Hydrogen and minor element incorporation in synthetic rutile

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Abstract

The solubility and incorporation mechanisms of H and various trivalent and divalent cations in synthetic rutile have been investigated. Experiments performed using different bulk Fe₂O₃ contents demonstrate that Fe³⁺ substitutes onto the main Ti site, charge-balanced by oxygen vacancies. Under more reducing conditions in Fe-poor systems, the concentration of Ti interstitials in rutile is increased, resulting in a decrease in H solubility. Variation in the solubility of different oxides in rutile as a function of ionic radius implies substitution onto the main Ti site, probably charge-balanced by oxygen vacancies. To a lesser degree, substitution of trivalent and divalent cations is locally charge-balanced by H incorporation. Variation in OH-stretching frequencies in infrared spectra as a function of composition implies that octahedral defects and structurally-incorporated H are coupled. However, in all samples, some of the H is also decoupled from substitutional impurities, as is evident from an OH-absorption band at 3279 cm⁻¹. This band corresponds to the main OH band seen in spectra of many natural rutiles, implying that in most rutiles, H defects are decoupled from substitutional defects.

Keywords: rutile, hydrogen, substitution, solubility, spectroscopy.

Introduction

Rutile is the most common, naturally occurring form of titanium oxide (TiO₂), and is an accessory mineral in many igneous and metamorphic rocks. In high-pressure and ultra-high-pressure eclogites, modal percentages of rutile may reach several wt.%. Rutile has a simple tetragonal structure, with each Ti⁴⁺ ion surrounded by six oxygens at the corners of a slightly distorted, regular octahedron, and each oxygen surrounded by three Ti⁴⁺ ions lying in a plane at the corners of an approximately equilateral triangle (Deer et al., 1992). Rutile can contain variable amounts of pentavalent (Nb⁵⁺, Ta⁵⁺), trivalent (Fe³⁺, Al³⁺, Cr³⁺) and, to a lesser degree divalent (Mg²⁺, Ca²⁺) cations. Coupled substitution of pentavalent and trivalent cations onto Ti⁴⁺ sites maintains charge neutrality. In addition, substitution of lower-valence cations may be charge-balanced by incorporation of hydrogen in the rutile structure (Johnson et al., 1968). Studies of natural rutiles from various geological terrains have also demonstrated the great affinity of rutile for hydrogen incorporation, and rutile is one of the most 'hydrous' nominally-anhydrous minerals (NAMs) so far identified (Rossman and Smyth, 1990; Vlassopoulos et al., 1993).

Rutile is also a useful solid material because of its diverse physical properties and unique photochemical function. The electronic and optical properties of reduced, synthetic rutile and its defect structures have been the subject of a considerable amount of research in the fields of applied physics, solid-state chemistry and materials science (Lu et al., 2001). Rutile, therefore, provides a useful model system for investigating the incorporation of coupled lower-valence cations and hydrogen in NAMs. In addition, the system TiO₂ provides a lower-pressure analogue for understanding the SiO₂ system: rutile is isostructural with stishovite, and investigation of hydroxyl incorporation in rutile could provide useful constraints on the importance of hydroxyl incorporation in stishovite (Smyth et al., 1995).

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Experimental method

Sample synthesis

Several samples of rutile doped with various trivalent and divalent cations were synthesized at 2.0 GPa, 1100°C under water-saturated conditions to investigate coupled substitution of H and lower-valence cations. Starting mixes were prepared from high-purity oxides: TiO₂ (99.998%), Fe₂O₃ (99.998%), Al₂O₃ (99.99%), Cr₂O₃ (99.999%), Ga₂O₃ (99.99%), MgO (99.99%), and CaO (99.9%). Two series of synthesis experiments were performed. In the first series of experiments, starting mixes of pure TiO₂ and TiO₂ with 1.0, 2.0 and 5.0 wt.% Fe₂O₃ were prepared by weighing out 3 g of the starting mixture, and then grinding the mixture under ethanol in an automated pestle and mortar for at least 2 h. In the second series of experiments, starting mixes were prepared from TiO₂ with 5 wt.% Al₂O₃, Cr₂O₃, Ga₂O₃, MgO and CaO using the same method. Starting mixes for all experiments were loaded into 10 mm long, 5 mm diameter Pt capsules with 10 wt.% water. Capsules were welded shut, placed in pyrophyllite sleeves and loaded into ½ inch tael-pyrex piston-cylinder sample assemblies. These sample assemblies contained an internal, tapered, graphite resistance furnace to ensure minimal temperature gradients along the length of the capsule. Full details of pressure and temperature calibration and accuracy are given in Bromiley and Keppler (2004). Experiments were pressurized to within 90% of the desired run pressure and then heated at 100°C/min to 1100°C, before being fully pressurized. Pressure and temperature were continually monitored and maintained throughout the runs. Runs were isobarically quenched by turning off power to the heating circuit whilst maintaining run pressure. Recovered capsules were weighed, pierced and placed in a drying oven, and then reweighed to check for the presence of water. In all experiments water was seen escaping from capsules when pierced.

Sample analysis

Phases were identified by micro-Raman spectroscopy using published spectra for rutile (Goresy et al., 2001) and by powder XRD. Single crystals of all samples were placed on glass slides and spectra obtained using a Dilor labram Raman spectrometer equipped with a 20 mW HeNe laser and a microscope. Compositions of samples were determined by electron microprobe analysis (EMPA). Samples were prepared as grain mounts and analysed using a Cameca SX50 electron microscope operating at 15 kV and 15 nA, using the following standards: MnTiO₃ (Ti), gallium arsenide (Ga), chromium metal (Cr), wollastonite (Ca), spinel (Al), enstatite (Mg), hematite (Fe). A count time of 20 s was used for each element.

