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# Elasticity of CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite at high pressure and high temperature

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## Abstract

Ab initio molecular dynamic (AIMD) simulations were performed to calculate the equation of state (EOS) of CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite at mantle pressure–temperature conditions. At temperatures above 2000 K, even though the hydrostatic crystal structure is metrically tetragonal in the pressure range of 13–123 GPa, the symmetry of the elastic moduli is consistent with cubic symmetry. Our results show that elastic constants and velocities are independent of temperature at constant volume. Referenced to room pressure and 2000 K, we find: Grűneisen parameter is  $\gamma(V) = \gamma_0(V/V_0)^q$  with  $\gamma_0 = 1.53$  and q = 1.02(5), and the Anderson Grűneisen parameter is given by  $(\alpha/\alpha_0) = (V/V_0)^{\delta_T}$  in which  $\alpha_0 = 2.89 \times 10^{-5}$  K<sup>-1</sup> and  $\delta_T = 4.09(5)$ . Using the third order Birch Murnaghan equation of state to fit our data, we have for ambient *P* and *T*,  $K_0 = 236.6(8)$  GPa,  $K'_0 = 3.99(3)$ , and  $V_0 = 729.0(6)$  Å<sup>3</sup>. Calculated acoustic velocities show the following P–T dependence:  $(\partial \ln V_P/\partial V)_{T \text{ or } P} = -1.9 \times 10^{-3}$ ;  $(\partial \ln V_S/\partial \ln V_P)_{T \text{ or } P} = 0.79$ ;  $(\partial \ln V_S/\partial \ln V_{\phi})_{T \text{ or } P} = 0.63$ , indicating that the variations in bulk modulus overpower the variations in shear modulus.

The bulk modulus of CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite is up to 10% lower than MgSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite under lower mantle conditions. The difference diminishes with pressure and temperature. The shear modulus of CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite is almost 25% lower compared with MgSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite for shallow lower mantle pressures and temperatures and about 3% lower at the base of the lower mantle. The difference in density of these two perovskite is about 3–4% for all conditions. Both the density and bulk modulus differ from PREM by less than 2% throughout the lower mantle. The shear modulus is ~10% lower at shallow depths grading to ~5% by the core-mantle boundary. Thus, the seismic velocity of CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite will be lower (0–6%) than PREM. © 2006 Elsevier B.V. All rights reserved.

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# 1. Introduction

\* Corresponding author. *E-mail address:* lilli@ic.sunysb.edu (L. Li). CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite is one of the most significant minerals in the earth (Funamori et al., 2000; Hirose et al., 1999; Liu and Ringwood, 1975; Mao et al., 1977; McDonough and Sun, 1995; Wood, 1997). Experimen-

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tal investigations of the elastic properties of CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite give various results: a cubic Pm3m structure with high bulk modulus ( $K_0 \ge 275 \text{ GPa}$ ) (Mao et al., 1989; Tamai and Yagi, 1989; Tarrida and Richet, 1989; Yagi et al., 1989), a cubic structure with significantly lower bulk modulus ( $K_0 \sim 232 \text{ GPa}$ ) (Shim and Duffy, 2000; Shim et al., 2000; Wang et al., 1996), a tetragonal structure with  $K_0 = 255(5)$  GPa (Shim et al., 2002), and an even lower  $K_0 = 212(7)$  GPa was predicted from perovskite analogues (Sinelnikov et al., 1998). Some studies (Hama and Suito, 1998; Shim et al., 2002; Wang et al., 1996; Wentzcovitch et al., 1995) suggested that CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite can be regarded as invisible in modelling the lower mantle, while others (Sinelnikov et al., 1998) suggest that CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite cannot be ignored due to an estimated shear modulus that is 37% lower than (Mg, Fe)SiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite. CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite has stimulated a number of theoretical calculations (Akber-Knutson et al., 2002; Caracas and Wentzcovitch, 2005; Chizmeshya et al., 1996; Hemley et al., 1987; Jung and Oganov, 2005; Karki and Crain, 1998; Magyari-Kope et al., 2002a; Magyari-Kope et al., 2002b; Sherman, 1993; Stixrude et al., 1996; Warren et al., 1998; Wentzcovitch et al., 1995; Wolf and Bukowinski, 1987). The debate among the results from theoretical calculation is as contentious as those from experiments; see review in Jung and Oganov (2005).

