1	Ab initio study of the structure and stability of CaMg(CO ₃) ₂ at high pressure - Revision 1
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4	Abstract
5	Dolomite is one of the major mineral forms in which carbon is subducted into the Earth's
6	mantle. End-member CaMg(CO ₃) ₂ dolomite typically breaks down upon compression into two
7	carbonates at 5-6 GPa in the temperature range of 800-1200 K (Shirasaka et al. 2002). However,
8	high-pressure X-ray diffraction experiments have shown that dense high-pressure polymorphs of
9	dolomite may be favored over single-cation carbonates (Santillan et al. 2003; Mao et al. 2011;
10	Merlini et al. 2012). Here we compare calculated dolomite structures to experimentally observed
11	phases. Using density functional theory interfaced with a genetic algorithm that predicts crystal
12	structures (USPEX), a monoclinic phase with space group $C2/c$ was found to have lower energy
13	at pressures above 15 GPa than all previously reported dolomite structures. It is possible that this
14	phase is not observed experimentally due to a large activation energy of transition from dolomite
15	I, resulting in the observed second-order phase transition to a metastable dolomite II. Due to the
16	complex energy landscape for candidate high-pressure dolomite structures, a number of
17	structurally unique metastable polymorphs exist. We calculate the equation of state of a set of
18	lowest-energy dolomite polymorphs with space groups P-1, $P2/c$ and $C2/c$ up to 80 GPa. Our
19	results demonstrate a need for calculations and experiments on Fe-Mn bearing high-pressure
20	carbonate phases to extend our understanding of Earth's deep carbon cycle and test whether
21	high-pressure polymorphs of double-cation carbonates represent the main reservoir for carbon
22	storage within downwelling regions of Earth's mantle.

23 Keywords: dolomite, ab initio, global carbon cycle, lower mantle, high pressure

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Introduction

Carbon is exchanged between the surface and Earth's interior through ingassing by 25 subduction and through both passive and volcanic outgassing (Kelemen and Manning 2015). 26 Carbon is subducted into the mantle primarily in the form of carbonate (CO_3^{2-} -bearing) minerals 27 metasomatically calcium-enriched basaltic rock (rodingite), calcified serpentinites 28 as 29 (ophicarbonates) and sedimentary carbonaceous ooze (Brenker et al. 2006). Evidence of carbonbearing phases in the Earth's mantle includes: the release of CO₂ in volcanic eruptions, dissolved 30 CO₂ in magmatic glasses and glass inclusions (Mörner and Etiope 2002), diamonds and 31 32 carbonate minerals in mantle xenoliths (Eggler 1978; Sobolev and Shatsky, 1990), and the existence of carbonatite and kimberlite magmas (Wyllie et al. 1990). Carbon has low solubility 33 in mantle silicates (Shcheka et al. 2006), such that significant carbon storage or transport in the 34 mantle requires formation of carbon-rich phases. Decomposition of carbonates can produce free 35 CO₂, which lowers the viscosity and melting temperature of the surrounding mantle (Eggler et al. 36 1976) and enables rapid recycling of carbon through subduction-related volcanism rather than 37 deep subduction and long-term storage. Identifying and characterizing the stability of carbonate 38 phases is therefore a necessary step towards understanding the transport and storage of carbon 39 through the Earth's deep carbon cycle (Hazen et al., 2013). The identification of a new, more 40 stable carbonate phase that is able to host carbon under conditions where known carbonates may 41 decompose has the potential to substantially change estimates of the geochemical fluxes of 42 carbon. 43

It has been suggested that magnesite is the dominant carbonate phase in relatively 44 45 oxidized regions of the mantle (Brenker et al. 2006; Isshiki et al. 2004). Skorodumova et al. (2005), reasoning by analogy to silicates, examined the stability of magnesite in selected 46 pyroxene and perovskite structures, finding that magnesite could transform into a C2/c pyroxene 47 48 structure with 4-fold coordination of carbon by oxygen at 113 GPa. Using USPEX, however, Oganov et al. (2008) searched a vastly larger space of possible structures and found that 49 magnesite undergoes a phase transition at 84 GPa to a monoclinic phase ("phase II") with space 50 group C2/m, containing rings of $(C_3O_9)^{6-}$, and subsequently at 138 GPa transitions to an 51 orthorhombic phase ("phase III") with space group $P2_1$, containing chains of CO_4^{4-} tetrahedra. 52 Their calculations show that the C2/c pyroxene structure has a higher energy than either phase II 53 or phase III at all relevant pressures. Calcite, on the other hand, transitions to aragonite at 2 GPa, 54 which transitions to the post-aragonite phase (space group *Pmmn*) at 42 GPa, persisting up to 55 56 core-mantle boundary pressures (Ono et al. 2005; Oganov et al. 2006).

