

1 **Plastic deformation of dry fine-grained olivine aggregates under high**
2 **pressures**

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25 **Abstract**

26 This study investigates the effect of pressure on diffusion creep of dry San Carlos and
27 synthetic (prepared by sol-gel method) olivine. We prepared dry (water content < 9 ppm wt)
28 fine-grained (< 1 μm grain-size) olivine and deformed the samples (both San Carlos and sol-
29 gel olivine in the same assembly) in the same sample assembly under high-pressure ($P = 2.9$ –
30 8.8 GPa) and modest temperatures ($T = 980$ – 1250 K) at a fixed strain-rate. Evolution of
31 strength was studied using the radial X-ray diffraction from various diffraction planes. We
32 found that San Carlos and sol-gel olivine show similar rheological behaviour (when
33 normalized to the same grain-size). Stress estimated by the radial X-ray diffraction increases
34 with time and initially shows similar values for all diffraction planes. In many cases, stress
35 values start to depend on the diffraction planes in the later stage and time dependence
36 becomes minor. The micro-structural observations show that grain-size increases during an
37 experiment. The results are interpreted using a theory of radial X-ray diffraction and the
38 theoretical models of diffusion and dislocation creep. We conclude that the initial stage of
39 deformation is by diffusion creep, but deformation in the later stage is by dislocation creep.
40 For dislocation creep, our results are in reasonable agreement with previous low temperature
41 dislocation creep results after a correction of temperature effect. For diffusion creep, we
42 obtain an activation volume of $7.0 \pm 2.4 \text{ cm}^3/\text{mol}$ that is substantially smaller than the values
43 reported on dislocation creep but agrees well with the results on grain-growth. By comparing
44 the present results on dry olivine with the previous results on wet (water-saturated) olivine,
45 we found that water enhances diffusion creep but only modestly in comparison to dislocation
46 creep. The difference in the pressure and water content dependence between diffusion and
47 dislocation creep has an important influence on the dominant deformation mechanisms of
48 olivine in the upper mantle.

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Introduction

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Plastic deformation of minerals such as olivine occurs either by dislocation or diffusion

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creep in most parts of the upper mantle (e.g., Karato et al., 1986; Karato and Wu, 1993; Hirth

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and Kohlstedt, 1995a,b; Mei and Kohlstedt 2000a,b). Because some geophysically relevant

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questions (e.g., seismic anisotropy, shear localization) are sensitive to deformation mechanisms,

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it is important to explore the dominant deformation mechanisms in Earth's upper mantle and

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understand how pressure might modulate it. The rate of deformation ($\dot{\epsilon}$) is dependent on

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pressure (P) and temperature (T) as

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$$\dot{\epsilon} = A \cdot \sigma^n \cdot d^{-m} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{E^* + PV^*}{RT}\right) \quad (1),$$

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where A is a constant, σ is deviatoric stress, d is grain size, R is the gas constant, E^* is activation

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energy, V^* is activation volume, n is the stress exponent and m is the grain size exponent and

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both n and m depend on deformation mechanism (e.g., (Karato, 2008)).

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Among the parameters in the flow law relation (Eq. (1)), A , n , m and E^* are relatively

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easy to measure and reasonably well constrained for olivine for both diffusion and dislocation

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creep at least under low-pressure conditions. In contrast, the activation volume (V^*) that

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represents the pressure effects on deformation is difficult to measure, and most previous studies

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on V^* were on dislocation creep (e.g., Dixon and Durham, 2018; Kawazoe et al., 2009; Li et al.,

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2006). In the case of diffusion creep, not many studies were done to estimate V^* because of the

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challenge in controlling grain size. In most previous studies on deformation in the deep upper

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mantle, the activation volume of diffusion creep was assumed (e.g., Hirth and Kohlstedt, 2003;

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Karato and Wu, 1993), and in such a case, the validity of such an assumption needs to be

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evaluated. An exception is Mei and Kohlstedt (2000a), who reported $V^* \sim 15 \pm 5 \text{ cm}^3/\text{mol}$ based on

73 low-pressure data up to 0.45 GPa. However, the validity of their estimated uncertainties is
74 uncertain due to the low-pressure range used in their study. Among the reports based on the
75 higher pressure data, Nishihara et al. (2014) reported V^* of $8.2 \pm 0.9 \text{ cm}^3/\text{mol}$ for dry olivine in
76 the diffusion creep regime, using modestly small grain size samples based on the data from
77 $P=3.0\text{-}5.4$ GPa. However, under their experimental conditions, samples deformed in the mixed
78 regime and the estimated creep law parameters have large uncertainties. Another is Silber et al.
79 (2022) where they used natural San Carlos as well as synthetic fine-grained aggregates ($\sim 0.2\text{-}0.7$
80 μm grain-size) and determined V^* of $2.5 \pm 0.6 \text{ cm}^3/\text{mol}$ for diffusion creep under the “wet”
81 (water-rich) conditions ($P=3\text{-}10$ GPa). In this paper, we report the activation volume of natural
82 and synthetic olivine samples made from San Carlos olivine or from sol-gel method, extending
83 the previous study (Silber et al., 2022) to “dry” conditions.

84 A key to this work is the preparation of fine-grained specimens, minimizing grain-growth
85 during deformation experiments, and the use of the *in-situ* radial X-ray diffraction with a help of
86 a theory (Karato, 2009) to infer the operating mechanisms of deformation. In the next section, we
87 describe the experimental procedure, including the sample preparation and characterization. And
88 in a later section, we summarize the experimental observations and present a flow law for
89 diffusion creep under dry conditions. In the final section we will discuss some implications of the
90 present results.

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Methods

93 *Sample preparation*

94 To address potential difference in strength between San Carlos olivine ($\text{Mg}_{0.91}$,
95 $\text{Fe}_{0.09}$) $_2\text{SiO}_4$, and synthetic olivine (solgel), two sets of samples were prepared. Following Karato
96 et al. (1986) we prepared fine-grained aggregates of San Carlos (SC) olivine. We selected
97 pristine San Carlos olivine crystals which were initially manually pulverized. Pulverized powder
98 was further ground in a ball mill for at least 24 hours. The ultrafine powder was extracted via
99 sedimentation technique. Separated ultrafine powder had an average grain-sizes between 100-
100 200 nm.

101 The ultrafine powder was then mixed with 1 wt% orthopyroxene (opx) to control the
102 silica activity. The grain growth mitigation was achieved by adding up to 5 wt% nano-size
103 (0.013 μm) alumina. The prepared mixture was baked at 1273 K in a controlled oxygen fugacity
104 gas furnace ($f_{\text{O}_2} \sim 10^{-7}$ - 10^{-8} (Pa)) and then loaded into the Ni capsule. These densely packed
105 samples were subsequently hot-pressed at 3 GPa and 1073 K for one hour.

106 The preparation of solution gelation (solgel) samples was done following the method
107 described by Faul and Jackson (2007). Specifically, dissolution of magnesium and iron nitrates
108 was carried out in ethanol and homogenized with tetraethyl orthosilicate. To remove ethanol from
109 the mixture, the solution was heated on a hot plate at 30° C for several days. During the heating,
110 the gelation was initiated by introducing small amount of nitric acid (HNO_3) to the solution
111 which was continuously stirred in a beaker with a magnetic agitator.

112 The final synthesis and drying of olivine with composition ($\text{Fe}_{0.1}, \text{Mg}_{0.9}$) $_2\text{SiO}_4$ was done
113 by baking at high temperature (1273 K) under the oxygen fugacity using CO_2 and H_2 gas mixture
114 ($f_{\text{O}_2} \sim 10^{-7}$ - 10^{-8} (Pa)). Finally, the synthesized crystalline material was milled again and sintered
115 as in the case of San Carlos olivine. Following this step, the samples of desired length and width

116 (1.3 × 1.0 mm) were core drilled and dried again under controlled f_{O_2} to remove any water
117 absorbed from the environment.

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119 *Grain size, water content measurements and sample assembly*

120 We measured the initial grain sizes of hot-pressed samples using a scanning electron
121 microscope (SEM) (FEI/Philips XL30 ESEM-FEG). As in our previous work, we encountered
122 difficulties in reliably measuring the grain size on polished and acid etched samples due to the
123 overall ultrafine grain size in our prepared polycrystalline aggregates where the grain boundaries
124 could not be resolved with desired clarity. To overcome that obstacle, grain size analysis was
125 performed on fractured sample surfaces (**Figure 1**) (the same technique was used by Silber et al.
126 (2022)). This approach was validated by simultaneously conducting the grain size analysis on
127 perfectly polished and acid etched samples and on the same, but fractured samples, originating
128 from a secondary olivine with substantially larger grain sizes ($> 1 \mu\text{m}$). The grain size
129 distribution was determined using the intercept method and multiplying the obtained values by
130 the conversion factor of 1.5 (e.g., Abrams, 1971; Cahn and Fullman, 1956) (**Figure 2**). Grain-
131 size was also measured from all samples after deformation experiments. The typical starting
132 grain size for solgel olivine was estimated to be in the range of $\sim 0.15 - 0.25 \mu\text{m}$. In the case of
133 San Carlos olivine samples, the observed grain size was somewhat larger ($\sim 0.20 - 0.50 \mu\text{m}$).

