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3 Atomistic simulation on mixing thermodynamics of calcite-smithsonite solid

4 solutions

- 5 Xin Liu, Xiancai Lu*, Xiandong Liu, Huiqun Zhou
- 6 State Key Laboratory for Mineral Deposit Research, School of Earth Sciences and
- 7 Engineering, Nanjing University, Nanjing Jiangsu, 210026, China
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- 10
- 11 * Corresponding author.
- 12 Email: xcljun@nju.edu.cn
- 13 Tel: +86 25 89681065
- 14 Fax: +86 25 89680703

15 ABSTRACT

16 By using atomistic simulation and configurational statistics techniques, the 17 thermodynamics of mixing for calcite-smithsonite solid solutions have been 18 investigated. By employing a $2 \times 2 \times 1$ supercell, the configuration with the lowest 19 energy for the solid solution with a certain composition was determined. The incorporated Zn^{2+} tends to occur at the sites neighboring to another substituted Zn^{2+} 20 21 within the (0001) layer, but the substituted layers are preferentially segregated by 22 calcite layers, and vice versa. The supercells with compositions around the two end 23 members stand positive enthalpies at any temperatures, whereas those supercells with 24 composition of about $Ca_{0.5}Zn_{0.5}CO_3$ prominently exhibit negative values in various 25 temperatures of reality (e.g. <1000 K). The free energies are prominently negative at 26 high temperatures (>1500 K) for the whole range of compositions, only those around 27 both end members have positive values at some low temperatures (≤ 1200 K). In the 28 derived phase relations of this solid solution system, the potential incorporation 29 content of $ZnCO_3$ into calcite is only 0-2.5% mole fraction (i.e. Zn content of 0-1.6 30 wt%) in most geochemistry equilibrium processes, and vice versa.

31

32 Keywords: calcite-smithsonite, solid solution, mixing thermodynamics, atomistic33 simulation

34 INTRODUCTION

Calcite can incorporate many divalent cations (e.g. Zn²⁺, Mn²⁺, Cd²⁺, Fe²⁺, Sr²⁺, 35 and Mg^{2+}) at the Ca²⁺ positions due to their similar ionic radii and bonding properties 36 (Hume-Rothery et al. 1969), thus there are a series of solid solutions with calcite 37 38 structure in nature. Calcite and its isomorphs are important in many fields, such as 39 geo-sequestration of carbon dioxide (Herzog 2001; Bickle 2009; Matter and Kelemen 40 2009), nuclear waste repository (Curti 1999; Curti et al. 2005; Zavarin et al. 2005), 41 bio-mineralization (Sarret et al. 2007; Isaure et al. 2010), and so on. The calcite-structured solid solution with substitution of Zn^{2+} is commonly found in 42 43 weathering or oxidized products of Zn-bearing rocks or zinc ores (Boni et al. 2007; 44 Coppola et al. 2008; Balassone et al. 2008; Boni et al. 2009; Mondillo et al. 2011). 45 Smithsonite is the end member of fully Zn-substituted calcite, and its crystallographic 46 parameters are similar to those of calcite. As new sphalerite mines are becoming more 47 difficult to find, new processes are being developed to produce Zn metal from 48 oxidized Zn ores, which have long been an important alternative source of Zn after 49 sulfides (Zhao and Stanforth, 2000; Espiari et al., 2006; Navidi Kashani and Rashchi, 50 2008; Irannajad et al., 2009; Mehdilo et al., 2013) and have been found in carbonate 51 forms in different parts of the world, such as China, Iran, Yemen, Peru, and so on 52 (Boni et al., 2007; Feng et al., 2007; Balassone et al., 2008; Coppola et al., 2008; Boni 53 et al., 2009; Chen et al., 2009; Li et al., 2010; Shi et al., 2012; Shi et al., 2013).

