# Phase Stability and Reactions of Subducting CaCO<sub>3</sub> under Upper Mantle Conditions



GUI Weibin<sup>1</sup>, SHEN Kewei<sup>1,\*</sup> and LIU Jin<sup>2,\*</sup>

**Abstract:** CaCO<sub>3</sub> is an important component of marine sediments and one of the major deep-carbon carriers at subduction zones. Some subducted CaCO<sub>3</sub> can be dissolved in subduction fluids and recycled back to the surface via arc volcanoes degassing. At the same time, there still remain large amounts of CaCO<sub>3</sub> and its reaction products, which could be further transported into Earth's deep interior. These internal processes link atmosphere, hydrosphere and biosphere with the deep solid Earth, modifying the environments of our planet. In this review, we summarize current understanding from high pressure-temperature experiments and field petrological observations on the physical and chemical properties of CaCO<sub>3</sub>. In particular, the phase stability and reactions of CaCO<sub>3</sub> largely control the migration and reservation of oxidized carbon in subducting slabs. Finally, we present several critical but unsolved questions on CaCO<sub>3</sub> subducting in the deep mantle.

Key words: calcium carbonates, phase stability, subducting carbon, upper mantle, subduction zone

Citation: Gui et al., 2023. Phase Stability and Reactions of Subducting CaCO<sub>3</sub> under Upper Mantle Conditions. Acta Geologica Sinica (English Edition), 97(1): 309–315. DOI: 10.1111/1755-6724.15040

### 1 Introduction

Subduction zone is the most active tectonic boundary on Earth and a major carbon cycle pathway between the surface and the deep interior. As predominant carbon hosts in subducting slabs, carbonates play a pivotal role in linking surface and deep carbon reservoirs (Plank and Manning, 2019). Beneath subduction arcs, some of the carbonates can be dissolved or melted, then recycled back to the atmosphere via arc volcanoes degassing (Facq et al., 2016; Farsang et al., 2021). Substantial quantities of carbonates may further be transported into the deep mantle (i.e., the mantle transition zone and the lower mantle), even reaching the core-mantle boundary (Dasgupta and Hirschmann, 2010; Kelemen and Manning, 2015; Lee et al., 2019). The migration and stability of carbonates dictate the conversion between surface and deep carbon, thus influencing the long-term CO2 content of the atmosphere, modulating climate change fundamentally shaping the habitability of our planet (Walker et al., 1981; Tang et al., 2022).

The carbon fluxes in subduction zones attract significant attention from a substantial number of researchers from interdisciplinary fields; however, this long-term quest is still under debate (Dasgupta and Hirschmann, 2010; Plank and Manning, 2019). The global carbon flux into the mantle via subduction was once proposed to be 24–48 Mt/yr, with 18–37 Mt/yr carbon released through arc volcanoes degassing (Dasgupta and Hirschmann, 2010). More recently, based on estimates by Plank and Manning (2019),

the global carbon flux into the mantle via subduction has been revised to ~82 Mt/yr, with 21–24 Mt/yr carbon being released by arc volcanoes degassing (Plank and Manning, 2019). Those data indicate a lower recycling efficiency in subduction zones, with respect to the model by Dasgupta and Hirschmann (2010). Notably, calcium carbonate (CaCO<sub>3</sub>) is the most abundant form of oxidized carbon in marine sediments, altered oceanic crusts and serpentinized mantle peridotites within subducting slabs (Plank and Manning, 2019). Thus, to investigate the magnitude and pattern of carbon flux in subduction zones, we need to clarify the physical and chemical behaviors of CaCO<sub>3</sub> under the high pressure-temperature conditions of the upper mantle.

In this review, we summarize the phase stability and reactions of CaCO<sub>3</sub> under high pressure and temperature, which dictate the fundamental behaviors of CaCO<sub>3</sub> during subduction. Then we introduce major migration processes of CaCO<sub>3</sub>, such as dissolution by subduction fluids and dissolving in carbonatite melts. Moreover, the interactions between CaCO<sub>3</sub> and silicate minerals likely improve the stability of carbonaceous substances, delivering carbon into the deep mantle. Ultimately, we present several important, pressing questions that deserve further investigation.

