Part II

Convection in Earth's mantle

Outline

Convection in Earth's mantle

Evidences for mantle convection on Earth

Internally heated Rayleigh–Bénard convection Temperature–dependence of viscosity and more complex rheolog Compressibility effects Variations of composition Models for the present state Evolution models Crust recycling Evolution from a primordial layering Effect of continents

Plate tectonics



Plate tectonics



Plate tectonics





Thermal structure of the oceanic lithosphere



- A cold front propagates downward in the mantle as the plate moves away from the ridge
- The temperature follows the solution for the cooling of an infinite half-space:

$$T(z) = T_M \operatorname{erf} rac{z}{2\sqrt{\kappa t}}$$

 $= rac{2 T_M}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^{z/2\sqrt{\kappa t}} e^{-x^2} dx$

The heat flux decrease with the age of the plate as

$$q(t)=rac{kT_M}{\sqrt{\pi\kappa t}}=C_Qt^{-1/2}$$

 C_Q can be determined by fitting the observed flux in well sedimented areas.

Heat flow data from well–sedimented areas Lister et al. (1990)



▶ $q = C_Q/\sqrt{t}$ valid for t up to 80 Myr with $475 \le C_Q \le 500 \Rightarrow T_M = 1300$ °C.

Deviations for ages > 80 Myr: small-scale convection under the lithosphere.

Young oceans Davis et al. (1999)



- Impressive match between theory and observations when the sedimentary cover is sufficient
 - to properly measure the heat flow
 - and limit hydrothermal activity.

Another piece of evidence: Topography



(Smith and Sandwell, 1997)

Isostatic theory for the ocean topography





Thermal contraction \Rightarrow subsidence of the seafloor with age.

$$z = \frac{\rho_M}{\rho_M - \rho_w} 2\alpha T_M \sqrt{\frac{\kappa t}{\pi}}$$

Test of the theory Carlson and Johnson (1994)



Oceanic heat flow



Total heat flow at Earth's surface Jaupart et al. (2015)



- $\blacktriangleright\,$ The total heat loss of the Earth is \simeq 46 TW
- ▶ The average heat flow density is 90 mWm⁻², corresponding to a mean temperature gradient of 30 Kkm⁻¹. The gradient must level off to match a central temperature $T_c \sim 6000$ K.
- \Rightarrow A more efficient heat transfer mechanism is necessary at depth.

Advection in the mantle: order of magnitude



Subduction :

- ▶ length $L = 48\,800\,\text{km}$.
- mean temperature anomaly $\delta T \sim 600$ K.
- **>** typical velocity $w \sim 10 \, \mathrm{cm/yr}$
- thickness $\delta x \sim 100 \, \mathrm{km}$
- \Rightarrow Total advective flux: $Q = \delta x L \rho C_p w \delta T \simeq 30 \text{ TW}$
- ▶ Plumes: very small surface \Rightarrow 2 TW

Global geodynamics and seismic tomography

Computation of the predicted temperature variations induced in the mantle by injection of cold plates in the past ~ 180 Ma (Ricard et al., 1993) and comparison with tomographic models.



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Seismic tomography: Ritsema et al. (1999).

Some peculiarities of mantle convection

- Internally heated by radioactivity and secularly cooled.
- Spherical shell geometry.
- Temperature-dependent viscosity and even complex rheology. Necessary to explain plate-tectonics.
- Depth- and temperature-dependence of all physical parameters ⇒ compressible models may be necessary
- Variations of composition at various scales.
- Effects of continents.
- Two-phase flow (not covered in details).

