1 Revision 2

2 **Re-configuration and interaction of hydrogen sites in olivine at high**

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temperature and high pressure

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ABSTRACT

21 Fingerprinting hydrogen storage sites in olivine at high temperature and high 22 pressure is fundamental to understand water distribution and its impact on the upper mantle. We carried out in situ high temperature and high pressure IR spectroscopic 23 investigations on hydrogen storage sites in the natural olivine and synthetic Fe-free 24 forsterite. Based on *in situ* observations of hydrogen in both the natural olivine and 25 26 synthetic Fe-free forsterite at high temperatures and pressures, we find that hydrogen does not transfer between storage sites with increasing temperature, but displays 27 disordering at temperatures over 600 °C. In contrast, pressure can induce 28 re-configuration of hydrogen storage sites corresponding to the 3610 and 3579 cm⁻¹ 29 bands. Hydrogen storage sites also exhibit disordering at high pressure. In addition, 30 the dehydrogenation experiments of the natural olivine indicate interacts of hydrogen 31 storage sites. Protons released from titanium-clinohumite defects move to pure Si 32 vacancies, and also to Mg vacancies coupling with trivalent cations. This study is the 33

first attempt to fingerprint hydrogen storage sites in olivine at high temperature and 34 35 high pressure using *in situ* IR spectroscopy. The implications of the 36 temperature/pressure-induced disordering and re-configuration of hydrogen storage sites are discussed. The disordering and re-configuration of hydrogen storage sites at 37 high temperature and high pressure favor better understanding water effects on 38 physical properties of olivine. The interactions of hydrogen storage sites during 39 40 dehydrogenation warn that some hydrogen if observed in dehydrated mantle-derived samples may not be original, and also make hydrogen diffusivity complex. 41

42 Keywords: Hydrogen sites, olivine, high temperature, high pressure, *In situ* IR
43 spectroscopy, water, upper mantle

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INTRODUCTION

Water as hydrogen defects can be incorporated and strongly influence physical 45 properties of olivine (Karato 1990; Yang et al. 2015; Faul et al. 2016; Chang et al. 46 47 2017), thereby responsible for physical/chemical processes in the deep Earth (Peslier et al. 2010; Demouchy and Bolfan-Casanova 2016). However, the importance of 48 49 water effects on some physical properties is still controversial (Wang et al. 2006; 50 Yoshino et al. 2006; Costa and Chakraborty 2008; Fei et al. 2013; Faul et al. 2016; Cline II et al. 2018). One of the important reasons may be the complex hydrogen 51 52 storage sites in olivine. At least four incorporation mechanisms of hydrogen have been identified in olivine (e.g., Beran and Putnis 1983; Berry et al. 2005, 2007a, 2007b; 53 54 Walker et al. 2007): hydrogen in pure Si vacancies, hydrogen in Mg vacancies, hydrogen associated with titanium-clinohumite or trivalent cations in tetrahedral or 55 56 octahedral sites. Recently, hydrogen linked to boron and fluoride in synthetic Fe-free 57 forsterite and natural olivine also has been reported (Ingrin et al. 2014; Crépisson et al. 58 2014). Hydrogen with different incorporation mechanisms is expected to have 59 different properties, such as diffusivities (Padrón-Navarta et al. 2014), infrared 60 absorption coefficients (Kovàcs et al. 2010) and solubility (Ingrin et al. 2013; 61 Padrón-Navarta and Hermann 2017). Thus, the water effects obtained from 62 experiments in a regime where one mechanism is dominant may not be directly

compared to those where hydrogen is incorporated by a different mechanism.
Consequently, understanding hydrogen storage sites in olivine is fundamental to
explore water distribution at depth and its impact on mantle dynamics.

A principal advantage of Fourier-transform infrared (FTIR) spectroscopy is that 66 it can fingerprint hydrogen of different incorporation mechanisms. Depending on the 67 crystallographic environment, O-H stretching bands in the infrared spectra will have 68 different frequencies. For example, hydrogen with different incorporation mechanisms 69 has distinct absorption bands in the IR spectra of olivine: the bands at 3630-3400 cm⁻¹ 70 are assigned to hydrogen substituting for Si vacancies (e.g., Lemaire et al. 2004; 71 72 Walker et al. 2007; Kovàcs et al. 2010; Umemoto et al. 2011); the bands at 3300-3100 cm⁻¹ are assigned to hydrogen substituting for Mg vacancies (Berry et al. 2005; 73 Lemaire et al. 2004; Walker et al. 2007); the two prominent bands at 3572 and 3525 74 cm⁻¹ are assigned to hydrogen related to titanium-clinohumite defects (Berry et al. 75 2005, 2007a; Walker et al. 2007); the bands at 3400-3300 cm^{-1} are assigned to 76 hydrogen coupled with trivalent cations substituting for Mg vacancies (Berry et al. 77 2007b). This current knowledge about hydrogen storage sites is mainly obtained from 78 79 the IR spectra of olivine at ambient conditions. Since hydrogen is highly mobile, the 80 migration of hydrogen between lattice sites at high temperature and high pressure may not be quenchable (Karato 2006). Therefore, there arises a question: whether the 81 hydrogen storage sites in olivine obtained from IR spectra at ambient conditions are 82 the same as those at the temperature and pressure conditions of the upper mantle? To 83 84 answer this question and fingerprint hydrogen storage sites in olivine at high temperature and high pressure, in situ IR spectroscopic studies at high temperature 85 and high pressure are indispensable. 86

To date, only one paper has reported the *in situ* IR spectra of hydrogen in olivine at high temperatures to 1100 °C (Yang and Keppler 2011). They suggested that hydrogen corresponding to the 3612 cm⁻¹ band was not stable at high temperature based on its disappearance during heating. However, this explanation was challenged by the theoretical calculations on Fe-free forsterite (Balan et al. 2017; Qin et al. 2018),

92 who argued that a change in the defect geometry with temperature might explain the change of the 3612 cm⁻¹ band without requiring proton migration. The samples used 93 in Yang and Keppler (2011) were synthetic samples using natural olivine, while the 94 calculations of Balan et al. (2017) and Qin et al. (2018) focused on hydrogen in 95 Fe-free forsterite. In addition, except for one report of Raman spectra of hydrogen in 96 Fe-free forsterite at high pressure (Hushur et al. 2009), no paper has reported *in situ* 97 IR spectra of hydrogen in olivine at high pressures. To obtain more meaningful 98 99 information of hydrogen storage sites in olivine at the temperature and pressure 100 conditions of the upper mantle, in this study, we carry out *in situ* high temperature and 101 high pressure IR spectroscopic experiments on natural olivine and synthetic Fe-free forsterite. 102

