

Disproportionation of SO₂ at High Pressure and TemperatureWencheng Lu,¹ Siyu Liu,¹ Guangtao Liu,¹ Kun Hao,¹ Mi Zhou,¹ Pengyue Gao,¹ Hongbo Wang,¹ Jian Lv,¹ Huiyang Gou,² Guochun Yang,³ Yanchao Wang^{1,*} and Yanming Ma^{1,4}¹State Key Laboratory of Superhard Materials and International Center of Computational Method & Software, College of Physics, Jilin University, Changchun 130012, China²Center for High Pressure Science and Technology Advanced Research, Beijing 100094, China³State Key Laboratory of Metastable Materials Science and Technology and Key Laboratory for Microstructural Material Physics of Hebei Province, School of Science, Yanshan University, Qinhuangdao 066004, China⁴International Center of Future Science, Jilin University, Changchun 130012, China

(Received 22 September 2021; revised 26 December 2021; accepted 18 February 2022; published 10 March 2022)

Materials once suffered at high-pressure and high-temperature (HPHT) conditions often exhibit exotic phenomena that defy conventional wisdom. The behaviors of sulfur dioxide (SO₂), one of the archetypal simple molecules, at HPHT conditions have attracted a great deal of attention due to its relevance to the S cycle between deep Earth and the atmosphere. Here we report the discovery of an unexpected disproportionation of SO₂ via bond breaking into elemental S and sulfur trioxide (SO₃) at HPHT conditions through a jointly experimental and theoretical study. Measured x-ray diffraction and Raman spectroscopy data allow us to solve unambiguously the crystal structure (space group $R\bar{3}c$) of the resultant SO₃ phase that shows an extended framework structure formed by vertex-sharing octahedra SO₆. Our findings lead to a significant extension of the phase diagram of SO₂ and suggest that SO₂, despite its abundance in Earth's atmosphere and ubiquity in other giant planets, is not a stable compound at HPHT conditions relevant to planetary interiors, providing important implications for elucidating the S chemistry in deep Earth and other giant planets.

DOI: [10.1103/PhysRevLett.128.106001](https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevLett.128.106001)

For simple molecules (e.g., O₂, H₂S, CO₂, NO₂, H₂O, NH₃, and CH₄), a plethora of complex phenomena such as structural phase transitions, amorphization, dissociation, metallization, and superconductivity can appear at high-pressure and high-temperature (HPHT) conditions [1]. Among them, pressure-induced phase transitions are most common by accompanying the formation of a variety of crystal structures that are not accessible at ambient conditions. Compressed molecular solids are often known to acquire extended solids with strong covalent-bonding frameworks and ultimately transform into ionic phases (e.g., CO₂, H₂O, NO₂, and NH₃) [2–11]. On the other hand, unexpected chemical disproportionation reactions have been observed for certain simple molecules (e.g., CO, CH₄, NO, and H₂S) [12–19], producing materials that sometimes adopt exotic superconducting property [20].

As one of the typical simple molecules, SO₂ is considered as an archetypal system. Its *p* bond and hybridization properties can be severely affected by HPHT conditions. Knowledge of these behaviors is vital for understanding S–O bonding and the structural evolutions of simple molecules. In addition, SO₂ is an important atmospheric molecule on Earth and outer planets such as Venus [21] and the Jovian moon Io [22–24], which is produced through

volcanic eruptions [25]. As a result, SO₂ is expected to be constituent of the planetary interiors [26].

At ambient pressure, SO₂ crystallizes into an orthorhombic *Aba2* structure having four molecules per unit cell at 143 K [27]. Two high-pressure molecular phases (SO₂-II and SO₂-III) have been observed at pressures up to 7.5 GPa [28]. Upon further compression, a phase transition into an extended solid of SO₂-IV has been observed at 17.5 GPa [29]. Unfortunately, since there is absence of x-ray diffraction (XRD) data, the crystal structures of these high-pressure phases (SO₂-II, SO₂-III, and SO₂-IV) are not known. Very recently, a pressure-induced phase transition in the amorphous solid from a molecular to a polymeric phase was reported at 26 GPa [30]. Overall, the previous studies of SO₂ are mainly performed at a relatively low-pressure and low-temperature regime (below 60 GPa and room temperature), while the stability range and nature of SO₂ at HPHT conditions remain largely unknown. There is a fundamental interest for the study at HPHT conditions relevant to planetary interiors since SO₂ is expected to play a pertinent role in the understanding of the S cycle between the atmosphere and deep Earth.