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Internal heating

Earth heat budget (Jaupart et al., 2015):

- Total heat flow at the surface of the solid Earth is \simeq 46 TW.
- Total radiogenic heat production is $\simeq 20 \text{ TW}$.
- \Rightarrow Important to consider internal heating.
- And also secular cooling, which is equivalent (Krishnamurti, 1968): Consider that the average temperature $\langle T \rangle$ decreases with time on a long timescale t_a compared to the dynamical one t_c and $T = \langle T \rangle + T'$. Time derivative of temperature can be separated in slow and fast contribution so

$$\rho C\left(\frac{\partial T'}{\partial t_c} + \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{\nabla} T'\right) = k \boldsymbol{\nabla}^2 T' + \underbrace{\rho h - \rho C \frac{\mathsf{d}\langle T\rangle}{\mathsf{d} t_a}}_{\text{(contraction of the other states)}}$$

effective internal heating

With the same choice of scaling as before, the dimensionless equation is

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + \boldsymbol{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{\nabla} T = \boldsymbol{\nabla}^2 T + H \text{ with } H = \frac{\rho h d^2}{k \Delta T}$$

At infinite Pr, two dimensionless parameters: Ra and H or Ra and $Ra_h = RaH$.

Planform for internally heated convection

- The dynamics is dominated by downwelling cold plumes.
- Hot plumes are often triggered by the spreading of cold matter on the bottom boundary layer.
- Heat transfer is dominated by advection associated with cold currents.

Balance between conduction at the surface and advection at depth

Heat balance between the surface and depth z :





- More buoyancy available from cold than hot anomalies.
- Advection dominated by downwelling of upwelling currents.
- ► Energy balance ⇒ advection increases linearly with height.

Temperature profiles and heat flux scaling with internal heating Sotin and Labrosse (1999)



- ▶ Two dimensionless parameters *Ra* et *H*.
- Surface heat flux controlled by the stability of the boundary layer. Local Rayleigh number:

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathsf{R}\mathsf{a}_{\delta} = \frac{\Delta T_s}{\Delta T} \frac{\delta^3}{d^3} \mathsf{R}\mathsf{a} = R_c \\ & \Rightarrow q = \frac{k\Delta T_s}{\delta} \\ & = \frac{k\Delta T}{d} \left(\frac{\mathsf{R}\mathsf{a}}{R_c}\right)^{1/3} \left(\frac{\Delta T_s}{\Delta T}\right)^{4/3} \end{aligned}$$

Average temperature Sotin and Labrosse (1999)



Two contributions:

- Symmetrical case (no internal heating): ⟨T⟩ = 1/2.
- Additional term from internal heating. In the limit of zero bottom heat flux,

$$H = q \sim \mathbf{R} \mathbf{a}^{1/3} \langle T \rangle^{4/3} \Rightarrow \langle T \rangle \sim \frac{H^{3/4}}{\mathbf{R} \mathbf{a}^{1/4}}$$

Total:

$$\langle T \rangle = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{H^{3/4}}{Ra^{1/4}}$$

Convection driven by internal heating only Parmentier and Sotin (2000)



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Effect of continents

The divergence—free velocity field can be written as

with

$$u = \underbrace{\nabla \times re_r \times \nabla \mathcal{P}}_{Poloidal} + \underbrace{re_r \times \nabla \mathcal{T}}_{Toroidal}$$
(1)
$$= e_{\theta} \left[-\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial^2 r \mathcal{P}}{\partial r^1 \partial \theta^1} - \frac{1}{\sin \theta} \frac{\partial \mathcal{T}}{\partial \phi} \right] + e_{\phi} \left[-\frac{1}{r \sin \theta} \frac{\partial^2 r \mathcal{P}}{\partial r^1 \partial \phi^1} + \frac{\partial \mathcal{T}}{\partial \theta} \right] + \frac{e_r}{r} \mathcal{B}^2 \mathcal{P}$$
(2)
$$\mathcal{B}^2 = \frac{1}{\sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \sin \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} + \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \phi^2}$$

For a constant viscosity fluid, apply $abla imes (re_r imes
abla)$ and $re_r imes
abla$ to the momentum equation:

$$\mathcal{B}^2 \nabla^4 \mathcal{P} = \frac{g}{\eta r} \mathcal{B}^2 \Delta \rho; \quad \mathcal{B}^2 \nabla^2 \mathcal{T} = 0$$

lnternal loads can only create a poloidal flow (the same is true for $\eta(r)$).