End-member $CaMg(CO_3)_2$ dolomite typically breaks down into two carbonates at about 57 5-6 GPa in the temperature range of 800-1200 K (Shirasaka et al. 2002). However, X-ray 58 diffraction experiments have proposed that dense high-pressure phases of dolomite may be more 59 60 stable or comparable in stability to single-cation carbonates above 35 GPa. High-pressure dolomite may be resistant to decomposition into single-cation carbonates prior to the 61 transformation of trigonal magnesite to monoclinic phase II. Santillan et al. (2003) observed a 62 phase transition of $CaMg(CO_3)_2$ dolomite to a new phase ("dolomite II") at about 20 GPa. 63 Experiments on two Fe-bearing compositions, Ca_{0.988}Mg_{0.918}Fe_{0.078}Mn_{0.016}(CO₃)₂ (Mao et al. 64 2011) and $CaMg_{0.6}Fe_{0.4}(CO_3)_2$ (Merlini et al. 2012), led to observations of two phase transitions 65 in dolomite at 17 and 35 GPa. Both studies refer to the high-pressure phases as "dolomite II" and 66

67 "dolomite III," and find that dolomite II decomposes upon heating while dolomite III is resistant 68 to decomposition into single-cation carbonates at high pressure and temperature. However, they report different high-pressure dolomite phases. Mao et al. (2011) characterize their observed 69 dolomite II with orthorhombic symmetry and dolomite III with monoclinic symmetry, but did 70 71 not refine atomic coordinates or identify the space groups. Merlini et al. (2012) characterize their high-pressure dolomite phases with triclinic symmetry, refining both the crystal structures and 72 atomic coordinates. The X-ray diffraction patterns for the dolomite II structures are consistent 73 with each other (see supplementary materials for Merlini et al. (2012)), whereas the dolomite III 74 structures have distinct X-ray diffraction patterns resulting from nonequivalent crystal structures. 75 The difference in symmetry reflects the complex nature of dolomite polymorphs, whose stability 76 and transformation kinetics may be strongly affected by variations in composition and 77 experimental conditions. As already seen in comprehensive structure searches for MgCO₃, it is 78 likely that Fe-Mn-bearing $CaMg(CO_3)_2$ has a complex energy landscape, resulting in many 79 polymorphs with similar energies. Even after sample annealing, it may be that the most stable 80 phase is never achieved experimentally or that slight variations in composition result in different 81 82 ground states.

In addition to a difference in symmetry, the two studies report different unit-cell volumes for dolomite II and dolomite III, with discrepancies larger than can be explained simply by the difference in composition. Mao et al. (2011) report a 15% unit-cell volume drop upon the phase transition from dolomite I to dolomite II, whereas Merlini et al. (2012) do not observe a detectable change in volume. For the phase transition from dolomite II to dolomite III, Mao et al. (2011) report an 8% volume drop and Merlini et al. (2012) report a 3% volume drop. Although it is possible that the difference in unit cell volumes for the high pressure phases is a result of the 90 combined effect of different compositions, crystal structures and experimental conditions, 91 Merlini et al. (2012) propose that a different choice of formula units per unit cell is required to 92 correctly index the structure of Mao et al. (2011). In any case, the differing experimental 93 observations create a need for a theoretical study to confirm which high-pressure dolomite 94 phases are the most thermodynamically stable.

