular, iron oxides coats the surface of the grain. C: SEM micrograph of the grain in A. The spectrum of the acicular, iron oxides is presented in the inset. D: SEM micrograph of the grain in C. The inset is the EDS spectrum of oxidised platinum. E: EDS spectrum of the grain in C. The presence of Rhodium indicates this nugget was in an aerobic weathering environment.

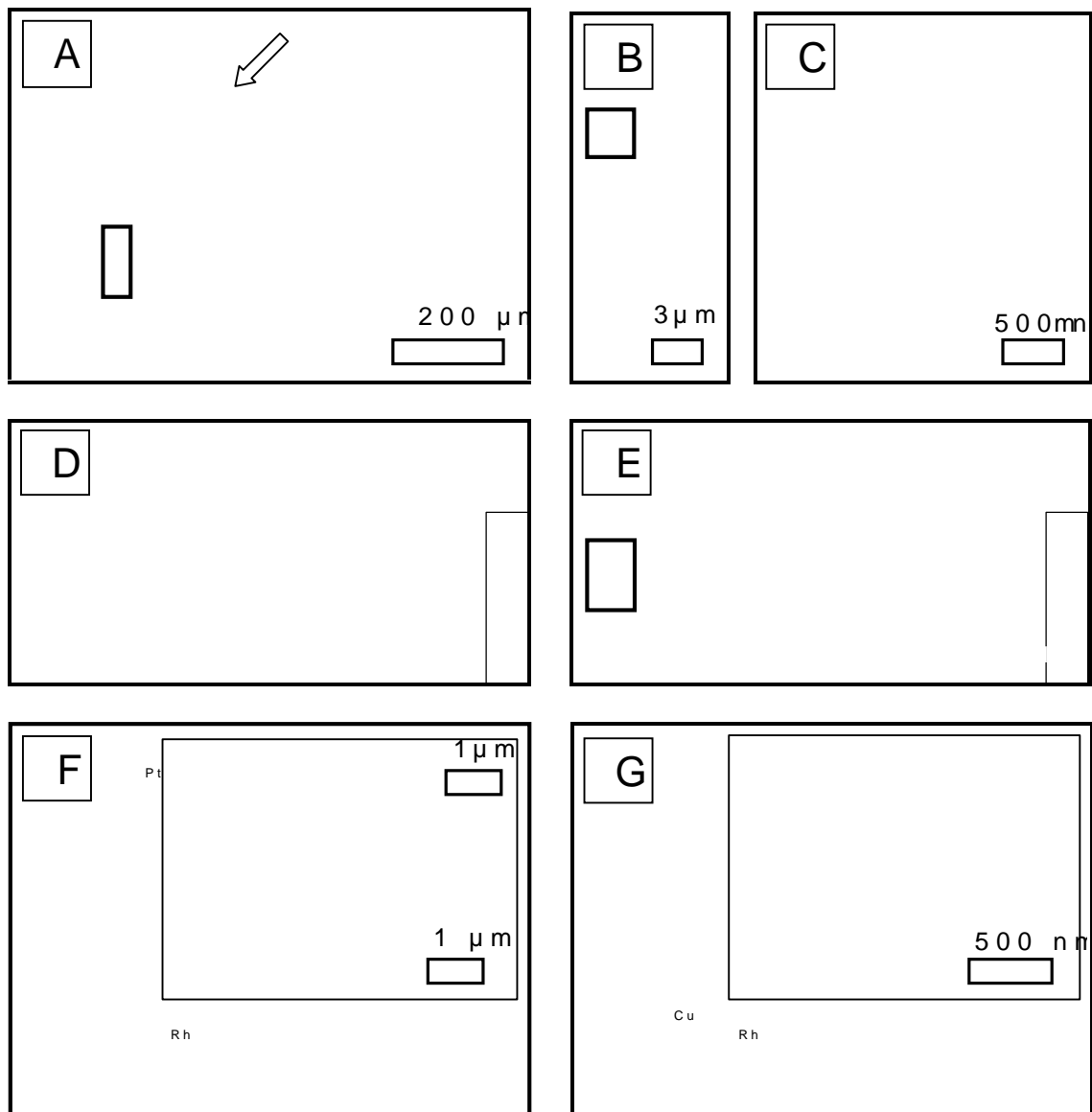


Figure 23. A: SEM micrograph of a weathered sulfide mineral grain of an area noted in Figure 22. B: SEM micrograph of squared area in B. Note the mineral. C: SEM micrograph of squared area in C. D: Iron and copper element map of grain in A, rectangular area in D, which shows a streak of copper. E: SEM micrograph of cubic pits and EDS of the bulk grain and comparing the elemental composition of the bulk grain and the nugget. The bulk nugget is an alloy (with trace Cu, Ni, and Rh) while the acicular iron oxides show elevated Cu and EDS of the acicular, iron oxides. F: SEM micrograph of cubic pits and EDS of the bulk grain. G: SEM micrograph of acicular, iron oxides and EDS of the acicular, iron oxides. Scale bars in D and E show relative element concentration upward from low concentration (black) to high concentration (white).

the preferential leaching of osmiridium solution of osmiridium isoferroplatinum, as observed by (Slyuzberg & Chou 1995) 50 nm sized cubic mineral embedded within the surface of the grains. These cubic mineral protruding out from the surface of the platinum with similar holes in the surface (Figure 2.3) that they likely grew out from the grain boundaries to the environment. The presence of these intergranular phase materials would be greater than the grain size and may contribute to the development of larger grains from these grains.

Range of coatings at the periphery of the grains determined to be iron oxides. SEM, EDX, and iron oxides were primarily within the clay patches and directly affixed to the surface (Figure 2.3). The morphology of the iron oxides was slightly different suggesting a variety of insoluble iron oxides. Various hydration states of these plaser minerals, goethite and other iron oxides and found on platinum nuggets (Ottemann and Augustinus 1991; al 2008). EDX, EDS, and XANES spectra (Figure 2.2) confirmed that Fe³⁺ existed in an oxidised form and was likely bound to oxygen approximately 13 eV up from the reference standard Fe³⁺ (Day et al 2007). The oxidation of iron promotes the formation of acid through the reaction and could contribute to platinum solubilisation (Quirke et al 1986; the precipitation of acicular, iron oxides immediately on

produced a local acidic interface that could have controlled dissolution and the release of additional immobile elements (see below) (Guilbert 1986).

The placer grains were determined to be all to be 2.35 (Fig. 2.35) with less amounts of copper in R1 (Fig. 2.35) was performed on the grain in Fig. 2.35A in order to determine the element ratios, however, a bulk nugget was sampled and analyzed (R1, Fig. 2.35) which is consistent with Slansky et al. (1990) and Albert et al. (1996) trace amounts of nickel and rhodium were also detected. Pelletier et al. (1991) as being the most common mineral in the Fife mapping of the grain 2.35A was also found. The Fe map in Fig. 2.35B and the Cu map 2.35C clearly resemble those shown in the SE micrograph. Element mapping of the grain shows that a link is linked to morphological features on grains. The Cu map, in copper highs (squared area) that correspond to the area in Fig. 2.35B and 2.35C. These cubic minerals have a higher copper bulk grain 2.35D and their exposure at the nugget surface is more resistant than the bulk grain as noted by EDS. It was found in small quantities using synchrotron radiation but not found by EDS but not detected using synchrotron energy. these elements cannot be determined through the 2D and 3 dimensional nature of the sample surface and electron spectroscopy and detection. Nickel and copper, however, are known to be

iron in reducing environments (Merrill et al. 2005). Levels of iron have been detected in Fifield placer grains (Sillitoe 1991). Trace amounts of the earth element, cerium, were found to be associated with iron and reported by Anand (1995) as being present in some of the placer grains.

Platinum sulphide minerals were not observed in these grains, consistent with prior studies (Sillitoe 1991). This is likely because the primary PGMs were replaced during post-metamorphism and have been weathered away from the surface conditions (Johannes 1989; Andrew 1995; Frey 2005; Sillitoe 2005). Hydrothermal alteration of primary platinum minerals is not explained by platinum hosted in the Fifield source rock (late) as micron sized grains are preserved in situ there (Johannes 1989; Sillitoe 1991; Teluk 2001). This has been attributed to the dissolution and precipitation of platinum in alluvial and clastic regimes by several groups and Kinloch (1991) and Bowles (1986) and (Bowles). However, the structural and chemical of these grains does not support the growth of platinum during diagenesis (Sillitoe 1991). Only when the hard rock source of platinum is found will the diagenesis be better understood. For this study and similar studies clearly show signs of chemical alteration at the nugget dissolution interface. The grains are dissolving from the weathering products are being mobilized where they can participate in a variety of abiotic, and probably biogenic

these reactions is key to improving our ability to recover and track its movement in nature, leading to more precise metal.

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Chapter 3

Immobilisation of ^{238}Pu by metalloidurans

3.1 Introduction

Microorganisms are able to thrive in a variety of extreme conditions, including strongly acidified environments (Reichert 2009). Some tolerant bacteria in these environments have evolved a niche existence by using metalloid compounds as sources of nutrition and energy. Alternatively, some bacteria invoke genetically encoded detoxification mechanisms to reduce metal concentrations. These mechanisms include precipitation, efflux or a combination thereof (Silver 1999, 2009).

