

# Water in the Mantle



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**S**ubducting slabs transport water stored in hydrous minerals into the transition zone and lower mantle. The water storage capacity of the upper and lower mantles is less than 0.2 wt%. The transition zone has a storage capacity of approximately 0.5–1 wt% due to a water solubility of about 1–3 wt% in wadsleyite and ringwoodite, which are the major constituents of the transition zone. Thus, the transition zone may be a major water reservoir in the Earth's interior. Recent geophysical observations suggest the existence of the hydrated transition zone beneath subduction zones. Water or hydrogen may be transported as far as the bottom of the lower mantle by reacting with metallic iron in the lower mantle to form hydrous phases or iron hydride.

KEYWORDS: water, subduction, slab, mantle, transition zone, DHMS phase

## INTRODUCTION

Water transport from the surface to Earth's deep interior and its circulation on a global scale are key to understanding the evolution of the planet. Peacock (1990) estimated that the amount of water transported by subducting slabs containing pelagic sediments is approximately  $0.7 \times 10^{11}$  kg/year for the sediments plus  $8 \times 10^{11}$  kg/year for the oceanic crust. Thus, the total amount of water that is returned to the Earth's mantle is estimated to be  $8.7 \times 10^{11}$  kg/year. This quantity is probably a lower limit, because the amount of water stored in the peridotite layer of the slabs is not included in the estimate. Peacock (1990) also estimated that the amounts of water out-gassed from the mantle through magmatism in arcs and in mid-oceanic ridges are  $1.4 \times 10^{11}$  kg/year and  $0.6 \times 10^{11}$  kg/year, respectively, giving a total amount of water out-gassed from the mantle to the surface equal to  $2.0 \times 10^{11}$  kg/year. This imbalance between the amount of water returned by subduction and that out-gassed from the mantle suggests that some water may be transported into the deep mantle by deep, global water circulation. Other possibilities to account for the lost water include hydration of the mantle wedge overlying the subducting slab (Peacock 1990).

Williams and Hemley (2001) discussed the global water budget and circulation (Fig. 1). Recent seismic tomography studies indicate that subducting slabs penetrate into the lower mantle and possibly accumulate at the mantle-core boundary (e.g., Fukao et al. 2001; Grand 2002). These observations suggest that water trapped in the slabs may be

transported to the core-mantle boundary region at approximately 2900 km depth. The water transport capacity of different slabs will probably vary, depending on their thermal state. Hot and young slabs generally transport little water into the deep mantle. Colder slabs, with a lower geothermal gradient, may transport significant amounts of water into the deep mantle, although their water transport capacity is still a matter of debate (Poli and Schmidt 2002).