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MATERIALS AND METHODS

104 Sample description

The natural olivine crystals are from peridotite xenocryst of the Udachnaya 105 kimberlite pipe. The Fe-free forsterite (Fo_{100}) crystals (SZ0410B) were synthesized at 106 107 Bayerisches Geoinstitut by Smyth et al. (2006). The synthesis was carried out in 108 double-capsule experiments in the 5000 ton multi-anvil press at 12 GPa and 1400 °C. The chemical compositions of the natural olivine were determined using an EPMA 109 1600 (Shimadzu) electron microprobe at Zhejiang University (China). The analyses 110 were performed with a 15 kV accelerating voltage, 10 nA beam current and a 5 µm 111 112 beam diameter. Based on the multi-point measurements, the average compositions are 113 as following: 41.6 wt. % SiO₂, 0.02 wt. % Al₂O₃, 0.04 wt. % CaO, 49.64 wt. % MgO, 114 0.06 wt. % MnO, 8.31 wt. % FeO, 0.05 wt. % Cr₂O₃, 0.35 wt. % NiO.

115 High temperature FTIR spectroscopy: In situ and quenched

¹¹⁶ Unpolarized and polarized FTIR spectra in the frequency range 4000-1000 cm⁻¹ ¹¹⁷ were collected using a Nicolet iS50 FTIR spectrometer coupled with a Continuµm ¹¹⁸ microscope at Zhejiang University (China). A KBr beam-splitter and a liquid ¹¹⁹ nitrogen-cooled MCT-A detector were used. A total of 128 scans were accumulated for each spectrum at a 4 cm⁻¹ resolution. The squared aperture size was set between 20×20 and 50×50 μ m according to the sample size. Spectra were collected on the same selected area (core of the crystal) for each sample and background was collected at every temperature.

The natural olivine grain with 213 µm thickness and the synthetic Fe-free 124 forsterite grain with 50 µm thickness were used for the in situ high temperature 125 126 measurements. The natural olivine grain was from the polished peridotite section with random orientation. Both the natural olivine grain and the synthetic Fe-free forsterite 127 grain are un-orientated. The sample was placed on a sapphire plate in an Instec 128 129 HS1300 heating stage with CaF₂ windows. The heating stage was equipped with a resistance heater and an S-type thermocouple. The sample was heated in N₂ to avoid 130 oxidation. The temperature was increased from 20 to 1000 °C using a rate of 15 131 132 °C/min. The sample temperature was determined with an uncertainty of less than 1 °C. For every temperature step, except otherwise indicated, the dwell time was 5 minutes. 133

To compare hydrogen preservation of different storage sites in natural olivine, dehydrogenation experiments were carried out on the natural olivine. Two grains with a thickness of 213 μ m were annealed in the heating stage at a desired temperature of 800 and 1000 °C for different duration, respectively. To avoid oxidation by air, the heating stage was purged with N₂ flux of high purity during the annealing. Then IR measurements were carried out on the samples after quenching to room temperature. Spectra were collected on the same selected area for each sample.

141 In situ high pressure FTIR spectroscopy

The synchrotron infrared spectra from 4000-1000 cm⁻¹ were collected at the Infrared spectroscopy and microscopic imaging beamline (BL01B) at the National Synchrotron Radiation Laboratory (University of Science and Technology of China), using a Bruker VERTEX 70V spectrometer coupled with a Bruker Hyperion 3000 microscope. A KBr beam-splitter and a liquid-nitrogen cooled MCT-A detector were applied. The aperture size was set to 30×30 µm. A total of 128 scans were

148 accumulated for each spectrum at a resolution of 4 cm^{-1} .

149 Hydrostatic high-pressure conditions were generated in a symmetric piston-cylinder-type diamond-anvil cell (DAC) with diamonds of 300 µm culet size. 150 Prior to sample loading, a piece of stainless steel foil was pre-indented in the cell 151 down to a thickness of ~20 µm. A 100 µm diameter hole was then drilled into the 152 gasket. A thin sample section with 30 µm thickness was loaded into the sample 153 154 chamber between two diamond anvils together with ruby for pressure calibration. The 155 sample chamber was then filled with KBr as pressure medium. In the experiments, pressure variations within the samples were monitored with multiple ruby clips near 156 157 the sample. At the peak pressures on compression, these variations did not exceed 158 10% of the total pressure.

159 Data analyses

160 To analyze site-specific temperature dependence of each OH band in the samples, 161 the spectra were deconvoluted into Gaussian components using the Peakfit program (ver. 4.12, Systat Software Inc.). Width, amplitude and frequency of every single band 162 163 were adjustable to obtain the best peak fitting. This method was also applied in 164 previous studies (e.g., Zhang et al. 2007; Yang and Keppler 2011; Yang et al. 2015, 2019). The representative deconvolutions of the spectra are presented in the 165 supplementary materials. Positions of the OH bands at elevated temperature and 166 pressure are listed in Table 1. To obtain the site-specific diffusivities, areas of the OH 167 168 bands after annealing for different duration are listed in Table 2. Based on dimensions of the samples, the site-specific hydrogen diffusivities were obtained using the 169 170 one-dimensional model of diffusion from Ingrin et al. (1995). The ratio of the final to initial peak area was used to calculate the ratio of the final to initial concentration as a 171 172 function of annealing duration.

