

1 **Revision 1**

2 **Temperature-induced densification in compressed basaltic glass revealed by**
3 **in-situ ultrasonic measurements**

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14
15 **Abstract**

16 Acoustic velocities of a model basalt glass (64 mol% CaMgSi₂O₆ + 36 mol% CaAl₂Si₂O₈)
17 were measured along different pressure (P)-temperature (T) paths. One set of experiments
18 involved isothermal compression-decompression cycles, performed at temperatures of 300 K,
19 641 K, 823 K, and 1006 K and pressures up to 12.2 GPa. The other set of experiments involved
20 constant-load heating-cooling cycles at temperatures up to 823 K and pressures up to 7.5 GPa.
21 Both sets of experiments were performed in a multi-anvil apparatus using a synchrotron-based
22 ultrasonic technique. Our results show that the glass compressed isothermally at 300 K (cold-
23 compression) displays anomalously decreasing compressional (V_P) and shear (V_S) wave

24 velocities with increasing pressure until ~ 8 GPa. Beyond 8 GPa, both V_P and V_S start to increase
25 sharply with pressure and irreversible densification of the glass occurred, producing large
26 hysteresis loops of velocities upon decompression. However, for the glass compressed
27 isothermally at increasingly higher temperatures (hot-compression), the velocity minima
28 gradually shift to lower pressures. At temperature close to the glass transition temperature T_g , the
29 velocity minima disappear completely, displaying a monotonic increase of velocities during
30 compression and higher V_P and V_S during decompression. In addition, constant-load heating-
31 cooling experiments show that velocities generally decrease slightly with increasing temperature,
32 but start to increase once heated above a threshold temperature (~ 650 K). During cooling the
33 velocities increase almost linearly with decreasing temperature, resulting in higher velocities
34 (~ 1.5 - 2.5% higher) when returned to 300 K. This implies that a temperature-induced
35 densification may have occurred in the glass at high pressures. Raman spectra on recovered
36 samples show that the hot-compressed and high-P heated glasses contain distinctly densified and
37 depolymerized structural signatures compared to the initial glass and the cold-compressed glass
38 below the velocity transition pressure P_T (~ 8 GPa). Such densification may be attributed to the
39 breaking of bridging oxygen bonds and compaction in the intermediate-range structure. Our
40 results demonstrate that temperature can facilitate glass densification at high pressures and point
41 out the importance of P-T history in understanding the elastic properties of silicate glasses.
42 Comparison with melt velocity suggests that hot-compressed glasses may better resemble the
43 pressure dependence of velocity of silicate melts than cold-compressed glasses, but still show
44 significantly higher velocities than melts. If the abnormal acoustic behaviors of cold-compressed
45 glasses were used to constrain melt fractions in the mantle low-velocity regions, the melt

46 fractions needed to explain a given velocity reduction would be significantly underestimated at
47 high pressures.

48

49 **Key words:** silicate glass, acoustic velocity, high pressure and high temperature, intermediate-
50 range structure, low-velocity regions

51

52 **1. Introduction**

53 The presence of silicate melts is believed to be the major reason for the seismically detected
54 low-velocity regions in the Earth's mantle (Anderson and Spetzler 1970; Williams and Garnero
55 1996; Kawakatsu et al. 2009; Hirschmann 2010; Schmerr 2012; Stern et al. 2015; Chantel et al.
56 2016; Debayle et al. 2020). These deep-seated partial melts may have played a critical role in
57 controlling chemical differentiation and heat transfer in the deep Earth. Depending on the density
58 contrast between silicate melts and the ambient mantle, melts can either migrate upwards or sink
59 into the deep interior (Stolper et al. 1981; Agee 1998; Sanloup 2016), resulting in divergent
60 geodynamical scenarios. Knowledge of the density is critical to understanding the dynamic
61 behavior of silicate melts, and both density and elastic properties (e.g., compressibility) are
62 essential to better constrain the melt fractions in the low-velocity regions of the mantle (e.g.,
63 Clark and Lesher, 2017; Takei, 2002) and to improve thermodynamic modelling of mantle
64 melting (e.g., Ghiorso, 2004).

65 While the high-pressure density of silicate melts can be directly measured using various
66 techniques including sink-float (Agee and Walker 1993; Agee 1998; Matsukage et al. 2005), X-
67 ray absorption (Sakamaki et al. 2010; Seifert et al. 2013; Malfait et al. 2014), shock compression
68 (Rigden et al. 1989; Asimow and Ahrens 2010; Thomas and Asimow 2013), and more recently

69 X-ray microtomography (Xu et al. 2020a), measurements of high-pressure acoustic velocities of
70 silicate melts are very challenging and limited. Until now, only two studies (Xu et al. 2018, 2022)
71 have reported sound velocity data measured directly on silicate melts along the diopside-
72 hedenbergite join at simultaneously high P-T conditions, using the ultrasonic technique in a
73 multi-anvil press. Considered as an alternative to silicate melts, silicate glasses have been chosen
74 in many studies as analogs for their melt counterparts to infer acoustic and elastic behaviors of
75 melts at high pressures (e.g., Aoki et al., 2020; Clark et al., 2016; Clark and Lesher, 2017; Liu
76 and Lin, 2014; Malfait et al., 2011; Meister et al., 1980; Murakami and Bass, 2011; Sakamaki et
77 al., 2014a; Sanchez-Valle and Bass, 2010; Suito et al., 1992; Wu et al., 2014). These studies have
78 revealed that many silicate glasses, especially polymerized glasses, exhibit an anomalous
79 velocity response to compression at room temperature, with acoustic velocities having a weak or
80 negative pressure dependence at relatively low pressures (usually from room pressure to a few
81 GPa) and a positive pressure dependence at higher pressures. For example, the acoustic velocity
82 of a basalt glass at high pressures has been determined by Liu and Lin (2014) using Brillouin
83 scattering spectroscopy in a diamond anvil cell and displays decreasing V_P and V_S with velocity
84 minima at about 2 GPa. This acoustic softening behavior in glasses has been used in some
85 studies (e.g., Clark and Lesher, 2017) to model melt velocities in the mantle low-velocity zones,
86 arguing for a very large velocity reduction due to the presence of partial melts. However,
87 whether the acoustic behaviors of glasses can be directly applied to their corresponding melts in
88 the Earth's mantle is still debated (Xu et al. 2018).

89 One may argue that the difference in velocities between melts and glasses may be caused by
90 temperature. Indeed, previous first-principles molecular dynamics (FPMD) simulations on
91 silicate glasses with different compression paths have demonstrated that cold-compressed glasses

92 at 300 K behave quite differently than hot-compressed glasses quenched from high pressure and
93 high temperature, with hot compression producing glasses with higher density, higher acoustic
94 velocity, and greater coordination numbers than cold compression (Ghosh et al. 2014; Ghosh and
95 Karki 2018). Acoustic velocities in the hot-compressed glasses also increase monotonically with
96 pressure in FPMD simulations, in contrast to the anomalous behavior of the cold-compressed
97 glasses (Ghosh and Karki 2018), suggesting that hot-compressed glasses may be better analogs
98 for high-pressure silicate melts. However, whether high temperature can substantially modify the
99 acoustic behavior of silicate glasses at high pressures and make them better mimic the melts has
100 not been examined experimentally.

