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Revision 1

“Growth dynamics of vaterite in relation to the physico-chemical properties of its
precursor, amorphous calcium carbonate, in the Ca–CO₃–PO₄ system”

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Abstract

39 Vaterite is one of three non-hydrate calcium carbonate crystalline polymorphs and
40 is formed as an initial phase under pseudo-biological conditions. However, biological
41 hard tissues that use vaterite are rare; the reason for vaterite rarely appearing *in vivo* is
42 still unclear. There is consensus that, in phosphate-containing solutions, vaterite barely
43 forms and amorphous calcium carbonate (ACC), the precursor of crystalline calcium
44 carbonate and considered as aggregation of growth unit of vaterite, is stabilized. In this
45 study, to clarify the biomineralization process, we investigated how phosphate act as an
46 inhibitor of vaterite growth. We measured vaterite growth rates *in situ* and estimated the
47 essential crystal growth parameter, edge free energy, in the Ca–CO₃–PO₄ system in
48 relation to the physico-chemical properties of ACC. The effects of PO₄ on the ACC
49 structure and dynamics were also observed.

50 Co-existed PO₄ reduced the growth rate of vaterite even when it was added in μM
51 concentrations. The surface free energy of vaterite increased with increasing PO₄
52 concentration and was 10 times higher in a 10 μM PO₄-containing solution than in a
53 PO₄-free solution. Spectroscopic analyses showed that the chemical bonds in ACC
54 particles were drastically changed by the addition of μM scale PO₄, and the particles

55 could no longer transform into vaterite. We conclude that PO_4 inhibits vaterite growth
56 and changed the ACC structure. And the original growth units of vaterite were also
57 modified to the other structures. Thus, vaterite crystals could not grow by association of
58 these growth units, which resulted in an increase in the apparent surface free energy of
59 vaterite.

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61 Key words: Vaterite, Crystal growth, intermediate phase, biomineralization

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INTRODUCTION

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Calcium carbonate minerals are the main component of hard tissues in nonvertebrate animals such as mollusks, coral reefs and coccoliths (Deer et al., 1992; Dove et al., 2003; Mann, 2005; Sunagawa, 2005). These minerals have three anhydrous crystalline phases, calcite, aragonite and vaterite; two hydrated phases, monohydrocalcite and ikaite; and amorphous phases (at least five phases), amorphous calcium carbonates (ACC) (Deer et al., 1992; Kraji and Brecevic, 1995; Dove et al., 2003; Mann, 2005; Sunagawa, 2005; Colfen and Antonietti, 2008; Gebauer et al., 2010, Radha et al. 2010). These phases form as metabolic products in living creatures; this process is known as biomineralization. Biomineralization normally occurs in weakly basic aqueous solutions such as body fluids and seawater under normal temperature and pressure, i.e., it is a relatively stable reaction and process (Deer et al., 1992; Dove et al., 2003; Mann, 2005; Sunagawa, 2005). In addition, the numerous chemical species that are present in organisms affect biomineralization (Deer et al., 1992; Dove et al., 2003; Mann, 2005; Sunagawa, 2005; Bentov et al., 2010; Akiva-Tal et al., 2011; Sato et al., 2011). The final products have various morphologies and crystal structures that are

91 suitable for biological applications.

92 The growth dynamics of calcium carbonate minerals, particularly in simulated
93 biological environments, has been a matter of great research interest in the field of
94 geochemistry and biomineralization (Sunagawa, 2005; Colfen and Antonietti, 2008;
95 Gebauer et al. 2008). Studies in this area may assist in clarifying complex biological
96 crystallization processes, and biological evolution, and the knowledge gained may be
97 used to generate new functional biomaterials.

98 Vaterite is not only an anhydrous crystalline polymorph of calcium carbonate and
99 an intermediate and metastable phase in weak basic solutions (Plummer and Busenberg,
100 1982; Brecevic and Nielsen, 1989; Deer et al., 1992; Sunagawa, 2005;
101 Rodriguez-Blanco et al., 2010) but also occurs as a biogenic mineral a component of
102 marine organisms, fish otoliths, and gastropod egg shells (Carlstrom, 1963; Hall and
103 Taylor, 1971; Lowenstam, 1975). It has a higher solubility and a comparatively lower
104 crystallinity than calcite and aragonite (Plummer and Busenberg, 1982; Sunagawa,
105 2005; Colfen and Antonietti, 2008). It occurs in various shapes, namely, irregular,
106 wire-like, and hexagonal because of crystallization with additives such as polymers and
107 NH_3^- ions (Xu et al. 2005; Balz et al. 2006). Although vaterite was an initial crystalline
108 phase in weak basic solution, the growth mechanism of vaterite is unclear compared

109 with those of calcite and aragonite. Olderøy et al. (2009) estimated the growth rate of
110 vaterite spherulites in supersaturated solutions. They measured the seeded-vaterite
111 radius *ex situ* and the Ca concentration as a function of vaterite growth rate.
112 Gomez-Morales et al. (1996) and Kawano et al. (2009) estimated the surface free
113 energy of vaterite, which is a key parameter in growth, using the incubation time for
114 nucleation in various supersaturated solutions. However, these studies have provided
115 little conclusive information on the growth mechanism of vaterite because there has
116 been a consensus that vaterite crystals do not grow simply by attachment of ionic
117 species in aqueous solutions. Gebauer et al. (2008/2010), Pouget et al. (2009/2010), and
118 Demichelis et al. (2011) indicated that vaterite is formed via ACC, which is a random
119 aggregate of nanometer-scale essential clusters (called pre-nucleation clusters) that form
120 the vaterite structure through cluster-based structural transformation. Sugiura et al.
121 (2014) showed that a vaterite-like intermediate phase (called pseudo-vaterite) appeared
122 prior to vaterite nucleation in the presence of PO_4 . This intermediate phase had a more
123 poor structure and a higher C/Ca ratio than those of vaterite, and greatly affected the
124 formation of vaterite. Thus, it is necessary to investigate the relationship between the
125 physico-chemical properties of ACC and the growth dynamics of pseudo-vaterite and
126 vaterite in relation to their structures. In addition, when we apply the growth model of

127 vaterite estimated *in vitro* to actual living organisms, we should consider the effect of
128 PO₄ because it is universally present *in vivo*. Sugiura et al. (2013) showed that one of
129 the roles of PO₄ is a strong inhibition of vaterite transformation from ACC in simulated
130 biological conditions. They also reported that PO₄ is easily incorporated into ACC.

