

system helps determine the  $T$  or physical state of the planetary cores. The eutectic  $T$  determined in this study is  $860^\circ\text{C}$  at 18 GPa, which is about  $500^\circ\text{C}$  less than that extrapolated from (2). The extrapolation to higher  $P$  based on (2) could result in the overestimation of core  $T$ . In fact, such extrapolation should not be exercised in the Fe-FeS system because of the formation of the intermediate compound and changes in physical properties of end-member FeS (10) at high  $P$  and  $T$ . Theoretical calculations also showed that other Fe-S compounds such as  $\text{Fe}_3\text{S}$  could form at higher  $P$  (11), and melting relations in the Fe-FeS system at the core  $P$  of the Earth (135 to 360 GPa) may be different from what we observed at relatively low  $P$ . In addition, the presence of Ni in the system could further complicate the phase relations.

Iron sulfides are found in many classes of meteorites. If  $\text{Fe}_3\text{S}_2$  were indeed found in a meteorite, it would indicate the minimum size of the parent body and the maximum  $T$  of the core. The  $\text{Fe}_3\text{S}_2$  compound could only be found in meteorites that come from parent bodies with a center  $P > 14$  GPa and  $T$  less than the eutectic temperature (which is  $\sim 900^\circ\text{C}$ , depending on the pressure).

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7. Quantitative chemical analyses were obtained with a JEOL JXA-8900 electron microprobe, using pyrite  $\text{FeS}_2$  as a standard. The composition of the samples synthesized at 14 GPa is very close to stoichiometric  $\text{Fe}_3\text{S}_2$  (27.7% S). The compound may be of nonstoichiometric nature, because the samples synthesized at 18 GPa have a lower sulfur content ( $27.1 \pm 0.2\%$

S) than does  $\text{Fe}_3\text{S}_2$  stoichiometric composition.

8. Powder x-ray diffraction data were collected at beam line X7A of the National Synchrotron Light Source of Brookhaven National Laboratory, using the high-resolution mode with a Si(111) channel-cut monochromator and a Ge(110) analyzer crystal at  $0.79826(2)$  Å. See D. E. Cox, B. H. Toby, M. M. Eddy [*Aust. J. Phys.* **41**, 117 (1988)] for details of the instrument. The wavelength and diffractometer zero were calibrated with Si powder. Program GSAS [A. C. Larson and R. B. Von Dreele, *Report LA-UR 86-748* (Los Alamos National Laboratory, Los Alamos, NM, 1986)] was used for all profile fitting. A modified version of TREOR90 [P.-E. Werner, L. Eriksson, M. J. Westdahl, *J. Appl. Crystallogr.* **18**, 367 (1985)] was used to determine the unit-cell parameters for the unknown phases. For the method of intensity extrac-

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## Melting of $(\text{Mg,Fe})_2\text{SiO}_4$ at the Core-Mantle Boundary of the Earth

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The lower mantle of the Earth is believed to be largely composed of  $(\text{Mg,Fe})\text{O}$  (magnesiowüstite) and  $(\text{Mg,Fe})\text{SiO}_3$  (perovskite). Radiative temperatures of single-crystal olivine [ $(\text{Mg}_{0.9}\text{Fe}_{0.1})_2\text{SiO}_4$ ] decreased abruptly from  $7040 \pm 315$  to  $4300 \pm 270$  kelvin upon shock compression above 80 gigapascals. The data indicate that an upper bound to the solidus of the magnesiowüstite and perovskite assemblage at  $4300 \pm 270$  kelvin is  $130 \pm 3$  gigapascals. These conditions correspond to those for partial melting at the base of the mantle, as has been suggested occurs within the ultralow-velocity zone beneath the central Pacific.

