

Petrology, Elasticity, and Composition of the Mantle Transition Zone

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We compare the predictions of compositional models of the mantle transition zone to observed seismic properties by constructing phase diagrams in the MgO-FeO-CaO-Al₂O₃-SiO₂ system and estimating the elasticity of the relevant minerals. Mie-Grüneisen and Birch-Murnaghan finite strain theory are combined with ideal solution theory to extrapolate experimental measurements of thermal and elastic properties to high pressures and temperatures. The resulting thermodynamic potentials are combined with the estimated phase diagrams to predict the density, seismic parameter, and mantle adiabats for a given compositional model. We find that the properties of pyrolite agree well with the observed density and bulk sound velocity of the upper mantle and transition zone. Piclogite significantly underestimates the magnitude of the 400-km velocity discontinuity and overestimates the velocity gradient in the transition zone. Substantially enriching piclogite in Al provides an acceptable fit to the observations. Invoking a chemical boundary layer between the uppermost mantle and transition zone leads to poor agreement with observed seismic properties for the compositions considered. Within the transition zone, the dissolution of garnet to Ca-perovskite near 18 GPa may explain the proposed 520-km seismic discontinuity. Below 700 km depth, all compositions disagree with observed bulk sound velocities, implying that the lower mantle is chemically distinct from the upper mantle.

INTRODUCTION

The transition zone between the upper and lower parts of the Earth's mantle has been recognized through seismic observations for some time, but its composition and the mineralogical changes responsible for its boundaries, the two largest velocity discontinuities in the mantle, are still uncertain. The thermal and chemical evolution of the Earth depends critically on whether the transition zone is bounded by phase changes alone or by changes in phase and composition. While the former is consistent with whole mantle convection, the latter requires convection in at least three layers, which greatly reduces the efficiency of chemical mixing and heat transport. Multiple convective layers imply a slowly evolving Earth, one which has readily preserved large-scale chemical heterogeneities and retained most of its primordial heat.

Some models of the early evolution of the Earth suggest strong chemical fractionation and the formation of multiple compositional layers. These models, which are based on analogy with crustal magma chambers, envision silicate liquids sinking relative to lighter olivine in the shallow mantle but rising relative to denser perovskite in the lower mantle, producing a chemically distinct transition zone [Anderson and Bass, 1986; Ohtani, 1988]. However, detailed analysis of very high Rayleigh number dynamics indicates that convective mixing in a planet scale magma chamber may completely prevent crystal fractionation [Tonks and Melosh, 1990]. Furthermore, extensive crystal fractionation appears inconsistent with the Earth's trace element chemistry [Kato et al. [1988], but see also Walker and Agee [1989]].

Different classes of geophysical observations are most easily explained by either single- or multiple-layer models of

mantle convection, but nearly all data currently available permit several interpretations. The inferred penetration of subducting slabs into, and in some cases through, the transition zone is easily accommodated by whole mantle convection models but cannot rule out substantial chemical stratification imposed by semipermeable (leaky) transition zone boundary layers [Isacks and Molnar, 1971; Jarrard, 1986; Creager and Jordan, 1984, 1986; Silver and Chan, 1986]. Some slabs are apparently prevented from reaching the lower mantle and are significantly deformed by its upper boundary, suggesting a substantial change in material properties at 660 km depth and a stratified mantle [Giardini and Woodhouse, 1984; Zhou and Clayton, 1990]. A tenfold to 30-fold increase in viscosity at 660 km depth, which does not require multiple-layer convection or compositional layering, may also explain slab deformation and is independently inferred from geoid observations [Vassiliou et al., 1984; Hager and Richards, 1989]. At the same time, the absence of slab deformation at 400 km is not inconsistent with compositional change at that boundary provided the attendant changes in density and viscosity are not large enough to significantly impede the slab's descent. Many geochemical observations are most easily explained by the survival of two or more physically distinct reservoirs, such as multiple convective layers [DePaolo, 1983; Allègre and Turcotte, 1985; Zindler and Hart, 1986; Silver et al., 1988]. However, inefficient mixing in the present mantle may allow the long-term survival of chemical heterogeneity on many length scales even in single-layer convection [Davies, 1984; Gurnis and Davies, 1986].

Comparison of seismic observations of the Earth's interior with known material properties is the most direct way of determining the transition zone's composition. The region's extreme petrologic complexity, however, has severely hindered past efforts. It was first recognized by Birch [1952] that the anomalously high seismic velocity gradients in the transition zone were most easily explained by a series of pressure-induced phase transformations, rather than the effect of pressure on a single phase. The rapid development

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TABLE 1. Chemical Composition

	Pyrolite, mol %	Piclogite, mol %
SiO ₂	38.29	41.94
MgO	49.33	42.32
FeO	6.27	5.29
CaO	3.27	8.67
Al ₂ O ₃	2.22	1.78
Na ₂ O	0.33	...
Cr ₂ O ₃	0.15	...
Ti ₂ O	0.14	...
100 × MgO/MgO + FeO (Mg, Fe) ₂ SiO ₄ %	88.72	88.88
Si # ^a	62	40
	3.23	3.46

^a Si # is number of Si atoms per every 12 O atoms.

of experimental high-pressure metamorphic petrology in the last few years has revealed that as many as 25 different mineral species may be present in the transition zone. Partly because the elastic properties and phase stability of many important minerals have been measured only recently, previous studies, which were forced to rely on estimates of these quantities, came to very different conclusions [Bina and Wood, 1987; Weidner and Ito, 1987; Irifune, 1987; Duffy and Anderson, 1989].

We analyze two competing models of transition zone composition, pyrolite and piclogite, by combining a consistent thermodynamic formulation with recent measurements of mineral elasticity and phase equilibria. The two compositional models, originally proposed in the context of one- and three-layer models of mantle convection, respectively, have very different consequences for the state of the Earth's interior. The development of these two models is discussed by Ringwood [1975], Anderson and Bass [1984], Irifune and Ringwood [1987a], and Duffy and Anderson [1989].

We define the compositional models below and synthesize experimental petrologic data by constructing summary phase diagrams for each composition. We then describe the semiempirical thermodynamic potential formalism which allows self-consistent determination of density, bulk modulus, and adiabats throughout the pressure-temperature regime of the Earth's mantle. By focusing on comparisons with the density and bulk sound velocity of the mantle, we are able to base our conclusions only on measured mineral properties. We estimate the bounds which seismic observations place on transition zone composition and discuss their geophysical implications.

COMPOSITION AND PHASE EQUILIBRIA

Table 1 lists the compositions of pyrolite [Irifune, 1987] and piclogite [Duffy and Anderson, 1989] used here. To fully exploit experimental results on simple pseudobinary systems, we assume that these bulk compositions can be separated into two subsystems, olivine and the remainder (residuum, Table 2) which do not affect each other's phase equilibria (see also Jeanloz and Thompson [1983] and Irifune [1987]). This is consistent with the results of Akaogi and Akimoto [1979] which show no change in the relative proportions of these two subsystems to at least 20 GPa.

We base the form of the (Mg,Fe)₂SiO₄ phase diagram on the experiments of Ito and Takahashi [1989] and Katsura

and Ito [1989] (Figure 1). These data along with the thermochemical calculations of Akaogi *et al.* [1989], Wood [1990], and Fei *et al.* [1991] provide tight constraints on the relevant phase boundaries (precision of ±0.5 GPa) throughout the pressure-temperature range considered here. We use the same phase diagram for both pyrolite and piclogite since they have nearly identical magnesium to iron ratios.

Phase diagrams in the residuum component (Figure 2) are primarily constrained by measurements on the Mg, Fe, and (Ca,Mg) pyroxene-garnet joins up to 20 GPa reviewed by Akaogi *et al.* [1987] and the enstatite-pyroxene join from 24 to 27 GPa [Kanzaki, 1987; Irifune and Ringwood, 1987a] and direct observation of pyrolite residuum at 1200°C throughout the pressure range considered here [Irifune and Ringwood, 1987b]. These data encompass the major element chemistries of pyrolite and piclogite (Table 2).

The coexistence field of pyroxene and garnet is perturbed slightly from its location on the enstatite-pyroxene join by the competing effects of Ca and Fe substitution. Because both pyrolite and piclogite residua have more Ca than Fe, we have raised the pyroxene + garnet to garnet boundary above that in the magnesium end-member by 1 GPa, based on linear interpolation of the results of Akaogi *et al.* [1987]. Compared with pyrolite, the lower Al content of piclogite raises the boundary slightly and reduces its temperature dependence [Akaogi *et al.*, 1987]. Our estimated boundaries are consistent with the whole rock experiments of Irifune [1987], Irifune and Ringwood [1987b], and Takahashi and Ito [1987].

We assume that the formation of Ca-perovskite is not strongly dependent on bulk composition and base the garnet to garnet + Ca-perovskite transition on observed transitions in diopside and hedenbergite. Ca-perovskite first forms at 17 GPa in diopside [Irifune *et al.*, 1989; Tamai and Yagi, 1989] and at somewhat higher pressures in more Fe rich compositions [Kim *et al.*, 1989]. Assuming that Fe has a linear effect on the appearance of Ca-perovskite, we place the garnet to garnet + Ca-perovskite transition at 18 GPa. This estimate is consistent with observations of pyrolite residuum by Ito and Takahashi [1987a] and Irifune [1987] and of complete pyrolite by Takahashi and Ito [1987]. These experiments indicate that the boundary is insensitive to temperature.