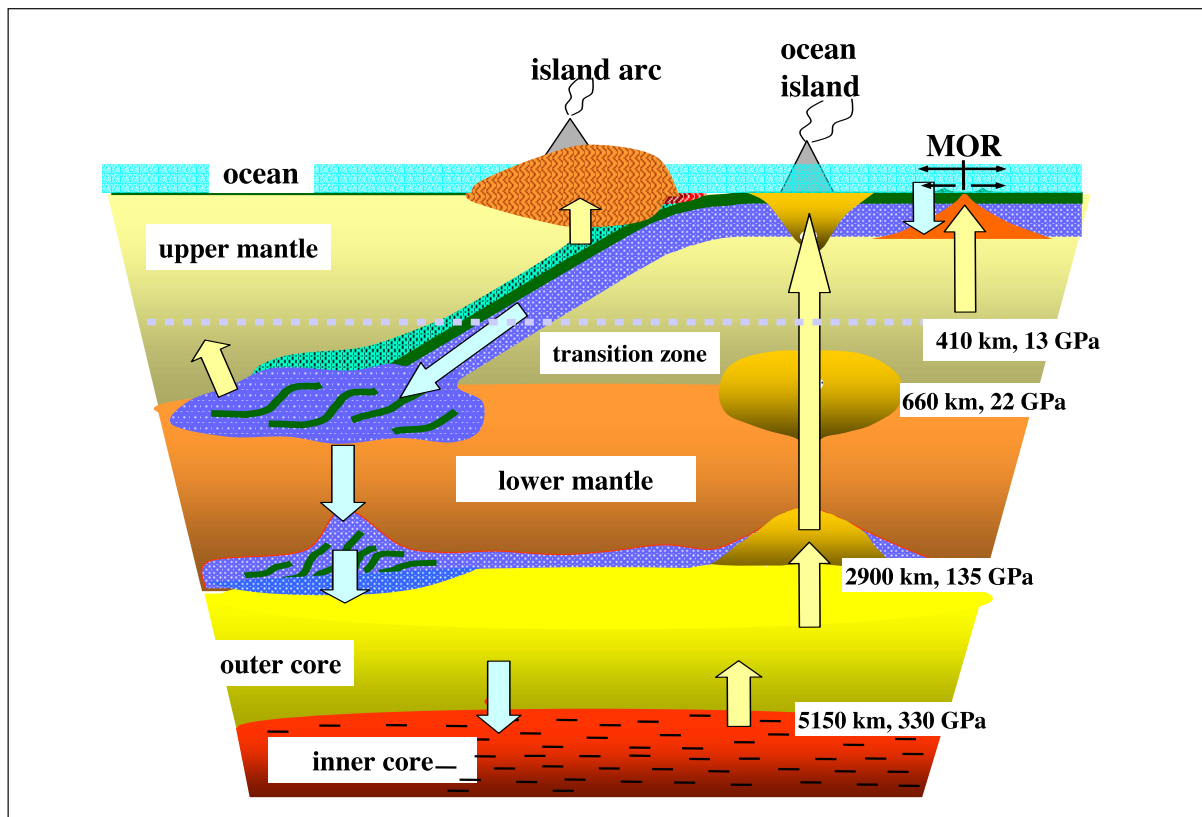
Water plays an important role in the evolution of Earth because water or hydrogen change the physical properties of mantle materials, including the melting temperature, viscosity, and diffusion rate. Hot plumes under wet conditions may be partially molten due to the depression of the melting temperature (e.g., Litasov and Ohtani 2003b; Ohtani et al. 2004). Water also affects mantle convection and the dynamics of ascending plumes, because a trace amount of water lowers the viscosity of the mantle through a process known as hydrolytic weakening (e.g., Mei and Kohlstedt 2000). Water also enhances the diffusion of elements and the kinetics of phase transformations (e.g., the  $\alpha$ - $\beta$  transformation in  $Mg_2SiO_4$ ; Kubo et al. 1998). Water affects the position of phase boundaries such as the  $\alpha$ - $\beta$  transformation in the  $Mg_2SiO_4$ - $Fe_2SiO_4$  system (e.g., Wood 1995) and is responsible for the transport of dissolved components.

In this paper, we review the mechanisms of water transport into the transition zone and lower mantle by subducting slabs and the water storage capacity of the mantle. We also present evidence for the existence of water in subducting slabs, at the base of the upper mantle, and in the transition zone.

## TRANSPORT OF WATER IN THE MANTLE

A number of studies have clarified the stability of hydrous phases in peridotite, basalt, and sediment components of slabs at high pressure and temperature. Ringwood and his colleagues made pioneering studies of the existence and stability of hydrous minerals and reported several high-pressure hydrous mineral phases such as phases A, B, and C (e.g., Ringwood and Major 1967). These mineral phases are dense hydrous magnesium silicates, DHMS (Table 1). Many hydrous mineral phases, including DHMS, are stable only at the low temperatures representative of slab conditions; they are not stable along the normal mantle geotherm.

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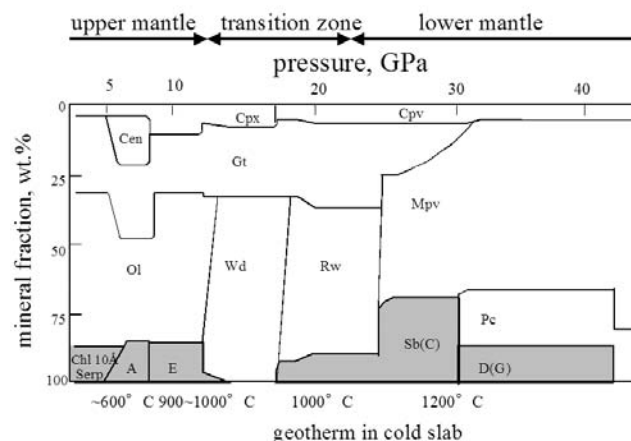
**FIGURE 1** Schematic model for global water circulation. The model by Williams and Hemley (2001) is modified in this figure, based on Maruyama et al. (2001) and Ohtani et al. (2004, 2005). Arrows indicate directions of water or hydrogen movement.