Also useful to define the horizontal divergence and the radial vorticity:

$$abla_h \cdot oldsymbol{u} = -\mathcal{B}^2 \left[rac{1}{r^2} \, rac{\partial r \mathcal{P}}{\partial r}
ight]; \quad oldsymbol{e}_r \cdot (oldsymbol{
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(2)

with

$$\mathcal{B}^2 = \frac{1}{\sin\theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial\theta} \sin\theta \frac{\partial}{\partial\theta} + \frac{1}{\sin^2\theta} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial\phi^2}$$

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(2)

with

$$\mathcal{B}^2 = rac{1}{\sin heta} \, rac{\partial}{\partial heta} \sin heta \, rac{\partial}{\partial heta} + rac{1}{\sin^2 heta} \, rac{\partial^2}{\partial\phi^2}$$

For a constant viscosity fluid, apply $\nabla \times (re_r \times \nabla)$ and $re_r \times \nabla$ to the momentum equation:

$$\mathcal{B}^2 \nabla^4 \mathcal{P} = \frac{g}{\eta r} \mathcal{B}^2 \Delta \rho; \quad \mathcal{B}^2 \nabla^2 \mathcal{T} = 0$$

linear loads can only create a poloidal flow (the same is true for $\eta(r)$).

Also useful to define the horizontal divergence and the radial vorticity:

$$oldsymbol{
abla}_h \cdot oldsymbol{u} = - oldsymbol{\mathcal{B}}^2 \left[rac{1}{r^2} \, rac{\partial r \mathcal{P}}{\partial r}
ight]; \quad oldsymbol{e}_r \cdot (oldsymbol{
abla} imes oldsymbol{u}) = rac{\mathcal{B}^2 \mathcal{T}}{r}$$

Surface deformation



Figure 7. Some as Fig. 6 but with hecizental divergence and radial verticity calculated directly from the velocity field of the SEISMAR plate model. (Dumoulin et al, 1998)

(Dumoulin et al., 1998)



- Seafloor ages
 → plate velocities.
- ► Toroidal flow ⇒ Lateral variations of viscosity are necessary to generate it.

Temperature–dependence of viscosity White (1988)



- First effect: breaking the symmetry between up- and downwelling currents.
- \Rightarrow Allows different flow geometries.
- These experiments: modest variations of viscosity.

Large temperature-dependence of viscosity I





(Moresi and Solomatov, 1995) identified 3 regimes:

- I: small viscosity contrast regime
- II: transitional regime
- III: stagnant lid regime

Transient experiments Davaille and Jaupart (1993, 1994)

- A tank filled with golden syrup with the upper boundary maintained at a low temperature.
- Explains very well the onset of small-scale convection below the oceanic lithophere.



FIGURE 5. Vertical profiles of horizontally averaged temperature, viscosity and convective heat flux for fully developed convection in experiment 4.41. Viscosity and heat flux have been made dimensionless using viscosity at the interior temperature and the local heat flux scale Q_b (equation (12)) respectively. The fluid layer can be divided in (i) the well-mixed interior, (ii) the unstable part of the thermal boundary layer and (iii) a stagnant lid. (Davaille & Jaupart, 1993)

Transient experiments Davaille and Jaupart (1993, 1994)

- ▶ A tank filled with golden syrup with the upper boundary maintained at a low temperature.
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Strain localisation by pseudo-plasticity Tackley (2000)

Temperature dependence of viscosity allows to rigidify plates:

 $\eta(T) = \eta_0 e^{E/RT}$

A yield stress σ_y is introduced to saturate stress once a critical deformation is reached:

$$\eta_{e\!f\!f} = \min\left[\eta(T), rac{\sigma_y}{2\dot{arepsilon}}
ight]$$

with $\dot{\varepsilon} = \sqrt{\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij}}$



Tackley (2000)

- Left: effective viscosity
- Right: temperature
- ► Yield stress increases from top to bottom, 34 MPa to 340 MPa
Example dynamics in 2D

- Converging zones (subduction) attract each other → merging.
- ► Diverging zones are passive and adjust to the position of subductions → jump.
- Very large fluctuations of temperature and heat fluxes.

Motion on plate boundaries



- Converging zones (subduction) attract each other → merging.
- ► Diverging zones are passive and adjust to the position of subductions → jump.
- Very large fluctuations of temperature and heat fluxes.

