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<https://doi.org/10.1073/pnas.1512127113>

Published in:

Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences

Document Version:

Peer reviewed version

Queen's University Belfast - Research Portal:

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Dynamic X-ray diffraction observation of shocked solid iron up to 170 GPa

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Abstract

Investigation of the iron phase diagram under high pressure and temperature is crucial for the determination of the compositions of the cores of rocky planets and for better understanding the generation of planetary magnetic fields. Here we present X-ray diffraction results from laser-driven shock-compressed single-crystal and polycrystalline iron indicating the presence of solid hcp iron up to pressure of at least 170 GPa along the principal Hugoniot, corresponding to a temperature of 4,150 K. This is confirmed by the agreement between the pressure obtained from the measurement of the iron volume in the sample and the inferred shock strength from velocimetry (VISAR) deductions. Results presented in this study are of first importance regarding pure Fe phase diagram probed under dynamic compression and can be applied to study conditions that are relevant to Earth and super-Earths cores.

Significance

Iron is the main constituent of the core of rocky planets; therefore understanding its phase diagram under extreme conditions is fundamental to model their evolution. Using dynamic compression by laser driven shocks, pressure and temperature conditions close to what is found in these cores can be reached. However, it remains unclear whether phase boundaries determined at nanosecond time-scale agree with static compression. Here we observed the presence of solid hcp iron at 170GPa and 4,150K, in a part of the iron phase diagram, where either different solid structure or liquid iron have been proposed. This X-ray diffraction experiment confirms that laser compression is suitable for studying iron at conditions of deep planetary interiors difficult to achieve with static compression techniques.

body Iron is the main constituent of Earth and telluric planetary cores. Therefore, due to this geophysical interest, its phase diagram under high pressure and temperature has been extensively studied by static¹⁻⁴ or dynamic⁵⁻⁹ compression techniques. In particular, the determination of its melting curve at the Earth's Inner-Outer Core Boundary constrains the thermodynamics that governs the Earth's heat budget and dynamics such as the heat flux from the core to the mantle, the power available for the geodynamo and the planetary cooling rate¹⁰. Besides, the knowledge of the exact crystalline structure of iron at appropriate pressures and temperatures is a key parameter to explain seismological observations. On this point, contradictory results have been published concerning the crystallographic structure of iron under Earth's inner core conditions (360 GPa and ~6000 K). Recent static compression on iron¹¹ and iron alloys¹² have highlighted the stability of hexagonal close packed (hcp) structure under extreme conditions, whereas previous studies investigated the potential stabilization of double hcp (dhcp) or bcc structures under high pressure and temperature¹³⁻¹⁷. However, having an hcp structure under Earth's inner core conditions is mandatory to explain its anisotropic structure observed by seismology^{18,19}.

Iron and its alloys have been widely studied by static compression in associating large volume cells or diamond anvils cells (DAC) with a probing synchrotron radiation source^{20,21}. In addition to the study of the solid-solid phase transitions, like body centered cubic (bcc)- face

centered cubic (fcc) in temperature and bcc-hcp in pressure, and to the measurement of some properties of these phases^{11,22,23}, X-ray diffraction also allows to study the solid-liquid transitions²⁴ and to measure the liquid density²⁵. Static compression measurements of the melting curve of iron have led to over 1000 K difference in melting temperatures between different studies^{1,2,4,26,27}. This ongoing controversy could be related to various problems of gradients and inhomogeneities in the studied material as well as of chemical reaction and thermal diffusion with the diamonds. Moreover, static compression methods do not allow so far to reach in association with precise measurements pressures and temperatures over 300 GPa and 5000 K, respectively. Indeed, only few data are actually available over 200 GPa and high temperature on pure iron^{11,12}. For all of these reasons, it thus becomes necessary to perform dynamic compression to reach higher temperature/pressure conditions of relevance for planetology. This can be done with high power lasers by using shock or quasi-isentropic compression techniques^{28,29}. Current discrepancies observed between shock and static studies of iron over 100 GPa have been attributed to non-equilibrium processes³⁰, casting doubts on the possibility to properly probe phase diagrams of geophysically relevant materials using dynamic compression. Different features, such as overheating or presence of a new crystalline structure in iron just below the melting curve, have been described in shock experiments in contradiction with static experiments. Here we aim at providing new data on this question by probing shock-compressed iron at the nanosecond and picosecond time-scales using X-ray diffraction (XRD), thus providing a direct measurement of its structure.