# 2 High P-T Phase Diagram of CaCO<sub>3</sub>

Various polymorphs of CaCO<sub>3</sub> exist in oceanic sediments under Earth's surface conditions, including anhydrous CaCO<sub>3</sub> (e.g., calcite, aragonite and vaterite),

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Center for High Pressure Science and Technology Advanced Research, Beijing 100193, China

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Center for High Pressure Science, State Key Laboratory of Metastable Materials Science and Technology, Yanshan University, Qinhuangdao, Hebei 066004, China

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding authors. E-mail: kewei.shen@hpstar.ac.cn; jinliu@ysu.edu.cn

amorphous CaCO<sub>3</sub> and hydrated CaCO<sub>3</sub> monohydrocalcite CaCO<sub>3</sub>·H<sub>2</sub>O and ikaite CaCO<sub>3</sub>·6H<sub>2</sub>O) (Cölfen and Antonietti, 2005; Deer et al., 2013). Calcite is the dominant phase of CaCO<sub>3</sub> at ambient conditions, originating from the precipitation of supersaturated seawater and the biomineralization of organisms (Dunne et al., 2012; Hayes et al., 2021; Janjuhah et al., 2021). Aragonite is another common metastable phase of CaCO<sub>3</sub> in marine shelled creatures and corals, but it usually transforms into calcite due to its lower thermal stability under ambient conditions (Berner and Honjo, 1981; Sulpis et al., 2022). This phase transition is also reversible under high pressure-temperature conditions and aragonite, instead of calcite, becomes the principal form of CaCO<sub>3</sub> under extreme conditions relevant to subduction zones (Salje and Viswanathan, 1976; Suito et al., 2001; Zhang et al., 2003). Moreover, under water-saturated conditions, hydrated ikaite may exist in cold subducting slabs within a narrow temperature range of 313-373 K at 1.0-1.5 GPa in the hydrated upper mantle (Zhao et al., 2020).

Besides aragonite and ikaite, there are several other pressure- and temperature-induced phase transformations of CaCO<sub>3</sub> reported in previous experiments (Fig. 1). At room temperature, calcite transforms into monoclinic CaCO<sub>3</sub>-II at 1.5 GPa (Merrill and Bassett, 1975), triclinic CaCO<sub>3</sub>-III at 2.8 GPa, triclinic CaCO<sub>3</sub>-VI at 15 GPa and monoclinic CaCO<sub>3</sub>-VII at 30 GPa (Merlini et al., 2012; Bayarjargal et al., 2018). With increasing temperature at a low pressure of 0.4 MPa, calcite undergoes structural transitions into CaCO<sub>3</sub>-IV at 985 K and CaCO<sub>3</sub>-V at 1240 K (Ishizawa et al., 2013). Along the normal geothermal

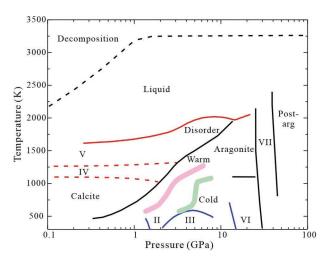


Fig. 1. Phase diagram of CaCO<sub>3</sub> under high pressure and temperature.

The blue lines show the boundaries of pressure-induced phase transitions (CaCO<sub>3</sub>-II, CaCO<sub>3</sub>-III and CaCO<sub>3</sub>-VI) (Merrill and Bassett, 1975; Merlini et al., 2012; Bayarjargal et al., 2018). The red dashed lines show boundaries of temperature-induced phase transitions (CaCO<sub>3</sub>-IV and CaCO<sub>3</sub>-V) (Ishizawa et al., 2013). The red solid lines show the experimental melting curves (Irving and Wyllie, 1975; Suito et al., 2001; Li et al., 2017). The black solid lines represent the boundaries of subducting phase transitions from calcite to aragonite, CaCO<sub>3</sub>-VII and post-aragonite (Bayarjargal et al., 2018). The black dashed line shows the decomposition curve of CaCO<sub>3</sub> from shock compression experiments (Ivanov and Deutsch, 2002). The pink and olivegreen thick lines are geothermal gradients for warm and cold subducting slabs (Schmidt and Poli, 2014).