Above 18 GPa, our estimated phase boundaries are identical to those in the enstatite-pyroxene system as determined by Kanzaki [1987] and Irifune and Ringwood [1987a]. This is supported by the observed garnet + Ca-perovskite to garnet + (Mg,Fe)-perovskite + Ca-perovskite boundary in pyrolite residuum [Ito and Takahashi, 1987a; Irifune and Ringwood, 1987b] which agrees with the garnet to garnet +

TABLE 2. Residuum Composition

	Pyrolite, mol %	Piclogite, mol %
SiO ₂	48.60	48.39
MgO	29.93	29.64
FeO	3.82	3.71
CaO	9.45	15.17
Al ₂ O ₃	6.40	3.11
Na ₂ O	0.95	...
Cr ₂ O ₃	0.44	...
Ti ₂ O	0.42	...
Si #	3.58	3.76

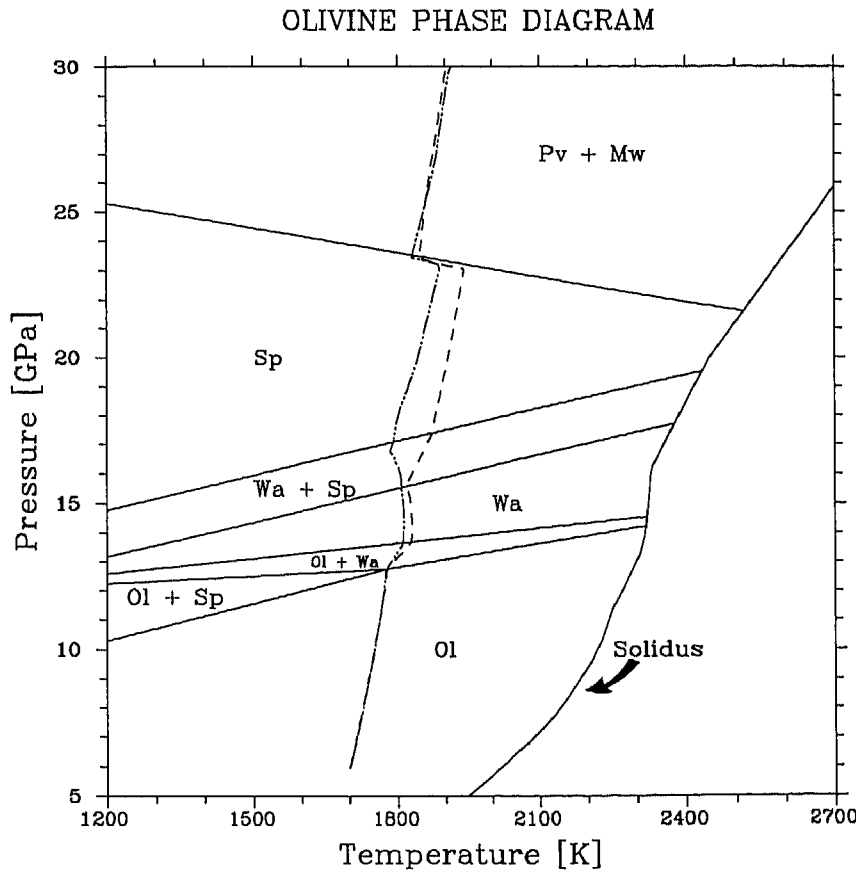


Fig. 1. $(\text{Mg,Fe})_2\text{SiO}_4$ phase diagram. The mantle solidus is from Ito and Takahashi [1987b] and Gasparik [1990]. The 1700°K adiabats of pyrolite (dashed line) and piclogite (dot-dashed line) are superimposed (see text and Figure 3).

(Mg,Fe)-perovskite boundary on the enstatite-pyroxene join [Irifune and Ringwood, 1987a]. The inferred formation of ilmenite from pyrolite residuum [Irifune and Ringwood, 1987b] also agrees with our estimated phase boundaries. Compared with pyrolite, the lower Al content of piclogite extends the stability of ilmenite to slightly higher temperatures. The assumed lower mantle assemblage is in excellent agreement with very high pressure (25–84 GPa) determinations of peridotite phase equilibria [O'Neill and Jeanloz, 1990].

On the basis of the results of Akaogi and Akimoto [1977], olivine and residuum systems are assigned identical bulk Fe contents. Volume fractions and Fe contents of coexisting phases in the olivine system are determined by the phase diagrams of Katsura and Ito [1989] and Ito and Takahashi [1989] and the pressure- and temperature-independent Mg-Fe partition coefficient between magnesiowüstite and perovskite from Fei et al. [1991].

In the residuum component, volume fractions and Al contents of coexisting pyroxene and garnet are taken from the phase diagrams of Akaogi et al. [1987], which are consistent with the results of Irifune and Ringwood [1987a, b]. We ignore the effects of Al on the properties of enstatite since only minor amounts (less than 1%) are soluble at the pressures of interest here. Pressure- and temperature-independent Mg-Fe partition coefficients between pyroxene and garnet are taken from Akaogi and Akimoto [1979]. The results of Irifune [1987] and Irifune and Ringwood [1987a, b] on pyrolite and harzburgite compositions determine the

amount of Ca-perovskite. Volume fractions and Al contents of coexisting garnet and perovskite are determined by the phase diagram of Irifune and Ringwood [1987a]. In the absence of data, we have assumed an Mg-Fe partition coefficient of unity between garnet and (Mg,Fe)-perovskite.

THERMODYNAMICS AND ELASTICITY

Calculations of mineral elasticity and mantle adiabats are self-consistently based on a semiempirical thermodynamic potential formalism. The Gibbs free energy G of a phase consisting of a solid solution of N species as a function of pressure P and temperature T is [e.g., Guggenheim, 1952]

$$G(P, T) = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i [G_i(P, T) + RT \ln a_i] \quad (1)$$

where

$$G_i(P, T) = F_i(V, T) + PV_i \quad (2)$$

is the Gibbs free energy of a single species (end-member), a_i , F_i , and V_i are its activity, Helmholtz free energy, and molar volume, respectively, and R is the gas constant. We assume that the quantity $RT \ln f_i$, where the activity coefficient (f_i is defined by $a_i = f_i x_i$) is independent of pressure and temperature (see also, for example, Wood [1990]). This is equivalent to the assumption of ideal behavior for all of the thermodynamic properties of interest here (first- and higher-

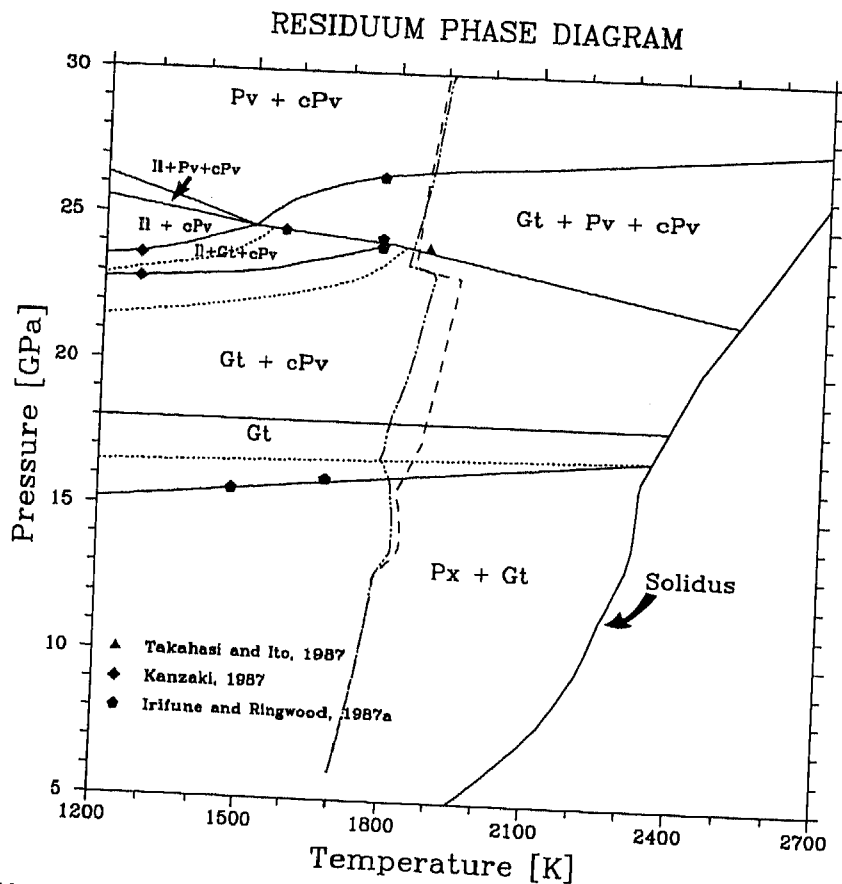


Fig. 2. Residuum phase diagram. Symbols present experimental observations of phase boundaries. Solid lines represent phase boundaries in pyrolite. Where piclogite differs from pyrolite, its phase boundaries are represented by dotted lines. Mantle solidus is the same as in Figure 1. The 1700°K adiabats of pyrolite (dashed line) and piclogite (dot-dashed line) are superimposed (see text and Figure 3). Px = Opx + Cpx; Gt = Py + Gr + Maj + Ca-Maj.

order pressure and temperature derivatives of G). Deviations from ideality are well documented in silicates [e.g., Saxena, 1973], but the effects on properties deduced from seismic observations are small compared with other uncertainties in mineralogical and seismic data. The deviation of molar volumes from ideal behavior at zero pressure (as much as 0.2%) is similar to the precision of high-pressure volume determinations and substantially smaller than the uncertainties in observed mantle densities (see the review of Jeanloz and Thompson [1983] and the more recent work of Hazen *et al.* [1990] and Mao *et al.* [1991] on Mg-Fe solutions, Ohashi and Finger [1976] and Ohashi *et al.* [1975] on the effect of Ca and the discussion of the molar volumes of garnet-majorite solutions below). Available data on the bulk modulus of intermediate compositions considered here are consistent with ideal behavior [Jeanloz and Thompson, 1983; Richet *et al.*, 1989; O'Neill *et al.*, 1989; Hazen *et al.*, 1990]. Excess entropies of mixing are much smaller than the ideal mixing term in Mg-Fe solutions [e.g., Wood and Kleppa, 1981] but can be of comparable magnitude if the radii of cations occupying the mixing site differ substantially (Ca-Mg solutions) [Haselton and Newton, 1980]. Mixing entropies are smaller than entropy changes associated with phase transitions and contribute less than 1.2% to the total entropy. In general, variations in the entropy of mixing have a small effect on the properties considered here since their only influence is through slight changes in adiabatic temperatures.

