

Obtaining the Equation of State for Multiphase Iron under Earth's Core Conditions using Bayesian Statistics

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Key Points:

- Under the framework of Bayesian statistics, the uncertainty of parameters in the multiphase equation of state of iron is quantified.
- A simple and accurate probability method for calculating the phase boundary data of iron is proposed
- EOS estimates Earth's outer core density deficit at 8.7%-9.7% and geomagnetic power output from inner core cooling at 0.458-6.002 TW.

Plain Language Summary

Iron constitutes the primary element of the Earth's core, and understanding its thermodynamic properties is essential. The equation of state for iron is crucial for these insights. However, the inherent uncertainties in experimental data can significantly impact the parameters that define iron's equation of state. To address this, we employed Bayesian statistics coupled with Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) simulations, allowing us to quantify the uncertainties surrounding these parameters. In our approach, we developed a straightforward yet effective method to calculate the probability associated with phase boundary data during the simulation process. The outcomes from our simulations yielded an equation of state that precisely mirrored a variety of experimental data sets, including phase boundary measurements, static pressure readings under diverse conditions, shock wave observations, and acoustic velocity determinations across different states. Armed with 100 posterior parameter samples, we honed in on the Earth's outer core density deficit, predicting it to fall within a range of approximately 8.7% to 9.7%. Furthermore, we estimated the geodynamo power output, generated by the latent heat released during the cooling and solidification of the Earth's inner core, to be between 0.458 and 6.002 terawatts.

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31 **Abstract**

32 Iron is the primary constituent element of Earth’s core, and its equation of state
 33 plays a pivotal role in understanding the thermodynamic properties of the core. How-
 34 ever, uncertainties in experimental data have significant effects on the parameters within
 35 the iron equation of state. Using Bayesian statistical analysis coupled with Markov chain
 36 Monte Carlo (MCMC) simulation methods, we quantified the uncertainties in the equa-
 37 tion of state parameters. During the simulation process, we proposed a simple yet ef-
 38 ficient computational method for determining the probability of phase boundary data.
 39 The equation of state we obtained accurately reproduces various experimental data, in-
 40 cluding phase boundary experiments, static pressure data under different conditions, shock
 41 wave data, and sound velocity data at different states. With 100 posterior parameter sam-
 42 ples, we predict that the density deficit of Earth’s outer core falls within a range of ap-
 43 proximately 8.7% to 9.7%, and the geodynamo power output due to latent heat release
 44 during the cooling and solidification of Earth’s inner core is estimated to be between 0.458
 45 to 6.002 terawatts.

46 **1 Introduction**

47 The Earth’s core is primarily composed of iron, with minor inclusions of lighter el-
 48 ements such as nickel, sulfur, and oxygen (Li & Fei, 2014; Hirose et al., 2021). Iron sig-
 49 nificantly influences the propagation of seismic waves, and by meticulously analyzing these
 50 waves in conjunction with the equation of state for iron, we can deduce the spatial dis-
 51 tribution of iron and other light elements within the core (Dziewoński & Anderson, 1981;
 52 Ichikawa et al., 2014; Kuwayama et al., 2020), thus revealing its complex structure. Ad-
 53 ditionally, the formation of the Earth’s magnetic field is linked to the flow in the elec-
 54 trically conductive liquid outer core, a process driven by thermal convection (Labrosse,
 55 2014; Singh et al., 2023a). Therefore, an in-depth study of the physical properties of iron
 56 under core conditions is of irreplaceable importance for elucidating the generation mech-
 57 anism and evolutionary history of the Earth’s magnetic field. Overall, investigating the
 58 thermodynamic behavior of iron under extreme high pressure is crucial for addressing
 59 fundamental questions about the Earth’s core structure and dynamics; the precise equa-
 60 tion of state for iron is key to these research topics.

61 Traditional methods for determining parameters in the equation of state model may
 62 introduce inaccuracies due to data uncertainty. Recognizing this is particularly impor-
 63 tant when studying the role of iron in the Earth’s core. Although past studies have ex-
 64 plored the equation of state for iron experimentally, they often did not utilize Bayesian
 65 data analysis, which incorporates prior knowledge and data uncertainty. Bayesian meth-
 66 ods provide a probability distribution of parameters, continually updating it with new
 67 data, thus enhancing simulation accuracy and deepening our understanding of Earth’s
 68 interior processes. In the Bayesian framework, conventional approaches determine phase
 69 transition boundaries based on Gibbs free energy but require complex numerical com-
 70 putations. To simplify this, Lindquist and Jadrach (Lindquist & Jadrach, 2022) introduced
 71 a model that categorized phase diagram data effectively. We focus on solving the phase
 72 boundary problem quickly and accurately, avoiding numerical inversion while adhering
 73 to the principle of equal Gibbs free energy between phases, significantly improving ef-
 74 ficiency and accurately reproducing phase boundaries.