Structural XRD studies of iron at nanosecond or better time resolution have been, so far, focused on the low-pressure bcc-hcp transition and on measuring the c/a ratio of the hcp phase at low pressure³¹⁻³³. Consequently, those experiments did not collect diffracted signal from shocked-compressed iron at more than few tens of GPa, whereas other materials with higher atomic number have been recently probed by X-ray diffraction under ramp compression over TPa pressure range^{34,35}. At higher pressures, because of both the higher velocity of the shock and the quicker release of the shock-compressed iron, the time duration of the X-ray probe must be short enough to avoid integrating inhomogeneous hydrodynamic conditions. Moreover, at these more extreme conditions, the incoherent scattering from the laser-ablated plasma cannot always be neglected as it can disturb the collected signal.

To overcome these issues, we have collected diffracted signals from shock-compressed iron using a large analyzer crystal (which increases the signal-to-noise ratio and allows the separation between coherent and incoherent scattering) and an X-ray source produced by either a picosecond or a nanosecond laser. Even if this technique cannot collect the signal over a large range of angles, the advantage of separating the different spectral components can significantly reduce the uncertainties in identifying the elastic signal contribution and thus increase accuracy in structure determination.

Two diffraction experiments were performed using different time durations for the X-ray probe. The nanosecond resolution XRD experiment was performed on the GEKKO XII laser facility at the Institute of Laser Engineering at the Osaka University and the picosecond one on the LULI 2000 / PICO 2000 laser facility at the Laboratoire pour l'Utilisation des Lasers Intenses at the Ecole Polytechnique. This second experiment and its results, which support the findings and conclusions of the first one, are presented in the supplementary material. The experimental scheme of the nanosecond experiment is shown in Fig.1, and description of the experimental procedure is presented in the Methods section.

Three diffractograms obtained with an angle-resolved Von Hamos spectrometer and a nanosecond resolution on different laser shots are presented in Fig. 2.a). As shown, the use of the crystal introduces spherical aberrations, as the radiation were angularly scattered on a curve. These aberrations were corrected in our analysis by ray tracing and the corresponding diffraction patterns are presented on the right of the same figure.

Diffraction signal from undriven (i.e. without compressing the sample) polycrystalline iron comes only from the bcc phase of iron (blue line in Fig. 2.b)), the iron phase stable at ambient pressure and temperature conditions. This shot indicates that our diffractometer system was able to collect diffracted signal from polycrystalline iron with a good signal to noise ratio. The width of the diffraction peak (3.1° full width at half maximum) is in good agreement with the angular resolution of the diffractometer (3°). This demonstrates that the chosen scattering geometry and shielding are sufficient to remove any spurious signal coming directly from the X-ray source. Finally, this provides a refined angular calibration of the spectrometer, as the

maximum of the diffracted signal comes from the (011) planes of the bcc phase of iron at 6.7 keV (corresponding to 54.4°).

Diffraction patterns were then collected on iron samples shock-compressed using a drive laser, whose intensity was high enough to induce a transition to the hcp phase in iron. Shots performed with a laser energy close to 180 J at 532 nm and with a higher one, close to 300 J at 532 nm, are also shown in Fig. 2. A VISAR system and hydrodynamic simulations (see methods) allowed us to estimate the pressure induced by the shock in iron to be 100 ± 10 GPa in the first case and 170 ± 17 GPa in the second case, by using a new equation of state (EOS) for iron⁹. New diffraction maxima appear which are consistent with the (101) most intense diffraction peaks of hcp iron. Moreover, we notice that the (011) diffraction line of bcc iron remains visible at 54° . We note that these diffraction results were also observed with a picosecond resolution up to 184 ± 24 GPa on the LULI2000 laser facility, as explained and illustrated in the supplementary material.

To understand the diffraction data, we have performed radiation-hydrodynamic simulations of the laser-induced shock propagation in iron (Fig. 3). In the GEKKO configuration, the X-ray spectrometer collects the diffracted signal from iron from the rear surface (i.e., opposite to the laser illumination). In this geometry, adjustment of the iron thickness and of the pump-probe delay allowed us to control accurately the P-T conditions in spite of the low temporal resolution. The diffracted X-rays collected by the analyzer crystal came mostly from the first rear side microns of iron due to strong X-ray absorption in iron (Fig. 3, bottom). Indeed, 50% of the X-rays are already absorbed in the first 7 μm of iron. Consequently, most of the diffracted signal collected by the spectrometer comes from uncompressed cold iron (see blue box in Fig. 3), which explains the persistence of the $(011)_{\text{bcc}}$ peak even in the case of shock-compressed samples (Fig. 2). We have thus calculated the diffracted signal coming from various depths in iron over the entire duration of the X-ray probing. In this way, the decrease in intensity of this $(011)_{\text{bcc}}$ peak indicates that iron is partially transforming into the hcp phase as it gets shocked. Moreover, at 170 GPa, the $(011)_{\text{bcc}}$ intensity decreases even further. The decrease of the scattered peak intensity could also be explained by pre-heating of the cold iron resulting in an increase of the Debye Waller factor. Here we do not observe signature of pre-heating as the diffraction peak of the fcc phase of iron is not observed. In addition, the simulations described