Heat flow and plate size Grigné et al. (2005)



A rather simple rheology (pseudo-plastic) allows to obtain a dynamics mimicking some aspects of plate tectonics. But...

- How does it relate to the actual rheology of rocks? In particular the yield stress necessary to get plate-like behaviour is generally smaller than that measured in laboratory.
- ► On Earth, old deformation structures often get reactivated → the rheology is history dependent. A damage theory is needed.
 - Bercovici and Ricard (2014): grain-size dependence in a multi-mineral rock with Zener pinning.
 - Anisotropic viscosity with lattice preferred orientation (Pouilloux et al., 2007)? Theory and models still needed for that.

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The isentropic temperature gradient

- ▶ Compression \Rightarrow increase of temperature \rightarrow useless part of the temperature gradient.
- ▶ Isentropic gradient (~ adiabatic)

$$\left(\frac{\partial\,T}{\partial P}\right)_s = \frac{\alpha\,T}{\rho C_p} \Rightarrow \frac{\partial\,T}{\partial r} = -\frac{\alpha g T}{C_p}$$

Solution to subtract from the total ΔT :

$$T(r) = T_0 \exp \left(- \int_{CMB}^r rac{lpha g}{C_p} dr
ight)$$

 \blacktriangleright T_0 : "foot of the adiabat".

Jeffreys (1930) showed that the criterion for Rayleigh–Bénard instability in a "weakly compressible" fluid is the same as that derived by Rayleigh (1916) provided the temperature difference is taken as that in excess of the isentropic one.

Equations for compressible convection Curbelo et al. (2019)

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \boldsymbol{\nabla} \cdot (\rho \mathbf{v}) = 0, \tag{3}$$

$$\mathbf{0} = -\boldsymbol{\nabla}P + \rho \mathbf{g} + \boldsymbol{\nabla} \cdot \boldsymbol{\tau},\tag{4}$$

$$\rho T \left[\frac{\partial s}{\partial t} + \mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla s \right] = \dot{\varepsilon} : \tau + \nabla \cdot (k \nabla T), \qquad (5)$$

$$T = T(\rho, s), \qquad P = P(\rho, s), \tag{6}$$

with the deformation rate tensor $\dot{\varepsilon}$ and stress tensor $\tau {:}$

$$\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\partial_j v_i + \partial_i v_j \right), \qquad \tau_{ij} = \eta \left(\partial_j v_i + \partial_i v_j - \frac{2}{3} \delta_{ij} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} \right), \tag{7}$$

The equations are rendered dimensionless using

$$t \to \rho_0 c_{p0} d^2/k; \ (x, z) \to d; \ (u_x, u_z) \to k/(\rho_0 c_{p0} d); \ T \to T_0; \ P \to \rho_0 c_{p0} T_0; s \to c_{p0}; \ \dot{\varepsilon}_{ij} \to k/(\rho_0 c_{p0} d^2); \ \tau \to k\eta/(\rho_0 c_{p0} d^2).$$

Dimensionless equations for compressible convection Curbelo et al. (2019)

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \boldsymbol{\nabla} \cdot (\rho \mathbf{v}) = 0, \tag{8}$$

$$\mathbf{0} = -\frac{R\hat{\alpha}}{\mathcal{D}}\boldsymbol{\nabla}P - R\rho\mathbf{e}_z + \boldsymbol{\nabla}\cdot\boldsymbol{\tau},\tag{9}$$

$$\rho T \left[\frac{\partial s}{\partial t} + \mathbf{v} \cdot \nabla s \right] = \frac{\mathcal{D}}{R\hat{\alpha}} \dot{\varepsilon} : \tau + \nabla^2 T,$$
(10)

$$T = T(\rho, s), \qquad P = P(\rho, s),$$
 (11)

$$\dot{\varepsilon}_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\partial_j v_i + \partial_i v_j \right), \qquad \tau_{ij} = \partial_j v_i + \partial_i v_j - \frac{2}{3} \delta_{ij} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{v}, \tag{12}$$