We assume that the Helmholtz free energy of species i , F_i , can be divided into a reference part, a cold part, and a thermal part (subscript i on all material properties understood):

$$F(V, T) = F_0 + F_C(V, T_0) + [F_{TH}(V, T) - F_{TH}(V, T_0)] \quad (3)$$

where

$$F_C(V, T_0) = 9K_0V_0(f^2/2 + a_1f^3/3 + a_2f^4/4 + \dots) \quad (4a)$$

$$f = (1/2)[(V_0/V)^{2/3} - 1] \quad (4b)$$

$$a_1 = (3/2)(K'_0 - 4), \quad (4c)$$

$$a_2 = (3/2)[K_0K''_0 + K'_0(K'_0 - 7) + 143/9] \quad (4d)$$

and

$$F_{TH} = 9nRT(T/\theta)^3 \int_0^{\theta/T} \ln(1 - e^{-t})t^2 dt + A_2T^2 \quad (5)$$

where K_0 , K'_0 , and K''_0 are the isothermal bulk modulus and its first and second pressure derivatives, θ is the Debye temperature and the subscript zero indicates reference values at zero pressure and room temperature. Because strains in the transition zone are small ($f < 0.05$), we neglect fourth- and higher-order terms in (4a). Anharmonic terms

are expected to be small at the pressures and temperatures of interest here and are neglected ($A_2 = 0$) [Hardy, 1980; Stixrude and Bukowinski, 1990]. The Grüneisen parameter, $\gamma = -\partial \ln \theta / \partial \ln V$, is assumed to have the form

$$\gamma = \gamma_0(V/V_0)^q \quad (6)$$

where we assume $q = 1 \pm 1$.

The thermodynamic potential of species i (equations (3)–(6)), most often seen in the form of the Mie-Grüneisen equation of state (subscript i on all material properties understood):

$$P = -(\partial F / \partial V)_T = 3K_0 f(1 + 2f)^{5/2}(1 + a_1 f) + (\gamma/V)[E_{\text{TH}}(V, T) - E_{\text{TH}}(V, T_0)] \quad (7)$$

where

$$E_{\text{TH}} = 9nRT(T/\theta)^3 \int_0^{\theta/T} t^3/(e^t - 1) dt \quad (8)$$

has proved successful in reproducing a large body of thermodynamic data including equations of state, heat capacities, unary phase equilibria, and melting [Shapiro and Knopoff, 1969; Knopoff and Shapiro, 1969; McQueen et al., 1970; Jeanloz, 1989; Stixrude and Bukowinski, 1990]. The entropy, isothermal bulk modulus, heat capacity at constant volume, and thermal expansivity of species i are given directly by (3) (subscript i on all material properties understood):

$$S = -(\partial F / \partial T)_V = 9nR(T/\theta)^3 \int_0^{\theta/T} [t/(e^t - 1) - \ln(1 - e^{-t})] t^2 dt \quad (9)$$

$$K = V(\partial^2 F / \partial V^2) = K_0(1 + 2f)^{5/2}[1 + (7 + 2a_1)f + 9a_1 f^2] + (\gamma/V)[\gamma + 1 - q][E_{\text{TH}}(V, T) - E_{\text{TH}}(V, T_0)] - (\gamma^2/V)[TC_V(V, T) - T_0 C_V(V, T_0)] \quad (10)$$

$$C_V = -T(\partial^2 F / \partial T^2)_V = 9nR(T/\theta)^3 \int_0^{\theta/T} e^{-t} t^4 dt / (e^t - 1)^2 \quad (11)$$

$$\alpha = -(\partial^2 F / \partial V \partial T) / K = \gamma C_V / KV. \quad (12)$$

The molar volume, isothermal bulk modulus, thermal expansivity, heat capacity, entropy, and adiabatic bulk modulus of a mineral solid solution at a given pressure and temperature are given directly by (1) and the assumption, discussed above, that $RT \ln f_i$ is constant. Using the expressions for the corresponding properties of the individual species i (equations (6)–(12)), we have

$$V = (\partial G / \partial P)_T = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i V_i \quad (13)$$

$$K = -V / [(\partial^2 G / \partial P^2)_T] = V / \left(\sum_{i=1}^N x_i V_i / K_i \right) \quad (14)$$

$$\alpha = (\partial^2 G / \partial P \partial T) / V = \left(\sum_{i=1}^N x_i V_i \alpha_i \right) / V \quad (15)$$

$$C_V = -T \sum_{i=1}^N (\partial^2 F / \partial T^2)_V = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i C_{Vi} \quad (16)$$

$$S = -(\partial G / \partial T)_P = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i S_i - R \sum_{i=1}^N x_i \ln x_i \quad (17)$$

$$K_s = K(1 + KTV\alpha^2/C_V). \quad (18)$$

Mineral properties are combined to calculate the density, entropy, and bulk sound velocity, $V_\phi = (K_s/\rho)^{1/2}$, of mantle compositions. We use the Voight-Reuss-Hill method [Watt et al., 1976] to determine the bulk modulus of the polyphase aggregate, resulting in tight bounds on bulk sound velocities ($\pm 0.35\%$ on average). Potential systematic errors in the calculation of mantle velocities arise from the assumptions of isotropy and homogeneity in this, as well as other, more restrictive bounding schemes (e.g., Hashin and Shtrikman [1963]; see Watt et al. [1976] and Salerno and Watt [1986]). Tomographic results show strong seismic anisotropy in the mantle above 200 km depth which decreases rapidly with depth and is unresolvable below 400 km [Montagner and Tanimoto, 1991]. The observed decrease of scattering attenuation with increasing earthquake depth indicates that the mantle heterogeneities on scale lengths typical of short period seismic waves (1–10 km) decreases with depth and is small below 200 km [Korn, 1988].

The thermodynamic potential (1) is expressed in terms of its natural variables and thus contains all thermodynamic information about the model system; it is a fundamental thermodynamic relation in the terminology of Callen [1985]. All thermodynamic properties are given by pressure and temperature derivatives of (1). The potential formulation has important advantages over partial descriptions such as the equation of state (P-V-T relation) which contains no information about entropy. In addition to complete self-consistency between calculated densities, bulk sound velocities, and mantle adiabats, the thermodynamic potentials used here generally require a small number of parameters since they are physically based (Eulerian finite strain theory and the Debye model of the vibrational density of states). This allows us to constrain each parameter independently by a large number of experimental measurements. In contrast, perturbative schemes, either simple polynomials in pressure and temperature or more complex forms [Plymate and Stout, 1989, and references therein; Akaogi et al., 1989; Duffy and Anderson, 1989; Fei et al., 1991] generally require an additional, often poorly constrained parameter for each higher-order derivative property such as the temperature dependence of K or the pressure dependence of α . The temperature derivative of the bulk modulus, for instance, which is unmeasured for nearly all mantle minerals, does not appear explicitly in our formulation but is determined by θ_0 and γ_0 , which are constrained by heat capacity and thermal expansivity data.

The thermodynamic potential parameters for transition zone species are given in Table 3. The molar volumes of