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Computational Methods

USPEX (Universal Structure Predictor: Evolutionary Xtallography), an evolutionary 96 97 algorithm that can be interfaced with a variety of density functional theory codes, has been shown to successfully predict stable phases without experimental input (Oganov and Glass, 98 99 2006). USPEX compares the energies of structures that continuously evolve through operations of (1) heredity -a combination of two parent structures, (2) lattice mutations -a distortion of the 100 cell shape through a symmetric strain matrix, and (3) atomic permutations – switching of atoms 101 102 within the cell. We ran USPEX interfaced with the ab initio code VASP (Kresse and Furthmuller 1996) for CaMg(CO₃)₂ with 20 or 30 atoms/cell at 25-40 GPa pressure, with population sizes 103 104 between 30 and 50 structures per generation. Ab initio calculations were performed at 0 K using 105 the projector-augmented wave (PAW) method (Blochl, 1994) implemented in VASP. The generalized gradient approximation (GGA) (Perdew et al. 1996) was used to approximate the 106 107 exchange correlation terms. In structure prediction calculations, GGA produces results better than LDA in terms of agreement with experiments for phase transition pressures and chemical 108 109 reactions (Oganov et al. 2013). The following PAW pseudo-potentials were used in VASP for structure prediction: core radius of 3.7 a.u. for Ca $(1s^22s^22p^6 \text{ core}, 3s^23p^64s^2 \text{ valence}), 2.0 a.u.$ for 110 Mg $(1s^22s^22p^6 \text{ core}, 3s^2 \text{ valence})$, 1.5 a.u. for C $(1s^2 \text{ core}, 2s^22p^2 \text{ valence})$, and 1.52 a.u. for O 111 $(1s^2 \text{ core}, 2s^22p^4 \text{ valence}).$ 112

These calculations were run several times both with and without prescribed seed 113 114 structures. The first generation was created either entirely randomly or with 1-3 seeded structures with standard physical constraints on the minimum ion distance of 0.7 Å and minimum lattice 115 vector of 2-2.5 Å. For subsequent generations, 40-50% of the structures were created through 116 117 heredity using the lowest energy structures from the previous generation, 10-20% were produced through lattice mutations, 10% were produced through atomic permutations and 20% were 118 119 randomly generated. The best five structures in each generation were left unchanged and competed in subsequent generations. Generated structures were relaxed at constant pressure in 120 four stages with incrementally increasing precision, where the final plane-wave energy cut off, k-121 point resolution and convergence criteria for electronic self-consistency were 550 eV, 0.08 Å⁻¹ 122 and 10⁻⁵ eV, respectively. Through this procedure, we were able to find a 20-atom monoclinic 123 124 dolomite with P2/c symmetry and a 20-atom primitive C2/c cell to which we applied a 125 crystallographic transformation matrix to obtain the conventional 40-atom monoclinic C2/cstructure. Due to the complex nature of the free energy landscape for double carbonates, it is 126 possible that a global minimum was never achieved. 127

A C2/c structure with 4-fold C was created by substituting the dolomitic composition into 128 129 the diopside structure and relaxing it at high pressure. We also examined the triclinic dolomite II and dolomite III structures from Merlini et al. (2012), and we substituted the dolomitic 130 composition into several previously published carbonate structures: the post-aragonite structure 131 (*Pmmn*) (Oganov et al. 2006); MgCO₃ phase II (C2/m), phase III ($P2_1$), structure $P2_1$ -10 and 132 structure *Pna2*₁-20 (Oganov et al. 2008); calcite III (*C*2) (Smyth and Ahrens 1997); and MnCO₃ 133 phase II (P-1) (Merlini et al. 2015). Appropriate supercells with the dolomite stoichiometry were 134 created with various choices of cation site ordering (i.e., layers of Ca/Mg atoms and checkered 135

Ca/Mg arrangement). The $P2_{1}$ -10 structure has the space group C2 after relaxing it at high 136 137 pressures with the dolomite stoichiometry. The resulting structure was crystallographically 138 transformed to a conventional C2 unit cell, and resembles the P2/c structure. The relaxed calcite III structure extended to a 1x1x2 supercell with layers of Ca and Mg atoms is equivalent to the 139 140 C2 structure with a different unit cell. These structures from the literature and several competitive structures found with USPEX are not considered further in this study due to their 141 relatively high energies. However, it is possible that, with certain cation substitutions, these 142 phases may be observed experimentally. Hence, all of these structures are provided in the 143 144 supplementary crystallographic information file.