In general, there are two critical issues: what are the stable structures and what are their elastic properties including both bulk and shear moduli. Since CaSiO3 perovskite is not stable below 1 GPa and 1100 K (Gasparik et al., 1994; Swamy and Dubrovinsky, 1997) and is unquenchable, resolving the structure and elastic properties of CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite demands high-resolution experimental tools (Shim and Duffy, 2000; Shim et al., 2002). The structural and energy differences between several structures are small (Akber-Knutson et al., 2002; Caracas and Wentzcovitch, 2005; Jung and Oganov, 2005) making theory difficult to assess the stable structure even at 0K. In the past decade, the predictive power of the first-principle calculations has been continuingly growing. Using ab initio molecular dynamics (AIMD), elastic constants of materials can be calculated by monitoring the stress-strain relations (Oganov et al., 2001a; Oganov et al., 2001b; Stackhouse et al., 2004). Recent studies using density functional theory (DFT) have explored the stable structures for CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite at 0 K. This paper extends these studies to provide single crystal elastic moduli to high temperature (5000 K) for the stable phases using density functional theory coupled with molecular dynamics.

## 2. Computational method

Ab initio molecular dynamics simulations were performed to calculate the elastic constants of CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite using VASP code (Kresse and Furthmüller, 1996a; Kresse and Furthmüller, 1996b). The exchangecorrelation functional  $E_{\rm xc}$  used was the PW91 form of the generalized gradient approximation (GGA) (Perdew et al., 1992; Wang and Perdew, 1991). We used projectoraugmented-wave (PAW) implementation of density functional theory and the implementation of an efficient extrapolation for the charge density (Alfè, 1999; Blöchl, 1994; Kresse and Joubert, 1999). All calculations were performed using an 80-atom super-cell. A plane-wave cut-off energy 500 eV was shown to be sufficient for the elastic constants to converge. Increasing the plane-wave cut-off to 1000 eV caused the calculated enthalpy difference of the two phases to change by less than 0.5 meV per atom and the absolute value of the elastic constants to differ by an average of 0.6%. The calculations were therefore considered converged.  $\Gamma$  point was used for sampling the Brillouin zone. The time step used in the dynamical simulation was 1 fs. The core radii used were 2.3 a.u. for Ca (core configuration  $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6$ ), 1.9 a.u. for Si  $(1s^2 2s^2 2p^6)$  and 1.52 a.u. for O  $(1s^2)$ . The equilibrium structure was obtained after at least 2ps of simulation (Fig. 1). Applying positive and negative strains (1 and 2%) to the equilibrated structure, stresses were calculated after 1ps simulation. Tests show that longer simulation has little effect on the calculated results. The kinetic pressure correction was used in our calculations. Error analysis for the stresses were performed following the algorithm described elsewhere (Allen and Tildesley, 1997).



Fig. 1. Fluctuations of the stress components for the CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite optimized at 124 GPa and 4000 K show that the stress is hydrostatic. Positive and negative strain (three axial strains for orthorhombic structure, two for tetragonal structure and one triclinic strain with magnitude of 1 and 2%) were applied on the hydrostatic structure, the time averages of the induced stresses were calculated. Isothermal elastic constants  $c_{ij}$  were derived from nonlinear stress–strain relations.

The acoustic velocities as a function of crystallographic direction were derived from the calculated single crystal elastic constants using the Christoffel equation (Nye, 1957). The measure of elastic anisotropy reported is the ratio of the fastest acoustic velocity to the slowest one.

# 3. Stable phase

The perovskite structure can have several subtle variations in atom positions that give rise to a variety of space groups at high P and T (Glazer, 1972; Glazer, 1975). The rotation and distortion of the octahedral units define these variations. Physical properties such as elastic moduli can radically change between phases and within the phase boundary region. Finite strain can be the agent of moving from one phase to another or to interchange twins within a single phase.

At 0 K, several variations of the perovskite structure compete for the minimum energy (Akber-Knutson et al., 2002; Caracas and Wentzcovitch, 2005; Jung and Oganov, 2005; Magyari-Kope et al., 2002a; Stixrude et al., 1996; Warren et al., 1998; Wentzcovitch et al., 1995) with the most recent conclusion being that the cubic phase is not stable at any pressure (P). Increasing temperature (T) should favour the higher symmetry phases, but the boundaries of these phase transitions need to be identified. In a companion paper (Li et al., 2005),

6000 4000 4000 2000 4000 Cubic 

Fig. 2. Calculated phase diagram of  $CaSiO_3$  perovskite. Below the solid line, orthorhombic phase is stable; above the dashed line, cubic phase is stable. The tetragonal phase that dominates the plot is tetragonal on an instantaneous time scale (1 fs).

we explore the stability fields of the high temperature  $CaSiO_3$  perovskite through analysis of rotation angle of the octahedra, calculated X-ray diffraction patterns, and analysis of stresses on the fixed super-cell from quantum molecular dynamic calculations. Our conclusion is that there is a single stable phase between 1000 and 4000 K for the pressure range studied (15–130 GPa), as illustrated in Fig. 2. The cell dimensions of the hydrostatically stressed structures are listed in Table 1. Both orthorhombic and cubic symmetries of the perovskite phase are

Table 1

Cell parameters a, b and c, volume V, and stress tensor components  $\sigma_{11}$ ,  $\sigma_{22}$  and  $\sigma_{33}$  at different P-T