54 The substitution of Zn into calcite have been studied experimentally and

55	theoretically. But the content of substituted Zn in calcite is thought as limited, and
56	vice versa, due to approximately 26% difference of ionic radii between Zn^{2+} (0.74 Å)
57	and Ca^{2+} (1.00 Å) (Shannon 1976). Crocket and Winchester (1966) experimentally
58	studied the coprecipitation of Zn with calcium carbonate and found that smithsonite is
59	less soluble than calcite or aragonite, and trace Zn in geofluids tends to be
60	coprecipitated with calcium carbonate in nature. Based on their experimental data and
61	a binary regular solid solution model, Glynn and Reardon (1990) found the free
62	energy of mixing (ΔG_M) is negative across the whole range and further determined a
63	symmetric miscibility gap between $Ca_{0.8}Zn_{0.2}CO_3$ and $Ca_{0.2}Zn_{0.8}CO_3.$ In fact, the
64	maximum incorporation of Zn into calcite are considerately low from both natural and
65	synthesized samples (Reeder 1983). Natural calcite with a Zn content higher than
66	1wt% has seldom been reported yet. Reeder and his colleagues measured five
67	Zn-bearing synthesized and natural calcite, and found the Zn content ranges from 245
68	to 1200 ppm (Lamble et al. 1997; Reeder et al. 1999). Temmam et al. (2000) reported
69	two samples of calcite from coprecipitation experiments, one has a Zn content no
70	more than 2000 ppm and the other is Zn-rich with a maximum incorporation up to 1.4
71	wt% which had been considered as a separate phase and affected by the incorporation
72	of Mn. However, the bio-mineralized calcites can accommodate high substituted Zn.
73	For example, calcite precipitation with extremely high contents of Zn up to 7.71 wt%
74	and Mn was found in a bacteria mediated tufa deposition on the wall of a subsurface
75	lane in a Pb-Zn mine by electron microprobe analysis (EMPA) (Liu et al. 2009).

76	Sarret et al. (2007) also found calcites with high Zn contents up to 8.22 wt% in
77	tobacco leaves. There are also a few reports on the incorporation of Ca^{2^+} into
78	smithsonite with a maximum content of 1.04 wt% and some extreme high values up
79	to 8.5 wt% accompanied by a high contents of Fe (Boni et al. 2007; Balassone et al.
80	2008; Coppola et al. 2008; Boni et al. 2009). In fact, by using common instrumental
81	measurements like EMPA, the measured content of an impurity element does not
82	always represent the incorporation into the lattice of a certain solid solution mineral
83	because there are sometimes "invisible" nanosized mineral inclusions, narrow
84	zonations, nanotextured exsolusions, intergrowths in natural samples generally
85	extending well below the spot size of the electron probe beam (Cook et al. 2009, 2011;
86	Ciobanu et al. 2011)
87	At present, rapid development of molecular simulation has made it a promising

88 alternative strategy to experimental methods for investigation of physical-chemical 89 properties of substitutions in minerals at the atomic level (Vinograd and Sluiter 2006; 90 Vinograd et al. 2006b; Vinograd et al. 2007b; Vinograd et al. 2008; Vinograd et al. 91 2007c). For thermodynamic studies of solid solution, employment of molecular 92 simulation can avoid the effects of unknown kinetic factors. By using interatomic 93 potential models, the mixing energy and substitution behaviors of calcite-structured 94 solid solutions have been studied (Vinograd et al. 2006a, 2007a, 2009; Wang and de 95 Leeuw 2008; Wang et al. 2011). By integrating with the previously proposed "cluster 96 expansion" method (Connolly and Williams 1983; Sanchez et al. 1984), the excess

97	mixing properties of alloys can be accurately predicted from atomistic level. In this
98	method, the energy of each configuration of a specific supercell can be calculated
99	from each pairwise interactions energy, J (Becker et al. 2000; Reich and Becker 2006;
100	Ferriss et al. 2010; Renock and Becker 2011). For the calculation of J , Vinograd et al.
101	(2009) proposed a double-defect method (DDM), which have shown high
102	performance (Jung et al. 2010; Kulik et al. 2010; Vinograd et al. 2010a, 2010b;
103	Vinograd and Winkler 2010). The Js calculation is conducive to predict the most
104	stable configuration of a supercell. In recent years, by using a configurational
105	statistics method developed by Grau-Crespo et al. (2004, 2007), the most
106	thermodynamically stable configuration as well as other thermodynamic properties
107	can be obtained (Wang and de Leeuw 2008; Ruiz-Hernandez et al. 2010; Grau-Crespo
108	et al. 2011; Wang et al. 2011; Haider et al. 2012). This method is based on the
109	calculation of all inequivalent site occupancy configurations in a relevant small
110	supercell. However, because there are actually substantive inequivalent configurations
111	in a large supercell the computational cost of this method will dramatically increase
112	for a relatively lager supercell. So, a series of supercells with different sizes should be
113	tested for the convergence and computational cost with respect to supercell size.
114	In this study, the thermodynamics of mixings in calcite-smithsonite solid solution
115	were calculated by using both DDM and configurational statistics methods. A series
116	of substituted $2 \times 2 \times 1$, $3 \times 3 \times 1$, and $4 \times 4 \times 1$ supercells of calcite/smithsonite with
117	24, 54, and 96 replaceable cation sites were considered, respectively. Thermodynamic

properties, such as enthalpy, entropy, and free energy of mixing, were obtained. Then, 119 11 *Js* respectively for calcite and smithsonite were calculated by employing DDM and 120 $a \ 3 \times 3 \times 1$ supercell. Thus, the most stable configurations with a certain composition 121 can be obtained and explained by combining the entropy of mixing with *Js*. Finally, 122 we derived phase relations from free energy isotherms with common tangent analysis, 123 from which we can estimate the maximum content of substituted cation in 124 calcite-smithsonite solid solution at a specific temperature.