134 The water content was determined for representative samples to ensure that the water
135 content is small enough to observe “dry” behavior in plastic deformation. The measurement of
136 each representative sample set was conducted using Fourier Transform Infrared Spectroscopy
137 (FTIR) using Excalibur FTS 3000 with UMA 600 Microscope. For this analysis, representative
138 samples were sequentially finely polished. Polished samples were prepared to thickness of ~ 100

139 μm and scanned using $50 \times 50 \mu\text{m}$ aperture. The collected spectra were analyzed between 3000
140 and 3700 cm^{-1} , corresponding to absorption bands generally associated with hydrogen in olivine.
141 The linear function was employed in background correction specifically for the purpose of
142 repeatability. The corrected and integrated infrared spectra was used to calculate hydroxyl
143 concentration Paterson (1982).

144 FTIR analysis of selected samples showed a small amount of water well below 9 ppm wt,
145 presumably acquired by samples during high-pressure experiments. After deformation, the
146 samples were analyzed again to confirm that water content did not change appreciably during the
147 deformation experiment (**Figure 3**).

148 The cell design and geometry followed the procedure established by Girard et al. (2020)
149 and used in Silber et al. (2022). In this arrangement, both San Carlos and solgel samples were
150 emplaced symmetrically relative to the center of the cell, separated by pyrope and platinum disc
151 strain markers. Therefore, the pressure and temperature (and the macroscopic stress) conditions
152 are nearly identical for these two samples.

153

154 *Experimental procedure and uncertainty estimates*

155 In total, four deformation experiments were performed at the 6-BM B white X-ray
156 beamline at Advanced Photon Source (APS) in Argonne National Laboratory using a D-DIA
157 apparatus (e.g., Wang et al., 2003) (the experimental procedure is the same as in Silber et al.
158 (2022)).

159 Prior to each deformation experiment in D-DIA, the X-ray beam calibration was
160 conducted while the sample assembly is under (nearly) hydrostatic condition. Diffraction data

161 was collected from the samples before uniaxial stress was applied and used as a reference in
162 order to calculate the differential stress during deformation (deviatoric stress during this stage
163 was kept minimum by retracting the differential rams). Also, pressure and temperature of each
164 run were estimated from the X-ray diffraction data on platinum and pyrope before deformation.
165 For equation of state (EOS) of platinum, we used the results reported by (Matsui et al., 2009; Zha
166 et al., 2008) and for pyrope (Hu et al., 2016; Zou et al., 2012; Fan et al., 2017).

167 The errors in pressure estimate result from the uncertainties of the molar volume of a
168 sample by X-ray diffraction and from temperature uncertainties in the equation of state including
169 thermal expansion. Consequently, we can take advantage of the fact that P -estimates from the
170 molar volume also depend on T and by using EOS's of two materials we can determine both P
171 and T . The uncertainties in the pressure estimate are ~ 0.5 GPa, and for temperature it is ~ 50 K.

172 In contrast to a case of dislocation creep, annealing was kept to a minimum to minimize
173 grain growth. The deformation, achieved by advancing vertically positioned opposite anvils at
174 uniform rate, was initiated 15 min after the target temperature was reached for each experiment
175 (time needed to collect high P - T spectra).

176 The collection of X-ray diffraction spectra during deformation experiments was
177 conducted in equal intervals (every 3 minutes). The strain of both San Carlos and solgel sample
178 was determined from the X-ray radiography images of strain markers, collected during the
179 deformation, between each X-ray diffraction.

180 The uncertainty in strain (and strain-rate) determined from the radiographic images in our
181 experiments ranges up to 10% and depends on the pixel size of the image relative to the sample
182 thickness, the quality of the image, processing software and total strain. Strain-rates were
183 between 0.2 - $9.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}^{-1}$ (**Table 2**).

184 Stress was derived from the radial X-ray diffraction performed on each sample. This was
185 done at the same time intervals as strain data collection. The lattice strain, obtained from the
186 diffracted and azimuthally collected X-rays, was used in calculation of the differential stress σ_{hk}
187 for the particular (hkl) reflection in crystals during deformation. This approach is based on Singh
188 et al. (1998):

189
$$d_{hkl}(\psi) \propto d_{hkl}^0 \left\{ 1 + \frac{\sigma_u}{6M} (1 - 3\cos^2\psi) \right\} \quad (2),$$

190 where d_{hkl} the d -spacing for the lattice plan (hkl) during deformation, d_{hkl}^0 is the d -spacing under
191 the hydrostatic conditions for the lattice plan (hkl), M is the Voigt-Reuss-Hill average of shear
192 modulus, ψ is the azimuthal angle, and σ_u is the uniaxial stress applied on the material that we
193 want to estimate. Stress is estimated by fitting the $d_{hkl}(\psi)$.

194 We used Plot85 in initial analysis (Dixon and Durham, 2018; Li et al., 2004; Li et al.,
195 2006; Vaughan et al., 2000). To determine stress in olivine, we used the best-observed
196 diffraction peaks obtained from (130), (131) and (112) planes. The errors in stress were
197 calculated using the same methodology as in Silber et al. (2022).

198

199 **Results**

200 ***Microstructure and grain sizes***

201 **Figures 1 & 2** show the SEM images of representative samples, before and after
202 deformation experiments. The average initial and final grain sizes estimated from the intercepts
203 measurements are given in **Table 1**. Pressures, temperatures, and corresponding uncertainties for
204 each experiment are also shown in Table 1. We followed the methodology of grain size
205 quantification given by Silber et al. (2022). They showed that for samples with ultrafine grain

206 sizes (~ 0.1 - $1 \mu\text{m}$), it is preferential to quantify the grain sizes from fractured surfaces. That is
207 clear from Figures 1 and 2, as this approach permits the sub- $0.1 \mu\text{m}$ grains to be preserved and
208 quantified. A typical SEM preparation method using polishing and acid etching to expose grain
209 boundaries generally leads to obliteration of the smallest grains in etched samples and hence
210 would not be represented in general grain size distribution (i.e., **Figure 2**).

211 It can be seen from Figure 2 that appreciable grain growth occurred despite the
212 presence of OPX and pinning with nano-size alumina. However, the final grain sizes, in
213 experiments with the greatest grain growth, did not exceed 1 micron. Grain sizes in all samples
214 follow nearly log-normal distribution and grain boundaries exhibit typical $\sim 120^\circ$ angles.

215 ***Water content in the samples***

216 Although we did not add any water in our experiments, some water may come from the
217 sample assembly during high-pressure experiments (see e.g., Karato, 1989). Therefore, to
218 mitigate potential water diffusion from the cell assembly components, boron epoxy cube, boron
219 nitride sleeves, alumina pistons as well as sample were baked in the oven for 24 h prior to the
220 deformation experiments. We measured the water content of our sample before and after a
221 deformation experiment.

222 We estimated water content by FTIR. The representative FTIR spectra of initial and
223 recovered San Carlos olivine and solgel samples are shown in **Figure 3**. The observed initial
224 water content in samples hot-pressed at 3 GPa and subsequently dried under controlled fugacity,
225 is low (less than ~ 5 ppm wt) almost below the detectability limit. However, we observed higher
226 water content after deformation experiments (< 9 ppm wt) which suggests some absorption of
227 water from the ambient air in the range of $3600 - 3400 \text{ cm}^{-1}$. These values of water content are
228 less than the threshold water content to see “dry” behavior.

229 ***Mechanical data***

230 The stress, calculated from X-ray diffraction peaks during the deformation experiments,
231 is plotted as a function of strain for each experiment for both San Carlos olivine and sol-gel
232 olivine samples (**Figure 4a-h**). All our experiments were deformed at a fixed strain rate to the
233 total strains of $\sim 4 - 15\%$ (Figure 4a-h).

234 In all experiments, we observed hardening in the initial stage. Also in this stage, the (hkl)
235 dependence of stress is negligible or very small. However, at a certain time (strain), (hkl)
236 dependence of stress becomes stronger. And after this stage where large (hkl) dependence is
237 observed, stress level becomes nearly independent of time (strain). Figure 4c,d is an exception,
238 where transition to nearly independent time-stress relationship is not observed due to the early
239 termination of the experimental run.

240 The figure also shows results for San Carlos olivine and sol-gel olivine. When grain-size
241 is similar, creep strength of these two olivine samples is similar, although strength is different for
242 different grain-size (see a discussion in the later section). The mechanical data also shows that
243 the stress level is sensitive to pressure. At higher pressures, stress (for a given temperature and
244 strain-rate) becomes larger.

