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17 Abstract

18 Carbonate minerals are important hosts of carbon in the crust and mantle with a key role 19 in the transport and storage of carbon in Earth's deep interior over the history of the planet. 20 Whether subducted carbonates efficiently melt and break down due to interactions with reduced 21 phases or are preserved to great depths and ultimately reach the core-mantle boundary remains 22 controversial. In this study, experiments in the laser-heated diamond anvil cell (LHDAC) on 23 layered samples of dolomite (Mg,Ca)CO₃ and iron at pressure and temperature conditions 24 reaching those of the deep lower mantle show that carbon-iron redox interactions destabilize the MgCO₃ component, producing a mixture of diamond, Fe₇C₃, and (Mg,Fe)O. However, CaCO₃ is 25 26 preserved, supporting its relative stability in carbonate-rich lithologies under reducing lower 27 mantle conditions. These results constrain the thermodynamic stability of redox-driven 28 breakdown of carbonates and demonstrate progress towards multiphase mantle petrology in the 29 LHDAC at conditions of the lowermost mantle.

30

1. Introduction

31 Carbonates are the major minerals responsible for transportation of carbon from the 32 Earth's surface to its deep interior. Their behavior at depth is critical to the storage capacity and 33 fluxes of the geologic carbon cycle. Recent estimates of the flux of carbon trapped in carbonate 34 minerals that reach the deep Earth range from 0.0001 to 52 megatons annually (Dasgupta and 35 Hirschmann, 2010; Kelemen and Manning, 2015). The uncertainty in this range hinges on poor 36 constraints on the budget of carbon retained by subducting slabs. Transport of carbon to at least 37 transition zone depths is demonstrated by carbonate inclusions in diamonds (e.g. Brenker et al., 2007; Wang et al., 1996), but whether any carbonates remain in the lower mantle is 38 39 controversial. Most subducted carbon is expected to melt and/or break down and return to

Earth's surface via volcanism (Dasgupta and Hirschmann, 2010; Kelemen and Manning, 2015;
Thomson et al., 2016). However, relatively oxidizing conditions, low temperatures, and resulting
slow kinetics within subducting slabs may result in transportation of carbonates magnesite,
siderite, calcite, and their solid solutions to great depths (Martirosyan et al., 2016). Subducted
carbonates in slabs that reach the base of the lower mantle will undergo multiple phase
transitions and encounter reducing conditions, to be finally buffered by metallic iron at or near
the CMB.

47 Carbon provides key constraints on the chemical evolution of the deep Earth through its 48 role as a proxy for mantle redox conditions, as its speciation is largely governed by oxygen 49 fugacity, or f_{02} (Frost and McCammon, 2008). Evidence of deep mantle chemistry (Walter et al., 50 2011) and redox state (Ryabchikov and Kaminsky, 2013; Smith et al., 2016) in local 51 environments of diamond formation can likely be inferred from diamond inclusions. Diamonds 52 and their inclusions indicate widely varying local fo₂ (Brenker et al., 2007; Walter et al., 2011; 53 Ryabchikov and Kaminsky, 2013; Smith et al., 2016; Kaminsky, 2012), though for is expected to 54 generally decrease with mantle depth (Frost and McCammon, 2008; Rohrbach and Schmidt, 55 2011). Both isotopic evidence (e.g. Harte, 2010; Tappert et al., 2005) and carbonate inclusions in 56 diamonds (e.g. Wang et al., 1996) suggest that diamonds are (at least in part) formed by 57 reduction of subducted carbonate minerals or carbonate melts. Reduction of carbonates to 58 diamond takes place by interactions with mantle silicates (Pal'yanov et al., 2002; Stagno et al., 59 2011, 2013, 2015) or metal (Arima et al., 2002; Siebert et al., 2005; Rouquette et al., 2008; 60 Pal'yanov et al., 2013). These redox reactions contribute to the barrier to carbonate transport to 61 the deep Earth (Rohrbach and Schmidt, 2011; Thomson et al., 2016). The key to determining the

62 amount of oxidized carbon in the deep Earth is the dependence of both the thermodynamics and 63 the kinetics of redox reactions in carbonates on temperature, pressure, and f_{02} .