In the peridotite layer of subducting slabs, a series of hydrous phases are stable along the slab geotherm (Fig. 2). The major hydrous phases in the peridotite layer of the slab change continuously from chlorite to serpentine to the 10Å phase (Fumagalli et al. 2001) in the upper mantle. At higher pressures, water can be transported by phase A, the stability of which overlaps that of serpentine or the 10Å phase in cold slabs (e.g., Poli and Schmidt 2002). Water can also be transported by phase E, wadsleyite, and ringwoodite. The major phases in the transition zone, wadsleyite and ringwoodite, can accommodate 1 to 3 wt% water as shown in TABLE 1 (e.g., Inoue et al. 1995; Kohlstedt et al. 1996). Superhydrous phase B (which is identical to phase C) can also serve as a water reservoir at the base of the transition zone depending on the water content in the slab. This phase is formed by decomposition of hydrous ringwoodite at the base of the transition zone (Fig. 2). Superhydrous phase B is stable to the top of the lower mantle at a pressure of approximately 30 GPa. It decomposes into periclase, Mg-perovskite, and phase D (identical to phase G), another important hydrous phase that is stable to a pressure of 45 GPa (Shieh et al. 1998).

Extensive work has been conducted on the metamorphic phase relations of the basalt-water system up to 2.5 GPa (e.g., Thompson et al. 1982). Hydrous phases such as lawsonite, zoisite, and chlorite are stable in the hydrated basalt system under these conditions (e.g., Poli and Schmidt 1995). Lawsonite, usually observed in the blueschist facies, has an extremely wide stability field and may occur at pressures as high as 10 GPa or more, which corresponds to a depth of 300 km in the subduction zone environment. Because lawsonite contains a large amount of water (up to 11.5 wt%) and has a wide stability field, it could be a primary carrier of water into the transition zone. Although no hydrous phases exist in the basalt-water system at higher pressures (Okamoto and Maruyama 2004), water (in the form of hydrous phases) trapped in the overlying sediments

or in the peridotite mantle wedge adjacent to the slab can be transported farther into the lower mantle (e.g., Ono 1998; Schmidt and Poli 1998).

Hydrous phases present in pelagic sediments can be estimated based on phase relations in the  $Al_2O_3$ - $SiO_2$ - $H_2O$  system. Diaspore ( $AlOOH$ ) and phase  $\Pi$  [ $Al_3Si_2O_7(OH)_3$ ] are stable to pressures of 6 GPa, and these phases react with



**FIGURE 2** Hydrous phases (shaded) expected to exist in the peridotite-2 wt% water system under typical cold slab conditions. Serp: serpentine; chl: chlorite; 10Å: 10Å phase; A: hydrous phase A; E: hydrous phase E; Ol: olivine; Wd: wadsleyite; Rw: ringwoodite; Gt: garnet; Cen: clinoenstatite; Cpx: clinopyroxene; Sb: superhydrous phase B (= phase C); Mpv: Mg-perovskite; Pc: periclase; D(G): hydrous phase D (= phase G); Cpv: Ca-perovskite.