245

246

Discussion

247 ***Deformation mechanisms***

248 The flow law for high-temperature creep can generally be given by equation (1). For
249 diffusion creep, $n=1$ and $m=2-3$, whereas for dislocation creep $n=3-5$ and $m=0$ (Karato, 2008).

250 Therefore a common way to infer the operation of diffusion creep in an experimental study is to

251 determine n and m to show $n=1$ and $m=2-3$ (e.g., (Karato, 2008; Karato et al., 1986; Mei and
252 Kohlstedt, 2000a; Mei and Kohlstedt, 2000b)).

253 However, estimating these parameters under high-pressure deformation experiments is
254 challenging. Unlike low-pressure experiments (using the Paterson apparatus), a sample is
255 surrounded by several solid materials in the high-pressure deformation experiments ($P>3$ GPa)
256 (e.g., (Wang et al., 2003; Yamazaki and Karato, 2001)). Consequently, when strain-rate is
257 modified, various portions of a sample assembly are gradually deformed leading to a slow re-
258 distribution of stress/strain in a sample assembly. Therefore the strain-rate of a sample does not
259 change to a new strain-rate immediately, and this makes it difficult to determine the stress
260 exponent (a detailed analysis was made to estimate n for such a case is given by (Silber et al.,
261 2022)).

262 We use the following methods to infer the operation of diffusion creep following our
263 previous study (also see Silber et al., 2022): (i) a comparison of the strength of a polycrystalline
264 sample with the estimated strength of relatively coarse-grained specimens corresponding to
265 dislocation creep, (ii) a comparison of measured strength with strength calculated from a
266 theoretical model of diffusion creep and measured diffusion coefficients, (iii) the diffraction
267 plane (hkl) dependence of stress, and (iv) the analysis of time hardening using grain-growth
268 kinetics constrained by the initial and the final grain-sizes.

269 (i) Let us take a case of SAN515 (initial grain-size ~ 0.2 micron, the final grain-size ~ 0.8
270 micron) where deformation experiment was conducted at $P=5.9$ GPa, $T=1080$ K and
271 strain-rate is 10^{-5} s^{-1} . The measured stresses in the initial parts of SAN515 (i.e., at 1 %
272 strain) is ~ 400 MPa that would correspond to a grain-size of $\sim 0.3 \mu\text{m}$. Based on the report
273 by (Kawazoe et al., 2009) on dry dislocation creep of olivine ($\sim 5 \mu\text{m}$ grain-size), we can

274 also calculate the stress of a sample at the same P, T and strain-rate if deformation were
275 by dislocation creep. The stress will be ~30-50 GPa (a large uncertainty is caused by the
276 (hkl) dependence of stress) at P=5.9 GPa, T=1080 K and strain-rate of 10^{-5} s^{-1} that is
277 much higher than the observed stress (~400 MPa). This large difference indicates that the
278 samples in our experiments deformed (at least initially) by grain-size sensitive (diffusion)
279 creep because of a much smaller grain-size (~0.3 micron) than grain-size in (Kawazoe et
280 al., 2009)'s samples (~5 μm).

281 (ii) Using our mechanical results in Table 3, we calculated grain-boundary diffusion
282 coefficient δD for each experiment (assuming coble creep) and compared our estimates
283 with the Si and Mg grain-boundary diffusion coefficients in olivine reported in previous
284 studies (e.g., Fei et al., 2018; Fei et al., 2016). The diffusion coefficient calculated using
285 our creep data are well within one order of magnitude of the value estimated from
286 previous studies. We conclude that our results are in reasonable agreement with previous
287 reported diffusion coefficients (e.g., 2018; Fei et al., 2016).

288 (iii) A remarkable observation is that in most of the initial part of our experiments where
289 grain-size is small, the (hkl) dependence of stress is weak, whereas the (hkl) dependence
290 becomes large in the later stage where grain-size is larger (see Fig. 1). The (hkl)
291 dependence of stress provides an important clue on the deformation mechanism if one
292 uses a theory by (Karato, 2009). In a synchrotron deformation experiment, stress acting
293 on a sample is calculated from the lattice strain (equation (2)). As equation (2) indicates,
294 one can determine the lattice strain for different diffraction planes (hkl). The results often
295 show that stresses estimated for different (hkl) differ substantially (e.g., (Weidner et al.,
296 2004)). (Karato, 2009) showed that the (hkl) dependence of stress is caused mostly by

297 plastic anisotropy. And plastic anisotropy is strong for dislocation creep while it is weak
298 (or nearly zero) for diffusion (creep) (e.g., (Dohmen et al., 2002; Durham and Goetze,
299 1977; Houlier et al., 1990; Houlier et al., 1988; Jaoul et al., 1981)). Therefore, the
300 absence of (hkl) dependence (absence of plastic anisotropy) in the initial part of our
301 experiments is a strong indication of the operation of diffusion creep, and the gradual
302 transition to a marked (hkl) dependence in the later stage can be attributed to a transition
303 to dislocation creep by grain-growth.

304 (iv) Those analyses strongly suggest that most of the initial stage of deformation is by grain-
305 size dependent diffusion creep. A complication is that because the strength in the
306 diffusion regime depends on grain-size that changes with time, the flow law must be
307 estimated based on the estimated grain-size at any point in the data. A simple way to
308 estimate grain-size during deformation is to interpolate the measured initial and final
309 grain-size assuming a relation for grain-growth (e.g., Chapter 13 of (Karato, 2008)),

310

$$311 \quad d^{n_g}(t) - d^{n_g}(0) = kt \quad (3)$$

312

313 where d is grain-size, n_g is a grain-size exponent (=2-4 for most cases), t is time and k is a rate
314 constant that depends on temperature and pressure (and water content etc. (e.g., (Karato, 1989))).

315 Given the initial and the final grain-size, one can calculate k for a given condition (assuming a
316 few values of n_g), and consequently estimate the grain-size at any time during an experiment.

317 Therefore, one can determine the flow law corresponding to diffusion creep from the time-
318 dependent stress for a given run.

319 The values of k determined from the present study ($10^{-18 \pm 0.3} \text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$) are substantially lower
320 than the value extrapolated from Karato (1989) ($10^{-15.6} \text{m}^2 \text{s}^{-1}$). This is likely due to the pinning
321 effects by Al_2O_3 . We also calculated K for $n_g=3$ $K=10^{-22.7(+/-1.6)} \text{m}^3/\text{s}$ and $n_g=4$, $K=10^{-29.3(+/-1.6)}$
322 m^4/s . Because grain-growth kinetics is so slow, different values of n_g do not make much
323 difference in estimated grain-size during deformation.

324 An issue in this approach is that, in most cases, the final stage of deformation occurs by
325 dislocation creep. In dislocation creep, grain-size could be controlled by the stress when dynamic
326 recrystallization is extensive (e.g., Karato et al., 1980). If this is the case, then the final grain-size
327 is not determined by grain-growth. To check this point, we compare the final grain-size from the
328 stress using the experimental data by van der Wal et al. (1993). We found that the grain-size
329 estimated from this relation is substantially smaller than the observed value suggesting that
330 dynamic recrystallization does not occur much. This is likely due to the low temperature, low
331 water content and small strain (for the temperature, water content and strain dependence of
332 dynamic recrystallization, see Zhang et al., 2000).

333

334 *Activation volume for diffusion creep*

335 We estimate activation volume for diffusion creep based on the data at different
336 pressures. We select data corresponding to diffusion creep based on the criteria discussed above.
337 However, since rheological behavior in diffusion creep also depends on grain-size (and
338 temperature), we need to compare the results at different pressures for the same grain-size and
339 temperature (normalization). We compare strain-rate at different pressures at a common stress
340 (50 MPa), a common grain-size (1 micron), and a common temperature (1100 K) using equation
341 (1) ($n = 1$) assuming $m = 2$ or 3. Also, in normalizing with respect to temperature, we used $E^* =$

342 295 or 375 kJ/mol, which represents the most common range of activation energy values in
343 published literature.

344 The experimental stress and strain-rate, along with calculated grain sizes, required for
345 normalization are given in **Table 2**. The values of stress and strain reported in Table 2 were
346 taken at a point on the stress/strain curve before diffusion creep terminated. The reasoning is
347 that rheological data (strain-rate, stress) for diffusion creep are evolving (because of concurrent
348 grain-growth). We chose the data within a regime where (hkl) dependence is nearly zero and
349 time-hardening is present. As we showed before, the data in that regime follows the creep law
350 (Eq. (1)), and therefore as far as the data follows that equation, choice of data does not affect our
351 analysis.

352 To calculate activation volume from our data, we need to compare data at different
353 pressures at a common stress, grain-size and temperature (T_0, d_0, σ_0 , are the normalization
354 temperature ($T_0 = 1100$ K), normalization grain size ($d_0 = 1$ μm), normalization stress ($\sigma_0 = 50$
355 MPa)). Figure 6 shows plots of normalize strain-rate as a function of pressure.