64 Petrologic observations, experiments and computational studies on stability and 65 breakdown kinetics of carbonates have determined that magnesite is the most stable carbonate 66 phase throughout most of the mantle (e.g. Dasgupta and Hirschmann, 2010; Rohrbach and 67 Schmidt, 2011), but calcite and siderite polymorphs have also attracted interest. Relative to 68 aragonite (Spivak et al., 2011) or siderite (Tao et al., 2013), magnesite is more likely to subduct 69 to the deep mantle due to its higher melting temperature (Isshiki et al., 2004; Katsura and Ito, 70 1990; Martinez et al., 1998; Solopova et al., 2014). Melting experiments on carbonated peridotite 71 (Dasgupta and Hirschmann, 2010; Ghosh et al., 2014; Rohrbach and Schmidt, 2011) and eclogite 72 (Thomson et al., 2016) systems confirm that calcium and iron carbonate components are more 73 likely to enter a melt phase than magnesium carbonate in silicate lithologies. At sub-solidus 74 temperatures, MgCO₃ is also favored in carbonate-silicate mixtures by the reaction CaCO₃ + 75 MgSiO₃ \rightarrow MgCO₃ + CaSiO₃ at lower-mantle pressures up to 80 GPa (Biellmann et al., 1993; 76 Seto et al., 2008). Due to its broad solid solution with siderite (Lin et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2015), 77 magnesite in the mantle will host iron. An (Mg,Fe)-carbonate in the lowermost mantle may have 78 mixed redox state and coexist with diamond (Boulard et al., 2012). However, both (Mg,Fe)CO₃ 79 (Brenker et al., 2007; Kaminsky et al., 2016; Phillips and Harris, 1995; Ryabchikov and 80 Kaminsky, 2013) and CaCO₃ (Brenker et al., 2007; Meyer and McCallum, 1986) have been 81 observed in inclusions in diamonds, including ultra-deep diamonds from the transition zone or 82 possibly the lower mantle (Brenker et al., 2007). These inclusions demonstrate that both 83 (Mg,Fe)CO₃ and CaCO₃ may be preserved by kinetic effects within carbonate-rich sediment in 84 cold subducting slabs, consistent with slow breakdown kinetics observed in experiments at

85 transition zone conditions (Martirosyan et al., 2016). The relative stability of (Mg,Fe)CO₃ and 86 CaCO₃ may also change at depth due to polymorphism. If (Mg,Fe)CO₃ or CaCO₃ reaches the 87 base of the lower mantle, density functional theory calculations (Oganov et al., 2008; Pickard 88 and Needs, 2015) and experiments (Boulard et al., 2011; Ono et al., 2007) suggest these 89 carbonates will transform to tetrahedrally-coordinated structures. If the transition in CaCO₃ 90 occurs at a shallower depth than the analogous transition in MgCO₃, as predicted by Pickard and 91 Needs (2015), CaCO₃ would be the denser and more energetically-favored carbonate in the deep 92 lower mantle.

93 This study examines a Mg-Fe-Ca carbonate system in the petrologic context of a 94 subducted carbonate assemblage in contact with metallic iron. Metallic iron may be present at 95 the percent level throughout the mantle (Frost et al., 2004), and the outer core provides an 96 unlimited reservoir of iron. Subducted carbonates may contact reduced core-mantle mixing 97 regions if they reach depths within ~10s km from the base of the mantle (Frost and McCammon, 98 2008; Otsuka and Karato, 2012). Previous studies of carbonates at lower mantle pressures have 99 investigated mineralogical stability of single phases as a function of pressure and temperature 100 alone (Isshiki et al., 2004; Solopova et al., 2014; Boulard et al., 2011; Ono et al., 2005), or used 101 mixtures of carbonates and silicates which complicate textural analysis of run products 102 (Biellmann et al., 1993; Thomson et al., 2014). In contrast, we examine reaction interfaces 103 between multiple carbonates and iron; similar previous studies have been limited to transition 104 zone conditions (Martirosyan et al., 2016; Pal'yanov et al., 2013). We determine the relative 105 stability and metastability of Mg-, Fe-, and Ca-carbonates as host phases for oxidized carbon 106 storage in the lower mantle.