Finally, the short list of low-energy candidate dolomite structures remaining after USPEX 145 and literature search were relaxed using more accurate PAW pseudo-potentials for the 3rd-row 146 elements: core radius of 2.3 a.u. for Ca $(1s^22s^22p^6 \text{ core}, 3s^23p^64s^2 \text{ valence})$ and 2.0 a.u. for Mg 147 $(1s^22s^2 \text{ core, } 2p^63s^2 \text{ valence})$. C and O pseudo-potentials remained the same. A plane-wave 148 energy cut off of 600 eV was used and a fine k-point grid of 0.02-0.03 Å⁻¹ was required to refine 149 150 the transition pressures between phases with similar energies. We carried out all the requisite convergence tests to ensure these parameters were adequate. The convergence criteria for 151 electronic self-consistency and ionic relaxation loop are 10⁻⁵ eV and 10⁻⁴ eV, respectively. We 152 ensured that forces acting on all relaxed atoms were <0.01 eV/Å. 153

The pressure-volume data were fitted with third-order Birch-Murnaghan equations of state using MINUTI 1.1.2 (Sturhahn 2015). For dolomite III and P2/c dolomite, equations of states were fitted above 10 GPa; at lower pressures, these structures transform into lowerpressure polymorphs with coplanar CO_3^{2-} groups during structural relaxation. Similarly, in C2/cdolomite with 4-fold C, the carbonate tetrahedra transform to triangular coordination environments below 60 GPa. Thus, for the C2/c structure with 4-fold C, equation of state parameters V₀, K₀ and K₀', though defined at 0 pressure, are fitted to data in the range from 60 to 140 GPa. Conversely, the dolomite II structure is not stable above 30 GPa; thus, an equation of state was fitted to the pressure range between 0 and 30 GPa. Structures C2/c with 3-fold C and dolomite I were fitted with equations of state at pressures between 0 and 80 GPa.

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Results

We found two competitive $CaMg(CO_3)_2$ structures with C2/c and P2/c symmetry using 165 USPEX (Fig. 1). Simulated X-ray diffraction patterns are shown in Figure 2. The enthalpy 166 difference between candidate high-pressure dolomite polymorphs and R-3 dolomite I are shown 167 in Figure 3. For static ab initio calculations, the enthalpy is equivalent to Gibbs free energy; the 168 169 structure with the lowest enthalpy is the most stable structure. Dolomite II is energetically 170 similar to dolomite I and was not successfully relaxed above 30 GPa without the rotation of its CO_3 groups (i.e., a second order phase transition). The P2/c structure is less stable than the C2/c 171 structure at all pressures examined in this study but more stable than the dolomite III structure 172 173 above 32 GPa. Above 15 GPa, the C2/c structure is more favorable than all other structures discovered by USPEX in this study and all previously reported structures. There is a shift from 174 sp^2 bonding (triangular coordination) to sp^3 bonding (tetrahedral coordination) in the C2/c 175 176 structure at 127.5 GPa (Fig. 3 inset).

The pressure-volume relationship for the candidate dolomite phases and their corresponding third-order Birch-Murnaghan equations of state (EOS) are shown in Figure 4. The zero-pressure volume per CO_3^{2-} group (V₀), bulk modulus (K₀) and the bulk modulus derivative (K_0^{2}) for these structures are compared in Table 2. The fitted K₀ and K₀² for dolomite I are

86.8(3) GPa and 4.20(2) with a V₀ of 55.1 Å³, in reasonable agreement with reported equation of 181 182 state parameters determined from fitting a Birch-Murnaghan EOS to pressure-volume data from X-ray diffraction experiments: $V_0=53.4(1)$ Å³, $K_0=94.1(7)$ with a fixed K_0 ' of 4 (Ross and 183 Reeder 1992). The volume of dolomite I is overestimated by 3.3%, which is typical for the GGA 184 185 method. We fitted the experimental pressure-volume data for $Ca(Mg_{0.6}Fe_{0.4})(CO_3)_2$ dolomite III (Merlini et al. 2012) with a third-order Birch Murnaghan EOS using a prior estimate of 4 and 186 prior window of ±1 for K₀', resulting in V₀=51.8(1.6) Å³, K₀=92.7(20.0) GPa and K₀'=3.92(4). 187 These results are in good agreement with the equation of state parameters fitted to the calculated 188 dolomite III compression data where $V_0=52.2(1)$ Å³, $K_0=94.1(9)$ GPa and $K_0'=3.89(3)$. 189