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RESULTS

174 IR spectra at ambient conditions

175 Polarized infrared spectra of the natural olivine and synthetic Fe-free forsterite 176 collected at ambient conditions are illustrated in Figure 1. The spectra show the typical OH-related absorption bands. For the natural olivine, there are six OH bands at 177 3599, 3572, 3562, 3542, 3524 and 3482 cm⁻¹, with 3572 and 3524 cm⁻¹ bands having 178 a pleochroism different to the 3599, 3562, 3542 and 3484 cm⁻¹ bands. For the 179 synthetic Fe-free forsterite, there are five OH bands at 3610, 3579, 3566, 3552 and 180 3477 cm⁻¹, with 3566 and 3552 cm⁻¹ bands having a pleochroism different to the 3610, 181 3579, and 3477 cm⁻¹ bands. According to previous experimental studies, the OH 182 bands at wavenumbers > 3400 cm⁻¹ can be assigned to hydrogen in Si vacancies 183 (Lemaire et al. 2004; Walker et al. 2007; Kovàcs et al. 2010). It should be noted that 184 the two intense bands at 3572 and 3524 cm^{-1} in the natural olivine are typical of the 185 mantle olivine (Berry et al. 2005). They are assigned to hydrogen related to 186 titanium-clinohumite defects, which involves the formation of Si vacancies containing 187 two hydrogen protons charge balanced by a Ti⁴⁺ cation occupying an adjacent 188 octahedral site (Fig. 1c) (Berry et al. 2007a; Walker et al. 2007). The current 189 theoretical studies on Fe-free forsterite further assigned the bands at wavenumbers > 190 3400 cm⁻¹ to hydrogen in pure Si vacancies with different configurations (Umemoto 191 et al. 2011; Xue et al. 2017; Oin et al. 2018). For example, the 3610, 3579, 3566, 3552 192 cm⁻¹ bands are related to hydrogen with configuration 1, and the 3447 cm⁻¹ band is 193 related to hydrogen with configuration 4 (Fig. 1 in Umemoto et al. 2011). Since 194 hydrogen occupies Si vacancies in both cases for pure Si vacancies and 195 196 titanium-clinohumite defects, we use "titanium-clinohumite defect" indicating MTiH₂O₄ and "pure Si vacancies" indicates M₂H₄O₄ in this paper. 197

198 **I**

In situ high temperature IR spectra

Figure 2 shows evolutions of OH bands in the natural olivine at elevated temperatures up to 1000 °C. With increasing temperature, the OH bands broaden and shift. It can be clearly observed that the 3599 and 3572 cm⁻¹ band progressively shift to lower frequencies while the 3524 cm⁻¹ band does not shift with increasing temperature. At temperatures above 600 °C, the six OH bands completely overlap to one broad band. This broad band does not shift any more, but drastically weakens with increasing temperature to 1000 °C. The six OH bands appear again in the spectrum of the sample quenched from 1000 °C, but with total absorbance decreasing. Moreover, different bands have distinct changes in their absorbances when comparing the spectrum before heating and after quenching. For example, the absorbances of the 3572 and 3524 cm⁻¹ bands obviously reduce, while the absorbances of the 3599 and the 3542 cm⁻¹ bands slightly increase.

Evolutions of OH bands in the synthetic Fe-free forsterite at elevated 211 temperatures up to 1000 °C are illustrated in Figure 3. Similar to OH bands in the 212 213 natural olivine, the five OH bands broaden with increasing temperature. But they exhibit more complex frequency shifts. With increasing temperature, the 3579 and 214 3552 cm⁻¹ bands shift to lower frequencies, while the 3610 cm⁻¹ band does not shift, 215 and the 3477 cm⁻¹ band shifts to higher frequencies. At temperatures above 600 °C, 216 the OH bands completely overlap except the 3610 cm⁻¹ band. These OH bands can be 217 resolved again in the spectrum of the quenched sample from 1000 °C. In contrast to 218 the natural olivine, no difference in OH absorbance has been found between the 219 220 spectra of the Fe-free forsterite at 20 °C before and after quenching, indicating no 221 dehydrogenation occurring during the heating process.

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In situ high pressure IR spectra

Due to the low hydrogen content, IR spectra of the natural olivine in the DAC 223 224 have a very poor ratio of signal to noise (see Fig. S1 in the supplementary materials). Therefore, the *in situ* high pressure IR spectra of OH in the natural olivine can not be 225 measured in this study. Figure 4 displays the IR spectra of OH in the synthetic Fe-free 226 forsterite at elevated pressures up to 10.96 GPa. Although there are interference 227 fringes caused by multiple reflections between a sample and diamond surfaces in the 228 spectra, the general evolutions can be clearly observed. Under compression, all the 229 OH bands broaden. The 3610 and 3552 cm⁻¹ bands shift to higher frequencies, while 230 the 3579 and 3566 cm⁻¹ bands shift to lower frequencies with increasing pressure. 231 Except the 3610 cm⁻¹ band, the other bands at 3579, 3566, 3552 and 3477 cm⁻¹ 232

completely overlap at the pressures higher than 2.76 GPa. Furthermore, the absorbance of the 3610 cm⁻¹ band increases while decreases for the 3579 cm⁻¹ band with increasing pressure. All the changes are reversible when comparing the spectrum before and after compression.

237 IR spectra of the natural olivine after annealing

Evolutions of the polarized IR (E//a) spectra of the natural olivine after being 238 quenched from 800 °C with annealing duration are shown in Figure 5. The intensities 239 of the 3572 and 3524 cm⁻¹ OH bands significantly reduce with annealing duration, 240 while slightly increases for the 3599 and 3542 cm⁻¹ OH bands. Interestingly, the new 241 bands at 3356 and 3327 cm⁻¹ appear with increasing duration. To explore the origin of 242 these new bands, we compare the IR spectra of the natural olivine after annealing for 243 15 minutes at different temperatures (Fig. 5). The spectrum of the sample after 244 annealing at 500 °C is the same as before annealing, indicating that dehydrogenation 245 did not occur at this temperature range. After annealing at 800 and 1000 °C, the 246 intensities of the 3572 and 3524 cm⁻¹ OH bands decrease, the intensities of the 3599 247 and 3542 cm⁻¹ band increase, and the new bands at 3356 and 3327 cm⁻¹ appear in the 248 spectra. Thus, the occurrence of the new OH bands may be new hydrogen defects 249 related to dehydrogenation of hydrogen corresponding to titanium-clinohumite defects 250 $(3572 \text{ and } 3524 \text{ cm}^{-1} \text{ OH bands}).$ 251

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DISCUSSION

253 Disordering of hydrogen sites at high temperature

To quantitatively address hydrogen storage sites at high temperature, we plot frequencies of OH bands in the natural olivine and synthetic Fe-free forsterite as a function of temperature in Figure 6. The data of the synthetic olivine from Yang and Keppler (2011) were included for comparison.