75 **2 Simulation Methodology and Details**

76 In data analysis, Bayesian statistics and Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC) meth-
 77 ods are closely coupled to effectively manage uncertainty. Bayesian inference combines
 78 prior knowledge with new data to generate probabilistic distributions of model param-
 79 eters, offering a more holistic perspective on uncertainty than traditional methods. In

the study of multiphase equations, leveraging phase boundary data to constrain model parameters is an efficient approach, typically involving measurements of pressure (P) and temperature (T). Conventional methods are based on the principle of Gibbs free energy equilibrium and require numerical inversion to determine the relationship between P and T (P(T) or T(P)) for subsequent MCMC calculations of system state probabilities. However, this computational process is costly when dealing with complex inverse relationships between P and T. To enhance efficiency, Lindquist and Jadrach (Lindquist & Jadrach, 2022) innovatively transformed phase diagram data into a probability classification problem in their study of carbon’s equation of state, achieving notable success. We also propose a simplified method that avoids complex numerical inversion while maintaining equal Gibbs free energy at phase boundaries. Specifically, we use probability estimates derived from indirect measurements to handle phase boundaries, rather than direct measurement-based probability computations, thus obtaining the P-T relationship without the need for numerical inversion, significantly improving computational efficiency. The details of our innovative phase boundary handling technique and parameter quantification can be found in the supplementary materials Text S2 and Text S3.

3 Multi-phase state equation of iron

In this study, we utilized the Python-emcee library (Foreman-Mackey et al., 2013) for parameter sampling, coupled with Python-numpy (Harris et al., 2020) for efficient data manipulation, and leveraged Python-seaborn (Waskom, 2021) to create visualizations, thereby facilitating in-depth analysis and intuitive representation of the data. Employing Bayesian theory and MCMC sampling techniques, we obtained a set of samples for the 40-dimensional parameters within the model (Dorogokupets, 2017). Through marginalization, we derived the marginal posterior distributions for each parameter, presenting them graphically to illustrate individual parameter behavior. Additionally, we computed and plotted a correlation matrix to visually depict inter-parameter relationships. Furthermore, based on 1000 sets of sample parameters, we estimated the parameter values corresponding to the maximum posterior probability (MPP). Detailed results can be found in the supplementary information Text S4.

The Fig.1 shows the phase diagram obtained using Maximum Posterior Probability (MPP) for parameter estimation. Along the isotherm at 300K, we calculate the bcc-hcp phase transition pressure to be 16.9 GPa. At a pressure of 0.1 MPa, the transformation temperatures from bcc(a) to fcc and from bcc(delta) to fcc are calculated to be 1190 K and 1611 K, respectively, with the melting point reaching 1801 K. We further computed the triple points where the bcc-fcc-liquid triple point is located at 6.0 GPa and 1994 K, the bcc-fcc-hcp triple point at 11.6 GPa and 774 K, and the fcc-hcp-liquid triple point at 109.5 GPa and 3698 K. Near the fcc-hcp-liquid triple point, our calculated phase boundary lines agree with the experimental data of Anzellini et al (Anzellini et al., 2013) and Morard et al (Morard et al., n.d.), but there is a discrepancy with the data of Sinmyo et al (Sinmyo et al., 2018). This mismatch may arise because our simulation dataset only included Morard’s experimental data. In the high-pressure region, our calculated melting line for the hcp phase aligns with data based on ab initio free energy calculations (Alfè et al., 2002) and experimental data obtained by Li et al (Li et al., 2020). Additionally, the figure depicts the shock Hugoniot within the hcp phase, plotted using 100 sets of parameters, represented by thick black lines. The calculated shock curve intersects the melting line at the shock-induced melting point, which is located at 215 GPa and 5100 K. (The relationship between the shock wave and particle velocity used here is based on research by Brown (Brown et al., 2000).) From the overall results, our calculated outcomes can accurately reproduce the phase boundary data and the shock Hugoniot within the hcp phase.

The Fig.2 displays the deviations between the pressure values calculated using MPP parameters for the various phases of iron (bcc, fcc, hcp, liquid) and the reference datasets.

