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1 **Calcium isotope fractionation in solids (silicates, carbonates,**
2 **oxides) from Density Functional Theory: superiority of the**
3 **PBEsol functional, and vibrational dragging by strong anionic**
4 **groups.**

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Abstract

The fractionation of Ca isotopes has been computed between various solids (calcite, dolomite, aragonite, lime CaO, diopside, grossular) based on six different DFT-based theoretical schemes (PZ, PBE, vdW-DF2, BLYP, BLYP + Grimme-D2 correction, and PBEsol). The results strongly depend on the selected theoretical scheme, with almost 2‰ differences in some cases, for isotope fractionations varying by 8‰ overall. Based on several quality criteria (accuracy and consistency of the error on structure and vibrations in particular), the PBEsol functional appears more accurate and more consistent than the others, with PZ and VdW-oriented functionals behaving particularly badly. The possibilities for correction based on experimental frequencies were evaluated in details, pushing further the principle of frequency rescaling. Even for exceptional cases where the experimental frequencies were exhaustively characterized, the uncertainty attached to this procedure reaches typically 0.5‰. Discrepancy with previously published results suggests that, beyond the selected theoretical scheme, numerical details such as electronic wave-function basis sets or general modelling approaches may also significantly infer on the result. Recommended values for the mineral-calcite Ca isotope fractionation at 300K are -0.9, -2.9, +2.3, +0.12 and +4.3‰ for dolomite, aragonite, lime CaO, diopside and grossular, respectively. The most important parameter controlling the fractionation of Ca isotopes appears to be the presence of strong anionic groups, inasmuch as those groups vibrate at high frequency and “drag” Ca in their vibrational displacements, inducing significant contributions to the isotope fractionation properties of this element. This is the case for SiO₄ tetrahedral groups. On the opposite, CO₃ vibrations in carbonates appear disconnected from Ca displacements, explaining the lighter values of carbonates compared to silicates.

1. INTRODUCTION

Calcium is the 5th most abundant element in Earth's crust. It is also the 6th most important macronutrient in plants, and one of the most important elements in human physiology. Variations of its stable isotope composition, measurable by recent progresses in mass spectrometry and analytical chemistry, bring major insights into the geochemical and physiological processes involving Ca, with application to e.g. climatic reconstruction, bone cancer diagnosis or design of efficient agricultural nutrients (Gussone et al., 2016). Ca isotopes have shown their potential to unravel processes occurring at the water-soil-plant interface (Schmitt, 2016), as well as during its transfer to oceans and within oceans (Gussone et al., 2016).

To extract the information contained in those signatures, constraints on isotopic fractionation induced by individual physico-chemical processes are mandatory. Equilibrium isotope fractionation is a key parameter and can be quantified from theoretical considerations based on statistical physics and electronic structure calculations. Efficient electronic structure calculations are made possible by the Density Functional Theory (DFT). Calcium isotope equilibrium fractionation has been explored by Antonelli et al. (2019) and Huang et al. (2019) for high temperature silicate systems, by Rustad et al. (2010) and Wang et al. (2017b) at low temperature, between carbonates (calcite, dolomite, magnesite) and aqueous Ca²⁺, and by Colla et al. (2013) and Moynier and Fujii (2017) between various dissolved Ca species. However, it is difficult to infer the reliability of those studies. For example, Rustad et al. (2010) and Wang et al. (2017b) provide very different estimate of the calcite-dolomite equilibrium (2.1 vs 1.2 ‰ at 300K). A key aspect of validation is the comparison to experimental data (structure, vibrations, and possibly isotopes fractionation). In particular, calculated frequencies should be properly compared to experimental measurements. This requires exhaustive compilations of vibrational properties (from Raman and Infrared spectroscopies). The materials in this study were chosen as the most exhaustively characterized among the carbonate, silicate and oxide families. They all correspond to ionic, anhydrous, compact solids. The important cases (see below) of hydrous minerals (such as ikaite or Ca-oxalates) or dissolved species cannot be considered as they are insufficiently well characterized for their vibrational properties.

The core approximation that permits electronic structure calculations based on the density

42 functional theory resides in the approximate functional used to describe the way that elec-
43 tronic energy depends on electronic density. In that respect, an issue insufficiently addressed
44 by the above mentioned studies is the effect of the theoretical scheme, and, central to it, the
45 choice of the density functional. The simple local density approximation (LDA) is consid-
46 ered as suitable for silicates (e.g. Tsuchiya et al., 2004), but inadequate for materials with
47 H-bonds, for which gradient-corrected approximation (GGA) are generally preferred (Lee
48 et al., 1992, Hamann, 1997). The hybrid B3LYP functional has also been used by several
49 studies to compute carbonate solids and dissolved species (e.g Rustad et al., 2010, Moynier
50 and Fujii, 2017). Although not the main focus of this paper, Ca in solution is an important
51 system to understand fractionations observed in nature, in particular for low-temperature
52 systems, in which isotopic signatures generally result from precipitation in solution. Ca in
53 solution seems better described (at least for its structure) by theoretical schemes including
54 Van der Waals corrections (Baer and Mundy, 2016).

55 Fractionation properties are occurring between phases, that can belong to different fami-
56 lies, better described by different theoretical schemes. However, because they ultimately
57 originate from small differences in vibrational properties, it is very important to compute
58 those properties as consistently as possible. One (quite satisfying) possibility is to keep
59 the same theoretical scheme for all phases. In this goal, we evaluate the efficiency of six
60 different theoretical schemes, among those described above. Another possibility is to correct
61 the results of a particular scheme based on experiment. The most common approach (e.g.
62 Schauble et al., 2006) is to consider that a given theoretical scheme biases frequencies by
63 a constant relative amount at first order, and to take a single rescaling factor determined
64 from the comparison with experiment to correct theoretical frequencies. The efficiency of
65 such corrections has to be evaluated.

66 Various solids were considered in this work (oxides: lime CaO ; carbonates: calcite CaCO_3 ,
67 dolomite $\text{CaMg}(\text{CO}_3)_2$, aragonite CaCO_3 ; silicates: grossular $\text{Ca}_3\text{Al}_2\text{Si}_4\text{O}_{12}$, diopside
68 $\text{CaMgSi}_2\text{O}_6$), chosen for their structural variety, and most importantly for the existence
69 of exhaustive quantification of their vibrational properties at the experimental level. Struc-
70 tures with H-bonds are absent from this list, as the more suitable ones (such as ikaite or
71 Ca-oxalates) remain partly characterized for their vibrational properties. The structural,
72 vibrational and fractionation properties of these materials are calculated with various the-
73 oretical schemes (PZ, PBE, vdW-DF2, BLYP, BLYP+D2, PBEsol). The code that is used

74 here (Quantum Espresso) cannot implement the B3LYP functional efficiently, due to the
75 use of plane wave basis sets, and the efficiency of this functional was only estimated based
76 on literature. The PBEsol functional (Perdew et al., 2008) previously showed efficient in
77 the challenging case of the aragonite-calcite equilibrium (Demichelis et al., 2017). For the
78 sake of a precise comparison with the work of Rustad et al., 2010, we also computed calcite
79 properties within the BP86 functional (Becke, 1988, Perdew, 1986), that is similar to PBE
80 or BLYP .

81 2. METHODS

82 2.1. The Isotopic Fractionation Factor α .

83 $\beta^{44/40}Ca_A$ is the isotopic fractionation factor of the element Ca between the phase A and
84 a perfect gas of Ca atoms, having the natural mean isotopic concentration. The isotopic
85 fractionation factor $\alpha^{44/40}Ca_{A-B}$ relative to an atom Ca , between two phases A and B can
86 be written as the ratio of the β -factors relative to this atom and to each phase separately
87 (Richet et al., 1977).

88 If A is a crystalline solid, $\beta^{44/40}Ca_A$ can be computed from the harmonic vibrational prop-
89 erties of A using

$$\beta^{44/40}Ca_A = \left[\frac{Q(^{44}Ca_N)}{Q(^{40}Ca_N)} \right]^{1/N} \left[\frac{m_{40}}{m_{44}} \right]^{3/2} \quad (1)$$

90 where $Q(^{44}Ca_N)$ and $Q(^{40}Ca_N)$ are the partition functions of the system having all the N
91 Ca atoms substituted by ^{44}Ca and ^{40}Ca , respectively. The harmonic partition function of
92 a crystalline solid is:

$$Q = \left[\prod_{i=1}^{3N^{at}} \prod_{\{\mathbf{q}\}}^* \frac{e^{-h\nu_{\mathbf{q},i}/(2kT)}}{1 - e^{-h\nu_{\mathbf{q},i}/(kT)}} \right]^{1/(N_q)} \quad (2)$$

93 where $\nu_{\mathbf{q},i}$ are the frequencies of the phonon with wavevector \mathbf{q} and branch index $i=1,3N^{at}$.
94 N^{at} is the number of atoms in the unit cell, N is the number of Ca atoms in the unit cell,
95 T is the absolute temperature, k is the Boltzmann constant and h is Plank's constant. The
96 product is performed on a sufficiently large grid of N_q \mathbf{q} -vectors in the Brillouin zone. The

97 ★ symbol above the product of Eq. (2) indicates that the three translational modes with
 98 $\nu_{0,i} = 0$ are not considered.

99 2.2. Vibrational Analysis.

100 In order to identify the relative contributions of each vibrational modes to the overall β -
 101 factor, Méheut et al. (2009) developed an approach called “vibrational analysis”. In this
 102 approach, we consider the β -factor computable from a linear development in $\mu = \frac{1}{m}$:

$$\ln \beta^{44/40} Ca_A \approx \frac{1}{N_q N} \sum_{q,i} \left. \frac{\partial \ln(f(\nu_{q,i}^\mu))}{\partial \mu} \right|_{\mu=\bar{\mu}} \Delta\mu, \quad (3)$$

103 where $\bar{\mu} = (\mu_{44} + \mu_{40})/2$, $\Delta\mu = \mu_{44} - \mu_{40}$ and

$$f(\nu) = \nu \frac{e^{-\frac{h\nu}{2kT}}}{1 - e^{-\frac{h\nu}{kT}}}.$$

104 Eq. (3) expresses the β -factor as a product of the contributions from each vibrational mode.
 105 Instead of running over all phonon modes, Eq. (2) can be limited to the Γ -point ($q=0$)
 106 (Dupuis et al., 2015), giving:

$$\beta_{\Gamma}^{44/40} Ca_A = \prod_{i=3}^{3N_{at}} \frac{f(\nu_{44,i})}{f(\nu_{40,i})} \quad (4)$$

107 where $\nu_{44/40,i}$ refers to the frequency associated with the system with all sites occupied by
 108 ^{44}Ca or ^{40}Ca isotopes. The product runs over all Transversal Optic modes.
 109 By opposition to β_{Γ} , the β -factor defined by Eqs. (1) and (2) will be further referred as
 110 ”exact”.

111 Then, we derive the equivalent of Eq. (3) for Γ -point sampling:

$$\ln \beta_{\Gamma}^{44/40} Ca_A \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_i \left. \frac{\partial \ln(f(\nu_i^\mu))}{\partial \mu} \right|_{\mu=\bar{\mu}} \Delta\mu = \sum_i h_i, \quad (5)$$

112 where we have defined the individual contribution h_i (in %) of mode i to the β -factor at Γ .

113 2.3. Error estimation based on experimental frequencies

114 To quantitatively assess the error of our calculated fractionation properties based on existing
 115 experimental frequencies, we have set up an original approach. First, the experimental

116 frequencies are usually only available for limited q-points in the First Brillouin Zone (FBZ),
 117 and for the ^{40}Ca material. Except for CaO, they are here originating from IR and Raman
 118 spectroscopy, and correspond to the Γ -point (q=0) of the FBZ. For these materials, we
 119 have computed the vibrational analysis only at q=0 (Eq. (5)), giving for each frequency its
 120 contribution (in ‰) to the β -factor at q=0. Limiting the sampling to the Γ -point (Eq. (4))
 121 shows valid for large systems (Dupuis et al., 2015, for Si isotopes).

122 In the case of the present study, Table 1 shows the β -factors calculated with the PBEsol
 123 functional, exactly (Eqs (1) and (2)) and with Γ -point sampling (Eq (4)). For grossular,
 124 $\ln\beta_\Gamma$ shows negligibly different from the exact calculation. For dolomite, calcite, diopside and
 125 aragonite, probably due to the small size of some cell parameters, the difference between $\ln\beta$
 126 exact and $\ln\beta_\Gamma$ is not negligible in absolute value (around 1‰). Given the limited relative
 127 error, we however expect the Γ sampling as adequate to evaluate the relative contributions of
 128 the different parts of the vibrational spectrum to fractionation properties. This is necessary
 129 for our correction procedure presented below.

130 For CaO, since we have dispersion curves giving frequencies on the whole Brillouin zone,
 131 and since considering the frequencies at q=0 only gave a result significantly different from
 132 the well converged one, we considered the frequencies on a 2x2x2 grid of the Brillouin zone
 133 (centered on zero, see Table 1).

134 For each frequency we can now assess what is its contribution to Ca isotope fractionation
 135 properties (h_i) and its offset-vs-experiment (χ_i). To correct for this offset and obtain the
 136 "true" β -factor, we will follow the lines exposed in Appendix B of Méheut et al., 2009.

We assume that a calculated frequency $^{40}\nu_i$ and its corresponding isotopic frequency shift
 $^{44/40}\Delta_i = ^{40}\nu_i - ^{44}\nu_i$ are inaccurate by the same relative amount χ_i :

$$^{40}\nu_{i,calc} = \chi_i \times ^{40}\nu_{i,exp}$$

and

$$^{44/40}\Delta_{i,calc} = \chi_i \times ^{44/40}\Delta_{i,exp}$$

137 In this case, this will induce an error $\tilde{\chi}_i$ on h_i equal to:

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{\chi}_i &\equiv \frac{h_{i,calc}}{h_{i,exp}} \\ &= \chi_i \left(1 + \frac{f^2(u_i) - 1}{1 - f(u_i)\cosh(u_i/2)} \right) \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

138 with $u_i = \frac{h^{40}\nu_i}{kT}$ and $f(u) = \frac{u}{e^{u/2} - e^{-u/2}}$.