For the natural olivine, the 3599 cm⁻¹ band which is assigned to hydrogen in pure Si vacancies ($M_2H_4O_4$) shifts to lower frequencies with increasing temperature. The

and 3524 260 3572 cm⁻¹ bands which correspond to hydrogen related to 261 titanium-clinohumite defects (MTiH₂O₄) exhibit different frequency shifts. The 3572 cm⁻¹ band progressively shifts to lower frequencies with increasing temperature to 262 800 °C, while the 3524 cm⁻¹ band frequency seems insensitive to temperature at least 263 up to 600 °C. The negative frequency shifts (shift to lower frequency with increasing 264 temperature) of the 3599 and 3572 cm⁻¹ OH bands indicate temperature-induced 265 lengthening and weakening of O-H bonds. The little shift of the 3524 cm⁻¹ band 266 267 suggests that the corresponding O-H bond cannot be easily influenced by temperature. Therefore, although both the 3572 and 3524 cm⁻¹ bands are assigned to hydrogen 268 269 related to titanium-clinohumite defects, their O-H bonds have different local environments. By extrapolation from the evolutions, it can be expected that hydrogen 270 of titanium-clinohumite defects should have O-H bonds with similar strength at 271 temperatures of the upper mantle. Figure 6 suggests that the tendencies of the 3599 272 and 3572 cm⁻¹ band shifts with increasing temperature are similar between the natural 273 274 olivine of this study and the synthetic olivine in Yang and Keppler (2011). Thus, the "M" type of experiment introducing H into pre-existing crystals (metastable 275 equilibrium, Tollan et al. 2018) of the synthesis of olivine used in Yang and Keppler 276 277 (2011) at least preserves the information of hydrogen storage sites related to pure Si vacancies and titanium-clinohumite defects of the natural sample. In addition, the 278 synthetic olivine in Yang and Keppler (2011) contains other hydrogen storage sites, 279 which are not observed in the natural olivine in this study. 280

The OH bands related to pure Si vacancies of the synthetic Fe-free forsterite are 281 different to the natural olivine, probably corresponding to different configurations of 282 283 hydrogen (Umemoto et al. 2011; Blanchard et al. 2017). Hydrogen in Si vacancies with different configurations has different temperature dependences. Similar to the 284 3612 cm⁻¹ band of the synthetic olivine in Yang and Keppler (2011), the 3610 cm⁻¹ 285 band does not shift with increasing temperature. However, the 3579 and 3552 cm⁻¹ 286 shift to lower frequencies, and the 3477 cm⁻¹ band shift to higher frequencies. 287 According to previous studies (Umemoto et al. 2011; Xue et al. 2017; Qin et al. 2018), 288

the 3610, 3579 and 3552 cm⁻¹ bands are related to hydrogen in Si vacancies with 289 configuration 1, and the 3477 cm⁻¹ band is related to hydrogen in Si vacancies with 290 configuration 4. In the configuration 1, one proton (O2-H) is different from the other 291 three protons, pointing away from the $(4H)_{Si}O_4$ tetrahedron. The different temperature 292 dependences between the 3612 cm⁻¹ band and the other two bands at 3579 and 3552 293 cm⁻¹ can thus be explained by their different pointing directions. The thermal 294 expansion of tetrahedron may have little impact on the O2-H which points away from 295 296 the tetrahedron, thereby the O-H bond is not sensitive to temperature. In contrast, the other O-H bonds in the configuration 1 lengthen with temperature-induced expansion 297 298 of the tetrahedron, and the corresponding OH bands exhibit negative frequency shifts. In configuration 4, four protons locate close to the surface of the (4H)_{Si}O₄ tetrahedron, 299 with O1-O2 forming the relatively stronger hydrogen bonding (O-H...O, an attractive 300 interaction between a hydrogen atom from a hydroxyl (O-H) group and a near 301 302 neighbor oxygen atom). Previous work suggested that weakening of hydrogen bonds 303 (O-H...O) will induce a relative strengthening of the primary O-H bonds (Nakamoto et al. 1955; Xu et al. 2013). Thus, the positive frequency shift (shift to higher 304 frequencies with increasing temperature) of the 3477 cm⁻¹ band can be explained by 305 the lengthening and weakening of hydrogen bonds (O1-O2). 306

307 It has been reported that a negative relation exists between the temperature 308 dependence of OH frequencies and their initial frequencies for pyroxene and garnet (Lu and Keppler 1997; Yang et al. 2010, 2012, 2015, 2019). However, we do not find 309 any relationship between the temperature-induced frequency shifts of OH bands and 310 their initial frequencies based on our data in Figure 6. It should be noted that most OH 311 312 bands correspond to hydrogen related to pure Si vacancies in this study. The multiple configurations of hydrogen in pure Si vacancies may disturb that relationship. 313 314 Excluding the hydrogen in pure Si vacancies, the negative relationship still exists for hydrogen related to titanium-clinohumite defects and Mg vacancies. For example, the 315 3572 cm⁻¹ band has a negative frequency shift and the 3524 cm⁻¹ band has zero 316 frequency shift for the natural olivine in this study, while the 3178 and 3151 cm⁻¹ 317

bands corresponding to Mg vacancies have positive frequency shifts for the syntheticFe-free forsterite (Ingrin et al. 2013).

For the natural olivine, the six OH bands corresponding to hydrogen related to 320 pure Si vacancies and titanium-clinohumite defects are resolved at ambient 321 temperature. With increasing temperatures over 600 °C, one broad band exists. The 322 323 one broad band at high temperature can arise from a statistical distribution of hydrogen across multiple environments or hydrogen disordering in the olivine 324 structure. By extrapolating to a temperature of 1000 °C from the linear relationship in 325 Figure 6, the 3599 cm⁻¹ band will shift to 3572 cm⁻¹, the 3572 cm⁻¹ band will shift to 326 3537 cm⁻¹, and the 3524 cm⁻¹ band will remain at this frequency. Some constraints on 327 the hydrogen bonding (O-H...O) environments at room temperature and at 1000 °C 328 can be provided, according to the relationship between OH frequency and O-O 329 distance (Libowitzky 1999). The predicted O-O distances at 1000 °C for the three OH 330 331 bands are similar, about 3.1 Å, 3.0 Å and 2.9 Å, respectively. Thus, the single broad observed at high temperature (1000 °C) is interpreted here band 332 as temperature-induced hydrogen disordering across multiple bonding sites with similar 333 334 O-O distances. For the synthetic Fe-free forsterite, the five OH bands corresponding 335 to hydrogen in pure Si vacancies with different configurations are also resolved at ambient temperature. With increasing temperature up to 1000 °C, the 3610 cm⁻¹ band 336 is still distinguishable, which is in contrast to the conclusion by Yang and Keppler 337 (2011) that this band is not stable at high temperature. Similar to the OH bands in the 338 339 natural olivine, the other OH bands overlap at high temperatures, indicating hydrogen disordering between different configurations. Temperature or pressure-induced 340 341 hydrogen disordering was also expected in the structures of wadsleyite and 342 ringwoodite (Kohn et al. 2002; Panero et al. 2013).

