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Natural occurrence of keatite precipitates in UHP clinopyroxene from
the Kokchetav Massif: A TEM investigation

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24 **ABSTRACT**

25 We report the first natural occurrence of keatite, also known as silica K, discovered as a
26 precipitate in the core of ultrahigh-pressure (UHP) clinopyroxene (CPX) within garnet
27 pyroxenite from the Kokchetav Massif, Kazakhstan. High-resolution transmission electron
28 microscopy and electron diffraction demonstrate that sub-micron and nano-scale keatite
29 precipitates have a definite crystallographic relationship with the host pyroxene (diopside =
30 $\sim\text{Di}_{89}$) CPX (100) \parallel keatite (100) and CPX (010) \parallel keatite (001). Clinopyroxene provides a
31 template for keatite nucleation due to the close structural relationship and excellent lattice match
32 between the diopside and keatite. We propose that keatite micro-precipitates are formed in
33 localized low pressure micro-environments produced as a result of exsolution of extra silica and
34 vacancies held within UHP host diopside and stabilized by the pyroxene lattice. Low density
35 metastable keatite and its relationship to the host pyroxene likely reflects the important influence
36 of pyroxene/precipitate interfacial energy on the micro- and nano-scales in controlling the nature
37 of exsolved phases in exhumed UHP minerals.

38 **Keywords:** HRTEM, ultrahigh-pressure (UHP), diopside, keatite, silica exsolution, epitaxial
39 growth

40 1. INTRODUCTION

41

42 Keatite, a metastable polymorph of silica, has been synthesized experimentally using
43 hydrothermal methods at low pressure, but was not confirmed in nature. Oriented silica
44 precipitates are a relatively common feature in clinopyroxenes from high- and ultrahigh-pressure
45 rocks and have been noted in numerous collisional orogenic rocks, and are generally identified as
46 quartz (Smith 1984; Gayk, et al. 1995; Liou, et al. 1998; Katayama, et al. 2000;
47 Dobrzhinetskaya, et al. 2002; Zhang, et al. 2005; Proyer, et al. 2009). High pressure and
48 ultrahigh-pressure clinopyroxenes are of great interest for studying physical and chemical
49 characteristics of rocks subducted to or formed at upper mantle depths and returned to Earth's
50 surface. Oriented silica precipitates inside the clinopyroxenes have been used as indicators of
51 these UHP conditions, sometimes in the absence of direct mineralogical evidence (diamond or
52 coesite). Direct characterization of the exsolved minerals is necessary, and this study is the first
53 to characterize these silica precipitates utilizing high resolution transmission electron
54 microscopy. The advantage of HRTEM is its ability to unite crystallography, crystal size, *and*
55 chemistry, and has permitted identification of the nano-scale metastable keatite phase.

56

57 The keatite discovered in this study was observed in the core of an UHP clinopyroxene within a
58 micro-diamond-bearing garnet pyroxenite. This garnet pyroxenite exists as thin lenticular bands
59 or lens-like bodies within plagioclase gneisses of the Zerenda rock series (Kumdy Kol region)
60 from the Kokchetav Massif, Kazakhstan. Peak metamorphic *P-T* estimates of these rocks yield
61 minimum pressures of 40 kbar and temperatures exceeding 900°C (Shatsky, et al. 1995). The

62 rocks have undergone pervasive retrograde metamorphism to amphibolite facies, preserving only
63 rare UHP mineral assemblages within refractory minerals such as garnet and zircon (Sobolev, et
64 al. 1994).

65

66 This rock is dominated by clinopyroxene and garnet, with accessory minerals of rutile, Fe-
67 oxides, apatite, and zircon. The texture of the rock is medium-grained, massive, and generally
68 equigranular. The rock is relatively fresh, but has minor fractures filled with sheet silicates,
69 quartz, feldspar, and carbonates. Transmitted light photomicrographs of clinopyroxene grains
70 show siliceous precipitates concentrated in cores of the crystals (Fig. 1). Optically, no minerals
71 other than silica were observed. Figure 1a shows a clinopyroxene oriented with the *c*-axis
72 approximately normal to the plane of the image. This orientation causes the precipitates to
73 appear as dark euhedral dots. In two different clinopyroxene grains viewed at a high angle to the
74 *c*-axis, the precipitates appear as elongated rods (Fig. 1b). This image highlights the
75 concentration of precipitates in the cores of clinopyroxene; they are rarely seen in the rims.
76 Later stage retrograde reactions are sometimes seen at the boundaries of grains in the garnet
77 pyroxenite.

78

79 Keatite, or silica K, is an atypical crystal with a negative overall thermal expansion coefficient
80 (Keat 1954). Initial synthesis by Keat (1954) was at experimental conditions of 0.33-1.1 kbar
81 and 380-585°C; more recent experiments agree that crystallization is favored at moderate
82 temperatures (200°-400°C) and pressures (2-3 kbar) (Bettermann and Liebau 1975). Formation
83 environment composition is extremely important for keatite synthesis, and it has been

84 synthesized utilizing a variety of siliceous starter materials. Experiments resulting in keatite
85 include hydrothermal synthesis from dilute aqueous alkaline solutions (Keat 1954), amorphous
86 silica reaction with H₂O mimicking the diagenesis of amorphous silica to quartz (Carr and Fyfe,
87 1958), and silica glass plus cristobalite in water solution (White and Corwin 1961; Bettermann
88 and Liebau 1975; Martin 1995). Weakly alkaline solutions seem to be a requirement for its
89 formation; overly dilute solutions lead to the precipitation of cristobalite and high concentrations
90 induce the crystallization of quartz (Keat 1954). Some studies suggest that pressure may be
91 more important than temperature in determining keatite formation (Carr and Fyfe 1958; White
92 and Corwin 1961). This paper details characterization of the structural relationship at the
93 diopside (CPX)/keatite micro-crystal interface, and seeks to explain why natural keatite has
94 formed in ultrahigh-pressure (UHP) clinopyroxene to the exclusion of other SiO₂ polymorphs.
95 One instance of possible natural keatite was reported in airborne volcanic particles (Rietmeijer
96 1988); however, analysis of both composition and powder electron diffraction patterns has not
97 confirmed this observation (Heaney 1994).

98

99 **2. EXPERIMENTAL METHODS**

100 Major element compositions of bulk clinopyroxene crystals were determined using a Cameca
101 SX51 electron microprobe at the University of Wisconsin-Madison. Analytical conditions were
102 15 kV accelerating voltage, Faraday cup current of 20 nA, and 20 s counting times per element.
103 Beam spot size was 1 μm. Microprobe analytical standards were: hematite for Fe, augite for Ca,
104 olivine for Mg, rutile for Ti, chromite for Cr, Mn-olivine for Mn, and hornblende for Si, Na, Al,
105 and K. Petrographic thin sections polished to 30 μm thick were used to find clinopyroxene

106 grains oriented looking parallel to the *c*-axis with precipitates in the cores. The clinopyroxene
107 grains were cut out and thinned to ~20 μm by hand with silicon carbide grinding disks. Grains
108 were then mounted on molybdenum TEM grids. These foils were thinned to electron
109 transparency via Ar^+ ion milling in a Fischione 1010 ion mill. High-resolution TEM (HRTEM)
110 images and selected area electron diffraction patterns (SAED) were obtained utilizing the FEI
111 Titan aberration-corrected S/TEM at 200 kV accelerating voltage. In addition to clinopyroxene
112 chemical compositions from the electron microprobe, compositions of silica precipitates were
113 analyzed by means of X-ray energy-dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) from the specimen with
114 small spot sizes using an EDAX EDS system. This EDS system is attached to the FEI Titan
115 S/TEM operated at 200 kV accelerating voltage. Clinopyroxene X-ray diffraction (XRD)
116 patterns were collected with a Rigaku Rapid II X-ray diffraction system with a 2-D image plate
117 ($\text{Mo K}\alpha$ radiation), with an accelerating voltage of 50kV, a current of 50 mA, and a 0.1mm
118 diameter collimator. Diffraction data were collected on an image-plate detector. Two-
119 dimensional images were then integrated to produce conventional 2-theta -intensity patterns
120 using Rigaku's 2DP software. Clinopyroxene lattice parameters were refined with least squares
121 analysis using MDI, Inc. Jade 9.0 software.