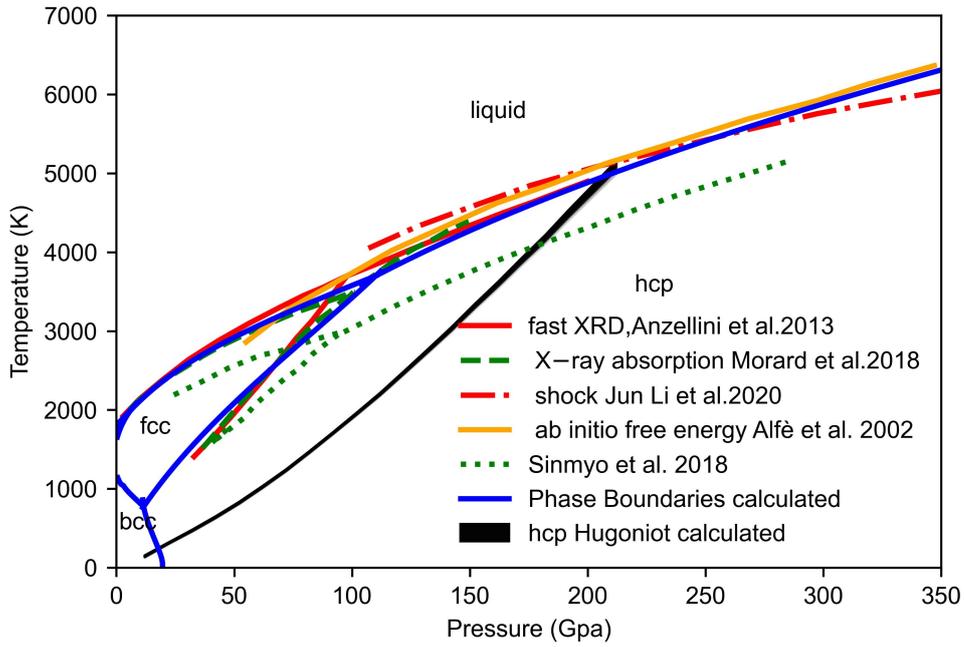


Figure 1. The figure presents a comparison of the calculated phase boundaries for iron obtained using maximum a posteriori parameter estimates against the reference boundary data (Anzellini et al., 2013; Morard et al., n.d.; Li et al., 2020; Alfè et al., 2002; Sinmyo et al., 2018). The black shaded area represents the shock curves within the hcp phase, computed using 100 sets of parameters; the relationship between the shock wave and particle velocity employed here is sourced from Brown (Brown et al., 2000).

132 For the Fe-bcc phase, based on experimental data (Zhang & Guyot, 1999; Dewaele et
133 al., 2015; Dewaele & Garbarino, 2017; Liu et al., 2013; Shibazaki et al., 2016), the max-
134 imum deviation of our calculated results is less than 2 GPa. In the Fe-fcc phase, the max-
135 imum discrepancy between our computed pressure data and the experimental pressure
136 data does not exceed 5 GPa (Nishihara et al., 2012; Shibazaki et al., 2020; Funamori et
137 al., 1996; Anzellini et al., 2013; Komabayashi & Fei, 2010). Regarding the Fe-hcp phase,
138 except for one set of anomalous data points (Tateno et al., 2010), the deviations of other
139 data (Ohtani et al., 2013; Shahar et al., 2016; Sakai et al., 2014; Komabayashi et al., 2009;
140 Yamazaki et al., 2012; Anzellini et al., 2013; González-Cataldo & Militzer, 2023) from
141 our calculations are mostly within 10 GPa. However, some experimental data for the liq-
142 uid phase (Kuwayama et al., 2020) show significant differences with the calculated re-
143 sults, which is likely due to substantial experimental errors. These experimental data
144 were measured at multiple temperatures, not under isothermal conditions, and due to
145 the density of the data, it is difficult to clearly label each temperature point on the graph.

146 The Fig.3 presents a comparison between the calculated shock-experiment-based
147 pressures and the actual experimental measurements. Our calculations indicate that the
148 onset of the shock melting curve for hcp iron occurs at a pressure of 215 GPa. However,
149 the majority of empirical evidence suggests that the actual shock melting pressure is around
150 220 GPa. Therefore, Fig.3(a) focuses on the shock pressure range below 220 GPa, illus-
151 trating the deviation between the calculated shock pressure data and the experimentally
152 determined pressure values within this range. As can be seen from the figure, these devi-
153 ations are kept within 5 GPa, demonstrating a high degree of consistency between the
154 our calculated results and experimental observations. To further understand the behav-
155 ior of iron under extreme conditions, particularly in the fully molten state, Fig.3(b) pro-
156 vides a detailed comparison between computational and experimental data within the
157 dynamic high-pressure range of 260 to 480 GPa. In this higher pressure interval, most
158 of the data deviations are still maintained below 10 GPa, indicating that even under very
159 high dynamic pressures, our computational data maintains good agreement with the ex-
160 perimental data (Brown & McQueen, 1986; Brown et al., 2000; W. W. Anderson & Ahrens,
161 1994; Li et al., 2020), thereby validating the accuracy and reliability of our computational
162 results. Synthesizing these findings, our equations of state obtained through MPP pa-
163 rameter estimations are capable of effectively replicating the pressure characteristics of
164 iron across a considerable range.

