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2 Transformation of graphite to diamond via a topotactic mechanism

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ABSTRACT

17 Several mechanisms and intermediate steps have been proposed to explain the
18 transformation of graphite to diamond. However, the mechanism continues to be
19 debated, in part because graphite that is incompletely transformed to diamond
20 has not been reported; although such material could be used to better
21 understand the diamond-forming process. Here we report the discovery of nano-
22 sized grains of interstratified graphite and diamond from Gujba, an
23 extraterrestrially shocked meteorite. We use high-resolution transmission
24 electron microscopy (HRTEM) data from these grains to show that diamond
25 formed via a reconstructive, topotactic rather than martensitic mechanism.
26 Electron diffraction and HRTEM images show the following three-dimensional
27 crystallographic relationships between the interstratified graphite and diamond:
28 $[001]_g \parallel [111]_d, [100]_g \parallel [2-1-1]_d$ and $[1-20]_g \parallel [0-11]_d$. These relationships yield
29 the transition matrix linking the graphite and diamond unit cells, which become

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30 coincident for graphite compressed to 7 GPa. The specific product, whether
31 single-crystal or twinned diamond is dictated by the initial graphite polytype
32 and transformation route. The derivation of a three-dimensional transition
33 matrix is consistent with a topotactic relationship between graphite and the
34 newly formed diamond.

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36 **Key Words:** Crystal Structure, Crystal Growth, Electron Microscopy, Meteorite

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INTRODUCTION

39 Shock waves can convert carbonaceous materials to diamond. Products of
40 this process occur as the result of explosive compression of powders (DeCarli
41 and Jamieson 1961; Donnet et al. 2000; Donnet et al. 1997; Erskine and Nellis
42 1991; Yamada et al. 2000), extraterrestrial impacts (Le Guillou et al. 2010; Sharp
43 and DeCarli 2006), and impacts of meteors on Earth (El Goresy et al. 2001;
44 Langenhorst et al. 1999; Pratesi et al. 2003; Yelissev et al. 2013). Of particular
45 interest are the recent reports of terrestrial impact-produced nanodiamonds,
46 specifically those associated with the hypothesized Younger Dryas (YD)
47 boundary impact event (Israde-Alcantara et al. 2012; Kennett et al. 2009a; Kennett
48 et al. 2009b; Kurbatov et al. 2010). These reports describe nanodiamonds,
49 diamond, lonsdaleite, and n-diamond, in sediments of the Ållerød-Younger
50 Dryas boundary, with the lonsdaleite being presented as evidence of shock
51 synthesis (Kennett et al. 2009a; Kennett et al. 2009b), although the evidence for
52 lonsdaleite in these deposits is open to debate (Daulton et al. 2010). In order to
53 use the presence and characteristics of the shock-formed diamonds as indicators
54 of specific formation processes, it is necessary to understand the mechanisms and
55 conditions under which graphite transforms to diamond.

56 Graphite has been proposed to form diamond through either a martensitic
57 or reconstructive process, whereas non-graphitic carbon such as carbon black
58 and glassy carbon transforms to diamond by a reconstructive mechanism (Irifune

59 and Sumiya 2004; Le Guillou et al. 2007; Sumiya et al. 2006). Static and shock
60 wave experiments show that the uncatalyzed, direct transformation of graphite
61 to diamond requires pressures >15 GPa and transient T of >3000 K (reviewed in
62 (DeCarli 1995; DeCarli et al. 2002)). Shock-wave experiments suggest that
63 graphite oriented with its basal planes normal to the direction of shock-wave
64 propagation transforms to diamond through a two-step martensitic mechanism
65 (Erskine and Nellis 1991; Erskine and Nellis 1992): graphite to lonsdaleite (also
66 called hexagonal diamond), followed by a transformation from lonsdaleite to
67 diamond at < 2000 K, substantially below the melting temperature of graphite.
68 Independent of the mechanism by which it occurs, the transformation results in a
69 61% collapse along the [001] of graphite, whereas the lateral dimensions decrease
70 by only 2.8%. Strong covalent bonds form in diamond, and there is a dramatic
71 density increase from 2.28 to 3.52 g/cm³. The bonding changes from planar, 3-
72 coordinated, sp²-bonded C in sheets held together by Van der Waals forces for
73 graphite to 4-coordinated, sp³-bonded C in diamond. Also, the planar C-C bond
74 length of graphite increases by 0.015 nm on transforming to diamond.

75 A range of intermediates structures have been hypothesized to form
76 during shock or static compression of graphite to diamond (Khaliullin et al. 2011;
77 Le Guillou et al. 2007; Yang and Wang 2001) starting with the two major graphite
78 polytypes: 2H (hexagonal, AB stacking) and 3R (rhombohedral, ABC stacking).
79 3R graphite is thought to form diamond via buckling and compression of
80 graphene sheets, without the formation of intermediate structures, whereas
81 diamond formation from the 2H polytype proceeds through intermediate
82 structures that transform first to lonsdaleite and then to diamond (Khaliullin et
83 al. 2011; Le Guillou et al. 2007; Scandolo et al. 1995).

84 As part of our ongoing study of the fine-grained materials in
85 carbonaceous chondrite meteorites, we used transmission electron microscopy
86 (TEM), selected-area electron diffraction (SAED), and electron energy-loss
87 spectroscopy (EELS) to investigate the acid-insoluble material from Gujba, in

88 which we discovered grains of graphite and diamond. Gujba is a coarse-grained
89 carbonaceous chondrite meteorite that consists predominantly of silicate clasts,
90 large metal globules, and dark interstitial matrix (Figs. 1 and 2) (Rubin et al.
91 2003) that shows a range of shock features. The whole rock shows evidence of
92 shock stage S2 (Rubin et al. 2003). Features indicating high shock pressures are
93 evident in the matrix, which consists of fine-grained metal and silicate that
94 resembles the shock veins in ordinary chondrites. Several high-pressure,
95 presumably shock-produced, phases occur in Gujba including majorite garnet,
96 wadsleyite, and coesite (Weisberg and Kimura 2004; Weisberg et al. 2006), and
97 stishovite (this study). The wadsleyite and majorite indicate maximum local
98 pressures and temperatures of 19 GPa and 2000 °C. There are no prior reports of
99 diamonds in Gujba, but they were described from Bencubbin, where some are
100 thought to have formed via solid-state transformation of carbon from an intense
101 shock event, with peak pressure exceeding 15 GPa (Mostefaoui et al. 2002).

102 Here we show images of graphite in the process of transforming to
103 diamond. From these images we derive a three-dimensional transition matrix
104 linking the unit cells of graphite and diamond, and conclude that the
105 transformation proceeds through a reconstructive, topotactic mechanism.