122

123 **3. RESULTS**

124 3.1 Electron Microprobe

125 Table 1 presents recalculation EMPA data from a representative clinopyroxene grain in the
126 Kokchetav Massif garnet pyroxenite. Standard deviation and standard error of these data are
127 reported (SDEV= Standard deviation, SERR=Standard error, and $n=14$). Oxygen was
128 calculated, not measured, and all calculations are normalized to six O atoms. All clinopyroxenes

129 analyzed via electron microprobe (EMPA) exhibit silica precipitates in their cores. Nearly all
130 spots analyzed show sufficient Al to fill the ^{IV}Al, the rest fills ^{VI}Al. The clinopyroxene is highly
131 calcic (~Di₉₀), with little Na and very little to no K. In this paper, we broadly constrain vacancy
132 content in clinopyroxene grains by assuming vacancy plus insufficient cations sums to four; non-
133 stoichiometric pyroxenes possess <4 total cations. We report a possible minimum vacancy
134 component ([]) in Table 1 in which all Fe is calculated as Fe²⁺.

135

136 3.2 TEM Results

137 The TEM image of a natural crystal of keatite (light phase) in clinopyroxene (dark phase) (Fig.
138 2a) shows evidence of a euhedral ‘negative’ pyroxene crystal shape, not a euhedral silica crystal
139 shape. Crystallographic planes exhibited are the dominant pyroxene crystallographic forms of
140 {010}, {100}, and {110} typically seen in euhedral pyroxenes at all scales. Nearly all
141 precipitates found exhibit this shape. Orientation relationships of all three phases, clinopyroxene
142 (no arrows, zone axis [001]) with amphibole (right-pointing black arrows, zone axis [001]) and
143 keatite (white left-pointing arrows, zone axis [010]), are demonstrated in the SAED pattern (Fig.
144 2b). Clinopyroxene lattice parameters calculated after collecting X-ray diffraction data from a
145 single crystal of clinopyroxene and refined via least squares method are: $a = 9.754 \text{ \AA}$, $b = 8.921$
146 \AA , $c = 5.244 \text{ \AA}$, $\alpha = \gamma = 90^\circ$, $\beta = 105.9^\circ$. When calibrated to these parameters, analysis of the
147 SAED pattern shows pyroxene is diopside with space group $C2/c$, and produces two orthogonal
148 lattice parameters of the silica precipitate: $a = 7.47 \text{ \AA}$, $c = 8.58 \text{ \AA}$. These parameters are only
149 consistent with published crystallographic data from SiO₂ polymorph keatite ($a = b = 7.456 \text{ \AA}$, c
150 $= 8.604 \text{ \AA}$ (Keat, 1954)). Schematic indexing of keatite (Fig. 2c), and keatite plus clinopyroxene

151 (Fig. 4d) confirms that the SAED pattern (Fig. 4b) matches keatite zone axis [010]. Keatite
152 diffraction spots (100) and (001) which appear in the SAED pattern are typically at extinction
153 but appear due to multiple diffraction effects in here. They are identified as X's in Fig. 2. X-ray
154 EDS spectrum from the silica precipitate (inset Fig. 2a) also confirms a silica polymorph.
155 Carbon peak is from coated carbon. Amphibole formed at the interface of clinopyroxene and
156 keatite is in epitaxy with both minerals. HRTEM image of the clinopyroxene/amphibole
157 interface (Fig. 3) demonstrates the close structural relationship between host clinopyroxene and
158 amphibole. Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) patterns of both clinopyroxene and amphibole (Fig.
159 3b) match to diffraction spots from host pyroxene and amphibole precipitate in the SAED pattern
160 (Fig. 2b). Graphic representation of the crystallographic relationship between clinopyroxene and
161 keatite derived from the SAED pattern illustrates epitaxial growth of keatite on clinopyroxene
162 (Fig. 4). Fig. 4a and 4c are the same orientations: $[001]_{\text{CPX}} \parallel [100]_{\text{keatite}}$. The initial layer (Fig.
163 4a) of keatite tetrahedra (green) bonding to clinopyroxene tetrahedra (blue) closely matches
164 clinopyroxene lattice dimensions with systematic gaps of keatite tetrahedra in the structure.
165 Some charge will be unsatisfied in these models where systematic silica tetrahedra absences
166 reside. Subsequent layers of silica tetrahedra have been added to the layered structure in Figure
167 4c; the systematic absence of silica tetrahedra on the initial bonding layer is very clear here. The
168 systematic absences can also be seen clearly in an *a-b* clinopyroxene section (Fig. 4b). The
169 tetrahedra bond with little change in orientation or rotation. Red arrows in all orientations of Fig.
170 4 models denote the location of the first layer of bonding for reference. A comparison of the
171 clinopyroxene/keatite unit cells (Fig. 4d, same orientation as in a and c) along clinopyroxene *b*-
172 axis and keatite *c*-axis demonstrates that the clinopyroxene lattice is a mere 3.5% larger than
173 keatite over just one unit cell, and exhibits even less difference in the keatite *b*-

174 axis/clinopyroxene *c*-axis direction. A basic calculation of the total lattice misfit based upon d-
175 spacings and unit cell area of both clinopyroxene [001] and keatite [010] yields a total crystal
176 misfit of only 5.1 %.

177

178 Phyllosilicates were observed in close proximity to some silica precipitates (Fig. 5a) in
179 this investigation. In these precipitates, the shape appears somewhat modified from the euhedral
180 ‘negative’ pyroxene shape seen in Fig. 2a, with the sheet silicates either fully covering a silica
181 precipitate or simply taking on the euhedral pyroxene shape itself. The composition of this area
182 is not straightforward. Spot 1 on Fig. 5a is compositionally Si and O, but, surprisingly, the
183 HRTEM lattice image at spot 1 indicated by an arrow (inset in Fig.5b) clearly shows a layered
184 structure. Not far away, at spot 2, EDS analysis shows a typical mica composition, but a
185 relatively high amount of silica (Fig. 5c). In these precipitates where micas have overgrown
186 silica, {110} faces of the negative pyroxene are either not well-developed or degraded; a white
187 arrow in Fig. 5a points to a degraded (110) plane, and another is labeled. When compared to
188 precipitate shape in Fig. 2, the degradation of {110} faces can be easily observed. Numbered
189 spots 3 and 4 in Fig. 5, seen up close in HRTEM images of the amphibole/clinopyroxene
190 interface (Fig. 6e) and the mica/clinopyroxene interface (Fig. 6f) detail the similarities and
191 differences between the now-typical silica precipitate and the degraded precipitate. HRTEM
192 image of mica (Fig. 6f) shows the layering of the mica, but no silica, and displays a degraded
193 (110) pyroxene face. Clinopyroxene, amphibole, and mica possess parallel (010) planes, and
194 $(100)_{\text{CPX}} \parallel (001)_{\text{mica}}$. In addition to the EDS pattern (spot 2, Fig. 5a), the SAED pattern (Fig. 6c)
195 obtained from a smaller area of the Fig. 5 precipitate confirms a siliceous mica. The nano-scale
196 amphibole (Spot 3, Fig.5a and Fig 6e) exhibits the same epitaxial orientation to clinopyroxene as

197 observed in Fig. 3: $[001]_{\text{CPX}} \parallel [001]_{\text{amph}}$, $(010)_{\text{CPX}} \parallel (010)_{\text{amph}}$. SAED pattern simulations of
198 clinopyroxene/amphibole/mica (Fig. 6b) and mica (Fig. 6d) electron diffraction patterns match
199 the SAED patterns and the epitaxial relationship of the three phases.

200

201 4. DISCUSSION

202 Fig. 2 demonstrates clearly that this silica polymorph is keatite, not the expected higher density
203 polymorphs, coesite or quartz, previous researchers have reported in UHP clinopyroxenes.
204 Oriented silica in clinopyroxene from high- and ultrahigh-pressure pyroxenes, such as that
205 investigated in this study, is widely interpreted as the result of exsolution of excess silica from
206 host clinopyroxene during decompression via the reaction:



208 ($\text{Ca}_{0.5}\square_{0.5}\text{AlSi}_2\text{O}_6$ = CaEskola (CaEs) vacancy solid solution in pyroxene, and \square = vacancy)
209 (Smyth 1980; Liou, et al. 1998; Dobrzhinetskaya, et al. 2002; Klemd 2003; Zhang, et al. 2005;
210 Zhao, et al. 2011), but this does not explain why keatite has formed to the exclusion of other
211 silica polymorphs. We interpret keatite as a primary exsolution feature on the retrograde path
212 during slab exhumation. Keatite likely forms due to nano-scale size effects, interface-controlled
213 exsolution controlled by host clinopyroxene, and an unusual exsolution environment created by
214 density changes and exsolved vacancies from the diopside structure.

215

216 Experimentally, it is energetically more favorable to exsolve keatite prior to quartz, and
217 the transformation of keatite \rightarrow quartz appears to occur more rapidly than transformations of
218 quartz \rightarrow keatite (Carr and Fyfe 1958). This experimental keatite \rightarrow quartz relation is well-
219 documented (Carr and Fyfe 1958; White and Corwin 1961; Martin 1995). Accurate
220 determination of silica exsolution depth is impossible with the data at hand; however keatite
221 formation is restricted to low pressure, higher temperature environments (Keat 1954; Bettermann
222 and Liebau 1975). We may rule out exsolution at or near the surface of the Earth. This is
223 kinetically and thermodynamically unfeasible, and keatite would likely transform quickly to
224 quartz.

