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1 **In situ X-ray observation of 10Å phase stability at high pressure**

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15 ABSTRACT

16 The 10Å phase, Mg₃Si₄O₁₀(OH)₂·H₂O, is a high-pressure hydrous phyllosilicate considered as
17 an important link in the succession of hydrous phases transporting water into the deep mantle. In
18 this study, in situ synchrotron X-ray diffraction combined with external heating diamond-anvil
19 cell was used to determine limits of the 10Å phase stability at pressures above 7 GPa. A reaction
20 '*10Å phase + H₂O → hydroxide-perovskite (3.65Å phase) + stishovite*' at about 10 GPa was
21 found to be a high-pressure boundary of the 10Å phase stability field. A dehydration temperature
22 of the 10Å phase '*10Å phase → enstatite + stishovite + H₂O*' decreases with pressure from
23 690°C at 7 GPa to 450°C at 10 GPa; a nonvariant point where 10Å phase, hydroxide-perovskite

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24 and enstatite coexist in the presence of stishovite and hydrous fluid was found near 10 GPa and
25 450°C.

26 KEYWORDS: 10Å phase, 3.65Å phase, hydroxide-perovskite, DHMS, deep water cycle

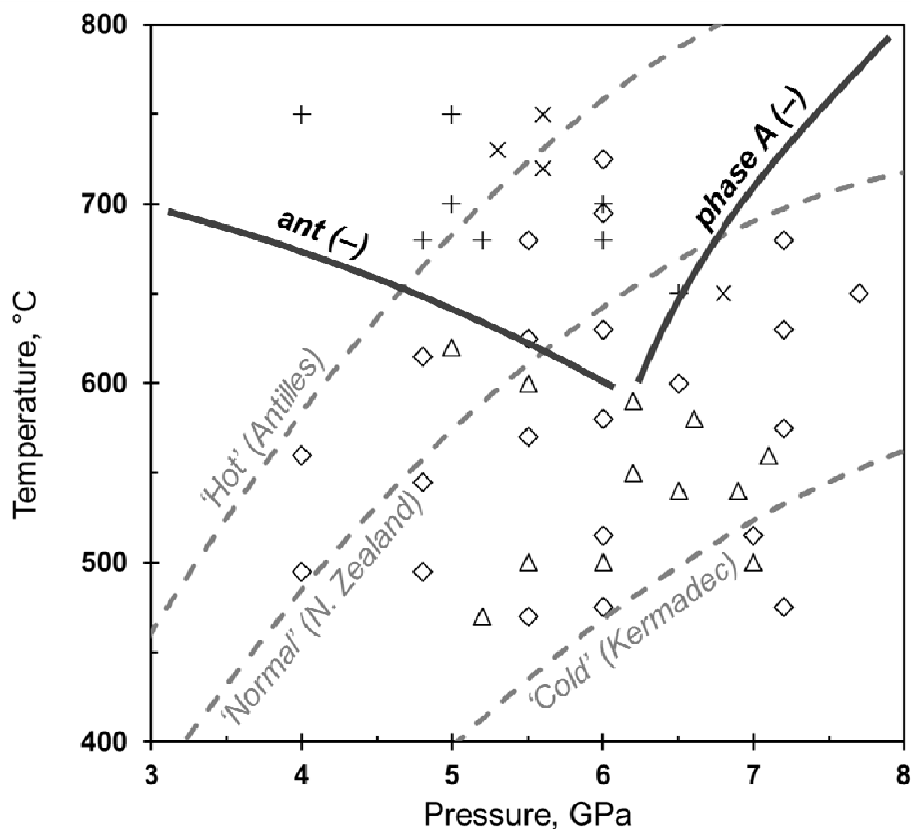
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28 INTRODUCTION

29 A number of observations, such as electrical conductivity anomalies in the mantle transition
30 zone (MTZ) (e.g., Koyama et al., 2006), seismic evidences of dehydration melting beneath MTZ
31 (Schmandt et al. 2014), or finding of a hydrous ringwoodite inclusion in an ultra-deep diamond
32 (Pearson et al. 2014) convincingly show that MTZ, at least locally, is hydrated. The latter
33 requires an effective mechanism of recycling of surface water to the deep mantle in the cold
34 subduction settings (Ohtani 2015). The most important water reservoir in the subducting slab is
35 serpentinitized peridotite of its bottom part (Faccenda et al. 2009), because of (1) higher absolute
36 water content than in sedimentary and gabbro-basaltic layers (Rupke et al. 2004), and (2) cooler
37 geotherm of the slab Moho surface compared with slab – mantle wedge interface favorable for
38 water preservation (Syracuse et al. 2010).