T(K)	a (Å)	<i>b</i> (Å)	<i>c</i> (Å)	$V(\text{\AA}^3)$	P <sub>C</sub> (GPa)	$\sigma_{11}$	$\sigma_{22}$	$\sigma_{33}$
0	10.2521	10.2118	7.1694	750.59	-9.0	0	0	0
0	10.0038	10.0598	7.018	706.27	6.0	15	15	15
0	9.7439	9.6618	6.7724	637.48	41.0	50	50	50
0	9.4217	9.4217	6.5283	572.59	94.9	103.9	103.9	103.9
150	10.1117	10.1592	7.0913	728.46	-0.7	8.3(0)	8.3(1)	8.3(1)
1000	10.1216	10.1216	7.1112	728.52	5.7	14.7(1)	14.8(2)	14.7(2)
2000	10.1334	10.1334	7.0945	728.51	12.8	21.8(2)	21.7(2)	22.0(3)
3000	10.1169	10.1169	7.1179	728.53	19.8	28.8(3)	29.0(3)	28.6(3)
4000	10.1236	10.1236	7.1085	728.52	26.0	35.0(4)	35.0(4)	35.1(4)
150	9.7977	9.7195	6.8129	648.78	35.5	44.3(1)	44.5(1)	44.8(1)
1000	9.7810	9.7810	6.8510	655.37	37.7	46.6(3)	46.6(2)	46.9(3)
2000	9.7698	9.7698	6.8663	655.38	44.5	53.7(2)	53.3(2)	53.4(3)
3000	9.7624	9.7624	6.8768	655.39	51.1	60.4(3)	60.2(3)	59.6(4)
4000	9.7760	9.7760	6.8575	655.37	57.7	67.1(3)	66.0(3)	67.0(4)
150	9.4143	9.3121	6.5336	572.78	96.3	105.5(1)	105.2(0)	105.4(1)
1000	9.3451	9.3451	6.5592	572.82	102.5	111.4(4)	111.8(4)	111.3(3)
2000	9.3416	9.3416	6.5642	572.82	109.6	118.9(4)	118.4(3)	118.5(4)
3000	9.3420	9.3420	6.5635	572.82	116.6	125.7(3)	125.4(5)	125.8(5)
4000	9.3472	9.3472	6.5561	572.82	122.8	131.5(4)	132.1(3)	131.7(4)

V is the volume of a cell containing 80 atoms. The non-hydrostatic deviations of the stress tensor components are small (less than 0.5 GPa) from the average pressure. Errors for the stress tensor components are calculated using the same algorithm as described elsewhere (Alfe et al., 2000) and listed in the parenthesis.

present in a limited region. The "tetragonal" phase that dominates the diagram is tetragonal at any instant (1 fs time step), but the orientation of the tetragonal symmetry can vary with time (1 ps). The time average structure may be manifested as cubic. This is distinct from the "cubic" phase which is cubic at each time step. The tetragonal symmetry can be stabilized with a super-cell which has a unique axis parallel to the Si–O–Si bonds and the other two axes rotated 45° from the Si–O–Si bonds (i.e. the Pnma setting). Details are discussed in our companion paper (Li et al., 2005).

## 4. Ferroelastic strain relate to the $c_{ij}$ calculation

The definition of a single crystal elastic constant is the ratio of the stress to an imposed infinitesimal strain. The nature of molecular dynamics calculation requires a large enough strain for the stress to be large enough to overcome the noise effect from the lattice vibrations. We use strains of 1 and 2% for such calculations. However, CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite has ferroelastic spontaneous strains of less than 1% in the non-cubic phases. An example of the strain energy associated with strain coincident with the ferroelastic spontaneous strain is shown in Fig. 3. The two energy minima are at two macroscopic strains but represent two identical twins of the same structure. The forces are given by the derivative of the energy with respect to strain. Infinitesimal strain perturbations will encounter significant forces while finite strains may not properly sample the forces. Thus, in our calculations, we must take this effect into consideration. We used four criteria to confirm that the elastic moduli we calculated are indeed the infinitesimal elastic moduli: (1) check the linear stress-strain relation; (2) check the symmetry of the force in the positive and negative strain region; (3) check the symmetry of  $c_{ii}$  by redundant calculations; and (4) compare the bulk modulus calculated from  $c_{ij}$  and from volume perturbations. Table 2 gives the bulk modulus that is



Fig. 3. Enthalpy vs. strain at 50 GPa and 0 K. Strain equals to (a - b)/a. Enthalpy is for the 80 atoms cell. The minima of enthalpy represent the equivalent twins of the same structure. The cubic phase corresponds to zero strain and is less stable (higher energy) than the distorted phases.

