1	Revision 2
2	A spectroscopic and carbon-isotope study of mixed-habit diamonds:
3	Impurity characteristics and growth environment
4	
5	D. Howell ^{1*} , W.L. Griffin ¹ , S. Piazolo ¹ , J.M. Say ² , R.A. Stern ³ , T. Stachel ³ , L.
6	Nasdala ⁴ , J.R. Rabeau ² , N.J. Pearson ¹ , S.Y. O'Reilly ¹
7	
8	¹ ARC Center of Excellence for Core to Crust Fluid Systems (CCFS) and GEMOC, Department of
9	Earth & Planetary Science, Macquarie University, NSW 2109, Australia
10	² ARC Center of Excellence for Engineered Quantum Systems (EQUS), Department of Physics and
11	Astronomy, Macquarie University, NSW 2109, Australia
12	³ Canadian Center for Isotopic Microanalysis, Department of Earth and Atmospheric Sciences,
13	University of Alberta, Edmonton, AB, T6G 2E3, Canada
14	⁴ Institut für Mineralogie und Kristallographie, Universität Wien, Althanstraße 14, 1090 Vienna,
15	Austria
	(e) daniel.howell@mq.edu.au
17	
18	ABSTRACT
19	
20	Mixed-habit diamonds have experienced periods of growth where they were
21	bounded by two surface forms at the same time. Such diamonds are relatively rare and
22	therefore under-investigated. Under certain physical and chemical conditions, smooth
23	octahedral faces grow concurrently with rough, hummocky cuboid faces. However,
24	the specific conditions that cause this type of growth are unknown. Here we present a
25	large array of spectroscopic data in an attempt to investigate the impurity and carbon-
26	isotope characteristics, as well as growth conditions, of thirteen large (>6 mm
27	diameter) plates cut from mixed-habit diamonds. The diamonds all generally have

8/13

28	high nitrogen concentrations (>1400 ppm), with the octahedral sectors enriched by
29	127-143 % compared to their contemporary cuboid sectors. Levels of nitrogen
30	aggregation are generally low $(2 - 23\% \text{ IaB})$ with no significant difference between
31	sectors. IR-active hydrogen features are predominantly found in the cuboid sectors
32	with only very small bands in the octahedral sectors. Platelet characteristics are
33	variable; only one sample shows a large B' band intensity in the octahedral sector,
34	with no platelets occurring in the cuboid sector. Other samples either show a small \mathbf{B}'
35	band in both sectors, or just in the cuboid sector, or none at all. These data support a
36	model that shows the concentration-adjusted aggregation rate of nitrogen to be the
37	same in both sectors, whereas the subsequent platelet development is reduced in the
38	cuboid sectors. This is because the interstitial carbon atoms have interacted with disc-
39	crack-like defects only found in cuboid sectors, which in turn reduces their chances of
40	aggregating to form platelets. These <i>disc-crack-like</i> defects are also thought to be the
41	most likely site for the IR-active hydrogen features and they maybe intrinsic to cuboid
42	growth in mixed-habit diamonds. When they are graphitized, as they are in all of the
43	diamonds in this study, this may reflect a heating event prior to volcanic exhumation.
44	Spectroscopic analysis of the green cathodoluminescence exhibited by all of the
45	diamonds shows nickel centers to be present in only the cuboid sectors. Carbon
46	isotope data, obtained by secondary ion mass spectrometry, show very little variation
47	in seven of the diamonds. The total range of 217 analyses is -7.94 to -9.61 (± 0.15) ‰,
48	and the largest variation in a single stone is 0.98 ‰. No fractionation in carbon
49	isotopes is seen between octahedral and cuboid sectors at the same growth horizon.
50	These data suggest that the source fluid chemistry, as well as pressure, temperature
51	and oxygen fugacity were very stable over time, allowing such large volumes of
52	mixed-habit growth to occur. The high concentration of impurities, namely nitrogen

53	and hydrogen, is probably the critical factor required to cause mixed-habit growth.
54	The impurity and isotopic data fall in line with previous modeling based on diamond
55	growth from reduced carbonates with the loss of a 13 C-enriched CO ₂ component.
56	
57	Keywords: Mixed-habit diamonds, FTIR mapping, nitrogen concentration and
58	aggregation states, carbon isotopes, nickel defects.
59	
60	
61	INTRODUCTION
62	
63	Diamonds are direct samples from the deep lithosphere, the transition zone
64	and the lower mantle (Stachel, 2001). The lattice-bound impurities within them, the
65	mineral and fluid inclusions they encapsulate, and their growth history all provide
66	information on the fluid-related processes occurring at these depths (see review by
67	Stachel & Harris (2008) and references therein). The type of crystal growth that
68	occurs, and the resultant diamond morphology, are dependent on five key factors
69	(Sunagawa, 1990; 2005); (1) the supercritical fluid, (2) the solute-solvent interaction
70	energies (i.e. redox reactions), (3) the degree of carbon saturation, (4) the impurities

71 present, and (5) the pressure (P) and temperature (T) conditions. As a result, detailed

72 knowledge of the characteristics of the different growth types allows us to use



Diamonds commonly only exhibit one growth mechanism at a time. For
example, coated diamonds represent two distinct growth periods, with a young
opaque fibrous coat forming on an older transparent octahedral core (e.g. Boyd et al.,
1992; Tomlinson et al., 2006; Araujo et al., 2009; Weiss et al., 2009). Other diamonds

78	show transitions between different growth mechanisms (e.g. fibrous to octahedral
79	(Rondeau et al., 2004; Skuzovatov et al., 2011) or octahedral to cuboid to fibrous
80	(Howell et al., 2012a)), suggesting more gradational changes in the environmental
81	conditions. In contrast, mixed-habit diamonds are rare examples of crystals that
82	exhibit periods of growth where they were bound by two surface forms; (1) smooth,
83	flat {111} facets termed octahedral growth and (2) hummocky, non-faceted surfaces,
84	whose mean orientation is {100}. This mixed-habit growth was first recognized by
85	Frank (1967), following a series of etching experiments that revealed curved growth
86	forms (Harrison & Tolansky, 1964; Seal, 1965). Lang and co-workers (Moore &
87	Lang, 1972; Lang 1974; Suzuki & Lang, 1976a, b) termed these curved surfaces
88	"cuboid"; however, they can be inclined by up to 30° off true {100} orientations and
89	where two cuboid faces meet they can create a V-shaped valley. This type of growth
90	can result in a center-cross or star-shaped pattern forming within the diamond (e.g.
91	Welbourn et al., 1989; Fig. 1). This cross feature is the result of light-scattering
92	defects being present in the cuboid growth sectors but absent in the octahedral sectors
93	(Lang, 1974). These have been shown to be circular disc-crack-like defects on the
94	{111} planes (Walmsley et al., 1987), and they can be either transparent or opaque. It
95	remains unknown whether these defects are intrinsic to cuboid diamond growth.
96	Most of the early studies on mixed-habit diamonds by Lang and co-workers
97	(for references see above) used X-ray topographs to reveal internal structure. This
98	type of analysis led to conclusions regarding impurity distributions based upon the
99	"spike" X-ray reflection, which related to the formation of platelets - interstitial
100	carbon aggregates that are by-products of the nitrogen aggregation process (see
101	Discussion). This platelet X-ray feature was significantly stronger in the octahedral
102	sectors than in the cuboid sectors and thus Lang and colleagues concluded that

103	octahedral sectors were enriched in nitrogen compared to contemporary cuboid
104	sectors. An infrared (IR) and photoluminescence (PL) spectroscopy study by
105	Welbourn et al. (1989) of numerous cube-shaped diamonds from the Jwaneng mine
106	(Botswana) confirmed the enrichment of nitrogen in octahedral sectors. However,
107	they showed that there was no clear difference in the amount of nitrogen aggregation
108	and subsequent platelet formation between the sectors. They also noted a correlation
109	between strong hydrogen-related absorption bands and the "cloud-like" defects
110	present in the cuboid sectors. The study also attributed the characteristic yellow-green
111	cathodoluminescence (CL) to the S1 and S3 (nickel-related) defect centers.
112	Later studies of mixed-habit diamonds have only provided limited carbon-
113	isotope (Bulanova et al., 2002; Cartigny et al., 2003; Zedgenizov & Harte, 2004;
114	Howell et al., 2012b) and spectroscopic data (luminescence, ultraviolet (UV) and IR
115	absorption, and Raman; Rondeau et al., 2004; Lang et al., 2004; 2007). The results of
116	these studies are briefly summarized here. In contrast to what has been observed in
117	synthetic diamonds (Boyd et al., 1988; Reutsky et al., 2008), there is no fractionation
118	of carbon or nitrogen isotopes between contemporary octahedral and cuboid sectors.
119	Hydrogen-related absorption features are significantly stronger in the cuboid sectors.
120	Nitrogen concentrations are always high $(900 - 2500 \text{ ppm})$, with the octahedral
121	sectors always more enriched $(107 - 157 \%$ with respect to the cuboid sectors). While
122	nitrogen aggregation levels vary from $0 - 100$ % IaB, there remains no unanimity in
123	the literature as to whether there is any significant difference between sectors. This
124	uncertainty propagates into the available data regarding platelet distribution; the B'
125	feature is commonly reported as being much weaker or completely absent in the
126	cuboid sectors, when compared to platelet-bearing octahedral sectors.