Dimensionless numbers:

$$\begin{array}{ll} R = \frac{\rho_0^2 c_{p0} g d^3}{k\eta} & r = T_{bot}/T_{top} \\ \hat{\alpha} = \alpha_0 T_0 & \epsilon = \Delta T_{sa}/\Delta T_a \\ \mathcal{D} = \frac{\alpha_0 g d}{c_{p0}} & Ra_{sa} = R\hat{\alpha} \delta T_{sa} = R\hat{\alpha} \epsilon \delta T_a = R\hat{\alpha} \frac{\epsilon}{1+\epsilon} \delta T \\ \end{array}$$
The Boussinesq approximation is obtained by applying $\lim_{r \to 1} \lim_{\mathcal{D} \to 0}$.

- ▶ The anelastic approximation, AA, is a linear development around the isentropic reference.
- The anelastic liquid approximation assumes, in addition, $\hat{\alpha} = \alpha T_0 \ll 1$.
- The extended Boussinesq approximation just considers dissipation on the right-hand-sides of the energy equation.
- The truncated anelastic liquid approximation neglects the pressure effect on buoyancy. It is not self-consistent (Leng and Zhong, 2008) as it does not satisfy the global balance between dissipation and the total work of the buoyancy force.

Comparison of the solutions

Perfect gas calculations (Curbelo et al., 2019)



Comparison of average temperature profiles Perfect gas calculations (Curbelo et al., 2019)



 $Ra_{sa} = 320000$, $\gamma = 1.4$, r = 3, $\mathcal{D} = 0.2$ ($\epsilon = 4$) on the left-hand side and $\mathcal{D} = 0.8$ ($\epsilon = 0.25$) on the right-hand side (reference adiabatic profile shown in dashed line).

- All approximations converge when the super-isentropic temperature difference is small compared to the isentropic temperature difference ($\epsilon \ll 1$).
- When ϵ is not too small, the temperature profile is qualitatively similar to the one obtained with the Boussinesq approximation with the addition of the isentropic profile.
- Earth's mantle: $\epsilon \sim 0.6$ and $\mathcal{D} \sim 0.5$.
- Earth's core: $\epsilon \sim 10^{-7}$ and $\mathcal{D} \sim 0.5$.

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Compositional variations in the mantle and fluid dynamics

- Upper mantle: direct observations of strong compositional variations from the largest scale (continents and oceans) to the smallest (different minerals in a rock).
- Deep mantle: evidence come from geochemistry and geophysics (mostly seismology).
- Two types of compositional variations:
 - ▶ trace elements do not act on density but can play a role on radiogenic heating (235 U, 238 U, 232 Th, 40 K).
 - major elements, or oxydes (i.e. FeO and MgO), act on density and most physical parameters, like viscosity.
- In the fluid dynamics of mantle convection: add a new parameter, the buoyancy number,

$$B=rac{\Delta
ho_{\chi}}{
ho_{0}lpha\Delta T}$$
 or $extsf{Ra}_{\chi}= extsf{Ra}B.$

The buoyancy term in the momentum equation is:

$$Ra(\theta + BC)$$

with C the dimensionless composition.

Geochemichal observations



- Mostly isotopic geochemistry, e.g. noble gas.
- Shows the need for a diversity of sources/history of mantle minerals.
- Example of noble gas: ³He is primordial and ⁴He is mostly radiogenic.
- MORB v.s. OIB: Existence of a deep undegassed mantle?

Conceptual models for the current snapshot



(Tackley, 2000)

Conceptual models for the current snapshot









Dense partial melt pocket at the base of the mantle

- ▶ Large V_S anomalies in the lower mantle \rightarrow thermal and chemical heterogeneity.
- ▶ ULVZs at the edges of dense thermo-chemical piles. Interpreted as pockets of dense partial melt.



Various observations in Cartoon form Hernlund & McNamara, ToG 2015



- Also: possible reflection from the top of LLSVPs (Schumacher, et al 2018)
- Simplest common ingredient to all these observations: Compositional variations.

The present snapshot and the long term evolution

- ▶ The present observations only constrain the current "snapshot" of the mantle.
- Different timescales of evolution: short (plate tectonics) and long (thermal evolution, regime changes?).
- Avoid the uniformitarian bias!