As will be shown below, the frequencies contributing to Ca isotope fractionation at equilibrium extend typically from 150 to 350 cm^{-1} . For this range, and for $T > 300\text{K}$, equation (6) gives $\tilde{\chi}$ very close to 2χ (more precisely, $\tilde{\chi}$ will be between 1.98χ -for $f=150\text{cm}^{-1}$ - and 1.91χ -for $f=350\text{cm}^{-1}$ -). We will therefore consider the following equation to correct the β -factor for frequency errors:

$$\ln \beta_{\Gamma,corr}^{44/40} Ca = \sum_i (h_i \times (1 - 2 * \chi_i)) \quad (7)$$

139 This equation is strictly equivalent to the following one:

$$\begin{aligned} \ln \beta_{\Gamma,corr}^{44/40} Ca &= \left(\sum_i h_i \right) \times (1 - 2 * \bar{\chi}^h) \\ &= \ln \beta_{\Gamma} \times (1 - 2 * \bar{\chi}^h), \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

140 where $\bar{\chi}^h$ is the relative frequency error weighted by the contribution h :

$$\bar{\chi}^h = \frac{\sum_i \chi_i * h_i}{\sum_i h_i} \quad (9)$$

141 If this reasoning is correct, the error on the logarithmic β -factors is therefore twice the error
 142 $\bar{\chi}^h$. $\bar{\chi}^h$ measures the frequency error *of the frequencies important for Ca isotope fractionation*
 143 *properties*. Practically, $\bar{\chi}^h$ was estimated based on existing experimental data, i.e. the sum
 144 in Eq. (9) was realized on the modes for which experimental frequencies are available. The
 145 accuracy of this estimate is therefore depending on the completeness of the experimental
 146 data.

147 In addition, if the exact β -factor is different from β_{Γ} , and if $\bar{\chi}^h$ is known, the same correction
 148 can be applied to the exact β -factor:

$$\ln \beta_{corr}^{44/40} Ca = \ln \beta_{exact}^{44/40} Ca \times (1 - 2 * \bar{\chi}^h) \quad (10)$$

149 In the literature (e.g. Schauble et al., 2006), the correction for functional error on vibra-
 150 tional frequencies is realized through a “scaling factor” (SF), equivalent to multiplying all
 151 frequencies by the same $\bar{\chi}$ factor, that we will determine here by directly averaging the χ_i :

$$\ln \beta_{corr-SF}^{44/40} Ca = \ln \beta_{exact}^{44/40} \times (1 - 2 * \bar{\chi}) \quad (11)$$

152 with:

$$\bar{\chi} = \frac{\sum_i \chi_i}{nfreq} \quad (12)$$

153 with *nfreq* the number of available experimental frequencies.

154 **2.4. DFT calculations**

155 The phonon frequencies are computed from first principles using density functional theory
156 (DFT) (Hohenberg and Kohn, 1964; Kohn and Sham, 1965).

157 The core approximation that permits electronic structure calculations based on DFT re-
158 sides in the building of an approximate functional that describes the relation between the
159 electronic density and electronic energy.

160 The choice of the functional can be rooted on various considerations. The simple local
161 density approximation (LDA), such as parametrized by Perdew and Zünger (PZ, Perdew
162 and Zunger, 1981), is numerically very efficient. It has been shown reliable for silicate
163 systems to predict their structural, vibrational and thermodynamical properties such as
164 state diagrams (e.g. Tsuchiya et al., 2004). It was chosen by Fang Huang et al. to compute
165 Ca isotope fractionation in anhydrous silicates and carbonates (Wang et al., 2017b; Huang
166 et al., 2019). The PZ functional is however inadequate for materials containing hydrogen.
167 Gradient-corrected functionals such as PBE (Perdew et al., 1996); BLYP (Becke, 1988; Lee
168 et al., 1988) are preferred in this case. These functionals were used in our preceding works
169 on Si, O and H fractionation properties (Méheut et al., 2010, 2014; Fügler et al., 2018). On
170 the other hand, Rustad et al., 2010, Colla et al., 2013, and Moynier and Fujii, 2017 focus
171 on the more evolved B3LYP functional (Becke, 1993). Several properties of the Ca atom
172 appear to be very sensitive to the choice of the functional, but so far little is known about
173 their reliability. An illustrative example of this is the number of water molecules in the
174 coordination sphere of the Ca^{2+} aquo ion as inferred from molecular dynamics simulations,
175 that vary from 5 to 10 depending on the way the atomic interactions are taken into account
176 (considering both electronic structure and calculations based on empirical potentials, Chizhik
177 et al., 2016). Experimental results (X-ray, Neutron Diffraction or EXAFS studies) are, in
178 this regard, no more conclusive (see discussion in Chizhik et al., 2016). Considering only
179 methods based on first-principles calculations, the range of coordinations found for $\text{Ca}_{(aq)}^{2+}$
180 is smaller (6-7, Baer and Mundy, 2016 and references therein), but their reliability remains

181 questioned, and a limited number of functionals have been tested so far (BLYP, PBE, HCTH,
182 PBE96, Chizhik et al., 2016). Baer and Mundy (2016) argued on the validity of a calculation
183 based on the BLYP functional in addition to the dispersion correction (D2) put forth by
184 Grimme (Grimme, 2004). This correction, intended to remedy to the incomplete account of
185 weak dispersion forces by gradient-corrected functionals, is generally considered for aqueous
186 systems. Theoretical schemes accounting for dispersion forces (vdW-DF2 functional, Lee
187 et al., 2010) were tested to compute Si fractionation properties (Stamm et al., 2020), but
188 did not show any net advantage in that particular case. As illustrated above, the choice of
189 the functional is generally system dependent. However, as fractionation properties result
190 from the thermodynamic equilibrium between various phases, it is utterly important to find
191 a theoretical scheme that is able to properly model various kinds of systems with the same
192 level of accuracy. As such, the efficiency of our theoretical scheme is primarily estimated
193 as its consistency, i.e. its capacity to induce errors that are as much system-independent as
194 possible.

195 In this work we have used the local approximation of Perdew and Zunger (PZ) (Perdew and
196 Zunger, 1981), the generalized-gradient approximations to the exchange-correlation func-
197 tional of Perdew, Burke and Ernzerhof (PBE) (Perdew et al., 1996) and of Becke, Lee and
198 Par (BLYP) (Becke, 1988, Lee et al., 1988). We have also considered calculations with the
199 vdW-DF2 non-local functional (Lee et al., 2010), and calculations with the BLYP functional
200 with the Grimme-D2 correction (BLYP-GD2) (Grimme, 2006, Barone et al., 2009). Those
201 two theoretical frameworks are considered here for their interest to treat aqueous systems
202 (Baer and Mundy, 2016, Ducher et al., 2017), as the fractionation properties of aqueous Ca
203 are of high interest for Ca isotopes geochemistry. Here, the materials in consideration should
204 not require such theoretical frameworks. However, as isotopic fractionation is measured be-
205 tween two different phases, it is of primary importance to treat both systems consistently, to
206 avoid systematic errors. As a consequence, if the treatment of Ca in solution requires the use
207 of BLYP-GD2 or vdW-DF2 frameworks, it is essential to check for their efficiency for crys-
208 talline solids as well. A last functional, PBEsol (Perdew et al., 2008) was also tested here.
209 This functional previously showed efficient as an alternative to B3LYP in the challenging
210 case of the aragonite-calcite equilibrium (Demichelis et al., 2017).

211 Ionic cores of each atom are described by norm-conserving pseudopotentials (Troullier and
212 Martins, 1991) in the Kleinman-Bylander form (Kleinman and Bylander, 1982). The pseu-

213 dopotentials used for Al, Si and O are described in the electronic annexes of Méheut
 214 et al. (2007). The pseudopotential used for C is described in Füger et al. (2018) . The
 215 pseudopotentials used for Ca and Mg were taken from the PSLibrary (Dal Corso, 2014).
 216 Computational details for calcite are the same as in Füger et al. (2018) . For all other
 217 minerals (lime CaO, dolomite, aragonite, diopside, grossular), the electronic wave-functions
 218 are expanded in plane-waves up to an energy cut-off $\epsilon_{cut} = 80\text{Ry}$, and the charge density
 219 cut-off is $4\epsilon_{cut}$.
 220 The electronic integration is performed by sampling the Brillouin zone with a $4 \times 4 \times 4$ k-points
 221 grid for CaO, a $3 \times 3 \times 3$ k-point grid for dolomite, a $3 \times 2 \times 3$ k-points grid for aragonite, and a
 222 $2 \times 3 \times 2$ k-points grid for diopside according to the Monkhorst-Pack scheme (Monkhorst and
 223 Pack, 1976). Due to the large unit-cell of grossular, the electronic sampling can be restricted
 224 to a single k-point $(1/4, 1/4, 1/4)$, chosen according to Baldereschi (1973).
 225 Phonon frequencies are computed using linear response theory (Baroni et al., 2001), with
 226 the Quantum-Espresso package (Giannozzi et al., 2009). Interatomic force-constants are
 227 obtained from the dynamical matrices computed exactly (within DFT) on a $n \times m \times p$ grid
 228 of q-vectors ($4 \times 4 \times 4$, $2 \times 3 \times 2$, $3 \times 2 \times 3$ and $1 \times 1 \times 1$ for CaO, diopside, aragonite and grossular,
 229 respectively)
 230 Long-range effects are taken into account by computing Born effective-charges and static
 231 dielectric constants (Baroni et al., 2001). Dynamical matrices and thus phonon frequencies,
 232 can then be obtained in any point of the reciprocal space by Fourier-interpolation of the
 233 force constants. For all materials, the vibrational partition function (Eq. (2)) is converged
 234 with a $5 \times 5 \times 5$ interpolation grid.

235 **3. RESULTS**

236 **3.1. Structural properties**

237 The relaxed structures are reported in Table EA-1, for each material and within each of
 238 the 6 theoretical schemes considered here. Average Ca-O distances are also reported. Since
 239 those distances are often correlated with equilibrium fractionation properties, an efficient
 240 way to comment on the efficiency of the various theoretical schemes is to look at their error
 241 on average Ca-O distances. On Figure 1, we report the relative error of each calculations

242 on average Ca-O distances $\langle Ca - O \rangle$.

243 It shows that the PZ functional tends to underestimate CaO distances (and cell parameters,
244 cf Table EA-1), whereas PBE and BLYP functionals tend to overestimate them, consistently
245 with previous studies (for PZ functional: see e.g. Huang et al., 2019; for PBE and BLYP
246 functionals: see e.g. Méheut and Schauble, 2014, Dupuis et al., 2015). The vdW-DF2 and
247 BLYP+GD2 calculations, that have been implemented to effectively correct for the short-
248 comings of GGA functionals in accounting for the weak Van der Waals forces (Kristyán
249 and Pulay, 1994), show contrasting results. Adding the Grimme-D2 correction to the BLYP
250 functional (BLYP+GD2 scheme) leads to smaller (and closer to experiment) structural pa-
251 rameters, which seems reasonable considering that the Grimme-D2 correction corresponds
252 to adding an attractive force. On the contrary, calculations with the vdW-DF2 functional
253 lead to elongate Ca-O distances ($+1.7 \pm 0.3\%$) and cell parameters, in particular relative
254 to PBE ($+1.0 \pm 0.4\%$ for $\langle Ca - O \rangle$). This is contradictory with our results in Stamm
255 et al., 2020, which were dealing with organic materials containing Si-O bonds. In that case,
256 the vdW-DF2 lead to cell parameters smaller than PBE, and closer to experiment, whereas
257 Si-O bond lengths were the same with PBE and vdW-DF2, as expected (Supplemental Table
258 A.1 of Stamm et al., 2020). For the materials considered in this study, the improvement of
259 vdW-DF2 over PBE is not clear. Lastly, in terms of the general agreement with experiment,
260 the PBEsol calculation shows the best result, with a difference of $-0.45 \pm 0.25\%$ relative to
261 measured bond lengths.

262 In terms of the overall variation of the error of a given theoretical scheme from one material
263 to the other (hereafter called spread), the PBEsol calculation shows also superior to the
264 others (except vdW-DF2, cf Table EA-1), with a spread of 0.25%, versus 0.4% to 0.7%
265 for the other calculations. It means that, as far as we can judge, PBEsol (together with
266 vdW-DF2) is more consistent, or more transferable than the other theoretical schemes.

267 Lastly, it should be noted that the structural parameters of CaO, calcite, dolomite and
268 aragonite are usually more underestimated (or less overestimated), whereas the structural
269 parameters of grossular and diopside are generally less underestimated (or more overesti-
270 mated). There is however no systematic trend.

271 3.2. Vibrational properties

272 Tables EA-2 to EA-7 present, for each material considered here and the 6 considered theo-
273 retical schemes (functionals+correction), the complete vibrational properties, and compare
274 them with experimental frequencies. For the frequencies that could be compared to their
275 measured counterpart, we computed the offset $\chi_i = \frac{\nu_{th}}{\nu_{exp}}$.

276 Figure 2, corresponding to our PBEsol calculation, shows typical patterns for the $\chi(\nu_{exp})$
277 diagram: for CaO, calcite and aragonite, χ is highly variable below 400 cm^{-1} , and much less
278 for higher frequencies. In comparison, the two silicates grossular and diopside show much less
279 scatter below 400 cm^{-1} . Note that, as discussed in 3.3, the $0\text{-}400\text{ cm}^{-1}$ interval is associated
280 with the largest contribution to Ca isotope fractionation properties at equilibrium.

281 This can be seen also based on statistical analysis (see Fig.3). For the PBEsol functional, the
282 variability of χ ($\sigma(\chi)$) is 3.7%, 3.6% and 4.0% for CaO, calcite and aragonite, respectively,
283 and only 1.3% and 1.7% for grossular and diopside, respectively.

284 Note also that for aragonite with the BLYP functional (with or without Grimme-D2 correc-
285 tion), two calculated frequencies are negative ($B_{2u}(1)$ and $A_u(1)$, Table EA-5). Although
286 this may appear as an argument to disqualify this functional, those frequencies contribute
287 negligibly to the β -factor (see discussion below), so we decided to simply exclude them from
288 our estimations.

289 Based on statistical analysis, Fig.3 shows that, for a given material, the variability of the
290 frequency error χ ($\sigma(\chi)$) can be quite important, up to 12.3% for the BLYP calculation of
291 calcite. Not surprisingly, this variability is generally smaller for the two silicates considered
292 here, as underlined above for PBEsol. Noticeably, PBEsol shows the lowermost variability
293 $\sigma(\chi)$ compared to other theoretical schemes for all materials, with a few cases where PZ or
294 PBE show equivalent results. Interestingly, even B3LYP calculations found in the literature
295 do not show less variability than PBEsol. Looking at the spread (total domain of variation
296 of $\bar{\chi}$ between the different materials), PBEsol shows also more consistent than other schemes
297 except PZ. However, to conclude on the consistency of a given theoretical scheme, it is better
298 to take into account the contribution of the various frequencies to the fractionation, as Ca
299 fractionation is related to some particular modes only. This will be discussed below.