131 Taking into account these considerations, we provide here a new growth model of
132 vaterite from *in situ* optical microscopic observations in the Ca–CO₃–PO₄ system under
133 simulated biological temperature, pressure, and pH. In addition to vaterite growth rate,
134 we characterized ACC structures in relation to vaterite growth. We show that vaterite
135 only formed via transformation from an ACC phase, and PO₄ affected the chemical
136 bond structure between Ca and CO₃, thus forming a non-vaterite structure in ACC,
137 resulting in inhibition of vaterite nucleation and growth.

138

139 **EXPERIMENTAL METHODS**

140 **Solution preparation**

141 CaCl₂ and NaHCO₃ were purchased from Wako Pure Inc., Japan. NaCl, K₂HPO₄
142 and, KH₂PO₄ were purchased from Nakalai Tesque Inc., Japan. All reagents were
143 dissolved into ultra-pure water. We prepared seven mother solutions: 1 M CaCl₂ and
144 NaCl, 0.5 M NaHCO₃, K₂HPO₄ and KH₂PO₄, 25 mM NaCl and KH₂PO₄ solutions.

145

146 **Measurement of vaterite spherulite growth rate and estimation of surface free**
147 **energy using direct Ca and CO₃ containing solution mixing and observation cell.**

148 The details of the optical measurements and the surface free energy calculation
149 using the two-dimensional nucleation theory are described in Appendix. Briefly, a
150 growth cell for *in situ* observation of vaterite spherulite growth at various levels of
151 supersaturation was prepared. Owing to the higher solubility of vaterite than that of
152 calcite, it is difficult to maintain supersaturation with respect to vaterite during
153 experiments with a constant flow of supersaturated solution through the whole system.
154 Thus, we performed a rapid mixing system of a cation solution with an anion solution in
155 the observation cell to avoid undesirable homogeneous nucleation before introduction
156 of the solution into the cell.

157 Fig. 1a shows the schematic solution-flow system. The system consisted of two
158 solution pumps and silicone and Teflon[®] tubes. Two pumps delivered the cation and
159 anion solutions separately into the observation cell, where the solutions were rapidly
160 mixed. It also enabled the introduction of the highly supersaturated solution into the
161 observation cell and enabled its ejection thereby avoiding homogeneous nucleation. Fig.
162 1b shows the schematic image of both mixing and observation cell. The cell was

163 composed of pieces of glass slide which induced heterogeneous nucleation and
164 polypropylene spacers. It enabled that fresh mixed supersaturated solutions were carried
165 into crystals heterogeneous nucleation and growth. The observation area was
166 approximately 100 μm thick, 1 mm wide and 7 mm long. The solution was disposed of
167 after passing the observation area, and fresh mixed solution was continuously supplied
168 to the area to maintain supersaturation with respect to precipitated vaterite. The flow
169 rates of cation and anion solutions were 2 mL/min, and the Reynolds number just after
170 the mixing was estimated to be about 4500 indicating that the two solutions were
171 completely mixed. The solution pH was maintained at about 8.6 by the buffering effect
172 of HCO_3^- .

173 The ionic activities of vaterite and pseudo-vaterite were given using Ca^{2+} and
174 CO_3^{2-} concentrations in the prepared solutions as

$$175 \quad I_{p(\text{vaterite, pseudo-vaterite})} = [\text{Ca}^{2+}][\text{CO}_3^{2-}] \quad (2)$$

176 The supersaturation ranges, σ in this study are 0.25–2.13 for vaterite and
177 0.16–1.89
178 for pseudo-vaterite. (see Resulting section and Appendix)

179

180 **Characterization of formed vaterite and pseudo-vaterite in supersaturated**

181 **solutions.**

182 The details are described in Appendix. In brief, the precipitated vaterite
183 spherulites, containing both vaterite and pseudo-vaterite, were characterized using
184 SAXS, EDX, and solid-state NMR.

185

186 **Characterization of ACC structure and dynamics.**

187 In addition to the vaterite spherulites growth experiments, we used Raman
188 spectroscopy to measure how ACC, a precursor phase of the vaterite structure, altered in
189 various PO₄-containing solutions. In addition, the PO₄ molar ratio (Ca/PO₄) of ACC
190 was measured using ICP-AES. The experiment details are described in Appendix.

191

192

RESULTS

193 **Growth behaviors and phase characterization of vaterite spherulites**

194 Our previous study (Sugiura et al. 2014) revealed that vaterite spherulites were
195 not a unique phase, but consisted of vaterite and pseudo-vaterite. The latter formed
196 before vaterite and had lower stability, higher solubility, poor crystallinity, and a higher
197 C/Ca ratio compared to those of vaterite. EDX and SAXS analyses can be used to
198 distinguish vaterite from pseudo-vaterite.

199 Figs. 2a show the same vaterite spherulite observed at different growth periods
200 using optical microscopy. The spherulite had a rounded morphology in the early stage
201 (20 s); however, the round shape was lost and became irregular over time (140 s). We
202 observed a decrease in the growth rate with time despite constant supersaturation (Fig.
203 2b). Furthermore, it displays very different physico-chemical properties from those of
204 the earlier formed rounded parts and the irregular shapes that formed on those rounded
205 parts (see Fig. 3 and Fig. S1 and S2).

206 The rounded spherulite morphology observed during the period of faster growth
207 rate also changed and became irregular after the growth rate became slower. The
208 FE-SEM images showed that the rounded vaterite spherulites comprised many sub 100
209 nm scale particles as has been demonstrated in previous studies (Pouget et al.
210 2009/2010; Rodriguez-Blanco et al. 2011). Irregularly shaped spherulites (Fig. 3a)
211 changed to a hollow-shell structure irrespective of the presence of PO_4 (Fig. 3b) after
212 washed several times with 10 mM NaHCO_3 solution. FE-SEM/EDX measurements
213 showed that the average C/Ca ratio of the outer regions of the shell (the part of irregular
214 shape) was 1.03 and that of the inner regions of the shell was 1.28 (Table 1).

215 The SAXS measurements for irregularly shaped spherulites showed a bi-modal
216 crystallite size distribution with peaks at approximately 5 nm and at 50–200 nm.

217 However, the peak at 5 nm became weak for washed hollow-structure vaterite, and the
218 size distribution changed to almost unimodal with a peak at 50–200 nm (Fig. 3c). The
219 law data for the SAXS-XRD pattern is in Appendix (Fig. S1).