Here we have carried out *ab initio* calculations and HPHT experiments to establish the phase diagram of compressed SO₂ solids. Unexpectedly, a chemical disproportionation

reaction of SO_2 was discovered at 95.2 GPa and 2700 K, where SO_2 decomposes into the elemental S and sulfur trioxide SO_3 . The crystal structure of the resultant high-pressure phase of SO_3 was determined to have a hexagonal $R\bar{3}c$ structure via *in situ* synchrotron XRD and Raman measurements, which is in excellent agreement with our theoretical prediction. Our discovery has renewed the fundamental principles that govern the chemistry of SO_2 under extreme conditions and substantially extended the phase diagram of SO_2 to HPHT conditions relevant to planetary interiors.

Our *ab initio* calculations were performed using density-functional theory with the Perdew-Burke-Ernzerh generalized gradient approximation [31], as implemented in the VASP code [32]. The plane wave basis set cutoff energy of 900 eV and Monkhorst-Pack [33] Brillouin zone sampling grid of $2\pi \times 0.03 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$ were used to ensure enthalpy convergence of better than 1 meV/atom. Our calculations reveal the phase transitions sequence of $\text{Aba}2 \rightarrow \text{Pna}2_1 \rightarrow \text{Pmc}2_1$ [30] at low pressure and 0 K. The $\text{Pna}2_1$ structure is a molecular crystal [Fig. 1(a)], whereas the $\text{Pmc}2_1$ structure is a polymeric phase containing a chain formed by the vertex-sharing SO_3 pyramids [Fig. 1(b)]. Note that the $\text{Pna}2_1$ can be viewed as an intermediate structure between molecular and polymeric crystals, which is stable at 1.5–15.5 GPa [see Supplemental Material, Fig. S10(b) [34]]. Upon further compression to 65 GPa, SO_2 becomes thermodynamically unstable with respect to the dissociation into elemental S and SO_3 via the reaction route of $3\text{SO}_2 \rightarrow \text{S} + 2\text{SO}_3$. The hexagonal $R\bar{3}c$ structure of SO_3 predicted in an earlier work [35] and our CALYPSO [36–38] structure-searching simulation [39] is more stable than the ambient-pressure α phase of SO_3 at the pressure of 72 GPa. Unlike the known α phase of SO_3 having the

partially polymerized chain structure, $R\bar{3}c\text{-SO}_3$ is fully polymerized into a covalent structure composed of the vertex-sharing SO_6 octahedra, where S atoms are considered as being sp^3 -type hybridization [Fig. 1(c)]. The dynamic stabilities of the predicted structures of $\text{Pna}2_1\text{-SO}_2$, $\text{Pmc}2_1\text{-SO}_2$, and $R\bar{3}c\text{-SO}_3$ were examined by the phonon spectrum calculations through the finite displacement method as implemented in the PHONOPY code [40]. No imaginary frequencies of the phonon dispersions for these structures (Fig. S2 [34]) were found, indicating they are dynamically stable. For further details on the calculations, see Supplemental Material and Refs. [41–45].

In order to provide more information from a theory ground to aid for subsequent experimental synthesis, we further examine vibrational contributions and entropic effects for the relevant phases and construct the finite-temperature phase diagram of SO_2 using the quasiharmonic approximation [Fig. 1(d)]. It is found that the estimated differences of zero-point energy between the reactants (SO_2) and products ($R\bar{3}c\text{-SO}_3$, S-IV) are about 0.104 and 0.106 eV/f.u. at 70 and 80 GPa, respectively, giving a rather small modification on the threshold pressure from 72 to 74 GPa for the disproportionation reaction of SO_2 into S and $R\bar{3}c\text{-SO}_3$ at 0 K. However, the threshold pressure is largely revised by the inclusion of the temperature effect, and it goes from 65 GPa at 0 K to 88 GPa at 2000 K.

The decomposition of compressed SO_2 is driven by the denser structure packing in SO_3 and S solids. Our calculations show that the decomposition at 74 GPa accepts volumes of $6.27 \text{ \AA}^3/\text{atom}$ for SO_3 in the $R\bar{3}c$ structure, $10.76 \text{ \AA}^3/\text{atom}$ for the S-IV phase, and $7.70 \text{ \AA}^3/\text{atom}$ for SO_2 , with a large volume shrinkage of $\Delta V/V = -12.12\%$ associated with a higher packing efficiency (see Supplemental Material, Fig. S3 [34]). Consequently, the pressure-volume term in Gibbs free energy strongly favors the decomposition of SO_2 at high pressure. In addition, the decomposition of SO_2 seems to be intimately tied to multivalent element speciation of S, whose oxidation states are changed from +4 to a mixture of 0 and +6 via self-redox reaction under compressions.

