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## First-Principles Study of $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}_x$ Solid and Melt System at High Pressures: Implications for Ultralow-Velocity Zones

Jie Deng  
*Yale University*

Bijaya B. Karki  
*Louisiana State University*

Dipta B. Ghosh  
*Louisiana State University*

Kanani K.M. Lee  
*Yale University*

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# JGR Solid Earth

## RESEARCH ARTICLE

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### Key Points:

- Pyrite-type  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}_x$  is likely to be melted near the core–mantle boundary
- The seismic velocity of liquid  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}$  is much lower than pyrite-type  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}$  solid
- A molten  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}_x$  induced ultralow-velocity zone requires high viscosity and/or vigorous convection

### Supporting Information:

- Supporting Information S1

### Correspondence to:

J. Deng,  
 jie.deng@yale.edu

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## First-Principles Study of $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}_x$ Solid and Melt System at High Pressures: Implications for Ultralow-Velocity Zones

Jie Deng<sup>1</sup> , Bijaya B. Karki<sup>2</sup>, Dipta B. Ghosh<sup>2</sup>, and Kanani K. M. Lee<sup>1</sup> 

<sup>1</sup>Department of Geology and Geophysics, Yale University, New Haven, CT, USA, <sup>2</sup>School of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science, Department of Geology and Geophysics, and Center for Computation and Technology, Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, LA, USA

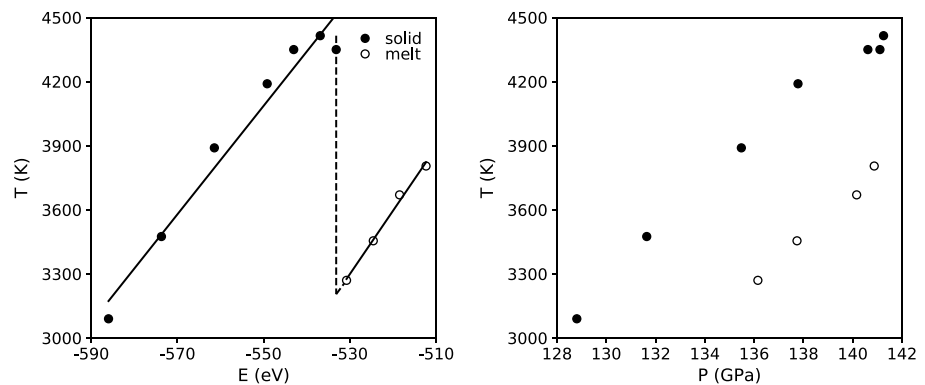
**Abstract** Pyrite-type  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}_x$  (P phase) has recently been suggested as a possible alternative to explain ultralow-velocity zones due to its low seismic velocity and high density. Here we report the results on the congruent melting temperature and melt properties of P phase at high pressures from first-principles molecular dynamics simulations. The results show that P phase would likely be melted near the core–mantle boundary. Liquid  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}_x$  has smaller density and smaller bulk sound velocity compared to the isochemical P phase. As such, relatively small amounts of liquid  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}_x$  could account for the observed seismic anomaly of ultralow-velocity zones. However, to maintain the liquid  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}_x$  within the ultralow-velocity zones against compaction requires special physical conditions, such as relatively high viscosity of the solid matrix and/or vigorous convection of the overlying mantle.

**Plain Language Summary** Ultralow-velocity zones (ULVZs) are 5–40-km-thick patches lying above Earth's core–mantle boundary. They are characterized with anomalously low seismic velocities compared with the ambient mantle and may contain important clues on the thermochemical evolution of the Earth. A recent experimental study argued that ULVZs may be caused by the accumulation of pyrite-type  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}_x$  (P phase) at the bottom of the mantle. Here for the first time, we systematically study the thermoelastic properties of both  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}_x$  solid and liquid phases. We find that P phase is likely melted near the core–mantle boundary and thus cannot be the source of ULVZs. Furthermore, in order for the molten product of P phase to cause ULVZs, the dense and nearly inviscid melts must be dynamically stable and confined within the ULVZs, which requires that the mantle is highly viscous and/or convects vigorously.

## 1. Introduction

Ultralow-velocity zones (ULVZs) are 5–40-km-thick patches lying directly above the core–mantle boundary (CMB), where seismic wave speeds are depressed by ~10% for *P* waves and 10–30% for *S* waves (Williams & Garnero, 1996). Several mechanisms have been proposed to explain ULVZs, including the oft-cited partial melting (Williams & Garnero, 1996) and solid-state iron-enriched materials (Brown et al., 2015; Mao et al., 2006; Wicks et al., 2010). The different mechanisms correspond to distinctive thermal and chemical states of the CMB resulting from different Earth evolution scenarios. Careful assessment of the different proposed mechanisms including the compositional likelihood and stability field at such depths therefore becomes necessary to distinctively pinpoint the actual origin(s) of ULVZs.