165 The Fig.4(a) demonstrates that at room temperature conditions (300 K), the cal-
166 culated bulk wave speeds in the hexagonal close-packed (hcp) structure across various
167 pressures (30-170 GPa) are higher relative to Murphy's experimental data (Murphy et
168 al., 2013), yet within this pressure range, we also identified that Ohtani's longitudinal
169 wave speed experimental data (Ohtani et al., 2013) are consistently higher than Mur-
170 phet's measurements. Fig.4(b) shows that within this temperature range, our computed
171 sound velocity data exhibit good agreement with Kuwayama's experimental results (Kuwayama
172 et al., 2020) from High-pressure inelastic x-ray scattering (IXS) measurements of liquid
173 iron. Moreover, when comparing our shock-induced high-pressure acoustic speeds to the
174 findings of Anderson's research (W. W. Anderson & Ahrens, 1994), our calculations re-
175 veal a maximum deviation of less than 6.6%, thus confirming the consistency and accu-
176 racy of our work.

177 Furthermore, in the supplementary material Text S5 section, this study compares
178 a series of experimental measurements of physical properties with the results calculated
179 from 100 parameter samples derived from posterior distribution sampling. Our compu-
180 tational findings indicate that the heat capacity of the body-centered cubic (bcc) struc-
181 ture is largely consistent with the experimental data reported by Desai (Desai, 1986).
182 However, at the Curie temperature of 1043 K, the experimentally measured heat capac-
183 ity significantly exceeds our computational results, which may be attributed to an in-
184 sufficient model description of the ferromagnetic transition process. Regarding the ther-