SiO<sub>2</sub> to form hydrous topaz [Al<sub>2</sub>SiO<sub>4</sub>(OH)<sub>2</sub>; Wunder et al. 1993a, b], which is stable up to 11 GPa at 1000°C. At higher pressures, topaz-OH reacts with SiO<sub>2</sub> to form phase Egg [AlSiO<sub>3</sub>OH; Eggelton et al. 1979; Schmidt et al. 1998; Ono 1999]. Phase Egg decomposes to stishovite and the hydrous phase δ-AIOOH, which is the high-pressure polymorph of diaspore at the top of the lower mantle along the cold slab geotherm (Sano et al. 2004). Phase Egg is stable to temperatures above 1400°C at transition zone depth and decomposes into corundum + stishovite + fluid at higher temperatures (Fig. 3A). In the basalt-water system, no hydrous phase exists after the decomposition of lawsonite in the transition zone, and the fluid formed by dehydration of lawsonite is likely contained in phase Egg or phase δ-AIOOH in the overlying sediment component of the slab.

**TABLE 1**

HYDROUS PHASES EXPECTED IN THE EARTH'S INTERIOR

Name	Formula*	Density g/cm <sup>3</sup>	Mg/Si	H <sub>2</sub> O wt. %
chlorite	Mg <sub>5</sub> Al <sub>2</sub> Si <sub>3</sub> O <sub>10</sub> (OH) <sub>8</sub>	2.6-3.4	1.67	13
serpentine	Mg <sub>3</sub> Si <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub> (OH) <sub>4</sub>	2.55	1.5	14
chondrodite	Mg <sub>5</sub> Si <sub>2</sub> O <sub>8</sub> (OH) <sub>2</sub>	3.06-3.16	2.5	5.3
hydroxylclinohumite	Mg <sub>5</sub> Si <sub>4</sub> O <sub>16</sub> (OH) <sub>2</sub>	3.14-3.26	2.25	3
10Å phase	Mg <sub>3</sub> Si <sub>4</sub> O <sub>14</sub> H <sub>6</sub>	2.65	0.75	13
phase A	Mg <sub>3</sub> Si <sub>2</sub> O <sub>8</sub> (OH) <sub>6</sub>	2.96	3.5	12
phase B	Mg <sub>12</sub> Si <sub>4</sub> O <sub>19</sub> (OH) <sub>2</sub>	3.38	3	2.4
superhydrous phase B(= phase C)	Mg <sub>10</sub> Si <sub>3</sub> O <sub>14</sub> (OH) <sub>4</sub>	3.327	3.3	5.8
phase D(= phase F =phase G)	Mg <sub>1.14</sub> Si <sub>1.73</sub> H <sub>2.81</sub> O <sub>6</sub>	3.5	0.66	14.5~18
phase E	Mg <sub>2.3</sub> Si <sub>1.25</sub> H <sub>2.4</sub> O <sub>6</sub>	2.88	1.84	11.4
wadsleyite	Mg <sub>2</sub> SiO <sub>4</sub>	3.47	2	≤3
ringwoodite	Mg <sub>2</sub> SiO <sub>4</sub>	3.47-3.65	2	1.0-2.2
topaz-OH	Al <sub>2</sub> SiO <sub>4</sub> (OH) <sub>2</sub>	3.37	-	10
diaspore	AlOOH	2.38	-	15
phase Π	Al <sub>3</sub> Si <sub>2</sub> O <sub>7</sub> (OH) <sub>3</sub>	3.23	-	9
phase EGG	AlSiO <sub>3</sub> OH	3.84	-	7.5
phase δ	AlOOH	3.533	-	15
lawsonite	CaAl <sub>2</sub> Si <sub>2</sub> O <sub>10</sub> H <sub>4</sub>	3.09	-	11.5

\* End-member formulas

## STORAGE OF WATER IN EARTH'S INTERIOR

Water transported into the mantle must be stored mainly in nominally anhydrous minerals, as most of the hydrous phases are not stable along the normal mantle geotherm. The solubility of water in nominally anhydrous minerals has been measured for phases that occur under mantle conditions (e.g., Bolfan-Casanova et al. 2000). The water content of lower mantle minerals such as Mg-perovskite, Ca-perovskite, and magnesiowüstite are summarized in TABLE 2. Note that the maximum water

solubility varies with the composition of the Mg-perovskite phases. Pure MgSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite contains less than 500 ppm water (e.g., Meade et al. 1994; Bolfan-Casanova et al. 2002; Litasov et al. 2003), and aluminous perovskite (Al-Mg-perovskite or Al-Fe-Mg-perovskite) in mantle peridotite contains 1100–1800 ppm water. On the other hand, Al-Fe-Mg-perovskite in the basaltic component of the slab contains only 100–400 ppm water (Litasov et al. 2003)