356 We calculate the activation volume using the following relationship:

357

$$358 \quad V^* = -RT \frac{\partial \log \dot{\epsilon}(T_0, d_0, \sigma_0)}{\partial P} \quad (4)$$

359

360 where $\dot{\epsilon}(T_0, d_0, \sigma_0)$ is the normalized strain rate and T_0, d_0, σ_0 are the normalization temperature
361 ($T_0 = 1100$ K), normalization grain size ($d_0 = 1$ μm), normalization stress ($\sigma_0 = 50$ MPa),
362 respectively.

363 The results are summarized in **Table 3**. Using the data both San Carlos and solgel olivine, we
364 calculated V^* . Because we normalize the data to common grain-size and temperature (and a
365 common stress), the estimated activation volume (V^*) depends on the activation energy (E^*) and
366 range from 4.4 to 9.4 cm^3/mol . This activation volume is close to the activation volume for
367 grain-growth ($\sim 5.0\text{-}5.2 \text{ cm}^3/\text{mol}$) (Zhang and Karato, 2021). The activation volume for (dry)
368 diffusion creep is substantially smaller than the activation volume for dry dislocation creep
369 ($V^* \sim 15 \text{ cm}^3/\text{mol}$ (Kawazoe et al., 2009)).

370

371 *A comparison between San Carlos and solgel olivine*

372 Let us now compare the rheological results for San Carlos and sol-gel olivine (in the
373 diffusion creep regime). As seen in **Figure 5**, in a case where grain-size is similar, diffusion
374 creep behavior of San Carlos olivine is nearly identical to that of sol-gel olivine (SAN 514).
375 When grain-size is different, rheological behavior is different, but the results can be attributed to
376 the difference in grain-size. Therefore, we conclude that in the diffusion creep regime, the
377 rheological behavior of San Carlos olivine and sol-gel olivine is similar.

378 This is in contrast to the result by (e.g., Faul and Jackson, 2007) where a large difference
379 in diffusion creep behavior between San Carlos and sol-gel olivine was reported. Their sol-gel
380 olivine shows much larger creep strength (a factor of ~ 100 or more) than San Carlos olivine
381 reported by Hirth and Kohlstedt (1995). Our results on diffusion creep in San Carlos olivine are
382 not far from those reported by Mei and Kohlstedt (2000a) and Hirth and Kohlstedt (2003) when
383 compared at the same temperature and pressure and grain-size. In contrast, our results for sol-gel
384 olivine show much weaker strength than Faul and Jackson (2007) (at the same condition). The
385 cause of this large discrepancy is unclear. Because the temperature we used is substantially lower

386 than the solidus, we do not expect any effects of partial melting which might have played role in
387 Faul and Jackson (2007) conclusions.

388

389 *A comparison with previous studies*

390 Our results on activation volume for diffusion creep are substantially smaller than the
391 values reported before by Mei and Kohlstedt (2000a) ($15 \pm 5 \text{ cm}^3/\text{mol}$) from low pressure
392 experiments ($P < 0.45 \text{ GPa}$) and numerically derived estimates using a Markov chain Monte
393 Carlo (MCMC) based on low-pressure data (i.e., Jain and Korenaga, 2020; $24 \pm 7 \text{ cm}^3/\text{mol}$). We
394 believe that the disagreement with previous experimental study (Mei and Kohlstedt, 2000)
395 indicates that the uncertainties in the estimated V^* by (Mei and Kohlstedt, 2000) at a low
396 pressure range (0.1-0.45 GPa) are substantially larger than their estimate. Also a large
397 discrepancy between our results and Jain and Korenaga, 2020 is due to the fact that their
398 numerical calculations did not include data at high pressures. This comparison indicates the
399 importance of high pressure studies on plastic deformation.

400 The results of our present study are compared with those by Silber et al. (2022) for water-
401 saturated samples compared at the grain-size of $1 \mu\text{m}$ ($m=3$) and temperature of $T=1100 \text{ K}$, stress
402 of 50 MPa (**Figure 6**). Water-saturated samples deform faster than samples from the present
403 study, and the pressure dependence is stronger for the samples from present than the water-
404 saturated samples reported by Silber et al. (2022). The activation volume from the current study
405 is $5.2 \text{ cm}^3/\text{mol}$ as compared to $V^*=1.9 \text{ cm}^3/\text{mol}$ from Silber et al. (2022). The difference in V^*
406 between these two studies is partly due to the fact that in Silber et al. (2022) where samples were
407 saturated with water, water content in olivine changes with pressure because the water solubility
408 depends on pressure (e.g., Kohlstedt et al., 1996). In **Figure 6b**, we made a correction on the

409 pressure dependence of water content using the data by Kohlstedt et al. (1996). After this
410 correction, V^* from Silber et al. (2022) is $\sim 4 \text{ cm}^3/\text{mol}$ that is somewhat smaller than the present
411 results on dry olivine.

412 Regarding the water effects, we use a flow law $\dot{\epsilon} = A \cdot C_W^r \cdot \sigma^n \cdot d^{-m} \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{E^* + PV^*}{RT}\right)$, and
413 use the results by Mei and Kohlstedt (2000) where they showed a correlation between “ r ” and
414 V^* . V^* is now determined to be $\sim 7 \text{ cm}^3/\text{mol}$, and from Mei-Kohlstedt (2000) we estimated $r \sim 0.8$
415 that is substantially smaller than r for dislocation creep ($r \sim 1.2$; Karato and Jung, 2003).

416 In Figure 7, we compare our data from this study with previously published dry diffusion
417 creep data obtained at low pressure (e.g., Karato, 1986; Hirth and Kohlstedt, 1995; Mei and
418 Kohlstedt, 2000). After normalization the results agree within error bars. We also plotted wet
419 diffusion creep data and flow law by Silber et al., (2022) obtained at high pressure, and flow law
420 by Mei and Kohlstedt (2000) obtained at low pressure. After normalization those are also in good
421 agreement.

422 Nishihara et al. (2014) reported the results of deformation experiments of dry olivine
423 where they identified both diffusion and dislocation creep at pressures at 3.1 - 5.4 GPa and
424 temperature 1473 –1573 K yield activation volume of $8.2 \pm 0.9 \text{ cm}^3/\text{mol}$ and activation energy of
425 $\sim 485 \text{ kJ/mol}$. Although the activation volume they reported agree well with our results, the
426 activation energy they estimated is much higher than those for diffusion and diffusion creep in
427 olivine ($\sim 200\text{--}400 \text{ kJ/mol}$; Andersson et al., 1989; Dohmen et al., 2002; Farver and Yund, 2000;
428 Farver et al., 1994; Gardés and Heinrich, 2011; Gérard and Jaoul, 1989; Jaoul et al., 1980;
429 Ryerson et al., 1989). We do not understand the cause for this discrepancy, but it is possible that

430 the discrepancy is caused by the operation of both diffusion and dislocation creep under their
431 experimental conditions.

432 On the other hand, there are some previous studies on diffusion in olivine single crystals
433 and aggregates. For example, Fei et al. (2016) conducted Si-diffusion experiments on iron-free
434 olivine aggregates and obtained the V^* of $4.0 \pm 0.7 \text{ cm}^3/\text{mol}$ and E^* of $220 \pm 30 \text{ kJ/mol}$. Smaller
435 values of V^* for forsterite ($\text{Fe}/(\text{Fe}+\text{Mg})=0$) than San Carlos olivine ($\text{Fe}/(\text{Fe}+\text{Mg})=0.1$) may be
436 the influence of Fe.

437 Our results on dislocation creep regime may be compared with the previously reported
438 results on the flow law of olivine aggregates in the dislocation creep regime under high-
439 pressures. When we compare our new results with the published results on the power-law
440 dislocation creep including (Dixon and Durham, 2018; Karato and Jung, 2003; Kawazoe et al.,
441 2009). In most previous studies cited above, deformation experiments were conducted at higher
442 temperatures than our present study. When these results are extrapolated to the P-T conditions
443 similar to ours, they predict substantially higher strength (stress) than we observed (e.g., using
444 Karato and Jung 2003 dry flow law we obtain stress of roughly 100GPa) (except for Dixon and
445 Durham (2018) where a low activation energy was assumed). This is likely due to the fact that
446 dislocation creep in our experiments likely occurred in the Peierls creep regime because of low
447 temperatures. Indeed a comparison with the results by (Mei et al., 2010) gives a better
448 agreement.

449

450 ***Implications for plastic deformation in the whole upper mantle***

451 As demonstrated before, important mechanisms of plastic deformation in most of the
452 upper mantle are either power-law dislocation creep or diffusion creep (e.g., (Karato and Wu,
453 1993)). The relative importance of these two mechanisms can be estimated if all the flow law
454 parameters (see equation (1)) are known. At the time when (Karato and Wu, 1993) was
455 published, V^* for diffusion creep was not available and therefore they estimated V^* based on the
456 experiments on diffusion-controlled dislocation recovery (Karato et al., 1993). Now with our
457 new data from this study as well as (Silber et al., 2022), we now have experimentally constrained
458 values of V^* for diffusion creep for both water-saturated and dry conditions. In addition, we
459 have a new result on the water content sensitivity of diffusion creep.