220 The solid state NMR (^{31}P and ^{13}C MAS spectra) for rounded vaterite and hollow
221 structural vaterite spherulites showed clear differences. This indicates that the
222 incorporation of PO_4 into vaterite and pseudo-vaterite structures is distinctly different
223 (see Fig. S2).

224

225 **Variation in surface free energy with PO_4 concentration**

226 We assumed that the chemical formula of vaterite or pseudo-vaterite was
227 stoichiometric, CaCO_3 . The measured solubilities from the Ca concentrations were

$$228 \quad K_{sp(\text{vaterite})} = [\text{Ca}^{2+}][\text{CO}_3^{2-}] = 1.04 \times 10^{-8} [\text{M/L}]^2 \quad (2)$$

229 for vaterite and

$$230 \quad K_{sp(\text{pseudo-vaterite})} = [\text{Ca}^{2+}][\text{CO}_3^{2-}] = 1.44 \times 10^{-8} [\text{M/L}]^2 \quad (3)$$

231 for pseudo-vaterite, in our experimental conditions for ionic strength of 0.1 $[\text{M/L}]^2$
232 which values were similar to values of Plummer and Busenberg 1982 and lower than
233 that of ACC ($2.9 \times 10^{-8} [\text{M/L}]^2$ calculated from Brecevic and Nielsen 1989).

234 Figs. 4a and b show R values for vaterite and pseudo-vaterite depending on σ in

235 PO₄ solutions. We measured R for each condition in more than 50 samples; the data
236 were averaged and standard deviations were calculated. The maximum error of R was
237 less than 25%.

238 R exponentially increased with increasing σ . With increasing PO₄ concentration,
239 on the other hand, R decreased even when σ was kept constant. At low values of σ (in a
240 PO₄-free solution, σ was 0.16 for pseudo-vaterite and 0.25 for vaterite, respectively) and
241 higher PO₄, nucleation of spherulites or growth of spherulite seeds was not detected,
242 despite observation for more than 3 h.

243 Using the relationship between R and σ , we calculated γ for two-dimensional
244 islands nucleated on vaterite or pseudo-vaterite in the PO₄ solutions. Fig. 5a shows the
245 relationship between $1/\ln(1 + \sigma)$ and $\ln\{R/\sigma^{2/3}(1 + \sigma)^{1/3}\{\ln(1 + \sigma)\}^{1/6}\}$. A change in slope
246 was observed for $1/\ln(1 + \sigma)$ greater than 1.8 for pseudo-vaterite and greater than 1.5 for
247 vaterite. As has been previously reported for several crystals that grow via a two
248 dimensional mode (Malkin et al., 1989; Onuma et al., 2000), we assumed that growth
249 proceeded via homogeneous nucleation for $1/\ln(1 + \sigma)$ less than 1.8 and via
250 heterogeneous nucleation for $1/\ln(1 + \sigma)$ greater than 1.8. The apparent γ values were
251 calculated using the plot in heterogeneous nucleation region. (Onuma et al., 1998). The
252 apparent γ values calculated for the homogeneous nucleation region were $2.43k_B T$ for

253 vaterite and $1.89k_B T$ for pseudo-vaterite in PO_4 -free solutions.

254 The apparent γ values increased with increasing PO_4 concentration. However,
255 apparent γ for pseudo-vaterite was lower than that for vaterite at all concentration of
256 PO_4 . We calculated the surface free energy, ΔG , of vaterite and pseudo-vaterite using
257 apparent γ . Fig. 5b shows the relationship between ΔG and PO_4 concentration. The ΔG
258 values in PO_4 -free solutions were 30.7 mJ/m^2 for vaterite and 23.9 mJ/m^2 for
259 pseudo-vaterite, respectively. Gomez-Morales et al. (1996) reported $\Delta G = 40 \text{ mJ/m}^2$ for
260 vaterite using the relationship between incubation time for three-dimensional nucleation
261 versus σ . Lakshatanov et al. (2010) also reported $\Delta G = 42 \text{ mJ/m}^2$ for vaterite. Our results
262 are close
263 to this value. Furthermore, the value was smaller than that of calcite (48.5 mJ/m^2)
264 (Bruno
265 et al. 2013).

266 The value of ΔG increased with increasing PO_4 concentration; the rate of increase
267 for vaterite was higher than that for pseudo-vaterite. The ΔG values were 223.9 mJ/m^2
268 for vaterite and 105.2 mJ/m^2 for pseudo-vaterite in solutions with $10 \mu\text{M}$ PO_4 (Fig. 5b).

269 We applied growth models other than two-dimensional nucleation, spiral growth
270 and adhesive growth models (Ookawa, 1977; Saito, 2002), to analyze the growth rate

271 data because we could not observe the surfaces of the crystals directly. Both growth
272 models were inadequate because the calculated growth parameters and growth behavior
273 using both growth models showed clearly strange value (see details in Appendix).

274

275 **Dynamics and structures of ACC particles in Ca–CO₃–PO₄ system**

276 Fig. 6 shows the PO₄/Ca ratio of ACC formed immediately after solution
277 preparation in the presence of PO₄. The ratio increased linearly with increasing PO₄
278 concentration. The ratio was 3.8×10^{-3} in 20 μM PO₄ and 9.7×10^{-3} in 50 μM PO₄ both of
279 which contained 12.5 mM CaCO₃.

280 The ACC structure were also altered with increasing PO₄ content using Raman
281 spectroscopy. The details were described in Appendix. Briefly, as PO₄ concentration
282 increasing, ACC structures were altered calcite-like to vaterite-like.

283

284 **Discussions**

285 Calcium carbonate crystalline particles precipitated on the walls and at the bottom
286 of cells. In low-concentration PO₄ solutions, they mainly consisted of vaterite
287 spherulites, and the amount of calcite increased with increasing in PO₄ concentration.

288 Our study revealed the characteristics of vaterite growth dynamics in the

289 Ca–CO₃–PO₄ system under simulated biological conditions. In PO₄-free solutions, the
290 values for apparent edge free energy were $\gamma = 2.43k_B T$ for vaterite and $\gamma = 1.89k_B T$ for
291 pseudo-vaterite. Malkin et al. (1989) investigated the growth dynamics of the (101) face
292 of ammonium dihydrogen phosphate (ADP) crystal, which is a representative soluble
293 inorganic crystal. The (101) face grew by two-dimensional nucleation and γ was
294 estimated to be $0.7k_B T$. Sazaki et al. (1996) investigated the (101) face of the lysozyme
295 crystal of a protein crystal, and found that $\gamma = 2.8k_B T$. These studies indicate that the
296 value of γ greatly depends on the size of the essential growth unit of crystals, i.e.,
297 whether a crystal is an ionic species or a macroscopic molecule. The apparent value of γ
298 for vaterite and pseudo-vaterite was two or three times larger than that for soluble
299 inorganic crystals; this value was comparable with that for protein crystals and
300 hydroxyapatite. These growth units are considered as cluster- sized molecules (nm sized
301 particles) (Onuma and Ito 1998). The large γ of vaterite and pseudo-vaterite is
302 consistent with that of the previous studies on the growth unit of calcium carbonates, i.e.,
303 they are clusters.