Infrared spectroscopy

Near-infrared (NIR) spectroscopy was used to investigate hydroxyl incorporation in the synthetic samples. Infrared (IR) spectra were obtained using a Bruker IFS 120 HR high-resolution FTIR spectrometer coupled with a Bruker IR microscope containing all-reflecting Cassegranean optics. The spectrometer contains a permanently aligned Michelson-type interferometer with a 30° angle of incidence on the beamsplitter. Measurements were taken using a tungsten light source, a Si-coated CaF₂ beamsplitter and a narrow-band MCT detector. Up to 400 scans were acquired for each spectrum with a resolution of 1 cm⁻¹. Polarized spectra were recorded using a wire-strip polarizer on a KRS-5 substrate. The optics of the microscope were purged with H₂O- and CO₂-free, purified air during measurements, and the optics of the spectrometer were kept under vacuum to prevent absorption bands caused by water vapour. The FTIR absorption spectra were only obtained from optically clear areas of crystals, using a variable rectangular aperture in the rear focal plane of the 15 × Cassegranean objective. Samples were placed on CaF₂ plates and immersed in polytrichlorofluoroethylene oil to prevent the occurrence of interference fringes. Crystal sizes for samples ranged from 30 to 500 μm, and for some samples, polarized spectra could be obtained from optically aligned crystals. However, for other samples, crystals were too small to be aligned. Therefore, for all samples, water contents were determined using unpolarized radiation. The OH absorption bands in rutile, as in most NAMs, are highly anisotropic, with greatest absorption when the electric vector of the source radiation is polarized perpendicular to the crystallographic c axis (Vlassopoulos et al., 1993). Use of unpolarized radiation could, therefore, lead to inaccuracies in calculated water contents. To avoid this possibility, spectra were obtained from a large number of crystals (typically ~20) in each sample,
**HYDROGEN AND MINOR ELEMENT INCORPORATION IN RUTILE**

**Table 1.** Experimental details, results and composition of run products analysed by EMPA.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Bulk composition</th>
<th>Run products</th>
<th>Colour</th>
<th>Wt.% TiO₂</th>
<th>Wt.% additional oxide</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R1</td>
<td>TiO₂</td>
<td>Rutile</td>
<td>Dark blue</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RFe1</td>
<td>TiO₂ + 1.0</td>
<td>Rutile + ilmenite</td>
<td>Dark yellow-brown</td>
<td>99.88(10)</td>
<td>0.21(2)</td>
<td>100.09(21)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RFe2</td>
<td>TiO₂ + 2.0</td>
<td>Rutile + ilmenite</td>
<td>Yellow-brown</td>
<td>99.74(11)</td>
<td>0.33(3)</td>
<td>100.06(29)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RFe3</td>
<td>TiO₂ + 5</td>
<td>Rutile + ilmenite</td>
<td>Bright</td>
<td>97.22(56)</td>
<td>2.69(9)</td>
<td>99.91(79)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RA1</td>
<td>TiO₂ + 5</td>
<td>Rutile + corundum</td>
<td>Pale blue</td>
<td>97.93(68)</td>
<td>1.96(15)</td>
<td>99.92(79)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMg</td>
<td>TiO₂ + 5</td>
<td>Rutile + geikielite</td>
<td>Colourless</td>
<td>98.68(32)</td>
<td>0.82(2)</td>
<td>99.50(31)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RCr</td>
<td>TiO₂ + 5</td>
<td>Rutile</td>
<td>Red-brown</td>
<td>94.42(11)</td>
<td>4.92(82)</td>
<td>99.38(62)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RC2</td>
<td>TiO₂ + 10</td>
<td>Carmichaelite</td>
<td>(no rutile!)</td>
<td>88.90(65)</td>
<td>10.88(42)</td>
<td>99.78(44)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RGa</td>
<td>TiO₂ + 5</td>
<td>Rutile + unknown phase*</td>
<td>Colourless</td>
<td>96.18(28)</td>
<td>3.92(12)</td>
<td>100.11(28)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RCA</td>
<td>TiO₂ + 5</td>
<td>Rutile + CaTiO₃ perovskite</td>
<td>Colourless</td>
<td>99.61(11)</td>
<td>0.08(3)</td>
<td>99.69(13)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* XRD pattern of unknown (Ga-Ti oxide?) phase has peaks at d spacings of 3.604, 1.87 and 1.81.

and water contents calculated from averaged spectra. Water contents were calculated from integrated IR spectra using the Beer-Lambert law on species absorption, and known IR integral absorption coefficients for rutile. Three different integral absorption coefficients for rutile have been determined: 15,100±500 Lmol⁻¹cm⁻² (Johnson *et al.*, 1968), 3270 Lmol⁻¹cm⁻² (*Hammer and Beran, 1991*) and 38,000 Lmol⁻¹cm⁻² (Maldener *et al.*, 2001). The large disparities between these values are largely the result of the different techniques used to independently calibrate absorption coefficients and the nature of the samples used for the calibration. In this study, we use the calibration of Johnson *et al.* (1973) because it was derived from a study of synthetic rutile and because it gives calculated water contents for rutile samples closer to values derived using the general sample-independent calibrations of Paterson (1982) and Libowitzky and Rossman (1997).