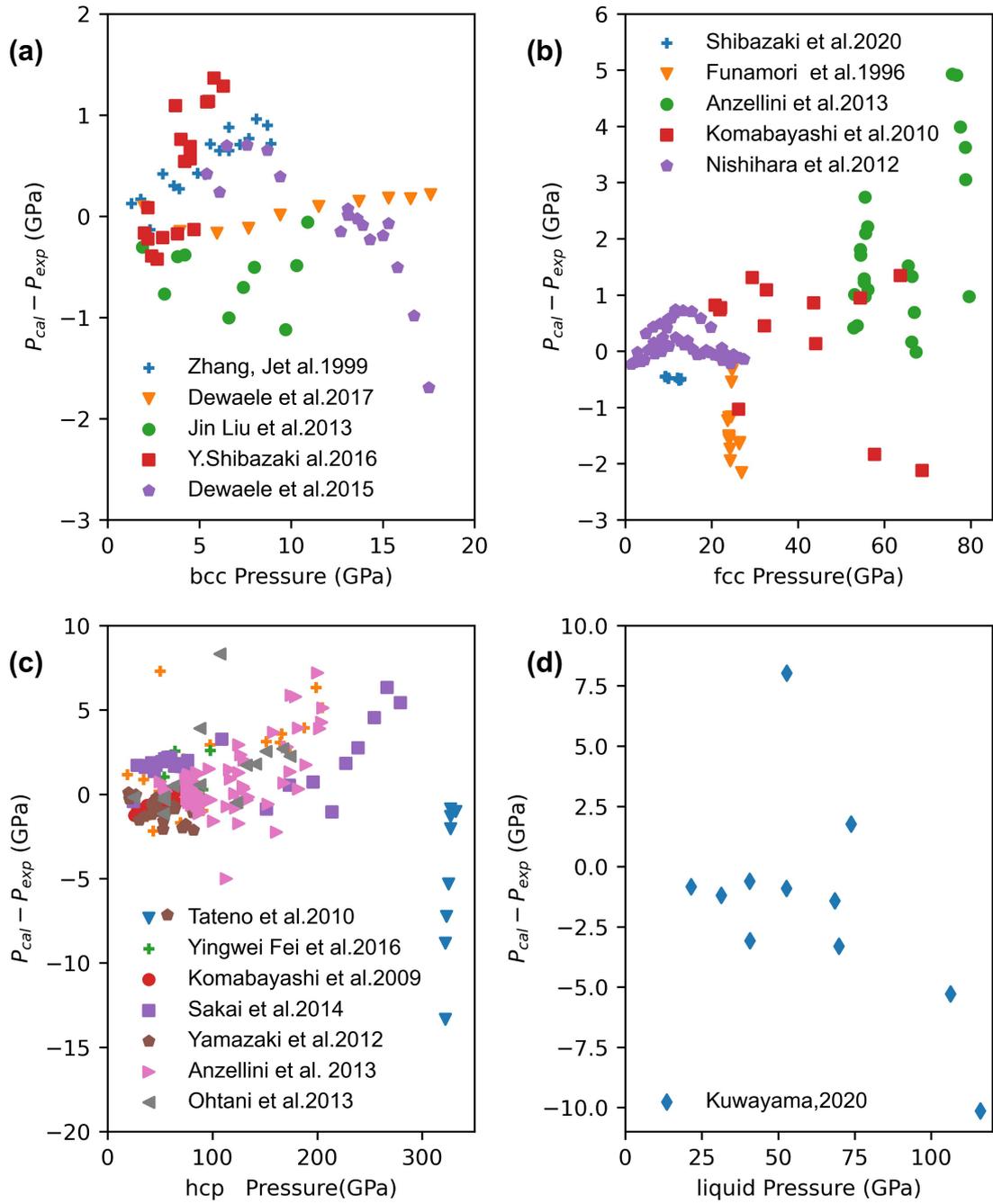


Figure 2. The Fig.2 illustrates the discrepancies between the pressure values computed utilizing MPP parameters applied to various phases of Iron - bcc (a), fcc (b), hcp (c), Liquid (d) - and corresponding reference static high pressure data sets.

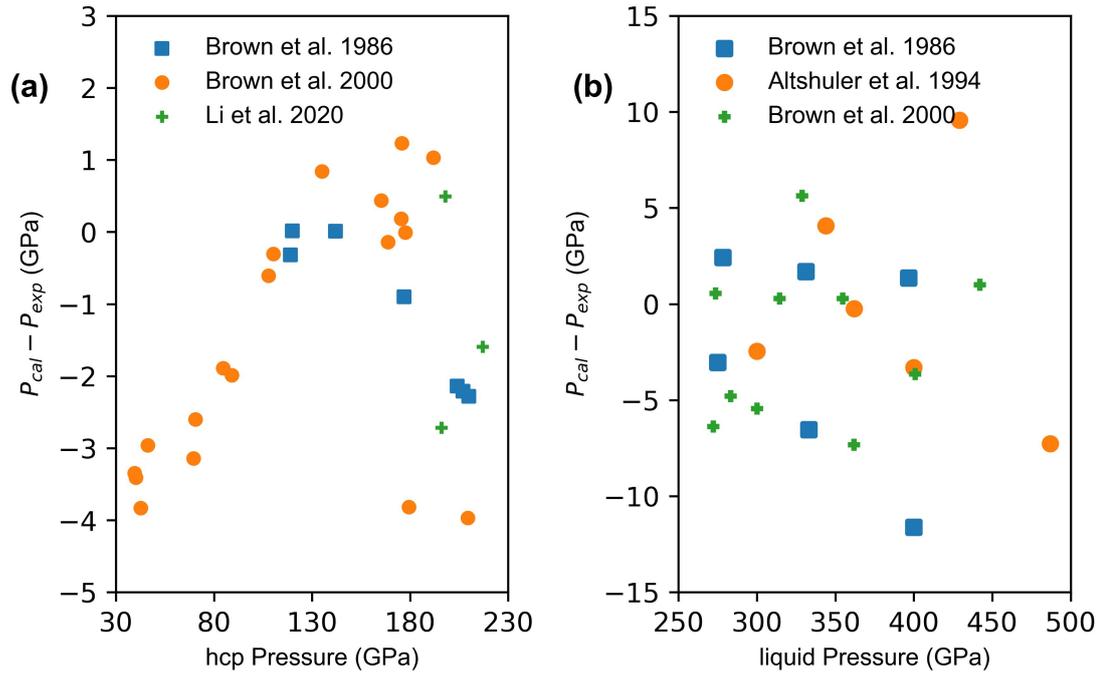


Figure 3. The picture we use MPP parameters estimation to calculate the differences between the computed dynamic high-pressure data for the hcp phase and the liquid phase, and compare them with the corresponding shock experimental data (Brown & McQueen, 1986; Brown et al., 2000; W. W. Anderson & Ahrens, 1994; Li et al., 2020).