304 Next, we discuss the inhibiting effect of PO₄ on vaterite growth. On the basis of
305 the growth rate measurements, there are two possibilities for the mechanism causing the
306 PO₄ effect. First, PO₄ is simply adsorbed onto the surface of vaterite and stops vaterite

307 growth. Second, PO₄ changes the ACC structure and inhibits its transformation into
308 vaterite. Gebauer et al. (2008/2010) and Demichelis et al. 2011 indicated that ACC is a
309 precursor of vaterite and suggested that ACC was an aggregate of the growth unit of
310 vaterite under weak basic solutions. In addition, our previous study (Sugiura et al. 2013)
311 showed that a small amount of PO₄ (PO₄/Ca ~1/1000) altered later calcium carbonate
312 crystalline phases, such as vaterite to calcite. Furthermore, the dynamics of ACC are
313 also significantly altered as PO₄ concentration increases.

314 Raman spectra indicated that the structure of ACC changed from calcite-like
315 amorphous into vaterite-like amorphous with an increase in PO₄ concentration.
316 However, they could not be transformed into crystalline vaterite. We assume that the
317 increase in vaterite-like structures in ACC with PO₄ did not correspond to *actual*
318 *vaterite structure*. These vaterite-like structures are assumed as “junk parts,” and it is
319 suggested that their increase resulted in a marked reduction in the actual vaterite growth
320 rate. The ICP-AES measurement showed that PO₄ was easily incorporated into ACC
321 and altered its structure. The resulting physico-chemical properties from the
322 incorporation of Mg²⁺ ions and polymers into ACC have also been studied (Cheng et al.
323 2007; Oaki et al. 2008; Jiang et al. 2010). It suggests that ACC formed in relatively low
324 PO₄ concentration solutions are one of precursors in the formation of vaterite and

325 pseudo-vaterite. Thus, it is indicated that $\text{PO}_4\text{-ACC}$ no longer acts as a growth unit of
326 vaterite and pseudo-vaterite.

327 Gebauer et al. (2008/2010) and Demichelis et al. (2011) investigated the structure
328 of pre-nucleation clusters of calcium carbonate under various pH conditions. They
329 showed that the size, distribution, and coordination number of the cluster increased with
330 an increase in solution pH. The essential chemical bond between Ca and CO_3 in ACC is
331 Ca–C, corresponding to a calcite-like structure at lower pH condition about 8.5, which
332 is comparable to our experimental condition, and O–Ca, corresponding to a vaterite-like
333 structure, at higher pH condition about 11.5. This conclusion was also supported by
334 experiments (Nebel et al., 2008). At lower pH, HCO_3^- ion pairs are formed in which H^+
335 bonds O of CO_3 . This inhibits the formation of O–Ca bonds, resulting in ACC particles
336 with small particle distributions. They also indicated that the average size of ACC
337 particles increases at higher pH because of the absence of H^+ ions, which acts to block
338 ACC aggregation.

339 Our conclusion concerning the effect of PO_4 on ACC structure is comparable to
340 that caused by increasing the pH of the solutions. When the results obtained by
341 Demichelis et al. (2011) are applied to this case, it appears that PO_4 (probably the
342 HPO_4^{2-} form) binds H^+ in ACC and changes the ACC structure. This drastically reduces

343 the number of growth units that originally construct the vaterite structure via
344 cluster-based phase transformation from ACC. Some previous studies had investigated
345 the effect of H^+ on amorphous phases (Wang et al., 2009; Sugiura et al., 2011), and they
346 support these conclusion.

347 The effect of PO_4 on vaterite growth can be summarized as follows. PO_4 is not
348 only absorbed on the surface of vaterite as a conventional impurity but also changes the
349 structure of the growth unit in ACC *before* the vaterite forms via phase transformation
350 from ACC. This modified structure is vaterite-like, but is never the actual vaterite
351 structure.

352 Although supersaturation of the solution is defined using the $CaCO_3$
353 concentration, where PO_4 ions co-existed they reduced the growth units of vaterite; it is
354 observed that vaterite grew through cluster-based crystal growth. For this reason,
355 despite the average Ca- CO_3 ion concentration being kept constant, the actual
356 supersaturation rate decreased as the PO_4 concentration increased. Because of this
357 decrease in actual supersaturation (from the retardation of vaterite growth by PO_4 ions)
358 a higher supersaturation of the bulk solution than would be expected was required for
359 the nucleation and growth of vaterite. Consequently, this causes an increase in the
360 apparent surface energy of vaterite in PO_4^- containing solutions.

361 Because of the difference in apparent surface free energy, pseudo-vaterite phase is
362 likely to precipitate under high PO_4 concentrations. When the PO_4 concentration further
363 increases, crystalline vaterite does not precipitate, and ACC with a vaterite-like
364 chemical structure is stable.

365 We obtained conclusive information in this study to explain why vaterite is rarely
366 observed in biological hard tissues. Small amounts of PO_4 ($\text{PO}_4/\text{CaCO}_3 = \sim 1/1000$),
367 which is essential for all living organisms, are sufficient to inhibit vaterite nucleation
368 and growth. We also observed that fluctuations in PO_4 concentration caused the
369 formation of nonuniform vaterite-like structures, which are inadequate for stable hard
370 tissues *in vivo*.

371

372

Implications

373 We investigated the growth dynamics of vaterite and pseudo-vaterite in the
374 $\text{Ca-CO}_3\text{-PO}_4$ system under simulated biological conditions in relation to the
375 physicochemical properties of ACC, the precursor of vaterite. A possible inhibition
376 mechanism of PO_4 on vaterite growth is that the apparent surface free energy was
377 increased by decreasing supersaturation with respect to vaterite, which is caused by the
378 reduction of cluster numbers corresponding to vaterite structure in ACC. This effect is

379 more evident in vaterite than in pseudo-vaterite because the structure of
380 pseudo-vaterite is looser than that of vaterite. Therefore, in higher PO₄ solutions, the
381 unstable phase of pseudo-vaterite is likely to appear instead of vaterite because of its
382 lower surface free energy in the early stages of calcium carbonate formation.