**Fe³⁺ incorporation in synthetic rutile**

The compositions of all run products determined by EMPA are listed in Table 1. Water contents calculated from FTIR spectra are listed in Table 2. Samples R1 to RFe3 were synthesized from starting mixtures with Fe₂O₃ contents ranging from 0 to 5 wt.%. Several interesting features are noted from these experiments. Firstly, in all samples containing iron, additional amounts

**Table 2.** H contents (expressed as water contents) for synthetic rutile determined from NIR analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Integrated absorbance (cm⁻²)</th>
<th>Water content (ppm wt. H₂O)¹</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>R1</td>
<td>642</td>
<td>90±3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RFe1</td>
<td>951</td>
<td>134±4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RFe2</td>
<td>2152</td>
<td>302±10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RFe3</td>
<td>6418</td>
<td>900±31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RA1</td>
<td>12671</td>
<td>1777±57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMg</td>
<td>5470</td>
<td>767±26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RCr</td>
<td>14078</td>
<td>1975±67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RC2</td>
<td>12671</td>
<td>1777±57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RGa</td>
<td>4946</td>
<td>694±23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RCA</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹ Calculated using the integral absorption coefficients for rutile of Johnson *et al.* (1973). Error on calculated value derived from error for integral absorption coefficient.
of an Fe-rich phase, ilmenite (FeTiO$_3$) are present. Iron was added to starting mixes as hematite (i.e. Fe$^{3+}$), thereby implying partial reduction of Fe during the experiments. The Fe content of the rutile samples increases with increasing Fe content of the starting mix. Sample RFe3, synthesized from a starting mixture with 5 wt.% Fe$_2$O$_3$, has the highest Fe content. The Fe content of this sample is, within error, the same as the sample synthesized under the same P-T-H$_2$O conditions in the study by Bromiley et al. (2004a). The only difference in synthesis between these samples is that Bromiley et al. (2004a) used Pt capsules lined with Re foil to prevent Fe-loss to the capsules during the experiment. No Re lining was used in the present study to minimize differences in f$_0$_2 conditions between different experiments. However, comparison of the present results with those of Bromiley et al. (2004a) suggests that the use of Re foil has an undetectable effect on Fe contents of rutile samples. Iron contents of the samples RFe1 and RFe2 (synthesized from starting mixes with 1.0 and 2.0 wt.% Fe$_2$O$_3$, respectively) are considerably lower than sample RFe3 and also much lower than the Fe content of the starting mixes for these experiments. This is an interesting observation because it implies that these samples are under-saturated with respect to Fe. Long run times were used during all experiments to attain chemical equilibrium. During EMPA, no signs of chemical zoning were noted in any rutile samples, and so we assume that the Fe contents of all samples represent equilibrium values.

Another interesting feature of Fe-bearing samples is the colour of the rutile crystals. In sample R1 (Fe-free), rutile crystals are dark blue. This colour is characteristic of rutile samples grown or annealed under reducing conditions. In a detailed spectroscopic study, Khomenko et al. (1998) demonstrated that the colour of reduced, TiO$_2$+$\gamma$ rutile is mainly due to intervalence charge transfer (IVCT) between Ti$^{3+}$ and Ti$^{4+}$ on adjacent interstitial and octahedral sites. The IVCT in rutile is evident from broad absorption in the optical to NIR spectral range. This absorption is seen in NIR spectra obtained from rutile as a characteristic broad absorption band centred around 6000 cm$^{-1}$. Figure 1 shows NIR spectra of samples R1 to RFe3. In contrast to sample R1, sample RFe3 is light yellow in colour. Mössbauer spectra from Fe-doped rutile (Bromiley et al., 2004a) showed that all Fe in synthetic rutile is Fe$^{3+}$, and demonstrated that Fe$^{3+}$ substitutes for Ti$^{4+}$; i.e. Fe$^{3+}$ is present on the octahedral Ti$^{4+}$ site. The light colour of rutile in sample RFe3 is, therefore, probably due to electronic transitions in octahedrally co-ordinated Fe$^{3+}$ (Burns, 1993). The NIR spectra obtained from sample RFe3 (Fig. 1) contain no broad absorption bands, implying an absence of Ti$^{3+}$-Ti$^{4+}$ IVCT. Rutile crystals in samples RFe1 and RFe2 are yellow-brown in colour, implying absorption due to Ti$^{3+}$-Ti$^{4+}$ IVCT and octahedrally coordinated Fe$^{3+}$. The NIR spectra from these samples show some absorption around 6000 cm$^{-1}$ (Fig. 1), although markedly less than for sample R1. In fact, there appears to be a marked correlation between Fe content and absorption due to IVCT: increasing Fe content in the synthetic rutile reduces the amount of Ti$^{3+}$-Ti$^{4+}$ IVCT. A similar phenomenon is well known in industry, where small amounts of trivalent cation substitution (mainly Al$^{3+}$) in nano-phase rutile is used to suppress optical absorption, giving rutile its desired brilliant white colour. It would appear that at high pressure, Fe$^{3+}$ substitution has a similar effect. This effect can be most easily explained by considering mechanisms for trivalent cation substitution in rutile and the synthesis conditions of rutile samples in the present study. Previous investigations of rutile have demonstrated a number of mechanisms for charge-balancing trivalent cation substitutions (Geschenhues and Rentschler, 1999). In natural rutiles, substitution of trivalent cations can be compensated by substitution of pentavalent cations for Ti$^{4+}$ (e.g. Fe$^{3+}$ + Nb$^{5+}$ $\rightarrow$ 2Ti$^{4+}$). However, in the present study, such mechanisms cannot operate. Alternatively, Fe$^{3+}$ substitution could be charge-balanced by H$^+$ incorporation. The NIR spectra for samples shown in Fig. 1 contain sharp bands over the OH-stretching range (4000–2500 cm$^{-1}$), implying the presence of some structurally-incorporated H. However, as can be seen in Tables 1 and 2, H contents of Fe-doped rutile are several orders of magnitude lower than Fe contents, implying that another mechanism is needed to compensate most of the Fe substitution in the samples. Alternatively, Fe substitution could either be charge-balanced by the coupled substitution of trivalent cations (either Fe$^{3+}$ or Ti$^{4+}$) onto interstitial sites or by oxygen vacancies. A wealth of information is available on defects present in reduced rutile (Lu et al., 2001), and there is abundant evidence indicating that both oxygen vacancies and Ti interstitials are present as stable defects. The experimental setup
used in this study produces slightly reducing conditions for sample synthesis (presumably due to the large graphite furnace used in the run assembly). Oxygen fugacity for the experimental setup is estimated to be slightly lower than NNO (Bromiley et al., 2004b), as long as reaction of the starting materials has only a limited influence. Fe substitution in rutile charge-balanced by oxygen vacancies would, therefore, appear possible.