TABLE 3. Parameters of the Thermodynamic Potential

Name	Formula	Abbreviation	V^{\ddagger} , cm ³ /mol		K_0 , GPa		K_0'		θ_0 , °K		Value	Reference	Value	Reference	Value	Reference
			Value	Reference	Value	Reference	Value	Reference	Value	Reference						
Forsterite	Mg ₂ SiO ₄	Ol	43.76		128	1 and 2	5.0	1 and 3	924	4 and 5	1.14		924	4 and 5	1.14	4 and 5
Fayalite	Fe ₂ SiO ₄	Wa	46.27		127	6	5.2	6 and 7	688	8 and 9	1.08		688	8 and 9	1.08	8 and 9
Wadsleyite	Mg ₂ SiO ₄		40.52		174	10	(4.8)	11 (12)	974	5 and 13	1.32		974	5 and 13	1.32	5 and 13
Spinel	Fe ₂ SiO ₄	Sp	43.22		174 ^b	14	4.0 ^b (4.8) ^b	14	771 ^c							
	Mg ₂ SiO ₄		39.65		183	15	4.1 (5.0) ^b	16 (17)								
Enstatite	FeSiO ₃	Opx	42.02		192	19	4.1 (5.0) ^b	20	1017	5 and 18	1.21		1017	5 and 18	1.21	5 and 18
Ferrosilite	MgSiO ₃		31.33		106	21	5.0	22 and 23	805	9 and 18	1.52		805	9 and 18	1.52	9 and 18
Diopside	CaMgSi ₂ O ₆	Ca-Cpx	32.96		101	26	5.0 ^b		935	24 and 25	0.97		935	24 and 25	0.97	24 and 25
Hedenbergite	CaFeSi ₂ O ₆		66.11	28	114	29	4.5	30	676	9 and 27	0.98		676	9 and 27	0.98	9 and 27
Pyrope	Mg ₃ Al ₂ Si ₃ O ₁₂	Py	67.84	31	120	32	4.5 ^b	30	941	25 and 28	1.06		941	25 and 28	1.06	25 and 28
Almandine	Fe ₃ Al ₂ Si ₃ O ₁₂		113.19		173	33	3.8	34	845 ^d	21 and 32	0.95		845 ^d	21 and 32	0.95	21 and 32
Grossular	Ca ₃ Al ₂ Si ₃ O ₁₂	Gr	115.23		177	37	4.0 ^e	34	981	35 and 36	1.24		981	35 and 36	1.24	35 and 36
Majorite	Mg ₂ Si ₄ O ₁₂	Maj	125.30	38	168	37	4.5	39	909 ^f	37	1.06		909 ^f	37	1.06	37
Ca-majorite	Fe ₄ Si ₄ O ₁₂		114.15 ^g		151 (173)	41 (42)	4.0 ^e (4.9)	(22)	904	40	1.05		904	40	1.05	40
Perovskite	MgSiO ₃	Ca-Maj	117.70 ^g		146 ⁱ (168) ⁱ		4.0 ^e (4.9)	(22)	949 ^f	37 and 41	1.24 ^h		949 ^f	37 and 41	1.24 ^h	37 and 41
	FeSiO ₃	Pv	127.57 ^g		135 ⁱ (155) ⁱ		4.0 ^e (4.9)	(22)	820 ^{h,i}	37	1.24 ^h		820 ^{h,i}	37	1.24 ^h	37
	FeSiO ₃		24.46		262.6	43	3.9	43	850 ^{h,i}	37	1.24 ^h		850 ^{h,i}	37	1.24 ^h	37
Al-perovskite	Mg _{3/4} Al _{1/2} Si _{3/4} O ₃	Al-Pv	25.49		262.6 ^b	46	3.9 ^b	46	1017	44 and 45	1.96		1017	44 and 45	1.96	44 and 45
	Fe _{3/4} Al _{1/2} Si _{3/4} O ₃		24.84	48	258.6 ⁱ		3.9 ^b	46	749 ^{b,k}	47	1.96 ^b		749 ^{b,k}	47	1.96 ^b	47
Ca-perovskite	CaSiO ₃	Ca-Pv	25.87	48	248.3 ⁱ		3.9 ^b	49	1010 ^{k,m}	47	1.96 ^b		1010 ^{k,m}	47	1.96 ^b	47
Periclase	MgO	Mw	27.27	49	301.4	49	3.8	49	833 ^{k,m}	47	1.96 ^b		833 ^{k,m}	47	1.96 ^b	47
Wustite	FeO		11.25		160.4	50	4.13	50	917 ^{k,m}	47	1.96 ^b		917 ^{k,m}	47	1.96 ^b	47
			12.25		152.3	51	4.92	51	777	4 and 40	1.47		777	4 and 40	1.47	4 and 40
									434 ⁿ	50 and 51	1.48		434 ⁿ	50 and 51	1.48	50 and 51

References: 1, *Graham and Barsch* [1969]; 2, *Isaak et al.* [1989]; 3, *Olinger* [1977]; 4, *Suzuki* [1975a]; 5, *Ashida et al.* [1987]; 6, *Graham et al.* [1988]; 7, *Williams et al.* [1990]; 8, *Suzuki et al.* [1981]; 9, *Watanabe* [1982]; 10, *Sawamoto et al.* [1984]; 11, *Fei et al.* [1992]; 12, *Gwanmesia et al.* [1990]; 13, *Suzuki et al.* [1980]; 14, *Hazen et al.* [1990]; 15, *Weinert et al.* [1984]; 16, *Sawamoto et al.* [1975b]; 17, *Rigden et al.* [1991]; 18, *Suzuki* [1979]; 19, *Liebermann* [1975]; 20, *Bass et al.* [1981]; 21, *Weidner et al.* [1978]; 22, *Duffy and Anderson* [1989]; 23, *Watt and Ahrens* [1986]; 24, *Suzuki et al.* [1973]; 25, *Krupka et al.* [1985]; 26, *Bass and Weidner* [1984]; 27, *Sueno et al.* [1976]; 28, *Finger and Ohashi* [1976]; 29, *Levien et al.* [1979]; 30, *Levien and Prewitt* [1981]; 31, *Cameron et al.* [1976]; 32, *Kandelin and Weidner* [1988]; 33, *O'Neill et al.* [1989]; 34, *Leger et al.* [1990]; 35, *Suzuki and Anderson* [1983]; 36, *Robie et al.* [1976]; 37, *Bass* [1989]; 38, *Skinner* [1956]; 39, *Weaver et al.* [1991]; 40, *Krupka et al.* [1979]; 41, *Bass and Kanzaki* [1990]; 42, *Yeganeh-Haeri et al.* [1990]; 43, *Knittle and Jeanloz* [1987]; 44, *Knittle et al.* [1986]; 45, *Ito and Takahashi* [1989]; 46, *Mao et al.* [1991]; 47, *Yeganeh-Haeri et al.* [1989]; 48, *Weng et al.* [1982]; 49, *Mao et al.* [1989]; 50, *Jackson and Niester* [1982]; 51, *Jackson* [1990]; 52, *Touloukian et al.* [1977].

^aUnless otherwise noted, volumes are from *Jeanloz and Thompson* [1983].

^bAssumed to be the same as the Mg end-member.

^cDependence on Mg/Fe ratio assumed the same as for spinel.

^dCalculated from equation (20) and the properties of diopside.

^eAssumed similar to pyrope.

^fCalculated from equation (20) and the properties of pyrope.

^gThis work; see text.

^hAssumed to be the same as pyrope.

ⁱBulk and shear moduli calculated from equation (19) and the properties of Mg-majorite.

^jEffect of Fe on shear modulus assumed the same as for enstatite.

^kCalculated from equation (20) and the properties of Mg-perovskite.

^lCalculated from equation (19) and the properties of Mg-perovskite.

^mShear modulus calculated from equation (19) and the properties of Mg-perovskite.

ⁿElastic value.

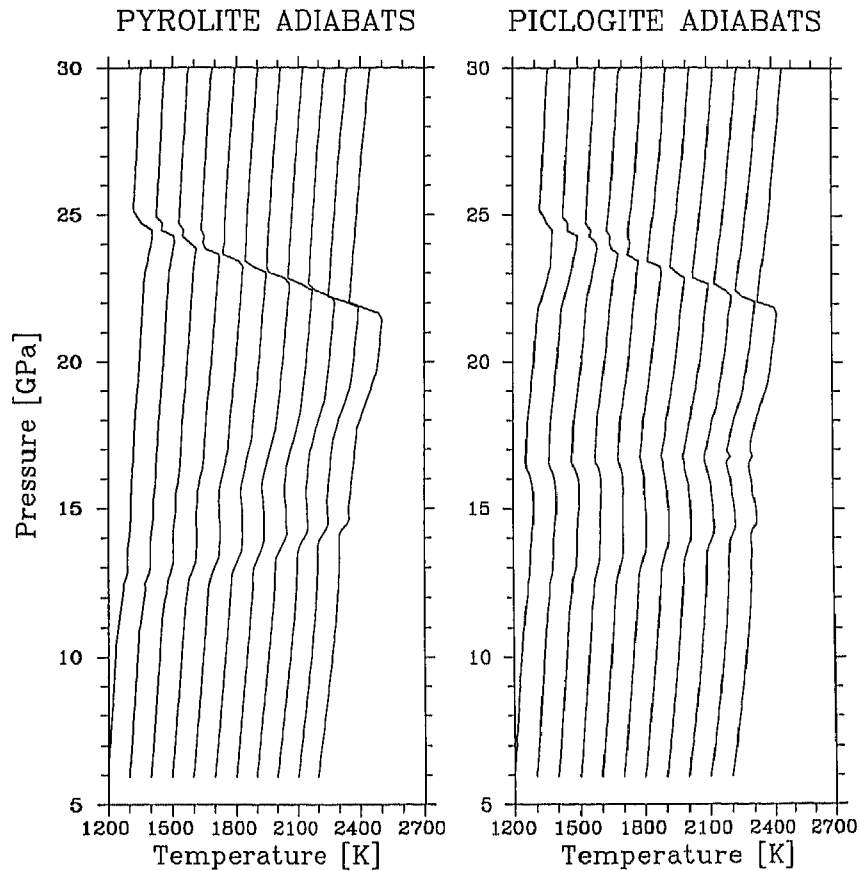


Fig. 3. Isentropes of pyrolite and piclogite compositions.

most minerals are directly measured by X ray diffraction, while those of fictive Fe end-members (Fe-wadsleyite and Fe-perovskite) are determined by measurements along the Mg-Fe join. Using the known volumes of pyrope, almandine, and grossular, we simultaneously inverted diffraction data on a suite of garnets for the molar volumes of Mg, Fe, and Ca majorites. The 30 garnet solid solutions span the range of compositions considered here [Akaogi and Akimoto, 1977; Jeanloz, 1981; Irifune *et al.*, 1986; Irifune, 1987; Irifune and Ringwood, 1987a]. Derived end-member majorite values are constrained to within 0.1% (68% confidence level) and agree well with previous determinations of Mg and Fe majorite volumes [Jeanloz, 1981]. Garnet volumes are explained to within 0.2% by this ideal solution model.