Recently, pyrite-type  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}_x$  ( $x = 0-1$ , named P phase hereafter) has been invoked as a plausible cause of ULVZs (Liu et al., 2017). Based on their laser-heated diamond-anvil cell experimental results, Liu et al. (2017) suggested that the pyrite-type iron peroxide with varying hydrogen concentration is stable up to 2,600 K and 133 GPa while exhibiting thermoelastic properties consistent with ULVZs. The temperature near the CMB is, however, generally expected to reach ~4,000 K at 136 GPa (Anderson, 2002). Under such extreme conditions, the stability of P phase remains unclear. The comparison with the melting behavior of FeO may shed light on this issue. The melting temperature of FeO at the CMB is around 3,700 K (Fischer & Campbell, 2010) and falls into the lower end of the proposed CMB temperature (Andrault et al., 2016; Nomura et al., 2014). The P phase contains more light elements and thus may be less refractory as the addition of hydrogen/oxygen usually tends to lower the melting temperatures of the system (e.g., Morard et al., 2017; Nomura et al., 2011). Therefore, P phase might melt at the lowermost mantle.



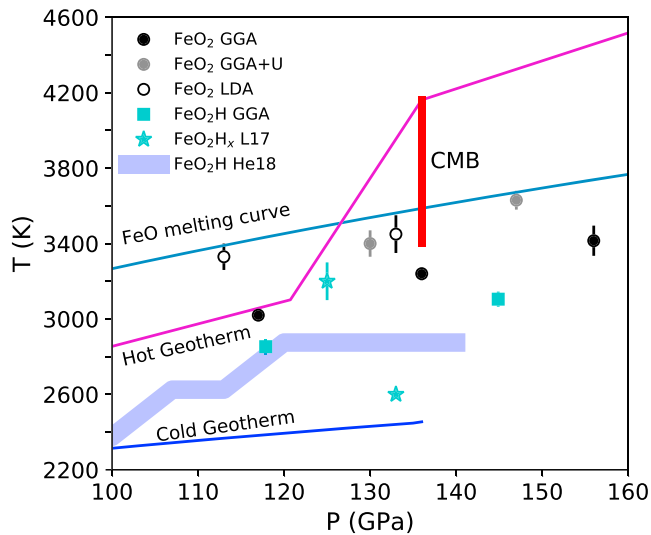
**Figure 1.** (a) The  $Z$  isochores in temperature-total energy and (b) temperature-pressure domains for pyrite-type  $\text{FeO}_2$ . The lower bound of the melting temperature (3,205 K) is taken as the temperature at which the total energy of the liquid equals the maximum total energy of the solid reached in the simulation (the intersection of the vertical dashed line and the liquid branch). The lowest temperature of the melt (3,275 K) is taken as the upper bound of the melting temperature.

If  $P$  phase melts near the CMB, the resulting melt may have very different seismic and dynamic properties. To assess the (solid/liquid) phase stability of  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}_x$  composition at the CMB, we calculate the melting temperature of the two end-members of  $P$  phase, that is,  $\text{FeO}_2$  and  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}$ , from first-principles molecular dynamics (FPMD) simulations. Thereafter, we evaluate the thermoelastic properties of liquid  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}_x$  and further examine whether it could be the source material for ULVZs.

## 2. Computational Methodology

Our FPMD simulations are based on density functional theory and projector augmented wave method as implemented by Vienna Ab initio Simulation Package (Blöchl et al., 1994; Kresse & Joubert, 1999). While we used the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) for the exchange-correlation functional (Perdew et al., 1996), we also explored the effects of the Hubbard term with  $U = 5$  and  $J = 0.8$  eV (Jang et al., 2017) and local density approximation (LDA). The plane wave cutoff was set at 400 eV (which resulted in Pulay stress of 6–10 GPa), and Brillouin zone sampling was performed at the Gamma point. The time step was set at 0.5 to 1 fs, and the allowed error in total energy was set between  $10^{-4}$  and  $10^{-6}$  eV. The run durations varied from 5 to 20 ps. The supercells contained  $\text{Fe}_{32}\text{O}_{64}$ ,  $\text{Fe}_{32}\text{O}_{64}\text{H}_{32}$ , and  $\text{Fe}_{16}\text{O}_{32}\text{H}_{80}$ .

To calculate the melting temperatures of  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}$  and  $\text{FeO}_2$  at high pressures, we used the  $Z$  method, which is based on the notion that the internal energy of the crystal at the superheating limit equals that of the isochemical liquid at the melting temperature (Belonoshko et al., 2006). It has been previously used in multiple melting studies (Belonoshko & Rosengren, 2012; González-Cataldo et al., 2016; Li et al., 2014; Wang et al., 2013). We performed FPMD simulations in the microcanonical ( $NVE$ ) ensemble on a single solid system at different initial energies controlled by the initial temperature set in each simulation. When the crystal is heated beyond its overheating limit, the temperature naturally drops to the melting temperature as the latent heat is removed from the kinetic energy. The connected  $P$ - $T$  points on the isochore form a  $Z$ -shaped curve. Several simulations for each isochore are needed in order to yield a single accurate melting temperature (Figures 1 and S1). The  $Z$  method only works for congruent melting because it compares the internal energy variation of an isochemical solid and liquid.  $\text{FeO}_2$  may melt congruently while  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}$  may melt incongruently as discussed in detail in the following section. Nevertheless, the calculated “congruent melting temperature” of  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}$  informs how the addition of hydrogen would affect the melting temperature of the  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}_x$  system. To study the equation of state of  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}_x$  solid and liquid, we then performed several FPMD simulations in the canonical ( $NVT$ ) ensemble. We confirmed the physical state (solid or liquid) of the simulated system by examining the partial radial distribution functions (Figure S2) and atomic trajectories (Figure S3). We also found that running longer simulations ( $>20$  ps) and doubling supercell ( $\text{Fe}_{64}\text{O}_{128}$ ) did not affect the calculated results significantly; for instance, final pressure and temperature from our  $NVE$  runs varied by less than 0.2 GPa and 100 K, respectively.