Bromiley et al. (2004a) suggested that this was the most likely mechanism for charge-balancing Fe incorporation in rutile and its high-pressure form TiO₂ (II) because Mössbauer spectra from both phases consisted of a single quadrupole doublet (due to octahedrally-coordinated Fe³⁺), with no evidence noted for Fe³⁺ occupancy of more than one site. This observation is important, because although the main interstitial site in rutile
is octahedral, it is considerably more distorted than the regular Ti$^{4+}$ site, and occupancy of both octahedral and interstitial sites by Fe$^{3+}$ should be detectable by Mössbauer spectroscopy. However, this would not completely exclude the possibility that a small amount of Fe$^{3+}$ in the synthetic rutile could also be present on the main interstitial site. Interstitial Ti$^{3+}$ in samples RFc1 and RFc2 could provide an additional charge-balancing mechanism for Fe substitution. However, this is a somewhat unsatisfactory conclusion to draw because it does not fully explain why there is no interstitial Ti$^{3+}$ in sample R3, and is inconsistent with the observed decrease in IVCT absorption with increasing Fe content. To explain some of the unusual features noted in these experiments, we need first to summarize what we know about stable defects present in the reduced rutile samples, and what reactions must occur during the synthesis of Fe-bearing rutile.

Firstly, it has been demonstrated that reduced rutile (pure TiO$_2$) contains interstitial Ti$^{3+}$ (Ti$_{i\text{-}}$) in the Kröger-Vink notation), presumably some octahedral Ti$^{3+}$ (Ti$_{o\text{-}}$) and oxygen vacancies (V$_{O\text{-}}$) as stable defects. For the present discussion we will ignore the minor effect that H interstitials (H$_i$) could have. In the Fe-doped samples we also have Fe$_{Ti\text{-}}$ defects and possibly small amounts of interstitial Fe (Fe$_{i\text{-}}$). Ti$_{i\text{-}}$ are only present in samples RFc1 and RFc2, which also have lower Fe contents than might be expected. If we conclude that the main mechanism for charge-balancing Fe$_{Ti\text{-}}$ are V$_{O\text{-}}$ (as decoupled defects, because Fe is in octahedral coordination), then we can assume that the Fe content of Fe-saturated rutile is a function of f$_{O\text{-}}$. Therefore, the reducing conditions of the experimental synthesis would effectively govern the amount of Fe$^{3+}$ incorporated. However, in the different synthesis experiments, several competing reactions must occur, and these probably affect f$_{O\text{-}}$ in turn. Presumably, Fe$_2$O$_3$ in the starting mixture reacts with TiO$_2$ to form Fe-doped rutile, but must also be partly reduced and react with TiO$_2$ to form ilmenite. We can write a simple equation to describe the equilibrium condition:

$$2\text{FeTiO}_3 + \frac{3}{2}\text{O}_2 = \text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3 + 2\text{TiO}_2$$

where ss indicates solid solution of the components in rutile. In Fe-rich systems, reaction 1 probably controls the f$_{O\text{-}}$ in the capsule, buffering it to a higher value than expected. In contrast, experiments performed using low bulk Fe$_2$O$_3$ contents must be more reducing, because the presence of Ti$_{i\text{-}}$ defects in Fe-poor rutile implies TiO$_2$ reduction. According to reaction 1, more reducing conditions would result in lower Fe$_2$O$_3$ contents in rutile, which is exactly what is seen in our experiments. This situation is probably further complicated by the additional, minor effect of H incorporation in rutile, which implies breakdown of H$_2$O. However, the overall effect of bulk Fe$_2$O$_3$ content on the Fe$_2$O$_3$ content of rutile and the concentration of Ti$_{i\text{-}}$ defects in rutile strongly suggests that the controlling factor in all experiments is the f$_{O\text{-}}$, which can be buffered at higher values in Fe-rich systems relative to Fe-poor systems, because Fe$_2$O$_3$ in the starting mix acts as a source for O$_2$. In turn, this implies that Fe$^{3+}$ substitution for Ti$^{4+}$ in rutile is mainly charge-balanced by F$_{O\text{-}}$ rather than by interstitial cations. Unfortunately, Fe$_2$O$_3$ contents of samples RFc1 and RFc2 were too low for investigation of Fe incorporation using Mössbauer spectroscopy, which might reveal any differences in mechanisms for Fe incorporation between samples RFc1 and RFc2 compared to RFc3. Further attempts to synthesize Fe-undersaturated rutile with Fe contents >0.3 wt% using various additional solid oxygen buffers have been unsuccessful, probably due to the dominant influence of the bulk composition on prevailing oxygen fugacity during synthesis.