Disordering and re-configuration of hydrogen sites at high pressure

344 Due to the low hydrogen concentration in the natural olivine and the poor signal 345 to noise ratio of the spectra in DAC, we can not explore hydrogen storage sites in it at 346 high pressure. Nevertheless, variations of hydrogen storage sites in pure Si vacancies 347 of the synthetic Fe-free forsterite at high pressure can be deciphered from the IR spectra. Figure 7 shows the frequency shifts of some prominent OH bands with 348 increasing pressure. The 3610 cm⁻¹ band shifts to higher frequencies. However, 349 Hushur et al. (2009) reported that the 3610 cm⁻¹ band shifted to lower frequencies at 350 pressures below 10 GPa and then to higher frequencies at pressures higher than 10 351 GPa. From the Raman spectra in Hushur et al. (2009), we noticed that the intensity 352 signals of this band are very weak, and only three data points are presented for OH 353 354 frequency as a function of pressure below10 GPa, probably hindering the extrapolation of frequency shift with pressure. The positive frequency shift of the 355 3610 cm⁻¹ band is in agreement with compression of the corresponding O-H bonds. In 356 contrast, this O-H bond is not sensitive to temperature as stated before. In agreement 357 with Hushur et al. (2009), the 3579 and 3566 cm⁻¹ bands shift to lower frequencies 358 with increasing pressure. The 3552 cm⁻¹ band shifts to higher frequencies under 359 360 compression, which is contrary to the temperature effect. Thus, this band shift may be 361 caused by the compression of the O-H bonds. It is generally expected that pressure and temperature should have antagonistic effects. However, it is not the case for the 362 3579 cm⁻¹ band in this study. Pressure and temperature have similar effects on the 363 3579 cm⁻¹ band, with negative frequency shift. Therefore, the frequency shift of the 364 3579 cm⁻¹ band with pressure may not be simply interpreted from the variations of 365 O-H bonding length. It also depends on bond angle (Hofmeister et al. 1999). 366

In addition to frequency shifts, intensities of the observed OH modes also change 367 under compression. With increasing pressure, the intensity of the 3610 cm⁻¹ band 368 increases, while the 3579 cm⁻¹ band weakens. The intensity ratio of the two bands 369 increases with increasing pressure (Fig. 7). Hushur et al. (2009) also observed this 370 feature from the Raman spectra of Fe-free forsterite at elevated pressures. They 371 suggested that exchange of hydrogen likely occurred between the octahedral and 372 tetrahedral sites. As mentioned above, the 3610 and 3579 cm⁻¹ bands are assigned to 373 hydrogen in pure Si vacancies of configuration 1, with different O-H pointing 374 directions. Thus, these results may indicate that pressure can induce exchange of 375

376 hydrogen in the pure Si vacancies of configuration 1. This hydrogen exchange is not 377 observed from the IR spectra at elevated temperatures. Moreover, as in the case of the OH bands at high temperatures, the bands lower than 3600 cm⁻¹ also overlap at high 378 pressures, indicating hydrogen disordering in the pure Si vacancies. As a result, it can 379 be inferred that at the temperature and pressure of the upper mantle, hydrogen related 380 to the 3610 cm⁻¹ band should be predominant, with disordering of hydrogen 381 corresponding to the other OH bands. Of course, this is just the case for the 382 383 disordering and re-configuration of hydrogen in the pure Si vacancies of the synthetic Fe-free forsterite with increasing pressure. It is a pity that we do not observe behavior 384 385 of other hydrogen storage sites during compression because of the limited samples in this study. In view of the distinct hydrogen storage sites between olivine and its 386 high-pressure polymorph wadsleyite, it may be expected that pressure will induce 387 re-distribution of hydrogen storage sites in olivine, especially during transition to the 388 389 high-pressure polymorph. To test this conjecture, it should consider how the content (e.g., 390 varies between different hydrogen defects pure Si vacancies, titanium-clinohumite defects and Mg vacancies) as a function of pressure in future. 391

392 Interaction of hydrogen sites during dehydrogenation

393 Based on the dehydrogenation experiments on Ti-doped, Fe-free forsterite, Padrón-Navarta et al. (2014) have reported that the mobility of hydrogen through the 394 proton-vacancy mechanism depends on the type of substitution mechanism, with 395 hydrogen diffusing through the tetrahedral sites significantly slower than through 396 397 octahedral sites. The recent study on naturally hydrated olivine argued that the OH bands at 3650-3500 cm⁻¹ yield similar hydrogen diffusivities, except for one band at 398 3598 cm⁻¹, which yields slower hydrogen diffusivity than the others (Thoraval et al. 399 2018). The dehydrogenation experiments on the natural olivine from the upper mantle 400 401 in this study also reveal different dehydrogenation rates for different incorporation mechanisms (Fig. 5). We plotted absorbances of the deconvoluted bands with 402 annealing duration at 800 °C in Figure 8. With annealing duration, the integral 403 absorbance of the 3599 and 3542 cm⁻¹ bands abnormally increase, and the integral 404

absorbances of the 3572 and 3524 cm⁻¹ bands decrease. We exclude possible changes 405 induced by distinctive absorption along different O-H directions based on the 406 following reasons: First, in this study, the sample was annealed in the heating stage 407 and was not rotated; Second, the polarized IR spectra were collected on the same 408 selected point after quenching the sample to room temperature, with rotating the 409 polarizer to the same angle. Thus, the variations of the integral absorbance shown by 410 Figure 8 reflect dehydrogenation and hydration of the hydrogen storage sites. As 411 stated before, the 3599 and the 3542 cm⁻¹ bands are assigned to hydrogen in pure Si 412 vacancies, while the 3572 and 3524 cm⁻¹ bands correspond to hydrogen related to 413 414 titanium-clinohumite defects. Therefore, the increase of the integral absorbances of the 3599 and 3542 cm⁻¹ band indicates hydration of the pure Si vacancies. In contrast, 415 the decrease of the integral absorbances of the 3572 and 3524 cm⁻¹ band suggests 416 dehydrogenation of the titanium-clinohumite defects. To have an approximated idea 417 about the site-specific hydrogen diffusivity, dehydrogenation rates of the 418 titanium-clinohumite defects were fitted to be on the order of 10^{-13} m² s⁻¹ (Fig. 8). 419