383 With an increase in PO₄ concentration, the dominant phase in the solution
384 changes to a more unstable form of vaterite. Furthermore, it is suggested that unstable
385 vaterite phases formed in high PO₄ solutions easily convert calcite through dissolution
386 and precipitation because their physico-chemical properties are highly unstable
387 compared with conventional vaterite (Sugiura et al. 2013).

388 This suggestion of how PO₄ affects vaterite formation processes relating to its
389 precursor ACC contributes not only to biomineralization process investigation but also
390 suggests that calcium carbonate polymorphism by other biocompatible elements such
391 as Mg²⁺ and SO₄ is a possibility.

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572 Figure Captions

573 Fig. 1. Experimental setup for vaterite growth rate measurement. **(a)** Overall diagram of

574 the observation system. The arrows indicate the flow direction of the solutions. **(b)**

575 Schematic of the growth cell. The cell consists of three parts: the solution mixing part,

576 the observation part, and the waste part. The circles indicate vaterite spherulites, the

577 rectangular area containing circles denotes the observation part, and the arrows indicate
578 the flow direction of the solutions.

579

580 Fig. 2. Growth behavior of precipitated spherulites in supersaturated solutions. **(a)**
581 Optical microscopic photograph of spherulites 20 s and 140 s after the start of growth.
582 Supersaturation σ was 1.80 for vaterite and 1.58 for pseudo-vaterite (PO₄-free
583 condition). The spherulites exhibit a well-rounded morphology. **(b)** Change in average
584 spherulite radius over time measured around at center of spherulites. Growth rate (slope
585 of line) of spherulites decreased after 60 s. The black dotted line corresponds to the
586 growth rate of pseudo-vaterite and the grey dotted line to that of vaterite.

587

588 Fig. 3. Phase characterization of spherulites. **(a)** FE-SEM photograph of irregularly
589 shaped spherulites precipitated in the same solution as Fig. 2. The photograph was taken
590 300 s after the start of growth. **(b)** FE-SEM photograph of hollow spherulites obtained
591 by washing the spherulites in **(a)** using 10 mM NaHCO₃ solution. **(c)** SAXS
592 measurements for **(a)** and **(b)**. The crystallite probability of **(a)** and **(b)** is indicated
593 respectively.

594

595 Fig. 4. Relationship between R and σ in PO_4 -containing solutions. **(a)** Pseudo-vaterite.
596 **(b)** Vaterite. The symbols and lines correspond to data measured at various PO_4
597 concentrations: grey solid diamonds with fine broken line (PO_4 -free solution), grey
598 solid squares with fine broken line ($1.25 \mu\text{M}$ PO_4 -containing solution), grey solid circles
599 with fine broken line ($2.50 \mu\text{M}$ PO_4 -containing solution), black open diamonds with fine
600 broken line ($5.00 \mu\text{M}$ PO_4 -containing solution), grey open squares with fine broken line
601 ($6.25 \mu\text{M}$ PO_4 -containing solution), grey open circles with fine broken line ($7.50 \mu\text{M}$
602 PO_4 -containing solution), grey solid diamonds with roughly broken line ($8.75 \mu\text{M}$
603 PO_4 -containing solution) and grey solid squares with roughly broken line ($10.00 \mu\text{M}$
604 PO_4 -containing solution).

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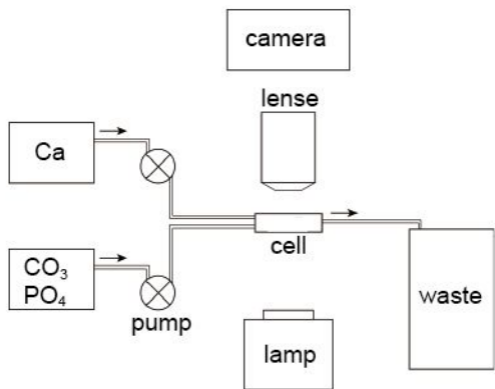
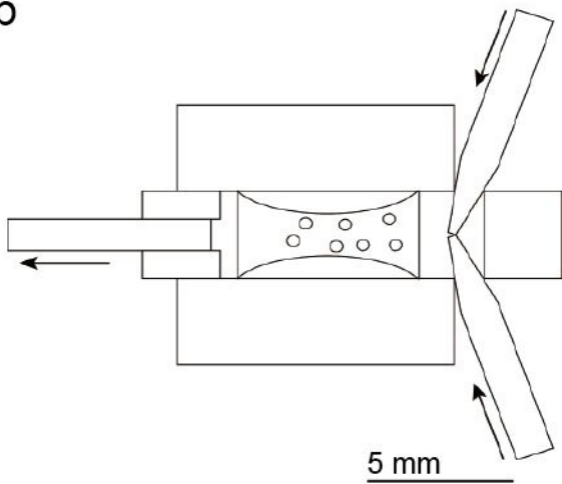
606 Fig. 5. **(a)** Logarithmic plots of growth rate of the vaterite (solid circles) and
607 pseudo-vaterite (solid circles) for calculation of edge free energy under PO_4 free
608 conditions. **(b)** Change in surface free energies of vaterite (solid circles with dotted line)
609 and pseudo-vaterite (solid diamonds with dotted line) with PO_4 concentration.

