# MAJOR TRANSITION-METAL OXIDE MINERALS: THEIR ELECTRONIC STRUCTURES AND THE INTERPRETATION OF MINERALOGICAL PROPERTIES

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### Abstract

Simplified electronic-structure models based on molecular orbital calculations are presented for hematite, magnetite, ilmenite, ulvöspinel and chromite. The "one-electron" MO/band-theory models are correlated with the properties of these minerals. Spectral reflectivity variations are interpreted from the energies of allowed electronic transitions involving both orbitals dominantly metal in character and those dominantly oxygen. The influence of electronic structure on limits of solid solution, Vickers hardness and thermochemical properties is also considered. In particular, the contribution to stability of the main bonding orbitals (chiefly metal 3d and oxygen 2p in character) is assessed. The electronic structures and mineral properties of wüstite, rutile and eskolaite are also briefly reviewed.

#### SOMMAIRE

Des modèles simplifiés de structure électronique fondés sur le calcul d'orbitales moléculaires sont présentés pour l'hématite, la magnétite, l'ilménite, l'ulvöspinel et la chromite. On établit une corrélation entre ces modèles et les propriétés des minéraux considérés. Les variations en réflectivité spectrale s'expliquent à partir des énergies de transitions électroniques permises qui impliquent à la fois les orbitales à caractère nettement métallique et celles dont le caractère dépend surtout de l'oxygène. La structure électronique exerce son influence sur les limites de solution solide, la dureté Vickers et les propriétés thermochimiques; en particulier, les orbites principales de liaisons (surtout métal 3d et oxygène 2p) contribuent à la stabilité. Les structures électroniques et propriétés minérales de la wüstite, du rutile et de l'eskolaïte sont passées en revue.

(Traduit par la Rédaction)

## INTRODUCTION

Electronic structure (or 'chemical bonding') models are fundamental to an understanding of mineral properties, stabilities and occurrence, and to prediction of mineral behavior under various pressure and temperature conditions. Although a number of models of varying complexity may be proposed, we believe that an approach based on molecular orbital (MO) theory incorporating some elements of band theory is most useful to the mineralogist.

In recent years, improved methods of quantum-mechanical calculation and spectroscopic data of greater resolution have enabled more complex systems to be successfully modelled in this way. Such studies have included calculations on cluster units of transition-metal ions coordinated to oxygen (e.g., Tossell et al. 1973, 1974; Tossell 1976a,b). Such units combine to form the petrologically important oxide minerals hematite, magnetite, ilmenite, ulvöspinel and chromite. The object of this paper is to present simplified ("one-electron") models of the electronic structures of these minerals in the valence region and to show how they may be used to understand the properties of interest to the mineralogist. In particular, the quantitative oremicroscopic properties of reflectivity and Vickers microhardness will be considered as will, where possible, the relationship between electronic structure and crystal structure, magnetic and electrical properties, thermochemistry and solid solution behavior.

The electronic structure models described here are considered as providing an adequate description of the outer (valence) electrons of the oxides, despite the complexity of the systems. As Goodenough (1963, 1971) has stated, the outer electrons in such crystalline solids can be described by two limiting theories: the crystal- (or ligand-) field theory and the band theory. In crystal-field theory, the interactions between neighboring atoms are so weak that each electron remains *localized* at a discrete atomic position; band theory assumes that the interactions are so large that each electron is shared between the nuclei