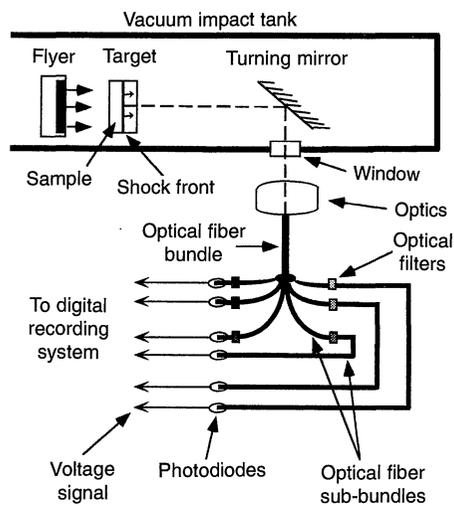
The major minerals of Earth's lower mantle are thought to be  $(\text{Mg}_{0.94}\text{Fe}_{0.06})\text{SiO}_3$  perovskite and  $(\text{Mg}_{0.84}\text{Fe}_{0.16})\text{O}$  magnesiowüstite (1). Thus, the melting behavior of this assemblage is important for determining the temperature of the mantle and the origin of the seismically imaged structures at the core-mantle boundary (CMB). Recent studies of the solidi of this mantle assemblage are disparate: The melting temperature of pure  $\text{MgSiO}_3$  perovskite (Pv) at the CMB has been estimated at 7000 to 8500 K (2) and  $4500 \pm 350$  K (3). Measurements of the melting of MgO [periclase (Per)] at pressures up to 31.5 GPa ( $4000 \pm 200$  K) (4) imply, when extrapolated to 133 GPa, that it melts at  $5100 \pm 750$  K. Phase equilibrium experiments (5) demonstrate that at lower mantle pressures, the stable high-pressure phase (hpp) assemblage for  $\text{Mg}_2\text{SiO}_4$  [forsterite (Fo)] is MgO (Per) +  $\text{MgSiO}_3$  (Pv); thus, Fo can be used as a representative starting material in shock experiments. Syono and co-workers' (6) shock-recovery experiments on Fo indicate that MgO (Per) +  $\text{MgSiO}_3$  (glass that is inferred to have been Pv at high pressure and temperature) is actually recovered from samples

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that were at high pressure for the short ( $10^{-7}$  s) time scale of a shock-wave experiment (6). In previous shock experiments using olivine crystals, Brown *et al.* (7) inferred the onset of melting of the assemblage Per + Pv above  $\sim 140$  GPa on the basis of a sharp decrease in longitudinal elastic wave velocity. Brown *et al.* (7) also suggested that the previous shock temperatures measured in Fo in the range of 160 to 180 GPa (8) are representative of the liquid regime of the Fo Hugoniot. Because Fo shocked below 160 GPa has a low Planck emissivity, temperatures in the pressure range where the Hugoniot curve crosses the solidus ( $\sim 90$  to 133 GPa) were not measurable. Here, we determine the onset of melting at lower pressures using higher emissivity olivine samples and a more sensitive detector system (9). We used samples of San Carlos and Burma peridot [ $(\text{Mg}_{0.9}\text{Fe}_{0.1})_2\text{SiO}_4$  (10)] for shock-temperature experiments because they are green rather than transparent. Their ambient-condition emissivities are  $\sim 0.7$  and  $\sim 1.0$  at 560 and 900 nm. Moreover, their solidi are within  $110^\circ\text{C}$  of the melting point of Fo at 1 bar (5). Using 5 mm by 5 mm by 2 mm samples, we conducted measurements from 94 to 192 GPa (Table 1) (11). As the shock wave propagated through the sample (12), the com-

pressed region emitted thermal radiation, which then propagated through the absorbing unshocked sample (Fig. 1). As the shock front propagated through the sample, the radiation from the shock front was attenuated by successively less unshocked sample; thus, radiance increased with time (13) (Fig. 2A). For each experiment, signals  $\sim 300$  ns long were recorded by photodiodes in six wavelength bands from 450 to 900 nm. Data corrected for mineral emissivity and system response (14, 15) were fitted to a Planck function to obtain emissivity and temperature (Fig. 2, B through D). Shock temperatures were nearly constant (Fig. 2C) during propagation through the sample, whereas the irradiance (Fig. 2A) varied with emissivity (Fig. 2C).