125

METHODS

126 Force field

127 This study used the interatomic potentials (Table 1) developed for carbonate 128 minerals (Rohl et al. 2003; Austen et al. 2005), which accurately reproduce the cell 129 parameters, elastic constants and bulk moduli in simulations of phase relations of the 130 rhombohedral carbonates solid solutions (Vinograd et al. 2007a, 2009, 2010b). Based 131 on the Born model of solids (Born et al. 1954), this force field considers two kinds of 132 interactions between ions, i.e. long-rang interactions by electrostatic forces and 133 short-rang interactions. The short-rang van der Waals interactions are described by a 134 Buckingham potential. Two-, three-, and four-body potentials are used to model the covalent interactions within a CO_3^{2-} group, which are in forms of Morse potential, 135 136 three-body angular potential, and out-of-plane potential, respectively. The electronic polarizability of oxygen in CO_3^{2-} is modeled via a core-shell model (Dick Jr and 137 138 Overhauser 1958), in which each polarizable ion has a core and a massless shell,

139 connected by a spring potential. The program GULP (Gale 1997, 2005; Gale and Rohl

140 2003) were used for static lattice energy calculations.

The cell parameters and bulk moduli of calcite and smithsonite calculated with the selected force field are listed in Table 2. Compared with the experimental data (Dandekar and Ruoff 1968; Graf 1961; Zhang and Reeder 1999), the deviation is mostly below 1.2% except bulk modulus of calcite, which is overestimated by 5.6% also within a reasonable range.

146 Supercells

147 Considering a certain composition of a supercell including numbers of conventional hexagonal unit cells, Ca^{2+} and Zn^{2+} ions can be arranged in various ways, and thus the 148 149 supercell presents a large number of configurations. By using a SOD (site occupancy 150 disorder) program developed by Grau-Crespo et al. (2007), the symmetrically 151 inequivalent configurations of solid solution with a certain composition can be 152 extracted by a set of symmetry operators of the parent structure. Assuming zero 153 external pressure and ignoring vibrational contributions because of its little 154 contributions (Benny et al. 2009; Ruiz-Hernandez et al. 2010; Wang et al. 2011), static 155 lattice energy of each symmetrically inequivalent configuration was obtained through 156 geometry optimizations with GULP package. In the optimizations, we carried out 157 constant pressure energy minimization calculations, in which both the cell parameters 158 and ion positions are allowed to vary.

159 In this study, we considered cation substitutions in $2 \times 2 \times 1$, $3 \times 3 \times 1$, and $4 \times 4 \times 1$

160	1 supercells of calcite/smithsonite with 24, 54, and 96 replaceable cation sites,
161	respectively. Because the c of the cell is big enough to exclude the interactions
162	between the cations in neighboring cells, we only extended the a , b axes to 2 or 3
163	times of themselves. With SOD program, the reduced configurational space of
164	calcite-smithsonite solid solutions with different substitution was derived and
165	presented in Table 3. For the 3 \times 3 \times 1 and 4 \times 4 \times 1 supercells, the configurations for
166	highly substituted compositions of $Zn_xCa_{1-x}CO_3$ were not calculated due to the
167	expensive computational cost. According to the reported composition of calcite-
168	smithsonite solid solutions, $0.093 < x < 0.907$ of $3 \times 3 \times 1$ supercells, $0.042 < x < 0.958$
169	of $4 \times 4 \times 1$ supercells were not considered here.

170 **Configurational statistics**

171 The static lattice energies of all symmetrically inequivalent configurations 172 calculated by using GULP can be presented as a configurational energetic spectrum 173 for a certain composition. Since the configurations of lower energy are more stable 174 thermodynamically for a particular composition, the probabilities of occurrence for 175 each single configuration are weighted by a Boltzmann factor $exp(-E/k_BT)$ (k_B is 176 Boltzmann's constant) for a given temperature T (Yeomans 1992). From the lattice 177 energy E_m (m=1,...,M,M is the number of inequivalent configurations) calculated by 178 GULP and the configuration degeneracy Ω_m (characterizing the occurred times of 179 each inequivalent configuration in the complete configurational space), we can obtain 180 the probability of occurrence (Grau-Crespo et al. 2004, 2007; Wang et al. 2011):

181
$$P_m = \frac{\Omega_m}{Z} \exp(-E_m / k_B T) \qquad \text{Eq.1}$$

182 where *Z* is the configurational partition function:

