

Stability of ferrous-iron-rich bridgmanite under reducing midmantle conditions

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Our current understanding of the electronic state of iron in lower-mantle minerals leads to a considerable disagreement in bulk sound speed with seismic measurements if the lower mantle has the same composition as the upper mantle (pyrolite). In the modeling studies, the content and oxidation state of Fe in the minerals have been assumed to be constant throughout the lower mantle. Here, we report high-pressure experimental results in which Fe becomes dominantly Fe²⁺ in bridgmanite synthesized at 40–70 GPa and 2,000 K, while it is in mixed oxidation state (Fe³⁺/ΣFe = 60%) in the samples synthesized below and above the pressure range. Little Fe³⁺ in bridgmanite combined with the strong partitioning of Fe²⁺ into ferropericlase will alter the Fe content for these minerals at 1,100- to 1,700-km depths. Our calculations show that the change in iron content harmonizes the bulk sound speed of pyrolite with the seismic values in this region. Our experiments support no significant changes in bulk composition for most of the mantle, but possible changes in physical properties and processes (such as viscosity and mantle flow patterns) in the midmantle.

bridgmanite | lower mantle | oxidation state | spin transition | bulk sound speed

The variable oxidation state of iron has a profound impact on a range of mantle properties, including the redox conditions and iron partitioning (1, 2). The strong partitioning of trivalent Al into bridgmanite in the lower mantle affects the stability of Fe³⁺ in the phase because the substitution requires defects or charge coupling (3). McCammon (4) reported a large amount of Fe³⁺ (Fe³⁺/ΣFe = 60%; fraction of Fe³⁺ with respect to total Fe in a phase) in Al-bearing bridgmanite synthesized in a multianvil press, which was subsequently confirmed under reducing conditions (1, 5). Stabilization of Fe³⁺–Al charge-coupled substitution and charge disproportionation where 3Fe²⁺ (bridgmanite) → 2Fe³⁺ (bridgmanite) + Fe⁰ (metal) both help explain the large amount of Fe³⁺ under reducing conditions. However, the multianvil studies are limited to ~800-km depth (26 GPa and 2,300 K). High Fe³⁺/ΣFe has been reported in bridgmanite samples synthesized at higher pressures (2, 6–9). However, the existing data are sparse, and bridgmanite has the capacity for large amounts of Fe³⁺ under oxidizing conditions (5, 6, 10). Despite these issues, bridgmanite has been assumed to contain a large amount of Fe³⁺ throughout the lower mantle (1).

The energetics of Fe²⁺ and Fe³⁺ incorporation in bridgmanite, however, can change at higher pressures. Whereas oxygen-defect substitution is energetically competitive for the incorporation of trivalent cations at lower pressures, charge-coupled substitution may be increasingly stabilized at higher pressures (11). Also, the spin configuration of valence electrons in Fe in minerals undergoes changes in the lower mantle (12). Because in bridgmanite the spin behavior of Fe is different depending on the oxidation state and the coordination environment, site preferences of Fe³⁺ and Fe²⁺ change with pressure (13, 14). These

factors affect the stable oxidation state and substitution mechanism at different pressures.

We examined the Fe³⁺/ΣFe of bridgmanite at a wide range of pressure–temperature conditions related to the lower mantle under reducing conditions. In our experiments, we mixed Fe²⁺-rich starting materials with approximately bridgmanite stoichiometry with 2–5 wt% Fe metal powder following the method used in multianvil syntheses (1). We enriched all starting materials with 67–95% ⁵⁷Fe. We loaded the sample mixture into diamond-anvil cells (DACs) together with a pressure medium (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S1). We heated 14 different samples to 2,000–2,300 K at different pressures with the synthesis monitored by using synchrotron X-ray diffraction (XRD) during and after heating (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S2). Energy-dispersive X-ray spectroscopy (EDS) in an aberration-corrected electron microscope (ACEM) showed that the bridgmanite samples synthesized at 47 and 56 GPa contain 0.19 ± 0.02 of Fe# and 0.10 ± 0.03 of Al# on the basis 3 oxygens, which agrees well with the composition of the starting materials within 10% uncertainties from the EDS measurements. Both XRD and ACEM (EDS and imaging) showed that our samples contain bridgmanite and metallic iron (with a small amount of silica only at *P* < 40 GPa), but found no other phases (see *Materials and Methods* and *SI Appendix* for details).