The biogeochemical cycling of metals and the formation of metal deposits can be attributed to microbial activity (Cloud, Mossman and Dyer 1985; Southam and Jidgen 1996). Recent evidence from studies has shown that bacteria are able to precipitate gold from acidic solutions (Southam and Beveridge 1994, 2009; Lengke 2006c, d; Lengke and Southam 2007). The morphology of the precipitates so closely resemble the gold found in place in the South Africa's Witwatersrand basin that a biogenic origin is now suspected (Wilson 1984; Mossman 1993; Southam 1985;

and Beveridge 1994; Reith 2006, 7). The similar geochemical behaviour of platinum and gold suggests that a comparable cycle for platinum exists.

Platinum, one of the six platinum group elements, is a rare element (Nixon 1987; Nixon and Hammack 1991). Its concentration in the Earth's crust can reach economic concentrations in primary and secondary deposits (Naldrett 2008; Kozlov 2010). Under surficial weathering conditions, platinum is mobile as Pt^{4+} . It commonly forms complexes with chlorides and thiosulphates, but amorphous platinum oxide colloids occur (Mountain and Wood 1981, 1990; Wood 1990; Anthony and Williams 1994; Atza 2001; Hanley 2005; 2006). Aqueous platinum is transported in the surficial environment until precipitation or chemical precipitation. Subsequent deposition of platinumiferous material may occur (Bowles 1986; Wood 1990). It is assumed that biotic, bacterially mediated platinum immobilisation contributes to the formation of platinum placer deposits (Reith

Lenglet al (2006) demonstrated that cyanobacteria are able to precipitate aqueous Pt^{4+} species in a stepwise reaction that first produces extracellular spherical platinum(II) hydroxide. The amorphous platinum(II) colloids experienced further diagenesis to produce crystalline platinum(II) hydroxide. These experiments were independently supported by the discovery of platinumiferous alluvial platinum nuggets and platinumiferous platinum-crusted bacteria. Microbes attached to decaying organic matter (e.g. plant root) precipitated platinum from solution onto their

thought that continued bioreduction and electrochemical accumulation of platinumiferous nanoparticles likely contributed to the formation of gold grains (Cairns et al. 2011).

Further investigation is still needed to understand the role of microorganisms in platinum bioreduction. For this work, biogeochemically diverse bacteria with a proven ability to immobilise gold should be reacted with platinum to determine their characteristic response to platinum to determine whether they are involved in biogeochemical cycles. This study will employ a diverse range of microorganisms, including *Corynebacterium jeikeium*, *Mycobacterium thermophilum*, *Rhodospirillum rubrum*, *Ralstonia eutropha*, *Halobacterium salinarum*, *Halobacterium salinarum* aerobic, gram negative, facultative anaerobic, and *Halobacterium salinarum* for being resistant to toxic effluents of metals (e.g. Cu, Ni, Zn, Cd, Ag and Hg) (Mergelyan et al. 1985, 2003; Ralston et al. 2006, 2007 and O'Driscoll et al. 2007). Resistance is primarily due to efflux proteins in the cell envelope and cation reduction mechanisms in the cytoplasm (Mergelyan et al. 2005; Ralston et al. 2007). This bacterium was found on the surface of gold grains from auriferous soils in northern Australia (Ralston et al. 2009) and cultured bacteria reacted it with cyanide to precipitate gold (Ralston et al. 2009). This suggests that a multidisciplinary study of its reactivity with platinum species found in natural systems could produce comparable reactivity with platinum.

3.2. Materials and methods

Cupriavidus metallidurans

Cupriavidus metallidurans ATCC 49619[®] was acquired from the American Type Culture Collection in Manassas, Virginia. The ATCC prescribed medium contained 5 g/L d-b-glycerol phosphate (ingredients of Nutrient Broth [Difco Laboratories; Detroit, MI, USA]). Before experimentation, the culture was transferred (~10⁸ cells/ml, stationary/early death phase) to 13 x 100 mm borosilicate glass tubes (capped with plastic push caps to reduce evaporation and contamination) and grown to early stationary phase to maximise the amount of metabolically active biomass. The tubes were incubated at room temperature (24 ± 1 °C) for 24 h.

After incubation, separate 50 µL samples were taken from each tube and thoroughly vortexed (VWR Vortex Mixer) to ensure a consistent suspension. For the platinum bioassay, 1 mL aliquots of the bacterial suspension were transferred to microfuge tubes and centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 5 min using a VWR Galaxy 16 microcentrifuge. After centrifugation, the supernatant was discarded and the bacterial suspension filtered through a 0.22 µm sterile filter. The filtered supernatant was then thoroughly vortexed to remove any remaining culture. The bacterial suspension was then centrifuged at 12,000 rpm for 5 min. The supernatant was discarded and the bacterial pellets were used for the experiment. The total number of bacteria in the samples was determined by the direct count

using a Heussler Counting Chamber (can be contrast light microscope or Fluorescent Z1 microscope).

C. metallic and aqueous platinum experiments

The bacterial experiments were conducted to examine the immobilisation of platinum ions from a source of platinum (II) chloride (PtCl₂ Prem[®], 99.99+ % [metal basis], Alfa Aesar, 4% min. Ward Hill, Massachusetts USA) and platinum (PtCl₄ Prem[®], 99.99+ % [metal basis], Pt 57%[®] min. Alfa Aesar) so were in a DRI at 16.2 M Ω obtained from a Millipore system.

Washed metallic samples were suspended in 1 mL aqueous platinum solutions (from stock solutions of 0.5 μ M [0.1 μ g/mL], 5 μ g/mL, 500 μ M [100 μ g/mL] final Pt concentrations) at room temperature, (2 days, 2 weeks and 4 weeks). Experiments were maintained in the dark because when exposed to light (LED) microcentrifuge tubes containing bacterial platinum mixture were only removed from darkness during longer exposure times. Reactions were performed in

Following exposure, reaction tubes were centrifuged and the supernatant was removed for chemical analysis. Remaining bacterial pellets were suspended in filtered DD water to remove any aqueous platinum and then centrifuged. Excess water was decanted and the suspended culture was

filtered sterilised DDI water in preparation for whole mount
microscopy examination of bacterial viability that were
thi-sectioned - were suspended in 2% glutaraldehyde rather than v

C. metallidurans P^{2+} chloride P^{4+} chloride kill curves

The effect of P^{2+} chloride P^{4+} chloride on bacterial viability was
determined by the spread plate method. Resuspended bacteria were
in 1 mL of water and used serial dilution in filtered sterilised DDI water.
Each dilution was plated in duplicate on plates to heat contain
(in g) of peptone, 5; beef extract, 3; agar, 15 (Difco Laboratories)
for 4 days at room temperature (23°C) under anaerobic conditions.
Colony forming units (CFU) were counted on the air New Brunswick C
Colony Counter digital counter and probe.

Chemical analyses

Platinum concentrations were measured over the course of the study
using a Perkin Elmer Optima DV System Inductively Coupled Plasma
Emission Spectroscopy (ICP-AES) instrument. Accuracy of platinum
was 5%, with a detection limit of 0.05 $\mu\text{g/L}$ (0.05 $\mu\text{g/L}$ in 10 mL).
Samples were diluted as necessary with filtered DDI water (Table 3.1). Platinum
calibration curves were prepared using P^{2+} and P^{4+} stock solutions used in the
laboratory Cd metalloid aqueous experiments. These calibration
standards were diluted by the same factor as the corresponding

(Table 1) The pH of the stock solutions was measured using a Basic pH meter. The electrodes were calibrated in buffer solutions after exposure to bacteria was cut in parallel to the ColorpHast® Bleeding Indicator strips.

Transmission electron microscopy (TEM)

Unstained whole sample mounts and thin sections (prepared by reaction with the Pt shadowing technique) were examined using a Phillips 10C transmission electron microscope (TEM) operated at 100 kV (thin sections). The whole mounts were prepared by floating on a copper grid (EMS Formvar-coated grids) on a drop of water for several minutes to allow the bacteria to adhere to the grid by gentle dipping into distilled water. The grids were completely air dry prior to microscopy.