Table 2Isothermal bulk modulus of CaSiO3 perovskite

T (K)	P <sub>C</sub> (GPa)	K <sub>V</sub> (GPa)	K <sub>R</sub> (GPa)	K <sub>RVH</sub> (GPa)	<i>K</i> ( <i>P</i> , <i>V</i> ) (GPa)
2000	12.8	226.0	226.0	226.0	228.6
3000	19.8	225.1	225.1	225.1	228.4
4000	26.0	235.8	235.8	235.8	224.3
2000	44.5	370.5	367.5	369.0	372.7
3000	51.1	372.0	371.8	371.9	374.3
4000	57.7	367.0	366.7	366.8	376.3
2000	109.6	620.9	620.9	620.9	599.5
3000	116.6	610.7	610.6	610.6	611.7
4000	122.8	607.1	606.4	606.8	609.0

Subscripts V, R and RVH represent Voigt, Reuss, Voigt–Reuss–Hill models.  $K_V$ ,  $K_R$  and  $K_{RVH}$  are calculated from  $c_{ij}$ ; K(P, V) are the calculated pressure change induced by volume strain.

calculated from the single crystal elastic constants and directly from a volume strain. The agreement between the models is within the calculation errors, giving evidence that the results are not affected by ferroelastic transformations.

Table 3
Summary of thermoelastic parameters for CaSiO3 perovskite compared with previous results

Parameter	Wang et al. (1996)	Shim et al. (2002)	This study
$\overline{K_{T0}}$ , GPa	232	236(4)	236.6(8)
<i>K</i> ′ <sub><i>T</i>0</sub>	4.8	3.9(2)	3.99(3)
$\alpha_0, 10^{-5}, \mathrm{K}^{-1}$	3.55(18)	2.2(3)	3.22(16)
$(\partial \alpha / \partial T)_P, 10^{-9}$	[0]	_	6.88(4.0)
$(\partial^2 P/\partial T^2)_V$ , GPa <sup>2</sup> K <sup>-2</sup>	[0]	-	3.3(1.2)
$(\partial K/\partial T)_P$ , GPa K <sup>-1</sup>	-0.036(8)	-028(11)	-036(4)
$V_0$ , Å <sup>3</sup>	729.28	729.28	729.0(6)

[0] represent an assumed zero in the study.

## 5. *P*–*V*–*T* equation of state (EOS)

A goal of this study is to define the P-V-T equation of state of CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite at mantle pressures and temperatures. There are two issues to be addressed: (1) the consistency between the calculated and the experimental data; and (2) within this context, the need for a pressure correction for the GGA calculations. Here we combine the P-V-T experimental data from Wang et al. (1996) with our calculated K-V-T to define one EOS. The EOS parameters of this calculation are listed in Table 3 along with that of Wang et al. (1996) for the P-V-T data alone. The experimental EOS is in good agreement with the combined experimental-theoretical EOS. The comparison underscores the compatibility of the theoretical models with the experimental observations and bolsters our confidence to use the theoretical inferences in the P-T range of the mantle, outside of the region studied experimentally.

An overestimate of pressure due to the GGA approximation has been generally observed (Li et al., 2005; Oganov et al., 2001b; Wentzcovitch et al., 1995). In our previous study (Li et al., 2005), we resolved this issue by correcting the pressure for an Al and Fe bearing MgSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite by fitting the bulk modulus-volume (K-V)results to a Birch-Murnaghan (B-M) relation but with a  $V_0$  fixed by experimental data. The B–M relation was then used to calculate pressure from the V of the model calculation. We found that the GGA pressure overestimated the B-M pressure consistently by 8 GPa, a value which varies little with pressure. This result suggests that the GGA-based calculation is precise in defining state properties as a function of V, but that it overestimates, by a constant value the pressure for any volume. In the current study, this procedure needs to be modified since CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite is unquenchable to room pressure and  $V_0$  has not been measured in a reliable fashion (Wang et al., 1996). Instead, we use an internally consistent set of experimental P-V-T data as discussed above to define the EOS illustrated in Table 3 which in turn is used to calculate P for all of the theoretical V-T points. We find that the pressure defined by the GGA-based calculation is  $9 \pm 1$  GPa higher than the EOS pressure. This value appears to be relatively independent of either pressure or temperature and agrees well with the correction that we concluded for MgSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite. We correct the GGA pressure by this amount throughout the text and refer to the corrected pressure as  $P_{\rm C}$ .

The calculations for state variables that are performed here are for temperatures of 2000 K or higher. Since the ultimate goal is to project these properties into the Earth's lower mantle and not to room temperature/pressure, we define a new reference condition at 2000 K and room pressure. Above, we have established good agreement with the low pressure—low temperature data and obtained a pressure correction for the GGA-based calculations. To calculate the reference state variables we use the  $K_T$  versus  $P_C$  and the V versus  $P_C$  calculations at 2000 K and fit a third order Birch–Murnaghan equation of state solving for  $K_0(2000 \text{ K}) = 171(4)$  GPa,  $K'_0(2000\text{ K}) = 4.75(7)$ , and  $V_0(2000 \text{ K}) = 778(2)$  Å<sup>3</sup>. We will use these values as the reference state in the following sections.

