

CRYSTAL FIELD EFFECTS IN MANTLE MINERALS

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ABSTRACT

The behavior of Fe^{2+} in the lower mantle will depend on the effects of crystal fields. A point charge model, scaled to fit observed spectra at low pressures is developed to predict these effects. Two of the three parameters needed to predict spin-pairing transitions can only be determined from spin-forbidden electronic transitions. The spectra of garnet, gillespite and peridot are examined and found to have such absorption features. Assignment of these spectra leads to values of the Racah parameters, B and C, as well as the crystal field parameter Dq .

A new experimental technique, which allows the measurement of optical absorption spectra of solids in the visible region during shock loading, is described. Results are discussed for periclase and ruby. The ruby data indicate that the point charge model is good to at least 15 percent (volume) compression.

The effects of low-spin Fe^{2+} in the earth's lower mantle are investigated in considerable detail. The existence of low-spin Fe^{2+} permits the formation of a separate phase since Mg^{2+} and low-spin Fe^{2+} may not form solid solutions. The bulk elastic behavior of such phases

is predicted from volume-bulk modulus systematics and compared with available shock wave data. It is likely that the high pressure phases of several ferrous iron compounds involve low-spin Fe^{2+} . Iron will be spin-paired in the mantle below 1200 km and likely at higher levels as well. The observed density and bulk modulus in the lower mantle are inconsistent with any combination of phases in a pyrolite bulk composition but can be fit quite well by a model with all Fe^{2+} spin-paired below 630 km and nearly olivine composition at that depth, with MgO decreasing to almost a pyroxene composition at the core.

An origin of the upper mantle from the lower mantle by chemical fractionation is proposed. The spin-pairing of Fe^{2+} provides an excellent mechanism for both iron and silicon enrichment in the lower mantle by partial melting yielding a pyrolite upper mantle, and hence, a chemically inhomogeneous mantle. This removes the motivation for reducing FeO and SiO_2 in the mantle to supply Fe and Si for the core.

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I. INTRODUCTION

Iron is an important constituent of the earth's mantle; for this reason the behavior of iron-bearing minerals under compression is of considerable interest to geophysics. The presence of ferrous iron in the mantle will effect its density, its seismic properties, both elastic and anelastic, its thermal and electrical conductivity and perhaps even its mineralogical character.

The present study is an attempt to apply available theoretical projections, aided by a new experimental technique, to the question of how ferrous minerals behave at high pressures, and how this will affect the properties of the mantle. The chemical and physical behavior of iron (as is the case with most transition metals) in solids is primarily governed by the effects considered in crystal field theory. Chapter II briefly reviews some of the bases of this theory and discusses in some detail the point charge approximation. In Chapter III the spectra of several iron-bearing minerals at atmospheric pressure are considered using (in part) the theory of Chapter II. This is done so as to more precisely determine several of the parameters used in applying

crystal field theory. In Chapter IV a technique for measuring optical absorption spectra at very high dynamic stresses is described and some experimental results obtained with this technique are discussed. It is found that there is some cause for optimism in the use of the approach of Chapter II at high pressures. Finally, in Chapter V, the earlier chapters are synthesized into a mantle model for the behavior of Fe^{2+} . Starting with the model of Ringwood, some modifications are in order and many physical and chemical properties can be predicted. Of particular import is a proposed change in the ground state of Fe^{2+} in the intermediate region of the mantle.

II. A BRIEF OUTLINE OF CRYSTAL FIELD THEORY

The energy states of a transition metal ion in a crystal or complexed in solution can be fairly well understood in terms of crystal field theory. The theory considers the perturbation on the free-ion energies by the electric field of the surrounding atoms. A fairly comprehensive review of the theory is found in books by Griffiths (1) and Ballhausen (2) and the reader is referred thereto for details. Here only the broad outline of the theory and such details as are of immediate interest are given. First a general transition metal is considered with six nearest neighbors octahedrally situated, followed by some remarks about other symmetries. Then the question of how the effects of crystal fields can be estimated a priori, that is, when we have no spectra from which to infer the energies of states involved, is discussed. And finally some practical matters concerning the use of energy level diagrams in interpreting transition metal spectra are considered.

A. Octahedral Symmetry

The transition elements are distinguished by the presence of d-electrons in their ground states. There are

five d-orbitals which, in the free ion, are degenerate. In the presence of an electric field however, this degeneracy may be removed.

Consider the case of an ion with d-orbitals placed in a site surrounded by six anions situated at the vertices of an octahedron. Choose the x, y, and z axes of the ion to correspond with the four-fold axes of the octahedron. The five d-orbitals are conveniently expressed in terms of spherical harmonics Y_l^m as

$$d_{z^2} = Y_2^0$$

$$d_{x^2 - y^2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (Y_2^2 + Y_2^{-2})$$

$$d_{xy} = \frac{1}{i\sqrt{2}} (Y_2^2 - Y_2^{-2})$$

$$d_{xz} = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (Y_2^1 - Y_2^{-1})$$

$$d_{yz} = -\frac{1}{i\sqrt{2}} (Y_2^1 + Y_2^{-1})$$

where the first two orbitals concentrate charge along the x, y, and z axes and the latter three orbitals concentrate it between the axes. Therefore, the first two orbitals will have higher energy than the latter ones. In fact, it can be shown that the first two are degenerate, as are the

other three. So the effect of surrounding this ion by six anions thusly has been to split the five degenerate d-orbitals into two sets (called e_g for $d_{z^2 - y^2}$, and t_{2g} for the others) separated by some energy which is conventionally called either Δ or $10 Dq$. In Section C it is shown that, in the approximation that the surrounding ions are point charges, the magnitude of Dq will vary as R^{-5} where R is the interionic distance.

If the central ion has only one d-electron (such as Ti^{3+} which has the electronic structure $[1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6]3d^1$ or more briefly $3d^1$) a determination of the energy levels of the orbitals completes the problem since there is no appreciable electron repulsion between the electrons in the argon shell (in square brackets) and the 3d electrons. (Throughout this discussion we ignore the effects of spin-orbit coupling on energy of states.) There are only two states in which the $3d^1$ system can be, either t_{2g}^1 or e_g^1 , separated by energy Δ .

Adding another electron considerably complicates matters since repulsion between two d-electrons must now be considered. Two electrons with wave functions ψ_1 and ψ_2 will interact to give an additional term to the energy.

This energy involves integrals of the form

$$\iint \psi_1^* \psi_2^* \frac{e^2}{r_{12}} \psi_2 \psi_1 d\tau_1 d\tau_2$$

whose evaluation is lucidly discussed by Ballhausen (2, pp. 19-21). Suffice it here to say that their effect, for 3d orbitals, can be expressed in terms of two parameters B and C, called Racah parameters. They introduce off-diagonal terms into the energy matrices and thereby give rise to considerable complication of the solution of energy of states. As interatomic distances decrease the electrons will tend to expand out toward the surrounding ions thereby decreasing their interaction with each other and thereby decreasing the Racah parameters so that in a very general sense, B and C are indicative of the degree of covalency of the metal-oxygen bonds. These parameters should therefore, decrease with compression, since the degree of covalency should increase. Unfortunately it is not possible to be more explicit regarding the details of this variation with R. In Chapter III the limited experimental data will be applied to this problem.

For the octahedral symmetry presently under discussion the complete energy matrices for d^n systems have been worked out in terms of Dq , B and C by Tanabe and Sugano (3).

B. Other Symmetries

Further changes in the energy levels can be expected for atomic arrangements other than octahedral. As long as the symmetry belongs to one of the "cubic" groups (T_d or O_h) exactly the same formalism and even the same energy matrices will apply. The only changes will be in the values of Dq , B and C . At least four common coordination polyhedra belong to the cubic groups; in addition to the octahedron, they are the tetrahedron, cube and dodecahedron (110). For these figures (using the methods of Section C) the relations for constant R can be derived as follows

$$-\frac{9}{4} Dq(\text{tetra.}) = Dq(\text{octa.}) = -\frac{9}{8} Dq(\text{cube}) = -2 Dq(\text{dodeca.}).$$

If there were no change of interatomic distance with coordination the revised Dq values could be used in the matrices to get the revised energies. However, in general,

$$R(\text{tetra.}) < R(\text{octa.}) < R(\text{cube}) < R(\text{dodeca.}) .$$

The change in R will effect Dq, B and C so that one should expect

$$B, C(\text{tetra.}) < B, C(\text{octa.}) < B, C(\text{cube}) < B, C(\text{dodeca.})$$

and using the R^{-5} dependence of Dq,

$$\begin{aligned} -\frac{9}{4} R^5(\text{tetra.}) Dq(\text{tetra.}) &= R^5(\text{octa.}) Dq(\text{octa.}) \\ &= -\frac{9}{8} R^5(\text{cube}) Dq(\text{cube}) \\ &= -2 R^5(\text{dodeca.}) Dq(\text{dodeca.}). \end{aligned}$$

For lower symmetries (which do not belong to the cubic groups) the situation is more complicated. The e_g and t_{2g} sets of orbitals may be split into several non-degenerate orbitals. This will change the states available to the system so that, in general, the matrices of Tanabe and Sugano will no longer be valid. More than one parameter will be required to completely describe the direct effects of the crystal field. The number of such parameters can be as great as 14 for C_1 symmetry, but for most cases we will be interested in, is no more than four. (See Table 8.1, p. 199 in (1).) In the next section some lower symmetry environments are discussed in the point charge approximation.

In the cases of $D_{4'}$, $C_{4v'}$, $D_{2d'}$, and D_{4h} symmetry the matrix elements including the crystal field and electron repulsion (but no spin-orbit coupling) have been determined by Otsuka (4) in terms of the one-electron energy levels and the two Racah parameters. These symmetries include many sites of particular interest to us including the Fe^{2+} site in gillespite, the M1 site in olivine (approximately) and the Fe^{2+} site in garnet. By comparing observed and calculated energies in these minerals it should therefore, be possible to determine the values of the Racah parameters in these three quite dissimilar environments.

C. Point Charge Calculations

The earth's mantle is under high pressures (greater than one megabar at the core) and most of the minerals have structures which have never been observed isochemically in the laboratory. For this reason one is tempted to estimate the crystal fields involved so that one may predict some of the properties of these minerals. A point charge approximation is used here to do so. The general method and some comments on the validity of the technique are given in this section, but the detailed application of the method will be the subject of Chapter V.

The point charge approximation will be developed here after the manner of Hutchings (5). For any arrangement of n point charges about a site (R_i, θ_i, ϕ_i) , the field can be expanded as a sum of spherical harmonics.

$$V(r, \theta, \phi) = \sum_{i=1}^n q_i \sum_{\ell} \frac{r_{<}^{\ell}}{r_{>}^{\ell+1}} \frac{4\pi}{(2\ell+1)} \sum_{m=-\ell}^{\ell} Y_{\ell}^{m*}(\theta_i, \phi_i) Y_{\ell}^m(\theta, \phi) \quad (1)$$

where q_i is the charge on the i^{th} ion, $r_{<}$ is the smaller of r and R_i , the radii of the field point and the i^{th} source point respectively, and the Y_{ℓ}^m are spherical harmonics. Only that part of the field which can interact with 3d electrons is of interest so only even values of ℓ less than or equal to 4 need be considered. This considerably simplifies equation (1).

Equation (1) can be reduced to:

$$V(r, \theta, \phi) = \sum_{\ell} \sum_{m=-\ell}^{\ell} \frac{r_{<}^{\ell}}{r_{>}^{\ell+1}} \gamma_{\ell m} Y_{\ell}^m(\theta, \phi) \quad (2)$$

where

$$\gamma_{\ell m} \equiv \frac{2\sqrt{2\pi}}{(2\ell+1)} \sum_{i=1}^n Y_{\ell}^{m*}(\theta_i, \phi_i) \quad (3)$$

if all the ligands are at the same distance and have the same charge q . The former restriction is relaxed below.

For many symmetries most of the $\gamma_{\ell m}$ will vanish.

Having expressed the potential $V(r, \theta, \phi)$ the energies can now be obtained by direct integration of the wave functions

$$E_{ab} = \int d\tau (\psi_a^* V(\tau) \psi_b)$$

$$= \sum_l \sum_{m=-l}^l \int d\tau \left[R_a^*(r) Y_{l_a}^{m_a^*} \gamma_{l_m} \frac{r_{<}^l}{r_{>}^{l+1}} Y_l^m(\theta, \phi) R_b(r) Y_{l_b}^{m_b} \right]$$

where $R_a(r)$ is the radial part of the a^{th} wave function and $Y_{l_a}^{m_a}$ is the angular part. For 3d electrons this becomes

$$E_{ab} = \sum_l \sum_{m=-l}^l R_l \int Y_2^{m_a^*} Y_l^m Y_2^{m_b} \gamma_{l_m} d\Omega$$

where

$$R_l \equiv q \sqrt{\pi/2} \int_0^\infty \frac{r_{<}^l}{r_{>}^{l+1}} R_a^*(r) R_b(r) r^2 dr. \quad (4)$$

Using

$$c^k(l, m, l', m') \equiv \sqrt{\frac{2}{2k+1}} \int_0^\pi P_k^{m-m'}(\cos\theta) P_l^m(\cos\theta) P_{l'}^{m'}(\cos\theta) \sin^2 d\theta$$

this reduces to

$$E_{ab} = \sum_l \sum_{m=-l}^l R_l \gamma_{l_m} c^l(2m_a, 2m_b) \delta(m - m_a + m_b) \quad (5)$$

The c^k 's are tabulated in various books (e.g., (2) p. 20).

The R_l 's will be discussed shortly.

For most choices of coordinate axes the best angular functions are not the pure $Y_2^{m_a}$'s used above but the linear combinations given earlier (Section A). The energy of these combined orbitals is easily calculated, from the E_{ab} of equation (5).

$$\begin{aligned}
 E(d_{z^2}) &= E_{00} \\
 E(d_{x^2-y^2}) &= \frac{1}{2} (E_{22} + 2E_{2-2} + E_{-2-2}) = E_{22} + E_{2-2} \\
 E(d_{xy}) &= E_{22} - E_{2-2} \\
 E(d_{xz}) &= E_{11} - E_{1-1} \\
 E(d_{yz}) &= E_{11} + E_{1-1}
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{6}$$

Now consider the radial parts of the integrals as expressed in Equation (4). The radial wave functions, $R_a(r)$ and $R_b(r)$ do not depend explicitly on the interionic distance R so that the R dependence of the integrals will be contained entirely in the term $r_{</r>}^{l+1}$. Furthermore, $R_a(r)$ and $R_b(r)$ will be quite small for $r > R$ so

$$R_l = \int_0^R \frac{r^{l+2}}{R^{l+1}} R_a^*(r) R_b(r) dr + \int_R^\infty \frac{R^l}{r^{l-1}} R_a^*(r) R_b(r) dr$$

$$\int_0^\infty \frac{r^{l+2}}{R^{l+1}} R_a^*(r) R_b(r) dr = \frac{1}{R^{l+1}} \int_0^\infty r^{l+2} R_a^*(r) R_b(r) dr.$$

The integral in this expression does not depend explicitly on R so

$$R_l \approx \frac{A_l}{R^{l+1}} \quad (7)$$

where

$$A_l = \int_0^\infty r^{l+2} R_a^*(r) R_b(r) dr. \quad (7a)$$

Only $l = 0, 2, 4$ are important here:

$$R_0 = \frac{A_0}{R}, \quad R_2 = A_2/R^3, \quad R_4 = A_4/R^5. \quad (8)$$

If the ligands are at different distances r_i then pick some r_0 and rewrite (3) as

$$Y'_{lm} \equiv \frac{2\sqrt{2\pi}}{(2l+1)} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{r_0^{l+1}}{r_i^{l+1}} Y_l^{m*}(\theta_i, \phi_i) \quad (3')$$

and

$$R'_l \approx \frac{A_l}{r_0^{l+1}} \quad (7')$$

and use Y'_{lm} and R'_l in (5) to get the E_{ab} 's.

The next step is the downfall of all point charge calculations for transition elements. Whatever type of wave functions are used in Equation (7a), the values of A_2 is grossly in error compared with the observed spectra. The plan here is to use these calculations to predict the crystal field of Fe^{2+} minerals in the mantle which suggests the following approach. Consider a wide variety of environments represented in low pressure spectra and choose A_2 's to best fill all of the observed data.

Three spectra have been used to evaluate A_2 and A_4 : gillespite and two olivines. All have Fe^{2+} in D_{4h} (tetragonal) symmetry so that both terms are involved in the spectra. For the olivine of intermediate composition the energies have been calculated using a coordination of the M_1 site which is the average of Fe^{2+} and Mg^{2+} as determined by x-ray diffraction. Values of bond lengths of the separate elements almost certainly are not equal to this average, so that larger errors are to be expected from the calculations in olivine. Values of A_2 and A_4 were adjusted so as to give a good fit to all six energy levels simultaneously, and the results are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1

SPECTRA OF OLIVINE AND GILLESPIITE (OBSERVED AND CALCULATED).

Mineral	$r_0(\text{\AA})^d$	$\nu_1(\text{cm}^{-1})$ (calculated)	$\nu_1(\text{cm}^{-1})$ (observed)	$\nu_2(\text{cm}^{-1})$ (calculated)	$\nu_2(\text{cm}^{-1})$ (observed)
Gillespite ^a	2.003	20260	19000	6990	7500
BaFe ₂ Si ₄ O ₁₀					
Olivine ^b	2.08	11410	11660	9740	9000
Mg _{1.6} Fe _{0.4} SiO ₄					
Fayalite ^c	2.125	10590	11000	8140	8000
Fe ₂ SiO ₄					

a. Spectral and structural data from (6).

b. Structure from (7); spectrum interpolated from (7). Values quoted are for the D_{4h} M1 site only.

c. Spectral and structural data from (8). Values quoted are for the D_{4h} and M1 site only.

d. r_0 is the smallest interatomic distance.

There are several sources of error in the procedure described, most deriving from the model. The errors involved in the point charge approximation are discussed in the chemical literature (5, 9) and are of moderate size. The assumption of ionic bonding is probably quite good for Fe-O bonds.

An estimate of the errors involving the magnitude of the radial integrals can be made from Table 1 which compares the calculated and observed spectra of olivines and gillespite. The errors are about 10 percent.

The method described here can be used to calculate the one-electron energy levels for the case of octahedral coordination. When this is done it is found that

$$E(x^2 - y^2) - E(xy) = \frac{10}{3} R_4$$

but in Section A that energy difference was defined to be $10 Dq$ or Δ so

$$Dq = \frac{1}{3} R_4 \cdot$$

Then using (8)

$$Dq = \frac{A_4}{3R^5}$$

or

$$Dq \propto \frac{1}{R^5} \cdot$$

D. Energy Level Diagrams

The standard technique for displaying energy levels of transition metal ions is to plot them as functions of the strength of the crystal field, the so-called Tanabe-Sugano diagram. These diagrams assume a particular B and C. (Berkes (10) has compiled several Tanabe-Sugano diagrams for a variety of systems.) For most of the present purposes such plots are not very convenient because it is usually much easier to determine the crystal field from the spectra than the Racah parameters. It makes more sense, therefore, to plot energy levels as functions of B or C while keeping the crystal field constant. Figures 1 through 6 show such plots for Fe^{2+} in a variety of coordinations and a range of C/B in each coordination. The point of chief interest is that the spin-allowed bands in each diagram are independent of the Racah parameters (in the high-spin case) but they do depend on the crystal field. Therefore, these bands can be used to fix the crystal field while B and C are obtained from the spin-forbidden bands.

Figure 1
Energy of states of Fe^{2+} in an octahedral field
($Dq = 1000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$) as a function of B for constant
C/B. Heavy lines are quintet states. Some of the
lower excited states are labelled.

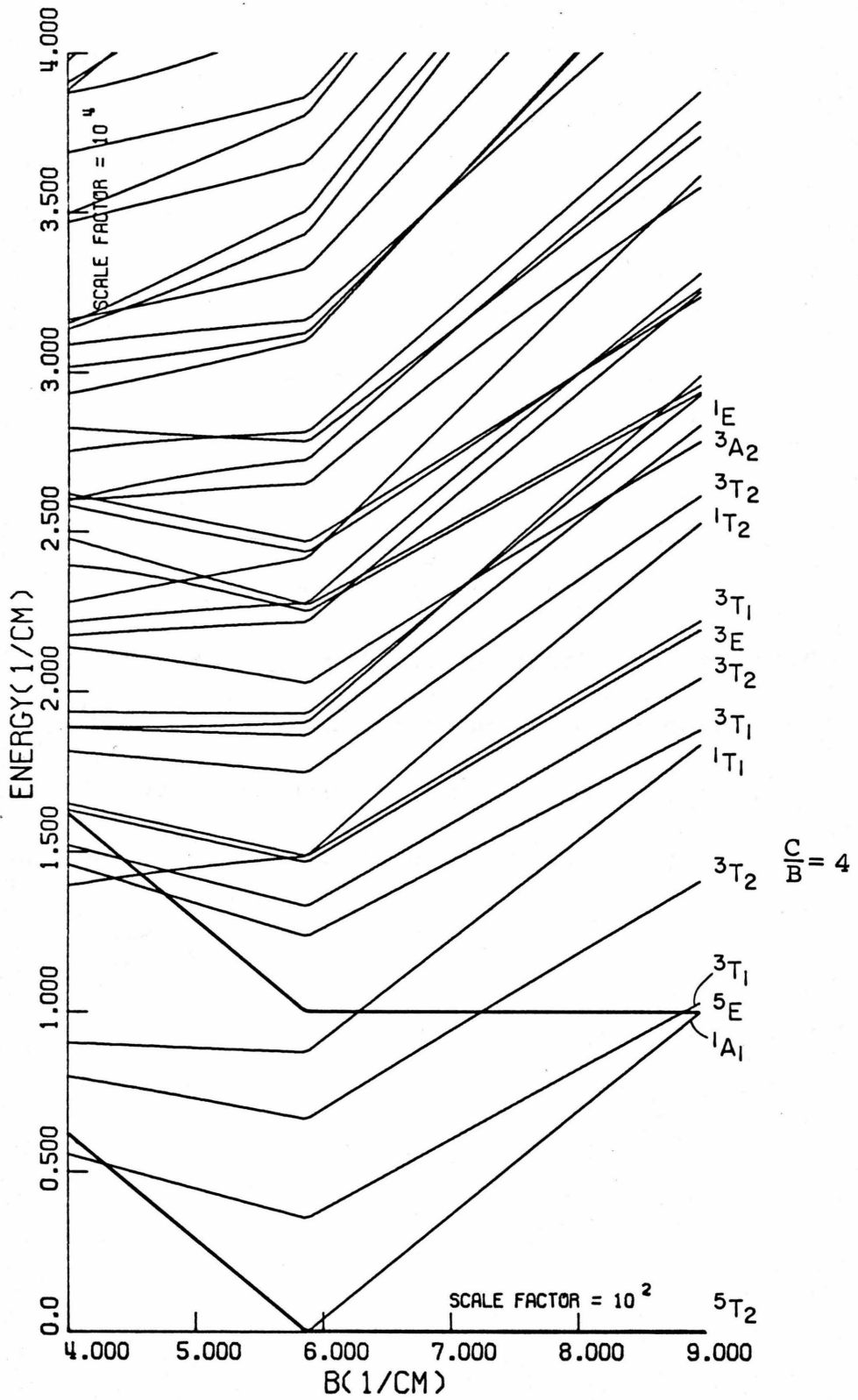


Figure 2

Energy of states of Fe^{2+} in an octahedral field ($Dq = 1000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$) as a function of B for constant C/B . Heavy lines are quintet states. Some of the lower excited states are labelled.

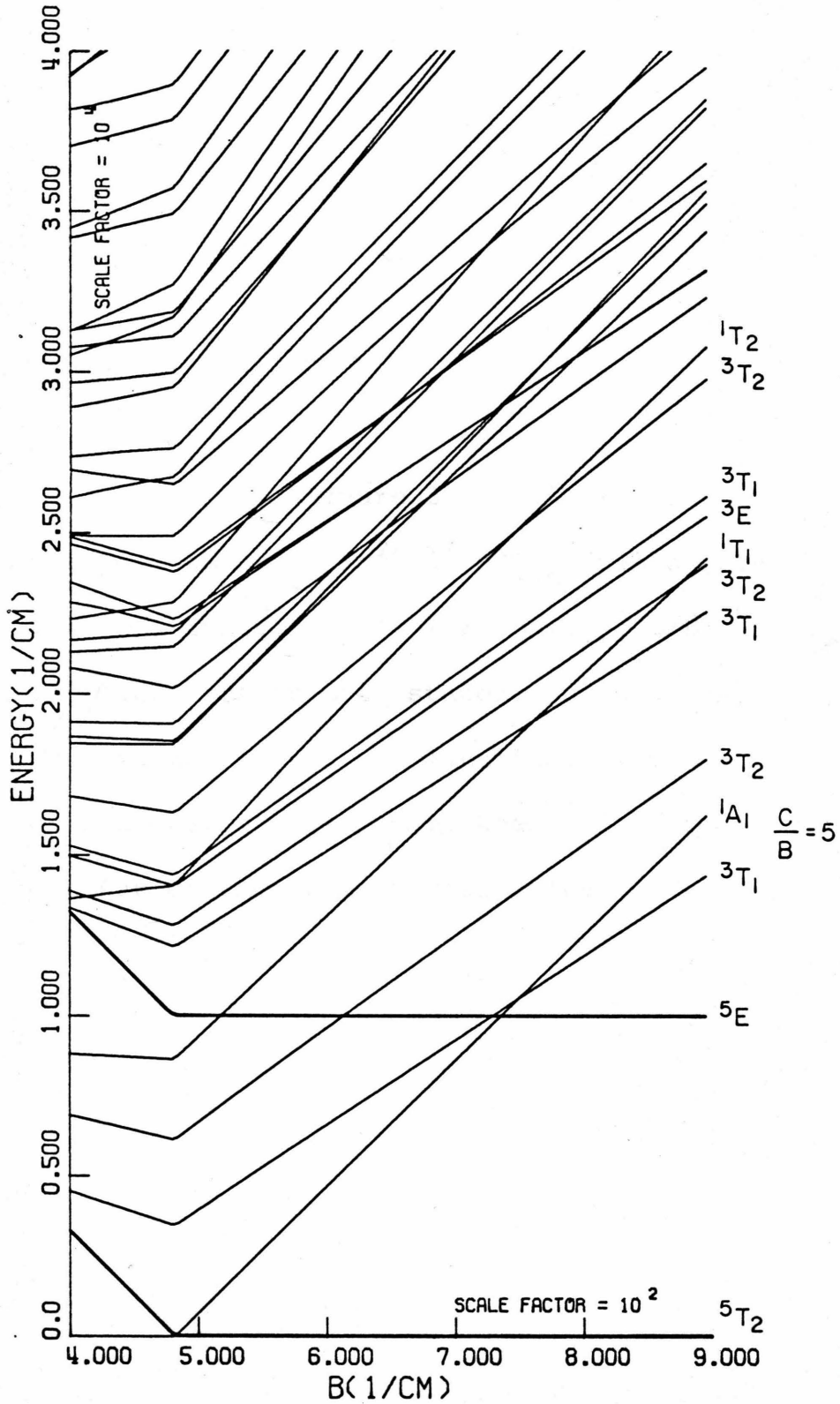


Figure 3

Energy of states of Fe^{2+} in a D_{4h} (gillespite)

field as a function of B for constant C/B.

Heavy lines are quintet states. Some of the lower excited states are labelled. The one electron energy levels have been chosen to fit the observed spectrum of gillespite.

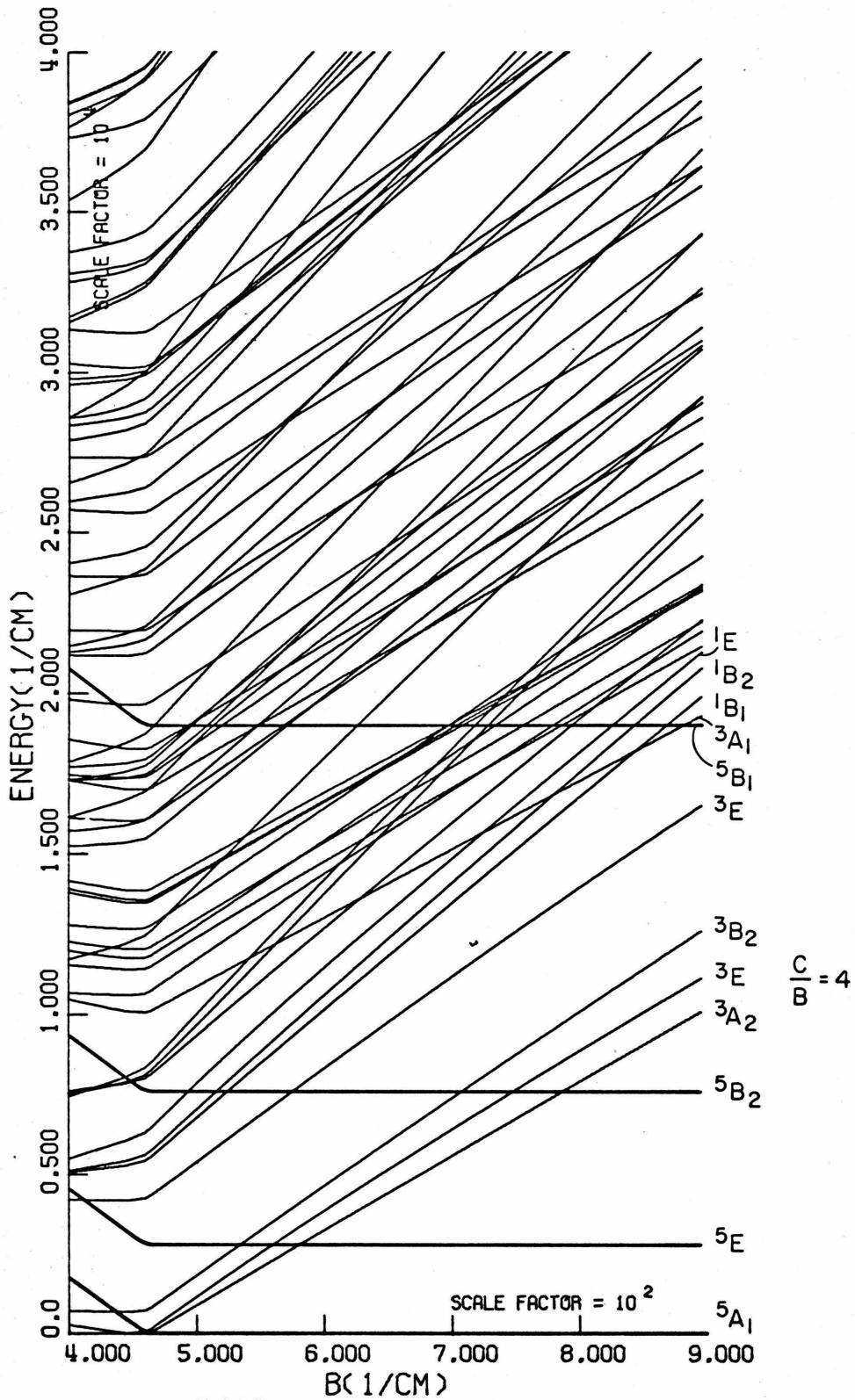


Figure 4

Energy of states of Fe^{2+} in a D_{4h} (gillespite) field as a function of B for constant C/B. Heavy lines are quintet states. Some of the lower excited states are labelled.