It has been shown that, hydrogen mobility is governed by two mechanisms at 420 421 moderate pressure (< 1 GPa) (e.g., Mackwell and Kohlstedt 1990; Demouchy and Mackwell 2006). One is proton-polaron mechanism, which is fast and involves redox 422 reaction ($Fe^{2+}-Fe^{3+}$). The other is proton-vacancy mechanism, which is slower than 423 424 the first and involves cationic vacancies. At low temperature (< 1000 °C) or short time, proton-polaron mechanism is the first mechanism to lead H incorporation, while 425 426 proton-vacancy mechanism is dominant at higher temperature (> 1000 °C) or longer time. In this study, the dehydrogenation experiments were processed at 800 °C for 427 short time of 270 min. The hydrogen diffusivity (10^{-13}) of the titanium-clinohumite 428 429 defects at 800 °C is in accordance with the hydrogen diffusivity with proton-polaron 430 mechanism. Furthermore, the color of the sample was changed from green to brown with dehydrating. Thus, the mechanism most likely happening in the dehydrogenation 431 experiments of this study is proton-polaron mechanism. Our study shows that there 432 exist interactions between different hydrogen defects. The hydrogen related to 433

434 titanium-clinohumite defects moves to the pure Si vacancies (from MTiH₂O₄ to 435 $M_2H_4O_4$), giving rise to the increase and decrease of hydrogen in pure Si vacancies and hydrogen related to titanium-clinohumite defects, respectively. These processes 436 propose an interpretation at atomic level to the slowest diffusivity of the 3598 cm⁻¹ 437 band observed by previous study (Thoraval et al. 2018). Hydrogen redistributes not 438 439 only between pure Si vacancies and titanium-clinohumite defects, but also from titanium-clinohumite defects to newly created hydrogen storage sites. For example, 440 the new bands at 3356 and 3327 cm⁻¹ occur, co-existing with dehydrogenation of the 441 titanium-clinohumite defects (Fig. 5). The bands at 3356 and 3327 cm⁻¹ are typical of 442 443 hydrogen coupled with trivalent cations in Mg vacancies. Nevertheless, coupling with which trivalent cation is still in debate. For example, Berry et al. (2005) suggested that 444 these bands are associated with Fe³⁺ in mantle-derived olivine. Al was also proposed 445 as one of the trivalent cations contributing to this hydrogen storage sites by Berry et al. 446 447 (2007b). Tollan et al. (2015) demonstrated that a combination of Cr and Fe are most 448 likely responsible for this hydrogen site in upper mantle olivine. The very recent work by Tollan et al. (2018) reported a previously unrecognized role for Na in incorporation 449 of this hydrogen site in natural olivine. Our study found that the occurrence of this 450 451 hydrogen defect is related to the dehydrogenation of the titanium-clinohumite defects. 452 Since dehydrogenation of the Fe-bearing natural olivine usually involves oxidation of Fe^{2+} to Fe^{3+} . The dehydrogenation mechanism of this study also supports the 453 oxidation of Fe^{2+} to Fe^{3+} . Thus, the new bands at 3356 and 3327 cm⁻¹ in this study 454 455 should be diffusion of hydrogen to M site charge-balanced by ferric iron formed during dehydrogenation, in agreement with Berry et al. (2005). 456

Interestingly, the very recent study also reported redistribution between hydrogen storage sites in the olivine from Kilauea Iki (Ferriss et al. 2018). They found that the [Fe3+-H] peak intensity clearly decreased, while the pure Si vacancies peak intensity increased after 8 hour at 800 °C. Although the reactions between sites reported in Ferriss et al. (2018) are different from our study, both studies revealed the interactions of hydrogen storage sites. Conclusively, the interaction of the hydrogen storage sites

in olivine makes the path of a proton released from the crystal complex, results in non-inherent hydrogen diffusivity changing with progressive dehydrogenation, and makes the judgment of the original hydrogen storage sites in olivine at the upper mantle conditions difficult.

467

IMPLICATIONS

Although knowledge about water distributions and its cycle in the deep Earth has 468 469 achieved great progress (e.g., Peslier 2010; Demouchy and Bolfan-Casanova 2016; Peslier et al. 2017; Xia et al. 2018), the importance of water effects on physical 470 471 properties in the deep Earth is still controversial. Different hydrogen storage sites have distinct impacts on the host minerals. However, most studies merely determine a 472 total water content and do not distinguish different hydrogen storage sites in their 473 samples. Obviously, this does not benefit the understanding of the effects of water in 474 475 the deep Earth. For olivine, the most important upper mantle mineral, hydrogen 476 storage sites have been extensively studied (e.g., Berry et al. 2005, 2007a, 2007b; Walker et al. 2007; Umemoto et al. 2011; Xue et al. 2017; Qin et al. 2018). Since the 477 conditions of the upper mantle are not the same as ambient conditions, and most 478 479 experiments of water effects on mineral properties are carried out at high temperature and high pressure, it is indispensable to know hydrogen storage sites in olivine at high 480 temperature and high pressure. Although assignments of some OH bands to Si 481 vacancies or Mg vacancies in olivine are still controversial (e.g., Smyth et al. 2006; 482 483 Walker et al. 2007), our study focuses on variations of the OH bands with temperature and pressure. We report disordering and re-configuration of hydrogen storage sites at 484 high temperature and high pressure, and also interactions of hydrogen storage sites 485 during dehydrogenation. These are vital for understanding water impacts on the deep 486 Earth. 487

Implications of disordering and re-configuration of hydrogen sites at high temperature and pressure

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Dai and Karato (2014) showed by experiment that the mechanism of electrical

491 conductivity of olivine changed with temperature. Based on the model of Karato 492 (2013), they proposed that diffusion of hydrogen in Mg site is the dominant contribution to electrical conductivity at high temperatures (> 900 K), while free 493 protons will dominant at low temperatures. IR spectra are efficient tracers for local 494 environments of hydrogen defects. If free protons at low temperatures transfer to 495 hydrogen in Mg sites at high temperatures, it is expected to be observed from the *in* 496 497 situ IR spectra at elevated temperatures. In the IR spectra of both natural olivine and synthetic Fe-free forsterite from 20 to 1000 °C, we do not find the growth of OH 498 bands corresponding to hydrogen in Mg sites with increasing temperature. This 499 500 suggests that free protons do not transfer easily to bond to oxygen in Mg sites in olivine for the temperature range in this study. However, the local environments of 501 hydrogen storage sites indeed change with increasing temperature. At temperatures 502 over 600 °C, hydrogen storage sites of pure Si vacancies and titanium-clinohumite 503 504 defects in the natural olivine have similar O-O distances and display disordering in the 505 structure. Moreover, except the hydrogen site in pure Si vacancies with O-H pointing away from the Si tetrahedron, hydrogen storage sites in pure Si vacancies with distinct 506 configurations in the synthetic Fe-free forsterite also exhibit disordering at 507 temperatures above 600 °C. At high temperature, the strength of bonding between 508 protons and the surrounding atoms are similar among different hydrogen storage sites. 509 The protons belonging to different sites should thereby have similar mobility at high 510 temperature (e.g., $> 600^{\circ}$ C), but this is likely not the case at low temperature. Thus, it 511 512 is unlikely that the degree of hydrogen disorder in samples quenched to room temperature is the same as that at high temperature. Just as stated in Kohn et al. 513 (2002), although it is now difficult to predict the effect of different degrees of 514 hydrogen ordering on physical properties, it should be taken into account when 515 516 predicting and extrapolating data on physical properties from room temperature measurements. Therefore, the different local environments of hydrogen defects 517 between high temperature and low temperature may be responsible for the different 518 519 activation enthalpy of electrical conductivity between high and low temperature experiments observed by Dai and Karato (2014). 520