We conducted synchrotron Mössbauer spectroscopy (SMS) on both the temperature-quenched samples at high pressure (hereafter “in situ” SMS) and the decompressed samples at 0–3 GPa and 300 K (hereafter “quench” SMS) (Fig. 1 and *SI Appendix*, Fig. S3). We used quench SMS for Fe³⁺/ΣFe, because the

Significance

This paper reports an unexpected change in the oxidation state of Fe in bridgmanite, the most dominant mineral in the lower mantle. The oxidation state change resolves the discrepancy between laboratory and seismic studies on the chemical composition of the lower mantle, showing that the lower mantle has major element chemistry similar to the upper mantle. The oxidation state change will also lead to a lower Fe content in bridgmanite in the midmantle, whereas the total Fe content remains the same. Such a change can lead to an increase in viscosity at 1,100- to 1,700-km depths, providing a viable mineralogical explanation on possible viscosity elevation suggested by geophysical studies at the same depth range.

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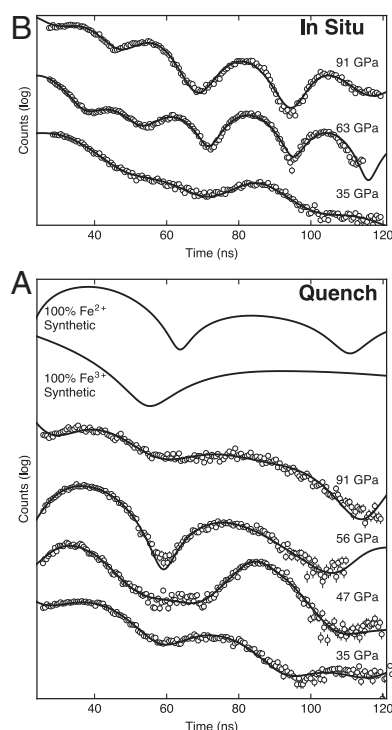


Fig. 1. Synchrotron Mössbauer spectra of bridgmanite. (A) Bridgmanite recovered to 0–3 GPa after synthesis at different pressures and 2,000–2,300 K (bottom four spectra). We also included synthetic spectra of bridgmanite at 1 bar with different amount of Fe^{3+} using IS and QS values from McCammon (4) (top two spectra). (B) Bridgmanite at in situ high pressure after laser heating. Synthesis pressures for the samples are shown on the right side (circles, measured intensities; curves, fitted spectra).

quench SMS allows for unambiguous determination of the oxidation state of Fe. The spin effect on isomer shift (IS) and quadrupole splitting (QS) generally overlaps with the oxidation effect at high pressures (*SI Appendix*, section S2 and Fig. S4). The interpretation of the parameters is still controversial at high pressure (13, 14) (*SI Appendix*, section S3). In contrast, from quench SMS, we can relate IS and QS to the oxidation states of Fe, because near 0 GPa, both Fe^{2+} and Fe^{3+} should be high spin in bridgmanite, and the effects from Fe in different crystallographic sites on the Mössbauer parameters are much less significant than the oxidation states (15) (*SI Appendix*, section S3). The IS and QS of bridgmanite are also well known at 1 bar with good agreement among existing studies (2, 4, 5) (*SI Appendix*, section S3 and Fig. S4). Because bridgmanite is metastable at ambient conditions, iron in the phase could be easily oxidized by air or moisture. Therefore, quench SMS were performed for the samples in an inert medium (Ar or Ne) in the DAC at 0–3 GPa.

We found that the quench SMS spectra of bridgmanite synthesized at 47–63 GPa are distinct from the spectra at lower and higher pressures (Fig. 1A and *SI Appendix*, Fig. S3). The spectra in this pressure range have much more well-defined quantum beats compared with those in other pressure ranges. The synthetic SMS spectrum of Fe^{2+} -rich bridgmanite agrees well with the measured SMS spectra of bridgmanite synthesized at the pressure range (Fig. 1A). Our spectral fitting showed that $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$ drops to 13–22% at 47–63 GPa, whereas it is ~60% at lower and higher pressures (Fig. 2 and *SI Appendix*, Fig. S4 and Table S1). Our glass-starting material contains 10% of $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$, similar to the $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$ observed at 51–63 GPa. This similarity means that the system does not produce Fe^{3+} over this pressure range. The other Mössbauer parameters, QS

and IS , are in agreement with the previous studies (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S4B), indicating that the changes found in the spectra originated from Fe^{3+} content.

Among the recovered samples for SMS, one synthesized at 47 GPa (Figs. 1 and 2) was sufficiently thinned for electron energy loss spectroscopy (EELS) (Fig. 3). EELS can measure $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$ through energy changes during electronic transitions, which is a completely different physical process compared with SMS. Therefore, EELS provides an independent determination of $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$ in bridgmanite, complementing the SMS data analysis which can be sensitive to starting models. However, the intense electron beam is known to alter $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$ during EELS measurements, even for minerals stable at ambient conditions (16). Therefore, we optimized EELS parameters until we found no changes in $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$ of the standard mineral specimens: olivine, andradite, and cronstedtite (Fig. 3). All of the EELS spectra measured for the sample showed negligible spectral signatures from Fe^{3+} in both L_2 and L_3 , indicating that iron in the sample is predominantly Fe^{2+} (Fig. 3). Spectral fitting indicated that $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$ should be <10%, which agrees with our quench SMS for the same sample.