**H incorporation in rutile as a function of Fe$_2$O$_3$ content**

As previously noted, all NIR spectra shown in Fig. 1 contain sharp OH-absorption bands, implying the presence of structurally-incorporated H. These OH-absorption bands are shown in more detail in Fig. 2. Spectra obtained from R1 (pure TiO$_2$) contain one absorption band at 3279 cm$^{-1}$, implying the presence of H in one position in the rutile structure. Due to the absence of other substitutional impurities, H incorporation in R1 is probably charge-balanced by Ti$^{3+}$ reduction. Swope et al. (1995) refined the H position in a natural, H-bearing rutile from neutron diffraction data, and demonstrated that H is incorporated in rutile close to ($\frac{3}{2}$,$\frac{3}{2}$,0), just off the shared O-O edge in the octahedral chain. This assignment is consistent with published polarized IR spectra from synthetic and natural rutile (Johnson et al., 1968; Vlasisopoulos et al., 1993), where vibration of the OH dipole is almost completely perpendicular to the crystallographic c axis. In contrast to
the R1 spectrum shown in Fig. 2, IR spectra obtained from synthetic, high-pressure water-saturated rutile by Khomenko et al. (1998) contain two OH-absorption bands, a large band at 3279 cm\(^{-1}\) (i.e. similar to the band in the spectrum from R1), and a smaller, additional band at 3324 cm\(^{-1}\). This second absorption band has also been noted in some other studies of synthetic rutile (e.g. Hammer and Beran, 1991) and shows the same anisotropy as noted for the band at 3279 cm\(^{-1}\). Based on the behaviour of these two bands during annealing, Khomenko et al. (1998) suggested that the band at 3324 cm\(^{-1}\) was due to H related to Ti\(^{3+}\) (i.e. Ti\(_{V}\)), whilst the band at 3379 cm\(^{-1}\) was due to H unrelated to any Ti\(^{3+}\) defects. This assignment is in accordance with spectroscopic investigation of natural rutile (Johnson et al., 1968; Vlassopoulos et al., 1993); IR spectra of natural rutiles often contain a sharp absorption band at 3279 cm\(^{-1}\), and more rarely, additional absorption bands at higher or lower wavenumbers. Johnson et al. (1968) suggested that the band at 3279 cm\(^{-1}\) was due to H not associated with any compositional defects, and that other OH bands were due to H associated with trivalent or divalent cations on the Ti\(^{4+}\) octahedral site. If correct, this assignment implies that all the H present in sample R1 is decoupled from any Ti\(^{3+}\) defects.

Spectra obtained from rutile in samples R1 and R2 contain two overlapping absorption bands, one at 3279 cm\(^{-1}\) (similar to R1) and an additional band at 3295 cm\(^{-1}\). This additional band is probably due to H associated with Fe\(^{3+}\) impurities. Regardless of whether we assign the OH band at 3279 cm\(^{-1}\) to H associated with Ti\(^{3+}\) or H unassociated with compositional impurities, the shift of the additional (3295 cm\(^{-1}\)) OH band to lower wavenumbers strongly implies NNN effects. That is, H and Fe\(^{3+}\) probably form a defect cluster, with the proton associated with an O surrounding a Ti octahedral site occupied by Fe\(^{3+}\) (i.e. Fe\(_{V}\) – H\(_{i}\)). From this we can conclude that in the Fe-doped samples, a certain amount of structurally incorporated H becomes coupled to Fe\(_{V}\) defects, with the remaining H either decoupled, or conceivably coupled with Ti\(_{V}\) defects. Spectra obtained from sample R3 also contain the Fe\(_{V}\) – H\(_{i}\) absorption band at 3295 cm\(^{-1}\). In the R3 spectrum in Fig. 2 this
band is broad and appears to be slightly asymmetric. By comparing all the spectra in Fig. 2, it can be seen that the 3295 cm⁻¹ band in this spectrum probably contains a shoulder at 3279 cm⁻¹, implying the presence of H not associated with FeTᵢ⁺, or H associated with Ti⁷⁺. In the first instance this would imply that even in Fe-rich rutile, a considerable proportion of the H remains decoupled from substitutional impurities, which could have an important influence on H mobility and H diffusion in rutile. In the second instance, the presence of an additional band would imply the presence of reduced Ti only on octahedral sites and not on interstitial sites (i.e. no absorption due to IVCT) in the Fe-rich sample, and would imply that H solubility in the Fe-rich rutile sample is too great only to be compensated by FeTᵢ⁻ defects. This last conclusion is somewhat problematic, because the Fe³⁺ content of this sample is several orders of magnitude higher than the H content, implying that isolated FeTᵢ⁻ defects (which must be decoupled from V₀⁻⁻ due to evidence from Mössbauer spectroscopy) are intrinsically more stable than coupled FeTᵢ⁻ – Hᵢ⁻ defects.

One striking feature of the spectra shown in Fig. 2 is that the height of all OH absorption bands increases significantly with increasing Fe content of the samples. This implies that water contents of the samples increase with increasing Fe content. Lower water contents in Fe-poor samples are probably related to the presence of interstitial Ti³⁺, which could quite conceivably reduce H affinity in the samples due to an increase in O overbonding. It should be noted that increasing H contents with Fe content do not reflect the relative H affinity of rutile due to differences between the H incorporation mechanisms (i.e. FeTᵢ⁻ – Hᵢ⁻ compared to Hᵢ⁻ or Ti⁷⁺ – Hᵢ⁻) because both the bands at 3279 and 3295 cm⁻¹ show an increase in peak height with increasing Fe content.

**Solubility of minor elements in synthetic rutile**

Experimental details, run products and the compositions of rutile are listed in Table 1. In all experiments except RCr₂, rutile was the main run product. In all experiments except R1 (pure TiO₂) and RCr, small amounts of an additional phase were also present, implying saturation of the rutile with respect to the additional oxides. In experiment RCr, no additional phase was present, and the rutile contains, within error, the same amount of Cr₂O₃ as the starting mixture, possibly implying undersaturation. To determine whether this was the case, we performed an additional experiment, RCr₂, using a starting mixture with 10 wt.% Cr₂O₃. In this experiment, the phase carmichaelite was synthesized, and no rutile was present in the run products. Carmichaelite, [MO₂₋ₓ(OH)ₓ, where M includes Ti, Cr, Fe, Mg and Al] is a hydrous titanate only recently described (Wang et al., 1999; Wang et al., 2000). Wang et al. (2000) describe an occurrence of carmichaelite in Garnet Ridge, Arizona, where it precipitated with its pyrope host and other titanates at temperatures of 650–750°C, and pressures of 2.0–2.5 GPa. They concluded that carmichaelite is probably stabilized by high pressure and high Cr contents. This appears to be consistent with the results of experiments RCr and RCr₂, with carmichaelite only stabilized with Cr contents above 5 wt.%. The temperature of synthesis of experiment RCr₂ demonstrates a high thermal stability for this phase. To our knowledge, this is the only reported synthesis of this phase, and more work is required to determine its stability and possible significance for mantle geochemistry.