39 Due to limited temperature stability, serpentine cannot transport H₂O to the deep mantle.
40 However, it can be transformed to dense hydrous magnesium silicates (DHMS) stable at mantle
41 conditions. A commonly considered scheme of water transport to the MTZ implies a successive
42 transformations ‘*serpentine* → *phase A*, $Mg_7Si_2O_8(OH)_6$ → *phase E*, $Mg_{2.3}Si_{1.25}H_{2.4}O_6$ →
43 *hydrous wadsleyite* → *hydrous ringwoodite*’ (Litasov and Ohtani 2003; Ohtani et al. 2004). In
44 this scheme, the range of subduction geotherms suitable for water transport to the mantle is
45 limited by intersection point of serpentine and phase A dehydration curves, ~ 6 GPa at 600°C
46 (Schmidt and Poli 1998). Such conditions, however, can be achieved only in extremely cold
47 subduction zones, so the geological scale of this process remains questionable (Fig. 1).

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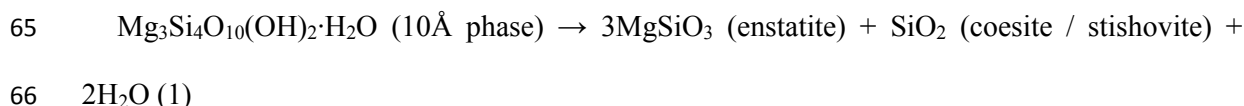
56 **Figure 1.** Stability of low-temperature hydrous phases (*ant* – antigorite) in serpentinized peridotite after Schmidt
57 and Poli (1998). The Moho geotherms in subducting slab for Antilles, New Zealand and Kermadec after Syracuse et
58 al. (2010) are shown as examples of ‘hot’, ‘normal’ and ‘cold’ subduction, respectively. *P-T* conditions of
59 experiments with 10 Å phase among run products are shown as diamonds (Yamamoto and Akimoto 1977; Welch et
60 al. 2006 –synthesized from oxides/hydroxides in pure MgO-SiO₂-H₂O (MSH) system), triangles (Ulmer and
61 Trommsdorff 1995; Khodyrev and Agoshkov 1986 – from natural serpentine), ‘x’ (Pawley and Wood 1995 – from
62 natural talc), and ‘+’ (Fumagalli and Poli 2005; Dvir et al. 2011 – from gel with peridotite composition).

62 Another scheme, described in Schmidt and Poli (2014) involves such DHMS as ‘10Å phase’,
63 Mg₃Si₄O₁₀(OH)₂·H₂O, a phyllosilicate with talc-type layers intercalated by water molecules
64 named accordingly with its *d*₀₀₁ value (~10Å compared with ~9Å in talc) (Fumagalli et al. 2001;
65 Comodi 2005; Comodi et al. 2006, 2007). Experimental data suggest that the 10Å phase is stable
66 in the ‘low temperature gap’ between dehydration curves of serpentine and phase A (Fig. 1), and
67 the succession of hydrous phases ‘serpentine → 10Å phase → phase A’ can retain about 25% of

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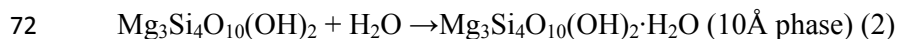
62 H₂O initially stored in the serpentinized peridotite (Schmidt and Poli 2014) even along ‘normal’
63 subduction geotherm (Fig. 1).

64 The dehydration of the 10Å phase limits its stability field by temperature:



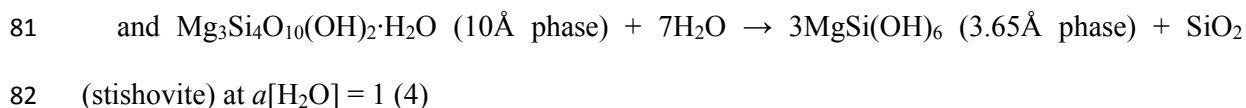
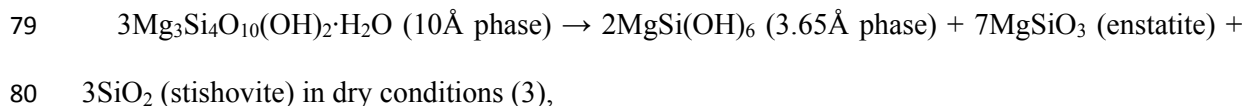
67 Pawley et al. (2011) studied this reaction between 5 and 7 GPa (in the coesite stability field)
68 and found that it proceeds at 690°C independently on the pressure applied. However, at higher
69 pressures the slope of the given reaction has to change because of *coesite* \rightarrow *stishovite* transition.