Stability of LLSVPs? Burke & Torsvik (2004)



- (a) Current position of plumes (small circles) and Large Igneous Provinces (LIPs, large circles) at the present time over the seismic tomography model of Ritsema et al. (1999).
- (b) Reconstructed position of eruption sites of LIPs over the seismic tomography model SMEAN (Becker and Boschi, 2002).
- Position of large igneous provinces (LIPs) when erupted correlates with edges of LLSVPs.
- Suggests "long" (200Ma) term stability of these structures. Still compared to the age of the Earth!

LLSVs and ULVZs in models McNamara, Garnero, Rost (2010)



- Dense chemical piles move in response to plate and plume flow.
- ▶ ULVZs tend to be at the edges of piles because of viscous coupling with the surrounding mantle.
- \blacktriangleright But important transient effects \rightarrow can be in the middle of a pile or isolated for some time.

Compositional layering of LLSVPs Ballmer et al, 2016



bridgmanite-enriched ancient mantle structures (BEAMS)



- Non-linear viscosity variation depending on Si/Mg ratio.
- For $\eta_{max}/\eta_{min} > 100$ BEAMS forms.



Production of compositional anomalies

- Compositional anomalies are produced at the mineral scale.
- Large scale heterogeneities require entrainment and separation by solid mantle flow.
- Only a liquid phase permits longer distances separation. This can be
 - ▶ water → mostly a subduction/mantle corner process, possibly transition zone (Bercovici and Karato, 2003), not covered here.
 - ▶ liquid iron at the CMB → often considered limited by the large density contrast. Alternative have been proposed (Kanda and Stevenson, 2006; Otsuka and Karato, 2012) but have not been picked up in geodynamical models.
 - Liquid iron during core formation.
 - ▶ magma → fractional melting and freezing creates intermediate (~ km) scale heterogeneities at the surface (MORB) and possibly in the deep mantle (ULVZ), now and in the past (magma ocean).

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Crust recycling Christensen and Hofmann (1994)



• Partial melting at ridges \Rightarrow production of compositional anomalies.

► Crust minerals become more dense than average mantle at high pressure ⇒ it could segregate into the deep mantle.

More sophisticated (recent) models Nakagawa & Tackley (2008)



• Depending on the density contrast of MORB to normal mantle, it is entrained ($\delta \rho = 0$) or accumulate in ridge-like structures ($\delta \rho = 3.6\%$) or a continuous layer($\delta \rho = 17.3\%$).

Cycling oceanic crust through mantle reservoirs Li et al. (2014)



Effect of numerical resolution Li and McNamara (2013)





- Most models have a thick crust because of resolution issues.
- ▶ High resolution calculations show that a 6km thick crust is more difficult to segregate.
- Segregation can be helped by the presence of weak post-perovskite (Nakagawa & Tackley, 2013).

The fate of the subducted crust



- MORBs likely melt on their way down (Andrault et al., 2014).
- Their density as liquid should make them negatively buoyant and join the ULVZs (Sanloup et al., 2013).

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Effect of continents

Entrainment with time Le Bars and Davaille (2004)





(Le Bars & Davaille, 2004)







-cooled copper plate T2



encapsulated blob





- Gradual entrainment at the interface of a layered system makes it undergo regime transitions.
- Doming regime (Davaille, 1999) could explain the anomalous topography of the Pacific superswell and south Africa.
- ► An intrinsically denser material can become temporally less dense because of high temperature and rise ⇒ compatible with LLSVPs less dense than normal mantle (Koelemeijer et al., 2017).
- What could be the origin of the initial layering?

Outline

Convection in Earth's mantle

Evidences for mantle convection on Earth Internally heated Rayleigh–Bénard convection Temperature–dependence of viscosity and more complex rheologie Compressibility effects Variations of composition Models for the present state Evolution models Crust recycling Evolution from a primordial layering Effect of continents

Thermal effect of continents

- Old continents (cratons) are parts of the surface that are not recycled back in the mantle and resist deformation.
- The question of the formation and stability of continents in a convective mantle has not yet been fully solved.
- ▶ Heat transfer across cratons happens by diffusion: less efficient than lithosphere recycling.
- The continuity of both temperature and heat flux at the boundary between the continental lithosphere and the less viscous underlying mantle can be modelled as a Robin boundary condition with a small Biot number (Grigné et al., 2007a,b; Guillou and Jaupart, 1995).
- \Rightarrow Small heat flux out of the convective mantle.
- \Rightarrow the mantle underneath heats up, which focuses upwelling plumes, which pushes the continent away (Gurnis, 1988).