Our $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$ at the lowest pressure (35 GPa) agrees well with the multianvil results (1, 5) on aluminous bridgmanite under reducing conditions at 26 GPa (Fig. 2). There are three other datasets from laser-heated DAC (LHDAC) experiments (7–9), which have a wide enough pressure range for comparison with our dataset, although these datasets have fewer data points, with larger gaps between the points (Fig. 2). None of these three datasets show a clear drop in $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$ at 47–63 GPa. However, there are a few important differences in the experiments. The chemical compositions of these three datasets are all different from each other and also from our study (see *SI Appendix* for details). The three data points in Sinmyo et al. (7) all have different chemical compositions. A data point at 93 GPa in Piet et al. (9) was obtained from a different starting material with much more Al. Prescher et al. (8) used Fe^{3+} -rich bridgmanite synthesized at 25 GPa as a starting material, which is different from our study and the other two (7, 9), where starting materials were amorphous. Unlike amorphous starting materials, which are highly metastable at high pressure and therefore affected less by kinetic effects during high-temperature synthesis of bridgmanite, conversion from Fe^{3+} -rich to Fe^{2+} -rich bridgmanite would

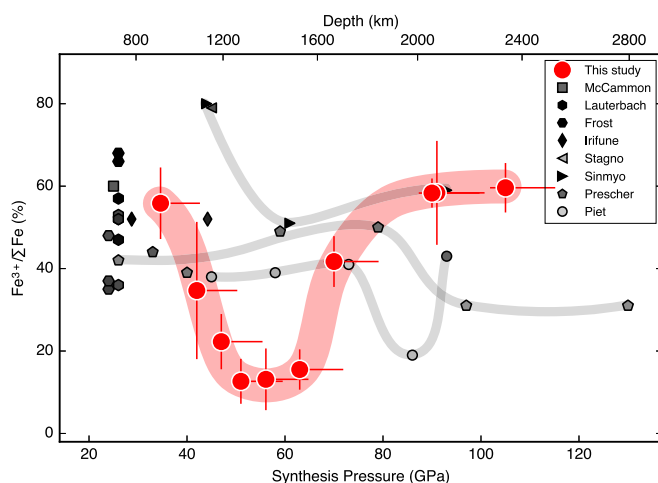


Fig. 2. Ferric iron content of aluminous bridgmanite. The parameters were measured for the samples quenched to 0–3 GPa. The gray scale for the symbols of the previous data points (1, 2, 4–8) represents Al# for 3O basis bridgmanite formula (black for Al# ≥ 0.1). We plot only Al# ≥ 0.05, except for Piet et al. (9). The light red and gray curves are guides for the eye for the datasets from this study and other studies (7–9), respectively.

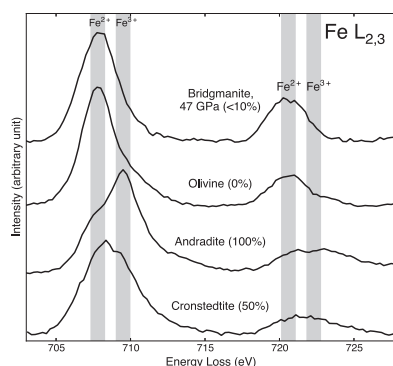


Fig. 3. EELS of Fe in bridgmanite. The sample was recovered from 47 GPa and 2,000 K and compared with olivine ($\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}=0\%$), andradite ($\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}=100\%$), and cronstedtite ($\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}=50\%$). All of the spectra were measured under the same instrumental conditions (*Materials and Methods*). The structure at 708 keV in andradite is a prepeak of Fe^{3+} .

have a higher kinetic barrier to overcome. We loaded metallic Fe to ensure the reducing conditions during synthesis. None of the three studies loaded metallic Fe. However, Sinmyo et al. (7) observed metallic iron after synthesis. Therefore, the redox conditions for the dataset from the study might be comparable to our dataset. Despite these differences and fewer data points, it is interesting that all three datasets suggest a possible decrease in $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$ (by 20–30%) in the midmantle (Fig. 2). The different experimental methods and composition may contribute to the different pressures in the $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$ decrease and its magnitude observed in the datasets (7–9).