**Figure 2.** Congruent melting temperatures of  $\text{FeO}_2$  (solid circles) and  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}$  (solid squares) using GGA at high pressures (with the GGA+ $U$  and LDA results shown for  $\text{FeO}_2$  by grey and open circles, respectively). Two high-temperature experimental data where P phase is observed are plotted as asterisks (Liu et al., 2017) and the FeO melting curve is taken from Fischer and Campbell (2010). The thick blue zigzag curve is the calculated phase boundary between solid and liquid  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}$  from (He et al., 2018). Also shown are the cold geotherm (Brown & Shankland, 1981) and hot geotherm (Anderson, 2002). The vertical bar represents the range of literature values for the CMB temperature (Andraut et al., 2016; Nomura et al., 2014).

### 3. Results and Discussion

#### 3.1. Melting Temperatures

The congruent melting temperatures of  $\text{FeO}_2$  and  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}$  were calculated near CMB pressures as summarized in Figure 2. For  $\text{FeO}_2$ , the melting temperature using GGA increases from  $3,020 \pm 30$  K at 117 GPa to  $3,415 \pm 80$  K at 156 GPa, in good agreement with the previous calculation (Zhang et al., 2017). For  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}$ , the melting temperature using GGA is in agreement with He et al. (2018) at 118 GPa but not at higher pressures. Note that He et al. (2018) estimated the boundary between the melt/solid  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}$  by simulating at widely spaced  $P$ - $T$  conditions, which cause the zigzag melting boundary and the apparent discrepancy with our results. The calculated melting temperatures of  $\text{FeO}_2$  are lower than the experimental FeO melting curve (Fischer & Campbell, 2010), as one would expect intuitively. Our results show that  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}$  melts at lower temperatures at the pressures investigated, which implies that adding H into  $\text{FeO}_2$  further lowers the melting temperature when compared to FeO.  $\text{FeO}_2$  can be viewed as the binary mixing of FeO- $\text{O}_2$ . Although the end-member  $\text{O}_2$  is much less refractory than Fe, the melting temperature of the mixing product  $\text{FeO}_2$  is very close to the eutectic melting temperature of Fe-FeO system ( $3,200 \pm 200$  K; Seagle et al., 2008; Morard et al., 2017). For the sake of comparison, we have also estimated the melting temperature both by GGA+ $U$  and LDA. The values are shifted upward by 200 to 300 K (Figure 2). To elaborate, because LDA tends to overbind, it results in higher melting temperature in comparison to GGA. Similarly, although no data on the effects of  $U$  on the melting temperatures exist, the penalty function  $U$  in GGA+ $U$  is known to increase the transition (structural and

spin) pressures (Ghosh & Karki, 2016). Irrespective of the choice (i.e., LDA, GGA, or GGA+ $U$ ), our results (Figure 2) suggest that  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}_x$  systems are likely to be molten near the CMB.

The FPMD simulations put meaningful constraints on the melting temperature of P phase. We note that our predicted congruent melting temperature of P phase falls very close to one experimental data point (125 GPa, 3,100–3,300 K) which observed solid-state  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}_x$  for  $x = 0.5$ – $0.7$  (Liu et al., 2017). There are a couple of possible reasons why P phase was observed at such high temperatures. First, large temperature gradients likely existed in LHDAC experiments, and as such, accurate temperature measurement is difficult (Deng et al., 2017) especially for flash heating. Second, if the kinetics of melting is slow, P phase may be metastable at temperatures higher than its melting temperature given the short flash heating durations.

Comparison between the melting temperatures of  $\text{FeO}_2$  and  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}$  with mantle geotherms together with high-pressure experiments (e.g., Liu et al., 2017; Yuan et al., 2018) suggests that P phase is thermally stable (not melted) in most of the mantle (Anderson, 1982, 2002; Brown & Shankland, 1981). However, this may not be the case in the lowermost mantle and within the thermal boundary layer right above the CMB where mantle temperatures drastically increase by 1,000–1,400 K within less than 200 km estimated from mantle adiabat and the melting temperature of core materials at CMB conditions (Anderson, 2002; Anzellini et al., 2013; Morard et al., 2017). The congruent melting curve of P phase likely intersects with the geotherm, indicating the onset of melting. The exact depth at which melting can occur depends on the hydrogen content and the mantle temperature profile. No matter where within the thermal boundary layer melting occurs, P phase is not thermally stable within the ULVZs that are characterized by CMB temperatures.