gradient of subduction zones, the aragonite phase of CaCO<sub>3</sub> transforms into a disordered or amorphous phase of CaCO<sub>3</sub> at 2–8 GPa and 1000–1600 K (Dove and Powell, 1989; Suito et al., 2001; Hou et al., 2019). As the pressure increases to 25 GPa, the CaCO<sub>3</sub>-VII phase is predicted to be the predominant phase; above 40 GPa, the post-aragonite phase is potentially the stable form of CaCO<sub>3</sub> under lower mantle conditions (Ono, 2005; Gavryushkin et al., 2017; Bayarjargal et al., 2018; Dorfman et al., 2018) (Fig. 1).

Pressure significantly affects the thermal stability of CaCO<sub>3</sub>, resulting in different high-temperature behaviors under different pressures. At 1 bar, CaCO<sub>3</sub> decomposes into CaO and CO<sub>2</sub> at 1175 K (Baker, 1962), but elevated pressures in excess of 0.5 GPa would suppress the dissociation, leading to CaCO<sub>3</sub> melting at 1600-1900 K and <4 GPa (Irving and Wyllie, 1975; Suito et al., 2001). According to multi-anvil melting experiments, the melting temperature of CaCO<sub>3</sub> increases from 1870 K at 3 GPa to 2000 K at 6 GPa. Between 8 and 13 GPa, the melting point of CaCO<sub>3</sub> descends slightly to 1950 K, but then increases to 2050 K from 13 to 21 GPa (Li et al., 2017). Note that the decomposition of liquid CaCO3 finally occurs under extremely high temperatures at pressures greater than 0.5 the decomposition temperature of CaCO<sub>3</sub> dramatically increasing from 1175 K at 1 bar to 3000 K at 1 GPa. Interestingly, the decomposition temperatures of CaCO<sub>3</sub> remain almost constant at ~3300 K without obvious changes from 1 GPa to 200 GPa (Ivanov and Deutsch, 2002). Moreover, the CaCO<sub>3</sub> decomposition products can be altered under varying oxygen fugacity conditions. Laserheated diamond-anvil cell experiments on CaCO<sub>3</sub> produced elemental carbon like graphite or diamond at 9-21 GPa and 3500 K, due to the disassociation of CO<sub>2</sub> under relatively low oxygen fugacities (Bayarjargal et al., 2010).

# 3 Migration of CaCO<sub>3</sub> via Dissolution and Melting

## 3.1 Dissolution of CaCO<sub>3</sub> in subduction fluids

Both marine sediments and hydrous minerals in subducting slabs contain massive quantities of water, some of which could be released at shallow depths in subduction zones (Zheng et al., 2016). Under high pressure and temperature above the critical point (647.35 K and 22.1 MPa), water transforms into supercritical fluids, which could dissolve much more substances than normal water (Bröll et al., 1999; Weingärtner and Franck, 2005; Liu and Zhang, 2022). Although the solubility of CaCO<sub>3</sub> in water is minimal under ambient conditions, its dissolution is greatly enhanced in supercritical subduction fluids. Besides pressure and temperature, the dissolution of CaCO<sub>3</sub> is also greatly influenced by other solutes in aqueous fluids. The low-density CaCO<sub>3</sub>-bearing subduction fluids could infiltrate and alter mantle wedges to form carbonatized peridotites. Finally, the carbon in these CaCO<sub>3</sub>-bearing domains could be returned to the surface by degassing CO<sub>2</sub> at arc volcanoes (Fig. 2) (Kawamoto et al., 2013).