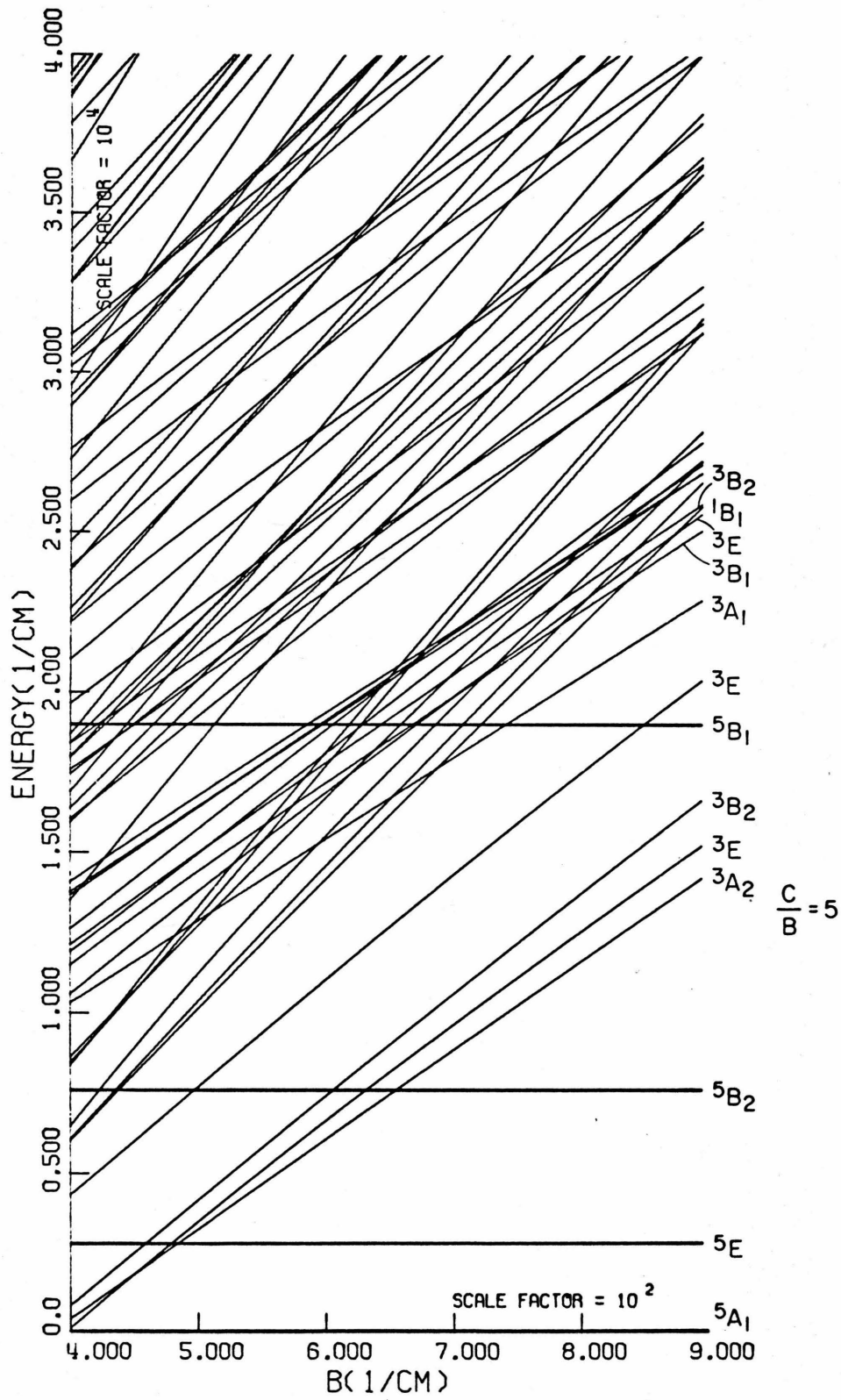
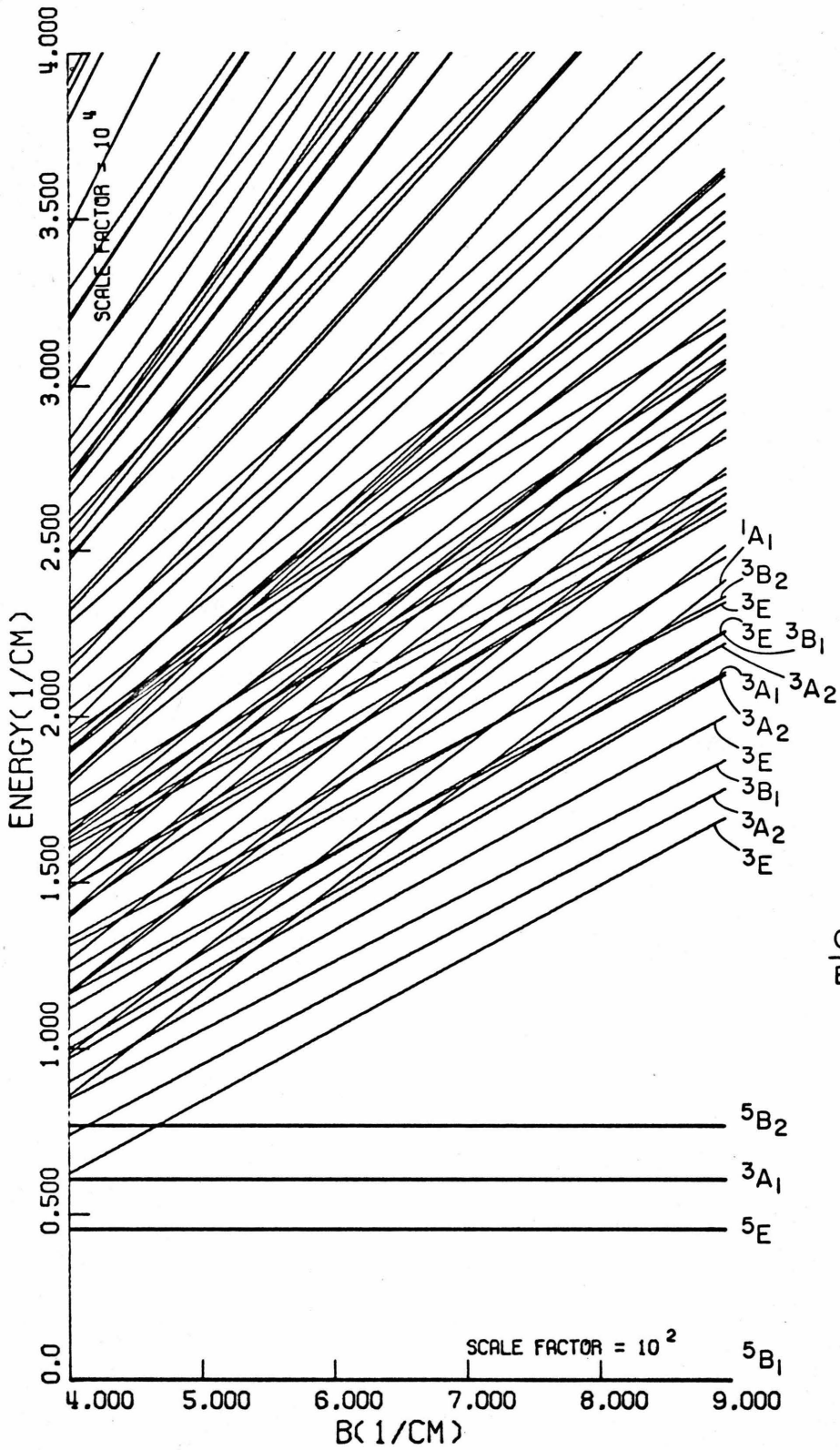


Figure 5

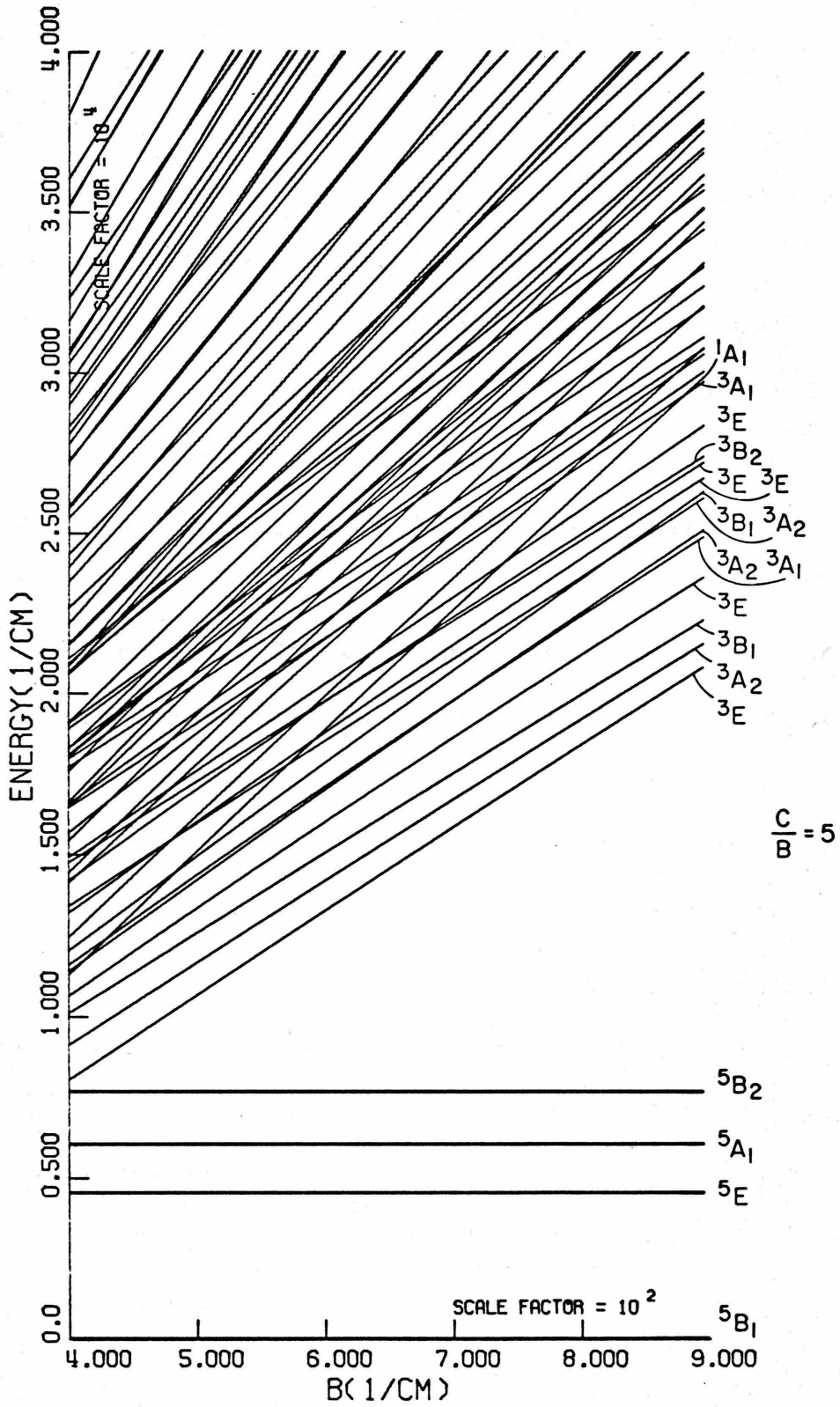
Energy of states of Fe^{2+} in a D_{2d} (garnet) field as a function of B for constant C/B . Heavy lines are quintet states. Some of the lower excited states are labelled. The one electron energy levels have been chosen to fit the observed spectrum of almandine garnet.



$$\frac{C}{B} = 4$$

Figure 6

Energy of states of Fe^{2+} in a D_{2d} (garnet) field as a function of B for constant C/B. Heavy lines are quintet states. Some of the lower excited states are labelled.



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III. ZERO PRESSURE SPECTRA OF FERROUS MINERALS

Changes in the spin multiplicity of the ground state of Fe^{2+} at high pressures have been observed in complex oxides. (1) The pressures required for such transitions can be predicted if the elastic properties of the host mineral and the parameters of the crystal field, Dq , B and C , are known. (2) These parameters must be determined from observed spectra, and the last two, the Racah parameters, can only be determined from spin-forbidden transitions. Assignments of spin-forbidden transitions in the spectra of ferrous minerals and compounds are rare in the literature. (3-6)

A. Spinel

In the course of an investigation of such bands in several silicates (vide infra) the spectra of $(\text{Mg}, \text{Fe})\text{Al}_2\text{O}_4$ previously published by Slack (7) have been reexamined. The system is an ideal one for studying such spectra because the Fe^{2+} is in the tetrahedral site. The matrix elements for d-electron wave functions in such a site have been determined (8) in terms of the crystal field parameter Dq and the Racah parameters. Furthermore, the site lacks

an inversion center which will permit considerably greater absorbances than in a centrosymmetric site.

The spectra of Slack's samples R75 and R97 are summarized in the first two columns of Table 1. In a few cases, the energies given in the table do not agree exactly with those given by Slack; these are all broad peaks on a sloping background and it is felt that the values quoted here (obtained by assigning the transition energy to the point at which a line parallel to the baseline is tangent to the spectrum) are a better estimate of the transition energies. The intense absorption near $2.5 \mu\text{m}$ (4000 cm^{-1}) was assigned to spin-allowed transitions of 3d electrons on Fe^{2+} ions in the tetrahedral sites. Several weaker features in the visible were assigned to similar transitions on minor amounts of Cr^{3+} and Fe^{3+} (principally in octahedral sites). Weak absorptions near $1 \mu\text{m}$ ($10,000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$) were assigned to octahedral $\text{Fe}^{2+} - \text{Fe}^{3+}$ charge transfer.

There is little doubt as to the validity of the assignment of the $2.5 \mu\text{m}$ bands, especially in light of Slack et al.'s excellent low temperature study of them (9). However, the assignments of many of the remaining weaker bands are awkward. All of the transitions are assigned to minor

Table 1. Spectral Assignments for (Mg,Fe)Al₂O₄

Slack's Assignment ^a	Observed Energy ^b (cm ⁻¹)	Present Assignment	Calculated Energy (cm ⁻¹)	
			4 bands ^c	7 bands ^d
Fe ²⁺ in T 5E + 5T ₂	{ 3600 } { 4900 }	Fe ²⁺ in T 5E + 5T ₂	4390	4390
Fe ²⁺ in O	9500	Fe ²⁺ in O 5T ₂ + 5E	-	-
Fe ²⁺ -Fe ³⁺ charge transfer	10800			
Fe ²⁺ in O	14300	Fe ²⁺ in T 5E + 3T ₁	14290	14260
Cr ³⁺ in O 4A ₂ + 4T ₂	18100	Fe ²⁺ in T 5E + 3T ₁	18130	18100
Fe ³⁺ in T 6Γ + 4Γ	19400	Fe ²⁺ in T 5E + 3A ₂	19600	19590
Fe ³⁺ in T 6Γ + 4Γ	21400	Fe ²⁺ in T 5E + 3T ₁	21410	21390
Cr ³⁺ in O 4A ₂ + 2T ₂	21900	Fe ²⁺ in T 5E + 3E	21830	21870
Cr ³⁺ in O 4A ₂ + 4T ₁	{ 26050 } { 27000 }	Fe ²⁺ in T 5E + 3T ₁	26000	25980
		Fe ²⁺ in T 5E + 3E	27040	27130
Cr ³⁺ in O 4A ₂ + 2A ₁	28600	Fe ²⁺ in T 5E + 3T ₂	28250	28360

Crystal field parameters	}	Dq	439 cm ⁻¹	439 cm ⁻¹
		B	703 cm ⁻¹	714 cm ⁻¹
		C	3422 cm ⁻¹	3405 cm ⁻¹
Standard deviation ^e	σ	42 cm ⁻¹	110 cm ⁻¹	

a. O indicates octahedral site; T indicates tetrahedral.

b. See text for discrepancy between some of these values and those of Slack (ref. 1).

c. Best fit using only peaks at 18100, 21900, 26050, and 27000 cm⁻¹ as constraints.

d. Best fit including peaks at 14300, 14400, and 28600 cm⁻¹ with half the statistical weight of those in c.

e. Does not include spin-allowed peak (4390 cm⁻¹).

constituents of the spinel in the nearly centrosymmetric octahedral site and many of those proposed are spin-forbidden. If one must appeal to spin-forbidden transitions to explain the spectra of these spinels, it is more reasonable to first consider such transitions for the predominant transition-metal ion. Indeed, it is shown below that every one of the visible spectral features can be assigned to a spin-forbidden (quintet to triplet) transition of Fe^{2+} in tetrahedral sites in a consistent fashion.

A revised assignment of the spinel spectra is given in the third column of Table 1. Values of Dq , B and C were calculated to give a least squares fit to two sets of data. In the first set only the four sharp transitions were the energies given in the table agree with Slack's energies were used; in the second set the other peaks were also included with a statistical weight of 0.5. In both cases the spin-allowed band at about 4000 cm^{-1} was not used to constrain the fit. The values of Dq , B and C are virtually identical for the two models. Furthermore, the value of Dq (439 cm^{-1}) is less than 2 percent lower than the value obtained from low-temperature studies of the

spin-allowed bands (9). The values of B and C are less than the free ion values of 1058 cm^{-1} and 3901 cm^{-1} , respectively. (10) This is reasonable since bonding will tend to reduce electron repulsion. The ratio C/B is near that of several other ferrous minerals described below.

The value of Dq in the spinel structure deserves some comment. Based on the model of Chapter II, it is predicted that

$$r^5(O_h) Dq(O_h) = -\frac{9}{4} r^5(T_d) Dq(T_d).$$

In many oxides (5) $r(O_h) \sim 2.15 \text{ \AA}$ and $Dq(O_h) \sim 1000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$. So for $r(T_d) = 1.81 \text{ \AA}$ as in spinel (9) we expect $Dq(T_d)$ to be about 1000 cm^{-1} . Such a large deviation of experiment from theory indicates that our assumption of pure ionic bonding may be incorrect. It is likely that in the spinels there is appreciable π -bonding between the ligand $2p(\pi)$ orbitals and the $Fe^{2+} e_g$ orbitals which effectively raises the energy of the latter by almost 6000 cm^{-1} . Such a large amount of mixing of ligand orbitals with e_g orbitals will make the detailed analysis of Slack et al. (9) uncertain as regard to spin-orbit coupling. However, as stated in Chapter II, this should decrease the Racah coefficients but

such an effect is not apparent. It is likely that the assumptions leading to Equation (6) in Chapter II are not valid for such short interatomic separations.

It is interesting to note that tetrahedral Fe^{2+} does not have any spin-forbidden transitions in the vicinity of $1 \mu\text{m}$, thus supporting Slack's conclusion that there is some octahedral Fe^{2+} in these specimens. Note however that we assign the peak at $10,800 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ to this site rather than the one at $14,300 \text{ cm}^{-1}$. This reduces the Jahn-Teller splitting in the ${}^5\text{E}$ state of octahedral Fe^{2+} to 1300 cm^{-1} , a value nearer to that observed in other materials (11) than Slack's value of 3400 cm^{-1} .

B. Garnets

The spectra of several garnets are reported here: a rhodolite, two spessartines, an andradite, and a hessonite. Only the former is directly of interest to the purpose of this work, the evaluation of the behavior of Fe^{2+} in the lower mantle — the others were studied so that the contributions of Fe^{3+} and Mn^{2+} to the rhodolite spectra could be determined. The compositions of the garnets (as determined by electron microprobe) are given in Table 2 and the observed spectra are shown in Figures 1

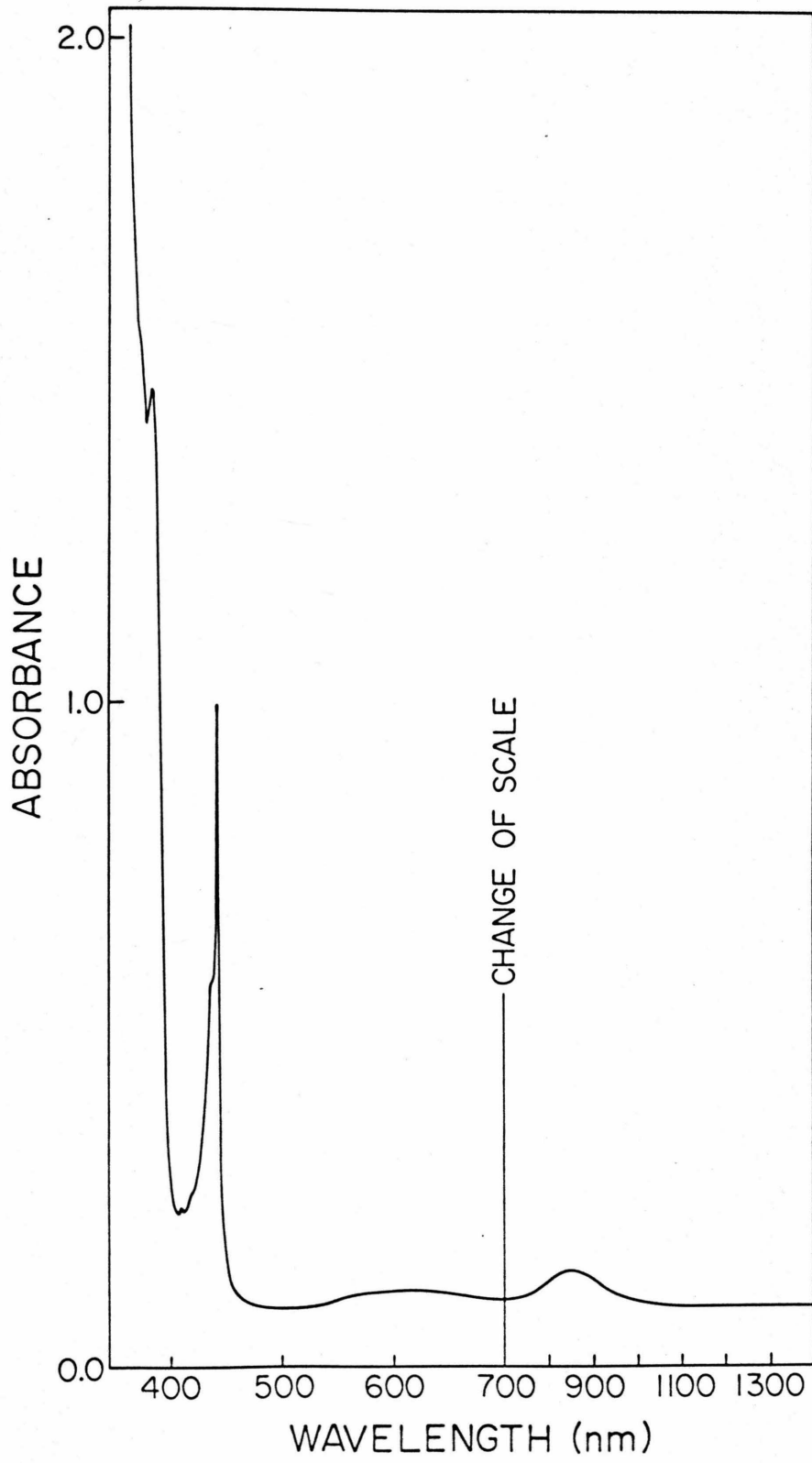
TABLE 2 CHEMICAL COMPOSITION OF SAMPLES

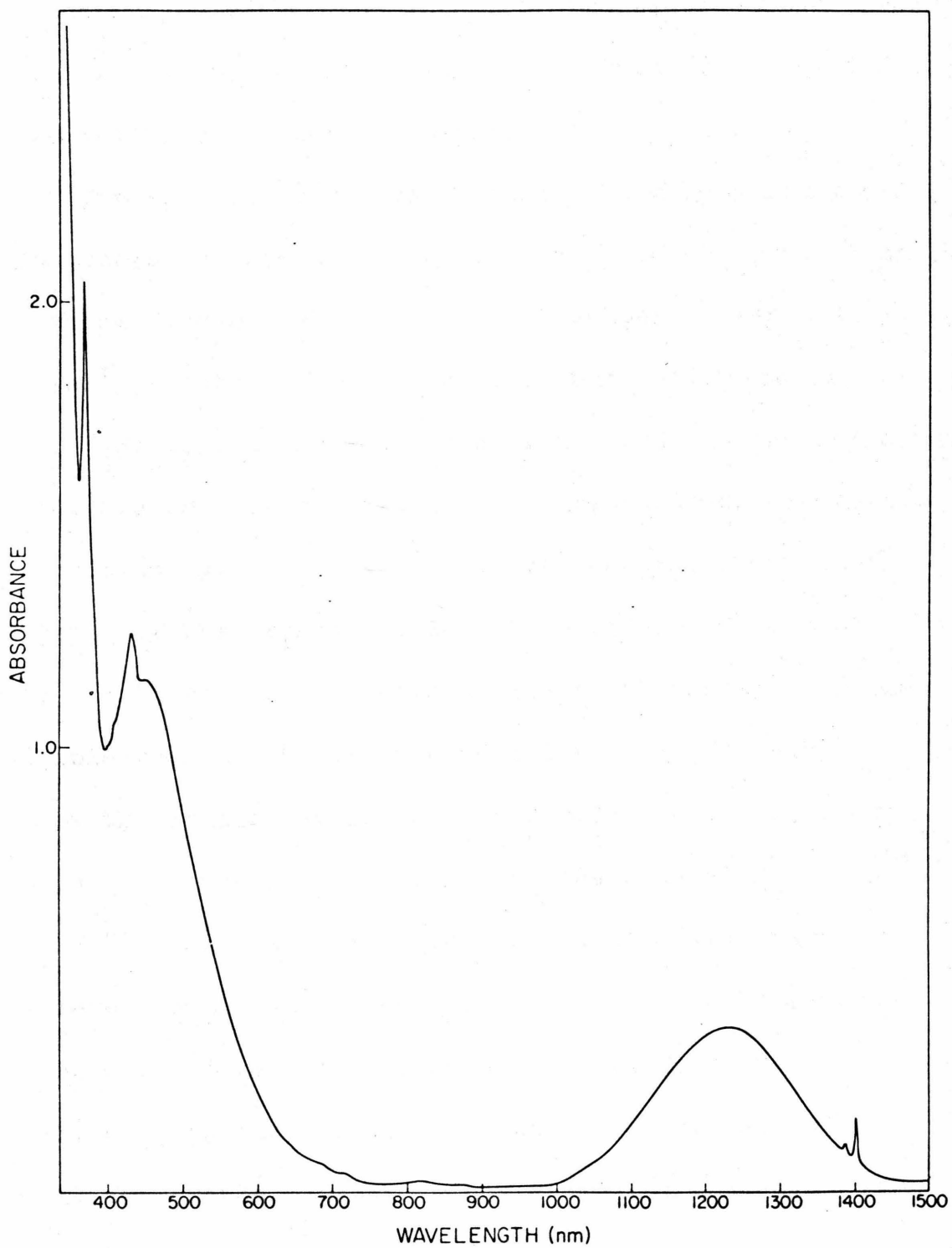
MINERAL	COMPOSITION
Dementoid	$(\text{Ca}_{3.03}\text{Mg}_{.01})\text{Fe}_{1.97}^{3+}\text{Si}_{2.98}^0_{12}$
Hessonite	$(\text{Ca}_{2.86}\text{Mn}_{.01}\text{Fe}_{.11}^{2+})\text{Al}_{1.91}\text{Fe}_{.09}^{3+}\text{Si}_{3.01}^0_{12}$
Spessartine	$(\text{Mn}_{2.89}\text{Fe}_{.07}^{2+}\text{Ca}_{.06})\text{Al}_{2.02}\text{Si}_{2.96}^0_{12}$
Almandine- Spessartine	$(\text{Fe}_{1.61}^{2+}\text{Mn}_{1.36}\text{Ca}_{0.03})\text{Al}_{1.99}\text{Si}_{2.98}^0_{12}$
Rhodolite	$(\text{Mg}_{1.83}^{2+}\text{Fe}_{.99}^{2+}\text{Ca}_{.14}\text{Mn}_{.04})\text{Al}_{2.01}\text{Si}_{2.99}^0_{12}$
Gillespite	$\text{Ba}_{.98}\text{Na}_{.01}\text{Fe}_{.97}\text{Mg}_{.01}\text{Si}_4^0_{10}$
Tephroite	$\text{Mn}_{1.85}\text{Mg}_{.09}\text{Fe}_{.02}\text{Ca}_{.04}\text{Si}_4^0$
Peridot	$(\text{Mg}_{1.76}\text{Fe}_{.22}^{2+}\text{Mn}_{.002}\text{Ca}_{.003})\text{Si}_{1.005}^0_4$

Figure 1

Spectra of ferric iron silicate garnets:

a) dementoid, .455 mm thick and b)hessonite.



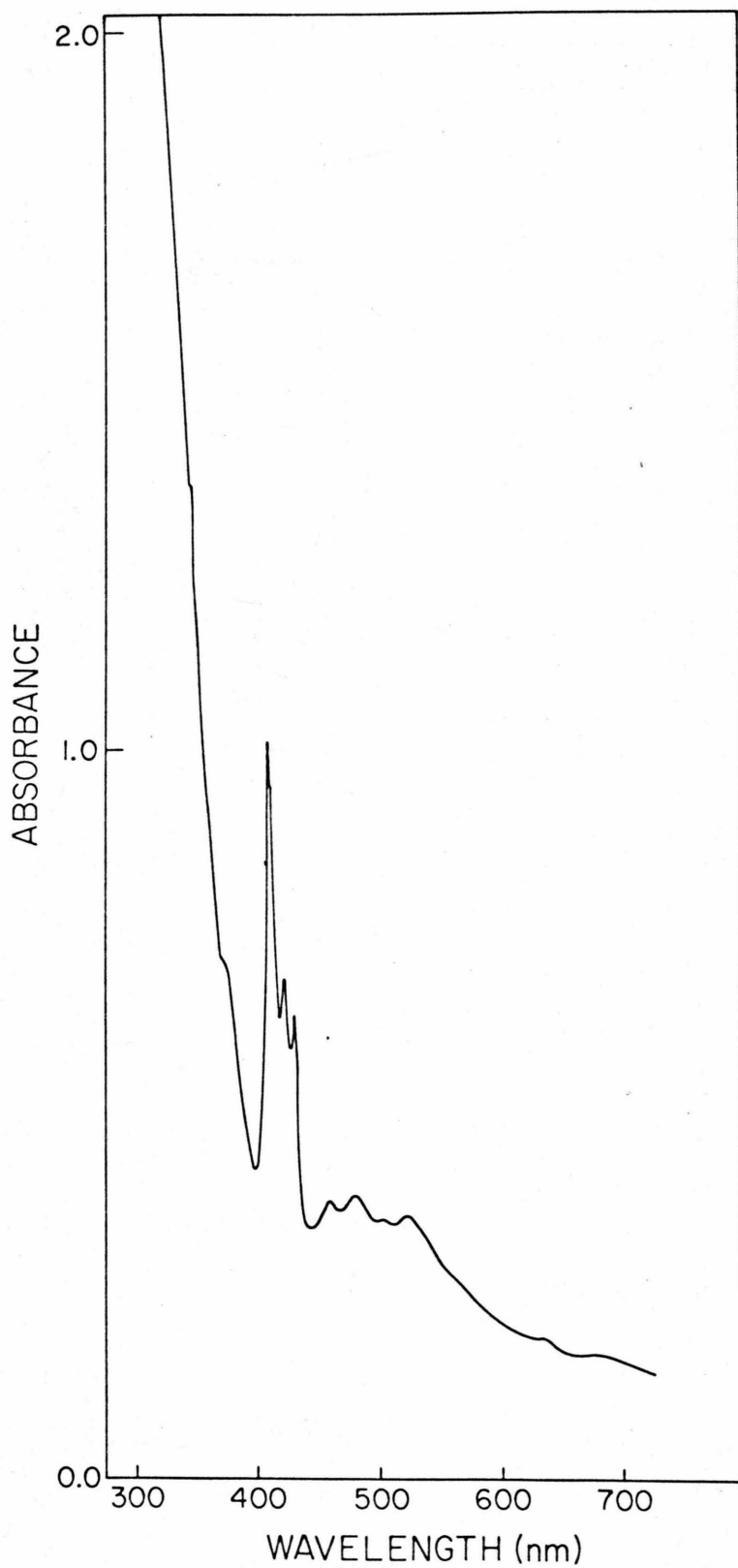


through 3. All spectra were measured on a Cary 17 spectrophotometer, by either the author or Professor George Rossman, with the exception of the low temperature spectra, which were measured by Charles Cowman.

The spectra of silicate garnets have been studied for many years by several authors. For a recent compilation of these studies, see Table 2 of Slack and Chrenko (12). For all garnets with even small amounts of almandine ($\text{Fe}_3\text{Al}_2\text{Si}_3\text{O}_{12}$) there are three broad bands in the infrared. These are universally assigned to spin-allowed electronic transitions among the Fe^{2+} quintets separated due to effects of the crystal field. In more almandine-rich garnets there are also several weaker absorptions in the visible region. Since 1928 most investigators have followed the lead of Weigel and Ufer (13), assigning these features to transitions of impurities such as Cr^{3+} , Fe^{3+} and Mn^{2+} . Only Anderson (14) and Manning (15) have expressed doubt about these assignments. Both of these authors preferred to attribute these bands to spin-forbidden transitions of Fe^{2+} , the major transition metal ion, rather than to minor elements; they did not however, make any specific assignments.

Figure 2

Spectra of manganous silicate garnets: a) spessartine, .69 mm thick and b) spessartine-almandine \sim .7 mm thick.



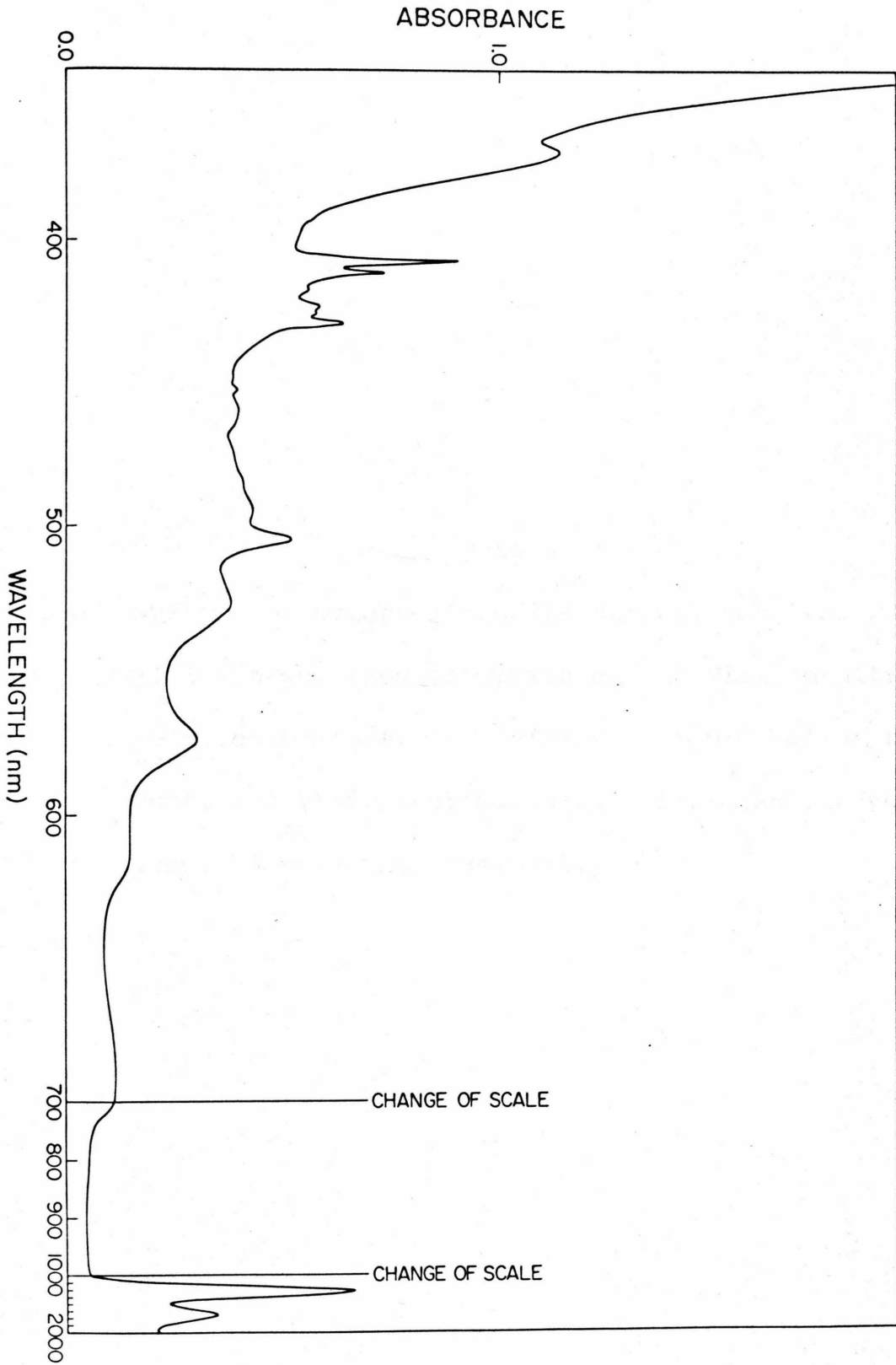
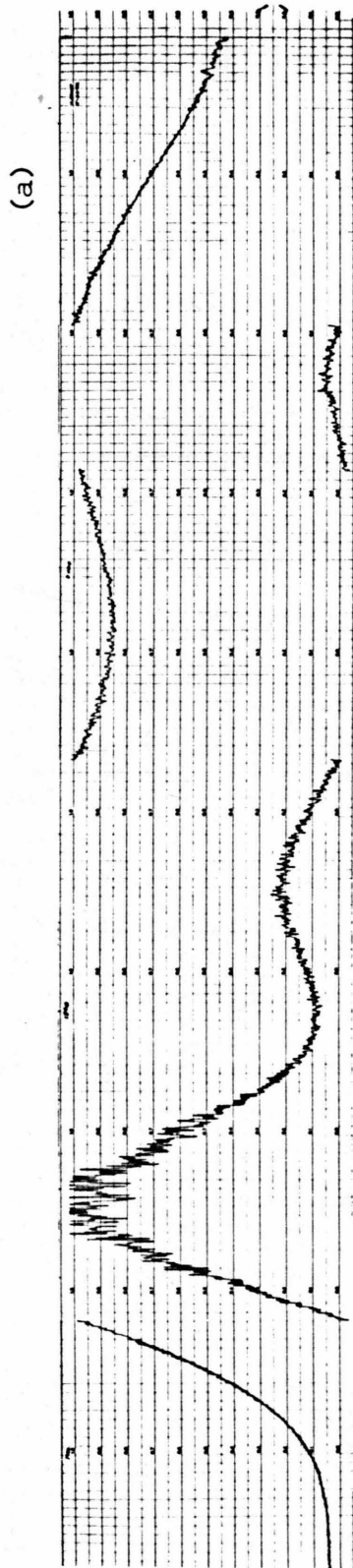


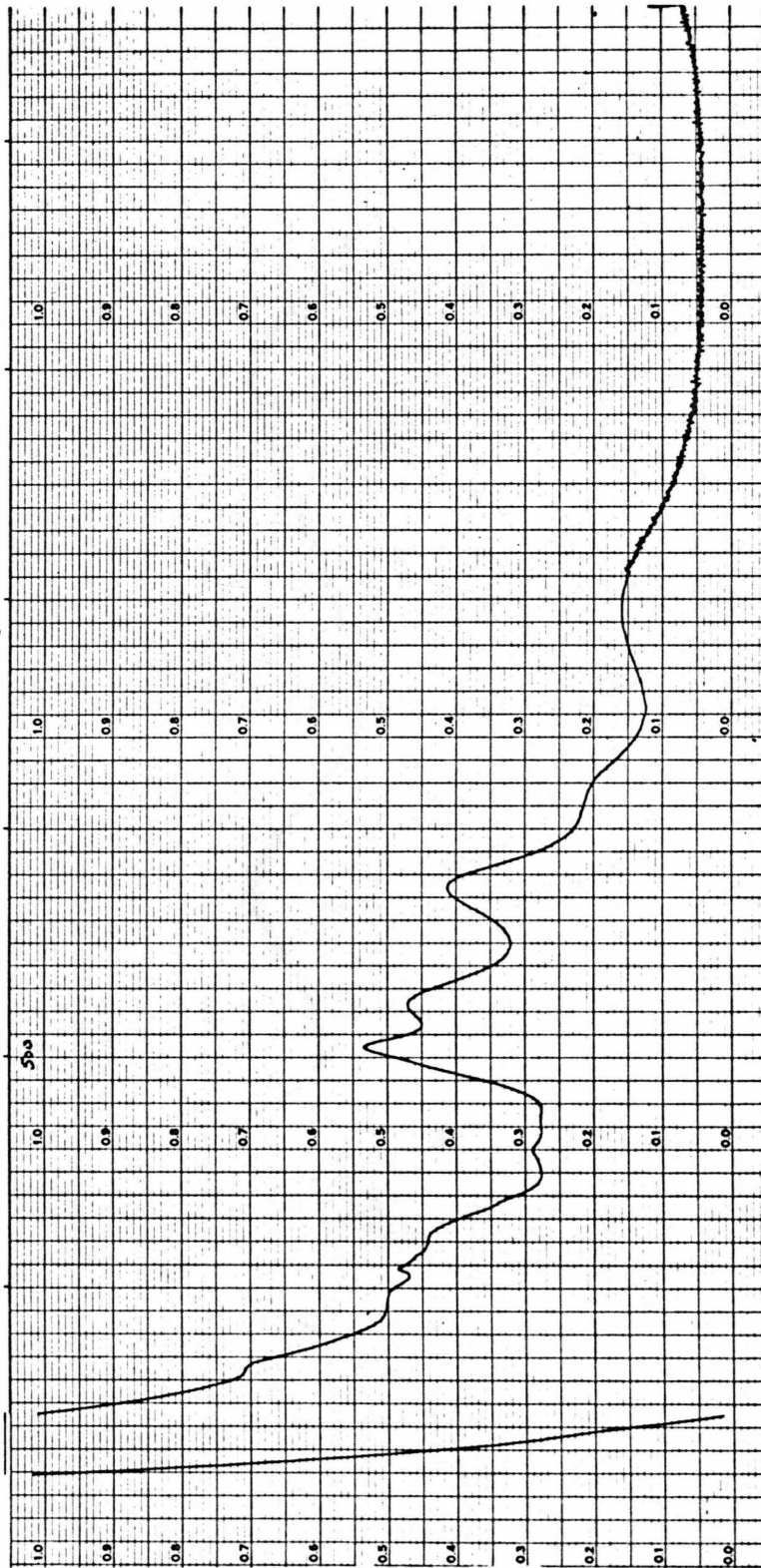
Figure 3

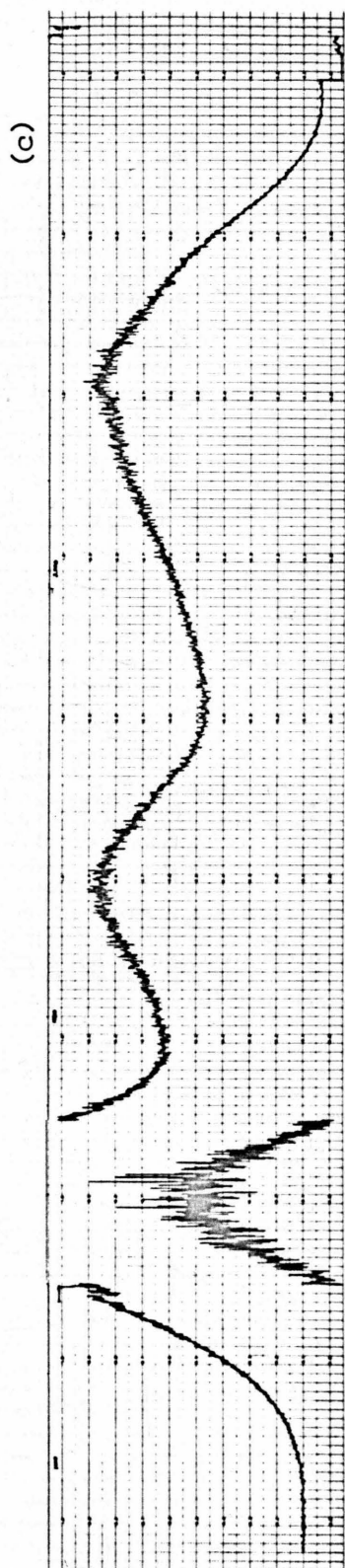
Spectra of pyrope-almandine garnet, var. rhodolite.