TABLE 1. IONIC RADII AND CRYSTAL FIELD DATA FOR TRANSITION METAL

			10110 111 07			
Ion and Coordi- nation	Ionic Radius (Å) (1)	Number of 3d electrons	Crystal Field Stabil- ization Energy (kcal/mol) (2)	Spectroscopic Data on Crystal Field Splitting (3)		
Fe <sup>3+</sup> oct	0.645	5	0.	hematite ${}^{6}A_{1g} + {}^{4}T_{1g}$ , ${}^{4}T_{2g}$ : 11,630cm <sup>-1</sup> (1.44 ev)		
Fe <sup>2+</sup> oct	0.78	6	11.9	"spinel oxide" <sup>5</sup> T <sub>2"</sub> <sup>5</sup> E : 10,000cm <sup>-1</sup> (950nm, 1.24 ev)		
Ti <sup>4+</sup> oct	0.605	0	0			
Fe <sup>2+</sup> tet	0.63	6	7.9	"spinel oxide" <sup>5</sup> E → <sup>5</sup> T <sub>2</sub> : 5,000cm <sup>-1</sup> (2000nm, 0.62 ev)		
Cr <sup>3+</sup> oct	0.615	3	53.7	"spinel oxide" ${}^{4}A_{2} \rightarrow {}^{4}T_{2}$ : 17,700cm <sup>-1</sup>		
21				(530nm, 2.19 ev)		
Fe <sup>3⁺</sup> tet	0.49	5	0	"spinel oxide" <sup>6</sup> A <sub>1</sub> → <sup>4</sup> T <sub>1</sub> :∿16,000cm <sup>-1</sup> (∿650nm, 1.98 ev)		
Ti <sup>3+</sup> oct	0.670	1	20.9			

 All ionic radii from Shannon (1976); (2) All average data from Burns (1970); (3) Hematite data from Tossell *et al.*(1973), spinel oxide data from the compilation of Mao & Bell (1975).

(*i.e.*, *delocalized*). The formidable problem of describing the interactions of these "many electrons" is normally simplified to description of a single electron moving in a periodic potential. Such "one-electron" energies can then be used to construct energy-level diagrams.

Molecular-orbital theory is capable of describing systems with valence electrons ranging from highly delocalized to highly localized, and the results of cluster unit calculations can be used to construct "one-electron" MO/band energy level diagrams. The major errors introduced by the "one-electron" treatment are those of ignoring the correlation in the motion of electrons with opposite spin (the correlation of likespin electrons is properly treated) and in the neglect of multiplet effects.

As the oxides being considered form two distinct structural groups, hematite-ilmenite and the spinels (magnetite, chromite, ulvöspinel), they will be discussed under these divisions. The binary oxides wiistite, rutile and eskolaite, although of less direct petrological importance, are also discussed for completeness.

The relevance of interpretations based on ionic radii and on the crystal-field theory of transition metals (see Table 1) will also be critically assessed in an attempt to produce satisfactory working models.

## HEMATITE, ILMENITE AND THE HEMATITE-ILMENITE SERIES

Both hematite and ilmenite possess rhombohedral crystal structures closely related to that of

TABLE 2. STRUCTURAL, MINERALOGICAL, THERMOCHEMICAL AND ELECTRICAL/MAGNETIC DATA FOR TRANSITION METAL OXIDE MINERALS

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MINERAL	CRYSTAL STRU SPACE GROUP	CTURE DATA <sup>(1)</sup> UNIT CELL	REFLECTIVITY <sup>(2)</sup> R% AT 589nm	VHN AT 100g <sup>(2)</sup>	THERMAL STABILIT (°K) (4)	ΔH <sup>2</sup> 98 Y	∆G°(4) 298	ELECTRICAL AND MAGNETIC DATA (5)
Hematite «Fe <sub>2</sub> 03	Rhomb. R3c	a = 5.034Å c = 13.752Å	$R_0^{e} = 25.1$ $R_0^{e} = 28.8$	920-1062	1895	-197.3 kcal/gfw	-177.7 kcal/gfw	Semiconductor (probably p-type). Antiferromagnetic ( ${\rm T}_N{=}963^{\circ}{\rm K}$ ) with parasitic ferromagnetism when 250°K <t<t<math display="inline">_N.</t<t<math>
Ilmenite FeTiO <sub>3</sub>	Rhomb. R3	a = 5.523Å $= 54.51^{\circ}$ Hexagonal axes: a = 5.079Å, c = 14.135Å	Re≕ 17.3 Re≈ 20.0	∿550-700	1640	-295.6 kcal/gfw	-277.l kcal/gfw	Semiconductor. Antiferromagnetic (T <sub>N</sub> <sup>2</sup> 60°K).
Magnetite Fe <sub>3</sub> 0 <sub>4</sub>	Cubic Fd3m	a= 8.396Å	20.0	534-577	1870	-267.4 kcal/gfw	-243.1 / kcal/gfw	Semiconductor. Ferrimagnetic (T <sub>C</sub> 2 850°K).
Ulvő- spinel Fe <sub>2</sub> TiO <sub>4</sub>	Cubic Fd3m	a = 8.538Å	15.6 <sup>(3)</sup>	Polishing hardness <ilmenite< td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></ilmenite<>				
Chromite FeCr <sub>2</sub> 0 <sub>A</sub>	Cubic Fd3m	a = 8.36Å	11.5	12881561		≃340 kcal/mo⊺	e	Semiconductor. Ferrimagnetic below T <sub>c</sub> 90°K.
Wustite FeO (or Fe <sub>l-x</sub> (	Cubic Fm3m ))	a = 4.307Å	?less than magnetite	?	1650	"Fe0"= - 65.2 kcal/gfw [Fe <sub>0.947</sub> 0 -63.64]	"FeO" = -60.01 v kca1/gfw = [Fe <sub>0.947</sub> 0 -58.6]	Semiconductor. Antiferromagnetic T <sub>N</sub> ~ 198°K. J=
Rutile TiO <sub>2</sub>	Tetrag. P4 <sub>2</sub> /mnm	a =4.5933Å a =2.9592Å	$R_{q} = 19.5$ $R_{q}^{p} = 22.8$	920-974	2103	-255.7 kcal/gfw	-212.6 w kcal/gfw	Wide band gap semiconductor. Diamagnetic.
Esko- laite «-Cr2 <sup>0</sup> 3	Trig. R3c	a = 4.954Å c =13.584Å	R <sub>e</sub> = 18.2 R <sub>o</sub> = 19.8	2239-2898	3 2603	-272.7 kcal/gfw	-253.2 w kcal/gfw	Wide band gap semiconductor. Antiferromagnetic T <sub>N</sub> = 308°K.