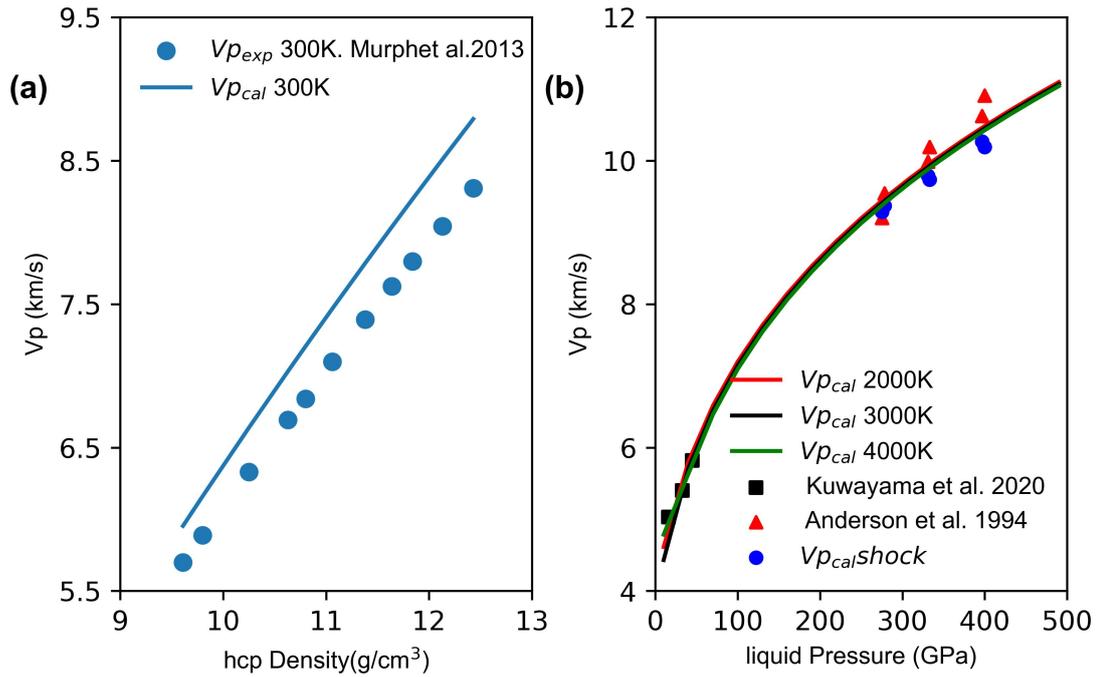


Figure 4. In figure (a), the blue solid line indicates the bulk sound speed of hcp-iron at 300K as calculated by us, and the corresponding blue dots represent experimental data from Murphy (Murphy et al., 2013). In the figure (b), solid lines show our calculated sound speeds at 2000K, 3000K, and 4000K. Black squares are IXS experimental data (Kuwayama et al., 2020); red triangles, shock experiment data (W. W. Anderson & Ahrens, 1994); and blue circles, corresponding shock calculation results.

185 mal expansion coefficient of iron in bcc and face-centered cubic (fcc) structures, our cal-
 186 culations are in agreement with the experimental data from Dorogokupets’s supplemen-
 187 tary materials (Dorogokupets, 2017) at lower temperatures; however, at higher temper-
 188 atures, the computed values are slightly below the experimental observations, possibly
 189 due to inadequate experimental constraints applied during the simulation phase. Con-
 190 cerning the isothermal pressure curves of solid phases, our computational results demon-
 191 strate that the pressure curves for bcc-Fe at 15 K and 300 K, as well as fcc-Fe at 1073
 192 K and 1273 K, and hcp-Fe at various temperatures, closely match the experimental data
 193 (Dewaele & Garbarino, 2017; Liu et al., 2013; Nishihara et al., 2012; Fei et al., 2016).
 194 Similar to the heat capacity calculations, the uncertainty range of the isothermal pres-
 195 sure curves is relatively small.

196 Overall, by utilizing Bayesian statistical theory and MCMC sampling methods, we
 197 have systematically obtained the uncertainties of the parameters in iron’s equation of
 198 state. The simulation results effectively model the diverse behaviors of iron under var-
 199 ious conditions of pressure, volume, and temperature, including heat fusion and ther-
 200 mal expansion at ambient pressure as temperatures change, pressure variations at dif-
 201 ferent temperatures, and performance during shock experiments and phase boundary tran-
 202 sitions. We achieved equation of state predictions for pressures that cover the range of
 203 the Earth’s core, with subsequent presentation of our predictions for the thermodynamic
 204 properties of the Earth’s core to follow.

205 **4 Applications under the Earth core conditions**

206 To accurately quantify certain thermodynamic properties of the Earth’s core, we
 207 selected 100 sets of sample parameters to assess the uncertainty range in predicted phys-
 208 ical quantities introduced by calibration data errors through simulation calculations.

209 In the simulation study, we have conducted calculations on the melting character-
 210 istics of pure iron under conditions at the Earth’s Inner Core Boundary (ICB), where
 211 at a pressure of 330 GPa, the theoretical melting temperature range for pure iron is be-
 212 tween 5997 K and 6262 K. However, the actual melting temperature in the core might
 213 be lower due to the presence of lighter elements. To validate these computational results
 214 against geological experimental data, we plotted the density(ρ), sonic velocity(V_P), and
 215 shear modulus(K_S) of liquid pure iron at various temperatures (4000 K, 5000 K, and 6000
 216 K) under ICB pressure, comparing them with data from the Preliminary Reference Earth
 217 Model (PREM) (Dziewoński & Anderson, 1981). The relevant details are shown in the
 218 Fig.5. The solid-liquid phase transition temperatures (at the CMB) computed by us spanned
 219 intervals of (2928 K-3086 K), (3621 K-3795 K), and (4297 K-4479 K). When setting T_{ICB}
 220 at 5000 K, this upper limit approximates the 3800 K proposed by Brown and McQueen
 221 in 1986 (Brown & McQueen, 1986), as well as the 3739 K given by Stacey and Davis in
 222 2004 (Stacey & Davis, 2004). Adopting a value of 4676 K yields a CMB temperature range
 223 of (3398 K-3568 K), which aligns closely with Anderson’s 3637 K and Ichikawa’s 3585
 224 K (Ichikawa et al., 2014).