2. Methods

108 To bring experimental petrology of carbonates to the Mbar pressures and 1000s K 109 temperatures of the core-mantle boundary, experiments must be miniaturized: sample geometry 110 must be controlled within the \sim 50x50x10-micron chamber of the laser-heated diamond anvil cell, 111 and analysis must be performed with ~100-nm-scale spatial resolution of typical grain sizes of 112 run products. Dolomite, a major constituent of subducted marble, provides a unique advantage as 113 a starting material as it has a mixed Mg-Fe-Ca carbonate composition homogeneous to <nm 114 scale. Natural dolomite crystals with composition determined to be (Mg0.38Ca0.59Fe0.03)CO3 by X-115 ray fluorescence spectroscopy and structure confirmed by X-ray diffraction were used as starting 116 materials. Single dolomite crystals were polished to ~10-micron thickness and dried in a 120°C 117 oven overnight before loading. 3-micron thick 99.85% iron foil was machined into discs with a 118 ps-pulsed 532-nm laser or cut with a razor blade. Iron foils were loaded sandwiched between 119 dolomite crystals in symmetric diamond anvil cells. No other pressure standard or medium was 120 loaded in order to prevent reactions with other components and contamination of the chemical 121 system. Sample sandwiches were loaded within chambers cut in Re gaskets in diamond anvil 122 cells. Diamond anvils with flat culets of 200 micron diameter or beveled culets of 150 micron 123 diameter were chosen to generate pressures corresponding to the lower mantle. 124 Samples were compressed to pressures of 51, 66, 77, and 113 GPa, as determined by the

equation of state of the iron foil (Mao et al., 1990) before laser heating (Table 1). Pressures were not measured during heating due to chemical reaction of the iron foil with the dolomite, but were likely ~7-10 GPa higher than those reported here due to thermal pressure. Laser heating was performed with *in situ* X-ray diffraction at the GSECARS sector of the Advanced Photon Source

129	(Prakapenka et al., 2008). The laser spot was focused to a diameter of ~10 microns with a flat-
130	top beam shape. Each sample was heated for 10-20 min at 1800-2500 K.
131	After recovery to ambient conditions, each heated spot was sectioned using a Zeiss NVision
132	40 dual-beam scanning electron microscope and focused Ga ⁺ ion beam (Centre Interdisciplinaire
133	Microscopie de Electronique (CIME), EPFL). Each sample was coated with 15 nm Au to reduce
134	charging in the scanning electron microscope. To protect the samples from damage by the Ga ⁺
135	ion beam, an additional ~1-2 micron thick layer of Pt or C was deposited across the centers of
136	heated spots. Thin sections of each heated spot were extracted and polished to electron
137	transparency (~100 nm thickness).
138	Imaging of recovered thin sections was performed with scanning transmission election
139	microscopy (S/TEM) and energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDX) in a FEI Tecnai Osiris
140	analytical TEM (CIME, EPFL). Accelerating voltage for these measurements was 200 kV. The
141	Osiris TEM is equipped with four wide-solid-angle detectors for high-speed chemical
142	measurements by EDX spectroscopy. EDX maps were scanned over 1024x1024 pixel areas with
143	pixel dwell time of 50 microseconds. Typical count rates were ~40,000-50,000 counts per
144	second. Chemical mapping prevents migration of elements due to damage by the electron beam.
145	Uncertainties in compositions were determined from standard deviations of EDX measurements
146	obtained from selected regions within multiple grains.

147 **3. Results**

Laser-heating dolomite-iron sandwiches from both sides produces a lens-shaped heated zone (Figure 1), as predicted by models (Kiefer and Duffy, 2005; Rainey et al., 2013) and measurements (Campbell, 2008) of thermal diffusion in the diamond anvil cell. Laser absorption

151 and diffraction indicate that the sample reaches a steady state within a few minutes. The hottest 152 region of the sample is the laser-absorbing central iron layer. The insulating dolomite layers experience both axial and radial temperature gradients, with highest temperatures at the contacts 153 154 with the iron foil and lowest temperatures at the diamond anvil surface. High-resolution TEM 155 inspection of recovered thin sections indicates that grain sizes decrease away from the surface of 156 the iron foil, consistent with this thermal gradient (Figure 1). At the cool upper and lower edges 157 of the heated spot, ribbons of magnesium and calcium carbonate exsolve from the dolomite 158 (Figure 2), as has been observed at lower pressures (Sato and Katsura, 2001; Shirasaka et al., 159 2002).