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EXPERIMENTAL METHOD

108 Several millimeter-sized pieces of black areas interstitial to the large metal
109 and silicate globules were separated from a piece of the Gujba meteorite (Fig. 2).
110 These pieces were washed in 6N HCl for two days, then three days in HF/HCl,
111 followed by three washes in dilute HCl, and final washings in distilled water.
112 The dissolution was undertaken at room temperature. A small droplet (ca. 2 μ L)
113 of the residue in suspension with water was dried on a Cu TEM grid coated with
114 lacy-C. TEM data were acquired from electron-transparent areas of the residue
115 protruding into the holes of the TEM grid. EELS and SAED data were acquired
116 with a Tecnai F20 TEM (200 kV; Schottky field-emission gun, side-entry, double-

117 tilt stage; point resolution = 0.24 nm). HRTEM images were acquired with a JEOL
118 JEM 4000EX TEM (400 kV; LaB₆ filament, top-entry, double-tilt stage; C_s = 1 mm;
119 point resolution = 0.17 nm). Fourier-transform diffractograms obtained from the
120 HRTEM images were calculated using Gatan Digital Micrograph 2.5.7 software.
121 Structure models of transitional graphite diamond and HRTEM images were
122 simulated with Cerius2 4.0 software (Molecular Simulation Institute, Inc) at the
123 microscope experimental conditions (defocus spread = 7 nm, beam divergence =
124 0.4 mrad, defocus = - 40 nm, and sample thickness = 5 nm). Structure data for
125 diamond (F 3dm) and graphite (2H P6₃/mmc and 3R R-3m) are taken from
126 (Lipson and Stokes 1942; Wyckoff 1963). We used the CrystalCracker software to
127 calculate the unit cell parameters of diamond by applying the transition matrix
128 developed in this paper
129 (http://multianvil.asu.edu/Crystal_Cracker/CrystalCracker.html).

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RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

132 TEM images of the acid residue show abundant carbonaceous aggregates
133 and lath-shaped stishovite (Fig. 3). A combination of high-resolution TEM
134 (HRTEM), SAED, and EELS measurements from multiple carbonaceous
135 aggregates reveal particle types that range from amorphous to poorly
136 graphitized carbon (PGC), to well-ordered graphite, rounded to euhedral
137 diamonds, and clumps of nanodiamonds. Hollow carbonaceous nanoglobules
138 also occur (Fig. 3), similar to those in primitive meteorites (Garvie and Buseck
139 2004; Nakamura-Messenger et al. 2006), and structurally similar PGC occurs in
140 many carbonaceous chondrites (Garvie and Buseck 2006; Harris and Vis 2003).

141 Notable aspects of some HRTEM images are platy grains (Fig. 4), typically
142 15 × 8 nm, rarely up to 50-nm long that show various proportions of 0.34-nm
143 fringes and parallel 0.206-nm fringes (Figs 4, 5 and 6). Approximately 100
144 carbonaceous aggregates containing such elongated particles were imaged, with
145 some aggregates containing up to 35 grains. Their SAED patterns contain rings

146 corresponding to graphite and diamond (Fig. 4b), and the C K edge EELS spectra
147 has maxima for these minerals (Fig. 4c) (Garvie 2006). The 0.34-nm fringes are
148 consistent with 2H (002) and 3R (003) graphite, and the 0.206-nm fringes, which
149 lie parallel to the graphite 00 l fringes (Figs. 5 and 6), are of diamond (111).

150 The proportions of diamond vary in different grains (Fig. 5). Some consist
151 of interstratified blocks of diamond and books of graphite (Fig. 5a), whereas
152 others show diamond on one surface (Fig. 5). Some grains show extensive layers
153 in which graphite appears to grade into diamond (yellow arrowed regions in
154 Figs. 5 and 6). Some crystallites show 0.34-nm spacings that transition to material
155 with 0.206-nm spacings. [001] line dislocations and (001) stacking faults are
156 abundant in the graphite, and much of the diamond is twinned (Figs. 5 and 6).
157 The HRTEM images reveal two graphite polytypes: 3R with 0.34-nm (003) and
158 0.21-nm (-101) spacings, and 2H with 0.34-nm (002) and 0.21-nm (100) spacings.
159 Diamond shows 0.206-nm (111 and 1-1-1) spacings.

160 In order to understand the structure at the junction between diamond and
161 graphite, the intermediate graphite diamond region in Figure 6 (indicated by the
162 yellow arrow) was modeled using the structures of diamond and 3R graphite,
163 and simulated HRTEM images were generated (Fig. 7). At the imaging
164 conditions used, the black dots correspond to C doublets. The high point-to-point
165 resolution provides images that permit us to determine the orientations of these
166 doublets and hence the atomic structure of the graphite-diamond interface.

167 We use two model structures for the interstratified graphite diamond
168 region in Figure 6, one with a graphite layer and the other with a diamond layer
169 at the interface. Both are required since the intensity differences at this region of
170 the simulated HRTEM images for the two structures are not sufficient to
171 determine whether the interface is graphite (Fig. 7d) or diamond (Fig. 7e).

172 The models have in common an upper and lower part of diamond (111)
173 planes separated by a 0.34-nm spacing, and the C doublets are in a twin relation
174 (Fig. 7d, e). The model also shows a defect between the twinned regions of the

175 diamond (black arrow) that is offset by 0.17 nm. The twinning is also visible in
176 the HRTEM image (black boxed region in Fig. 6a). The connection between the
177 upper and lower diamond layers (arrows in Fig. 7d, e) is neither pure diamond
178 nor graphite, but retains appropriate C-C bond distances and angles between
179 that of graphite and diamond.

180 The HRTEM images and calculated diffractograms from the Gujba
181 meteorite reveal the orthogonal crystallographic relationships between the
182 graphite and diamond: $[001]_g \parallel [111]_d$, $[100]_g \parallel [2-1-1]_d$ and $[1-20]_g \parallel [0-11]_d$. The
183 orientation relationships in Figure 6 are typical of the grains showing
184 interstratified blocks of diamond and books of graphite. These orientations
185 uniquely define the three-dimensional relationship between the graphite and the
186 newly formed diamond. The one dimensional $[001]_g \parallel [111]_d$ relationship is
187 well-known, and more recently (Nakamuta and Toh 2013) suggested further
188 orientation relationships between graphite and newly formed diamond.
189 However, determination of the three-dimensional directional relationship was
190 only possible because of the preservation of the intergrown diamond and
191 graphite in the Gujba meteorite.