183
$$Z = \sum_{m=0}^{M} \Omega_m \exp(-E_m / k_B T)$$
 Eq.2

184 The configurational free energy G per formula unit at each composition can be 185 obtained directly from the partition function:

$$186 \qquad G = -\frac{1}{N}k_{B}T\ln Z \qquad \text{Eq.3}$$

where *N* is the number of formula units in a supercell. Since we have assumed zero external pressure and have ignored vibrational contributions to the energy, the enthalpy is simply the energy of each configuration (E_m). Then the enthalpy for each composition can be estimated from configurational space averaging:

191
$$H = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{m=1}^{M} P_m H_m = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{m=1}^{M} P_m E_m$$
 Eq.4

Any average observable *A* for each composition, e.g. cell parameters, can be obtainedby the same course:

194
$$A = \sum_{m=1}^{M} P_m A_m \qquad \text{Eq.5}$$

195 Then the entropy *S* can be calculated from the enthalpy and free energy:

196
$$S = \frac{H-G}{T}$$
 Eq.6

197 It has been confirmed that the convergence of free energy and entropy of solid 198 solution supercells is much slower than enthalpy (Todorov et al. 2004; Wang et al. 199 2011). In this study, we employed three sizes of supercells to test the convergence and 200 found that a $2 \times 2 \times 1$ supercell is sufficient to ensure adequate convergence in all 201 compositions for enthalpy, but is not large enough for free energy and entropy. 202 Therefore, the entropies here are only used to discuss the degree of disorder of 203 substitution in solid solutions. The difference between the fully disordered entropy of 204 a given supercell with a particular composition $[S_{max}(x,N)]$ and the ideal fully 205 disordered entropy of a continuous lattice with same composition $[S_{ideal}(x)]$ can be 206 used to assess the degree of convergence of entropies with the size of the supercell. 207 Both entropies can be calculated by the follow functions:

208
$$S_{max}(x, N) = \frac{1}{N} k_B \ln \frac{N!}{[Nx]![N(1-x)]!}$$
 Eq.7

209
$$S_{ideal}(x) = \lim_{N \to \infty} S_{max}(x, N) = -k_B[x \ln x + (1-x)\ln(1-x)]$$
 Eq.8

210 **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

211 Energy spectra and probability distribution of configurations

212 For each supercell with different composition, the inequivalent configurations were 213 calculated and listed in Table 3. The static lattice energy of each inequivalent 214 configuration was calculated and summarized in an energy spectra. All the 215 compositions have very wide configurational spectra except only 1 substitution in a 216 supercell due to the only inequivalent configuration. For example, Fig. 1 shows the 217 static lattice energy spectra and the distribution of all the configurations with the 218 composition of $Ca_{0.5}Zn_{0.5}CO_3$ in a 2 \times 2 \times 1 supercell, where all the energies have 219 subtracted the lowest-energy. The maximum energy difference between different 220 supercell configurations of Ca_{0.5}Zn_{0.5}CO₃ is approximately 413 kJ/mol (Fig. 1). It is

clear that there are enormous numbers of configurations with energy of 200 kJ/mol < E < 360 kJ/mol after considering the degeneracy. As taking the Boltzmann factor into account, the lowest-energy configuration contribute the highest weight and the others even can be ignored at low temperatures, but at higher temperatures (normally >800 K) its contribution decreases while others' contribution increases (Fig. 2).

226 Entropy and the most stable configurations

227 Configurational entropy is a quantitative parameter used to measure the degree of 228 ion ordering. Fig. 3a shows the variation of the maximum entropy (Eq. 7, high 229 temperature limit) with respect to different supercell sizes. The dash line represents 230 the configurational entropy of an ideal fully disordered system, i.e. the fully 231 disordered entropy with respect to an infinite supercell (Eq. 8). The configurational 232 entropy is not converged well for all used supercells with various sizes $(2 \times 2 \times 1, 3 \times 1)$ 233 3×1 and $4 \times 4 \times 1$ supercells). For example, the configurational entropies at high 234 temperature limit for all supercells have clear deviation from that of the ideal fully 235 disordered system, approximately 11.0%, 6.0%, and 3.8% for Ca_{0.5}Zn_{0.5}CO₃ of 2×2 236 \times 1, 3 \times 3 \times 1, and 4 \times 4 \times 1 supercells, respectively (Fig. 3a). Although the 237 convergence is not sufficient, configurational entropy is still a good measure for 238 evaluating the degree of ion ordering in equilibrated systems.

Fig. 3b shows the variation of mixing entropy isotherms based on the calculation of a $2 \times 2 \times 1$ supercell with Eq. 6, where the dash line represent the high temperature limit of this supercell size. Fig. 3b indicates significant ordering as temperature is below 1500 K for various compositions. Even at high temperatures (>2500 K), ion ordering in $Ca_{0.5}Zn_{0.5}CO_3$ is also evident. Except the composition of 1/24 or 23/24 substitution in a 2 × 2 × 1 supercell due to only one inequivalent substitution site, there are many inequivalent configurations for all other compositions, and then configurational entropy increases with temperature to fully disordered states.