The drop of $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$ found here (Fig. 2) requires changes in substitution mechanisms in bridgmanite with pressure (Fig. 4B). Existing data (1, 5) suggest that the dominant factors for high $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$ in bridgmanite at 25–30 GPa are the $\text{VIII Fe}^{3+}-\text{VI Al}^{3+}$ charge-coupled substitution [where VIII and VI represents the eight (or A) and six (or B) coordinated sites in a perovskite-type structure, respectively] and charge disproportionation (*SI Appendix, Reaction S2*). Previous studies also indicate smaller but important contributions from the $\text{VIII Al}^{3+}-\text{VI Al}^{3+}$ charge-coupled substitution (*SI Appendix, Reaction S5*) and oxygen vacancy substitution (*SI Appendix, Reaction S6*) at 25–26 GPa, even when bridgmanite contains equal amounts of Al and Fe (*SI Appendix, section S4*). With an increase in pressure between 25 and 51 GPa, oxygen vacancies are expected to disappear (11) (*SI Appendix, Reaction S10*), and the $\text{VIII [Al}^{3+}]-\text{VI [Al}^{3+}]$ configuration (*SI Appendix, Reaction S11*) may become energetically more favorable than the $\text{VIII [Fe}^{3+}]-\text{VI [Al}^{3+}]$ configuration, leading to minimum $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$ at 53–63 GPa. The proposed change may be driven by smaller volume of the $\text{VIII [Al}^{3+}]-\text{VI [Al}^{3+}]$ configuration. Such a configuration will increase the content of Al in the A site, which decreases the volume of the A site where larger-sized Mg and Fe existed. It will also decrease the content of Al in the B site, which reduces the volume of the B site by increasing in the content of smaller-sized Si. However, conversion of Fe^{3+} to Fe^{2+} would increase the volume of the A site. Our in situ SMS indicates the appearance of a new Fe site with Q_S as high as 4 mm/s at the pressure where $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$ rapidly decreases (42 GPa; Fig. 1B and *SI Appendix, Fig. S5*), suggesting either changes in spin state or local structure for Fe^{2+} in the A site (*SI Appendix, section S4.5*). If such changes can decrease the ionic radius of Fe^{2+} , it will further stabilize the $\text{VIII [Al}^{3+}]-\text{VI [Al}^{3+}]$ configuration and therefore decrease $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$. At 25–50 GPa, Fe^{3+} would remain in the A site (*SI Appendix, section S4.5*).

Ferric iron in the B site undergoes a high- to low-spin transition at 50–70 GPa (10, 14). If this spin transition results in

a smaller ionic radius of Fe^{3+} , likely comparable with that of Al^{3+} , the charge disproportionation would become more stable, and $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$ would increase by stabilization of the $\text{VIII [HS Fe}^{3+}, \text{Al}^{3+}]-\text{VI [LS Fe}^{3+}, \text{Al}^{3+}]$ configuration (Fig. 4A and *SI Appendix, section S4.7*). We calculated the volume change in charge disproportionation of Fe to such a configuration (*SI Appendix, Fig. S8C and section S4.7*) and found that the volume of the $\text{VIII [HS Fe}^{3+}, \text{Al}^{3+}]-\text{VI [LS Fe}^{3+}, \text{Al}^{3+}]$ configuration is significantly smaller, supporting the proposed change in the substitution mechanism at pressures >70 GPa.

Our results indicate that almost all of the iron in bridgmanite is ferrous (Fe^{2+}), with little ferric (Fe^{3+}) iron at 1,100- to 1,700-km depths (hereafter low ferric iron bridgmanite zone; LIBZ), whereas bridgmanite in the lower mantle regions above and below LIBZ contains >50% of iron in the ferric oxidation state (hereafter high ferric iron bridgmanite zone; HIBZ). Because Fe^{2+} partitions into ferropericlase, whereas almost all Fe^{3+} enters bridgmanite (2), bridgmanite will be depleted in Fe in LIBZ (also can be referred to as low-iron bridgmanite zone) compared with HIBZs (also can be referred to as high-iron bridgmanite zone), and ferropericlase will have an increased amount of Fe in LIBZ compared with HIBZs (Fig. 4B).

A number of studies have been conducted to compare the density and velocity profiles of compositional models (pyrolite) with seismic observations. However, these models have assumed that the compositions of individual minerals, in particular Fe content and oxidation state, do not change throughout the lower mantle (18–20). Both experiments and computations have found that the bulk modulus (and therefore bulk sound speed) of ferropericlase decreases considerably within the pressure range where the phase is in a transitional state from high spin to low spin (therefore, a mixed-spin state), although the bulk modulus of ferropericlase with high-spin Fe is essentially the same as that with low spin (18–21). In contrast, the spin transition has no significant impact on density and shear velocity profiles (18–21).

The bulk sound speed profile of pyrolite along the mantle geotherm shows significant discrepancy with seismic values if it is calculated by assuming constant $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$ in bridgmanite (therefore constant mineral compositions) throughout the lower mantle. As shown in Fig. 4A, such discrepancies are clear at 1,300- to 1,800-km and 2,100- to 2,400-km depths, if bridgmanite is rich in Fe^{3+} and Fe^{2+} (and therefore ferropericlase has low and high Fe contents), respectively, throughout the lower mantle (see *Materials and Methods* for details). Although the bulk sound speed depression should be detectable, such large-scale structures have not been found in the lower mantle (22). Decreasing the content of ferropericlase provides a substantially better fit. However, the required decrease increases the bulk sound speed of mineralogical models above the seismic values throughout the lower mantle and results in a much lower Mg/Si ratio for the lower mantle than the upper mantle. The change in Mg/Si ratio would make the lower mantle nonpyrolitic as a result, making the lower mantle richer in Si.