127	Rondeau et al. (2004) presented the first hypothesis regarding the conditions
128	that may produce mixed-habit diamonds. Their principle conclusion was that the large
129	hydrogen features observed in the infrared spectra of only the cuboid sectors meant
130	that high hydrogen concentrations in the source fluid were required for cuboid growth
131	to occur. More recently, Howell et al. (2012b) added to this proposal by incorporating
132	the crystal growth theory of Sunagawa (1990; 2005). When a diamond crystal is
133	bounded by both rough $\{100\}$ and smooth $\{111\}$ growth (as is the case for mixed-
134	habit diamonds), the redox reactions and/or impurities present (see Introduction) slow
135	down the growth rate of the rough face, stopping it from being grown out of the
136	crystal, and allowing it to develop as a large habit-controlling face.
137	In this study, we combine data from several spectroscopic and geochemical
138	techniques with crystal orientation data on a suite of thirteen mixed-habit diamonds,
139	to identify the specific growth environment that may create this special type of
140	diamond crystal. We used IR absorption mapping to study the distribution of nitrogen,
141	hydrogen and platelet related defects, as well as to investigate the presence of any
142	mineral or fluid phases. Raman spectroscopy was used to investigate the dark defects
143	within the cuboid sectors, while photoluminescence was applied to investigate the
144	cause of the green cathodoluminescence observed in the cuboid sectors. Finally,
145	secondary-ion mass spectrometry provided carbon-isotope data to gain chemical
146	insights into the source of the diamond-forming fluids.
147	

148 SAMPLES

149

The thirteen diamond samples (MC01 - MC13; Fig. 2) exhibited varying
proportions of mixed-habit growth. The samples were obtained from the gem trade in

8/13

the form of parallel-polished plates; their geographical source is unknown. They rangein size from 6 to 13 mm (longest axis), all being less than 1 mm thick.

154

155 ANALYTICAL TECHNIQUES

157	To distinguish between different growth sectors and stages, detailed black and
158	white cathodoluminescence (CL) images were collected for all the diamonds on a
159	Zeiss EVO 15 scanning electron microscope (SEM; GAU, Macquarie University).
160	Accelerating voltages were varied between 15 and 25 kV to obtain the best quality of
161	images. The sample was cleaned and carbon-coated prior to imaging. To confirm the
162	color of the CL, the samples were also examined using a CCL 8200 mk4 luminoscope
163	(10 - 15 kv and 400 - 500 nA) coupled to a Nikon Eclipse ME600 microscope. In
164	addition, optical-light micrographs were obtained on a Leica MZ FLIII microscope
165	using a Leica DFC 500 camera.
166	Electron backscatter diffraction (EBSD) was carried out on all 13 samples to
167	confirm their crystallographic orientation. The analysis was carried out on a Zeiss
168	Ultra Plus (University of Sydney). Working conditions during acquisition of EBSD
169	patterns were $20 - 25$ kV accelerating voltage, ~ 0.8 nA beam current, working
170	distance of about 20 mm, 70° sample tilt, and high vacuum mode (samples carbon
171	coated). Patterns were acquired on rectangular grids by moving the electron beam at a
172	regular step size of 0.1, 1 and 2 μm . EBSD patterns were indexed using CHANNEL 5
173	software from HKL Technology - Oxford Instruments. The EBSD patterns from the
174	diamond were automatically indexed by comparing obtained reflector intensities with
175	those of theoretical reflectors. For this procedure, we compared to 50 theoretically-
176	calculated reflectors.

177	To obtain data on the most common impurities found in diamond, Fourier-
178	transform IR spectroscopy was performed using a Nicolet iN10 microscope (GAU,
179	Macquarie University), operated via Omnic Picta software. Using a $100 \times 100 \ \mu m$
180	aperture and a liquid nitrogen-cooled detector, each spectrum was collected over the
181	range of $4000 - 675 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ with a resolution of 1 cm ⁻¹ , by 16 scans in 6 seconds. IR
182	maps were compiled for each sample by recording spectra at 100 μ m intervals so that
183	full coverage was obtained. Each map contains between 2933 – 8413 spectra. The
184	spectra were automatically deconvoluted using the DiaMap freeware (see Howell et
185	al., 2012a for a full description of the different components used to calculate nitrogen
186	concentrations and aggregation states). However, where the high nitrogen
187	concentrations cause saturation in the one-phonon region of the spectra, the automated
188	processing technique results in unacceptable errors in the nitrogen measurements.
189	Therefore, only the hydrogen-related data (3107 cm ⁻¹ band intensity) are presented as
190	maps in this study. Where possible, individual analyses were also recorded at the
191	positions of the SIMS analysis (see below) using a $60 \times 60 \ \mu m$ aperture and 64 scans
192	(Supplementary data).
193	To obtain quantitative nitrogen impurity data, individual spectra were
194	extracted from the IR maps and deconvoluted using the same methodology as DiaMap
195	but with one important modification. To prevent the effect of the saturated spectra on
196	the least-squares fitting approach, a saturation level is set prior to the deconvolution.
197	This is a value (in absorption coefficient, cm^{-1}) above which the data from the fit to
198	the spectrum are omitted from the 'sum of the squares' (Fig. 3), but the contributions
199	from the different nitrogen components to the overall concentration are retained.
200	When the saturation is mostly in the region of the main A center feature (i.e. $\sim 1260 -$

201 1310 cm⁻¹; Boyd et al., 1994) the uncertainty is thought to be only slightly worse than

8/13

202	the 10% that has been estimated for the normal deconvolution technique. However,
203	when there is additional saturation in the region of the main B center feature (i.e.
204	\sim 1180 – 1220 cm ⁻¹ ; Boyd et al., 1995) it is thought that this process will
205	underestimate the B center component; therefore the uncertainty is thought to be
206	closer to 20%.
207	High-resolution Raman spectra were obtained to identify the dark light-
208	scattering bodies only observed in the cuboid sectors, using a dispersive Horiba
209	LabRAM-HR800 spectrometer (Institute of Mineralogy and Crystallography,
210	University of Vienna). The system was equipped with an Olympus BX41 optical
211	microscope, a diffraction grating with 1800 grooves/mm in the optical beam path, and
212	a Si-based, Peltier-cooled charge-coupled device (CCD) detector. Spectra were
213	obtained from the dark bodies inside the cuboid sectors using the 532 nm emission
214	line of a He-Ne laser (≈ 8 mW at the sample surface). The system was operated in the
215	confocal mode, with the confocal aperture set to 100 μ m, and a high-magnification
216	objective (Olympus 100×; numerical aperture 0.90) was used. The resulting spatial
217	resolution varied appreciably with the surface quality of the diamond and the focal
218	depth below the surface; the lateral resolution is estimated at $2 - 3 \mu m$. The system
219	was calibrated using Ne lamp emissions and the Rayleigh line; the wavenumber
220	accuracy was better than 0.5 cm^{-1} . The spectral resolution was determined to be 0.8
221	cm^{-1} .
222	The photoluminescence (PL) spectra were collected in order to identify the

The photoluminescence (PL) spectra were collected in order to identify the defects responsible for the strong luminescence, using a room-temperature home-built sample-scanning confocal microscope as previously described by Bradac et al. (2009). The sample was excited with 300 μ W of power (before the objective) by a 532 nm continuous-wave diode pumped solid-state laser (Coherent). The laser was focused

227	onto the sample by an oil immersion objective lens (Olympus 100x; numerical
228	aperture 1.3). The light emitted from the sample was recollected using the same
229	objective and the green light from the excitation laser was filtered out of the detection
230	channel using a 550 nm long pass filter (Thorlabs). The light was collected by a
231	commercial spectrum analyzer (Princeton Instruments Acton 2500i, Camera Pixis
232	100). Spectra were collected for 30 seconds using a grating with 300 groves/mm
233	blazed at 750 nm. Alternatively, a 685 nm continuous-wave diode laser (Newport), in
234	the same setup but with the addition of a 700 nm long pass filter (Thorlabs) was used.
235	
236	Carbon-isotope data were collected on a Cameca IMS 1280 ion probe
237	(Canadian Center for Isotopic Microanalysis (CCIM), University of Alberta). In total,
238	217 data points were recorded on 7 of the 13 samples; MC02, MC03, MC04, MC06,
239	MC07, MC08 and MC09. The samples were mounted next to a piece of the CCIM
240	synthetic diamond reference material (S0011B and C combustion reference value
241	$\delta^{13}C_{VPDB}$ = -22.58 ‰), in an indium matrix contained within a 25 mm diameter brass
242	mount. The reported propagated uncertainties include within-spot and between-spot
243	statistical measurements and those associated with IMF correction, and are typically
244	± 0.15 ‰ (95% confidence level). The carbon-isotope data are reported as $1000 \times \delta^{13}C$
245	relative to VPDB (${}^{13}C/{}^{12}C = 0.001118$).