The *in situ* Raman spectra of SO_2 over a broad pressure were investigated at room temperature [Fig. 2(a)]. As pressure increases, the observed low-frequency modes ($60 - 360 \text{ cm}^{-1}$) shift to the higher wave number region and two new bands located at 515 and 653 cm^{-1} appear at 21.2 GPa. Under further compression, this phase transition continues as evidenced by the intensity enhancement of the newly observed modes around 522 and 658 cm^{-1} , and the lattice modes and the high-frequency peaks at 1166 and 1234 cm^{-1} weaken gradually and disappear completely when the pressure approaches 31.6 GPa. The peak positions and pressure-induced changes in Raman frequencies of SO_2 at room temperature plotted in Fig. 2(b) show an excellent agreement with earlier experimental data (see

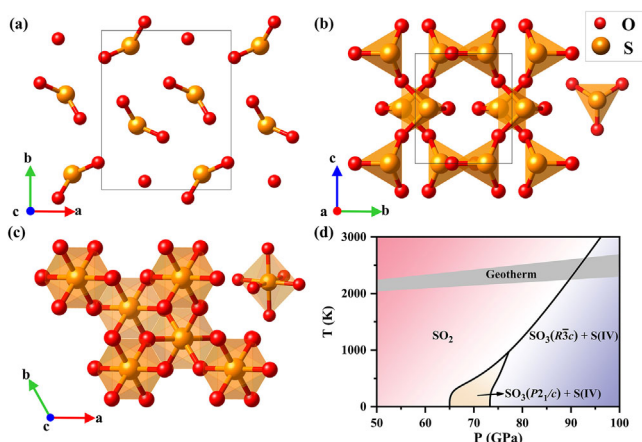


FIG. 1. The predicted crystal structures of (a) $\text{Pna}2_1\text{-SO}_2$, (b) $\text{Pmc}2_1\text{-SO}_2$, and (c) $R\bar{3}c\text{-SO}_3$ (c). (d) Thermodynamic phase diagram of SO_2 determined using first-principles density-functional theory. The gray region presents the geotherm of Earth from Ref. [46].

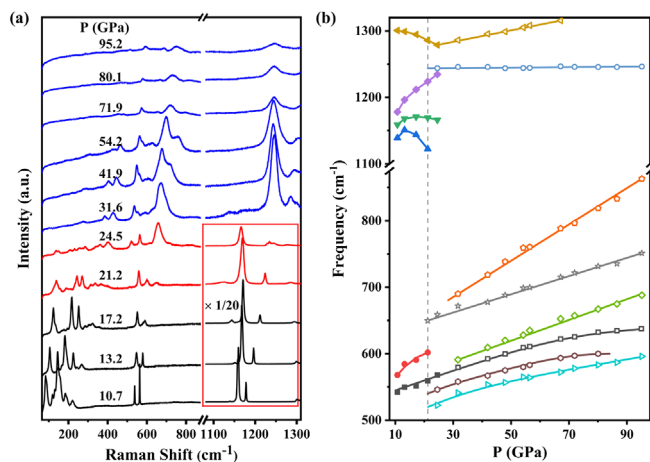


FIG. 2. Raman spectra of SO₂ solid upon compression to 95.2 GPa at room temperature. (a) Selected high-pressure Raman spectra of solid SO₂ measured with exciting wavelength of 633 nm. (b) Pressure dependence of Raman shifts. Different symbols denote different Raman peaks.

Supplemental Material, Fig. S4 [34]). It is observed that the phase transition from molecular SO₂-III to the extended solid of SO₂-IV phase occurs at nearly 21.2 GPa and room temperature [29]. The obtained transition is supported by our *ab initio* prediction, where a *Pmc*2₁ structure is calculated to be energetically more favorable than the *Pna*2₁ structure above 15.5 GPa. Direct comparison of the calculated vibrational modes and experimental Raman spectrum obtained at 54.2 GPa (see Fig. S5 [34]) indicates that *Pmc*2₁-SO₂ is a good candidate structure for the polymeric phase of SO₂-IV. Upon further compression, the linewidth of the peaks increases, but the Raman profiles exhibit no qualitative changes except that the 546 cm⁻¹

band gradually weakens and indistinguishably merges into the 522 cm⁻¹ mode around 86 GPa. It is inferred that no obvious phase transition takes place over the pressure range from 21.2 to 95.2 GPa at room temperature.