101 Here we report in-situ ultrasonic measurements on a model basalt glass along different P-T
102 paths, including compression at room temperature (cold compression), compression at high
103 temperatures (hot compression), and heating-cooling experiments at fixed hydraulic-pressure loads
104 (heating-cooling at high P) to investigate the effect of temperature on glass acoustic properties.
105 Our results show that the acoustic behavior of the model basalt glass is strongly dependent on its
106 P-T path. Temperature-induced densification and structural modifications in the compressed
107 basaltic glass were observed above ~673 K, implying either an apparent negative thermal
108 expansion for basaltic glass at high P-T or a polymorphic transition in basaltic glass, similar to
109 those observed in silica glass (Mukherjee et al. 2001; Yokoyama et al. 2010; Guerette et al.
110 2018). It should be noted that the simplified model basalt composition used in this study does not
111 contain Fe and H₂O, which have been shown to significantly affect the structures and properties
112 of silicate glasses (e.g., Wu et al. 2014; Zhang et al. 2016). Future studies on more complex glass
113 compositions are needed to validate whether the temperature effects on model basalt glass at
114 high pressures observed in this study can be extended to natural systems.

115

116 **2. Samples and Methods**

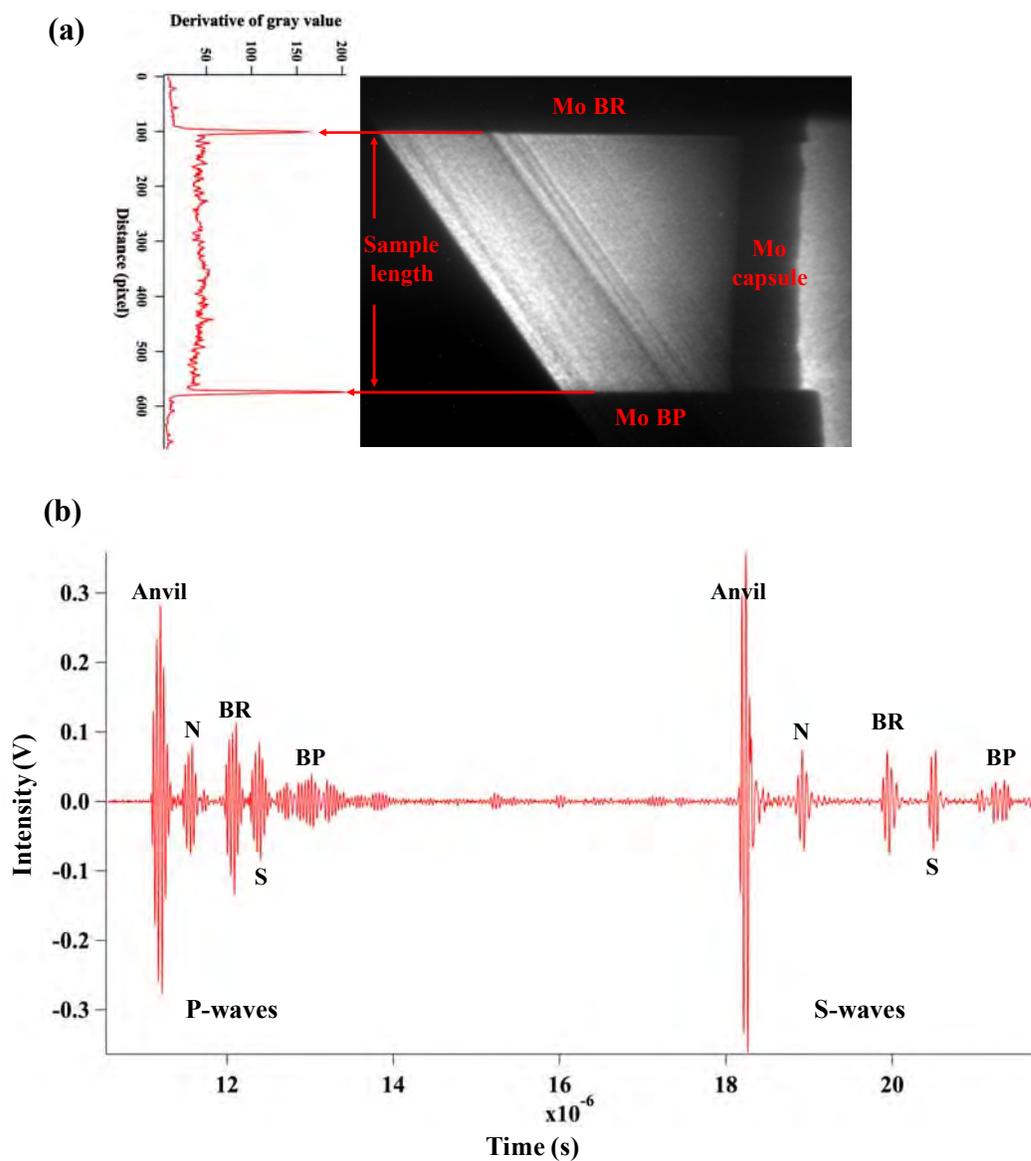
117 Reagent-grade powders of MgO, CaCO₃, Al₂O₃, and SiO₂ were mixed in appropriate
118 proportions to produce the model basalt (MB, 64 mol% CaMgSi₂O₆-diopside + 36 mol%
119 CaAl₂Si₂O₈-anorthite) composition (NBO/T = ~0.94), and ground under ethanol for ~2 hrs. The
120 mixture was then dried and decarbonated at 1173 K in a high-temperature box furnace for ~24
121 hrs. The full release of CO₂ was confirmed by checking the weight of the mixture before and
122 after decarbonation. The decarbonated mixture was then fused at 1773 K for ~1 hr, and finally
123 quenched to glass. The fusion process was repeated twice to ensure homogeneity of the glass.
124 The resulting MB glass was transparent, bubble-free, and homogeneous, with a density of 2.767
125 ± 0.014 g/cm³ measured by the Archimedes method. Cylindrical glass disks with outer diameter
126 of 1.8 mm were machined from the quenched glass chunks using a CNC-milling machine. The
127 top and bottom surfaces of the glass disks were polished to a roughness of less than 1 μm with
128 nearly perfect parallelism and were used as the samples for high-pressure ultrasonic
129 measurements.

130 The high-pressure experiments were performed in a 1000-ton large volume press with a
131 Kawai-type (T25) multi-anvil module (Wang et al. 2009) at the GSECARS beamline 13-ID-D of
132 the Advanced Photon Source, Argonne National Laboratory. The cell assembly is shown in
133 Supplementary Fig. 1. The experimental details have been described previously in (Xu et al.
134 2018, 2020b), and are only briefly summarized here. An MgO-MgAl₂O₄ octahedron with 14 mm
135 edge length was used as the pressure medium. A graphite sleeve, inserted into ZrO₂ thermal
136 insulators with an MgO X-ray window, was used as the heater. Well-polished molybdenum
137 buffer rod (BR) and backing plate (BP) were placed at the bottom and top of the sample,

138 respectively, to generate impedance and imaging contrast with the sample. The sample, BR, and
139 BP were separated from the heater by an Al₂O₃ sleeve. The pressure of the experiment was
140 determined by energy-dispersive X-ray diffraction of the pressure marker in the cell assembly,
141 consisting of a mixture of MgO and h-BN (MgO:BN = 3:1 by weight), using the high-
142 temperature equation of state (EOS) of MgO (Tange et al. 2009). Uncertainty in the determined
143 pressures mainly comes from the uncertainty in the EOS of MgO and is estimated to be about
144 10%. Temperature was monitored by a W5Re-W26Re thermocouple, and is accurate to ±10 K.
145 All sample temperatures reported in this study have been corrected to account for the
146 temperature gradient in the ultrasonic cell assembly, as calibrated by Xu et al. (2018).