(1) JCPDS Data Book (1974); (2) COM International Tables, Barcelona (1970); (3) Cameron (1970); (4) Robie & Waldbaum (1968); (5) From the compilations of Goodenough (1963, 1971).

corundum. The metals are in octahedral coordination in an approximately hexagonal closepacked array of oxygens: ilmenite differs in having distorted oxygen layers (Table 2).

Molecular orbital calculations utilizing the SCF- $X_{\alpha}$  scattered wave method have been performed for metal-oxygen polyhedral clusters containing Fe<sup>2+</sup>, Fe<sup>3+</sup> and Ti<sup>4+</sup> in octahedral coordination to oxygen (Tossell *et al.* 1973, 1974). These calculations were used to model the electronic structures of rutile, wüstite and hematite and to assign and interpret their X-ray and uvphotoelectron, X-ray emission and absorption, and optical absorption and reflectance spectra. The good agreement between calculated and observed transition energies support the validity of the calculations. It should be noted, however, that in these calculations, the choice of certain initial parameters employed may affect the results obtained. For example, the use of overlapping spheres defining the various regions around the atoms in the clusters affects ligand p - metal 3d energy separations by as much as 1 eV (Rösch *et al.* 1973).

The same calculations have been used here to construct schematic ("one-electron") MO/band theory energy-level diagrams for hematite and ilmenite, shown in Figure 1. It has been argued by Goodenough (1963, 1971) that the outermost electrons in the valence region for these mate-



FIG. 1. Molecular orbital/band models to illustrate the electronic structures of hematite and ilmenite. Calculations were performed on an FeO<sub>6</sub><sup>9-</sup> cluster at an Fe–O distance of 2.06Å (as in Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>), a FeO<sub>6</sub><sup>10-</sup> cluster at an Fe–O distance of 2.17Å (cf., 2.14Å in FeTiO<sub>3</sub>) and TiO<sub>6</sub><sup>9-</sup> cluster at a Ti–O distance of 1.965Å (cf., 1.98Å in FeTiO<sub>3</sub>).

rials may be described using localized models. Hence the orbitals, dominantly of metal 3d character, are shown in the diagram as discrete levels, whereas the other levels are shown as broadening into bands.