The solubility of CaCO<sub>3</sub> in aqueous fluids changes with pressure and temperature (Pytkowicz and Conners, 1964). Under ambient and low-pressure conditions, the solubility of CaCO<sub>3</sub> decreases with increasing temperature (Segnit et

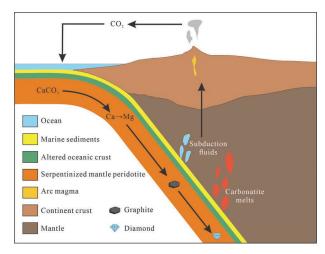


Fig. 2. Schematic diagram of subducting CaCO<sub>3</sub> in the global carbon cycle between Earth's surface and deep interiors.

al., 1962). At one atmosphere pressure, the solubility of CaCO<sub>3</sub> decreases from  $2.25 \times 10^{-3}$  mol/L at 373 K to  $8.4 \times 10^{-5}$  mol/L at 573 K (Ellis, 1959) and at 0.2 GPa, the CaCO<sub>3</sub> solubility decreases from  $8.13 \times 10^{-4}$  mol/L at 622 K to  $8.13 \times 10^{-5}$  mol/L at 895 K (Fein and Walther, 1987). However, the dissolving behavior dramatically changes with increasing pressure. At 0.6 GPa, the CaCO<sub>3</sub> solubility increases from  $6.4 \times 10^{-3}$  mol/L at 773 K to  $2.06 \times 10^{-2}$  mol/L at 973 K. Pressure has positive effects on the solubility of CaCO<sub>3</sub>. For instance, with pressure increasing from 0.6 to 1.6 GPa at 973 K, the solubility of CaCO<sub>3</sub> increases from  $2.06 \times 10^{-2}$  to  $4.04 \times 10^{-2}$  mol/L (Caciagli and Manning, 2003).

NaCl can increase the solubility of CaCO<sub>3</sub> under high pressure and temperature by forming CaCl<sup>+</sup> and NaCO<sub>3</sub>-ions. At 1073 K and 1 GPa, CaCO<sub>3</sub> solubility increases from around 0.1 mol/L in pure H<sub>2</sub>O to near 4.0 mol/L under halite saturation (Newton and Manning, 2002). This indicates that the halide-bearing seawater can dissolve more CaCO<sub>3</sub> than pure water during subduction. Moreover, the dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> in subduction fluids can also affect the solubility of CaCO<sub>3</sub>. Under 0.2 GPa and 673–823 K, a lower concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> ( $X_{CO2} < 0.05$ ) in aqueous fluids can increase the solubility of CaCO<sub>3</sub> because of pH decreasing, while a higher concentration of CO<sub>2</sub> (0.05 <  $X_{CO2} < 0.15$ ) will decrease due to the CO<sub>2</sub> hydration effects (Fein and Walther, 1987).

### 3.2 Molten CaCO<sub>3</sub> and formation of carbonatite melts

Based on experimental measurements, the melting curve of pure CaCO<sub>3</sub> lies above the normal geothermal gradient of subduction, which means that CaCO<sub>3</sub> could remain in a subsolidus state during subduction. However, calcium carbonatite magmatism has been reported in both subduction zone and intraplate settings, indicating that the melting of subducting CaCO<sub>3</sub> happens in the deep Earth (Korsakov and Hermann, 2006; Tsuno et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2015; Thomson et al., 2016). At shallow depths, the addition of water can decrease the melting point of CaCO<sub>3</sub> under high pressures. The melting point of CaCO<sub>3</sub> decreases from 1583 to 918 K at 1 GPa under water-

saturated conditions (Wyllie and Tuttle, 1960; Durand et al., 2015). At greater depths, cation substitution and interactions with silicate minerals could also decrease the melting point of CaCO<sub>3</sub> even under anhydrous conditions, attributed to the formation of carbonatite melts (Fig. 2) (Buob et al., 2006; Shatskiy et al., 2013, 2015).