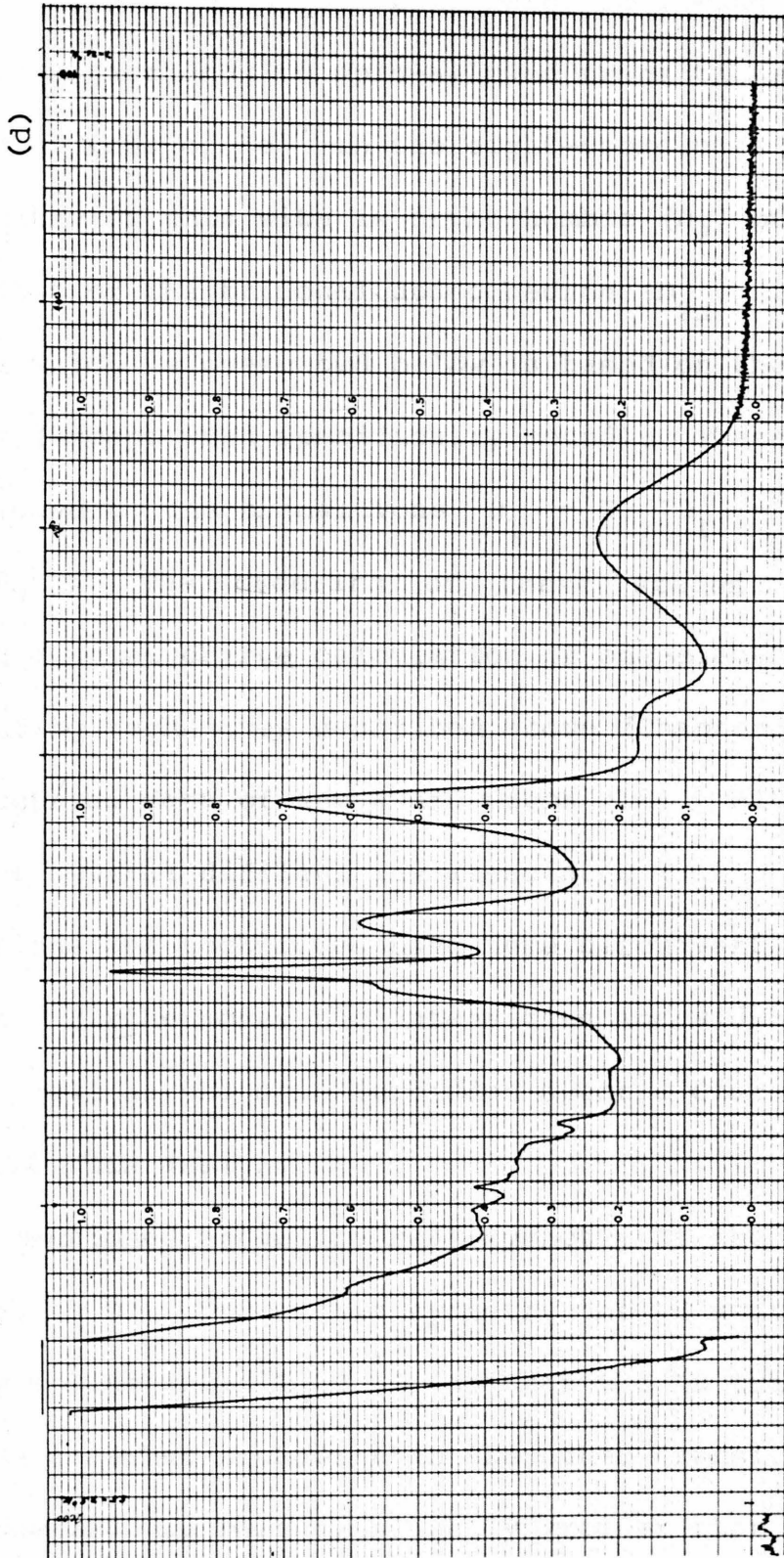
a) Infrared, room temperature. b) Visible-ultraviolet, room temperature. c) Infrared, liquid helium temperature. d) Visible-ultraviolet, liquid helium temperature. Sample thickness ~ 1.2 mm.



(b)







The infrared bands observed here, following earlier workers, are assigned to spin-allowed transitions among the 3d electrons of Fe^{2+} in the eight-coordinate site. The symmetry of this site is orthorhombic (D_2) but is very nearly that of the trigonal dodecahedron (D_{2d}) (16). The analysis which is presented below is based on the D_{2d} symmetry (except when specifically noted). These bands are assigned to the transitions ${}^5B_1 \rightarrow {}^5E$, ${}^5B_1 \rightarrow {}^5A_1$, and ${}^5B_1 \rightarrow {}^5B_2$. The ordering of these states is based on a point charge calculation of one-electron energy levels using techniques described above (Chapter II) and the structural data of Novak and Gibbs (16). Although there are several difficulties associated with point charge calculations the techniques used here circumvent the worst of these. Furthermore, the intensities and widths of the bands as well as the spin-forbidden spectra discussed below do support this assignment.

As mentioned above the real symmetry of the Fe^{2+} site in garnet is D_2 . Under this symmetry the 5E state of D_{2d} symmetry splits into ${}^5B_2 + {}^5B_3$ so that the 5E transitions should be somewhat broader than the other transitions. Indeed the 2200 nm band is slightly broader than the others.

Furthermore, under the selection rules of D_2 the transition (in D_{2d} terminology) ${}^5B_1 \rightarrow {}^5A_1$ is forbidden and this is the weakest of the three bands. None of the above arguments by itself justifies the assignments given, but the combination permits some confidence.

In the visible and ultraviolet region of the spectra let us first consider the demantoid and hessonite. Both of these minerals have octahedral Fe^{3+} as their dominant transition metal. Ferric iron has no spin-allowed electronic transitions so we should expect the absorption features to be fairly weak. Both spectra show absorption features near 440 nm — sharp in demantoid and broader in hessonite. In the hessonite there is a distinct peak at about 370 nm while in demantoid there is only a shoulder and a sharp peak at 383 nm. It is suggested that the features at 440 nm and 383 nm are due to octahedral Fe^{3+} and that smaller amounts of Mn^{2+} in the non-centrosymmetric D_{2d} dominate the spectra of andradite and hessonite. A complete assignment of these spectra is given in Table 3 along with the inferred values of Dq , B and C .

Next, consider the spessartine spectra. The most abundant transition metal in these specimens is dodecahedral

TABLE 3 SPECTRA OF FERRIC GARNETS

DEMENTOID		HESSONITE		ANDRADITE		ASSIGNMENT
$\lambda(\text{nm})$	$E_{\text{obs}}(\text{cm}^{-1})$	$E_{\text{calc}}(\text{cm}^{-1})$	$\lambda(\text{nm})$	$E_{\text{obs}}(\text{cm}^{-1})$	$\lambda(\text{nm})$	$E_{\text{obs}}(\text{cm}^{-1})$
373	26810		368	27170	373	26810
383	26110	25986	385	25970		
408.5	24480		410	24390	410	24390
418	23920					
434	23070		433	22780		
440	22730	23180			438	22830
			450	22220		
596	16810	16743	470	21280	470	21280
855	11700	11767	815	12290		

Dq = 1381 cm⁻¹ B = 774 cm⁻¹ C = 3089 cm⁻¹
 Standard deviation of fit for demantoid = 136 cm⁻¹

Mn^{2+} which is isoelectronic with Fe^{3+} and likewise has no spin-allowed bands. However, since the dodecahedral site lacks an inversion center, we can expect stronger absorptions than in the case of Fe^{3+} . Although some of the bands and shoulders are assigned to Fe^{2+} spin-forbidden transitions, the most prominent are due to Mn^{2+} (see Table 4 for complete assignments). Because of the low symmetry of the dodecahedral site (D_2 , nearly D_{2d}) the 4A_1 , 4E band usually seen at 410 nm in Mn^{2+} compounds (17) is split into three bands at 408 nm, 422 nm and 431 nm. The 4T_2 band at 450 nm in most minerals (17) is split into two bands at 461 nm and 482 nm. These bands are much weaker than the 408-431 nm group (less than 0.1 as intense). Finally, the 4T_1 absorption is virtually unaffected at 535 nm and has roughly the same intensity as the 460-480 group.

Having determined the positions of Fe^{3+} and Mn^{2+} absorptions in garnets where they are major constituents, let us now turn to the analysis of the rhodolite where they are minor components, and Fe^{2+} is the dominant transition metal. This spectrum is much more complicated than the others, especially at liquid helium temperatures. Most of the features in the visible portion of the spectrum

TABLE 4 SPECTRA OF MANGANOUS GARNETS

AMELIA SPESSARTINE			SPESSARTINE-ALMANDINE		ASSIGNMENT
$\lambda(\text{nm})$	$E_{\text{obs}}(\text{cm}^{-1})$	$E_{\text{calc}}^{\text{a}}(\text{cm}^{-1})$	$\lambda(\text{nm})$	$E_{\text{obs}}(\text{cm}^{-1})$	
345	28990	28441			${}^6A_1 \rightarrow {}^4E$
351	28490				
376	26760	26762	373	26810	${}^6A_1 \rightarrow {}^4T_2$
			408	24510	
408	24510	23870	412	24270	
			418	23920	
422	23700		423	23640	${}^6A_1 \rightarrow {}^4A_1, {}^4E$
			427	23420	
431	23200		429	23310	
		453	22080		
461	21690	21628	{ 461	{ 21690	${}^6A_1 \rightarrow {}^4T_2 \begin{cases} \nearrow {}^4E \\ \searrow {}^4A_1 \end{cases}$
482	20750		{ 485 (?)	{ 20620	
			493	20280	
505	19800		505	19800	Fe^{2+}
535	18690	18482	528	18940	Fe^{2+} and $\text{Mn}^{2+}: {}^6A_1 \rightarrow {}^4T_1$
572	17480		574	17420	Fe^{2+}
			603	16580	
637	15700		616	16230	
672	14880				
710	14080		694	14410	

$$Dq = 786 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

$$B = 653 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

$$C = 3468 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

Standard deviation of fit for spessartine = 220 cm^{-1}

a. Grouping bands as shown and using O_h symmetry.

are attributable to spin-forbidden transitions of dodecahedral Fe^{2+} although some bands are attributed to Mn^{2+} and Fe^{3+} . Indeed, using matrix elements of D_{2d} symmetry (18) it is possible to fit the observed spectrum exceedingly well. Using a least squares technique* to optimize the fit to all but four of eighteen bands, B and C are determined to be 638 cm^{-1} and 3245 cm^{-1} , respectively. The observed and calculated transitions are listed in Table 5.

The primary effort in fitting the observed spectrum was directed toward the six strongest peaks between $14,000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ and $21,000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$. The initial assignment of bands to electronic transitions was done with the aid of energy level diagrams similar to Figures 5 and 6 in Chapter II. The agreement there is very good. As a result of such a fit it was found that almost all of the observed bands should be assigned to spin-forbidden transitions on Fe^{2+} . The calculated energies in Table 5 are the results

* A computer program for D_{2d} , D_4 , D_{4h} and C_{4v} symmetries was adapted from a program written by J. C. Thibeault for O_h and T_d symmetries. This latter program was used in analysis of the olivine data discussed in a later section.

TABLE 5 SPECTRUM OF RHODOLITE GARNET

WAVELENGTH λ (nm)	ENERGY (cm^{-1})	EXCITED STATE	ENERGY (cm^{-1}) ^b CALCULATED DIFFERENCE	NOTES
2200	4545	$5E$		
1650	6060	$5A_1$		
1300	7690	$5B_2$		
698	14325	$3E$	14456	
620	16130	$3B_1$	16173	43
579	17270	$3E$	17176	- 94
526	19011	$3B_1$	19094	83
504	19840	$3A_2$	19696	144
496	20160	$3E$	20061	98
460	21740	$3E$		$Mn^{2+}: 6A_1 \rightarrow 4T_2$
451	22175			$Mn^{2+}: 6A_1 \rightarrow 4T_2$ (?)
436	22935	$3B_1$		$Fe^{3+}: 6A_1 \rightarrow 4A_1, 4E; Mn^{2+}: 6A_1 \rightarrow 4A_1, 4E$
427	23420	$3E$	23531	
420	23810		111	$Mn^{2+}: 6A_1 \rightarrow 4A_1, 4E$

a. $B = 629 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, $C = 3242 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, spin allowed bands as input. Assuming pure D_{2d} symmetry.

b. Standard deviation for Fe^{2+} bands is 92 cm^{-1} .

TABLE 5 SPECTRUM OF RHODOLITE GARNET

WAVELENGTH λ (nm)	ENERGY (cm^{-1})	EXCITED STATE	ENERGY (cm^{-1})	NOTES
			^a . CALCULATED DIFFERENCE	
			^b . DIFFERENCE	
413	24215	$3B_2$	24131	84
408	24510	$3A_2$		
397	25190	$3E$	25218	92
392	25510	$3A_1$	25415	95
363	27550			
345	28985	$3E$	28980	- 5
338	29585	$3B_2$	29591	6

$Mn^{2+} : 6A_1 \rightarrow 4A_1, 4E$

$Mn^{2+} : 6A_1 \rightarrow 4T_2$ (?)
 $Mn^{2+} : 6A_1 \rightarrow 4E$

a. $B = 629 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, $C = 3242 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, spin allowed bands as input. Assuming pure D_{2d} symmetry.

b. Standard deviation for Fe^{2+} bands is 92 cm^{-1} .

of a second calculation taking the complete assignments into account. The standard deviation of the resulting fit (92 cm^{-1}) is excellent in view of the complexity of the system considered and the fact that the actual symmetry is lower than that used in the calculations. Only three bands (22175 , 23810 , and 27550 cm^{-1}) are unassigned in this scheme. These bands together with two which could be assigned as well to Fe^{2+} (24510 and 28985 cm^{-1}) are attributed to Mn^{2+} and Fe^{3+} as shown in Table 5.

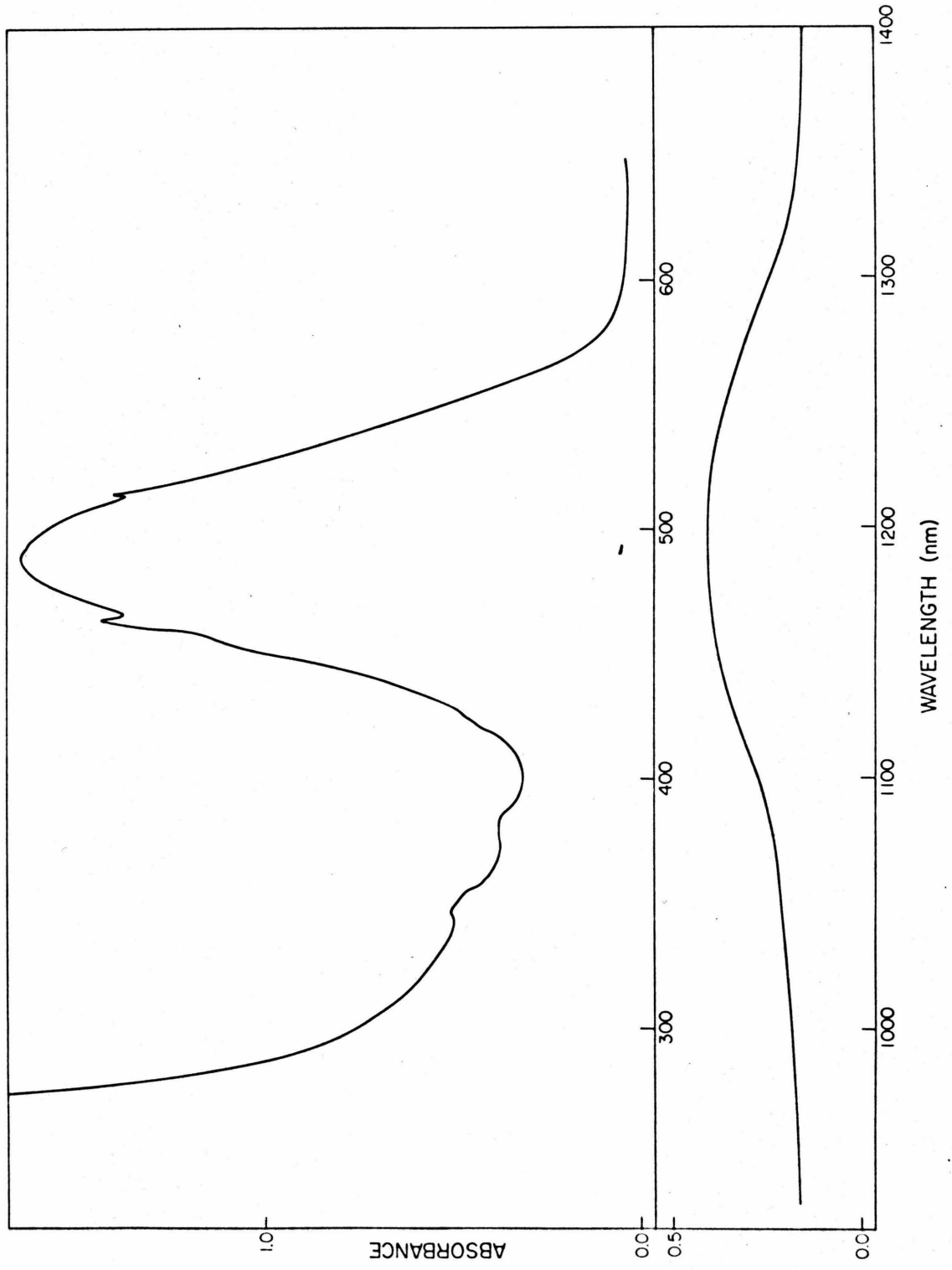
C. Gillespite

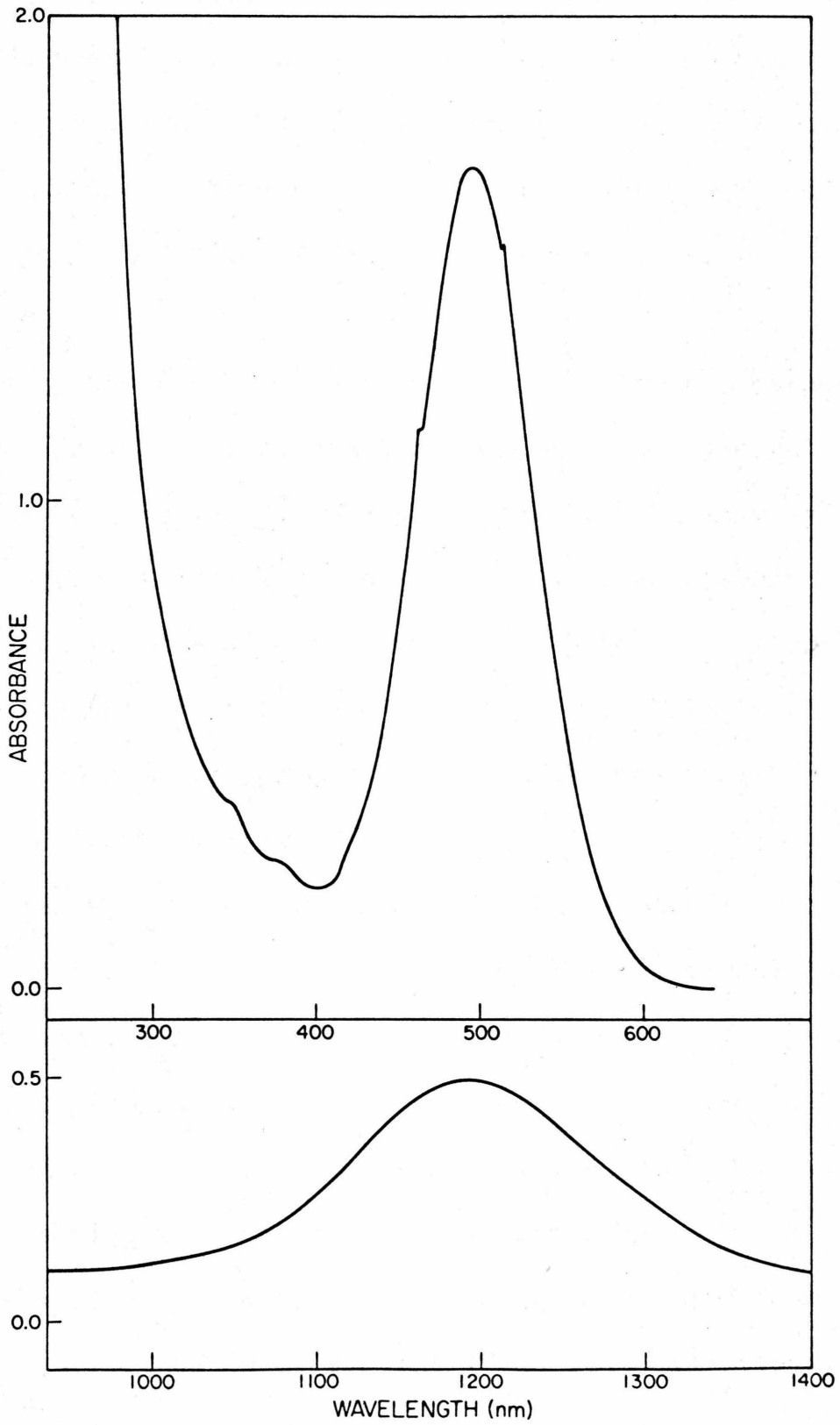
The spectrum of gillespite ($\text{BaFeSi}_4\text{O}_{10}$) has been reported by Burns (5). Spin-allowed transitions were observed at $20,000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ and 8000 cm^{-1} and a third transition near 2800 cm^{-1} was inferred from analysis of the spectrum of the Cu^{2+} analog of gillespite (19). The spectra of a sample of gillespite from Mariposa County, California at 300°K and 6°K are shown in Figure 4. The specimen was 0.75 mm thick, mounted on a fused quartz slide with the c-axis approximately in the direction of propagation. The results of an electron microprobe analysis of the sample appear in Table 2. In addition to

Figure 4

Spectra of gillespite, $\text{BaFeSi}_4\text{O}_{10}$. a) liquid helium temperature and b) room temperature.

Sample thickness $\sim .7$ mm.





the two peaks reported by Burns several very weak peaks are observed near 20,000 to 30,000 cm^{-1} at both high and low temperatures. These bands are attributed to spin-forbidden electronic transitions on the Fe^{2+} in square planar coordination (the structure of gillespite was reported by Wainwright (20)).

Using the procedure described in fitting the garnet spectrum the spin-forbidden bands are assigned and values for B and C determined. The positions of the peaks and the assignments are shown in Table 6. The values of B and C obtained are $B = 582 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ and $C = 2601 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ with $C/B = 4.47$. The values of B and C are very low. This is exactly the behavior predicted for small interatomic distances in Chapter II.

Given the values of B and C a modified Tanabe-Sugano diagram can be constructed for gillespite. Such diagram is shown in Figure 5 where the ratios of the separations of one electron energies are kept constant and the magnitude $1/2({}^5A_{1g} - {}^5B_{1g})$ or Y is used as the abscissa. It is interesting to note that only a little increase in Y is necessary in order to change the ground state from ${}^5A_{1g}$ to 3E_g . This is consistent with the experimental

TABLE 6. SPECTRUM OF GILLESPIE AT 6°K

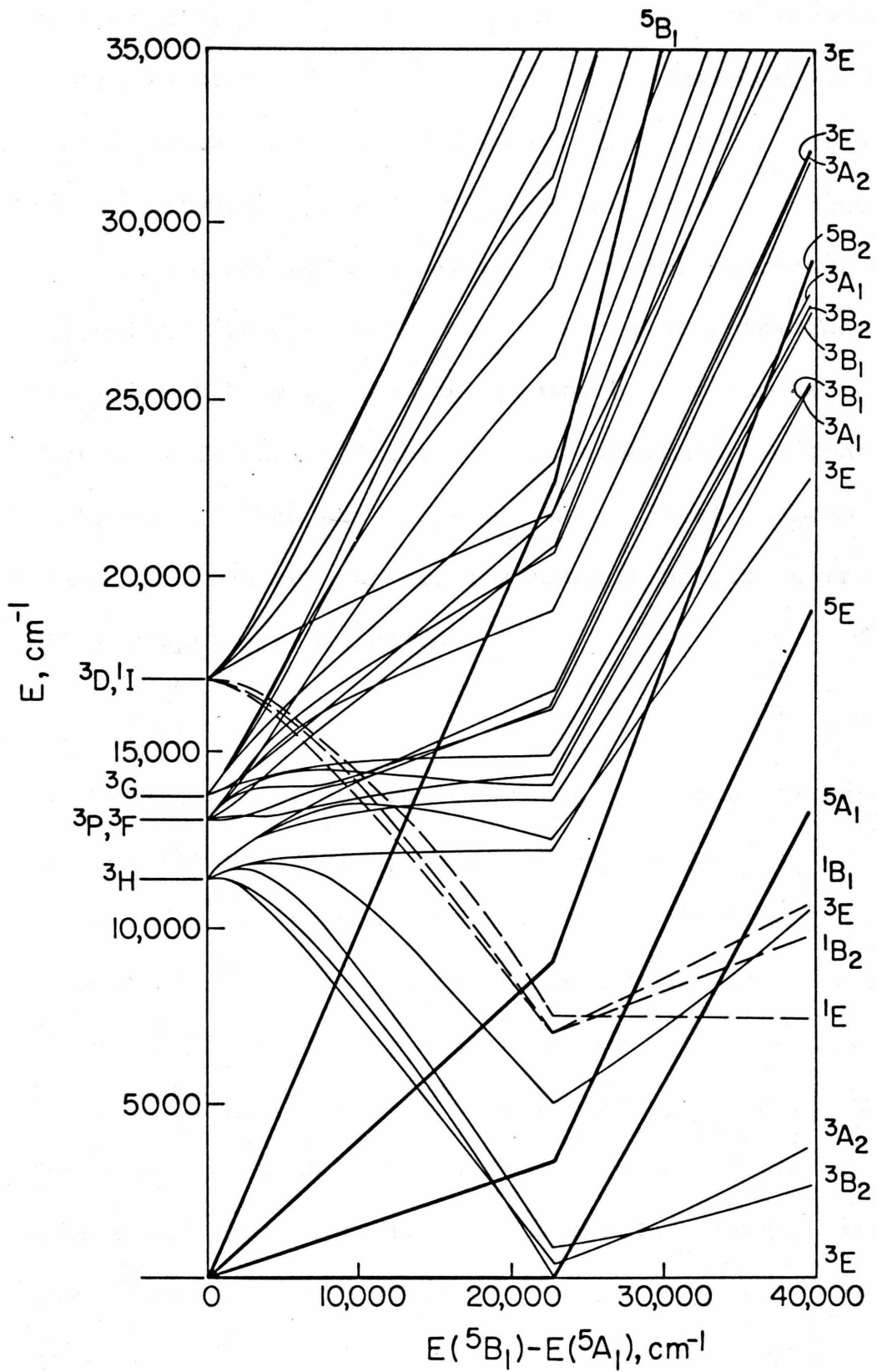
Wavelength λ (nm)	Energy (cm^{-1})	Excited State	Energy (cm^{-1})		
			a. Calculated	b. Difference	
		$3A_2$	2500		lowest triplet
		$5E$	2800		assumed c.f., Burns <i>et al.</i> 1969
1235	8100	$5B_2$	7600		+500 for phonon energy
		$1B_2$	9030		lowest singlet
514	19455	$3E, 3A_2$	19636, 19732	-229	
500	20000	$5B_1$	19000		+1000 phonon energy
463	21633}	$3A_1$	21847	-161	
460	21739}				
450	22222}				
425	23530}	$3B_2$	23484	184	
420	23810}				
382	26180}	$3A_2$	26488	-170	
378	26455}				
353	28330}	$3E$	28232	383	
346	28900}				
305	32800	$3E_1, 3B_1$	32547, 32474	290	

a. $B = 582 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, $C = 2601 \text{ cm}^{-1}$

b. for spin-forbidden bands only standard deviation 273 cm^{-1}

Figure 5

Modified Tanabe-Sugano diagram for Fe^{2+} in gillespite. $B = 526 \text{ cm}^{-1}$. $C = 2652 \text{ cm}^{-1}$. The ratios of the one electron energy levels are kept constant while the magnitude of the field varies. Heavy lines are quintet states, light lines are triplets and the dashed lines are singlets. Only the three lowest energy singlets are shown. At zero pressure the ground state is 5A_1 and ${}^5B_1 - {}^5A_1 = 19,000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ (19).



data of Strens (1) reporting an electronic phase transition at about 26 kbar. It does not seem justifiable to assign the high pressure phase a singlet ground state. However, using the revised estimate of Clark and Burns (19) for the ${}^5E_g - {}^5A_{1g}$ splitting, and Strens' formulae, a greater range of stability for the triplet state would be predicted. The featureless nature of the high pressure spectrum as reported by Clark and Burns (19) is apparently in conflict with the prediction based on the energy level diagram. Perhaps the spectrum appears featureless because there are many overlapping broad bands.