192 The measured orthogonal orientational relationships $[001]_g \parallel [111]_d$,
193 $[100]_g \parallel [2-1-1]_d$, and $[1-20]_g \parallel [0-11]_d$, and reciprocal lattice node overlaps allow
194 development of the respective transition matrices (Appendix 1) between 2H and
195 3R graphite and the newly formed diamond. The unit cells of 2H and 3R graphite
196 transform to diamond through

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$$198 \quad \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 2 & 1 \\ -2 & 2 & 1 \\ -2 & -4 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ and } \frac{2}{9} \begin{pmatrix} 6 & 3 & 1 \\ -3 & 3 & 1 \\ -3 & -4 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \text{ respectively.}$$

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200 Application of the matrices to the room-pressure 2H and 3R graphite unit cells
201 give a slightly distorted pseudo-cubic diamond unit cell, with $a= 0.36$ nm and

202 alpha= 85.8°. However, with increasing pressure graphite compresses
203 dramatically along c , with only minor changes along a (Yagi et al. 1992).
204 Application of the matrices to the unit-cell data for graphite at approximately 7
205 GPa, where the c/c_0 ratio decreases to 0.91 (Yagi et al. 1992), yields cell data
206 consistent with diamond. Although 7 GPa is within the stability field for
207 diamond for $T \sim < 3,000\text{K}$, the conversion of graphite to diamond requires
208 pressures above ~ 10 GPa (Bundy et al. 1996). Below 10 GPa the conversion is
209 kinetically inhibited.

210 Our data are consistent with graphite transforming to diamond, as
211 opposed to diamond to graphite. HRTEM images of diamond transforming to
212 graphite do not show a crystallographic relationships between the newly formed
213 graphite and parent diamond structure (Mykhaylyk et al. 2005; Zou et al. 2010).
214 Further, the interstratified graphite-diamond grains are platy, suggestive of a
215 platy graphite precursor.

216 There are many possible graphite polytypes, however, 3R and 2H are the
217 most abundant. Moreover, longer-period graphite polytypes can be envisioned
218 as consisting of 2H and 3R, showing that all graphite polytypes can transform via
219 the paths outlined in Figure 8. Starting with the 3R and 2H graphite polytype, we
220 propose several paths to diamond. 3R graphite can transform either by
221 maintaining its original stacking sequence (Fig. 8 path a) or through intermediate
222 graphite stackings I1 and I2 (Fig. 8 path b). On the other hand, 2H can transform
223 through either 3R graphite (Fig. 8 path c) or intermediate stackings (Fig. 8 path
224 d). The intermediate structures with AB'AB' (I1, also called orthorhombic
225 graphite (Khaliullin et al. 2011; Scandolo et al. 1995)) and AAAA (I2, termed 1H
226 graphite (Le Guillou et al. 2007)) stacking sequences have been hypothesized as
227 intermediates in the graphite-diamond transition. These intermediates are the
228 most fundamental stackings that can transform to diamond (Fig. 8 path f).
229 However, a range of different stacking sequences can be envisioned (e.g.,
230 AB'B'A, AB'CCB'A etc...) that will only produce different diamond stacking

231 (e.g., 4H or 6H). These stackings will, in turn, form diamond with planar defects,
232 resulting in twinning. Therefore, the abundance of twinned diamond in our
233 sample is likely related to the stacking disorder of the original graphite,
234 intermediate paths, or both.

235 The crystallographic relationship between graphite and diamond, and the
236 existence of a corresponding transition matrix, is consistent with both topotactic
237 and martensitic transitions. In a topotactic transition the "... crystal lattice of the
238 product phase shows one or more crystallographically equivalent, orientational
239 relationships to the crystal lattice of the parent phase." (IUPAC 1997), which
240 according to Sharp and DeCarli (2006) is a type of reconstructive phase
241 transition. Whereas, a martensitic transition is a "... diffusionless transition ...
242 generated by coordinated atomic ... displacements over distances smaller than
243 interatomic distances in the parent phase." (IUPAC 1997). Although the graphite
244 to diamond transition is commonly described as martensitic, the transition as a
245 whole is not. In particular, the atomic displacements are larger than the
246 interatomic distances in the parent phase, e.g., the 0.34 nm of graphite becomes
247 the 0.156 nm of diamond. As a whole, the structural changes and resultant
248 chemical and physical differences, such as density increase between graphite and
249 diamond, are consistent with a reconstructive, topotactic rather than a
250 martensitic transition.

251 Our study outlines transformation routes for the formation of diamond
252 from graphite that are consistent with grains consisting of interstratified blocks
253 of diamond and blocks of graphite. The discovery of the three-dimensional
254 transition matrix supports a reconstructive, topotactic transformation between
255 graphite and diamond as a result of shock-induced phase change. The results
256 presented here are also applicable to static high-pressure experiments as there is
257 no evidence to suggest that the physics, and hence outcomes, of static and shock
258 experiments differ, e.g., see discussions in Sharp and DeCarli (Sharp and DeCarli
259 2006). The HRTEM images also show grains where diamond formation appears

260 to have stopped at dislocations, which suggest that defects can impede diamond
261 formation and result in regions with intimately intergrown graphite and
262 diamond. Defects may also be important for initiation of the phase
263 transformation (Khaliullin et al. 2011; Le Guillou et al. 2007) as they are
264 postulated to be the sites for initiation of the diamond formation through
265 dangling bonds. The findings provide new mechanistic insights into the
266 interactions that control the transformation of graphite into diamond.

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277 and suggestions.

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283 **FIGURE 1.** A polished and nitol-etched piece of the Gujba meteorite showing the

284 bright metal globules and interstitial silicate fragments and dark matrix. The

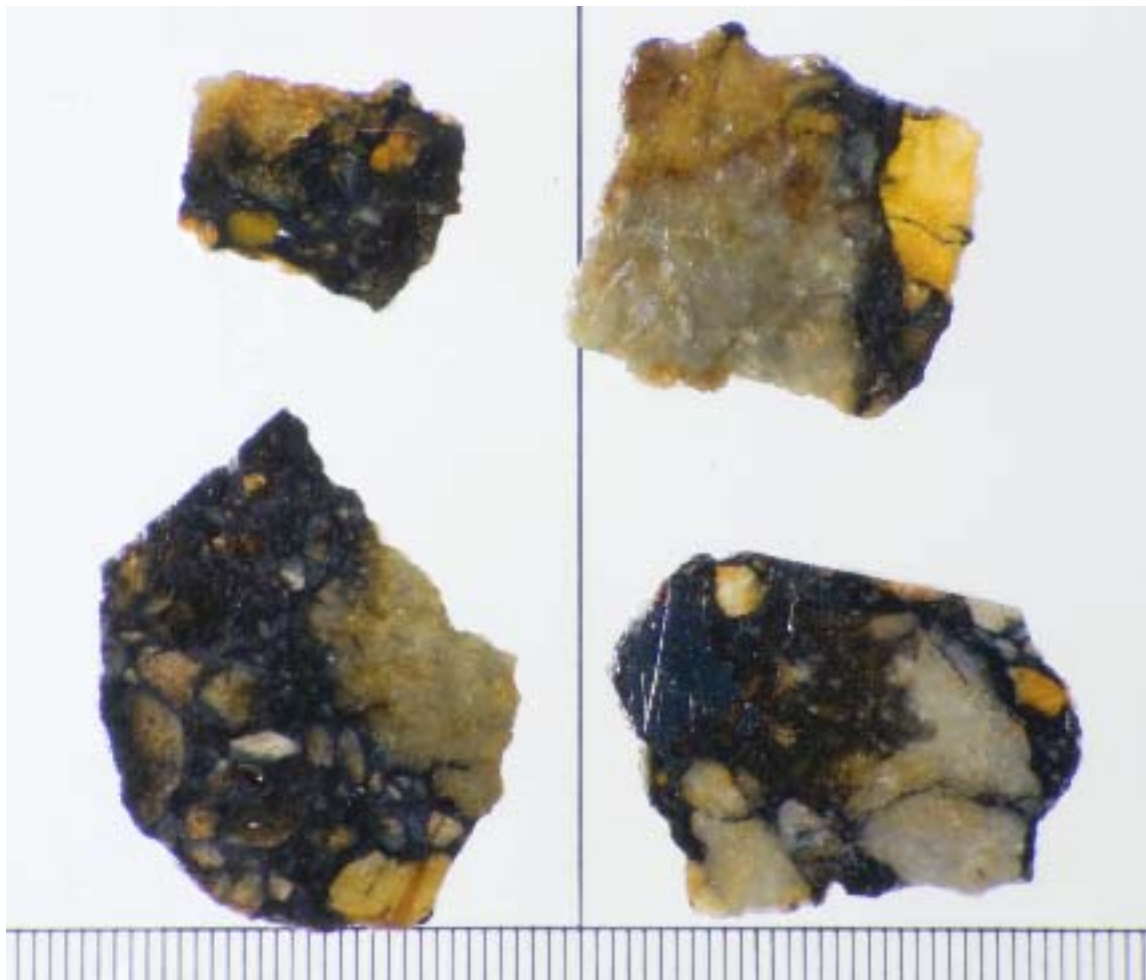
285 piece measures 3 cm across. The largest metal globule is just under 5 mm in