When there is an expectation on the disproportionation associated with bonds breaking, a large activation barrier is often needed to be overcome by the use of high temperatures in order to seek the alternative thermodynamic stable phase (e.g., CO [47], NO [18], and H₂S [14]). Also, guided by our theory in Fig. 1(d), we have performed HPHT experiments on SO₂ by employing an off-line laser-heating technique in a diamond anvil cell. High-purity SO₂ (99.9%) was loaded into a sample chamber by means of cryogenic loading. The samples were compressed to 95.2 GPa and heated up to a temperature of approximately 2700 K with an off-line pulsed Nd:YAG laser (a wavelength of 1064 nm) system. The heating process of SO₂ was accomplished by the continuously slow movement of a 10 m laser spot on the samples, and the total heating time per experimental run was about 1 min. We find via a near-infrared transmittance spectrum measurement that SO₂ samples absorb the Nd:YAG laser in an efficient way at high pressure (see Supplemental Material, Fig. S6 [34]). For further details on the experimental methods see Supplemental Material and Refs. [48–51].

The Raman spectra in a domain of frequencies from 250 to 1300 cm⁻¹ collected before and after laser heating were shown in Fig. 3(a), together with the Raman active modes predicted in *R* $\bar{3}c$ -SO₃. It is seen that all the original Raman peaks of SO₂ disappear and six distinct peaks are present after laser heating. The observed low-frequency modes (285, 356, 406, and 485 cm⁻¹) are in good agreement with those of S (phase IV) after laser heating at 92.8 GPa. A group theory analysis shows that there are four Raman

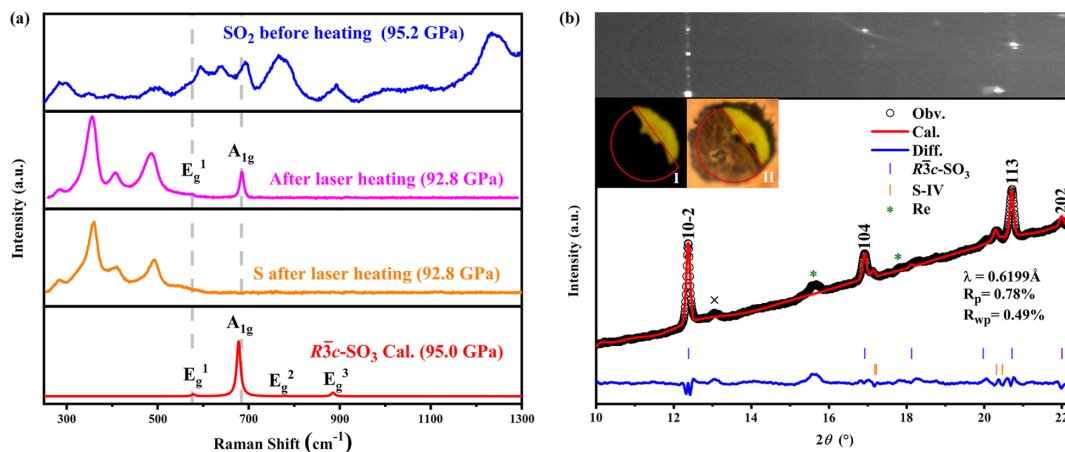


FIG. 3. (a) Raman spectra for SO₂ before and after laser heating, and elemental S after heating measured with exciting wavelength of 633 nm, as well as that obtained by simulation of refined structure of *R* $\bar{3}c$ -SO₃. (b) Measured XRD patterns at 95 GPa and calculated Bragg peaks of *R* $\bar{3}c$ -SO₃ and S-IV phases. The x-ray wavelength is 0.6199 Å. The photographs of the sample taken after laser heating under combined transmitted (inset I) and reflected (inset II) illumination. The transparent area is the sample morphology before heating. The regions marked by a red circle are the sample morphology after heating. For a direct comparison of the changes of the samples before and after heating, only half of the samples were heated, and the other half remained cool.

active modes ($\Gamma = 3E_g + A_{1g}$) for $R\bar{3}c$ -SO₃. Two modes with frequencies of 576 and 684 cm⁻¹ are consistent with E_g^1 and A_{1g} modes predicted in the $R\bar{3}c$ -SO₃ phase; however, the other two Raman modes of E_g^2 and E_g^3 are too weak to be observed. Furthermore, the Raman spectra during decompression of the samples were shown in the Supplemental Material (Fig. S7) [34]. The characteristic A_{1g} mode of $R\bar{3}c$ -SO₃ phase becomes weaker in intensity with decreasing pressure and clearly persists to 67.2 GPa (see Fig. S7 [34]), a threshold pressure for the metastability of $R\bar{3}c$ -SO₃.