147 The detailed procedure for ultrasonic measurements has been described in Jing et al. (2020).
148 A 10° Y-cut LiNbO₃ piezoelectric transducer with a resonant frequency of 50 MHz for
149 compressional (P)-waves and 30 MHz for shear (S)-waves was attached to the back of the
150 bottom tungsten carbide anvil. An arbitrary function generator was used to generate electrical
151 signals of sine waves in the frequency range of 20-60 MHz. The electrical signals were then
152 converted to P- and S-waves by the transducer. The converted elastic waves then traveled
153 through the bottom anvil and the cell assembly, and were reflected back at the anvil-buffer rod
154 (BR), BR-sample, and sample-backing plate (BP) interfaces. The reflected elastic waves were
155 received by the same transducer which converted them back to electrical signals that were
156 recorded by a digital oscilloscope at a sampling rate of 6.5×10^9 sample/s. Two-way travel time
157 through the sample was determined by the pulse-echo overlap method (Kono et al. 2012; Li and
158 Liebermann 2014; Jing et al. 2020) using the reflected signals from the BR-sample and sample-
159 BP interfaces. Uncertainty in travel time is within ±0.2 ns, corresponding to a relative
160 uncertainty of about 0.1%. Sample length was determined from radiographic imaging of the

161 sample by plotting the derivative of the image gray value versus pixel distances (Fig. 1a).
162 Uncertainty in sample length is within 3 pixels (1 pixel=1.77 μm), translating to a relative
163 uncertainty of less than 0.7%. The acoustic velocity was then calculated from the travel time and
164 sample length, with a total uncertainty of $\sim 0.8\%$. Detailed analysis of the uncertainty is given in
165 Supplementary Materials. Examples of the sample image and ultrasonic signals for P- and S-
166 waves at 3.6 GPa and 823 K for the model basalt glass are shown in Fig. 1.

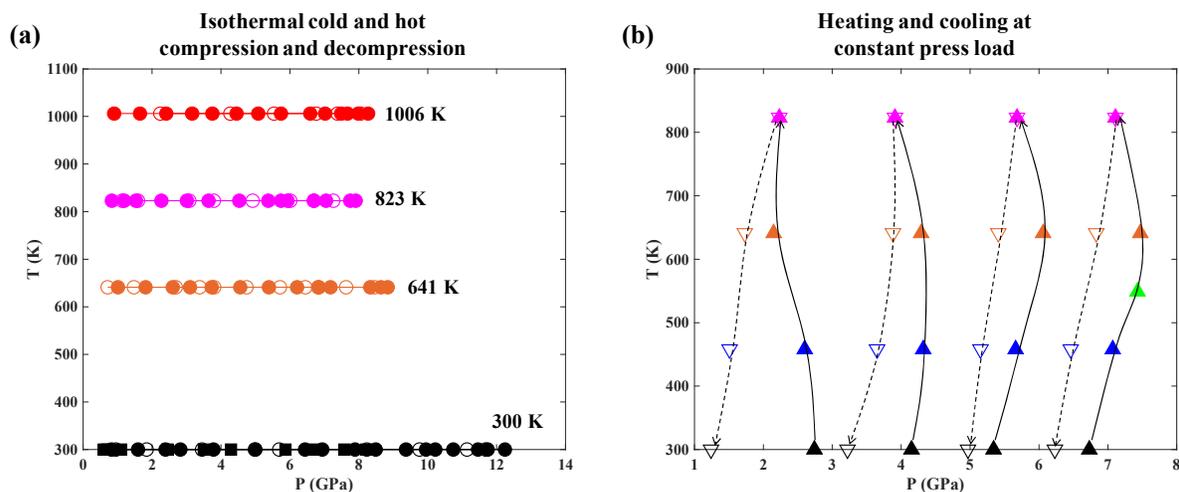


167

168 **Fig. 1** (a) X-ray radiographic image and (b) P-wave and S-wave ultrasonic signals for model basalt glass at 3.6 GPa
169 and 823 K. Mo - molybdenum, BR - buffer rod, BP - backing plate, N - noise, S - sample.

170 The experimental P-T paths are shown in Fig. 2. The P-T paths can be classified into two
171 types: (1) isothermal compression/decompression at room temperature (300 K, cold compression)
172 and high temperatures of 641 K, 823 K, and 1006 K (hot compression) (Fig. 2a); and (2)
173 heating/cooling at fixed hydraulic ram loads of 100 tons, 150 tons, 200 tons, and 250 tons (Fig.
174 2b). For cold compression, two experimental runs (T2545 and T2743) were performed. For run
175 T2545, the sample was compressed at room temperature up to 8.2 GPa, with data only collected
176 during compression. For run T2743, the sample was compressed to 12.2 GPa, with data collected
177 during both compression and decompression. For the isothermal hot compression runs (T2689,
178 T2690 and T2698), the sample was first compressed to ~20-30 tons (~0.8 GPa) at room
179 temperature to obtain clear ultrasonic signals for both P and S waves, as well as to make sure that
180 the heater and electrode were in good contact, and then the sample was heated to the target
181 temperatures (641, 823, or 1006 K), which are below or close to the glass transition temperature
182 ($T_g = 1003 \pm 15$ K) for a model basalt glass of slightly different composition ($\text{Di}_{60}\text{An}_{40}$)
183 (Schilling et al. 2003). While keeping temperature constant, the pressure was slowly increased up
184 to about 8 GPa and then decreased to about 1 GPa, with data collected during both compression
185 and decompression (Fig. 2a). For heating-cooling experiment (T2463), the sample was first
186 compressed at room temperature to a load of 100 tons, at which a heating-cooling cycle was
187 performed. The temperature was increased up to 823 K and then decreased to room temperature
188 at a heating/cooling rate of ~50 K/min. The acoustic velocities were measured along both heating
189 and cooling in steps of every ~200 K, which took about ~1 hr to complete. Three additional
190 heating-cooling cycles were performed at 150, 200, and 250 tons, respectively, following the
191 same measurement procedure as the first heating cycle. The four cycles correspond to a pressure

192 range of 1.2 to 7.5 GPa and a temperature range of 300 to 823 K (Fig. 2b). A summary of all
 193 experimental runs is given in Table 1.



194

195 **Fig. 2** Experimental P-T paths for (a) isothermal cold and hot compression/decompression experiments, and (b)
 196 heating/cooling experiment at constant press loads. Solid symbols in (a) indicate compression and open symbols
 197 indicate decompression. Black circles are for cold run T2743 where both compression and decompression data were
 198 collected and black squares are for cold run T2545 where only compression data were collected. Orange, magenta,
 199 and red are for isothermal runs T2689, T2690, and T2698 along isotherms of 641 K, 823 K, and 1006 K,
 200 respectively. Solid black curves in (b) indicate heating and dashed black curves indicate cooling. Data collected
 201 during heating are shown as upward-pointing triangles and during cooling shown as downward-pointing triangles.
 202 Black – 300 K, blue – 458 K, green – 549 K, orange – 641 K, magenta – 823 K, and red – 1006 K. At 823 K for
 203 heating-cooling experiment, the data points can be either considered as the end of heating or the start of cooling, so
 204 they are shown together as overlapped data points.