The above discussion is based on the assumption that P phase melts congruently. However, as mentioned earlier, P phase may not melt congruently. Nishi et al. (2017) argued that P phase would dissociate into post-perovskite type  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  and  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  above 2,400 K at lowermost mantle pressures. This is in contrast to the experiments (Hu et al., 2017; Liu et al., 2017) where P phase is found to be stable at temperatures as high as 3,100–3,300 K (Figure 2). On the other hand, a recent first-principles study computed the Gibbs free

energies of the decomposition reaction of  $\text{FeO}_2$  ( $\text{FeO}_2 = \text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3 + \text{O}_2$ ) at 40 to 80 GPa and up to 2,400 K and found that this reaction is not energetically favorable at high pressures (>40 GPa; Tang et al., 2018), supporting the experimental observations by Hu et al. (2017) and Liu et al. (2017). Another static first-principles study suggested that at lowermost mantle conditions, the dehydrogenation dissociation ( $\text{FeO}_2\text{H} = \text{FeO}_2\text{H}_x + \frac{(1-x)}{2}\text{H}_2$ ) of pyrite-type  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}$  is energetically unfavorable while the dehydration dissociation ( $2\text{FeO}_2\text{H} = \text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ ) may be energetically accessible, in agreement with Nishi et al. (2017).

If P phase (including  $\text{FeO}_2$  and  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}_x$  ( $x > 0$ )) melts incongruently, the incongruent melting products may be  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}_x$ ,  $\text{FeO}_2$ ,  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{H}_2$ , and  $\text{O}_2$  according to the discussion above. Unlike congruent melting, the melting temperature of P phase needs be further subdivided into the solidus melting temperature and the liquidus melting temperature, both of which are related to the end-member melting temperatures and mixing properties. Due to the lack of mixing parameters between end-members ( $\text{FeO}_2$ ,  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ ,  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$ ,  $\text{H}_2$ , and  $\text{O}_2$ ) at CMB conditions, we consider only ideal mixing. In this case, the solidus and liquidus melting temperatures of P phase range from the lowest melting temperatures to the highest melting temperatures of the end-members. In other words, the melting temperatures of  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$  or  $\text{H}_2$  or  $\text{O}_2$  likely constrain the lower bound of the solidus/liquidus temperatures (Deemyad & Silvera, 2008; Lin et al., 2005) while those of iron-bearing (e.g.,  $\text{FeO}_2$ ,  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$ ) compound likely constrain the upper bound. Here we focus on the upper bound of the solidus/liquidus to examine whether P phase would melt completely near the CMB. The upper limit of calculated congruent melting temperature of the  $\text{FeO}_2$  (i.e., LDA or GGA+U) at CMB is  $\sim 3,450$  K. Assuming a linear relationship between the melting temperature and O content for  $\text{FeO}_x$  system, the postperovskite phase of  $\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$  melts at 3,350–3,690 K at 136 GPa, which still falls in the lower end of the estimated CMB temperatures (Figure 2).

The incorporation of other elements (e.g., Al, Si, Mg) may also affect melting of P phase. A recent experimental study found that  $(\text{Fe,Al})\text{O}_2\text{H}$  (the solid solution phase of  $\text{AlO}_2\text{H}$  and  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}$ ) is stable at 107–136 GPa and 2,400 K (Zhang et al., 2018). Duan et al. (2018), on the other hand, reported that  $\text{AlOOH}$  dehydrates at 2,500 K and 142 GPa. As  $\text{AlO}_2\text{H}$  is likely more refractory than  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}$  (He et al., 2018), the incorporation of Al in P phase may not significantly increase its melting temperature. Also, the amount of  $\text{AlO}_2\text{H}$  phase available at the lowermost mantle is likely very limited (Mashino et al., 2016). In contrast, P phase could be relatively abundant by the reaction of core materials and the water brought by subduction from the crust and the primordial water in the mantle (Hallis et al., 2015; He et al., 2018) proposed by Liu et al. (2017) and Mao et al. (2017). As such, the  $(\text{Fe,Al})\text{O}_2\text{H}$  solid solution at CMB may be very diluted in  $\text{AlO}_2\text{H}$  component and the melting temperature would not be very different from pure P phase discussed above. In addition to Al, dissolving other elements such as Mg and Si may also influence the melting temperature of P phase. However, given the well-known relatively low dehydration temperatures of Mg- and Si-rich hydrous silicate in the lower mantle (Nishi et al., 2014; Ohira et al., 2014), Mg and Si may not significantly affect the melting temperatures of P phase. In addition, whether or not the dissolution of Mg and Si in P phase are energetically favorable needs to be investigated.

To sum up, the solid P phase is likely to melt (completely) in the lowermost mantle even if the P phase melts incongruently or if P phase forms solid solution with  $\text{AlO}_2\text{H}$ . Consequently, P phase cannot be the source of ULVZs.