246

247 **RESULTS**

248

Note that in this study, the term cuboid is used to refer to the type of diamond growth as defined by Moore & Lang (1972) and does not refer in any way to the morphology or habit of the diamond crystal. While it is conceded that natural

252	diamonds, in general, do not form perfect cube habits, the term cube will be used in
253	this study to refer to roughly cube-like morphologies.

254

255 General optical, crystallographic and CL characteristics

256

257	EBSD analysis reveals that eleven of the thirteen diamond plates are cut to
258	within 10° of perpendicular to a [100] axis; samples MC03 and MC05 are cut
259	perpendicular to a [110] axis. The arrows marked on Fig. 2 show the crystallographic
260	orientations of the [100] axes for all the samples. In general, the optically dark regions
261	are in the [100] direction (i.e. octahedral sectors), and the transparent diamond is in
262	the [111] direction (i.e. cuboid sectors). Within an individual diamond sample,
263	variations in the orientation of the crystal lattice are below the detection limit of the
264	EBSD technique. No lattice misorientations could be detected between the octahedral
265	and cuboid sectors. For a few of the samples with a more complex growth history
266	(MC04, 05, 06, 12), the light-scattering defects in the dark regions define concentric
267	patterns, which results from cuboid growth becoming dominant over the octahedral
268	growth (see Fig.1 and 2).
269	All the diamonds emit green CL from the cuboid sectors when examined using

All the diamonds emit green CL from the cuboid sectors when examined using the luminoscope system. However, this system is not sensitive enough to observe any emissions from the octahedral sectors. The black and white CL images obtained from the SEM have much greater contrast so more detail can be obtained from the more weakly-luminescent octahedral sectors (**Fig. 4a** – **b**, MC03). Some of the samples (MC01, 10 and 13; **Fig. 4c** – **d**) show no growth stratigraphy perpendicular to the growth direction, and the CL only reveals boundaries between the octahedral and cuboid sectors (parallel to the growth direction). All the other samples show varying

277	amounts of stratigraphy, with the growth bands forming perfectly straight lines in the
278	octahedral sectors, and curved hummocky forms in the cuboid sectors (Fig. 4e MC02,
279	4f MC03, 4g MC04, 4h MC08, 4i MC09, 4j MC07, 4k MC06, 4l MC05). Note also
280	the almost fully spherical forms in the cuboid sectors and the resorption event that
281	occurred towards the outer edge of MC02 (Fig. 4e), the triangular forms that develop
282	in the cuboid sectors of MC03 as it transitions to octahedral growth (Fig. 4a, b, f), and
283	the small cuboid forms contained within octahedral sectors in MC01, 07 and 09 (Fig.
284	4c, i, j). Curved features, similar to those seen in MC02, have been described by Seal
285	(1965) as being "oblique sections through bent but roughly cylindrical domes sloping
286	upwards and outwards from a central dimple." Ultimately, many of the variations in
287	the center-cross patterns seen in Fig. 2 relate to the sectioning of the diamond with
288	respect to the growth nucleus. For a full discussion of this subject see Lang (1979).
289	

- 290 Inferred Growth Morphology
- 291

292 As the diamonds were obtained as doubly polished plates, information about 293 their original morphology has to be inferred from their current form. The following 294 inferred growth histories are based on the CL pattern of the stones and the assumption 295 that the outer edges of the plates are still representative of the stones' original 296 morphology. Of the seven plates with approximately square outlines, four are inferred 297 to have had an octahedral morphology (MC02, 05, 07 and 10) because the <100> 298 crystallographic directions and light-scattering defects are directed to the corners (Fig. 299 1c). The growth of MC02 (Fig.2 and 4e) is fairly uniform, with the cuboid sectors 300 maintaining a consistent width except towards the outer edge, where there is an 301 indication of a resorption event. Of the other three specimens, MC05's growth

302	appears to be quite complex (Fig. 41), but this may be a result of the specimen not
303	being cut parallel to a growth direction. MC07 is dominated by cuboid growth in the
304	early stages but less so later in its growth (Fig. 4j), and MC10 is very similar to that
305	of MC02, with fairly constant ratios of octahedral to cuboid growth (Fig. 2). MC03,
306	also of octahedral morphology but with a more lozenge-shaped appearance, (Fig.2
307	and 4a, b, f) shows a very complex growth history. At the core of the stone it was
308	cuboid-dominated, and then the stone became more equally mixed-habit. Towards the
309	end, octahedral growth totally dominated and this is best revealed by the pyramid
310	features in the CL pattern (Fig. 4b). These represent octahedral facets starting to form
311	within the cuboid sectors.
312	The remaining three diamonds with roughly square outlines (MC04, 06 and
313	11) are inferred to have had a cubic morphology as the <111> crystallographic
314	directions are towards the corners (Fig. 1b and 2). MC04 has octahedral facets almost
315	totally grown out, while CL imaging of MC06 (Fig. 4k) shows that cuboid growth
316	totally dominates the outer part of the stone despite it being partially resorbed. This
317	stone also shows how the CL patterns of the sectors vary dramatically when cut well
318	off a <100> direction (Lang, 1979). In sample MC11 (Fig. 2) cuboid growth
319	dominates, but two octahedral sectors reach the edge of the stone without diminishing
320	in volume. One rounded sample, MC09 (Fig 2 and 4i) is also dominated by cuboid
321	growth.
322	Of the remaining four samples (MC01, 08, 12 and 13), two have rounded
323	morphology (Fig. 4h) and two are octahedral with re-entrants in the <100> directions
324	(Fig. 2), but they all contain fairly equal volumes of mixed-habit growth.
325	

326 IR Spectroscopy

327

328	Averaged nitrogen, hydrogen and platelet data for each sector of the thirteen
329	diamonds are shown in Table 1 . It is clear that nitrogen concentrations are very high
330	(>1400 ppm) in all thirteen diamonds, and that the octahedral sectors are more
331	enriched than the cuboid ones. Overall, nitrogen aggregation is relatively low for all
332	sectors $(3 - 23 \% \text{ IaB}, \text{ median } 12\% \text{ IaB})$. The nitrogen-aggregation data appear to
333	suggest that in all but one case, cuboid sectors are more aggregated than the
334	octahedral ones. The hydrogen concentrations are only high in the cuboid sectors; the
335	main band at 3107 cm^{-1} and the secondary band at 1405 cm^{-1} are accompanied by
336	bands at 3051, 3143, 3188, 3236 and 3309 cm^{-1} . Hydrogen measurements were
337	compiled into IR maps as it is unaffected by the nitrogen-related saturation and the
338	maps of four samples are shown in Fig. 5 .
339	Of the five diamonds with octahedral morphology, MC07 and MC10 contain
340	no platelets in any sector, MC03 and MC05 have low platelet intensities $(8 - 13 \text{ cm}^{-2})$
341	in only the cuboid sectors, and MC02 has a high platelet intensity (~200 cm^{-2}) but
342	only in the octahedral sectors (see Table 1). Samples MC03 and MC05 also show
343	interesting variations in the nitrogen concentration because their growth mechanisms
344	vary. In both cases, as the cuboid sectors transition to octahedral growth, nitrogen
345	concentrations drop from ~1950 ppm to as low as 1200 ppm in MC03 (Fig. 6), while
346	in MC05 they drop from \sim 2050 ppm in the core to \sim 1480 ppm towards the rim.
347	In the four diamonds whose growth is cuboid-dominated, small platelet
348	intensities ($\sim 5 - 10 \text{ cm}^{-2}$) are recorded only in the cuboid sectors of MC06 and MC09,
349	and MC11 contains no platelets in any sector. MC04 has small platelet intensities in
350	both cuboid (7 cm^{-2}) and octahedral (2 cm^{-2}) sectors. There is also a decrease in the