70 A low-pressure limit of the 10Å phase stability corresponds to the reaction (2) taking place at
71 ~5 GPa and studied *in situ* by Chinnery et al. (1999) and Rashchenko et al. (2016):



73 This reaction actually represents an intercalation of water molecules into the interlayer space
74 of talc.

75 A high-pressure limit of the 10Å phase is poorly understood. Pawley et al. (2011) reported
76 that decomposition of the 10Å phase near 10 GPa can be associated with formation of the so-
77 called 3.65Å phase, whose composition, MgSi(OH)₆, and hydroxide-perovskite structure were
78 determined later (Wunder et al. 2011):



83 We used *in situ* synchrotron X-ray diffraction combined with high-temperature diamond-anvil
84 cell to study phase equilibria, which restrict the stability field of the 10Å phase, and constrain the

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85 position of nonvariant point where the 10Å phase, 3.65Å phase and enstatite coexist in the
86 presence of hydrous fluid.

87

88 **EXPERIMENTAL**

89 Natural talc from Shabrovskoye deposit (Central Ural) with $\text{Mg}_{2.94}\text{Fe}_{0.05}\text{Al}_{0.05}\text{Si}_{3.97}\text{O}_{10}(\text{OH})_2$
90 stoichiometry (X-ray fluorescence analysis) was used as a starting material. The talc flakes and a
91 small piece of gold as a pressure standard were placed in a 100 μm hole in a rhenium gasket
92 filled with distilled water. High-pressure – high-temperature conditions were achieved in an
93 external heating diamond anvil cell (DAC) with 600 μm culets and molybdenum resistive heater
94 (Bassett et al. 1993).

95 Phase transformations in the sample were studied by *in situ* synchrotron X-ray diffraction at
96 BL10XU beamline of SPring-8 synchrotron radiation facility (Hyogo, Japan). An X-ray beam
97 with $\lambda = 0.41468 \text{ \AA}$ monochromatized with Si (111) double crystal and focused with compound
98 X-ray refractive lenses was used in combination with an image plate (IP) detector (Rigaku
99 RAXIS-IV).

100 The sample temperature was controlled by an S-type (Pt/Rh 90%/10% – Pt) thermocouple
101 mounted at each anvil near the gasket. The difference between thermocouples readings not
102 exceeded $\pm 1^\circ\text{C}$, and a deviation of sample temperature from that measured by thermocouples for
103 this type of DAC is believed to be within $\pm 1.5^\circ\text{C}$ (Bassett et al. 1993). Each temperature
104 increment during the experiment was accompanied by a corresponding pressure increase due to
105 the sample thermal pressure and *vice versa*. Several times during the experiment the occurred
106 pressure was corrected to the desired value using control screws. The pressure was measured
107 using equation of state of gold from Sokolova et al. (2013) with uncertainty of $\pm 0.1 \text{ GPa}$. The P-
108 T-t scheme of the experiment is given in Table 1.

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109 **Table 1.** *P-T-t* scheme of the experiment. ‘+’ – phase detected, ‘-’ – phase absent; phases in minor amount are
 110 given in brackets.

Observation #	Time, min	P, GPa	T, °C	talc / 10Å phase	3.65Å phase	enstatite	stishovite
<i>First run</i>							
1	0	3.2	25	+	-	-	-
2	65	5.4	100	+	-	-	-
3	95	8.6	200	+	-	-	-
4	125	10.7	300	+	-	-	-
5	150	11.9	400	+	(+)	-	(+)
6	185	9.7	500	(+)	+	-	+
7	280	9	500	+	-	-	+
8*	0	8.9	500	+	-	-	+
9	80	11.9	550	-	(+)	+	+
10	150	11.7	500	+	+	+	+
11	185	11.4	450	+	+	+	+
<i>Second run</i>							
1a	0	5.7	300	+	-	-	-
2a	85	10.3	450	+	+	-	+
3a	115	12.0	500	+	+	-	+
4a	145	10.5	500	(+)	+	+	+
5a	175	9.3	500	(+)	(+)	+	+
6a	215	10.4	550	-	-	+	+