As this is the first of the energy-level diagrams, more detailed discussion is appropriate. The diagram shown for hematite in Figure 1 has many features in common with the familiar MO diagrams of elementary chemistry texts (Gray 1965; Cotton & Wilkinson 1972). One complexity immediately seen is the effect of unpaired spins on the electrons of the partly filled 3d orbitals in splitting the valence-orbital energy levels into "spin-up" ( $\uparrow$ ) and "spin-down ( $\downarrow$ ) levels. From the calculations, it is also possible to comment on the composition of particular molecular orbitals in terms of the contribution of atomic orbitals of metal or oxygen. In the FeO<sub>6</sub><sup>9-</sup> cluster of hematite, the highest-energy filled orbital is an  $e_{g}\uparrow$  orbital that is antibonding in character (mainly Fe3d and O2p). The filled  $t_{2g}\uparrow$  orbital (a bonding orbital of Fe3d and O2p character) lies several eV lower in energy, beneath energy levels shown at the top of a delocalized band in Figure 1. As in all of the oxide systems studied, the top of this s-p band is made up of O2p nonbonding orbitals. Several eV below the top of this band are the main bonding orbitals of Fe3d, 4s, 4p and O2p character. The vacant orbitals in the valence region are the  $e_g \downarrow$  and  $t_{2g} \downarrow$ shown in Figure 1, and (about 9 eV above the highest filled orbital) the diffuse antibonding orbitals of the  $s-p^*$  band with metal and oxygen s and p orbital character.

One weakness of these calculations is their failure to accurately reproduce the energy separation of the 3d orbital energy levels when split by the octahedral crystal field. However, Sambe & Felton (1976) have shown that values of crystal field splitting (10Dq) are more accurately reproduced in SCF-X<sub> $\alpha$ </sub> calculations by using the transition-state procedure in which half an electron is transferred from the ground state to the excited state and the calculation reiterated to self-consistency. When there is spin-splitting of the valence orbital energy levels, 10Dq should be the average of the separations of "spin-up" and "spin-down" t<sub>2g</sub> and e<sub>g</sub> levels calculated by the transition-state procedure. Using the above procedure, 10Dq values from the SCF-X<sub> $\alpha$ </sub> calculations are found to be in better agreement with experiment than had been previously assumed (Vaughan et al. 1974).

In Figure 1, a similar model for ilmenite is based on calculations on the  $FeO_6^{10-}$  and  $TiO_6^{8-}$  clusters. The nature of the *s*-*p* (bonding) and

 $s-p^*$  (antibonding) bands is much the same as in Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>. However, the 3*d* levels of Fe<sup>2+</sup> do not overlap the s-p band as much and, along with the vacant Ti3*d* levels, there is the additional  $t_{2g} \downarrow$  electron of Fe<sup>2+</sup>. The vacant  $t_{2g}$  and  $e_g$ levels of TiO<sub>6</sub><sup>8-</sup> have both Ti3*d* and O2*p* character, with the  $e_g$  level of antibonding character.

Reference to Table 1 shows that the calculated  $t_{2g}-e_g$  separation (crystal-field splitting) exceeds that found experimentally using spectroscopic data and adjustment should be made for this. Although both hematite and ilmenite are antiferromagnetic at 25°C, the coupling energies involved in these interactions between polyhedra are only fractions of an eV and can be ignored for these and the spinel compounds in the present models.

## Interpretation of properties

The properties of hematite and ilmenite, summarized in Table 2, will now be considered using the models outlined and also noting data from Table 1, Electrical and magnetic studies (Table 2) show that both oxides are essentially semiconducting antiferromagnetic compounds at low temperatures, with their outermost (3d) electrons localized on the cations and unpaired electrons on adjacent metals coupled antiparallel. The electrical conductivities (or resistivities) of the pure oxides are difficult to define because of the large effects of minor impurities or deviations from stoichiometry. However, the simple models of Figure 1 indicate a smaller separation between occupied and unoccupied energy levels in hematite than in ilmenite, which should indicate a significantly lower resistivity. Available data confirm that the intrinsic resistivity of hematite is  $\sim 0.3$  ohm-m, whereas that of ilmenite is ~0.8-1.8 ohm-m (Shuey 1975).

The optical properties of greatest mineralogical interest are the spectral reflectance values throughout the visible region of the spectrum. Detailed data for hematite, ilmenite and a titanium-bearing hematite have been reported by von Gehlen & Piller (1965) between 440 and 660nm. Values for the two principal vibration directions in plane-polarized light are shown (Fig. 2) for both pure hematite and pure ilmenite. Burns & Vaughan (1970) and Vaughan (1973, 1975) have argued that high reflectance values result from excitation and delocalization of electrons into orbitals or bands of diffuse, antibonding (i.e., "conduction band") character. Examination of the electronic-structure models (Fig. 1) shows that "allowed" electronic transitions occur in ilmenite from mainly oxygen s-pto titanium t<sub>2g</sub> orbitals at an energy correspond-