The average lower mantle consists of 80 wt% Mg-perovskite, 15 wt% magnesiowüstite, and 5 wt% Ca-perovskite. Ca-perovskite and magnesiowüstite can accommodate about 0.3–0.4 wt% and 0.2 wt% water, respectively (Murakami et al. 2002). However, Bolfan-Casanova et al. (2002) and Litasov et al. (2003) both reported water contents for magnesiowüstite that are lower than those reported by

**TABLE 2**

WATER CONTENT IN ANHYDROUS MINERAL PHASES

Mineral phases	SiO <sub>2</sub>	TiO <sub>2</sub>	Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	FeO <sup>§</sup>	MgO	Mg#	Pressure GPa	Temperature °C	H <sub>2</sub> O ppmwt	1σ	References
MgSiO <sub>3</sub> perovskite	60.1				40.36	100	25	1300	104	14	1)
Al-Mg perovskite	59.09		2.03		39.77	100	25	1400	101	19	1)
Al-Mg perovskite	57.86		4.43		39.55	100	25	1200	1101	156	1)
Al-Mg perovskite	55.37		7.16		38.18	100	26	1200	1440	160	1)
Al-Fe-Mg perovskite*	36.73	2.18	14.5	26.23	20.15	57.8	26	1000	110	21	1)
Al-Fe-Mg perovskite*	38.11	1.91	13.16	24.52	21.37	60.8	26	1200	104	26	1)
Al-Fe-Mg perovskite*	38.43		16.77	23.4	20.82	61.3	25	1300	47	12	1)
Al-Fe-Mg perovskite**	52.77		5.5	7.39	34.48	0.18	25	1400	1780	175	1)
Al-Fe-Mg perovskite**	53.11		5.8	6.09	34.94	0.15	25	1600	1460	130	1)
MgSiO <sub>3</sub> perovskite	60.1				40.36	100	27	1500	60-70		2)
MgSiO <sub>3</sub> perovskite	60.1				40.36	100	24	1600	<1		3)
Al-Fe-Mg perovskite**			2~6	1~4		100	24		<5		3)
Al-Fe-Mg perovskite**							25.5		1000-4000		4)
Magnesiowüstite							25.5		2000		4)
(=Ferropericlae)							24	1600	2		3)
Periclae					100	100					3)
CaSiO <sub>3</sub> perovskite							25.5		3000-4000		4)

All "perovskites" in table = silicates with a perovskite-like structure. \*: in MORB; \*\*: in peridotite; 1) Litasov et al. (2003); 2) Meade et al. (1994); 3) Bolfan-Casanova et al. (2000); 4) Murakami et al. (2001); §: Iron calculated as ferrous iron

Murakami et al. (2002). From the results on water solubility in lower mantle minerals, we estimate that the average lower mantle peridotite can contain 0.15 to 0.2 wt% water. Therefore, the water storage potential of the lower mantle is estimated to be  $3.4\text{--}4.5 \times 10^{21}$  kg. This is about 2.5–3 times the present ocean mass and is comparable to the amount of water stored in the transition zone.

The major minerals in the transition zone, wadsleyite and ringwoodite, can accommodate a large amount of water. Litasov and Ohtani (2003a) have shown that the maximum water content of wadsleyite at 15 GPa decreases with increasing temperature from 2 wt% at 1000°C to 0.5 wt% at 1600°C, and it decreases further to 0.3 wt% at 18 GPa and 1600°C. Thus, the shallower transition zone has a larger storage capacity for water than the deeper transition zone. The water content of ringwoodite also decreases with increasing temperature at 20 GPa from 2 wt% at 1000°C to 0.5 wt% at 1600°C, although it has a weaker pressure dependence as compared with wadsleyite (Ohtani et al. 2000; Litasov and Ohtani 2003a). The maximum water storage capacity of wadsleyite and ringwoodite is estimated to be about 0.5–1 wt% along the normal mantle geotherm, which corresponds to an amount of water in the mantle two to three times that of the present ocean mass.