300 **3.3. β -factors and correction**

301 The results will be discussed in terms of the logarithmic β -factors ($\ln\beta$) and logarithmic
302 fractionation factors ($\ln\alpha$) expressed in parts per thousand (‰). Table 2 summarizes all the
303 fractionation properties calculated at 300K within all the theoretical frameworks considered.
304 Figure 4 represents all the mineral pair fractionations calculated here.

305 Tables EA-2 to EA-7 present, for each material considered here and the 6 considered theo-
306 retical schemes (functionals+correction), the complete vibrational properties at the Γ -point,
307 the calculated exact logarithmic β -factors at 300K, and the contribution h_i of each Γ -point
308 vibrational frequency to the β -factor (except for CaO, for which a 2x2x2 Brillouin Zone
309 Sampling is considered).

310 Fig 5 visualizes these contributions h as a function of theoretical frequencies, and their
311 integrated value (for the PBEsol calculations only, since the general features of these curves
312 do not depend on the theoretical scheme). The main contributing frequencies are in the
313 range 100-400 cm^{-1} . Note, however, that the silicates (grossular and diopside) show high-
314 frequency contributions, if not dominating, at least much higher than for the other materials,
315 in particular the carbonates. Those high vibrational frequencies correspond to modes (i.e.,
316 collective atomic displacements) implying the displacements of the more strongly bonded
317 atoms (SiO, AlO). The fact that they are contributing to the fractionation of Ca isotopes
318 means that the Ca atom is in fact displaced in those modes, even if slightly. In other words,
319 the Ca atom appears dragged by the high-frequency displacement of other structural units
320 (in particular, SiO_4 or AlO_6), resulting in a contribution of those high-frequency modes to
321 fractionation.

322 Lastly, Tables EA-2 to EA-7 also compare calculated and experimental frequencies, giving
323 the offset χ_i and the corrected β -factor at 300K following Eqs. (11) or (9). Table 2 summarize
324 these fractionation properties (raw and corrected) at 300K.

325 **4. DISCUSSION**

326 **4.1. Uncertainty on Ca fractionation**

327 As seen on Figure 4, the calculated fractionation properties are varying significantly, typically
328 by 1‰, between the different theoretical frameworks. More precisely, the variation due

329 to the theoretical framework, hereafter called "functional spread" goes from 0.4‰ for the
330 grossular-aragonite pair (fractionation between 7.3 ‰ for BLYP and 6.9 ‰ for vdW-DF2)
331 to 1.7 ‰ for the grossular-diopside pair (fractionation between 4.5 ‰ for PZ and 2.8 ‰
332 for BLYP+D2). Trying to acknowledge if some minerals are more problematic than others,
333 one can observe that diopside appears the most (three times over four) in pairs showing
334 the largest functional spreads. Mineral pairs involving only carbonates show on average
335 less functional spread (from 0.5 to 0.9), but this is clearly not the case among silicates, as
336 exemplified by the grossular-diopside pair. In any case, this variation due to theoretical
337 framework appears significant with respect to the corresponding fractionations, and well
338 above the level of analytical accuracy of isotopic measurements.

339 Trying to acknowledge which functionals behave worse, we can observe that PZ, and func-
340 tionals accounting for van der Waals interactions (BLYP+D2, vdW-DF2) behave particularly
341 badly. Indeed, from our 15 mineral pair calculations, we have 30 "extreme" calculations (i.e.
342 theoretical schemes representing either the larger or the smaller value for a given fractiona-
343 tion). These extreme values are coming from BLYP-D2 (10 times), PZ (7 times), vdW-DF2
344 (6 times), PBEsol (4 times), BLYP (2 times) and PBE (once).

345 **4.2. Correction procedure**

346 The interest of the above discussion is that it is independent of any correction. Its weakness
347 is that we don't know what the correct fractionation could be, in order to determine which
348 functional may approximate it best.

349 To improve the accuracy of those calculations, several works (e.g. Schauble et al., 2006,
350 Méheut et al., 2009) have attempted to correct for the error on frequencies, based on exper-
351 iment.

352 *4.2.1. Scaling factor*

353 The common approach assumes that a given theoretical scheme systematically underesti-
354 mates or overestimates all vibrational frequencies by the same relative amount. Likewise,
355 the average relative error on frequencies ($\bar{\chi}$, Eq. (12)) is computed. $\bar{\chi}$ is then used to correct
356 all frequencies, leading to Eq. (11) for the β -factor.

357 If the starting hypothesis was correct, this procedure should give the same result for any
 358 functional, as it corrects for its systematic error. Figure 6 illustrates this procedure for the
 359 β -factors of calcite. The black filled symbols represent the β -factors computed within the
 360 different theoretical frameworks. Then, from the comparison of the calculated vibrational
 361 properties with experiment, an average scaling factor is obtained ($\bar{\chi}$), for each theoretical
 362 scheme (for calcite, $\bar{\chi}=+2.1\%$, -8.2% , -6.3% , -9.1% , -7.3% and -3.4% respectively for PZ,
 363 PBE, vdW-DF2, BLYP+D2, and PBEsol, cf Table EA-3). This unique factor is then used to
 364 correct fractionation properties (Eq. (12), blue empty symbols on Figure 6). The outcome
 365 of this approach is disappointing: indeed, the corrected β -factors show the same dispersion
 366 as the raw ones, before correction.

367 Table 1 further illustrates the functional spread on β -factors for each mineral, before (first
 368 line for each mineral) and after rescaling (second line). In general, the rescaling procedure
 369 indeed reduces the spread, but with very variable efficiencies (almost nul for calcite - see
 370 Figure 6 - for which the spread goes from 3.6 to 3%, to quite high for CaO, for which the
 371 spread goes from 3.11 to 0.59). However, when mineral pair fractionations are now considered
 372 instead (lower part of Table 1), the spread always increases upon rescaling. This means that
 373 rescaling increases the uncertainty of calculated fractionations, instead of decreasing it.

374 It stems from the high variability of the frequency error χ , and from the very different
 375 contribution of each modes to Ca fractionation properties. Figure 2 shows typical plots of
 376 the error as a function of the frequency for different materials, for PBEsol calculations. The
 377 frequencies more important for Ca fractionation properties are essentially below 400cm^{-1} (see
 378 Fig 5 and section 3.3). Their relative error with respect to experiment χ_i is highly variable
 379 from one material to the other. χ_i is also varying a lot between different modes, particularly
 380 for calcite, CaO and aragonite. Statistically speaking, the average rescaling factor presents
 381 a high uncertainty, as shown on Figure 3. For example, for the PBE calculation we have
 382 $\chi = -2.0 \pm 8.2\%$ for calcite, and $\chi = -8.2 \pm 8.8\%$ for aragonite. Correcting uniformly for
 383 these errors without further caution (e.g. for PBE, taking scaling factors of 1.02 for calcite
 384 and 1.082 for aragonite) leads to fractionations even more variable from one theoretical
 385 framework to the other, than without correction.

386 4.2.2. Improved procedure

387 To correct for theoretical errors on fractionation properties based on experiment, it is nec-
388 essary to account for the relative contributions of each frequencies. The most important
389 modes are those for which the Ca atom will move the most, as it is the condition for the Ca
390 mass to affect the frequency. These important modes can be identified based on vibrational
391 analysis. Fig. 5 shows vibrational analyses for the materials considered here. The important
392 frequencies are concentrated in a narrow range of low frequencies, typically between 150
393 and 350cm^{-1} . Note that this frequency range corresponds also to largest uncertainties on χ
394 (Figure 2).

395 The procedure consists in calculating a "h-weighted" scaling factor $\bar{\chi}^h$ (Eq. (9), see section
396 2.3), h denoting the contribution of a particular mode to $\ln \beta$ (Eq. (5)). Table 2 and Figure
397 7 present the results of this procedure, (see also Figure 6 illustrating the particular case
398 of calcite). On the β -factors, this improved correction significantly reduces the functional
399 spread, typically around 0.5‰, with larger values remaining for grossular and dolomite
400 ($\approx 1\%$).

401 For the calculated fractionation factors relative to calcite, shown on Table 2 (and Fig. 8),
402 it also permits an improvement of the spread by a factor of approx. 2 except for grossular-
403 calcite and dolomite-calcite pairs.

404 A worse spread after correction could be due to an incomplete (and not representative) sam-
405 pling of the vibrational properties of a mineral by experiment. This is particularly expected
406 for grossular. Indeed, among the 97 different vibrational frequencies of grossular correspond-
407 ing to Γ -point modes, 55 are silent (meaning that they are neither IR nor Raman-active), and
408 therefore impossible to sample experimentally (except possibly by neutron inelastic scatter-
409 ing). Four other modes could not be associated with an experimental frequency, possibly due
410 to insufficient spectroscopic intensity. In total, these 59 "orphan" modes contribute for more
411 than 50% of the β -factor ($\sum_{orphan} h$ in Table EA-6). The estimate of $\bar{\chi}^h$ for grossular, that
412 is based upon existing experiment, might therefore be less accurate than for minerals with a
413 more complete set of active vibrational frequencies. Other important orphan contributions
414 are for calcite (25% of the total), whereas it is $\approx 10\%$ for aragonite and diopside. CaO
415 lime and dolomite show no orphan contribution, and are therefore the better determined
416 minerals. They should be preferentially used as reference for fractionation in mineral pairs.

417 On Table 3, we represent the functional spread before and after correction for each of the 15
418 independent mineral pairs. We can observe that (i) correction generally reduces the spread,
419 except for calcite-dolomite, grossular-calcite, grossular-aragonite and CaO-diopside. (ii) the
420 pairs not implying grossular or calcite show generally lower spreads after correction (the
421 worse being 0.8‰ for dolomite-diopside), whereas the presence of grossular or calcite among
422 the pair tends to increase the spread after correction.

423 Overall, if the improvement with the standard rescaling procedure is real, the improved
424 procedure does not significantly reduce the functional variability. It does not permit to
425 attain uncertainty ranges comparable to analytical uncertainty. Keeping only mineral pairs
426 involving CaO, aragonite, diopside and dolomite (green and black pairs on Table 3), we
427 obtain spreads of 0.3 to 0.8‰ after correction, which could be taken as representative of the
428 uncertainty attached to our correction procedure.

429 Other origins for this variability after correction could be errors on experimental frequencies,
430 anharmonicity (unaccounted for by theory, implicitly present in experimental frequencies),
431 or the difference between the displacements of the calculated modes and the real ones. In
432 fact, looking at the contributions (h values) of similar modes in different calculations of the
433 same material (important modes are emphasized in bold character in Tables EA-2 to EA-7),
434 we can see that similar modes contribute very differently. For example, for dolomite (Table
435 EA-4), the $A_u(2)$ mode contributes for 0.62 ‰ when calculated with BLYP, but for 0‰ when
436 calculated with PZ. It means that the mode that is assimilated to the same displacement,
437 associated with the experimental frequency at 361 cm^{-1} , in fact implies the displacement of
438 the Ca atom with BLYP, but not with PZ. This likely reflects some complex effects related
439 to diagonalization of slightly different matrices holding significantly different eigenvectors
440 with similar eigenvalues, and puts some limits to a proper comparison with experiment.

441 In the following, this correction procedure will be further used to determine the efficiency of
442 the different functionals. Efficient functionals should give similar results whether corrected
443 or not.

444 4.3. Evaluation of the different functionals

445 Ideally, the efficiency of a functional should be estimated towards the exact isotope frac-
446 tionation values (α -factors between two minerals). We do not know of accurate and reliable

447 estimates of Ca isotope mineral-pair equilibrium fractionation. However, our corrected iso-
448 tope fractionation properties may serve as estimates for those exact values. On Figure 9,
449 we chose to estimate the error of a scheme by the difference between the raw and corrected
450 isotope fractionation properties for this scheme. An efficient functional should change little
451 with correction.

452 Figure 9 demonstrates the general superiority of the PBEsol functional in that matter (PBE
453 being almost as effective). Its estimated error remains below 0.67‰ for all mineral pairs not
454 including grossular (for which the correction is very uncertain, see 4.2.2), whereas all other
455 schemes except PBE present errors larger than 1 ‰ in some cases. We have also considered
456 the functional spread after correction (Table 3) as an estimate of the uncertainty of our
457 procedure (dashed line on Figure 9). As seen on Figure 9, the error estimated for PBEsol
458 remains below the inferred procedure uncertainty, except for grossular-dolomite and CaO-
459 dolomite isotope fractionations (for which PBEsol presents the smaller estimated error).

460 In a different attempt to characterize the error of a theoretical scheme, we considered the
461 difference of a raw calculation with the average isotope fractionation value after correction
462 (=average of the corrected isotope fractionation for a given mineral pair over the different
463 theoretical schemes), as it could be considered a better estimate of the "exact" value. This
464 alternative estimate of the error do not show very significantly different than the former one.
465 Our first approach therefore appears satisfactory to estimate the efficiency of a functional. In
466 this approach, following Eq. (8), $2\overline{\chi}^h$ appears naturally as an estimator of the relative error of
467 our procedure on the $\ln \beta$ values (in ‰). For this error to cancel out on isotope fractionation
468 factors, it should be independent on the mineral. In this regard, the better accuracy of
469 PBEsol is a consequence of its higher consistency on errors of vibrational frequencies, as
470 visualized on Figure 3.

471 Note also that, as discussed in the results section, the PBEsol functional showed superior
472 to the other frameworks regarding (1) the absolute accuracy on structural parameters and
473 average Ca-O distances in particular (Figure 1); (2) the amplitude of the spread on struc-
474 tural parameters, depending on the material (Figure 1); (3) the total χ variability for the
475 frequencies of a given material ($\sigma(\chi)$, Figure 3). Considering that our correction proce-
476 dure is only possible when experimental frequencies are available and exhaustive, which is
477 far from systematic, and that our correction appears to present some uncertainty (around
478 0.8‰, see 4.2.2), we argue that the PBEsol functional gives the most reliable results without

479 correction, at least for materials comparable to those present in this study.
480 In the same order of idea, the estimated error for the PBEsol functional (red squares on
481 Fig9) is essentially comparable to the assessed uncertainty of this error estimation (dashed
482 line on Fig9).
483 Following these remarks, we recommend the raw PBEsol calculations as most reliable for
484 estimating isotope fractionation properties. Our recommended isotope fractionation laws
485 are listed in Table 4 .