Following the approach of Bass *et al.* [1981], we adopt the directly measured value of K_0 , where ultrasonic or Brillouin determinations exist, and determine K'_0 by inverting compression data. We prefer this approach to determinations of K'_0 based on relatively low-pressure ultrasonic measurements of K [e.g., Gwanmesia *et al.*, 1990], since it is based on direct measurement of an observable mantle property (density) at mantle pressure conditions. When experimental constraints are unavailable, we estimate the bulk and shear moduli using velocity-density systematics:

$$M_0 V_0 = M_{0R} V_{0R} \quad (19)$$

where M_0 is the unknown modulus of a mineral, V_0 is its molar volume, and M_{0R} and V_{0R} are the corresponding known properties of a reference mineral (see also, for

example, Duffy and Anderson [1989]). The K_0 and K'_0 of majorites are treated as variable within the range of current estimates and are adjusted to provide the best fit with observed seismic properties. The effect of uncertainties in the thermodynamic parameters is discussed in detail below.

For most minerals, values of θ_0 and γ_0 are constrained by heat capacity and thermal expansivity data as described by Stixrude and Bukowinski [1990]. When heat capacity data are not available, we estimate θ_0 by

$$\theta_0/\theta_0^e = \theta_{0R}/\theta_{0R}^e \quad (20)$$

where θ_0 is the unknown thermal Debye temperature of a mineral, θ_0^e is its known elastic Debye temperature, and θ_{0R} and θ_{0R}^e are the corresponding known properties of a reference mineral (see also Watanabe [1982]).

RESULTS

Isentropes of pyrolite and piclogite determined from the same thermodynamic potentials used in the mineral elasticity calculations are shown in Figure 3. These isentropes closely approximate geotherms since, for mantle conditions, the effects of viscous dissipation are only significant in narrow boundary layers [Machetel and Yuen, 1989]. The calculated geotherms are deflected by the heat of reaction during phase transitions [Verhoogen, 1965; Jeanloz and Thompson, 1983]. The exothermic nature of phase transitions below 21 GPa causes positive temperature jumps and high gradients in this region compared with the adiabatic

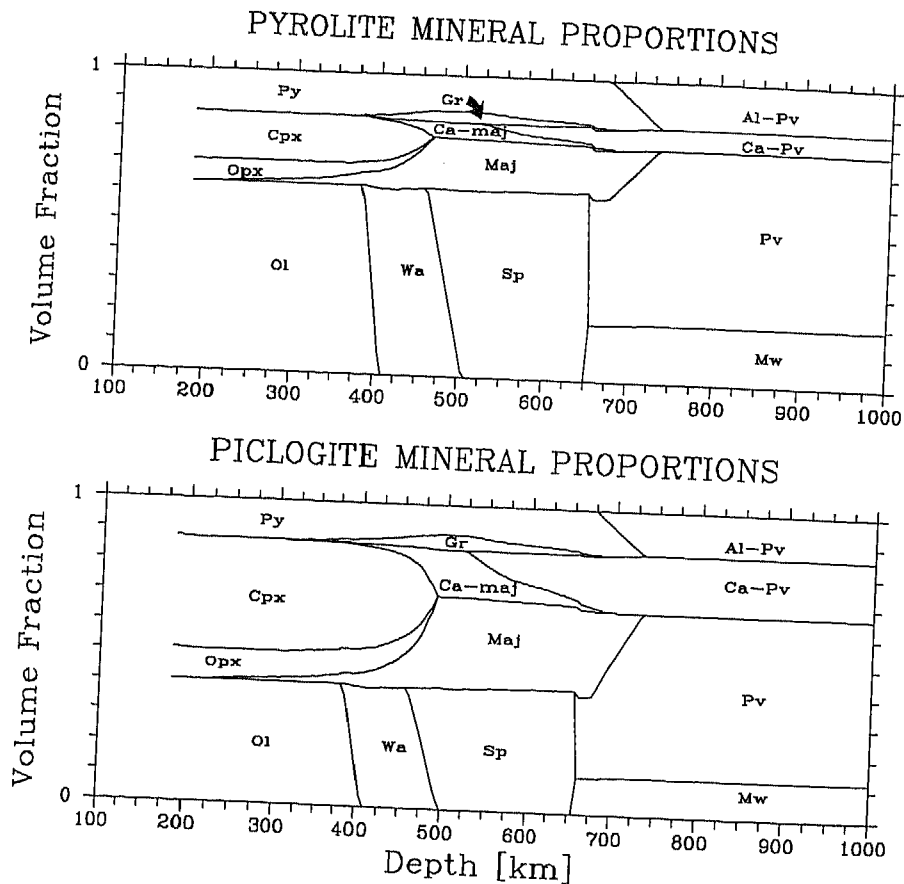


Fig. 4. Volume percentage of the minerals present in piclogite and pyrolite as a function of depth.

compression of individual phases. The transformation of garnet and spinel into perovskite + magnesiowüstite is a strongly endothermic reaction and causes the substantial negative jump seen between pressures of 21 and 25 GPa. Higher pressures induce no further transitions and temperature changes slowly with pressure.

On the basis of our summary phase diagrams (Figures 1 and 2), we estimate relative mineral fractions along a representative mantle adiabat (Figure 4, initial temperature at 185 km depth of 1700°K [Jeanloz and Morris, 1986]). Abundances of individual garnet components illustrate their relative effects on the garnet solid solution. The larger bulk Si # (Si # is number of Si atoms per every 12 O atoms) in piclogite is reflected in a reduced olivine content compared with pyrolite. The larger residuum Si # in piclogite causes a larger pyroxene to garnet ratio at low pressures and a larger ratio of majorite to Al-rich garnet components at higher pressures.

Figure 5 compares density profiles of the total assemblage for piclogite and pyrolite with the mean and standard deviation of 14 published Earth models [Derr, 1969; Haddon and Bullen, 1969; Mizutani and Abe, 1971; Wang, 1972; Jordan and Anderson, 1974; Gilbert and Dziewonski, 1975; Kind and Muller, 1975; Hart et al., 1976; Nakada and Hashizume, 1983; Lerner-Lam and Jordan, 1987; Montagner and Anderson, 1989; Dost, 1990]. Pyrolite agrees very well with the measured profile throughout the entire upper mantle and the upper part of the lower mantle. Piclogite, on the other hand, matches the observed density in the uppermost mantle, the lower part of the transition zone, and the upper part of the

lower mantle but departs significantly from observations between 400 and 500 km depth.

Acoustic velocity profiles of the individual minerals present in the two assemblages and their composite value are shown in Figures 6 and 7. Also shown are the mean and standard error of V_ϕ in the upper mantle based on 34 P wave velocity (V_P) profiles and 32 S wave velocity (V_S) profiles generated from high-resolution travel time studies or waveform modeling studies of body waves or surface waves [Chinnery and Toksoz, 1967; Herrin, 1968; Fairborn, 1969; Randall, 1971; Buchbinder, 1971; Wright and Cleary, 1972; Gilbert and Dziewonski, 1975; Hart, 1975; Kind and Muller, 1975; Dey-Sarkar and Wiggins, 1976; Hart et al., 1976; King and Calcagnile, 1976; Fukao, 1977; Burdick and Helmberger, 1978; Sengupta and Julian, 1978; McMechan, 1979, 1981; Uhrhammer, 1979; Given and Helmberger, 1980; Hales et al., 1980; Burdick, 1981; Dziewonski and Anderson, 1981; Vinnik and Ryaboy, 1981; Fukao et al., 1982; Nakada and Hashizume, 1983; Grand and Helmberger, 1984a, b; Walck, 1984, 1985; Lyon-Caen, 1986; Lerner-Lam and Jordan, 1987; Paulssen, 1987; Grad, 1988; Graves and Helmberger, 1988; Montagner and Anderson, 1989; Lefevre and Helmberger, 1989; Bowman and Kennett, 1990; Dost, 1990; Kennett and Engdahl, 1991]. These properties were derived using the mean and standard deviation of V_P and V_S in standard statistical formulae [see Bevington, 1969] and through a Monte Carlo method of generating a distribution of V_ϕ utilizing all possible combinations of the V_P and V_S profiles. The results of each approach were nearly identical,

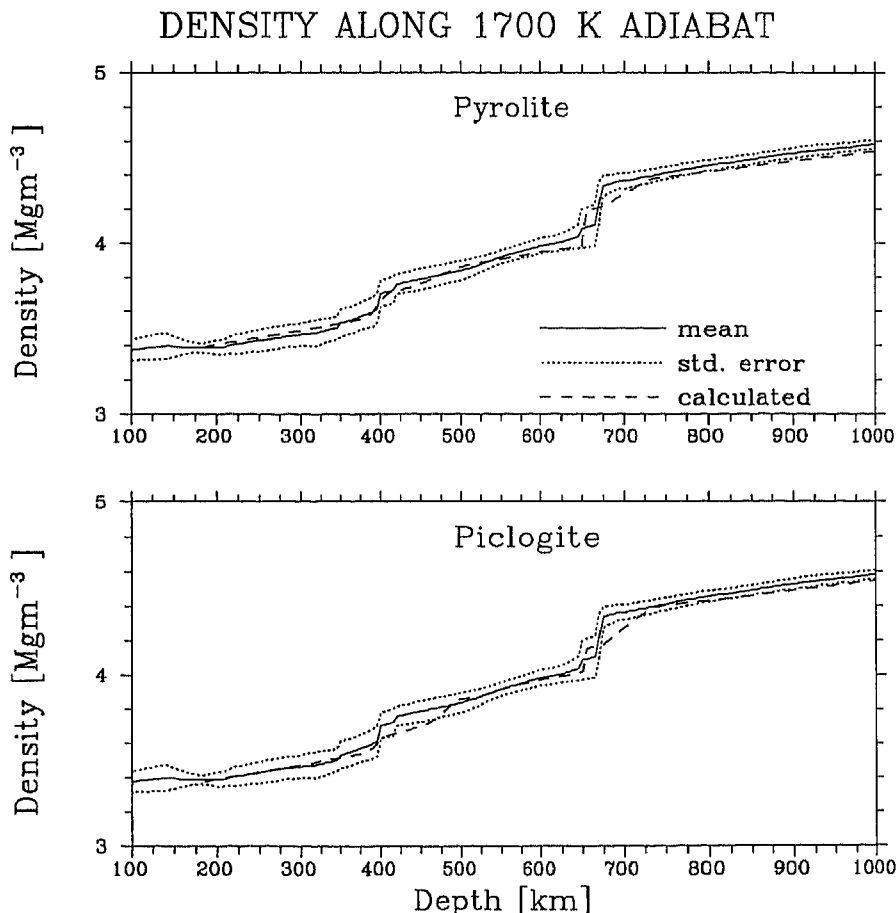


Fig. 5. Bulk density of pyrolite and piclogite as a function of depth. The mean and standard deviation of densities inferred from seismic observations are represented by the solid and dotted lines, respectively.

indicating that the statistical properties of V_{ϕ} reported here are robust.