As a common Ca–Mg substitution in nature, Mg<sup>2+</sup> decreases the melting point of CaCO<sub>3</sub> under high pressures. At 6 GPa, the melting of the CaCO<sub>3</sub>–MgCO<sub>3</sub> binary system occurs at 1623 K, which reduces the melting point of CaCO<sub>3</sub> by over 400 K (Buob et al., 2006; Zhao et al., 2022). Na<sup>+</sup> substitution more efficiently effects a decrease in the melting point of CaCO<sub>3</sub>. At 6 GPa, the melting of the CaCO<sub>3</sub>–Na<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> binary system occurs at 1473 K, which is 550 K lower than pure CaCO<sub>3</sub> (Shatskiy et al., 2013). K<sup>+</sup> substitution has a similar effect to Na<sup>+</sup> substitution and the melting of the CaCO<sub>3</sub>–K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub> binary system occurs at 1448 K (Shatskiy et al., 2015). These alkali-rich CaCO<sub>3</sub>-bearing carbonatite melts are consistent with the high alkali contents of deep carbonatite originating from the mantle (Weidendorfer et al., 2017).

Besides substitution of cations, the presence of other oxides can also decrease the melting point of CaCO<sub>3</sub> and generate carbonatite melt under upper mantle conditions. The CaO-MgO-Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>-SiO<sub>2</sub>-CO<sub>2</sub> system has been utilized to simulate the carbonated peridotite assemblages in high pressure-temperature experiments. The appearance of CaCO<sub>3</sub>-bearing carbonatite melts occurs at 1693 K and 2 GPa, which indicates the formation of carbonate liquids from alkali-poor anhydrous carbonated mantle at approximately 60 km depth (Keshav and Gudfinnsson, 2013; Novella et al., 2014). On the other hand, the presence of mafic and ultramafic minerals also affects the melting point of CaCO<sub>3</sub> (Poli, 2015). At 1.3–2.7 GPa, the addition of dunite decreases the melting temperatures of pure CaCO<sub>3</sub> from 1748-1878 K to 1198-1298 K (Chen et al., 2021). The solidus of carbonated eclogite has been explored experimentally over a range from 2 to 10 GPa (Hammouda, 2003; Dasgupta et al., 2004; Yaxley and Brey, 2004). Experimental results show that the melting points of carbonated eclogite are above 1200 K at 3 GPa and 1400 K at 6 GPa, indicating that even in hot subduction zones, carbonates could be preserved in carbonated eclogite and be stable in the upper mantle. At around 13 GPa, which is equivalent to the bottom of the upper mantle, the melting temperature of carbonated eclogite dramatically drops over a narrow pressure interval by ~200 K and forms sodiumrich carbonatite melts (Thomson et al., 2016).

# 4 CaCO<sub>3</sub> Reaction and Reduction with Silicate Minerals

At ambient conditions, CaCO<sub>3</sub> could coexist with mafic and ultramafic silicate minerals in altered oceanic crusts and serpentinized mantle peridotite (Plank and Manning, 2019). With increasing pressure and temperature in subduction zones, metamorphic reactions occur between CaCO<sub>3</sub> and silicates (Zheng, 2021). The cation-exchanging reactions between CaCO<sub>3</sub> and Mg-silicates produce Mg-bearing carbonates like dolomite and magnesite. Some reductive substances in the mantle will

also reduce CaCO<sub>3</sub> into elemental carbon and/or carbides. These carbonaceous products of CaCO<sub>3</sub>-silicate reactions are more stable under relatively reducing mantle conditions and may be subducted into the mantle transition zone and even the lower mantle (Fig. 2) (Liu et al., 2022).

Mg-carbonates, including dolomite (CaMg(CO<sub>3</sub>)<sub>2</sub>) and magnesite (MgCO<sub>3</sub>), are rare in the initial carbonates of subduction slabs (Plank and Manning, 2019). Their phase stability is higher than CaCO<sub>3</sub> at depths greater than ~100 km, Mg-carbonates becoming the major forms of carbonates and successors of CaCO<sub>3</sub> in subduction zones (Kato et al., 1997; Zhang et al., 2003). Enstatite (Mg<sub>2</sub>Si<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub>) is a common mafic mineral in upper mantle peridotite. It can react with CaCO<sub>3</sub> at 2.3–7.7 GPa and 1073–1673 K, forming diopside (CaMgSi<sub>2</sub>O<sub>6</sub>), dolomite and magnesite as follows (Kushiro, 1975):

$$2CaCO3 + Mg2Si2O6 = CaMgSi2O6 + CaMg(CO3)2$$
$$CaCO3 + Mg2Si2O6 = CaMgSi2O6 + MgCO3$$