521 Pressure and temperature will control hydrogen storage sites in the deep Earth. 522 Nevertheless, it is generally accepted that temperature and pressure have competing effects on O-H bonds. However, this study observed that O-H bond of the 3579 cm⁻¹ 523 band displays the same response to temperature and pressure. Additionally, the O-H 524 bond of the 3610 cm⁻¹ band seems insensitive to temperature but quite sensitive to 525 pressure. At the temperature and pressure conditions of the upper mantle, except the 526 3610 cm⁻¹ band, hydrogen storage sites of the other OH bands display disordering. 527 528 Most importantly, pressure can induce exchange of hydrogen in the Si vacancies of configuration 1 with different pointing directions. At pressures higher than 2.76 GPa, 529 hydrogen site corresponding to the 3610 cm⁻¹ is predominant. The disorder and 530 re-configuration of hydrogen storage sites may impact elastic properties of olivine, 531 which deserve further investigation. In light of the results of this study, it will be 532 important to account for these changes at high temperature and pressure when 533 534 understanding the difference between elastic properties measured at ambient and 535 upper mantle conditions. Indeed, Mao et al. (2010) observed that the elastic wave velocity of hydrogen-bearing Fe-free forsterite is slightly lower than that of the 536 anhydrous forsterite at 1-bar pressure, while a sound velocity crossover occurs around 537 538 3-4 GPa. The pressure range of the crossover occurring is consistent with the pressure at which disordering and re-configuration between hydrogen storage sites happened in 539 this study. Several seismic features interpreted as discontinuities have been reported in 540 the upper mantle (e.g., Kawakatsu et al. 2009; Rychert and Shearer 2009; Tauzin et al. 541 542 2010; Beghein et al. 2014; Hopper and Fischer 2015; Wei and Shearer 2017). However, it is difficult to explain these discontinuities at low temperatures (<1000 °C) 543 based on current models (Karato and Park 2019). Thus, to better constrain water 544 effects on the elastic properties of olivine and further seismic discontinuities of the 545 upper mantle, it is very important to perform simultaneously high P-T measurements, 546 547 which is still very limited and challenging (see Mao et al. 2016 for a review).

548 Implications of interactions of hydrogen sites during dehydrogenation

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The interactions of the hydrogen storage sites in olivine during dehydrogenation

550 make the understanding and estimation of the original hydrogen in olivine at the upper 551 mantle conditions difficult. It has been suggested that titanium-clinohumite defect is 552 the most important hydrogen storage site typical of natural olivine in the upper mantle (Berry et al. 2005). Furthermore, the hydrogen of titanium-clinohumite defect strongly 553 enhances deformation in the dislocation and diffusion creep regime, thereby can play 554 an important role for rheology of the upper mantle (Faul et al. 2016). Because of the 555 relatively quick dehydrogenation rate of water corresponding to this defect, we 556 557 usually observe low amounts of hydrogen in the natural mantle-derived samples, which may be tip of the iceberg of hydrogen of the titanium-clinohumite defects in 558 559 olivine of the upper mantle. This study finds that the lost hydrogen of the titanium-clinohumite defects does not completely release out of the crystal. It can 560 migrate to pure Si vacancies, and also can move to trivalent cation defects. 561 Additionally, Ferriss et al. (2018) also revealed the interactions of hydrogen storage 562 563 sites in the natural olivine: hydrogen in pure Si vacancies may be inherited from [Fe³⁺-H] (trivalent cation defects). Therefore, dehydrogenation and interactions of 564 hydrogen storage sites may be very complex. There may be other reactions among 565 storage sites during dehydrogenation, depending on the chemical compositions, 566 567 hydrogen storage sites and the annealing conditions.

The interactions of hydrogen storage sites should call our attention to further 568 understanding of hydrogen in the mantle. For example, hydrogen of pure Si vacancies 569 may be partly inherited from hydrogen of titanium-clinohumite defects suggested by 570 571 this study, or trivalent cation defects suggested by Ferriss et al. (2018). Dehydrogenation of other sites can induce hydration of the pure Si vacancies, thus, 572 573 supporting the dominant role of pure Si vacancies for hydrogen in olivines at high 574 temperature and high pressure. Moreover, hydrogen of trivalent cation defects may not be original either. It is related to diffusion of hydrogen to M site charge-balanced 575 by ferric iron formed during dehydrogenation. Indeed, Grant et al. (2007) reported the 576 relationship between hydrogen associated with trivalent cation defects and oxygen 577 578 fugacity. Therefore, the occurrence of this band if observed in some natural olivine

might be used as a marker of oxidizing conditions, and also a previous 579 580 dehydrogenation of other hydrogen storage sites. Since OH bands of different hydrogen storage sites in olivine have different IR absorption coefficients (Kovàcs et 581 al. 2010), the interactions of different hydrogen storage sites call into question 582 whether the hydrogen contents and storage sites observed in mantle xenoliths brought 583 up in alkali and kimberlitic magmas are truly intrinsic. Additionally, the interaction of 584 the hydrogen storage sites in olivine makes the path of a proton released from the 585 586 crystal complex and results in complex hydrogen diffusivities. One should therefore be cautious when modeling olivine water storage capacity or bulk mantle water 587 588 content based only on samples containing these features.

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790 Figure captions:

Figure 1. Polarized IR spectra at ambient conditions of the (a) natural olivine and (b)
synthetic Fe-free forsterite. The possible hydrogen sites responsible for the OH bands
are illustrated: (c) titanium-clinohumite defect; (d) pure Si vacancy. The yellow, blue

and gray balls represent oxygen, hydrogen and titanium atoms, respectively.

Figure 2. In situ IR spectra at elevated temperatures of the natural olivine: (a) unpolarized spectra; (b) polarized spectra with the polarizer rotated at 0° ; (c) polarized spectra with the polarizer rotated at 90° . The spectra are normalized to 1 cm⁻¹ thickness and vertically offset. The arrows are to guide the eye.