FIG. 2. Spectral reflectivity data in the visible light range ( $\sim 400-700$ nm) for hematite (left) and ilmenite (right). Data are shown for both the ordinary ( $R_o$ ) and extraordinary ( $R_o$ ) vibration directions in plane-polarized light; arrows indicate the energy regions of the major electronic transitions.

ing to ~400nm as indicated by the labels in Figures 1 and 2. "Allowed" transitions also occur from iron  $t_{2g} \downarrow$  to  $e_g \downarrow$  orbitals at energies corresponding to ~1000nm. These transitions, corresponding to the absorption and subsequent reemission of energy, account for the higher values of reflectance at either end of the ~400-700nm profile. In hematite, the  $s-p \rightarrow t_{2g}$  transitions at an energy corresponding to ~400nm account for the decrease in reflectance from  $400 \rightarrow 700$ nm, and the greater concentration of iron contributing to this transition, for the greater overall reflectance.

Calculations on an octahedral  $\text{TiO}_6^{9-}$  cluster using the same methods (Loeffler *et al.* 1974) show that  $\text{Ti}^{3+}$  substitution in ilmenite should introduce a positive feature at ~530nm in the spectral profile. As  $\text{Ti}^{3+}$  ions are postulated to occur in lunar ilmenites, it is particularly interesting that such a feature has been tentatively observed in spectral reflectance measurements of some of the lunar ilmenites (Simpson & Bowie 1970).

The Vickers microhardness data show a marked decrease in mean values from hematite to ilmenite (926 $\rightarrow$ 626; see Table 2) which can be correlated with an increase in the unit-cell dimensions of 1% in the *a* parameter and 2% in the *c* parameter (Table 2). The major contribution to this is the additional  $t_{2g} \downarrow$  electron of Fe<sup>2+</sup> (which consequently has a 20% greater ionic radius; Table 1).

Although hematite and ilmenite are very similar in crystal structures, the differences in electronic structure are sufficient to greatly limit solid solution between them at room temperature (Nicholls 1955). Above  $1050^{\circ}$ C, there is complete solid solution between hematite and ilmenite but at 800°C, not more than 5% TiO<sub>2</sub> can enter the  $\alpha$ -Fe<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> structure.

The thermochemical data (Table 2) show a considerable difference in the free energies of formation of hematite and ilmenite, and a number of observations can be made regarding this difference. The crystal-field-theory approach would emphasize the stabilization gained by the addition of the sixth 3d electron of Fe<sup>2+</sup> (Table 1). Reference to the MO model (Fig. 1) emphasizes another important factor. Although the energies of Fe<sup>3+</sup>–O and Fe<sup>2+</sup>–O bonding orbitals are very similar, the Ti<sup>4+</sup>-O bonding orbital set is stabilized (by  $\sim 1$  eV) relative to the ironoxygen bonds. This very important contribution to the stability of ilmenite relative to hematite is, of course, not considered in crystal-field theory. Another consequence of this difference in electronic structure has been noted by Gaffney & Ahrens (1970) who used an electrostatic model to calculate enthalpies of formation of oxide minerals. The discrepancy between calculated and measured enthalpies was much greater for oxides containing octahedral Ti<sup>4+</sup> than Fe<sup>3+</sup> or Fe<sup>2+</sup>, and was attributed to a covalency effect.

# THE SPINEL OXIDES: CHROMITE, MAGNETITE AND ULVÖSPINEL

The spinel crystal structure, common to these three important oxide minerals, is illustrated in Figure 3. Whereas chromite is a normal spinel with nominally divalent ions ( $Fe^{2+}$ ) in the tetrahedral sites and trivalent ions ( $Cr^{3+}$ ) in octahedral sites, *i.e.*,  $Fe^{2+}(Cr^{3+}Cr^{3+})O_4$ , magnetite is an inverse spinel, *i.e.*,  $Fe^{3+}(Fe^{2+}Fe^{3+})O_4$ . Ulvöspinel is unusual in containing tetravalent ions, *i.e.*,  $Fe^{2+}(Fe^{2+}Ti^{4+})O_4$ .