225 Assuming T_{ICB} to be 5000 K, the estimated densities of liquid iron at the CMB
 226 and ICB conditions are respectively (10.854 g/cm³- 10.786 g/cm³) and (13.226 g/cm³ -
 227 13.348 g/cm³). Moreover, the graphs reveal that both the sonic velocity and shear mod-
 228 ulus exhibit relatively low sensitivity to temperature changes; our computations show
 229 that the outer core’s values in these two physical parameters are nearly consistent with
 230 PREM data, with small discrepancies in sonic velocity. The figures also demonstrate that
 231 the difference in density between solid and liquid iron $\Delta\rho_{solid}$ at the ICB is less than the
 232 density change resulting from internal state variations within liquid iron $\Delta\rho_{liquid}$, sug-
 233 gesting compositional differences between the inner and outer cores. Nevertheless, the
 234 calculated density deviation range for the outer core (8.7% to 9.7%) provides a strong
 235 constraint on the content of light elements.

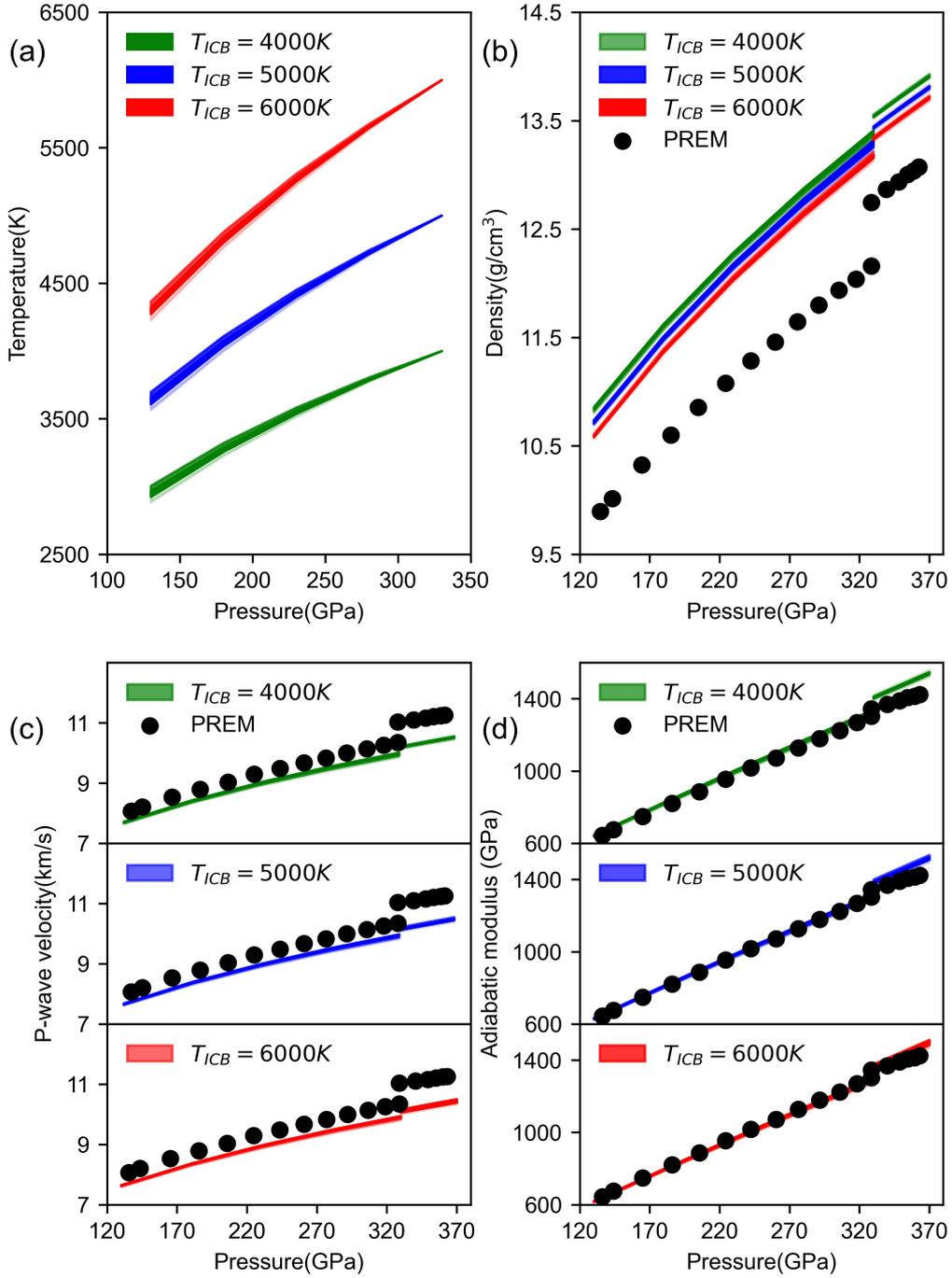


Figure 5. A comparison of the physical properties of liquid iron and hcp-iron, calculated based on an isentropic temperature profile, is conducted in conjunction with the PREM (Dziewoński & Anderson, 1981) data. Calculated isentropic temperature profile (a). Calculated density along the T_{ICB} isentrope (b). Calculated P-wave velocity along the isentrope (c). Calculated adiabatic bulk modulus along adiabats for solid and liquid iron (d). (When T_{ICB} takes the values of 4000 K, 5000 K, and 6000 K respectively)

236 The latent heat of fusion (ΔH_m) released during the solidification of iron at the
 237 Earth's Inner Core Boundary plays a critical role in driving external convection in the
 238 core, contributing approximately 20% to the total energy. Based on the newly calculated
 239 latent heat of fusion for iron under ICB conditions-(0.526-0.973 kJ/g) -we re-evaluated
 240 the total energy released during Earth's core cooling process and its corresponding power
 241 output. Multiplying this latent heat by the mass of the core, estimated to be around 1.1
 242 $\times 10^{23}$ kg, results in a total energy release of 8.987×10^2 joules. Considering the short-
 243 est (0.565 billion years) and longest (4 billion years) estimates for the age of the core,
 244 and converting these durations into seconds, we further derived the power output range
 245 across these timescales: at the shortest time scale, the power output is approximately
 246 3.244-6.002 TW, while at the longest time scale, it reduces to about 0.458-0.848 TW.
 247 This lower bound of the power output is essentially consistent with the results obtained