D. Olivines

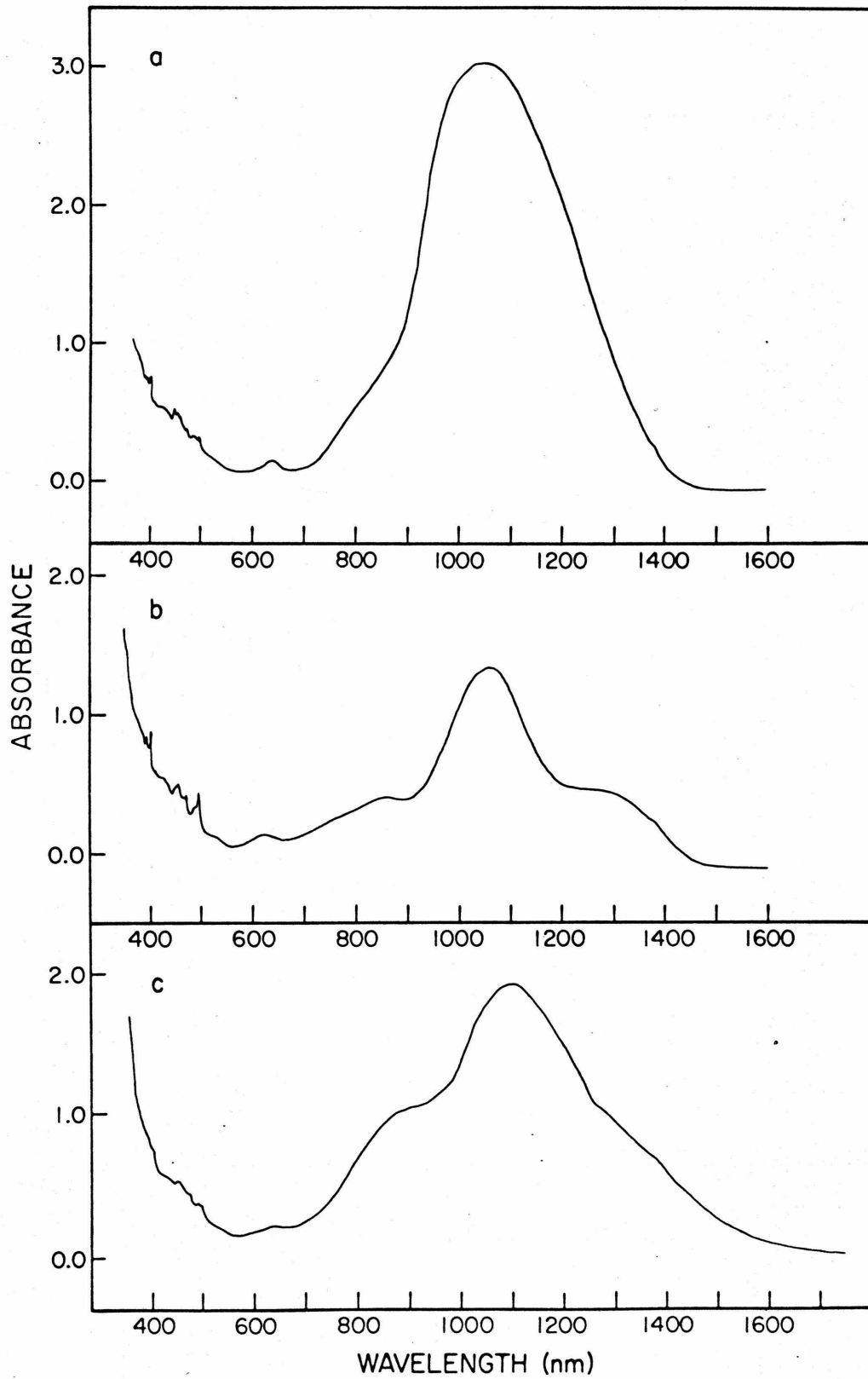
The spectra of several olivines have been described in considerable detail by Burns (4) who was primarily interested in the spin-allowed bands near 1000 nm. The spectra of Fe^{2+} -olivines show numerous weak bands in the visible which are usually attributed to spin-forbidden Fe^{2+} transitions. However, detailed assignments are not often made. Caution is certainly justified in considering the spin-forbidden spectra of olivines because Fe^{2+} occurs in two sites which are (different) distorted octahedra.

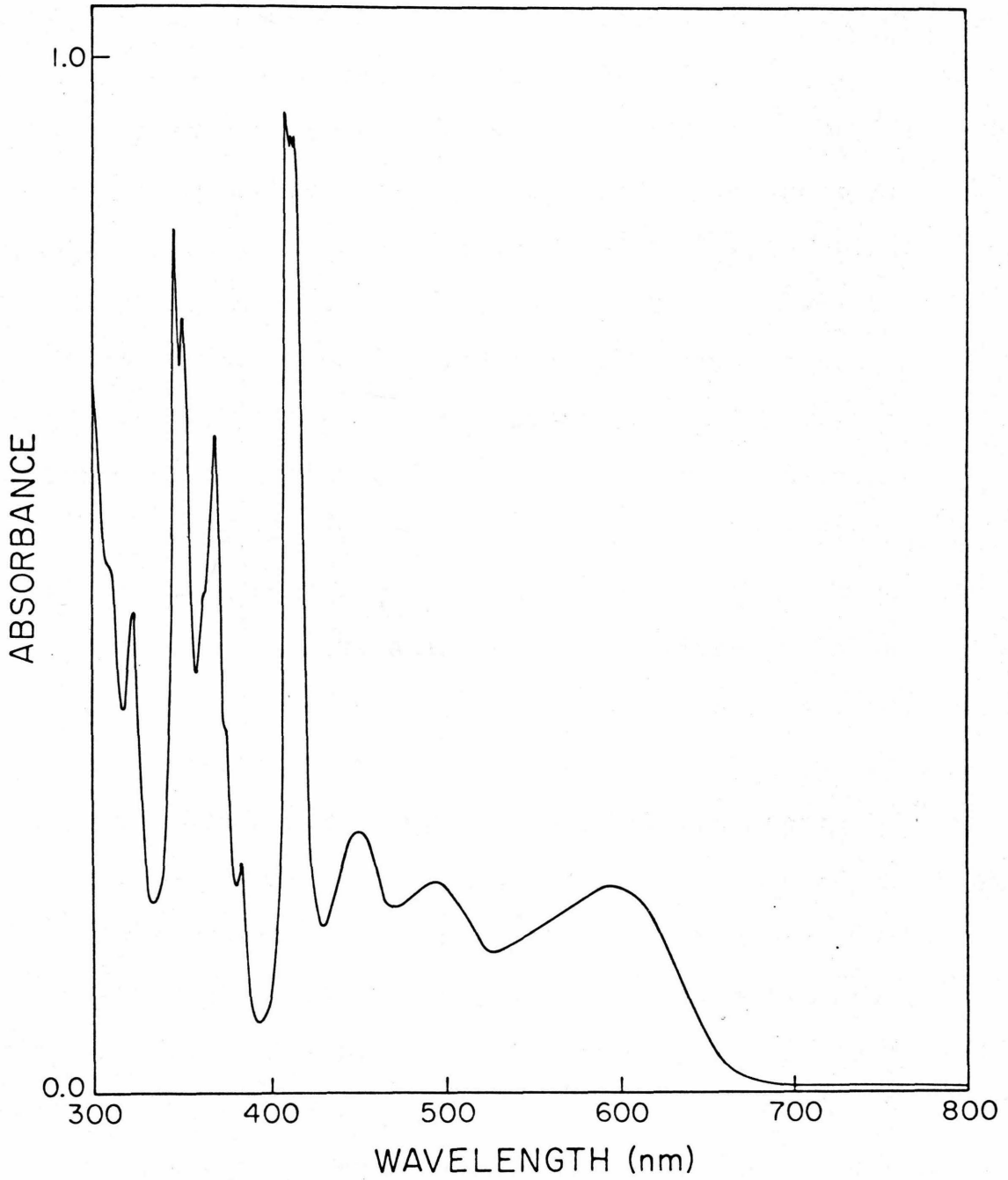
The distortions are fairly large and not purely tetragonal or trigonal. This situation leads to two difficulties: viz., the sites are difficult to treat theoretically and absorptions for the two sites are mixed. The splitting of the octahedral ground state (${}^5T_{2g}$) is unknown for both M_1 and M_2 . In the results discussed below a splitting of about $1500\text{-}3000\text{ cm}^{-1}$ has been assumed. In view of the speculative nature of the olivine spectral assignments for spin-forbidden bands just discussed, caution is certainly called for in the application of the derived values of B and C.

The olivine spectra reported here were taken on a single crystal of Arizona peridot cut approximately normal to the β optic axis (z-crystallographic axis) and a tephroite (GRR # 7/18/72) of unknown orientation. Electron microprobe analyses of both olivines are given in Table 2. An unpolarized spectrum of both olivines was taken at room temperature and polarized spectra of the peridot at 7°K ; these spectra are shown in Figure 6. The low temperature spectra in the infrared are fairly straightforward. The 1060 nm band due to M_2 is little affected by the low temperature with only a slight narrowing apparent. However, the bands on either side, due to vibronically allowed

Figure 6

Spectra of peridot and tephroite. a) γ -spectrum of peridot at liquid helium temperature. b) α -spectrum of peridot at liquid helium temperature. c) Unpolarized spectrum of peridot at room temperature. d) Unpolarized spectrum of tephroite at room temperature. Sample thickness ~ 2 mm for peridot, $\sim .5$ mm for tephroite.





transitions in M_1 are considerably weaker at 7°K than at room temperature. This is to be expected since at low temperatures these bands can be excited only by emitting a phonon and not by absorbing one.

As with the garnets, we first consider the Mn^{2+} spectra so that we may eliminate these features from the peridot spectra. The most prominent features are in the violet and ultraviolet - at 350 nm, 370 nm and 410 nm which are assigned to ${}^6A_1 \rightarrow {}^4E$, 4T_2 and $({}^4A_1, {}^4E)$ transitions, respectively. All of these features are split due to the presence of two sites of different symmetry, neither of which is perfectly octahedral. In view of this fact, detailed assignments of the weaker features may be unjustified, however, an assignment scheme is given in Table 8.

The visible portion of the 7°K spectra of the peridot are much more complicated with most of the bands seen at room temperature narrowing considerably and separating into several sharp peaks. As mentioned above, the complexity of the olivine structure makes a detailed assignment of the spectra very difficult. Because of the importance of spin-orbit coupling in providing any intensity at all to these bands, polarization arguments are really of little help in the assignment. Several different assignments were made

TABLE 7 SPECTRUM OF TEPHROITE

λ (nm)	E_{obs} (cm^{-1})	E_{calc} (cm^{-1})	ASSIGNMENT
605	16530	16773	${}^6A_1 \rightarrow {}^4T_1$
497	20120	20536	${}^6A_1 \rightarrow {}^4T_2 \begin{cases} \nearrow {}^4E \\ \searrow {}^4A_1 \end{cases}$
448	22320		
412	24270	24205	${}^6A_1 \rightarrow {}^4A_1, {}^4E$
385	25970		${}^6A_1 \rightarrow {}^4T_2$ (?)
370	27030	26890	${}^6A_1 \rightarrow {}^4T_2$
351	28490	28916	${}^6A_1 \rightarrow {}^4E$
347	28820		
323	30960		Unassigned

$$Dq = 1006 \text{ cm}^{-1}, \quad B = 673 \text{ cm}^{-1}, \quad C = 3495 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

Standard deviation of fit = 217 cm^{-1} .

and B and C adjusted to fit the spectra. The best fit results from the assignment scheme of Table 8.

The assignment of Burns (4) must be rejected in view of the very low Dq (553 cm^{-1}) required to attain a standard deviation only slightly below 400 cm^{-1} . Several other assignment schemes give standard deviations near 200 cm^{-1} and have reasonable crystal fields, however, the values of the Racah coefficients (especially the ratio C/B) seem unreasonable in most cases (in view of values consistently near 5 found in other materials (described above)). For this reason the assignment shown seems to be the best estimate of the truth. Note however, that the peaks near $21,500 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ are not assigned in this scheme. No explanation of these features is offered here.

There is an additional complication in the assignment of the olivine spectra; viz., that the splitting of the octahedral ground state (${}^5T_{2g}$) is unknown for both M_1 and M_2 . In the results of Table 8 a splitting of about 1500 cm^{-1} has been assumed. In view of the speculative nature of the olivine spectral assignments for spin-forbidden bands just discussed, caution is certainly called for in the application of the derived values of B and C.

Table 8
Spectra of Olivine (7°K)

$\alpha(=b)$		$\gamma(=a)$		$E_{\text{cal}}(\text{cm}^{-1})^a$	Assignment
$\lambda(\text{nm})$	$E_{\text{obs}}(\text{cm}^{-1})$	$\lambda(\text{nm})$	$E_{\text{obs}}(\text{cm}^{-1})$		
1380	7245	1380	7245		M_1
1325	7545				
1055	9480	1075	9300	9186	$M_2(^5A_1 \rightarrow ^5E)$
845	11830				M_1
750	13300			13072	$M_2(^3T_1)$
625	16000	636	15720	15838	$M_2(^3T_2)$
530	18870			18991	$M_2(^3T_1)$
495	20200			20299	$M_2(^3T_2)$
490	20410				$M_2(^3T_2) + \nu_1^b$
		484	20660		$M_2(^3T_2) + \nu_1 + \nu_2$
471	21230	471	21230	21339	$M_2(^3T_1)$
		459	21790	21752	$M_2(^3E)$
455	21980				$M_2(^3T_1) + \nu_1$
451	22170	452	22120		$M_2(^3T_1) + 2\nu_1$
		447	22370		$M_2(^3T_1) + 2\nu_1 + \nu_2$
437	22880	430	23260		Unassigned
426	23470				
410	24390	410	24390		$Mn^{2+} 6A_1 \rightarrow 4A_1, 4E$
402	24880	402	24880	24727	$M_2(^3T_2)$
401	24940	401	24940		
		399	25060		$M_2(^3T_2) + \nu_1$
		395	25320		$M_2(^3T_2) + \nu_1 + \nu_2$
393	25450				$M_2(^3T_2) + \nu_1 + \nu_2 + \nu_3$
		387	25840		Unassigned
		384	26040	26030	$M_2(^3A_2)$
		375	26670	26696	$M_2(^3T_1)$

- a. Using pure O_h symmetry $Dq = 718.6 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, $B = 732 \text{ cm}^{-1}$,
 $C = 3310 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ and assuming that the ground state (5T_2 in O_h) is
split into $^5A_1 + ^5E$ with a separation of 3000 cm^{-1} and 5A_1 ground state.
- b. Vibrational frequencies: $\nu_1 \sim 200 \text{ cm}^{-1}$, $\nu_2 \sim 250 \text{ cm}^{-1}$,
 $\nu_3 \sim 150 \text{ cm}^{-1}$.

E. Discussion

In the sample of minerals considered here, spin-forbidden transitions of Fe^{2+} have been observed whenever ferrous iron is an important component of the mineral. The exact position and the assignment of these transitions varies markedly from one mineral to the next. This is not surprising, because of the variability of the energy of the spin-allowed transitions. Nonetheless we are led to suspect that weak features in the absorption spectra of other ferrous minerals, especially in the range 400 to 600 nm, might be due to spin-forbidden transitions of Fe^{2+} . Such features are found in orthopyroxene, hedenbergite, cummingtonite, grunerite, and actinolite (5) and in the case of enstatite have been assigned to spin-forbidden transitions (6). Because of the complexity of the coordination polyhedra involved, detailed analysis of these bands is not feasible at present, however they would be a very suitable subject for a separate investigation.

The data of the previous sections may be used to try to estimate the manner in which B and C vary with interatomic distance. First, however, we must agree on the meaning of "interatomic distance" when the surrounding ions are not all at the same distance. (In the case of

olivine there is the additional complication that the interatomic distance measured by x-ray diffraction is the mean for Fe-O and Mg-O. Inasmuch as there is no way to circumvent this difficulty, the x-ray values will be used here.) The two obvious choices are the mean separation and the minimum separation. The values of B and C for the cases described above are plotted against the minimum distance in Figure 7. No apparent trend exists and the gillespite data appear to be anomalous. Use of means instead of minima does not change this.

These poor results, although clearly unsatisfying, are not at all unexpected. The materials studied are quite diverse, and in none of them is the coordination of Fe^{2+} close to that in another. It appears, for the materials studied here, that the effects of coordination on B and C are at least as great as those of interatomic distance. Clearly we must study either many materials with nearly identical coordination, or one material as it is compressed, if we wish to determine how B and C will vary with interatomic distance. Drickamer and co-workers (21-23) have done the latter for B in compounds of several transition metals, but not for Fe^{2+} . Their results for Co^{2+} , Ni^{2+} and Cr^{3+} are summarized in Figure 8. Although B decreases on compression in each case, there is no other

Figure 7

Variation of Racah parameters, B and C, with minimum interatomic distance. Squares represent C with the scale to the right; circles represent B with the scale to the left.

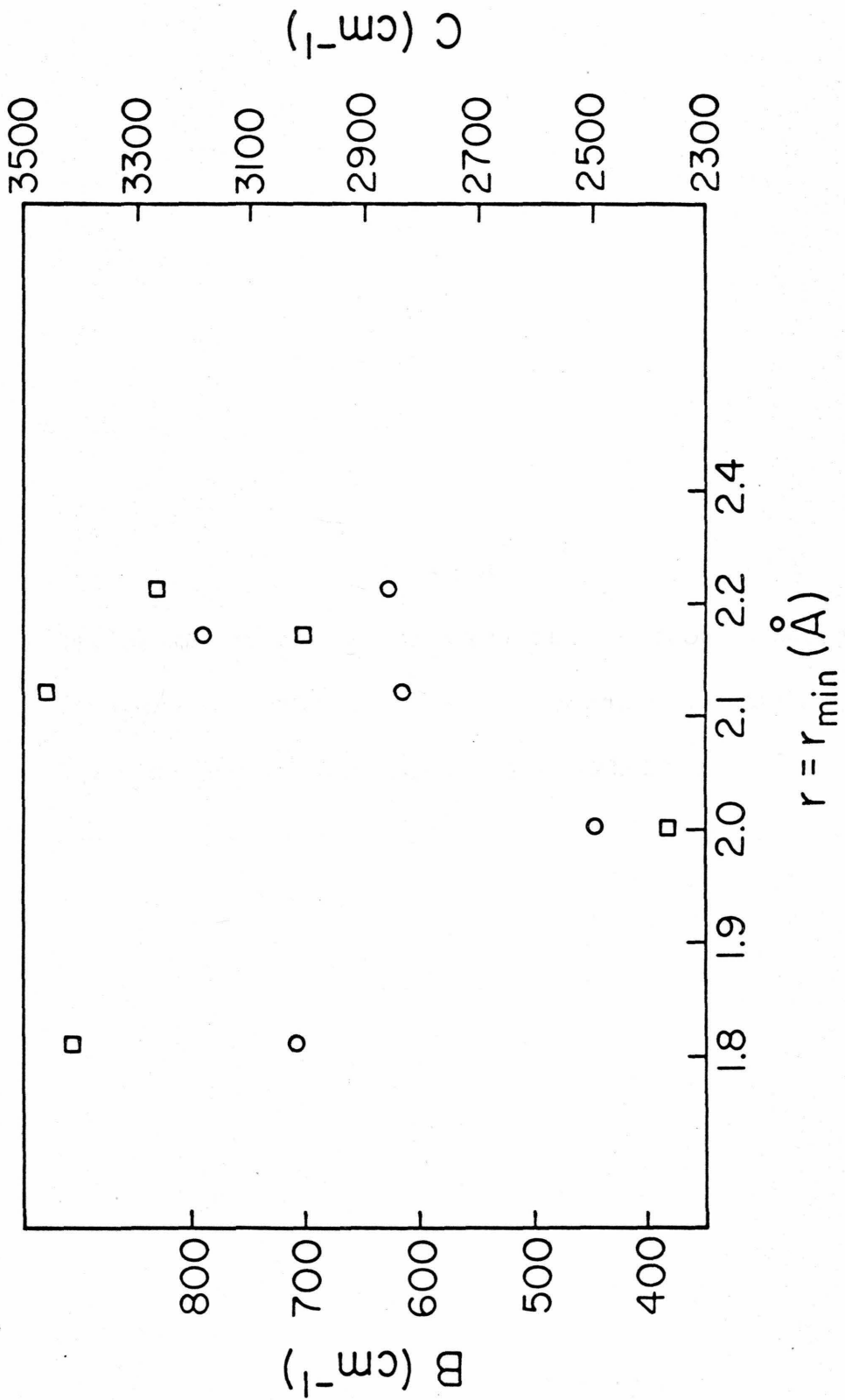


Figure 8

Variation of the Racah parameter B upon compression in several transition metal compounds. Data are from Drickamer and co-workers (21-23).

unique relation to r (as determined from the variation of Dq) from one compound to another. From the limited data presented it appears that $d\log B/d\log r$ depends on the coordinating ligand, decreasing in the order $O > S > NH_3 > Cl$. For the oxides shown it ranges from 3 to about 6.

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Die Absorption einiger rot gefärbter Mineralien und künstlicher Präparate im sichtbaren und ultravioletten Teil des Spektrums. *Neues Jahrb. Mineral. Geol. und Palaont.* 57A, 397-500, 1928.

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IV. HIGH PRESSURE SPECTROSCOPY

The absorption spectra of minerals at very high pressures is of considerable importance to the problem of the behavior of Fe^{2+} in the interior of the earth. Specifically, measurements of the pressure shifts of absorption bands, both spin-allowed and spin-forbidden, over a range of several hundred kilobars would provide an excellent basis for the prediction of crystal field effects in the lower mantle. Furthermore, should a phase change occur in the course of such experiments, it is likely that the local site symmetry of Fe^{2+} in the high pressure phase could be determined from its absorption spectrum. In many cases such a knowledge, combined with the knowledge of the density of the high pressure phase, could unequivocally determine the structure of that phase.

For these reasons a program was undertaken to develop a system capable of measuring optical absorption spectra of solids during the time that they are undergoing shock wave compression to pressures in excess of 500 kbar. This system is described below and its present capabilities illustrated in the discussion of results for periclase and ruby.

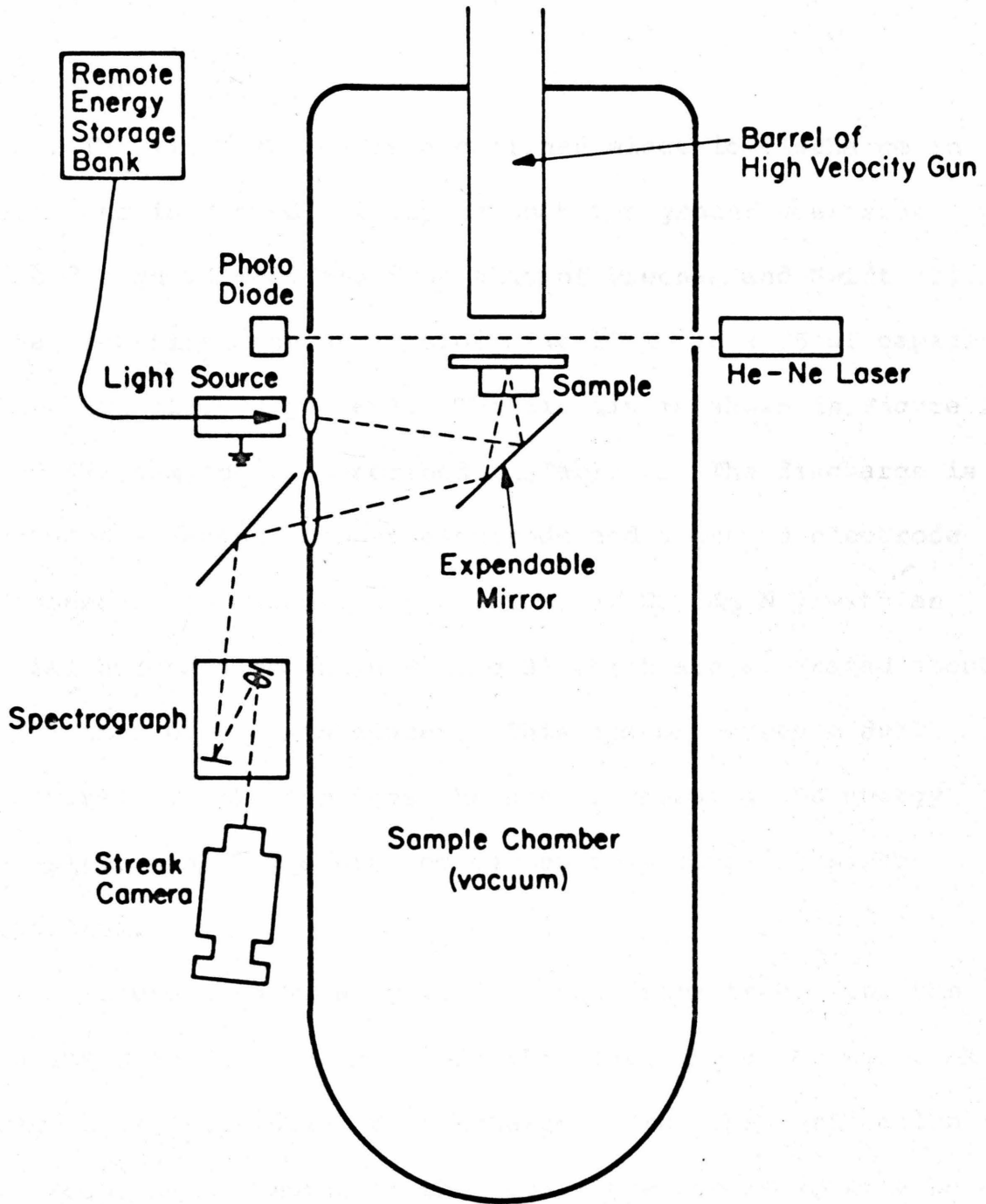
A. Experimental Technique

Time-resolved spectral measurements of a solid during shock loading have never been performed although single-frame spectra of shocked liquids have been reported (1) using an explosive-argon light source. Use of such a source is not feasible at the Caltech facility so an alternative light source has been developed for such studies. In addition, a different optical path better suited to solid samples is used.

The spectrograph system described below was specifically designed for use with the high velocity propellant gun at the Kresge Seismological Laboratory but could be adapted for use with most shock facilities. Light from an electrical-arc discharge is focused on the sample by an optic system and is internally reflected back along a similar path (see Figure 1). The ingoing and outcoming rays diverge slightly (13°) permitting the latter to be focused on the entrance slit of a simple reflection grating spectrograph. The exit part of the spectrograph is a slit, elongated in the direction of dispersion, which is the object for a TRW model 1D image converter streak

Figure 1

Schematic representation of a spectrographic system designed to measure optical absorption spectra during shock loading to pressures in excess of 500 kbar.



camera. The resulting image is a plot of light intensity as a function of wavelength and time.

A.1 Light Source

The light source is a confined electric discharge in air, and is viewed axially through the ground electrode. The design is modified from that of Preonas and Swift (2). The electrical energy is stored at 20 kv in a 75 μ f capacitor bank (15,000 joules). The circuit is shown in Figure 2 and the components described in Table 1. The discharge is between a central copper electrode and a ground electrode (copper or tungsten-alloy - 70% W, 6% Cu, 4% Ni) with an axial hole (as shown in Figure 3) which are separated about 1/16 inch by a lexan spacer. This spacer serves a dual purpose; it both confines the arc, increasing the energy density, and is a source of carbon to produce a smooth spectrum.

Figure 4 shows a typical voltage-time trace from the ignitron anode to ground. In this case the capacitor bank was at 19.5 kv, prior to discharge. From the oscillation frequency and damping of this curve the arc resistance is estimated to be on the order of 0.1 ohm. The intensity of

Figure 2

Circuit diagram of a high intensity point light source used to measure spectra in shocked solids. Components are described in Table 1.

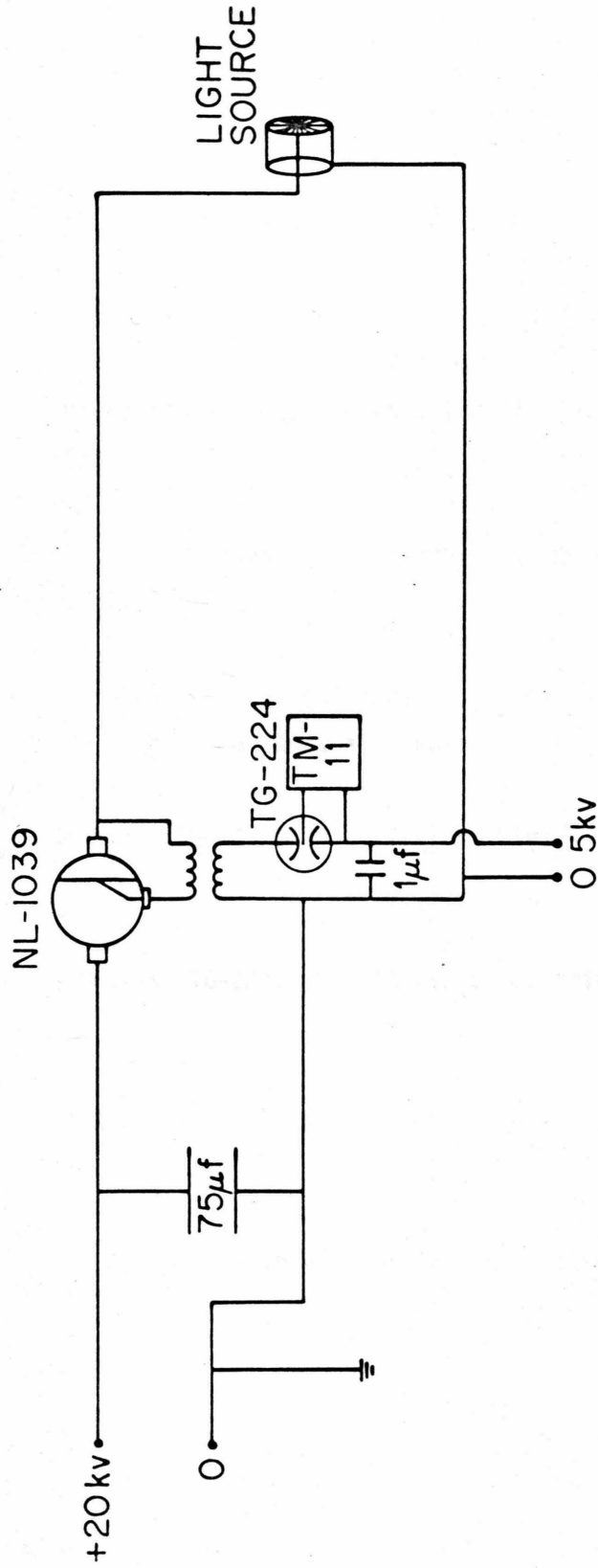


TABLE 1 COMPONENTS OF LIGHT SOURCE

COMPONENT	DESCRIPTION
Power supply (Main)	Universal Voltronics Control, 0-32 kVDC (reversible), 25mA
Capacitor Bank	5 - Aerovox 15 μ f, 20 kV energy storage capacitors in parallel
Switching Ignitron (NL-1039)	National NL-1039 ignitron, 20 kV peak anode voltage, 100 kA peak current, air cooled
Power Supply (trigger)	Beckman 1150-1, 0-10 kV (reversible), 9 mA
Triggered Spark Gap (TG-224)	Signalite TG-224, .5 - 18 kV, 6 kJ, triggered spark gap
Trigger Module (TM-11)	EG & G TM-11 Trigger Module 0-30 kV output remote trigger
Cable	RG-221 14,kV 50 ohm coaxial cable (armored)



Figure 3

Detail of the electrode configuration of high
intensity point light source.

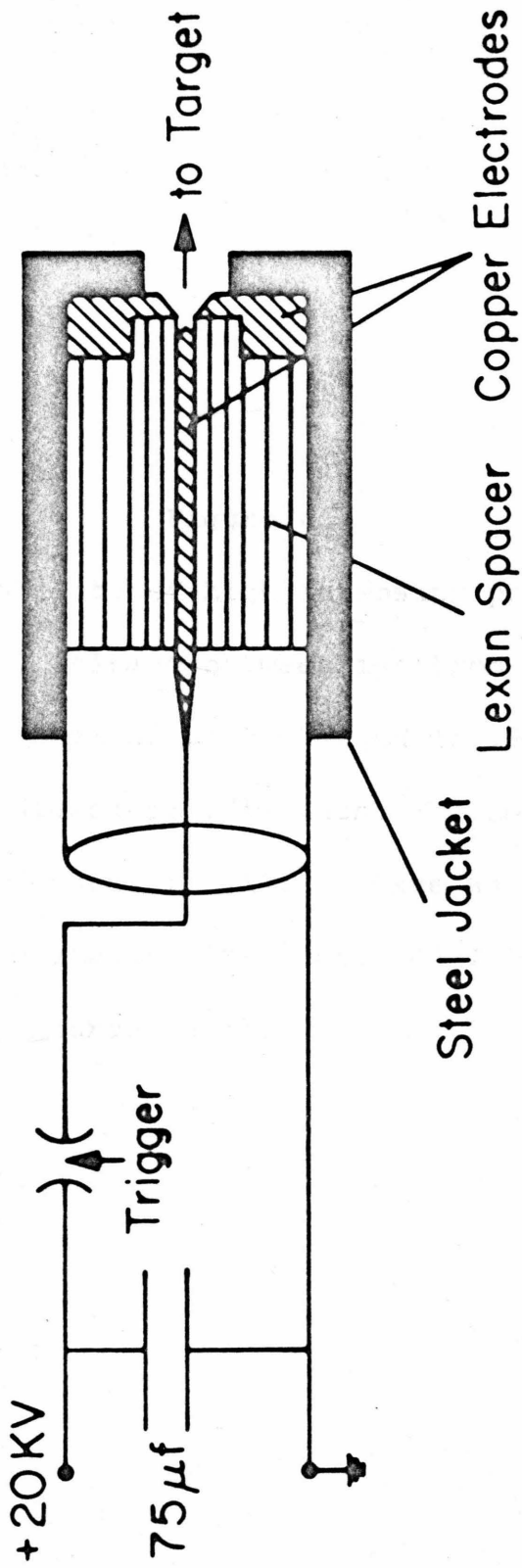
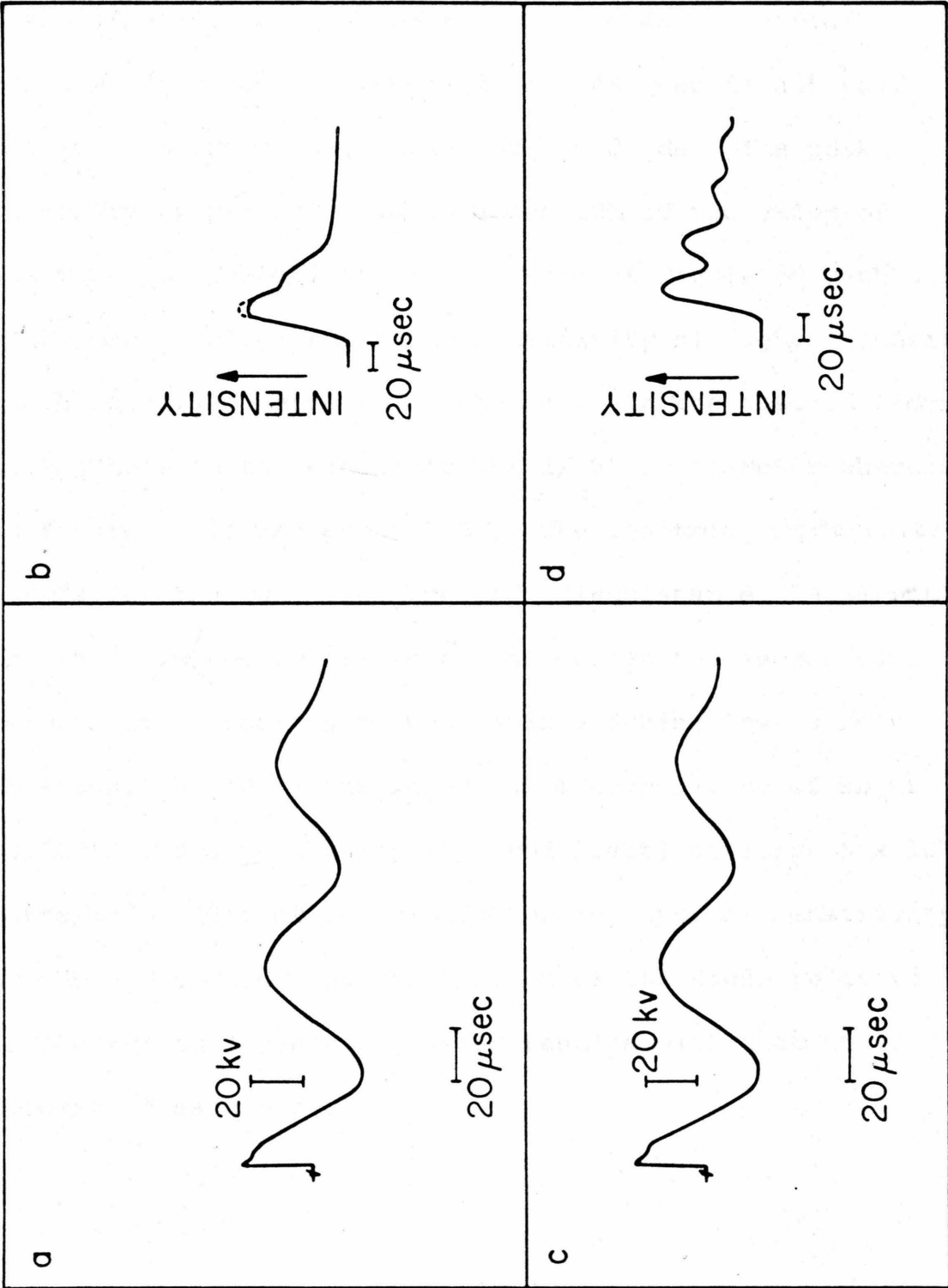


Figure 4.