In the uppermost mantle, both assemblages are equally consistent with the mean velocity profile. Near the 400-km discontinuity, the characters of piclogite and pyrolite differ significantly. The pyrolite model predicts a strong jump in velocity occurring in a relatively narrow depth range followed by a smooth increase in velocity within the transition zone. Piclogite predicts a jump that is only two-thirds of the expected value. The velocity remains consistently low for the next 50 km and then rises to the expected value within a 30-km-depth range. A rise in velocity occurs near the proposed 520-km seismic discontinuity [Shearer, 1990] in both assemblages, though it is more pronounced in piclogite. In the upper part of the lower mantle, the velocities predicted by piclogite and pyrolite are consistently higher than those deduced from seismic observations.

DISCUSSION

Both compositions readily account for the anomalously high velocity and density gradients observed in the transition zone. The combination of the pyroxene to garnet transition in the shallow parts of the transition zone, the wadsleyite to spinel transition at intermediate depths, and the appearance of Ca-perovskite at the base of this layer produces velocity and density gradients in pyrolite which are similar to those

observed and averaged velocity gradients in piclogite which are 30% larger. These results show that a chemically homogeneous layer can account for the observed properties of the transition zone.

Pyrolite and piclogite are both consistent with observed density and bulk sound velocity profiles above 400 km and below 500 km and with observations of the 400-km discontinuity. In both compositions, the transition to wadsleyite causes rapid increases in velocity over a 20-km interval near 400 km. This is consistent with the depth (390–420 km) and width (10–20 km) of the discontinuity in most seismic models [Walck, 1984; Paulssen, 1987]. The much sharper gradient found by Leven [1985] (less than 6 km wide) may not be representative of the normal mantle because the earthquakes used in this study were located in or near a subduction zone. High thermal gradients present in these areas may tend to sharpen the discontinuity by narrowing the dissolution width of relevant phase changes or give the appearance of a sharp discontinuity by focusing seismic energy at higher frequencies. Pyrolite predicts a 4.5% velocity jump at the discontinuity, in excellent agreement with recent P and S wave velocity profiles, which predict a jump in bulk sound velocity of 4.5–6% (Figure 8) [Walck, 1984; Grand and Helmberger, 1984a; Leven, 1985; Paulssen, 1987; Lefevre and Helmberger, 1989; Kennett and Engdahl, 1991]. The lesser olivine content in piclogite causes a much smaller velocity jump

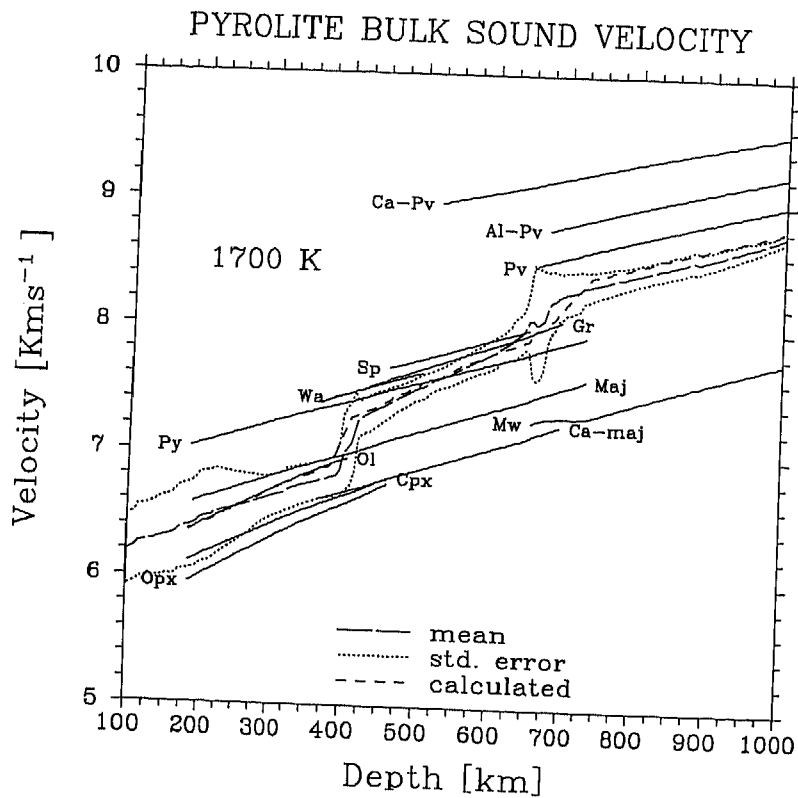


Fig. 6. Acoustic velocity of individual phases (solid lines) and the composite velocity of pyrolite (short dashed line). The mean and standard deviation of bulk sound velocity calculated from various seismic studies are represented by the long dashed and dotted lines, respectively.

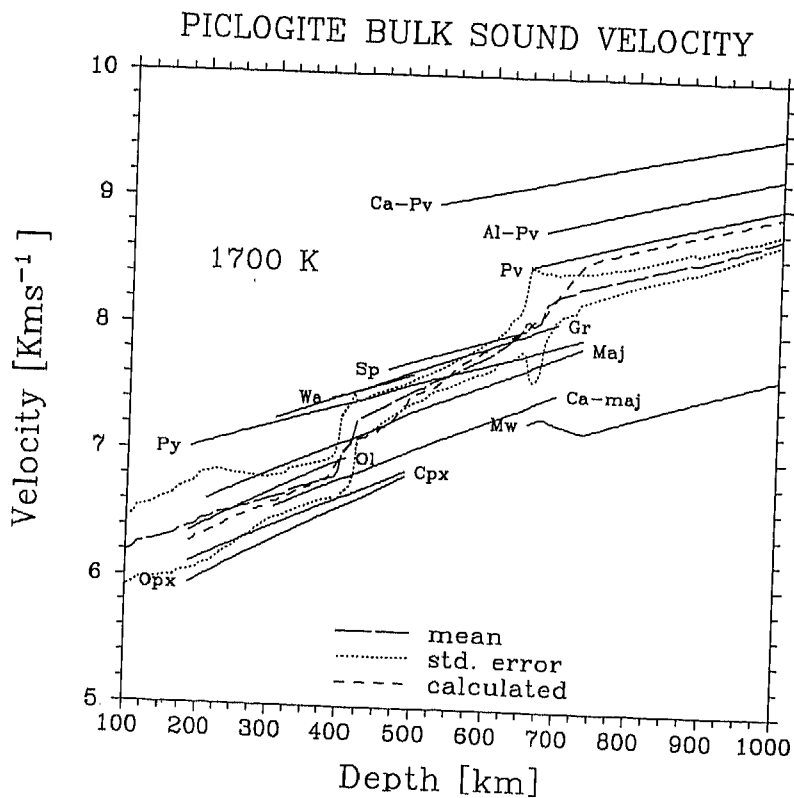


Fig. 7. Same as Figure 6 for the piclogite composition.

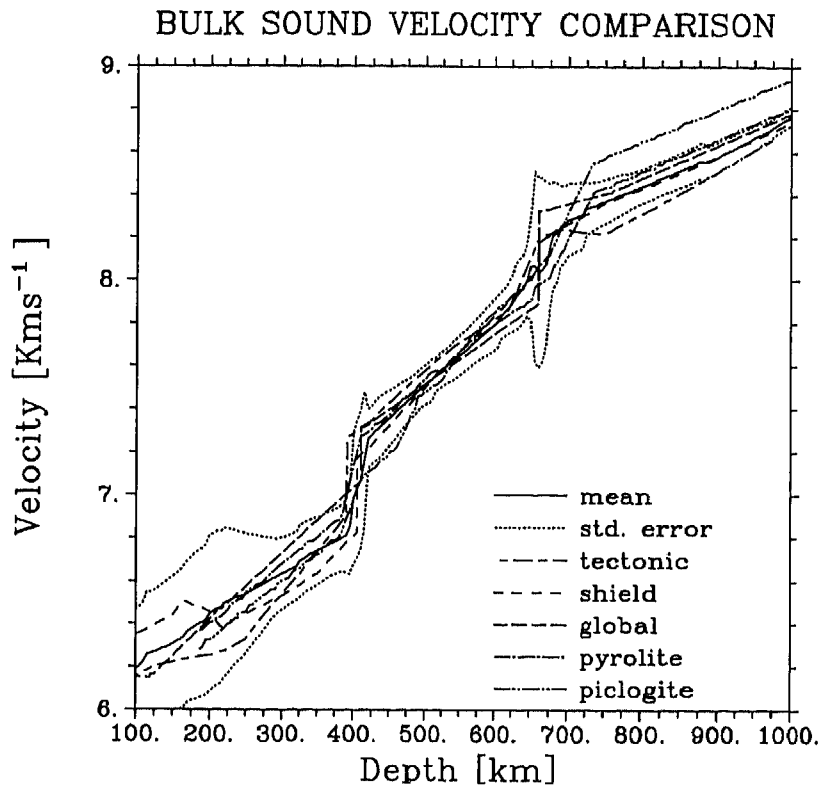


Fig. 8. Composite bulk sound velocity V_{ϕ} of piclogite and pyrolite compared to individual curves observed in Earth. The tectonic profile representative of tectonically active regions is calculated from the P wave profile of Walck [1984] and the tectonic S wave profile of Grand and Helmberger [1984a]. The shield profile representative of cratonic regions is calculated from the P wave model of Lefevre and Helmberger [1989] and the shield S wave model of Grand and Helmberger [1984a]. The global model is calculated from the average P and S wave models of Kennett and Engdahl [1991].