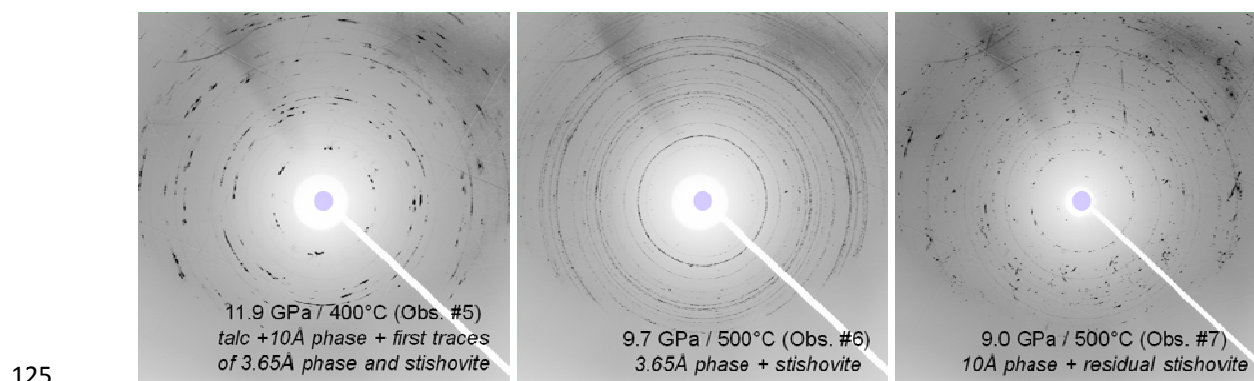
111 *After the 7th observation the DAC was cooled from 500°C to ambient temperature without decompression due
 112 to a beam shutdown. Then, after ~27 hours, *P-T* conditions were restored (observation #8) and experiment
 113 continued.

114

115 **RESULTS**

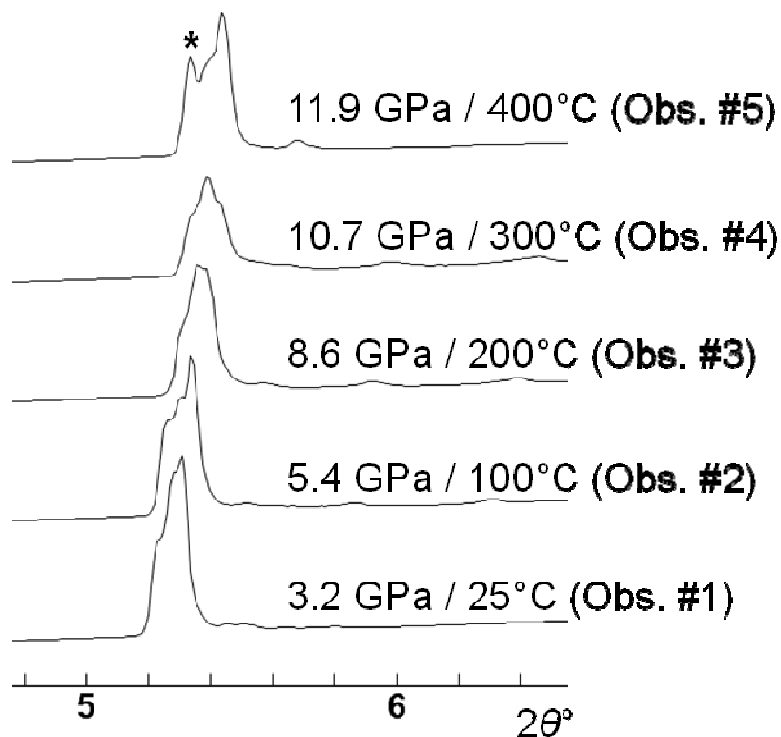
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124 The initial mixture of talc and water was pressurized to 3.2 GPa at room temperature. Due to a
125 preferred orientation of talc flakes perpendicular to X-ray beam, all corresponding IP diffraction
126 images show evident heterogeneity of the Debye rings (e.g. Fig. 2, obs. #5). The heating to
127 400°C during 2.5 hours led to pressure increase to 11.9 GPa. Although talc becomes unstable in
128 the presence of water above 5 GPa (Chinnery et al. 1999), the formation of the 10Å phase started
129 at 11.9 GPa / 400°C only, due to relatively fast heating rate (Fig. 3). The latter agrees with
130 results of Rashchenko et al. (2016), who reported that formation of the 10Å phase from *talc* +
131 *water* mixture at 8 GPa / 500°C requires at least 2 hours.



126 **Figure 2.** IP diffraction images of different observations of the sample.