225

226 In addition, nano-scale size effects likely affect the P - T regime at which this crystal of
227 keatite occurs. Research shows that mineral nano-particles commonly behave differently as a
228 function of their size within the nano-scale range. Mineral nano-particles also behave differently
229 than larger micro- and macroscopic crystals of the same structure and composition. At the nano-
230 scale, three factors compete to stabilize a given polymorph: enthalpy of polymorphic transition,
231 surface enthalpy, and enthalpy of hydration (Hochella, et al. 2008). Navrotsky (2004) reported
232 that competition between surface enthalpy and the energetics of phase transformation leads to the
233 general conclusion that polymorphs that are metastable as micron-sized or larger crystals can
234 often be thermodynamically stabilized at the nano-scale. This phenomenon has been observed in
235 TiO_2 polymorphs and iron oxides, among others (Navrotsky 2004; Chen and Fu 2006; Barnard
236 and Xu 2008). Thus, we infer metastable nano-scale keatite may be stabilized at some depth in
237 part due to its small size.

238 In combination with nano-scale size effects, mechanisms of exsolution are closely related
239 to the types of interfaces that develop between two phases. The geometry of the substrate in
240 epitaxial mineral growth is known to cause growth of phases not stable at existing *P-T-X*
241 conditions. Keatite exsolution shape is certainly dominated by the clinopyroxene, and a high
242 degree of lattice match between the two likely serves to stabilize the nano-scale keatite crystal.
243 Electron diffraction (Fig. 2b) illustrates epitaxy in two directions, where CPX (100) \parallel keatite
244 (100), and CPX (010) \parallel keatite (001). Epitaxial nucleation of phases on dominant crystal faces
245 (such as pyroxene {010} and {100} seen in this study) creates structural coherency and excellent
246 lattice matching across the mineral interface. Our schematic lattice model of these interfaces
247 demonstrates the maximum percentage of lattice mismatch along unit cells is just 3.5 % (Fig.4d).
248 In addition, the flexibility of the silica tetrahedra in chain silicate structures can provide stable
249 geometric configurations with a very extensive range of cations and over a wide range of
250 temperature and pressure conditions (Burnham, et al. 1967; Cameron and Papike 1981).
251 Similarly, silica tetrahedra are well known to bend and rotate (Hochli and Scott 1971; Megaw
252 1973). As a result, silica tetrahedra at the interface can twist and bend to accommodate small
253 lattice differences. Even a systematic absence of the green keatite silica tetrahedra, which can be
254 seen on the first layer of blue pyroxene tetrahedra (Fig. 4a) can provide accommodation of
255 mismatch. Therefore, lattice strain may be reduced, minimizing energy required for nucleation
256 and growth of the metastable silica phase.

257

258 Presence of epitaxially-oriented amphibole at the interface of clinopyroxene and silica
259 may also hold clues to formation (Fig. 2 orientations: pyroxene (010) \parallel amphibole (010) \parallel keatite
260 (001)). Two possibilities for exsolution of silica + amphibole in clinopyroxene have been

261 presented. 1) Shau, et al. (2005) proposed a two-stage growth mechanism of silica/amphibole —
262 decompression-related silica exsolution from pyroxene containing a CaEs component, followed
263 by simultaneous amphibole + silica growth as a result of clinopyroxene breakdown along
264 silica/clinopyroxene interface. 2) Page, et al. (2005) proposed formation of amphibole + silica
265 may form in a clinopyroxene without a CaEs component by retrogressive breakdown of
266 clinopyroxene. In a study of three eclogites from the Saualpe and Pohorje Mountains, Konzett,
267 et al. (2008) concluded that, with combined textural and chemical information, formation of
268 intergrown calcic amphibole/oriented quartz inclusions in cores of clinopyroxene was unrelated
269 to a breakdown of the CaEs component in one rock; however, the involvement of a Ca-Eskola
270 component could not be ruled out in one of the eclogites. Due to lack of volume change at
271 exsolution sites and freshness of the interfaces between amphibole, clinopyroxene, and silica,
272 number one may be most likely possibility for keatite.

273

274 Another example of multiphase inclusions in Kokchetav Massif clinopyroxenes and
275 garnets from diamondiferous garnet/clinopyroxene rocks are assemblages of K-bearing
276 kokchetavite, phengite, cristobalite, and an amorphous phase. Formation of these assemblages is
277 interpreted from melts intruding through partings and cleavages of pyroxene, rather than
278 exsolution (Hwang, et al. 2004). Although the assemblages appear similar at first, this is
279 unlikely the mechanism of formation for the silica in this study for several reasons. 1) lack of
280 sufficient K in the primary unaltered keatite and other silica precipitates to indicate sufficient
281 fluid migration to form any of the other minerals, 2) primary keatite with no alteration, and 3)
282 epitaxial orientation of the keatite with host pyroxene indicating exsolution. Nonetheless, the

283 assemblage found in Hwang, et al. (2004) may be a clue to the formation of micas found with
284 some silica precipitates in this study.

285

286 Silica-rich mica and silica appearing as mica found in epitaxial relationship with
287 pyroxene and amphibole (Figs. 5, 6) have been observed, in addition to keatite/amphibole
288 precipitates. Optically, they are indistinguishable from silica precipitates that do not possess
289 sheet silicates, and distinction is only seen at the nano-scale. We suggest later alteration and
290 replacement of primary keatite precipitates by mica is most likely in this case. Simultaneous
291 primary exsolution of both mica and silica is considered, but this is unlikely. Somewhat similar
292 precipitates of thin phlogopite lamellae topotactically-exsolved in diopside in conjunction with
293 SiO₂ polymorphs observed in Kokchetav Massif marbles (Dobrzhinetskaya, et al. 2009) may
294 help to determine likely formation mechanism. The phlogopite + mica lamellae were interpreted
295 as products of decompression and fluid migration in the system. Despite the fact that both
296 phlogopite mica observed in Dobrzhinetskaya, et al. (2009) and the sheet silicates + silica
297 observed in this study were both found in epitaxial relationship with diopside, the morphology
298 and composition of the micas observed in this study are quite different than those of the marble
299 study. Phlogopite lamellae were observed at the periphery of diopside grains, and adjacent to
300 silica exsolution; micas observed in this study cover the entirety of the 'negative' pyroxene shape
301 and are all found localized in cores of the clinopyroxene grains (Fig.2). Observation of K (Fig.
302 5c) in the siliceous mica (when very little to none is seen in the clinopyroxene in this study
303 (Table 1)) is likely evidence of a replacement reaction due to fluid migration (similar to the
304 results of Dobrzhinetskaya et al. (2009)), localized on silica during retrogression. This fluid may
305 originate through later stage cracks and cleavages in the pyroxene. This fluid may also have

306 originated from the clinopyroxene itself. Clinopyroxene from eclogite and granulite facies rocks
307 can incorporate significant amounts of hydrogen. Concentrations have been shown in the range
308 of several hundred ppm (Smyth, et al. 1991; Ingrin and Skogby 2000; Koch-Müller, et al. 2004;
309 Katayama, et al. 2006). Other lines of evidence in favor of replacement are the degradation of
310 the dominant interfaces of the silica-only precipitates and the anomalous silica-only EDX
311 spectrum on the image of mica. Silica-only precipitates always display the euhedral ‘negative’
312 pyroxene form; silica + mica precipitates always display degraded pyroxene planes, likely
313 indicating mica utilizing silica and pyroxene to form. The strange EDX spot showing only
314 silica, but appearing as mica may be another clue to later stage reaction. Spot sizes on the TEM
315 are extremely small and the beam may have been small enough to acquire data from the primary
316 silica phase below the mica, without contribution from mica.