From Table 1 it can be seen that the solubility of additional oxides in the rutile samples varies considerably as a function of composition. For Fe-bearing samples a complex relationship between bulk composition and fO₂ appears to have an effect on Fe₂O₃ solubility in the samples. However, this situation is not expected to be as complex for Al³⁺, Mg²⁺, Cr³⁺, Ga⁵⁺, Ca²⁺ because these cations only have one common oxidation state in rock-forming minerals (except Cr, which may be present as Cr²⁺ under exceptional circumstances). The NIR spectra from all rutile samples except R1, RFe₁ and RFe₂ show no broad absorption bands due to Ti³⁺–Ti⁴⁺ IVCT. However, in sample RAl, rutile crystals are very pale blue. The colour of these crystals cannot be due to a crystal field effect involving Al³⁺ substitution because it has no electrons in d orbitals. More likely, this slight colouration is also due to Ti³⁺–Ti⁴⁺ IVCT, presumably below the detection limit of the spectrometer. Likewise, Ga-, Ca- and Mg-bearing rutile crystals are colourless due to a complete absence of Ti³⁺. In contrast, Cr-bearing rutile is dark red-brown, probably due to a crystal field splitting effect involving Cr³⁺ on a cation site (Burns, 1993), presumably CrTᵢ⁻. Figure 3 shows a plot of difference in ionic radii between various cations from that of Ti⁴⁺.
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against their measured solubility in synthetic rutile. A clear trend is noted in the plot. With increasing difference in ionic radii, the solubility of the cation decreases. Such a relationship would be expected for direct substitution of various cations for Ti$^{4+}$. However, this plot masks some obvious discrepancies. Firstly, we have seen that Fe$_2$O$_3$ reduction probably has an influence on solubility of Fe$_2$O$_3$ in rutile in sample RFe3. Secondly, sample RCr is possibly Cr-under-saturated, although, by inference to the Fe-bearing series of experiments, the lack of IVCT may indicate that rutile in this sample is close to, or at, saturation. Thirdly, and to a lesser degree, we can infer that in addition to Al$^{3+}$, sample RAl also contains Ti$^{3+}$ defects. However, the broad trend that we see in Fig. 3 probably indicates a similar incorporation mechanism for the various trivalent and divalent cations in rutile. As noted above, Mössbauer spectra obtained from Fe-doped rutile and TiO$_2$(II) indicate that Fe$^{3+}$ in both phases is present on the octahedral (Ti$^{4+}$) site (Bromley et al., 2004a). Computer simulations of defect structures in rutile have also demonstrated that Cr$^{3+}$, Al$^{3+}$, Ga$^{3+}$ and Fe$^{3+}$ are preferentially incorporated in rutile onto the octahedral site, charge-balanced by oxygen vacancies (Sayle et al., 1995). In a study of synthetic Al-doped rutile, Gesenhues and Rentschler (1999) showed that at ambient pressure, Al$^{3+}$ substitution for Ti$^{4+}$ is charge-balanced by oxygen vacancies, but that with increasing Al$_2$O$_3$ contents, some Al$^{3+}$ is addition-

ally put onto interstitial sites. However, the most important mechanism for incorporation of lower-valence cations in synthetic rutile is probably direct substitution for Ti$^{3+}$ (i.e. direct substitution onto the octahedral site in the rutile structure), charge-balanced by proton incorporation or oxygen vacancies. It is possible that to a much lesser degree trivalent cations are also present on interstitial sites. Lack of a noticeable deviation for Fe$^{3+}$ from the trend in Fig. 3 could imply that any change in Fe$_2$O$_3$ solubility due to self-buffering of $f_{O_2}$ is not large enough to be detected. Likewise, the presence of Ti$^{3+}$ in rutile in sample RAl does not alter Al solubility by a large enough degree to influence the plot in Fig. 3. However, it is possible that with extension of the present dataset to include the solubility of a larger number of trivalent and divalent cations in rutile, such deviations could be observed.

Coupled H and minor element incorporation in synthetic rutile

The NIR spectra obtained from synthetic rutile doped with 5 wt.% additional oxides are shown in Fig. 4. All spectra, except those obtained from sample RCa (not shown), contain OH-stretching absorption bands over the wavenumber range 4000–2500 cm$^{-1}$, implying the presence of structurally-incorporated H. Spectra obtained from RAl contained no features over this wavenumber range, implying an absence of H in the structure. Polarized spectra were obtained from crystals in samples RFe, RCr and RGa, and show that the main absorption bands in these spectra have a 95% component of vibration perpendicular to the crystallographic c axis, consistent with the H incorporation mechanism proposed by Swope et al. (1995). The water contents for all samples were calculated from unpolarized IR spectra and are listed in Table 2.

Spectra from all samples consist of one main absorption band. In Fe-, Al-, Cr- and Ga-bearing rutile, this absorption band is at 3295, 3308, 3257 and 3314 cm$^{-1}$, respectively. Variation in the wavenumber of the main OH band with composition is consistent with the formation of coupled defects involving trivalent cations and H, $(M_{Ti} - \text{H}_2)$. In addition to the main OH-absorption band, these spectra also contain an additional band at ~3279 cm$^{-1}$, usually only seen as a slight shoulder on the main OH-absorption band. As noted for the Fe-bearing samples, this band is probably due to H decoupled from any
compositional defects, but could also be due to H
associated with Ti$^{3+}$. Spectra from sample RA1
also contain a small OH absorption band at much
higher wavenumbers, 3551 cm$^{-1}$, which is not
seen in the spectra of any other samples, and
suggests that there is another mechanism for H
incorporation in the Al-bearing rutile. Gesenhues
and Rentschler (1999) noted that synthetic rutile
grown at ambient pressure doped with large
amounts of Al$_2$O$_3$ contains Al$^{3+}$ on both
octahedral and interstitial sites. The additional
band at 3551 cm$^{-1}$ could possibly be due to H$^+$
incorporation related to interstitial Al$^{3+}$. Unfortu-
nately no data are available on the anisotropic
nature of this small band, so direct assignment is
not possible. However, several potential positions
for H incorporation in the rutile structure have been
identified (Johnson et al., 1968), and the band at
3551 cm$^{-1}$ could be due to H$^+$ in a $\frac{1}{2}00$
position.