460 Therefore, we now have a complete data set for dry olivine rheology for both dislocation
461 (Karato and Jung, 2003) and diffusion creep regime (this paper). The calculated deformation
462 mechanism maps are shown in **Figure 8** for 3, 12 GPa (at 1473 and 1673 K) for a range of water
463 content (0 (dry), 10, 100 and 1000 ppm wt). The parameters we used are listed in Table 3. For
464 simplicity, we assumed that m for diffusion creep is 3, n for dislocation creep is 3, and for
465 diffusion creep is 1. And we assume that strain-rate is constant and 10^{-15} s^{-1} .

466 We calculated strain-rates by these two mechanisms and determined the regime boundary
467 (**Figure 8**). Because V^* differ between the two deformation mechanisms, the regime boundary
468 depends on pressure. Diffusion creep dominates over the power-law dislocation creep at
469 relatively high pressures. One caveat in this exercise is that we did not take into account of the
470 possible change in the rate-controlling slip system in the dislocation creep regime as suggested
471 by (Masuti et al., 2019).

472

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479 authors thank the beamline staff and scientists at 6-BM-B at APS. We also thank DOE and
480 COMPRES for supporting in part our experimental efforts.

481

482 **Data Availability**

483 All data required to replicate this study are uploaded to a freely accessible repository, Harvard
484 Dataverse, DOI: 10.7910/DVN/V98ETE (the dataset will be published upon acceptance of this
485 paper – the private link (NOT for distribution) to the data set is here:
486 <https://dataverse.harvard.edu/privateurl.xhtml?token=dfc6afdf-1d6e-4025-b56c-93f4e869ba25>).

487 Raw data were processed using Plot85, the open source software package developed by Stony
488 Brook (<http://www.mpi.stonybrook.edu/NSLS/X17B2/Support/Plot85/plot85.htm>). The strain
489 rates were measured from the time-stamped radiographic images using the open source software
490 JImage, available at <https://imagej.nih.gov/ij/download.html>, and the proprietary software
491 package Adobe Photoshop (www.adobe.com).

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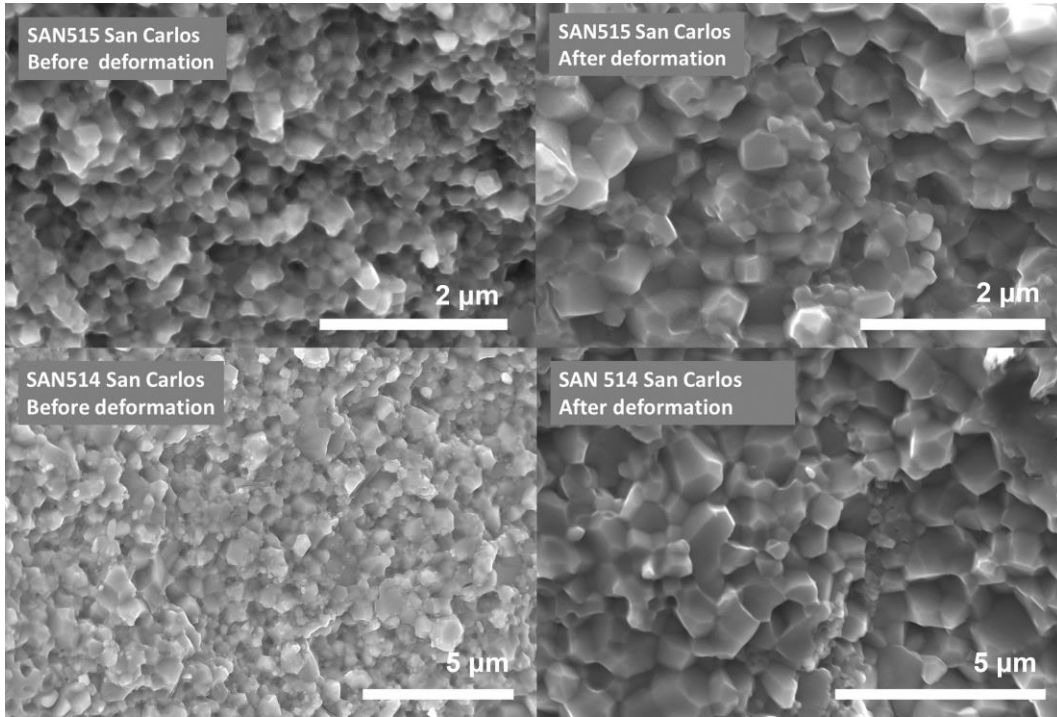
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652 **List of Figures**

653 **Figure 1:** Example of microstructure (grain size) observed in initial samples (left) and the post-
654 deformation recovered samples. The scale bar in all images is in microns (μm).