317

318 Although the associations of amphibole and mica may be important components to silica
319 exsolution mechanisms in some rocks, they are unable to explain keatite formation. An answer
320 may reside within the clinopyroxene itself. We propose exsolution and coalescence of vacancies
321 contained within the UHP diopside lattice during decompression may play a large part in
322 creating a low P micro-environment at the point of silica exsolution. CaEs content in pyroxenes
323 is the result of a complex combination of rock bulk composition, P , and T (Konzett, et al. 2008;
324 Zhao, et al. 2011), but exsolution of silica in pyroxenes has been shown to be intimately linked to
325 the vacancy component. Substitution of CaEs component into pyroxenes results in non-
326 stoichiometry; pyroxene may then dissolve excess silica charge balanced by vacancies in M sites
327 (Wood and Henderson 1978). The non-stoichiometric character of HP/UHP clinopyroxene is
328 well-established (Smyth 1980; McCormick 1986; Proyer, et al. 2004; Day and Mulcahy 2007;

329 Konzett, et al. 2008; Zhao, et al. 2011), and we can conclude with some confidence that
330 vacancies were present in the UHP pyroxenes of the Kokchetav Massif garnet pyroxenite prior to
331 decompression. The amount of vacancies is more difficult to establish, and there are other
332 mechanisms that may form excess silica. Fortunately, clear evidence that vacancy consumption
333 in non-stoichiometric clinopyroxene can release free silica has been produced (Day and Mulcahy
334 2007), although evidence for excess silica formation in both stoichiometric and non-
335 stoichiometric pyroxenes has been found.

336

337 Calculating vacancy components in pyroxenes presents many difficulties. Vacancies
338 have been expelled from the lattice and cannot be measured; therefore, our simple calculation of
339 vacancies from Fe^{2+} (Table 1) is merely a potential minimum amount. This calculation will also
340 be dependent upon trace elements that are difficult to measure by EPMA; some amounts of Cr,
341 Sr, etc. may fill this vacancy. However, cited amounts of CaEs content in rocks can be quite
342 high, depending upon bulk rock composition. For instance, Gasparik (1986) found CaEs values
343 in clinopyroxenes to increase steadily and rapidly from 3.90 mol % at 1.5 GPa to 22.9 mol % at
344 2.8 GPa at isothermal conditions of $T=1200\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ (CMAS system). In addition, oxidation of Fe^{2+}
345 to Fe^{3+} will cause subsequent increases in the calculated vacancy component. It must be noted,
346 however, that Na can be difficult to measure with confidence; any Na not accounted for could be
347 enough to fill any small amount of vacancy we can possibly calculate. However, common
348 pyroxene trace elements measured in this study (Cr, Mn) are very close to, or below detection
349 and will not be sufficient to account for all vacancy component.

350

351 Thus, we propose an unusual mechanism for metastable keatite formation: a low
352 pressure micro-environment created by simultaneous expulsion of silica and vacancies (in
353 addition to hydrogen) from the destabilized UHP pyroxene lattice during slab exhumation. This
354 mechanism is dependent upon the fact that no volume change is seen in Figs. 1 and 2, but large
355 density changes have occurred during exsolution of silica. The precursor UHP clinopyroxene
356 with vacancies is only slightly less dense than $\sim 3.3 \text{ g/cm}^3$ — a vacancy is 0.0 g/cm^3 , and keatite
357 is the least dense silica polymorph at 2.50 g/cm^3 . The local environment must accommodate
358 density changes of $\sim 1.0 \text{ g/cm}^3$, with no apparent volume change. The difference in densities
359 between precursor pyroxene and current pyroxene will not account for this extreme change.
360 Presence of metastable keatite dictates a $-\Delta P$. Thus, a low pressure micro- or nano-environment
361 may be generated at any depth. A model portraying this possible keatite exsolution and low-
362 pressure micro-environment formation (Fig. 7) shows a typical “precursor” euhedral
363 clinopyroxene grain viewed approximately parallel to the *c*-axis. It contains excess silica,
364 hydrogen, and vacancies, which are shown as a cloud in the core of the grain (Fig. 7a).
365 Decompression causes excess material to be expelled from the pyroxene lattice. Silica and
366 vacancies likely exsolve simultaneously, causing a large density change. Exsolution of keatite is
367 stabilized by close lattice match to pyroxene and small precipitate size, in addition to the
368 pressure change. Keatite exsolution is represented by black euhedral shapes in the model (Fig.
369 7b). Silica grows, and expulsion of small amounts of hydrogen from the host pyroxene likely
370 causes breakdown of clinopyroxene to amphibole at clinopyroxene/keatite interfaces (Fig. 7c).
371 Enlargement of the model clinopyroxene/keatite interface shows the position of amphibole
372 (yellow) at interfaces, and black arrows point to a possible void (0.0 g/cm^3) created by coalesced

373 vacancies (Fig. 7d). The polymorph of silica that exsolves is controlled by this low-pressure
374 micro-environment, not the depth/pressure of the rock as a whole.

375

376 Here we have presented evidence confirming natural keatite in an unusual exsolution
377 environment. Our TEM results highlight the important influence of the pyroxene/precipitate
378 interface at the micro- and nano-scales in controlling which phases exsolve during exhumation in
379 UHP rocks. Lines of evidence to confirm this include SAED patterns detailing the close
380 structural relationship between host clinopyroxene and keatite, and excellent lattice matching so
381 that dominant clinopyroxene surfaces provide templates for nano-scale keatite to nucleate. A
382 unique exsolution mechanism takes advantage of the distinctive properties of UHP vacancy-
383 bearing clinopyroxene, creating low-pressure micro-environments stabilized by the host
384 pyroxene lattice. The precipitates were previously believed to be quartz, yet we show that it is
385 unlikely that quartz nucleated and transformed to keatite in this instance. The issue of silica
386 exsolution in HP/UHP clinopyroxene is far from resolved with this study. In fact, systematic
387 studies of micro- and nano-scale minerals in UHP rocks is necessary to fully apprehend the
388 influence and impact of previously-unseen minerals within the complex chemical and physical
389 framework of exhuming rock slabs.

390

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394

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540

541

542

543 **Figure Captions**

544 **Figure 1.** Transmitted light photomicrographs of Kokchetav Massif clinopyroxenes. (a) The
545 core of a clinopyroxene looking parallel to the *c*-axis. The dark euhedral dots are siliceous
546 precipitates. (b) Two different clinopyroxene grains, (junction shown by two arrows), both
547 viewed at a high angle to the *c*-axis. Here the precipitates appear as rods, rather than dots,
548 illustrating a definite crystallographic relationship between precipitates and host clinopyroxene.
549 Precipitates are concentrated in the cores and no precipitates have formed at grain boundaries.
550 Also note the lack of deformation surrounding the precipitates (i.e. no apparent volume change

551 cracks). This indicates the precipitates have likely not transformed to quartz from a denser phase
552 such as coesite. The grains are quite fresh, with little alteration.

553

554 **Figure 2.** (a) TEM image of keatite precipitate (bright shape in center) growing epitaxially
555 within host clinopyroxene (dark area surrounding keatite), and amphibole (gray mineral
556 indenting keatite). Image shows negative pyroxene shape of keatite with dominant pyroxene
557 crystal planes $\{100\}$, $\{010\}$, and $\{110\}$ labeled. (b) Selected Area Electron Diffraction (SAED)
558 pattern of host CPX (no arrows, zone axis $[001]$), keatite precipitates (white left-pointing arrows,
559 zone axis $[010]$), and amphibole (right-pointing black arrows, zone axis $[001]$). (c, d) Schematic
560 indexing of keatite (c), and keatite plus CPX (d). Keatite spots which appear in the SAED, (100)
561 and (001) , are typically at extinction, but appear due to multiple diffraction. These spots are X's
562 in the simulated diffraction patterns (c, d). EDS spectrum from keatite (inset in (a)) show
563 precipitate is a silica polymorph. Carbon peak is from coated carbon.

564

565 **Figure 3.** HRTEM image of an interface between host CPX and amphibole precipitate from Fig.
566 4, with FFT patterns from host CPX (top right) and amphibole precipitate (lower right). Along
567 the b -direction, CPX lattice periodicity is half of the amphibole lattice. Arrows point to the same
568 indexed hkl 's in both minerals; the (020) diffraction spot for amphibole is approximately half the
569 distance of CPX (020) from (000) .

570

571 **Figure 4.** Schematic representation of the structural relationship between CPX and keatite
572 lattices based upon the SAED pattern, illustrating crystallographic relationship of keatite to host
573 CPX. (a, c) represent the same orientations: $[001]_{\text{CPX}} \parallel [100]_{\text{keatite}}$. The initial layer (Fig. 4a) of

574 keatite tetrahedra (green) bonding to clinopyroxene tetrahedra (blue) closely matches
575 clinopyroxene lattice dimensions with systematic gaps of keatite tetrahedra in the structure. (c)
576 subsequent layers of keatite tetrahedra have been added to the structure. (b) Systematic
577 tetrahedra absences are seen in the *a-b* clinopyroxene section. Red arrows in all orientations
578 denote the location of the first layer of bonding for reference. (d) comparison of the
579 clinopyroxene/keatite unit cells in the same orientation as a and c, along clinopyroxene *b*-axis
580 and keatite *c*-axis demonstrates that the clinopyroxene lattice is a mere 3.5% larger than keatite
581 over just one unit cell. Even less difference is seen along keatite *b*-axis/clinopyroxene *c*-axis.