205

206 **Table 1** Summary of all experimental runs along different P-T paths

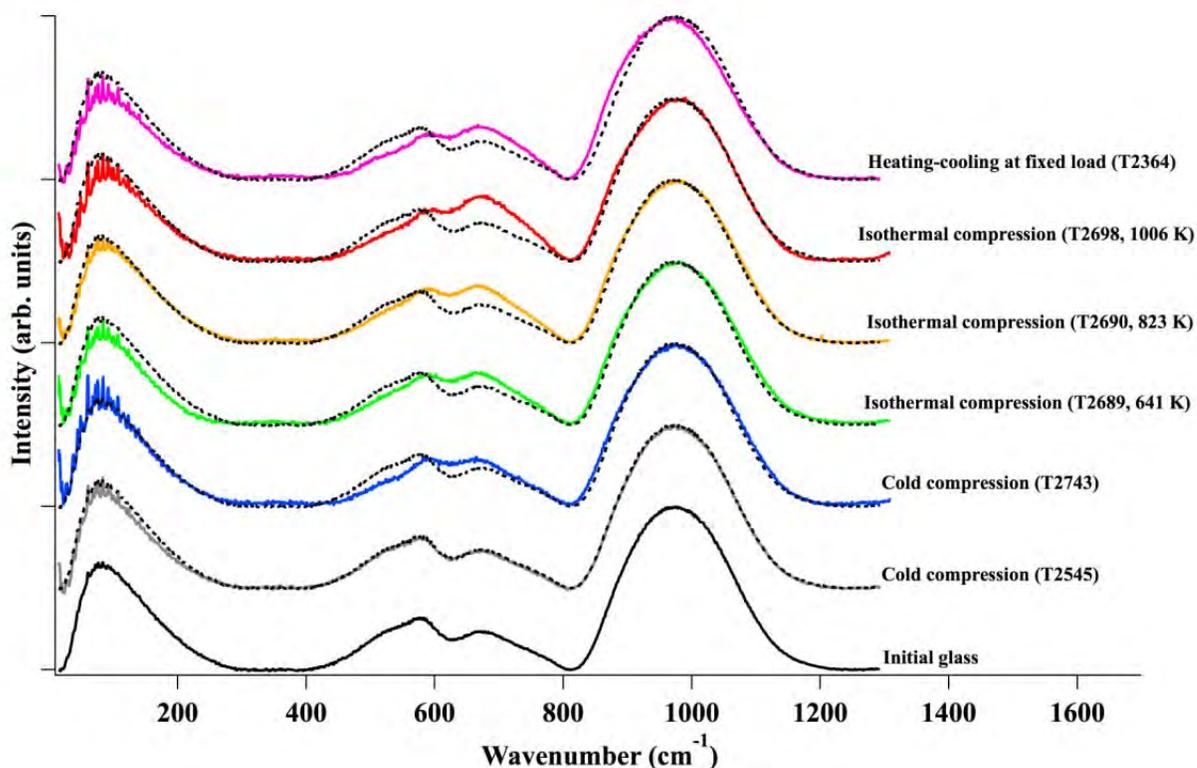
Run no.	Experimental type	Max P (GPa)	Max T (K)	Velocity transition pressure P_T (GPa)	Elastic anomaly extent in V_p (m/s)	Elastic anomaly extent in V_s (m/s)

T2545	Cold compression	8.2	300	8	443	305
T2743	Cold compression	12.2	300	8	482	396
T2689	Hot compression	8.8	641	5-6	275	241
T2690	Hot compression	7.9	823	2-3	44	89
T2698	Hot compression	8.3	1006	None	None	None
T2364	Heating-cooling at fixed loads	7.5	823			

207 Max P and Max T represent the maximum pressure and maximum temperature reached for the experimental run,
208 respectively. The velocity transition P indicates the pressure where the elastic anomaly occurs, resulting in a velocity
209 minimum as a function of pressure. Elastic anomaly extents are calculated from the difference between the starting
210 velocity value at ~1 GPa and the velocity minimum at the transition pressure P_T .

211 The recovered samples from all experiments were mounted in epoxy, sectioned, and polished
212 for Raman spectroscopy analysis. Raman spectra were acquired using a micro-confocal Raman
213 system in the backscattering geometry at GSECARS (Holtgrewe et al. 2019), with a 20×
214 objective lens and a 532-nm excitation laser, collected in the wavenumber range from 10 cm^{-1} to
215 1300 cm^{-1} . The exposure time for each acquisition was 10 s, and 18 repeated acquisitions were
216 averaged to obtain a clean spectrum. A polynomial background was subtracted from the raw
217 Raman spectra using the software Fityk (Wojdyr 2010), and the intensity of each spectrum was
218 normalized with respect to the maximum intensity. The Raman spectra for initial starting glass
219 and all recovered samples are compared in Fig. 3. No crystallization has been found in all
220 recovered samples, confirming that the samples remained in glass state at high P-T conditions.
221 The recovered glass samples were unfortunately too small (<1 mm, ~1-2 mg in weight) for
222 density to be accurately determined by the Archimedes method.

223



224

225 **Fig. 3** Raman spectra for the initial starting model basalt glass (black) and the recovered samples, including cold-
226 compression experiment T2545 (gray), cold-compression experiment T2743 (blue), isothermal compression at 641
227 K (green), isothermal compression at 823 K (orange), isothermal compression at 1006 K (red), and heating-cooling
228 experiment at fixed loads (magenta). For better comparison, the spectrum for the initial glass (black dashed
229 spectrum) is overlapped with the spectra of the recovered samples.

230

231 **3. Results**

232 *3.1 Isothermal compression and decompression*

233 The experimental conditions and measured acoustic velocity data are given in Supplementary
234 Table 1. The P- and S-wave velocity (V_P and V_S , respectively) as a function of pressure for the
235 two cold-compression runs (black circles and squares) are shown in Fig. 4a and 4b, respectively.
236 During cold compression, both V_P and V_S of the glass decrease with pressure until ~ 8 GPa, after
237 which they start to increase sharply with pressure. This reversal of pressure dependence of

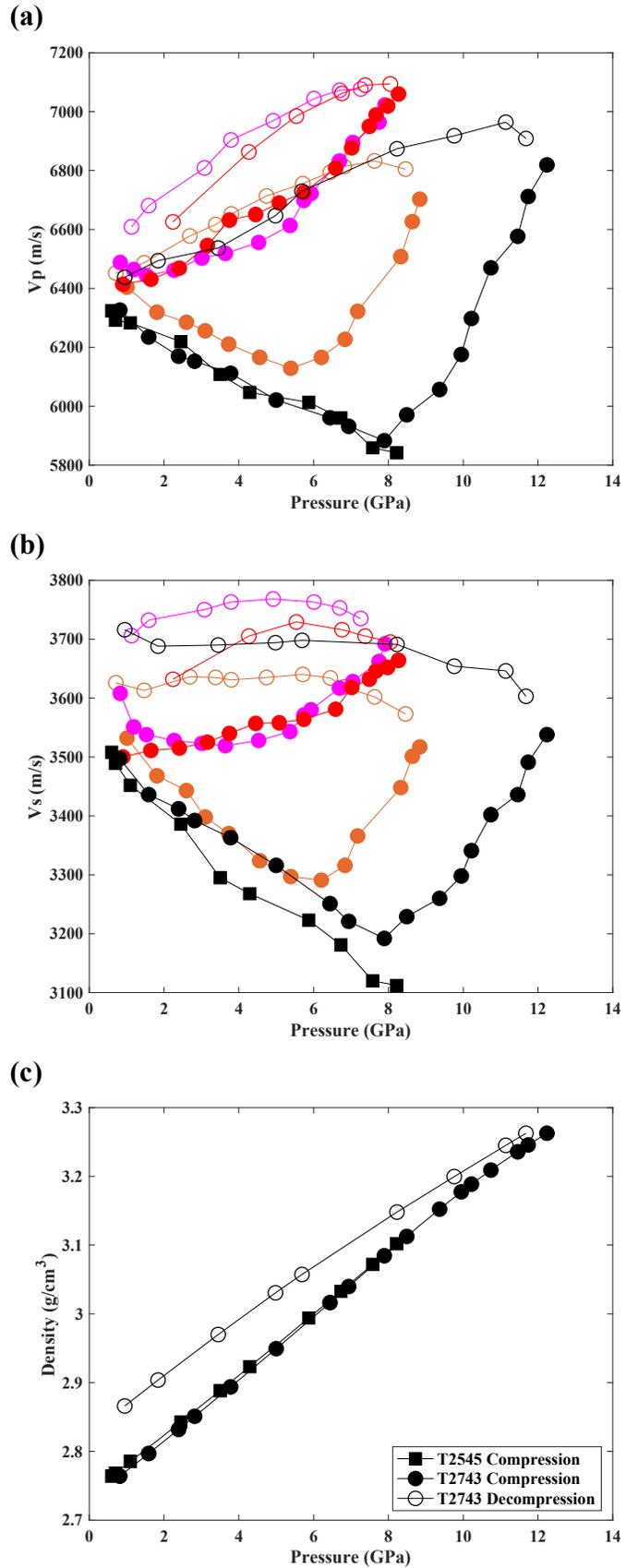
238 velocity is similar to the elastic anomaly observed in silica glass (Huang et al. 2004; Deschamps
239 et al. 2009) and other polymerized silicate glasses (Tkachev et al. 2005; Sonnevile et al. 2013;
240 Sakamaki et al. 2014b), although the transition pressures (hereafter referred to as P_T) are
241 different. During decompression from ~ 12 GPa, a large open hysteresis loop is observed and the
242 velocities during decompression are significantly higher than those during compression (Fig. 4),
243 indicating that the glass has been permanently densified. The density of the cold-compressed
244 glass (Fig. 4c) can be calculated by integrating the measured velocities as a function of pressure,
245 assuming that the deformation is elastic and isotropic (e.g., Liu and Lin, 2014; Sanchez-Valle
246 and Bass, 2010; Wu et al., 2014),