### 3.2. Equation of State of $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}_x$ Solid and Melt

We present the FPMD results on the equation of state and thermodynamic properties mainly focusing on the effects of hydrogen at high pressures. P phase was simulated at 300, 1,000, 2,000, and 3,000 K. Its  $P$ - $V$  results at 300 K are fit to a third-order Birch-Murnaghan equation of state to obtain  $K_0$  and  $K'$  with the reference volume and pressure fixed at the largest volume simulated (Birch, 1978). To represent the  $P$ - $V$  data at elevated temperatures, we calculate the reference bulk modulus ( $K_{0T}$ ) at the corresponding temperatures by

$$K_{0T} = K_0 + (\partial K / \partial T)_{0P}(T - 300) \quad (1)$$

where  $(\partial K / \partial T)_{0P}$  is the temperature derivative of the bulk modulus at the reference pressure. The reference volume ( $V_{0T}$ ) at evaluated temperatures is expressed as

**Table 1**  
Fitted Equation of State Parameters for P Phase, Liquid FeO<sub>2</sub>, FeO<sub>2</sub>H, and FeO<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>

	$V_0$ (Å <sup>3</sup> )	$P_0$ (GPa)	$T_0$ (K)	$K_0$ (GPa)	$K'$	$K''$ (1/GPa)	$\alpha_0$ (10 <sup>-6</sup> K) or $a$	$\alpha_1$ (10 <sup>-9</sup> K <sup>2</sup> ) or $b$	$(\partial K/\partial T)_{0P}$ (GPa/K) or $c$
Solid FeO <sub>2</sub> H	22.85	63.8 (0.1)	300	545 (9)	3.0 (0.2)	n.a.	8.9 (0.5)	7.4 (0.4)	-0.041 (0.001)
Liquid FeO <sub>2</sub> H	40.69	6.1 (0.1)	3000	26 (4)	7.7 (0.2)	-0.71 (0.05)	22.2 (0.2)	25.5 (0.7)	5.9 (0.4)
Liquid FeO <sub>2</sub>	29.44	23 (0.1)	4000	92 (1)	7.1 (0.1)	-0.1605 (0.0004)	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Liquid FeO <sub>2</sub> H <sub>5</sub>	45.15	33.5 (0.1)	4000	136 (5)	2.7 (0.3)	-0.0079 (0.0003)	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.

Uncertainties are given in parentheses. Parameters  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  are dimensionless for the equation of state of liquid (equation (5)). n.a. means not applicable.

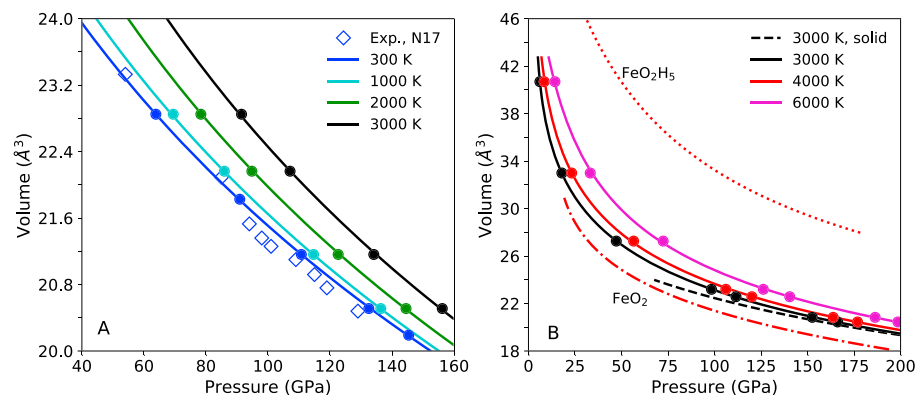
$$V_{0T} = V_0 \int_{300}^T \alpha_T dT \quad (2)$$

where  $\alpha_T$  is the thermal expansion coefficient at high temperatures and the reference pressure and can be further written as

$$\alpha_T = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 T \quad (3)$$

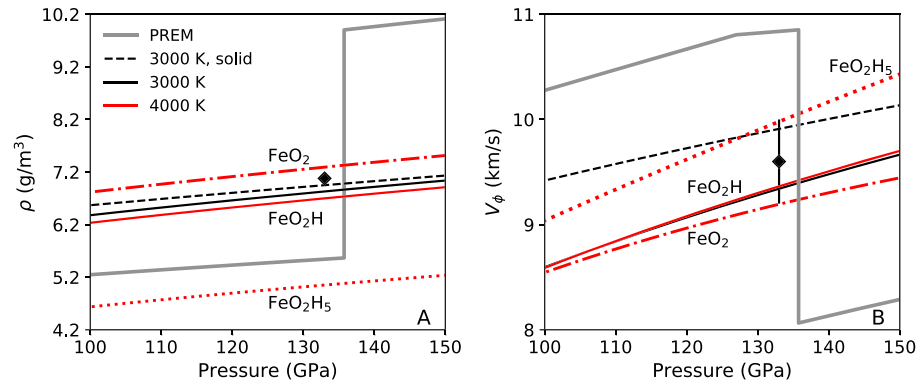
where  $\alpha_0$  and  $\alpha_1$  are the constants. The fitted parameters are summarized in the Table 1 and the results are plotted in Figure 3a.