Samples for transmission electron microscopy were fixed in 2% paraformaldehyde (EMS; Hatfield, Pennsylvania USA). Fixed cultures were centrifuged at 14,000 X g for 1 min. The supernatant was discarded and the pellet was embedded in 2% (weight/volume) lead citrate as a contrast agent using a 25%, 50%, 75% and 3 X 100% acetone series (including 100% acetone). The acetone was slowly replaced with an EMS epoxy resin (Epon 812) and incubated in a 50%:50% [v/v], 25%:75% [v/v] and 100% acetone:epoxy resin series). Epoxy resin embedded a 2.5:2

Table 3D Dilution factors for P^{2+} and P^{4+} supernatants and standards. Dilution factors were required because submitted samples concentrations exceeded a concentration of $100 \mu\text{g/mL}$ (i.e., the linear portion of the standard curve).

| Initial concentration of platinum | Dilution factor for ICP-ES |
|-----------------------------------|----------------------------|
| 5000 M or 1000 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ | 100x |
| 500 M or 100 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ | 10x |
| 50 M or 10 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ | 10x |
| 5 M or 1 $\mu\text{g/mL}$ | 10x |

812, DDSA (Dodeceny Succinic Anhydride) and NMA (NMA) Samples were incubated overnight in 100% epoxy resin and with fresh epoxy resin containing the (2,4,6-tribromotri(dimethylaminoethyl)phosphate) ratios by volume were 2.5:2:1:0 were cured in a 60°C oven (Blue M Electric Company Back Gravity Conveyor) until hard. Embedded samples were ultrathin using Reichert Ultratome microtome with a "Diatome" diamond knife to a thickness of 70 nm and collected on copper carbon grids.

X-ray Absorption Spectroscopy (XAS)

XAS energy measurements the bacterial reaction conditions XANES (X-ray Absorption Near Edge Structure) and EXAFS (X-ray Absorption Fine Structure) conducted at the Coors Institute Northwest Science and Technology Center (PIL-ES) section of the Advanced Photon Source National Laboratory, Argonne, Illinois, USA. The oxidation state of platinum can be determined by XANES while information regarding local coordination of platinum is provided by EXAFS data. Data state and coordination of platinum will shed light on how aqua bacterial cell (2006). XAS energy measurements were collected from each sample and were calibrated to the iron 11564 eV (Iams 2001).

Prior to any XAS measurements, the samples were reacted following previously described procedures. For XAS, replicate reactions were harvested by centrifugation and resuspended in water in order to concentrate the sample for detection. The cell suspensions were then placed in a fluid cell with a kapton film window. Whatman[®] 42 Ashless Filter Papers were used for filtration. XAS measurements were conducted in fluorescence mode.

Reference compounds were needed to determine the platinum oxidation states and coordination in the reactions. Standard platinum compounds were used to determine the oxidation states and coordination in the reactions. XAS spectra for model compounds including (IV-chloride)₄(PtCl₆)₂, platinum(II) chloride (K₂PtCl₄), platinum(II) chloride (PtCl₂), platinum(II) chloride (PtCl₂) and platinum(II) chloride nitrate ((NH₄)₂PtCl₆) were measured in aqueous solutions (up to 65 mM) prepared from solid compounds. XAS spectra for platinum(II) chloride (PtCl₂), platinum(II) chloride diamminedichloride (PtCl₂(NH₃)₂), platinum(II) chloride (PtCl₂) and platinum foil (Pt) were measured in solid form. The standards were prepared in teflon fluid cells with kapton film windows. The samples were concentrated by filtration through 13 mm membrane filters. The compounds were commercially available from Alfa Aesar.

exception of platinum (Pt) which was synthesized in the laboratory from an equal molar solution of platinum(IV) chloride (PtCl_4) with aqueous sodium sulphide (Na_2S) (J.T. Baker Phillipsburg, New Jersey USA) product as a reference spectrum of platinum foil was simultaneously collected during measurement. The incident energy from the beam did not affect the standards or samples.

XAS data analysis

ATHENA analysis software was used (Raymond Newville et al. 2005) to process XAS data. Energy scans from samples and standards were aligned to the standard platinum foil reference energy. Multiple scans were collected and were averaged to produce a single spectrum representing the oxidation and complexation state. XANES spectra were analyzed by comparing the energy position of the platinum edge in the sample to the energy position from the standards. Linear combination fitting was mathematically identified which standard(s) aligned with the immobilized platinum. Energy position alignment corresponded to the immobilized platinum. EXAFS data analysis was performed in ARTEMIS, a XAS analysis software program complemented by IFEFFIT (Newville et al. 2005). Mathematical derivatives of post edge energy were used to bound platinum in the bacterial samples were fitted to post

platinum in the Pt standard, normalized to a platinum concentration of 1000 ppm, as indicated in the figure. The binding partners of the immobilized platinum (Pt) are

3.3 Results

Laboratory based metallic and aqueous platinum experiments

The addition of K_2PtCl_6 to filtered, DDI water promoted hydrolysis of K_2PtCl_6 as indicated by a drop in the pH of the overall K_2PtCl_6 solutions was 5000g/mL; pH 5.0) (100g/mL; pH 5.2) 50M (10g/mL; pH 5.2) (1g/mL; pH 5.4) pH of K_2PtCl_6 (1000g/mL; pH 5.2) (100g/mL; pH 5.3) (10g/mL; pH 5.4) (1g/mL; pH 5.6) pH of the solution after reaction with bacteria did not change significantly from the pH of addition. 5000g/mL K_2PtCl_6 turned the pellet brown at 1 min, 1 hr, 1 day, 2 weeks exposure times. Similarly 5000g/mL K_2PtCl_6 washed bacterial pellet immediately turned the white pellet yellow at all exposure times. Pellets were much fainter or not identifiable at lower concentrations provided macroscopic evidence was binding to the cells.

Table 3.2 and Table 3.3 were prepared by comparing bacterial count to the unreacted count for the appropriate exposure times to a standard CFU count (5 L) to allow comparison between exposure times and treatments. The experiments demonstrated that upon exposure of bacteria to 5000g/mL K_2PtCl_6 bacteria grew. Platinum toxicity was directly proportional to concentration and exposure time. Solutions being slightly less toxic than at given particle concentration.

Table 3T2. Toxicity study of *C. whittellii* in response to P^{2+} aqueous solutions. Increased exposure time and increased concentration resulted in fewer viable cells, as indicated by a decrease in CFU/mL.

| P^{2+} concentration | CFU/mL after 1 min exposure | CFU/mL after 1 hr exposure | CFU/mL after 1 day exposure |
|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 0 μ M or 0 μ g/mL | 5.0×10^8 | 5.0×10^8 | 5.0×10^8 |
| 0.5 μ M or 0.1 μ g/mL | 4.9×10^8 | 2.7×10^8 | 4.6×10^8 |
| 5 μ M or 1 μ g/mL | 3.7×10^8 | 3.2×10^8 | 4.3×10^6 |
| 50 μ M or 10 μ g/mL | 4.1×10^8 | 1.3×10^7 | 2.1×10^3 |
| 500 μ M or 100 μ g/mL | 9.9×10^6 | 0 | 0 |
| 5000 μ M or 1000 μ g/mL | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Table 3T3. Toxicity study of *C. whittellii* in response to P^{4+} aqueous solutions. Increased exposure time and increased concentration resulted in fewer viable cells, as indicated by a decrease in CFU/mL.

| P^{4+} concentration | CFU/mL after 1 min exposure | CFU/mL after 1 hr exposure | CFU/mL after 1 day exposure |
|---------------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 0 μ M or 0 μ g/mL | 5.0×10^8 | 5.0×10^8 | 5.0×10^8 |
| 0.5 μ M or 0.1 μ g/mL | 4.5×10^8 | 3.2×10^8 | 3.3×10^8 |
| 5 μ M or 1 μ g/mL | 4.9×10^8 | 2.5×10^8 | 7.6×10^7 |
| 50 μ M or 10 μ g/mL | 1.1×10^8 | 6.4×10^6 | 4.8×10^3 |
| 500 μ M or 100 μ g/mL | 6.6×10^2 | 0 | 0 |
| 5000 μ M or 1000 μ g/mL | 0 | 0 | 0 |

The amount of soluble platinum remaining in solution after these results were determined is approximately 1 mg dry weight of metallic platinum averaged to determine the amount immobilized. The mass of metallic platinum was calculated using the mass of Escherichia coli (12.95 × 10¹⁰ dry weight per cell) relative to a standard bacterium approximately ~23% larger than the standard (Murray and Murray 1990). Volume estimates were based on diameter and measurements of bacteria shown in the electron micrographs (Figures 3.1, 3.2, 3.3, 3.6). As rod shaped bacteria are typically bounded by two half spheres, the volume can be calculated (Bankston 1988).

$$V = \frac{4}{3} \pi r^3 \quad (1)$$

ICP-AES results are shown in Tables 3.4 and 3.5. Immediately upon exposure to platinum. As exposure time increased and concentration, the amount immobilized also increased; however, at these longer exposure times the rate of immobilization did not increase. The effective concentration of platinum is based on cell volume and should not exceed the T = 0 solution concentration in all reaction systems. The maximum concentration was not reached after exposure times of 5000 μM solutions.