$$247 \quad \rho - \rho_0 = \int_{P_0}^P \frac{1}{V_B^2} dP = \int_{P_0}^P \frac{1}{V_B^2 - 4V_S^2/3} dP \quad (1)$$

248 where V_B is the bulk velocity and ρ_0 is the initial room-pressure density for the glass determined
249 by the Archimedes method. The calculated density confirms that the glass above P_T has been
250 permanently densified by $\sim 3.7\%$, resulting in higher density during decompression (Fig. 4c). It
251 should be noted that the density calculated using Eqn. (1) may underestimate the degree of
252 permanent densification above ~ 8 GPa, as the effect of irreversible structural changes on the
253 glass density is not accounted for in Eqn. (1). For run T2545 where the sample was cold-
254 compressed to ~ 8.2 GPa, close to P_T , the recovered sample has almost identical Raman spectrum
255 as the initial starting glass (Fig. 3), suggesting that compression of glass to pressures lower than
256 P_T is fully recoverable. In contrast, recovered sample from run T2743 compressed up to ~ 12 GPa
257 shows significantly different Raman spectrum in the region of $400\text{-}800\text{ cm}^{-1}$ than the initial glass
258 (Fig. 3), consistent with the permanent densification of the glass.

259 The velocities for three hot-compression runs at 641 K (orange), 823 K (magenta), and 1006
260 K (red) are also shown in Fig. 4. Several observations can be made by comparing the velocities

261 along different isotherms (Fig. 4). First, with increasing temperature, P_T shifts to lower pressures
262 from ~ 8 GPa at 300 K to ~ 5 -6 GPa at 641 K and then to ~ 2 -3 GPa at 823 K until it totally
263 disappears at 1006 K. This implies that permanent densification of the glass begins to occur at
264 progressively lower pressure when temperature is increased. Second, the extent of the elastic
265 anomaly along compression, defined as the difference between the velocity minimum and the
266 initial velocity at ~ 0.8 -1 GPa, reduces with increasing temperature. Third, the hysteresis loop
267 between compression and decompression narrows at higher temperatures. All these observations
268 have been summarized in Table 1. The recovered samples from all high-T isothermal runs show
269 different Raman spectra compared to the initial glass (Fig. 3), but similar general features with
270 each other as well as with the permanently densified cold-compressed glass recovered from
271 compression to ~ 12 GPa. However, the intensity of the Raman band centered at ~ 670 cm^{-1}
272 increases prominently with increasing temperature, suggesting some irreversible structural
273 change has been induced by temperature at high pressures (Fig. 3 and Section 4.1 for more
274 details).
275



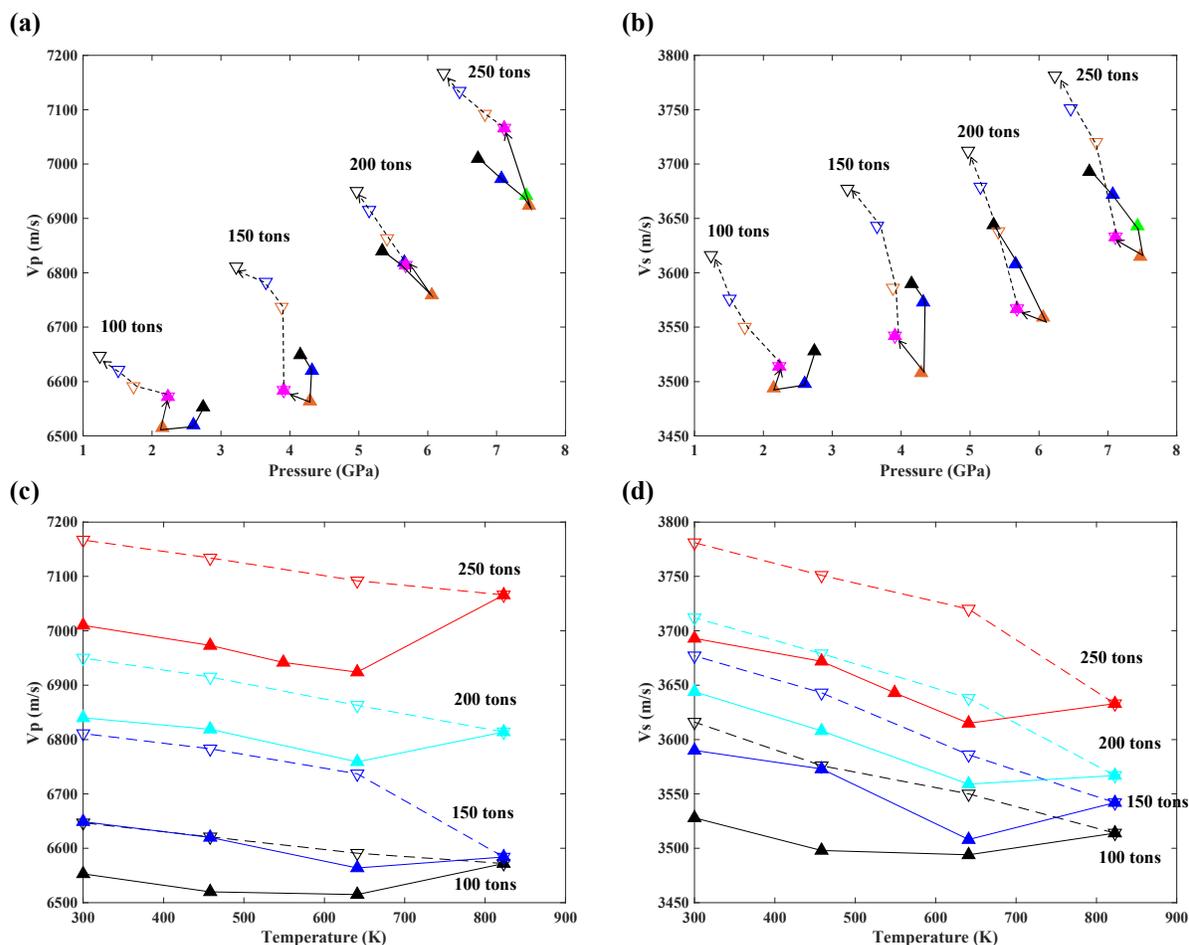
277 **Fig. 4** V_P (a) and V_S (b) as a function of pressure for model basalt glass along different isotherms. Panel (c) is the
278 calculated density for the two cold-compression runs by integrating the measured velocities as a function of pressure
279 using the initial glass density determined by the Archimedes method. Solid and open symbols are data collected
280 along compression and decompression, respectively, with different colors representing different isotherms. Black –
281 300 K, orange – 641 K, magenta – 823 K, and red – 1006 K. The black squares are data from the cold-compression
282 run T2545.