(3.3%) which is nevertheless marginally consistent with observed conversions at the discontinuity [Bock and Kind, 1991].

Of the two compositions, we find that only pyrolite agrees with observations throughout the upper mantle and transition zone, in excellent agreement with the results of Weidner [1985] and Weidner and Ito [1987]. Just below the 400-km discontinuity, piclogite deviates significantly from the data. The smaller amount of Al in piclogite delays the pyroxene to garnet transition to higher pressures (Figure 4), causing anomalously low velocities and densities extending 80 km below the discontinuity.

We illustrate the effect of uncertainties in the thermodynamic parameters by considering alternative estimates of K and K' of the majorite species and K'_0 of wadsleyite and spinel species (Table 3). Variation of other parameters within their uncertainties has a comparatively small effect on derived mantle velocities. For pyrolite, values of K of majorites and K'_0 of majorites, wadsleyite, and spinel at the lower extreme of current estimates were used to generate Figures 5 and 6. Higher majorite bulk moduli lead to higher bulk sound velocities in the transition zone, causing pyrolite to deviate significantly from the observed profile (Figure 9). Although raising mantle temperatures can reconcile calculated velocities with observation, higher temperatures lead to disagreement with observed densities. Adopting high values of K'_0 for wadsleyite does not affect the acceptability of pyrolite, although high values of K'_0 for spinel cause

significant disagreement just above the 670-km discontinuity. Pyrolite provides an acceptable fit to upper mantle and transition zone properties for values of majorite bulk moduli and spinel K'_0 in the lower half of the range considered here.

Average values of majorite bulk moduli and values of K'_0 of majorite, wadsleyite, and spinel at the lower extreme of current estimates were used to generate Figures 5 and 7. Lower and higher majorite bulk moduli lower and raise transition zone velocities, respectively, and magnify the disparity between piclogite and observed bulk sound velocity profiles. Again, agreement with velocities can be improved by raising or lowering assumed mantle temperatures but only at the expense of the density comparison. Alternative values of K'_0 of wadsleyite and spinel improve agreement with the bulk sound velocity profile but magnify the discrepancy in density between 400 and 500 km (Figure 10). Regardless of variations in the thermodynamic parameters or temperature, piclogite does not provide an acceptable fit to both bulk sound velocity and density profiles.

Pyrolite offers an excellent explanation of the seismic data but not a unique one. We have found modifications of piclogite-type (olivine poor) compositions which are also acceptable. Piclogite can be reconciled with seismic observations by substantially enriching it in Al at the expense of Si. This lowers the pressure of the pyroxene to garnet dissolution, raising velocities immediately below the 400-km discontinuity. The composition shown in Table 4 provides an acceptable fit to observed velocity and density profiles along

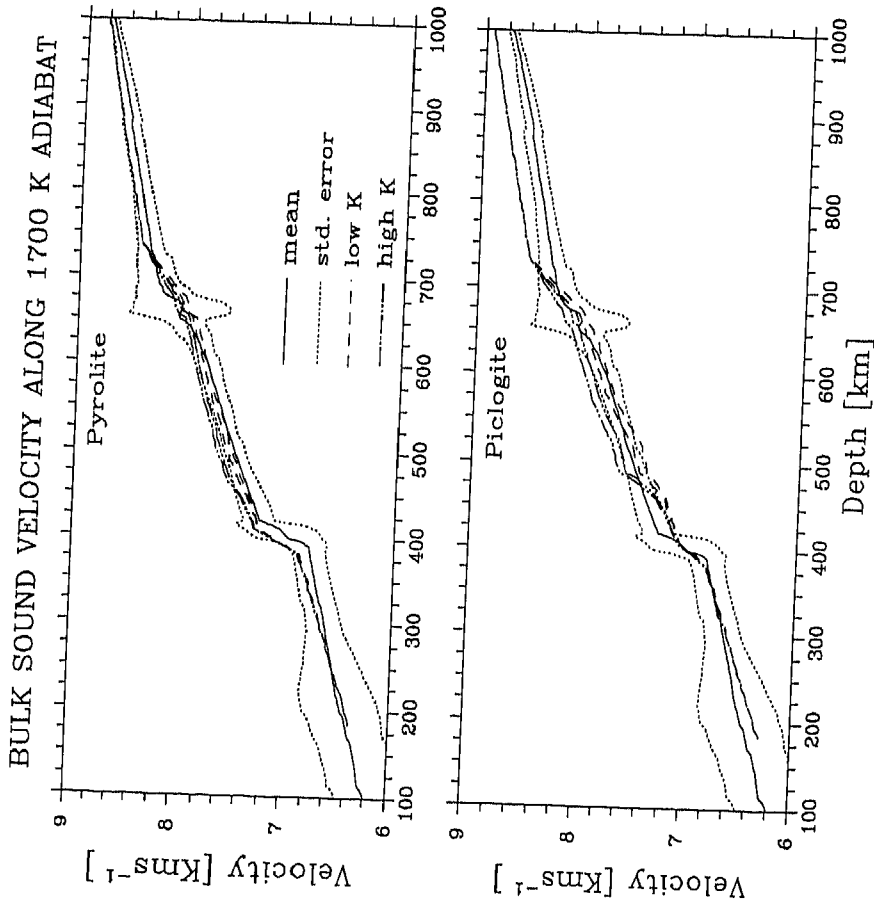


Fig. 9. Effect of the uncertainty in the majorite elastic parameters on the composite profile. High and low values of K produce the higher and lower curves of dashed curves, respectively. High and low values of K' produce the higher and lower curves for each pair. The mean and standard deviation of observed velocities are represented by the solid and dotted lines, respectively.

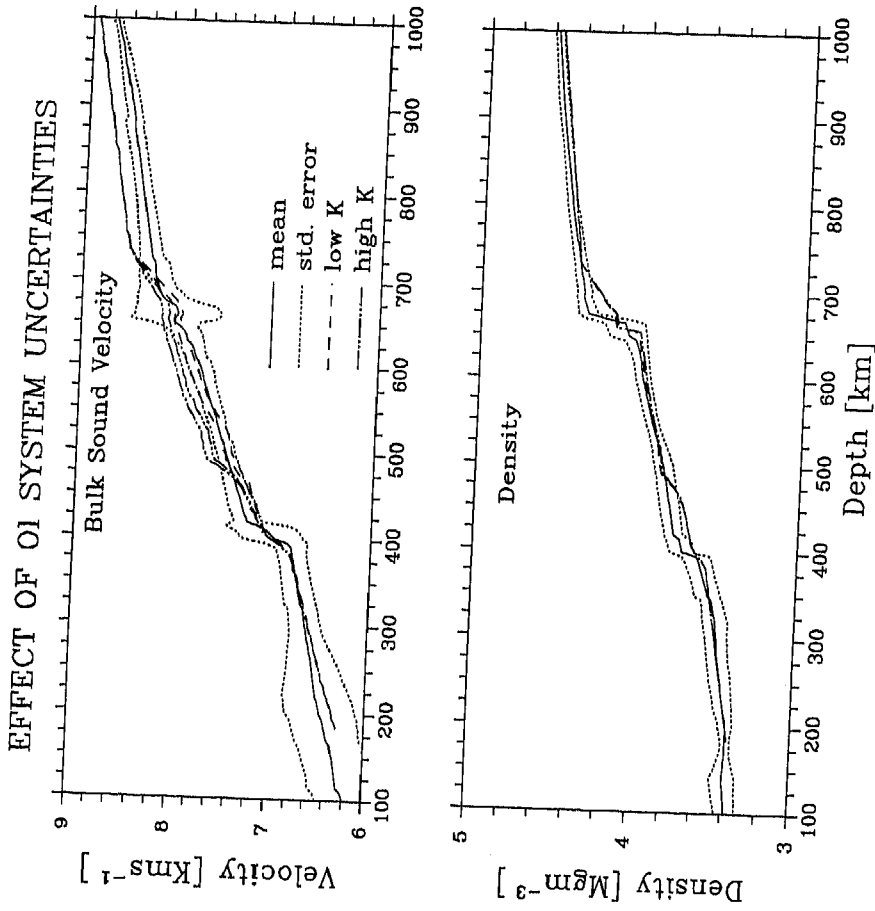


Fig. 10. Effect of the uncertainty in the majorite elastic parameters coupled with a K' value of 4.8 and 5.0 for wadsleyite and spinel, respectively, on the bulk sound velocity and density of piclogite. High and low values of majorite bulk moduli produce the higher and lower pairs of dashed curves, respectively. High and low values of K' produce the higher and lower curves for each pair. The mean and standard deviation of observed velocities and densities are represented by the solid and dotted lines, respectively.