We determined shock temperatures of peridot in eight experiments (Table 1 and Fig. 3). Between 127 and 133 GPa, we measured a change in temperature from  $7041 \pm 315$  to  $4292 \pm 270$  K. The data for peridot and earlier data (8) for the shock-induced melt of the high-pressure assemblage of Fo appear to agree. We infer that the difference in shock temperature observed between the 127- and 133-GPa experiments results from our sampling the lower pressure, superheated (solid) hpp assemblage and the onset of melting with increasing shock pressure. This behavior is analogous to that in  $\text{SiO}_2$  and alkali halides (16, 17). Because a material will not melt if its temperature does not exceed the solidus at the relevant pressure, the observed shock temperature of  $4300 \pm 270$  K represents an upper bound to the solidus at  $130 \pm 3$  GPa.



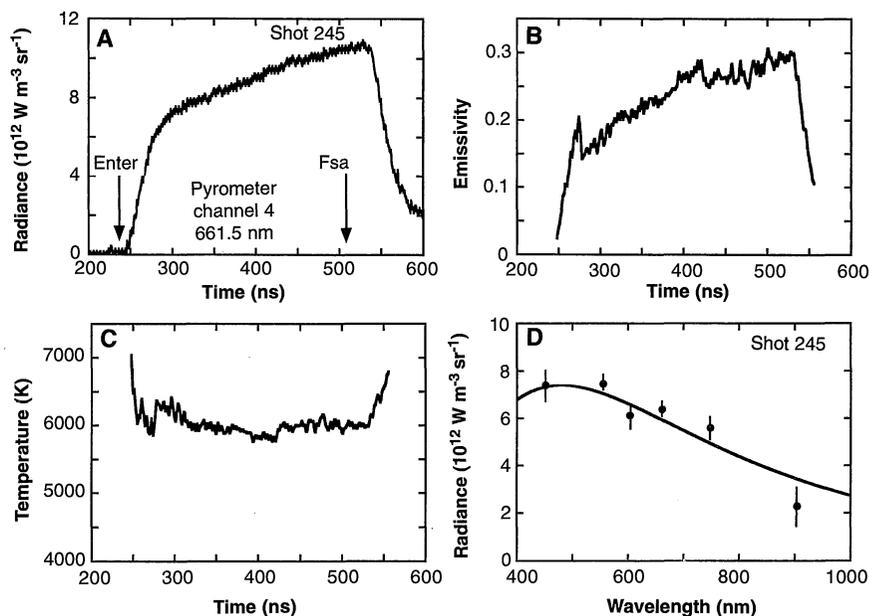
**Fig. 1.** Schematic diagram of experimental setup (17). The flyer is shown in flight before impacting the sample. The shock front is shown as it would appear shortly after impact. The target and the turning mirror are attached to the impact tank, but the flyer is not. The impact tank is evacuated.

Our estimate is consistent with a solidus attained for  $(\text{Mg}_{0.9}\text{Fe}_{0.1})_2\text{SiO}_4$  at lower pressure reported by Presnall and Walter (18). There is the possibility that the onset of melting could be overdriven by kinetic effects (17), so our estimated solidus is an upper bound.

In analogy to low-pressure data, we suggest that in the  $\text{MgO-MgSiO}_3$  system, the high-pressure lower mantle assemblage can undergo eutectic melting and that the eutectic composition lies between  $\text{Mg}_2\text{SiO}_4$  and  $\text{MgSiO}_3$ . The upper bound reported by Sweeney and Heinz (3) or even the higher temperature extrapolation

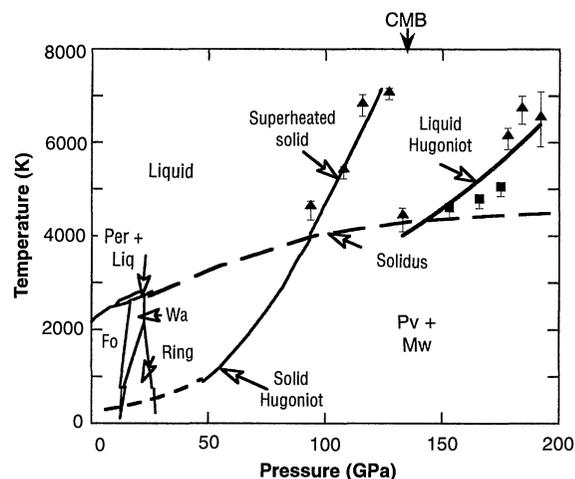
of the data of Zerr and Boehler (2) for pure  $\text{MgSiO}_3$  (Pv) melting are consistent with this suggestion.