486 4.4. Comparison with previous calculations

487 Previous works (Rustad et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2017a; Wang et al., 2017b; Antonelli
488 et al., 2019; Huang et al., 2019) have estimated Ca isotope fractionation properties between
489 the same mineral pairs considered here. Table 5 compares the fractionations obtained by
490 these authors for the dolomite-calcite, aragonite-calcite, grossular-diopside and grossular-
491 lime mineral pairs.

492 Our results show a fair agreement with Antonelli et al. (2019), and with the aragonite-calcite
493 and dolomite-calcite calculations by Wang et al. (2017b), but our results significantly differ
494 from Rustad et al. (2010) for dolomite-calcite (-0.9‰ vs -2.3‰), and with Huang et al. (2019)
495 for grossular-diopside (4.2‰ vs 5.8‰). Our calculations differ from these authors by the
496 choice of functional: Rustad et al. (2010) used B3LYP, whereas Huang et al. (2019) uses
497 PZ. To evaluate the role of the functional in these discrepancies, we compare in Table 5
498 calculations realized with the same functionals.

499 Regarding Rustad et al. (2010), unfortunately, we cannot use B3LYP in our theoretical
500 framework. Instead, we computed the calcite β -factor with the BP86 functional, that can
501 be compared with their work (Table 5). Whereas their BP86 $\beta_{calcite}$ calculation is very
502 similar to their reference B3LYP one (16.01‰ vs 16.18‰), our BP86 calculation yields a
503 much lower value (12.26‰), similar to our PBE result (12.05‰). This suggests that other
504 details of Rustad et al. (2010) calculations may have significant effects on the final result.
505 These calculations differ from ours by two aspects: first, Rustad et al. (2010) use gaussian
506 basis sets for electronic wave-function description, and second, they use cluster-like models
507 when we use periodic boundary conditions. Rustad et al. (2010) did not see any significant
508 effect of the choice of gaussian basis set (6-31G* vs 6-311++G(2d,2p) on the mineral β -

509 factors. On another hand, based on a periodic boundary calculation with Gaussian basis
 510 sets, Valenzano et al., 2007 and De La Pierre et al., 2016 report different values for the
 511 Eu(2)TO frequency determined experimentally at 223 cm^{-1} : respectively 219.6 [-1.5%]
 512 and 225.2 [+1.0%]. In terms of its contribution to isotope fractionation, this makes a 5%
 513 difference, still far from the 25% observed between our BP86 calculations of calcite and the
 514 one of Rustad et al. (2010). Further investigations will be necessary to clarify this matter.
 515 Regarding the works of Fang Huang & al. (Wang et al., 2017a, Wang et al., 2017b and Huang
 516 et al., 2019), excluding the role of the functional is quite straightforward, since we realized
 517 PZ calculations. The comparison (Table 5) shows the β -factors that we calculate with the
 518 same functional to be systematically lower than theirs, by various amounts, from 0.5-0.8
 519 ‰ at 300K for calcite, dolomite, diopside, aragonite (by order of increasing difference),
 520 and up to 1.75 ‰ for grossular. As for the works of Rustad & co-workers, the functional
 521 cannot be claimed as the sole parameter responsible for the differences between the two
 522 calculations. To further document the discrepancies between both studies, we compared
 523 the relaxed structural parameters on Table 6. On the whole, our calculated cell parameters
 524 and Ca-O distances are lower (by $\approx 1\%$) than Fang Huang & al's. We looked at other
 525 studies using periodic boundary conditions, plane-wave basis sets and pseudopotentials (or,
 526 for CaO, all-electron calculations) and the PZ functional. For CaO lime, calcite, dolomite
 527 and aragonite, we found several works fairly consistent with our findings. We hypothesize
 528 that the discrepancies of Fang Huang & al originate from inequivalences posed by using
 529 different pseudopotentials and other convergence parameters.

530 4.5. Comparison to isotope fractionations measured in experiment and Nature

531 The Ca isotope fractionation factor between calcite and fluid is the most well studied ex-
 532 ample. For this mineral-fluid pair however, an unambiguous isotope fractionation factor
 533 under isotopic equilibrium conditions does not exist. At present the general consensus is
 534 that no isotope fractionation occurs between calcite and the forming fluid. This argument
 535 is based on the observations by Fantle and DePaolo (2007) that no difference occurs be-
 536 tween carbonitic nannofossil ooze and chalk and pore fluid samples from ODP Site 807A
 537 in Ontong Java Plateau. This negligible isotope fractionation between solution and calcite
 538 at low precipitation rates was further confirmed by aquifer studies (Jacobson and Holm-

den, 2008). Note however that this value has not been confirmed to date from experimental studies. To model the dependence in growth rate of experimentally defined Ca isotope fractionation between nucleated calcite and fluid, DePaolo (2011) suggest that slightly larger values ($\Delta^{44/40}\text{Ca}_{\text{calcite-fluid}}^{\text{eq}} = -0.5$ to -0.2%) should be considered at equilibrium. More recently Oelkers et al. (2019) studied isotopic fractionation between calcite and Ca (aq) at near equilibrium conditions using a pH-jump technique, where calcite initially dissolved at pH 6.2 and precipitated at pH 7.5. They reported calcite fluid isotope fractionation factors at equilibrium of -0.8% for the precipitation phase and -1.6% for the dissolution phase of the experimental runs, arguing that the difference likely stems from the speciation of Ca in the fluid phase, which exhibits differences due to the prevailing pH. As we did not compute a dissolved Ca β -factor, we cannot compare our calculations directly to mineral-fluid experiments. In the following, to compare our calculated $\Delta^{44/40}\text{Ca}_{\text{mineral-calcite}}^{\text{eq}}$ with existing $\Delta^{44/40}\text{Ca}_{\text{mineral-fluid}}^{\text{eq}}$, we will combine them to obtain the value of $\Delta^{44/40}\text{Ca}_{\text{calcite-fluid}}^{\text{eq}}$ that would be consistent if all values were representing equilibrium, and discuss this value. For the dolomite-calcite isotope fractionation, Holmden (2009) report a difference in $\delta^{44/40}\text{Ca}$ of -0.61% between dolomite and calcite in natural systems (sediments). This value compares well with our estimated -0.9% estimate of the dolomite-calcite isotope fractionation at 300K, and even more if we consider that the equilibration temperature might be larger ($\Delta^{44/40}\text{Ca}_{\text{dolomite-calcite}}^{\text{eq}} = -0.5\%$ at 125°C , see below). Note however that Holmden (2009) considered as a starting hypothesis that the dolomite-calcite Ca isotope fractionation should be null at equilibrium ($\Delta^{44/40}\text{Ca}_{\text{dolomite-calcite}}^{\text{eq}} = 0$). They chose to interpret their results as a consequence of the isotopic signature of the involved reacting fluids. For the dolomite-fluid system, experimental works under hydrothermal conditions (125°C) report a $\Delta^{44/40}\text{Ca}_{\text{dolomite-fluid}} = -1.2\%$ during dissolution, under conditions interpreted as close to equilibrium (Perez-Fernandez et al., 2017). At the same temperature, we find $\Delta^{44/40}\text{Ca}_{\text{dolomite-calcite}}^{\text{eq}} = -0.5\%$. Our calculation and Perez-Fernandez et al.'s study would be consistent for $\Delta^{44/40}\text{Ca}_{\text{calcite-fluid}}^{\text{eq}} = -0.7\%$ at 125°C . Considering that $\Delta^{44/40}\text{Ca}^{\text{eq}}$ values are essentially proportional to $\frac{1}{T^2}$, they should be twice as large at 300K compared to 125°C ($\frac{400^2}{300^2}=1.8$). This would translate into $\Delta^{44/40}\text{Ca}_{\text{calcite-fluid}}^{\text{eq}} = -1.3\%$ at 300K. This value seems incompatible with the general consensus ($\Delta^{44/40}\text{Ca}_{\text{calcite-fluid}}^{\text{eq}} = 0\%$), suggesting that Perez-Fernandez et al's experiments might not be fully equilibrated. Only the larger estimate of Oelkers et al. (2019) ($\Delta^{44/40}\text{Ca}_{\text{calcite-fluid}}^{\text{eq}} = -1.6\%$) would be consistent.

571 For the aragonite-fluid system mineral growth experiments at low degrees of saturation of the
 572 fluid do not exist in the literature. Both the experimental works by Gussone et al. (2003)
 573 and AlKhatib and Eisenhauer (2017) exhibit $\Gamma_{\text{aragonite}}$ values >25 . In both these studies
 574 however aragonite is enriched in the lighter ^{40}Ca isotope, by approximately -1.7% at the
 575 lower precipitation rates, closest to equilibrium. At the same temperature, we calculate:
 576 $\Delta^{44/40}\text{Ca}_{\text{aragonite-calcite}}^{\text{eq}} = -3\%$, therefore $\Delta^{44/40}\text{Ca}_{\text{calcite-fluid}}^{\text{eq}} = -1.3\%$ would be necessary
 577 to reconcile our calculations with those estimates. This is surprisingly similar to what we
 578 find based on dolomite-fluid estimates of Perez-Fernandez et al. (2017), and suggests again
 579 that those experiments might not be fully equilibrated.

580 4.6. Controlling parameters of Ca isotope fractionation: anionic group dragging

581 In Table 7, we compare the calculated β -factors with various structural properties. The two
 582 parameters that have been the most discussed in the literature are coordination (e.g. Colla
 583 et al., 2013) and CaO distances (e.g. Huang et al., 2019). Figure 10 reports our calculated
 584 isotope fractionation properties as a function of Ca-O distance.

585 A particularly striking feature of our results is the very high β -factor of grossular, although
 586 Ca in this mineral presents a VIII coordination (versus VI for CaO, calcite, dolomite), and
 587 its Ca-O distance is longer than in calcite, and similar to that in CaO. The vibrational
 588 analysis (reported in Fig.5) shows that for the silicates grossular and diopside, the contri-
 589 butions of high frequencies, although not the main ones, are not negligible, and “make the
 590 difference” with e.g. carbonates, for which the highest frequencies contributing are around
 591 300cm^{-1} . Those high-frequency modes are mainly modes implying Si-O or Al-O bonds, and
 592 the contribution of those modes to Ca isotope fractionation means that those modes “drag”
 593 the Ca atom. This coupling, or this interference of the Ca atom with those high frequency
 594 atomic displacements, seems able to explain that the β -factor of grossular is finally larger
 595 than carbonates, when all frequencies have been considered. On the contrary, carbonates
 596 do not show this high-frequency contribution, as the CO stretching modes appear uncou-
 597 pled with the Ca displacements. Such a control of strong anionic groups on the isotopic
 598 fractionation of cations has already been proposed to account for Zr isotope fractionation
 599 in minerals (Méheut et al., 2021). The question that remains to answer is why some modes
 600 are coupled whereas some others are not.

601 Apart from this control of strong anionic groups coupled to the atom of interest, it cannot
602 be excluded that Ca-O distance is correlated with Ca isotope fractionation properties, for
603 similar materials at least. On Figure 10, we show in particular that the isotope fractionation
604 properties of silicates (diopside, grossular) and carbonates (at least dolomite and calcite)
605 evolve on straight lines of similar slopes, as a function of Ca-O distances. Aragonite, however,
606 does not follow the trend of dolomite and calcite, suggesting that coordination might also
607 influence this relationship. On another hand, CaO lime, which presents a perfectly regular
608 CaO octahedron, is much heavier than calcite and dolomite, of the same coordination but
609 much more distorted. In this case, it is tempting to invoke a potential control of polyhedral
610 distortion.

611 Although practical to predict isotope fractionation properties, the correlation with CaO
612 distances asks for tangible explanations. In the case of dolomite versus calcite, one has
613 to recognize that other parameters, such as those measuring polyhedral distortion, do not
614 make sense: dolomite is less distorted than calcite but shows shorter CaO distances whereas
615 we would have expected CaO distances to decrease with decreasing distortion, not increase.
616 In those conditions, and in line with our study on the structural controls of Si isotope
617 fractionation (Méheut and Schauble, 2014), it is tempting here to invoke the different elec-
618 tronegativity of Ca versus Mg to explain the increasing CaO bond-length - and decreasing
619 isotope fractionation properties - of dolomite versus calcite.

620 5. CONCLUSION

- 621 • In this work, we have estimated Ca isotope fractionation properties between carbon-
622 ate, silicate and oxide minerals presenting accurate experimental estimates of their
623 vibrational frequencies. Six theoretical frameworks were considered, showing results
624 varying from single to double.
- 625 • To evaluate the efficiency of those theoretical frameworks, we tried to correct our cal-
626 culated isotope fractionations, accounting for the error shown between calculated and
627 experimental frequencies. The classical approach, assuming an identical error for all
628 frequencies, appeared quite disappointing, in that corrected isotope fractionations did
629 not show less variable than raw ones. We have set up an original approach for a more
630 accurate correction. It relies on the estimate of the contribution of individual frequen-

631 cies to isotope fractionation properties. To be efficient, it requires to have exhaustive
632 experimental estimates for the modes contributing the most to isotope fractionation
633 properties. The case of grossular, for which more than half of the contributive modes
634 are silent, is most illustrative.

- 635 • At the term of this correction, PBEsol and PBE functionals appear the most efficient,
636 BLYP and BLYP+GD2 being approximately equivalent, and PZ and vdW-DF2 being
637 significantly worse. From the point of view of several other criteria, PBEsol appears
638 superior for the considered materials: (1) the consistency of the frequency error χ_i for
639 different modes of a given material, (2) the consistency of the average frequency error
640 $\bar{\chi}$, or of the average error weighted by the contribution to the β -factor $\bar{\chi}^h$ for different
641 minerals, (3) the amplitude of this average frequency error (4) the amplitude and
642 consistency of the error on average CaO distances. Said differently, not only PBEsol
643 gives better results (closer to experiment) for these properties, but it also gives results
644 with a more systematic error with respect to experiment. For these reasons, we judge
645 this theoretical scheme as the most reliable to predict the fractionation of Ca isotopes
646 at equilibrium.
- 647 • The comparison with other estimates in the literature reveals the crucial importance
648 of all numerical aspects of those calculations, such as electronic basis sets, or modelling
649 approach (periodic boundary versus cluster modelling).
- 650 • This sensitivity to numerical details may seem specific to Ca isotopes. In fact, for
651 Si or O for example, calculated properties appeared influenced only slightly by the
652 considered numerical schemes (Méheut et al., 2007: PZ vs PBE for oxygen isotopes;
653 Dupuis et al., 2015: BLYP vs PBE for Si isotopes , Stamm et al., 2020: vdW-DF2
654 vs PBE for Si isotopes). However, Si^{4+} is a strong cation, and its bonds are chang-
655 ing only marginally with distortion. On another hand, Ca^{2+} is a weak cation, which
656 environment is easily influenced by its environment and the volume/hindrance if its
657 neighbours. It is therefore not completely surprising that its vibrational and fractiona-
658 tion properties are different for schemes (PZ vs PBE for example) for which Si-O bonds
659 are significantly different. This sensitivity might be found for other weak cations, such
660 as K, Ba, or Sr for example.