286 diameter. (sample ASU#1660)

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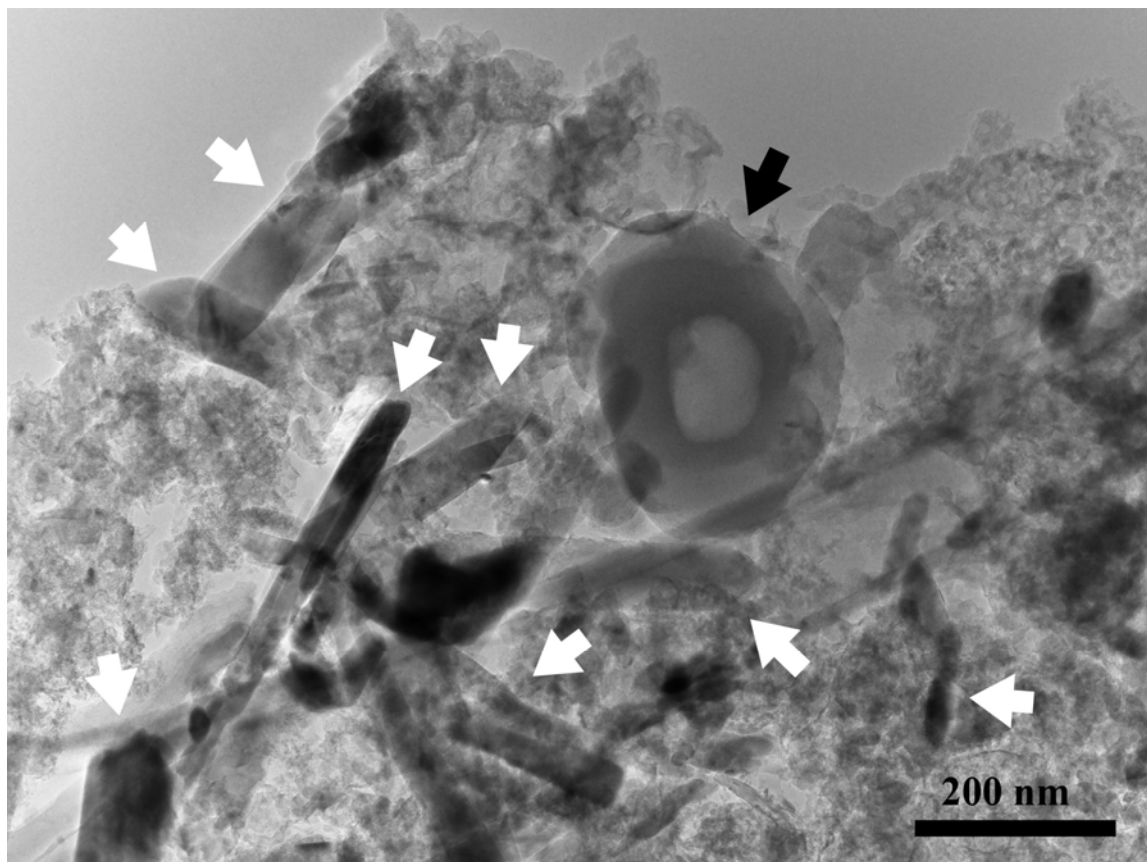
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FIGURE 2. Photograph of representative pieces of material interstitial to the metal globules showing the light-colored silicate fragments, metal, and dark-veined material. The dark areas are dominated by metal, sulfides, and carbonaceous material. The scale bar markers at the bottom of the image = 0.2 mm.