160 Both EDX analysis of recovered thin sections in the TEM (Figure 3) and diffraction 161 patterns obtained during and after sub-solidus laser heating (Figure 4b) show that the metallic 162 iron at the sample center reacts completely with the dolomite to generate a mixture of FeO and 163 Fe₇C₃. The iron layer thus exhibits oxidation which must be compensated by reduction of the 164 carbonate. Within the carbonate layer near the hot interface with the iron foil, three phases are 165 found in all samples: diamond, Mg-bearing ferropericlase, and CaCO₃ (Figure 3). The diffusion 166 of iron from the sample center propagates breakdown of the magnesium carbonate to diamond 167 and ferropericlase. Due to diffusion, this ferropericlase has much more MgO than the FeO at the 168 sample center (Figures 5-6). Unlike MgCO₃, CaCO₃ exsolves from the dolomite but is never 169 observed to break down. EDX composition analysis confirms that the CaCO₃ phase retains both 170 O and C within measurement error and there is no evidence for measurable Ca in any other phase 171 (Figure 5). At the pressures examined here, the stable polymorph of CaCO₃ is the post-aragonite 172 phase (Ono et al., 2005). Post-aragonite-type $CaCO_3$ is observed in diffraction patterns after 173 heating (Figure 4b), along with unreacted dolomite. These experiments show that a carbonate-

174	rich rock such as subducted marble subjected to reducing conditions in contact with metallic
175	iron, post-aragonite-type CaCO ₃ is a more stable form of carbonate than MgCO ₃ throughout the
176	lower mantle pressure range.
177	4. Discussion
178	The mixture of (Mg,Fe)O, diamond, Fe ₇ C ₃ and CaCO ₃ is produced by redox coupling
179	between the iron and carbon and breakdown of the MgCO ₃ component. The following reactions
180	explain these observations:
181	$MgCO_3 + 2Fe \rightarrow C + MgO + 2FeO$
182	$3MgCO_3 + 13Fe \rightarrow Fe_7C_3 + 3MgO + 6FeO$
183	In the center of the sample, the system is saturated in iron, leading to a mixture
184	dominated by Fe ₇ C ₃ and FeO. In the region where the carbonate breaks down, the carbon/iron
185	ratio is higher, and reduced carbon is found in diamonds rather than carbides. The breakdown of
186	MgCO ₃ is favorable in all heated regions in the presence of iron. The stable host phase for
187	carbon is controlled by the Fe/MgCO3 ratio of reactants. Recent studies have largely focused on
188	(Mg,Fe)CO ₃ as a host phase for oxidized carbon in the deep Earth, as the melting point of
189	magnesite or ferromagnesite is higher than that of CaCO ₃ in the transition zone. However,
190	(Mg,Fe)CO ₃ is much more susceptible to redox breakdown than CaCO ₃ .
191	Redox breakdown will promote diamond formation from (Mg,Fe)CO3 in carbonated
192	eclogite and peridotite. This study and others have shown that diamonds nucleate and grow
193	directly from carbonates at subsolidus, reducing conditions, and inclusion-bearing diamonds
194	used as evidence that carbonates are stable to great depths in the mantle record incomplete redox
195	breakdown (e.g. Wang et al., 1996). Reducing agents relevant to carbonate stability at different

196 stages of Earth's chemical evolution include graphite (Pal'yanov et al., 1999), H₂ (Pal'yanov et 197 al., 2002), Si metal (Siebert et al., 2005), and Fe metal. In a mixture of carbonate and Fe-Si alloy, 198 Si and C were oxidized, producing a mixture in which diamonds coexist with metallic iron 199 (Siebert et al., 2005). Other studies have suggested either that pure iron and pure carbon should 200 not coexist in equilibrium (Rouquette et al., 2008; Scott et al., 2001) or that iron carbides and 201 diamond compete as hosts of reduced carbon (Iizuka et al., 1996). In this study, metallic iron 202 reacts completely to carbide and oxide, indicating that the system is oversaturated in carbon. 203 Because the mantle has been suggested to be a highly reducing environment, saturated in 204 metallic iron (Frost et al., 2004; Frost and McCammon, 2008; Rohrbach et al., 2007; Rohrbach 205 and Schmidt, 2011), carbonate in this system will be susceptible to redox breakdown at 206 subsolidus temperatures. Reduction of subducted carbonates by interaction with metallic iron 207 was previously explored at relatively modest depths (Martin and Hammouda, 2011; Martirosyan 208 et al., 2015a, 2015b; Stagno et al., 2011). Most previous studies were conducted at pressures 209 reaching ~6 GPa (Martin and Hammouda, 2011; Martirosyan et al., 2015a, 2015b), too low to 210 model the depths at which metallic iron becomes available to react with subducted carbonate. 211 Metallic iron may also be present in the lower mantle due to charge disproportionation in 212 silicates (Frost et al., 2004; Rohrbach et al., 2007), mixing at the CMB (Knittle and Jeanloz, 213 1989; Otsuka and Karato, 2012), or residue of magma ocean solidification (Zhang et al., 2016). 214 Recently, iron-magnesite mixtures were examined at 16-45 GPa and 1500-1700 °C, 215 corresponding to transition zone to lower mantle depths (Stagno et al., 2011). At these 216 conditions, diamonds are observed to coexist with magnesite, ferropericlase and carbon-free 217 iron-iridium alloy. The Ir alloy was used to determine that f_{O2} was ~3 log units above the iron-218 wüstite buffer. The breakdown of magnesite observed here may imply lower f_{02} conditions,

perhaps due to the sample environment in the diamond anvil cell or higher pressures. For
subducted marble or carbonated silicate lithologies that reach a reduced zone near the coremantle boundary, (Mg,Fe)CO₃ cannot be preserved.