661 • In the systems considered, and independently of CaO bond lengths, the fractionation
662 of Ca isotopes appears strongly affected by anionic group dragging, i.e. the presence
663 of strong anionic groups (such as SiO₄ or AlO₆ groups in silicates) vibrating at high
664 frequency *and* which atomic displacements are "dragging" the Ca atom. This was pre-
665 viously observed for predicted Zr isotope fractionation properties (Méheut et al., 2021).

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841 **Tables**

842

Table 1: β -factors (in %) calculated at 300K with the PBEsol functional and various samplings of the Brillouin zone.

mineral	$\ln\beta$ exact	$\ln\beta_{\Gamma}$	$\ln\beta_{2\times2\times2}$
CaO	15.60	5.88	15.68
calcite	13.33	12.21	
dolomite	12.43	11.17	
aragonite	10.41	9.63	
diopside	13.45	12.55	
grossular	17.61	17.44	

Table 2: Fractionation properties (raw and corrected) calculated at 300K for the different materials and within the various theoretical schemes tested in this study, showing their variability. For each material, the first line gives the raw calculated β -factor, the second gives the β -factor corrected for the frequency error using the average relative error $\bar{\chi}$ (Eq.(11)), the third gives the β -factor corrected for the frequency error using Eq.(10) . The functional spread represents the width of the interval obtained with the results of the different theoretical schemes for a given mineral, either raw or corrected.

	PZ	PBE	vdW-DF2	BLYP	BLYP+D2	PBEsol	spread
$\ln \beta_{mineral}(\text{‰})$							
CaO	16.97	14.38	14.56	13.86	14.96	15.60	3.11
	17.02	16.64	16.48	16.43	16.70	16.92	0.59
	16.63	16.25	16.31	16.08	16.40	16.54	0.55
calcite	15.35	12.05	13.27	11.76	12.78	13.33	3.59
	15.12	12.52	13.29	12.09	13.31	13.65	3.02
	13.49	13.78	13.60	13.57	13.84	13.90	0.41
dolomite	14.14	11.25	12.27	10.93	12.05	12.43	3.21
	13.68	12.11	12.97	11.95	12.59	12.86	1.74
	12.83	12.20	12.35	11.80	12.35	12.70	1.03
aragonite	12.21	9.10	10.13	8.59	9.23	10.41	3.62
	11.70	10.59	11.40	10.16	10.58	11.11	1.54
	10.86	10.68	10.94	10.56	10.79	10.93	0.39
grossular	19.36	16.28	17.06	15.93	16.36	17.61	3.43
	19.63	18.36	18.89	18.18	17.98	18.99	1.65
	19.39	18.56	18.93	18.40	18.22	18.99	1.17
diopside	14.86	12.53	13.17	12.45	13.53	13.45	2.41
	14.95	13.99	14.28	14.08	14.49	14.41	0.96
	14.58	14.00	14.10	14.15	14.33	14.27	0.58
$\ln \alpha_{mineral-calcite}(\text{‰})$							
CaO	1.63	2.33	1.29	2.10	2.18	2.27	1.04
	1.91	4.12	3.19	4.34	3.39	3.27	2.43
	3.15	2.47	2.70	2.52	2.55	2.64	0.67

dolomite	-1.21	-0.80	-1.00	-0.83	-0.72	-0.90	0.48
	-1.43	-0.41	-0.32	-0.15	-0.71	-0.80	1.29
	-0.66	-1.59	-1.26	-1.77	-1.49	-1.20	1.11
aragonite	-3.13	-2.95	-3.14	-3.17	-3.55	-2.92	0.63
	-3.42	-1.93	-1.89	-1.93	-2.73	-2.54	1.52
	-2.63	-3.12	-2.66	-3.00	-3.05	-2.97	0.48
grossular	4.02	4.23	3.79	4.17	3.58	4.28	0.70
	4.52	5.84	5.59	6.09	4.68	5.33	1.57
	5.90	4.77	5.33	4.84	4.38	5.08	1.52
diopside	-0.49	0.48	-0.10	0.69	0.75	0.12	1.24
	-0.17	1.47	0.99	1.99	1.19	0.75	2.16
	1.09	0.21	0.49	0.59	0.49	0.37	0.89

Table 3: Functional spread obtained for each mineral pair before/after correction. Colors emphasize minerals for which correction is assumed less precise due to inhomogeneous experimental sampling of their vibrational properties. green: mineral fully characterized (CaO, dolomite). Orange: calcite, $\approx 25\%$ "orphan" contribution. Red: grossular, $\approx 55\%$ "orphan" contribution. Black: aragonite and diopside, $\approx 10\%$ "orphan" contribution.

	CaO	dolomite	aragonite	diopside	calcite	grossular
CaO		0.9/0.5	1.3/0.4	0.8/0.3	1.0/0.7	1.1/0.9
dolomite			0.9/0.7	0.8/0.8	0.5/1.1	0.9/0.7
aragonite				1.7/0.6	0.6/0.5	0.4/1.1
diopside					1.2/0.9	1.7/0.9
calcite						0.7/1.5
grossular						

Table 4: Recommended fits of $1000\ln \beta^{44/40}Ca_{mineral}$ and of $1000\ln \alpha^{44/40}Ca_{mineral-calcite}$ for 0-1200°C, based on ax^2+bx^3 with $x=\frac{10^2}{T(K)}$. We used the raw PBEsol results (see text for discussion).

System	Fit parameters	
	a	b
<hr/>		
$1000\ln \beta^{44/40}Ca_{mineral}$		
calcite	127.9	-23.9
dolomite	119.5	-23.1
aragonite	99.1	-16.4
CaO	148.2	-23.6
grossular	171.2	-38.1
diopside	129.8	-26.3
<hr/>		
$1000\ln \alpha^{44/40}Ca_{mineral-calcite}$		
dolomite	-8.4	0.8
aragonite	-28.8	7.5
CaO	20.3	0.3
grossular	43.3	-14.2
diopside	1.9	-2.4

Table 5: Comparison of the isotope fractionation properties calculated here with literature. R10: Rustad et al. (2010); FH: Fang Huang et al. (Wang et al., 2017a; Wang et al., 2017b; Huang et al., 2019); A19: Antonelli et al. (2019)

property	this work	R10	FH	A19
preferred isotope fractionation values at 300K				
$\ln \alpha^{44/40} \text{Ca}_{\text{dolomite-calcite}}$	-0.9	-2.3	-1.1	
$\ln \alpha^{44/40} \text{Ca}_{\text{aragonite-calcite}}$	-2.9		-2.8	
$\ln \alpha^{44/40} \text{Ca}_{\text{grossular-diopside}}$	4.2		5.8	4.4
$\ln \alpha^{44/40} \text{Ca}_{\text{grossular-lime}}$	2.0			2.2
isotope fractionations at 300K calculated with BP86				
$\ln \beta_{\text{calcite}}$	12.26	16.01		
isotope fractionations at 300K calculated with PZ				
$\ln \alpha^{44/40} \text{Ca}_{\text{dolomite-calcite}}$	-1.2		-1.1	
$\ln \alpha^{44/40} \text{Ca}_{\text{aragonite-calcite}}$	-3.1		-2.8	
$\ln \alpha^{44/40} \text{Ca}_{\text{grossular-diopside}}$	4.5		5.8	
$\ln \beta^{44/40} \text{Ca}_{\text{calcite}}$	15.34		15.81	
$\ln \beta^{44/40} \text{Ca}_{\text{dolomite}}$	14.14		14.74	
$\ln \beta^{44/40} \text{Ca}_{\text{aragonite}}$	12.21		13.01	
$\ln \beta^{44/40} \text{Ca}_{\text{diopside}}$	14.86		15.51	
$\ln \beta^{44/40} \text{Ca}_{\text{grossular}}$	19.36		21.31	

Table 6: Lattice parameters (in Å and °) and average Ca-O bond lengths (in Å) calculated with the PZ functional, here and in the literature, and comparison with experiment. The numbers in parenthesis refer to uncertainties on the last significant digit. For each distance, Δ is the relative difference (in %) between the experimental and calculated value. FH: Fang Huang & al. (Feng et al., 2014: diopside; Wang et al., 2017a: calcite, dolomite, aragonite; Huang et al., 2019: grossular); Others: Karki and Wentzcovitch (2003) for CaO, Medeiros et al. (2007) for calcite, Hossain et al. (2011) for dolomite, Medeiros et al. (2006) for aragonite ; AE: all electron (Mehl et al., 1988 for CaO)

lime CaO								
	this work:		FH		Others		AE	Exp ^(a-f)
	value	Δ	value	Δ	value	Δ	value Δ	
a	4.7157	-2.0			4.703	-2.3	4.714 -2.0	4.8115[5]
Ca-O	2.358	-2.0			2.351	-2.3	2.357 -2.0	2.4058[3]
calcite								
a	4.9614	-0.6	5.0037	+0.2	4.957	-0.7		4.9896[2]
c	16.4176	-3.8	16.6114	-2.6	16.416	-3.8		17.0610[11]
Ca-O	2.3121	-2.0	2.341	-0.8	2.311	-2.0		2.3598[6]
dolomite								
a	4.7714	-0.7	4.8005	-0.1	4.787	-0.3		4.8033[9]
c	15.5651	-2.6	15.5833	-2.5	15.55	-2.7		15.984[4]
Ca-O	2.3315	-2.0	2.361	-0.7	2.328	-2.1		2.378[1]
aragonite								
a	4.8863	-1.5	4.9210	-0.8	4.893	-1.4		4.96183[1]

Table 6: (continued)

:					
b	7.8346 -1.7	7.9282 -0.5	7.850 -1.5		7.96914[2]
c	5.5381 -3.6	5.5822 -2.8	5.523 -3.8		5.74285[2]
Ca-O	2.4692 -2.3	2.491 -1.4			2.5272 [5]
grossular					
a	11.7000 -1.2	11.776 -0.6			11.847[1]
Ca-O	2.3711 -1.4	2.393 -0.5			2.405[1]
diopside					
a	9.6478 -1.0	9.689 -0.6			9.746[4]
b	8.7739 -1.4	8.828 -0.8			8.899[5]
c	5.1996 -1.0	5.211 -0.8			5.251[6]
$\beta(^{\circ})$	105.77	105.263			105.63[6]
Ca-O	2.4547 -1.7	2.470 -1.1			2.4976

(a) CaO: Speziale et al. (2006)

(b) calcite: Effenberger et al. (1981) X-ray diffraction

at ambient temperature

(c) dolomite: Althoff (1977) X-ray diffraction

(d) aragonite: Caspi et al. (2005) Synchrotron Hi-Res X-Ray

(e) grossular: Geiger and Armbruster (1997) X-ray diffraction at 293K

(f) diopside: Cameron et al. (1973) X-ray diffraction

at ambient temperature

Table 7: Comparison of the $\ln \beta^{44/40}\text{Ca}$ calculated at 300K (PBEsol functional) with structural parameters of the different structures (estimated on experimental structures). Ca-O: average Ca-O distances. Vol: volume of the coordination polyhedra. D: Baur’s distortion index on distances. Qel: quadratic elongation of the coordination polyhedra. BAV: bond angle variance. Coord: coordination.

mineral	Ca-O Å	Vol Å ³	D	Qel	BAV ° ²	coord	$\ln \beta$ ‰
calcite	2.3574	17.414	0	1.0020	7.4660	6	13.33
dolomite	2.3815	17.960	0	1.0017	6.1194	6	12.43
CaO lime	2.4075	18.605		1.0000	0	6	15.60
aragonite	2.5283	29.808	0.0258			9	10.41
grossular	2.4019	23.765	0.0335			8	17.61
diopside	2.4976	25.757	0.0567			8	13.45

843 **List of Figures**

844 1 Relative difference $\frac{\langle Ca-O \rangle_{th}}{\langle Ca-O \rangle_{exp}} - 1$ (in %) between average CaO distances of
845 relaxed structures ($\langle Ca - O \rangle_{th}$) and measurements ($\langle Ca - O \rangle_{exp}$), for
846 CaO lime (○), calcite (+), dolomite (Δ) aragonite (□), grossular (◇), and
847 diopside (★). See Table EA-1 for raw data. Note the better (closer to 0%)
848 and more consistent (less dispersion between minerals) results obtained with
849 the PBEsol calculation. 45

850 2 Theoretical frequency offset χ (in %) as a function of experimental frequency,
851 for calculations with the PBEsol functional. As seen on Fig.5, the range of fre-
852 quencies most important for Ca isotope fractionation properties are between
853 100 and 400 cm^{-1} (double arrow) 46

854 3 Frequency offset $\chi = \frac{\nu_{calc}}{\nu_{exp}} - 1$ (in %) between calculation and experimental fre-
855 quencies. Error bars represent the $\bar{\chi} \pm \sigma(\chi)$ uncertainty interval for χ , whereas
856 symbols indicate $\bar{\chi}^h$, for CaO lime (●), calcite (+), dolomite(▲), aragonite
857 (■), grossular (◆), and diopside (★). The four B3LYP uncertainty intervals
858 correspond to calcite, dolomite, aragonite and grossular, from top to bottom.
859 See Tables EA-2 to EA-7 for raw data. Note the smaller uncertainty on χ for
860 diopside and grossular. Note also the good efficiency of the PBEsol calcula-
861 tion, giving smaller uncertainty on χ (smaller $\sigma(\chi)$ for a given material), and
862 smaller variability on $\bar{\chi}^h$ 47

863 4 Fractionation calculated at 300K for all the 15 mineral pairs considered in
864 this work. The pair order is chosen (between A-B and B-A) to give a positive
865 fractionation in PBEsol. The pairs are ordered by increasing value of the
866 fractionation calculated in PBEsol. 48