Although there are some uncertainties in the water storage capacity of lower mantle minerals, we can generally conclude that there is a layered structure in the water storage capacity of the mantle. The upper and lower mantles have relatively low water storage capacities, whereas the transition zone has a higher water storage capacity. A relatively low water storage capacity in the lower mantle indicates that slabs being subducted into the lower mantle dehydrate at the top of the lower mantle. The water content of the transition zone might be large because the dehydrated water from the subducted slabs together with primordial water in the lower mantle are stored in the transition zone over geologic time.

## GEOPHYSICAL EVIDENCE FOR WATER IN THE DEEP MANTLE

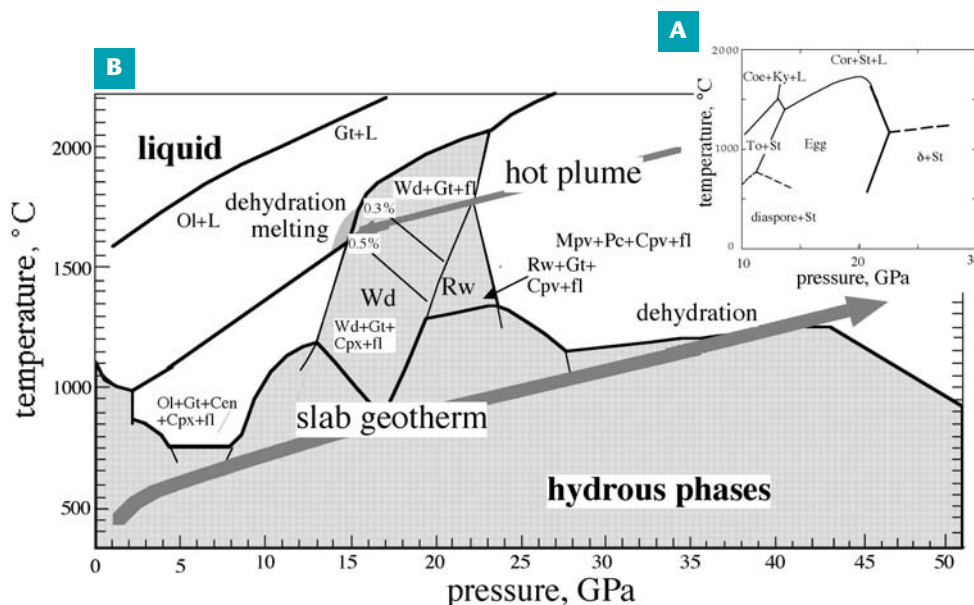
Superhydrous phase B decomposes to Mg-perovskite, periclase, and fluid at 30 GPa and above 1200°C; however, it decomposes into hydrous phase D, Mg-perovskite, and periclase at the same pressure below 1200°C (Ohtani et al. 2003). Water stored in ringwoodite and superhydrous phase B in the transition zone and the uppermost lower mantle may dehydrate at the top of the lower mantle in stagnant slabs (Fig. 3b). Thus, the uppermost lower mantle may be one of the major dehydration regions in the mantle.

In a cold slab, water may be transported into the lower mantle by hydrous phase D (= phase G), which is stable up to about 40 GPa or a depth of 1200 km. At greater pressure, the hydrous phase breaks down (Shieh et al. 1998). Thus, dehydration of a subducting slab could occur in four different regions depending on the temperature profiles of the slabs: (1) the uppermost mantle by the decomposition of serpentine, chlorite, phengite, and lawsonite, which could trigger island arc volcanism; (2) the transition zone by decomposition of phase E and the decrease in the solubility of water in wadsleyite with increasing depth; (3) the upper part of the lower mantle by decomposition of hydrous ringwoodite and/or the superhydrous phase B; and (4) the deep lower mantle (~1200 km) by the decomposition of phase D in the slab (Shieh et al. 1998). Additionally, the base of the upper mantle could be a region of dehydration melting of rising hot and wet plumes, as shown in Figure 3b.