 248 by Singh (Singh et al., 2023b). These calculations provide a rough yet significant esti-
 249 mate, indicating that even over vast geological timescales, the Earth's core cooling pro-
 250 cess continuously releases enormous amounts of energy, which significantly sustains the
 251 operation of the geodynamo.

252 5 Conclusions

253 In this paper, we perform uncertainty quantization for parameters up to 40 dimen-
 254 sions in the multiphase iron equation of state based on Bayesian theory and MCMC sam-
 255 pling. When handling phase boundary data, we employ probability estimates derived
 256 from indirect measurements in lieu of direct measurement-based probability computa-
 257 tions, allowing us to obtain the functional relationship between pressure and tempera-
 258 ture without resorting to numerical inversion, significantly enhancing computational ef-
 259 ficiency. The uncertainty quantization results of the parameters in the iron multiphase
 260 equation of state can not only reproduce the pressure, thermal fusion, modulus and ex-
 261 pansion coefficient well, but also reproduce the phase diagram information and impact
 262 temperature data well. Under the assumption of an Inner Core Boundary (ICB) tem-
 263 perature of 5000 K, we have computed the range of density variation of liquid iron in
 264 the outer core region to be between 8.7% to 9.7%. This precise density differential data
 265 effectively constrains the estimation of possible light element content within the outer
 266 core. Furthermore, we have also reassessed the contribution to geomagnetic dynamo out-
 267 put power resulting from latent heat release during Earth's inner core cooling and so-
 268 lidification process, estimating this figure to fall within the interval of 0.458 to 6.002 TW.
 269 This body of research findings holds significant implications for advancing our under-
 270 standing of the evolutionary history of the Earth's core.

271 Open Research Section

272 Data used in this study are available through the following sources:(Li et al., 2020;
 273 Morard et al., n.d.; O. L. Anderson, 1986; Kaufman et al., 1963; Johnson et al., 1962;
 274 Zhang & Guyot, 1999; Dewaele et al., 2015; Dewaele & Garbarino, 2017; Liu et al., 2013;
 275 Shibazaki et al., 2016; Nishihara et al., 2012; Shibazaki et al., 2020; Funamori et al., 1996;
 276 Anzellini et al., 2013; Komabayashi & Fei, 2010; Ohtani et al., 2013; Shahar et al., 2016;
 277 Sakai et al., 2014; Komabayashi et al., 2009; Yamazaki et al., 2012; González-Cataldo
 278 & Militzer, 2023; Kuwayama et al., 2020; Brown & McQueen, 1986; Brown et al., 2000;
 279 W. W. Anderson & Ahrens, 1994; Desai, 1986)

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