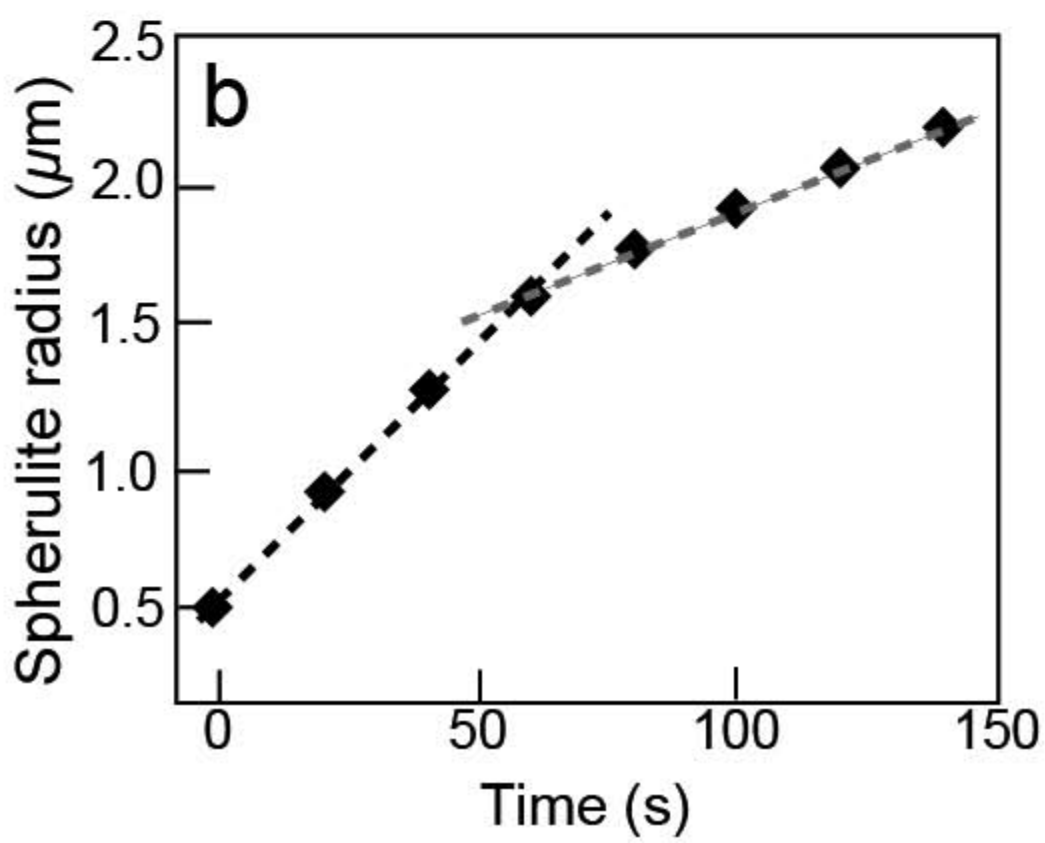
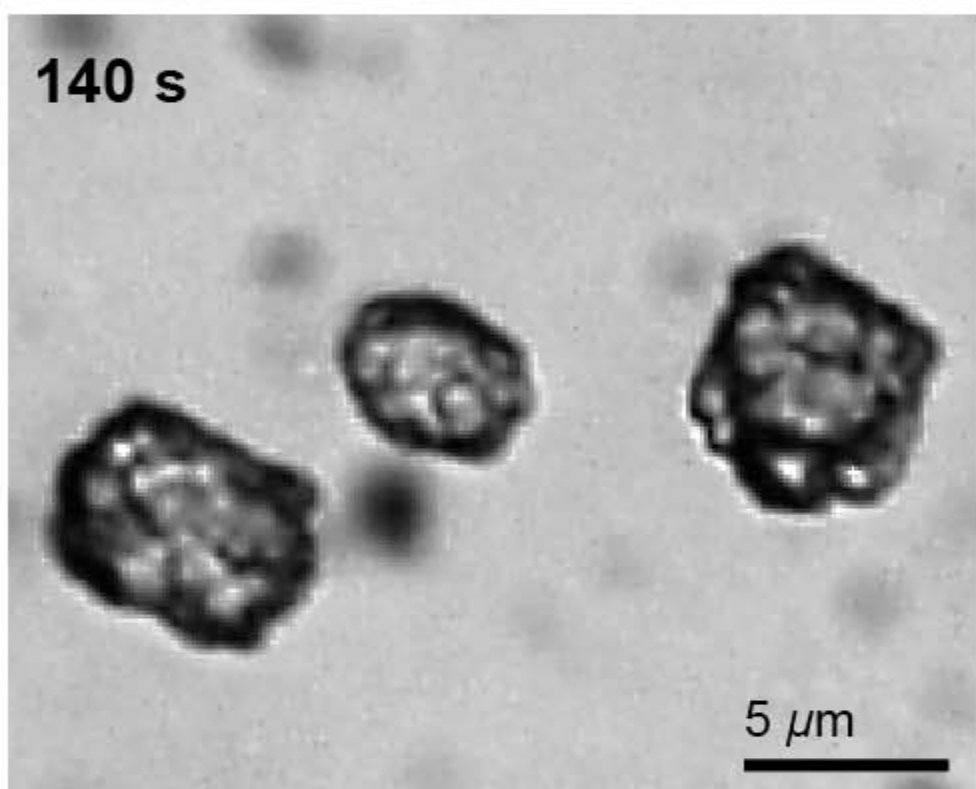
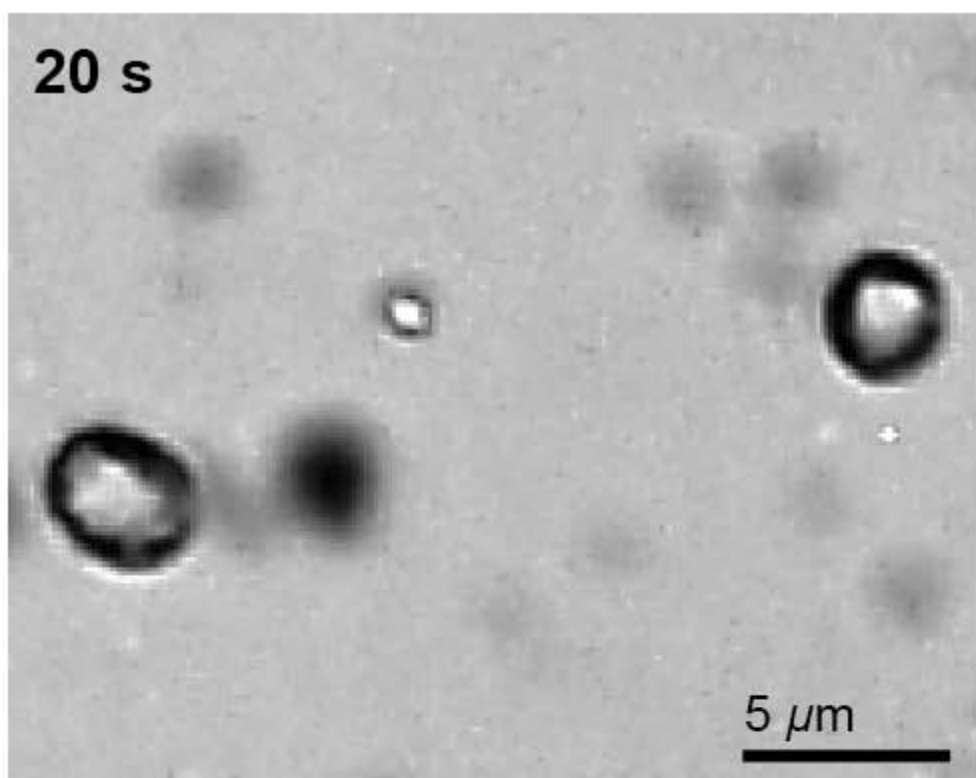
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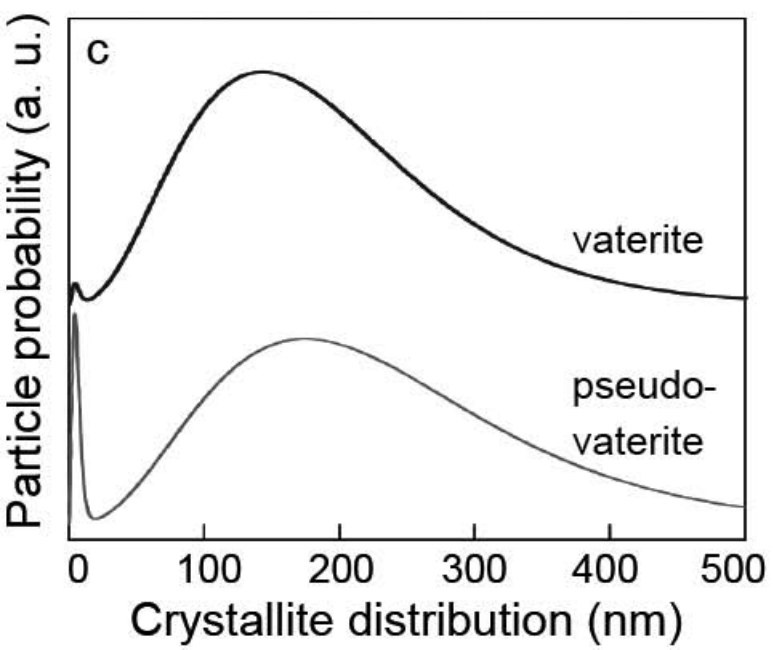
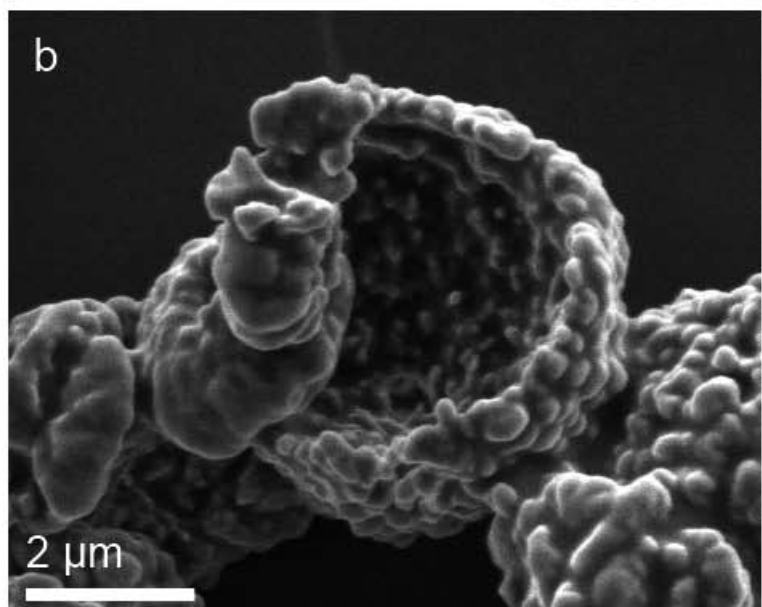
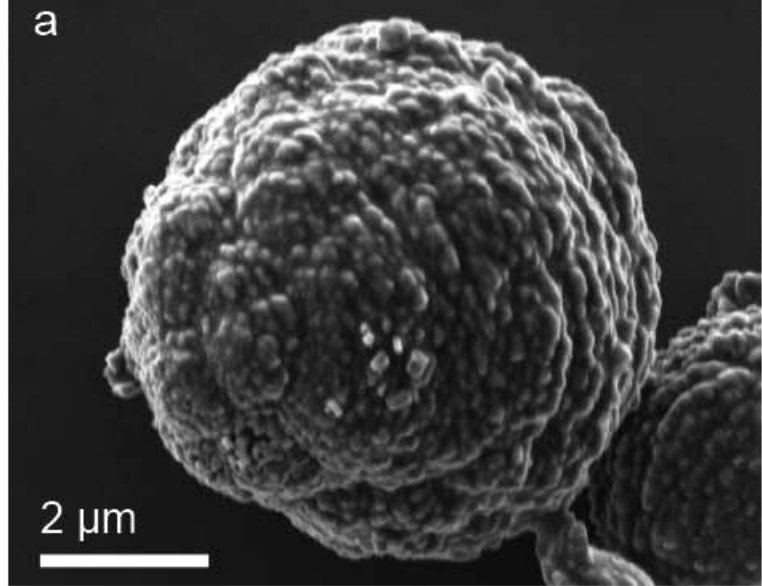
611 Fig. 6. PO_4/Ca ratio of ACC precipitated in PO_4 -containing solutions.