Table 3 Immobilisation of *C. freundii* in a 10% phosphate solution. Measured free ion concentrations within the bacteria and ¼g Pt immobilised per mg dry weight of bacteria after 1 h, 1 d and 7 d of exposure to phosphate. Higher phosphate concentrations resulted in increased immobilisation.

| P ⁴⁺ concentration | Immobilisation after 1 min exposure (mM; ¼g/n) | Immobilisation after 1 h exposure (mM; ¼g/n) | Immobilisation after 1 day exposure (mM; ¼g/n) |
|-------------------------------|--|--|--|
| 5 µM or 1 µg/L | 1.80; 0.4 | 1.60; 0.4 | 153; 5 |
| 50 µM or 10 µg/L | 51; 13 | 44; 11 | 67; 16 |
| 500 µM or 100 µg/L | 120; 28 | 120; 29 | 410; 100 |
| 5000 µM or 1000 µg/L | 850; 210 | 800; 200 | 850; 210 |

Table 3 Immobilisation of *C. freundii* in a 10% phosphate solution. Measured free ion concentration within the bacteria and ¼g Pt immobilised per mg dry weight of bacteria after 1 h, 1 d and 7 d of exposure to phosphate. Higher phosphate concentrations resulted in increased immobilisation.

| P ⁴⁺ concentration | Immobilisation after 1 min exposure (mM; ¼g/n) | Immobilisation after 1 h exposure (mM; ¼g/n) | Immobilisation after 1 day exposure (mM; ¼g/n) |
|-------------------------------|--|--|--|
| 5 µM or 1 µg/L | 1.60; 0.4 | 2.60; 0.6 | 9.62; 4 |
| 50 µM or 10 µg/L | 112; 7 | 133; 2 | 409; 8 |
| 500 µM or 100 µg/L | 45; 11 | 160; 40 | 210; 51 |
| 5000 µM or 1000 µg/L | 310; 75 | 350; 84 | 870; 210 |

TEM

TEM micrographs of metallic particles deposited on platinum solution presented in Figures 3.2 to 3.6. Micrographs of the control are shown in Figure 3.1. Note that the cytoplasmic contents are visible in Figure 3.1A. Further details of the cell is lacking in Figure 3.1B. The cell envelope is visible as a white halo. The staining was applied to these bacteria; therefore, any differences in the following micrographs are attributed to aqueous platinum.

Figure 3.2A demonstrates that bacterial staining occurred after exposure to $500 \mu\text{M Pt}^{2+}$. However, not all bacteria were stained. Generally, longer exposure times resulted in a greater percentage of bacteria producing platinum colloids (Figure 3.2B). Nanoparticles were not observed at short exposure times (Figure 3.2C). Figure 3.3A shows that bacteria do not bind platinum from a $5000 \mu\text{M}^{2+}$ solution. The majority of cells were stained within the first exposure time point. All bacteria were observed to be completely dead after 24 hours. Platinum formation was observed after exposure times (Figures 3.3B, C). Figure 3.3C shows a partially lysed bacterium with platinum nanoparticles deposited on its surface. The delayed response to platinum toxicity and/or the pH in the TEM micrographs of bacteria exposed to $500 \mu\text{M Pt}^{2+}$ in Figure 3.4. Platinum nanoparticles were observed along the periphery of the cell wall, within the cytoplasm, and in vesicles. Metallic particles deposited on the membrane are also visible.

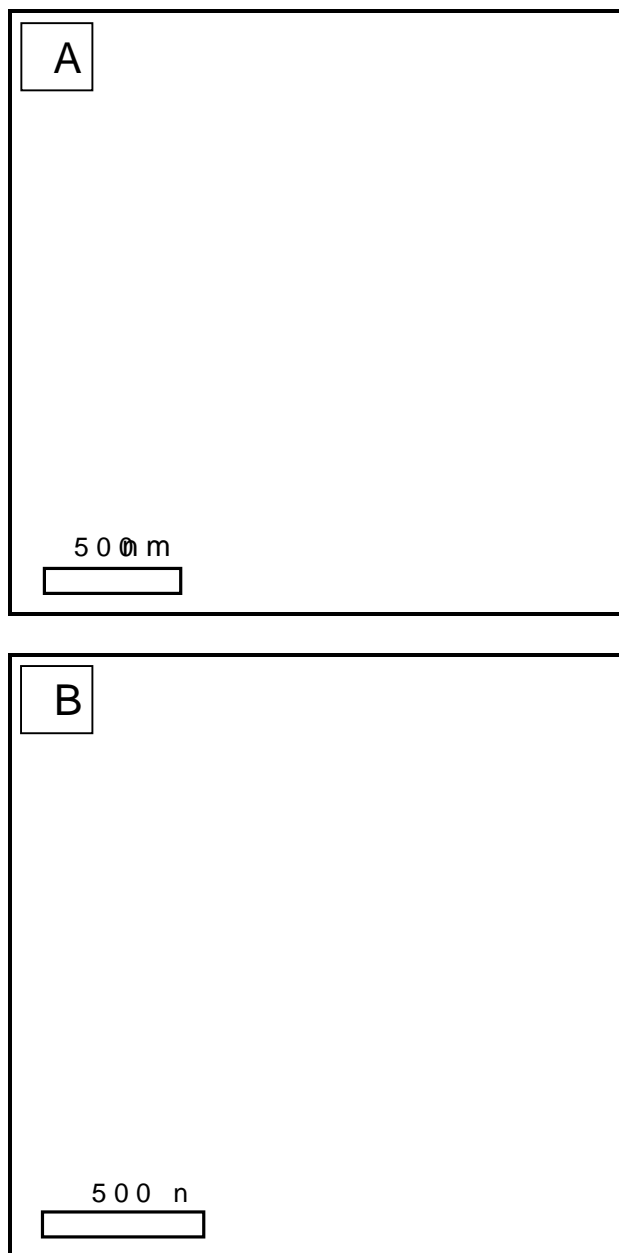


Figure 3A1 Whole mTEM micrograph of *A. umbraticolens* bacterium. Phosphate bodies within the cell are clearly visible. Generally electron transparent, thin section TEM micrograph of unreacted metallized wires. Note the internal detail of cell is lacking as no contrast was applied.

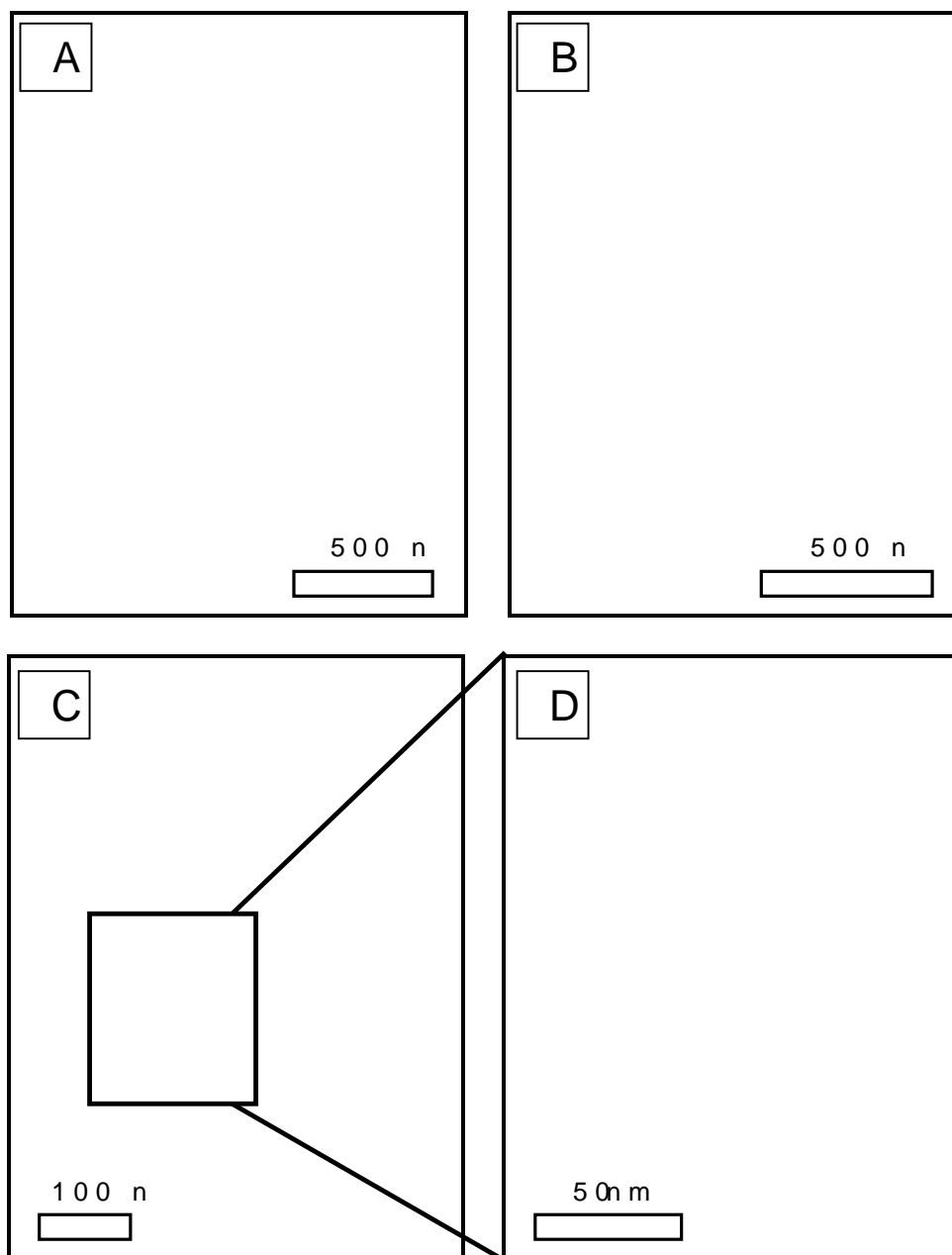


Figure 3. Whole mount TEM micrographs of cells treated with $500 \mu\text{M}$ ($100 \mu\text{g/mL}$) for A: 1 min & C: 1 day. Micrograph of squared area C. At 1 day, all cells were strained (s produced nanoparticles).