Spectra obtained from Mg-bearing rutile
contain an asymmetric band at 3349 cm$^{-1}$,
which can actually be resolved into three separate
bands, a large band at 3349 cm$^{-1}$, a shoulder at
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3325 cm\(^{-1}\) and another small band at 3279 cm\(^{-1}\) (i.e. the OH band noted in all spectra). This interpretation implies that there are two H positions associated with Mg\(^{2+}\), one slightly more favourable. The OH-stretching frequencies of these two absorption bands are similar, and no variation in relative peak height was noted as a function of orientation, implying no distinct difference in absorption band anisotropy. The H incorporation mechanism proposed by Swope \textit{et al.} (1995) actually describes four equivalent H positions about a symmetrical, regular octahedron. Local distortion of the octahedral site in rutile due to Mg\(^{2+}\) substitution could potentially result in slight differences in OH-stretching frequencies for H\(^+\) located in these different positions. If H incorporation in the MgO-saturated rutile is related to Mg substitution for Ti\(^{4+}\), this would imply that two H\(^+\) are incorporated for every Mg\(^{2+}\). Differences in the peak height of the absorption bands could indicate that, as a result of site distortion, the four equivalent H positions are split into at least two pairs with slightly differing OH-stretching frequencies, with the slightly longer O–H bond being more favourable.

It is interesting to note, on the basis of absorption-band assignment, that IR spectra obtained from Ca-doped rutile (RCa) contain no OH absorption bands. This implies that H incorporation coupled with Ca\(_{\text{Ti}^{1+}}\) is not stable. Indeed, decoupled H interstitials, or H interstitials coupled with Ti\(^{3+}\) defects are also not present in this sample. As noted in Table 3, the difference in ionic radii between Ti\(^{4+}\) and Ca\(^{2+}\) is quite high (51.5 pm). Lack of structurally incorporated H in sample RCa could be due to considerable distortion of the Ti site in the rutile structure due to Ca occupancy. However, this does not sufficiently explain the absence of the 3279 cm\(^{-1}\) band. This could indicate that a significant amount of Ca\(^{2+}\), in contrast to the other trivalent and divalent cations considered, occupies interstitial sites in the rutile structure. From Figs 1 and 2 it can be seen that the presence of interstitial Ti markedly reduces the affinity of rutile for H. Perhaps a similar effect is noted in the Ca-doped sample due to interstitial Ca. The presence of Ca\(_{\text{Ti}^{1+}}\) defects could be charge-balanced by the coupled substitution of Ca onto the octahedral Ti site (Ca\(_{\text{Ti}^{1+}}\)) or by reduction of Ti\(^{4+}\) (Ti\(_{\text{Ti}^{1+}}\)). The absence of broad absorption bands in NIR spectra from RCa over the range 700 to 4000 cm\(^{-1}\), or indeed of any blue colouration of the Ca-doped crystals, excludes the possibility of Ti\(^{3+}\) interstitials being present, but not of reduced Ti\(^{4+}\) on the main Ti site. The use of Ca-doping of rutile to prevent H incorporation could, potentially, have some important industrial applications.

An interesting feature in IR spectra obtained from the synthetic rutile samples is the significant variation in the width of the OH absorption bands as a function of composition. Mostly, this effect is due to overlapping of the main OH absorption band, which has a different frequency in each composition, with the smaller absorption band at 3279 cm\(^{-1}\). However, there could also be some variation in the width of the main absorption band as a function of composition, possibly due to NNN effects: the presence of small amounts of interstitial trivalent cations, or, in the example of RCr, increased likelihood of trivalent cations being on adjacent octahedral (Ti\(^{4+}\) sites due to higher solubility of the minor element. Significant variation in water solubility in the synthetic rutile is also noted as a function of composition. The highest water content measured is for the Cr-doped sample. However, no systematic variation in water content as a function of oxide solubility or ionic radius is seen. Water solubility probably varies partly as a function of the change in unit-cell volume due to H incorporation, and should, therefore, be partly dependent upon relative distortion due to \(M_{\text{Ti}^{1+}}\) defects. However, we have seen that in all samples some H is also present which is either decoupled to compositional defects, or related to the presence of Ti\(^{3+}\).

Furthermore, at least one of the samples, RA1, contains cations on interstitial sites, which probably leads to a reduction in H solubility. Unfortunately, it is not possible to determine accurately the areas of overlapping absorption bands in the IR spectra, and therefore the amount of H coupled to (or decoupled from) different defects. Peak fitting is made difficult by the fact

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cation</th>
<th>Ionic radius (pm)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ti(^{4+})</td>
<td>74.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fe(^{3+})</td>
<td>78.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al(^{3+})</td>
<td>67.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mg(^{2+})</td>
<td>86.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ga(^{3+})</td>
<td>76.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cr(^{3+})</td>
<td>75.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ca(^{2+})</td>
<td>126.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Ionic radii of cations in 6-coordinated octahedral environments.
that: (1) the signal to noise ratio is not ideal, mainly due to the small sample size and low concentration of H, (2) most absorption bands are broad and the amount of overlap is large, and (3) background subtraction can lead to changes in relative peak heights. Calculated water contents may not, however, be directly comparable anyway, because of variation in OH-stretching frequencies as a function of composition. Nakamoto et al. (1955) noted that there is a significant dependence of H concentration on OH-stretching frequency, which would imply a systematic overestimation of water contents in samples where the main OH absorption band is shifted to higher wavenumbers.