14

8/13

351 nitrogen concentrations of both sectors as cuboid growth becomes dominant (see 352 MC04 in Fig. 6). 353 The final four diamonds all exhibit fairly equal proportions of mixed-habit 354 growth; MC13 contains no platelets in any sector, while MC01, MC08 and MC12 355 have small platelet intensities ($\sim 5 - 14 \text{ cm}^{-2}$) only in the cuboid sectors. 356 In summary, all of the diamonds except two either have platelets in only the 357 cuboid sectors, or have no platelets in any sector. MC04 contains a small platelet 358 feature in both sectors, while MC02 is the only sample to have a large platelet band 359 and that only occurs in the octahedral sectors. When one growth mechanism becomes 360 dominant over the other, the change is accompanied by a drop in nitrogen concentrations in both octahedral and cuboid sectors, regardless of which type of 361 362 growth is becoming dominant. The final feature of interest is the small broad band around 1580 cm⁻¹. This 363 364

feature, seen only in cuboid sectors, was observed in eight of the samples and is,

365 according to Nemanich et al. (1977), related to graphite. The absence of other spectral

366 features confirms that the *disc-crack-like* defects of the cuboid sectors do not contain

367 fluid or silicate mineral inclusions.

368

369 **Raman and Photoluminescence Spectroscopy**

370

371 Raman and PL analyses, especially those placed in the cuboid sectors, were 372 complicated by strong laser-induced, broad-band luminescence of unknown origin. 373 Raman analyses of the *disc-crack-like* defects in the cuboid sectors revealed that they 374 are in fact graphite, as previously shown by Rondeau et al. (2004) and suggested by Lang et al. (2007). The graphite G band near 1580 cm^{-1} (for the band assignment see 375

376	Tuinstra and Koenig, 1970) was found to be relatively narrow (full width half
377	maximum [FWHM] values in the range 13.4–25.4 cm ⁻¹). This observation suggests
378	that the graphite is well crystallized to, at the most, moderately disordered (compare
379	Beyssac et al., 2002; Nasdala et al., 2003). Raman analyses of the diamond regions
380	immediately surrounding these graphite bodies yielded spectra with a mildly
381	broadened, always somewhat asymmetric main first-order diamond band at 1332.0-
382	1333.8 cm ^{-1} . The slight up-shift with respect to the diamond host (~1332.0 cm ^{-1})
383	indicates that the graphite transmits a small amount of compressive stress (Sharma et
384	al., 1985; Nasdala et al., 2005) to the diamond host. This is consistent with the TEM
385	study of these types of defects by Walmsley et al. (1987).
386	Two excitation wavelengths were used in the PL work in order to avoid, at
387	least partially, the broad luminescence background. A band at \sim 794 nm was observed
388	only in the cuboid sectors of the diamonds (Fig.7). This feature may be assigned to
389	the Zero Phonon Line (ZPL) of the S2 and S3 nickel centers (Kupriyanov et al.,
390	1999), also known as the NE2 and NE1 electron paramagnetic resonance centers
391	(Lang et al., 2004). Spectra obtained in the cuboid sectors with 532 nm excitation
392	showed two additional bands at \sim 706 and \sim 658 nm. These are most probably also
393	related to nickel impurities as their positions are very close to the nickel-induced CL
394	emission at 703.6 nm (Nadolinny et al., 1999) and PL emission at 658.3 nm
395	(Yelisseyev et al., 1996) respectively.
396	

397 Carbon Isotopes

398

399 Of the 217 analyses performed on seven samples, the total range of δ^{13} C is 400 -7.94 to -9.61 ‰ (**Supplementary Data**). The largest range seen in a single sample,

401	MC03, is 0.98 ‰ (-8.63 to -9.61 ‰). The most thoroughly studied sample, MC07,
402	with 69 analyses transecting both octahedral and cuboid sectors (Fig. 4j), shows a
403	slight trend to less negative $\delta^{13}C$ values moving from the core to the rim. This change
404	occurs in both sectors, with no significant difference in the $\delta^{13}C$ values between the
405	two. A similar slight increase in δ^{13} C values is also seen in the cuboid sector of MC03
406	(Fig. 8a). In the remaining samples, MC02, 04, 06, 08 and 09, no δ^{13} C variation
407	between core and rim was noted. To confirm that no fractionation occurs between
408	sectors, nine pairs of analyses of contemporary growth horizons were performed on
409	MC06 (Fig. 4k), with spots in each sector of the same growth layer. None of the
410	analyses show any statistical difference between sectors (Fig. 8b) and therefore there
411	is no evidence of carbon-isotope fractionation between the sectors.
412	
413	DISCUSSION
414	
415	Impurity Characteristics
416	
417	The most commonly reported characteristic of mixed-habit diamonds relates
418	to their high nitrogen concentrations (e.g. Welbourn et al., 1989; Bulanova et al.,
419	2002; Rondeau et al., 2004). That result is supported in this study, with overall
420	nitrogen concentrations ranging from 1400 – 2700 ppm, and nitrogen enriched in the
421	octahedral sectors compared to contemporary cuboid sectors by 127 - 143 % (Table
422	1). Differences between the moderately low levels of nitrogen aggregation in both
423	sectors are more difficult to assess due to the saturation of the spectra in the nitrogen-
424	dominated region $(1000 - 1350 \text{ cm}^{-1})$. In most cases, the data initially suggest that
425	aggregation levels are higher in the cuboid sectors. Considering their lower

426	concentrations, this implies a faster rate of nitrogen aggregation in cuboid diamond
427	than octahedral diamond. However, the deconvolution method applied to saturated
428	spectra significantly under-represents the B center component (see Analytical
429	Techniques section) and this has a greater affect on the data from the octahedral
430	sectors. Taking this uncertainty in to account, we believe that there is no significant
431	difference in nitrogen aggregation levels between the two sectors. It is not possible to
432	determine whether this means that aggregation does occur at significantly faster rates
433	in cuboid diamond growth, but it is assumed it does not.
434	If nitrogen aggregation occurs at the same rate in both octahedral and cuboid
435	diamond growth, then interstitial carbon atoms are also being generated at the same
436	rate (Woods, 1986). These interstitial carbon atoms aggregate together very quickly to
437	form platelets. This relationship between B centers and interstitial carbon atoms
438	results in a linear trend between the integrated area of the platelet (B') peak and the
439	amount of IR absorption caused by B centers (Woods, 1986). When the
440	proportionality between the integrated intensity and the IR absorption is less than the
441	expected coefficient from the general linear trend, it usually is interpreted as being
442	due to the degradation of the platelets caused by heating and/or deformation events
443	(Woods, 1986).
444	This linear relationship established by Woods (1986) means that the constant

rate of nitrogen aggregation, combined with nitrogen enrichment in the octahedral sectors should result in proportionally larger platelet intensities in the octahedral sectors of mixed-habit diamonds. In other words, more nitrogen creates more B centers, which in turn create more interstitial carbon atoms and therefore more / larger platelets. However, the I(B') data from mixed-habit diamonds in both the literature (e.g. Welbourn et al., 1989; Bulanova et al., 2002; Rondeau et al., 2004; Howell et al.,

2012b) and this study, show no consistency with regard to sector variations. For
example, platelets may occur in just one sector, or have higher intensities in one
sector compared to the other.

454 To explain this phenomenon, we consider both how platelets form, and how 455 they degrade. There have been two proposals regarding nitrogen aggregation and 456 platelet formation in mixed-habit diamonds. Rondeau et al. (2004) suggested that 457 nitrogen aggregation is impeded in cuboid sectors due to hydrogen being bonded to 458 the A center defects. Reduced aggregation to B centers means fewer interstitial carbon 459 atoms are generated and fewer platelets created. Conversely, Howell et al. (2012b) 460 proposed that nitrogen aggregation rates were the same in both sectors, but the 461 interstitial carbon atoms interacted with the disc-crack-like defects in the cuboid 462 sectors (Walmsley et al., 1987). This would reduce their likelihood of aggregating to 463 form platelets, but would not totally prevent it, as not all the interstitial carbon atoms 464 would interact with the defects. This means that the linear relationship of Woods 465 (1986) would not be applicable to cuboid diamond growth, as the concentration of the 466 *disc-crack-like* defects needs to be taken into account. As we see no difference in the 467 nitrogen aggregation rates between the sectors (if anything nitrogen aggregation may 468 occur faster in cuboid diamond), data from the present work support the conclusions 469 of Howell et al. (2012b).