222 Spin transitions in ferromagnesite have recently been studied for their potential to affect 223 carbonate stability (Lin et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2015). The spin transition results in a ~8% unit 224 cell volume collapse for (Mg0.35Fe0.65)CO3 (Lin et al., 2012) and would thus be expected to have 225 a significant effect on phase equilibria. As the minimum pressure examined in these experiments 226 is above the spin transition pressure, we are unable to evaluate whether the spin transition is 227 related to the observed breakdown of (Mg,Fe)CO₃. The susceptibility of (Mg,Fe)CO₃ to 228 disproportionation at low f_{02} suggests that low-spin iron-bearing carbonates are unlikely to be 229 stable in Earth's mantle.

230 CaCO₃ is less sensitive than (Mg,Fe)CO₃ to redox breakdown, but melting, reaction with 231 silicates, and buoyancy remain challenging barriers to its transport to the deep mantle. Although 232 the melting point of CaCO₃ (Bayarjargal et al., 2010; Thomson et al., 2014) is well above a 1600 233 K adiabatic geotherm (Brown and Shankland, 1981), the eutectic melting point for carbonate 234 mixtures is substantially lower and comparable to the geotherm (Thomson et al., 2014). Eutectic 235 melting has been argued to effectively block carbonate transport to the lower mantle (Thomson 236 et al., 2016). However, no evidence is observed for melting of the dolomite carbonate in this 237 work. Moreover, geotherms both for the average mantle (e.g. Brown and Shankland, 1981; 238 Andrault et al., 2011; Nomura et al., 2014) and subducting slabs (e.g. Andrault et al., 2014) 239 remain highly uncertain. The key question is whether, for realistic subducted carbonates, the 240 melting point of the mixture is high enough relative to the temperature in the slab to prevent 241 diamond formation. With temperature uncertainties of at least 100s K, in addition to potential

242	kinetic effects on the efficiency of carbonate reduction and melting (Martirosyan et al., 2016),
243	preservation of carbonates in the lower mantle cannot yet be ruled out. CaCO ₃ is also expected to
244	be destabilized in the mantle by reaction with (Mg,Fe)SiO3 in peridotite or eclogite to produce
245	CaSiO ₃ and (Mg,Fe)CO ₃ (Biellmann et al., 1993; Seto et al., 2008). This reaction suggests
246	CaCO ₃ is most likely to be preserved in silicate-poor, dolomite-rich marble entrained with
247	subducting slabs. Because metasediment is likely to be as much as \sim 5-15% less dense than
248	surrounding peridotite, ~100 m packages of marble would likely rise to the surface through
249	diapirism (Kelemen and Manning, 2015). Transport of CaCO3 to the deep mantle would require
250	carbonate to reside in layers or regions thin enough to be entrained with the cold slab, but thick
251	enough that slow diffusion blocks reaction of carbonate with silicates.
252	Observations in this and other experimental studies challenge interpretation of oxide
253	inclusions in identified in diamonds. While traditionally (Mg,Fe)O inclusions have been
254	considered to be a smoking gun for formation in the Earth's lower mantle, as a leftover from the
255	breakdown of Mg2SiO4 to lower mantle bridgmanite (Kaminsky, 2012), carbonate
256	disproportionation is another possible mechanism for oxide formation (Tappert et al., 2005;
257	Thomson et al., 2016). Direct observation of lower mantle silicates of appropriate compositions
258	is necessary to confirm ultra-deep diamond origin.