A similar Ca-Mg cation exchanging reaction also occurs between olivine (Mg<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub>) and CaCO<sub>3</sub> in carbonated peridotites. At 3 GPa, CaCO<sub>3</sub> can react with olivine at 1373 –1573 K, forming Ca-rich clinopyroxene and Mg-carbonates as follows (Wang X F et al., 2022):

$$CaCO_3 + Mg_2SiO_4 = CaMgSi_2O_6 + Mg$$
-carbonates

In the case of the existence of some reductive substances,  $CaCO_3$  will be reduced to elemental carbon and/or carbides. Elemental carbon coexisting with variable-valence elements like Fe has been found in carbonated eclogites all over the world, e.g., from the Italian western Alps and southwestern Tianshan (Frezzotti et al., 2011; Tao et al., 2018). In high pressure-temperature experiments,  $Fe^{2+}$  in silicate can reduce  $CaCO_3$  and produce elemental carbon at 6–14 GPa and 1373–1573 K as follows (Tao and Fei, 2021):

$$4Fe^{2+}$$
 (silicate) +  $C^{4+}$  (carbonate) =  $4Fe^{3+}$  +  $C$ 

In addition to Fe<sup>2+</sup>, metallic Fe is another efficient reductive agent for CaCO<sub>3</sub> beneath the metal-saturated depth in the deep mantle. At 4–16 GPa and 1073–1473 K, CaCO<sub>3</sub> can react with iron, forming iron carbides and Cawüstite as follows (Martirosyan et al., 2016):

$$3CaCO_3 + 13Fe = Fe_7C_3 + 3CaFe_2O_3$$

The reductive fluids from the serpentinization of mantle peridotites in mantle wedges can also reduce  $CaCO_3$  into elemental carbon (Liu et al., 2020). Highly crystalline graphite was discovered in an exhumed serpentinite-sediment contact in Alpine Corsica, France (Galvez et al., 2013). The graphite in this reaction zone has a carbon isotopic signature ( $\delta^{13}C$ ) of up to 0.8%, similar to that of the original calcite that composed the sediments, indicating that graphite should originate from calcite reduction by H<sub>2</sub>-rich fluids at 703 K and 0.9–1.5 GPa as follows:

$$SiO_2 + CaCO_3 + 2H_2 = CaSiO_3 + C + 2H_2O$$

More interestingly, dolomite marble with micro diamond inclusions from the Kokchetav Massif indicates ultra high-

pressure metamorphism above 7.85 GPa, which is equivalent to depths greater than 250 km (De Corte et al., 2000; Ogasawara et al., 2000; Zhu and Ogasawara, 2002). The transformation from graphite to diamond will improve the stability of carbonaceous substances. This indicates that the subducted carbonated eclogites could at least reach the base of the upper mantle and even the core-mantle boundary region.

### 5 Concluding Remarks and Perspectives

Thus far, considerable progress has been achieved over several decades of research involving phase stability, dissolution, melting and reduction of CaCO<sub>3</sub> under high pressure and temperature conditions. In this review, we have attempted to present a summary of the current state of understanding of the fate of subducting CaCO<sub>3</sub> in the upper mantle. However, there remain many important questions that require further research in the future.

Firstly, it is still a matter of debate whether or not CaCO<sub>3</sub> exists in the mantle transition zone and the lower mantle. The Ca–Mg exchanging metamorphic reactions at shallow depths indicate that Mg-carbonates should be the predominant oxidized form of carbon in subducting slabs in the upper and lower mantle (Seto et al., 2008). However, based on experimental stability under the lowest mantle conditions, CaCO<sub>3</sub> instead of MgCO<sub>3</sub> could be more stable above 90 GPa and 2100 K due to  $sp^2$ – $sp^3$  bonding changes (Zhang et al., 2018; Lü et al., 2021). Consequently, CaCO<sub>3</sub> is proposed to be the principal form of carbonate at the core –mantle boundary.