867 5 Plot of the contribution h (bars, in ‰) of individual frequencies to $\ln\beta_{\Gamma}$ at
868 300K, for the PBEsol calculations. Dashed lines are integrated contributions,
869 converging towards $\ln\beta_{\Gamma}$ 49

870	6	Logarithmic β -factors calculated at 25°C for calcite and within the various approximate functionals tested in this study. Black filled symbols : raw calculated properties; Blue empty symbols: properties corrected for the frequency error using the average relative error $\bar{\chi}$ (Eq.(11)). Red: properties corrected for the frequency error using Eq.(10)	50
871			
872			
873			
874			
875	7	Logarithmic β -factors calculated for the different materials and within the various approximate functionals tested in this study. Black filled symbols : raw calculated properties; Red: properties corrected for the frequency error using Eq.(10)	51
876			
877			
878			
879	8	Calculated fractionation factors relative to calcite for the different materials and within the various approximate functionals tested in this study. Black: "raw" calculated properties; Red: properties corrected for the frequency error using Eq.8 (see text)	52
880			
881			
882			
883	9	Errors on calculated isotope fractionation properties ($\ln \alpha^{44/40}\text{Ca}$), as estimated by the absolute difference between the "raw" calculation for a given mineral pair and a given theoretical scheme, and the corrected calculation for the same pair and scheme. Symbols indicate PBEsol (■), BLYP-D2 (○), BLYP (●), vdW-DF2 (△), PBE (▲), and PZ (◆). The estimated errors appear by increasing order of uncertainty, as measured by the functional spread after correction (dashed line, see Table 3 and discussion in 4.2.2). See Table 2, for raw data.	53
884			
885			
886			
887			
888			
889			
890			
891	10	Calculated isotope fractionation properties (logarithmic β -factors at 300K) as a function of mean CaO distance for the various minerals considered here. Coordination is given in Roman number.	54
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893			

894 **Figures**

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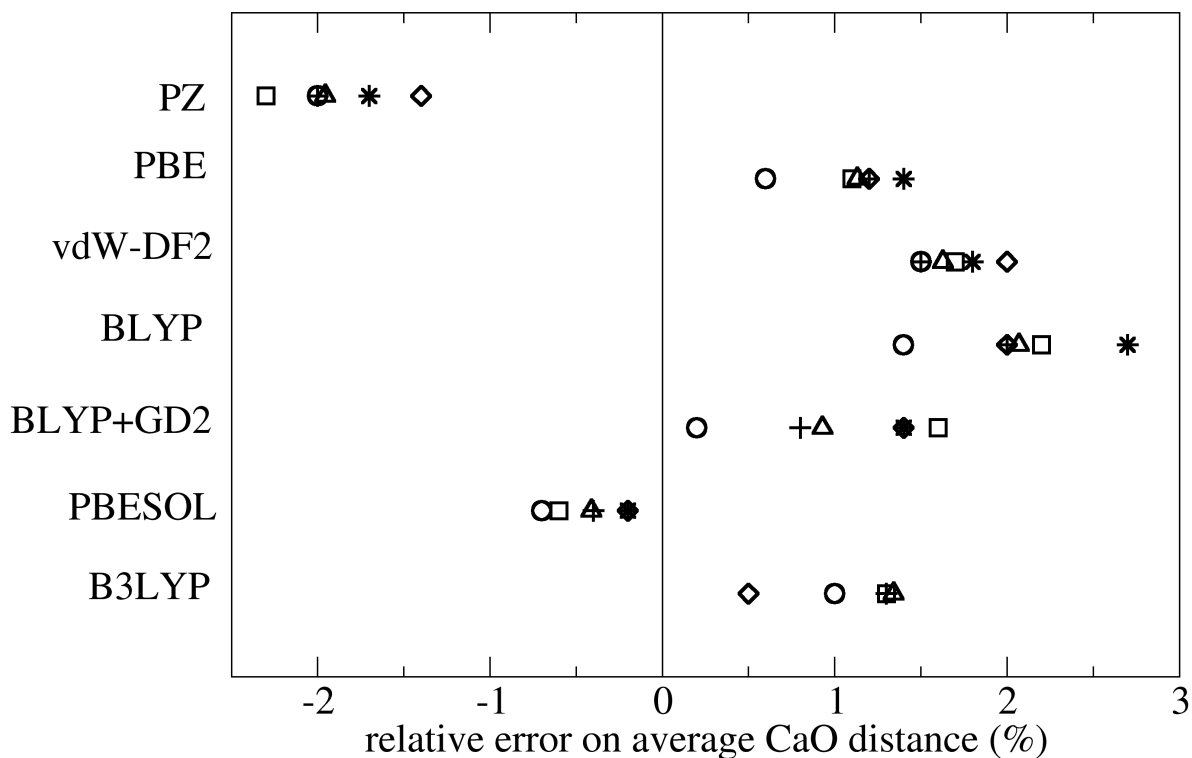


Fig. 1: Relative difference $\frac{\langle Ca-O \rangle_{th}}{\langle Ca-O \rangle_{exp}} - 1$ (in %) between average CaO distances of relaxed structures ($\langle Ca - O \rangle_{th}$) and measurements ($\langle Ca - O \rangle_{exp}$), for CaO lime (○), calcite (+), dolomite (△) aragonite (□), grossular (◇), and diopside (★). See Table EA-1 for raw data. Note the better (closer to 0%) and more consistent (less dispersion between minerals) results obtained with the PBEsol calculation.

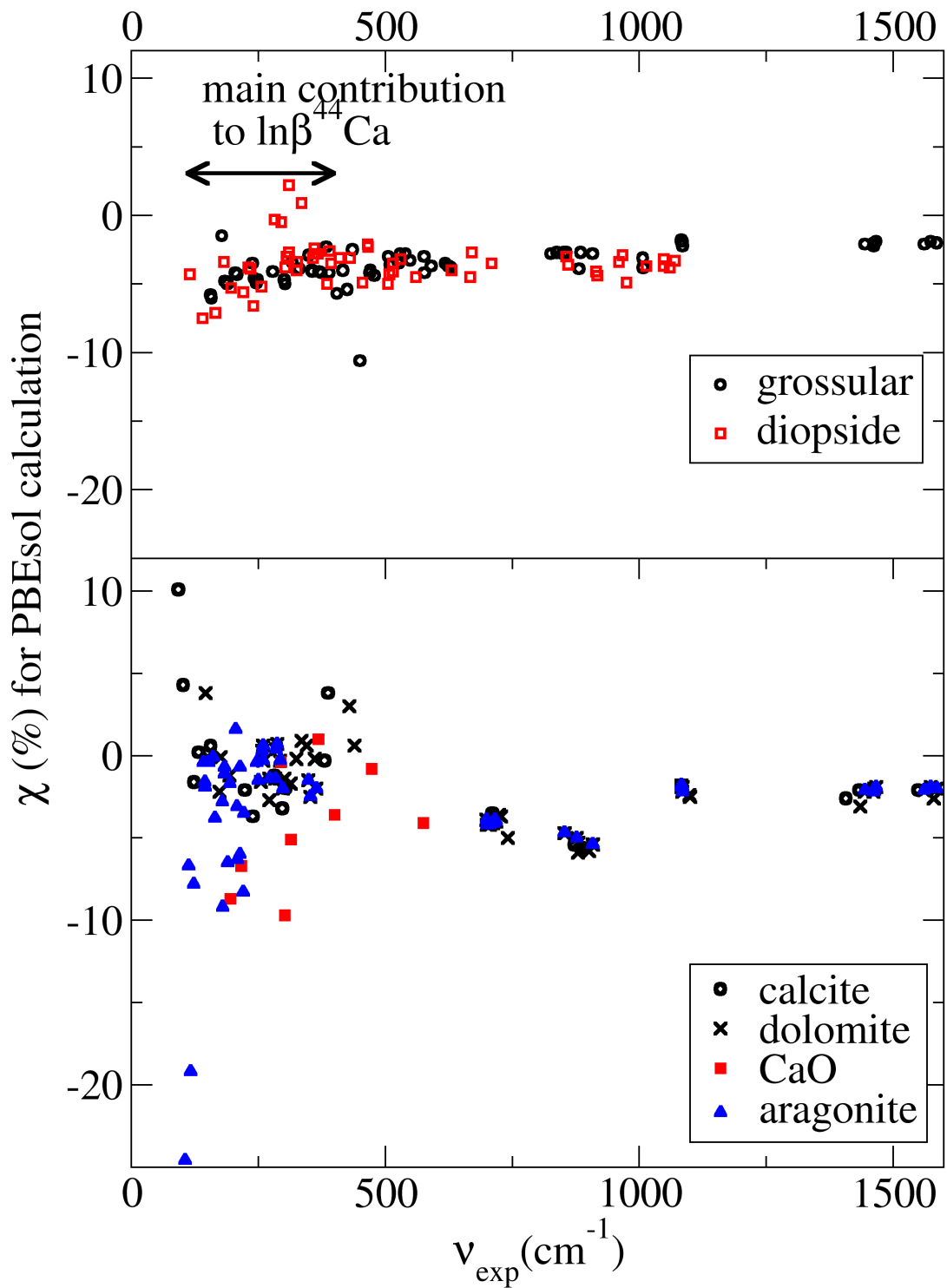


Fig. 2: Theoretical frequency offset χ (in %) as a function of experimental frequency, for calculations with the PBEsol functional. As seen on Fig.5, the range of frequencies most important for Ca isotope fractionation properties are between 100 and 400 cm^{-1} (double arrow) .

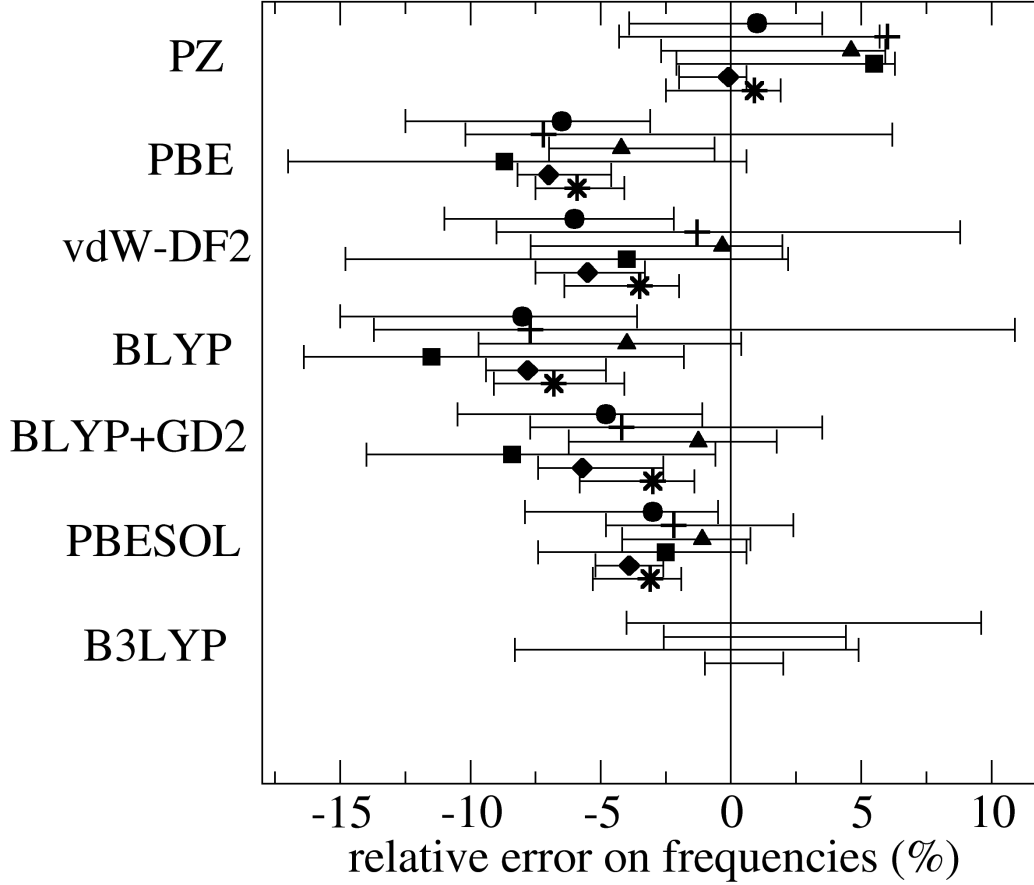


Fig. 3: Frequency offset $\chi = \frac{\nu_{calc}}{\nu_{exp}} - 1$ (in %) between calculation and experimental frequencies. Error bars represent the $\bar{\chi} \pm \sigma(\chi)$ uncertainty interval for χ , whereas symbols indicate $\bar{\chi}^h$, for CaO lime (●), calcite (+), dolomite(▲), aragonite (■), grossular (◆), and diopside (★). The four B3LYP uncertainty intervals correspond to calcite, dolomite, aragonite and grossular, from top to bottom. See Tables EA-2 to EA-7 for raw data. Note the smaller uncertainty on χ for diopside and grossular. Note also the good efficiency of the PBEsol calculation, giving smaller uncertainty on χ (smaller $\sigma(\chi)$ for a given material), and smaller variability on $\bar{\chi}^h$.