# 6. Thermal expansion, $\alpha$

With the theoretical models in good agreement with low pressure data in defining the room pressuretemperature equation of state parameters, we now turn to define equation of state properties in the pressure and temperature range of the lower mantle. The calculations yield elastic moduli and pressure at three temperatures for each of three volumes. No lattice instability indicating melting occurs even at 29 GPa and 4000 K as the material retains a large and positive shear modulus. Pressure versus temperature for three constant volumes is illustrated in Fig. 4. The slope of the curve  $(\partial P/\partial T)_V$  is equal to  $\alpha K_T$  where  $K_T$  is the isothermal bulk modulus. Thermal expansion  $\alpha$  is thus obtained by  $(\partial P/\partial T)_V/K_T$ . As discussed below, the elastic moduli  $c_{ii}$ , and hence the bulk modulus  $K_T$ , are independent of temperature at constant volume within the uncertainty of these calculations in the P, T region explored. Since  $(\partial P/\partial T)_V$  also appears constant at each volume, the thermal expansion becomes temperature independent at constant volume in the P, T space of these calculations. Thermal expansion at 2000 K as a function of pressure is listed in Table 4.



Fig. 4. Isochoric pressure vs. temperature for CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite.  $P_C$  is the calculated pressure after GGA correction. Data plotted here are for the tetragonal structure only.

Table 4 Thermal expansion  $\alpha$  and Grűneisen parameter  $\gamma$  at pressure and temperature

T (K)	P <sub>C</sub> (GPa)	$V(\text{\AA}^3)$	$\alpha \ (\times \ 10^{-5} \ \mathrm{K}^{-1})$	$(\partial P/\partial T)_V$	γ
2000	12.8	728.52	2.96	0.0679	1.52
3000	19.8	728.51	2.96		1.53
4000	26	728.53	2.96		1.49
2000	44.5	655.37	1.78	0.0667	1.33
3000	51.1	655.38	1.78		1.33
4000	57.7	655.39	1.78		1.33
2000	109.6	572.82	1.1	0.0675	1.18
3000	116.6	572.82	1.1		1.18
4000	122.8	572.82	1.1		1.18

#### 7. Grűneisen parameter, $\gamma(V)$

The Grűneisen parameter,  $\gamma(V)$ , is calculated from the thermal pressure and thermal energy:  $\gamma(V) = P_{\text{th}}(V, T)V/E_{\text{th}}(V, T)$ , where the thermal energy  $E_{\text{th}} = 3(N-1)k_{\text{b}}T$ , with the Boltzmann constant  $k_{\text{b}} = 1.3807 \times 10^{-23}$  J/K, N is the number of atoms in the supercell, N=80 in this study; details of the method are described in (Oganov et al., 2000; Oganov et al., 2001a). At  $T \ge 2000$  K,  $\gamma$  varies little with T. The 0 K intercept of the isochors  $P_0$  in Fig. 4 are used to in defining the  $P_{\text{th}} = P(T) - P_0$ . The calculated  $\gamma$  are listed in Table 4. The dependence of  $\gamma$  with volume is illustrated in Fig. 5. Fitting the relation:  $\gamma = \gamma_0 (V/V_0)^q$ , we obtain  $q = 1.02 \pm 0.05$ .

## 8. Anderson Grűneisen parameter, $\delta_T$

The Anderson Grűneisen parameter,  $\delta_T$ , is given by  $\delta_T = (\partial \ln \alpha / \partial \ln V)_T$ . Fig. 6 illustrates  $\alpha$  as a function of *V* and as a function of pressure at 2000 K, with a curve based on the best fit value of  $\delta_T$  of 4.09 ± 0.05. Since the thermal expansion is, within the uncertainty,



Fig. 5.  $\gamma(V/V_0)$  function. Solid diamonds are the AIMD results. Solid line is the best fit with  $\gamma = \gamma_0 (V/V_0)^q$ , where  $\gamma_0 = 1.53$ , q = 1.0,  $V_0 = 729.0 \text{ Å}^3$ .

independent of temperature at constant volume, this value of  $\delta_T$  is independent of temperature. The adiabatic Anderson Grűneisen,  $\delta_T = \delta_S + \gamma$  can be obtained from  $\delta_T = \delta_S + \gamma_0 (V/V_0)^q$ .