Al - RICH COMPOSITION

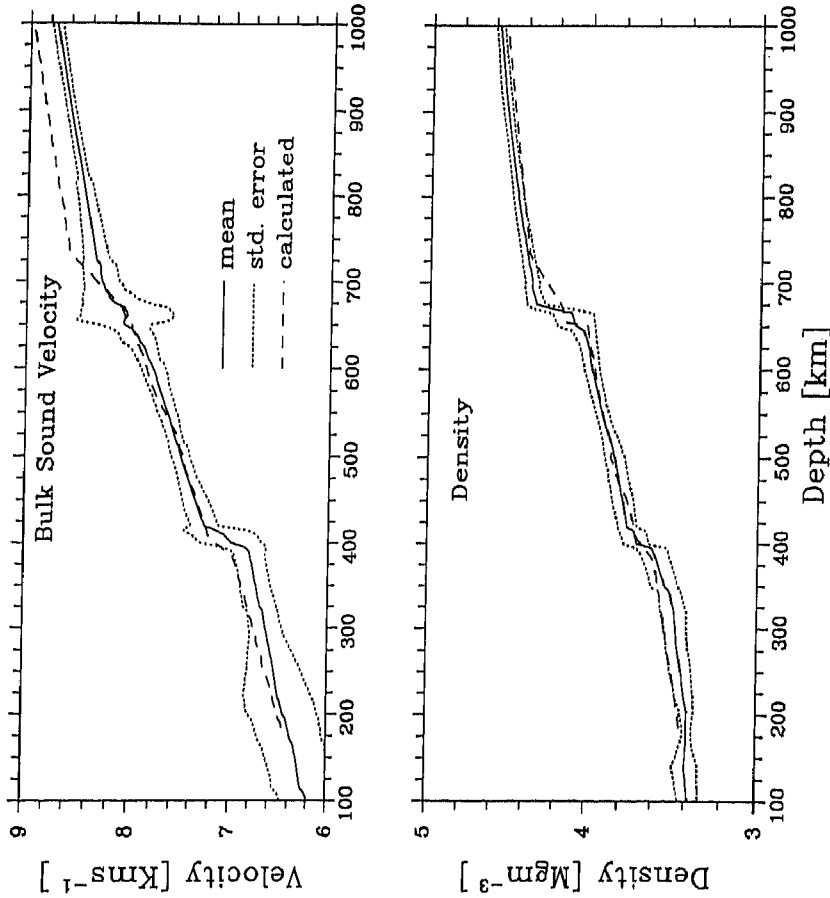


Fig. 11. Composite bulk sound velocity and density curves for an aluminum enriched piclogite. The mean and standard deviation of observed velocities and densities are represented by the solid and dotted lines, respectively.

CHEMICAL BOUNDARY PROPERTIES

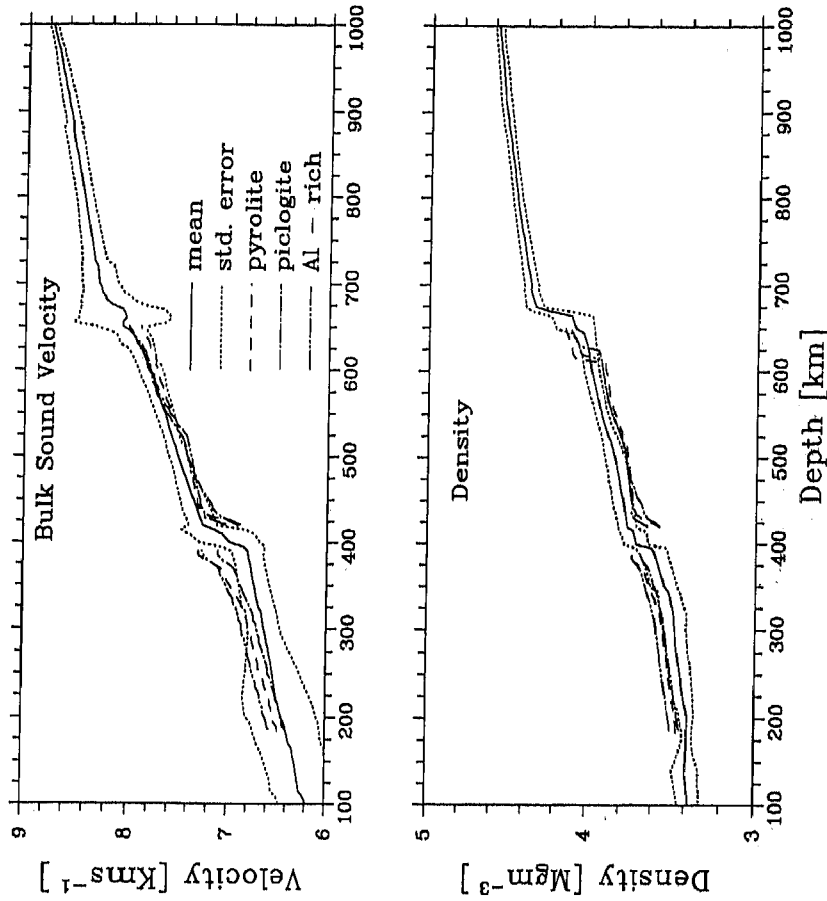


Fig. 12. Effect of a thermal boundary layer on calculated mantle properties. For the three compositions considered here, upper mantle properties are shown along the 1200°K adiabat. Transition zone properties are shown along the 2200°K adiabat. The mean and standard deviation of acoustic velocity and density are represented by the solid and dotted lines (see text for discussion).

TABLE 4. Al-Rich Residuum Composition

	Whole, mol %	Residuum, mol %
SiO ₂	39.82	44.81
MgO	42.77	29.50
FeO	5.35	4.34
Al ₂ O ₃	3.30	5.84
CaO	8.76	15.50
Si #	3.26	3.43

the 1700°K adiabat (Figure 11). Recently discovered kimberlite xenoliths, thought to have originated near 400 km depth, also suggest Al-rich compositions [Sautter *et al.*, 1991], although these may not be representative of the bulk transition zone. Sodium enrichment also lowers the pyroxene to garnet transition and may also improve agreement with a piclogite-type composition [Gasparik, 1990].

For the range of compositions considered here, a chemically layered upper mantle is unlikely. Adiabats initiating at 1700°–1800°K at 185 km lead to the best agreement with observed transition zone properties regardless of composition. These temperatures agree very well with independent determinations from geothermometry [see Jeanloz and Knittle, 1989]. A chemical boundary at 400 km, however, requires layered convection and a thermal boundary at this depth of 500°–1000°K [Jeanloz and Richter, 1979]. Retaining a 1700°K adiabat in the uppermost mantle, we find that transition zone properties along a 2200°K adiabat are in severe disagreement with observed densities (Figure 12). Furthermore, these high temperatures may cause wide spread partial melting of the transition zone (Figures 1 and 2), leading to shear velocities much lower than observed. Alternatively, if we assume a 1700°K adiabat in the transition zone, the uppermost mantle follows a 1200°K adiabat which is marginally consistent with seismic data for some compositions (Figure 12) but inconsistent with geothermometry.

Our results indicate that the upper mantle, while probably not internally layered, is chemically distinct from the lower mantle. In agreement with many previous studies, we find that the MgO-FeO-SiO₂ fraction of the compositions considered here are marginally consistent with observed lower mantle properties [e.g., Jackson, 1983; Bukowski and Wolf, 1990]. However, consideration of the CaO component degrades the comparison. Through Ca-perovskite, likely the fastest mantle mineral (highest bulk sound velocity, Figures 6 and 7), the CaO component causes complete pyrolite, piclogite, and Al-rich piclogite to overestimate bulk sound velocities at the top of the lower mantle by 1, 2, and 3%, respectively, the larger differences for the latter two reflecting their greater CaO content. Lower mantle densities are also underestimated by all three models. Propagation of uncertainties in the thermodynamic parameters shows that these discrepancies are significant and that all three compositions can be rejected at the 68% confidence level as acceptable models of the lower mantle [Stixrude and Ita, 1991]. By considering the effects of Ca-perovskite, our results considerably strengthen those of previous studies which suggested that compositions different from pyrolite best match the lower mantle [e.g., Jeanloz and Knittle, 1989; Bina and Silver, 1990]. Furthermore, Ca-perovskite may provide an explanation of the proposed 520-km seismic

discontinuity [Shearer, 1990]. The transformation of garnet to Ca-perovskite near 18 GPa produces anomalous velocity gradients in all the compositions considered here which may account for the observed reflections (Figures 6 and 7).

CONCLUSIONS

Self-consistent temperature, density, and velocity profiles show that pyrolite agrees very well with seismic observations throughout the upper mantle and transition zone. Piclogite significantly underestimates velocities and densities between 400 and 500 km. Substantially enriching piclogite in Al, though, produces an acceptable fit to seismic data at all depths. Thus seismic and mineral physics data are able to reject some models, but they cannot uniquely determine the composition of the transition zone given their present precision. Consideration of shear wave velocities may further limit the range of acceptable compositions. The lack of laboratory measurements of shear moduli under mantle pressure conditions currently limits this approach. Our results indicate that chemical layering of the upper mantle is unlikely. Thus petrologic constraints on the composition of the uppermost mantle can be combined with seismic and mineral physics data to determine transition zone composition.

All the compositions considered here show anomalous velocity gradients near 18 GPa due to the transformation of garnet to Ca-perovskite. This transformation may explain the proposed 520 km seismic discontinuity. The high bulk sound velocity of Ca-perovskite causes overestimated velocities in the upper part of the lower mantle for all compositions, implying a change in composition at 660 km and layered convection in the Earth.

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