In addition to the molecular orbital calculations (using the SCF- $X_{\alpha}$  method) already men-



FIG. 3. The crystal structure of a spinel  $(AB_2O_4)$ .

tioned, similar calculations have also been performed for an  $\text{FeO}_4^{6-}$  tetrahedral cluster (Vaughan *et al.* 1974), a  $\text{CrO}_6^{9-}$  octahedral cluster (Tossell & Vaughan, unpubl.; Tossell 1976b), and an  $\text{FeO}_4^{5-}$  cluster (Tossell 1978). Using combined data from all of these calculations, it has been possible to construct the schematic energy level diagrams illustrated in Figure 4. Again, the electrical and magnetic data show that the outermost (dominantly metal 3*d*) electrons are localized on the cations (Table 2).

Chromite combines the results of tetrahedral FeO4<sup>6-</sup> cluster and octahedral CrO6<sup>9-</sup> cluster calculations as shown in Figure 4A. Here, the FeO4<sup>6-</sup> empty conduction-band orbitals have metal and oxygen character and the crystal-field type e^ orbital is mostly Fe3d. The empty  $t_2 \downarrow$ orbital is also dominantly Fe3d, but with some 4p character, whereas the  $t_2\uparrow$  orbital is equally oxygen p and Fe3d with some 4p. As in other systems studied, the orbitals immediately beneath these in energy are almost totally oxygen (nonbonding) in character. A similar overall structure is indicated by the calculations on  $CrO_6^{9-}$ . Here, both  $e_{\rm g}$  orbitals exhibit appreciable oxygen as well as chromium character and the t<sub>2g</sub> orbitals rather less oxygen character.

Magnetite can be modelled using the results of cluster calculations on  $\text{FeO}_4^{5-}$ ,  $\text{FeO}_8^{10-}$  and  $\text{FeO}_8^{9-}$  as shown in Figure 4C. The valence region X-ray and uv photoelectron spectra of magnetite can be correlated with the results of these calculations (Tossell 1978). The atomic orbital compositions of the molecular orbitals for the octahedral-site ions can be regarded as similar to those

described for hematite and ilmenite. The tetrahedrally coordinated  $Fe^{3+}$  is similar to tetrahedrally coordinated  $Fe^{2+}$  in having the crystalfield type levels above and separate from the oxygen nonbonding set and the main Fe–O bonding orbitals of the system. Spin-splitting of the orbitals is not quite so large in  $Fe^{2+}$ .

In the case of ulvöspinel, the  $\text{FeO}_6^{10-}$  and  $\text{TiO}_6^{8-}$  octahedral cluster calculations can again be used and, combined with the calculation on  $\text{FeO}_4^{6-}$  in tetrahedral coordination, result in the model shown in Figure 4B.

## Interpretation of properties

The optical properties of these three spinel oxides are shown in the spectral reflectance profiles of Figure 5 and the numerical data of Table 2. Certain of the 'allowed' transitions described for hematite and ilmenite are applicable to some of the spinel oxides and the additional transitions have been labelled in Figure 5 and inserted in Figure 4. Following similar arguments to those used in the discussion of hematite and ilmenite, the reflectance profiles shown for these minerals can also be interpreted in terms of electronic structure.

In chromite, which shows the lowest overall reflectance, the transition chiefly contributing to the reflectance is the 'spin-allowed' crystal-field transition in the octahedral Cr<sup>3+</sup> ions (labelled (f) in Figures 4A and 5) at  $\sim$ 530 nm. This also contributes to the higher reflectance at the 400nm end of the spectrum in this mineral. The ulvöspinel reflectance profile resembles that of ilmenite since the same 'allowed' transitions in octahedral Fe<sup>2+</sup> and Ti<sup>4+</sup> ions contribute to the higher reflectance values towards either end of the visible range. Magnetite, showing the highest overall reflectance values, has contributions from oxygen  $\rightarrow$  metal charge-transfer transitions [(a) and (d) in Figures 4C and 5] and the spinallowed crystal-field transition in octahedral  $Fe^{2+}$  [(c) in Figures 4C and 5].

Complete Vickers microhardness data are not available for these three minerals (Table 2) but available information suggests that chromite is much harder than the other two spinels. This correlates with the small unit-cell parameter and absence of electrons in the  $e_s$  orbital levels in the octahedral sites. On the basis of the cell parameter data (Table 2), the  $e_s \downarrow$  electron of octahedral Fe<sup>2+</sup> and  $t_2 \downarrow$  electron of tetrahedral Fe<sup>2+</sup>, ulvöspinel is predicted to be the softest of these three spinel phases (*i.e.*, VHN  $\leq$  530).