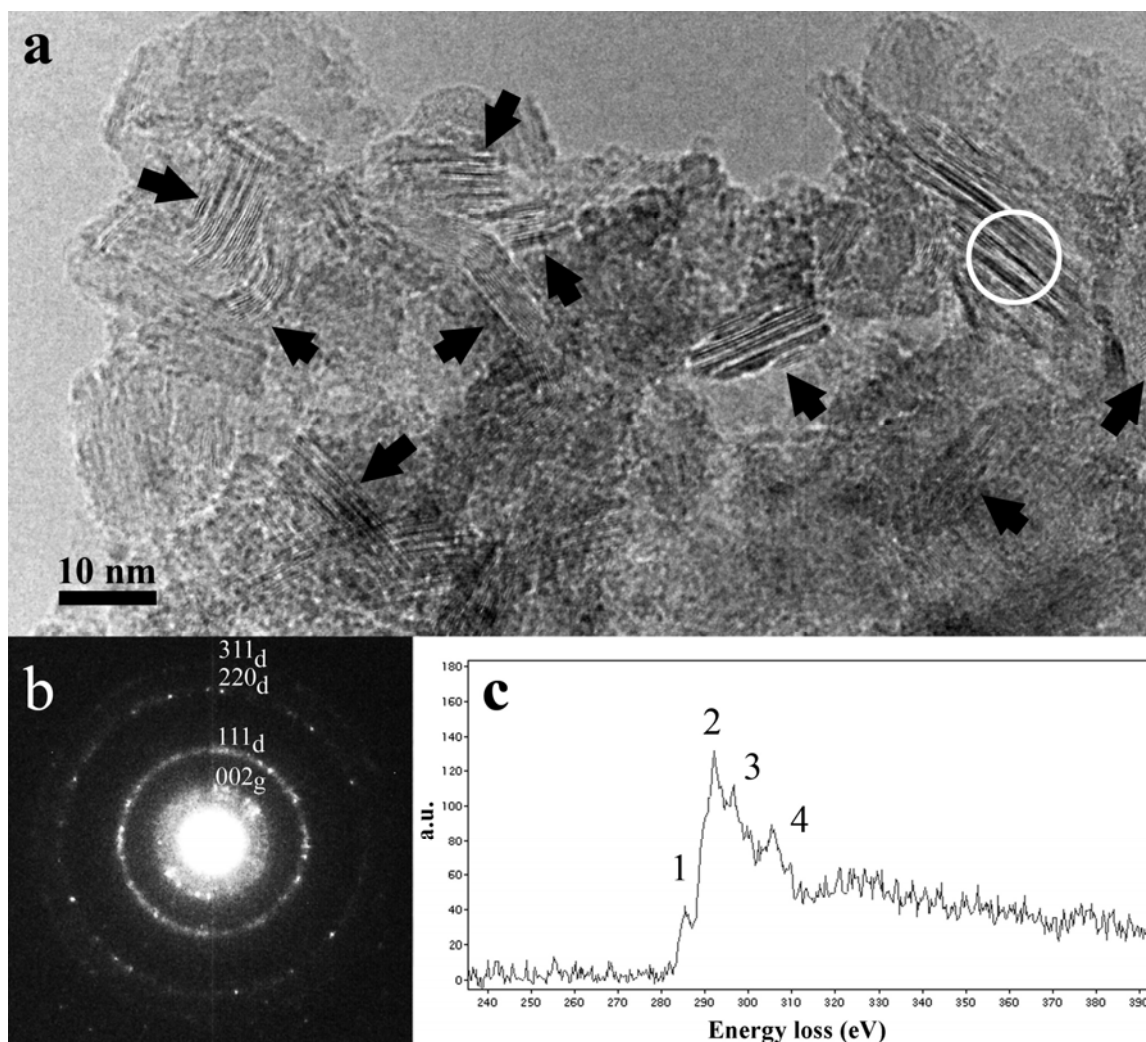
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FIGURE 3. Low-resolution TEM image of the acid residue from Gujba showing a hollow carbonaceous nanoglobule (black arrow) and stishovite laths (white arrows). The formless, tissue-like material forming the bulk of the residue is a mixture of poorly graphitized carbon, graphite-diamond, and diamond.

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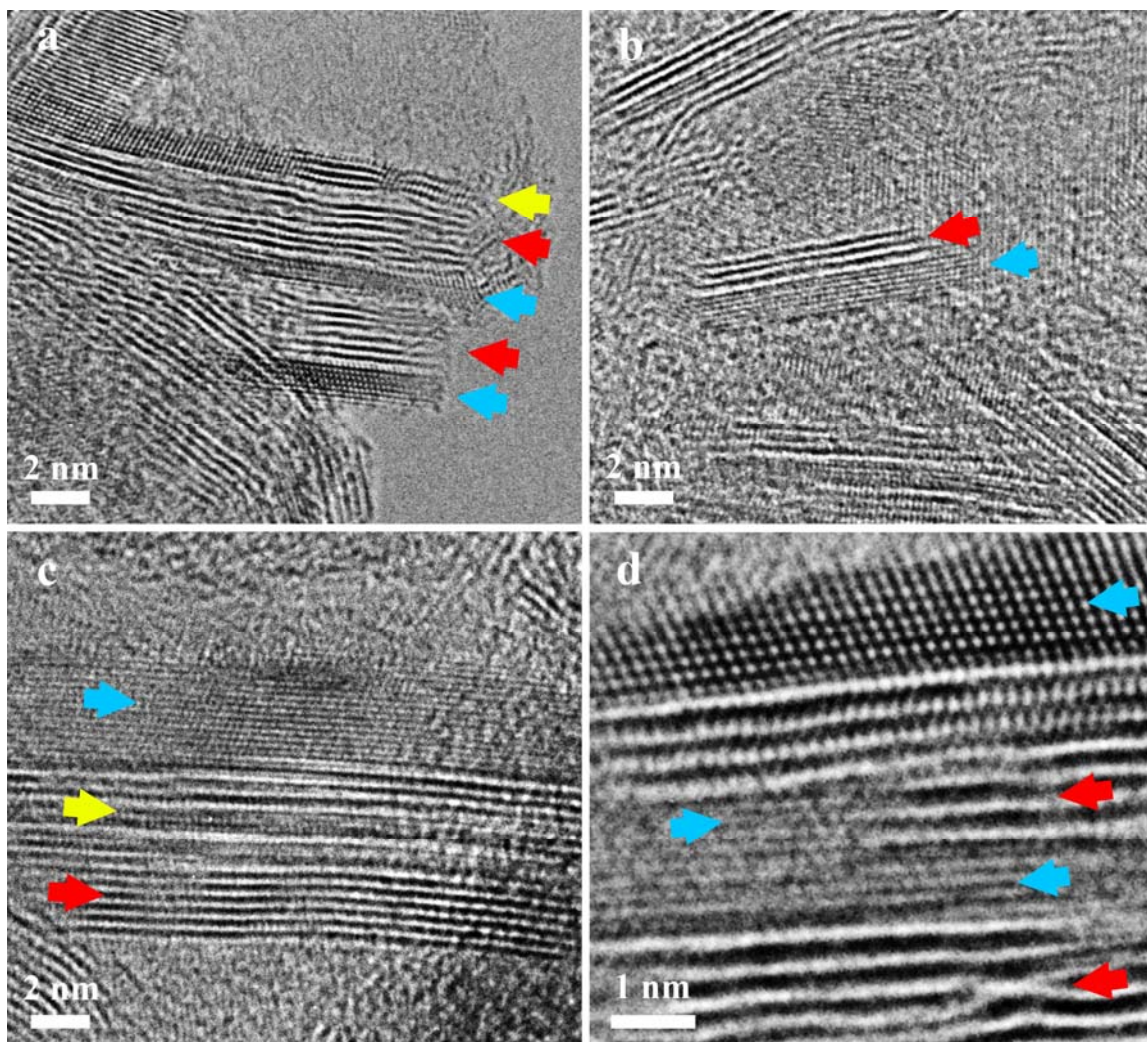