We include the observed $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$ change in the calculation (the red curve in Fig. 4A). From the iron partition coefficients for Fe^{2+} - and Fe^{3+} -rich bridgmanite (2, 23), we obtained 0.27 and 0.15 Fe# of ferropericlase (for 1 oxygen base chemical formula) in LIBZ and HIBZs for pyrolite composition in response to the Fe oxidation state change in bridgmanite, respectively (see *Materials and Methods* for details). The higher Fe content in ferropericlase in LIBZ (0.27 Fe#) will significantly increase the spin transition pressure for the Fe (18, 20). As shown in Fig. 4A (blue curves), because the spin transition does not occur until much greater depths, ferropericlase with higher Fe content in LIBZ will have only high-spin Fe^{2+} . Ferropericlase (with lower Fe content) in HIBZs would not decrease bulk sound speed significantly, because the mixed-spin state, which causes the severe bulk modulus decrease for 0.15 Fe#, occurs at the depths of LIBZ. Instead, ferropericlase has almost all Fe^{2+} in high spin in shallow

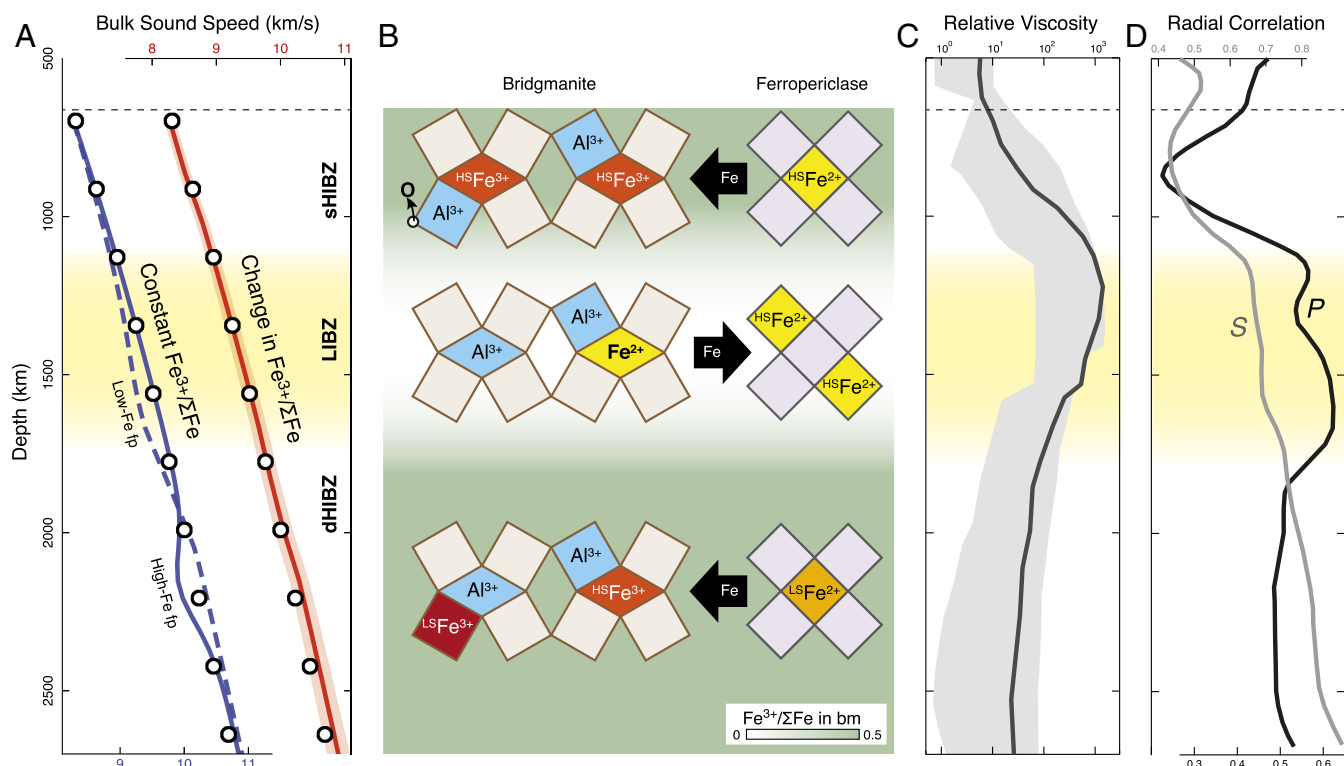


Fig. 4. Seismic and mineralogical structures in the lower mantle. (A) Comparison of bulk sound speeds of seismic measurement [PREM (17); circles] and pyrolite models. Three different pyrolitic models are presented: depth-dependent changes in $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$ of bridgmanite (red curve), constant Fe in bridgmanite ($0.04\text{Fe}^{2+}\#$) and ferropericlasite ($0.27\text{Fe}\#$) (solid blue curve), and constant Fe in bridgmanite ($0.045\text{Fe}^{2+}\#$ and $0.045\text{Fe}^{3+}\#$) and ferropericlasite ($0.15\text{Fe}\#$) (dashed blue curve). See *Materials and Methods* for details. The light red area represents estimated uncertainties, including those from thermoelastic parameters. (B) Changes in the crystal chemistry of bridgmanite and ferropericlasite. For bridgmanite, the tilted squares and the diamond-shaped areas between them represent the B and A sites, respectively. For ferropericlasite, the 45° rotated squares represent the MgO_6 octahedra. (C) Changes in viscosity (26). The black curve is for a density scaling of 0.2 and harmonic degrees of 2–7. The light gray area represents a range of different values found in all of the models in ref. 26. (D) Changes in radial correlations of the P and S wave tomography models (PMEAN and SMEAN) (27).

HIBZ at 660- to 1,100-km depths and low spin in the deep HIBZ at 1,700- to 2,900-km depths.

Unlike the models without the bridgmanite $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$ change, we found no significant reduction in the bulk sound speed profile of pyrolite when we incorporate the observed $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$ change in the calculation (Fig. 4A). The bulk sound profile of pyrolite with the bridgmanite $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$ change agrees well with average [preliminary reference Earth model (PREM)] seismic values for the lower mantle (17). We also found that the density profile of pyrolite agrees well with seismic values (*SI Appendix, Fig. S10*). $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$ in bridgmanite decreases and increases above and below LIBZ over a pressure interval of 10–20 GPa. Such a gradual change will not result in any sharp changes in the lower mantle seismic profiles, consistent with the absence of global seismic discontinuities in the 1,000- to 2,000-km depth interval.