Our results imply that the lower mantle of the Earth can be modeled as an intimate mixture of Per + Pv; its solidus temperature is no higher than  $\sim 4300$  K at  $\sim 130$  GPa. This temperature would allow partial melting in the lowest reaches of mantle, as recently suggested to explain *P*-wave velocities at the base of the mantle (19). Also, this temperature agrees with thermal models of the core, obtained independently by Boehler and by Jeanloz and Morris (20) on the basis of melting and Grüneisen parameter mea-



**Fig. 2.** (A) Radiance versus time profile, centered at 650 nm, from shot 245. The time marked "Enter" is the calculated time of arrival of the shock wave at the olivine, and "Fsa" is the calculated time of arrival of the shock wave at the free surface of the olivine. (B) Spectral emissivity versus time for shot 245. (C) Gray-body temperature versus time for shot 245. (D) Spectral fit at 522 ns for shot 245.

**Fig. 3.** Pressure-temperature phase diagram for  $\text{Mg}_2\text{SiO}_4$  and calculated Hugoniot temperature curve for  $\text{Mg}_2\text{SiO}_4$ . When the Hugoniot intersects the solidus, under equilibrium conditions, it follows the solidus until complete melting occurs. However, equilibrium is not achieved, and Hugoniot states achieved overshoot the solidus because of kinetic effects, which results in states along a metastable extension of the solid Hugoniot, a phenomena also observed in  $\text{SiO}_2$  (16) and KBr and CsBr (17). When melting occurs, shock temperatures lie along the solidus, substantially below the temperature of the superheated solid. Experimental shock temperatures are shown intersecting an inferred solidus. Data for San Carlos and Burma peridot are shown as solid triangles, and data for Fo (8) are shown as solid squares. Error bars, when not shown, are smaller than symbol size. Mw, magnesiowüstite; Wa, wadsleyite.



**Table 1.** Temperatures of shocked olivine (hpp). The  $\Delta T$  and  $\Delta \epsilon$  are root-mean-square uncertainties in temperature and emissivity for  $\sim 100$  sample times during the last  $\sim 100$  ns of radiative signal recorded for each shot.

Shot #	Flier-driver material	Pressure (GPa)	Temperature (K)	$\Delta T$ (K)	Emissivity	$\Delta \epsilon$
284	Cu-Cu	93.7	4545	321	0.22	0.15
244	Cu-Cu	107.8	5355	234	0.0132	0.0033
278	Cu-Cu	115.7	6800	201	0.51	0.17
289	Ti-Ti	127.1	7041	315	0.055	0.014
275	Cu-Cu	133.0	4292	270	0.038	0.048
245	Ta-Ta	178.4	6092	310	0.226	0.057
302	Ta-Ta	183.5	6700	213	0.0284	0.0091
303	Ta-Ta	192.0	6510	151	0.298	0.026

measurements of outer core candidate components and of downward extrapolation of mantle phase-transition temperatures.

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10. Electron microprobe (JEOL Super Probe) analyses

revealed the San Carlos peridot as (Mg<sub>0.907</sub>,Fe<sub>0.093</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub> and the Burma peridot as (Mg<sub>0.890</sub>,Fe<sub>0.110</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub>. Hence, we simply quote the composition of both as (Mg<sub>0.9</sub>,Fe<sub>0.1</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub>.