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309 **FIGURE 4.** Low-resolution TEM image of a cluster of graphite-diamond particles
310 **(a)**, with corresponding SAED pattern **(b)**, and EELS spectrum **(c)**. The arrows on
311 the TEM image point to individual graphite-diamond crystallites that are
312 oriented to show 0.35- (graphite) and 0.21- nm (diamond) fringes. The SAED
313 pattern was acquired from the whole region in **(a)** and shows rings for graphite
314 (subscript g) and diamond (subscript d). Only the most intense ring of 2H
315 graphite is indexed. The EELS spectrum was acquired from the area indicated by
316 the white circle in **(a)**. The EELS spectrum **(c)** shows a C K edge with a π^* peak
317 for graphite (peak 1), a composite graphite and diamond maximum (peak 2), and
318 maxima for diamond (peaks 3 and 4).
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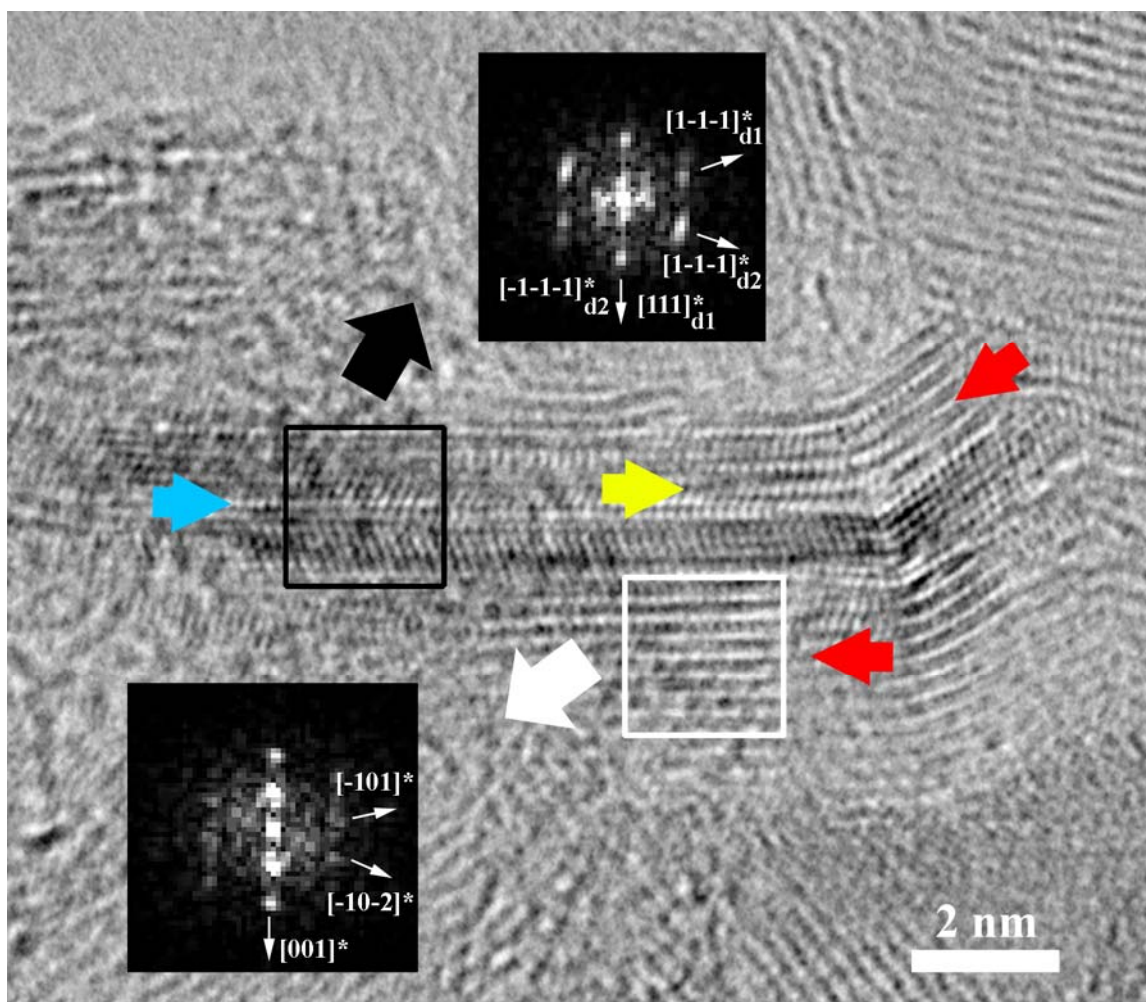
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324 **FIGURE 5.** Representative HRTEM images of individual graphite-diamond
325 crystallites. **(a)** Interstratified graphite (red arrows) and diamond (blue arrows).
326 The yellow arrow indicates where graphite (00 l) and diamond (111) fringes meet.
327 **(b)** Cluster of crystallites. **(c)** Crystallite showing clearly resolved graphite and
328 diamond fringes separated by layers with poorly resolved fringes (yellow
329 arrow). **(d)** Crystallite showing stacking of multiple layers of diamond and
330 graphite. This area shows the 0.206-nm (111 and 1-1-1) fringes of diamond near
331 the top of the image, where layers of graphite and diamond are superposed. This
332 crystallite shows the incomplete nature of the graphite-to-diamond transition.
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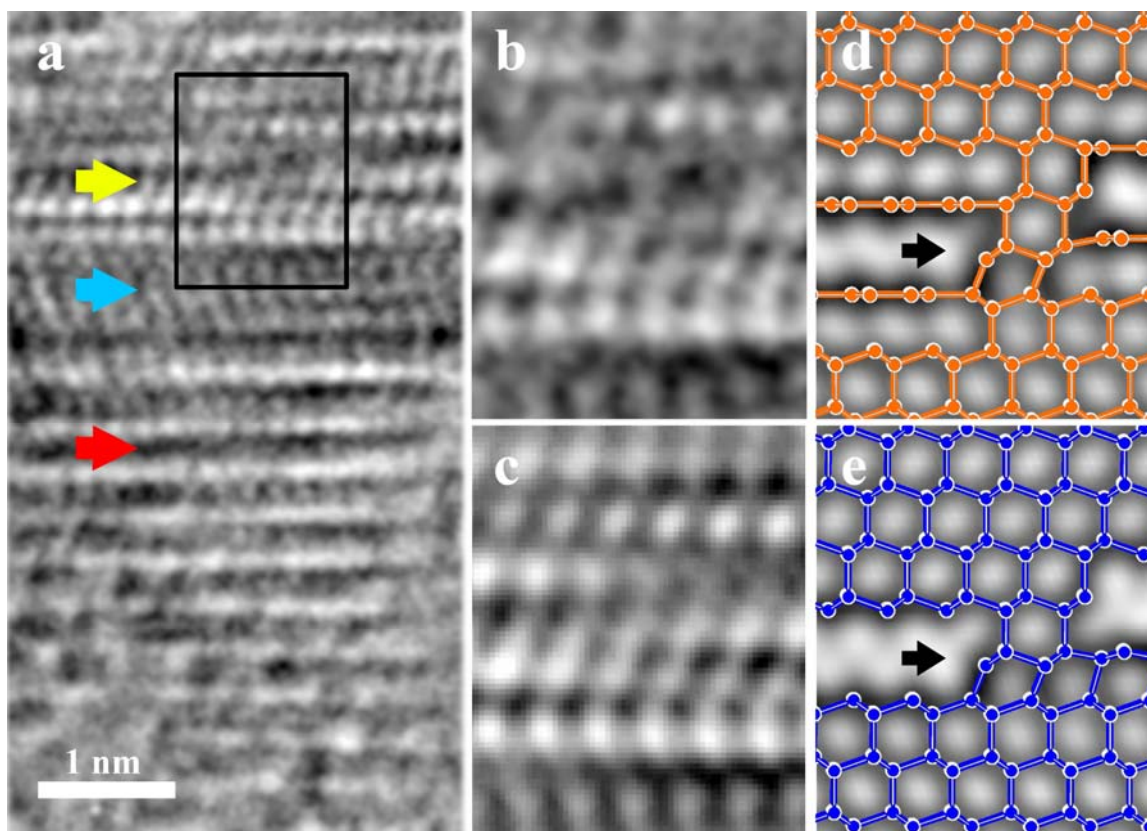
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337 **FIGURE 6.** HRTEM image of a graphite-diamond particle. The diffractograms for
338 the black- and white-boxed regions are indicated by the black and white arrows,
339 respectively. The diffractogram from the black-boxed region shows twinned
340 diamond (indices according to the two twin individuals: $d1$ and $d2$) along $[01-$
341 $1]_d$). The blue arrow lies parallel to the twin boundary. The diffractogram from
342 the white-boxed region shows 3R graphite along $[010]_g$. Red arrow - graphite,
343 blue arrow - diamond, and yellow arrow indicates where graphite (00 l) and
344 diamond (111) fringes meet.