We showed that the reduction of Fe^{3+} in bridgmanite at 1,100- to 1,700-km depths reconciles the discrepancy in bulk sound speed profile between pyrolitic lower-mantle composition and seismic observations. Therefore, there is no need for differences in major element chemistry between the upper and lower mantle, consistent with seismic observations of slabs penetrating to the lowermost mantle and therefore whole mantle convection (24).

An important unknown in the model above is possible compositional sensitivity of the depth interval for the $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$ drop in bridgmanite. A recent Brillouin spectroscopy study (25) found good agreement in velocities between Fe^{3+} -rich bridgmanite in $\text{Mg}_{0.9}\text{Fe}_{0.1}\text{Al}_{0.1}\text{Si}_{0.9}\text{O}_3$ and seismic 1D model (PREM) at pressures expected for the shallower lower mantle. However, the velocities of Fe^{3+} -rich bridgmanite showed significant mismatch

with the seismic model at depths $>1,300$ km, while Fe^{2+} -rich bridgmanite agrees better with the seismic model in the region. The observations led to a proposal that $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$ in bridgmanite decreases at the depth range. The proposed depth is remarkably similar to the depth expected for the $\text{Fe}^{3+}/\Sigma\text{Fe}$ drop in bridgmanite found in our study (1,100 km), despite the difference in the total Fe content.

Recently, elevated viscosity has been reported (26) near the depth of low- Fe^{3+} bridgmanite (LIBZ) (Fig. 4C). Most P-wave tomographic models (27) have also shown a transition from minimum radial correlation of seismic structures at 700–1,000 km to enhanced correlation at depths greater than $\sim 1,500$ km (Fig. 4D). Recent tomographic models have found stagnation or broadening of some subducting slabs (28) and horizontal deflections of some mantle plumes (29) near this depth range. Numerical simulations demonstrated that the viscosity elevation at 1,000–1,500 km can produce such seismic observations (26).

Being the dominant phase in the region (70 vol%), bridgmanite controls the viscosity of the lower mantle (30). According to our study, bridgmanite in LIBZ at 1,100–1,700 km contains little or no Fe^{3+} and therefore a lower amount of Fe because of strong partitioning of Fe^{2+} to ferropericlasite. Although the effect of Fe is still unknown for the viscosity of bridgmanite due to technical difficulties, iron can decrease viscosity as shown in other minerals (31). Because iron reduces the melting temperature of bridgmanite and viscosity can be scaled to homologous temperature (temperature normalized to material's melting temperature) (32), low-Fe content bridgmanite at 1,100–1,700 km would have a high viscosity, providing a plausible explanation for

the viscosity increase (26) without invoking any major changes in chemical composition over this depth range.