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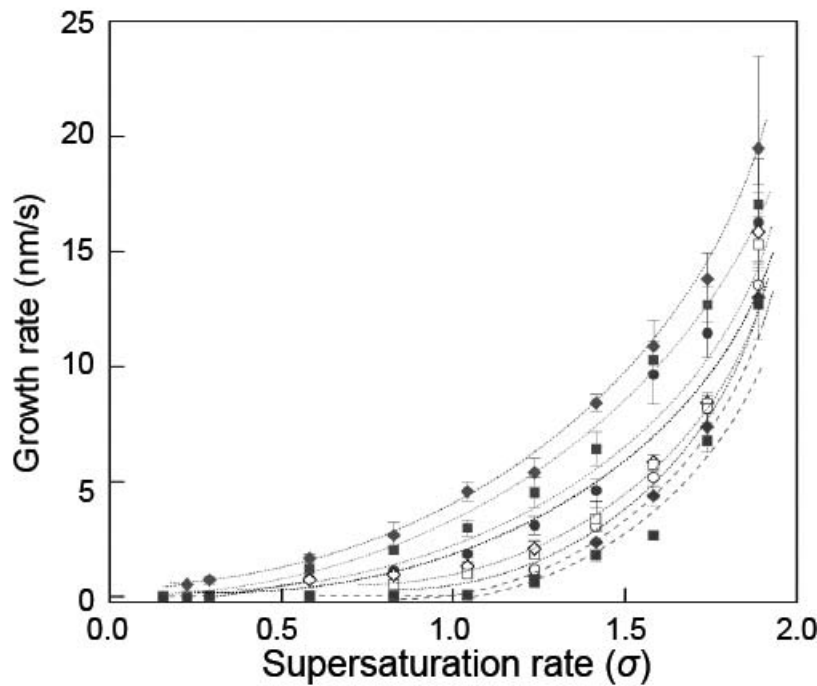
613 Table 1. Summary of the physico-chemical properties of vaterite and pseudo-vaterite in
614 the Ca–CO₃–PO₄ system.