5. Conclusions

Magnesite-siderite is not a likely host phase for carbonate in reduced regions of the deep 260 261 lower mantle, but post-aragonite-type CaCO₃ may be stable in carbonate-rich lithologies. While CaCO₃ undergoes more pressure-induced polymorphic transitions than (Mg,Fe)CO₃ in the deep 262 263 mantle and may be more likely to react with lower mantle silicates, relative to (Mg,Fe)CO₃ it is less likely to participate in redox reactions. A low f_{O2} environment in the lower mantle (Frost and 264

McCammon, 2008; Rohrbach and Schmidt, 2011) will promote breakdown of ferromagnesite but CaCO₃ will remain stable to pressure, temperature and redox conditions near the base of the lower mantle if isolated from silicates. A carbonate-rich heterogeneity near the base of the mantle could be a high-pressure marble, with CaCO₃ associated with diamonds formed by breakdown of MgCO₃.

270 Diamond-bearing marble in the lower mantle is not likely to be directly observable by

271 seismic tomography, but could impact observations of heterogeneous redox conditions at depth

due to mantle convection and subduction and/or signatures of Earth's chemical evolution.

273 Heterogeneous oxygen fugacity at depth is evident in diamond inclusions (Brenker et al., 2007;

Walter et al., 2011; Ryabchikov and Kaminsky, 2013; Smith et al., 2016; Kaminsky, 2012) as

275 well as chemical variation in both mid-ocean ridge basalts due to relative contributions of

276 depleted and primitive mantle sources (Cottrell and Kelley, 2013) and ocean island basalts

potentially sourced from the core-mantle boundary (White, 2010). The interpretation of available

278 redox proxies for the deep mantle over deep time, particularly presence of carbonate (e.g.

279 Brenker et al., 2007) and speciation of iron (Frost and McCammon, 2008), must be evaluated in

the light of the multivariable dependence of stability of MgCO₃ and CaCO₃ on temperature, bulk

281 composition of the phase assemblage and f_{O2} .

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Figure 1: Backscattered scanning electron image recorded at 4 kV of dolomite-iron reaction
interface in sample thin section recovered from 66 GPa and 1900-2200 K. The iron-rich region in
the center appears brightest due to its high density. The extent of iron diffusion into and reaction
with the Fe-poor carbonate is also evident based on density. A few micron offset in alignment of
upstream and downstream lasers may be responsible for asymmetry of heated spot.



- 514 Figure 2: Energy-dispersive X-ray image of a) exsolution of two carbonates from dolomite at 51
- 515 GPa and b) formation of Fp + C + CaCO₃ at 113 GPa. Elements color-coded as follows:
- 516 red=iron, blue=calcium, green=magnesium, white=carbon.
- 517





- 522 blue=calcium, green=magnesium, white=carbon. b) Examples of EDX spectra obtained for each
- 523 phase.



Figure 4: X-ray diffraction patterns observed before and after transforming samples of dolomite
(d) and iron foil (Fe) to magnesiowüstite and ferropericlase (gold Mw and Fp), Fe₇C₃ (red), and
post-aragonite-type CaCO₃ (blue) at pressures 51-113 GPa and temperatures 1800-2500 K in the

528 laser-heated diamond anvil cell. Additional diffraction peaks from high-pressure polymorphs of 529 dolomite are labelled dII and dIII. For these experiments λ =0.3100 Å.

530





532 Figure 5: Compositions for observed phases obtained from EDX spectra plotted on Mg-Fe-Ca

533 ternary diagrams.





Figure 6: Observed unit cell volumes for Mw (black) and Fp (green) in this study plotted relative
to previously-measured equations of state for Fp-Mw compositions with different
Fo#=Fo/(Mg+Fo) (Foi at al. 2007; Fischer et al. 2011; Speciale et al. 2001). Pressures for data

538 Fe#=Fe/(Mg+Fe) (Fei et al., 2007; Fischer et al., 2011; Speziale et al., 2001). Pressures for data

539 in this study are assumed to be the same as pressures obtained from the Fe foil before heating.

540 (Mg,Fe)O diffraction peaks are split, indicating unit cell volumes consistent with coexistence of

541 FeO at the sample center and ~(Mg0.6Fe0.4)O produced by breakdown of the dolomite. A

542 decrease in unit cell volume observed in both oxides between 66 and 77 GPa is consistent with

543 the spin transition in iron-rich Mw and structural change in FeO under these conditions.

545 Table 1.

546 Pressure, temperature, and heating duration for all experiments. Pressures given were obtained
547 before heating from the equation of state of the iron foil (Mao et al., 1990). Temperature
548 differences between downstream and upstream sides were typically observed to be ~100 K and
549 varied by ~100 K over the heating duration.

Duration (min) Pressure before heating Temperature (K) 550 551 (GPa) 1800-2050 51 15 1900-2200 66 10 1900-2200 20 77 113 2400-2500 10