Effects of a fixed continent (Grigné et al., 2007a,b; Guillou and Jaupart, 1995)



- Experiment: no-slip BCs.
- Numerical model: free-slip BCs, even below the continent.
- ► High Ra ⇒ Many plumes that get organised in a large scale circulation.

Motion of a small continent Grigné, PhD thesis, 2003

- Cycles similar to that described by Gurnis (1988):
- Insulating effect ⇒ focuses hot plumes ⇒ the continent is pushed away.
- Small continent: the insulating effect is modest, the continent gets stuck above downwelling currents before new upwellings can develop and push the continent.
- The direction of the continent is randomised at each cycle.
- \Rightarrow erratic motion!
Motion of a large continent Grigné, PhD thesis, 2003

- Once the continent starts to move, it keeps being attracted by a downwelling current at its leading edge while being pushed at its trailing side by upwelling currents it generates.
- For intermediate sizes, the reversals are still possible.

Motion of the continent as function of it size Grigné, PhD thesis, 2003



Effects of continents on a spherical 3D Earth

- ▶ 3D: continents can also rotate.
- Plate tectonics: Interaction between oceanic and continental plates of various rigidity is much more complex.

Distribution of seafloor ages Cogné and Humler (2004)

- Thermal convection: down-welling current initiated when the boundary layer has cooled enough.
- Plate tectonics: subduction of plates of any age!



Mixed heating convection Labrosse and Jaupart (2007)



Convection with pseudo-plastic yielding Labrosse and Jaupart (2007)



Possible explanation? Labrosse and Jaupart (2007)



(Labrosse & Jaupart, 2007)

Test in a self-consistent model Coltice et al. (2012)



Part III

Application to the thermal evolution of the Earth

Outline

Application to the thermal evolution of the Earth Classical models and issues

Principle for thermal evolution models



Global energy balance

$$MC_P rac{dT}{dt} = -Q(T) + H(t)$$

Evolution time scale

$$\tau = \frac{MC_P T}{Q(T)}$$

$$Ur = 100 \frac{H}{Q}$$

Question:

• what is the function Q(T) for mantle convection?

Boundary layer scaling for thermal evolution model

Boundary layer scaling

$$\Rightarrow q = C \frac{k\Delta T}{d} Ra^{1/3} \left(\frac{T_i}{\Delta T}\right)^{4/3}$$

Assuming the scaling applies to mantle convection, hence to the present time (t = 0): Q₀, T₀.
Scaling of surface heat flow:

$$Q(T) = Q_0 \left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right)^{4/3} \left(\frac{\eta(T)}{\eta_0}\right)^{-1/3}$$

• Given the present Urey number: $Ur = 100H/Q \in [20 - 50]$.

Solve the energy equation backward from the present time:

$$MC\frac{dT}{dt} = H(t) - Q(T)$$

The low Urey number "paradox"



Urey number: Ur = 100H/Q

The low Urey number "paradox"



Urey number: Ur = 100H/Q

The low Urey number "paradox"



Urey number: Ur = 100H/Q

Feedback with temperature-dependent viscosity



Feedback with temperature-dependent viscosity





(adapted from Sleep, 2000)

Convection in planetary mantle may have existed in several regimes.

- Layered mantle convection =>> lower cooling efficiency (McKenzie and Richter, 1981). But the inferred lower mantle temperature is too large to keep it solid (Schubert and Spohn, 1981).
- A smaller exponent β in the q = ARa^β scaling law (Christensen, 1985; Conrad & Hager, 1999; Sleep, 2000; Korenaga, 2003).
- Differential core-mantle cooling (another type of layered model).