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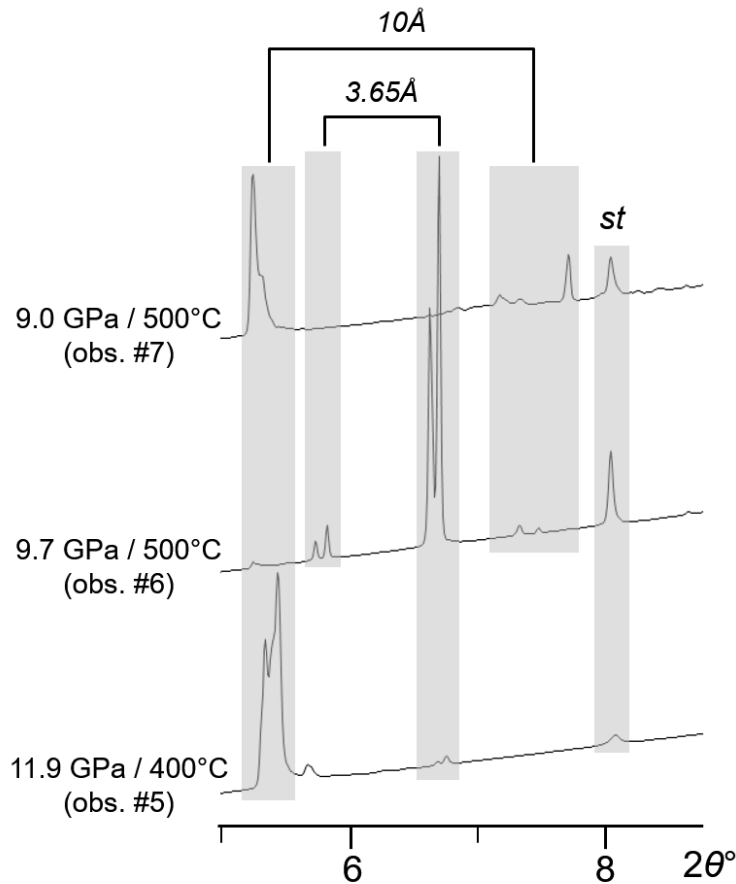


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130 **Figure 3.** Behavior of multiplet (002 / 020 / 1-10 / 110) X-ray diffraction peak of talc. The separation of (002)
131 peak marked by asterisk at 11.9 GPa / 400°C indicates anisotropic increase of *c* dimension. The latter corresponds to
132 formation of the 10Å phase, a product of water intercalation into talc interlayer space.

135 Besides the splitting of talc diffraction peaks due to formation of the 10Å phase, a group of
136 new peaks, corresponding to ‘3.65Å phase’ (MgSi(OH)₆ hydroxide-perovskite) and stishovite,
137 was also observed at 11.9 GPa / 400°C (Fig. 4). The latter conditions therefore corresponds to
138 the stability field of 3.65Å phase, whereas the formation of the 10Å phase at such conditions
139 should be considered as metastable.

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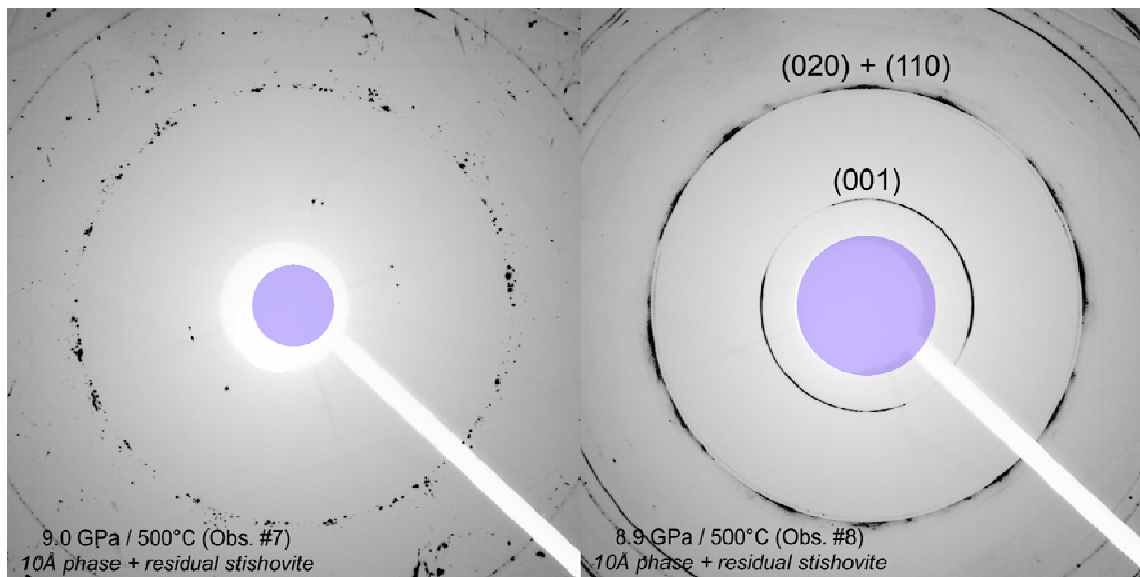
136 **Figure 4.** Transformation of metastable talc and 10\AA phase (obs. #5) into 3.65\AA phase + stishovite (obs. #6) and
137 back to the 10\AA phase (obs. #7).