To explain the diversity of platelet features seen in mixed-habit diamonds, we also need to understand how platelets are degraded. The main mechanism for platelet degradation is dislocation-related (Hirsch et al., 1986) and it has a stronger effect on larger platelets than on smaller ones (Lang et al., 2007). The IR data available for platelets in mixed-habit diamonds (Lang et al., 2007; Howell et al., 2012b) show that platelets in octahedral sectors have a greater area per unit volume (Sumida & Lang,

478

will also degrade more easily.

479 Deformation and/or heating events are intrinsic to the degradation of platelets 480 (Woods, 1986). This is because the mechanism requires either the generation of 481 dislocations, or mobilization of existing ones, to create the loops that produce the 482 vacancies necessary for platelet decomposition (Hirsch et al., 1986). None of the 483 thirteen diamonds in this study shows any visual evidence of being plastically 484 deformed; this is supported by their crystallographic homogeneity as recorded by the 485 EBSD analysis. However, the graphitization of the *disc-crack-like* defects (see earlier) 486 is evidence that the diamonds have experienced a heating event at some point in their 487 history (Howes, 1962; Evans, 1979). This heating would allow the platelet data from 488 the diamonds in this study to be explained simply by varying the timing and intensity 489 of the heating event. For example, a brief heating event just prior to volcanic 490 exhumation would reduce the larger platelet features of the octahedral sector, while 491 the smaller platelet features in the cuboid sector would be less affected. This would 492 result in small platelet features in both sectors. Increasing the duration and/or 493 temperature of the heating event would initially cause further degradation of the 494 octahedral platelets, so that platelets only survived in the cuboid sectors. If the heating 495 event persisted, total degradation of the platelets in the cuboid sectors would also occur, leaving no platelets in either sector despite aggregation levels of up to 15 % 496 497 IaB. Alternatively, a significant heating event that occurred well before exhumation 498 would initially result in total platelet degradation in both sectors, but there would be 499 time for subsequent platelet development to occur. Depending on the concentration of 500 the *disc-crack-like* defects in the cuboid sectors, this could result in only a large

501 platelet feature being observed in the octahedral sector, as platelet development in the 502 cuboid sector remains impeded by the defects. 503 Another common characteristic of mixed-habit diamonds noted in the 504 literature is the presence of significant levels of IR-active hydrogen, principally in the 505 cuboid sectors only. The diamonds in this study show strong IR-active hydrogen features in the cuboid sectors $(25 - 77 \text{ cm}^{-1}; \text{ Table 1})$, although commonly there is a 506 much weaker feature in the octahedral sectors ($< 11 \text{ cm}^{-1}$) as well. Other than the 507 508 disc-crack-like defects, there are no defects that only occur in the cuboid sectors to 509 offer suitable sites for IR-active hydrogen bonding. Therefore the data from this study 510 suggest that hydrogen is bound to the diamond at the surfaces of these defects in the cuboid sectors, as proposed by Howell et al. (2012b) and in accordance with the 511 512 suggestion of Woods & Collins (1983). It is possible that a small contribution to the 513 3107 cm⁻¹ band comes from hydrogen residing at nitrogen-related defects (Rondeau 514 et al., 2004). As this would occur in both sectors, it would explain the smaller 515 hydrogen-related bands seen in the octahedral sectors. 516 As the intensity of the hydrogen-related IR feature does not correlate with the 517 actual hydrogen concentration within the diamond as a whole (Sweeney et al., 1999), 518 the exact role of hydrogen in diamond is not fully understood. An investigation of 519 whether differences in total hydrogen concentrations exist or not, and whether 520 hydrogen partitions between both sectors or is concentrated mainly in one type of 521 sector could provide new insights into mixed-habit diamond formation. 522 The final impurity to discuss is nickel, which is present in the cuboid sectors. 523 This element is responsible for the green cathodoluminescence that is commonly 524 observed in mixed-habit diamonds (Welbourn et al., 1989), including all of those 525 studied here. No nickel concentrations have yet been measured in mixed-habit

526 diamonds, but Lang et al. (2004) suggest that concentrations would be < 0.1 ppm.

527 More recent laser-ablation studies have reported nickel concentrations up to 0.3 ppm 528 in monocrystalline diamonds (Rege et al., 2010).

529 It has been observed that nickel enhances nitrogen aggregation in synthetic diamonds (Kiflawi et al., 1998; Fisher and Lawson, 1998) and these authors propose 530 531 two reasons: (1) the release of vacancies from the nickel-vacancy complexes, which 532 subsequently assist nitrogen migration; (2) the release of carbon interstitials that in 533 turn release highly mobile nitrogen interstitials. While these mechanisms have only 534 been shown to be of importance for aggregation from C centers to A centers, it is 535 important to recognize that they may also effect aggregation from A to B centers as 536 well, therefore undermining the general relationship to mantle residence time and/or 537 temperature that nitrogen aggregation data are thought to provide.

538

539 Growth Conditions of Mixed-Habit Diamonds

540

541 The large body of carbon-isotope data collected in this study shows that the seven samples are very limited in their range, only -7.94 to -9.61 ‰; the largest range 542 543 in a single sample is only 0.98 ‰ (Fig. 8a), and none of the diamonds shows strong 544 trends in δ^{13} C from core to rim. Even the detailed analysis of MC06, designed to 545 identify any fractionation between growth sectors, showed that none existed (Fig. 8b). 546 Previous carbon-isotope data from mixed-habit diamonds have almost all been close 547 to the mantle range (δ^{13} C = -5 to -8 ‰) with three diamonds falling in the range -3 to 548 -7 ‰ (Bulanova et al., 2002; Zedgenizov & Harte, 2004; Howell et al., 2012b). One diamond from SE Australia had a δ^{13} C = +1.94 ‰, consistent with data for other 549 550 diamonds from the same location (Cartigny et al., 2003).

551	As there are no paragenesis-defining inclusions within any of the samples
552	studied, it is not possible to deduce with certainty whether they formed in eclogitic or
553	peridotitic hosts. Considering our data in terms of carbon-isotope and nitrogen-
554	concentration co-variations however, the present data fall very close to a calculated
555	melt evolution trend based on eclogitic diamond growth during reduction of
556	carbonates, with previous loss of a ¹³ C- enriched, nitrogen-bearing CO ₂ fluid
557	(Cartigny et al., 2001; Maruoka et al. 2004). The high nitrogen contents of our
558	samples, combined with $\delta^{13}C$ distinctly below the mantle value of ~-5‰ (see Deines,
559	2002), means that these data fall far off predicted Rayleigh fractionation trends for the
560	precipitation of peridotitic diamonds from reducing (CH ₄ -bearing) or oxidizing (CO ₃ ²⁻
561	-bearing) fluids (see Figure 7 of Stachel & Harris, 2009). However, there is a subset
562	of peridotitic coated diamonds with initial $\delta^{13}C$ values as low as -9‰, consistent with
563	carbonate precipitation (Stachel et al., 2009). So while the evidence points to an
564	eclogitic paragenesis there is the lesser possibility of an origin from a ¹³ C-depleted
565	carbonate-bearing fluid in a peridotitic environment (Stachel et al., 2009). The
566	presence of nickel in the diamonds implies the absence of sulphides during diamond
567	formation (as sulfides would scavenge all the nickel) and this evidence could favor
568	diamond formation in a Ni-rich depleted cratonic peridotite.
569	Two of the diamonds exhibit a significant change in nitrogen concentration
570	from the core to the rim (MC03 & MC04, Fig. 6). This variation correlates with a
571	change in growth type, with octahedral growth becoming dominant in MC03 and
572	cuboid growth dominating in MC04. Neither of these samples shows an
573	accompanying trend in carbon isotopes, ruling out growth from a closed system.
574	Redox reactions and/or the absorption of impurities are the key factors in allowing

575 mixed-habit growth to occur and be sustained (see Introduction). If growth occurs in