Secondly, the Ca and Mg isotope signatures of intraplate carbonatite magmatism suggest a large-scale deep carbon cycle in the solid Earth (Liu et al., 2022; Uhlig et al., 2022). However, the formation mechanism of Ca-rich carbonatite magma is still unclear. A redox-melting mechanism has been proposed to explain the origin of carbon from the lower mantle and partial melting of carbonated peridotites to generate carbonatite magmas (Rohrbach and Schmidt, 2011). The migration of calcic components from subduction slabs to mantle plumes is not included in this mechanism. Notably, a mantle plume is absent from some carbonatite magmatism active areas such as the North China craton, which is also counter to the plume-driven redox-melting mechanism for calcic carbonatite (Wang X et al., 2022).

Thirdly, the formation of abiotic hydrocarbon during the reduction of subducting CaCO<sub>3</sub> has become a topic of great interest in recent years (Etiope and Sherwood Lollar, 2013; McCollom, 2016; Peng et al., 2021). The H<sub>2</sub>-bearing reductive fluids from the dehydration of hydrous silicates can react with CaCO<sub>3</sub>, forming methane and other hydrocarbons. The observation of subduction-related abiotic methanogenesis by reaction with reductive mantle fluids and Ca-carbonates has been reported in the Italian Alps by Vitale Brovarone et al. (2017). Talc and wüstite can also react with CaCO<sub>3</sub> in water-saturated conditions and produce methane in high pressure and temperature experiments (Holloway, 1984; Scott et al., 2004). In previous research, these abiotic hydrocarbons were neglected in estimates of deep carbon cycling fluxes.

Throughout Earth's geological history, these hydrocarbons may have played a critical role in Earth's paleoclimate.

Last but not least, in order to determine the evolution and fate of deep CaCO<sub>3</sub>, interdisciplinary and integrated methods should be introduced into high pressure and temperature researches. For instance, it is conventionally held that the metal-saturated lower mantle should maintain a very low oxygen fugacity, whereas recent research into hydrous minerals at the core-mantle boundary suggest an at least locally oxygen-rich lower mantle (Liu et al., 2017, 2021; Mao and Mao, 2020). Similarly, carbon embraces varying valence states, allowing CaCO<sub>3</sub> to be oxidized on the surface and reduced in the deep Earth. This makes CaCO<sub>3</sub> a major oxygen fugacity modulator between Earth's surface and interior, revealing a more critical role for CaCO<sub>3</sub> in the dynamics and evolution of our blue planet.

### Acknowledgments

This work was supported by the National Key Research and Development Program of China (2019YFA0708502) and the National Natural Science Foundation of China (42072052).

> Manuscript received Oct. 27, 2022 accepted Jan. 28, 2023 associate EIC: ZHANG Lifei edited by Jeffery J. LISTON and FANG Xiang

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## About the first author



GUI Weibin, male, born in 1993 in Laizhou, Shandong Province, China. Ph.D. candidate in high-pressure geochemistry at the Center for High Pressure Science and Technology Advanced Research. He is currently interested in the geochemical behavior of carbonates and hydrous under minerals high pressure and temperature conditions. E-mail: weibin. gui@hpstar.ac.cn.

About the corresponding authors



SHEN Kewei, female, born in 1993 in Hebei Province, China. Xingtai. Postdoctoral researcher at the Center for High Pressure Science and Technology Advanced Research. Her research interests focus on the physics and chemistry of minerals and rocks under high-pressuretemperature conditions. E-mail: kewei. shen@hpstar.ac.cn.



LIU Jin, male, born in 1984 in Jiangsu Province, China, Ph.D.; professor of mineral physics at Yanshan University. He has been focused on the physical and chemical properties of planetary materials under extreme conditions since 2007. Email: jinliu@ysu.edu.cn.