below support this observation. Therefore the decay of the $(011)_{\text{bcc}}$ peak intensity can be easily explained by the increase of the shock velocity, which induces a decrease of the volume of iron that remained uncompressed. Furthermore, it can be noticed that this configuration allowed us to probe relatively homogeneous hydrodynamic conditions over a 1.6 ns duration and a 20 μm iron thickness. The estimated inhomogeneity in pressure from the simulation was then lower than 10% for the highest laser intensities reached here, as shown below.

Diffraction peaks of the hcp phase of iron are expected in the angular range 48° - 72° , near 6.7 keV, corresponding to $(100)_{\text{hcp}}$, $(002)_{\text{hcp}}$ and $(101)_{\text{hcp}}$. Theoretical positions of these peaks calculated for the pressures deduced by the VISAR system and for an hcp c/a ratio of 1.61 are given in Fig. 2 (dashed lines). Their predicted heights have been normalized to the intensity of the experimental signal. The first diffraction peak corresponding to $(100)_{\text{hcp}}$, is too close to the $(011)_{\text{bcc}}$ to be detectable, due to the limited angular resolution. Nevertheless, a shoulder can be observed on $(011)_{\text{bcc}}$ for the highest pressure (red line) at 57° , when this peak is moved further away from the bcc peak at 54.4° . The $(002)_{\text{hcp}}$ peak could not be detected in shock-compressed samples. This could be related to textural effects yielding low intensity, due to potential alignment with the compression axis, as already observed in DAC experiments³⁶. Conversely, the $(101)_{\text{hcp}}$ peak was clearly detected on the two spectra of shock-compressed iron (see Fig. 2) and allowed us to identify the phase transition of iron to the hcp structure. Indeed, it should be noticed that neither diffraction peaks from the bcc phase nor ones from the fcc phase could occur at such a diffraction angle at such conditions of pressure and density. Moreover, the (101) reflection of the possible dhcp phase should be well visible at $\sim 57.4^\circ$ and $\sim 59.2^\circ$, respectively at around 100 GPa and 170 GPa. This is clearly not the case in our data. Moreover, the c/a ratio of hcp iron could not be directly measured due to the lack of additional peaks. We inferred this ratio to be 1.61, following the results of recent LH-DAC experiments (giving $c/a \sim 1.61$ at pressures of around 160 GPa and temperatures between 2000 K and 4000 K)¹¹ and found it consistent with our data. In fact, uncertainties due to variations of this ratio between 1.59 and 1.62 would generate effects smaller than the experimental uncertainties on the peak positions. Moreover, such a ratio is also mentioned in previous dynamic compression studies³³. Using the diffraction angle measurement and the inferred hcp c/a ratio of 1.61^{11,32}, the position of the $(101)_{\text{hcp}}$ diffraction peak allowed us to estimate the iron compression factor.

The consistency of our data is reinforced by the agreement between pressure inferred by VISAR measurements and pressure deduced from the diffraction peaks of the hcp structure. In particular, this validates the EOS model used in our calculations. The theoretical volume of a unit cell of the hcp phase of iron at 100 +/- 14 GPa (taking into account the uncertainties introduced by the shock velocity measurement in the polymer ablator layer as well as the spatial and temporal integration in iron) and 10.87 +/- 0.22 g/cm³ (density deduced from the Hugoniot curve⁸) is 17.05 +/- 0.34 Å³. The corresponding (101)_{hcp} diffraction peak would then be located at 63.7 +/- 0.5°. This result is in very good agreement with the measured angular position at 63.7° +/- 0.6°. At 170 +/- 23 GPa and 11.78 +/- 0.24 g/cm³, the corresponding volume of the unit cell is 15.74 +/- 0.32 Å³ giving a (101)_{hcp} diffraction peak at 65.6 +/- 0.6°. In this case, the predicted position of the diffraction peak is slightly different from the measured one, located at 66.3 +/- 0.75°, corresponding to an iron density of 12.07 +/- 0.34 g/cm³ and thus a pressure of 198 +/- 33 GPa, with the error accounting for the uncertainty introduced by the spatial and temporal integration. This small discrepancy might be explained by larger pressure gradients across the sample during the probing time or by differences with the c/a ratio used. Indeed, from hydrodynamic simulation made at the experimental laser intensity of 8.5x10¹² W/cm³ we infer a time and spatial integrated pressure of 173 +/- 16 GPa.