8/13

576	an open system, then in general, for large volumes of mixed-habit growth to occur the
577	physiochemical conditions must be very stable, as only a slight change will result in
578	one growth type becoming dominant. In the present case, such an argument is
579	supported by the lack of variation in carbon isotopes and the sustained impurity
580	concentrations in the majority of the diamonds studied. With MC03 and MC04, a
581	change in the impurity concentration of the source fluid seems most likely, resulting
582	in growth moving away from mixed-habit and becoming dominated by just one type.
583	If the model of Howell et al. (2012b) is correct, then a drop in hydrogen
584	concentrations may have caused octahedral growth to become dominant in MC03 (the
585	accompanying drop in nitrogen being irrelevant), while a drop in nitrogen
586	concentration with continued high hydrogen concentrations may have caused cuboid
587	growth to dominate in MC04 (Fig. 9).
588	To summarize, the data collected from this set of mixed-habit diamonds
589	suggests that growth occurred under the following conditions; (1) relatively constant
590	pressure (P) and temperature (T), (2) sustained levels of carbon super-saturation, (3) a
591	relatively high nitrogen concentration in the source fluid, and (4) a reduced oxygen
592	fugacity (fO_2) providing diamond-forming carbon through the reduction of
593	carbonates. The role and importance of hydrogen to mixed-habit and particularly
594	cuboid growth remain uncertain but would be clarified if actual concentrations and
595	sectoral variations were confirmed. The role that nickel plays in cuboid diamond
596	growth is also uncertain, but it is not deemed integral to mixed-habit growth.
597	The data from this study support the following preliminary model for mixed-
598	habit diamond crystal growth. High concentrations of nitrogen and hydrogen in the
599	source fluid are the key factors required for mixed-habit growth to occur (Rondeau et
600	al., 2004; Howell et al., 2012b). Nitrogen is preferentially taken up in the octahedral

601	sectors, while hydrogen is better accommodated in the cuboid sectors. Other
602	important factors like P, T, fO_2 , and carbon saturation must remain fairly constant to
603	avoid driving the growth conditions away from mixed-habit growth.
604	Mixed-habit diamonds may be under-represented in population studies
605	because the cross feature is only visible if the disc-crack-like defects have been
606	graphitized. Their rarity may also be linked to the very stable conditions required for
607	their growth. If that is the case, then appropriate growth conditions may only be
608	encountered for brief periods. The consequence of this would be that only small
609	volumes of mixed-habit growth will occur during transitions (in either direction) from
610	octahedral to cuboid growth (e.g. Kaminsky & Khachatryan, 2004; Skuzovatov et al.,
611	2011; Howell et al., 2012a, b)
612	

613 CONCLUSIONS

614

615 This study has presented a large body of spectroscopic and carbon-isotope 616 data on mixed-habit diamonds, significantly increasing the current dataset. These data 617 help to reinforce new ideas regarding the behaviour of various impurities in diamond, 618 namely the rates of nitrogen aggregation and subsequent platelet development in 619 octahedral and cuboid sectors, and the presence of significant IR-active hydrogen 620 principally in cuboid sectors. The highly crystalline state of the graphite coating the 621 *disc-crack-like* defects, and the residual strain surrounding them, support the 622 interpretation that graphitization occurred during heating events subsequent to 623 diamond formation in the mantle. The presence of nickel in the cuboid sectors, 624 creating green CL, probably indicates the absence of any sulphide phase during 625 diamond growth. An origin for mixed-habit diamonds during carbonate reduction is

proposed, supporting an earlier hypothesis (Howell et al., 2012b) that the reducing
oxygen-fugacity conditions could also produce the high levels of hydrogen required to
sustain cuboid growth. However, both quantitative analysis of hydrogen
concentrations in mixed-habit diamonds and HPHT experiments are required to
confirm this.

631

632 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

633

634 John Chapman is thanked for suggesting the data processing method for N-saturated 635 IR spectra and for directing us to the collection of diamonds used in this study. Darren Arthur is thanked for giving us access to these and other mixed-habit samples. O. 636 637 Beyssac is thanked for discussion regarding the graphite Raman spectra. Jeff Harris 638 and another anonymous reviewer are thanked for their comments that helped improve 639 the manuscript. Boriana Mihailova is thanked for her editorial handling of the 640 manuscript. JMS is supported by a Macquarie Research Excellence International 641 Scholarship and would also like to acknowledge support from the Australian Research 642 Council Discovery Projects scheme (DP1094439) and Centers of Excellence 643 (CE110001013). The authors acknowledge the EBSD facility and technical assistance 644 of the Australian Microscopy & Microanalysis Research Facility at the Australian 645 Centre for Microscopy & Microanalysis, University of Sydney, SIMS analyses were 646 conducted under Project P1005 of the Canadian Center for Isotopic Microanalysis. 647 Some of the analytical work used instrumentation in the Geochemical Analysis Unit 648 (GAU) of the GEMOC Key Center, funded by DEST Systemic Infrastructure Grants, 649 ARC LIEF, NCRIS, industry partners and Macquarie University. This is contribution 650 178 from the ARC Center of Excellence for Core to Crust Fluid Systems

- 651 (www.ccfs.mq.edu.au) and 826 from the GEMOC Key Center
- 652 (<u>www.gemoc.mq.edu.au</u>). The DiaMap routine used in this study can be downloaded,
- along with instructions, from the GEMOC website.

654

655 **REFERENCES CITED**

656

657	Araujo, D.P., Griffin, W.L., O'Reilly, S.Y., Grant, K.J., Ireland, T., Holden, P., and
658	van Achterbergh, E. (2009) Microinclusions in monocrystalline octahedral
659	diamonds and coated diamonds from Diavik, Slave Craton: Clues to diamond
660	genesis. Lithos, 112S, 724-735.

- Beyssac, O., Goffé, B., Petitet, J.P., Froigneux, E., Moreau, M., and Rouzaud, J.N.
 (2003) On the characterization of disordered and heterogeneous carbonaceous
- 663 materials using Raman spectroscopy. Spectrochimica Acta A, 59, 2267–2276.
- Boyd, S.R., Pillinger, C.T., Milledge, H.J., Mendelssohn, M.J., and Seal, M. (1988)

Fractionation of nitrogen isotopes in a synthetic diamond of mixed crystal habit.
Nature, 331, 604–607.

- Boyd, S.R., Pillinger, C.T., Milledge, H.J., Mendelssohn, M.J., and Seal, M. (1992) C
 and N isotopic composition and the infrared absorption spectra of coated
- diamonds: evidence for the regional uniformity of CO₂-H₂O rich fluids in
 lithospheric mantle. Earth and Planetary Science Letters, 109, 633–644.
- Boyd, S.R., Kiflawi, I., and Woods, G.S. (1994) The relationship between infrared
- absorption and the A defect concentration in diamond. Philosophical Magazine
 B, 69, 1149-1153.
- Boyd, S.R., Kiflawi, I., and Woods, G.S. (1995) Infrared absorption by the B nitrogen
 aggregate in diamond. Philosophical Magazine B, 72, 351-361.
- Bradac, C., Gaebel, T., Naidoo, N., Rabeau J.R., and Barnard, A.S. (2009) Prediction
 and Measurement of the Size-Dependent Stability of Fluorescence in Diamond
 over the Entire Nanoscale. Nano Letters, 9, 3555–3564.
- 679 Bulanova, G.P., Pearson, D.G., Hauri, E.H., and Griffin, B.J. (2002) Carbon and
- 680 nitrogen isotope systematics with a sector-growth diamond from the Mir
- 681 kimberlite, Yakutia. Chemical Geology, 188, 105–123.

682	Cartigny, P., Harris, J.W., and Javoy, M. (2001) Diamond genesis, mantle
683	fractionations and mantle nitrogen content: a study of δ^{13} C-N concentrations in
684	diamonds. Earth and Planetary Science Letters, 185, 85–98.
685	Cartigny, P., Harris, J.W., Taylor, A., Davies, R., and Javoy, M. (2003) On the
686	possibility of a kinetic fractionation of nitrogen stable isotopes during natural
687	diamond growth. Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta, 67, 1571–1576.
688	Clackson S.G., Moore M., Walmsley J.C., and Woods G.S. (1990) The relationship
689	between platelet size and frequency of the B' infrared absorption peak in Type
690	Ia diamond. Philosophical Magazine B, 62, 115-128.
691	Deines, P. (2002) The carbon isotope geochemistry of mantle xenoliths. Earth-
692	Science Reviews, 58, 247-278.
693	Evans, T. (1979) Changes produced by high temperature treatment of diamond. In:
694	Fields J (ed) The properties of diamond. Academic Press, London, pp 403-424.
695	Fisher, D., and Lawson, S.C. (1998) The effect of nickel and cobalt on the
696	aggregation of nitrogen in diamond. Diamond and Related Materials, 7, 299-
697	304.
698	Frank, F.C. (1967) Defects in diamond. In: Burls J (ed) Science and Technology of
699	Industrial Diamonds, vol. 1. Industrial Diamond Information Bureau, London,
700	pp 119–135
701	Harrison, E.R. and Tolansky, S. (1964) Growth history of a natural octahedral
702	diamond. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London A, 279, 490-496.
703	Hirsch, P.B., Pirouz, P., and Barry, J.C. (1986) Platelets, dislocation loops and
704	voidites in diamond. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London A, 407, 239-
705	258
706	Howell, D., O'Neill, C.J., Grant, K.J., Griffin, W.L., Pearson, N.J., and O'Reilly S.Y.
707	(2012 a). µ-FTIR mapping: Distribution of impurities in different types of
708	diamond growth. Accepted, Diamond and Related Materials.
709	Howell, D., O'Neill, C.J., Grant, K.J., Griffin, W.L., Pearson, N.J., O'Reilly S.Y.,
710	Stern R., and Stachel T. (2012 b). Platelet development in cuboid diamonds:
711	insights from μ -FTIR mapping. Accepted Contributions to Mineralogy and
712	Petrology.
713	Howes, V.R. (1962) The graphitization of diamond. Proceedings of the Physics
714	Society, 80, 648-662.