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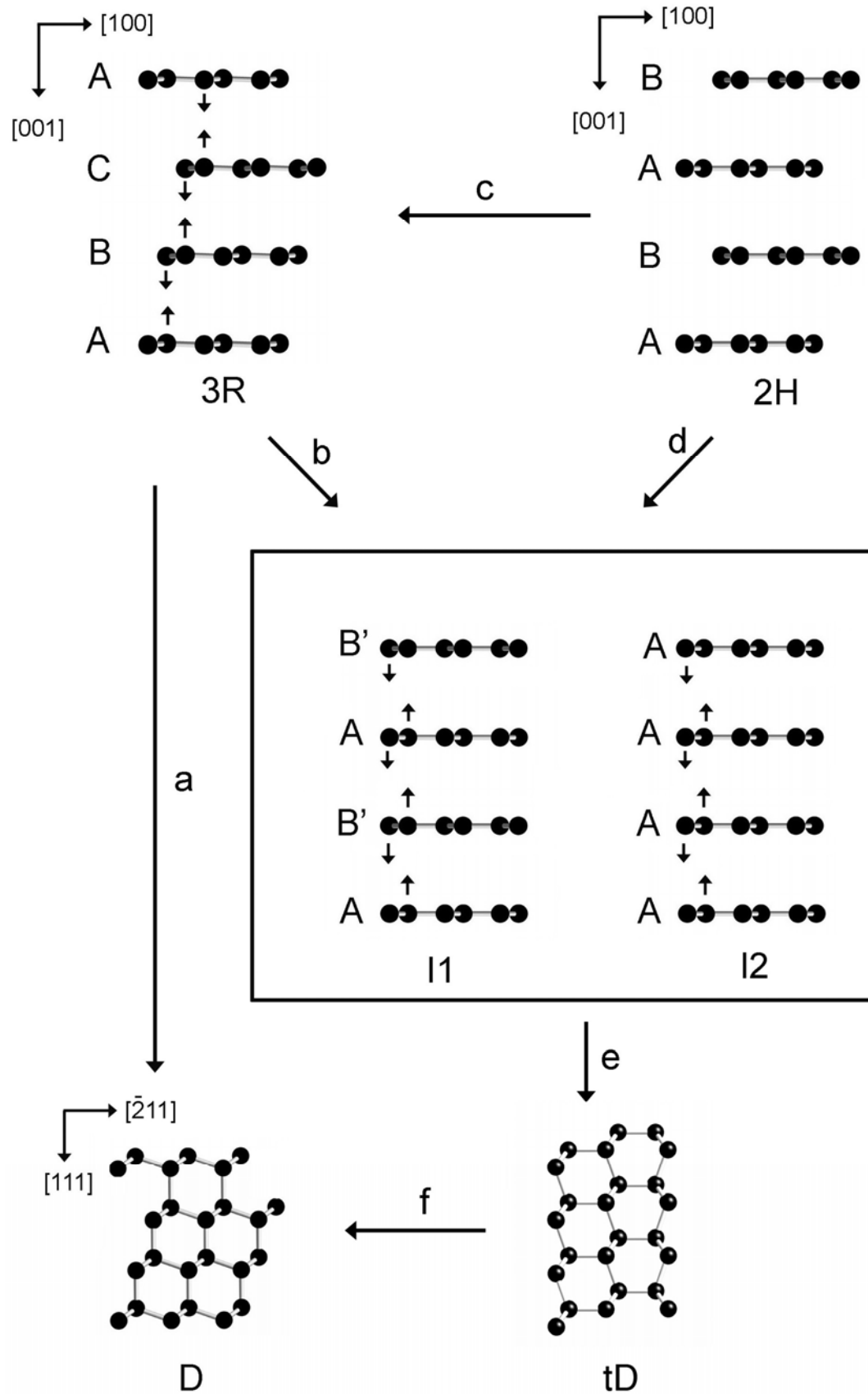
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FIGURE 7. Model of the graphite-diamond interface. **(a)** Enlarged area of the HRTEM image of a diamond-graphite particle (yellow arrowed region in Figure 6). Red arrow - graphite, blue arrow - diamond, and yellow arrow indicates where graphite (00 l) and diamond (111) fringes meet. **(b)** Magnified image of boxed area in **a**. **(c)** Background-filtered area of **b**. **(d)** and **(e)**, Structure models and simulated HRTEM images for area **c**. Colored circles mark C atoms. **(d)** Structure model of diamond and interlayered graphite with simulated HRTEM image. **(e)** Structure model of diamond and interlayered graphite-like layers (cf. areas of **d** and **e** indicated by black arrows). The spacing between the C doublets is 0.34 nm, equivalent to the 003 spacings of 3R graphite, but the C doublets have a puckered arrangement of diamond along [0-11].



364 **FIGURE 8.** Paths for 3R (ABC stacking) and 2H (AB stacking) graphite to
365 diamond (D) and twinned diamond (tD) transformations through buckling and
366 compressions of basal planes. 3R transforms to D without (path a) or through
367 intermediate (I1, I2) structures (path b). 2H transforms to diamond through
368 either 3R (path c) or intermediate structures (path d). During further transition,
369 I1 and I2 form tD (path e), which can transform to D (path f).