For high-spin Ca(Mg_{0.92}Fe_{0.08})(CO₃)₂ dolomite III, Mao et al. (2008) report a K₀=164(4) with a K₀'=4 (fixed), resembling the compression behavior of our calculated *C2/c* dolomite with 4-fold coordination. The zero-pressure bulk moduli for all phases with triangular (CO₃)²⁻ groups range from 80 to 90 GPa, whereas the K₀ for the *C2/c* structure with 4-fold C is 180 GPa, more than twice as large as for the *C2/c* structure with 3-fold C. By 80 GPa, however, the difference in bulk moduli decreases to 30 GPa (Fig. 4 inset). Nevertheless, a high bulk modulus for highpressure carbonates may be an indication of 4-fold coordinated C.

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Discussion

In mantle silicates, Si changes from 4-fold to 6-fold coordination at the decomposition of ringwoodite to bridgmanite and periclase. In MgCO₃, C forms tetrahedra above 82 GPa, whereas in CaCO₃, C remains 3-fold coordinated up to core-mantle boundary pressures, only forming tetrahedra above 137 GPa (Oganov et al. 2008; Boulard et al., 2015). In *C2/c* dolomite, C tetrahedra become stable at 127.5 GPa, an intermediate pressure compared to the tetrahedra-

203	forming pressures for the single-carbonate end members, MgCO ₃ and CaCO ₃ . Prior to these
204	calculations, there have been no reports in the literature addressing whether C in double
205	carbonates, such as dolomite, would become tetrahedrally coordinated at lower mantle pressures.
206	With increasing pressure, Mg, Fe ²⁺ and Ca in mantle silicates transition from 6-fold
207	coordination in olivine and pyroxenes to 6- and 8-fold coordination in garnets and then to 6- and
208	12-fold coordination in bridgmanite (Murakami et al. 2004; Oganov and Ono 2004). In CaCO ₃ ,
209	Ca increases in coordination number from 6 in calcite to 9 in aragonite to 12 in post-aragonite
210	while, in MgCO ₃ , Mg atoms increase in coordination from 6 in magnesite to 8-10 in phases II
211	and III to 9 in <i>Pna2</i> ₁ -20 (Oganov et al. 2008). In the dolomite III structure (Merlini et al. 2012),
212	the coordination numbers are variable, ranging from 7 to 10, with Ca occupying the larger sites.
213	In $C2/c$ dolomite, Mg is 6-fold coordinated and Ca is 8-fold coordinated up to at least 140 GPa.
214	Although, at high pressure, $C2/c$ dolomite is the least dense CaMg(CO ₃) ₂ candidate, it is stiffer
215	than all the other considered phases in this study, a result of the persistence of relatively low
216	coordination values for its metal cations.
217	Our simulations show that dolomite has many energetically competitive polymorphs at
218	high pressure with similar enthalpies to the $P2/c$ and dolomite III structures; however, above 15
219	GPa, the $C2/c$ structure with 3-fold C has a lower energy than all other phases found with
220	USPEX and reported structures in literature. It is possible that the $C2/c$ structure has not been
221	observed experimentally due to a high activation barrier and/or a high sensitivity of the crystal
222	symmetry to iron concentration. Additionally, it is very likely that the stability of high-pressure
223	dolomite with respect to decomposition into single-cation carbonates is related to its
224	composition.