## 9. Single crystal elastic constants

A  $2\sqrt{2} \times 2\sqrt{2} \times 2$  80-atom cell with Pbnm atom positions (Oganov et al., 2001a), was used as the starting structure with the axes length appropriate for a metrically cubic system  $(a=b=\sqrt{2}c)$ . At each pressure and temperature, we calculate the stresses. The dimensions of the box are then varied to produce a hydrostatic stress field. The differences in stresses are also manifest in the differences in the cell parameters in the hydrostatic conditions  $(\sigma_{11} = \sigma_{22} = \sigma_{33}; \sigma_{ij} = 0 \text{ when } i \neq j)$ . The elastic constants are then determined by applying a strain to the sample box and solving for the stress field. Strains of  $\pm 2$  and  $\pm 1\%$  are used with the elastic modulus given by  $c_{ij} = (\partial \sigma_i / \partial \varepsilon_j)$ . The nine elastic constants for 150 K orthorhombic case are given in Table 5.

The elastic constants for the tetragonal phase are presented in Table 6 in the coordinate system of the cubic (aristotype) setting. Even though the hydrostatic crystal



Fig. 6. The thermal expansion vs. pressure and volume. The pressure is projected onto a 2000 K isotherm. Within the computational uncertainty, the thermal expansion depends on pressure and temperature only through volume. The fitted line on both figures represents  $\alpha_0 = 2.89 \times 10^{-5} \text{ K}^{-1}$  and  $\delta_T = 4.1$  with  $V_0 = 729.0 \text{ Å}^3$ .

T (K)	$V(\text{Å}^3)$	P <sub>C</sub> (GPa)	c11 (GPa)	c22 (GPa)	c <sub>33</sub> (GPa)	c <sub>12</sub> (GPa)	c <sub>13</sub> (GPa)	c32 (GPa)	c44 (GPa)	c <sub>55</sub> (GPa)	c <sub>66</sub> (GPa)
150	728.46	8.3	481	484	380	77	165	189	195	191	61
150	648.78	44.5	635	703	623	205	294	251	234	241	104
150	572.78	105.3	964	1060	941	395	468	371	286	314	128
The prese	snted $c_{ij}$ is in or	rthorhombic sett	ing. The errors for	the elastic consta	nts are within 5%						

Elastic moduli  $c_{ij}$  at pressure and temperature

Table 5



Fig. 7. Single crystal elastic moduli *cij* vs. volume for CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite. Data plotted here are for 2000, 3000 and 4000 K and listed in Table 6. The dependences of  $c_{ij}$  on temperature at constant volume are negligible and are not distinguished in the plot.

structure is metrically tetragonal, the symmetry of the elastic moduli is consistent with cubic within the calculation errors. In addition, the dynamics of the tetragonal system is such that the structure may well be cubic on a time scale of a few pico seconds (see the companion paper (Li et al., 2005)). We, thus, restrict further discussion to the 'cubic' elastic moduli taken as the best fit cubic model of the tetragonal elastic moduli.

Fig. 7 illustrates the cubic elastic moduli as a function of volume for all temperatures. At constant volume, the elastic moduli are essentially constant, while they have significant volume dependence. We fit the single crystal elastic constants with a third order Eulerian strain equation of state (Bina and Helffrich, 1992) given by

$$c_{ij} = c_{ij}^0 (1+2f)^{5/2} \left\{ 1 - f \left[ 5 - 3 \left( \frac{\partial c_{ij}^0}{\partial P} \right) \left( \frac{K_0}{c_{ij}^0} \right) \right] \right\}$$
(1)

where  $f = 1/2[(V_0/V)^{2/3} - 1]$ . The fitted finite strain values are compared with the calculated values in Fig. 7. The values of the  $c_{ij}^0$  and their pressure derivatives are given in Table 7 where the reference state is 2000 K and room pressure.

# 10. Velocities

Acoustic velocities are calculated from the elastic moduli. With single crystal properties we are able to define acoustic anisotropy as well as the isotropic aggregate average. Table 8 gives the average acoustic velocities based on the Reuss–Voight–Hill adiabatic bulk properties along with the ratio of the maximum to minimum velocities and the maximum polarization velocity ratio for CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite at the different *P*, *T* conditions.

Table 6 Elastic constants at P-T

T (K)	$V(\text{\AA}^3)$	$P_{\rm C}~({\rm GPa})$	<i>c</i> <sub>11</sub> (GPa)	c <sub>33</sub> (GPa)	$c_{12}$ (GPa)	<i>c</i> <sub>13</sub> (GPa)	c <sub>44</sub> (GPa)	c <sub>66</sub> (GPa)
2000	728.52	12.8	328	320	176	178	190	183
3000	728.51	19.8	326	317	177	174	180	183
4000	728.53	26.0	321	311	189	194	180	188
2000	655.37	44.5	508	583	255	278	237	202
3000	655.38	51.1	551	544	299	273	230	220
4000	655.39	57.7	547	550	301	260	219	220
2000	572.82	109.6	874	911	501	482	296	315
3000	572.82	116.6	866	888	486	475	301	322
4000	572.82	122.8	856	930	478	473	297	314

The presented  $c_{ij}$  are in cubic setting. The conversion from orthorhombic setting (Table 5) to cubic setting is done by  $c_{11} = (c_{11} + c_{12} + 2c_{66})/2$ ;  $c_{12} = (c_{11} + c_{12} - 2c_{66})/2$ ;  $c_{66} = (c_{11} - c_{12})/2$ , the rest of  $c_{ij}$  are unchanged.