715	Kaminsky, F.V., and Khachatryan, G.K. (2004) The relationship between the
716	distribution of nitrogen impurity centres in diamond crystals and their internal
717	structure and mechanism of growth. Lithos, 77, 255-271
718	Kiflawi, I., Kanda H., and Mainwood, A. (1998) The effect of nickel and the kinetics
719	of the aggregation of nitrogen in diamond. Diamond and Related Materials, 7,
720	327–332.
721	Kupriyanov, I.N., Gusev, V.A., Borzdov, Y.M., Kalinin, A.A., and Palyanov, Y.N.
722	(1999) Photoluminescence study of annealed nickel- and nitrogen-containing
723	synthetic diamond. Diamond and Related Materials, 8, 1301–1309.
724	Lang, A.R. (1974) On the growth-sectorial dependence of defects in natural
725	diamonds. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London A, 340, 233-248
726	Lang, A.R. (1979) Internal structure. In: Fields J (ed) The properties of diamond.
727	Academic Press, London, pp 425–469
728	Lang, A.R., Bulanova, G.P., Fisher, D., Furkert, S., and Sarua, A. (2007) Defects in a
729	mixed-habit Yakutian diamond: studies by optical and cathodoluminescence
730	microscopy, infrared absorption, Raman scattering and photoluminescence
731	spectroscopy. Journal of Crystal Growth, 309, 170–180.
732	Lang, A.R., Yelisseyev, A.P., Pokhilenko, N.P., Steeds, J.W., and Wotherspoon, A.
733	(2004) Is dispersed nickel in natural diamonds associated with cuboid growth
734	sectors in diamonds that exhibit a history of mixed-habit growth? Journal of
735	Crystal Growth, 263, 575–589.
736	Maruoka, T., Kurat, G., Dobosi, G., and Koeberl, C. (2004). Isotopic composition of
737	carbon in diamonds from diamondites: record of mass fractionation in the upper
738	mantle. Geochimica et Cosmochimica Acta, 68, 1635-1644.
739	Moore, M., and Lang, A.R. (1972) Internal structure of natural diamonds of cubic
740	habit. Philosophical Magazine, 26(6), 1313-1325.
741	Nadolinny, V.A., Yelisseyev, A.P., Baker, J.M., Newton, M.E., Twitchen, D.J.,
742	Lawson, S.C., Yuryeva, O.P., and Feigelson, B.N. (1999) A study of 13C
743	hyperfine structure in the EPR of nickel-nitrogen-containing centres in diamond
744	and correlation with their optical properties. Journal of Physics: Condensed
745	Matter, 11, 7357–7376.
746	Nasdala, L., Brenker, F.E., Glinnemann, J., Hofmeister, W., Gasparik, T., Harris,
747	J.W., Stachel, T, and Reese, I. (2003) Spectroscopic 2D-tomography: Residual

748	pressure and strain around mineral inclusions in diamonds. European Journal of
749	Mineralogy, 15, 931–935.
750	Nasdala, L., Hofmeister, W., Harris, J.W., and Glinnemann, J. (2005): Growth zoning
751	and strain patterns inside diamond crystals as revealed by Raman maps.
752	American Mineralogist, 90, 745–748.
753	Nemanich, R.J., Lucovsky, G., and Solin, S.A. (1977) Infrared active optical
754	vibrations of graphite. Solid State Communications, 23, 117-120.
755	Rege, S., Griffin, W.L., Pearson, N.J., Araujo, D.P., Zedgenizov, D.A., and O'Reilly,
756	S.Y. (2010) Trace-element patterns of fibrous and monocrystalline diamonds:
757	Insights into mantle fluids. Lithos, 118, 313–337.
758	Reutsky, V.N., Harte, B., EIMF, Borzdov, Y.M., and Palyanov, Y.N. (2008)
759	Monitoring diamond crystal growth, a combined experimental and SIMS study.
760	European Journal of Mineralogy, 20, 365–374.
761	Rondeau, B., Fritsch, E., Guiraud, M., Chalain, J-P., and Notari, F. (2004) Three
762	historical 'asteriated' hydrogen-rich diamonds: growth history and sector-
763	dependence impurity incorporation. Diamond and Related Materials, 13, 1658-
764	1673.
765	Seal, M. (1965) Structure in diamonds as revealed by etching. American Mineralogist,
766	50, 105–123.
767	Sharma, S.K., Mao, H.K., Bell, P.M., and Xu, J.A. (1985) Measurement of stress in
768	diamond anvils with micro-Raman spectroscopy. Journal of Raman
769	Spectroscopy, 16, 350–352.
770	Skuzovatov, S. Yu., Zedgenizov, D.A., Shatsky, V.S., Ragozin, A.L., and Kuper, K.E.
771	(2011) Composition of cloudy microinclusions in octahedral diamonds from the
772	Internatsional'naya kimberlite pipe (Yakutia). Russian Geology and
773	Geophysics, 52, 85–96.
774	Stachel, T. (2001) Diamonds from the asthenosphere and the transition zone,
775	European Journal of Mineralogy, 13, 883-892.
776	Stachel, T., and Harris, J.W. (2008) The origin of cratonic diamonds - constraints
777	from mineral inclusions, Ore Geology Reviews, 34, 5-32.
778	Stachel, T., and Harris, J.W. (2009) Formation of diamond in the Earth's mantle,
779	Journal of Physics: Condensed Matter, 21, 364206.
780	Stachel, T., Harris, J.W., and Muehlenbachs, K. (2009) Sources of carbon in inclusion
781	bearing diamonds. Lithos, 112 (S2), 625-637.

782	Sumida N., and Lang A.R. (1988) On the measurement of population density and size
783	of platelets in typa 1a diamond and its implications for platelet structure models.
784	Proceedings of the Royal Society London 419, 235-257.
785	Sunagawa, I. (1990) Growth and morphology of diamond crystals under stable and
786	metastable conditions. Journal of Crystal Growth, 99(1-4), 1156
787	Sunagawa, I. (2005) Crystals - Growth, Morphology and Perfection. Cambridge
788	University Press, Cambridge.
789	Suzuki, S., and Lang, A.R. (1976a) Internal structures of natural diamonds revealing
790	mixed-habit growth. In: Diamond Research, vol. International Diamond
791	Information Bureau, London, pp 39–47
792	Suzuki, S., and Lang, A.R. (1976b) Occurrences of facetted re-entrants on rounded
793	growth surfaces of natural diamonds. Journal of Crystal Growth, 34, 29-37.
794	Sweeney, R.J., Prozesky, V.M., Viljoen, K.S., and Connell, S. (1999) The sensitive
795	determination of H in diamond by infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy and micro-
796	elastic-recoil (u-ERDA) techniques. Nuclear Instruments and Methods in
797	Physics Research B, 158, 582–587.
798	Tomlinson, E., Jones, A.P., and Harris, J.W. (2006) Co-existing fluid and silicate
799	inclusions in mantle diamond, Earth and Planetary Science Letters, 250, 581-
800	595.
801	Tuinstra, F. and Koenig, J.L. (1970) Raman spectrum of graphite. Journal of
802	Chemical Physics, 53, 1126–1130.
803	Walmsley, J.C., Lang, A.R., Rooney, M-L.T., and Welbourn, C.M. (1987) Newly
804	observed microscopic planar defects on {111} in natural diamond.
805	Philosophical Magazine Letters, 55, 209–213.
806	Weiss, Y., Kessel, R., Griffin, W.L., Kiflawi, I., Klein-BenDavid, O., Bell, D.R.,
807	Harris, J.W., and Navon, O. (2009) A new model for the evolution of diamond-
808	forming fluids: Evidence from microinclusion-bearing diamonds from Kankan,
809	Guinea. Lithos, 112S, 660–674.
810	Welbourn, C.M., Rooney, M-L.T., and Evans, D.J.F. (1989) A study of diamond of
811	cube and cube-related shape from the Jwaneng mine. Journal of Crystal Growth,
812	94, 229–252.
813	Woods, G.S. (1986) Platelets and the infrared absorption of Type Ia diamonds.
814	Proceedings of the Royal Society London A, 407, 219-238.