225 Pure high-pressure dolomite phases will likely decompose into single-cation carbonates 226 at high pressures. The rapid decrease of the enthalpy of high-density post-aragonite beyond 42 227 GPa is the main driver of the predicted breakdown of all dolomites into single-cation carbonates, including the most stable C2/c polymorph (Fig. 5). However, the addition of Fe and Mn is likely 228 229 to stabilize dolomite with respect to decomposition. A careful treatment of iron is necessary to accurately describe the strongly correlated nature of the *d*-electrons using self-consistently 230 231 calculated Hubbard U parameters, which are a function of iron concentration, spin state, crystal 232 symmetry and unit-cell volume. Additionally, the effect of temperature on high-pressure 233 dolomite phases is unknown. The stability field of pure dolomite I increases with increasing temperature, decomposing at about 4 GPa at 400 K and 6 GPa at 1200 K (Martinez et al. 1996). 234 It is possible that a similar trend is true for high-pressure dolomite polymorphs. Additional 235 236 calculations and experiments on Fe-bearing dolomites at high temperatures and pressures are 237 needed.

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Implications

239 The behavior of high-pressure carbonates influences the global carbon cycle and, subsequently, global climate over geologic time scales. The feedbacks inherent in the formation 240 and destruction of carbonate and the role of carbonate in storage of the potent greenhouse gas 241 242 CO₂ are central to maintaining the habitability of our planet. It has been suggested that Ca-Mg-Fe carbonates play a leading role in transporting and storing carbon in the deep earth (Brenker et 243 244 al. 2007; Boulard et al. 2012). Although the present study of pure $CaMg(CO_3)_2$ dolomite has 245 identified new, more stable high pressure phases than those previously known, it has not yet 246 changed our understanding of the ultimate stability of double carbonates relative to their 247 decomposition products. However, when Fe is considered in future calculations, we may find

248	that high-pressure polymorphs of Fe-bearing dolomite could in fact represent the main reservoir
249	for carbon storage within sections of the Earth's mantle. Combined with thermodynamic,
250	geochemical and tectonic models, these results will help us understand the effect of the global
251	carbon cycle on long-term climate change.
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338

Figure Captions

339	Figure 1. Novel high-pressure dolomite polymorphs at 80 GPa: (a) <i>C2/c</i> dolomite with 3-fold C,
340	(b) $C2/c$ dolomite with 4-fold C and (c) $P2/c$ dolomite. Figures were produced with the VESTA
341	software (Momma and Izumi 2008). Ca polyhedra are blue, Mg polyhedra are grey and C
342	polyhedra are orange.
343	Figure 2. Synthetic X-ray diffraction patterns for high-pressure dolomite phases at 80 GPa
344	(λ =1.54 Å). Dolomite III is blue, <i>C</i> 2/ <i>c</i> dolomite with 3-fold C is red, <i>C</i> 2/ <i>c</i> dolomite with 4-fold C
345	is grey and $P2/c$ dolomite is orange.
346	Figure 3. Enthalpies per formula unit of candidate dolomite structures relative to dolomite I
347	(horizontal line at zero). $C2/c$ dolomite is energetically more stable than all other phases
348	examined in this study for the $CaMg(CO_3)_2$ composition. Inset shows the enthalpy (H) per
349	formula unit of $C2/c$ dolomite 4-fold C relative to $C2/c$ dolomite with 3-fold C. The transition
350	from sp ² bonding (triangular coordination) to sp ³ bonding (tetrahedral coordination) of C in the
351	C2/c structure occurs at 127.5 GPa.
352	Figure 4. Pressure-volume data and the fitted third-order Birch Murnaghan equations of state for
353	candidate dolomite phases. Experimental pressure-volume data for $CaMg_{0.6}Fe_{0.4}(CO_3)_2$ are
354	shown in grey "+" symbols, with a second-order phase transition to dolomite II at 17 GPa and a
355	first-order phase transition to dolomite III at 35 GPa (Merlini et al. 2012). The equation of state
356	for C2/c dolomite with 4-fold C was calculated from data at 60-140 GPa in intervals of 5 GPa.
357	Inset shows the fitted bulk modulus as a function of pressure. Structures $C2/c$ and $P2/c$ have
358	indistinguishable bulk moduli.

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Figure 5. The enthalpy difference between dolomite polymorphs and aragonite + magnesite. The

rapid decrease of the enthalpy of the post-aragonite + magnesite assemblage is the main driver of

the breakdown of all dolomites into single-cation carbonates. However, the substitution of Fe for

- 362 Mg is likely to stabilize C2/c dolomite with respect to decomposition.
- 363

Tables

364	Table 1. Fractional	coordinates,	lattice	parameters an	nd unit-cell	volume f	for calculated	high
		,						<u> </u>

365 pressure $CaMg(CO_3)_2$ polymorphs at 80 GPa.