Thermochemical data are also incomplete for these three spinels (Table 2) but chromite probably has a significantly greater value for  $\Delta G^{\circ}_{298}$ 







FIG. 5. Spectral reflectivity data in the visible light range for chromite, ulvöspinel and magnetite. Arrows indicate energies of the major electronic transitions.

than magnetite. In terms of crystal-field theory, these data could be interpreted as due to the considerable stabilization of  $Cr^{3+}$  in octahedral sites. The MO model (Fig. 4A) suggests that this may be partly compensated for by lesser stabilization of metal-oxygen bonding interactions than in octahedrally coordinated  $Fe^{2+}$ ,  $Fe^{3+}$  or  $Ti^{4+}$ . Although ulvöspinel (Fig. 4B) has an additional  $e \downarrow$  electron which is antibonding in character, the metal-oxygen bonding orbitals are all stabilized relative to those in magnetite so that the value of  $\Delta G^{\circ}_{208}$  may well be greater than that of magnetite.

### WÜSTITE, RUTILE AND ESKOLAITE

The binary oxides wüstite, rutile and eskolaite, although not of equal petrological importance, complete this discussion of the electronic structures of oxide minerals. The crystal structures of wüstite and rutile (Table 2) are distinct from the other minerals considered; eskolaite, like hematite, has the corundum structure.

The electronic structures of these three minerals can be described with energy-level diagrams constructed from molecular orbital calculations which have already been discussed (*i.e.*,  $FeO_6^{10}$ ,  $TiO_6^{s}$ ,  $CrO_6^{s}$ ). The diagrams are illustrated in Figure 6 and the molecular orbital compositions in terms of atomic orbital contributions are as already outlined.

### Interpretation of properties

Spectral reflectance data are shown for rutile and eskolaite in Figure 7. A number of the electronic transitions outlined in the discussion of the ilmenite and chromite spectra are invoked to interpret these data. The higher reflectance of rutile at the 400nm end of the spectrum is attributed to the oxygen  $\rightarrow$  metal charge-transfer transition labelled (b), whereas in eskolaite, both the spin-allowed  $t_{2g} \rightarrow e_g$  transition (f) and the  $t_{2g} \rightarrow$  conduction-band transition (g) contribute to increased reflectance towards 400nm. The energy of transition (f) is probably slightly underestimated and may be at a rather shorter wavelength.

Vickers hardness data, also available only for rutile and eskolaite, indicate that eskolaite is much harder. It is also the most stable of the three oxides, with the largest negative free energy of formation. Thus, the contribution to bond strength of the three t<sub>2g</sub>↑ electrons is considerable and outweighs the slight destabilization of the M-O bonding orbital band relative to TiO<sub>2</sub>. In FeO, the least stable and probably the softest of the three oxides, the destabilizing effect of the  $t_{2g} \downarrow$  electron is not offset by any gain in M-O bonding orbital energies. From the complex and incomplete data on the electrical properties of these binary oxides it may be noted that "pure" rutile has an extremely high resistivity  $(\sim 10^7)$ ohm-m; Shuey 1975), as would be expected from the large separation of occupied and unoccupied orbitals.

#### DISCUSSION

Quantitative "one-electron" models of the electronic structures of the major transition-



FIG. 6. Molecular orbital/band models to illustrate the electronic structures of rutile, eskolaite and wüstite. Data from same calculations as in Figure 4.

metal oxide minerals have been presented and correlated with the properties of these minerals.



FIG. 7. Spectral reflectivity data in the visible light range for rutile and eskolaite. Arrows indicate energies of the major electronic transitions.

The models represent a quantification of the type of MO/band theory approach used by Goodenough (1963, 1971) and are currently the most satisfactory simplified approach to an understanding of these complex materials.

Further calculations and spectroscopic measurements will enable refinement of these models. Also, calculations at reduced internuclear distances will permit assessment of the effects of pressure on electronic structure, and hence, properties. Such studies of iron-oxygen clusters (Tossell 1976a) indicate large changes in bond character for compressed iron oxides.

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