Materials and Methods

Starting Materials. We used two different starting materials with the same composition: 28.8 wt% MgO, 53.6 wt% SiO₂, 12.8 wt% FeO, and 4.8 wt% Al₂O₃. We synthesized 15 bridgmanite samples (*SI Appendix, Table S1*). For the 3-oxygen formula unit of bridgmanite, the synthesized bridgmanite contained 0.19Fe and 0.10Al, which are both elevated from the samples studied previously, including pyrolitic compositions. The elevated amounts of Fe are important to obtaining sufficient quality of Mössbauer spectra for accurate determination of the oxidation state of Fe. Our Al/Fe ratio overlaps with the range of the values reported for bridgmanite synthesized from pyrolitic starting materials (2, 7, 8, 33). The Fe³⁺/ΣFe of bridgmanite synthesized at the lowest pressure of our study (35 GPa) followed the trends found in bridgmanite reported in previous redox-controlled experiments (1, 5) (see *SI Appendix, Fig. S7 and sections S4.1–S4.4* for detailed discussion). Both starting materials are enriched with ⁵⁷Fe: 67 and 95% for pyroxene and glass-starting materials, respectively. The SMS data of these materials indicate that the pyroxene contains no detectable amount of Fe³⁺ and the glass-starting material contains Fe³⁺/ΣFe ≈ 10% (*SI Appendix, Fig. S3 and section S3*).

Sample Preparation. To ensure reducing conditions, we mixed our starting materials with predried Fe metal powder (2–5 wt%) following the method used in multianvil syntheses by Frost et al. (1) (*SI Appendix, Figs. S1 and S9*). A potential disadvantage of mixing metallic Fe with the starting materials is the complexity of measured SMS due to Mössbauer signal from Fe in both metal and bridgmanite. To reduce the problem, we used metallic Fe with a natural level ⁵⁷Fe (2%) and starting materials with ⁵⁷Fe enrichment (67–95%). We also limited the amount of metallic iron to ≤5 wt%. The powder mixture was compressed between diamond anvils to make a rigid foil. The foil was loaded into the hole in a preindented Re gasket. The foil was propped by three to four grains of the starting materials to allow Ar or Ne to flow in to separate the foil from the diamond anvils during cryogenic or gas loading (*SI Appendix, Table S1*). The separation of the sample foil from the diamond anvils is particularly important to prevent direct contact between the diamond anvils and the sample foil and therefore to ensure lower thermal gradient during laser heating. One sample was loaded with a KCl medium. The KCl was dried at 1,073 K for 24 h before loading. Some ruby chips were loaded on the gasket or the edge of the sample chamber as pressure sensors, to avoid direct contact between the ruby chips and our sample foils. Pressures were measured by using both ruby (34) and diamond pressure scales (35) after temperature quench.

High-Pressure Synthesis. At a target pressure, double-sided laser heating was conducted to 2,000–2,300 K at sectors 13 and 16, Advanced Photon Source (APS). By scanning the infrared laser beams (1,065 nm), we transformed the entire foil of the starting material + Fe metal powder mixture into bridgmanite + Fe metal powder. The size of hot spot was 20–25 μm, and the sample was translated by 2–5 μm during scanning. In the first scan, each spot was heated for 5–10 min until the starting material transformed to bridgmanite. From the second scan, each spot was heated for 1–5 min. The scan was repeated for multiples of time. Each spot was heated for a total of ~10–30 min. Thermal radiation spectra from both sides of the sample were measured by using an imaging spectrometer and fitted to the Planck black-body radiation function to obtain temperatures. To avoid memory effects from preexisting electronic configuration of Fe and the crystal structure, once bridgmanite was formed at a target pressure, the samples were never heated again at different pressures. The pressure before and after heating was measured. We found pressure changes <5 GPa. However, pressure in the DAC during laser heating should be higher due to thermal pressure (36, 37). Previous studies have shown a ~5 GPa increase for heating to 2,000–2,300 K (38), which is included in the estimated error bars presented in Fig. 2.

Synchrotron XRD. Diffraction patterns were measured during laser heating and after temperature quench for nine different samples at different pressures, ranging between 31 and 105 GPa, to ensure the synthesis of bridgmanite (*SI Appendix, Fig. S2*). The measurements were conducted at beamlines 13IDD (39) and 16IDB (40) of the APS. At GSECARS, monochromatic X-ray beams with a wavelength of 0.3344 Å were focused to an area of 3 × 4 μm² on the sample in LHDAC. At the High-Pressure Collaborative Access Team (HPCAT), monochromatic X-ray beams with a wavelength of 0.3515 Å were focused to an area of 5 × 6 μm² on the sample in LHDAC.

Powder diffraction images were collected by using MarCCD detectors. The laser beams were aligned coaxially with the X-ray beam.