C2/c (3-fold C) (Z = 4) a=8.0127, b=7.6005, c=4.8652, α=90, β=106.43, γ=90, V=284.20				
atom	Х	у	Z	
Ca	0.00000	0.67015	0.75000	
Mg	0.50000	0.40958	0.25000	
C	0.21854	0.36747	0.81476	
01	0.37765	0.40733	0.85578	
O2	0.33535	0.73448	0.83822	
03	0.13315	0.44102	0.96001	
C2/c (4-fo	1d C) (Z = 4)			
a=8.3072, l	b=7.8089, c=4.3586	6, α=90, β=103.53	, γ=90, V=274.89	
atom	Х	у	Z	
Ca	0.00000	0.68472	0.75000	
Mg	0.50000	0.39288	0.25000	
С	0.21954	0.40787	0.76878	
01	0.37742	0.42091	0.83232	
O2	0.33653	0.75551	0.80211	
O3	0.14558	0.47281	0.00112	
P2/c (Z = 2)	2)			
a=6.4089, 1	b= 2.8246, c=7.759	5, α=90, β=92.54,	γ=90, V=140.32	
atom	Х	у	Z	
Ca	0.00000	0.19756	0.25000	
Mg	0.50000	0.80172	0.25000	
C	0.73864	0.56617	0.99292	
O1	0.75561	0.29761	0.64840	
O2	0.59086	0.71271	0.89469	
03	0.86966	0.27650	0.94243	

- 367 Table 2. Equation of state parameters for the calculated CaMg(CO₃)₂ and experimental
- 368 Ca(Mg,Fe)(CO₃)₂ polymorphs. We fitted the pressure-volume data using a third-order Birch-
- 369 Murnaghan equation of state with the MINUTI software, applying a 1% error to pressure and
- volume. V₀ is the zero-pressure volume per CO_3^{2-} group. Dolomite III and structures P2/c and
- $C_{2/c}$ with 4-fold C were not successfully relaxed at 0 GPa without a second-order phase
- transition to a lower-pressure structure. Thus, their zero-pressure volumes were fitted.

Phase	V_0 (Å ³)	K ₀ (GPa)	K ₀ ′
dolomite I	55.1	86.8(3)	4.20(2)
dolomite II ^a	55.0	94.0(8)	2.80(7)
dolomite III ^b	52.2(1)	94.1(9)	3.89(3)
dolomite III ^c (Mao et al. 2011)	39.9(3)	164(8)	4
dolomite III ^d (Merlini et al. 2012)	51.8(1.6)	92.7(20.0)	3.92(4)
<i>C2/c</i> (3-fold C)	51.9	84.8(6)	4.78(5)
<i>C2/c</i> (4-fold C)	45.1(3)	178.4(8.1)	3.69(9)
<i>P2/c</i>	51.2(1)	85.4(1.4)	4.76(6)

373

^a We fitted an equation of state to our calculated pressure-volume data for the triclinic dolomite II
 structure reported in Merlini et al. (2012).

^b We fitted an equation of state to our calculated pressure-volume data for the triclinic dolomite III
structure reported in Merlini et al. (2012).

^c Equation of state parameters as reported in Mao et al. (2011) for their observed monoclinic dolomite III structure. K_0' was fixed to 4. The full composition as determined from microprobe analysis is $Ca_{0.988}Mg_{0.918}Fe_{0.078}Mn_{0.016}(CO_3)_2$. It is possible that the volume of dolomite III is underestimated due to

an incorrect assumption of the number of formula units per unit cell (Merlini et al. 2012).

^d We fitted an equation of state to the published experimental pressure-volume data for triclinic dolomite III, with the chemical formula $CaMg_{0.6}Fe_{0.4}(CO_3)_2$ (Merlini et al. 2012). We used a prior estimate of 4 and prior window of ±1 for K₀².

- 385
- 386
- 387
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Fig 1a



Fig 1b



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Fig 1c





Fig 2



Fig 3





Fig 5