247 The most stable configuration (i.e. with the lowest energy in configurational spectra) 248 for each composition is closely consistent with the ordering of ion substitution. From 249 the most stable configurations for x=1/6, 1/3, and 1/2 of $2 \times 2 \times 1$ supercell shown in Fig. 4, it is clear that the incorporated Zn^{2+} tends to occur at the sites neighboring to 250 another mixed Zn^{2+} within a (0001) layer, but the substituted layer will be segregated 251 252 by pure calcite layers. Particularly, the most stable configuration of Ca_{0.5}Zn_{0.5}CO₃ is 253 the same to the structure of minrecordite (Fig. 4c), where layers of smithsonite and 254 calcite alternate along the c axis. Such structures also coincide with $(Mn,Ca)CO_3$ solid 255 solutions previously disclosed by experimental study (Katsikopoulos et al. 2009) and 256 simulations (Wang et al. 2011).

257 A cluster expansion method based on calculation of excess energy of a binary 258 $(A_xB_{1-x})R$ solid solution by Eq. 9 has been used to illustrate substituting behavior.

$$259 \qquad \Delta E = \sum_{n} f_{AB(n)} J_n \qquad \text{Eq.9}$$

where $f_{AB(n)}$ is half the number of pairs clusters of AB type at the *n*th distance within the supercell, and J_n is the effective pair interaction at the *n*th distance. J_n can be predicted via a mechanical mixture of J_{Ca} and J_{Zn} which can be easily derived with

263 DDM (Vinograd et al. 2009).

264
$$J_n = xJ_{Zn} + (1-x)J_{Ca}$$
 Eq.10

265 The importance of J_s decreases with the pair distance, and two important J_s 266 correspond to the distance 4.048 Å and 4.99 Å (Fig. 5), which represent the distance 267 of the nearest cation pairs from two neighbor layers and within a layer, respectively. 268 Js of these nearest pairs within a layer is positive, whereas those for interlayer pairs 269 are negative. Because the structure shown in Figure 4c permits the most cation pairs 270 of distance 4.048 Å and the least cation pairs of 4.99 Å, its ΔE , the sum of Eq. 9, is 271 the lowest, and thus it is the most stable configuration. So, a simple interaction model 272 for all compositions can be proposed, i.e. Zn-Zn (or Ca-Ca) interactions are favorable 273 within a (0001) layer but unfavorable between layers, and Zn-Ca is the opposite.

274

Mixing enthalpy and free energy

The enthalpy and free energy of mixing can be calculated from the follow equations:

277
$$\Delta H_{mix} = H[Zn_xCa_{1-x}CO_3] - xH[ZnCO_3] - (1-x)H[CaCO_3]$$
Eq.11

278
$$\Delta G_{mix} = G[\operatorname{Zn}_{x}\operatorname{Ca}_{1-x}\operatorname{CO}_{3}] - xG[\operatorname{ZnCO}_{3}] - (1-x)G[\operatorname{CaCO}_{3}] \qquad \text{Eq.12}$$

where $H[Zn_xCa_{1-x}CO_3]$, $G[Zn_xCa_{1-x}CO_3]$ is the enthalpy and free energy of Zn_xCa_{1-x}CO_3 calculated with Eq.3 and Eq.4 based on configurational statistics method, and $H[ZnCO_3]$, $G[ZnCO_3]$ and $H[CaCO_3]$, $G[CaCO_3]$ are for pure calcite and smithsonite. Here, the average lattice energy is thought equal to the actual enthalpies because the vibrational contribution to mixing enthalpies (~1%) is too little to be accounted (Benny et al. 2009; Ruiz-Hernandez et al. 2010; Wang et al. 2011).

285 For $2 \times 2 \times 1$ supercell model, the enthalpy isotherms at a set of temperatures from 286 273.15 K to 3000 K, were calculated as well as the enthalpy isotherm at the high 287 temperature limit (Fig. 6), at which all configurations are only weighted by their 288 degeneracies regardless of the Boltzmann factor. At the high temperature limit, the 289 enthalpy for the whole range of composition are positive. But, at finite temperatures 290 (< 2000 K), the enthalpies of highly substituted solid solutions decrease to negative 291 values. Although the calcite-smithsonite solid solutions at higher temperature are not 292 real cases, theoretically the corresponding configurations perhaps occur in some 293 non-equilibrated systems (Wang et al. 2011). At temperatures of reality, there are 5 294 local enthalpy minima at ZnCO₃ mole fraction of 1/6, 1/3, 1/2, 2/3, and 5/6 295 respectively, which is attributed to the reduced lattice energy caused by partial 296 ordering of substituted cations in the supercell. It is clear that the enthalpies of 297 compositions with x > 0.5 are higher than those with x < 0.5, thus all the isotherms are 298 asymmetric.