138 Just after the first peaks of the 3.65\AA phase and stishovite were observed, a temperature was
139 increased to 500°C and within 35 min the sample transformed into the mixture of 3.65\AA phase
140 and stishovite according to the reaction (4). The newly formed phases demonstrated absence of
141 texturing in contrast to initial talc flakes (Fig. 2, obs. #6). A negative volume effect of the
142 reaction accompanied by gasket relaxation at high temperature led to the pressure decrease from
143 11.9 to 9.7 GPa, bringing the sample back to the stability field of 10\AA phase, and the next
144 observation (#7) showed the complete reverse transformation of 3.65\AA phase + stishovite into
145 10\AA phase + H_2O . An interesting feature of observed phase transformation is the presence of
146 residual stishovite in the sample (5-10 wt. % of stishovite + 90-95 wt. % of 10\AA phase) even
147 after complete disappearance of the 3.65\AA phase. The latter can be attributed to the formation of

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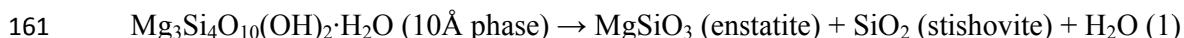
150 Si vacancies in the 10Å phase by hydrogarnet-type substitution $[\text{SiO}_4]^{4-} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow [\square(\text{OH})_4]^{4-} +$
151 SiO_2 , described in Welch et al. (2006).

153 Before starting the next experimental run, the sample was cooled down to room temperature
154 and after ~27 hours brought back to 500°C / 8.9 GPa (obs. #8). No changes in phase composition
155 of the sample were observed; the Debye rings became more uniform (Fig. 5).



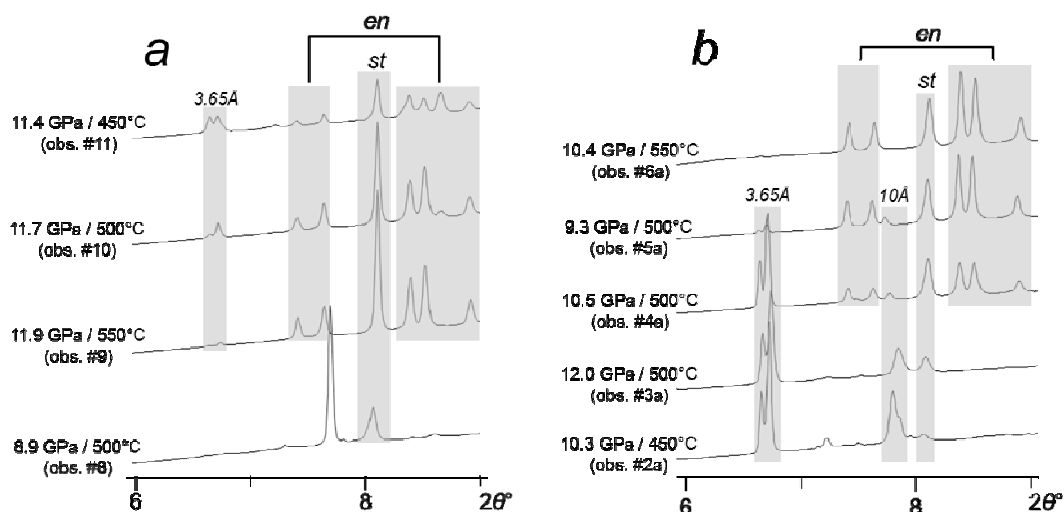
156 **Figure 5.** Textural changes in X-ray diffraction pattern of the sample consisting of 10Å phase, residual
157 stishovite, and water fluid after cooling and heating back to 500°C.

160 To study the temperature limit of the 10Å phase stability at high pressures, we continued
161 heating to 550°C. The observation #9, corresponding to 11.9 GPa / 550°C showed that in about
162 an hour the 10Å phase completely decomposed to assemblage of enstatite and stishovite
163 according to the reaction (1) (Fig. 6a):



164 A subsequent cooling resulted in growth of the 3.65Å phase (Fig. 6a). The second
165 experimental run performed with the same starting material allowed to better constrain the
166 discussed equilibria (Fig. 6b).