Time variability of high intensity point light source. a) Voltage between ignitron anode and ground. Capacitor bank charged to 19.5 kv. Ground electrode diameter: 1/16 inch. b) Intensity of light emitted by source in (a). c) Same as (a) but ground electrode diameter: 1/8 inch. d) Intensity of light emitted by source in (c).



this discharge was monitored with a red-sensitive photo-diode (HP-4220) and is shown in Figure 4b. The flat portion of the curve between 25 and 45 μ sec is not real but is produced by saturation of the diode. The peak intensity is probably within about 10% of the value of saturation. Comparison of the curve of Figure 4d with that of Figure 4b illustrates the sensitivity of light intensity to the detailed geometry of the gap. In the case of Figure 4b the hole in the electrode was 1/16" in diameter whereas in Figure 4d it was about 1/8". The ignitron anode voltage curves for the two cases are indistinguishable. Apparently, the large volume available to the arc in the second case permits it to cool much more rapidly during low current episodes. At 20 kv the light has a temperature of about 60,000° K and a peak intensity (red light) of about 5×10^3 watts/cm². (Use of the manufacturers "typical sensitivity" of the photo-diode and calibration of the diode relative to the sun on a clear day yield results within about 10 percent of each other.)

A.2 Spectrograph and Camera

The spectrograph used (illustrated in Figure 5) has a linear dispersion at the exit port of about 100 \AA/mm . The exit port is a slit 0.5 mm wide and about 10 cm long in the direction of dispersion. The grating can be changed to give other values of dispersion although greater dispersion is possible only by sacrificing already limited light intensity. Wavelength calibration of all records after the first one was achieved with a pulsed argon laser (TRW Model 71A).

The TRW (Model 1D) image converter streak camera used in the present system operates with a S-11 photocathode. This is the most stringent limitation on the system because of the narrow spectral sensitivity of this surface (0.4 \mu m to 0.63 \mu m). The spectral response of the camera is shown in Figure 6. The S-20 photocathode available on the same model camera would be preferable because of its greater sensitivity (about 50 percent greater) and slightly wider response. Of the various surfaces presently available one of the GaAs surfaces such as RCA's 128 or 134 would be best if available because of the sensitivity and flatness throughout the visible portion of the spectrum.

Figure 5

Schematic representation of spectrograph used for measuring optical absorption spectra of shocked solids. a) Entrance slit, b) diffraction grating, c) focusing lens, d) exit slit.

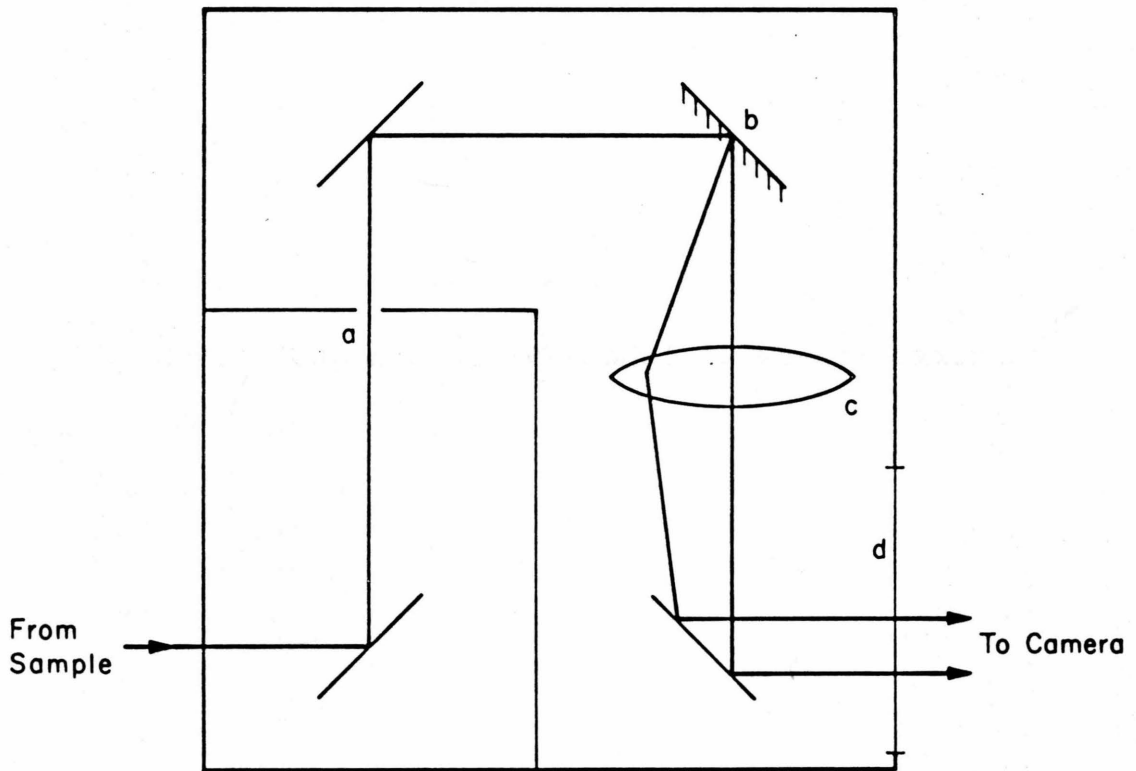
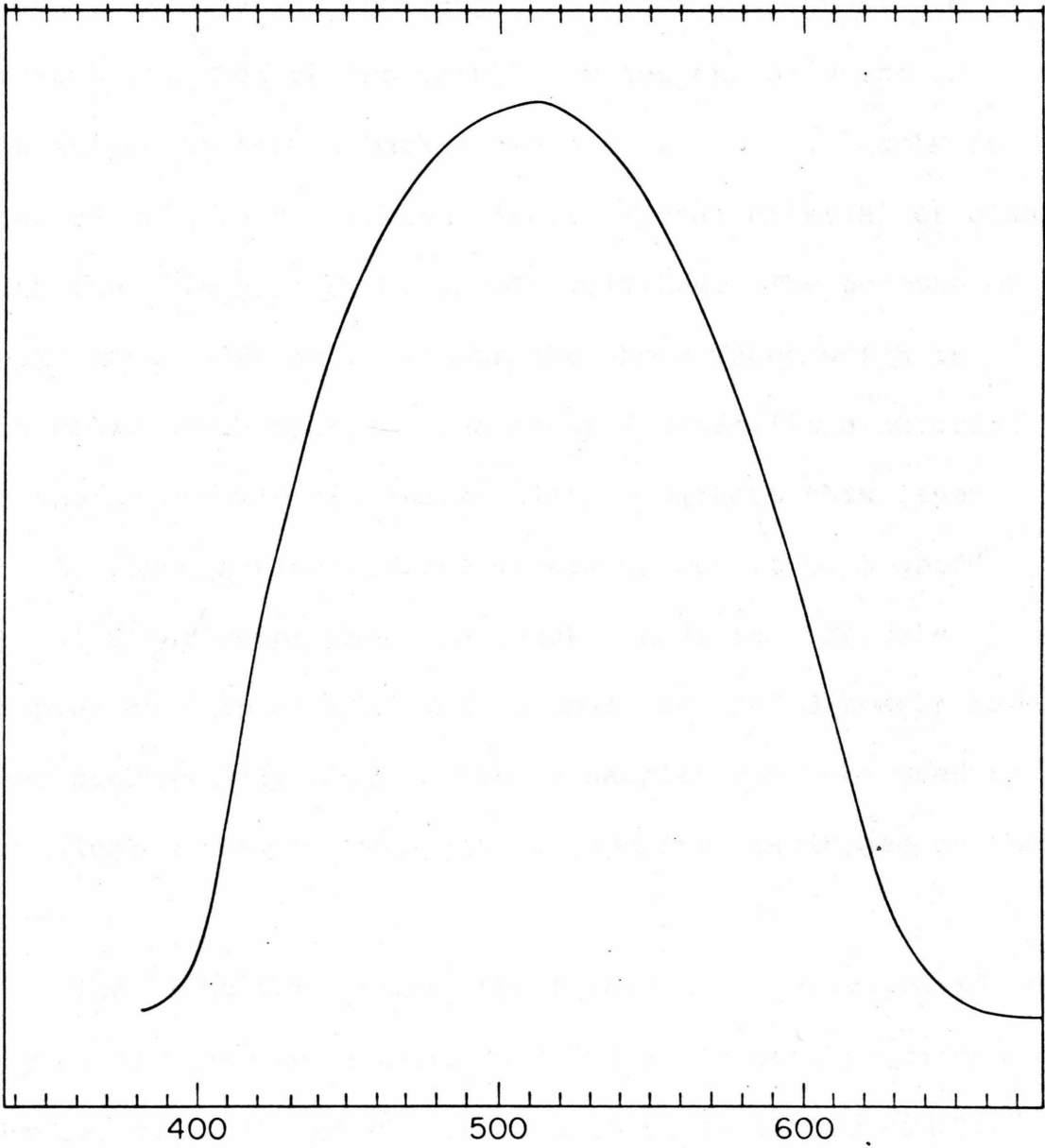


Figure 6

Spectral response of TRW-Model 1D streak camera.



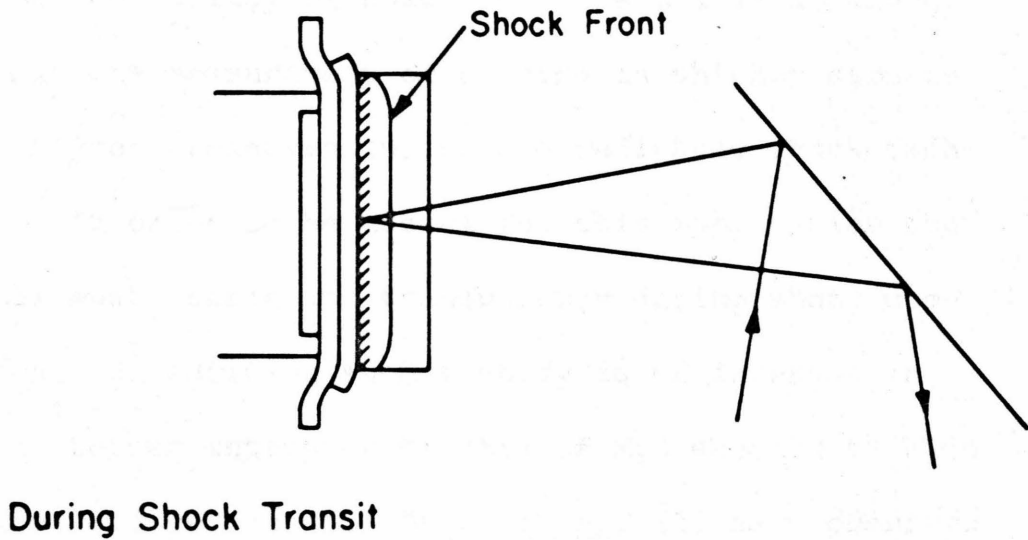
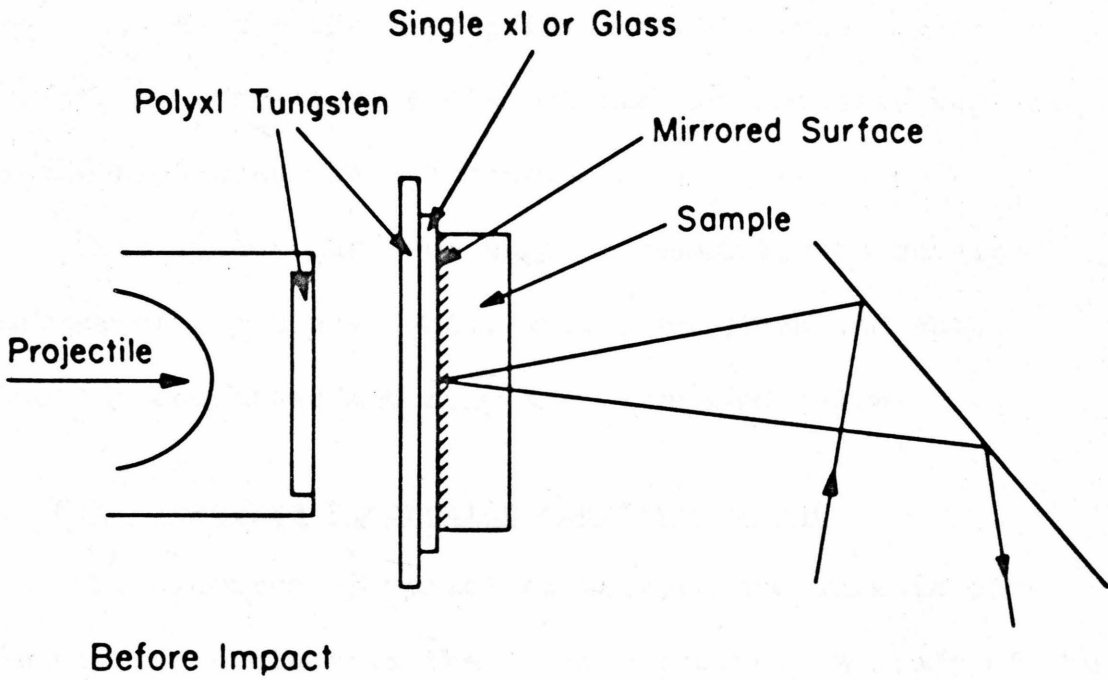
A.3 Sample

The sample configuration used with this system is shown in Figure 7. The sample is a gem quality single crystal polished on two parallel sides one of which is aluminized to form a back-surface mirror. The sample is mounted on a thin slab of single crystal material or glass with the side toward the sample polished. The purpose of this extra layer is to smooth the shock front which is optically rough upon leaving the polycrystalline material of the projectile and driver plate. Without this layer the mirrored surface of the sample ceases to be a good specular reflector when the shock passes it. To date samples as thin as 1/8" and as small as 3/4" diameter have been successfully used. Thinner samples could be used by sandwiching them between glass, sapphire, periclase or the like.

The light path within the target is also indicated in Figure 7. The near normal ($6\ 1/2^\circ$) incidence, required by the optical path of the present shock facility, reduces reflection losses at the free surface and the double path length allows greater total absorption than a single transit. The light path after impact is also indicated.

Figure 7

Detail of the sample arrangement before impact
(above) and during shock transit (below) showing
light path and regions of the sample studied.



In this case the path samples both high- and low-pressure regions. As the shock progresses through the sample the low-pressure spectrum fades out and is gradually replaced by the high-pressure spectrum.

This system has been used successfully to obtain spectra of periclase (MgO), soda-lime glass and ruby. Data for periclase and ruby are discussed below.

B. High Pressure Absorption Spectrum of MgO

The spectrum of periclase at zero pressure is completely featureless in the visible region. A study of the spectrum of shock compressed MgO was undertaken to determine the feasibility of using the material as a "window" to permit the measurement of spectra in thinner samples and at higher pressures (using the reflected shock technique). In order to be useful for this application the material must retain its transparency during shock compression. In addition such a study is of interest in order to better interpret spectra of MgO shocked to high pressures and recovered. Gager et al. (3) have observed F-centers in MgO recovered from a shock pressure in excess of 500 kbar. Such features should be observable in these

absorption spectra whether they are produced on loading or unloading.

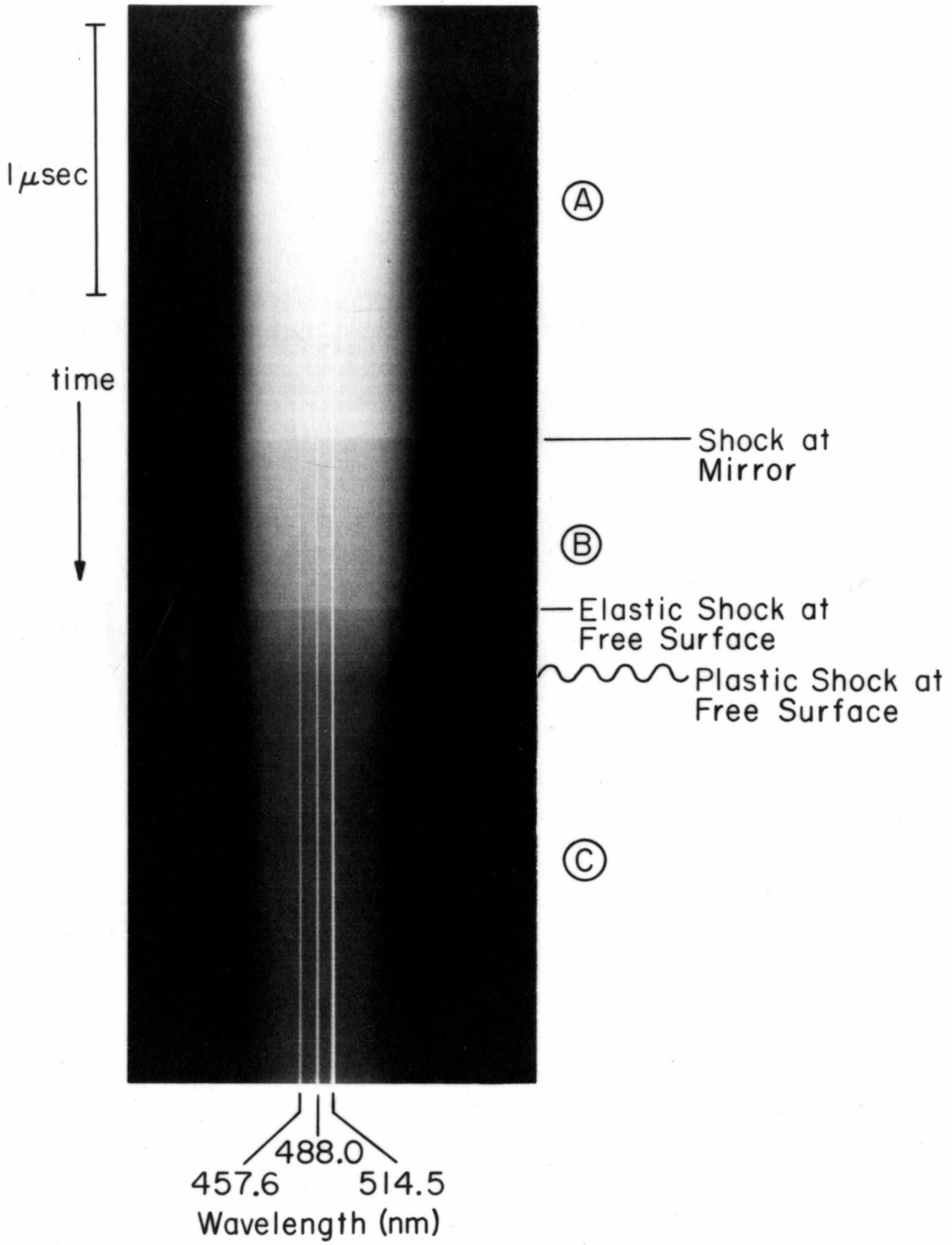
In Figure 8 a record of the absorption spectrum of MgO shocked to 465 ± 10 kbar final pressure is shown. The pressure is inferred from the impact velocity and the known Hugoniot of the flyer plate and sample. Such a shock should be preceded by an elastic precursor with a normal stress of about 90 kbar (4). The difference in velocity of the two shocks should be about 1.5 mm/ μ sec with the elastic shock travelling at 10.1 mm/ μ sec. In the upper portion of the picture we see the spectrum of the unshocked MgO followed by a sharp decrease in intensity indicating the arrival of the shock at the internal mirror surface. It is not possible with this experiment to separate the three possible causes of this decrease:

1) absorption in the shock front, 2) degradation of the mirror by the shock or 3) rotation of the mirror by an oblique shock impact. Any or all of these features could lead to observed featureless decrease in light intensity.

In the region below this discontinuity (region B) the spectrum is progressively changing from that of unshocked MgO to that of shocked MgO. The opacity of the shocked

Figure 8

Absorption spectrum of periclase (MgO) shocked to 465 kbar. See text for discussion.



material is greater than that of the unshocked but no spectral features are apparent. This may be an intrinsic effect due to compression of MgO to 465 kbar, or it may be due to scattering off of numerous shock induced imperfections in the crystal. In the absence of any other data we favor the latter cause.

There are two discontinuities in rapid succession at the end of region B. These are attributed to arrivals of the elastic and plastic shocks at the free surface of the sample. This can be expected to degrade the surface sufficiently to yield a substantial (featureless) decrease in light transmission. From the time separation between mirror encounter and free surface emergence we can calculate the shock velocities to be 8.0 ± 0.5 mm/ μ sec and 9.9 ± 0.1 mm/ μ sec for the plastic and elastic waves, respectively. This is very good agreement with the values of Ahrens (4), especially in view of the rather diffuse nature of the second arrival in Figure 8.

In region C of the record we have the spectrum of MgO while unloading from 465 kbar. There is no change apparent across this region indicating that no changes in the

opacity of periclase occur during the first 1 1/2 microseconds of unloading. This is sufficient time to permit complete unloading of the MgO back to the mirror (unless the low pressure shock wave reflected from the rear surface of the flyer plate interferes.) If color centers have been produced in this event they must be few in number, in some other spectral region or not yet be in their ground state. It is concluded that shock pressures greater than 465 kbar are required to produce substantial populations of color centers in periclase. Because of the qualitative nature of intensity measurements with the present system the term "substantial" just above cannot be more qualitatively defined.

C. Ruby Spectra

Although Fe^{2+} is by far the most abundant of the transition metal ions in the mantle, its most intense crystal-field absorptions in most coordinations expected in the mantle are in the near infrared. This is a spectral region that cannot be studied by the present spectrographic system, so instead the effects of large compressions on the absorption spectrum of single crystal ruby

(Cr³⁺:Al₂O₃), which is in a spectral region accessible to the system, were studied in the hope that the behavior of Fe²⁺ can be inferred from such data using the techniques of Chapter II. The present experiments span the range from 147 kbar to 530 kbar. The pressures attained are more than three times greater than the maximum attained in hydrostatic compression (5). Such measurements permit a determination of the local environment about the Cr³⁺ impurities in the corundum (Al₂O₃) lattice. The data are presented below and discussed in light of the hydrostatic spectral studies and the recent Hugoniot measurements on sapphire (6).

The principle absorptions in ruby arise from Cr³⁺ ion substituting in Al-sites in corundum. These sites are nearly octahedral with some trigonal distortion. In the pure octahedral field the ⁴F ground state of Cr³⁺ splits into ⁴A₂, ⁴T₂ and ⁴T₁. The observed absorptions correspond to the electronic transitions ⁴A₂ → ⁴T₂ at about 18,000 cm⁻¹ and ⁴A₂ → ⁴T₁ at about 25,000 cm⁻¹. The trigonal field splits the excited states (⁴T₂ → ⁴A₁ + ⁴E and ⁴T₁ → ⁴A₂ + ⁴E) by about 500 cm⁻¹ but this is too small (relative to the widths of the absorptions) to be

determined in the unpolarized spectra reported here. See Tanabe and Sugano (7) for a discussion of Cr^{3+} spectra.

The effect of hydrostatic pressures up to 150 kbar on the spectra of ruby has been studied by Stephens and Drickamer (5). They found that Dq increased proportional to $1/r^5$ as r , the interatomic distance, decreased. This is exactly the behavior predicted for a point charge model. Since they measured the positions of both the ${}^4A_2 \rightarrow {}^4T_2$ and ${}^4A_2 \rightarrow {}^4T_1$ transitions up to 120 kbar they were also able to determine that one of the Racah parameters B decreases on compression approximately as r^3 . (There is no model for predicting the change of B or C with interatomic distance.) From the polarization dependence of the spectra they found that the trigonal splitting of the 4T_2 and 4T_1 states increased on compression for pressures over 60 kbar. The value extrapolated from 120 to 150 kbar would be about $950 - 1000 \text{ cm}^{-1}$.

The samples studied here were single crystal pink ruby ($0.5\% \text{ Cr: Al}_2\text{O}_3$) discs 6 mm thick and 22 mm in diameter with the crystallographic c -axis at 60° to the flat surfaces. They were flat to one wave and polished with one surface aluminized. Fabrication was done by the vendor,

Union Carbide, Crystal Products Division. A transmission spectrum of one of the samples is shown in Figure 9.

Spectra were measured at three values of normal stress, one below the elastic limit (147 kbar) and two above (430 kbar and 530 kbar). The data obtained from these three experiments are summarized in Table 2. Figure 10 shows a typical photographic record. These photographic negatives were digitized and stored on tape by the Image Processing Laboratory of the Jet Propulsion Laboratory and then computer processed to reduce the noise level.

The density traces across the film are differenced to show the change in the absorption between two traces. If the earlier trace is subtracted from the later one, absorption maxima in the low pressure region appear as negative features, while those in the high pressure region will be positive features. Data from all three shots are given in the Appendix.

In order to evaluate the results summarized in Table 2 one must distinguish between absorptions in the volumes ahead of and behind the shock front, on the one hand, and at interfaces such as the internal mirror, the shock front and

Figure 9

Absorption spectrum of pink ruby ($\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3:0.05\% \text{Cr}_2\text{O}_3$)
at zero pressure.

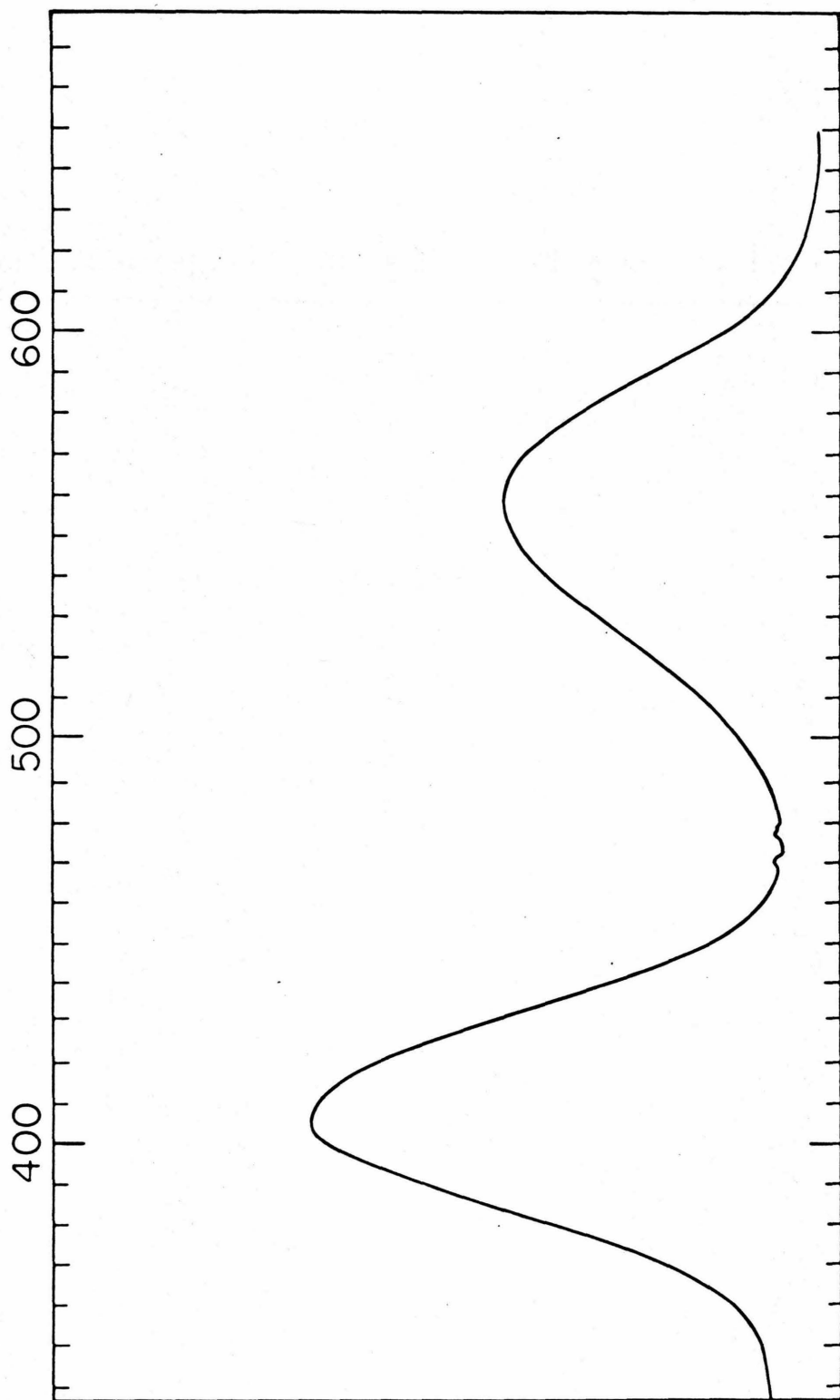


TABLE 2 RUBY DATA

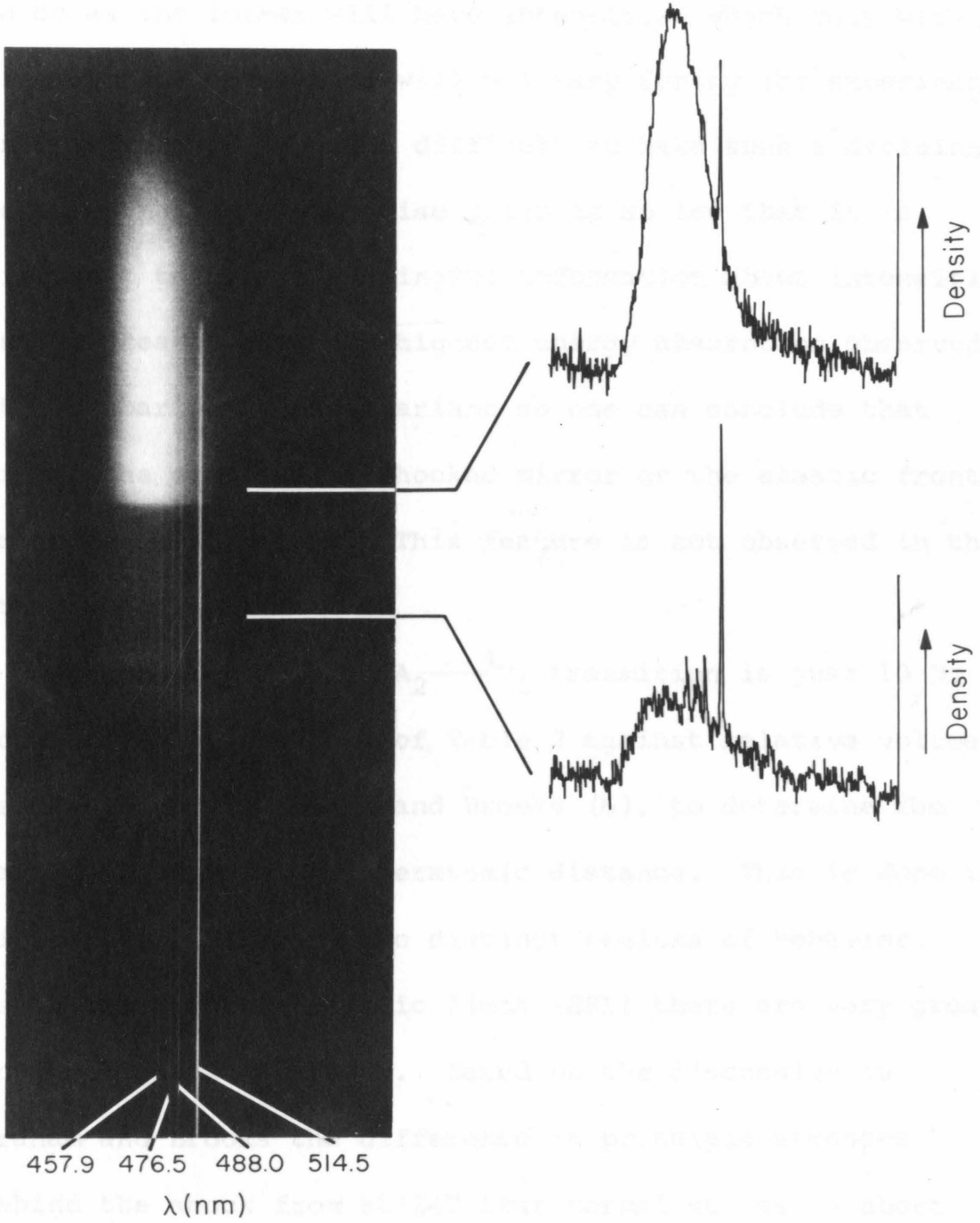
Pressure (kbar)	147 \pm 3	430 \pm 10	530 \pm 10
Absorption	(446 \pm 3)		(411 \pm 12)
Peaks	[22420 \pm 150]		[24330 \pm 690]
(λ , nm)	(478 \pm 5)	(460 \pm 10)	
[E, cm ⁻¹]	[20940 \pm 210]	[21740 \pm 420]	
	(524 \pm 10)		
	[19080 \pm 250]		
	(581 \pm 4)		
	[17210 \pm 120]		

Figure 10

Absorption spectrum of pink ruby shocked to 430 kbar.

Raw data (digitized from photographic negative).

The four vertical lines are the emission lines of a pulsed argon laser used for wavelength calibration. The density of the negative on two scans is plotted on the right.