582

583 **Figure 5.** STEM image of a precipitate exhibiting alteration to super-siliceous mica. (a) a
584 typical ‘negative’ pyroxene-shaped silica has been largely altered to mica. Although the image
585 (a) and image of spot 1 inset into the EDS spectrum show mica layering, the EDS spectrum
586 collected at spot 1 shows only silica (b). (c) EDS spectrum from the center of the altered
587 precipitate at spot 2 indicates this area is high silica mica. In these altered precipitates, the
588 negative pyroxene shape with dominant crystal faces is nearly unrecognizable-dominant CPX
589 (010), (110) interfaces are quickly destroyed as the silica is replaced by sheet silicate. A white
590 arrow on the left side of the image (a) points to a degraded (110) face. HRTEM lattice images of
591 spots 3 and 4, amphibole and mica, respectively, are clarified in Fig. 6.

592

593 **Figure 6.** HRTEM lattice images of amphibole/CPX (e) and mica/CPX (f) interfaces from Fig.
594 8 (labeled areas 3 and 4, respectively). (a) SAED pattern shows all three phases found in this
595 precipitate — CPX, amphibole, mica. All three phases have parallel (010) planes and $[100]_{\text{CPX}}$

596 $\parallel [001]_{\text{mica}}$. This can also be seen in simulations of mica SAED patterns (d) and CPX,
597 amphibole, mica SAED patterns (b). A degraded (110) pyroxene plane can be seen in (f).

598

599 **Figure 7.** Possible keatite precipitate formation model. (a) A typical *c*-axis CPX grain filled
600 with excess silica, H⁺, and vacancies (Ca-Eskola component). As the rock slab begins
601 decompression, the pyroxene structure destabilizes and excess material is pushed out of the
602 lattice. (b) Silica nucleates and grows in the core of the CPX, taking on the CPX shape. (c) CPX
603 transforms to amphibole, and vacancies exsolve and coalesce. (d) Detail of silica precipitate
604 shows position of amphibole and black arrows point to a void of coalesced vacancies. A low
605 pressure micro-environment may be formed from density changes between silica and pyroxene,
606 aided by coalescing vacancies of no density.

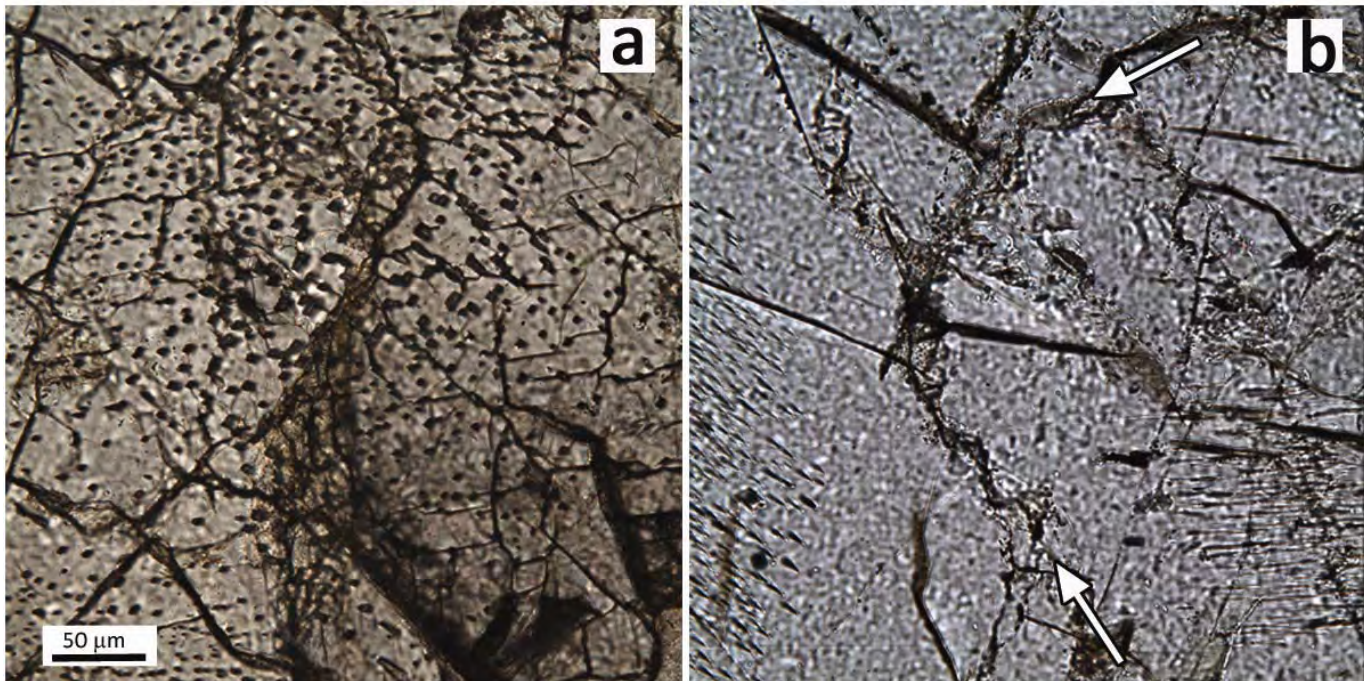


Figure 1. Transmitted light photomicrographs of Kokchetav Massif clinopyroxenes. (a) The core of a clinopyroxene oriented nearly parallel to the c -axis. The dark euhedral dots are siliceous precipitates. (b) Two different clinopyroxene grains, (junction shown by two arrows), both viewed at a high angle to the c -axis. Here the precipitates appear as rods, rather than dots, illustrating a definite crystallographic relationship between precipitates and host clinopyroxene. Precipitates are concentrated in the cores and no precipitates have formed at grain boundaries. Also note the lack of deformation surrounding the precipitates (i.e. no apparent volume change cracks). This indicates the precipitates have likely not transformed to quartz from a denser phase such as coesite. The grains are quite fresh, with little alteration.