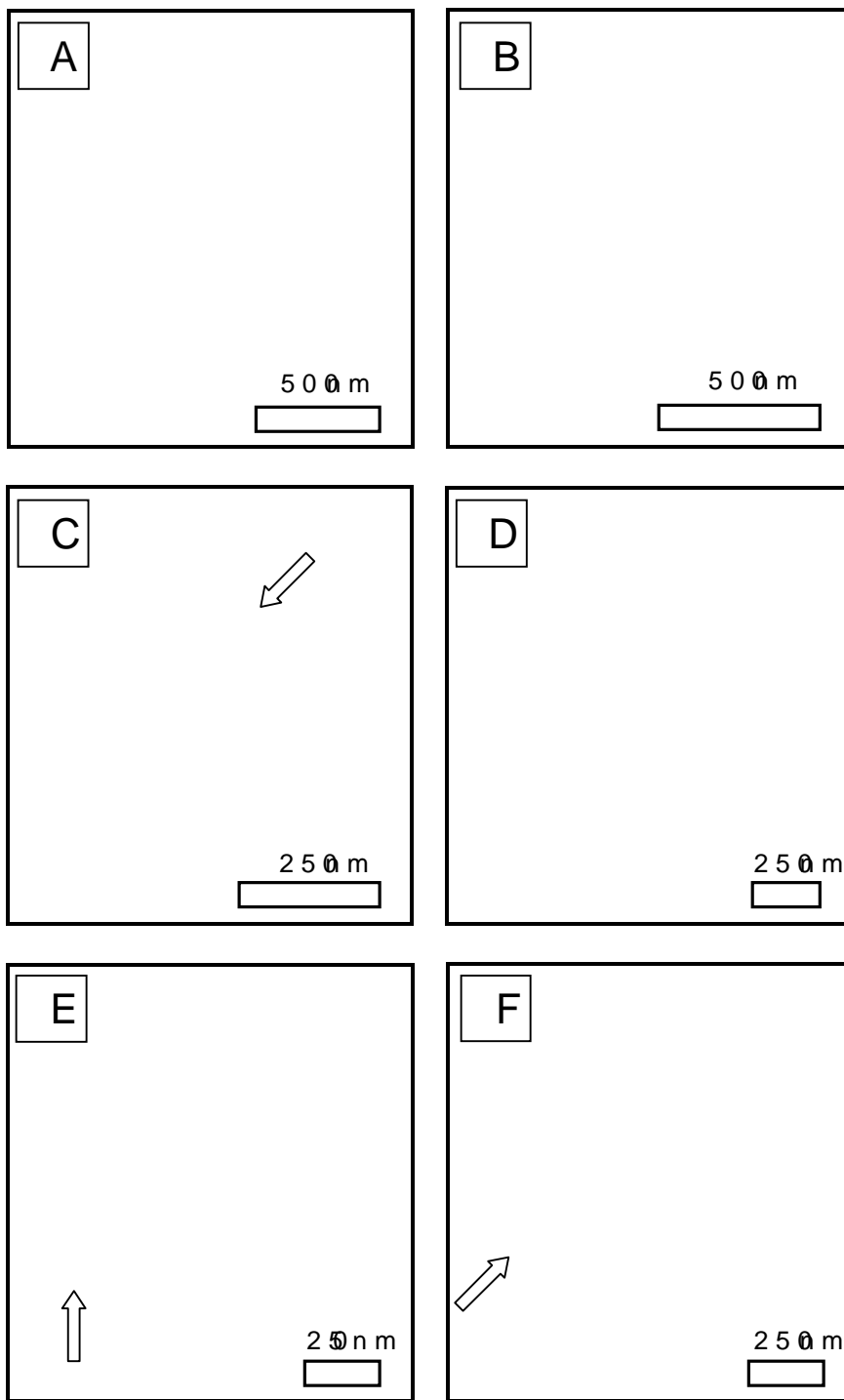


Figure 3. Whole mount TEM micrographs of cells exposed to $5000 \mu\text{M}$ PtCl_6^{2-} (1000 $\mu\text{g Pt}^{2+}/\text{L}$) for A: 1 min. Binding of Pt is minimal as cell re electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) and C: 1 h; D: E and F: 1 day. At longer incubation times cell staining is apparent in all cells. Some cells show nanocrystals indicated by arrows.

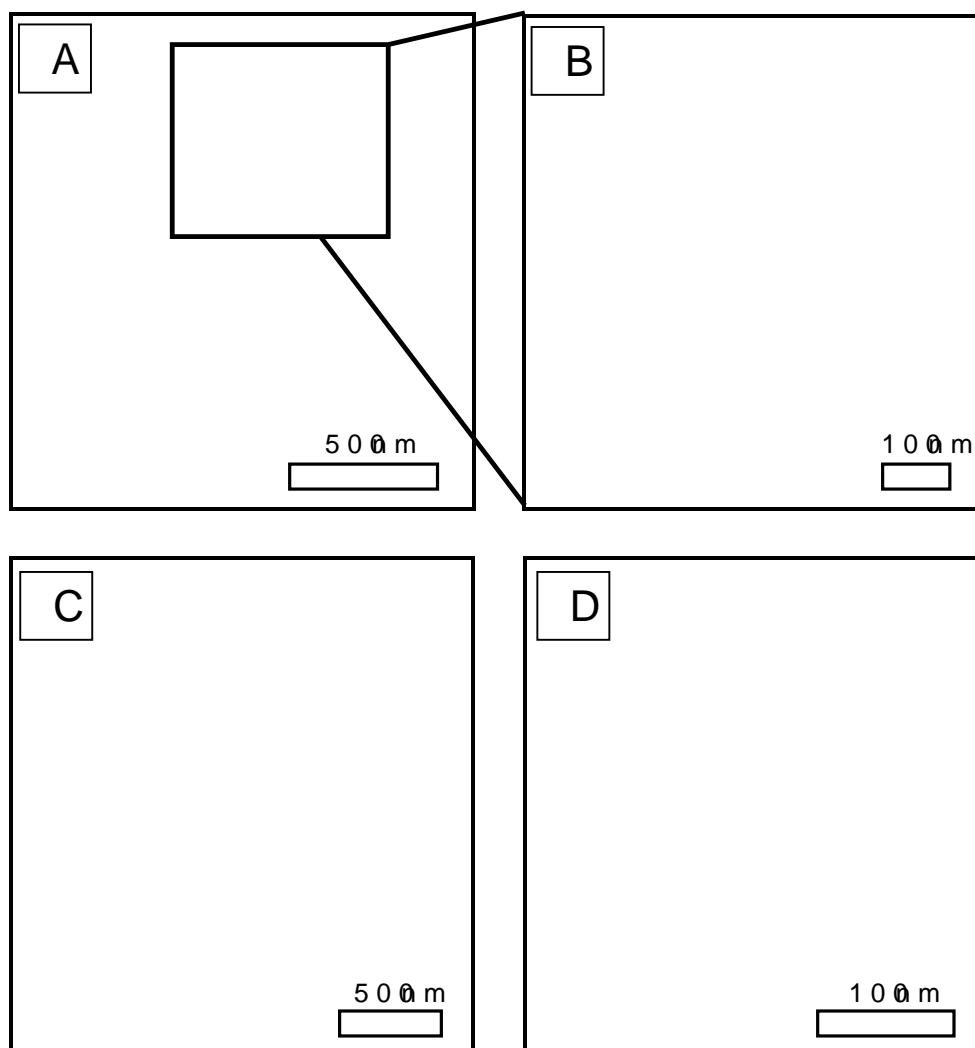


Figure 3.14 Thin section TEM micrographs prepared to 5000 $\mu\text{M Pt}^{2+}$ for 1 h. A: Nanoparticle Pt along cell envelope of square area note. C: Micrograph of immobilised Pt along cell envelope. D: Nanoparticle Pt immobilisation along the membrane of every vesicle.

to keep toxic material away from the cell (Liang et al., 2006).

As indicated by the micrographs in Figure 3.5, the cells responded to Pt much like it did to Pt. The cells appeared to be immediately inactivated (Figure 3.5A). Longer exposures produced a darker stain and precipitated the bacterial cells. Nanoparticles were observed to precipitate with the cells (Figures 3.6A and B). Cell lysis was observed at 5.0 μM Pt. Cytoplasmic material bound platinum. As a result, in 5.0 μM Pt²⁺ solutions, cell lysis could have been caused by the low pH of the solution, or a combination of both.