The free energies are prominent negative at high temperatures (>1500 K) for the whole composition range (Fig. 7). But at lower temperatures (<1200 K), the solid solutions with 1/3 < x < 2/3 still stand negative free energies while those around both end members have positive values at some low temperatures (<1200 K). Similarly to the enthalpy, there are also 5 local minima at *x*=1/6, 1/3, 1/2, 2/3, and 5/6 respectively due to the separately distribution of only fully Zn-substituted layers in these solid solutions. The asymmetry of free energy isotherms and enthalpy implies that a substitution of Zn^{2+} into calcite costs less energy than Ca^{2+} into smithsonite because substituting a smaller cation (Zn^{2+}) into a site occupied by large cation is generally easier than a reverse process (Goldsmith 1983). Also, a smaller cation (Zn^{2+}) substituting a large cation generally causes less elastic strain in the lattice (McLean 1957; de Leeuw and Parker 2000; de Leeuw 2002).

311 Cell parameters

From the configurational spectrum of a $2 \times 2 \times 1$ supercell, the cell parameter *c* and volume *V* can be obtained directly by configurational average of the c_m and V_m by using Eq. 5. However, the rotational symmetry of the hexagonal cell may be broken because the direct average of a_m may be different from the direct average of b_m . So, here a modified equation (Eq. 13) was used to calculate cell parameters.

317
$$a = \left(\sum_{m=1}^{M} P_m \mid a_m \times b_m \mid\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$
 Eq.13

where $|a_m \times b_m|$ is a constant within a set of equivalent configurations. The cell 318 319 parameters and volume vary with composition (Fig. 8). The a, c, and volume of unit cell decrease with Zn^{2+} substitution increasing because the ionic radius of Zn^{2+} is 320 smaller than Ca^{2+} . But as shown in Fig. 8b and 8d, only *a* shows a linear correlation 321 322 with composition, which is in accord with Vegard's Law (West 1984). Whereas, c and 323 V have a significant deviation from the mechanical mixture, especially the 324 composition of Ca_{0.5}Zn_{0.5}CO₃, suggesting that partial ordering of substituted cations 325 in the supercell prominently affects those parameters.

326 **Phase relationship**

327 The phase relations of calcite-smithsonite solid solution can be derived from the 328 free energy isotherms with common tangent analysis (Vinograd et al. 2007a, 2009). 329 The solid solution with composition $Zn_xCa_{1-x}CO_3$ is unstable or metastable if there is 330 a pair of compositions has lower mechanical mixture free energy $E_{\min a,b}$ (here $a \le x \le b$). 331 Thus, the phase diagram for this system can be outlined and two miscibility gaps 332 separated by minrecordite field were disclosed (Fig. 9). The phase diagram is exactly 333 similar to other carbonate solid solutions (Vinograd et al. 2007a, 2009). It is clear that 334 the phase diagram is asymmetric, at a certain temperature the incorporated Zn into 335 calcite is higher than Ca into smithsonite, which is consistent again with that substitution of Zn^{2+} into calcite costs less energy than Ca^{2+} into smithsonite. 336

337 Because calcite is the most common carbonate mineral in nature and many trace 338 metal elements generally accommodate into its lattice, incorporating capacity of 339 heavy metals into calcite have attracted high attentions. There are lots of reports on 340 Zn-bearing calcite in literatures while little data about Ca-bearing smithsonite. From 341 the phase diagram, especially the data around two end members, we can get the result 342 that the content of Zn in calcite is very low (about 1.6 wt% at 600 K), and vice versa 343 (about 0.48 wt% at 600 K). It coincides with the experimental results 250-1200 ppm 344 of synthetic Zn-containing calcites (Lamble et al. 1997; Reeder et al. 1999), but is 345 weakly consistent with some other data of coprecipitation calcite by EPMA (Temmam 346 et al. 2000), in which the content of Zn can be up to 14700 ppm. In addition, it seems

347	inconsistent with the content of Zn up to 7.71 wt% in calcite (Liu et al. 2009). But it
348	should be noticed that all the high Zn contents are positively correlated with high Mn
349	contents . That is to say, the incorporation of Mn may enhance the substitution of Zn
350	(Temmam et al. 2000). On the other hand, most of the experimental content of Ca in
351	natural smithsonite by EPMA based on natural Ca-bearing smithsonite (Boni et al.
352	2007, 2009; Balassone et al. 2008; Coppola et al. 2008) are under the theoretical
353	maximum content derived from Fig. 9. We checked the data which are not consistent
354	with the theoretical estimation and again found that they are more or less affected by
355	incorporation of other elements, e.g. Fe and Pb.
356	Ciobanu et al. (2011) and his colleagues suggested that there may form
357	nanoparticles (<100 nm) or nano-scale lamellae during replacement processes of the