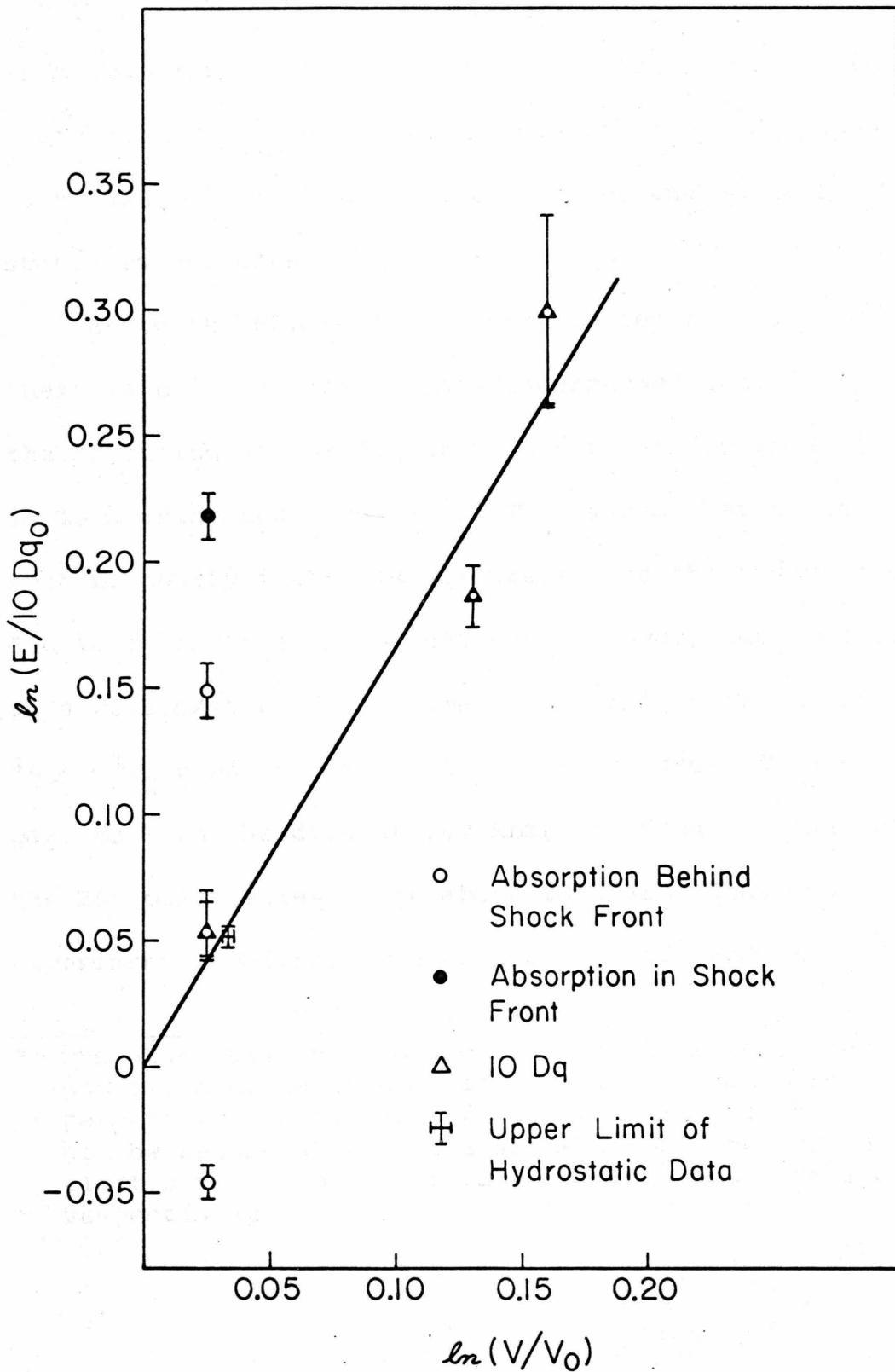


the free surface, on the other. In principle, this is easy to do as the former will have intensities which vary with time whereas the latter will not vary during the experiment. In practice, it is often difficult to make such a decision because the signal-to-noise ratio is so low that it is difficult to obtain meaningful information about intensities. In the present case the highest energy absorption observed at 147 kbar was time invariant so one can conclude that either the elastically shocked mirror or the elastic front produces this feature. This feature is not observed in the other spectra.

The energy of the ${}^4A_2 \rightarrow {}^4T_2$ transition is just $10 Dq$ so we can plot the data of Table 2 against relative volume, as determined by Graham and Brooks (6), to determine the variation of Dq with interatomic distance. This is done in Figure 11. There are two distinct regions of behavior. Below the Hugoniot elastic limit (HEL) there are very great non-hydrostatic stresses. Based on the discussion in Graham and Brooks the difference in principle stresses behind the shock front at 147 kbar normal stress is about 90 kbar. It is to be expected, therefore, that the local

Figure 11

Observed absorption bands and the variability of D_q with R for shock-loaded rubies. Hydrostatic spectral data of Stephens and Drickamer (5) is shown for comparison. The diagonal line is the variation of D_q with R predicted using the point charge model of Chapter II.



symmetry about the Cr^{3+} ions to be considerably distorted from the octahedral case. This is exactly what is found below the HEL. The absorption due to ${}^4\text{A}_2 \rightarrow {}^4\text{T}_2$ is split by more than 3730 cm^{-1} , almost four times the value from hydrostatic experiments.

Above the HEL we find a very different situation. Now there is only one absorption discernable* indicating that the splitting of the ${}^4\text{T}_2$ state due to non-octahedral fields is less than about 800 cm^{-1} . This means that the strain must be nearly isotropic at stresses on the order of 400-500 kbar, and therefore that the non-hydrostatic component of stress must be fairly small. If the splitting of ${}^4\text{A}_2 \rightarrow {}^4\text{T}_2$ band is linear in the shear stress then by comparison with the data at 147 kbar the shear stress above the HEL must be less than about 20 kbar. Thus these experiments confirm, by a completely different method, the

* The absorption due to the elastically shocked region is not discernable because at any given moment less than 20 percent of the material behind the elastic shock is ahead of the second shock. The shock velocities for the elastic and second waves are about 11 and 9 mm/sec, respectively.

conclusions of Graham and Brooks (5) that sapphire loses most of its shear strength when shocked above the HEL. This experimental technique, with improved accuracy, has great potential as an "internal strain gauge" for detecting anisotropic strains in shock studies.

The measured value of Dq can be compared with that predicted by a point charge model assuming that the local compressibility about the Cr^{3+} ion is equal to the bulk compressibility of its host Al_2O_3 . For a perfect octahedron such a model predicts that Dq should be proportional to $V^{-5/3}$ where V is the molar volume of sapphire. Stephens and Drickamer (5) found that this model worked very well for hydrostatic compression up to 150 kbar (3.5 percent compression). The present results demonstrate the usefulness of the model to volume compressions of nearly 15 percent. It is not possible, from these data, to determine the variation of the Racha parameters in ruby at these large compressions because the spectrograph could not follow the position of the ${}^4A_2 \rightarrow {}^4T_1$ transition into the shocked region as a result of the spectral sensitivity of the streak camera photocathode.

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V. BEHAVIOR OF IRON IN THE EARTH'S LOWER MANTLE

Iron is an important contributor to a number of controversies about the properties of the earth's lower mantle. The amount of iron has been the subject of much discussion for several years (1-4), and this discussion depends critically on the spin-state of Fe^{2+} in the lower mantle. In addition, many of the physical properties of the lower mantle such as thermal conductivity (5, 6) and seismic parameters will depend on the spin-state of Fe^{2+} . It is the purpose of the present work to assess the possible effects of low-spin Fe^{2+} in the earth's lower mantle. The presence and behavior of low-spin Fe^{2+} in this region will depend on the transition-metal nature of Fe^{2+} , that is, on crystal field effects.

In order to predict crystal field effects on minerals in the mantle we must first know three things: 1) what minerals are likely to contain ferrous iron in the mantle and what the spin state of that iron will be, 2) what the response of these minerals is to high pressures, and 3) the effects of compression on the parameters used to describe the crystal fields. However, before considering

these points in turn let us first consider the pyrolite model proposed by Ringwood (7).

A. Ringwood's Pyrolite

Ringwood's pyrolite model is summarized in Table 1. The exact details of the model, such as percentages of various phases, are not so important to our discussion as are its gross features, such as phases present and approximate compositions. The results would not be greatly different if discontinuities moved slightly or if compositions varied by a few percent. For present purposes the salient feature is the appearance of several crystal structures not familiar from low pressure silicate chemistry.

Below 650 km all of the proposed structures have Si in six-coordination however, the coordination of (Mg, Fe) is variable.* In the ilmenite structure (Mg, Fe) would also be in six-coordination in a nearly perfect octahedron. (There will be some slight trigonal distortion.) This is the most usual coordination of (Mg, Fe) in the upper mantle.

* In this section it is assumed that there is always solid solution between Mg^{2+} and Fe^{2+} . In the next section, the effects, as well as the necessity, of removing this simplification will be discussed.

TABLE 1

RINGWOOD's (1970) pyrolite mantle.

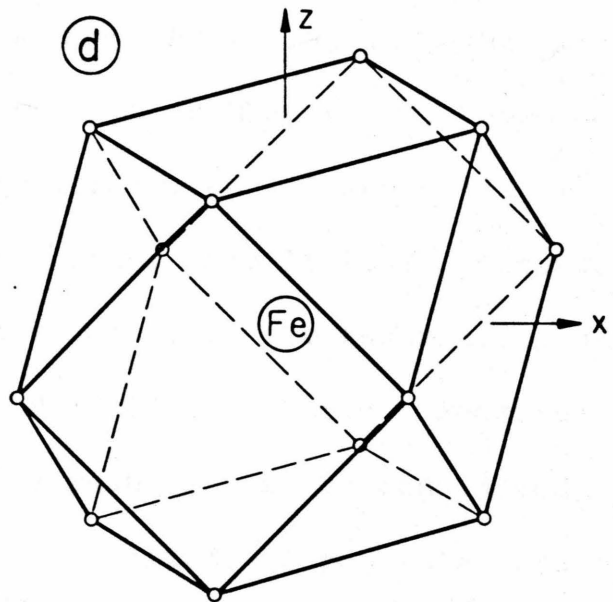
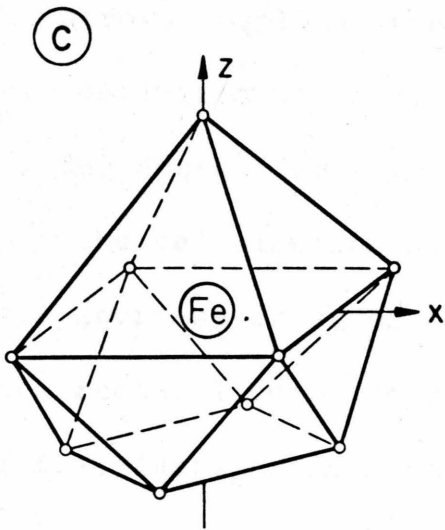
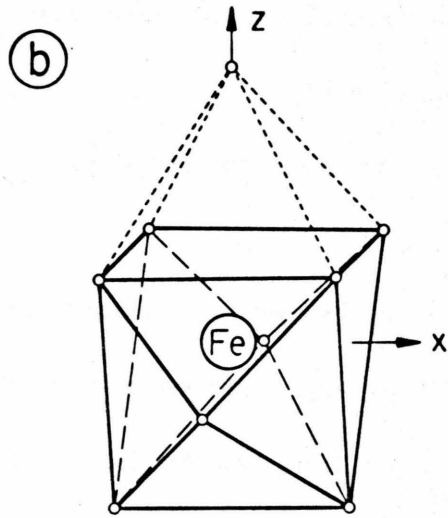
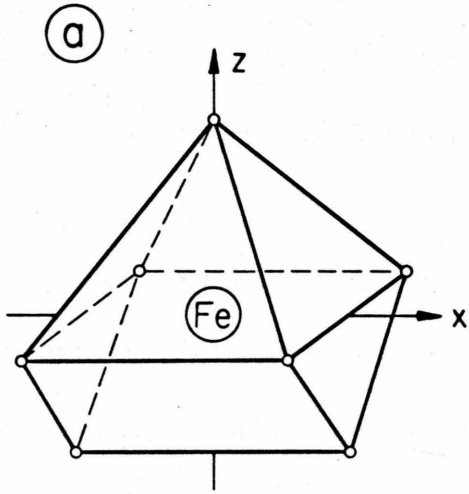
700 - 1050 km (240 - 400 kb) $\rho_0 = 3.99$	
55% (Mg,Fe) SiO ₄	(strontium plumbate structure)
36% (Mg,Fe,Cr,Al) (Si,Al) O ₃	(ilmenite structure)
6½% CaSiO ₃	(perovskite structure)
2½% NaAlSiO ₄	(calcium ferrite structure)
Below 1050 km (greater than 400 kb)	
(Ca,Mg,Fe) SiO ₃	(perovskite structure)
NaAlSiO ₄	(calcium ferrite structure)
(Mg,Fe) (Al,Cr) ₂ O ₄	(calcium ferrite structure)
(Mg,Fe) SiO ₄	(calcium ferrite structure) or (potassium nickel fluoride structure)

In the Sr_2PbO_4 structure the (Mg, Fe) will be in the Sr site illustrated in Figure 1a. The site is seven-coordinated with C_{2v} symmetry. In the CaFe_2O_4 structure the (Mg, Fe) must go into two sites. In the Fe site (Mg, Fe) is six-coordinated nearly in an octahedron but in the Ca site it is eight-coordinated (Figure 1b) with C_{2v} symmetry. In the K_2NiF_4 the (Mg, Fe) will be in the K site (Figure 1c), a nine-coordinated site with C_{4v} symmetry. In the perovskite structure (Mg, Fe) will be in the 12-coordinated Ca site (Figure 1d) with O_h symmetry. For the purposes of these calculations, the silicate structures are taken as identical to the type structure except for a scale factor determined by density. Where the type structure has (Fe, Mg) and Si in identical sites the Fe-O distance is taken so that Si-O is 1.78 Å as in stishovite (8) and the mean of Fe-O and Si-O is the distance given from the type structure.

It is assumed that all compressions are isostructural and that $\text{Fe}/(\text{Fe} + \text{Mg}) = .2$. The bulk modulus K was taken to be the mean predicted after Anderson (9) and Anderson and Anderson (10). dK/dP was taken to be 4 in a Birch-Murnaghan equation. As we shall see later, changing these

Figure 1

Coordination polyhedra for Fe^{2+} in proposed mantle minerals. a) Sr_2PbO_4 structure, b) CaFe_2O_4 structure, c) K_2NiF_4 structure, and d) perovskite structure.



elastic properties slightly does not affect the conclusion. A completely ionic model with actual ions replaced by point charges has been assumed and only nearest neighbor effects are considered. The crystal field energies have been calculated using a point charge technique described in Chapter II.

The assumptions of isostructural compression and of identical structures are, with minor exceptions mentioned above, virtually impossible to avoid or evaluate due to lack of structural data on silicates in these structures. The errors involved in estimating the radial integrals were estimated at about 10 percent in Chapter II. When all the sources of error are considered, it seems likely that the calculations are no better than 15 to 20 percent. This increase in error is due mainly to the assumptions of isostructural compression and ideal structures. Because of this large uncertainty the results must be considered only semiquantitative and the magnitude of possible errors must be considered in the subsequent discussion. However, one can still draw some important conclusions.

The results of the above calculations are given in Tables 2 and 3. Here the one-electron energy levels of Fe^{2+} ions in various structures at zero pressure and at various levels in the mantle are shown.

Before beginning a discussion of chemical fractionation of Fe^{2+} and Mg^{2+} in the lower mantle, a brief digression is in order, to evaluate the relative importance of CFSE's in Fe^{2+} distribution in minerals. Such a distribution will depend on the free energy of the minerals concerned and therefore, at some pressure and temperature on the enthalpy, the entropy and the specific volume. The CFSE contributes to the enthalpy while the ionic radius contributes to both the enthalpy (largely through its effect on CFSE) and the specific volume. In order to have a complete knowledge of the system the effect of entropy must also be considered. However, the accuracy of the predictions of CFSE and specific volume is not sufficient to warrant treating the free energy as such. It is probably safe to assume that if both CFSE and radius arguments favor Fe^{2+} enrichment in some phase such enrichment

TABLE 2

Energy levels of 3d orbitals of Fe^{2+} ions in $\text{Mg}_{1.6}\text{Fe}_{0.4}\text{SiO}_4$ in proposed high pressure phases. Where " z^2 " and " x^2-y^2 " are indicated these orbitals interact and " z^2 " indicates the combination which reduces to z^2 when interaction energy is zero. Energy units are cm^{-1} .

Sr_2PbO_4 structure ($\rho_0 = 4.09 \text{ gm/cm}^3$)

<u>E(0 km)</u>	<u>E(700 km)</u>	<u>E(1050 km)</u>	<u>Orbital</u>
4970	5650	5980	xy
1350	1450	1520	xz
1050	1160	1280	" x^2-y^2 "
-1760	-1930	-2170	" z^2 "
-5590	-6320	-6610	yz

K_2NiF_4 structure ($\rho_0 = 4.3 \text{ gm/cm}^3$)

<u>E(0 km)</u>	<u>E(1050 km)</u>	<u>E(1250 km)</u>	<u>Orbital</u>
2960	3950	4070	z^2
360	320	310	xz, yz
160	660	730	xy
-3820	-5240	-5410	x^2-y^2

CaFe_2O_4 structure ($\rho_0 = 4.3 \text{ gm/cm}^3$)

<u>E(0 km)</u>	<u>E(1050 km)</u>	<u>E(1250 km)</u>	<u>Orbital</u>
<u>8-site</u>			
1440	1640	1670	yz
1250	1670	1760	xz
570	720	750	xy
-310	-490	-530	" x^2-y^2 "
-2960	-3530	-3660	" z^2 "

6-site

7620	10670	11440	x^2-y^2, z^2
-5080	-7120	-7630	xy, yz, xz

TABLE 3

Energy levels of 3d orbitals of Fe^{2+} ions in $\text{Mg}_{0.8}\text{Fe}_{0.2}\text{SiO}_3$
in proposed high pressure phases. Energy units are cm^{-1} .

Ilmenite structure ($\rho_0 = 3.87 \text{ gm/cm}^3$)

<u>E(0 km)</u>	<u>E(700 km)</u>	<u>E(1050 km)</u>	<u>Orbital</u>
4329	4610	5490	x^2-y^2, z^2
-2890	-3070	-3660	xy, yz, xz

Perovskite structure ($\rho_0 = 4.45 \text{ gm/cm}^3$)

<u>E(0 km)</u>	<u>E(1050 km)</u>	<u>E(1250 km)</u>	<u>Orbital</u>
1520	1820	1890	xy, yz, xz
-1020	-1210	-1260	x^2-y^2, z^2

will occur. To estimate the size of CFSE terms required to produce appreciable fractionation consider the spectra of olivine and orthopyroxene as given by Burns (13). The difference in CFSE between M_1 and M_2 is about 100 cm^{-1} ; no fractionation is observed between these sites. On the other hand for orthopyroxenes the CFSE's of M_1 and M_2 differ by about 590 cm^{-1} ($M_2 > M_1$)* and there is appreciable fractionation between sites in the expected sense. On the other hand, the behavior of Fe^{2+} in garnet-olivine combinations (considerable Fe^{2+} enrichment in garnet), must be the effect of ionic radius since the CFSE's of garnet and olivine M_1 are identical. (Fe^{2+} is 0.05 \AA larger than the site available in forsterite.)

From the point of view of chemical fractionation of Fe^{2+} relative to Mg^{2+} the results are recast in Table 4. Between 650 km and 1050 km, Fe^{2+} shows a large (about 9 kcal/mole) crystal field stabilization energy (CFSE) preference for the Sr_2PbO_4 structure relative to that of ilmenite. This is large enough as to be valid as discussed.

* 1.68 kcal/mole (cf., 1.5 kcal/mole calculated by Ahrens (35)).

TABLE 4

Parameters affecting distribution of Fe^{2+} in the mantle. The dashed line separates structures found above and below the 1050 km discontinuity.

Structure (coord.)	CFSE ^a		r^b (Å)	I.R. ^c (Fe) (Å)	I.R. ^c (Mg) (Å)
	(cm^{-1})	(kcal/mole)			
Sr_2PbO_4 (7)	6610	18.9	2.16	(2.15)	(2.09)
Ilmenite (6) ^d	3660	10.5	2.17	2.15	2.09

CaFe_2O_4 (6)	[8690]	[24.9]	[1.88]	[1.93]	2.09
CaFe_2O_4 (8)	3530	10.1	2.09	2.28 ^e	2.27 ^e
K_2NiF_4 (9)	5240	15.0	2.23	(2.28) ^e	(2.27) ^e
Perovskite (12)	1210	3.5	2.40	(2.28) ^e	(2.27) ^e

a. Crystal field stabilization energy.

b. Metal-oxygen distance

c. Sum of radii of O^{2-} and M^{2+} from Shannon and Prewitt (11) except as otherwise noted. Parentheses indicate value for coordination other than that in high pressure phase.

d. Square brackets indicate value for low spin Fe^{2+} .

e. Interatomic distance for eight coordination in pyrope-almandine garnets (12).

above. However, trigonal distortion of the (Fe, Mg) site in ilmenite which will stabilize that site has been ignored so the effect may be smaller than calculated. The size of the sites involved is virtually identical so there will be no preference on that account. So one should expect Fe^{2+} to concentrate in the Sr_2PbO_4 structure relative to the ilmenite structure.

Below 1050 km Ringwood's model is less specific and Fe^{2+} partition in two different models must be considered: CaFe_2O_4 structure + perovskite structure and K_2NiF_4 structure + perovskite structure. In either case Fe^{2+} should avoid the perovskite structure because of the very small CFSE. Even a large non-cubic distortion of the dodecahedral site in the perovskite structure should not have enough effect to change this result. In the two other phases Fe^{2+} will have a very large preference for the six-coordinated site in the CaFe_2O_4 structure relative the K_2NiF_4 structure and the eight-coordinated site in CaFe_2O_4 . Furthermore, the Fe^{2+} will be spin-paired according to the criteria of Griffiths (14), producing a good fit in ionic size. The obvious conclusion is that Fe^{2+} will be spin-paired in the lower mantle if the assignment of the

CaFe_2O_4 structure is valid. Indeed if crystal field effects in Fe^{2+} alone were the deciding factor, $(\text{Mg,Fe})\text{SiO}_4$ in the lower mantle will not be in the K_2NiF_4 structure but must be in the CaFe_2O_4 structure.

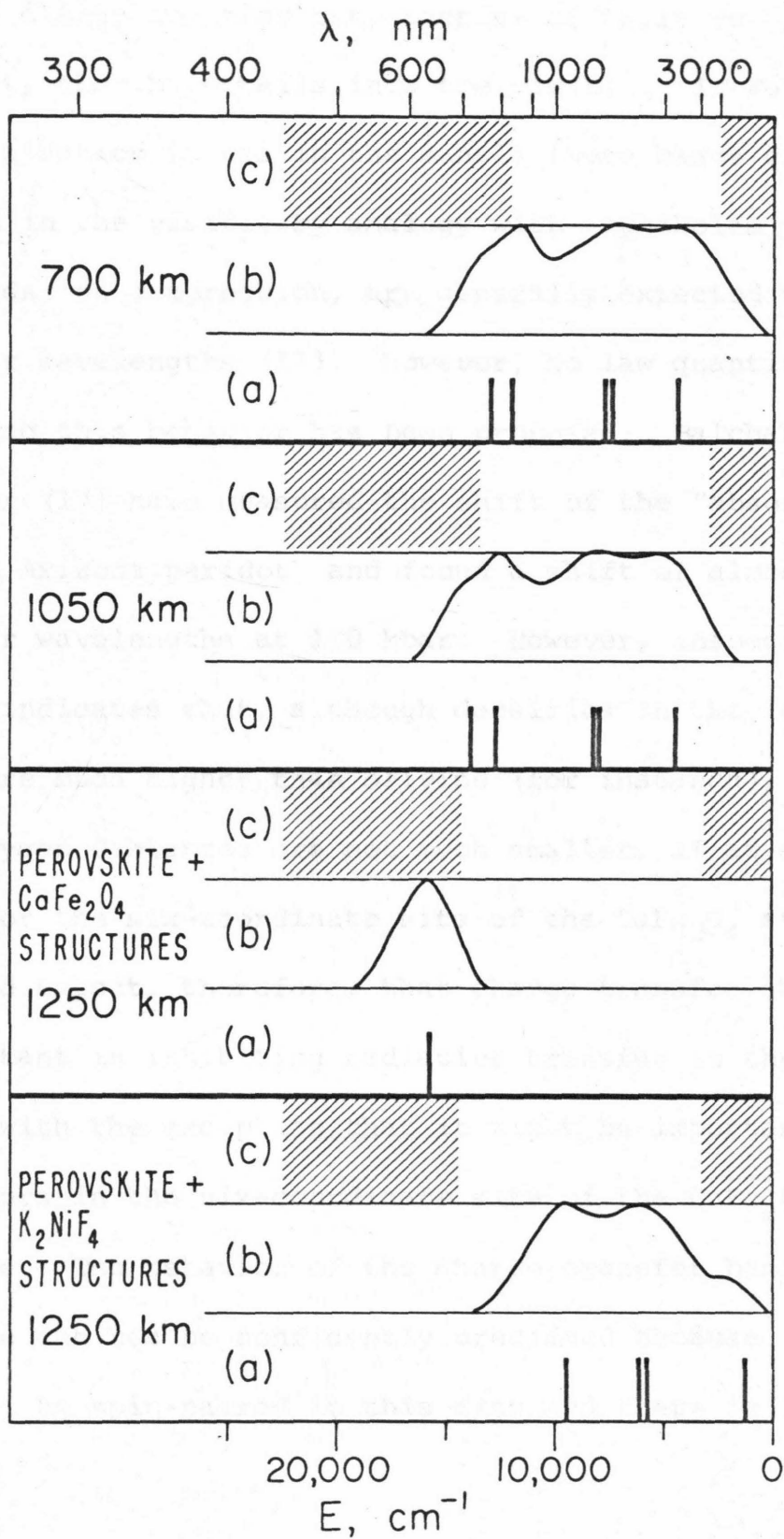
The effects of Fe^{2+} on possible radiative transfer in the mantle can be evaluated by considering transitions between the states in Tables 2 and 3. These transitions from the ground state to higher energy states occur with absorption of light of the appropriate energy. The theory of radiative transfer (5) requires low absorbance in the region of the spectrum of interest for radiative transfer. Figure 2 has some of the pertinent information shown for three levels in the mantle. The spectra are at very best only educated guesses based on these calculations. The width of the absorption bands and the intensities are arbitrary. The high temperatures in the mantle will lead to widening of absorption bands relative to low temperatures and the high pressures may lead to increase in intensity (15).

It is difficult to predict, with any certainty, the behavior of charge transfer bands with pressure in the mantle. At low pressures they are found in the ultraviolet



Figure 2

Factors governing radiative transfer in the mantle at three depths. At each depth (a) shows the positions of possible transitions from Tables 3 and 4, (b) shows a schematic absorption spectrum due only to Fe^{2+} absorption, and (c) shows the region of the spectrum of interest for radiative transfer as the unshaded portion.



for Fe-O charge transfer but, because of their very great intensity, they have tails into the visible. If Fe occurs in two oxidation states in the mantle these bands can be expected in the visible by analogy with amphiboles (16). Such bands, on compression, are generally expected to move to longer wavelengths (17). However, no law quantitatively describing this behavior has been proposed. Balchan and Drickamer (17) have measured the shift of the "absorption edge" in Arizona peridot and found a shift of almost 10% to longer wavelengths at 150 kbar. However, inspection of Table 5 indicates that, although densities in the lower mantle are much higher than olivine (for instance), the metal-oxygen distances are not much smaller, if at all, except for the six-coordinate site of the CaFe_2O_4 structure. One would expect, therefore, that charge transfer should not be important in inhibiting radiative transfer in the lower mantle, with the exception that it might be important if Fe^{2+} occurs in the six-coordinate site of the CaFe_2O_4 structure. The behavior of the charge transfer bands in that case can not be confidently predicted because the iron will be spin-paired in this site and there is little

data to extrapolate. However, Strens data on gillespite (18) indicate that for a triplet ground state the charge transfer bands are well into the ultraviolet.

It is apparent, even allowing for the possible errors in these calculations, that radiative transfer will be effectively blocked between 650 km and 1050 km by absorption due primarily to Fe^{2+} in the Sr_2PbO_4 structure. Below 1050 km both models will permit radiative transfer if charge transfer does not interfere with the CaFe_2O_4 structure model having a considerably larger radiative conductivity than K_2NiF_4 structure model.

Up to this point the pyrolite model does not contradict any of the known facts. However, when we calculate the seismic parameter ($\Phi = v_p^2 - 4/3 v_s^2$) and density of such a model in the following sections we shall find that a pyrolite composition for the lower mantle is not possible.

B. Effect of Fe^{2+} on the Mineralogy and Elasticity of the Lower Mantle

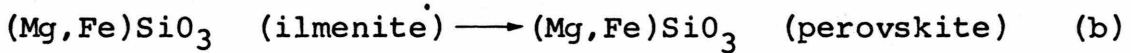
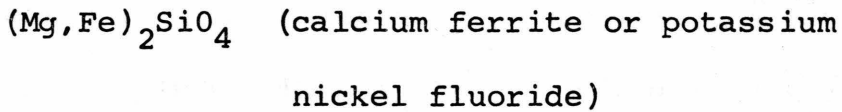
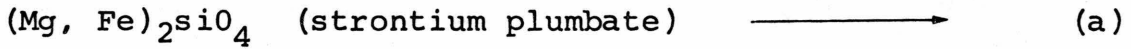
The mineralogy of Fe^{2+} in the lower mantle will depend on the behavior of three ions - high-spin Fe^{2+} , low-spin

Fe^{2+} and Mg^{2+} . These ions have radii of 0.77 Å, 0.61 Å*, and 0.72 Å, respectively (11). According to the Goldschmidt radius criterion for solid solubility (less than 15 percent difference in ionic radii) Mg^{2+} and Fe^{2+} (h.s.) can be expected to form solid solutions but Mg^{2+} and Fe^{2+} (l.s.) will not. The result will be that if Fe^{2+} goes to a low spin ground state in the lower mantle another phase will appear. This possibility of a separate phase for Fe^{2+} (l.s.) leads to several more potential phase changes in the lower mantle.**

* This radius is based both on sulfide crystal structure and on plots of ionic radius versus electronic configuration. Fe^{2+} (l.s.) has not been observed in either oxides or fluorides, nor has any other low-spin divalent first row transition metal ion been observed in oxides. However, the trivalent counterparts are known. Shannon and Prewitt plot ionic radius versus number of 3d electrons for these ions and find fairly smooth variability from d^0 to d^6 (Co^{3+}) and from d^6 to d^{10} for the low-spin compounds. The values for low-spin Fe^{2+} and Co^{2+} deduced from sulfides behave in a very similar manner which lend some credence to the values given. However, a fairly large error must be attached to the radius of low-spin Fe^{2+} , perhaps about .03 Å.

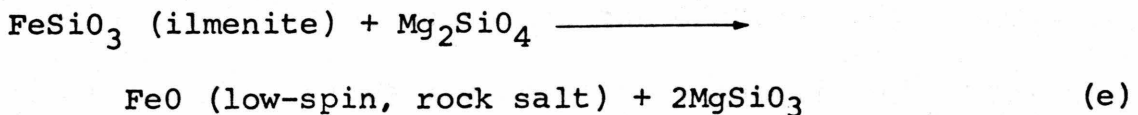
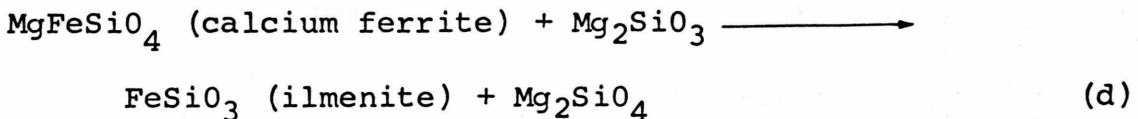
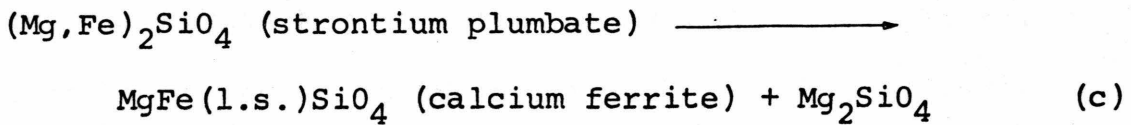
** The Goldschmidt radius criterion is only a rule of thumb to which numerous exceptions can be cited. At high temperatures, especially, it is to be expected that a larger variability of size could be accommodated in a solid solution. However, pressure should act to decrease the range of ionic sizes that can be accommodated. The net result is that it is difficult to predict how the criterion should be modified for use in the lower mantle. It will be used here as stated above with the caveat that solid solution between Fe^{2+} (l.s.) and Mg^{2+} cannot be ruled out unequivocally in the lower mantle.

The phases possible with Mg^{2+} and Fe^{2+} (h.s.) are taken to be those of Ringwood (7) so that there are two phase changes in which may occur in a pyrolite below 700 km, viz.,



No denser phases have been proposed, but Johnson (19) and Whitcomb and Anderson (20) and others have detected evidence for at least five discontinuities in the lower mantle.

It has already been pointed out that Fe^{2+} should prefer, in any such reactions, to spin-pair and enter the six-coordinate site of a calcium ferrite structure as $Mg^{VIII}(FeSi)^{VI}O_4$. We shall also be interested here in other possible reactions involving low-spin Fe^{2+} . Three reactions are likely



The zero pressure density of these proposed minerals can be estimated using the radius of low-spin Fe^{2+} and various density systematics. For FeO in the rock salt structure the relation $a_0 = 2(r(\text{Fe}^{2+}, \text{l.s.}) + r(\text{O}^{2-}))$ is used where $r(\text{O}^{2-})$ is taken as 1.38 \AA which predicts the correct a_0 for MgO. Then $a_0(\text{FeO}, \text{l.s.}) = 3.99 \text{ \AA}$ and $\rho_0 = 7.55 \text{ gm/cm}^3$. Using this value for $\rho_0(\text{FeO}, \text{l.s.})$ and the relation (7) that ρ_0 (ilmenite) is 3 percent less than that of the isochemical mixture of oxides one finds $\rho_0(\text{FeSiO}_3) = 5.43 \text{ gm/cm}^3$.

For the density of MgFeSiO_4 in the calcium ferrite structure two systematic relations derived from unit cell volume-ionic radius systematics (Table 5) are used. The first is relation between unit cell volume (4 formula units) and the radius of the octahedral ion for nine compounds $\text{M}^{2+} \text{X}_2^{3+} \text{O}_4$ in the calcium ferrite structure. The six compounds with $\text{M} = \text{Ca}$ define a straight line. If this line is projected to the arithmetic or geometric mean of $r(\text{Si}^{4+})^{\text{VI}}$ and $r(\text{Fe}^{2+}, \text{l.s.})^{\text{VI}}$ the probable unit cell volume of $\text{Ca}(\text{FeSi})\text{O}_4$ is obtained. (Reid et al. (21) have shown that for $\text{NaM}^{3+}\text{X}^{4+}\text{O}_4$ compounds the distribution M and X in the octahedral sites are completely random so we are

TABLE 5. Volume Systematics for $M^{2+}X_2^{3+}O_4$ in Calcium Ferrite Structures

Compound	Unit Cell Volume \AA^3	VIII r_M (\AA)	VI r_X (\AA)	Reference
$CaFe_2O_4$	298	1.12	.645	(36), (37)
CaV_2O_4	288	1.12	.640	(38)
$CaCr_2O_4$	295	1.12	.615	(36)
$CaAl_2O_4$	264	1.12	.530	(39)
$CaSc_2O_4$	330	1.12	.730	(40)
$CaIn_2O_4$	350	1.12	.790	(41)
$MgSc_2O_4$	320	.89	.730	(42)
$SrSc_2O_4$	350	1.25	.730	(43)
$SrIn_2O_4$	369	1.25	.790	(44)

justified in treating the sites as equivalent even though they are crystallographically distinct. They also point out that the observed interatomic distances are very nearly equal to those derived by taking the mean of the two radii.) Next, it is noted that for the MSc_2O_3 and MIn_2O_3 compounds the difference in unit cell volume for $M = Ca$ and $M = Sr$ is a constant (20 \AA^3). The inference can be drawn therefrom that substitution of the M^{2+} ion can be treated as a simple addition of a constant to the unit cell volume determined for MX_2O_4 for the same X. For $MgSc_2O_3$ this term is just 8 \AA^3 /unit cell so the unit cell volume is 240 \AA^3 or 236 \AA^3 for the arithmetic or geometric mean radius, respectively. The mean (238 \AA^3) leads to a density of 4.76 gm/cm^3 .