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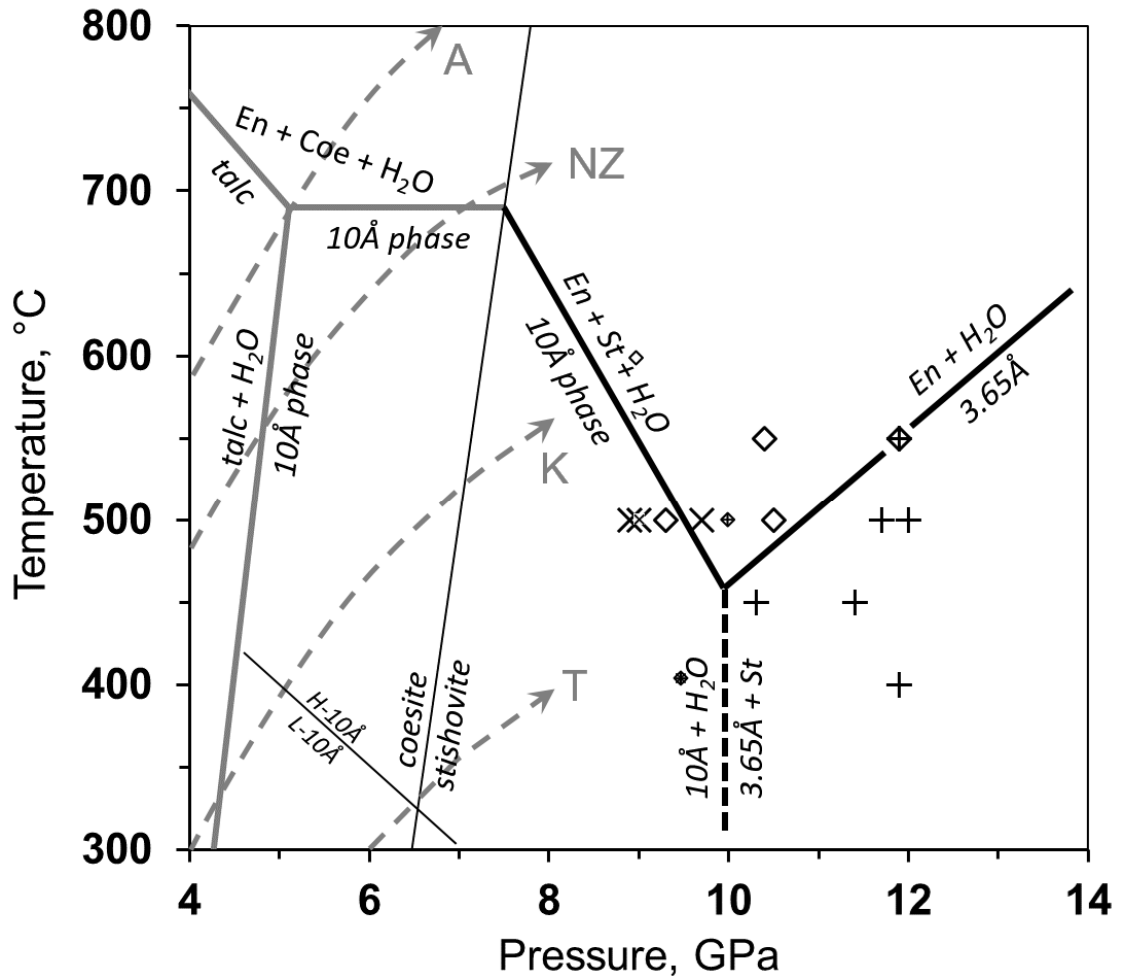


165

166 **Figure 6.** Phase relations between 10 Å phase, enstatite, and 3.65 Å phase.

174 Although multiple phases were detected in the most of in situ observations, the changes in the
175 relative intensities of XRD peaks allowed us to constrain the stability fields of the studied phases
176 (Fig. 7). The estimated *PT*-conditions of the non-variant point, where 10 Å phase, enstatite, and
177 3.65 Å phase coexist in the presence of stishovite and hydrous fluid, are 10±1 GPa and
178 450±25°C. The temperature of the 10 Å phase dehydration (reaction 1) therefore drops from
179 690°C at 5-7 GPa to 450°C at 10 GPa indicating that higher pressure does not stabilize this
180 hydrous phase at higher temperatures even in the presence of hydrous fluid, in contrast with such
181 DHMS as phase A (Komabayashi et al. 2005).

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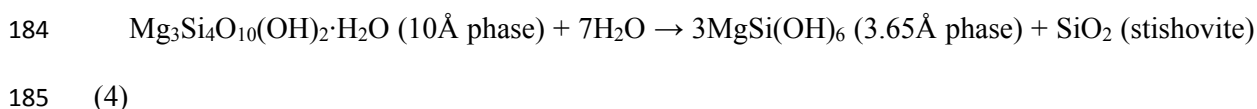


174

175 **Figure 7.** Stability field of the 10Å phase. Gray lines – data from previous works (Pawley and Wood 1995;
 176 Chinnery et al. 1999; Pawley et al. 2011), black lines – data from this study. ‘x’, ‘+’ and diamonds correspond to the
 177 conditions of 10Å phase, 3.65Å phase, and enstatite *growth*, respectively. Small symbols corresponds to observation
 178 of Pawley et al. 2011. A structural transformation of the 10Å phase observed spectroscopically by Comodi et al.
 179 (2006, 2007) is shown as H-10Å / L-10Å. The Moho geotherms in subducting slab for Antilles (A), New Zealand
 180 (NZ), Kermadec (K) and Tonga (T) after Syracuse et al. (2010) are shown as examples of ‘hot’, ‘normal’, ‘cold’ and
 181 ‘ultracold’ subduction, respectively.