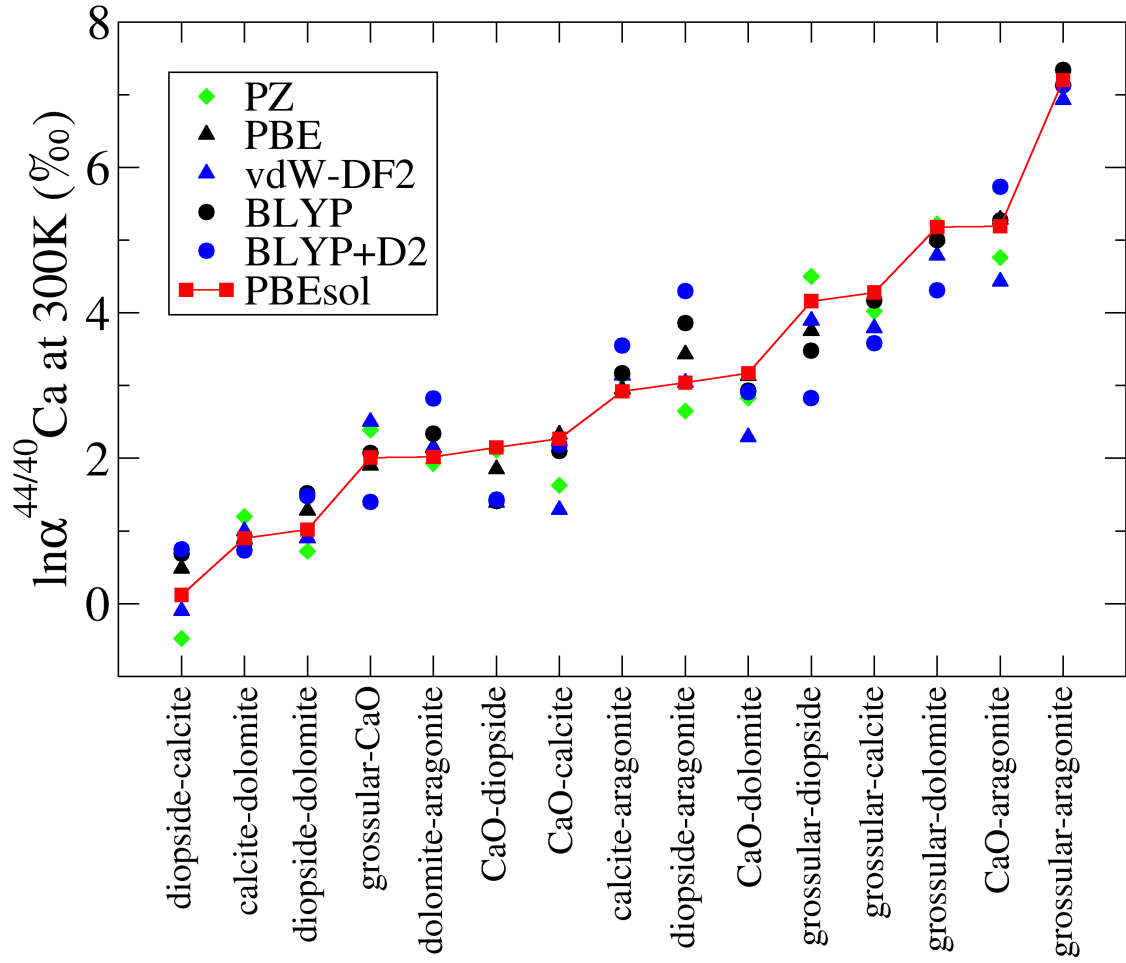


Fig. 4: Fractionation calculated at 300K for all the 15 mineral pairs considered in this work. The pair order is chosen (between A-B and B-A) to give a positive fractionation in PBEsol. The pairs are ordered by increasing value of the fractionation calculated in PBEsol.

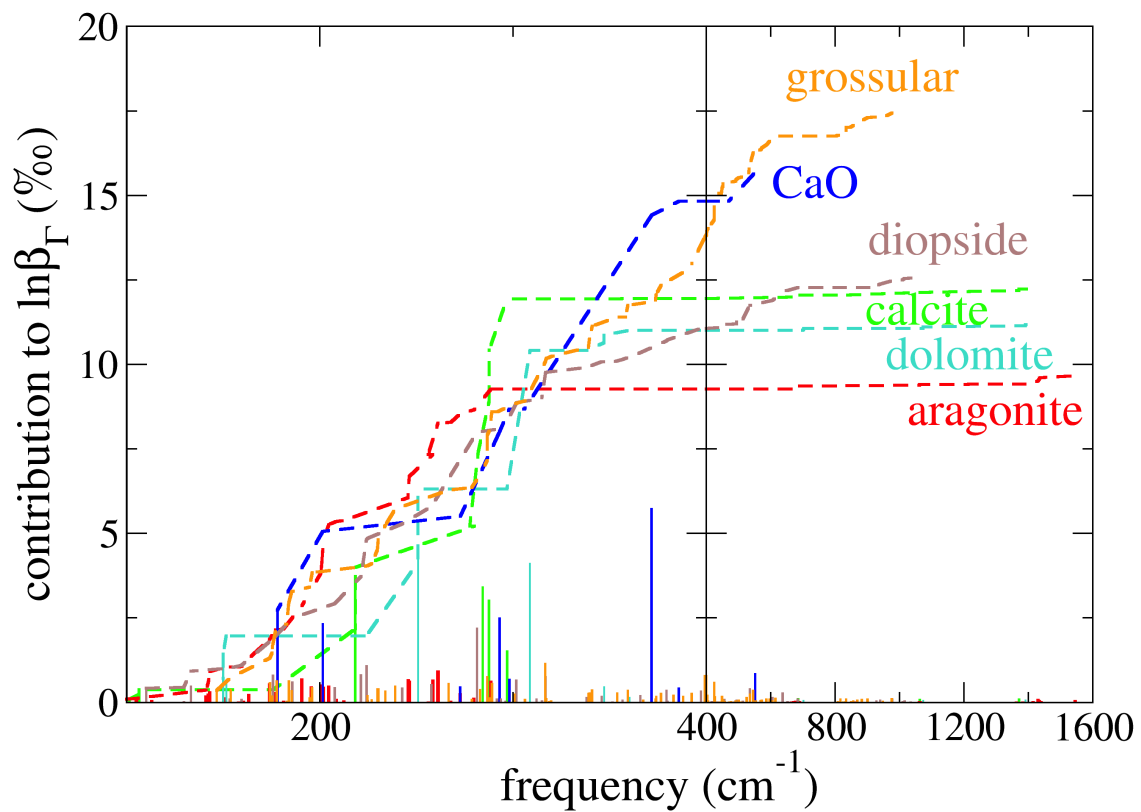


Fig. 5: Plot of the contribution h (bars, in ‰) of individual frequencies to $\ln\beta_{\Gamma}$ at 300K, for the PBEsol calculations. Dashed lines are integrated contributions, converging towards $\ln\beta_{\Gamma}$.

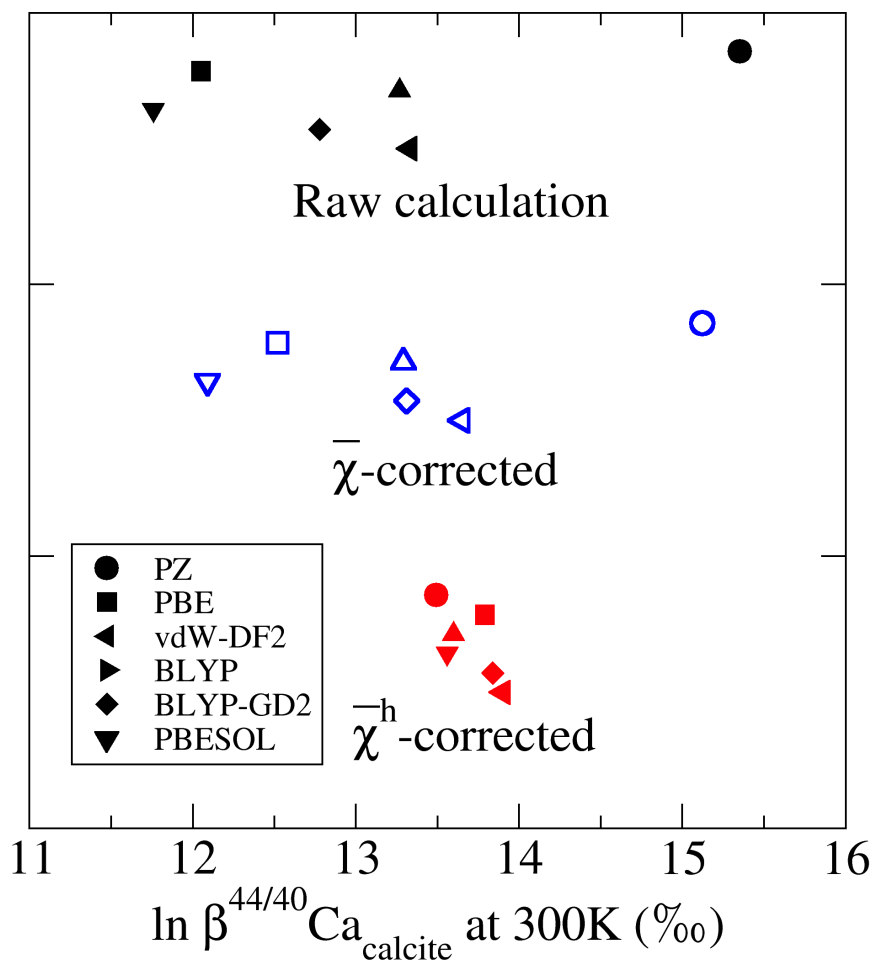


Fig. 6: Logarithmic β -factors calculated at 25°C for calcite and within the various approximate functionals tested in this study. Black filled symbols : raw calculated properties; Blue empty symbols: properties corrected for the frequency error using the average relative error $\bar{\chi}$ (Eq.(11)). Red: properties corrected for the frequency error using Eq.(10)

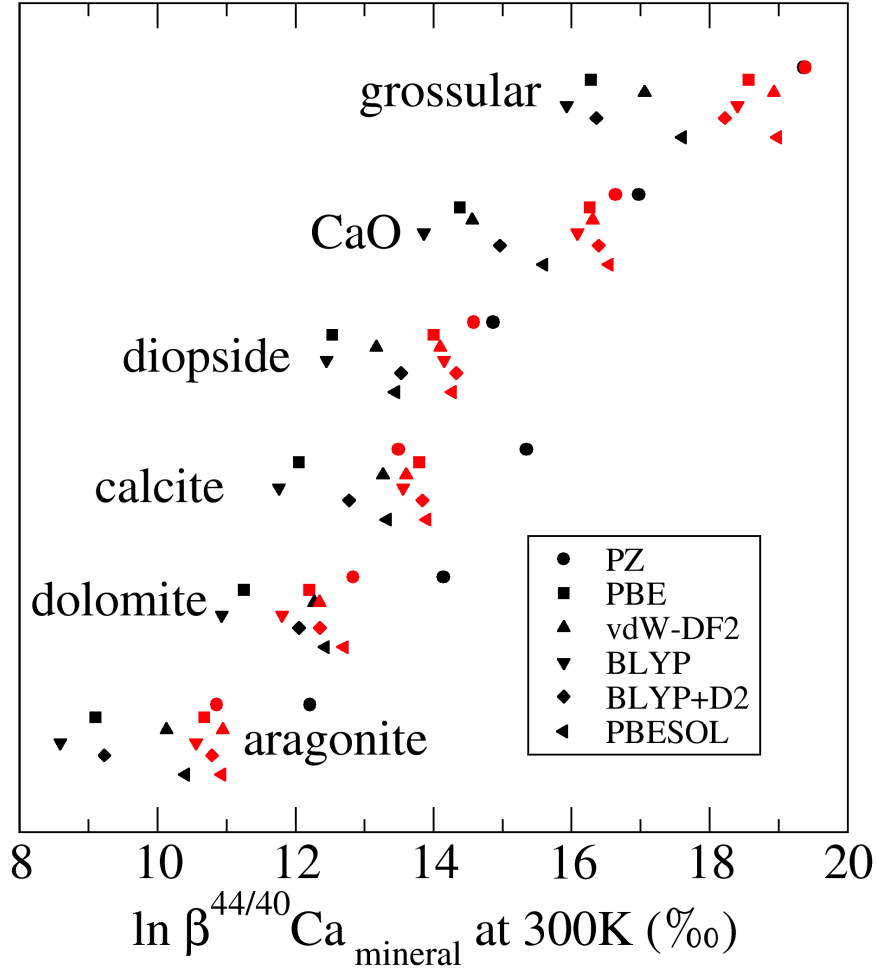


Fig. 7: Logarithmic β -factors calculated for the different materials and within the various approximate functionals tested in this study. Black filled symbols : raw calculated properties; Red: properties corrected for the frequency error using Eq.(10)

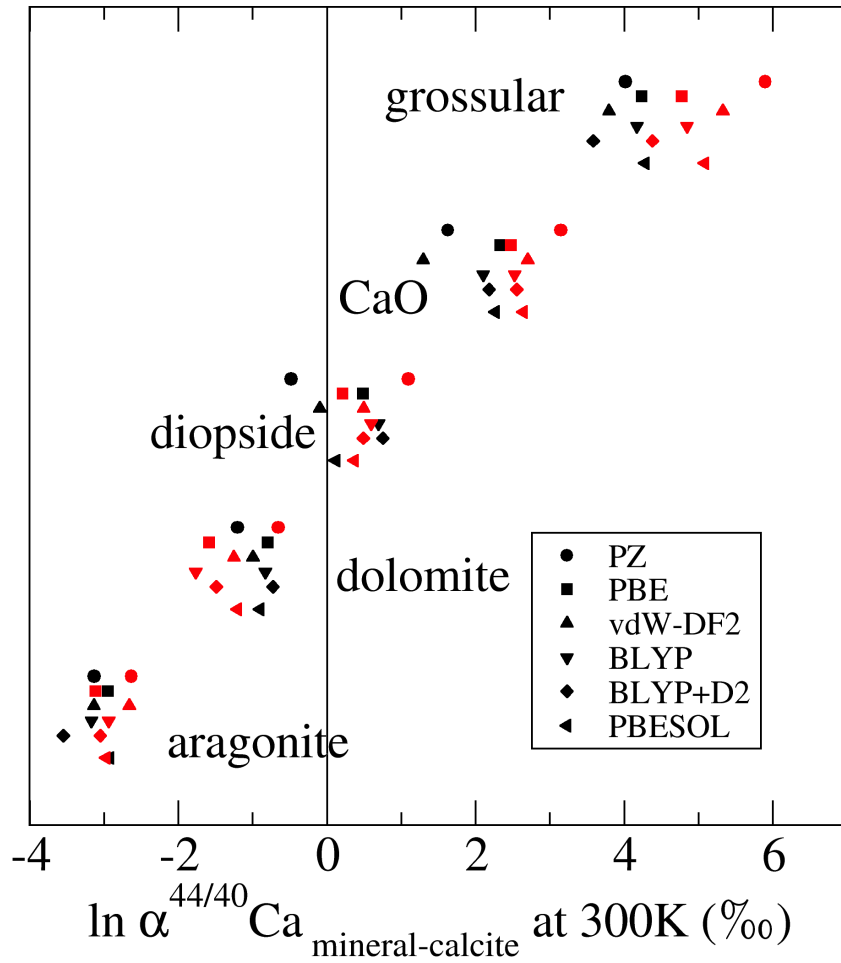


Fig. 8: Calculated fractionation factors relative to calcite for the different materials and within the various approximate functionals tested in this study. Black: "raw" calculated properties; Red: properties corrected for the frequency error using Eq.8 (see text)