Using both an angular and energy resolved spectrometer, we have thus measured a diffracted signal from highly shock-compressed iron. Our observations indicate the presence of an hcp structure in the iron phase diagram up to at least ~170 GPa on the Hugoniot. Regarding the stability of the hcp structure of iron, these results are in good agreement with recent experiments in laser-heated diamond cell up to 330 GPa and 5000 K showing the occurrence of the hcp structure of iron over a wide P-T range¹¹, whereas other structures, such as bcc or dhcp, had been suggested under these P-T conditions^{13,14}. Observation of solid hcp iron up to 170 GPa and 4150 K provides a new useful constrain on the structure of iron along the Hugoniot. Regarding published experimental data of melting curve of iron, we notice that all experimental studies agree with the observation of solid iron at 100 GPa and 2000 K. Disregarding extrapolations, at 170 GPa and 4150 K, the observation of solid iron is in agreement with conclusions from dynamic compression in this pressure range⁵⁻⁹. It also agrees with *ab initio*

calculations^{37,38} (melting at 4800 K - 170 GPa) and with recent static compression measurements² (melting at 4600 K - 170 GPa) and is by 650 K higher than the melting point measured in [1] (3500 K - 170 GPa). All other studies are extrapolating data from lower pressures in the 80 GPa-100 GPa range^{4,26,27,39}. This is also in very good agreement with the results of our picosecond X-ray diffraction experiments made on single-crystal iron and shown in the supplementary material.

Methods

The backlighter and the main target were mounted on a 100 μm -thick gold support designed to shield the X-ray spectrometer from any direct view of the X-ray probe radiation. Two holes of 200 μm -diameter were cut through the gold shielding, between the two targets, and were used to determine the scattering geometry and the 3° angular aperture of the X-ray source. The backlighter target consisted of a 25 μm -thick iron foil. Nine long pulse-laser beams (2.5 ns pulse duration) that each delivered 125 J at 351 nm in a 100 μm -diameter focal spot, corresponding to a total intensity close to $10^{16} \text{ W} / \text{cm}^2$, illuminated this foil to create an X-ray source of He- α emission at 6.7 keV. This emission was monitored by a streak camera and a pinhole camera for each shot. The duration of the X-ray emission was measured to be 1.6 +/- 0.2 ns FWHM. The main sample target consisted in 20- μm polycrystalline iron, enclosed by 4 μm thick plastic coating. Up to three long-pulse laser beams (2.5 ns pulse duration) at 532 nm were focussed on this target to drive a shock wave in the iron and to bring the sample to high pressures. These beams were spatially smoothed with Kinoform Phase Plate (KPP) to achieve a flat top focal spot of 1 mm diameter. This is needed in order to have a uniform shock profile across the sample. The energy of each of these laser beams was set at ~200 J at 532 nm. The total intensity in the focal spot was varied between 10^{12} and $10^{13} \text{ W} / \text{cm}^2$.

A VISAR system (Velocity Interferometer System for Any Reflector)⁴⁰ was used to control the planarity of the shock and the thermodynamical state of the sample at the probing time. From this optical system, we were able to measure the mean shock velocity in the thin rear layer of plastic using the shock transit time and the initial thickness. These measurements were

coupled to hydrodynamic simulations (using the radiation hydrodynamic MULTI code⁴¹) to infer the thermodynamical conditions of the iron sample at the probed time and to extract pressure and temperature conditions. We used a new equation of state (EOS) table for iron⁹ in these hydrodynamic simulations, that combines *ab initio* calculations with the last experimental phase transitions results² and the EOS SESAME 2150. It should be noticed that the transit time of the shock did not depend on the EOS used in the simulations. Moreover, this new EOS was also used to extract the experimental density and then to find the theoretical positions of the diffraction peaks from the different solid phases of iron, under certain assumptions on their mesh ratio, as previously explained.