283

284 3.2 Heating and cooling at fixed loads

285 The V_P and V_S for model basalt glass measured in the heating-cooling experiment at fixed
286 press loads (run T2364) are shown as a function of pressure in Fig. 5a and 5b, respectively, and
287 also as a function of temperature in Fig. 5c and 5d, respectively. It can be clearly seen from Fig.
288 5 that the velocities (both V_P and V_S) follow different paths for heating and cooling. During
289 heating, the velocities generally decrease with temperature until a certain point between ~641
290 and 823 K, where the velocities start to increase with temperature. During cooling, the velocities
291 increase with decreasing temperature almost linearly, resulting in higher velocities (by ~1.5-
292 2.5%) than those measured during heating (Fig. 5), implying possible structural densification
293 behaviors in the glass even below the glass transition temperature. In addition, the subsequent
294 heating cycles below 641 K seem to follow or fall slightly below the previous cooling cycles,
295 suggesting that some amount of densification and structural change that is induced by each
296 heating cycle above 641 K may be partially retained upon further compression and heating.
297 Compared with isothermal runs at high pressures (Fig. 4), the heating experiments show a
298 decrease of velocity until ~641 K and then a marked increase at ~641-823 K. As a result, the
299 velocity of the glass at 673 K during heating is generally lower than at 300 K before heating (Fig.
300 5). In contrast, the isothermal experiments show a decrease of the velocity transition pressure P_T
301 with increasing temperature, resulting in higher velocities for the 641 K isotherm than the 300 K

302 isotherm above P_T (Fig. 4). This observation suggests that the temperature response of glass
303 velocity is also strongly dependent on the P-T paths (isothermal compression vs. isobaric
304 heating).



305
306 **Fig. 5** (a) and (b) are V_p and V_s as a function of pressure for the heating-cooling experiment at different fixed press
307 loads. Solid upward-pointing triangles and solid lines represent heating, while open downward-pointing triangles
308 and dashed lines represent cooling. Different marker colors represent different temperatures (black – 300 K, blue –
309 458 K, green – 549 K, orange – 641 K, magenta – 823 K). (c) and (d) are the same dataset plotted as a function of
310 temperature for V_p and V_s , respectively. Different colors indicate different press loads (black – 100 tons, blue – 150
311 tons, cyan – 200 tons, red – 250 tons).

312

313 4. Discussion

314 All the above observations indicate that temperature can substantially modify the acoustic
315 behaviors of silicate glasses under compression, and that the glass velocity is strongly dependent
316 on its P-T path. The anomalous acoustic behaviors found previously in cold-compressed silicate
317 glasses (e.g., Clark et al., 2016; Liu and Lin, 2014; Sanchez-Valle and Bass, 2010) do not seem
318 to fully extend to hot-compressed glasses and should not be directly applied to silicate melts in
319 the Earth's mantle without accounting for the effect of temperature. The lack of direct in-situ
320 structural measurements in the present study precludes a detailed atomic-level understanding of
321 the complex acoustic and elastic behaviors of silicate glasses. Nevertheless, some discussion is
322 given below by comparing our Raman data of recovered glasses with those from relatively well-
323 studied silica (SiO₂) glass in the literature. The elastic and structural properties of SiO₂ glass
324 have been extensively studied and may be used as prototypes to explain the behaviors in silicate
325 glasses. For SiO₂ glass, it has been proposed that shrinking in Si-O-Si angle (Deschamps et al.
326 2009) and Si void structural change (Kono et al. 2022) may be the cause for the velocity minima
327 observed during room-temperature compressions.

328

329 *4.1 Effect of temperature on glass velocity and compression mechanism*

330 Room-pressure Brillouin scattering studies (Askarpour et al. 1993; Schilling et al. 2003) and
331 density measurements (Lange 1997) on silicate glasses have shown that the velocity (both V_P
332 and V_S) and density for room-pressure silicate glasses decrease almost linearly with temperature
333 in both the glassy state and the supercooled liquid state, with a sharp increase of the temperature
334 derivative at the glass transition temperature T_g. Our heating-cooling results also show linear
335 decreases of velocity with increasing temperature for measurements made during cooling (Fig. 5).
336 However, the change of temperature dependence of velocity below T_g during heating in our

337 high-pressure experiments (Fig. 5) has not been observed for room-pressure measurements
338 (Schilling et al. 2003). These observations suggest that the effect of temperature on the acoustic
339 behavior of silicate glasses is multifaceted and likely coupled with pressure. On the one hand, the
340 acoustic behavior measured during cooling (velocity decreases with temperature) is similar to
341 that observed in most crystalline silicates. This can be explained by the direct effect of
342 temperature on acoustic velocities through the anharmonicity of lattice vibrations. On the other
343 hand, temperature enhances the kinetics of structural reorganization of glasses at high pressures,
344 and it is likely that glasses under compression may undergo structural changes after passing a
345 threshold temperature at ~641-823 K, resulting in permanent densification of the glass at much
346 lower pressures than cold compression.

347 The Raman spectra of the recovered samples for hot-compressed glasses (T2689, T2690 and
348 T2698) and the glass that experienced multiple heating cycles (T2364) are indeed distinct from
349 that of the initial glass and cold-compressed glass below P_T (Fig. 3). For all Raman spectra, they
350 can be divided into three frequency regions. The broad band at 10-250 cm^{-1} corresponds to the
351 boson region (Neuville et al. 2014). The region from 250 to 800 cm^{-1} involves bending vibrations
352 of T-O-T linkages (T=Si, Al) in silicate glasses (McMillan 1984; Neuville et al. 2014; Moulton
353 et al. 2019), and the region from 800 to 1200 cm^{-1} is associated with the anti-stretching mode of
354 SiO_4 and AlO_4 , which can be distributed into Q^n species (where n represents the number of
355 bridging oxygens per TO_4) (McMillan 1984; Shimoda et al. 2005). Raman spectra of the initial
356 glass and cold-compressed glass below P_T (T2545) are virtually identical (Fig. 3), indicating that
357 the structure of the cold-compressed glass up to ~8 GPa is fully recovered to ambient conditions.
358 In contrast, all the other recovered samples show significantly different spectra when compared
359 with the initial glass, suggesting permanent structural changes have occurred in these glasses.