SMS. Nuclear forward scattering was conducted at sector 3 of APS (Fig. 1 and *SI Appendix, Fig. S3*). A 14.4-keV X-ray beam was focused on an area of 6 × 6 μm² in the sample. The storage ring was operated in top-up mode with 24 bunches separated by 153 ns. Nuclear resonant scattering was measured in a time window of 15–130 ns with a typical data collection time of 8–12 h. We conducted SMS on both the temperature-quenched samples at high pressure (in situ SMS) and decompressed samples at 0–3 GPa in DAC (quench SMS). A total of 14 samples were successfully measured at in situ high pressure in DAC after laser heating. Ten samples were successfully quenched to 0–3 GPa, where SMS was conducted. The spectral fitting was performed by using the CONUSS package (41) (see *SI Appendix, section S3* for details).

EELS. We expanded the beam size at the sample to 100–200 nm in a transmission electron microscope (TEM) mode with sufficiently low accelerating voltage at 120 kV to reduce the electron dosage of the sample, while allowing enough total intensity to provide good signal-to-noise ratios for the spectra. The measurements were performed in a JEOL ARM200 ACEM with a Gatan Enfinitum spectrometer. The energy resolution was 0.7–0.9 eV. We avoided the area with metallic iron grains to obtain the EELS spectra from pure bridgmanite. We also measured the EELS spectra of minerals with known oxidation states of Fe (olivine, pyroxene, andradite, and cronstedite) using the same instrumental conditions and used them for spectral fitting to extract Fe³⁺/ΣFe. The fraction of ferric iron (Fe³⁺/ΣFe) was determined by the EELS analysis methods in ref. 42.

EDS. The measurements were conducted in a JEOL ARM200 ACEM for spot measurements and a JEOL JEM-2800 TEM for X-ray mapping (*SI Appendix, Fig. S9*). In ARM, EDS was performed with a JEOL 50 mm² windowless light-element-sensitive X-ray detector. The X-ray compositional mapping was conducted in a JEOL JEM-2800 system combined with a JED-2300T detector at 200 kV. The beam size was 0.5 nm. The EDS spectra were analyzed by using the method in ref. 43.

Lower-Mantle 1D Profile Calculations. The bulk sound speed and density profiles were calculated for pyrolite by using the Burnman toolkit (44) combined with the parameters listed in *SI Appendix, Table S2* (14, 45, 45–47) along the mantle geotherm (48). We corrected volume and elasticity for compositional differences using a linear assumption. We assumed that thermal parameters were not sensitive to compositional differences.

We conducted calculations for a CaO–MgO–Al₂O₃–SiO₂–FeO system with oxide ratios from the pyrolite composition in Ringwood (49). The bulk composition was fixed throughout the lower mantle for all of the pyrolite profiles we calculated. Iron partition coefficients were 0.58 (2) and 0.12 (23) for Fe³⁺-rich (HIBZs) and Fe²⁺-rich (LIBZ) bridgmanite systems, respectively. From the partition coefficients and the pyrolite composition, we obtained: 0.045Fe³⁺# and 0.045Fe²⁺# in bridgmanite and 0.15Fe# in ferropericlase for HIBZs, and 0.04Fe²⁺# in bridgmanite and 0.27Fe# in ferropericlase for LIBZ. All Al₂O₃ entered bridgmanite, and all CaO was incorporated into CaSiO₃ perovskite in our models.

Our Fe# values for bridgmanite and ferropericlase in HIBZ were consistent with the Fe# reported for pyrolite with Fe³⁺-rich bridgmanite in Irfune et al. (2), 0.09–0.10 and 0.12–0.14, respectively. Ferropericlase in the study had slightly lower Fe# than ours because it contained other cations, such as Si, Al, Ni, Cr, and Na, the total content of which was 0.02–0.06 cation#. In our calculation, we assumed that Si and Al did not enter ferropericlase and did not consider minor oxide components with weight percent less than 1%.

The bulk sound speed and density of ferropericlase were calculated for their corresponding iron contents (0.15 and 0.27 Fe# in Fig. 4A and *SI Appendix, Fig. S10*). We calculated the softening of bulk modulus (reduction of bulk sound speed) in ferropericlase in mixed spin using the methods and parameters presented in previous studies (18, 20). Both theory and experiments have shown that spin transition pressure increases with Fe content in ferropericlase (50–53). Temperature also increases the spin transition pressure and the interval of the spin transition zone (54, 55). Therefore, we consider data obtained at high pressure–temperature (18, 20). Because there are no direct measurements for our two compositions, we adapted the spin transition pressures reported for 0.1875 and 0.25 Fe# ferropericlase at mantle-related high temperatures (18, 20) for 0.15 (HIBZ) and 0.27 (LIBZ) Fe#, respectively. Density profiles of all three presented pyrolite models are in agreement, consistent with previous results (18, 20), in that ferropericlase

spin transition does not have significant impact on density (*SI Appendix, Fig. S10*).

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