Our 300-K isotherm calculated using GGA slightly lies above the high-pressure data (Nishi et al., 2017) and the deviation of volume is within ~0.5%. The experimental values seem to fall into two groups, the low-pressure group (<90 GPa) and high-pressure group (>90 GPa). Similar trend can also be identified in a more recent experimental study (Yuan et al., 2018). We speculate that the dichotomy comes from the dehydrogenation of FeO<sub>2</sub>H at high pressure. This speculation is supported by both experimental observations and calculations which show that FeO<sub>2</sub>H <sub>$x$</sub>  ( $x < 1$ ) is more stable at elevated pressure and temperatures (e.g., He et al., 2018; Yuan et al., 2018). This also explains why most of the first-principles studies “overestimate” volume compared with the high-pressure data by Nishi et al. (2017) (see Figure S4). On the other hand, even if no dehydrogenation occurs in the experiments of Nishi et al. (2017), the isothermal bulk modulus  $K_T$  derived by fitting the experimental data directly does not differ much from our results. Within the thermal



**Figure 3.** (a) Pressure-volume results of solid P phase at several temperatures (solid lines and solid circles), compared with experimental data at 300 K (open diamonds, N17; Nishi et al., 2017). (b) Pressure-volume results of FeO<sub>2</sub>H liquid at 3,000, 4,000, and 6,000 K (solid curves with circles). The equation of state of solid FeO<sub>2</sub>H at 3,000 K is shown for comparison (black dashed). Also shown are the calculated results at 4,000 K for liquid FeO<sub>2</sub> (dotted dashed curve) and FeO<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub> (dotted curve).





**Figure 4.** (a) Density and (b) bulk sound velocity of FeO<sub>2</sub>H melt at 3,000 and 4,000 K (solid curves), and P phase at 3,000 K (dashed line). The results for FeO<sub>2</sub> and FeO<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub> liquids are at 4,000 K. Density and bulk sound velocity of PREM model (Dziewonski & Anderson, 1981) and experimental data (diamond) on the bulk sound velocity of FeO<sub>2</sub>H<sub>x</sub> at ~2,600 K (Liu et al., 2017) are plotted for comparison. Legend is the same for (a) and (b).

boundary layer (120 to 136 GPa according to Anderson (2002)), the maximum difference in  $K_T$  is 2.5%, which corresponds to the difference in bulk sound velocity of 1.2% assuming that the density is the same. Such a small difference is insignificant for this study as shown in the following text.

As for the comparison with other calculations, our 300-K isotherm calculated using GGA almost overlaps with the two lowest-pressure experimental data points on FeO<sub>2</sub>H (Lu & Chen, 2018). The differences between GGA and GGA+ $U$  results are small (<1%) in the pressure range considered here (Figure S4). While GGA may not produce the correct electronic band gap (Jang et al., 2017; Streltsov et al., 2017), it produces the pressure-volume results, which are comparable to computationally more costly GGA+ $U$  results. Moreover, appropriate choice of  $U$  and  $J$  parameters is not clear. Therefore, we used GGA to calculate the isotherms of P phase and its liquid state.

For liquid FeO<sub>2</sub>H<sub>x</sub>,  $x$  can span from 0 to values greater than 1.  $x$  greater than 1 is possible only if the ambient mantle is enriched with hydrogen when melting occurs. Here we consider  $x = 0, 1,$  and  $5$ , corresponding to hydrogen-depleted to hydrogen-enriched conditions. Liquid FeO<sub>2</sub>H was simulated at 3,000, 4,000, and 6,000 K, whereas simulations for liquid FeO<sub>2</sub> and FeO<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub> were performed at 4,000 K (Figure 3b). The  $P$ - $V$ - $T$  results are described to the following expression (Karki et al., 2018):

$$P(V, T) = P(V, T_0) + B_{TH}(T - T_0) \quad (4)$$

Here  $P(V, T_0)$  represents the reference isotherm corresponding  $T_0$  taken to be 3,000 K, using a fourth-order Birch-Murnaghan equation of state, and  $B_{TH}$  is defined as

$$B_{TH}(V) = \left[ a - b \left( \frac{V}{V_0} \right) + c \left( \frac{V}{V_0} \right)^2 \right] / 1,000 \quad (5)$$

where  $a, b,$  and  $c$  are the constants. The fitted parameters are summarized in Table 1.

The FPMD results show that both the temperature and hydrogen content increase the volume of liquid FeO<sub>2</sub>H<sub>x</sub>. The latter has much larger effects. Compared with solid FeO<sub>2</sub>H, liquid FeO<sub>2</sub>H is less dense for the entire pressure and temperature range considered (Figure 4a), as one would intuitively expect.

Using the pressure-volume-temperature-energy relationships obtained from the FPMD simulations, we can calculate the heat capacity at constant volume ( $C_V$ ), thermal Gruneisen parameter ( $\gamma$ ), and thermal expansivity ( $\alpha$ ) for both solid and liquid FeO<sub>2</sub>H (Figure S5). Both liquid and solid FeO<sub>2</sub>H display  $C_V$  larger than the Dulong–Petit limit (Figure S5a). Parameter  $\gamma$  of liquid FeO<sub>2</sub>H gradually increases with pressure while  $\gamma$  of solid FeO<sub>2</sub>H stays nearly constant at the pressures considered here (Figure S5b). Liquid FeO<sub>2</sub>H as expected has larger thermal expansion coefficient than its solid counterpart (Figure S5c).