360 All the glass spectra show two distinct maxima which are centered around 580 and 670 cm^{-1}
361 (Fig. 3). For the initial glass and cold-compressed glass up to 8.2 GPa, the 580 cm^{-1} band is more
362 intense than the 670 cm^{-1} band, while the relative intensities are reversed for the hot-compressed
363 glasses and heated glass at high P, with the intensity of the 670 cm^{-1} band increasing with
364 temperature. In addition, the 580 cm^{-1} band also shifts to a higher wavenumber ($\sim 590 \text{ cm}^{-1}$) for
365 the hot-compressed and heated glasses, and the small shoulder observed at $\sim 500 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ for the
366 initial glass and cold-compressed glass below ~ 8 GPa becomes less pronounced for hot-
367 compressed and high-P heated glasses. These observations are consistent with previous Raman
368 studies on anorthite glass with permanent densification features (Reynard et al. 1999; Moulton et
369 al. 2019). According to high-pressure Raman studies on glasses in the Di-An join (Moulton
370 2016), the $\sim 580 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ band may correspond to Si-O-Si vibrations within polymerized units as
371 assigned in An glass (Daniel et al. 1995; Mysen and Toplis 2007), and may also involve
372 contributions from the breathing vibration associated with tetrahedral ring structures (Galeener
373 and Geissberger 1983). The $\sim 670 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ band corresponds to Si-O-Si vibrations within
374 depolymerized units as assigned in Di glass (Moulton 2016). Within the polymerized units for
375 An glass, the 580 cm^{-1} band may be interpreted as the breathing modes of four-membered
376 tetrahedral rings at 500 cm^{-1} (D_1) and three-membered tetrahedral rings at 587 cm^{-1} (D_2)
377 (Moulton et al. 2019). Thus, the decrease of the intensity of the 500 cm^{-1} shoulder and shift of
378 the 580 cm^{-1} band to a higher wavenumber suggest that the densification of model basalt glass at
379 high P-T may involve a change in tetrahedral ring statistics (Reynard et al. 1999; Moulton et al.
380 2019), favoring smaller rings and less open structures, which has been shown to result in a
381 reduction of the elastic anomaly (Sonneville et al. 2013). In addition, the variation of intensities
382 of the ~ 580 and 670 cm^{-1} bands for hot-compressed and high-P heated glasses may suggest that

383 compression in the depolymerized structural units (e.g., increase of the 670 cm^{-1} band) becomes
384 more and more important for densified glasses at high P-T (Fig. 3).

385 The main band at $\sim 960\text{ cm}^{-1}$ for the hot-compressed glasses remain more or less unchanged
386 compared to the initial glass (Fig. 3). However, the glass recovered from the heating-cooling
387 experiment has a slightly negative shift in the main band, implying that some amount of the
388 structural change related to the Q^n species is retained to ambient conditions (Kubicki et al. 1992;
389 Sonnevile et al. 2012; Moulton et al. 2016). This shift indicates an increase of the Q^n species in
390 population with $n=0$ and decrease in populations with $n=3$ and 4, suggesting that the heated glass
391 at high P is depolymerized and densified due to compression and heating, possibly through
392 breaking of the bridging oxygen bonds and compaction of voids in the intermediate range
393 structure (Wang et al. 2014). Our Raman results show that even though the highest pressure
394 reached ($\sim 7.5\text{ GPa}$) for the heated glass is lower than that of the cold-compressed glass before
395 the transition pressure ($\sim 8.2\text{ GPa}$), the combination of heating and compression produces a more
396 densified glass.

397 Progressive shift of the elastic anomaly (velocity minimum) to lower pressure and a decrease
398 in the extent of the elastic anomaly with increasing depolymerization has been observed in
399 sodium aluminosilicate glasses with different NBO/T under pressure (Sonneville et al. 2013) as
400 well as in silica glass as a function of the permanent densification ratio (Sonneville et al. 2012)
401 and through thermally-induced densification (Guerette et al. 2015, 2018). These suggest that
402 high temperature facilitates structural compaction, depolymerization and densification of model
403 basalt glass under compression, resulting in its progressive loss of the velocity minimum with
404 increasing temperature as observed in Fig. 4.

405 For silica glass, it has been shown that temperature can facilitate its densification at high
406 pressures and elevate its acoustic velocity compared to the room-temperature compressed value
407 (Hofler and Seifert 1984; Yokoyama et al. 2010; Guerette et al. 2015). For example, Yokoyama
408 et al. (2010) measured the elastic wave velocities of a silica glass at simultaneous high pressure
409 and high temperature and found that the velocities measured at high P-T are higher than those
410 measured during room-temperature compression, due to an increase in density with temperature.
411 This implies an apparent negative thermal expansion for silica glass at high pressures
412 (Yokoyama et al. 2010). Using high-pressure quench experiments, Guerette et al. (2015)
413 demonstrated that the densification of silica glass strongly depends on temperature, with the high
414 P-T conditions being much more efficient in increasing the density than just cold compression
415 without heating, and that temperature can help eliminate the elastic anomalies observed in silica
416 glass. Thermally-induced polyamorphic transitions between high-density amorphous (HDA)
417 phase and low-density amorphous (LDA) phase in silica glass at high pressures has also been
418 reported (Mukherjee et al. 2001; Guerette et al. 2018). These distinct behaviors between cold-
419 compressed and high P-T silica glasses are also supported by the total structure factor $S(q)$
420 measured by X-ray diffraction (Inamura et al. 2004; Guerette et al. 2015). The first sharp
421 diffraction peak (FSDP) position of $S(q)$, which is related to the intermediate-range order of the
422 network (Elliott 1991; Sakamaki et al. 2014b), increases with temperature to higher q values in a
423 specific temperature-pressure range, indicating that the intermediate-range structure of silica
424 glass is thermally densified at high pressures (Inamura et al. 2004; Katayama and Inamura 2005).
425 Meanwhile, contrary to the broadening and decrease in intensity of the FSDP in the room-
426 temperature compressed silica glass (Tan and Arndt 1999; Benmore et al. 2010; Sato and
427 Funamori 2010), the FSDP of high P-T silica glass narrows and its intensity does not change

428 much with pressure (Inamura et al. 2004; Guerette et al. 2015), suggesting that compression
429 disrupts the intermediate-range structures to a more chaotic size distribution whereas heating
430 homogenize the distribution. A similar narrowing and temperature dependence of FSDP for high
431 P-T jadeite glass and GeO₂ glass have also been observed by in-situ X-ray structural
432 measurements (Shen et al. 2007; Sakamaki et al. 2014a).

433 It is likely that model basalt glass at high P-T conditions may have gone through similar
434 structural densification as observed in silica glass (Inamura et al. 2004) and demonstrated in our
435 Raman spectra. Such densification may be responsible for the higher acoustic velocities observed
436 in the hot-compressed glasses than in the cold-compressed glasses, as well as the reduction of the
437 elastic anomaly with increasing temperature, through depolymerization and modification of the
438 glass structure (Fig. 4). Based on our velocity measurements, this thermally induced
439 densification in compressed silicate glasses likely happens during heating when temperature
440 reaches ~200-300 K below the T_g of the glass (Fig. 5). In addition, the densified structure may be
441 partially retained during cooling and further compression and decompression. The subsequent
442 heating cycles after some additional compression in our heating-cooling experiment likely
443 produced further densification, resulting in permanent densification of the intermediate-range
444 structure of the glass (Fig. 3).

445

446 *4.2 Comparison with silicate melt*

447 In order to further investigate whether hot-compressed glass or heated glass at high P can
448 better mimic the acoustic behavior of the corresponding melt than the cold-compressed glass or
449 not, we compare the velocity of model basalt glass and melt in Fig. 6. Currently, no direct
450 measurements of the sound velocity of model basalt melt are available. However, shock

451 experiments have been carried out on model basalt melt (Asimow and Ahrens 2010) and provide
452 its equation of state that can be used to calculate the sound velocity of model basalt melt along its
453 adiabat at high pressures.