11. R. Jeanloz and T. J. Ahrens, in *High-Pressure Research: Applications in Geophysics*, M. H. Manghnani and S. Akimoto, Eds. (Academic Press, San Diego, 1977), pp. 439–461; T. J. Ahrens, *Methods Exp. Phys.* **24**, 185 (1987). In our experiments, a 25-mm-diameter lexan projectile bearing a 1.5-mm-thick Cu, Ti, or Ta flyer plate was accelerated to 5 to 7 km s<sup>-1</sup> and impacted 0.5-mm-thick Cu, Ti, or Ta driver plates. The planar shock wave induced in the driver plate then propagated into the peridot samples.
12. The sample surface in contact with the driver plate is sputter-coated with an opaque layer of Ag to block light that may originate from the shock-heated driver-sample interface [G. Lyzenga, thesis, California Institute of Technology (1982)].
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15. The sample transmission spectrum was applied in two different ways in the analysis. It was used to determine the photon fraction absorbed upon propagation from the emitting shock front through the unshocked sample. Transmittance spectra were also used to estimate the wavelength dependence of emissivity  $\epsilon$  from the shocked material by Kirchhoff's law. Temperature  $T$  and  $\epsilon$  are obtained from irradiance  $I$  versus wavelength  $\lambda$  by fitting these to
 
$$I(\lambda) = \frac{\epsilon C_1 A_s (1 - R_s)(1 - A_u(1 - R_i))}{\lambda^5} (\epsilon^{C_2/\lambda T} - 1)^{-1} \quad (1)$$
 where  $C_1 = 1.19088 \times 10^{-16} \text{ W}\cdot\text{m}^2$ ,  $C_2 = 1.4388 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}\cdot\text{K}$ ,  $R_s$  is the reflectivity of the shocked material-unshocked material interface,  $R_i$  is the reflectivity of the unshocked material-vacuum interface at the free surface, and  $A_s$  and  $A_u$  are the transmission coefficients for the shocked and unshocked materials, respectively. Although ambient-pressure values of transmittance were used to yield a wavelength-dependent emissivity for shocked olivine, this can only be considered an approximation. Both olivine and magnesiowüstite demonstrate marked reddening with increasing pressure at room temperature [M. K. Mao and P. M. Bell, *Science* **176**, 403 (1972); H. K. Mao, *Carnegie Inst. Washington Yearb.* **72**, 554 (1973)].
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17. D. A. Boness and J. M. Brown [*Phys. Rev. Lett.* **71**, 2931 (1993)] reported shock-temperature and sound-velocity data for KBr and CsBr. They demonstrated that these compounds are superheated and melt at higher pressures. Their behavior is qualitatively similar to that of (Mg<sub>0.9</sub>,Fe<sub>0.1</sub>)<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub> observed here. The data for KBr and CsBr indicate that the temperatures of the melt remain above the solidus. In the case of the Mg<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub> experiments, we favor the hypothesis that the drop in shock temperature at 130  $\pm$  3 GPa also results from melting; one can also examine whether the temperature decrease could possibly result from a solid-solid phase change. A change in the slope of the pressure-density Hugoniot, which is attributed to melting, is observed at  $\sim 140$  GPa (7). Even if the Brown *et al.* and the present interpretations of the shock temperature data are incorrect, an increase in density for a hypothetical solid-solid phase change (rather than melting) cannot be greater than  $\sim 1$  to 2%. If the decrease in shock temperature of  $\Delta T = 2749^\circ\text{C}$  at  $\sim 130$  GPa were instead associated with a solid-solid reaction, an estimate of the enthalpy change would be given by  $\Delta H = C_v \Delta T = 480 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$  for a specific heat of  $C_v = 3R$  ( $R$  is the gas constant, and we assume seven-atom molecules, as in Mg<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub>). This value is considerably greater than the enthalpies associated with melting under equilibrium conditions ( $\sim 115 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ ) or the 97 kJ mol<sup>-1</sup> required for the reaction Mg<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub> (ringwoodite)  $\rightarrow$  MgSiO<sub>3</sub> (Pv) + MgO (Per) at standard temperature and pressure. The lack of a sharp increase in density along the Hugoniot in the Pv and Per regimes taken with the associated drop in sound velocity at  $\sim 140$  GPa supports the inference that MgO (Per) + MgSiO<sub>3</sub> (Pv) is melting from a superheated state and the temperature drop is not easily explained by the onset of polymorphism in olivine.
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