It was noted that cells adhered to each other upon solution. Perhaps a result of neutralization of anionic charge groups on the cell envelope by platinum, allowing hydrophobicity to dominate. This response could protect some of the cell's interior by shielding them from the platinum complex. Immediate platinum binding to all cells was observed.

XAS Spectra

XAS spectra in Figure 3.7 show the speciation and binding of platinum immobilized by bacteria. Figure 3.7 is the XANES spectrum of Pt with 5000 μM (1000 μM Pt²⁺ and 4000 μM Pt⁴⁺). The peak edge binding energy is slightly less than that indicating that electrons are more tightly bound in the more oxidized platinum species. There

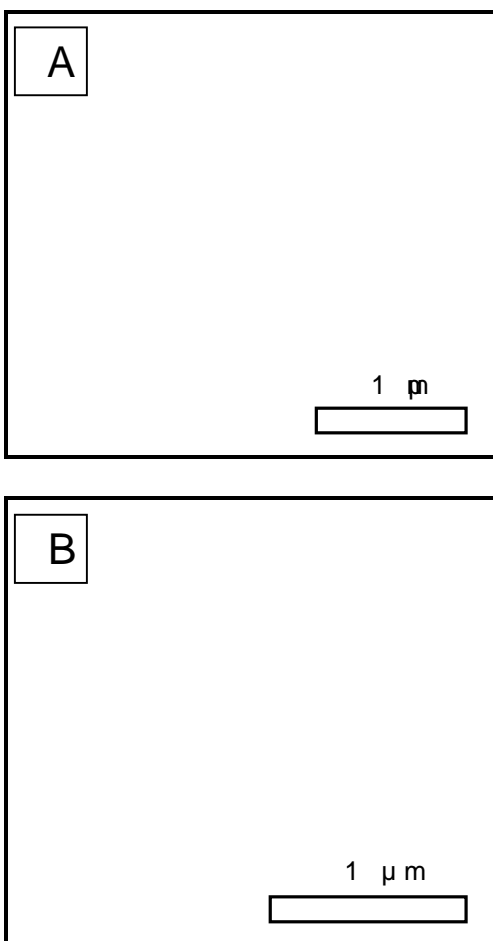


Figure 3.5. Whole mount TEM of *C. formosensis* cells incubated with 500 μM Pb^{2+} (100 $\mu\text{g}/\text{ml}$) for A: 1 min; B: 1 day. As incubation time increase metalloid formation became more pronounced. Colloidal platinum was not observed.

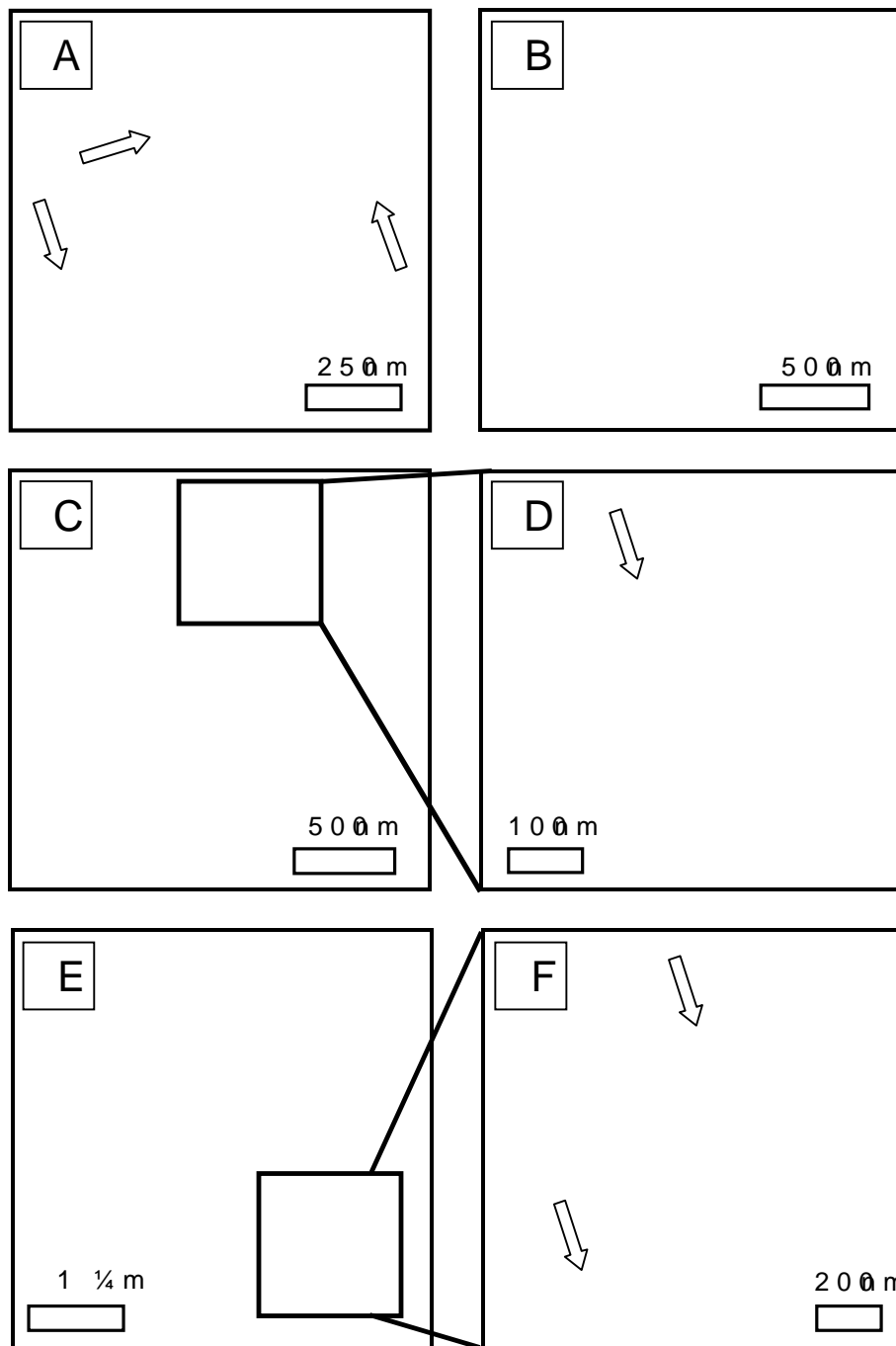


Figure 3.6. TEM micrographs of cells immobilized with $5000 \mu\text{M}$ Pt (1000 $\mu\text{g Pt/L}$). A: 1 min (whole mount) (ultra-thin section has been immobilised at the cell envelope and within the cell); B: 1 min (whole mount) (ultra-thin section has been immobilised at the cell envelope); C: 1 day (whole mount) (ultra-thin section has been immobilised at the cell envelope); D: 1 day (whole mount) (ultra-thin section has been immobilised at the cell envelope); E: 1 day (whole mount) (ultra-thin section has been immobilised at the cell envelope); F: 1 day (whole mount) (ultra-thin section has been immobilised at the cell envelope). Arrows indicate immobilised Pt. Pt becomes more pronounced at longer incubation times (C-F).



Figure 3. X-ray fluorescence spectra of bacteria reacted with 5×10^8 $\mu\text{g}/\text{cm}^2$ P^{2+} for 28 days. The line corresponds to the P^{2+} $2p$ level. The shift in binding energy that is observed over the 28 days, indicating that synchrotron energy did not

energy for either immobilised platinum species, indicating did not detect a change in platinum oxidation states. It is important to note that at least 10% of the immobilised platinum synchrotron radiation would detect the change in speciation are representative of the XANES spectra (data not shown).

Figures 3.8 and 3.9 show the XANES and EXAFS spectra with 5000 μM ($1000 \mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) Pt^{2+} peaks. Similar spectra were obtained from reactions with 5000 μM ($1000 \mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) Pt^{2+} and Pt^{4+} solutions (data not shown). Examination of the EXAFS demonstrated that the Pt fingerprint decreased in intensity over time, indicating that the chlorine $^{2+}$ was displaced by another binding partner. This indicates that the replacement was immediate, as the short time between bonds occurred within 1 min; however, gradual Pt^{2+} with substitution of chlorine continued over the 4 week period. The Pt bond length is best matched to oxygen on a carboxyl group, indicative of Pt on carboxyl groups is $\sim 2.06 \text{ \AA}$, which compares to 2.07 \AA and 2.08 \AA bonded distances (Cotton and Murrells 2000; Murrells et al 2009).

PtCl fingerp

Figure 3.8. EXAFS spectra of bacteria reacted with PtCl_4^{2-} for 1, 7, 14, 21, and 28 days. The arrow indicates the Pt-L edge, which decreases over time. There is a shift in the Pt-L edge from 15000 eV to 15010 eV over the 28 days, indicating that synchrotron energy did not deter

Figure 1. XAFS spectra of bacteria reacted with 5000 ppm (1000 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) arrows show the first shell binding - Carbonate Phosphate

3.4. Discussion

The interaction of platinum with bacteria resulted in a variety of bacterial responses: cell death and cytolysis, plasmid formation, which were directly proportional to time (Table 3.2).