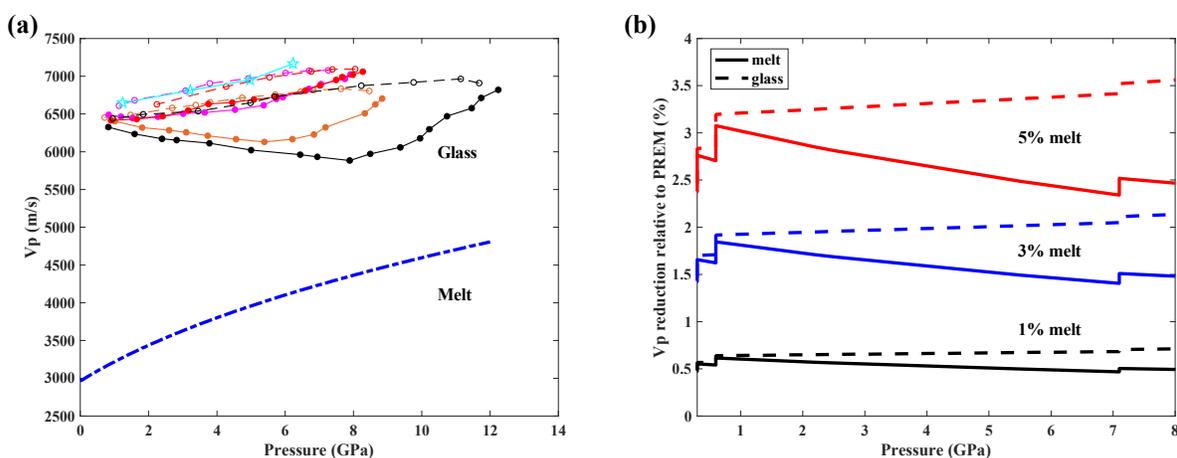
454 As can be seen in Fig. 6a, first, the model basalt glass velocity, regardless of its P-T path, are
455 all significantly higher than the velocity of the melt; and second, the smoother pressure
456 dependence in the hot-compressed and high-P heated glass without elastic anomaly is more
457 consistent with that observed in melt. This indicates that hot-compressed glass may provide
458 closer analog for the melt at high pressures in terms of the pressure dependence of elastic
459 properties than cold-compressed glass, similar to the conclusion drawn from first-principle
460 simulations (Ghosh et al. 2014).

461 Previous studies on silicate melts have shown that additional compression mechanisms are
462 available to silicate melts, in addition to the internal energy contribution which predominantly
463 controls the compression of crystals through the reduction of mean atomic distance (Richet and
464 Neuville 1992; Schilling et al. 2003; Jing and Karato 2011; Xu et al. 2018). Such mechanisms
465 have been studied in detail in (Jing and Karato 2011) and the difference between melt and
466 crystal/glass was demonstrated to be due to the greater entropy of melt. Using a hard-sphere
467 model of silicate melts, (Jing and Karato 2011) showed that the kinetic energy related to the free
468 motion of melt components (such as MgO, SiO₂, etc.) considered as hard spheres is a significant
469 contribution to the free energy of the system and thus would be an important mechanism for melt
470 compression. This configurational entropy contribution to compression can also quantitatively
471 explain the much higher compressibility observed in melt than that in glass and crystal (Jing and
472 Karato 2011), and for model basalt melt this configurational compressibility has been estimated
473 to account for ~48% of its total compressibility at room pressure (Schilling et al. 2003).

474 Similarly, the much lower velocity of melt than that in crystal and glass is also believed to result
475 from the entropic effect (Xu et al. 2018).

476 Such a configurational contribution to compression, however, is not fully available in
477 glasses as their atomic configurations are kinetically frozen at the time scales of laboratory
478 measurements. Therefore, the measurements on glass can only reflect the energetic contribution
479 of a particular frozen configurational state which strongly depends on the thermal history of the
480 glass (Askarpour et al. 1993). For cold-compressed glass, due to the high kinetic hindrance to
481 structure change, compression is mostly accommodated by adjusting the intermediate-range
482 structures through topological rearrangements such as changes in bond angles and ring structures
483 (Hemley et al. 1986; Huang et al. 2004; Deschamps et al. 2009). However, compression at higher
484 temperatures or heating of the glass to $\sim 200\text{-}300$ K below the T_g homogenize the intermediate
485 structure and densify the glass to remove this effect (Fig. 4), which is likely because that high
486 temperature help reduce the kinetic barrier and increase the configurational space, making the
487 high-temperature glass more easily to be densified with pressure without the need for much
488 topological rearrangements in the intermediate-range structures. This is consistent with first-
489 principle simulations on silicate glasses (Ghosh et al. 2014; Ghosh and Karki 2018), showing
490 that in the low-pressure range (0-10 GPa), smooth increase in bond distance and coordination
491 occurs in the hot-compressed glass, while both Si and Al in cold-compressed glass display
492 mainly topological changes without significantly affecting the average bond distance and
493 coordination. In addition, NMR spectra on aluminosilicate glasses also show that highly
494 coordinated Al species increase with glass fictive temperatures (Stebbins et al. 2008), implying
495 that coordination changes may occur more easily for high-temperature glasses. All these
496 observations, therefore, suggest that high-temperature compressed silicate glass or

497 heated/annealed glass at high P may be a closer analog for high-pressure melt than cold-
498 compressed glass in terms of both structure and properties, although the high P-T glass may still
499 not be able to fully capture all the configurational contributions to compression that are
500 important in high-temperature melt, as the high P-T glass below T_g is still more kinetically
501 sluggish in structural changes in response to pressure than the high P-T melt. It should be
502 emphasized that glass, as a metastable rather than thermodynamically stable phase, has structure
503 and properties that are dependent on the sample preparation conditions and subsequent
504 measurement conditions, such as temperature, pressure, shear stress, heating/cooling rate,
505 compression/decompression rate, measurement timescale, etc. Caution should be taken when
506 applying or extrapolating glass properties to melt in Earth and planetary interiors.



507
508 **Fig. 6 (a)** Comparison of the P-wave velocity (V_p) of model basalt glass from different P-T paths with that of model
509 basalt melt. The cold-compressed (black) and hot compressed (orange – 641 K, magenta – 823 K and red – 1006 K)
510 data for model basalt glass are plotted as the same symbols in Fig. 4. The cyan stars represent the data for the heated
511 glass at each fixed press load and 300 K after experiencing the heating-cooling cycle. The thick blue dash-dot curve
512 is the calculated velocity profile for model basalt melt based on the shock experimental results from (Asimow and
513 Ahrens 2010). (b) V_p reduction relative to the PREM model (Dziewonski and Anderson 1981) as a function of
514 pressure and melt fraction. Solid curves are calculated based on the EOS of model basalt melt (Asimow and Ahrens
515 2010). Dashed curves are calculated based on the cold-compression results of model basalt glass in this study, with

516 an anchored room-pressure velocity same as that of the model basalt melt (See calculation details in Supplementary
517 Materials). Black, blue and red represent 1%, 3% and 5% melt fraction, respectively.

518

519 **Implications**

520 Our study has clearly shown the distinct acoustic behaviors between cold-compressed and
521 hot-compressed/high-P heated glass, and pointed out the importance of temperature during
522 compression in order to fundamentally understand the behavior of silicate glasses. Since the
523 measured acoustic velocities on silicate glasses are unrelaxed, they cannot be directly compared
524 with seismic wave velocities which are measured at much lower and relaxed frequency to
525 constrain the composition and structure of possible melt layers in the Earth's interior. Cold-
526 compressed glasses are by no means good analogs for high P-T melt in the Earth's interior. Thus,
527 it would be inappropriate to use the anomalous pressure dependence of acoustic velocities
528 observed in various silicate glasses compressed at room temperature to approximate the velocity
529 of silicate melts as in previous models and experimental studies (e.g., Liu and Lin 2014; Clark et
530 al. 2016; Clark and Lesher 2017). Using the acoustic behavior of cold-compressed silicate
531 glasses can result in a significant underestimate of the melt fractions needed to explain a given
532 velocity reduction observed seismically, especially at high pressures (Fig. 6b). The high-
533 temperature compressed glasses may better mimic the pressure dependence of velocity in melts,
534 but are unlikely to fully capture the configurational properties that are important to melts.

535

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546

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