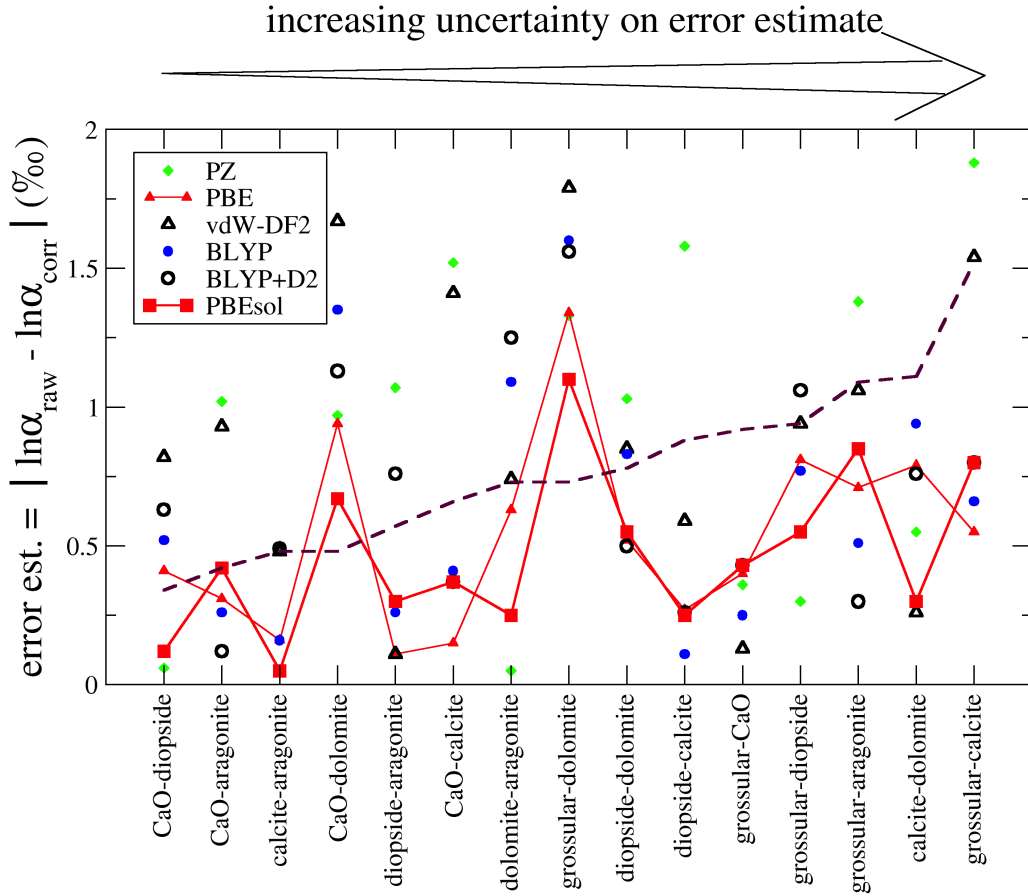


Fig. 9: Errors on calculated isotope fractionation properties ($\ln \alpha^{44/40}\text{Ca}$), as estimated by the absolute difference between the "raw" calculation for a given mineral pair and a given theoretical scheme, and the corrected calculation for the same pair and scheme. Symbols indicate PBEsol (■), BLYP-D2 (○), BLYP (●), vdW-DF2 (△), PBE (▲), and PZ (◆). The estimated errors appear by increasing order of uncertainty, as measured by the functional spread after correction (dashed line, see Table 3 and discussion in 4.2.2). See Table 2, for raw data.

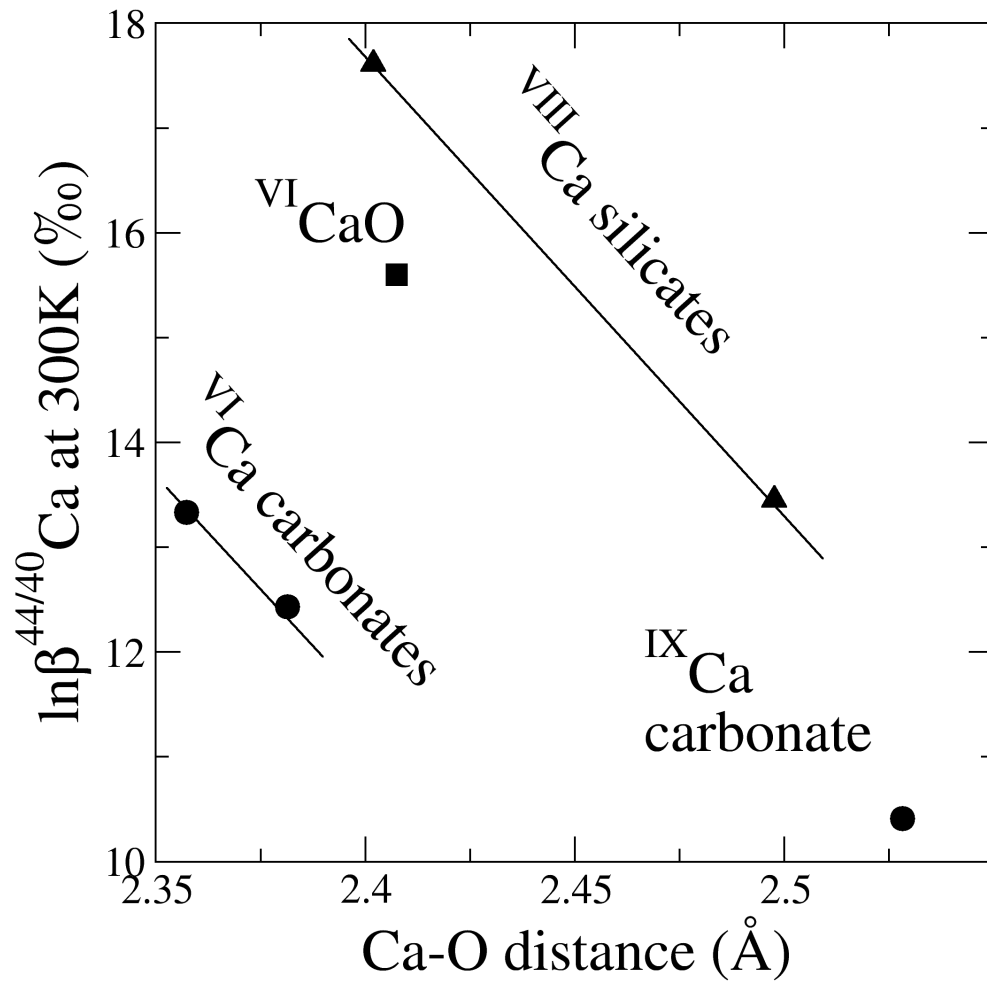


Fig. 10: Calculated isotope fractionation properties (logarithmic β -factors at 300K) as a function of mean CaO distance for the various minerals considered here. Coordination is given in Roman number.

ELECTRONIC ANNEX

Table EA-1: Experimental (exp, from literature) and calculated lattice parameters and Ca-O distances (this work, and from literature for B3LYP calculation) in Å and °, for the materials considered here. The numbers in parenthesis refer to uncertainties on the last significant digit. For each distance, $\Delta(\%)$ is the relative difference between the experimental and calculated value.

		lime CaO													
	Exp ^(a-f)	PZ:		PBE		vdW-DF2		BLYP		BLYP+GD2		PBESOL		B3LYP ^(g-k)	
		value	$\Delta(\%)$	value	$\Delta(\%)$	value	$\Delta(\%)$	value	$\Delta(\%)$	value	$\Delta(\%)$	value	$\Delta(\%)$		
a	4.8115[5]	4.7157		4.8382		4.8822		4.8781		4.8180		4.7746		4.858	
Ca-O	2.4058[3]	2.358	-2.0	2.419	+0.6	2.441	+1.5	2.439	+1.4	2.409	+0.2	2.387	-0.7	2.429 +1.0	
calcite															
a	4.9896[2]	4.9614	-0.6	5.0602	+1.4	5.0930	+2.1	5.0929	+2.1	5.0643	+1.5	5.0099	+0.4	5.0373 +1.0	
c	17.0610[11]	16.4176	-3.8	17.2059	+0.8	17.1122	+0.3	17.3614	+1.8	17.0348	-0.2	16.8516	-1.2	17.3304 +1.6	
Ca-O	2.3598[6]	2.3121	-2.0	2.3871	+1.2	2.3941	+1.5	2.4072	+2.0	2.3792	0.8	2.3504	-0.4	2.3907 +1.3	
dolomite															
a	4.8033[9]	4.7714	-0.7	4.8662	+1.3	4.8894	+1.8	4.8943	+1.9	4.8626	+1.2	4.8216	+0.4	4.8376 +0.7	
c	15.984[4]	15.5651	-2.6	16.2415	+1.6	16.2287	+1.5	16.4176	+2.7	16.0957	+0.7	15.9324	-0.3	16.2756 +1.8	
Ca-O	2.378[1]	2.3315	-2.0	2.4049	+1.1	2.4167	+1.6	2.4272	+2.1	2.4001	+0.9	2.3682	-0.4	2.4099 +1.3	
aragonite															
a	4.96183[1]	4.8863	-1.5	5.0173	+1.1	5.0543	+1.9	5.0581	+1.9	5.0677	+2.1	4.9517	-0.2	5.008 +0.9	
b	7.96914[2]	7.8346	-1.7	8.0433	+0.9	8.0513	+1.0	8.1074	+1.7	8.0516	+1.0	7.9406	-0.4	8.029 +0.8	
c	5.74285[2]	5.5381	-3.6	5.8239	+1.4	5.8540	+1.9	5.9162	+3.0	5.8192	+1.3	5.6768	-1.2	5.861 +2.1	
Ca-O	2.5272 [5]	2.4692	-2.3	2.5562	+1.1	2.5689	+1.7	2.5838	+2.2	2.5679	+1.6	2.5120	-0.6	2.560 +1.3	
grossular															
a	11.847[1]	11.7000	-1.2	11.9923	+1.2	12.0535	+1.7	12.0651	+1.8	11.9986	+1.3	11.8471 =		11.9368 +0.8	
Ca-O	2.405[1]	2.3711	-1.4	2.4332	+1.2	2.4530	+2.0	2.4538	+2.0	2.4383	+1.4	2.4007	-0.2	2.4180 +0.5	
diopside															
a	9.746[4]	9.6478	-1.0	9.9031	+1.6	9.9232	+1.8	10.0017	+2.6	9.8583	+1.2	9.7752	+0.3	9.8931 +1.5	
b	8.899[5]	8.7739	-1.4	9.0448	+1.6	9.0594	+1.8	9.1242	+2.5	9.0183	+1.3	8.9151	+0.2	9.0199 +1.4	
c	5.251[6]	5.1996	-1.0	5.3375	+1.6	5.3430	+1.8	5.3926	+2.7	5.3254	+1.4	5.2661	+0.3	5.3265 +1.4	
β	105.63[6]	105.77		106.46		105.86		107.01		105.68		106.05		106.37	
Ca-O	2.4976	2.4547	-1.7	2.5335	+1.4	2.5418	+1.8	2.5662	+2.7	2.5325	+1.4	2.4930	-0.2	2.5350 +1.5	
Δ_{CaO} interval (%)		-1.85±0.45		+1±0.4		+1.75±0.25		+2.05±0.65		+0.9±0.7		-0.45±0.25		+1±0.5	

(a) CaO: Speziale et al. (2006)

(b) calcite: Effenberger et al. (1981) X-ray diffraction at ambient temperature

(c) dolomite: Althoff (1977) X-ray diffraction

(d) aragonite: Caspi et al. (2005) Synchrotron Hi-Res X-Ray

(e) grossular: Geiger and Armbruster (1997) X-ray diffraction at 293K

(f) diopside: Cameron et al. (1973) X-ray diffraction at ambient temperature

(g) CaO: Calculated from cell volumes at 0K extracted from Figure 4 of Erba et al. (2015)

(h) calcite: Valenzano et al. (2007), BSD basis set

(i) dolomite: Valenzano et al. (2007), BSD basis set

(h) aragonite: Carteret et al. (2013)

(j) grossular: Zicovich-Wilson et al. (2008)

(k) diopside: Prencipe (2012)

Table EA-7: (continued)

B _u	384.8	-0.0	0.21	349.4	-9.2	0.21	353.5	-8.2	0.22	340.2	-11.6	0.23	360.8	-6.3	0.14	365.8	-5.0	0.20	385
B _u	431.2	0.3	0.03	405.5	-5.7	0.02	408.8	-4.9	0.03	399.1	-7.2	0.02	412.5	-4.1	0.02	416.6	-3.1	0.02	430
B _u	445.1	-2.2	0.01	426.9	-6.2	0.00	438.8	-3.6	0.00	430.4	-5.4	0.00	434.9	-4.4	0.01	432.7	-4.9	0.01	455
B _u	509.9	-1.0	0.06	490.5	-4.7	0.06	500.6	-2.8	0.06	492.8	-4.3	0.06	501.1	-2.7	0.06	497.1	-3.5	0.06	515
B _u	618.8	-1.8	0.15	595.5	-5.5	0.14	601.2	-4.6	0.14	594.2	-5.7	0.14	608.2	-3.5	0.17	605.0	-4.0	0.14	630
B _u	847.1	-1.5	0.00	812.0	-5.6	0.00	792.4	-7.9	0.00	808.7	-6.0	0.00	815.4	-5.2	0.00	828.7	-3.6	0.00	860
B _u	948.7	-2.7	0.04	907.1	-7.0	0.04	903.3	-7.4	0.04	895.9	-8.1	0.04	911.4	-6.5	0.04	927.5	-4.9	0.04	975
B _u	1042.2	-1.7	0.00	999.4	-5.7	0.01	996.8	-6.0	0.00	989.8	-6.6	0.01	1004.1	-5.3	0.01	1019.6	-3.8	0.00	1060
$\sum h = \ln \beta_{\Gamma}$	13.92			11.66			12.25			11.57			12.59			12.55			
$\sum_{orphan} h$	1.18			1.04			1.14			1.04			1.25			1.08			
$\ln \beta_{exact}$	14.86			12.53			13.17			12.45			13.53			13.45			
$\bar{\chi}$	-0.3			-5.8			-4.2			-6.6			-3.6			-3.6			
$\sigma(\chi)$	2.2			1.7			2.2			2.5			2.2			1.7			
$\bar{\chi}^{\dagger}$	0.9			-5.9			-3.5			-6.8			-3.0			-3.1			
$\dagger \bar{\chi}^h = \frac{\sum \chi^{\times h}}{\sum h}$																			

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