358 formation of mineral solid solutions, and disordered intergrowths between two end 359 mineral members maybe occur. Both heterogeneous phenomena can only be 360 visualized by transmission electron microscope (TEM) and focussed ion 361 beam-scanning electron microscopy (FIB-SEM), and the normally invisible phases 362 which are rich in exotic elements, will lead to high contents of incorporated impurity, 363 which is measured as locally homogeneous by normal experimental analysis 364 techniques like EMPA or in situ LA-ICPMS (Cook et al. 2009). Besides, some 365 coexisting substitutions, for example, the incorporation of Zn and Mn into calcite, Au 366 and As into pyrite (Chen et al. 2013), Ag and Sb into galena (Renock and Becker 367 2011), occur in the growth process of natural minerals, which can lead to higher 368 content of both two elements.

IMPLICATIONS

As calcite can accommodate various metals by calcium ion substitution. Zinc is a common element found in calcite as well as calcium in smithsonite. But, the substituting capacity and thermodynamically favored structures have not been well disclosed up to date. This study presents a simulation study on the thermodynamics of mixing of calcite-smithsonite solid solutions

Based on static calculation of all independent configurations of calcite-smithsonite solid solution with different compositions, substitutions within a (0001) cation layer are thermodynamically favored. Such phenomenon may be universal in all carbonates. It also confirms that the structures similar to dolomite are stable phases of carbonate solid solutions, where layers of two different cations regularly alternate along the caxis. Furthermore, other solid solutions only with completely replaced layers may be metastable phases.

383 The derived phase diagram and thermodynamic properties in this study can highlight 384 studies on various issues although the present data may be slightly scattered. Firstly, 385 the thermodynamic calculation will help the investigation of element partitioning 386 between aqueous solution and solid solution systems. Secondly, the diagram can be 387 used to discern the equilibrium maximum content of impurity ions under given 388 condition, or to give a constraint on crystallization temperatures and/or solution 389 chemistry. New geological thermometers may be found based on the detailed 390 investigation of mineral solid solutions. Meanwhile, if the content of impurity in a

391	mineral grain is much higher than the equilibrium maximum content discerned from					
392	the phase diagram, effects from crystallization environment, other impurity elements					
393	and/or exsolution in nano-scale or nanoparticle inclusions, which cannot be					
394	distinguished by common instrumental techniques, should be considered first.					
395	In addition, this study further confirms that computer simulation is an available					
396	method for thermodynamic study on solid solutions when experimental study is					
397	scarce.					

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606 Figure captions

6	n	7
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608	FIGURE 1. The static lattice energy spectra and the distribution of all the			
609	configurations with the composition of Ca_{0.5}Zn_{0.5}CO_3 in a 2 \times 2 \times 1 supercell.			
610				
611	FIGURE 2. Probabilities of the lowest 6 independent configurations of $Zn_{0.5}Ca_{0.5}CO_3$			
612	and their summation with respect to temperature.			
613				
614	FIGURE 3. (a) Variation of the maximum entropy(high temperature limit) with			
615	respect to different cell sizes. The dash line represents the configurational entropy of			
616	an ideal fully disordered system. (b) Variation of the mixing entropy isotherms for the			
617	$2 \times 2 \times 1$ supercell. The dash line represents the high temperature limit of this			
618	supercell size.			
619				
620	FIGURE 4. The most stable configurations for $x=1/6$, $1/3$ and $1/2$ of $2 \times 2 \times 1$			
621	supercell. 4c is the same to the structure of minrecordite.			
622				
623	FIGURE 5. The values of the effective pair interactions Js derived with DDM			
624	(Vinograd et al. 2009) with respect to distance of the two interactive cations. Two lines			
625	represent Js of the two end members, calcite and smithsonite, respectively.			
626				
627	FIGURE 6. The enthalpy isotherms at a set of temperatures from 273.15 K to 3000 K			
628	and the high temperature limit as a function of mole fraction of ZnCO3 for the 2 \times 2 \times			
629	1 supercell.			

- **FIGURE 7.** The free energy isotherms at a set of temperatures from 273.15 K to 3000
- 632 K as a function of mole fraction of $ZnCO_3$ for the $2 \times 2 \times 1$ supercell.
- **FIGURE 8.** Variation of the cell parameters and volume with composition, and the
- 635 deviation of the cell parameters and volume from the mechanical mixture.