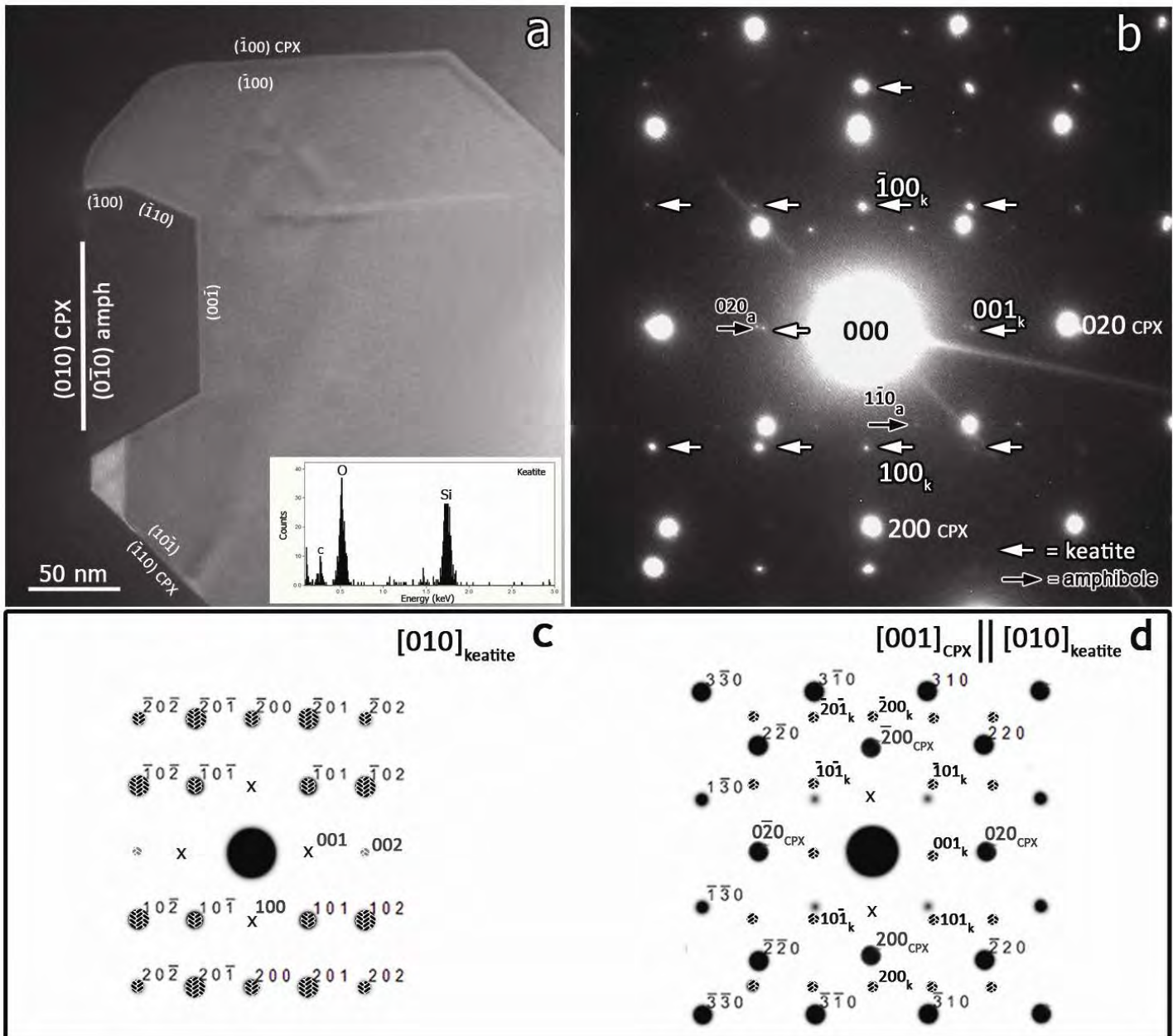


Figure 2 (a) TEM image of keatite precipitate (bright shape in center) growing epitaxially within host clinopyroxene (dark area surrounding keatite), and amphibole (gray mineral indenting keatite). Image shows negative pyroxene shape of keatite with dominant pyroxene crystal planes $\{100\}$, $\{010\}$, and $\{110\}$ labeled. (b) Selected Area Electron Diffraction (SAED) pattern of host CPX (no arrows, zone axis $[001]$), keatite precipitates (white left-pointing arrows, zone axis $[010]$), and amphibole (right-pointing black arrows, zone axis $[001]$). (c,d) Schematic indexing of keatite (c), and keatite plus CPX (d). Keatite spots which appear in the SAED, (100) and (001) , are typically at extinction, but appear due to multiple diffraction. These spots are X's in the simulated diffraction patterns (c,d). EDS spectrum from keatite (inset in (a)) show precipitate is a silica polymorph. Carbon peak is from coated carbon.

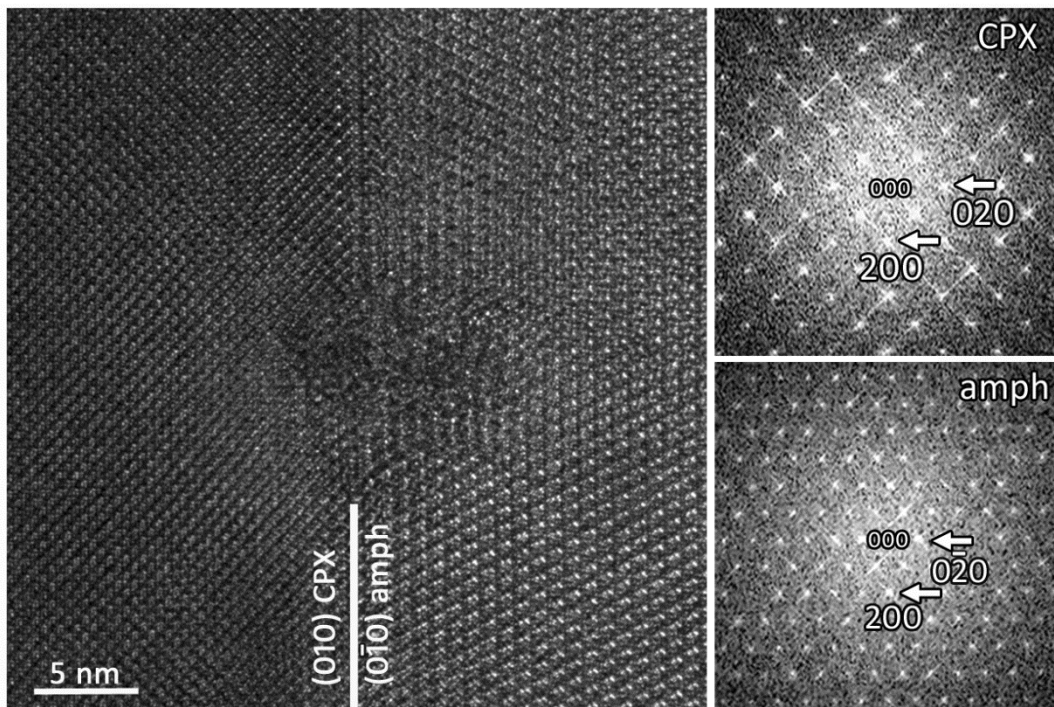


Figure 3 HRTEM image of an interface between host CPX and amphibole precipitate from Fig. 4, with FFT patterns from host CPX (top right) and amphibole precipitate (lower right). Along the b -direction, CPX lattice periodicity is half of the amphibole lattice. Arrows point to the same indexed hkl 's in both minerals; the (020) diffraction spot for amphibole is approximately half the distance of CPX (020) from (000).

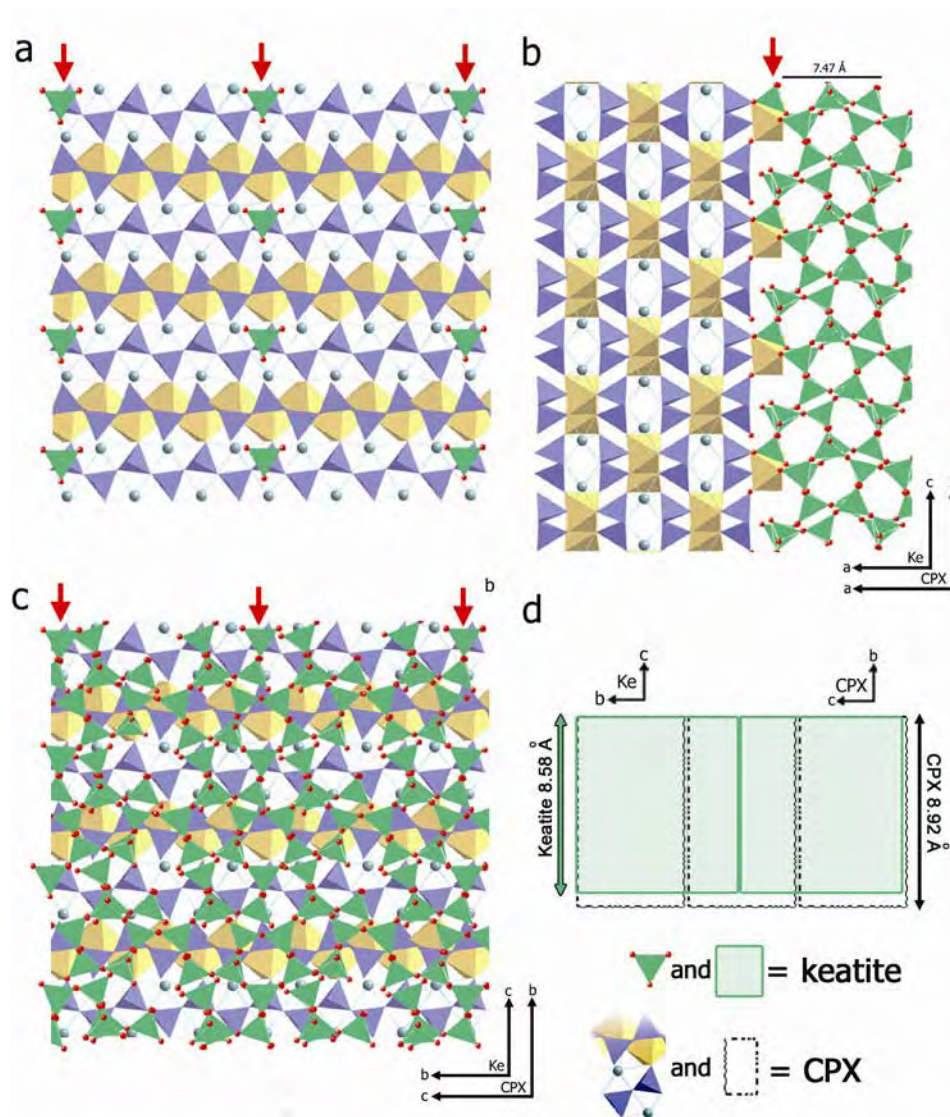


Figure 4 Schematic representation of the structural relationship between CPX and keatite lattices based upon the SAED pattern, illustrating crystallographic relationship of keatite to host CPX. (a) The initial layer of green keatite tetrahedra bonding to blue tetrahedra in CPX matches CPX lattice dimensions nicely with little to no rotation of the tetrahedra. For this to work, systematic gaps of keatite tetrahedra are created. These can also be seen in (b) where the orientation is keatite [010] || CPX [001]. Red arrows in each model denote location of the first layer of bonding. (d) Illustrates lattice match over three unit cells of CPX and two keatite unit cells along CPX *b*-axis and keatite *c*-axis; CPX lattice is a mere 3.5% larger than keatite. In (c), subsequent layers of tetrahedra have been added to the layered structure in the same orientation as (a).