We used a ZYA-quality cylindrical HOPG (*highly oriented pyrolytic graphite*) crystal (with mosaic spread $0.4 \pm 0.1^\circ$; plane separation $2d = 6.71 \text{ \AA}$, and radius of curvature 110 mm) in a modified Von Hamos configuration. The HOPG properties⁴² allowed us to maximize the crystal reflectivity and consequently the number of collected photons when the crystal is used in its mosaic-focusing mode. The axis of the cylinder was given by the source/detector direction. In the (symmetrical) classical Von Hamos geometry, the increase in the collection solid angle is achieved by focusing all of the collected angles on the same line that does not permit any spatial resolution. To obtain spatial resolution, we modified this geometry by defocusing the collected X-ray beam on the detector, as shown in Fig.1. This was achieved by reducing the source-crystal and crystal-detector distances from the ideal Von Hamos geometry, while keeping those distances equal in order to maintain the mosaic focusing mode of the HOPG. In this new geometry, the collected angles were then scattered on a perpendicular line from the crystal axis, whereas different energies were encoded on parallel rays. The HOPG crystal was operated in its first diffraction order. The diffraction order, the size of the crystal ($100 \times 50 \text{ mm}^2$) and the size of the image plate detector (IP) set the angular detection range at 24° . The crystal spectrometer was oriented such as its axis was aligned at $60 \pm 2^\circ$ from the X-ray probe axis. This allowed to collect the diffracted signal from both the cold iron bcc structure and highly compressed hcp structure. Due to the large mosaicity of the crystal, the intrinsic angular resolution of this spectrometer was around 0.3° , which is again much lower than the angular aperture of the X-ray source. Finally, the whole system was placed in a shielding 2 mm-stainless steel box. Moreover,

a 50 μm mylar sheet was placed on the entrance slit to protect the HOPG crystal and the image plates were surrounded by 13 μm of aluminum.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We acknowledge the expert support from the technical groups at LULI2000 and GEKKO XII facilities, in particular Philippe Vacar for his valuable help in the manufacture of the spectrometers. We also would like to thank Jacques Chevallier from the Department of Physics and Astronomy of the University of Aarhus (Denmark) for the synthesis of Fe single crystals targets. Moreover, the crystallographic data for the orientation of iron single crystals were collected at the X-ray diffraction platform of IMPMC and we thank Benoît Baptiste for his support. This work was also supported partially by JSPS KAKENHI (Grant Numbers 22224012), JSPS core to core program on International Alliance for Material Science in Extreme States with High Power Laser and XFEL, and Xray Free Electron Laser Priority Strategy Program (MEXT).

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FIG. 1. (A) Experimental setup and target configuration at GEKKO XII target chamber. The incident angles of the shock drive beams (SD) and X-ray source beams (XS) were 30° from the normal to the target. The angular-resolved spectrometer was made by a defocused cylindrical Von Hamos geometry. The HOPG crystal and the image plate were surrounded by a 2 mm-stainless steel box. (B) Magnified top view of the target. (C) Magnified bottom view of the target. X-rays from the Fe source target were collimated by the input and output pinholes of 200 μm -diameter. Since the accuracy of the target fabrication was better than 10 μm , the X-ray beam irradiated appropriately the central region of shock wave driven by the SD beams (1 mm spot diameter). Moreover, to produce monochromatic laser-plasma X-rays, we inserted a 125 μm thick polyamide foil and a 10 μm thick iron foil into the 1 mm gap between the pinholes.

FIG. 2. On the left: raw diffractograms collected in reflection by the defocused Von Hamos spectrometer on three different laser shots. The first order used for the crystal configuration introduced spherical aberrations, corrected in our analysis. On the right: angular profiles of the diffracted signal after this correction (color lines) and theoretical predictions at the pressure measured by the VISAR system (black dashed lines normalized in height at the experimental signal).

FIG. 3. On top: hydrodynamic simulation made with the pulse features of the GEKKO XII laser and an intensity of 5.10^{12} W/cm^2 . The probe was sent 1.1 ns later than the pump laser generating the shock (here at 1.0 ns). The rectangular box in blue defines the spatial and temporal windows probed by the X-rays, taking into account the absorption on a round trip in CH and iron (bottom graph). The analysis took in consideration the whole thickness of the target. In this layout, a large part of the probed iron was still at ambient pressure and temperature. Integrating spatially and temporally the hydrodynamic conditions of the probed shocked iron gave an average pressure of 106 ± 7 GPa. The uncertainty corresponds to the standard deviation of the reached pressures in the 20 μm 1.6 ns temporal and spatial windows investigated.