Table 7 Isothermal thermoelastic properties at the reference condition of T = 2000 K and P = 0 GPa

	<i>c</i> <sub>11</sub> (GPa)	<i>c</i> <sub>12</sub> (GPa)	c44 (GPa)	$K_{0T}$ (GPa)	$\mu_0$ (GPa)	$V_0$ (Å <sup>3</sup> )	$\rho$ (g/cm <sup>3</sup> )	γ0	q	$\alpha_0 \ (\times \ 10^{-5} \ K^{-1})$	$\delta_T$
X (2000 K)	234.7	128.0	157.1	170.9 <sup>a</sup>	104.7	778.4 <sup>a</sup>	3.965	1.63	1.0	3.78	4.1
$\partial X/\partial P$ (2000 K)	7.5	4.0	2.0	4.76 <sup>a</sup>	1.9						

<sup>a</sup> EOS parameters calculated from *K* and *V* vs. *P* at 2000 K.

Fig. 8 illustrates the longitudinal, bulk, and shear velocities as a function of volume. The results for 2000, 3000, and 4000 K are all included in this figure with the observation that the velocity is independent of temperature at constant volume. We calculate the logarithmic derivative of velocity with respect to volume with the result that:  $(\partial \ln V_P/\partial V)_{T \text{ or } P} = -1.9 \times 10^{-3}$ ;  $(\partial \ln V_S/\partial V)_{T \text{ or } P} = -1.5 \times 10^{-3}$ ;  $(\partial \ln V_{\Phi}/\partial V)_{T \text{ or } P} = -2.4 \times 10^{-3}$ ;  $(\partial \ln V_S/\partial \ln V_P)_{T \text{ or } P} = 0.79$ ;  $(\partial \ln V_S/\partial \ln V_P)_{T \text{ or } P} = 0.63$  indicating that the variations in bulk modulus overpower the variations in shear modulus.

Table 8 Sound velocity  $V_P$ ,  $V_S$  for CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite at pressure and temperature

# 11. Geophysical implications

CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite is third largest component of the lower with most Earth models suggesting an abundance of less than 10%vol. The contrast in properties between CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite and MgSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite ( $\sim$ 80%vol. allow us to examine the role of CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite in constraining lower mantle properties. Listed in Table 9 are the parameters for these two perovskites obtained from this study and from Oganov et al. (2001b) which also used AIMD methods. The listed data for FiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite

T(K)	$P_{\rm C}~({\rm GPa})$	K <sub>S</sub> (GPa)	$\mu$ (GPa)	$V_P (\mathrm{km}\mathrm{s}^{-1})$	$V_{\rm S}~({\rm kms^{-1}})$	$\rho (\mathrm{gcm^{-3}})$	$A_P$	$A_{\rm S}$	A <sub>SH</sub> /A <sub>SV</sub>
2000	12.8	249.2	129.5	9.98	5.53	4.24	1.22	1.61	1.59
3000	19.8	259.4	126.0	10.04	5.45	4.24	1.21	1.59	1.58
4000	26	263.9	117.9	9.97	5.28	4.24	1.24	1.78	1.76
2000	44.5	390.3	190.5	11.7	6.36	4.71	1.16	1.33	1.28
3000	51.1	400.9	182.8	11.7	6.23	4.71	1.11	1.35	1.35
4000	57.7	411.9	180.6	11.77	6.19	4.71	1.1	1.34	1.34
2000	109.6	615.1	255.3	13.31	6.88	5.39	1.09	1.28	1.28
3000	116.6	635.5	256.7	13.47	6.9	5.39	1.08	1.3	1.25
4000	122.8	640.6	258.5	13.52	6.93	5.39	1.09	1.29	1.25
150	-0.7	245.2	135.6	10.03	5.66	4.24	1.23	1.82	1.78
150	35.5	384.5	186.6	11.54	6.26	4.76	1.14	1.53	1.53
150	96.3	603.4	246.2	13.15	6.76	5.39	1.13	1.6	1.57

Adiabatic bulk and shear moduli are  $K_S$  and  $\mu$ .  $A_P$  and  $A_S$  are the ratios between the fastest and lowest velocities for longitudinal and shear wave.  $A_{SH/SV}$  is largest ratio of SH and SV velocities.