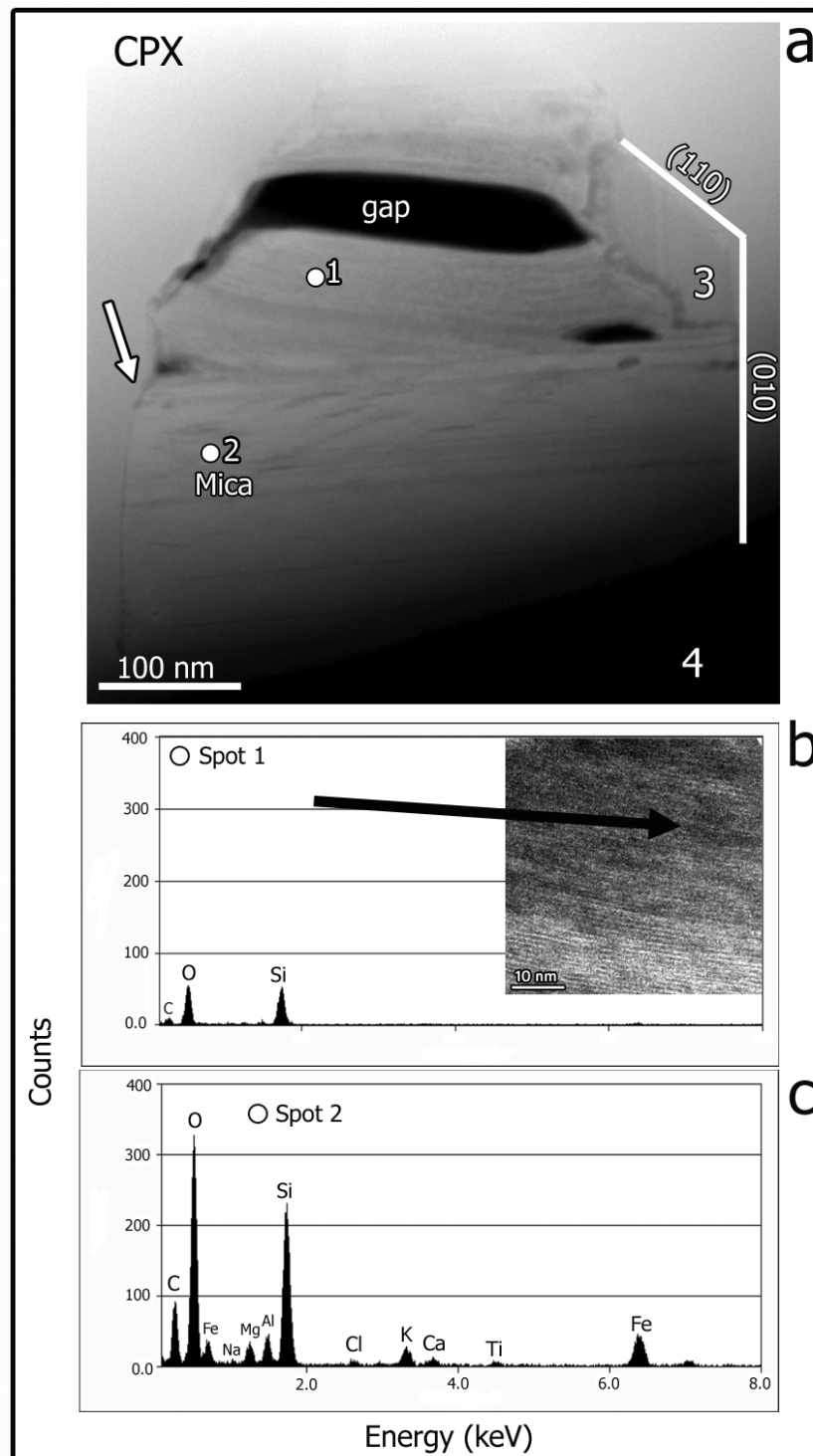


Figure 5 STEM image of a precipitate exhibiting alteration to super-siliceous mica. (a) a typical ‘negative’ pyroxene-shaped silica has been largely altered to mica. Although the image (a) and image of spot one inset into the EDS spectrum shows mica layering, the EDS spectrum collected at spot 1 shows only silica (b). (c) EDS spectrum from the center of the altered precipitate at spot 2 indicates this area is high silica mica. In these altered precipitates, the negative pyroxene shape with dominant crystal faces is nearly unrecognizable-dominant (010), (110) interfaces are quickly destroyed as the silica is replaced by sheet silicate. A white arrow on the left side of the image (a) points to a degraded (110) face. HRTEM lattice images of spots 3 and 4, amphibole and mica, respectively, is clarified in Fig. 6.

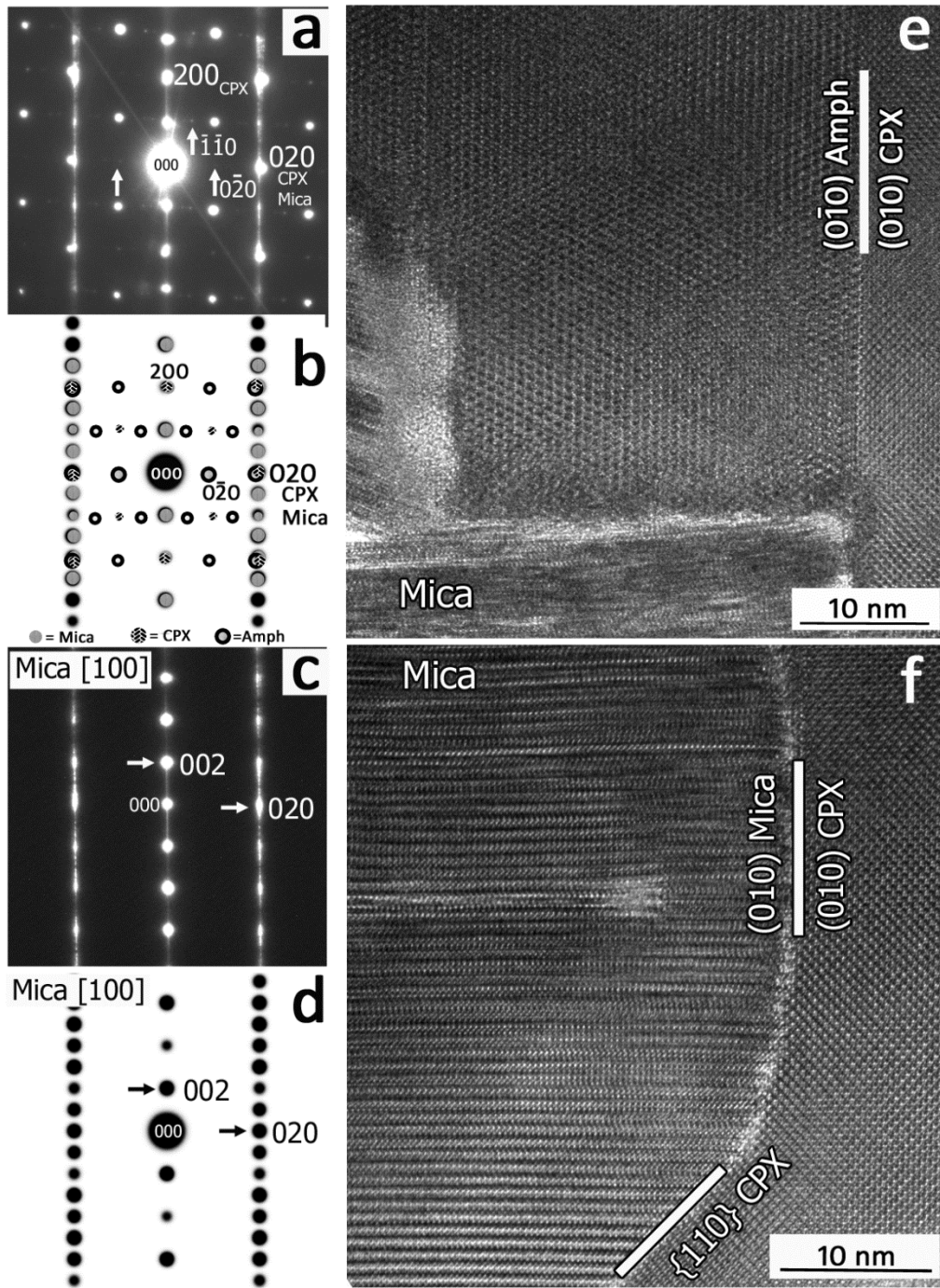


Figure 6. HRTEM lattice images of amphibole/CPX (e) and mica/CPX (f) interfaces from Fig. 8 (labeled areas 3 and 4, respectively). (a) SAED pattern shows all three phases found in this precipitate—CPX, amphibole, mica. All three phases have parallel (010) planes and $[100]_{\text{CPX}} \parallel [001]_{\text{mica}}$. This can also be seen in simulations of mica SAED patterns (d) and CPX, amphibole, mica SAED patterns (b). A degraded (110) pyroxene plane can be seen in (f).