A second approach to the same data leads to a similar conclusion. The percentage difference between the density of the mixed isochemical oxides and the calcium ferrite structure depends on the radius of the eight-coordinated divalent ion. Although calcium ferrite structures are up to 8.6 percent denser than the oxides for large divalent ions, they are actually less dense for small ions such as Mg^{2+} . Using the value of 2.5 percent (from $MgSc_2O_4$) for $MgFeSiO_4$ the predicted density is 4.76 gm/cm^3 . (In the

section on elastic properties the density of $\text{Fe}^{\text{VIII}}(\text{h.s.})$ $\text{Fe}^{\text{VI}}(\text{l.s.})\text{SiO}_4$ in this structure will also be needed. Noting that in garnets Mg^{VIII} and $\text{Fe}^{\text{VIII}}(\text{h.s.})$ are almost identical in size (12) one would predict a density of 5.63 gm/cm^3 for this phase. If, on the other hand one assumes it is 2.5 percent less dense than the oxides the density is 5.55 gm/cm^3 ; here the density $\rho_0 = 5.6 \pm 0.0 \text{ gm/cm}^3$ is adopted.)

Although the potassium nickel fluoride and perovskite structures of most compounds should be considerably denser than the corresponding oxides, this will not be true for the low-spin ferrous minerals because the Fe^{2+} must remain in six-coordination in order for the crystal field splitting of the 3d electronic energy levels to be sufficient to maintain the low-spin ground state. If the Si^{4+} were to go to coordination greater than six these structures might include low-spin iron, but that is unlikely to occur below several megabars pressure.

Having determined the structure and uncompressed density of possible low-spin ferrous minerals in the mantle let us now consider their response to pressure, that is their bulk moduli and pressure derivatives, again employing systematics to predict behavior where there is no experimental data.

Plotting the compressibility against inverse molecular volume for compounds of the composition MO involving both zincite and rock salt structures (Figure 3), and ignoring, for the moment, the transition metal oxides (except MnO where Mn^{2+} has five d-electrons in a half-filled shell so there are no crystal field effects) a linear relation is obtained for all mean atomic weights

$$\frac{1}{K(\text{Mb})} = - 0.04 + .035V_{\text{molec}} (\text{\AA}^3)$$

whence one infers $K(\text{FeO, l.s.}) = 1.950 \text{ Mbar}$. However, the observed values of FeO, CoO and NiO fall well below the curve. These cations have, respectively, one, two and three d-electrons contributing to crystal field effects. There seems, therefore, to be an effect due to these electrons leading to a different behavior. Indeed, the four transition metal oxides fall very close to a straight line themselves:

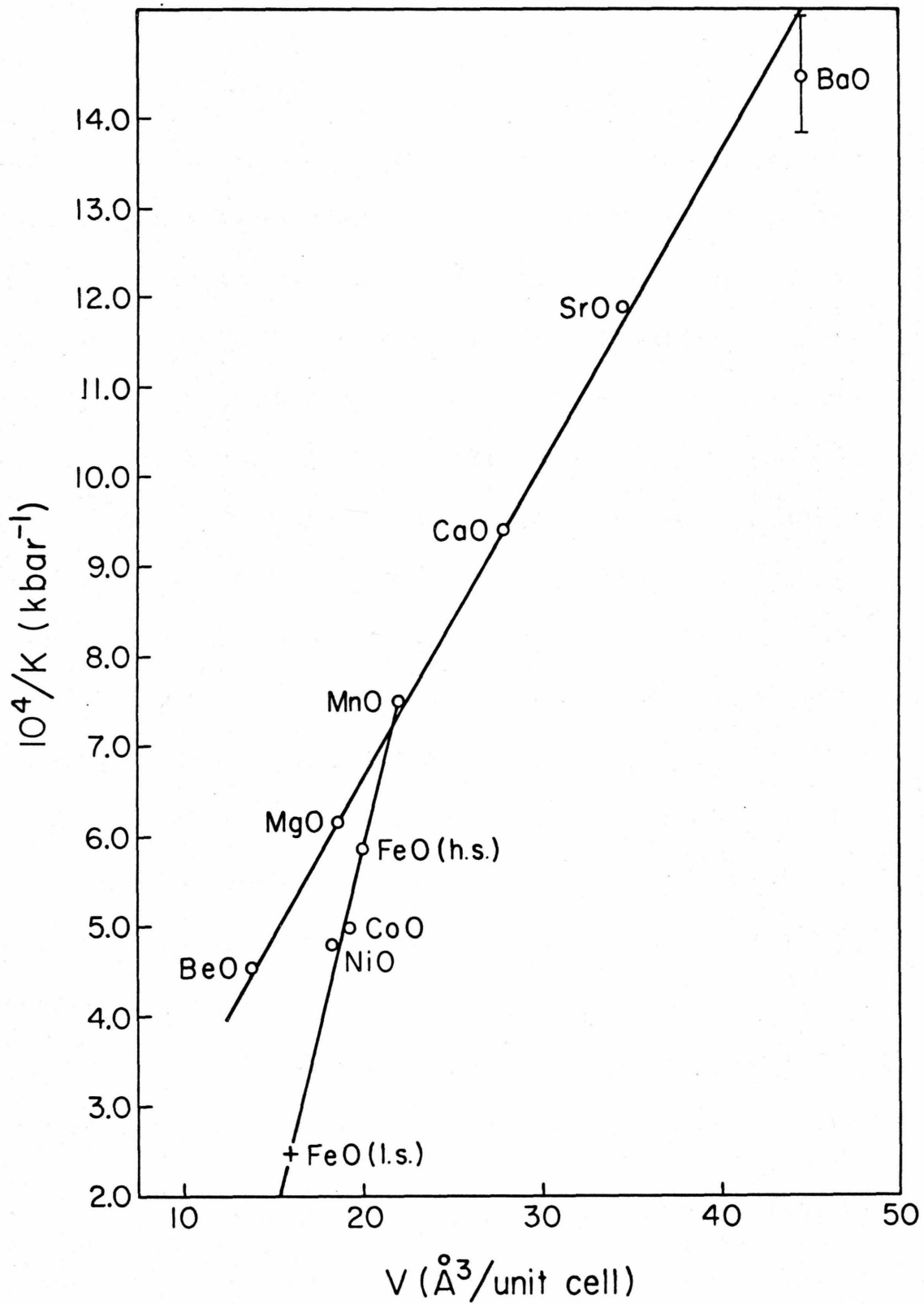
$$\frac{1}{K(\text{Mb})} = - 1.076 + .083V_{\text{molec}} (\text{\AA}^3).$$

Since low-spin Fe^{2+} also has d-electrons contributing to crystal field effects (six of them) it seems preferable to use this relation to infer $K(\text{FeO, l.s.}) = 4.160 \text{ Mb}$.

There is less data for sesquioxides but the three oxides without crystal field effects (Al_2O_3 , Fe_2O_3 and SrTiO_3) all

Figure 3

Compressibility-density systematics for oxides MO.



lie on the line:

$$\frac{1}{K(\text{Mb})} = -0.04 + 0.01V_{\text{molec}} (\text{\AA}^3)$$

but the oxide Cr_2O_3 with two ions with crystal field effects lies slightly below that line. The Cr_2O_3 and Fe_2O_3 points are too close to justify the inference of a crystal field line as with MO; furthermore the use of such a line derived for $\text{M}_2^{3+}\text{O}_3$ to predict behavior for $\text{M}^{2+}\text{N}^{4+}\text{O}_3$ crystal field effects would not appear, on the face of it, to be reasonable. Rather, take Φ_0 for low-spin FeO and assume that the Φ_0 's of the oxides are additive in a compound whose density is near that of the mixture of oxides (9). Using $\Phi_0=82.2 (\text{km/sec})^2$ for stishovite (22) the predicted bulk moduli of FeSiO_3 and MgFeSiO_4 are 3.74 Mbar and 2.9 Mbar, respectively. (For Fe_2SiO_4 in the calcium ferrite structure $K=3.1 \pm .025$ Mbar).

In order to estimate the magnitude of dK/dP in the high pressure phases of the lower mantle we have used a relation between the density and $(dK/dP-5/3)$. In Figure 4 we show the experimental data taken from Anderson et al. (23) and Davies and Anderson (24)*. There is considerable scatter

* Davies and Anderson's data is reduced from shock wave experiments and depends on the equation of state used by them. The values given by them for iron-rich compounds have been omitted for the present study.

Figure 4

Variation of dK/dP with density. + ultrasonic data (23), • static compression data (28), Δ shock wave data (24), O shock wave data for polymineralic rocks (24) (G = granite, E = eclogite), \square shock wave data for feldspar-rich systems (24) (N = albitite, K = microcline, N, NC = two points: oligoclase and anorthosite. Numbers by points indicate mean atomic weight (\bar{M})).

but the points with mean atomic weight near 20 define a fairly good straight line (on a log-log plot) whose equation is

$$\frac{dK}{dP} = \frac{5}{3} + \left(\frac{k_{20}}{\rho} \right)^3 \quad \text{where } k_{20} = 4.6 \frac{\text{cm}^3}{\text{gm}}$$

For greater mean atomic weights k_M is larger, about 5.6 for $\bar{M} = 30$ and 6.8 for $\bar{M} = 35$. These relations, with interpolation, are used to infer dK/dP for mantle minerals. The properties of mantle minerals used below are given in Table 6 along with the aggregate properties of some rocks composed of those minerals.

There is some experimental evidence supporting both the occurrence of low-spin iron at high pressures and the elastic properties we have predicted for such compounds. McQueen et al. (25) have measured the Hugoniot of four iron-rich phases: hortonolite dunite, fayalite, magnetite and hematite. Davies and Gaffney (26) calculate the Hugoniot shown in Figure 5 for the elastic properties as derived here, assuming that the former two have both Fe^{2+} (low-spin) and Si^{4+} in six-coordination (and either Mg^{2+} or Fe^{2+} (high-spin), respectively in eight-coordination) in the calcium ferrite structure, magnetite has Fe^{3+} (low-spin) in six-coordination

TABLE 6. Properties of Mantle Minerals and Rocks

Composition	Mineral Structure	P ₀	M̄	K ₀ (kb)	φ ₀	K' ₀	Rock	Composition ^a	ρ ₀	φ ₀	K ₀	K' ₀	P 1600	φ 1600
(Mg _{0.9} Fe _{0.1}) ₂ SiO ₄	Str ₂ PbO ₄	4.02	21.07	2302	57.26	3.17	A	.36Ho+.64En (ilmenite)	4.21	59.5	2503	3.13	4.04	56.0
Mg ₂ SiO ₄	K ₂ NiF ₄	4.17	21.07	2665	63.91	3.01	B	.33Ho+.67Fo (str. plumb.)	4.13	60.6	2503	3.22	3.97	57.1
	Str ₂ PbO ₄	3.85	20.10	2272	59.00	3.37	C	.33Ho+.67Fo(K ₂ NiF ₄)	4.25	64.0	2720	3.03	4.08	60.8
	K ₂ NiF ₄	3.99	20.10	2621	65.69	3.20	D	.33Fs+.67Fo(K ₂ NiF ₄)	4.35	66.5	2894	2.95	4.18	63.5
Mg(FeSi) ₄ (i.s.)	CaFe ₂ O ₄	4.76	24.61	2900	60.92	2.69	E	.22Ho+.11Fs+.67En(perovskite)	4.46	70.5	3142	2.88	4.28	67.8
MgMSiO ₄	CaFe ₂ O ₄	3.90	20.29	2163	55.47	3.30	P1		4.00	58.5	2339	3.20	3.84	54.7
(Mg _{0.89} Fe _{0.11})SiO ₃	ilmenite	3.96	20.76	2280	59.57	3.23	P2 c		4.03	60.0	2416	3.25	3.87	56.2
	perovskite	4.28	20.76	3111	72.69	2.91	P3 c, d		4.05	61.1	2474	3.23	3.89	57.5
MgSiO ₃	ilmenite	3.84	20.08	2255	58.72	3.39	P4 a, c		4.08	62.1	2534	3.17	3.92	58.6
	perovskite	4.15	20.08	3076	74.12	3.02	P5 b, c, d		4.12	65.1	2681	3.13	3.96	61.7
FeSiO ₃	ilmenite	5.43	26.39	3740	68.88	2.45	P6 a, c, d		4.13	66.2	2732	3.14	3.97	62.9
CaSiO ₃	perovskite	3.97	23.23	3096	77.99	3.22	P7 b, c		4.13	62.9	2598	3.36	3.97	59.5
Al _{1.64} Cr _{0.18} Fe _{0.18} O ₃	sapphire	4.15	21.90	2032	48.95	3.02	P8 a, b, c		4.19	64.1	2687	3.08	4.02	60.8
FeO (low spin)	rock salt	7.55	35.93	4160	55.10	2.40	P9 a, b, c, d		4.20	68.2	2864	3.05	4.03	65.1
Fe ₂ SiO ₄	CaFe ₂ O ₄	5.6	29.1	3100	55.36	2.65	P10 a, b, c, d, e		4.24	69.3	2938	3.00	4.07	66.3

a. Ho = MgFeSiO₄(Calc. ferr.)

En = MgSiO₃

Fo = Mg₂SiO₄

Fs = FeSiO₃(ilmenite)

for rocks Pl-P10 composition is that of pyroxene

a, b, c, d, and e indicate that those reactions (see text p.) have occurred.

a and b refer to any composition M₂SiO₄ and MSiO₃ respectively

Figure 5a

Predicted Hugoniot of hortonalite dunite assuming high pressure phase is MgFe(1.s.)SiO_4 in a calcium ferrite structure with the properties given in Table 7. O - experimental data (25), H - initial density, \downarrow - zero pressure density of high pressure phase.

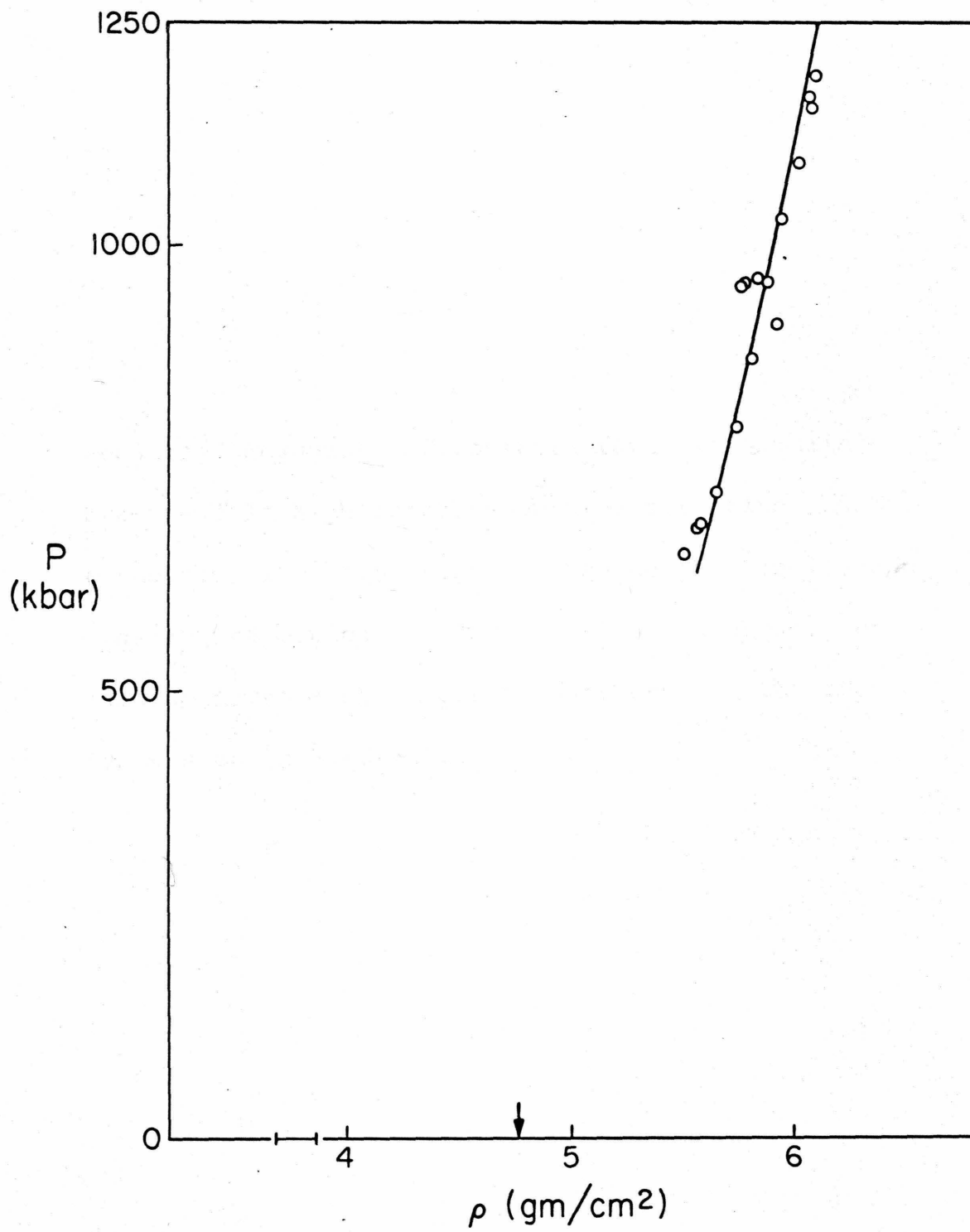


Figure 5b

Predicted Hugoniot of Rockport fayalite assuming two possible high pressure phases: strontium plumbate structure with high-spin iron having the density and elastic properties of wustite plus stishovite, or calcium ferrite structure as discussed in the text. Symbols as in Figure 5a.

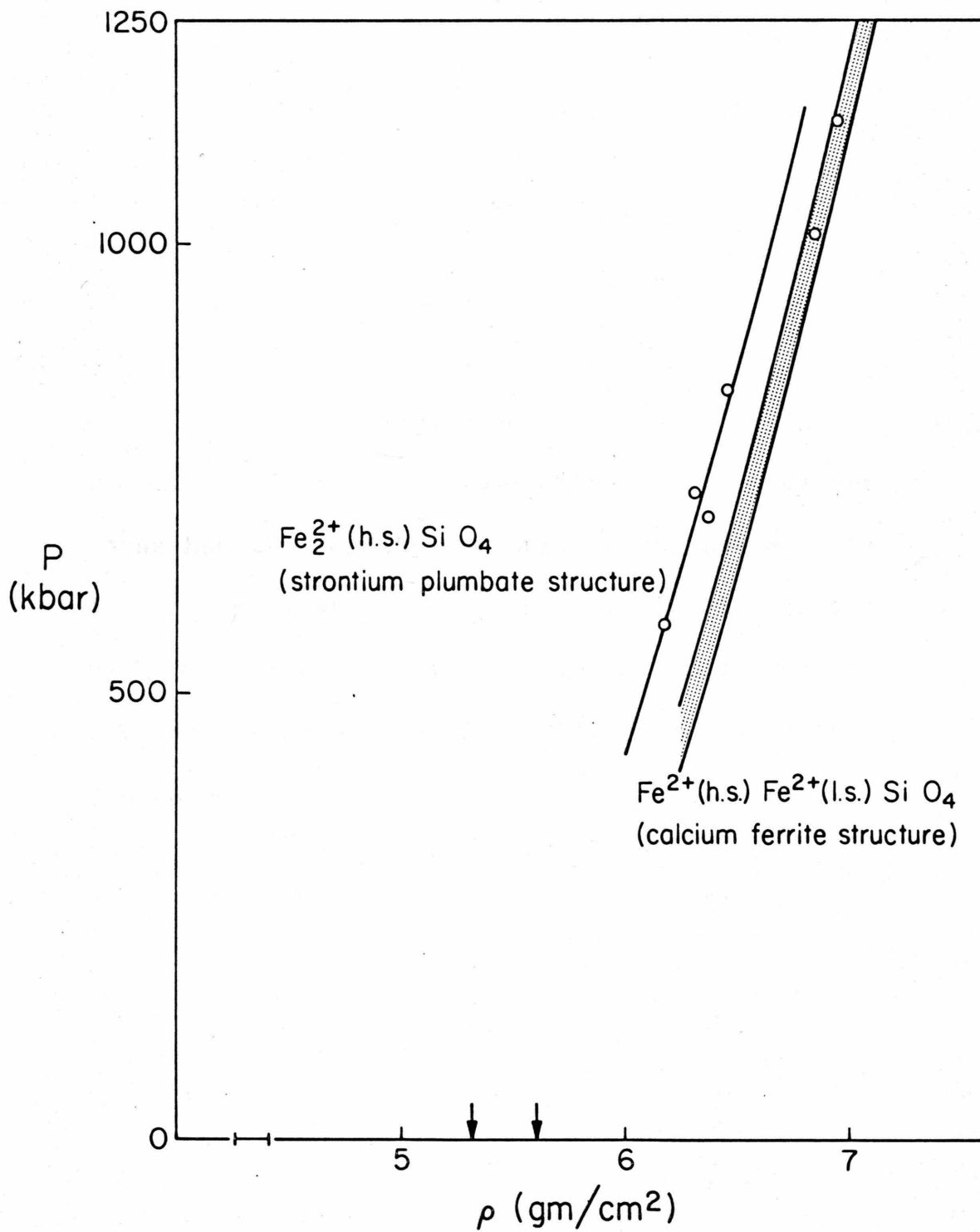


Figure 5c

Hugoniot of hematite assuming that high pressure phase has the density appropriate for low-spin Fe^{3+} in a corundum structure. The bulk-modulus of the high pressure phase has been chosen so as to fit the data of McQueen et al. (25). Symbols as in Figure 5a.

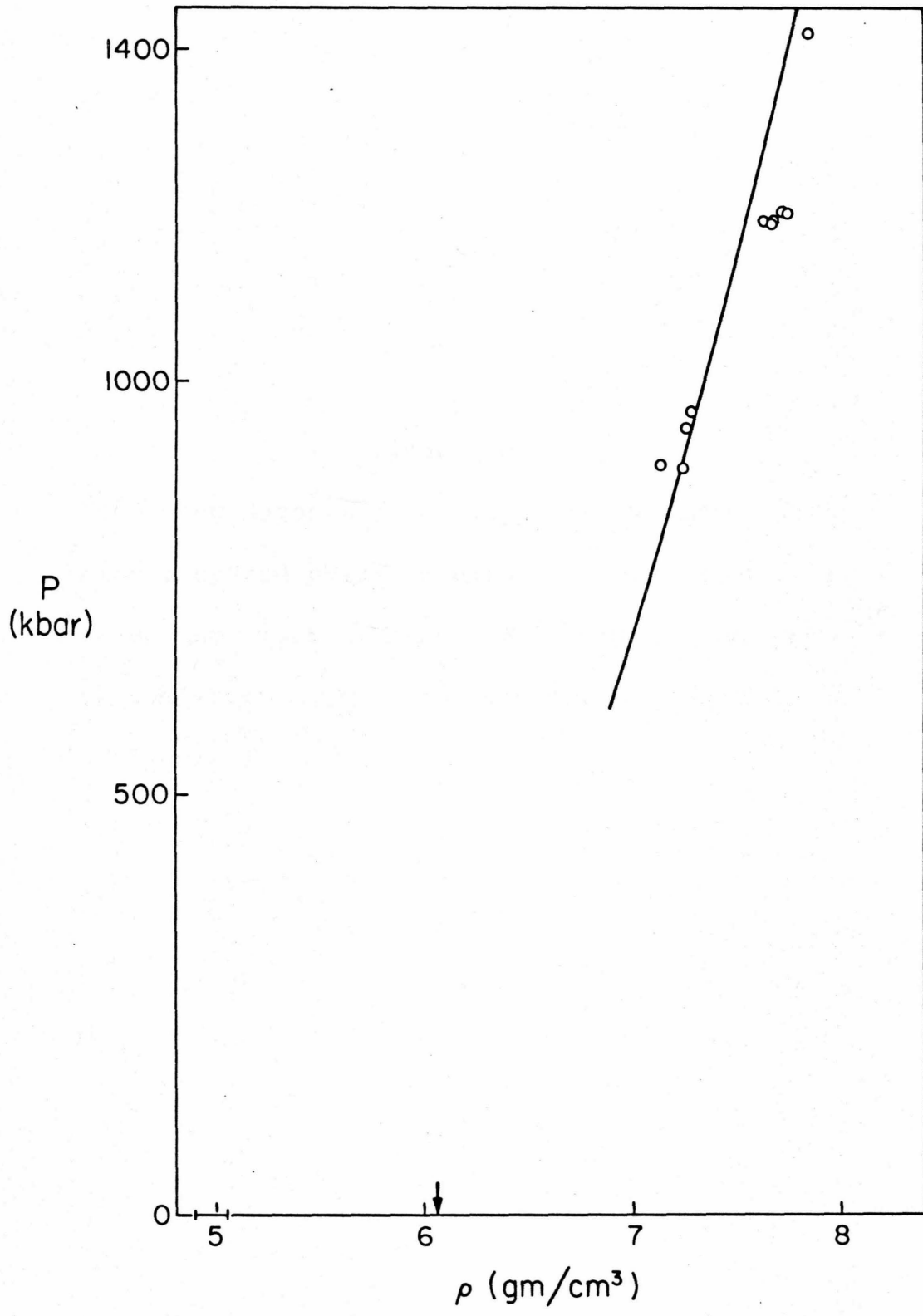
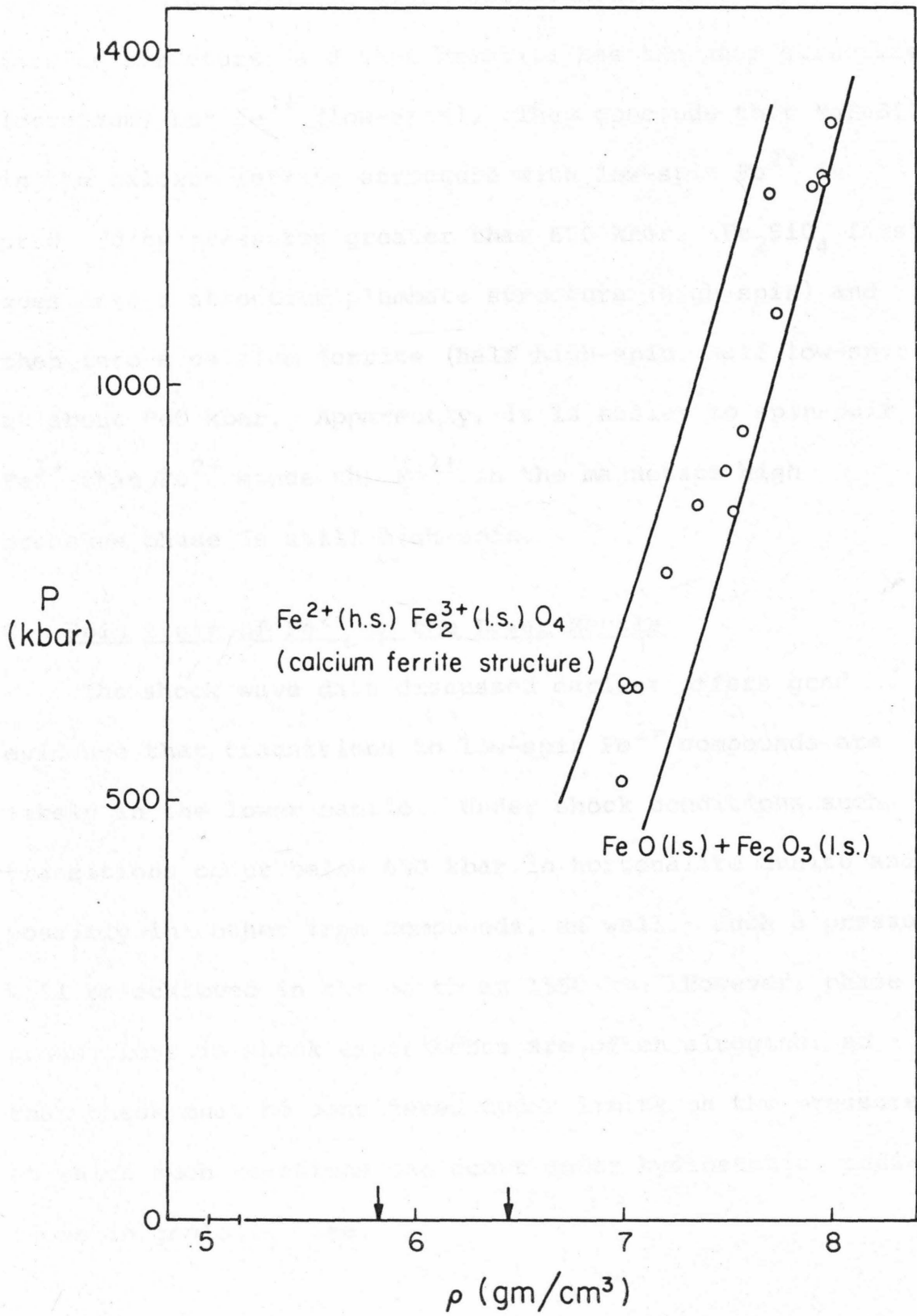


Figure 5d

Predicted Hugoniot for magnetite assuming that the high pressure phase is either a calcium ferrite structure (with high-spin Fe^{2+} and low-spin Fe^{3+}) or a mixture of the low-spin oxides. Symbols as in Figure 5a.



and Fe^{2+} (high-spin) in eight-coordination in the calcium ferrite structure, and that hematite has the same structure (corundum) but Fe^{3+} (low-spin). They conclude that MgFeSiO_4 in the calcium ferrite structure with low-spin Fe^{2+} is produced by pressures greater than 650 kbar. Fe_2SiO_4 first goes into a strontium plumbate structure (high-spin) and then into a calcium ferrite (half high-spin, half low-spin) at about 900 kbar. Apparently, it is easier to spin-pair Fe^{3+} than Fe^{2+} since the Fe^{2+} in the magnetite high pressure phase is still high-spin.

C. Spin State of Fe^{2+} in the Lower Mantle

The shock wave data discussed earlier offers good evidence that transitions to low-spin Fe^{2+} compounds are likely in the lower mantle. Under shock conditions such transitions occur below 650 kbar in hortonolite dunite and possibly in other iron compounds, as well. Such a pressure will be achieved in the earth at 1550 km. However, phase transitions in shock experiments are often sluggish, so that these must be considered upper limits on the pressures at which such reactions can occur under hydrostatic conditions in geologic time.

In Chapter II the variation of the crystal field parameter with compression was discussed. The crystal field was separated into a part proportional to r^{-3} and a part proportional to r^{-5} where r is the interatomic distance between the transition metal and the coordinated ion. This technique worked fairly well in predicting the zero pressure spectra of several ferrous iron compounds. It was shown in Chapter IV that this point charge model predicts the behavior of the spectrum of ruby with up to 15% volume compression. This model is used below and the results are expected to be accurate to about 10 to 20 percent as before.

The problem of crystal field effects is more complicated if we wish to consider the possibility of spin-pairing. The energy difference between states of different spin-multiplicity will depend not only on the crystal fields but also on the magnitude of the electron repulsion energy. This energy enters into the calculation by way of the Racah parameters, B and C .

In an octahedral site the crystal field energy required to induce spin-pairing in Fe^{2+} will be about $4C + 2 \frac{1}{2} B$ (14). As the interatomic distance decreases increased covalent bonding is expected to lower B and C . Indeed, the

value of B and C in Fe^{2+} in minerals is less than that of the free-ion as shown in Chapter III. However, no simple relation between B, C and R can be derived. In the models below both r^3 and r^6 are used as the variability of B and C with R.

Calculations of crystal field strengths combined with knowledge of the Racah parameters provides another means of bounding the pressures required to produce spin-pairing. The pressure required to induce spin-pairing in the high-spin phases such as $(\text{Mg}, \text{Fe})_2\text{SiO}_4$ spinel or $(\text{Mg}, \text{Fe})\text{SiO}_3$ ilmenite will be an upper limit since the spin-paired state could be achieved earlier in some phase peculiar to low-spin Fe^{2+} (such as MgFeSiO_4 in the calcium ferrite structure). The upper limits are more than 1 Mbar for $(\text{Mg}, \text{Fe})_2\text{SiO}_4$ (strontium plumbate structure) and $(\text{Mg}, \text{Fe})\text{SiO}_3$ (ilmenite). However, for wustite using Mizutani *et al.*'s (22) elastic data and dK/dP from Figure 4 transition pressures at 0°C will be 370 and 250 kbar for the lower and upper limits on the variability of B and C from Chapter III. At the higher temperatures of a geotherm, spin-pairing is predicted at 460 and 340 kbar (1200 km and 900 km). Although FeO is probably not a separate phase in the mantle this will

still be a good upper limit on the pressures of the high- to low-spin transition. As pointed out by Strens (27) the local compressibility about Fe^{2+} in most oxides and silicates is probably much less variable than the bulk compressibility of the host. (It should be noted that this is not the same calculation as that undertaken by Strens (27). He attempted to estimate an equilibrium between FeO (h.s.) and FeO (l.s.). Furthermore, although he did use B and C lower than the free-ion values, he did not consider them to decrease further upon compression. Data cited at the end of Chapter III were thus not considered.) Static compression studies of FeO up to 300 kbar (28) indicate that the r^6 upper limit for variability of B and C is too high. No discontinuity in the lattice constant was seen up to 300 kbar, but the occurrence of spin-pairing should very certainly produce one because no change in structure (only in spacing) is required.

On the other hand, the lower limit of stability of low-spin Fe^{2+} in these low-spin phases will be a lower limit on the transition pressures. The low-spin compounds are

predicted to be low-spin even at zero pressure.* The result is that, with the present inaccuracies, primarily in predicting the Racah parameter, it is not possible to predict the exact pressure at which spin-pairing can be expected in the lower mantle. Further experimental work, especially at low pressures on hortonolite is required to resolve this difficulty. Nonetheless we are assured that below 1200 km any Fe^{2+} in the earth's mantle will be spin-paired, and this reopens the question of the composition of the lower mantle.