Figure 3. In situ IR spectra at elevated temperatures of the synthetic forsterite: (a) unpolarized spectra; (b) polarized spectra with the polarizer rotated at 0° ; (c) polarized spectra with the polarizer rotated at 90° . The spectra are normalized to 1 cm⁻¹ thickness and vertically offset. The arrows are to guide the eye.

Figure 4. In situ IR spectra with increasing pressure of the synthetic forsterite: (a) polarized spectra with the polarizer rotated at 0° ; (b) polarized spectra with the polarizer rotated at 90° . The spectra are normalized to 1 cm⁻¹ thickness and vertically offset.

Figure 5. (a) The spectrum of the Si-O overtones of the nature olivine with the 807 polarizer rotated at 0°, indicating that the spectrum was collected close to A axis 808 809 comparing with Asiow et al. (2006); (b) polarized IR spectra with the polarizer rotated at 0° of the natural olivine after annealing at 800 °C for different duration; (c) 810 polarized IR spectra with the polarizer rotated at 0° of the natural olivine after 15 811 minutes of annealing at different temperatures; (d) The possible storage site 812 responsible for the newly occurred OH bands is illustrated: the blue, yellow and 813 purple balls represent hydrogen, oxygen and trivalent cations, respectively. The 814 spectra are normalized to 1 cm⁻¹ thickness and vertically offset. The red dotted lines 815 816 denote the bands of increasing intensity with duration.

Figure 6. Evolutions of OH frequencies with increasing temperature: (a) olivine, the circles and stars represent the natural olivine in this study and synthetic olivine from Yang and Keppler (2011), respectively; (b) synthetic forsterite. The error bars of the frequencies were obtained by performing multiple fitting of the spectra, and are usually smaller than the symbol size. Figure 7. Evolutions of (a) frequencies and (b) intensity ratio of the two intense bands at 3610 and 3579 cm⁻¹ with pressure. The error bars were obtained by performing multiple fitting of the spectra.

Figure 8. (a) variations of the integral absorbances of the OH bands after annealing at 826 800 °C as a function of annealing duration. The error bars were obtained by 827 performing multiple fitting of the spectra; (b) fit of the data for hydrogen diffusivity at 828 800 °C using the one-dimensional model of diffusion. Errors were deduced from the 829 range of diffusivity values which can fit the data.

Figure 9. Illustrations of the interaction of hydrogen storage sites during dehydrogenation with hydrogen released from titanium-clinohumite defects transferring to the pure Si vacancy and trivalent cation defect. The yellow, gray and purple balls represent oxygen, titanium, and trivalent cations, respectively.

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Table 1. OH band positions in the natural olivine and synthetic forsterite at various

temperatures and pressures, and intensity ratios of the 3610 to 3579 cm⁻¹ band at

various pressures for the synthetic forsterite.

T/ °C	Frequency/cm ⁻¹						
	Olivine			Forsterite			
20	3599(0)	3572(0)	3525(0)	3613(0.4)	3579(0.2)	3552(0.2)	3476(0.5)
100	3596(0)	3569(0)	3524(0)	3612(0.4)	3579(0.5)	3544(0)	3476(0)
200	3591(0)	3568(0)	3525(0)	3612(0.4)	3578(0.2)	3540(0)	3477(0.5)
300	3587(0)	3564(1)	3525(0)	3610(0.2)	3575(0.2)	3536(0.4)	3479(0.2)
400	3586(0)	3560(0)	3526(1)	3610(0.2)	3571(0.2)	3533(0.1)	3484(0)
500	3585(1)	3557(0.5)	3527(0)	3611(0.2)	3567(0.4)	3530(0)	3487(0.4)
600	3584(0.6)	3551(0.6)	3523(1)	3613(0.2)	3565(0.5)		
700		3547(0)		3611(0.2)	3565(0.5)		
800		3544(0)		3611(0.2)	3558(0.4)		
900				3611(0.2)	3556(0.4)		
1000					3556(0.4)		
		Forsterite					
P/GPa	Frequency/cm ⁻¹		I _{3610/3579}				
0	3612(0)	3578(0.7)	1.33(0.3)				
0.86	3612(0)	3578(1.4)	1.71(0.5)				
1.71	3612(0)	3577(0)	1.67(0.4)				
2.76	3614(0)	3577(0.7)	2.78(0)				
4.14	3615(0.7)	3576(2.1)	4.60(0.3)				
7.04	3617(0.7)	3573(0.7)	3.42(0.7)				
8.01	3618(0)	3574(2.1)	4.31(0.7)				
9.36	3618(0)	3573(1.4)	4.77(0.9)				
10.96	3619(0.7)	3572(2.8)	4.37(0.6)				

Notes: We only show some prominent OH bands, especially at high temperature/pressure. The band positions and intensities were determined by deconvoluting the spectra (original spectra not normalized to thickness) into Gaussian components using the Peakfit program (ver. 4.12, Systat Software Inc.). The uncertainties in the brackets were estimated by performing multiple fits on the spectra. The deconvolution is presented as an example in the supplementary Figure S2. The deconvolution was performed on the in situ unpolarized IR spectra at various temperatures, and performed on the in situ polarized 0° IR spectra at various pressures.

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Table 2. Integral absorbances of OH bands of the natural olivine after annealing at

860 800 °C for different durations.

Duration (mins)	Ab ₃₅₉₉ (cm ⁻¹)	Ab ₃₅₇₂ (cm ⁻¹)	Ab ₃₅₄₂ (cm ⁻¹)	Ab ₃₅₂₄ (cm ⁻¹)
0	0.31746(0.009)	1.09639(0.129)	0.24427(0.007)	1.30739(0.056)
15	0.33474(0.017)	1.01843(0.095)	0.40989(0.003)	1.01697(0.067)
60	0.38807(0.047)	0.8084(0.081)	0.44474(0.006)	0.98808(0.022)
120	0.45085(0.001)	0.77598(0.009)	0.54574(0.049)	0.88639(0.072)
180	0.4447(0)	0.6976(0.136)	0.47976(0.032)	0.95994(0.040)
270	0.42928(0.032)	0.73(0)	0.6131(0)	0.81919(0)

861 Notes: Integral absorbance of each band was determined by deconvoluting the spectra (original spectra not

862 normalized to thickness) into Gaussian components using the Peakfit program (ver. 4.12, Systat Software Inc.).

863 The uncertainties in the brackets were estimated by performing multiple fits on the spectra. The deconvolution is

864 presented as an example in the supplementary Figure S3.









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