Fig. 8. Longitudinal, shear wave and bulk sound velocities vs. volume. Data presented here include 2000, 3000 and 4000 K. Data are listed in Table 7. The fitted solid lines give following results:  $(\partial \ln V_P/\partial V)_{T \text{ or } P} = -1.9 \times 10^{-3};$   $(\partial \ln V_S/\partial V)_{T \text{ or } P} = -1.5 \times 10^{-3};$   $(\partial \ln V_S/\partial V)_{T \text{ or } P} = -1.5 \times 10^{-3};$   $(\partial \ln V_S/\partial I N_P)_{T \text{ or } P} = 0.79;$   $(\partial \ln V_S/\partial I N_P)_{T \text{ or } P} = 0.63.$ 

are interpolated to the *P* and *T* conditions of Oganov et al. (2001b) using the EOS defined in Table 7 and Eq. (1). The table shows that the bulk modulus of CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite can be as much as 10% lower than that of its Mg counterpart. The difference diminishes with pressure and temperature, although remaining above 7% at 3500 K and 88 GPa. The shear modulus of CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite is almost 25% lower compared with MgSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite at 38 GPa and 1500 K. The difference also decreases with pressure and temperature down to about 3% at 88 GPa and 3500 K. The difference in density of these two perovskite is about 3-4% for all conditions.

Based on the density and bulk modulus profiles, Wang et al. (1996) termed CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite invisible. Their extrapolated bulk modulus and density were close to those of the Earth (PREM) implying that major changes

Table 9			
Comparison between the MgSiO <sub>3</sub>	perovskite and	CaSiO <sub>3</sub>	perovskite



Fig. 9. Bulk, shear modulus and density of CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite compared with PREM. Geotherm was taken from Brown and Shankland (1981).

in the amount of CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite does not alter the mineral properties from PREM. Sinelnikov et al. (1998) have suggested that shear modulus of CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite can be quite distinct from PREM based on low pressure studies on analogues. Our calculations allow us to investigate this issue at mantle conditions as illustrated in Fig. 9 where we show the bulk modulus, shear modulus and density projected along a geotherm (Brown and Shankland, 1981) compared with PREM. Both the density and bulk modulus agree well with the projection described by Wang et al. (1996) and differ from PREM by less than 2% throughout the lower mantle. The shear modulus, while close to PREM, is ~10% lower at shallow depths grading to  $\sim 5\%$  by the core-mantle boundary. Thus, the seismic velocity of CaSiO<sub>3</sub> perovskite will be lower (0-6%) than PREM.

While  $CaSiO_3$  perovskite appears to have a small affect on the seismic velocities, there remains the possibility that it can be significant in defining the Q of

Parameters	CaSiO <sub>3</sub> p	CaSiO <sub>3</sub> perovskite						MgSiO <sub>3</sub> perovskite <sup>a</sup>					
P <sup>a</sup> (GPa)	38	38	38	88	88	38	38	38	88	88			
T <sup>a</sup> (K)	1500	2500	3500	1500	3500	1500	2500	3500	1500	3500			
P(2000 K) (GPa)	41.37	34.63	27.89	91.37	77.90								
$V(Å^3)$	660.89	674.194	689.022	590.78	606.121	147.63	150.83	154.08	132.55	136.48			
$K_T$ (GPa)	344.57	318.48	291.74	524.09	477.67	382.70	349.90	332.70	565.70	508.60			
G (GPa)	171.65	161.83	151.69	237.82	220.91	214.30	194.90	166.20	269.70	226.90			
$\rho (\text{g cm}^{-3})$	4.67	4.58	4.48	5.22	5.09	4.52	4.42	4.33	5.03	4.89			
γ	1.38	1.41	1.44	1.24	1.27	1.30	1.37	1.40	1.21	1.26			
$\alpha \; (\times 10^{-5}  \mathrm{K}^{-1})$	1.94	2.10	2.30	1.22	1.36	1.91	2.15	2.26	1.34	1.51			
K <sub>S</sub> (GPa)	358.41	342.08	325.55	535.99	506.50	396.80	375.80	369.50	579.40	542.50			
$V_P ({\rm kms^{-1}})$	11.21	11.04	10.86	12.78	12.54	12.29	11.99	11.69	13.66	13.15			
$V_{\rm S}  ({\rm km  s^{-1}})$	6.06	5.95	5.82	6.75	6.59	6.89	6.64	6.20	7.32	6.81			

 $P(2000 \text{ K}) = P^* - P(\text{thermal}), P(\text{thermal}) = T(\partial P/\partial T)_V.$ 

<sup>a</sup> Are the conditions from (Oganov et al., 2001b).

the lower mantle. Our calculations indicate that this material may be stable in a tetragonal structure involving a small spontaneous strain. Such phases normally exist with domains of different orientations separated by domain-wall boundaries. The domain walls move in response to stress and can be the source of acoustic absorption (Harrison et al., 2003), the greater absorption occurring close to the phase boundary. This could cause strong absorption of acoustic waves in the lower mantle. The clarification of this issue awaits further experimental exploration.

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