D. Composition of the Lower Mantle

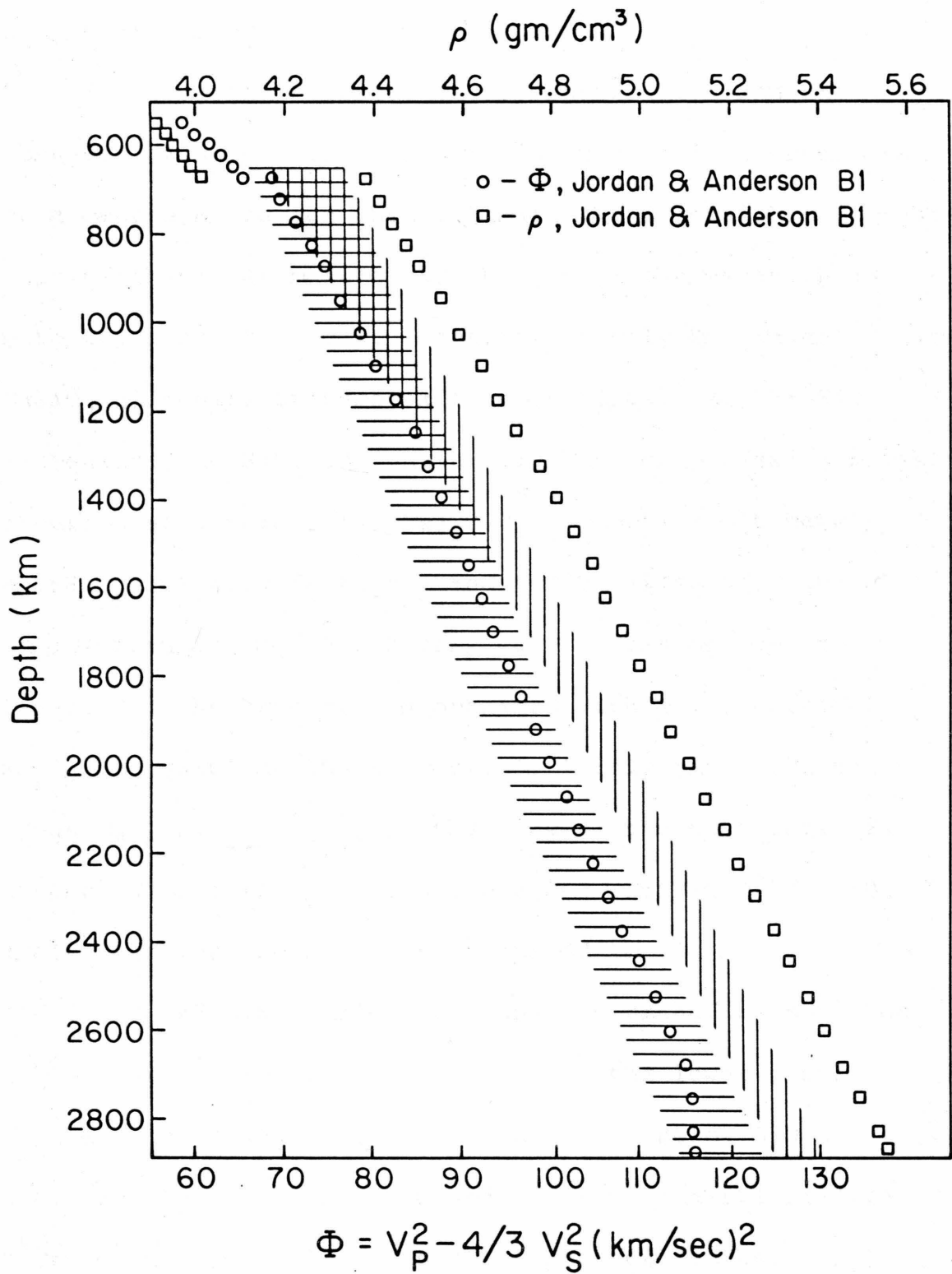
Given that Fe^{2+} will be in a low-spin state somewhere in the lower mantle we turn to an investigation of its effects on geophysically observable quantities. The effect on the importance of radiative transfer was discussed earlier and the general results of that argument are still valid, i.e., radiative transfer will be important if Fe^{2+} is spin-paired but will be inhibited by crystal field absorption if it is not spin-paired.

* That is not to say that they are thermodynamically stable, only that if they did exist at zero pressure they would be low-spin.

Using the elastic properties given earlier (Table 6) the density ρ and the seismic parameter ϕ can be calculated for various minerals and rocks in the mantle. A Murnaghan equation rather than a Birch-Murnaghan equation is used to extrapolate to high pressures because it is probably more appropriate for small dK/dP such as have been adopted. The calculations were carried out using the continental geotherm of Stacy (29) with $dK/dP = -1.5$ kbar/deg and $\alpha = 25 \times 10^{-6}$. An initial set of calculations was done using Ringwood's pyrolite composition with high pressure transitions (a) through (e) occurring at a variety of levels. The range of the calculated $\phi (=K/\rho)$ and ρ 's is shown in Figure 6. Values deduced from seismic data by Jordan and Anderson (30) are shown for comparison. The densities are much too low throughout the lower mantle although the ϕ 's are acceptable. Agreement is best above 800 km where a pyrolite composition is barely possible. This is not surprising since pyrolite composition was, in fact, designed on the basis of upper mantle data. In the region above 800 km the best pyrolite model has Fe^{2+} spin-paired in $MgFeSiO_4$ (calcium ferrite structure). No fit of pyrolite to the data can be obtained

Figure 6

Range of values calculated for density (vertical pattern) and seismic parameter (horizontal pattern) with a pyrolite bulk composition. Observed values (30) are given for comparison.

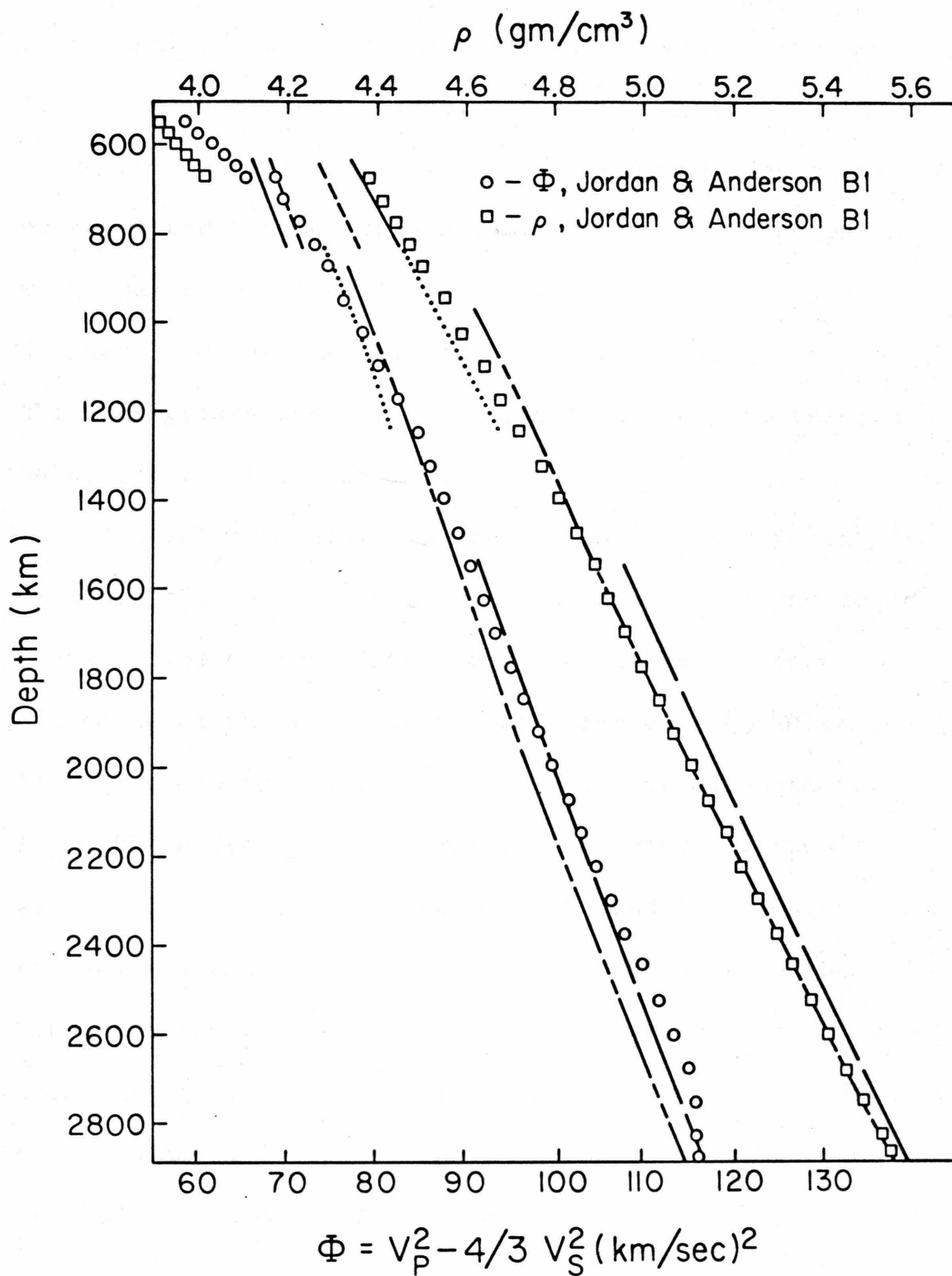


with high-spin iron. Below 800 km, no phase assemblage with a pyrolite composition fits the data.

Plotting the probable major mineral data and the observed seismic data in a ρ - Φ plot for various pressures on a geotherm one can then estimate the mineralogic composition of the lower mantle and then check the estimate as with the pyrolite model. Considering only Mg, Fe and Si in MgSiO_3 (ilmenite or perovskite structure), $(\text{Mg, Fe})\text{SiO}_3$ (ilmenite), Mg_2SiO_4 (strontium plumbate or potassium nickel fluoride structure), $(\text{Mg, Fe})_2\text{SiO}_4$ (strontium plumbate), MgFeSiO_4 (calcium ferrite), and FeSiO_3 (ilmenite) the seismic results can be fit very well as can be seen in Figure 7. The best fit is obtained with a composition $\text{Mg}_{1.67}\text{Fe}_{.33}\text{SiO}_4$ at 650 km varying, fairly smoothly, to about $\text{Mg}_{.89}\text{Fe}_{.33}\text{SiO}_{3.21}$ at the core-mantle boundary. The latter value corresponds to .40 MgO + .15 FeO + .45 SiO₂ (mole fraction) which can be compared to .38 MgO + .16 FeO + .46 SiO₂ (mole fraction) determined by Anderson (31) to be the average composition of the lower mantle. All of the iron in this model is spin-paired below 630 km. Above about 1500 km the low-spin ferrous mineral will be MgFeSiO_4 but FeSiO_3 is present at greater depths. The

Figure 7

Density and seismic parameter for several possible
mantle assemblages: — A, --- B, C, - - - - D,
- - E.



values for ρ_0 and $\dot{\phi}_0$ in Table 6 range from 3.97 to 4.28 g/cm³ and 56.0 to 67.8 (km/sec)² respectively for the lower mantle mineral assemblages at $P = 0$, $T = 1600^\circ\text{C}$ which is the approximate value of the lower mantle adiabat extrapolated to the surface (32). This can be compared with the values of 4.11 - 4.14 g/cm³ and 55.0 - 57.5 (km/sec)² determined by Anderson and Jordan (2) to be the appropriate average values, determined from seismic data, for the lower mantle.

A brief comment is in order regarding the possibility of other elements, primarily Al, Ca and Na, in the lower mantle. The effect of the addition of the oxides or silicates of these metals can be inferred from Table 6. All three minerals will lower the density although for Al₂O₃ the effect will be small. The seismic parameters will be lowered by addition of Al₂O₃ and to a lesser extent by NaAlSiO₄ but will be raised by addition of CaSiO₃. Since the fit to the density of the lower mantle is quite good but the calculated $\dot{\phi}$ is somewhat too high, additions of up to about 10 percent Al₂O₃ might be possible without jeopardizing the fit to the observations. Only small

amounts of NaAlSiO_4 and CaSiO_3 can be accommodated, however, because of their large effect on density.

E. Origin of the Upper Mantle

The likelihood of iron and silicon enrichment in the lower mantle relative to the upper mantle has been shown. The presence of a separate phase containing Fe^{2+} will greatly facilitate such a process if it does occur. At low pressures in silicate systems, it is usually found that silica and iron are concentrated in the early melting components, so they might be removed by any type of partial melting. However, at several hundred kilobars Si should be six-coordinated and Fe^{2+} should be spin-paired, so there is no reason to expect behavior similar to that at low pressures. Indeed Fe^{2+} should prefer the solid to the liquid if spin-paired by extension of the argument of Burns and Fyfe (33) and Curtis (34). This effect should be accentuated by the small ionic radius of Fe^{2+} (low-spin). So it can be expected that if the lower mantle were ever partially molten that it should be enriched in iron relative to, say, the upper mantle which would receive the early melt. If the Fe^{2+} solid being left behind in the lower

mantle were FeSiO_3 , some silica enrichment would also occur. Low-spin Fe^{2+} in the lower mantle provides a convenient mechanism for iron (and perhaps silicon) enrichment in the lower mantle, and its elastic effects do not remove the imperative from seismological data that such enrichment exists. It seems, therefore, that the upper mantle is a differentiate of the whole mantle just as basalt is commonly regarded as a differentiate of the upper mantle (pyrolite).

The upper mantle, for which pyrolite can be taken as a good approximation, contains much less FeO and SiO_2 than inferred here for the lower mantle. A recent model by Ahrens (35) likewise has less FeO . Ringwood (4) has considered the whole mantle to be uniform in composition and, therefore, to be deficient in SiO_2 and FeO compared to carbonaceous chondrites, the presumed parent material for the Earth and the other terrestrial planets. He, therefore, devised a scheme by which ferromagnesian silicates were reduced in the high temperature, terminal stages of accretion and the reduced Fe and Si entered the core, thereby depleting the mantle in FeO and SiO_2 . The present composition of the mantle can be matched by chondrite abundances (3) and this removes the motivation to expose the mantle

material to the reduction processes envisaged by Ringwood (4) and also removes the main argument that silicon is the light alloying element in the core.

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VI. SUMMARY

Iron is generally considered to be an important constituent of the earth's mantle. Its behavior will, to a great extent, be determined by crystal field effects on electronic energy levels. Crystal field theory has been briefly reviewed with particular emphasis on the point charge model which permits prediction of one electron energy levels. They are found to depend on interatomic distance R as $A_2/R^3 + A_4/R^5$. Given these, a complete energy level scheme can be obtained, for many symmetries, with the use of the two Racah parameters B and C . If absorption spectra are available the one electron energy levels can be determined from the location of spin-allowed bands and the Racah parameters, from the spin-forbidden bands.

The spectra of spinels, garnets, gillespite and olivines are investigated. After due consideration of electronic transitions in other elements, all of those containing Fe^{2+} as the dominant transition metal are found to have features attributable to spin-forbidden transitions in Fe^{2+} . These bands are assigned and values of Racah parameters fit to the observed data with standard

deviations on the order of 1 - 2 percent. The resulting B's range from 582 cm^{-1} to 797 cm^{-1} ; C's from 2601 cm^{-1} to 3457 cm^{-1} with C/B always near 5. There is some indication that B and C decrease with interatomic distance but the effects of coordination are dominant. Previous work indicates that on compression B and C are proportional to R^n where $n = 3$ to 6.

A new experimental technique has been developed for measuring time-resolved optical absorption spectra of solids during shock loading. The technique is used to demonstrate that shock stresses in excess of 465 kbar are required to produce substantial changes in the absorption spectrum of MgO. From a study of spectra of shocked ruby it can be determined that a) below the Hugoniot elastic limit (HEL) there are considerable non-hydrostatic strains, b) above the HEL these strains are not observable, and c) the variation of the crystal field parameter, Dq , with compression above the HEL follows the prediction of the point charge model.

Using the point charge model, as well as various systematic relationships between density and bulk elastic constants, the effects of Fe^{2+} on the properties of the

lower mantle are predicted. It is found that the mantle below 670 km cannot be a pyrolite but must have more iron. Furthermore, this iron will be spin-paired. With Fe^{2+} spin-paired in the lower mantle, radiative transfer will be considerably enhanced relative to the upper mantle. The best fit to the observed seismic data is obtained with a lower mantle varying from $\text{Mg}_{1.67}\text{Fe}_{.33}\text{SiO}_4$ at 650 km to $\text{Mg}_{.89}\text{Fe}_{.33}\text{SiO}_{3.21}$ at the core-mantle boundary. Considerable Al_2O_3 but only minor amounts of NaAlSiO_4 and CaSiO_3 can also be accommodated. It has been proposed that the upper mantle has been derived by chemical fractionation from the lower mantle.

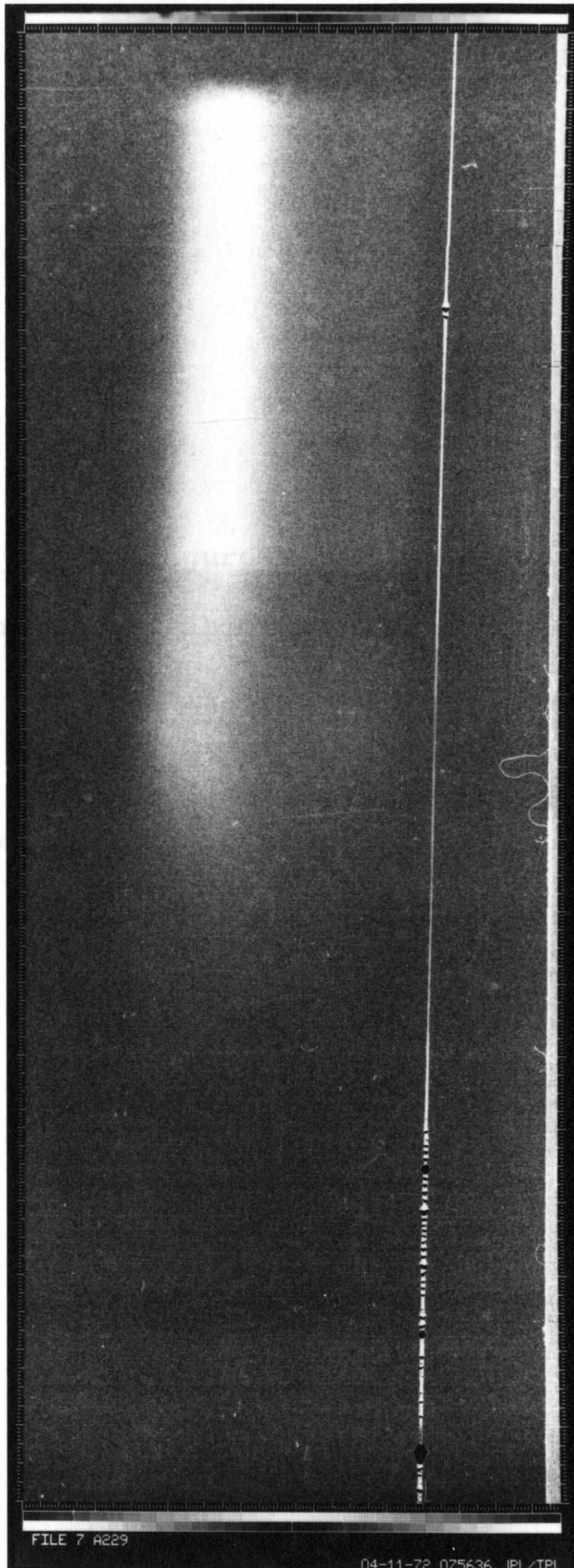
APPENDIX. DATA REDUCTION OF SHOCKED RUBY SPECTRA

The raw data from the spectrograph system (Chapter IV) are in the form of 4 x 5 inch Royal-X pan negatives. These are developed in Acufine developer yielding an effective ASA rating of 3000. The negatives were then scanned, digitized and stored on magnetic tape by JPL's Image Processing Laboratory. The spot size was 25 microns with a line spacing of 25 microns. All of the photographs of spectra shown here (Figures 1 and 2) and in Chapter IV are prints of negative produced in the scanning process as a check on the density scale in the scan.

The data were read off the tape line by line and averaged over four successive lines and plotted as shown in Figure 10 Chapter IV with the Calcomp plotter. The resulting curves were then smoothed by hand. These smoothed data were then analysed by subtracting later lines from a typical line just after shock arrival in the sample. Typical results of such data reduction are shown in Figures 3, 4 and 5. Absorptions behind the shock front will appear as positive features while those in front of the shock front will be negative features.

Figure 1

Digitized record of absorption spectrum of ruby shocked to 147 kbar. Time increasing downward, red on the right and violet on the left. Vertical scratch is at about 700 nm.

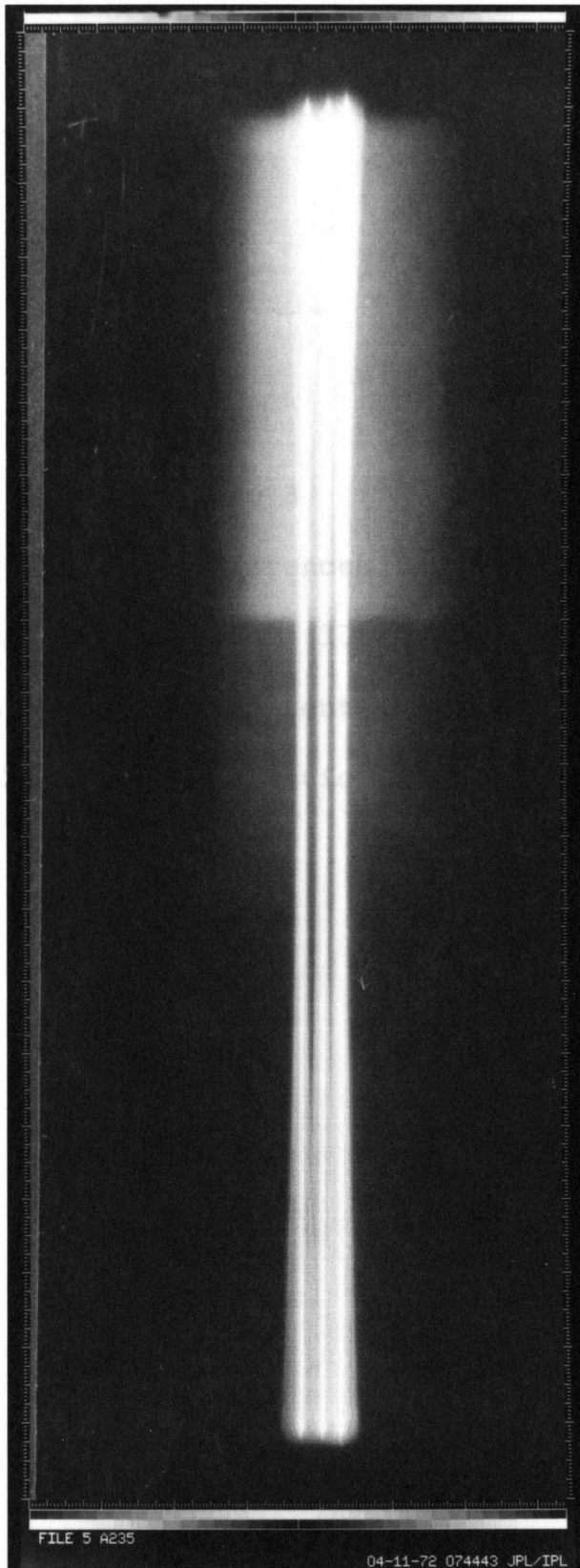


signed
checked to
correctly
then the
to this

ruby
increasing
mission
from left

Figure 2

Digitized record of absorption spectrum of ruby shocked to 530 kbar final pressure. Time increasing downward. The three (overexposed) laser emission lines are at 457.9 nm, 488 nm and 514.5 nm from left to right.



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Figure 3

Two representative differences between lines in the photograph shown in Figure 1. A large number of absorption bands are apparent in this record which is below the Hugoniot elastic limit of sapphire.

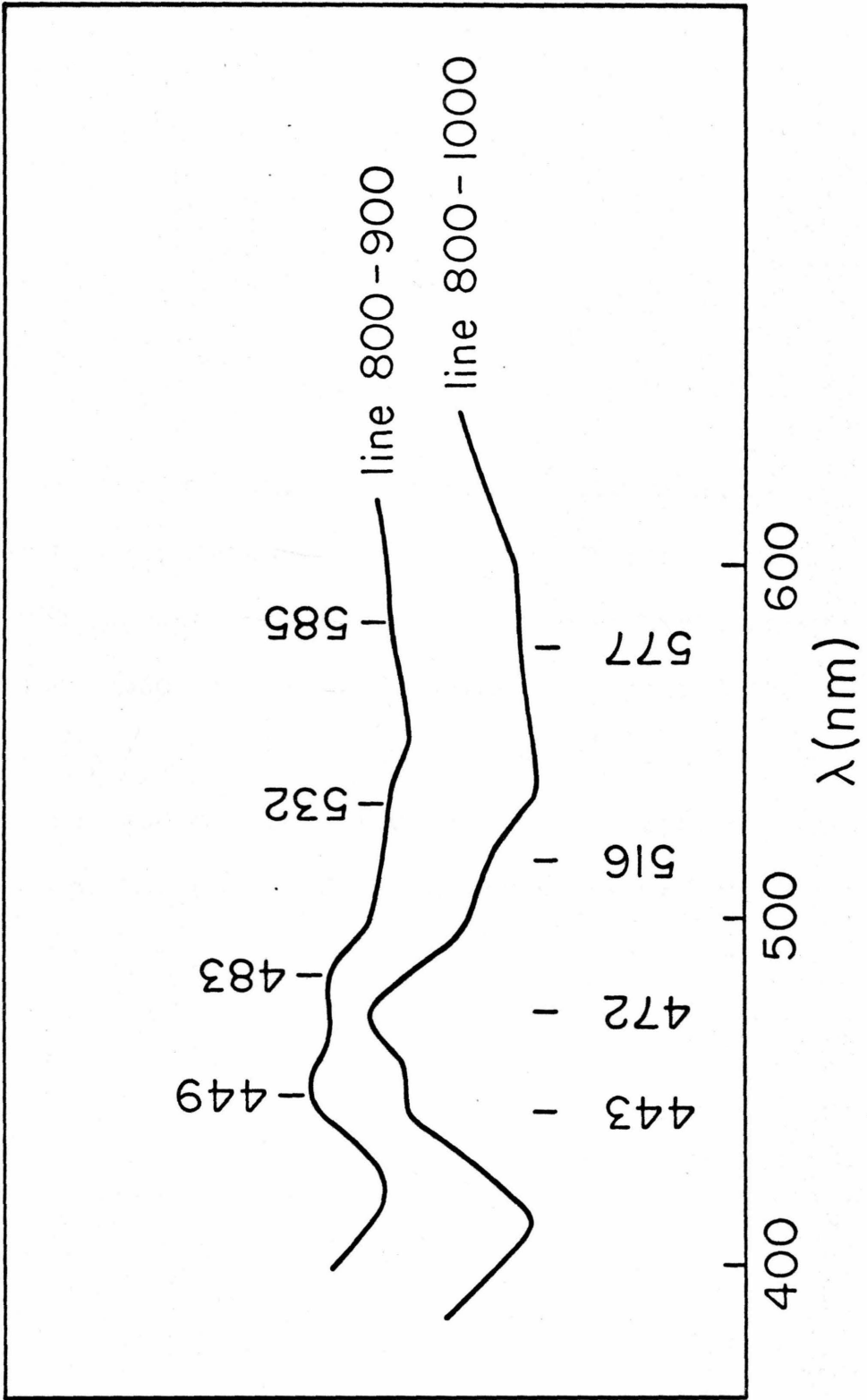


Figure 4

Two representative differences between lines in photograph shown in Figure 10, Chapter IV for ruby shocked to 430 kbar. The positive features at about 460 nm are due to absorption behind the shock front in the high pressure region. The features at about 400 and 550 nm are due to absorption in the unshocked region ahead of the shock front.

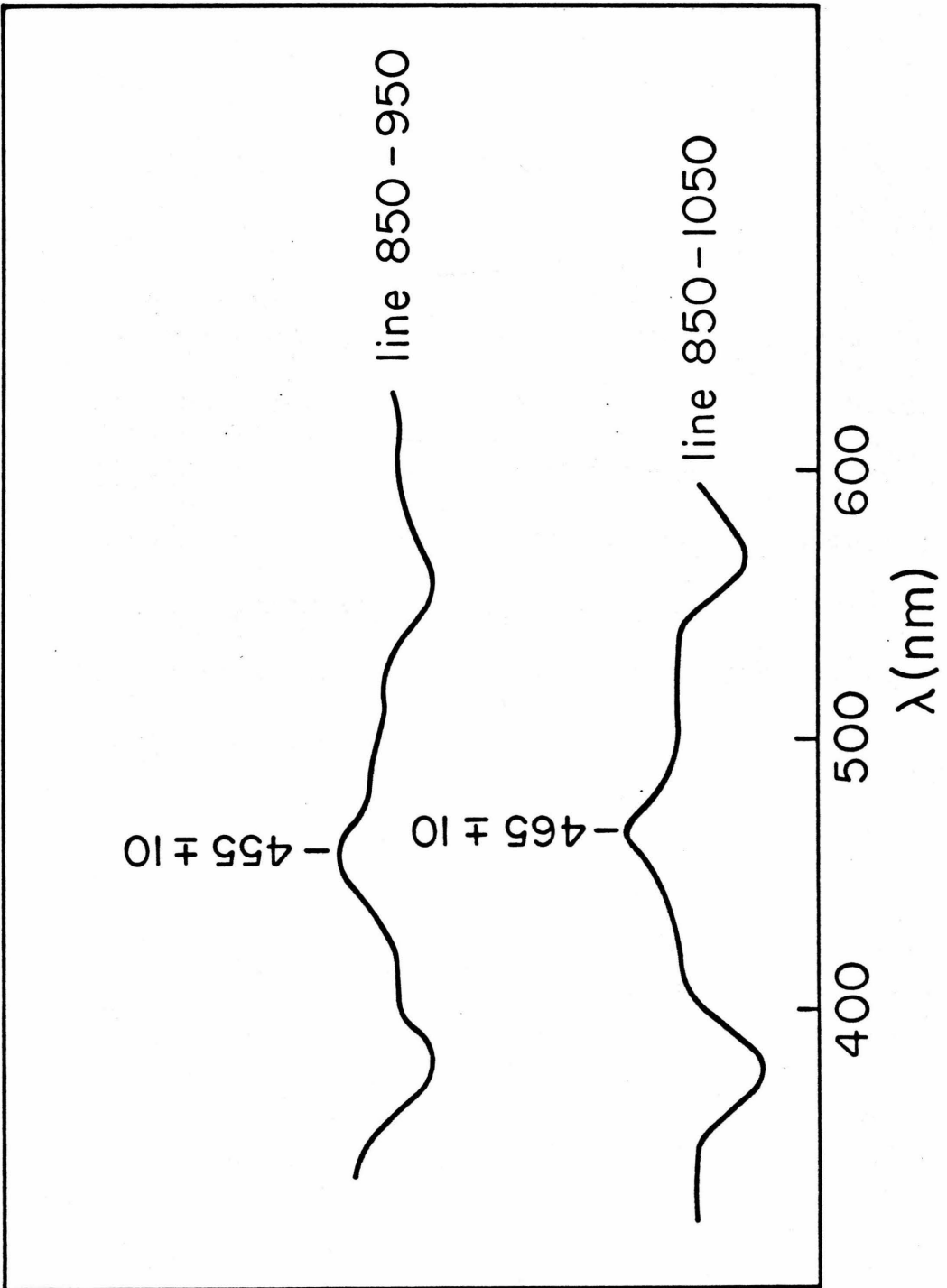
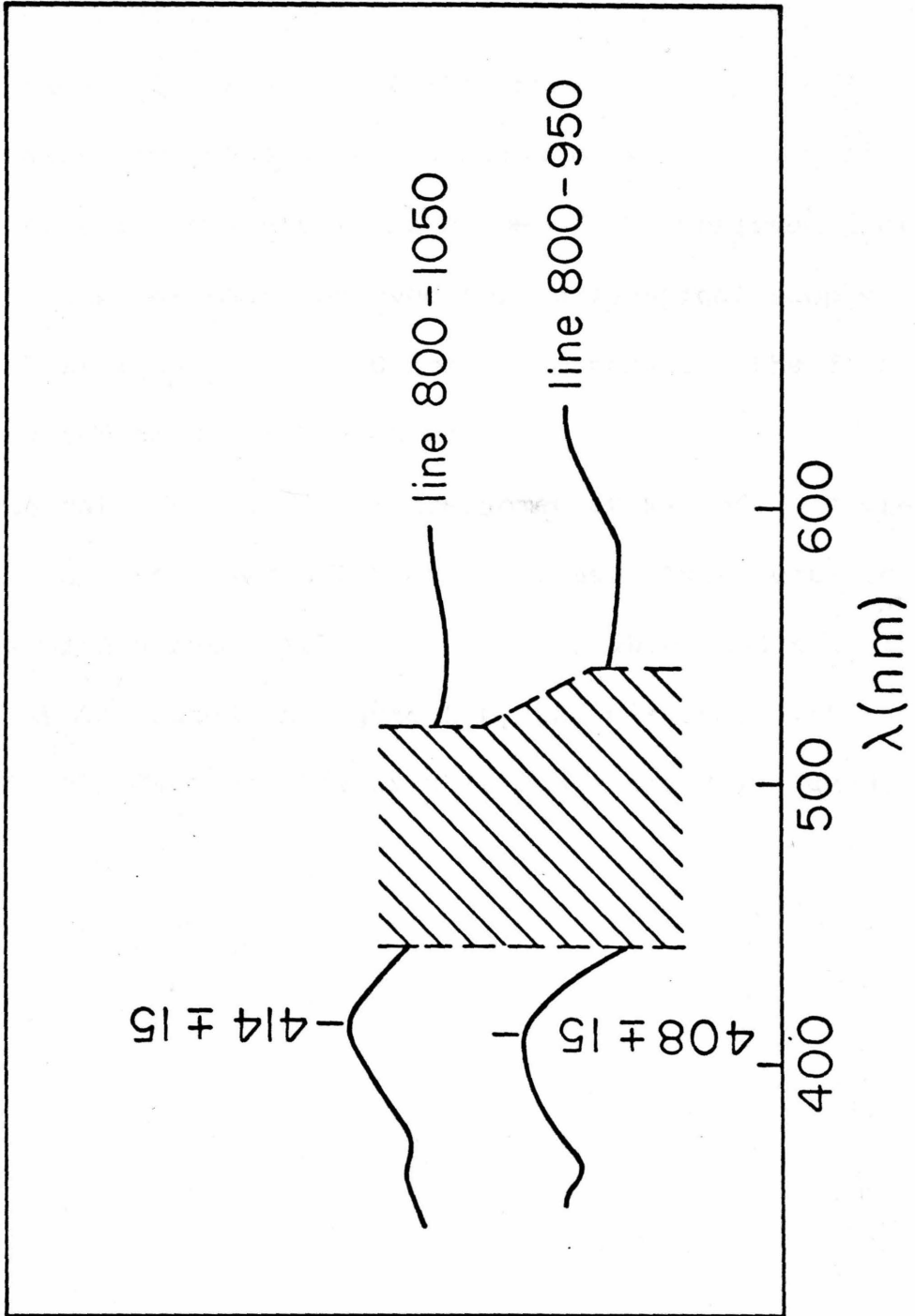


Figure 5

Two representative differences between lines in the photograph shown in Figure 2 for ruby shocked to 530 kbar. Unlike previous records this one shows absorption increasing at about 400 nm indicating strong absorption in the shocked medium there. There is a decrease in absorption at 550 nm as in lower pressure shots.



In one case (147 kbar shock pressure, Figures 1 and 3) there are no laser emission lines for wavelength calibration. In this case the dispersion on the negative was obtained by changing the spacing between data points for plotted results until the shape of the observed profiles were the same as that observed for an identical sample with calibration lines (430 kbar). Otherwise, the data were treated as described above.

The data from 530 kbar are somewhat marred by over-exposure of the laser calibration lines. This resulted in loss of any data between 440 nm and about 530 nm. This region is indicated in Figure 5 by the diagonal pattern. However, the data outside of this range are quite good.

BIOGRAPHICAL NOTE

On a cold winter's night, 'twas in Brooklyn, New York,

That our hero was brought into life by The Stork

In the year nineteen hundred plus forty and three.

For the next sixteen years, betwixt forest and sea,

Oh, he wandered this country by air and by rail

'Til he finally settled on college at Yale.

It was there amongst young men who'd deal soon in stocks

He spelunked and began on his study of rocks.

And then, after B.S., nineteen sixty and four,

He continued his studies at Eliazar's door.

After two years, a Master in geology,

He began his return to the westernmost sea.

First a year out in Westwood with nothing to show,

And from there on to Caltech (well, wouldn't you know?).

It was here, under Rossman and Ol' Uncle Tom,

That he did all this junk. And to what will it come?