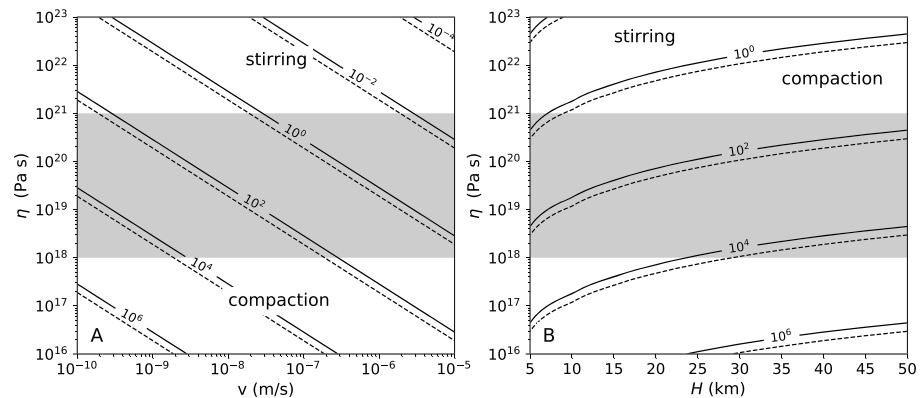
The values of  $\alpha$  and  $\gamma$  are necessary to calculate the adiabatic bulk modulus ( $K_S$ ) from the isothermal bulk modulus ( $K_T$ ), which can be readily evaluated with  $K_T = -(\partial P/\partial \ln V)_T$ . At lowermost mantle conditions,  $\alpha$  and  $\gamma$  of both liquid and solid FeO<sub>2</sub>H vary marginally (Figures S5b and S5c). We thus choose  $\alpha = 2 \times 10^{-5}$  K,  $\gamma = 1.7$  for liquid FeO<sub>2</sub>H and  $\alpha = 1.5 \times 10^{-5}$  K,  $\gamma = 1.8$  for solid FeO<sub>2</sub>H to calculate  $K_S$  around CMB conditions using  $K_S = K_T(1 + \alpha\gamma T)$ . For sake of simplicity, we also assume that liquid FeO<sub>2</sub> and FeO<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub> have the same  $\alpha$  and  $\gamma$  as FeO<sub>2</sub>H. Furthermore, the bulk sound velocity ( $V_\phi$ ) can be evaluated by  $V_\phi = \sqrt{K_S/\rho}$ , where  $\rho$  is the density (Figure 4b). Our  $V_\phi$  of pyrite-type FeO<sub>2</sub>H at 300 and 3,000 K agrees well with Liu et al. (2017) within uncertainties, considering  $x$  of 0.5–0.7 in Liu et al. (2017). An increase in  $x$  has been suggested to increase the sound velocity of P phase (Huang et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2017). Similar to density, the sound velocity of liquid FeO<sub>2</sub>H is much lower than that of its solid counterpart. The sound velocity of liquid FeO<sub>2</sub>H <sub>$x$</sub>  also strongly depends on the hydrogen content (Figure 4a).

#### 4. Implications for ULVZs

Our first principles results suggest that P phase is unlikely to be the source material of ULVZs based on its relatively low melting temperature. However, liquid FeO<sub>2</sub>H <sub>$x$</sub>  may be a potential provenance of ULVZs. First, liquid FeO<sub>2</sub>H <sub>$x$</sub>  is characterized with very low seismic velocity. Its  $V_\phi$  is much lower than the velocity of the isochemical solid and the ambient mantle (Figure 4b). As a result, assuming the *Voigt* average, a mixture of ~20% (by volume) liquid FeO<sub>2</sub>H and the ambient mantle can reproduce the seismic observations in ULVZs, while for pyrite-type FeO<sub>2</sub>H ~60%–70% of P phase is required (Huang et al., 2018). Given that FeO<sub>2</sub>H <sub>$x$</sub>  is a minor mineral in the subducted slabs and also may be partly consumed during the course of subduction by reacting with other volatiles such as CO<sub>2</sub> (Boulard et al., 2018), a smaller demand on the amount of delivered FeO<sub>2</sub>H <sub>$x$</sub>  favors the hypothesis of FeO<sub>2</sub>H <sub>$x$</sub> -induced ULVZs. The 20% liquid FeO<sub>2</sub>H within the ULVZs could be generated by the reaction of the unlimited iron reservoir in the core and the water brought by subduction from the crust and the primordial water in the mantle (Hallis et al., 2015; He et al., 2018) as originally proposed (Liu et al., 2017; Mao et al., 2017). Second, liquid FeO<sub>2</sub>H <sub>$x$</sub>  could be maintained in the ambient mantle without drainage. The density of liquid FeO<sub>2</sub>H <sub>$x$</sub>  is very sensitive to the hydrogen content (Figure 4a). A linear interpolation shows that liquid FeO<sub>2</sub>H <sub>$x$</sub>  could be neutrally buoyant if  $x = \sim 3$ ; that is, FeO<sub>2</sub>H <sub>$x$</sub>  contains ~3.3 wt % hydrogen. In this case, liquid FeO<sub>2</sub>H <sub>$x$</sub>  could mix with the ambient mantle free of gravitational separation.