FIGURE 9. Phase diagram derived from the free energy isotherms with common

638 tangent analysis.

Coulombic	Charge			
Ca , Zn	2.00			
С	1.34			
O core	1.02			
O shell	-2.13			
Buckingham	A(eV)	ho(Å)	$C(eV \cdot Å^6)$	Cutoff(Å)
O core-O core	4030.3	0.2455	0	Intra/2.5
O shell-O shell	64242.5	0.1989	21.8436	Inter/15.0
Ca-O shell	2154.06	0.2891	0	10.0
Zn-O shell	1029.39	0.2891	0	10.0
Spring	$k (eV \cdot Å^{-2})$			
0	52.74			
Morse	D(eV)	$\alpha(\text{Å}^{-1})$	$r_0(\text{\AA})$	
C-O core	5.00	2.5228	1.1982	Intra/Bonded
Three-body	$k (eV \cdot rad^{-2})$	$ heta_0({}^{o})$		
O core-C-O core	1.7995	120.0		Intra/Bonded
Out of plane	$k_2 (\text{eV} \cdot \text{Å}^{-2})$	$k_2 (eV \cdot Å^{-2})$		
C-O core-O core-O	8.6892	360.0		Intra/Bonded
core				

TABLE 1. Potential parameters used in this study

smithsonite								
	Calcite			Smithsonite				
	Experiment	Calculated	Δ%	Experiment	Calculated	Δ%		
a(Å)	4.99 ^a	4.98	-0.2	4.65 ^a	4.64	-0.2		
c(Å)	17.06 ^a	17.07	0.1	15.03 ^a	14.88	-1.0		
c/a	3.42	3.43	0.3	3.23	3.21	-0.6		
$V(Å^3)$	367.9	366.8	-0.3	281.4	278.0	-1.2		
B(GPa)	73 ^b	77.1	5.6	123 ^c	121.8	-1.0		

641 **TABLE 2.** Experimental and calculated structural properties of calcite and

643 a Cell parameters from Graf (1961)

642

b Calculated from experimental elastic constants of Dandekar and Ruoff (1968)

645 c Bulk moduli from Zhang and Reeder (1999)

646 **TABLE 3.** Tot number of configurations and independent configurations for each

Cell composition	<i>x</i> or 1- <i>x</i>	Total number of	Independent	
		configurations	configurations	
A ₂₄ (CO ₃) ₂₄	0.000	1	1	
$A_{23}B_1(CO_3)_{24}$	0.042	24	1	
$A_{22}B_2(CO_3)_{24}$	0.083	276	7	
A ₂₁ B ₃ (CO ₃) ₂₄	0.125	2024	20	
A ₂₀ B ₄ (CO ₃) ₂₄	0.167	10626	102	
A ₁₉ B ₅ (CO ₃) ₂₄	0.208	42504	317	
A ₁₈ B ₆ (CO ₃) ₂₄	0.250	134596	1033	
A ₁₇ B ₇ (CO ₃) ₂₄	0.292	346104	2467	
A ₁₆ B ₈ (CO ₃) ₂₄	0.333	735471	5330	
A ₁₅ B ₉ (CO ₃) ₂₄	0.375	1307504	9219	
A ₁₄ B ₁₀ (CO ₃) ₂₄	0.417	1961256	13980	
A ₁₃ B ₁₁ (CO ₃) ₂₄	0.458	2496144	17520	
A ₁₂ B ₁₂ (CO ₃) ₂₄	0.500	2704156	19219	
A ₅₃ B ₁ (CO ₃) ₅₄	0.019	54	1	
A ₅₂ B ₂ (CO ₃) ₅₄	0.037	1431	11	
A ₅₁ B ₃ (CO ₃) ₅₄	0.056	24804	86	
A ₅₀ B ₄ (CO ₃) ₅₄	0.074	316251	1051	
A ₄₉ B ₅ (CO ₃) ₅₄	0.093	3162510	9829	
A ₉₅ B ₁ (CO ₃) ₉₆	0.010	96	1	
A ₉₄ B ₂ (CO ₃) ₉₆	0.021	4560	18	
A ₉₃ B ₃ (CO ₃) ₉₆	0.031	142880	264	
A ₉₂ B ₄ (CO ₃) ₉₆	0.042	3321960	5999	

647 composition of $Zn_xCa_{1-x}CO_3$ in $2 \times 2 \times 1$, $3 \times 3 \times 1$ and $4 \times 4 \times 1$ supercells

648 A and B stand for either Zn or Ca.











9 FIGURE 3a.







Ca Ca Ca Ca Zn Ca Zn Ca Ca Ca Zn Ca 0 Ca Ca Ca Zn Zn Zn

18

16

17

19 **FIGURE 4.**











































а

b

С