182 The high-pressure limit of the 10Å phase stability in the presence of hydrous fluid correspond
 183 to the reaction (4) producing MgSi(OH)₆ hydroxide-perovskite (3.65Å phase) and stishovite:

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187 IMPLICATIONS

188 *1. Geological significance of the 10Å phase*

189 Positions of different modern subduction geotherms in relation to the stability field of the 10Å
190 phase (Fig. 7) constrain PT-ranges where the 10Å phase can exist in a subducting slab. The ‘hot’
191 subduction geotherm (A) lies outside the 10Å phase stability field. Therefore *pure* 10Å phase
192 cannot be an equilibrium phase in the ‘hot’ subduction setting. An intermediate temperature
193 geotherm (NZ) crosses the 10Å phase stability field between 5 and 7 GPa, indicating that at 150-
194 225 km the 10Å phase is a potential water reservoir of the subducting slab. Along a ‘cold’
195 subduction geotherm (K) the 10Å phase can exist in a wide pressure range of 4-9 GPa
196 corresponding to 125-275 km depths. A dehydration of the 10Å phase below 275 km may be
197 responsible for the deep seismicity of the lower part of double seismic zones.

198 We should also note that the discussed stability field actually corresponds to the silica-rich
199 ‘*talc/10Å phase + H₂O*’ system with Mg:Si ratio of 3:4. The subducting serpentized peridotite
200 contains less silica (Mg:Si > 1:1), and subducted water can be also retained in such Mg-rich
201 phases as serpentine and phase A, Mg₇Si₂O₈(OH)₆, whose stability fields partly overlap the
202 stability field of the 10Å phase. Nevertheless, Ulmer and Trommsdorff (1999) after thorough
203 review of existed experimental data on serpentized peridotites underlined that ‘*the 10Å phase*
204 *forms part of the stable phase assemblage in a PT-interval between 5.5 and 7.5 GPa just above*
205 *the antigorite breakdown*’. On the other hand, the presence of Al₂O₃ and K₂O can significantly
206 broaden the stability field of pure 10Å phase (Fumagalli and Poli 2005; Fumagalli et al. 2009;
207 Dvir et al. 2011). The latter explains experimental observations of the 10Å phase above the

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208 temperature of its pure end-member decomposition (690°C) – see Fig. 1, and also broadens the
209 range of geotherms suitable for the 10Å phase formation.

210 2. Geological significance of the $MgSi(OH)_6$ hydroxide-perovskite (3.65Å phase)

211 Although the 3.65Å phase was first reported decades ago in short conference abstracts of
212 Sclar and Morzenti (1971) and Rice et al. (1989), its $MgSi(OH)_6$ composition and an A-vacant
213 perovskite structure of this the most H₂O-rich DHMS were determined only recently (Wunder et
214 al. 2011, 2012; Welch and Wunder 2012; Mookherjee et al. 2015). The low temperature stability
215 of the 3.65Å phase makes it unrealistic for the most of subduction geotherms (Fig. 7). However,
216 the position of Moho geotherm of Tonga subduction zone, which is the coldest geotherm
217 according to Syracuse et al. (2010) (Fig. 6), allows us to suggest that a succession '*serpentine* →
218 *10Å phase* → *3.65Å phase*' can lead to formation of the $MgSi(OH)_6$ hydroxide-perovskite at
219 depths below 300 km. The presence of aluminum may probably extend the temperature stability
220 of the $MgSi(OH)_6$, similar to that shown for $Mg^{2+}Si^{4+} \leftrightarrow 2Al^{3+}$ substitution in a high-pressure
221 phase D, $MgSi_2O_4(OH)_2$ (Ohira et al. 2014; Pamato et al. 2015), and requires a further study.

222 3. Kinetics of hydrous phases decomposition

223 We should also note an extreme reactivity of all hydrous phases observed in our experiments.
224 For example, a complete high-pressure breakdown '*10Å phase* → *3.65Å phase* + *stishovite*'
225 (observations #5-6) was observed in 35 minutes only, in contrast to reported syntheses of the
226 3.65Å phase from '*brucite* + *quartz* + *water*' mixture (114 h) and gel (77 h) under similar PT-
227 conditions (Wunder et al. 2011). The latter allows us to recommend the 10Å phase (or talc) as a
228 highly reactive starting material for high-speed synthesis of DHMS. The fast kinetics of the
229 observed reactions also allowed us successfully implement synchrotron-based in situ XRD
230 coupled with high-temperature DAC for real-time observation of forward and backward
231 reactions in the studied system. Such an approach (although requiring a fact kinetics) seems very

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232 perspective for petrological investigations instead of time-consuming routine quenching
233 experiments.

234

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242

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