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Appendix 1

Derivation of the graphite to diamond transition matrices

For 2H graphite (g2H), we measured the following node overlaps, 003_g and 111_d, 300_g and 4-2-2_d, and 1-20_g and 0-22_d, and developed the matrix equations:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}_{g2H} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}_d$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}_{g2H} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ -2 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}_d$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}_{g2H} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}_d$$

Solving for a_{ij} gives the transition matrix for 2H graphite:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{4}{3} & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{-2}{3} & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{-2}{3} & \frac{-4}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 2 & 1 \\ -2 & 2 & 1 \\ -2 & -4 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

For 3R graphite (g3R), we measured the following node overlaps, 009_g and 222_d, 300_g and 4-2-2_d, and 1-20_g and 0-22_d, and developed the matrix equations:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 9 \end{pmatrix}_{g3R} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}_d$$

549
$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}_{g^{3R}} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ -2 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}_d$$

550
$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}_{g^{3R}} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}_d$$

551

552 Solving for a_{ij} gives the transition matrix for 3R graphite:

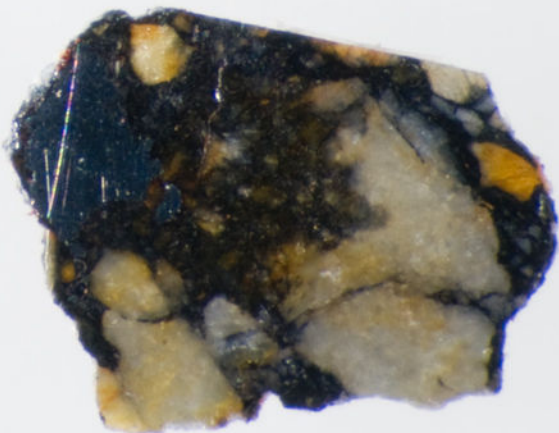
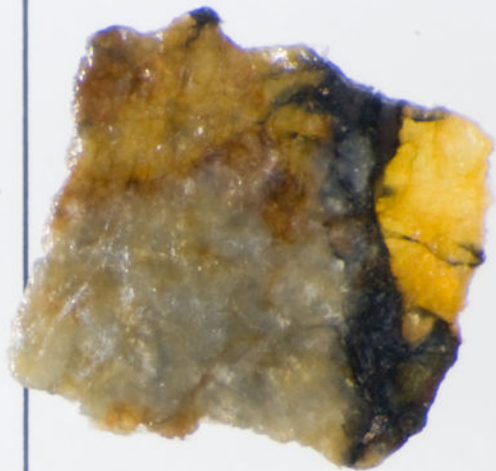
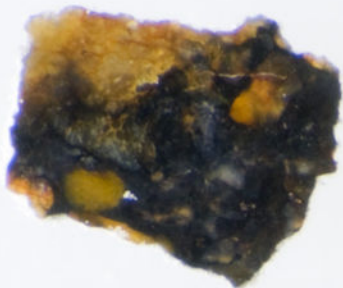
553

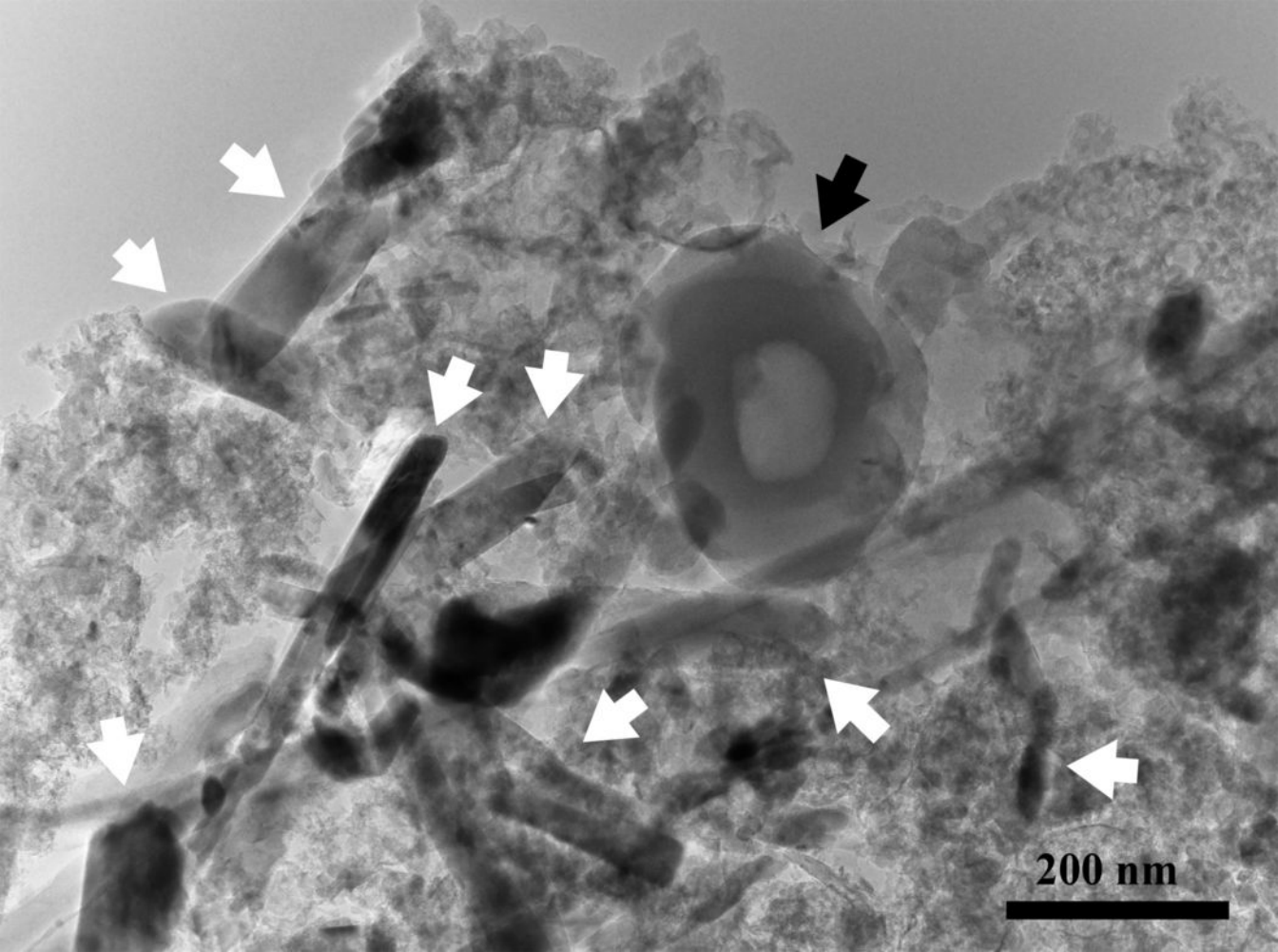
554
$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{4}{3} & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{2}{9} \\ \frac{-2}{3} & \frac{2}{3} & \frac{2}{9} \\ \frac{-2}{3} & \frac{-4}{3} & \frac{2}{9} \end{pmatrix} = \frac{2}{9} \begin{pmatrix} 6 & 3 & 1 \\ -3 & 3 & 1 \\ -3 & -4 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

555

556







200 nm