A melt may exist at the base of the upper mantle or above the 410-km discontinuity beneath eastern China (Revenaugh and Sipkin 1994). P-wave tomography studies of those zones and beneath Japan (Zhao 2001, 2004; Fukao et al. 2001) suggest the existence of low-velocity anomalies at the base of the upper mantle and the top of the lower mantle. These sites, as well as the top and base of the transition zone, are plausible sites for dehydration and/or dehydration melting (Fig. 3b).

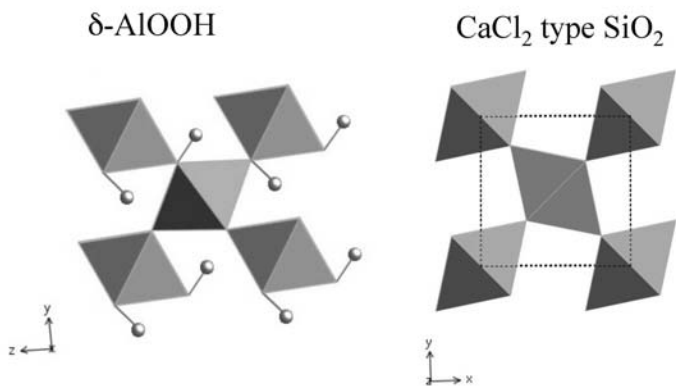
A large (60–70 km) upward deflection of the 410-km discontinuity in the Izu–Bonin slab has been reported by Collier et al. (2001). They have argued that the discontinuity can be explained by the equilibrium olivine–wadsleyite transformation boundary in the cold slab. In such a cold slab condition, metastable olivine is inevitable due to its sluggish transformation kinetics under dry conditions (e.g., Rubie and Ross 1994), and a depression of the 410-km discontinuity is expected in cold slabs due to the metastability of dry olivine. The elevation of the 410-km discontinuity may

reflect the wet condition of the slab, as a small amount of water (0.12–0.5 wt%) speeds up the olivine-to-wadsleyite phase transformation and is equivalent to a temperature increase of 150°C. Thus, the location of the 410-km discontinuity in the cold Izu–Bonin slab can be explained as the elevation of the olivine–wadsleyite equilibrium phase boundary due to wet conditions. Additionally, seismologi-



**FIGURE 3** **A.** The stability field of phase Egg in the silic sediment component of the slab (Sano et al. 2004). Coe: coesite; Ky: kyanite; L: liquid; Cor: corundum; St: stishovite; To: topaz-OH;  $\delta$ :  $\delta$ -AlOOH. **B.** The stability of hydrous phases (shaded area) in peridotite at high pressure and temperature. Dehydration is expected in the upper part of the lower mantle and at the bottom of the transition zone due to decomposition of minerals in the cold subducting slab and dehydration melting of ascending hot plumes. Ol: olivine; fl: fluid; other abbreviations are the same as those given in Fig. 2.





**FIGURE 4** Structure of  $\delta$ -AIOOH (Suzuki et al. 2000; Tsuchiya et al. 2002) and CaCl<sub>2</sub>-type SiO<sub>2</sub>. Aluminum and silicon atoms are at the center of the octahedron of oxygen atoms in  $\delta$ -AIOOH and CaCl<sub>2</sub>-type SiO<sub>2</sub>, respectively. Small circles in the  $\delta$ -AIOOH structure are hydrogen atoms.