The literature lacks consistent experimental data on the potential of platinum complexes in the interactions system. Under Pt²⁺ and Pt⁴⁺. Likely compounds include PtCl₄ and PtCl₆⁴⁻ but very little data exists for these complexes (Beveridge and Murray 1980; Nies 1992; Azaroff 2001; Coleman 2008). EXAFS confirmed that Pt²⁺ to be the dominant aqueous species prior to cell uptake of other metals, by mobilisation of the cell envelope within the cytoplasm (Beveridge and Murray 1980; Nies 1992).

Platinum sorption through and then immobilisation occurred and the cell surface reactivity controlled by the proton exchange-capacity (CEC) of the soil (IR-OP₂ and (R₂PO₂H) amino-NH₃⁺ and hydroxyl (R-OH) functional groups on the membrane but the 500 μM threshold concentration of carboxyl groups would be deprotonated, negatively charged and available for reaction with oxidised platinum and hydroxyl groups remained protonated and positively charged. The conditions consistent with the acidity of natural solutions used in the experiment.

Murray 1980; Elisei 1997; Gutina 2006) XANES and EXAFS spectra clearly show the replacement of chlorine for oxygen on carboxyl binding mechanism. Noting that the mobilised platinum occurs as organo platinum complexes at the cell surface and in the cytoplasm, organo platinum complexes may be preferred to inorganic complexes. This process has been demonstrated by the fact that carboxyl functional groups on soluble organic acids are able to react with platinum organo complexes (Vlastakis 1999; Wood 2000; Webdal 1992; Kubrakova 2011).

As suggested by Berneer Murray (1980), platinum binding to the cell envelope likely proceeded first as a stoichiometric event, where platinum and then as a nucleation event, where nanoparticles formed non-stoichiometrically, which continued at a slower pace. That occurs in a progressive staining of the cell formation of nanoparticles at increasing times and concentrations indicated that this process may be a necessary step in the system. Platinum in a cell was also observed. The rapid uptake of platinum may have occurred via membrane transport proteins that regulate the entry of these particles into the cell. All complexes freely enter the cell driven by the concentration gradient that exists (Nascos 1999). The entry of platinum by passive diffusion would have ceased once platinum concentrations within the cell equalled the platinum concentration within the extracellular medium. Aqueous platinum that is neutral at the neutral pH of the cytoplasm

bound to deprotonated functional groups or as a complexed group (Fiserl et al 1997; Gutierrez 2006)

Bacterial cells that remained viable following exposure to platinum would have presumably initiated a biological response, an attempt to survive in which cells inhibit the function of important proteins and bind to important functional groups, or alter important physiological processes. Detoxification responses include chemical reduction or complexation of metal to a less toxic state and/or the excretion of the metal. The cell's mitigation response in the cell of energy and cause a decline in oxidative metabolism, leading to continued cell death at long term exposure (Girvan et al 1996, Nishikawa et al 1999). XANES did not indicate platinum reduction, therefore it appears as a nanometre platinum in the cytoplasm (and at the cell surface) and evidence that some platinum reduction occurred.

The relationship between toxicity and immobilization is shown in a comparison of Tables 4.3 and Tables 3.5. For a particular platinum species, immobilisation generally corresponds to a reduction in cell death. The more platinum that was immobilised, the more resistant the cells were. Figure 4.1, 5000 μM Pt⁴⁺ demonstrates that the toxicity experienced by the cells is not directly proportional to the amount of platinum due to a platinum effect. Similarly, cell death was immediate at 1000 μM and 5000 μM Pt⁴⁺, but when cells were exposed to pH 4.0 comparable solutions of HCl, corresponding to the same amount of platinum (not shown). Intuitively, acidic solutions will induce some

results demonstrate that platinum immobilization triggered toxicity is important and dead cells cannot actively remove platinum. Immobilisation of cells at 5000 μM solution killed bacteria within 1 minute and platinisation. Dead cells no longer metabolise and the proton motive force is not maintained. Consequently, there is less competition for platinum groups (Urrutia *et al.* 2002). The reactivity of metallic species is known to be higher than the reactivity of platinum. In this situation, the appearance of new reactive sites from denatured cytoplasmic contents likely contributed to the continued toxicity even when cell death was observed.

Further examination and comparison of Tables 3.2 to 3.5 revealed differences between the reaction systems. First, reactions involving toxic platinum species were more significant in acidic solutions as they remained viable following exposure. Platinum species are known to neutralise and precipitate multivalent cation efflux ATPases (Urrutia *et al.* 2009). It is also important to note that bacteria were able to remove platinum from a concentration and character of platinum vs. hydronium, platinum systems were reduced by approximately 2 orders of magnitude and generally

concentration in P^{H} systems. They would have easily displaced hydronium for carboxyl binding sites where there are more competition and therefore less opportunity to be bound and immobilised.

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Chapter 4

Conclusions

The traditional notion that platinum is inert has been a biogeochemical paradigm (Anthony and Williams 1994). The transport of platinum from the mantle to the crust and its subsequent transport to air and water is a complex process. The presence of platinum in primary magmatic host rocks is an incomplete metallogeny of platinum. Subsequent to magmatic dissolution, transportation and precipitation, biological and abiotic processes potentially play a role. These processes may be key components in placer platinum formation (Fulford and Ross 1974; Bowles and Azarova 2001; Hanley et al. 2005, 2009). The structural and chemical examination of platinum grains, revealing dissolution features, and the biogeochemistry of candidate platinum compounds have demonstrated more to learn about the mobility of platinum in natural systems. This work has highlighted the importance of identifying platinum compounds in platinum exploration, which could lead to applications for

With respect to the current controversy regarding the mechanism of platinum precipitation and growth of platinum grains (Fulford 2009), this work on Australian platinum grains, which provides clear evidence that platinum found in natural systems ultimately comes from primary magmatic material, supports the dissolution-precipitation model. This work highlights the importance of examining platinum grains in detail using secondary imaging before, more classic, cross polishing to

mineral grains. Deep weathering scars, pits and cavities of platinum grains are important sites of mechanical and weathering. SEM micrographs show delicate mineral structures that could be lost by polishing and wouldn't be as obvious in a TEM image, which does not achieve the same resolution as SEM. The dissolution of the bulk nugget around these minerals demonstrates a homogenous, reflecting the geological conditions of the mineral. The mineral left in the regolith or the alluvium. The presence of iron oxides provides evidence that acidic conditions occur and presents a possible mechanism for chemical dissolution (Guilbert 1986, 2005).

For future work on this system, the next step in characterization from Fifield requires that the same techniques be used as was used to study their surfaces. Any weathering features and the bulk, interior of the nugget needs to be characterized for heterogeneity, from the periphery of platinum grains to the interior. Preferential weathering of the bulk grain is a real possibility (Traore et al. 2008). Synchrotron element mapping could be used to detect interior morphological features noted in microscopy with XRF. Element mapping would likely be able to detect the chemical gradient from surface to interior and precipitation processes affecting platinum grains.

A large number of microorganism have been implicate cycling of arte\$al surface or surface conditions (Southam and Reith a2009; Southam 2009). The precipitation of secondary bacteria has been well documented (Southam and Beveridge 2006, 2009; Lengen and Southam 2007). A c micromediated mobilisation of platinum was hypothesized chemical similarity of gold and platinum, but did not occur et al1990; Coats 2007). *Whiplash* is a metal resistant soil bacterium that has been reported to mobilise platinum (Reith a2006; 2009) mobilised appreciable amounts of platinum quantities by mass (see Tables 3.4 and 3.5) in platinum immobilised appreciable amounts of secondary platinum. TEM clearly d immobilised at the cell envelope and within the cytoplasm immobilisation was determined by synchrotron radiation (existing as platinum bound to exposed hydroxyl groups on the cell wall and within the cytoplasm (Beveridge 1986, Mountain and Wood 1992, Wood 1997, Zarrouk et al 2001; Goiné 2006). Although platinum reduction was not synchrotron methods, the reduction of at least some of the particles of elemental platinum was observed in a number of ubiquitous nature of bacteria in natural environments and the h both ^{2+}Pt and ^{4+}Pt for organically derived carboxyl functional groups suggests that platinum must be important in natural systems.

bearing materials are exposed to weathering conditions, platinum in association with organic acids and the biosphere.

Work into understanding the biosphere's influence on biogeochemical cycles of platinum continue. Recommendations for future experiments include: exposing to aqueous platinum species for periods of time (months) to promote and examine platinum precipitation. et al (2006a) exposed cyanobacteria to platinum for up to a month and reported immobilisation of platinum particles. Given that consortia of other microbes should be tested for their ability to immobilise platinum. Likely, many bacteria are able to precipitate platinum. The combined presence in weathering profiles may provide for platinum transformation. Also, bacterial interactions are likely not responsible for the immobilisation of aqueous platinum species in the weathering profiles of platinum-bearing material in primary ore deposits. The sulphur-oxidising bacterium *Acidithiobacillus thiooxidans* and sulphur-oxidising bacterium *Acidithiobacillus ferrooxidans* contribute to the supergene enrichment of platinum via metal oxidation and sulphuric acid production (Stumm 1970; Lizama et al 1985; Sillitoe 2006). As platinum is the main PGE in most world's platinum deposits, including the Merensky Reef in the Bushveld Igneous Complex, bacteria may be able to enhance platinum in the host rocks (Macdonald 1987; Teluk 2001).