**Comparison with natural samples**

Johnson et al. (1968) first suggested that H incorporation in rutile was linked to trivalent cation substitutions, but they were not able to resolve impurity-associated OH bands in IR spectra from rutiles doped with various oxides and so concluded that either there was no association of OH groups with cations, or that resulting shifts in OH-stretching bands were too small to be resolved. However, in detailed investigations of coupled H and minor element substitution in natural rutiles from various geological terrains, Hammer and Beran (1991) and Vlassopoulos et al. (1993) noted systematic shifts in OH-stretching frequencies, and attempted to correlate these with variation in composition and geological environment. Spectra obtained from many natural rutiles commonly contain one main absorption band at 3280 to 3390 cm\(^{-1}\) (e.g. samples R-6, R-7, R-8, JAG83-30-3, JAG85-2 of Vlassopoulos et al., 1993). Fe\(^{3+}\) is the major trivalent cation in many natural rutiles. Spectra from the synthetic Fe-saturated rutile, RFe3, contain an absorption band at 3295 cm\(^{-1}\), which may be comparable to the band seen in spectra from natural rutiles. Samples R-6 to R-8 of Vlassopoulos et al. (1993) contain appreciable amounts of Fe. In contrast, samples JAG83-30-3 and JAG85-2 contain much larger amounts of Cr. Spectra from sample RCr contain an absorption band at significantly lower wavenumbers (3257 cm\(^{-1}\)), and are not comparable to spectra obtained from these natural Cr-rich rutiles. An alternative explanation is that the main absorption band in IR spectra from natural rutiles is unrelated to compositional impurities, and is comparable to the band at 3279 cm\(^{-1}\) seen in all IR spectra from synthetic rutile in the present study. This explanation appears to be more consistent with the similarities between IR spectra obtained from natural rutile samples with different compositions. Furthermore, this assertion supports the argument that the 3279 cm\(^{-1}\) OH-absorption band seen in spectra in Figs 2 and 4 is due to H unrelated to compositional impurities, because natural rutiles only contain Ti\(^{4+}\) under extremely limiting circumstances, such as in meteoritic or lunar samples for which oxygen fugacity during crystallization was extremely low.

Vlassopoulos et al. (1993) noted that rutiles from mafic pegmatites contained an additional absorption band around 3360 cm\(^{-1}\), and suggested that this may be due to H association with Mg\(^{2+}\). This correlates reasonably well with data from the present study, where Mg-saturated rutiles contain a large absorption band at 3349 cm\(^{-1}\). However, Vlassopoulos et al. (1993) also suggest that a small satellite peak at 3324 cm\(^{-1}\) seen in some rutile spectra, is due to association with Al\(^{3+}\). This suggestion is not consistent with the results of the present study.

Spectra obtained from synthetic rutile samples doped with various trivalent and divalent cations replicate many of the features seen in spectra of natural samples. Vlassopoulos et al. (1993) measured integrated absorbances over the OH-stretching range in spectra from natural samples range from 1800 to 12300 cm\(^{-2}\). Values obtained from the synthetic samples in this study range from 640 cm\(^{-2}\) (for pure TiO\(_2\)) to 14100 cm\(^{-2}\). The largest values measured by Vlassopoulos et al. (1993) were for rutiles from ultra-high pressure environments, and are in very good agreement with data from our study. Interestingly, the greatest water content noted by Vlassopoulos et al. (1993) was for a Cr-rich sample, and the greatest water content of any sample in this study was measured for the Cr-doped sample. However, results from the present study indicate that many of the correlations between OH-stretching frequencies and compositions previously reported are overstated. Most likely, a significant proportion of H in natural rutiles is not coupled to substitutional impurities. If so, this implies that small variations in OH-stretching frequencies between different rutile samples is probably due to some variation in the size and/or distortion of the octahedral (Ti\(^{4+}\)) site in the structure, which should be evident from detailed structural refinements. Furthermore, H incorporation in natural rutiles could be linked to
Ti\textsuperscript{4+} substitution for pentavalent cations on octahedral sites in the rutile structure. Natural rutiles often contain appreciable Nb and Ta, and so this could provide an efficient mechanism for H incorporation, and would also result in the formation of H interstitials unrelated to other compositional impurities.

**Defect structures in synthetic and natural rutile**

The main mechanism for H incorporation in the synthetic rutile samples is association with lower-valence cation substitution onto octahedral sites. However, the amount of water incorporated into rutile (Table 3) is at least one order of magnitude lower than the solubility of lower-valence cations (Table 1), implying that the dominant mechanism for trivalent and divalent cation substitution into the synthetic rutile does not involve H incorporation. We have argued that the dominant mechanism for trivalent and divalent cation substitution in synthetic rutile probably involves oxygen vacancies, and to a lesser degree, could also involve cations on interstitial sites. In natural rutile, trivalent cation substitutions can also be charge-balanced by coupled substitutions with pentavalent cations (i.e. \( M^{3+} + M^{7+} = 2 \text{Ti}^{4+} \)). The extent to which natural high-pressure rutiles are reduced, and the extent to which oxygen vacancies can charge-balance trivalent cation substitutions is not known. However, redox conditions in the piston-cylinder assembly probably closely resemble redox conditions expected in many geological environments where rutile is an important accessory mineral, such as subducting slabs (Bromiley et al., 2004b). Vlassopoulos et al. (1993) noted that the total trivalent cation content of a suite of rutile samples was systematically higher than the total pentavalent cation content, and suggested that this was due to large amounts of H incorporation. The amount of H needed to charge balance the excess trivalent cation content in many rutiles is considerable, and has been used as an argument in favour of using the integral absorption coefficient determined by Hammer and Beran (1991), which gives unrealistically high water contents. However, the presence of oxygen vacancies in natural rutile, or the presence of interstitial cations could also account for a large amount of excess trivalent cation content, and would imply that the Hammer and Beran (1991) calibration significantly overestimates the water content of rutile relative to the calibration of Johnson et al. (1973) and the sample independent calibrations of Paterson (1982) and Libowitzky (1999).

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