815	Woods, G.S., and Collins, A.T. (1983) Infrared absorption spectra of hydrogen
816	complexes in Type I diamonds. Journal of Physics and Chemistry of Solids, 44,
817	471–475.
818	Zedgenizov, D.A., and Harte, B. (2004) Microscale variations of $\delta^{13}C$ and N content
819	within a natural diamond with mixed-habit growth. Chemical Geology, 205,
820	169–175.
821	Yelisseyev, A., Nadolinny, V., Feigelson, B., Terentyev, S., and Nosukhin, S. (1996)
822	Spatial distribution of impurity defects in synthetic diamonds obtained by the
823	BARS technology. Diamond and Related Materials, 5, 1113–1117.
824	
825	Figure Captions:
826	
827	Figure 1. Illustration showing the formation of the center-cross in mixed-habit
828	diamonds (after Sunagawa, 2005). Octahedral growth is in white, while cuboid
829	growth is in grey. The arrows show the crystallographic $<100>$ and $<111>$
830	directions of the face-centered cubic cell, which correspond to the preferred
831	growth direction of cuboid and octahedral faces, respectively. (a) Constant
832	growth in both the octahedral and cuboid sectors. This results in the final
833	morphology being of mixed-habit. (b) After three growth layers of constant
834	mixed-habit growth, the growth rate of the octahedral sectors (R_o) increases,
835	resulting in them being grown out of the crystal. The final morphology ends up
836	being roughly cube-shaped. (c) The growth rate of the cuboid sectors (R_c)
837	increases after the first three layers of mixed-habit growth, meaning they are
838	grown out of the crystal. The result is an octahedral morphology.
839	
840	Figure 2. Images of the thirteen mixed-habit diamonds analysed in this study. All are
841	doubly polished plates. All but two are cut within 10° of a {100} face, MC03

842	and MC05 are cut parallel to a $\{110\}$ face. The black arrows point in a $<100>$					
843	direction. The black bars represent 1mm scales.					
844						
845	Figure 3. Illustration showing how deconvolution of IR spectra is performed when					
846	there is saturation in the nitrogen-dominated region. The dashed grey line					
847	represents the cut-off level; all data above this are omitted from the sum of the					
848	squares fit.					
849						
850	Figure 4. CL images of a selection of the diamonds studied. (a) Color image showing					
851	the green luminescence of MC03 while (b) shows the equivalent image					
852	observed with the SEM, note the greater detail using the SEM. The two images					
853	are from the bottom left hand corner as seen in (f). (c) MC01. (d) MC13. (e)					
854	MC02. (f) MC03. (g) MC04. (h) MC08. (i) MC09. (j) MC07. (k) MC06. (l)					
855	MC05. The yellow dots in $(e) - (k)$ represent the locations of the SIMS					
856	analyses. The white lines in (f) and (g) represent the IR transects presented in					
857	Fig. 6. The white scale bars correspond to 0.5 mm in (a) and (b) and to 1 mm in					
858	(c) - (l).					
859						
860	Figure 5. FTIR impurity maps showing the intensity of the primary hydrogen-related					
861	band at 3107 cm^{-1} in four of the samples. Larger hydrogen bands clearly					
862	correlate to the cuboid sectors. In MC06, the hydrogen appears to become					
863	concentric; this is where cuboid growth becomes more dominant and the					
864	amounts of <i>disc-crack-like</i> defects vary in the different growth layers. The black					
865	bars represent 1mm scales.					
866						

	(DOI will not work until issue is live.) DOI: http://dx.doi.org/10.2138/am.2013.4179
867	Figure 6. Graphs showing data from the IR maps of MC03 and MC04. The data are
868	from transects that start at the core of the stone and move out to the rim (white
869	lines in Fig. 3).
870	
871	Figure 7. Photoluminescence spectra obtained from octahedral (thin lines) and cuboid
872	(thick lines) sectors, using a green (532 nm; green lines) and red (685 nm; red
873	lines) laser. The Raman band of diamond is indicated for both the green and red
874	excitation; it is, as expected, present in each sector. The zero phonon lines
875	(ZPL) of several defects are labeled. Specifically, the ZPL at 794 nm, which
876	was observed with both the lasers excitations, has been attributed to the S2 and
877	S3 nickel-related defects (Kupriyanov et al., 1999).
878	
879	Figure 8. Carbon isotope data from (a) a transect from core to rim of MC03, and (b)
880	two parallel transects in MC06. The black data marks are from the octahedral
881	sector and the grey data marks are from the same growth horizon in the adjacent
882	cuboid sector. The uncertainties on the data are 2σ . In (b) the distance
883	represented on the x-axis refers to the distance between each point in the
884	octahedral sector and does not refer to the distance between the analyses of each
885	pair (Fig. 4k).
886	
887	Figure 9. Schematic illustration showing the role of impurities in mixed-habit growth.
888	The grey dashed lines represent thresholds that need to be crossed to cause a
889	change in growth mechanism (assuming constant pressure, temperature, oxygen

- 890 fugacity, carbon supersaturation etc.). A high hydrogen concentration is
- 891 proposed to be necessary for cuboid growth to occur (Rondeau et al., 2004),

892	with high nitrogen concentrations necessary for mixed-habit growth to occur.
893	The two arrows show how N and H concentrations probably changed during the
894	growth of MC03 and MC04, resulting in one growth mechanism becoming
895	dominant.
896	
897	Table 1. Averaged impurity data (nitrogen concentration and aggregation state,
898	primary and secondary hydrogen band intensity, integrated area of the platelet
899	band) of the octahedral and cuboid sectors of each of the thirteen diamonds
900	analysed in this study. For samples MC03, MC04 and MC05, additional data
901	are provided to show how these impurities change from the core compared to
902	the rim of the stone. This is only shown for these three samples as only they
903	show significant variations in growth mechanisms between the core and rim.

- 905 Supplementary data. Carbon-isotope data from the 217 SIMS analyses performed on
- 906 seven of the diamond samples. Where possible FTIR analysis has also been
- 907 performed on the site of the SIMS spots to show additional impurity data.



















Sample	Sector	N	%IaB	H @ 3107	H @ 1405	B' area
		(ppm)	(%)	(cm ⁻¹)	(cm ⁻¹)	(cm ⁻²)
MC01	С	1549	10.2	26.3	6.5	6.5
	0	2226	3.4	3.3	0.0	0.0
MC02	С	1500	21.2	67.3	12.8	0.0
	0	2113	23.3	3.9	1.2	196.7
MC03	С	1950	23.4	67.3	15.5	13.1
	C to O	1383	3.2	7.5	1.7	0.0
	0	2715	11.2	11.2	3.2	0.0
MC04	C core	1658	14.6	36.5	9.1	7.3
	C rim	1511	10.1	27.0	6.6	3.0
	O core	2100	8.0	17.5	5.1	1.9
	0 rim	1715	8.5	21.0	5.0	2.0
MC05	C core	2050	20.0	77.0	15.6	8.0
	C rim	1480	12.0	39.0	8.6	0.0
	0	2300	13.0	7.0	2.0	
MC06	С	1784	18.9	49.2	12.0	9.5
	0	2335	9.7	8.4	2.6	0.0
MC07	С	1679	15.5	37.8	9.6	0.0
	0	2302	11.7	4.7	0.0	0.0
MC08	С	1866	22.0	52.7	12.8	14.0
	0	2642	5.6	8.8	2.4	0.0
MC09	С	1600	12.2	30.6	7.4	5.2
	0	2250	4.3	7.5	2.0	0.0
MC10	С	1483	10.9	28.4	6.8	0.0
	0	2120	7.0	3.3	0.0	0.0
MC11	С	1575	12.7	31.5	7.5	0.0
	0	2235	7.5	4.1	0.0	0.0
MC12	С	1780	15.7	35.4	9.0	5.3
	0	2335	12.3	4.7	0.0	0.0
MC13	С	1600	12.8	29.9	7.4	0.0
	0	2200	8.1	7.2	2.1	0.0