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Christensen (1985):

local resisting forces in the subduction region. The cause for this resistance may be (1) shear on the thrust fault toward the overriding plate, (2) resistance against the bending of the downgoing plate, (3) resistance against penetration into a high viscosity layer at greater depth, (4) resistance against bending or viscous deformation at the boundary between upper and lower mantle, or (5) resistance against penetration through an endothermic phase boundary [Christensen and Yuen, 1984]. In cases 1, 2, and 5 the resisting force would be entirely independent from the asthenospheric temperature and viscosity, possibly also in case 4. The compressive stress which is usually

 \Rightarrow A decreased feedback between the mantle temperature and the surface heat flow.

Effect of the β exponent on thermal evolution

$$Q(T) = Q_0 \left(\frac{T}{T_0}\right)^{1+\beta} \left(\frac{\eta(T)}{\eta_0}\right)^{-\beta}$$



Same solution was advocated by Conrad & Hager (1999, 2001), Sleep (2000), Korenaga (2003). Problem: No self-consistent dynamical model gives such low values of β

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Outline

Application to the thermal evolution of the Earth

Importance of core cooling

Alternative scenario

Standard approach:

$$MCrac{dT}{dt} = H(t) - Q(T)$$

parameterised by the mantle potential temperature only.

- $\Rightarrow\,$ Core and mantle assumed to cool at the same pace.
 - Assume instead that the core is cooling and not the mantle:
 - ⇒ No feedback from temperature dependence of the mantle viscosity!

$$M_M C_M \frac{dT_M}{dt} = H(t) - Q(T_M) + Q_{CMB}$$
$$M_C C_C \frac{dT_C}{dt} = -Q_{CMB}$$

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$$egin{aligned} M_M C_M rac{dT_M}{dt} &= H(t) - Q(T_M) + Q_{CMB} \ M_C C_C rac{dT_C}{dt} &= -Q_{CMB} \end{aligned}$$

A modified Urey number Labrosse, in AGU Mon. 207, 2016

- Core heat flow is a heat source to the mantle. Assume $Q_{CMB} = 16 \text{ TW}$.
- \Rightarrow Modified Urey number:

$$Ur^{\star} = rac{H + Q_{CMB}}{Q_{surface}} \ge 0.78$$

How can we constrain the CMB heat flow?

Evidences for the core cooling faster than the mantle



► Total mantle cooling in 4.5 Gyr constrained by the phase diagram of the upper mantle: $\Delta T_m < 200 K$

• Core heat flow > 10 TW constrained by

- thermodynamics of the geodynamo with a large thermal conductivity (> 90W/m/K).
- double crossing of the $Pv \rightarrow PPv$ phase boundary.

$\Rightarrow \Delta T_c > 750 \mathrm{K}$

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Dense partial melt pocket at the base of the mantle

- ▶ Large V_S anomalies in the lower mantle \rightarrow thermal and chemical heterogeneity.
- ULVZs at the edges of dense thermo-chemical piles. Interpreted as pockets of dense partial melt.



If there is melt now at the bottom of the mantle, there must have been more in the past!

Crystallisation of a basal magma ocean (BMO) Labrosse et al. (2007)



(Labrosse, Hernlund, Coltice, 2007)

- ULVZ: Dense partial melt at present
- ▶ Cooling of the core evidenced by the maintenance of the geodynamo for at least 3.5 Gyrs.
- \blacktriangleright \Rightarrow More melt in the past!
- ► Fractional crystallisation ⇒ compositional variations.

Time necessary for the crystallisation of the basal magma ocean



$$\tau = \frac{MC\Delta T}{Q} \sim 6 \text{Gyr}$$

$$M = 2 \ 10^{24} \text{kg}, \ C \sim 1000 \text{J} \text{K}^{-1} \text{kg}^{-1}$$

$$\Delta T \sim 1000 \text{K}, \ Q \sim 10 \text{TW}.$$

Time scale controlled by

- the heat flux taken up by convection in the solid mantle,
- the variation of the liquidus with chemical composition,
- the heat capacity of the core.

Going beyond the cartoon requires to understand the effects of the solid–liquid phase change on mantle convection.

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