However, such a large amount of H is difficult to justify, since P phase tends to release hydrogen at elevated temperatures (Liu et al., 2017; Yuan et al., 2018). For  $0 \leq x < 1$ , the FeO<sub>2</sub> melt is quite dense (Figure 4a), but the melt viscosity is likely to be negligibly small compared with solid ambient mantle (Karki & Stixrude, 2010). To maintain such a dense melt within the solid mixture against compaction is difficult (Karato, 2014). Yet this is still achievable provided that the topography of the ULVZ region is maintained by the pressure gradient caused by the convective current above that region, as proposed by Hernlund and Jellinek (2010). The degree to which convective stirring keeps melt in a layer can be evaluated by a nondimensional ability parameter,  $R = \Delta\rho g H^2 / \eta v$ , where  $\Delta\rho$  is the density difference between the melt and solid matrix;  $\eta$  is the viscosity of the solid matrix; and  $H$ ,  $\eta$ , and  $v$  are the height, viscosity, and convective velocity of ULVZ, respectively (Hernlund & Jellinek, 2010; Jellinek & Manga, 2004). If  $R \ll 1$ , convective stirring dominates and a substantial amount of melt could be maintained in a layer. Assuming  $H = 10$  km (the typical thickness of a ULVZ; Bower et al., 2011) and the solid matrix is composed of the same material as the ambient mantle,  $R$  as a function  $\eta$  and  $v$  is estimated (Figure 5a) for two different  $\Delta\rho$ , that is, the density differences between FeO<sub>2</sub> or FeO<sub>2</sub>H and the ambient mantle. The ability for a convective pressure gradient to stir melt ( $R$ ) critically hinges on  $\eta$  and  $v$  and is relatively insensitive to the density of liquid itself. Unfortunately,  $\eta$  and  $v$  of solid matrix of ULVZs are not well constrained. The estimates of  $\eta$  range from  $10^{18}$  to  $10^{21}$  Pa/s (Forte et al., 2015; Nakada & Karato, 2012). The typical mantle convection rate is  $10^{-9}$  m/s. If the material circulation rate within the ULVZs is of the same order of this value, stirring is unlikely even if the viscosity is  $10^{21}$  Pa/s, unless the ULVZs are very thin (<6 km; Figure 5b). However, near the ULVZ region where a large density anomaly likely exists, much larger velocities may be possible (Karato, 2014). In this case, dense FeO<sub>2</sub>H <sub>$x$</sub>  melt may be kept within the ULVZs.





**Figure 5.** The ability factor ( $R$ ) for a convective pressure gradient to stir melt to maintain a ULVZ dynamically stable. (a)  $R$  as function of the viscosity of the solid matrix ( $\eta$ ) and the convecting rate of ULVZs materials ( $v$ ) for two different melts,  $\text{FeO}_2$  (solid contours) and  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}$  (dashed contours), assuming that the thickness of the ULVZ ( $H$ ) is 10 km. (b)  $R$  as function of the viscosity of the solid matrix ( $\eta$ ) and the thickness of ULVZs at a typical convecting rate of ULVZ materials ( $v = 10^{-9}$  m/s).  $R = 1$  divides the parameter space into two regions, that is, compaction dominant ( $R > 1$ ) and stirring dominant ( $R < 1$ ). The shaded bar represents the literature values of mantle viscosity near CMB (Forte et al., 2015; Nakada & Karato, 2012).

## 5. Conclusions

We estimated the congruent melting temperatures of both pyrite-type  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}$  and  $\text{FeO}_2$  using first-principles molecular dynamics method. Our results suggest that P phase, whether it is brought down in to the deep mantle by subducted slabs or formed in the lowermost mantle in some other way (Mao et al., 2017), is likely to melt and remain molten near the CMB where ULVZs are located. Our results also suggest that the sound velocity of liquid  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}$  is much lower than the pyrite-type  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}$  at the same conditions, thus requiring smaller amounts of  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}$  liquid to induce the same amount of seismic reduction in ULVZs.

If a ULVZ is indeed composed of a  $\text{FeO}_2\text{H}_x$  melt-bearing slurry, it would be melt-enriched near the top relative to the bottom (Hernlund & Jellinek, 2010) and consequently exhibits the positive gradient in seismic shear velocities, consistent with seismic observations (Rost et al., 2006). However, it requires certain special physical conditions in order to maintain such slurry against compaction. Specifically, these conditions are that hydrogen is extremely enriched ( $x = \sim 3$ ) in the melt, or if  $x$  is small ( $x \ll 3$ ) the viscosity of the surrounding solid matrix is very viscous and/or ULVZs convect much more vigorously compared with the rest of the mantle.

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