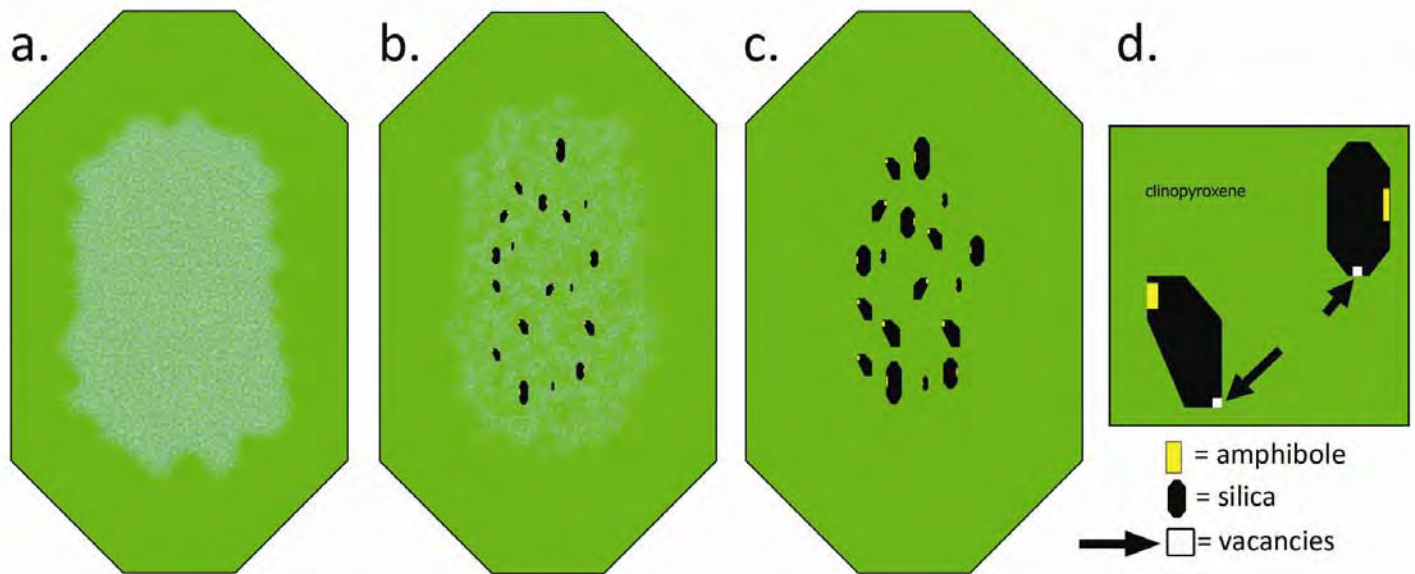


Figure 7 Keatite precipitate formation model. (a) A typical *c*-axis CPX grain filled with excess silica, H^+ , and vacancies (Ca-Eskola component). As the rock slab begins decompression, the pyroxene structure destabilizes and excess material is pushed out of the lattice. (b) Silica nucleates and grows in the core of the CPX, taking on the CPX shape. (c) Some form of water allows CPX to transform to amphibole, and vacancies exsolve and coalesce. (d) Close-up of silica precipitate shows position of amphibole and black arrows point to a void of coalesced vacancies. The silica polymorph that nucleates is likely dictated by the core structure of the pyroxene, and the low-pressure micro-environment created by negative density changes and a possible vacuum formed by the exsolution of vacancies.

Wt. % Oxide	Pt. 1	Pt. 2	Pt. 3	Pt. 4	Pt. 5	Pt. 6	Pt. 7	Pt. 8	Pt. 9	Pt. 10	Pt. 11	Pt. 12	Pt. 13	Pt. 14	AVG	STDEV	SERR
SiO ₂	53.68	53.54	54.16	53.22	54.24	53.72	53.87	53.54	53.56	54.03	53.59	53.69	54.19	53.76	53.77	0.28	0.08
TiO ₂	0.21	0.11	0.12	0.07	0.08	0.08	0.09	bd	0.11	0.03	bd	0.07	0.10	0.13	0.10	0.04	0.02
Al ₂ O ₃	2.48	2.37	2.35	2.58	2.28	2.38	2.30	2.38	2.39	2.47	2.38	2.30	2.24	2.29	2.37	0.09	0.02
Cr ₂ O ₃	bd	bd	bd	bd	bd	bd	bd	bd	bd	bd	bd	bd	bd	bd	bd	bd	0.02
FeO	6.30	6.39	6.36	6.77	6.62	6.53	6.75	6.64	6.70	6.61	6.65	6.37	6.57	6.14	6.53	0.18	0.05
MnO	0.06	0.08	0.05	0.14	0.09	0.13	0.08	0.12	0.10	0.14	0.15	0.04	0.18	0.02	0.10	0.04	0.01
MgO	13.26	13.37	13.17	13.55	13.12	13.09	13.46	13.27	13.32	13.21	13.12	13.34	13.31	13.22	13.27	0.13	0.04
CaO	23.19	22.98	22.89	22.66	22.79	22.59	22.89	22.97	22.75	22.82	22.90	23.08	22.58	22.84	22.85	0.17	0.05
Na ₂ O	0.70	0.82	0.73	0.81	0.88	0.79	0.84	0.87	0.79	0.77	0.81	0.81	0.82	0.81	0.80	0.05	0.01
K ₂ O	0.07	0.05	0.04	0.02	0.05	0.11	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.17	0.03	0.04	0.02	0.03	0.05	0.04	0.01
Total	99.94	99.70	99.88	99.82	100.15	99.40	100.31	99.81	99.76	100.26	99.63	99.74	100.01	99.25			
Si	1.978	1.981	1.994	1.968	1.997	1.991	1.981	1.981	1.982	1.987	1.985	1.984	1.993	1.992	<i>Notes for Table 1:</i> bd = below detection []=vacancy component (CaEs) Cations per 6 O Oxygen calculated <i>Statistics:</i> n=14 AVG= average STDV= standard deviation SERR= standard error		
Ti	0.006	0.003	0.004	0.002	0.002	0.002	0.003	bd	0.003	0.001	bd	0.002	0.003	0.004			
^{IV} Al	0.022	0.019	0.006	0.032	0.003	0.009	0.019	0.019	0.018	0.013	0.015	0.016	0.007	0.008			
^{VI} Al	0.086	0.084	0.096	0.080	0.096	0.095	0.081	0.085	0.086	0.094	0.089	0.085	0.090	0.092			
Cr	bd	bd	bd	bd	bd	bd	bd	bd	bd	bd	bd	bd	bd	bd			
Fe ²⁺	0.194	0.198	0.196	0.209	0.204	0.202	0.208	0.205	0.207	0.203	0.206	0.197	0.202	0.190			
Mn	0.002	0.003	0.002	0.004	0.003	0.004	0.002	0.004	0.003	0.004	0.005	0.001	0.005	0.001			
Mg	0.729	0.737	0.723	0.747	0.720	0.723	0.738	0.732	0.734	0.724	0.724	0.735	0.730	0.730			
Ca	0.916	0.911	0.903	0.898	0.899	0.897	0.902	0.911	0.902	0.899	0.909	0.914	0.890	0.907			
Na	0.050	0.059	0.052	0.058	0.063	0.056	0.060	0.062	0.057	0.055	0.058	0.058	0.059	0.058			
K	0.003	0.002	0.002	0.001	0.002	0.005	0.002	0.001	0.002	0.008	0.002	0.002	0.001	0.001			
[]	0.014	0.003	0.022	0.001	0.011	0.015	0.005	0.000	0.005	0.011	0.007	0.006	0.019	0.017			
Cations per 6 O	4.000	4.000	4.000	4.000	4.000	4.000	4.000	4.001	4.000	4.000	4.000	4.000	4.000	4.000			

Table 1. Recalculated EMPA clinopyroxene analyses from Kokchetav Massif CPX grain, calculated with all iron as Fe²⁺. Measurements made with 1 μm beam. Oxygen calculated, all calculations based on 6 O. Minimum potential calculated vacancy component = ([]).