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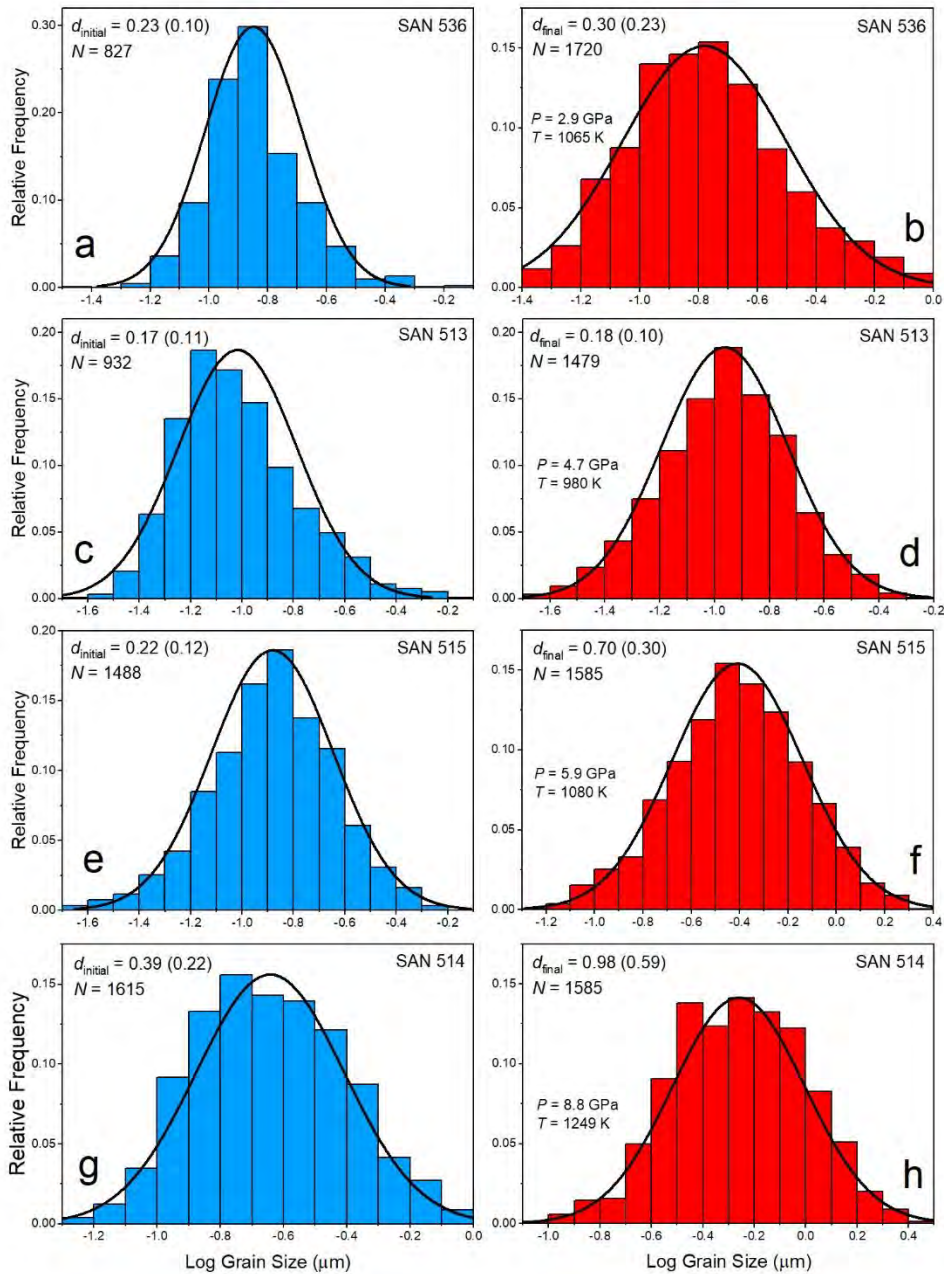
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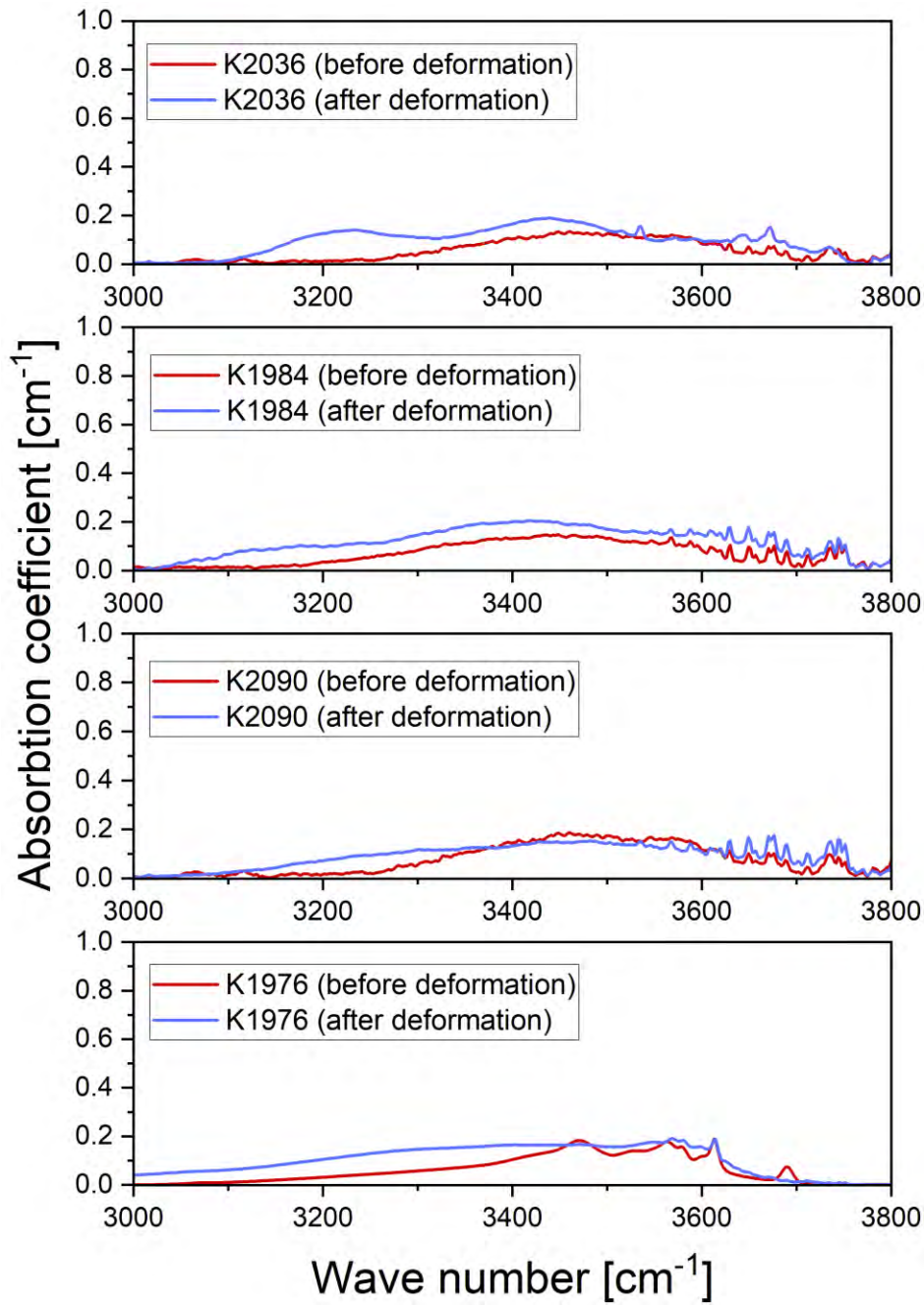
660 **Figure 2:** Distribution of the grain sizes from different aggregates of San Carlos parent samples
 661 (blue) compared with the grain size distribution after the deformation experiments (orange) at
 662 given pressure and temperature conditions. The number of measured individual grain intercepts
 663 (from multiple SEM images of the same sample) is given in each figure.



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666 **Figure 3:** The representative FTIR of the of San Carlos olivine (top three panels) and
667 solgel (the bottom panel) samples before and after deformation.