## WATER TRANSPORT INTO THE LOWER MANTLE AND CORE MANTLE BOUNDARY

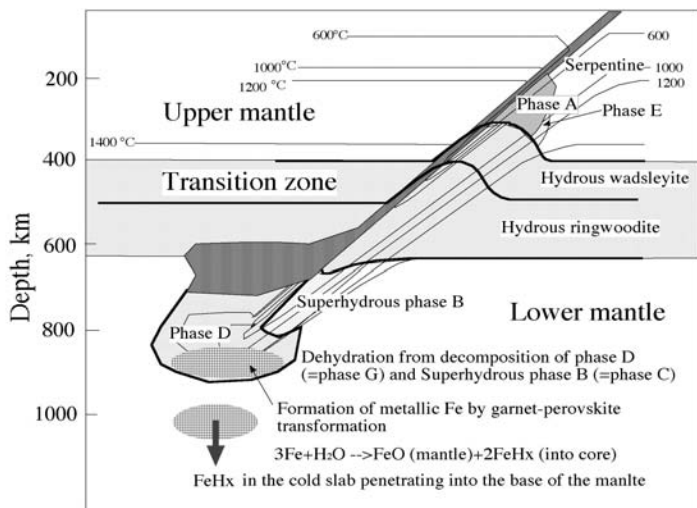
Water can be transported into the lower mantle by hydrous phases, such as superhydrous phase B, phase D, phase Egg, and phase  $\delta$ . However, these phases probably decompose and dehydrate at the pressure and temperature conditions of the deep lower mantle, although the stability limit of phase  $\delta$ -AIOOH has not yet been confirmed. Thus, most of the water stored in hydrous minerals in subducting slabs is removed from the slabs by dehydration.

The  $\delta$ -AIOOH phase is a potential phase to transport water into the deeper lower mantle. This phase has a structure similar to post-stishovite SiO<sub>2</sub> with a CaCl<sub>2</sub> structure (see **Fig. 4**), and it forms over a wide range of compositions in the solid solution between AIOOH and Mg<sub>0.5</sub>Si<sub>0.5</sub>OH (Suzuki et al. 2000; Tsuchiya et al. 2002). This phase has a bulk modulus of about 250 GPa, comparable to corundum Al<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub>, which has the highest bulk modulus of any hydrous phase ever synthesized, even though it contains a large amount of water (Vanpeteghem et al. 2002). Therefore, it could be a candidate to transport water into the deep lower mantle, although its stability in the descending slab and the lower mantle peridotite is not yet clear.

Water may be transported by other mechanisms. A small amount of metallic iron (about 1 wt%) may be present in the lower mantle (Miyajima et al. 1999; Frost et al. 2004). Metallic iron can be formed by transformation of garnet to aluminous perovskite, which contains a large amount of ferric iron (e.g., McCammon 1997; Litasov et al. 2003). Thus, metallic iron may react with water dehydrated from a slab according to the reaction:  $3\text{Fe} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow 2\text{FeH}_x + \text{FeO}$ . A schematic model of the reaction of metallic iron and water at the top of the lower mantle is shown in **Fig. 5**. The phase relations of this reaction have been thermodynamically analyzed by Badding et al. (1992) and experimentally investigated by Saxena et al. (2004) and Ohtani et al. (2005). The reaction occurs at pressures above 6 GPa and temperatures above 700°C. Thus, FeH<sub>x</sub> can be formed in slabs descending into the lower mantle when metallic iron and water are generated at the top of the lower mantle. FeO formed by this reaction can further react to form magnesiohüstite in the lower mantle. Several polymorphs of FeH<sub>x</sub> have been reported. Under water-saturated conditions, a double hexagonal phase (dhcp FeH<sub>x</sub>,  $x \sim 1.0$ ) is stable at pressures above 5 GPa and temperatures below 900°C, whereas a  $\gamma$ -FeH<sub>x</sub> phase ( $x \sim 1$ ) is stable above 900°C. When the system is not saturated with water, hydrogen can be stored in the interstices of  $\epsilon$ -Fe (hcp iron) structure. Thus, FeH<sub>x</sub> phases may be candidates for the transport of hydrogen to the base of the lower mantle.

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**FIGURE 5** The process in the slabs subducting into the lower mantle. Water can be generated by dehydration from decomposition of superhydrous phase B and phase D. Metallic iron can be generated associated with the garnet-perovskite transformation (Miyajima et al. 1999; Frost et al. 2004). Metallic iron and water react to form iron oxide and iron hydride in the lower mantle. The model provides a possible mechanism of hydrogen transport into the base of lower mantle.

cal evidence for depression of the 410-km discontinuity originating from the metastable olivine core is not observed in the Tonga slab (Koper et al., 1998). Thus, current seismic observations of the depth of the 410-km discontinuity may be consistent with a wet slab descending into the transition zone. However, this conclusion is not definitive. Dry kinetics determined experimentally might not be applicable to the long time-scales, stress regime, or grain size within slabs.

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