In order to further confirm the $R\bar{3}c$ -SO₃ structure of the heated samples, the powder XRD patterns obtained from a synchrotron radiation experiment were collected at 95 GPa and shown in Fig. 3(b). New diffraction peaks do not correspond to any SO₂ solids. The Rietveld refinements of the diffraction patterns confirm that these new peaks correspond to S-IV [52] and $R\bar{3}c$ -SO₃ phases, respectively. More specifically, the observed peaks at 12.38°, 16.94°, 20.73°, and 21.99° match well with the (10 - 2), (104), (113), and (202) crystal planes of $R\bar{3}c$ -SO₃, respectively. The obtained lattice parameters of $R\bar{3}c$ -SO₃ at 95 GPa, $a = b = 3.93$ Å, and $c = 10.71$ Å, are close to theoretical data of $a = b = 3.94$ and $c = 10.74$ Å. Note that the XRD patterns of the heated samples exhibit a nonindexed peak marked by “x”. Because of the “broad” feature of this peak (see Supplemental Material, Fig. S8 [34]), we speculate that it might be derived from a residue of the amorphous phase of SO₂ [30].

Moreover, the sample has undergone a significant color change from transparency to opaque with a metallic luster after heating [insets of Fig. 3(b)] and the metallic nature may be relevant to the decomposed product of metallic S-IV. The presence of elemental S and SO₃ manifested in the measured XRD data provides a solid confirmation for the decomposition of compressed SO₂ into S-IV and $R\bar{3}c$ -SO₃ as predicted in our calculations [39].

It is known that SO₂ can react with various metals (e.g., Fe [53], Co [54], and Ni [55]) at high temperatures. Considering that no peaks for Re-containing compounds

exhibit in the measured XRD patterns of the heated samples, the chemical reaction between Re gasket and SO₂ can be safely excluded in our experiments. Furthermore, we have also performed a laser-heating experiment by using Au as an inner gasket to avoid the direct contact between Re and SO₂ (see Supplemental Material, Fig. S9 [34]). After laser heating, the resultant Raman spectrum of the samples is identical to the one obtained without the inner gasket of Au, giving strong support for the fact that the decomposition of SO₂ takes place no matter whether the samples are in contact with the Re gasket.

We have examined electronic band structures and density of states to decipher the electronic properties of $R\bar{3}c$ -SO₃ [Fig. 4(a)]. The results reveal that the $R\bar{3}c$ -SO₃ is an insulator with a large band gap of 3.6 eV at 70 GPa and a continuous widening of band gaps is predicted from 3.6 to 4.2 eV at pressures ranging from 70 to 100 GPa [see Supplemental Material, Fig. S10(a) [34]]. This anomalous behavior of pressure-promoted band gap may be attributed to the enhanced ionicity of $R\bar{3}c$ -SO₃ as evidenced by more charge transfer from S to O with increasing pressures [Fig. S10(b) [34]].

It has long been known that the exchange of S between the surface and deep Earth, i.e., transporting S to the mantle via subduction and returning it to the surface by volcanic degassing, results in a deep global S cycle [26]. Previous studies suggest that the sulfate minerals of MSO₄ ($M = \text{Ca, Mg, and Fe}$) [56,57] and Fe₂(SO₄)₃ [58] as important carriers can transport S from the surface to deep Earth by the subducting slabs [59,60], while S returns to the surface by volcanic degassing in the form of S-bearing gases (e.g., SO₂ and SO₃) [61–64]. It has been demonstrated that the volcanic degassing of SO₂ originates from the redox reactions of S-bearing minerals (e.g., MgSO₄ and CaSO₄) [25,39]. However, the source of SO₃, released during volcanic eruptions, remains poorly understood.