The current value of platinum has nearly matched gold prices in the highs over the last few years. Continued exploration and mining

these prices and companies will look for more effective ways and processing techniques to boost the amount of minerals they use once inaccessible minerals dissolved in mine waste rock piles could improve efficiency for mining companies. Furthermore, some of the minerals and precious metals, microbes may one day be used as bioplutonium emitters (Corbisier 1997, ORCID).

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Appendix Chapter 2

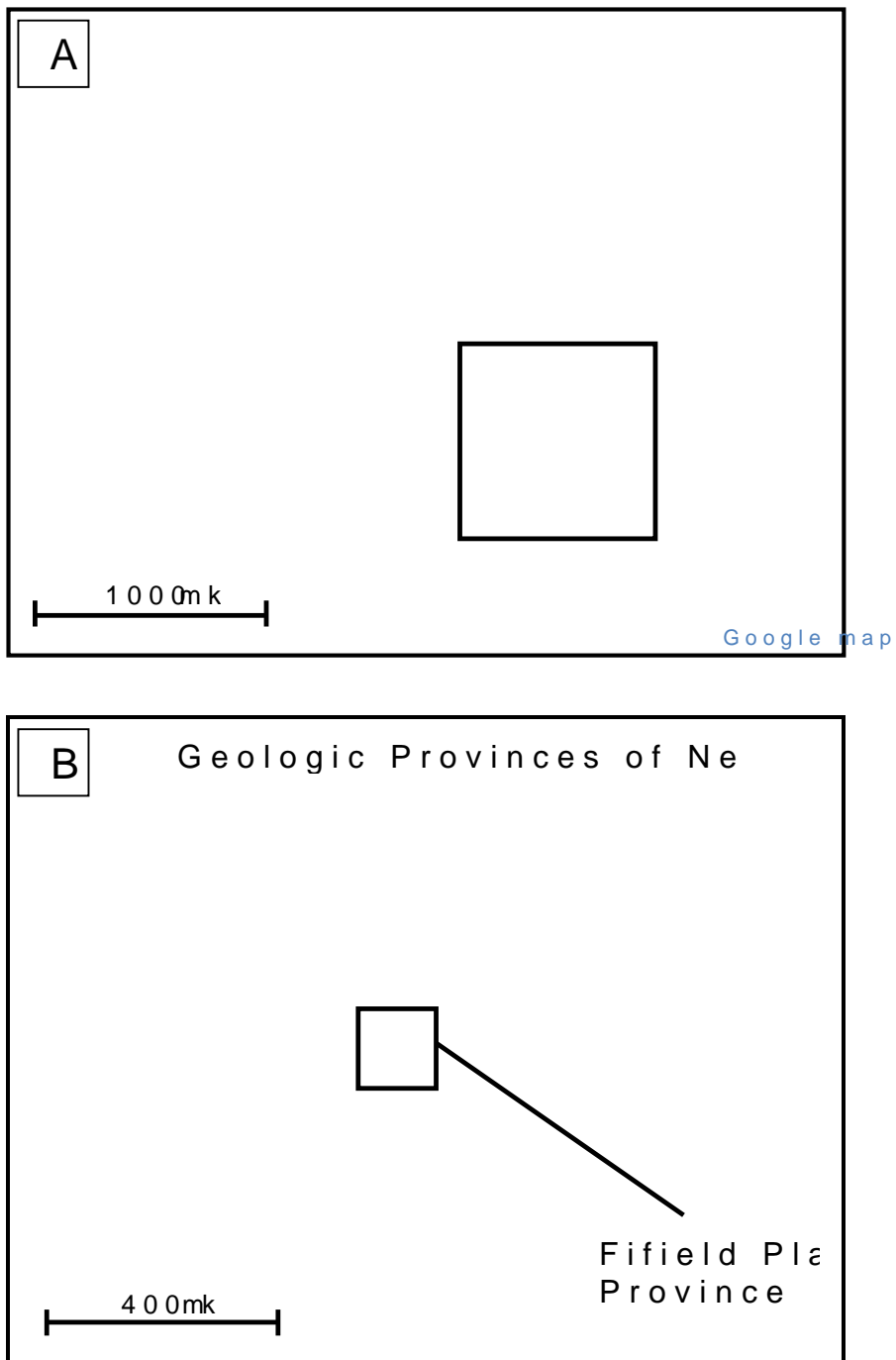


Figure 2.1A: Map of Australia with state of New South Wales highlighted. Figure 2.1B: Geologic provinces of New South Wales and squared area noting the location of the Fifield Plateau Province (Xiet al. 2009)

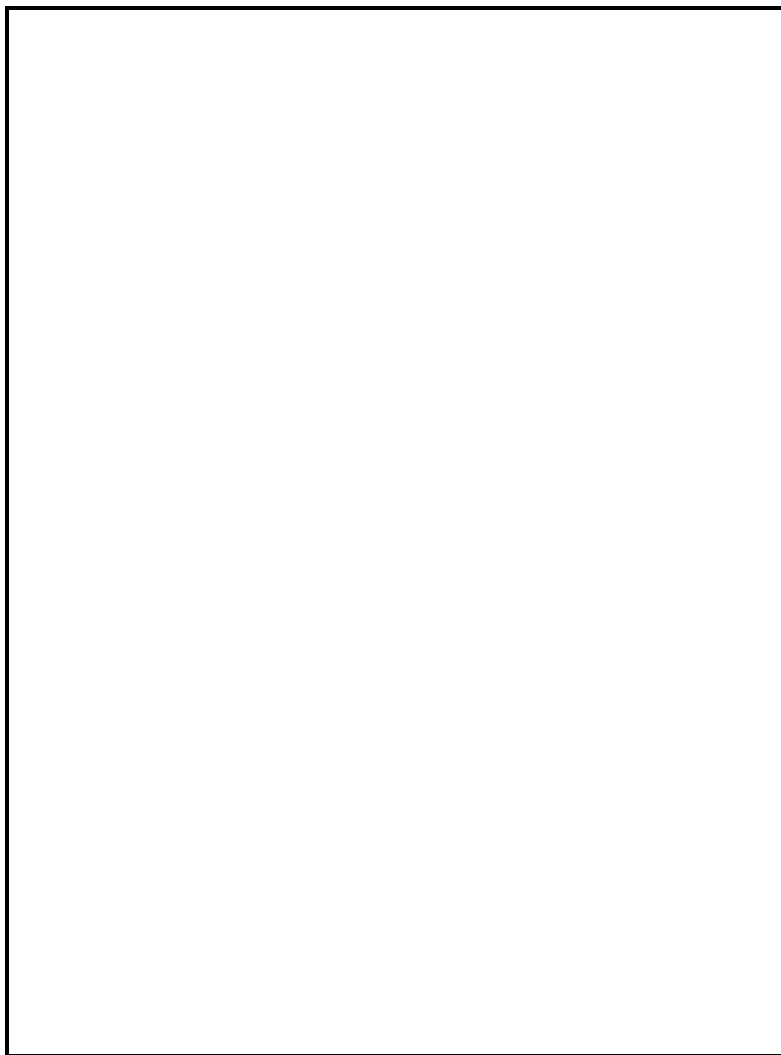


Figure A.2 Schematic profile of Fifield Platinum Province la
Platinum is found in high grade goethite zone.

μ XRD of Pt₃Fe

- Isoferroplatin (PDF# 09020716) (↑)
- Isoferroplatin (PDF# 09020716) (↓)

Figure μ XRD of platinum grain in Figure 2.3 AFETabloy, ulle rgnáíedisa (Pt₃Fe).

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Curriculum Vitae

S. Gordon Campbell

Postsecondary Education and Degrees: University of Western Ontario, London, Ontario
2011-2012
M.Sc. Geology

University of Alberta, Edmonton, Alberta
2002-2006
B.Comm. Finance

University of Illinois, Champaign, Illinois
2000-2003
B.Sc. Biology

Honours and Awards: NSERC Canada Graduate Scholarship
2011-2015

Provincial Ontario Graduate Scholarship,
2011-2012

BP Canada Energy Scholarship in Business,
2005

Related Work Experience: Teaching Assistant
2011, University of Western Ontario, Department of

Senior Financial Analyst,
2007-2010, Sobeys Corporate Office, Edmonton, Alberta

Lab Technician
2003-2006, University of Alberta, Plant Physiology & Horticulture

Scholarly Activity: Outreach video
2011-2012, University of Western Ontario, Department of

Goldschmidt Geochemistry Conference
Prague, Czech Republic, August 2011: Poster