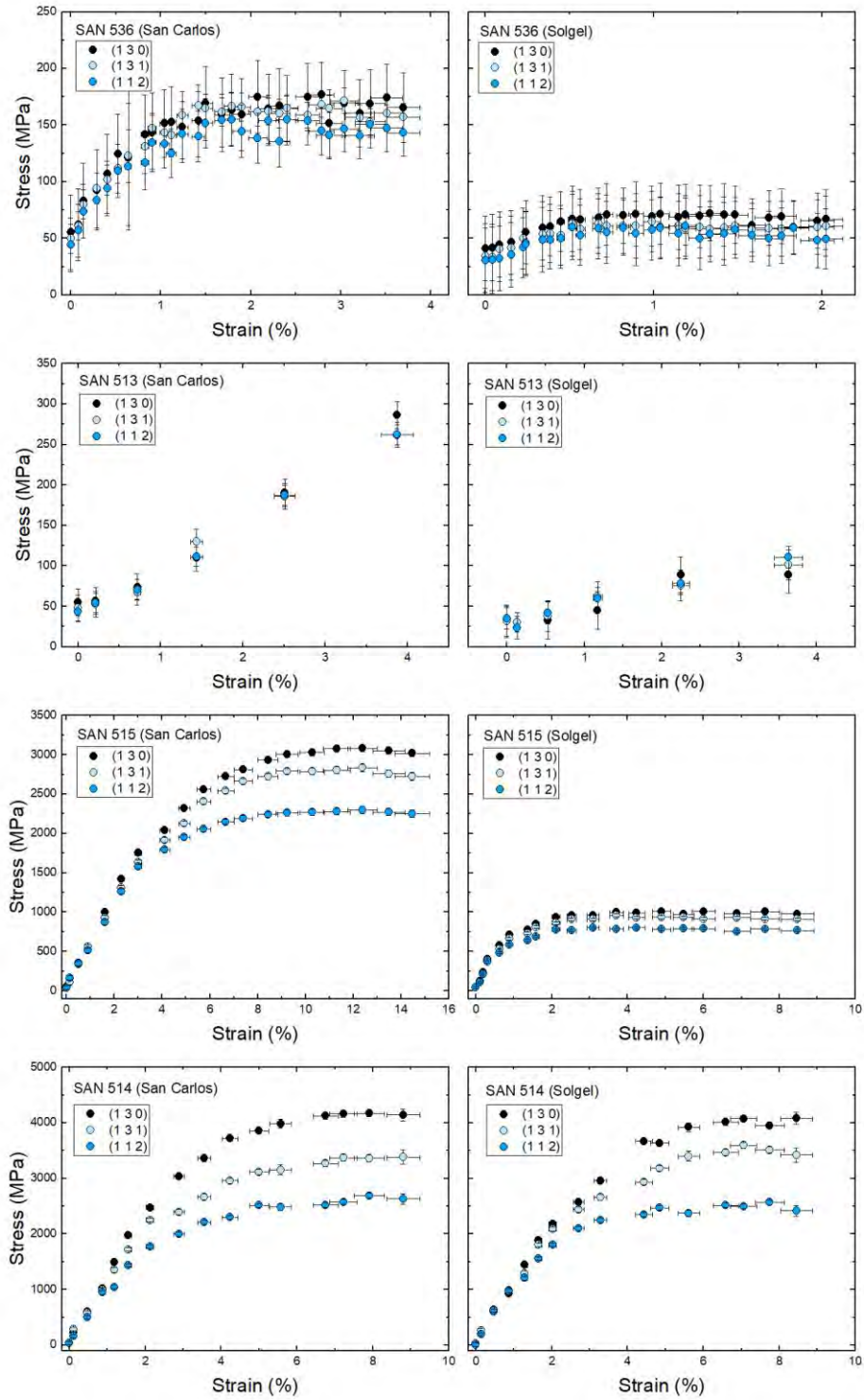


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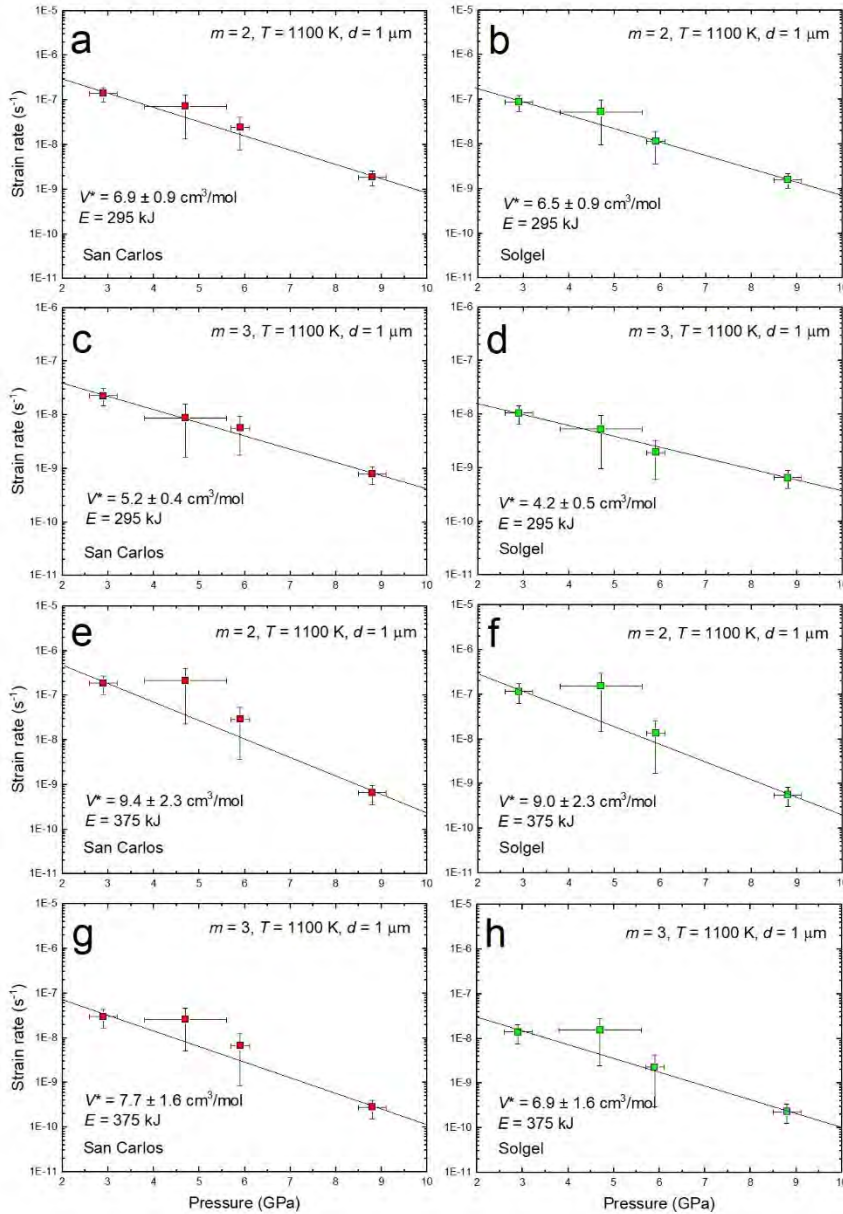
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671 **Figure 4:** Differential stress vs. strain for all deformation experiments. For clarity, San Carlos
 672 (left panels) and solgel (right panels) are plotted separately.



673

674 **Figure 5:** Example of linear regression analysis using our data, to obtain the activation volume
 675 (V^*). Prior to the regression, data were normalized to a common temperature ($T = 1100$ K) using
 676 activation energy of 295 kJ/mol and 375 kJ/mol, and common grain size ($d = 1$ μm) using grain
 677 size exponents ($m = 2$ and 3). Data was also normalized to a common stress of 50 MPa using
 678 stress exponent $n = 1$.

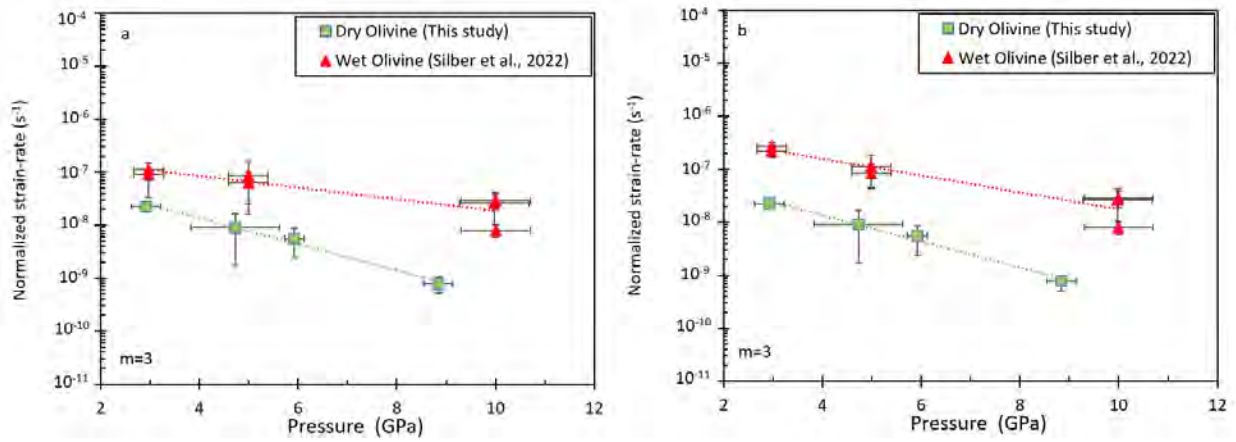


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681 **Figure 6:** Comparison between mechanical strength of water saturated olivine samples (Silber et
682 al., 2022) and dry olivine samples at range of different pressures (normalized using
683 $E^*=295\text{kJ/mol}$, $S=50\text{ MPa}$, $T=1100\text{ K}$, $d=1\text{ }\mu\text{m}$ and $m=3$) a) comparison between Silber et al
684 (2022) under saturated conditions without correcting for water concentration increasing with
685 pressure, b) after applying the correction to Silber et al (2022) to account for the increase of
686 water solubility with depth.

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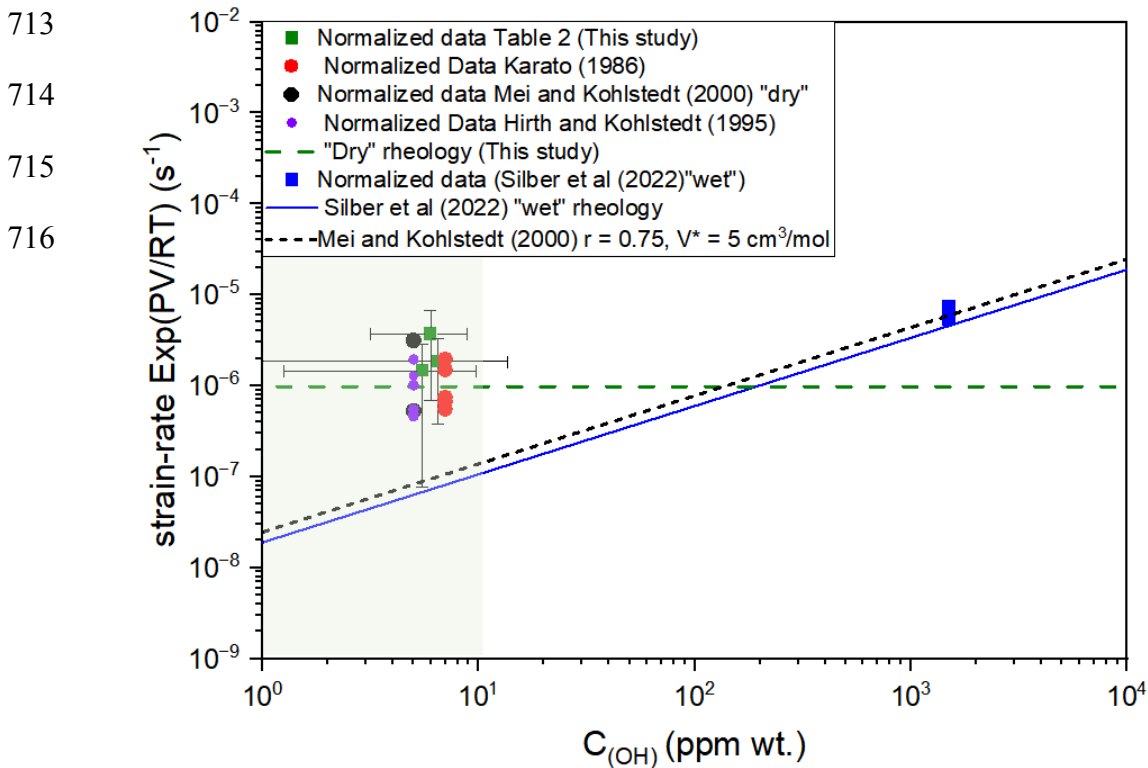
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701 **Figure 7:** Comparison between “dry” and “wet” rheologies:

702 Strain-rates, obtained experimentally have been normalized to the same stress (100 MPa),
703 temperature (1100 K) with $E^* = 295\text{kJ/mol}$, grain size (1micron) with $m = 3$, and pressure effect
704 have been removed to only see the effect of water (C_{OH}) on the rheology. Data reported in this
705 study are shown by the red square symbols. The rheological law obtained after our linear
706 regression is shown in green dashline. Data from Silber et al., (2022) are shown by the blue
707 square symbols and blue solid line. For comparison we also report Mei and Kohlstedt (2000) wet
708 diffusion creep rheology (black solid line) assuming $r=0.75$ and $V^*=5\text{cm}^3/\text{mol}$. Additional data
709 are plotted for comparison, Mei and Kohlstedt (2000) dry data (black symbol), Karato et al.,
710 (1986) dry data (red symbol) and Hirth and Kohlstedt (1995) samples with melt fraction <0.01
711 (purple symbol). The green shaded region represents water detectability limit of our FTIR
712 measurements.