Given that the decomposition of the sulfates may be a viable route for production of SO₃, we thus explore the possibility of the decompositions of the subducted sulfates

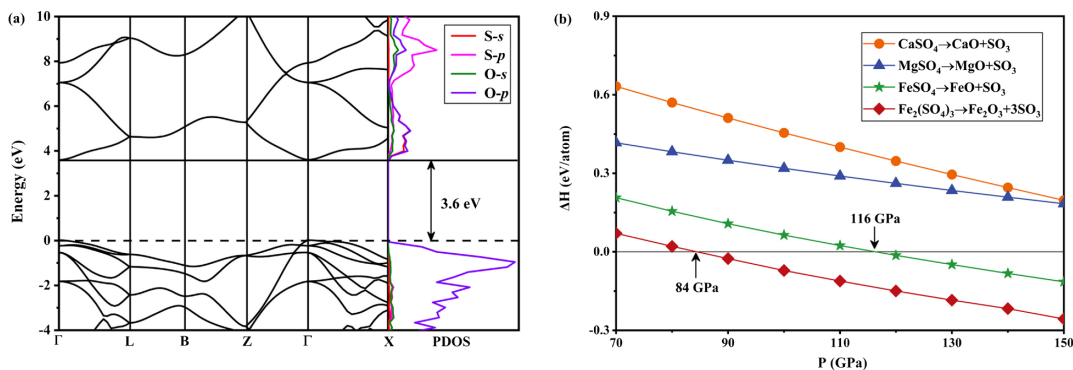


FIG. 4. (a) Band structures (left) and partial density of states (right) of $R\bar{3}c$ -SO₃ at 70 GPa. (b) Relative enthalpies for sulfates to decompose into SO₃ and pertinent oxides at high pressure.

of MSO_4 ($M = \text{Ca}, \text{Mg}, \text{and Fe}$) and $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ with respect to oxides (e.g., $\text{CaO}, \text{MgO}, \text{FeO}, \text{FeO}_2$, and Fe_2O_3) abundant within Earth's mantle and SO_3 as products. (For details on the calculations, see Supplemental Material and Refs. [65–74]). We find that, unlike MgSO_4 and CaSO_4 , decomposition reactions of FeSO_4 and $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ indeed occur at 84 and 116 GPa, respectively, corresponding to pressure conditions at deep Earth's mantle [Fig. 4(b)]. In sharp contrast to the mechanism for production of SO_2 via redox reactions with varied oxidation states of S, the decomposition of subducted sulfates to produce SO_3 does not involve any changes in oxidation states of S. These findings reveal that the volcanic degassing of SO_3 might be arising from the decompositions of FeSO_4 and $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$. The production of SO_3 by decomposition of subducted sulfates offers insights for understanding deep Earth chemical reactions relevant to S cycles inside our planet and implies that SO_3 , which was not previously considered, should be taken into account for the construction of a realistic model of Earth's mantle.

The pressure homology rule states that light elements behave at high pressure, like those in heavier elements from the same group of the periodic table at lower pressures [75]. For the heavier elements oxides in the VIA group, SeO_2 has a partially polymerized chain structure at pressure up to 20 GPa [76,77], while TeO_2 adopts a fully polymerized covalent structure even at ambient pressure [78,79]. There is an expectation that SO_2 might also have a polymerized structure at high pressures, in resemblance to those in SeO_2 and TeO_2 . In contrast to these expectations, our findings unravel the occurrence of an unexpected disproportionation reaction of SO_2 into SO_3 and elemental S at high pressure.

In summary, we provided theoretical and experimental evidence for the occurrence of a chemical disproportionation reaction of SO_2 at HPHT conditions, where SO_2 was proven to decompose into the known S-IV phase and a newly established polymeric $R\bar{3}c$ phase of SO_3 . The resulting phase of SO_3 contains vertex-sharing octahedra SO_6 units and exhibits an anomalous behavior of pressure-enhanced band gap. The occurrence of decomposition of compressed SO_2 is originated from the volume reduction favorable for a denser structure packing. These findings enrich fundamental behaviors of compressed simple molecules and create an extended phase diagram of SO_2 at HPHT conditions relevant to planetary interiors, thereby offering important implications for the deep S cycle within Earth's mantle and elucidating the S chemistry of planetary interiors.

We thank B.L. for constructive discussions. This paper is dedicated to the 70th anniversary of the physics of Jilin University.

This research was supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China under Grants No. 11404128, No. 11822404, No. 11534003, No. 12174142, No. 11774127, No. 12034009, 91961204, No. 12074139,

and No. 21873017, the Program for JLU Science and Technology Innovative Research Team, and the Science Challenge Project, No. TZ2016001. Part of the calculation was performed in the high-performance computing center of Jilin University. The XRD measurements were supported by BL15U1 at Shanghai Synchrotron Radiation Facility and BL4W2 at Beijing Synchrotron Radiation Facility.

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