a**b**

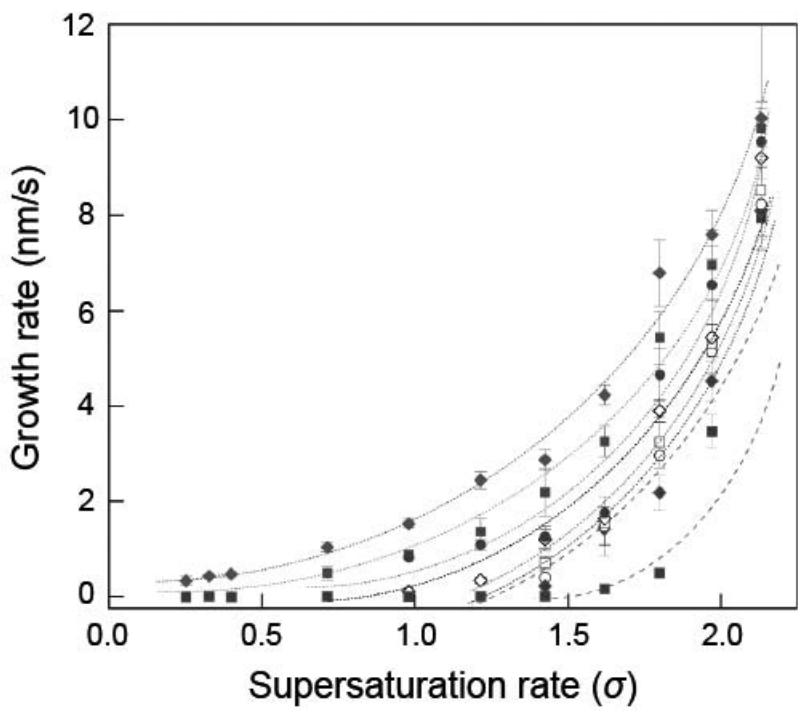
a

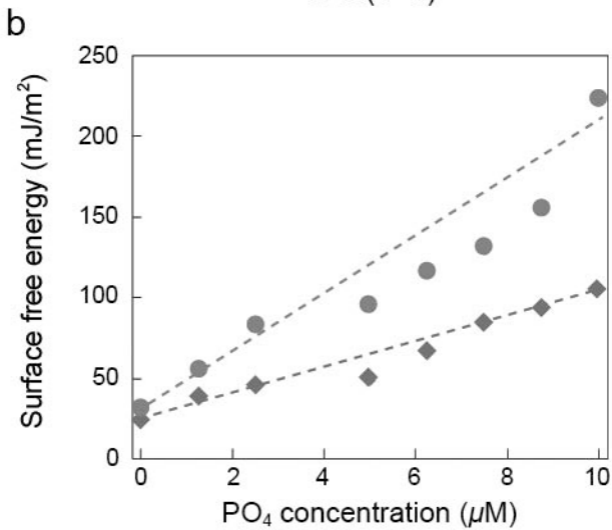
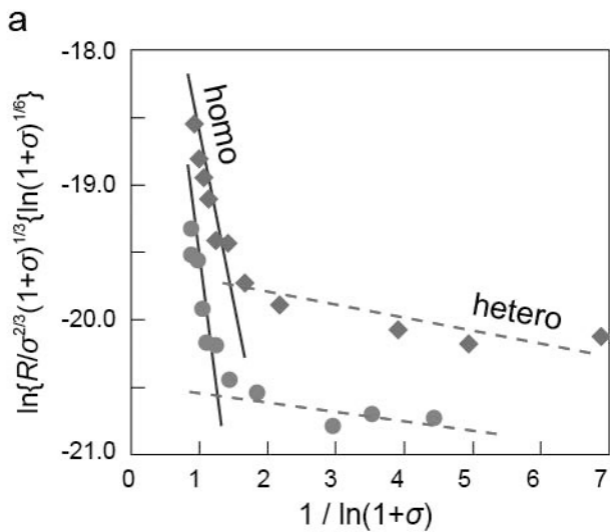


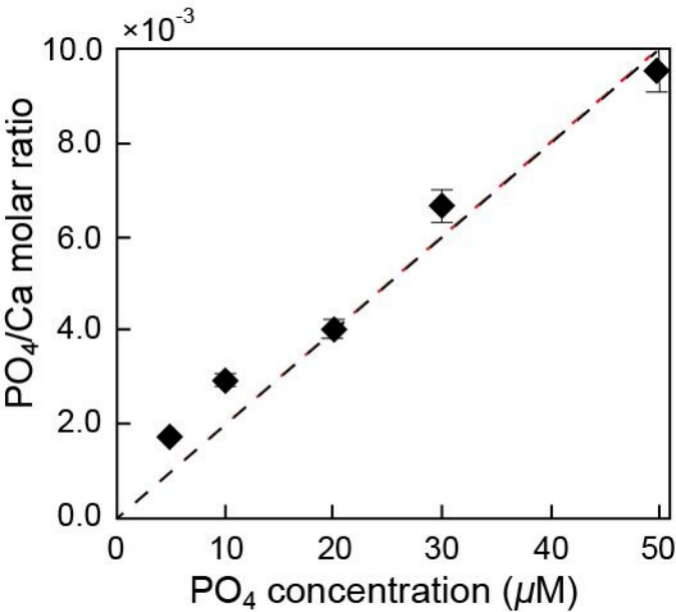
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b







	Vaterite	Pseudo-vaterite
Crystal structure	Highly crystalline phase. Crystallite size was around 200 nm	Low crystalline phase. Crystallite size distribution was bi-modal, around 10 nm and 150 nm.
Chemical composition, C/Ca ratio	1.08 ± 0.08	1.28 ± 0.15
Solubility, Ksp	$Xx \cdot 10^{xx}$	$Yy \cdot 10^{yy}$
PO4 response	High response and low absorption	Relatively low response and high absorption