717 **Figure 8:** olivine deformation map under upper mantle pressure:

718 Stress versus grain size deformation map. The limit between diffusion and dislocation creep was
719 calculated at $T=1473\text{K}$ as well as 1673K and at pressure of 3GPa (left) and 12GPa (right), for
720 $m=3$ (blue). The boundary between diffusion creep and dislocation creep region is represented by
721 different shades of blue for different water content from “dry” (light blue) to $1000\text{ ppm wt H}_2\text{O}$
722 (dark blue). The light blue region represents the range of grain size expected in the upper mantle
723 and the green region represents the stress range expected in the upper mantle.

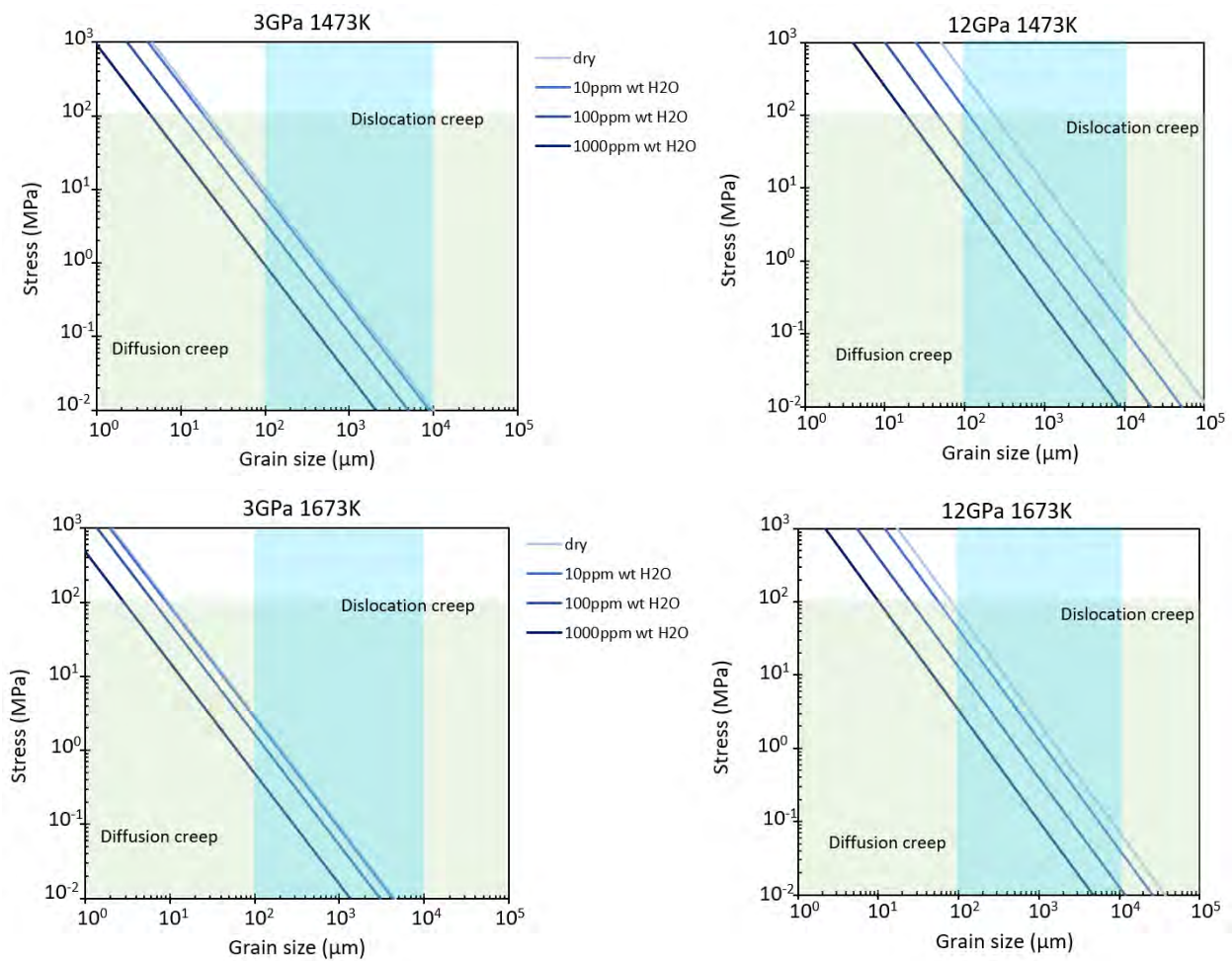
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729 **List of Tables**

730 **Table 1:** Experimental conditions for each run and grain sizes for San Carlos and solgel samples.

731 *The value of strain rate was determined on the Stress-Strain plot at the last point where
 732 diffusion creep operated (see Section 3.3).

Deformation run	P (GPa)	T (K)	Sample	Initial grain size (μm)	Final grain size (μm)
SAN 536	2.9 \pm 0.3	1065 \pm 33	San Carlos (K2090)	0.23 (0.15)	0.30 (0.24)
			Solgel (K2091)	0.18 (0.12)	0.23 (0.15)
SAN 513	4.7 \pm 0.9	980 \pm 110	San Carlos (K1980)	0.17 (0.11)	0.18 (0.12)
			Solgel (K2034)	0.17 (0.11)	0.17 (0.11)
SAN 515	5.9 \pm 0.2	1080 \pm 90	San Carlos (K2036)	0.21 (0.14)	0.78 (0.53)
			Solgel (K2034)	0.17 (0.11)	0.53 (0.36)
SAN 514	8.8 \pm 0.3	1249 \pm 47	San Carlos (K1984)	0.39 (0.27)	0.98 (0.67)
			Solgel (k1976)	0.38 (0.26)	0.98 (67)

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736 **Table 2:** The mechanical data for diffusion creep used in the activation volume calculation. The
 737 stress value* and strain rate** were obtained from the point on time evolving stress/strain curve
 738 where diffusion creep is still operational before transition. The calculated grain size***
 739 corresponds to time coordinate where stress and strain values were selected (see the main text for
 740 expanded discussion).

Deformation run	Sample	Stress* (MPa)	Strain rate** $\times 10^{-6} (s^{-1})$	Calculated grain size*** (μm)
SAN 536	San Carlos (K2090)	110 ± 25	4.21 ± 0.21	0.24 (0.20)
	Solgel (K2091)	55 ± 27	2.32 ± 0.12	0.18 (0.15)
SAN 513	San Carlos (K1980)	250 ± 21	0.49 ± 0.003	0.17 (0.12)
	Solgel (K2034)	100 ± 13	0.2 ± 0.01	0.15 (0.10)
SAN 515	San Carlos (K2036)	510 ± 30	2.62 ± 0.17	0.35 (0.23)
	Solgel (K2034)	400 ± 16	1.74 ± 0.87	0.26 (0.17)
SAN 514	San Carlos (K1984)	950 ± 55	9.52 ± 0.48	0.63 (0.42)
	Solgel (k1976)	940 ± 60	8.49 ± 0.42	0.62 (0.42)

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744 **Table 3:** Activation volume and pre-exponential factor A ($s^{-1} \text{MPa}^{-n} \mu\text{m}^m$) for different stress
 745 exponents and different activation energies. A and error in A are reported in log base 10.

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San Carlos								
Normalization parameters					Calculated A and V*			
E* (kJ/mol)	m	T (K)	d (μm)	Stress (MPa)	log (A)	Error in log (A)	V* (cm^3/mol)	Error in V* (cm^3/mol)
295	2	1100	1	50	6.56E+00	6.43E+00	6.90E+00	9.00E-01
295	3	1100	1	50	5.42E+00	4.89E+00	5.20E+00	4.00E-01
375	2	1100	1	50	1.11E+01	1.16E+01	9.40E+00	2.30E+00
375	3	1100	1	50	9.93E+00	1.02E+01	7.70E+00	1.60E+00
Solgel								
Normalization parameters					Calculated A and V*			
E* (kJ/mol)	m	T (K)	d (μm)	Stress (MPa)	log (A)	Error in log (A)	V* (cm^3/mol)	Error in V* (cm^3/mol)
295	2	1100	1	50	6.27E+00	6.18E+00	6.50E+00	9.00E-01
295	3	1100	1	50	4.94E+00	4.49E+00	4.40E+00	5.00E-01
375	2	1100	1	50	1.08E+01	1.13E+01	9.00E+00	2.30E+00
375	3	1100	1	50	9.45E+00	9.73E+00	6.90E+00	1.60E+00

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